

FSAN/ELEG815: Statistical Learning Gonzalo R. Arce

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5a: The Linear Model and Optimization



Linear Regression - Credit Example

 $\mathsf{Regression} \equiv \mathsf{Real-valued} \text{ output}$

Classification: Credit approval (yes/no) **Regression:** Credit line (dollar amount)

		age	23 years
		gender	male
		annual salary	\$30,000
Input:	$\mathbf{x} =$	years in residence	1 year
		years in job	1 year
		current debt	\$15,000

Linear regression output: $h(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=0}^{d} w_i x_i = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$

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Credit Example Again - The data set

	age	23 years
	gender	male
	annual salary	\$30,000
Input: $\mathbf{x} =$	years in residence	1 year
	years in job	1 year
	current debt	\$15,000

Output:

$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=0}^{d} w_i x_i = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$$

Credit officers decide on credit lines:

$$(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), \cdots, (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)$$

 $y_n \in \mathbb{R}$ is the credit for customer \mathbf{x}_n .

Linear regression wants to automate this task, trying to replicate human experts decisions. (2/3)



E_{out} is unknown

Linear regression algorithm is based on minimizing the squared error:

$$E_{out}(h) = \mathbb{E}[(h(\mathbf{x}) - y)^2]$$

where $\mathbb{E}[\cdot]$ is taken with respect to $P(\mathbf{x},y)$ that is unknown. Thus, minimize the in-sample error:

$$E_{in}(h) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (h(\mathbf{x}_n) - y_n)^2$$

Find a hypothesis (**w**) that achieves a small E_{in} .



Illustration of Linear Regression

The solution hypothesis (in blue) of the linear regression algorithm in one and two dimensions input. The sum of square error is minimized.





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Linear Regression - The Expression for E_{in}

$$\mathbf{y} = w_0 + w_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + w_2 \mathbf{x}_2 + \ldots + w_p \mathbf{x}_d + \epsilon.$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_{1} \\ \vdots \\ y_{N} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathbf{x}_{11} & \mathbf{x}_{12} & \cdots & \mathbf{x}_{1d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \mathbf{x}_{N1} & \mathbf{x}_{N2} & \cdots & \mathbf{x}_{Nd} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} w_{0} \\ w_{1} \\ \vdots \\ w_{d} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E_{in} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{n} - y_{n})^{2} \qquad \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times (d+1)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} ||\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}||_{2}^{2} = \frac{1}{N} (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})^{T} (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} (\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}^{T} \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^{T} \mathbf{y})$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} (\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^{T} \mathbf{y})$$

Learning Algorithm - Minimizing E_{in}

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{N} ||\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}||_2^2$$

= $\arg \min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{N} (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y})$

Observation: The error is a quadratic function of ${f w}$

Consequences: The error is an (d+1)-dimensional bowl-shaped function of **w** with a unique minimum

Result: The optimal weight vector, $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$, is determined by differentiating $E_{in}(\mathbf{w})$ and setting the result to zero

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} E_{in}(\mathbf{w}) = 0$$

A closed form solution exists



Example

Consider a two dimensional case. Plot the error surface and error contours.



Figure 5.6 Error-performance surface of the two-tap transversal filter described in the numerical example.

Error Surface





Error Contours



Aside (Matrix Differentiation, Real Case): Let $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{(d+1)}$ and let $f : \mathbb{R}^{(d+1)} \to \mathbb{R}$. The derivative of f (called gradient of f) with respect to \mathbf{w} is:

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(f) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla_0(f) \\ \nabla_1(f) \\ \vdots \\ \nabla_d(f) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_0} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_d} \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus,

$$\nabla_k(f) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_k}, \qquad k = 0, 1, \cdots, d$$

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Example

Now suppose $f = \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{w}$. Find $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(f)$ In this case,

$$f = \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{w} = \sum_{k=0}^d w_k c_k$$

and

$$\nabla_k(f) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_k} = c_k, \qquad k = 0, 1, \cdots, d$$

Result: For $f = \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{w}$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(g) = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla_0(g) \\ \nabla_1(g) \\ \vdots \\ \nabla_{\mathsf{d}}(g) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_d \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{c}$$

Same for $f = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{c}$.



Example

Lastly, suppose $f = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{w}$. Where $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{(d+1) \times (d+1)}$ and $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$. Find $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}(f)$

In this case, using the product rule:

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f = \frac{\partial \mathbf{w}^T (\mathbf{Q} \bar{\mathbf{w}})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} + \frac{\partial (\bar{\mathbf{w}}^T \mathbf{Q}) \mathbf{w}}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$
$$= \frac{\partial \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{u}_1}{\partial \mathbf{w}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}_2^T \mathbf{w}}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$
Using previous result, $\frac{\partial \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{w}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{c}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{c}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f &= \mathbf{u}_1 + \mathbf{u}_2, \\ &= \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{Q} + \mathbf{Q}^T) \mathbf{w}, \quad \text{if } \mathbf{Q} \text{ symmetric, } \mathbf{Q}^T = \mathbf{Q} \\ &= 2\mathbf{Q} \mathbf{w} \end{aligned}$$



Returning to the MSE performance criteria

$$E_{in}(\mathbf{w}) = \left[\frac{1}{N}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y})\right]$$

Differentiating with respect to \mathbf{w} and setting equal to zero, we obtain,

$$\nabla E_{in}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} (2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + 0)$$
$$= \frac{2}{N} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \frac{2}{N} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} &= \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} \\ \hat{\mathbf{w}} &= (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} \\ &= \mathbf{X}^{\dagger} \mathbf{y} \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{X}^{\dagger} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T$ is the pseudo-inverse of $\mathbf{X}.$

A real data set



16x16 pixels gray-scale images of digits from the US Postal Service Zip Code Database. The goal is to recognize the digit in each image.

This is not a trivial task (even for a human). A typical human error E_{out} is about 2.5% due to common confusions between $\{4,9\}$ and $\{2,7\}$.

Machine Learning tries to achieve or beat this error.

Input Representation

Since the images are 16×16 pixels:

- 'raw' input $\mathbf{x}_r = (x_0, x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_{256})$
- Linear model: $(w_0, w_1, w_2, \cdots, w_{256})$

It has too many many parameters. A better input representation makes it simpler.



Features: Extract useful information, e.g.,

Average intensity and symmetry
 x = (x₀, x₁, x₂)

• Linear model:
$$(w_0, w_1, w_2)$$

The descriptors must be representative of the data.



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Illustration of Features

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_0, x_1, x_2)$$
 $x_0 = 1$



It's almost linearly separable. However, it is impossible to have them all right.



What Perceptron Learning Algorithm does?

Evolution of in-sample error E_{in} and out-of-sample error E_{out} as a function of iterations of PLA



- Assume we know E_{out} .
- E_{in} tracks E_{out}. PLA generalizes well!

- It would never converge (data not linearly separable).
- Stopping criteria: Max. number of iterations.



 x_1 : Average Intensity

Final perceptron boundary We can do better...

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The 'pocket' algorithm

Keeps 'in its pocket' the best weight vector encountered up to the current iteration t in PLA.





Classification boundary - PLA versus Poket



PLA

 x_1 : Average Intensity

Pocket



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Linear Regression for Classification

- ▶ Linear regression learns a real-valued function $y = f(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$
- ▶ Binary-valued functions are also real-valued! $\pm 1 \in \mathbb{R}$
- Use linear regression to get **w** where $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n \approx y_n = \pm 1$
- ▶ In this case, sign($\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n$) is likely to agree with y_n
- Good initial weights for classification



Linear regression boundary



Definition (Steepest Descent (SD))

Steepest descent, also known as gradient descent, it is an iterative technique for finding the local minimum of a function.

Approach: Given an arbitrary starting point, the current location (value) is moved in steps proportional to the negatives of the gradient at the current point.

- SD is an old, deterministic method, that is the basis for stochastic gradient based methods
- SD is a feedback approach to finding local minimum of an error performance surface
- ► The error surface must be known *a priori*
- In the MSE case, SD converges converges to the optimal solution without inverting a matrix



Example

Consider a well structured cost function with a single minimum. The optimization proceeds as follows:



Contour plot showing that evolution of the optimization



Example

Consider a gradient ascent example in which there are multiple $\mathsf{minima}/\mathsf{maxima}$





Surface plot showing the multiple minima and maxima

Contour plot illustrating that the final result depends on starting value



More General - Gradient Descent

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}\in\mathbb{R}^d} E_{in}(\mathbf{w})$$

Use the method of Gradient Descent (GD) to minimize the in-sample error:

$$E_{in}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathsf{e}(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}), y_n)$$

by iterative steps along $-\nabla E_{in}$:

$$\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) - \eta \nabla E_{in}(\mathbf{w}(t))$$

where η is the step size.



Gradient Descent (GD) and Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

$$E_{in}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}), y_n)$$

Gradient descent update:

$$\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) - \eta \nabla E_{in}(\mathbf{w}(t))$$

For $e(h(\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)) = (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n - y_n)^2$ i.e. for the mean squared error:

$$\nabla E_{in}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{2}{N} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y})$$

Note: ∇E_{in} is based on all examples (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)

It is known as *batch* gradient descent.

Example

The MSE is a bowl–shaped surface, which is a function of the 2-D space weight vector $\mathbf{w}(n)$



Imagine dropping a marble at any point on the bowl-shaped surface. The ball will reach the minimum point by going through the path of steepest descent.



Example

Consider a well structured cost function with a single minimum. The optimization proceeds as follows:



Contour plot showing that evolution of the optimization

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

Instead of considering the full *batch*, for each iteration, pick <u>one</u> training data point (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n) at random and apply GD update to $e(h(\mathbf{x}_n, y_n))$

The weight update of SGD is:

$$\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) - \eta \nabla \mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{w}(t))$$

For $e(h(\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)) = (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n - y_n)^2$ i.e. for the mean squared error:

$$\nabla \mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{w}) = 2(\mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{x}_n y_n)$$

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Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

Since n is picked at random, the expected weight change is:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{n}} \left[-\nabla \mathsf{e}(h(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{n}}, y_{\mathbf{n}})) \right] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} -\nabla \mathsf{e}(h(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{n}}, y_{\mathbf{n}}))$$
$$= -\nabla E_{in}$$

Same as the *batch* gradient descent.

Result: On 'average' the minimization proceeds in the right direction (remember LMS).

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

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$$= -\nabla E_{in}$$

Same as the *batch* gradient descent.

Result: On 'average' the minimization proceeds in the right direction.



Benefits of SGD

- 1. Cheaper computation (by a factor of N compare to GD)
- 2. Randomization
- 3. Simple

Rule of thumb: Start with:



Randomization helps to avoid local minima and flat regions.

 $\eta = 0.1$ works!

SGD is successful in practice!



SGD in Action

Remember movie ratings, we solved this using SVD:



SVD is computationally expensive and requires care dealing with missing data, use **SGD** instead.

The Learning Approach

The learning algorithm does **reverse-engineering** (estimates factors from a given rating).

- Starts with random (meaningless) factors
- Tunes factors to be aligned with a previous rating.
- Does the same for millions of ratings, cycling over and over.
- Eventually the factors are meaningful (complete).

Let's use Stochastic Gradient Descent





SGD in Action

Consider the error for each data point \boldsymbol{r}_{ij} as

$$\mathbf{e}_{i,j} = \left(r_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{K} u_{ik} v_{jk}\right)^2 = (r_{ij} - \mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{v}_j)^2$$



Regularized Minimization problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{u}^*, \mathbf{v}^*} \sum_{(l,m) \in \mathcal{K}} (r_{lm} - \mathbf{u}_l^T \mathbf{v}_m)^2 + \lambda(||\mathbf{u}_l||^2 + ||\mathbf{v}_m||^2)$$

 r_{lm} with $(l,m)\in \mathcal{K}$ is the set of all known ratings. Apply SGD to compute \mathbf{u}^* and \mathbf{v}^* :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u}_{l}(t+1) &= \mathbf{u}_{l}(t) - \eta \nabla \mathbf{e}_{lm}(\mathbf{u}_{l}(t)) \\ \mathbf{v}_{m}(t+1) &= \mathbf{v}_{m}(t) - \eta \nabla \mathbf{e}_{lm}(\mathbf{v}_{m}(t)) \end{aligned}$$

SGD in Action

For each known rating, compute the gradient:

$$\nabla \mathbf{e}_{lm}(\mathbf{u}_l) = -2\mathbf{v}_m(r_{lm} - \mathbf{u}_l^T \mathbf{v}_m) + 2\lambda \mathbf{u}_l \nabla \mathbf{e}_{lm}(\mathbf{v}_m) = -2\mathbf{u}_l(r_{lm} - \mathbf{u}_l^T \mathbf{v}_m) + 2\lambda \mathbf{v}_m$$

Thus, the parameters (factors) are updated according to:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u}_l(t+1) &= \mathbf{u}_l(t) - 2\eta(-\mathbf{v}_m(t)e_{lm}(t) + \lambda \mathbf{u}_l(t)) \\ \mathbf{v}_m(t+1) &= \mathbf{v}_m(t) - 2\eta(-\mathbf{u}_l(t)e_{lm}(t) + \lambda \mathbf{v}_m(t)) \end{aligned}$$

Rearranging and setting $\gamma = 2\eta$:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u}_l(t+1) &= \mathbf{u}_l(t) + \gamma(e_{lm}(t)\mathbf{v}_m(t) - \lambda \mathbf{u}_l(t)) \\ \mathbf{v}_m(t+1) &= \mathbf{v}_m(t) + \gamma(e_{lm}(t)\mathbf{u}_l(t) - \lambda \mathbf{v}_m(t)) \end{aligned}$$

where $e_{lm} = r_{lm} - \mathbf{u}_l^T \mathbf{v}_m$, γ is the learning rate parameter and λ a regularization parameter. <□ ▶ < □ ▶ < ■ ▶ < ■ ▶ < ■ ▶ ■ のへで 34/34