CutSize = J = 1/4 
$$\sum_{i,j} (q_1 - q_j)^2 w_{ij}$$

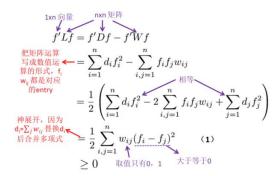
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} q_i^2 = n$$

$$J = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i,j} (q_i - q_j)^2 w_{i,j} = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{j,j} (q_i^2 + q_j^2 - 2q_i q_j) w_{i,j}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i} 2q_i^2 \left( \sum_{j} w_{i,j} \right) - \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i,j} 2q_i q_j w_{i,j}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} q_i^2 d_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} q_i q_j w_{i,j} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} q_i \left( d_i \delta_{i,j} - w_{i,j} \right) q_j$$

$$J = 1/2 \mathbf{q}^T (\mathbf{D} - \mathbf{W}) \mathbf{q}$$



MinCut: bipartite graphs with minimal number of cut edges.

- Objective #1: minimize inter-cluster connections
- ☐ Min cut (A, B)
- Objective #2: maximize intra-cluster connections
- ☐ Max vol (A, A) and vol (B, B)
- Overall objective, to minimize

$$J_{NCut}(A,B) = Cut(A,B) \left( \frac{1}{vol(A)} + \frac{1}{Vol(B)} \right)$$

■ Solution: the 2<sup>nd</sup> smallest eigenvector of

$$(D-W)y = \lambda Dy$$
  
 $L_{NCut} = D^{-1/2}(D-W)D^{-1/2}$ 

- Variants
- RatioCut J<sub>RatioCut</sub>(A,B) = Cut(A,B) 1 + 1 | IA| + 1 | IB|
- $\label{eq:MinMaxCut} \begin{aligned} & \mathsf{MinMaxCut} & & \\ & & J_{\mathsf{MinMaxCut}}(A,B) = \mathsf{Cut}(A,B) \end{aligned}$

#### what the disadvantages of bi-partitioning:

always 2<sup>n</sup>, inefficient, unstable, unbalanced issue, part of clusters very large, part of cluster very small.

# FFN: Why multiple layers

- -Automatic feature/representation learning
- -Learn complicate (nonlinear) mapping function

Conv net, input: N X N X D, L number of K X K X D kernels, Stride S.

### feature map shape:

floor(N-K) / S + 1, floor(N-K) / S + 1, L

Key Difference: CNNs: localized (by convolution)

RNNs: (in principle) capture long-term dependence (by recurrence)

## CNN layer order: nonlinear activation --> pooling

Pool hidden units in the same neighborhood:

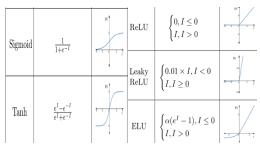
Introduces invariance to local translations

Reduces the number of hidden units in hidden layer

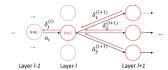
#### why can't we initialize weight with constant?

This means that the all neurons will output the same value, even after

being updated. Therefore initializing every column in your weight matrices with a constant effectively reduces the effective number of neurons in a each laver to 1.



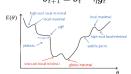
## **Gradient Computation: Backpropagation**



- ullet The gradient of  $w_{ij}$  in the lth layer (corresponding to unit j in layer I, connected to unit i in layer I-1) is a function of
- ullet All 'error' terms from layer l+1  $\delta_k^{(l+1)}$  -- An auxiliary term for computation, not to be confused with gradients
- Output from unit i in laver I-1 (input to unit i in laver I) -- Can be stored at the feed
- ullet The 'error' terms  $\delta_i^{(l)}$  is a function of
- ullet All  $\delta_k^{(l+1)}$  in the layer l+1, if layer ullet is a hidden layer
- ☐ The overall loss function value, if layer I is the output layer
- We can compute the error at the output, and distribute backwards throughout the network's layers (backpropagation)

# **Key Challenges**

- Optimization Problem in Deep Learning
- $E(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{l=1}^{m} \text{Loss}(\hat{T}(X^{l}, \boldsymbol{\theta}), T^{l})$
- ☐ Minimize the (approximated) training error *E*
- (Stochastic) gradient descent to find the model parameter  $m{ heta}_{t+1} = m{ heta}_t \eta m{g}_t$
- Challenge 1: Optimization
- ☐ E is non-convex in general
- How to find a high-quality local optima



- ☐ Challenge 2: Generalization
- What we do: minimize (approximated) training error
- ☐ What we really want: minimize the generalization error
- How to mitigate over-fitting

high-cost local minimal/cliff/local maximal/

Plateau; it is where the gradient is almost zero and the gradient

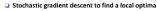
descent may become quite slow.

Saddle point: it is where the gradient is zero and the gradient

descent will be completely trapped.

- Saturation of Sigmoid Activation Function
- ☐ The derivative  $\frac{\partial O}{\partial I} = O(1 O)$
- The error of an output unit  $\delta_j = O_j (1 O_j) (O_j T_j)$ ☐ Saturation of Sigmoid Activation Function
- $\ \ \square$  If  $O_j\approx 1 \ {\rm or} \ O_j\approx 0$  , both derivative and error will be close to 0
- □ Further exacerbated due to backpropagation → gradient vanishing → B.P. is stuck or takes long time to terminate
- ☐ A More Responsive Activation Function: Rectified Linear Unit (RELU)
- □ The output O=f(I)=I if I>0, O=0 otherwise
- The gradient:  $\frac{\partial O}{\partial I}=1 \text{ if } I>0 \text{ and } \frac{\partial O}{\partial I}=0$ The error: 0 if the unit is inactive (I<0), otherwise, aggregate all error terms from the units in the next higher layer the unit is connected to, w/o decaying → avoid gradient vanishing

#### **Adaptive Learning Rate**



ullet Default choice for  $\eta$ : a fixed, small positive constant  $oldsymbol{ heta}_{t+1} = oldsymbol{ heta}_t - \eta oldsymbol{g}_t$ 

□ Problems: slow progress, or jump over 'gradient cliff', or oscillation

#### ullet Adaptive learning rate: let $\eta$ change over epoch

□ Strategy #1:  $\eta_t = \frac{1}{t}\eta_0$ 

 $\square$  Strategy #2:  $\eta_t = (1 - \frac{t}{T})\eta_0 + \frac{t}{T}\eta_\infty$  if  $t \le T$  and  $\eta_t = \eta_\infty$ 

☐ Intuitions: smaller adjustment as algorithm progresses

 $\ \, \square \,\, e.\,g.,\,\,\eta_0=0.9;\,\eta_\infty=10^{-9}$ 

Strategy #3 (AdaGrad):  $\eta_t = \frac{1}{\rho + r_i} \eta_0$   $r_i = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{t-1} g_{i,k}^2}$ 

 $\Box$  Intuition: The magnitude of gradient  $g_t$ : indicator of the overall progress

Strategy #4 (RMSProp): exponential decaying weighted sum of squared historical gradients

No, it will produce the same output for each node regardless of the node ordering.

From the spatial aspect, the GCN output of a node x(i) can be written as:

$$x(i) = w_{ii}x(i) + \sum_{j \in N(i)} w_{ij}x(j)$$

The convolution operation aggregates the information from nerightboring node, which is insensitve to the node ordering.

#### Why does Dropout Work?

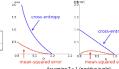
Dropout can be viewed as a regularization technique

Dropout: the model parameters of the current dropout network are updated based on that of the previous dropout

network(s)

## Cross Entropy

- ☐ Measure the disagreement between the actual (T) and predicted (O) target values
- For regression: mean-squared error
- □ For (binary) classification: cross-entropy ☐ Mean-squared error vs. Cross-entropy
- Loss  $\frac{1}{2}(T O)^2$ Proof  $\delta$  O(1 O)(T O) $-T \log O - (1 - T) \log (1 - O)$



## Cross-entropy for Multiclass Problem

- $\begin{array}{ccc} \square \text{ Actual target} & T = (T_1, T_2, ..., T_C) \\ \square & \text{Predicted output} & O = (O_1, O_2, ..., O_C) \\ \end{array}$

$$Loss(T, O) = -\sum_{j=1}^{C} T_j \log O_j$$

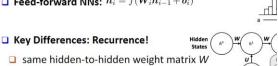
# Turning point happens at 1/3

- Why not deep MLP (or feed-forward neural network)?
- ☐ Deep multilayer perceptrons are computationally expensive, and hard to train.
- ☐ Long training time, slow convergence, local minima
- Motivations of convolution
- Sparse interactions
- Parameter sharing
- Translational equivalence
- ☐ The properties of CNNs are well aligned with properties of many forms of data (e.g. images, text), making them very successful

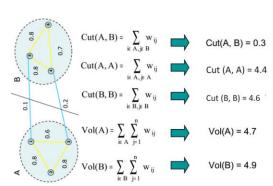
#### ■ RNNs:

$$egin{aligned} m{h}^t &= f(m{U}m{x}^t + m{W}m{h}^{t-1} + m{a}) \ \hat{m{y}}^T &= g(m{V}m{h}^T + m{b}). \end{aligned}$$

# lacksquare Feed-forward NNs: $m{h}_i = f(m{W}_i m{h}_{i-1} + m{b}_i)$



- □ same input-to-hidden weight matrix U
- same bias vector a



ISTM: Forget gate 
$$f^t = \sigma(W_f[x^t, h^{t-1}] + a_f)$$
Input gate  $i^t = \sigma(W_i[x^t, h^{t-1}] + a_i)$ 
Output gate  $o^t = \sigma(W_o[x^t, h^{t-1}] + a_o)$ 
 $\tilde{C}^t = \sigma(W_c[x^t, h^{t-1}] + a_c)$ 
 $C^t = f^t \cdot C^{t-1} + i^t \cdot \tilde{C}^t$ 
 $h^t = o^t \cdot \tilde{h}^t$ 

 $\tilde{h}^t$  is calculated by  $tanh(w C^t + a)$ 

$$c^{j} = \sum_{i} \boldsymbol{a}(i)\boldsymbol{h}_{S}^{i} \quad \boldsymbol{a}(i) = \frac{\exp(\operatorname{score}(\boldsymbol{h}_{S}^{i}, \boldsymbol{h}_{D}^{j}))}{\sum_{i'} \exp(\operatorname{score}(\boldsymbol{h}_{S}^{i'}, \boldsymbol{h}_{D}^{j}))}$$

$$\boldsymbol{Z} = \left[\widetilde{\boldsymbol{D}}^{-\frac{1}{2}}\widetilde{\boldsymbol{A}}\widetilde{\boldsymbol{D}}^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right] \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\Theta}$$

$$\widetilde{Y} = \operatorname{softmax}(\widehat{A}\sigma(\widehat{A}X\Theta_1)\Theta_2), \quad \widehat{A} = \widetilde{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}\widetilde{A}\widetilde{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

Types of Outliers: Global outliers(point anomalies), Contextual

Outliers(conditional outliers), collective outliers(group anomaly)

#### Modeling normal objects and outliers

☐ Difficulty in modeling normality, ambiguity between normal and abnormal Application-specific outlier detection

General-purposed techniques

#### Challenge

Noise vs. outliers Noise: unavoidable, less interesting to the users, but make outlier detection more challenge (e.g., hide the outlier, blur the boundary, mislead detection) Interpretability

- Why does the algorithm 'think' an object looks suspicious?
- Basic Idea
- Assume normal data are generated by a stochastic process
- Data objects in low density regions are flagged as outlier
- ☐ Parametric Methods
- the normal data objects are generated by a parametric distribution with a finite number of parameters

■ Non-Parametric Methods

#### Statistical Approaches

- Do not assume a priori statistical model with a finite number of parameters
- Basic Idea
- Intuition: objects that are far from others can be regarded as outliers
- ☐ Assumption: the proximity of an outlier object to its nearest neighbors significantly deviates from the proximity of most other objects to their nearest neighbor

#### ■ Distance-Based Outlier Detection

- ☐ Consult the neighborhood of a sample
- Proximity-based
- Outlier: if there are not enough objects in its neighborhood

$$\frac{\|\{o'|dist(o,o') \leq r\}\|}{\|D\|} \leq \pi dist(o,o_k) > r$$

Nystrom, A' is a sample of A.

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} A' \\ B^T \end{pmatrix} U'(\Lambda')^{-1}$$