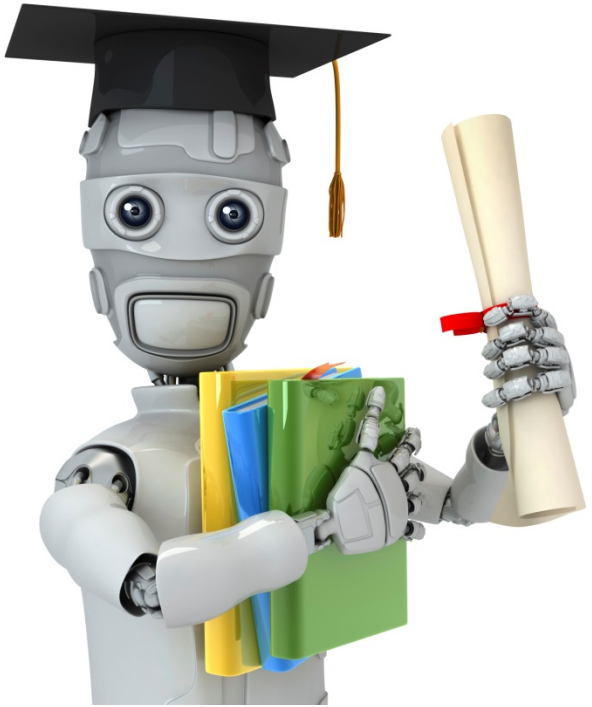


Machine Learning

Advice for applying machine learning

Deciding what to try next

Debugging a learning algorithm:

Suppose you have implemented regularized linear regression to predict housing prices.

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{m}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 + \lambda\sum_{j=1}^{m}\theta_j^2\right]$$

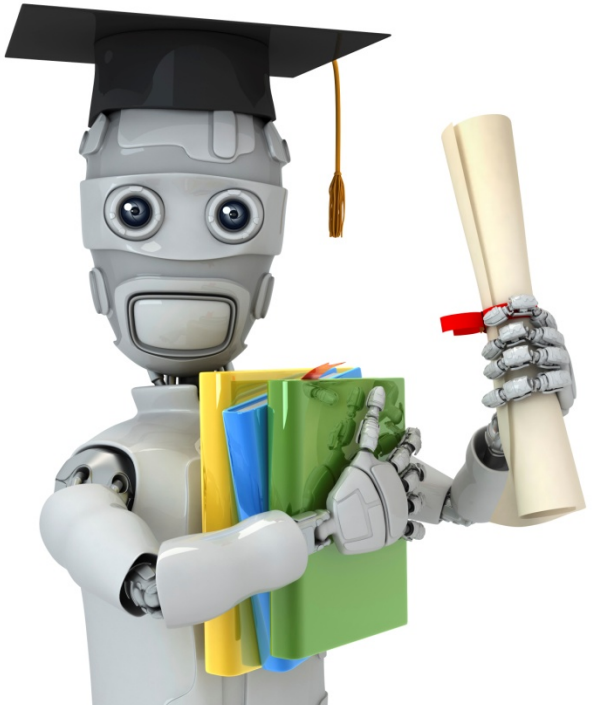
However, when you test your hypothesis on a new set of houses, you find that it makes unacceptably large errors in its predictions. What should you try next?

- Get more training examples
- Try smaller sets of features
- Try getting additional features
- Try adding polynomial features $(x_1^2, x_2^2, x_1x_2, \text{etc.})$
- Try decreasing λ
- Try increasing λ

Machine learning diagnostic:

Diagnostic: A test that you can run to gain insight what is/isn't working with a learning algorithm, and gain guidance as to how best to improve its performance.

Diagnostics can take time to implement, but doing so can be a very good use of your time.

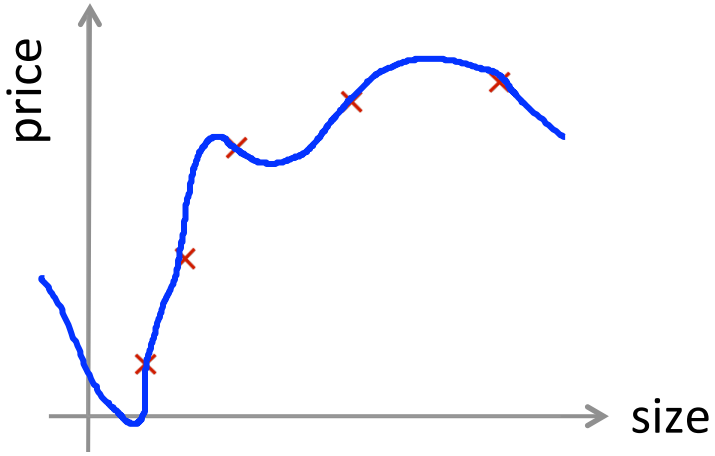


Machine Learning

Advice for applying machine learning

Evaluating a hypothesis

Evaluating your hypothesis



$$h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2 + \theta_3 x^3 + \theta_4 x^4$$

Fails to generalize to new examples not in training set.

$x_1 =$ size of house
$x_2 =$ no. of bedrooms
$x_3 =$ no. of floors
$x_4 =$ age of house
$x_5 =$ average income in neighborhood
$x_6 =$ kitchen size
$\vdots$
x_{100}

Evaluating your hypothesis

Dataset:

Size	Price
2104	400
1600	330
2400	369
1416	232
3000	540
1985	300
1534	315
1427	199
1380	212
1494	243

70%

Training set

30%

Test set

$(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)})$
$(x^{(2)}, y^{(2)})$
$\vdots$
$(x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})$

$(x_{test}^{(1)}, y_{test}^{(1)})$
$(x_{test}^{(2)}, y_{test}^{(2)})$
$\vdots$
$(x_{test}^{(m_{test})}, y_{test}^{(m_{test})})$

m_{test} = no. of test example

$(x_{test}^{(1)}, y_{test}^{(1)})$

Training/testing procedure for linear regression

- Learn parameter θ from training data (minimizing training error $J(\theta)$)

70%

- Compute test set error:

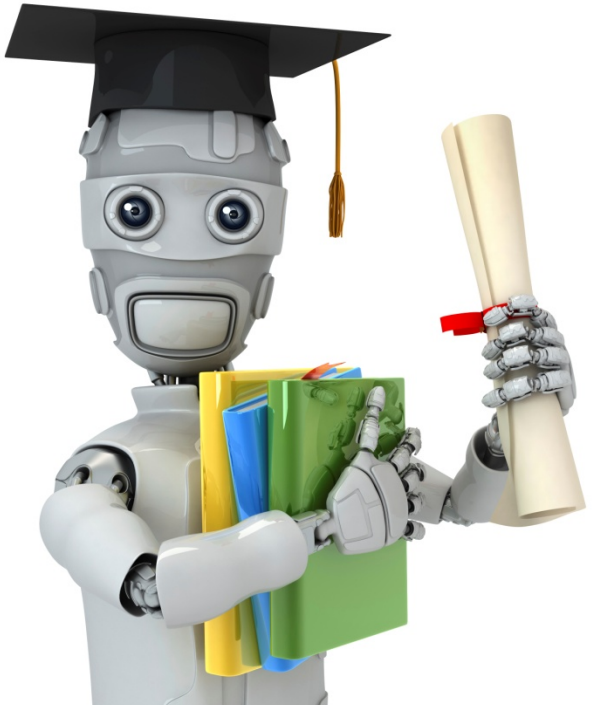
$$J_{test}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m_{test}} \sum_{i=1}^{m_{test}} \left(h_\theta(x_{test}^{(i)}) - y_{test}^{(i)} \right)^2$$

Training/testing procedure for logistic regression

- Learn parameter θ from training data
- Compute test set error:

$$J_{test}(\theta) = -\frac{1}{m_{test}} \sum_{i=1}^{m_{test}} y_{test}^{(i)} \log h_\theta(x_{test}^{(i)}) + (1 - y_{test}^{(i)}) \log h_\theta(x_{test}^{(i)})$$

- Misclassification error (0/1 misclassification error):

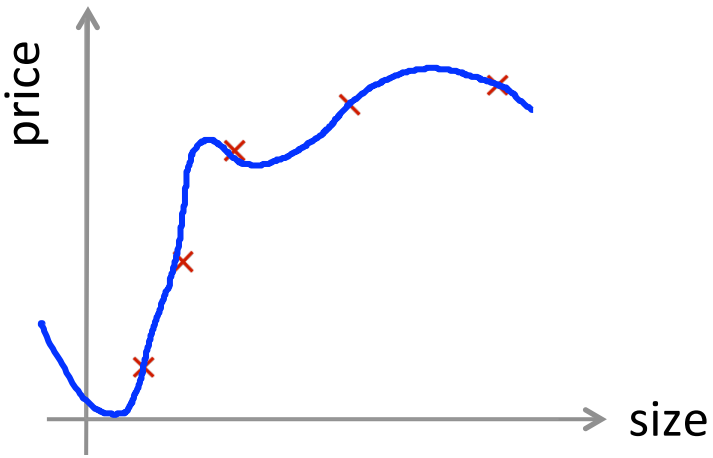


Machine Learning

Advice for applying machine learning

Model selection and training/validation/test sets

Overfitting example



$$h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2 + \theta_3 x^3 + \theta_4 x^4$$

Once parameters $\theta_0, \theta_1, \ldots, \theta_4$ were fit to some set of data (training set), the error of the parameters as measured on that data (the training error $J(\theta)$) is likely to be lower than the actual generalization error.

Model selection

d = degree of polynomial

1. $h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$ → $\theta^{(1)}$ → $J_{test}(\theta^{(1)})$
2. $h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2$ → $\theta^{(2)}$ → $J_{test}(\theta^{(2)})$
3. $h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \cdots + \theta_3 x^3$ → $\theta^{(3)}$ → $J_{test}(\theta^{(3)})$

⋮ ⋮

10. $h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \cdots + \theta_{10} x^{10}$ → $\theta^{(10)}$ → $J_{test}(\theta^{(10)})$

Choose $\theta_0 + \ldots \theta_5 x^5$

How well does the model generalize? Report test set error $J_{test}(\theta^{(5)})$.

$\theta_0, \theta_1 \ldots$

$\theta^{(5)}$

Problem: $J_{test}(\theta^{(5)})$ is likely to be an optimistic estimate of generalization error. I.e. our extra parameter (d = degree of polynomial) is fit to test set.

Evaluating your hypothesis

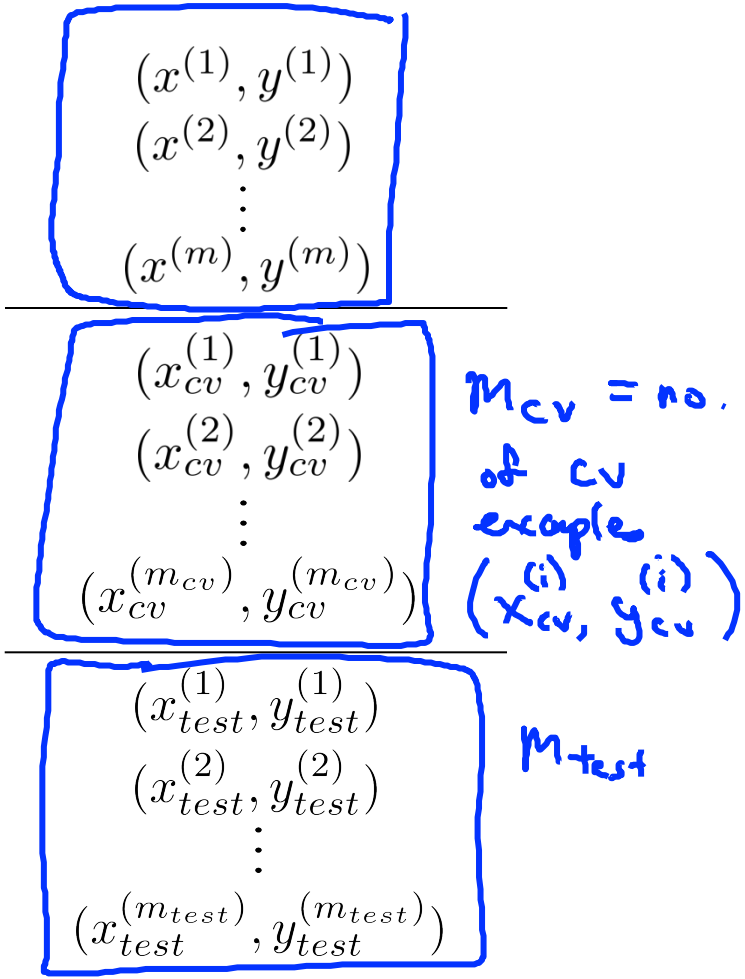
Dataset:

Size	Price
2104	400
1600	330
2400	369
1416	232
3000	540
1985	300
1534	315
1427	199
1380	212
1494	243

60% Training set

20% Cross validation (CV) set

20% test set



Train/validation/test error

Training error:

$$J_{train}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

$J(\theta)$

Cross Validation error:

$$J_{cv}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m_{cv}}\sum_{i=1}^{m_{cv}}(h_\theta(x_{cv}^{(i)}) - y_{cv}^{(i)})^2$$

Test error:

$$J_{test}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m_{test}}\sum_{i=1}^{m_{test}}(h_\theta(x_{test}^{(i)}) - y_{test}^{(i)})^2$$

Model selection

1. $h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$ → $\min_\theta J(\theta)$ → $\theta^{(1)}$ → $J_{cv}(\theta^{(1)})$
2. $h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2$ → $\theta^{(2)}$ → $J_{cv}(\theta^{(2)})$
3. $h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \cdots + \theta_3 x^3$ → $\theta^{(3)}$ → $J_{cv}(\theta^{(3)})$

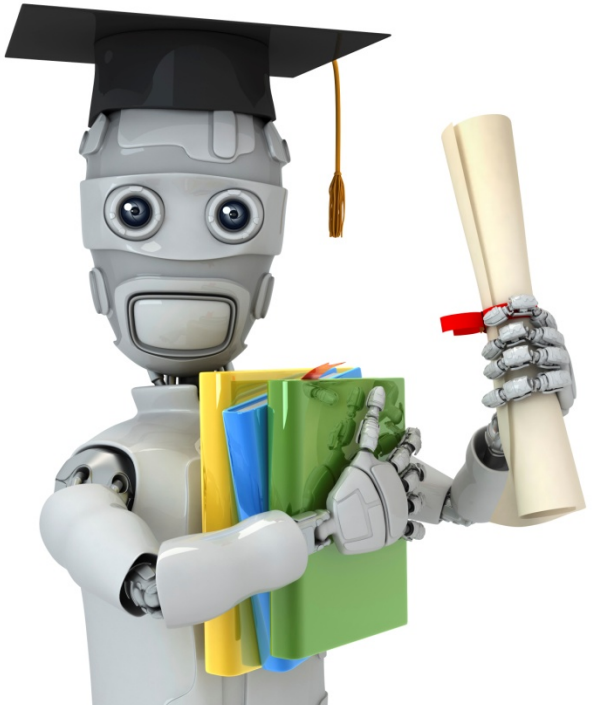
⋮

10. $h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \cdots + \theta_{10} x^{10}$ → $\theta^{(10)}$ → $J_{cv}(\theta^{(10)})$

$d = 4$

Pick $\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \theta_4 x^4$

Estimate generalization error for test set $J_{test}(\theta^{(4)})$

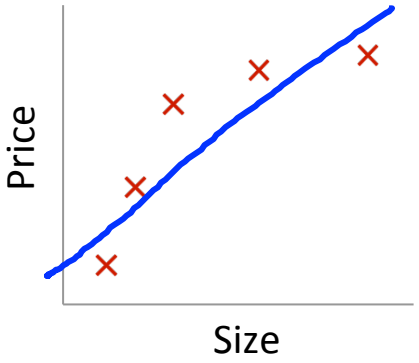


Machine Learning

Advice for applying machine learning

Diagnosing bias vs. variance

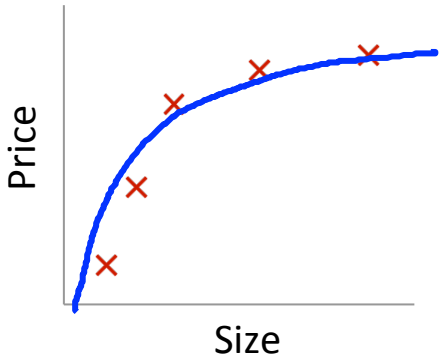
Bias/variance



$\theta_0 + \theta_1 x$

High bias
(underfit)

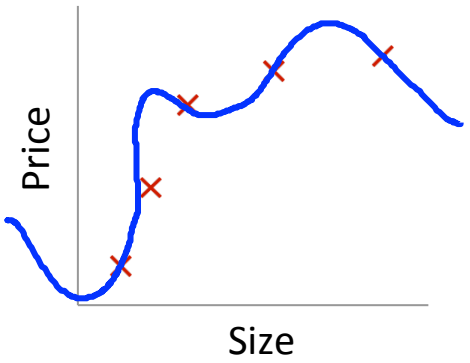
$d = 1$



$\theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2$

"Just right"

$d = 2$



$\theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2 + \theta_3 x^3 + \theta_4 x^4$

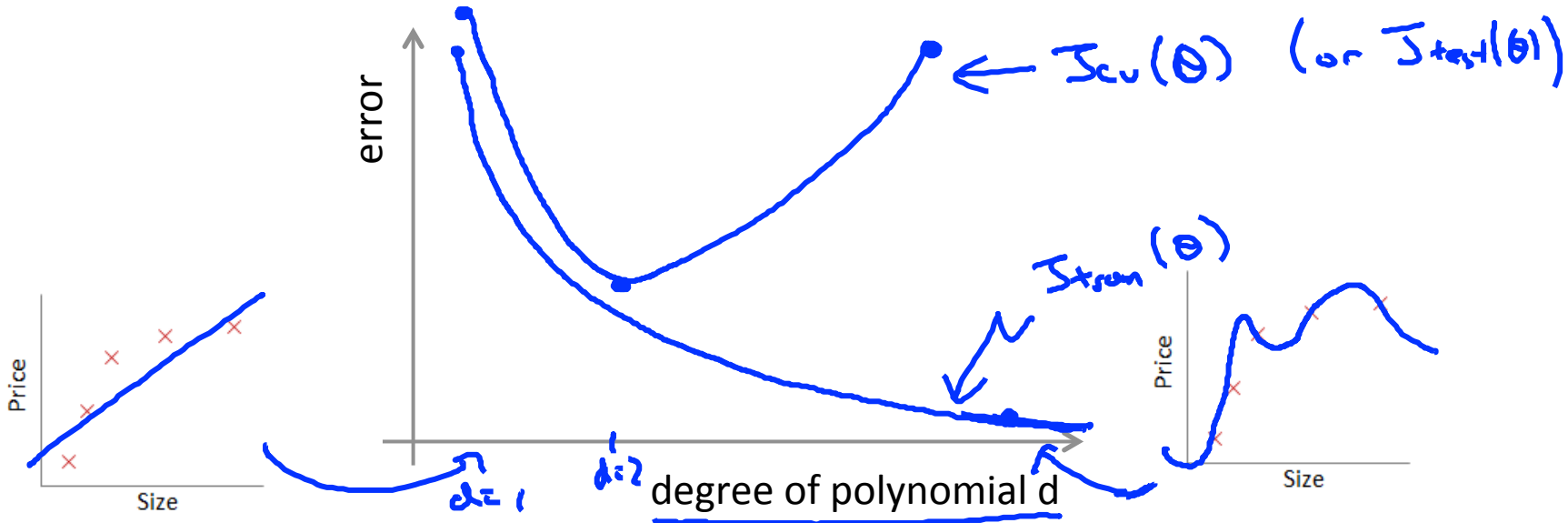
High variance
(overfit)

$d = 4$

Bias/variance

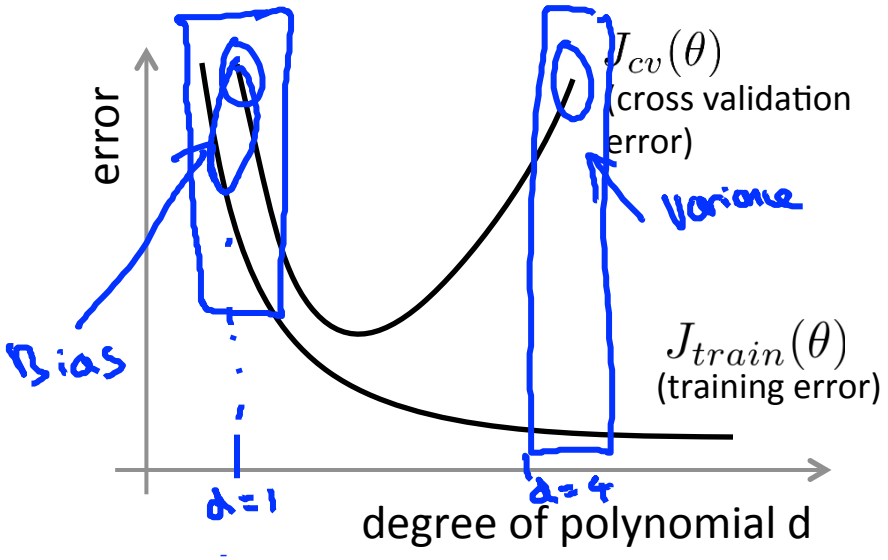
Training error: $J_{train}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$

Cross validation error: $J_{cv}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m_{cv}} \sum_{i=1}^{m_{cv}} (h_\theta(x_{cv}^{(i)}) - y_{cv}^{(i)})^2$ (or $J_{test}(\theta)$)



Diagnosing bias vs. variance

Suppose your learning algorithm is performing less well than you were hoping. ($J_{cv}(\theta)$ or $J_{test}(\theta)$ is high.) Is it a bias problem or a variance problem?



Bias (underfit):

→ $J_{train}(\theta)$ will be high

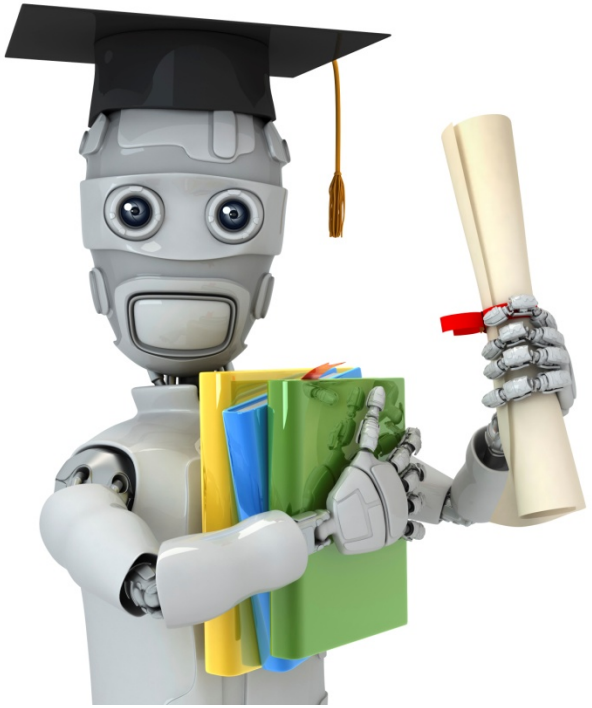
$J_{cv}(\theta) \approx J_{train}(\theta)$

Variance (overfit):

→ $J_{train}(\theta)$ will be low

$J_{cv}(\theta) \gg J_{train}(\theta)$

>>



Machine Learning

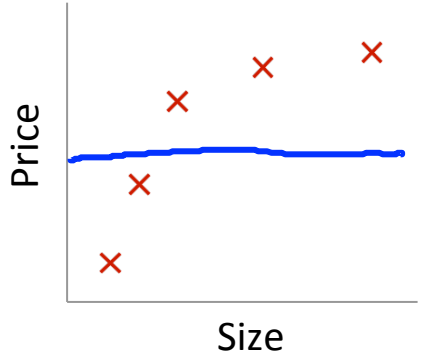
Advice for applying machine learning

Regularization and bias/variance

Linear regression with regularization

Model: $h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2 + \theta_3 x^3 + \theta_4 x^4$

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2m}\sum_{j=1}^{m}\theta_j^2$$

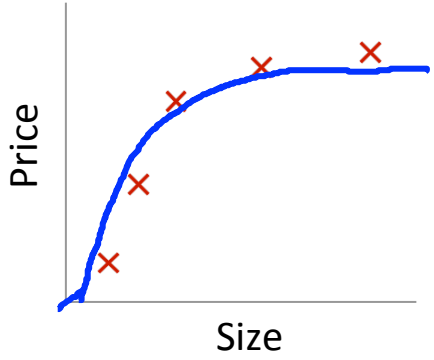


Large λ

→ High bias (underfit)

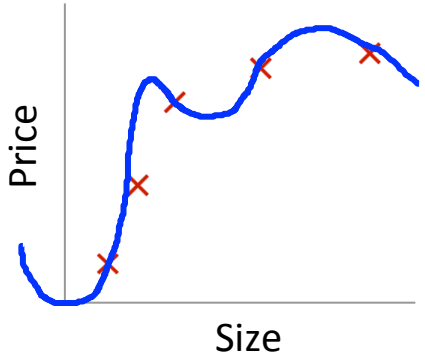
→ $\lambda = 10000.\ \theta_1 \approx 0, \theta_2 \approx 0, \ldots$

$h_\theta(x) \approx \theta_0$



Intermediate λ

"Just right"



→ Small λ

High variance (overfit)

→ $\lambda = 0$

Choosing the regularization parameter λ

$$h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2 + \theta_3 x^3 + \theta_4 x^4$$

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \theta_j^2$$

$$J_{train}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

$$J_{cv}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m_{cv}} \sum_{i=1}^{m_{cv}} (h_\theta(x_{cv}^{(i)}) - y_{cv}^{(i)})^2$$

$$J_{test}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m_{test}} \sum_{i=1}^{m_{test}} (h_\theta(x_{test}^{(i)}) - y_{test}^{(i)})^2$$

$J(\theta)$

J_{train}

J_{cv}

J_{test}

Choosing the regularization parameter λ

Model: $h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2 + \theta_3 x^3 + \theta_4 x^4$

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2m}\sum_{j=1}^{m}\theta_j^2$$

1. Try $\lambda = 0$ → $\min_\theta J(\theta)$ → $\theta^{(1)}$ → $J_{cv}(\theta^{(1)})$
2. Try $\lambda = 0.01$ → $\min_\theta J(\theta)$ → $\theta^{(2)}$ → $J_{cv}(\theta^{(2)})$
3. Try $\lambda = 0.02$ → $\theta^{(3)}$ → $J_{cv}(\theta^{(3)})$
4. Try $\lambda = 0.04$
5. Try $\lambda = 0.08$ → $\theta^{(5)}$ $J_{cv}(\theta^{(5)})$

⋮

12. Try $\lambda = 10$ → $\theta^{(12)}$ → $J_{cv}(\theta^{(12)})$

0.24

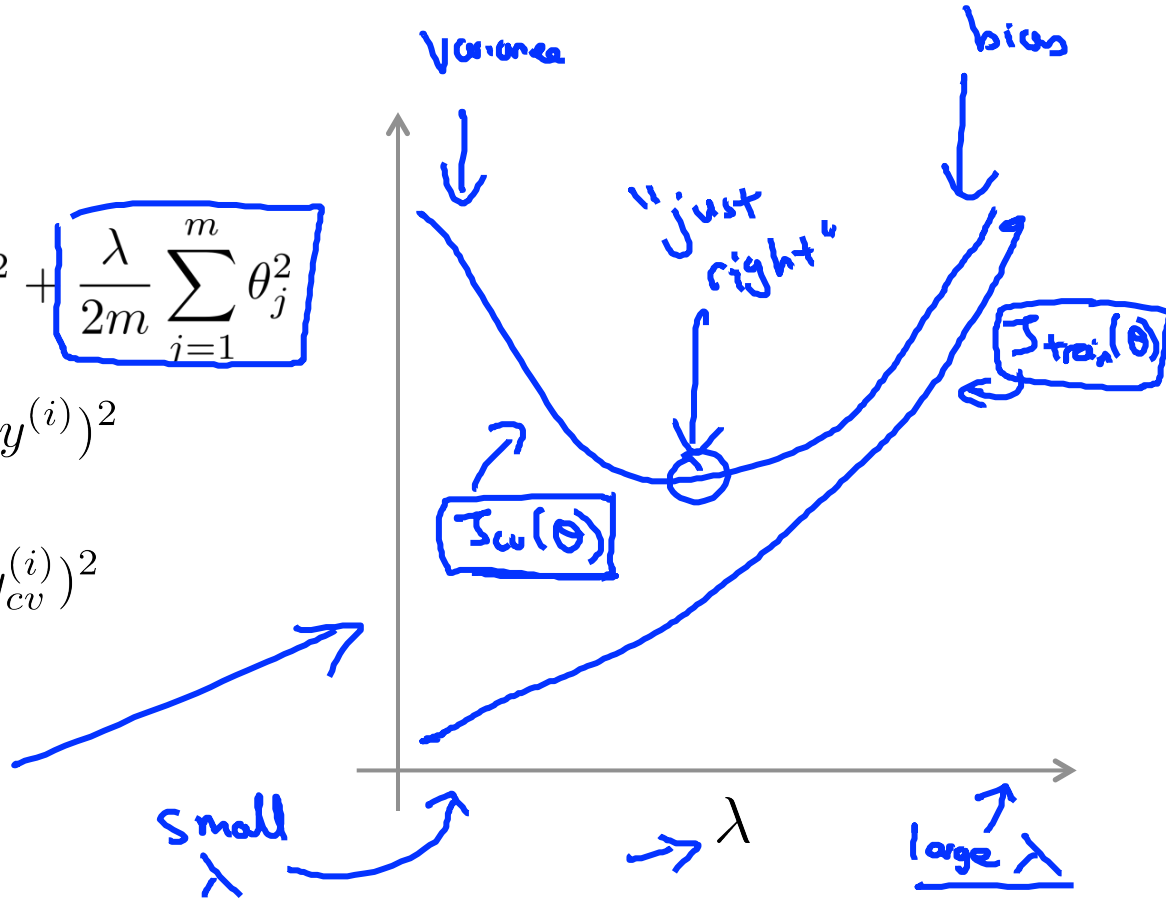
Pick (say) $\theta^{(5)}$. Test error: $J_{test}(\theta^{(5)})$

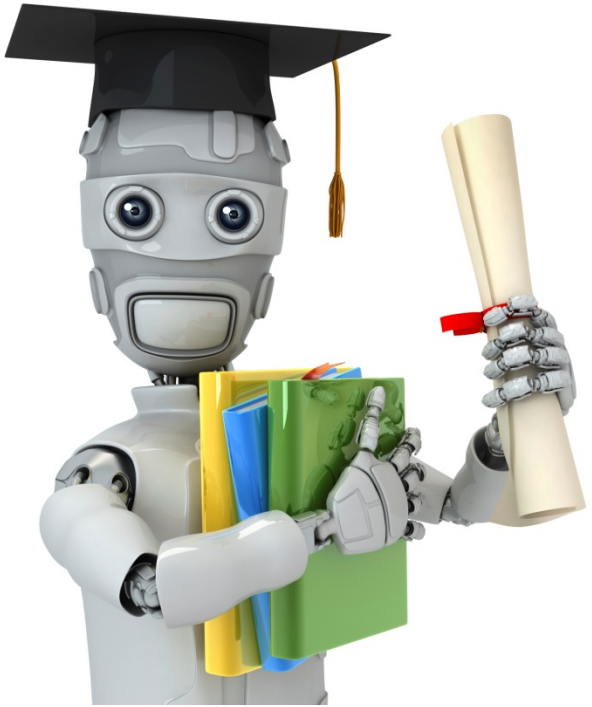
Bias/variance as a function of the regularization parameter λ

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2m}\sum_{j=1}^{m}\theta_j^2$$

$$J_{train}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

$$J_{cv}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m_{cv}}\sum_{i=1}^{m_{cv}}(h_\theta(x_{cv}^{(i)}) - y_{cv}^{(i)})^2$$





Machine Learning

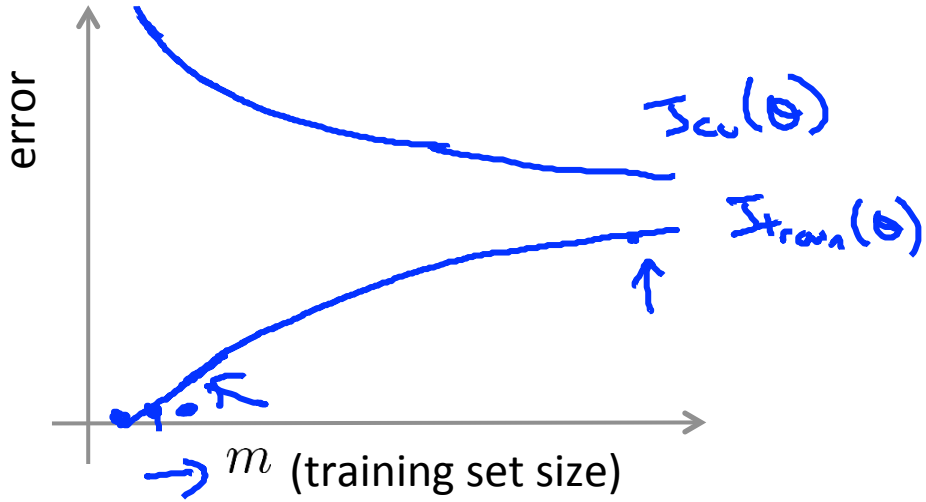
Advice for applying machine learning

Learning curves

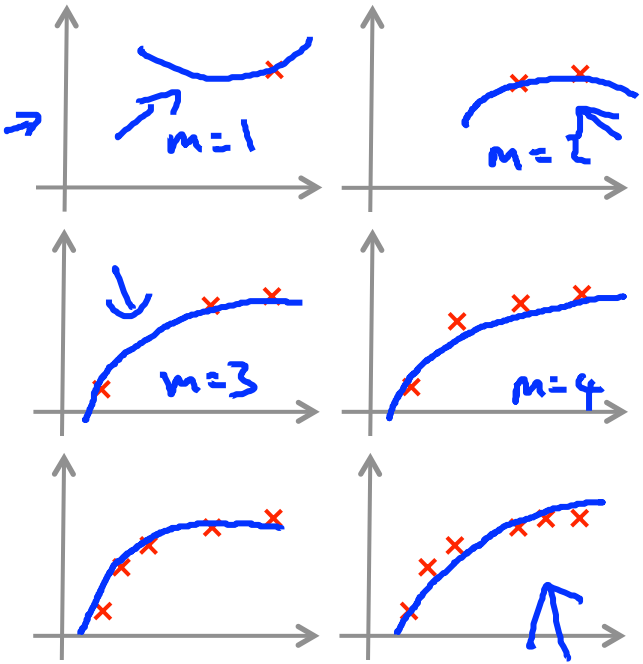
Learning curves

$$J_{train}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

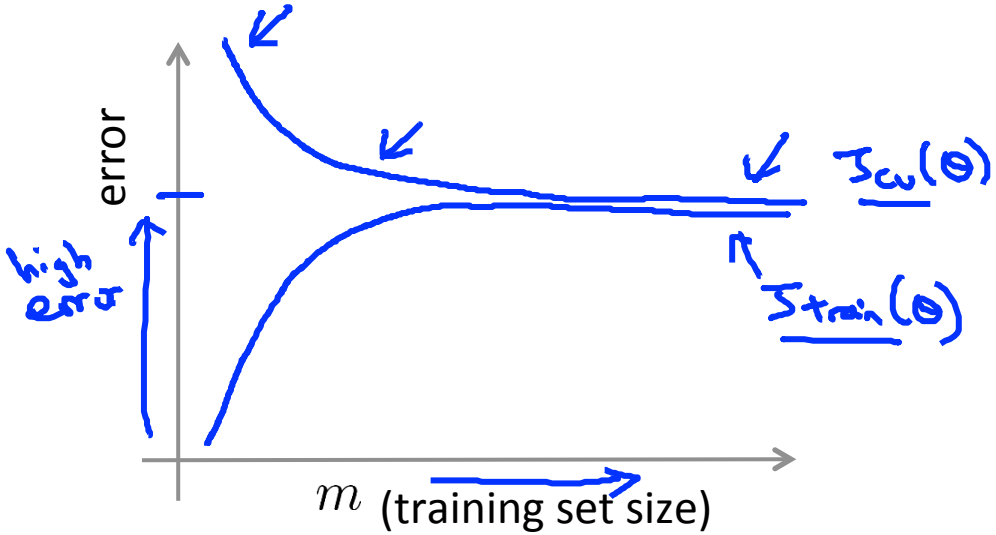
$$J_{cv}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m_{cv}}\sum_{i=1}^{m_{cv}}(h_\theta(x_{cv}^{(i)}) - y_{cv}^{(i)})^2$$

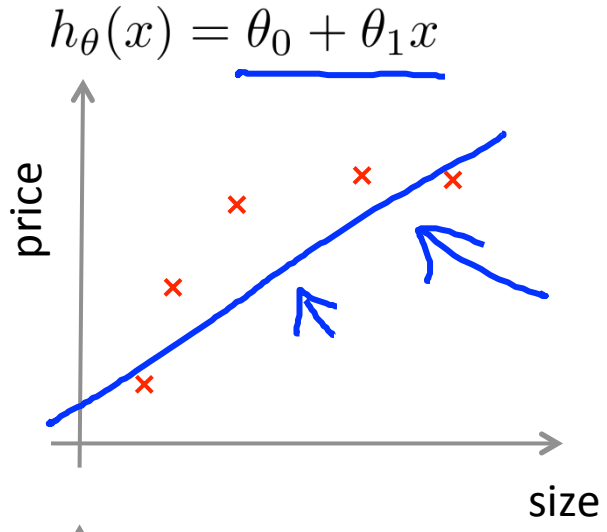


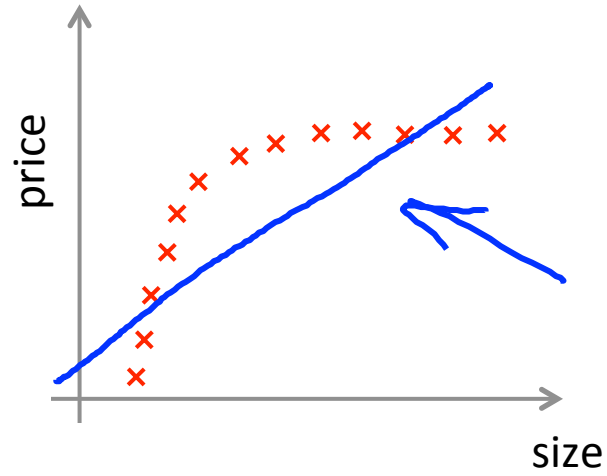
$$h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2$$



High bias

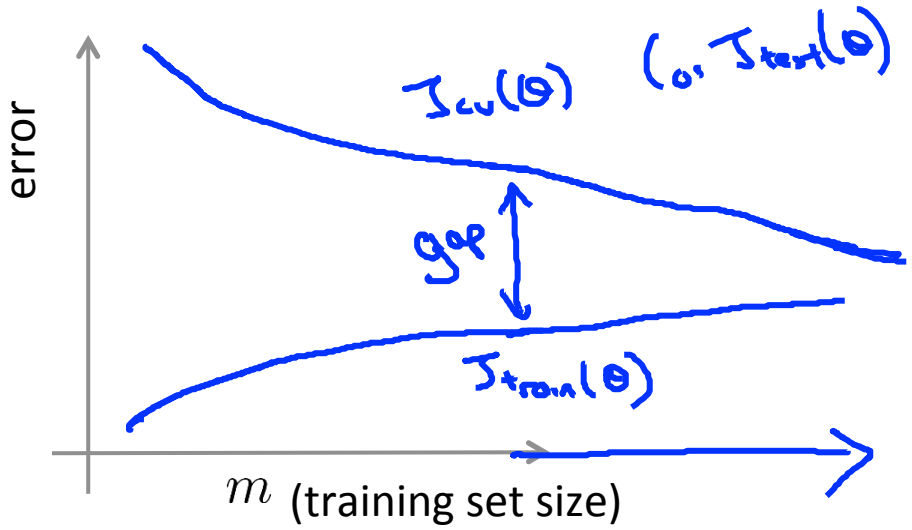






If a learning algorithm is suffering from high bias, getting more training data will not (by itself) help much.

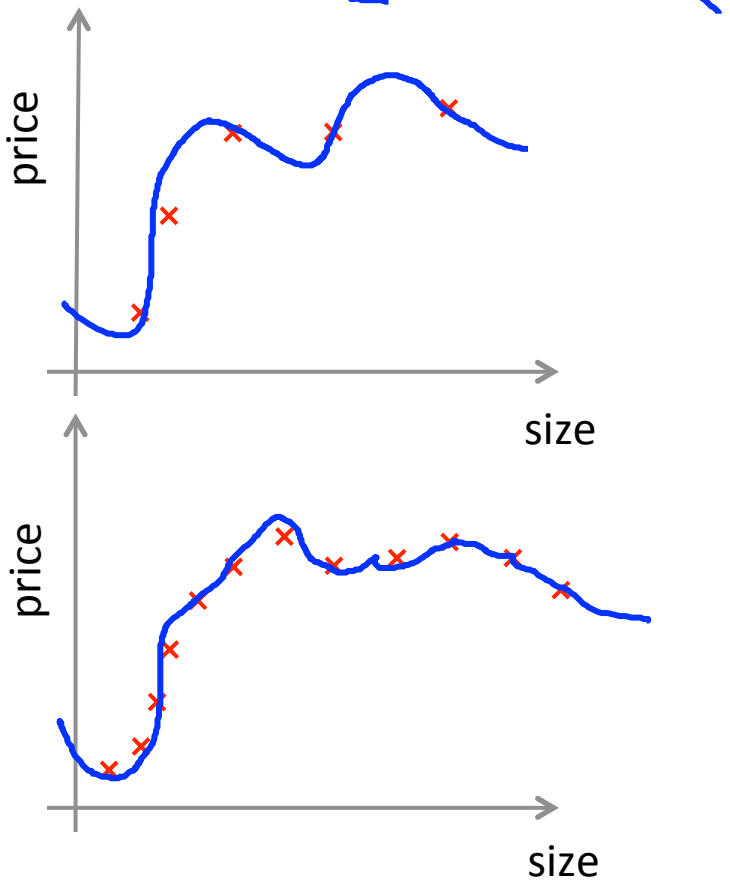
High variance

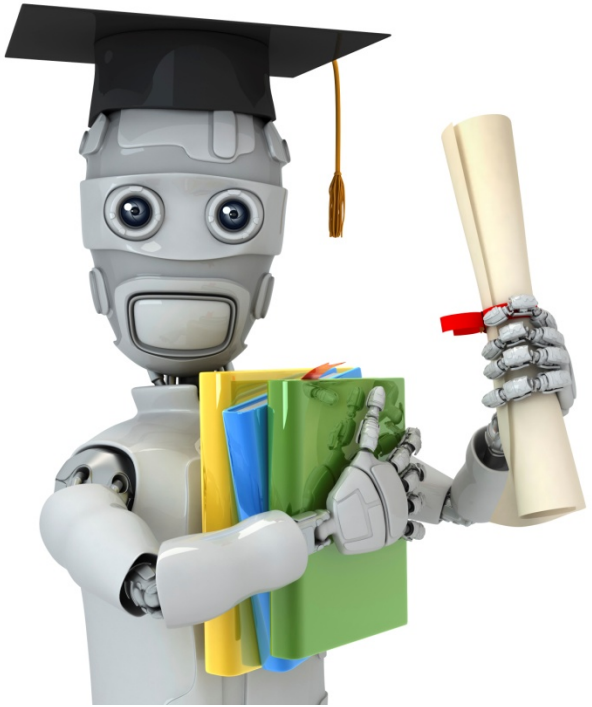


If a learning algorithm is suffering from high variance, getting more training data is likely to help.

$h_\theta(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \cdots + \theta_{100} x^{100}$

(and small λ)





Machine Learning

Advice for applying machine learning

Deciding what to try next (revisited)

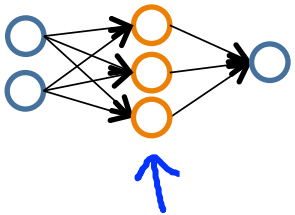
Debugging a learning algorithm:

Suppose you have implemented regularized linear regression to predict housing prices. However, when you test your hypothesis in a new set of houses, you find that it makes unacceptably large errors in its prediction. What should you try next?

- Get more training examples → fixes high variance
- Try smaller sets of features → fixes high variance
- Try getting additional features → fixes high bias
- Try adding polynomial features $(x_1^2, x_2^2, x_1x_2, \text{etc})$ → fixes high bias.
- Try decreasing λ → fixes high bias
- Try increasing λ → fixes high variance

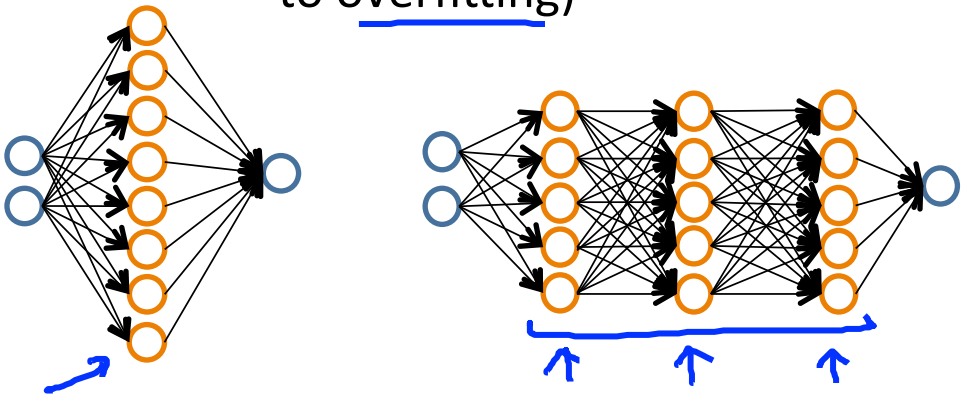
Neural networks and overfitting

"Small" neural network
(fewer parameters; more prone to underfitting)



Computationally cheaper

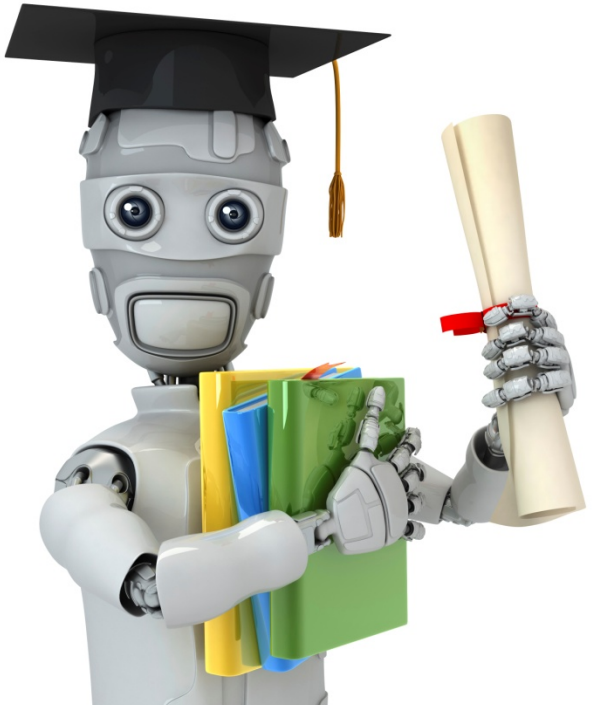
"Large" neural network
(more parameters; more prone to overfitting)



Computationally more expensive.

Use regularization (λ) to address overfitting.

$J_{cv}(\theta)$



Machine Learning

Machine learning system design

Prioritizing what to work on: Spam classification example

Building a spam classifier

From: cheapsales@buystufffromme.com
To: ang@cs.stanford.edu
Subject: Buy now!

Deal of the week! Buy now!
Rolex w4tchs - $100
Med1cine (any kind) - $50
Also low cost M0rgages
available.

Spam (1)

From: Alfred Ng
To: ang@cs.stanford.edu
Subject: Christmas dates?

Hey Andrew,
Was talking to Mom about plans
for Xmas. When do you get off
work. Meet Dec 22?
Alf

Non-spam (0)

Building a spam classifier

Supervised learning. $x =$ features of email. $y =$ spam (1) or not spam (0).

Features x: Choose 100 words indicative of spam/not spam.

E.g. deal, buy, discount, andrew, now, ...

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \text{andrew} \\ \text{buy} \\ \text{deal} \\ \text{discount} \\ \vdots \\ \text{now} \\ \vdots \end{matrix} \qquad x \in \mathbb{R}^{100}$$

$$x_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if word } j \text{ appears in email} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

From: cheapsales@buystufffromme.com
To: ang@cs.stanford.edu
Subject: Buy now!

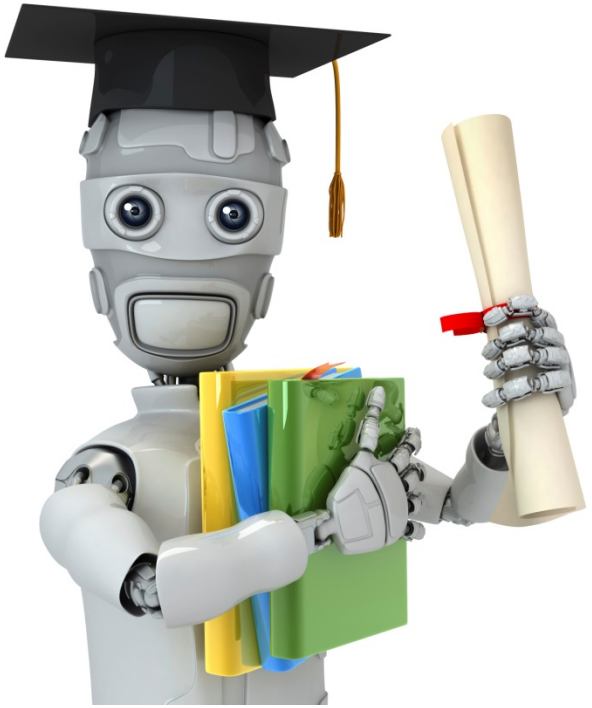
Deal of the week! Buy now!

Note: In practice, take most frequently occurring n words (10,000 to 50,000) in training set, rather than manually pick 100 words.

Building a spam classifier

How to spend your time to make it have low error?

- Collect lots of data
  - E.g. “honeypot” project.
- Develop sophisticated features based on email routing information (from email header).
- Develop sophisticated features for message body, e.g. should “discount” and “discounts” be treated as the same word? How about “deal” and “Dealer”? Features about punctuation?
- Develop sophisticated algorithm to detect misspellings (e.g. m0rtgage, med1cine, w4tches.)



Machine Learning

Machine learning system design

Error analysis

Recommended approach

- Start with a simple algorithm that you can implement quickly. Implement it and test it on your cross-validation data.
- Plot learning curves to decide if more data, more features, etc. are likely to help.
- Error analysis: Manually examine the examples (in cross validation set) that your algorithm made errors on. See if you spot any systematic trend in what type of examples it is making errors on.

Error Analysis

$m_{CV} =$ 500 examples in cross validation set

Algorithm misclassifies 100 emails.

Manually examine the 100 errors, and categorize them based on:

(i) What type of email it is — pharma, replica, steal passwords, ...

(ii) What cues (features) you think would have helped the algorithm classify them correctly.

Pharma: 12

Replica/fake: 4

Steal passwords: 53

Other: 31

Deliberate misspellings: 5
(m0rgage, med1cine, etc.)

Unusual email routing: 16

Unusual (spamming) punctuation: 32

The importance of numerical evaluation

Should discount/discounts/discounted/discounting be treated as the same word?

Can use "stemming" software (E.g. "Porter stemmer")

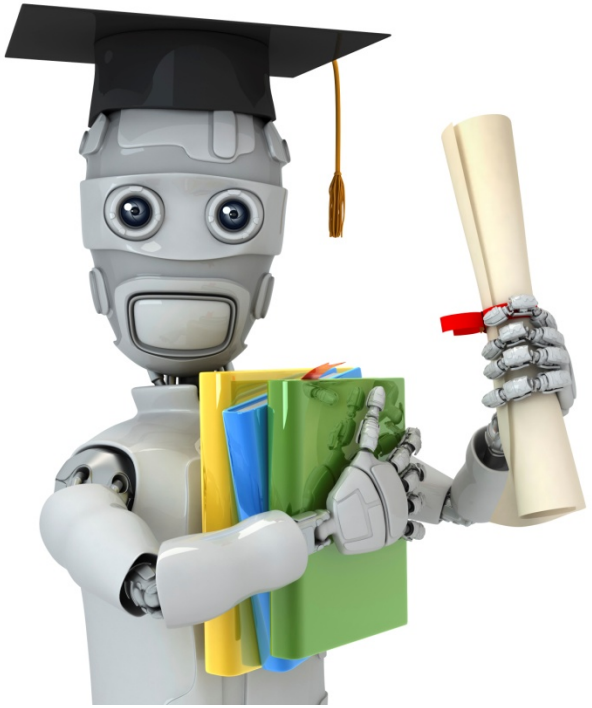
universe/university.

Error analysis may not be helpful for deciding if this is likely to improve performance. Only solution is to try it and see if it works.

Need numerical evaluation (e.g., cross validation error) of algorithm's performance with and without stemming.

Without stemming: 5% error With stemming: 3% error

Distinguish upper vs. lower case (Mom/mom): 3.2%



Machine Learning

Machine learning system design

Error metrics for skewed classes

Cancer classification example

Train logistic regression model $h_\theta(x)$. ($y = 1$ if cancer, $y = 0$ otherwise)

Find that you got 1% error on test set.

(99% correct diagnoses)

Only 0.50% of patients have cancer.

→ skewed classes.

```
function y = predictCancer(x)
  → y = 0; %ignore x!
return
```

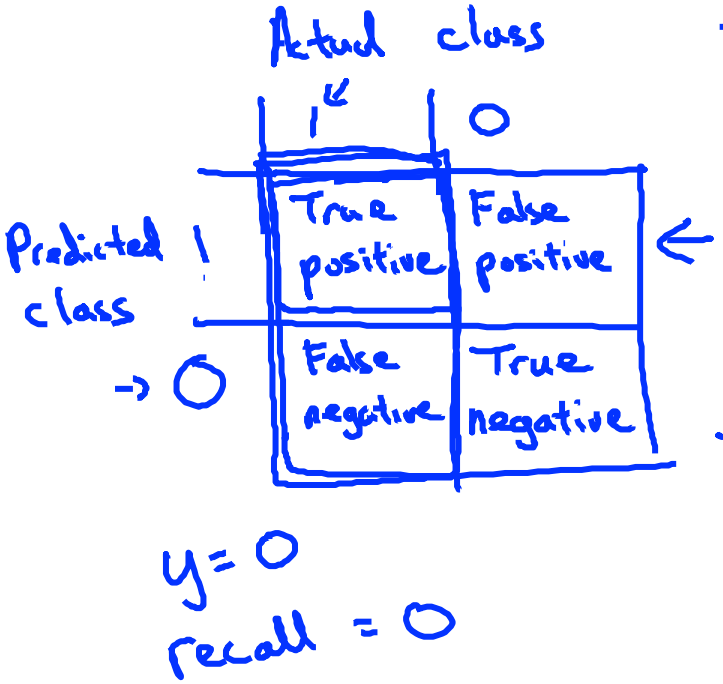
→ 0.5% error

→ 99.2% accuracy (0.8% error)

→ 99.5% accuracy (0.5% error)

Precision/Recall

$y = 1$ in presence of rare class that we want to detect



→ **Precision**

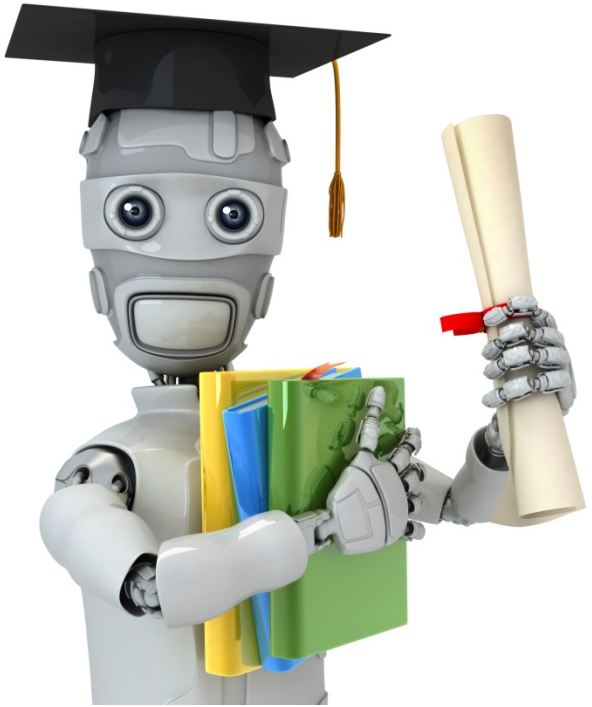
(Of all patients where we predicted $y = 1$, what fraction actually has cancer?)

$$\frac{\text{True positives}}{\#\text{predicted positive}} = \frac{\text{True positive}}{\text{True pos + False pos}}$$

→ **Recall**

(Of all patients that actually have cancer, what fraction did we correctly detect as having cancer?)

$$\frac{\text{True positives}}{\#\text{actual positives}} = \frac{\text{True positives}}{\text{True pos + False neg}}$$



Machine Learning

Machine learning system design

Trading off precision and recall

Trading off precision and recall

- Logistic regression: $0 \leq h_\theta(x) \leq 1$

  Predict 1 if $h_\theta(x) \geq 0.5$ 0.7 0.9 0.3

  Predict 0 if $h_\theta(x) < 0.5$ 0.7 0.9 0.3

- Suppose we want to predict $y = 1$ (cancer) only if very confident.

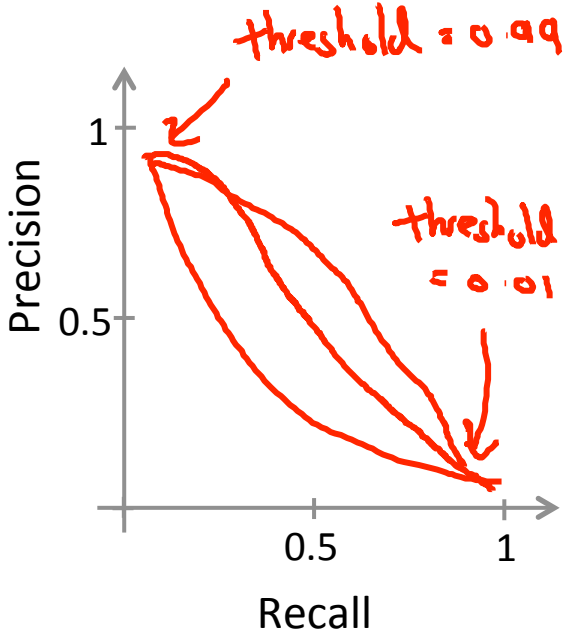
  → Higher precision, lower recall

- Suppose we want to avoid missing too many cases of cancer (avoid false negatives).

  → Higher recall, lower precision.

More generally: Predict 1 if $h_\theta(x) \geq$ threshold

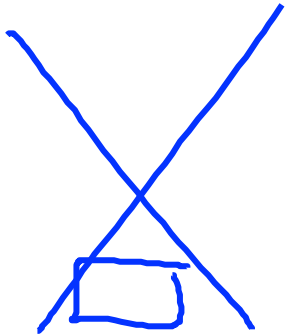
- precision = $\frac{\text{true positives}}{\text{no. of predicted positive}}$
- recall = $\frac{\text{true positives}}{\text{no. of actual positive}}$



F_1 Score (F score)

How to compare precision/recall numbers?

	Precision(P)	Recall (R)
Algorithm 1	0.5	0.4
Algorithm 2	0.7	0.1
Algorithm 3	0.02	1.0



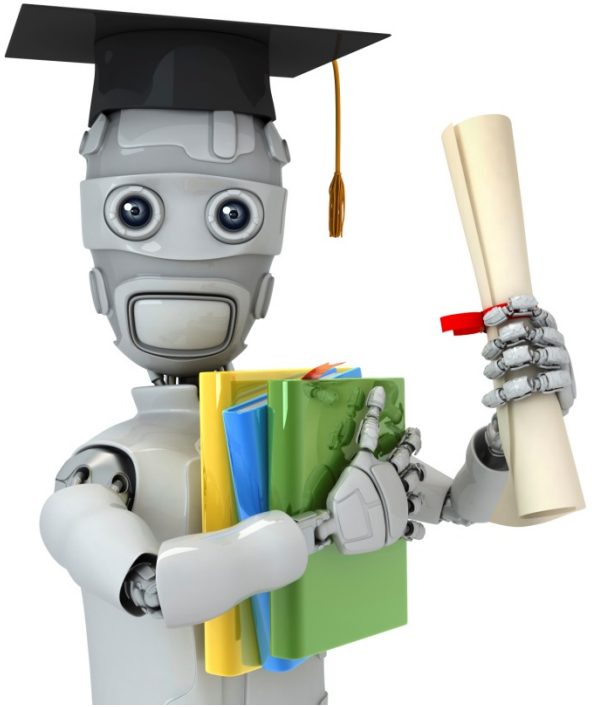
Predict y=1 all the time

Average: $\frac{P+R}{2}$

F_1 Score: $2\frac{PR}{P+R}$

P=0 or R=0 $\Rightarrow$ F-score = 0

P=1 and R=1 $\Rightarrow$ F-score = 1



Machine Learning

Machine learning system design

Data for machine learning

Designing a high accuracy learning system

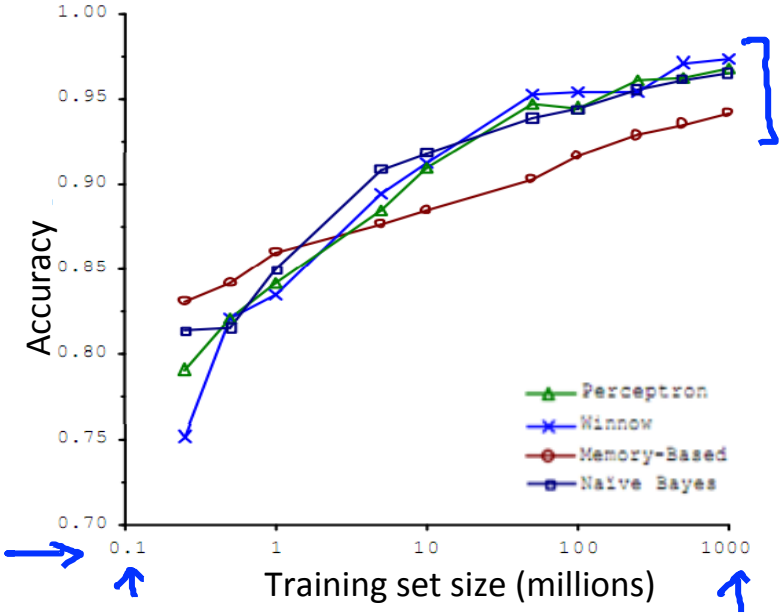
E.g. Classify between confusable words.

{to, two, too}, {then, than}

For breakfast I ate _____ eggs.

Algorithms

- Perceptron (Logistic regression)
- Winnow
- Memory-based
- Naïve Bayes



"It's not who has the best algorithm that wins.
It's who has the most data."

[Banko and Brill, 2001]

Large data rationale

Assume feature $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ has sufficient information to predict y accurately.

Example: For breakfast I ate _____ eggs.

Counterexample: Predict housing price from only size (feet^2) and no other features.

Useful test: Given the input x, can a human expert confidently predict y?

Large data rationale

Use a learning algorithm with many parameters (e.g. logistic regression/linear regression with many features; neural network with many hidden units).

low bias algorithms.

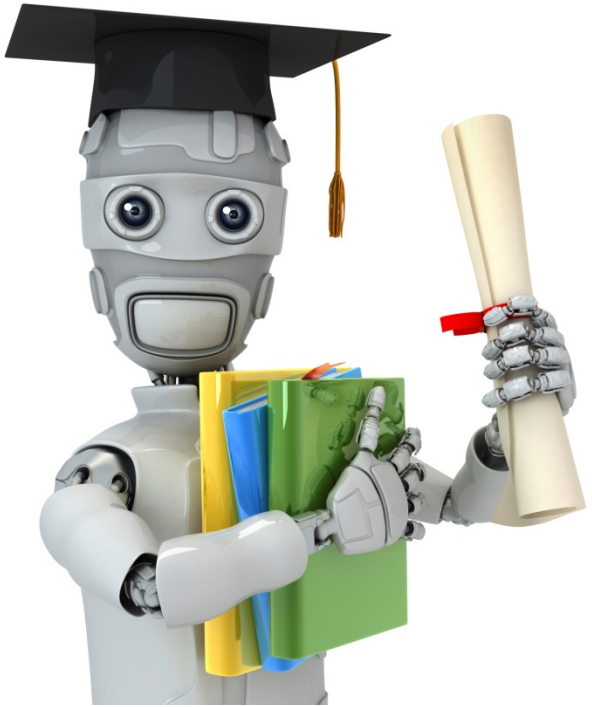
$J_{train}(\theta)$ will be small.

Use a very large training set (unlikely to overfit)

low variance

$J_{train}(\theta) \approx J_{test}(\theta)$

$J_{test}(\theta)$ will be small



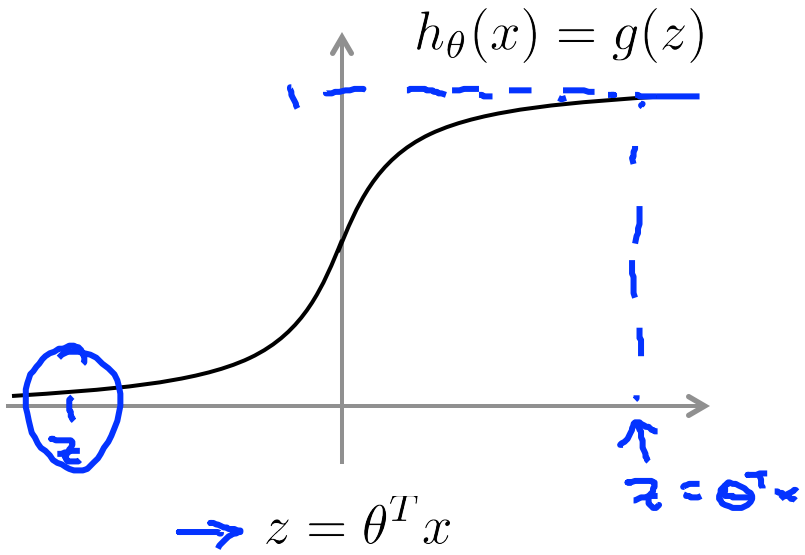
Machine Learning

Support Vector Machines

Optimization objective

Alternative view of logistic regression

$$h_\theta(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x}}$$



If $y = 1$, we want $h_\theta(x) \approx 1$, $\theta^T x \gg 0$

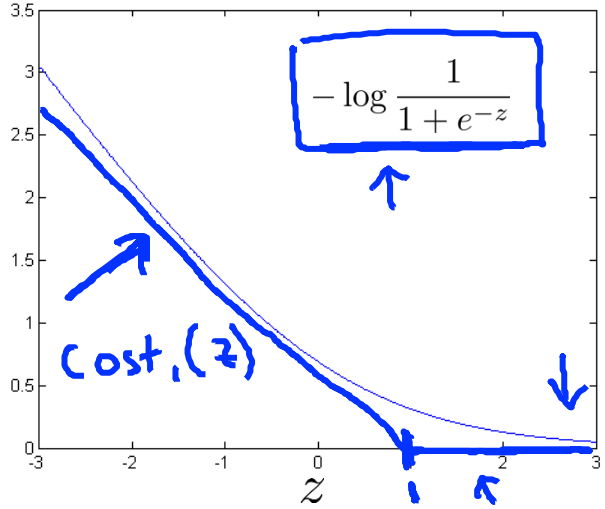
If $y = 0$, we want $h_\theta(x) \approx 0$, $\theta^T x \ll 0$

Alternative view of logistic regression

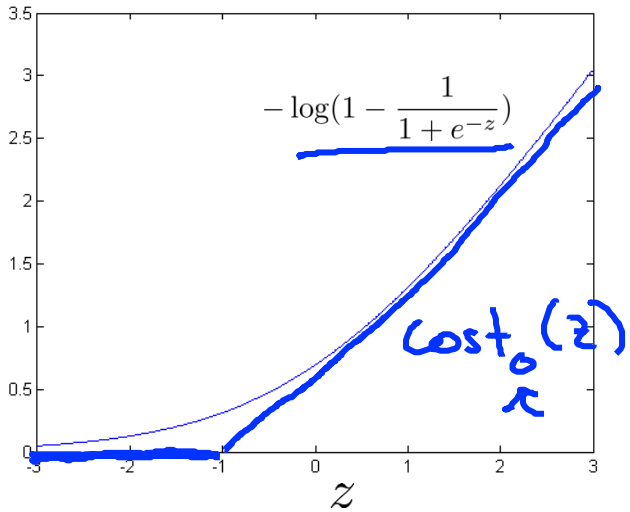
Cost of example: $-(y \log h_\theta(x) + (1-y)\log(1-h_\theta(x)))$

$$= -y \log \frac{1}{1+e^{-\theta^T x}} - (1-y)\log\left(1 - \frac{1}{1+e^{-\theta^T x}}\right)$$

If $y = 1$ (want $\theta^T x \gg 0$):



If $y = 0$ (want $\theta^T x \ll 0$):



Support vector machine

Logistic regression:

$$\min_\theta \frac{1}{m}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)}\left(-\log h_\theta(x^{(i)})\right) + (1-y^{(i)})\left((-\log(1-h_\theta(x^{(i)}))\right)\right] + \frac{\lambda}{2m}\sum_{j=1}^{n}\theta_j^2$$

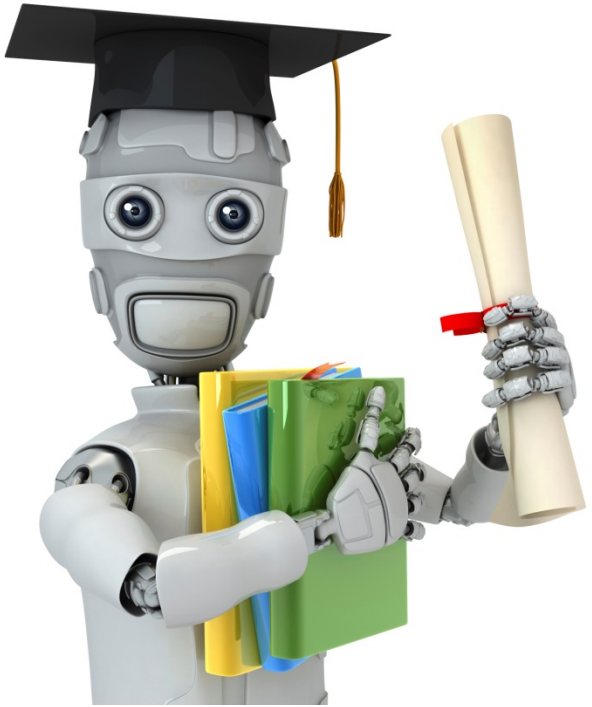
Support vector machine:

$$\min_\theta C\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left[y^{(i)} cost_1(\theta^T x^{(i)}) + (1-y^{(i)}) cost_0(\theta^T x^{(i)})\right] + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\theta_j^2$$

SVM hypothesis

$$\min_{\theta} C \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left[y^{(i)} cost_1(\theta^T x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) cost_0(\theta^T x^{(i)}) \right] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \theta_j^2$$

Hypothesis:



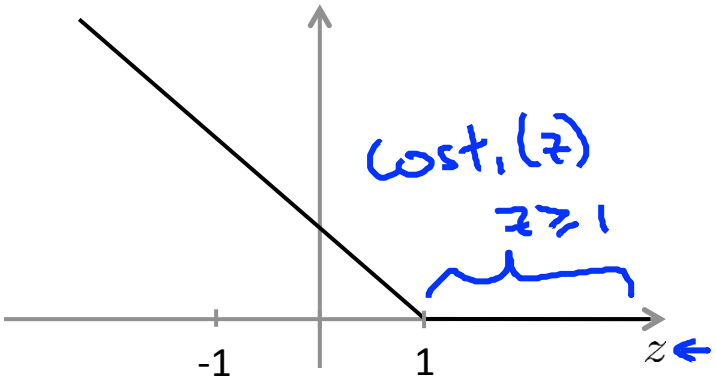
Machine Learning

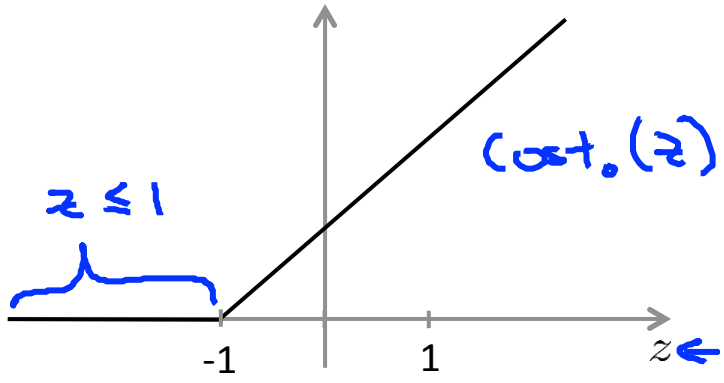
Support Vector Machines

Large Margin Intuition

Support Vector Machine

$$\min_\theta C \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left[y^{(i)} cost_1(\theta^T x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) cost_0(\theta^T x^{(i)}) \right] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \theta_j^2$$





- If $y = 1$, we want $\theta^T x \geq 1$ (not just ≥ 0)
- If $y = 0$, we want $\theta^T x \leq -1$ (not just < 0)

$\theta^T x \geqslant 1$

$\theta^T x \leqslant -1$

$C = 100{,}000$

SVM Decision Boundary

$$\min_{\theta} C \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left[y^{(i)} cost_1(\theta^T x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) cost_0(\theta^T x^{(i)}) \right] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \theta_j^2$$

$= 0$

Whenever $y^{(i)} = 1$:

$\theta^T x^{(i)} \geq 1$

Whenever $y^{(i)} = 0$:

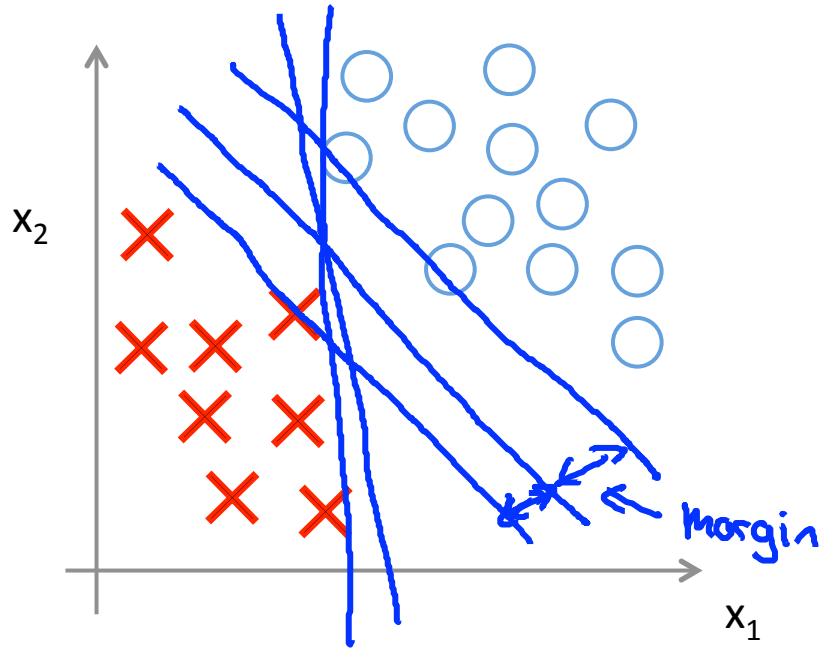
$\theta^T x^{(i)} \leq -1$

$\min_{\theta} \; 0 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \theta_j^2$

s.t. $\theta^T x^{(i)} \geq 1$ if $y^{(i)} = 1$

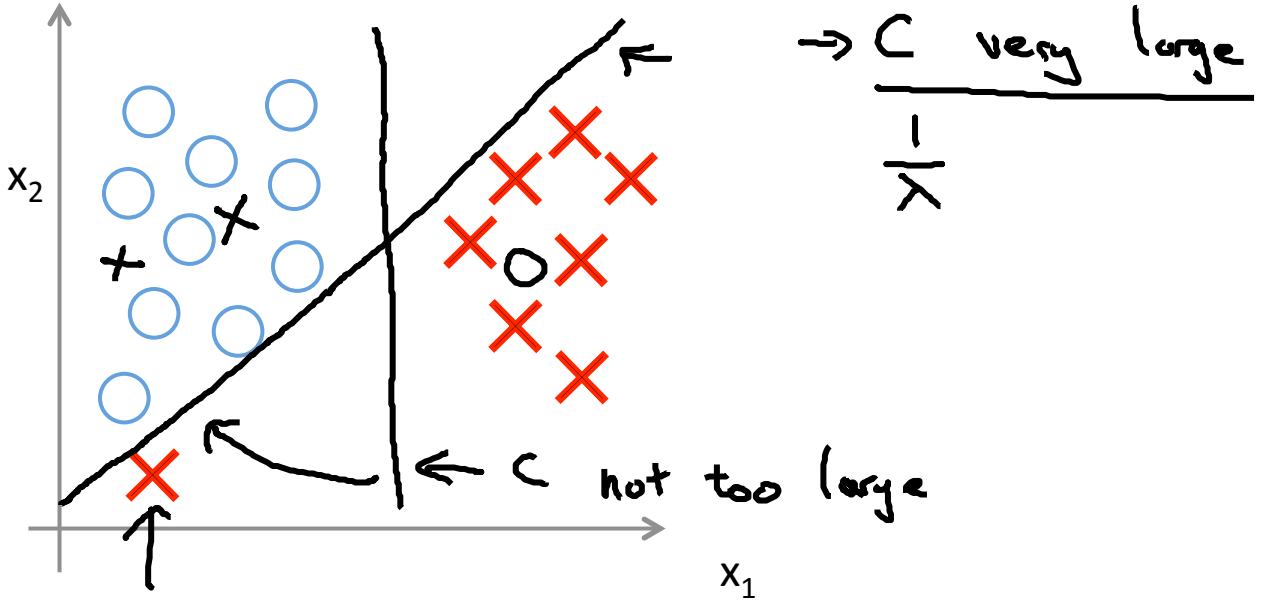
$\theta^T x^{(i)} \leq -1$ if $y^{(i)} = 0$

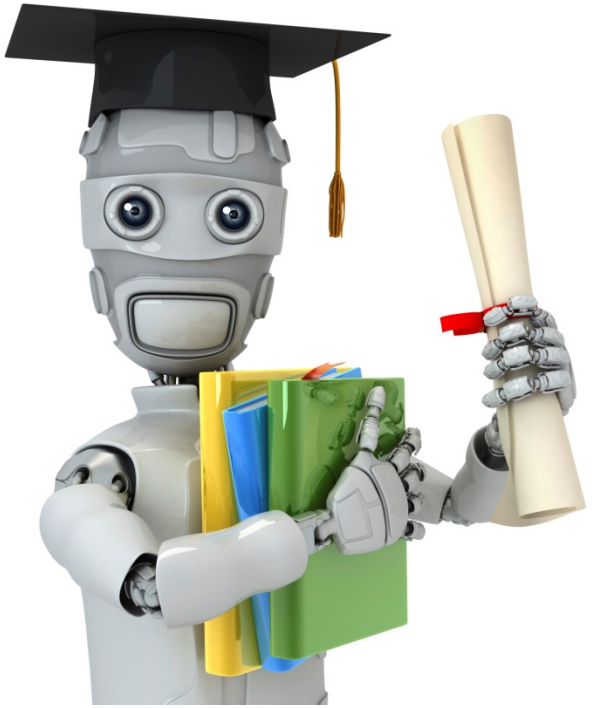
SVM Decision Boundary: Linearly separable case



Large margin classifier

Large margin classifier in presence of outliers



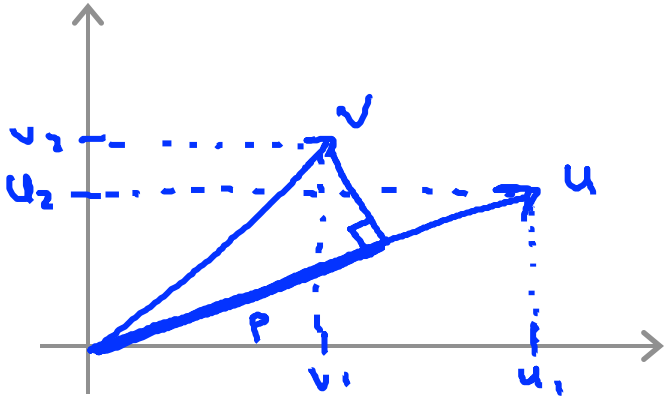


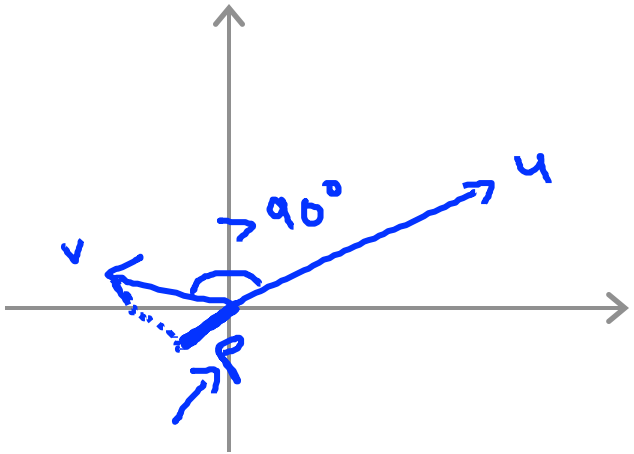
Machine Learning

Support Vector Machines

The mathematics behind large margin classification (optional)

Vector Inner Product





$$u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad v = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$u^T v = ?$ $\quad \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$

$\|u\|$ = length of vector u

$= \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2} \in \mathbb{R}$

p = length of projection of v onto u.

Signed

$u^T v = p \cdot \|u\| \leftarrow = v^T u$

$= u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 \leftarrow \quad p \in \mathbb{R}$

$u^T v = p \cdot \|u\|$

$p < 0$

SVM Decision Boundary

$$\min_\theta \frac{1}{2}\sum_{j=1}^{n}\theta_j^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\theta_1^2+\theta_2^2) = \frac{1}{2}\left(\sqrt{\theta_1^2+\theta_2^2}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{2}\|\theta\|^2$$

$$\omega = (\sqrt{\omega})^2$$

$$= \|\theta\|$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad \theta^T x^{(i)} \geq 1 \quad \text{if } y^{(i)} = 1$$

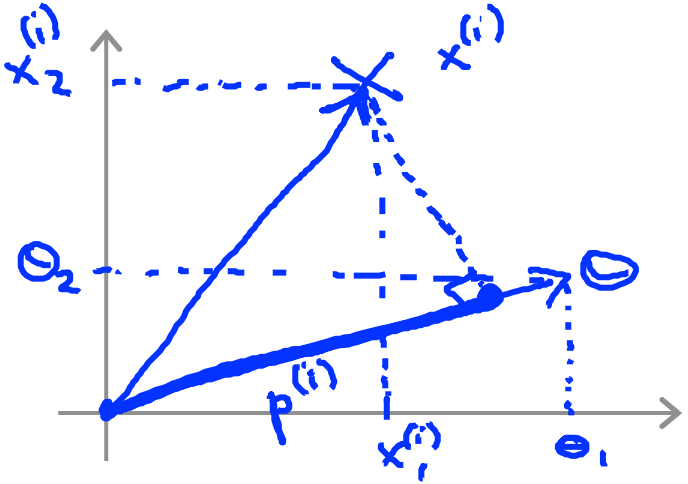
$$\theta^T x^{(i)} \leq -1 \quad \text{if } y^{(i)} = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \theta_0 \\ \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \theta_0 = 0$$

Simplification: $\theta_0 = 0$. $n = 2$

$\theta^T x^{(i)} = ?$

$u^T v$



$$\theta^T x^{(i)} = p^{(i)} \cdot \|\theta\|$$

$$= \theta_1 x_1^{(i)} + \theta_2 x_2^{(i)}$$

SVM Decision Boundary

$$\min_\theta \frac{1}{2}\sum_{j=1}^{n}\theta_j^2 = \frac{1}{2}\|\theta\|^2$$

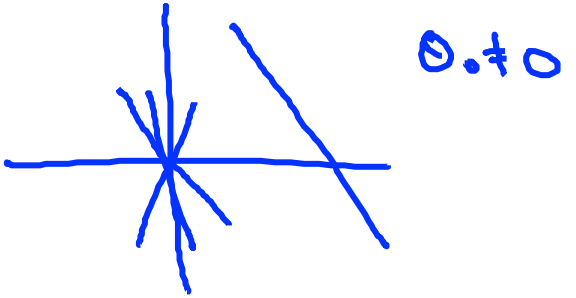
s.t. $p^{(i)} \cdot \|\theta\| \geq 1$ if $y^{(i)} = 1$

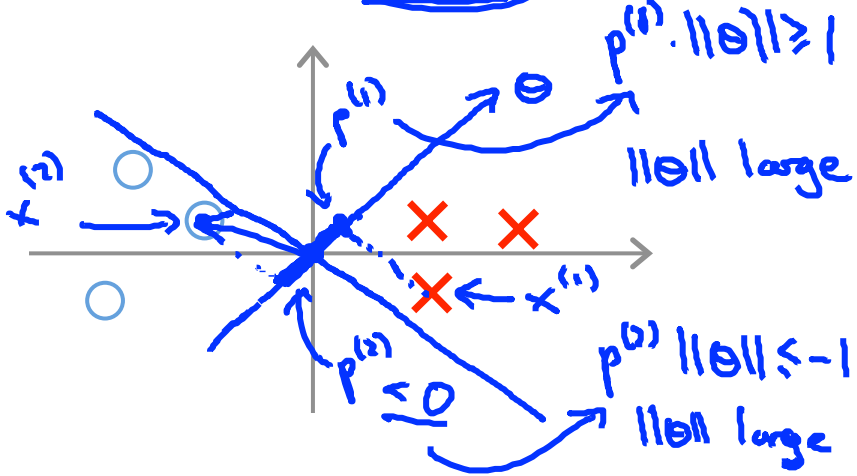
$p^{(i)} \cdot \|\theta\| \leq -1$ if $y^{(i)} = 1$

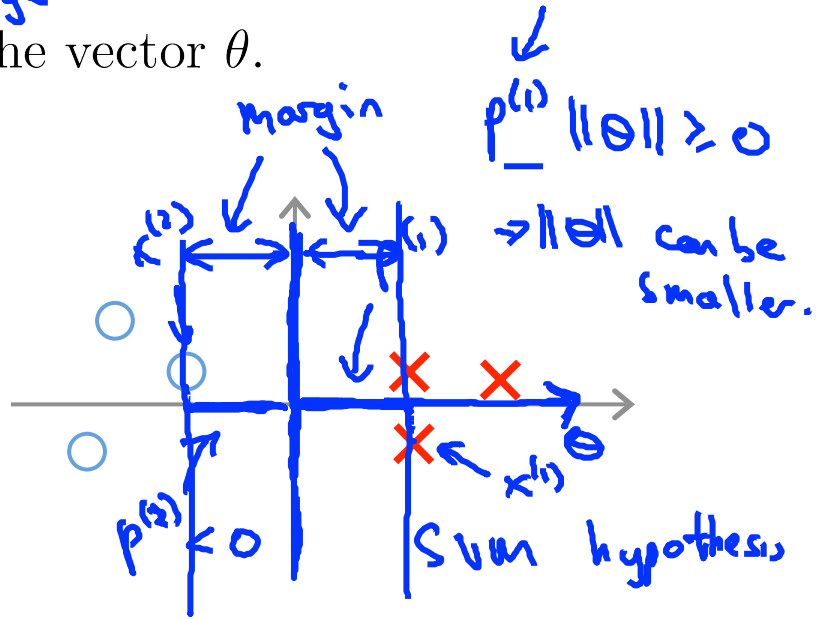
C very large

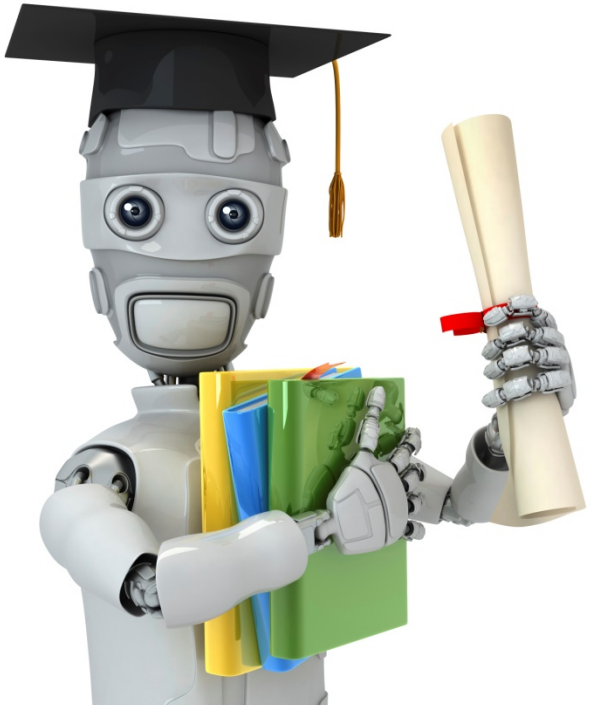
where $p^{(i)}$ is the projection of $x^{(i)}$ onto the vector θ.

Simplification: $\theta_0 = 0$







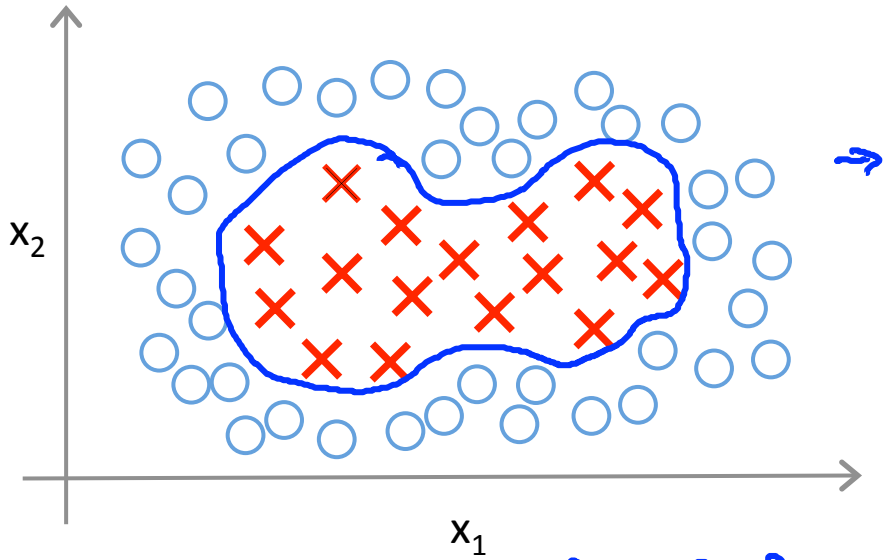


Machine Learning

Support Vector Machines

Kernels I

Non-linear Decision Boundary



Predict $y = 1$ if

$$\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \theta_3 x_1 x_2 + \theta_4 x_1^2 + \theta_5 x_2^2 + \cdots \geq 0$$

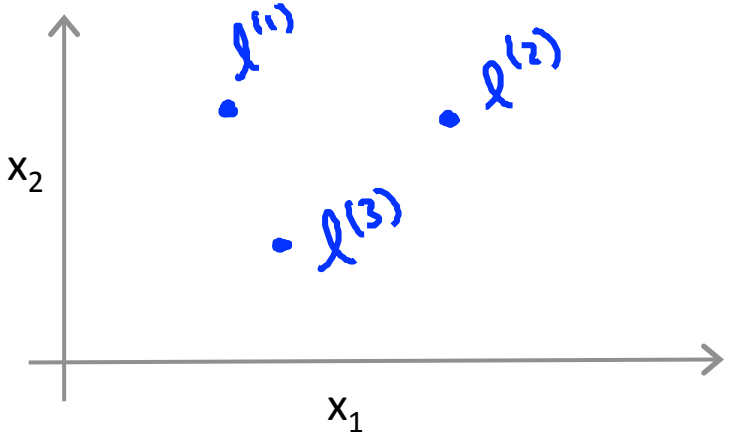
$h_\theta(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \cdots \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

$\theta_0 + \theta_1 f_1 + \theta_2 f_2 + \theta_3 f_3 + \cdots$

$f_1 = x_1, \quad f_2 = x_2, \quad f_3 = x_1 x_2, \quad f_4 = x_1^2, \quad f_5 = x_2^2, \ldots$

Is there a different / better choice of the features $f_1, f_2, f_3, \ldots$?

Kernel



Given x, compute new feature depending on proximity to landmarks $l^{(1)}, l^{(2)}, l^{(3)}$

Given x:

$f_1 = \text{similarity}(x, l^{(1)}) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x - l^{(1)}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$

$f_2 = \text{similarity}(x, l^{(1)}) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x - l^{(2)}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$

$f_3 = \text{similarity}(x, l^{(3)}) = \exp(\dots)$

$\|w\|$

$\|x - l^{(1)}\|^2$

$k(x, l^{(i)})$

Kernel (Gaussian kernels)

Kernels and Similarity

$$f_1 = \text{similarity}(x, l^{(1)}) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x - l^{(1)}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

If $x \approx l^{(1)}$:

$$f_1 \approx \exp\left(-\frac{0^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \approx 1$$

If x if far from $l^{(1)}$:

$$f_1 = \exp\left(-\frac{(\text{large number})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \approx 0.$$

$l^{(1)} \rightarrow f_1$

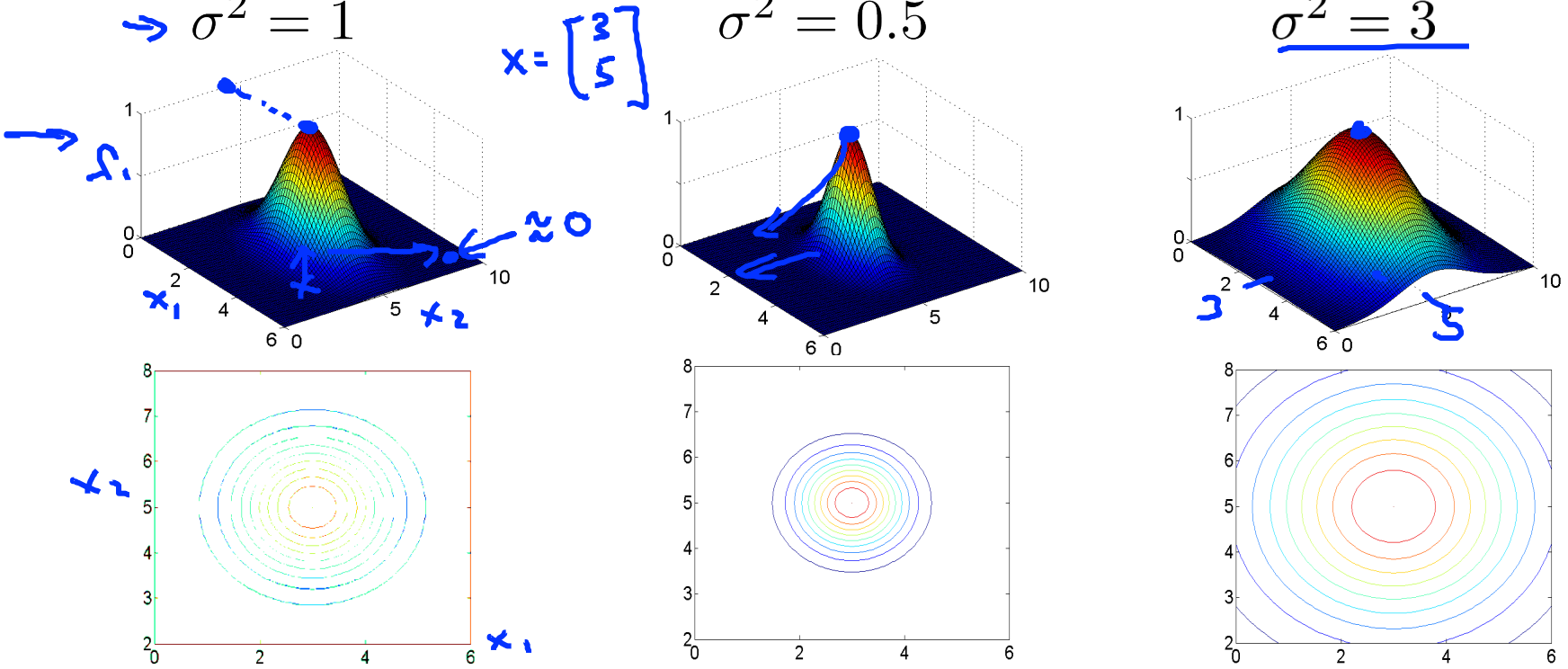
$l^{(2)} \rightarrow f_2$

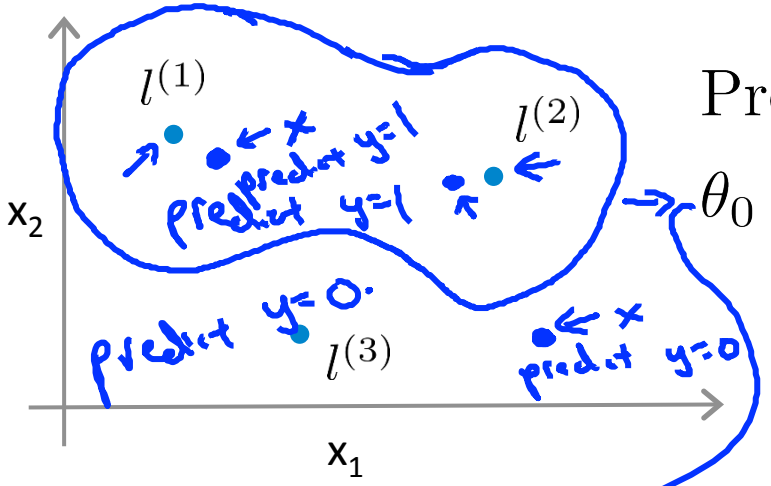
$l^{(3)} \rightarrow f_3$.

Example:

$l^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$, $f_1 = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x - l^{(1)}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$

$\sigma^2 = 1$ $\quad$ $\sigma^2 = 0.5$ $\quad$ $\sigma^2 = 3$





Predict "1" when

$$\theta_0 + \theta_1 f_1 + \theta_2 f_2 + \theta_3 f_3 \geq 0$$

$\theta_0 = -0.5, \quad \theta_1 = 1, \quad \theta_2 = 1, \quad \theta_3 = 0$

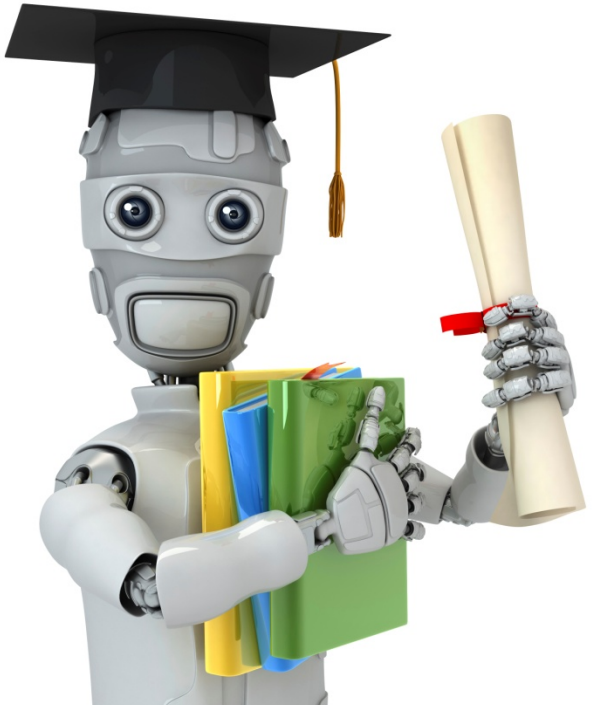
$f_1 \approx 1, \quad f_2 \approx 0, \quad f_3 \approx 0.$

$\theta_0 + \theta_1 \times 1 + \theta_2 \times 0 + \theta_3 \times 0$

$= -0.5 + 1 = 0.5 \geq 0$

$f_1, f_2, f_3 \approx 0$

$\rightarrow \theta_0 + \theta_1 f_1 + \dots \approx -0.5 < 0$

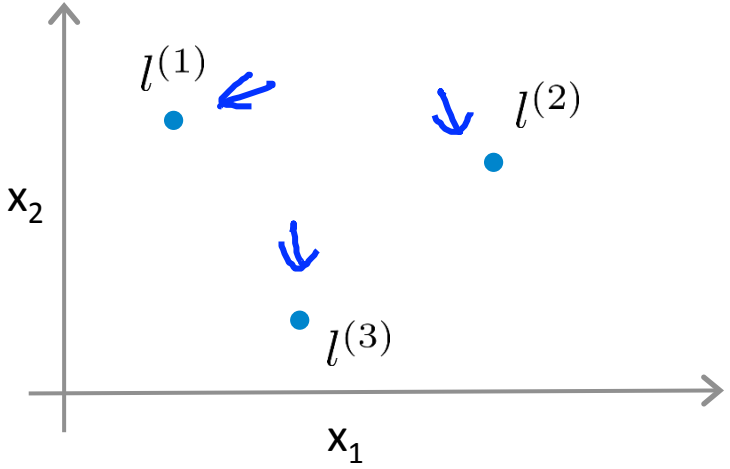


Machine Learning

Support Vector Machines

Kernels II

Choosing the landmarks



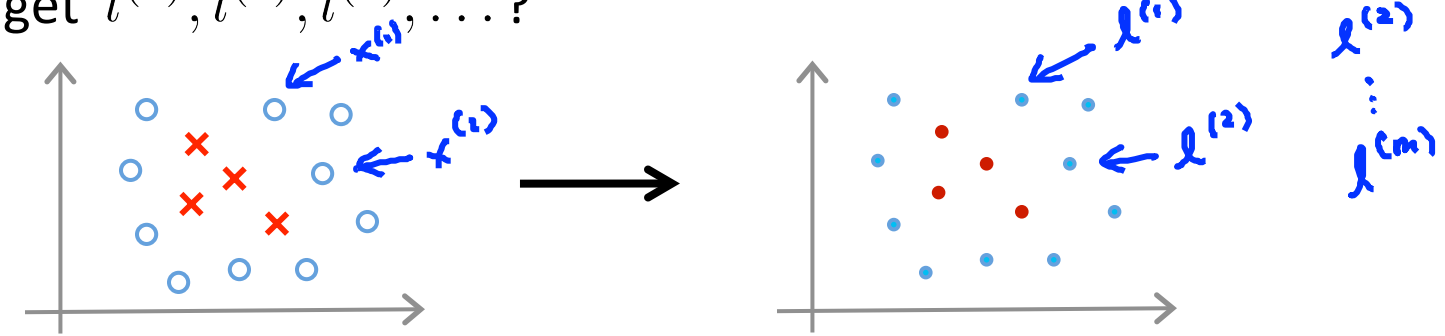
Given x:

$$f_i = \text{similarity}(x, l^{(i)})$$

$$= \exp\left(-\frac{||x - l^{(i)}||^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Predict $y = 1$ if $\theta_0 + \theta_1 f_1 + \theta_2 f_2 + \theta_3 f_3 \geq 0$

Where to get $l^{(1)}, l^{(2)}, l^{(3)}, \ldots$?



SVM with Kernels

- Given $(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (x^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), \ldots, (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})$,
- choose $l^{(1)} = x^{(1)}, l^{(2)} = x^{(2)}, \ldots, l^{(m)} = x^{(m)}$.

Given example x:

$$f_1 = \text{similarity}(x, l^{(1)})$$
$$f_2 = \text{similarity}(x, l^{(2)})$$
$$\ldots$$

$x^{(i)}$

$$f = \begin{bmatrix} f_0 \\ f_1 \\ f_2 \\ \vdots \\ f_m \end{bmatrix} \qquad f_0 = 1$$

For training example $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$:

$x^{(i)} \rightarrow$

$f_1^{(i)} = \text{sim}(x^{(i)}, l^{(1)})$

$f_2^{(i)} = \text{sim}(x^{(i)}, l^{(2)})$

$f_i^{(i)} = \text{sim}(x^{(i)}, l^{(i)}) = \exp\left(-\frac{0}{2\sigma^2}\right) = 1$

$f_m^{(i)} = \text{sim}(x^{(i)}, l^{(m)})$

$x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ (or $\mathbb{R}^n$)

$$f^{(i)} = \begin{bmatrix} f_0^{(i)} \\ f_1^{(i)} \\ \vdots \\ f_m^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} \qquad f_0^{(i)} = 1$$

SVM with Kernels

Hypothesis: Given x, compute features $f \in \mathbb{R}^{m+1}$

→ Predict "y=1" if $\theta^T f \geq 0$

$\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{m+1}$

$\theta_0 f_0 + \theta_1 f_1 + \cdots + \theta_m f_m$

Training:

$$\min_\theta C \sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)} cost_1(\theta^T f^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) cost_0(\theta^T f^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \theta_j^2$$

$n = m$

$\theta^T f^{(i)}$

θ_0

$\sum_{j=1}^{m} \theta_j^2 = \theta^T \theta \leftarrow \theta = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \theta_m \end{bmatrix}$ (ignore θ_0)

$\leftarrow \|\theta\|^2$

$\theta^T M \theta$

$m = 10,000$

SVM parameters:

C ($= \frac{1}{\lambda}$). → Large C: Lower bias, high variance. (small λ)

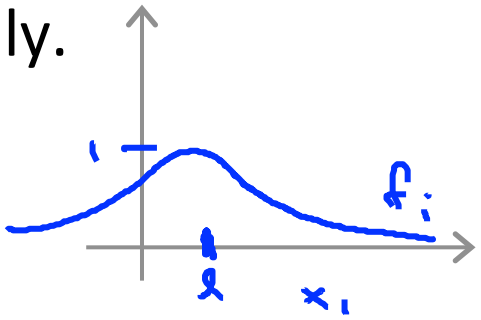
→ Small C: Higher bias, low variance. (large λ)

σ^2

Large σ^2: Features f_i vary more smoothly.

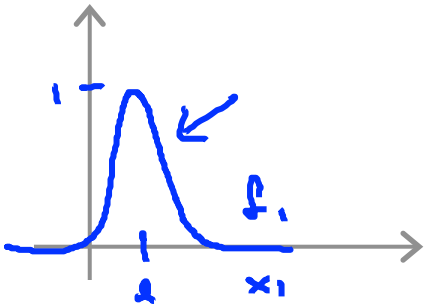
→ Higher bias, lower variance.

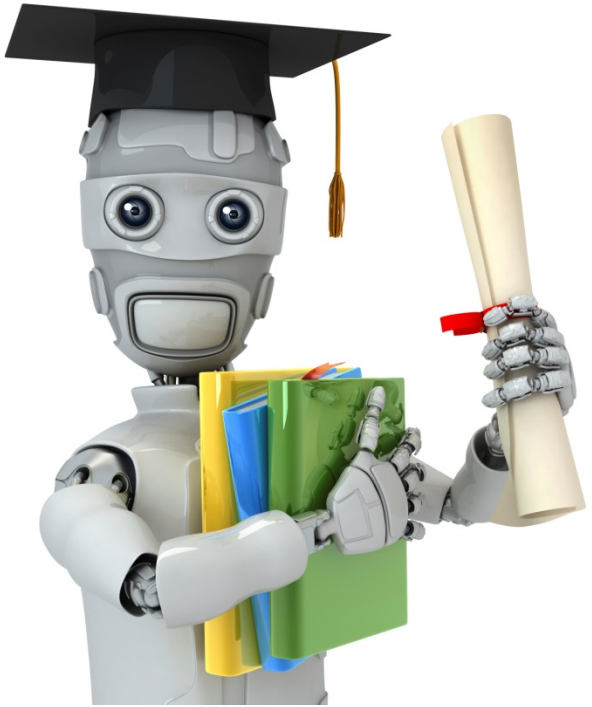
$\exp\left(-\frac{\|x - l^{(i)}\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$



Small σ^2: Features f_i vary less smoothly.

Lower bias, higher variance.





Machine Learning

Support Vector Machines

Using an SVM

Use SVM software package (e.g. liblinear, libsvm, …) to solve for parameters θ.

Need to specify:

→ Choice of parameter C.

Choice of kernel (similarity function):

E.g. No kernel ("linear kernel")

Predict "y = 1" if $\theta^T x \geq 0$

$\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \theta_n x_n \geq 0$

→ n large, m small

$x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$

→ Gaussian kernel:

$$f_i = \exp\left(-\frac{||x - l^{(i)}||^2}{2\sigma^2}\right), \text{ where } l^{(i)} = x^{(i)}.$$

Need to choose σ^2.

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, n small

and/or n large

Kernel (similarity) functions:

```
function f = kernel(x1,x2)
```

$$f = \exp\left(-\frac{||x1 - x2||^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

```
return
```

$x^{(i)}$, $l^{(j)} = x^{(j)}$, f_i

$x \rightarrow \begin{matrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ \vdots \\ f_m \end{matrix}$

- Note: Do perform feature scaling before using the Gaussian kernel.

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$||x - l||^2$

$v = x - l$

$||v||^2 = v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \cdots + v_n^2$

$= (x_1 - l_1)^2 + (x_2 - l_2)^2 + \cdots + (x_n - l_n)^2$

1000 feet^2 vs. 1-5 bedrooms

Other choices of kernel

Note: Not all similarity functions $\text{similarity}(x, l)$ make valid kernels.

(Need to satisfy technical condition called "Mercer's Theorem" to make sure SVM packages' optimizations run correctly, and do not diverge).

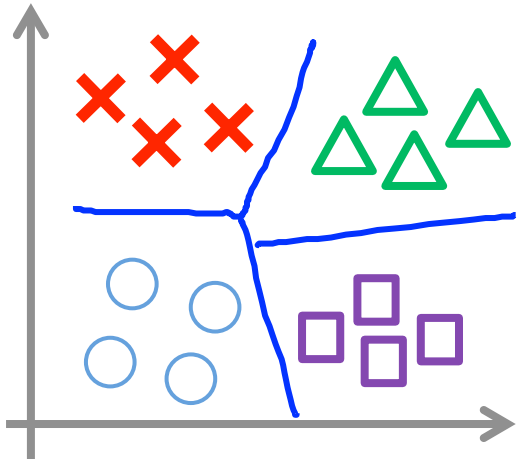
Many off-the-shelf kernels available:

- Polynomial kernel: $k(x, l) = (x^T l)^3$, $(x^T l)^2$, $(x^T l + 1)^3$, $(x^T l + 5)^4$, $(x^T l + \text{constant})^{\text{degree}}$

- More esoteric: String kernel, chi-square kernel, histogram intersection kernel, …

$\text{sim}(x, l)$

Multi-class classification



$$y \in \{1, 2, 3, \ldots, K\}$$

Many SVM packages already have built-in multi-class classification functionality.

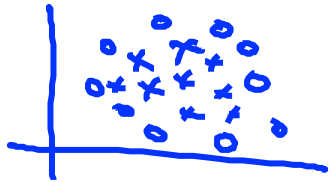
Otherwise, use one-vs.-all method. (Train K SVMs, one to distinguish $y = i$ from the rest, for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, K$), get $\theta^{(1)}, \theta^{(2)}, \ldots, \theta^{(K)}$

Pick class i with largest $(\theta^{(i)})^T x$

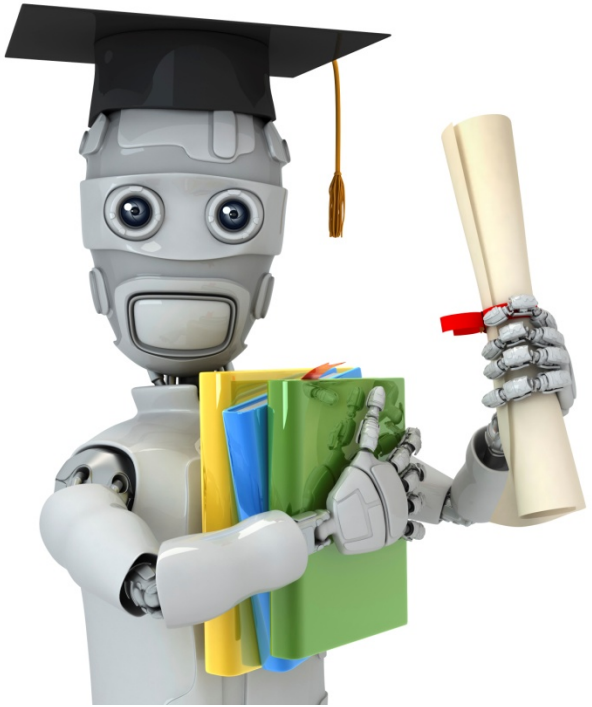
Logistic regression vs. SVMs

n = number of features ($x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$), m = number of training examples

- If n is large (relative to m): (e.g. $n \geq m$, $n = 10{,}000$, $m = 10 \cdots 1000$)
  - Use logistic regression, or SVM without a kernel ("linear kernel")
- If n is small, m is intermediate: ($n = 1 - 1000$, $m = 10 - 10{,}000$)
  - Use SVM with Gaussian kernel
- If n is small, m is large: ($n = 1 - 1000$, $m = 50{,}000+$)
  - Create/add more features, then use logistic regression or SVM without a kernel



- Neural network likely to work well for most of these settings, but may be slower to train.

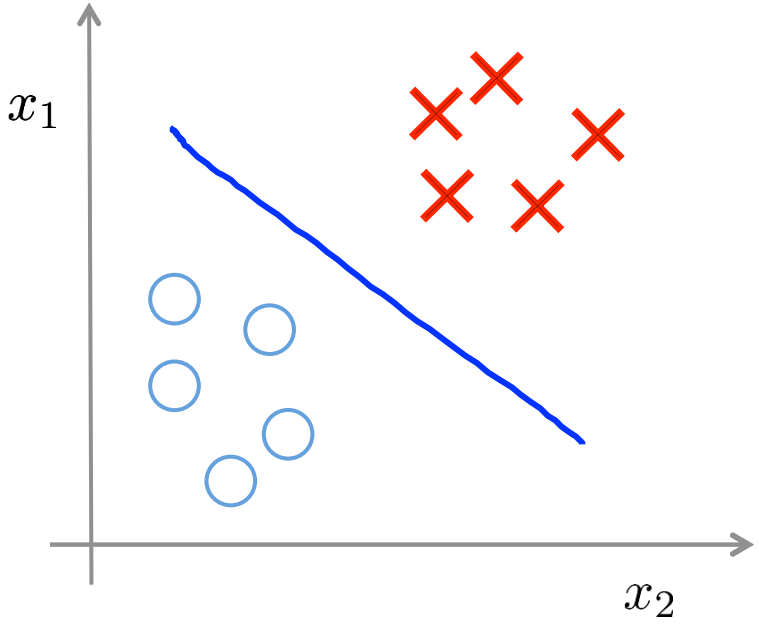


Machine Learning

Clustering

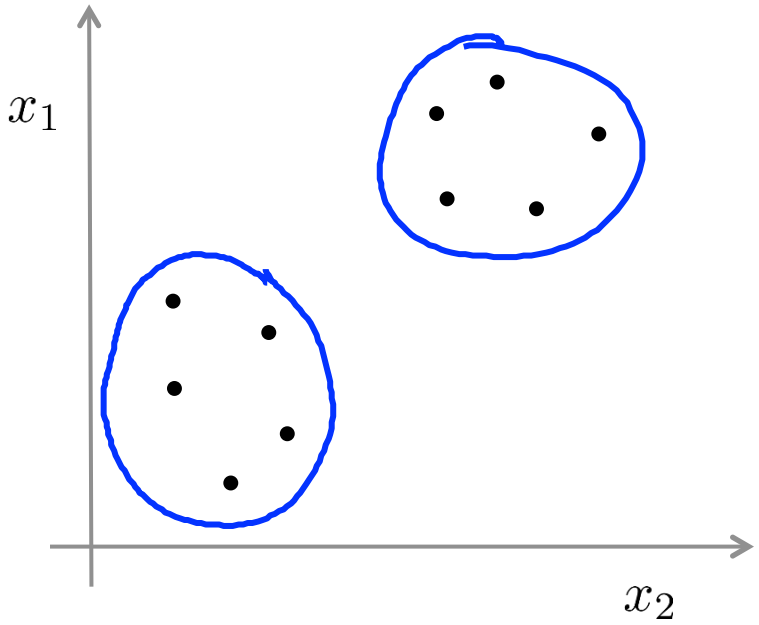
Unsupervised learning introduction

Supervised learning



Training set: $\{(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (x^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), (x^{(3)}, y^{(3)}), \ldots, (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})\}$

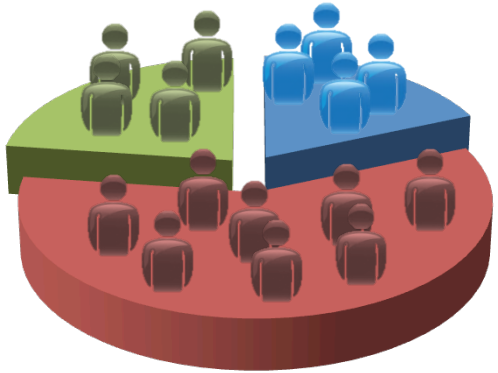
Unsupervised learning



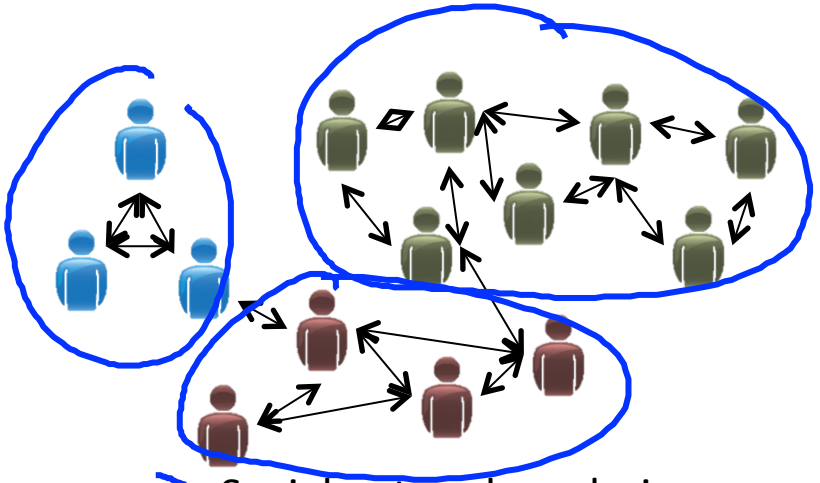
Clustering algorithm

Training set: $\{x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, x^{(3)}, \ldots, x^{(m)}\}$

Applications of clustering



Market segmentation



Social network analysis

Organize computing clusters

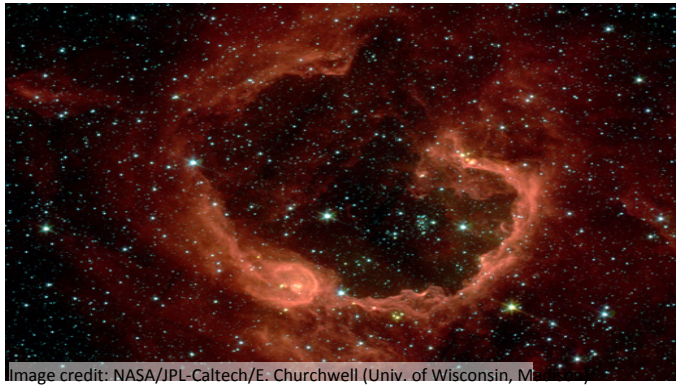
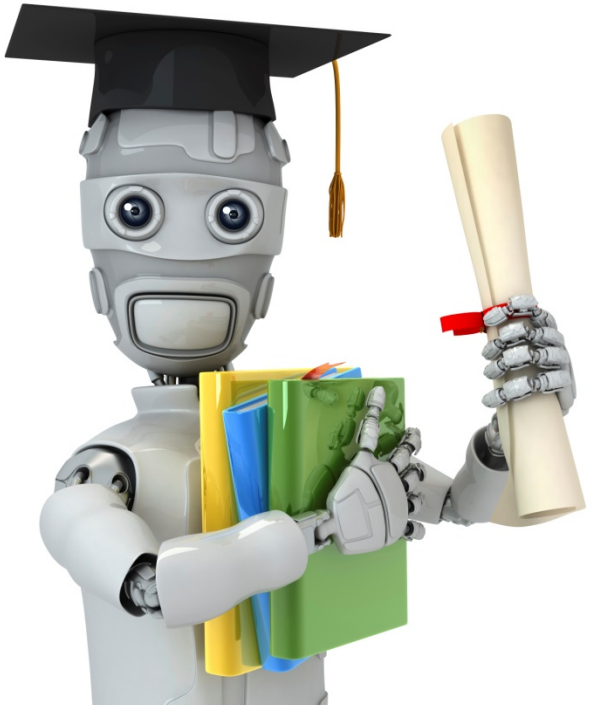


Image credit: NASA/JPL-Caltech/E. Churchwell (Univ. of Wisconsin, M

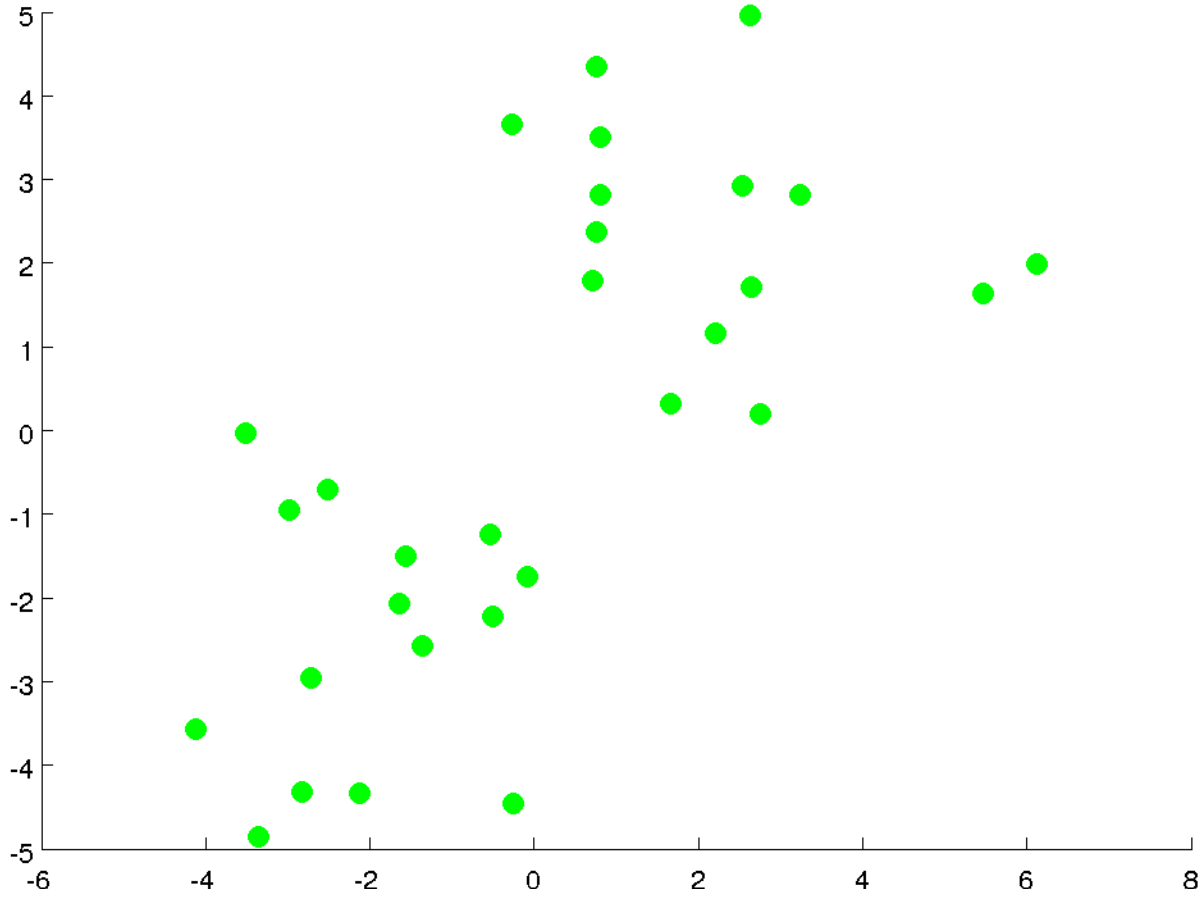
Astronomical data analysis



Machine Learning

Clustering

K-means algorithm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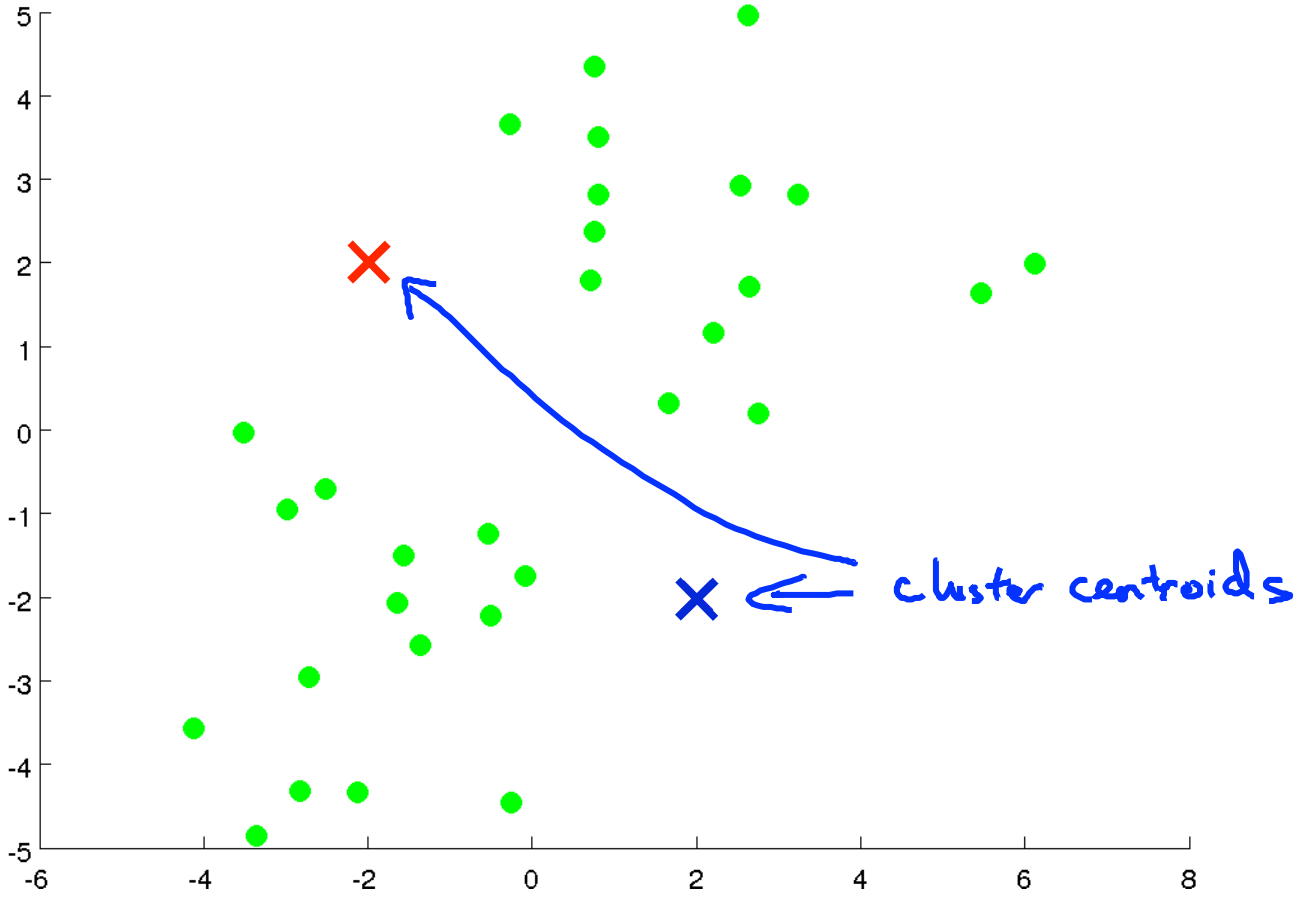
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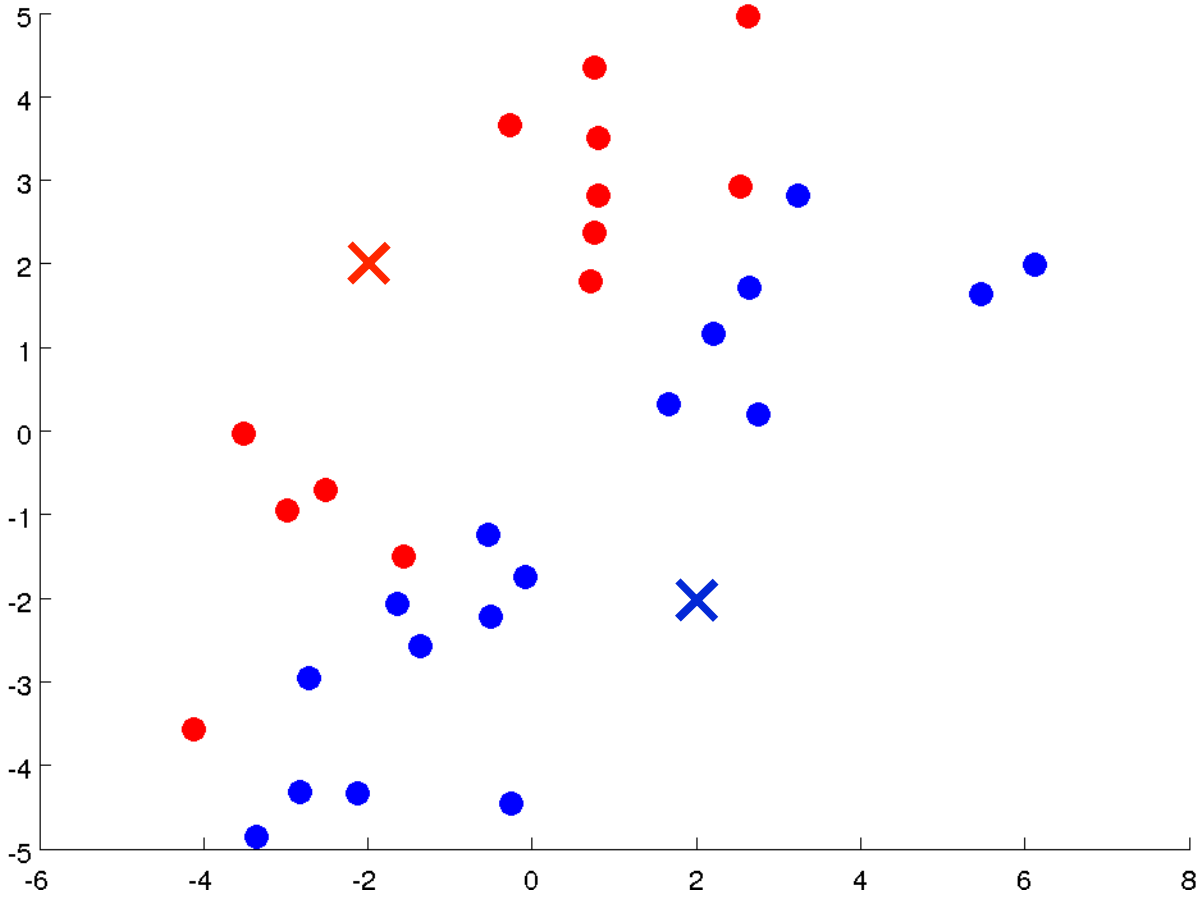
cluster centroids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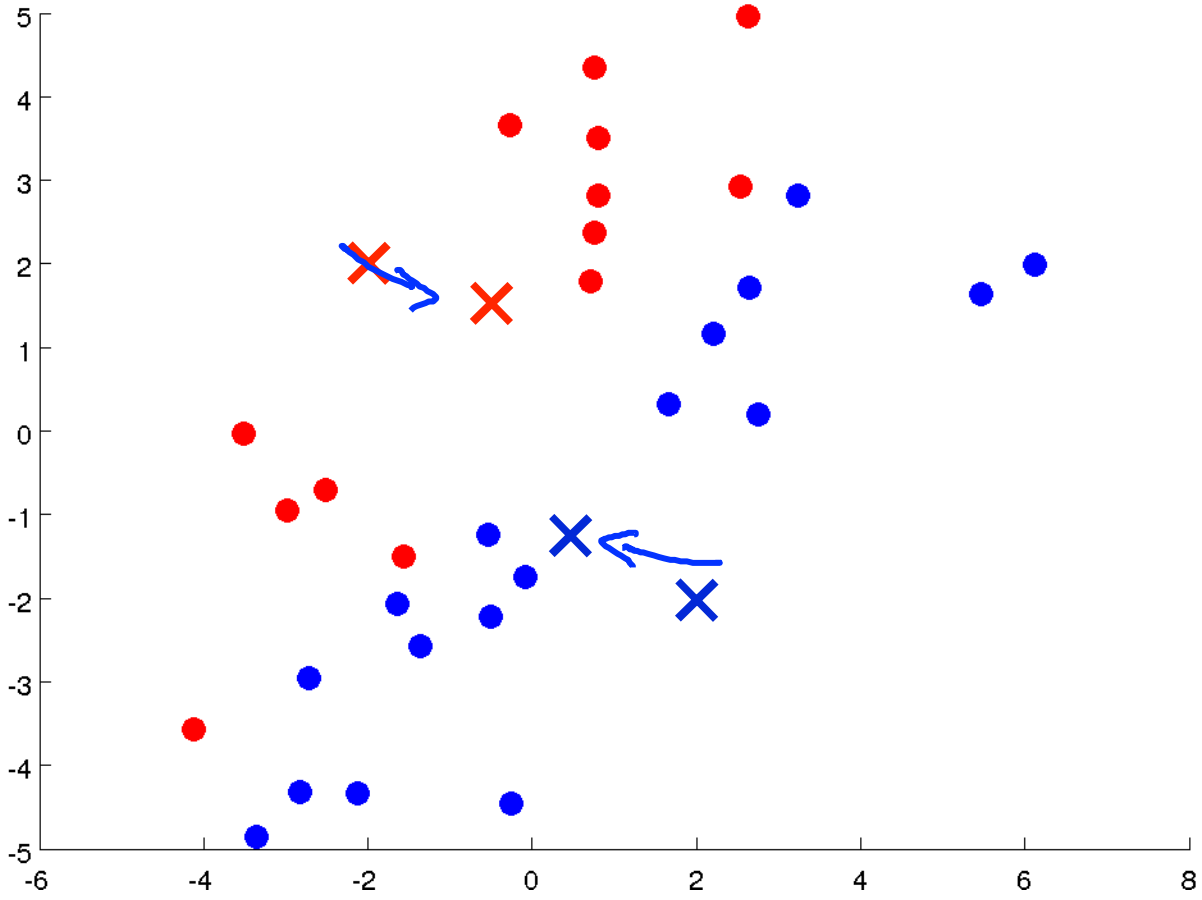
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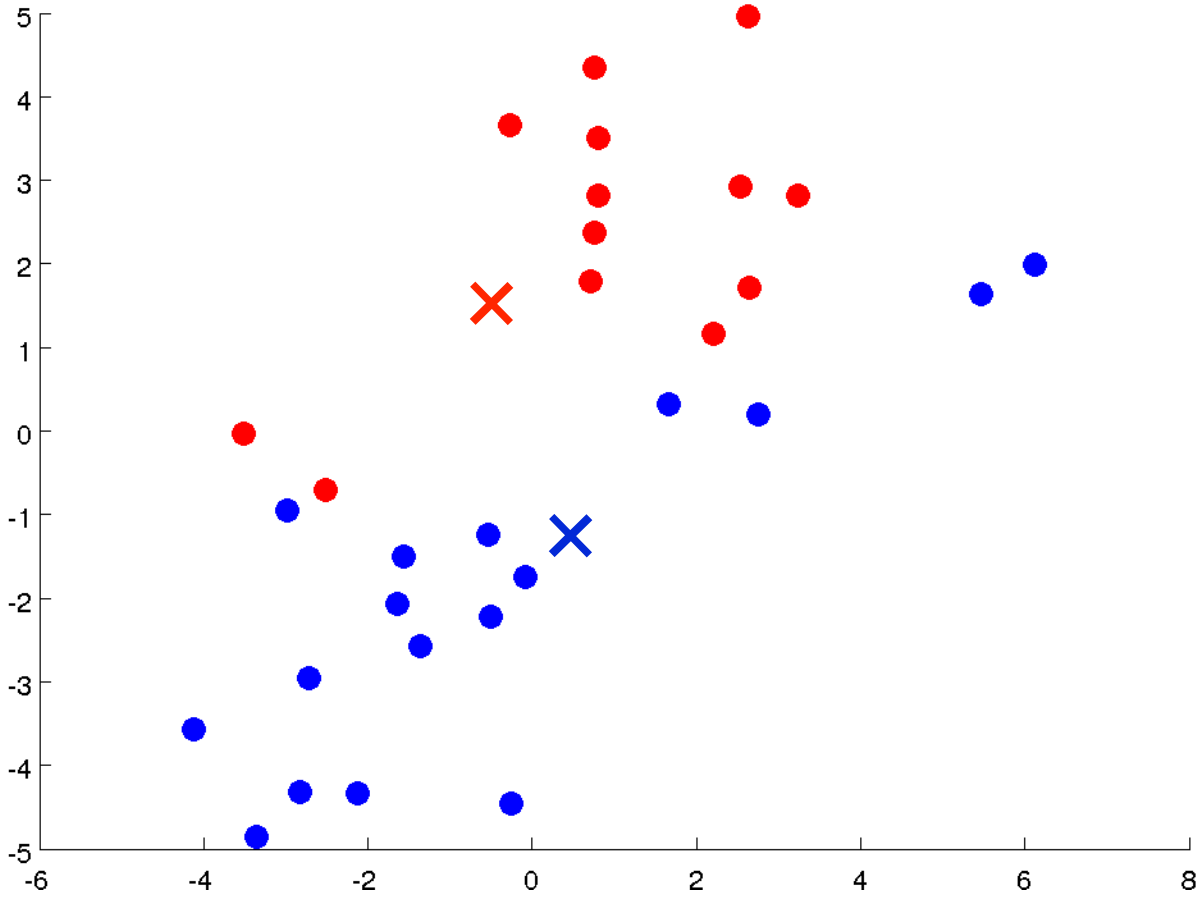
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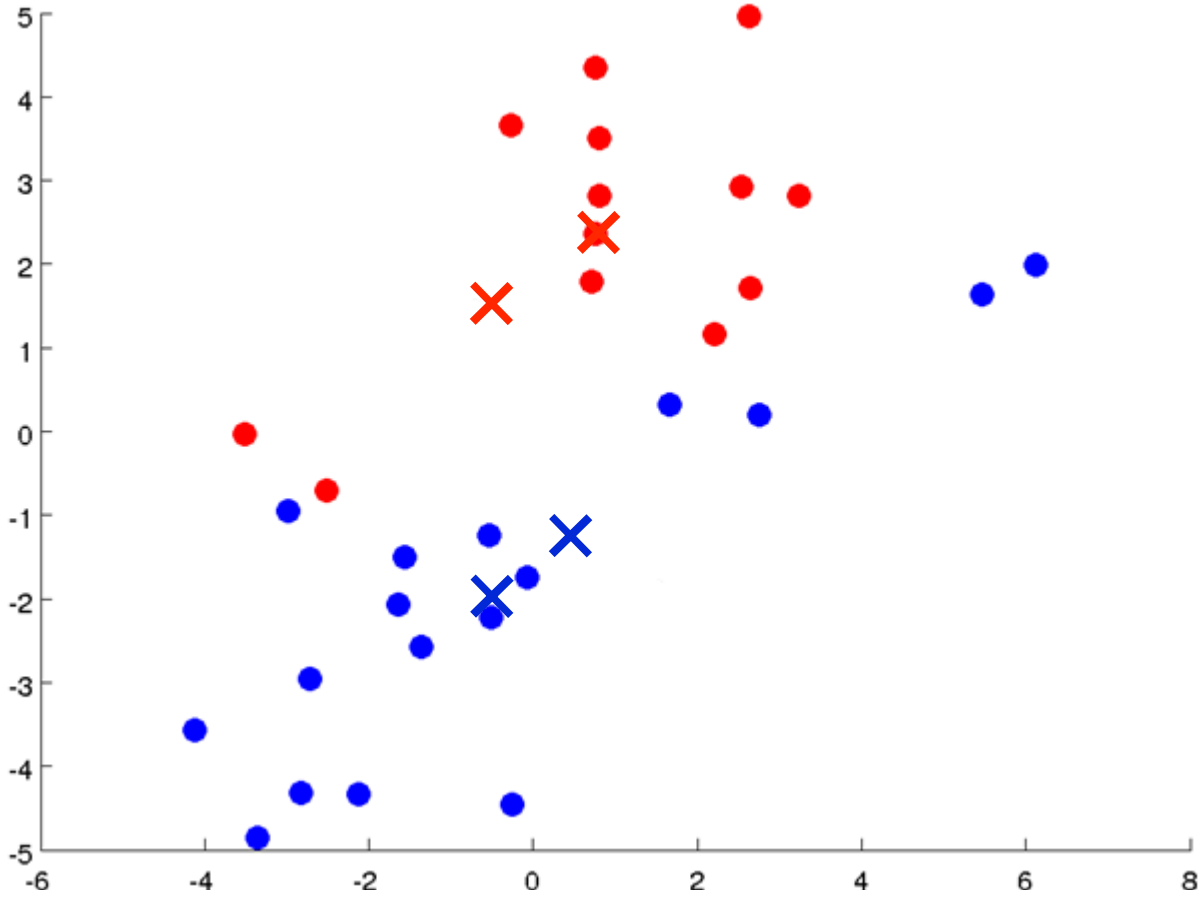
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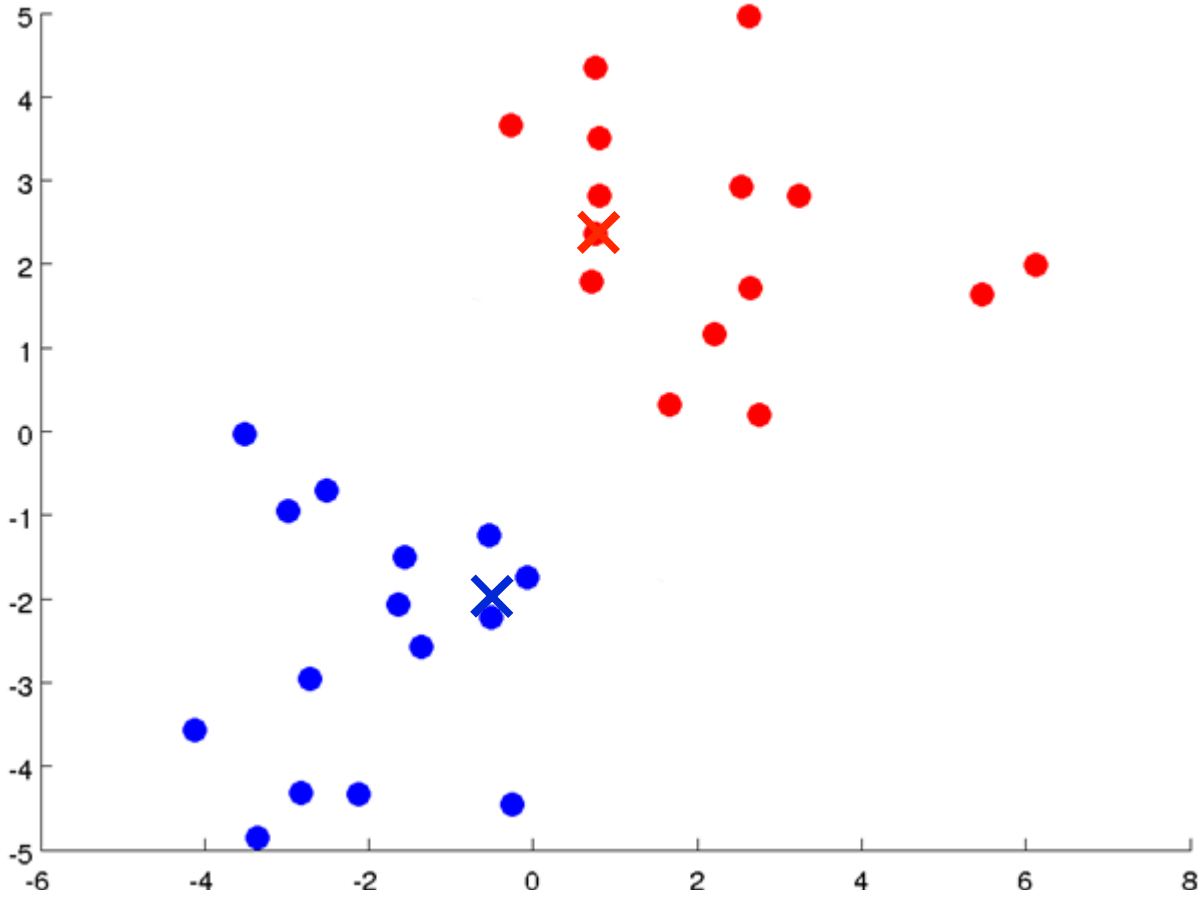
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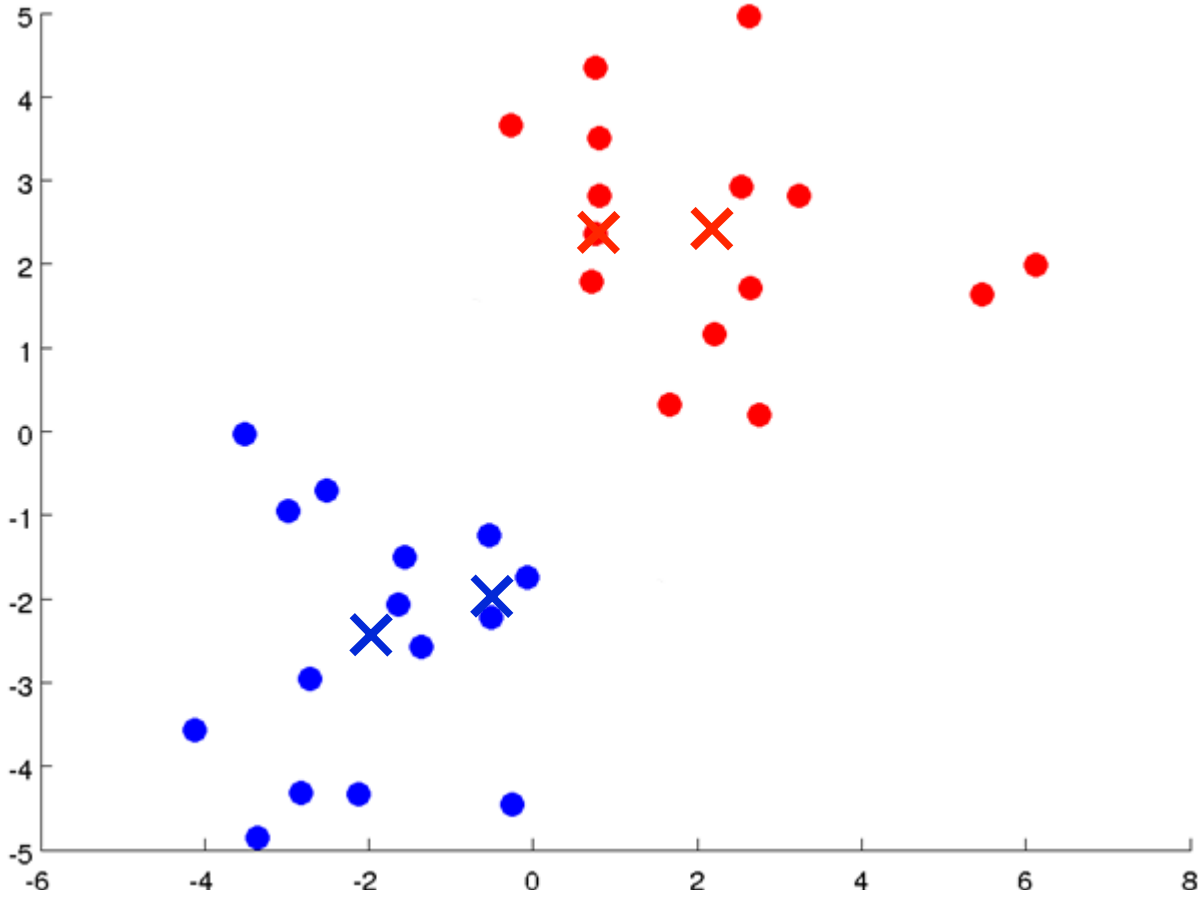
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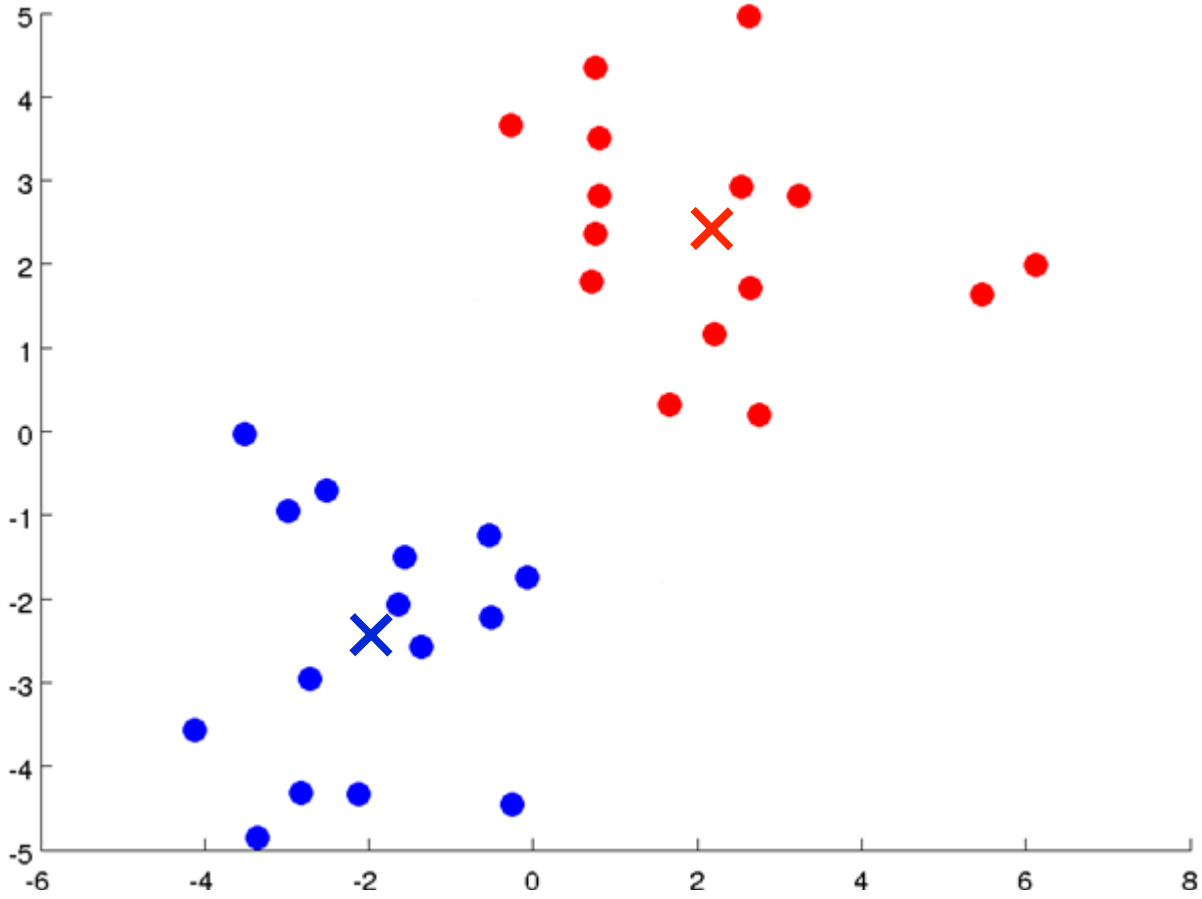
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K-means algorithm

Input:

- K (number of clusters)
- Training set $\{x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots, x^{(m)}\}$

$x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (drop $x_0 = 1$ convention)

K-means algorithm

Randomly initialize K cluster centroids $\mu_1, \mu_2, \ldots, \mu_K \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Repeat {

Cluster assignment step

for i = 1 to m

$c^{(i)}$:= index (from 1 to K) of cluster centroid closest to $x^{(i)}$

Move centroid

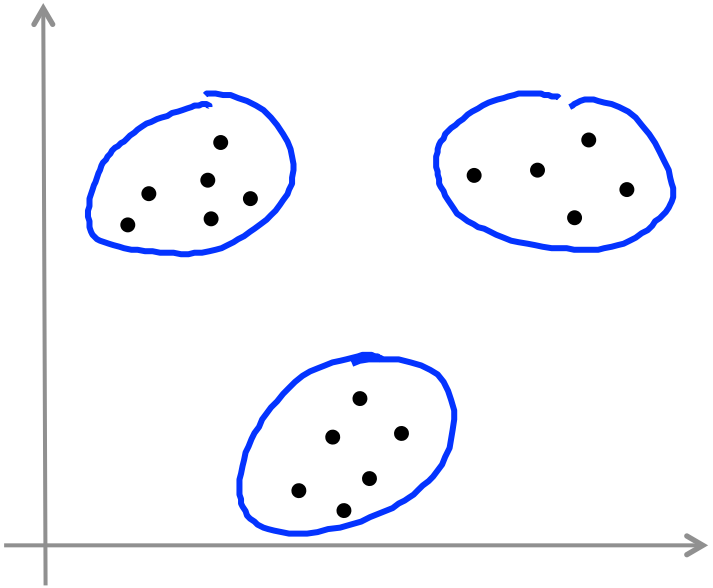
for k = 1 to K

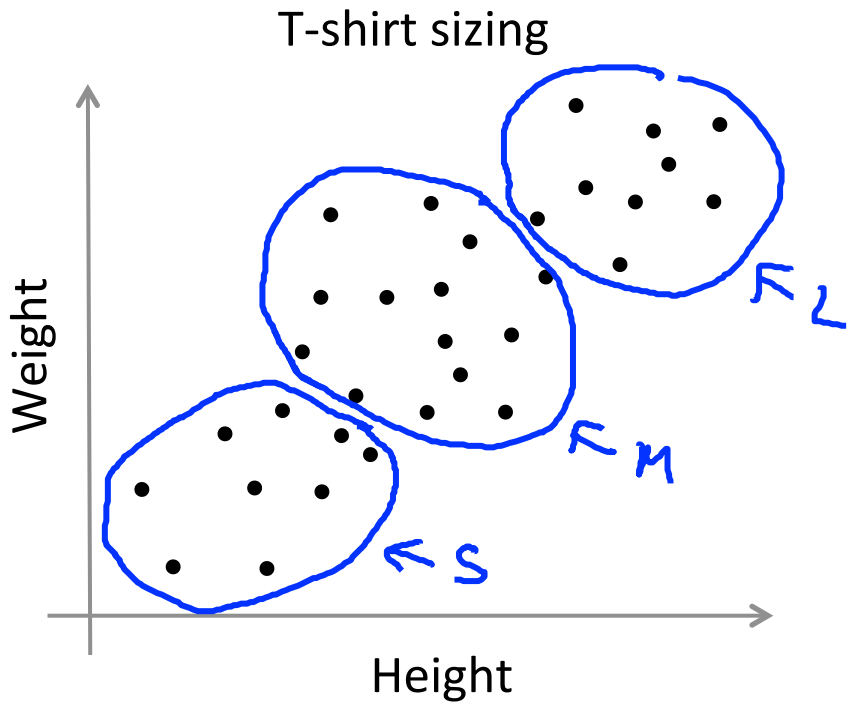
μ_k := average (mean) of points assigned to cluster k

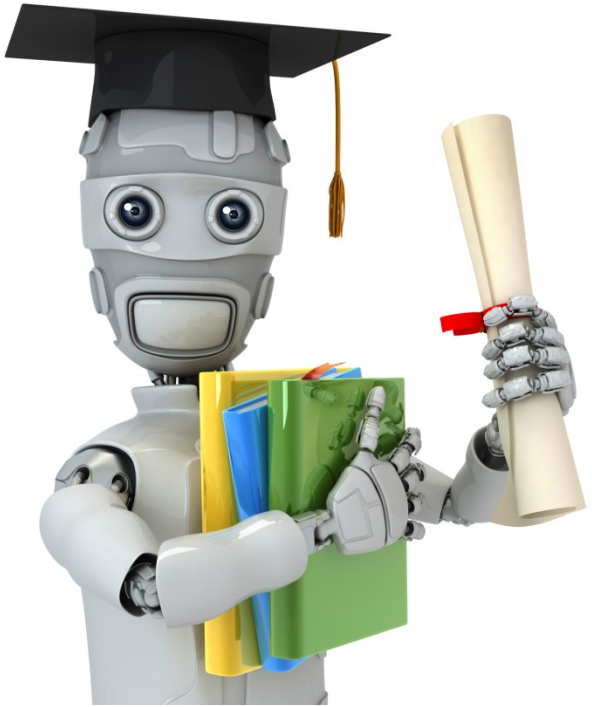
}

K-means for non-separated clusters

S, M, L







Machine Learning

Clustering

Optimization objective

K-means optimization objective

$c^{(i)}$ = index of cluster (1,2,…,K) to which example $x^{(i)}$ is currently assigned

μ_k = cluster centroid k ($\mu_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$)

$\mu_{c^{(i)}}$ = cluster centroid of cluster to which example $x^{(i)}$ has been assigned

K $\quad k \in \{1, 2, \ldots, K\}$

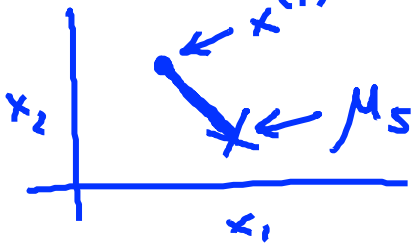
$x^{(i)} \rightarrow 5$ $\quad c^{(i)} = 5$ $\quad \mu_{c^{(i)}} = \mu_5$

Optimization objective:

$$J(c^{(1)}, \ldots, c^{(m)}, \mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} ||x^{(i)} - \mu_{c^{(i)}}||^2$$

$$\min_{c^{(1)}, \ldots, c^{(m)}, \mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K} J(c^{(1)}, \ldots, c^{(m)}, \mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K)$$

Distortion



K-means algorithm

Randomly initialize K cluster centroids $\mu_1, \mu_2, \ldots, \mu_K \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Repeat {

Cluster assignment step

Minimize $J(\ldots)$ wrt $c^{(1)}, c^{(2)}, \ldots, c^{(m)}$ (holding $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K$ fixed)

for i = 1 to m

$c^{(i)}$:= index (from 1 to K) of cluster centroid closest to $x^{(i)}$

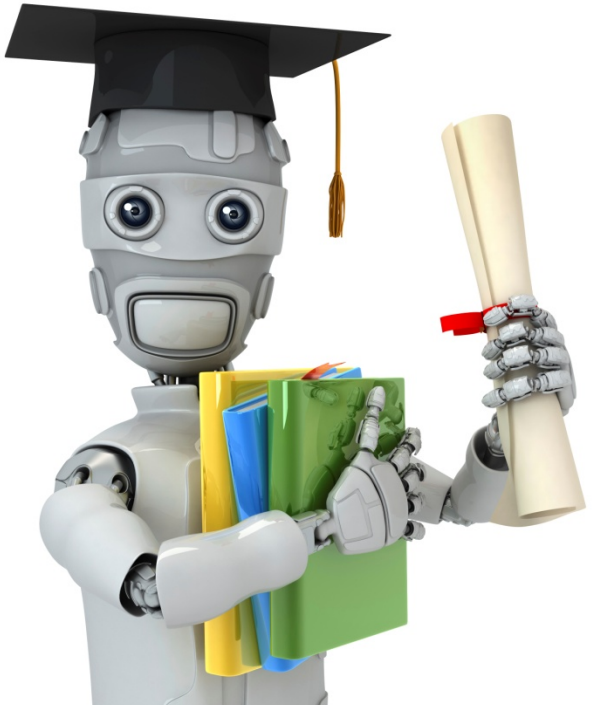
move centroid

for k = 1 to K

μ_k := average (mean) of points assigned to cluster k

}

minimize $J(\ldots)$ wrt $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K$



Machine Learning

Clustering

Random initialization

K-means algorithm

Randomly initialize K cluster centroids $\mu_1, \mu_2, \ldots, \mu_K \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Repeat {

for i = 1 to m

$c^{(i)}$:= index (from 1 to K) of cluster centroid closest to $x^{(i)}$

for k = 1 to K

μ_k := average (mean) of points assigned to cluster k

}

Random initialization

Should have $K < m$

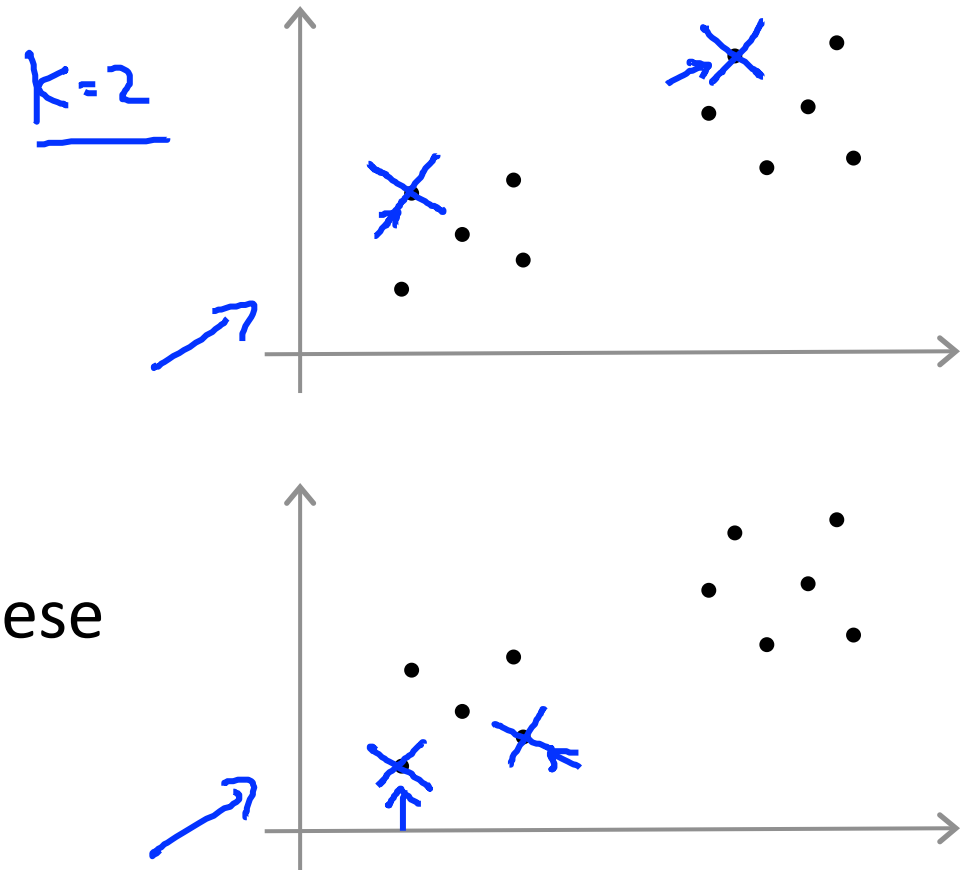
Randomly pick K training examples.

Set $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K$ equal to these K examples.

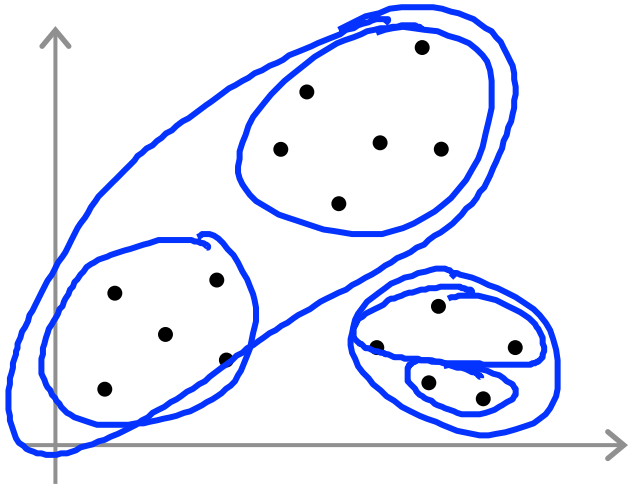
$\mu_1 = x^{(i)}$

$\mu_2 = x^{(j)}$

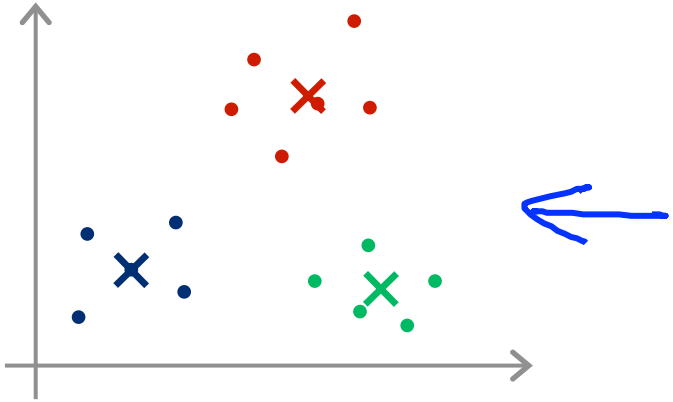
$\vdots$

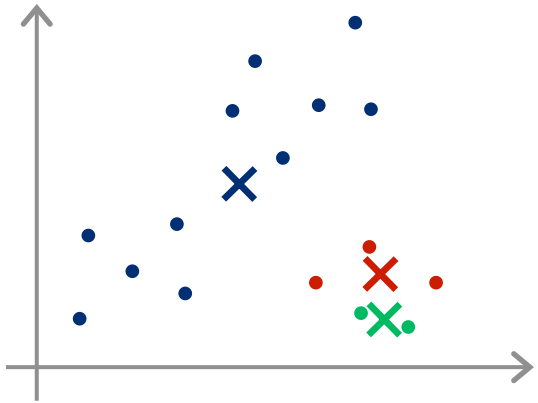


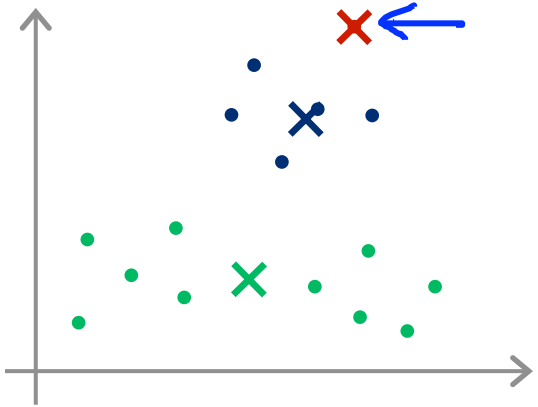
Local optima



$J(c^{(1)}, \ldots, c^{(m)}, \mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K)$







Random initialization

For i = 1 to 100 {

Randomly initialize K-means.

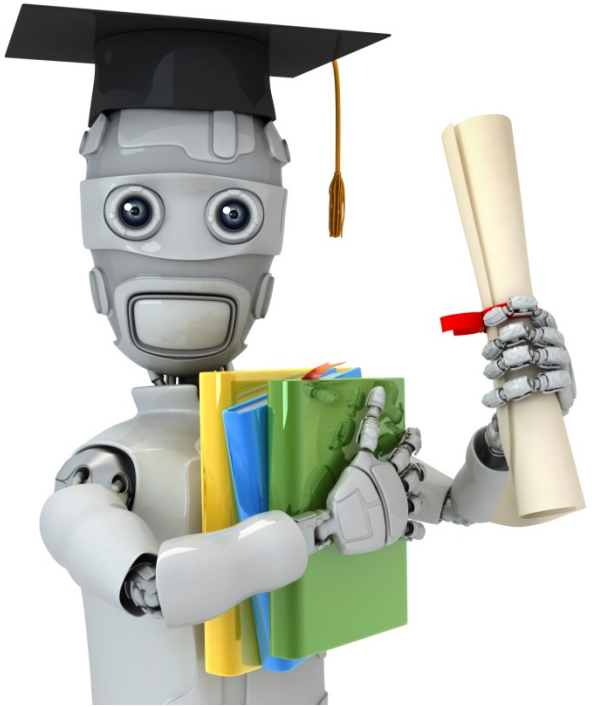
Run K-means. Get $c^{(1)}, \ldots, c^{(m)}, \mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K$.

Compute cost function (distortion)

$J(c^{(1)}, \ldots, c^{(m)}, \mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K)$

}

Pick clustering that gave lowest cost $J(c^{(1)}, \ldots, c^{(m)}, \mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K)$

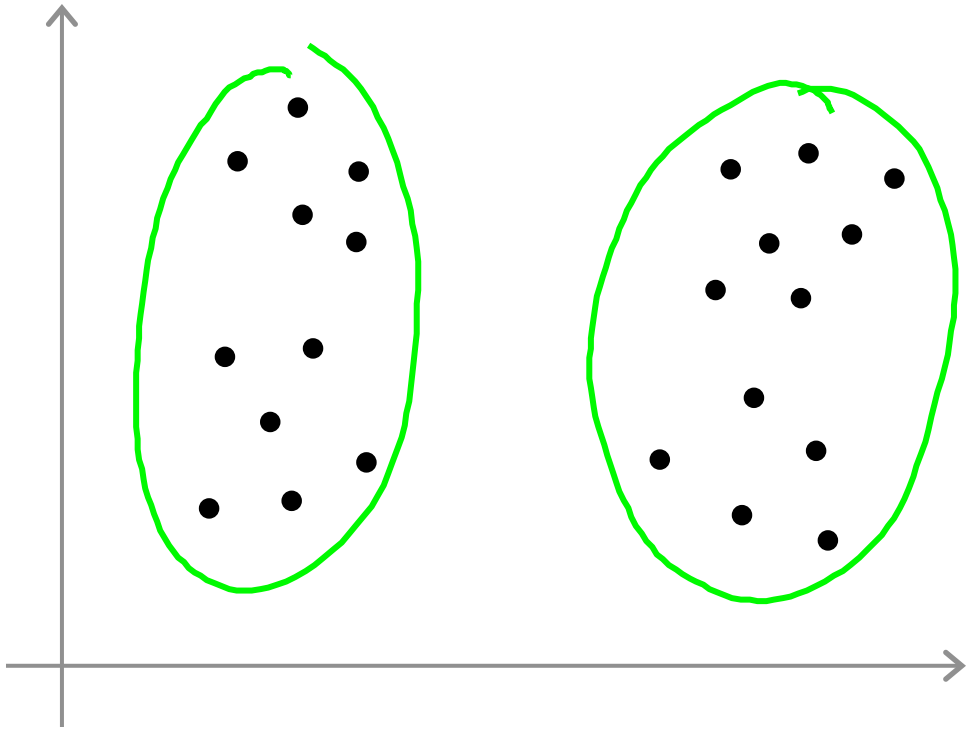


Machine Learning

Clustering

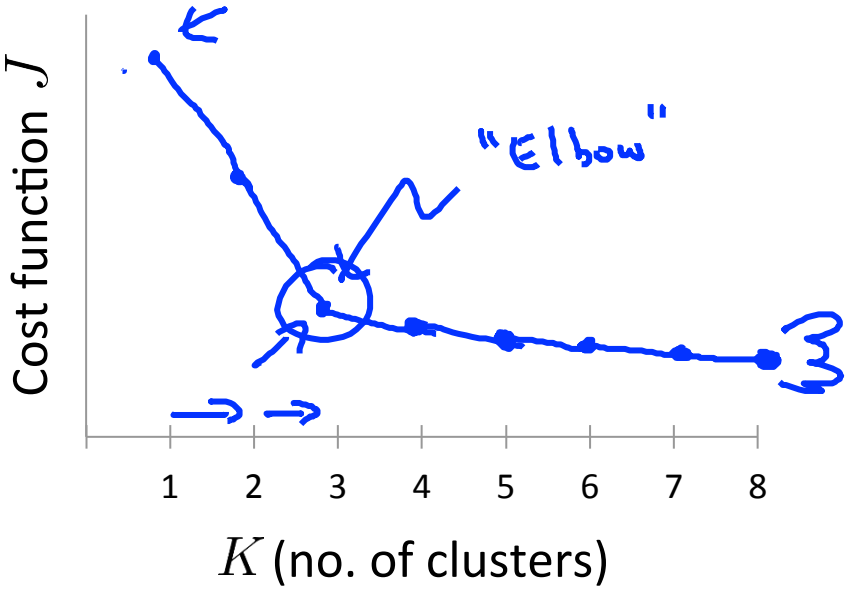
Choosing the number of clusters

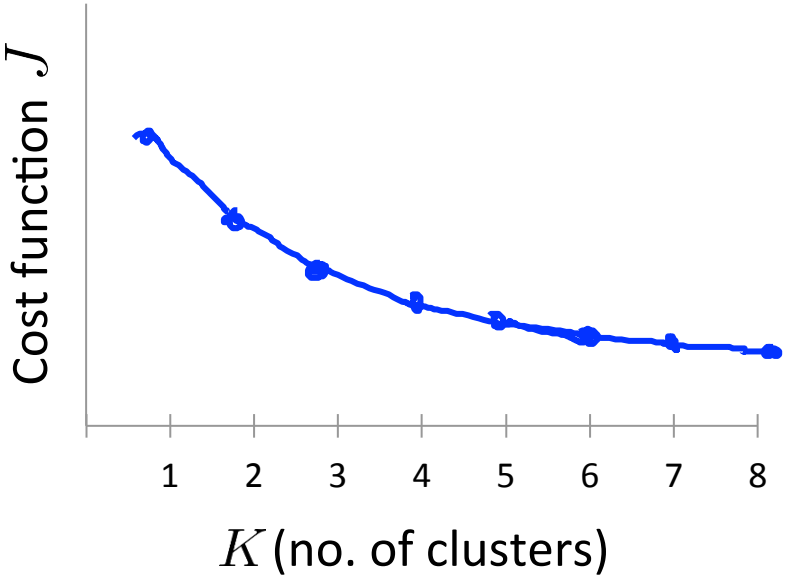
What is the right value of K?



Choosing the value of K

Elbow method:





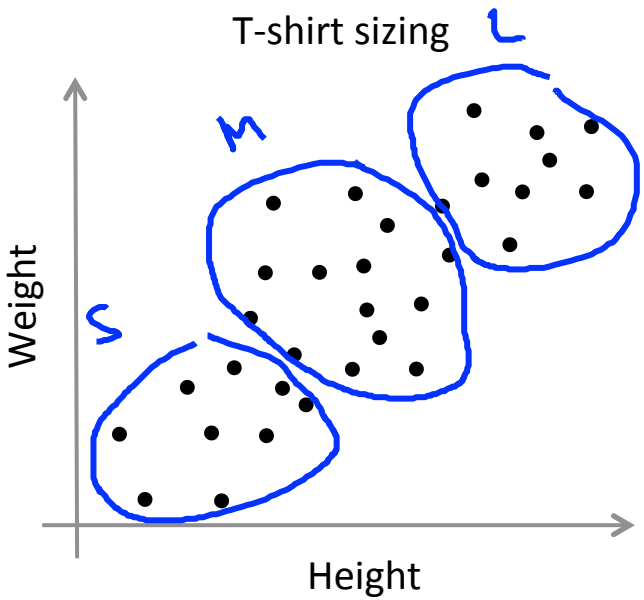
Choosing the value of K

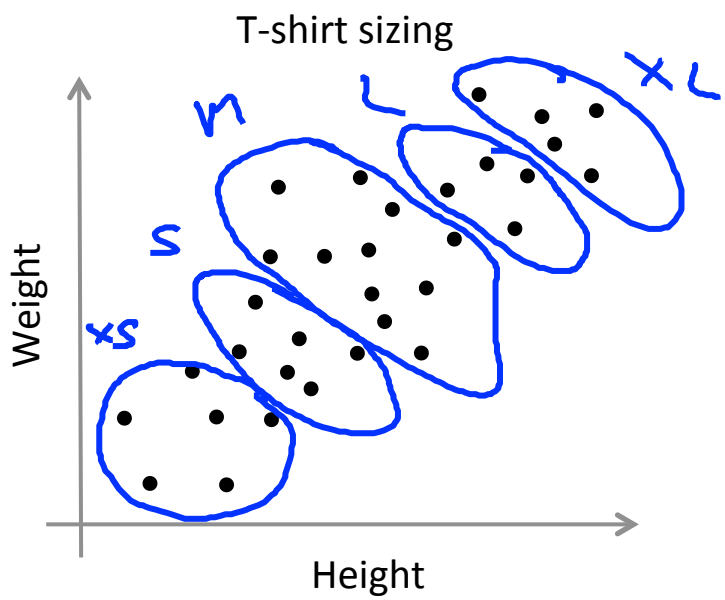
Sometimes, you're running K-means to get clusters to use for some later/downstream purpose. Evaluate K-means based on a metric for how well it performs for that later purpose.

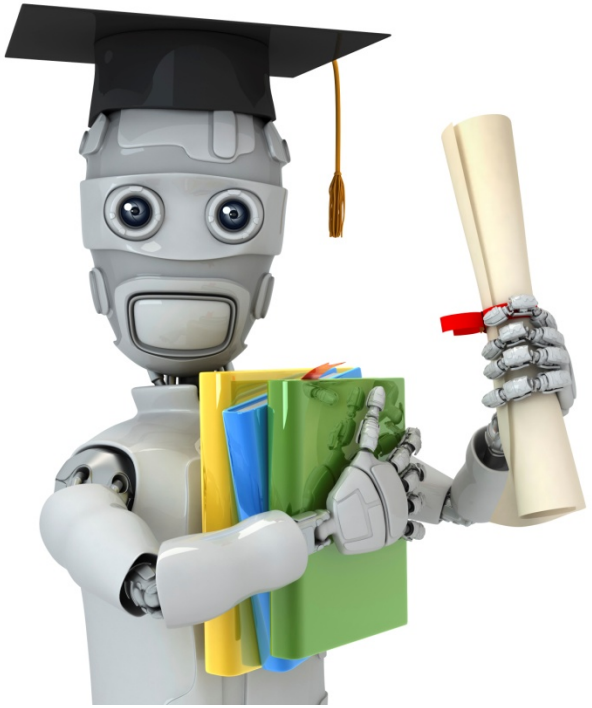
K=3 S, M, L

K=5 XS, S, M, L, XL

E.g.





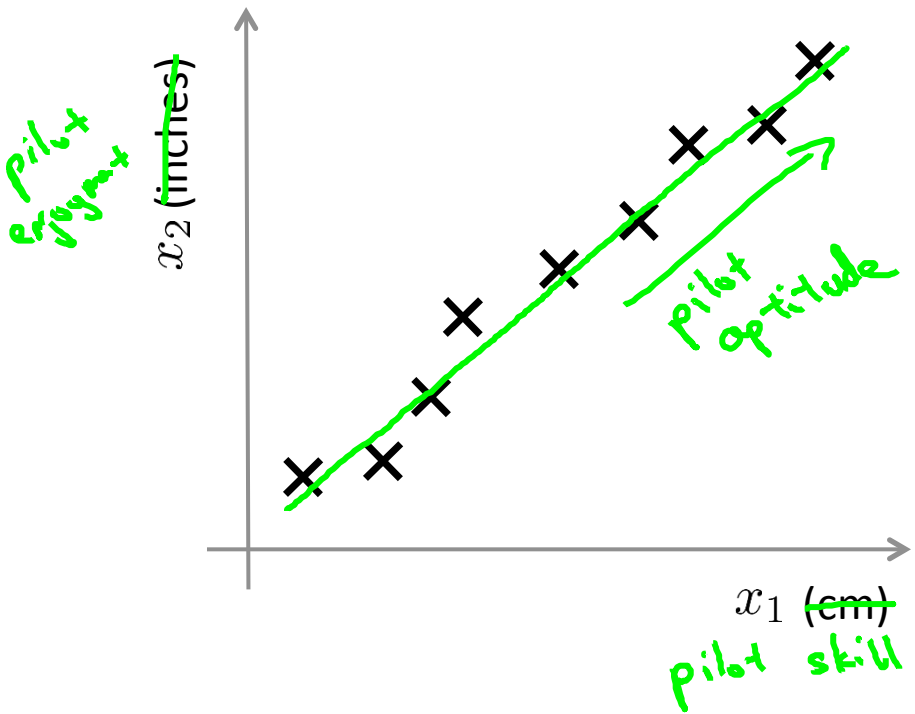


Machine Learning

Dimensionality Reduction

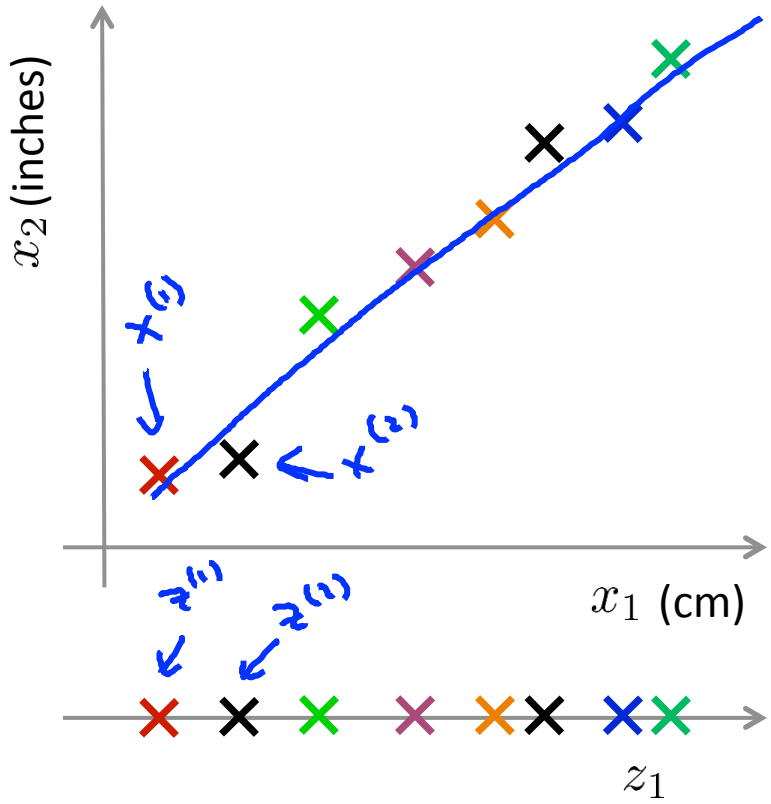
Motivation I: Data Compression

Data Compression



Reduce data from 2D to 1D

Data Compression



Reduce data from 2D to 1D

$$x^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow z^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$x^{(2)} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow z^{(2)} \in \mathbb{R}$$

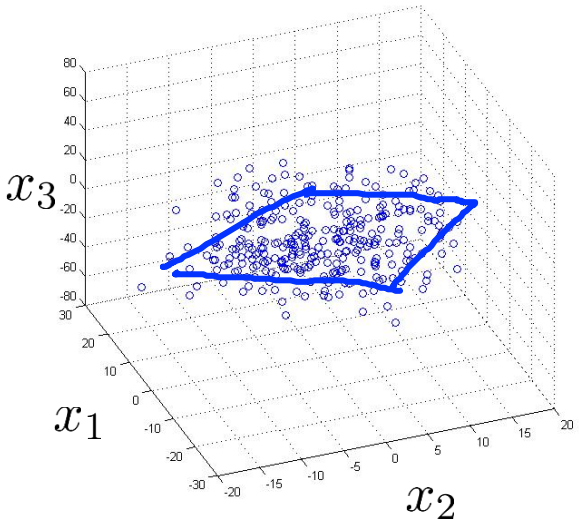
$$\vdots$$

$$x^{(m)} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow z^{(m)} \in \mathbb{R}$$

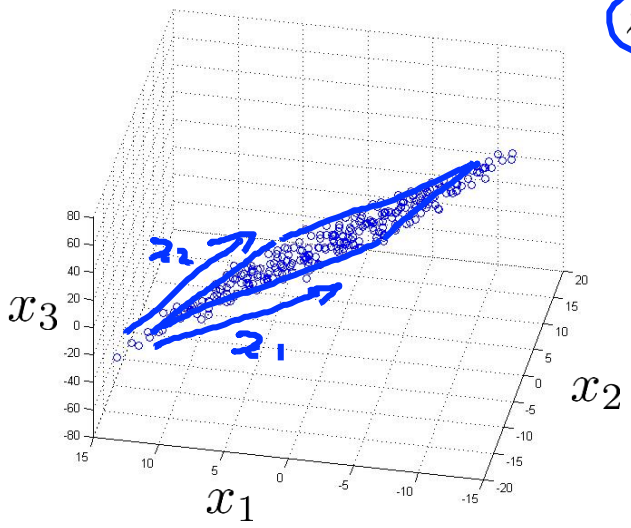
Data Compression

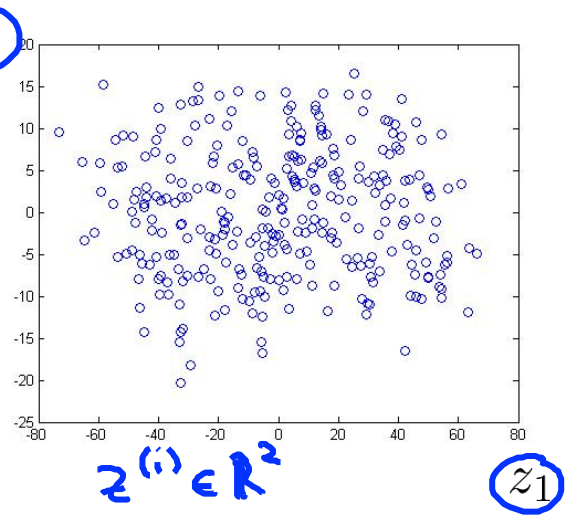
1000D → 100D

Reduce data from 3D to 2D



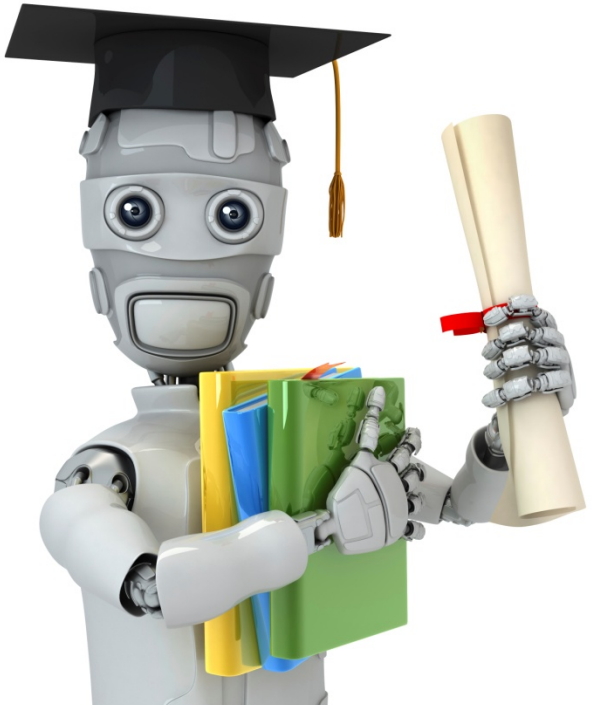
$x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^3$





$z^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$$z = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad z^{(i)} = \begin{bmatrix} z_1^{(i)} \\ z_2^{(i)} \end{bmatrix}$$



Machine Learning

Dimensionality Reduction

Motivation II: Data Visualization

Data Visualization

$x \in \mathbb{R}^{50}$ $x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{50}$

Country	x_1 GDP (trillions of US$)	x_2 Per capita GDP (thousands of intl. $)	x_3 Human Develop-ment Index	x_4 Life expectancy	x_5 Poverty Index (Gini as percentage)	x_6 Mean household income (thousands of US$)	…
Canada	1.577	39.17	0.908	80.7	32.6	67.293	…
China	5.878	7.54	0.687	73	46.9	10.22	…
India	1.632	3.41	0.547	64.7	36.8	0.735	…
Russia	1.48	19.84	0.755	65.5	39.9	0.72	…
Singapore	0.223	56.69	0.866	80	42.5	67.1	…
USA	14.527	46.86	0.91	78.3	40.8	84.3	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	

[resources from en.wikipedia.org]

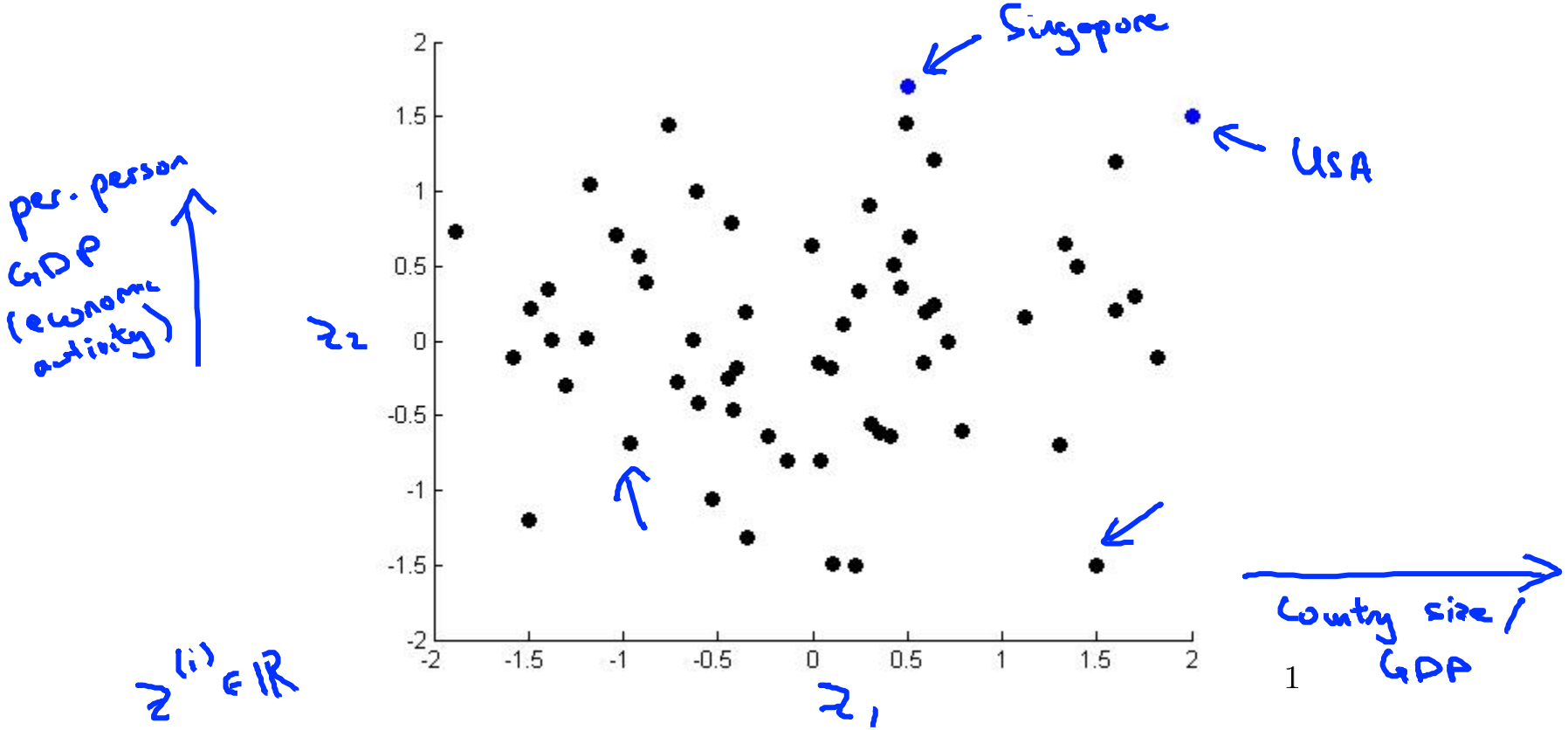
Data Visualization

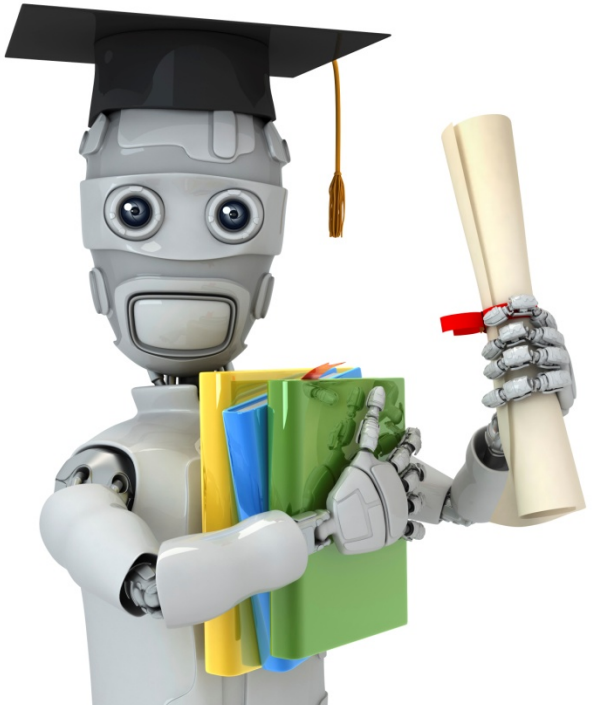
Country	z_1	z_2
Canada	1.6	1.2
China	1.7	0.3
India	1.6	0.2
Russia	1.4	0.5
Singapore	0.5	1.7
USA	2	1.5
…	…	…

$z^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^2$

Reduce data from 50D to 2D

Data Visualization



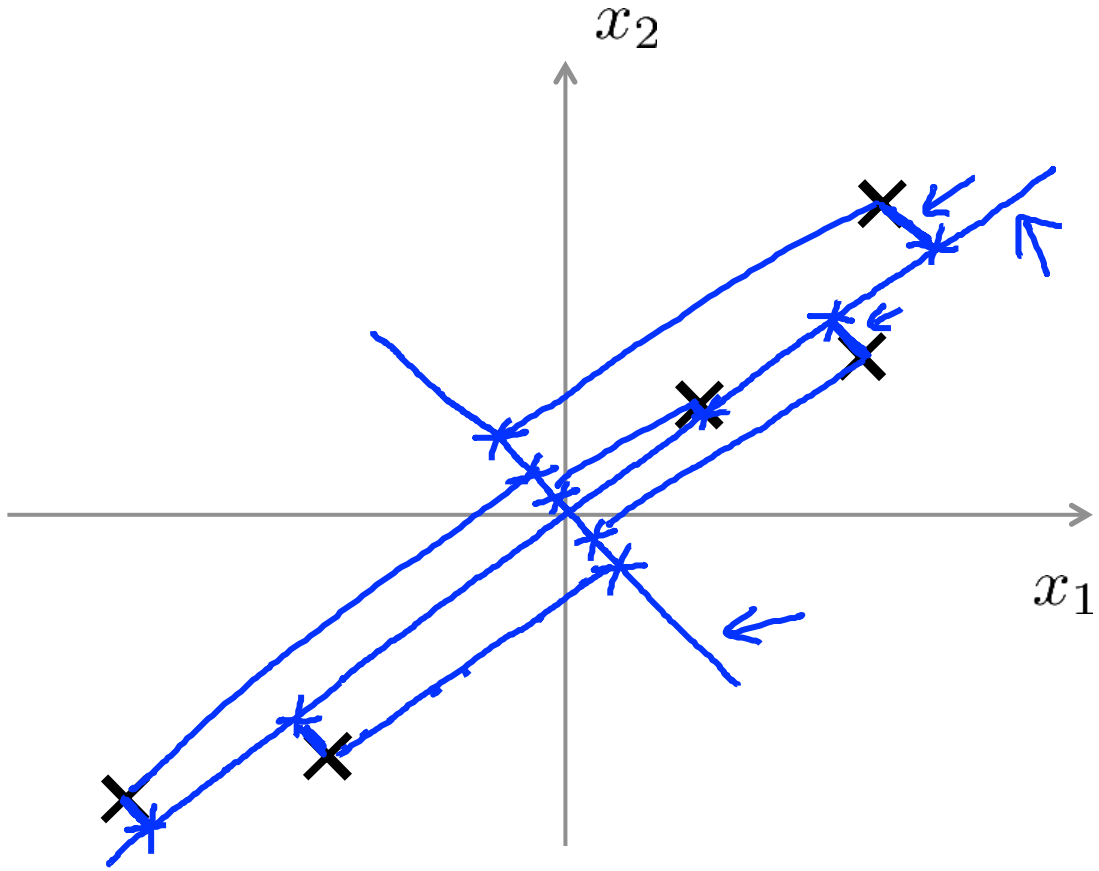


Machine Learning

Dimensionality Reduction

Principal Component Analysis problem formulation

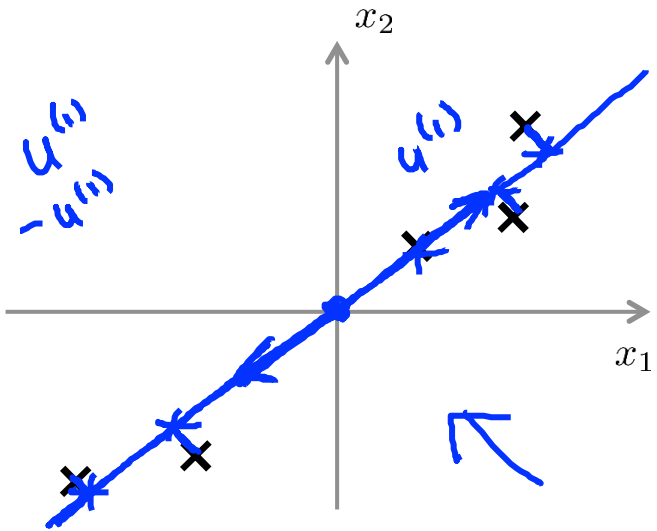
Principal Component Analysis (PCA) problem formulation

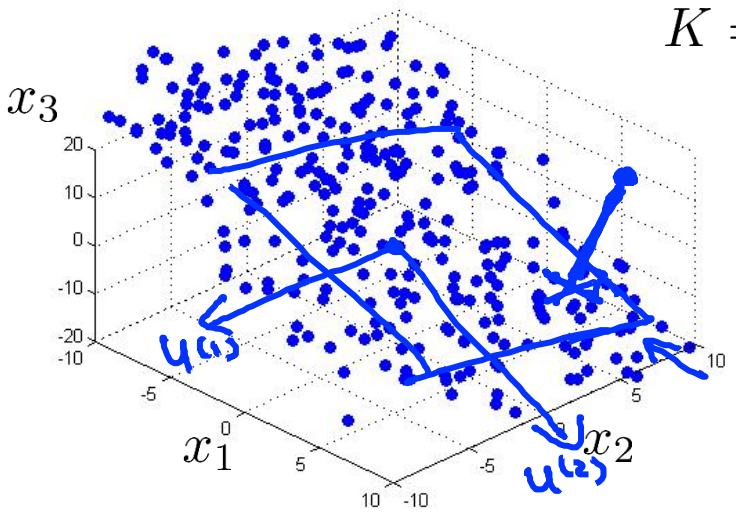


$x \in \mathbb{R}^2$

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) problem formulation

$3D \rightarrow 2D$
$K = 2$

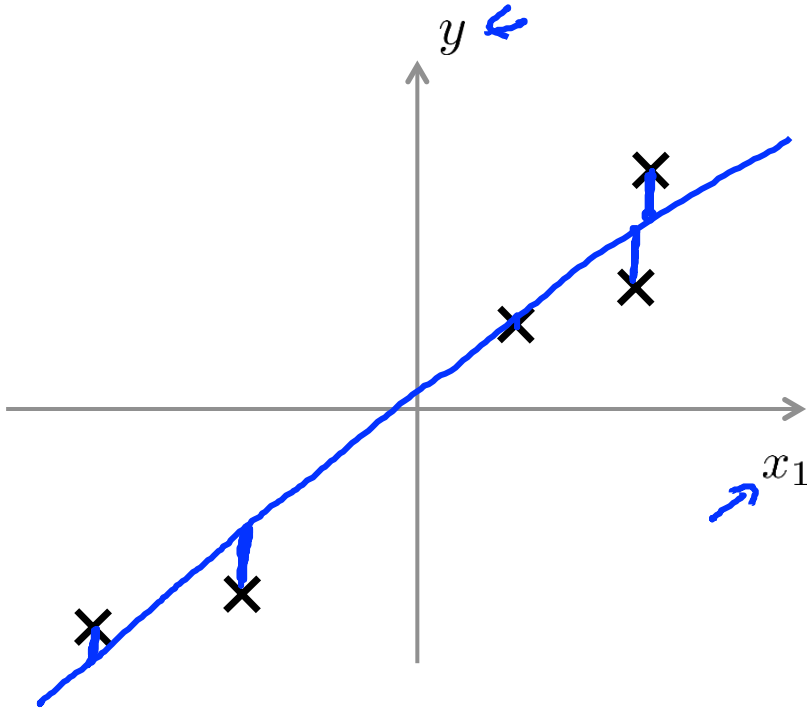


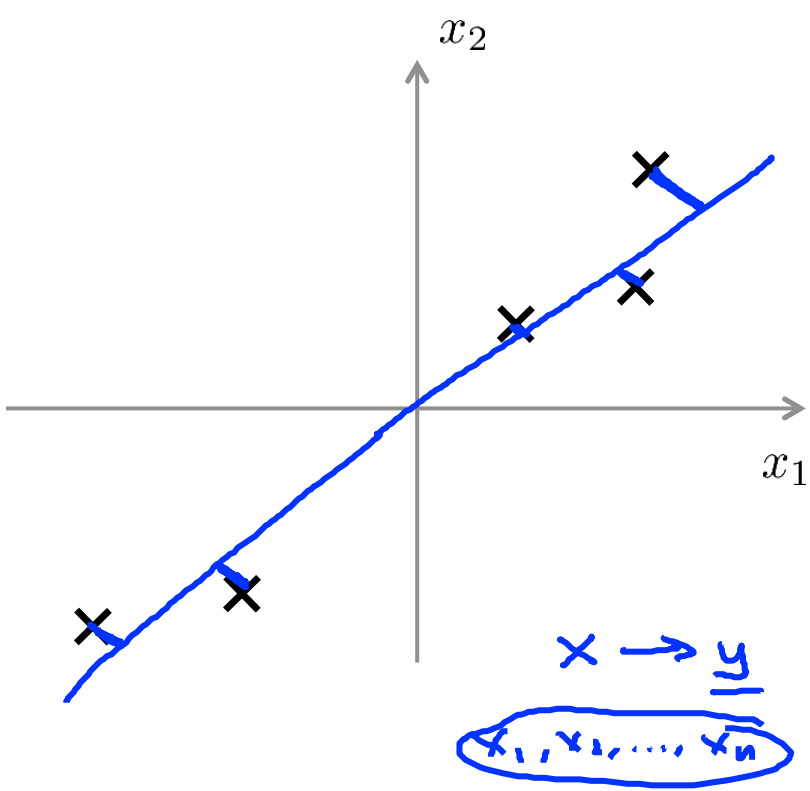


Reduce from 2-dimension to 1-dimension: Find a direction (a vector $u^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$) onto which to project the data so as to minimize the projection error.

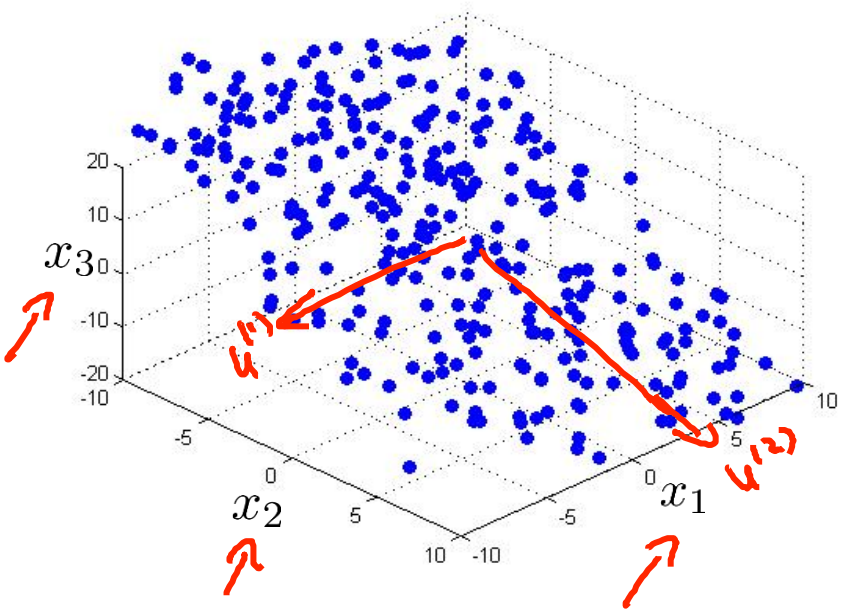
Reduce from n-dimension to k-dimension: Find k vectors $u^{(1)}, u^{(2)}, \ldots, u^{(k)}$ onto which to project the data, so as to minimize the projection error.

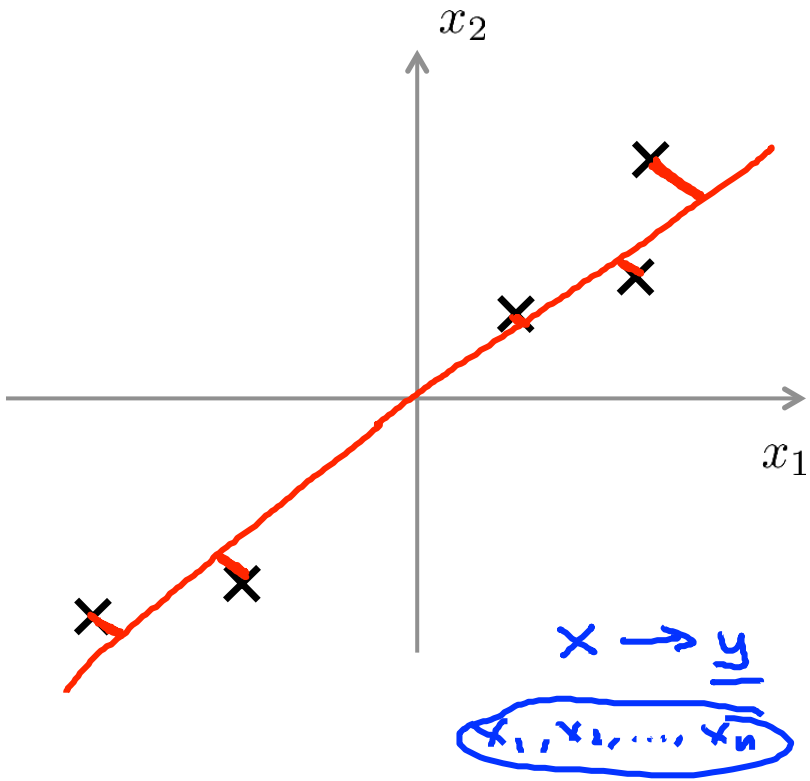
PCA is not linear regression

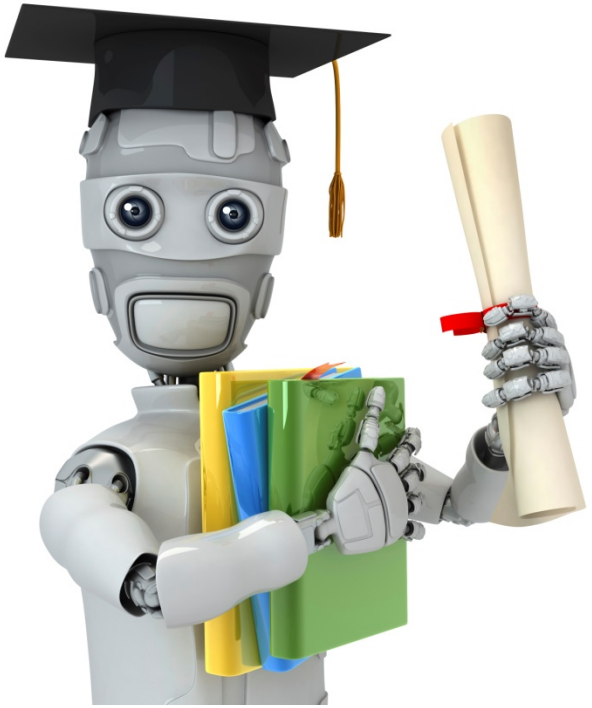




PCA is not linear regression







Machine Learning

Dimensionality Reduction

Principal Component Analysis algorithm

Data preprocessing

Training set: $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots, x^{(m)}$

Preprocessing (feature scaling/mean normalization):

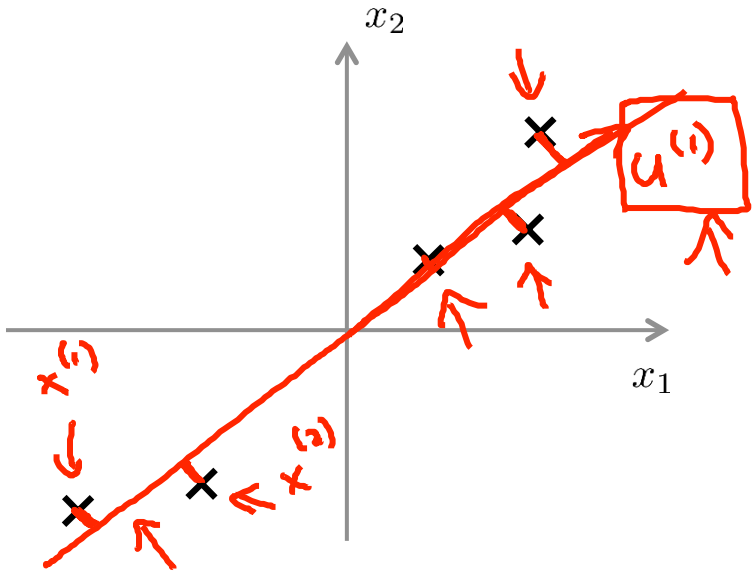
$$\mu_j = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_j^{(i)}$$

Replace each $x_j^{(i)}$ with $x_j - \mu_j$.

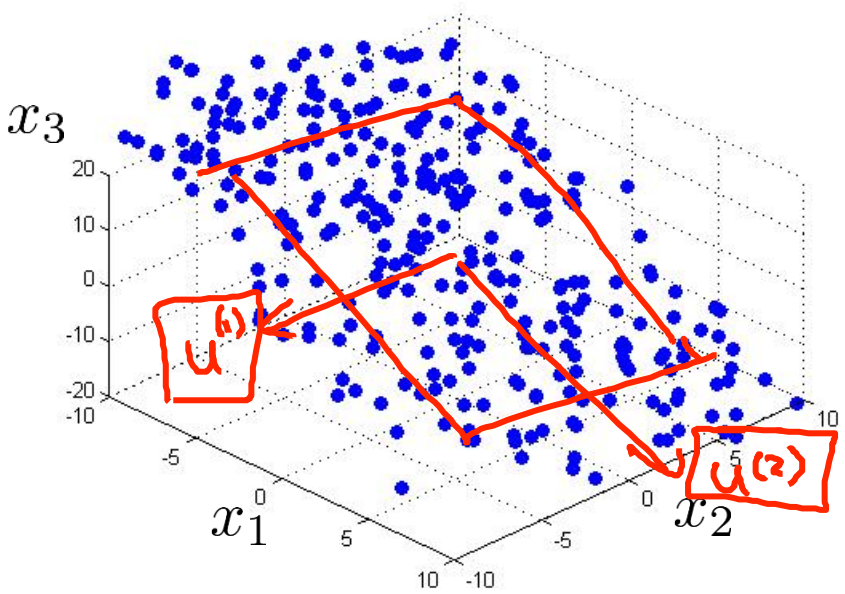
If different features on different scales (e.g., $x_1 =$ size of house, $x_2 =$ number of bedrooms), scale features to have comparable range of values.

$$x_j^{(i)} \leftarrow \frac{x_j^{(i)} - \mu_j}{s_j}$$

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) algorithm



Reduce data from 2D to 1D



Reduce data from 3D to 2D

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) algorithm

Reduce data from n-dimensions to k-dimensions

Compute "covariance matrix":

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x^{(i)})(x^{(i)})^T$$

$n \times 1$ $\quad$ $1 \times n$ $\quad$ $n \times n$

Sigma

Compute "eigenvectors" of matrix Σ:

```
[U,S,V] = svd(Sigma);
```

→ Singular value decomposition

eig (Sigma)

$n \times n$ matrix

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | & & | \\ u^{(1)} & u^{(2)} & u^{(3)} & \cdots & u^{(n)} \\ | & | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$

k

$U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

$u^{(1)}, \ldots, u^{(k)}$

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) algorithm

From `[U,S,V] = svd(Sigma)`, we get:

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ u^{(1)} & u^{(2)} & \cdots & u^{(n)} \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

k

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow z \in \mathbb{R}^k$

$$z^{(i)} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ u^{(1)} & u^{(2)} & \cdots & u^{(k)} \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}^T x^{(i)} = \begin{bmatrix} — (u^{(1)})^T — \\ \vdots \\ — (u^{(k)})^T — \end{bmatrix} x^{(i)}$$

$z \in \mathbb{R}^k$; $n \times k$; $k \times n$; $n \times 1$; $k \times 1$

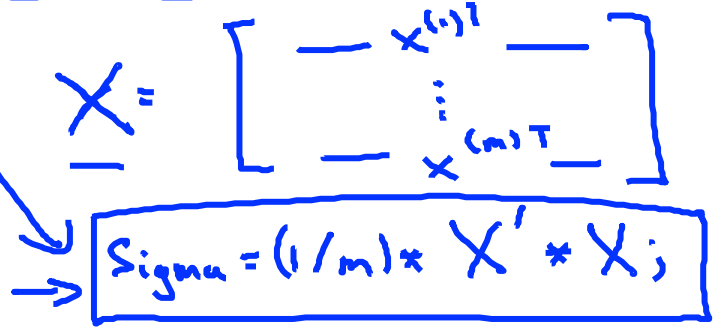
U_{reduce}

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) algorithm summary

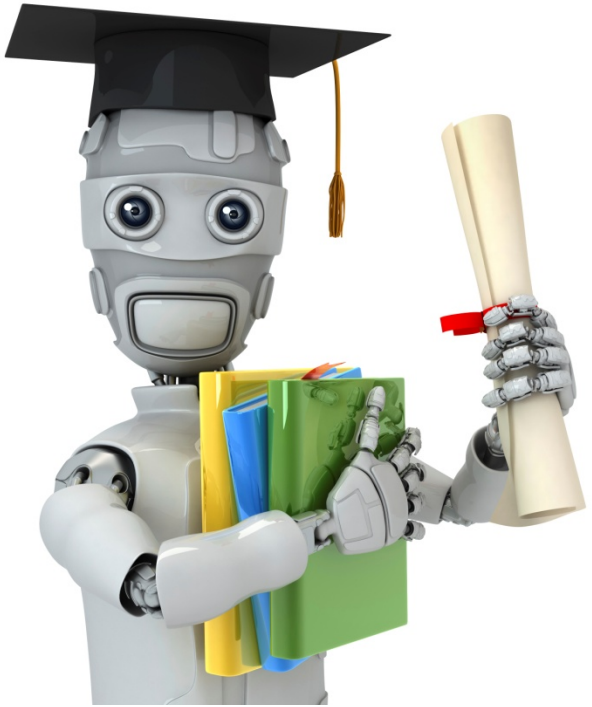
- After mean normalization (ensure every feature has zero mean) and optionally feature scaling:

$$\texttt{Sigma} = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(x^{(i)})(x^{(i)})^T$$

```
[U,S,V] = svd(Sigma);
Ureduce = U(:,1:k);
z = Ureduce'*x;
```



$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ $\quad x_0 = 1$

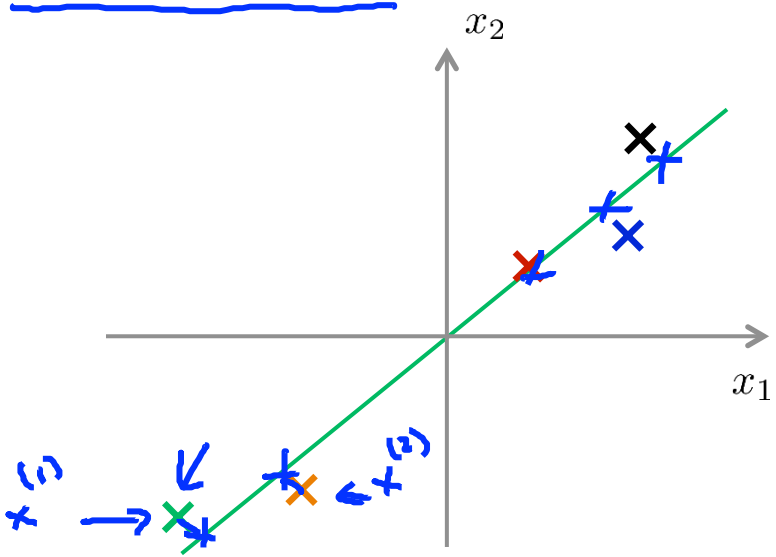


Machine Learning

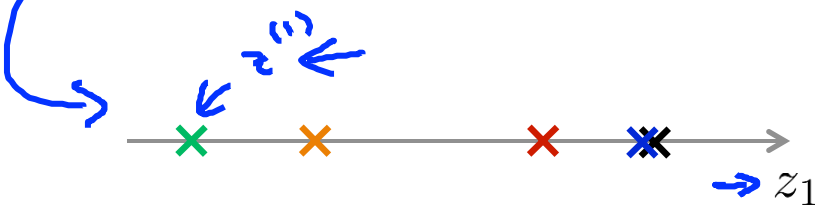
Dimensionality Reduction

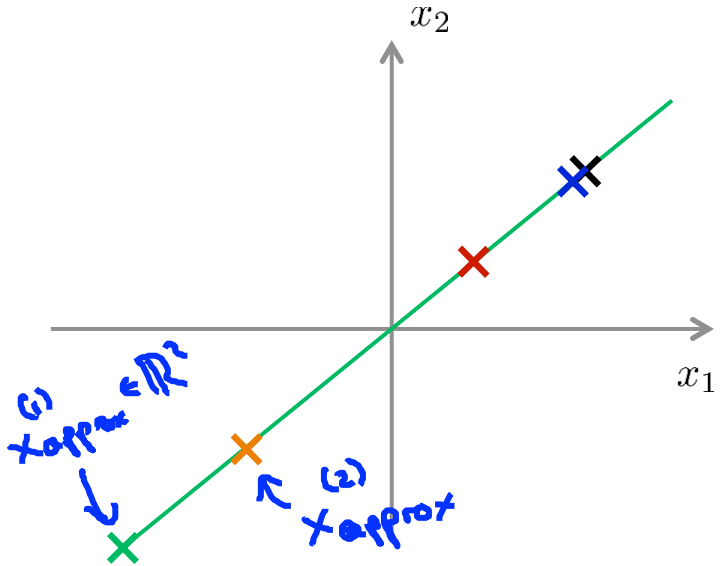
Reconstruction from compressed representation

Reconstruction from compressed representation



$$z = U_{reduce}^T x$$

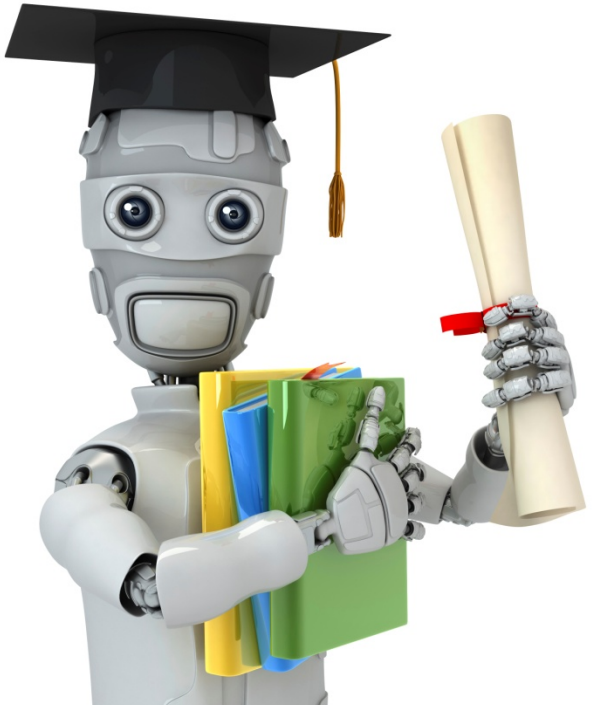




$z \in \mathbb{R} \rightarrow x \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$x_{approx}^{(1)} \approx x^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^n = U_{reduce} z^{(1)}$

U_{reduce}: $n \times k$; $z^{(1)}$: $k \times 1$; result: $n \times 1$



Machine Learning

Dimensionality Reduction

Choosing the number of principal components

Choosing k (number of principal components)

Average squared projection error: $\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} \|x^{(i)} - x_{approx}^{(i)}\|^2$

Total variation in the data: $\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} \|x^{(i)}\|^2$

Typically, choose k to be smallest value so that

$$\frac{\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} \|x^{(i)} - x_{approx}^{(i)}\|^2}{\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} \|x^{(i)}\|^2} \leq 0.01 \quad (1\%)$$

0.05 (5%)

0.10 (10%)

"99% of variance is retained"

95% 90%

Choosing k (number of principal components)

Algorithm:

Try PCA with ~~$k = 1$~~ $k = 2$, $k = 3$, $k = 4$, ...

Compute $U_{reduce}, z^{(1)}, z^{(2)}, \ldots, z^{(m)}, x^{(1)}_{approx}, \ldots, x^{(m)}_{approx}$

Check if

$$\frac{\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} \|x^{(i)} - x^{(i)}_{approx}\|^2}{\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} \|x^{(i)}\|^2} \leq 0.01?$$

$k = 17$

→ [U, S, V] = svd(Sigma)

→ S = $\begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & & & \\ & S_{22} & & \\ & & S_{33} & \\ & & & \ddots \\ & & & & S_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$

For given k

$$\rightarrow 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} S_{ii}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} S_{ii}} \leq 0.01$$

k=3

$$\rightarrow \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} S_{ii}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} S_{ii}} \geq 0.99$$

Choosing k (number of principal components)

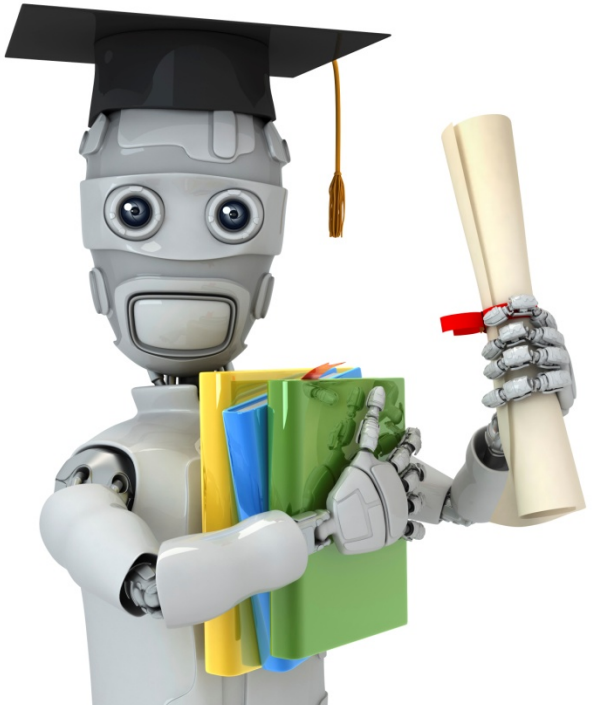
`[U,S,V] = svd(Sigma)`

Pick smallest value of k for which

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} S_{ii}}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} S_{ii}} \geq 0.99$$

(99% of variance retained)

k=100



Machine Learning

Dimensionality Reduction

Advice for applying PCA

Supervised learning speedup

$(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (x^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), \ldots, (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})$

Extract inputs:

Unlabeled dataset: $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots, x^{(m)} \in \mathbb{R}^{10000}$

$\downarrow PCA$

$z^{(1)}, z^{(2)}, \ldots, z^{(m)} \in \mathbb{R}^{1000}$

New training set:

$(z^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (z^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), \ldots, (z^{(m)}, y^{(m)})$

Note: Mapping $x^{(i)} \rightarrow z^{(i)}$ should be defined by running PCA only on the training set. This mapping can be applied as well to the examples $x^{(i)}_{cv}$ and $x^{(i)}_{test}$ in the cross validation and test sets.

Application of PCA

- Compression
  - Reduce memory/disk needed to store data
  - Speed up learning algorithm ←

Choose k by % of variance retain

- Visualization

$k = 2$ or $k = 3$

Bad use of PCA: To prevent overfitting

Use $z^{(i)}$ instead of $x^{(i)}$ to reduce the number of features to $k < n$.

Thus, fewer features, less likely to overfit.

Bad!

This might work OK, but isn't a good way to address overfitting. Use regularization instead.

$$\min_\theta \frac{1}{2m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2m}\sum_{j=1}^{n}\theta_j^2$$

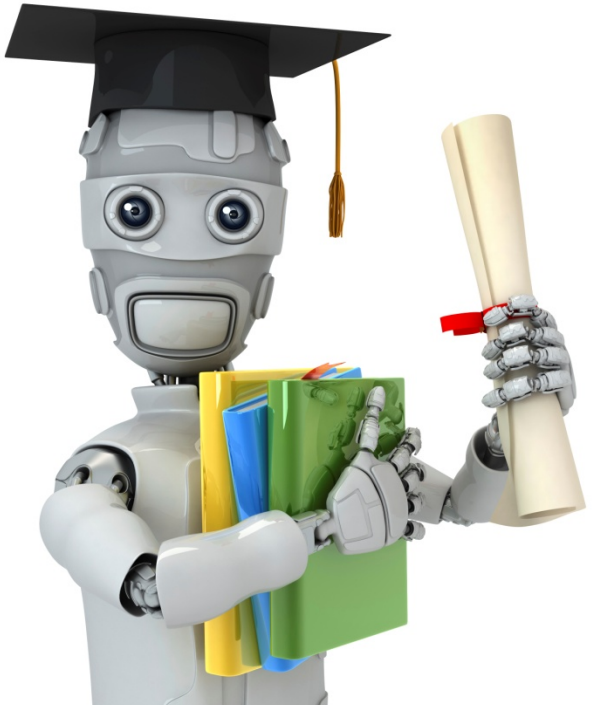
PCA is sometimes used where it shouldn't be

Design of ML system:

- Get training set $\{(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (x^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), \ldots, (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})\}$
- ~~Run PCA to reduce $x^{(i)}$ in dimension to get $z^{(i)}$~~
- Train logistic regression on $\{(z^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \ldots, (z^{(m)}, y^{(m)})\}$
- Test on test set: Map $x^{(i)}_{test}$ to $z^{(i)}_{test}$. Run $h_\theta(z)$ on $\{(z^{(1)}_{test}, y^{(1)}_{test}), \ldots, (z^{(m)}_{test}, y^{(m)}_{test})\}$

How about doing the whole thing without using PCA?

Before implementing PCA, first try running whatever you want to do with the original/raw data $x^{(i)}$. Only if that doesn't do what you want, then implement PCA and consider using $z^{(i)}$.



Machine Learning

Anomaly detection

Problem motivation

Anomaly detection example

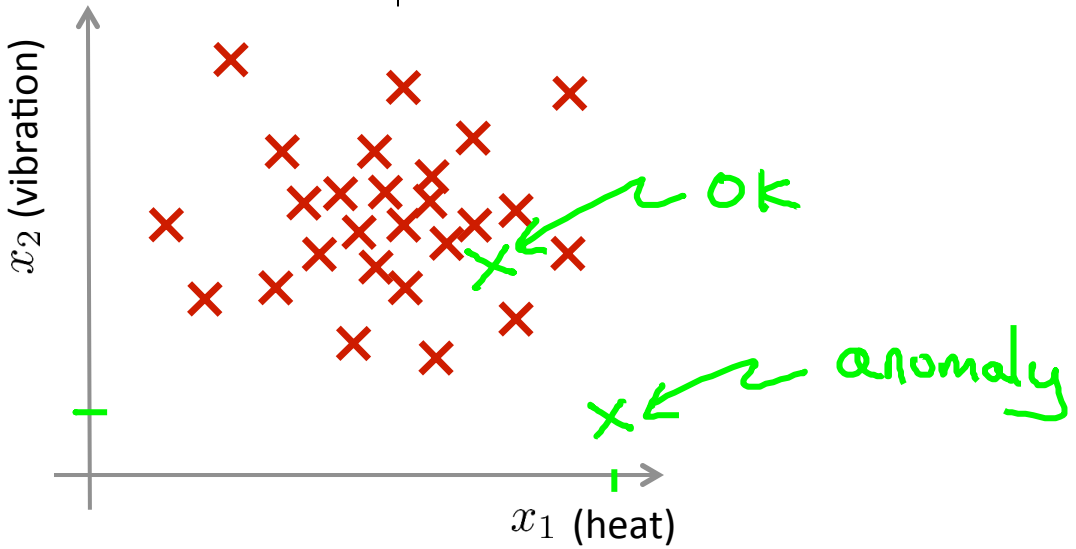
Aircraft engine features:

- x_1 = heat generated
- x_2 = vibration intensity

...

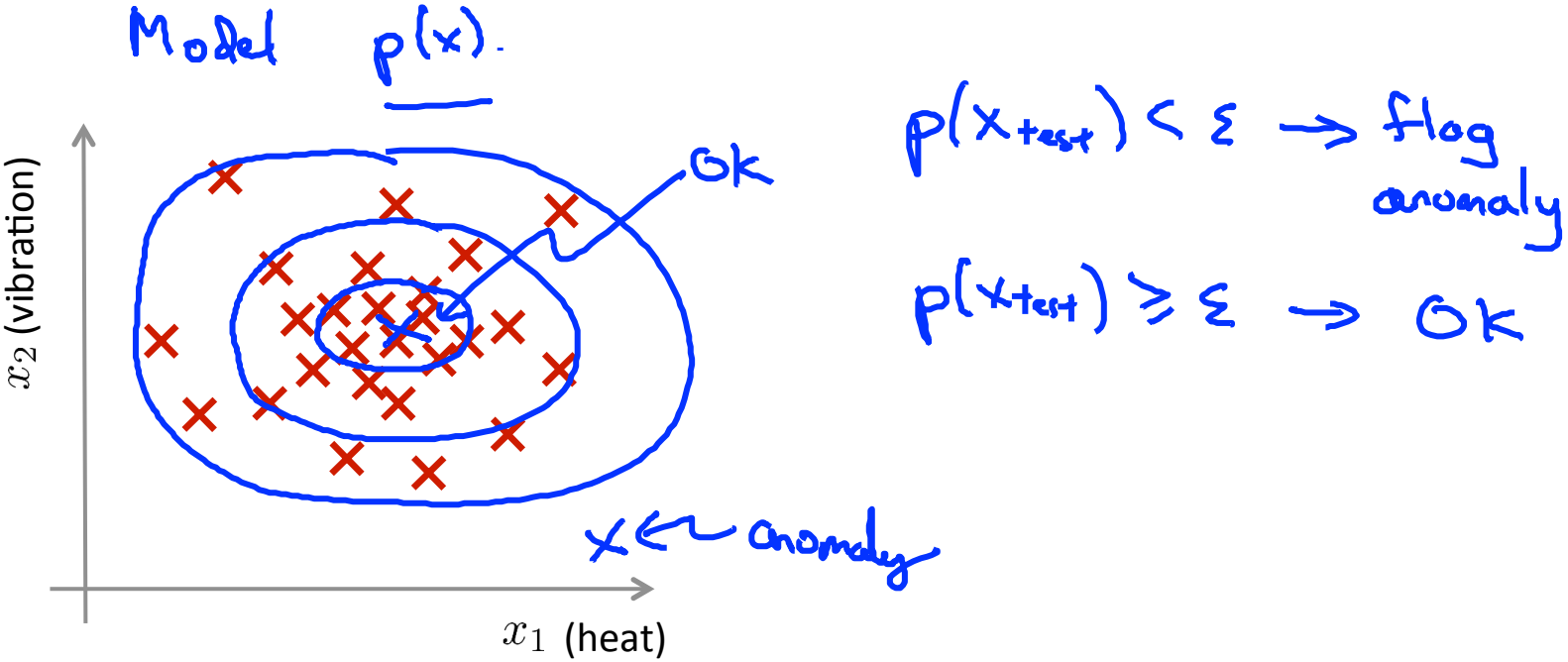
Dataset: $\{x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots, x^{(m)}\}$

New engine: x_{test}



Density estimation

- Dataset: $\{x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots, x^{(m)}\}$
- Is x_{test} anomalous?



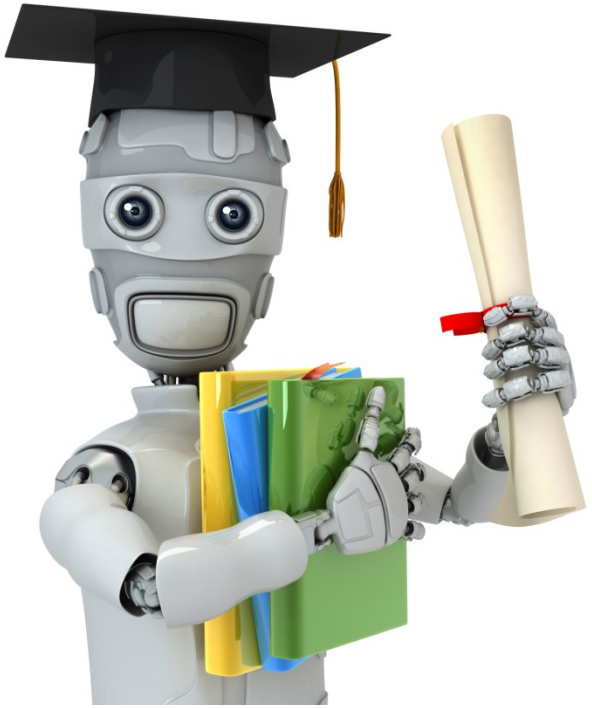
Anomaly detection example

- Fraud detection:
  - $x^{(i)}$ = features of user i's activities
  - Model $p(x)$ from data.
  - Identify unusual users by checking which have $p(x) < \varepsilon$
- Manufacturing
- Monitoring computers in a data center.
  - $x^{(i)}$ = features of machine i

    x_1 = memory use, x_2 = number of disk accesses/sec,

    x_3 = CPU load, x_4 = CPU load/network traffic.

    …



Machine Learning

Anomaly detection

Gaussian distribution

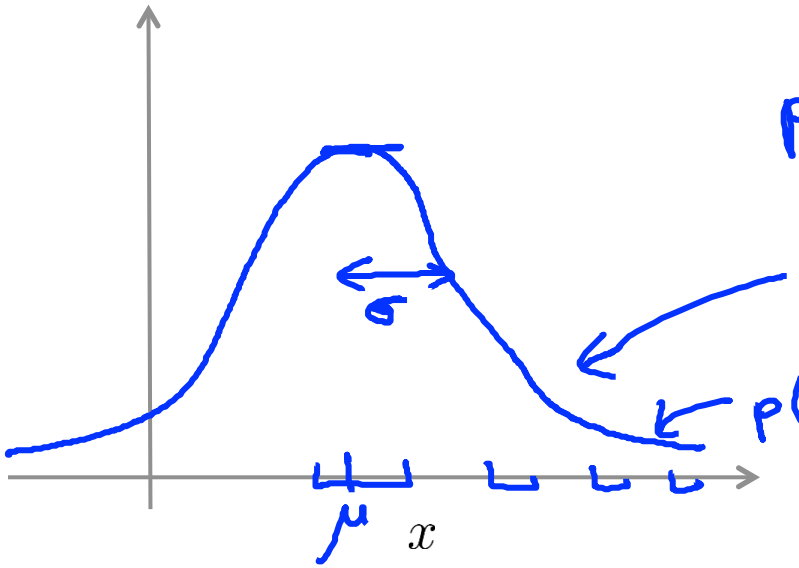
Gaussian (Normal) distribution

Say $x \in \mathbb{R}$. If x is a distributed Gaussian with mean μ, variance σ^2.

$x \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$

"distributed as"

σ standard deviation

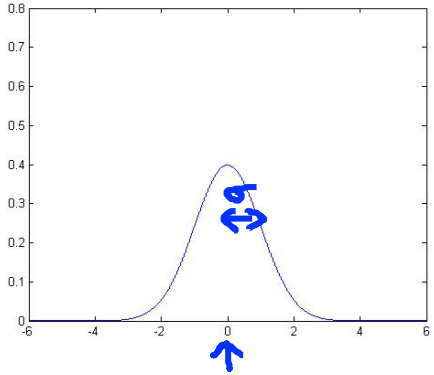


$$p(x; \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\,\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

$p(x; \mu, \sigma^2)$

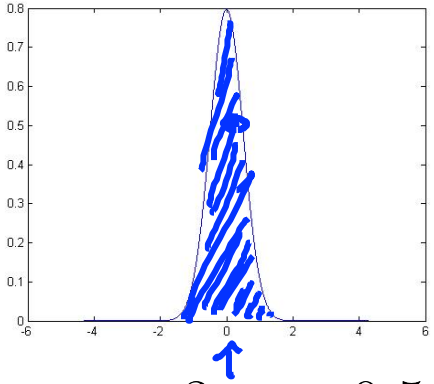
Gaussian distribution example

$\mu = 0, \sigma = 1$

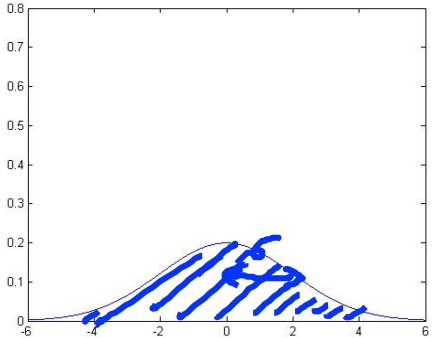


$\mu = 0, \sigma = 0.5$

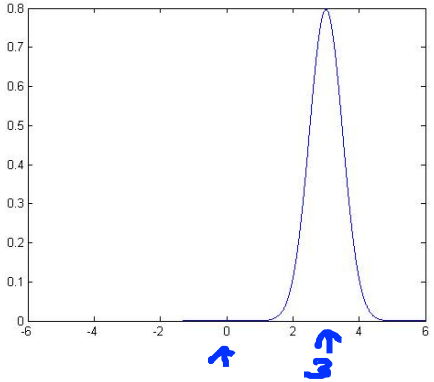
$\sigma^2 = 0.25$



$\mu = 0, \sigma = 2$

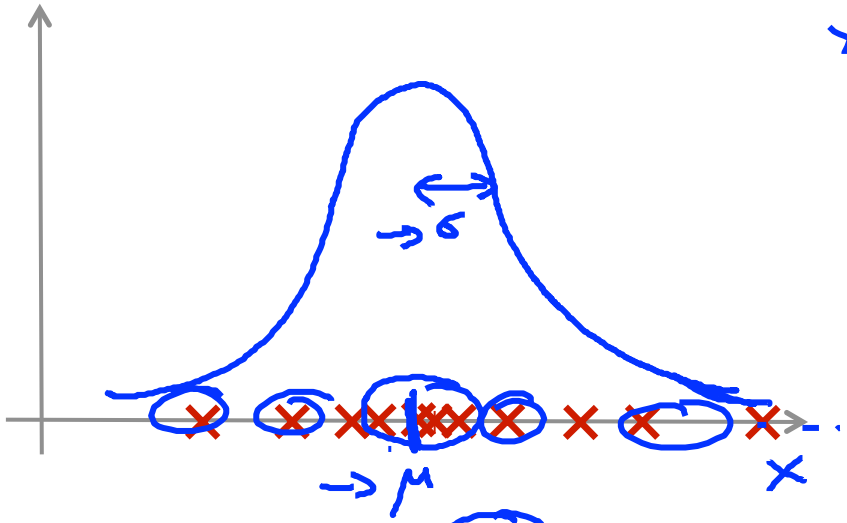


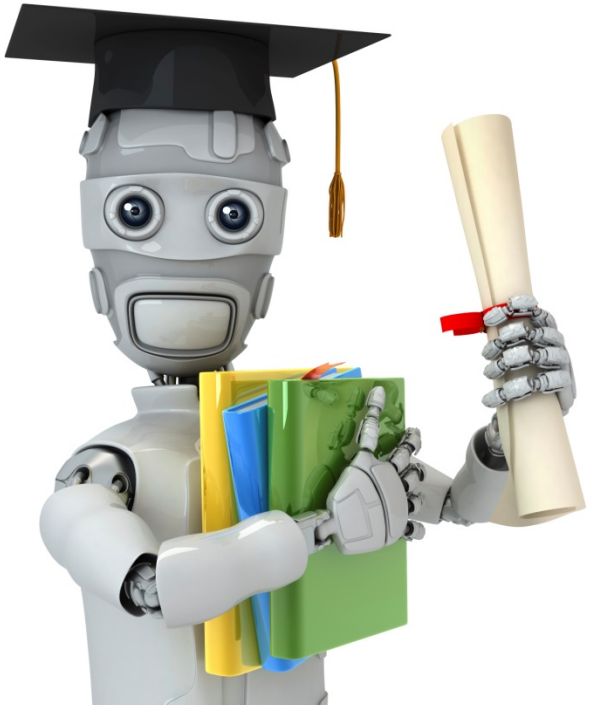
$\mu = 3, \sigma = 0.5$



Parameter estimation

- Dataset: $\{x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots, x^{(m)}\}$ $\quad x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}$





Machine Learning

Anomaly detection

Algorithm

Density estimation

Training set: $\{x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(m)}\}$

Each example is $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$x_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$

$x_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$

$x_3 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_3, \sigma_3^2)$

$p(x)$

$= p(x_1; \mu_1, \sigma_1^2)\, p(x_2; \mu_2, \sigma_2^2)\, p(x_3; \mu_3, \sigma_3^2) \cdots p(x_n; \mu_n, \sigma_n^2)$

$= \prod_{j=1}^{n} p(x_j; \mu_j, \sigma_j^2)$

$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = 1+2+3+\cdots+n$

$\prod_{i=1}^{n} i = 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times \cdots \times n$

Anomaly detection algorithm

1. Choose features x_i that you think might be indicative of anomalous examples.
2. Fit parameters $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_n, \sigma_1^2, \ldots, \sigma_n^2$

$$\mu_j = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_j^{(i)}$$

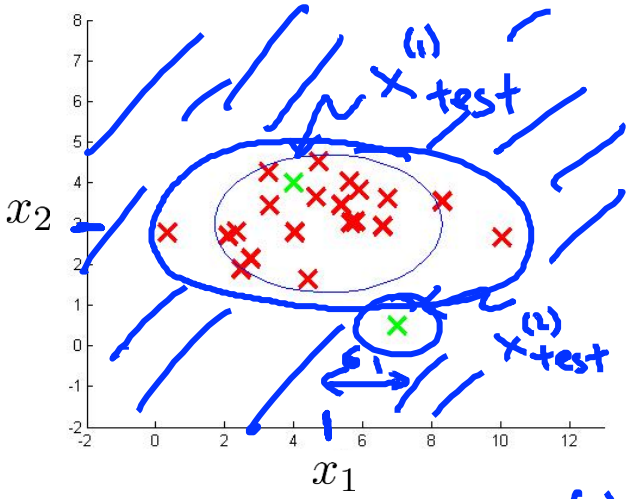
$$\sigma_j^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (x_j^{(i)} - \mu_j)^2$$

3. Given new example x, compute $p(x)$:

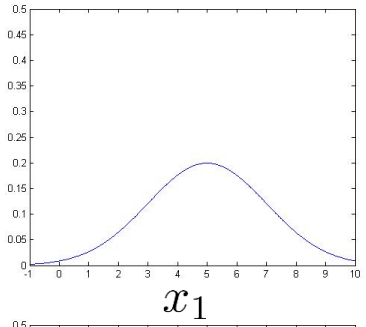
$$p(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} p(x_j; \mu_j, \sigma_j^2) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_j} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_j - \mu_j)^2}{2\sigma_j^2}\right)$$

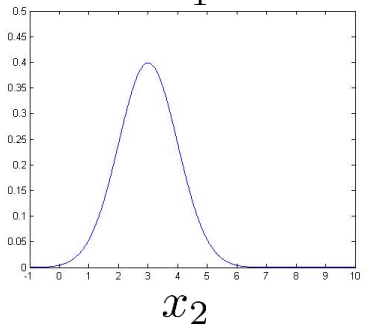
Anomaly if $p(x) < \varepsilon$

Anomaly detection example



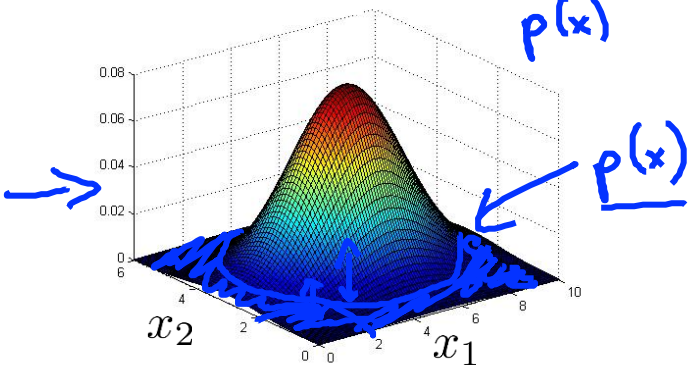
$$\mu_1 = 5, \sigma_1 = 2$$
$$\mu_2 = 3, \sigma_2 = 1$$



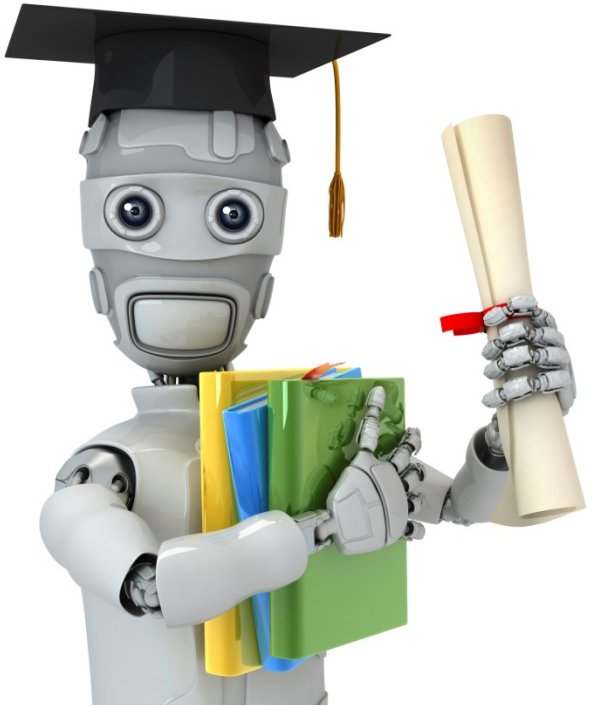


$p(x_1; \mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$

$p(x_2; \mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$



$$\varepsilon = 0.02$$
$$p(x_{test}^{(1)}) = 0.0426 \geq \varepsilon$$
$$p(x_{test}^{(2)}) = 0.0021 < \varepsilon$$



Machine Learning

Anomaly detection

Developing and evaluating an anomaly detection system

The importance of real-number evaluation

When developing a learning algorithm (choosing features, etc.), making decisions is much easier if we have a way of evaluating our learning algorithm.

- Assume we have some labeled data, of anomalous and non-anomalous examples. ($y = 0$ if normal, $y = 1$ if anomalous).
- Training set: $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots, x^{(m)}$ (assume normal examples/not anomalous)
- Cross validation set: $(x_{cv}^{(1)}, y_{cv}^{(1)}), \ldots, (x_{cv}^{(m_{cv})}, y_{cv}^{(m_{cv})})$
- Test set: $(x_{test}^{(1)}, y_{test}^{(1)}), \ldots, (x_{test}^{(m_{test})}, y_{test}^{(m_{test})})$

$y = 1$

Aircraft engines motivating example

10000 good (normal) engines

20 flawed engines (anomalous)

Training set: 6000 good engines ($y = 0$)

CV: 2000 good engines ($y = 0$), 10 anomalous ($y = 1$)

Test: 2000 good engines ($y = 0$), 10 anomalous ($y = 1$)

Alternative:

Training set: 6000 good engines

CV: 4000 good engines ($y = 0$), 10 anomalous ($y = 1$)

Test: 4000 good engines ($y = 0$), 10 anomalous ($y = 1$)

Algorithm evaluation

- Fit model $p(x)$ on training set $\{x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(m)}\}$
- On a cross validation/test example x, predict

$$y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p(x) < \varepsilon \text{ (anomaly)} \\ 0 & \text{if } p(x) \geq \varepsilon \text{ (normal)} \end{cases}$$

$(x^{(i)}_{test}, y^{(i)}_{test})$

$y = 0$

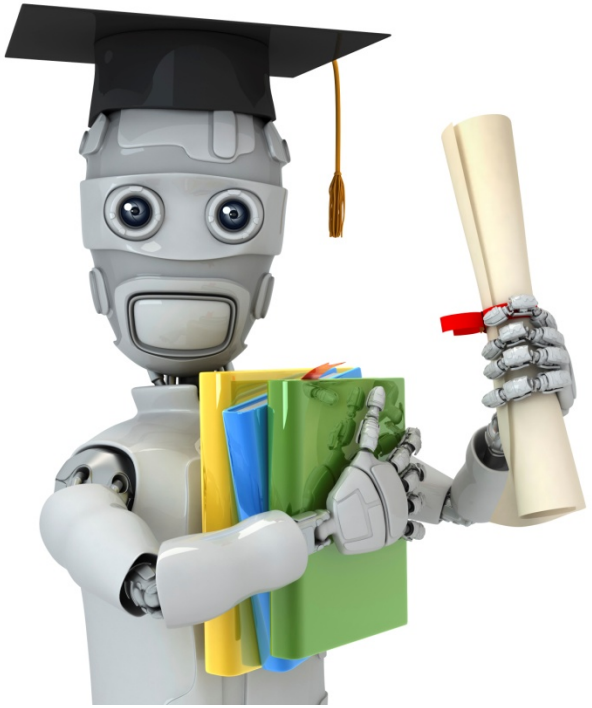
Possible evaluation metrics:

- - True positive, false positive, false negative, true negative
- - Precision/Recall
- - F_1-score

CV

Test set

Can also use cross validation set to choose parameter ε



Machine Learning

Anomaly detection

Anomaly detection vs. supervised learning

Anomaly detection vs. Supervised learning

- Very small number of positive examples ($y = 1$). (0-20 is common).
- Large number of negative ($y = 0$) examples. $p(x)$
- Many different "types" of anomalies. Hard for any algorithm to learn from positive examples what the anomalies look like; future anomalies may look nothing like any of the anomalous examples we've seen so far.

- Large number of positive and negative examples.
- Enough positive examples for algorithm to get a sense of what positive examples are like, future positive examples likely to be similar to ones in training set.

Spam

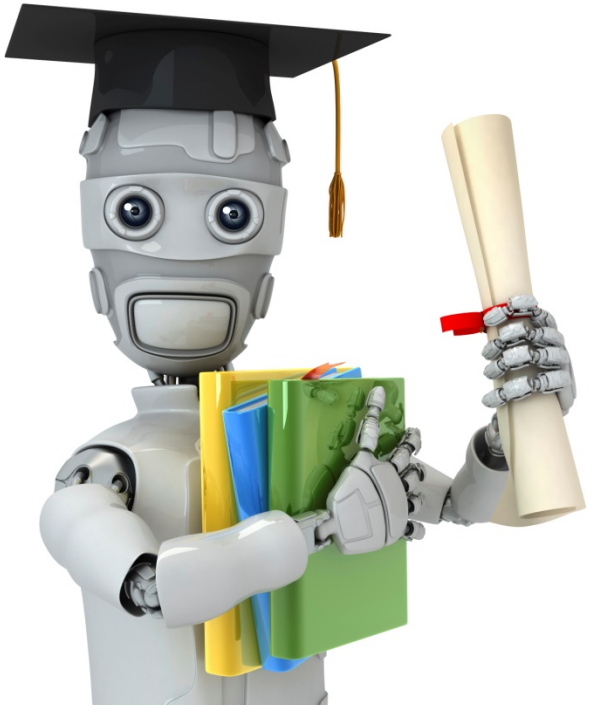
Anomaly detection vs. Supervised learning

- Fraud detection $y=1$
- Manufacturing (e.g. aircraft engines)
- Monitoring machines in a data center

⋮

- Email spam classification
- Weather prediction (sunny/ rainy/etc).
- Cancer classification

⋮

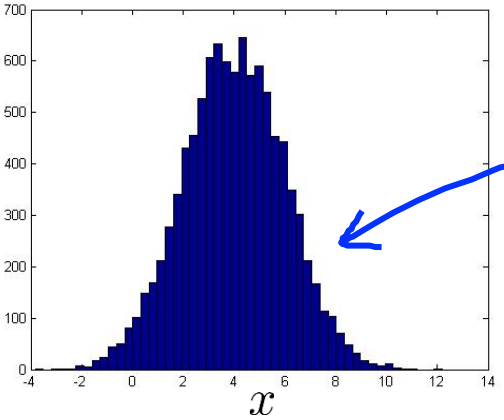


Machine Learning

Anomaly detection

Choosing what features to use

Non-gaussian features



hist

$p(x_i; \mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$

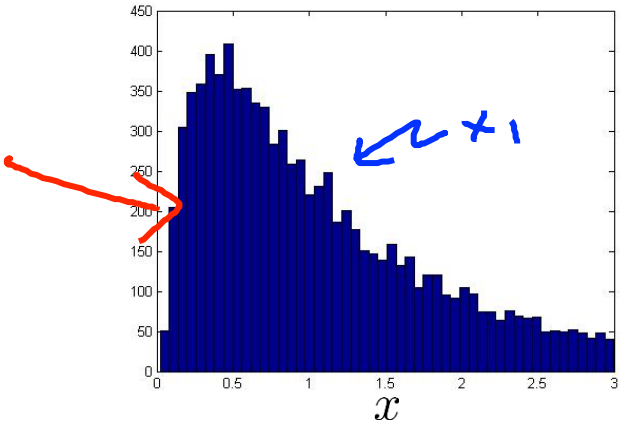
$x_1 \leftarrow \log(x_1)$

$x_2 \leftarrow \log(x_2+1)$

$\log(x_2+c)$

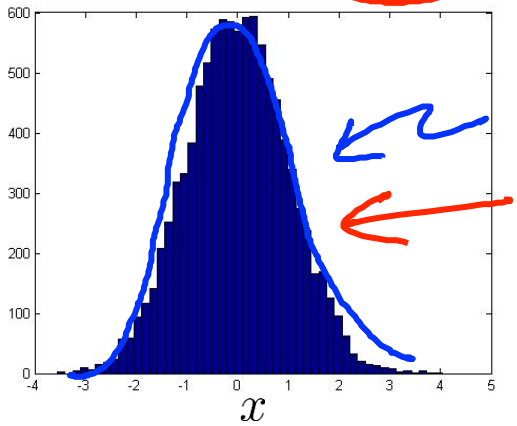
$x_3 \leftarrow x_3^{(\frac{1}{3})} = x_3^{(\frac{1}{n})}$

$x_4 \leftarrow x_4^{(\frac{1}{4})}$



x_1

$\log(x)$

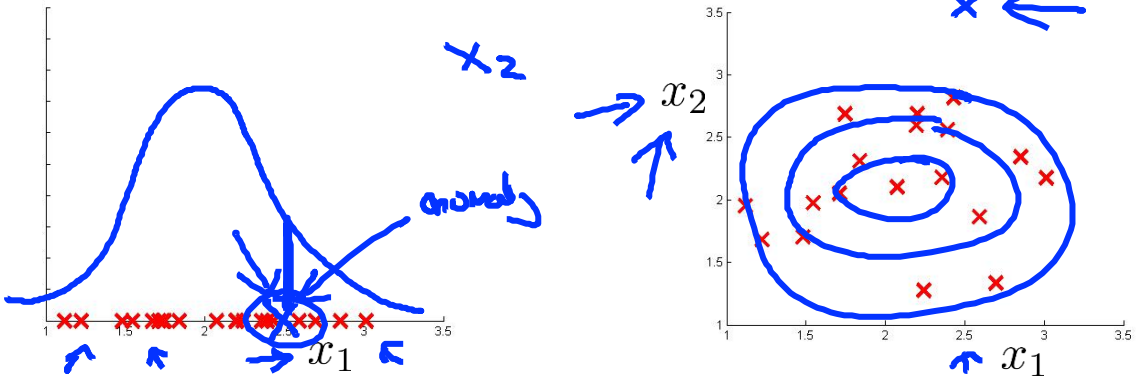


Error analysis for anomaly detection

Want $p(x)$ large for normal examples x.
$p(x)$ small for anomalous examples x.

Most common problem:

$p(x)$ is comparable (say, both large) for normal and anomalous examples



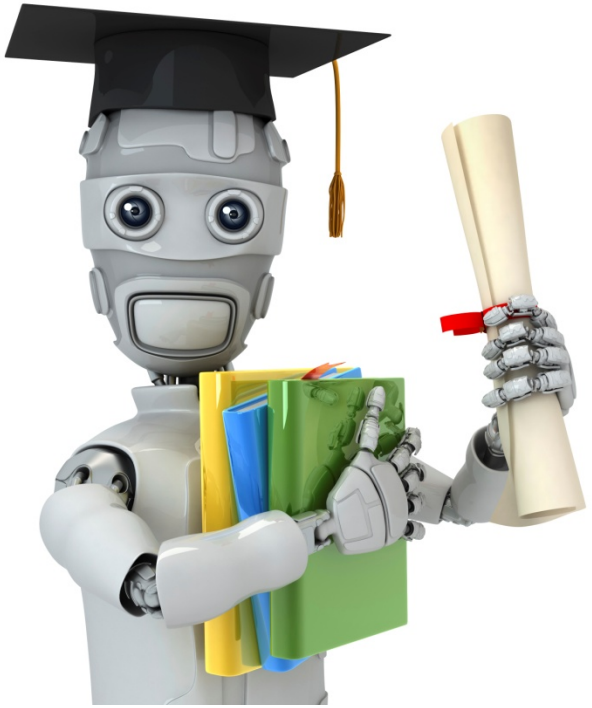
Monitoring computers in a data center

Choose features that might take on unusually large or small values in the event of an anomaly.

- x_1 = memory use of computer
- x_2 = number of disk accesses/sec
- x_3 = CPU load
- x_4 = network traffic

$$x_5 = \frac{\text{CPU load}}{\text{network traffic}}$$

$$x_6 = \frac{(\text{CPU load})^2}{\text{network traffic}}$$

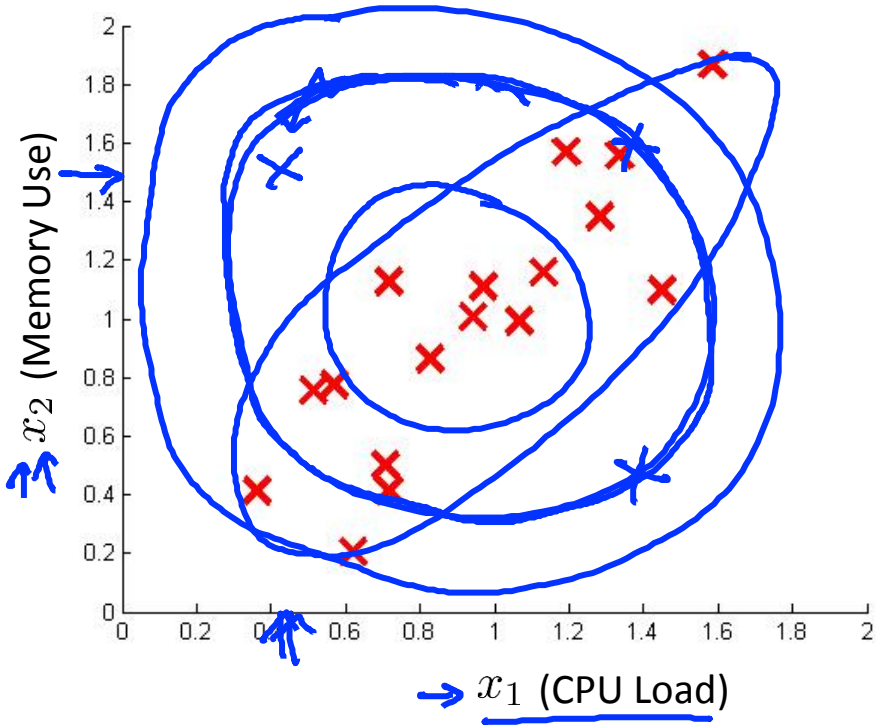


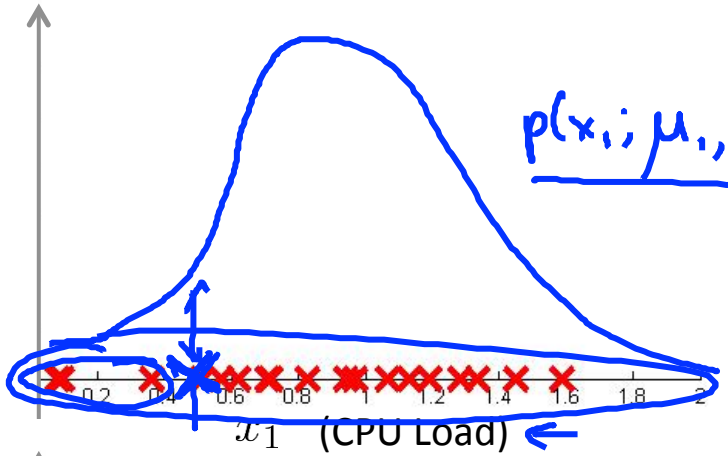
Machine Learning

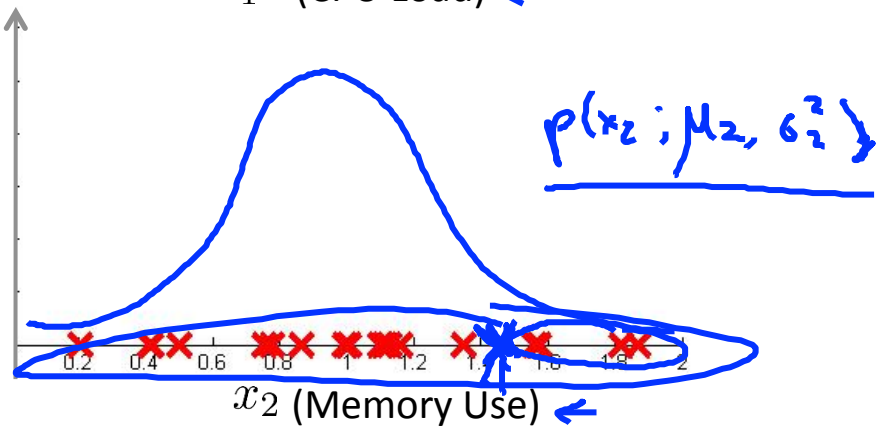
Anomaly detection

Multivariate Gaussian distribution

Motivating example: Monitoring machines in a data center







Multivariate Gaussian (Normal) distribution

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Don't model $p(x_1), p(x_2), \ldots$, etc. separately.

Model $p(x)$ all in one go.

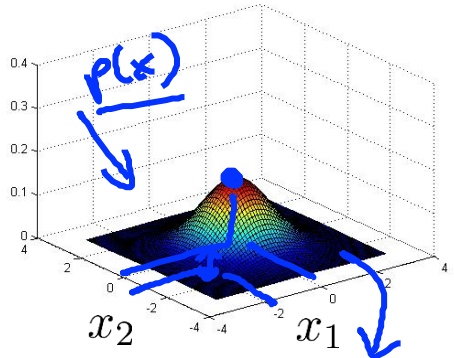
Parameters: $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ (covariance matrix)

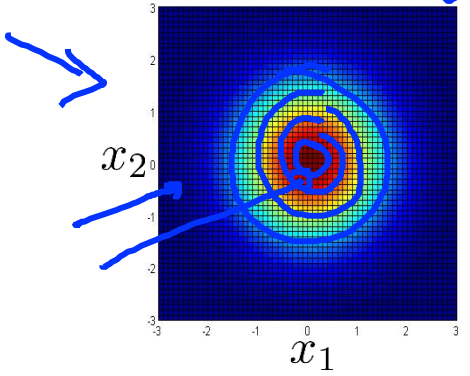
$$p(x; \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)\right)$$

$|\Sigma|$ = determinant of Σ | det (Sigma)

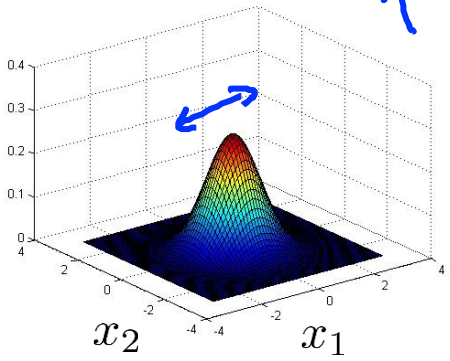
Multivariate Gaussian (Normal) examples

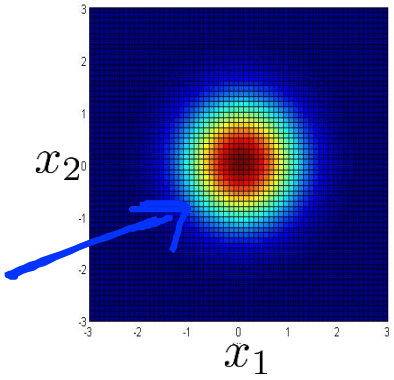
$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



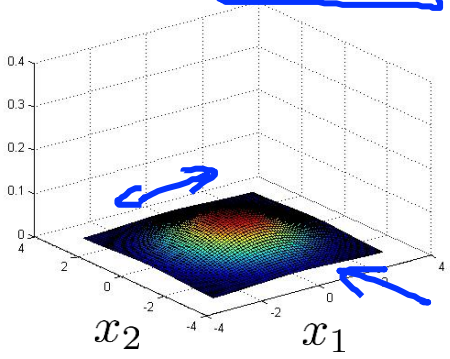


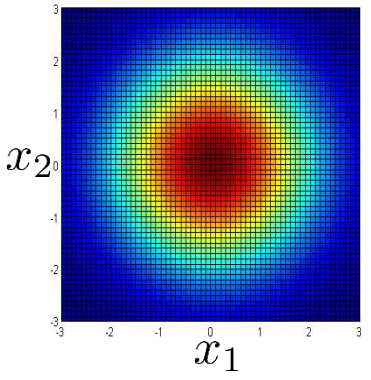
$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.6 \end{bmatrix}$$





$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$





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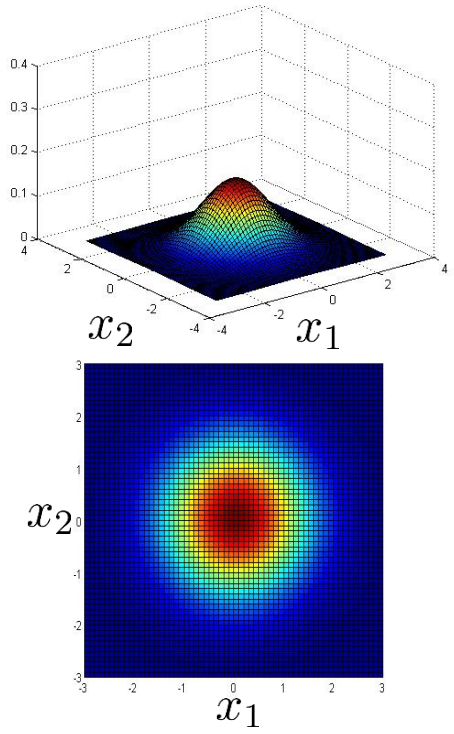
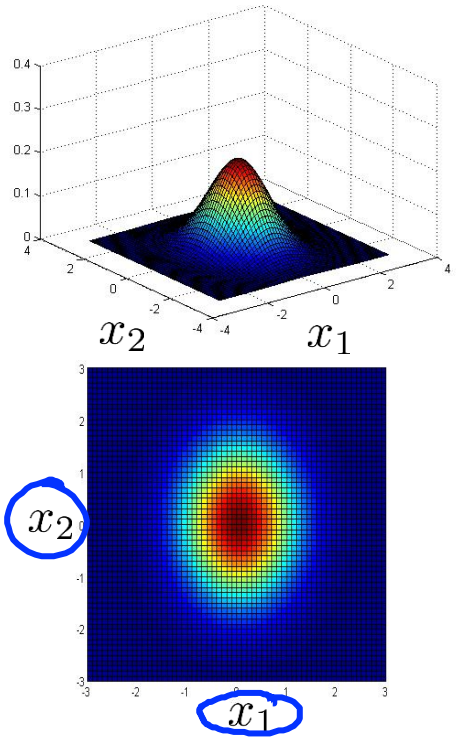
Multivariate Gaussian (Normal) examples

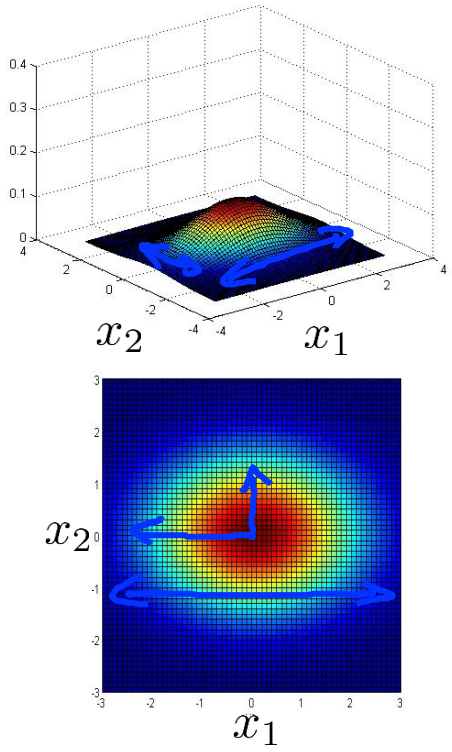
$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Multivariate Gaussian (Normal) examples

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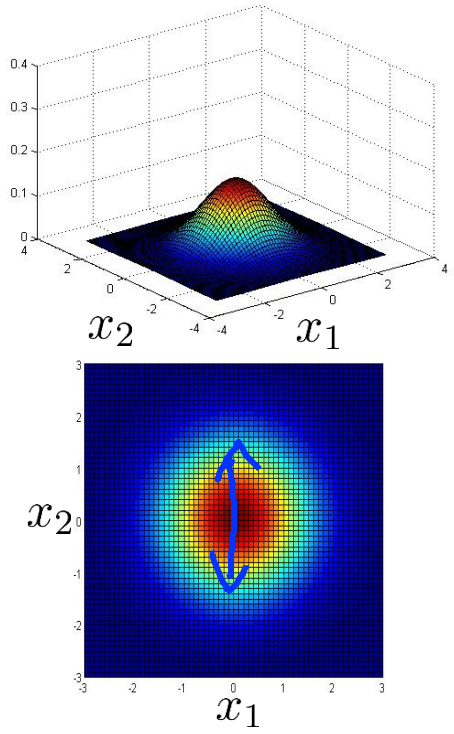
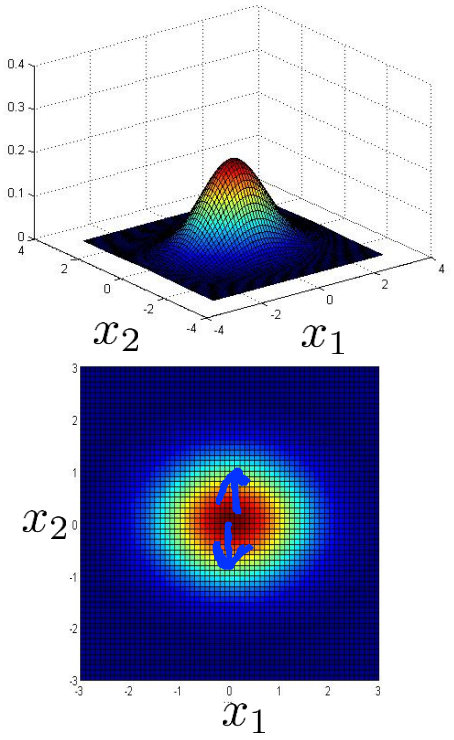
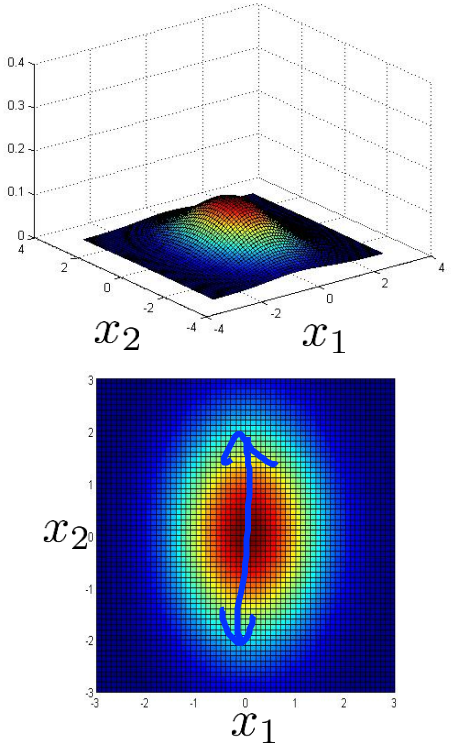


$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.6 \end{bmatrix}$$

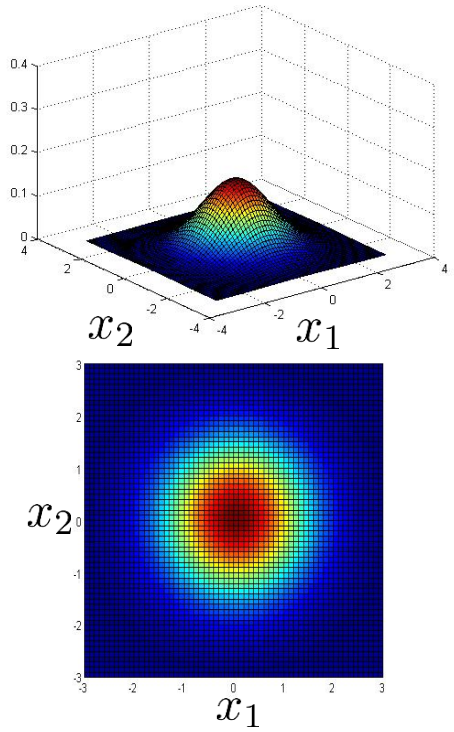


$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

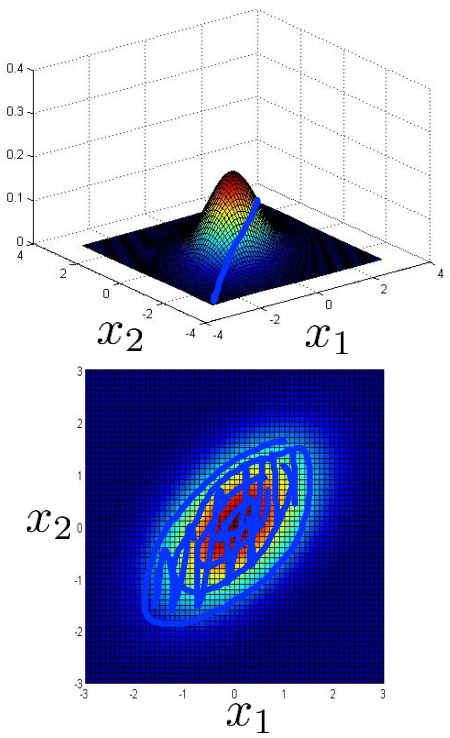


Multivariate Gaussian (Normal) examples

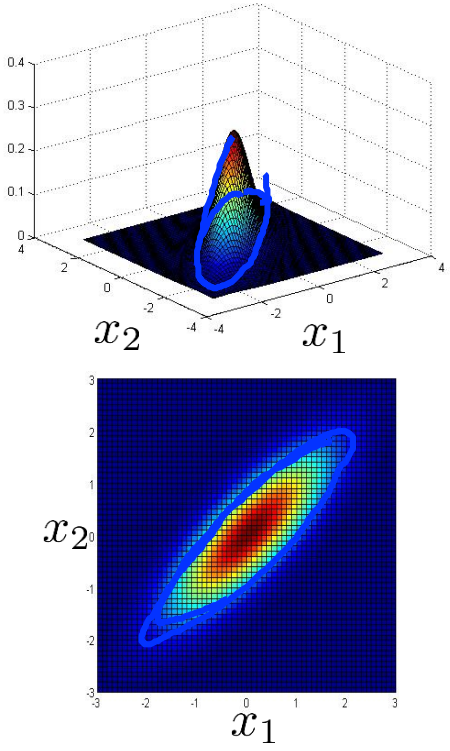
$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

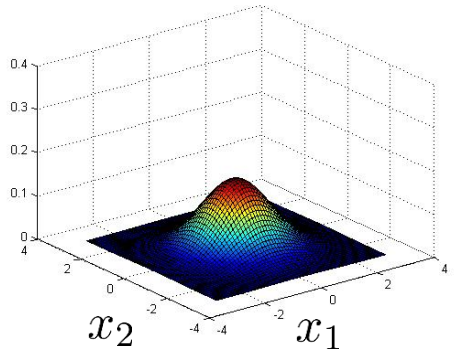


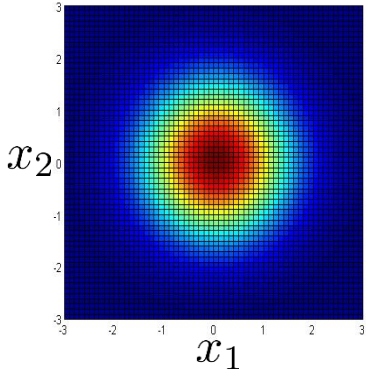
$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.8 \\ 0.8 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



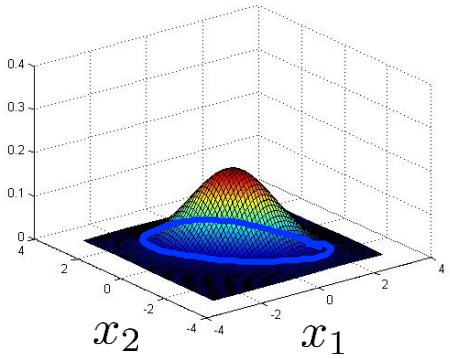
Multivariate Gaussian (Normal) examples

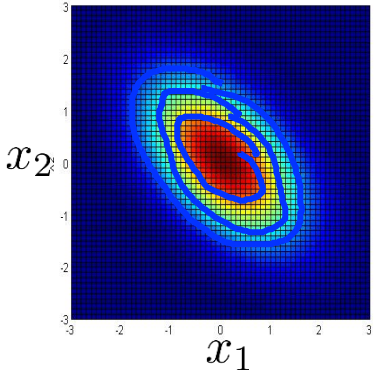
$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



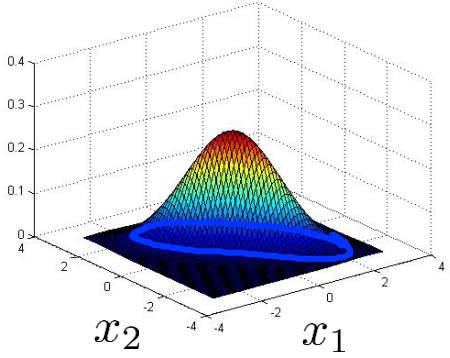


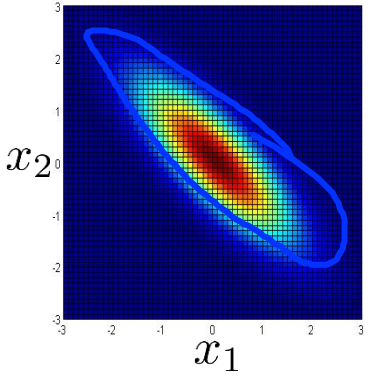
$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -0.5 \\ -0.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$





$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -0.8 \\ -0.8 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$





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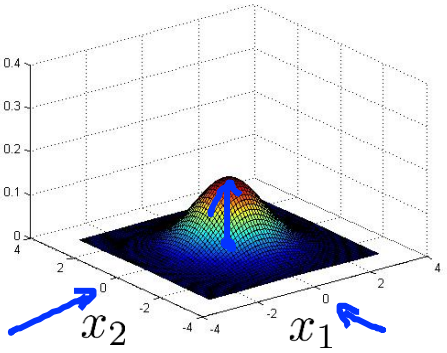
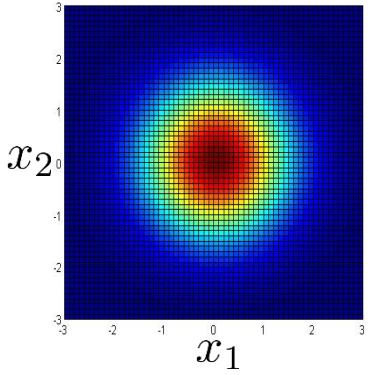
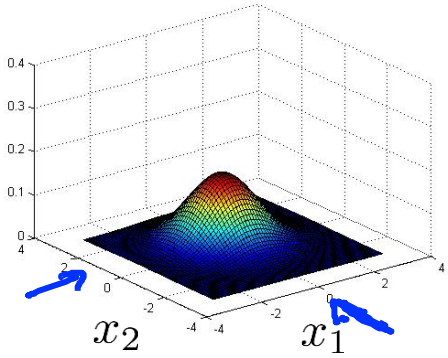
Multivariate Gaussian (Normal) examples

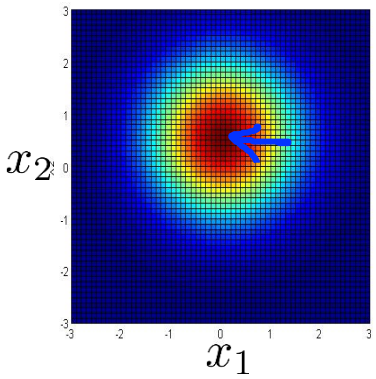
$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



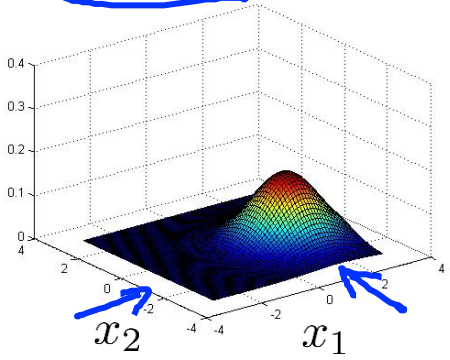


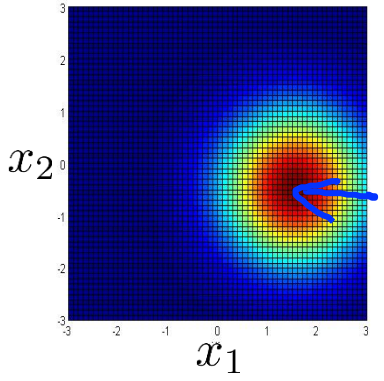
$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix} \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$





$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 1.5 \\ -0.5 \end{bmatrix} \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$





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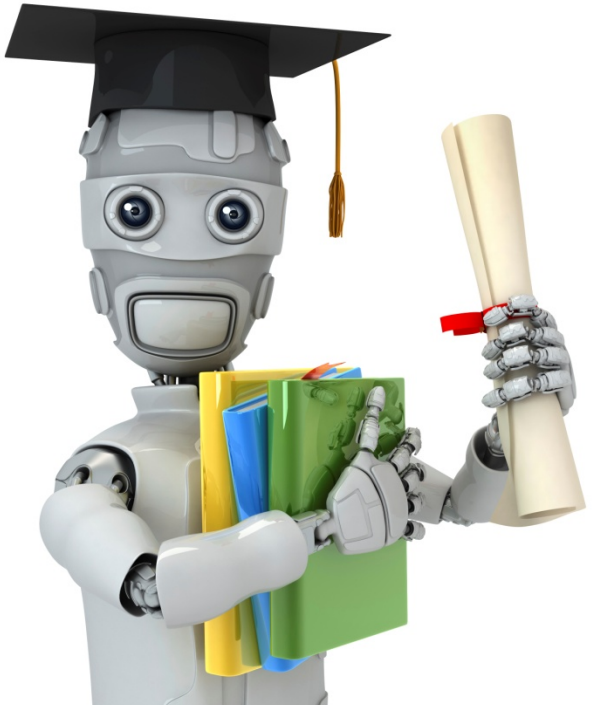


Machine Learning

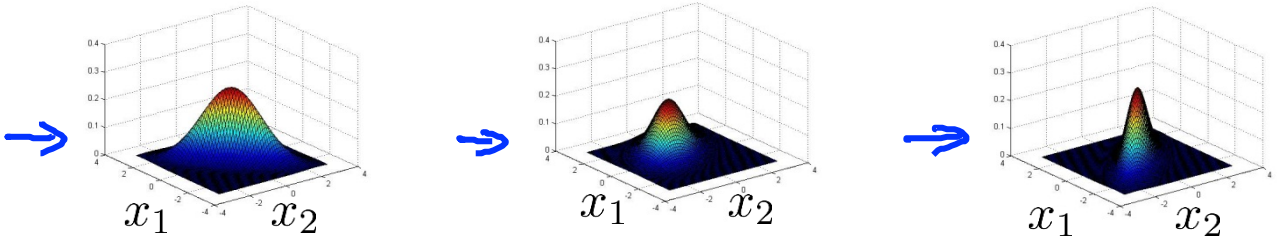
Anomaly detection

Anomaly detection using the multivariate Gaussian distribution

Multivariate Gaussian (Normal) distribution

Parameters μ, Σ $\quad \mu \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

$$p(x; \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{n}{2}} |\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)\right)$$



Parameter fitting:

Given training set $\{x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots, x^{(m)}\}$ $\quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

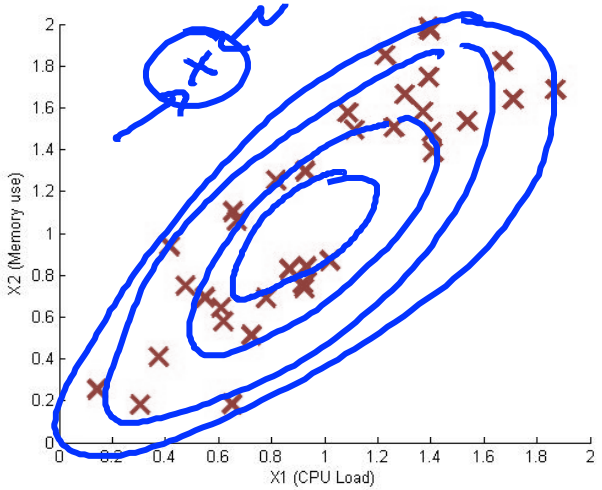
$$\mu = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} x^{(i)} \qquad \Sigma = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (x^{(i)} - \mu)(x^{(i)} - \mu)^T$$

Anomaly detection with the multivariate Gaussian

1. Fit model $p(x)$ by setting

$$\mu = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} x^{(i)}$$

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(x^{(i)} - \mu)(x^{(i)} - \mu)^T$$



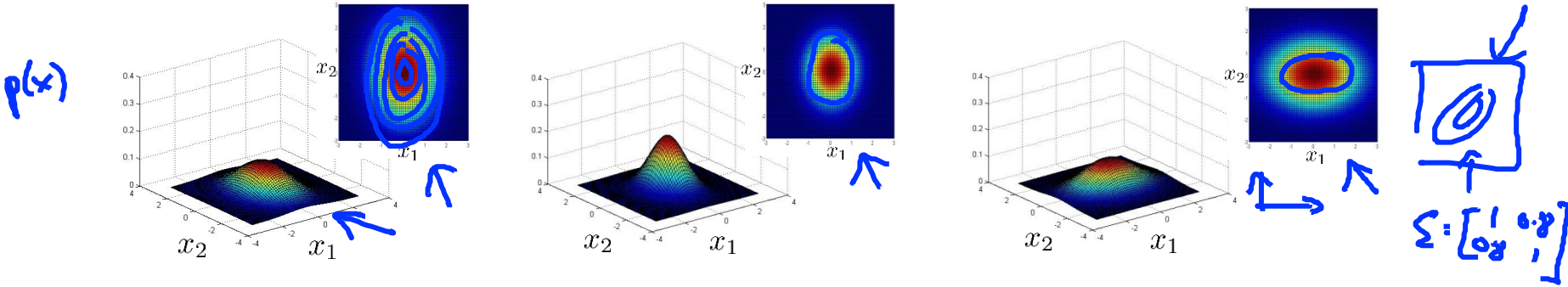
2. Given a new example x, compute

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{n}{2}}|\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T\Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)\right)$$

Flag an anomaly if $p(x) < \varepsilon$

Relationship to original model

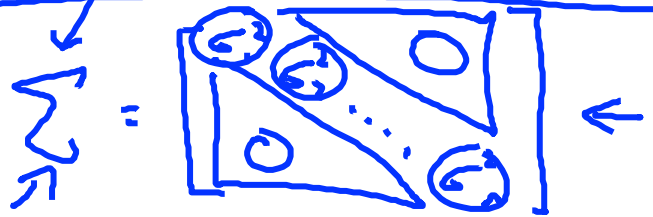
Original model: $p(x) = p(x_1; \mu_1, \sigma_1^2) \times p(x_2; \mu_2, \sigma_2^2) \times \cdots \times p(x_n; \mu_n, \sigma_n^2)$



Corresponds to multivariate Gaussian

$$p(x; \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{n}{2}} |\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)\right)$$

where $\Sigma =$



Original model

$$p(x_1; \mu_1, \sigma_1^2) \times \cdots \times p(x_n; \mu_n, \sigma_n^2)$$

Manually create features to capture anomalies where x_1, x_2 take unusual combinations of values.

$x_3 = \frac{x_1}{x_2} = \frac{\text{CPU load}}{\text{memory}}$

Computationally cheaper (alternatively, scales better to large n)

$n = 10{,}000$, $n = 100{,}000$

OK even if m (training set size) is small

vs.

Multivariate Gaussian

$$p(x; \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{n}{2}} |\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)\right)$$

Automatically captures correlations between features

$\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ Σ^{-1}

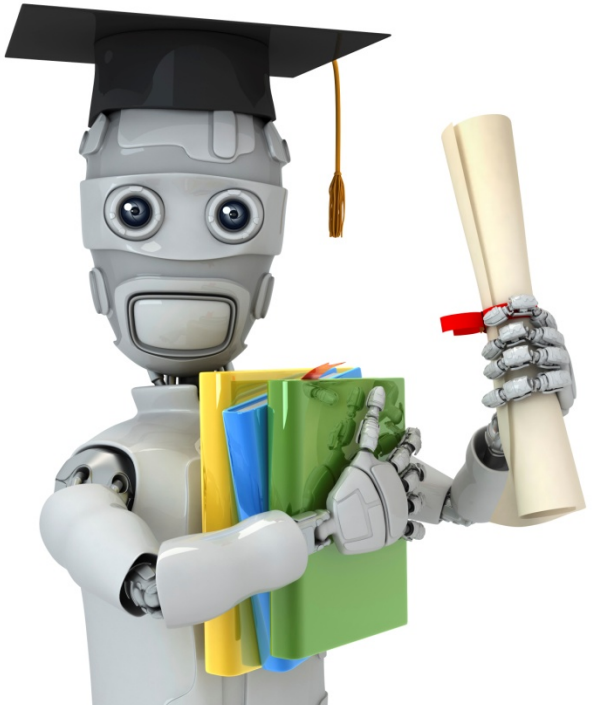
Computationally more expensive

Σ $n^2/2$

$x_1 = x_4 + x_5$

Must have $m > n$, or else Σ is non-invertible.

$m \geq 10n$



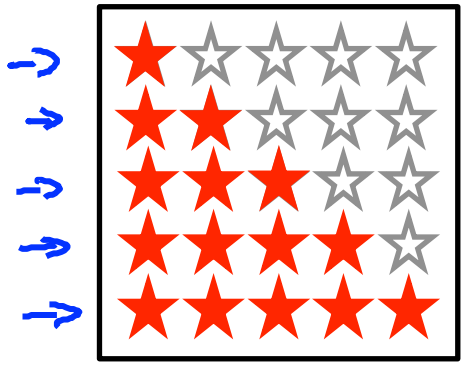
Machine Learning

Recommender Systems

Problem formulation

Example: Predicting movie ratings

- User rates movies using ~~one~~ zero to five stars



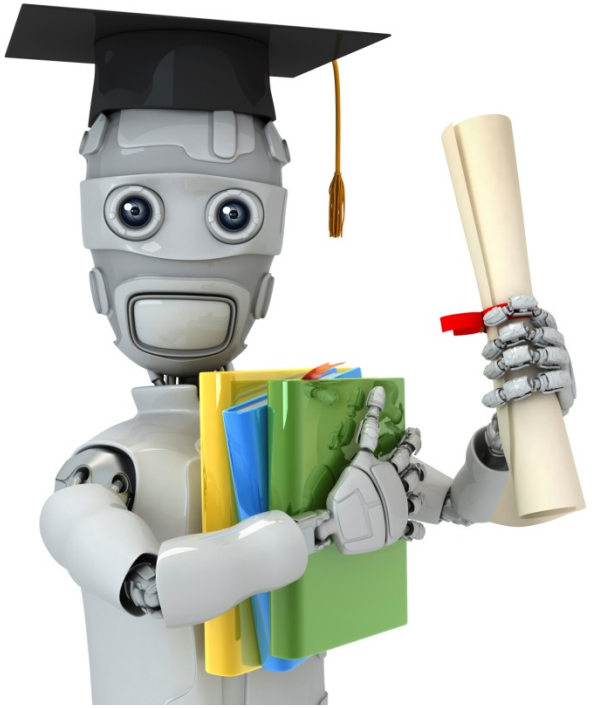
Movie	Alice (1)	Bob (2)	Carol (3)	Dave (4)
Love at last	5	5	0	0
Romance forever	5	?	?	0
Cute puppies of love	?	4	0	?
Nonstop car chases	0	0	5	4
Swords vs. karate	0	0	5	?

4.5

$n_u = 4$ $n_m = 5$

- n_u = no. users
- n_m = no. movies
- $r(i,j)$ = 1 if user j has rated movie i
- $y^{(i,j)}$ = rating given by user j to movie i (defined only if $r(i,j) = 1$)

0, ..., 5



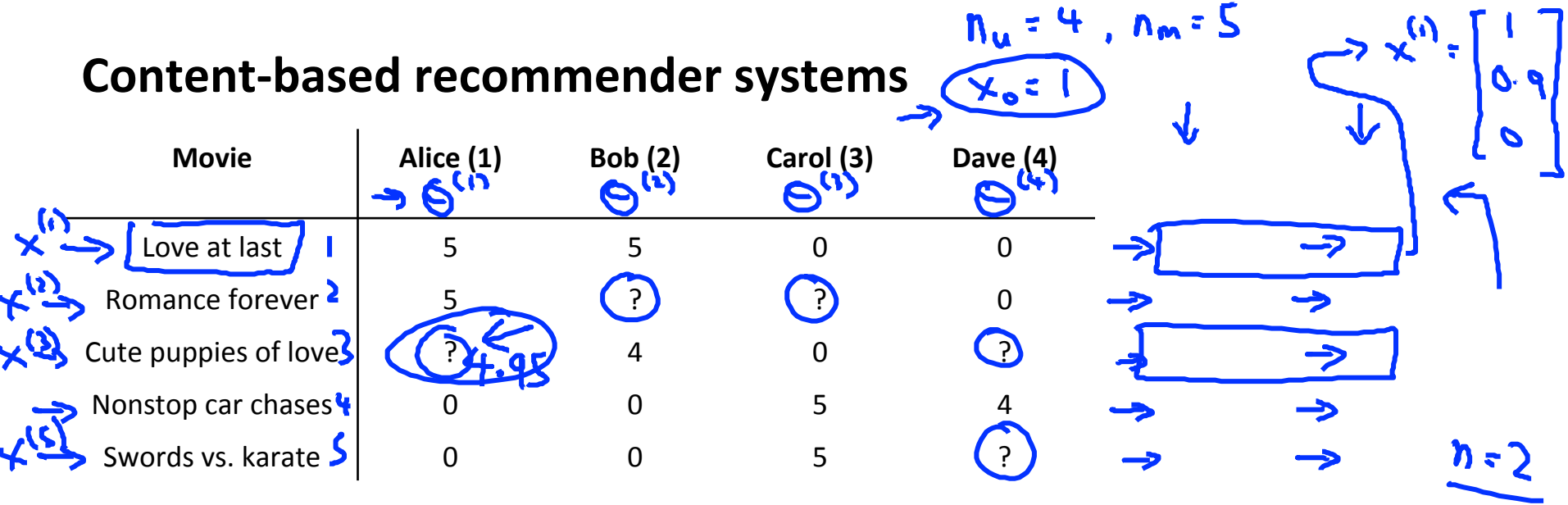
Machine Learning

Recommender Systems

Content-based recommendations

Content-based recommender systems

Movie	Alice (1)	Bob (2)	Carol (3)	Dave (4)
Love at last 1	5	5	0	0
Romance forever 2	5	?	?	0
Cute puppies of love 3	?	4	0	?
Nonstop car chases 4	0	0	5	4
Swords vs. karate 5	0	0	5	?



- For each user j, learn a parameter $\theta^{(j)} \in \mathbb{R}^3$. Predict user j as rating movie i with $(\theta^{(j)})^T x^{(i)}$ stars.

$\theta^{(j)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$

$x^{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0.99 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $\leftrightarrow$ $\theta^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$(\theta^{(1)})^T x^{(3)} = 5 \times 0.99 = 4.95$

Problem formulation

- $r(i,j) = 1$ if user j has rated movie i (0 otherwise)
- $y^{(i,j)} =$ rating by user j on movie i (if defined)

- $\theta^{(j)}$ = parameter vector for user j
- $x^{(i)}$ = feature vector for movie i
- For user j, movie i, predicted rating: $(\theta^{(j)})^T (x^{(i)})$

$\theta^{(j)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$

- $m^{(j)}$ = no. of movies rated by user j

To learn $\theta^{(j)}$:

$$\min_{\theta^{(j)}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i:r(i,j)=1} \left((\theta^{(j)})^T (x^{(i)}) - y^{(i,j)} \right)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (\theta_k^{(j)})^2$$

Optimization objective:

To learn $\theta^{(j)}$ (parameter for user j):

$$\min_{\theta^{(j)}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i:r(i,j)=1} \left((\theta^{(j)})^T x^{(i)} - y^{(i,j)} \right)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (\theta_k^{(j)})^2$$

To learn $\theta^{(1)}, \theta^{(2)}, \ldots, \theta^{(n_u)}$:

$$\min_{\theta^{(1)},\ldots,\theta^{(n_u)}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n_u} \sum_{i:r(i,j)=1} \left((\theta^{(j)})^T x^{(i)} - y^{(i,j)} \right)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n_u} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (\theta_k^{(j)})^2$$

$\theta^{(1)}, \ldots, \theta^{(n_u)}$

Optimization algorithm:

$$\min_{\theta^{(1)},\ldots,\theta^{(n_u)}} \frac{1}{2}\sum_{j=1}^{n_u}\sum_{i:r(i,j)=1}\left((\theta^{(j)})^T x^{(i)} - y^{(i,j)}\right)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2}\sum_{j=1}^{n_u}\sum_{k=1}^{n}(\theta_k^{(j)})^2$$

$J(\theta^{(1)},\ldots,\theta^{(n_u)})$

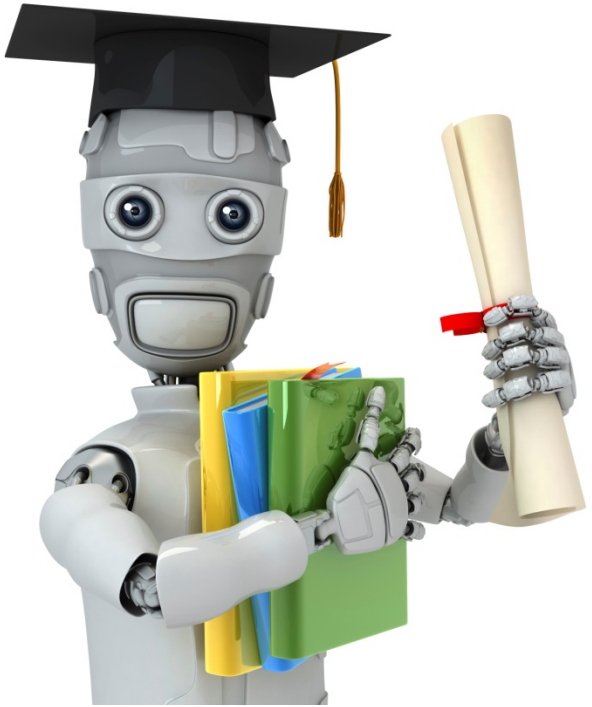
Gradient descent update:

$$\theta_k^{(j)} := \theta_k^{(j)} - \alpha \sum_{i:r(i,j)=1}((\theta^{(j)})^T x^{(i)} - y^{(i,j)})x_k^{(i)} \quad (\text{for } k = 0)$$

$$\theta_k^{(j)} := \theta_k^{(j)} - \alpha\left(\sum_{i:r(i,j)=1}((\theta^{(j)})^T x^{(i)} - y^{(i,j)})x_k^{(i)} + \lambda\theta_k^{(j)}\right) \quad (\text{for } k \neq 0)$$

$\frac{1}{m^{(j)}}$

$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_k^{(j)}} J(\theta^{(1)},\ldots,\theta^{(n_u)})$



Machine Learning

Recommender Systems

Collaborative filtering

Problem motivation

Movie	Alice (1)	Bob (2)	Carol (3)	Dave (4)	x_1 (romance)	x_2 (action)
Love at last	5	5	0	0	0.9	0
Romance forever	5	?	?	0	1.0	0.01
Cute puppies of love	?	4	0	?	0.99	0
Nonstop car chases	0	0	5	4	0.1	1.0
Swords vs. karate	0	0	5	?	0	0.9

Problem motivation

Movie	Alice (1)	Bob (2)	Carol (3)	Dave (4)	x_1 (romance)	x_2 (action)
Love at last	5	5	0	0	1.0	0.0
Romance forever	5	?	?	0	?	?
Cute puppies of love	?	4	0	?	?	?
Nonstop car chases	0	0	5	4	?	?
Swords vs. karate	0	0	5	?	?	?

$$\theta^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \theta^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \theta^{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \theta^{(4)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$x^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1.0 \\ 0.0 \end{bmatrix}$

$(\theta^{(1)})^T x^{(1)} \approx 5$

$(\theta^{(2)})^T x^{(1)} \approx 5$

$(\theta^{(3)})^T x^{(1)} \approx 0$

$(\theta^{(4)})^T x^{(1)} \approx 0$

Optimization algorithm

Given $\theta^{(1)}, \ldots, \theta^{(n_u)}$, to learn $x^{(i)}$:

$$\min_{x^{(i)}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j:r(i,j)=1} ((\theta^{(j)})^T x^{(i)} - y^{(i,j)})^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (x_k^{(i)})^2$$

Given $\theta^{(1)}, \ldots, \theta^{(n_u)}$, to learn $x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(n_m)}$:

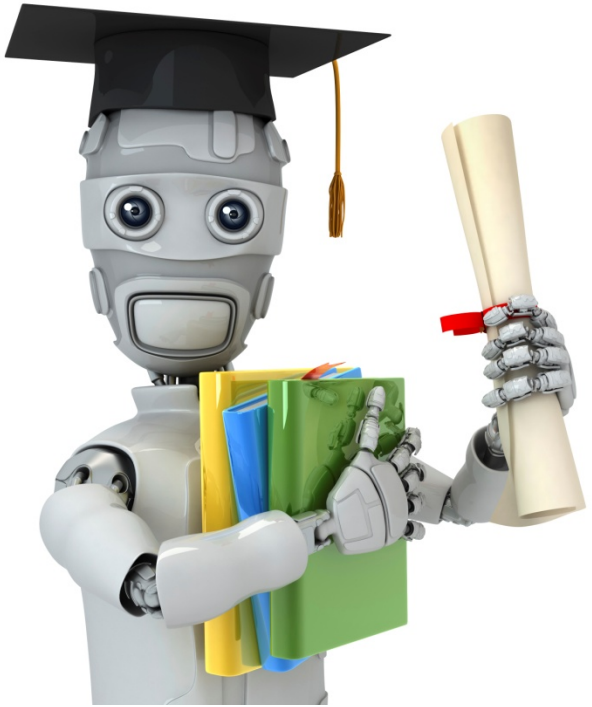
$$\min_{x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(n_m)}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n_m} \sum_{j:r(i,j)=1} ((\theta^{(j)})^T x^{(i)} - y^{(i,j)})^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n_m} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (x_k^{(i)})^2$$

Collaborative filtering

Given $x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(n_m)}$ (and movie ratings),
can estimate $\theta^{(1)}, \ldots, \theta^{(n_u)}$

Given $\theta^{(1)}, \ldots, \theta^{(n_u)}$,
can estimate $x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(n_m)}$

Guess $\theta \rightarrow x \rightarrow \theta \rightarrow x \rightarrow \theta \rightarrow x \rightarrow \cdots$



Machine Learning

Recommender Systems

Collaborative filtering algorithm

Collaborative filtering optimization objective

Given $x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(n_m)}$, estimate $\theta^{(1)}, \ldots, \theta^{(n_u)}$:

$$\min_{\theta^{(1)},\ldots,\theta^{(n_u)}} \frac{1}{2}\sum_{j=1}^{n_u} \sum_{i:r(i,j)=1} ((\theta^{(j)})^T x^{(i)} - y^{(i,j)})^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2}\sum_{j=1}^{n_u}\sum_{k=1}^{n} (\theta_k^{(j)})^2$$

Given $\theta^{(1)}, \ldots, \theta^{(n_u)}$, estimate $x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(n_m)}$:

$$\min_{x^{(1)},\ldots,x^{(n_m)}} \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n_m} \sum_{j:r(i,j)=1} ((\theta^{(j)})^T x^{(i)} - y^{(i,j)})^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n_m}\sum_{k=1}^{n} (x_k^{(i)})^2$$

Minimizing $x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(n_m)}$ and $\theta^{(1)}, \ldots, \theta^{(n_u)}$ simultaneously:

$$J(x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(n_m)}, \theta^{(1)}, \ldots, \theta^{(n_u)}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(i,j):r(i,j)=1} ((\theta^{(j)})^T x^{(i)} - y^{(i,j)})^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n_m}\sum_{k=1}^{n} (x_k^{(i)})^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2}\sum_{j=1}^{n_u}\sum_{k=1}^{n} (\theta_k^{(j)})^2$$

$$\min_{\substack{x^{(1)},\ldots,x^{(n_m)} \\ \theta^{(1)},\ldots,\theta^{(n_u)}}} J(x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(n_m)}, \theta^{(1)}, \ldots, \theta^{(n_u)})$$

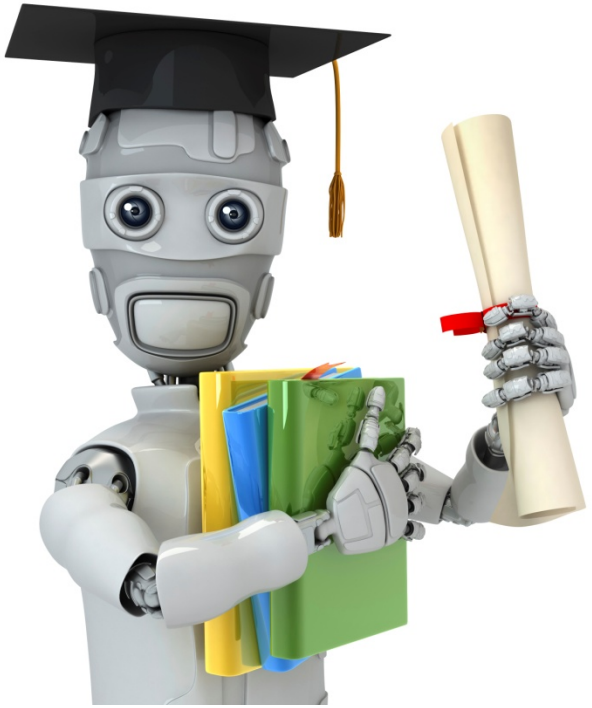
Collaborative filtering algorithm

1. Initialize $x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(n_m)}, \theta^{(1)}, \ldots, \theta^{(n_u)}$ to small random values.
2. Minimize $J(x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(n_m)}, \theta^{(1)}, \ldots, \theta^{(n_u)})$ using gradient descent (or an advanced optimization algorithm). E.g. for every $j = 1, \ldots, n_u, i = 1, \ldots, n_m$:

$$x_k^{(i)} := x_k^{(i)} - \alpha \left(\sum_{j:r(i,j)=1} ((\theta^{(j)})^T x^{(i)} - y^{(i,j)}) \theta_k^{(j)} + \lambda x_k^{(i)} \right)$$

$$\theta_k^{(j)} := \theta_k^{(j)} - \alpha \left(\sum_{i:r(i,j)=1} ((\theta^{(j)})^T x^{(i)} - y^{(i,j)}) x_k^{(i)} + \lambda \theta_k^{(j)} \right)$$

3. For a user with parameters θ and a movie with (learned) features x , predict a star rating of $\theta^T x$.



Machine Learning

Recommender Systems

Vectorization: Low rank matrix factorization

Collaborative filtering

Movie	Alice (1)	Bob (2)	Carol (3)	Dave (4)
Love at last	5	5	0	0
Romance forever	5	?	?	0
Cute puppies of love	?	4	0	?
Nonstop car chases	0	0	5	4
Swords vs. karate	0	0	5	?

$n_m = 5$

$n_u = 4$

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & ? & ? & 0 \\ ? & 4 & 0 & ? \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$y^{(i,j)}$

Collaborative filtering

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & ? & ? & 0 \\ ? & 4 & 0 & ? \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Predicted ratings:

$$\begin{bmatrix} (\theta^{(1)})^T(x^{(1)}) & (\theta^{(2)})^T(x^{(1)}) & \dots & (\theta^{(n_u)})^T(x^{(1)}) \\ (\theta^{(1)})^T(x^{(2)}) & (\theta^{(2)})^T(x^{(2)}) & \dots & (\theta^{(n_u)})^T(x^{(2)}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ (\theta^{(1)})^T(x^{(n_m)}) & (\theta^{(2)})^T(x^{(n_m)}) & \dots & (\theta^{(n_u)})^T(x^{(n_m)}) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} -(x^{(1)})^T- \\ -(x^{(2)})^T- \\ \vdots \\ -(x^{(n_m)})^T- \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Theta = \begin{bmatrix} -(\theta^{(1)})^T- \\ -(\theta^{(2)})^T- \\ \vdots \\ -(\theta^{(n_u)})^T- \end{bmatrix}$$

→ Low rank matrix factorization

Finding related movies

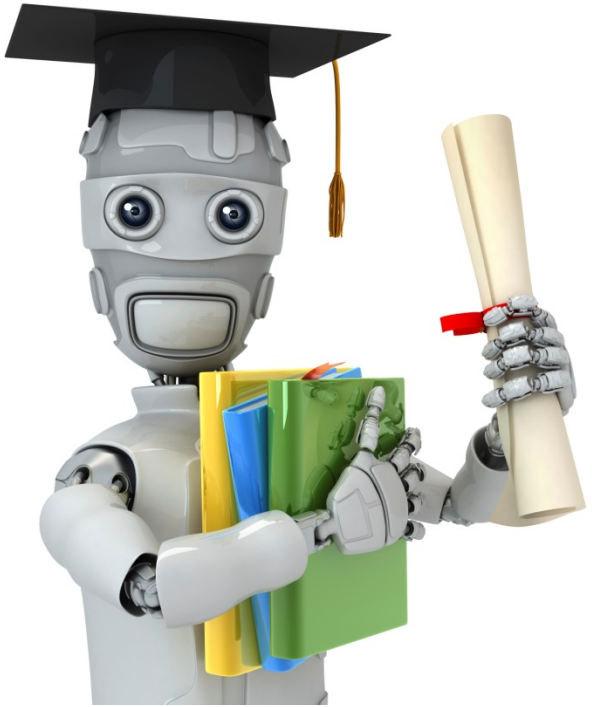
For each product i, we learn a feature vector $x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

$\rightarrow$ x_1 = romance, x_2 = action, x_3 = comedy, x_4 = ...

How to find movies j related to movie i?

small $\|x^{(i)} - x^{(j)}\|$ $\rightarrow$ movie j and i are "similar"

5 most similar movies to movie i:
Find the 5 movies j with the smallest $\|x^{(i)} - x^{(j)}\|$.



Machine Learning

Recommender Systems

Implementational detail: Mean normalization

Users who have not rated any movies

Movie	Alice (1)	Bob (2)	Carol (3)	Dave (4)	Eve (5)
Love at last	5	5	0	0	?
Romance forever	5	?	?	0	?
Cute puppies of love	?	4	0	?	?
Nonstop car chases	0	0	5	4	?
Swords vs. karate	0	0	5	?	?

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 5 & 0 & 0 & ? \\ 5 & ? & ? & 0 & ? \\ ? & 4 & 0 & ? & ? \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 4 & ? \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 0 & ? \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\min_{\substack{x^{(1)},\dots,x^{(n_m)} \\ \theta^{(1)},\dots,\theta^{(n_u)}}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(i,j):r(i,j)=1} ((\theta^{(j)})^T x^{(i)} - y^{(i,j)})^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n_m} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (x_k^{(i)})^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n_u} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (\theta_k^{(j)})^2$$

$n = 2$ $\quad \theta^{(5)} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ $\quad \theta^{(5)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$\frac{\lambda}{2}\left[(\theta_1^{(5)})^2 + (\theta_2^{(5)})^2\right]$

$(\theta^{(5)})^T x^{(i)} = 0$

Mean Normalization:

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 5 & 0 & 0 & ? \\ 5 & ? & ? & 0 & ? \\ ? & 4 & 0 & ? & ? \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 4 & ? \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 0 & ? \end{bmatrix} \quad \mu = \begin{bmatrix} 2.5 \\ 2.5 \\ 2 \\ 2.25 \\ 1.25 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow Y = \begin{bmatrix} 2.5 & 2.5 & -2.5 & -2.5 & ? \\ 2.5 & ? & ? & -2.5 & ? \\ ? & 2 & -2 & ? & ? \\ -2.25 & -2.25 & 2.75 & 1.75 & ? \\ -1.25 & -1.25 & 3.75 & -1.25 & ? \end{bmatrix}$$

learn $\Theta^{(j)}, x^{(i)}$

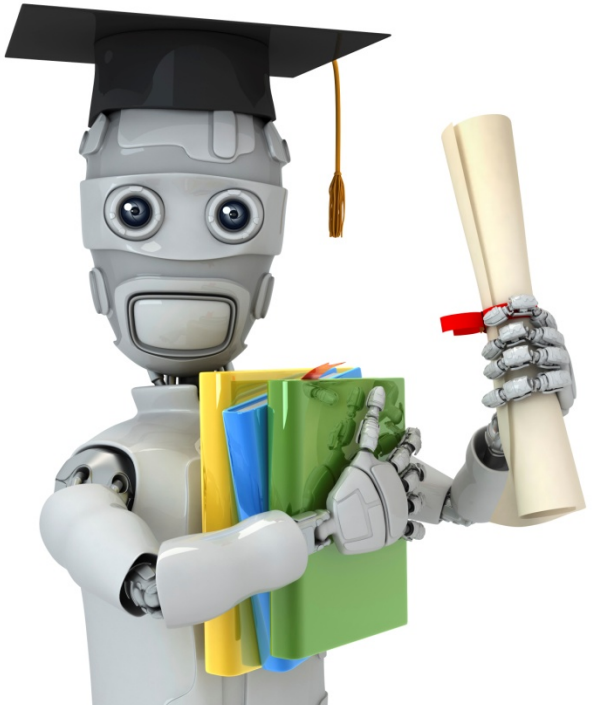
For user j, on movie i predict:

$(\Theta^{(j)})^T (x^{(i)}) + \mu_i$

User 5 (Eve):

$\Theta^{(5)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$(\Theta^{(5)})^T (x^{(i)}) + \mu_i \rightarrow 0$



Machine Learning

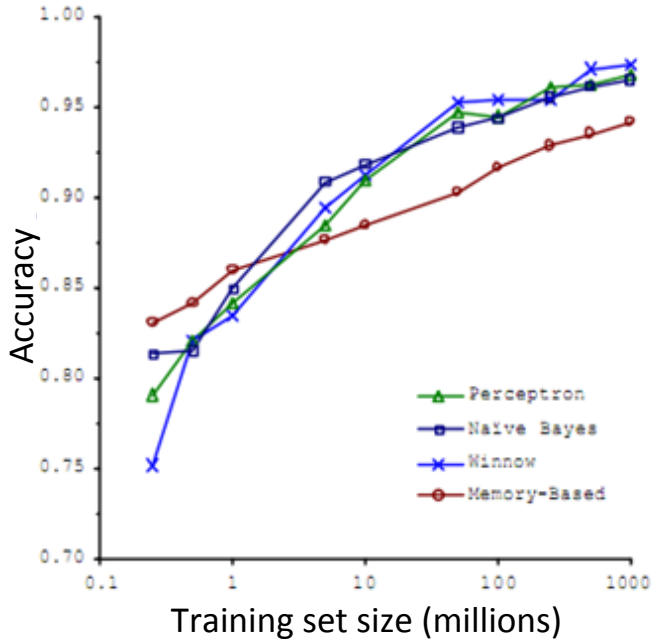
Large scale machine learning

Learning with large datasets

Machine learning and data

Classify between confusable words.
E.g., {to, two, too}, {then, than}.

For breakfast I ate two eggs.



"It's not who has the best algorithm that wins.
It's who has the most data."

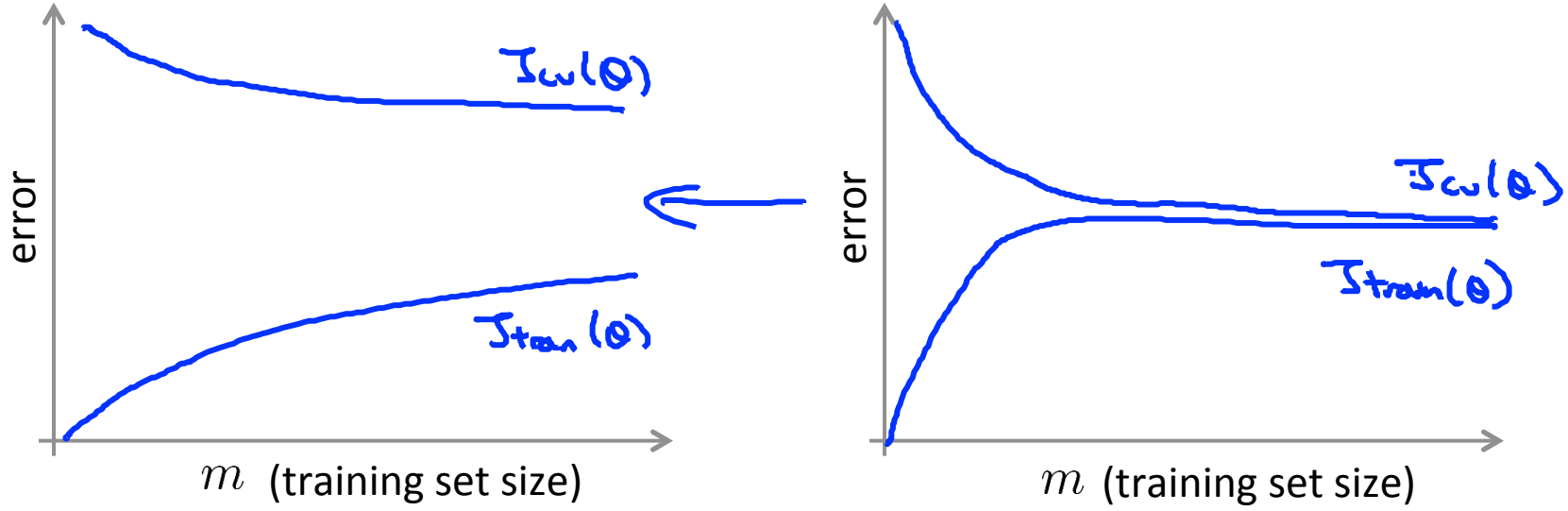
[Figure from Banko and Brill, 2001]

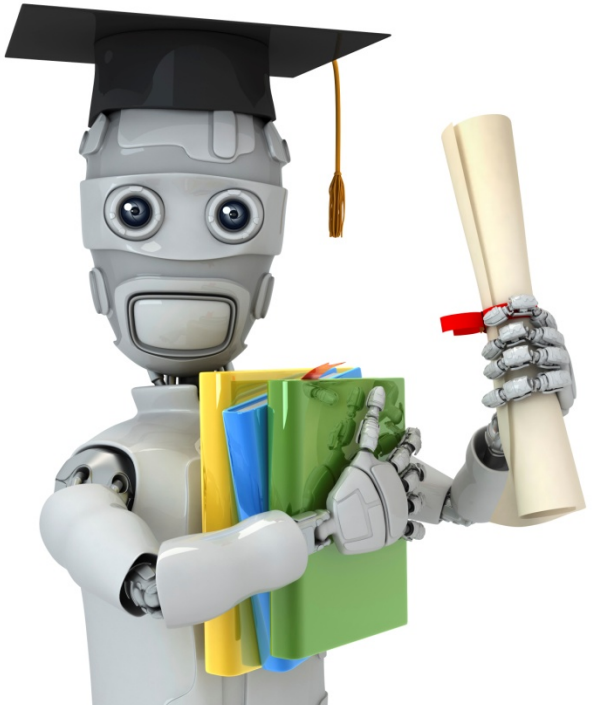
Learning with large datasets

$m = 100,000,000$

$m = 1,000?$

$$\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) x_j^{(i)}$$





Machine Learning

Large scale machine learning

Stochastic gradient descent

Linear regression with gradient descent

$$h_\theta(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} \theta_j x_j$$

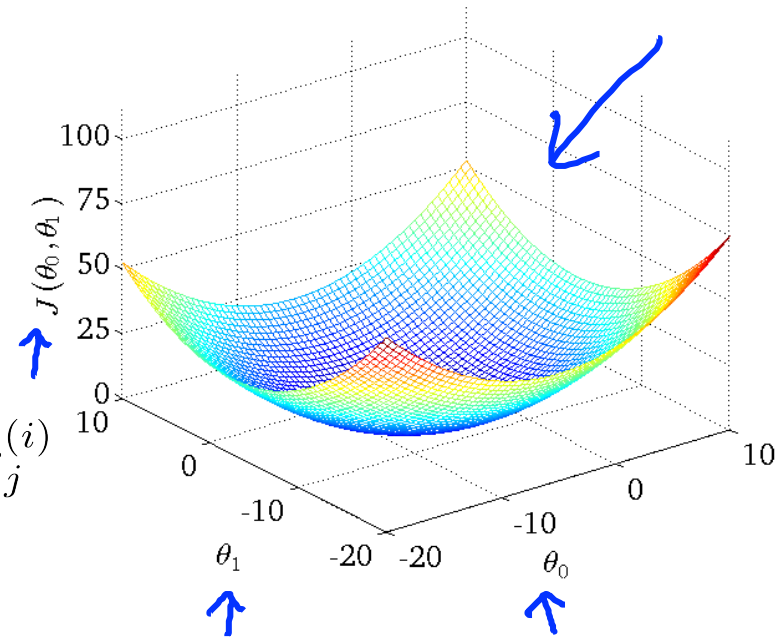
$$J_{train}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

Repeat {

$$\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) x_j^{(i)}$$

(for every $j = 0, \ldots, n$)

}



Linear regression with gradient descent

$$h_\theta(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} \theta_j x_j$$

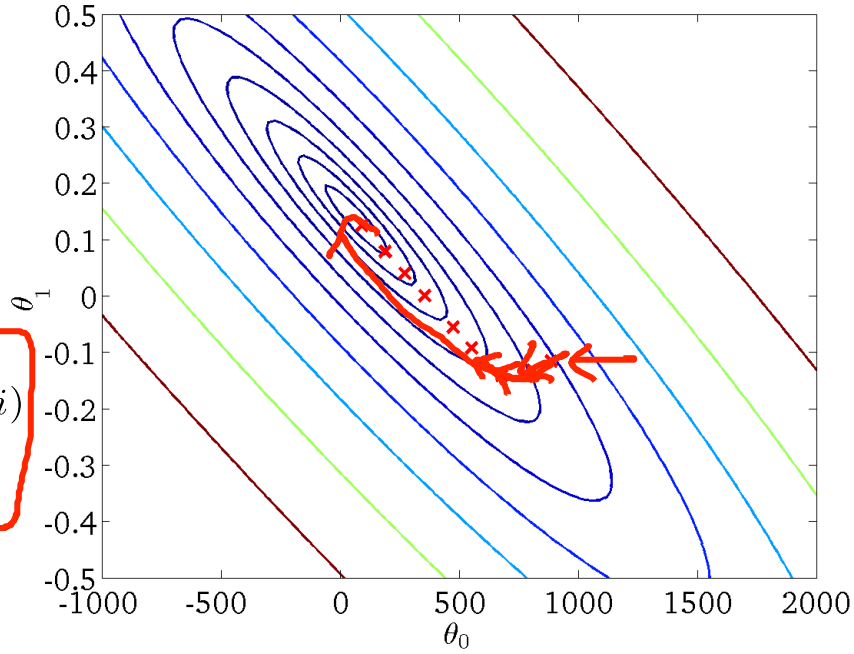
$$J_{train}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

Repeat {

$$\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) x_j^{(i)}$$

(for every $j = 0, \ldots, n$)

}



$M = 300,000,000$

Batch gradient descent

Batch gradient descent

$$J_{train}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

Repeat {

$$\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})x_j^{(i)}$$

$\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta_j} J_{train}(\theta)$

(for every $j = 0, \ldots, n$)

}

$m = 300{,}000{,}000$

Stochastic gradient descent

$$cost(\theta, (x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})) = \frac{1}{2}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

$$J_{train}(\theta) = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} cost(\theta, (x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}))$$

1. Randomly shuffle dataset.

2. Repeat {

for $i = 1, \ldots, m$ {

$\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) x_j^{(i)}$

(for $j = 0, \ldots, n$)

}

}

$\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta_j} cost(\theta, (x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}))$

$(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (x^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), (x^{(3)}, y^{(3)}), \ldots$

Stochastic gradient descent

1. Randomly shuffle (reorder) training examples

2. Repeat { 1-10x

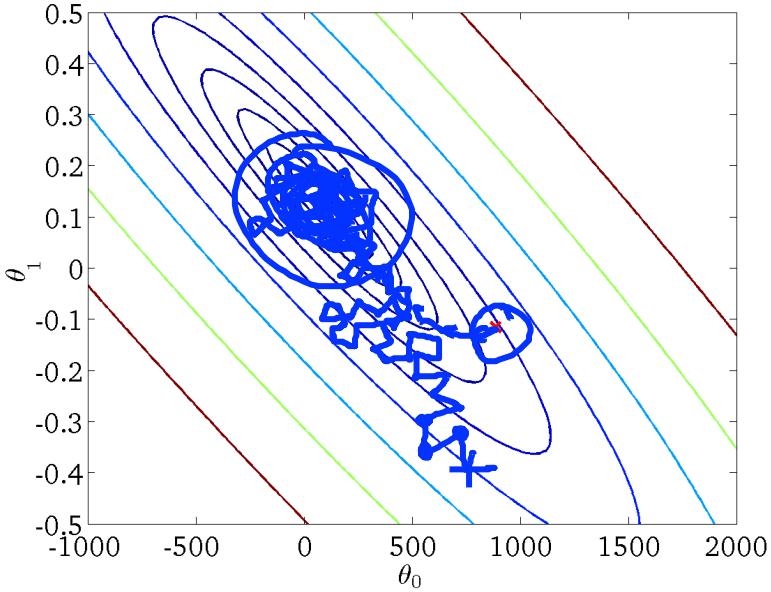
   for $i := 1, \ldots, m$ {

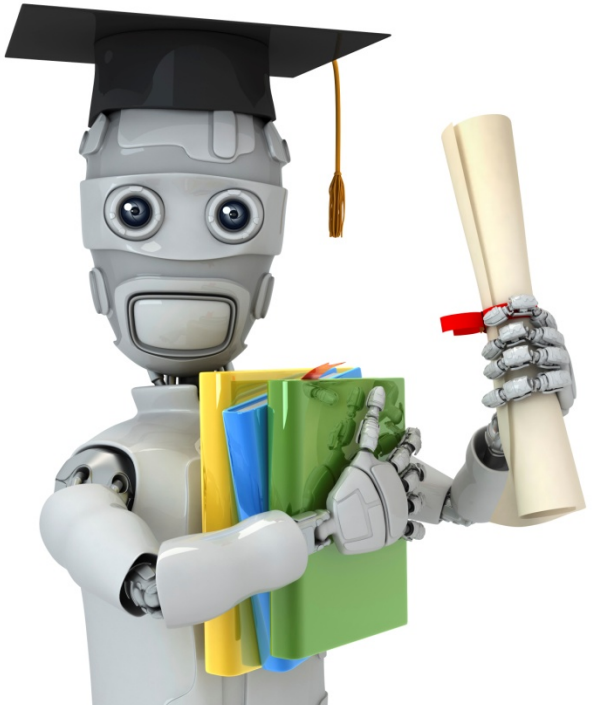
   $\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})x_j^{(i)}$

   (for $j = 0, \ldots, n$)

   } every $m = 300,000,000$

}





Machine Learning

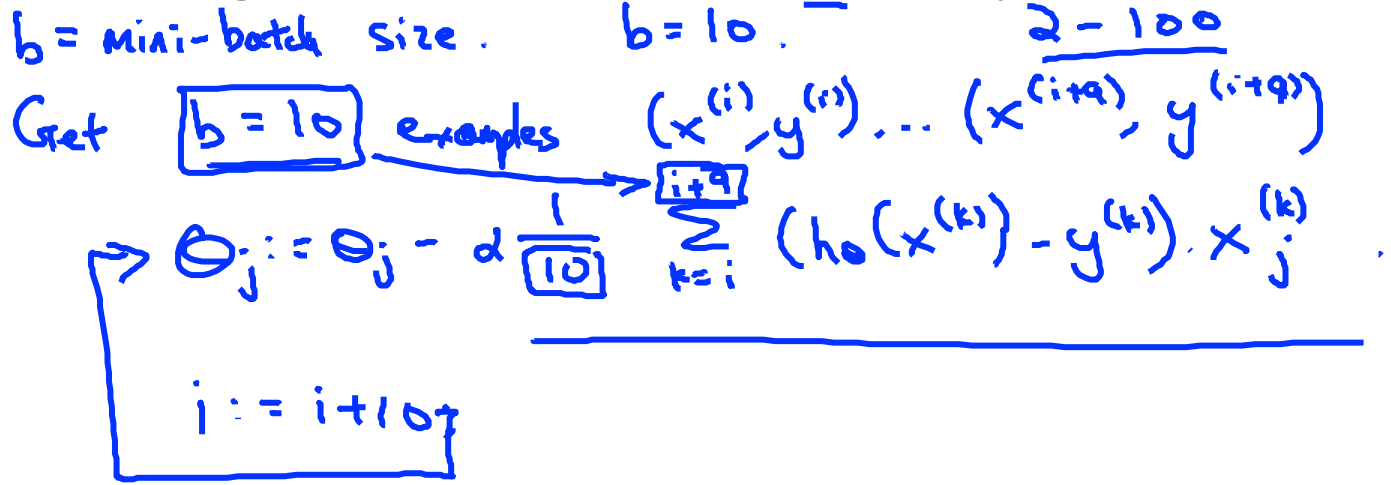
Large scale machine learning

Mini-batch gradient descent

Mini-batch gradient descent

- Batch gradient descent: Use all m examples in each iteration
- Stochastic gradient descent: Use 1 example in each iteration

Mini-batch gradient descent: Use b examples in each iteration



Mini-batch gradient descent

→ b examples

→ 1 example

Say $b = 10, m = 1000.$

Repeat {

Vectorization

→ for $i = 1, 11, 21, 31, \ldots, 991$ {

→ $\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \frac{1}{10} \sum_{k=i}^{i+9} (h_\theta(x^{(k)}) - y^{(k)}) x_j^{(k)}$

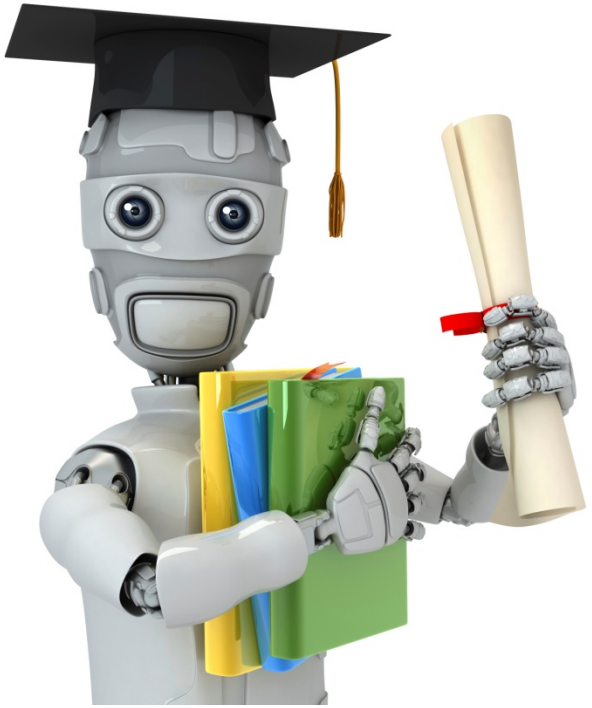
(for every $j = 0, \ldots, n$)

}

}

$m = 300,000,000$

$b = 10$



Machine Learning

Large scale machine learning

Stochastic gradient descent convergence

Checking for convergence

- Batch gradient descent:
  - Plot $J_{train}(\theta)$ as a function of the number of iterations of gradient descent.
  - $J_{train}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$

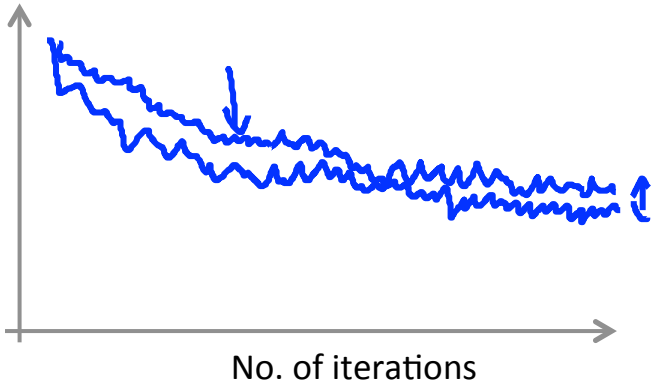
M = 300,000,000

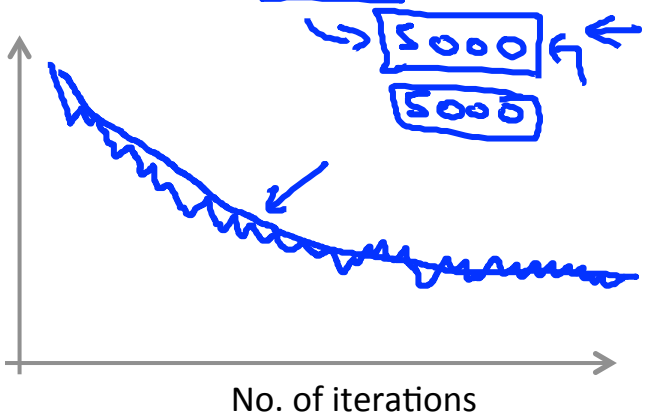
- Stochastic gradient descent:
  - $cost(\theta, (x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})) = \frac{1}{2}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$
  - During learning, compute $cost(\theta, (x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}))$ before updating θ using $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$.
  - Every 1000 iterations (say), plot $cost(\theta, (x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}))$ averaged over the last 1000 examples processed by algorithm.

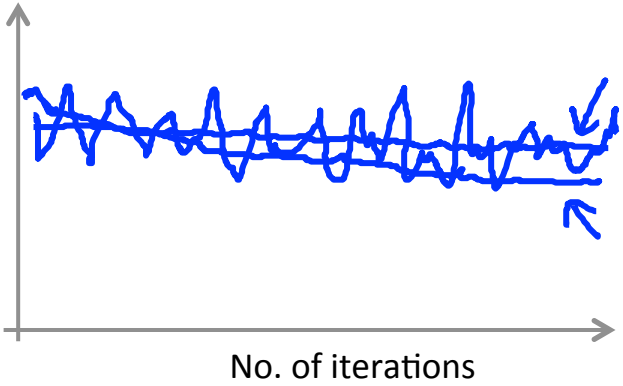
$(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$, $(x^{(i+1)}, y^{(i+1)})$, ...

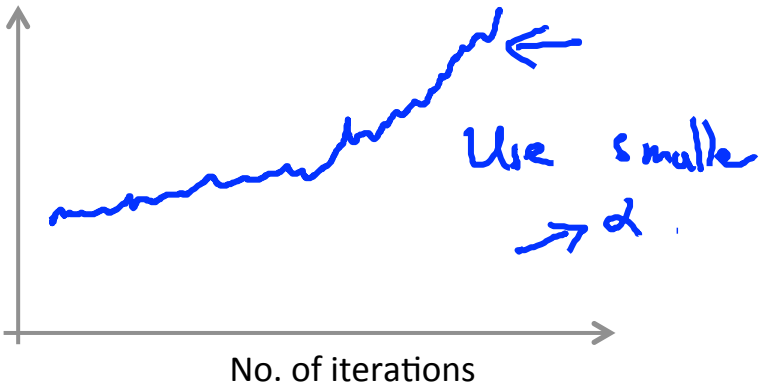
Checking for convergence

Plot $cost(\theta, (x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}))$, averaged over the last 1000 (say) examples







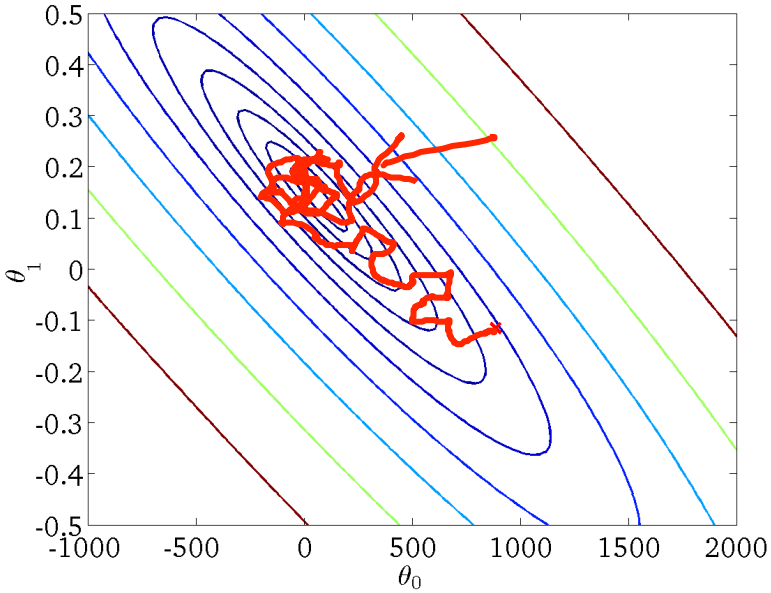


Stochastic gradient descent

$$cost(\theta, (x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})) = \frac{1}{2}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

$$J_{train}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} cost(\theta, (x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}))$$

1. Randomly shuffle dataset.
2. Repeat {
   for $i := 1, \ldots, m$ {
   $\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})x_j^{(i)}$
   (for $j = 0, \ldots, n$)
   }
   }



Learning rate α is typically held constant. Can slowly decrease α over time if we want θ to converge. (E.g. $\alpha = \frac{\texttt{const1}}{\texttt{iterationNumber} + \texttt{const2}}$)

Stochastic gradient descent

$$cost(\theta, (x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})) = \frac{1}{2}(h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

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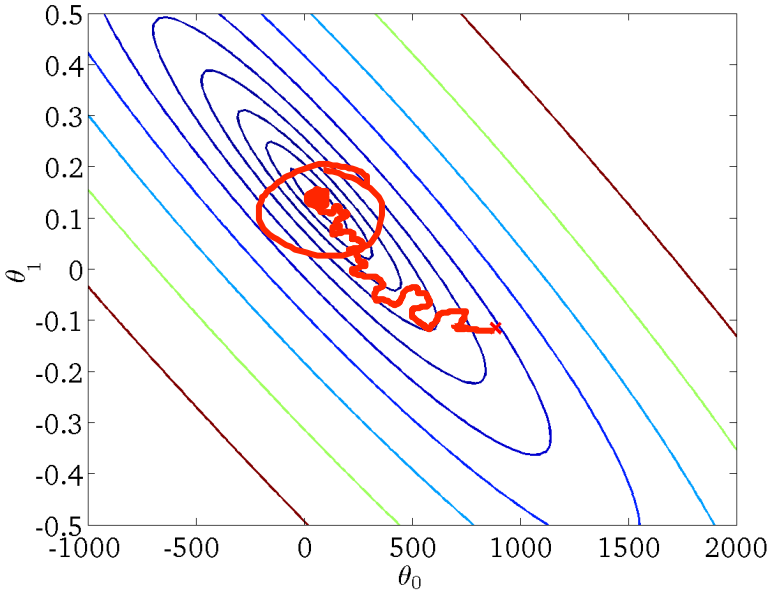
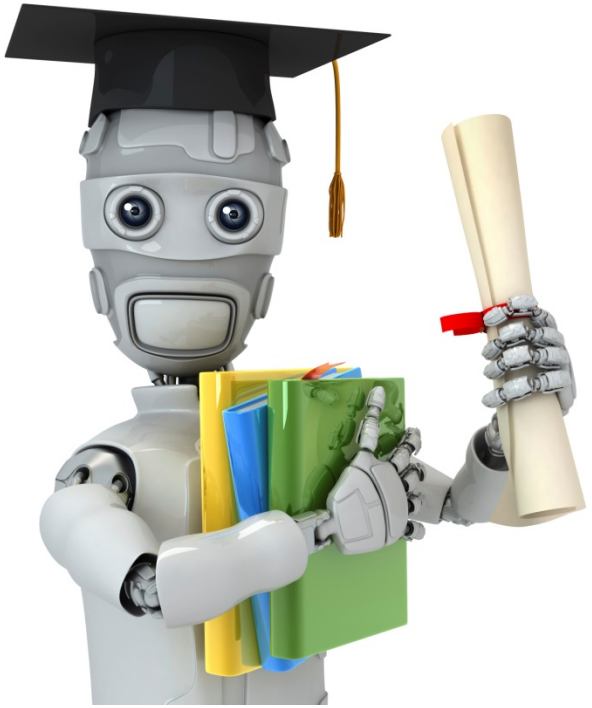
   (for $j = 0, \ldots, n$)
   }
   }



Learning rate α is typically held constant. Can slowly decrease α over time if we want θ to converge. (E.g. $\alpha = \frac{\text{const1}}{\text{iterationNumber} + \text{const2}}$)



Machine Learning

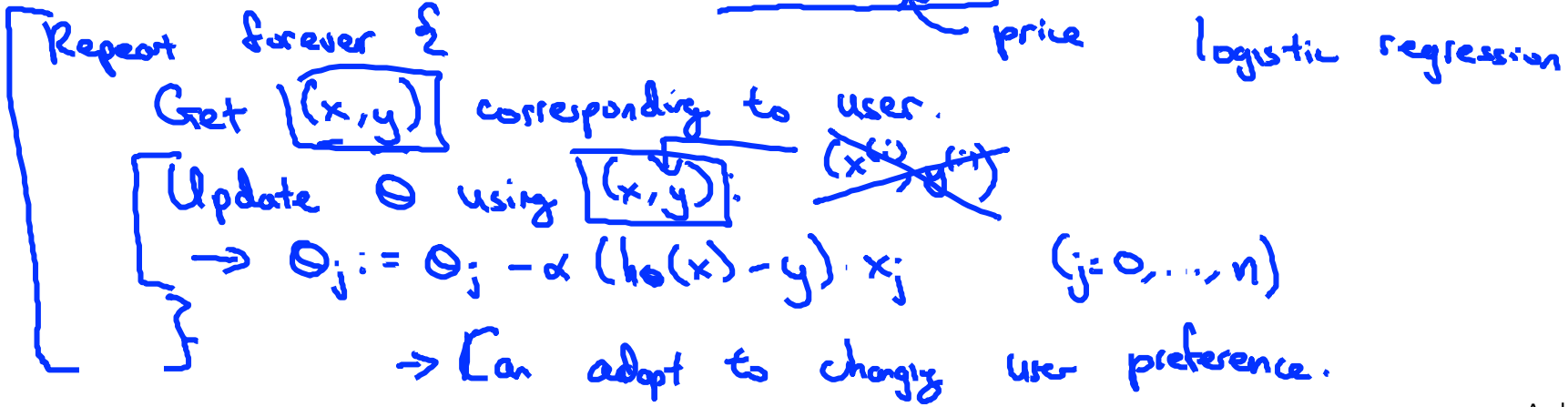
Large scale machine learning

Online learning

Online learning

Shipping service website where user comes, specifies origin and destination, you offer to ship their package for some asking price, and users sometimes choose to use your shipping service ($y = 1$), sometimes not ($y = 0$).

Features x capture properties of user, of origin/destination and asking price. We want to learn $p(y = 1|x; \theta)$ to optimize price.



Other online learning example:

Product search (learning to search)

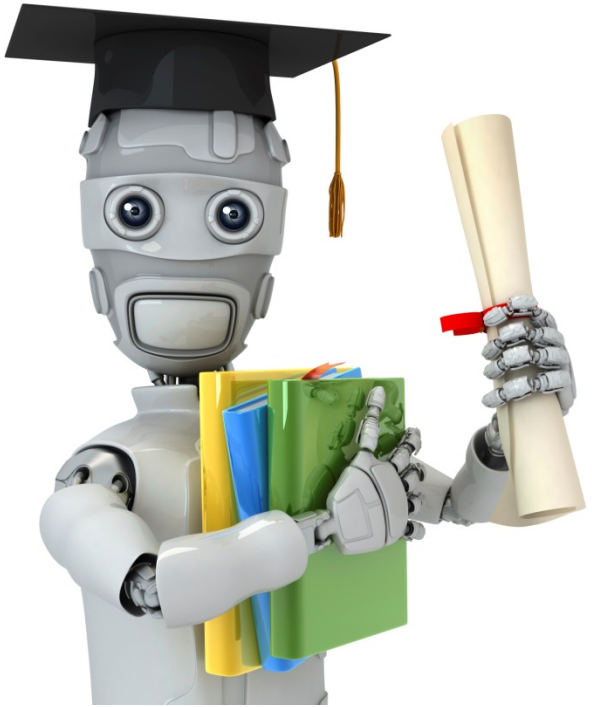
User searches for "Android phone 1080p camera"

Have 100 phones in store. Will return 10 results.

- $x =$ features of phone, how many words in user query match name of phone, how many words in query match description of phone, etc.
- $y = 1$ if user clicks on link. $y = 0$ otherwise.
- Learn $p(y = 1|x; \theta)$. predicted CTR
- Use to show user the 10 phones they're most likely to click on.

(x, y)

Other examples: Choosing special offers to show user; customized selection of news articles; product recommendation; …



Machine Learning

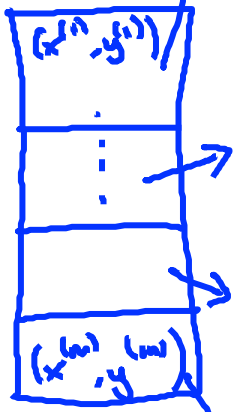
Large scale machine learning

Map-reduce and data parallelism

Map-reduce

Batch gradient descent: $\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \frac{1}{400} \sum_{i=1}^{400} (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) x_j^{(i)}$

$m = 400$ $\quad$ $m = 400{,}000{,}000$



Machine 1: Use $(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \ldots, (x^{(100)}, y^{(100)})$.

$temp_j^{(1)} = \sum_{i=1}^{100} (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) \cdot x_j^{(i)}$

Machine 2: Use $(x^{(101)}, y^{(101)}), \ldots, (x^{(200)}, y^{(200)})$.

$temp_j^{(2)} = \sum_{i=101}^{200} (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) \cdot x_j^{(i)}$

Machine 3: Use $(x^{(201)}, y^{(201)}), \ldots, (x^{(300)}, y^{(300)})$.

$temp_j^{(3)} = \sum_{i=201}^{300} (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) \cdot x_j^{(i)}$

Machine 4: Use $(x^{(301)}, y^{(301)}), \ldots, (x^{(400)}, y^{(400)})$.

$temp_j^{(4)} = \sum_{i=301}^{400} (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) \cdot x_j^{(i)}$

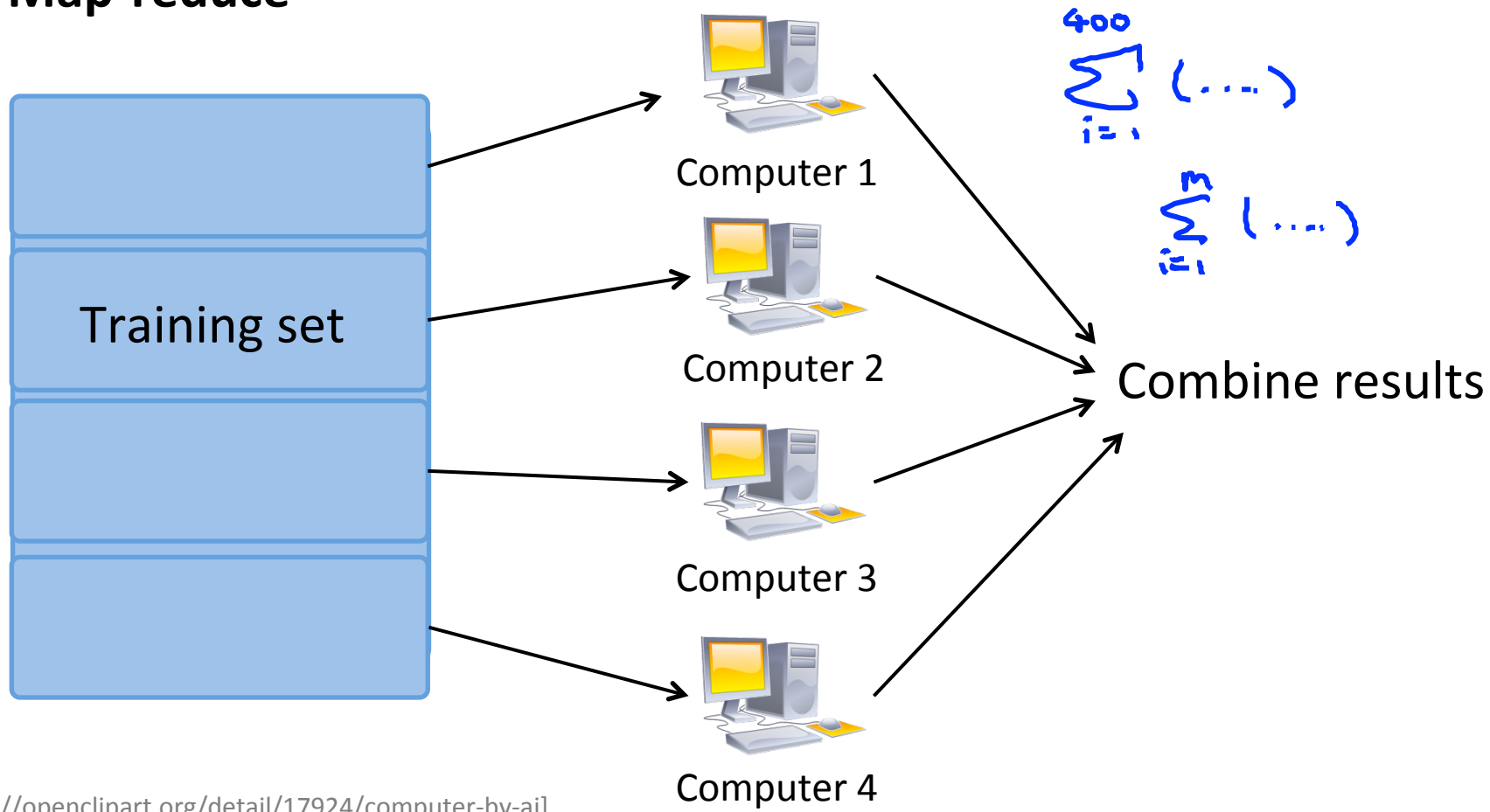
Combine:

$\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \frac{1}{400} (temp_j^{(1)} + temp_j^{(2)} + temp_j^{(3)} + temp_j^{(4)})$

$(j = 0, \ldots, n)$

[Jeffrey Dean and Sanjay Ghemawat]

Map-reduce



[http://openclipart.org/detail/17924/computer-by-aj]

Map-reduce and summation over the training set

Many learning algorithms can be expressed as computing sums of functions over the training set.

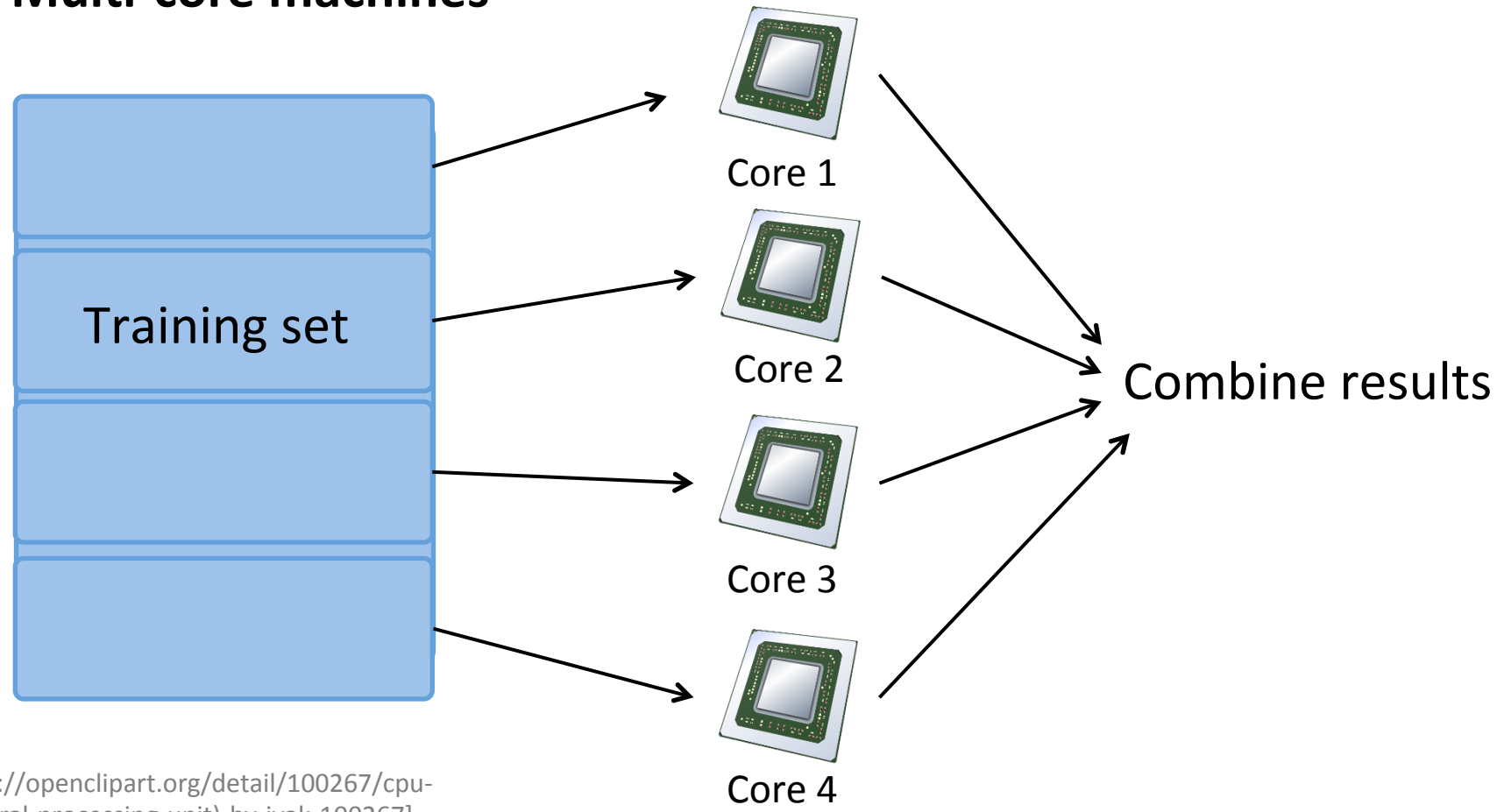
E.g. for advanced optimization, with logistic regression, need:

$$J_{train}(\theta) = -\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)} \log h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - (1-y^{(i)}) \log(1 - h_\theta(x^{(i)}))$$

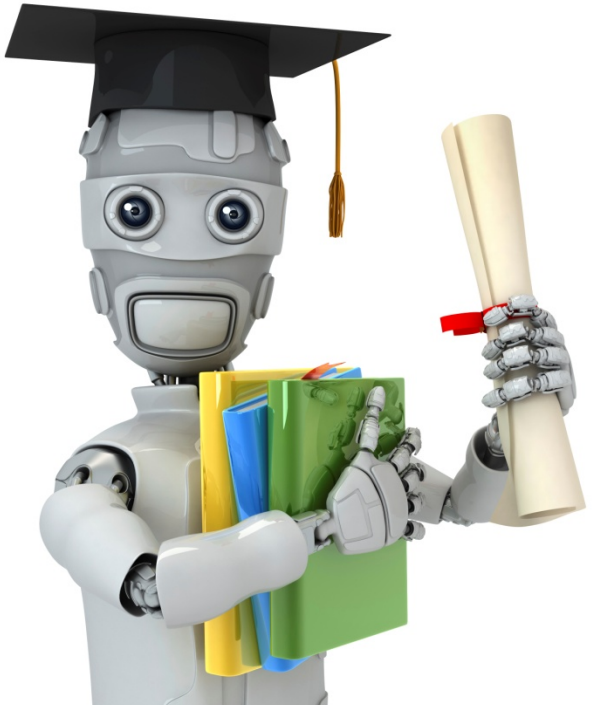
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J_{train}(\theta) = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) \cdot x_j^{(i)}$$

$temp^{(i)}$ $temp_j^{(i)} \leftarrow$

Multi-core machines



[http://openclipart.org/detail/100267/cpu-(central-processing-unit)-by-ivak-100267]



Machine Learning

Application example: Photo OCR

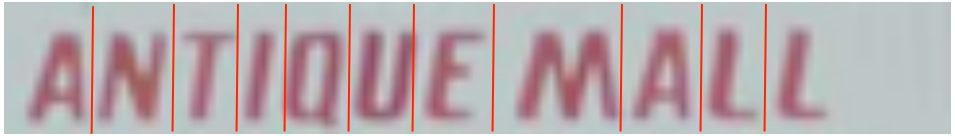
Problem description and pipeline

The Photo OCR problem

Photo OCR pipeline

1. Text detection

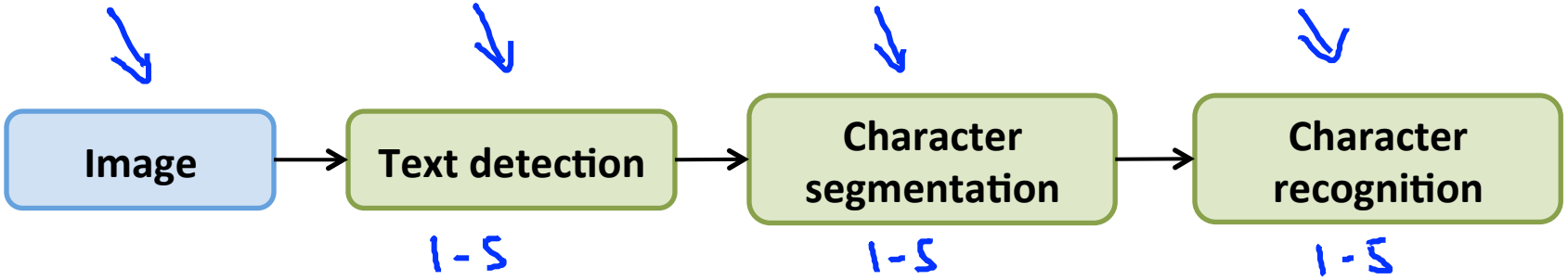
2. Character segmentation

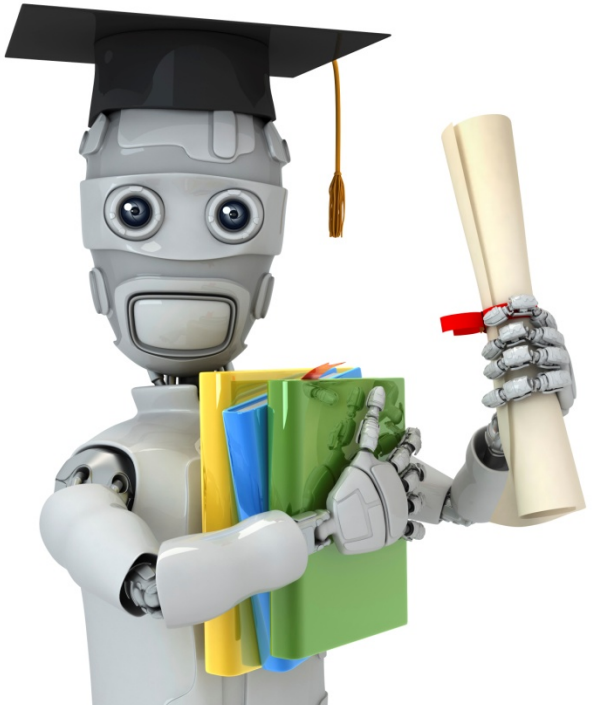


3. Character classification

Cleaning ⇒ Cleaning

Photo OCR pipeline





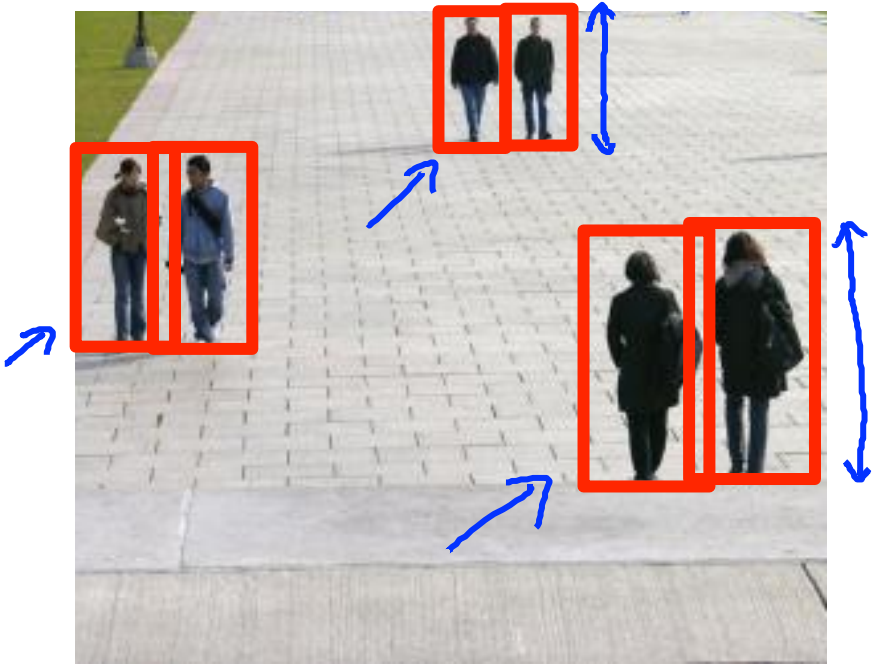
Machine Learning

Application example: Photo OCR

Sliding windows

Text detection

Pedestrian detection



Supervised learning for pedestrian detection

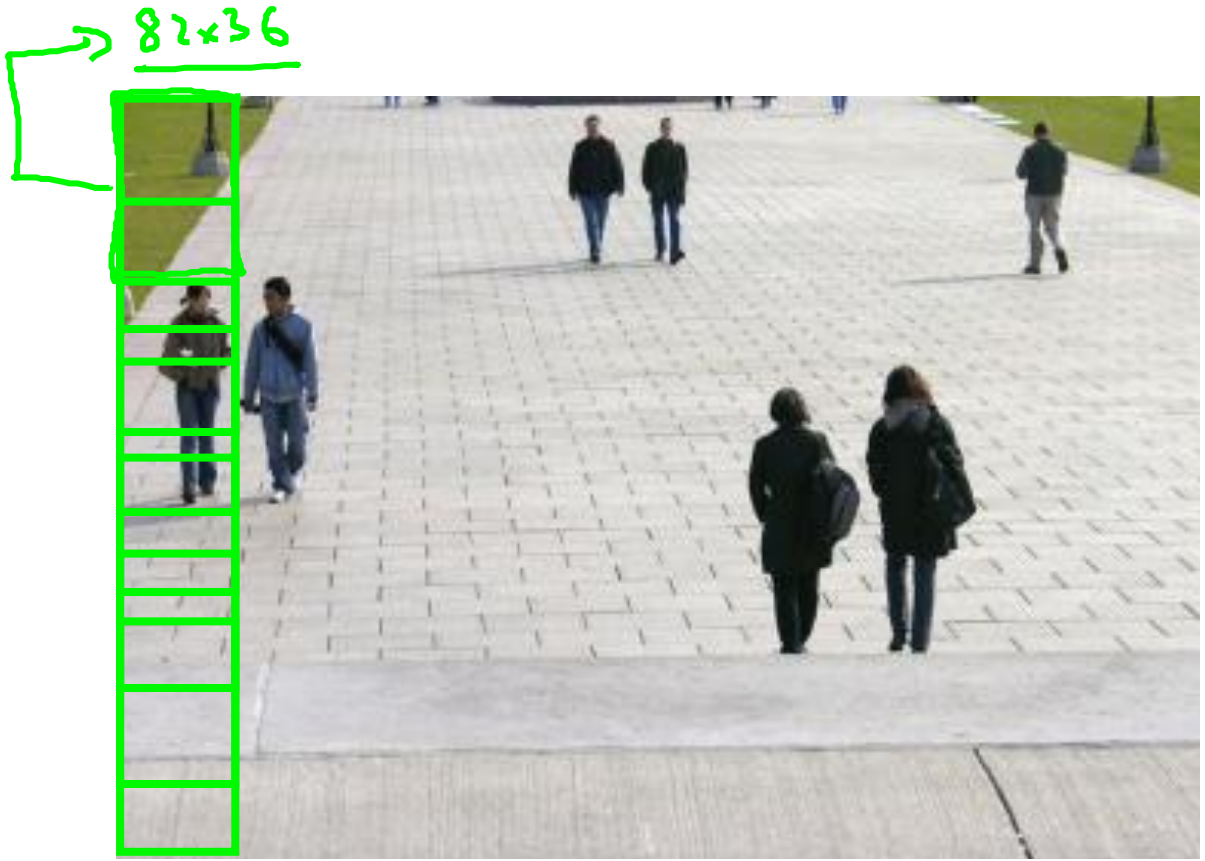
$x =$ pixels in 82x36 image patches

Positive examples $(y = 1)$

Negative examples $(y = 0)$

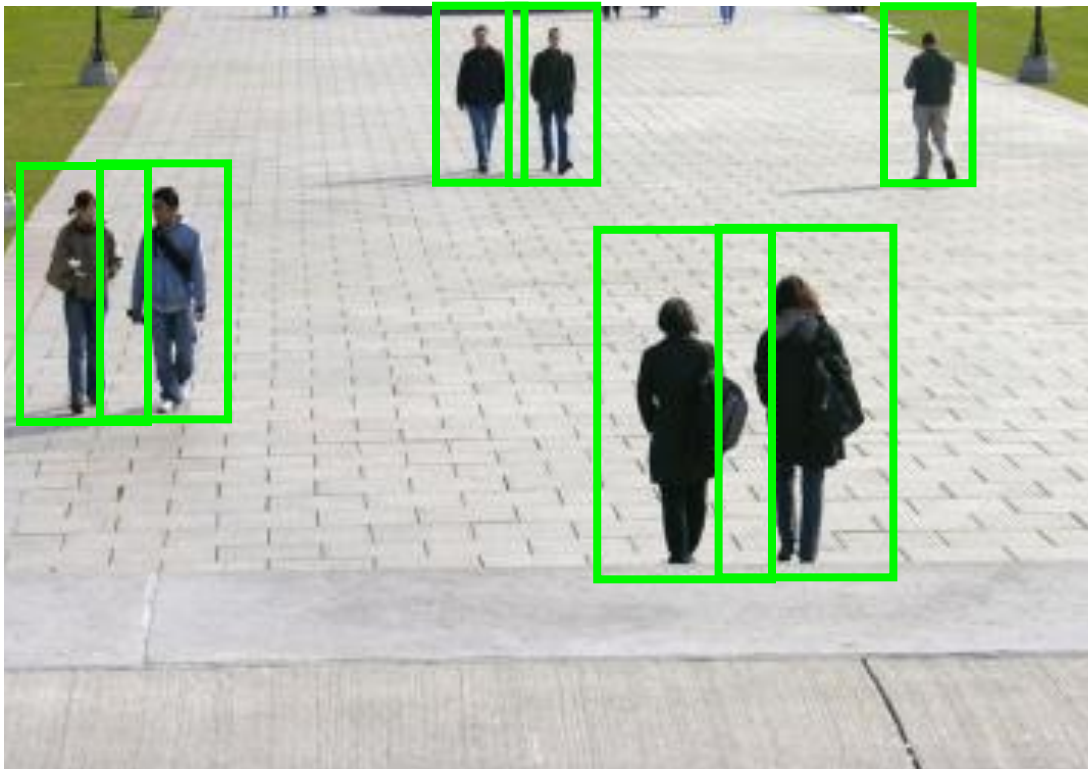
Sliding window detection

Sliding window detection



Sliding window detection

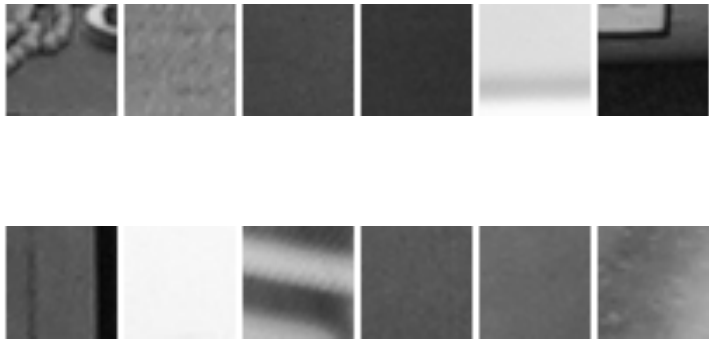
Sliding window detection



Text detection

Text detection

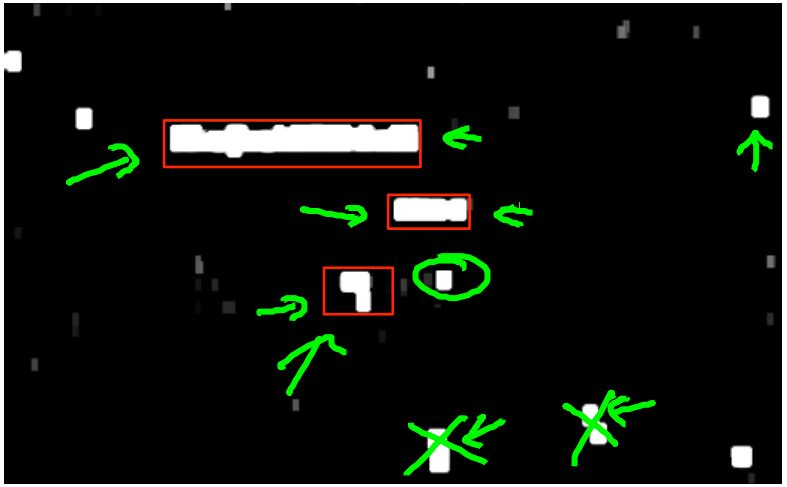
Positive examples $(y = 1)$



Negative examples $(y = 0)$

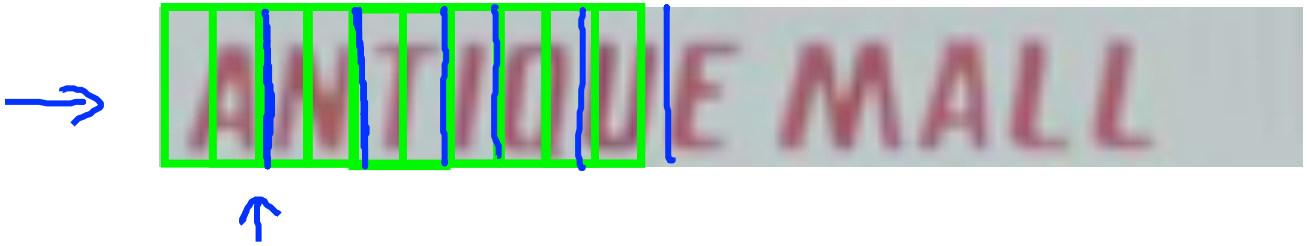
Text detection

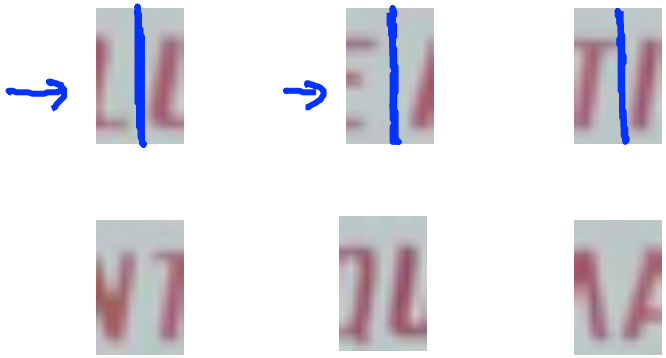
"expansion"



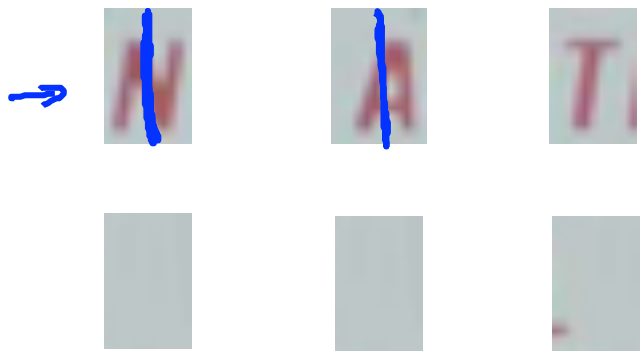
[David Wu]

1D Sliding window for character segmentation





Positive examples $(y = 1)$

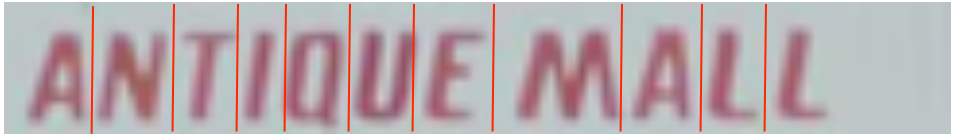


Negative examples $(y = 0)$

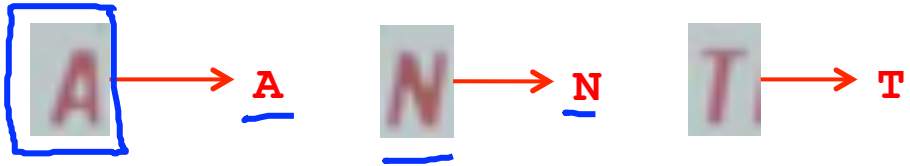
Photo OCR pipeline

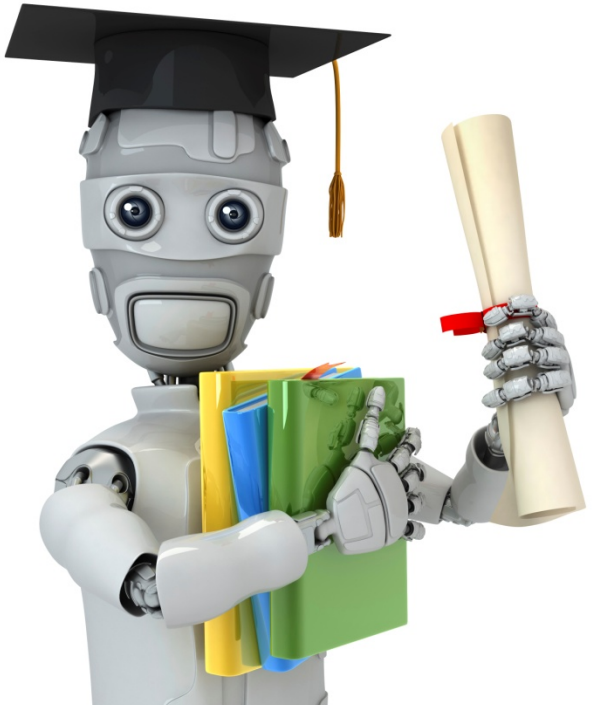
1. Text detection

2. Character segmentation



3. Character classification



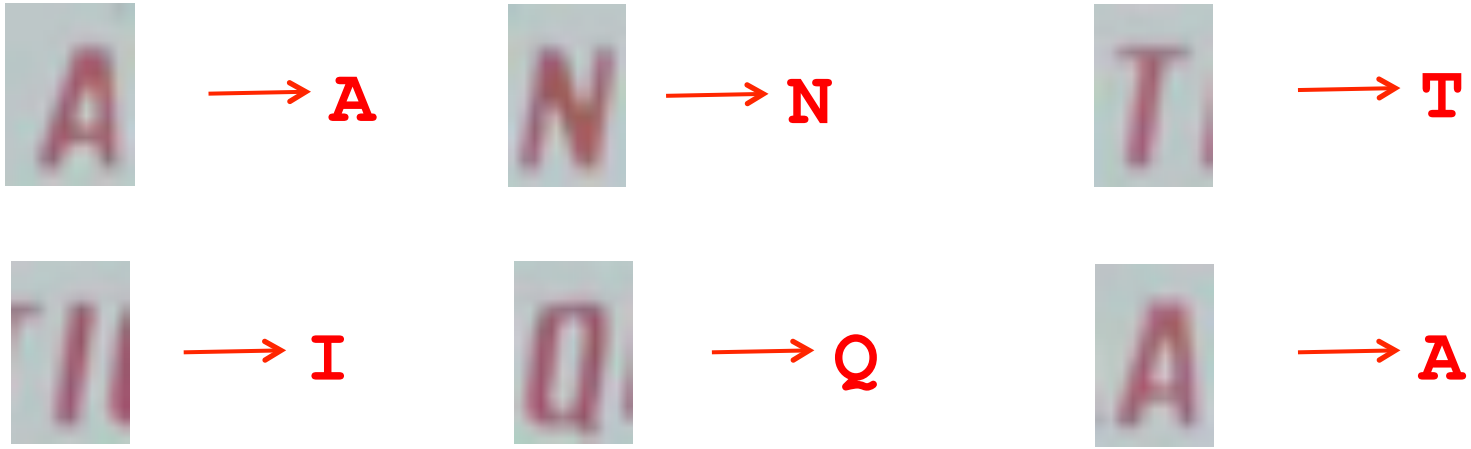


Machine Learning

Application example: Photo OCR

Getting lots of data: Artificial data synthesis

Character recognition



Artificial data synthesis for photo OCR

Real data

Abcdefg

Abcdefg

Abcdefg

Abcdefg

Abcdefg

[Adam Coates and Tao Wang]

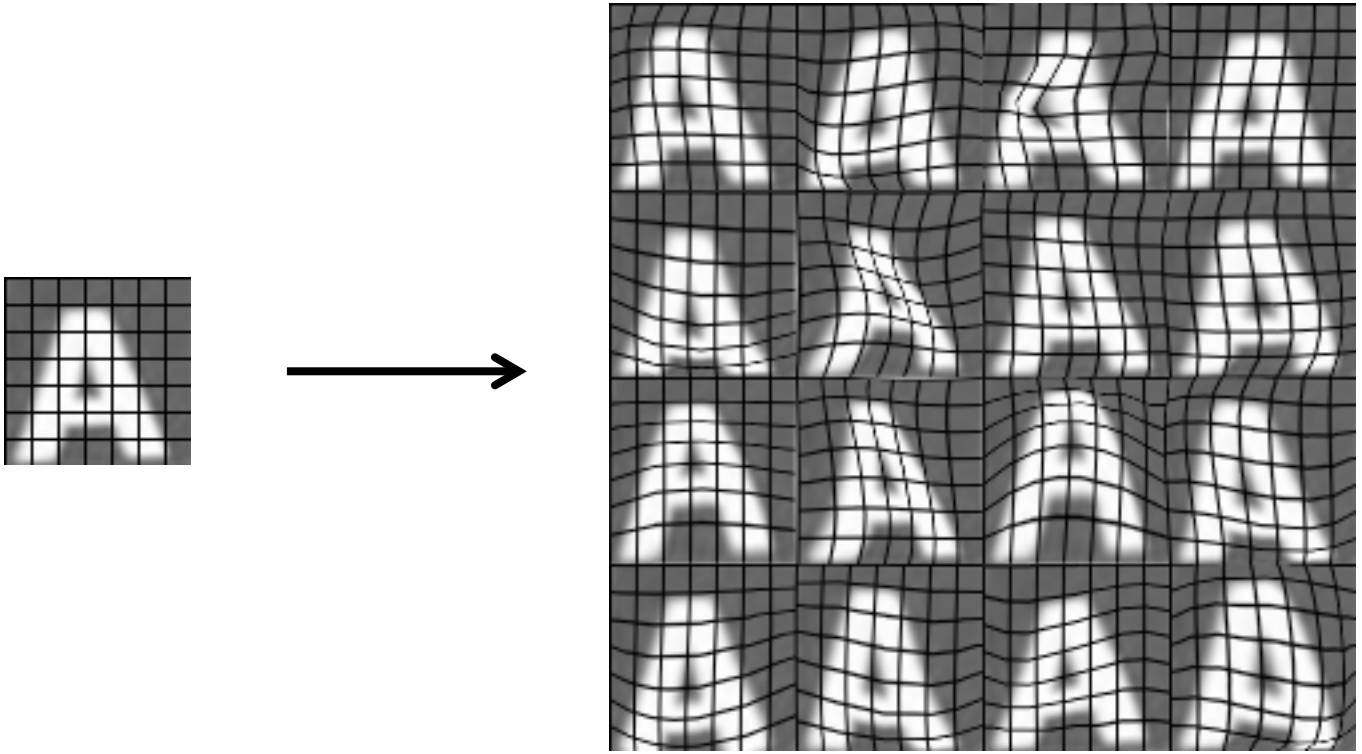
Artificial data synthesis for photo OCR

Real data

Synthetic data

[Adam Coates and Tao Wang]

Synthesizing data by introducing distortions



[Adam Coates and Tao Wang]

Synthesizing data by introducing distortions: Speech recognition

Original audio:

Audio on bad cellphone connection

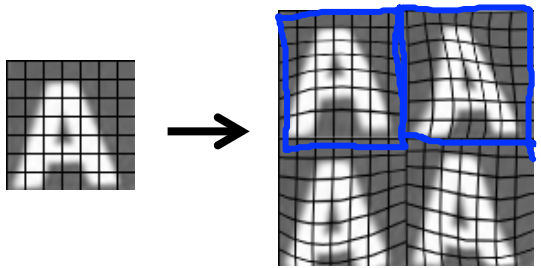
Noisy background: Crowd

Noisy background: Machinery

[www.pdsounds.org]

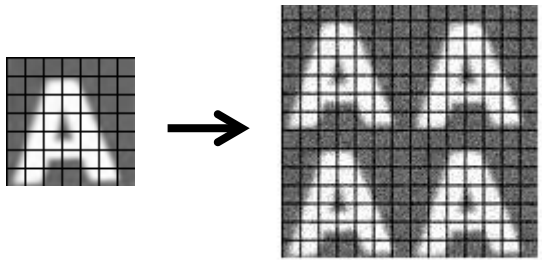
Synthesizing data by introducing distortions

- Distortion introduced should be representation of the type of noise/distortions in the test set.



- Audio:
  Background noise,
  bad cellphone connection

- Usually does not help to add purely random/meaningless noise to your data.

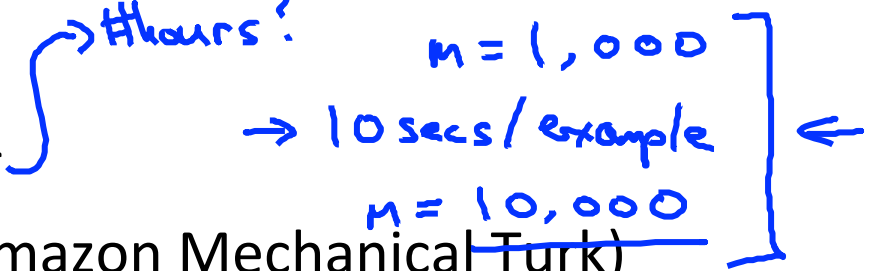


- x_i = intensity (brightness) of pixel i
- $x_i \leftarrow x_i +$ random noise

[Adam Coates and Tao Wang]

Discussion on getting more data

1. Make sure you have a low bias classifier before expending the effort. (Plot learning curves). E.g. keep increasing the number of features/number of hidden units in neural network until you have a low bias classifier.
2. "How much work would it be to get 10x as much data as we currently have?"
   - Artificial data synthesis
   - Collect/label it yourself
   - "Crowd source" (E.g. Amazon Mechanical Turk)



Discussion on getting more data

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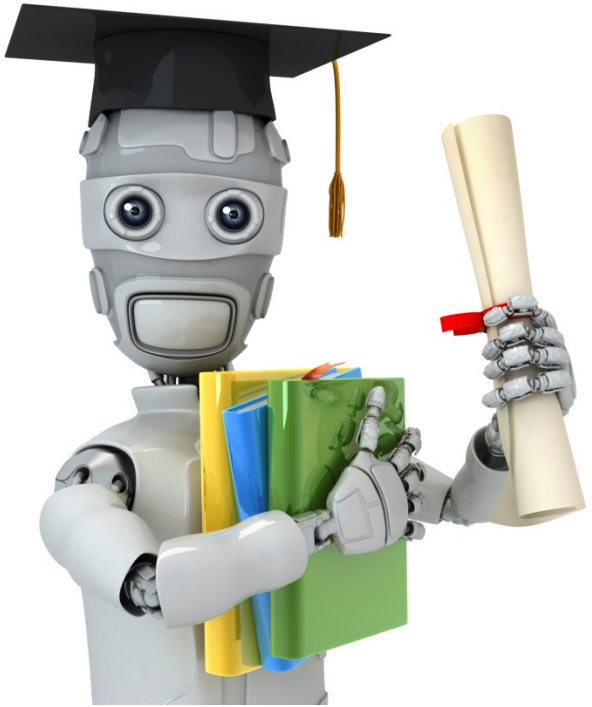
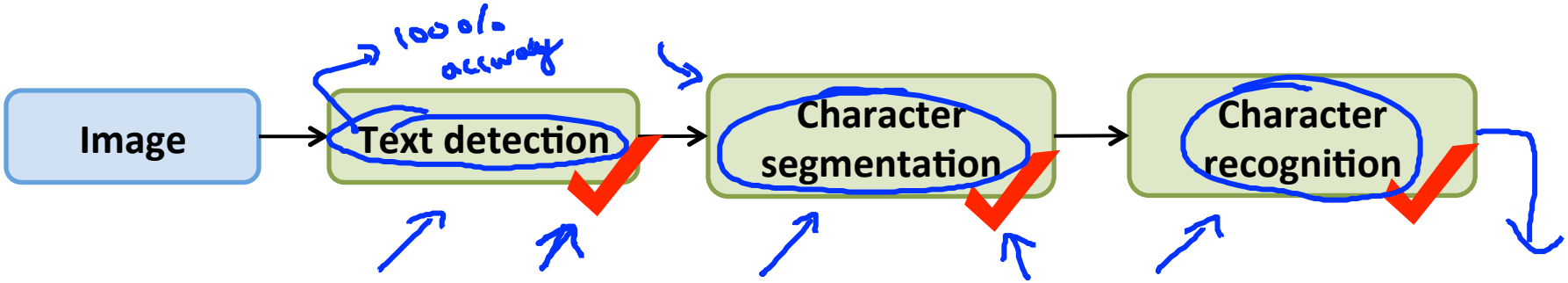


Machine Learning

Application example: Photo OCR

Ceiling analysis: What part of the pipeline to work on next

Estimating the errors due to each component (ceiling analysis)

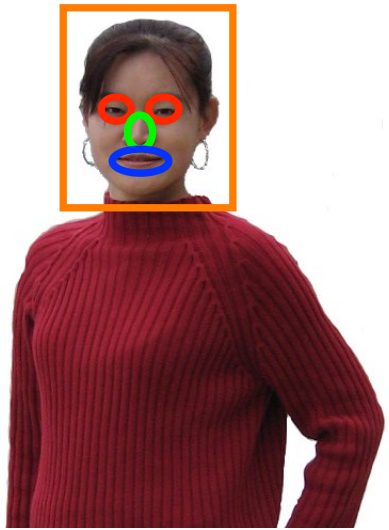


What part of the pipeline should you spend the most time trying to improve?

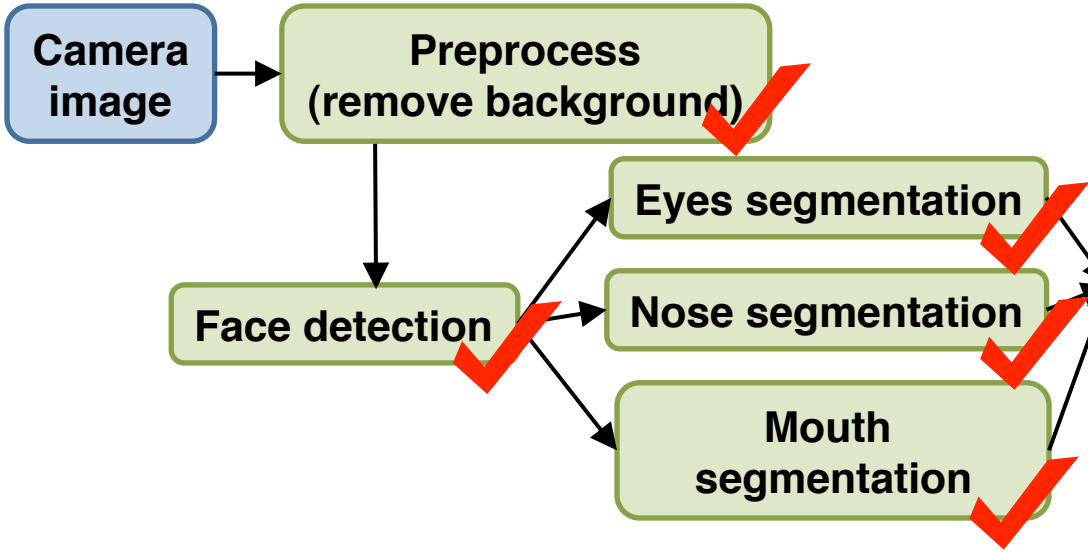
Component	Accuracy
Overall system	72%
Text detection	89%
Character segmentation	90%
Character recognition	100%

Another ceiling analysis example

Face recognition from images
(Artificial example)



Another ceiling analysis example



Component	Accuracy
Overall system	85%
Preprocess (remove background)	85.1%
Face detection	91%
Eyes segmentation	95%
Nose segmentation	96%
Mouth segmentation	97%
Logistic regression	100%

0.1%
5.9%
4%
1%
1%
3%