

Bootstrap



Limitations of CV

- An 80/20 split throws out a relatively large amount of data if only have, say, 20 examples.
- Test error is informative, but how accurate is this number? (e.g., 3/5 heads vs. 30/50)
- How do I get confidence intervals on statistics like the median or variance of a distribution?
- Instead of the error for the entire dataset, what if I want to study the error for a *particular example* x ?

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The Bootstrap: Developed by Efron in 1979.

Bootstrap: basic idea

Given dataset drawn iid samples with CDF F_Z :

$$\mathcal{D} = \{z_1, \dots, z_n\} \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} F_Z$$

We compute a *statistic* of the data to get: $\hat{\theta} = t(\mathcal{D})$

Bootstrap: basic idea

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$$z_i \in \mathbb{R} \quad \mathcal{D} = \{z_1, \dots, z_n\} \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} F_Z$$

We compute a *statistic* of the data to get: $\hat{\theta} = t(\mathcal{D})$

For $b=1, \dots, B$ define the b th **bootstrapped** dataset as drawing n samples **with replacement** from D

$$\mathcal{D}^{*b} = \{z_1^{*b}, \dots, z_n^{*b}\} \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \hat{F}_{Z,n}$$

and the b th bootstrapped statistic as: $\theta^{*b} = t(\mathcal{D}^{*b})$

Bootstrap: basic idea

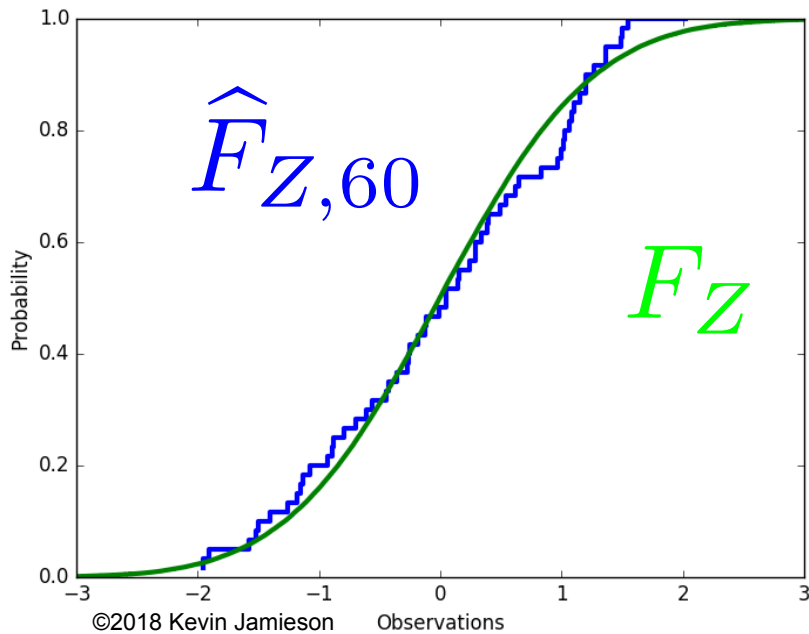
$$E \left[(\hat{F}_n(t) - F(t))^2 \right] = \frac{F(t)(1-F(t))}{n}$$

Given dataset drawn iid samples with CDF $F_Z(t) = P(Z \leq t)$

$$\mathcal{D} = \{z_1, \dots, z_n\} \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} F_Z \quad \hat{\theta} = t(\mathcal{D})$$

For $b=1, \dots, B$, samples sampled **with replacement** from \mathcal{D}

$$\mathcal{D}^{*b} = \{z_1^{*b}, \dots, z_n^{*b}\} \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \hat{F}_{Z,n} \quad \theta^{*b} = t(\mathcal{D}^{*b})$$



$$\hat{F}_{Z,n}(t) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}\{z_i \leq t\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E[\hat{F}_{Z,n}(t)] &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E[\mathbb{1}\{z_i \leq t\}] \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i \leq t) \\ &= F_Z(t) \end{aligned}$$

Bootstrap: basic idea

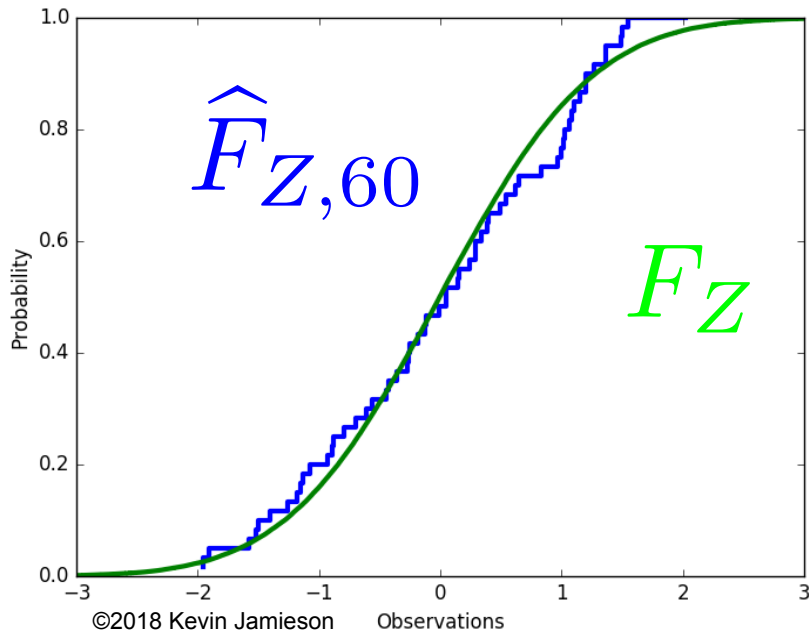
Given dataset drawn iid samples with CDF F_Z :

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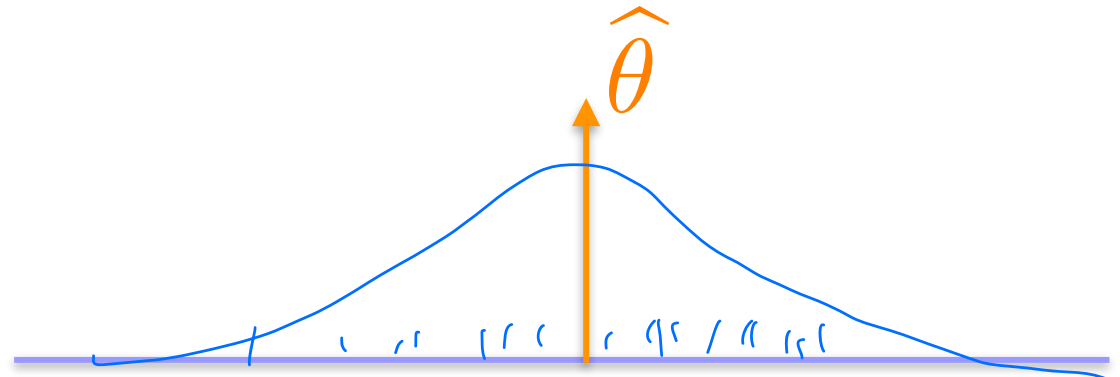
Ex. median of $\{z_i\}_{i=1}^n$
↓

For $b=1, \dots, B$, samples sampled **with replacement** from \mathcal{D}

$$\mathcal{D}^{*b} = \{z_1^{*b}, \dots, z_n^{*b}\} \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \hat{F}_{Z,n} \quad \theta^{*b} = t(\mathcal{D}^{*b})$$



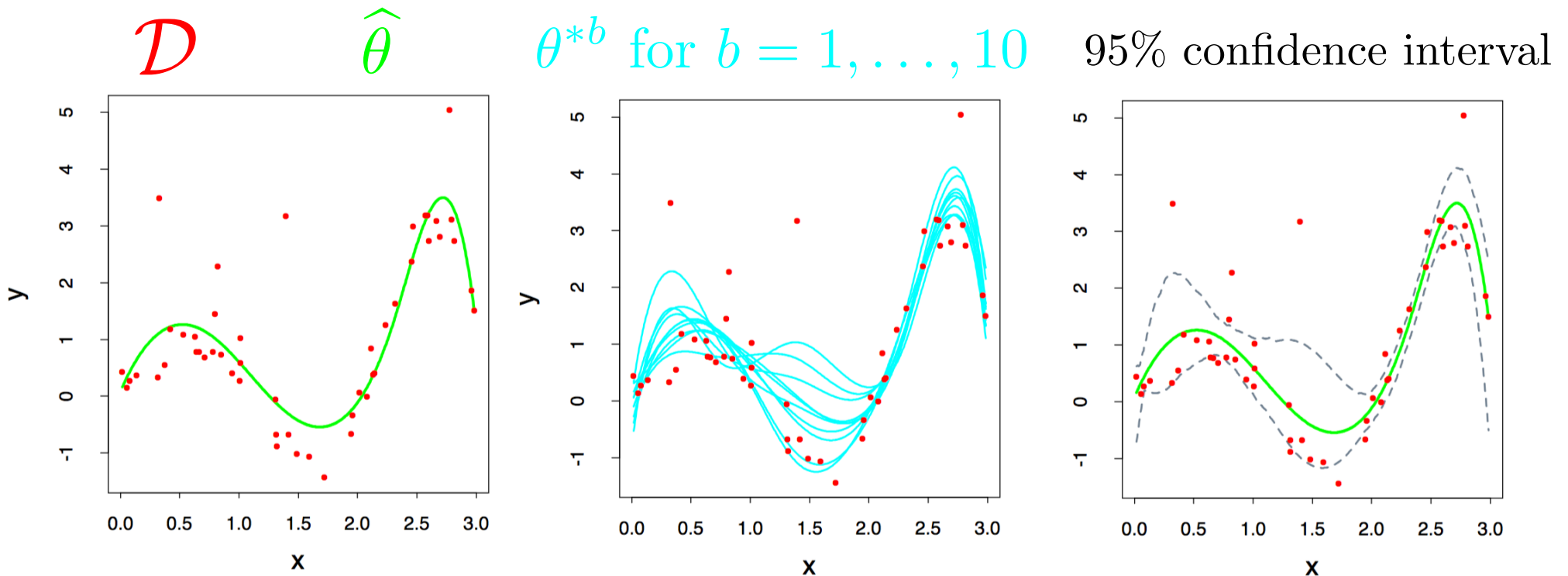
$$\sup_x |\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$



Applications

Common applications of the bootstrap:

- Estimate parameters that escape simple analysis like the variance or median of an estimate
- Confidence intervals
- Estimates of error for a particular example:



Figures from Hastie et al

Takeaways

Advantages:

- Bootstrap is **very** generally applicable. Build a confidence interval around ***anything***
- **Very** simple to use
- Appears to give meaningful results even when the amount of data is very small
- Very strong **asymptotic theory** (as num. examples goes to infinity)

Takeaways

Advantages:

- Bootstrap is **very** generally applicable. Build a confidence interval around **anything**
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- Appears to give meaningful results even when the amount of data is very small
- Very strong **asymptotic theory** (as num. examples goes to infinity)

Disadvantages

- Very few meaningful finite-sample guarantees
- Potentially **computationally intensive**
- Reliability relies on test statistic and rate of convergence of empirical CDF to true CDF, which is unknown
- Poor performance on “extreme statistics” (e.g., the max)

Not perfect, but better than nothing.

Warm up: risk prediction with logistic regression

- Boss gives you a bunch of data on loans defaulting or not:

$$\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n \quad x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, \quad y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$$

- You model the data as:

$$P(Y = y|x, w) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-y w^T x)}$$

- And compute the maximum likelihood estimator:

$$\hat{w}_{MLE} = \arg \max_w \prod_{i=1}^n P(y_i|x_i, w)$$

For a new loan application x , boss recommends to give loan if your model says they will repay it with probability at least .95 (i.e. low risk):

$$\text{Give loan to } x \text{ if } \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\hat{w}_{MLE}^T x)} \geq .95$$

- One year later only half of loans are paid back and the bank folds. What might have happened?

How would you use the bootstrap to do this differently?

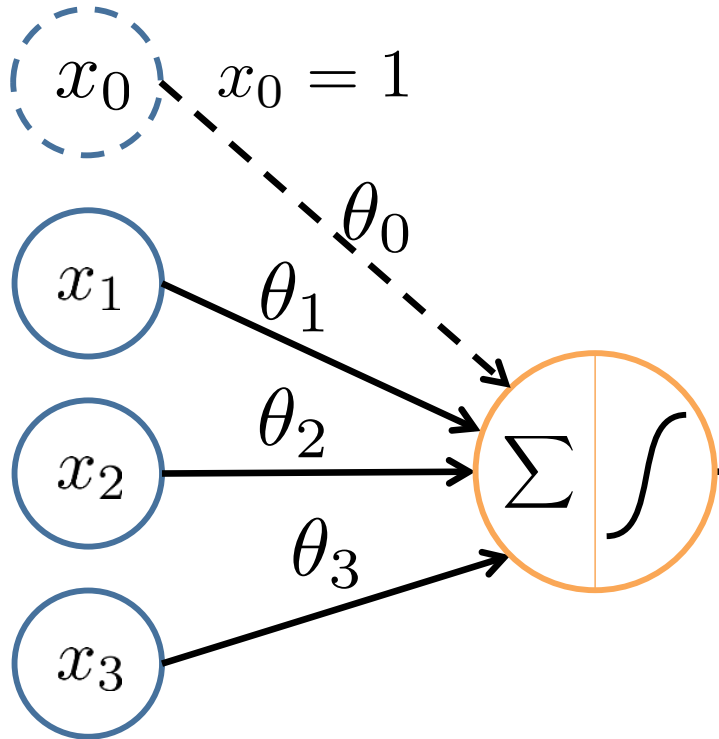
Questions?

Neural Networks



Single Node

“bias unit”



$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \boldsymbol{\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_0 \\ \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \\ \theta_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

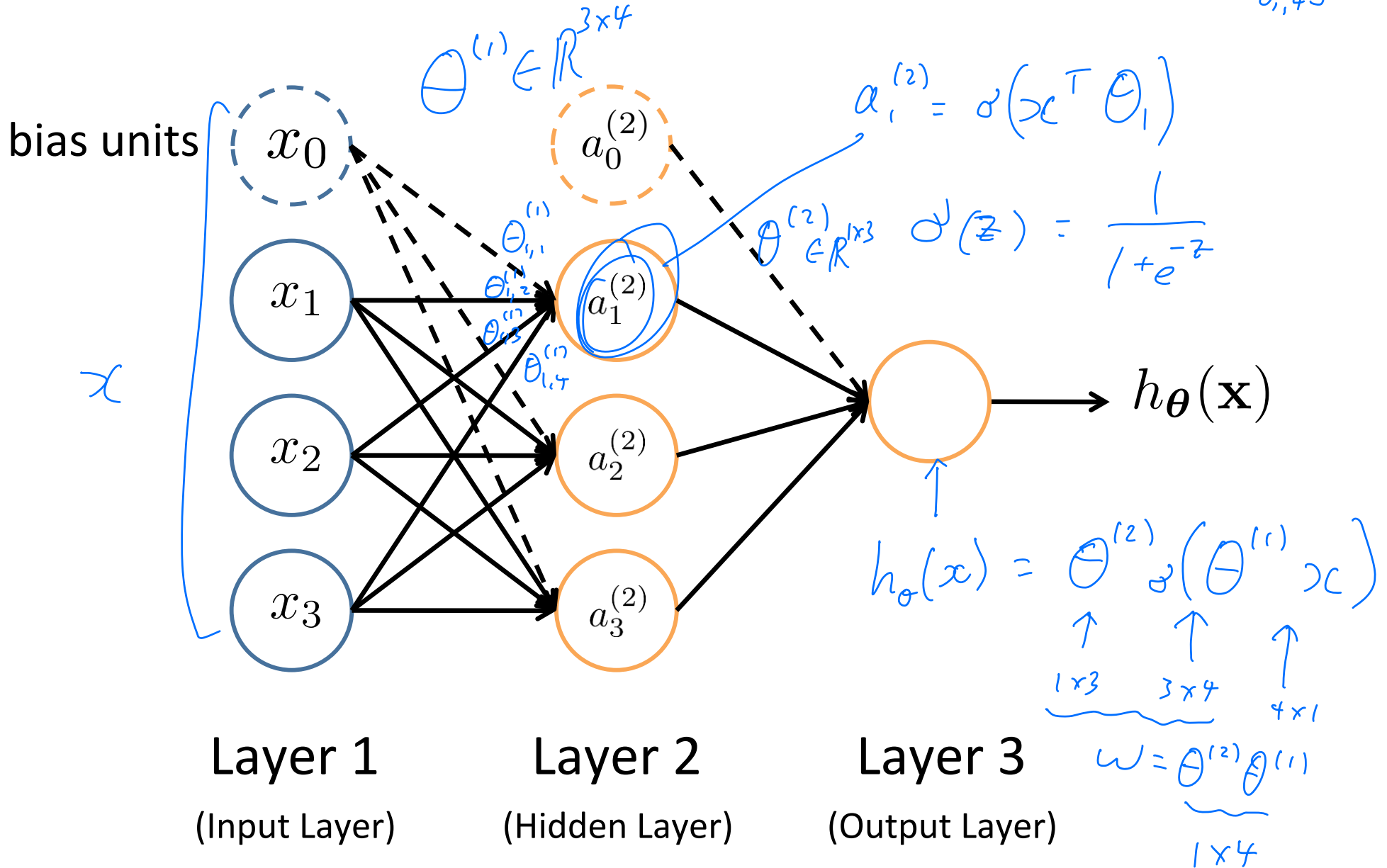
$$h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = g(\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}}}$$

Binary
Logistic
Regression

Sigmoid (logistic) activation function: $g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$

Neural Network

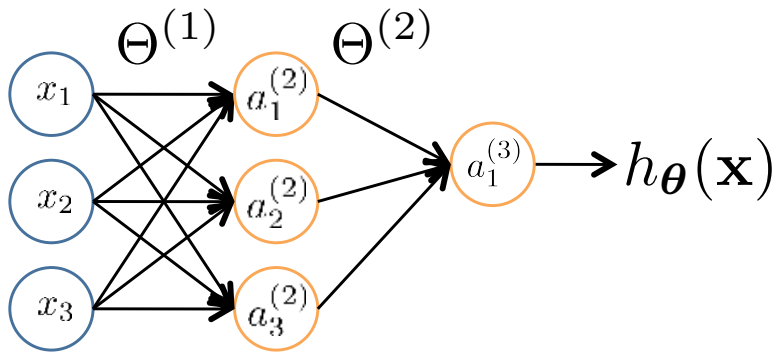
$$\Theta_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_{1,1} \\ \theta_{1,2} \\ \vdots \\ \theta_{1,4} \end{bmatrix}$$



Layer 1
(Input Layer)

Layer 2
(Hidden Layer)

Layer 3
(Output Layer)



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

$$\left. \begin{aligned} a_1^{(2)} &= g(\Theta_{10}^{(1)} x_0 + \Theta_{11}^{(1)} x_1 + \Theta_{12}^{(1)} x_2 + \Theta_{13}^{(1)} x_3) \\ a_2^{(2)} &= g(\Theta_{20}^{(1)} x_0 + \Theta_{21}^{(1)} x_1 + \Theta_{22}^{(1)} x_2 + \Theta_{23}^{(1)} x_3) \\ a_3^{(2)} &= g(\Theta_{30}^{(1)} x_0 + \Theta_{31}^{(1)} x_1 + \Theta_{32}^{(1)} x_2 + \Theta_{33}^{(1)} x_3) \end{aligned} \right\} = g(\Theta^{(1)} x)$$

$$h_{\Theta}(x) = a_1^{(3)} = g(\Theta_{10}^{(2)} a_0^{(2)} + \Theta_{11}^{(2)} a_1^{(2)} + \Theta_{12}^{(2)} a_2^{(2)} + \Theta_{13}^{(2)} a_3^{(2)})$$

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

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

Multi-layer Neural Network - Binary Classification

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

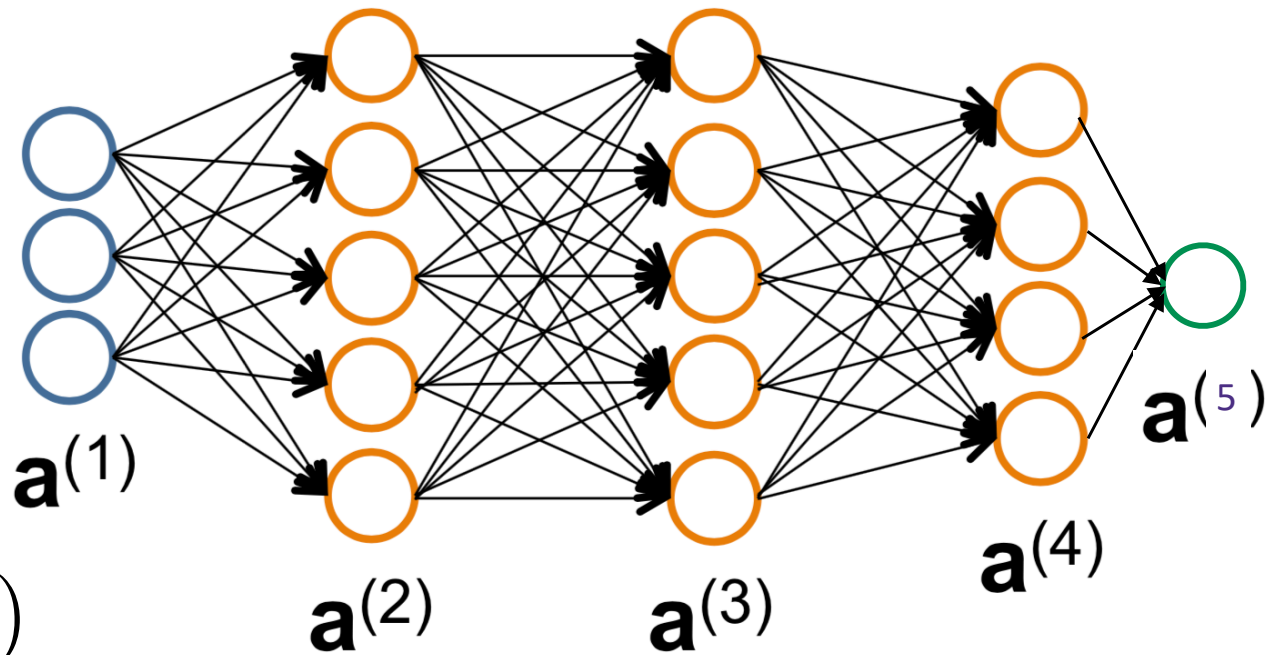
$$a^{(2)} = g(\Theta^{(1)} a^{(1)})$$

⋮

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

⋮

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



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

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

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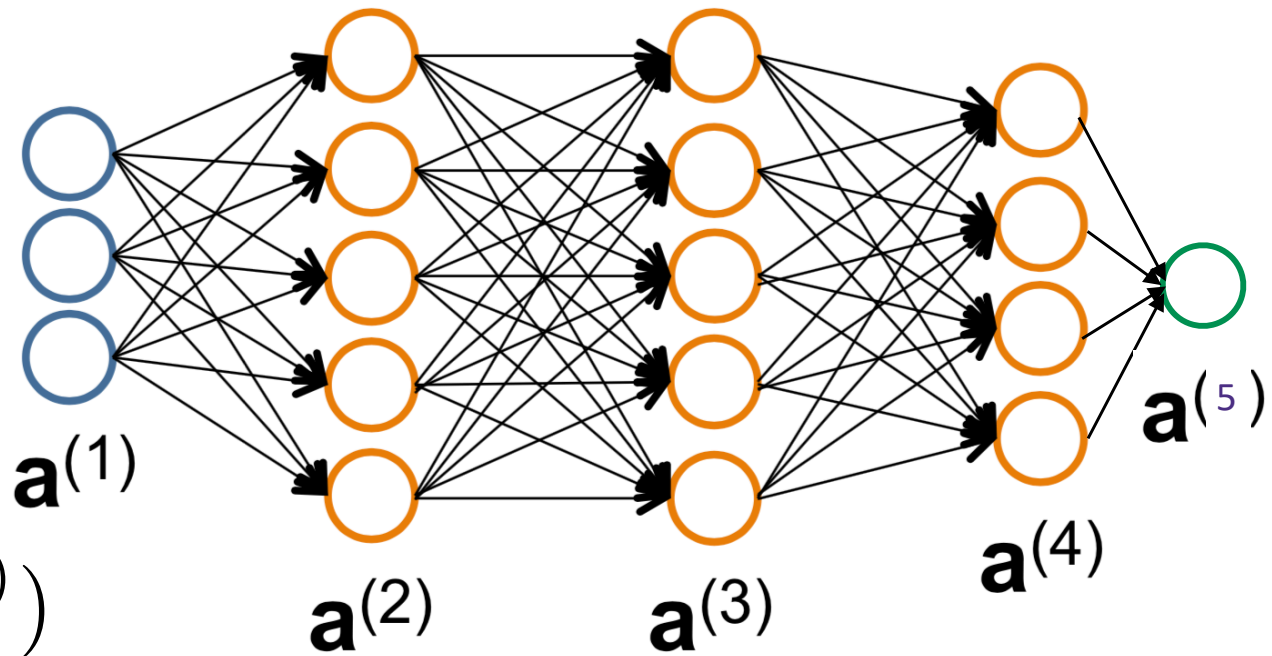
$$a^{(2)} = \sigma(\Theta^{(1)} a^{(1)})$$

⋮

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

⋮

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



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

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

Multiple Output Units: One-vs-Rest



Pedestrian



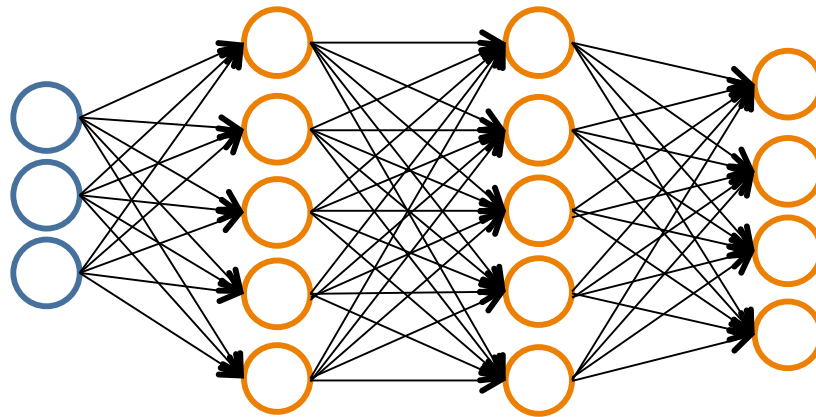
Car



Motorcycle



Truck



$$h_{\Theta}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^K$$

Multi-class
Logistic
Regression

We want:

$$h_{\Theta}(\mathbf{x}) \approx \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

when pedestrian

$$h_{\Theta}(\mathbf{x}) \approx \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

when car

$$h_{\Theta}(\mathbf{x}) \approx \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

when motorcycle

$$h_{\Theta}(\mathbf{x}) \approx \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

when truck

Multi-layer Neural Network - Regression

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

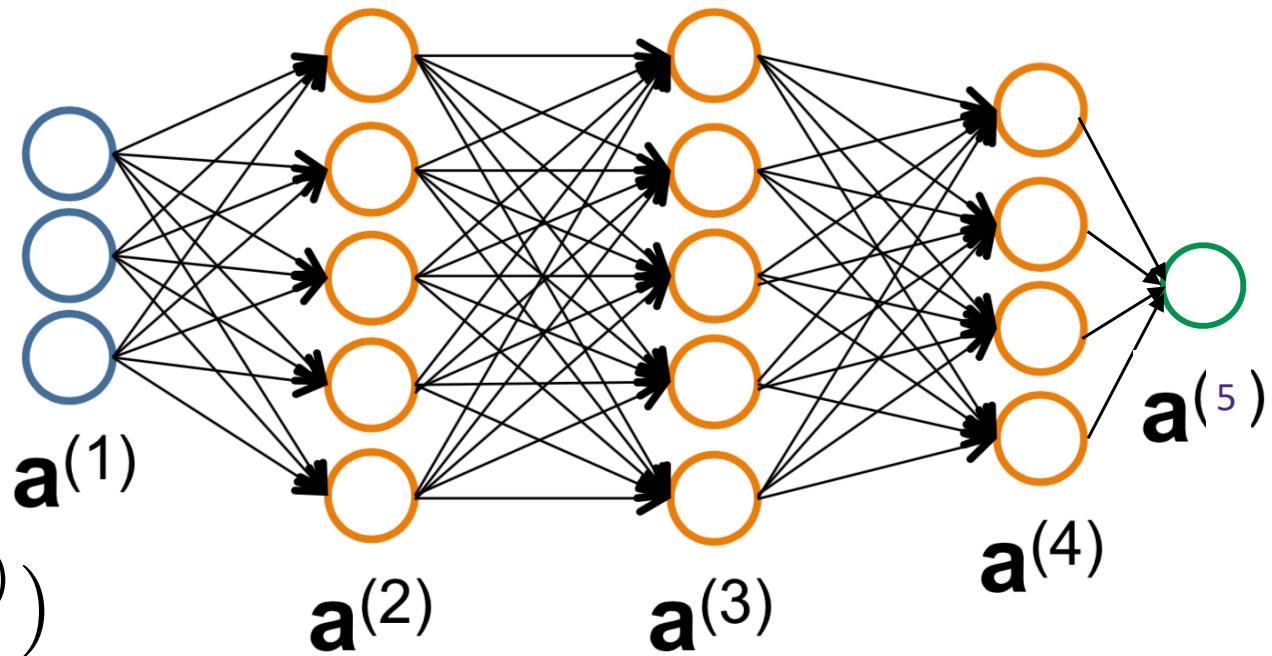
$$a^{(2)} = \sigma(\Theta^{(1)} a^{(1)})$$

⋮

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

⋮

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



$$L(y, \hat{y}) = (y - \hat{y})^2$$

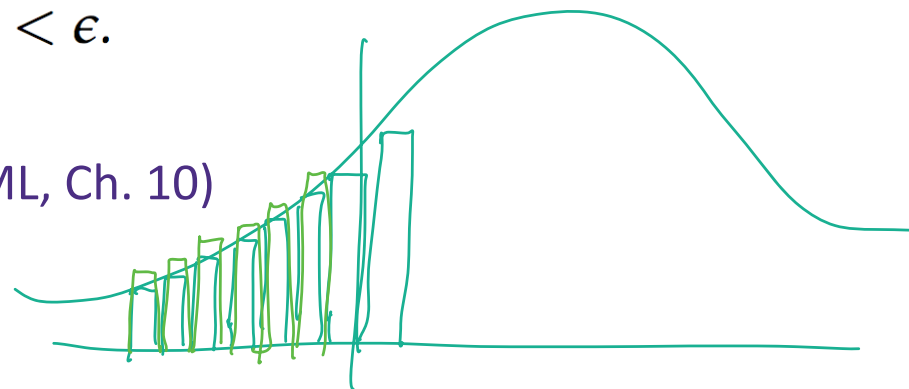
$$\sigma(z) = \max\{0, z\}$$

Regression

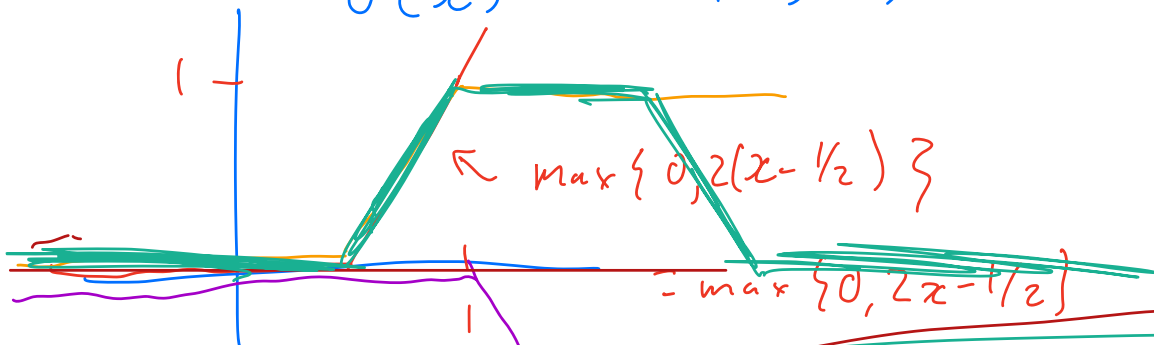
Neural Networks are arbitrary function approximators

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)



$$\sigma(x) = \max\{0, x\}$$



$$\tilde{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$1 \cdot \max\{0, 2x - 1/2\} - 1 \cdot \max\{0, 2(x - 1)\}$$

$$- 1 \cdot \max\{0, 2(x - 2)\} + 1 \cdot \max\{0, 2(x - 2.5)\}$$

$$= \Theta^{(2)} \max\{0, \Theta^{(1)} \tilde{x}\}$$

Training Neural Networks

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

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

$$a^{(2)} = g(z^{(2)})$$

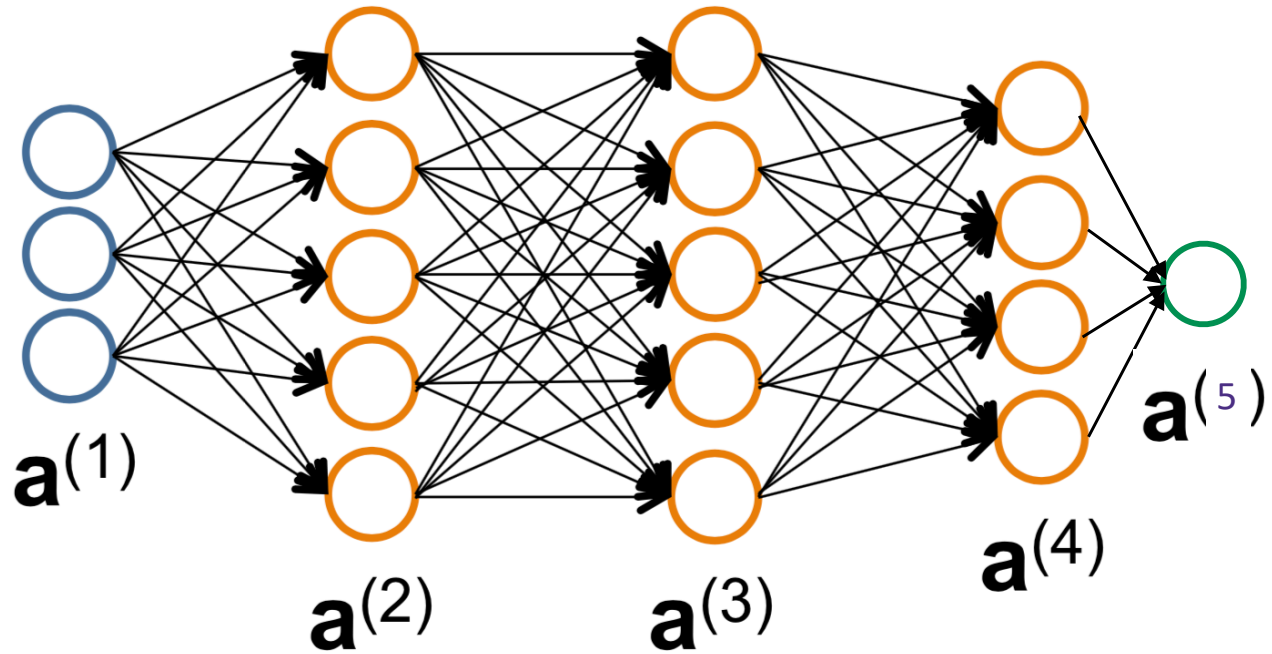
$$\vdots$$

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

$$a^{(l+1)} = g(z^{(l+1)})$$

$$\vdots$$

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



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

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

$$\text{Gradient Descent: } \Theta^{(l)} \leftarrow \Theta^{(l)} - \eta \nabla_{\Theta^{(l)}} L(y, \hat{y}) \quad \forall l$$

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Seems simple enough, why are packages like PyTorch, Tensorflow, Theano, Cafe, MxNet synonymous with deep learning?

1. Automatic differentiation

Gradient Descent: $\Theta^{(l)} \leftarrow \Theta^{(l)} - \eta \nabla_{\Theta^{(l)}} L(y, \hat{y}) \quad \forall l$

Seems simple enough, why are packages like PyTorch, Tensorflow, Theano, Cafe, MxNet synonymous with deep learning?

1. Automatic differentiation

2. Convenient libraries

Gradient Descent:

Seems simple enough,
Theano, Cafe, MxNet s

1. Automatic differ

2. Convenient libra

```
class Net(nn.Module):

    def __init__(self):
        super(Net, self).__init__()
        # 1 input image channel, 6 output channels, 3x3 square convolution
        # kernel
        self.conv1 = nn.Conv2d(1, 6, 3)
        self.conv2 = nn.Conv2d(6, 16, 3)
        # an affine operation: y = Wx + b
        self.fc1 = nn.Linear(16 * 6 * 6, 120) # 6*6 from image dimension
        self.fc2 = nn.Linear(120, 84)
        self.fc3 = nn.Linear(84, 10)

    def forward(self, x):
        # Max pooling over a (2, 2) window
        x = F.max_pool2d(F.relu(self.conv1(x)), (2, 2))
        # If the size is a square you can only specify a single number
        x = F.max_pool2d(F.relu(self.conv2(x)), 2)
        x = x.view(-1, self.num_flat_features(x))
        x = F.relu(self.fc1(x))
        x = F.relu(self.fc2(x))
        x = self.fc3(x)
        return x
```

```
# create your optimizer
optimizer = optim.SGD(net.parameters(), lr=0.01)

# in your training loop:
optimizer.zero_grad() # zero the gradient buffers
output = net(input)
loss = criterion(output, target)
loss.backward()
optimizer.step() # Does the update
```

Gradient Descent: $\Theta^{(l)} \leftarrow \Theta^{(l)} - \eta \nabla_{\Theta^{(l)}} L(y, \hat{y}) \quad \forall l$

Seems simple enough, why are packages like PyTorch, Tensorflow, Theano, Cafe, MxNet synonymous with deep learning?

1. Automatic differentiation

2. Convenient libraries

3. GPU support

Common training issues

Neural networks are **non-convex**

- For large networks, **gradients** can **blow up** or **go to zero**. This can be helped by **batchnorm** or ResNet architecture
- **Stepsize**, **batchsize**, **momentum** all have large impact on optimizing the training error *and* generalization performance
- Fancier alternatives to SGD (Adagrad, Adam, LAMB, etc.) can significantly improve training
- Overfitting is common and not undesirable: typical to achieve 100% training accuracy even if test accuracy is just 80%
- Making the network *bigger* may make training *faster!*

Common training issues

Training is too slow:

- Use larger step sizes, develop step size reduction schedule
- Use GPU resources
- Change batch size
- Use momentum and more exotic optimizers (e.g., Adam)
- Apply batch normalization
- Make network larger or smaller (# layers, # filters per layer, etc.)

Test accuracy is low

- Try modifying all of the above, plus changing other hyperparameters

Common training issues

<https://playground.tensorflow.org/>

Backprop



Backprop

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

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

$$a^{(2)} = g(z^{(2)})$$

⋮

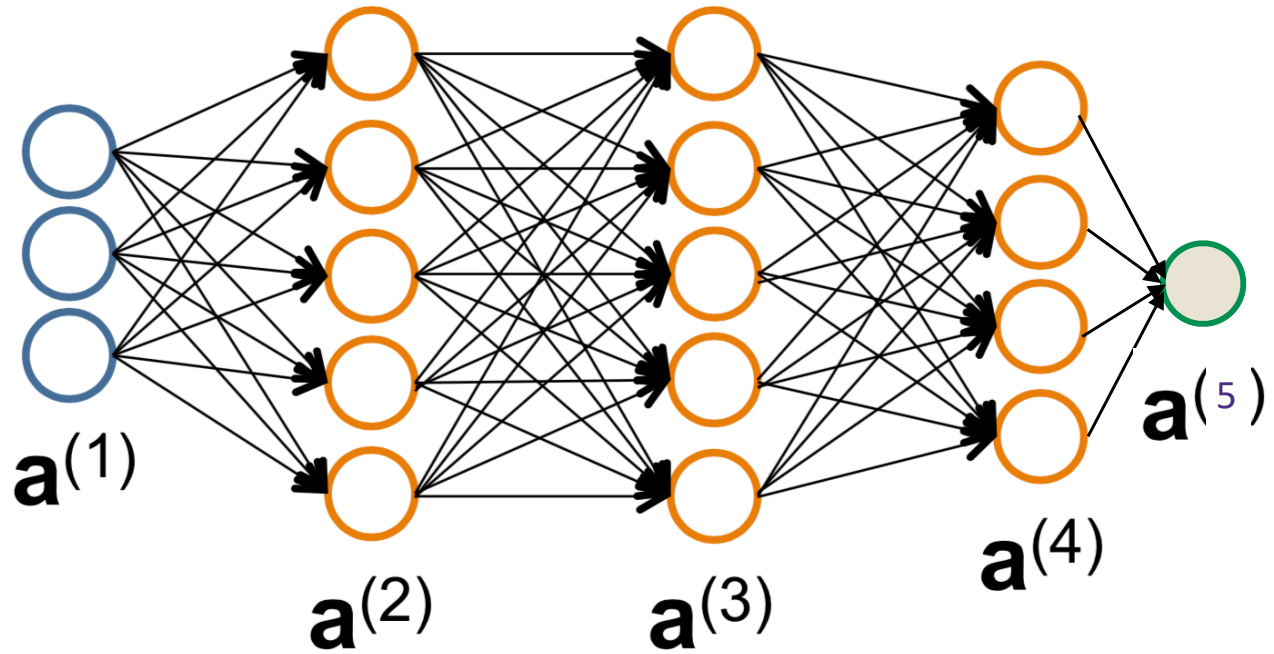
$$a^{(l)} = g(z^{(l)})$$

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⋮

$$\hat{y} = a^{(L+1)}$$



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

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Train by Stochastic Gradient Descent:

$$\Theta_{i,j}^{(l)} \leftarrow \Theta_{i,j}^{(l)} - \eta \frac{\partial L(y, \hat{y})}{\partial \Theta_{i,j}^{(l)}}$$

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

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \quad \delta_i^{(l+1)} = \frac{\partial L(y, \hat{y})}{\partial z_i^{(l+1)}}$$

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$$\frac{\partial L(y, \hat{y})}{\partial \Theta_{i,j}^{(l)}} = \frac{\partial L(y, \hat{y})}{\partial z_i^{(l+1)}} \cdot \frac{\partial z_i^{(l+1)}}{\partial \Theta_{i,j}^{(l)}} =: \delta_i^{(l+1)} \cdot a_j^{(l)}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \delta_i^{(l)} &= \frac{\partial L(y, \hat{y})}{\partial z_i^{(l)}} = \sum_k \frac{\partial L(y, \hat{y})}{\partial z_k^{(l+1)}} \cdot \frac{\partial z_k^{(l+1)}}{\partial z_i^{(l)}} \\ &= \sum_k \delta_k^{(l+1)} \cdot \Theta_{k,i}^{(l)} g'(z_i^{(l)}) \\ &= a_i^{(l)}(1 - a_i^{(l)}) \sum_k \delta_k^{(l+1)} \cdot \Theta_{k,i}^{(l)} \end{aligned}$$

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$$\delta_i^{(l)} = a_i^{(l)}(1 - a_i^{(l)}) \sum_k \delta_k^{(l+1)} \cdot \Theta_{k,i}^{(l)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_i^{(L+1)} &= \frac{\partial L(y, \hat{y})}{\partial z_i^{(L+1)}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z_i^{(L+1)}} [y \log(g(z^{(L+1)})) + (1 - y) \log(1 - g(z^{(L+1)}))] \\ &= \frac{y}{g(z^{(L+1)})} g'(z^{(L+1)}) - \frac{1 - y}{1 - g(z^{(L+1)})} g'(z^{(L+1)}) \\ &= y - g(z^{(L+1)}) = y - a^{(L+1)} \end{aligned}$$

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

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \quad \delta_i^{(l+1)} = \frac{\partial L(y, \hat{y})}{\partial z_i^{(l+1)}}$$

Backprop

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

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

$$a^{(2)} = g(z^{(2)})$$

⋮

$$a^{(l)} = g(z^{(l)})$$

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

$$a^{(l+1)} = g(z^{(l+1)})$$

⋮

$$\hat{y} = a^{(L+1)}$$

$$\frac{\partial L(y, \hat{y})}{\partial \Theta_{i,j}^{(l)}} = \frac{\partial L(y, \hat{y})}{\partial z_i^{(l+1)}} \cdot \frac{\partial z_i^{(l+1)}}{\partial \Theta_{i,j}^{(l)}} =: \delta_i^{(l+1)} \cdot a_j^{(l)}$$

$$\delta_i^{(l)} = a_i^{(l)}(1 - a_i^{(l)}) \sum_k \delta_k^{(l+1)} \cdot \Theta_{k,i}^{(l)}$$

$$\delta^{(L+1)} = y - a^{(L+1)}$$

Recursive Algorithm!

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

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \quad \delta_i^{(l+1)} = \frac{\partial L(y, \hat{y})}{\partial z_i^{(l+1)}}$$

Backpropagation

Set $\Delta_{ij}^{(l)} = 0 \quad \forall l, i, j$ (Used to accumulate gradient)

For each training instance (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) :

Set $\mathbf{a}^{(1)} = \mathbf{x}_i$

Compute $\{\mathbf{a}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{a}^{(L)}\}$ via forward propagation

Compute $\delta^{(L)} = \mathbf{a}^{(L)} - y_i$

Compute errors $\{\delta^{(L-1)}, \dots, \delta^{(2)}\}$

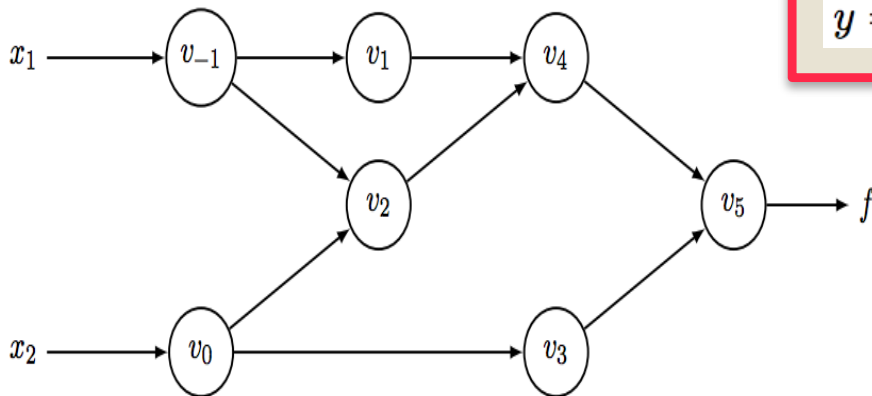
Compute gradients $\Delta_{ij}^{(l)} = \Delta_{ij}^{(l)} + a_j^{(l)} \delta_i^{(l+1)}$

Compute avg regularized gradient $D_{ij}^{(l)} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} \Delta_{ij}^{(l)} + \lambda \Theta_{ij}^{(l)} & \text{if } j \neq 0 \\ \frac{1}{n} \Delta_{ij}^{(l)} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

$\mathbf{D}^{(l)}$ is the matrix of partial derivatives of $J(\Theta)$

Autodiff

Backprop for this simple network architecture is a special case of *reverse-mode auto-differentiation*:



$$y = f(x_1, x_2) = \ln(x_1) + x_1 x_2 - \sin(x_2)$$

Forward Primal Trace

$v_{-1} = x_1$	$= 2$
$v_0 = x_2$	$= 5$
<hr/>	
$v_1 = \ln v_{-1}$	$= \ln 2$
$v_2 = v_{-1} \times v_0$	$= 2 \times 5$
<hr/>	
$v_3 = \sin v_0$	$= \sin 5$
$v_4 = v_1 + v_2$	$= 0.693 + 10$
<hr/>	
$v_5 = v_4 - v_3$	$= 10.693 + 0.959$
<hr/>	
$y = v_5$	$= 11.652$

Reverse Adjoint (Derivative) Trace

$\bar{x}_1 = \bar{v}_{-1}$	$= 5.5$
$\bar{x}_2 = \bar{v}_0$	$= 1.716$
<hr/>	
$\bar{v}_{-1} = \bar{v}_{-1} + \bar{v}_1 \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial v_{-1}} = \bar{v}_{-1} + \bar{v}_1 / v_{-1}$	$= 5.5$
$\bar{v}_0 = \bar{v}_0 + \bar{v}_2 \frac{\partial v_2}{\partial v_0} = \bar{v}_0 + \bar{v}_2 \times v_{-1}$	$= 1.716$
$\bar{v}_{-1} = \bar{v}_2 \frac{\partial v_2}{\partial v_{-1}} = \bar{v}_2 \times v_0$	$= 5$
$\bar{v}_0 = \bar{v}_3 \frac{\partial v_3}{\partial v_0} = \bar{v}_3 \times \cos v_0$	$= -0.284$
$\bar{v}_2 = \bar{v}_4 \frac{\partial v_4}{\partial v_2} = \bar{v}_4 \times 1$	$= 1$
$\bar{v}_1 = \bar{v}_4 \frac{\partial v_4}{\partial v_1} = \bar{v}_4 \times 1$	$= 1$
$\bar{v}_3 = \bar{v}_5 \frac{\partial v_5}{\partial v_3} = \bar{v}_5 \times (-1)$	$= -1$
$\bar{v}_4 = \bar{v}_5 \frac{\partial v_5}{\partial v_4} = \bar{v}_5 \times 1$	$= 1$
<hr/>	
$\bar{v}_5 = \bar{y}$	$= 1$

This is the special sauce in Tensorflow, PyTorch, Theano, ...