

# SWE404/DMT413

# BIG DATA ANALYTICS

Lecture 8: Classification and Regression Algorithms I

Lecturer: Dr. Yang Lu

Email: luyang@xmu.edu.my

Office: A1-432

Office hour: 2pm-4pm Mon & Thur

# Outlines

- Linear Regression
- Logistic Regression
- Neural Networks
- Support Vector Machines
- Machine Learning Related Issues

# LINEAR REGRESSION

# Data Representation

- For a given dataset, we usually use  $x$  to represent the features and  $y$  to represent the label. For the  $i$ th sample:

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{x}_i &= \left[ x_1^{(i)}, x_2^{(i)}, x_3^{(i)}, \dots, x_d^{(i)} \right]^T \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ y_i &\in \mathbb{R}\end{aligned}$$

- A dataset can be represented as:

$$\begin{aligned}X &= [\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{x}_2, \boldsymbol{x}_3, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d} \\ \boldsymbol{y} &= [y_1, y_2, y_3, \dots, y_n] \in \mathbb{R}^n\end{aligned}$$

- $\mathbb{R}$  is the domain of real number,  $d$  is the feature dimension and  $n$  is the number of samples.
- We use bold font to represent vector, and uppercase letter to represent matrix.
  - $x_i$  is the  $i$ th feature in  $\boldsymbol{x}$ , while  $\boldsymbol{x}_i$  is the  $i$ th sample in  $X$ .

# Linear Regression

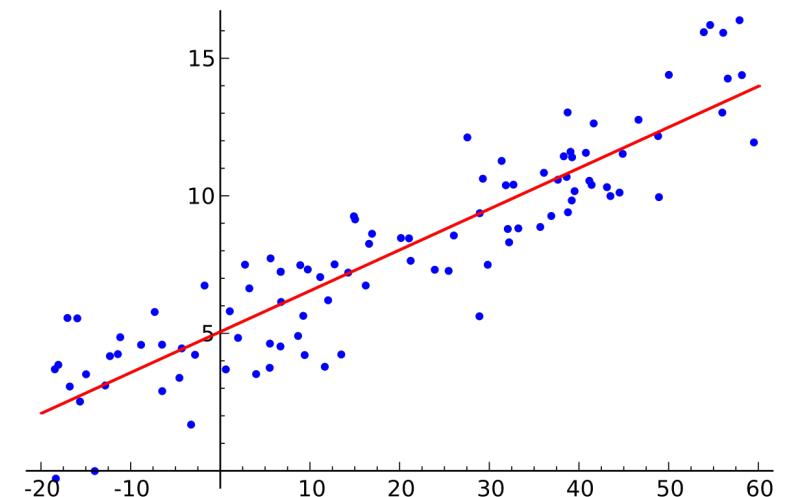
- Linear regression model can be represented by

$$\begin{aligned}f(\mathbf{x}) &= \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b \\&= w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + \cdots + w_d x_d + b\end{aligned}$$

- $\mathbf{w}$  is called the model *weights* or *coefficients*, and  $b$  is called the *bias* or *intercept*. Together they are called the model *parameters*.
- The goal of linear regression is to find  $w$  and  $b$  such that the following *cost function* (aka *loss function*) is minimized:

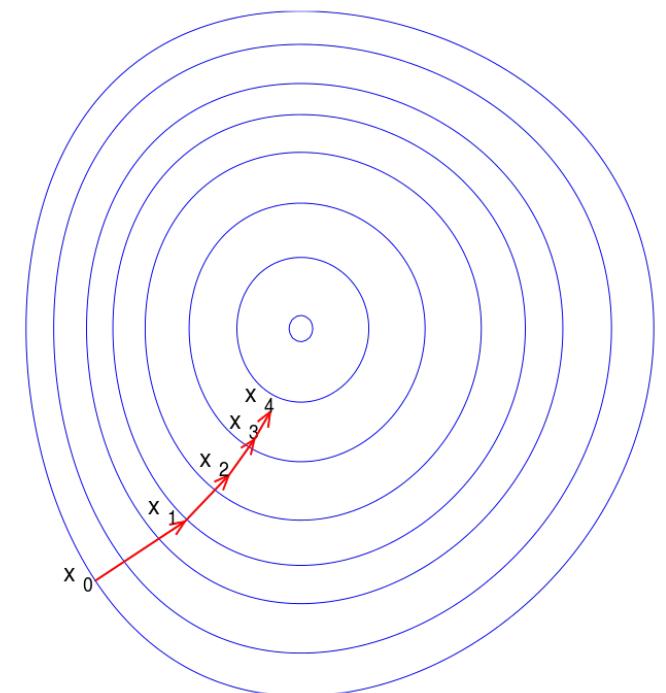
$$J = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f(x_i) - y_i)^2$$

- This cost function is also known as the Mean Squared Error (MSE) function.



# Gradient Descend

- The *gradient* vector is orthogonal to the tangent of a plane towards the greater value.
- Thus, the direction of negative gradient heads to the local minimum.
- We can update our model parameter by iteratively adding the negative gradient.



# Gradient Descent

- To solve this minimization problem, we calculate its partial derivatives:

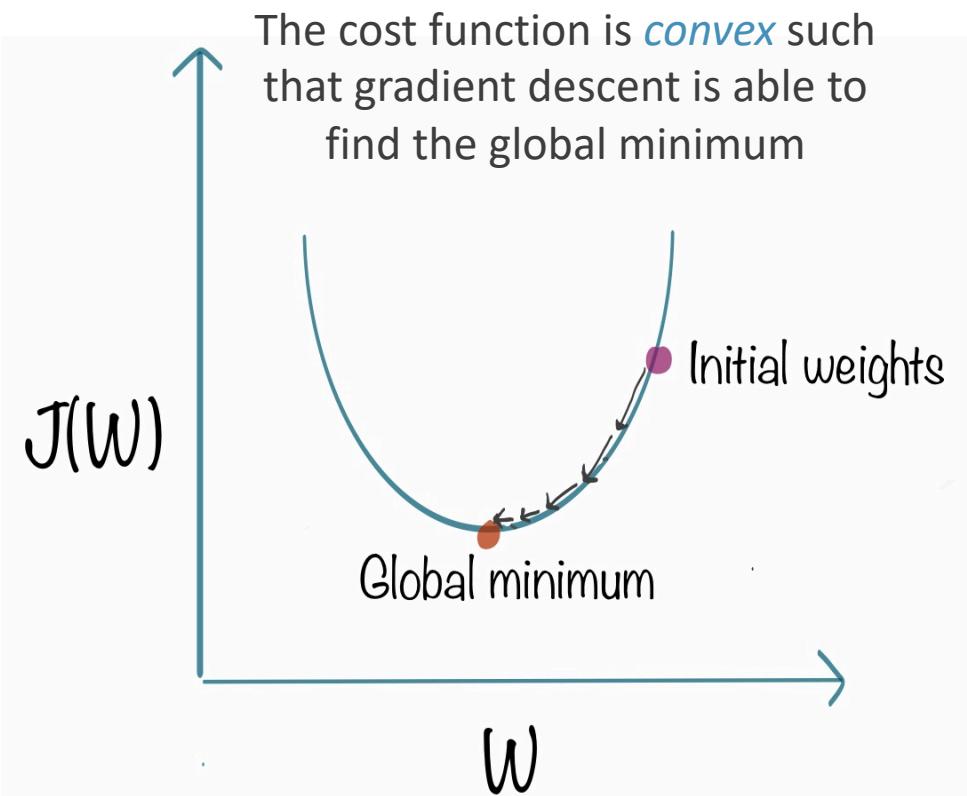
$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial w_i} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f(x_i) - y_i)x_i$$

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial b} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f(x_i) - y_i)$$

- Putting partial derivatives together in a vector is the gradient  $\nabla J(\mathbf{w})$ .
- Thus, the model weights can be iteratively updated by:

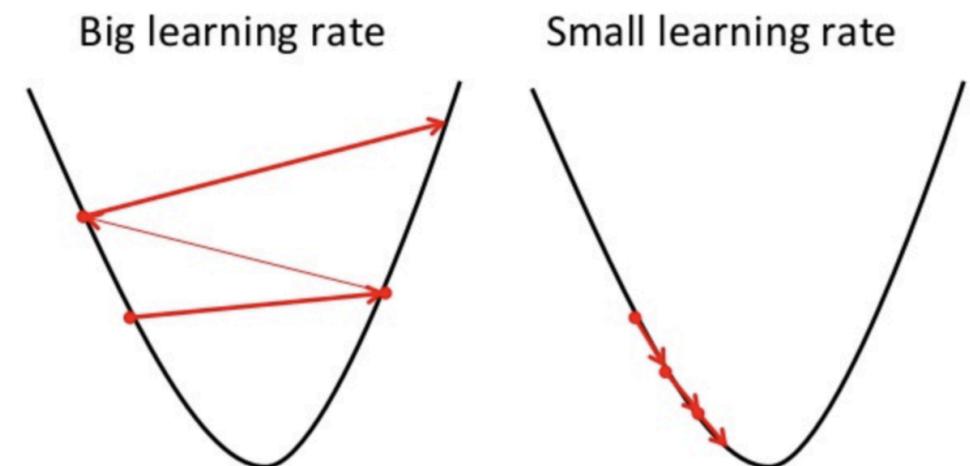
$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \eta \nabla J(\mathbf{w})$$

$$b \leftarrow b - \eta \frac{\partial J}{\partial b}$$



# Learning Rate

- In the above updating formula, The size of these steps  $\eta$  is called the *learning rate*.
  - With a high learning rate, we can go with large step, but we risk overshooting the lowest point and resulting in non-convergence.
  - With a very low learning rate, we can confidently move in the right direction, but calculating the gradient is time-consuming, so it will take us a very long time to get to the bottom.
- One strategy is to decrease the learning rate gradually on iteration.



# Advantages and Disadvantages

## ■ Advantages:

- The modeling speed is fast, does not require very complicated calculations, and runs fast when the amount of data is large.
- The understanding and interpretation of each variable can be given according to the model weight.

## ■ Disadvantages:

- Non-linear data cannot be well fitted. So you need to first determine whether the variables are linear. In real application, the target is seldomly linear with the features.

# MLlib API

```
class pyspark.ml.regression.LinearRegression(featuresCol='features', labelCol='label', predictionCol='prediction',  
maxIter=100, regParam=0.0, elasticNetParam=0.0, tol=1e-06, fitIntercept=True, standardization=True, solver='auto',  
weightCol=None, aggregationDepth=2, loss='squaredError', epsilon=1.35) [source]
```

- Commonly used hyperparameters:

- **maxIter**: max number of iterations ( $\geq 0$ ).
- **tol**: the convergence tolerance for iterative algorithms ( $\geq 0$ ).
- **regParam**: regularization parameter ( $\geq 0$ ).
- **elasticNetParam**: the ElasticNet mixing parameter, in range [0, 1]. For alpha = 0, the penalty is an L2 penalty. For alpha = 1, it is an L1 penalty.

# LIBSVM Data Format

- LIBSVM data format is one of the most commonly used data format for machine learning.
  - label 1:feature\_1 2:feature\_2 ...

```
training = spark.read.format("libsvm").load("sample_linear_regression_data.txt")
training.collect()

[Row(label=-9.490009878824548, features=SparseVector(10, {0: 0.4551, 1: 0.3664, 2: -0.3826, 3: -0.4458, 4: 0.3311, 5: 0.8067, 6: -0.2624, 7: -0.4485, 8: -0.0727, 9: 0.5658})),
 Row(label=0.2577820163584905, features=SparseVector(10, {0: 0.8387, 1: -0.127, 2: 0.4998, 3: -0.2269, 4: -0.6452, 5: 0.1887, 6: -0.5805, 7: 0.6519, 8: -0.6556, 9: 0.1749})),
 Row(label=-4.438869807456516, features=SparseVector(10, {0: 0.5026, 1: 0.1421, 2: 0.16, 3: 0.505, 4: -0.9372, 5: -0.2842, 6: 0.6356, 7: -0.1646, 8: 0.9481, 9: 0.4268})),
 Row(label=-19.782762789614537, features=SparseVector(10, {0: -0.0389, 1: -0.4167, 2: 0.8997, 3: 0.641, 4: 0.2733, 5: -0.2618, 6: -0.2795, 7: -0.1307, 8: -0.0854, 9: -0.0546})),
 Row(label=-7.966593841555266, features=SparseVector(10, {0: -0.062, 1: 0.6546, 2: -0.6979, 3: 0.6677, 4: -0.0794, 5: -0.4389, 6: -0.6081, 7: -0.6415, 8: 0.7314, 9: -0.0268}))]
```

1 -9.490009878824548 1:0.4551273600657362 2:0.36644694351969087  
3:-0.38256108933468047 4:-0.4458430198517267 5:0.33109790358914726  
6:0.8067445293443565 7:-0.2624341731773887 8:-0.44850386111659524  
9:-0.07269284838169332 10:0.5658035575800715  
2 0.2577820163584905 1:0.8386555657374337 2:-0.1270180511534269  
3:0.499812362510895 4:-0.22686625128130267 5:-0.6452430441812433  
6:0.18869982177936828 7:-0.5804648622673358 8:0.651931743775642  
9:-0.6555641246242951 10:0.17485476357259122  
3 -4.438869807456516 1:0.5025608135349202 2:0.14208069682973434  
3:0.16004976900412138 4:0.505019897181302 5:-0.9371635223468384  
6:-0.2841601610457427 7:0.6355938616712786 8:-0.1646249064941625  
9:0.9480713629917628 10:0.42681251564645817  
4 -19.782762789614537 1:-0.0388509668871313 2:-0.4166870051763918  
3:0.8997202693189332 4:0.6409836467726933 5:0.273289095712564  
6:-0.26175701211620517 7:-0.2794902492677298 8:-0.1306778297187794  
9:-0.08536581111046115 10:-0.05462315824828923  
5 -7.966593841555266 1:-0.06195495876886281 2:0.6546448480299902  
3:-0.6979368909424835 4:0.6677324708883314 5:-0.07938725467767771  
6:-0.43885601665437957 7:-0.608071585153688 8:-0.6414531182501653  
9:0.7313735926547045 10:-0.026818676347611925  
6 -7.896274316726144 1:-0.15805658673794265 2:0.26573958270655806  
3:0.3997172901343442 4:-0.3693430998846541 5:0.14324061105995334  
6:-0.25797542063247825 7:0.7436291919296774 8:0.6114618853239959  
9:0.2324273700703574 10:-0.25128128782199144

LIBSVM data format

# MLlib Example

```
from pyspark.ml.regression import LinearRegression

# Load training data
training = spark.read.format("libsvm").load("sample_linear_regression_data.txt")

lr = LinearRegression(maxIter=10, regParam=0.3, elasticNetParam=0.8)

# Fit the model
lrModel = lr.fit(training)

# Print the coefficients and intercept for linear regression
print("Coefficients: %s" % str(lrModel.coefficients))
print("Intercept: %s" % str(lrModel.intercept))

Coefficients: [0.0,0.32292516677405936,-0.3438548034562218,1.9156017023458414,0.05288058680386263,0.765962720459771,
0.0,-0.15105392669186682,-0.21587930360904642,0.22025369188813426]
Intercept: 0.1598936844239736
```



# MLlib Example

```
# Summarize the model over the training set and print out some metrics
trainingSummary = lrModel.summary
print("numIterations: %d" % trainingSummary.totalIterations)
print("objectiveHistory: %s" % str(trainingSummary.objectiveHistory))
trainingSummary.residuals.show(5)
print("RMSE: %f" % trainingSummary.rootMeanSquaredError)
print("r2: %f" % trainingSummary.r2)

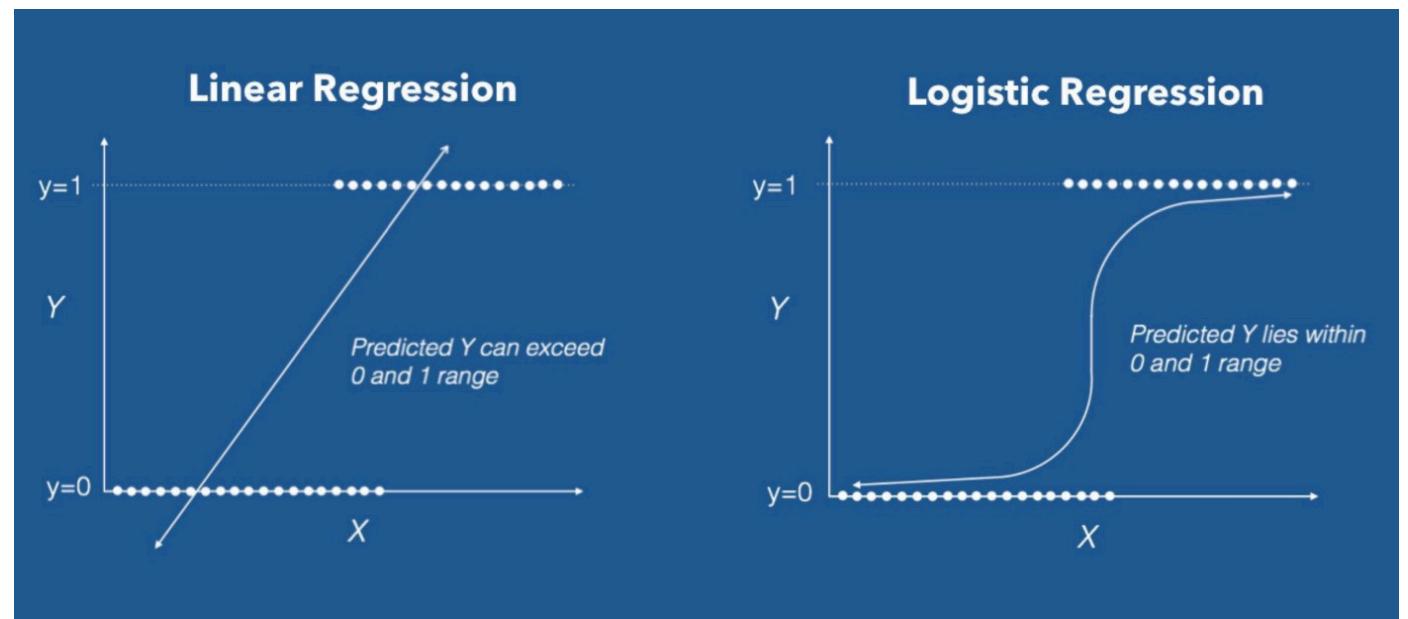
numIterations: 7
objectiveHistory: [0.4999999999999994, 0.4967620357443381, 0.4936361664340463, 0.4936351537897608, 0.493635121417787
1, 0.49363512062528014, 0.4936351206216114]
+-----+
|      residuals|
+-----+
| -9.889232683103197|
|  0.5533794340053554|
| -5.204019455758823|
| -20.566686715507508|
| -9.4497405180564|
+-----+
only showing top 5 rows

RMSE: 10.189077
r2: 0.022861
```

# LOGISTIC REGRESSION

# Logistic Regression

- How can we use linear regression to do classification?
- The range of linear regression model is  $(-\infty, +\infty)$ .
- Can we map it into the range  $[0, 1]$ ?



# Sigmoid Function

- We can make a new model by using the sigmoid function which maps  $(-\infty, +\infty)$  to  $[0, 1]$ :

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

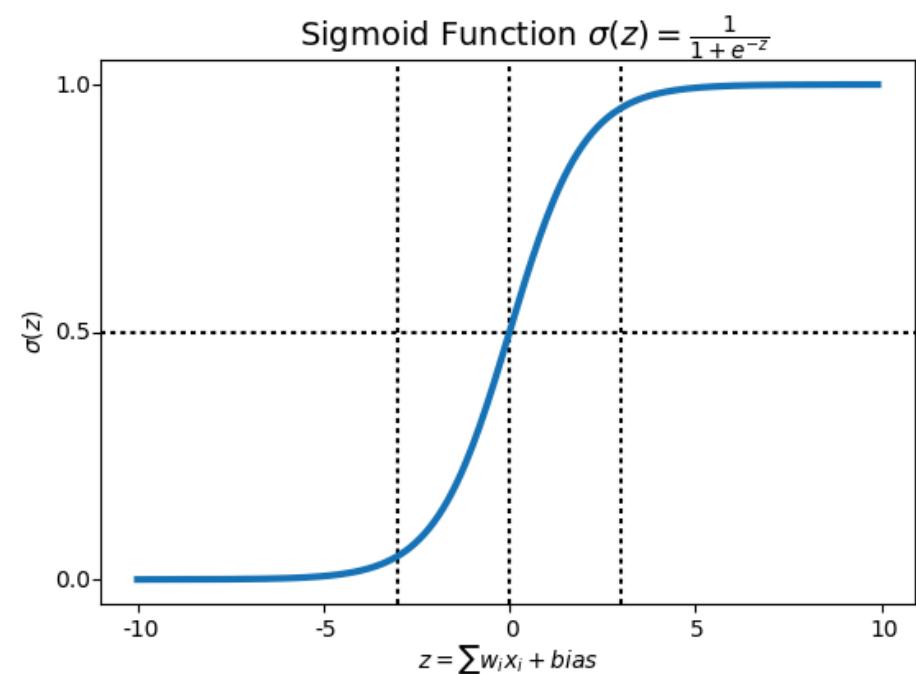
while  $z = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b$ .

- The sigmoid function can be used to represent the probability of each class:

$$P(y = 1|z) = \sigma(z)$$

$$P(y = 0|z) = 1 - \sigma(z)$$

- Now, if  $\sigma(z)$  is in  $[0, 1]$ .
  - If  $\sigma(z) < 0.5$ , we classify  $\mathbf{x}$  as 0.
  - If  $\sigma(z) \geq 0.5$ , we classify  $\mathbf{x}$  as 1.



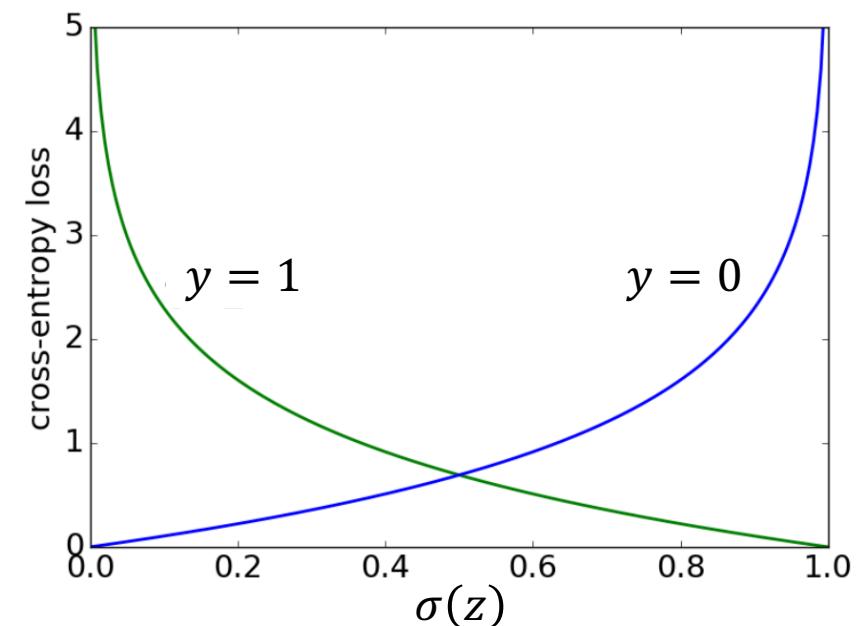
The sigmoid function is also called logistic function

# Cross-Entropy Cost Function

- MSE is no longer suitable for measuring the error for a classification problem.
- Instead, we use *cross-entropy cost function* (aka *log loss*):

$$J(z) = \begin{cases} -\log \sigma(z_i) & \text{if } y_i = 1 \\ -\log(1 - \sigma(z_i)) & \text{if } y_i = 0 \end{cases}$$
$$= -y_i \log \sigma(z_i) - (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \sigma(z_i))$$

- If you are interested in how this formula is derived, more details can be found here:  
<https://peterroelants.github.io/posts/cross-entropy-logistic/>



# Derivative of the Cross-Entropy Cost Function

- Calculate partial derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{\partial(-y \log \sigma - (1-y) \log(1-\sigma))}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{y}{\sigma} + \frac{1-y}{1-\sigma} = \frac{\sigma - y}{\sigma(1-\sigma)}$$

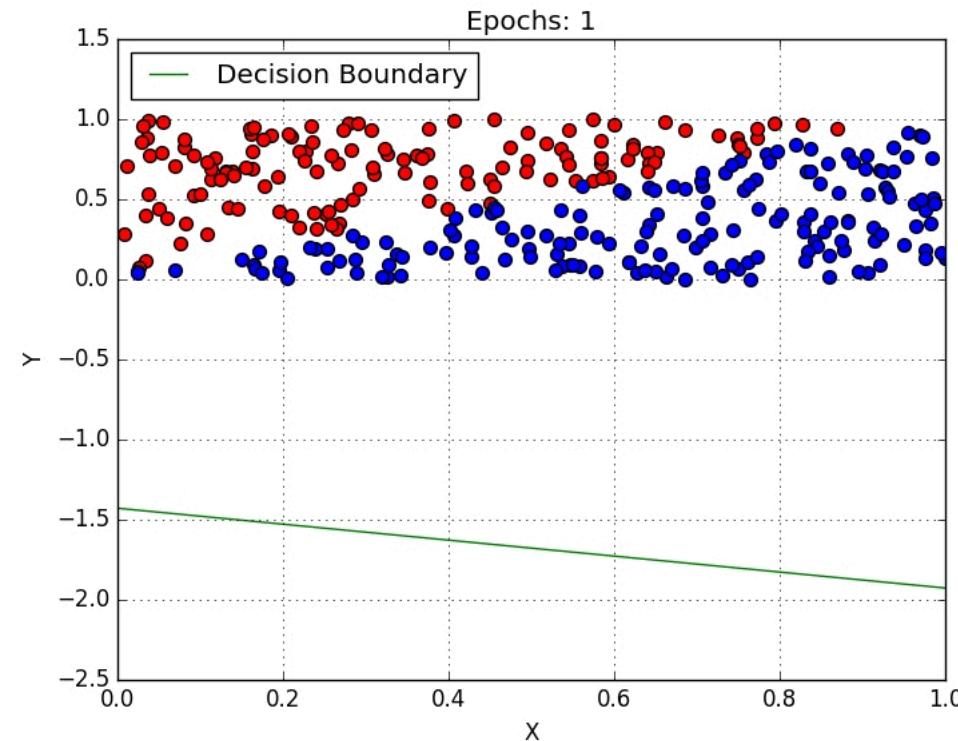
$$\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial \frac{1}{1+e^{-z}}}{\partial z} = \frac{e^{-z}}{(1+e^{-z})^2} = \sigma(1-\sigma).$$

- By the chain rule, we have:

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial J}{\partial \sigma} \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial z} = \frac{\sigma - y}{\sigma(1-\sigma)} \sigma(1-\sigma) = \sigma - y.$$

- Then, we can easily get  $\partial J / \partial w_i$  and  $\partial J / \partial b$  by using chain rule again with  $\partial z / \partial w_i$  and  $\partial z / \partial b$ .

# Iteration with Gradient Descend



# Advantages and Disadvantages

- Advantages:

- Easy to implement, interpret and very efficient to train.
- Can be used to train extremely large dataset.

- Disadvantages:

- Sometimes too simple to capture the complex relationships between features.
- Does poorly with correlated features.

# MLlib API

```
class pyspark.ml.classification.LogisticRegression(featuresCol='features', labelCol='label',
predictionCol='prediction', maxIter=100, regParam=0.0, elasticNetParam=0.0, tol=1e-06, fitIntercept=True, threshold=0.5,
thresholds=None, probabilityCol='probability', rawPredictionCol='rawPrediction', standardization=True, weightCol=None,
aggregationDepth=2, family='auto', lowerBoundsOnCoefficients=None, upperBoundsOnCoefficients=None,
lowerBoundsOnIntercepts=None, upperBoundsOnIntercepts=None) [source]
```

- Commonly used hyperparameters:
  - **maxIter**, **regParam**, **elasticNetParam**, **tol** are same as linear regression.
  - **family**: The name of family which is a description of the label distribution to be used in the model.  
Supported options: auto, binomial, multinomial.
  - **threshold**: Threshold in binary classification prediction, in range [0, 1].

# MLlib Example

```
from pyspark.ml.classification import LogisticRegression

# Load training data
training = spark.read.format("libsvm").load("sample_libsvm_data.txt")

lr = LogisticRegression(maxIter=10, regParam=0.3, elasticNetParam=0.8)

# Fit the model
lrModel = lr.fit(training)

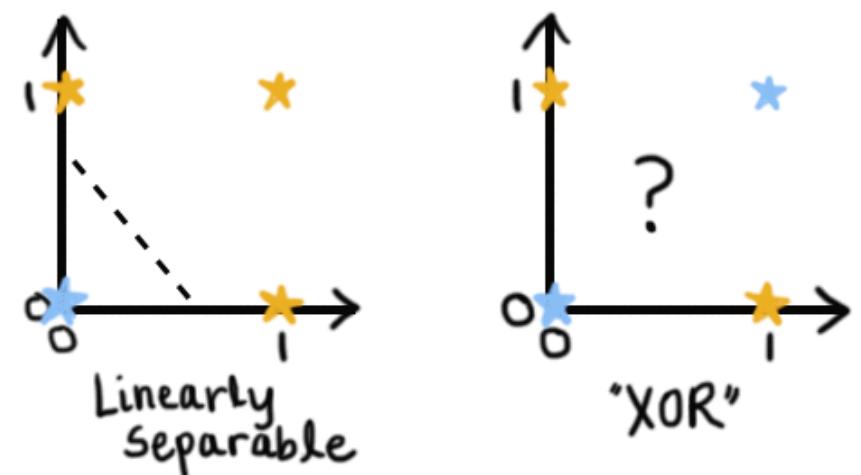
# Print the coefficients and intercept for logistic regression
print("Coefficients: " + str(lrModel.coefficients))
print("Intercept: " + str(lrModel.intercept))

Coefficients: (692,[244,263,272,300,301,328,350,351,378,379,405,406,407,428,433,434,455,456,461,462,483,484,489,490,496,511,512,517,539,540,568],[-7.353983524188197e-05,-9.102738505589466e-05,-0.00019467430546904298,-0.00020300642473486668,-3.1476183314863995e-05,-6.842977602660743e-05,1.5883626898239883e-05,1.4023497091372047e-05,0.00035432047524968605,0.00011443272898171087,0.0001001671238366666,0.0006014109303795481,0.0002840248179122762,-0.00011541084736508837,0.000385996886312906,0.000635019557424107,-0.00011506412384575676,-0.00015271865864986808,0.0002804933808994214,0.006070117471191634,-0.0002008459663247437,-0.0001421075579290126,0.0002739010341160883,0.00027730456244968115,-9.838027027269332e-05,-0.0003808522443517704,-0.00025315198008555033,0.00027747714770754307,-0.0002443619763919199,-0.0015394744687597765,-0.00023073328411331293])
Intercept: 0.22456315961250325
```

# NEURAL NETWORKS

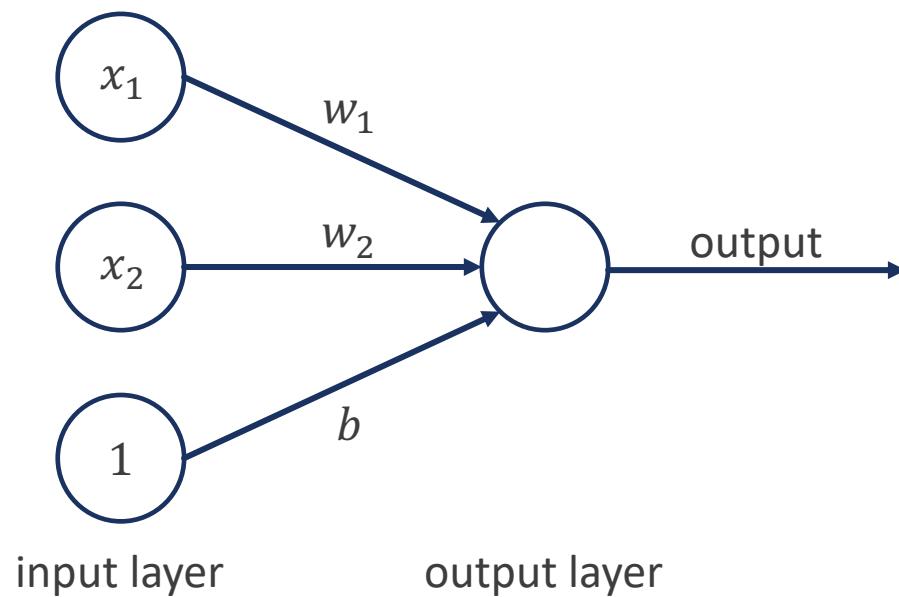
# XOR Problem

- XOR is short for exclusive or operation:
$$\begin{aligned}XOR(0, 0) &= 0 & XOR(1, 1) &= 0 \\XOR(1, 0) &= 1 & XOR(0, 1) &= 1\end{aligned}$$
- Using a linear model (a line in 2d or a plane in 3d) can never correctly classify the XOR problem.



# Perceptron Model

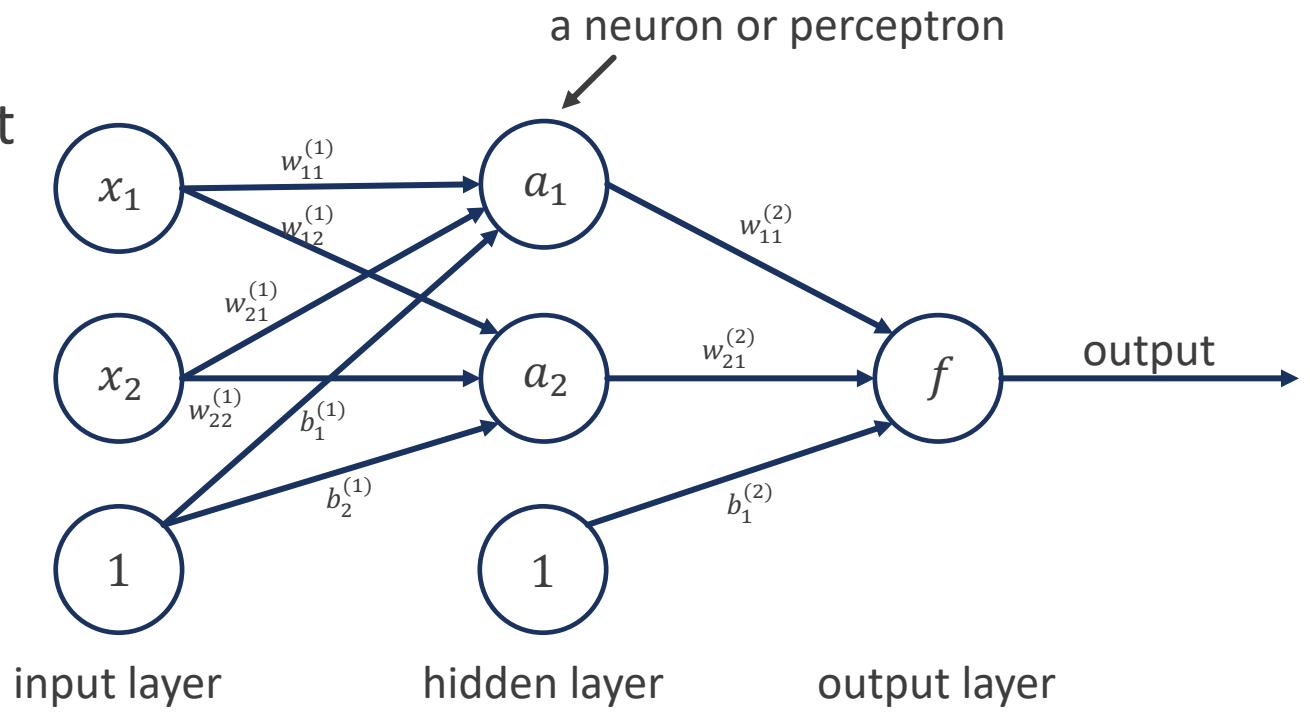
- The previous linear model is also called perceptron model.
- This model has an input layer and an output layer.



# Multilayer Perceptrons

- The hidden layer is used as the input of output layer.
- However, this model is still linear because

$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= w_{11}^{(2)} a_1 + w_{21}^{(2)} a_2 + b_1^{(2)} \\&= w_{11}^{(2)} \left( w_{11}^{(1)} x_1 + w_{21}^{(1)} x_2 + b_1^{(1)} \right) \\&\quad + w_{21}^{(2)} \left( w_{12}^{(1)} x_1 + w_{22}^{(1)} x_2 + b_2^{(1)} \right) \\&= (\dots) x_1 + (\dots) x_2 + b\end{aligned}$$



# Non-Linearity

- For the output of each layer, we add an function to make it non-linear. This function is called *activation function*.
- Activation function is required to be derivable such that it will not influence the use of gradient descend.
- We can use sigmoid function as the activation function.

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

- The alternatives are tanh and ReLU, which are commonly adopted in deep neural networks.

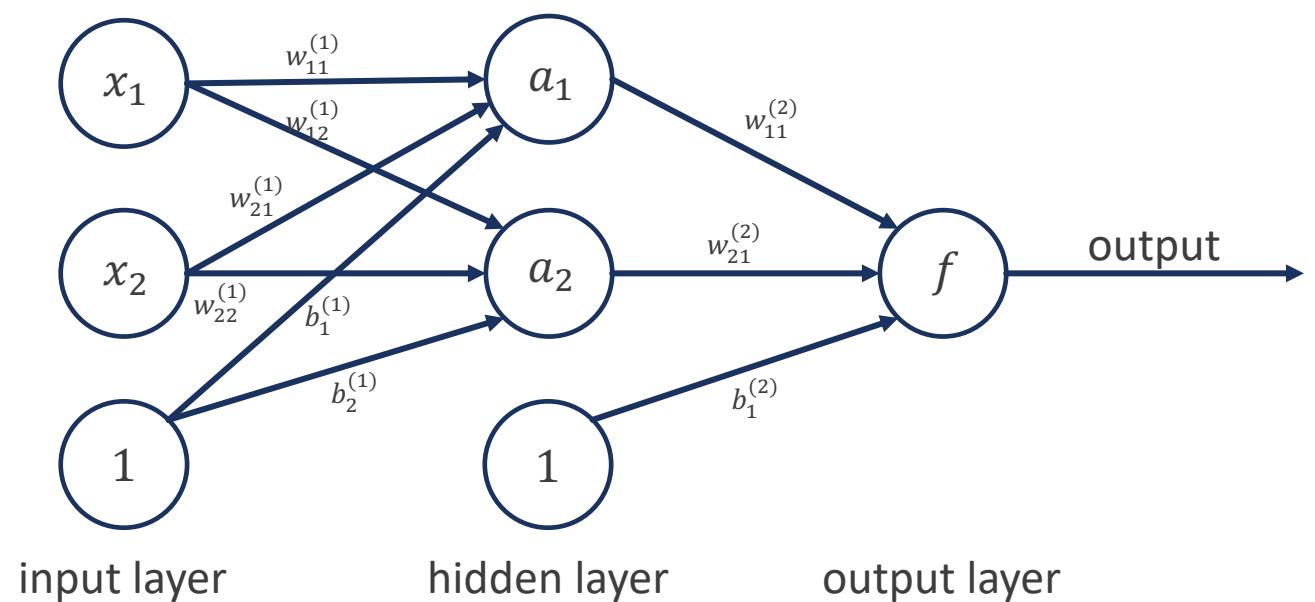
# Non-Linearity

- Thus, we have:

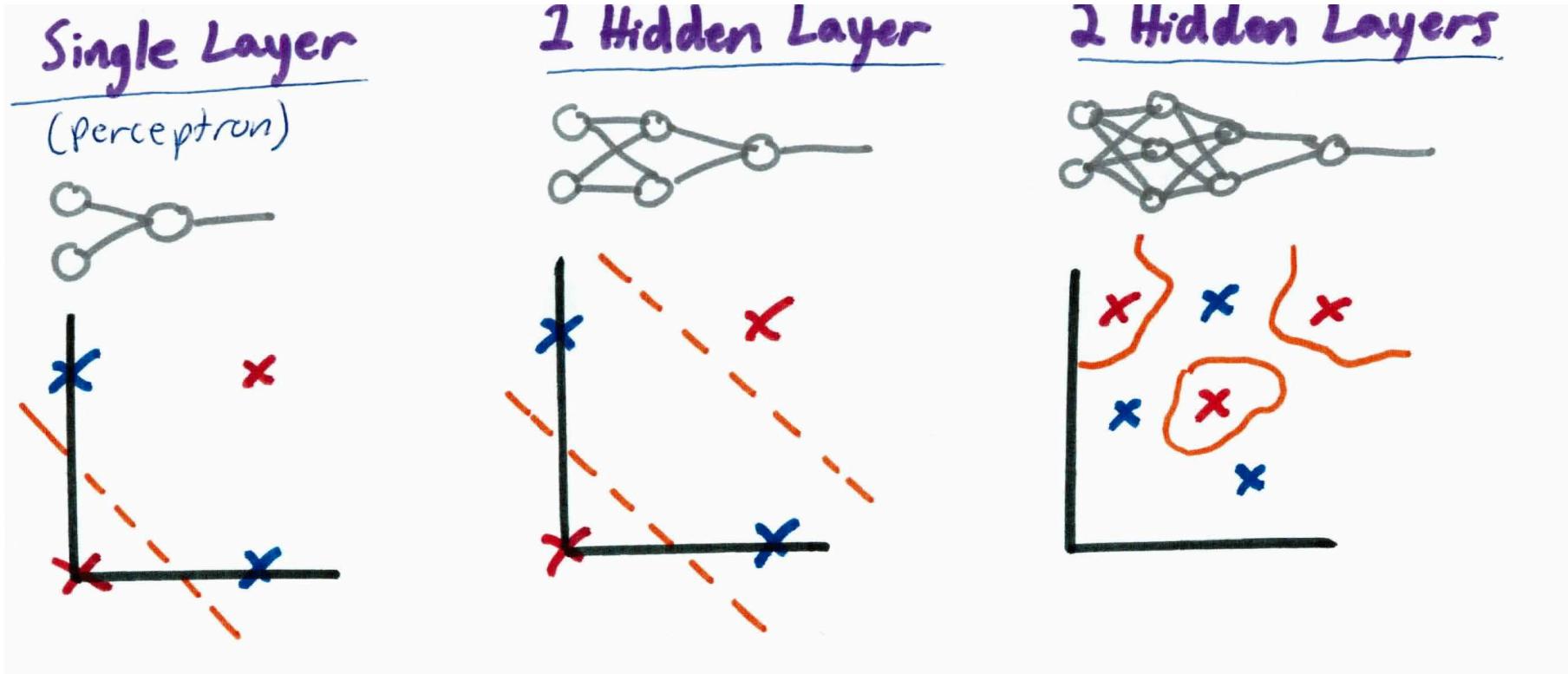
$$a_1 = \sigma(w_{11}^{(1)}x_1 + w_{21}^{(1)}x_2 + b_1^{(1)})$$

$$a_2 = \sigma(w_{21}^{(1)}x_1 + w_{22}^{(1)}x_2 + b_2^{(1)})$$

$$f(x) = \sigma(w_{11}^{(2)}a_1 + w_{21}^{(2)}a_2 + b_1^{(2)}).$$

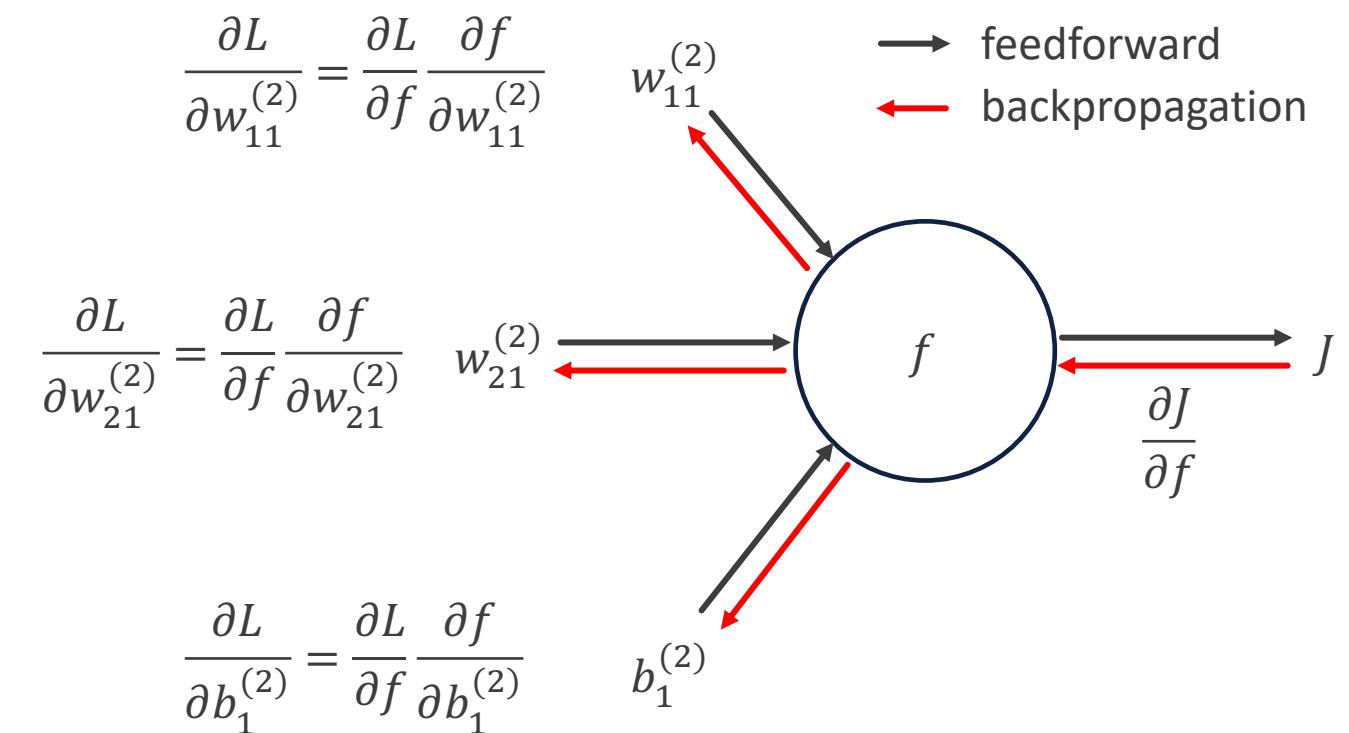


# Non-Linearity



# Backpropagation

- We *feedforward* the information from one layer to another layer, to produce an output.
- We pass the errors backwards so the network can learn by adjusting the weights of the network.
  - *Backpropagation* stands for *backward propagation of errors*.



# Backpropagation

- Making use of the chain rule of calculus, we can express the gradient of  $J$  with respect to the weights and biases as.
- For a multilayer perceptron model with one hidden layer.
  - $w_{ij}^{(1)}$  is the weight connecting the  $i$ th feature in the input layer and the  $j$ th neuron in the hidden layer.
  - $w_{ij}^{(2)}$  is the weight connecting the  $i$ th neuron in the hidden layer and the  $j$ th neuron in the output layer.

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial w_{ij}^{(2)}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial f} \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_{ij}^{(2)}}$$
$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial w_{ij}^{(1)}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial f} \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_{ij}^{(1)}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial f} \frac{\partial f}{\partial a_i} \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial w_{ij}^{(1)}}$$

# Multiclass Classification by Neural Networks

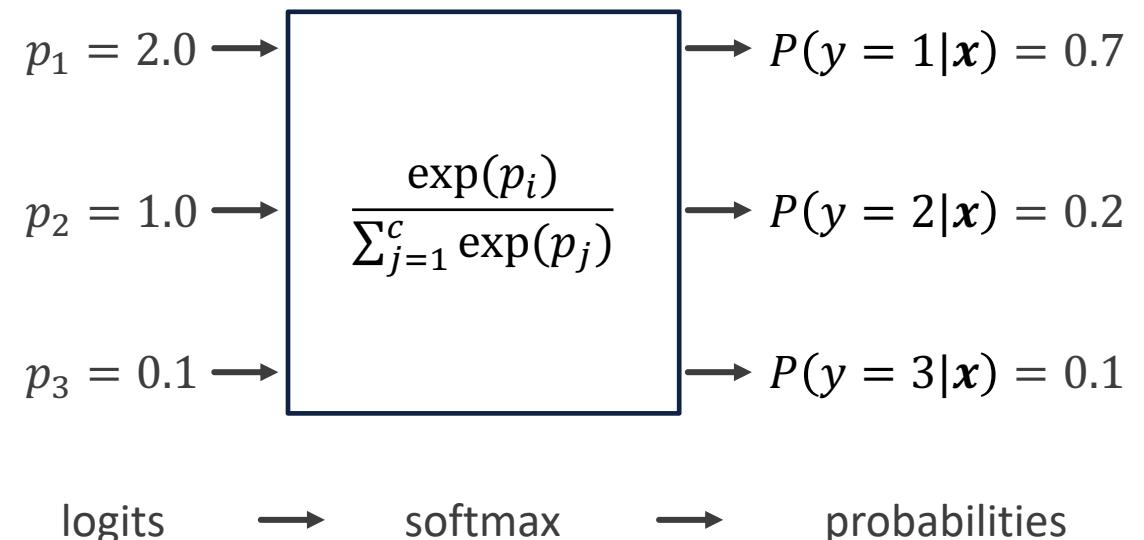
- For a binary classification problem, only one neuron in the output layer is enough.
  - It generates the probability of 0/1.
- For multiclass classification, we may have multiple neurons in the output layer. Each of them generates a score of one class.
  - Then we take the one with maximum score as the predicted class.
- However, the maximum operator is not derivable.

# Softmax Function

- The *softmax function* is calculated by:

$$P(y = i|x) = \frac{\exp(p_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^c \exp(p_j)}$$

- $p_i$  is the score of the  $i$ th class. They are called the *logits*.
  - E.g.  $p_i = w_{1i}^{(2)}a_1 + w_{2i}^{(2)}a_2 + b_i^{(2)}$  for the previous example.
- When there are only two classes, softmax function reduces to sigmoid function.



# Advantages and Disadvantages

- Advantages:
  - Can handle extremely complex tasks, e.g. image recognition.
  - It has the ability to learn any non-linear functions, if the network is deep enough.
- Disadvantages:
  - Difficult to interpret. The model is like a black box.
  - Very high demand of computational resources.
  - There is no specific rule for determining the structure of artificial neural networks. The appropriate network structure is achieved through experience and trial and error.

# MLlib API

```
class pyspark.ml.classification.MultilayerPerceptronClassifier(featuresCol='features', labelCol='label',  
predictionCol='prediction', maxIter=100, tol=1e-06, seed=None, layers=None, blockSize=128, stepSize=0.03, solver='l-bfgs',  
initialWeights=None, probabilityCol='probability', rawPredictionCol='rawPrediction') [source]
```

- Each layer has sigmoid activation function, output layer has softmax.
- Number of inputs has to be equal to the size of feature vectors. Number of outputs has to be equal to the total number of labels.
- Commonly used hyperparameters:
  - **layers**: Sizes of layers from input layer to output layer E.g., [780, 100, 10] means 780 inputs, one hidden layer with 100 neurons and output layer of 10 neurons.
  - **blockSize**: Block size for stacking input data in matrices. Data is stacked within partitions. Recommended size is between 10 and 1000, default is 128.
  - **stepSize**: Step size to be used for each iteration of optimization ( $\geq 0$ ).

# MLlib Example

```
from pyspark.ml.classification import MultilayerPerceptronClassifier
from pyspark.ml.evaluation import MulticlassClassificationEvaluator

# Load training data
data = spark.read.format("libsvm").load("sample_multiclass_classification_data.txt")

# Split the data into train and test
train, test = data.randomSplit([0.6, 0.4], 1234)

# specify layers for the neural network:
# input layer of size 4 (features), two intermediate of size 5 and 4
# and output of size 3 (classes)
layers = [4, 5, 4, 3]

# create the trainer and set its parameters
trainer = MultilayerPerceptronClassifier(maxIter=100, layers=layers, blockSize=128, seed=1234)

# train the model
model = trainer.fit(train)

# compute accuracy on the test set
result = model.transform(test)
predictionAndLabels = result.select("prediction", "label")
evaluator = MulticlassClassificationEvaluator(metricName="accuracy")
print("Test set accuracy = " + str(evaluator.evaluate(predictionAndLabels)))

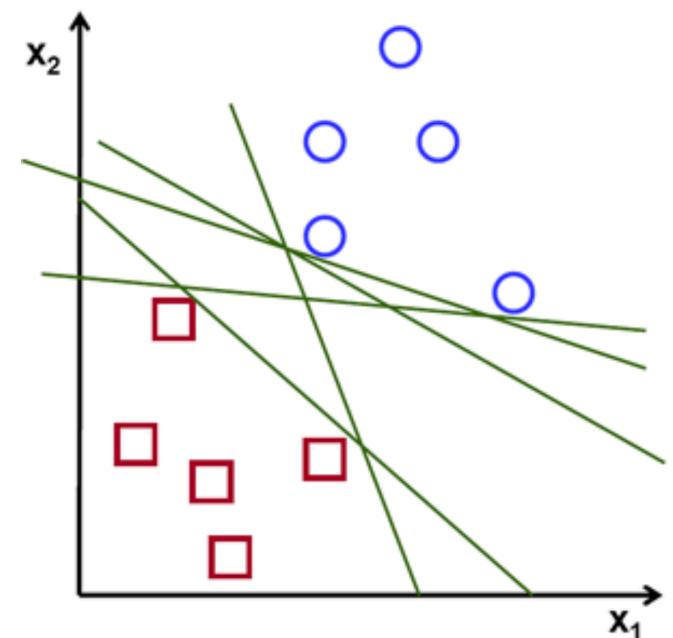
Test set accuracy = 0.9019607843137255
```



# SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES

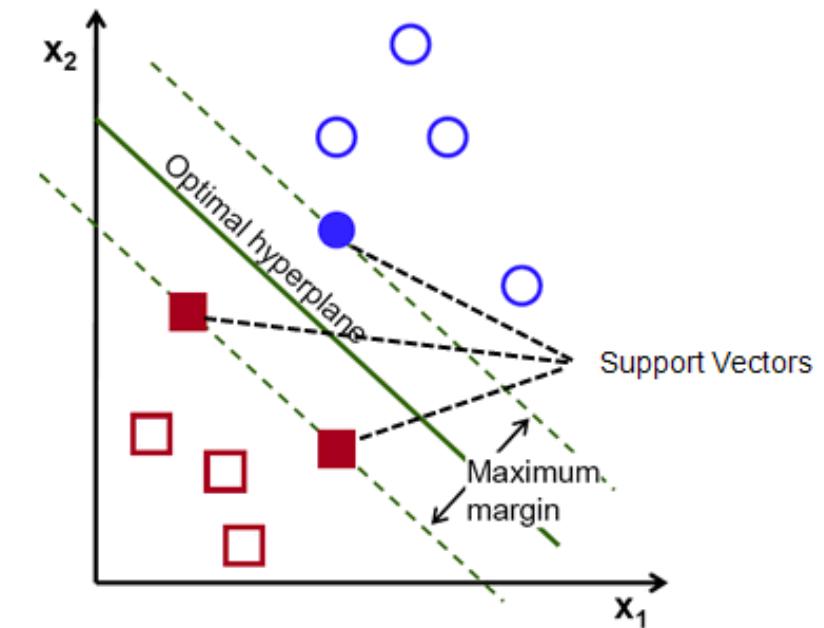
# Optimal Classification Hyperplane

- For the same training data, we may find several different classification hyperplane that has the same error rate.
  - They have the same training error, but when given unknown test data, the test error is different.
- Is there a criterion to select the best hyperplane, such that it has highest probability to correctly classify the unknown test data?



# Optimal Classification Hyperplane

- One criterion is to maximize the margin between the hyperplane and the nearest samples.
- A classification model with such optimal hyperplane will have good *generalization ability*.
  - A model with poor generalization ability performs well on the training data but poorly on the test data.
  - A model with good generalization ability performs well on both the training data and the test data.



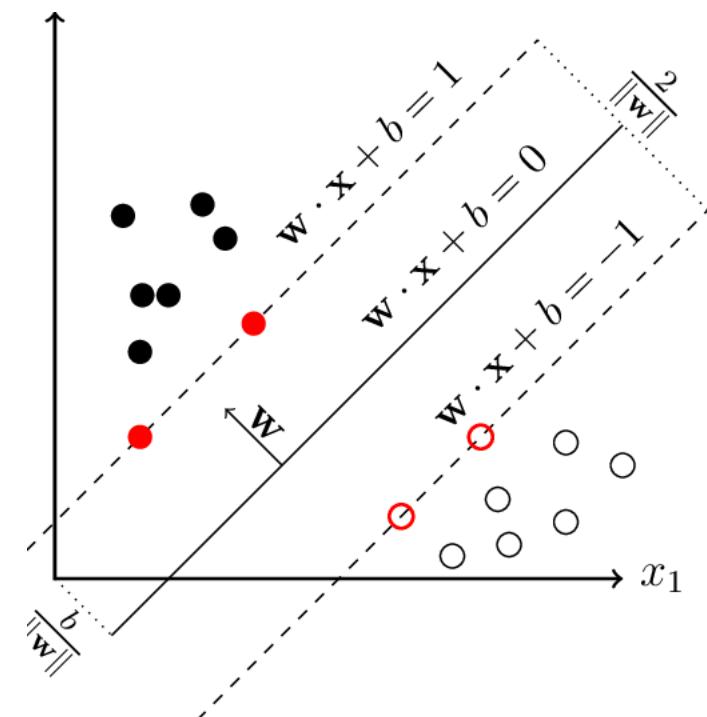
# SVM Optimization

- The hyperplane can be represented as  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = 0$ .
- The optimization of maximizing margin can be derived as:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \quad & \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \\ \text{s. t.} \quad & y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1 \\ & \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned}$$

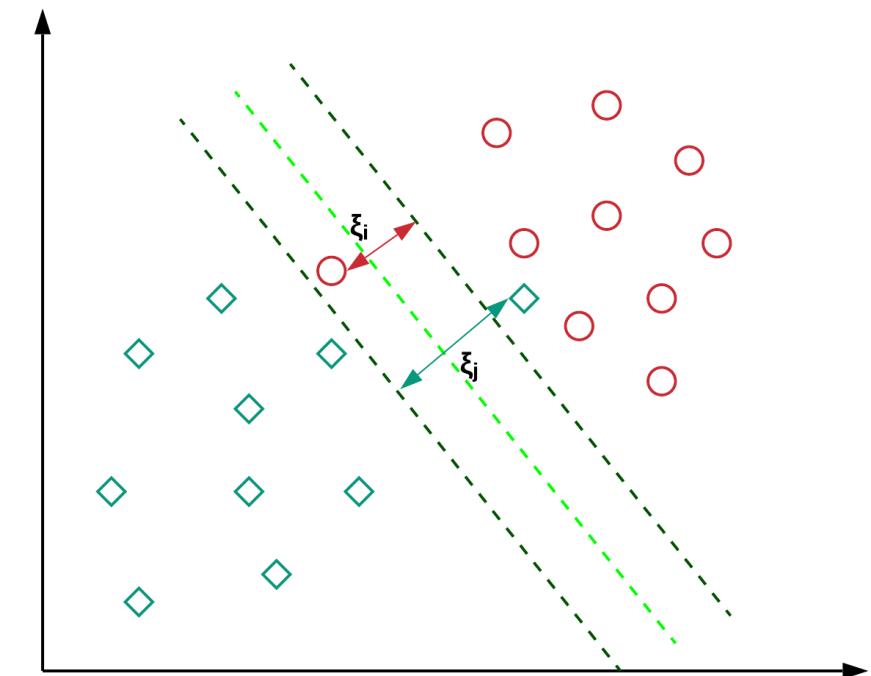
where  $\|\mathbf{w}\|^2 = w_1^2 + w_2^2 + \dots + w_d^2$ .

- $y_i$  needs to be converted to +1/-1 from 1/0.
- This is a quadratic programming problem.
- However, if the training data is not linearly separable, we will not be able to find a hyperplane satisfying the condition.



# Soft Margin SVM

- For every data point  $x_i$ , we introduce a *slack variable*  $\xi_i$ .
- The value of  $\xi_i$  is the distance of  $x_i$  from its corresponding class's margin if  $x_i$  is on the wrong side of the margin, otherwise zero.
- The points that are far away from the margin on the wrong side would get more penalty.

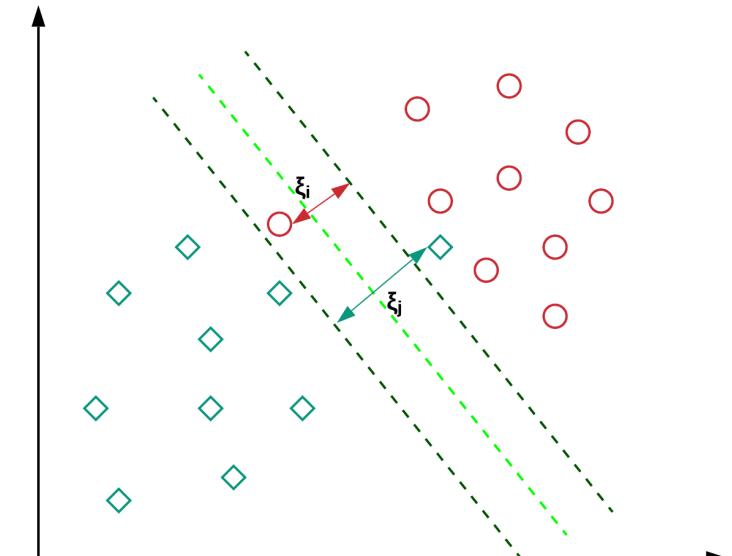


# Soft Margin SVM

- The optimization of maximizing margin can be modified to the soft margin version:

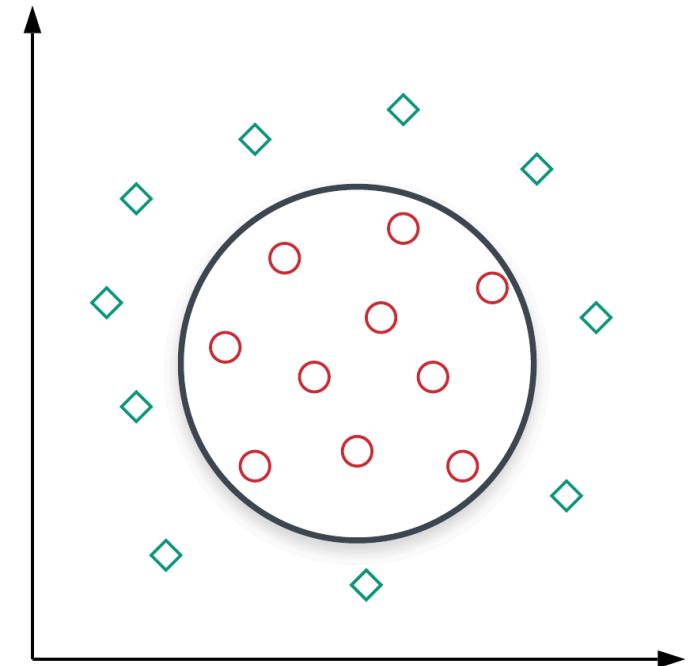
$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \quad & \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \\ \text{s. t.} \quad & y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i \\ & \xi_i \geq 0 \\ & \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned}$$

- $C$  is a hyperparameter that decides the trade-off between maximizing the margin and minimizing the mistakes.
  - Small  $C$  gives less importance to classification mistakes and focuses more on maximizing the margin.
  - Large  $C$  focuses more on avoiding misclassification at the expense of keeping the margin small.



# Kernel SVM

- The previous version of SVM is still a linear model.
- It will never correctly classify the data like this.



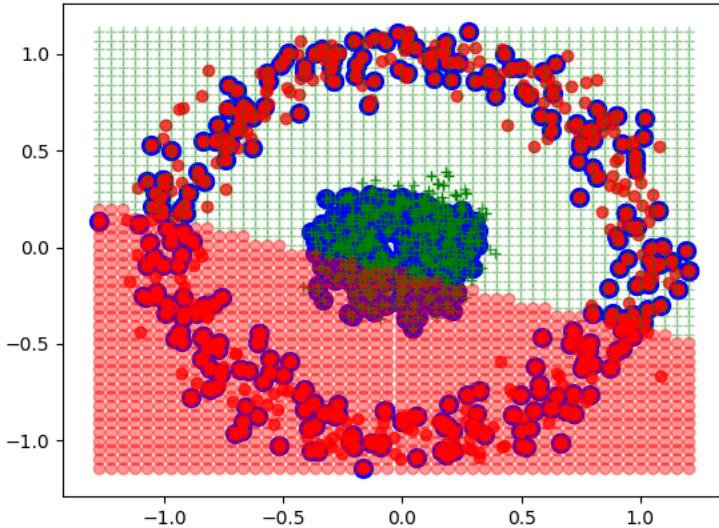
# Kernel SVM

- The previous optimization problem is solved with Lagrange multiplier. Its dual optimization problem is:

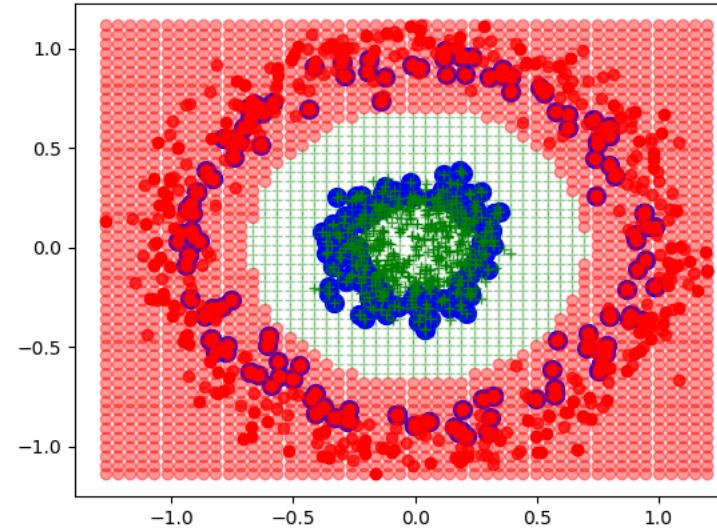
$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\alpha} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j \rangle \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C, \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n \\ & \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{aligned}$$

- $\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j \rangle$  is the inner product between the  $i$ th and  $j$ th sample, also called the linear kernel.
- Replacing  $\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j \rangle$  to a kernel function  $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$  will produce non-linear hyperplane.

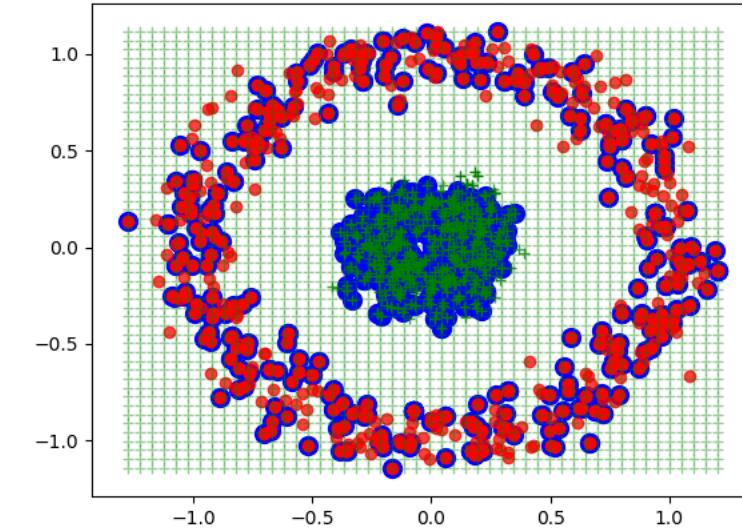
SVM with CVXOPT, C=0.01 kernel=linear\_kernel: accuracy=0.59



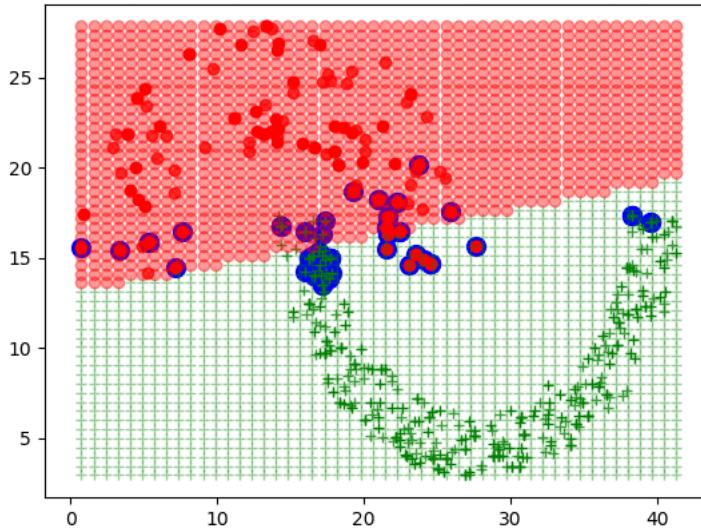
SVM with CVXOPT, C=0.01 kernel=polynomial\_kernel: accuracy=1.00



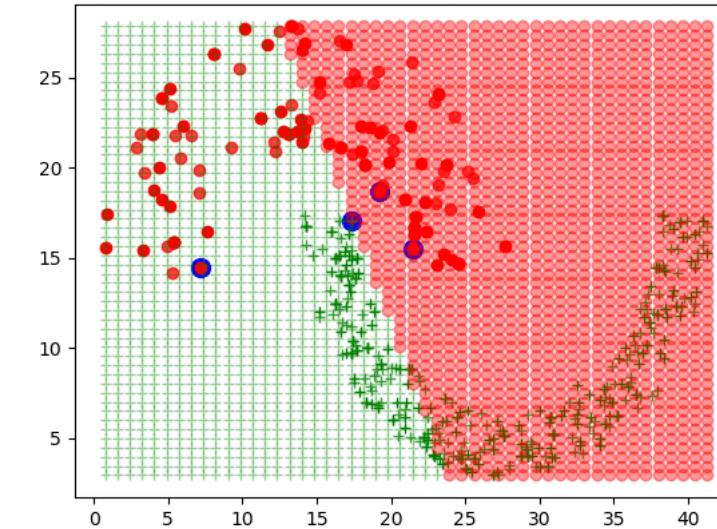
SVM with CVXOPT, C=0.01 kernel=gaussian\_kernel: accuracy=0.48



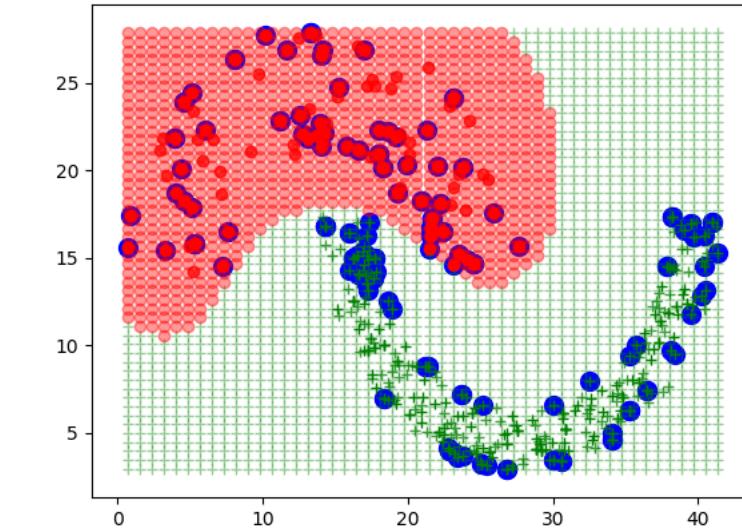
SVM with CVXOPT, C=0.01 kernel=linear\_kernel: accuracy=0.97



SVM with CVXOPT, C=0.01 kernel=polynomial\_kernel: accuracy=0.38



SVM with CVXOPT, C=0.01 kernel=gaussian\_kernel: accuracy=1.00

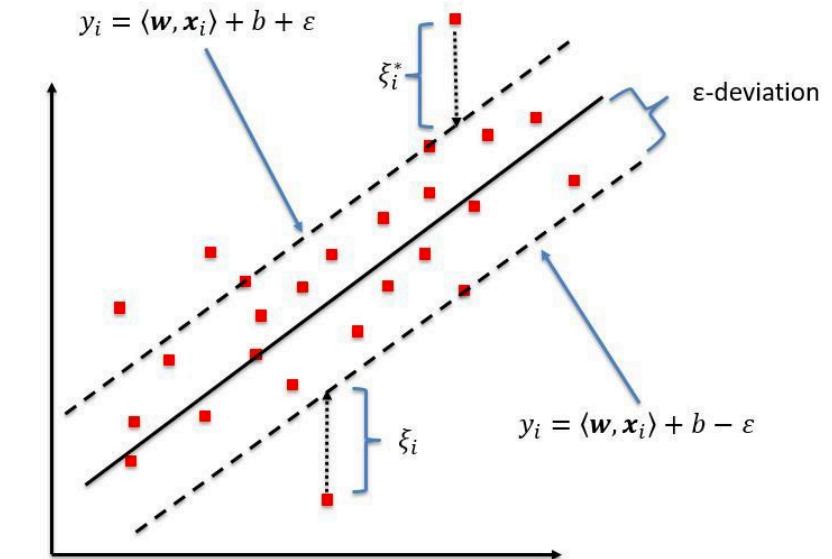


# Support Vector Regression

- Use the same idea as SVM.
- The goal is to find a function  $f(x)$  that has at most  $\varepsilon$  deviation from the actually obtained targets  $y_i$  for all the training data, and at the same time is as flat as possible.

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \quad & \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n (\xi_i + \xi_i^*) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & y_i - (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \leq \varepsilon + \xi_i \\ & (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) - y_i \leq \varepsilon + \xi_i^* \\ & \xi_i, \xi_i^* \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

- It is also called  $\varepsilon$ -SVR.



# Advantages and Disadvantages

- Advantages:
  - SVM works relatively well when there is clear margin of separation between classes.
  - With kernel trick, SVM is able to capture complex feature relationship.
- Disadvantages:
  - SVM algorithm is not suitable for large data sets. Training is very time-consuming.
  - SVM does not perform very well, when the data set has more noise i.e. target classes are overlapping.
  - No probabilistic explanation for the classification.

# MLlib

```
class pyspark.ml.classification.LinearSVC(featuresCol='features', labelCol='label', predictionCol='prediction',  
maxIter=100, regParam=0.0, tol=1e-06, rawPredictionCol='rawPrediction', fitIntercept=True, standardization=True,  
threshold=0.0, weightCol=None, aggregationDepth=2) ¶
```

[source]

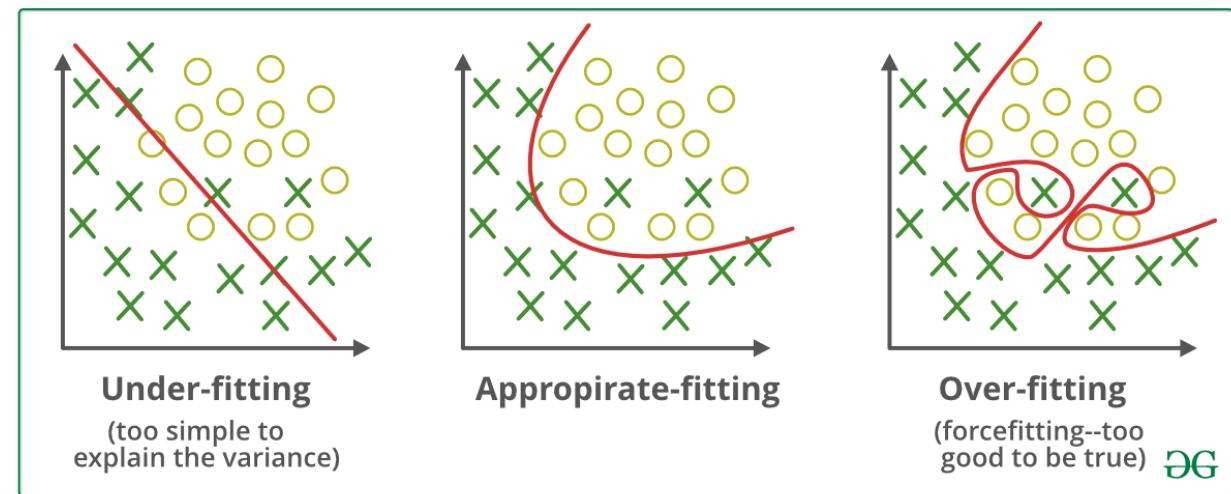
- MLlib only supports simple linear SVM.
- Kernel SVM and SVR are not supported in MLlib.



# MACHINE LEARNING RELATED ISSUES

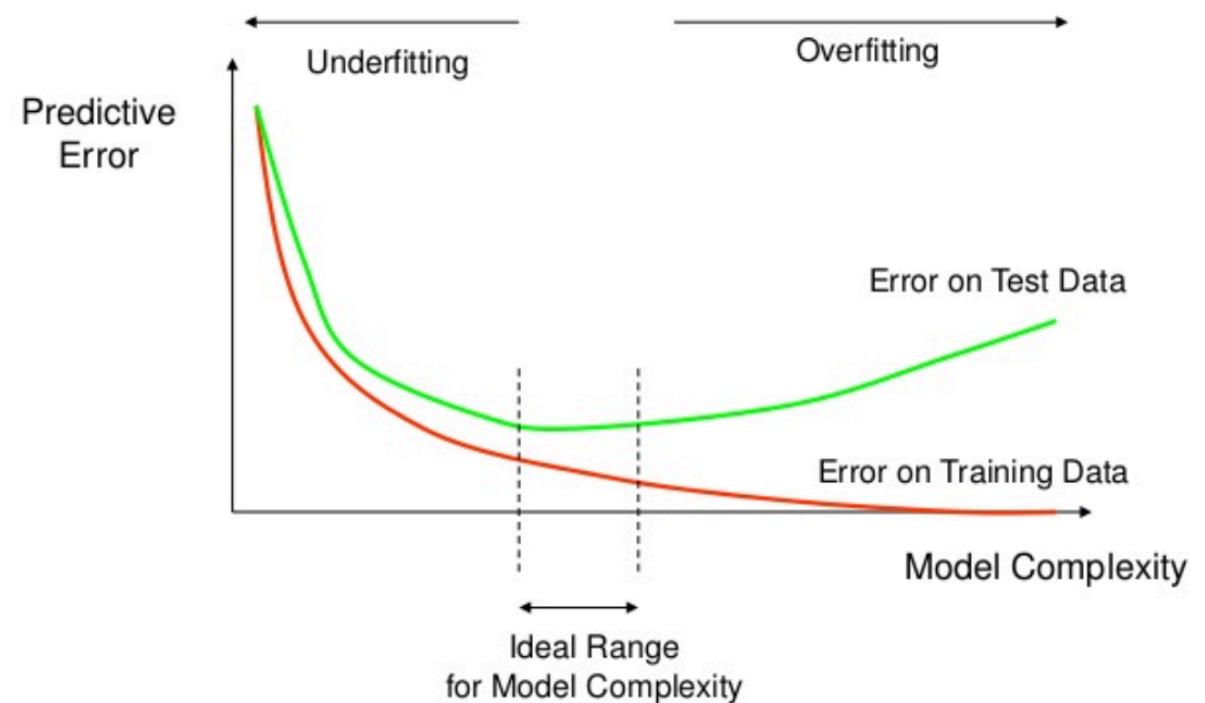
# Overfitting

- Is a model the more complex the better?
- No. It will overfit to the training data and perform poorly on the test data.
  - Too complex to be generalized.



# Overfitting

- As we increase the model complexity (e.g. add a bunch of hidden layers to neural networks), the training error will decrease, but the test error will increase.



# Regularization

- One solution it to control the model complexity by *regularization*.
- Add regularization penalty to the cost function.
- Take linear regression as an example:

$$J = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i - y_i)^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$$

- The model complexity is measure by  $\|\mathbf{w}\|^2$ , aka  $l^2$  regularization.  $\lambda$  is a trade-off hyperparameter to balance the model accuracy and complexity.

# Conclusion

After this lecture, you should know:

- What is linear and non-linear models.
- What is gradient descent.
- How to use gradient descent to update the model.
- What are the advantages and disadvantages of each model.

# Thank you!

- Any question?
- Don't hesitate to send email to me for asking questions and discussion. ☺