

# CSCI 567: Machine Learning

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Spring 2024

Lecture 2, Jan 19



**USC** University of  
Southern California

## Administrivia

- HW1 is out
- Due in about 3 weeks (2/7 midnight). **Start early!!!**
- Post on Ed Discussion if you're looking for teammates.

# Recap

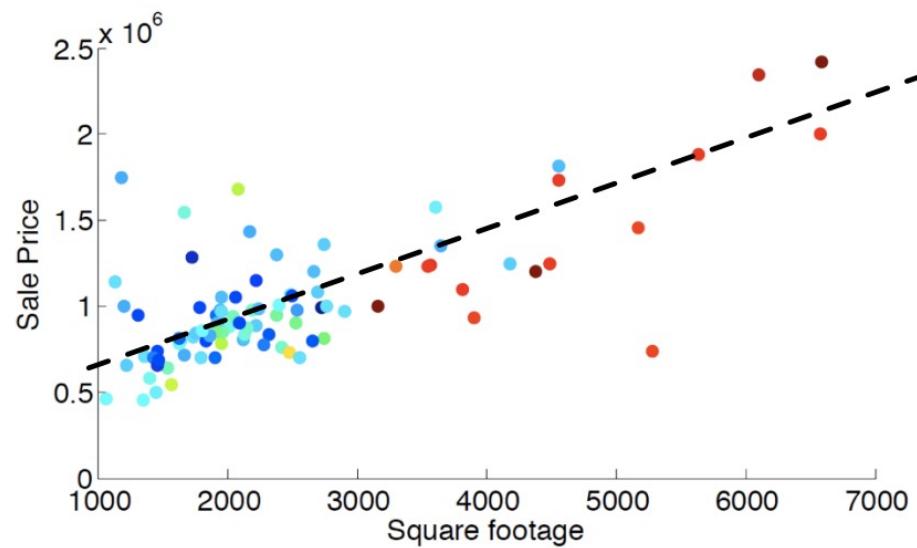
# Supervised learning in one slide

- Loss function:** What is the right loss function for the task?
- Representation:** What class of functions should we use?
- Optimization:** How can we efficiently solve the empirical risk minimization problem?
- Generalization:** Will the predictions of our model transfer gracefully to unseen examples?

*All related! And the fuel which powers everything is **data**.*

# Linear regression

Predicted sale price = **price\_per\_sqft** × square footage + **fixed\_expense**

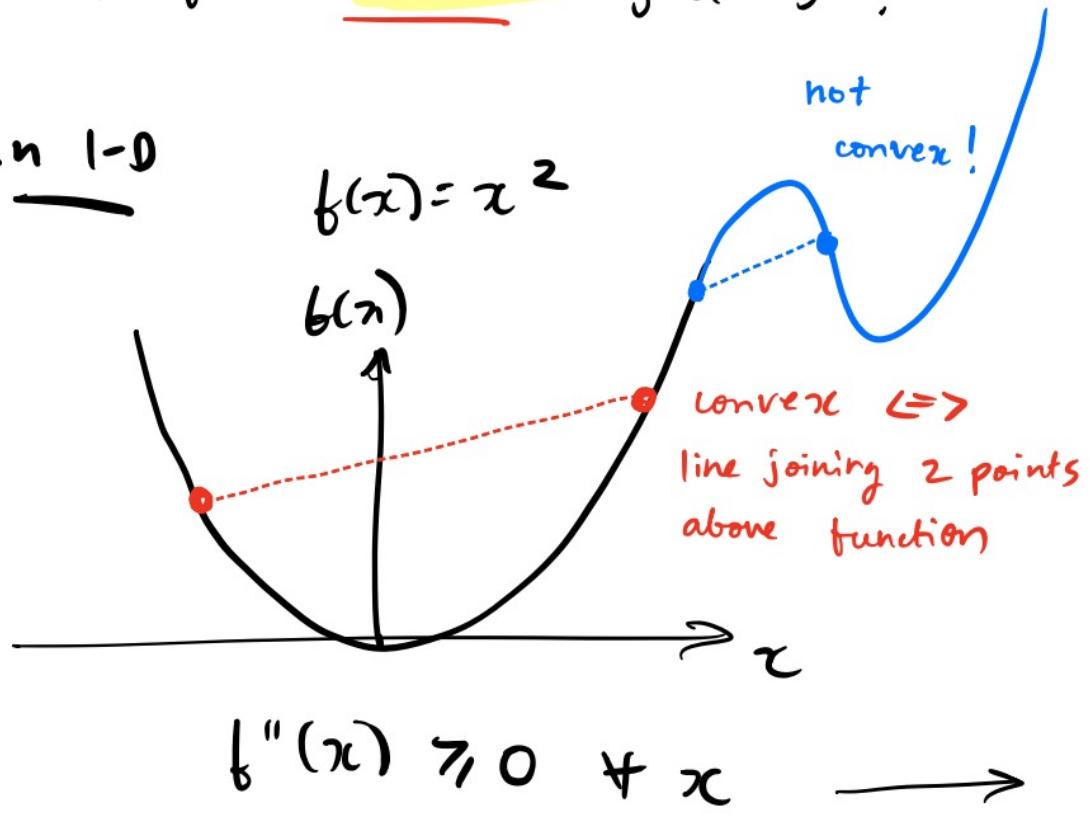


How to solve this? Find **stationary points**

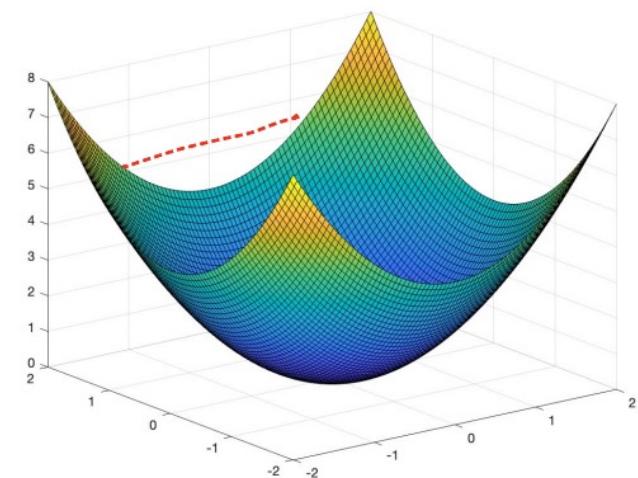
# Are stationary points minimizers?

Yes, for convex objectives !

In 1-D



In high dimensions:



$\nabla^2(f(x))$  is positive  
semi-definite (psd)

# General least square solution

## Objective

$$\text{RSS}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}) = \sum_i (\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_i^T \tilde{\boldsymbol{w}} - y_i)^2$$

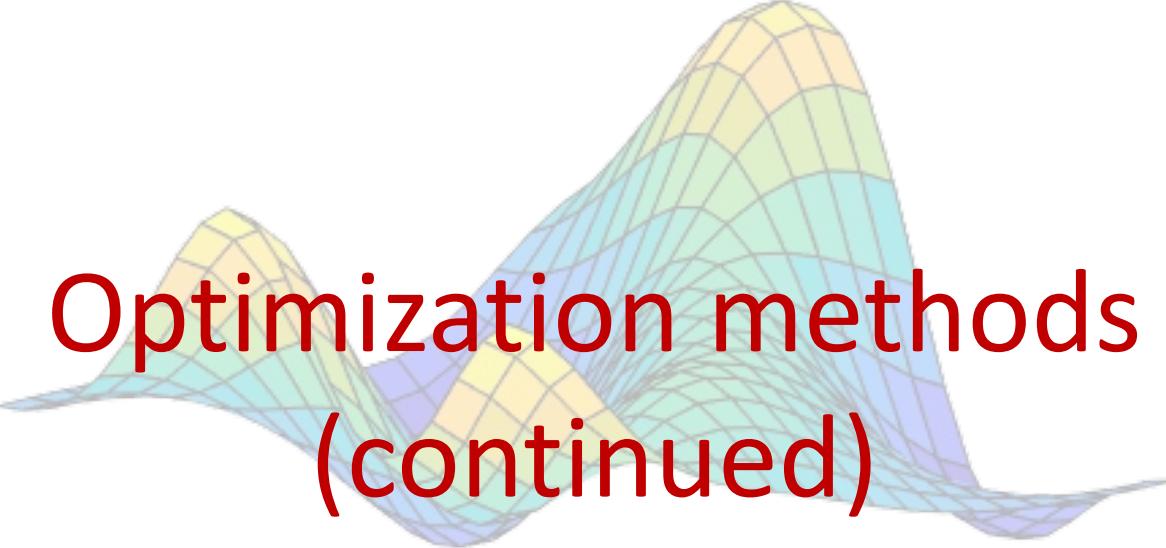
Find stationary points:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \text{RSS}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}) &= 2 \sum_i \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_i (\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_i^T \tilde{\boldsymbol{w}} - y_i) \propto \left( \sum_i \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_i \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_i^T \right) \tilde{\boldsymbol{w}} - \sum_i \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_i y_i \\ &= (\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}) \tilde{\boldsymbol{w}} - \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T \boldsymbol{y}\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_1^T \\ \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_n^T \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times (d+1)}, \quad \boldsymbol{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$(\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}) \tilde{\boldsymbol{w}} - \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T \boldsymbol{y} = \mathbf{0} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}^* = (\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}})^{-1} \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T \boldsymbol{y}$$



# Optimization methods (continued)

## Problem setup

Given: a function  $F(\mathbf{w})$

Goal: minimize  $F(\mathbf{w})$  (approximately)

Two simple yet extremely popular methods

**Gradient Descent (GD):** simple and fundamental

**Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD):** faster, effective for large-scale problems

Gradient is the *first-order information* of a function.

Therefore, these methods are called *first-order methods*.

## Gradient descent

**GD**: keep moving in the *negative gradient direction*

Start from some  $\mathbf{w}^{(0)}$ . For  $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

$$\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^{(t)} - \eta \nabla F(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})$$

where  $\eta > 0$  is called step size or learning rate

- in theory  $\eta$  should be set in terms of some parameters of  $F$
- in practice we just try several small values
- might need to be changing over iterations (think  $F(w) = |w|$ )
- adaptive and automatic step size tuning is an active research area

# Why GD?

Intuition: First-order Taylor approximation

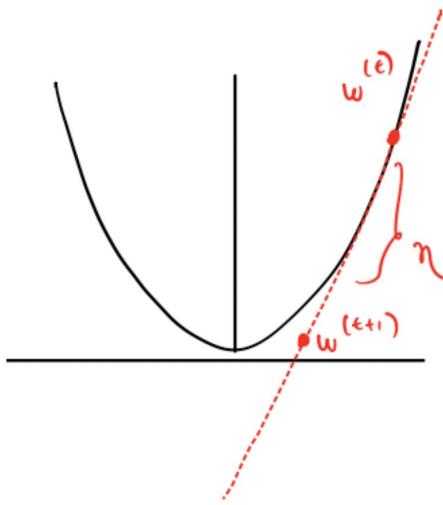
for  $w = w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} - \eta \nabla F(w^{(t)})$   
this is  $\sim \nabla F(w^{(t)})$

$$F(w) \approx F(w^{(t)}) + \nabla F(w^{(t)})^T (w - w^{(t)})$$

For  $w = w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} - \eta \nabla F(w^{(t)})$ , we can write,

$$\begin{aligned} F(w^{(t+1)}) &\approx F(w^{(t)}) - \underbrace{\eta \|\nabla F(w^{(t)})\|_2^2}_{\implies F(w^{(t+1)}) \lesssim F(w^{(t)})} \\ &\implies F(w^{(t+1)}) \lesssim F(w^{(t)}) \end{aligned}$$

(Note that this is only an approximation, and can be invalid if the step size is too large.)



$$\nabla f(w^{(t+1)})^T \nabla F(w^{(t)}) = \|\nabla F(w^{(t)})\|_2^2$$

# Switch to Colab

optimization.ipynb ☆

File Edit View Insert Runtime Tools Help

+ Code + Text

```
# optimization.ipynb
# This notebook illustrates gradient descent for a two-dimensional objective function.
```

This code defines a gradient descent loop and a plot of the objective function. The plot shows contour lines of the function and a red arrow indicating the direction of the gradient step.

```
    this_theta[1] = last_theta[1] - eta * grad1
    theta.append(this_theta)
    J.append(cost_func(*this_theta))

    # Annotate the objective function plot with coloured points indicating the
    # parameters chosen and red arrows indicating the steps down the gradient.
    for j in range(1,N):
        ax.annotate('', xy=theta[j], xytext=theta[j-1],
                    arrowprops={'arrowstyle': '->', 'color': 'orange', 'lw': 1},
                    va='center', ha='center')
    ax.scatter(*zip(*theta), facecolors='none', edgecolors='r', lw=1.5)

    # Labels, titles and a legend.
    ax.set_xlabel(r'$w_1$')
    ax.set_ylabel(r'$w_2$')
    ax.set_title('objective function')

plt.show()
```

objective function

# Convergence guarantees for GD

Many results for GD (and many variants) on *convex objectives*.

They tell you how many iterations  $t$  (in terms of  $\varepsilon$ ) are needed to achieve

$$F(\mathbf{w}^{(t)}) - F(\mathbf{w}^*) \leq \varepsilon$$

# Convergence guarantees for GD

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They tell you how many iterations  $t$  (in terms of  $\varepsilon$ ) are needed to achieve

$$F(\mathbf{w}^{(t)}) - F(\mathbf{w}^*) \leq \varepsilon$$

Even for *nonconvex objectives*, some guarantees exist:

e.g. how many iterations  $t$  (in terms of  $\varepsilon$ ) are needed to achieve

$$\|\nabla F(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})\| \leq \varepsilon$$

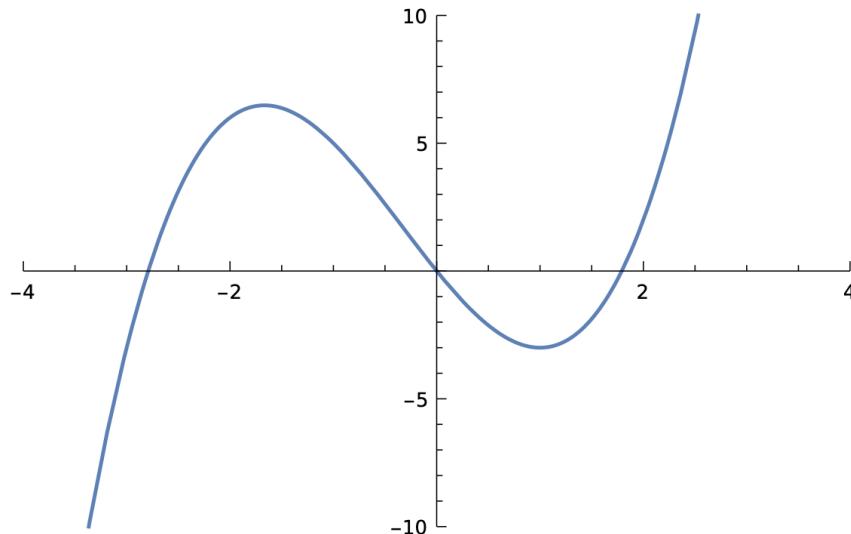
that is, how close is  $\mathbf{w}^{(t)}$  as an approximate stationary point

for convex objectives, stationary point  $\Rightarrow$  global minimizer

for nonconvex objectives, what does it mean?

# Stationary points: non-convex objectives

A stationary point can be a local minimizer or even a local/global maximizer (but the latter is not an issue for GD).

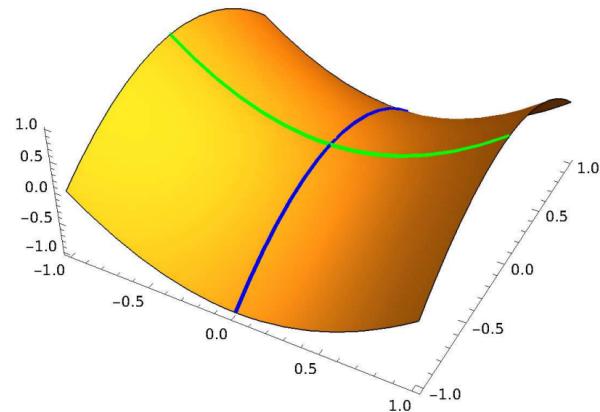


$$f(w) = w^3 + w^2 - 5w$$

# Stationary points: non convex objectives

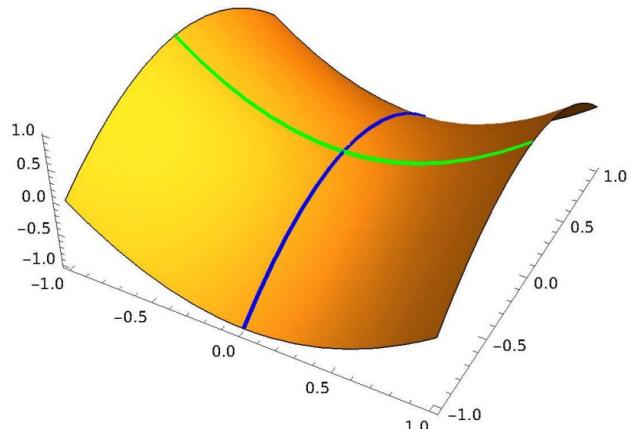
A stationary point can also be *neither a local minimizer nor a local maximizer!*

- $f(\mathbf{w}) = w_1^2 - w_2^2$
- $\nabla f(\mathbf{w}) = (2w_1, -2w_2)$
- so  $\mathbf{w} = (0, 0)$  is stationary
- local max for **blue direction** ( $w_1 = 0$ )
- local min for **green direction** ( $w_2 = 0$ )



# Stationary points: non convex objectives

This is known as a saddle point

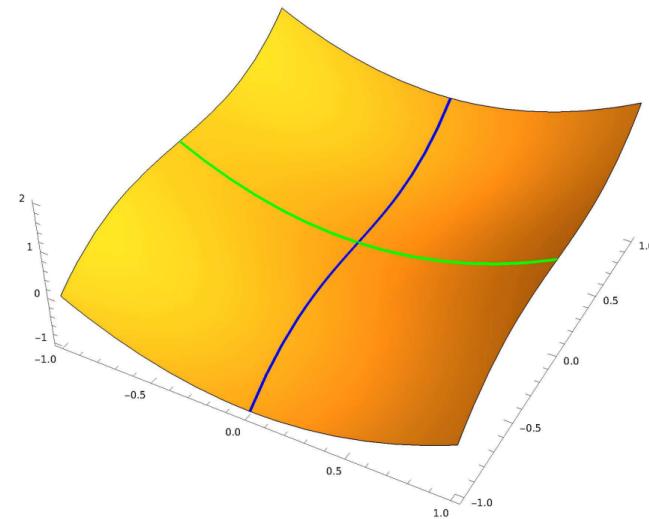


- but GD gets stuck at  $(0,0)$  only if initialized along the **green direction**
- so not a real issue especially *when initialized randomly*

# Stationary points: non convex objectives

But not all saddle points look like a “saddle” ...

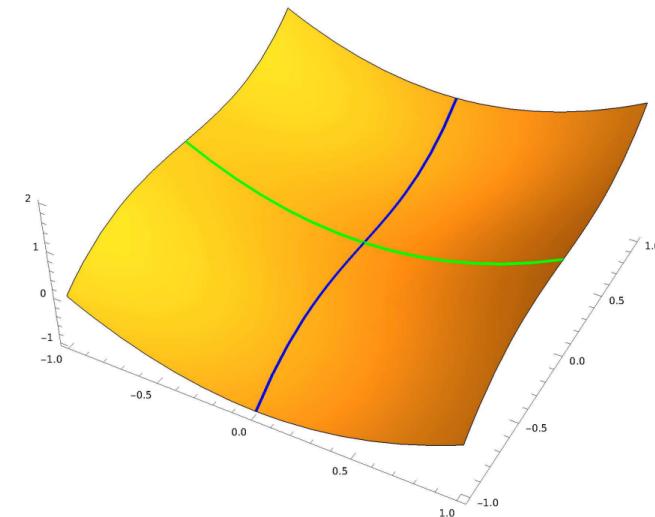
- $f(\mathbf{w}) = w_1^2 + w_2^3$
- $\nabla f(\mathbf{w}) = (2w_1, 3w_2^2)$
- so  $\mathbf{w} = (0, 0)$  is stationary
- not local min/max for blue direction  
( $w_1 = 0$ )



# Stationary points: non convex objectives

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- $\nabla f(\mathbf{w}) = (2w_1, 3w_2^2)$
- so  $\mathbf{w} = (0, 0)$  is stationary
- not local min/max for blue direction ( $w_1 = 0$ )
- GD gets stuck at  $(0, 0)$  for *any initial point with  $w_2 \geq 0$  and small  $\eta$*



Even worse, distinguishing local min and saddle point is generally ***NP-hard***.

# Stochastic Gradient descent

**GD**: keep moving in the *negative gradient direction*

**SGD**: keep moving in the *noisy negative gradient direction*

$$\boldsymbol{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)} - \eta \tilde{\nabla} F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})$$

where  $\tilde{\nabla} F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})$  is a random variable (called **stochastic gradient**) s.t.

$$\mathbb{E} [\tilde{\nabla} F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})] = \nabla F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) \quad (\text{unbiasedness})$$

# Stochastic Gradient descent

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$$\mathbb{E} [\tilde{\nabla} F(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})] = \nabla F(\mathbf{w}^{(t)}) \quad (\text{unbiasedness})$$

- Key point: it could be much faster to obtain a stochastic gradient!
- Similar convergence guarantees, usually needs more iterations but each iteration takes less time.

## Summary: Gradient descent & Stochastic Gradient descent

- GD/SGD converges to a stationary point
- for convex objectives, this is all we need

## Summary: Gradient descent & Stochastic Gradient descent

- GD/SGD converges to a stationary point
- for convex objectives, this is all we need
- for nonconvex objectives, can get stuck at local minimizers or “bad” saddle points (random initialization escapes “good” saddle points)
- recent research shows that *many problems have no “bad” saddle points or even “bad” local minimizers*
- justify the practical effectiveness of GD/SGD (default method to try)

## Second-order methods

GD: 1st order Taylor

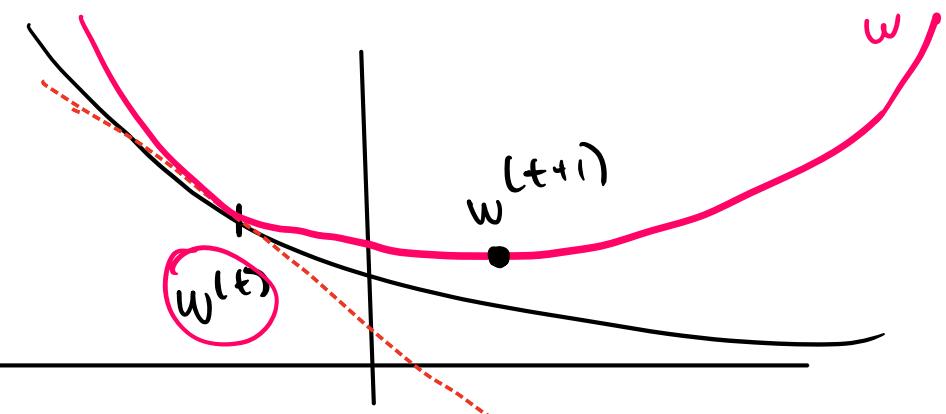
$$F(w) \approx F(w^{(t)}) + \nabla F(w^{(t)})^T (w - w^{(t)})$$

$$f(y) = f(x) + f'(x)(y-x) + \frac{f''(x)}{2}(y-x)^2$$

$$F(w) \approx F(w^{(t)}) + \nabla F(w^{(t)})^T (w - w^{(t)}) + \frac{1}{2} (w - w^{(t)})^T H_t (w - w^{(t)})$$

where  $H_t = \nabla^2 F(w^{(t)}) \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  is  $\overset{=}{\text{Hessian}}$  of  $F$  at  $w^{(t)}$

$$(H_t)_{i,j} = \left. \frac{\partial^2 F(w)}{\partial w_i \partial w_j} \right|_{w=w^{(t)}}$$



Define  $\tilde{F}(w)$  = 2nd order approximation

Set  $\nabla \tilde{F}(w) = 0$

$$\frac{d F(w^{(t)})}{d w} = 0$$

$$\frac{d (\nabla F(w^{(t)})^T (w - w^{(t)}))}{d w} = \nabla F(w^{(t)})$$

$$\frac{d}{d w} \left( \frac{1}{2} w^T H_t w \right) = H_t w$$

$$\frac{d}{d w} \left( -\frac{1}{2} w^T H_t w^{(t)} \right) = -\frac{1}{2} H_t w^{(t)}$$

$$\frac{d}{d w} \left( -\frac{1}{2} w^{(t)} H_t w \right) = -\frac{1}{2} H_t w^{(t)}$$

$$\frac{d}{d w} \left( \frac{1}{2} w^{(t)} H_t w^{(t)} \right) = 0$$

$$\nabla \tilde{F}(w) = \nabla F(w^{(t)}) + H_t w - \frac{1}{2} H_t w^{(t)} + z$$

$$\text{Set } \nabla \tilde{F}(w) = 0$$

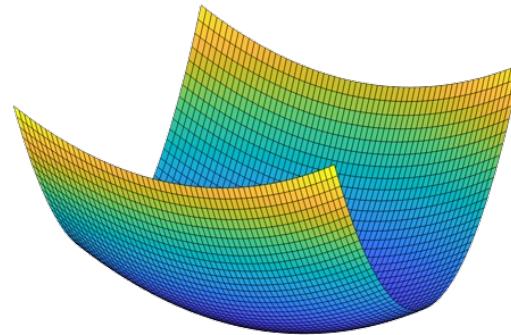
$$H_t w = H_t w^{(t)} - \nabla F(w^{(t)})$$

$$\Rightarrow w = w^{(t)} - H_t^{-1} \nabla F(w^{(t)})$$

**Newton's method:**  $w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} - H_t^{-1} \nabla F(w^{(t)})$

**GD :**  $w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} - \gamma \nabla F(w^{(t)})$

Newton's Method	Gradient Descent
No learning rate	Need to tune learning rate
Super fast convergence	Slower convergence
Know and invert Hessian (inversion takes $O(d^3)$ time naively)	Fast! (only takes $O(d)$ time)



If optimization objective is very flat along a certain direction, 2nd order methods maybe better

# Linear classifiers



# The Setup

Recall the setup:

- input (feature vector):  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- output (label):  $y \in [C] = \{1, 2, \dots, C\}$
- goal: learn a mapping  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow [C]$

This lecture: **binary classification**

- Number of classes:  $C = 2$
- Labels:  $\{-1, +1\}$  (cat or dog)

## Representation: Choosing the **function class**

Let's follow the recipe, and pick a function class  $\mathcal{F}$ .

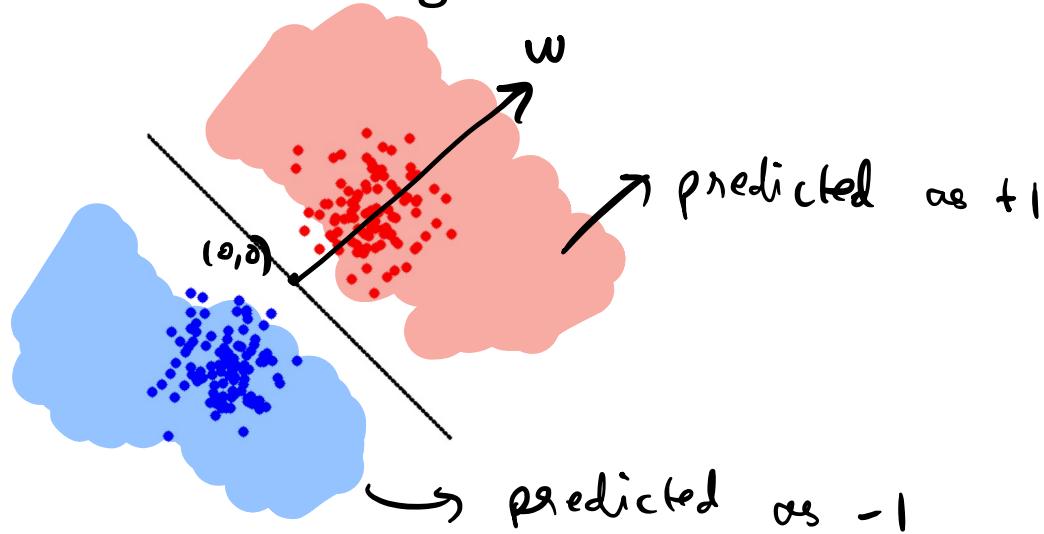
We continue with linear models, but how to predict a label using  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$ ?

*Sign* of  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$  predicts the label:

$$\text{sign}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} > 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

(Sometimes use sgn for sign too.)

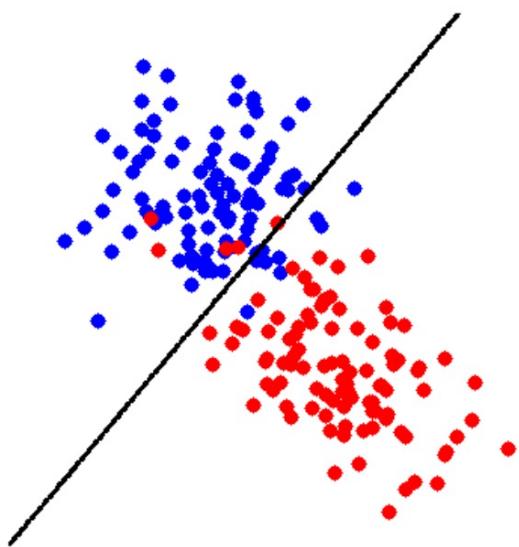
## Representation: Choosing the **function class**



**Definition:** The function class of separating hyperplanes (or linear classifiers) is :

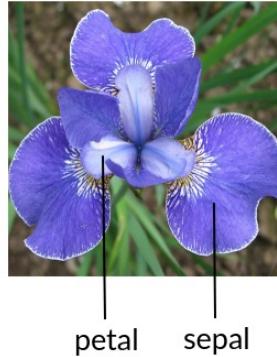
$$\mathcal{F} = \{ f(x) = \text{sign}(w^T x) : w \in \mathbb{R}^d \}$$

Still makes sense for “almost” linearly separable data

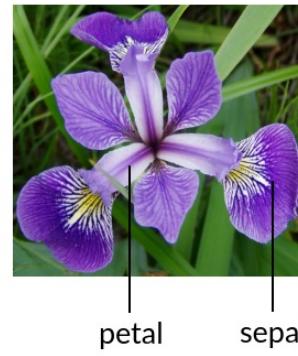


# Iris dataset

**iris setosa**



**iris versicolor**

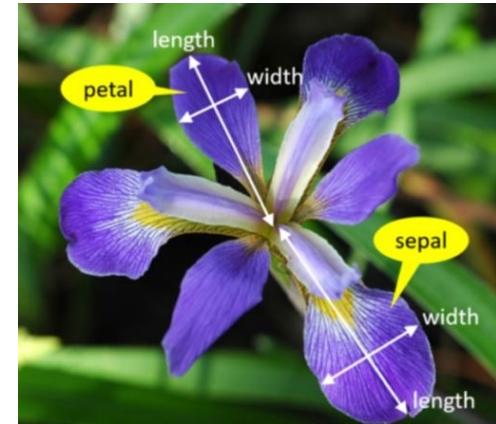


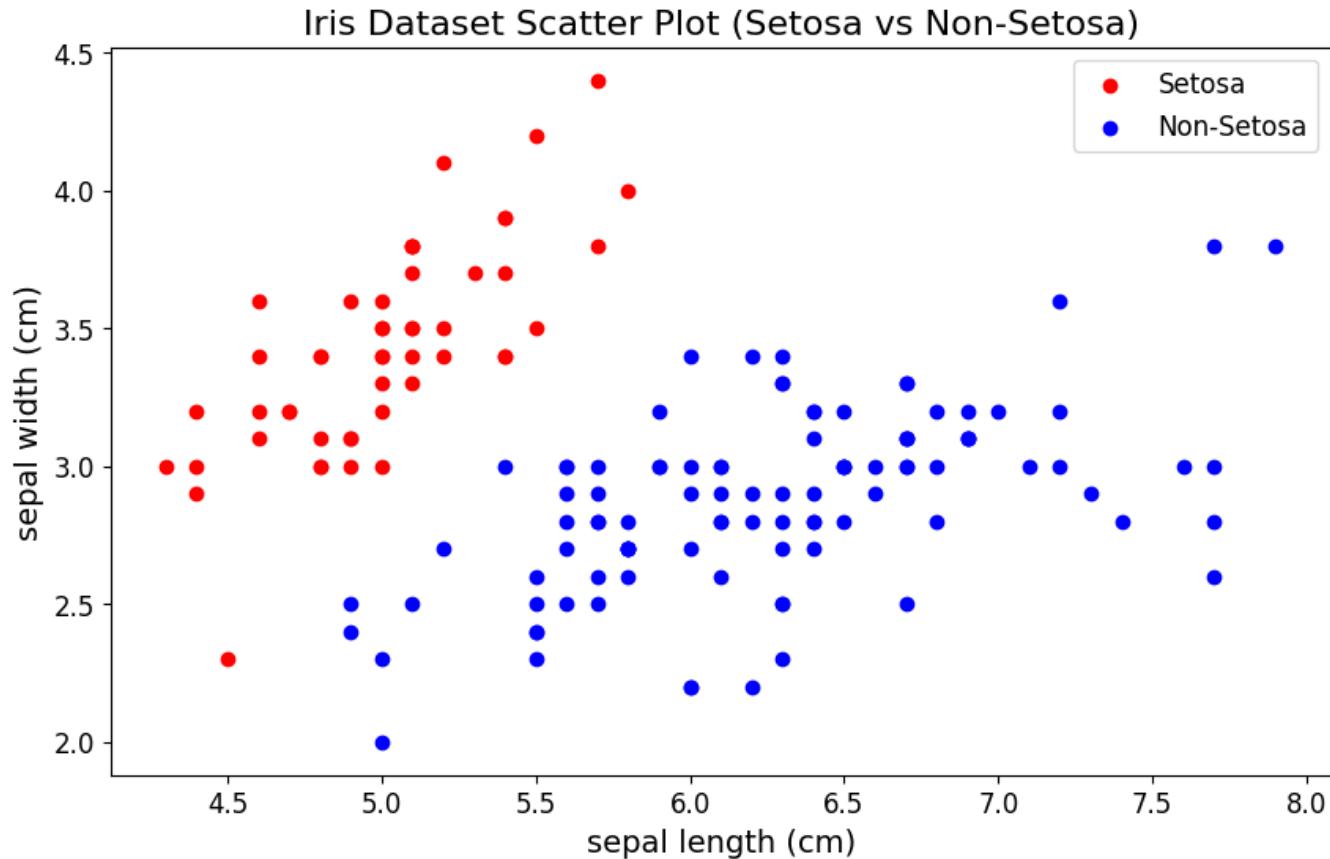
**iris virginica**



## Features:

1. Sepal length
2. Sepal width





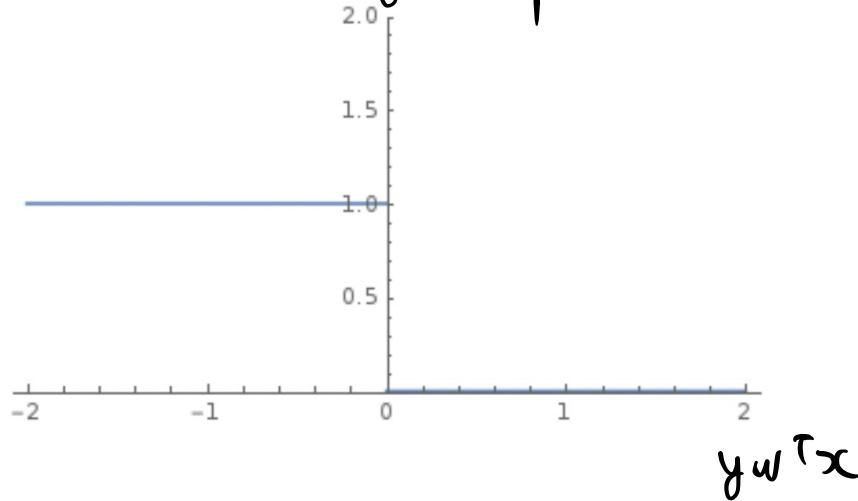
## Choosing the loss function

Most common loss  $l(f(x), y) = \mathbb{1}(f(x) \neq y)$

Loss as a function of  $y w^T x$

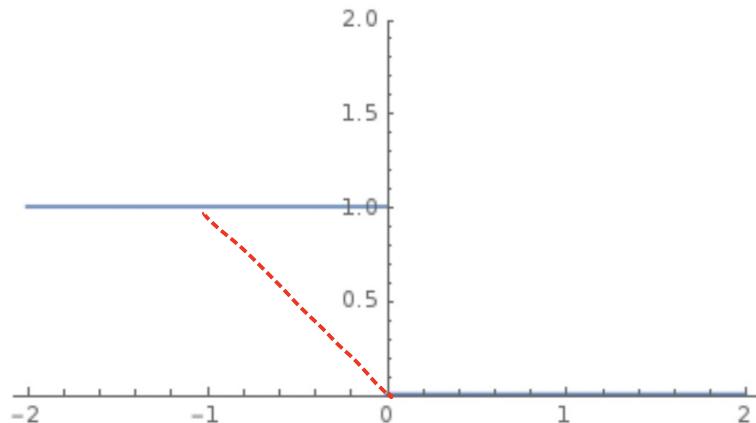
$$l_{0-1}(y w^T x) = \mathbb{1}(y w^T x \leq 0)$$

$$l_{0-1}(y w^T x)$$



# Choosing the loss function: **minimizing 0/1 loss is hard**

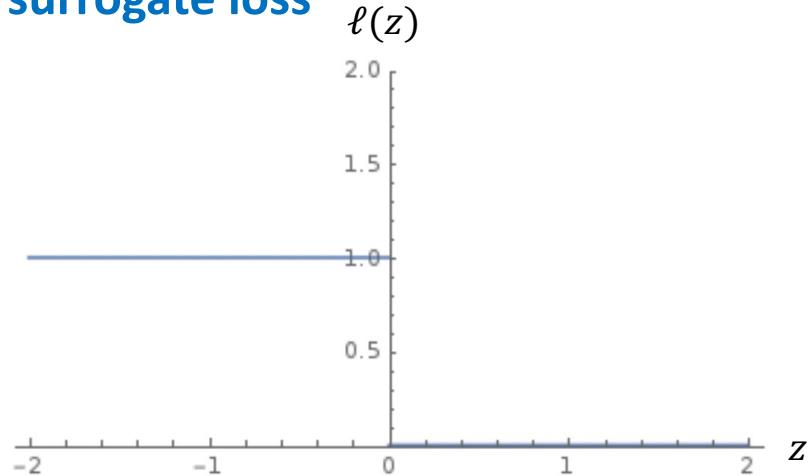
However, 0-1 loss is not convex.



Even worse, minimizing 0-1 loss is NP-hard in general.

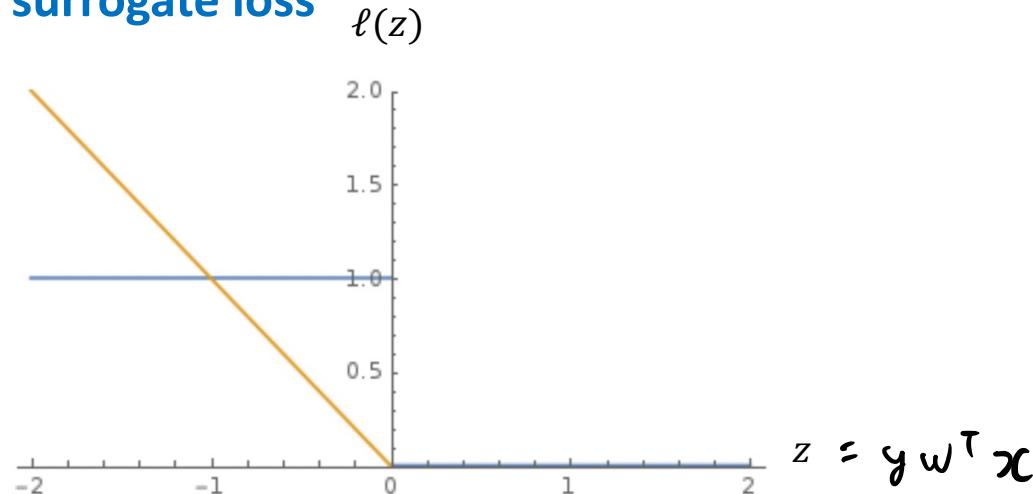
# Choosing the loss function: **surrogate losses**

Solution: use a **convex surrogate loss**



# Choosing the loss function: **surrogate losses**

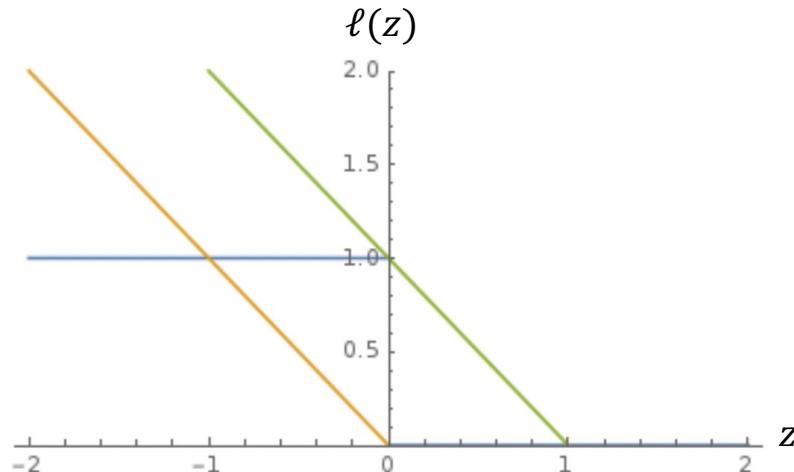
Solution: use a **convex surrogate loss**



- **perceptron loss**  $\ell_{\text{perceptron}}(z) = \max\{0, -z\}$  (used in Perceptron)

# Choosing the loss function: **surrogate losses**

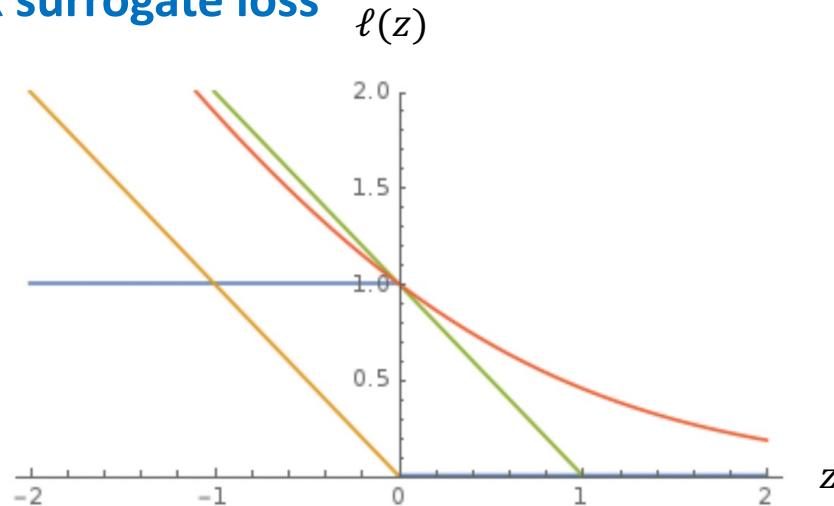
Solution: use a **convex surrogate loss**



- **perceptron loss**  $\ell_{\text{perceptron}}(z) = \max\{0, -z\}$  (used in Perceptron)
- **hinge loss**  $\ell_{\text{hinge}}(z) = \max\{0, 1 - z\}$  (used in SVM and many others)

# Choosing the loss function: **surrogate losses**

Solution: use a **convex surrogate loss**



- **perceptron loss**  $\ell_{\text{perceptron}}(z) = \max\{0, -z\}$  (used in Perceptron)
- **hinge loss**  $\ell_{\text{hinge}}(z) = \max\{0, 1 - z\}$  (used in SVM and many others)
- **logistic loss**  $\ell_{\text{logistic}}(z) = \log(1 + \exp(-z))$  (used in logistic regression; the base of log doesn't matter)

# Onto Optimization!

Find ERM:

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{n} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(y_i \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i) \right)$$

where  $\ell(\cdot)$  is a convex surrogate loss function.

- No closed-form solution in general (in contrast to linear regression)
- We can use our **optimization** toolbox!

*New York Times, 1958*

## NEW NAVY DEVICE LEARNS BY DOING

Psychologist Shows Embryo  
of Computer Designed to  
Read and Grow Wiser

WASHINGTON, July 7 (UPI)—The Navy revealed the embryo of an electronic computer today that it expects will be able to walk, talk, see, write, reproduce itself and be conscious of its existence.

# Perceptron

*The Navy last week demonstrated the embryo of an electronic computer named the **Perceptron** which, when completed in about a year, is expected to be the first non-living mechanism able to "perceive, recognize and identify its surroundings without human training or control."*

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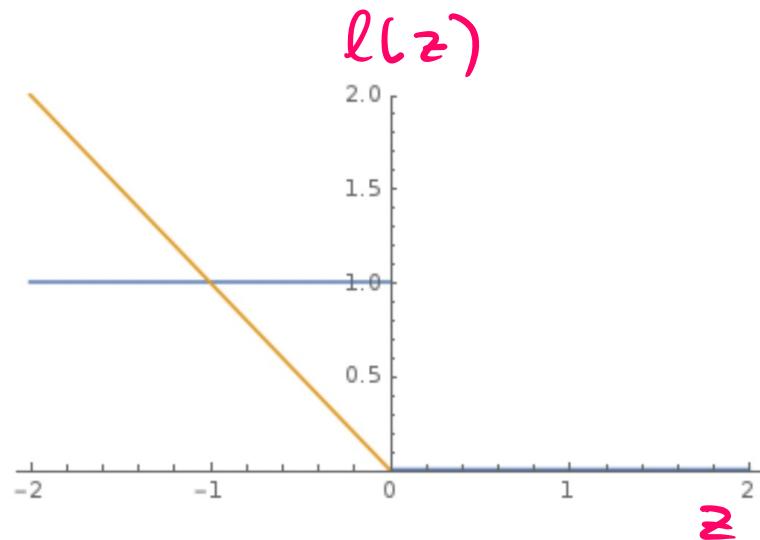
## Recall perceptron loss

$$f(\omega) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n l_{\text{percep}}(y_i; \omega^\top x_i)$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \max \{ 0, -y_i \omega^\top x_i \}$$

what's the gradient?

$$z > 0, 0$$

$$z \leq 0, -1$$



## Applying **GD** to perceptron loss

Gradient is

$$\nabla F(\omega) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n -\mathbb{1}[y_i \omega^\top x_i \leq 0] y_i x_i$$

GD:  $\omega \leftarrow \omega + \frac{\eta}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}[y_i \omega^\top x_i \leq 0] y_i x_i$

## Applying SGD to perceptron loss

How to get stochastic gradient?

→ pick one example  $i \in [n]$  uniformly at random

$$\tilde{\nabla} F(\omega^{(t)}) = -\mathbb{1}[y_i \omega^\top x_i \leq 0] y_i x_i$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[\tilde{\nabla} F(\omega^{(t)}')] &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n -\mathbb{1}[y_i \omega^\top x_i \leq 0] y_i x_i \\ &= \nabla F(\omega^{(t)}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{SGD update : } \omega \leftarrow \omega + \gamma \mathbb{1}[y_i \omega^\top x_i \leq 0] y_i x_i$$

# Perceptron algorithm

SGD with  $\eta = 1$  on perceptron loss.

1. Initialize  $\mathbf{w} = 0$
2. Repeat
  - Pick  $\mathbf{x}_i \sim \text{Unif}(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$
  - If  $\text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i) \neq y_i$ 
$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

## Perceptron algorithm: Intuition

Say that  $w$  makes mistake on  $(x_i, y_i)$

$$y_i w^T x_i < 0$$

Consider  $w' = w + y_i x_i$

$$y_i (w')^T x_i = y_i w^T x_i + y_i^2 x_i^T x_i$$

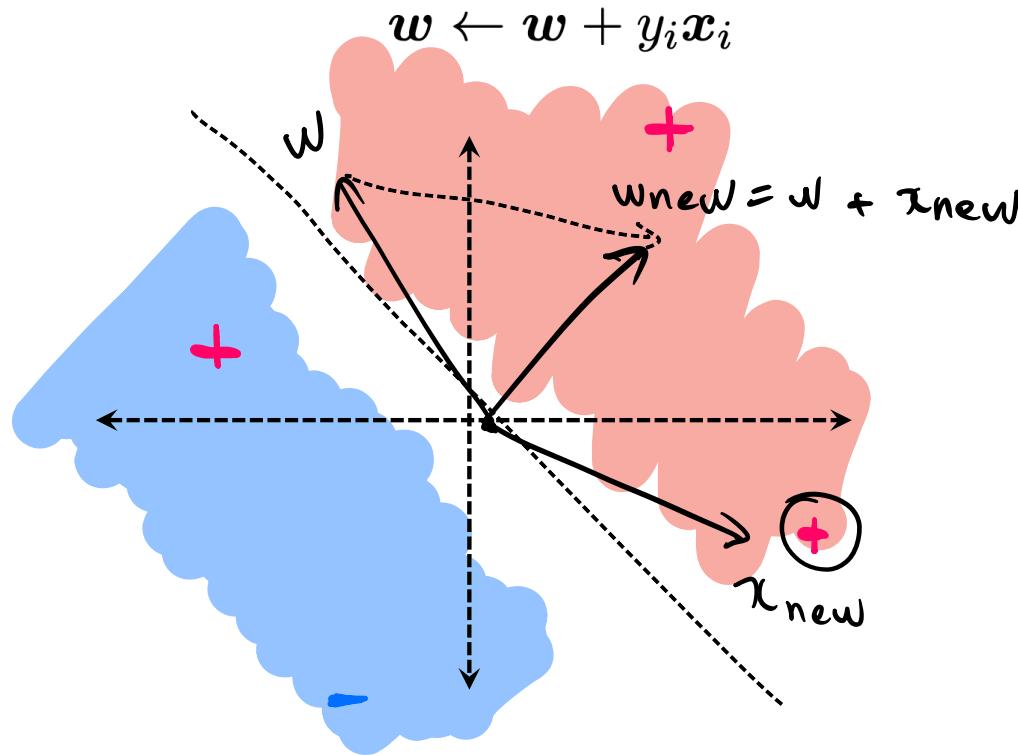
$\therefore$  if  $y_i = 1$

$$y_i (w')^T x_i > y_i w^T x_i$$

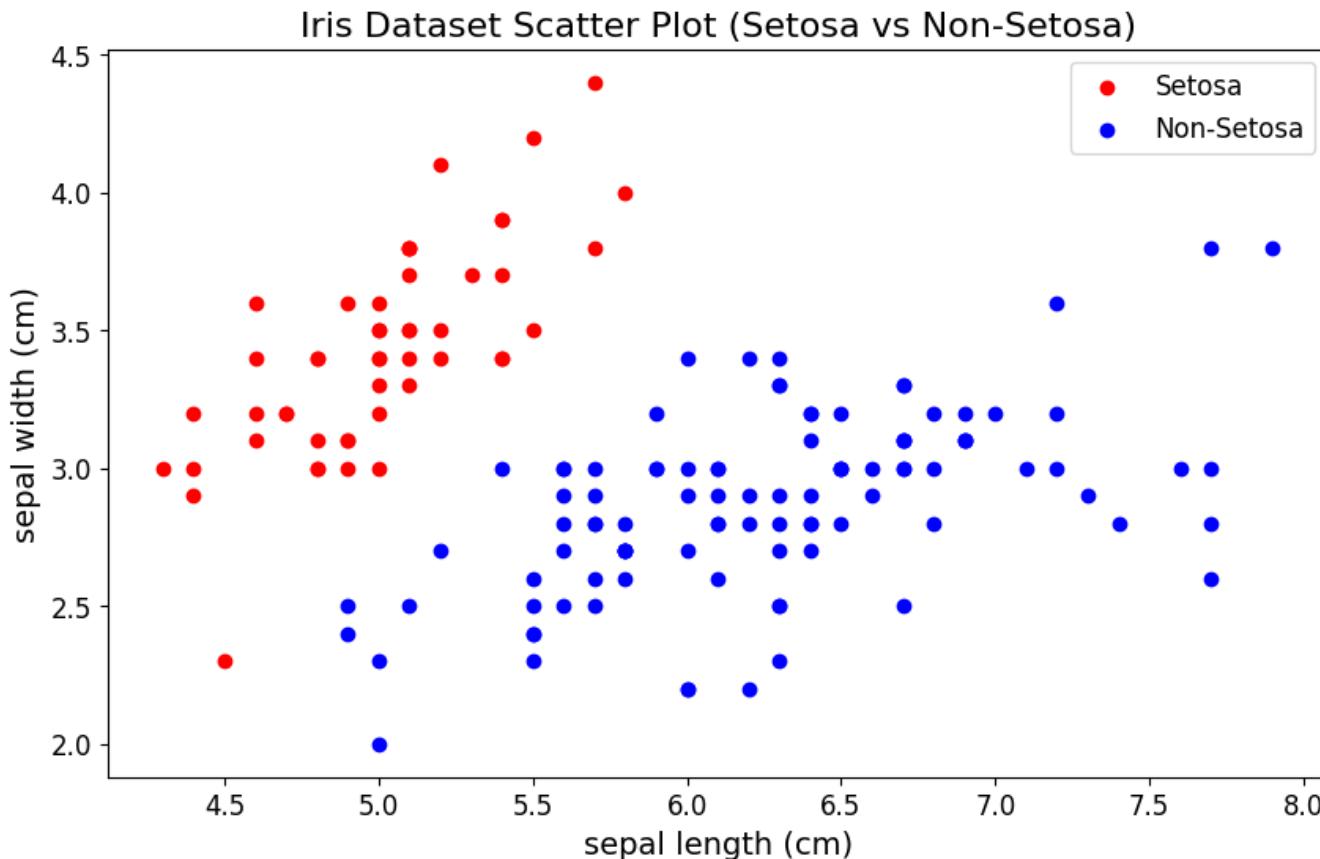
# Perceptron algorithm: visually

Repeat:

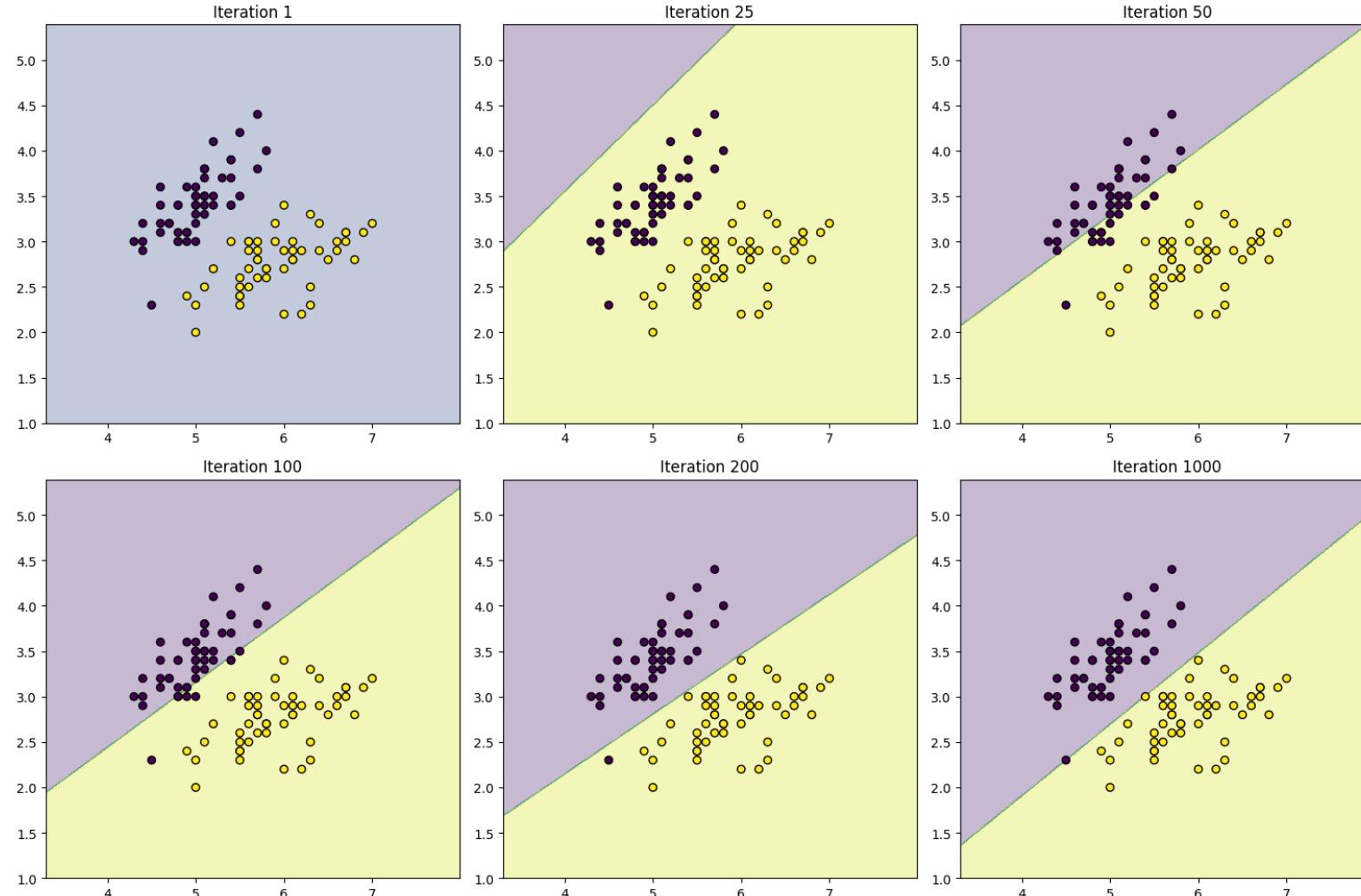
- Pick a data point  $x_i$  uniformly at random
- If  $\text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i) \neq y_i$



# Perceptron algorithm: Iris dataset



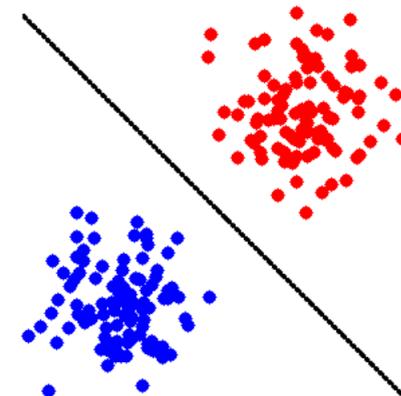
# Perceptron algorithm: Iris dataset



# HW1: Theory for perceptron!

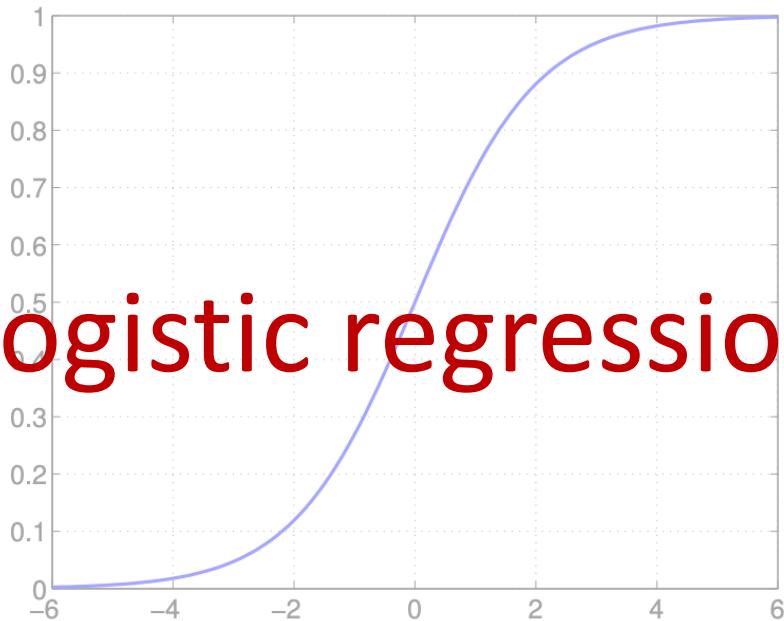
(HW 1) If training set is linearly separable

- Perceptron *converges in a finite number of steps*
- training error is 0



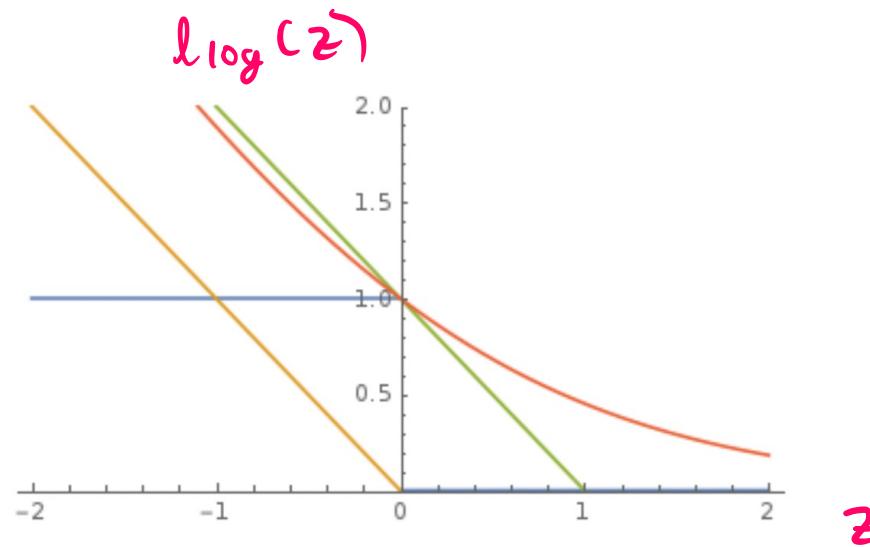
There are also guarantees when the data are not linearly separable.

# Logistic regression



## Logistic loss

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell_{\log}(y_i w^\top x_i)$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ln(1 + e^{-y_i w^\top x_i})$$



# Predicting probabilities

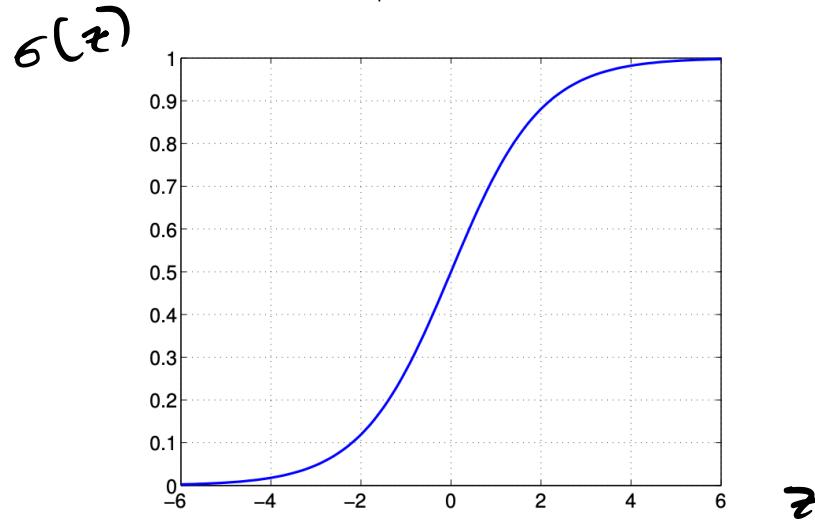
Instead of predicting the  $\{\pm 1\}$  label, predict the probability (i.e. regression on probability).

Sigmoid + linear model:

$$\mathbb{P}(y = +1 | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x})$$

where

$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \quad (\text{Sigmoid function})$$

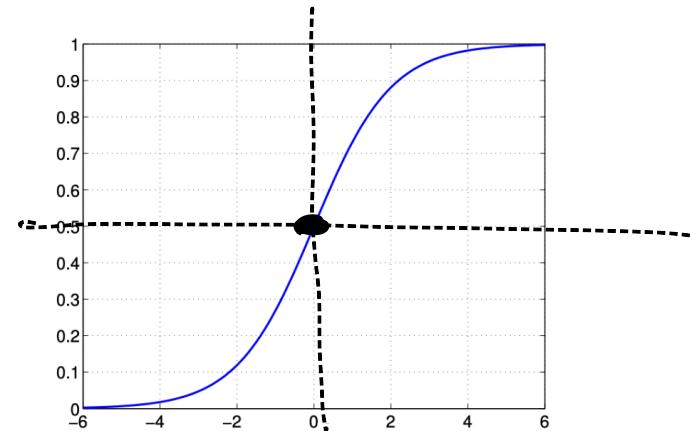


# The sigmoid function

**Properties** of sigmoid  $\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-z}}$

- between 0 and 1 (good as probability)
- $\sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) \geq 0.5 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} \geq 0$ , consistent with predicting the label with  $\text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x})$
- larger  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} \Rightarrow$  larger  $\sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) \Rightarrow$  higher **confidence** in label 1
- $\sigma(z) + \sigma(-z) = 1$  for all  $z$
- Therefore, the probability of label  $-1$  is

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(y = -1 \mid \mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) &= 1 - \mathbb{P}(y = +1 \mid \mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) \\ &= 1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) = \sigma(-\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x})\end{aligned}$$



Therefore, we can model  $\mathbb{P}(y \mid \mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = \sigma(y \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-y \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}}}$

# Maximum likelihood estimation

*What we observe are labels, not probabilities.*

Take a **probabilistic view**

- assume data is independently generated in this way by some  $w$
- perform Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Specifically, what is the probability of seeing labels  $y_1, \dots, y_n$  given  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , as a function of some  $w$ ?

$$P(w) = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(y_i | x_i; w)$$

i.i.d. assumption  
all datapoints are independent  
and identically distributed

**MLE:** find  $w^*$  that **maximizes the probability**  $P(w)$

## Maximum likelihood solution

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{w}} P(\mathbf{w}) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{w}} \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w})$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n \ln \mathbb{P}(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w})$$

$$= \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n -\ln \mathbb{P}(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w})$$

$$= \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n \ln(1 + e^{-y_i \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i})$$

$$= \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell_{\text{logistic}}(y_i \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)$$

$$= \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} F(\mathbf{w})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}) &= \sigma(y_i \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + e^{-y_i \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i}} \end{aligned}$$

Minimizing logistic loss is exactly doing MLE for the sigmoid model!

## SGD to logistic loss

$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \eta \tilde{\nabla} F(\mathbf{w})$$

$$= \mathbf{w} - \eta \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \ell_{\text{logistic}}(y_i \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)$$

$$= \mathbf{w} - \eta \left( \frac{\partial \ell_{\text{logistic}}(z)}{\partial z} \Big|_{z=y_i \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i} \right) y_i \mathbf{x}_i \quad (\text{Chain rule})$$

$$= \mathbf{w} - \eta \left( \frac{-e^{-z}}{1 + e^{-z}} \Big|_{z=y_i \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i} \right) y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

$$= \mathbf{w} + \eta \sigma(-y_i \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i) y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

$$= \mathbf{w} + \eta \mathbb{P}(-y_i | \mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}) y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

$$\mathbb{E} [\tilde{\nabla} F(\mathbf{w})] = \nabla F(\mathbf{w})$$

$(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$  drawn uniformly from  $\{1, \dots, n\}$

$$\frac{\partial (\log(1+e^{-z}))}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{1+e^{-z}} + (-e^{-z})$$

$$\sigma(-z) = 1 - \sigma(z) = 1 - \frac{1}{1+e^{-z}} = \frac{e^{-z}}{1+e^{-z}}$$

$$= \sigma(-z)$$

This is a *soft version of Perceptron!*

$$\mathbb{P}(-y_i | \mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}) \text{ versus } \mathbb{I}[y_i \neq \text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)]$$

