

# Overview of Machine Learning

in particular, Supervised Learning

Chris Cornwell

Mar 13, 2025

# Outline

Machine Learning

Supervised learning

First look at Gradient Descent

# Outline

## Machine Learning

### Supervised learning

### First look at Gradient Descent

# What is Machine Learning?

Definition by Tom Mitchell:

*A “computer program” is said to **learn** from experience  $E$ , with respect to some task  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if: its performance on  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ .*

# What is Machine Learning?

Definition by Tom Mitchell:

*A “computer program” is said to **learn** from experience  $E$ , with respect to some task  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if: its performance on  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ .*

- The definition is intentionally general. Often, could think of  $E$  as “training” (updates to how program runs), based on observed data.

# What is Machine Learning?

Definition by Tom Mitchell:

*A “computer program” is said to **learn** from experience  $E$ , with respect to some task  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if: its performance on  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ .*

- ▶ The definition is intentionally general. Often, could think of  $E$  as “training” (updates to how program runs), based on observed data.
- ▶ “computer program,” for us, means a function implemented on a computer that produces output from given input. The output is how the program achieves the task  $T$ .

# What is Machine Learning?

Definition by Tom Mitchell:

*A “computer program” is said to **learn** from experience  $E$ , with respect to some task  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if: its performance on  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ .*

- ▶ The definition is intentionally general. Often, could think of  $E$  as “training” (updates to how program runs), based on observed data.
- ▶ “computer program,” for us, means a function implemented on a computer that produces output from given input. The output is how the program achieves the task  $T$ .
- ▶ The procedures discussed in class – linear regression and the Perceptron algorithm for half-space model – fit into this paradigm...*kind of*.

# What is Machine Learning?

Definition by Tom Mitchell:

*A computer program is said to **learn** from experience  $E$ , with respect to some task  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if: its performance on  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ .*

Examples:

1. Linear regression.

- Output of  $\hat{y}$  on input  $x$  (potentially multiple variables).



# What is Machine Learning?

Definition by Tom Mitchell:

*A computer program is said to **learn** from experience  $E$ , with respect to some task  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if: its performance on  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ .*

Examples:

## 1. Linear regression.

- ▶ Output of  $\hat{y}$  on input  $x$  (potentially multiple variables).
- ▶  $T$ : fit observed points  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  well with predictions  $\{(x_i, \hat{y}_i)\}$ , where  $\hat{y}_i = mx_i + b$  for some  $m, b$  (an expectation of  $(x, \hat{y})$  being good fit on *unobserved* data).

# What is Machine Learning?

Definition by Tom Mitchell:

*A computer program is said to **learn** from experience  $E$ , with respect to some task  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if: its performance on  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ .*

Examples:

## 1. Linear regression.

- ▶ Output of  $\hat{y}$  on input  $x$  (potentially multiple variables).
- ▶  $T$ : fit observed points  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  well with predictions  $\{(x_i, \hat{y}_i)\}$ , where  $\hat{y}_i = mx_i + b$  for some  $m, b$  (an expectation of  $(x, \hat{y})$  being good fit on *unobserved* data).
- ▶  $E$ : ??

The data are used to get  $m$  and  $b$ , but you don't really "improve" with repeated use of data.

# What is Machine Learning?

Definition by Tom Mitchell:

*A computer program is said to **learn** from experience  $E$ , with respect to some task  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if: its performance on  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ .*

Examples:

## 1. Linear regression.

- ▶ Output of  $\hat{y}$  on input  $x$  (potentially multiple variables).
- ▶  $T$ : fit observed points  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  well with predictions  $\{(x_i, \hat{y}_i)\}$ , where  $\hat{y}_i = mx_i + b$  for some  $m, b$  (an expectation of  $(x, \hat{y})$  being good fit on *unobserved* data).
- ▶  $E$ : ??

The data are used to get  $m$  and  $b$ , but you don't really "improve" with repeated use of data.

Closed form for best choice of  $m, b$ , computing  $(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \mathbf{y}$ .

# What is Machine Learning?

Definition by Tom Mitchell:

*A computer program is said to **learn** from experience  $E$ , with respect to some task  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if: its performance on  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ .*

Examples:

## 1. Linear regression.

- ▶ Output of  $\hat{y}$  on input  $x$  (potentially multiple variables).
- ▶  $T$ : fit observed points  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  well with predictions  $\{(x_i, \hat{y}_i)\}$ , where  $\hat{y}_i = mx_i + b$  for some  $m, b$  (an expectation of  $(x, \hat{y})$  being good fit on *unobserved* data).
- ▶  $E$ : ??  
The data are used to get  $m$  and  $b$ , but you don't really "improve" with repeated use of data.  
Closed form for best choice of  $m, b$ , computing  $(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \mathbf{y}$ .
- ▶  $P$ : Mean squared error.

Having closed form, result of simplicity of the form of  $\hat{y}_i$ .

# What is Machine Learning?

Definition by Tom Mitchell:

*A computer program is said to **learn** from experience  $E$ , with respect to some task  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if: its performance on  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ .*

Examples:

2. The Perceptron algorithm.

- Output of label  $\pm 1$  on input  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  (or something turned into  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ).

# What is Machine Learning?

Definition by Tom Mitchell:

*A computer program is said to **learn** from experience  $E$ , with respect to some task  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if: its performance on  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ .*

Examples:

## 2. The Perceptron algorithm.

- ▶ Output of label  $\pm 1$  on input  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  (or something turned into  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ).
- ▶  $T$ : predict labels correctly, using  $W = (\mathbf{w}, b) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  to decide label,  $y = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b)$   
...hopefully works on *unobserved* data.

# What is Machine Learning?

Definition by Tom Mitchell:

*A computer program is said to **learn** from experience  $E$ , with respect to some task  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if: its performance on  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ .*

Examples:

## 2. The Perceptron algorithm.

- ▶ Output of label  $\pm 1$  on input  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  (or something turned into  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ).
- ▶  $T$ : predict labels correctly, using  $W = (\mathbf{w}, b) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  to decide label,  $y = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b)$   
...hopefully works on *unobserved* data.
- ▶  $E$ : looking through observed data  $X_i = (\mathbf{x}_i, 1)$ , label  $y_i$ , and updating  $W^{(t+1)} = W^{(t)} + y_i X_i$  when  $i$  found with  $W^{(t)} \cdot (y_i X_i) \leq 0$ .

# What is Machine Learning?

Definition by Tom Mitchell:

*A computer program is said to **learn** from experience  $E$ , with respect to some task  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if: its performance on  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ .*

Examples:

## 2. The Perceptron algorithm.

- ▶ Output of label  $\pm 1$  on input  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  (or something *turned into*  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ).
- ▶  $T$ : predict labels correctly, using  $W = (\mathbf{w}, b) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  to decide label,  $y = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b)$   
...hopefully works on *unobserved* data.
- ▶  $E$ : looking through observed data  $X_i = (\mathbf{x}_i, 1)$ , label  $y_i$ , and updating  $W^{(t+1)} = W^{(t)} + y_i X_i$  when  $i$  found with  $W^{(t)} \cdot (y_i X_i) \leq 0$ .
- ▶  $P$ : ??  
Whether its labels on all observed data are correct. But, only two results: *True* or *False*.



# What is Machine Learning?

Definition by Tom Mitchell:

*A computer program is said to **learn** from experience  $E$ , with respect to some task  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if: its performance on  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ .*

Examples:

## 2. The Perceptron algorithm.

- ▶ Output of label  $\pm 1$  on input  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  (or something *turned into*  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ).
- ▶  $T$ : predict labels correctly, using  $W = (\mathbf{w}, b) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  to decide label,  $y = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b)$   
...hopefully works on *unobserved* data.
- ▶  $E$ : looking through observed data  $X_i = (\mathbf{x}_i, 1)$ , label  $y_i$ , and updating  $W^{(t+1)} = W^{(t)} + y_i X_i$  when  $i$  found with  $W^{(t)} \cdot (y_i X_i) \leq 0$ .
- ▶  $P$ : ??

Whether its labels on all observed data are correct. But, only two results: *True* or *False*.

If data is linearly separable, enough of experience  $E$  improves this measure (changing to *True*). Only happens if linearly separable.

## What are the general types of tasks in machine learning?

Supervised learning: the program learns from sample data that has labels. Goal: determine underlying function from sample data.

# What are the general types of tasks in machine learning?

Supervised learning: the program learns from sample data that has labels. Goal: determine underlying function from sample data.

Examples.

- ▶ Housing price prediction
- ▶ Whether emails are phishing or not phishing.
- ▶ Determine if a satellite image of ocean has floating trash.
- ▶ Try to auto-complete a sentence being typed.

# What are the general types of tasks in machine learning?

Supervised learning: the program learns from sample data that has labels. Goal: determine underlying function from sample data.

Examples.

- ▶ Housing price prediction
- ▶ Whether emails are phishing or not phishing.
- ▶ Determine if a satellite image of ocean has floating trash.
- ▶ Try to auto-complete a sentence being typed.

Unsupervised learning: there is sample data, but the data does not have any labels. Goal: discover something (a pattern, grouping, or some insight) about the data.

# What are the general types of tasks in machine learning?

Supervised learning: the program learns from sample data that has labels. Goal: determine underlying function from sample data.

Examples.

- ▶ Housing price prediction
- ▶ Whether emails are phishing or not phishing.
- ▶ Determine if a satellite image of ocean has floating trash.
- ▶ Try to auto-complete a sentence being typed.

Unsupervised learning: there is sample data, but the data does not have any labels. Goal: discover something (a pattern, grouping, or some insight) about the data.

Examples.

- ▶ Market segmentation.
- ▶ News feed (grouping similar news articles).
- ▶ Separate audio sources in a mixed signal.
- ▶ Organize computing clusters.

# Outline

Machine Learning

Supervised learning

First look at Gradient Descent

## The goal of supervised learning

Have an “input space” (which often is  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , or a subset of it, but could be a different space); and have an output space, or label space,  $Y$ .

# The goal of supervised learning

Have an “input space” (which often is  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , or a subset of it, but could be a different space); and have an output space, or label space,  $Y$ .

- ▶ Given a sample  $\mathcal{S} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ , with  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y_i \in Y$ , drawn from an (unknown) joint probability distribution  $P_{X,Y} : \mathbb{R}^d \times Y \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ .



# The goal of supervised learning

Have an “input space” (which often is  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , or a subset of it, but could be a different space); and have an output space, or label space,  $Y$ .

- ▶ Given a sample  $\mathcal{S} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ , with  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y_i \in Y$ , drawn from an (unknown) joint probability distribution  $P_{X,Y} : \mathbb{R}^d \times Y \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ .
- ▶ Goal: to learn, from  $\mathcal{S}$ , a function  $f^* : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow Y$  that “fits” (*approximates well*) the distribution  $P_{X,Y}$ .

# The goal of supervised learning

Have an “input space” (which often is  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , or a subset of it, but could be a different space); and have an output space, or label space,  $Y$ .

- ▶ Given a sample  $\mathcal{S} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ , with  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y_i \in Y$ , drawn from an (unknown) joint probability distribution  $P_{X,Y} : \mathbb{R}^d \times Y \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ .
- ▶ Goal: to learn, from  $\mathcal{S}$ , a function  $f^* : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow Y$  that “fits” (*approximates well*) the distribution  $P_{X,Y}$ .
- ▶ You might not be able to have points on the graph of  $f^*$  be typically “very close” to samples from  $P_{X,Y}$ . However, ideally, for an  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  corresponding  $y$ -value on graph is near the expected value given  $\mathbf{x}$ .

## How to achieve the goal

Most often, we choose a *parameterized class* of functions<sup>1</sup>, and we get  $f^*$  from that class.

---

<sup>1</sup>Sometimes called a *hypothesis class*.

# How to achieve the goal

Most often, we choose a *parameterized class* of functions<sup>1</sup>, and we get  $f^*$  from that class.

- That is, there is a space of parameters  $\Omega$ ; an  $\omega \in \Omega$  determines a function  $f_\omega : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow Y$ , and the parameterized class is the set of all such functions  $f_\omega$ .

---

<sup>1</sup>Sometimes called a *hypothesis class*.

# How to achieve the goal

Most often, we choose a *parameterized class* of functions<sup>1</sup>, and we get  $f^*$  from that class.

- ▶ That is, there is a space of parameters  $\Omega$ ; an  $\omega \in \Omega$  determines a function  $f_\omega : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow Y$ , and the parameterized class is the set of all such functions  $f_\omega$ .
- ▶ To learn a function that fits well, you look for good parameters.

---

<sup>1</sup>Sometimes called a *hypothesis class*.

# How to achieve the goal

Most often, we choose a *parameterized class* of functions<sup>1</sup>, and we get  $f^*$  from that class.

- ▶ That is, there is a space of parameters  $\Omega$ ; an  $\omega \in \Omega$  determines a function  $f_\omega : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow Y$ , and the parameterized class is the set of all such functions  $f_\omega$ .
- ▶ To learn a function that fits well, you look for good parameters.

How do we find good parameters?

Select a performance measure: **(empirical) loss function**  $\mathcal{L}_S : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

In the empirical loss function, we use  $S$  in its definition.

---

<sup>1</sup>Sometimes called a *hypothesis class*.

# How to achieve the goal

Most often, we choose a *parameterized class* of functions<sup>1</sup>, and we get  $f^*$  from that class.

- ▶ That is, there is a space of parameters  $\Omega$ ; an  $\omega \in \Omega$  determines a function  $f_\omega : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow Y$ , and the parameterized class is the set of all such functions  $f_\omega$ .
- ▶ To learn a function that fits well, you look for good parameters.

How do we find good parameters?

Select a performance measure: **(empirical) loss function**  $\mathcal{L}_S : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

In the empirical loss function, we use  $S$  in its definition.

---

<sup>1</sup>Sometimes called a *hypothesis class*.

# How to achieve the goal

Most often, we choose a *parameterized class* of functions<sup>1</sup>, and we get  $f^*$  from that class.

- ▶ That is, there is a space of parameters  $\Omega$ ; an  $\omega \in \Omega$  determines a function  $f_\omega : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow Y$ , and the parameterized class is the set of all such functions  $f_\omega$ .
- ▶ To learn a function that fits well, you look for good parameters.

How do we find good parameters?

Select a performance measure: **(empirical) loss function**  $\mathcal{L}_S : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

In the empirical loss function, we use  $S$  in its definition.

- ▶ Then,  $\mathcal{L}_S$  is used to determine how to make changes to parameters,  $\omega$ , in order to decrease the value of  $\mathcal{L}_S$ .

---

<sup>1</sup>Sometimes called a *hypothesis class*.



## How to achieve the goal

Most often, we choose a *parameterized class* of functions<sup>1</sup>, and we get  $f^*$  from that class.

- ▶ That is, there is a space of parameters  $\Omega$ ; an  $\omega \in \Omega$  determines a function  $f_\omega : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow Y$ , and the parameterized class is the set of all such functions  $f_\omega$ .
- ▶ To learn a function that fits well, you look for good parameters.

How do we find good parameters?

Select a performance measure: **(empirical) loss function**  $\mathcal{L}_S : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

In the empirical loss function, we use  $S$  in its definition.

- ▶ Then,  $\mathcal{L}_S$  is used to determine how to make changes to parameters,  $\omega$ , in order to decrease the value of  $\mathcal{L}_S$ .
- ▶ In an ideal situation, you converge to some  $\omega^*$ , a minimizer of  $\mathcal{L}_S$ , and set  $f^* = f_{\omega^*}$ .

---

<sup>1</sup>Sometimes called a *hypothesis class*.

## For linear regression

Have sample data  $\mathcal{S}$ , with data points  $x_i$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  (so,  $d = 1$ ). The parameter space  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^2 = \{(m, b) \mid m \in \mathbb{R}, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$ . For each  $\omega = (m, b)$ , we have

$$f_{\omega}(x) = mx + b.$$

## For linear regression

Have sample data  $\mathcal{S}$ , with data points  $x_i$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  (so,  $d = 1$ ). The parameter space  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^2 = \{(m, b) \mid m \in \mathbb{R}, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$ . For each  $\omega = (m, b)$ , we have

$$f_{\omega}(x) = mx + b.$$

Loss function: the MSE. That is, set

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}(m, b) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (mx_i + b - y_i)^2.$$

# Outline

Machine Learning

Supervised learning

First look at Gradient Descent

## Gradient descent with simple linear regression

For  $\omega = (m, b)$ , have  $f_{\omega}(x) = mx + b$ . Given sample data  $\mathcal{S} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ , note that the empirical loss function  $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}$  is a function of  $m$  and  $b$  (while  $\mathcal{S}$  is *used* in its definition, the points  $\mathbf{x}_i$  are not inputs to  $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}$ ).

## Gradient descent with simple linear regression

For  $\omega = (m, b)$ , have  $f_\omega(x) = mx + b$ . Given sample data  $\mathcal{S} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ , note that the empirical loss function  $\mathcal{L}_\mathcal{S}$  is a function of  $m$  and  $b$  (while  $\mathcal{S}$  is *used* in its definition, the points  $\mathbf{x}_i$  are not inputs to  $\mathcal{L}_\mathcal{S}$ ).

Recall the definition  $\mathcal{L}_\mathcal{S}(m, b) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (mx_i + b - y_i)^2$ .

- The **gradient** of  $\mathcal{L}_\mathcal{S}$  is the vector of partial derivatives:

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_\mathcal{S} = \left( \frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_\mathcal{S}, \frac{d}{db} \mathcal{L}_\mathcal{S} \right).$$

## Gradient descent with simple linear regression

For  $\omega = (m, b)$ , have  $f_{\omega}(x) = mx + b$ . Given sample data  $\mathcal{S} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ , note that the empirical loss function  $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}$  is a function of  $m$  and  $b$  (while  $\mathcal{S}$  is used in its definition, the points  $\mathbf{x}_i$  are not inputs to  $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}$ ).

Recall the definition  $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}(m, b) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (mx_i + b - y_i)^2$ .

- The **gradient** of  $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}$  is the vector of partial derivatives:  
 $\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}} = (\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}, \frac{d}{db} \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}})$ .
- Get partial derivatives using the Chain rule:

$$\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (mx_i + b - y_i)x_i;$$

and

$$\frac{d}{db} \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (mx_i + b - y_i).$$

## Aside: Recovering the normal equations

By utilizing the fact that a minimum of  $\mathcal{L}_S$  only occurs when  $\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_S = 0$  and  $\frac{d}{db} \mathcal{L}_S = 0$ , we can recover the normal equations.



## Aside: Recovering the normal equations

By utilizing the fact that a minimum of  $\mathcal{L}_S$  only occurs when  $\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_S = 0$  and  $\frac{d}{db} \mathcal{L}_S = 0$ , we can recover the normal equations.

To simplify it (and still be able to generalize), say that we have  $n = 3$  (in other words,  $S$  has just three points). Then, setting  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, y_3)$ , and  $\bar{x}$  equal to the average of  $x_1, x_2, x_3$ ,

## Aside: Recovering the normal equations

By utilizing the fact that a minimum of  $\mathcal{L}_S$  only occurs when  $\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_S = 0$  and  $\frac{d}{db} \mathcal{L}_S = 0$ , we can recover the normal equations.

To simplify it (and still be able to generalize), say that we have  $n = 3$  (in other words,  $S$  has just three points). Then, setting  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, y_3)$ , and  $\bar{x}$  equal to the average of  $x_1, x_2, x_3$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_S &= \frac{2}{3} ((mx_1^2 + bx_1 - x_1y_1) + (mx_2^2 + bx_2 - x_2y_2) + (mx_3^2 + bx_3 - x_3y_3)) \\ &= \frac{2}{3} (m(x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2) + b(x_1 + x_2 + x_3) - (x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + x_3y_3)) \\ &= \frac{2}{3} (m\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b(3\bar{x}) - \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}).\end{aligned}$$

## Aside: Recovering the normal equations

By utilizing the fact that a minimum of  $\mathcal{L}_S$  only occurs when  $\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_S = 0$  and  $\frac{d}{db} \mathcal{L}_S = 0$ , we can recover the normal equations.

To simplify it (and still be able to generalize), say that we have  $n = 3$  (in other words,  $S$  has just three points). Then, setting  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, y_3)$ , and  $\bar{x}$  equal to the average of  $x_1, x_2, x_3$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_S &= \frac{2}{3} ((mx_1^2 + bx_1 - x_1y_1) + (mx_2^2 + bx_2 - x_2y_2) + (mx_3^2 + bx_3 - x_3y_3)) \\ &= \frac{2}{3} (m(x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2) + b(x_1 + x_2 + x_3) - (x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + x_3y_3)) \\ &= \frac{2}{3} (m\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b(3\bar{x}) - \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}).\end{aligned}$$

And so, setting  $\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_S = 0$  amounts to the equation  $m(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}) + b(3\bar{x}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ .

## Aside: Recovering the normal equations

By utilizing the fact that a minimum of  $\mathcal{L}_S$  only occurs when  $\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_S = 0$  and  $\frac{d}{db} \mathcal{L}_S = 0$ , we can recover the normal equations.

To simplify it (and still be able to generalize), say that we have  $n = 3$  (in other words,  $S$  has just three points). Then, setting  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, y_3)$ , and  $\bar{x}$  equal to the average of  $x_1, x_2, x_3$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_S &= \frac{2}{3} ((mx_1^2 + bx_1 - x_1y_1) + (mx_2^2 + bx_2 - x_2y_2) + (mx_3^2 + bx_3 - x_3y_3)) \\ &= \frac{2}{3} (m(x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2) + b(x_1 + x_2 + x_3) - (x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + x_3y_3)) \\ &= \frac{2}{3} (m\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b(3\bar{x}) - \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}).\end{aligned}$$

And so, setting  $\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_S = 0$  amounts to the equation

$$m(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}) + b(3\bar{x}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}.$$

A similar computation will show that setting  $\frac{d}{db} \mathcal{L}_S = 0$  will give the equation  $m(3\bar{x}) + b(3) = 3\bar{y}$ . (With  $\bar{y}$  being the average of  $y_1, y_2, y_3$ ).

## Aside: Recovering the normal equations

The computation above generalizes to imply that

$\nabla \mathcal{L}_S = (\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_S, \frac{d}{db} \mathcal{L}_S) = (0, 0)$  requires the equations

$$m(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}) + b(n\bar{x}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$$

$$m(n\bar{x}) + b(n) = n\bar{y}.$$

## Aside: Recovering the normal equations

The computation above generalizes to imply that

$\nabla \mathcal{L}_S = (\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_S, \frac{d}{db} \mathcal{L}_S) = (0, 0)$  requires the equations

$$m(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}) + b(n\bar{x}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$$

$$m(n\bar{x}) + b(n) = n\bar{y}.$$

If you recall the entries in  $A^T A$  and  $A^T \mathbf{y}$  (where  $A$  is the matrix built in the simple linear regression procedure), these are precisely the normal equations.

Solving for  $m$  and  $b$  gives us  $m = \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} - n\bar{x}^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$ , and  $b = \bar{y} - m\bar{x}$ .

## Aside: Recovering the normal equations

The computation above generalizes to imply that

$\nabla \mathcal{L}_S = (\frac{d}{dm} \mathcal{L}_S, \frac{d}{db} \mathcal{L}_S) = (0, 0)$  requires the equations

$$m(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}) + b(n\bar{x}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$$

$$m(n\bar{x}) + b(n) = n\bar{y}.$$

If you recall the entries in  $A^T A$  and  $A^T \mathbf{y}$  (where  $A$  is the matrix built in the simple linear regression procedure), these are precisely the normal equations.

Solving for  $m$  and  $b$  gives us  $m = \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} - n\bar{x}^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$ , and  $b = \bar{y} - m\bar{x}$ .

- We are able to nicely represent the minimizer of  $\mathcal{L}_S$  precisely because of the linear nature of the class of functions  $f_\omega(x) = mx + b$ .

## Returning to Gradient Descent

In anticipation that, in other settings, we not be able to nicely represent a minimizer of  $\mathcal{L}_S$ , we consider another optimization approach.



## Returning to Gradient Descent

In anticipation that, in other settings, we not be able to nicely represent a minimizer of  $\mathcal{L}_S$ , we consider another optimization approach.

- Say that the (current) value of  $\omega$  is  $(m_0, b_0)$ . Then, recalling from Calculus III, the direction of *steepest descent*, that will produce the most rapid decrease in the value of  $\mathcal{L}_S$ , is the direction of  $-\nabla \mathcal{L}_S(m_0, b_0)$ .
- This indicates that we might be able to get closer to a minimizer by subtracting the gradient from  $(m_0, b_0)$  or, to make our step “small” perhaps, subtracting a small multiple of the gradient.

## Returning to Gradient Descent

In anticipation that, in other settings, we not be able to nicely represent a minimizer of  $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}$ , we consider another optimization approach.

- Say that the (current) value of  $\omega$  is  $(m_0, b_0)$ . Then, recalling from Calculus III, the direction of *steepest descent*, that will produce the most rapid decrease in the value of  $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}$ , is the direction of  $-\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}(m_0, b_0)$ .
- This indicates that we might be able to get closer to a minimizer by subtracting the gradient from  $(m_0, b_0)$  or, to make our step “small” perhaps, subtracting a small multiple of the gradient.

**Gradient descent:** Choosing a constant  $\eta > 0$  and given some current value of  $\omega_i = (m_i, b_i)$ , we attempt to get closer to the minimizer,  $\omega^*$ , of the loss function by the update

$$\omega_{i+1} = \omega_i - \eta * \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}(m_i, b_i).$$

The constant  $\eta$  is called the **learning rate**.

## Sources

The content of these slides has been combined from two references.

1. Notes taken from Machine Learning course, taught by Andrew Ng, Stanford U.
2. Notes from a lecture series on Deep Learning at Harvard, taught by Eli Grigsby.