

# CS 6820 – Machine Learning

Lecture 4 (Info only – not given in class)

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#### **ML** Tools

- Matlab
- GNU Octave
- SciPy, Numpy, SciKits
  - Recommend installing Jupyter from <u>www.anaconda.com</u> (evolved from iPython)
  - Good Read–Eval–Print Loop (REPL) environment
  - https://github.com/jupyter/jupyter/wiki/A-gallery-of-interesting-Jupyter-Notebooks
- Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms (BLAS)
- LAPACK Linear Algebra PACKage
- Shogun-toolbox
- MLlib Apache
- Deeplearn.js
- ConvnetJS
- MLPack
- TensorFlow

# NumPy and SciPy

- NumPy and SciPy are open-source add-on modules to Python that provide common mathematical and numerical routines in pre-compiled, fast functions. These are growing into highly mature packages that provide functionality that meets, or perhaps exceeds, that associated with common commercial software like MatLab.
- The NumPy (Numeric Python) package provides basic routines for manipulating large arrays and matrices of numeric data.
- The SciPy (Scientific Python) package extends the functionality of NumPy with a substantial collection of useful algorithms, like minimization, Fourier transformation, regression, and other applied mathematical techniques.
- https://docs.scipy.org/doc/scipy/reference/tutorial/

 Machine learning algorithms execute numerical solutions from Optimization Theory (Calculus), Statistics, Linear Algebra, and Discrete Math.

- Linear Algebra
  - Useful for compact representation of linear transformations on data
  - Dimensionality reduction techniques
  - Solving systems of equations

 To have maximum effectiveness developing Machine Learning solutions, you will need good mathematical intuitions about certain general machine learning principles and algorithms.

- Choose the best algorithm for the problem
- Set parameter and initial conditions
- Estimate runtime for solutions
- Drive validation strategies and troubleshooting
- Recognize/avoid over- or underfitting
- Set confidence boundaries on solutions
- Choose the best coding approach, framework, language, etc.

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    a ∈ A set membership: a is member of set A
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| B | cardinality: number of items in set B

• || **v** || norm: length of vector v

• ∫ integral

R the set of real numbers

\mathbb{R}^n real number space of dimension n

n = 2 : plane or 2-space

n = 3 : 3- (dimensional) space

n > 3 : *n*-space or *hyperspace* 

- x, y, z, vector (bold, lower case)u, v
- A, B, X matrix (bold, upper case)
- y = f(x) function (map): assigns unique value in range of y to each value in domain of x
- dy / dx derivative of y with respect to single variable x
- y = f(x) function on multiple variables, i.e. a
   vector of variables; function in n-space
- $\partial y / \partial x_i$  partial derivative of y with respect to element i of vector **x**

A probability space is a random process or experiment with three components:

- $-\Omega$ , the set of possible *outcomes* O
  - number of possible outcomes = | Ω | = N
- F, the set of possible events E
  - an event comprises 0 to N outcomes
  - number of possible events = | F | = 2<sup>N</sup>
- P, the probability distribution
  - function mapping each outcome and event to real number between 0 and 1 (the probability of O or E)
  - probability of an event is sum of probabilities of possible outcomes in event

#### Given:

- A discrete random variable X, with possible values  $x = x_1, x_2, \dots x_n$
- Probabilities  $p(X = x_i)$  that X takes on the various values of  $x_i$
- A function  $y_i = f(x_i)$  defined on X

The expected value of f is the probability-weighted "average" value of  $f(x_i)$ :

$$\mathsf{E}(f) = \sum_{i} p(x_i) \cdot f(x_i)$$

- Addition of two matrices
  - matrices must be same size
  - add corresponding elements:

$$c_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij}$$

result is a matrix of same size

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} =$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} + b_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} + b_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} + b_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Scalar multiplication of a matrix
  - multiply each element by scalar:

$$b_{ij} = d \cdot a_{ij}$$

result is a matrix of same size

$$\begin{pmatrix} d \cdot a_{11} & \cdots & d \cdot a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ d \cdot a_{m1} & \cdots & d \cdot a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$$

 $\mathbf{B} = d \cdot \mathbf{A} =$ 

The probability a discrete variable A takes value a is:  $0 \le P(A=a) \le 1$ 

Alternatives

Probability

Probabilities of alternative outcomes add:  $P(A \in \{a, a'\}) = P(A = a) + P(A = a')$ 

Normalization

 $\sum P(A=a)=1$ The probabilities of all outcomes must sum to one: all possible a

Joint Probability

P(A=a,B=b) is the joint probability that both A=a and B=b occur.

Marginalization

Conditional Probability

Product Rule

Bayes Rule

Variables can be "summed out" of joint distributions:

 $P(A=a) = \sum P(A=a,B=b)$ all possible b

 $P\left(A\!=\!a|B\!=\!b\right)$  is the probability  $A\!=\!a$  occurs given the knowledge  $B\!=\!b.$ 

$$P\left( A\!=\!a,B\!=\!b\right) = P\left( A\!=\!a\right) P\left( B\!=\!b|A\!=\!a\right) = P\left( B\!=\!b\right) P\left( A\!=\!a|B\!=\!b\right)$$

Bayes rule can be derived from the above:

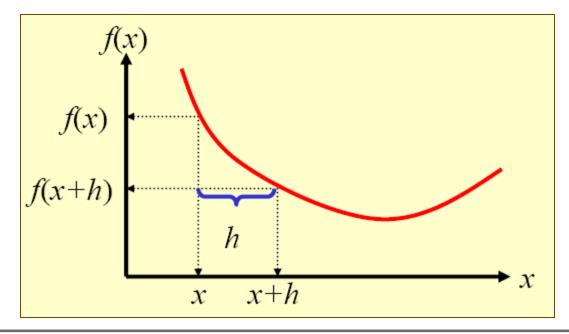
$$P\left(A=a|B=b,\mathcal{H}\right) = \frac{P\left(B=b|A=a,\mathcal{H}\right)P\left(A=a|\mathcal{H}\right)}{P\left(B=b|\mathcal{H}\right)} \propto P\left(A=a,B=b|\mathcal{H}\right)$$

\* Thanks to A Yu

The derivative of  $f: R \to R$  is a function  $f': R \to R$  st.

$$f'(x) = \frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

if the limit exists.



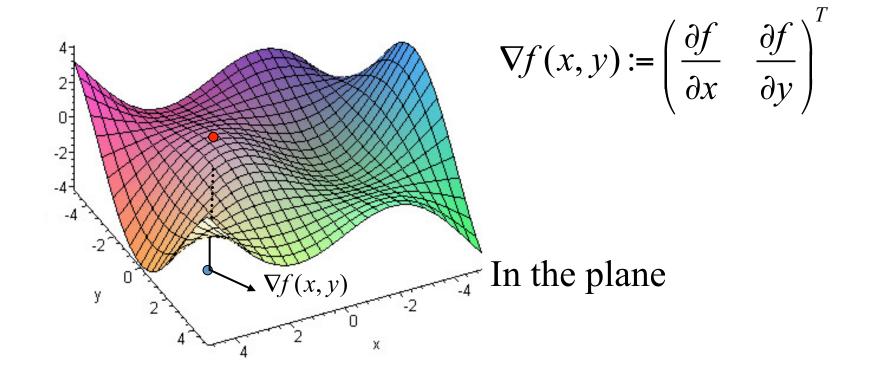
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- The gradient is an important concept from calculus in the context of machine learning.
- Gradients generalize derivatives to scalar functions of several variables.

$$abla f = egin{bmatrix} rac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ dots \\ rac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{i.e.} \quad [
abla f]_i = rac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$$

• <u>Definition</u>: The gradient of f: in  $R^2 \rightarrow R$ :

It is a function  $\nabla f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$  given by



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• <u>Definition</u>: The gradient of  $f: R^n \to R$  is a function  $\nabla f: R^n \to R^n$  given by

$$\nabla f(x_1, ..., x_n) := \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, ..., \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}\right)^T$$

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The **Hessian** matrix of  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is a matrix of second-order partial derivatives:

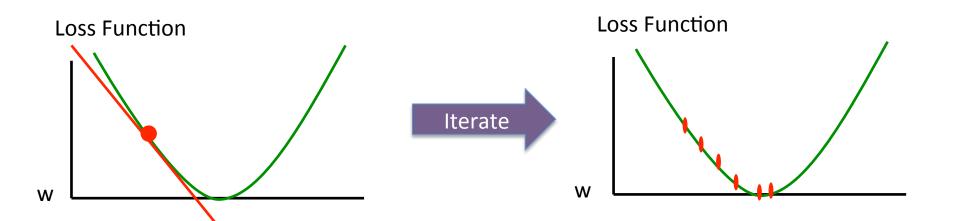
$$\nabla^2 f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_d} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_d \partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_d^2} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{i.e.} \quad [\nabla^2 f]_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$$

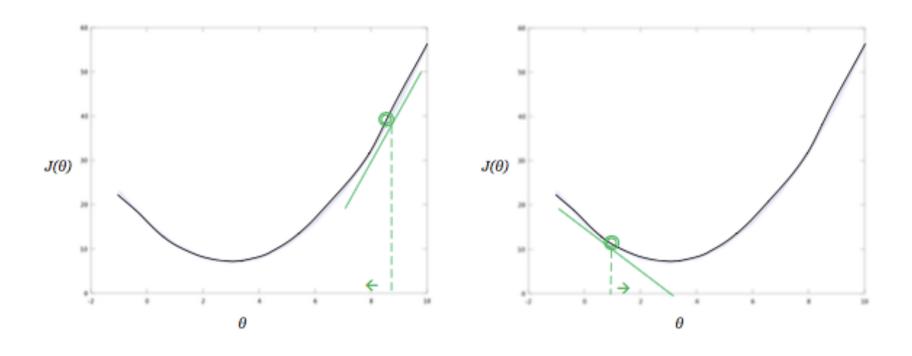
Partial derivatives provide the slope to direct the solution toward minimization of the loss function.

- Pick initial solution
- Repeat until optimized {
  - Evaluate slope and minima conditionality
  - Pick dimension(s)
  - Move a small amount in the direction decreasing loss

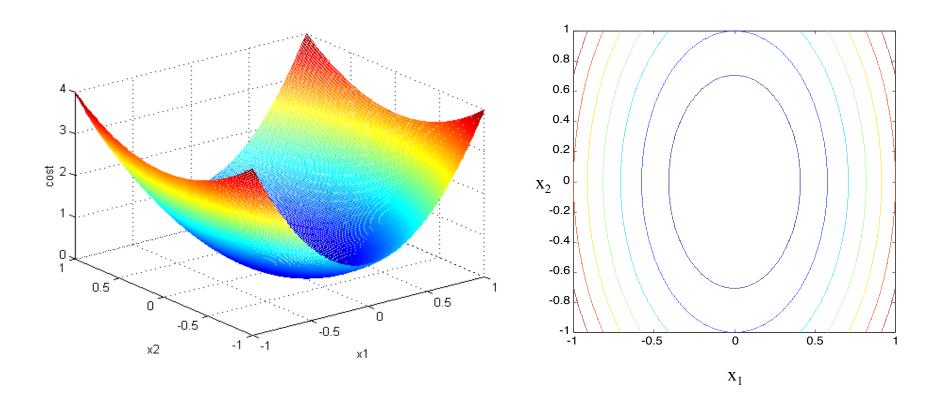
 $\theta_{1} \coloneqq \theta_{1} - \alpha \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_{1}}$   $\theta_{2} \coloneqq \theta_{2} - \alpha \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_{2}}$   $\vdots$   $\theta_{k} \coloneqq \theta_{k} - \alpha \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_{k}}$ 

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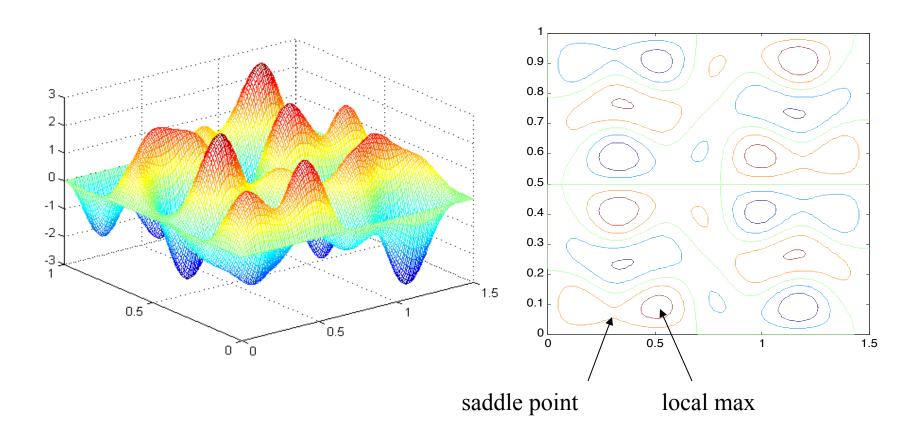




<sup>\*</sup> A Beginners Tutorial for Machine Learning Beginners, Hao



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- Simple concept: follow the gradient downhill
- Process:
  - 1. Pick a starting position:  $\mathbf{x}^0 = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_d)$
  - 2. Determine the descent direction:  $-\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^t)$
  - 3. Choose a learning rate:  $\eta$
  - 4. Update your position:  $\mathbf{x}^{t+1} = \mathbf{x}^t \eta \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^t)$
  - 5. Repeat from 2) until stopping criterion is satisfied
- Typical stopping criteria
  - $\qquad \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{t+1}) \sim 0$
  - some validation metric is optimized

# Gradient descent optimization

- Problems:
  - Choosing step size
    - too small → convergence is slow and inefficient
    - too large → may not converge
  - Can get stuck on "flat" areas of function
  - Easily trapped in local minima

