

10-301/10-601 Introduction to Machine Learning

Machine Learning Department School of Computer Science Carnegie Mellon University

Stochastic Gradient Descent + Binary Logistic Regression

Geoff Gordon Lecture 9 with thanks to Matt Gormley

OPTIMIZATION METHOD #3: STOCHASTIC GRADIENT DESCENT

Gradient Descent

Algorithm 1 Gradient Descent

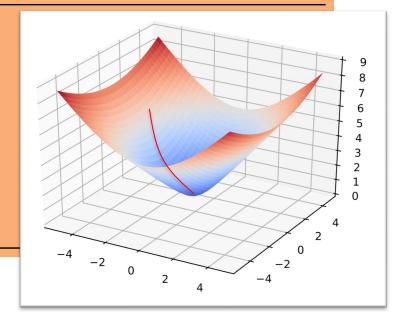
1: **procedure** $GD(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)})$

 $\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)}$

while not converged do 3:

 $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \gamma \nabla J(\theta)$

return θ

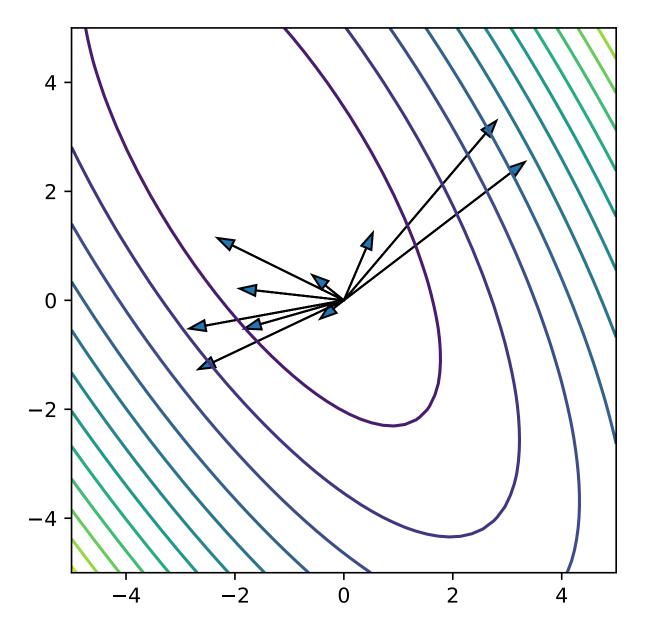


per-example objective:

$$J^{(i)}(oldsymbol{ heta})$$

full objective:
$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Gradient is an average



Contours: loss Arrows: individual negative gradient terms

Gradient Descent

Algorithm 1 Gradient Descent

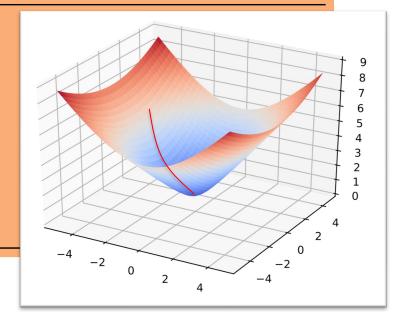
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Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

Algorithm 2 Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

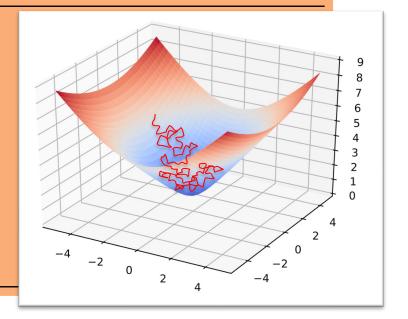
```
1: procedure SGD(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)})
                  \boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)}
```

while not converged do

 $i \sim \mathsf{Uniform}(\{1,2,\ldots,N\})$ 4:

 $\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} - \gamma \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ 5:

return θ 6:



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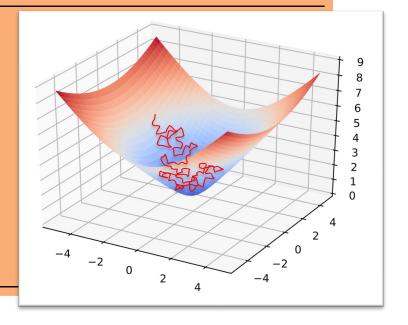
2:
$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)}$$

3: **while** not converged **do**

4: for
$$i \in \mathsf{shuffle}(\{1,2,\ldots,N\})$$
 do

5:
$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} - \gamma \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

6: return θ



per-example objective:

$$J^{(i)}(oldsymbol{ heta})$$

full objective:
$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

In practice, it is common to use sampling without replacement (i.e., shuffle({1,2,...N}), even though most of the theory is for sampling with replacement (i.e., Uniform({1,2,...N})

Why does SGD work?

Background: Expectation of a function of a random variable

For any discrete random variable X

$$E_X[f(X)] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(X = x) f(x)$$

Objective Function for SGD

We assume the form to be:

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Expectation of a Stochastic Gradient:

• If we sample examples uniformly at random, the expected value of the pointwise gradient is the same as the full gradient!

$$E[\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})] = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\text{probability of selecting } \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{y}^{(i)} \right) \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\frac{1}{N} \right) \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

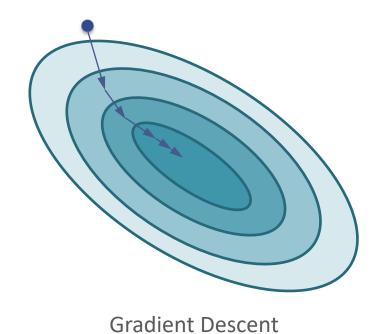
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

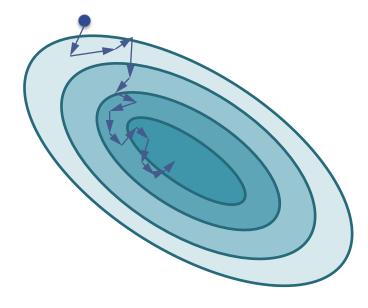
$$= \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

 If we randomly shuffle and loop through, each data point is used exactly equally often

SGD VS. GRADIENT DESCENT

SGD vs. Gradient Descent

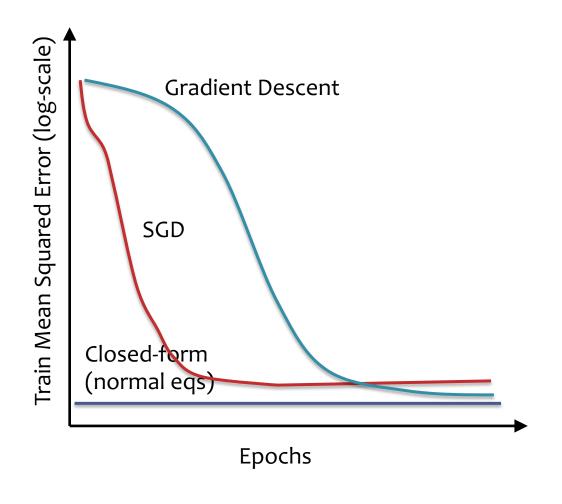




Stochastic Gradient Descent

SGD vs. Gradient Descent

• Empirical comparison:



- Def: an epoch is a single pass through the training data
- For GD, only one update per epoch
- For SGD, N updates
 per epoch
 N = (# train examples)
- SGD reduces MSE much more rapidly than GD
- For GD / SGD, training MSE is initially large due to uninformed initialization

SGD vs. Gradient Descent

Theoretical comparison:

Define convergence to be when $J(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) - J(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*) < \epsilon$

Method	Steps to Convergence	Computation per Step
Gradient descent	$O(\log 1/\epsilon)$	O(NM)
SGD	$o(1/\epsilon)$	O(M)

(with high probability under certain assumptions)

Main Takeaway: SGD takes many more steps, especially for small ϵ ; SGD takes much better time per step;

 \dots at ϵ we care about, tradeoff is that SGD can be much faster

SGD FOR LINEAR REGRESSION

Linear Regression as Function Approximation

$$\mathcal{D}=\{\mathbf{x}^{(i)},y^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^N$$
 where $\mathbf{x}\in\mathbb{R}^M$ and $y\in\mathbb{R}$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \sim p^*(\cdot)$$
$$y^{(i)} = h^*(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

2. Choose hypothesis space, \mathcal{H} : all linear functions in M-dimensional space

$$\mathcal{H} = \{h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} : h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^M \}$$

3. Choose an objective function: mean squared error (MSE)

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} e_i^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(y^{(i)} - h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \right)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(y^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} \right)^2$$

- 4. Solve the unconstrained optimization problem via favorite method:
 - gradient descent
 - closed form
 - stochastic gradient descent

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

5. Test time: given a new x, make prediction \hat{y}

$$\hat{y} = h_{\hat{m{ heta}}}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{m{ heta}}^T \mathbf{x}$$

Gradient Calculation for Linear Regression

Derivative of
$$J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$
:
$$\frac{d}{d\theta_k}J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{d}{d\theta_k}\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^T\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{d\theta_k}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^T\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^2$$

$$= (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})\frac{d}{d\theta_k}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^T\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})$$

$$= (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})\frac{d}{d\theta_k}\left(\sum_{j=1}^K \theta_j x_j^{(i)} - y^{(i)}\right)$$

$$= (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})x^{(i)}$$

$$\begin{split} \frac{d}{d\theta_k} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \frac{d}{d\theta_k} \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{d\theta_k} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^2 \\ &= (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \frac{d}{d\theta_k} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \\ &= (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \frac{d}{d\theta_k} \left(\sum_{j=1}^K \theta_j x_j^{(i)} - y^{(i)} \right) \\ &= (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x_k^{(i)} \end{split}$$

Gradient of
$$J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$
 [used by SGD]
$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{d}{d\theta_1} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ \frac{d}{d\theta_2} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{d}{d\theta_M} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x_1^{(i)} \\ (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x_2^{(i)} \\ \vdots \\ (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x_N^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} = (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x_N^{(i)}$$

Derivative of
$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$
:
$$\frac{d}{d\theta_k}J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{d}{d\theta_k}J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$
$$= \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^N (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})x_k^{(i)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & = (\boldsymbol{\theta} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \boldsymbol{x}_{k}^{(i)} \\ & \text{dient of } J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \end{aligned} \qquad \begin{aligned} & \text{[used by SGD]} \\ & \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) & = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{d}{d\theta_{1}} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ \frac{d}{d\theta_{2}} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{d}{d\theta_{M}} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \boldsymbol{x}_{1}^{(i)} \\ (\boldsymbol{\theta}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \boldsymbol{x}_{2}^{(i)} \\ \vdots \\ (\boldsymbol{\theta}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \boldsymbol{x}_{N}^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \boldsymbol{x}_{1}^{(i)} \\ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \boldsymbol{x}_{M}^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} \\ & = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \boldsymbol{x}_{M}^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \boldsymbol{x}_{M}^{(i)}$$

SGD for Linear Regression

SGD applied to Linear Regression is called the "Least Mean Squares" algorithm

```
Algorithm 1 Least Mean Squares (LMS)

1: procedure LMS(\mathcal{D}, \theta^{(0)})

2: \theta \leftarrow \theta^{(0)} > Initialize parameters

3: while not converged do

4: for i \in \text{shuffle}(\{1, 2, \dots, N\}) do

5: \mathbf{g} \leftarrow (\theta^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \mathbf{x}^{(i)} > Compute gradient

6: \theta \leftarrow \theta - \gamma \mathbf{g} > Update parameters

7: return \theta
```

GD for Linear Regression

Gradient Descent for Linear Regression repeatedly takes steps opposite the gradient of the objective function

Algorithm 1 GD for Linear Regression 1: procedure GDLR(\mathcal{D} , $\theta^{(0)}$) 2: $\theta \leftarrow \theta^{(0)}$ > Initialize parameters 3: while not converged do 4: $\mathbf{g} \leftarrow \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\theta^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ > Compute gradient 5: $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \gamma \mathbf{g}$ > Update parameters 6: return θ

Optimization (Learning) Objectives

You should be able to...

- Apply gradient descent to optimize a function
- Apply stochastic gradient descent (SGD) to optimize a function
- Set gradient to zero to identify a closed-form solution (if one exists) to an optimization problem
- Distinguish between (strictly/non-strictly) convex, concave, and nonconvex functions
- Obtain the gradient (and Hessian) of a (twice) differentiable function

PROBABILISTIC LEARNING

Probabilistic Learning

Function Approximation

Previously, we assumed that our output was generated using a **deterministic target function**:

$$\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \sim p^*(\cdot)$$

$$y^{(i)} = c^*(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

Our goal was to learn a hypothesis h(x) that best approximates $c^*(x)$

Probabilistic Learning

Today, we assume that our output is sampled from a conditional probability distribution:

$$\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \sim p^*(\cdot)$$

$$y^{(i)} \sim p^*(\cdot|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

Our goal is to learn conditional probability distributions p(y|x) that best approximate $p^*(y|x)$

MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ESTIMATION

Likelihood Function

One R.V. per example

Given N independent, identically distributed (iid) samples $D = \{x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, ..., x^{(N)}\}$ from a discrete random variable X with probability mass function (pmf) $p(x|\theta)$...

• Case 1: The **likelihood** function $L(\theta) = p(x^{(1)}|\theta) p(x^{(2)}|\theta) \dots p(x^{(N)}|\theta)$ The **likelihood** tells us how likely one sample is relative to another

• Case 2: The log-likelihood function is $\ell(\theta) = \log p(x^{(1)}|\theta) + ... + \log p(x^{(N)}|\theta)$

Likelihood Function

Two R.V.s per example

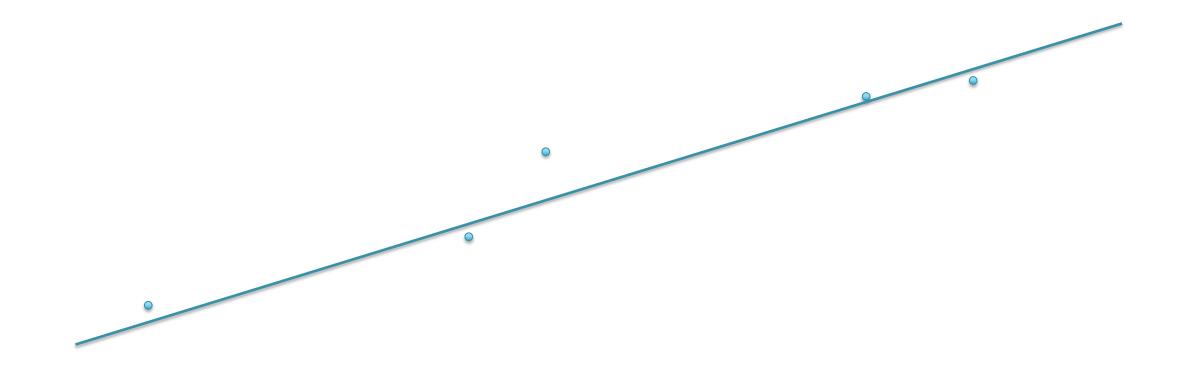
Given N iid samples D = $\{(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), ..., (x^{(N)}, y^{(N)})\}$ from a pair of random variables X, Y where Y is discrete with probability mass function (pmf) $p(y \mid x, \theta)$

• Case 3: The **conditional likelihood** function:

$$L(\theta) = p(y^{(1)} | x^{(1)}, \theta) ... p(y^{(N)} | x^{(N)}, \theta)$$

• Case 4: The conditional log-likelihood function is $\ell(\theta) = \log p(y^{(1)} | x^{(1)}, \theta) + ... + \log p(y^{(N)} | x^{(N)}, \theta)$

E.g., linear regression



We've been thinking of linear regression as just function optimization Could give it a conditional probability interpretation too: $p(y \mid x)$ is high near the line, low away from the line (we'll see later that the two interpretations can be equivalent)

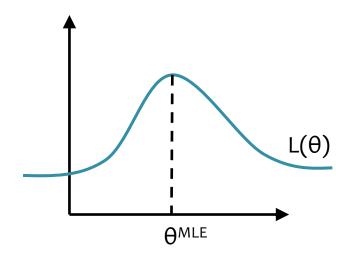
Suppose we have data $\mathcal{D} = \{x^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^{N}$

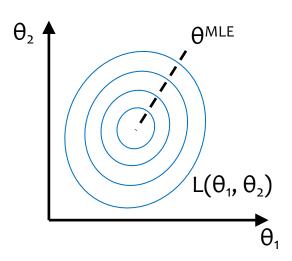
Principle of Maximum Likelihood Estimation:

Choose the parameters that maximize the likelihood of the data. N

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathsf{MLE}} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \prod_{i=1}^{r} p(\mathbf{x}^{(i)} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE)





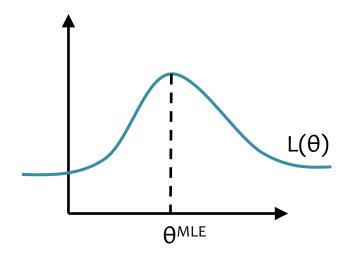
Suppose we have data $\mathcal{D} = \{(y^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^{N}$

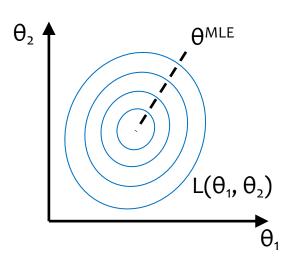
Principle of Maximum Likelihood Estimation:

Choose the parameters that maximize the conditional likelihood of the data. N

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathsf{MLE}} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(y^{(i)} \mid \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE)





Suppose we have data $\mathcal{D} = \{(y^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^{N}$

Principle of Maximum Likelihood Estimation:

Choose the parameters that maximize the conditional log-likelihood

of the data.

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathsf{MLE}} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \prod_{i=1} p(y^{(i)} \mid \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$= \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p(y^{(i)} \mid \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Suppose we have data $\mathcal{D} = \{(y^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^N$

Principle of Maximum Likelihood Estimation:

Choose the parameters that minimize the negative conditional log-

likelihood of the data.
$$\pmb{\theta}^{\mathsf{MLE}} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\pmb{\theta}} \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(y^{(i)} \mid \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \pmb{\theta})$$

$$= \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p(y^{(i)} \mid \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

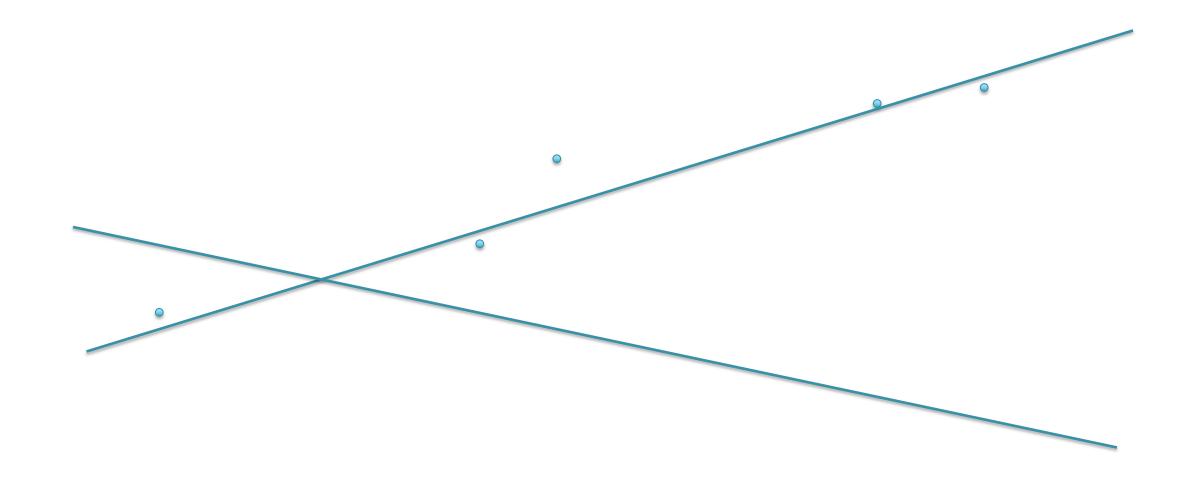
$$= \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p(y^{(i)} \mid \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

What does maximizing likelihood accomplish?

- There is only a finite amount of probability mass (due to sum-to-one constraint)
- MLE tries to allocate as much probability mass as possible to the things we have observed...

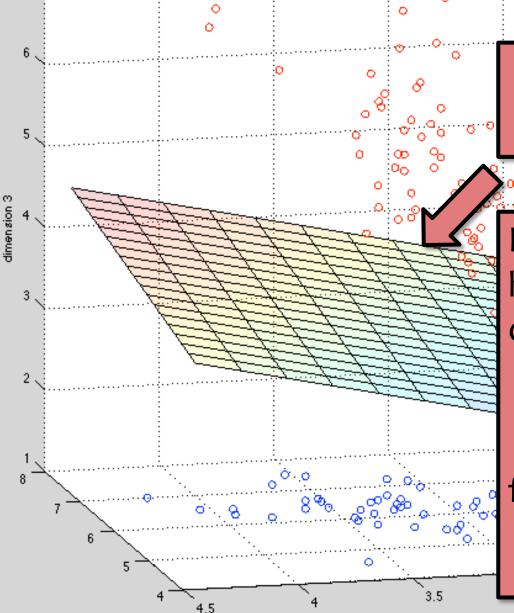
... at the expense of the things we have not observed

For example, linear regression MLE



LOGISTIC REGRESSION

Linear Models for Classification



Key idea: Try to learn this hyperplane directly

Directly modeling the hyperplane would use a decision function:

$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x})$$

for:

$$y \in \{-1, +1\}$$

Background: Hyperplanes

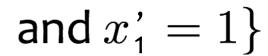
Notation Trick: fold the bias b and the weights w into a single vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ by prepending a constant to x and increasing dimensionality by one to get x'!

Hyperplane (Definition 1):

$$\mathcal{H} = \{ \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = 0 \}$$

Hyperplane (Definition 2):

$$\mathcal{H} = \{\mathbf{x}': \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}' = 0\}$$



$$m{ heta} = [b, w_1, \dots, w_M]^T$$

 $\mathbf{x}' = [1, x_1, \dots, x_M]^T$

Half-spaces:

$$\mathcal{H}^+ = \{\mathbf{x} : \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x} > 0 \text{ and } x_0^1 = 1\}$$

$$\mathcal{H}^- = \{\mathbf{x} : \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x} < 0 \text{ and } x_0^1 = 1\}$$

Using gradient descent for linear classifiers

Key idea behind today's lecture:

- 1. Define a linear classifier (logistic regression)
- 2. Define an objective function (likelihood)
- 3. Optimize it with gradient descent to learn parameters
- 4. Predict the class with highest probability under the model

Data: Inputs are continuous vectors of length M. Outputs are discrete.

$$\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^N$$
 where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^M$ and $y \in \{0, 1\}$

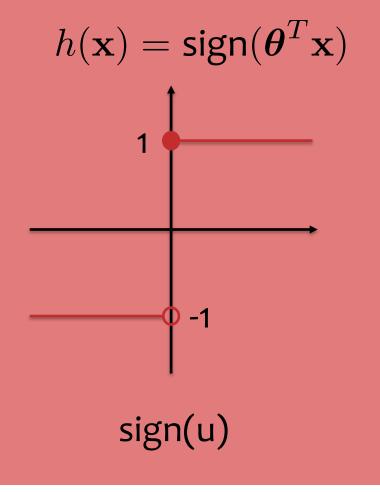


We are back to classification.

Despite the name logistic **regression**.

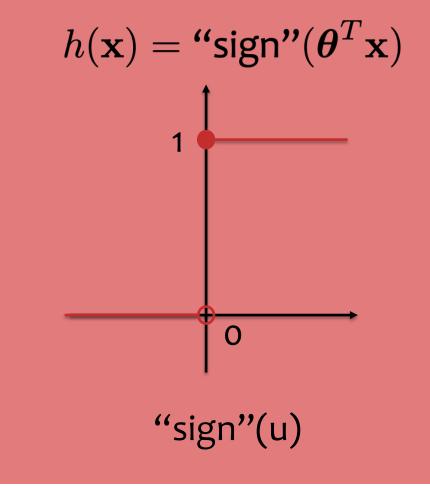
$sign(\cdot) vs. sigmoid(\cdot)$

Suppose we wanted to learn a linear classifier, but instead of predicting $y \in \{-1,+1\}$ we wanted to predict $y \in \{0,1\}$



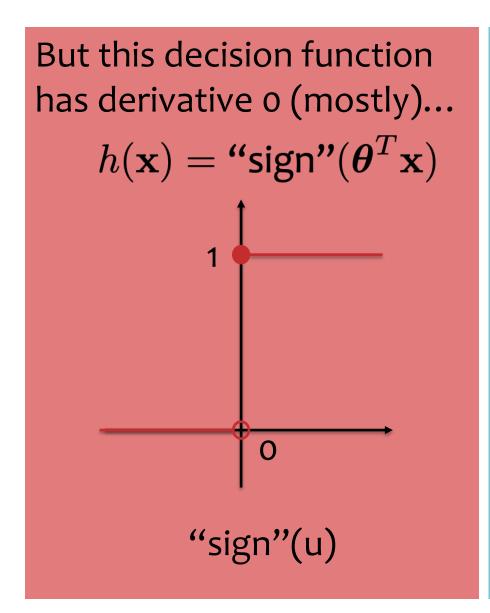
$sign(\cdot) vs. sigmoid(\cdot)$

Suppose we wanted to learn a linear classifier, but instead of predicting $y \in \{-1,+1\}$ we wanted to predict $y \in \{0,1\}$



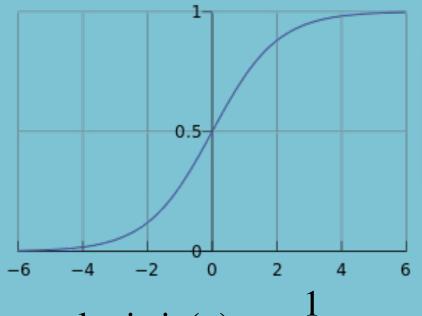
Goal: Learn a linear classifier with Gradient Descent

$sign(\cdot) vs. sigmoid(\cdot)$



Use a smoother function instead!

$$p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(y=1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x})}$$



$$logistic(u) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-u}}$$

The logistic function is also called the sigmoid function.

Data: Inputs are continuous vectors of length M. Outputs are discrete.

$$\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^N$$
 where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^M$ and $y \in \{0, 1\}$

Model: Logistic function applied to dot product of parameters with input vector.

$$p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(y=1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x})}$$

Learning: finds the parameters that minimize some objective function. ${m heta}^* = \mathop{\rm argmin}_{m heta} J({m heta})$

Prediction: Output is the most probable class.

$$\hat{y} = \operatorname*{argmax} p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(y|\mathbf{x})$$
$$y \in \{0,1\}$$

Learning Logistic Regression

Learning: Four approaches to solving $\theta^* = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} J(\theta)$

Approach o: Random Search (horridly slow because it lacks gradient information)

Approach 1: Gradient Descent (take large confident steps opposite the gradient)

Approach 2: Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) (take many small steps roughly opposite the gradient)

Approach Closed Form

(set derivatives equal to zero and solve for parameters)

Logistic Regression does not have a closed form solution for MLE parameters.

1. Model 2. Objective

3A. Derivatives

3B. Gradients

4. Optimization

5. Prediction