

Data, Environment and Society:

Lecture 13: Gradient Descent

\neq a bit of
EJ?

Instructor: Duncan Callaway
GSI: Seigi Karasaki

October 4, 2018

Announcements

Today

- ▶ Gradient descent
- ▶ Environmental Justice

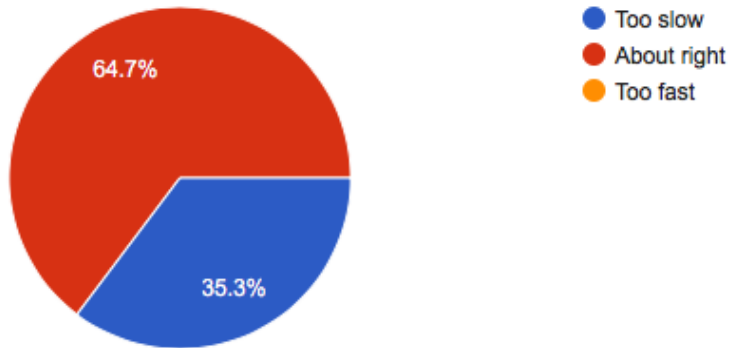
Reading

- ▶ Today: Ch 11 DS100
- ▶ Next *thursday*: Clark *et al* (using LUR data for EJ questions)

Survey results

Lecture pace is

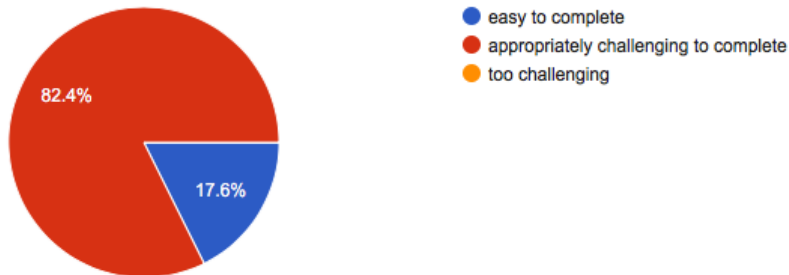
17 responses



Survey results

Lab workbooks are...

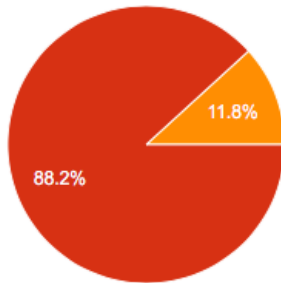
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Survey results

Homework notebooks are

17 responses

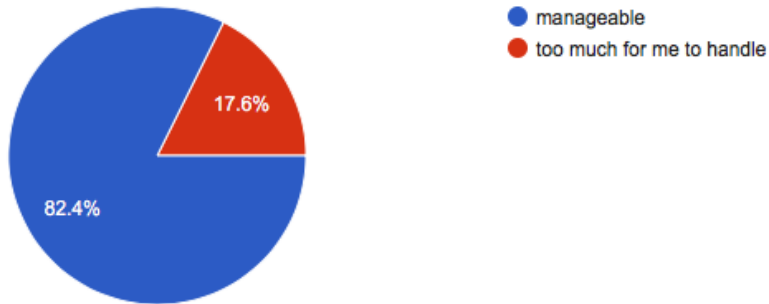


- easy to complete
- appropriately challenging to complete
- too challenging

Survey results

The volume of readings is...

17 responses



Survey results: A few key takeaways

- ▶ Students asked for more time for discussion and interaction
- ▶ A few students suggested I assume background reading is done...
- ▶ Request for more board work
- ▶ Requests for more energy-enviro applications
- ▶ Students are struggling to find a way to take notes
- ▶ Grading rubric, more clarity on questions in HW and Labs
- ▶ Lots of positive feedback for Seigi

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- ▶ Lots of positive feedback for Seigi
 - ▶ Your GSI rocks!

Basic estimation process, so far

1. Define a loss function
2. Set derivatives of loss function equal to zero and solve for parameters

The challenge:

- ▶ Setting loss function derivatives to zero not always easy.
- ▶ This doesn't scale well for big problems (e.g. many different nonlinear transformations of the Novotny data)

The loss function

Mean squared error, aka the 'L2' norm

$$MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

$$\text{constant model} \Rightarrow \hat{y}_i = \theta \Rightarrow MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta)^2$$

Mean absolute error, aka the 'L1' norm

$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \theta|$$

The loss function

Mean squared error, aka the 'L2' norm

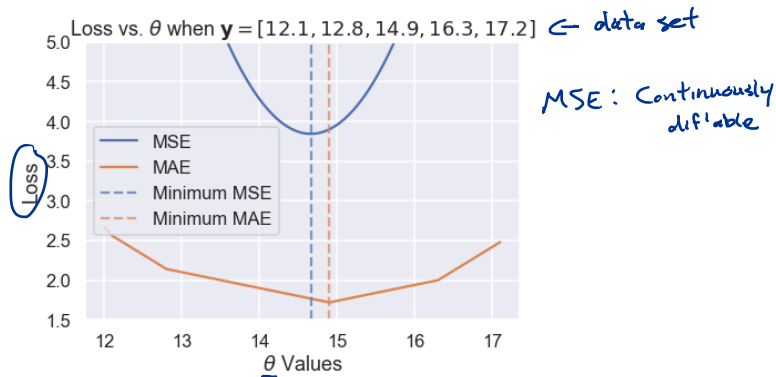
$$\text{MSE} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

$$\text{Constant model, } \hat{y} = \theta \rightarrow \text{MSE} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta)^2$$

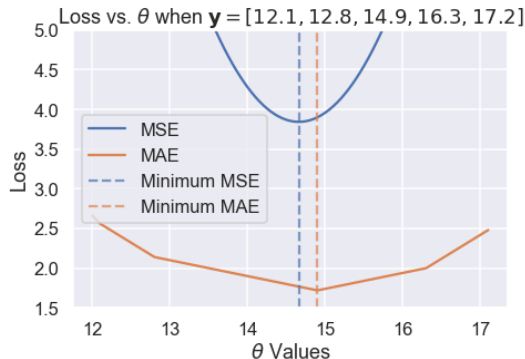
Mean absolute error, aka the 'L1' norm

$$\begin{aligned} \text{MAE} &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \hat{y}_i| \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \theta| \end{aligned}$$

Advantages and disadvantages to MAE and MSE?



Advantages and disadvantages to MAE and MSE?



- ▶ MSE is differentiable \rightarrow can solve directly for coefficients
- ▶ MAE is less impacted by extreme values

Aside: what do these cost functions provide with the “constant” model?

What well-known values minimize these loss functions?

$$\rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \theta$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_i = n\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$$

\Rightarrow mean!

$$\theta_{\text{MSE}}^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta)^2 \rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum (y_i - \theta)^2 = 0$$

$$\theta_{\text{MAE}}^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \theta|$$

$$\frac{1}{n} 2(y_i - \theta) \frac{\partial (-\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$-\frac{2}{n} \sum (y_i - \theta) = 0$$

$$-\frac{2}{n} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n y_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \theta \right] = 0$$

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$$\theta_{\text{MAE}}^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \theta|$$

- ▶ MSE returns the mean value of a sequence
- ▶ MAE returns the *median*

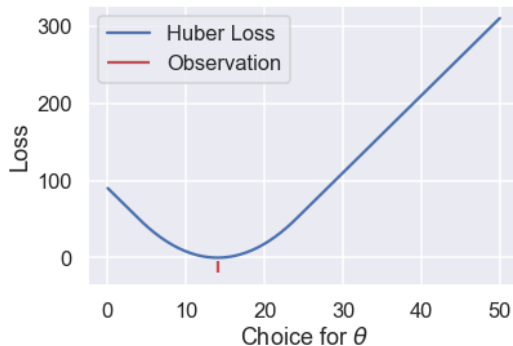
Huber loss



What does this buy us?

$$L_{\delta}(\theta, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}(y_i - \theta)^2 & |y_i - \theta| \leq \delta \\ \delta(|y_i - \theta| - \frac{1}{2}\delta) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Huber loss

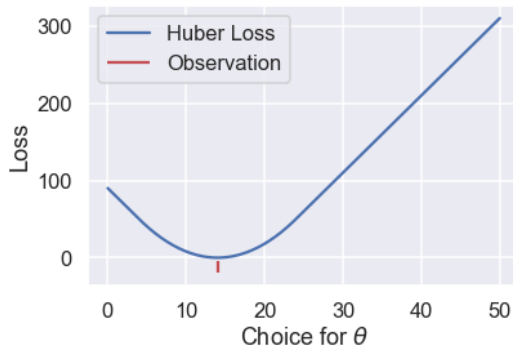


What does this buy us?

- Differentiable
- Absolute value at extremes
– not dominated by outlier.

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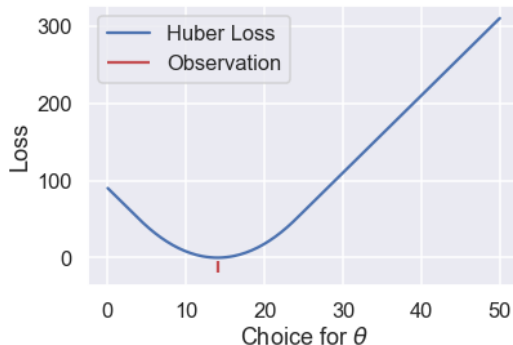
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What does this buy us?

- ▶ Differentiable
- ▶ Absolute value at extremes – not dominated by outlier.

What does this cost us?

- ▶ Optimal solution requires derivative w.r.t. θ and derivative w.r.t. δ equal zero.
- ▶ That can be tricky.

Estimation takeaway # 1:

Analytical solutions for parameters (e.g. by setting partial derivatives equal to zero) not always available for some of the types of loss functions we'd like to use.

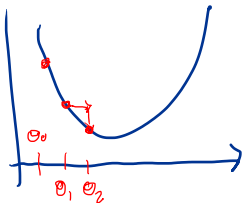
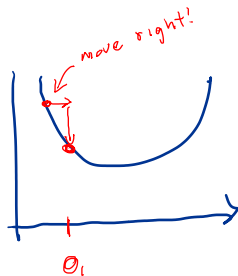
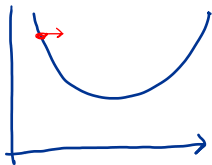
Estimation takeaway # 2:

A separate issue: In situations where the normal equations (or something like them) can be used to solve for parameters:

$$\Theta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$$

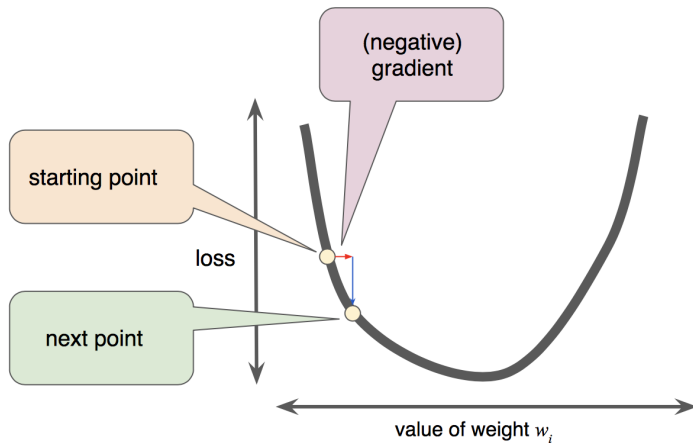
It can be very difficult computationally to invert a large $X^T X$ (I crashed my computer with 50,000 by 50,000).

Gradient descent – sketch



How big should the
move be?

Gradient descent – sketch



<https://developers.google.com/machine-learning/crash-course/reducing-loss/gradient-descent>

Gradient descent – math

What's the gradient? For our purposes, it is the slope of the loss function at a given point *with respect to a particular parameter*.

The gradient is $\nabla_{\theta} L(\theta, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(\theta, \mathbf{y})$

Gradient descent process:

1. Choose a value for the “learning rate”, α
2. Choose a starting value of θ (0 is a common choice).
3. Compute $\theta - \alpha \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(\theta, \mathbf{y})$ and store this as the new value of θ .
4. Repeat until θ doesn't change (much) between iterations.

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Gradient descent for quadratic loss

Let's derive the gradient:

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$$L = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta)$$

...and then write a few iterations:

$$\theta_0 = 0$$

$$\theta_1 = \theta_0 - \alpha \left(-2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta_0) \right)$$

$$\theta_2 = \theta_1 - \alpha \left(-2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta_1) \right)$$

\vdots

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \alpha \left(-2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta_t) \right)$$

$$|\theta_{t+1} - \theta_t| < \text{tolerance}$$

$\Rightarrow \text{stop!}$

Gradient descent for quadratic loss

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$$\vdots$$

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \alpha \left(-2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta_t) \right)$$

Stop when $|\theta_{t+1} - \theta_t| < \text{tol}$, where “tol” is a small tolerance parameter.

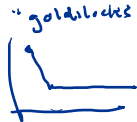
Gradient descent, in code

```
def minimize(loss_fn, grad_loss_fn, dataset, alpha=0.2, progress=True):  
    '''  
    Uses gradient descent to minimize loss_fn. Returns the minimizing value of  
    theta_hat once theta_hat changes less than 0.001 between iterations.  
    '''  
    theta = 0  
    while True:  
        if progress:  
            print(f'theta: {theta:.2f} | loss: {loss_fn(theta, dataset):.2f}')  
            gradient = grad_loss_fn(theta, dataset)  
            new_theta = theta - alpha * gradient  
  
            if abs(new_theta - theta) < 0.001:  
                return new_theta  
  
        theta = new_theta
```

https://www.textbook.ds100.org/ch/11/gradient_descent_define.html

Gradient descent – what does the learning rate do?

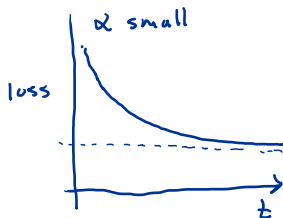
Get in small groups and play with this Google tool: <https://goo.gl/JNPhUv>.



Set α to a higher value than the default – it'll take forever at $\alpha = 0.01$.

Questions to answer together: How does the rate change on each iteration...

1. ...when the learning rate is really small?
2. ...when the learning rate is really big?



Gradient descent – what does the learning rate do?

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There are four qualitatively different behaviors:

1. Monotonically decreasing loss
2. One step to optimal parameter
3. Loss declines in periodic oscillations
4. Loss grows out of control

What do you think the point of a “dynamic learning rate” might be?

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Basic idea: Start with a big learning rate, then make it smaller and smaller as you approach the optimal value

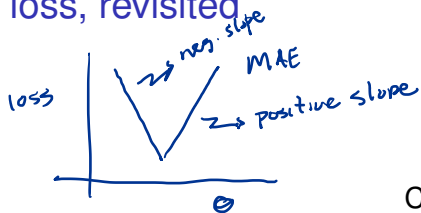
What do you think the point of a “dynamic learning rate” might be?

Basic idea: Start with a big learning rate, then make it smaller and smaller as you approach the optimal value

Advantages:

- ▶ cover a lot of ground when you're far from the optimal value
- ▶ refined steps when you get close, so you don't miss the optimal value.

Absolute deviation loss, revisited



$$L = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \theta|$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{y_i < \theta} |y_i - \theta| + \sum_{y_i = \theta} |y_i - \theta| + \sum_{y_i > \theta} |y_i - \theta| \right)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta} = \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{y_i < \theta} (-1) + \sum_{y_i = \theta} (0) + \sum_{y_i > \theta} (1) \right)$$

Can you see why the optimal value is the median?

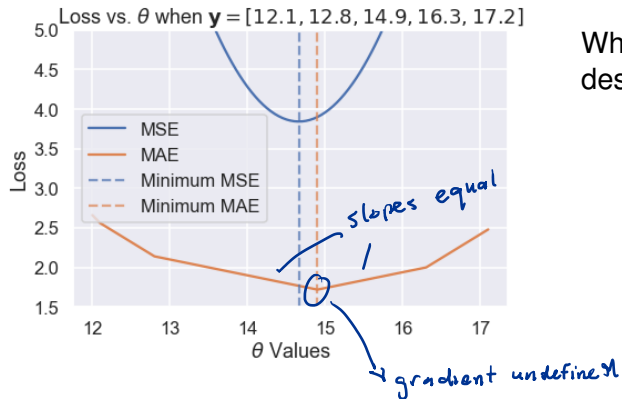
Absolute deviation loss, revisited

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \theta| \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{y_i < \theta} |y_i - \theta| + \sum_{y_i = \theta} |y_i - \theta| + \sum_{y_i > \theta} |y_i - \theta| \right) \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta} &= \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{y_i < \theta} (-1) + \sum_{y_i = \theta} (0) + \sum_{y_i > \theta} (1) \right) \end{aligned}$$

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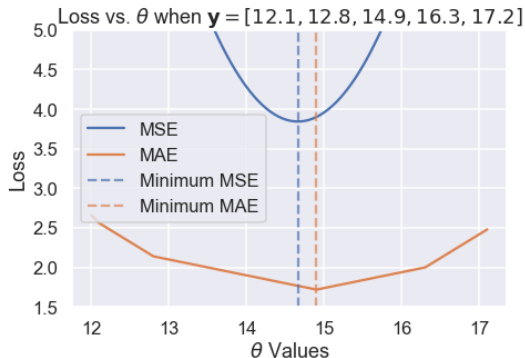
The right solution just “counts” the number of observations on each side of the optimal value

Gradient descent – absolute deviation loss, ctd.



What's the problem with doing gradient descent here?

Gradient descent – absolute deviation loss, ctd.

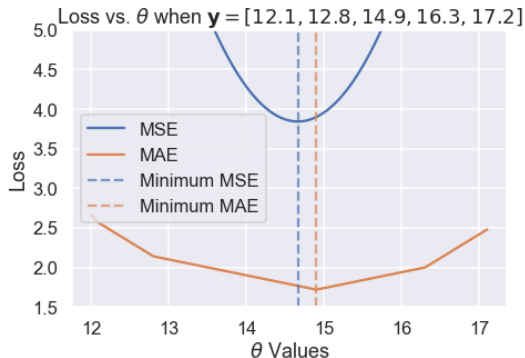


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So once the solution is close, it won't converge, unless...

Gradient descent – absolute deviation loss, ctd.



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So once the solution is close, it won't converge, unless...we use a dynamic learning rate.