- Homework 3, due Friday, February 25,

Lecture 18: Kernels (continued)

$$f = h^T x_{new} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i \cdot x_i^T x_{new} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i \cdot K(x_i, x_{new})$$
 RBR

Recap: Kernel trick finds the optimal solution for linear models under a feature map $\phi(\,\cdot\,)$

• Once we have chosen a feature map $\phi(\cdot) \in \mathbb{R}^p$, what we want to solve is

$$\widehat{w} = \arg\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathscr{C}(y_i, w^T \phi(x_i)) \text{ for some convex loss } \mathscr{C}(,)$$

- Kernel trick finds the optimal solution efficiently, by searching over the model that can be represented as $\widehat{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \phi(x_i)$, which is equivalent to $\widehat{y}_{\text{new}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i K(x_i, x_{\text{new}})$ Gradient descent update (from initialization $w^{(0)} = 0$) that find the optimal solution is

$$w^{(t+1)} \leftarrow w^{(t)} - \eta \sum_{i=1}^{n} \underbrace{\ell'(y_i, w^T \phi(x_i))}_{\text{scalar}} \phi(x_i)$$

- One crucial observation is that all $w^{(t)}$'s (including the optimal solution $w^{(\infty)}$) lie on the subspace spanned by $\{\phi(x_1), ..., \phi(x_n)\}$, which is an n-dimensional subspace in \mathbb{R}^p
- Hence, it is sufficient to look for a solution that is represented as

$$\widehat{w} = \sum \alpha_i \phi(x_i)$$
 to find the optimal solution

Fixed Feature V.S. Learned Feature

- Kernel method works well if we choose a good kernel such that the data is linearly separable in the corresponding (possibly infinite dimensional) feature space
- In practice, it is hard to choose a good kernel for a given problem
- Can we **learn** the feature mapping $\phi: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^p$ from data also?

Bootstrap

- How to measure uncertainty in our predictions

Confidence interval

- suppose you have training data $\{(x_i,y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ drawn i.i.d. from some true distribution $P_{x,y}$
- we train a kernel ridge regressor, with some choice of a kernel

Why?

$$K: \mathbb{R}^{d \times d} \to \mathbb{R}$$

minmize_{\alpha} $\|\mathbf{K}\alpha - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \lambda \alpha^T \mathbf{K}\alpha$

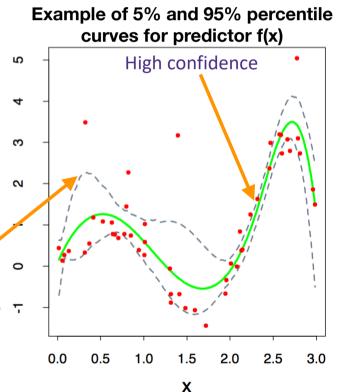
the resulting predictor is

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} K(x_i, x) \hat{\alpha}_i,$$
ere

where

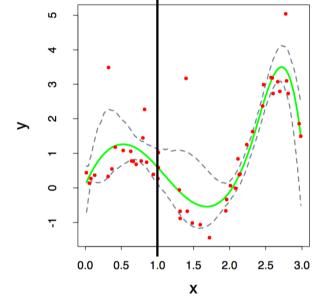
$$\hat{\alpha} = (\mathbf{K} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

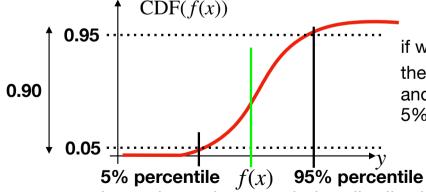
• we wish to build a confidence interval for our predictor f(x), using 5% and 95% percentiles Low confidence



Confidence interval

- let's focus on a single $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- note that our predictor f(x) is a random variable, whose randomness comes from the training data $S_{\text{train}} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$
- if we know the statistics (in particular the CDF of the random variable f(x)) of the predictor, then the **confidence interval** with **confidence level 90%** is defined as





if we know the distribution of our predictor f(x), the green line is the expectation $\mathbb{E}[f(x)]$ and the black dashed lines are the 5% and 95% percentiles in the figure above

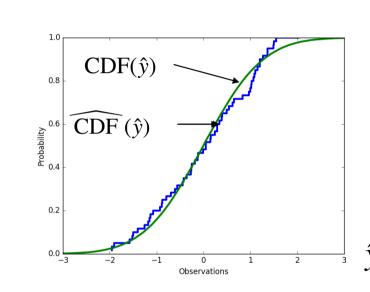
• as we do not have the cumulative distribution function (CDF), we need to approximate them

Confidence interval

- hypothetically, if we can sample as many times as we want, then we can train $B \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ i.i.d. predictors, each trained on n fresh samples to get empirical estimate of the CDF of $\hat{y} = f(x)$
- for b=1,...,B
 - draw n fresh samples $\{(x_i^{(b)}, y_i^{(b)})\}_{i=1}^n$
 - train a regularized kernel regression $\alpha^{*(b)}$
 - Predict $\hat{y}^{(b)} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} K(x_i^{(b)}, x) \alpha_i^{*(b)}$
- let the empirical CDF of those B predictors $\{\hat{y}^{(b)}\}_{b=1}^{B}$ be $\widehat{\text{CDF}}(\hat{y})$, defined as

$$\widehat{\text{CDF}}(\hat{y}) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \mathbf{I} \{ \hat{y}^{(b)} \le \hat{y} \} = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \mathbf{I} \{ (\alpha^{*(b)})^T h(x) \le \hat{y} \}$$

- compute the confidence interval using $\widehat{\mathrm{CDF}}(\hat{y})$
- What is wrong?



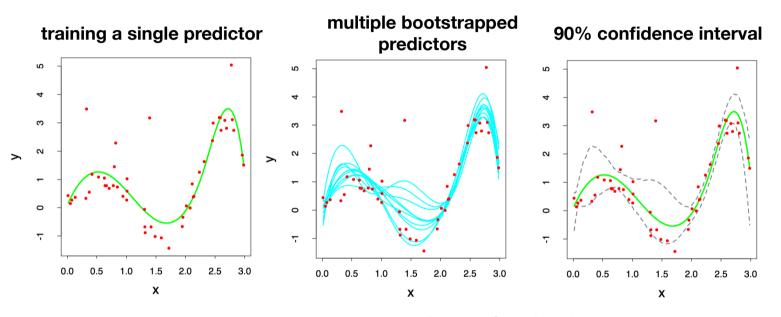
Bootstrap

- as we cannot sample repeatedly (in typical cases), we use bootstrap samples instead
- bootstrap is a general tool for assessing statistical accuracy
- we learn it in the context of confidence interval for trained models
- a **bootstrap dataset** is created from the training dataset by taking n (the same size as the training data) examples uniformly at random with replacement from the training data $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$
- for b=1,...,B
 - create a bootstrap dataset $S_{
 m bootstrap}^{(b)}$
 - train a regularized kernel regression $\alpha^{*(b)}$

• predict
$$\hat{y}^{(b)} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} K(x_i^{(b)}, x) \alpha_i^{*(b)}$$

 compute the empirical CDF from the bootstrap datasets, and compute the confidence interval

bootstrap



Figures from Hastie et al

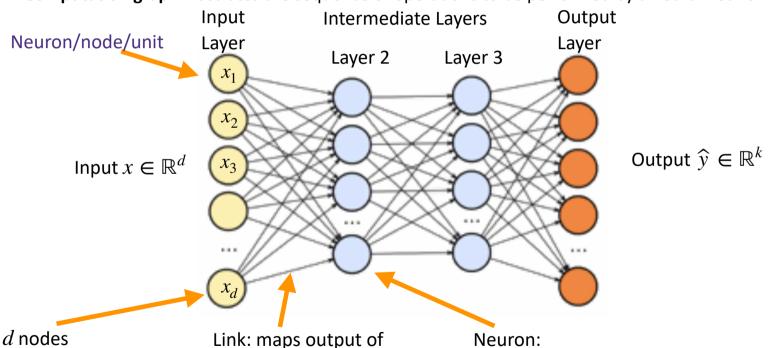
Questions?

- Origins: Algorithms that try to mimic the brain.
- Widely used in 80s and early 90s; popularity diminished in late 90s.
- Recent resurgence from 2010s: state-of-the-art techniques for many applications:
 - Computer Vision (AlexNet 2012)
 - Natural language processing
 - Speech recognition
 - Decision-making / control problems (AlphaGo, Games, robots)
- Limited theory:
 - Why do we find good minima with SGD for Non-convex loss?
 - Why do we not overfit when # of parameters *p* is much larger than # of samples *n*?

Agenda:

- 1. Definitions of neural networks
- 2. Training neural networks:
 - 1. Algorithm: back propagation
 - 2. Putting it to work
- 3. Neural network architecture design:
 - 1. Convolutional neural network

- Neural Network is a parametric family of functions from $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ to $\hat{y} = h_\theta(x) \in \mathbb{R}^k$ with parameter $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^p$
- Computation graph illustrates the sequence of operations to be performed by a neural network



each representing a scalar value of

each coordinate of x

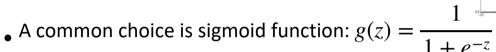
a neuron to input of a neuron of the next layer, each link has a scalar weight

- 1. Input: weighted sum of previous layer
- 2. Apply scalar activation function
- 3. Output: links to the next layer

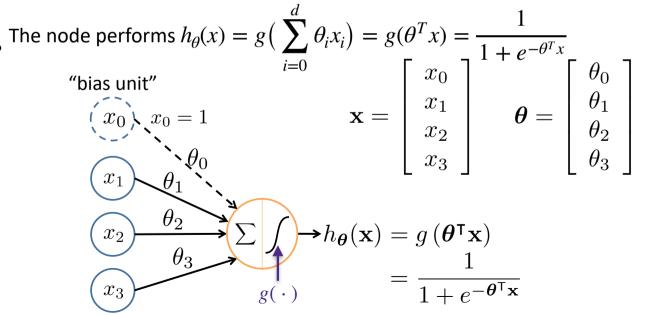
Sequence of operations performed at a single node

R(z) = max(0, z)

- For a single node with input $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, the node is defined by $\frac{1}{\omega \sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1+\epsilon}}$
 - Parameter $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ (including the intercept/bias)
 - Activation function $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$

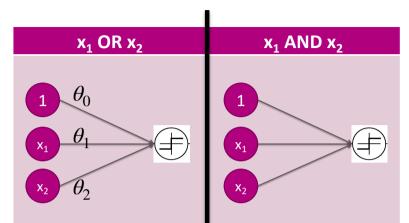


- Another popular choice is Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU): $g(z) = \max\{0,z\}$



Toy example: What can be represented by a single node with g(z) = sign(z)?

- x[1] x[2] y



- x[1] x[2] y

What should be the weights?

$$f_{\theta}(x) = \operatorname{sign}(\theta_0 + \theta_1 x[1] + \theta_2 x[2])$$

$$\theta_{\delta} = -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$\theta_{(=\theta_2 = 1)}$$

$$f_{\theta}(x) = \operatorname{sign}(\theta_0 + \theta_1 x[1] + \theta_2 x[2])$$

Note that there is a one-to-one correspondence between a linear classifier and a neural network with a single node of the above form

What cannot be learned?

Neural Network composes simple functions to make complex functions

• Each layer performs simple operations

Layer 1

• Neural Network (with parameter $\theta = (\theta^{(1)}, \theta^{(2)})$) composes multiple layers of operations

Layer 1 has parameter
$$\theta^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{3\times 4}$$
 $a_1^{(2)} = g\Big(\sum_{i=0}^3 \theta_{1i}^{(1)} x_i\Big)$ bias units $(x_0) \theta_{10}^{(1)}$ $a_0^{(2)}$ Layer 2 has parameter $\theta^{(2)} \in \mathbb{R}^4$
$$x_1 \theta_{11}^{(1)}$$

$$a_2^{(2)}$$

$$\theta_2^{(2)}$$

$$\theta_3^{(2)}$$

$$h_{\theta}(x) = g\Big(\sum_{i=0}^3 \theta_i^{(2)} a_i^{(2)}\Big)$$

$$a_3^{(2)}$$

Layer 2

(Input Layer) (Hidden Layer) (Output Layer) a 2-layer Neural Network

Layer 3

This is called

$$\begin{array}{c}
x_0 \\
\Theta(1) \\
a_0^{(2)} \\
a_1^{(2)}
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
a_1^{(3)} \\
a_1^{(3)}
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \\
a_3^{(2)}
\end{array}$$

 $a_i^{(j)}$ = "activation" of unit i in layer j $\Theta^{(j)}$ = weight matrix stores parameters from layer i to layer i + 1

$$a_{1}^{(2)} = g(\Theta_{10}^{(1)}x_{0} + \Theta_{11}^{(1)}x_{1} + \Theta_{12}^{(1)}x_{2} + \Theta_{13}^{(1)}x_{3})$$

$$a_{2}^{(2)} = g(\Theta_{20}^{(1)}x_{0} + \Theta_{21}^{(1)}x_{1} + \Theta_{22}^{(1)}x_{2} + \Theta_{23}^{(1)}x_{3})$$

$$a_{3}^{(2)} = g(\Theta_{30}^{(1)}x_{0} + \Theta_{31}^{(1)}x_{1} + \Theta_{32}^{(1)}x_{2} + \Theta_{33}^{(1)}x_{3})$$

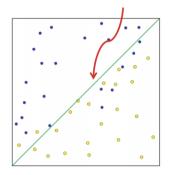
$$h_{\Theta}(x) = a_{1}^{(3)} = g(\Theta_{10}^{(2)}a_{0}^{(2)} + \Theta_{11}^{(2)}a_{1}^{(2)} + \Theta_{12}^{(2)}a_{2}^{(2)} + \Theta_{13}^{(2)}a_{3}^{(2)})$$

If network has s_j units in layer j and s_{j+1} units in layer j+1, then $\Theta^{(j)}$ has dimension $s_{j+1} \times (s_j+1)$.

$$\Theta^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 4} \qquad \Theta^{(2)} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 4}$$

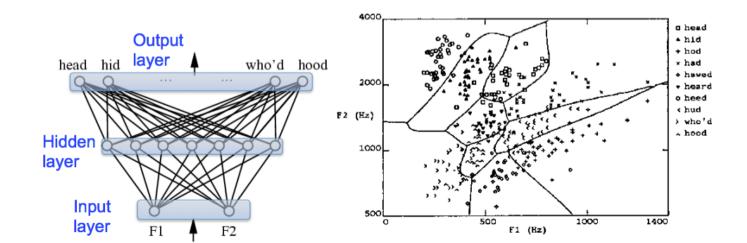
Example of 2-layer neural network in action Linear decision boundary

1-layer neural networks only represents linear classifiers



Example: 2-layer neural network trained to distinguish vowel sounds using 2 formants (features)

a highly non-linear decision boundary can be learned from 2-layer neural networks



Neural Networks are arbitrary function approximators

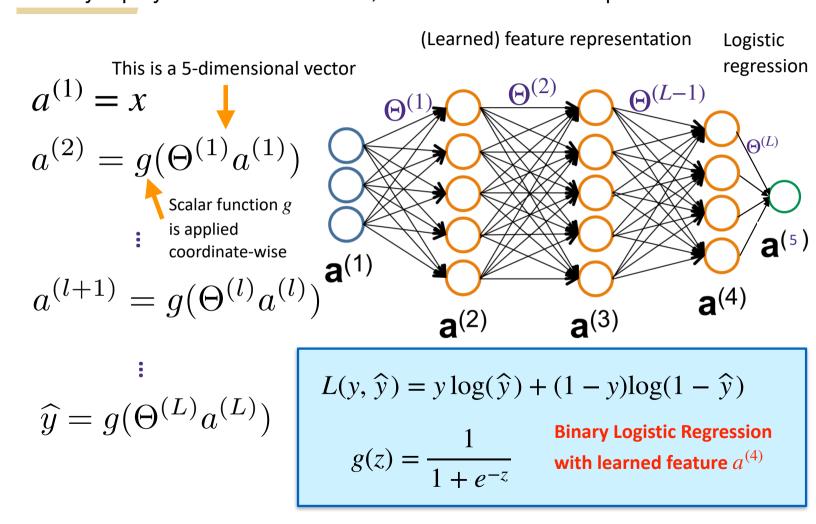
Theorem 10 (Two-Layer Networks are Universal Function Approximators). Let F be a continuous function on a bounded subset of D-dimensional space. Then there exists a two-layer neural network \hat{F} with a finite number of hidden units that approximate F arbitrarily well. Namely, for all x in the domain of F, $|F(x) - \hat{F}(x)| < \epsilon$.

Cybenko, Hornik (theorem reproduced from CIML, Ch. 10)

But Deep Neural Networks have many powerful properties not yet understood theoretically.

Multi-layer Neural Network - Binary Classification in $\{0,1\}$

L-th layer plays the role of features, but trained instead of pre-determined



Multi-layer Neural Network - Binary Classification

$$a^{(1)} = x$$

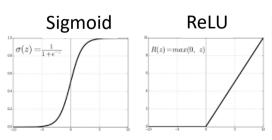
$$a^{(2)} = \sigma(\Theta^{(1)}a^{(1)})$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a^{(l+1)} = \sigma(\Theta^{(l)}a^{(l)})$$

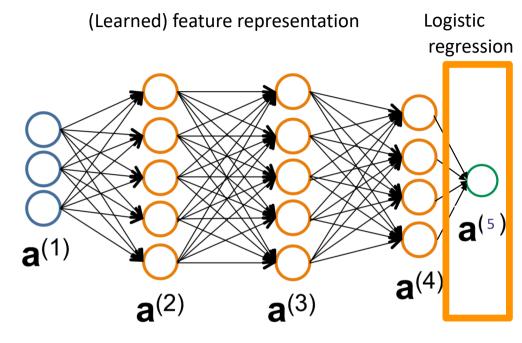
$$\vdots$$

$$\widehat{y} = g(\Theta^{(L)}a^{(L)})$$



ReLU

• Why is ReLU better than sigmoid?

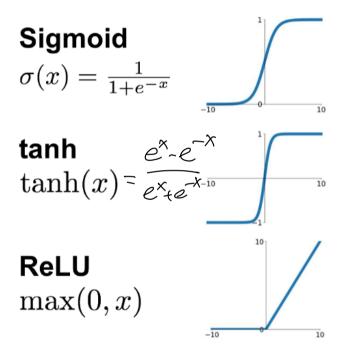


$$L(y, \widehat{y}) = y \log(\widehat{y}) + (1 - y) \log(1 - \widehat{y})$$

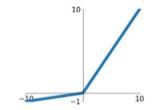
$$\sigma(z) = \max\{0, z\} \qquad g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \frac{\text{Binary}}{\text{Logistic}}$$
Regression

Nonlinear activation function

popular choices of activation function includes



Leaky ReLU
$$max(0.1x, x)$$



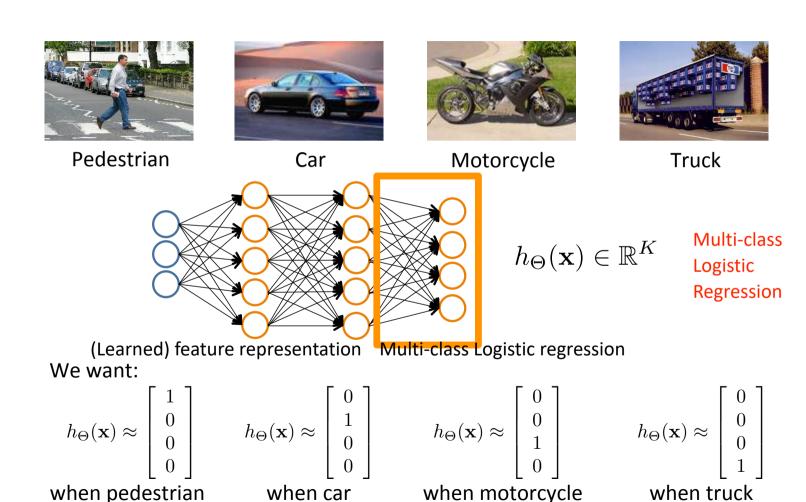
Maxout

$$\max(w_1^T x + b_1, w_2^T x + b_2)$$

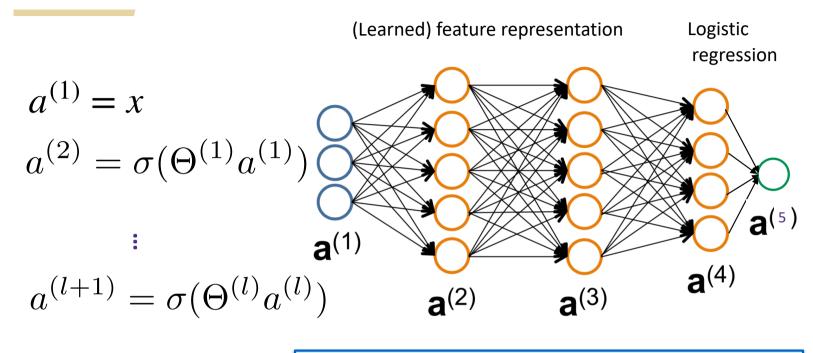
ELU
$$\begin{cases} x & x \ge 0 \\ \alpha(e^x - 1) & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

- Why is ReLU better than Sigmoid?
- Why is ELU better than ReLU?

K-class Classification: multiple output units



Multi-layer Neural Network - Regression



$$\widehat{y} = \Theta^{(L)} a^{(L)}$$

$$L(y, \widehat{y}) = (y - \widehat{y})^2$$
$$\sigma(z) = \max\{0, z\}$$

Regression

Questions?