0.1 Coursera

Week 1

Machine Learning algorithms: Supervised learning Unsupervised learning Reinforcement Learning Recommender systems

Supervised Learning based on right answers Regression problem: predict continuous valued output (price) Classification problem: output value of 0 or 1 To describe the supervised learning problem slightly more formally, our goal is, given a training set, to learn a function h: X - i Y so that h(x) is a good predictor for the corresponding value of y. For historical reasons, this function h is called a hypothesis. Seen pictorially, the process is therefore like this:

Unsupervised Learning Unsupervised learning allows us to approach problems with little or no idea what our results should look like. We can derive structure from data where we don't necessarily know the effect of the variables.

We can derive this structure by clustering the data based on relationships among the variables in the data.

With unsupervised learning there is no feedback based on the prediction results. Not told what to do -¿ find some structure in data Clustering Algorithm not give the algorithm the right answers Cocktail party problem: take a data that seems dated together and separate them (two audio sources),

Hypothesis Function

Cost Function Cost Function measures the accuracy of our hypothesis function.

Gradient descent Algorithm Optimize parameters in hypothesis function to minimize the cost function Convex functions has only a global optima, no local optima (good for working with) "Batch" gradient descent: each step of gradient descent uses all the training examples

Learning rate Controls how big the step is in the optimization process

Week 2

Fix a notation thorughout the work m -; the number of training examples i n -; the number of features j $x_j^{(i)}$

i = 1, ..., m

j = 0, ..., n i are the lines and j the columns. Gradient descent for multiple variables

Feature scale mean normalize data to converge faster (do not apply to inserted x_0 that equals 1 for example). Adjust input values as shown in this

formula.

$$x_i := \frac{x_i - \mu_i}{s_i} \tag{1}$$

where μ_i is the average of all values for feature (i) and s_i is the range of values $(max(x_i) - min(x_i))$ or the standard deviation of a given feature i. get all features between -1 and 1 range or 0 and 1

Gradient descent $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$

$$\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta) \tag{2}$$

works well when n is large

Vectorized implementation of Gradient descent $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$

$$\theta := \theta - \frac{\alpha}{m} X^T (g(X\theta) - Y) \tag{3}$$

Learning rate how to choose: look graph min J vs No. of iterations. It should decrease at every iteration.

Polynomial regression Create new features to fit a polynomial regression to a linear regression. E.g.

$$x_0 = (feature) \tag{4}$$

$$x_1 = (feature)^2 (5)$$

Analytic solution (faster convergence) The value of $\theta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$ (normal equation) gives the optimal value of θ that minimizes $J(\theta)$ and doesn't need feature scaling. Don't need to iterate nor choose α . Compute the inverse costs a lot $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$. So it is preferably to use if n is small over the iterative method. Noninvertibility: pinv - ξ pseudo inverse: calculates the value of the inverse even if it is non inversible.

Week 3

Classification problem: take a bunch of data and outputs discrete values multi class: several discrete outcomes binary class: 2 outputs (0,1)

Logistic regression (classification algorithm): output is always between 0 and 1. sigmoid function or logistic function: $g(z) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-z}}$. Hypothesis: $h(x) = g(\theta^T x)$ maps any real number to the (0,l) interval. h(x) will give the probability that our output is 1.

Decision boundary: line where the hypothesis equals to 0.5. Separates 2 regions, greater than and less than 0.5 to the hypothesis function. The

decision boundaries can be linear or not. The decision boundary is a property of the hypothesis function. The greater the order of the polynomial, the more complex is the shape.

Cost function: find a function that is convex to arrive in a global minimum.

Optimization algorithms:

- Gradient descent
- Conjugate gradient
- BFGS
- L-BFGS

No need to manually pick α in the 3 last algorithms. They are fasten than gradient descent. However, they are more complex

Multiclass classification One vs all (one vs rest)

Avoid overfitting: doesn't add too much features, otherwise the training data will not predict well values. The cost function is almost zero to the training example. To fight this problem: reduce the number of features (select which features to keep), regularization (keep all features but reduce the magnitude of parameters theta), Regularization works well when we have a lot of slightly useful features. Add a regularization term in the end of the cost function. A regularization parameter is set to make a trade off between how well the data is fitted and weakening the parameters theta.

In the end we have a regularized linear regression that works much better than the regular one. It even avoid that the normal equation is non-reversible. The calculus is the same, but we add an extra term to the cost function. To calculate the gradient descent, one must actualize the value of theta 0 and of others thetas, since the added sum takes from indexes 1 to n. The value of theta 0 is known as bias.

Regularized cost function:

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{n=1}^{m} (h(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 + \lambda \sum_{n=1}^{m} \theta_j^2$$
 (6)

Cost Function in logistic regression

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Week 4 - Neural Networks

Neural network: more efficient way to learn complex hypothesis.

Model 1 representation:

• Dendrite: input wires

• Axon: output wire

• Cell body: do computations

• axon send info to another neuron

Hypothesis function = activation function

 $\theta = \text{parameters} = \text{weights}$

Layers: first layer: input layer, last layer: output layer, hidden layer: values you don't observe between the input and output.

Notation: Θ^j - matrix of weights controlling function mapping from layer j to layer j+1. The dimension is equal to $s_{j+1} \times (s_j+1)$. The index +1 takes into account the bias added to the inputs and to the computed layer.; $a_i^{(j)}$ - activation of unit i in layer j;

Model Representation II Vectorized: forward propagation:

$$z^{(j)} = \Theta^{(j-1)} a^{j-1} \tag{7}$$

$$a^{(j)} = g(z^{(j)}) \tag{8}$$

Last layer:

$$z^{(j+1)} = \Theta^{(j)} a^j \tag{9}$$

$$a^{(j+1)} = g(z^{(j+1)}) = h_{\Theta}(x)$$
(10)

The away a NN is connected is called an architecture. The first layers computes task of a certain complexity that increases when we go deeper into the network. The last layer usually computes the most demanding task.

Multiclass Classification To classify data into multiple classes, we let our hypothesis function return a vector of values.

Task 3: Multi-class Classification and Neural Networks (matlab)

The training examples of a training set must be independent!

Week 5

Backpropagation. "Backpropagation" is neural-network terminology for minimizing our cost function

Generalized linear regression for neural networks

$$J(\Theta) = -\frac{1}{m} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{K} y_k^{(i)} log(h_{\Theta}(x^{(i)}))_k + (1 - y_k^{(i)}) log(1 - h_{\Theta}(x^{(i)}))_k \right] + \frac{\lambda}{2m} \sum_{l=1}^{L-1} \sum_{i=1}^{s_l} \sum_{j=1}^{s_{l+1}} (\Theta_{ij}^{(j)})^2$$
(11)

where L = total number of layers in the network, sl = number of units (not counting bias unit) in layer l, K = number of output units/classes.

We denote $h_{\Theta}(x)_k$ as being a hypothesis that results in the k^{th} output.

We have added a few nested summations to account for our multiple output nodes.

The number of columns in our current theta matrix is equal to the number of nodes in our current layer (including the bias unit). The number of rows in our current theta matrix is equal to the number of nodes in the next layer (excluding the bias unit).

- the double sum simply adds up the logistic regression costs calculated for each cell in the output layer
- \bullet the triple sum simply adds up the squares of all the individual Θ s in the entire network.
- the i in the triple sum does not refer to training example i

The back-propagation algorithm is used to minimize J. So we need to compute J and the partial derivatives of J. We compute the delta error for each layer (but the input layer because we set $a^{(1)} = x^{(i)}$), beginning in the last layer, where: $\delta_j^L = a_L^l - y_j$, $\delta_j^{l-1} = (\Theta^{l-1})^T \delta^{(l+1)} \cdot *g'(z^{(l-1)})$, $g'(z^{(l-1)}) = a^{(l-1)} \cdot *(1 - a^{(l-1)})$. Step by step

- 1. Training set $\{(x^1, y^{(1)}), ..., (x^m, y^{(m)})\}$.
- 2. $\Delta_{ij}^l = 0$ for all l, i, j. (Useful to compute $\frac{\partial}{\partial \Theta_{ij}^{(l)}} J(\Theta)$)
- 3. $\delta_i^{l-1} = (\Theta^{l-1})^T \delta^{(l)} \cdot *g'(z^{(l-1)})$

4.
$$g'(z^{(l-1)}) = a^{(l-1)} \cdot * (1 - a^{(l-1)})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{1. For } i &= 1 \text{ to } m \\ \text{Set } a^{(1)} &= x^{(i)} \\ \text{Perform forward propagation to compute } a^{(l)} \text{ for } l = 2, 3, ..., L \\ \text{Using } y^{(i)}, \text{ compute } \delta^{(L)} &= a^{(L)} - y^{(i)} \\ \text{Compute } \delta^{(L-1)}, ..., \delta^{(2)} \text{ where } \delta^{l-1}_j &= (\Theta^{(l-1)})^T \delta^{(l)}. * g'(z^{(l-1)}). \\ \text{Compute } \Delta^{(l)} &:= \Delta^{(l)} + \delta^{(l+1)} (a^{(l)})^T \end{aligned}$$

- 2. Compute $D^{(l)} := \frac{1}{m} (\Delta^{(l)} + \lambda \Theta^{(l)})$ if $j \neq 0$.
- 3. Compute $D^{(l)}:=\frac{1}{m}\Delta^{(l)}$ if j=0 (bias term).

4.
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \Theta_{ij}^{(l)}} J(\Theta) = D_{ij}^{(l)}$$

So in general you do a forward propagation with a training example, than a back propagation with the same training example, than changes the training example and repeats.

Implement gradient checking for make sure that forward and backpropagation are working correctly. After you know they are working, comment the code.