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# **CSE 519: Data Science**

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Lecture 17: Gradient Descent Search  
and Regularization

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# Issues with Closed Form Solution

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This closed form for linear regression is concise and elegant, but issues include:

- Inversion slow for large systems
- Formulation is brittle: the linear algebra magic is hard to extend to other formulations

This motivates the gradient descent approach to solving regression.

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# Regression as Parameter Fitting

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We seek coefficients that minimize the sum of squared error of the points over all possible coefficients.

$$J(w_0, w_1) = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - f(x_i))^2$$

Here the regression line is:

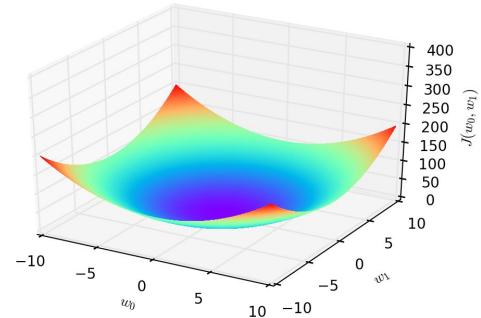
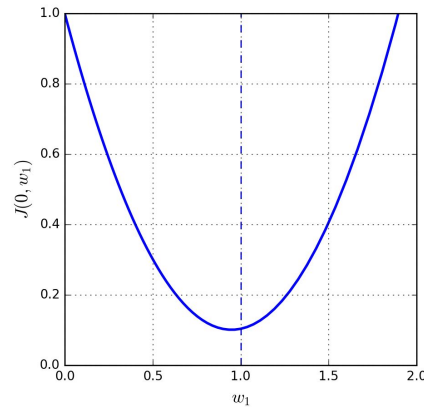
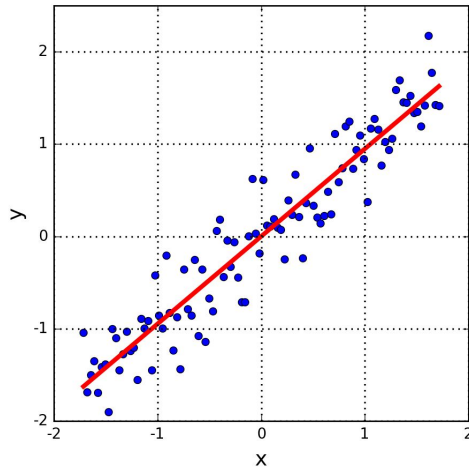
$$f(x) = w_0 + w_1 x$$

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# Lines in Parameter Space

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The error function  $J(w_0, w_1)$  is convex, making it easy to find the single local/global minima.



# Gradient Descent Search

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A space with only one local/global minima is called **convex**.

When a search space is convex, it is easy to find the minima: just keep walking down.

The fastest direction down is defined by the slope or tangent at the current point.

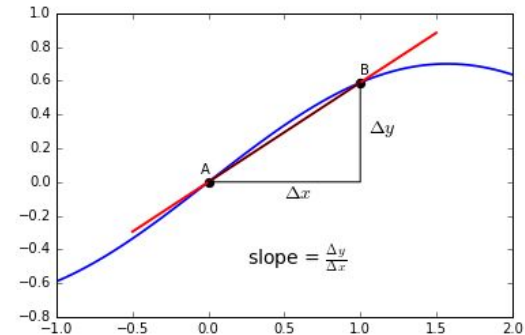
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# The Fastest Way Down

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The direction down at a point is given by its derivative, which is specified by its tangent line:

This *could* be approximately computed by finding the point  $(x+dx, y(x+dx))$  and fitting the line with  $(x, y(x))$



# Partial Derivatives

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The symbolic way of computing the gradient requires computing the partial derivative of the objective function:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial w_j} &= \frac{2}{\partial w_j} \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f(x_i) - b_i)^2 \\ &= \frac{2}{\partial w_j} \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^n (w_0 + (w_1 x_i) - b_i)^2\end{aligned}$$

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# Gradient Descent for Regression

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Gradient descent algorithm

repeat until convergence {  
     $\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$   
    (for  $j = 1$  and  $j = 0$ )  
}

Linear Regression Model

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$$

$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$



# Which Functions are Convex?

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Remember your calculus!

Whenever the first derivative is zero, you get a maxima or minima.

Thus analysis of such derivatives can tell which functions are and are not convex.

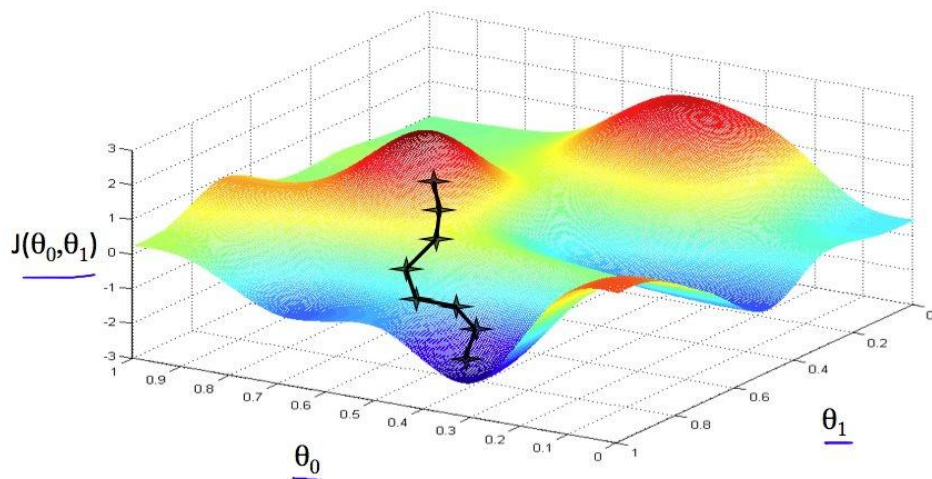
Gradient descent search can get trapped in local minima only for non-convex functions.

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# Getting Trapped in Local Optima

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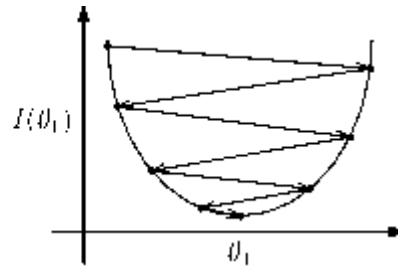
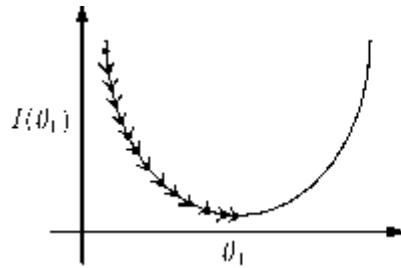
Always going upward does not reach the ski slope from a two story cabin in the valley.



# Effect of Learning Rate / Step Size

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- Taking too small steps results in slow convergence to the optima.
- But too large a step overshoots the goal.



# What is the Right Learning Rate?

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Monitor the value of the loss function  $J()$  over the course of optimization.

If progress is too slow, increase by a multiplicative factor (say 3) or accept.

If  $J$  gets larger, the step size is too large, decrease by a multiplicative factor (say  $\frac{1}{3}$ ).

Library functions should use algorithms for this.

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# Stochastic Gradient Descent

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Evaluating the partial derivative takes time linear in the number of examples for each step!

A good heuristic is to use only a few examples to estimate the derivative, and hope it is down.

Optimizing the learning rate and the batch size for gradient descent leads to very fast optimization for convex functions.

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# Too Many Features?

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Providing a rich set of features to regression is good, but remember Occam's Razor:

“The simplest explanation is best.”

Ideally our regression would select the most important variables and fit them, but our objective function only tries to minimize sum of squares error.

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# Regularization

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The trick is to add terms to the objective function seeking to keep coefficients small:

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j^2 \right]$$

We pay a penalty proportional to the sum of squares of the coefficients, thus ignoring sign.

This rewards us for setting coefficients to zero.

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# Interpreting/Penalizing Coefficients

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When variables have mean zero, its coefficient magnitude is a measure of value to the objective function.

Penalizing the sum of squared coefficients is *ridge regression* or *Tikhonov regularization*.

Penalizing the absolute value of the coefficients ( $L_1$  metric vs.  $L_2$ ) is *LASSO regularization*.

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# What is the right Lambda?

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How do we set the constant lambda:

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j^2 \right]$$

Big-enough lambda emphasizes small parameters, i.e. set to all zeros.

Small-enough lambda freely uses all parameters to minimize training error.

**We seek balance between over/under fitting.**

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# Tradeoffs Between Fit / Complexity

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A good fit to the training data with few parameters is more robust than a slightly better fit with many parameters.

Metrics to help with model selection include:

- Akaike Information Criteria:  $AIC = 2k - 2 \ln(L)$
- Bayesian Info Criteria:  $-2 \cdot \ln p(x|M) \approx BIC = -2 \cdot \ln \hat{L} + k \cdot (\ln(n) - \ln(2\pi))$ .

k is a parameter count and L an error metric.

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# Normal Form with Regularization

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The normal form equation can be generalized to deal with regularization...

$$\text{If } \lambda > 0,$$
$$\theta = \left( X^T X + \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & \ddots \\ & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)^{-1} X^T y$$

Or we can just use gradient descent with the proper loss function and derivatives.

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