

# CS 189 Final Review

Fall 2024

# Pre-midterm topics

[Review Slides](#)

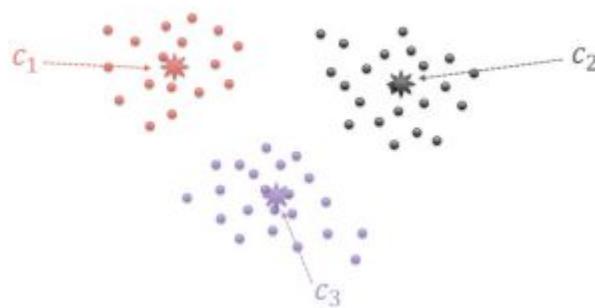
# Clustering

# K-means clustering

- Assign points to clusters by minimizing distance to centroids

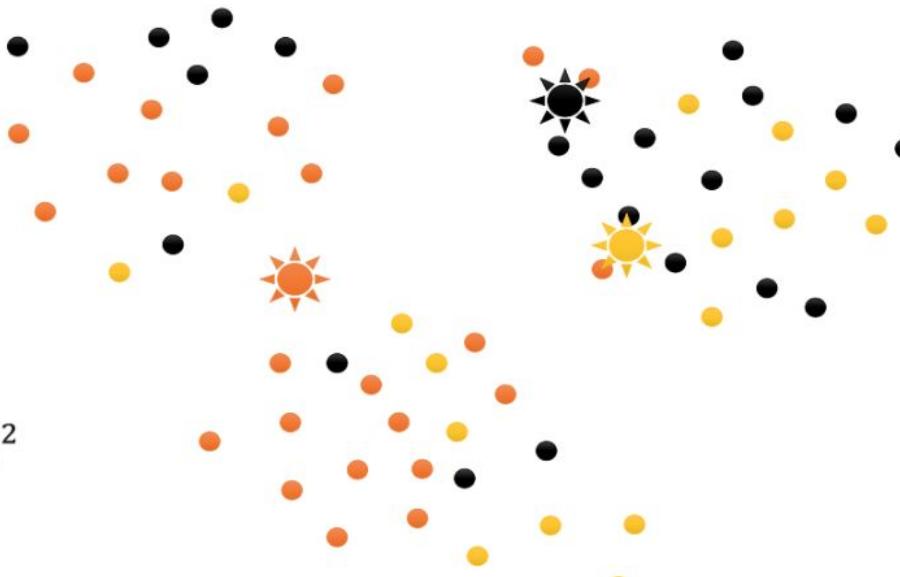
$$\operatorname{argmin}_{S=C_1 \cup \dots \cup C_K, \{c_1, \dots, c_K\}} \sum_k \sum_{x \in C_k} \|x - c_k\|^2$$

cluster partition      cluster centroids



1. Compute partition by choosing closest centroid
2. Compute centers by averaging over partition
3. Continue until centers do not change

# K-means example

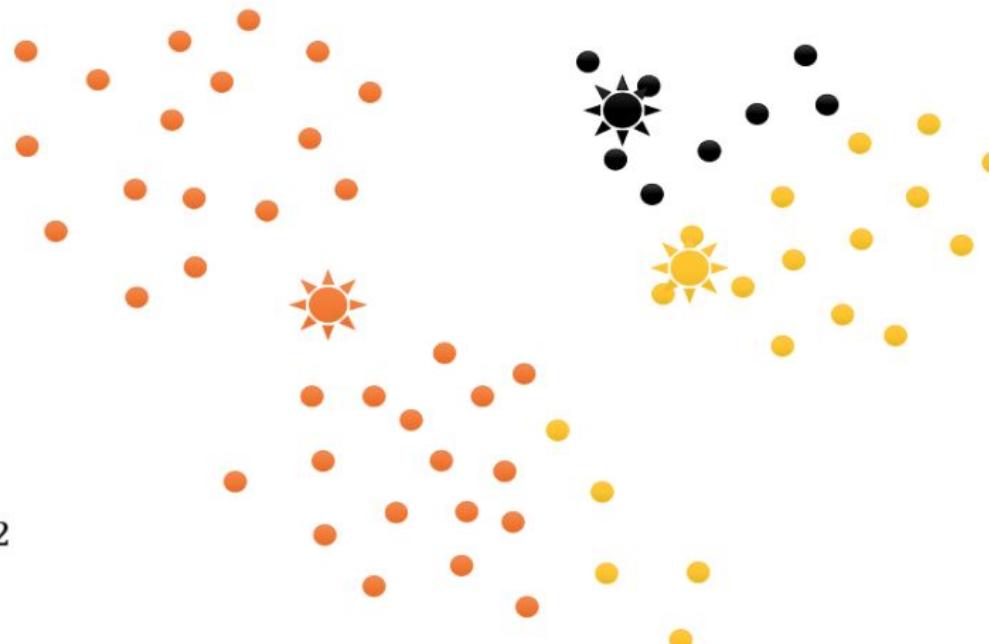


$$\hat{c}_k = \operatorname{argmin}_{c_k} \sum_{x \in C_k} \|x - c_k\|^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{c}_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x \in C_k} x$$

[slide courtesy Yisong Yue]

# K-means example

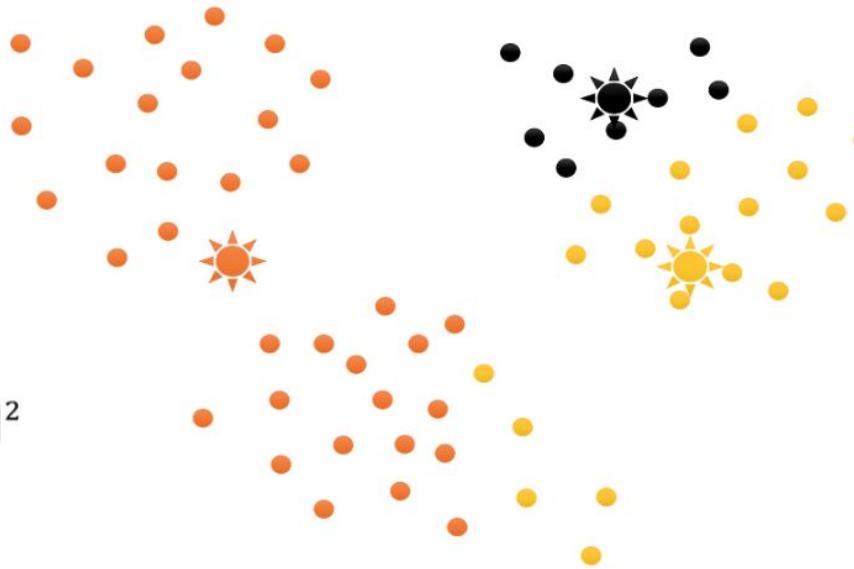


$$z_i \equiv \operatorname{argmin}_k \|x_i - c_k\|^2$$
$$\Rightarrow \hat{C}_k = \{x_i | z_i = k\}.$$

# K-means example

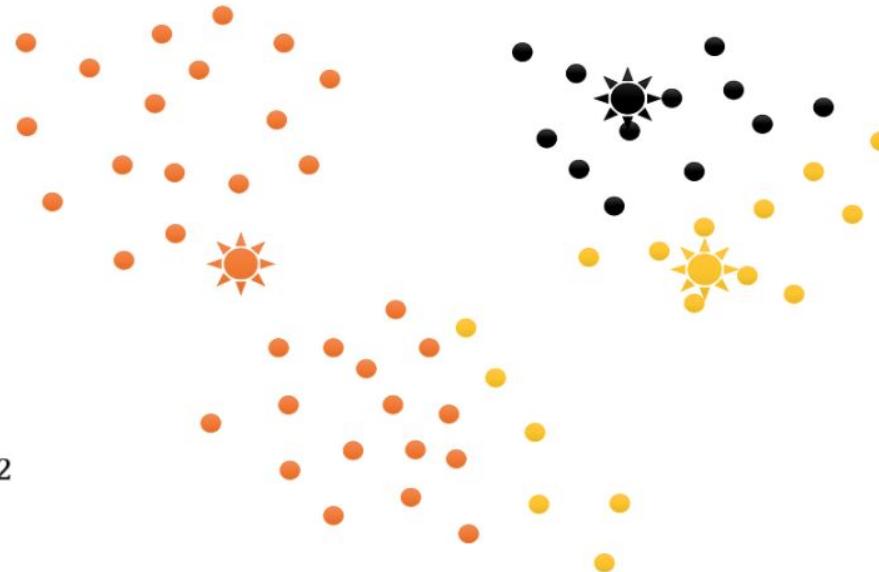
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[slide courtesy Yisong Yue]

# K-means example

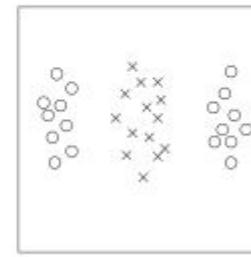
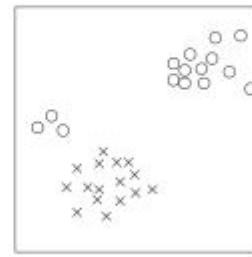
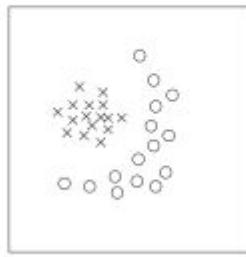
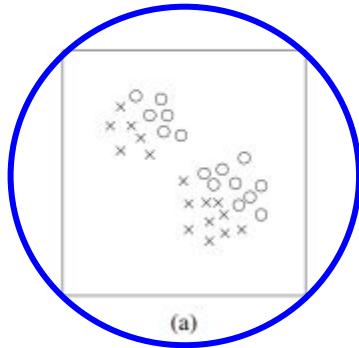


$$z_i \equiv \operatorname{argmin}_k \|x_i - c_k\|^2$$
$$\Rightarrow \hat{C}_k = \{x_i | z_i = k\}.$$

# Practice Question

Fall 2023 Midterm, 1.11

11. Which of the following k-means cluster assignments could be a possible result after running k-means to convergence for 2 clusters?



# Soft k-means

- Probabilistic cluster assignment using softmax of distances

Repeat until convergence:

1. Replace  $z_i \equiv \operatorname{argmin}_k \|x_i - c_k\|^2$  and  $\hat{C}_k = \{x_i | z_i = k\}$  with  
 $r_{ik} = \text{softmax}(\{-\beta \|x_i - c_k\|^2\})$  (yields a "soft partition")

2. Replace  $\hat{c}_k = \operatorname{argmin}_{c_k} \sum_{x \in C_k} \|x - c_k\|^2$  with

$$\hat{c}_k = \operatorname{argmin}_{c_k} \sum_{i=1}^N r_{ik} \|x_i - c_k\|^2$$

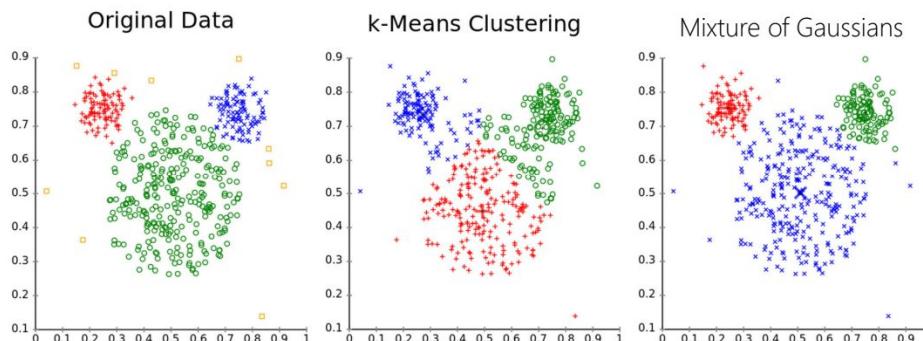
Had,  $\hat{c}_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x \in C_k} x$ , now have,  $\hat{c}_k = \frac{\sum_i r_{ik} x_i}{\sum_i r_{ik}}$ .

# Mixture of Gaussians

- What if we probabilistically model each cluster as a (non-spherical) Gaussian
- Likelihood for each point is

$$L_i = \sum_{k=1}^K P(x_i | x_i \in z_k) P(z_k) = \sum_{k=1}^K N(x_i | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) \alpha_k$$

- Learn the parameters  $\mu_k, \Sigma_k, \alpha_k$



# Practice Question

You want to cluster this 2D data into 2 clusters. Which of the these approaches, when used alone, would work well?



- Mixture of Gaussians
- K-means
- Principle Components Analysis
- Isomap
- Class-conditional Gaussians

# Practice Question

You want to cluster this 2D data into 2 clusters. Which of the these approaches, when used alone, is most likely to work well?



- Mixture of Gaussians
- K-means
- PCA followed by Mixture of Gaussians
- Isomap followed by Mixture of Gaussians
- Class-conditional Gaussians
- t-SNE

# Kleinberg impossibility theorem

1. **Scale-invariance:** stretching the data should yield the same clustering
2. **Consistency:** stretching the space between clusters yields the same clustering
3. **Richness:** clustering should be able to produce any arbitrary partition

No clustering method can satisfy all three properties!

# Model Evaluation

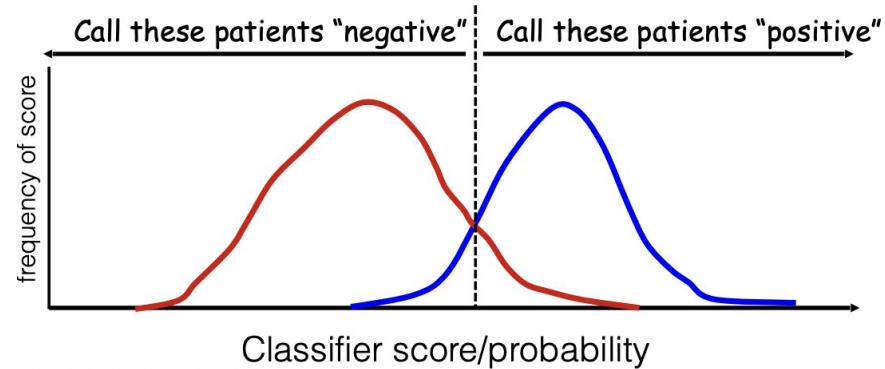
# Classifier Decision Outcomes

- Possible binary classification results:
  - False positive (FP): predicted +1, truth -1
  - False negative (FN): predicted -1, truth +1
  - True positive (TP): predicted +1, truth +1
  - True negative (TN): predicted -1, truth -1

		MODEL PREDICTIONS	
		Negative	Positive
GROUND TRUTH	Negative	TN	FP
	Positive	FN	TP

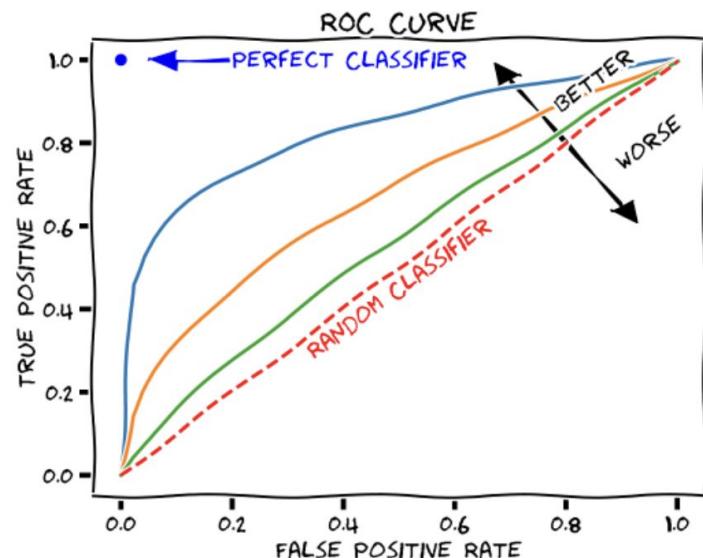
Distribution of classifier “scores” of **healthy (-1)** and **unhealthy (1)** individuals in a test set.

(score could be a probability,  
but need not be)



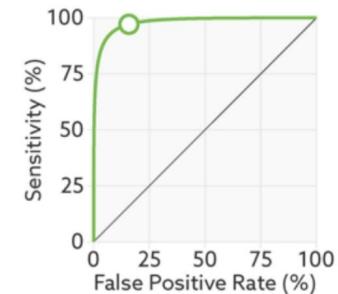
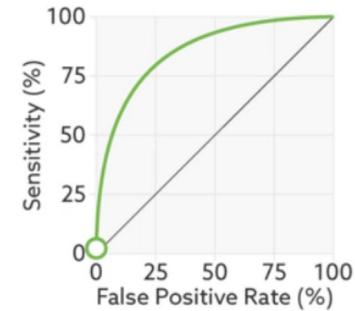
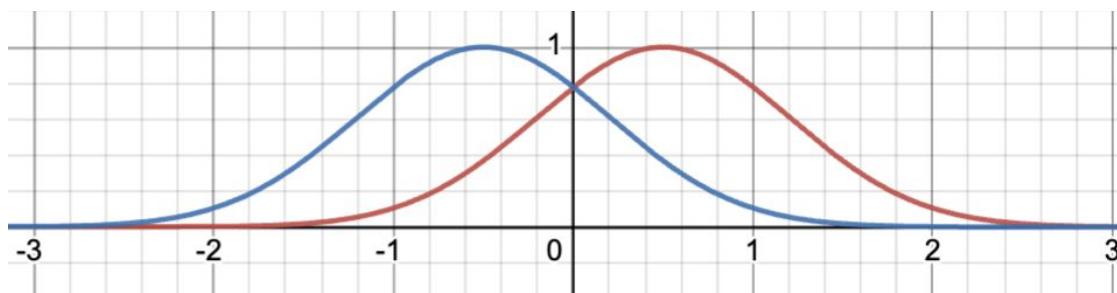
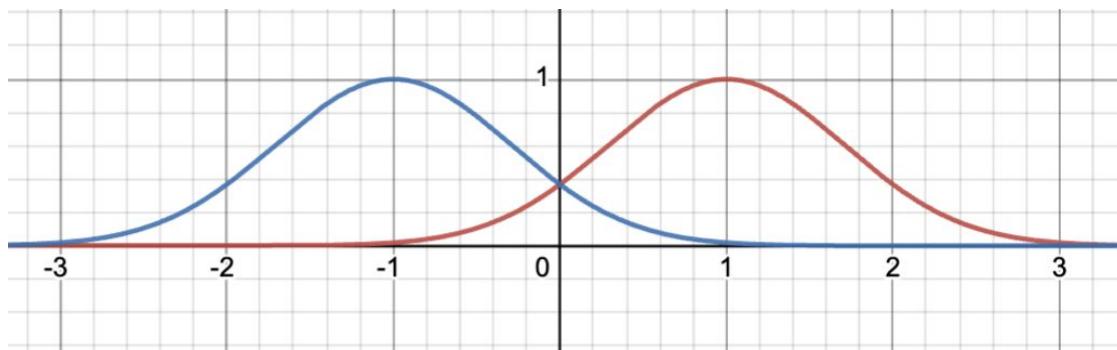
# ROC Curves

- Axes:
  - x-axis: FP rate (1-specificity)
  - y-axis: TP rate (sensitivity)
- Area under the curve (AUROC or AUC for short)
  - Larger area = better model
  - Probabilistic meaning?



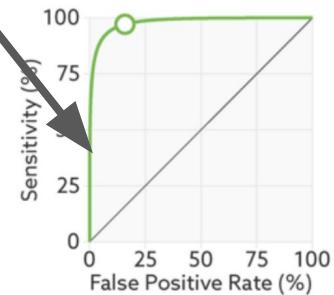
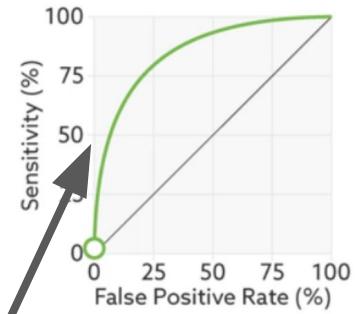
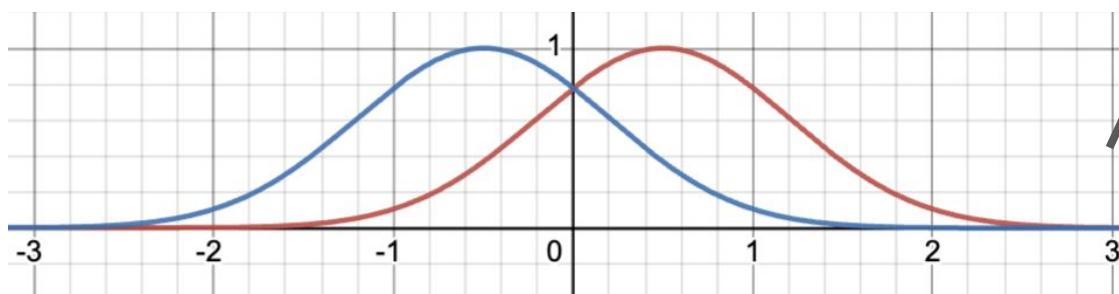
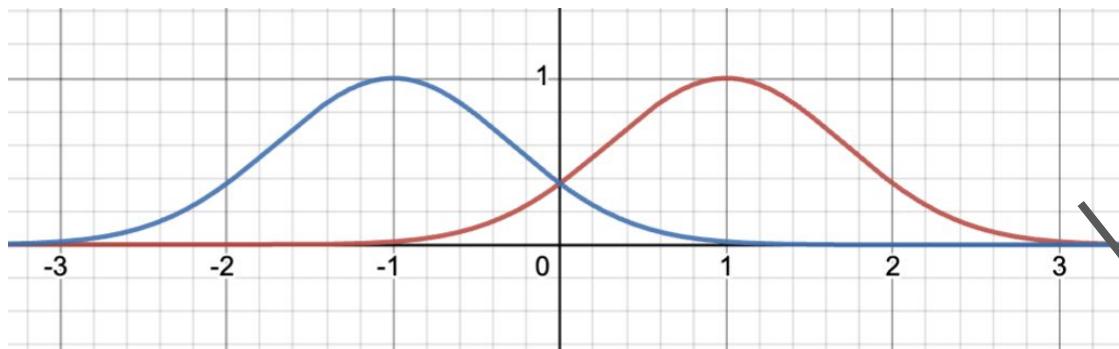
# Practice Question

Match binary classifiers for each set of distributions to their ROC curves



# Solution

Further distributions allow for a better model



# Nearest Neighbors

# k-NN Algorithm

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**Algorithm** The  $k$ -nearest neighbors classification algorithm

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**Input:**

$D$ : a set of training samples  $\{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}$

$k$ : the number of nearest neighbors

$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ : a distance metric

$\mathbf{x}$ : a test sample

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# k-NN Algorithm

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$k$ : the number of nearest neighbors

$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ : a distance metric

$\mathbf{x}$ : a test sample

- 1: **for each** training sample  $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \in D$  **do**
  - 2:     Compute  $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$ , the distance between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{x}_i$
  - 3:     Let  $N \subseteq D$  be the set of training samples with the  $k$  smallest distances  $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$
  - 4: **return** the majority label of the samples in  $N$
- 

How do we choose  $k$ ?

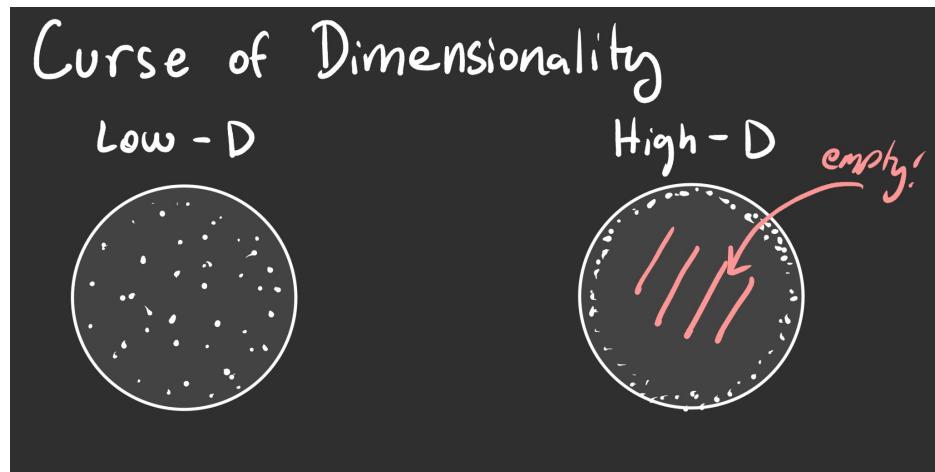
# Properties of Nearest Neighbors

## Pros

- No training required
- Learns complex, nonlinear functions

## Cons

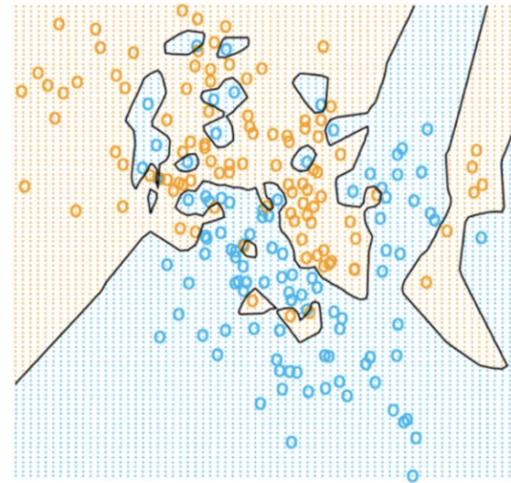
- High storage cost
- Slow at inference
- Curse of dimensionality: worse in higher dimensional data



# Practice Question

Which of these classifiers could have generated this decision boundary?

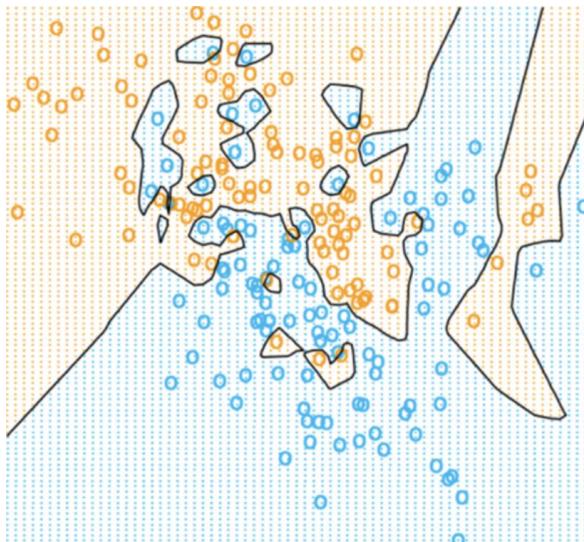
Fall 2022 Final, 1.28



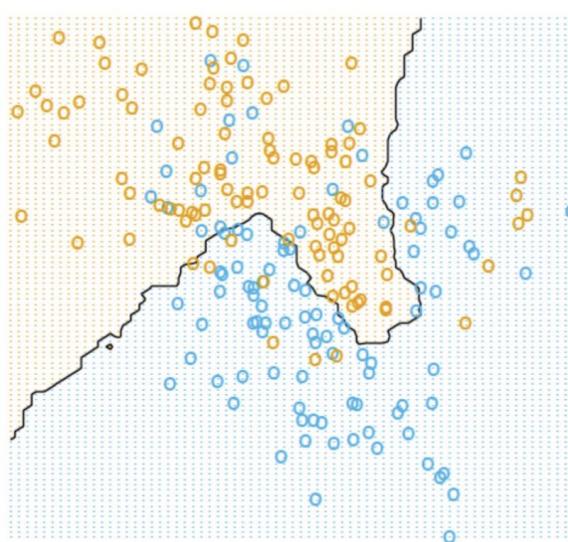
- 15-NN (15 nearest neighbors)
- 1-NN (1 nearest neighbor)
- Logistic Regression
- None of the above

# Solution

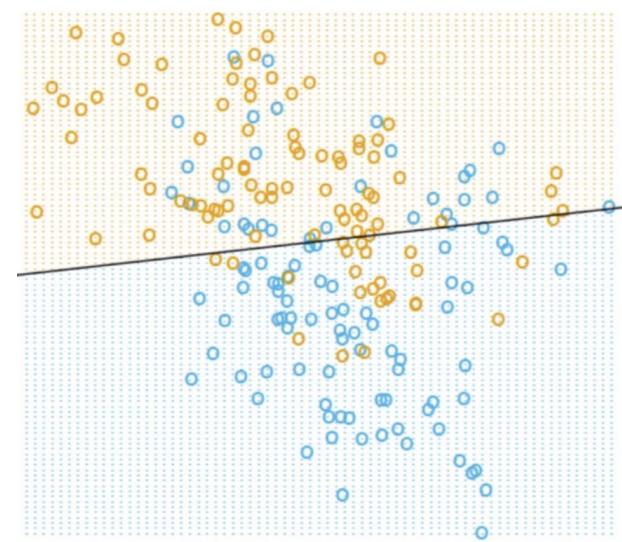
1-NN



15-NN



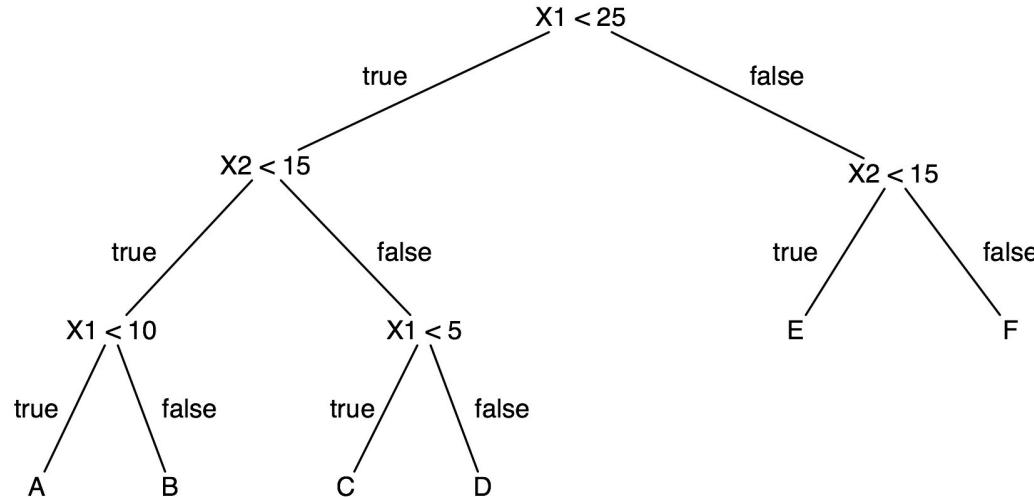
Logistic Regression



# Decision Trees

# Decision Trees

- At each node, split by a single feature
- Traverse down tree until you hit a leaf node, which is the output



# Learning Decision Trees

- Greedy algorithm:
  - Start with empty tree
  - For each node:
    - If stopping condition reached:
      - Leaf label = average of data at that node
    - Else:
      - Split by **next best attribute**
      - Recurse to child nodes
- Next best attribute
  - Commonly: feature and split that maximizes **Information Gain**

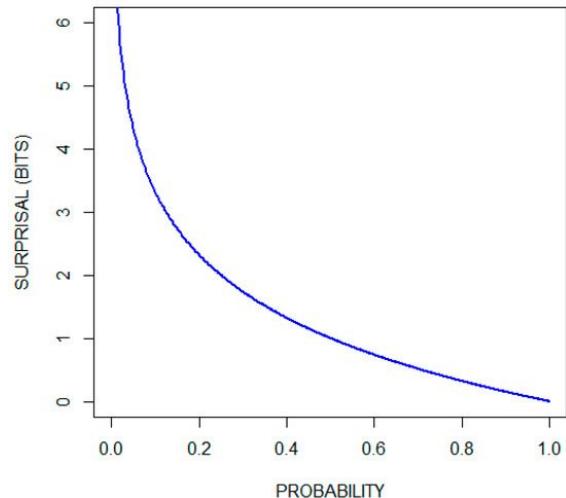
# Entropy

- Entropy of a distribution: expected “surprise”

$$H(Y) \equiv E_y[-\log_2 P(Y)] = - \sum_k P(Y = k) \log_2 P(Y = k)$$

- Surprise:

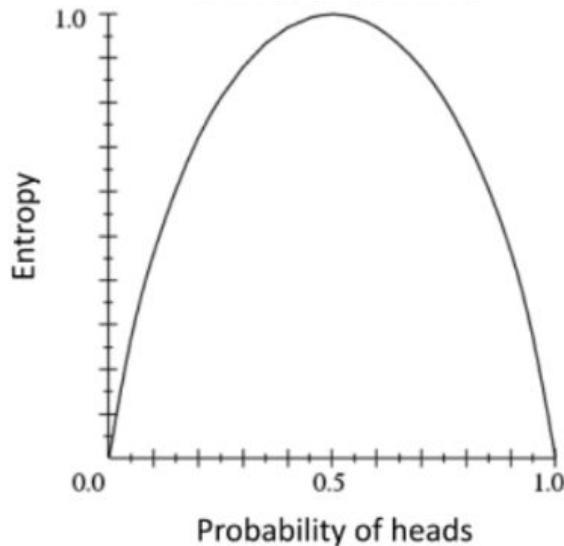
$$\log \frac{1}{P(Y = k)} = -\log(P(Y = k))$$



# Entropy

- Ex: entropy of a coin flip

$$H(Y) = - \sum_{i=1}^{\kappa} P(Y = y_i) \log_2 P(Y = y_i)$$



# Conditional Entropy and Information Gain

- Conditional Entropy: Expected entropy given random variable

$$H(Y|X) \equiv \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) H(Y|X=x)$$

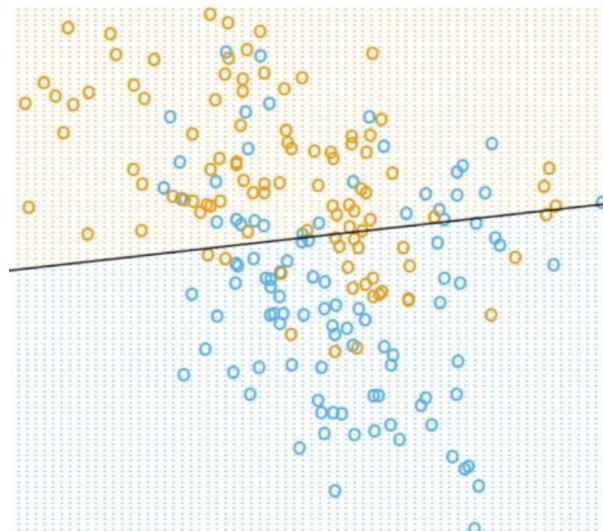
- Information Gain

$$I(X_{j,v}; Y) := H(Y) - H(Y|X_{j,v})$$

constant

# Practice Questions

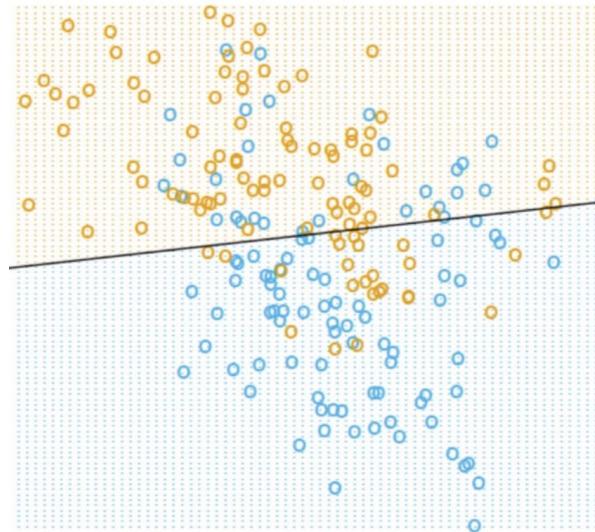
Q: Could this be a decision boundary created from a decision tree?



# Solution

Q: Could this be a decision boundary created from a decision tree?

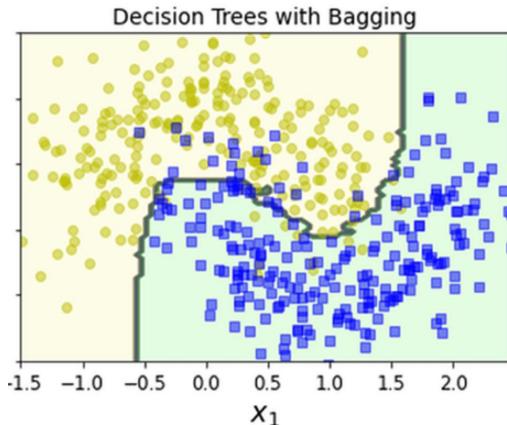
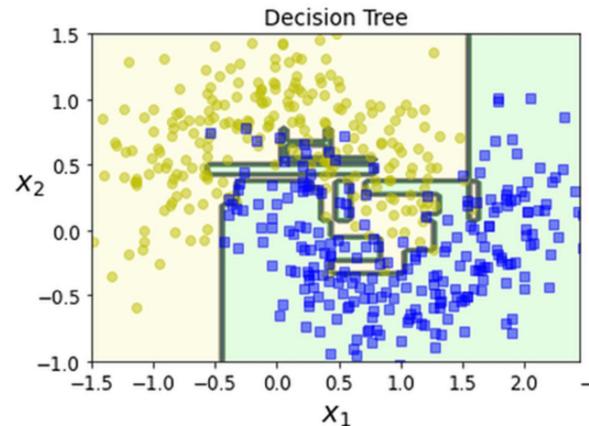
A: No, because decision trees create axis-aligned boundaries. Each node will only split on one feature



# Ensembling

# Bagging and Random Forests

- Decision trees can easily overfit. How can we reduce variance?
- Bagging (Bootstrap AGGregation)
  - Train M models, each with  $n'$  (usually  $n'=n$ ) samples, sampled with replacement
  - Average M predictions to get bagged prediction
- Random Forests
  - Same as bagging, except at each split, choose only a random subset  $p'$  (usually  $p'=\sqrt{p}$ ) of features to split on



# Boosting

- For bagging and random forests, we average the results from each model

$$y = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{m=1}^M G_m(x)$$

- However we can also consider using a weighted average

$$y = \sum_{m=1}^M \alpha_m G_m(x)$$

- Boosting algorithm:
  - Train next model conditioned on all previous models and their weights
  - Reweighting models to minimize loss
  - Repeat
- Intuition behind boosting: reweighting of training points to emphasize those not currently correctly classified

## Practice Question

(d) Is a random forest of stumps (trees with a single feature split or height 1) a good idea in general? Does the performance of a random forest of stumps depend much on the number of trees? Think about the bias of each individual tree and the bias of the average of all these random stumps.

# Solution

- (d) Is a random forest of stumps (trees with a single feature split or height 1) a good idea in general? Does the performance of a random forest of stumps depend much on the number of trees? Think about the bias of each individual tree and the bias of the average of all these random stumps.

**Solution:** Stumps generally have high bias; they are very simple models that cannot fit to anything with reasonable complexity. If we treat  $\{Z_i\}$  as the set of possibly correlated predictions the stumps produce,

$$\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i\right) = \mu_z.$$

This tells us if each stump has high bias, averaging the predictions of all stumps will not reduce this bias. Thus a random forest of stumps is generally a bad idea no matter how many stumps we have.

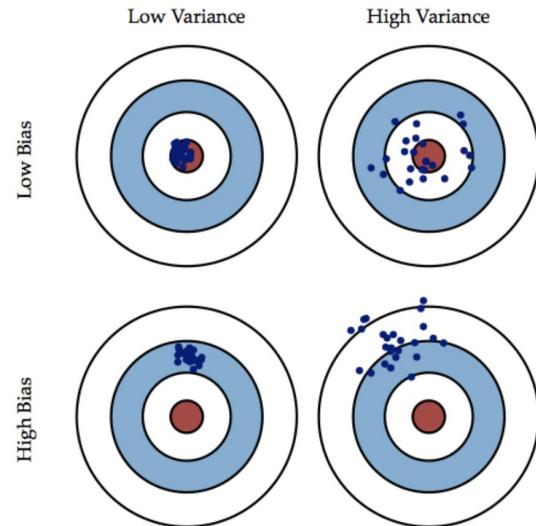
# Bias-Variance

# Bias-variance tradeoff

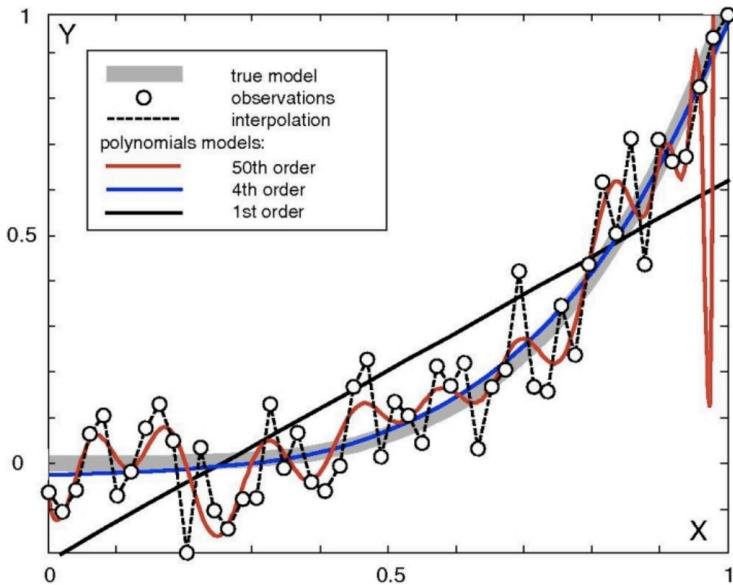
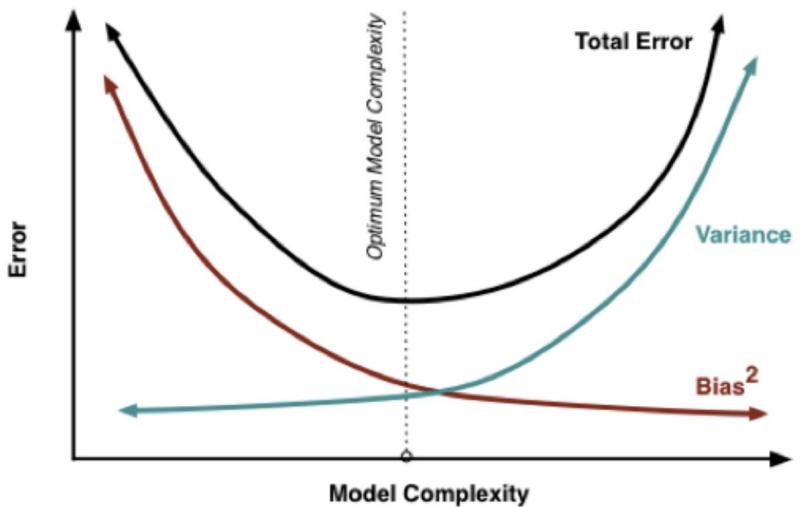
- Model error can be decomposed into three components

$$\varepsilon(\mathbf{x}; h) = \underbrace{\left( \mathbb{E}[h(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})] - f(\mathbf{x}) \right)^2}_{\text{bias}^2 \text{ of method}} + \underbrace{\text{Var}(h(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D}))}_{\text{variance of method}} + \underbrace{\text{Var}(Z)}_{\text{irreducible error}}$$

- Bias:** measure of average difference between model output and ground truth over all possible training sets
- Variance:** variance of model output over all possible training sets
- Irreducible error:** error in model that cannot be controlled or eliminated



# Bias-variance tradeoff



# Practice Question

Spring 2023 Final, Q1(p)

(p) [4 pts] Select the true statements about the bias-variance tradeoff in random forests.

- A: Decreasing the number of randomly selected features we consider for splitting at each treenode tends to increase the bias.
- B: Increasing the number of decision trees tends to increase the variance.
- C: Decreasing the number of randomly selected features we consider for splitting at each treenode tends to decrease the bias.
- D: Increasing the number of decision trees tends to decrease the variance.

# Solution

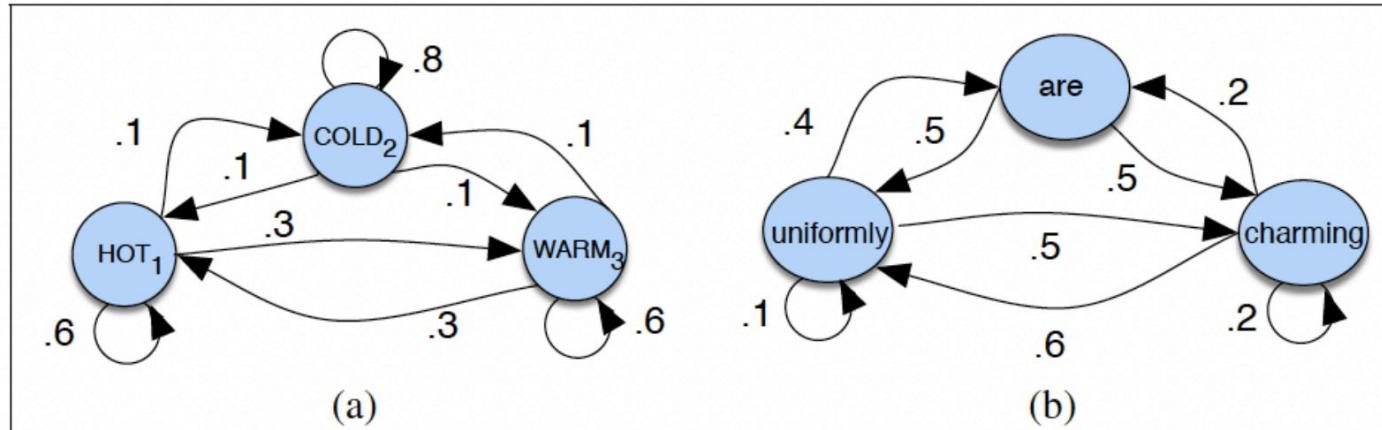
Since we are averaging over models, bias stays the same, but variance decreases

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# Hidden Markov Models

# Markov Models



**Figure A.1** A Markov chain for weather (a) and one for words (b), showing states and transitions. A start distribution  $\pi$  is required; setting  $\pi = [0.1, 0.7, 0.2]$  for (a) would mean a probability 0.7 of starting in state 2 (cold), probability 0.1 of starting in state 1 (hot), etc.

# Markov Models

$$Q = q_1 q_2 \dots q_N$$

a set of  $N$  states

$$A = a_{11} a_{12} \dots a_{n1} \dots a_{nn}$$

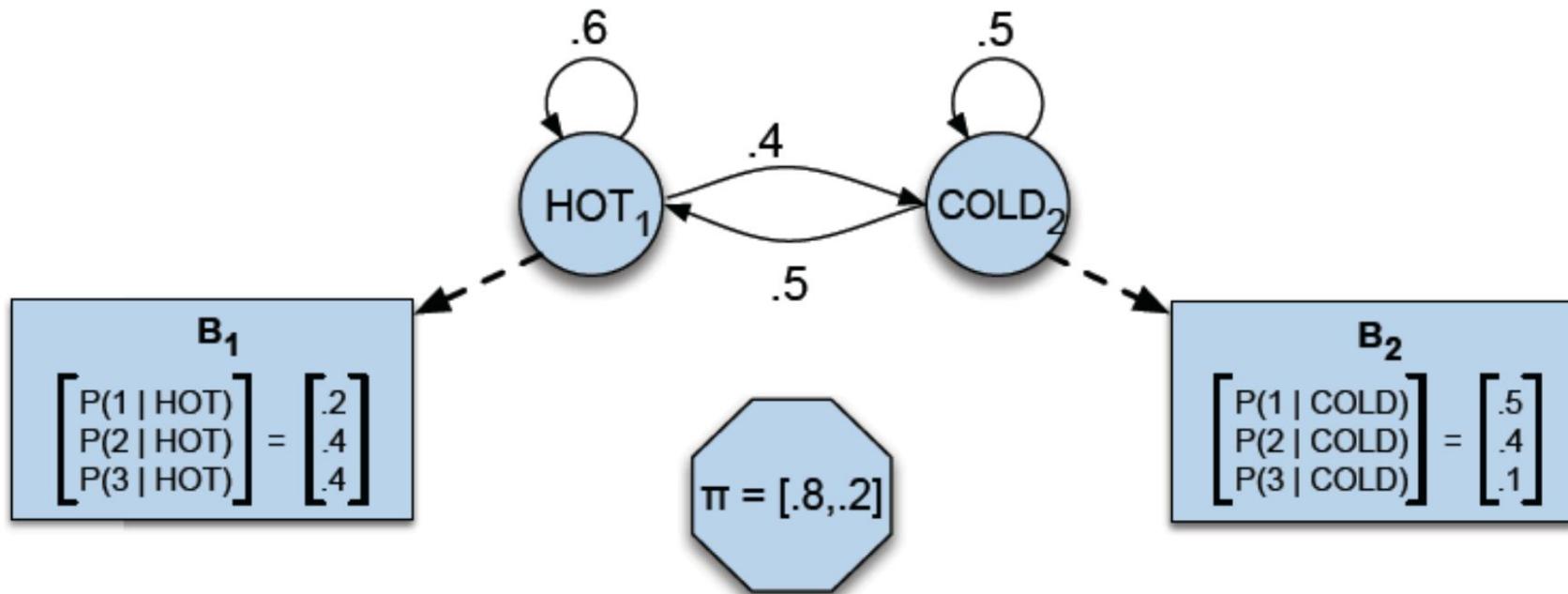
a **transition probability matrix**  $A$ , each  $a_{ij}$  representing the probability of moving from state  $i$  to state  $j$ , s.t.  
 $\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} = 1 \quad \forall i$

$$\pi = \pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_N$$

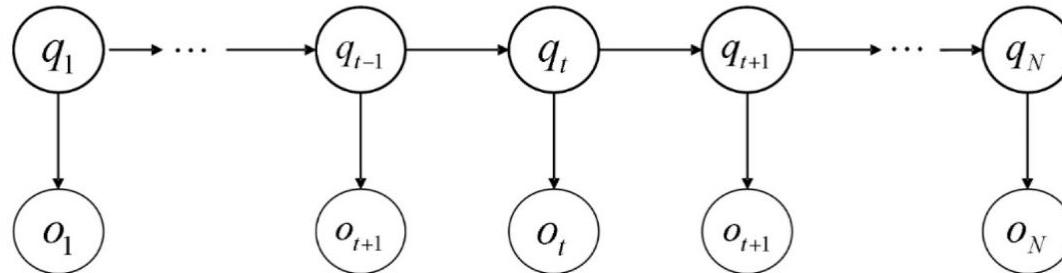
an **initial probability distribution** over states.  $\pi_i$  is the probability that the Markov chain will start in state  $i$ . Some states  $j$  may have  $\pi_j = 0$ , meaning that they cannot be initial states. Also,  $\sum_{i=1}^n \pi_i = 1$

**Markov Assumption:**  $P(q_i = a | q_1 \dots q_{i-1}) = P(q_i = a | q_{i-1})$  (A.1)

# Hidden Markov Models



# Hidden Markov Models



$$Q = q_1 q_2 \dots q_N$$

a set of  $N$  **states**

$$A = a_{11} \dots a_{ij} \dots a_{NN}$$

a **transition probability matrix**  $A$ , each  $a_{ij}$  representing the probability of moving from state  $i$  to state  $j$ , s.t.  $\sum_{j=1}^N a_{ij} = 1 \quad \forall i$

$$O = o_1 o_2 \dots o_T$$

a sequence of  $T$  **observations**, each one drawn from a vocabulary  $V = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_V$

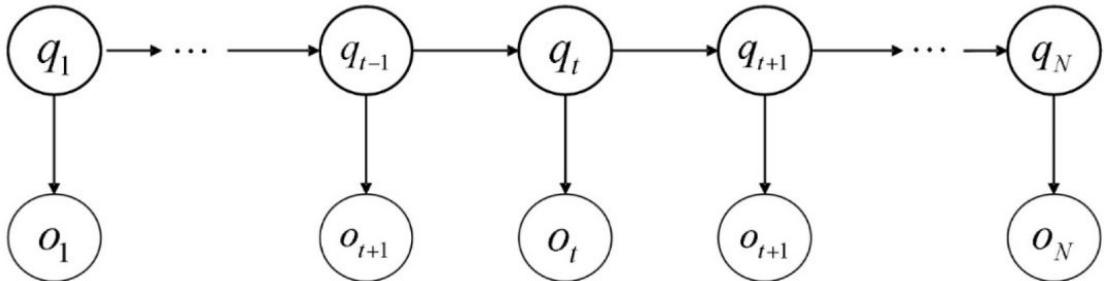
$$B = b_i(o_t)$$

a sequence of **observation likelihoods**, also called **emission probabilities**, each expressing the probability of an observation  $o_t$  being generated from a state  $i$

$$\pi = \pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_N$$

an **initial probability distribution** over states.  $\pi_i$  is the probability that the Markov chain will start in state  $i$ . Some states  $j$  may have  $\pi_j = 0$ , meaning that they cannot be initial states. Also,  $\sum_{i=1}^n \pi_i = 1$

# HMMs: Problems



## 1. Likelihood:

- a. Given a specified HMM (transition probs, emission probs), compute the likelihood of an observation sequence O.

## 2. Decoding

- a. Given an HMM, find the best sequences of hidden states.
  - i. Viterbi Algorithm
  - ii. A worked out example: <https://www.cis.upenn.edu/~cis2620/notes/Example-Viterbi-DNA.pdf>

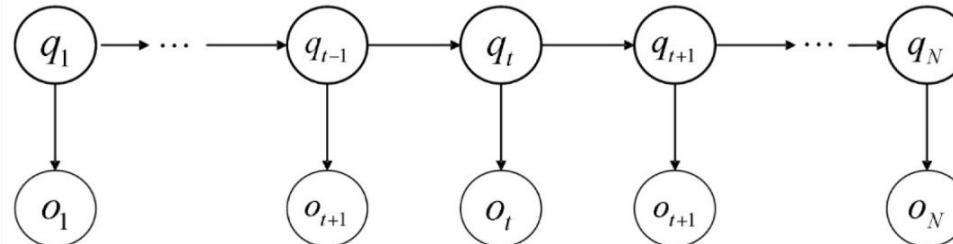
## 3. Learning

- a. Learn HMM parameters (transition and emission probs) from the observation sequence O.

# Viterbi Pseudocode

- T1 stores prob of most likely path so far ending in state i.
- T2 stores the most recent observation in this path.
- We populate these matrices, computing a distribution over states at each timestep.
- Finally, we find the most likely path by working backwards from the final state.

```
function VITERBI( $O, S, \Pi, Y, A, B$ ) :  $X$ 
    for each state  $i = 1, 2, \dots, K$  do
         $T_1[i, 1] \leftarrow \pi_i \cdot B_{iy_1}$ 
         $T_2[i, 1] \leftarrow 0$ 
    end for
    for each observation  $j = 2, 3, \dots, T$  do
        for each state  $i = 1, 2, \dots, K$  do
             $T_1[i, j] \leftarrow \max_k (T_1[k, j - 1] \cdot A_{ki} \cdot B_{iy_j})$ 
             $T_2[i, j] \leftarrow \arg \max_k (T_1[k, j - 1] \cdot A_{ki} \cdot B_{iy_j})$ 
        end for
    end for
     $z_T \leftarrow \arg \max_k (T_1[k, T])$ 
     $x_T \leftarrow s_{z_T}$ 
    for  $j = T, T - 1, \dots, 2$  do
         $z_{j-1} \leftarrow T_2[z_j, j]$ 
         $x_{j-1} \leftarrow s_{z_{j-1}}$ 
    end for
    return  $X$ 
end function
```



# Things to understand

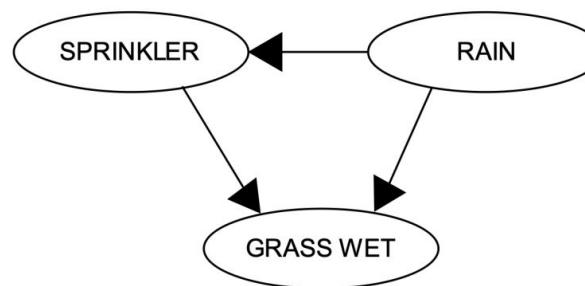
- In what sense is this optimal and can you prove that it's optimal?
  - Computes the most likely path.
- Why do we only need to store the most recent states  $x_{\{j-1\}}$ ?
  - The Markov Property
- Why do we go backwards to find the path?
  - Because T1 stores the probability of the most likely path ending in state i.

# Probabilistic Graphical Models

# Probabilistic Graphical Models

- A graph where each node represents some random variable and edges represent dependence relationships
- DAGs help us achieve tractability through conditional independence

RAIN	SPRINKLER	
	T	F
F	0.4	0.6
T	0.01	0.99



RAIN	SPRINKLER	
	T	F
F	0.2	0.8

SPRINKLER	RAIN	GRASS WET	
		T	F
F	F	0.0	1.0
F	T	0.8	0.2
T	F	0.9	0.1
T	T	0.99	0.01

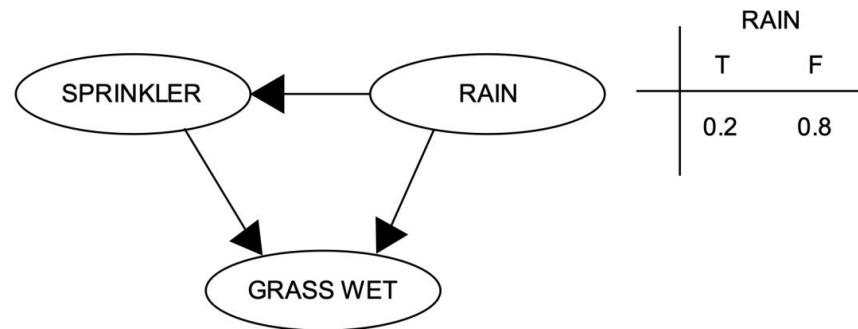
# PGMs: Problems

1. Factorization and Probability Calculations
  - a. Factoring the joint density based on the links in the graph and answering questions about conditional independence (d-separation) and conditional probabilities
2. State estimation
  - a. Same as HMMs
3. Reformulating HMMs as PGMs
  - a. Turn an HMM into a DAG

# Practice Problem

Given that the grass is wet (G), what is the probability that it rained (R)?

RAIN	SPRINKLER	
	T	F
F	0.4	0.6
T	0.01	0.99



RAIN	T	F
	0.2	0.8

SPRINKLER	RAIN	GRASS WET	
		T	F
F	F	0.0	1.0
F	T	0.8	0.2
T	F	0.9	0.1
T	T	0.99	0.01

# Solution

$$\Pr(R = T \mid G = T) = \frac{\Pr(G = T, R = T)}{\Pr(G = T)} = \frac{\sum_{x \in \{T,F\}} \Pr(G = T, S = x, R = T)}{\sum_{x,y \in \{T,F\}} \Pr(G = T, S = x, R = y)}$$

We can calculate the probability of any case using the joint probability distribution e.g.

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(G = T, S = T, R = T) &= \Pr(G = T \mid S = T, R = T) \Pr(S = T \mid R = T) \Pr(R = T) \\ &= 0.99 \times 0.01 \times 0.2 \\ &= 0.00198.\end{aligned}$$

Then the numerical results (subscripted by the associated variable values) are

$$\Pr(R = T \mid G = T) = \frac{0.00198_{TTT} + 0.1584_{TFT}}{0.00198_{TTT} + 0.288_{TTF} + 0.1584_{TFT} + 0.0_{TFF}} = \frac{891}{2491} \approx 35.77\%.$$

# Solution

Let R be the event that it rained, D be the event that the grass is dry, and S be the event that the sprinkler went off.

$$P(R, D, S) = P(R)P(D|R, S)P(S|R)$$

$$P(R | D) = P(D | R)P(R) / P(D)$$

$$P(D | R) = P(D | R, S)P(S|R)P(R) + P(D | R, \sim S)P(\sim S)P(R) =$$

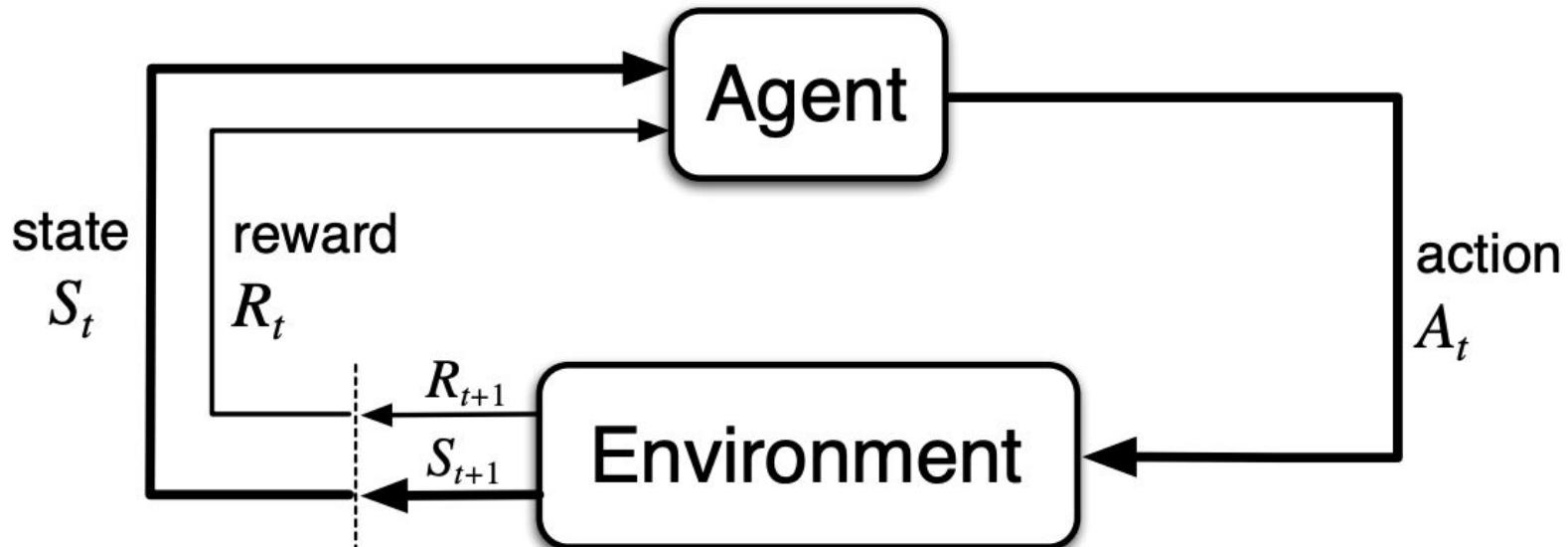
# Practice Problems

- Notes from cs188:

<https://inst.eecs.berkeley.edu/~cs188/fa23/assets/notes/cs188-fa23-note13.pdf>

# Markov Decision Processes and RL

# Markov Decision Process



# Markov Decision Process

- Characterized by a state space  $S$ , policy  $\pi$  (and actions  $A$ ), rewards  $R$ , and transition dynamics  $P(S_t, R_t | S_{t-1}, A_{t-1})$
- MDPs satisfy the Markov property, ie conditioning on all history is equivalent to conditioning on just the previous state.
- We seek to learn policies that **maximize the sum of discounted rewards, or return**. By optimizing our policy subject to the uncertainty in the environment.

# Definitions

Return:

$$G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \gamma^2 R_{t+3} \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k+1} = R_{t+1} + \gamma G_{t+1}$$

State Value function:

$$v_{\pi}(s) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[G_t | S_t = s] = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[R_{t+1} + \gamma G_{t+1} | S_t = s]$$

Action-value function:

$$q_{\pi}(s, a) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[G_t | S_t = s, A_t = a] = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[R_{t+1} + \gamma G_{t+1} | S_t = s, A_t = a]$$



Expectation is taken over our policy

# The Bellman Equation

Value function as the expectation of the q function over the policy:

$$V_\pi(s) = E_\pi[q_\pi(s, a)] = \sum_{a \in A} \pi(a|s)q(s, a)$$

Q function as the expectation of next-step value over transition dynamics

$$q_\pi(s, a) = E_\pi[R_t + \gamma V_\pi(S_{t+1}) | S_t, A] = \sum_{s', r} (r + \gamma V_\pi(s')) p(s', r | s, a)$$

The Bellman Equation: a recursive definition of the value function

$$V_\pi(s) = \sum_{a \in A} \pi(a|s) \sum_{s', r} (r + \gamma V_\pi(s')) p(s', r | s, a)$$

# Policy Iteration

1. Initialize value function and policy randomly
2. **Policy evaluation:** estimate the value function associated with the current policy using the Bellman equations (fixed point strategy).
3. **Policy improvement:** improve the current policy by leveraging the value function.
4. Go back to step 2 unless converged.

$$\text{Policy evaluation: } v_{k+1}(s) = \sum_a \pi(a|s) \sum_{s',r} p(s', r|s, a) [r + \gamma v_k(s')]$$

$$\text{Policy improvement: } \pi'(s) = \operatorname{argmax}_a \sum_{s',r} p(s', r|s, a) [r + \gamma v_k(s')]$$

# Value Iteration

1. Initialize value function
2. Update value function
3. Repeat until convergence

$$v_{k+1}(s) = \max_a \sum_{s',r} p(s', r | s, a) [r + \gamma v_k(s')]$$

# Value Iteration

1. Initialize value function
2. Update value function
3. Repeat until convergence

$$v_{k+1}(s) = \max_a \sum_{s',r} p(s', r | s, a) [r + \gamma v_k(s')]$$

Once the algorithm has converged; how can we know which actions to take?

# Example

You are controlling a spacecraft on a mission to explore and gather data from various celestial bodies in a solar system. The spacecraft can be in one of three states based on its energy levels: 'FullEnergy', 'LowEnergy', and 'Depleted'. 'Depleted' is a terminal state, representing the spacecraft running out of energy and being unable to continue its mission. We denote the states as  $\mathcal{S} = \{F, L, D\}$ .

At each state (except "Depleted"), there are two possible actions: 'Conserve' and 'Explore'. 'Conserve' represents cautious exploration with energy conservation, while 'Explore' represents aggressive exploration consuming more energy. We denote the actions as  $\mathcal{A} = \{C, E\}$ .

# Example Transition Dynamics

Entries of table specify the distribution of next states: [full, low, depleted] and reward

State / Action	Conserve	Explore
Full Energy	[1, 0, 0]: 1	[.5, .5, 0]: 2
Low Energy	[.5, .5, 0]: 1	[0, 0, 1]: -10
Depleted	[0, 0, 1]: 0	[0, 0, 1]: 0

$$p(s', r \mid s, a)$$

# Policy Iteration

Suppose we initialize with a policy that always conserves regardless of the states, i.e.  $\pi_0(C|s) = 1, \pi_0(E|s) = 0$  for all  $s$ . Also, we initialize value functions  $v_0(s) = 0$  for all  $s$ . Let the discount rate  $\gamma = 0.5$ . Run policy iteration for two iterations. Does policy iteration converges after two iterations?

State / Action	Conserve	Explore
Full Energy	[1, 0, 0]: 1	[.5, .5, 0]: 2
Low Energy	[.5, .5, 0]: 1	[0, 0, 1]: -10
Depleted	[0, 0, 1]: 0	[0, 0, 1]: 0

$$\text{Policy evaluation: } v_{k+1}(s) = \sum_a \pi(a|s) \sum_{s',r} p(s', r|s, a) [r + \gamma v_k(s')]$$

$$\text{Policy improvement: } \pi'(s) = \operatorname{argmax}_a \sum_{s',r} p(s', r|s, a) [r + \gamma v_k(s')]$$

$$\text{Policy evaluation: } v_{k+1}(s) = \sum_a \pi(a|s) \sum_{s',r} p(s', r|s, a)[r + \gamma v_k(s')]$$

$$\text{Policy improvement: } \pi'(s) = \operatorname{argmax}_a \sum_{s',r} p(s', r|s, a)[r + \gamma v_k(s')]$$

**Solution:** We start with policy evaluation:

$$\begin{aligned} v_1(F) &= p(F, r|F, C)[r + \gamma v_0(F)] \\ &= 1[1 + 0.5v_0(F)] = 1 \\ v_1(L) &= p(F, r|L, C)[r + \gamma v_0(F)] + p(L, r|L, C)[r + \gamma v_0(L)] \\ &= 0.5[1 + 0.5v_0(F)] + 0.5[1 + 0.5v_0(L)] = 1 \end{aligned}$$

where we abuse notation and uses  $r$  to denote the reward given the corresponding state and action.

Then, run policy improvement given the updated value functions:

$$\pi_1(F) = \operatorname{argmax}_{C,E} \{p(F, r|F, C)[r + \gamma v_1(F)], p(F, r|F, E)[r + \gamma v_1(F)] + p(L, r|F, E)[r + \gamma v_1(L)]\}$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax}_{C,E} \{C : 1[1 + 0.5v_1(F)], E : 0.5[2 + 0.5v_1(F)] + 0.5[2 + 0.5v_1(L)]\}$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax}_{C,E} \{C : 1.5, E : 2.5\} = E$$

$$\pi_1(L) = \operatorname{argmax}_{C,E} \{p(F, r|L, C)[r + \gamma v_1(F)] + p(L, r|L, C)[r + \gamma v_1(L)], p(D, r|L, E)[r + \gamma v_1(D)]\}$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax}_{C,E} \{C : 0.5[1 + 0.5v_1(F)] + 0.5[1 + 0.5v_1(L)], E : 1[-10 + 0.5v_1(D)]\}$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax}_{C,E} \{C : 1.5, E : -10\} = C$$

We then run policy evaluation again given the updated policies. Note  $\pi_1(F) = E \neq \pi_0(F), \pi_1(L) = C = \pi_0(L)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} v_2(F) &= p(F, r|F, E)[r + \gamma v_1(F)] + p(L, r|F, E)[r + \gamma v_1(L)] \\ &= 0.5[2 + 0.5v_1(F)] + 0.5[2 + 0.5v_1(L)] = 2.5 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} v_2(L) &= p(F, r|L, C)[r + \gamma v_1(F)] + p(L, r|L, C)[r + \gamma v_1(L)] \\ &= 0.5[1 + 0.5v_1(F)] + 0.5[1 + 0.5v_1(L)] = 1.5 \end{aligned}$$

State / Action	Conserve	Explore
Full Energy	[1, 0, 0]: 1	[.5, .5, 0]: 2
Low Energy	[.5, .5, 0]: 1	[0, 0, 1]: -10
Depleted	[0, 0, 1]: 0	[0, 0, 1]: 0

Then run policy improvement given the updated values:

$$\pi_2(F) = \operatorname{argmax}_{C,E} \{C : 1[1 + 0.5v_2(F)], E : 0.5[2 + 0.5v_2(F)] + 0.5[2 + 0.5v_2(L)]\}$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax}_{C,E} \{C : 2.25, E : 3\} = E$$

$$\pi_1(L) = \operatorname{argmax}_{C,E} \{C : 0.5[1 + 0.5v_2(F)] + 0.5[1 + 0.5v_2(L)], E : 1[-10 + 0.5v_2(D)]\}$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax}_{C,E} \{C : 2, E : -10\} = C$$

# Value Iteration

Run value iteration for two iterations. Does it converge after two iterations?

State / Action	Conserve	Explore
Full Energy	[1, 0, 0]: 1	[.5, .5, 0]: 2
Low Energy	[.5, .5, 0]: 1	[0, 0, 1]: -10
Depleted	[0, 0, 1]: 0	[0, 0, 1]: 0

$$v_{k+1}(s) = \max_a \sum_{s', r} p(s', r | s, a) [r + \gamma v_k(s')]$$

State / Action	Conserve	Explore
Full Energy	[1, 0, 0]: 1	[.5, .5, 0]: 2
Low Energy	[.5, .5, 0]: 1	[0, 0, 1]: -10
Depleted	[0, 0, 1]: 0	[0, 0, 1]: 0

# Value Iteration

**Solution:** By definition of value iterations:

$$\begin{aligned} v_1(F) &= \max\{p(F, r|F, C)[r + \gamma v_0(F)], p(F, r|F, E)[r + \gamma v_0(F)] + p(L, r|F, E)[r + \gamma v_0(L)]\} \\ &= \max\{1[1 + 0.5v_0(F)], 0.5[2 + 0.5v_0(F)] + 0.5[2 + 0.5v_0(L)]\} \\ &= \max\{1, 2\} = 2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} v_1(L) &= \max\{p(F, r|L, C)[r + \gamma v_0(F)] + p(L, r|L, C)[r + \gamma v_0(L)], p(D, r|L, E)[r + \gamma v_0(D)]\} \\ &= \max\{0.5[1 + 0.5v_0(F)] + 0.5[1 + 0.5v_0(L)], 1[-10 + 0.5v_0(D)]\} \\ &= \max\{1, -10\} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Using these updated values, we can run another step of value iteration:

$$\begin{aligned} v_2(F) &= \max\{p(F, r|F, C)[r + \gamma v_1(F)], p(F, r|F, E)[r + \gamma v_1(F)] + p(L, r|F, E)[r + \gamma v_1(L)]\} \\ &= \max\{1[1 + 0.5v_1(F)], 0.5[2 + 0.5v_1(F)] + 0.5[2 + 0.5v_1(L)]\} \\ &= \max\{2, 2.75\} = 2.75 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} v_2(L) &= \max\{p(F, r|L, C)[r + \gamma v_1(F)] + p(L, r|L, C)[r + \gamma v_1(L)], p(D, r|L, E)[r + \gamma v_1(D)]\} \\ &= \max\{0.5[1 + 0.5v_1(F)] + 0.5[1 + 0.5v_1(L)], 1[-10 + 0.5v_1(D)]\} \\ &= \max\{1.75, -10\} = 1.75 \end{aligned}$$

After two rounds, value iteration hasn't converged yet.

$$v_{k+1}(s) = \max_a \sum_{s', r} p(s', r|s, a)[r + \gamma v_k(s')]$$

# Robotics/Language/Vision

# Graph Neural Networks

# Graph Neural Networks

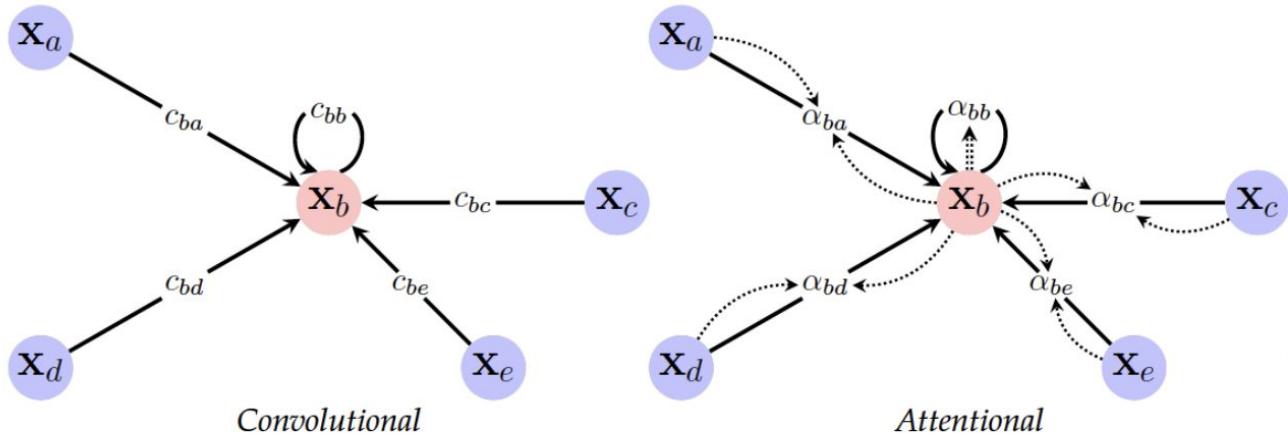
- A graph is defined on a set of nodes  $V$  with edges  $E$ .
- The primary mechanism in GNNs is **message passing**

The diagram illustrates the message-passing process in a Graph Neural Network (GNN) across three stages:

- Message function:** The first stage shows the computation of messages from neighbors. The node feature  $\mathbf{h}_u^{(k)}$  at layer  $k$  is updated by applying a function  $\phi^{(k)}$  to the previous feature  $\mathbf{h}_u^{(k-1)}$  and the aggregated messages from neighbors. The aggregated messages are computed as  $\bigoplus \left( \left\{ \psi^{(k)}(\mathbf{h}_v^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{h}_u^{(k-1)}), \forall v \in \mathcal{N}(u) \right\} \right)$ .
- AGGREGATE:** The second stage shows the aggregation of messages. The aggregated messages  $\mathbf{m}_{vu}^{(k)}$  for each neighbor  $v$  are collected and used in the next step.
- COMBINE:** The final stage shows the combination of the updated feature  $\mathbf{h}_u^{(k-1)}$  and the aggregated messages  $\mathbf{m}_u^{(k)}$  to produce the final feature  $\mathbf{h}_u^{(k)}$  at layer  $k$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{h}_u^{(k)} &= \phi^{(k)} \left( \mathbf{h}_u^{(k-1)}, \bigoplus \left( \left\{ \psi^{(k)}(\mathbf{h}_v^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{h}_u^{(k-1)}), \forall v \in \mathcal{N}(u) \right\} \right) \right) \\ &= \phi^{(k)} \left( \mathbf{h}_u^{(k-1)}, \bigoplus \left( \left\{ \mathbf{m}_{vu}^{(k)}, \forall v \in \mathcal{N}(u) \right\} \right) \right) \\ &= \phi^{(k)} \left( \mathbf{h}_u^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{m}_u^{(k)} \right)\end{aligned}$$

# Flavors of Message Passing



$$h_u^{(k)} = \phi \left( h_u^{(k-1)}, \bigoplus \{W^k h_v^{(k-1)} \mid v \in \mathcal{N}(u)\} \right)$$

$$h_u^{(k)} = \phi \left( h_u^{(k-1)}, \bigoplus \left\{ a(h_v^{(k-1)}, h_u^{(k-1)}) h_v^{(k-1)} \mid v \in \mathcal{N}(u) \right\} \right)$$

# Practice Question

1. How many parameters do we have in a GNN with the following update function?

$$h_u^{(k)} = \sigma\left(W_0^{(k)} h_u^{(k-1)} + \sum_i W_1^{(k)} h_{v_i}\right), \quad W_i^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$$

2. What about a CNN with kernel size  $k \times k$  and  $m$  input channels and  $n$  output channels?

# Solution

1.  $2dk$
2.  $k^2mn$

Note that neither answer depends on  $|V|$ .

# Tasks

<b>Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs)</b>	<b>Graph Neural Networks (GNNs)</b>
<b>Image-level tasks</b>  (Classification or Regression Tasks)  (One output / target for entire image. Ex: dog, cat, etc.)	<b>Graph-level tasks</b>  (Classification Tasks. Ex: Graph of a particular molecule: deciding if it is poisonous or not? Or at what temperature will it melt?)
<b>Pixel-level tasks</b>  (Ex: Semantic segmentation for classification of every pixel)	<b>Node/Edge-level tasks</b>  (Ex: Graph of customers and products in commercial data deciding the pricing of products or how to give recommendations for each customer)

# Geometric Learning: In/Equivariances

- In Graphs neighbors have no order, so aggregation functions must be **permutation invariant**.
  - Mean the arguments could be permuted, but the result should be the same ie  $f(PA) = f(A)$  for a permutation matrix P.
  - This is a general property of GNNs.
- We can also induce translational in/equivariance
  - Think of translational equivariance in convolutional layers and *approximate* invariance induced by pooling operations.
- Other kinds of invariance
  - Rotational, flipping, perspective shift.
  - A general technique to induce approximate invariance is data augmentation

# Geometric Learning: In/Equivariances

- In graphs, neighbors have no order, so aggregation functions must be **permutation invariant**.
  - Mean the arguments could be permuted, but the result should be the same.
  - That is,  $f(PA) = f(A)$  for a permutation matrix  $P$ .
- Making the aggregation function **permutation invariant** results in the graph neural network being **permutation equivariant**.
  - Means that permutations of the arguments results in the same permutation of the outputs.
  - That is,  $f(PA) = Pf(A)$  for a permutation matrix  $P$ .

# Practice Question

Which of the following are permutation-invariant aggregation functions?

1.  $f(x, y, z) = e^{2x+3y+z}$
2.  $f(x, y, z) = xyz^2$
3.  $f(x, y, z) = \max(x + y, y + z, \min(x, y, z))$
4.  $f(x, y, z) = \min(x + y, x + z, y + z, 2x, 2z, 2y)$

## Practice Question: Solution

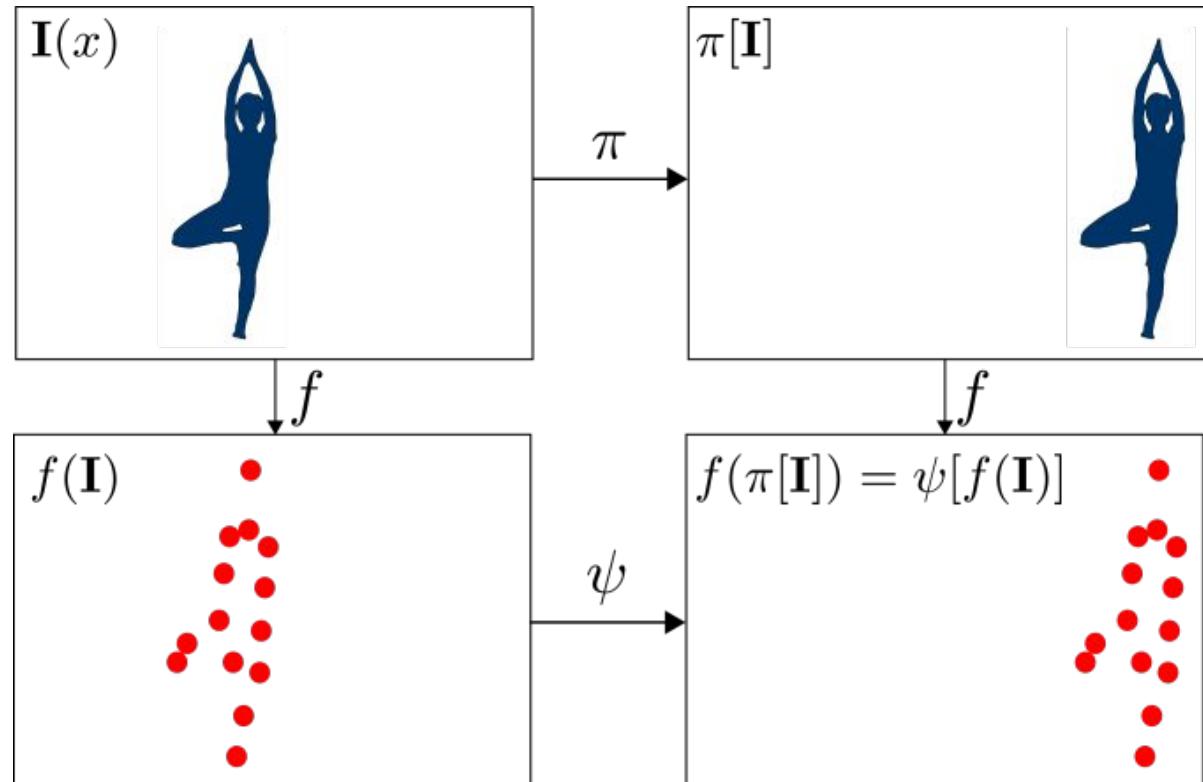
Which of the following are permutation-invariant aggregation functions?

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2.  $f(x, y, z) = xyz^2$
3.  $f(x, y, z) = \max(x + y, y + z, \min(x, y, z))$
4.  $f(x, y, z) = \min(x + y, x + z, y + z, 2x, 2z, 2y)$

4 is the only permutation invariant function

# Translational Equivariance

- Useful for pixel and node-level tasks
- Ex: semantic segmentation or node classification



# Rotational Invariance

- Useful for graph and image-level tasks
- Ex: molecule classification or image classification



→ Cat



→ Cat

# Practice Question

In the following scenarios, would we want invariance or equivariance with respect to rotation?

1. Estimating the pose (x, y, z, orientation) of a chair in a scene.
2. Classifying an image into [cat, dog].
3. Predicting if a crystal structure would be stable given a molecular representation.
4. Predicting whether each pixel in an image belongs to a certain class.

# Practice Question

In the following scenarios, would we want invariance or equivariance with respect to rotation?

1. Estimating the pose (x, y, z, orientation) of a chair in a scene.
  - a. **Equivariance**: if the chair moves, we'd want to reflect this in the output
2. Classifying an image into [cat, dog].
  - a. **Invariance**: a rotated cat is still a cat
3. Predicting if a crystal structure would be stable given a molecular representation.
  - a. **Invariance**: if a molecule is stable, it should be stable when viewed from a different orientation
4. Predicting whether each pixel in an image is a pixel of a cat.
  - a. **Equivariance**: if a cat in the image is rotated, the prediction of the pixels corresponding to that cat should too

# Langevin MCMC

# Score-based generative models

Class of generative models that learn an approximation to the score

$$s_\theta(x) \approx \nabla_x \log p_{\text{data}}(x)$$

This choice is particularly convenient to generate new samples, using Langevin dynamics:

$$x_{t+1} = x_t + \eta \nabla_x \log p_{\text{data}}(x_t) + \sqrt{2\eta} z_t \quad \text{where} \quad z_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$$

# Strategies to learn score-based generative models

1. *Maximum likelihood:*  $\min_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}} [\log p_{\theta}(x)]$
2. *Score matching:*  $\min_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}} [\|\nabla_x \log p(x) - s_{\theta}(x)\|^2]$

What are the limitations of these approaches?

# Strategies to learn score-based generative models

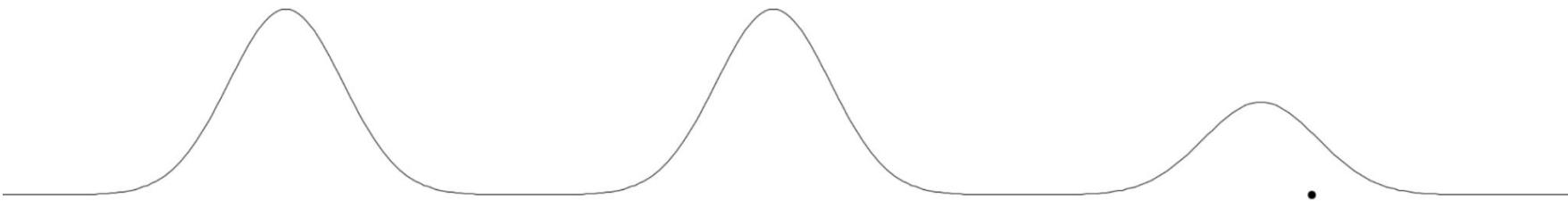
1. *Maximum likelihood:*  $\min_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}} [\log p_{\theta}(x)]$
2. *Score matching:*  $\min_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{data}}} [\|\nabla_x \log p(x) - s_{\theta}(x)\|^2]$

**What are the limitations of these approaches?**

3. Denoising approaches.  $\Rightarrow$  see discussion 11 for more information.

# Two related challenges for practical sample generation

1. Sampling from multimodal distributions.



2. Generating realistic samples of high-dimensional data: starting points for MCMC Langevin may be OOD, and Langevin may fail to get back to high-density areas if the score is poorly fit outside high-density areas.

**Solutions?**

# Kernels

# High-level strategy

*Motivation:* want to train and run a model on a high-dimensional set of features, without blowing up computational complexity

3-step process:

1. Project your features to a higher dimensional space  $x \rightarrow \phi(x)$
2. Rewrite all training and inference steps using only inner products between transformed features  $\phi(x_i)^T \phi(x_j)$
3. Come up with a kernel function  $k$  that computes these inner products between high-dimensional vectors using the raw features

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \phi(x_i)^T \phi(x_j)$$

# How to figure out the appropriate kernel function?

Suppose that  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . We want to transform  $x$  so that it contains all monomials with degree  $\leq 3$ .

Roughly how big is this transformed vector to the right?

$$\phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_1^2 \\ x_1 x_2 \\ x_1 x_3 \\ \vdots \\ x_2 x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_1^3 \\ x_1^2 x_2 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}.$$

## How to figure out the appropriate kernel function? (cont.)

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \phi(x), \phi(z) \rangle &= 1 + \sum_{i=1}^d x_i z_i + \sum_{i,j \in \{1, \dots, d\}} x_i x_j z_i z_j + \sum_{i,j,k \in \{1, \dots, d\}} x_i x_j x_k z_i z_j z_k \\ &= 1 + \sum_{i=1}^d x_i z_i + \left( \sum_{i=1}^d x_i z_i \right)^2 + \left( \sum_{i=1}^d x_i z_i \right)^3 \\ &= 1 + \langle x, z \rangle + \langle x, z \rangle^2 + \langle x, z \rangle^3\end{aligned}\tag{9}$$

# Exam Tips

- Final is cumulative. Take time to review MT1 content too.
- Scope:
  - Lectures 1-27 (no special topics)
  - Homeworks 1-7
  - Discussions 0-12
- Make sure you are comfortable with probability theory, linear algebra, and matrix calculus.
  - Homework 1 is good for reviewing these concepts!
- Exam is Tuesday 12/17, 8-11am
  - Early exam, get a good night's sleep!!
- Good luck!

# Q&A