



## Optimization Techniques for Big Data Analysis

Chapter 2. Machine Learning Contextualization

Master of Science in Signal Theory and Communications

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2 Linear Regression

3 Classification

4 Basic introduction to Neural Networks



We will be focused on two basic problems:

- Linear regression
- Linear classification

Considering a sample  $\mathbf{x}_i = [x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \cdots, x_{id}]$ , the model will be a form of:  $f(\mathbf{x}_i) = w_1 x_{i1} + w_2 x_{i2} + \cdots + w_d x_{id} + w_0 = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + w_0$ .

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The optimization problem in those cases takes the form:

$$\underset{\bar{\mathbf{w}}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(\bar{\mathbf{w}}^{T} \bar{\mathbf{x}}_{i}, y_{i}) + r(\bar{\mathbf{w}}) \tag{1}$$

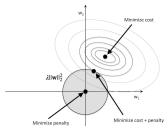




### Regularizer

The regularizer adds an extra term (usually a norm) that penalizes/enforces certain characteristics of  $\mathbf{w}$ .

$$r\left(\mathbf{w}\right) = \frac{\lambda}{2} \left\|\mathbf{w}\right\|_{2}^{2} = \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{d} w_{j}^{2}$$

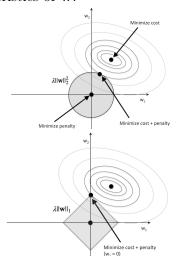


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$$r(\mathbf{w}) = \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_1 = \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{d} |w_i|$$



## Linear regression from a Statistical Signal Processing view

In the general case of an arbitrary observable distribution  $\hat{y} = g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}(Y|X = \mathbf{x})$ . If we assume that variables (Y, X) are jointly Gaussian,  $p(y|\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{N}(y|\mu_{y|\mathbf{x}}, \Sigma_{y|\mathbf{x}})$ , where:

$$\mu_{y|\mathbf{x}} = \mu_Y + \Sigma_{X,Y}^T \Sigma_Y^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mu_X)$$

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Equivalently:

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = \mathcal{N}(f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}), \beta^{-1})$$

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### Least Square Error

Given a data set  $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)_{i=1}^n\}$ , of *i.i.d* samples, the **likelihood** function is [1]:

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For numerical stability, it is convenient to maximize the logarithm of the likelihood function:

$$\ln p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}, \beta) = -\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i})^{2} + \frac{n}{2} \ln \beta - \frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi)$$



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This is equivalent to minimizing:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i})^{2}$$



## Linear Regression as a Least Square problem

$$\underset{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}}{\operatorname{arg \, min}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i}, y_{i}) = \underset{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}}{\operatorname{arg \, min}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i})^{2}$$



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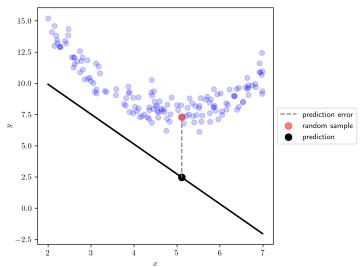
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Whose analytical solution is:

$$\frac{1}{n}\mathbf{X}^{T}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}) = 0; \ \mathbf{w}^{*} = (\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{y}$$



## Error in Least Square





$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}} \frac{1}{n} \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$$



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### Multiple interpretations:

- Reduce overfitting (promotes smoothness)
- Reduce the variance of the estimator
- Makes the matrix invertible



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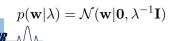
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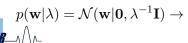
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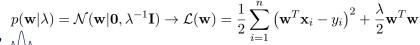
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### LASSO regression

LASSO (Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator) looks similar but uses a  $L_1$  regularizer instead:

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#### Considerations:

- Promotes sparseness
- The gradient is not a smooth function (optimizing it requires subgradient or proximal methods)
- Corresponds to imposing a zero-mean Laplacean prior over **w**.



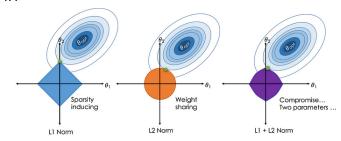
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### Basis pursuit

- 1 Basis pursuit is a similar problem to linear regression but with a different goal: the idea now is to find a good fit for the given data as a linear combination of a small number of the basis functions.
- 2 In this context, the basis family use to be referred to as a dictionary.
- **3** The goal now is that we seek a function  $\phi$  that fits the data well:

$$\Phi\left(\mathbf{x}_{i}\right)\approx y_{i} \quad \forall i$$

such that this function can be expressed as a linear combination of a particular basis:

$$\Phi\left(\mathbf{x}\right) = \sum_{j=0}^{d} \mathbf{w}_{j} \phi_{j}\left(\mathbf{x}\right)$$



### Basis Pursuit

The formulation is well known to us (typically an L1-norm is added):

$$\underset{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}}{\operatorname{arg \, min}} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \underbrace{\sum_{j=0}^{d} w_{j} \phi_{j} \left(\mathbf{x}_{i}\right) - y_{i}}_{\Phi(\mathbf{x}_{i})} \right)^{2} + \lambda \left\| \mathbf{w} \right\|_{1} \right)$$



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In matrix form, we define:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_0(\mathbf{x}_1) & \cdots & \phi_d(\mathbf{x}_1) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \phi_0(\mathbf{x}_n) & \phi_d(\mathbf{x}_n) \end{bmatrix}$$

and we reach the standard LASSO-like expression:



$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}} \frac{1}{n} \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_1$$

## Basis Pursuit. Example 2\_1

Let us suppose that our observable has the following structure

$$y = w_1 \phi_1(x) + w_2 \phi_2(x) + \varepsilon$$

where  $x \in (0, 10)$  and the two arbitrary basis are

$$\phi_1(x) = \cos\frac{\pi}{3}x, \phi_2(x) = \sin\frac{\pi}{7}x$$

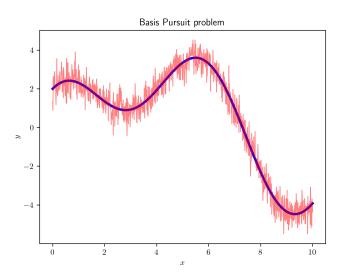
and  $\varepsilon$  a white Gaussian noise with power  $\sigma_n^2$ . The objective is to write a Python code to calculate coefficients  $w_1$ ,  $w_2$  from y according to

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \left( \frac{1}{N} \left\| \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y} \right\|_2^2 \right)$$

Next figure shows the case where  $w_1 = 2$ ,  $w_2 = 3$  and  $\sigma_n^2 = 0.25$ .



# Example 2\_1 (Denoising)





### Classification. Basic ideas

The classification problem is just like the regression problem, except that the values  $y_i$  that we want to predict take on only a small number of discrete values.

We will show two very popular approaches:

- Logistic Regression
- Support Vector Machines (SVM)

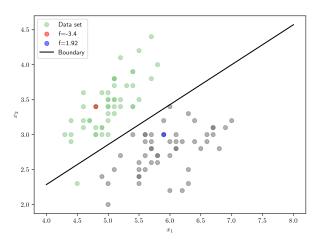
We will be just focused on the binary case,  $y_i \in \{+1, -1\}$ , in order to simplify the interpretations.

Extensions to more classes are straightforward.



### Classification. Basic ideas

In this case, we talk about discriminative functions as those that represent the borders of decision regions.





## Optimum Bayesian boundary

Defining the probability of a certain hypothesis conditioned to a certain observable

$$P(H_i \mid \mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x} \mid H_i)P(H_i)}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$

after the Bayes rule and, since  $p(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0$  and it does not depend on i, to maximize the likelihood a posteriori is equivalent to maximize the numerator resulting in the rule based on the likelihood functions

Accept 
$$H_i$$
 iff  $p(X \mid H_i)P(H_i) > p(X \mid H_j)P(H_j), \forall j \neq i$ 

or, taking logarithms

Accept 
$$H_i$$
 iff  $\ln p(X \mid H_i) + \ln P(H_i) > \ln p(X \mid H_j) + \ln P(H_j), \forall j \neq i$ 





## Optimum Bayesian classification in the Gaussian case

Therefore, in general, a Bayesian classifier will use a decision rule type

Accept 
$$H_i$$
 iff  $g_i(X) > g_j(X), \forall j \neq i$ 

where  $g_i(\mathbf{x})$ , i = 0, 1, ..., M - 1 (M = 2 for the binary case) are called *discriminant functions*. For a two-class, we can define a single discriminant function

$$g(\mathbf{x}) \equiv g_1(\mathbf{x}) - g_2(\mathbf{x})$$

which decides  $H_1$  if  $g(\mathbf{x}) > 0$ ; otherwise decide  $H_2$ . The borders between the decision regions of the hypotheses is the set of points  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  where  $g(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ .



### Linear classifier

Suppose that the observation vector follows a multivariate Gaussian distribution:  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ .

The discriminative function for the i-th class will be [2]:

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = -\frac{d}{2} \ln 2\pi - \frac{1}{2} \ln |\Sigma_i| - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^T \Sigma_i^{-1} \mathbf{x} + \mu_i^T \Sigma_i^{-1} \mathbf{x} - \frac{1}{2} \mu_i^T \Sigma_i^{-1} \mu_i + \ln P(H_i)$$



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 $\blacksquare$  Case 1:  $\Sigma_i = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}$ 

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x} + w_{i0} \to \mathbf{w}_i = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \mu_i; \quad w_{i0} = \frac{-1}{2\sigma^2} \mu_i^T \mu_i + \ln P(H_i)$$



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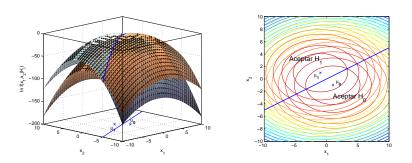
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■ Case 2:  $\Sigma_i = \Sigma$ 

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x} + w_{i0} \to \mathbf{w}_i = \sigma^{-1} \mu_i; \ w_{i0} = \frac{-1}{2} \mu_i^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_i + \ln P(H_i)$$



#### Linear classifier



 $P(H_0) = P(H_1) = 1/2$ . Border regions decision



# Quadratic Classifier

• Case 3:  $\Sigma_i = \text{arbitrary}$ 

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{W}_i \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x} + w_{i0}$$
$$\mathbf{W}_i = -\frac{1}{2} \Sigma_i^{-1}$$
$$\mathbf{w}_i = \Sigma_i^{-1} \mu_i$$
$$w_{i0} = \frac{-1}{2} \mu_i^T \Sigma_i^{-1} \mu_i - \frac{1}{2} \ln |\Sigma_i| + \ln P(H_i)$$



## Quadratic Classifier

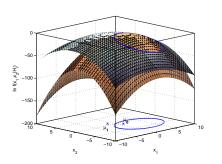
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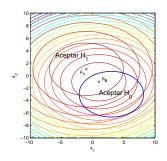
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There is an additional case where you assume that  $\Sigma_i$  is arbitrary but diagonal, which is call Naïve Bayes Classifier.



#### Quadratic classifier



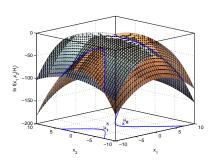


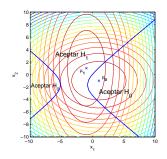
$$P(H_0) = P(H_1) = 1/2, \ \mu_0 = [1, -1]^T, \ \mu_1 = [-1, 1]^T,$$
$$\Sigma_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}, \ \Sigma_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The border is an ellipse



#### Quadratic classifier





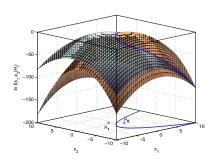
$$P(H_0) = P(H_1) = 1/2, \ \mu_0 = [1, -1]^T, \ \mu_1 = [-1, 1]^T,$$

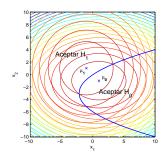
$$\Sigma_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}, \ \Sigma_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

The border is a hyperbola



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## Logistic Regression

Like Linear regression, we can apply the maximum likelihood criterion to a classification problem. Assuming a Bernoulli distribution (2-class problem):

$$\max \mathcal{L} = \log \left( \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_i^{y_i} (1 - p_i)^{(1 - y_i)} \right); \ y_i \in \{0, 1\}$$



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To model  $p_i = p(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}, w_0) = P(Y = 1 | X = \mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}, w_0)$ , logistic

regression uses the inverse of a logit function to map the output of a linear function to the interval (0,1).

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$$p(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}, w_0) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(-(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + w_0)\right)} = g(\bar{\mathbf{w}}^T \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i)$$



$$\arg \max_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left( (g(\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i}))^{y_{i}} \right) + \log \left( (1 - g(\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i}))^{(1-y_{i})} \right)$$
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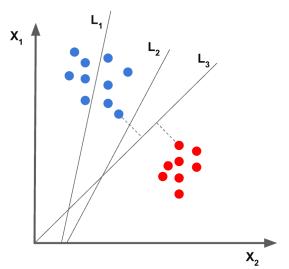
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It is straightforward to add a regularisation term  $r(\mathbf{w})$ .

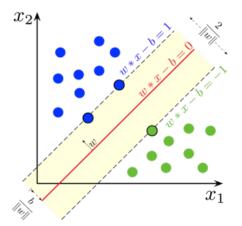






Which one do you prefer?

SVM provides a solution based on the idea of maximising the margin between the closest points of the classes.





- Suppose that we find among all the points of the two classes those that are the most critical because they are the closest.
- We draw two hyperplanes over these points and define the discriminant function as the hyperplane in between.
- The equation of this hyperplane is

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = 0$$

where  $\mathbf{w}$  is a vector orthogonal to the hyperplane and b is an offset parameter.

■ The other two hyperplanes parallel to the first one are denoted by

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = \gamma$$

and

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = -\gamma$$



However, we can normalize just the hyperplane equation:

$$c\left(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x} + b\right) = 0$$

where c is an arbitrary constant.

Let us choose this constant  $c = \gamma$ , so the two parallel hyperplanes become

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = \pm 1$$

Clearly, the intention is to design  $\mathbf{w}^T$ , b so that

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b \ge 1 \Rightarrow y_i = 1$$
  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b \le -1 \Rightarrow y_i = -1$ 



The aim is then to maximise the margin, which corresponds to the distance between the points and the decision hyperplane:

$$\frac{y_i f(\mathbf{x}_i)}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} = \frac{y_i (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b)}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$

which can be rewrite as [3]:

$$\underset{\mathbf{w},b}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \text{ Subject to } y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \ge 1$$



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In practice, we must relax the restrictions because the problem cannot be linearly separable.

$$\underset{\mathbf{w},b,\zeta_{i} \geq 0}{\arg\min} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_{2}^{2} + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{n} \zeta_{i}$$

$$s.t.: y_{i} \left(\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} + b\right) \geq 1 - \zeta_{i}$$

$$\zeta_{i} \geq 0$$



#### Hinge loss

If we transform the inequality constraints in an approximate unconstrained problem, we get:

$$y_i \left( \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) = 1 - \zeta_i \to \zeta_i = \max \left\{ 0, 1 - y_i \left( \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) \right\}$$

so, we have:

$$\underset{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}, b \in \mathbb{R}}{\operatorname{arg min}} \left( \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_{2}^{2} + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max \left( 1 - y_{i} \left( \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} + b \right), 0 \right) \right)$$



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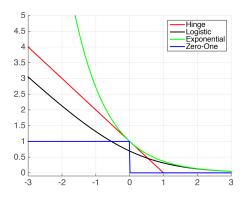
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where  $\alpha$  intends to penalize deviations from the feasibility region. It could also be rewritten as:

$$\underset{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}, b \in \mathbb{R}}{\operatorname{arg min}} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max \left( 1 - y_{i} \left( \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} + b \right), 0 \right) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \left\| \mathbf{w} \right\|_{2}^{2} \right)$$



#### SVM loss function



As we have already mentioned, in practice, we will use an equivalent definition by compacting model parameters:



$$\underset{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}}{\operatorname{arg min}} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max \left( 1 - y_i \left( \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i \right), 0 \right)^p + \frac{\lambda}{2} \| \mathbf{w} \|_2^2 \right)$$

Some functions must be reviewed in detail:

■ Generation: Get\_data\_reg, Scenarios\_regression, Get\_data\_class, Scenarios\_classification. (Have a look at Examples 2\_3 and 2\_5)



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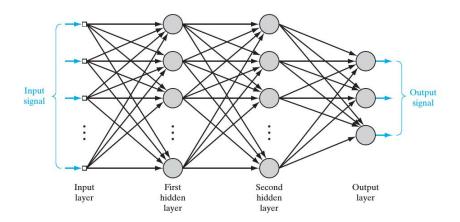
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  - ▶ case\_study\_2\_1 (Regression): Understand how the data is generated, training and testing datasets, and the effect of regularization in the error surface.



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  - ▶ case\_study\_2\_1 (Regression): Understand how the data is generated, training and testing datasets, and the effect of regularization in the error surface.
  - ▶ case\_study\_2\_2 (Classification): What can we expect if the class means are asymmetric? See the effect of regularization in the loss function.



#### Neural networks. General architecture





# Questions?



#### References

- [1] Christopher M. Bishop. Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning. Springer, 2006.
- [2] Richard O Duda, Peter E Hart, et al. *Pattern classification*. John Wiley & Sons, 2000.
- [3] Bernhard Schölkopf and Alexander J Smola. Learning with kernels: support vector machines, regularization, optimization, and beyond. MIT press, 2002.



# Thank You

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