# **Linear Regression and Gradient Descent**

### Satyanarayana Gajjarapu

AI24BTECH11009
Department of Artificial Intelligence
ai24btech11009@iith.ac.in

## 1 Univariate linear regression

A univariate linear function is a straight line with input x and output y having the form  $y = w_1x + w_0$ , where  $w_0$  and  $w_1$  are real-valued coefficients. A vector  $\mathbf{w}$  is defined as  $\langle w_0, w_1 \rangle$  and linear function as  $h_{\mathbf{w}}(x) = w_1x + w_0$ . The task of finding the  $h_{\mathbf{w}}$  that best fits the data is called **linear regression**. To fit a line to the data, it is required to find values of weights  $\langle w_0, w_1 \rangle$  that minimize the empirical loss. It is traditional to use the squared error loss function,  $L_2$ .

$$Loss(h_{\mathbf{w}}) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} L_2(y_j, h_{\mathbf{w}}(x_j)) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} (y_j - h_{\mathbf{w}}(x_j))^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{N} (y_j - (w_1 x_j + w_0))^2$$

The  $Loss(h_{\mathbf{w}})$  is minimized when partial derivatives with respect to  $w_0$  and  $w_1$  are equated to zero. Solving the obtained 2 equations, a unique solution of  $w_0$  and  $w_1$  is obtained.

$$w_1 = \frac{N(\sum x_j y_j) - (\sum x_j)(\sum y_j)}{N(\sum x_j^2) - (\sum x_j)^2}; \qquad w_0 = (\sum y_j - w_1(\sum x_j))/N$$

The space defined by all possible settings of the weights is called **weight space**. For univariate linear regression, the weight space is 2 - dimensional defined by  $w_0$  and  $w_1$ . So the graph of loss as a function of  $w_0$  and  $w_1$  is a 3D plot.

#### 2 Gradient Descent

An algorithm called **hill climbing** is used to search through a continuous weight space by incrementally modifying the parameters. But the term **gradient descent** is used because the aim is minimizing loss, not maximizing gain. The algorithm is as follows:

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} Loss(\mathbf{w})$$

The parameter  $\alpha$  is step size which is usually called the **learning rate**. For univariate regression, the loss is quadratic, so the partial derivative will be linear.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} Loss(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (y - h_{\mathbf{w}}(x))^2 = 2(y - h_{\mathbf{w}}(x)) \times \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (y - h_{\mathbf{w}}(x))$$
$$= 2(y - h_{\mathbf{w}}(x)) \times \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (y - (w_1 x + w_0))$$

Applying this to both  $w_0$  and  $w_1$ ,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_0} Loss(\mathbf{w}) = -2(y - h_{\mathbf{w}}); \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial w_1} Loss(\mathbf{w}) = -2(y - h_{\mathbf{w}}) \times x$$

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Using these 2 equations and unspecified learning rate  $\alpha$  to get the learning rule for the weights,

$$w_0 \leftarrow w_0 + \alpha(y - h_{\mathbf{w}}(x));$$
  $w_1 \leftarrow w_1 + \alpha(y - h_{\mathbf{w}}(x)) \times x$ 

Examples for different types of gradient descent algorithms are **batch gradient descent** (deterministic gradient descent), **stochastic gradient descent** (online gradient descent) or **SGD** and **minibatch gradient descent**. A step that covers all the training examples is called an **epoch**.

# 3 Multivariable linear regression

This can be extended to **multivariable linear regression** in which  $\mathbf{x}_j$  is an n - element vector. The term  $w_0$  is defined as always equal to 1. h can simply written as the dot product of the weights and the input vector. The hypothesis space consists functions of form

$$h_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_j) = w_0 + w_1 x_{j,1} + \dots + w_n x_{j,n} = w_0 + \sum_i w_i x_{j,i}$$
$$h_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_j) = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_j = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_j = \sum_i w_i x_{j,i}$$

The updated equation for each weight  $w_i$  is

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha \sum_j (y_j - h_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_j)) \times x_{j,i}$$

Let y be the vector of outputs for the training examples, and X be the **data matrix**. The vector of predicted outputs is  $\hat{y} = Xw$  and the squared error loss over all the training data is

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = ||\hat{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{y}||^2 = ||\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}||^2$$

After setting gradient to 0 and rearranging, minimum loss weight is obtained as

$$\mathbf{w}^* = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{v}$$

This equation is called **normal equation** and  $(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}$  is called **pseudoinverse** of data matrix.

# 4 Cauchy and the Gradient Method

Cauchy is motivated by astronomic calculations which are normally very voluminous. In those days to solve a multivariable equation, one reduces the equation to a single variable by successive eliminations. Consider a function  $u=f(x,y,z,\cdots)$  and  $X=f'_x,Y=f'_y,Z=f'_z,\cdots$  are the derivatives. Aim is to find the values of  $x,y,z,\cdots$  satisfying the equation u=0. Let  $\alpha,\beta,\gamma,\cdots$  be small increments given to the particular values  $x,y,z,\cdots$ 

$$f(x+\alpha,y+\beta,z+\gamma,\cdots) = u + X\alpha + Y\beta + Z\gamma + \cdots$$

Taking  $\theta$ >0, we obtain approximately

$$f(x - \theta X, y - \theta Y, z - \theta Z, \cdots) = u - \theta(X^2 + Y^2 + Z^2 + \cdots)$$

If  $\theta$  increases and the function  $f(x,y,z,\cdots)$  is continuous, the value of u will decrease until it vanishes. Cauchy does not seem to believe that the method always finds a solution, but he hoped it does.