AI - Study & Research

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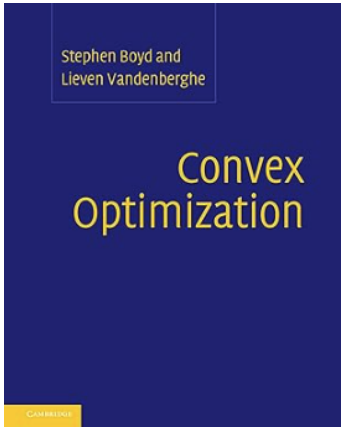
Learning AI

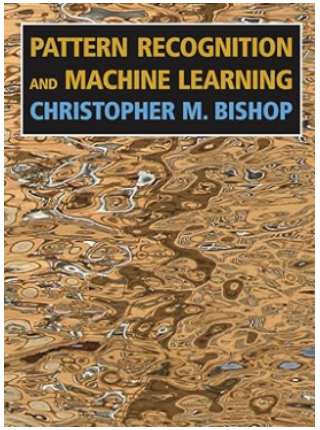
Best ways to learn AI & ML

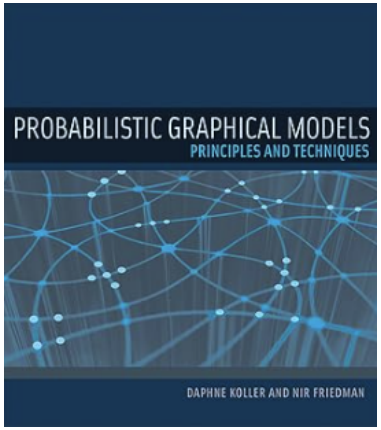
- first, learn basics - college classes, online courses, (easy) books
  - no need to understand every mathematical details, but should know rough ideas!
- *hands-on is MUST!*
  - learn and practice coding - `Python` is MUST; do not do (only) `R`
  - learn `git` - know how to develop efficiently, plus `import` others' work
- I think *online cources are blessing to mankind!*
  - *can't* say "you can't do it because I don't have access to good resource or you don't go to good schools" because . . . they are available!
  - getting (expensive) certificates is good idea because . . . otherwise you wouldn't complete it! :) - and can post it on your LinkedIn!
- would be best if your task at work is related to ML
  - however, even if that's not the case or can't be the case, can always do your own personal projects – or contribute to public projects (on `github`)!

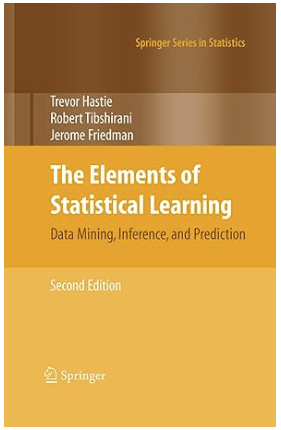
Books

- The Elements of Statistical Learning - Hastie, Tibshirani & Friedman [HTF01]
- Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning - Christopher M. Bishop [Bis06]
- Deep Learning - Ian Goodfellow, Yoshua Bengio & Aaron Courville [GBC16]
- Reinforcement Learning: An Introduction - Richard S. Sutton & Andrew G. Barto [SB18]
- Machine Learning: A Probabilistic Perspective - Kevin P. Murphy [Mur12]
- Probabilistic Graphical Models - Daphne Koller & Nir Friedman [KF09]
- Convex Optimization - Stephen Boyd & Lieven Vandenberghe [BV04]









Andrew Ng!

- Andrew Ng
  - (co-)founder of "Deep Learning.AI" and "Coursera", prominent figure in ML & AI
  - his courses highly regarded because well-structured and provide insights

- latest Andrew Ng courses
  - AI Agents in LangGraph
  - AI Agentic Design Patterns with AutoGen
  - Introduction to On-device AI
  - Multi AI Agent Systems with Crew AI
  - Building Multimodal Search and RAG - contrastive learning, multimodality to RAG
  - Building Agentic RAG with LlamaIndex
  - Quantisation In Depth
  - In Prompt Engineering for Vision Models
  - Getting Started with Mistral - open-source models (Mistral 7B, Mixtral 8x7B)
  - Preprocessing Unstructured Data for LLM

ML Prerequisites

Linear Algebra Basics

Scalars, vectors, and matrices

- real number $a \in \mathbf{R}$, called *scalar*
- (ordered) collection of real numbers $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \mathbf{R}^n$, called *vector*

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^n \quad \text{- column vector}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^{1 \times n} \quad \text{- row vector}$$

- (ordered) collection of 2-dimensional array, called *matrix*

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} & \cdots & A_{1,n} \\ A_{2,1} & A_{2,2} & \cdots & A_{2,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{m,1} & A_{m,2} & \cdots & A_{m,n} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$$

Transposes

- transpose of row vector is column vector & vice versa

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \& \quad \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- transpose of m-by-n matrix is n-by-m matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} & \cdots & A_{1,n} \\ A_{2,1} & A_{2,2} & \cdots & A_{2,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{m,1} & A_{m,2} & \cdots & A_{m,n} \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1} & A_{2,1} & \cdots & A_{m,1} \\ A_{1,2} & A_{2,2} & \cdots & A_{m,2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{1,n} & A_{2,n} & \cdots & A_{m,n} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times m}$$

Matrix-vector multiplication

- for matrix $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$ & vector $b \in \mathbf{R}^n$
  - matrix-vector multiplication Ab defined by

$$Ab = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1}b_1 + A_{1,2}b_2 + \cdots + A_{1,n}b_n \\ A_{2,1}b_1 + A_{2,2}b_2 + \cdots + A_{2,n}b_n \\ \vdots \\ A_{m,1}b_1 + A_{m,2}b_2 + \cdots + A_{m,n}b_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^m$$

    in other words

$$(Ab)_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{i,j}b_j \quad \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq m$$

  - resulting quantity is vector of length m
  - number of columns of A *must* equal to length of b

Matrix-matrix multiplication

- for matrices $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$ & $B \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times p}$
  - matrix-matrix multiplication $AB \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times p}$ defined by

$$(AB)_{i,j} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{i,k} B_{k,j} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq m$$

  - resulting quantity is m-by-p matrix
  - *order matters* and number of columns of A *must* equal to number of rows of B
- note matrix-vector multiplication is *special case* of matrix-matrix multiplication

Calculus Basics

Functions

- $f : X \to Y$
  - $X = \mathbf{dom}\, f$ - domain of f
  - Y - codomain of f
  - $\mathcal{R}(f) = \{f(x) \in Y | x \in X\}$ - range of f

Differentiation & derivatives

- for real-valued function $f : \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$
  - derivative of f at $x \in \mathbf{R}$

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} f(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \in \mathbf{R}$$

    - derivative exists *if and only if* limit exists
  - second derivative of f at $x \in \mathbf{R}$

$$f''(x) = \frac{d^2}{dx^2} f(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f'(x+h) - f'(x)}{h} \in \mathbf{R}$$

    - second derivative exists *if and only if* limit exists

Multivariate functions

- $f : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ - real-valued multivariate function

$$f(x) = f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}\right) = f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbf{R}$$

- examples
  - $f : \mathbf{R}^3 \to \mathbf{R}$ - linear function

$$f(x) = x_1 + 3x_2 + 2x_3$$

  - $f : \mathbf{R}^3 \to \mathbf{R}$ - convex quadratic function

$$f(x) = x_1^2 + x_1x_2 + 3x_2^2 + 5x_3^2$$

Multivariate vector functions

- $f : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ - real-valued multivariate vector function

$$f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(x) \\ f_2(x) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(x) \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^m$$

  where $f_j : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ for $1 \leq j \leq m$

- examples
  - $f : \mathbf{R}^3 \to \mathbf{R}^2$ - linear function

$$f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + 3x_2 + 2x_3 \\ -3x_2 + x_3 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^2$$

  - $f : \mathbf{R}^3 \to \mathbf{R}^3$ - componentwise function

$$f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \exp(x_1) & \exp(x_2) & \exp(x_3) \end{bmatrix}^T \in \mathbf{R}^3$$

Partial derivative & gradient

for $f : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$

- ith partial derivative

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f(x) = \frac{f(x + he_i) - f(x)}{h} = \frac{f(\ldots, x_{i-1}, x_i + h, x_{i+1}, \ldots) - f(x)}{h}$$

  where $e_i \in \mathbf{R}^n$ is ith unit vector
- gradient is vector of partial derivatives

$$\nabla f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \partial f(x)/\partial x_1 \\ \partial f(x)/\partial x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \partial f(x)/\partial x_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^n$$

- we have

$$(\nabla f(x))_i = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f(x) = e_i^T \nabla f(x) \in \mathbf{R}$$

Jacobian

for $f : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$

- Jacobian matrix

$$Df(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1(x)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1(x)}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1(x)}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial f_2(x)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2(x)}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2(x)}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m(x)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_m(x)}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m(x)}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$$

  - equivalently

$$Df(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla f_1(x)^T \\ \nabla f_2(x)^T \\ \vdots \\ \nabla f_m(x)^T \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$$

Chain rule

- for $f : \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}^m$, $g : \mathbf{R}^m \to \mathbf{R}$ & $h = g \circ f$, *i.e.*, $h(x) = g(f_1(x), \ldots, f_m(x))$, derivative of h at $x \in \mathbf{R}$

$$h'(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{\partial}{\partial y_j} g(f(x)) f_j'(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \nabla g(f(x))_j f_j'(x) \in \mathbf{R}$$

- for $f : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$, $g : \mathbf{R}^m \to \mathbf{R}^p$ & $h = g \circ f$, Jacobian of h at $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$

$$Dh(x) = Dg(f(x))Df(x) \in \mathbf{R}^{p \times n}$$

  - note $Dg(f(x)) \in \mathbf{R}^{p \times m}$ & $Df(x) \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$

- first is *special case* of second

Statistics Basics

Random experiments & probability law

- *random experiment*
  - outcome varies in unpredictable fashion (even) when experiment is being repeated under same conditions
  - specified by stating experimental procedure and set of one or more measurements or observations
- probability law
  - rule assigning probabilities to events of experiment that belong to event class $\mathcal{F}$

$$p : \mathcal{F} \to \mathbf{R}_+$$

- properties (or axioms)
  - for event $A \in \mathcal{F}$, $p(A)$ called *probability* of A
  - for event $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ with $A \cap B = \emptyset$

$$p(A \cup B) = p(A) + p(B)$$

Conditional probability

- probability of event A given that event B has occurred, called *conditional probability*, denoted by

$$p(A|B)$$

- formula

$$p(A|B) = \frac{p(A \cap B)}{p(B)}$$

  - thus

$$p(A \cap B) = p(A|B)p(B) = p(B|A)p(A)$$

- Bayes' theorem

$$p(A|B) = \frac{p(B|A)p(A)}{p(B)}$$

Independence

- for events A & B, when knowledge of occurrence of B does not alter probability of A
  - A said to be *independent* of B
- following statements are equivalent
  - A is independent of B
  - B is independent of A
  - $p(A|B) = p(A)$
  - $p(B|A) = p(B)$
  - $p(A \cap B) = p(A)p(B)$

Random variables

- *discrete* random variable X assumes values from countable set $\{x_1, x_2, \ldots\}$
- *continuous* random variable X assumes values from $\mathbf{R}$
- random *vector* X assumes values from $\mathbf{R}^n$

PMF, PDF & CDF

- *probability mass function (PMF)* of discrete X

$$p_X(x) = p(X = x)$$

- *probability density function (PDF)* of continuous X

$$\int_a^b p_X(x) = p(a \leq X \leq b)$$

- *cumulative distribution function (CDF)* of (any) X

$$F_X(x) = p(X \leq x)$$

  - for discrete X - $F_X(x) = \sum_{x' \leq x} p_X(x')$
  - for continuous X - $F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} p_X(x')dx'$

Expected value, variance & covariance matrix

- expected value
  - for discrete X

$$\mathbf{E}\, X = \sum_x x p_X(x)$$

  - for conditions X

$$\mathbf{E}\, X = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x p_X(x) dx$$

- variance for scalar $X \in \mathbf{R}$

$$\mathbf{Var}(X) = \mathbf{E}(X - \mathbf{E}\, X)^2 = \mathbf{E}\, X^2 - (\mathbf{E}\, X)^2$$

- covariance matrix for vector $X \in \mathbf{R}^n$

$$\mathbf{Var}(X) = \mathbf{E}(X - \mathbf{E}\, X)(X - \mathbf{E}\, X)^T = \mathbf{E}\, X X^T - (\mathbf{E}\, X)(\mathbf{E}\, X)^T$$

Joint PMF, PDF & CDF

- *joint PMF* of discrete X & Y

$$p_{X,Y}(x, y) = p(X = x, Y = y)$$

- *join PDF* of continuous X & Y

$$\int_c^d \int_a^b p_{X,Y}(x, y) dx dy = p(a \leq X \leq b \ \& \ c \leq Y \leq d)$$

- *joint CDF* of X & Y

$$F_{X,Y}(x, y) = p(X \leq x \ \& \ Y \leq y)$$

Conditional expectation

for two random variables X & Y

- expected value of Y conditioned on X

$$\mathbf{E}(Y|X=x) = \int yp(y|x)dy$$

where

$$p(y|x) = \frac{p_{X,Y}(x,y)}{p_X(x)}$$

- note

$$\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{X,Y} f(X,Y) = \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{X}\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{Y}(f(X,Y)|X)$$

because

$$\int\int f(x,y)p(x,y)dxdy = \int \left(\int f(x,y)p(y|x)dy\right) p(x)dx$$

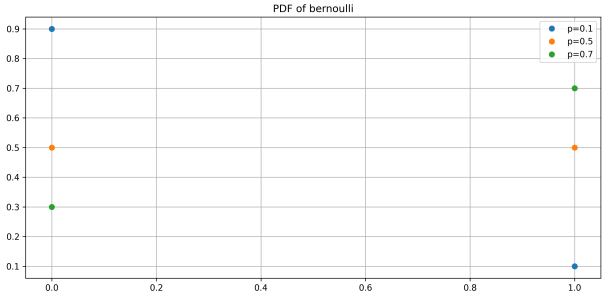
Discrete Random Variables

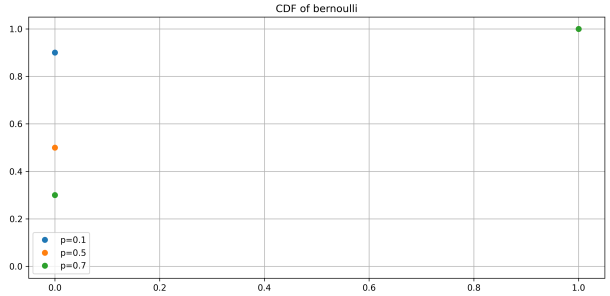
Bernoulli distribution

- model single binary trial with probability p of success (and, hence $(1-p)$ of failure)
- PMF, mean, variance

$$\begin{aligned} p(k) &= p^k(1-p)^{1-k} = \begin{cases} 1-p & \text{if } k=0 \\ p & \text{if } k=1 \end{cases} \\ \mathbf{E}(X) &= p \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = p(1-p) \end{aligned}$$

- ML applications - (foundation for)
  - logistic regression, binary classification, modeling click-through rates, A/B testing outcomes





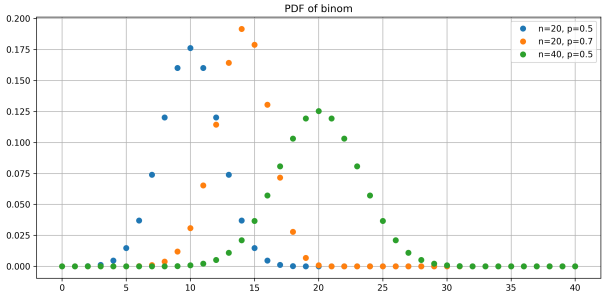
Binomial distribution

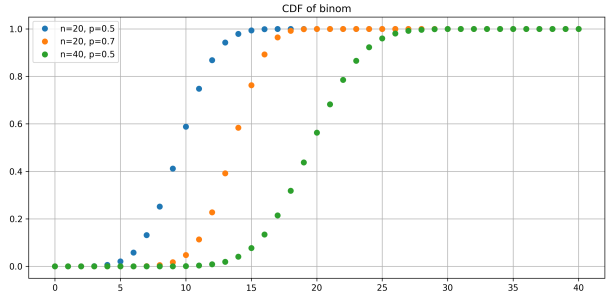
- model number of successes in n independent Bernoulli trials with probability p
- PMF, mean, variance

$$p(k) = \left(\begin{array}{c} n \\ k \end{array} \right) p^k (n-p)^{1-k} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq k \leq n$$

$$\mathbf{E}(X) = np \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = np(1-p)$$

- ML applications
  - modeling conversion rates, quality control testing, ensemble voting methods, batch processing success rates





Multinomial distribution

- generalizes binomial distribution to multiple categories with probabilities $p_1, \ldots, p_k$
- PMF, mean, variance

$$p(k) = \frac{n!}{x_1! \cdot \ldots \cdot x_k!} p_1^{x_1} \cdots p_k^{x_k}$$

$$\mathbf{E}(X_i) = np_i \quad \mathbf{Var}(X_i) = np_i(1-p_i) \quad \mathbf{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = -np_ip_j$$

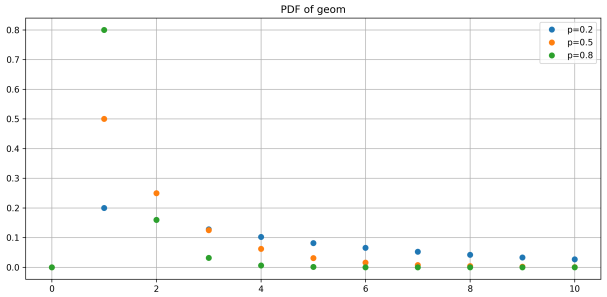
- ML applications
  - multi-class classification, topic modeling, document classification, NLP, recommendation system
  - market basket analysis, survey analysis, election pollings
  - genetics, clinical trials, quality control
- widely used in *Bayesian inference* with Dirichlet priors

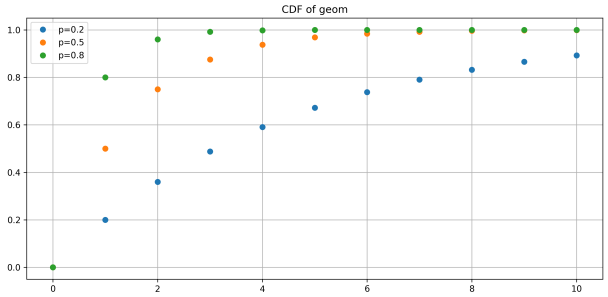
Geometric distribution

- model number of trials needed to achieve first success in independent Bernoulli trials
- PMF, mean, variance

$$p(k) = p(1-p)^{k-1} \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = 1/p \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = (1-p)/p^2$$

- ML applications
  - modeling time-to-conversion, failure analysis, reinforcement learning episode lengths, web crawling stopping conditions
- memoryless property $p(X > m + n | X > m) = p(X > n)$



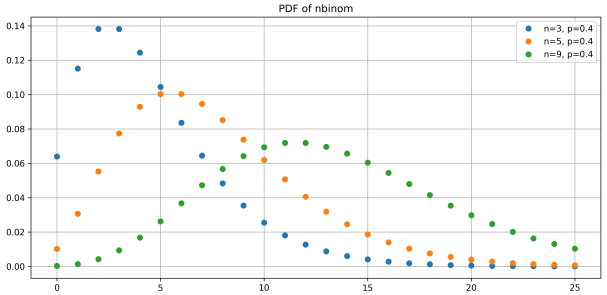


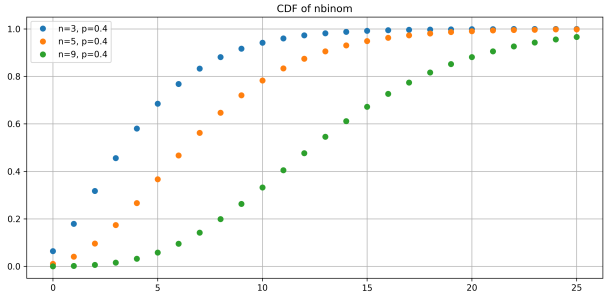
Negative binomial distribution

- model number of trials needed to achieve r successes in independent Bernoulli trials
- PMF, mean, variance

$$p(k) = \begin{pmatrix} k-1 \\ r-1 \end{pmatrix} p^r (1-p)^{k-r} \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = r/p \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = r(1-p)/p^2$$

- ML applications
  - modeling overdispersed count data, customer acquisition costs, reliability engineering, text analysis for word frequencies
- *often used when Poisson assumptions are violated due to overdispersion*



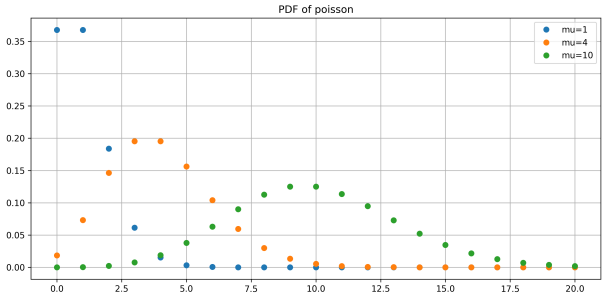


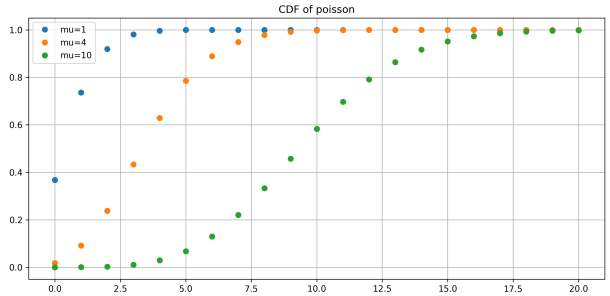
Poisson distribution

- model number of events occurring in fixed interval of time or space
- PMF, mean, variance ($\lambda > 0$)

$$p(k) = e^{-\lambda}\lambda^k/k! \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = \lambda \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = \lambda$$

- ML applications
  - modeling web traffic, system failures
  - word counts (in NLP), user interactions (in recommendation systems)
- approximates binomial when n is large & p is small with $= np$
- sum of independent Poisson variables is Poisson



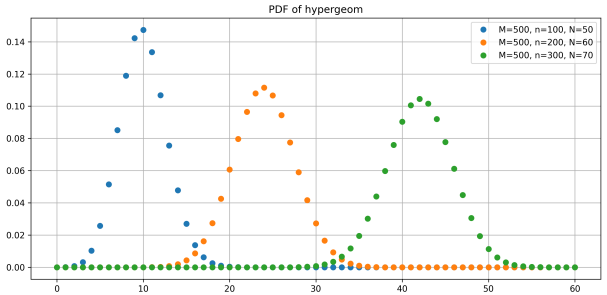


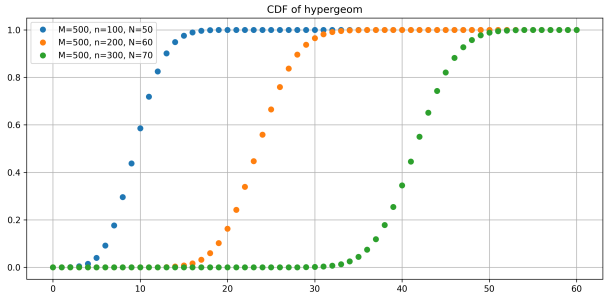
Hypergeometric distribution

- model number of successes in n draws without replacement from finite population of size N containing K successes
- PMF, mean, variance ($N, K \in \mathbf{N}$ with $N > K$)

$$p(k) = \frac{\binom{K}{k}\binom{N-K}{n-k}}{\binom{N}{n}} \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = \frac{nK}{N} \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = \frac{nK}{N} \cdot \frac{N-K}{N} \cdot \frac{N-n}{N-1}$$

- ML applications
  - sampling without replacement, quality control testing
  - feature selection validation, A/B testing with finite populations





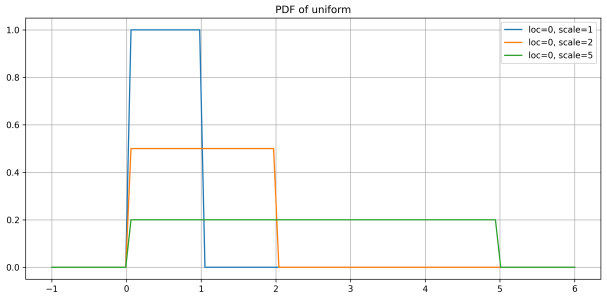
Continuous Random Variables

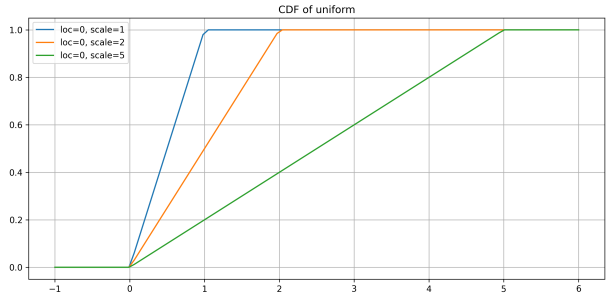
Uniform distribution

- model equally likely outcomes over continuous interval $[a, b]$ representing complete uncertainty within bounded range
- PDF, mean, variance ($a, b \in \mathbf{R}$ with $b > a$)

$$p(x) = 1/(b-a)I_{[a,b]}(x) \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = (a+b)/2 \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = (b-a)^2/12$$

- ML applications
  - Monte Carlo sampling, generating baseline distributions for hypothesis testing
- maximum entropy distribution for bounded continuous support
- foundation for pseudo-random number generation and inverse transform sampling



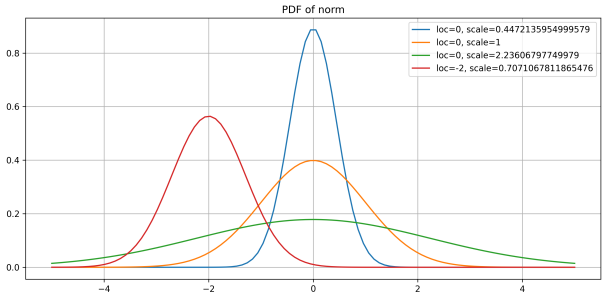


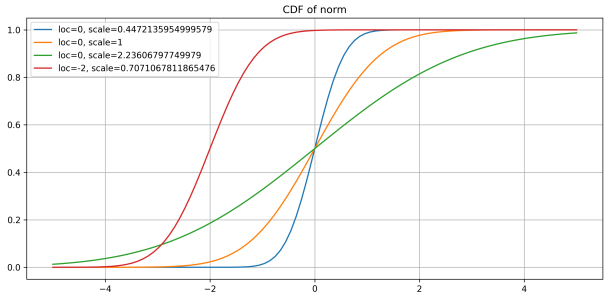
Gaussian distribution

- most important continuous distribution
- model symmetric bell-shaped data arising from many natural processes
- PDF, mean, variance ($\mu \in \mathbf{R}$, $\sigma > 0$)

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2} \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = \mu \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$$

- ML applications
  - linear regression error terms, NN weight initialization, PCA, noise modeling
- invariant under linear transformations, maximum entropy for given mean and variance



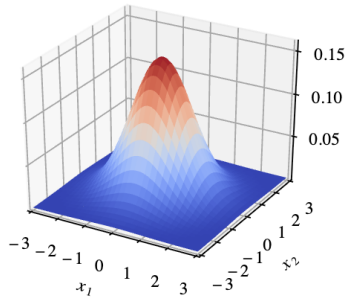


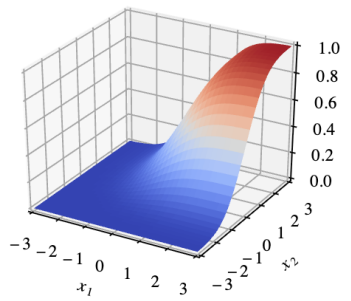
Multivaraite Gaussian distribution

- generalize scalar Gaussian to random vector
- PDF, mean, variance ($\mu \in \mathbf{R}^n$, $\Sigma \in \mathbf{S}^n_{++}$)

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}\det(\Sigma)^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T\Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)} \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = \mu \quad \mathbf{Cov}(X) = \Sigma$$

- ML applications
  - Gaussian mixture, PCA, Kalman filtering, Gaussian processes, latent variable models
- maximum likelihood estimation having closed-form solution, foundation for many Bayesian models



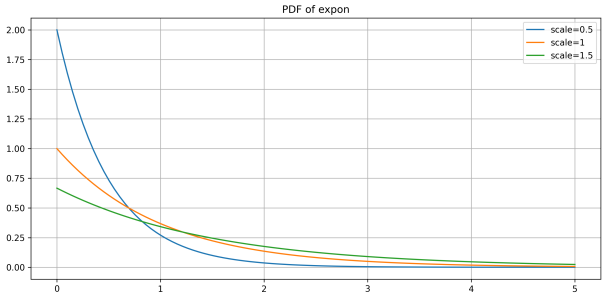


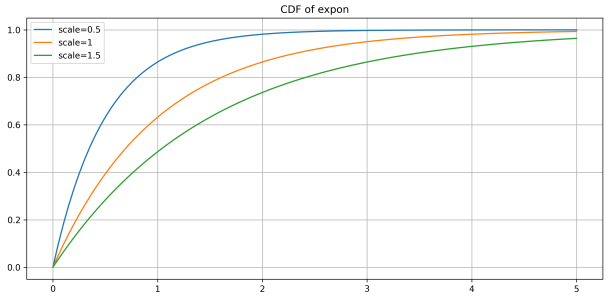
Exponential distribution

- model time between events in Poisson process, representing memoryless waiting times or lifetimes
- PDF, mean, variance ($\lambda > 0$)

$$p(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} I_{[0,\infty)}(x) \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = 1/\lambda \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = 1/\lambda^2$$

- ML applications
  - system failure times, web session durations, survival analysis
- memoryless property $p(X > s+t|X > s) = p(X > t)$ - only continuous distribution with this property, minimum of exponentials is exponential



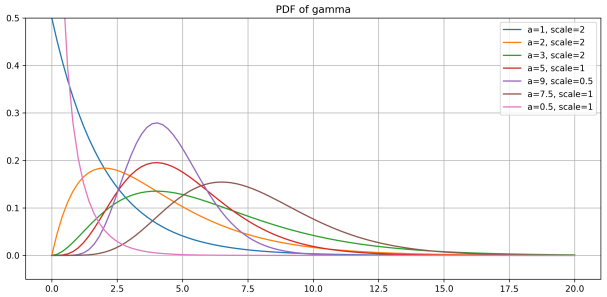


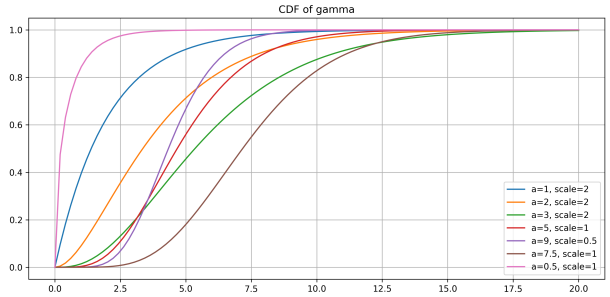
Gamma distribution

- model positive continuous values - generalizing exponential distribution to allow for more flexible shapes, $e.g.$, for waiting times for multiple events
- PDF, mean, variance ($\alpha, \beta > 0$)

$$p(x) = \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta x} I_{[0,\infty)}(x) \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = \alpha/\beta \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = \alpha/\beta^2$$

- ML applications
  - survival analysis, queuing theory
- exponential is special case when $\alpha = 1$, sum of independent exponentials is gamma, conjugate prior for Poisson and exponential distributions



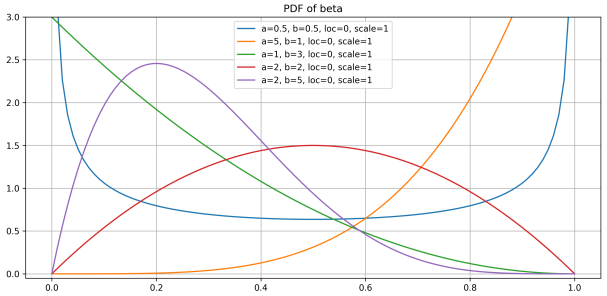


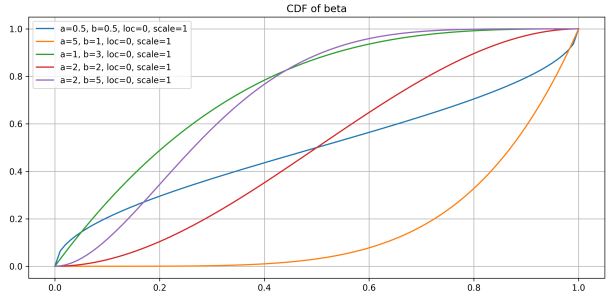
Beta distribution

- model probabilities and proportions, defined on $[0, 1]$ with flexible shapes from uniform to highly skewed
- PDF, mean, variance $(\alpha, \beta > 0)$

$$p(x) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha, \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1} \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta} \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha+\beta)^2(\alpha+\beta+1)}$$

- ML applications
  - modeling success rates, A/B testing, probability calibration
- uniform is special case when $\alpha = \beta = 1$, conjugate prior for Bernoulli & binomial related to Dirichlet distribution



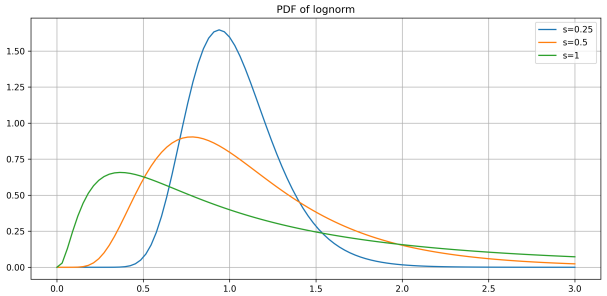


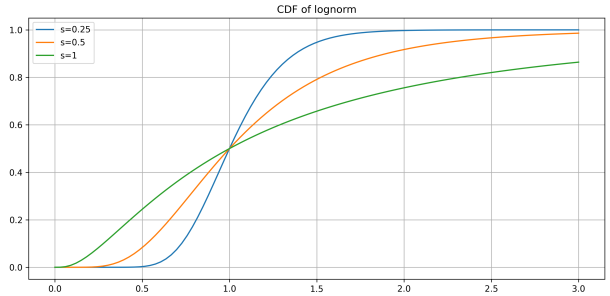
Log-normal distribution

- model positive values where logarithm follows normal distribution, representing multiplicative processes and heavy-tailed phenomena
- PDF, mean, variance ($\mu \in \mathbf{R}$, $\sigma > 0$)

$$p(x) = e^{-(\log x - \mu)^2/2\sigma^2}/x\sigma\sqrt{2\pi} \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = e^{\mu+\sigma^2/2} \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = (e^{\sigma^2}-1)e^{2\mu+\sigma^2}$$

- ML applications
  - modeling income distributions, stock prices, file sizes, network traffic, biological measurements, computational complexity
- heavy right tail, multiplicative central limit theorem



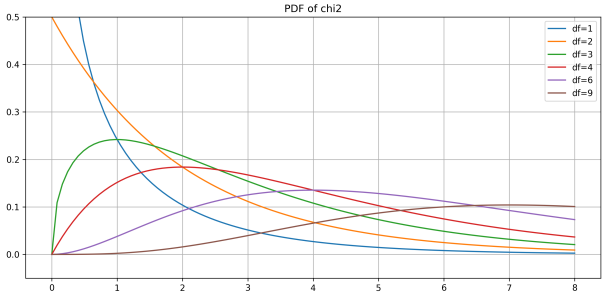


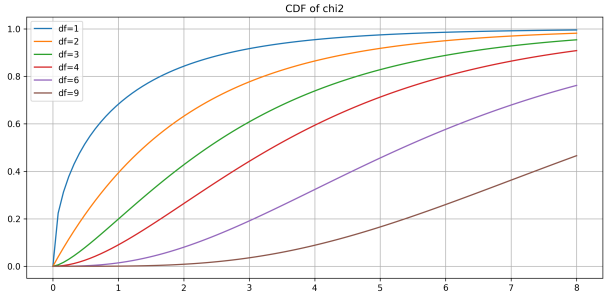
Chi-square distribution

- model sum of squares of independent standard normal random variables, fundamental in statistical testing and confidence intervals
- PDF, mean, variance ($\nu \in \mathbf{N}$ - degree of freedom)

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{2^{\nu/2}\Gamma(\nu/2)} x^{\nu/2-1} e^{-x/2} I_{[0,\infty)}(x) \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = \nu \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = 2\nu$$

- ML applications
  - goodness-of-fit testing, feature selection, confidence intervals for variance, regularization in NN
- special case of gamma distribution, sum of independent chi-squares is chi-square





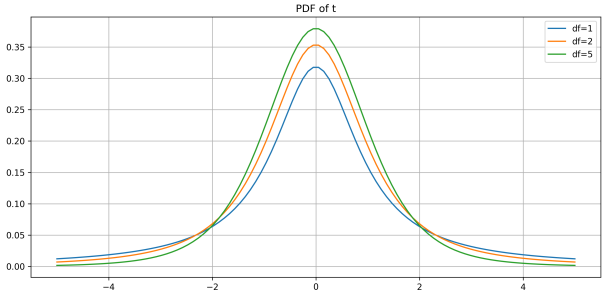
Student's t-distribution

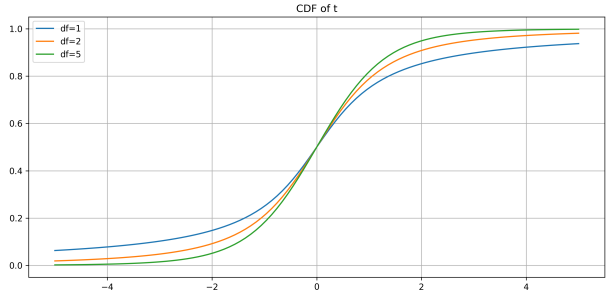
- model sum of squares of independent standard normal random variables, fundamental in statistical testing and confidence intervals
- PDF, mean, variance ($\nu > 0$ degrees of freedom - almost always positive integer)

$$
\begin{aligned}
p(x) &= \frac{\Gamma((\nu+1)/2)}{\sqrt{\pi\nu}\Gamma(\nu/2)}(1+x^2/\nu)^{-(\nu+1)/2} \\
\mathbf{E}(X) &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \nu > 1 \\ \text{undefined} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
\mathbf{Var}(X) &= \begin{cases} \nu/(\nu-2) & \text{if } \nu > 2 \\ \infty & \text{if } 1 < \nu \leq 2 \\ \text{undefined} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

- ML applications
  - Bayesian inference, robust regression, confidence intervals with small samples, uncertainty quantification in DL

- heavier tails than normal, approaches standard normal as ν approaches ∞, symmetric around zero, undefined moments for small ν



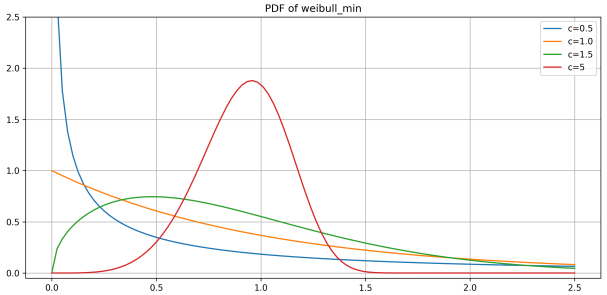


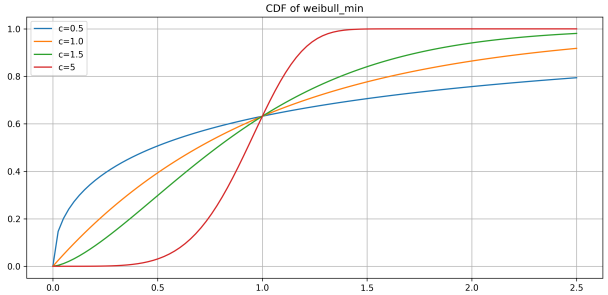
Weibull distribution

- model survival times & failure rates with flexible hazard functions, generalizing exponential distribution for reliability analysis
- PDF, mean, variance $(\lambda, k > 0)$

$$p(x) = (k/\lambda)(x/\lambda)^{k-1} e^{-(x/\lambda)^k} I_{[0,\infty)}(x) \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = \lambda\Gamma(1 + 1/k)$$

- ML applications
  - survival analysis, reliability engineering, wind speed modeling, NN activation functions, extreme value theory
- flexible hazard function, minimum of Weibull variables is Weibull



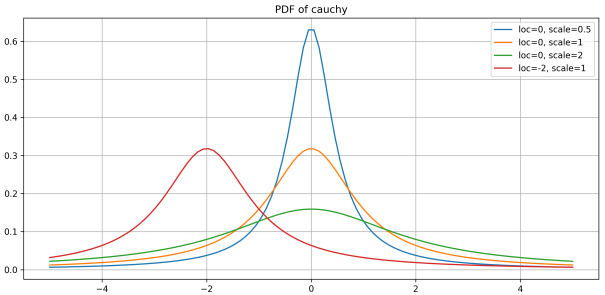


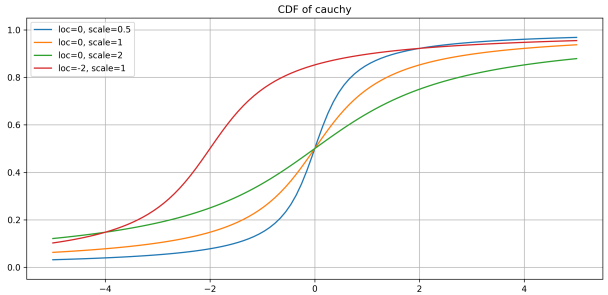
Cauchy distribution

- model heavy-tailed symmetric data with undefined mean and variance, arising in physics and robust statistics
- PDF, mean, variance ($x_0 \in \mathbf{R}$, $\gamma > 0$)

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\pi\gamma(1 + ((x - x_0)/\gamma)^2)} \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = \text{undefined} \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = \text{undefined}$$

- ML applications
  - robust statistics, modeling outliers, Bayesian inference with heavy-tailed priors, physics simulations, anomaly detection
- no defined moments, stable distribution, ratio of two independent normals is Cauchy



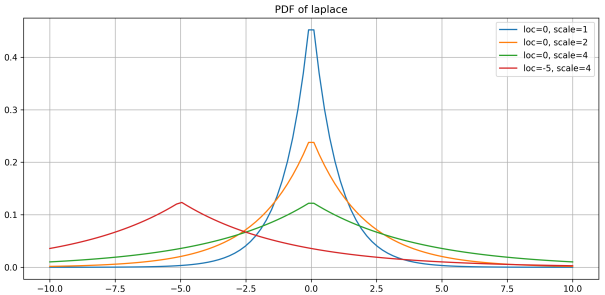


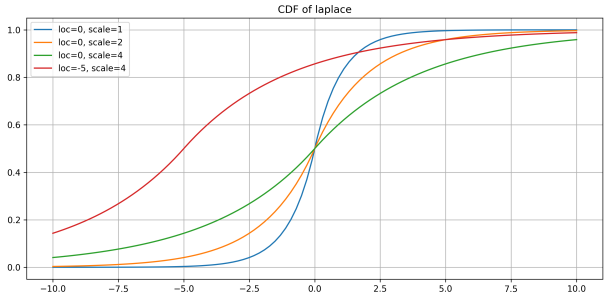
Laplace distribution

- model symmetric data with heavier tails than normal, representing difference between two independent exponential variables
- PDF, mean, variance ($\mu \in \mathbf{R}$, $b > 0$)

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{2b}\exp(-|x-\mu|/b) \quad \mathbf{E}(X) = \mu \quad \mathbf{Var}(X) = 2b^2$$

- ML applications
  - lasso, robust regression, sparse coding, image processing, privacy-preserving ML
- maximum entropy for given mean absolute deviation, related to L1 penalty, robust to outliers (fundamentally more than normal distribution)





Pareto distribution

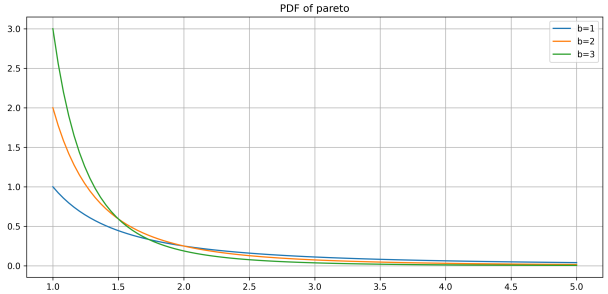
- model heavy-tailed phenomena following power-law distributions, representing "80-20 rule" and scale-free networks
- PDF, mean, variance ($x_m, \alpha > 0$)

$$
\begin{aligned}
p(x) &= \alpha x_m^{\alpha} / x^{\alpha+1} \\
\mathbf{E}(X) &= \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } \alpha \leq 1 \\ \alpha x_m/(\alpha-1) & \text{if } \alpha > 1 \end{cases} \\
\mathbf{Var}(X) &= \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } \alpha \leq 2 \\ \alpha x_m^2/(\alpha-1)^2(\alpha-2) & \text{if } \alpha > 2 \end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

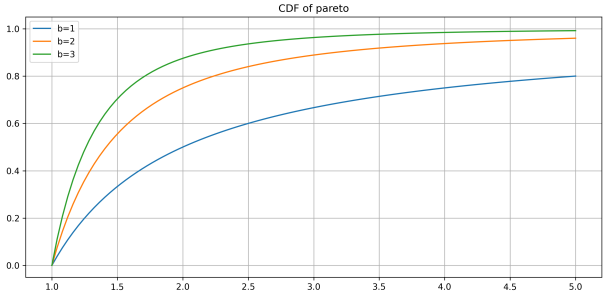
- ML applications
  - model wealth distributions, network degree distributions, web page rankings, file sizes, NLP

- heavy right tail, scale-free property, finite moments only for sufficiently large α, basis for power-law distributions

PDF



CDF



ML Basics

Estimation, Regression, and Inference

The optimal estimator

- estimation problem
  - for two random variables $X \in \mathbf{R}^n$ & $Y \in \mathbf{R}^m$
  - design *estimator or predictor* $g : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ to make $g(X)$ *as close as possible* to Y
- when *closeness* measured by mean-square-error (MSE), *the optimal solution* exists

$$g^*(x) = \mathbf{E}(Y|X = x)$$

Proof of optimality

$$\begin{aligned}
\underset{X,Y}{\mathbf{E}}(g(X)-g^*(X))^T(g^*(X)-Y) &= \underset{X}{\mathbf{E}}\,\underset{Y}{\mathbf{E}}((g(X)-g^*(X))^T(g^*(X)-Y)|X) \\
&= \underset{X}{\mathbf{E}}((g(X)-g^*(X))^T\,\underset{Y}{\mathbf{E}}(g^*(X)-Y)|X) \\
&= 0
\end{aligned}$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{E}\,\|g(X)-Y\|_2^2 &= \mathbf{E}\,\|g(X)-g^*(X)+g^*(X)-Y\|_2^2 \\
&= \mathbf{E}\,\|g(X)-g^*(X)\|_2^2+\mathbf{E}\,\|g^*(X)-Y\|_2^2+2\,\mathbf{E}(g(X)-g^*(X))^T(g^*(X)-Y) \\
&= \mathbf{E}\,\|g(X)-g^*(X)\|_2^2+\mathbf{E}\,\|g^*(X)-Y\|_2^2 \\
&\geq \mathbf{E}\,\|g^*(X)-Y\|_2^2
\end{aligned}$$

Regression

- in most cases, *not* possible to obtain g^* (unless, $e.g.$, full knowledge of join PDF)
- regression problem
  - given data set $D = \{(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_N, y_N)\} \subset \mathbf{R}^n \times \mathbf{R}^m$
  - find $g : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ to make $g(X)$ *as close as possible* to Y
- given certain regression method, regressor depends on dataset D

$$g(\cdot; D)$$

Bias & variance

assuming $\mathcal{D}$ is random variable for dataset D

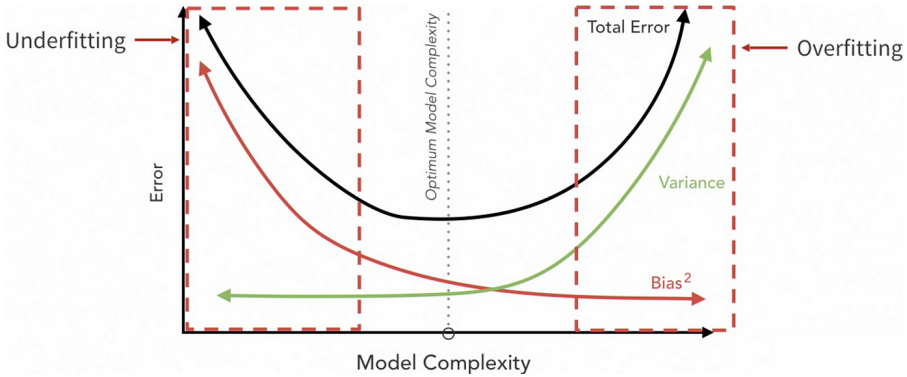
- estimation MSE is

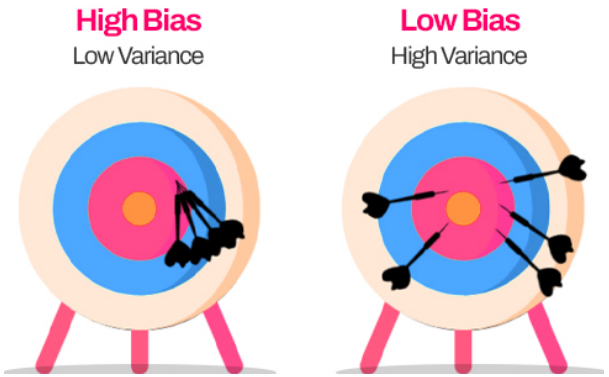
$$\begin{aligned}
&\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{X,Y,\mathcal{D}} \|g(X;\mathcal{D}) - Y\|_2^2 \\
&= \underbrace{\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{X,\mathcal{D}} \|g(X;\mathcal{D}) - \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{\mathcal{D}} g(X;\mathcal{D})\|_2^2}_{\text{variance}} + \underbrace{\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{X} \| \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{\mathcal{D}} g(X;\mathcal{D}) - g^*(X)\|_2^2}_{\text{bias}} + \underbrace{\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{X,Y} \|g^*(X) - Y\|_2^2}_{\text{noise}} \\
&= \underbrace{\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{X,\mathcal{D}} \|g(X;\mathcal{D}) - \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{\mathcal{D}} g(X;\mathcal{D})\|_2^2}_{\text{variance}} + \underbrace{\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{X,Y} \| \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{\mathcal{D}} g(X;\mathcal{D}) - Y\|_2^2}_{\text{bias + noise}}
\end{aligned}$$

- bias & variance
  - *bias* measures how good model is in average
  - *variance* measures how much model varies depending on dataset it is trained on
- *noise* cannot be reduced even with the optimal predictor

Model choice & hyperparameter optimization

- want to choose model or modeling method to make both bias & variance low
  - (too) complex models have low bias, but high variance
  - (too) simple models have low variance, but high bias
- usually solved by *hyperparameter optimization*
  - sometimes called *hyperparameter tuning*





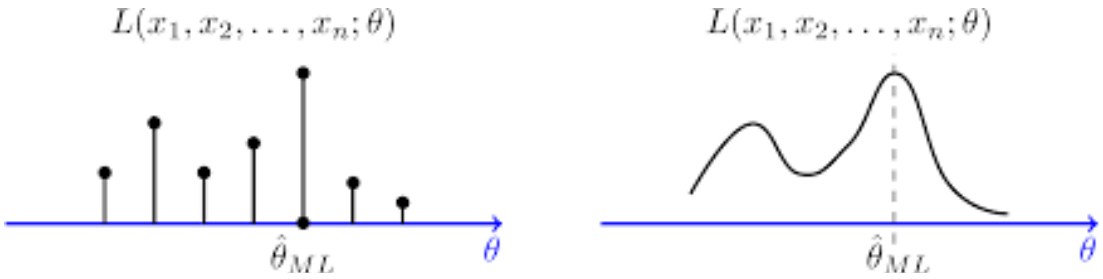
MLE

- maximum likelihood estimation (MLE)
  - assume parameterized distribution of $X \in \mathbf{R}^n$ by $\theta \in \Theta$ - $p(x;\theta)$
  - find θ maximizing *likelihood function*

$$p(x_1, \ldots, x_N; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(x_i; \theta)$$

- MLE solution

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}} = \underset{\theta \in \Theta}{\text{argmax}} \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(x_i; \theta)$$



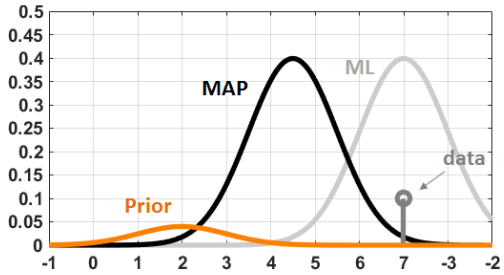
MAP estimation

- maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimation
  - assume *prior knowledge* of θ - $p(\theta)$
  - assume parameterized distribution of $X \in \mathbf{R}^n$ by θ - $p(x|\theta)$
  - find θ maximizing *posteriori probability*

$$p(\theta|x_1, \ldots, x_N)$$

  - Bayes' theorem implies $p(\theta|x_1, \ldots, x_N) \propto p(\theta) \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(x_i|\theta)$
- MAP solution

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}} = \underset{\theta \in \Theta}{\operatorname{argmax}}\, p(\theta) \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(x_i|\theta)$$



Bayesian inference

- both MLE & MAP estimation are *point estimations*
- Bayesian inference
  - updates *prior distribution* by replacing it with posterior distribution
- conjugate prior
  - if prior can be further parameterized by hyperparameter α and posterior is in same probability distribution family, both prior and posterior called *conjugate distributions*, prior called *conjugate prior*

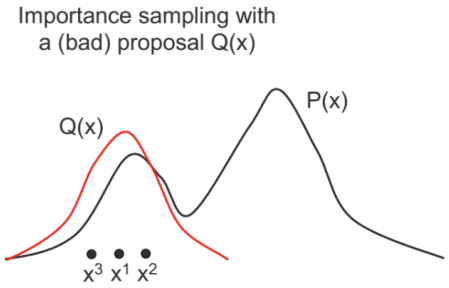
$$p(\theta; \alpha)$$

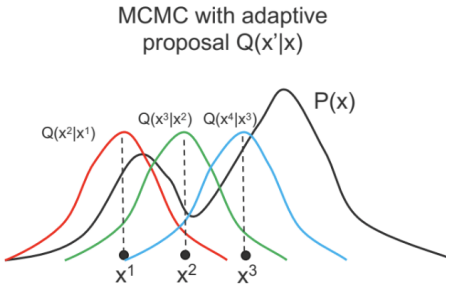
  - in this case, can update hyperparameter α, *i.e.*, find α^+ such that

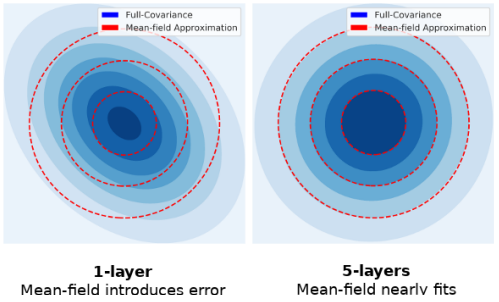
$$p(\theta; \alpha^+) = p(\theta | x_1, \ldots, x_N; \alpha) = \frac{p(\theta; \alpha) \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(x_i | \theta; \alpha)}{p(x_1, \ldots, x_N; \alpha)}$$

Bayesian algorithms & methods

- exact inference methods
  - conjugate priors - $e.g.$, Beta-Binomial, Normal-Normal, $etc.$
- Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)
  - Metropolis-Hastings algorithm, Gibbs sampling, Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC)
- variational inference (VI)
  - mean field variational Bayes - assuming parameter independence for tractability
  - structured variational inference - maintaining dependencies & inference tractability
  - variational autoencoder (VAE) - NN-based VI for complex distributions





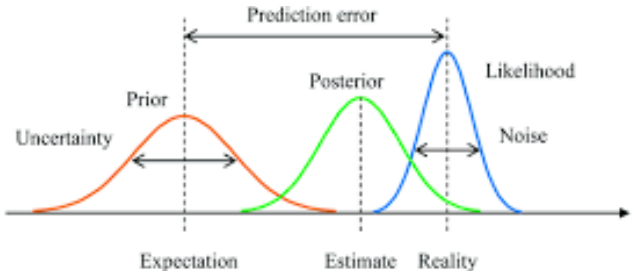


Pros & cons of Bayesian inference

- pros
  - principled uncertainty quantification - providing complete probability distributions
  - incorporates prior knowledge - allowing to formally include domain expertise, $etc.$
  - coherent framework - providing mathematically consistent approach
  - natural sequential learning - easily handles streaming data or online learning scenarios
  - interpretable results - outputs directly interpretable as probabilities
- cons
  - computational complexity - often requiring sophisticated sampling methods
  - prior sensitivity, scalability issues, implementation difficulty, slower inference, model selection challenges

$$p(\theta \mid \text{data}) = \frac{p(\text{data} \mid \theta) \cdot p(\theta)}{p(\text{data})}$$

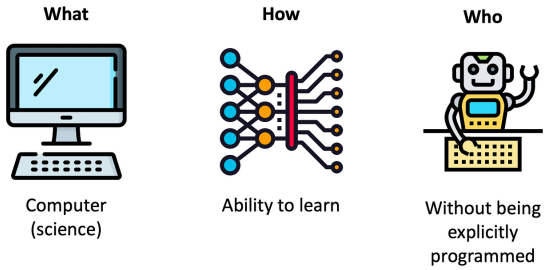
Posterior, Likelihood, Prior, Normalization

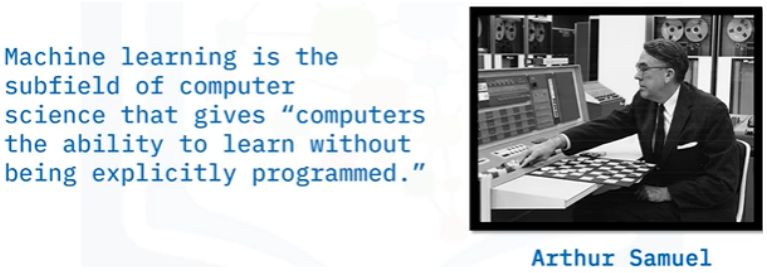


Machine Learning

Machine learning

- ML
  - subfield of computer science that
    "gives computers the ability to learn without being explicitly programmed."
    - Arthur Samuel (1959)
  - *not* magic, still less intelligent than humans for many cases
  - *numerically minimizes* certain (mathematical) loss function to (indirectly) solve *some statistically meaningful* problems





Two famous quotes and one non-famous quote

- Albert Einstein

  The grand aim of all science is to cover the greatest number of empirical facts by logical deduction from the smallest possible number of hypotheses or axioms.

- Alfred North Whitehead

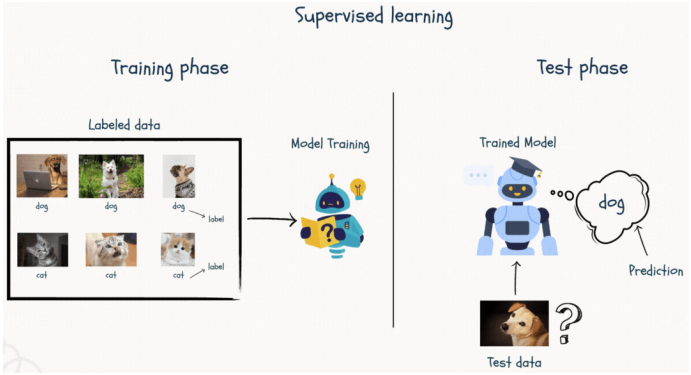
  Civilization advances by extending the number of important operations which we can perform without thinking about them. - Operations of thought are like cavalry charges in a battle – they are strictly limited in number, they require fresh horses, and must only be made at decisive moments.

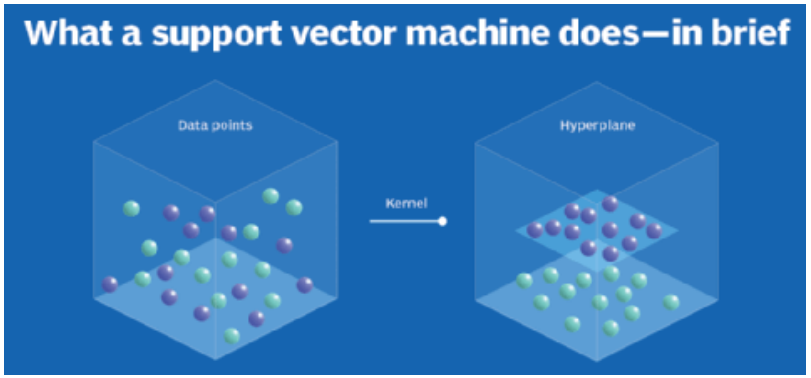
- Demis Hassabis

  . . . biology can be thought of as information processing system, albeit extraordinarily complex and dynamic one . . . just as mathematics turned out to be the right description language for physics, biology may turn out to be the perfect type of regime for the application of AI!

Supervised learning

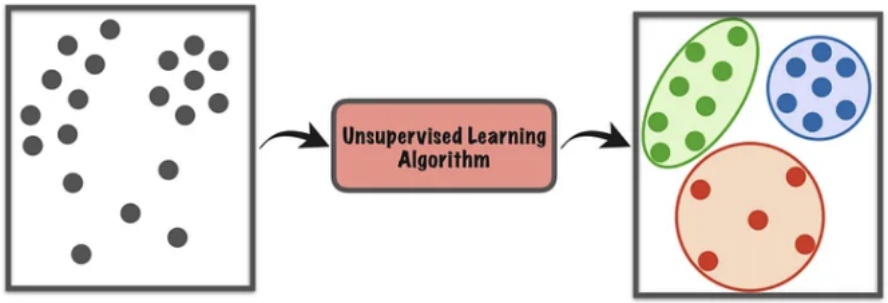
- most basic and widely used type of ML
- model is trained on dataset where correct output or "label" is provided for each input
- use cases
  - image classification, object detection, semantic segmentation
  - natural language processing (NLP) - text classification, sentiment analysis
  - predictive modeling, medical diagnosis
- algorithms
  - linear regression, logistic regression, decision trees, random forest
  - support vector machine (SVM), k-nearest neighbors (kNN)





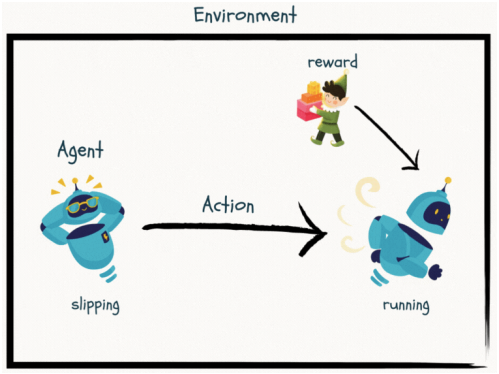
Unsupervised learning

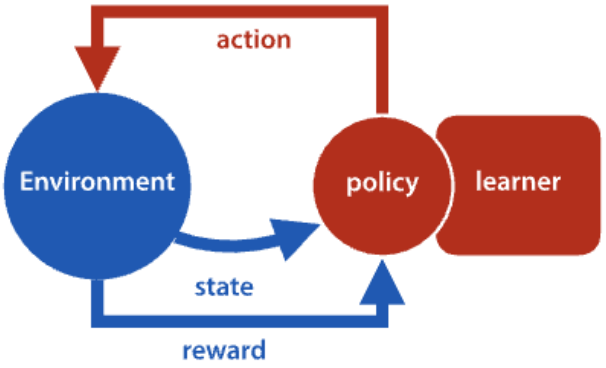
- model is given dataset without any labels or output
- model finds patterns & structure within data on its own
- use cases
  - clustering, dimensionality reduction
  - anomaly detection, generative models
- algorithms
  - k-means clutering, hierarchical clustering, principal component analysis (PCA)
  - t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (t-SNE)



Reinforcement learning

- (quite different from supervised & unsupervised learnings)
- model learns from consequences of its actions
  - model receives feedback on its performance; feedback called *reward*
  - uses that information to adjust its actions and improve its performance over time
- use cases
  - robotics, game playing, autonomous vehicles, industrial control
  - healthcare, finance
- algorithms
  - Q-learning, SARSA, DQN, A3C, policy gradient





ML Formulations

Statistical problem formulation

- assume data set $X_m = \{x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(m)}\}$
  - drawn independently from (true, but unknown) data generating distribution $p_{\text{data}}(x)$
- maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) is to solve

$$\text{maximize} \quad p_{\text{model}}(X; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} p_{\text{model}}(x^{(i)}; \theta)$$

  where optimization variable is θ
  - find *most plausible or likely model* that fits data
- equivalent (but more numerically tractable) formulation

$$\text{maximize} \quad \log p_{\text{model}}(X; \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \log p_{\text{model}}(x^{(i)}; \theta)$$

MLE & KL divergence

- in information theory, Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence defines distance between two probability distributions p & q

$$D_{\mathrm{KL}}(p\|q) = \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{X\sim p} \log p(X)/q(X) = \int_{x\in\Omega} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}\, dx$$

- KL divergence between data distribution p_{data} & model distribution p_{model} can be approximated by Monte Carlo method as

$$D_{\mathrm{KL}}(p_{\mathrm{data}}\|p_{\mathrm{model}}(\theta)) \simeq \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(\log p_{\mathrm{data}}(x^{(i)}) - \log p_{\mathrm{model}}(x^{(i)};\theta))$$

  where $x^{(i)}$ are drawn (of course) according to p_{data}

- hence *minimizing KL divergence is equivalent to solving MLE problem!*

Equivalence of MLE to MSE

- assume model is Gaussian, $i.e.$, $y \sim \mathcal{N}(g_\theta(x), \Sigma)$ ($g_\theta(x) \in \mathbf{R}^p$, $\Sigma \in \mathbf{S}^p_{++}$)

$$p(y|x;\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^p |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(y - g_\theta(x)\right)^T \Sigma^{-1} \left(y - g_\theta(x)\right)\right)$$

- assuming that $\Sigma = \alpha I_p$, log-likelihood becomes

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^m \log p(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)};\theta) &= \sum_{i=1}^m \log p(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)};\theta) p(x^{(i)}) \\ &= -\sum_{i=1}^m \|y^{(i)} - g_\theta(x^{(i)})\|_2^2 / 2\alpha - \frac{pm}{2}\log(2\pi\alpha) + \sum_{i=1}^m \log p(x^{(i)})\end{aligned}$$

- hence *minimizing mean-square-error (MSE) is equivalent to solving MLE problem!*

Numerical optimization problem formulation

- (true) problem to solve

$$\text{minimize} \quad \mathbf{E}\, l(g_\theta(X), Y)$$

  - *impossible* to solve

- basic formulation - surrogate problem to solve

$$\text{minimize} \quad f(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} l(g_\theta(x^{(i)}), y^{(i)})$$

- formulation with regularization

$$\text{minimize} \quad f(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} l(g_\theta(x^{(i)}), y^{(i)}) + \gamma r(\theta)$$

- stochastic gradient descent (SGD)

$$\theta^{(k+1)} = \theta^{(k)} - \alpha_k \nabla f(\theta^{(k)})$$

Deep Learning

Deep learning (DL)

- machine learning using artificial neural networks with multiple layers for
  - automatically learning hierarchical representations of data
- key components
  - deep neural networks, hidden layers, backpropagation, activation functions
  - hierarchical feature learning, representation learning, end-to-end learning
- key breakthroughs enabling DL
  - massively available data, GPU computing, algorithmic advances

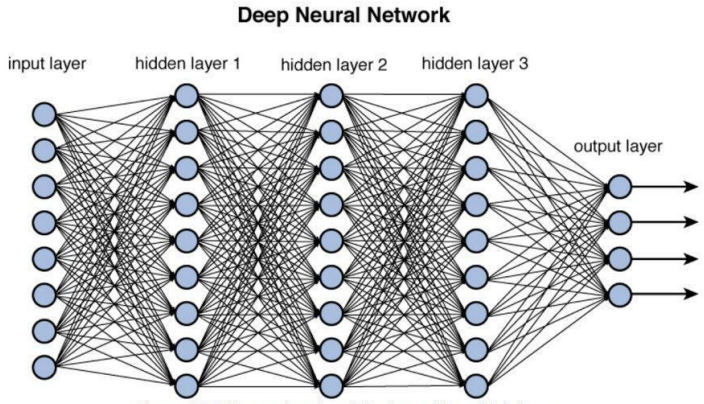
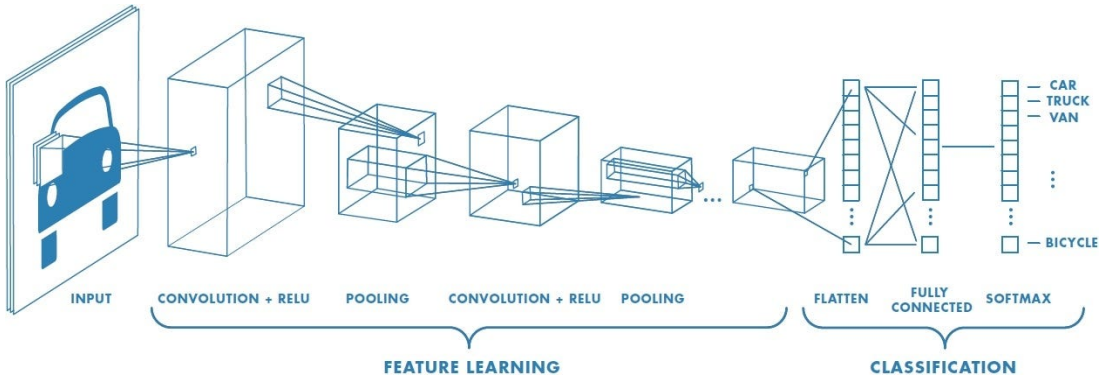


Figure 12.2 Deep network architecture with multiple layers.

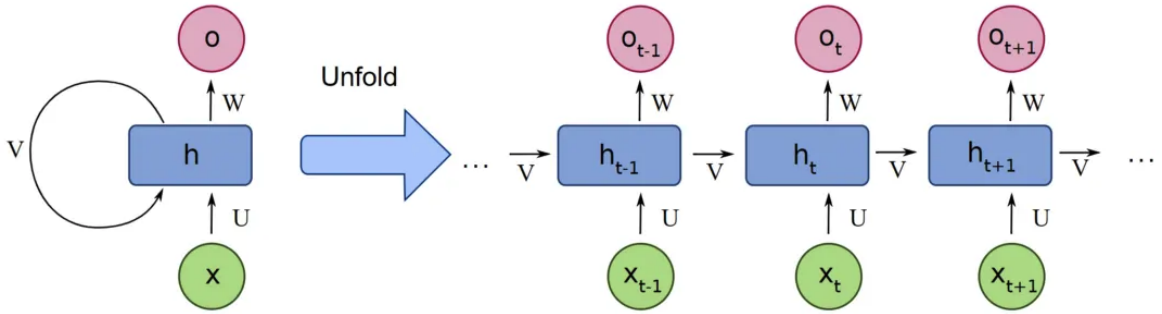
Convolutional neural network (CNN)

- specialized DL learning architecture designed for
  - processing grid-like data such as images
  - where spatial relationships between pixels matter
- key components
  - convolutional layers, pooling layers, activation functions, fully connected layers
- how it works
  - feature extraction, translation invariance, parameter sharing
- why it excels
  - local connectivity, hierarchical learning



Recurrent neural network (RNN)

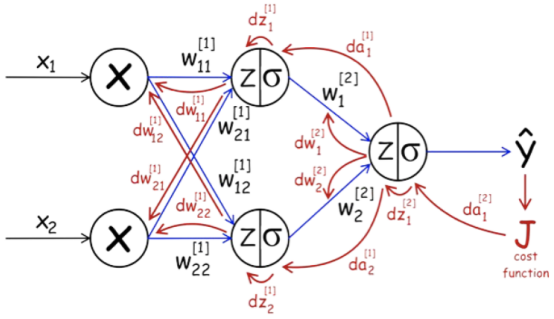
- neural network designed for
  - processing sequential data by maintaining memory of previous inputs
- key components
  - hidden states, recurrent connections, input/output layers, weight sharing
- how it works
  - sequential processing, memory mechanism, temporal dependencies
- why it excels
  - variable length input, context awareness, flexible architecture
- variants - long short-term memory (LSTM), gated recurrent unit (GRU)

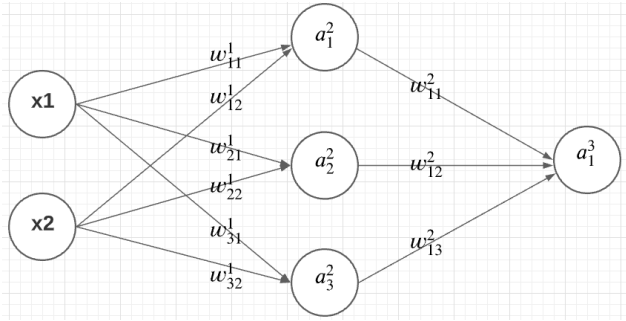


Training DNN using SGD

Notations

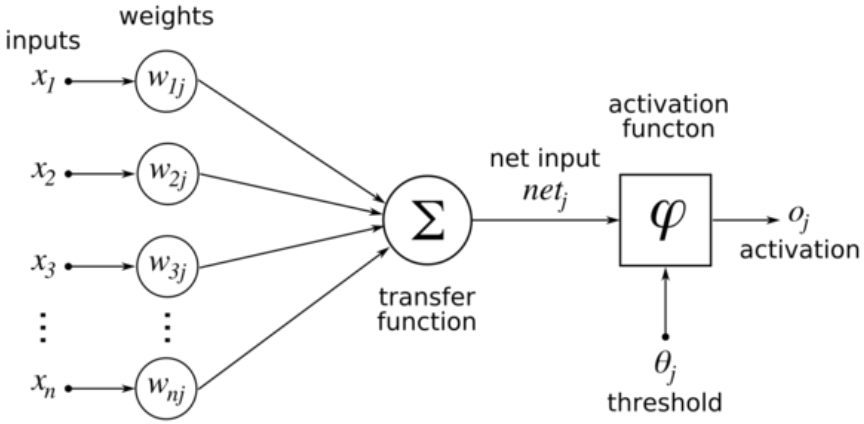
- p / q - dimension of input / output spaces
- $l : \mathbf{R}^q \times \mathbf{R}^q \to \mathbf{R}_+$ - loss function
- d - depth of neural network
- n_i $(1 \leq i \leq d)$ - number of perceptrons in ith layer
- $z^{[i]} \in \mathbf{R}^{n_i}$ - input to ith layer
- $o^{[i]} \in \mathbf{R}^{n_i}$ - output of ith layer
- $W^{[i]} \in \mathbf{R}^{n_i \times n_{i-1}}$ - weights of connections between $(i-1)$th and ith layer
- $w^{[i]} \in \mathbf{R}^{n_i \times n_{i-1}}$ - bias weights of ith layer
- $\phi^{[i]} : \mathbf{R}^{n_i} \to \mathbf{R}^{n_i}$ - activation functions of ith layer



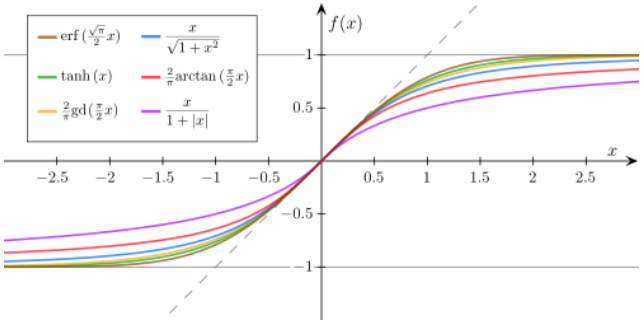


Basic unit & activation function

- basic unit



- activation function



Neural net equations

- modeling function for the (deep) neural network $g_\theta : \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}^q$

$$g_\theta = \phi_\theta^{[d]} \circ \psi_\theta^{[d]} \circ \cdots \circ \phi_\theta^{[1]} \circ \psi_\theta^{[1]}$$

  or equivalently

$$g_\theta(x) = \phi_\theta^{[d]}(\psi_\theta^{[d]}(\cdots(\phi_\theta^{[1]}(\psi_\theta^{[1]}(x)))))$$

- for ith layer
  - output via (componentwise) activation function

$$o^{[i]} = \phi^{[i]}(z^{[i]}) \Leftrightarrow o_j^{[i]} = \phi_j^{[i]}(z_j^{[i]}) \quad (1 \le j \le n_i)$$

  - input via affine transformation $\psi^{[i]} : \mathbf{R}^{n_{i-1}} \to \mathbf{R}^{n_i}$

$$z^{[i]} = \psi^{[i]}(o^{[i-1]}) = W^{[i]} o^{[i-1]} + w^{[i]}$$

Stochastic gradient descent

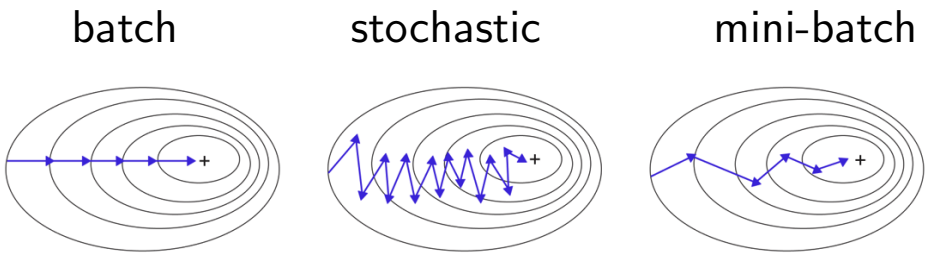
- ML training tries to minimize some loss function - $f(\theta)$ depends on (not only θ, but also) batch of data $(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \ldots (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})$

$$\text{minimize} \quad f(\theta)$$

- while exist hundreds of optimization methods solving this problem
  - *the only method used widely* is stochastic *gradient descent*!
- (stochastic) gradient descent

$$f(\theta^{k+1}) = f(\theta^k) - \alpha^k \nabla f(\theta^k)$$

- *backpropagation* is used to evaluate this (stochastic) *gradient* using *chain rule*



Chain rule

- suppose
  - two functions $f : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ & $g : \mathbf{R}^m \to \mathbf{R}$
  - Jacobian of f - $Df : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$
  - gradient of g - $\nabla g : \mathbf{R}^m \to \mathbf{R}^m$
- gradient of composite function $h = g \circ f$

$$\nabla h(\theta) = Df(\theta)^T \nabla g(f(\theta)) \in \mathbf{R}^n \quad \text{(using matrix-vector multiplication)}$$

in other words

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} h(\theta) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} f_j(\theta) \nabla_j g(f(\theta)) \quad \text{(scalar version)}$$

Loss function & its gradient

- assume cost function of deep neural network is

$$f(\theta) = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{k=1}^{m} l(g_\theta(x^{(k)}), y^{(k)}) = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{k=1}^{m} f_k(\theta)$$

  where

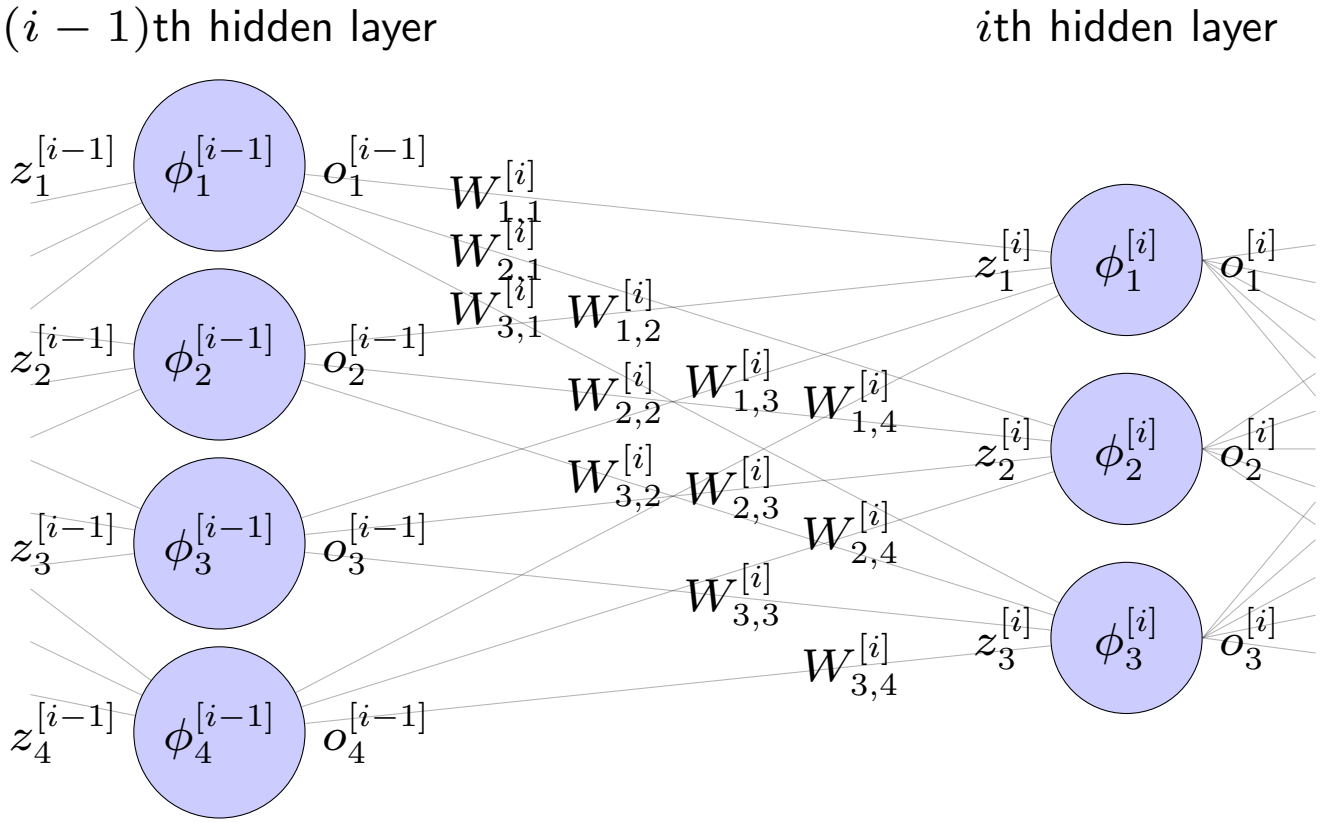
$$f_k(\theta) = l(g_\theta(x^{(k)}), y^{(k)})$$

- gradient is

$$m\nabla_\theta f(\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \nabla_\theta l(g_\theta(x^{(k)}), y^{(k)}) = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \nabla_\theta f_k(\theta)$$

  – $i.e.$, evaluate gradient $\nabla_\theta f_k(\theta)$ for each data point $(x^{(k)}, y^{(k)})$

Hidden layers



Backpropagation formula using chain rule

- for each data $(x^{(k)}, y^{(k)})$
  - via activation function

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z_j^{[i]}} f_k(\theta) = \frac{\partial}{\partial o_j^{[i]}} f_k(\theta) \phi_j^{[i]'}(o_j^{[i]}) \quad \text{for } 1 \le j \le n_i \tag{1}$$

    where $\phi_j^{[i]'}(o_j^{[i]})$ is derivative of activation function $\phi_j^{[i]}$ evaluated at $o_j^{[i]}$
  - via affine transformation

$$\frac{\partial}{W_{j,l}^{[i]}} f_k(\theta) = o_l^{[i-1]} \frac{\partial}{\partial z_j^{[i]}} f_k(\theta) \quad \text{for } 1 \le j \le n_i \ \& \ 1 \le l \le n_{i-1} \tag{2}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_j^{[i]}} f_k(\theta) = \frac{\partial}{\partial z_j^{[i]}} f_k(\theta) \quad \text{for } 1 \le j \le n_i \tag{3}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial o_l^{[i-1]}} f_k(\theta) = \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} W_{j,l}^{[i]} \frac{\partial}{\partial z_j^{[i]}} f_k(\theta) \quad \text{for } 1 \le l \le n_{i-1} \tag{4}$$

Backpropagation formula using matrix-vector multiplication

- for each data $(x^{(k)}, y^{(k)})$
  - via activation function

$$\nabla_{z^{[i]}} f_k(\theta) = D\phi^{[i]} \nabla_{o^{[i]}} f_k(\theta) \tag{5}$$

where $D\phi^{[i]} = \mathbf{diag}(\phi_1^{[i]'}(o_1^{[i]}), \ldots, \phi_{n_i}^{[i]'}(o_{n_i}^{[i]}))$ is Jacobian of $\phi^{[i]}$ evaluated at $o^{[i]}$

  - via affine transformation

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{W^{[i]}} f_k(\theta) &= \nabla_{z^{[i]}} f_k(\theta) o^{[i-1]^T} \in \mathbf{R}^{n_i \times n_{i-1}} && (6) \\ \nabla_{w^{[i]}} f_k(\theta) &= \nabla_{z^{[i]}} f_k(\theta) \in \mathbf{R}^{n_i} && (7) \\ \nabla_{o^{[i-1]}} f_k(\theta) &= W^{[i]^T} \nabla_{z^{[i]}} f_k(\theta) \in \mathbf{R}^{n_{i-1}} && (8) \end{aligned}$$

Backpropagation formula using `Python numpy` package

- for each data $(x^{(k)}, y^{(k)})$
  - via activation function

$$\texttt{grad\_z = phi\_dir * grad\_o} \tag{9}$$

    where `grad_z`, `phi_dir`, `grad_o` are 1d `numpy.ndarray` of size n_i
  - via affine transformation

$$\texttt{grad\_W = numpy.dot(grad\_z, val\_o.T)} \tag{10}$$

$$\texttt{grad\_w = grad\_z.copy()} \tag{11}$$

$$\texttt{grad\_o\_prev = numpy.dot(grad\_z, W)} \tag{12}$$

    where `val_o`, `grad_w` are 1d `numpy.ndarray` of size n_i, `grad_o_prev` is 1d `numpy.ndarray` of size n_{i-1}, `grad_W` is 2d `numpy.ndarray` of shape (n_i, n_{i-1})

Gradient evaluation using backpropagation

- forward propagation - evaluate for each $(x^{(k)}, y^{(k)})$

$$g_\theta(x^{(k)}) = \phi_\theta^{[d]}(\psi_\theta^{[d]}(\cdots(\phi_\theta^{[1]}(\psi_\theta^{[1]}(x^{(k)})))))$$

- *backpropagation - evaluate partial derivatives backward*
  - evaluate gradient with respect to output of output layer $o^{[d]} = g_\theta(x^{(k)})$

$$\nabla_{o^{[d]}} f_k(\theta) = \nabla_{y_1} l(g_\theta(x^{(k)}), y^{(k)})$$

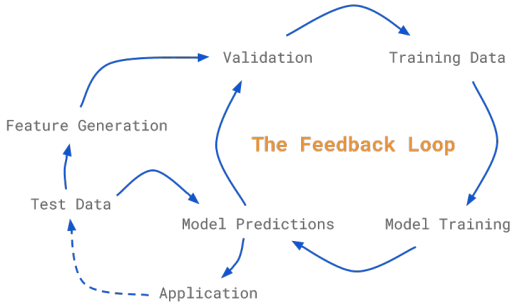
  - evaluate gradient with respect to input from that with respect to output using (1), or equivalently, using (5) $i.e.$, evaluate $\nabla_{z^{[i]}} f_k(\theta)$ from $\nabla_{o^{[i]}} f_k(\theta)$
  - evaluate gradient with respect to weights, bias, and intput of previous layer using (3), (4), & (2) or equivalently, using (7), (8), & (6) $i.e.$, evaluate $\nabla_{W^{[i]}} f_k(\theta)$, $\nabla_{w^{[i]}} f_k(\theta)$ & $\nabla_{o^{[i-1]}} f_k(\theta)$ from $\nabla_{z^{[i]}} f_k(\theta)$
  - repeat back to input layer to evaluate all

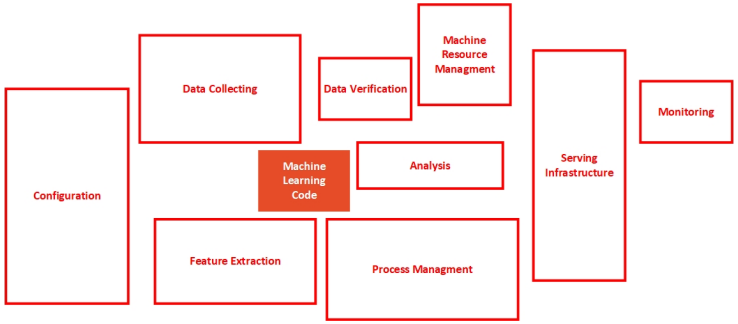
$$\nabla_{W^{[1]}} f_k(\theta), \nabla_{w^{[1]}} f_k(\theta), \ldots, \nabla_{W^{[d]}} f_k(\theta), \nabla_{w^{[d]}} f_k(\theta)$$

ML in Action

ML in practice

- define business problem - business objective, success metrics, establish baselines (early)
- data collection - data cleaning, validation & exploratory data analysis (EDA)
- feature engineering - based on domain expertise
- train/validation/test split - stratified sampling, chronological splits for time-series
- model selection or/and hyperparameter optimization
- monitoring, retraining & notification
- start simple, iterative fast (fail fast!), validate business impact - $e.g.$, A/B test

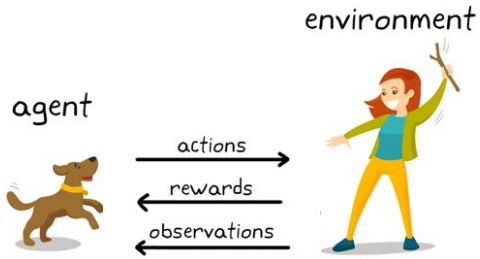


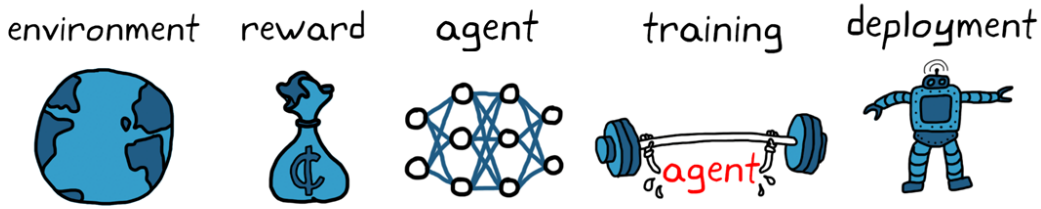


Reinforcement Learning

Reinforcement learning (RL)

- machine learning where agent learns how to take actions to achieve goal
  - by maximizing cumulative *reward*
  - while interacting with environment
- learning from interaction - foundational idea underlying all learning & intelligence
- differs from supervised learning
  - labeled input and output pairs *not* presented
  - sub-optimal actions need *not* be explicitly corrected
- focus is finding balance between exploration & exploitation





Why Deep RL?

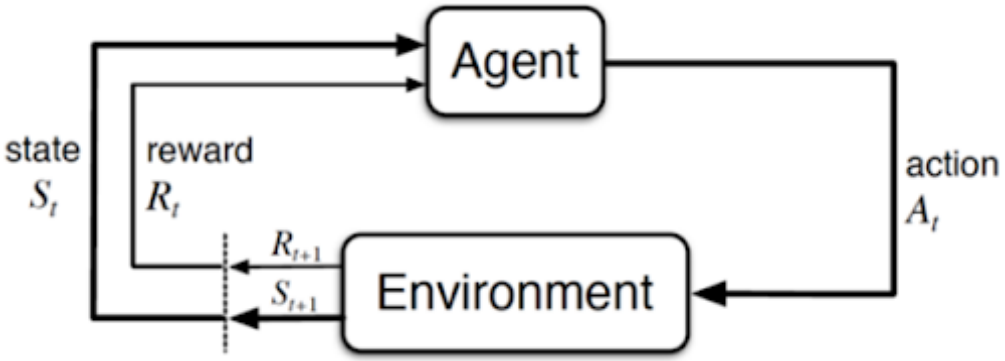
- Koray Kavukcuoglu (director of research at Deepmind) says

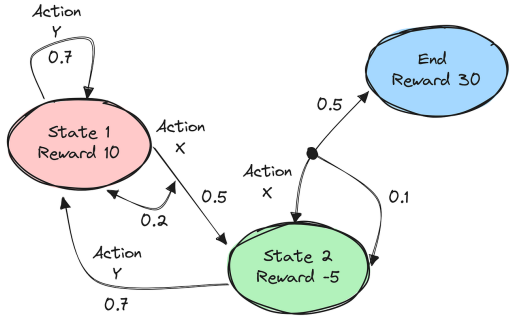
> If one of the goals we work for here is AI, then it is at the core of that. RL is a very general framework for learning sequential decision making tasks. And DL, on the other hand, is (of course) the best set of algorithms we have to learn representations. And combinations of these two different models is the best answer so far we have in terms of learning very good state representations of very challenging tasks that are not just for solving toy domains but actually to solve challenging real world problems.

MDP

Markov decision process (MDP)

- classical formulation of sequential decision making
  - actions influence not just immediate rewards, but also subsequent states, hence, involving delayed reward
  - need to trade-off immediate and delayed reward
- elements - *states*, *actions*, *reward*, and *return*
- agent interacts with environment
  - agent makes decision as to which action to take with knowledge of state it's in
  - action changes (state of) environment
  - agent receives reward

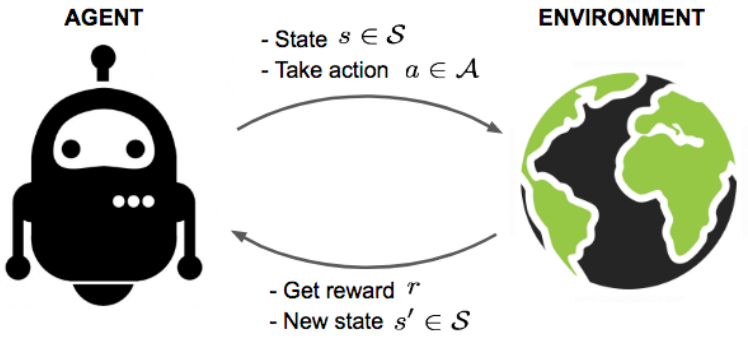


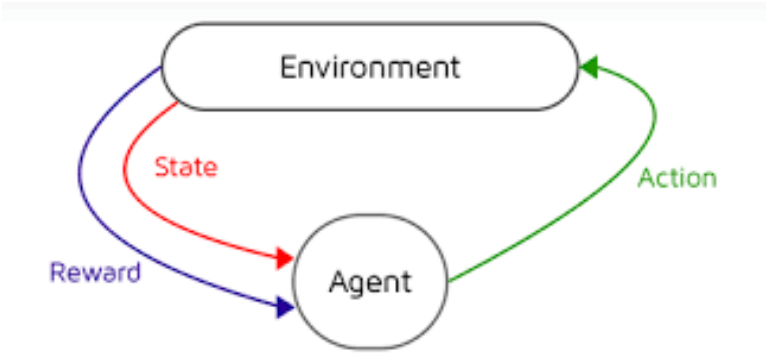


MDP & Markov property

- agent in *state* S_t takes *action* A_t at t
  - receives *reward* R_{t+1} (from environment)
  - environment transitions to state S_{t+1}
- sequence of random variables - $S_0, A_0, R_1, S_1, A_1, R_2, S_2, A_2, R_3, S_3, A_3, \ldots$
- *Markov property* - $S_{t+1}, R_{t+1}|S_t, A_t, R_t, S_{t-1}, A_{t-1}, R_{t-1}, \ldots = S_{t+1}, R_{t+1}|S_t, A_t$
  - formally expressed (using PDF)

$$p\left(S_{t+1}, R_{t+1} \middle| S_t, A_t, R_t, S_{t-1}, A_{t-1}, R_{t-1}, \ldots\right) = p\left(S_{t+1}, R_{t+1} \middle| S_t, A_t\right)$$



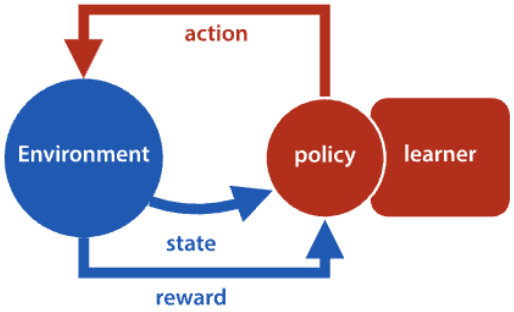


Policy & return

- *policy* - conditional probability of A_t given S_t

$$\pi(A|S) = p(A_t|S_t),$$

- *return* (at t) - $G_t = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k} = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \gamma^2 R_{t+3} + \cdots$
- $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ - *discount factor*
  - if $\gamma = 0$, myopic
  - if $\gamma = 1$, truly far-sighted
  - if $\gamma \in (0, 1)$, considers near-future rewards more importantly than those in far future



State value function & action value function

- *state value function* (sometimes referred to simply as *value function*)

$$v_\pi(s) = \underset{\pi,p}{\mathbf{E}} \{G_t | S_t = s\} = \underset{\pi,p}{\mathbf{E}} \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k} \middle| S_t = s \right\}$$

  - function of state - expected return agent will get from s when following π
- *action value function* (sometimes referred to simply as *action function*)

$$q_\pi(s, a) = \underset{\pi,p}{\mathbf{E}} \{G_t | S_t = s, A_t = a\} = \underset{\pi,p}{\mathbf{E}} \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k} \middle| S_t = s, A_t = a \right\}$$

  - function of state & action - expected return agent will get from s when agent takes a
- (most) RL algorithms (try to) maximize either of these functions - not maximizing immediate reward, but long-term return

Bellman

- Richard E. Bellman
  - introduced dynamic programming (DP) in 1953
  - proposed *Bellman equation* as necessary condition for optimality associated with DP

$$
\begin{aligned}
v_\pi(s) &\doteq \mathbb{E}_\pi[G_t \mid S_t = s] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_\pi\left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k+1} \,\middle|\, S_t = s\right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_\pi\left[R_{t+1} + \gamma \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k+2} \,\middle|\, S_t = s\right] \\
&\overset{?}{=} \sum_a \pi(a|s) \sum_{s'} \sum_r p(s', r|s, a) \left[r + \gamma \mathbb{E}_\pi\left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k+2} \,\middle|\, S_{t+1} = s'\right]\right] \\
&= \sum_a \pi(a|s) \sum_{s', r} p(s', r|s, a)\Big[r + \gamma v_\pi(s')\Big], \quad \forall s \in \mathcal{S}, \qquad (3.12)
\end{aligned}
$$

Bellman equations

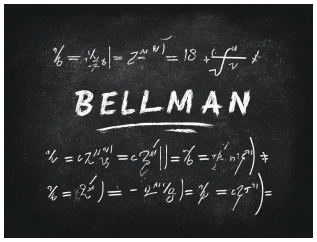
- *Bellman equation for state value function*

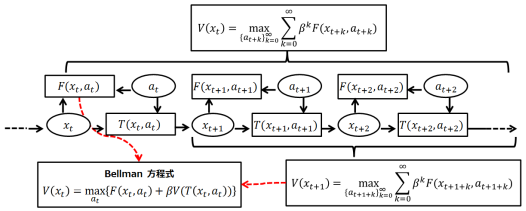
$$v_\pi(s) = \sum_a \pi(a|s) q_\pi(s,a) = \sum_a \pi(a|s) \sum_{s',r} p(s',r|s,a) \left(r + \gamma v_\pi(s')\right) \quad (13)$$

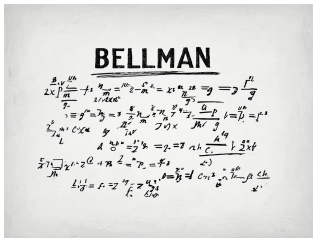
- *Bellman equation for action value function*

$$q_\pi(s,a) = \sum_{s',r} p(s',r|s,a) \left(r + \gamma v_\pi(s')\right)$$

$$= \sum_{s',r} p(s',r|s,a) \left(r + \gamma \sum_{a'} \pi(a'|s') q_\pi(s',a')\right) \quad (14)$$







Bellman equation derviation - state value function

- Markov property implies
  - value functions only depend on current state & action taken
  - function value closely related to function values of next states
- these facts cleverly used to derive Bellman equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
v_\pi(s) &= \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{\pi,p}\{G_t|\, S_t = s\} \\
&= \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{A_t|S_t=s}\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{\pi,p}\{G_t|\, S_t = s, A_t\} \\
&= \sum_a p(A_t = a|S_t = s)\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{\pi,p}\{G_t|\, S_t = s, A_t = a\} \\
&= \sum_a \pi(a|s)\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{\pi,p}\{G_t|\, S_t = s, A_t = a\} \\
&= \sum_a \pi(a|s) q_\pi(s,a) \qquad (15)
\end{aligned}
$$

Bellman equation derviation - action value function

$$
\begin{aligned}
q_\pi(s,a) &= \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{\pi,p}\left\{G_t \middle|\, S_t = s, A_t = a\right\} \\
&= \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{S_{t+1},R_{t+1}|S_t=s,A_t=a} \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{\pi,p}\left\{G_t \middle|\, S_t = s, A_t = a, S_{t+1}, R_{t+1}\right\} \\
&= \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{S_{t+1},R_{t+1}|S_t=s,A_t=a} \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{\pi,p}\left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k+1} \middle|\, S_t = s, A_t = a, S_{t+1}, R_{t+1} \right\} \\
&= \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{S_{t+1},R_{t+1}|S_t=s,A_t=a} \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{\pi,p}\left\{ R_{t+1} + \gamma \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k+2} \middle|\, S_t = s, A_t = a, S_{t+1}, R_{t+1} \right\} \\
&= \sum_{s',r} p_{S_{t+1},R_{t+1}|S_t,A_t}(s', r|s, a) \\
&\qquad \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{\pi,p}\left\{ R_{t+1} + \gamma G_{t+1} \middle|\, S_t = s, A_t = a, S_{t+1} = s', R_{t+1} = r \right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
&= \sum_{s',r} p_{S_{t+1},R_{t+1}|S_t,A_t}(s',r|s,a) \\
&\qquad \left(r + \gamma \underset{\pi,p}{\mathbf{E}} \left\{ G_{t+1} | \, S_t = s, A_t = a, S_{t+1} = s', R_{t+1} = r \right\} \right) \\
&= \sum_{s',r} p_{S_{t+1},R_{t+1}|S_t,A_t}(s',r|s,a) \left(r + \gamma \underset{\pi,p}{\mathbf{E}} \left\{ G_{t+1} | \, S_{t+1} = s' \right\} \right) \\
&= \sum_{s',r} p_{S_{t+1},R_{t+1}|S_t,A_t}(s',r|s,a) \left(r + \gamma v_\pi(s') \right) \qquad (16)
\end{aligned}
$$

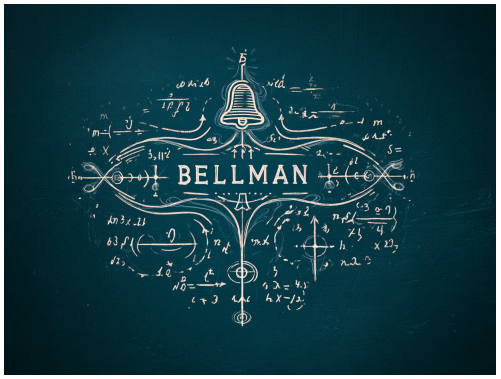
Optimal functions

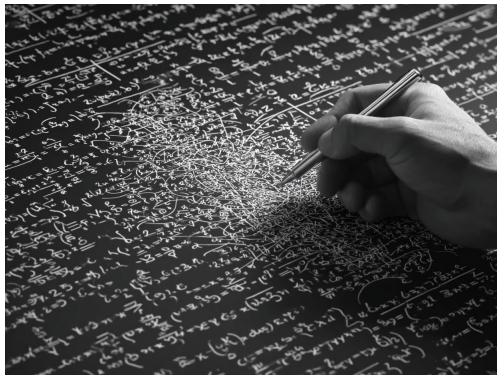
- define *optimal state-value function* as that of optimal policy π_*

$$v_*(s) = v_{\pi_*}(s) = \max_{\pi \in \Pi} v_\pi(s) \tag{17}$$

- (similarly) define *optimal action-value function* as that of π_*

$$q_*(s, a) = q_{\pi_*}(s, a) = \max_{\pi \in \Pi} q_\pi(s, a) \tag{18}$$





Bellman optimality equations

(17) & (18) with (15) & (16) imply

- *Bellman optimality equation for state value function*

$$v_*(s) = v_{\pi_*}(a) = \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} q_{\pi_*}(s,a) = \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \sum_{s',r} p(s',r|s,a) \left(r + \gamma v_\pi(s')\right) \quad (19)$$

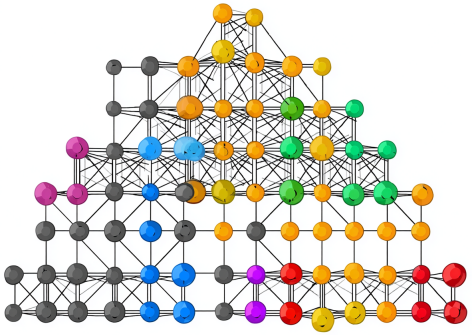
- *Bellman optimality equation for action value function*

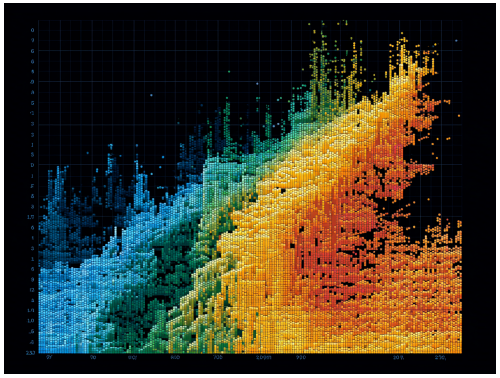
$$\begin{aligned} q_*(s,a) &= q_{\pi_*}(s,a) = \sum_{s',r} p(s',r|s,a) \left(r + \gamma v_{\pi_*}(s')\right) \\ &= \sum_{s',r} p(s',r|s,a) \left(r + \gamma \max_{a' \in \mathcal{A}} q_{\pi_*}(s',a')\right) \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

Dynamic Programming

Dynamic programming (DP)

- collection of algorithms to *compute optimal policies given perfect model of environment as MDP*
- provide *essential foundation for understanding of RL methods*
- all RL algorithms can be viewed as attempts to achieve much the same effect as DP
  - only with *less computation and without assuming perfect model of environment*
- key idea of RL in general
  - use of *value functions* to organize and structure search for good policies

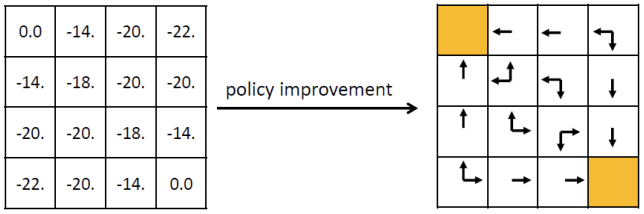




Policy evaluation (prediction)

- *policy evaluation* (in DP literature)
  - compute state-value function v_π for arbitrary policy π
  - also referred to as *prediction problem*
- existence and uniqueness of v_π guaranteed as long as either
  - $\gamma < 1$
  - eventual termination is guaranteed from all states under policy π
- policy evaluation algorithm uses fact that all state value functions satisfy Bellman equation (note resemblance to 13) - algorithm described in Table 1

$$v_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \sum_a \pi(a|s) \sum_{s',r} p(s', r|s, a) \left(r + \gamma v_k(s')\right)$$



Algorithm - iterative policy evaluation

Inputs: π, MDP
Algorithm parameters: $\theta > 0$ (small threshold determining accuracy of estimation)

Initialize $V(s) \in \mathbf{R}$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$ except that $V(\text{terminal}) = 0$

Loop:
    $\Delta \leftarrow 0$
    For each $s \in \mathcal{S}$:
        $v \leftarrow V(s)$
        $V(s) \leftarrow \sum_a \pi(a|s) \sum_{s',r} p(s', r|s, a) \left(r + \gamma V(s')\right)$
        $\Delta \leftarrow \max\{\Delta, |v - V(s)|\}$
until $\Delta < \theta$

Table 1: Iterative Policy Evaluation for estimating $V \sim v_\pi$

Policy iteration

- iterative process of improving policy to maximize value functions

- algorithm described in Table 2

Algorithm - policy iteration

Inputs: MDP
Algorithm parameters: $\theta > 0$ (small threshold determining accuracy of estimation)
1. Initialization
   $V(s) \in \mathbf{R}$ and $\pi(s) \in \mathcal{A}(s)$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$
2. Policy Evaluation
   Loop:
      $\Delta \leftarrow 0$
      For each $s \in \mathcal{S}$:
         $v \leftarrow V(s)$
         $V(s) \leftarrow \sum_a \pi(a|s) \sum_{s',r} p(s', r|s, a) \left(r + \gamma V(s')\right)$
         $\Delta \leftarrow \max\{\Delta, |v - V(s)|\}$
   until $\Delta < \theta$
3. Policy Improvement
$u \leftarrow$ `true`
   For each $s \in \mathcal{S}$
      $b \leftarrow \pi(s)$
      $\pi(s) \leftarrow \sum_a \pi(a|s) \sum_{s',r} p(s', r|s, a) \left(r + \gamma v_\pi(s')\right)$
      If $b \neq \pi(s)$, then $t \leftarrow$ `false`
   If u, then stop and return $V \sim v_*$ and $\pi \sim \pi_*$; else go to 2

Table 2: Policy Iteration (using iterative policy evaluation) for estimating $\pi \sim \pi_*$

Value iteration

- drawback to policy iteration
  - each iteration involves policy evaluation
- policy evaluation step can be truncated without losing convergence guarantees
- *value iteration*
  - policy evaluation is stopped after just one sweep by turning Bellman optimality equation (19) into update rule
  - can be written as simple update operation combining policy improvement and truncated policy evaluation steps

$$v_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \sum_{s',r} p(s', r|s, a) \left(r + \gamma v_k(s')\right)$$

- (in-place version of) algorithm described in Table 3

Algorithm - value iteration

Inputs: MDP
Algorithm parameters: $\theta > 0$ (small threshold determining accuracy of estimation)

Initialize $V(s) \in \mathbf{R}$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$ except that $V(\text{terminal}) = 0$

Loop:
    $\Delta \leftarrow 0$
    For each $s \in \mathcal{S}$:
        $v \leftarrow V(s)$
        $V(s) \leftarrow \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}(s)} \sum_{s',r} p(s', r|s, a) \left(r + \gamma V(s') \right)$
        $\Delta \leftarrow \max\{\Delta, |v - V(s)|\}$
until $\Delta < \theta$

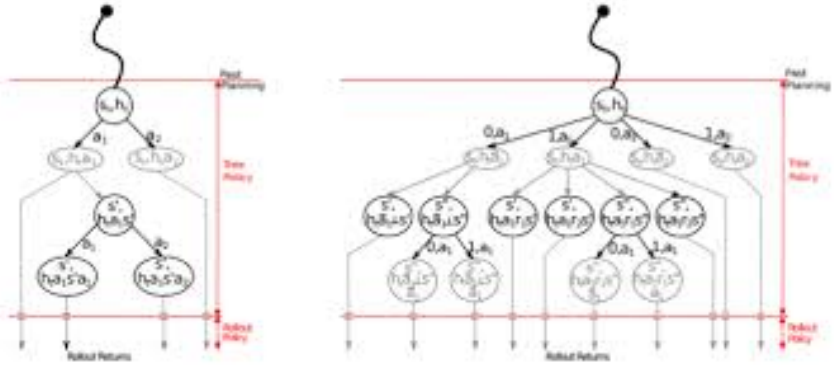
Output: deterministic policy π such that
    $\pi(s) = \text{argmax}_{a \in \mathcal{A}(s)} \sum_{s',r} p(s', r|s, a) \left(r + \gamma V(s') \right)$

Table 3: Value Iteration for estimating $\pi \sim \pi_*$

Monte Carlo Methods

Monte Carlo methods

- do not assume complete knowledge of environment
- require only experience sample sequences of states, actions & rewards
  - from *actual or simulated interaction with environment*
- require no prior knowledge of environment's dynamics
  - *not complete probability distributions* required for DP
  - yet can still attain optimal behavior
- simulation can be used



Monte Carlo prediction

- (simply) average returns observed after visits to each state
- Monte Carlo (MC) prediction methods - very similar but slightly different theoretical properties
  - *first-visit MC method* - most widely studied, dating back to 1940s
  - *every-visit MC method* - extends more naturally to function approximation and eligibility traces
- first-visit MC prediction algorithm described in Table 4

Algorithm - first-visit MC prediction

Inputs: π

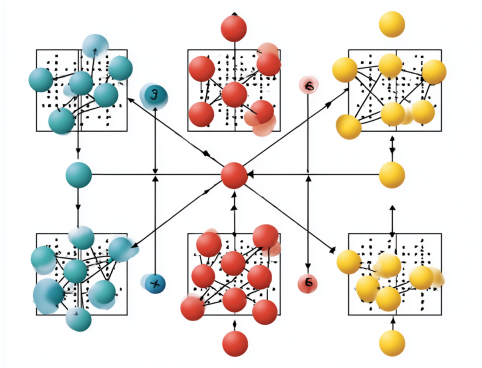
Initialize:
    $V(s) \in \mathbf{R}$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$
    $R(s) \leftarrow \texttt{list}()$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$

Loop:
    Generate an episode following π: $S_0, A_0, R_1, S_1, A_1, R_2, \ldots, S_{T-1}, A_{T-1}, R_T$
    $G \leftarrow 0$
    Loop for each step of episode, $t + T - 1, T - 2, \ldots, 0$:
        $G \leftarrow \gamma G + R_{t+1}$
        If $S_t \notin \{S_0, S_1, \ldots, S_{t-1}\}$:
            $R(S_t).\texttt{append}(G)$
            $V(S_t) \leftarrow R(S_t).\texttt{average}()$
Until a certain criterion is satisfied

Table 4: First-visit MC prediction for estimating $V \sim v_\pi$

Monte Carlo control

- proceed according to same pattern as DP, $i.e.$, according to idea of generalized policy iteration (GPI)
- maintain both approximate policy & approximate value functions
  - value functions repeatedly altered to more closely approximate value function for current policy
  - policy repeatedly improved with respect to current value function
- complete simple algorithm, called *Monte Carlo with Exploring Starts (ES)* described in Table 5



Algorithm - MC ES

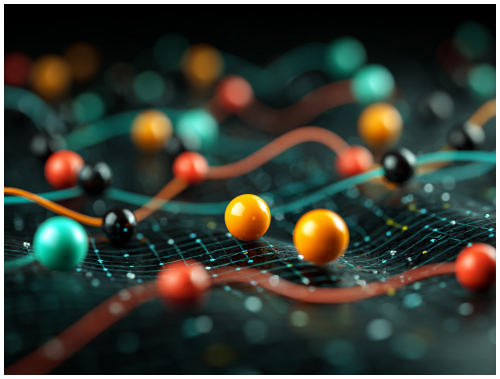
Initialize:
$\pi(s) \in \mathcal{A}(s)$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$
$Q(s, a) \in \mathbf{R}$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$ and $a \in \mathcal{A}(s)$
$R(s, a) \leftarrow \texttt{list}()$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$ and $a \in \mathcal{A}(s)$

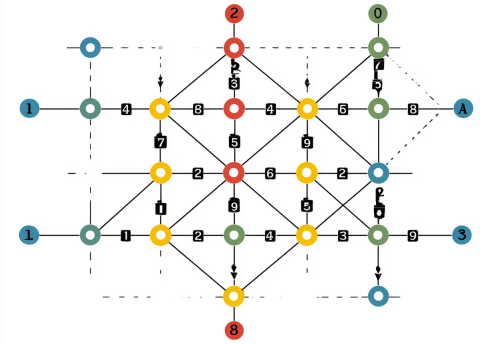
Loop:
Choose $S_0 \in \mathcal{S}$, $A_0 \in \mathcal{A}(S_0)$ randomly such that all pairs have probability > 0
Generate an episode from S_0, A_0 following π: $S_0, A_0, R_1, S_1, A_1, R_2, \ldots, S_{T-1}, A_{T-1}, R_T$
$G \leftarrow 0$
Loop for each step of episode, $t + T - 1, T - 2, \ldots, 0$:
$G \leftarrow \gamma G + R_{t+1}$
If $S_t \notin \{S_0, S_1, \ldots, S_{t-1}\}$:
$R(S_t, A_t).\texttt{append}(G)$
$Q(S_t, A_t) \leftarrow R(S_t, A_t).\texttt{average}()$
$\pi(S_t) \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax}_{a \in \mathcal{A}(S_t)} Q(S_t, a)$
Until a certain criterion is satisfied

Table 5: MC ES for estimating $\pi \sim \pi_*$

Monte Carlo control without exploring starts

- want to avoid unlikely assumption of exploring starts
- only general way to ensure that all actions are selected infinitely often is for agent to continue to select them
- two approaches to ensure this
  - on-policy methods - attempt to evaluate or improve policy used to make decisions
  - off-policy methods - evaluate or improve policy different from used to generate data
- on-policy first-visit MC control using ϵ-greedy, not using unrealistic assumption of exploring starts, described in Table 6





Algorithm - on-policy first-visit MC control

Algorithm parameters: small $\epsilon > 0$

Initialize:
- $\pi(s) \in \mathcal{A}(s)$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$
- $Q(s, a) \in \mathbf{R}$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$ and $a \in \mathcal{A}(s)$
- $R(s, a) \leftarrow \texttt{list}()$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$ and $a \in \mathcal{A}(s)$

Loop:
- Choose $S_0 \in \mathcal{S}$, $A_0 \in \mathcal{A}(S_0)$ randomly such that all pairs have probability > 0
- Generate an episode from S_0, A_0 following π: $S_0, A_0, R_1, S_1, A_1, R_2, \ldots, S_{T-1}, A_{T-1}, R_T$
- $G \leftarrow 0$
- Loop for each step of episode, $t + T - 1, T - 2, \ldots, 0$:
  - $G \leftarrow \gamma G + R_{t+1}$
  - If $S_t \notin \{S_0, S_1, \ldots, S_{t-1}\}$:
    - $R(S_t, A_t).\texttt{append}(G)$
    - $Q(S_t, A_t) \leftarrow R(S_t, A_t).\texttt{average}()$
    - $A^* \leftarrow \text{argmax}_{a \in \mathcal{A}(S_t)}$
    - For all $a \in \mathcal{A}(S_t)$

$$\pi(a|S_t) \leftarrow \begin{cases} 1 - \epsilon + \epsilon/|\mathcal{A}(S_t)| & \text{if } a = A^* \\ \epsilon/|\mathcal{A}(S_t)| & \text{if } a \neq A^* \end{cases}$$

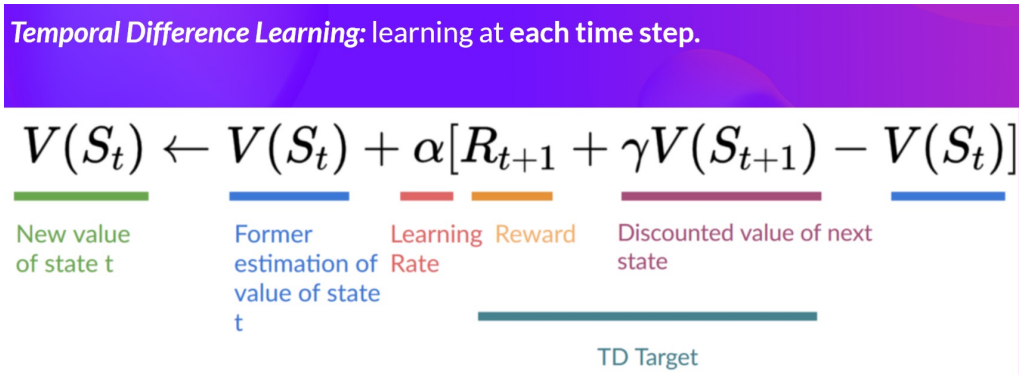
Until a certain criterion is satisfied

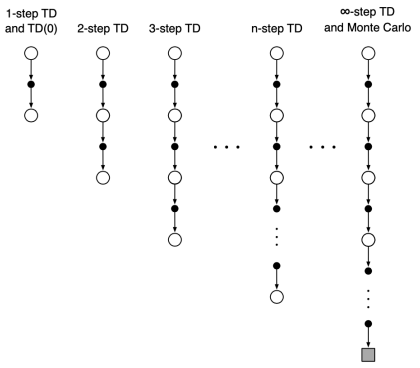
Table 6: On-policy first-visit MC control (for ϵ-soft policies) for estimating $\pi \sim \pi_*$

Temporal-difference Learning

Temporal-difference (TD) learning

- combination of MC ideas & DP ideas
  - like MC, learn directly from raw experience without model of environment's dynamics
  - like DP, update estimates based in part on other learned estimates, without waiting for final outcome - *they bootstrap*
- relationship between TD, DP & MC methods - recurring theme in theory of RL
- will start focusing on policy evaluation or prediction problem, $i.e.$, estimating v_π
- control problem (to find optimal policy)
  - DP, TD & MC methods all use some variation of generalized policy iteration (GPI)





TD prediction

- both TD & MC use experience to solve prediction problem
- simple every-visit MC method suitable for nonstationary environments

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(G_t - V(S_t)) = (1-\alpha)V(S_t) + \alpha G_t$$

- TD methods wait only until next time step
  - at $t+1$, form target and make update using reward R_{t+1} & estimate $V(S_{t+1})$
- TD(0) - one-step TD - simplest TD method

$$\begin{aligned} V(S_t) &\leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1}) - V(S_t)) \\ &= (1-\alpha)V(S_t) + \alpha(R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})) \end{aligned} \tag{21}$$

  - TD(0) is special case of TD(λ) & n-step TD methods
- TD(0) described in Table 7 in procedural form

Algorithm - TD(0) for estimating v_π

Inputs: the policy π to be evaluated
Algorithm parameters: step size $\alpha \in (0, 1]$

Initialize:
    $V(s) \in$ **R** for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$ except that $V(\text{terminal}) = 0$

Loop for each episode:
    Initialize S
    Loop for each step of episode:
        $A \leftarrow$ action given by π for S
        Take action A, observe R, S'
        $V(S) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha)V(S) + \alpha(R + \gamma V(S'))$
        $S \leftarrow S'$
    until S is terminal
Until a certain criterion is satisfied

Table 7: TD(0) for estimating v_π.

TD error

- *TD error* - quantity in brackets in TD(0) update

$$\delta_t \coloneqq R_{t+1} + \gamma V_t(S_{t+1}) - V_t(S_t) \tag{22}$$

  - difference between estimated value of S_t & better estimate $R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})$
  - arise in various forms throughout RL

- define *modified TD error*

$$\delta'_t \coloneqq R_{t+1} + \gamma V_{t+1}(S_{t+1}) - V_t(S_t) \tag{23}$$

Monte Carlo error

- MC error
  - difference between return along path from t to terminal state & state-value function

$$G_t - V_t(S_t) = \sum_{k=t}^{T-1} \gamma^{k-t} \delta'_k = \sum_{k=0}^{T-t-1} \gamma^k \delta'_{k+t} \tag{24}$$

  - can be expressed as sum of discounted (modified) one-step TD errors.
- assuming that every V_t does not change during episode
  - δ_t coincides with δ'_t
  - hence, (24) becomes

$$G_t - V(S_t) = \sum_{k=t}^{T-1} \gamma^{k-t} \delta_k = \sum_{k=0}^{T-t-1} \gamma^k \delta_{k+t}. \tag{25}$$

MC error - derivation

- MC error

$$
\begin{aligned}
G_t - V_t(S_t) &= R_{t+1} + \gamma G_{t+1} - V_t(S_t) \\
&= R_{t+1} + \gamma \left(G_{t+1} - V_{t+1}(S_{t+1}) + V_{t+1}(S_{t+1}) \right) - V_t(S_t) \\
&= R_{t+1} + \gamma V_{t+1}(S_{t+1}) - V_t(S_t) + \gamma \left(G_{t+1} - V_{t+1}(S_{t+1}) \right) \\
&= \delta'_t + \gamma \left(G_{t+1} - V_{t+1}(S_{t+1}) \right) \\
&= \delta'_t + \gamma \delta'_{t+1} + \gamma^2 \left(G_{t+2} - V_{t+2}(S_{t+2}) \right) \\
&= \delta'_t + \gamma \delta'_{t+1} + \gamma^2 \delta'_{t+2} + \cdots + \gamma^{T-t-2} \delta'_{T-2} + \gamma^{T-t-1} \left(G_{T-1} - V_{T-1}(S_{T-1}) \right) \\
&= \delta'_t + \gamma \delta'_{t+1} + \gamma^2 \delta'_{t+2} + \cdots + \gamma^{T-t-2} \delta'_{T-2} + \gamma^{T-t-1} \left(R_T + \gamma V_T(S_T) - V_{T-1}(S_{T-1}) \right) \\
&= \delta'_t + \gamma \delta'_{t+1} + \gamma^2 \delta'_{t+2} + \cdots + \gamma^{T-t-2} \delta'_{T-2} + \gamma^{T-t-1} \delta'_{T-1} \\
&= \sum_{k=t}^{T-1} \gamma^{k-t} \delta'_k = \sum_{k=0}^{T-t-1} \gamma^k \delta'_{k+t}
\end{aligned}
$$

where fact that state-value function for terminal state, $V_{T-1}(S_T)$, is 0 is used

Sarsa - on-policy TD Control

- (as in all on-policy methods)
  - continually estimate q_π for behavior policy π
  - (at the same time) change π toward greediness with respect to q_π
- convergence properties depend on nature of policy's dependence on Q
  - examples of policies - ϵ-greedy or ϵ-soft
- converges with probability 1 to an optimal policy & optimal action-value function as long as
  - all state–action pairs are visited infinite number of times
  - policy converges in the limit to greedy policy
- algorithm is described in Table 8

Algorithm - sarsa for estimating $Q \sim q_*$

Algorithm parameters: step size $\alpha \in (0, 1]$ and small $\epsilon > 0$

Initialize:
$Q(s, a) \in$ **R** for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$ and $a \in \mathcal{A}(s)$ except $Q(\text{terminal}, \cdot) = 0$

Loop for each episode:
Initialize S
Choose A from S using policy derived from Q ($e.g.$, ϵ-greedy)
Loop for each step of episode:
Take action A, observe R, S'
Choose A' from S' using policy derived from Q ($e.g.$, ϵ-greedy)
$Q(S, A) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha)Q(S, A) + \alpha(R + \gamma Q(S', A'))$
$S \leftarrow S'$, $A \leftarrow A'$,
until S is terminal
Until a certain criterion is satisfied

Table 8: Sarsa (on-policy TD control) for estimating $Q \sim q_*$

Q-learning - off-policy TD control

- development of off-policy TD control algorithm known as Q-learning (Watkins, 1989) - one of early breakthroughs in RL
- update defined by

$$\begin{aligned} Q(S_t, A_t) &\leftarrow Q(S_t, A_t) + \alpha \left(R_{t+1} + \gamma \max_a Q(S_{t+1}, a) - Q(S_t, A_t) \right) \\ &= (1 - \alpha) Q(S_t, A_t) + \alpha \left(R_{t+1} + \gamma \max_a Q(S_{t+1}, a) \right) \end{aligned}$$

- learned action-value function Q directly approximates optimal action-value function q_*, independent of policy being followed
  - dramatically simplifies analysis of algorithm & enabled early convergence proofs
- Q has been shown to converge with probability 1 to q_*
- algorithm described in Table 9

Algorithm - Q-learning for estimating $\pi \sim \pi_*$

Algorithm parameters: step size $\alpha \in (0, 1]$ and small $\epsilon > 0$

Initialize:
    $Q(s, a) \in \mathbf{R}$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$ and $a \in \mathcal{A}(s)$ except $Q(\text{terminal}, \cdot) = 0$

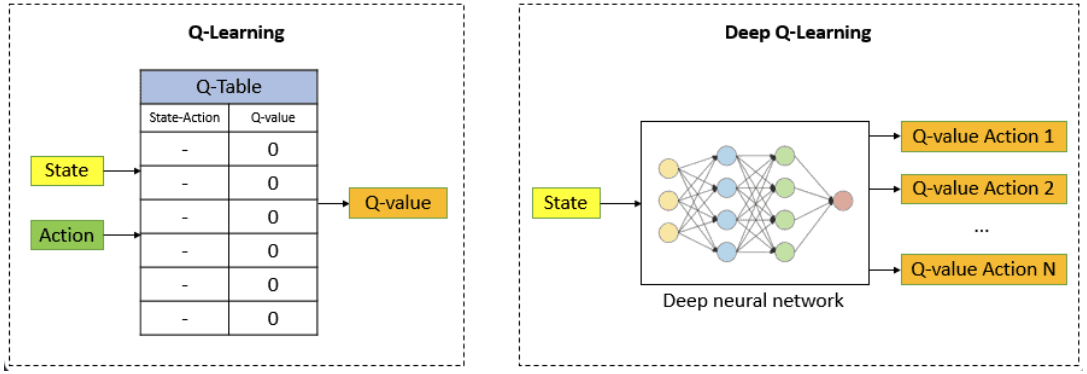
Loop for each episode:
    Initialize S
    Loop for each step of episode:
        Choose A from S using policy derived from Q ($e.g.$, ϵ-greedy)
        Take action A, observe R, S'
        $Q(S, A) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha)Q(S, A) + \alpha(R + \gamma \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}(S')} Q(S', a))$
        $S \leftarrow S'$
    until S is terminal
Until a certain criterion is satisfied

Table 9: Q-learning (off-policy TD control) for estimating $\pi \sim \pi_*$

Modern Reinforcement Learning

Deep Q-learning revolution

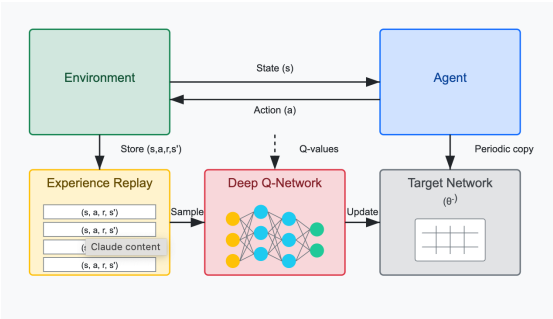
- problem with classical Q-learning
  - limited to small, discrete state spaces
  - Q-table becomes intractable for complex environments
  - cannot handle high-dimensional inputs, $e.g.$, images, continuous states
- deep Q-networks (DQN)
  - replace Q-table with deep neural network (DNN)
  - DNN approximates action-value function $Q(s, a)$
  - handle raw pixel inputs, continuous states
  - enables RL in complex environments, $e.g.$, Atari games, robotics

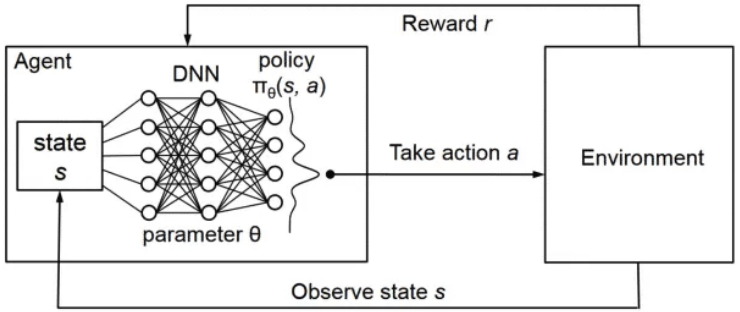


DQN architecture & key innovations

- experience replay
  - store transitions (s, a, r, s') in replay buffer & sample mini-batches for training
  - break correlation between consecutive samples to improve data efficiency and stability
- target network
  - separate target network for computing TD targets being updated periodically
  - reduce correlation between Q-values & targets to improve training stability
- DQN loss function

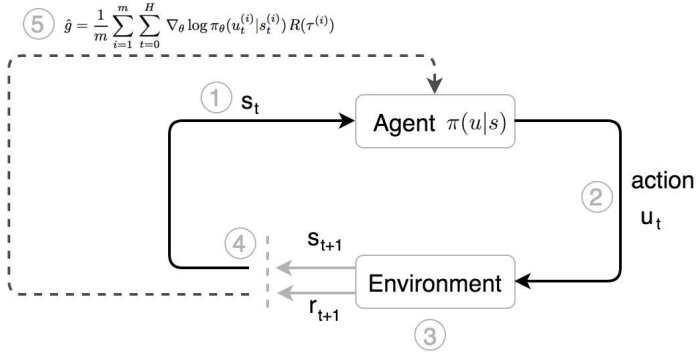
$$L(\theta) = \mathbf{E}((r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a'; \theta^-) - Q(s, a; \theta))^2$$

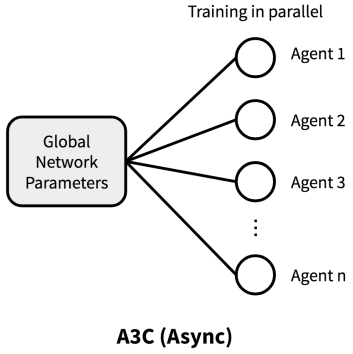


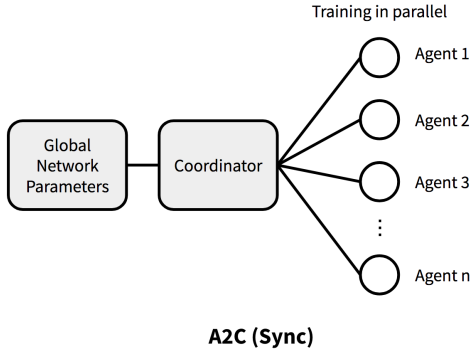


Policy gradient methods

- limitations of value-based approaches
  - indirect policy optimization
  - difficulty with continuous action spaces
  - may not find stochastic optimal policies
- policy gradient methods
  - direct policy optimization & natural handling of continuous actions
  - can learn stochastic policies & better convergence properties (in some cases)







Policy gradient algorithm

- merit cuntion - $J(\theta) = \mathbf{E}(V(S_0)|\pi_\theta) = \mathbf{E}\left(\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R_t \middle| \pi_\theta\right)$
- maximization problem formulation

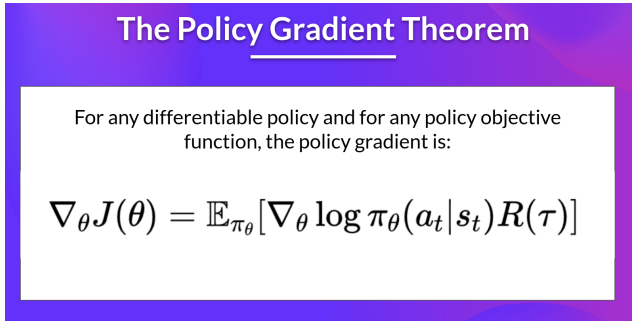
$$\begin{aligned} \text{maximize} \quad & J(\theta) \\ \text{subject to} \quad & \theta \in \Theta \end{aligned}$$

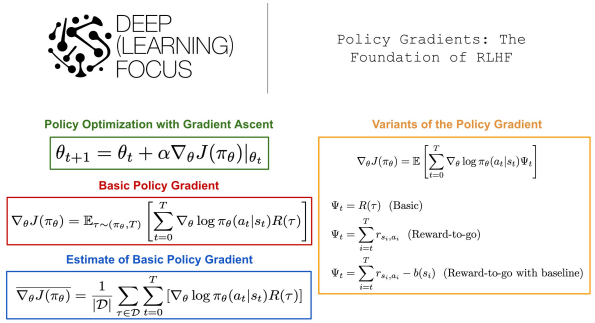
- REINFORCE algorithm

$$\theta^{k+1} = \theta^k + \alpha^k \nabla J(\theta^k)$$

where

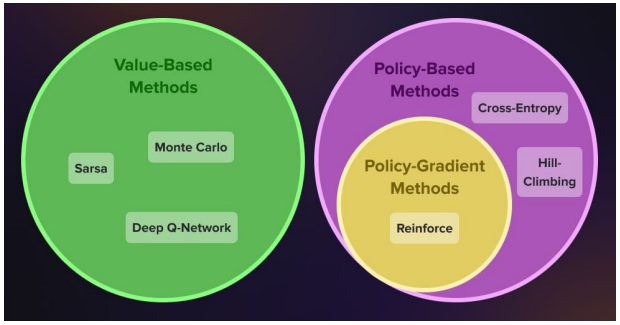
$$\nabla_\theta J(\theta) = \mathbf{E}(\nabla_\theta \log \pi(a|s;\theta) Q^\pi(s,a))$$

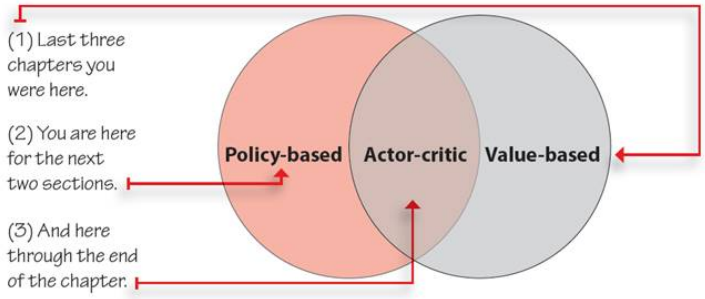




Q-learning vs policy gradients

- Q-learning
  - does *not* always work
  - usually *more sample-efficient* (when it works)
  - *challenge - exploration*
  - *no guarantee* for convergence
- policy gradients
  - *very general*, but suffers from *high variance*
  - requires *lots of samples*
  - converges to local minima of $J(\theta)$
  - *challenge - sample-efficiency*





AlphaGo & AlphaGo Zero Technologies

AlphaGo

- Go board marked with 19×19 grid - $(19 \times 19)! = 361! \approx 1.44 \times 10^{768}$
  1437923258884890654832362511499863354754907538644755876127282765299227795534389618856841908003141196
  0714137944348905859683839682333043216077138088370565578796691924861827097800358990211005794501073330
  5079262777172275041226808677528136885057526541812043502150623466302643442673632627092764643302557772
  2695595343233942204301825548143785112222186834487969871267194205609533306413935710635197200721473378
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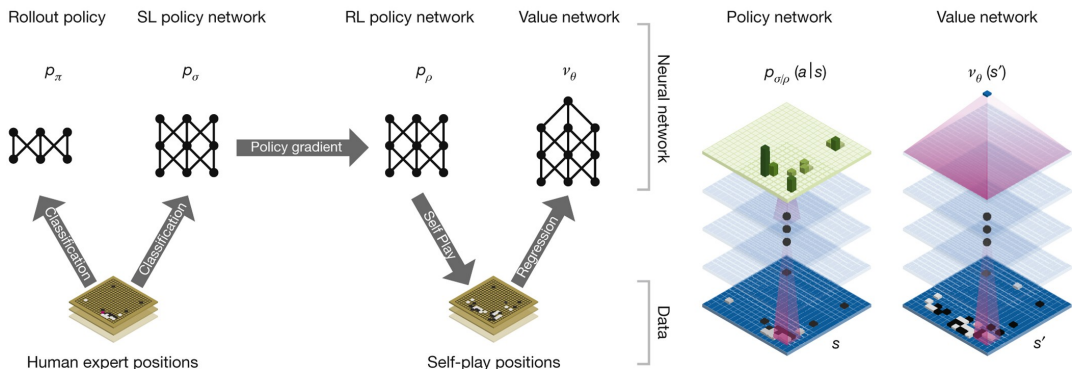
  5623101563752892899924857388316647687165212001536218913733713768261861456295440900774337589490771443
  9917299937133680728459000034496420337066440853337001284286412654394495050773954560000000000000000000
  0000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000
- deep reinforcement learning with Monte Carlo tree search
  - trained on thousands of years of Go game history
  - AlphaGo Zero learns by playing against itself
- development experience, insight, knowledge, know-how transferred to AlphaFold

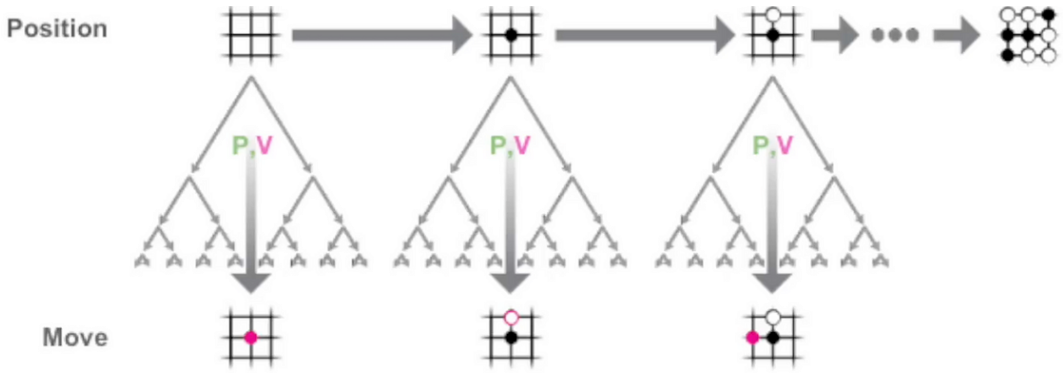
AlphaGo - hybrid approach - 2016

- components
  - policy network - predicts human expert moves
  - value network - evaluates board positions
  - Monte Carlo tree search (MCTS) - explores game tree
  - rollout policy - fast playouts for MCTS
- training process
  - supervised learning - train policy network on human games
  - RL - improve policy through self-play
  - regression - train value network on self-play positions



AlphaGo Zero - pure RL revolution - 2017

- breakthrough - no human knowledge
  - learns from scratch through self-play, no human game data or handcrafted features
  - much stronger than original AlphaGo
- simplified architecture
  - single neural network with two heads - policy head $\pi(a|s)$ & value head $v(s)$
- key innovations
  - residual NN - enable very deep networks
  - MCTS with NN - perfect integration
  - self-play curriculum - gradually increasing difficulty



Modern RL Applications & Industry Examples

Autonomous systems

- Waymo - Google
  - RL for trajectory planning and decision making
  - Simulation-based training with millions of scenarios
  - Integration with traditional planning algorithms
- Tesla Autopilot
  - RL for lane changes and complex driving scenarios
  - Real-world data collection and training

Gaming & entertainment

- OpenAI Five for playing Dota 2
  - complex multi-agent environment
  - long-term planning (45+ minute games)
- DeepMind AlphaStar for playing StarCraft II
  - league-based training, population-based methods
  - partial observability challenges
  - human-level performance

Robotics

- Boston Dynamics
  - RL for dynamic locomotion
  - sim-to-real transfer
  - robust control policies
- Covariant - warehouse automation
  - RL for robotic picking and manipulation
  - real-world deployment in warehouses
  - continuous learning from experience

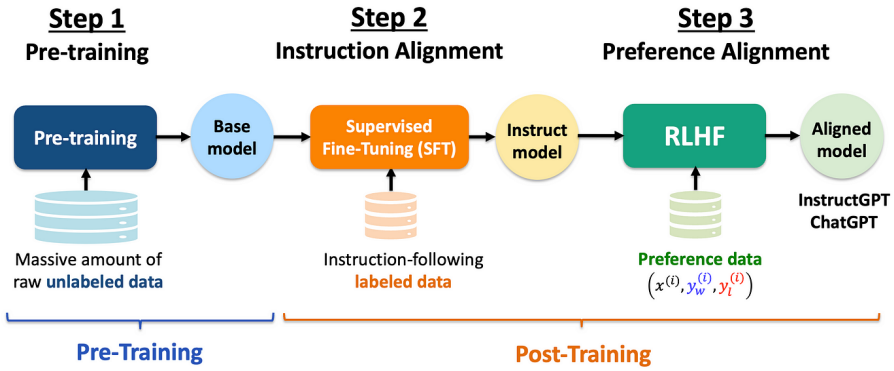
Finance & trading

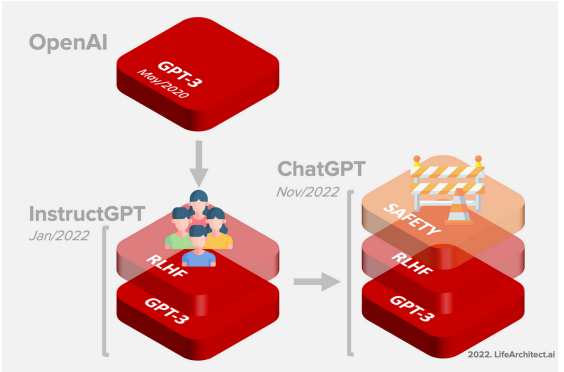
- JP Morgan Chase
  - algorithmic trading with RL
  - portfolio optimization
  - risk management
- Two Sigma, Renaissance Technologies
  - market making and execution
  - multi-agent trading environments

LLM & RL

RLHF - RL from human feedback

- ChatGPT, GPT-4 training pipelines
  - supervised fine-tuning - train on human demonstrations
  - reward model training - learn human preferences
- key components
  - reward model - predicts human preferences
  - KL penalty - prevents deviation from original model
  - constitutional AI - self-improvement through AI feedback





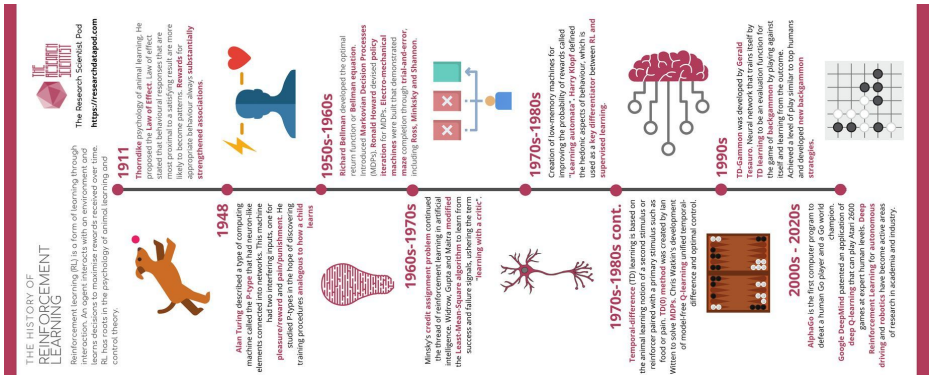
Applications in LLMs

- OpenAI - ChatGPT/GPT-4
  - RLHF for helpful, harmless, honest responses
  - massive scale PPO training
  - human preference learning
- Anthropic - Claude
  - constitutional AI methods
  - self-supervised preference learning
  - scalable oversight techniques

RL Evolution

Classical to modern RL

- key progressions
  - tabular $\rightarrow$ function approximation $\rightarrow$ DNN / model-free $\rightarrow$ model-based $\rightarrow$ hybrid
  - single agent $\rightarrow$ multi-agent $\rightarrow$ large-scale systems
- core principles *intact*
  - exploration vs exploitation trade-off / Bellman equations & Bellman optimality
  - policy improvement & evaluation / generalized policy iteration (GPI)
- modern additions
  - scale and compute power / human feedback integration
  - safety & robustness considerations / multi-modal and foundation models ($e.g.$, LLM)



Recent AI Development

Notable recent AI research and new development

- Claude 3.5 Sonnet

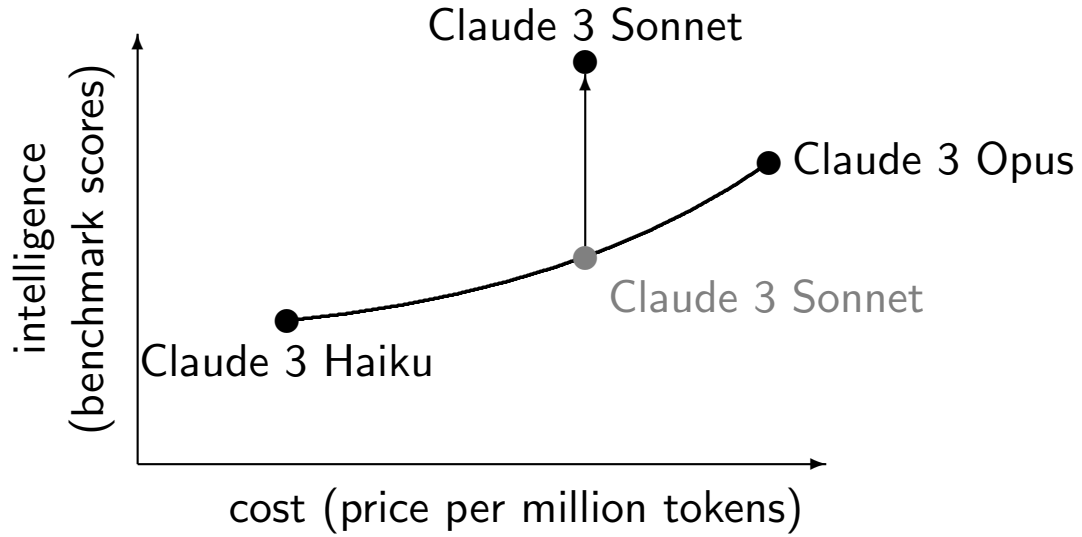
- Kolmogorov–Arnold networks (KAN)

- JEPA ($e.g.$, I-JEPA & V-JEPA) & consistency-diversity-realism trade-off

Claude 3.5 Sonnet

Claude 3.5 Sonnet

- Anthropic
  - releases Claude 3.5 Sonnet (Jul-2024)
    - when! GPT-4o accepted to be default best model for many tasks, $e.g.$, reasoning & summarization
  - claims Claude 3.5 Sonnet sets *new industry standard for intelligence*



Main features & performance

- Claude 3.5 Sonnet shows off
  - improved vision tasks, 2x speed (compared to GPT-4o), artifacts - new UIs for, $e.g.$, code generation & animation
- with GPT-4o, Claude 3.5 Sonnet
  - wins at code generation
  - on par for logical reasoning
  - loses at logical reasoning
  - *wins at generation speed*

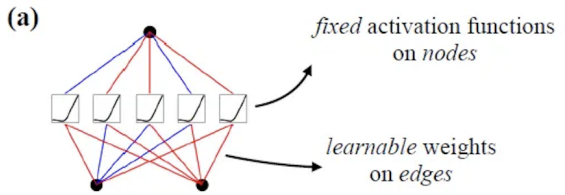
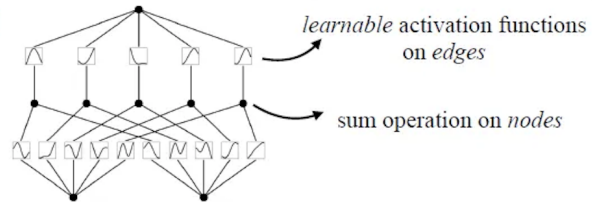
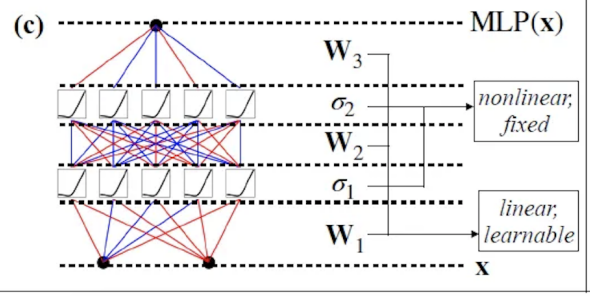
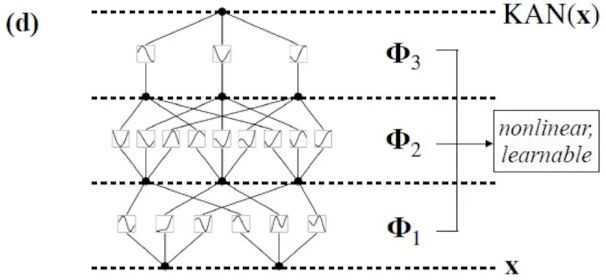
	Claude 3.5 Sonnet	Claude 3 Opus	GPT-4o	Gemini 1.5 Pro
visual math reasoning	67.7%	50.5%	63.8%	63.9%
science diagrams	94.7%	88.1%	94.2%	94.4%
visual question answering	68.3%	59.4%	69.1%	62.2%
chart Q&A	90.8%	80.8%	85.7%	87.2%
document visual Q&A	95.2%	89.3%	92.8%	93.1%

KAN

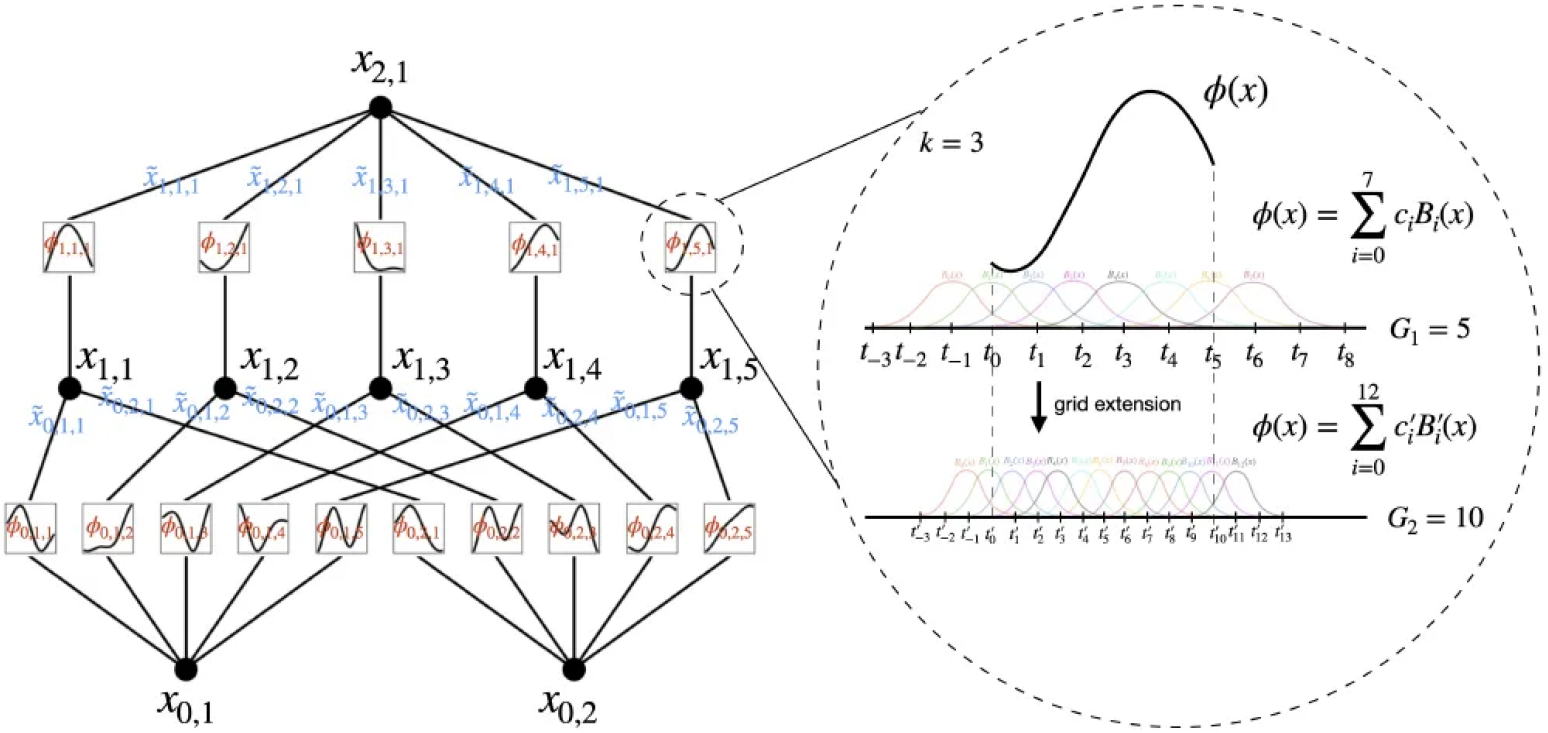
Kolmogorov–Arnold networks (KAN)

- KAN: Kolmogorov-Arnold Networks - MIT, CalTech, Northeastern Univ. & IAIFI
- techniques
  - inspired by Kolmogorov-Arnold representation theorem - every $f : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ can be written as finite composition of continuous functions of single variable, $i.e.$
    $$f(x) = \sum_{q=0}^{2n} \Phi_q \left(\sum_{p=1}^{n} \phi_{q,p}(x_p) \right)$$
    where $\phi_{q,p} : [0, 1] \to \mathbf{R}$ & $\Phi_q : \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$
  - replace (fixed) activation functions with learnable functions
  - use B-splines for learnable (uni-variate) functions - for flexibility & adaptability
- advantages
  - benefits structure of MLP on outside & splines on inside
  - reduce complexity and # parameters to achieve accurate modeling
  - *interpretable* by its nature
  - *better continual learning* - adapt to new data without forgetting thanks to local nature of spline functions

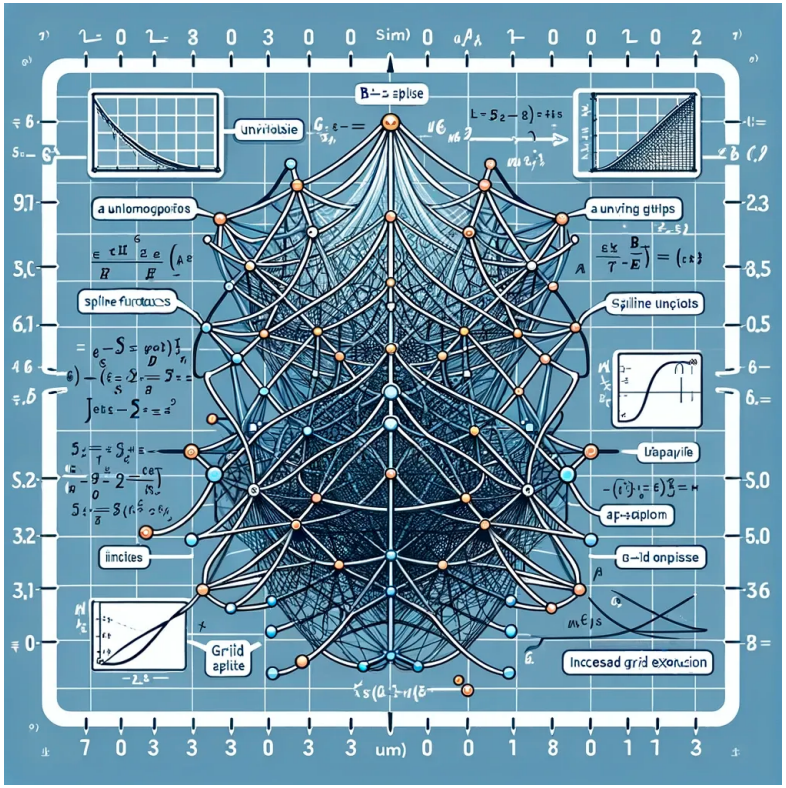
MLP vs KAN

Model	Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP)	Kolmogorov-Arnold Network (KAN)
Theorem	**Universal Approximation Theorem**	**Kolmogorov-Arnold Representation Theorem**
Formula (Shallow)	$f(\mathbf{x}) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{N(\epsilon)} a_i \sigma(\mathbf{w}_i \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_i)$	$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{q=1}^{2n+1} \Phi_q \left(\sum_{p=1}^{n} \phi_{q,p}(x_p) \right)$
Model (Shallow)		
Formula (Deep)	$\mathrm{MLP}(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{W}_3 \circ \sigma_2 \circ \mathbf{W}_2 \circ \sigma_1 \circ \mathbf{W}_1)(\mathbf{x})$	$\mathrm{KAN}(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{\Phi}_3 \circ \mathbf{\Phi}_2 \circ \mathbf{\Phi}_1)(\mathbf{x})$
Model (Deep)		

KAN architecture with spline parametrization unit layer



Future work on KAN



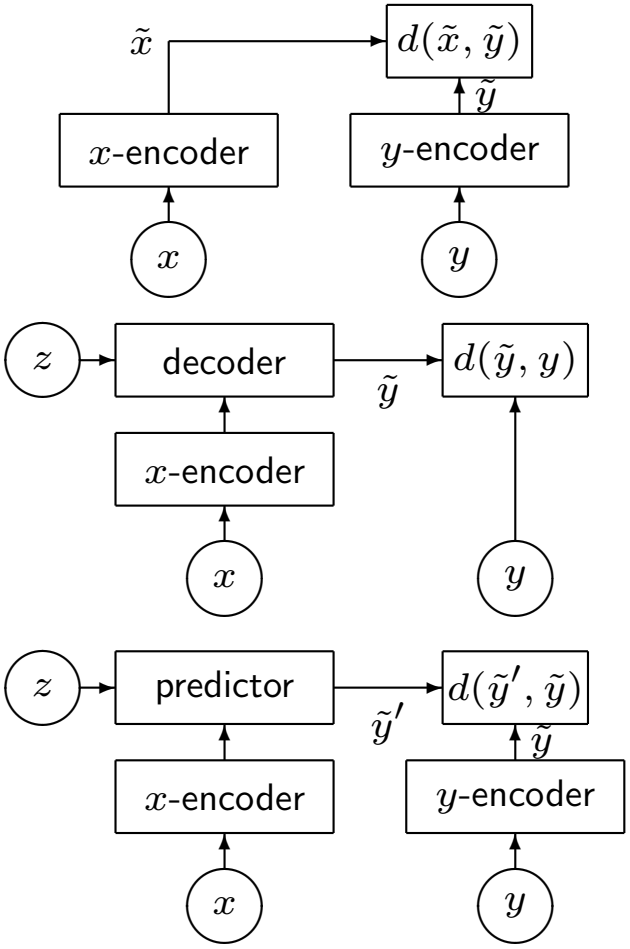
- natural question is
  - what if use both MLP and KAN?
  - what if use other types of splines?
  - how to control forgetfulness of continual learning?
  - why functions of one varible? possible to use functions of two variables?

(figure created by DALLE-3)

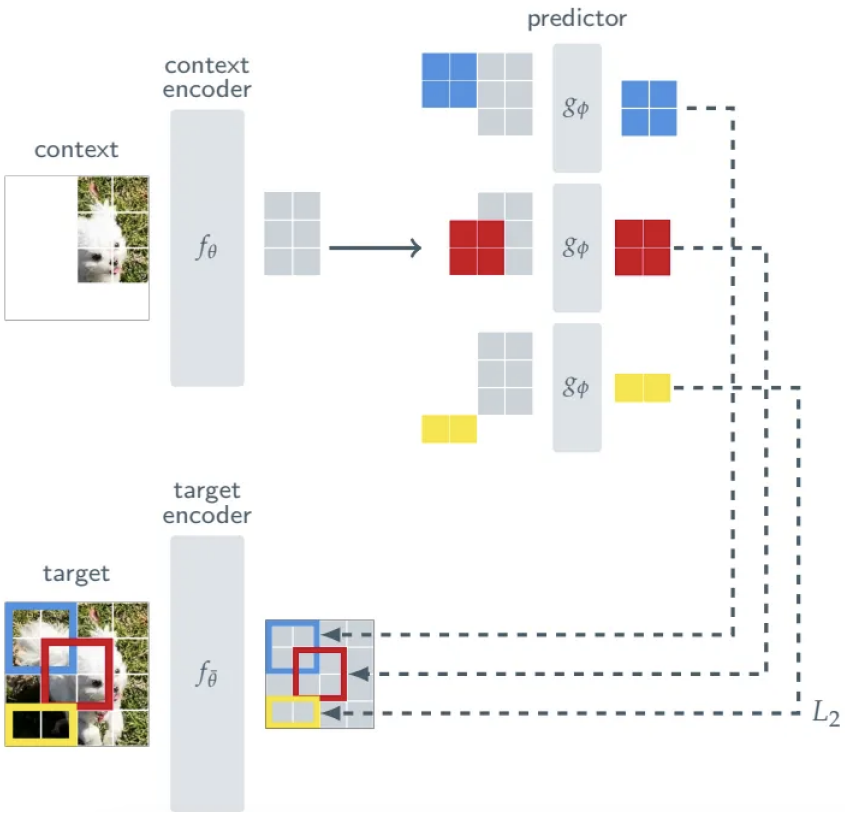
JEPA

Joint-Embedding Predictive Architecture (JEPA)

- Self-Supervised Learning from Images with a Joint-Embedding Predictive Architecture (JEPA) - Yann LeCun et al. - Jan-2023
  - joint-embedding architecture (JEA)
    - output similar embeddings for compatible inputs x, y and dissimilar embeddings for incompatible inputs
  - generative architecture
    - directly reconstruct signal y from compatible signal x using decoder network conditioned on additional variables z *to facilitate reconstruction*
  - joint-embedding predictive architecture (JEPA)
    - similar to generative architecture, but comparison is done in embedding space
    - *e.g.*, I-JEPA learns y (masked portion) from x (unmasked portion) conditioned on z (position of mask)



Learning semantic representation better

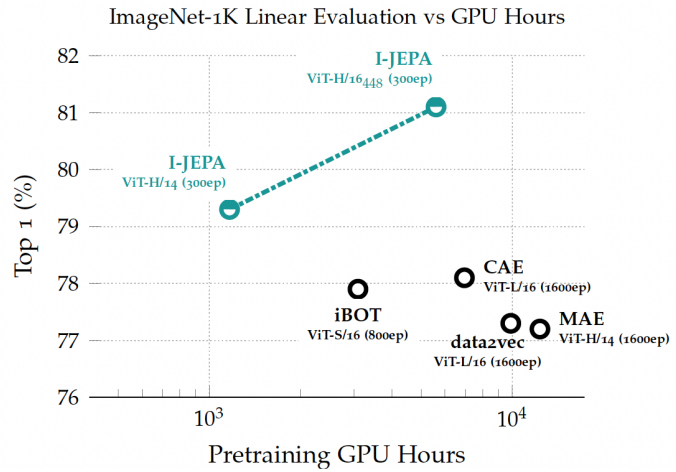


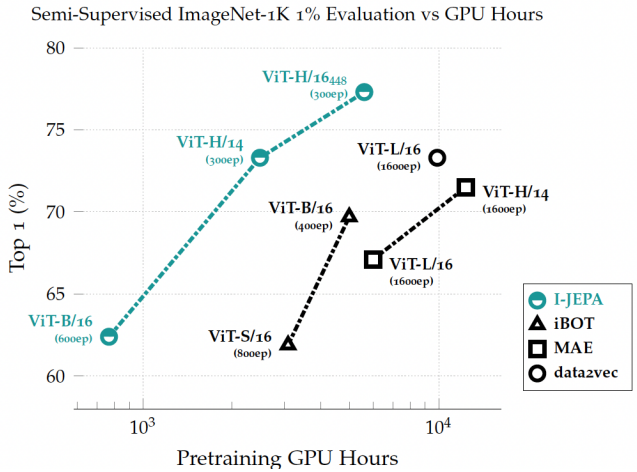
- I-JEPA
  - predicts missing information in *abstract representation space*
    - $e.g.$, given single context block (unmasked part of the image), predict representations of various target blocks (masked regions of same image) where target representations computed by learned target-encoder
  - *generates semantic representations* (not pixel-wise information) potentially eliminating unnecessary pixel-level details & allowing model to concentrate on learning more semantic features

I-JEPA outperforms other algorithms

Method	Arch.	CIFAR100	Places205	iNat18
Methods without view data augmentations				
data2vec [8]	ViT-L/16	81.6	54.6	28.1
MAE [36]	ViT-H/14	77.3	55.0	32.9
I-JEPA	ViT-H/14	**87.5**	**58.4**	**47.6**
Methods using extra view data augmentations				
DINO [18]	ViT-B/8	84.9	57.9	55.9
iBOT [79]	ViT-L/16	**88.3**	**60.4**	**57.3**

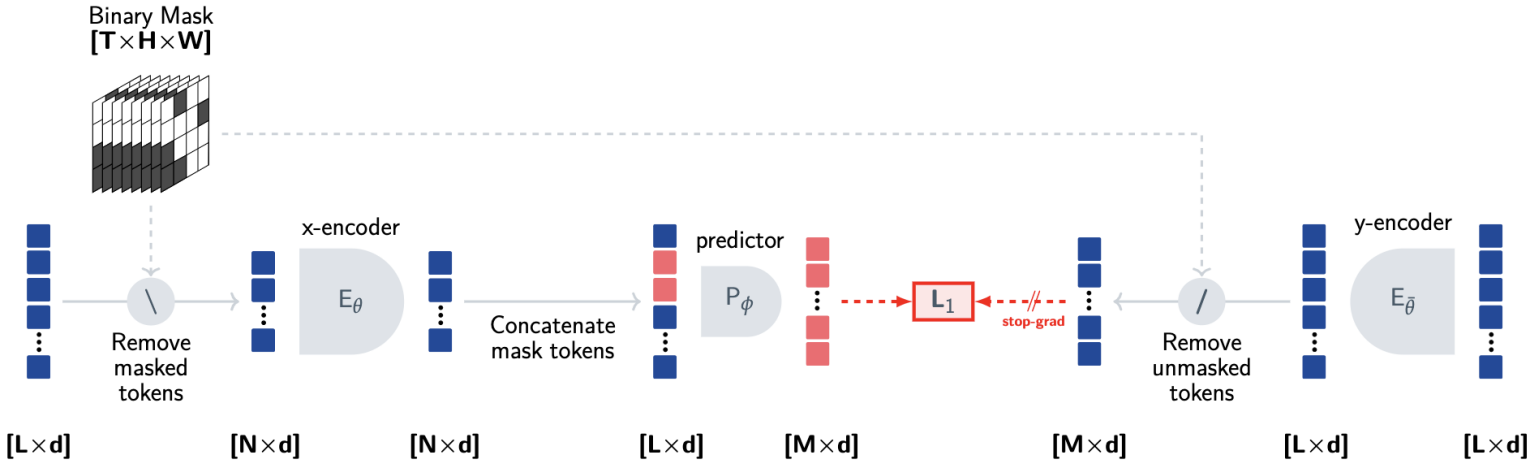
Method	Arch.	Clevr/Count	Clevr/Dist
Methods without view data augmentations			
data2vec [8]	ViT-L/16	85.3	71.3
MAE [36]	ViT-H/14	**90.5**	**72.4**
I-JEPA	ViT-H/14	86.7	**72.4**
Methods using extra data augmentations			
DINO [18]	ViT-B/8	86.6	53.4
iBOT [79]	ViT-L/16	85.7	62.8





V-JEPA

- Revisiting Feature Prediction for Learning Visual Representations from Video - Yann LeCun et al. - Feb-2024
  - essentially same ideas of JEPA - loss function is calculated in embedding space - for better semantic representation learning (rather than pixel-wise learning)



More realistic generative model becomes, less diverse it becomes

- Consistency-diversity-realism Pareto fronts of conditional image generative models - FAIR at Meta - Montreal, Paris & New York City labs, McGill University, Mila, Quebec AI institute, Canada CIFAR AI - Jun-2024

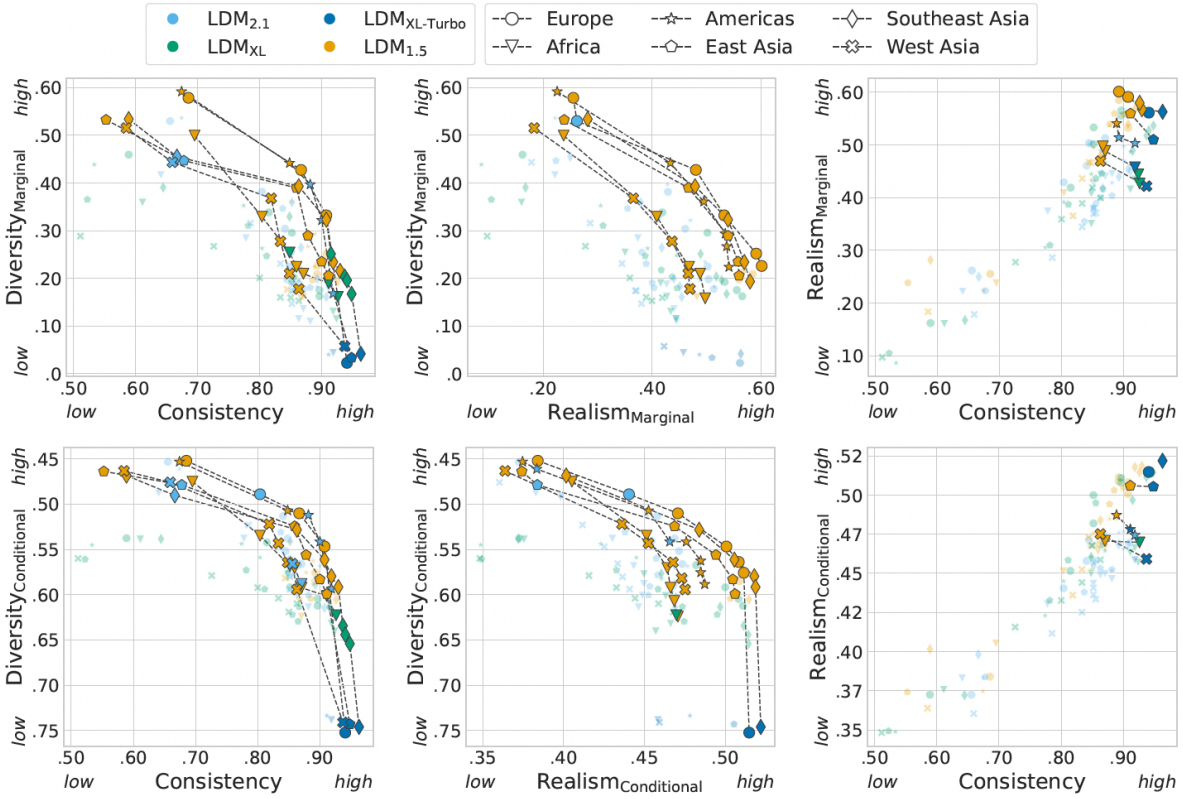
- realism comes at the cost of coverage, $i.e.$, *the most realistic systems are mode-collapsed!*

- intuition (or hunch)

  – world models should *not* be generative - should make predictions in representation space - in representation space, unpredictable or irrelevant information is absent

$\rightarrow$ main argument in favor of JEPA

Consistency-diversity-realism trade-off



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