# **Machine Learning**

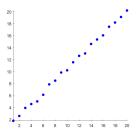
Regression problems

Emanuele Rodolà rodola@di.uniroma1.it

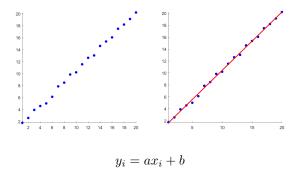


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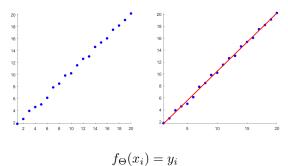
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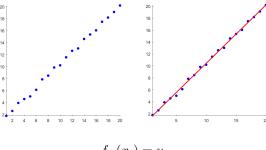


Model: linear + bias

Parameters:  $\Theta = \{a, b\}$ 

**Data**: n pairs  $(x_i, y_i)$ ; the  $x_i$  are called the regressors

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Given a and b, we have a mapping that gives new output from new input.

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must approximately hold for all  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ .

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**Problem:** Choose a and b that minimize the mean squared error (MSE) between input and predicted output:

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When  $f_{\Theta}$  is linear, this is called a least-squares approximation problem.

## Linear regression: Loss function

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The error criterion w.r.t. the parameters is also called a loss or energy function, usually denoted by  $\ell$ :

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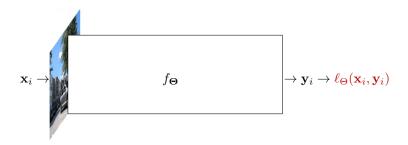
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**Remark:** We minimize the energy w.r.t. the parameters  $\Theta$ , and **not** w.r.t. the data  $(x_i, y_i)$ .

We are considering the following case:



where  $f_{\pmb{\Theta}}$  is linear, and  $\ell_{\pmb{\Theta}}$  is quadratic.

We need to solve the general minimization problem:

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Let's see what optimization problems we can solve easily!

# Convexity and gradients

#### Jensen's inequality:

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for all x, y and  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ 

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Let us further assume that f is a differentiable function, so that we can compute its derivative  $\frac{df}{dx}$  at all points x.

**Theorem:** the global minimizer x is where  $\frac{df(x)}{dx} = 0$ .

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$$f:\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}$$

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The notion of derivative is replaced by the notion of gradient:

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

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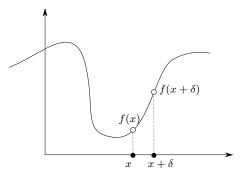
$$f(\alpha \mathbf{x} + (1 - \alpha)\mathbf{y}) \le \alpha f(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \alpha)f(\mathbf{y})$$

and we also have the global optimality condition:

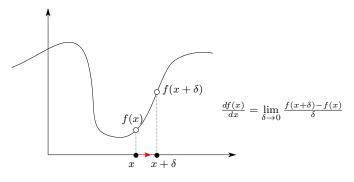
$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0} \implies f(\mathbf{x}) \le f(\mathbf{y}) \text{ for all } \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

The gradient  $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})$  encodes the direction of steepest ascent of f at point  $\mathbf{x}$ .

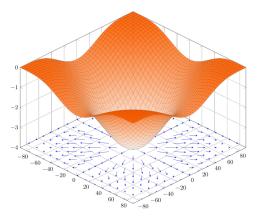
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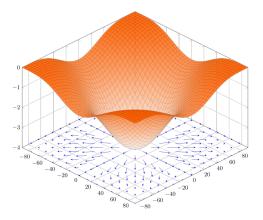
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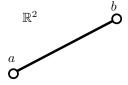
The length of the gradient vector encodes its steepness.

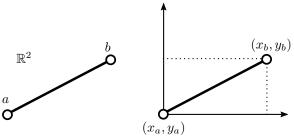
#### Convex functions: Global minima

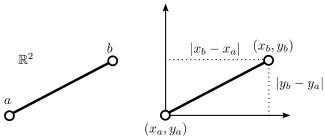
To summarize:

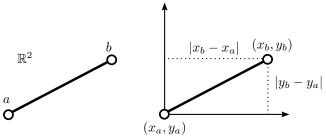
If f(x) is convex, then a global minimizer is found by setting  $\frac{df(x)}{dx}=0$  and solving for x.

If  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is convex, then a global minimizer is found by setting  $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$  and solving for  $\mathbf{x}$ .





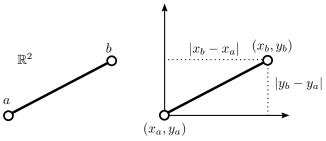




Apply Pythagoras' theorem:  $d(a,b)=(|x_b-x_a|^2+|y_b-y_a|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ 

#### Vector lengths

How to measure the length of the gradient? Let's first start from the definition of Euclidean distance, which measures the length of any straight line connecting two points:



Apply Pythagoras' theorem: 
$$d(a,b)=(|x_b-x_a|^2+|y_b-y_a|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

In matrix notation:

$$d(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b}) = \|\mathbf{a}-\mathbf{b}\|_2$$
 where  $\mathbf{a}=\begin{pmatrix}x_a\\y_a\end{pmatrix}$  and  $\mathbf{b}=\begin{pmatrix}x_b\\y_b\end{pmatrix}$ 

One can generalize to different power coefficients  $p \ge 1$ :

$$\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_{2} = (|x_{1} - y_{1}|^{2} + |x_{2} - y_{2}|^{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\mathbf{p}} = (|x_{1} - y_{1}|^{\mathbf{p}} + |x_{2} - y_{2}|^{\mathbf{p}})^{\frac{1}{\mathbf{p}}}$$

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As well as generalize from  $\mathbb{R}^2$  to  $\mathbb{R}^k$ :

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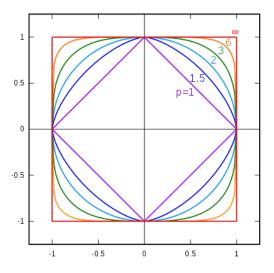
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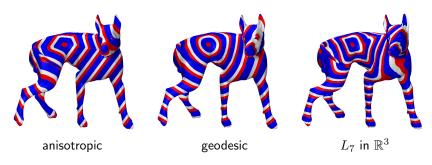
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# $L_p$ unit balls in $\mathbb{R}^2$



#### Unit balls on manifolds

The notion of unit ball makes sense in any metric space, as it only depends on the presence of a distance function.



Each isoline identifies points at the same distance from the source

# Normal equation

$$\min_{a,b \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - ax_i - b)^2$$

$$\mathbf{\Theta}^* = \arg\min_{\mathbf{\Theta} \in \mathbb{R}^2} \ell(\mathbf{\Theta})$$

where  $\ell:\mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  is defined as:

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$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \binom{2ax_i^2 - 2x_i y_i + 2bx_i}{2b - 2y_i + 2ax_i}$$

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A solution is found by setting  $\nabla_{\mathbf{\Theta}} \ell(\mathbf{\Theta}) = \mathbf{0}$ :

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We get 2 linear equations in the 2 unknowns a, b:

$$\left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} ax_{i}^{2} + bx_{i} - x_{i}y_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} ax_{i} + b - y_{i}}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The learning model of linear regression is linear in the parameters (while it is **not** linear in x, due to the bias).

Therefore, in matrix notation the equations  $y_i = ax_i + b$  read:

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{y}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x_1 & 1 \\ x_2 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ x_n & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{X}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$$

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**Remark:** Deep learning frameworks frequently use the alternative expression with the bias encoded separately:

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{Y}} = a \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{X}} + b$$

Familiarize with matrix calculus.

When implementing a ML system, we manipulate matrices, vectors, and tensors.

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This expresses all the equations  $y_i = ax_i + b$  at once and makes the linearity w.r.t. a, b evident.

The MSE is simply:

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta}\|_2^2$$

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Setting  $abla_{oldsymbol{ heta}}\ell=\mathbf{0}$  we get:

$$-2\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{y} + 2\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\theta} = \mathbf{0}$$

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This expresses all the equations  $y_i = ax_i + b$  at once and makes the linearity w.r.t. a, b evident.

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$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbf{y}^{\top} \mathbf{y} - 2 \mathbf{y}^{\top} \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\theta}$$

Setting  $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \ell = \mathbf{0}$  we get:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{y}$$

We get a closed form solution to our problem (aka normal equation).

#### Linear regression: Higher dimensions

Until now we have seen the case where:

$$y_i = ax_i + b$$
 for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ 

that is, each data point is one-dimensional (just one number).

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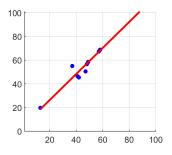
$$\mathbf{y}_i = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_i + \mathbf{b}$$
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Defining the matrices 
$$\boldsymbol{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mid} & \boldsymbol{\mid} & \boldsymbol{\mid} \\ \mathbf{x}_1 & \mathbf{x}_2 & \cdots \\ \boldsymbol{\mid} & \boldsymbol{\mid} & \boldsymbol{\mid} \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \boldsymbol{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mid} & \boldsymbol{\mid} & \boldsymbol{y}_1 \\ \mathbf{y}_1 & \mathbf{y}_2 & \cdots \\ \boldsymbol{\mid} & \boldsymbol{\mid} & \boldsymbol{\mid} \end{pmatrix}, \boldsymbol{\Theta} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{A} \\ \boldsymbol{b}^\top \end{pmatrix}$$

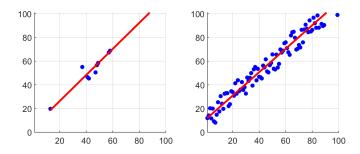
we get a closed-form solution to  $\nabla_{\mathbf{\Theta}} \ell(\mathbf{\Theta}) = \mathbf{0}$ :

$$\boldsymbol{\Theta} = (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\top)^{-1}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y}^\top$$

# Polynomial regression

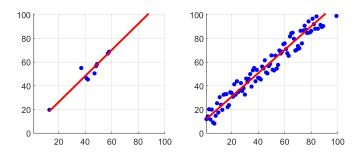


Assumption: linear model



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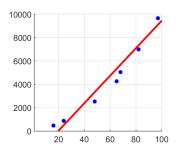
More data allows us to improve our prediction



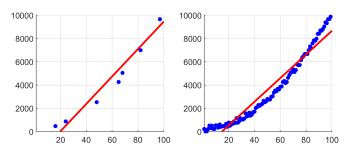
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More data allows us to improve our prediction

What if the assumption (i.e. linear prior here) is wrong?

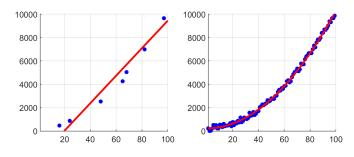


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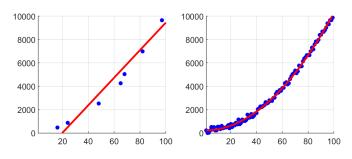


Assumption: linear model

More data confutes our assumptions



Assumption: quadratic model

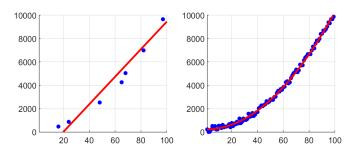


Assumption: quadratic model

#### Key questions:

• How to select the correct distribution?

### Data distribution

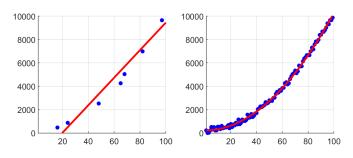


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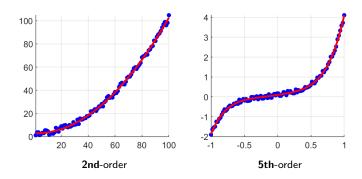


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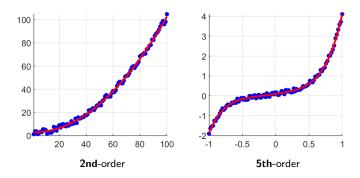
#### Key questions:

- How to select the correct distribution?
- How much data do we need?
- What if the correct distribution does not admit a simple expression?

After the linear model, the simplest thing is a polynomial model.

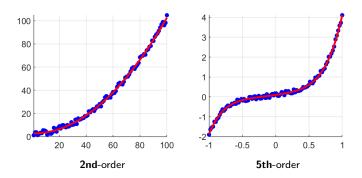


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The number of parameters grows with the order.

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The number of parameters grows with the order.

More data are needed to make an informed decision on the order.

$$y_i = a_3 x_i^3 + a_2 x_i^2 + a_1 x_i + b$$
 for all data points  $i = 1, \dots, n$ 

$$y_i = b + \sum_{j=1}^k a_j x_i^j$$
 for all data points  $i = 1, \dots, n$ 

$$y_i = \mathbf{b} + \sum_{j=1}^k \mathbf{a}_j x_i^j$$
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**Remark:** Despite the name, polynomial regression is still linear in the parameters. It is polynomial with respect to the data.

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In matrix notation:

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{y}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x_1^k & x_1^{k-1} & \cdots & x_1 & 1 \\ x_2^k & x_2^{k-1} & \cdots & x_2 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_n^k & x_n^{k-1} & \cdots & x_n & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{X}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a_k \\ a_{k-1} \\ \vdots \\ a_1 \\ b \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{\theta}}$$

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The same exact least-squares solution as with linear regression applies, with the requirement that k < n.

# Underfitting and overfitting

An application of the Stone-Weierstrass theorem tells us:

If f is continuous on the interval [a,b], then for every  $\epsilon>0$  there exists a polynomial p such that  $|f(x)-p(x)|<\epsilon$  for all x.

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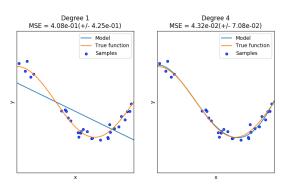
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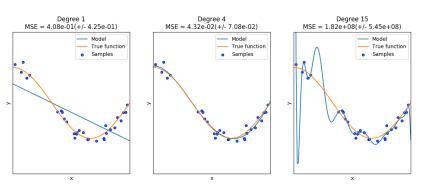
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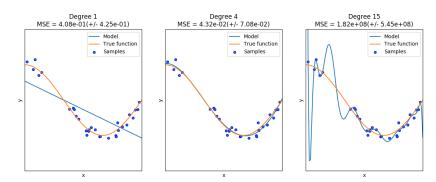


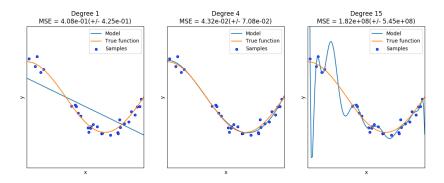
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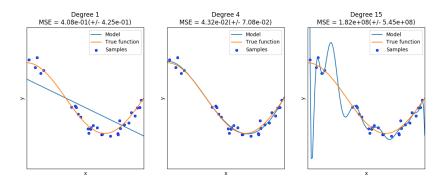
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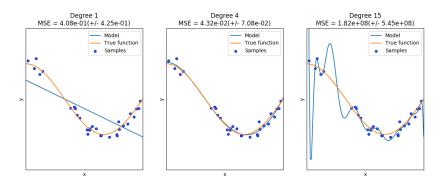




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Adding complexity can lead to overfitting and thus worse generalization.

### Mitigation measures:

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- 2 Large MSE ⇒ underfitting
- **3** Small MSE  $\Rightarrow$  Test on a validation set
- **4** Large MSE on the validation  $\Rightarrow$  overfitting  $\Rightarrow$  bad generalization

To recap, overfitting happens with small training error and large validation error

We do not want to overfit on the validation set either!



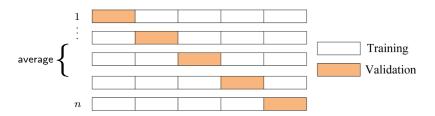
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**Example:** For polynomial regression, do the above many times with different degrees, choose the run with the smallest average MSE.

# Not done yet

"If f is continuous on the interval [a,b], then for every  $\epsilon>0$  there exists a polynomial p such that  $|f(x)-p(x)|<\epsilon$  for all x."

So is polynomial regression all we need?

# Not done yet

"If f is continuous on the interval [a,b], then for every  $\epsilon>0$  there exists a polynomial p such that  $|f(x)-p(x)|<\epsilon$  for all x."

So is polynomial regression all we need?

#### Not really!

- Different loss than MSE
- Regularization
- Additional priors
- Intermediate features
- Flexibility
- Regression (predict a value) vs. classification (predict a category)

### Regularization penalties

Sometimes our prior knowledge can be expressed in terms of an energy. For example, avoid large parameters to counteract overfitting:

$$\min_{\Theta} \underbrace{\ell_{\Theta}}_{\text{data term}} + \underbrace{\lambda}_{\text{trade-off}} \cdot \underbrace{\|\Theta\|_F^2}_{\text{regularizer}}$$

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More in general:

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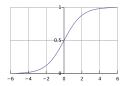
Instead: Modify the loss to minimize over categorical values directly.

New loss:

$$\ell_{\Theta}(\lbrace x_i, y_i \rbrace) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \sigma(\underbrace{ax_i + b}))^2$$

Here,  $\sigma$  is the nonlinear logistic sigmoid:

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

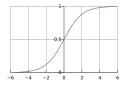


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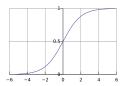
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New loss:

$$\ell_{\Theta}(\{x_i, y_i\}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \sigma(\underbrace{ax_i + b}))^2$$
 non-convex in  $a, b$ 

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New loss:

$$\ell_{\Theta}(\{x_i, y_i\}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c(x_i, y_i), \text{ with}$$

$$c(x_i, y_i) = \begin{cases} -\ln(\sigma(ax_i + b)) & y_i = 1\\ -\ln(1 - \sigma(ax_i + b)) & y_i = 0 \end{cases} \text{ convex}$$

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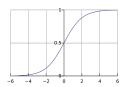
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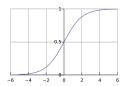
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New convex loss:

$$\ell_{\Theta}(\{x_i, y_i\}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \ln(\sigma(ax_i + b)) + (1 - y_i) \ln(1 - \sigma(ax_i + b))$$

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$$y_i \nabla_{\Theta} \underbrace{\ln(\sigma(ax_i + b))}_{f(g(h(\Theta)))} + (1 - y_i) \nabla_{\Theta} \ln(1 - \sigma(ax_i + b))$$

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Consider the gradient of each term in the summation:

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$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{a}} f(g(h(\mathbf{a}, b))) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial g} \cdot \frac{\partial g}{\partial h} \cdot \frac{\partial h}{\partial \mathbf{a}}$$

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$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{a}} f(g(h(\mathbf{a}, b))) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial g} \cdot \frac{e^{-(ax_i + b)}}{(1 + e^{-(ax_i + b)})^2} \cdot x_i$$

Since the loss is convex, the first-order conditions apply:

$$\nabla_{\Theta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \ln(\sigma(ax_i + b)) + (1 - y_i) \ln(1 - \sigma(ax_i + b)) = 0$$

where  $\Theta = \{a, b\}$ .

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$$\frac{\partial}{\partial a} f(g(h(a,b))) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial g} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(ax_i + b)}} \frac{(1 + e^{-(ax_i + b)}) - 1}{1 + e^{-(ax_i + b)}} \cdot x_i$$

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Apply the chain rule to each partial derivative:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial a}\ln(\sigma(\mathbf{a}x_i+b)) = (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{a}x_i+b))x_i$$

...and so on for the second term and for parameter b.

By looking at the partial derivative:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial a} \ln(\sigma(ax_i + b)) = (1 - \sigma(ax_i + b))x_i$$

we see that the parameters enter the gradient in a nonlinear way.

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#### Thus:

•  $\nabla \ell_{\Theta} = 0$  is not a linear system that we can solve easily.

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model	loss	solution
linear regression		
linear regression + Tikhonov		
logistic regression		

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model	loss	solution
linear regression	convex	
linear regression $+$ Tikhonov	convex	
logistic regression	convex	

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model	loss	solution
linear regression	convex	least squares
linear regression $+$ Tikhonov	convex	
logistic regression	convex	

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linear regression	convex	least squares
linear regression $+$ Tikhonov	convex	least squares
logistic regression	convex	

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model	loss	solution
linear regression	convex	least squares
linear regression $+$ Tikhonov	convex	least squares
logistic regression	convex	nonlinear optimization

### Suggested reading

For convexity and optimality, read Sections 3.1.1 and 3.1.3 of the book:

S. Boyd & L. Vandenberghe, "Convex optimization". Cambridge University Press, 2009

Public download link: https://web.stanford.edu/~boyd/cvxbook/bv\_cvxbook.pdf

On polynomial regression vs. neural nets:

https://ar5iv.org/abs/1806.06850

Proof that the logistic loss is convex:

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/1582452/

 ${\tt logistic-regression-prove-that-the-cost-function-is-convex}$