

1 Maximum Likelihood Estimator

- Consistent, asymptotic unbiased. $\hat{\theta}_n^{\text{MLE}} \xrightarrow{\mathbb{P}} \theta_0$.
- Asymptotic normal. $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n^{\text{MLE}} - \theta_0) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{D}} \mathcal{N}(0, I_n)$, $I_n(\theta_0) = \mathbb{E}[-s_\theta] = \mathbb{E}[s_\theta s_\theta^\top]$ fisher info, $s_\theta(x) = \partial_\theta \ln p_\theta(x)$ score func, $\mathbb{E}_\theta s_\theta = 0$.
- Asymptotic efficient. $\hat{\theta}_n^{\text{MLE}}$ reaches CRLB when $n \rightarrow \infty$. $\hat{\theta}_n^{\text{MLE}}$ not efficient if n finite. Stein estimator always better.
- Equivariance, if $\hat{\theta}_n$ is MLE, $\hat{y} = g(\hat{\theta}_n^{\text{MLE}})$ is MLE of $\mathcal{L}(g^{-1}(y))$. Proof by optimality of MLE. Cramer-Rao lower bound (CRLB): for any unbiased $\hat{\theta}$ of θ_0 , $\mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta} - \theta_0)^2 \geq 1/I_n(\theta_0)$

Proof: $\text{Cov}[s_\theta, \hat{\theta}] = \mathbb{E}[s_\theta \cdot \hat{\theta}] = \partial_\theta \mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}] = \partial_\theta \theta = 1$. Cauchy-Schwarz $\text{Cov}^2[s_\theta, \hat{\theta}] \leq \text{Var}[s_\theta] \text{Var}[\hat{\theta}] = I_n(\theta) \mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta} - \theta_0)^2$ QED.

However, when dimension of problem goes to infinity while data-dim ratio is fixed, MLE is biased and the p -values are unreliable.

2 Regression
Bias-Variance trade-off
 \mathcal{D} training dataset, \hat{f} predictive function. $\mathbb{E}_D \mathbb{E}_{Y|X}(\hat{f}(X) - Y)^2 = \mathbb{E}_D(\hat{f}(x) - \mathbb{E}_D \hat{f}(x))^2 + (\mathbb{E}_D \hat{f}(x) - \mathbb{E}(Y | X))^2 + \mathbb{E}_D(\mathbb{E}(Y | X) - Y)^2 = \text{Model Variance} + \text{Bias}^2 + \text{Intrinsic Noise}$.

The optimal trade-off is achieved by avoiding under-fitting (large bias) and over-fitting (large variance). Note that here the variance of output is computed by refitting the regressor on a new dataset.

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Regularization

Ridge and Lasso can be viewed as MAP estimation with a prior on β . Ridge = Gaussian Prior and LASSO = Laplacian prior. Using SVD, we get Ridge has built-in model selection: $X\beta^{\text{Ridge}} = \sum_{j=1}^d [d_j^2/(d_j^2 + \lambda)] u_j u_j^T Y$ (each $u_j u_j^T Y$ can be viewed as a model). Lasso has more sparse estimations because the gradient of regularization does not shrink as Ridge.

3 BLR and GP

Bayesian Linear Regression

$Y = X\beta + \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$. Prior $\beta \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Lambda^{-1})$. Posterior $\beta|X, Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_\beta, \Sigma_\beta)$, $\Sigma_\beta = (\sigma^{-2} X^T X + \Lambda)^{-1}$, $\mu_\beta = \sigma^2 \Sigma_\beta X^T Y$.

Gaussian Process

$Y = \begin{pmatrix} Y_0 \\ Y_1 \end{pmatrix}$ is the combination of observed and prediction value. Assume a Gaussian prior of $\mathcal{N}(0, K + \sigma^2 I)$, where $K_{ij} = k(x_i, x_j)$ is ker-

nel. GP regression is the conditional/Posterior distribution on Y_0 , $\mathbb{E}[Y_1|Y_0] = K_{10}(\sigma^2 I_0 + K_{00})^{-1} Y_0$, $\text{Cov}[Y_1] = \sigma^2 I_1 + K_{11} - K_{10}(\sigma^2 I_0 + K_{00})^{-1} K_{01}$. Bayesian LR is a special case of GP with linear kernel $k(x, y) = x^\top \Lambda^{-1} y$.

Kernel Function

A function is a kernel iff (1) symmetry $k(x, x') = k(x', x)$ and (2) semi-positive definite $\int_{\Omega} k(x, x') f(x) f(x') dx dx' \geq 0$ for any $f \in L_2$ and $\Omega \in \mathcal{R}^d$ (continuous) or $K(X) \geq 0$ (discrete). The latter is equivalent to (1) $a^\top K a \geq 0, \forall a$ or (2) $k(x, x') = \phi(x)^\top \phi(x')$ for some ϕ .

Kernel Construction

If $k_{1,2}$ are valid kernels, then followings are valid: (1) $k(x, x') = k_1(x, x') + k_2(x, x')$. (2) $k(x, x') = k_1(x, x') \cdot k_2(x, x')$. Proof: expand by Mercer's thm. (3) $k(x, x') = c k_1(x, x')$ for constant $c > 0$. (4) $k(x, x') = f(k_1(x, x'))$ if f is a polynomial with positive coefficients or the exp. Proof: polynomial can be proved by applying the product, positive scaling and addition. Exp can be proved by taking limit on the polynomial. (5) $k(x, x') = f(x) k_1(x, x') f(x')$. (6) $k(x, x') = k_1(\phi(x), \phi(x'))$ for any function ϕ .

Example: RBF kernel $k(x, y) = e^{-\|x-y\|^2/2\sigma^2} = e^{-\|x\|^2/2\sigma^2} \times e^{x^\top y/2\sigma^2} \times e^{-\|y\|^2/2\sigma^2}$ is valid. (1) $x^\top y$ linear kernel is valid (2) then $\exp(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} x^\top y)$ is valid, (3) let $f(x) = \exp(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|x\|^2)$, by rules $f(x)k(x, y)f(y)$ RBF is valid.

Mercer's Theorem: Assume $k(x, x')$ is a valid kernel. Then there exists an orthogonal basis e_i and $\lambda_i \geq 0$, s.t. $k(x, x') = \sum_i \lambda_i e_i(x) e_i(x')$.

4 Linear Methods for Classification

Concept Comparison

- Probabilistic Generative, modeling $p(x, y)$: (1) can create new samples, (2) outlier detection, (3) probability for prediction, (4) high computational cost and (5) high bias.
- Probabilistic Discriminative, modeling $p(y | x)$: (1) probability for prediction, (2) medium computational cost and (3) medium bias.
- Discriminative, modeling $y = f(x)$: (1) no probability for prediction, (2) low computational cost and (3) low bias.

Infer $p(x, y)$ for classification problems

Use $p(x, y) = p(y)p(x | y)$. Since y has finite states, model $p(y)$ and $p(x | y)$ for different y . The modeling requires to (1) guess a distribution family and (2) infer param by MLE.

Compute $p(y | x)$ by discriminant analysis (DA)

Linear DA Assumption: classify a sample into two Gaussian distribution with $\Sigma_0 = \Sigma_1$. After calculation, $p(y = 1 | x) = 1/(1 + \exp(-\log \frac{p(x|y=1)p(y=1)}{p(x|y=0)p(y=0)})) = 1/(1 + \exp(w_1^\top x + w_0))$ since the quadratic term is eliminated due to $\Sigma_0 = \Sigma_1$.

Quadratic DA Assumption: classify a sample into two Gaussian distribution with $\Sigma_0 \neq \Sigma_1$. After calculation, $p(y = 1 | x) = 1/(1 + \exp(x^\top W x + w_1^\top x + w_0))$.

Optimization Methods

Optimal Learning Rate for Gradient Descent

Goal: find $\eta^* = \text{argmin}_\eta L(w^k - \eta \cdot \nabla L(w^k))$.

By Taylor expansion of $L(w^{k+1})$ at w^k and solve for the optimal η , we get $\eta^* = \|\nabla L(w^k)\|^2 / (\nabla L(w^k)^\top H_L(w^k) \nabla L(w^k))$.

Cons of naive gradient descent: (1) zig-zag behavior, especially in a very narrow, long and slightly downward valley; (2) gradient update is small near the stationary point. Mitigated by adding momentum into update, $w^{k+1} = w^k - \eta \nabla L(w^k) + \mu^k (w^k - w^{k-1})$, this speeds update towards "common" direction.

Newton's Method

Taylor-expand $L(w)$ at w_k to derive the optimal w^{k+1} : $L(w) \approx L(w^k) + (w - w^k)^\top \nabla L(w^k) + \frac{1}{2}(w - w^k)^\top H_L(w^k)(w - w^k) \Rightarrow w^{k+1} = w^k - H_L^{-1}(w^k) \nabla L(w^k)$.

Pros: (1) better updates compared to GD since it uses the second Taylor term and (2) does not require learning rate.

Cons: requires H_L^{-1} which is expensive.

Bayesian Method

In most cases, the posterior is intractable. Use approximation of posterior instead.

Laplacian Method

Idea: approximate posterior near the MAP estimation with a Gaussian distribution. $p(w | X, Y) \propto p(w, X, Y) \propto \exp(-R(w))$, where $R(w) = -\log p(w, X, Y)$. Let $w^* = \text{argmin} R(w)$ be the MAP estimation and Taylor-expand $R(w)$ at w^* : $R(w) \approx R(w^*) + \frac{1}{2}(w - w^*)^\top H_R(w^*)(w - w^*)$. Therefore, $p(w | X, Y) \propto \exp(-R(w^*) - \frac{1}{2}(w - w^*)^\top H_R(w^*)(w - w^*))$ and thus $(w | X, Y) \sim \mathcal{N}(w^*, H_R^{-1}(w^*))$.

AIC & BIC

- Define $\text{BIC} = k \log N - 2 \log \hat{L}$, where k is #parameters and \hat{L} is the likelihood $p(x | w^*)$. A lower BIC means a better model.

- Define $\text{AIC} = 2k - 2 \log \hat{L}$. A lower AIC means a better model.

LDA by loss minimization

Perceptron for $y_i \in \{0, 1\}$, find w , s.t. $y_i w^\top x_i > 0$ for any i . Prediction is $c(x) = \text{sgn}(w^\top x)$.

$\text{Loss} L(y, c(x)) = \min\{0, -y w^\top x\}$. By GD $w^{(k+1)} \leftarrow w^{(k)} + \eta(k) \sum_i \text{wrong } y_i x_i$, Perceptron will converge if (1) data linearly separable, (2) learning rate $\eta(k) > 0$, (3) $\sum_k \eta(k) \rightarrow +\infty$ and (4) $(\sum_k \eta(k)^2) / (\sum_k \eta(k))^2 \rightarrow 0$. However, multiple solutions permitted if data linearly separable, solution unstable.

Fisher's LDA

Idea: project the two distribution into one dimension and maximize the ratio of the variance between the classes and the variance within the classes, i.e., $\max(w^\top u_1 - w^\top u_0)^2 / (w^\top S w)$, where $S = \Sigma_0 + \Sigma_1$. Let gradient be zero and solve for w^* , we get $w^* \propto S^{-1}(u_1 - u_0)$.

We first compute w^* and fit distributions of the two-class projection. Then apply Bayesian decision theory to make classification.

5 Optimization with Constraint

Problem $\min_x f(x)$ s.t. $g_i \in [I](x) \leq 0$ and $h_j \in [J](x) = 0$. Solve it with **KKT Cond**: (1) Stationary $\nabla f + \sum_i \lambda_i \nabla g_i + \sum_j \mu_j \nabla h_j = 0$, (2) $h_j(x) = 0$, (3) primal feasibility $g_i(x) \leq 0$, (4) dual feasibility $\lambda_i \geq 0$, (5) complementary slackness $\lambda_i g_i(x) = 0$.

Weak Duality: Lagrangian $L(x, \lambda, \mu) = f(x) + \lambda^\top g(x) + \mu^\top h(x)$, $\lambda > 0$. Dual function $F(\lambda, \mu) := \min_x L(x, \lambda, \mu)$. Denote \tilde{x} optima of original problem, then $\lambda^\top g(\tilde{x}) + \mu^\top h(\tilde{x}) \leq 0, \forall \lambda, \mu$, $F(\lambda, \mu) = \min_x L(x, \lambda, \mu) \leq L(\tilde{x}, \lambda, \mu) \leq f(\tilde{x}) = \min_{x, h(x)=0, g(x) \leq 0} f(x)$

Strong Duality in Convex Optimization

If **Slater's cond** (1) f convex (2) g convex (3) h linear (4) $\exists \bar{x}$ s.t. $g_i(\bar{x}) < 0$ and $h_j(\bar{x}) = 0$, then Strong Duality $\max_{\lambda, \mu} F(\lambda, \mu) = \min_{x, h(x)=0, g(x) \leq 0} f(x)$ holds.

6 Support Vector Machine

Linear Separable Case

Primal: $\max_{w, b} \left\{ \frac{1}{\|w\|} \min_i y_i (w^\top x_i + b) \right\} \Leftrightarrow \max_{w, b, t} t$ s.t. $\forall i, t \leq y_i (w^\top x_i + b)$ and $\|w\| = 1 \Leftrightarrow \min_{w, b} \frac{1}{2} w^2$ s.t. $\forall i, 1 \leq y_i (w^\top x_i + b)$
(1) **KKT cond:** $\forall i, \alpha_i \geq 0, (1 - y_i (w^\top x_i + b)) \leq 0, \alpha_i (1 - y_i (w^\top x_i + b)) = 0$
(2) **Dual:** $\max_\alpha \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i, j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(x_i, x_j)$ s.t. $(\alpha_i \geq 0) \wedge (\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0)$

Define $(\partial_A f)_{ij} := \partial_{a_{jif}}$, then (4) $\partial_A \text{Tr}(BA) = \partial_A \text{Tr}(AB) = B$, (5) $\partial_A \ln \det A = A^{-1}$, (6) $\partial_A \text{Tr}(ABA^\top) = (B + B^\top)A^\top$, $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma) = (2\pi)^{-d/2} |\Sigma|^{-1/2} e^{-(x-\mu)^\top \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)/2}$, Conditional $\mathbb{E}[y_2 | y_1] = \mu_2 + \Sigma_{21} \Sigma_{11}^{-1} (y_1 - \mu_1)$, $\text{Cov}[y_2 | y_1] = \Sigma_{22} - \Sigma_{21} \Sigma_{11}^{-1} \Sigma_{12}$. Marginal $\mathbb{E}(y_2) = \mu_2$, $\text{Cov}[y_2] = \Sigma_{22}$ $(A + UC^{-1}V)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}U(C + VA^{-1}U)^{-1}VA^{-1}$. Markov $\mathbf{P}\{X \geq \epsilon\} \leq \mathbb{E}[X]/\epsilon$. Hoeffding (1) $\mathbb{E}[X] = 0, X \in [a, b], \mathbb{E}[\exp(sX)] \leq \exp(s^2(b-a)^2/8)$ (2) $X_i \in [a_i, b_i], S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \mathbf{P}\{S_n - \mathbb{E}X_n \leq t\} \leq \exp(-t^2/\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2)$