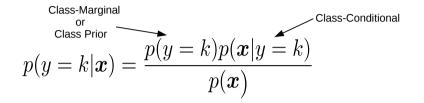
Optimization Techniques for ML (1)

Piyush Rai

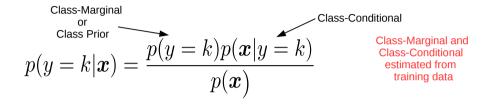
Introduction to Machine Learning (CS771A)

August 23, 2018

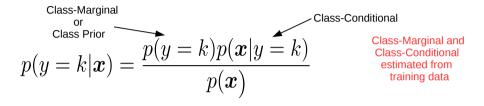
・ロト ・四ト ・モト ・モト





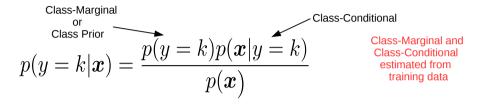






$$p(y=k) = \pi_k$$
 and $p(y) =$ multinoulli (π_1, \dots, π_K)





$$p(y=k) = \pi_k$$
 and $p(y) =$ multinoulli (π_1, \dots, π_K)

 $p(\boldsymbol{x}|y=k)$ depends on type of \boldsymbol{x}

Class-Marginal
or
Class Prior

$$p(y = k | \boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{p(y = k)p(\boldsymbol{x} | y = k)}{p(\boldsymbol{x})}$$
Class-Conditional
estimated from
training data
$$p(y = k) = \pi_k \text{ and } p(y) = \text{multinoulli}(\pi_1, \dots, \pi_K)$$

$$p(\boldsymbol{x} | y = k) \text{ depends on type of } \boldsymbol{x}$$
naïve Bayes assumption: $p(\boldsymbol{x} | y = k) = \prod_{d=1}^{D} p(x_d | y = k)$
(reduces the number of parameters to be estimated for $p(\boldsymbol{x} | y = k)$)
E.g.: Gaussian with
Diagonal or Spherical
Covariance Matrix

• We can look at the case when we have Gaussians as class-conditionals

$$p(y=k|x) = \frac{p(y=k)p(x|y=k)}{p(x)}$$



・ロト ・ 日 ト ・ モ ト ・ モ ト

• We can look at the case when we have Gaussians as class-conditionals

$$p(y = k | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(y = k)p(\mathbf{x} | y = k)}{p(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{\pi_k |\mathbf{\Sigma}_k|^{-1/2} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \mathbf{\Sigma}_k^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)\right]}{\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k |\mathbf{\Sigma}_k|^{-1/2} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \mathbf{\Sigma}_k^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)\right]}$$



• We can look at the case when we have Gaussians as class-conditionals

$$p(y=k|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(y=k)p(\mathbf{x}|y=k)}{p(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{\pi_k |\mathbf{\Sigma}_k|^{-1/2} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \mathbf{\Sigma}_k^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_k)\right]}{\sum_{k=1}^{\kappa} \pi_k |\mathbf{\Sigma}_k|^{-1/2} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \mathbf{\Sigma}_k^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_k)\right]}$$

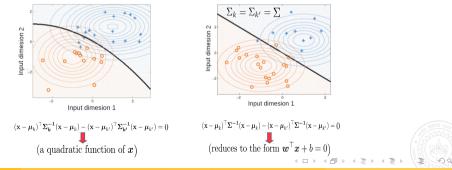
• All points x at the boundary between classes k and k' must satisfy p(y = k|x) = p(y = k'|x)

(日)

• We can look at the case when we have Gaussians as class-conditionals

$$p(y=k|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(y=k)p(\mathbf{x}|y=k)}{p(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{\pi_k |\mathbf{\Sigma}_k|^{-1/2} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \mathbf{\Sigma}_k^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_k)\right]}{\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k |\mathbf{\Sigma}_k|^{-1/2} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \mathbf{\Sigma}_k^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_k)\right]}$$

- All points x at the boundary between classes k and k' must satisfy p(y = k|x) = p(y = k'|x)
- Quadratic decision boundary if covariances unequal, linear if covariances equal



• For the Gaussian class-conditionals with equal covariances (linear case)

$$p(y=k|\mathbf{x}, heta) \propto \pi_k \exp\left[-rac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-oldsymbol{\mu}_k)^{ op} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-oldsymbol{\mu}_k)
ight]$$



• For the Gaussian class-conditionals with equal covariances (linear case)

$$p(y = k | \mathbf{x}, heta) \propto \pi_k \exp\left[-rac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^{ op} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)
ight]$$

• Expanding further, we can write the above as

$$p(y = k | \boldsymbol{x}, \theta) \propto \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{x} - \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k} + \log \pi_{k}\right] \exp\left[\boldsymbol{x}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}\right]$$



• For the Gaussian class-conditionals with equal covariances (linear case)

$$p(y = k | \mathbf{x}, \theta) \propto \pi_k \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) \right]$$

• Expanding further, we can write the above as

$$p(y = k | \mathbf{x}, \theta) \propto \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x} - \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k} + \log \pi_{k}\right] \exp\left[\mathbf{x}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x}\right]$$

• After normalizing, the above posterior class probability can be written as

$$p(y = k | \boldsymbol{x}, \theta) = \frac{\exp\left[\boldsymbol{w}_{k}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{b}_{k}\right]}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{w}_{k}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{b}_{k}\right]}$$

where $\boldsymbol{w}_{k} = \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}$ and $b_{k} = -\frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\top} \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k} + \log \pi_{k}$

• For the Gaussian class-conditionals with equal covariances (linear case)

$$p(y = k | \mathbf{x}, \theta) \propto \pi_k \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) \right]$$

• Expanding further, we can write the above as

$$p(y = k | \boldsymbol{x}, \theta) \propto \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{x} - \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k} + \log \pi_{k}\right] \exp\left[\boldsymbol{x}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}\right]$$

• After normalizing, the above posterior class probability can be written as

$$p(y = k | \boldsymbol{x}, \theta) = \frac{\exp\left[\boldsymbol{w}_{k}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{b}_{k}\right]}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{w}_{k}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{b}_{k}\right]}$$

where $\boldsymbol{w}_k = \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_k$ and $b_k = -\frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\mu}_k^\top \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_k + \log \pi_k$

• Interestingly, this has exactly the same form as the softmax classification model

• Again consider, generative clasification with Gaussian class-conditionals



- Again consider, generative clasification with Gaussian class-conditionals
- Consider the prediction rule

$$\hat{y} = \arg \max_{k} p(y = k | \mathbf{x}) = \arg \max_{k} \pi_{k} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}) \right]$$



- Again consider, generative clasification with Gaussian class-conditionals
- Consider the prediction rule

$$\hat{y} = \arg \max_{k} p(y = k | \mathbf{x}) = \arg \max_{k} \pi_{k} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}) \right]$$
$$= \arg \max_{k} \log \pi_{k} - \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})$$

- Again consider, generative clasification with Gaussian class-conditionals
- Consider the prediction rule

$$\begin{split} \hat{y} &= \arg\max_{k} p(y = k | \mathbf{x}) = \arg\max_{k} \pi_{k} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})\right] \\ &= \arg\max_{k} \log \pi_{k} - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}) \end{split}$$

• This is a generalization of prototype based classification

- Again consider, generative clasification with Gaussian class-conditionals
- Consider the prediction rule

$$\begin{split} \hat{y} &= \arg\max_{k} p(y = k | \mathbf{x}) = \arg\max_{k} \pi_{k} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})\right] \\ &= \arg\max_{k} \log \pi_{k} - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}) \end{split}$$

- This is a generalization of prototype based classification
- Generalization because we are not simply computing Euclidean distances to make predictions

(D) (B) (E) (E)

- Again consider, generative clasification with Gaussian class-conditionals
- Consider the prediction rule

$$\begin{split} \hat{y} &= \arg\max_{k} p(y = k | \mathbf{x}) = \arg\max_{k} \pi_{k} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})\right] \\ &= \arg\max_{k} \log \pi_{k} - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}) \end{split}$$

- This is a generalization of prototype based classification
- Generalization because we are not simply computing Euclidean distances to make predictions
- If we assume the classes to be of equal size, i.e., $\pi_k = 1/K$ and $\Sigma_k = \Sigma$. Then we will have

$$\hat{y} = \arg\min_{k} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})$$

- Again consider, generative clasification with Gaussian class-conditionals
- Consider the prediction rule

$$\begin{split} \hat{y} &= \arg\max_{k} p(y = k | \mathbf{x}) = \arg\max_{k} \pi_{k} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})\right] \\ &= \arg\max_{k} \log \pi_{k} - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}) \end{split}$$

- This is a generalization of prototype based classification
- Generalization because we are not simply computing Euclidean distances to make predictions
- If we assume the classes to be of equal size, i.e., $\pi_k = 1/K$ and $\Sigma_k = \Sigma$. Then we will have

$$\hat{y} = \arg\min_{k} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})$$

• This is equivalent to assigning x to the "closest" class in terms of a Mahalanobis distance

A B > A B > A B >

- Again consider, generative clasification with Gaussian class-conditionals
- Consider the prediction rule

$$\begin{split} \hat{y} &= \arg\max_{k} p(y = k | \mathbf{x}) = \arg\max_{k} \pi_{k} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})\right] \\ &= \arg\max_{k} \log \pi_{k} - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}) \end{split}$$

- This is a generalization of prototype based classification
- Generalization because we are not simply computing Euclidean distances to make predictions
- If we assume the classes to be of equal size, i.e., $\pi_k = 1/K$ and $\Sigma_k = \Sigma$. Then we will have

$$\hat{y} = \arg\min_{k} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})$$

- This is equivalent to assigning x to the "closest" class in terms of a Mahalanobis distance
 - The covariance matrix "modulates" how the distances are computed

- Again consider, generative clasification with Gaussian class-conditionals
- Consider the prediction rule

$$\begin{split} \hat{y} &= \arg\max_{k} p(y = k | \mathbf{x}) = \arg\max_{k} \pi_{k} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})\right] \\ &= \arg\max_{k} \log \pi_{k} - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}) \end{split}$$

- This is a generalization of prototype based classification
- Generalization because we are not simply computing Euclidean distances to make predictions
- If we assume the classes to be of equal size, i.e., $\pi_k = 1/K$ and $\Sigma_k = \Sigma$. Then we will have

$$\hat{y} = \arg\min_{k} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})$$

- This is equivalent to assigning x to the "closest" class in terms of a Mahalanobis distance
 - The covariance matrix "modulates" how the distances are computed

• If we further assume $\Sigma = I$, we get the exact same model as prototype based clasification

• Generative models are always probabilistic with models for p(y) and p(x|y)



イロト イロト イモト イモト

- Generative models are always probabilistic with models for p(y) and p(x|y)
- Some discriminative models are also non-probabilistic
 - Any model of the form y = f(x) with no model for x is a discriminative model
 - Example: Support Vector Machines (SVM), DT, KNN, etc.

- Generative models are always probabilistic with models for p(y) and p(x|y)
- Some discriminative models are also non-probabilistic
 - Any model of the form y = f(x) with no model for x is a discriminative model
 - Example: Support Vector Machines (SVM), DT, KNN, etc.
- Discriminative models are preferred when

・ロト ・四ト ・ヨト ・ヨト

- Generative models are always probabilistic with models for p(y) and p(x|y)
- Some discriminative models are also non-probabilistic
 - Any model of the form y = f(x) with no model for x is a discriminative model
 - Example: Support Vector Machines (SVM), DT, KNN, etc.
- Discriminative models are preferred when
 - There is plenty of training data. Modeling x doesn't usually matter much in that case

- Generative models are always probabilistic with models for p(y) and p(x|y)
- Some discriminative models are also non-probabilistic
 - Any model of the form y = f(x) with no model for x is a discriminative model
 - Example: Support Vector Machines (SVM), DT, KNN, etc.
- Discriminative models are preferred when
 - There is plenty of training data. Modeling x doesn't usually matter much in that case
- Some situations when generative models are preferred

- Generative models are always probabilistic with models for p(y) and p(x|y)
- Some discriminative models are also non-probabilistic
 - Any model of the form y = f(x) with no model for x is a discriminative model
 - Example: Support Vector Machines (SVM), DT, KNN, etc.
- Discriminative models are preferred when
 - There is plenty of training data. Modeling x doesn't usually matter much in that case
- Some situations when generative models are preferred
 - We can (afford to) learn the structure of the inputs

- Generative models are always probabilistic with models for p(y) and p(x|y)
- Some discriminative models are also non-probabilistic
 - Any model of the form y = f(x) with no model for x is a discriminative model
 - Example: Support Vector Machines (SVM), DT, KNN, etc.
- Discriminative models are preferred when
 - There is plenty of training data. Modeling x doesn't usually matter much in that case
- Some situations when generative models are preferred
 - We can (afford to) learn the structure of the inputs
 - We want to do semi-supervised learning (or if we don't have much labeled data)

・ロ・・ (日・・モ・・ 日・

- Generative models are always probabilistic with models for p(y) and p(x|y)
- Some discriminative models are also non-probabilistic
 - Any model of the form y = f(x) with no model for x is a discriminative model
 - Example: Support Vector Machines (SVM), DT, KNN, etc.
- Discriminative models are preferred when
 - There is plenty of training data. Modeling x doesn't usually matter much in that case
- Some situations when generative models are preferred
 - We can (afford to) learn the structure of the inputs
 - We want to do semi-supervised learning (or if we don't have much labeled data)
 - We would like to "generate" data (note that we are learning p(x|y))

- Generative models are always probabilistic with models for p(y) and p(x|y)
- Some discriminative models are also non-probabilistic
 - Any model of the form y = f(x) with no model for x is a discriminative model
 - Example: Support Vector Machines (SVM), DT, KNN, etc.
- Discriminative models are preferred when
 - There is plenty of training data. Modeling x doesn't usually matter much in that case
- Some situations when generative models are preferred
 - We can (afford to) learn the structure of the inputs
 - We want to do semi-supervised learning (or if we don't have much labeled data)
 - We would like to "generate" data (note that we are learning p(x|y))
- Generative and discriminative models can be combined as well

・ロ・・ (日・・モ・・ 日・

Optimization Techniques for ML



Optimization Problems in ML

• The generic form of most optimization problems in ML

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell_n(\boldsymbol{w}) + R(\boldsymbol{w})$$

• $\ell_n(\boldsymbol{w})$: loss function for the n^{th} training example, $R(\boldsymbol{w})$: (optional) regularizer on the parameters

Optimization Problems in ML

• The generic form of most optimization problems in ML

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} = rg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = rg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell_n(\boldsymbol{w}) + R(\boldsymbol{w})$$

\$\ell_n(\mathbf{w})\$: loss function for the \$n^{th}\$ training example, \$R(\mathbf{w})\$: (optional) regularizer on the parameters
Some common examples

$$\hat{w} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n)^2 + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||_2^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n)^2 + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||_2^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) - \log(1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n))) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) - \log(1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n))) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) - \log(1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n))) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) - \log(1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n)) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{w}} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{w$$

$$\hat{w} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)^2 + \underbrace{\lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||_1}_{\ell_1 \text{ regularize}}$$

$$\hat{w} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log(1 + \exp(-y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||^2$$

 ℓ_2 regularized logistic regression assuming $y_n \in \{-1,1\}$

$$\hat{\theta}_{MAP} = \arg\min_{\theta} - \left[\sum_{n=1}^{N} \log p(y_n|\theta) + \log p(\theta)\right]$$

A general MAP estimation problem

ヘロア 人間 アメヨア メヨア

Optimization Problems in ML

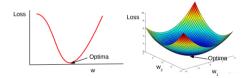
• Wish to find the optima (minima) of an objective function, that can be seen as as a curve/surface



メロト メロト メヨト メヨト

Optimization Problems in ML

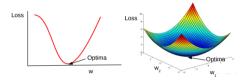
- Wish to find the optima (minima) of an objective function, that can be seen as as a curve/surface
- For simple cases, the functions may look like this



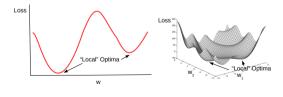


Optimization Problems in ML

- Wish to find the optima (minima) of an objective function, that can be seen as as a curve/surface
- For simple cases, the functions may look like this

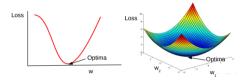


• In many cases, the functions may even look like this

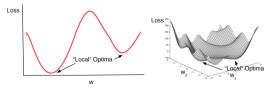


Optimization Problems in ML

- Wish to find the optima (minima) of an objective function, that can be seen as as a curve/surface
- For simple cases, the functions may look like this



In many cases, the functions may even look like this ٠



• Functions with unique minima: Convex; Functions with many local minima: Non-convex

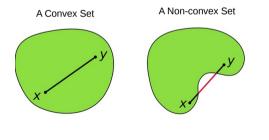


Interlude: Convex Sets

• A set S of points is a convex set, if for any two points $x, y \in S$, and $0 \le \alpha \le 1$

$$z = \alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y \in S$$

.. i.e., all points on the line-segment between x and y lie within the set



• Note: The domain of a convex function needs to be a convex set (a required condition)



- Note: The domain of a convex function needs to be a convex set (a required condition)
- Informally, a function f(x) is convex if all of its chords lie above the function everywhere



メロト メポト メヨト メヨ

- Note: The domain of a convex function needs to be a convex set (a required condition)
- Informally, a function f(x) is convex if all of its chords lie above the function everywhere

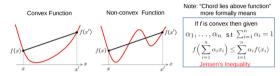


• Formally, (assuming the function is differentiable), some conditions to test for convexity:



イロト イボト イヨト イヨ

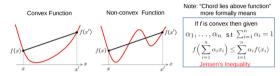
- Note: The domain of a convex function needs to be a convex set (a required condition)
- Informally, a function f(x) is convex if all of its chords lie above the function everywhere



- Formally, (assuming the function is differentiable), some conditions to test for convexity:
 - First-order convexity (graph of f must be above all the tangents)



- Note: The domain of a convex function needs to be a convex set (a required condition)
- Informally, a function f(x) is convex if all of its chords lie above the function everywhere



- Formally, (assuming the function is differentiable), some conditions to test for convexity:
 - First-order convexity (graph of f must be above all the tangents)

$$f(y) \qquad \qquad f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x)$$

$$f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x)$$

$$(x, f(x))$$

• Second-order convexity: Second derivative a.k.a. Hessian (if exists) must be positive semi-definite

$$\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq 0$$

Intro to Machine Learning (CS771A)

• Some basic rules to check if f(x) is convex or not



メロト メロト メヨト メヨト

- Some basic rules to check if f(x) is convex or not
 - All linear and affine functions (e.g., ax + b) are convex

メロト スピト メヨト メヨト

- Some basic rules to check if f(x) is convex or not
 - All linear and affine functions (e.g., ax + b) are convex
 - $\exp(ax)$ is convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$

- Some basic rules to check if f(x) is convex or not
 - All linear and affine functions (e.g., ax + b) are convex
 - $\exp(ax)$ is convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$
 - $\log(x)$ is concave (not convex) for x > 0

- Some basic rules to check if f(x) is convex or not
 - All linear and affine functions (e.g., ax + b) are convex
 - $\exp(ax)$ is convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$
 - $\log(x)$ is concave (not convex) for x > 0
 - x^a is convex for x > 0, for any $a \ge 1$ and a < 0, concave for $0 \le a \le 1$

- Some basic rules to check if f(x) is convex or not
 - All linear and affine functions (e.g., ax + b) are convex
 - $\exp(ax)$ is convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$
 - $\log(x)$ is concave (not convex) for x > 0
 - x^a is convex for x > 0, for any $a \ge 1$ and a < 0, concave for $0 \le a \le 1$
 - $|x|^a$ is convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, for any $a \geq 1$

メロト メポト メヨト メヨト

- Some basic rules to check if f(x) is convex or not
 - All linear and affine functions (e.g., ax + b) are convex
 - $\exp(ax)$ is convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$
 - $\log(x)$ is concave (not convex) for x > 0
 - x^a is convex for x > 0, for any $a \ge 1$ and a < 0, concave for $0 \le a \le 1$
 - $|x|^a$ is convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, for any $a \geq 1$
 - All norms in \mathbb{R}^D are convex

- Some basic rules to check if f(x) is convex or not
 - All linear and affine functions (e.g., ax + b) are convex
 - $\exp(ax)$ is convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$
 - $\log(x)$ is concave (not convex) for x > 0
 - x^a is convex for x > 0, for any $a \ge 1$ and a < 0, concave for $0 \le a \le 1$
 - $|x|^a$ is convex for $x\in\mathbb{R},$ for any $a\geq 1$
 - All norms in \mathbb{R}^D are convex
 - Non-negative weighted sum of convex functions is also a convex function

イロン イロン イヨン イヨン

- Some basic rules to check if f(x) is convex or not
 - All linear and affine functions (e.g., ax + b) are convex
 - $\exp(ax)$ is convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$
 - $\log(x)$ is concave (not convex) for x > 0
 - x^a is convex for x > 0, for any $a \ge 1$ and a < 0, concave for $0 \le a \le 1$
 - $|x|^a$ is convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, for any $a \geq 1$
 - All norms in \mathbb{R}^D are convex
 - Non-negative weighted sum of convex functions is also a convex function
 - Affine transformation preserves convexity: if f(x) is convex then f(x) = f(ax + b) is also convex

・ロト ・ 日 ト ・ モ ト ・ モ ト

- Some basic rules to check if f(x) is convex or not
 - All linear and affine functions (e.g., ax + b) are convex
 - $\exp(ax)$ is convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$
 - $\log(x)$ is concave (not convex) for x > 0
 - x^a is convex for x > 0, for any $a \ge 1$ and a < 0, concave for $0 \le a \le 1$
 - $|x|^a$ is convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, for any $a \geq 1$
 - All norms in \mathbb{R}^D are convex
 - Non-negative weighted sum of convex functions is also a convex function
 - Affine transformation preserves convexity: if f(x) is convex then f(x) = f(ax + b) is also convex
 - Some rules to check whether composition f(x) = h(g(x)) of two functions h and g is convex

・ロト ・四ト ・モト ・モト

- Some basic rules to check if f(x) is convex or not
 - All linear and affine functions (e.g., ax + b) are convex
 - $\exp(ax)$ is convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$
 - $\log(x)$ is concave (not convex) for x > 0
 - x^a is convex for x > 0, for any $a \ge 1$ and a < 0, concave for $0 \le a \le 1$
 - $|x|^a$ is convex for $x\in\mathbb{R},$ for any $a\geq 1$
 - All norms in \mathbb{R}^D are convex
 - Non-negative weighted sum of convex functions is also a convex function
 - Affine transformation preserves convexity: if f(x) is convex then f(x) = f(ax + b) is also convex
 - Some rules to check whether composition f(x) = h(g(x)) of two functions h and g is convex

f is convex if h is convex and nondecreasing, and g is convex, f is convex if h is convex and nonincreasing, and g is concave, f is concave if h is concave and nondecreasing, and g is concave, f is concave if h is concave and nonincreasing, and g is convex.

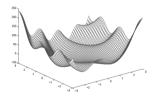
・ロ・・ (日・・モ・・ 日・

- Some basic rules to check if f(x) is convex or not
 - All linear and affine functions (e.g., ax + b) are convex
 - $\exp(ax)$ is convex for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$
 - $\log(x)$ is concave (not convex) for x > 0
 - x^a is convex for x > 0, for any $a \ge 1$ and a < 0, concave for $0 \le a \le 1$
 - $|x|^a$ is convex for $x\in\mathbb{R},$ for any $a\geq 1$
 - All norms in \mathbb{R}^D are convex
 - Non-negative weighted sum of convex functions is also a convex function
 - Affine transformation preserves convexity: if f(x) is convex then f(x) = f(ax + b) is also convex
 - Some rules to check whether composition f(x) = h(g(x)) of two functions h and g is convex

f is convex if h is convex and nondecreasing, and g is convex, f is convex if h is convex and nonincreasing, and g is concave, f is concave if h is concave and nondecreasing, and g is concave, f is concave if h is concave and nonincreasing, and g is convex.

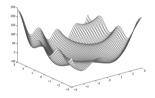
• Most of these also apply when x is a vector (and many other rules)

Disclaimer: It's OK to be non-convex :-)



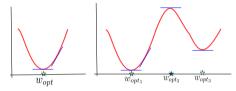


Disclaimer: It's OK to be non-convex :-)



Many interesting ML problems are in fact non-convex and there are ways to optimize non-convex objectives (non-convex optimization is a research area in itself)

• The most basic approach: Use first-order optimality condition

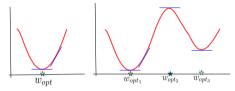


• First order optimality: The gradient g must be equal to zero at (each of) the optima



メロト メポト メヨト メヨト

• The most basic approach: Use first-order optimality condition

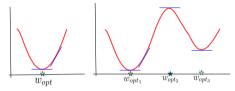


• First order optimality: The gradient g must be equal to zero at (each of) the optima

$$\boldsymbol{g} =
abla_{\boldsymbol{w}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) =
abla_{\boldsymbol{w}} \left[\sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell_n(\boldsymbol{w}) + R(\boldsymbol{w}) \right] = 0$$

メロト メポト メヨト メヨト

• The most basic approach: Use first-order optimality condition



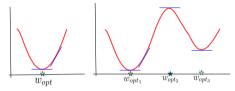
• First order optimality: The gradient g must be equal to zero at (each of) the optima

$$\boldsymbol{g} = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}} \left[\sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell_n(\boldsymbol{w}) + R(\boldsymbol{w}) \right] = 0$$

• Sometimes, setting $\mathbf{g} = 0$ and solving for \mathbf{w} gives a closed form solution (recall linear regression)

イロト イロト イヨト イヨ

• The most basic approach: Use first-order optimality condition



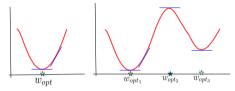
• First order optimality: The gradient g must be equal to zero at (each of) the optima

$$\boldsymbol{g} = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}} \left[\sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell_n(\boldsymbol{w}) + R(\boldsymbol{w}) \right] = 0$$

• Sometimes, setting g = 0 and solving for w gives a closed form solution (recall linear regression)

• .. and often it does NOT (recall logistic regression)

• The most basic approach: Use first-order optimality condition



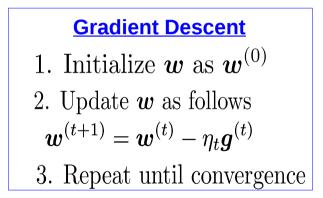
• First order optimality: The gradient g must be equal to zero at (each of) the optima

$$\boldsymbol{g} = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}} \left[\sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell_n(\boldsymbol{w}) + R(\boldsymbol{w}) \right] = 0$$

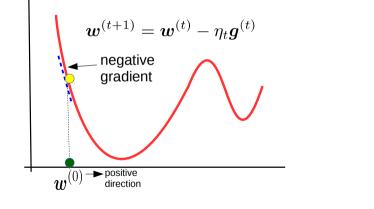
• Sometimes, setting g = 0 and solving for w gives a closed form solution (recall linear regression)

- .. and often it does NOT (recall logistic regression)
- The gradient g can still be helpful since we can use it in iterative optimization methods

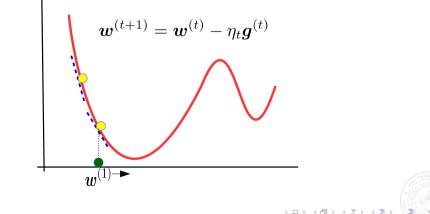
Iterative Optimization via Gradient Descent



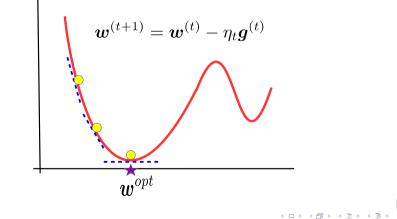
- A very simple, first-order method (uses only the gradient **g** of the objective)
- Basic idea: Start at some location $w^{(0)}$ and move in the opposite direction of the gradient



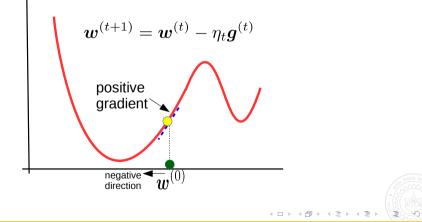
- A very simple, first-order method (uses only the gradient **g** of the objective)
- Basic idea: Start at some location $\boldsymbol{w}^{(0)}$ and move in the opposite direction of the gradient



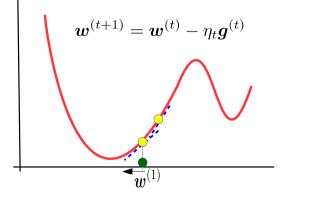
- A very simple, first-order method (uses only the gradient *g* of the objective)
- Basic idea: Start at some location $\boldsymbol{w}^{(0)}$ and move in the opposite direction of the gradient



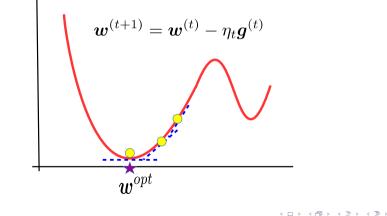
- A very simple, first-order method (uses only the gradient *g* of the objective)
- Basic idea: Start at some location $\boldsymbol{w}^{(0)}$ and move in the opposite direction of the gradient



- A very simple, first-order method (uses only the gradient **g** of the objective)
- Basic idea: Start at some location $\boldsymbol{w}^{(0)}$ and move in the opposite direction of the gradient



- A very simple, first-order method (uses only the gradient g of the objective)
- Basic idea: Start at some location $\boldsymbol{w}^{(0)}$ and move in the opposite direction of the gradient

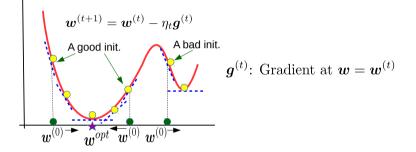


• η_t is called the learning rate (can be constant or may vary at each step)

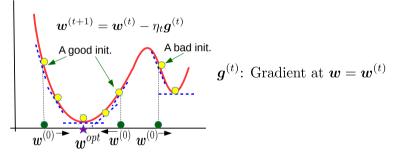


メロト メロト メヨト メヨト

• η_t is called the learning rate (can be constant or may vary at each step)

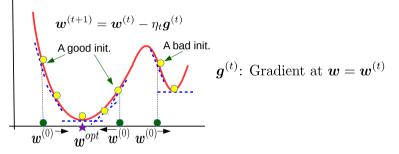


• η_t is called the learning rate (can be constant or may vary at each step)



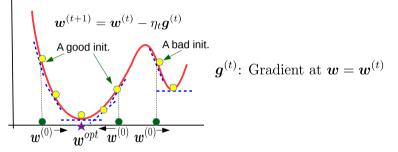
• Note: The effective step size (how much w moves) depends on <u>both</u> η_t and current gradient $g^{(t)}$

• η_t is called the learning rate (can be constant or may vary at each step)



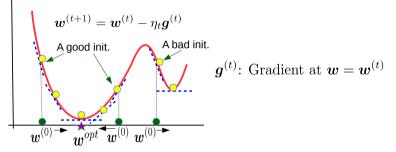
- Note: The effective step size (how much w moves) depends on <u>both</u> η_t and current gradient $g^{(t)}$
- A good initialization $m{w}^{(0)}$ matters, otherwise might get trapped in a bad local optima

• η_t is called the learning rate (can be constant or may vary at each step)



- Note: The effective step size (how much w moves) depends on <u>both</u> η_t and current gradient $g^{(t)}$
- A good initialization $m{w}^{(0)}$ matters, otherwise might get trapped in a bad local optima
- If run long enough, guaranteed to converge to a local optima (=global optima for convex functions)

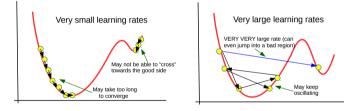
• η_t is called the learning rate (can be constant or may vary at each step)



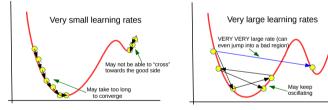
- Note: The effective step size (how much w moves) depends on <u>both</u> η_t and current gradient $g^{(t)}$
- A good initialization $m{w}^{(0)}$ matters, otherwise might get trapped in a bad local optima
- If run long enough, guaranteed to converge to a local optima (=global optima for convex functions)
- When to stop: Many criteria, e.g., gradients become too small, or validation error starts increasing

・ロト ・日ト ・ヨト ・ヨト (道) りんの

- The learning rate η_t is important
- Very small learning rates may result in very slow convergence
- Very large learning rates may lead to oscillatory behavior or result in a bad local optima

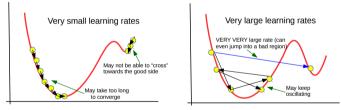


- The learning rate η_t is important
- Very small learning rates may result in very slow convergence
- Very large learning rates may lead to oscillatory behavior or result in a bad local optima



• Many ways to set the learning rate, e.g.,

- The learning rate η_t is important
- Very small learning rates may result in very slow convergence
- Very large learning rates may lead to oscillatory behavior or result in a bad local optima



- Many ways to set the learning rate, e.g.,
 - Constant (if properly set, can still show good convergence behavior)
 - Decreasing with t (e.g. 1/t, $1/\sqrt{t}$, etc.)
 - Use adaptive learning rates (e.g., using methods such as Adagrad, Adam)

Gradient Descent: Gradient Computations may be Expensive

- Gradient computation in GD may be very expensive
- Reason: Need to evaluate N terms. Assuming no regularization term, something like

$$oldsymbol{g} =
abla_{oldsymbol{w}}\left[\sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell_n(oldsymbol{w})
ight] = \sum_{n=1}^{N} oldsymbol{g}_n$$

.. will be very expensive when N is very large



Gradient Descent: Gradient Computations may be Expensive

- Gradient computation in GD may be very expensive
- Reason: Need to evaluate N terms. Assuming no regularization term, something like

$$oldsymbol{g} =
abla_{oldsymbol{w}}\left[\sum_{n=1}^N \ell_n(oldsymbol{w})
ight] = \sum_{n=1}^N oldsymbol{g}_n$$

.. will be very expensive when N is very large

• A solution: Use stochastic gradient descent (SGD). Pick a random $i \in \{1, ..., N\}$

$$oldsymbol{g} pprox oldsymbol{g}_i =
abla_{oldsymbol{w}} \ell_i(oldsymbol{w})$$

(日)

Gradient Descent: Gradient Computations may be Expensive

- Gradient computation in GD may be very expensive
- Reason: Need to evaluate N terms. Assuming no regularization term, something like

$$oldsymbol{g} =
abla_{oldsymbol{w}}\left[\sum_{n=1}^N \ell_n(oldsymbol{w})
ight] = \sum_{n=1}^N oldsymbol{g}_n$$

.. will be very expensive when N is very large

• A solution: Use stochastic gradient descent (SGD). Pick a random $i \in \{1, ..., N\}$

$$oldsymbol{g} pprox oldsymbol{g}_i =
abla_{oldsymbol{w}} \ell_i(oldsymbol{w})$$

• SGD updates use this approximation of the actual gradient

Stochastic Gradient Descent

1. Initialize
$$\boldsymbol{w}$$
 as $\boldsymbol{w}^{(0)}$
2. Pick a random $i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$. Update \boldsymbol{w} as follows
 $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} = \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} - \eta_t \boldsymbol{g}_i^{(t)}$
3. Repeat until convergence

- SGD uses a single example to compute the gradient
- Can show that $\mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{g}_i] = \boldsymbol{g}$. Therefore \boldsymbol{g}_i is an unbiased estimate of \boldsymbol{g} (good)



・ロト ・四ト ・モト ・モト

- SGD uses a single example to compute the gradient
- Can show that $\mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{g}_i] = \boldsymbol{g}$. Therefore \boldsymbol{g}_i is an unbiased estimate of \boldsymbol{g} (good)
- However, the approximate gradient will have large variance



• Many ways to control the variance in the gradient's approximation

- SGD uses a single example to compute the gradient
- Can show that $\mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{g}_i] = \boldsymbol{g}$. Therefore \boldsymbol{g}_i is an unbiased estimate of \boldsymbol{g} (good)
- However, the approximate gradient will have large variance



- Many ways to control the variance in the gradient's approximation
- One simple way is to use a mini-batch containing more than one (say B) example

$$m{g} \approx rac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^{B} m{g}_i$$

(日) (四) (三) (三) (三)

- SGD uses a single example to compute the gradient
- Can show that $\mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{g}_i] = \boldsymbol{g}$. Therefore \boldsymbol{g}_i is an unbiased estimate of \boldsymbol{g} (good)
- However, the approximate gradient will have large variance



- Many ways to control the variance in the gradient's approximation
- One simple way is to use a mini-batch containing more than one (say B) example

$$oldsymbol{g} pprox rac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B oldsymbol{g}_i$$

• This is known as mini-batch SGD

(日) (四) (日) (日)

• Ignoring the regularizer, consider the loss functions for linear and logistic regression

Linear Regression:
$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)^2$$

Logistic Regression: $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n - \log(1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)))$ (assuming $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$)

・ロト ・四ト ・モト ・モト

• Ignoring the regularizer, consider the loss functions for linear and logistic regression

Linear Regression:
$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)^2$$

Logistic Regression: $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n - \log(1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)))$ (assuming $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$)

• Both objectives are convex functions (can get global minima).

・ロト ・四ト ・モト ・モト

• Ignoring the regularizer, consider the loss functions for linear and logistic regression

Linear Regression:
$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)^2$$

Logistic Regression: $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n - \log(1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)))$ (assuming $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$)

• Both objectives are convex functions (can get global minima). The (full) gradients for each will be Linear Regression: $\mathbf{g} = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} 2(y_n - \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_n) \mathbf{x}_n$

• Ignoring the regularizer, consider the loss functions for linear and logistic regression

Linear Regression:
$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)^2$$

Logistic Regression: $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n - \log(1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)))$ (assuming $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$)

• Both objectives are convex functions (can get global minima). The (full) gradients for each will be Linear Regression: $\mathbf{g} = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} 2(y_n - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_n) \mathbf{x}_n$

Logistic Regression
$$\mathbf{g} = -\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (y_n - \mu_n) \mathbf{x}_n$$
 (where $\mu_n = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_n)$)

• Ignoring the regularizer, consider the loss functions for linear and logistic regression

Linear Regression:
$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)^2$$

Logistic Regression: $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n - \log(1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)))$ (assuming $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$)

Both objectives are convex functions (can get global minima). The (full) gradients for each will be Linear Regression: g = -∑_{n=1}^N 2(y_n - w^Tx_n)x_n
 Logistic Regression g = -∑_{n=1}^N (y_n - μ_n)x_n (where μ_n = σ(w^Tx_n))

• The GD updates in both cases will be of the form $\pmb{w}^{(t+1)}=\pmb{w}^{(t)}-\eta_t \pmb{g}^{(t)}$

• Ignoring the regularizer, consider the loss functions for linear and logistic regression

Linear Regression:
$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)^2$$

Logistic Regression: $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n - \log(1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)))$ (assuming $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$)

- Both objectives are convex functions (can get global minima). The (full) gradients for each will be Linear Regression: g = -∑_{n=1}^N 2(y_n w^Tx_n)x_n
 Logistic Regression g = -∑_{n=1}^N (y_n μ_n)x_n (where μ_n = σ(w^Tx_n))
- The GD updates in both cases will be of the form $\pmb{w}^{(t+1)}=\pmb{w}^{(t)}-\eta_t \pmb{g}^{(t)}$
- Note that highly mispredicted inputs x_n contribute more to g and thus to the weight updates!

• Ignoring the regularizer, consider the loss functions for linear and logistic regression

Linear Regression:
$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)^2$$

Logistic Regression: $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n - \log(1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)))$ (assuming $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$)

- Both objectives are convex functions (can get global minima). The (full) gradients for each will be Linear Regression: $\boldsymbol{g} = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} 2(y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n) \boldsymbol{x}_n$ Logistic Regression $\boldsymbol{g} = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mu_n) \boldsymbol{x}_n$ (where $\mu_n = \sigma(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)$)
- The GD updates in both cases will be of the form $m{w}^{(t+1)} = m{w}^{(t)} \eta_t m{g}^{(t)}$
- Note that highly mispredicted inputs x_n contribute more to g and thus to the weight updates!
- SGD is also straightforward (same as GD but with one or few inputs for each gradient computation)

GD and **SGD**: Some Comments

• Note that we could solve linear regression in closed form

$$\boldsymbol{w} = (\sum_{n=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{x}_n \boldsymbol{x}_n^{\top})^{-1} \sum_{n=1}^{N} y_n \boldsymbol{x}_n = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{y}$$

.. this has $O(D^3 + ND^2)$ cost

- GD for linear regression avoided the matrix inversion
- In general, cost of batch GD with N examples having D features: O(ND)
- SGD cost will be O(D) or O(BD) with mini-batch of size B
- There exist theoretical results on convergence rates of GD/SGD (beyond the scope)
 - GD will take $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon^2}\right)$ iterations reach ϵ -close solution, which is defined as

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^{(t)}) \leq \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^{(opt)}) + \epsilon$$
 (up to ϵ worse than optimal)

↓ □ ▶ < @ ▶ < E ▶ < E ▶ \\</p>

• The GD updates for the linear and logistic regression case look like

$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} + 2\eta_t \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - w^{(t)^{\top}} x_n) x_n$$
$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} + \eta_t \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mu_n^{(t)}) x_n$$

• The GD updates for the linear and logistic regression case look like

$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} + 2\eta_t \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - w^{(t)^{\top}} x_n) x_n$$
$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} + \eta_t \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mu_n^{(t)}) x_n$$

• These updates try to correct \boldsymbol{w} by moving it in the right direction

• The GD updates for the linear and logistic regression case look like

$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} + 2\eta_t \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - w^{(t)^{\top}} x_n) x_n$$
$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} + \eta_t \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mu_n^{(t)}) x_n$$

- These updates try to correct \boldsymbol{w} by moving it in the right direction
- Consider the linear regression case and simplicity assume N = 1. Can verify (exercise)
 - If $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)\top}\boldsymbol{x}_n < y_n$, the update will make $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)\top}\boldsymbol{x}_n > \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)\top}\boldsymbol{x}_n$. Thus \boldsymbol{w} moves more towards \boldsymbol{x}_n
 - If $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)\top}\boldsymbol{x}_n > y_n$, the update will make $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)\top}\boldsymbol{x}_n < \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)\top}\boldsymbol{x}_n$. Thus \boldsymbol{w} moves away from \boldsymbol{x}_n

• The GD updates for the linear and logistic regression case look like

$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} + 2\eta_t \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - w^{(t)^{\top}} x_n) x_n$$
$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} + \eta_t \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mu_n^{(t)}) x_n$$

- These updates try to correct \boldsymbol{w} by moving it in the right direction
- Consider the linear regression case and simplicity assume N = 1. Can verify (exercise)
 - If $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)\top}\boldsymbol{x}_n < y_n$, the update will make $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)\top}\boldsymbol{x}_n > \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)\top}\boldsymbol{x}_n$. Thus \boldsymbol{w} moves more towards \boldsymbol{x}_n
 - If $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)\top}\boldsymbol{x}_n > y_n$, the update will make $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)\top}\boldsymbol{x}_n < \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)\top}\boldsymbol{x}_n$. Thus \boldsymbol{w} moves away from \boldsymbol{x}_n
- Try the same for the logistic regression case (reason about it in terms of probabilities)

 What if the function is not differentiable (e.g., loss function with l₁ norm reg. on weights, or absolute loss function, or many other loss functions for classification models, such as SVM)?

- What if the function is not differentiable (e.g., loss function with ℓ_1 norm reg. on weights, or absolute loss function, or many other loss functions for classification models, such as SVM)?
 - One option is to use subgradient instead of gradient (subgradient descent)



- What if the function is not differentiable (e.g., loss function with ℓ_1 norm reg. on weights, or absolute loss function, or many other loss functions for classification models, such as SVM)?
 - One option is to use subgradient instead of gradient (subgradient descent)
- What if there are many variables, not just one (e.g., multi-output regression with W = BS)

- What if the function is not differentiable (e.g., loss function with l₁ norm reg. on weights, or absolute loss function, or many other loss functions for classification models, such as SVM)?
 - One option is to use subgradient instead of gradient (subgradient descent)
- What if there are many variables, not just one (e.g., multi-output regression with W = BS)
 - One option is to use alternating optimization (optimize w.r.t. one, fixing all others, and cycle through)

- What if the function is not differentiable (e.g., loss function with ℓ_1 norm reg. on weights, or absolute loss function, or many other loss functions for classification models, such as SVM)?
 - One option is to use subgradient instead of gradient (subgradient descent)
- What if there are many variables, not just one (e.g., multi-output regression with W = BS)
 - One option is to use alternating optimization (optimize w.r.t. one, fixing all others, and cycle through)
- What if **w** has too many component: Can even optimize **w** co-ordinate wise (co-ordinate descent)

- What if the function is not differentiable (e.g., loss function with ℓ_1 norm reg. on weights, or absolute loss function, or many other loss functions for classification models, such as SVM)?
 - One option is to use subgradient instead of gradient (subgradient descent)
- What if there are many variables, not just one (e.g., multi-output regression with W = BS)
 - One option is to use alternating optimization (optimize w.r.t. one, fixing all others, and cycle through)
- What if **w** has too many component: Can even optimize **w** co-ordinate wise (co-ordinate descent)
- What if we have an objective with constraints on variables, e.g.,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} = \arg\min_{||\boldsymbol{w}|| \leq c} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)^2$$
 (constraint based regularization)

• Constrained optimization problem! One option is to use Lagrangian based optimization

- What if the function is not differentiable (e.g., loss function with ℓ_1 norm reg. on weights, or absolute loss function, or many other loss functions for classification models, such as SVM)?
 - One option is to use subgradient instead of gradient (subgradient descent)
- What if there are many variables, not just one (e.g., multi-output regression with W = BS)
 - One option is to use alternating optimization (optimize w.r.t. one, fixing all others, and cycle through)
- What if **w** has too many component: Can even optimize **w** co-ordinate wise (co-ordinate descent)
- What if we have an objective with constraints on variables, e.g.,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} = \arg\min_{||\boldsymbol{w}|| \leq c} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)^2$$
 (constraint based regularization)

- Constrained optimization problem! One option is to use Lagrangian based optimization
- Can we use more than just gradient? Yes! (e.g., Newton's method uses the Hessian)



- What if the function is not differentiable (e.g., loss function with l₁ norm reg. on weights, or absolute loss function, or many other loss functions for classification models, such as SVM)?
 - One option is to use subgradient instead of gradient (subgradient descent)
- What if there are many variables, not just one (e.g., multi-output regression with W = BS)
 - One option is to use alternating optimization (optimize w.r.t. one, fixing all others, and cycle through)
- What if **w** has too many component: Can even optimize **w** co-ordinate wise (co-ordinate descent)
- What if we have an objective with constraints on variables, e.g.,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} = \arg\min_{||\boldsymbol{w}|| \leq c} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_n)^2$$
 (constraint based regularization)

- Constrained optimization problem! One option is to use Lagrangian based optimization
- Can we use more than just gradient? Yes! (e.g., Newton's method uses the Hessian)
- Will look at these in the next class..

▲□▶ ▲@▶ ▲ ≧▶ ▲ ≧▶ \