INTRODUCTION TO DEEP LEARNING

Course number: 00240332

Lecture 2: Math and Machine Learning Basics

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Outline

- I. Math basics
- II. Machine learning basics
- III. Summary

Math objects

Scalar

- A single number, often denoted by a lower case letter without boldface, e.g., a, b, x

Vector

- An array of numbers, often denoted by a lowercase letter with boldface, e.g., α , b, x

Matrix

A 2D array of numbers, often denoted by an / uppercase letter with boldface, e.g., A, B, X

But I sometimes may not follow these conventions

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{a} & oldsymbol{a} & = \left(egin{array}{c} a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3 \end{array}
ight) \end{aligned}$$

$$m{A} = \left(egin{array}{cc} A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} \ A_{2,1} & A_{2,2} \end{array}
ight)$$

Tensor

• An *n*-D array of numbers, often denoted like this: e.g., **A**, **B**, **X**

$$\mathbf{A} = \left(\begin{pmatrix} A_{1,1,1} & A_{1,2,1} \\ A_{2,1,1} & A_{2,2,1} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} A_{1,1,2} & A_{1,2,2} \\ A_{2,1,2} & A_{2,2,2} \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

Simple operations

• Matrix transpose: A^{T}

$$m{A} = \left(egin{array}{cc} A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} \ A_{2,1} & A_{2,2} \end{array}
ight) \qquad m{A}^ op = \left(egin{array}{cc} A_{1,1} & A_{2,1} \ A_{1,2} & A_{2,2} \end{array}
ight)$$

A vector can be viewed as a special matrix

$$oldsymbol{a} = \left(egin{array}{c} a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3 \end{array}
ight) \qquad oldsymbol{a}^ op = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$$

- Matrix product: if $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$, then C = AB with shape $m \times p$ and $C_{i,j} = \sum_k A_{i,k} B_{k,j}$
- Elementwise product (Hadamard product): $C = A \odot B$ where the 3 matrices are of the same shape and $C_{i,j} = A_{i,j}B_{i,j}$

Random variable

- A random variable is a variable that can take on different values randomly
 - Denote the random variable by x and its two possible values by x_1 and x_2
 - For vectors, we write the random variable as \mathbf{x} and one of its values as \mathbf{x}
 - Discrete versus continuous



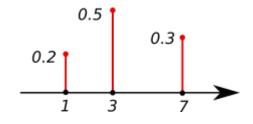
Probability distribution

A probability distribution is a distribution of how likely a random variable or a set of random variables is to take on each of its possible states

- A probability distribution over discrete variables may be described using a probability mass function (PMF)
 - The prob that x = x is denoted as P(x) or P(x = x)
 - $-x \sim P(x)$ specify which distribution x follows

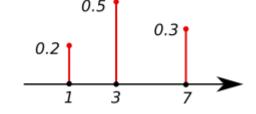


- P(x = x, y = y) or P(x, y) denotes the prob that x = x and y = y simultaneously

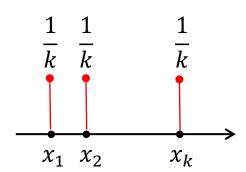


Probability mass function

- To be a PMF of a random variable x, a function P must satisfy:
 - The domain of P must be the set of all possible states of x

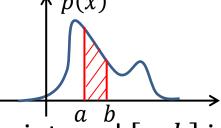


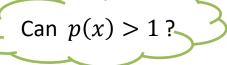
- $\forall x \in x, 0 \le P(x) \le 1$
- $-\sum_{x\in x}P(x)=1$
- Uniform distribution
 - Consider a single discrete random variable x
 with k different states
 - $-P(\mathbf{x}=x_i)=\frac{1}{k}, \forall i$



Probability density function

- A probability distribution over continuous variables may be described using a probability density function (PDF)
- To be a PDF, a function p must satisfy the following properties
 - The domain of p must be the set of all possible states of x $\uparrow p(x)$
 - $\forall x \in x, p(x) \ge 0$
 - $-\int p(x)dx=1$





- The prob that x lies in the interval [a,b] is given by $\int_a^b p(x)dx$
- Note p(x) does not give the prob of a specific state directly

Typical prob distributions

Bernoulli distribution: over a single binary random variable

$$P(x = 1) = \phi, P(x = 0) = 1 - \phi$$

 $P(x = x) = \phi^{x} (1 - \phi)^{1-x}$
 $\mathbb{E}_{x}[x] = \phi, Var(x) = \phi(1 - \phi)$

• Multinoulli or categorical distribution: over a single discrete variable with k different states where k is finite

$$P(\mathbf{x}=i|\boldsymbol{p})=p_i$$
 where $\boldsymbol{p}\in[0,1]^k$ and $\sum_{i=1}^kp_i=1$

Typical prob distributions

Gaussian distribution or normal distribution: over a continuous variable

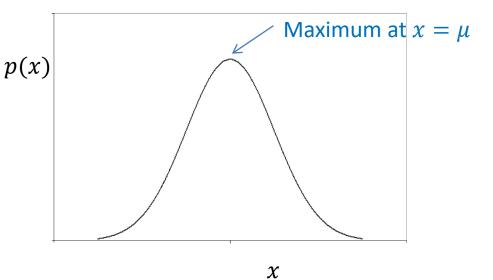
$$\mathcal{N}(x;\mu,\sigma^2) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

– Mean: $\mathbb{E}[x] = \mu$

- Variance: $Var[x] = \sigma^2$

– Standard deviation: σ

The *central limit theorem* shows that the sum of many independent variables is approximately normally distributed



Marginal probability

Suppose we know the prob distribution over a set of variables. The prob distribution over just a subset of them is known as the marginal prob distribution

• Let P(x, y) denote the prob distribution of discrete random variables x and y, then

$$P(x = x) = \sum_{y} P(x = x, y = y)$$

• Let p(x,y) denote the PDF of continuous random variables x and y, then

$$p(x) = \int P(x, y) dy$$

Conditional probability

The conditional probability is the probability of some event, given that some other event has happened

- The conditional prob that y = y given x = x is denoted by P(y = y | x = x), which can be calculated as P(y = y | x = x) = P(y = y, x = x)/P(x = x)
- The chain rule

$$P(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(n)}) = P(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}) \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} P(\mathbf{x}^{(i)} | \mathbf{x}^{(i+1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(n)})$$

Exercise: Is the following correct?

$$P(a, b, c) = P(a|b, c)P(b|c)P(c)$$

Expectation

The expectation, or expected value, of some function f(x) w.r.t. a prob distribution P(x) is the average value that f takes on when x is drawn from P

For discrete variables

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim P}[f(\mathbf{x})] = \sum_{x} P(x)f(x)$$

For continuous variables

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim P}[f(\mathbf{x})] = \int p(\mathbf{x}) f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

- If the identity of the distribution is clear, we may write $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}}[f(x)]$
- Expectation is linear: if α and β do not depend on x, then $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}}[\alpha f(x) + \beta g(x)] = \alpha \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}}[f(x)] + \beta \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}}[g(x)]$

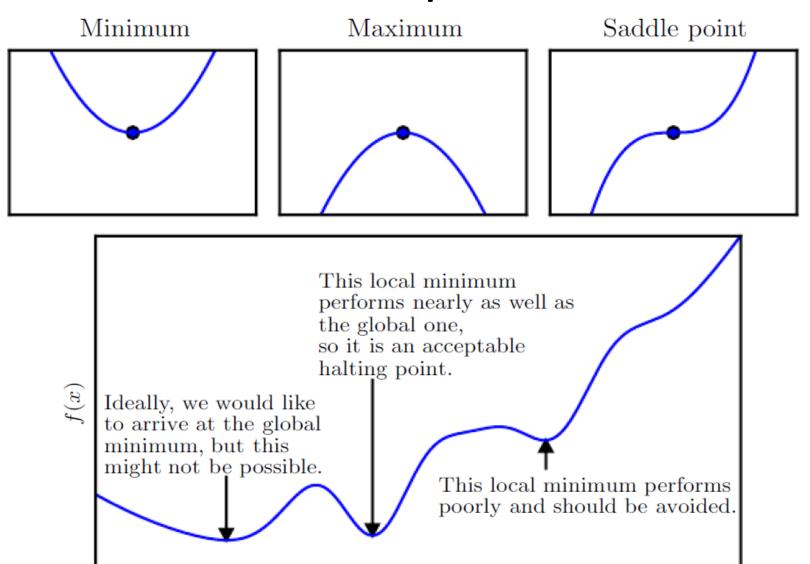
Gradient-based optimization

- The function we want to minimize or maximize is called objective function
- When we are minimizing it, we may also call it the cost function, loss function, or error function
- The derivative of a function y = f(x), denoted by f'(x) or $\frac{dy}{dx}$, gives the slope, or gradient, of f at the point x
- Gradient descent

$$x' = x - \eta f'(x)$$

where $\eta > 0$ is the learning rate

Critical points



Gradient decent for multivariate functions

• For a function of a single variable y = f(x), the gradient decent method is

$$x' = x - \eta f'(x)$$

- For a function y = f(x), the partial derivative is denoted by $\partial f/\partial x_i$
- The gradient decent method becomes

$$x' = x - \eta \nabla_{x} f(x)$$

where
$$\eta > 0$$
 and $\nabla_x f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \partial f/\partial x_1 \\ \partial f/\partial x_2 \\ \dots \\ \partial f/\partial x_n \end{pmatrix}$

2D case



Rules in calculus

• Chain rule: the derivative of the composition function f(g(x)) is

$$[f(g(x))]' = f'(g(x))g'(x)$$

or in Leibniz's notation

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{dz}{dy} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx}$$

Product rule: the derivative of product of two functions

$$(f \cdot g)' = f' \cdot g + f \cdot g'$$

or in Leibniz's notation

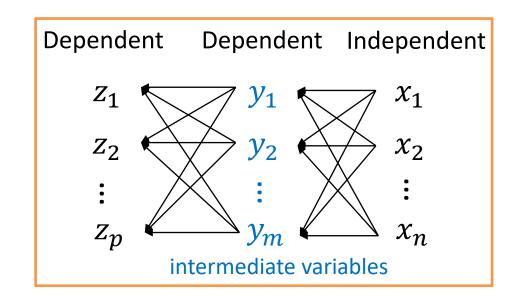
$$\frac{d}{dx}(u \cdot v) = \frac{du}{dx} \cdot v + u \cdot \frac{dv}{dx}$$

Quotient rule

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right) = \frac{f'g - fg'}{g^2}$$

Derivative of two-step composition

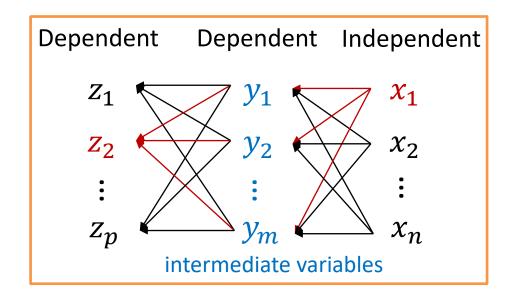
- Independent variables $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$
- Each y_i is a function of $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$
- Each z_i is a function of $y_1, y_2, ..., y_m$



What's partial derivative of z_i w.r.t. x_j ?

Derivative of two-step composition

- Independent variables $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$
- Each y_i is a function of $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$
- Each z_i is a function of $y_1, y_2, ..., y_m$



What's partial derivative of z_i w.r.t. x_j ?

$$\frac{\partial z_i}{\partial x_j} = \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{\partial z_i}{\partial y_k} \frac{\partial y_k}{\partial x_j}$$

$$\frac{\partial z_2}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial z_2}{\partial y_1} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial z_2}{\partial y_2} \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_1} + \cdots$$

Sum over the intermediate variables

for any $i \in \{1, 2, ..., p\}$ and $j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$

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Learning algorithms

"A computer program is said to learn from experience E w.r.t. some class of tasks T and performance measure P, if its performance at tasks in T, as measured by P, improves with experience E." ---Tom Mitchell, 1997

- Machine learning (ML) tasks are usually described in terms of how the ML system should process an example
- An example is a collection of features that have been quantitatively measured from some object or event
 - Features of a bucket: color, diameter, height, material, etc
 - Features of an animal: size, shape, number of legs, , etc







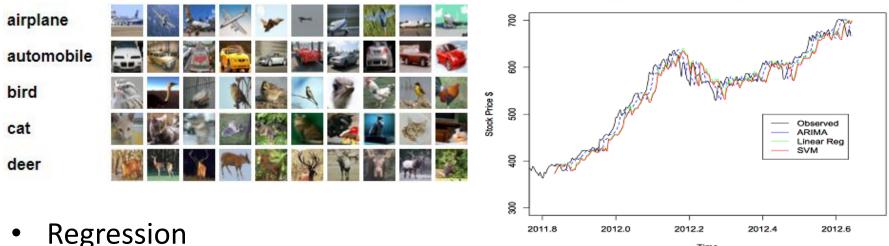






The tasks T

- Classification
 - Suppose there are k categories. Find a function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \{1, ..., k\}$



- Regression
 - Find a function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, and m is often 1

Regression results might be converted to classification results

Apple's Stock Price 5 steps Prediction

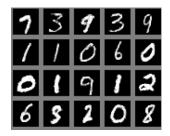
The tasks T

 Synthesis and sampling dataset

> 5041921314 35361724327 3869056076 1879398593 1874980941 446045670

Synthesized using GAN





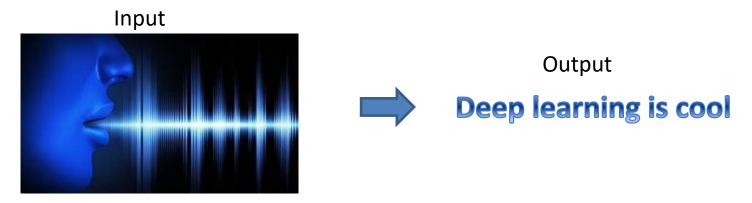
Denoising





The tasks T

Transcription



Machine translation



The tasks, T

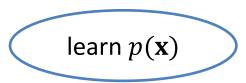
- Structured output
- Anomaly detection
- Synthesis and sampling
- Imputation of missing values
- Density estimation
- Etc.

The performance measure, P

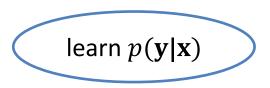
- A performance measure is required to quantitatively evaluate the performance of a ML system
- Usually this measure P is specific to the task T being carried out by the system
 - Classification and transcription: accuracy or error rate
 - Regression and denoising: distance between the ground-truth and prediction
 - Synthesis, machine translation: difficult and sometimes need human evaluation
- What we are more interested in is the performance measure on a test set of data that is separated from the data used for training the system

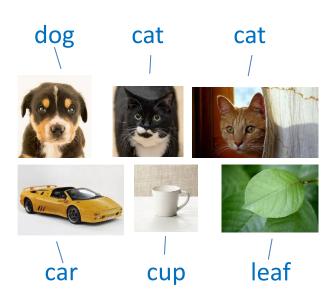
The experience, E

- ML algorithms can be broadly categorized as unsupervised and supervised by what kind of experience they are allowed to have during the learning process
- The algorithms experience a dataset, which is a collection of many examples or data points denoted by \boldsymbol{x}
 - We can view examples as samples of a random variable \mathbf{x}
- Unsupervised learning

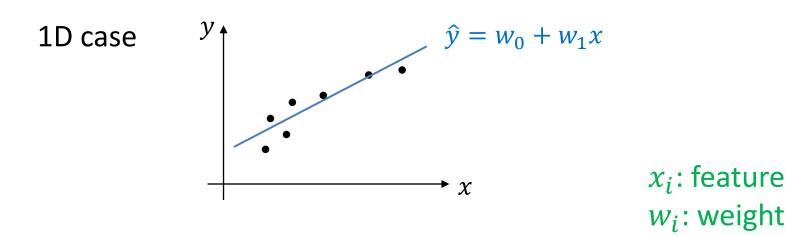


Supervised learning algorithms





Example: linear regression



- Task T: to predict y from x by outputting $\hat{y} = \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}$
- Performance P: mean squared error of the model on the test with m test samples $\{(x_i, y_i)\}^{\text{test}}$

$$MSE_{test} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i} (\hat{y}_i - y)^{test}$$

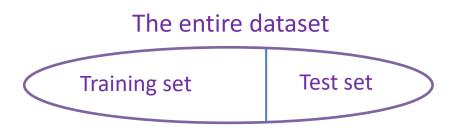
Example: linear regression

• Experience E: minimize the MSE on the training set of q samples $\{(x_i, y_i)\}^{\text{train}}$

$$MSE_{train} = \frac{1}{q} \sum_{i} (\hat{y}_i - y)^{train}$$

- Denote $\{(\boldsymbol{x}_i, y_i)\}^{\text{train}}$ collectively by $(\boldsymbol{X}^{\text{train}}, \boldsymbol{y}^{\text{train}})$, then $\nabla_{\!w} \text{MSE}_{\text{train}} = \nabla_{\!w} \frac{1}{q} \left| \left| \widehat{\boldsymbol{y}}^{\text{train}} - \boldsymbol{y}^{\text{train}} \right| \right|_2^2 = 0$ $\Rightarrow \boldsymbol{w} = \left(\boldsymbol{X}^{\text{train}^{\mathsf{T}}} \boldsymbol{X}^{\text{train}} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\text{train}^{\mathsf{T}}} \boldsymbol{y}^{\text{train}}$

Capacity, overfitting and underfitting



Large training error → low model capacity
Small training error → high model capacity

- What we want:
 - Small training error & small test error
 - If the training error is too large, the model is underfitting the training set
 - If the training error is very small but the test error is very large, the model is overfitting the training set
- A ML algorithm must perform well on new, previously unseen inputs
 - This ability is called generalization

Example: polynomial regression

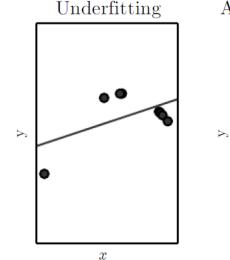
• Consider a regression problem in which the input x and output y are both scalars. Find a function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ to fit the data

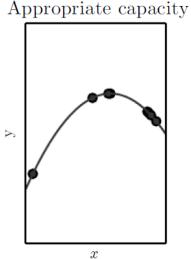
$$- f(x) = b + wx$$

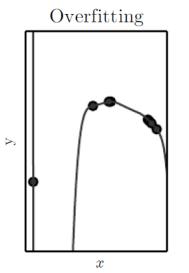
$$- f(x) = b + w_1 x + w_2 x^2$$

$$- f(x) = b + \sum_{i=1}^{9} w_i x^i$$

MSE training: $\min_{w} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left| \left| f(x^{(n)}) - y^{(n)} \right| \right|_{2}^{2}$





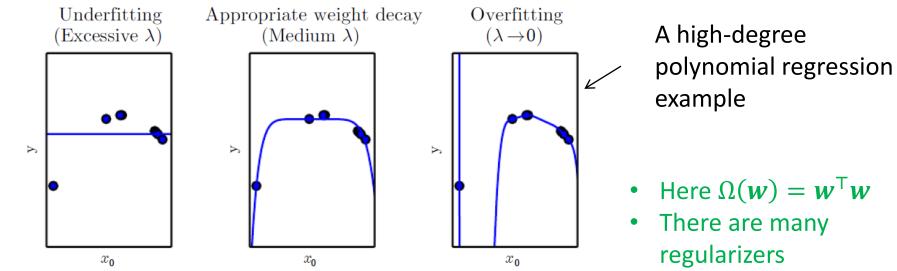


General principles

- Increase the model capacity
 - Make the training error small
- Increase the generalization ability
 - Make the gap between training error and test error small

Regularization

- We often build a set of preferences into the learning algorithm, which is embodied by a regularizer Ω
- E.g., for polynomial regression, the total cost function becomes $J(w) = \text{MSE}_{\text{train}} + \lambda w^{\mathsf{T}} w \longleftarrow \text{Weight decay}$ where $\lambda > 0$ is a constant.



Regularization

Regularization is any modification we make to a learning algorithm that is intended to reduce its generalization error but not its training error

Hyperparameters

- Many machine learning algorithms have two sets of parameters:
 - Hyperparameters: control the algorithm's behavior and are not adapted by the algorithm itself. They often determines the capacity of the model
 - Learnable parameters ("learnable" is often omitted): can be learned from data
- The polynomial regression algorithm $J(w) = MSE_{train} + \lambda w^{T}w$
 - Hyperparameters: λ
 - Learnable parameters: w

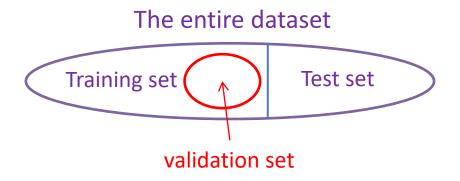
Question

 What are hyperparameters of a neural network?

 What are learnable parameters of a neural network?

Validation sets

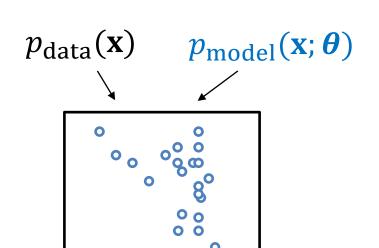
- How to choose the hyperparameters considering that we cannot see the test set?
 - Set them such that the training error is as small as possible?
- We need another set on which the model is not trained on
 - Make the error on this set as small as possible
 - This is called the validation set
- How do we obtain a validation set?



Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE)

Problem definition

- Given a set of N examples $\mathbb{X} = \{x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, ..., x^{(N)}\}$ drawn independently from the true but unknown data-generating distribution $p_{\rm data}(\mathbf{x})$
- Find a prob distribution $p_{\text{model}}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ to approximate $p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})$
- Task: find optimal $oldsymbol{ heta}$



Assumption:

The observed data samples \mathbb{X} are generated from $p_{\mathrm{model}}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ with the $maximum\ probability$ over all possible $\boldsymbol{\theta}$

Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE)

Problem definition

- Given a set of N examples $\mathbb{X} = \{x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, ..., x^{(N)}\}$ drawn independently from the true but unknown data-generating distribution $p_{\rm data}(\mathbf{x})$
- Find a prob distribution $p_{\text{model}}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ to approximate $p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})$
- Task: find optimal $oldsymbol{ heta}$
- The MLE for $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is defined as $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\mathrm{ML}} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} p_{\mathrm{model}}(\mathbb{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \Pi_{i=1}^{N} p_{\mathrm{model}}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$
- We usually use

$$m{ heta}_{ ext{ML}} = rg \max_{m{ heta}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p_{ ext{model}}(m{x}^{(i)}; m{ heta})$$

$$= rg \max_{m{ heta}} \mathbb{E}_{m{x} \sim \hat{p}_{ ext{data}}} \log p_{ ext{model}}(m{x}; m{ heta})$$
Log-likelihood

- where \hat{p}_{data} is the empirical distribution

Conditional log-likelihood

- Estimate a conditional probability $P(y|x; \theta)$ in order to predict y given x
 - E.g. For classification, y is a (discrete) random variable representing label of an input x
- If X represents all inputs and Y all observed targets, then the conditional maximum likelihood estimator is

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\mathrm{ML}} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} P_{\mathrm{model}}(\boldsymbol{Y}|\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

 If the examples are assumed to be i.i.d., then this can be decomposed into

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\mathrm{ML}} = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log P_{\mathrm{model}}(\boldsymbol{y}^{(i)}|\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)};\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Stochastic gradient decent (SGD)



- Minimizing the cost function over the entire training set is computationally expensive
- Decompose the training set into minibatches and optimize the cost function $L(\boldsymbol{X}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{y}^{(i)}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ defined over individual minibatches $(X^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$

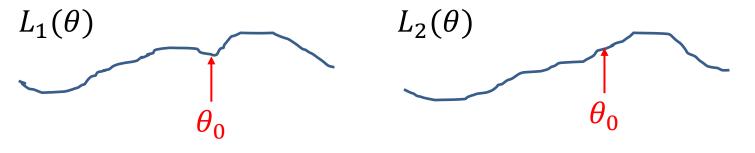
 - $J(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N'} L(\mathbf{X}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)}; \theta)$ The batchsize ranges from 1 to a few hundreds
- At every iteration, update θ as follows

$$oldsymbol{ heta} = oldsymbol{ heta} - \eta oldsymbol{g}' \ oldsymbol{g}' =
abla_{oldsymbol{ heta}} L(oldsymbol{X}^{(i)}, oldsymbol{y}^{(i)}; oldsymbol{ heta})$$

Advantages of SGD

- 1 Avoid large memory requirement when dealing with large training data
- ② Stochasticity is beneficial for escaping from "traps"

Note that $L(\mathbf{X}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ are different from different minibatches, so are their gradients



Local minimum

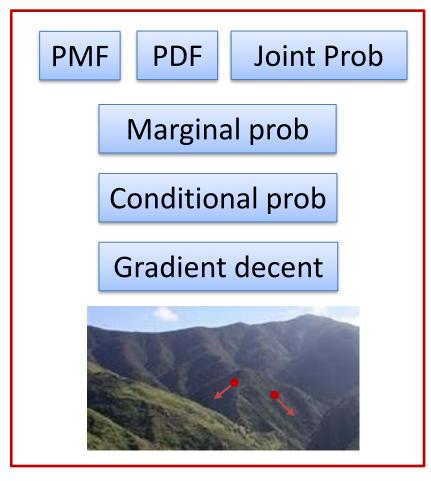
Not local minimum

Outline

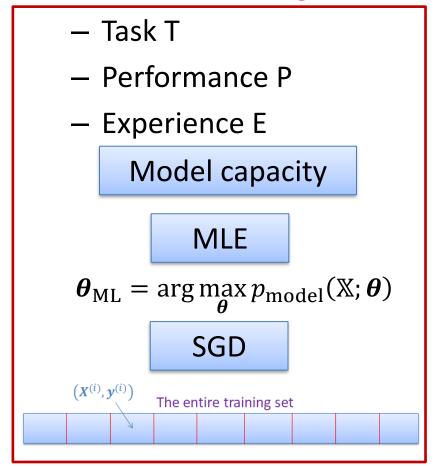
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Summary of this lecture

Math basics



II. Machine learning basics



Recommended reading

 Chapters 2-5 in Deep Learning by Goodfellow, Bengio and Courville, 2016, MIT Press