CPSC 340/540 Tutorial 9

Winter 2024 Term 1

T1A: Tuesday 16:00-17:00;

T1C: Thursday 10:00-11:00;

Office Hour: Wednesday 15:00-16:00

Slides can be found at Piazza and my personal page after T1C.



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Machine Learning: Learning dynamics, LLM, Compositional Generalization

More helpful on theory
Less helpful on coding

Slides Credit: To various pervious TA's of this course

- Kernel Regression
- MLE & MAP
- SGD

Kernel Trick: trade k by n

- Recall Linear Regression with poly-features
 - Recall the L2-regularized least squares objective with basis 'Z':

$$f(v) = \frac{1}{2}||2v - y||^2 + \frac{3}{2}||v||^2$$

We showed that the minimum is given by

$$V = (Z^TZ + \lambda I)^T Z^T y$$

(in practice you still solve the linear system, since inverse is less numerically unstable – see CPSC 302)

With some work (bonus slide), this can equivalently be written as:

$$v = Z^{\mathsf{T}} (ZZ^{\mathsf{T}} + \lambda I)^{\mathsf{T}} y$$

- This is faster if n << k:
 - After forming 'Z', cost is $O(n^2k + n^3)$ instead of $O(nk^2 + k^3)$.
 - But for the polynomial basis, this is still too slow since $k = O(d^p)$.

Kernel Trick: trade k by n

- With the "other" normal equations we have $v = Z^{T}(ZZ^{T} + \lambda I)^{T}y$
- Given test data \tilde{X} , predict \hat{y} by forming \tilde{Z} and then using:

$$\hat{y} = \tilde{Z}v$$

$$= \tilde{Z}z^{T}(zz^{T} + \lambda I)^{-1}y$$

$$= \tilde{K}(K + \lambda I)^{-1}y = \tilde{K}u$$

$$= \tilde{K}(K +$$

• Notice that if you can from K and \tilde{K} then you do not need Z and \tilde{Z} .

Kernel Trick: trade k by n

• The matrix $K = ZZ^T$ is called the Gram matrix K.

$$K = ZZ^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} -z_{1}^{T} \\ -z_{1}^{T} \\ -z_{n}^{T} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} z_{1}^{T}z_{1} & z_{1}^{T}z_{2} & \cdots & z_{1}^{T}z_{n} \\ -z_{1}^{T}z_{1} & z_{1}^{T}z_{2} & \cdots & z_{n}^{T}z_{n} \\ -z_{1}^{T}z_{1} & z_{1}^{T}z_{2} & \cdots & z_{n}^{T}z_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$

- K contains the dot products between all training examples.
 - Similar to 'Z' in RBFs, but using dot product as "similarity" instead of distance.

$$K = \tilde{Z}Z^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\tilde{z}_{1}^{T}}{\tilde{z}_{1}^{T}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{z_{1}} & \frac{1}{z_{2}} \\ \frac{\tilde{z}_{1}^{T}}{\tilde{z}_{2}^{T}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Kernel Trick: trade $m{k}$ by $m{n}$

Linear Regression Kernel Regression Training

1. Form basis 2 from X.

2. Compute $V = (Z^{7}Z) + \lambda I)^{-1} (Z^{7}y)$ 1. Form inner products K from X.

2. Compute $V = (K + \lambda I)^{-1} y$ Non

Non Training : Non-parametric 1. Form inner products K from X and X Testing
1. Form basis 2 from X 2. Compute $\hat{y} = Ku$

2. Compute $\hat{y} = \sum_{t \in K} v_{t}$ Both methods make the same predictions.

If you want explicit feature weights 'v' from Kernel regression, you can use v= Zu

Kernel Trick: other examples to understand kernel trick

$$x^{9} + 9x^{8} + 36x^{7} + 84x^{6} + 126x^{5} + 126x^{4} + 84x^{3} + 36x^{2} + 9x + 1$$
 or $(x+1)^{9}$

$$1 + x + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \frac{x^{4}}{4!} + \frac{x^{5}}{5!} + \frac{x^{6}}{6!} \dots$$
 or e^{x}

Kernel Trick: Gaussian Kernel and RBF



stop following 83 views

Why RBF-kernel not the same as RBF-basis?

I do not quite understand the two statements in red box? I think with k as defined that way, it is just the $g(||x_i - x_j||)$ as we saw in the last lecture of RBF basis? Why they are not equivalent? What does "equivalent" here mean?

Also, why now "we are using them as inner product"? Is it because we now regard $k(x_i, x_j)$ as the inner product of z_i and z_i , which are some magical transformation of x_i and x_i ? (Like $k(x_i,x_i)=(1+x_i^Tx_i)^p$ is the inner product of z_i and z_i , which are polynomial transformation of x_i and x_i)?



Chenliang Zhou 8 months ago Oh so is my following reasoning correct?:

Let Z and \tilde{Z} be as defined in lecture 22a.

In Gaussian RBF basis, $ilde{y} = ilde{Z}(Z^TZ + \lambda I)^{-1}Z^Ty = ilde{Z}Z^T(ZZ^T + \lambda I)^{-1}y$.

In Gaussian RBF kernel, we have $ilde y = ilde K(K+\lambda I)^{-1}y$ where where K and ilde K are those 2 horrible matrices for Gaussian RBF kernels. Since they are the same formula, K = Z and \tilde{K} = \tilde{Z} , so $\tilde{y} = \tilde{Z}(Z + \lambda I)^{-1}y.$

So Gaussian RBF basis and Gaussian RBF kernel are different because in general, $\tilde{Z}Z^T(ZZ^T+\lambda I)^{-1}(\text{for G-RBF basis})\neq Z(Z+\lambda I)^{-1}(\text{for G-RBF kernel}).$

- Kernel Regression
- MLE & MAP
- SGD

MLE & MAP: definition

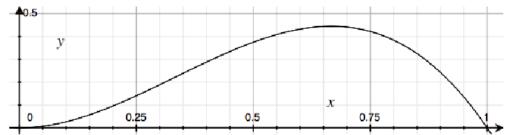
Suppose we have a dataset 'D' with parameters 'w'.

MLE:
$$rgmax p(D|w)$$

MAP:
$$rgmax \ p(D|w)p(w)$$

MLE & MAP: definition

We can plot the likelihood p(HHT | w) as a function of 'w':



- Notice:
 - Data has probability 0 if w=0 or w=1 (since we have 'H' and 'T' in data).
 - Data doesn't have highest probability at 0.5 (we have more 'H' than 'T').
 - This is a probability distribution over 'D', not 'w' (area isn't 1).
- Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE):
 - Choose parameters that maximize the likelihood: w∈ argmax { p(D)w)}
 In this example, MLE is 2/3.

MLE & MAP: definition

MAP:
$$rgmax \ p(D|w)p(w)$$

- Given D={HHT}
- What about: we have no information about the coin?
- What about: the coin comes from National Bank?
- What about: the coin comes from a private Casino, and H means you lose?

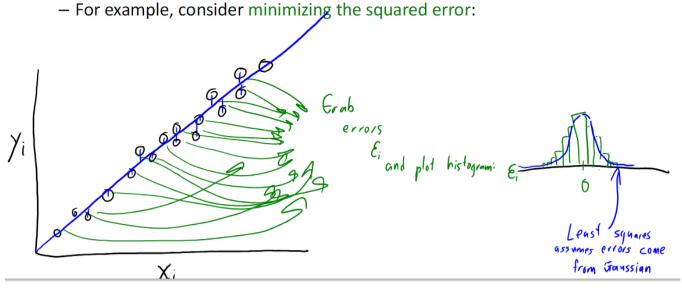
MLE & MAP: Relationship between MLE and Gaussian, L2 loss

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{3} || \chi_w - \gamma ||^2$$

$$y_i = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i$$

where each & is sampled independently from standard normal

$$\hat{w} \in \operatorname{argmax} \{ p(D)w \} \equiv \operatorname{argmin} \{ -\log (p(D)w) \}$$



Let's assume that $y_i = w^T x_i + \varepsilon_i$, with ε_i following standard normal:

$$p(\mathcal{E}_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} exp\left(-\frac{\mathcal{E}_i^2}{2}\right)$$

This leads to a Gaussian likelihood for example 'i' of the form:

$$\rho(\gamma_i \mid x_{ij} w) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} exp\left(-\frac{(w^7 x_i - \gamma_i)^2}{2}\right)$$

• Finding MLE (minimizing NLL) is least squares:

• Finding MLE (minimizing NLL) is least squares:
$$f(w) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log (\rho(y_i | w_i, x_i))$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log (\rho(y_i | w_i, x_i))$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\frac{(w^T x_i - y_i)^2)}{2})$$

$$= (constant) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w^T x_i - y_i)^2$$

$$= (constant) + \frac{1}{2} ||Xw - y||^2$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}) + \log (\exp(-\frac{(w^T x_i - y_i)^2)}{2})$$

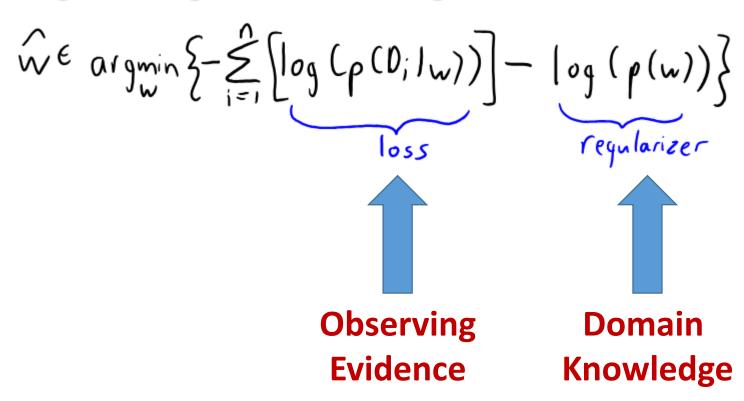
$$= (constant) + \frac{1}{2} ||Xw - y||^2$$

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MLE & MAP: what about MAP?

By again taking the negative of the logarithm as before we get:



- Kernel Regression
- MLE & MAP
- SGD

SGD: popular methods in DL

Motivation: Big-N Problems

Consider fitting a least squares model:

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{4} (w^{T} y_{i} - y_{i})^{2}$$

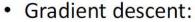
- Gradient methods are effective when 'd' is very large.
 - O(nd) per iteration instead of O(nd² + d³) to solve as linear system.
- But what if number of training examples 'n' is very large?
 - All Gmails, all products on Amazon, all homepages, all images, and so on.

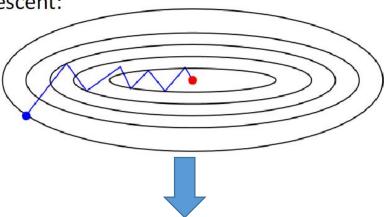
SGD: popular methods in DL

$$\nabla f(w) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w^{T} x_{i} - y_{i}) x_{i}$$

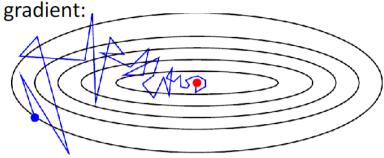
$$\int_{s_{i}} x_{i} ds = \int_{s_{i}} x_{i} ds$$

$$\nabla f_i(w) = (\underbrace{w^T x_i - y_i}_{scalar}) x_i$$

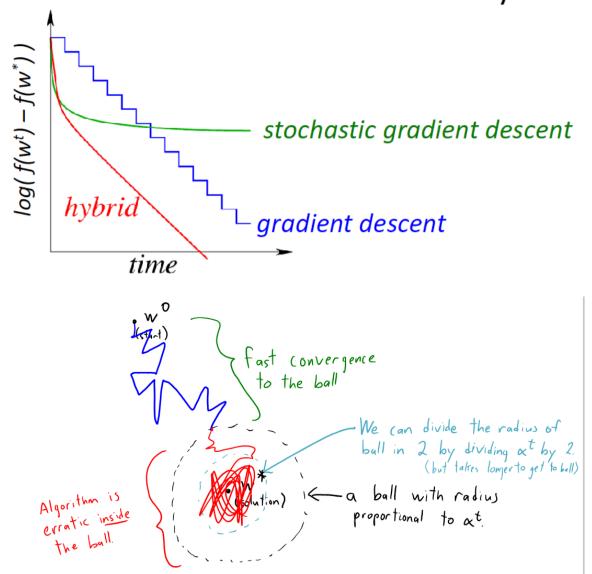




• Stochastic gradient:



Gradient Descent vs. Stochastic Gradient vs. Hybrid



Thanks for your time! Questions?