Training Models with Regression and Gradient Descent

COMP 4630 | Winter 2025

Charlotte Curtis

Overview

- Linear Regression and the Normal Equation
- Gradient Descent and its various flavours
- References and suggested reading:
 - Scikit-learn book:
 - Chapter 4: Training Models
 - Deep Learning Book
 - Section 5.1.4: Linear Regression

Linear Regression

Unlike most models, linear regression has a **closed-form** solution called the **Normal Equation**:

$$\hat{\theta} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

where

- $\hat{ heta}$ are the weights of the model minimizing the \mathbf{cost} function
- y is the vector of target values
- ullet X is the **design matrix** of feature values

As usual, different sources use different notation, e.g. ${\bf w}$ or ϕ instead of θ .

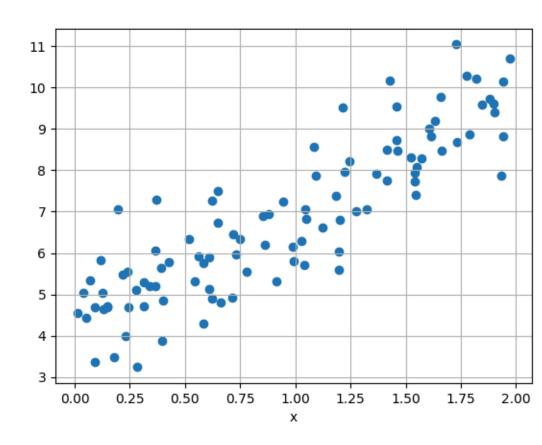
Consider the 1-d case:

$$\hat{y} = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$$

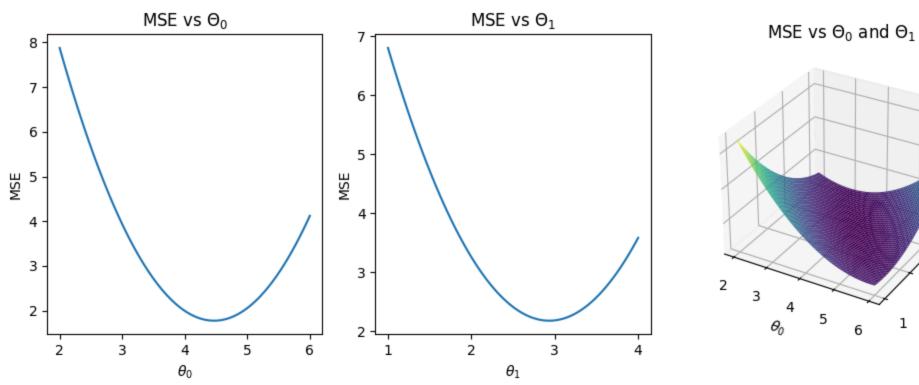
we want the values of θ_0 and θ_1 that minimize the **Mean Square Error** between the actual and predicted y values:

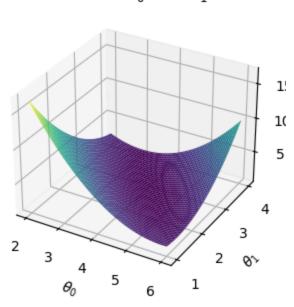
$$MSE = rac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{y} - y_i)^2$$

$$MSE = rac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^m (heta_0 + heta_1 x_i - y_i)^2$$



Solving for θ_0 and θ_1



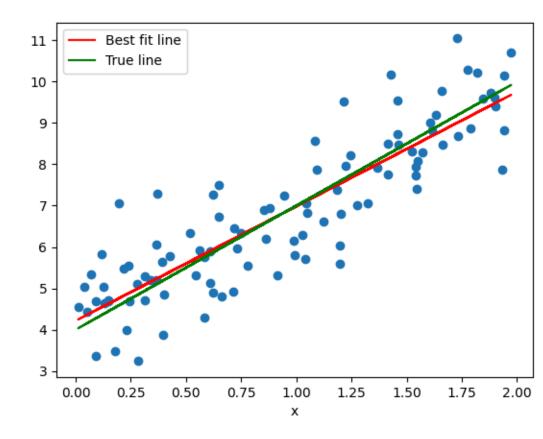


Solving for θ_0 and θ_1

After some algebraic gymnastics, we get:

$$egin{aligned} heta_1 &= rac{\mu_y \sum_m x_i - \sum_m x_i y_i}{\mu_x \sum_m x_i - \sum_m x_i^2} \ heta_0 &= \mu_y - heta_1 \mu_x \end{aligned}$$

where μ_x and μ_y are the means of the x and y values, respectively.



Expanding to matrix form

Instead of the scalar x or even vector x, we can use a **design matrix** X to represent the feature values:

$$\mathbf{X} = egin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1n} \ x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2n} \ dots & dots & \ddots & dots \ x_{m1} & x_{m2} & \cdots & x_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

where each row is an instance (sample) and each column is a feature.

It is common for the first column to be all ones, representing the bias term

Back to the linear regression problem...

• We can rewrite the estimate in matrix notation:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}\theta$$

The MSE can be written as:

$$MSE = rac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2 = rac{1}{m} (\mathbf{X} heta - \mathbf{y})^T (\mathbf{X} heta - \mathbf{y})$$

where we've used the trick of substituting $\mathbf{a}^T\mathbf{a}=\sum_i a_i^2$

• \blacksquare Find the gradient of the MSE w.r.t θ , set it to zero, and solve for θ

Properties of matrices and their transpose

The following properties are useful for solving linear algebra problems:

•
$$(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B})^T = \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{A}^T$$

•
$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})^T = \mathbf{A}^T + \mathbf{B}^T$$

•
$$(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T = (\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1}$$

•
$$(\mathbf{A}^{\mathbf{T}})^T = \mathbf{A}$$

Additionally, any matrix or vector multiplied by ${f I}$ is unchanged.

The Normal Equation

We made it! The **Normal Equation** is again:

$$\hat{ heta} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

- ullet No optimization is required to find the optimal heta
- Limitations:
 - \circ $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$ must be invertible and small enough to fit in memory
 - \circ The computational complexity is (at least) $O(n^3)$
- Even in linear regression problems, it is common to use **gradient descent** instead due to these limitations

Gradient Descent

The goal of gradient descent is still to minimize the cost function, but it follows an iterative process:

- 1. Start with a random θ
- 2. Calculate the gradient ∇_{θ} for the current θ
- 3. Update θ as $\theta = \theta \eta \nabla_{\theta}$
- 4. Repeat 2-3 until some stopping criterion is met

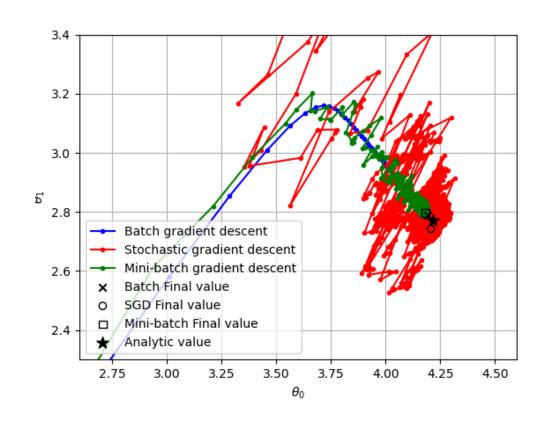
where η is the **learning rate**, or the size of step to take in the direction opposite the gradient.

Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Standard or **batch** gradient descent uses the entire training set to calculate the gradient for each instance at every step
- Stochastic Gradient Descent uses a single random instance at each step:
 - i. Start with a random θ
 - ii. Pick a random instance \mathbf{x}_i (row in the design matrix)
 - iii. Calculate the gradient $abla_{ heta}$ for the current heta and \mathbf{x}_i
 - iv. Update heta as $heta= heta-\eta
 abla_ heta$
 - v. Repeat 2-4 until some stopping criterion is met

Mini-batch Gradient Descent

- Mini-batch gradient descent uses a random subset of the training set
- Less chaotic than stochastic, but faster than batch
- Most common type of gradient descent used in practice



Gradient Descent Hyperparameters

- The **learning rate** η size of step taken
- No rule that it needs to be constant! A simple **learning schedule** is to decrease η over time, e.g.:

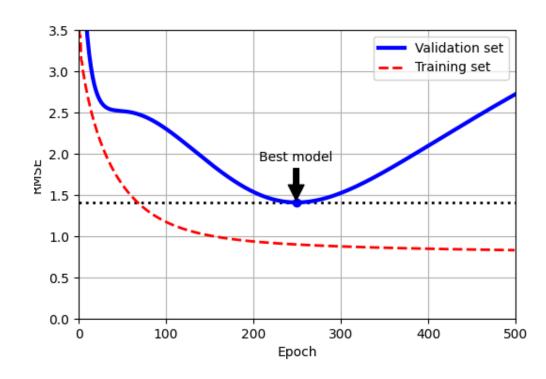
$$\eta = rac{t_0}{t+t_1}$$

where t is the current iteration and t_0 and t_1 are hyper-parameters

- For mini-batch, the **batch size** is another hyper-parameter
- The number of **epochs**, or times to process the entire training set

Stopping Criteria

- The simplest stopping criterion is to set a maximum number of epochs
- **Early stopping** is another option:
 - Evaluate on a validation set at regular intervals
 - Stop when the validation error starts to increase
- The comparison between training and validation performance can also help prevent overfitting



Loss functions

- The **loss function** is the function being minimized by gradient descent
- MSE is convex and guaranteed to have a single global minimum, but many other loss functions have multiple local minima
- The relative scale of the features can affect the convergence:

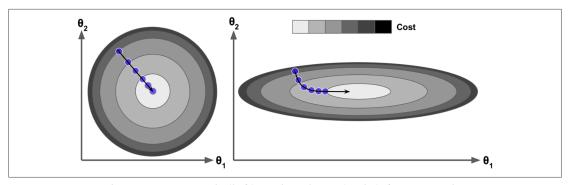


Figure 4-7. Gradient Descent with (left) and without (right) feature scaling

Figure from Scikit-Learn book 1

Higher-order Polynomials

Higher order polynomials can be solved with the Normal Equation as well:

$$y = heta_0 + heta_1 x + heta_2 x^2 + \dots + heta_n x^n$$

- ullet Just include the higher order terms in ${f X}$
- This is still a linear regression problem because the coefficients are linear!
- Risk of overfitting the data
- Easy way to regularize: drop one or more of the higher order terms

Regularization

- If the model fits the training data *too* well, but doesn't generalize to new data, it is **overfitting**
- Regularization imposes additional constraints on the weights
- Example: Ridge Regression adds a term to the loss function:

$$J(heta) = MSE(heta) + lpha rac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n heta_i^2$$

where α is the **regularization parameter**

• The regularization term is only added during training, not evaluation

Note: the term **cost** function is often used instead of **loss** function

Logistic regression and beyond

Logistic regression is a binary classifier that uses the **logistic function** (aka **sigmoid function**) to map the output to a range of 0 to 1:

$$\sigma(t) = rac{1}{1 + e^{-t}}$$

resulting in the loss function (trust me on this one):

$$J(heta) = -rac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^m \left[y_i\log(\hat{p}_i) + (1-y_i)\log(1-\hat{p}_i)
ight]$$

where $\hat{p}_i = \sigma(\theta^T \mathbf{x}_i)$ is the probability that instance i is positive.

The gradient of the loss function for logistic regression is:

$$abla_{ heta} J(heta) = rac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m igl(\sigma(heta^T \mathbf{x}_i) - y_i igr) \mathbf{x}_i \,.$$

- There is no (known) analytical solution this time, but we can still use gradient descent!
- In this case it's still convex, so we don't have to worry about local minima
- In general, for a loss function to work with gradient descent, it must be:
 - Continuous and
 - Differentiable
 - ... at the locations where you evaluate it

Next up: Backpropagation!