# Machine Learning 1

# 1 Linear Regression

- Supervised Learning (regression, classification)
- Unsupervised Learning (clustering, dimensionality reduction)
- Matrix: single samples are rows
- Derivative of vector input function is column vector
- $\bullet \ \, \boldsymbol{\nabla}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{A}^{\top}, \, \boldsymbol{\nabla}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\boldsymbol{x}^{\top}\boldsymbol{x} = 2\boldsymbol{x}, \, \boldsymbol{\nabla}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\boldsymbol{x}^{\top}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x} = 2\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}$
- Linear Regression: fit line  $y = f(x) + \varepsilon = w_0 + w_1 x + \varepsilon$  (Guassian noise  $\varepsilon \sim N(0, 1)$ )
- Minimize summed/mean squared error SSE =  $\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i))^2$  (differentiable, easy to optimize, estimates mean of target function)
- Multiple inputs:  $SSE = (\boldsymbol{y} \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{w})^{\top} (\boldsymbol{y} \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{w})$  with  $\boldsymbol{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \boldsymbol{x}_1^{\top} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \boldsymbol{x}_n^{\top} \end{bmatrix}$
- Least squares solution ( $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}} SSE = 0$ ):  $\boldsymbol{w}^* = (\boldsymbol{X}^\top \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^\top \boldsymbol{y}$  closed form because SSE convex for linear  $f(\boldsymbol{x})$  (one minimum) and quadratic in w (easy to obtain)
- $R^2 = 1 \frac{\sum (\hat{y}_n y_n)^2}{\sum (y_n \overline{y})^2}$  (quality: how much variation in y explained by variation in x)
- Generalized:  $f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}^{\top} \boldsymbol{w} \to f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \phi(\boldsymbol{x})^{\top} \boldsymbol{w}$ , still linear in w ( $\phi_i$ : basis functions)
- $\boldsymbol{w^*} = (\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Phi})^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top} \boldsymbol{y}$  with  $\boldsymbol{\Phi} = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_1^{\top} \\ \vdots \\ \phi_n^{\top} \end{bmatrix}$  (learn any function with suitable  $\phi_i$ )
- Overfitting: model too complex, fits noise / Underfitting: model too simple for data
- Regularization (limit model): Regularization term in cost function with factor  $\lambda$
- $L_{\text{ridge}} = (\boldsymbol{y} \boldsymbol{\Phi} \boldsymbol{w})^{\top} (\boldsymbol{y} \boldsymbol{\Phi} \boldsymbol{w}) + \lambda \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{w}$  (weight decay / ridge regression)
- $\boldsymbol{w}^*_{\text{ridge}} = (\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Phi} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top} \boldsymbol{y}$  (easier to invert due to full rank)

#### 2 Linear Classification

- Expectation of function wrt a distribution:  $\mathbb{E}_p[f(x)] = \int p(x)f(x)dx$
- Conditional expectation:  $\mathbb{E}_p[f(x)|Y=y] = \int p(x|y)f(x)dx$
- Chain rule:  $\mathbb{E}_p[f(x)] = \int p(y)\mathbb{E}_p[f(x)|Y=y]dx$
- Monte-carlo: estimate expectation by samples
- Covariance:  $\Sigma = \mathbb{E}_p[(x \mu)(x \mu)^{\top}]$ , diagonal: variability, other: correlation
- Bernoulli distribution:  $p(x) = \mu^x (1 \mu)^{(1-x)}$  (coin toss)
- Multinomial / Categorical Distribution:  $p(c) = \prod \mu_k^{\boldsymbol{h}_{c,k}}$  with 1-hot-encoding (die)
- Gaussian Distribution:  $p(x) = N(x|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\}$
- Multivariate:  $p(\boldsymbol{x}) = N(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|2\pi\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}} \exp\{-\frac{(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})}{2}\}$
- Maximum Likelihood Estimation:  $\theta_{\text{ML}} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \operatorname{loglik}(\theta, D)$
- Linear Gaussian model  $p_{\theta}(y|\mathbf{x}) = N(y|\mathbf{w}^{\top}\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \sigma^2) \to \text{MLE}$  solution equvialent to least squares, but variance can also be obtained
- Generative model: Assume form of p(c), p(x|c), learn them, predict: compute  $p(c|x) \to \text{learn full joint distribution of data (hard), gaussian assumption <math>\to \text{error}$
- Discriminative Model: Assume form of p(c|x) and estimate parameters directly from data (simpler than generative modelling, only considers points on border)
- Linear classifier:  $f(x) = w^{T}x + b$  (w normal to line, b is bias)
- Counting number of misclassifications as loss is very difficult to optimize (NP-hard)
- Regression loss is not robust to outliers (labels restricted to 0, 1)
- Solution: squash output with sigmoid (bounded between 0 and 1)
- Probabilistic View:  $p(c|\mathbf{x}) = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} + b)^{c}(1 \sigma(\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} + b))^{1-c} \to \text{optimize loglike-lihood (logistic regression): cross-entropy loss: } -\sum_{i} c_{i} \log f(\mathbf{x}_{i}) + (1 c_{i}) \log(1 f(\mathbf{x}_{i})) \to \text{convex but no closed form } \to \text{gradient descent}$
- Generalized: Use basis functions to make data linear seperable in feature space
- L2 regularization loss: penalty( $\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}$ ) =  $||\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}||^2$
- General optimization form:  $\operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \sum l(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda \operatorname{penalty}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$
- Gradient descent:  $x_{t+1} = x_t \eta \nabla f(x_t)$  with learning rate  $\eta$

- Terminate: change small, gradient small, change in value small, or after fixed time
- Stochastic: use one sample for step (good far away, struggle to find exact optimum)
- Stochastic approximation theory: SGD converges to optimum for strictly convex functions if  $\sum \eta_t = \infty$  and  $\sum \eta_t^2 < \infty$  (for example  $\eta_t = \frac{1}{t}$ )
- Stochastic gradients often better than batch since data-set contains redundancy
- Mini-Batches: intermediate between stochastic and batch, preferable for GPU
- Softmax:  $p(c = i | \boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{\exp(\boldsymbol{w}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}))}{\sum \exp(\boldsymbol{w}_k^\top \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}))}$  (each class gets a weight vector)
- Multiclass Classification:  $p(c|\mathbf{x}) = \Pi \ p(c = k|\mathbf{x})^{\mathbf{h}_{c,k}}$  (use softmax)  $\rightarrow$  can be optimized by gradient descent

## 3 Model Selection

- Model complexity (linear regression: features,  $\lambda$ ; decision tree: depth, number of leaves; NNs: layers, neurons; SVMs: features, regularization; Gaussian Processes: kernel bandwith)  $\rightarrow$  model selection problem
- True risk (unknown) vs. emperical risk (can be evaluated)
- Overfitting (small emperical/high true risk)/Underfitting (high emperical/true risk)
- Expected loss for model and data set size n:  $R(\hat{f}_{D_n}) = \mathbb{E}_{D_n}[\mathbb{E}_{x,y}[(\hat{f}_{D_n}(\boldsymbol{x}) y)^2)]]$   $= \mathbb{E}_{D_n}[\mathbb{E}_x[(\hat{f}_{D_n}(\boldsymbol{x}) - \hat{f}_*(\boldsymbol{x}))^2]] + \mathbb{E}_x[(\hat{f}_*(\boldsymbol{x}) - f(\boldsymbol{x}))^2] + \sigma^2$  $= \text{Variance} + \text{Bias}^2 + \text{Noise (bias (structure error) due to restriction of model, variance due to randomness of data set, <math>\hat{f}_{D_n}$ : estimate of f from data  $f_n$ ,  $f_*(\boldsymbol{x}) = \mathbb{E}_{D_n}[\hat{f}_{D_n}(\boldsymbol{x})]$ : best model possible,  $f_n(\boldsymbol{x}) = f(\boldsymbol{x}) + \varepsilon$
- Underfitting: low variance / high bias; Overfitting: high variance / low bias
- Hold-out method: Judge generalization error with validation data set to pick model (needs more data, unlucky splits can give misleading results)
- Cross validation: Split dataset into k folds, use each as validation once
- Leave-One-Out: k = n / Random sub-sampling: Random points used in each fold
- Avoid overfitting: low complexity, regularize, early stopping, noise, augmentation
- Regularization: penalty<sub>L2</sub>( $\theta$ ) =  $||\theta||_2$  (optimizing easy)/penalty<sub>L1</sub>( $\theta$ ) =  $||\theta||_1$  (hard, leads to sparse solutions)
- Early stopping: similar effects to L2, efficient (only store best and current weights), simple, no hyper parameter (but needs validation data)
- Linear regression: input noise (leads to more robust solutions) is the same as L2

## 4 Nearest Neighbours, Trees and Forests

- Non-parametric methods: use training data directly for prediction (complexity adapts to training data, very fast training, slow predictions, hard for high dimensions)
- KNN: needs lots of training data and less than 20 attributes, can learn complex functions, regression works similar
- Increasing k reduces variance, increases bias
- Euclidean distance when each variable has same unit, otherwise normalize data
- Cosine Distance (documents, images), Hamming Distance (string data/categorical features), Manhatten Distance (coordinate-wise), Mahalanobis Distance (unaffected by coordinate transformations)
- Performance of KNN degrades with irrelevant dimensions/high dimensions (most points far away) → dimensionality reduction, feature selection
- KD-Tree to find neighbours; Build: choose dimension by longest hyperrectangle side, median as pivot; Traverse: move down tree, find region containing  $\boldsymbol{x}$ , find closest  $\boldsymbol{x}^*$ , move up for regions intersecting hypersphere, update  $\boldsymbol{x}^*$
- Regression/Classification Tree: split data into two at each node using criterion
- Splitting criterion regression: Minimum residual sum of squares: RSS =  $\sum_{\text{left}} (y_i \overline{y}_L)^2 + \sum_{\text{right}} (y_i \overline{y}_R)^2$ ,  $\overline{y}$ : average label subtree (variance in subtrees minimized)
- Criterion classification: Minimum entropy: score =  $N_L H(p_L) + N_R H(p_R)$ ,  $H(p_i) = -\sum_k p_i(k) \log p_i(k)$ : subtree entropy,  $p_i(k)$ : proportion of class k in subtree i
- Stop: Minimum number of samples per node / maximum depth (tree complexity)
- Trees: easy to compute, no distributional assumption, non-linear, automatic variable selection, easy to interpret, lower accuracy, sensitive to data change
- Random Forests: use multiple trees to improve accuracy
- Bagging: Fit trees to bootstrap samples from data (combine by voting/averaging)
- Ideal: linear variance reduction (trees correlated → reduction still significant)
- Bagging: less variance, bias unaffected → use strong trees (high variance/low bias)
- Random Forests: Also randomize considered variables at each splitting criterion, grow to maximum depth (loss of interpretability, good accuracy, less unstable)

# 5 Dimensionality Reduction and Clustering

- Motivation: Invert  $X^{\top}X$  for linear regression:  $d \times d \to O(d^3) \to \text{find } d_{\text{new}} \ll d$
- Find (linear) mapping  $x_i \to z_i$  to lower dimension with  $z_i = Wx_i$
- Orthonormal basis system:  $\boldsymbol{x} = \sum_{i}^{D} z_{i} \boldsymbol{u}_{i} \rightarrow z_{i} = \boldsymbol{u}_{i}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x} \rightarrow \text{only use subset for dimensionality reduction (minimize squared reproduction error <math>\sum ||\boldsymbol{x}_{i} \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_{i}||^{2}$ )
- Minimizing error  $\Leftrightarrow$  maximizing variance of projection (with zero mean data)
- Principle component analysis: find principal directions  $u_i$  and their variance  $\lambda_i$
- $u_1 = \operatorname{argmax}_u \frac{1}{N} \sum (u^\top (x_i \mu))^2$  s.t.  $u^\top u = 1$ ,  $u_2$  maximizes variance in orthogonal complement of  $u_1$
- Objective can be written in terms of sample covariance:  $E(u) = u^{\top} \Sigma u$
- Constraint Optimization: Lagrangian Multipliers  $(L = \text{objective} \text{multiplier} \cdot \text{constraint})$ :  $\min_x x^2$  s.t.  $x \ge b \to \min_x \max_\alpha L(x, \alpha) = x^2 \alpha(x b)$  s.t.  $\alpha \ge 0$  (Min forces max to behave such that constraints are satisfied)
- Dual formulation:  $\lambda^* = \operatorname{argmax} g(\lambda), \ g(\lambda) = \min_x L(x, \lambda) \text{ s.t. } \lambda_i \geq 0, x^* = \operatorname{argmin}_x L(x, \lambda^*) \text{ (swap min/max)}$
- Slaters condition: convex objective/constraints ⇒ dual ⇔ primal (original)
- PCA:  $\mathbf{u}_1 = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{u} \text{ s.t. } \mathbf{u}^{\top} \mathbf{u} = 1 \Rightarrow L(\mathbf{u}, \lambda) = \mathbf{u}^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{u} + \lambda (\mathbf{u}^{\top} \mathbf{u} 1) \Rightarrow \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u} \text{ (eigenvalue problem, largest value: maximum variance, vector: direction)}$
- Representation has minimum MSE of all linear representations of same dimension
- PCA: Subtract mean, (normalize variance of each dimension), choose first M largest eigenvalues/their vectors of  $\Sigma$ ,  $z_i = B^{\top}(x_i \mu)$ , reprojection:  $\tilde{x}_i = \mu + Bz_i$
- Choose M: based on application performance/based on captured variance
- Applications: face detection, morphing, natural image patches, ...
- Clustering Group data using similarity measure  $(D(A, B) = D(B, A), D(A, B) = 0 \Leftrightarrow A = B, D(A, B) \leq D(A, C) + D(B, C))$
- Hierarchical Clustering: Dendrogram (similarity: height of lowest shared node)
- Outlier: single isolated branch
- Heurestic search of all possible trees: Bottom-up / Top-down (find best division)
- Bottom-up: each sample in own cluster, merge closest two clusters, until single cluster left (requires distance measure for samples and clusters)

- Cluster similarity: single linkage (minimum distance between two points) / complete linkage (maximum distance) / average linkage / centroid linkage
- Hierarchical: any number of clusters,  $O(n^2)$ , local optima, subjective interpretation
- Flat Clustering: K-Means: minimize quantization error (sum of squared distances)  $SSD(C, D) = \sum d(\mathbf{x}_i, c(\mathbf{x}_i))^2$
- Iteration: 1. pick K random centroids  $c_i$ , 2. assign each point to closest  $c_i$ , 3. move centroids to mean of assigned points, 4. go to step 2 until no change
- SSD =  $\sum_i \sum_k \delta_{ik} d(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{c}_k)^2 \to \text{assignment minimizes w.r.t. } \delta_{ik}$ , adjustment w.r.t.  $\boldsymbol{c}_k$
- K-Means locally minimizes SSD (depends on intialization, global NP-hard)
- K-Means++: first centroid random, each following centroid furthest from all others
- Choose K: objective function decrease on holdout set or Knee-finding method
- Knee-finding: plot SSD for K, pick point where decrease is no longer steep
- K-Means: converges quickly, local optima, not applicable to categorical data/noisy data/outliers, clusters must be convex

### 6 Density Estimation and Expectation Maximization

- Non-parametric models (don't know form of class-conditional density) → estimate directly from data (histograms, kernel density, KNN)
- Histograms: general, need exponential data (curse of dimensionality), fixed region size,  $p(x) \approx \frac{K}{NV}$  (K points in region R, N: total points, V: volume of R)
- Center R on x: Kernel density: fix V, determine K, KNN: fix K, determine V
- Kernel Density Estimation:  $k(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ : non-negative, distance-dependent:  $k(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = g(\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}), \ V = \int g(\boldsymbol{u}) d\boldsymbol{u}, \ K(\boldsymbol{x}_*) = \sum g(\boldsymbol{x}_* \boldsymbol{x}_i) \rightarrow p(\boldsymbol{x}_*) \approx \frac{K(\boldsymbol{x}_*)}{NV}$
- Parzen Window (hypercubes):  $g(\mathbf{u}) = 1$  if  $|u_j| \leq \frac{h}{2}, j = 1 \dots d$ , else  $0 \Rightarrow p(\mathbf{x}_*) \approx \frac{K(\mathbf{x}_*)}{Nh^d}$ , h: bandwidth, d: dimensionality (easy to compute, not very smooth)
- Gaussian Kernel:  $g(\boldsymbol{u}) = \exp(-\frac{||\boldsymbol{u}||^2}{2h}) \to p(\boldsymbol{x}_*) \approx \frac{1}{N\sqrt{(2\pi h)^d}} \sum \exp(-\frac{||\boldsymbol{x}_* \boldsymbol{x}_i||^2}{2h})$  (smooth, infinite support, computationally intensive, bigger  $h \to \text{smoother curve}$ )
- Cross-validation for bin size/bandwidth/neighbours (highest likelihood on test-set)
- Mixture Models generality of non-parametric models and efficiency of parametric models → create complex distribution by combining simple ones (e.g. Gaussians)
- Mixture coefficient · component:  $p(x) = \sum p(k)p(x|k) \sim \text{any smooth density}$

- $p(k) = \pi_k \ge 0, \sum \pi_k = 1, p(x|k) = N(x|\mu_k, \Sigma_k), \theta = \{\pi_1, \mu_1, \Sigma_1, \dots, \pi_K, \mu_K, \Sigma_K\}$
- Gradient descent on marginal log-likelihood? → possible, inefficient (depends on all components, no closed form, slow convergence, sum does not go well with log)
- Mixture models  $\rightarrow$  latent variable models (observed variables  $\boldsymbol{x}$  and latent variables  $\boldsymbol{z}$ ):  $p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$  (parametric model),  $p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{z} p(\boldsymbol{x}, z|\boldsymbol{\theta})$  (marginal distribution)
- Kullback-Leibler Divergence (similarity of distributions):  $\mathrm{KL}(q||p) = \sum_{x} q(x) \log \frac{q(x)}{p(x)}$  (non-negative, zero for same distribution, non-symmetric  $\to$  no distance metric)
- Expectation-Maximization algorithm estimates latent variable models (iteratively increases lower bound of the marginal log-likelihood) → local optima
- $\log p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{z} q(z) \log \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x},z|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{q(z)} + \sum_{z} q(z) \log \frac{q(z)}{p(z|\boldsymbol{x})} = L(q,\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \mathrm{KL}(q(z)||p(z|\boldsymbol{x}))$  (decomposition holds for any q(z), it makes optimization much simpler)
- $L(q, \theta) \leq \log p(x|\theta)$  contains joint distribution  $\rightarrow$  easier to optimize (often convex)
- Expectation step: Find q(z) to minimize  $KL \to q(z) = p(z|\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{old}}) = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}, z|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{old}})}{\sum_{z} p(\boldsymbol{x}, z|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{old}})}$  (closed form for discrete  $z) \Rightarrow KL = 0 \Rightarrow$  lower bound  $L(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{old}})$  tight at  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{old}}$
- Maximization step: Maximize  $L(q, \theta)$ :  $\theta_{\text{new}} = \operatorname{argmax} \sum_{z} q(z) \log p(x, z | \theta) + \operatorname{const}$
- Full dataset:  $L(q, \theta) = \sum_{i} (\sum_{k} q_{ik} \log p(\mathbf{x}_{i}, k | \theta) \sum_{k} q_{ik} \log q_{ik})$  with  $q_{ik} = q_{i}(z = k)$  (one latent variable per data-point)
- Gaussian mixture models E-step: Compute "responsibilities" of components:  $q_{ik} = \frac{\pi_k N(\boldsymbol{x}_i | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{\sum_j \pi_j N(\boldsymbol{x}_i | \boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j)} = p(z = k | \boldsymbol{x}_i)$
- M-step: Seperate updates for additive objectives:  $\boldsymbol{\pi} = \operatorname{argmax} \sum_{i} \sum_{k} q_{ik} \log \pi_{k}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k} = \operatorname{argmax} \sum_{i} q_{ik} \log N(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}) \rightarrow \text{weighted ML estimation}$
- $\pi_k = \frac{\sum_i q_{ik}}{N}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_k = \frac{\sum_i q_{ik} \boldsymbol{x}_i}{\sum_i q_{ik}}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k = \frac{\sum_i q_{ik} (\boldsymbol{x}_i \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) (\boldsymbol{x}_i \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top}{\sum_i q_{ik}}$
- EM for GMMs: Initialize (K-Means for component means and fixed covariance), until convergence: E-step (responsibilities  $q_{ik}$ ), M-step (update  $\pi$ ,  $\mu_k$ ,  $\Sigma_k$ )
- EM very sensitive to intialization, K-Means special case of EM
- More components → better likelihood (beware of overfitting)
- EM for dimensionality reduction (probabilistic PCA):  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{z} + \boldsymbol{\mu} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ , (latent variable  $\mathbf{z}$ : low dimensional representation,  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ : constant offset,  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \sim N(0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$ : noise)
- Continuous latent variable: p(z) = N(0, I), observation model  $p(x|z, \theta) = N(Wz + \mu, \sigma^2 I)$  with parameters  $\theta = \{W, \mu, \sigma^2\}$
- Generative process: sample  $m{z} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, m{I})$ , project:  $m{y} = m{W} m{z} + m{\mu}$ , add noise:  $m{x} = m{y} + m{\varepsilon}$

- Maximize marginal loglike $(\theta) = \sum_i \log(\int_z N(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{W}\boldsymbol{z} + \boldsymbol{\mu}, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{I}) N(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{0}, \boldsymbol{I}) d\boldsymbol{z}) \to \mathrm{EM}$
- E-step: Posterior  $q_i(z) = p(z|x_i, \theta)$  with  $\mu_{z|x_i} = (\boldsymbol{W}^\top \boldsymbol{W} + \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{I})^{-1} \boldsymbol{W}^\top (\boldsymbol{x}_i \boldsymbol{\mu}), \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{z|x_i} = \sigma^2 (\boldsymbol{W}^\top \boldsymbol{W} + \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{I})^{-1}$  (only possible because  $\boldsymbol{x}$  is linear in  $\boldsymbol{z}$ )
- M-step:  $L(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{i} \mathbb{E}_{q_{i}(z)}[\log p(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}|\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{\theta})] + \text{const} \approx \sum_{i} \log p(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}|\boldsymbol{z}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \text{ with } \boldsymbol{z}_{i} \sim q_{i}(\boldsymbol{z}) \text{ (approximate with single sample per } \boldsymbol{x}_{i}) \rightarrow \text{solution: standard least squares:} \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu} \\ \boldsymbol{W} \end{bmatrix} = (\boldsymbol{Z}^{\top}\boldsymbol{Z})^{-1}\boldsymbol{Z}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X}, \sigma^{2} = \frac{1}{nd}\sum_{i}^{n}\sum_{k}^{d}(y_{ik} x_{ik})^{2}$
- ullet PCA with eigenvectors preferred (one step  $\to$  very fast), probabilistic PCA provides density, helps understand EM and more complex dimensionality reduction methods
- EM: assumes KL can be zero (posterior can be evaluated analytically), z must be discrete/linear gaussian  $\rightarrow$  Variational Bayes/Inference can work with KL > 0

#### 7 Kernel Methods

- Kernel: represent  $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$  by  $[K]_{ij} = k(x_i, x_j)$   $(k: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$ : comparison)
- $\bullet$  Modularity between choice of k and algorithm, poor scalability
- $\bullet$  Positive definite kernel function k: symmetric, K is always positive definite
- $k(x, x') = \langle \phi(x), \phi(x') \rangle$ : positive definite kernel (arbitrary feature function  $\phi$ )
- Theorem: positive definite (p.d.) kernel  $\Leftrightarrow$  associated feature space
- Kernel for polynomial features of degree d:  $k(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}') = \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}' \rangle^d$
- Gaussian kernel:  $k(x, y) = \exp(-\frac{||x-y||^2}{2\sigma^2})$  with bandwidth  $\sigma$  (most used kernel)
- Gaussian kernel is inner product of two infinite dimensional feature vectors  $\rightarrow$  p.d.
- Kernel trick: feature based algorithms can use infinite dimensional feature space if rewritten to contain inner products of feature vectors → better than linear features
- Kernel ridge regression:  $\boldsymbol{w}^* = (\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Phi} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top} \boldsymbol{y} = \boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top} (\boldsymbol{\Phi} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1} \boldsymbol{y} \to d \times d$  matrix inversion (infinite) to  $N \times N$  matrix inversion ( $\boldsymbol{K}$ , by using matrix identity)
- $\boldsymbol{w}^*$  still d-dimensional, but can evaluate  $f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \phi(\boldsymbol{x})^{\top} \boldsymbol{w}^* = \boldsymbol{k}(\boldsymbol{x})^{\top} (\boldsymbol{K} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1} \boldsymbol{y} = \sum_i \alpha_i k(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{x})$  with  $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\boldsymbol{K} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1} \boldsymbol{y}$
- Comparison to linear regression with gaussian features: kernel allows setting centers adaptively (fixed without kernel trick)
- Choose hyper-parameter bandwidth via cross-validation
- Kernel methods (ridge regression, gaussian processes, SVMs): must store all samples, high computation, flexible representation, good for small data, hard to scale

# 8 Support Vector Machines

- Classification: class labels 1 and -1 for SVMs  $(f(x_i)y_i > 0)$
- Scalar projection of  $\boldsymbol{a}$  on  $\boldsymbol{b}$ :  $a_b = \frac{\boldsymbol{a}^{\top} \boldsymbol{b}}{||\boldsymbol{b}||}$
- Support vectors: data points closest to decision boundary (other samples ignored), maximize margin  $\rho$
- Maximum margin classifier has smaller complexity  $\Rightarrow$  generalizes better
- Distance between point  $x_i$  and line:  $r = \frac{w^\top x_i + b}{||w||}$
- Choose scaling for  $\boldsymbol{w}, b$  so that  $\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_{+} + b = 1$  (positive support vector),  $\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_{-} + b = -1$  (negative support vector)  $\rightarrow \rho = \frac{2}{||\boldsymbol{w}||}$
- Optimization problem:  $\operatorname{argmax}_{w\frac{2}{||w||}} \text{ s.t. } w^{\top} x_i + b \ge 1 \text{ if } y_i = 1, \le -1 \text{ if } y_i = -1$  (one positive + negative point satisfy equality, otherwise weight could be reduced)
- Reformulation:  $\operatorname{argmin}_{u}||\boldsymbol{w}||^2$ , s.t.  $y_i(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top}\boldsymbol{x}_i+b) > 1$  (convex, single optimum)
- Choose trade-off between margin and accuracy (for outliers)  $\rightarrow$  slack-variables  $\xi_i \geq 0$  allow violation of margin:  $y_i(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top}\boldsymbol{x}_i + b) \geq 1 \xi_i \Rightarrow \operatorname{argmin}_{w,\xi}||w||^2 + C\sum \xi_i$  (C: inverse regularization, small  $\rightarrow$  large  $\rho$ , large  $\rightarrow$  small  $\rho$ , infinite  $\rightarrow$  hard  $\rho$ )
- Reformulated as unconstrained optimization:  $\operatorname{argmin}_{w} ||w||^{2} + C \sum_{i} \max(0, 1 y_{i}f(x_{i})) = \operatorname{regularization} + \operatorname{hinge loss} \to \operatorname{convex}$ , one minimum, but not differentiable  $\to \operatorname{similar}$  to logistic regression loss
- Hinge loss:  $\max\{0, 1 y_i f(\boldsymbol{x}_i)\}$  / Logistic loss:  $\log(1 + \exp(-y_i f(\boldsymbol{x}_i))) \rightarrow y_i f(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$  should be large for both / saturates if it gets too large
- Sub-gradient: Any g at point x so that  $f(z) \ge f(x) + g^{\top}(z x)$ , if f is differentiable at  $x \Rightarrow g = \nabla f(x)$
- Let  $f(x) = \max\{f_1(x), f_2(x)\}$ .  $f_1(x) = f_2(x) \Rightarrow g \in [\nabla f_1(x), \nabla f_2(x)]$
- Sub-gradient descent:  $\boldsymbol{x}_{t+1} = \boldsymbol{x}_t + \eta \boldsymbol{g}$  (does not always decrease f, store best  $\boldsymbol{x}^*$ ) SVMs: each iteration, pick random  $(\boldsymbol{x}_i, y_i)$ .  $y_i f(\boldsymbol{x}_i) < 1$ :  $\boldsymbol{w}_{t+1} = \boldsymbol{w}_t \eta (2\boldsymbol{w}_t Cy_i \boldsymbol{x}_i)$ , otherwise  $\boldsymbol{w}_{t+1} = \boldsymbol{w}_t \eta 2\boldsymbol{w}_t$
- SVM: classification standard in 90s/00s (pedestrian detection, text categorization, character recognition, bioinformatics), extends to regression, outperformed by NNs
- Kernel SVM: Dual derivation:  $\mathbf{w}^* = \sum_i \lambda_i y_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$  ( $\lambda_i$ : constraint coefficient)
- $\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = -\sum_i \lambda_i y_i \Rightarrow \sum_i \lambda_i y_i = 0$  no solution for b, but additional condition (b can be computed from  $\boldsymbol{w}$ :  $b = y_i \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \phi(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$  (for  $\boldsymbol{x}_i$  on margin))

- Kernel trick for SVMs:  $g(\lambda) = \sum \lambda_i \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \sum_j \lambda_i \lambda_j y_i y_j k(x_i, x_j)$
- Dual optimization (slack variables):  $\max_{\lambda} \sum \lambda_i \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \sum_j \lambda_i \lambda_j y_i y_j k(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{x}_j)$  s.t.  $C \ge \lambda_i \ge 0$ ,  $\sum \lambda_i y_i = 0$  with  $b = y_k \sum_i y_i \lambda_i k(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{x}_k)$  where  $C > \lambda_k > 0$  and  $f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_i y_i \lambda_i k(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{x}) + b$  (upper bound C limits  $\lambda_i$  so misclassifications allowed)
- Control overfitting: set C (low  $C \to \text{low complexity}$ ), choose kernel, vary bandwidth

# 9 Bayesian Machine Learning

- Estimate  $\theta^*$  uncertainty, infinite predictors (mean)  $\rightarrow$  give prediction uncertainty
- Compute posterior  $p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|D) = \frac{p(D|\boldsymbol{\theta})p(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{p(D)}$ ,  $p(D|\boldsymbol{\theta})$ : data likelihood,  $p(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ : prior (subjective belief), p(D): evidence (normalization, later used for model comparison)
- Compute predictive distribution (marginal likelihood)  $p(\mathbf{x}^*|D) = \int p(\mathbf{x}^*|\boldsymbol{\theta})p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|D)d\boldsymbol{\theta}$ ,  $p(\mathbf{x}^*|\boldsymbol{\theta})$ : likelihood (weighted ensemble method, often uses samples of  $p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|D)$ )
- Prior should express belief and domain knowledge  $\xrightarrow{\mathrm{ML}}$  weights should be small  $\rightarrow p(\theta) = N(\theta|\mathbf{0}, \lambda^{-1}\mathbf{I})$ ,  $\lambda$ : precision of the prior
- Completing the square: Bring exponent in canonical squared form:  $\exp(-\frac{1}{2}a\mu^2 + b\mu + \text{const}) \to \text{for gaussian distributions: } \mu_N = a^{-1}b, \ \sigma_N^2 = a^{-1}$
- Posterior if prior/likelihood are gaussian:  $\mu_N = \frac{N\sigma_0^2}{N\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} \mu_{\rm ML} + \frac{\sigma^2}{N\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} \mu_0$  and  $\sigma_N^2 = \frac{\sigma^2\sigma_0^2}{N\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2}$  with  $\mu_{\rm ML} = \frac{\sum x_i}{N}$  and  $\mu_0, \sigma_0$  from prior (variance decreases with more training samples, posterior interpolates between prior mean/sample average)
- Gaussian Propagation: predictive distribution is gaussian with  $\mu_{x^*} = \mu_N$  and  $\sigma_{x^*}^2 = \sigma_N^2 + \sigma^2$
- Conjugate prior for likelihood function  $\Leftrightarrow$  posterior/prior: same distribution family
- Bayesian Learning: For large datasets: point estimate, advantage for small dataset
- Simplification: Maximum a-posteriori solution:  $\theta_{\text{MAP}} = \operatorname{argmax} \log p(D|\theta) + \log p(\theta)$ maximizes posterior  $\rightarrow$  use for prediction:  $p(\boldsymbol{x}^*|D) \approx p(\boldsymbol{x}^*|\theta_{\text{MAP}})$
- MAP regression: gaussian prior  $\leftrightarrow$  L2; gaussian likelihood  $\leftrightarrow$  squared loss  $\Leftrightarrow$  ridge regression ( $\lambda_{\text{ridge}} = \lambda \sigma^2$ , uncertainty only depends on estimated noise  $\sigma^2$ )
- Bayesian linear regression: likelihood:  $p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{w}) = N(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\Phi}\boldsymbol{w}, \sigma^2\boldsymbol{I})$  (multivariate distribution,  $\sigma^2$ : noise variance), prior:  $p(\boldsymbol{w}) = N(\boldsymbol{w}|\boldsymbol{0}, \lambda^{-1}\boldsymbol{I})$
- Gaussian Bayes Rule 1/2 for evaluating  $p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{y})$  (different derivations of posterior distribution): rule 1 if  $\dim(\boldsymbol{y}) < \dim(\boldsymbol{x})$  (infinite dimensional features), otherwise rule 2

- Gaussian Propagation to evaluate p(y)
- Posterior/predictive mean equivalent to MAP estimate, but we get uncertainty for parameters:  $\Sigma_{w|X,y} = \sigma_y^2 (\mathbf{\Phi}^{\top} \mathbf{\Phi} + \sigma_y^2 \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1}$  and variance  $\sigma^2(\mathbf{x}^*)$  is input dependent
- Compute predictive distribution with gaussian propagation
- Gaussian Process: distribution over functions f(x) so that any set t of function values evaluated at  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  is jointly gaussian distributed:  $f(x) \sim GP(m(x), k(x, x'))$ ,  $m(x) = \mathbb{E}[f(x)]$ : mean (prior belief about function, zero for simplicity),  $k(x, x') = \mathbb{E}[f(x)f(x')]$ : positive definite correlation of function evaluations at x, x'
- $p(t|X) = N(t|0, K) \xrightarrow{\text{noise}} p(y|X) = N(y|0, K + \sigma_y^2 I) (y_i = f(x_i) + \varepsilon)$
- Predictive:  $\mu(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = \boldsymbol{k}(\boldsymbol{x}^*)^{\top} (\boldsymbol{K} + \sigma_y^2 \boldsymbol{I})^{-1} \boldsymbol{y}$ ,  $\sigma(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = k(\boldsymbol{x}^*, \boldsymbol{x}^*) + \sigma_y \boldsymbol{k}(\boldsymbol{x}^*)^{\top} (\boldsymbol{K} + \sigma_y^2 \boldsymbol{I})^{-1} \boldsymbol{k}(\boldsymbol{x}^*)$  (mean  $\leftrightarrow$  kernel ridge regression + input dependent variance estimate (small for high kernel activations))  $\rightarrow$  kernel-version of bayesian linear regression
- Weight space view: Bayesian: subsume prior precision  $\lambda$  into kernel (vector/matrix):  $\mathbf{K} = \lambda^{-1} \mathbf{\Phi}_X \mathbf{\Phi}_X^{\top}$
- Function view (from Gaussian process) vs. weight space view (from Bayesian Linear Regression with kernel trick)
- Posterior derived from Bayesian view (rule 1):  $\mu_{w|X,y}$ ,  $\Sigma_{w|X,y}$  (potentially infinite dimensions)  $\rightarrow$  can evaluate predictive distribution with kernel trick (same as GP)
- GP: computationally hard  $(O(N^3))$ , very principled approach to regression learning
- Kernel parameters: weight precision  $\lambda$ , observation noise  $\sigma_y$ , length scale l (can be different per dimension): Gaussian Kernel:  $k(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{x}_j) = \lambda^{-1} \exp(-\frac{||\boldsymbol{x}_i \boldsymbol{x}_j||}{2l^2}) + \delta_{ij}\sigma_y^2$
- Optimization: non-convex log-likelihood of data → gradient descent (overfitting)
- GP: non-parametric Bayesian approach, prediction equations in closed form (gaussian), hyperparameter optimization complex, outperforms NNs for small datasets

#### 10 Neural Networks

- Artificial neuron:  $y = \phi(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top}\boldsymbol{x} + b)$  (like logistic regression)
- Feedforward network: directed acyclic graph (units grouped into layers)
- Fully connected layer (N inputs to M outputs):  $y = \phi(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}), \ \mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}$
- Activations:  $\sigma$  (0 to 1, kills gradient, not zero-centered (important for initialization), exp computationally hard), tanh (-1 to 1, zero centered, kills gradient), ReLU (fast computation/convergence, not zero centered, x < 0: no gradient), leaky ReLU (fast), ELU ( $\alpha(e^x 1)$  for x < 0, benefits of ReLU, closer to zero mean, exp hard)

- Each layer computes function:  $\mathbf{y} = f^L \circ \cdots \circ f^1(\mathbf{x})$  (composite of functions)
- XOR: classic example why multiple layers are needed
- Linear layers 

  one linear layer 

  need non-linearities 

  FF-NNs can approximate
  any function (theoretically with single layer, but exponential number of units)
- Deterministic regression:  $f = \mathbf{W}^{(L)} \mathbf{h}^{(L-1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(L)}$ ,  $l_i(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \text{squared loss / Probabilistic: } p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = N(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{W}^{(L)}\mathbf{h}^{(L-1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(L)}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ ,  $l_i(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\log N(\mathbf{y}_i|\boldsymbol{\mu}(\mathbf{x}_i), \boldsymbol{\Sigma}(\mathbf{x}_i))$
- Deterministic classification:  $f = \mathbf{W}^{(L)} \mathbf{h}^{(L-1)} + b^{(L)}$ ,  $l_i(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \text{hinge loss / Probabilistic:}$   $f = \sigma(\mathbf{W}^{(L)} \mathbf{h}^{(L-1)} + b^{(L)})$ ,  $l_i(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = -c_i \log f(\mathbf{x}_i) (1 c_i) \log(1 f(\mathbf{x}_i))$
- Deterministic multi-class:  $\boldsymbol{f} = \boldsymbol{W}^{(L)} \boldsymbol{h}^{(L-1)} + \boldsymbol{b}^{(L)}$ , loss not covered / Probabilistic:  $\boldsymbol{f} = \operatorname{softmax}(\boldsymbol{W}^{(L)} \boldsymbol{h}^{(L-1)} + \boldsymbol{b}^{(L)}), \ l_i(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_k \boldsymbol{h}_{c_i, k} \log f_k(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$
- NNs learn features that can be seperated linearly by last layer
- Back-propagation learning algorithm: Compute  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(l)}}$ ,  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{b}^{(l)}}$  recursively (chain rule)
- Computation graph: node: input, edge: node computed as function of other node
- Forward pass: compute loss / backward pass: compute derivatives
- Notation:  $\overline{y} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial y}$  (error signals)
- Multivariate chain rule:  $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} f(x(t), y(t)) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} = \overline{x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \overline{y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} = \overline{t} \rightarrow \text{in vector notation:}$   $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} f(x(t)) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}^{\top} \frac{\partial x}{\partial t}$
- Backpropagation  $(v_1, \ldots, v_N)$  in topological order):  $\forall i$ : Compute  $v_i$  as a function of  $\operatorname{Pa}(v_i)$  (forward pass)  $\to \overline{v_N} = 1 \to \forall i : \overline{v_i} = \sum_{j \in \operatorname{Ch}(v_i)} \overline{v_j} \frac{\partial v_j}{\partial v_i}$  (backward pass)
- Chain rule for matrix-vector products:  $\nabla_W f = \frac{\partial f(z)}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial f(z)}{\partial z} \frac{\partial}{\partial W} (Wx + b) = \frac{\partial f(z)}{\partial z} x^{\top} (z = Wx + b)$
- Forward: one add-multiply operation per weight / backward: two times forward (cost linear in number layers, quadratic in units per layer)
- Backprop neurally implausible (biological alternatives much slower on computers)
- Problems with standard SGD: slow along shallow dimension, jitter along steep dimension; stuck in local minima; noisy loss function due to mini-batches
- Momentum term (running gradient average):  $\boldsymbol{m}_{k+1} = \gamma_k \boldsymbol{m}_k + (1 \gamma_k) \nabla L / \text{Geometric Average: } \boldsymbol{m}_k = (1 \gamma) \sum_i \gamma^{k-i} \boldsymbol{g}_i$
- Gradient normalization (RMSProp): large steps in plateaus, small steps in steep areas:  $\mathbf{g}_k = \nabla_{\theta} L(\mathbf{\theta}_k)$ ,  $\mathbf{b}_{k+1,i} = \gamma \mathbf{v}_{k,i} + (1-\gamma) \mathbf{g}_{k,i}^2$ ,  $\mathbf{\theta}_{k+1,i} = \mathbf{\theta}_{k,i} \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\mathbf{v}_{k+1,i}+\varepsilon}} \mathbf{g}_{k,i}$  per dimension i,  $\mathbf{v}_k$ : average of gradient norms,  $\varepsilon$ : prevent division by zero

- Adam: adaptive momentum + normalization:  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{k+1,i} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_{k,i} \frac{\eta c_2(k)}{\sqrt{c_1(k)\boldsymbol{v}_{k+1,i} + \varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{m}_{k+1,i}$  (no convergence guarantee, underestimation at start fixed by  $c_i(k) = \frac{1}{1-\gamma_i^k}$
- Learning rate decay: Reduce at fixed points / Cosine:  $\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2}\alpha_0(1 + \cos(\frac{t\pi}{T}))$  / Linear  $\alpha_t = \alpha_0(1 \frac{t}{T})$  / Inverse root:  $\alpha_t = \frac{\alpha_0}{\sqrt{t}}$  (T: total number of epochs)
- First order optimization: step in direction of minimum of linear approximation / second order optimization: step to minimum of quadratic approximation
- $\theta^* = \theta_0 \frac{1}{2}H^{-1}g$  with Hessian  $H = \nabla^2_{\theta}L(\theta)$  (no hyperparameters, no learning rate, less iterations, inverse in  $O(N^3)$ , N is in the millions)
- Solutions: quasi-Newton methods (BFGS, approximate Hessian over time) / Limited memory BFGS (does not store full  $\mathbf{H}^{-1}$ , works well in full batch)  $\rightarrow$  in practice use Adam or L-BFGS (only on full batch with small noise)
- Regularization: model ensembles: train multiple models (or use snapshots of one during training), average their results
- Dropout: randomly (often 50%) set neurons to zero (in each forward pass)  $\rightarrow$  forces redundancy, can be interpreted as ensembles with shared parameters
- Testing dropout: average over multiple dropout masks (ensemble view) / multiply each weight by dropout rate (expectation view)
- Drop connect: drop neuron connections (training) / use all connections (testing)
- Data preprocessing: initialization optimized for zero-mean unit variance data / PCA / whitening of low-d data (covariance matrix is I)
- Classification loss less sensitive to small weight changes after normalization
- Weight initialization: constant  $\rightarrow$  all gradients equal, no distinct features can be learned  $\rightarrow$  random initialization needed
- Fixed variance → activations go to zero/saturate over deep layers (no gradients)
- Xavier intialization ( $\sigma_W = \frac{1}{\sqrt{D_{\rm in}}}$ ): activations nicely scaled for all layers (for tanh) / For ReLU:  $\sigma_W = \frac{2}{\sqrt{D_{\rm in}}}$
- Practice tips
  - 1. Check initial loss (without L2 should be  $\log C$  for softmax with C classes)
  - 2. Overfit small sample (get 100% training accuracy, change architecture /  $\eta$ )
  - 3. Find  $\eta$  to strongly decrease loss in 100 iterations (full training data, small L2)
  - 4. Grid search around  $\eta$  / L2 from previous step (train each for 1 to 5 epochs)
  - 5. Train best models from step 4 for longer (10 to 20 epochs) without  $\eta$  decay

- 6. Loss curves: plateau end → η decay / plateau beginning → bad initialization / plateau after η step decay → decay later / validation accuracy going up → train longer / validation accuracy going down → regularize/more data / same training/validation accuracy → train longer/bigger model
- NNs work very well, even though we have more parameters than training samples

### 11 Convolutional and Recurrent Neural Networks

- $\bullet$  Image inputs  $\to$  huge amount of weights with FC-layers
- Close pixels more correlated  $\rightarrow$  use convolutions (slide filter over image)
- Stack filters to obtain multi-channel output
- Stride S: step-size (> 1  $\rightarrow$  down-sampling) / (zero)-padding P: fill image borders
- Convolutional Layer:  $W_1 \times H_1 \times D_1 \to W_2 \times H_2 \times D_2$  with  $W_2 = (W_1 F + 2P)/S + 1$ ,  $H_2 = (H_1 F + 2P)/S + 1$  and  $D_2 = K$ : number of filters, F: kernel size
- (Max)-Pooling: smaller output dimension (applied to each channel with P=0)
- Convolutional network: Convolutional layers, activations, pooling, FC layers at end
- Optimize deep models: residual block computes  $F(x) + x \to \text{new}$  layers do no harm with F(x) = 0 at beginning
- Transfer learning (for small datasets): Convolutional layers are generic → reuseable (only train last FC layer(s) and freeze rest)
- AlexNet (2012): first use of ReLU, 8 layers (first CNN winner of ImageNet) / VGG (2014): more smaller filters (more non-linearities, fewer parameters, 19 layers) / ResNet (2015): very deep using residual connections (152 layers)
- Recurrent NNs: one to many (image captioning) / many to one (sentiment) / many to many (translation, video classification) → use old state as input
- State  $\boldsymbol{h}_t = f_W(\boldsymbol{h}_{t-1}, \boldsymbol{x}_t) = \tanh(\boldsymbol{W}_{hh}\boldsymbol{h}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{W}_{xh}\boldsymbol{x}_t), \ \boldsymbol{y}_t = \boldsymbol{W}_{hy}\boldsymbol{h}_t$
- Computational graph: unroll time steps  $\rightarrow$  network depth T, reuse W each step
- Backpropagation through time (BPTT): forward/backward through entire sequence
- $\bullet$  Truncated BPTT: keep  $\boldsymbol{h},$  but only backpropagate for smaller number of steps
- Image Captioning:  $h_t = \tanh(W_{hh}h_{t-1} + W_{xh}x_t + W_{ih}v)$  with x: previous word, v: last layer CNN
- $\nabla h$  depends on W: largest singular value > 1: exploding gradients  $\rightarrow$  scale gradient / largest singular value < 1: vanishing gradients  $\rightarrow$  different RNN architecture

- Long-term short-term memory (LSTM): gated contribution of state/input (forget (erase cell), input (write), g (how much to write), output (how much to reveal))
- LSTM: Backpropagation from  $c_t$  to  $c_{t-1}$ : only elementwise multiplication (uninterrupted gradient flow similar to ResNet)
- ullet Stack: layer 1 output sequence  $\to$  layer 2 input (only dropout non-recurrent edges)
- $\bullet$  Gated Recurrent Units: no explicit f gate, less parameters, similar performance

# 12 Wrap-Up

| Chapter         | Classical<br>Supervised<br>Learning   | Classical<br>Unsupervised<br>Learning   | Kernel<br>Methods                            | Bayesian<br>Learning                                    | Neural<br>Networks                             |
|-----------------|---|---|--|---|--|
| Algorithms      | Regression: Linear, Ridge, KNN, Trees, Forests Classification: Logistic Regression, KNN, Trees, Forests | (p)PCA<br>Clustering:<br>Agglomerative,<br>K-Means,<br>EM for GMMs<br>Density<br>Estimation:<br>KDE, KNN,<br>Mixture Models | Kernel<br>Regression,<br>SVMs                | Bayesian Linear Regression, Gaussian Processes          | FF-NNs, Backprop, CNNs, LSTMs                  |
| Basics          | Matrix and Vector Calculus, Probability Theory, MLE, Gradient Descent                                   | Constraint<br>Optimization,<br>EM   | Sub-gradients,<br>Constraint<br>Optimization | "Completing<br>the square",<br>Gaussian<br>Conditioning | Most of the others                             |
| Representations | Features, Basis Functions, Instances, Trees   | Instances, Linear Projections, Centroids, Mixture Models  | Kernels                                      | Features,<br>Kernels                                    | NNs  |
| Optimization    | Least-squares,<br>Gradient Descent  | Eigen-Value<br>Decomposition,<br>EM   | Sub-gradients,<br>Quadratic<br>Solver        | Computing the Posterior                                 | Adam, 2nd Order Gradient, Sub-gradients (ReLU) |
| Loss            | MSE/SSE, Gaussian Log-Likelihood, Binary Cross Entropy, Soft-Max Likelihood                             | Reproduction Error, SSD, Sum of Discrepancies, Marginal Log-Likelihood  | Maximum<br>Margin,<br>Hinge Loss             | MAP,<br>Posterior<br>Approximation                      | Most of the others                             |