

CSI5180. Machine Learning for Bioinformatics Applications

Fundamentals of Machine Learning — Gradient Descent

by

Marcel Turcotte

Preamble

Fundamentals of Machine Learning — Gradient Descent

In this lecture, we focus on an essential building block for most learning algorithms, the **optimization** algorithm.

General objective :

- ✚ **Describe** the fundamental concepts of machine learning

Learning objectives

- ❖ In your own words, **explain** the role of the optimization algorithm for solving a linear regression problem.
- ❖ **Describe** the function of the (partial) derivative in the gradient descent algorithm.
- ❖ **Clarify** the role the learning rate, a hyper-parameter.
- ❖ **Compare** the **batch**, **stochastic** and **mini-batch** gradient descent algorithms.

Reading:

- ❖ Largely based on Géron 2019, §4.

Plan

1. Preamble
2. Mathematics
3. Problem
4. Building blocks
5. Prologue

Gradient Descent - Andrew Ng (1/4)



Machine Learning

Linear regression
with one variable

Gradient descent

<https://youtu.be/F6GSRDoB-Cg>

Gradient Descent - Andrew Ng (2/4)



Machine Learning

Linear regression
with one variable

Gradient descent
intuition

<https://youtu.be/YovTqTY-PYY>

Gradient Descent - Andrew Ng (3/4)



Machine Learning

Linear regression
with one variable

Gradient descent for
linear regression

<https://youtu.be/66rql7He62g>

Normal Equation - Andrew Ng (4/4)

m training examples, n features.

Gradient Descent

- • Need to choose α .
- • Needs many iterations.
- Works well even when n is large.

Normal Equation

- • No need to choose α .
- • Don't need to iterate.
- Need to compute $(X^T X)^{-1}$ $n \times n$ $O(n^3)$
- Slow if n is very large.

Andrew Ng

<https://youtu.be/B-Ks01zR4HY>

Mathematics

❖ Essence of **linear algebra**

- ❖ A series of 15 videos (10 to 15 minutes per video) providing “[a] geometric understanding of matrices, determinants, eigen-stuffs and more.”
 - ❖ 6,662,732 views as of September 30, 2019.

❖ Essence of **calculus**

- ❖ A series of 12 videos (15 to 20 minutes per video): “The goal here is to make calculus feel like something that you yourself could have discovered.”
 - ❖ 2,309,726 views as of September 30, 2019.

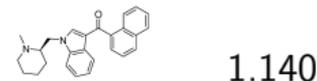
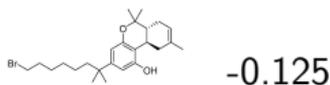
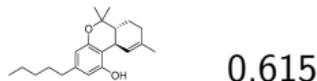
Problem

Supervised learning - regression

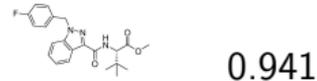
- ❖ The **data set** is a collection of **labelled** examples.
 - ❖ $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$
 - ❖ Each x_i is a **feature vector** with D dimensions.
 - ❖ $x_i^{(j)}$ is the value of the **feature** j of the example i , for $j \in 1 \dots D$ and $i \in 1 \dots N$.
 - ❖ The **label** y_i is a **real number**.
- ❖ **Problem:** given the data set as input, create a “**model**” that can be used to predict the value of y for an unseen x .

QSAR

- ❖ **QSAR** stands for **Quantitative Structure-Activity Relationship**
- ❖ As a machine learning problem,
 - ❖ Each x_i is a **chemical compound**
 - ❖ y_i is the **biological activity** of the compound x_i
 - ❖ Examples of biological activity include **toxicology** and **biodegradability**



...



HIV-1 reverse transcriptase inhibitors

- ❖ Viira, B., García-Sosa, A. T. & Maran, U. **Chemical structure and correlation analysis of HIV-1 NNRT and NRT inhibitors and database-curated, published inhibition constants with chemical structure in diverse datasets.** *J Mol Graph Model* **76**:205223 (2017).
- ❖ Each compound (**example**) in **ChemDB** has features such as the **number of atoms, area, solvation, coulombic, molecular weight, XLogP**, etc.
- ❖ A possible solution, a model, would look something like this:

$$\hat{y} = 44.418 - 35.133 \times x^{(1)} - 13.518 \times x^{(2)} + 0.766 \times x^{(3)}$$

Building blocks

Building blocks

In general, a **learning algorithm** has the following building blocks.

- ❖ A **model**, often consisting of a set of **weights** whose values will be “**learnt**”.

Building blocks

In general, a **learning algorithm** has the following building blocks.

- ❖ A **model**, often consisting of a set of **weights** whose values will be “**learnt**”.
- ❖ An **objective function**.

Building blocks

In general, a **learning algorithm** has the following building blocks.

- ❖ A **model**, often consisting of a set of **weights** whose values will be “**learnt**”.
- ❖ An **objective function**.
 - ❖ In the case of a **regression**, this is often a **loss function**, a function that quantifies misclassification. The **Root Mean Square Error** is a common loss function for regression problems.

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N [h(x_i) - y_i]^2}$$

Building blocks

In general, a **learning algorithm** has the following building blocks.

- ❖ A **model**, often consisting of a set of **weights** whose values will be “**learnt**”.
- ❖ An **objective function**.
 - ❖ In the case of a **regression**, this is often a **loss function**, a function that quantifies misclassification. The **Root Mean Square Error** is a common loss function for regression problems.

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N [h(x_i) - y_i]^2}$$

- ❖ **Optimization** algorithm

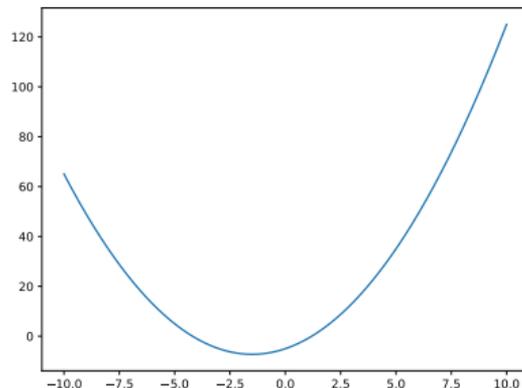
Optimization

- ❖ **Until** some termination criteria is met ¹:
 - ❖ **Evaluate** the loss function, comparing $h(x_i)$ to y_i .
 - ❖ **Make small changes to the weights**, in a way that reduces that the value of the loss function.

⇒ Let's derive a concrete algorithm called **gradient descent**.

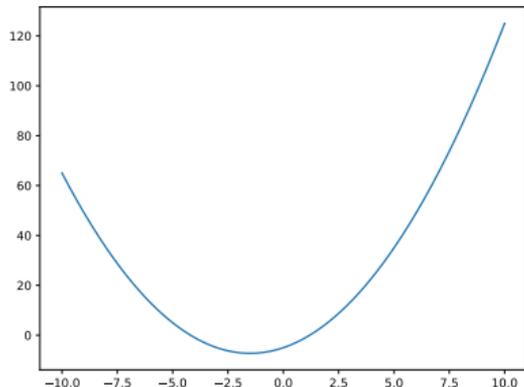
¹E.g. the value of the loss function no longer decreases or maximum number of iterations.

Derivative



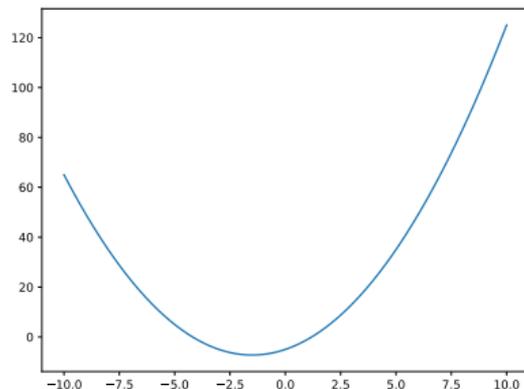
- ✦ The **derivative** of a real function describes how changes to the input value(s) will affect the output value.

Derivative



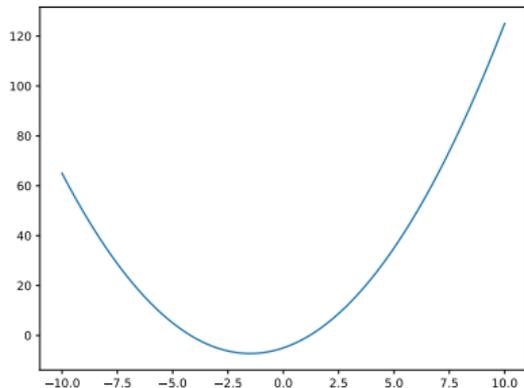
- ❖ The **derivative** of a real function describes how changes to the input value(s) will affect the output value.
- ❖ We focus on a **single (input) variable function for now**.

Derivative



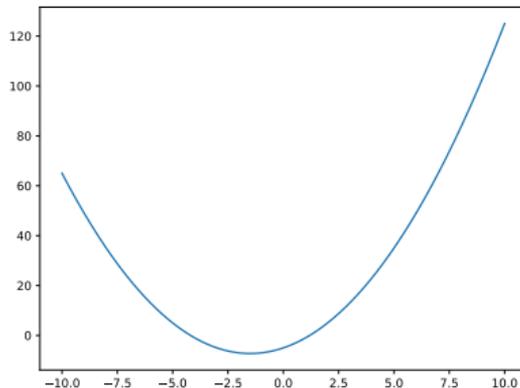
- When evaluated at a **single point**, the **derivative** of a single variable function can be seen as a line **tangent** to the graph of the function.

Derivative



- ✦ When the **slope** of the tangent line is **positive** (when the derivative is positive), this means that **increasing the value of the input variable** will **increase the value of the output**.
- ✦ Furthermore, the **magnitude** of the derivative indicates how **fast** or **slow** the output will change.

Derivative



- ❖ When the **slope** of the tangent line is **negative** (when the derivative is negative), this means that **increasing the value of the input variable will decrease the value of the output**.
- ❖ Furthermore, the **magnitude** of the derivative indicates how **fast** or **slow** the output will change.

Recall

- ❖ A **linear model** assumes that the value of the label, \hat{y}_i , can be expressed as a **linear combination** of the feature values, $x_i^{(j)}$:

$$\hat{y}_i = h(x_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i^{(1)} + \theta_2 x_i^{(2)} + \dots + \theta_D x_i^{(D)}$$

Recall

- ❖ A **linear model** assumes that the value of the label, \hat{y}_i , can be expressed as a **linear combination** of the feature values, $x_i^{(j)}$:

$$\hat{y}_i = h(x_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i^{(1)} + \theta_2 x_i^{(2)} + \dots + \theta_D x_i^{(D)}$$

- ❖ The **Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)** is a common loss function for regression problems.

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N [h(x_i) - y_i]^2}$$

Recall

- ❖ A **linear model** assumes that the value of the label, \hat{y}_i , can be expressed as a **linear combination** of the feature values, $x_i^{(j)}$:

$$\hat{y}_i = h(x_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i^{(1)} + \theta_2 x_i^{(2)} + \dots + \theta_D x_i^{(D)}$$

- ❖ The **Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)** is a common loss function for regression problems.

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N [h(x_i) - y_i]^2}$$

- ❖ In practice, minimizing the **Mean Squared Error (MSE)** is easier and gives the same result.

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N [h(x_i) - y_i]^2$$

Gradient descent - single value

❖ Our **model**:

$$h(x_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i^{(1)}$$

Gradient descent - single value

❖ Our **model**:

$$h(x_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i^{(1)}$$

❖ Our **loss function**:

$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N [h(x_i) - y_i]^2$$

Gradient descent - single value

- ❖ Our **model**:

$$h(x_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i^{(1)}$$

- ❖ Our **loss function**:

$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N [h(x_i) - y_i]^2$$

- ❖ **Problem**: find the values of θ_0 and θ_1 minimize J .

Gradient descent - single value

▣ Gradient descent:

Gradient descent - single value

- ✚ **Gradient descent:**

- ✚ **Initialization:** θ_0 and θ_1 - either with random values or zeros.

Gradient descent - single value

❖ Gradient descent:

- ❖ **Initialization:** θ_0 and θ_1 - either with random values or zeros.
- ❖ **Loop:**

repeat until convergence: {

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

}

Gradient descent - single value

❖ Gradient descent:

- ❖ **Initialization:** θ_0 and θ_1 - either with random values or zeros.
- ❖ **Loop:**

repeat until convergence: {

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

}

- ❖ α is called the **learning rate** - this is the size of each step.

Gradient descent - single value

❖ Gradient descent:

- ❖ **Initialization:** θ_0 and θ_1 - either with random values or zeros.
- ❖ **Loop:**

repeat until convergence: {

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

}

- ❖ α is called the **learning rate** - this is the size of each step.
- ❖ $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$ is the **partial derivative** with respect to θ_j .

Gradient descent - single value

❖ Gradient descent:

- ❖ **Initialization:** θ_0 and θ_1 - either with random values or zeros.
- ❖ **Loop:**

repeat until convergence: {

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

}

- ❖ α is called the **learning rate** - this is the size of each step.
- ❖ $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$ is the **partial derivative** with respect to θ_j .
- ❖ For the algorithm to be mathematically sound, all the θ_j must be updated **simultaneously**.

Partial derivatives

Given

$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N [h(x_i) - y_i]^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N [\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i - y_i]^2$$

We have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_0} J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i - y_i)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i (\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i - y_i)$$

Multivariate linear regression

$$h(x_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i^{(1)} + \theta_2 x_i^{(2)} + \theta_3 x_i^{(3)} + \dots + \theta_D x_i^{(D)}$$

$x_i^{(j)}$ = value of the feature j in the i th example

D = the number of features

Gradient descent - multivariate

The new **loss function** is

$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_D) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (h(x_i) - y_i)^2$$

Its **partial derivative**:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta) = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i^{(j)} (\theta x_i - y_i)$$

where θ , x_i and y_i are vectors, and θx_i is a vector operation!

Gradient vector

The vector containing the partial derivative of J (with respect to θ_j , for $j \in \{0, 1 \dots D\}$) is called the **gradient vector**.

$$\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_0} J(\theta) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} J(\theta) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_D} J(\theta) \end{pmatrix}$$

- ▣ This vector gives the direction of the **steepest ascent**.

Gradient vector

The vector containing the partial derivative of J (with respect to θ_j , for $j \in \{0, 1 \dots D\}$) is called the **gradient vector**.

$$\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_0} J(\theta) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} J(\theta) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_D} J(\theta) \end{pmatrix}$$

- ❖ This vector gives the direction of the **steepest ascent**.
- ❖ It gives it name to the **gradient descent** algorithm:

$$\theta' = \theta - \alpha \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta)$$

Gradient descent - multivariate

The gradient descent algorithm becomes:

repeat until convergence: {

$$\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta_0, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_D)$$

for $j \in [0, \dots, D]$ (**update simultaneously**)

}

Gradient descent - multivariate

The gradient descent algorithm becomes:

repeat until convergence: {

$$\theta_0 := \theta_0 - \alpha \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i^0 (h(x_i) - y_i)$$

$$\theta_1 := \theta_1 - \alpha \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i^1 (h(x_i) - y_i)$$

$$\theta_2 := \theta_2 - \alpha \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i^2 (h(x_i) - y_i)$$

...

}

Assumptions

What were our **assumptions**?

- The (objective/loss) function is **differentiable**.

Local vs. global

- ❖ A function is **convex** if for any pair of points on the graph of the function, the line connecting these two points lies above or on the graph ²

²It would be convex downward or concave if those lines were below or on the graph of the function.

Local vs. global

- ❖ A function is **convex** if for any pair of points on the graph of the function, the line connecting these two points lies above or on the graph ²
 - ❖ A **convex** function has a **single** minimum.

²It would be convex downward or concave if those lines were below or on the graph of the function.

Local vs. global

- ❖ A function is **convex** if for any pair of points on the graph of the function, the line connecting these two points lies above or on the graph ²
 - ❖ A **convex** function has a **single** minimum.
 - ❖ The loss function for the linear regression (MSE) is convex.

²It would be convex downward or concave if those lines were below or on the graph of the function.

Local vs. global

- ❖ A function is **convex** if for any pair of points on the graph of the function, the line connecting these two points lies above or on the graph ²
 - ❖ A **convex** function has a **single** minimum.
 - ❖ The loss function for the linear regression (MSE) is convex.
- ❖ For functions that are not convex, the gradient descent algorithm converges to a **local** minimum.

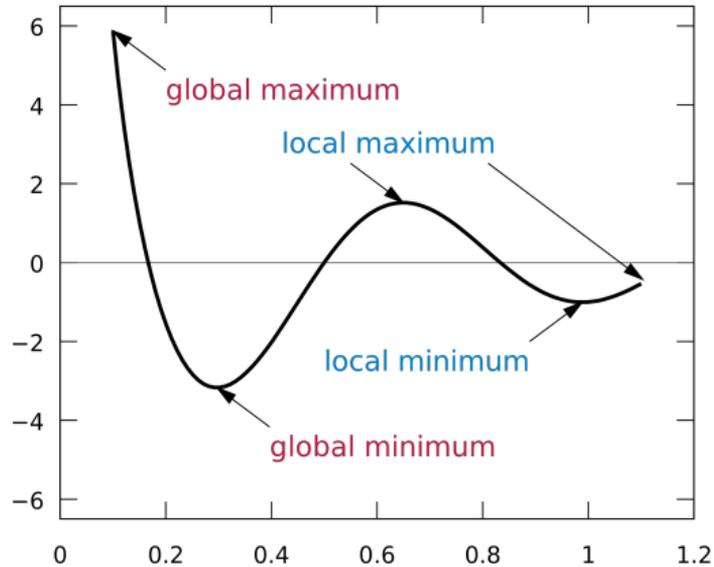
²It would be convex downward or concave if those lines were below or on the graph of the function.

Local vs. global

- ❖ A function is **convex** if for any pair of points on the graph of the function, the line connecting these two points lies above or on the graph ²
 - ❖ A **convex** function has a **single** minimum.
 - ❖ The loss function for the linear regression (MSE) is convex.
- ❖ For functions that are not convex, the gradient descent algorithm converges to a **local** minimum.
- ❖ The loss function generally used with linear or logistic regressions, and Support Vector Machines (SVM) are convex, but not the ones for artificial neural networks.

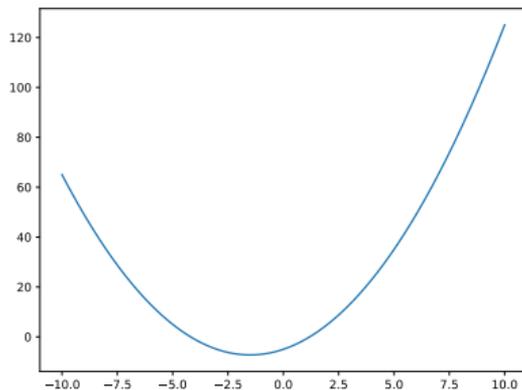
²It would be convex downward or concave if those lines were below or on the graph of the function.

Local vs. global



Source: https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Extrema_example.svg

About the learning rate



- ❖ **Small steps**, low values for α , will make the algorithm **converge slowly**.
- ❖ **Large steps**, might cause the algorithm to **diverge**.
- ❖ Notice how the algorithm **slows down** naturally when approaching a minimum.

Batch gradient descent

- ❖ To be more precise, this algorithm is known as **batch gradient descent** since for each iteration, it processes the “whole batch” of training examples.
- ❖ Literature suggests that the algorithm might take more time to converge if the features are on different scales.

Batch gradient descent - drawback

- ❖ The **batch gradient descent** algorithm becomes very **slow** as the **number of training examples increases**.

Batch gradient descent - drawback

- ❖ The **batch gradient descent** algorithm becomes very **slow** as the **number of training examples increases**.
 - ❖ This is because **all** the training data is seen at **each iteration**. The algorithm is generally ran for a fixed number of iterations, say 1000.

Stochastic Gradient Descent

- ❖ The **stochastic gradient descent** algorithm randomly selects **one** training instance to calculate its gradient.

```
epochs = 10
for epoch in range(epochs):
    for i in range(N):
        selection = np.random.randint(N)
        # Calculate the gradient using selection
        # Update the weights
```

Stochastic Gradient Descent

- ❖ The **stochastic gradient descent** algorithm randomly selects **one** training instance to calculate its gradient.

```
epochs = 10
for epoch in range(epochs):
    for i in range(N):
        selection = np.random.randint(N)
        # Calculate the gradient using selection
        # Update the weights
```

- ❖ This allows it to work with large training sets.

Stochastic Gradient Descent

- ❖ The **stochastic gradient descent** algorithm randomly selects **one** training instance to calculate its gradient.

```
epochs = 10
for epoch in range(epochs):
    for i in range(N):
        selection = np.random.randint(N)
        # Calculate the gradient using selection
        # Update the weights
```

- ❖ This allows it to work with large training sets.
- ❖ Its trajectory is not as regular as the batch algorithm.

Stochastic Gradient Descent

- ❖ The **stochastic gradient descent** algorithm randomly selects **one** training instance to calculate its gradient.

```
epochs = 10
for epoch in range(epochs):
    for i in range(N):
        selection = np.random.randint(N)
        # Calculate the gradient using selection
        # Update the weights
```

- ❖ This allows it to work with large training sets.
- ❖ Its trajectory is not as regular as the batch algorithm.
 - ❖ Because of its bumpy trajectory, it is often **better at finding the global minima**, when compared to batch.

Stochastic Gradient Descent

- ❖ The **stochastic gradient descent** algorithm randomly selects **one** training instance to calculate its gradient.

```
epochs = 10
for epoch in range(epochs):
    for i in range(N):
        selection = np.random.randint(N)
        # Calculate the gradient using selection
        # Update the weights
```

- ❖ This allows it to work with large training sets.
- ❖ Its trajectory is not as regular as the batch algorithm.
 - ❖ Because of its bumpy trajectory, it is often **better at finding the global minima**, when compared to batch.
 - ❖ Its bumpy trajectory makes it **bounce around the local minima**.

Stochastic Gradient Descent

- ❖ The **stochastic gradient descent** algorithm randomly selects **one** training instance to calculate its gradient.

```
epochs = 10
for epoch in range(epochs):
    for i in range(N):
        selection = np.random.randint(N)
        # Calculate the gradient using selection
        # Update the weights
```

- ❖ This allows it to work with large training sets.
- ❖ Its trajectory is not as regular as the batch algorithm.
 - ❖ Because of its bumpy trajectory, it is often **better at finding the global minima**, when compared to batch.
 - ❖ Its bumpy trajectory makes it **bounce around the local minima**.
 - ❖ A way around this is to decrease the learning rate as the number of epoch increases - this is called a **learning schedule**.

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

- ✦ It is important that the examples are either **selected randomly** or **shuffled** before running the algorithm to make sure that the algorithm converges towards the global minima.

Mini-batch gradient descent

- ✚ At each step, rather than selecting one training example, as SGD does, **mini-batch gradient descent** randomly selects a **small number** of training examples to compute the gradients.

Mini-batch gradient descent

- ✚ At each step, rather than selecting one training example, as SGD does, **mini-batch gradient descent** randomly selects a **small number** of training examples to compute the gradients.
- ✚ Its trajectory is more regular, compared to SGD.

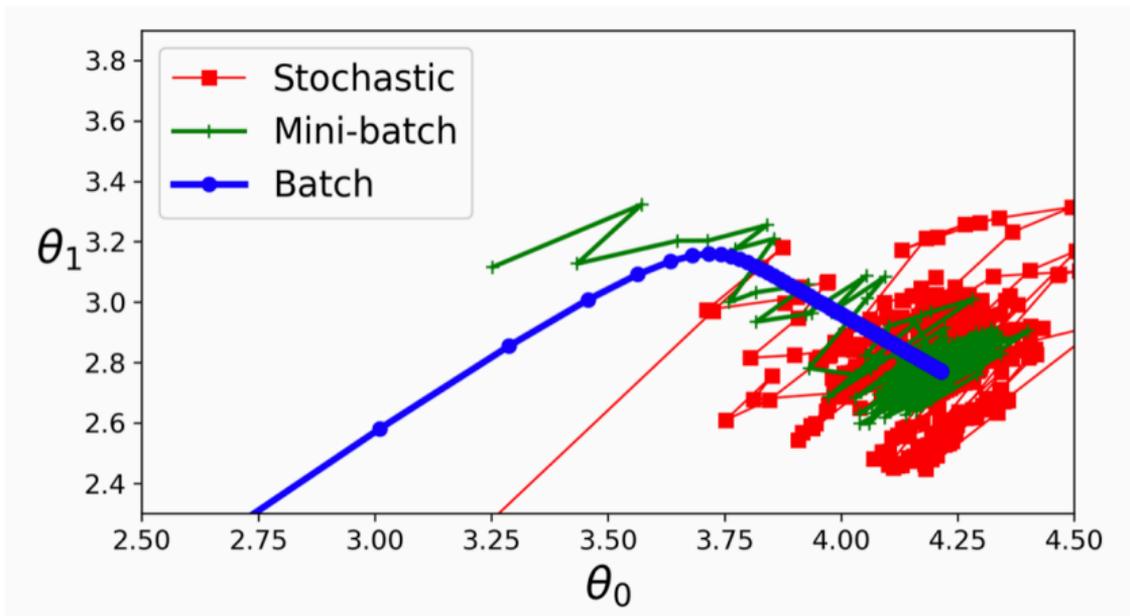
Mini-batch gradient descent

- ✚ At each step, rather than selecting one training example, as SGD does, **mini-batch gradient descent** randomly selects a **small number** of training examples to compute the gradients.
- ✚ Its trajectory is more regular, compared to SGD.
 - ✚ As the size of the mini-batches increases, the algorithm is more and more similar to batch gradient descent, which uses all the examples at each step.

Mini-batch gradient descent

- ❖ At each step, rather than selecting one training example, as SGD does, **mini-batch gradient descent** randomly selects a **small number** of training examples to compute the gradients.
- ❖ Its trajectory is more regular, compared to SGD.
 - ❖ As the size of the mini-batches increases, the algorithm is more and more similar to batch gradient descent, which uses all the examples at each step.
- ❖ It can take advantages of the hardware acceleration of matrix operations, in particular GPUs.

Batch, stochastic, and mini-batch



Source: Géron 2019, Figure 4.11

Normal Equation

Briefly...

- For some loss functions, a **closed-form solution** exists, i.e. the problem can be solved analytically.

Normal Equation

Briefly...

- ❖ For some loss functions, a **closed-form solution** exists, i.e. the problem can be solved analytically.
- ❖ This is the case for a **quadratic** function, such as the **mean squared error (MSE)**.

Normal Equation

Briefly...

- ❖ For some loss functions, a **closed-form solution** exists, i.e. the problem can be solved analytically.
- ❖ This is the case for a **quadratic** function, such as the **mean squared error** (MSE).
- ❖ However, this involves computing an inverse matrix, which in turns involves computing the **singular value decomposition** (SVD) of the matrix.

Normal Equation

Briefly...

- ❖ For some loss functions, a **closed-form solution** exists, i.e. the problem can be solved analytically.
- ❖ This is the case for a **quadratic** function, such as the **mean squared error** (MSE).
- ❖ However, this involves computing an inverse matrix, which in turns involves computing the **singular value decomposition** (SVD) of the matrix.
 - ❖ Such algorithms have a computational time complexity between $\mathcal{O}(D^{2.4})$ to $\mathcal{O}(D^3)$, where D is the number of features.

Normal Equation

Briefly...

- ❖ For some loss functions, a **closed-form solution** exists, i.e. the problem can be solved analytically.
- ❖ This is the case for a **quadratic** function, such as the **mean squared error** (MSE).
- ❖ However, this involves computing an inverse matrix, which in turns involves computing the **singular value decomposition** (SVD) of the matrix.
 - ❖ Such algorithms have a computational time complexity between $\mathcal{O}(D^{2.4})$ to $\mathcal{O}(D^3)$, where D is the number of features.
 - ❖ However, these algorithms are linear with respect to the number of examples, N .

Summary

- ❖ **Normal Equation** is very slow when the number of features is large, say 100,000. However, the algorithm scales linearly with the number of examples.
- ❖ **Batch gradient descent** is **slow**, cannot be run on large data sets where **out-of-core** support is needed can work with a large number of features.
- ❖ **Stochastic gradient descent** is **fast**, can handle a large number of examples.
- ❖ **Mini-batch gradient descent** is **fast**, can handle a large number of examples. Takes advantage of hardware acceleration.

All three are implemented by **SGDRegressor** in **Scikit-Learn**.

Optimization and deep nets

We will briefly revisit the subject when talking about **deep artificial neural networks** for which **specialized optimization algorithms** exist.

- ❖ Momentum Optimization
- ❖ Nesterov Accelerated Gradient
- ❖ AdaGrad
- ❖ RMSProp
- ❖ Adam and Nadam

Final word

- ❖ Optimization is a vast subject. Other algorithms exist and are used in other contexts.
- ❖ Including
 - ❖ Particle swarm optimization (PSO), genetic algorithms (GAs), and artificial bee colony (ABC) algorithms.

Linear regression - summary

- ❖ A **linear model** assumes that the value of the label, \hat{y}_i , can be expressed as a **linear combination** of the feature values, $x_i^{(j)}$:

$$\hat{y}_i = h(x_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i^{(1)} + \theta_2 x_i^{(2)} + \dots + \theta_D x_i^{(D)}$$

Linear regression - summary

- ❖ A **linear model** assumes that the value of the label, \hat{y}_i , can be expressed as a **linear combination** of the feature values, $x_i^{(j)}$:

$$\hat{y}_i = h(x_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i^{(1)} + \theta_2 x_i^{(2)} + \dots + \theta_D x_i^{(D)}$$

- ❖ The **Mean Squared Error (MSE)** is a

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N [h(x_i) - y_i]^2$$

Linear regression - summary

- ❖ A **linear model** assumes that the value of the label, \hat{y}_i , can be expressed as a **linear combination** of the feature values, $x_i^{(j)}$:

$$\hat{y}_i = h(x_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i^{(1)} + \theta_2 x_i^{(2)} + \dots + \theta_D x_i^{(D)}$$

- ❖ The **Mean Squared Error (MSE)** is a

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N [h(x_i) - y_i]^2$$

- ❖ **Batch, stochastic, or mini-batch gradient descent** can be used to find “optimal” values for the weights, θ_j for $j \in 0, 1 \dots D$.

Linear regression - summary

- ❖ A **linear model** assumes that the value of the label, \hat{y}_i , can be expressed as a **linear combination** of the feature values, $x_i^{(j)}$:

$$\hat{y}_i = h(x_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i^{(1)} + \theta_2 x_i^{(2)} + \dots + \theta_D x_i^{(D)}$$

- ❖ The **Mean Squared Error (MSE)** is a

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N [h(x_i) - y_i]^2$$

- ❖ **Batch, stochastic, or mini-batch gradient descent** can be used to find “optimal” values for the weights, θ_j for $j \in 0, 1 \dots D$.
- ❖ The result is a **regressor**. A function that can be used to predict the y value (the label) for some unseen example x .

TO DO 2020

- ✦ Consider saying a few words about **autodiff** - See Géron §D.

Prologue

Summary

- ❖ An **optimization** algorithm is used to find “optimal” values for the parameters of the **linear model** so as to **minimize** the value of the **loss function**

Summary

- ❖ An **optimization** algorithm is used to find “optimal” values for the parameters of the **linear model** so as to **minimize** the value of the **loss function**
- ❖ The **gradient** of the **loss function** plays a central role in the gradient descent algorithm. For each feature weight, it informs about the sign and magnitude of the required change.

Summary

- ❖ An **optimization** algorithm is used to find “optimal” values for the parameters of the **linear model** so as to **minimize** the value of the **loss function**
- ❖ The **gradient** of the **loss function** plays a central role in the gradient descent algorithm. For each feature weight, it informs about the sign and magnitude of the required change.
- ❖ The **learning rate** controls how fast or slow the algorithm learns. The algorithm might diverge if the learning rate is too high.

Summary

- ❖ An **optimization** algorithm is used to find “optimal” values for the parameters of the **linear model** so as to **minimize** the value of the **loss function**
- ❖ The **gradient** of the **loss function** plays a central role in the gradient descent algorithm. For each feature weight, it informs about the sign and magnitude of the required change.
- ❖ The **learning rate** controls how fast or slow the algorithm learns. The algorithm might diverge if the learning rate is too high.
- ❖ **Batch** gradient descent has a smooth trajectory, but becomes very slow when the number of examples is large.

Summary

- ❖ An **optimization** algorithm is used to find “optimal” values for the parameters of the **linear model** so as to **minimize** the value of the **loss function**
- ❖ The **gradient** of the **loss function** plays a central role in the gradient descent algorithm. For each feature weight, it informs about the sign and magnitude of the required change.
- ❖ The **learning rate** controls how fast or slow the algorithm learns. The algorithm might diverge if the learning rate is too high.
- ❖ **Batch** gradient descent has a smooth trajectory, but becomes very slow when the number of examples is large.
- ❖ **Stochastic** and **mini-batch** gradient descent are good alternatives that can handle large amounts of training examples.

Next module

- ❖ **Feature engineering, data imputation, dimensionality reduction.**

References

 Aurélien Géron.
Hands-on Machine Learning with Scikit-Learn, Keras, and TensorFlow.
O'Reilly Media, 2nd edition, 2019.

 Andriy Burkov.
The Hundred-Page Machine Learning Book.
Andriy Burkov, 2019.



Marcel Turcotte

`Marcel.Turcotte@uOttawa.ca`

School of Electrical Engineering and **Computer Science (EECS)**
University of Ottawa