

# Background on Algorithms, Intro Supervised Learning

Lecture “Mathematical Data Science” 2021/2022

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3.11.2021



DISCRETE  
OPTIMIZATION

# Excursus: Some Background in Algorithms

this excursus is meant to give some brief and abstract introduction into algorithms. further reading, e.g.:

- Thomas Cormen, Charles Leiserson, Ronald Rivest, and Cliff Stein: Introduction to Algorithms, MIT Press
- Thomas Ottmann and Peter Widmayer: Algorithmen und Datenstrukturen,
- Robert Sedgewick, Kevin Wayne: Algorithms, Addison-Wesley,
- Donald Knuth: The Art of Computer Programming,

and many others.

for exemplary purposes, we do it for a basic operation, namely sorting numbers.

# Sorting: Notation

basic operation in computer science

- **Input:**  $n$  numbers  $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle$ .
- **Output:** permutation  $\langle a'_1, a'_2, \dots, a'_n \rangle$  such that  $a'_1 \leq a'_2 \leq \dots \leq a'_n$ .

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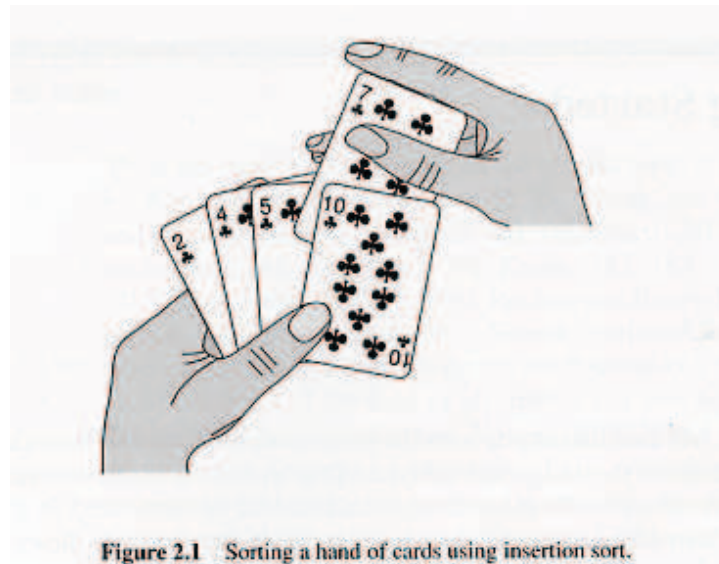
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An algorithm is called **correct**, if it **terminates** for all instances with a correct solution. It then **solves** the problem.

# Insertion Sort



**Figure 2.1** Sorting a hand of cards using insertion sort.

Aus: Cormen et al. (2001) "Algorithms", chpt. 2;  
MIT Press, Cambridge (MA)

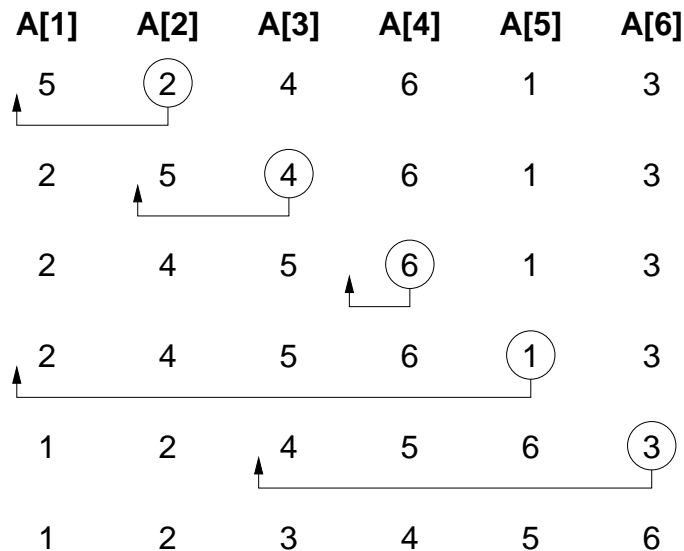
# Insertion Sort

As parameters, it has the array  $A$  and its length  $\text{length}(A)$ . In the for-loop, the  $j$ -th element of the sequence is inserted in the correct position that is determined by the while-loop. In the latter we compare the element to be inserted ( $\text{key}$ ) from 'right' to 'left' with each element from the sorted subsequence stored in  $A[0], \dots, A[j-1]$ . If  $\text{key}$  is smaller, it has to be insert further left. Therefore, we move  $A[i]$  one position to the right and decrease  $i$  by one in line 7. If the while-loop stops,  $\text{key}$  is inserted.

```
insertion_sort(A)
  for j = 1 to (length(A)-1) do
    key = A[j]
    // insert A[j] into the sorted sequence A[1...j-1]
    i = j
    while (i > 0 and (A[i-1] > key) ) do
      A[i] = A[i-1]
      i = i-1
    end while
    A[i] = key
  end for
```



algorithm for sequence  $\langle 5, 2, 4, 6, 1, 3 \rangle$



# Correctness

- at beginning of `for`-loop,  $A[1..j-1]$  always sorted: within `for`-loop,  $A[j-2]$ ,  $A[j-3]$ ,  $A[j-4]$ , ... are moved one position to the right until the correct position for  $\text{key}=A[j]$  is found and assigned to  $\text{key}$ .

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- when `for`-loop stops, it is  $j=n$  and  $A[0..n-1]$  is sorted.
- termination: `while`- and `for`-loop always terminate.

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Question: Does the worst-case running time of `insertion_sort` grow linearly, quadratically, . . . , or even exponentially in  $n$ ?

# Running Time Insertion Sort

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for sequence sorted in reverse order (worst case)

- while-loop stops only when  $i = 0$
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in total:  $\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$  many assignments; quadratically many



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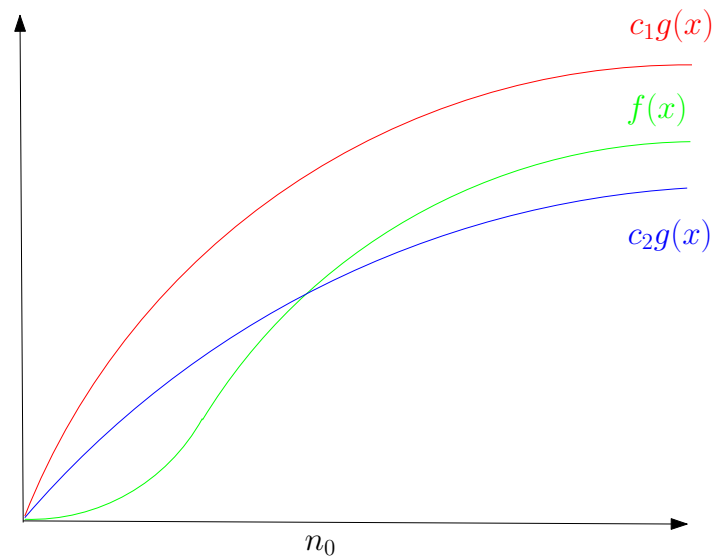
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$$O(g(n)) := \{f(n) | (\exists c, n_0 > 0)(\forall n \geq n_0) : 0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n)\}$$

$$\Theta(g(n)) := \{f(n) | (\exists c_1, c_2, n_0 > 0)(\forall n \geq n_0) : c_1g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2g(n)\}$$

$$\Omega(g(n)) := \{f(n) | (\exists c, n_0 > 0)(\forall n \geq n_0) : 0 \leq cg(n) \leq f(n)\}$$

# Worst-Case Running Time



- The *worst case* running time of insertion sort is  $O(n^2)$ .

# Design of Algorithms

insertion sort: *incremental method*.

different principle: '*divide and conquer*'

- **divide** problem in subproblems
- **conquer** the subproblems through recursive solution. (If small enough, solve them directly.)
- **combine** the solutions of the subproblems to a solution for the original problem.

# Merge Sort

- **divide:** divide sequence of  $n$  numbers in the middle into two sub sequences.
  - **conquer:** sort the subsequences recursively using *merge sort*.
  - **combine:** merge the two subsequences to a sorted sequence.
- for sequences containing one element only nothing has to be done.

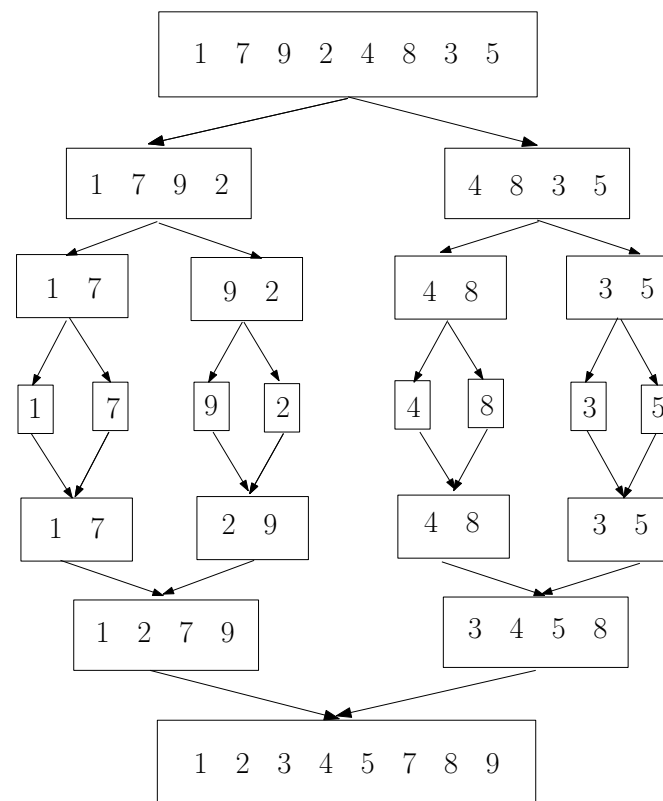
# merge sort

sort sequence stored in  $A[p] \dots A[r]$

```

void merge_sort(int[] A, int p, int r) {
    int q; /* Middle of the sequence */
    if (p < r) { /* if p = r: only 1 element */
        q = p + ((r - p) / 2);
        merge_sort (A, p, q); /* left subsequence */
        merge_sort (A, q + 1, r); /* right subsequence */
        merge (A, p, q, r); /* merge subsequences */
    }
}
  
```

# Illustration Merge Sort





# Merge Sort

It can be shown: worst-case running time of merge sort is  $O(n \log n)$  (better than insertion sort)

In fact: any algorithm for sorting  $n$  numbers that uses only comparisons and moves of numbers needs at least  $\Omega(n \log n)$ .

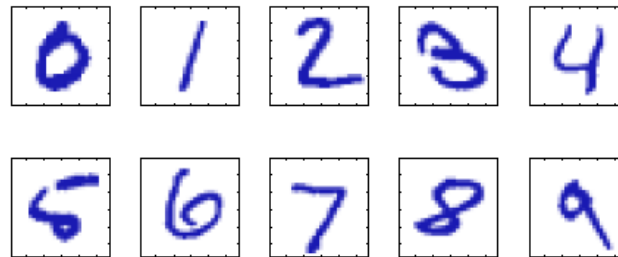
BTW: try the shell-command **sort**!

# End of Excursus

# Introduction Supervised Learning

(see Bishop Pattern Recognition book, chapter 1)  
...back to our lecture topics: now supervised learning:

**Figure 1.1** Examples of hand-written digits taken from US zip codes.



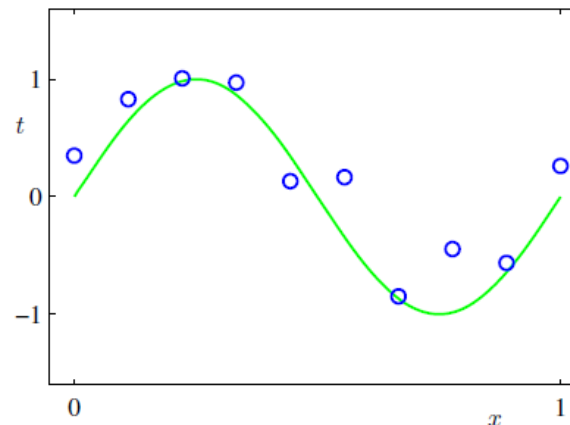
- large *training* data set with  $N$  points  $\{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$
- labels / categories (e.g., digits in handwriting, different objects...) are known in advance ('labeled data'), stored in vector  $t$  ('target') for each data point
- use training data for tuning parameters of an adaptive model
- *training phase or learning phase* results in function  $y(x)$  that takes data point  $x$  as input, returns  $y(x)$  that corresponds to a specific target / label
- *generalization*: additional data contained in *test set* can be used to categorize new data is main step

# Introduction Supervised Learning

- *feature extraction*: reduce difficulty of the problem by reduction of data through preprocessing (scaling,...) and/or dimensionality reduction
- digit recognition is *classification problem*

# Regression: Polynomial Curve Fitting

**Figure 1.2** Plot of a training data set of  $N = 10$  points, shown as blue circles, each comprising an observation of the input variable  $x$  along with the corresponding target variable  $t$ . The green curve shows the function  $\sin(2\pi x)$  used to generate the data. Our goal is to predict the value of  $t$  for some new value of  $x$ , without knowledge of the green curve.



- use data  $x$  to predict value of real target value  $t$
- assume there is some underlying regularity, i.e., there is something to 'learn'
- given: training set  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$ ,  $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, \dots, t_N)$

# Regression: Polynomial Curve Fitting

- fit data using polynomial funktion of form

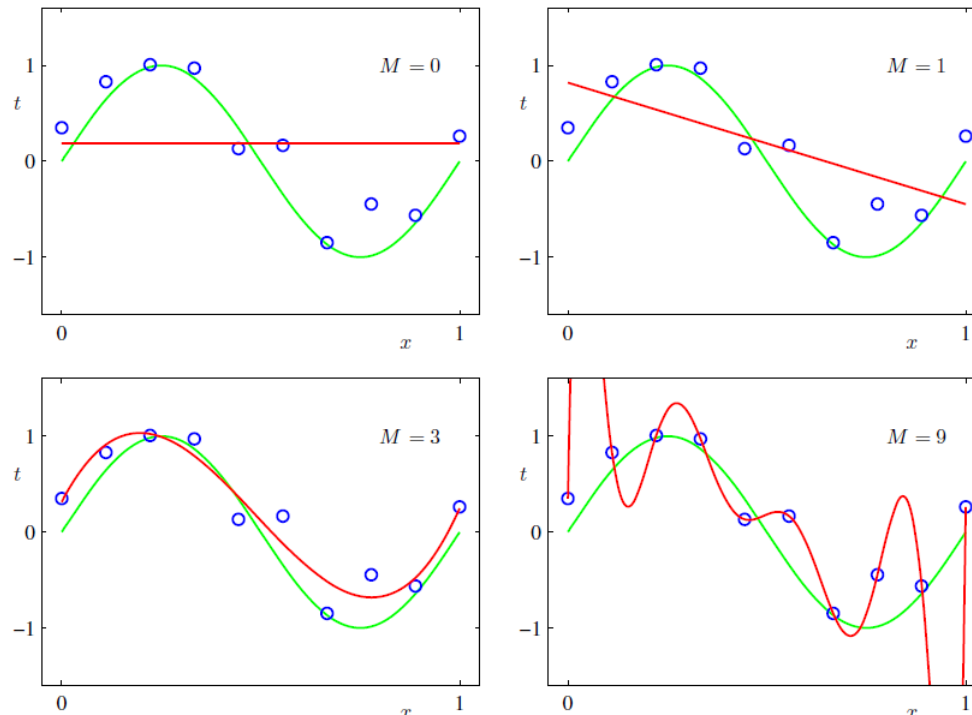
$$y(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1x + w_2x^2 + \dots + w_Mx^M = \sum_{j=0}^M w_jx^j$$

$M$  order of polynomial, real coefficients  $w_j$

- $y(x, \mathbf{w})$  is a polynomial, but only *linear* in unknown coefficients  $w$  that are determined by fitting polynomial to training data
- minimize *error function* between data and prediction, e.g.  

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^N (y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n)^2$$
- error minimization: gradient w.r.t.  $w$  is linear function with unique solution  $\mathbf{w}^*$ , yields solution  $y(x, \mathbf{w}^*)$ .
- choice of  $M$  important

# Regression: Polynomial Curve Fitting



**Figure 1.4** Plots of polynomials having various orders  $M$ , shown as red curves, fitted to the data set shown in Figure 1.2.

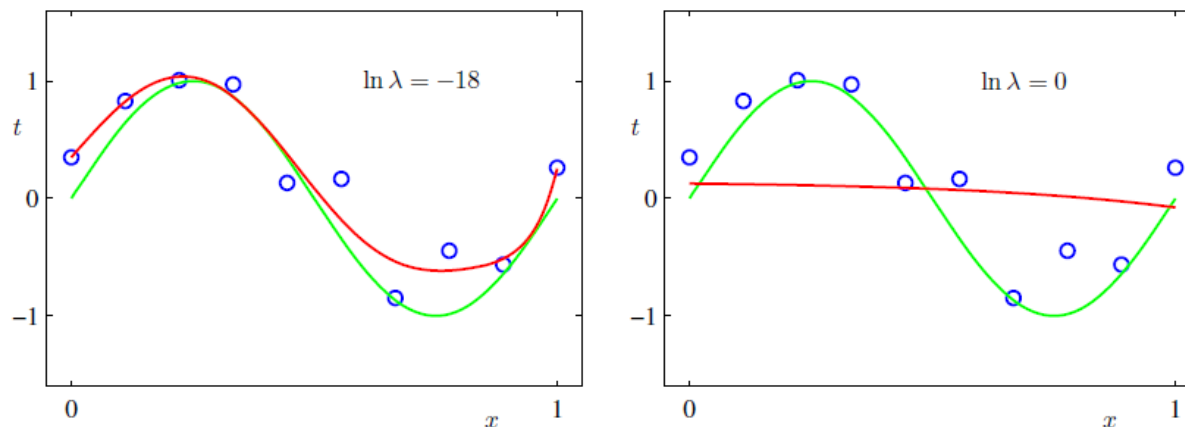
problem:  $M = 3$  is good, but too large  $M$  yields zero error, but *overfitting*: poor representation of underlying cosine function, poor generalization.  
underlying problem for large  $M$ : large (positive and negative) coefficients

# Avoid Overfitting by Regularization

- add a penalty term in order to avoid large coefficients.

$$\tilde{E}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^N (y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$$

- $\lambda$  governs importance of regularization
- can still be minimized in closed form



**figure 1.7** Plots of  $M = 9$  polynomials fitted to the data set shown in Figure 1.2 using the regularized error function (1.4) for two values of the regularization parameter  $\lambda$  corresponding to  $\ln \lambda = -18$  and  $\ln \lambda = 0$ . The case of no regularizer, i.e.,  $\lambda = 0$ , corresponding to  $\ln \lambda = -\infty$ , is shown at the bottom right of Figure 1.4.