# ML Cheat Sheet

# 1 Math Prerequisites

#### 1.1 Derivatives

$$- \partial \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{a} = \partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{a}$$

$$- \partial \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^T) \mathbf{x}$$

$$- \partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{b} = \partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \mathbf{b}^T$$

$$- \partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{b} = \partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \mathbf{b}^T$$

$$- \partial \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 = 2\mathbf{x} \text{ and } \partial \|\mathbf{X}\|_2^2 = 2\mathbf{X}$$

$$- \partial \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 = 2\mathbf{x} \text{ and } \partial \|\mathbf{X}\|_2^2 = 2$$

$$- \partial \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}\|_2 = \frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}\|_2}$$

$$- \partial (\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x})^T (\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}) = -2\mathbf{A}^T (\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x})$$

- 
$$\partial \|\mathbf{X}\|_2 = \|\mathbf{X}^T\|_2$$
  
- Chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial g(\mathbf{U}))}{\partial \mathbf{X}_{ij}} = \frac{\partial g(f(\mathbf{X})))}{\partial \mathbf{X}_{ij}} = tr[(\frac{\partial g(\mathbf{U})}{\partial \mathbf{U}})^T \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{X}_{ij}}]$$

# 1.2 Linear Algebra

- 
$$a_0 \mathbf{x}_0 + \ldots + a_n \mathbf{x}_n = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{a}$$
,  $\mathbf{x}_n$  are col of  $\mathbf{X}^T$ 

$$- (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2$$

– 
$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_F = \sqrt{\sum \sigma_i^2}$$
, and  $\|\mathbf{A}\|_1 = tr(\sqrt{\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}})$ 

# 1.3 Distributions

Valid distribution p(x) > 0,  $\forall x$  and  $\sum p(x) = 1$ 

$$\mathcal{N}(x|\mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2})$$
$$\mathcal{N}(x|\mu, \Sigma^2) = \frac{\exp(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu))}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^D \det(\Sigma)}}$$

- **Poisson**: P(k events in interval) = 
$$e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!}$$

- **Bernoulli**: 
$$p(y|\mu) = \mu^y (1-\mu)^{1-y}$$

### 1.4 Convexity

A function f(x) is convex if

- for any 
$$\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathbf{X}$$
 and  $0 \le \lambda \le 1$ , we have :  $f(\lambda \mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{x}_2) \le \lambda f(\mathbf{x}_1) + (1 - \lambda)f(\mathbf{x}_2)$ 

it is a sum of convex functions

the Hessian H is positive semi-definite

### 1.5 Others

- Production of independent variables:

$$\operatorname{Var}(xy) = \mathbb{E}(x^{2}) \mathbb{E}(y^{2}) - [\mathbb{E}(x)]^{2} [\mathbb{E}(y)]^{2}$$

Covariance matrix of a data vector x

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{x})) (\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{x}))^T$$

Cost functions are used to learn parameters that explain the data well.

 It is essential to make sure that a global minimum exist  $\rightarrow$  lower bounded

# Mean square error (MSE):

$$MSE(\boldsymbol{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - f(\mathbf{x}_n))^2$$

- MSE is convex thus it has only one global minumum value.

MSE is not good when outliers are present.

#### Mean Absolute Error (MAE):

$$MAE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |y_n - f(\mathbf{x}_n)|$$

$$Huber = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}z^2 &, |z| \le \delta \\ \delta|z| - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2 &, |z| > \delta \end{cases}$$

 Huber loss is convex, differentiable, and also robust to outliers but hard to set  $\delta$ .

#### Tukey's bisquare loss

$$L(z) = \begin{cases} z(\delta^2 - z^2)^2 &, |z| < \delta \\ 0 &, |z| \ge \delta \end{cases}$$

Non-convex, non-diff., but robust to outliers. Hinge loss:

$$[1 - y_n f(\mathbf{x}_n)]_+ = \max(0, 1 - y_n f(\mathbf{x}_n))$$
  
**Logistic loss**:  $\log(1 - \exp(y_n f(\mathbf{x}_n)))$ 

#### 3 Regression

- Model that assume linear relationship

$$\mathbf{y}_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n) := \mathbf{w}_0 + \mathbf{w}_1 \mathbf{x}_{n1} + \dots = \mathbf{w}_0 + \mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{w}$$

 $\approx \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n^T \mathbf{w}$ , where  $\tilde{x}$  contains offset comp.

Prediction: predict the ouput for a new input vector.

Interpretation: understand the effect of inputs on output.

#### 4 Optimization

#### 4.1 Grid search

Compute the cost over a grid of M points to find the minimum. Exponential Complexity. Hard to find a good range of values

# 4.2 GD - Gradient Descent (Batch)

- GD uses only first-order information and takes steps in the opposite direction of the gradient

 Given cost function L(w) we want to find w  $\mathbf{w} = \arg\min \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ 

 Take steps in the opposite direction of the gradient

$$\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^{(t)} - \gamma \nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})$$

With  $\gamma$  too big, method might diverge. With  $\gamma$  too small, convergence is slow.

### 4.3 SGD - Stochastic Gradient Descent

In ML, most cost functions are formulated as a sum over the training examples:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}_n(\mathbf{w})$$

⇒ SGD update rule (only n-th training exam.):

$$\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^{(t)} - \gamma \nabla \mathcal{L}_n(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})$$

Idea: Cheap but unbiased estimate of grad.

$$\mathbb{E}[\nabla \mathcal{L}_n(\mathbf{w})] = \nabla(\mathbf{w})$$

#### 4.4 Mini-batch SGD

Update direction  $(B \subset [N])$ :

$$\boldsymbol{g}^{(t)} := \frac{1}{|B|} \sum_{n \in B} \boldsymbol{\nabla} \mathcal{L}_n(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})$$

Update rule :  $\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^{(t)} - \gamma \mathbf{g}^{(t)}$ 

#### 4.5 Gradients for MSE

We define the error vector e:

$$e := y - Xw$$

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{y}_n - \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n^T \mathbf{w})^2 = \frac{1}{2N} \mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e}$$

- then the gradient is given by

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{12} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{e}$$

Optimality conditions:

1. necessary: gradient equal zero:  $\frac{d\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^*)}{d\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^*)} = 0$ 

2. sufficient: Hessian matrix is positive definite:  $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{w}^*) = \frac{d^2 \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^*)}{2}$ 

Very sensitive to illconditioning  $\Rightarrow$  always

normalize features. Complexity: O(NDI) with I the number of

# 4.6 Subgradients (Non-Smooth OPT)

A vector  $\mathbf{g} \in \mathbb{R}^D$  s.t.

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{u}) \ge \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) + \mathbf{g}^T(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{w}) \quad \forall \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^D$$

is the subgradient to  $\mathcal{L}$  at  $\mathbf{w}$ . If  $\mathcal{L}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{w}$ , we have  $\mathbf{g} = \nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ 

## 4.7 Constrained Optimization

Find solution min  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$  s.t.  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{C}$ 

 Add proj. onto C after each step:  $P_{\mathcal{C}}(\mathbf{w}') = \arg\min |\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}'|, \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{C}$ 

 $\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} = P_{\mathcal{C}}[\mathbf{w}^{(t)} - \gamma \nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})]$ 

Use penalty functions

 $-\min \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) + I_{\mathcal{C}}, I_{\mathcal{C}} = 0 \text{ if } \mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{C}, \text{ ow } + \infty$  $-\min \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda |\mathbf{A}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{b}|$ 

- Stopping criteria when  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$  close to 0

### 5 Least Squares

- Use the first optimality conditions:

$$\nabla L(\mathbf{w}^*) = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) = 0$$

– When  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$  is invertible, we have the closed-form expression

$$\mathbf{w}^* = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

- thus we can predict values for a new  $\mathbf{x}_m$  $\mathbf{y}_m := \mathbf{x}_m^T \mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{x}_m^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$ 

$$\mathbf{y}_m := \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{m}}^{\mathbf{T}} \mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{m}}^{\mathbf{T}} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$
The Gram matrix  $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$  is pd and is also

invertible iff **X** has full column rank. Complexity:  $O(ND^2 + D^3) \equiv O(ND^2)$ 

X can be rank deficient when D > N or when the comlumns  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_d$  are nearly collinear.  $\Rightarrow$ matrix is ill-conditioned.

# 6 Maximum Likelihood (MLE)

Let define our mistakes ε<sub>n</sub> ~ N(0, σ<sup>2</sup>).

$$\to \mathbf{y}_n = \mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{w} + \epsilon_n$$

Another way of expressing this:

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) &= \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(\mathbf{y}_{n}|\mathbf{x}_{n}, \mathbf{w}) \\ &= \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_{n}|\mathbf{x}_{n}^{T}\mathbf{w}, \sigma^{2}) \end{aligned}$$

which defines the likelihood of observating v given  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\boldsymbol{w}$ 

Define cost with log-likelihood  $\mathcal{L}_{MLE}(\mathbf{w}) = \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w})$ 

$$= -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{y}_n - \mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{w})^2 + cnst$$

Maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) gives another way to design cost functions  $\operatorname{argmin} \mathcal{L}_{MSE}(\mathbf{w}) = \operatorname{argmax} \mathcal{L}_{MLE}(\mathbf{w})$ 

MLE can also be interpreted as finding the model under which the observed data is most likely to have been generated from.

 $\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{MLE}} \to \mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{true}}$  for large amount of data

#### 7 Ridge Regression (RR)

Linear models usually overfit. We can penalize them with a regularization term  $\min_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) + \Omega(\mathbf{w})$ 

-  $L_2$ -Reg. (Ridge):  $\Omega(\mathbf{w}) = \lambda ||\mathbf{w}||_2^2$ 

 $-\rightarrow$  small values of  $\mathbf{w}_i$ , not sparse  $-\rightarrow \mathbf{w}^{\star} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda' \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} \text{ with } \lambda' = 2N\lambda$ 

-  $\rightarrow$  No ill cond.,  $(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda'\mathbf{I})^{-1}$  exists

-  $L_1$ -Reg. (Lasso):  $\Omega(\mathbf{w}) = \lambda ||\mathbf{w}||_1$ -  $\rightarrow$  large values of  $\mathbf{w}_i$ , sparse

- Maximum-a-posteriori (MAP) - (i) Posterior prob. ∝ Likelihood × Prior prob

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_{n}|\mathbf{x}_{n}^{T}\mathbf{w}, \sigma^{2})$$
$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|0, \mathbf{I}_{D})$$

then  $\rightarrow \mathbf{w}^* = \operatorname{argmax} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) \cdot p(\mathbf{w})$  $\mathbf{w}^{\star} = \operatorname{argmin} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{2n} (\mathbf{y}_{n} - \mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{w})^{2} + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||\mathbf{w}||^{2}$ 

# 8 Bias-Variance decomposition

 The expected test error can be expressed as the sum of two terms

- Squared bias: The average shift of the predictions

- Variance: measure how data points vary

around their average.

expected loss = 
$$(bias)^2 + variance + noise$$

 Model bias and estimation bias are important RR increases estimation bias and reduces var

 Model more complex increases test error Small λ → low bias but large variance

 Large λ → large bias but low variance Simple → large bias but low variance

 Complex → low bias but large variance  $err = \sigma^2 + \mathbb{E}[f_{lse} - \mathbb{E}[f_{lse}]]^2 + [f_{true} - \mathbb{E}[f_{lse}]]^2$ 

#### 9 Logistic Regression

 Classification relates input variables x to discrete output variable v

Binary classifier: we use y = 0 for  $C_1$  and  $\mathbf{y} = 1$  for  $\mathbf{C}_2$ .

Can use least-squares to predict  $\hat{y}_*$ 

$$\hat{y} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{C}_1 & \hat{y}_* < 0.5 \\ \mathbf{C}_2 & \hat{y}_* \ge 0.5 \end{cases}$$

- Logistic function

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{\exp(x)}{1 + \exp(x)}$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}_n = \mathbf{C}_1 | \mathbf{x}_n) = \sigma(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w})$$
$$p(\mathbf{y}_n = \mathbf{C}_2 | \mathbf{x}_n) = 1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w})$$

The probabilistic model:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \sigma(\mathbf{x}_{n}^{T} \mathbf{w})^{\mathbf{y}_{n}} (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_{n}^{T} \mathbf{w}))^{1 - \mathbf{y}_{n}}$$

n=1

The log-likelihood (w.r.t. MLE):

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{y}_n \ln \sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{w}) + (1 - \mathbf{y}_n) \ln(1 - \mathbf{y}_n) \ln(1$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln[1 + \exp(\mathbf{x}_{n}^{T}\mathbf{w})] - \mathbf{y}_{n}\mathbf{x}_{n}^{T}\mathbf{w}$$

$$- \text{ We can use the fact that}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}\log(1 + \exp(x)) = \sigma(x)$$

$$- \text{ Gradient of the log-likelihood}$$

addent of the log-likelihood 
$$\mathbf{g} = \nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}_n (\sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{w}) - \mathbf{y}_n)$$

 $= \mathbf{X}^T [\sigma(\mathbf{X}w) - \mathbf{y}]$ The negative of the log-likelihood -L<sub>mle</sub>(w)

is convex Hessian of the log-likelihood

$$\begin{array}{c} - \ \mbox{We know that} \\ \frac{d\sigma(t)}{dt} = \sigma(t)(1-\sigma(t)) \\ - \ \mbox{Hessian is the derivative of the gradient} \end{array}$$

$$\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{d\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{w})}{d\mathbf{w}^T} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{d}{d\mathbf{w}^T} \mathbf{x}_n \sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{w})$$

 $= \sum_{n}^{N} \mathbf{x}_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n}^{T} \sigma(\mathbf{x}_{n}^{T} \mathbf{w}) (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_{n}^{T} \mathbf{w}))$ 

where **S** is a  $N \times N$  diagonal matrix with

$$S_{nn} = \sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{w}) (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{w}))$$

- The negative of the log-likelihood is not

# - Newton's Method

- Uses second-order information and takes steps in the direction that minimizes a

quadratic approximation (Taylor)  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^{(k)}) + \nabla \mathcal{L}_k^T (\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^{(k)})$ 

$$+(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{w}^{(k)})^T\mathbf{H}_h(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{w}^{(k)})$$

and it's minimum is at  $\mathbf{w}^{k+1} = \mathbf{w}^{(k)} - \gamma_k \mathbf{H}_k^{-1} \nabla \mathcal{L}_k$ 

- Complexity: 
$$O((ND^2 + D^3)I)$$
  
Regularized Logistic Regression

$$\underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} - \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln p(\mathbf{y}_{n} | \mathbf{x}_{n}^{T} \mathbf{w}) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^{2}$$

#### 10 Exponential family distribution & Generalized Linear Model

- Exponential family distribution

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp(\boldsymbol{\eta}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{y}) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta}))$$

Bernoulli distribution example

$$\to \exp(\log(\frac{\mu}{1-\mu})y + \log(1-\mu)))$$

(i) there is a relationship between  $\eta$  and  $\mu$  through the link function

$$\eta = \log(\frac{\mu}{1-\mu}) \leftrightarrow \mu = \frac{e^{\eta}}{1+e^{\eta}}$$

(ii) Note that  $\mu$  is the mean parameter of y(iii) Relationship between the mean  $\mu$  and  $\eta$ 

is defined using a link function g

$$\eta = \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{\mu}) \Leftrightarrow \boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{g}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\eta})$$

- Gaussian distribution example

$$\begin{array}{l} \exp((\frac{\mu}{2\sigma^2},\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2})(y,y^2)^T-\frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2}-\frac{1}{2}\ln(2\pi\sigma^2)) \\ \text{(i) link function} \end{array}$$

$$\eta = (\eta_1 = \mu/\sigma^2, \eta_2 = -1/(2\sigma^2))^T$$

 $\mu = -\eta_1/(2\eta_2)$ ;  $\sigma^2 = -1/(2\eta_2)$ First and second derivatives of  $A(\eta)$  are

related to the mean and the variance 
$$\frac{dA(\eta)}{d\eta} = \mathbb{E}[\phi(\eta)], \quad \frac{d^2A(\eta)}{d\eta^2} = \mathrm{Var}[\phi(\eta)]$$
 
$$\sigma(\mathbf{x}_{nA}^T\mathbf{y}_{$$

The generalized maximum likelihood cost to

mimize is 
$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \log(p(\mathbf{y}_{n}|\mathbf{x}_{n}^{T}\mathbf{w}))$$

where  $p(\mathbf{y}_n|\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w})$  is an exponential family

tain the solution 
$$\frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{X}^T [\mathbf{g}^{-1} (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) - \phi(\mathbf{y})]$$

11 k-Nearest Neighbor (k-NN)

– The k-NN prediction for 
$${\bf x}$$
 is 
$$f({\bf x}) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{{\bf x}_n \in nbh_k({\bf x})} {\bf y}_n$$

where  $nbh_k(\mathbf{x})$  is the neightborhood of  $\mathbf{x}$ 

defined by the k closest points  $\mathbf{x}_n$ . Curse of dimensionality: Generalizing correctly becomes exponentially harder as the

dimensionality grows. Gathering more inputs variables may be bad

# 12 Support Vector Machine

- Combination of the kernel trick plus a

modified loss function (Hinge loss) Solution to the dual problem is sparse and non-zero entries will be our support

vectors Kernelised feature vector where  $\mu_k$  are centroids

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = [k(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_1), ..., k(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_K)]$$

In practice we'll take a subset of data points to be prototype \rightarrow sparse vector machine.

- Assume  $y_n \in \{-1, 1\}$ 

- SVM optimizes the following cost

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \min_{\mathbf{w}} \, \sum_{n=1}^{N} [1 - \mathbf{y}_n \tilde{\boldsymbol{\phi}}_n^T \mathbf{w}]_+ + \frac{\lambda}{2} {\|\mathbf{w}\|}^2$$

- Minimum doesn't change with a rescaling of

- choose the hyperplane so that the distance from it to the nearest data point on each side is maximized
- Duality:
  - Hard to minimize  $g(\mathbf{w})$  so we define  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \max G(\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$
  - we use the property that

$$[\mathbf{v}_n]_+ = \max(0, \mathbf{v}_n) = \max_{\alpha_n \in [0, 1]} \alpha_n \mathbf{v}_n$$

We can rewrite the problem as

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \max_{\alpha} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n (1 - \mathbf{y}_n \boldsymbol{\phi}_n^T \mathbf{w}) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$$

- This is differentiable, convex in  $\boldsymbol{w}$  and concave in  $\alpha$
- Minimax theorem:

 $\min \max G(\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \max \min G(\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$ 

because G is convex in  $\mathbf{w}$  and concave in

- Derivative w.r.t. w:

$$\mathbf{\nabla}_{\mathbf{w}}G(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{\alpha}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n \mathbf{y}_n \mathbf{x}_n + \lambda \mathbf{w}$$

– Equating this to 0, we get:

$$\mathbf{w}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n \mathbf{y}_n \mathbf{x}_n = \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$$

Y := diag(u)

- Plugging w\* back in the dual problem

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \in [0,1]^N} \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \mathbf{1} - \frac{1}{2\lambda} \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \mathbf{Y} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$$

- This is a differentiable least-squares problem. Optimization is easy using Sequential Minimal Optimization. It is also naturally kernelized with  $\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$
- The solution  $\alpha$  is sparse and is non-zero only for the training examples that are instrumental in determining the decision boundary.
- α is the slope of lines that are lower bound to Hinge loss
- Non support vector: Example that lies on the correct side, outside margin  $\alpha_n = 0$
- Essen. support vector: Example that lies on the margin  $\alpha_n \in (0,1)$
- Bound support vector: Example that lies strictly inside the margin or wrong side
- $\alpha_n = 1$ Use Coordinates Descent to find  $\alpha$ . Update
- one coordinate (argmin) at the time and others constant

## 13 Kernel Ridge Regression

- The following is true for ridge regression

In a following is true for riage regression
$$\mathbf{w}^* = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_D)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}, (1)$$

$$= \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T + \lambda \mathbf{I}_N)^{-1} \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\alpha}^*. (2)$$

Complexity of computing w: (1)

 $O(D^2N + D^3), (2) O(DN^2 + N^3)$ 

 $\mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\alpha}^*$ , with  $\mathbf{w}^* \in \mathbb{R}^D$  and  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^* \in \mathbb{R}^N$ 

- The representer theorem allows us to write an equivalent optimization problem in terms

$$oldsymbol{lpha} = rgmax_{oldsymbol{lpha}} \left( -rac{1}{2} oldsymbol{lpha}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_N) oldsymbol{lpha} + oldsymbol{lpha}^T \mathbf{y} 
ight)$$

- $\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T$  is called the **kernel matrix** or Gram matrix.
- If K is positive definite, then it's called a Mercer Kernel.
- $\mathbf{K}_{i,j} = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$

 If the kernel is Mercer, then there exists a function  $\phi(\mathbf{x})$  s.t.

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \phi(\mathbf{x}')$$

- compute dot-product in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  while remaining in  $\mathbb{R}^n$
- Replace (x, x') with k(x, x').
- Common Kernel
- Polynomial Kernel:  $(\gamma \langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j \rangle + r)^d$
- Radial Basis function kernel (RBF)

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'))$$
- Sigmoid Kernel:  $\tanh(\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j \rangle + r)$ 

- Properties of kernels to ensure the
- existance of a corresponding  $\phi$ : - symmetric:  $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = k(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{x})$
- positive semi-definite.

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^K \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^K \alpha_i k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$$

- Unsupervised learning: Represent particular input patterns in a way that reflects the statistical structure of the overall collections of input partterns.
- Cluster are groups of points whose inter-point distances are small compared to the distances outside the cluster.

$$\min_{\mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\mu}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{n=1}^{N} z_{nk} ||\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k||_2^2$$

- such that  $z_{nk} \in \{0,1\}$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^{K} z_{nk} = 1$  K-means algorithm (Coordinate Descent):
- 1. For all n, compute  $\mathbf{z}_n$  given  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  $z_{nk} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = \operatorname{argmin}_{j} ||\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}||_{2}^{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- 2. For all k, compute  $\mu_k$  given  $\mathbf{z}$

Initialize  $\mu_k$ , then iterate

compute 
$$\mu_k$$
 given  $\mathbf{z}$ 

$$\mu_k = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} \mathbf{x}_n}{\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk}}$$

- A good initialization procedure is to choose the prototypes to be equal to a random subset of K data points.
- Probabilistic model

$$p(\mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \prod_{k=1}^{K} \left[ \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{n} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}, \mathbf{I}) \right]^{z_{nk}}$$

$$-\log p(\mathbf{x}_n|\mu,z) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{n=1}^{K} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k\|^2 \mathbf{z}_{nk} + c' - \text{ If covariance is diagonal } \to \text{ K-means}$$

- K-means as a Matrix Factorization  $\min_{\mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\mu}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\mu}) = ||\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{M}\mathbf{Z}^T||_{\text{Frob}}^2$ 

Computation can be heavy, each example can belong to only on cluster and clusters have to be spherical.

### 15 Gaussian Mixture Models

Clusters can be elliptical using a full covariance matrix instead of isotropic

$$p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \mathbf{z}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \prod_{k=1}^{K} \left[ \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}) \right]^{z_{nk}}$$

Soft-clustering: Points can belong to several cluster by defining  $z_n$  to be a random

$$p(z_n = k) = \pi_k$$
 where  $\pi_k > 0, \forall k, \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$ 

- Joint distribution of Gaussian mixture model

$$p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{z} | \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \boldsymbol{\pi}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{r}_n, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) p(\mathbf{z}_n | \boldsymbol{\pi})$$

$$N = K$$

$$K$$

$$=\prod_{n=1}\prod_{k=1}[(\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k,\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k))^{z_nk}]\prod_{k=1}[\pi]^{z_{nk}}$$

- z<sub>n</sub> are called *latent* unobserved variables
- $\theta = \{\mu, \Sigma, \pi\}$
- We get the marginal likelihood by

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \sum_{k=1}^K p(\mathbf{x}_n, z_n = k|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^K p(z_n = k|\boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\mathbf{x}_n|z_n = k, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) \end{aligned}$$

- parameters grow at rate O(N)
- After marginalization, the growth is reduced
- To get maximum likelihood estimate of  $\theta$ , we

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_{k} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{n} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k})$$

- 1. Expectation step: Compute a lower bound to the cost such that it is tight at the previous  $\theta^{(t)}$  with equality when,

$$q_{kn} = \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}$$

$$\mu_k^{(t+1)} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma^{(i)}(r_{nk}) \mathbf{x}_n}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma^{(t)}(r_{nk}) \mathbf{x}_n}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{(t+1)} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} q_{kn}^{(t)} (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{(t+1)}) (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{(t+1)}) \mathbf{x}_{n}^{T} - \text{PCA} \text{ is a dimensionality reduction method}}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} q_{kn}^{(t)}} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} q_{kn}^{(t)} (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{(t+1)}) (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{(t+1)}) \mathbf{x}_{n}^{T} \mathbf{x}$$

$$\pi_k^{(t+1)} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} q_{kn}^{(t)}$$

#### 17 Matrix factorization

- We have D movies and N users
- n'th user for d'th movie.
- We project data vectors  $\mathbf{x}_n$  to a smaller dimension  $\mathbf{z}_n \in \mathbb{R}^M$
- - $\mathbf{Z}$  a  $N \times K$  matrix that gives features for the users
  - W a  $D \times K$  matrix that gives features for

$$x_{dn} \approx \mathbf{w}_d^T \mathbf{z}_r$$

 We can add a regularizer and minimize the following cost:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{Z}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(d, n) \in \Omega} [x_{dn} - (\mathbf{W}\mathbf{Z}^T)_{dn}]$$

$$\lambda_{w_{\parallel} \parallel \mathbf{W}\parallel^2} = \lambda_{z_{\parallel} \parallel \mathbf{Z}\parallel^2}$$

$$p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{z} | \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \boldsymbol{\pi}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(\mathbf{x}_{n} | \mathbf{r}_{n}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) p(\mathbf{z}_{n} | \boldsymbol{\pi})$$

$$=\prod_{n=1}^{N}\prod_{k=1}^{K}[(\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{k},\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}))^{z_{nk}}]\prod_{k=1}^{K}[\boldsymbol{\pi}]^{z_{nk}}$$

- Unknown parameters are given by
- marginalizing  $z_n$  out from the likelihood

- to  $O(D^2K)$

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

## 16 Expectation Maximization Algorithm

- [ALGORITHM] Start with  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(1)}$  and iterate

$$q_{kn} = \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}$$
2. Maximization step: Update  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ 

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+1)} = \operatorname{argmax} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})$$

$$\theta = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \gamma^{(i)}(r_{nh}) \mathbf{x}_{n}$$

$$\Sigma_{k}^{(t+1)} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} q_{kn}^{(t)}(\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{(t+1)})(\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{(t+1)})}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} q_{kn}^{(t)}(\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{(t+1)})}$$

$$\pi_k^{(t+1)} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} q_{kn}^{(t)}$$

- **X** is a matrix  $D \times N$  with  $x_{dn}$  the rating of
- We have now 2 latent variables:
- the movies

$$x_{dn} \approx \mathbf{w}_d^T \mathbf{z}_n$$

 $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{Z}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(\mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{Z}) \in \mathcal{Q}} [x_{dn} - (\mathbf{W}\mathbf{Z}^T)_{dn}]^2$ 

 $+\frac{\lambda_w}{2}\|\mathbf{W}\|_{\text{Frob}}^2+\frac{\lambda_z}{2}\|\mathbf{Z}\|_{\text{Frob}}^2$  - SGD: For one fixed element (d,n) we derive

entry 
$$(d', k)$$
 of **W** (if  $d = d'$  oth. 0):

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{d',k}} f_{d,n}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{Z}) = -[x_{dn} - (\mathbf{W}\mathbf{Z}^T)_{dn}] z_{nk}$$

And of **Z** (if n = n' oth. 0):

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z_{n',k}} f_{d,n}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{Z}) = -[x_{dn} - (\mathbf{W}\mathbf{Z}^T)_{dn}] w_{nk}$$

$$\mathbf{W}^{t+1} = \mathbf{W}^t - \gamma \nabla_w f_{d,n}(\mathbf{W}^t, \mathbf{Z}^t)$$

$$\mathbf{Z}^{t+1} = \mathbf{W}^t - \gamma \nabla_z f_{d,n}(\mathbf{W}^t, \mathbf{Z}^t)$$

- We can use coordinate descent algorithm, by first minimizing w.r.t. Z given W and then minimizing W given Z. This is called Alternating least-squares (ALS):

$$\mathbf{Z}^T \leftarrow (\mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{W} + \lambda_z \mathbf{I}_K)^{-1} \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{X}$$

$$\mathbf{W}^T \leftarrow (\mathbf{Z}^T \mathbf{Z} + \lambda_w \mathbf{I}_K)^{-1} \mathbf{Z}^T \mathbf{X}^T$$

- Complexity:  $O(DNK^2 + NK^3) \rightarrow O(DNK^2)$ 

# 18 Singular Value Decomposition

- Matrix factorization method  $X = USV^T$
- $\mathbf{U}$  is a unitary  $D \times D$  matrix
- $\mathbf{V}$  is a unitary  $N \times N$  matrix - S is a non-negative diagonal matrix of size  $D \times N$  which are called singular values appearing in a descending order.
- Columns of U and V are the left and right
- singular vectors respectively. Assuming D < N we have</li>

$$\mathbf{X} = \sum_{d=1}^{D} s_d \mathbf{u}_d \mathbf{v}_d^T$$

This tells you about the spectrum of X where higher singular vectors contain the low-frequency information and lower singular values contain the high-frequency information.

Truncated SVD: Take the matrix  $\mathbf{S}^{(K)}$  with the K first diagonal elements non zero. Then, rank-Kapprox:

$$\mathbf{X} \approx \mathbf{X}_K = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}^{(K)}\mathbf{V}^T$$

# 19 Principal Componement Analysis

- PCA is a dimensionality reduction method

- If the data is zero mean
$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T \Rightarrow \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{S}^2 \mathbf{U}^T$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} \mathbf{S}^2 \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{S}^2$$

- Thus the columns of matrix U are called the principal components and they decorrelate the covariance matrix.
- Using SVD, we can compute the matrices in the following way

$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}_D^{1/2}, \mathbf{Z}^T = \mathbf{S}^{1/2}\mathbf{V}^T$$

- Not invariant under scalings of the feature = arbitrariness, → normalize X

## 20 Neural Net

Basic structure: One input layer of size D, L hidden layers of size K, and one output layer. (feedforward network).  $x_j^{(l)} = \phi\left(\sum_i w_{i,j}^{(l)} x_i^{(l-1)} + b_j^{(l)}\right).$ 

NN can represent the Rienmann sum with only two layers ⇒ It's powerful!

Cost function:

 $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( y_n - f^{(L+1)} \circ \dots \circ f^{(1)}(\boldsymbol{x}_n^{(0)}) \right)^2$  We can use SGD to minimize the cost

20.1 Backpropagation Algorithm

- Forward pass: Compute

$$\mathbf{z}^{(l)} = \left(\mathbf{W}^{(l)}\right)^T \mathbf{x}^{(l-1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(l)}$$
 with  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = \mathbf{x}_n$  and  $\mathbf{x}^{(l)} = \phi(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})$ .

Backward pass: Set  $\delta^{(L+1)} = -2(y_n - \boldsymbol{x}^{(L+1)})\phi'(z^{(L+1)}) \text{ (if }$ squared loss). Then compute

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{\delta}_{j}^{(l)} &= \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{n}}{\partial z_{j}^{(l)}} = \sum_{k} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{n}}{\partial z_{k}^{(l+1)}} \frac{\partial z_{k}^{(l+1)}}{\partial z_{j}^{(l)}} \\ &= \sum_{k} \boldsymbol{\delta}_{k}^{(l+1)} \boldsymbol{W}_{j,k}^{(l+1)} \boldsymbol{\phi}'(z_{j}^{(l)}) \end{split}$$

The computation: 
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_n}{\partial w_{i,j}^{(l)}} = \sum_k \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_n}{\partial z_k^{(l)}} \frac{\partial z_k^{(l)}}{\partial w_{i,j}^{(l)}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_n}{\partial z_j^{(l)}} \frac{\partial z_j^{(l)}}{\partial w_{i,j}^{(l)}}$$
$$= \delta_i^{(l)} x_i^{(l-1)}$$

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_n}{\partial b_j^{(l)}} &= \sum_k \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_n}{\partial z_k^{(l)}} \frac{\partial z_k^{(l)}}{\partial b_j^{(l)}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_n}{\partial z_j^{(l)}} \frac{\partial z_j^{(l)}}{\partial b_j^{(l)}} \\ &= \delta_i^{(l)} \cdot 1 = \delta_i^{(l)} \end{split}$$

20.2 Activation Functions

**Sigmoid**  $\phi(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$  Positive, bounded  $\phi'(x) \simeq 0$  for large  $|x| \Rightarrow$  Learning slow.

**Tanh**  $\tanh(x) = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}} = \phi(2x) - 1/2.$ 

Balanced, bounded. Learning slow too. ReLU  $(x)_{+} = max 0, x Positive, unbounded.$ Derivate = 1 if x > 0, 0 if x < 0

Leaky ReLU  $f(x) = \max \alpha x, x$  Remove 0 derivative.

Maxout  $f(x) = max \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w}_1 + b_1, ..., \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w}_k + b_k$ (Generalization of ReLU)

### 20.3 Convolutional NN Sparse connections and weights sharing: reduce

complexity. (e.g. pixels in pictures only depend 20.4 Reg, Data Augmentation and Dropout

 $\begin{array}{ll} - & \text{Regularization term: } \frac{1}{2} \sum_{l=1}^{L+1} \mu^{(l)} ||W^{(l)}||_F^2 \\ - & \text{Weight decay is } \Theta[t] (1-\eta \mu) \text{ in:} \end{array}$ 

 $\Theta[t+1] = \Theta[t] + \eta(\nabla \mathcal{L} + \mu \Theta[t])$ - Data Augm.: e.g. shift or rotation of pics

- Dropout: avoid overfit. Drop nodes randomly. (Then average multiple drop-NN)

on neighbours)

21 Bayes Net - Graph example: p(x, y, z) = p(y|x)p(z|x)p(x)

 $(y \leftarrow x \rightarrow z)$ D-Separation X and Y are D-separated by

Z if every path from  $x \in X$  to  $y \in Y$  is blocked by Z. ( $\rightarrow$  independent)

Blocked Path contains a variable that - is in Z and is head-to-tail or tail-to-tail - the node is head-to-head and neither the

- node nor the descendant are in Z. Markov Blanket (which blocks node A from
- parents of A
- children of A
- parents of children of A

the rest of the net) contains: