1 Foreword

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Disclaimer: The notes are written only for my understanding and memorization purpose after I have self-studied those online lecture notes (mainly Stanford CS109, CS229, CS168, CS231n, Cornell CS4780, Andrew Ng's (I am his fan) Coursera courses) and other online resources (Stack Exchange, TowardData-Science).

2 Likelihood and Maximum Likelihood Estimation(MLE)

We have m sampling data, we attempt to establish a hypothesis $h(\theta)$ with parameter θ to model the data

The term Likelihood denotes the probabilty that particular value θ represents the sampling data.

We want to find the value of parameter(s) which best represent the data(*), the process is called MLE.

Let f be the pdf of random variable X, X_i is the value if sample i , then $f(X_i \mid \theta)$ is read as the chance of X_i happening if value of parameter is θ)

Likelihood function: $L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^m f(X_i \mid \theta)$ (assumption here: sampling are independent process). We want to find θ that maximize L, i.e. (*) Generally, we take log (monotonically increasing function) likelihood to convert multiplications to additions for easier handling and then find maxima (by partial derivatives = 0)

3 Confusion Matrix

Predict True, Actual True: True Positive (TP)
Predict True, Actual False: False Positive (FP)
Predict False, Actual False: False Negative (FN)
Predict False, Actual True: True Negative (TN)

 $\label{eq:accuracy} Accuracy = (TP+FN)/(TP+FP+FN+TN), \ performance \ of \ correct \ classification$

Precision = TP / ($\mathrm{TP}+\mathrm{FP}$) (correctly classified as positive / Everything classified as positive), example usage : Cancer detection. (We don't want to initiate cancer treatment if the person is actually healthy).

Recall = TP / (TP + FN) (correctly classified as positive / Actually positive), FP is more expensive than TN . (e.g. Fraud detection).

Note: Mathematically, Precision and Recall are in inverse relationship, there is a tradeoff between recall and precision.

F1 score = 2(P*R)/(P+R), a compromised metric

4 K-Nearest Neighbour

Description : Choose the *majority* class of nearest (e.g. Eclidean Distance) K data points and classify it.

How to Choose K(hyper-paramaeter): General rule of thumb: sqrt(number of data)/2 or by searching and comparing different k's for highest prediction accuracy.

Normalization of data in preprocessing is a must

5 K-Means Clustering

Simple Description: Identify clusters by finding the centroid of data points

Algorithm:

- 1. Initialize $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_k$ randomly (k is hyper-parameter)
- 2. Repeated until converge:
- (i) $c^{(i)} := \arg\min_j ||x^{(i)} \mu_j||^2, j \in [1:k]$, (i.e. $c^{(i)}$ denote which μ the $x^{(i)}$ is linked to. Link each data point to nearest μ_j . If $x^{(i)}$ is nearest to μ_s , then $c^{(i)} = j$. Thus, k partitions are created.)
- (ii) $\mu_j:=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^m 1\{c^{(i)}=j\}x^{(i)}}{\sum_{i=1}^m 1\{c^{(i)}=j\}}$, (i.e. For each data point in each partition from (i), find the new centroid and assign to μ_k

Proof of convergence of the algorithm: consider

$$J(c,\mu) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} ||x^{(i)} - \mu_{c^{(i)}}||^2$$

Observation: J must be monotonically decreasing. It is because for step (i) It is adjusting $c^{(i)}$ to reduce J, for step (ii) we are adjusting μ_j to reduce J J is non-convext, it may get to local minimum. To try several random initial values, and choose the lowest J.

6 Linear Regression(MSE approach)

Hypothesis:

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{j} \theta_{j} x_{j} = \theta^{\top} x$$

We want to minimize MSE (Mean Square Error)

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \left(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)} \right)^{2} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \left(\theta^{\top} x^{(i)} - y^{(i)} \right)^{2}$$

Gradient of J:

$$\frac{\partial J(\theta)}{\partial \theta_j} = \sum_{i} x_j^{(i)} \left(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)} \right)$$

Each θ_j is updated for each step by gradient descent algorithm.

$$\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta)$$

Practically:

- (i) Learning rate α is hyperparameter and data dependent , larger, fewer steps to get to min. but may miss the minimum. (Monitor the loss curve, J value vs iteration).
- (ii) Batch GD is slow, may be Mini-Batch GD or Stochastic GD.
- (iii) If α is small but the loss oscillate, converged and stop learning.

7 Linear Regression(MLE approach)

8 Logistic Regression

$$P(y=1|x) = h_{\theta}(x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\theta^{\top}x)} \equiv \sigma(\theta^{\top}x)$$

$$P(y = 0|x) = 1 - P(y = 1|x) = 1 - h_{\theta}(x)$$

Loss function is

$$J(\theta) = -\sum_{i} \left[y^{(i)} \log(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log(1 - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})) \right]$$

Again, BGD for following gradient of J:

$$\frac{\partial J(\theta)}{\partial \theta_j} = \sum_i x^{(i)} j \left(h \theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)} \right)$$

Interpretation : For a particular sample : if h return 1/0 and y return 1/0, the term is 0. if h return 1/0 and y return 0/1, the term is positive infinity.

9 Logistic Regression(MLE approach)

10 Softmax Regression(Multi-Class Logistic)

k classes, n x k parameters , and the hypothesis is :

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} P(y=1|x;\theta) \\ P(y=2|x;\theta) \\ \vdots \\ P(y=K|x;\theta) \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^{K} \exp(\theta^{(j)\top}x)} \begin{bmatrix} \exp(\theta^{(1)\top}x) \\ \exp(\theta^{(2)\top}x) \\ \vdots \\ \exp(\theta^{(K)\top}x) \end{bmatrix}$$
(1)

Below Loss function is quite easy to understand : By referencing to previous hpothesis, we want to maximize the y=k associated probility if that data belongs to class k

$$J(\theta) = -\left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{K} 1\{y^{(i)} = k\} \log \left(\frac{\exp(\theta^{(k)\top} x^{(i)})}{\sum_{j=1}^{K} \exp(\theta^{(j)\top} x^{(i)})} \right) \right]$$

Gradient of J is, we solve the problem by GD:

$$\nabla_{\theta^{(k)}} J(\theta) = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} \left[x^{(i)} \left(1\{y^{(i)} = k\} - P(y^{(i)} = k | x^{(i)}; \theta) \right) \right]$$

Where:

$$P(y^{(i)} = k | x^{(i)}; \theta) = \frac{\exp(\theta^{(k)\top} x^{(i)})}{\sum_{i=1}^{K} \exp(\theta^{(i)\top} x^{(i)})}$$

11 Regularization in Linear Regression

12 BGD variation : Mini BGD/SGD

BGD use all training data in a single step, which is exteremely costly.

13 Loss function in Classification(Binary) Problem - General treatment

General Hypothesis : $h_{\theta}(x) = x^T \theta$

Adjustment for binary classification

$$\operatorname{sign}(h_{\theta}(x)) = \operatorname{sign}(\theta^{T} x) = \operatorname{sign}(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } t = 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } t < 0 \end{cases}$$

Measure of confidence : $h_{\theta}(x) = x^T \theta$ gives larger value, more confident

Margin ($yx^T\theta$): (i) if $h_{\theta}(x)$ classify correctly, margin is positive, otherwise negative.

(ii) Therefore our objective is to maximize the margin (we want both correct classification and be confident)

Consider the following loss function:

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \phi\left(y^{(i)} \theta^{T} x^{(i)}\right)$$

We want penalize wrong classification and encourage correct one , we design ϕ as $\phi(z) \to 0$ as $z \to \infty$, while $\phi(z) \to \infty$ as $z \to -\infty$ where $z = yx^T\theta$, and examples are :

logistic loss : $\phi_{\text{logistic}}(z) = \log(1 + e^{-z})$, used in logistic regression

hinge loss : $\phi_{\text{hinge}}(z) = [1 - z]_{+} = \max 1 - z, 0$, used in SVM

Exponential loss $\phi_{\rm exp}(z) = e^{-z}$, used in boosting

14 Kernel Mapping (Special case demo by Linear Regression + Polymoninal Kernel)

- (I) Purpose : To x map from lower higher dimension. Useful when data are non-linearly separable (Transform to a curve)
- (II) Computation complexity does not necessarily increase proportionately.
- (III) Example: a mapping function $\varphi: R \to R^4$, $x \to [1, x, x^2, x^3]$, and h is $\theta^T x$ having $\theta = [\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3, \theta_4]$
- (IV) Terms : x is called attribute, $x \to [1, x, x^2, x^3]$ called feature, φ feature map, $\varphi: R^1 \to R^4$ in this case. d =1 p = 4
- (IV) Another Example : a mapping function $\varphi:R^3\to R^{1000}$, $x\to [1,x_1,x_1^2,x_1^3,x_1x_2,x_1x_2^2...]$
- (*) , let d = 3 , p =1000. If we exhaust all possibilities, then p = 1 + d + d^2 + d^3 (**)

Recall GD stepping:

$$\theta := \theta + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y^{(i)} - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})) x^{(i)}$$

$$\theta := \theta + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y^{(i)} - \theta^{T} x^{(i)}) x^{(i)}$$

Putting kernel mapping to the equation:

$$\theta := \theta + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y^{(i)} - \theta^{T} \phi(x^{(i)})) \phi(x^{(i)})$$

We pause here to evaluate the cost of computing each of update (Curse of Demensionality...), considering (**). If we just use the kernel direction, we suffer the curse of demensionality : Suppose d (data dimension) = 1000, then by using the mapping in (**) we have p = 10^9 . $\theta^T \phi(x^{(i)})$ need O(p) (dot product), and O(np) for summing up all data in each step. Going back to BGD.

$$\theta := \theta + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y^{(i)} - \theta^{T} \phi(x^{(i)})) \phi(x^{(i)})$$

, assuming $\theta = \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i \phi(x^{(i)})$ (*) at some point, with initialization $\theta = 0 = \beta$ It becomes

$$\theta := \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_i \phi(x^{(i)}) + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y^{(i)} - \theta^T \phi(x^{(i)})) \phi(x^{(i)})$$

Rearranging:

$$\theta := \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\beta_i + \alpha(y^{(i)} - \theta^T \phi(x^{(i)}))) \phi(x^{(i)})$$

Therefore it is equivalent to updating β_i (instead of θ_i) by

$$\beta_i := \beta_i + \alpha(y^{(i)} - \theta^T \phi(x^{(i)}))$$

by (*) above

$$\beta_i := \beta_i + \alpha \left(y^{(i)} - \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j \phi(x^{(j)})^T \phi(x^{(i)}) \right)$$

Computing of LHS is fast because : (1) we can pre-compute $\phi(x^{(j)})^T \phi(x^{(i)})$ for all i,j, and (2) $\phi(x^{(j)})^T \phi(x^{(i)})$ can be represented by $\langle x^{(i)}, x^{(j)} \rangle$: $\langle \phi(x), \phi(z) \rangle = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^d x_i z_i + \sum_{i,j \in \{1,\dots,d\}} x_i x_j z_i z_j + \sum_{i,j,k \in \{1,\dots,d\}} x_i x_j x_k z_i z_j z_k = 1 + \langle x, z \rangle + \langle x, z \rangle^2 + \langle x, z \rangle^3$ (**)

Define K where K is n x n (n is the number of training samples) matrix, with $K(x,z) = \langle \phi(x), \phi(z) \rangle$, where $K_i j$ is $\langle \phi(x^{(i)}), \phi(x^{(j)}) \rangle$

Therefore, the process is : (1) compute $K_i j$ using (**), for all $i, j \in \{1, ..., n\}$. Set $\beta := 0$, (2) Loop

$$\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, \quad \beta_i := \beta_i + \alpha \left(y^{(i)} - \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j K(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)}) \right)$$

in vectorized notation:

$$\beta := \beta + \alpha(\tilde{y} - K\beta)$$

When doing inference:

$$\theta^{T}\phi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i}\phi(x^{(i)})^{T}\phi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i}K(x^{(i)}, x)$$

In practice, we do computation using K (at O(d) cost) instead of directly from $\phi(x)$ is much faster. Further, We only need to know K but "just only need to know" the existence of $\phi(x)$. There is no need to be able to write down $\phi(x)$. Consider the Kernel applied to bitmap: number of bits as d. (Great reduction!) Intuitively, K represents similarity matrix, i.e. K is small if $\phi(x^{(j)})^T \phi(x^{(i)})$ is small

Example: Gaussian Kernel, it can support inifinitely dimensional space of mapping.

$$K(x,z) = \exp\left(-\frac{||x-z||^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Mercer Theorem : For K to be a valid Kernel iff K is PSD.

Application : To SVM, perceptron, linear regression, and other learning algorithms represented only in inner product $\langle x, z \rangle$, then Apply K(x,z)

15 Generative vs Discriminative Learning Algorithm for classification, discussion

 $\mathbf{D}:$ Learn the curve that separates the classes, e.g. Logistic Regression, SVM , ANN, CNN

G: Learn (all the parameters of) the model itself and just class of data. e.g. Naive Bayes, Gradient Discriminant Analysis, GAN

An Analogy of G : Learn both English and French , and guess whether the word Bonjour is French or English.

Another Example of G(*):

Let's say a model is trained with 1000 pictures:

- (i) Dog without glasses: 1
- (ii) Dog with glasses: 239
- (iii) Human without glasses: 500
- (iv) Human with glasses: 260

Assume we have a photo with a glasses. To classify a dog or human in the picture for a generative model : Since P (H & G) / P (G)= 260/261 > P(D & G) / P(G)= 1/261, the model infer that it is a human.

let x be feature, y be class

Put it in another way, in D (e.g. (multi-class) logistic regression), we learn h which is p(y|x) and infer the class with largest p(y|x). i.e. we are finding $argmax_{y}p(y|x)$

In G, we are learning p(x|y) (by learning all p(x) for each possible classes of y) and p(y) (pdf of all classes of y). Let y be the class (Dog=1 vs Human=0), x be feature(with glasses), we learn p(x|y=1) (case (i)/(ii)) and p(x|y=0) (

case (iii)/(iv))

Mathematically, D and G's relationship: $argmax_y p(y|x)[D] = argmax_y \frac{p(x|y)p(y)}{p(x)} = argmax_y p(x|y)p(y)[G] = argmax_y p(x\&y)$ (bayes rule, x is independent variable, bayes rule again, also see (*))

16 Naive Bayes Classifier

An example of Generative Learning algorithm Example usage , spam mail detection ${\cal L}$

Let x_i 's be the all words in dictionary. y = 1 for spam mail, y = 0 for non-spam mail.

In training, we want to learn the parmaters : ϕ_y (p of spam mail) , $\phi_{j(y=1)}$ (p of j^{th} word appearing in spam mail), and $\phi_{j(y=0)}$

We have the following joint likelihood function

$$L(\phi_y, \phi_{j(y=0)}, \phi_{j(y=1)}) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$$
$$\phi_{j(y=1)} = \sum_{i=1}^n 1\{x_j^{(i)} = 1 \land y(i) = 1\}$$
$$\phi_{j(y=0)} = \sum_{i=1}^n 1\{x_j^{(i)} = 1 \land y(i) = 0\}$$
$$\phi_y = \sum_{i=1}^n 1\{y(i) = 1\}$$

Above is just simple counting

For Inference, how?

A (non-)spam email having x's words has the probability :

 $p(x's|y) = p(x_1...x_{5000}|y) = p(x_1|y)p(x_2|y,x_1)p(x_3|y,x_2,x_1)...p(x_{5000}|y,x_2,x_1,...,x_{4999})$

$$= p(x_1|y)p(x_2|y)p(x_3|y)....p(x_{5000}|y) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(x_i \mid y_i)$$

First by bayes rule (can be proved by induction), then by naives bayes assumption. e.g. $p(x_{2087}|y) = p(x_{(2087)}|y, x_{39831})$

Finally compare p(y=1|x's) and p(y=0|x's) to determine whether it is a spam mail or not:

By bayes rule,

$$p(y = 1|x's) = p(x's|y = 1)p(y = 1)/p(x's)$$

$$= \frac{\prod_{j=1}^{d} p(x_j \mid y=1) p(y=1)}{\prod_{j=1}^{d} p(x_j \mid y=1) p(y=1) + \prod_{j=1}^{d} p(x_j \mid y=0) p(y=0)}$$

$$= \frac{\prod_{j=1}^{d} \phi_{j(y=1)} \phi_y}{\prod_{j=1}^{d} \phi_{j(y=1)} \phi_y + \prod_{j=1}^{d} \phi_{j(y=0)} (1 - \phi_y)}$$

Practically: (1) Remove common words in preprocessing. e.g. the , of (stop words) (2) Instead of labeling all words in dictionary, we build only from trained data.

Laplace Smoothing - Handling unseen word

Problem: both classes give zero in p(x—y)

To solve: Treat that new word to have appaeared in all classes once, good thing

is that it won't change the relative p:

$$P(j \mid y = 1) = \frac{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1\{x_j^{(i)} = 1 \land y^{(i)} = 1\}}{2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1\{y^{(i)} = 1\}}$$
$$1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1\{x_i^{(i)} = 1 \land y^{(i)} = 0\}$$

$$P(j \mid y = 0) = \frac{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1\{x_{j}^{(i)} = 1 \land y^{(i)} = 0\}}{2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1\{y^{(i)} = 0\}}$$

17 Bernoulli event model

18 Gradient Discriminant Analysis

19 Entropy

Definition:

$$H(x) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} p(x_i) \log_2 p(x_i)$$

where $x_1, x_2...$ are all possible events of random variable (distribution) and $p(x_1), p(x_2)...$ are the probabilities of the respective events.

Connection with uncertainty (High Entropy, High Uncertainty):

Entropy measure the uncertainty of a distribution. Consider a random variable distribution: X=1 at 0.33, X=2 at 0.33, X=3 at 0.33, and another: X=1 at 0.98, X=2 at 0.01, X=3 at 0.01, we say the former distribution has higher uncertainty (more difficult to guess its value).

Connection with amount of information in a *message* (not distribution) :

Average number of bits (yes/no answers) NEEDED TO PROVIDE to tell ${\bf x}$ in a message. Therefore High Entropy. Higher Uncertainty , Higher Amount of

Information.

Connection with Decision Tree splitting:

Remember that DT is greedy algorithm: It is to find the split that have greatest reduction in uncertainty (Information Gain) of the distribution (after splitting). We have a certain distribution

20 SVM, Support Vector Machine

Assumptions for illustration: data in binary classes only, linearly separable (if not, then apply Kernel)

Main Idea in Training: We construct a separating hyperplane, the plane has largest distance to all data point.

How?

Let $y \in \{-1, 1\}$

Define classifier $h_{w,b}(x) = g(w^T x + b)$, where $w^T x + b$ is the formula of hyperplane, w is the normal vector to hyperplane.

where g :
$$g(z) = 1$$
 if $z \ge 0$, $g(z) = -1$ if $z < 0$ where w = $[\theta_1...\theta_n]^T$

Define functional margin (FM): $\hat{\gamma}^{(i)} = y^{(i)}(w^T x + b)$.

If FM is positive, it classify correctly. Negative, classify incorrectly.

If the magnitude is large , classifier gives highly confident result.

Define Geometric Margin (GM), $\gamma_i = \frac{\gamma^i}{\|w\|}$

Further define smallest distance from hyperplane to data points: $\gamma = \min_{i=1,\dots,m} \gamma^{(i)}$ Thus, our training objective is to maximize this smallest distance.

$$\max_{\gamma, \mathbf{w}, b} \quad \gamma$$
s.t. $y^{(i)}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b) \ge \gamma$, $i = 1, \dots, m$

$$\|\mathbf{w}\| = 1$$

The last condition ensure FM => GM

Why use GM instead of FM in training? We can always scale w and b to achieve greater magnitude in FM, therefore FM is meaningless for training. Rearranging:

$$\max_{\gamma, \mathbf{w}, b} \hat{\gamma} / \|\mathbf{w}\|$$

s.t. $y^{(i)}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b) \ge \hat{\gamma}, \quad i = 1, \dots, m$

In order to make it a convex optimization problem (another subject to study!

(1) we restrict the value of $\hat{\gamma} = 1$, by scaling w and b (can do single w/b for all

 $\hat{\gamma}$?) (2) and rewriting $\frac{\hat{\gamma}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}=\frac{1}{\|\mathbf{w}\|},$ we get w in from nominator to denominator

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

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

Apply cvx opt. library to solve the above problem

- 21 Boostrapping
- 22 Decision Tree
- 23 Random Forest
- 24 Boosting
- 25 PCA, Principal Component Analysis
- 26 SVD, Singular Value Decomposition
- 27 Backpropagation
- 28 EM Algorithm
- 29 Reinforcement learning
- 30 MAP (Maximum a Posterior) vs MLE (Maximum Likelihood Estimation)
- 31 IDP, Indepent Component Analysis
- 32 Bias Variance Analysis
- 33 Hidden Markov Model
- 34 Apriori
- 35 Recommender System
- 36 Anomaly Detection
- 37 Perceptron
- 38 KL Divergence
- 39 Cross Entropy
- 40 Cross Validation