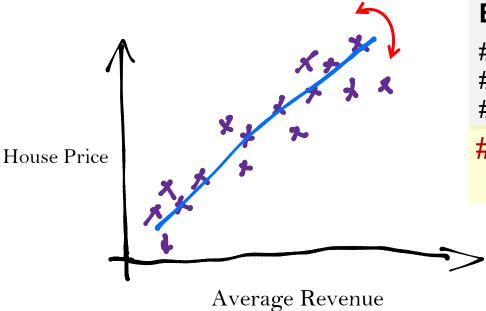
Key Elements of Machine Learning





How to find the optimal model?

Elements:

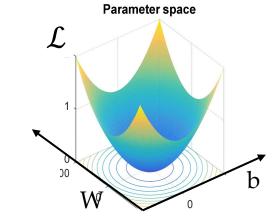
#1 Data (Experience)

#2 Model (Hypothesis)

#3 Loss Function (Objective)

#4 Optimization Algorithm (Improvement)

$$\theta^* = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta | \mathcal{D})$$



How to Approach a Machine Learning Problem?

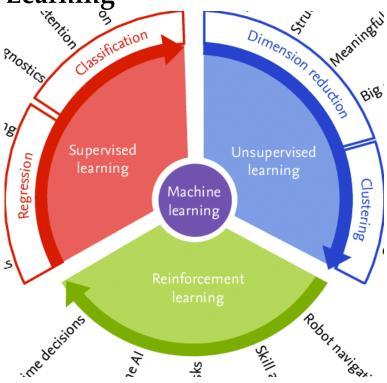


- (1) consider the nature of available data D
 - how much amount of data can you obtain? how would it cost (in time, computation, human efforts)?
- **②** select a representation for the input **X**
 - data preprocessing, feature extraction, etc.
- (3) choose a set of possible models H (hypothesis space)
 - set of functions h: $X \rightarrow Y$
- **4** choose the performance measure P (loss function)
- (5) choose or design a learning algorithm
 - for using examples (E) to converge on a member of H that optimizes
 P

Categories of Machine Learning Algorithms

- Supervised Learning
- Unsupervised Learning

• Reinforcement Learning

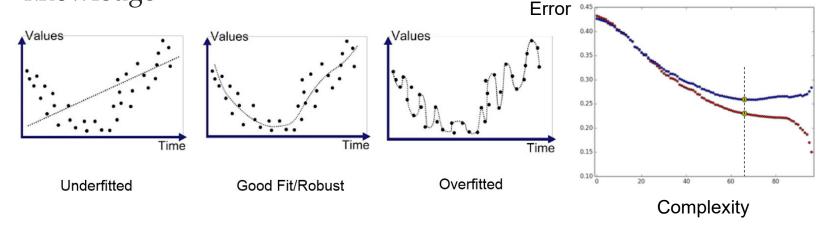


Overfitting



Underfitting – the model isn't complex enough to capture the real knowledge, the assumption may not be true.

Overfitting – the model is too complex and thus describes the details of data (e.g., random noise) instead of underlying knowledge



Example: https://ml.berkeley.edu/blog/posts/crash-course/part-4/

Prevent Overfitting



Selecting appropriate model complexity

In general, design a good loss function to indicate the performance of the predictive model over the whole-data distribution instead of the training data can help achieve compromise between simplicity and complexity of the model structure

Widely used approaches (to prevent overfitting)

- Increase training data
- Regularization (penalizing model complexity)
- Hold-out & cross validation (unseen data to ensure generalization)
- Early stopping
- Prior knowledge (e.g., Bayesian prior)
- ...

Prevent Overfitting



Fit the overall distribution instead of the training set.

- To estimate the generalization error, we need data unseen during model training.
- Data Splitting (Hold-Out):
 - Training set (e.g., 50%)
 - Validation set (e.g., 25%)
 - Test set (e.g., 25%)

平时练习

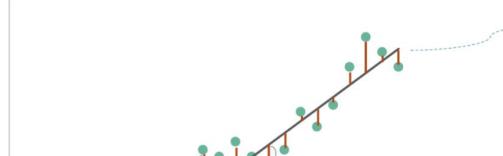
模拟考试

高考!

Linear Regression







 $= y - \hat{y}$

Loss function
$$MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

Model: $\hat{y} = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$ parameter

$$y = f_{ heta}(x) = heta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^d heta_j x_j = heta^ op x_j$$

$$x = (1, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d)$$

$$J_{\theta} = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - f_{\theta}(x_i))^2 \qquad \min_{\theta} J_{\theta}$$

X (Size of House)

Gradient Descent

$$\theta_{\text{new}} \leftarrow \theta_{\text{old}} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial \theta}$$

Batch Gradient Descent

$$\theta_{
m new} = heta_{
m old} + \eta rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - f_{ heta}(x_i)) x_i$$

Stochastic Gradient Descent

$$\theta_{\text{new}} = \theta_{\text{old}} + \eta(y_i - f_{\theta}(x_i))x_i$$

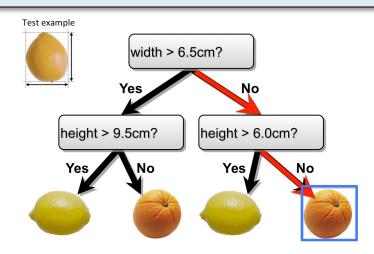
Training – (Build a Decision Tree)



top-down divide-and-conquer learning procedure

- 1. Construct a root node which contains the whole data set.
- 2. Selecting an attribute that benefit the task most according to some criterion.
- 3. Split the examples of the current node into subsets based on values of the selected attributes.
- 4.Create a child node for each subset and passes the examples in the subset to the node.
- 5.Recursively repeat step 2~4 until some stopping criterion is met.

ID	width	height	Туре
1	5.2	8.0	lemons
2	6.7	9.8	lemons
3	7.2	7.5	orang
4	6.1	5.3	orang
5	4.1	6.5	lemons



Bayesian Networks for Classification



Input:

- a <u>data sample</u> $x = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_d)$
- a fixed set of <u>classes</u> $C = \{C_1, ..., C_i\}$.

Output:

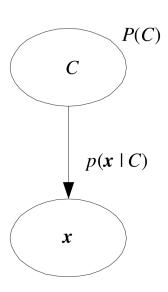
• the most probable class $c \in C$:

$$c_{\text{MAP}} = \arg \max_{c \in C} P(c|x)$$

$$= \arg \max_{c \in C} \frac{P(x|c)P(c)}{P(x)}$$

$$= \arg \max_{c \in C} P(x|c)P(c)$$

$$= \arg \max_{c \in C} P(x_1, x_2, ..., x_d|c) P(c)$$



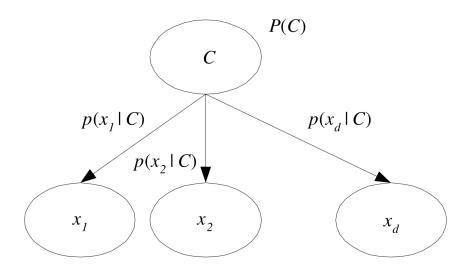
Naïve Bayes Independent Assumption



$$P(x_1, x_2, ..., x_d | c)$$

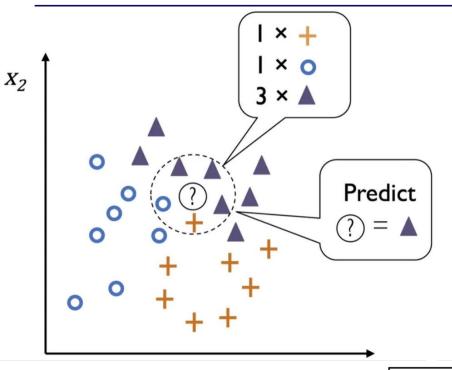
Conditional Independence: assume the input features x_j are independent given the class c

$$P(x_1,...,x_n|c) = P(x_1|c) \cdot P(x_2|c) \cdot P(x_3|c) \cdot ... \cdot P(x_n|c)$$



K-Nearest Neighbors





KNN: Pseudocode

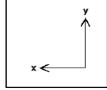
- Step 1: Determine parameter *K* = number of nearest neighbors
- Step 2: Calculate the distance between the gueryinstance and all the training examples.
- Step 3: Sort the distance and determine nearest neighbors based on the k-th minimum distance.
- Step 4: Gather the category Y of the nearest neighbors.
- Step 5: Use simple majority of the category of nearest neighbors as the prediction value of the query instance.

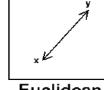
Euclidean Distance

$$dist = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{p} (a_k - b_k)^2}$$

Manhattan Distance

$$|x_1 - x_2| + |y_1 - y_2|$$





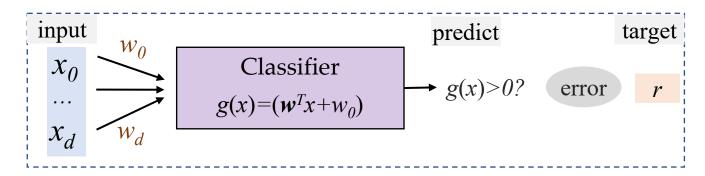
Manhattan

Euclidean

Perceptron



A simple, naïve linear classifier.



- Train:
 - estimate the parameters w and w_0 from data
- Test:
 - calculate $g(x) = (w^T x + w_0)$ and choose C_1 if g(x) > 0 or choose C_2 if g(x) < 0.

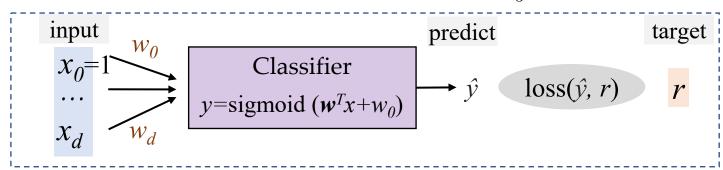
perceptron classifies data based on which **side** of the plane the new point lies on.

Logistic Regression



A classifier that estimates the decision boundary as a logistic function:

$$y = \text{sigmoid } (\mathbf{w}^{T}x + w_0) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp[-(\mathbf{w}^{T}x + w_0)]}$$



- Train:
 - estimate the parameters w and w_0 from data
- Test:
 - calculate $y = \text{sigmoid}(w^T x + w_0)$ and choose C_1 if y > 0.5 (y can be interpreted as a posterior probability).

Loss Function

 $y \equiv p(C_1|x) = \text{sigmoid}(w^Tx + w_0)$ is the estimated posterior probability of $x \in C_I$.



- For a given input x, the model outputs a probability y of $x \in C_1$. Let $r \in \{0, 1\}$ be the label of the real class $(r = 1: x \in C_1, r = 0: x \in C_2)$:
 - if r = 1: we aim to maximize $\log p(C_1 | x) = \log y$, cost is $-\log y$
 - if r = 0: we aim to maximize $\log p(C_2 | x) = \log (1-y)$, cost is $\log (1-y)$
- Can write this succinctly as a cross-entropy loss:

$$\ell(w, w_0 | x, r) = -r \log y - (1 - r) \log (1 - y)$$
nonzero only if r=1 nonzero only if r=0

$$CE(p, q)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)} \left\{ \log \frac{1}{q(x)} \right\}$$

$$= -\sum_{x \in X} p(x) \log_2 q(x)$$

• Equivalent to maximize the likelihood:

$$r \mid x \sim \text{Bernoulli}(y)$$

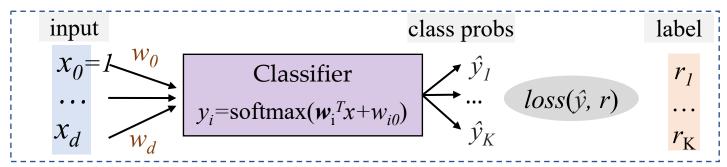
$$p(r|x) = y^{r} (1-y)^{(1-r)} = \begin{cases} y & \text{if } r=1\\ 1-y & \text{if } r=0 \end{cases}$$

Softmax Regression



A classifier that estimates the decision boundaries as Softmax functions:

$$y_i = \text{softmax} \left(\mathbf{w}_i^T x + w_{i0} \right) = \frac{\exp\left[\mathbf{w}_i^T x + w_{i0} \right]}{\sum_{j=1}^K \exp\left[\mathbf{w}_j^T x + w_{j0} \right]} \quad (i = 1, ..., K)$$



- Train:
 - estimate the parameters w_i and w_{i0} (i=1:K) from data
- Test:
 - calculate y_i = softmax ($w_i^T x + w_0$) and choose C_i if y_i = max { $y_{1:K}$ } (y_i can be interpreted as a posterior probability).

Loss Function

$$r = \underbrace{(0,\ldots,0,1,0,\ldots,0)}_{\text{entry } k \text{ is } 1}$$



- For a given input x, the model outputs a vector of class probabilities $y = (y_1, ..., y_K)$, and the label of target class is a one-hot vector $\mathbf{r} = (r_1, ..., r_K)$ $(r_i=1:x \in C_i, r_i=0:x \notin C_i)$
 - if r_1 = 1: we aim to maximize $\log p(C_1|x) = \log y_1$, cost is $-\log y_1$
 - if r_2 = 1: we aim to maximize $\log p(C_2|x) = \log y_2$, cost is $-\log y_2$
 - **–**
- We can write this succinctly as a **cross-entropy** loss function:

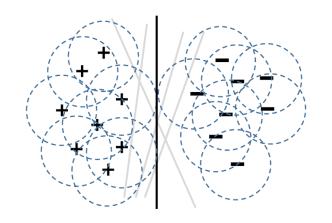
$$L_{\text{CE}}(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{r}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{K} r_i \log y_i = -\boldsymbol{r}^T(\log \boldsymbol{y})$$

where the *log* is applied elementwise.

Support Vector Machines

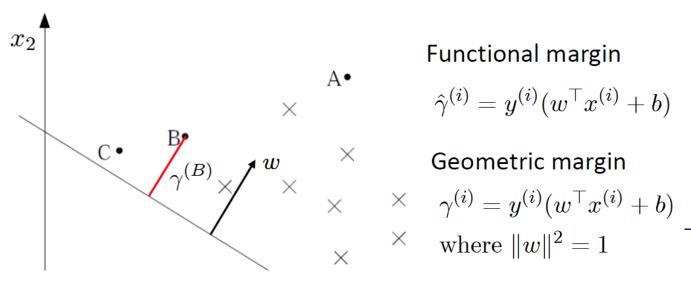


The intuitive optimal decision boundary: the largest margin



$$h_{w,b}(x) = g(w^{\top}x + b)$$

$$g(z) = \begin{cases} +1 & z \ge 0 \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Functional margin

$$\hat{\gamma}^{(i)} = y^{(i)}(w^{\top}x^{(i)} + b)$$

$$\gamma^{(i)} = y^{(i)}(w^{\top}x^{(i)} + b)$$
where $||w||^2 = 1$

Support Vector Machines



$$\gamma^{(i)} \ = y^{(i)} \left(\left(rac{w}{\|w\|}
ight)^ op x^{(i)} + rac{b}{\|w\|}
ight)$$

Given a training set $S = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1...m}$

The smallest geometric margin $\gamma = \min_{i=1, m} \gamma^{(i)}$

Objective of an SVM

Find a separable hyperplane that maximizes the minimum geometric margin

$$\max_{\substack{\gamma,w,b}} \gamma \\ \text{s.t.} \quad y^{(i)}(w^\top x^{(i)} + b) \geq \gamma, \ i = 1,\dots,m \\ \|w\| = 1 \quad \text{(non-convex constraint)} \qquad \qquad \max_{\substack{\hat{\gamma},w,b}} \frac{\hat{\gamma}}{\|w\|} \quad \text{(non-convex objective)} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad y^{(i)}(w^\top x^{(i)} + b) \geq \hat{\gamma}, \ i = 1,\dots,m$$



$$\max_{\hat{\gamma}, w, b} \frac{\gamma}{\|w\|}$$
 (non-convex objective)



$$\min_{w,b} \ \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2$$

s.t. $y^{(i)}(w^{\top}x^{(i)} + b) \ge 1, \ i = 1, \dots, m$



$$\max_{w,b} \ \frac{1}{\|w\|}$$

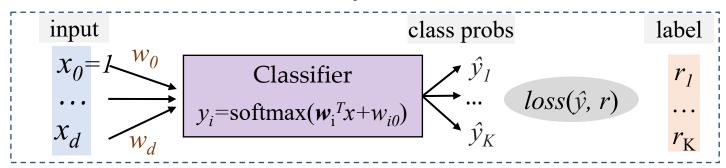
s.t. $y^{(i)}(w^{\top}x^{(i)} + b) \ge 1, \ i = 1, \dots, m$

Softmax Regression



A classifier that estimates the decision boundaries as Softmax functions:

$$y_i = \text{softmax} \left(\mathbf{w}_i^T x + w_{i0} \right) = \frac{\exp\left[\mathbf{w}_i^T x + w_{i0} \right]}{\sum_{j=1}^K \exp\left[\mathbf{w}_j^T x + w_{j0} \right]} \quad (i = 1, ..., K)$$

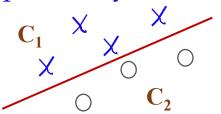


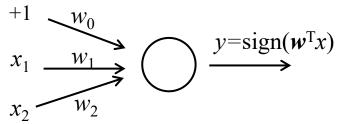
- Train:
 - estimate the parameters w_i and w_{i0} (i=1:K) from data
- Test:
 - calculate y_i = softmax ($w_i^T x + w_0$) and choose C_i if y_i = max { $y_{1:K}$ } (y_i can be interpreted as a posterior probability).

The Magic of Hidden Layers!

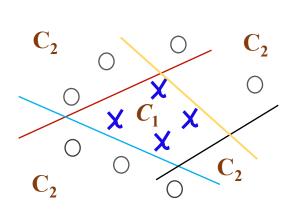


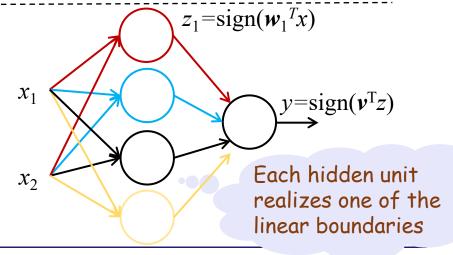
• **But**, adding hidden layer(s) (internal presentation) allows to learn a mapping that is not constrained by linear separability.





decision boundary: $x_1w_1 + x_2w_2 + w_0 = 0$

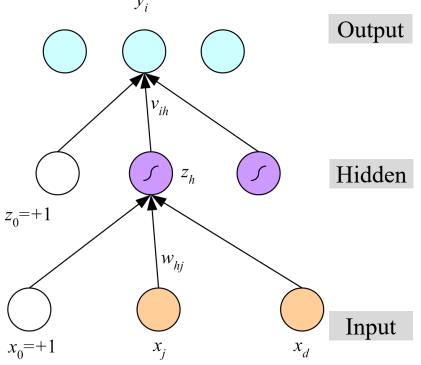




Multilayer Perceptrons



- A multilayer perceptron (MLP) has a hidden layer between the input and output layers.
- Can implement nonlinear discriminants (for classification) and regression (for regression) functions.



a linear function in the new *H*-dim space.

$$y_i = \mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{z} = \sum_{h=1}^H v_{ih} z_h + v_{i0}$$

a **nonlinear** transformation from the *d*-dim input space to the *H*-dim space spanned by the hidden units.

$$z_h = \frac{\mathsf{sigmoid}(\mathbf{w}_h^T \mathbf{x})}{1}$$

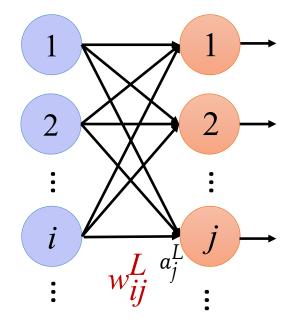
$$= \frac{1 + \exp\left[-\left(\sum_{j=1}^d w_{hj} x_j + w_{h0}\right)\right]}{1 + \exp\left[-\left(\sum_{j=1}^d w_{hj} x_j + w_{h0}\right)\right]}$$

performs no computation.

Perspective from Error-Propagation



Error signal



$$\begin{cases} z_i^{L-1} & L > 1\\ x_i & L = 1 \end{cases}$$

Forward Pass

$$z^1 = W^1 x$$
$$a^1 = \sigma(z^1)$$

$$z^{l-1} = W^{l-1}a^{l-2}$$

$$a^{l-1} = \sigma(z^{l-1})$$

Backward Pass

$$\delta^L = \sigma'(z^L) \bullet \nabla_y Loss$$

 ∂a_i^{ι}

$$\delta^{L-1} = \sigma'(z^{L-1}) \bullet (W^L)^T \delta^L$$

$$\delta^{l} = \sigma'(z^{l}) \bullet (W^{l+1})^{T} \delta^{l+1}$$

The Algorithm



1. Forward propagation:

- apply the input vector to the network and evaluate the activations of all hidden and output units.

$$a_i = \sum_i w_{ii} z_i$$
 $z_i = \sigma(a_i)$

2. Backward propagation:

- evaluate the derivatives of the loss function with respect to the weights (errors). ∂

- errors are propagated backwards through the network. $o_{j} = \frac{1}{\partial a_{j}}$

3. Parameter update:

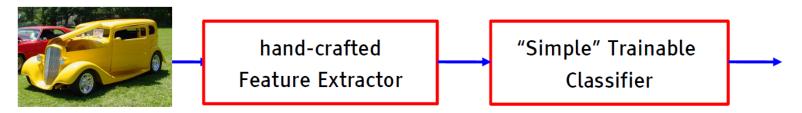
- the evaluated derivatives (errors) are then used to compute the adjustments to be made to the parameters.

$$w'_{ij} = w_{ij} + \eta \delta_j \sigma'_j (a_j) z_i$$

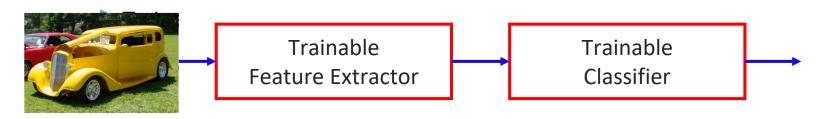
Deep Learning = Learning Representations/Features of Data



- The traditional model of pattern recognition (since the late 50's)
 - ► fixed/engineered features + trainable classifier

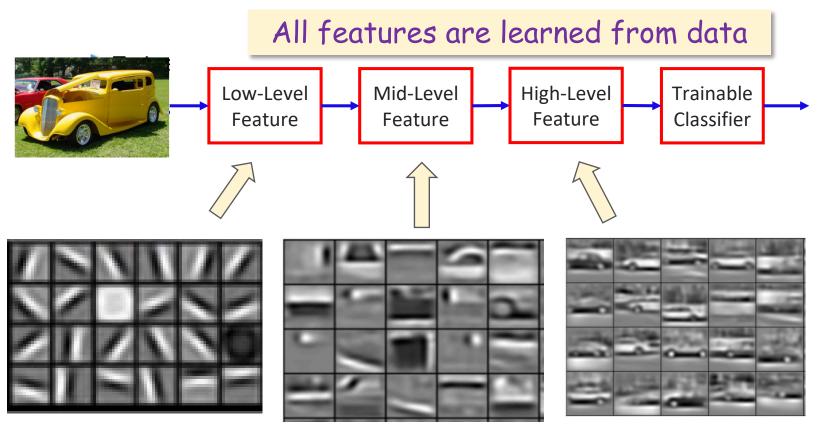


- Deep Learning/ Feature learning / End-to-end Learning
 - ▶ trainable features + trainable classifier



Deep Learning = Learning Hierarchical Representations





How to obtain word embeddings?



A word can be understood by its context

"A bottle of *tesgüino* is on the table"

"Everybody likes **tesgüino**"

"Tesgüino makes you drunk"

"We make *tesgüino* out of corn"



"You shall know a word by the company it keeps" (J. R. Firth 1957)

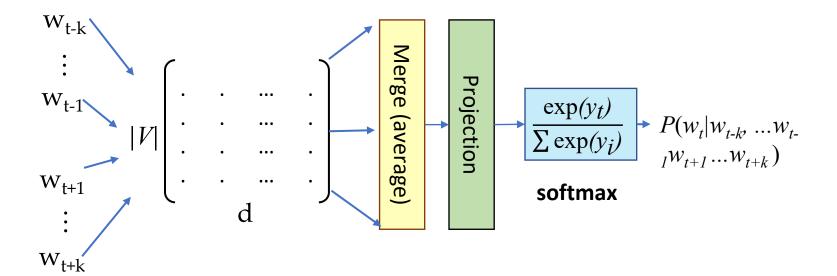
From context words we can guess tesgüino means an alcoholic beverage such as beer.

• Intuition for an algorithm:

Two words are similar if they have similar word contexts

Architecture: the big picture





Language Models



- A probabilistic model of how likely a given string appear in a given "language".
- For a given sequence $x = (w_1, w_2, ..., w_N)$. A language model can be defined as:

$$p(x) = p(w_1, w_2, ..., w_N)$$

Example:

 P_1 =P("我爱机器学习") P_2 =P("我爱学习机器") P_3 =P("机器我爱学习") P_4 =P("爱我机学习器")

Chinese: $P_1 > P_2 > P_3 > P_4$

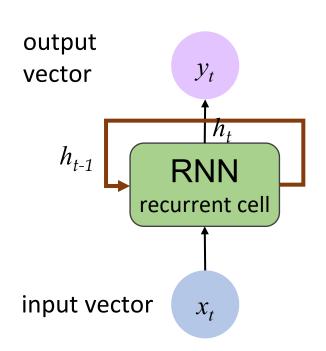
Applications:

message suggestion; document generation; spelling correction; machine translation; speech recognition;...

我爱机器学 ?

Recurrent Neural Network (RNN)





Apply a recurrent relation at every time step to process a sequence:

$$h_t = f_{\mathrm{W}}(h_{t-1}, x_t)$$

cell state function old state Input vector at parameterized time step t by W

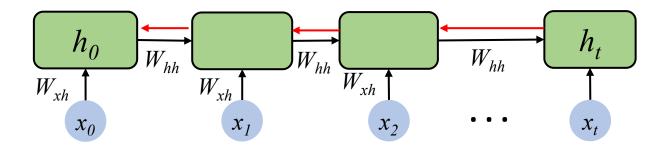
Note: the same function and set of parameters are used at every time step

RNNs have a **state**, h_t, that is updated **at each time step** as a sequence is processed.

The Problems of Standard RNNs



Gradient Flow of Standard RNNs:



Computing the gradient w.r.t. h_0 involves many factors of $W_{\rm hh}$ + repeated gradient computation!

Many values > 1:

Exploding gradients

Gradient clipping to scale big gradients

Many values <1:

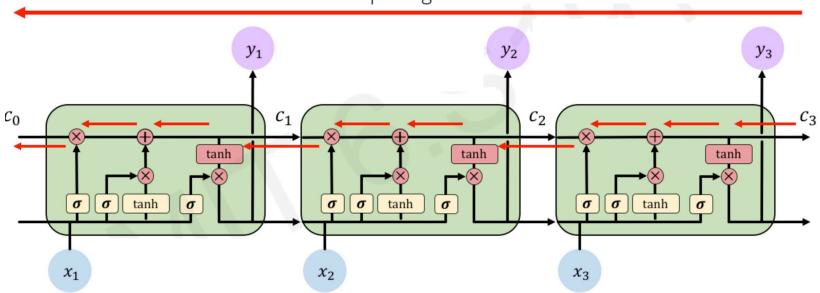
Vanishing gradients

Gradient clipping to 0 gradients

LSTM Gradient Flow



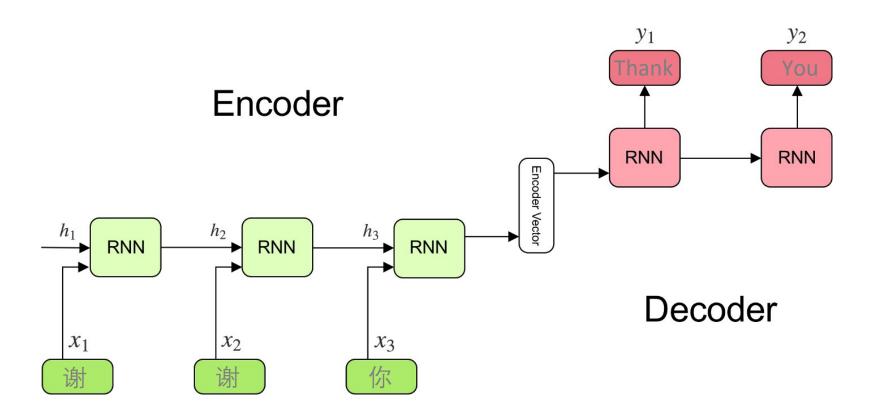
Uninterrupted gradient flow!



RNN Encoder-Decoder



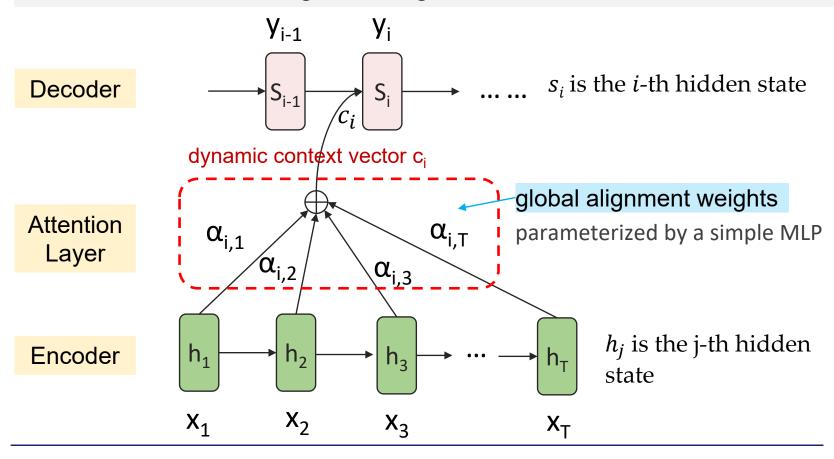
• given $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_{T_x})$, generate $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_{T_y})$



Sequence-to-Sequence with Attention



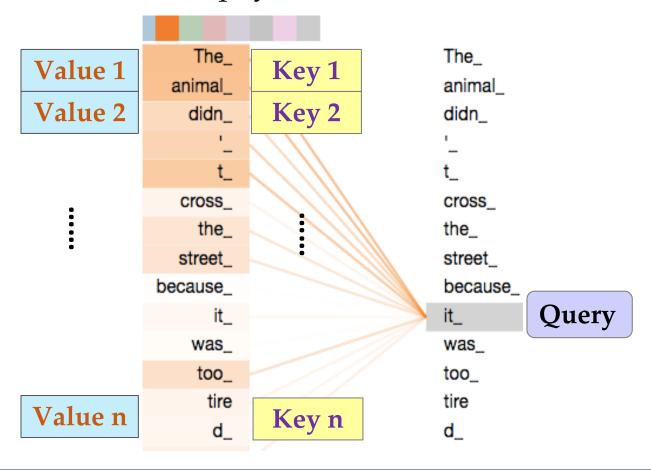
The decoder dynamically pays attention to different tokens in the source sentences during decoding.



Self-Attention: The Idea

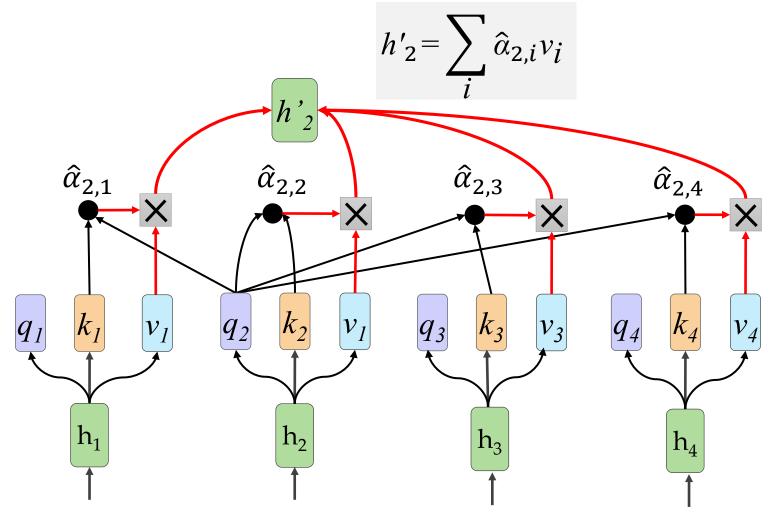


• Let each word pay attention to all other words.



Step 4: Summarize Values According to Attention Weights





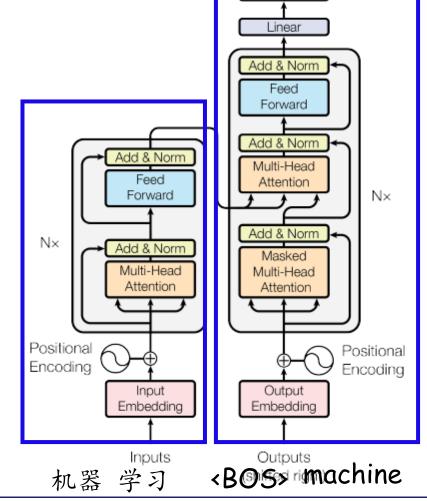
Transformer

machine learning

Output Probabilities

Softmax





Encoder

Decoder

BERT



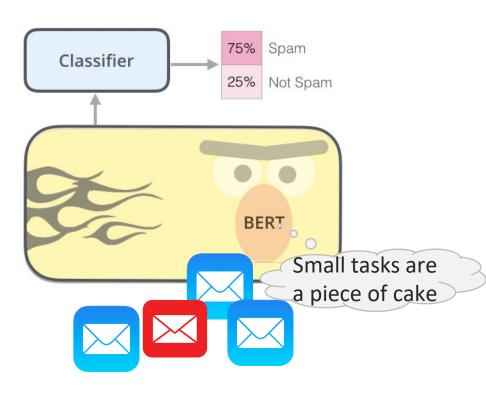
Unsupervised training on large amounts of text (e.g., books, Wikipedia, etc)







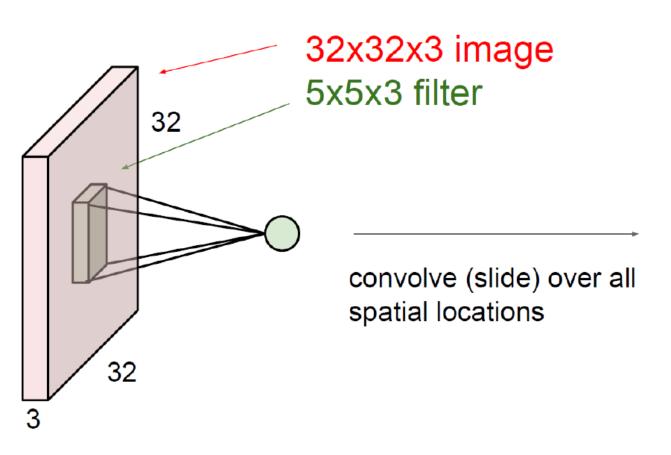
Phase 1: Pre-Training Supervised training on a specific task with a labeled dataset. (e.g., spam detection)

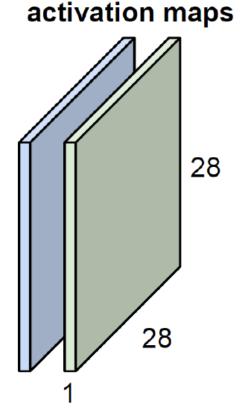


Phase 2: Fine-Tuning



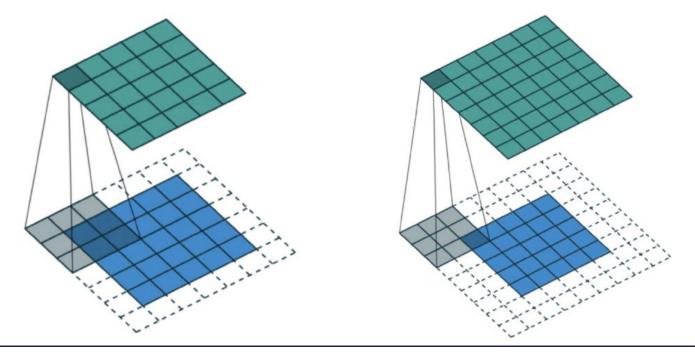
Convolution and filters







(**Zero-)Padding** refers to the process of symmetrically adding zeroes to the input matrix. It's a commonly used modification that allows the size of the input to be adjusted to our requirement.





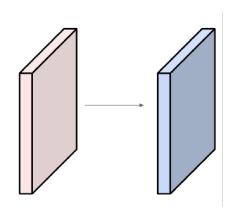
Input volume: 32x32x3

10 5x5 filters with stride 1, pad 2

Output volume size:

(32+2*2-5)/1+1 = 32 spatially, so

32x32x10

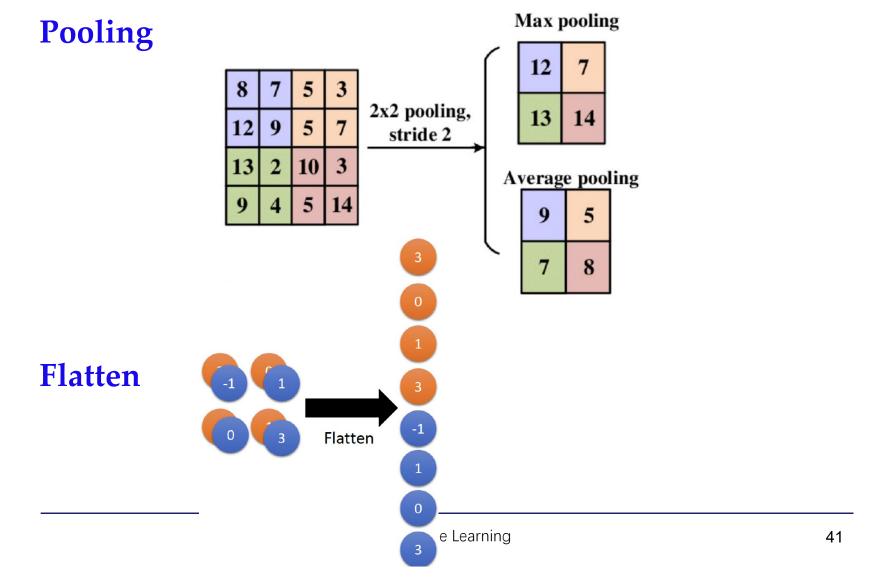




Summary. To summarize, the Conv Layer:

- Accepts a volume of size $W_1 imes H_1 imes D_1$
- · Requires four hyperparameters:
 - Number of filters K,
 - their spatial extent F,
 - the stride S.
 - the amount of zero padding P.
- Produces a volume of size $W_2 imes H_2 imes D_2$ where:
 - $W_2 = (W_1 F + 2P)/S + 1$
 - $\circ \;\; H_2 = (H_1 F + 2P)/S + 1$ (i.e. width and height are computed equally by symmetry)
 - $D_2 = K$
- With parameter sharing, it introduces $F \cdot F \cdot D_1$ weights per filter, for a total of $(F \cdot F \cdot D_1) \cdot K$ weights and K biases.
- In the output volume, the d-th depth slice (of size $W_2 \times H_2$) is the result of performing a valid convolution of the d-th filter over the input volume with a stride of S, and then offset by d-th bias.



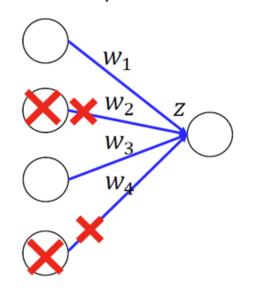




Dropout

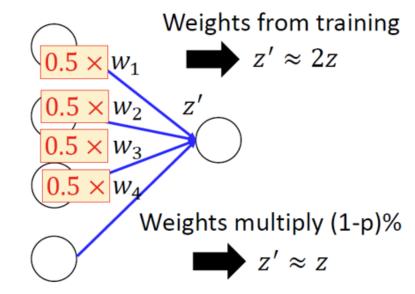
Training of Dropout

Assume dropout rate is 50%



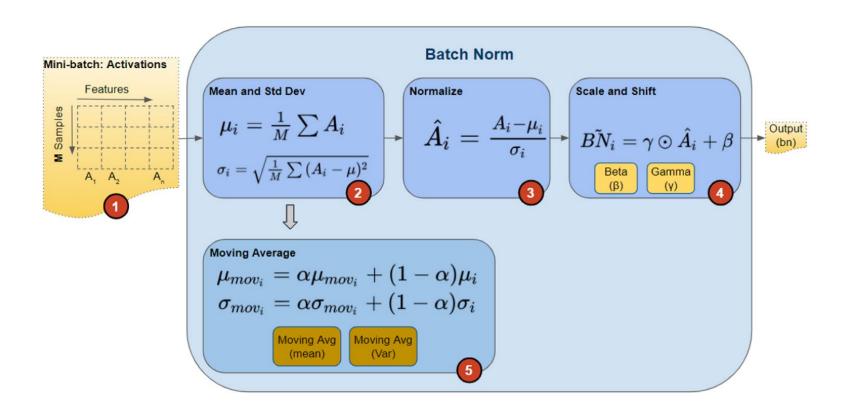
Testing of Dropout

No dropout





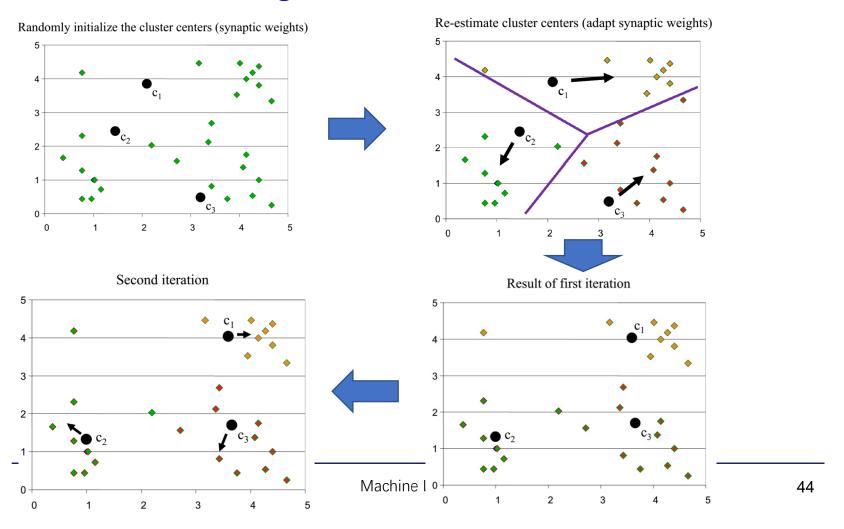
Batch Normalization



Unsupervised Learning



K-means clustering



Reinforcement Learning



RL is a general-purpose framework for decisionmaking

- RL is for an agent with the capacity to act
- Each action influences the agent's future state
- Success is measured by a scalar reward signal
- Goal: select actions to maximize future reward
- An episode is considered as a trajectory

$$\tau = \{s_1, a_1, r_1, s_2, a_2, r_2, \cdots, s_T, a_T, r_T\}$$

$$R(\tau) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} r_t$$





Reinforcement Learning



Policy gradient

$$\nabla \bar{R}_{\theta} = E_{\tau \sim p_{\theta}(\tau)}[R(\tau)\nabla log p_{\theta}(\tau)]$$

Given policy $\pi_{ heta}$

$$\tau^{1}$$
: (s_{1}^{1}, a_{1}^{1}) $R(\tau^{1})$ (s_{2}^{1}, a_{2}^{1}) $R(\tau^{1})$ \vdots \vdots \vdots

$$\tau^2$$
: (s_1^2, a_1^2) $R(\tau^2)$ (s_2^2, a_2^2) $R(\tau^2)$

only used once

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta + \eta \nabla \bar{R}_{\theta}$$

$$\nabla \bar{R}_{\theta} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{T_n} R(\tau^n) \nabla \log p_{\theta}(a_t^n | s_t^n)$$

Data Collection