# CS2109S CheatSheet AY24/25 —— @Jin Hang Basic Concepts

#### PEAS Framework:

- Performance measure: define "goodness" of a solution
- Environment: define what the agent can and cannot do
- Actuators: outputs
- Sensors: inputs

## Properties of Task Environment

Fully observable: (vs. Partially observable) An agent's sensors give it access to the **complete** state of env. at each point in time. Deterministic: (vs. Stochastic) Next state of env. is completely determined by current state and action executed by the agent.

Strategic: env. is deterministic except for actions of other agents. Episodic: (vs. Sequential) Agent's experience is divided into atomic "episodes". Each episode consists of agent perceiving and then performing a single action. The choice of action in each episode depends only on the episode itself.

Static: (vs. Dynamic) The env. is unchanged while an agent is deliberating.

Semi-dynamic: env. itself does not change with passage of time, but the agent's performance score does.

Discrete: (vs. Continuous) A limited number of distinct, clearly defined percepts and actions.

Single agent: (vs. Multi.) An agent operating by itself in an env. Agents

- The agent function maps from percept histories to actions.
- An agent is completely specified by the agent function.
- A rational agent will choose actions that maximize 'P'
- Exploration: Learn more about the world
- Exploitation: Maximize gain based on current knowledge

Uninformed Search

Trick: Assume we know correct max depth for IDS/DLS

- Terminate (have sol): BFS/DLS/IDS
- Terminate (No sol): DLS
- Find Answer: BFS/DLS/IDS

**Graph Search:** Additional  $O(b^m)$  memory to store all visited nodes to avoid revisiting states.

BFS: Queue

- $T(n) = 1 + b + b^2 + \cdots + b^d = O(b^d)$  (# nodes generated)
- $S(n) = O(b^d)$
- Worst case: Expand the last child in a branch
- Complete: Yes, if B is finite. If a solution exists, then the depth of the shallowest node s must be finite, so BFS must eventually search this depth. Hence, it's complete.
- Apply goal-test when PUSHING a successor state to the frontier to preserve completeness.
- Optimal: Generally not optimal because it simply does not take costs into consideration when determining which node to replace on the frontier.
  - Optimal is if all edge costs are equivalent.

#### DFS: Stack

- $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \ \ \, T(n) = O(b^m) \Rightarrow O(b^l) \ \, \text{for DLS} \\ \bullet \ \ \, S(n) = O(bm) \Rightarrow O(bl) \ \, \text{for DLS} \\ \end{array}$
- Complete: No, when depth is infinite or can go back. There exists the possibility that DFS will faithfully yet tragically get "stuck" searching for the deepest node in an infinite-sized search tree \Rightarrow may never find a solution.
- Optimal: No, DFS simply finds the "leftmost" solution in the search tree without regard for path costs.

# Iterative Deepening Search (IDS)

- $T(n) = b^0 + (b^0 + b^1) + \dots + (b^0 + \dots + b^d) = (d+1)b^0 + db^1 + (d-1)b^2 + \dots + 2b^{d-1} + b^d = O(b^d)$  S(n) = O(bd)
- Complete: Yes
- Optimal: Yes, if step cost is the same everywhere
- Overhead = (#IDS #DLS)/#DLS

Uniform-cost Search (UCS): Priority Queue (path cost)

- $T(n) = O(b^{C^*/\epsilon})$
- $S(n) = O(b^{C^*/\epsilon})$
- Complete: Yes, if  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $C^*$  finite. If a goal state exists, it must have some finite length shortest path;  $\Rightarrow$  must find shortest path.
- **Optimal:** Yes, if  $\epsilon > 0$
- $C^*$  cost of optimal solution
- $-\epsilon$  minimum edge cost.  $\epsilon = 0$  may cause zero cost cycle

Bidirectional Search: Forward (from start) and Backward (from goal):  $\Rightarrow 2 \times O\left(b^{d/2}\right) < O(b^d)$ 

Greedy Best-first Search: Priority Queue (f(n) = h(n))

- $T(n), S(n) = O(b^m)$ , good heuristic gives improvement
- Complete and Optimal: No. Particularly when useing a bad heuristic function. It acts unpredictably from scenario to scenario, and can range from going straight to a goal state to acting like a badly-guided DFS and exploring all wrong areas.

**A\* Search:** Priority Queue (f(n) = g(n) + h(n))

- $T(n), S(n) = O(b^m)$ , good heuristic gives improvement
- Complete: Yes
- Optimal: Yes
- If h(n) admissible and using tree search.
- if h(n) is **consistent** and using **graph search**.
- Work with negative edge weights.
- A\* DO NOT work with negative heuristics even admissible

**Admissible:** A heuristic h(n) is admissible if  $\forall n, h(n) \leq h * (n)$ 

- h \* (n) is the true cost to reach the goal state from n.
- Conservative: An admissible heuristic never overestimates the cost to reach the goal

**Manhattan Distance:**  $MD(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) = |x_1 - x_2| + |y_1 - y_2|$ Let  $p_i$  be the current location

- $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \quad \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \mathrm{MD}(p_i,g) \leq \max\{\mathrm{MD}(p_i,g)\} \leq h^*(n) \\ \bullet \quad \frac{1}{2} (\max\{\mathrm{MD}(p_i,g)\} + \min\{\mathrm{MD}(p_i,g)\}) \leq \max\{\mathrm{MD}\} \leq h^*(n) \end{array}$
- $\max\{\min\{MD(p_i, g)\}\}\$   $< h^*(n)$

Consistent:  $\forall n$ , every successor n' of n generated by any action a,  $h(n) \leq c(n, a, n') + h(n')$ , and h(G) = 0.h is consistent  $\Rightarrow$  $f(n') = g(n') + h(n') = g(n) + c(n, a, n') + h(n') \ge g(n) + h(n) = f(n)$  $\Rightarrow f(n)$  is **non-decreasing** along any path

- **Theorem**: If h(G) = 0, then h(n) is consistent  $\Rightarrow$  admissible
- Admissibility does NOT imply consistency.

**Dominance:**  $\forall n, h_2(n) \geq h_1(n)$ , then  $h_2$  dominates  $h_1 \Leftrightarrow h_2$  is better for search if admissible.

• No dominance relationship if h(n) is not admissible.

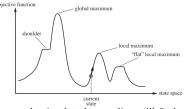
# Local Search

- Goal: minimizes the number of conflict violations
- Almost constant time, but incomplete and sub-optimal
- We are not interested in obtaining the solution path, but rather, reaching the goal state.
- When the search space is huge, using informed search could take a very long time.

# Hill climbing algorithm

- The algorithm does not maintain a search tree but only the states and the corresponding values of the objective.
- May be trapped in local maxima
- Simulated Annealing:

value(next)-value(curr)



Theorem: if T decreases slowly enough, simulated annealing will find a global optimum with high probability.

- $T(n) = O(b^m)$ , S(n) = O(bm), with depth first exploration
- Complete: Yes, if tree is finite
- Optimal: Yes, against optimal opponent

Alpha-beta Pruning: Won't change the decision

• Good move order improves effectiveness of pruning  $\Rightarrow O\left(b^{\frac{m}{2}}\right)$ 

Evaluation Functions: There is no notion of admissibility and consistency in local search and adversarial search.

# Supervised Learning

- Regression: predict continuous output
- Classification: predict discrete output

**Formalism** Assume that y is generated by  $f: x \to y$ . We want to find a hypothesis  $h:x\to \widehat{y}$  (from a hypothesis class H) s.t.  $h\approx f$  given a training set  $\{(x_1, f(x_1)), ..., (x_N, f(x_N))\}$  We use a **learning algorithm** to find this hypothesis

Error: If the output of the hypothesis is a continuous value

- MSE=  $\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(\hat{y}_i-y_i)^2$ , where  $\hat{y}_i=h(x_i)$  and  $y_i=f(x_i)$  MAE=  $\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\|\hat{y}_i-y_i\|$

# **Decision Tree**

- Continues-valued Attributes: Define a discrete-valued input attribute to partition the values into a discrete set of intervals.
- Missing Values:
  - Assign the most common value of the attribute
  - Assign the most common value of attribute with same output

Actual Label

Positive

- Assign probability to each possible value and sample
- Drop the attribute
- Drop the rows
- Accuracy:  $\frac{TP+TN}{TP+FN+FP+TN}$
- Precision: P = TP/(TP + FP)
- Recall: R = TP/(TP + FN)
- F1 Score:  $F1 = \frac{2}{\frac{1}{P} + \frac{1}{R}}$  Maximize Precision/Recall
- ⇔ Minimize FP/FN (Depends on context)
- Entropy:  $I(P(v_1), ..., P(v_n)) = -\sum_{i=1}^n P(v_i) \log_2 P(v_i)$  Remainder: Entropy of children nodes remainder  $(A) = \sum_{i=1}^v \frac{p_i + n_i}{p+n} I(\frac{p_i}{p_i + n_i}, \frac{n_i}{p_i + n_i})$  Information Gain:  $IG(A) = I(\frac{p}{p+n}, \frac{n}{p+n}) \text{remainder}(A)$

Overfitting: DT performance is perfect on training data, but worse on test data. DT captures data perfectly, including the noise.

- Occam's Razor: Prefer short/simple hypotheses. In favor: • Short/simple hypothesis that fits the data is unlikely to be coincidence
- Long/complex hypothesis that fits the data may be coincidence Against:
- Many ways to define small sets of hypotheses (e.g., trees with prime number of nodes that uses attribute beginning with "Z"
- Different hypotheses representations may be used instead Linear Regression

# **MSE:** $J_{MSE}(w) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( h_w(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)} \right)^2$

• MSE loss function is **convex** for linear regression. **Gradient Descent**  $w_j \leftarrow w_j - \gamma \frac{\partial J(w_0, w_1, ..., w_n)}{\partial w_j}$ 

•  $a = \frac{\partial J(w_0, w_1)}{\partial w_0}$ ,  $b = \frac{\partial J(w_0, w_1)}{\partial w_1}$ •  $w_0 = w_0 - \gamma a$ ,  $w_1 = w_1 - \gamma b$ Batch GD: Consider all training examples. Much likely to get stuck in local minima

Mini-batch GD: Consider a subset of training examples at a time; Cheaper (Faster) per iteration; Randomness, may escape local Stochastic GD: Select one random data point at a time: Cheapest

(Fastest) per iteration; More randomness, may escape local minima **Normalization:**  $x_j \leftarrow \frac{x_j - \mu_j}{\sigma_j}$  deal with features of diff. scales.

• Preserves the relationships between the data points

Normal Equation Set  $\frac{\partial J_{MSE}(w)}{\partial w} = 0 \Rightarrow w = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$ 

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1^{(1)} & \dots & x_n^{(1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_1^{(m)} & \dots & x_n^{(m)} \end{bmatrix} \quad Y = \begin{bmatrix} y^{(1)} \\ y^{(2)} \\ \vdots \\ y^{(m)} \end{bmatrix} \quad w = \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix}$$

	Gradient Descent	Normal Equation
γ	Need to choose	No Need
Iteration(s)	Many	None
large # of features	No Problem	Slow $(X^TX)^{-1} \to O(n^3)$
Feature scaling	May be necessary	Not necessary
Constraints		YTY should be invertible

#### Logistic Regression

Logistic function (Sigmoid)  $\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-z}}$ 

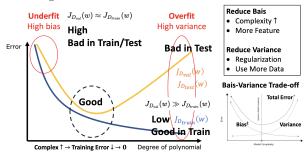
- $\sigma(z)' = \sigma(z)(1 \sigma(z)) \in [0, 0.25]$   $\Pr(y = 1) = p = \sigma(h_w(x)) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-h_w(x)}}$
- $\frac{\partial \log(p)}{\partial w_i} = -\left(\frac{1}{1+e^{-h_w(x)}} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (1+e^{-h_w(x)})\right) =$   $-p(-\frac{\partial h_w(x)}{\partial w_i})e^{-h_w(x)} = p(\frac{\partial h_w(x)}{\partial w_i})(\frac{1}{p}-1) = (1-p)\frac{\partial h_w(x)}{\partial w_i}$   $\frac{\partial \log(1-p)}{\partial w_i} = -\frac{\partial h_w(x)}{\partial w_i} + \frac{\partial \log(p)}{\partial w_i} = -p(\frac{\partial h_w(x)}{\partial w_i})$  When  $h_w(x) = w^T x = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i$ , we have  $\frac{\partial h_w(x)}{\partial w_i} = x_i$

Binary cross-entropy (BCE) Convex for logistic regression

- BCE $(y, \hat{y}) = -y \log(\hat{y}) (1 y) \log(1 \hat{y})$
- $\bullet \ \frac{\partial \text{BCE}(y, h_w(x))}{\partial w_i} = \frac{\partial h_w(x)}{\partial w_i} (h_w(x) y)$
- BCE Loss  $J_{BCE}(w) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} BCE(y^{(i)}, h_w(x^{(i)}))$
- Single data with incorrect prediction  $\rightarrow \infty$  loss  $\Rightarrow$  Not suitable
- Often used for classification tasks

Multi-class Classification: Fit one classifier per class, fit against all other classes. Pick highest probability.

- Sensitivity: TPR=Recall=TP/(TP+FN)
- 1-Specificity: FPR=FP/(FP+TN)
- Choose threshold that have high TPR and low FPR.
- AUC: Area under ROC curve and above x-axis > 0.5 ⇒ better than chance; ≈ 1 ⇒ very accurate.
- Model is more accurate than random chance if ROC curve is above the diagonal random line.



Evaluating the model Accuracy and AUC-ROC metrics Loss Function: Assess proximity of predict to actual Address Over-fitting

- Reduce the number of features  $\Rightarrow$  High poly degree  $\rightarrow$  Low
- Regularization: Keep all features but reduce magnitude  $w_i$

**Regularization:** Parameter  $\lambda$ . For  $h_w(x) := w^T x$ , we have

• (L2:) 
$$J(w) = \frac{1}{2m} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_w(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_j^2 \right]$$

- **GD**:  $w_n \leftarrow w_n \gamma \frac{1}{m} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^m (h_w(x^{(i)}) y^{(i)}) x_n^{(i)} + \lambda w_n \right]$
- Normal Equation Works even if  $X^T X$  non-invertible if  $\lambda > 0$ !

$$\lambda \sum_{j=1}^{n} w_{j}^{2} \rightarrow \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow w = \begin{pmatrix} X^{T} \bar{X} + \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} X : m \times (n+1) \\ \text{Triangle: } (n+1) \times (n+1) \\ Y : m \end{pmatrix}$$

- $\bullet\,$  Heavily penalises larger para. Attempts to pull  ${\bf all}$  para. small **L1:** Use  $\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} |w_i| \Rightarrow \text{Reduce } \# \text{ of features(set less important to 0)}$ [Feature Selection]  $\rightarrow$  Compexity $\downarrow \rightarrow$  prevent over-fitting  $\overline{\text{SVM}}$
- Decision Rule:  $w \cdot x + b \ge 0$  then +
- $y^{(i)}(w \cdot x^{(i)} + b) 1 = 0$  for all  $x^{(i)}$  on margin  $(x^+ x^-) \cdot \frac{w}{\|w\|} = \frac{w \cdot x^+ w \cdot x^-}{\|w\|} = \frac{(1 b) (-1 b)}{\|w\|} = \frac{2}{\|w\|}$  Objective: max  $\frac{2}{\|w\|}$  s.t.  $y^{(i)}(w \cdot x^{(i)} + b) 1 \ge 0$  [Classify
- correctly]  $\Leftrightarrow \min \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2$

- **Soft-Margin:** Allow misclassifications [Higher  $C \to \text{less slack}$ ]  $\min \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_i \xi^{(i)}$  s.t.  $y^{(i)} (w \cdot x^{(i)} + b) 1 \ge 0 \xi^{(i)}$  $\Rightarrow \xi^{(i)} > 1 - y^{(i)}(w \cdot x^{(i)} + b) > 0$
- $J(w,b) = \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 + C \sum \max\{0, 1 y^{(i)}(w \cdot x^{(i)} + b)\}$

Non-linear decision boundary:  $w^T\phi(x) \ge 0$  then  $+\to \phi$  can produce a huge number of features [Not scalable]

- $\Rightarrow \text{SVM: Let } w = \sum_i \alpha^{(i)} y^{(i)} \phi(x^{(i)}), \text{ we have part } \phi(x^{(i)}) \phi(x)$  1D:  $\phi(x) = [x, x^2]^T \Rightarrow K(u, v) = \phi(u) \phi(v) = u \cdot v$  2D:  $\phi(x) = [x_1, x_2, x_1 x_2, x_1^2, x_2^2, \dots]^T \Rightarrow K(u, v) = (u \cdot v)^2$

- $n^d$  Terms:  $K(u,v) = (u \cdot v)^n$  [Kernel]

**Kernel Trick:** map training set into a different space → linear Neural Network

**Sign Function:**  $g(z) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } z \ge 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } z < 0 \end{cases}$ 

**ReLU**  $g(x) = \max(0, x) \Rightarrow g'(x) = 1_{x>0}$ 

- Single-layer perceptron is a linear classifier
- Multi-layer perceptron can learn non-linear decision boundaries

Perceptron Learning Algorithm

- Initialize  $\forall_i w_i$
- Loop (until convergence or max steps reached)
  - For each  $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$ , classify  $\hat{y}^{(i)} = h_w(x^{(i)}) = g(w^T x)$  Select one **misclassified** instance Update weights:  $w \leftarrow w + \gamma(y^{(j)} \hat{y}^{(j)})x^{(j)}$

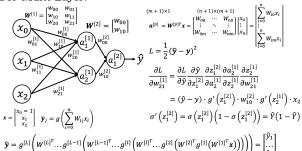
Vanishing gradient:  $\sigma'(z) \in [0, 0.25] \Rightarrow \text{if we } \times \text{many small}$ number together  $\Rightarrow w$  update small  $\Rightarrow$  slow convergence.

Exploding gradient: large gradients got multiplied again and again until it overflows. Mitigation:

- Using Non-saturating Activation Functions, e.g. ReLU
- Gradient Clipping

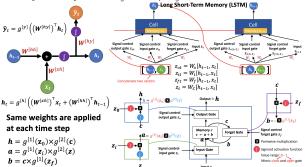
**Gradient Descent:** For signal layer  $w_i \leftarrow w_i - \gamma \frac{dL}{dw_i}$ 

For Multi-Layer:



- Without non-linear activations  $\Rightarrow$  collapses to linear ( $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = A\mathbf{x}$ )
- Reorder data points help model converge faster
- Reorder may direct the model converge to a different weight (model)
- Convolution: Multiply the sliding input window with Kernel/ Filter then sum (Not matrix multiplication) Trainable Parameter Size:  $(W_{\rm in} \times H_{\rm in} \times C_{\rm in} + 1) \times C_{\rm out}$ Feature Map Size:  $\left| \frac{H-K+2P}{C} \right| + 1$
- Max Pooling Reduces dim, no(0) parameters to be learned
- Fully Connected Layer
- (input units × output units) + output units
- Batch Normalization Layer: # of features  $\times$  2
- Dropout applied later to force model pay attention to all of the abstract features of the example.

• Many-to-many:  $T_x = T_y$  or  $T_x \neq T_y$ 



**Self-Attention**  $K^TQ = A \rightarrow A' \rightarrow H = VA'$ 

- Query: information we want to focus on.
- **Key:** info. associated with each input can be compared to query.

• Value: actual info. retrieved based on attention scores.

Transformer: Encoder-Decoder Attention

- Query: Generated based on previous decoder block's output
- Key, Value: Generated based on encoder's output
- Decoder utilize rich contextual info. provided by the encoder
- $\textbf{Hyperparameter Tuning} \Rightarrow \text{Finding the best model}$ • Learning rate • #nodes/layer  $\uparrow$ ] • C
- Epochs
- Activation func
- Kernel #layers [↑] • Architecture Gamma
- ↑ hidden layers is more efficient than ↑ nodes

Unsupervised Learning: Given a set of data points  $\{x^{(1)},...,x^{(m)}\}$ , learn patterns in the data (No label).

- Clustering: identify clusters in the data
- Dimensionality reduction: find a lower-dimensional representation of the data

### K-Means

- Randomly initialize K centroids:  $\mu_1, ..., \mu_K$ ⇒ Multiple restarts of K-means give different solutions
- Repeat until convergence:
  - For  $i = 1, ..., m : c^{(i)} \leftarrow \text{ index of cluster centroid } (u_1 u_n)$ closest to  $x^{(i)}$
- For  $k = 1, ..., K : \mu_k \leftarrow$  centroid of data points  $x^{(i)}$  assigned to cluster k
- No more change: converged!

It can be shown that each step in the K-Means algorithm never increases a certain loss function (the "distortion")

$$\begin{split} J\Big(c^{(1)},c^{(2)},\cdots,c^{(m)},\boldsymbol{\mu}_1,\boldsymbol{\mu}_2,\cdots,\boldsymbol{\mu}_K\Big) &= \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^m \left\|\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_{c^{(i)}}\right\|^2 \\ \textbf{Elbow Method: } \text{Pick } K \text{ at elbow point. } \Rightarrow \text{Heuristic method, data} \end{split}$$

may not have an elbow or have multiple elbows.

K-Medoids Pick the data points that are closest to the centroids, and use them as the centroids.

**Hierarchical Clustering** Cluster Number:  $N, N-1, \ldots 1$ 

- Every data point is a cluster
- Loop (until all points are in one cluster): Find a pair of cluster that is "nearest", merge them together

High space and time complexity: impractical for large datasets. Dimensionality Reduction SVD and PCA

Curse of dimensionality: # of samples to learn a hypothesis class increases exponentially with the # of features.

Idea: Change the basis of the vector to remove dependence between components (dimensions)

Singular Value Decomposition: For any  $n \times m$  real-valued matrix X, there exists a factorization  $X = U\Sigma V^T$  called SVD, such that

- U is  $n \times m$  and has m orthonormal col. [New basis]
- $\Sigma$  is  $m \times m$  and is diagonal with  $\sigma_i \geq 0$  [Basis Importance] • V is  $m \times m$  and has m orth. col. and rows [Combiner]

**SVD Dim Reduction** Set all singular values except first r to 0. Thus  $(n \times r)(r \times r)(r \times m) = (n \times m)$  [encoder-decoder structure]

(
$$n \times r$$
)( $r \times r$ )( $r \times m$ ) = ( $n \times m$ ) [encoder-decoder structure]

• Data Matrix:  $X = U \Sigma V^T \approx \widetilde{U} \widetilde{\Sigma} \widetilde{V}^T$ 

• Reduced data:  $Z := \widetilde{U}^T X$ 

• Reconstructed data:  $\widetilde{X} := \widetilde{U} Z$ 
 $\widetilde{X} = \widetilde{U} Z = \widetilde{U} \widetilde{U}^T X = \widetilde{U} \widetilde{U}^T U \Sigma V^T \approx \widetilde{U} \widetilde{U}^T \widetilde{U} \widetilde{\Sigma} \widetilde{V}^T = \widetilde{U} \widetilde{\Sigma} \widetilde{V}^T \approx U \Sigma V^T = X$ 

Principal Component Analysis By setting r, we only care about the r RVs with largest variance. Capture components that **maximize** the statistical variations of the data.

- Create the covariance matrix of the data:  $Cov(X) = \frac{1}{m} \hat{X} \hat{X}^T$
- Compute SVD on Cov(X) to obtain the U matrix (new basis)
- Reduce r components to obtain  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{U}}$

Note that X's singular values^2 are related to the singular values (variances) in Cov: 
$$XX^T = U\Sigma V^T \big(U\Sigma V^T\big)^T = U\Sigma V^T V\Sigma U^T = U\Sigma \Sigma U^T = U \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & & & \\ & \sigma_2^2 & & \\ & & --- & \vdots & \sigma_m^2 \end{bmatrix} U^T$$

Task: Retain at least 99% of variance in the data:

- Choose minimum r, such that  $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^m \sigma_i^2} \geq 0.99$  Closeness of original and reconstructed data points  $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^m \|\hat{x}^{(i)} \tilde{x}_i\|^2}{\sum_{i=1}^m \|\hat{x}^{(i)}\|^2} \leq 0.01$  **Appendix**

### Magic Entropy Number

- $I(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}) = 1$
- I(1,0)=0
- $I(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}) = 0.811$
- $I(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}) = 0.918$
- $I(\frac{1}{5}, \frac{4}{5}) = 0.722$
- $I(\frac{2}{5}, \frac{3}{5}) = 0.971$
- $I(\frac{1}{6}, \frac{5}{6}) = 0.650$
- $I(\frac{1}{7}, \frac{6}{7}) = 0.592$
- $I(\frac{2}{7}, \frac{5}{7}) = 0.863$ •  $I(\frac{3}{8}, \frac{5}{8}) = 0.954$ •  $I(\frac{3}{7}, \frac{4}{7}) = 0.985$
- $I(\frac{3}{10}, \frac{7}{10}) = 0.881$

- $I(\frac{2}{12}, \frac{5}{12}, \frac{5}{12}) = 1.483$   $I(\frac{1}{7}, \frac{2}{7}, \frac{4}{7}) = 1.379$
- $I(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}) = 1.585$   $I(\frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{2}) = 1.459$  Math:  $\log_2 N = \lg N / \lg 2$

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Information
Course: CS2109S Intro to AI and ML
Type: Final Cheat Sheet
Date: December 4, 2024
Author: QIU JINHANG
Link: https://github.com/jhqiu21/Notes

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