## CSE 5526: Introduction to Neural Networks

## Regression and the LMS Algorithm

## Problem statement



## Linear regression with one variable

- Given a set of $N$ pairs of data $\left\{x_{i}, d_{i}\right\}$, approximate $d$ by a linear function of $x$ (regressor)
i.e.

$$
\begin{aligned}
d & \approx w x+b \\
d_{i} & =y_{i}+\varepsilon_{i}=\varphi\left(w x_{i}+b\right)+\varepsilon_{i} \\
& =w x_{i}+b+\varepsilon_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

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

## Linear regression (cont.)

- 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:

$$
E=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \varepsilon_{i}^{2}=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(d_{i}-y_{i}\right)^{2}
$$

## Linear regression (cont.)

- To minimize the two-variable square function, set

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\frac{\partial E}{\partial b}=0 \\
\frac{\partial E}{\partial w}=0
\end{array}\right.
$$

## Linear regression (cont.)

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial E}{\partial b} & =\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial b}\left(d_{i}-w x_{i}-b\right)^{2} \\
& =-\sum_{i}\left(d_{i}-w x_{i}-b\right)=0 \\
\frac{\partial E}{\partial w} & =\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial w}\left(d_{i}-w x_{i}-b\right)^{2} \\
& =-\sum_{i}\left(d_{i}-w x_{i}-b\right) x_{i}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

## 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 $w$


## Linear regression (cont.)

- Hence

$$
\begin{gathered}
b=\frac{\left(\sum_{i} x_{i}^{2}\right)\left(\sum_{i} d_{i}\right)-\left(\sum_{i} x_{i}\right)\left(\sum_{i} x_{i} d_{i}\right)}{N \sum_{i}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}} \\
w=\frac{\sum_{i}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\left(d_{i}-\bar{d}\right)}{\sum_{i}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}}
\end{gathered}
$$

where an overbar (i.e. $\bar{X}$ ) indicates the mean

## Linear regression in matrix notation

- Let $\boldsymbol{X}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}\boldsymbol{x}_{1} & \boldsymbol{x}_{2} & \boldsymbol{x}_{\mathbf{3}} & \ldots \\ \boldsymbol{x}_{N}\end{array}\right]^{\boldsymbol{T}}$
- Then the model predictions are $\boldsymbol{y}=\boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{w}$
- And the mean square error can be written $E(\boldsymbol{w})=\|\boldsymbol{d}-\boldsymbol{y}\|^{2}=\|\boldsymbol{d}-\boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{w}\|^{2}$
- To find the optimal w, set the gradient of the error with respect to w equal to 0 and solve for w

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

- See The Matrix Cookbook (Petersen \& Pedersen)


## Linear regression in matrix notation

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}(\boldsymbol{d}-\boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{w})^{T}(\boldsymbol{d}-\boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{w}) \\
& =\frac{\boldsymbol{\partial}}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}} \boldsymbol{d}^{T} \boldsymbol{d}-\mathbf{2} \boldsymbol{w}^{T} \boldsymbol{X}^{T} \boldsymbol{d}+\boldsymbol{w}^{T} \boldsymbol{X}^{T} \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{w} \\
& =-2 \boldsymbol{X}^{T} \boldsymbol{d}-2 \boldsymbol{X}^{T} \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{w}
\end{aligned}
$$

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

$$
\Rightarrow \boldsymbol{w}=\left(\boldsymbol{X}^{T} \boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{T} \boldsymbol{d}
$$

- Much cleaner!


## Finding optimal parameters via search

- Often there is no closed form solution for $\frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}} E(\boldsymbol{w})=0$
- 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 $b=0$

$$
E(w)=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(d_{i}-w x_{i}\right)^{2}
$$

$E(w)$ 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 $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)^{T}$ is defined as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\nabla \mathrm{f} & =\left.\left(\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y}\right)^{T}\right|_{\substack{x=x_{0} \\
y=y_{0}}} \\
& =f_{x}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \mathrm{u}_{x}+f_{y}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \mathrm{u}_{y}
\end{aligned}
$$

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 $f_{y}=\partial f / \partial y$

## Gradient and directional derivatives (cont.)

- At any given direction, $\mathrm{u}=a \mathrm{u}_{x}+b \mathrm{u}_{y}$, with $\sqrt{a^{2}+b^{2}}=1$, the directional derivative at $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)^{T}$ along the unit vector $u$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
D_{\mathrm{u}} f_{x}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) & =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f\left(x_{0}+h a, y_{0}+h b\right)-f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\left[f\left(x_{0}+h a, y_{0}+h b\right)-f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}+h b\right)\right]+\left[f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}+h b\right)-f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)\right]}{h} \\
& =a f_{x}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)+b f_{y}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \\
& =\nabla \mathrm{f}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)^{T} \mathrm{u}
\end{aligned}
$$

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


## Gradient and directional derivatives (cont.)

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



## Gradient and directional derivatives (cont.)

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## Gradient and directional derivatives (cont.)

- 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

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

- And the gradient vector is perpendicular to the level curve


## Gradient and directional derivatives (cont.)

- 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 and linear neurons

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E(n)=\frac{1}{2} e^{2}(n)=\frac{1}{2}[d(n)-y(n)]^{2} \\
& \\
& =\frac{1}{2}[d(n)-w(n) x(n)]^{2} \\
& \nabla E(n)=\frac{\partial E}{\partial w(n)}=\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial e^{2}(n)}{\partial w(n)} \\
& \\
& =-e(n) x(n)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Gradient descent (cont.)

- Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
w(n+1) & =w(n)+\eta e(n) x(n) \\
& =w(n)+\eta[d(n)-y(n)] x(n)
\end{aligned}
$$

- 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

$$
\Delta \mathrm{w}=\frac{\partial}{\partial w} E(w)=\sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\partial}{\partial w} E_{n}(w)
$$

- 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



## Stochastic gradient descent error functions



## Stochastic gradient descent gradients



## Stochastic gradient descent animation



## Gradient descent animation



## Multi-variable LMS

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

$$
\begin{gathered}
E(n)=\frac{1}{2}\left[d(n)-\mathbf{w}^{T}(n) \mathbf{x}(n)\right]^{2} \\
\nabla E(\mathrm{w})=\left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{0}}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{1}}, \ldots, \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{m}}\right)^{T}
\end{gathered}
$$

where $w_{0}=b$ (bias) and $x_{0}=1$, as done for perceptron learning

## Multi-variable LMS (cont.)

- The LMS algorithm

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

## 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 $E(\mathrm{w})$ and leads to fast convergence.
- But it is not online and is computationally expensive


## Stability of adaptation


(a)

(b)

- When $\eta$ is too small, learning converges slowly
- 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 $\bullet$ When $n$ is large compared to $\tau$, learning rule 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 $n$

$$
\begin{aligned}
E(n) & =\frac{1}{2}[d(n)-y(n)]^{2} \\
& =\frac{1}{2}\left[d(n)-\varphi\left(\sum_{j} w_{j} x_{j}(n)\right)\right]^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Nonlinear neurons (cont.)

- By chain rule of differentiation

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{j}} & =\frac{\partial E}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \frac{\partial v}{\partial w_{j}} \\
& =-[d(n)-y(n)] \varphi^{\prime}(v(n)) x_{j}(n) \\
& =-e(n) \varphi^{\prime}(v(n)) x_{j}(n)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Nonlinear neurons (cont.)

- Gradient descent gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
w_{j}(n+1) & =w_{j}(n)+\eta e(n) \varphi^{\prime}(v(n)) x_{j}(n) \\
& =w_{j}(n)+\eta \delta(n) x_{j}(n)
\end{aligned}
$$

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

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

then

$$
\varphi^{\prime}(v)=a \varphi(v)[1-\varphi(v)] \quad \text { (see textbook) }
$$

## Role of activation function




- The role of $\varphi^{\prime}$ : weight update is most sensitive when $v$ is near zero

