COMPSCI 589 Lecture 10: Support Vector and Neural Network Regression

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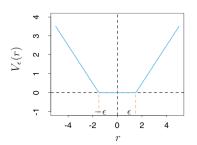
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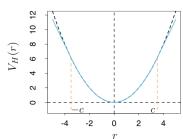
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Created with support from National Science Foundation Award# IIS-1350522.

Support Vector Regression

- Support Vector Regression (SVR) is the generalization of SVMs to the case of regression.
- As with SVMs, SVR is a linear regression model trained using a different objective function. In this case, the *epsilon insensitive loss*.





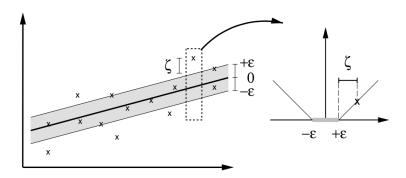
Support Vector Regression

$$f_{SVR}(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\sum_{d=1}^{D} w_d x_d\right) + b = \mathbf{x}\mathbf{w} + b$$

$$\mathbf{w}^*, b^* = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}, b} C \sum_{i=1}^{N} V_{\epsilon}(y_i - \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{w} - b) + ||\mathbf{w}||_2^2$$

$$V_{\epsilon}(r) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{... if } |r| < \epsilon \\ |r| - \epsilon & \text{... otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Support Vector Regression



Kernelization

Using the same representer theorem used in classification, it can be shown that

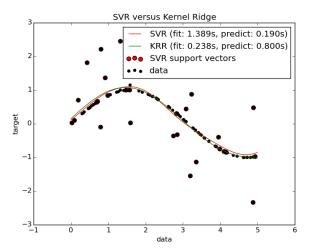
$$f_{SVR}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}\mathbf{w}^* + b^* = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i < \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i > + \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i < 1, \mathbf{x}_i >$$

This can again be generalized using kernels to allow for non-linear models:

$$f_{SVR}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}\mathbf{w}^* + b* = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$$



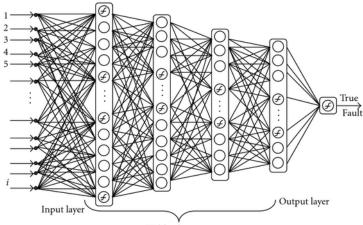
SVR vs KRR



Trade-Offs

- SVR is more robust to outliers than OLS (minimizing the MSE) due to the loss being linear in the tails instead of quadratic. This is related to a long line of work on robust regression.
- Kernel SVR is low bias and has good capacity control, but use of cross validation to select regularization hyperparameters is critical.
- The learning problem is convex for any choice of reglarization parameters and thus has a unique global optimum.
- The kernel matrix computation is quadratic in the data dimension, but the model has a support vector property.
- You need to know what kernel to use or you need to use some form of validation to select from among several alternatives.

Multi-Layer Perceptron



Neural Network Regression

To convert an MLP from classification to regression, we only need to change the output activation function from logistic to linear.

■ The hidden layer non-linearities are smooth functions:

$$h_k^1 = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(\sum_d w_{dk}^1 x_d + b_{dk}^1))}$$

$$h_k^i = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(\sum_l w_{lk}^i h_l^{(i-1)} + b_{lk}^i))} \text{ for } i = 2, ..., L$$

■ The output layer activation function is a linear function:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \sum_{l} w_l^o h_l^L + b^o$$

Learning

Let θ be the complete collection of parameters defining a neural network model. Our goal is to find the value of θ that minimizes the MSE on the training data set $\mathcal{D} = \{y_i, \mathbf{x}_i\}_{i=1:N}$

$$\mathcal{L}_{MSE}(\mathcal{D}|\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \hat{y}_n)^2$$

We need the gradient with respect to each of the parameters. Let's begin with w_l^o :

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{MSE}(\mathcal{D}|\theta)}{\partial w_l^o} = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_l^o} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (y_n - \hat{y}_n)^2 = 0 \tag{1}$$

$$= \frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \hat{y}_n) \frac{\partial \hat{y}_n}{\partial w_l^o}$$
 (2)

$$= \frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \hat{y}_n) h_l^L \tag{3}$$

It's also useful to define the derivatives wrt the hidden units for a single data case:

$$\epsilon_k^L = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{MSE}(y, \mathbf{x}|\theta)}{\partial h_k^L} = \frac{\partial}{\partial h_k^L} (y - \hat{y})^2$$
 (4)

$$=2(y-\hat{y})\frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial h_k^L} \tag{5}$$

$$=2(y-\hat{y})w_k^o\tag{6}$$

In general, we can define: $\epsilon_k^j = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{MSE}(y, \mathbf{x} | \theta)}{\partial h_k^j}$

Suppose we're trying to compute the derivative with respect to the weight w_{kl}^j for some layer j and assume we have ϵ_l^j computed for all hidden units l in layer j.

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{MSE}(y, \mathbf{x} | \theta)}{\partial w_{kl}^{j}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{MSE}(y, \mathbf{x} | \theta)}{\partial h_{l}^{j}} \frac{\partial h_{l}^{j}}{\partial w_{kl}^{j}}$$
(7)

$$= \epsilon_l^j h_l^j (1 - h_l^j) h_k^{j-1} \tag{8}$$

The total derivative is then given by:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{MSE}(\mathcal{D}|\theta)}{\partial w_{kl}^{j}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{MSE}(y_{n}, \mathbf{x}_{n}|\theta)}{\partial w_{kl}^{j}}$$

Suppose we're trying to compute the error with respect to hidden unit k in layer j-1 and assume we have ϵ_l^j computed for all hidden units l in layer j.

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{MSE}(y, \mathbf{x}|\theta)}{\partial h_k^{j-1}} = \sum_{l} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{MSE}(y, \mathbf{x}|\theta)}{\partial h_l^{j}} \frac{\partial h_l^{l}}{\partial h_k^{j-1}}$$
(9)

$$= \sum_{l} \epsilon_{l}^{j} h_{l}^{j} (1 - h_{l}^{j}) w_{kl}^{j-1}$$
 (10)

Backpropagation

- The Backpropagation algorithm works by making a forward pass through the network for each data case and storing all the hidden unit values.
- The algorithm then computes the error at the output and makes a backward pass through the network computing the derivatives with respect to the parameters as well as the contribution of each hidden unit to the error. These are the ϵ_k^j values.
- The complete computation is just an application of the chain rule with caching of intermediate terms in the neural network graph structure.

Trade-Offs

- Neural network regression has low bias, but high variance.
- The objective function has local optima and requires iterative numerical optimization using backpropagation to compute the gradients, which can be slow.
- Making predictions with trained models can be very fast.
- Capacity control in these models can be crucial. The capacity parameters are the depth of the network and the size of each layer.
- These models can also be trained using ℓ_2 or ℓ_1 regularization or the more recent dropout scheme as an alternative to controlling network structure.