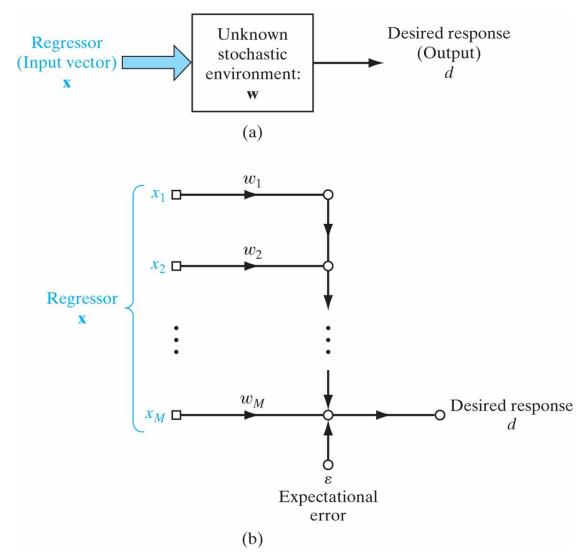
CSE 5526: Introduction to Neural Networks

Regression and the LMS Algorithm

CSE 5526: Regression

Problem statement



Linear regression with one variable

Given a set of N pairs of data {x_i, d_i}, 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, corresponding to a linear neuron. *y* is the output of the neuron, and

$$\varepsilon_i = d_i - y_i$$

is called the regression (expectational) error

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- 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:

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

• To minimize the two-variable square function, set

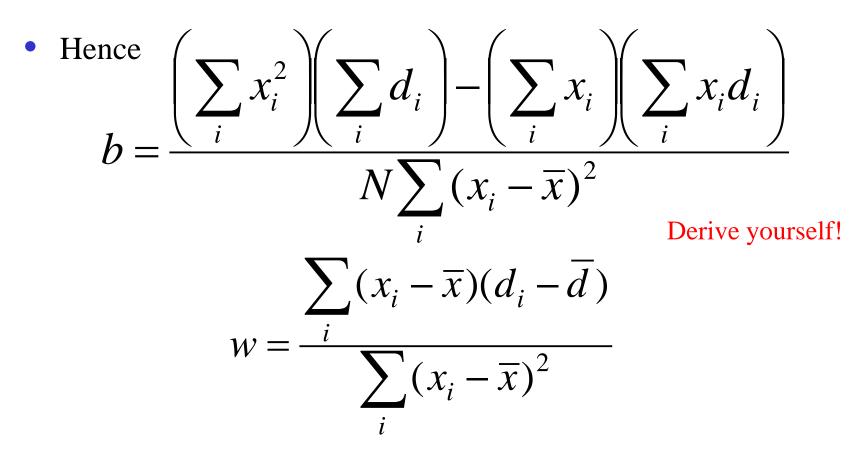
$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial E}{\partial b} = 0\\ \frac{\partial E}{\partial w} = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial b} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial b} (d_i - wx_i - b)^2$$
$$= -\sum_{i} (d_i - wx_i - b) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial w} (d_i - wx_i - b)^2$$
$$= -\sum_{i} (d_i - wx_i - b)x_i = 0$$

Analytic solution approaches

- Solve one equation for *b* in terms of *w*
 - Substitute into other equation, solve for *w*
 - Substitute solution for *w* back into equation for *b*
- Setup system of equations in matrix notation
 - Solve matrix equation
- Rewrite problem in matrix form
 - Compute matrix gradient
 - Solve for *w*



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

Linear regression in matrix notation

- Let $X = [x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3 \ ... \ x_N]^T$
- Then the model predictions are y = Xw
- And the mean square error can be written $E(w) = ||d - y||^2 = ||d - Xw||^2$
- To find the optimal w, set the gradient of the error with respect to w equal to 0 and solve for w

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w}E(w) = 0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial w}\|d - Xw\|^2$$

• See The Matrix Cookbook (Petersen & Pedersen)

Linear regression in matrix notation

•
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w} E(w) = \frac{\partial}{\partial w} ||d - Xw||^2$$

 $= \frac{\partial}{\partial w} (d - Xw)^T (d - Xw)$
 $= \frac{\partial}{\partial w} d^T d - 2w^T X^T d + w^T X^T Xw$
 $= -2X^T d - 2X^T Xw$
• $\frac{\partial}{\partial w} E(w) = 0 = -2X^T d - 2X^T Xw$

$$(w) = 0 = -2X^T d - 2X^T X w$$
$$\Rightarrow w = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T d$$

• Much cleaner!

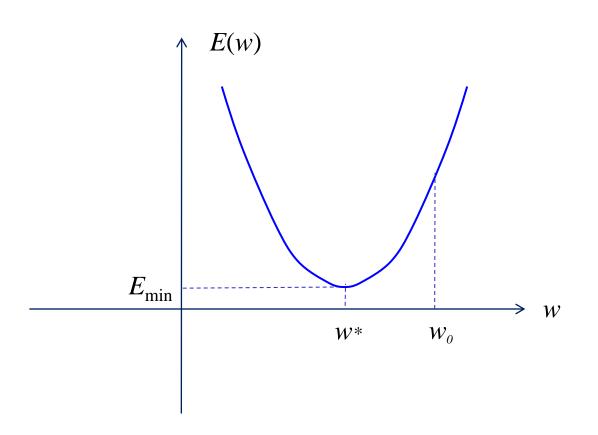
Finding optimal parameters via search

- Often there is no closed form solution for $\frac{\partial}{\partial w} E(w) = 0$
- We can still use the gradient in a numerical solution
- We will still use the same example to permit comparison
- For simplicity's sake, 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 from w_0 to minimize E?

Gradient and directional derivatives

• Consider a two-variable function f(x, y). Its gradient at the point $(x_0, y_0)^T$ is defined as

$$\nabla \mathbf{f} = \left(\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y}\right)^T \bigg|_{\substack{x = x_0 \\ y = y_0}}$$

$$= f_{x}(x_{0}, y_{0})\mathbf{u}_{x} + f_{y}(x_{0}, y_{0})\mathbf{u}_{y}$$

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, $u = au_x + bu_y$, with $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2} = 1$, the directional derivative at $(x_0, y_0)^T$ along the unit vector u is

$$D_{u}f_{x}(x_{0}, y_{0}) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_{0} + ha, y_{0} + hb) - f(x_{0}, y_{0})}{h}$$

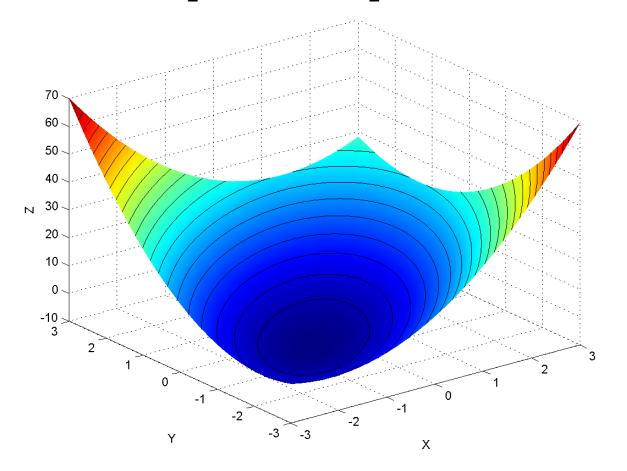
=
$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{[f(x_{0} + ha, y_{0} + hb) - f(x_{0}, y_{0} + hb)] + [f(x_{0}, y_{0} + hb) - f(x_{0}, y_{0})]}{h}$$

=
$$af_{x}(x_{0}, y_{0}) + bf_{y}(x_{0}, y_{0})$$

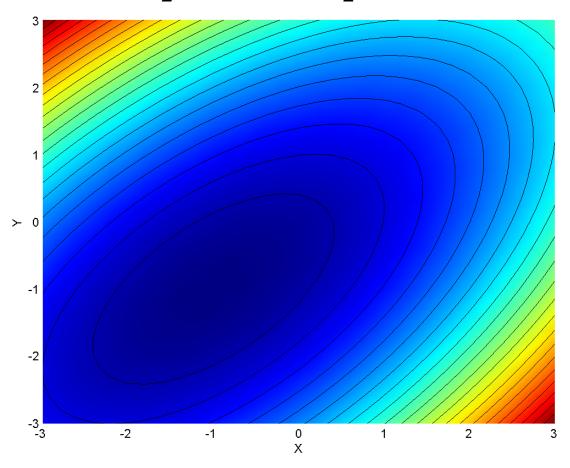
=
$$\nabla f(x_{0}, y_{0})^{T} u$$

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

• Example:
$$f(x, y) = \frac{5}{2}x^2 - 3xy + \frac{5}{2}y^2 + 2x + 2y$$



• Example:
$$f(x, y) = \frac{5}{2}x^2 - 3xy + \frac{5}{2}y^2 + 2x + 2y$$



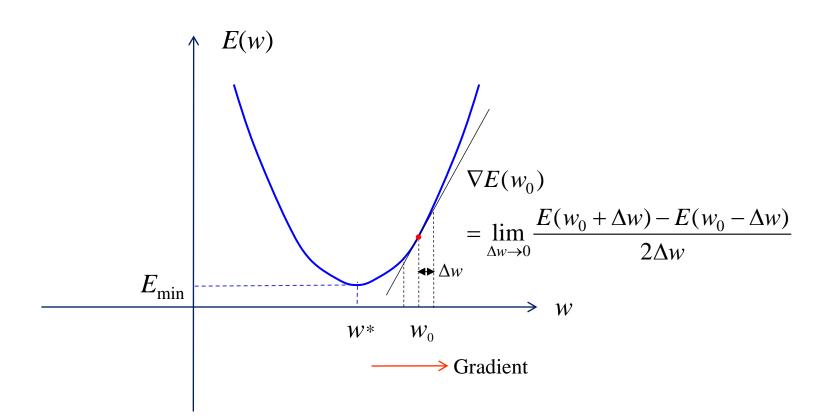
- The level curves of a function f(x, y) are curves such that f(x, y) = k
- Thus, the directional derivative along a level curve is 0

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

• And the gradient vector is perpendicular to the level curve

- 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*η*: learning rate

•See previous figure

Gradient descent (cont.)

• For the mean-square-error cost function and linear neurons

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

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

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

Stochastic gradient descent

• If the cost function is of the form

$$E(w) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} E_n(w)$$

- Then one gradient descent step requires computing $\Delta w = \frac{\partial}{\partial w} E(w) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\partial}{\partial w} E_n(w)$
- Which means computing E(w) or its gradient for every data point
- Many steps may be required to reach an optimum

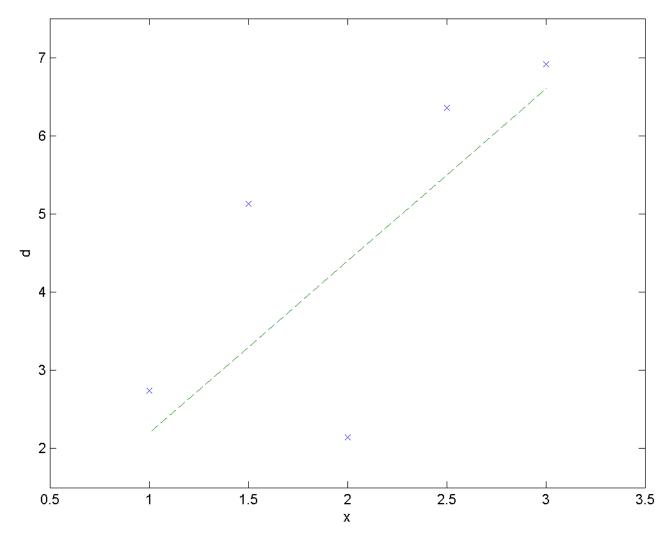
Stochastic gradient descent

• It is generally much more computationally efficient to use

$$\Delta w = \sum_{n=n_i}^{n_i+n_b-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial w} E_n(w)$$

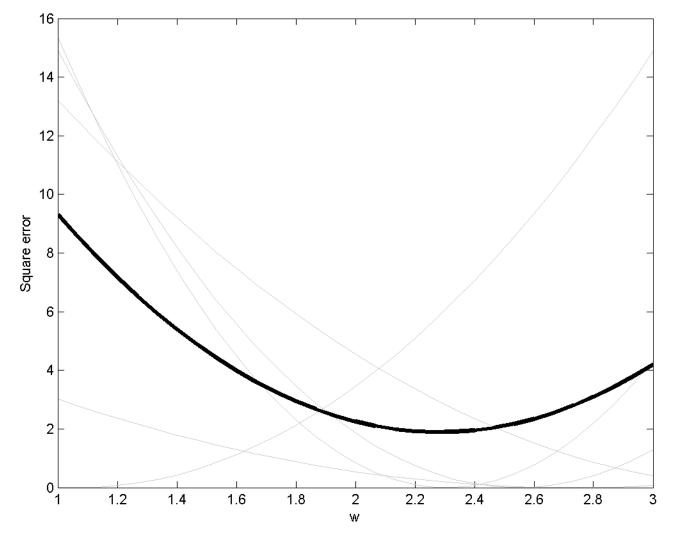
- For small values of n_b
- This update rule may converge in many fewer passes through the data (epochs)

Stochastic gradient descent example

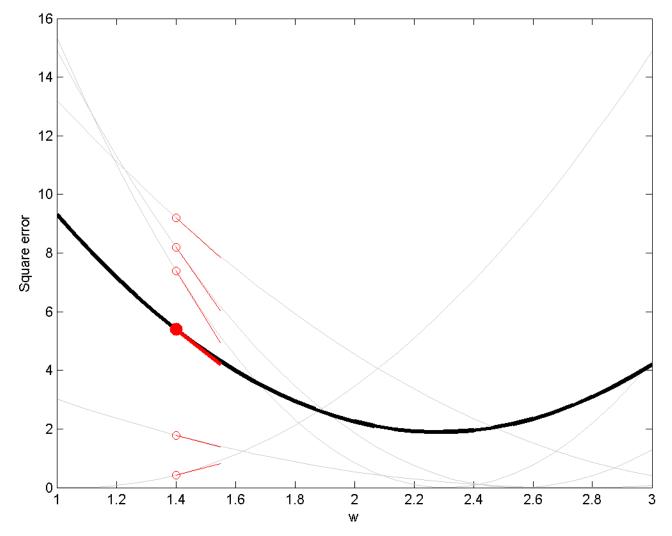


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Stochastic gradient descent error functions

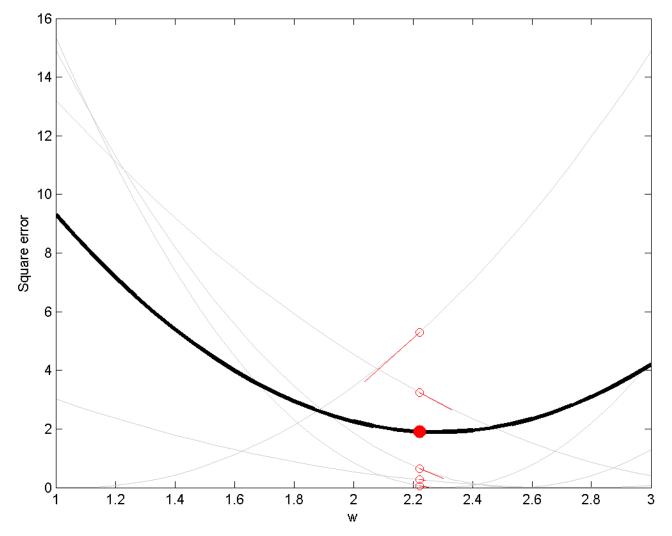


Stochastic gradient descent gradients

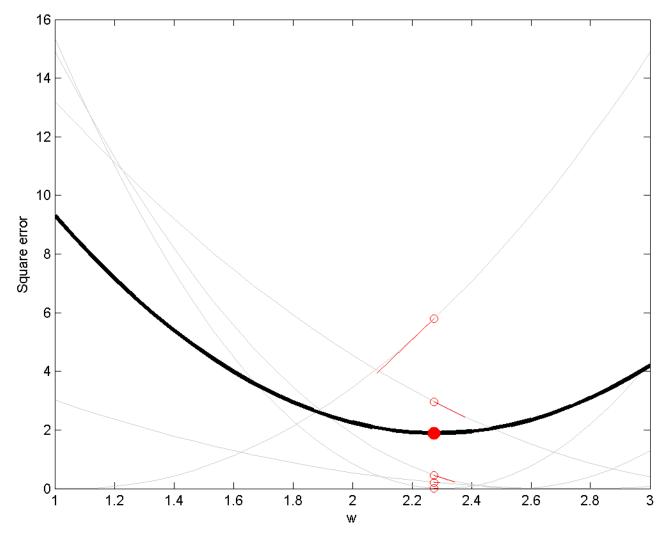


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Stochastic gradient descent animation



Gradient descent animation



Multi-variable LMS

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

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

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

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

Multi-variable LMS (cont.)

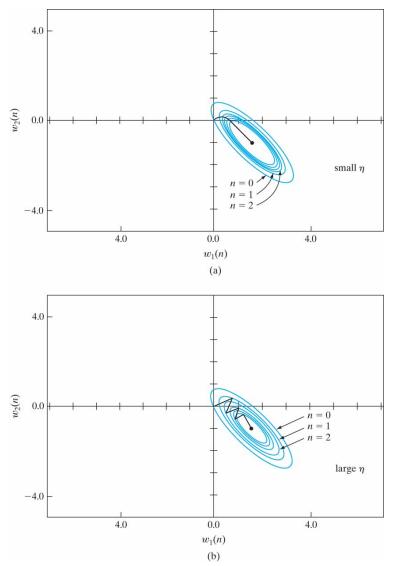
• The LMS algorithm

$$\mathbf{w}(n+1) = \mathbf{w}(n) - \eta \nabla \mathbf{E}(n)$$
$$= \mathbf{w}(n) + \eta e(n) \mathbf{x}(n)$$
$$= \mathbf{w}(n) + \eta [d(n) - y(n)] \mathbf{x}(n)$$

LMS algorithm remarks

- The LMS rule is exactly the same equation as the perceptron learning rule
- Perceptron learning is for nonlinear (M-P) neurons, whereas LMS learning is for linear neurons.
 - i.e., 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*(w) and leads to fast convergence.
 - But it is not online and is computationally expensive

Stability of adaptation



- When η is too small, learning converges slowly
- When η is too large, learning doesn't converge

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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.)

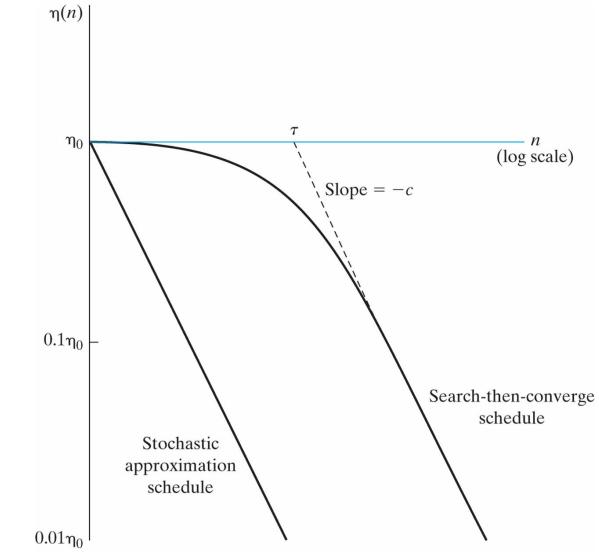
• Search-then-converge

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

 η_0 and τ are positive parameters

When *n* is small compared to *τ*, learning rate is approximately constant
When *n* is large compared to *τ*, learning rule schedule roughly follows stochastic approximation

Rate annealing illustration



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Nonlinear neurons

• To extend the LMS algorithm to nonlinear neurons, consider differentiable activation function φ at iteration *n*

$$E(n) = \frac{1}{2} [d(n) - y(n)]^2$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[d(n) - \varphi \left(\sum_j w_j x_j(n) \right) \right]^2$$

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.)

• Gradient descent gives

$$w_j(n+1) = w_j(n) + \eta e(n)\varphi'(v(n))x_j(n)$$
$$= w_j(n) + \eta \delta(n)x_j(n)$$

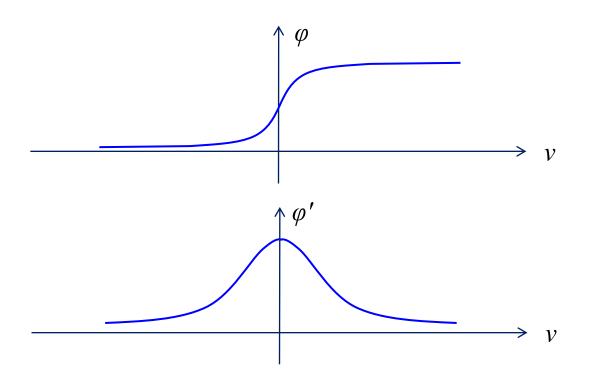
- The above is called the delta (δ) rule
- If we choose a logistic sigmoid for φ

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

then

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

Role of activation function



• The role of φ' : weight update is most sensitive when v is near zero