

# \*\*\* Applied Machine Learning Fundamentals \*\*\*

## Mathematical Foundations

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SAP SE

November 15, 2019



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# Lecture Overview

Unit I	Machine Learning Introduction
Unit II	<b>Mathematical Foundations</b>
Unit III	Bayesian Decision Theory
Unit IV	Probability Density Estimation
Unit V	Regression
Unit VI	Classification I
Unit VII	Evaluation
Unit VIII	Classification II
Unit IX	Clustering
Unit X	Dimensionality Reduction

# Agenda November 15, 2019

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Matrices

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Expectation and Variance

Kullback-Leibler Divergence

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Constrained Optimization and Lagrange

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Numerical Optimization

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Summary

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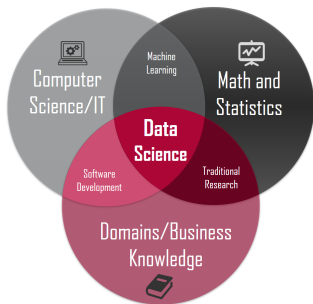
Recommended Literature and further Reading

Section:  
**Introduction**



# Introduction

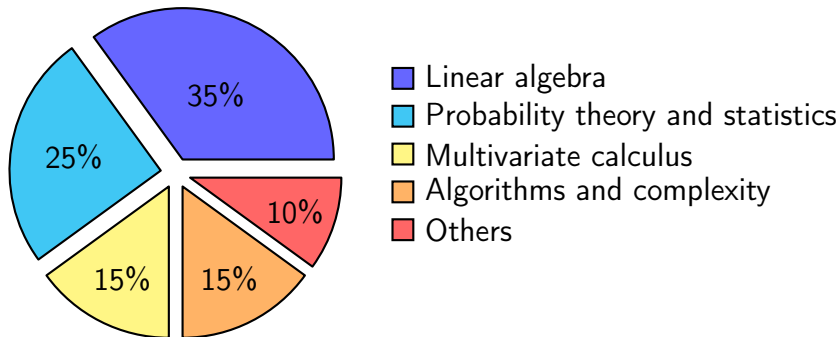
Math is a significant portion of data science / machine learning!



You will need it to understand:

- **Statistical** machine learning
- How optimization for learning / empirical risk minimization works,
- How linear algebra, calculus and statistics are used to make learning and inference more efficient

# Math is important!



Section:  
**Linear Algebra**

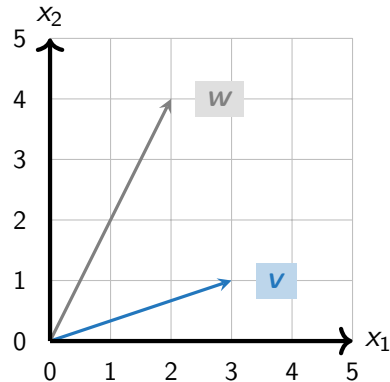


# What is a Vector?

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$





# Multiplication by a Scalar

$$c\mathbf{x} = c \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} cx_1 \\ cx_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

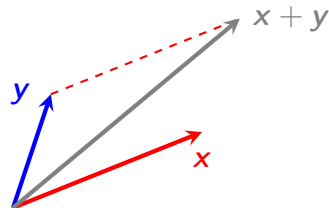
$$2\mathbf{v} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Addition of Vectors

$$\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + y_1 \\ x_2 + y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Linear Combination of Vectors

$$\mathbf{u} = c_1 \mathbf{v}^{(1)} + c_2 \mathbf{v}^{(2)} + \cdots + c_n \mathbf{v}^{(n)} \quad (1)$$

# Vector Transpose, inner and outer Product

- Vector transpose:

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{v}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Inner product / dot product / scalar product:

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} \equiv \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w} \equiv \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^m v_j w_j \quad (2)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = (3 \cdot 2) + (1 \cdot 4) = 10$$



## Vector Transpose and inner and outer Product (Ctd.)

- Outer product:

$$\mathbf{vw}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 12 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

The inner product yields a scalar value, the results of an outer product is a matrix!

# Length of a Vector

- Length of a vector (Frobenius norm):

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}} \quad (3)$$

$$\|c\mathbf{x}\| = |c| \cdot \|\mathbf{x}\| \quad (4)$$

$$\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\| \quad (5)$$

- Example:

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{3^2 + 1^2} = 10$$

# Angle between Vectors

- The angle between two vectors is given by:

$$\cos \angle(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}}{\|\mathbf{x}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{y}\|} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^m x_j \cdot y_j}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (x_j)^2} \cdot \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (y_j)^2}} \quad (6)$$

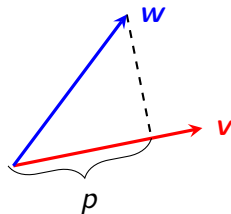
$$\cos \angle(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{v}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{w}\|} = \frac{10}{\sqrt{10} \cdot \sqrt{20}} \approx 0.71$$

- Inner product:  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \|\mathbf{x}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{y}\| \cdot \cos \angle(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$

# Projection of Vectors

- How is the projection of  $x$  onto  $y$  defined?
- Formally, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} p &= \|v\| \cos \angle(v, w) \\ &= \|v\| \frac{v \cdot w}{\|v\| \cdot \|w\|} \\ &= \frac{v \cdot w}{\|w\|} \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$



- Note that  $p$  is **not** a vector!



# What is a Matrix?

General case ( $\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ ):

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & \dots & X_{1m} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & \dots & X_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ X_{n1} & X_{n2} & \dots & X_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 3}$$

$$\mathbf{N} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$$

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 1 \\ 11 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$$

# Matrix Transpose and Addition

- Transpose of a matrix:

$$\mathbf{M}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 0 \\ 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (8)$$

- Addition of matrices:

$$\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} Y_{11} & Y_{12} \\ Y_{21} & Y_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} + Y_{11} & X_{12} + Y_{12} \\ X_{21} + Y_{21} & X_{22} + Y_{22} \end{bmatrix} \quad (9)$$

# Matrix Multiplication

- Multiplication by scalars:

$$c\mathbf{X} = c \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & X_{13} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & X_{23} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c \cdot X_{11} & c \cdot X_{12} & c \cdot X_{13} \\ c \cdot X_{21} & c \cdot X_{22} & c \cdot X_{23} \end{bmatrix} \quad (10)$$

- Matrix-vector multiplication:

$$\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} \cdot y_1 + X_{12} \cdot y_2 \\ X_{21} \cdot y_1 + X_{22} \cdot y_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (11)$$

# Matrix Multiplication (Ctd.)

- Matrix-matrix multiplication:

$$\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{XY}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & X_{13} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & X_{23} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Y_{11} & Y_{12} \\ Y_{21} & Y_{22} \\ Y_{31} & Y_{32} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} X_{11}Y_{11} + X_{12}Y_{21} + X_{13}Y_{31} & X_{11}Y_{12} + X_{12}Y_{22} + X_{13}Y_{32} \\ X_{21}Y_{11} + X_{22}Y_{21} + X_{23}Y_{31} & X_{21}Y_{12} + X_{22}Y_{22} + X_{23}Y_{32} \end{bmatrix} \quad (12) \end{aligned}$$

# Matrix Inversion

- Matrix inversion is defined for **square matrices**  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$
- A matrix  $\mathbf{X}$  multiplied by its inverse  $\mathbf{X}^{-1}$  gives the **identity matrix**:

$$\mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{-1} = \mathbf{I} \quad (13)$$

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (14)$$

- If  $\mathbf{X}^{-1}$  exists, we say that  $\mathbf{X}$  is **non-singular**

## Matrix Inversion (Ctd.)

- It holds that ( $\mathbf{C}$  is the **cofactor matrix**):

$$\mathbf{X}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(\mathbf{X})} \mathbf{C}^T \quad (15)$$

- A condition for invertability is that **the determinant has to be different than zero**
- Example:**

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det(\mathbf{X}) = 0 \quad \mathbf{X}^{-1} = ?$$

# Matrix Inversion Example

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1/2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{X}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2/3 & -1/3 \\ 2/3 & 2/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Please verify!

$$\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{-1} = \mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{X}$$

Use for example the Gauss-Jordan algorithm to find the inverse!

# Matrix Pseudoinverse

- **Question:** How can we invert a matrix  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  which is not squared?
- Left pseudoinverse  $\mathbf{X}^\# \mathbf{X}$ :

$$\mathbf{X}^\# \mathbf{X} = \underbrace{(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top}_{\text{left-multiplied}} \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{I}_m \quad (16)$$

- Right pseudoinverse  $\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^\#$ :

$$\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^\# = \mathbf{X} \underbrace{\mathbf{X}^\top (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^\top)^{-1}}_{\text{right-multiplied}} = \mathbf{I}_n \quad (17)$$





# Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues

- Some vectors  $\mathbf{v}$  only change their length when multiplied by a matrix  $\mathbf{X}$

# Symmetric Matrices

- A squared  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{X}$  is **symmetric**, iff

$$\forall i, j: \quad X_{ij} = X_{ji} \quad (18)$$

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}^T \quad (19)$$

- Some properties:
  - The inverse  $\mathbf{X}^{-1}$  is also symmetric
  - **Eigen-decomposition:**  $\mathbf{X}$  can be decomposed into  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{Q}^T$ , where the columns of  $\mathbf{Q}$  are the eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{X}$ , and  $\mathbf{D}$  is a diagonal matrix whose entries are the corresponding eigenvalues

# Positive (semi-)definite Matrices

- A **squared symmetric** matrix  $\mathbf{X}^{n \times n}$  is **positive definite**, iff for any vector  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y} > 0 \quad (20)$$

- Or **positive semi-definite**, iff  $\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y} \geq 0$

Such matrices are important in machine learning. For instance, the covariance matrix is always positive semi-definite.

Section:  
**Statistics**



# Random Variables

- What is a **random variable**?

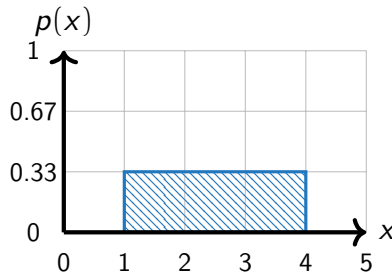
# Random Variables

- What is a **random variable**?
  - It's a random number determined by chance (according to a distribution)
  - Random variables in machine learning: input data, output data, noise
- What is a **probability distribution**?

# Random Variables

- What is a **random variable**?
  - It's a random number determined by chance (according to a distribution)
  - Random variables in machine learning: input data, output data, noise
- What is a **probability distribution**?
  - Describes the probability that a random variable is equal to a certain value
  - It can be given by the physics of an experiment (e. g. throwing dice)
  - **Discrete** vs. **continuous** distributions

# Uniform Distribution



Every outcome is equally probable within a bounded region  $\mathcal{R}$

$$p(x) = 1/\mathcal{R} \quad (21)$$



# Discrete Distributions

The random variables take on **discrete values**

## Examples:

- When throwing a die, the possible values are given by a countably finite set:

$$x_i \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

- The number of sand grains at the beach (countably infinite set):

$$x_i \in \mathbb{N}$$

## Discrete Distributions (Ctd.)

- All probabilities sum up to 1:

$$\sum_i p(x_i) = 1$$

- Discrete distributions are particularly important in classification
- A discrete distribution is described by a **probability mass function** (also called frequency function)

# Bernoulli Distribution

- A **Bernoulli random variable** only takes on two values (e. g. 0 and 1):

$$x \in \{0, 1\} \quad (22)$$

$$p(x = 1|\mu) = \mu \quad (23)$$

$$\text{Bern}(x|\mu) = \mu^x(1 - \mu)^{1-x} \quad (24)$$

$$\mathbb{E}\{x\} = \mu \quad (25)$$

$$\text{var}\{x\} = \mu(1 - \mu) \quad (26)$$

- The only parameter is  $\mu$ , i. e. the distribution is completely defined by this parameter

# Binomial Distribution

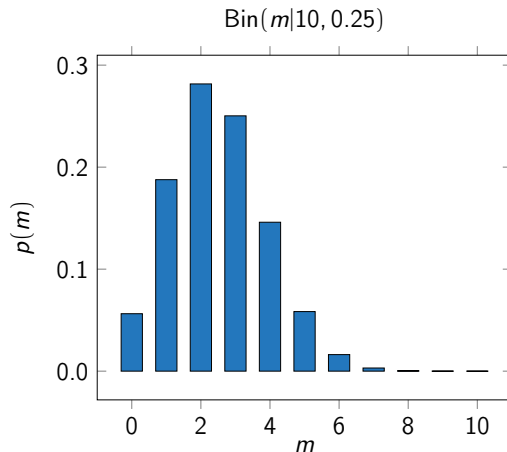
- **Binomial variables** are a sequence of  $n$  repeated Bernoulli variables
- **Example:** What is the probability of getting  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  heads in  $N$  trials?

$$\text{Bin}(m|N, \mu) = \binom{N}{m} \mu^m (1 - \mu)^{N-m} \quad (27)$$

$$\mathbb{E}\{m\} = N\mu \quad (28)$$

$$\text{var}\{m\} = N\mu(1 - \mu) \quad (29)$$

# Binomial Distribution (Ctd.)



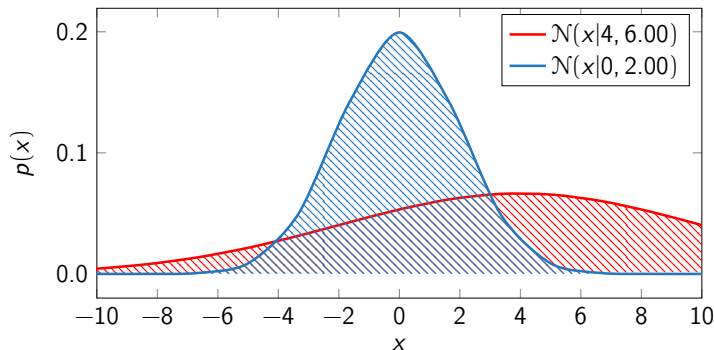
# Continuous Distributions

The random variables take on **continuous values**

- Continuous distributions are discrete distributions where the **number of discrete values goes to infinity** while the **probability of each value goes to zero**
- It's described by a **probability density function** which integrates to 1:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} p(x) dx = 1$$

# Gaussian Distribution



$$p(x) = \mathcal{N}(x|\mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{(x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\} \quad (30)$$



# Central Limit Theorem

## Central Limit Theorem:

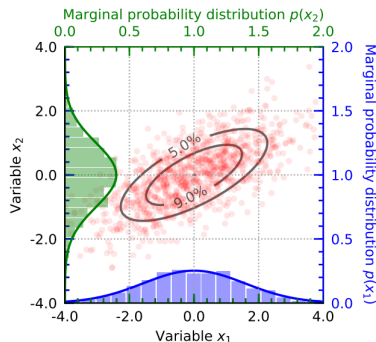
The distribution of the sum of  $n$  i.i.d. (independent and identically distributed) random variables becomes increasingly Gaussian as  $n$  increases.

- The Gaussian distribution is one among the most important distributions
- Gaussians are often a good model
- Working with Gaussians leads to **analytical solutions for complex operations**



# Multivariate Gaussian Distribution

$$p_D(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^D |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\} \quad (31)$$



**For clarification:**  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  are vectors while  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$  is a matrix. The probability given by  $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \in [0; 1]$  is still a scalar value!

# Basic Rules of Probability

- **Joint distribution:**

$$p(x, y) \quad (32)$$

- **Marginal distribution:**

$$p(y) = \int_x p(x, y) \, dx \quad (33)$$

- **Conditional distribution:**

$$p(y|x) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)} \quad (34)$$

# Basic Rules of Probability (Ctd.)

- Probabilistic independence:

$$p(x, y) = p(x)p(y) \quad (35)$$

- Chain rule of probabilities:

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= p(x_1|x_2, \dots, x_n)p(x_2, \dots, x_n) \\ &= p(x_1|x_2, \dots, x_n)p(x_2|x_3, \dots, x_n) \dots p(x_{n-1}|x_n)p(x_n) \end{aligned} \quad (36)$$

- Bayes rule:

$$p(y|x) = \frac{p(x|y)p(y)}{p(x)} \quad (37)$$

# Expectation

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)}\{f(x)\} = \mathbb{E}_x\{f\} = \mathbb{E}\{f\} = \sum_x p(x)f(x) \quad \text{discrete case} \quad (38)$$

$$= \int_x p(x)f(x) \, dx \quad \text{continuous case} \quad (39)$$

Approximate expectation:

$$\mathbb{E}\{f\} = \int_x p(x)f(x) \, dx \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \quad (40)$$

# Expectation (Ctd.)

- Some rules of expectations:
  - $\mathbb{E}\{a\mathbf{x}\} = a\mathbb{E}\{\mathbf{x}\}$
  - $\mathbb{E}\{\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\} = \mathbb{E}\{\mathbf{x}\} + \mathbb{E}\{\mathbf{y}\}$
  - $\mathbb{E}\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}\} = \mathbb{E}\{\mathbf{x}\}\mathbb{E}\{\mathbf{y}\}$  (if  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are independent)
  - $\mathbb{E}\{\sum_i a_i x_i\} = \sum_i a_i \mathbb{E}\{x_i\}$
- Expectations of functions:
  - $\mathbb{E}\{g(\mathbf{x})\} = \int_{\mathbf{x}} p(\mathbf{x})g(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$
  - In general:  $\mathbb{E}\{g(\mathbf{x})\} \neq g(\mathbb{E}\{\mathbf{x}\})$

# Variance and Covariance

- Covariances give a measure of correlation: (how much variables change together)
- Scalars:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{cov}\{x, y\} &= \mathbb{E}_{x,y}\{(x - \mathbb{E}_x\{x\})(y - \mathbb{E}_y\{y\})\} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{x,y}\{xy\} - \mathbb{E}_x\{x\}\mathbb{E}_y\{y\}\end{aligned}\tag{41}$$

- Vector notation:

$$\text{cov}\{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\} = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}}\{(\mathbf{x} - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}}\{\mathbf{x}\})(\mathbf{y} - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{y}}\{\mathbf{y}\})^T\}\tag{42}$$

# Kullback-Leibler Divergence

- The **Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence** is a similarity measure between two distributions  $p$  and  $q$ :

$$\text{KL}(p\|q) = \sum_x p(x) \cdot \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \quad (43)$$

- Some properties:
  - It is not a distance metric:  $\text{KL}(p\|q) \neq \text{KL}(q\|p)$
  - It is non-negative:  $\text{KL}(p\|q) \geq 0$
  - If  $\forall x : p(x) = q(x) \Rightarrow \text{KL}(p\|q) = 0$

Section:  
**Optimization**





# Motivation

- In every machine learning problem, you will have:
  - ① An **objective function** you want to optimize
  - ② **Data** you want to learn from
  - ③ **Parameters** which need to be learned
  - ④ Assumptions about the problem and the data
- We would like to have general solutions to the problem of learning
- Different algorithms embody different objective functions and assumptions

**Every machine learning problem is an optimization problem!**

# Unconstrained Optimization

You know how to do that, don't you?

# Constrained Optimization

## Formalization:

$$\min_{\theta} \mathcal{J}(\theta) = \dots \quad \leftarrow \text{cost function / objective}$$

$$\text{s. t. } f(\theta) = 0 \quad \leftarrow \text{equality constraints}$$

$$g(\theta) \geq 0 \quad \leftarrow \text{inequality constraints}$$

What should an ideal optimization problem, i.e. the cost function and constraints look like?

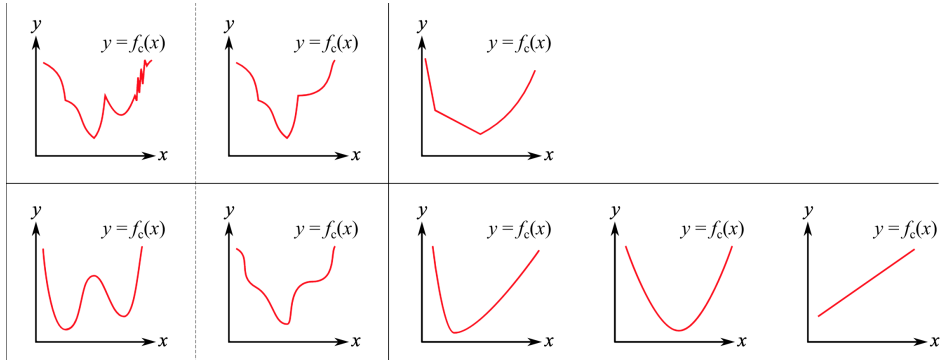
# Constrained Optimization (Ctd.)

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min_{\theta} \mathcal{J}(\theta) = \dots & \longleftarrow \text{convex function} \\ \text{s. t. } f(\theta) = 0 & \longleftarrow \text{linear function} \\ g(\theta) \geq 0 & \longleftarrow \text{convex set} \end{array}$$

# Cost Functions

non-convex

convex



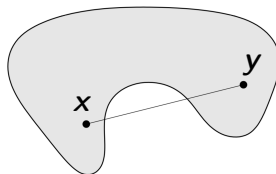
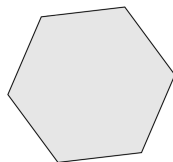
# Convexity – Convex Sets

- A set  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is convex, if  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in C$  and  $\forall \alpha \in [0, 1]$

$$\alpha \mathbf{x} + (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{y} \in C \quad (44)$$

- This is the equation line segment between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$

convex



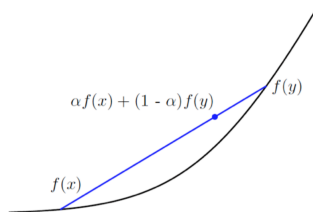
non-convex

# Convexity – Convex Functions

- A function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  is convex, if  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \text{dom}(f)$  and  $\forall \alpha \in [0, 1]$

$$f(\alpha \mathbf{x} + (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{y}) \leq \alpha f(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \alpha) f(\mathbf{y}) \quad (45)$$

- Examples are linear functions  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x} + b$  and quadratic functions  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^\top \mathbf{x} + c$



# Convexity (Ctd.)

- Why are convex cost functions so appealing?
- Local solutions are global optima
- Efficient implementations of optimizers are available



# Constrained Optimization

- How to solve this optimization problem?

$$\min_{x,y} \mathcal{J}(x,y) = 2y + x$$

subject to (s. t.):

$$f(x,y) = y^2 + xy - 1 = 0$$

- Convert the problem to an unconstrained one
- This is done using **Lagrange multipliers**  $\alpha$



# The Concept of Lagrange Multipliers

**General Lagrange function:**  $\mathcal{L}(x, y, \lambda) = \mathcal{J}(x, y) + \lambda f(x, y)$

Step ❶: Differentiate w. r. t.  $x, y$  and  $\lambda$ :

$$\min_{x,y} \mathcal{J}(x, y) = 2y + x$$

s. t.:

$$f(x, y) = y^2 + xy - 1 = 0$$

$$\text{I. } \nabla_x \mathcal{L} = 1 + \lambda y$$

$$\text{II. } \nabla_y \mathcal{L} = 2 + 2\lambda y + \lambda x$$

$$\text{III. } \nabla_\lambda \mathcal{L} = y^2 + xy - 1$$

# The Concept of Lagrange Multipliers (Ctd.)

Step ❷: Set equations to zero:

$$\text{I. } 1 + \lambda y \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

$$\text{II. } 2 + 2\lambda y + \lambda x \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

$$\text{III. } y^2 + xy - 1 \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

Step ❸: Substitute:

$$\text{I. } \lambda = -\frac{1}{y}$$

$$\text{I.} \rightarrow \text{II. } x = 0$$

$$\text{II.} \rightarrow \text{III. } y = \pm 1$$

# Numerical Optimization

- Different numerical optimization algorithms exist for optimizing a function numerically on a computer if we can't solve it analytically
- **Gradient descent:** Incrementally update an estimate of the parameters:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{new} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}_{old} + \alpha \delta \boldsymbol{\theta} \quad (46)$$

- After each update:  $\mathcal{J}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{new}) < \mathcal{J}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{old})$
- The algorithms differ in the number of iterations required, the computational cost, the convergence guarantees, the robustness with noisy cost functions and their memory usage

# Numerical Optimization Algorithms

- **Gradient-based methods:**
  - **Gradient descent** (with constant, variable step size  $\alpha$ )
  - **(L-)BFGS** (Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno)
  - **Conjugate gradient descent**
- **Non-gradient based methods:**
  - **Genetic algorithms**
  - **Non-Linear simplex**
  - **Nelder-Mead**

**Numerical techniques may not find the global optimum!**

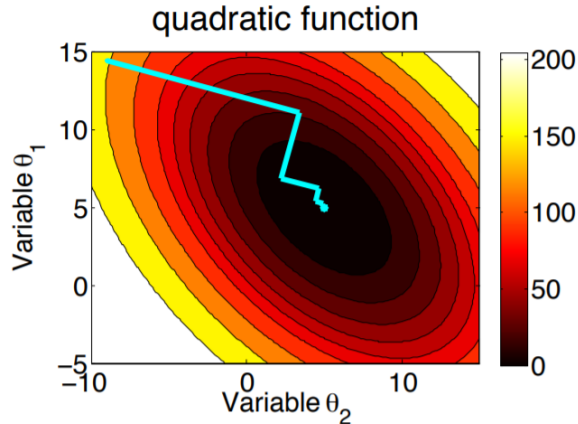
# Gradient Descent

- Most basic algorithm (and most commonly used)
- Go into the direction of the **steepest descent**
- The gradient points in the direction of the maximum ( $\rightarrow$  subtract gradient)

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(new)} \longleftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(old)} - \alpha \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{J}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(old)}) \quad (47)$$

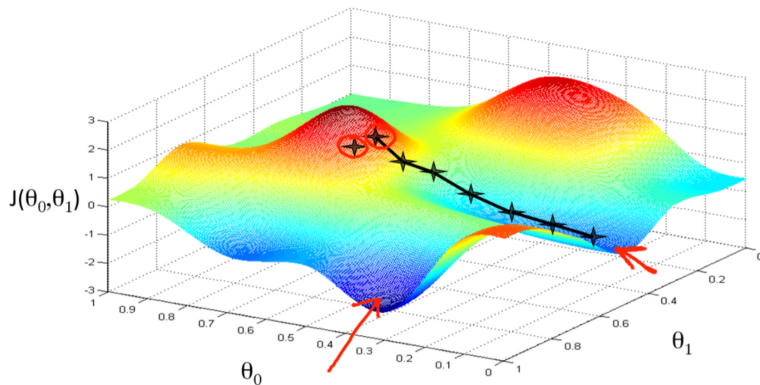
- The parameter updates tend to 'zig-zag' down the valley (see next slide)
- Gradient descent is a **1st-order method**

# Gradient Descent (Ctd.)



# Initialization

Initialization also matters...







# Newton's Method

- We want to solve: ( $\mathbf{H}$  is the **Hessian**,  $\mathbf{g}$  the **Jacobian**)

$$\delta\boldsymbol{\theta} = \arg \min_{\delta\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left[ c + \mathbf{g}^\top \delta\boldsymbol{\theta} + \frac{1}{2} \delta\boldsymbol{\theta}^\top \mathbf{H} \delta\boldsymbol{\theta} \right] \quad (48)$$

**Taylor series expansion**

- We have to differentiate and set to zero:

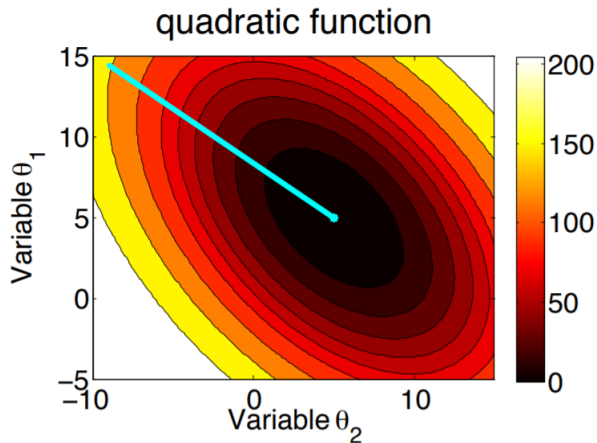
$$\nabla_{\delta\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left[ c + \mathbf{g}^\top \delta\boldsymbol{\theta} + \frac{1}{2} \delta\boldsymbol{\theta}^\top \mathbf{H} \delta\boldsymbol{\theta} \right] = \mathbf{g} + \mathbf{H} \delta\boldsymbol{\theta} \stackrel{!}{=} \mathbf{0} \quad (49)$$

- Which yields the solution:

$$\delta\boldsymbol{\theta} = -\mathbf{H}^{-1} \mathbf{g} \quad (50)$$



# Newton's Method (Ctd.)



# Want to learn more about Optimization?

- Deep Learning book chapters 4.3, 4.4 and 8  
(Link chapters 4.3, 4.4, Link chapter 8) are highly recommended
- Boyd & Vandenberghe, Convex Optimization (Link)
- Stanford convex optimization course (Link)
- MOOC on constrained optimization (Link)

Section:  
**Wrap-Up**



# Summary





# Self-Test Questions

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# What's next...?

Unit I	Machine Learning Introduction
Unit II	Mathematical Foundations
Unit III	<b>Bayesian Decision Theory</b>
Unit IV	Probability Density Estimation
Unit V	Regression
Unit VI	Classification I
Unit VII	Evaluation
Unit VIII	Classification II
Unit IX	Clustering
Unit X	Dimensionality Reduction

# Recommended Literature and further Reading



Thank you very much for the attention!

**Topic:** \*\*\* Applied Machine Learning Fundamentals \*\*\* Mathematical Foundations

**Date:** November 15, 2019

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Do you have any questions?