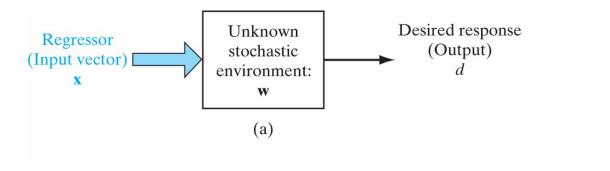
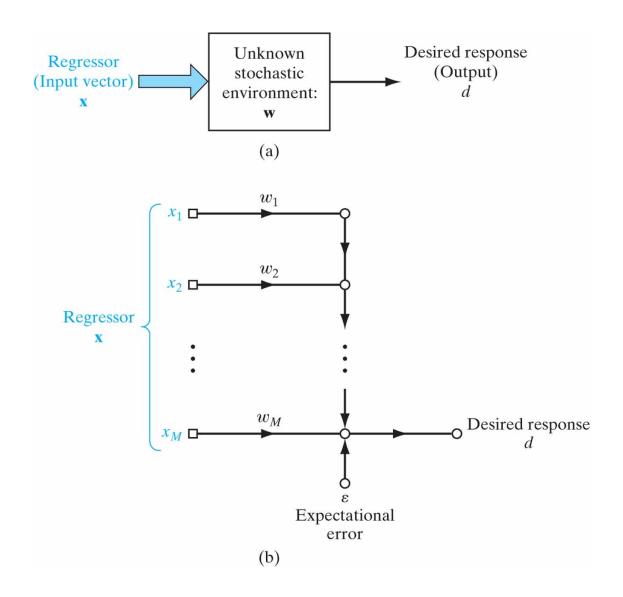
#### **CSE 5526: Introduction to Neural Networks**

# Linear Regression

### Problem statement



#### Problem statement



### Linear regression with one variable

• Given a set of N pairs of data  $\langle x_i, d_i \rangle$ , approximate d by a linear function of x (regressor)

i.e.

$$d \approx wx + b$$

or

$$d_i = y_i + \varepsilon_i = \varphi(wx_i + b) + \varepsilon_i$$
$$= wx_i + b + \varepsilon_i$$

where the activation function  $\varphi(x) = x$  is a linear function, and it corresponds to a linear neuron. y is the output of the neuron, and

$$\varepsilon_i = d_i - y_i$$

is called the regression (expectational) error

- The problem of regression with one variable is how to choose w and b to minimize the regression error
- The least squares method aims to minimize the square error *E*:

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \varepsilon_i^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (d_i - y_i)^2$$

• To minimize the two-variable square function, set

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial E}{\partial b} = 0\\ \frac{\partial E}{\partial w} = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial b} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \frac{\partial (d_i - wx_i - b)^2}{\partial b}$$

$$= -\sum_{i} (d_i - wx_i - b) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \frac{\partial (d_i - wx_i - b)^2}{\partial w}$$

$$= -\sum_{i} (d_i - wx_i - b)x_i = 0$$

Hence

$$b = \frac{\sum_{i} x_i^2 \sum_{i} d_i - \sum_{i} x_i \sum_{i} x_i d_i}{N[\sum_{i} (x_i - \overline{x})^2]}$$

Derive yourself!

$$w = \frac{\sum_{i} (x_i - \overline{x})(d_i - \overline{d})}{\sum_{i} (x_i - \overline{x})^2}$$

where an overbar (i.e.  $\overline{x}$ ) indicates the mean

• This method gives an optimal solution, but it can be timeand memory-consuming as a batch solution

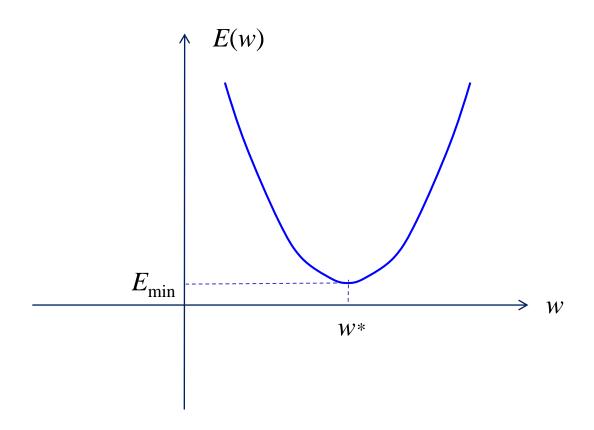
### Finding optimal parameters via search

• Without loss of generality, set b = 0

$$E(w) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (d_i - wx_i)^2$$

E(w) is called a cost function

### Cost function



• Question: how can we update w to minimize E?

#### Gradient and directional derivatives

• Without loss of generality, consider a two-variable function f(x, y). The gradient of f(x, y) at a given point  $(x_0, y_0)^T$  is

$$\nabla f = \left(\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y}\right)^T \begin{vmatrix} x = x_0 \\ y = y_0 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= f_x(x_0, y_0)\mathbf{u}_x + f_y(x_0, y_0)\mathbf{u}_y$$

where  $\mathbf{u}_x$  and  $\mathbf{u}_y$  are unit vectors in the x and y directions, and  $f_x = \partial f / \partial x$  and  $f_y = \partial f / \partial y$ 

• At any given direction,  $\mathbf{u} = a\mathbf{u}_x + b\mathbf{u}_y$ , with  $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2} = 1$ , the directional derivative at  $(x_0, y_0)^T$  along the unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is

$$\begin{split} D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x_0, y_0) &= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + ha, y_0 + hb) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{[f(x_0 + ha, y_0 + hb) - f(x_0, y_0 + hb)] + [f(x_0, y_0 + hb) - f(x_0, y_0)]}{h} \\ &= af_x(x_0, y_0) + bf_y(x_0, y_0) \\ &= \nabla f^T(x_0, y_0) \mathbf{u} \end{split}$$

- Which direction has the greatest slope?
  - The gradient because of the dot product!

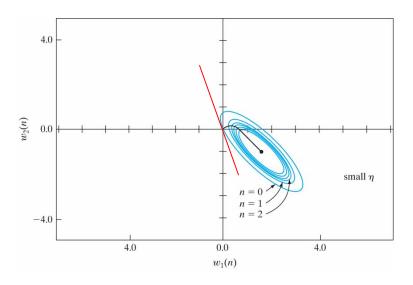
• Example: see blackboard

• To find the gradient at a particular point  $(x_0, y_0)^T$ , first find the level curve or contour of f(x, y) at that point,  $C(x_0, y_0)$ . A tangent vector **u** to C satisfies

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} = \nabla f^T(x_0, y_0)\mathbf{u} = 0$$

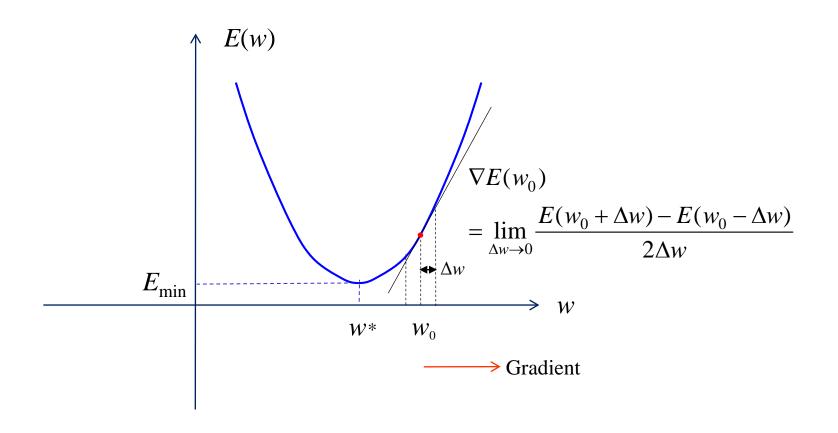
because f(x, y) is constant on a level curve. Hence the gradient vector is perpendicular to the tangent vector

### An illustration of level curves



- The gradient of a cost function is a vector with the dimension of w that points to the direction of maximum E increase and with a magnitude equal to the slope of the tangent of the cost function along that direction
  - Can the slope be negative?

#### Gradient illustration



#### Gradient descent

• Minimize the cost function via gradient (steepest) descent – a case of hill-climbing

$$w(n+1) = w(n) - \eta \nabla E(n)$$

*n*: iteration number

 $\eta$ : learning rate

•See previous figure

### Gradient descent (cont.)

• For the mean-square-error cost function:

$$E(n) = \frac{1}{2}e^{2}(n) = \frac{1}{2}[d(n) - y(n)]^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}[d(n) - w(n)x(n)]^{2} \qquad \text{linear neurons}$$

$$\nabla E(n) = \frac{\partial E}{\partial w(n)} = \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial e^{2}(n)}{\partial w(n)}$$

$$= -e(n)x(n)$$

### Gradient descent (cont.)

Hence

$$w(n+1) = w(n) + \eta e(n)x(n)$$
$$= w(n) + \eta [d(n) - y(n)]x(n)$$

• This is the least-mean-square (LMS) algorithm, or the Widrow-Hoff rule

#### Multi-variable case

 The analysis for the one-variable case extends to the multivariable case

$$E(n) = \frac{1}{2} [d(n) - \mathbf{w}^{T}(n)\mathbf{x}(n)]^{2}$$

$$\nabla E(\mathbf{w}) = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_0}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_m}\right)^T$$

where  $w_0 = b$  (bias) and  $x_0 = 1$ , as done for perceptron learning

### Multi-variable case (cont.)

The LMS algorithm

$$\mathbf{w}(n+1) = \mathbf{w}(n) - \eta \nabla E(n)$$

$$= \mathbf{w}(n) + \eta e(n) \mathbf{x}(n)$$

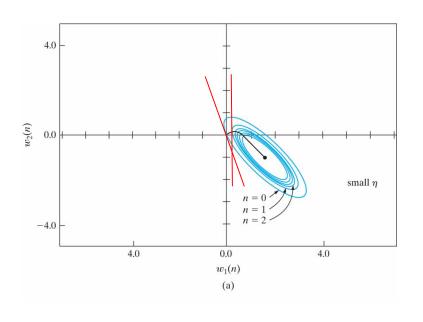
$$= \mathbf{w}(n) + \eta [d(n) - y(n)] \mathbf{x}(n)$$

### LMS algorithm

#### Remarks

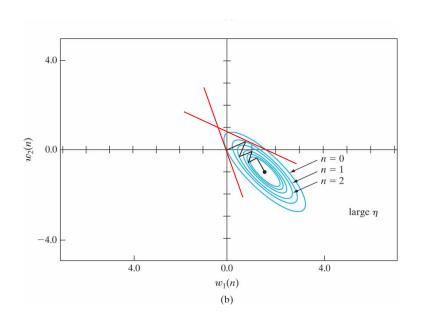
- The LMS rule is exactly the same in math form as the perceptron learning rule
- Perceptron learning is for McCulloch-Pitts neurons, which are nonlinear, whereas LMS learning is for linear neurons. In other words, perceptron learning is for classification and LMS is for function approximation
- LMS should be less sensitive to noise in the input data than perceptrons. On the other hand, LMS learning converges slowly
- Newton's method changes weights in the direction of the minimum  $E(\mathbf{w})$  and leads to fast convergence. But it is not an online version and computationally extensive

## Stability of adaptation



• When  $\eta$  is too small, learning converges slowly

## Stability of adaptation (cont.)



• When  $\eta$  is too large, learning doesn't converge

### Learning rate annealing

- Basic idea: start with a large rate but gradually decrease it
- Stochastic approximation

$$\eta(n) = \frac{c}{n}$$

c is a positive parameter

### Learning rate annealing (cont.)

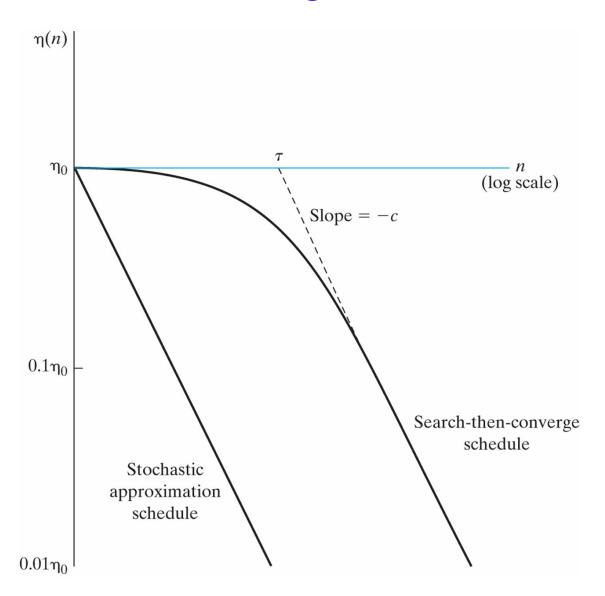
• Search-then-converge

$$\eta(n) = \frac{\eta_0}{1 + (n/\tau)}$$

 $\eta_0$  and  $\tau$  are positive parameters

- •When n is small compared to  $\tau$ , learning rate is approximately constant
- •When n is large compared to  $\tau$ , learning rate schedule roughly follows stochastic approximation

### Rate annealing illustration



#### Nonlinear neurons

• To extend the LMS algorithm to nonlinear neurons, consider differentiable activation function  $\varphi$  at iteration n

$$E(n) = \frac{1}{2} [d(n) - y(n)]^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} [d(n) - \varphi(\sum_{j} w_j x_j(n))]^2$$

### Nonlinear neurons (cont.)

By chain rule of differentiation

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_j} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \frac{\partial v}{\partial w_j}$$

$$= -[d(n) - y(n)] \varphi'(v(n)) x_j(n)$$

$$= -e(n) \varphi'(v(n)) x_j(n)$$

### Nonlinear neurons (cont.)

• The gradient descent gives

$$w_{j}(n+1) = w_{j}(n) + \eta \underline{e(n)} \varphi'(v(n)) x_{j}(n)$$
$$= w_{j}(n) + \eta \delta(n) x_{j}(n)$$

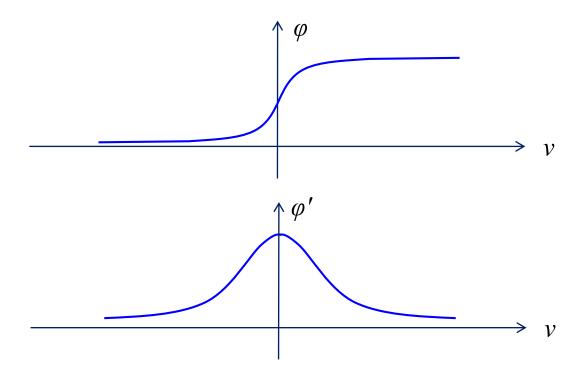
- The above is called the delta ( $\delta$ ) rule
- If we choose a logistic sigmoid for  $\varphi$

$$\varphi(v) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-av)}$$

then

$$\varphi'(v) = a\varphi(v)[1-\varphi(v)]$$
 (see textbook)

#### Role of activation function



• The role of  $\varphi'$ : weight update is most sensitive when v is near zero