# CS 189 Final Note Sheet

#### **Baysien Decision Theory**

Bayes Rule: 
$$P(\omega|x) = \frac{P(x|\omega)P(\omega)}{P(x)}, P(x) = \sum_{i} P(x|\omega_{i})P(\omega_{i})$$
  
 $P(error) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(error|x)P(x)dx$   
 $P(error|x) = \begin{cases} P(\omega_{1}|x) & \text{if we decide } \omega_{2} \\ P(\omega_{2}|x) & \text{if we decide } \omega_{1} \end{cases}$   
0-1 Loss:  $\lambda(\alpha_{i}|\omega_{j}) = \begin{cases} 0 & i = j \text{ (correct)} \\ 1 & i \neq j \text{ (mismatch)} \end{cases}$   
Expected Loss (Risk):  $R(\alpha_{i}|x) = \sum_{j=1}^{c} \lambda(\alpha_{i}|\omega_{j})P(\omega_{j}|x)$   
0-1 Risk:  $R(\alpha_{i}|x) = \sum_{j\neq i}^{c} P(\omega_{j}|x) = 1 - P(\omega_{i}|x)$ 

### Probabilistic Motivation for Least Squares

 $y^{(i)} = \theta^\intercal x^{(i)} + \epsilon^{(i)}$  with noise  $\epsilon(i) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ Note: The intercept term  $x_0 = 1$  is accounted for in  $\theta$ 

$$\begin{split} & \Longrightarrow p(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)};\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y^{(i)}-\theta^\intercal x^{(i)})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \\ & \Longrightarrow L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^m \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y^{(i)}-\theta^\intercal x^{(i)})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \\ & \Longrightarrow l(\theta) = m \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^m (y^{(i)}-\theta^\intercal x^{(i)})^2 \\ & \Longrightarrow \max_{\theta} l(\theta) \equiv \min_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^m (y^{(i)}-h_{\theta}(x))^2 \\ & \operatorname*{Gaussian noise in our data set } \{x^{(i)},y^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^m \text{gives us least squares} \\ & \min_{\theta} ||X\theta-y||_2^2 \equiv \min_{\theta} \theta^\intercal X^\intercal X\theta - 2\theta^\intercal X^\intercal y + y^\intercal Y \\ & \nabla_{\theta} l(\theta) = X^\intercal X\theta - X^\intercal y = 0 \implies \boxed{\theta^* = (X^\intercal X)^{-1} X^\intercal y} \\ & \operatorname*{Gradient Descent: } \theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \alpha(y_t^{(i)} - h(x_t^{(i)})) x_t^{(i)}, \ \ h_{\theta}(x) = \theta^\intercal x \end{split}$$

### **Least Squares Solution**

$$\min_x ||Ax-y||_2^2 \Longrightarrow x^* = A^\dagger y$$
min norm sol'n Sol'n set:  $x_0 + N(A) = x^* + N(A)$ 

$$A^{\dagger} = \begin{cases} (A^{\intercal}A)^{-1}A^{\intercal} & A \text{ full column rank} \\ A^{\intercal}(AA^{\intercal})^{-1} & A \text{ full row rank} \\ V\Sigma^{\dagger}U^{\intercal} & \text{any } A \end{cases}$$

L2 Reg:  $\min_x ||Ax - y||_2^2 + \lambda ||x||_2^2 \implies x^* = (A^TA + \lambda I)^{-1}X^Ty$  The above variant is used when A contains a null space. L2 Reg falls out of the MLE when we add a Gaussian prior on x with  $\Sigma = cI$ . We get L1 Reg when x has a Laplace prior.

## Logistic Regresion

$$\begin{split} & \text{Classify } y \in \{0,1\} \implies \text{Model } p(y=1|x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-\theta^T x}} = h_{\theta}(x) \\ & \frac{dh_{\theta}}{d\theta} = (\frac{1}{1+e^{\theta^T x}})^2 e^{-\theta^T x} = \frac{1}{1+e^{\theta^T x}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{1+e^{-\theta^T x}}\right) = h_{\theta}(1-h_{\theta}) \\ & p(y|x;\theta) = (h_{\theta}(x))^y (1-h_{\theta}(x))^{1-y} \implies \\ & L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}))^{y^{(i)}} (1-h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}))^{1-y^{(i)}} \implies \\ & l(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^m y^{(i)} \log(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})) + (1-y^{(i)}) \log(1-h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})) \implies \\ & \nabla_{\theta} l = \sum_i (y^{(i)} - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})) x^{(i)} = X^{\mathsf{T}}(y - h_{\theta}(X)), \text{ (want max } l(\theta)) \\ & \text{Stoch: } \boxed{\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \alpha(y_t^{(j)} - h_{\theta}(x_t^{(j)})) x_t^{(j)}} \\ & \text{Batch: } \boxed{\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \alpha X^{\mathsf{T}}(y - h_{\theta}(X))} \end{split}$$

### Multivariate Gaussian $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$

$$\begin{split} f(x;\mu,\Sigma) &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}|\Sigma|^{1/2}} exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)\right) \\ \Sigma &= E[(X-\mu)(X-\mu)^T] = E[XX^T] - \mu\mu^T \\ \Sigma \text{ is PSD} &\Longrightarrow x^T \Sigma x \geq 0, \text{ if inverse exists } \Sigma \text{ must be PD} \\ \text{If } X \sim N(\mu,\Sigma), \text{ then } AX + b \sim N(A\mu + b, A\Sigma A^T) \\ &\Longrightarrow \Sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}}(X-\mu) \sim N(0,I), \text{ where } \Sigma^{-\frac{1}{2}} = U\Lambda^{-\frac{1}{2}} \end{split}$$

The distribution is the result of a linear transformation of a vector of univariate Gaussians  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$  such that  $X = AZ + \mu$  where we have  $\Sigma = AA^{\mathsf{T}}$ . From the pdf, we see that the level curves of the distribution decrease proportionally with  $x^{\mathsf{T}}\Sigma^{-1}x$  (assume  $\mu = 0$ )  $\Longrightarrow$ 

$$c\text{-level set of } f \propto \{x: x^\mathsf{T} \Sigma^{-1} x = c\}$$
 
$$x^\mathsf{T} \Sigma^{-1} = c \equiv x^\mathsf{T} U \Lambda^{-1} U^\mathsf{T} x = c \Longrightarrow$$
 
$$\underbrace{\lambda_1^{-1} (u_1^\mathsf{T} x)^2}_{\text{axis length: } \sqrt{\lambda_1}} + \dots + \underbrace{\lambda_n^{-1} (u_n^\mathsf{T} x)^2}_{\text{axis length: } \sqrt{\lambda_n}} = c$$

Thus we have that the level curves form an ellipsoid with axis lengths equal to the square root of the eigenvalues of the covariance matrix.

#### LDA and QDA

Classify 
$$y \in \{0,1\}$$
, Model  $p(y) = \phi^y \phi^{1-y}$  and  $p(x|y=1;\mu_1) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}|\Sigma|^{1/2}} exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_1)^T\Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu_1)\right)$   $l(\theta,\mu_0,\mu_1,\Sigma) = \log \prod_{i=1}^m p(x^{(i)}|y^{(i)};\mu_0,\mu_1,\Sigma) p(y^{(i)};\Phi)$  gives us  $\phi_{MLE} = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^m 1\{y^{(i)} = 1\}, \mu_{k_{MLE}} = \text{avg of } x^{(i)}$  classified as k,  $\Sigma_{MLE} = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^m (x^{(i)} - \mu_{y_{(i)}})(x^{(i)} - \mu_{y_{(i)}})^T$ . Notice the covariance matrix is the same for all classes in LDA. If  $p(x|y)$  multivariate gaussian (w/ shared  $\Sigma$ ), then  $p(y|x)$  is logisitic function. The converse is NOT true. LDA makes stronger assumptions about data than does logistric regression.  $h(x) = arg \max_k -\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_k)^T\Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu_k) + \log(\pi_k)$  where  $\pi_k = p(y=k)$ 

For QDA, the model is the same as LDA except that each class has a unique covariance matrix.

$$h(x) = \arg\max_{k} -\frac{1}{2}\log|\Sigma_{k}| - \frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_{k})^{T}\Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x - \mu_{k}) + \log(\pi_{k})$$

## Optimization

Newtons Method:  $\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - [\nabla^2_{\theta} f(\theta_t)]^{-1} \nabla_{\theta} f(\theta_t)$ Gradient Decent:  $\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \alpha \nabla_{\theta} f(\theta_t)$ , for minimizing Lagrange Multipliers:

Given,  $\min_x f(x)$  s.t.  $g_i(x) = 0$ ,  $h_i(x) \leq 0$  the corresponding Lagrangian is:  $L(x,\alpha) = f(x) + \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i g_i(x) + \sum_{i=1}^l \beta_i h_i(x)$  We min over x and max over the Lagrange multipliers  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ 

## Support Vector Machines

In the strictly separable case, the goal is to find a seperating hyperplane (like logistic regression) except now we don't just want any hyperplane, but one with the largest margin.  $H = \{\omega^T x + b = 0\}$ , since scaling  $\omega$  and b in opposite directions doesn't change the hyperplane our optimization function should have scaling invariance built into it. Thus, we do it now and define the closest points to the hyperplane  $x_{sv}$  (support vectors) to satisfy:  $|\omega^T x_{sv} + b| = 1$ . The distance from any support

vector to the hyper plane is now:  $\frac{1}{||\omega||_2}$ . Maximizing the distance to the hyperplane is the same as minimizing  $||\omega||_2$ . The final optimization problem is:

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{\omega,b} \frac{1}{2} ||\omega||_2 \ s.t. \ y^{(i)}(w^T x^{(i)} + b) \geq 1, i = 1, \dots, m \\ & \text{Primal: } L_p(\omega,b,\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} ||\omega||_2 - \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i (y^{(i)}(w^T x^{(i)} + b) - 1) \\ & \frac{\partial L_p}{\partial \omega} = \omega - \sum \alpha_i y^{(i)} x^{(i)} = 0 \implies \omega = \sum \alpha_i y^{(i)} x^{(i)} \\ & \frac{\partial L_p}{\partial b} = -\sum \alpha_i y^{(i)} = 0, \quad \text{Note: } \alpha_i \neq 0 \text{ only for support vectors.} \\ & \text{Substitute the derivatives into the primal to get the dual.} \\ & \text{Dual: } L_d(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m y^{(i)} y^{(j)} \alpha_i \alpha_j (x^{(i)})^T x^{(j)} \end{aligned}$$

In the non-separable case we allow points to cross the marginal boundary by some amount  $\xi$  and penalize it.

$$\min_{\omega,b} \frac{1}{2} ||\omega||_2 + C \sum_{i=1}^m \xi_i \quad s.t. \quad y^{(i)}(w^T x^{(i)} + b) \ge 1 - \xi_i$$

The dual for non-separable doesn't change much except that each  $\alpha_i$  now has an upper bound of  $C \implies 0 < \alpha_i < C$ 

#### Loss Functions

In general the loss function consists of two parts, the loss term and the regularization term.  $J(\omega) = \sum_{i} Loss_{i} + \lambda R(\omega)$ 

### Nearest Neighbor

Key Idea: Store all training examples  $\langle x_i, f(x_i) \rangle$ NN: Find closest training point using some distance metric and take its label.

k-NN: Find closest k training points and take on the most likely label based on some voting scheme (mean, median,...) Behavior at the limit: 1NN  $\lim_{N\to\infty} \epsilon^* \leq \epsilon_{NN} \leq 2\epsilon^*$   $\epsilon^* = \text{error of optimal prediction}, \ \epsilon_{nn} = \text{error of 1NN classifier}$  KNN  $\lim_{N\to\infty,K\to\infty},\frac{K}{N}\to 0, \epsilon_{knn}=\epsilon^*$ 

Curse of dimentionality: As the number of dimensions increases, everything becomes farther appart. Our low dimension intuition falls apart. Consider the Hypersphere/Hypercube ratio, it's close to zero at d=10. Solutions: 1) Get more data to fill all of that empty space. 2) Get better features, reducing the dimentionality and packing the data closer together. Ex: Bag-of-words, Histograms,... 3) Use a better distance metric.

Minkowski: 
$$Dis_p(x,y) = (\sum_{i=1}^d |x_i - y_u|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} = ||x - y||_p$$
 0-norm:  $Dis_0(x,y) = \sum_{i=1}^d I|x_i = y_i|$  Mahalanobis:  $Dis_M(x,y|\Sigma) = \sqrt{(x-y)^T\Sigma^{-1}(x-y)}$  In high-d we get "Hubs" s.t most points identify the hubs as their NN. These hubs are usually near the means (Ex: dull gray images, sky and clouds). To avoid having everything classified as these hubs, we can use cosine similarity.

#### Gradients

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_m}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_n} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_m}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}, \frac{\partial (Ax)}{\partial x} = A, \frac{\partial (x^T A)}{\partial x} = A^T,$$

$$\frac{\partial (x^T x)}{\partial x} = 2x, \frac{\partial (x^T A x)}{\partial x} = (A + A^T)x, \frac{\partial (tr B A)}{\partial x} = B^T$$