

Lecture 3: Gradient Descent

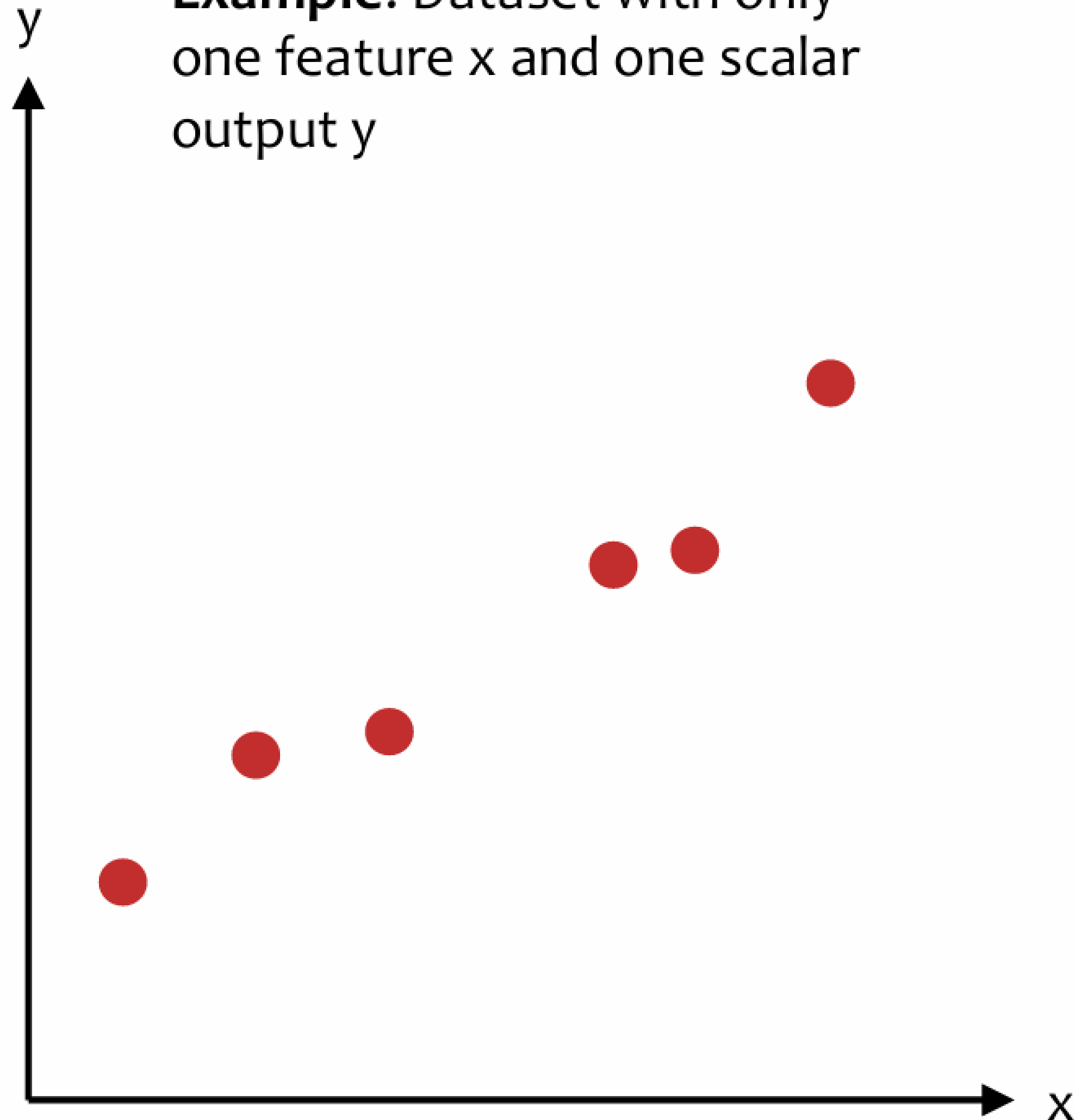


Some slides adapted from Suren Jayasuriya (ASU), Matt Gormley (CMU)

Recap: Linear Regression

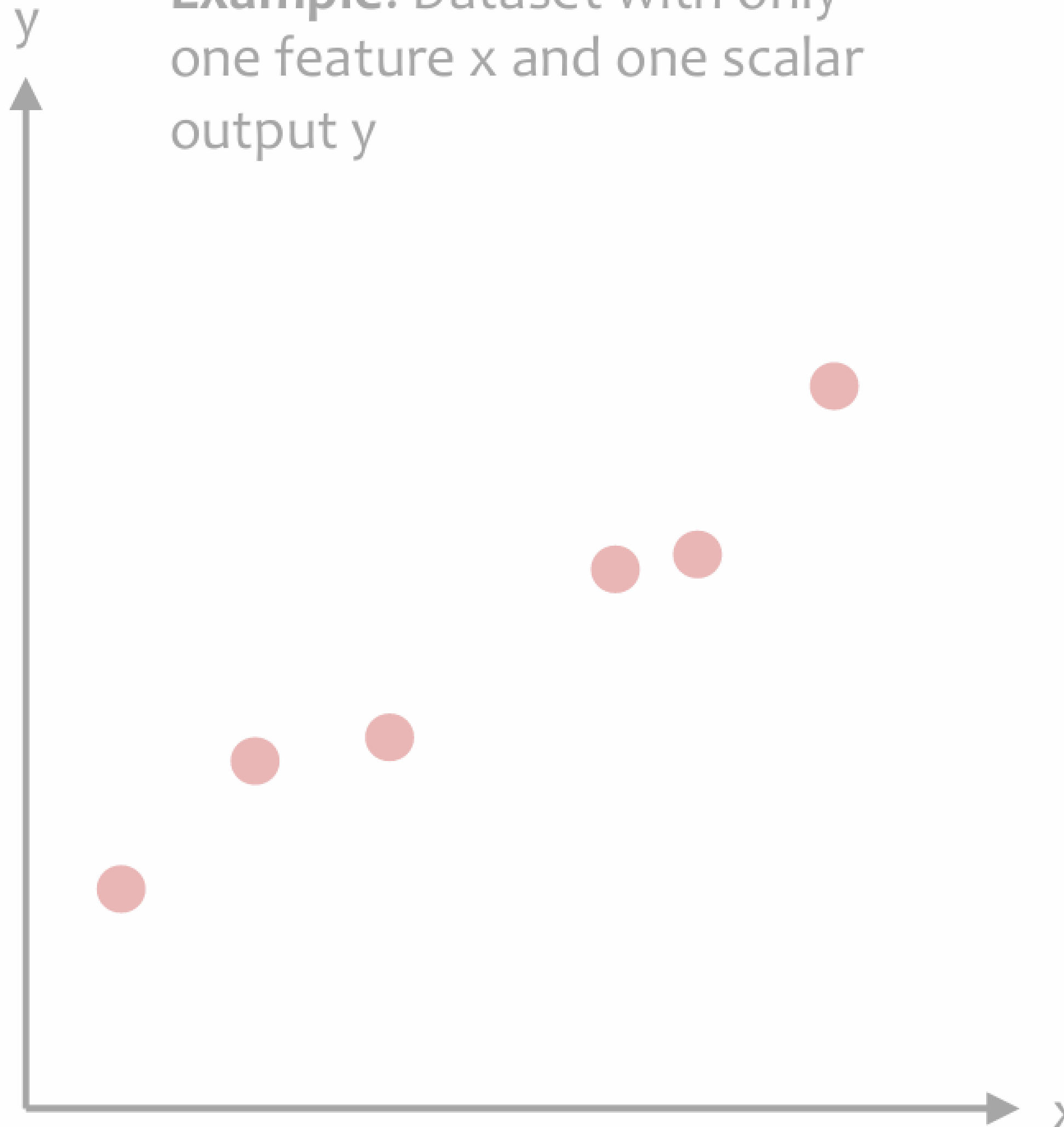
Example: Dataset with only one feature x and one scalar output y

Q: What is the function that best fits these points?

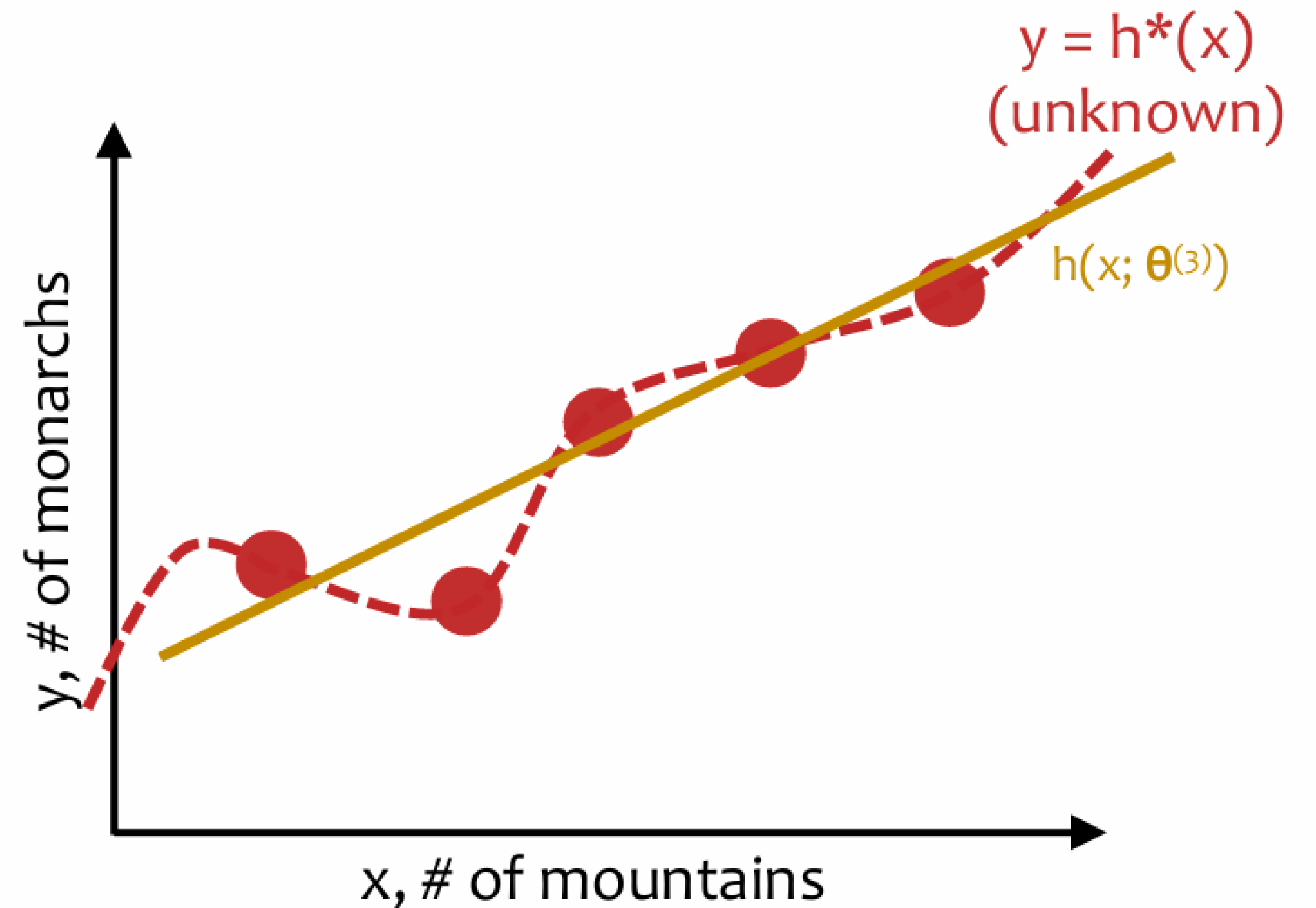


Recap: Linear Regression

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Naïve Idea:

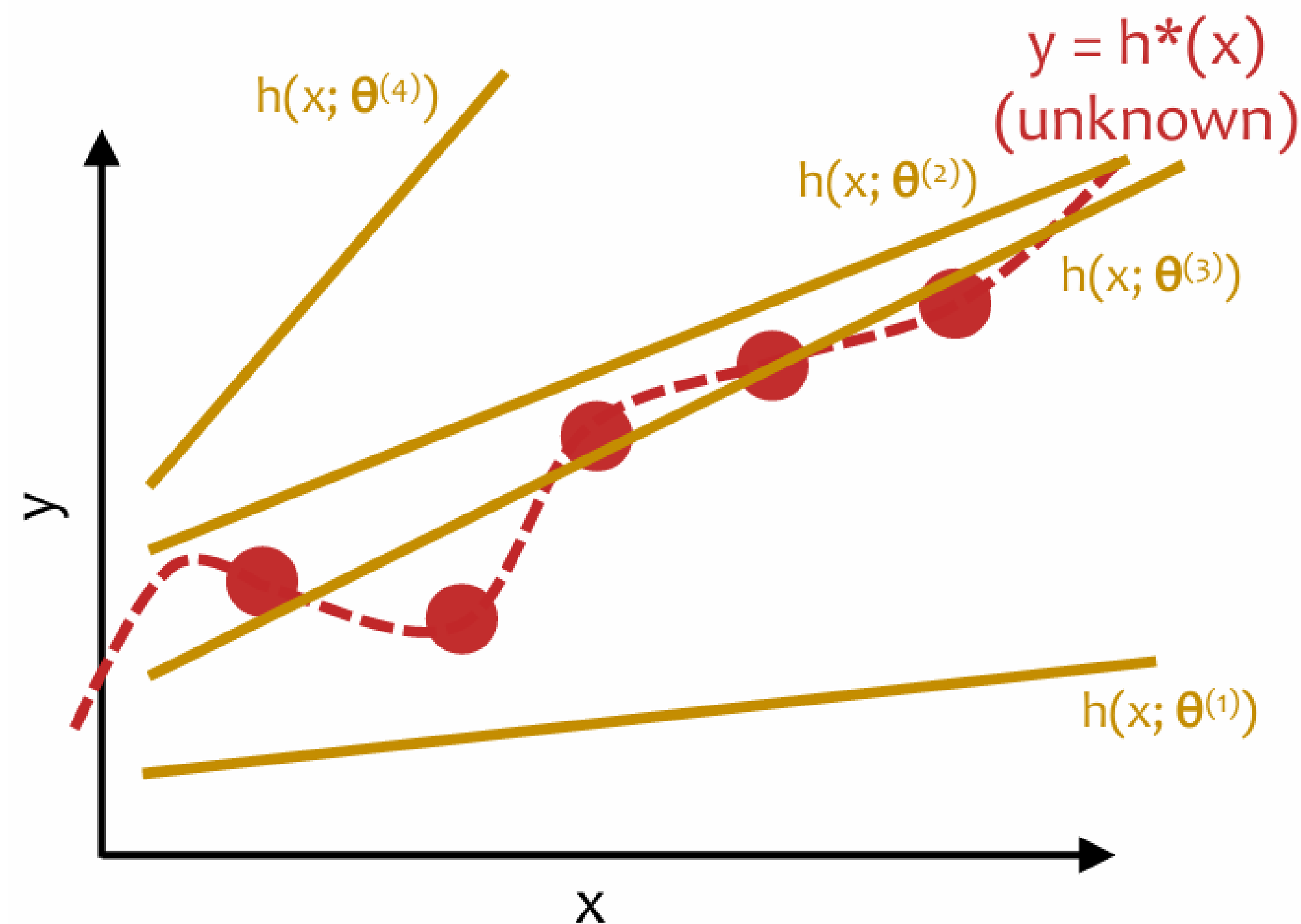
Linear Regression by Random Guessing

!!!

Linear Regression by Rand. Guessing

Optimization Method #0: Random Guessing

1. Pick a random θ
2. Evaluate $J(\theta)$
3. Repeat steps 1 and 2 many times
4. Return θ that gives smallest $J(\theta)$



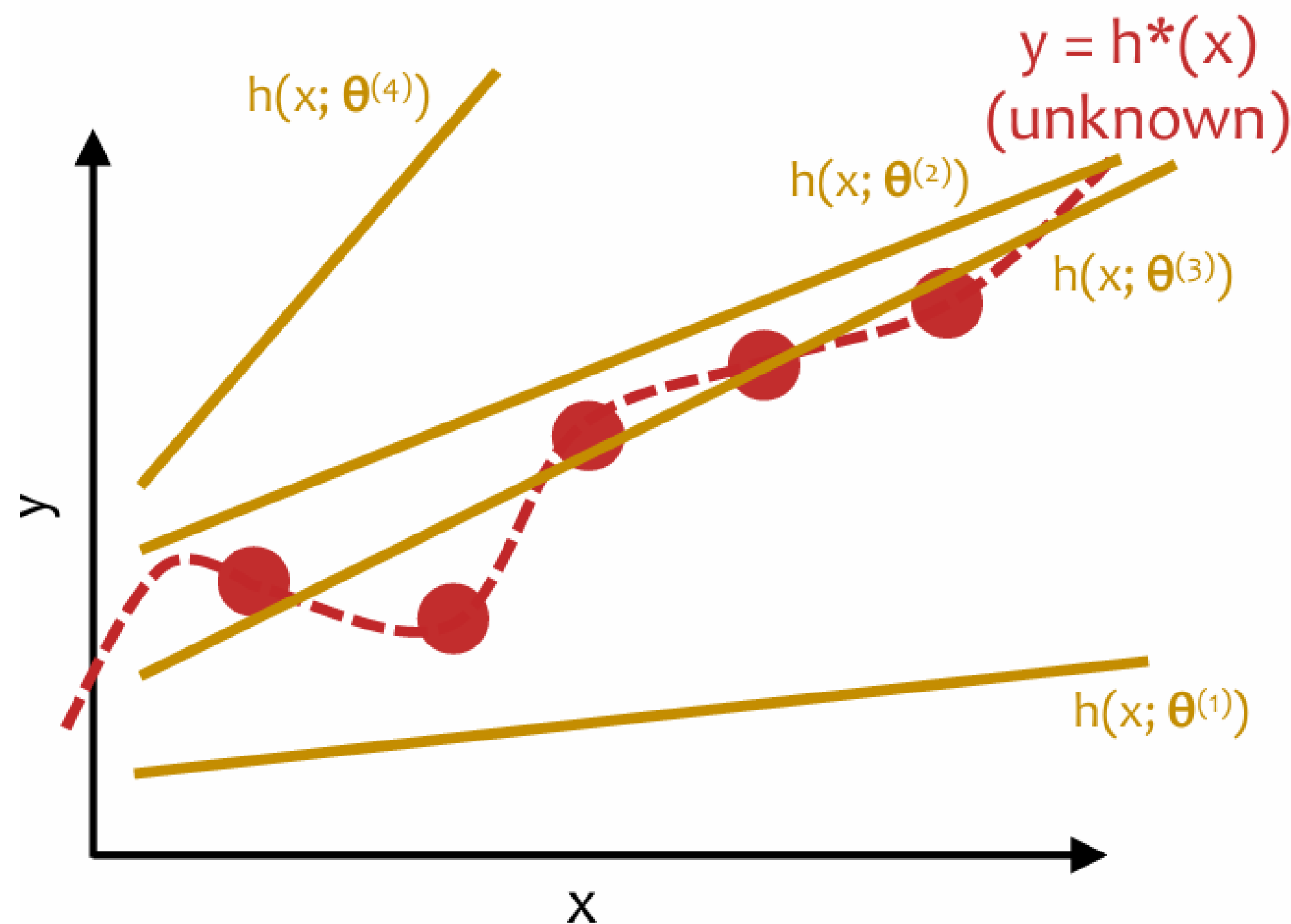
For Linear Regression:

- target function $h^*(x)$ is **unknown**
- only have access to $h^*(x)$ through **training examples** $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$
- want $h(x; \theta^{(t)})$ that **best approximates** $h^*(x)$
- **enable generalization** w/inductive bias that restricts hypothesis class to **linear functions**

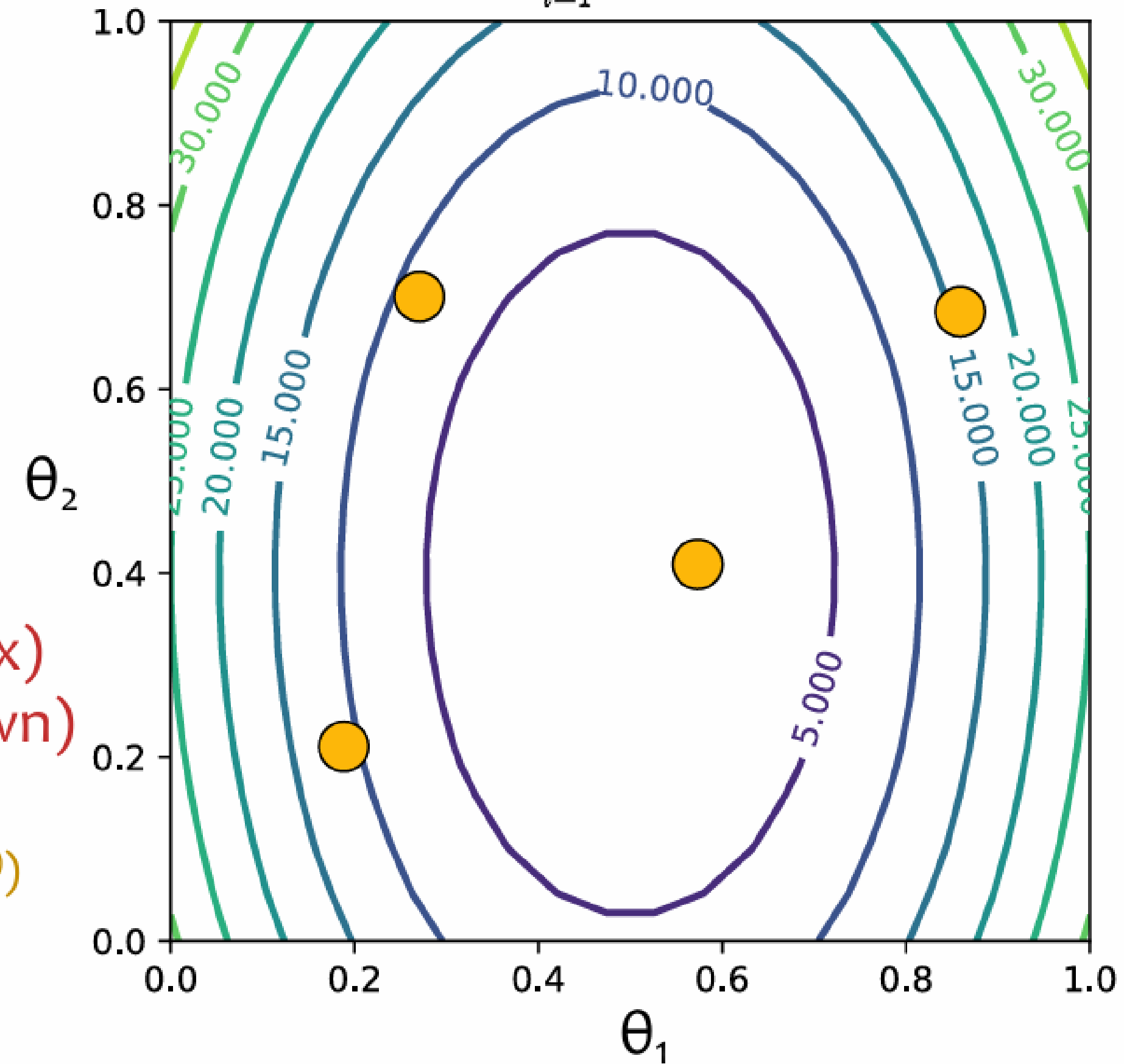
Linear Regression by Rand. Guessing

Optimization Method #0: Random Guessing

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$$J(\theta) = J(\theta_1, \theta_2) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y^{(i)} - \theta^T x^{(i)})^2$$



t	θ_1	θ_2	$J(\theta_1, \theta_2)$
1	0.2	0.2	10.4
2	0.3	0.7	7.2
3	0.6	0.4	1.0
4	0.9	0.7	16.2

Better Idea:

An optimization algorithm called

“Gradient Descent”

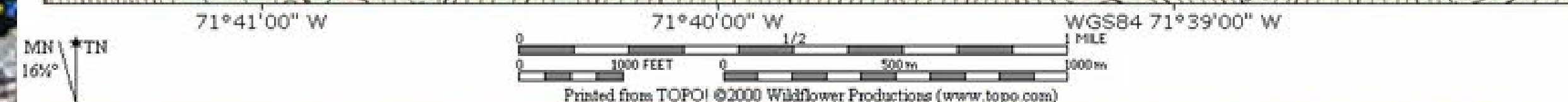
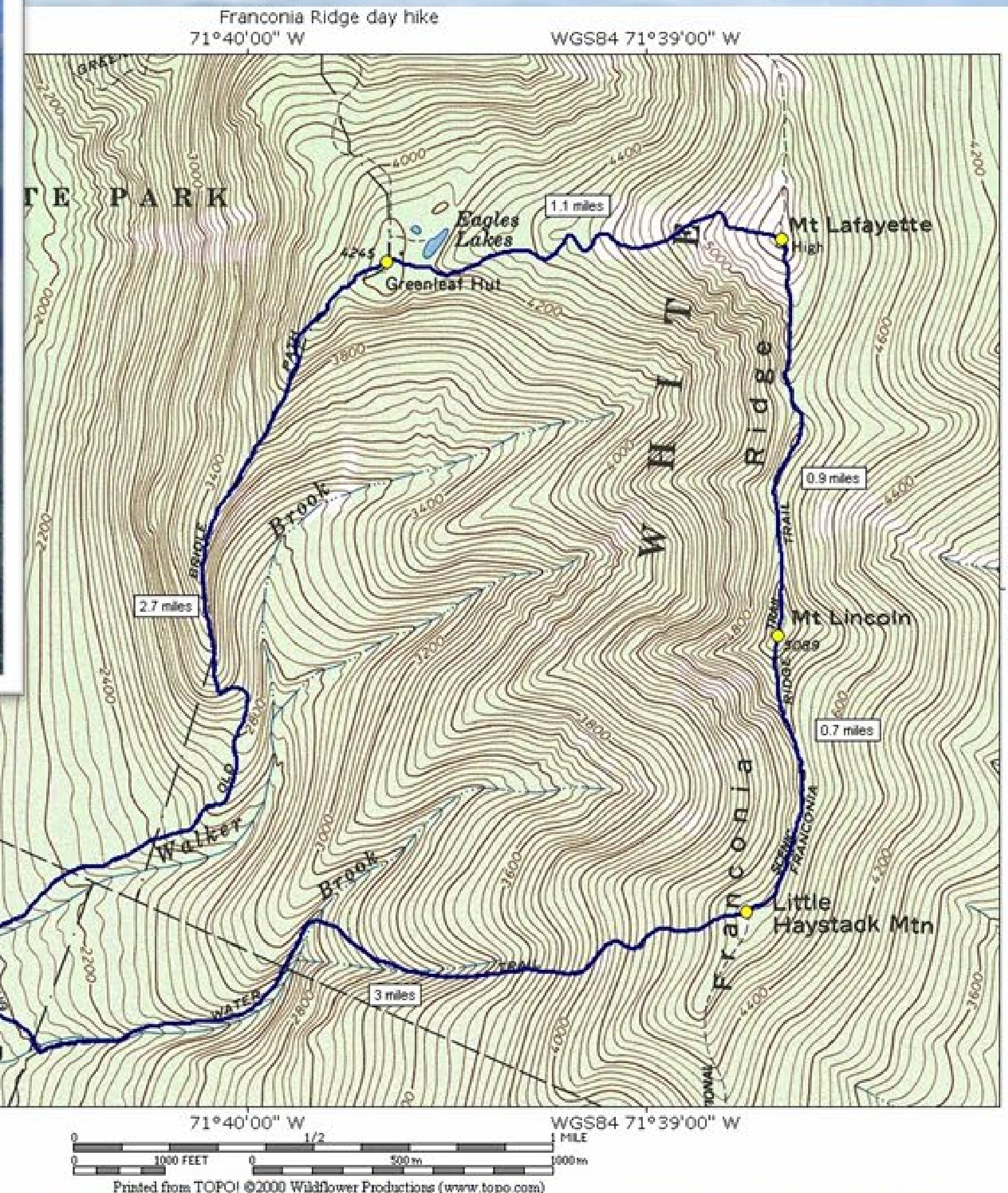
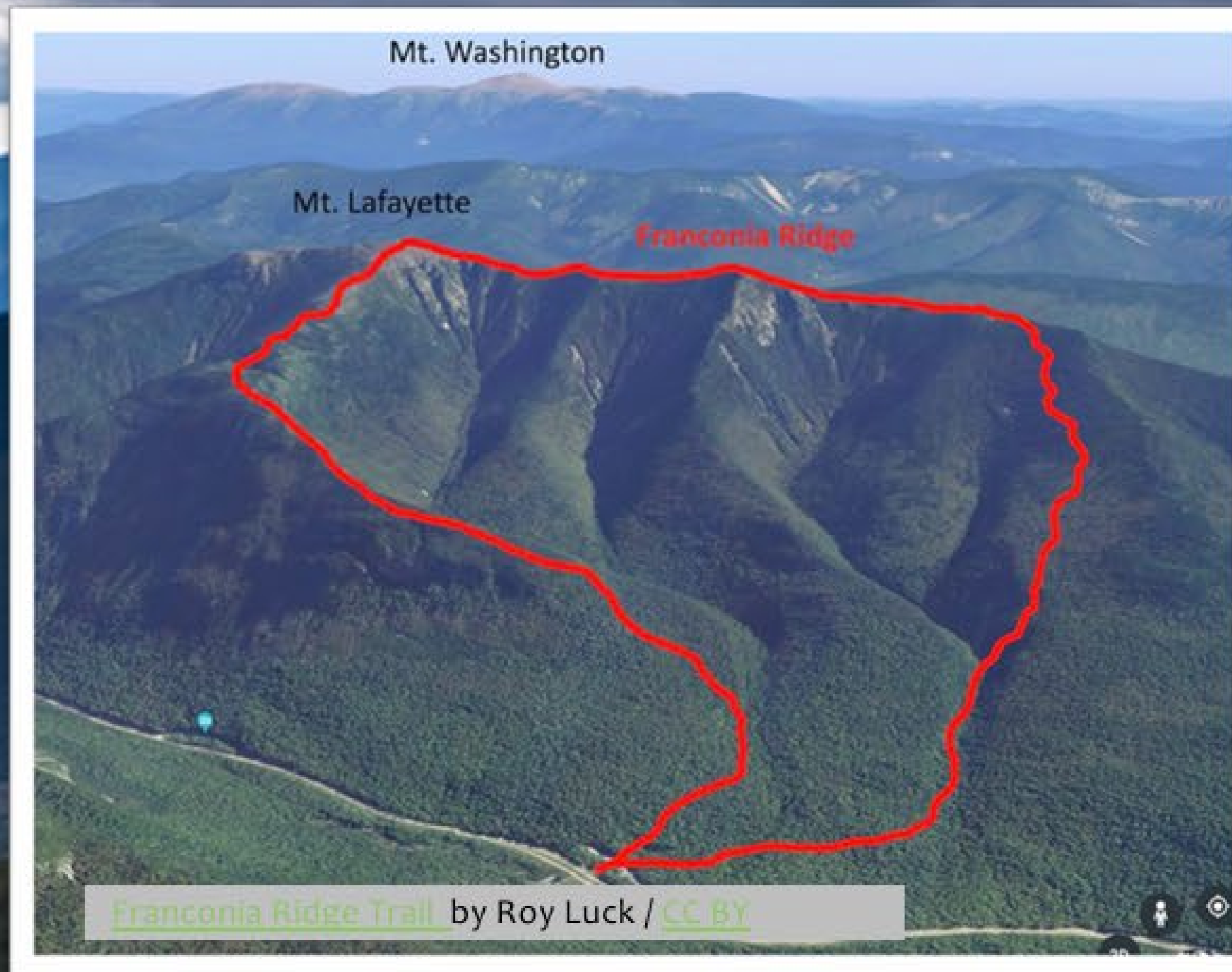
Recall: Gradient of a vector

Def: The gradient of $J : \mathbb{R}^M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is

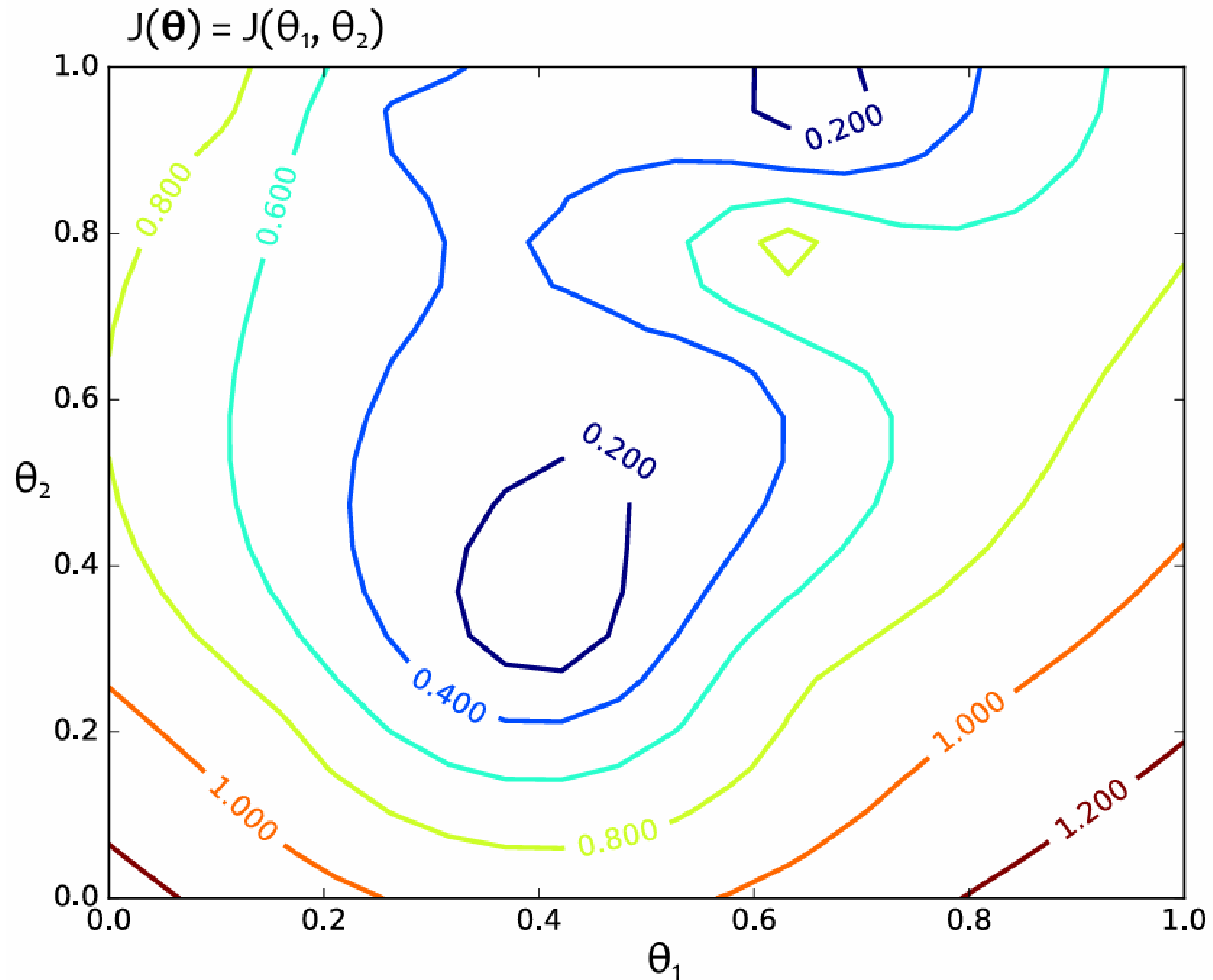
$$\nabla J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \theta_1} \\ \frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \theta_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \theta_M} \end{bmatrix}$$

Each entry is a first-order partial derivative

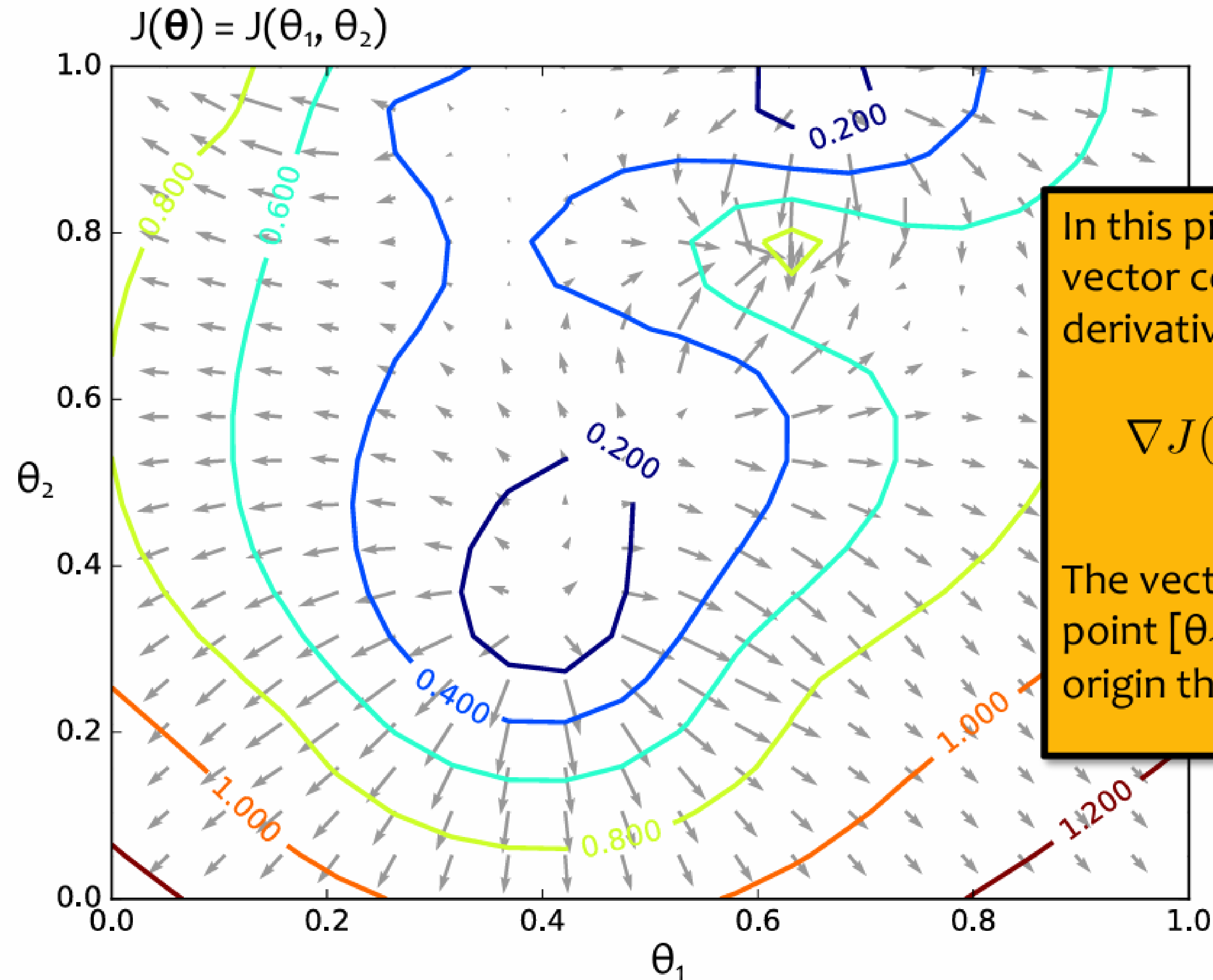
Topographical Maps



Gradients



Gradients



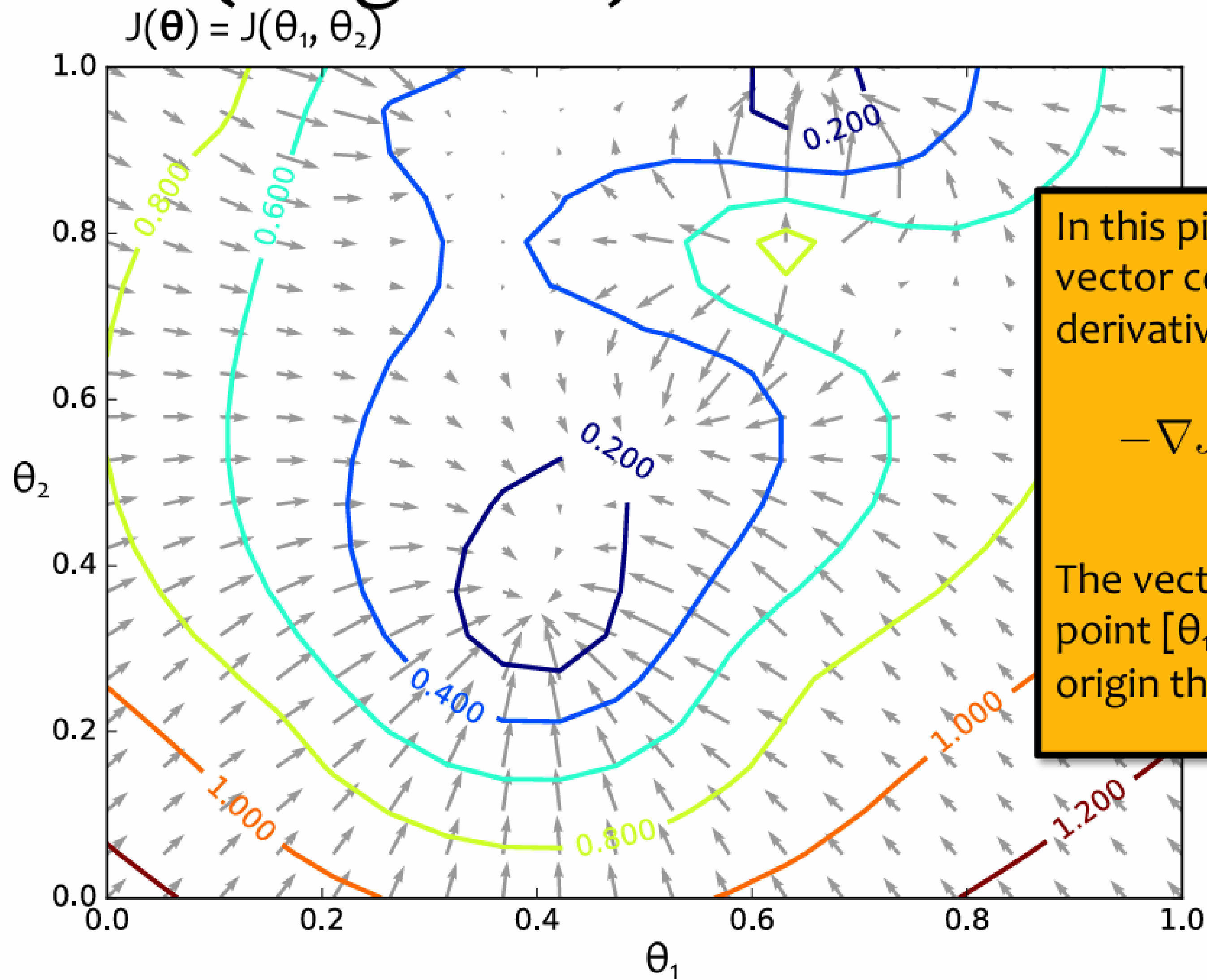
In this picture, each arrow is a 2D vector consisting of two partial derivatives.

$$\nabla J(\theta_1, \theta_2) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_1} \\ \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_2} \end{bmatrix}$$

The vector is evaluated at the point $[\theta_1, \theta_2]^T$ and plotted with its origin there as well.

These are the **gradients** that Gradient **Ascent** would follow.

(Negative) Gradients



In this picture, each arrow is a 2D vector consisting of two partial derivatives.

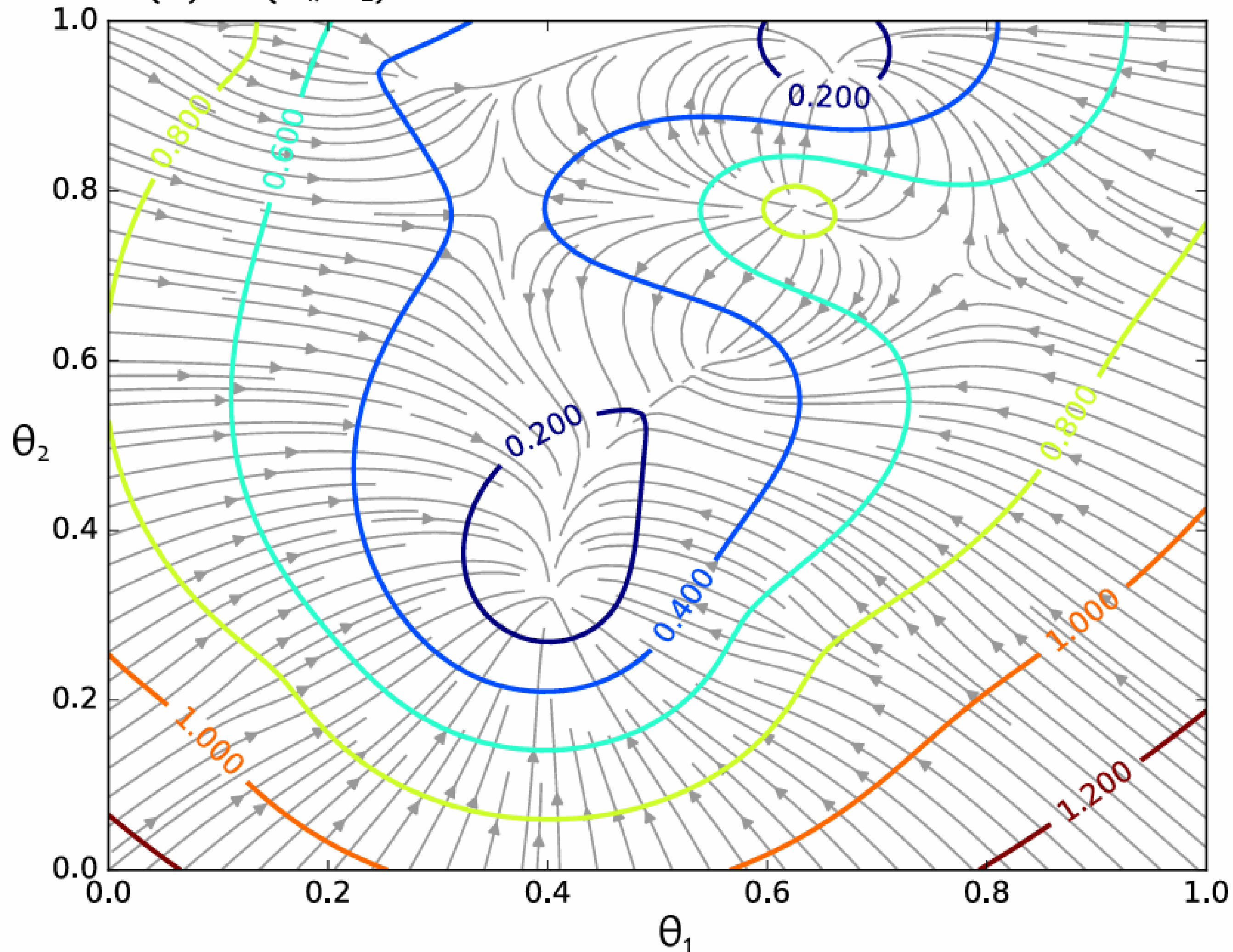
$$-\nabla J(\theta_1, \theta_2) = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_1} \\ -\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_2} \end{bmatrix}$$

The vector is evaluated at the point $[\theta_1, \theta_2]^T$ and plotted with its origin there as well.

These are the **negative** gradients that Gradient **Descent** would follow.

(Negative) Gradient Paths

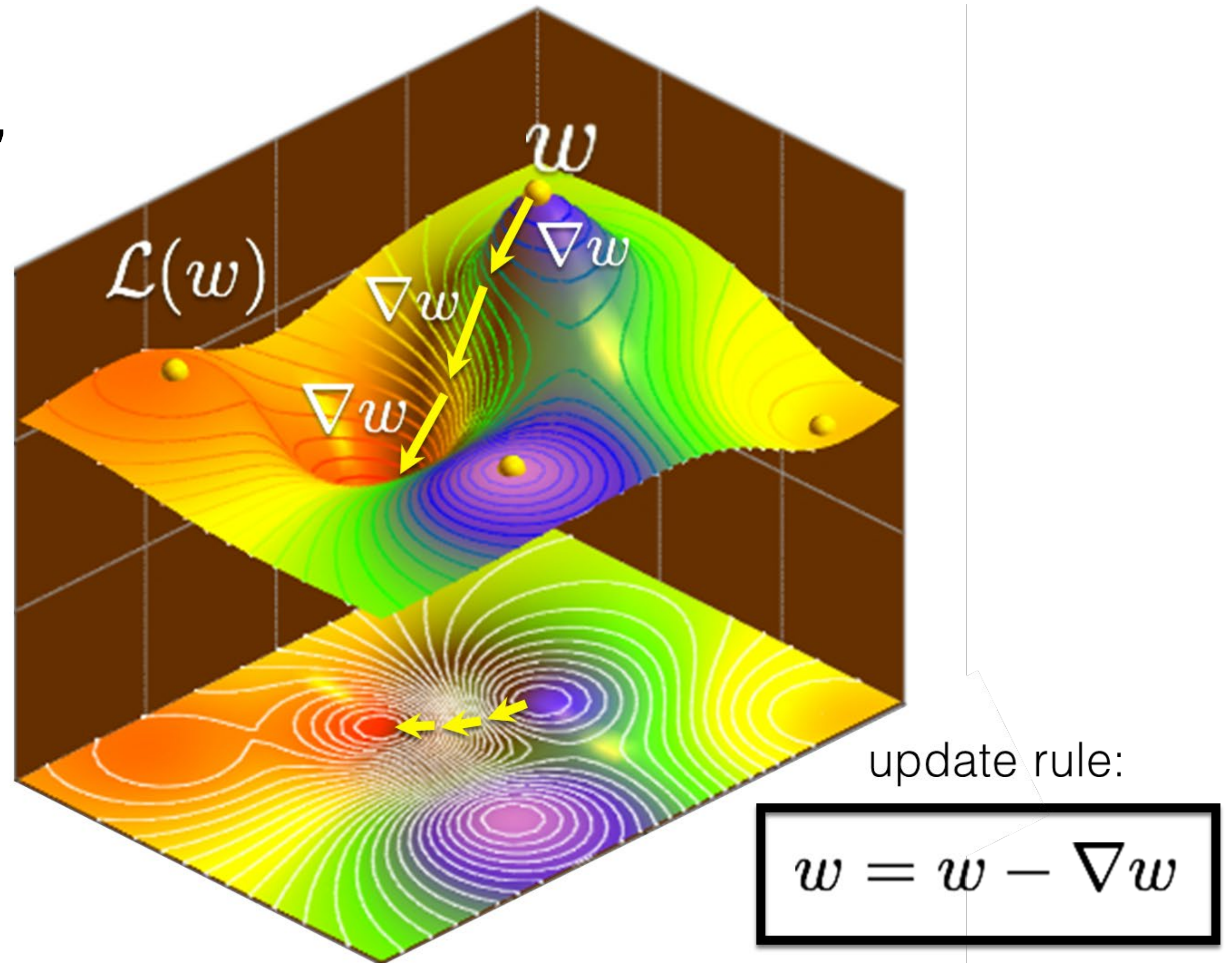
$$J(\theta) = J(\theta_1, \theta_2)$$



Shown are the **paths** that Gradient Descent would follow if it were making **infinitesimally small steps**.

Gradient Descent

- Go down the path of “steepest descent”

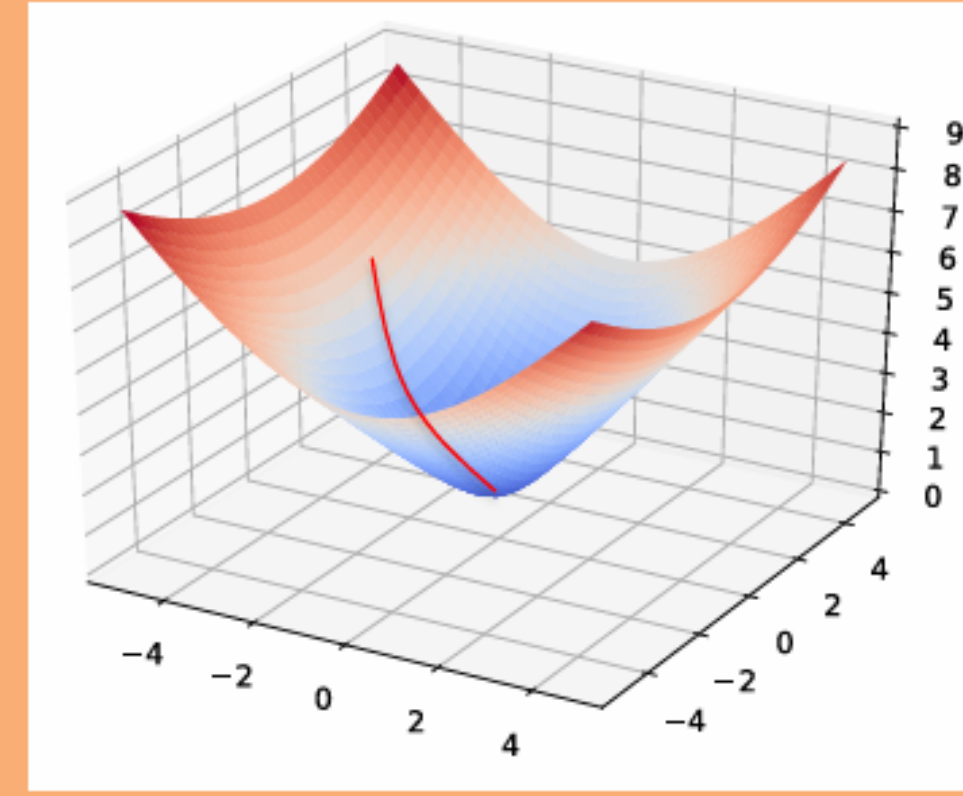


Gradient Descent

- Go down the path of steepest descent

Algorithm 1 Gradient Descent

```
1: procedure GD( $\mathcal{D}$ ,  $\theta^{(0)}$ )
2:    $\theta \leftarrow \theta^{(0)}$ 
3:   while not converged do
4:      $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \gamma \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta)$ 
5:   return  $\theta$ 
```



In order to apply GD to Linear Regression all we need is the **gradient** of the objective function (i.e. vector of partial derivatives).

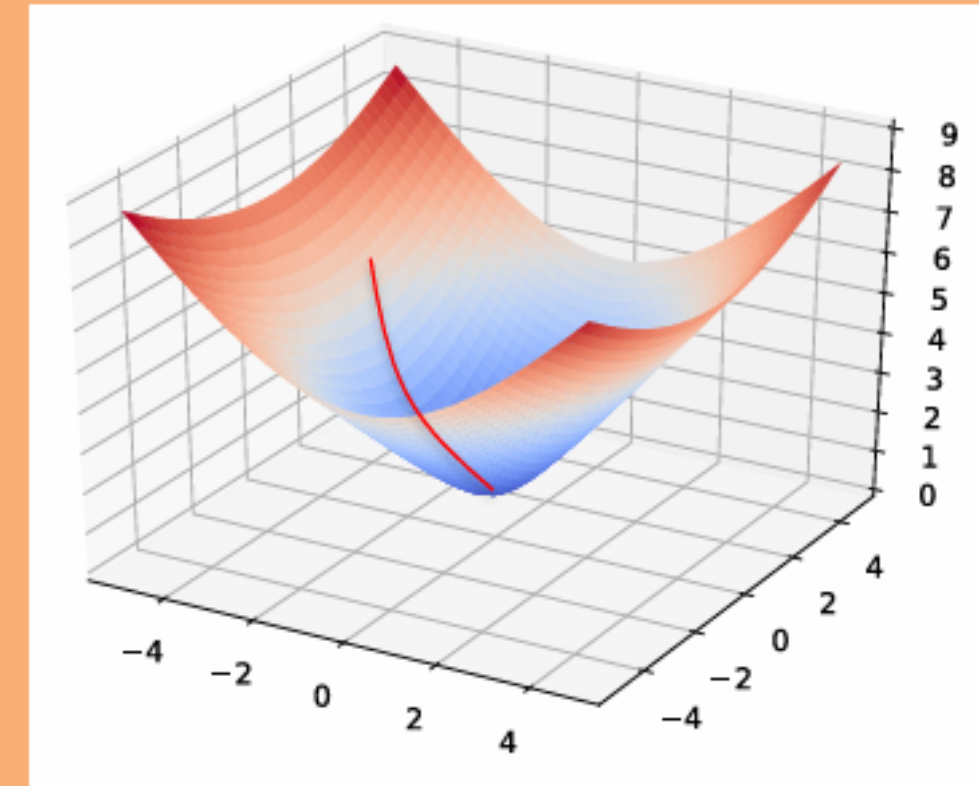
$$\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{d}{d\theta_1} J(\theta) \\ \frac{d}{d\theta_2} J(\theta) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{d}{d\theta_M} J(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

Gradient Descent

- Go down the path of steepest descent

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There are many possible ways to detect **convergence**. For example, we could check whether the L2 norm of the gradient is below some small tolerance.

$$\|\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta)\|_2 \leq \epsilon$$

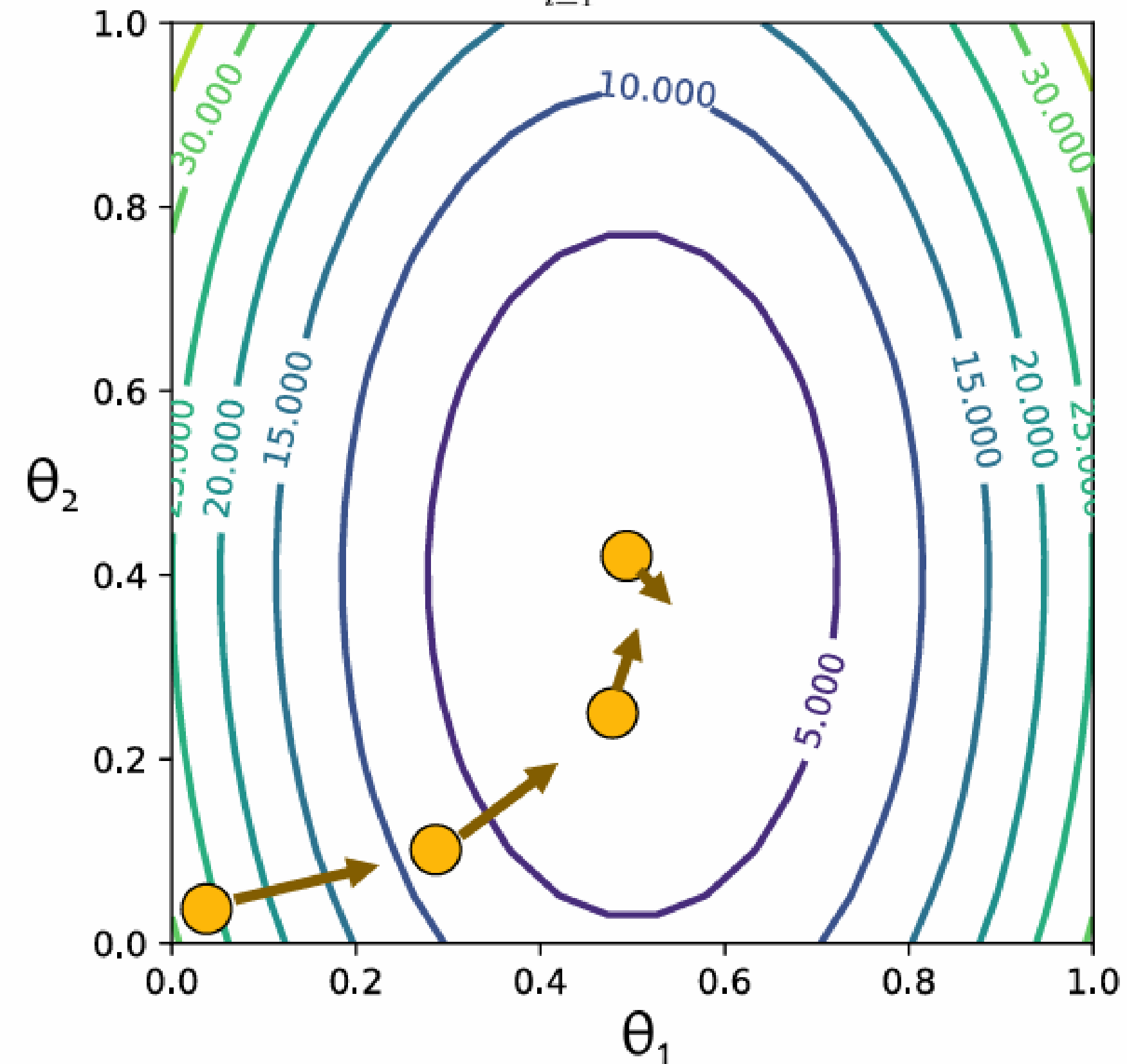
Alternatively we could check that the reduction in the objective function from one iteration to the next is small.

Linear Regression by Gradient Desc.

Optimization Method #1: Gradient Descent

1. Pick a random θ
2. Repeat:
 - a. Evaluate gradient $\nabla J(\theta)$
 - b. Step opposite gradient
3. Return θ that gives smallest $J(\theta)$

$$J(\theta) = J(\theta_1, \theta_2) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y^{(i)} - \theta^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)})^2$$



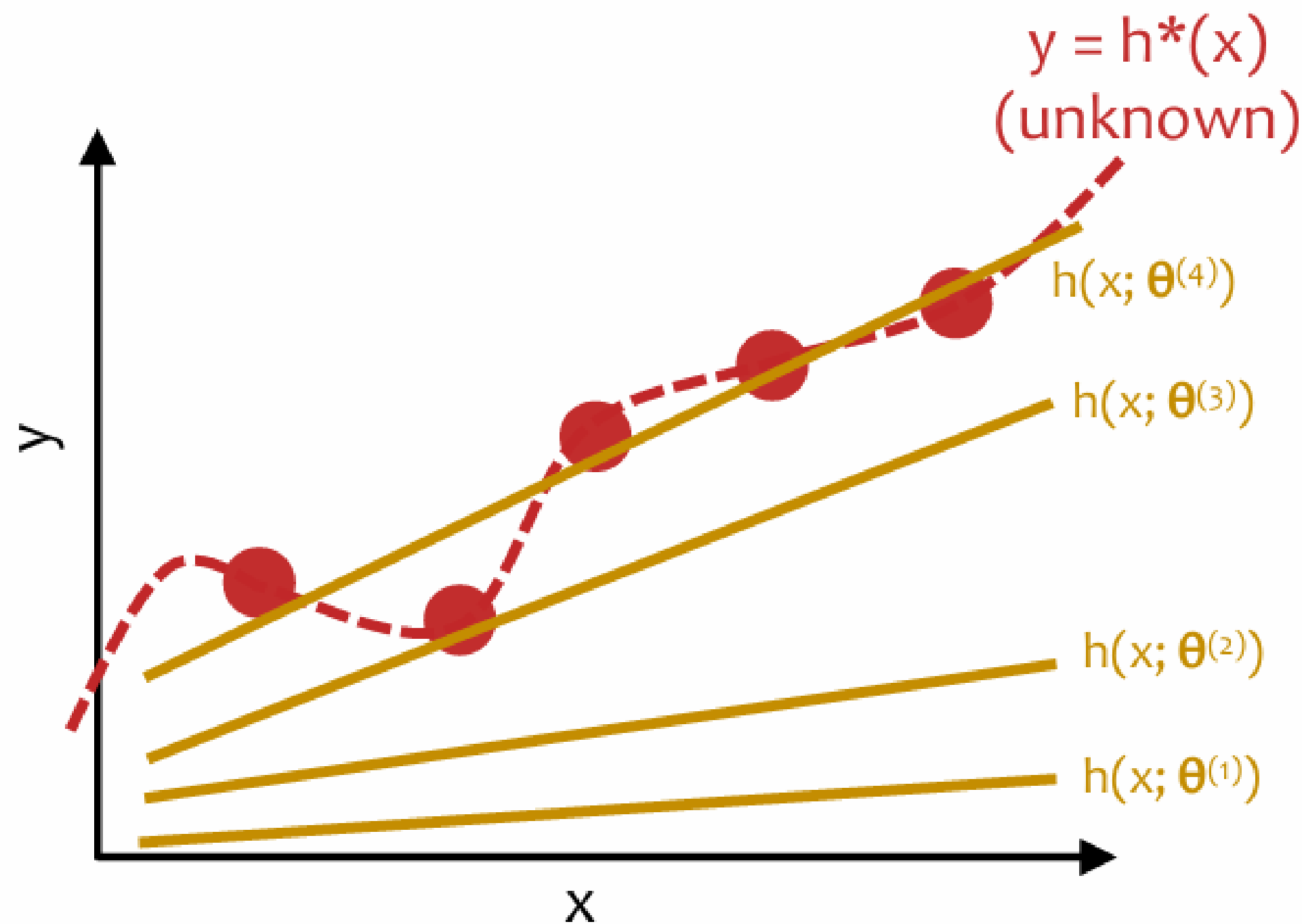
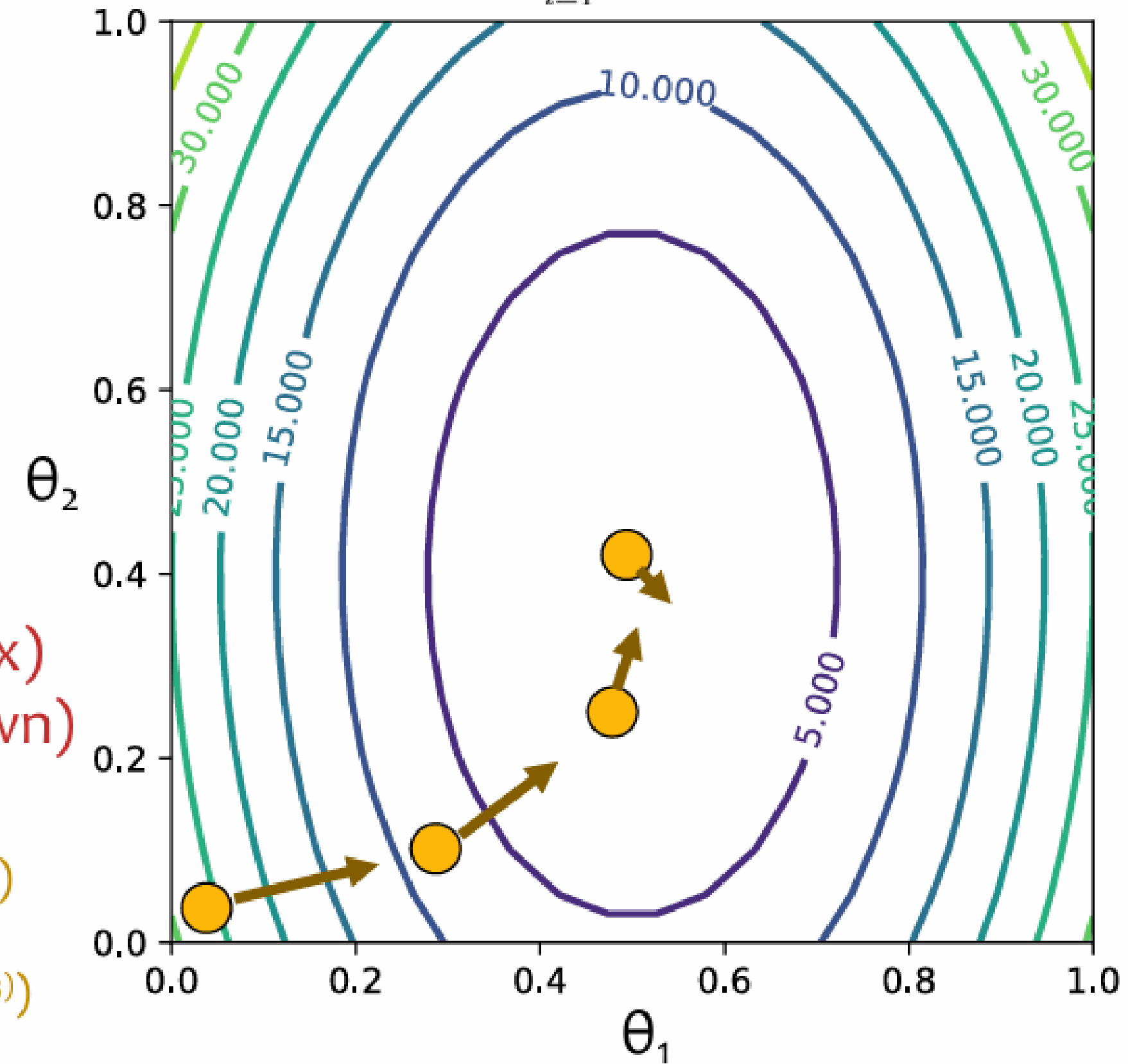
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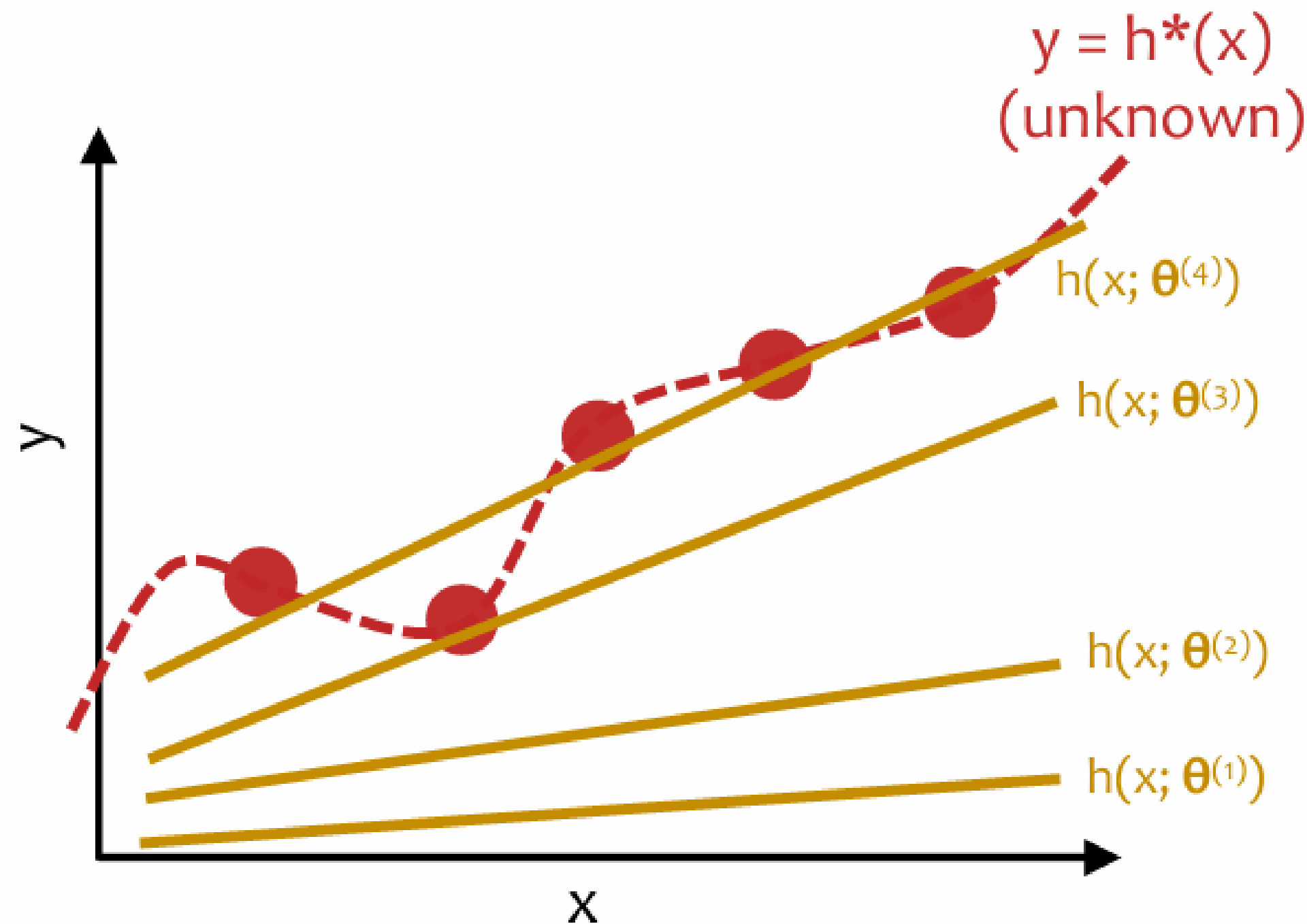
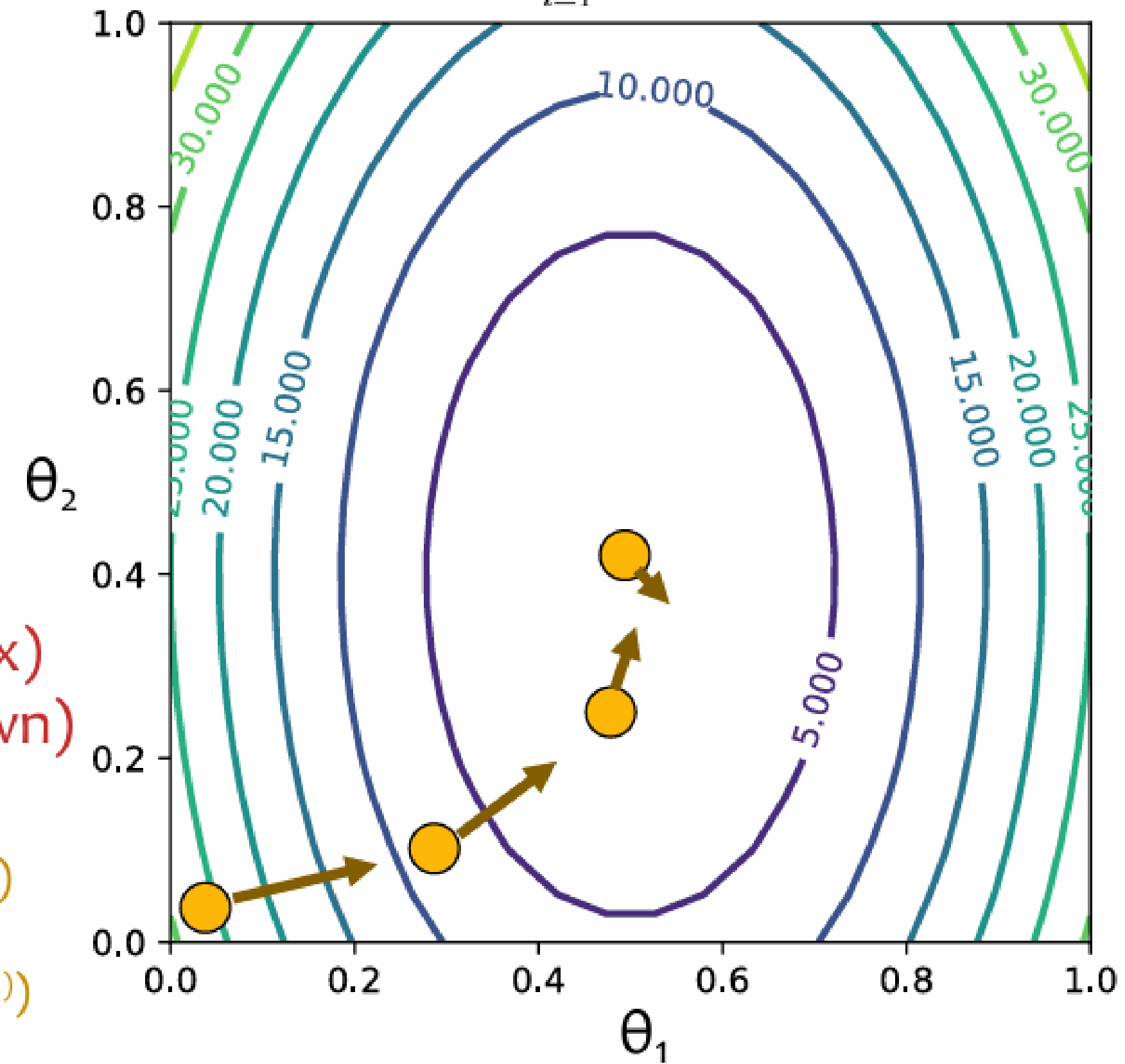
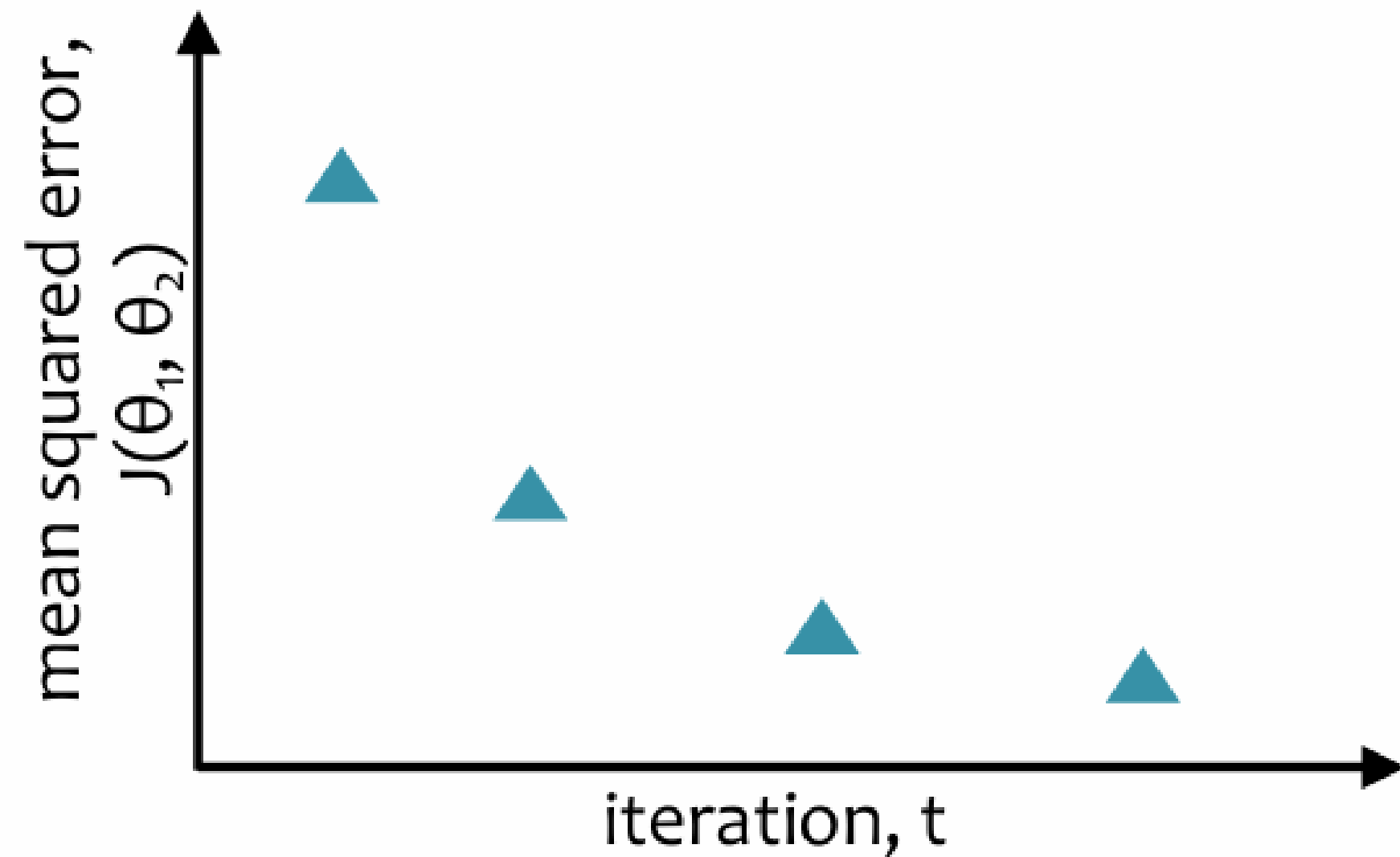
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Gradient Descent

For each example sample $\{x_i, y_i\}$

1. Predict

a. Forward pass

$$\hat{y} = f_{\text{MLP}}(x_i; \theta)$$

b. Compute Loss

$$\mathcal{L}_i$$

2. Update

a. Back Propagation

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \theta}$$

vector of parameter partial derivatives

b. Gradient update

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \theta}$$

vector of parameter update equations

Introduction

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A + B = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 5 \\ 5 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A - B = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 14 \\ 16 & 22 \end{bmatrix}$$

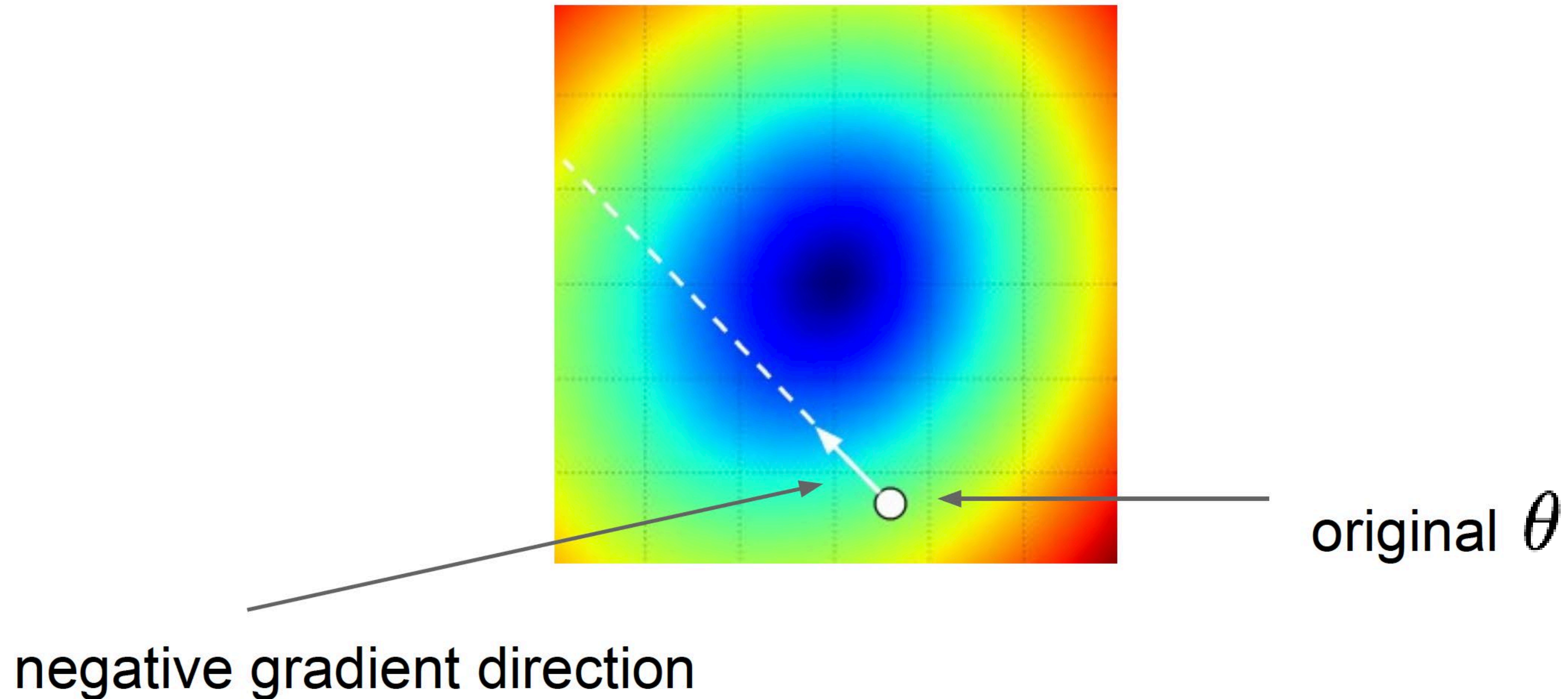


GD for LR: Python Step-by-Step Example

- <https://colab.research.google.com/drive/17dK6cynECzk2ObyCqDk5gKcUyN1kMjSR?usp=sharing>



Learning rates



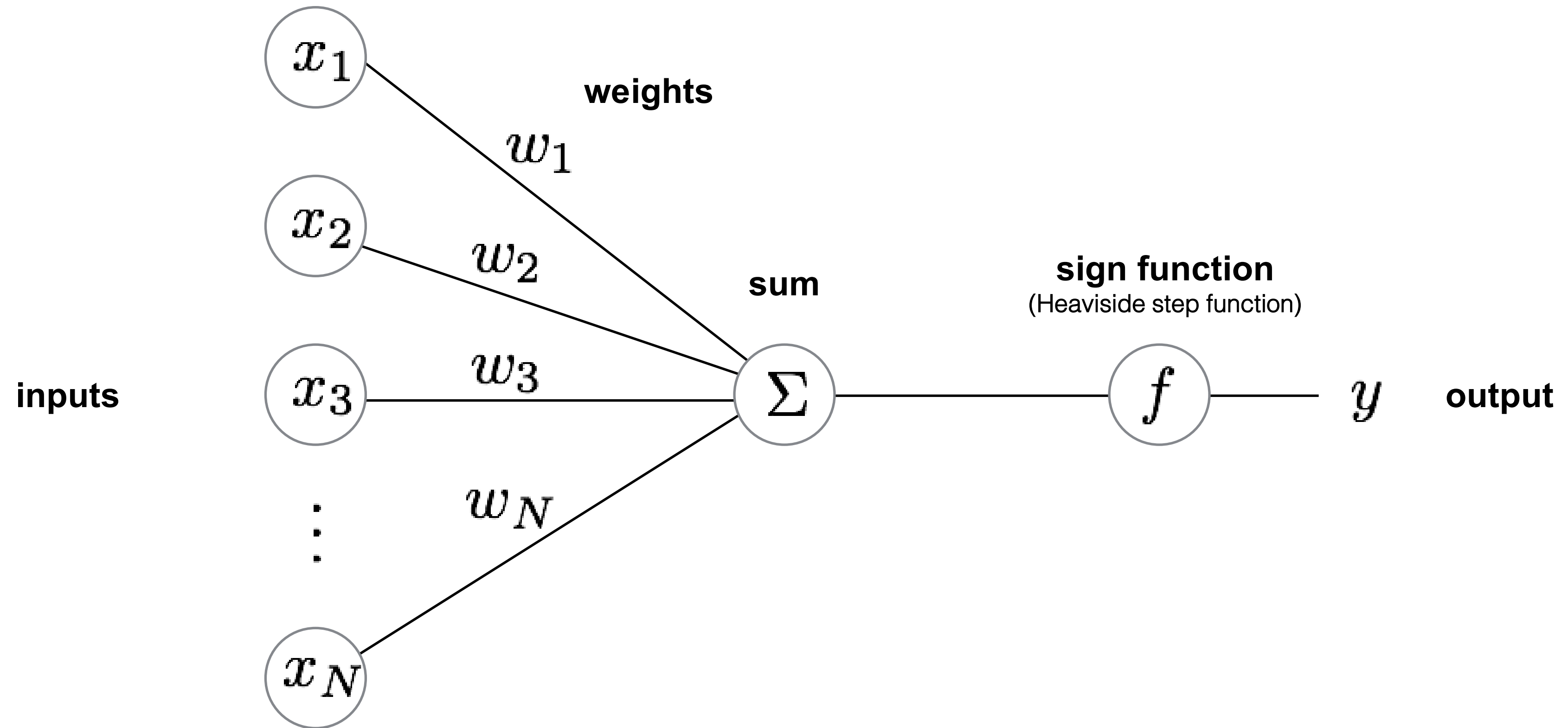
$$\theta \leftarrow \theta - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \theta}$$

Step size: learning rate

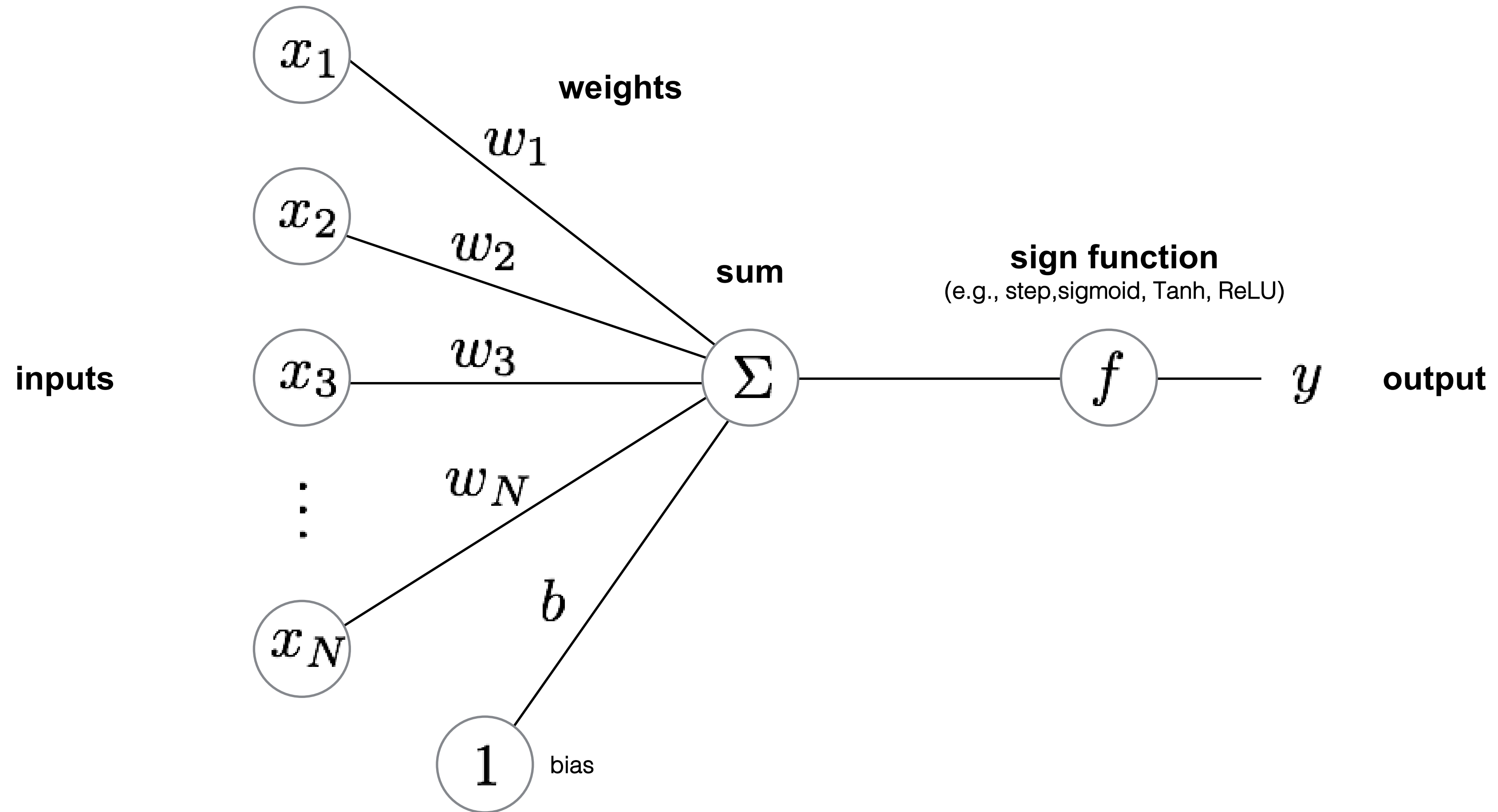
Too big: will miss the minimum

Too small: slow convergence

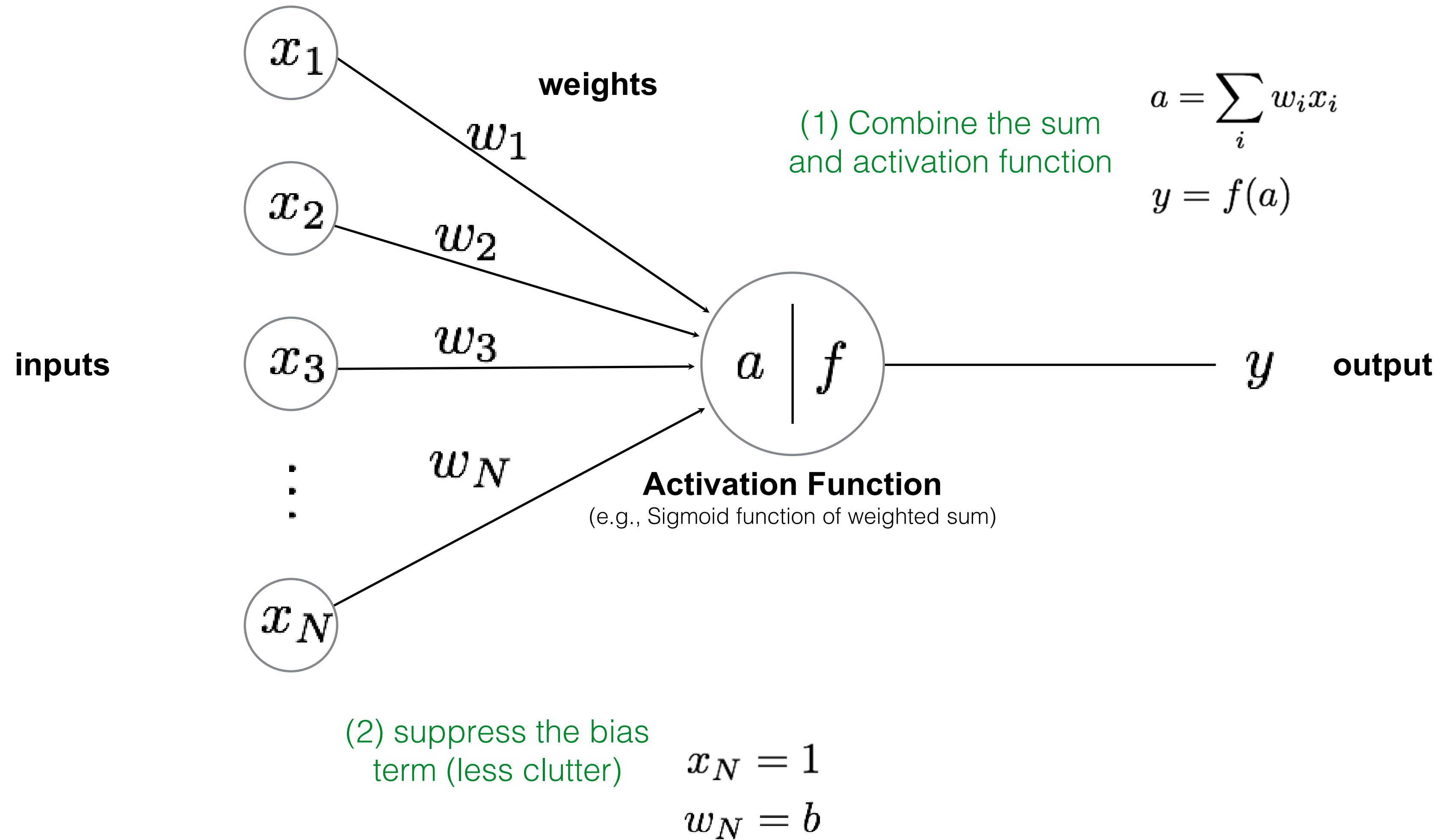
The Perceptron



The Perceptron



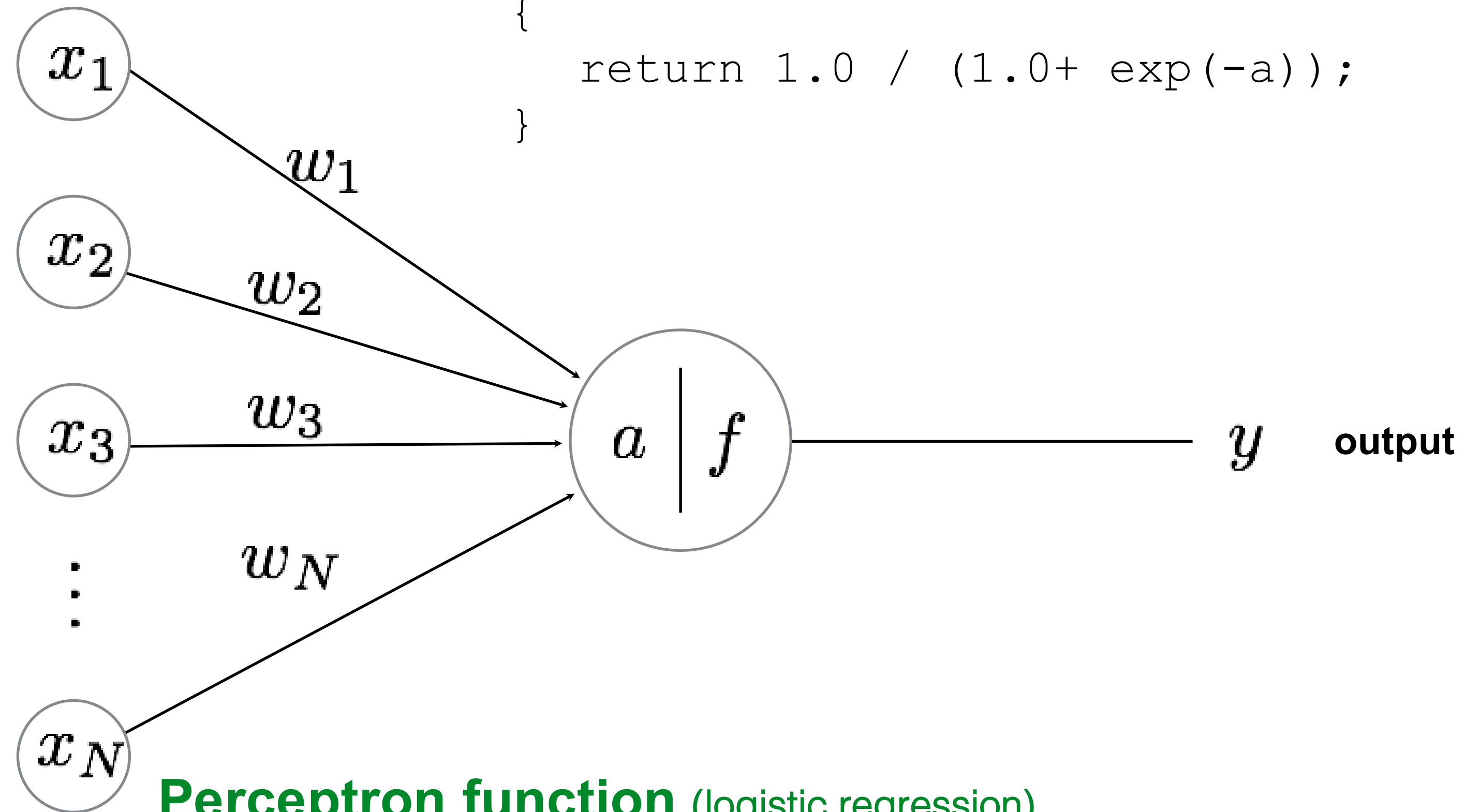
Another way to draw it...



Programming the 'forward pass'

Activation function (sigmoid, logistic function)

```
float f(float a)
{
    return 1.0 / (1.0 + exp(-a));
}
```



Perceptron function (logistic regression)

```
float perceptron(vector<float> x, vector<float> w)
{
    float a = dot(x, w);
    return f(a);
}
```

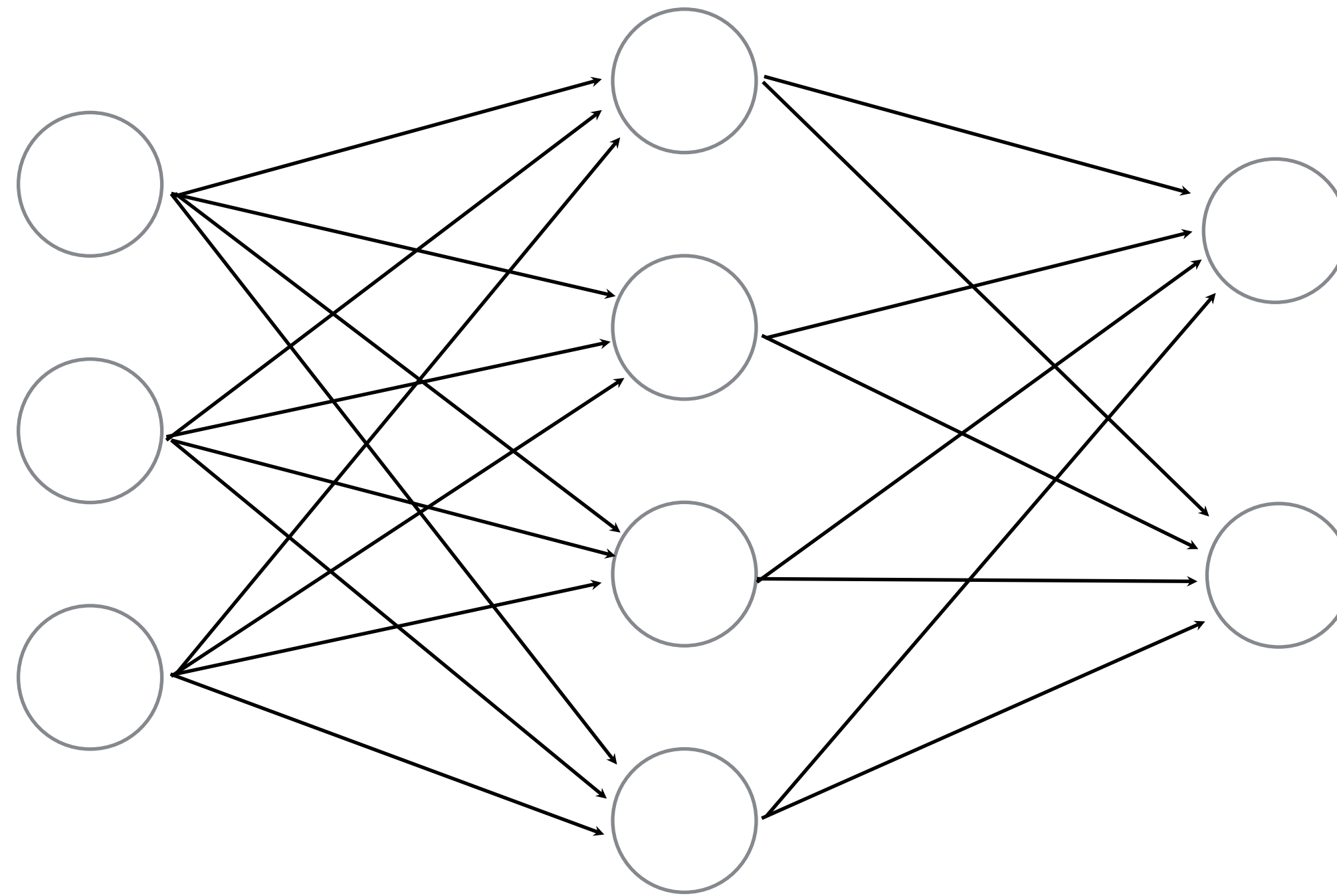
Neural networks

Connect a bunch of perceptrons together ...

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Neural Network

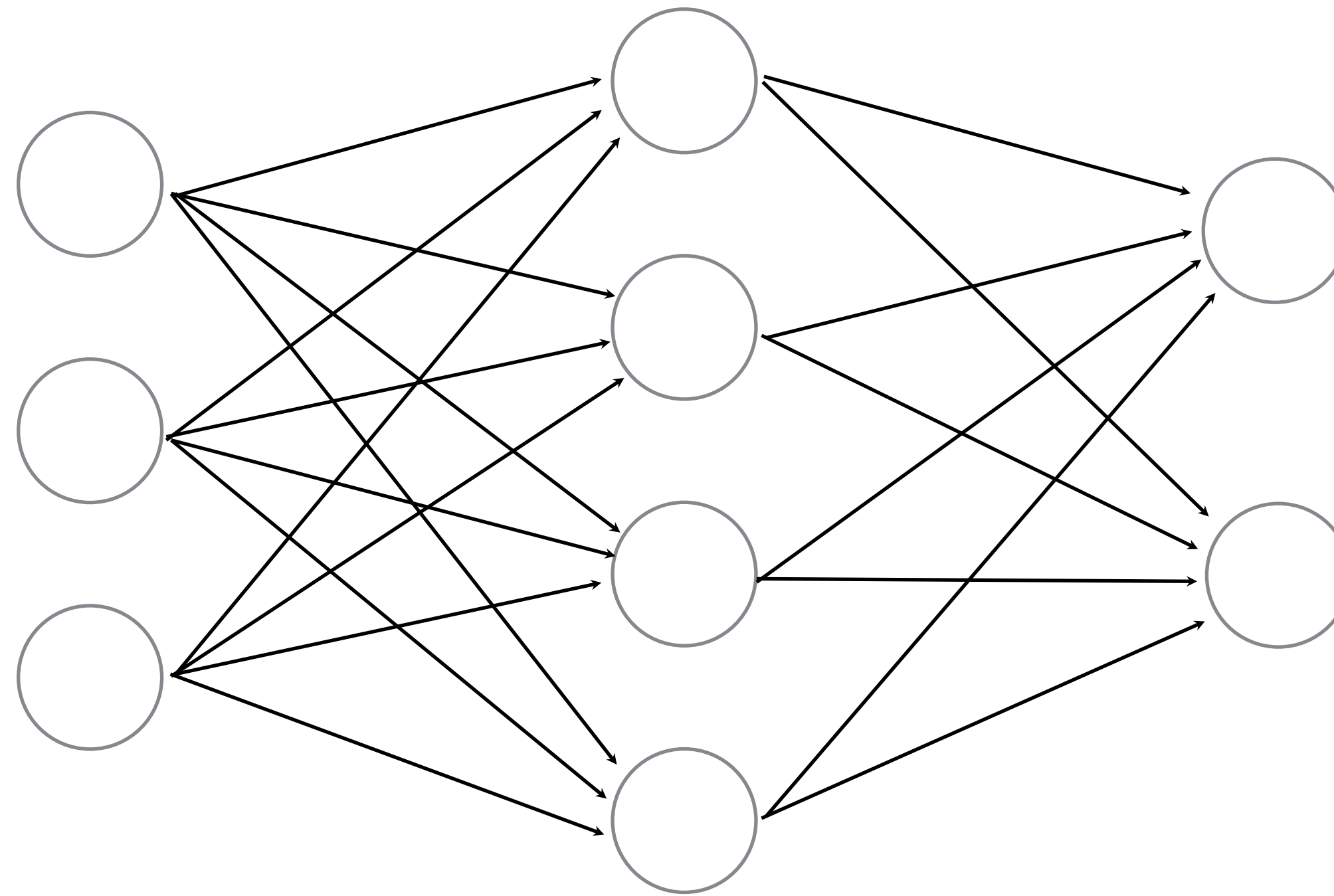
a collection of connected perceptrons



Connect a bunch of perceptrons together ...

Neural Network

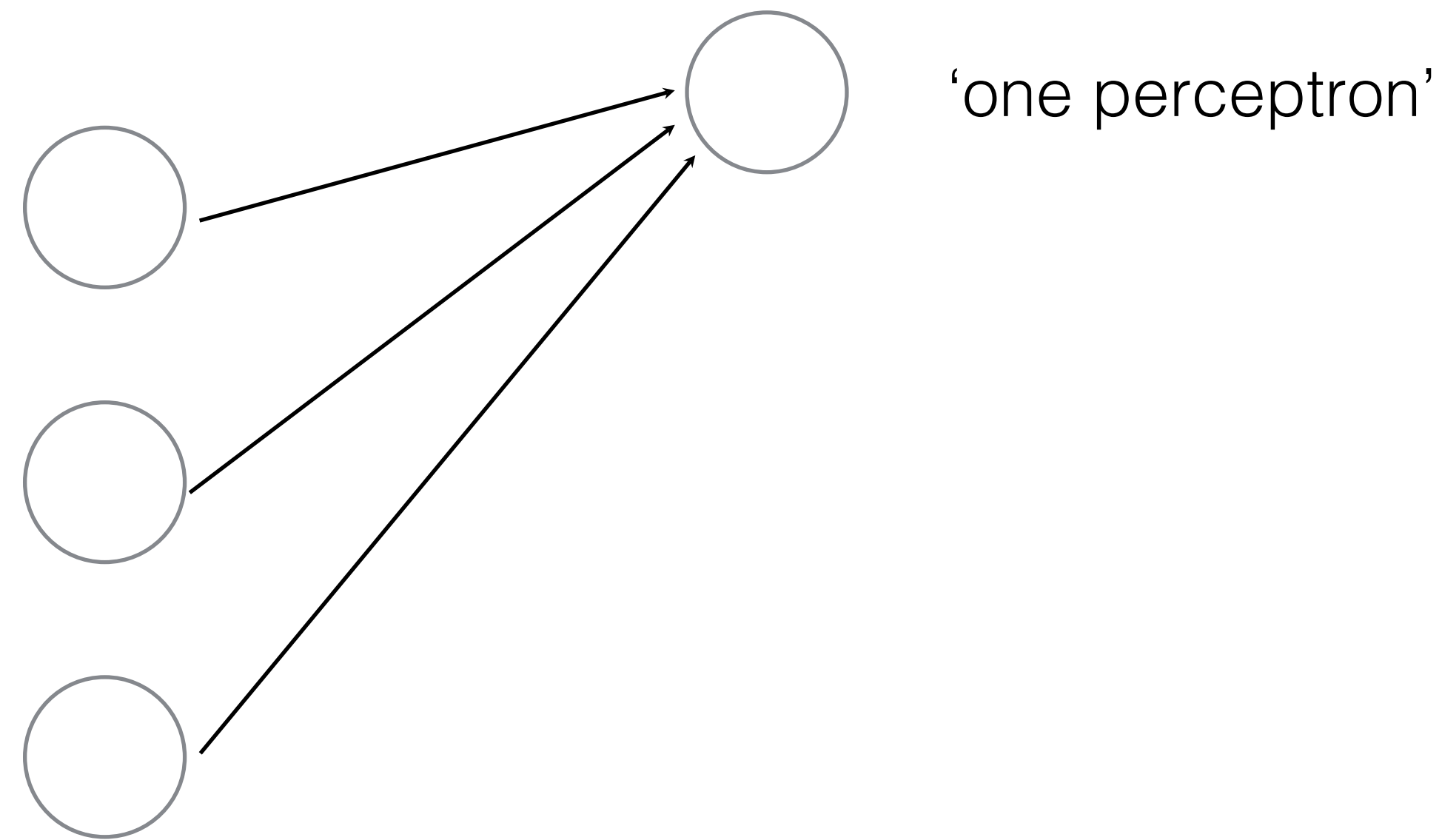
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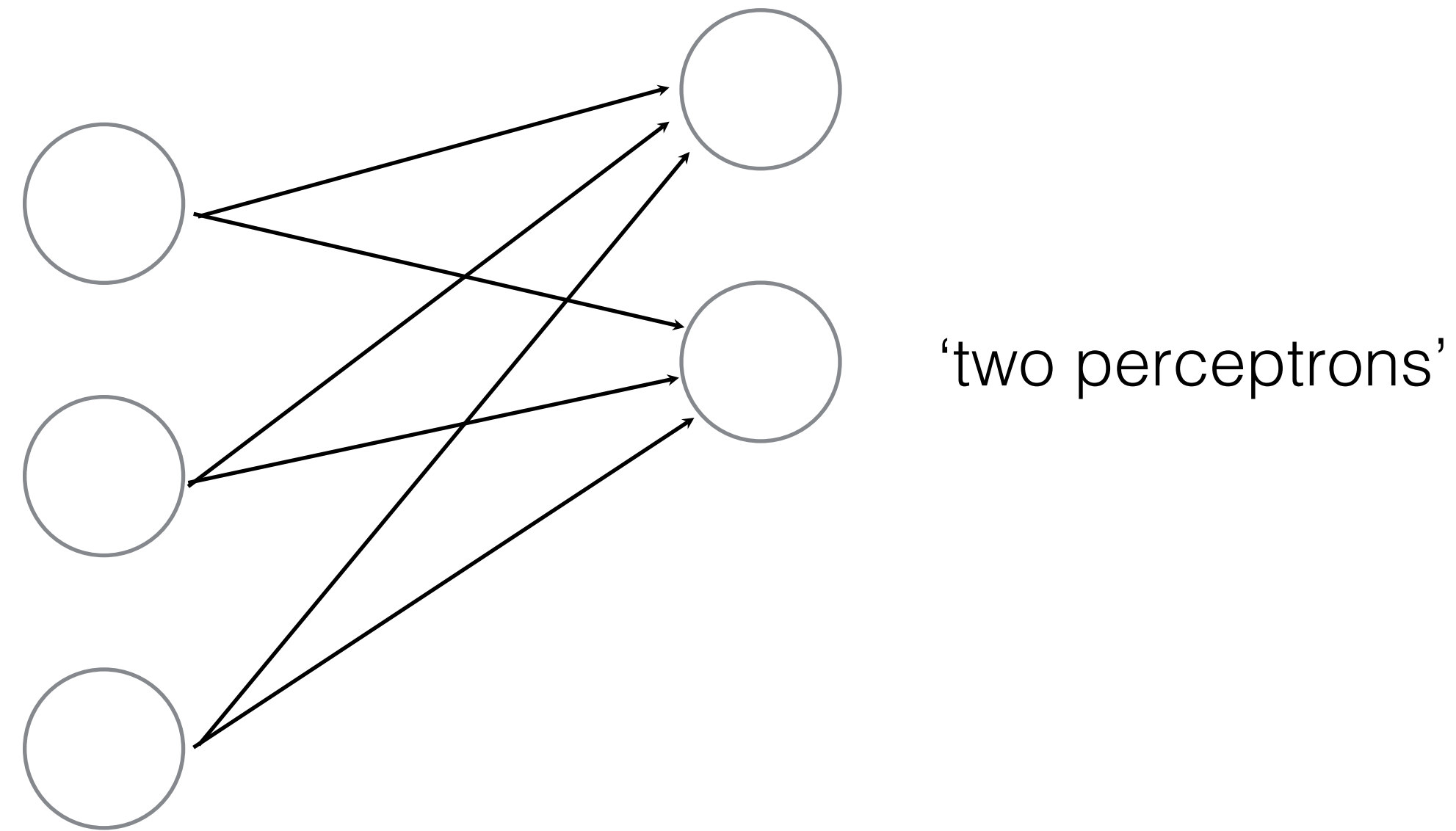
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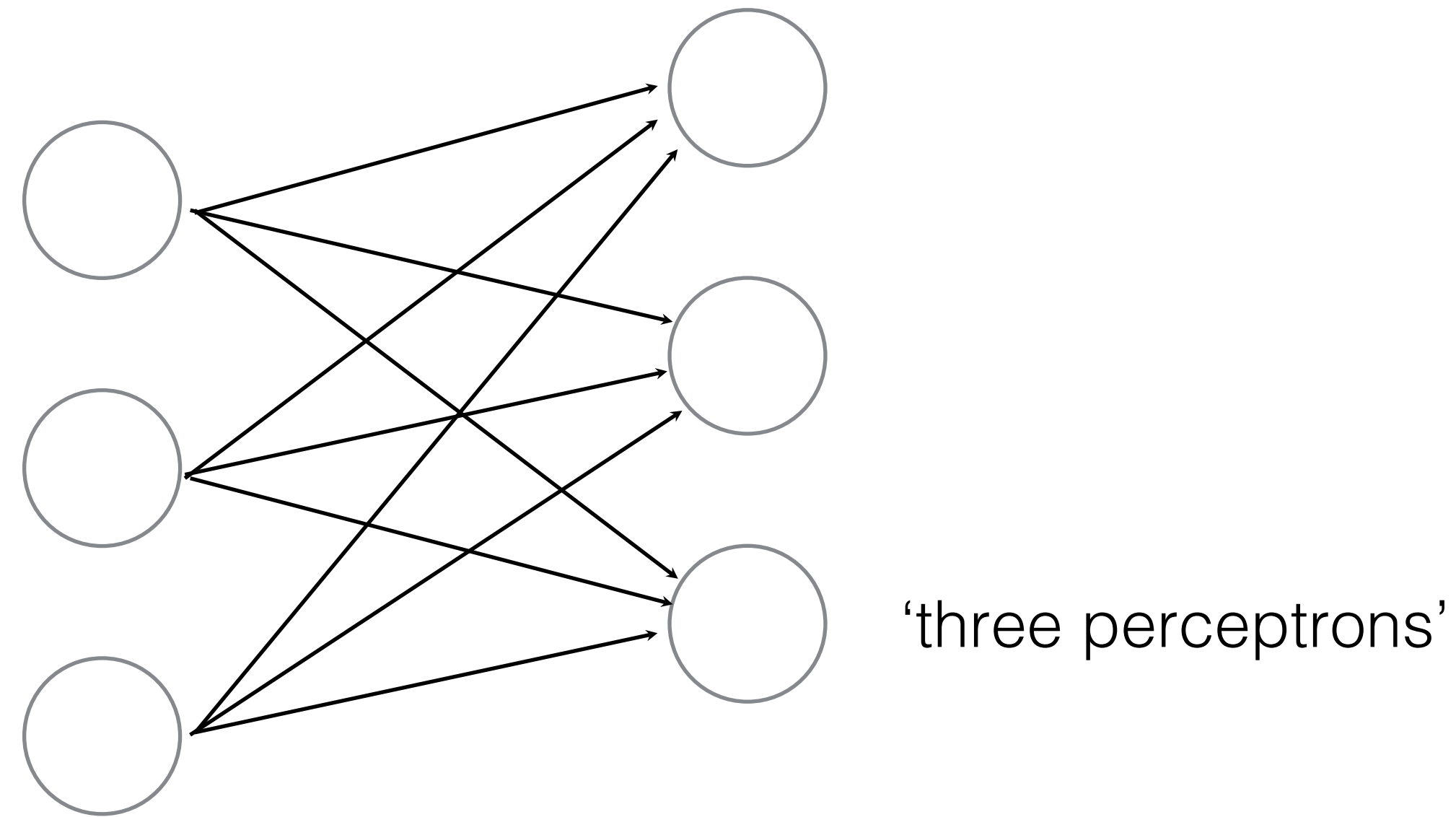
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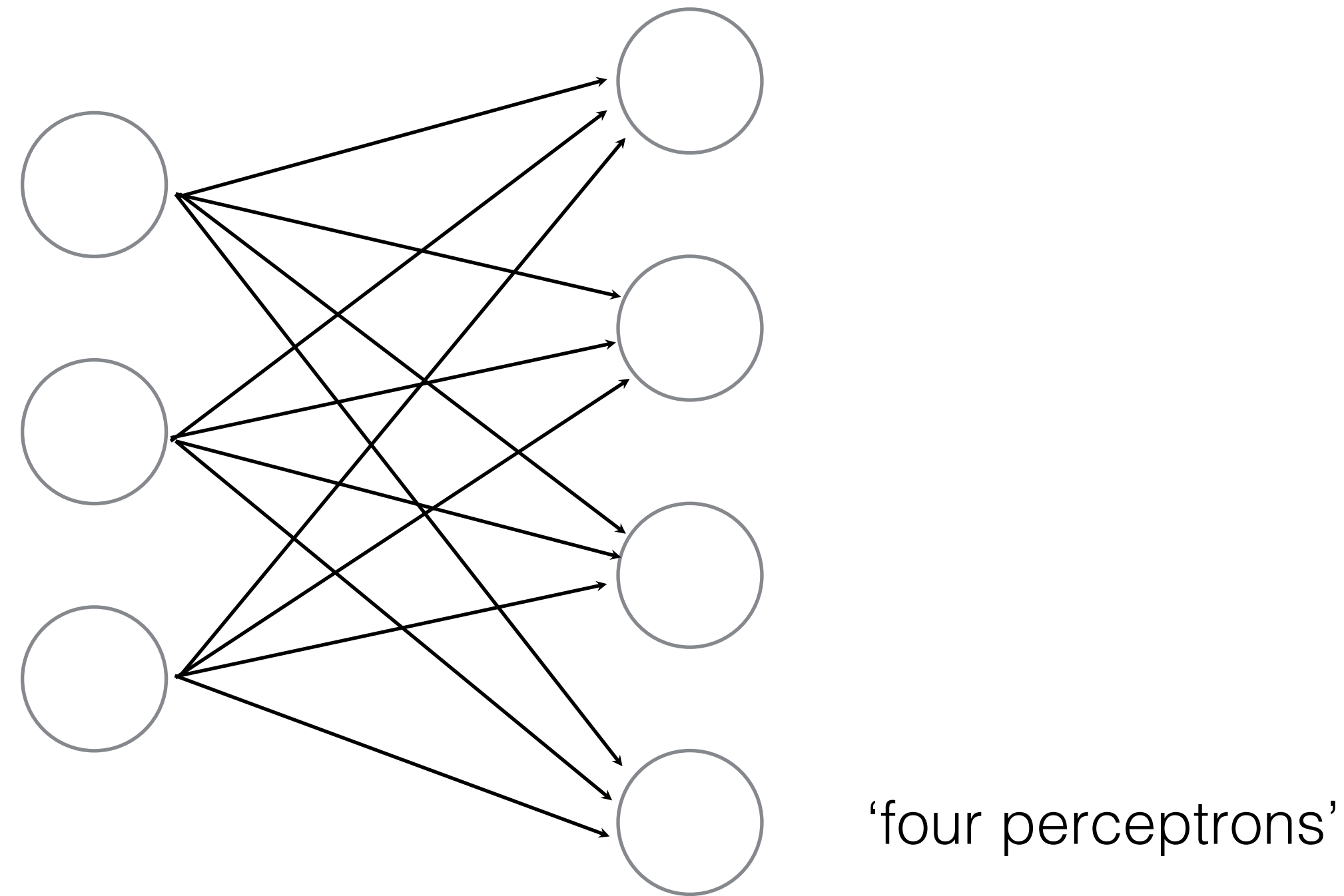
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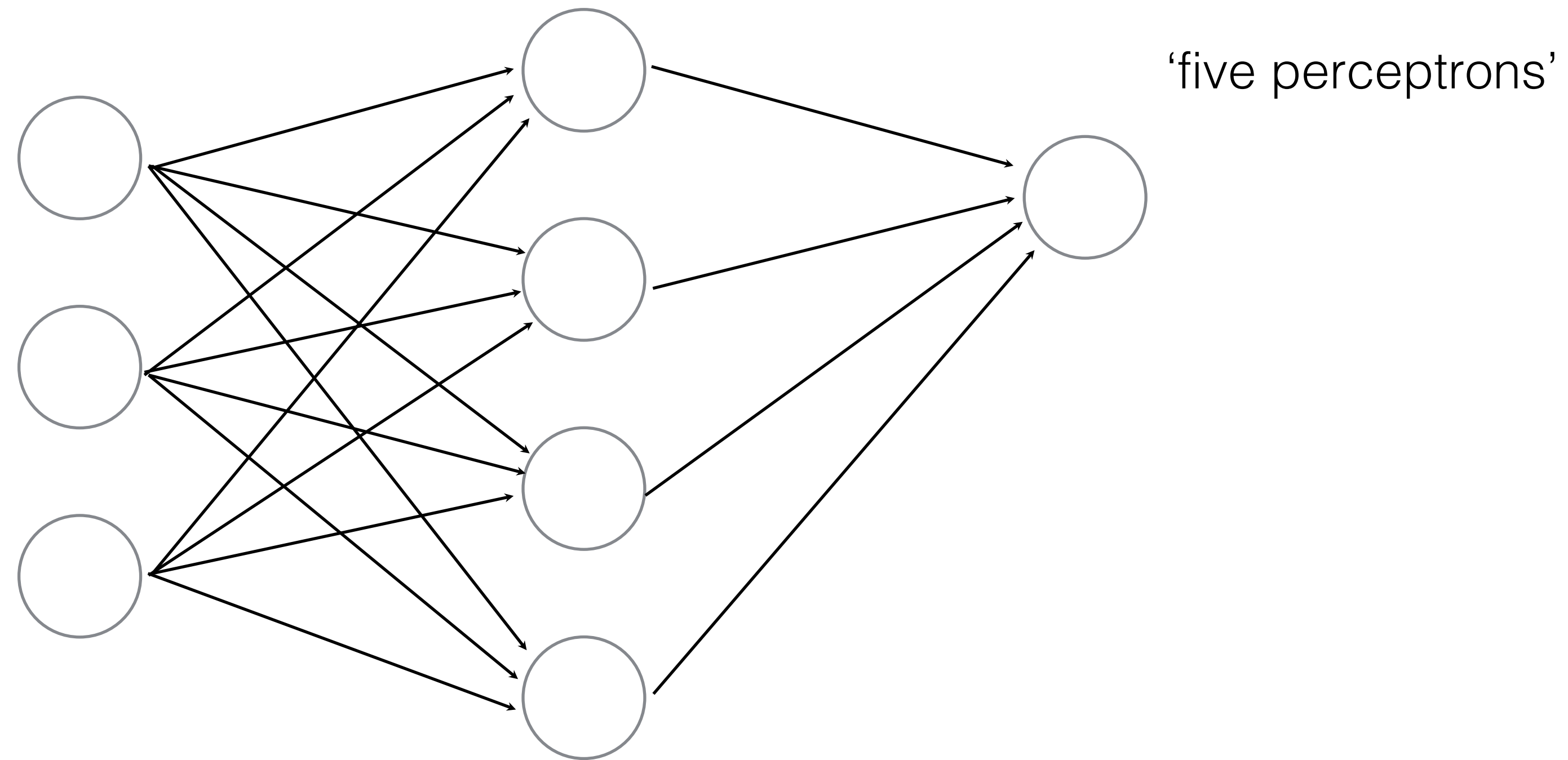
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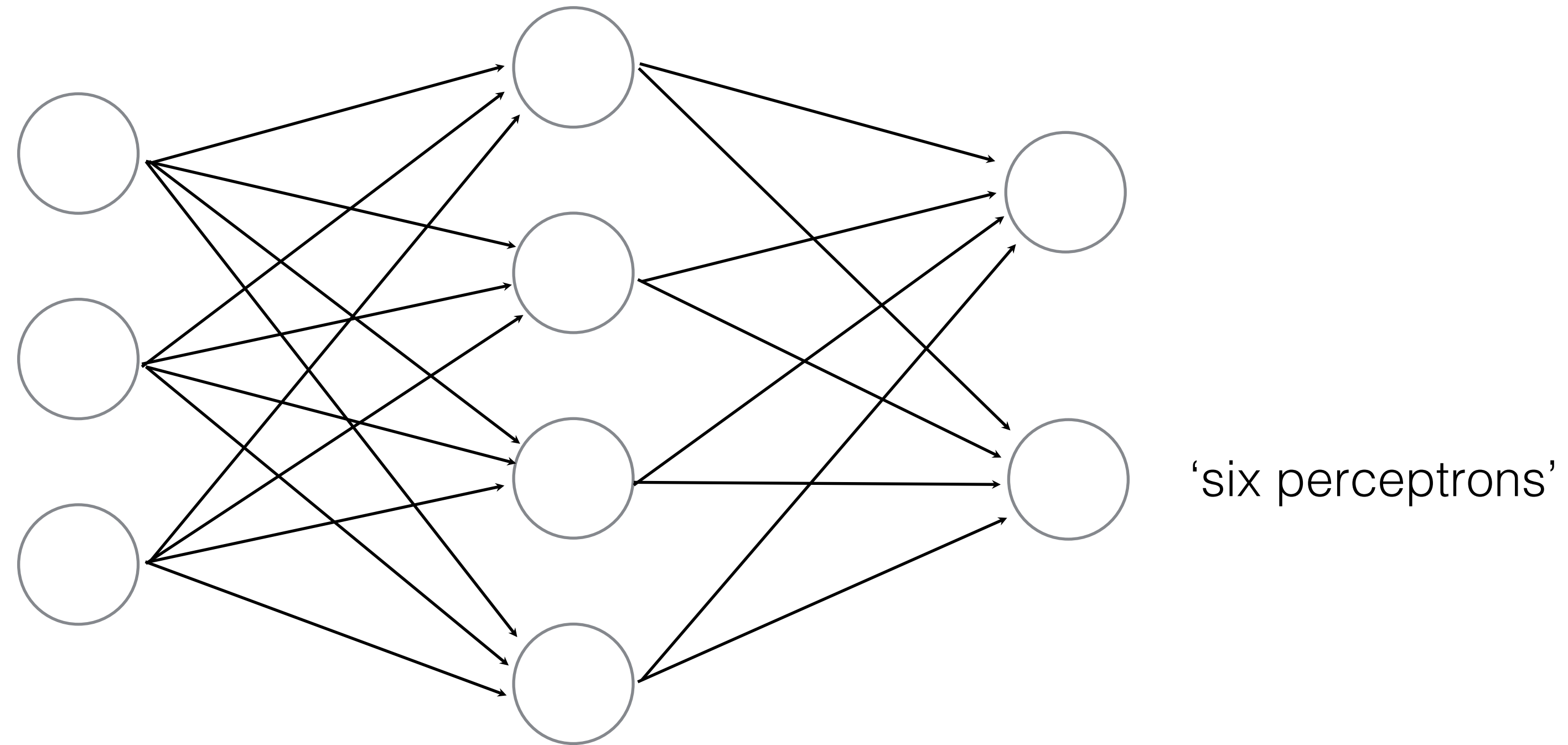
a collection of connected perceptrons



Connect a bunch of perceptrons together ...

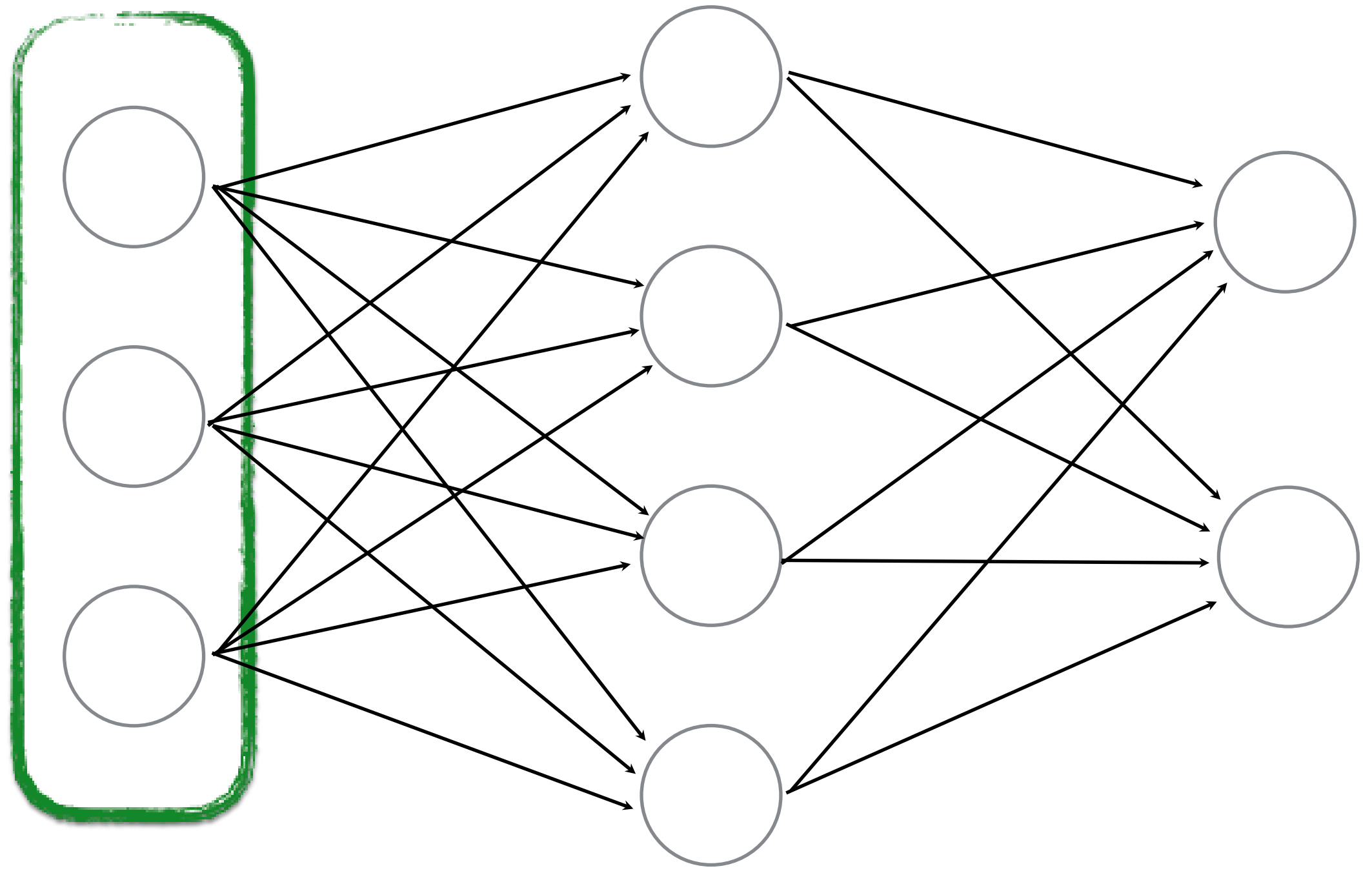
Neural Network

a collection of connected perceptrons



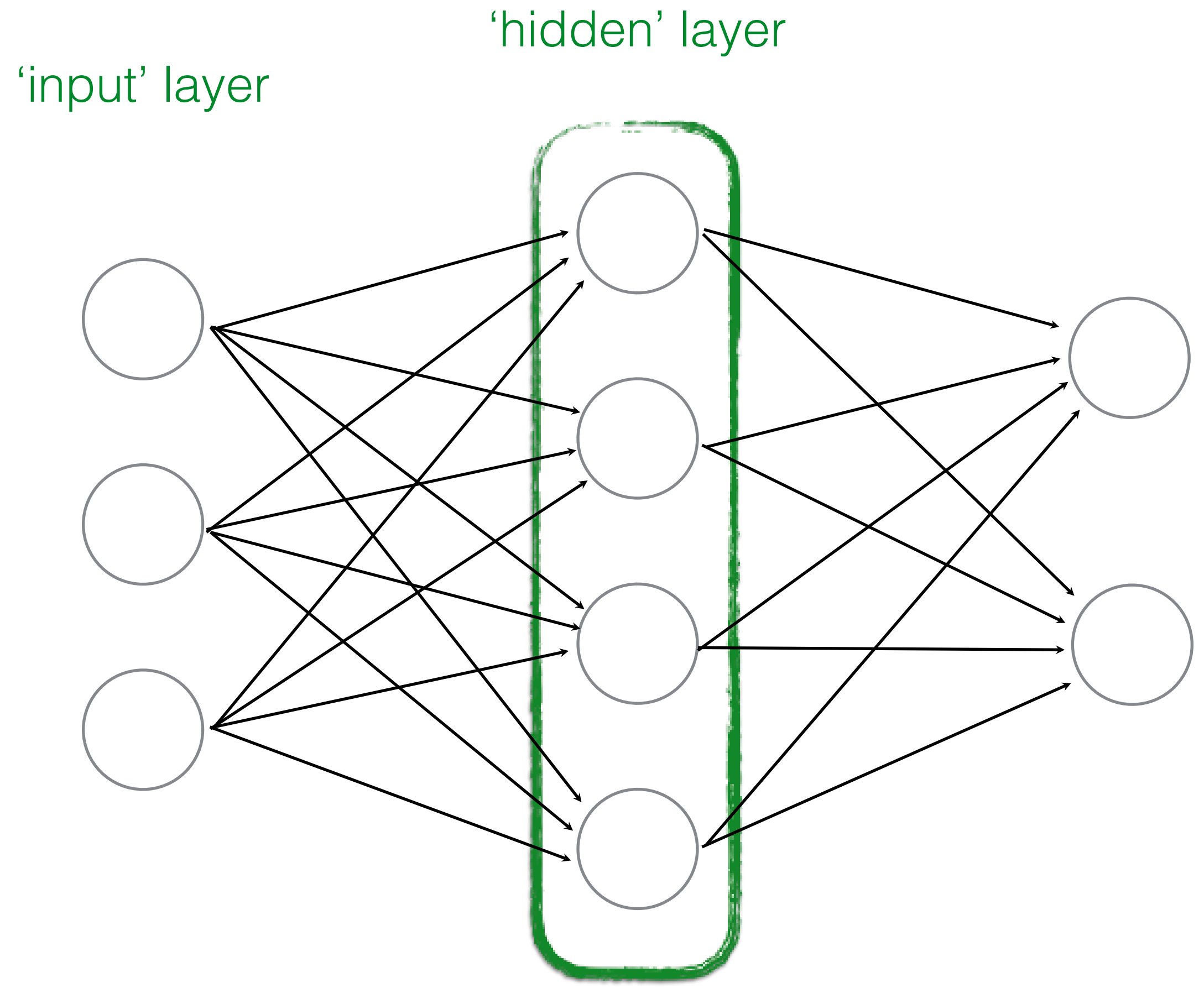
Some terminology...

'input' layer



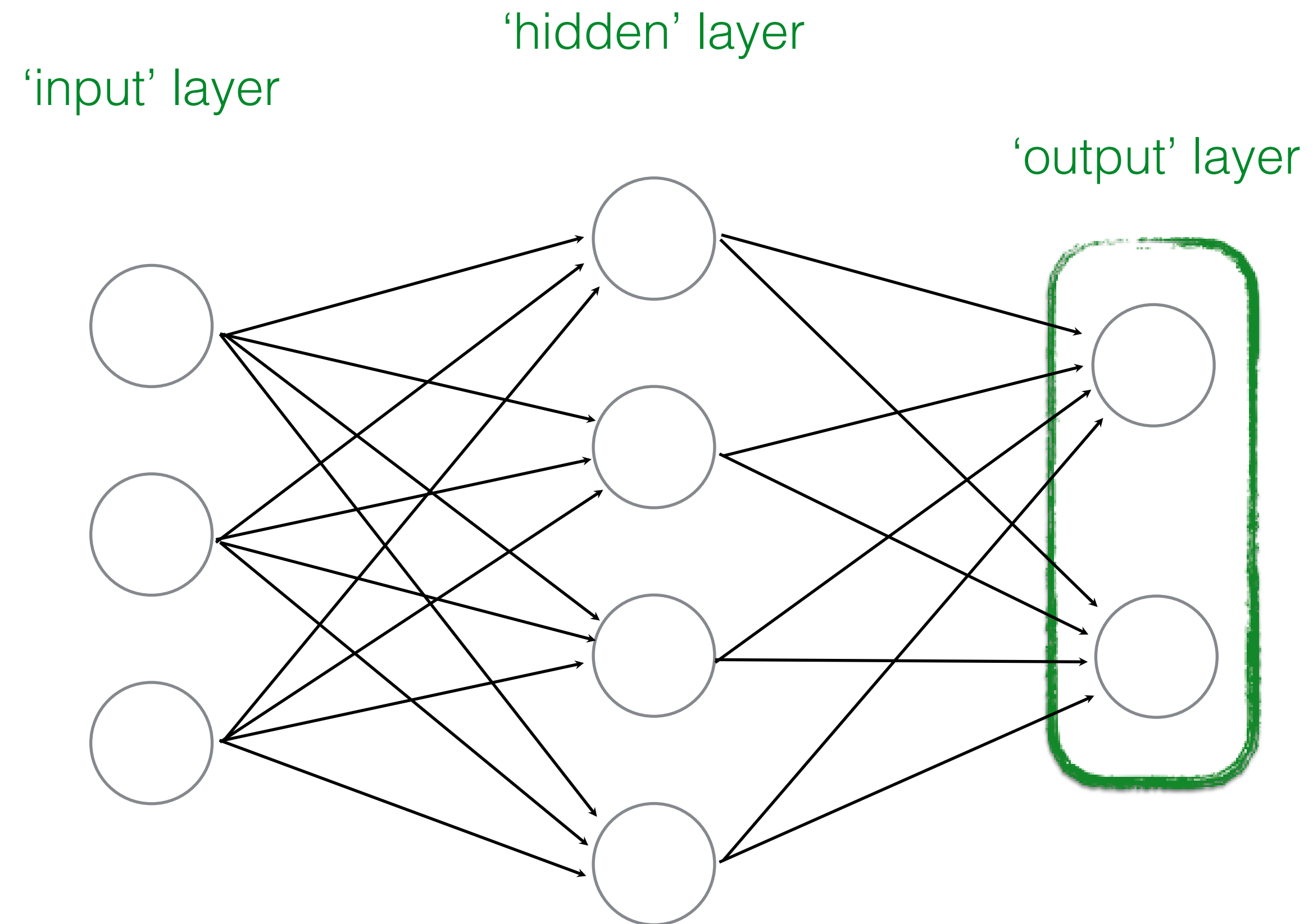
...also called a **Multi-layer Perceptron** (MLP)

Some terminology...



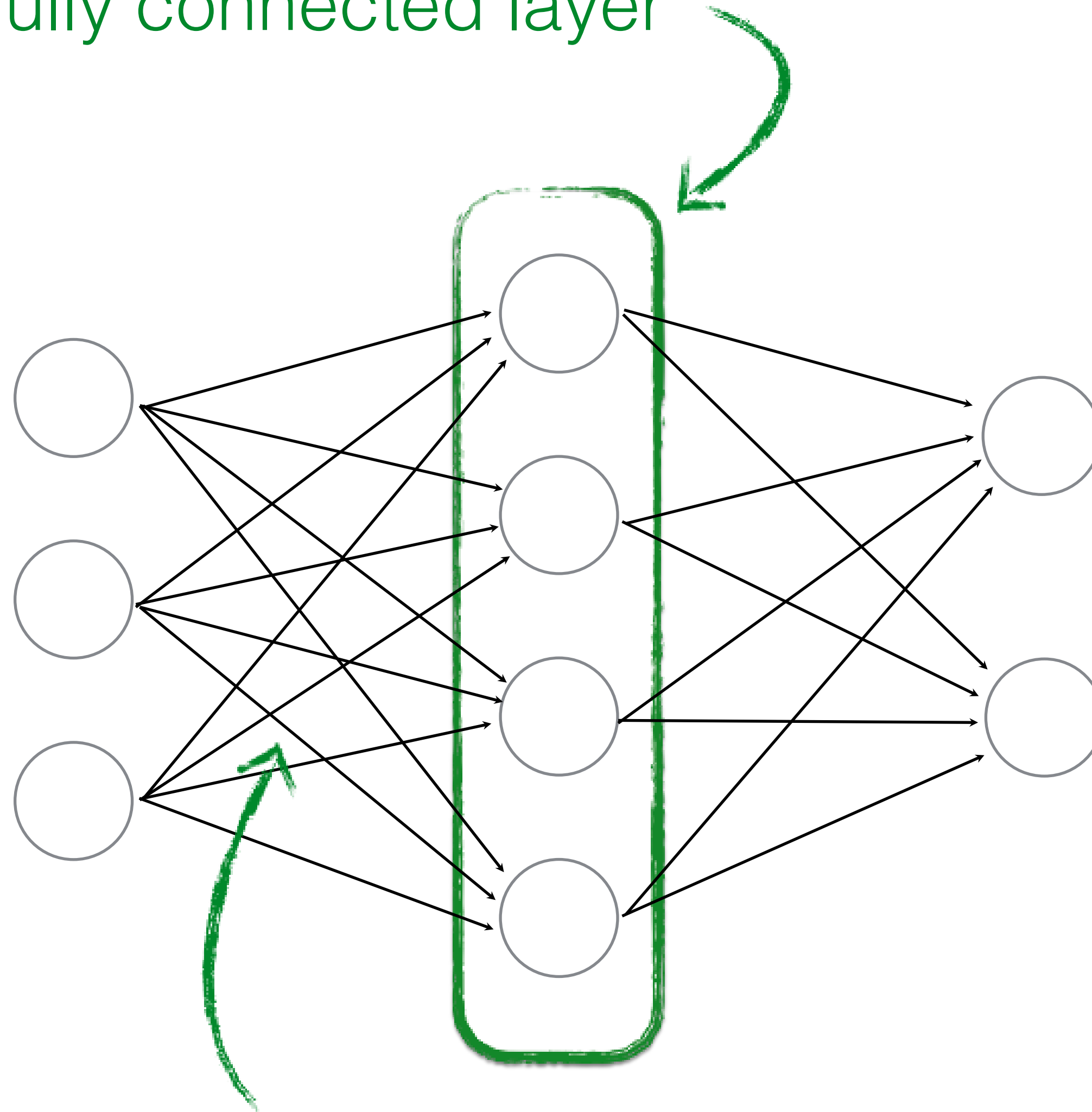
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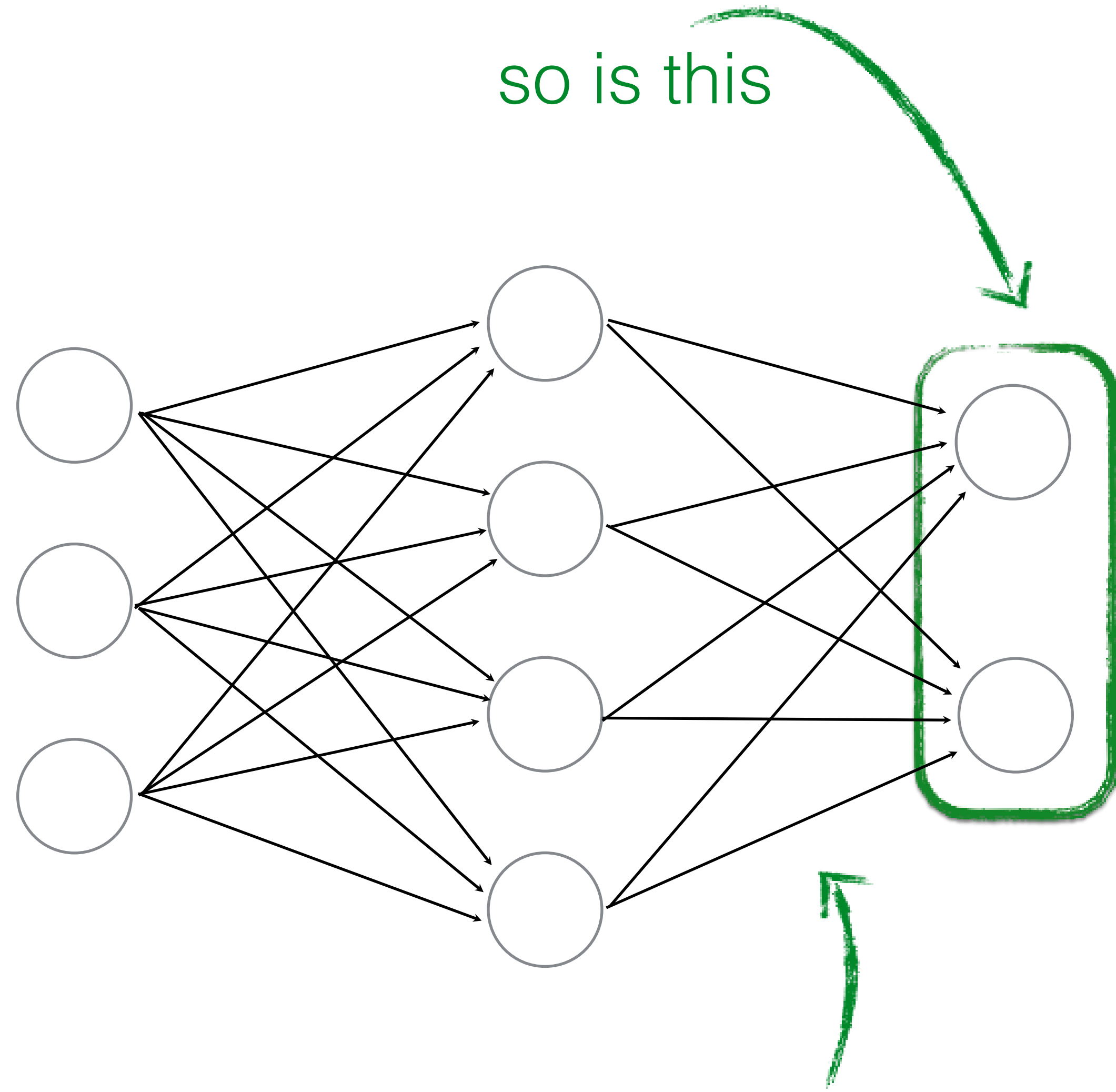


...also called a **Multi-layer Perceptron** (MLP)

this layer is a
'fully connected layer'



all pairwise neurons between layers are connected

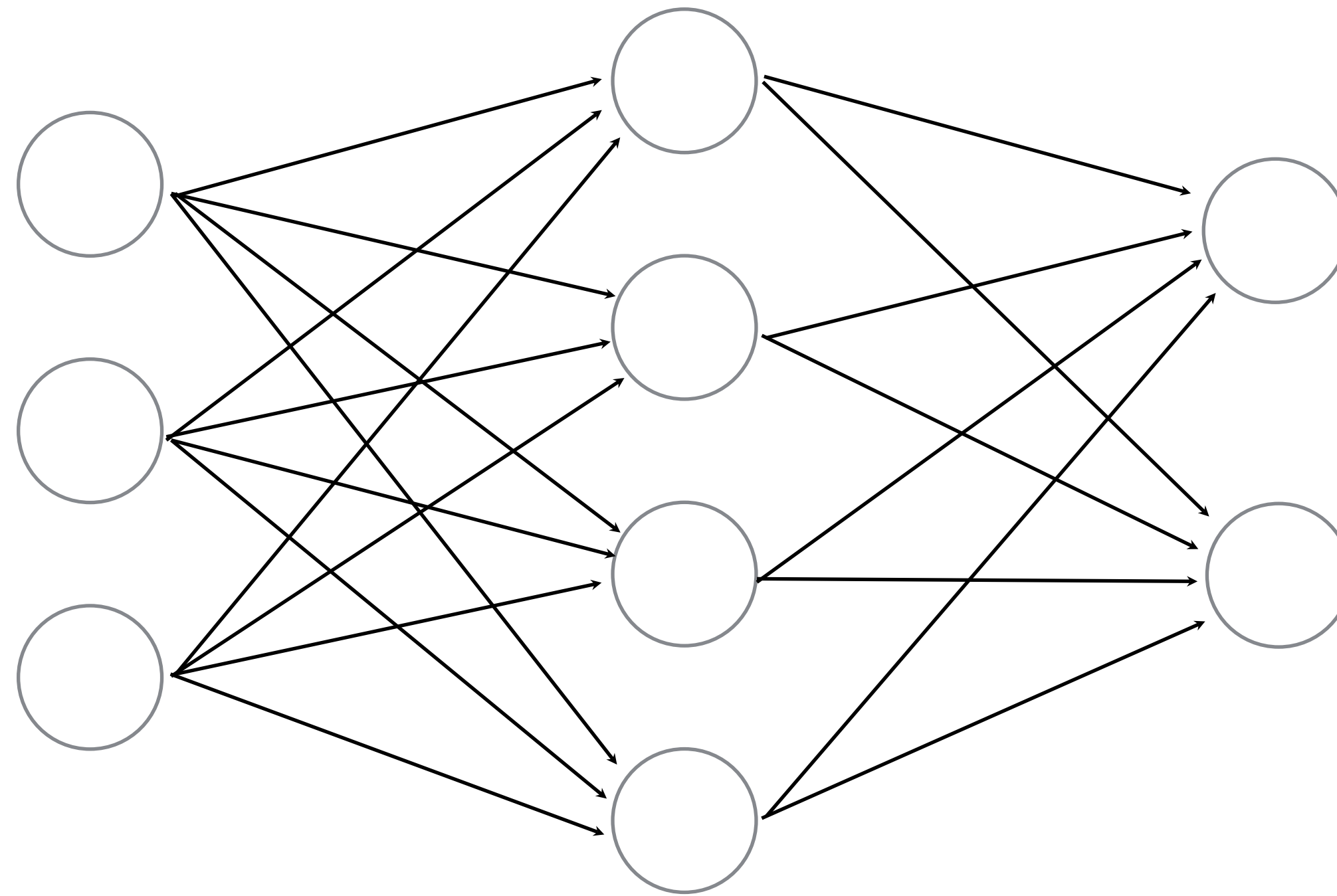


so is this

all pairwise neurons between layers are connected

How many neurons (perceptrons)?

How many weights (edges)?

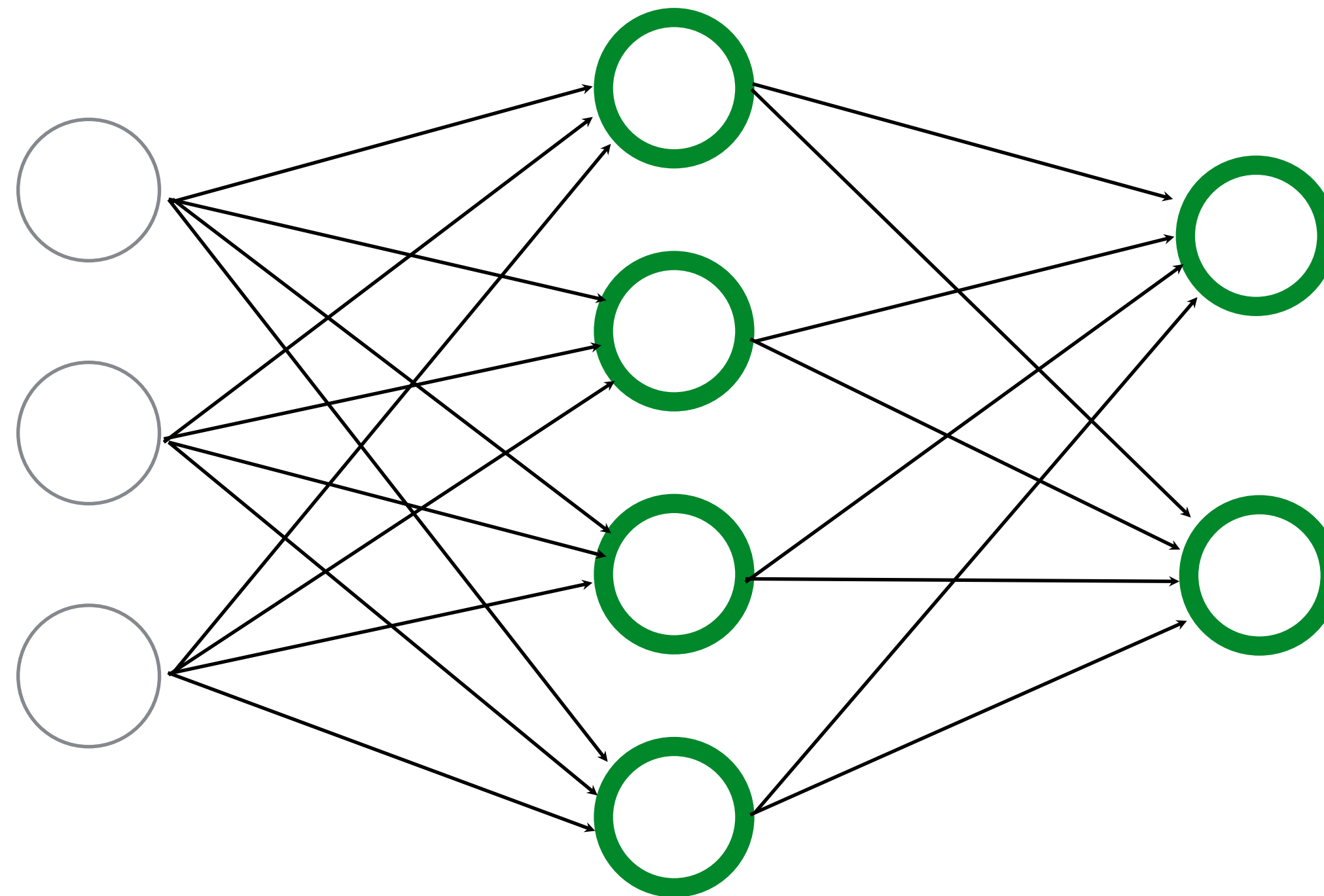


How many learnable parameters total?

How many neurons (perceptrons)?

$$4 + 2 = 6$$

How many weights (edges)?



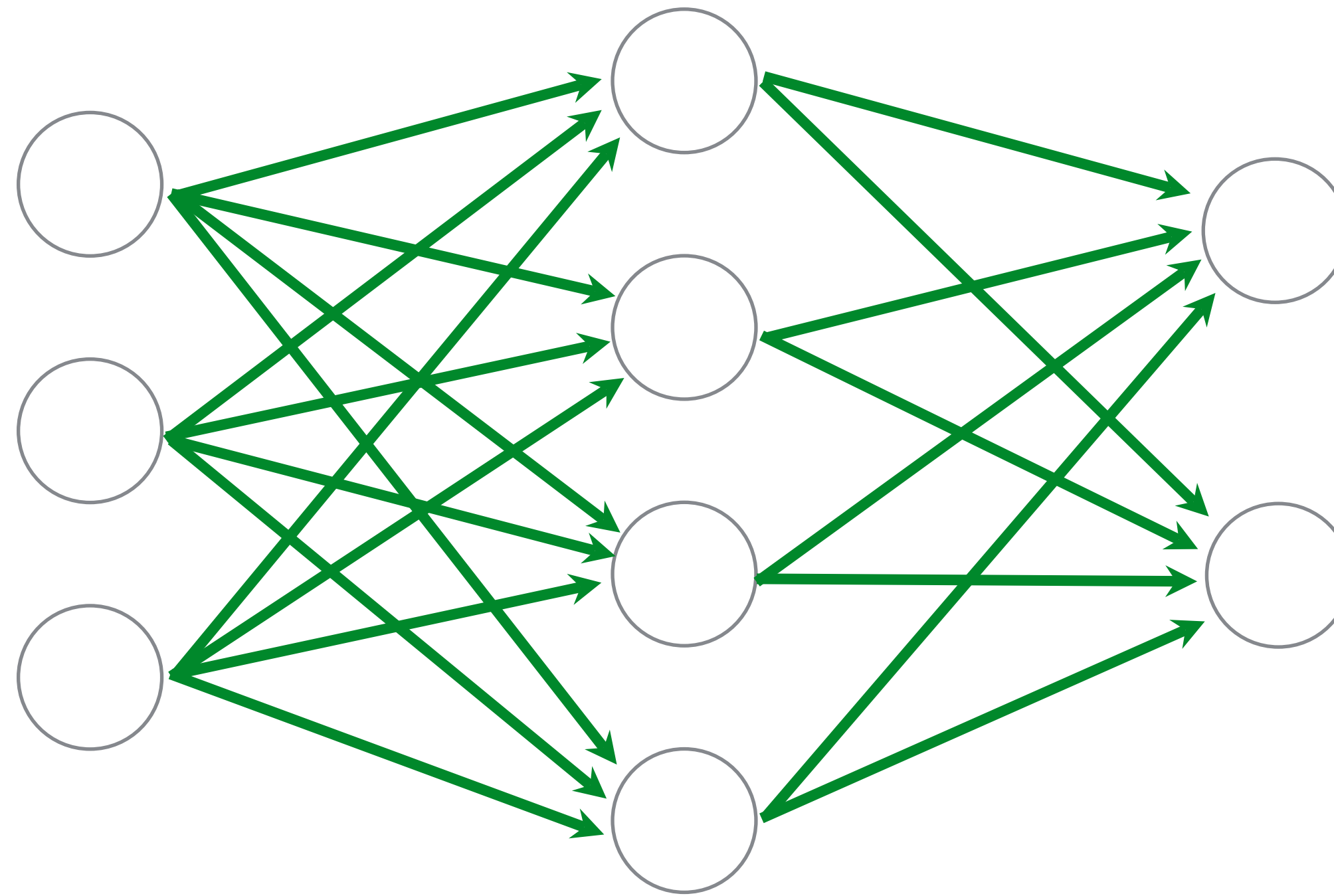
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$$(3 \times 4) + (4 \times 2) = 20$$



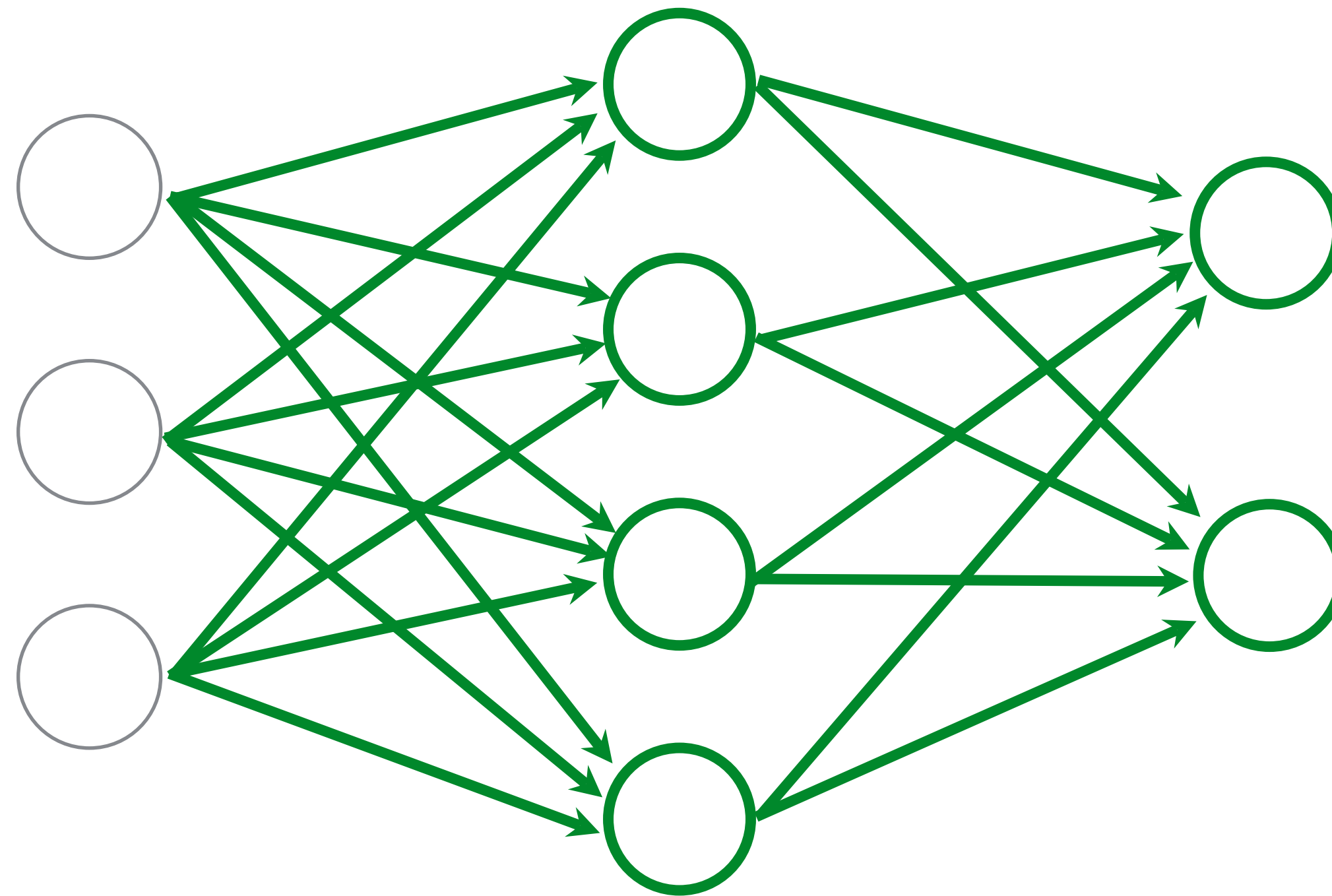
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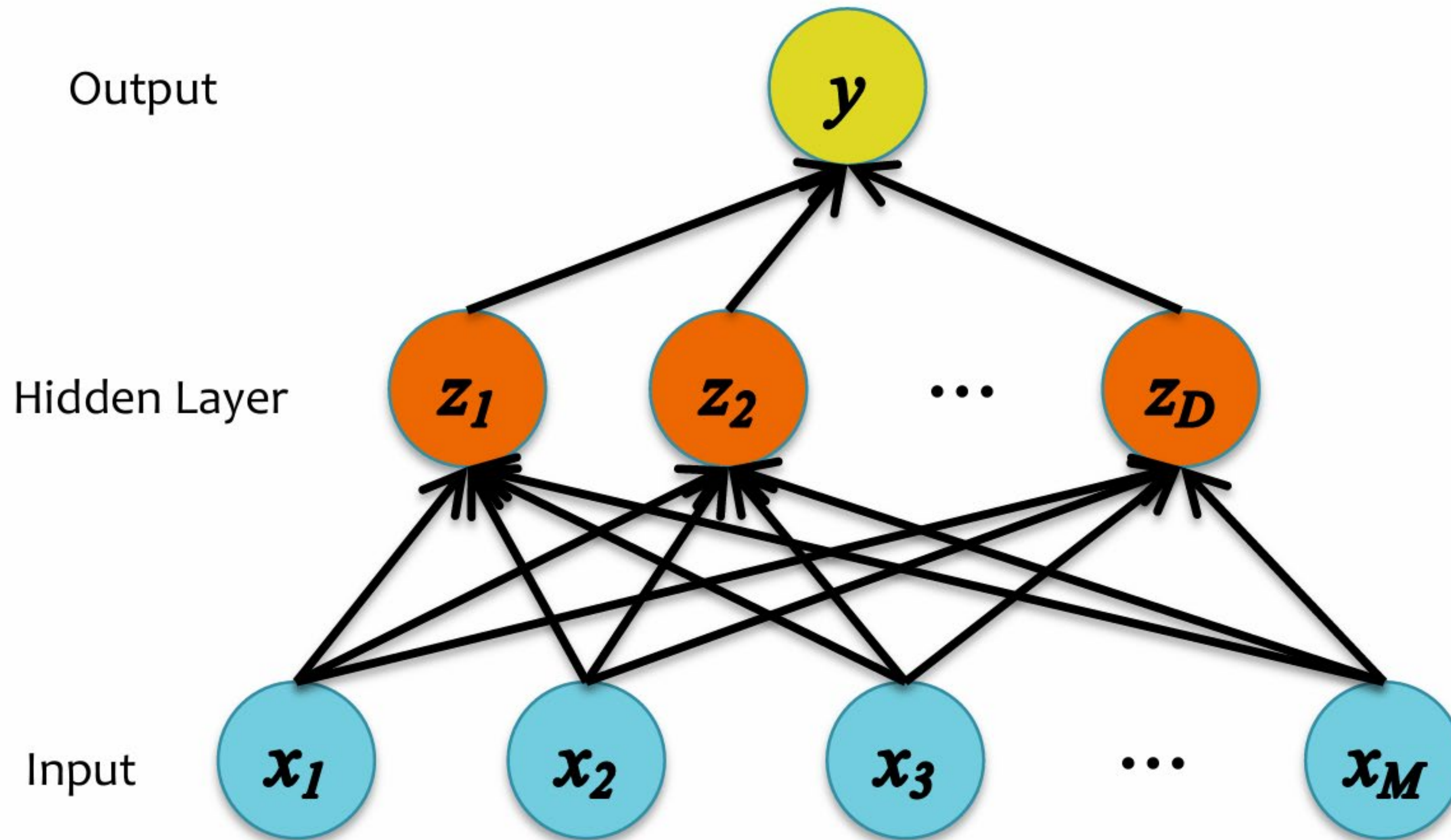
How many learnable parameters total?

$$20 + 4 + 2 = 26$$

bias terms

Single Output Neural Network

Let's write the equation



Objective Functions for NNs

1. Quadratic Loss:

- the same objective as Linear Regression
- i.e. mean squared error

$$J = \ell_Q(y, y^{(i)}) = \frac{1}{2}(y - y^{(i)})^2$$

$$\frac{dJ}{dy} = y - y^{(i)}$$

2. Binary Cross-Entropy:

- the same objective as Binary Logistic Regression
- i.e. negative log likelihood
- This requires our output y to be a probability in $[0,1]$

$$J = \ell_{CE}(y, y^{(i)}) = -(y^{(i)} \log(y) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log(1 - y))$$
$$\frac{dJ}{dy} = - \left(y^{(i)} \frac{1}{y} + (1 - y^{(i)}) \frac{1}{y - 1} \right)$$

Objective Functions for NNs

Cross-entropy vs. Quadratic loss

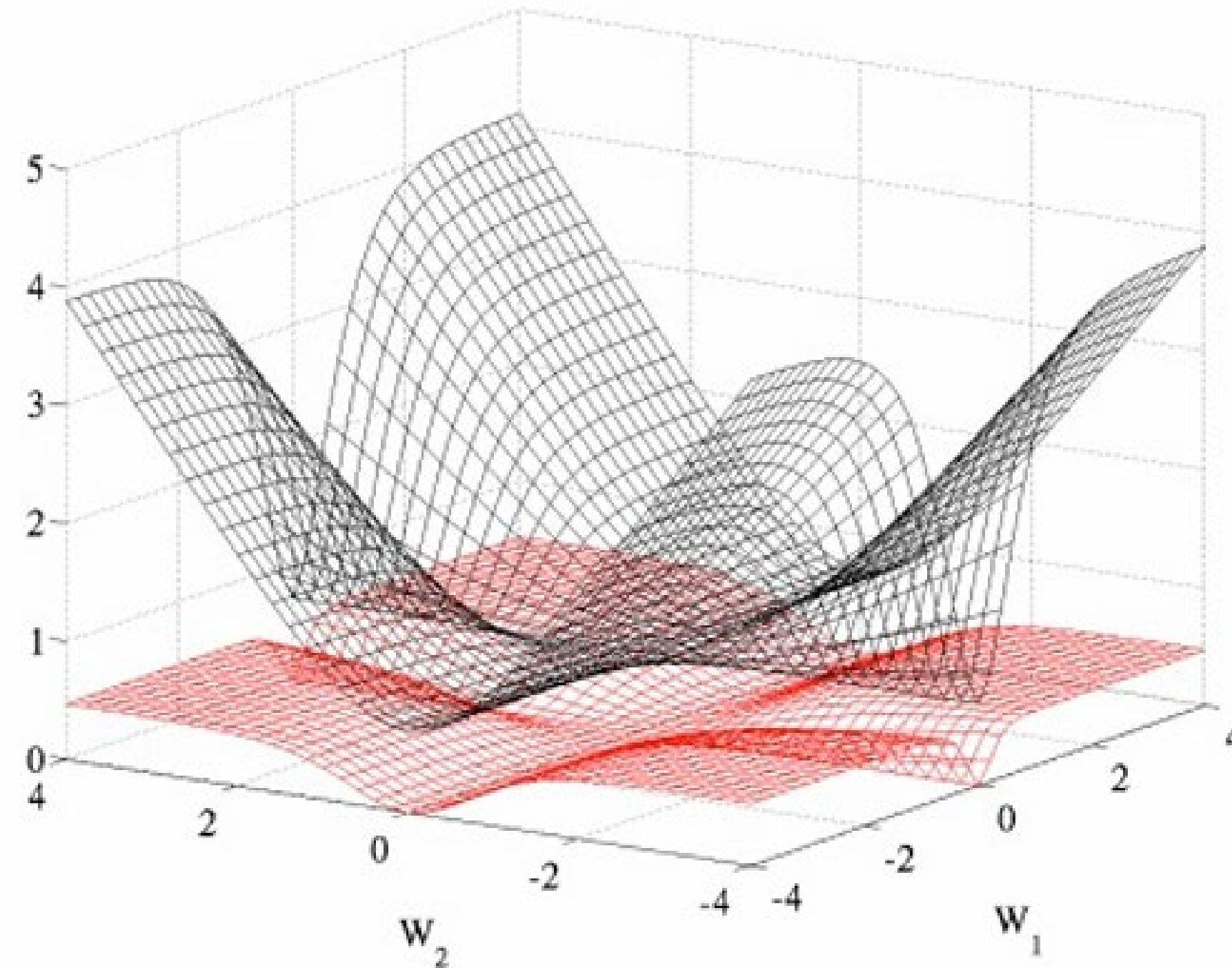
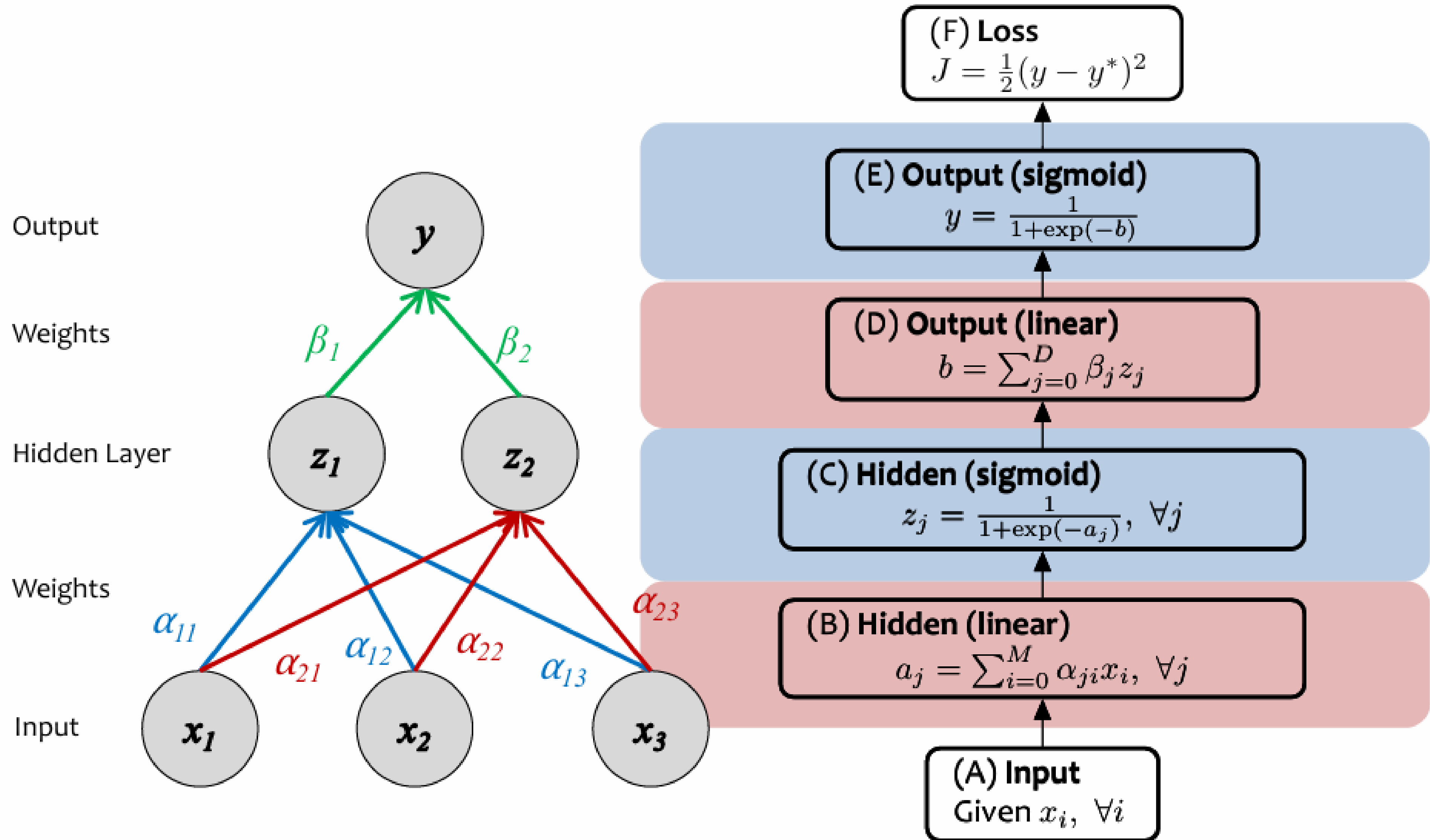


Figure 5: *Cross entropy (black, surface on top) and quadratic (red, bottom surface) cost as a function of two weights (one at each layer) of a network with two layers, W_1 respectively on the first layer and W_2 on the second, output layer.*

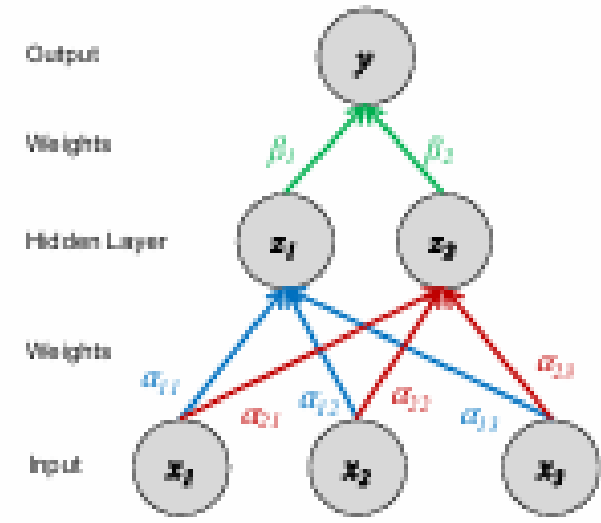
Training

Forward-Computation



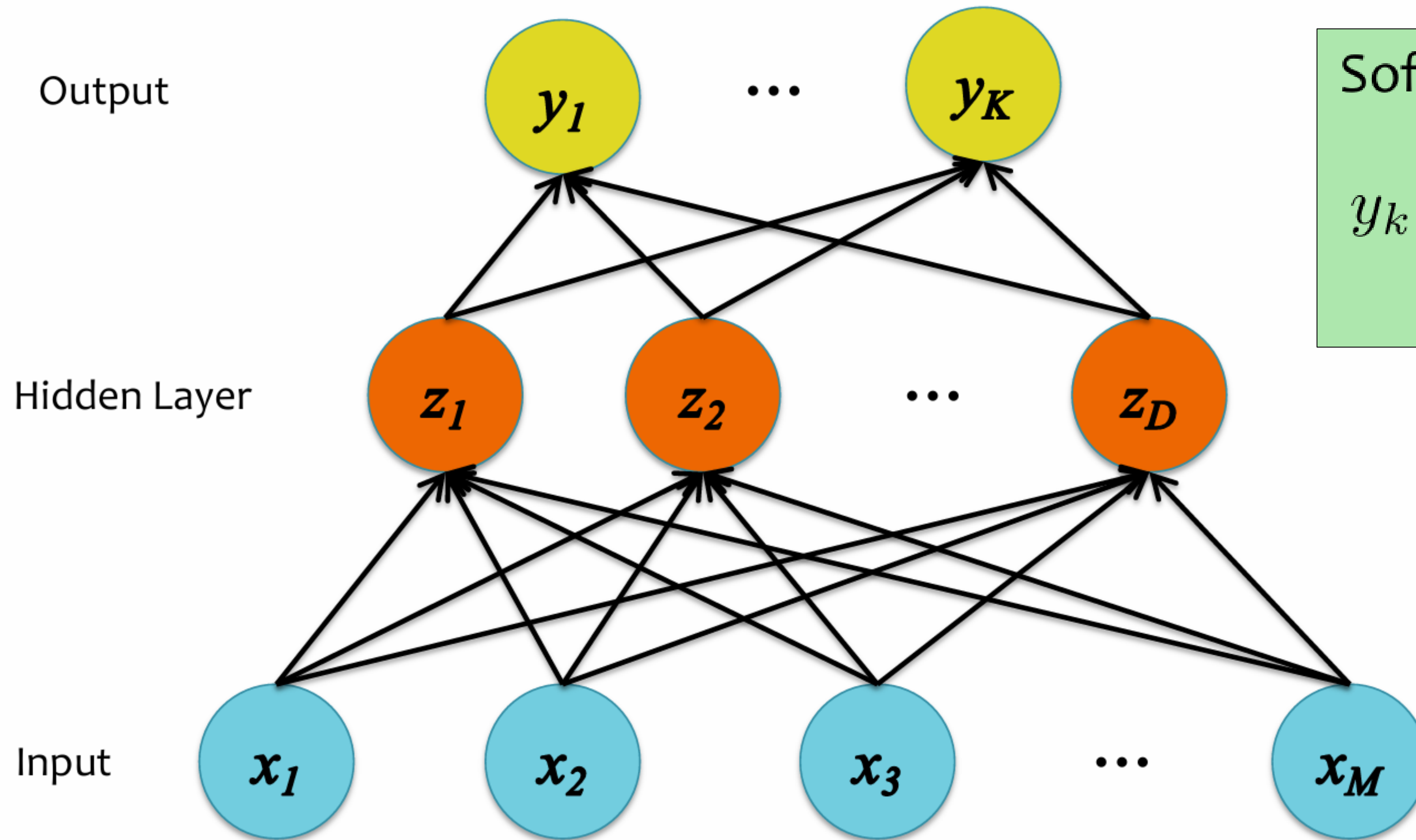
Case 2: Neural Network

Backpropagation



	Forward	Backward
Loss	$J = y^* \log y + (1 - y^*) \log(1 - y)$	$g_y = \frac{y^*}{y} + \frac{(1 - y^*)}{y - 1}$
Sigmoid	$y = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-b)}$	$g_b = g_y \frac{\partial y}{\partial b}, \frac{\partial y}{\partial b} = \frac{\exp(-b)}{(\exp(-b) + 1)^2}$
Linear	$b = \sum_{j=0}^D \beta_j z_j$	$g_{\beta_j} = g_b \frac{\partial b}{\partial \beta_j}, \frac{\partial b}{\partial \beta_j} = z_j$ $g_{z_j} = g_b \frac{\partial b}{\partial z_j}, \frac{\partial b}{\partial z_j} = \beta_j$
Sigmoid	$z_j = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-a_j)}$	$g_{a_j} = g_{z_j} \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial a_j}, \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial a_j} = \frac{\exp(-a_j)}{(\exp(-a_j) + 1)^2}$
Linear	$a_j = \sum_{i=0}^M \alpha_{ji} x_i$	$g_{\alpha_{ji}} = g_{a_j} \frac{\partial a_j}{\partial \alpha_{ji}}, \frac{\partial a_j}{\partial \alpha_{ji}} = x_i$ $g_{x_i} = \sum_{j=0}^D g_{a_j} \frac{\partial a_j}{\partial x_i}, \frac{\partial a_j}{\partial x_i} = \alpha_{ji}$

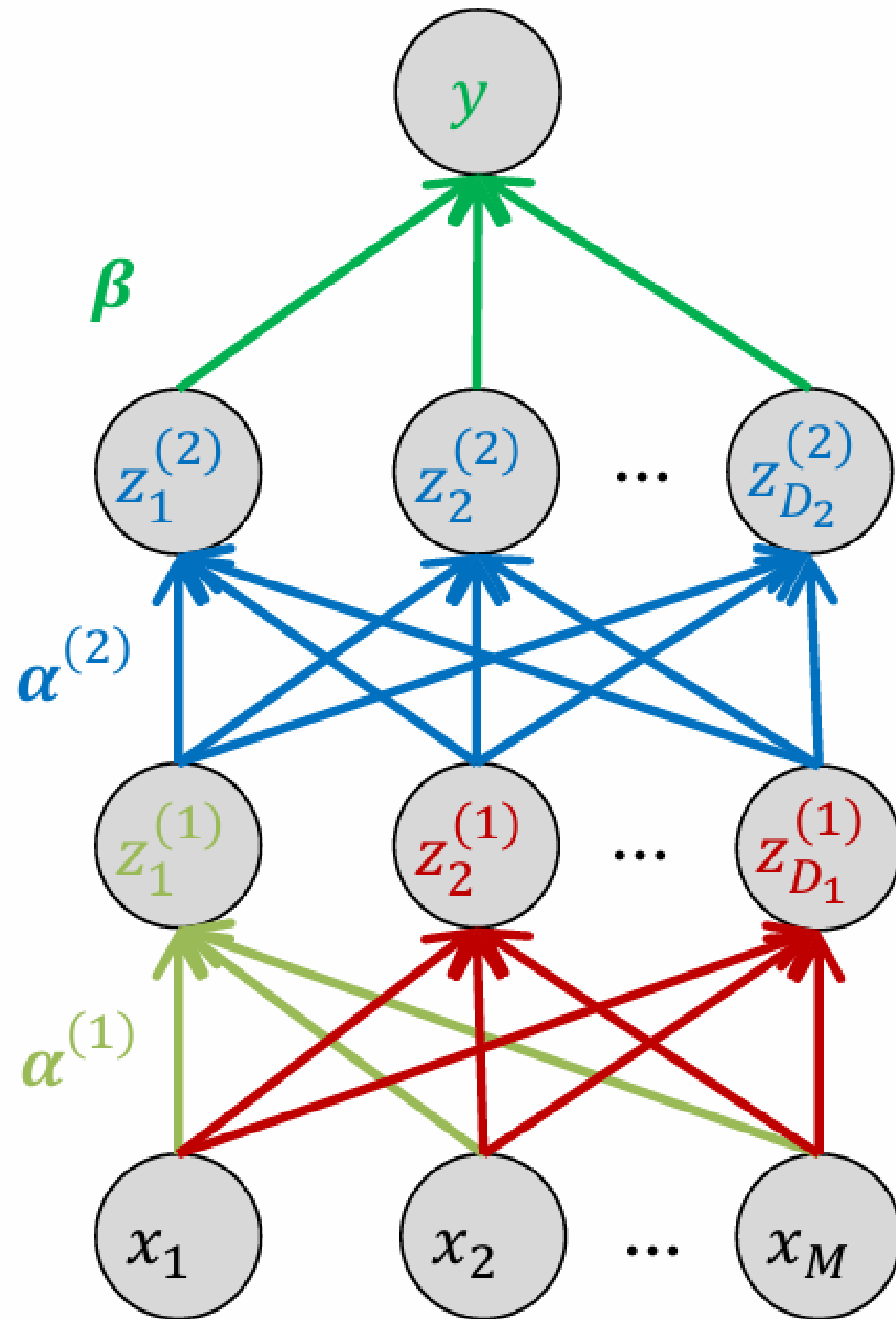
Multi-class Output



Softmax:

$$y_k = \frac{\exp(b_k)}{\sum_{l=1}^K \exp(b_l)}$$

Two-Layer NN: How do we train this model?



$$\beta \in \mathbb{R}^{D_2}$$

$$\beta_0 \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\alpha^{(2)} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times D_2}$$

$$\mathbf{b}^{(2)} \in \mathbb{R}^{D_2}$$

$$\alpha^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times D_1}$$

$$\mathbf{b}^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{D_1}$$

$$y = \sigma((\beta)^T \mathbf{z}^{(2)} + \beta_0)$$

$$\mathbf{z}^{(2)} = \sigma((\alpha^{(2)})^T \mathbf{z}^{(1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)})$$

$$\mathbf{z}^{(1)} = \sigma((\alpha^{(1)})^T \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)})$$