ML Cheat Sheet

1 Math Prerequisites

1.1 Derivatives

- $\partial \mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{a} = \partial \mathbf{a}^T\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{a}$
- $\partial \mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{A}^T)\mathbf{x}$
- $\partial \mathbf{a}^T\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} = \partial \mathbf{a}^T\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a}\mathbf{b}^T$
- $\partial \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 = 2\mathbf{x}$ and $\partial \|\mathbf{X}\|_2^2 = 2\mathbf{X}$
- $\partial \|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{a}\|_2 = \frac{\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{a}}{\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{a}\|_2}$
- $\partial(\mathbf{b}-\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x})^T(\mathbf{b}-\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}) = -2\mathbf{A}^T(\mathbf{b}-\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x})$
- **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 $\mathbf{X}^T$
- **positive definite** (pd) if $\mathbf{a}^T\mathbf{V}\mathbf{a} > 0$
- $(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{b})^T(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{b}) = \|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{b}\|_2^2$
- $\|\mathbf{A}\|_F = \sqrt{\sum \sigma_i^2}$, and $\|\mathbf{A}\|_1 = tr(\sqrt{\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}})$
- $\|\mathbf{X}\|_2 = \|\mathbf{X}^T\|_2$

1.3 Distributions

Valid distribution $p(x) > 0$, $\forall x$ and $\sum p(x) = 1$
Model is identifiable iff $\theta_1 = \theta_2 \rightarrow P_{\theta_1} = P_{\theta_2}$

- **Gaussian** (Not convex):
  $\mathcal{N}(x|\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}\exp(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2})$
  $\mathcal{N}(x|\mu,\Sigma^2) = \frac{\exp(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T\Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu))}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^D det(\Sigma)}}$
- **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 $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$, we have : $f(\lambda\mathbf{x}_1 + (1-\lambda)\mathbf{x}_2) \leq \lambda f(\mathbf{x}_1) + (1-\lambda)f(\mathbf{x}_2)$
- it is a sum of convex functions
- the Hessian $\mathbf{H}$ is positive semi-definite

1.5 Others

- Production of independent variables:
  $\text{Var}(xy) = \mathbb{E}(x^2)\,\mathbb{E}(y^2) - [\mathbb{E}(x)]^2[\mathbb{E}(y)]^2$
- Covariance matrix of a data vector $\mathbf{x}$
  $$\mathbf{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}(\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{x}))(\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{x}))^T$$
- Multi-class $\mathbf{x}$
  $$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X},\beta) = \prod_{n}^{N} p(\mathbf{y}_n|\mathbf{x}_n,\beta)$$
  $$= \prod_{k}^{K}\prod_{n}^{N}[p(\mathbf{y}_n = k|\mathbf{x}_n,\beta)]^{\tilde{y}_{nk}}$$

2 Cost functions

- 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 loss

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

- Huber loss is convex, differentiable, and also robust to outliers but hard to set δ.

Tukey's bisquare loss

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

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
  $$y_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n) := \mathbf{w}_0 + \mathbf{w}_1\mathbf{x}_{n1} + \ldots = \mathbf{w}_0 + \mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w}$$
  $$\approx \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n^T\mathbf{w}$$,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 $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ we want to find $\mathbf{w}$
  $$\mathbf{w} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$$
- Take steps in the opposite direction of the gradient
  $$\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^{(t)} - \gamma\boldsymbol{\nabla}\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})$$
- With γ too big, method might diverge. With γ 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:

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

$\Rightarrow$ SGD update rule (only n-th training exam.):

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

Idea: Cheap but unbiased estimate of grad.

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

4.4 Mini-batch SGD

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

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

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

4.5 Gradients for MSE

- We define the error vector $\mathbf{e}$:
  $$\mathbf{e} := \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}$$
- and MSE as follows:
  $$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}(\mathbf{y}_n - \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n^T\mathbf{w})^2 = \frac{1}{2N}\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{e}$$
- then the gradient is given by
  $$\boldsymbol{\nabla}\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{e}$$
- Optimality conditions:
  1. *necessary*: gradient equal zero: $\frac{d\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^*)}{d\mathbf{w}} = 0$
  2. *sufficient*: Hessian matrix is positive definite: $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{w}^*) = \frac{d^2\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^*)}{d\mathbf{w}d\mathbf{w}^T}$
- Very sensitive to illconditioning $\Rightarrow$ always normalize features.
- *Complexity*: $O(NDI)$ with I the number of iterations

4.6 Subgradients (Non-Smooth OPT)

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

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

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

4.7 Constrained Optimization

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

- Add proj. onto $\mathcal{C}$ 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
  - $\min \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) + I_{\mathcal{C}}$, $I_{\mathcal{C}} = 0$ if $\mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{C}$, 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:
  $$\boldsymbol{\nabla}L(\mathbf{w}^*) = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{X}^T(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) = 0$$
- 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 $\mathbf{x}_m$
  $$\mathbf{y}_m := \mathbf{x}_\mathbf{m}^T\mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{x}_\mathbf{m}^T(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y}$$
- The **Gram matrix** $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$ is pd and is also invertible iff $\mathbf{X}$ has full column rank.
- *Complexity*: $O(ND^2 + D^3) \equiv O(ND^2)$
- $\mathbf{X}$ 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 $\epsilon_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$.
  $$\rightarrow \mathbf{y}_n = \mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w} + \epsilon_n$$
- Another way of expressing this:
  $$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(\mathbf{y}_n|\mathbf{x}_n,\mathbf{w})$$
  $$= \prod_{n=1}^{N}\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_n|\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w},\sigma^2)$$
  which defines the likelihood of observating $\mathbf{y}$ given $\mathbf{X}$ and $\boldsymbol{w}$
- Define cost with log-likelihood
  $\mathcal{L}_{MLE}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{w})$
  $$= -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{n=1}^{N}(\mathbf{y}_n - \mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w})^2 + cnst$$
- Maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) gives another way to design cost functions
  $$\arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}_{MSE}(\mathbf{w}) = \arg\max_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}_{MLE}(\mathbf{w})$$
- MLE can also be interpreted as finding the model under which the observed data is most likely to have been generated from.
- $\mathbf{w}_{\text{MLE}} \rightarrow \mathbf{w}_{\text{true}}$ for large amount of data

7 Ridge Regression (RR)

- Linear models usually overfit. We can penalize them with a **regularization term**
  $$\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) + \Omega(\mathbf{w})$$
- L_2-Reg. (Ridge): $\Omega(\mathbf{w}) = \lambda\|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$
- $\rightarrow$ small values of $\mathbf{w}_i$, not sparse
- $\rightarrow \mathbf{w}^\star = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda'\mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y}$ 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. $\propto$ Likelihood $\times$ Prior prob
    $$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) = \prod^{N}\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_n|\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w},\sigma_n^2)$$
    $$p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|0,\sigma_0^2\mathbf{I}_D)$$
    $$\text{then} \rightarrow \mathbf{w}^\star = \arg\max_{\mathbf{w}} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})\cdot p(\mathbf{w})$$
  - $$\mathbf{w}^\star = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum^{N}\frac{1}{2\sigma_n^2}(\mathbf{y}_n - \mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{w})^2 + \frac{1}{2\sigma_0^2}\|\mathbf{w}\|^2$$

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.

$$\text{expected loss} = (\text{bias})^2 + \text{variance} + \text{noise}$$

- Model bias and estimation bias are important
- RR increases estimation bias and reduces var
- Model more complex increases test error
- Small $\lambda \rightarrow$ low bias but large variance
- Large $\lambda \rightarrow$ large bias but low variance
- **Simple** $\rightarrow$ large bias but low variance
- **Complex** $\rightarrow$ 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 $\mathbf{x}$ to discrete output variable $\mathbf{y}$
- **Binary classifier**: we use $y = 0$ for $\mathbf{C}_1$ and $\mathbf{y} = 1$ for $\mathbf{C}_2$.
- Can use least-squares to predict $\hat{y}_*$
  $$\hat{y} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{C}_1 & \hat{y}_* < 0.5 \\ \mathbf{C}_2 & \hat{y}_* \geq 0.5 \end{cases}$$
- **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:
  $$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N}\sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w})^{\mathbf{y}_n}(1-\sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w}))^{1-\mathbf{y}_n}$$
- The log-likelihood (w.r.t. MLE):
  $$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N}\mathbf{y}_n\ln\sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w}) + (1-\mathbf{y}_n)\ln(1-\sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w}))$$
  $$= \sum_{n=1}^{N}\ln[1+\exp(\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w})] - \mathbf{y}_n\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w}$$
- We can use the fact that
  $$\frac{d}{dx}\log(1+\exp(x)) = \sigma(x)$$
- Gradient of the log-likelihood
  $$\mathbf{g} = \boldsymbol{\nabla}\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N}\mathbf{x}_n(\sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w}) - \mathbf{y}_n)$$
  $$= \mathbf{X}^T[\sigma(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{w}) - \mathbf{y}]$$
- The negative of the log-likelihood $-\mathcal{L}_{mle}(\boldsymbol{w})$ is convex
- **Hessian** of the log-likelihood
  - We know that
    $$\frac{d\sigma(t)}{dt} = \sigma(t)(1-\sigma(t))$$
  - Hessian is the derivative of the gradient
    $$\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{d\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{w})}{d\mathbf{w}^T} = \sum_{n=1}^{N}\frac{d}{d\mathbf{w}^T}\mathbf{x}_n\sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w})$$
    $$= \sum_{n=1}^{N}\mathbf{x}_n\mathbf{x}_n^T\sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w})(1-\sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w}))$$
    $$= \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T\mathbf{S}\tilde{\mathbf{X}}$$
    where $\mathbf{S}$ is a $N \times N$ diagonal matrix with diagonals
    $$S_{nn} = \sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w})(1-\sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w}))$$
  - The negative of the log-likelihood is not strictly convex.
- **Newton's Method**
  - Uses second-order information and takes steps in the direction that minimizes a quadratic approximation (Taylor)
    $$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^{(k)}) + \nabla\mathcal{L}_k^T(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{w}^{(k)})$$
    $$+(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{w}^{(k)})^T\mathbf{H}_k(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{w}^{(k)})$$
    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**
  $$\arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} -\sum_{n=1}^{N}\ln p(\mathbf{y}_n|\mathbf{x}_n^T\mathbf{w}) + \frac{\lambda}{2}\|\mathbf{w}\|^2$$

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
  $$\rightarrow \exp(\log(\frac{\mu}{1-\mu})y + \log(1-\mu)))$$
  (i) there is a relationship between η and μ through the **link function**
  $$\eta = \log(\frac{\mu}{1-\mu}) \leftrightarrow \mu = \frac{e^\eta}{1+e^\eta}$$
  (ii) Note that μ is the mean parameter of y
  (iii) Relationship between the mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ is defined using a link function g
  $$\boldsymbol{\eta} = \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{\mu}) \Leftrightarrow \boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{g}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\eta})$$
- **Gaussian** distribution example
  $$\exp((\frac{\mu}{2\sigma^2}, \frac{-1}{2\sigma^2})(y, y^2)^T - \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{2}\ln(2\pi\sigma^2))$$
  (i) link function
  $$\eta = (\eta_1 = \mu/\sigma^2, \eta_2 = -1/(2\sigma^2))^T$$
  $$\mu = -\eta_1/(2\eta_2)\ ;\ \sigma^2 = -1/(2\eta_2)$$
- First and second derivatives of $A(\eta)$ are related to the mean and the variance
  $$\frac{dA(\eta)}{d\eta} = \mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{\phi}(\eta)],\quad \frac{d^2A(\eta)}{d\eta^2} = \text{Var}[\boldsymbol{\phi}(\eta)]$$
  $A(\eta)$ is convex
- The generalized maximum likelihood cost to minimize 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 distribution
- We obtain the solution
  $$\frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{X}^T[\mathbf{g}^{-1}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) - \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{y})]$$

11 k-Nearest Neighbor (k-NN)

- The k-NN prediction for $\mathbf{x}$ is
  $$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{k}\sum_{\mathbf{x}_n \in nbh_k(\mathbf{x})}\mathbf{y}_n$$
  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 $\boldsymbol{\mu}_k$ are centroids
$$\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) = [k(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_1), ..., k(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_K)]$$
- In practice we'll take a subset of data points to be prototype → **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 $\mathbf{w}$
- 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
  $$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} G(\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$$
  - 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 $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$
  - **Minimax theorem**:
  $$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} G(\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \max_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \min_{\mathbf{w}} G(\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$$
  because G is convex in $\mathbf{w}$ and concave in $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$.
  - Derivative w.r.t. $\mathbf{w}$:
  $$\boldsymbol{\nabla}_{\mathbf{w}} G(\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n \mathbf{y}_n \mathbf{x}_n + \lambda \mathbf{w}$$
  - Equating this to 0, we get:
  $$\mathbf{w}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{1}{\lambda}\sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n \mathbf{y}_n \mathbf{x}_n = \frac{1}{\lambda}\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y} \boldsymbol{\alpha}$$
  $$\mathbf{Y} := \text{diag}(\boldsymbol{y})$$
  - Plugging $\mathbf{w}^*$ 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 $\mathbf{K} = \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X}$
  - The solution $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ is sparse and is non-zero only for the training examples that are instrumental in determining the decision boundary.
  - $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ is the slope of lines that are lower bound to Hinge loss
- **Non support vector**: Example that lies on the correct side, outside margin $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_n = 0$
- **Essen. support vector**: Example that lies on the margin $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_n \in (0, 1)$
- **Bound support vector**: Example that lies strictly inside the margin or wrong side $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_n = 1$
- Use Coordinates Descent to find $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Update one coordinate (argmin) at the time and others constant.

13 Kernel Ridge Regression

- The following is true for ridge regression
$$\mathbf{w}^* = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_D)^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y} \text{ , (1)}$$
$$= \mathbf{X}^T(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T + \lambda \mathbf{I}_N)^{-1}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}^T\boldsymbol{\alpha}^* \text{ , (2)}$$
- Complexity of computing $\mathbf{w}$: (1) $O(D^2N + D^3)$, (2) $O(DN^2 + N^3)$
- Thus we have
$$\mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{X}^T\boldsymbol{\alpha}^*, \quad \text{with } \mathbf{w}^* \in \mathbb{R}^D \text{ and } \boldsymbol{\alpha}^* \in \mathbb{R}^N$$
- The representer theorem allows us to write an equivalent optimization problem in terms of $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$.
$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}{\text{argmax}} \left(-\frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{\alpha}^T(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_N)\boldsymbol{\alpha} + \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T\mathbf{y}\right)$$
- $\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T$ is called the **kernel matrix** or **Gram matrix**.
- If $\mathbf{K}$ 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 $\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})$ s.t.
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})^T\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}')$$
- **Kernel trick**:
  - compute dot-product in $\mathbb{R}^m$ while remaining in $\mathbb{R}^n$
  - Replace $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle$ with $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$.
- **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 $\boldsymbol{\phi}$:
  - symmetric: $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = k(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{x})$
  - positive semi-definite.
- Thus we get
$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{K} \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i^T\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{K} \alpha_i k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$$

14 K-means

- **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): Initialize $\boldsymbol{\mu}_k$, then iterate
  1. For all n, compute $\mathbf{z}_n$ given $\boldsymbol{\mu}$
  $$z_{nk} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = \text{argmin}_j ||\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}||_2^2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
  2. For all k, compute μ_k given $\mathbf{z}$
  $$\boldsymbol{\mu}_k = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} z_{nk}\mathbf{x}_n}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} z_{nk}}$$
- A good initialization procedure is to choose the prototypes to be equal to a random subset of K data points.
- Probabilistic model
$$p(\mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N}\prod_{k=1}^{K} [\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \mathbf{I})]^{z_{nk}}$$
$$-\log p(\mathbf{x}_n|\mu, z) = \sum_{}^{N}\sum_{}^{K} \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k\|^2 \mathbf{z}_{nk} + c'$$
- 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 covariance.
$$p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \mathbf{z}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N}\prod_{k=1}^{K} [\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k)]^{z_{nk}}$$
- **Soft-clustering**: Points can belong to several cluster by defining z_n to be a random variable.
$$p(z_n = k) = \pi_k \text{ where } \pi_k > 0, \forall k, \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k = 1$$
- Joint distribution of Gaussian mixture model
$$p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \boldsymbol{\pi}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(\mathbf{x}_n|\mathbf{r}_n, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) p(\mathbf{z}_n|\boldsymbol{\pi})$$
$$= \prod_{n=1}^{N}\prod_{k=1}^{K} [(\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k))^{z_{nk}}] \prod_{k=1}^{K} [\pi_k]^{z_{nk}}$$
- z_n are called *latent* unobserved variables
- Unknown parameters are given by $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \boldsymbol{\pi}\}$
- We get the **marginal likelihood** by marginalizing z_n out from the likelihood
$$p(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x}_n, z_n = k|\boldsymbol{\theta})$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(z_n = k|\boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\mathbf{x}_n|z_n = k, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$
- Without a latent variable model, number of parameters grow at rate $O(N)$
- After marginalization, the growth is reduced to $O(D^2K)$
- To get maximum likelihood estimate of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, we maximize
$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

16 Expectation Maximization Algorithm

- *[ALGORITHM]* Start with $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(1)}$ and iterate
  1. *Expectation step*: Compute a lower bound to the cost such that it is tight at the previous $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}$ with equality when,
  $$q_{kn} = \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}$$
  2. *Maximization step*: Update $\boldsymbol{\theta}$
  $$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+1)} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\text{argmax}}\, \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})$$
$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{(t+1)} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma^{(i)}(r_{nk})\mathbf{x}_n}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} q_{kn}^{(t)}}$$
$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{(t+1)} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} q_{kn}^{(t)}(\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{(t+1)})(\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{(t+1)})^T}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} q_{kn}^{(t)})}$$
$$\pi_k^{(t+1)} = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N} q_{kn}^{(t)}$$
- If covariance is diagonal → K-means.

17 Matrix factorization

- We have D movies and N users
- $\mathbf{X}$ is a matrix $D \times N$ with x_{dn} the rating of n'th user for d'th movie.
- We project data vectors $\mathbf{x}_n$ to a smaller dimension $\mathbf{z}_n \in \mathbb{R}^M$
- We have now 2 latent variables:
  - $\mathbf{Z}$ a $N \times K$ matrix that gives features for the users
  - $\mathbf{W}$ a $D \times K$ matrix that gives features for the movies
$$x_{dn} \approx \mathbf{w}_d^T\mathbf{z}_n$$
- We can add a regularizer and minimize the following cost:
$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{Z}) = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{(d,n)\in\Omega} [x_{dn} - (\mathbf{W}\mathbf{Z}^T)_{dn}]^2 + \frac{\lambda_w}{2}\|\mathbf{W}\|_{\text{Frob}}^2 + \frac{\lambda_z}{2}\|\mathbf{Z}\|_{\text{Frob}}^2$$
- **SGD**: For one fixed element (d, n) we derive entry (d', k) of $\mathbf{W}$ (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 $\mathbf{Z}$ (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. $\mathbf{Z}$ given $\mathbf{W}$ and then minimizing $\mathbf{W}$ given $\mathbf{Z}$. 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
$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{V}^T$$
  - $\mathbf{U}$ is a unitary $D \times D$ matrix
  - $\mathbf{V}$ is a unitary $N \times N$ matrix
  - $\mathbf{S}$ is a non-negative diagonal matrix of size $D \times N$ which are called **singular values** appearing in a descending order.
  - Columns of $\mathbf{U}$ and $\mathbf{V}$ are the left and right **singular vectors** respectively.
- Assuming $D < N$ we have
$$\mathbf{X} = \sum_{d=1}^{D} s_d \mathbf{u}_d \mathbf{v}_d^T$$
This tells you about the spectrum of $\mathbf{X}$ 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-K approx:
$$\mathbf{X} \approx \mathbf{X}_K = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}^{(K)}\mathbf{V}^T$$

19 Principal Componement Analysis

- PCA is a dimensionality reduction method and a method to decorrelate the data $\mathbf{X} \approx \tilde{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{Z}^T$ such that columns of $\mathbf{W}$ are orthogonal.
- If the data is zero mean
$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{N}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T \Rightarrow \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}^2\mathbf{U}^T$$
$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}^2\mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{S}^2$$
- Thus the columns of matrix $\mathbf{U}$ 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 $\mathbf{X}$

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

20.1 Backpropagation Algorithm

- *Forward pass*: Compute
$\boldsymbol{z}^{(l)} = \left(\boldsymbol{W}^{(l)}\right)^T \boldsymbol{x}^{(l-1)} + \boldsymbol{b}^{(l)}$ with
$\boldsymbol{x}^{(0)} = \boldsymbol{x}_n$ and $\boldsymbol{x}^{(l)} = \phi(\boldsymbol{z}^{(l)})$.
- *Backward pass*: Set
$\delta^{(L+1)} = -2(y_n - \boldsymbol{x}^{(L+1)})\phi'(z^{(L+1)})$ (if squared loss). Then compute
$$\delta_j^{(l)} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_n}{\partial z_j^{(l)}} = \sum_k \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_n}{\partial z_k^{(l+1)}} \frac{\partial z_k^{(l+1)}}{\partial z_j^{(l)}}$$
$$= \sum_k \delta_k^{(l+1)} \boldsymbol{W}_{j,k}^{(l+1)} \phi'(z_j^{(l)})$$
- *Final Computation*:
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_n}{\partial w_{i,j}^{(l)}} = \sum_k \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_n}{\partial z_k^{(l)}} \frac{\partial z_k^{(l)}}{\partial w_{i,j}^{(l)}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_n}{\partial z_j^{(l)}} \frac{\partial z_j^{(l)}}{\partial w_{i,j}^{(l)}}$$
$$= \delta_j^{(l)} \boldsymbol{x}_i^{(l-1)}$$
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_n}{\partial b_j^{(l)}} = \sum_k \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_n}{\partial z_k^{(l)}} \frac{\partial z_k^{(l)}}{\partial b_j^{(l)}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_n}{\partial z_j^{(l)}} \frac{\partial z_j^{(l)}}{\partial b_j^{(l)}}$$
$$= \delta_j^{(l)} \cdot 1 = \delta_j^{(l)}$$

20.2 Activation Functions

Sigmoid $\phi(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$ Positive, bounded.
$\phi'(x) \simeq 0$ for large $|x|$ ⇒ 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
$f(x) = max \boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{w}_1 + b_1, ..., \boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{w}_k + b_k$
(Generalization of ReLU)

20.3 Convolutional NN

Sparse connections and *weights sharing*: reduce complexity. (e.g. pixels in pictures only depend on neighbours)

20.4 Reg, Data Augmentation and Dropout

- Regularization term: $\frac{1}{2}\sum_{l=1}^{L+1} \mu^{(l)}||W^{(l)}||_F^2$
- Weight decay is $\Theta[t](1 - \eta\mu)$ in:
$$\Theta[t+1] = \Theta[t] + \eta(\nabla\mathcal{L} + \mu\Theta[t])$$
- Data Augm.: e.g. shift or rotation of pics
- Dropout: avoid overfit. Drop nodes randomly. (Then average multiple drop-NN)

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. (→ 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 the rest of the net) contains:
  - parents of A
  - children of A
  - parents of children of A