CSCI567 Machine Learning (Fall 2024)

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University of Southern California

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Outline

1. Linear regression
2. Linear regression with nonlinear basis
3. Overfitting and preventing overfitting
4. A Detour of Numerical Optimization Methods

Regression

Predicting a continuous outcome variable using past observations

- Predicting future temperature (last lecture)
- Predicting the amount of rainfall
- Predicting the demand of a product
- Predicting the sale price of a house
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- continuous vs discrete
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- lead to quite different learning algorithms.

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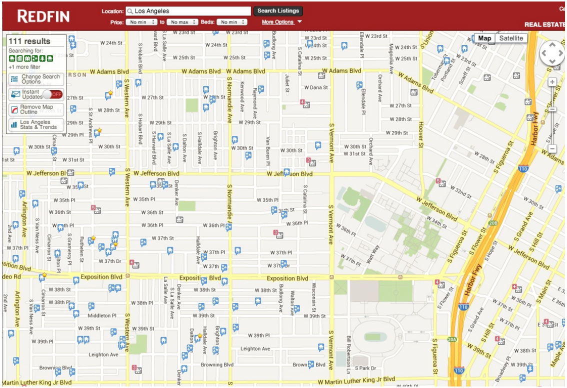
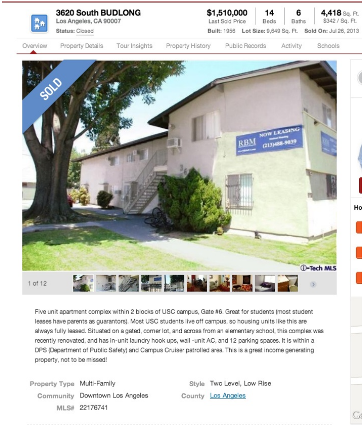
Linear Regression: regression with linear models

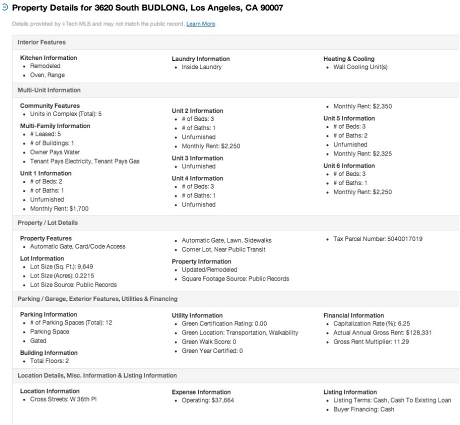
Ex: Predicting the sale price of a house

Retrieve historical sales records (training data)



Features used to predict





Property Details for 3620 South BUDLONG, Los Angeles, CA 90007

Details provided by i-Tech MLS and may not match the public record. Learn More.

Interior Features

Kitchen Information
- Remodeled
- Oven, Range

Laundry Information
- Inside Laundry

Heating & Cooling
- Wall Cooling Unit(s)

Multi-Unit Information

Community Features
- Units in Complex (Total): 5

Multi-Family Information
- # Leased: 5
- # of Buildings: 1
- Owner Pays Water
- Tenant Pays Electricity, Tenant Pays Gas

Unit 1 Information
- # of Beds: 2
- # of Baths: 1
- Unfurnished
- Monthly Rent: $1,700

Unit 2 Information
- # of Beds: 3
- # of Baths: 1
- Unfurnished
- Monthly Rent: $2,250

Unit 3 Information
- Unfurnished

Unit 4 Information
- # of Beds: 3
- # of Baths: 1
- Unfurnished
- Monthly Rent: $2,350

Unit 5 Information
- # of Beds: 3
- # of Baths: 2
- Unfurnished
- Monthly Rent: $2,325

Unit 6 Information
- # of Beds: 3
- # of Baths: 1
- Monthly Rent: $2,250

Property / Lot Details

Property Features
- Automatic Gate, Card/Code Access
- Automatic Gate, Lawn, Sidewalks
- Corner Lot, Near Public Transit

Lot Information
- Lot Size (Sq. Ft.): 9,649
- Lot Size (Acres): 0.2215
- Lot Size Source: Public Records

Property Information
- Updated/Remodeled
- Square Footage Source: Public Records
- Tax Parcel Number: 5040017019

Parking / Garage, Exterior Features, Utilities & Financing

Parking Information
- # of Parking Spaces (Total): 12
- Parking Space
- Gated

Building Information
- Total Floors: 2

Utility Information
- Green Certification Rating: 0.00
- Green Location: Transportation, Walkability
- Green Walk Score: 0
- Green Year Certified: 0

Financial Information
- Capitalization Rate (%): 6.25
- Actual Annual Gross Rent: $128,331
- Gross Rent Multiplier: 11.29

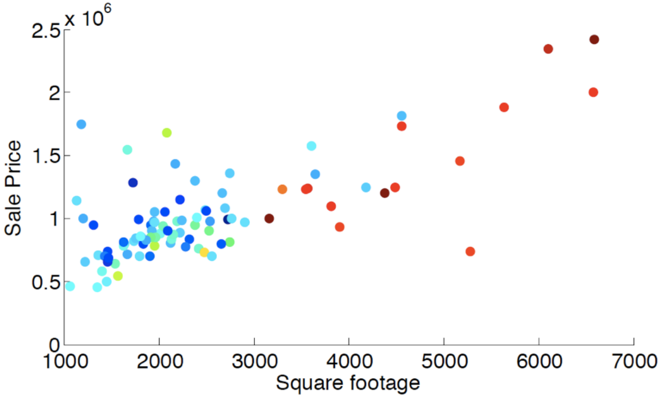
Location Details, Misc. Information & Listing Information

Location Information
- Cross Streets: W 36th Pl

Expense Information
- Operating: $37,664

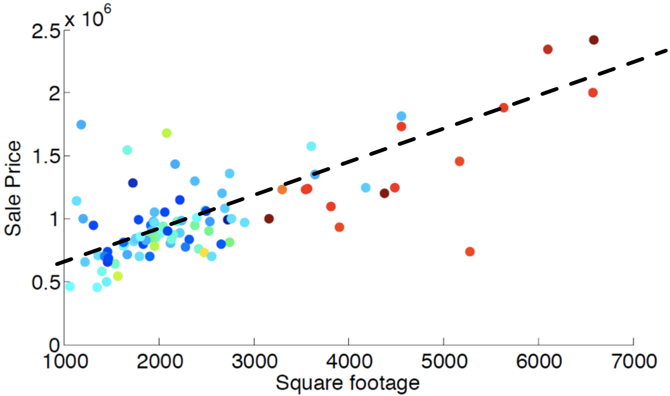
Listing Information
- Listing Terms: Cash, Cash To Existing Loan
- Buyer Financing: Cash

Correlation between square footage and sale price



Possibly linear relationship

Sale price ≈ **price_per_sqft** × square_footage + **fixed_expense**



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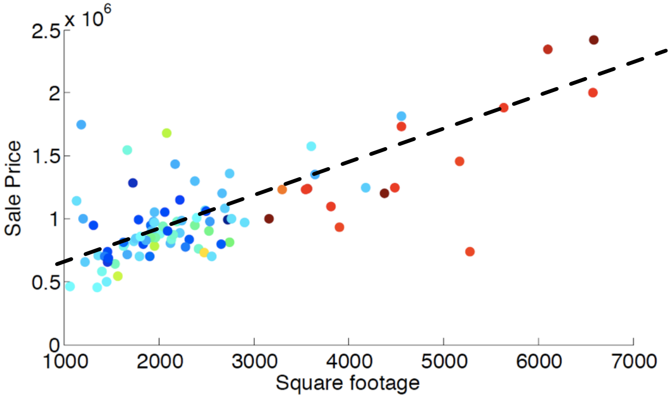
(*slope*) (*intercept*)



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- training set ✓

Example

Predicted price = **price_per_sqft** × square_footage + **fixed_expense**

one model: price_per_sqft = 0.3K, fixed_expense = 210K

sqft	sale price (K)	prediction (K)	squared error
2000	810	810	0
2100	907	840	67^2
1100	312	540	228^2
5500	2,600	1,860	740^2
$\cdots$	$\cdots$	$\cdots$	$\cdots$
Total			$0 + 67^2 + 228^2 + 740^2 + \cdots$

Adjust price_per_sqft and fixed_expense such that the total squared error is minimized.

Formal setup for linear regression

Input: $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}}$ (features, covariates, context, predictors, etc)

Output: $y \in \mathbb{R}$ (responses, targets, outcomes, etc)

Training data: $\mathcal{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_n, y_n), n = 1, 2, \ldots, \mathsf{N}\}$

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- the model becomes simply $f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}^{\mathbf{T}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}$
- sometimes just use $\boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{x}, \mathsf{D}$ for $\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}, \mathsf{D} + 1$!

Goal

Minimize total squared error

$$\sum_n (f(\boldsymbol{x}_n) - y_n)^2 = \sum_n (\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_n^{\mathrm{T}} \tilde{\boldsymbol{w}} - y_n)^2$$

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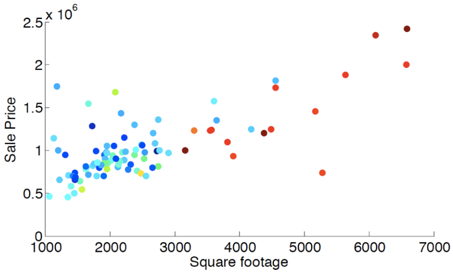
- *reduce machine learning to optimization*

- in principle can apply any optimization algorithm, but linear regression admits a *closed-form solution*

Warm-up: $\mathsf{D} = 0$

Only one parameter w_0: constant prediction $f(x) = w_0$



f is a horizontal line, where should it be?

Warm-up: $D = 0$

Optimization objective becomes

$$\mathrm{RSS}(w_0) = \sum_n (w_0 - y_n)^2 \qquad \text{(it's a } \textit{quadratic } aw_0^2 + bw_0 + c\text{)}$$

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\end{aligned}$$

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Exercise: what if we use absolute error instead of squared error?

Warm-up: D $= 1$

Optimization objective becomes

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General approach: find *stationary points*, i.e., points with *zero gradient*

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \mathrm{RSS}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}})}{\partial w_0} = 0 \\ \frac{\partial \mathrm{RSS}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}})}{\partial w_1} = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{ll} \sum_n (w_0 + w_1 x_n - y_n) & = 0 \\ \sum_n (w_0 + w_1 x_n - y_n) x_n & = 0 \end{array}$$

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$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} N & \sum_n x_n \\ \sum_n x_n & \sum_n x_n^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_n y_n \\ \sum_n x_n y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Least square solution for D = 1

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} w_0^* \\ w_1^* \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} N & \sum_n x_n \\ \sum_n x_n & \sum_n x_n^2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \sum_n y_n \\ \sum_n x_n y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

(assuming the matrix is invertible)

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- not true in general

General least square solution

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Again, find stationary points (**multivariate calculus**)

$$\nabla \mathrm{RSS}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}) = 2 \sum_n \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_n (\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_n^{\mathrm{T}} \tilde{\boldsymbol{w}} - y_n)$$

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Again, find stationary points (**multivariate calculus**)

$$\nabla \mathrm{RSS}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}) = 2 \sum_n \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_n (\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_n^{\mathrm{T}} \tilde{\boldsymbol{w}} - y_n) \propto \left(\sum_n \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_n \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_n^{\mathrm{T}} \right) \tilde{\boldsymbol{w}} - \sum_n \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_n y_n$$

General least square solution

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when $\mathsf{D} = 0$**:** $(\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}})^{-1} = \frac{1}{N}$, $\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{y} = \sum_n y_n$

Another approach

RSS is a **quadratic**, so let's complete the square:

$$\mathrm{RSS}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}) = \sum_n (\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}^{\mathrm{T}} \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_n - y_n)^2 = \|\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}} - \boldsymbol{y}\|_2^2$$

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So $\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}^* = (\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}})^{-1}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{y}$ is the minimizer.

Computational complexity

Bottleneck of computing

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}^* = \left(\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}\right)^{-1}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{y}$$

is to invert the matrix $\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}} \in \mathbb{R}^{(\mathsf{D}+1)\times(\mathsf{D}+1)}$

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- there are many faster approaches (such as conjugate gradient)

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- no solution ($\Rightarrow$ RSS has no minimizer? ✗)
- or infinitely many solutions ($\Rightarrow$ infinitely many minimizers ✓)

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sqft	sale price
1000	500K

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sqft	sale price
1000	500K

Any line passing this single point is a minimizer of RSS.

How about the following?

$\mathsf{D} = 1, \mathsf{N} = 2$

sqft	sale price
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Any line passing **the average** is a minimizer of RSS.

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$\mathsf{D} = 2, \mathsf{N} = 3$**?**

sqft	#bedroom	sale price
1000	2	500K
1500	3	700K
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$D = 2, N = 3$**?**

sqft	#bedroom	sale price
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Again *infinitely many minimizers*.

How to resolve this issue?

Intuition: what does inverting $\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}$ do?

eigendecomposition: $$\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}} = \boldsymbol{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \lambda_{\mathsf{D}} & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_{\mathsf{D}+1} \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{U}$$

where $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \lambda_{\mathsf{D}+1} \geq 0$ are **eigenvalues**.

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$$\textbf{inverse}: \quad (\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}})^{-1} = \boldsymbol{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda_1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda_2} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \frac{1}{\lambda_{\mathsf{D}}} & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda_{\mathsf{D}+1}} \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{U}$$

i.e. just invert the eigenvalues

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$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I} = \boldsymbol{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 + \lambda & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 + \lambda & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \lambda_{\mathsf{D}} + \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_{\mathsf{D}+1} + \lambda \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{U}$$

where $\lambda > 0$ and $\boldsymbol{I}$ is the identity matrix.

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where $\lambda > 0$ and $\boldsymbol{I}$ is the identity matrix. Now it is invertible:

$$(\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}} + \lambda\boldsymbol{I})^{-1} = \boldsymbol{U}^{\mathrm{T}}\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda_1+\lambda} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda_2+\lambda} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \frac{1}{\lambda_{\mathsf{D}}+\lambda} & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda_{\mathsf{D}+1}+\lambda} \end{bmatrix}\boldsymbol{U}$$

Fix the problem

The solution becomes

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}^* = \left(\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I}\right)^{-1} \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{y}$$

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λ is a *hyper-parameter*, can be tuned by cross-validation.

Comparison to NNC

Non-parametric versus Parametric

- **Non-parametric methods**: the size of the model *grows* with the size of the training set.
  - e.g. NNC, the training set itself needs to be kept in order to predict. Thus, the size of the model is the size of the training set.

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  - e.g. NNC, the training set itself needs to be kept in order to predict. Thus, the size of the model is the size of the training set.
- **Parametric methods**: the size of the model does *not grow* with the size of the training set N.
  - e.g. linear regression, $D+1$ parameters, independent of N.

Outline

1 Linear regression

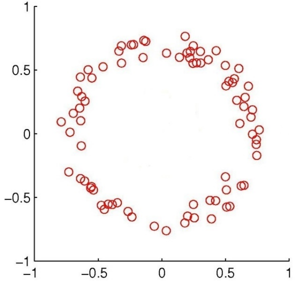
2 Linear regression with nonlinear basis

3 Overfitting and preventing overfitting

4 A Detour of Numerical Optimization Methods

What if linear model is not a good fit?

Example: a straight line is a bad fit for the following data



Solution: nonlinearly transformed features

1. Use a nonlinear mapping

$$\boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}) : \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D \to \boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbb{R}^M$$

to transform the data to a more complicated feature space

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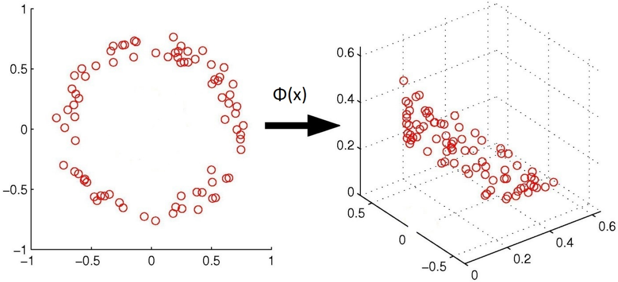

Regression with nonlinear basis

Model: $f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x})$ where $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^M$

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Similar least square solution:

$$\boldsymbol{w}^* = \left(\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{\Phi}\right)^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{y} \quad \text{where} \quad \boldsymbol{\Phi} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_1)^{\mathrm{T}} \\ \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_2)^{\mathrm{T}} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_N)^{\mathrm{T}} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N\times M}$$

Example

Polynomial basis functions for $\mathrm{D} = 1$

$$\boldsymbol{\phi}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x \\ x^2 \\ \vdots \\ x^M \end{bmatrix} \quad \Rightarrow \quad f(x) = w_0 + \sum_{m=1}^{M} w_m x^m$$

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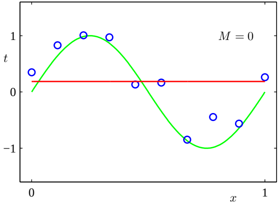
Learning a linear model in the new space
= learning an *M-degree polynomial model* in the original space

Example

Fitting a noisy sine function with a polynomial ($M = 0, 1,$ or 3):



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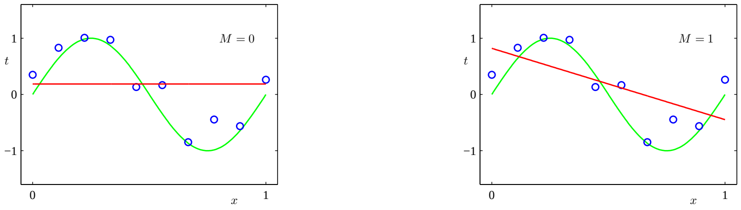

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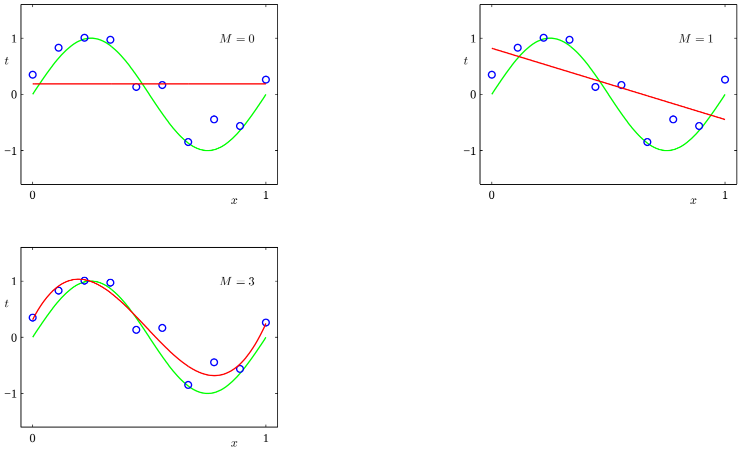

Why nonlinear?

Can I use a fancy **linear feature map**?

$$\boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - x_2 \\ 3x_4 - x_3 \\ 2x_1 + x_4 + x_5 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x} \quad \text{for some } \boldsymbol{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{M}\times\mathsf{D}}$$

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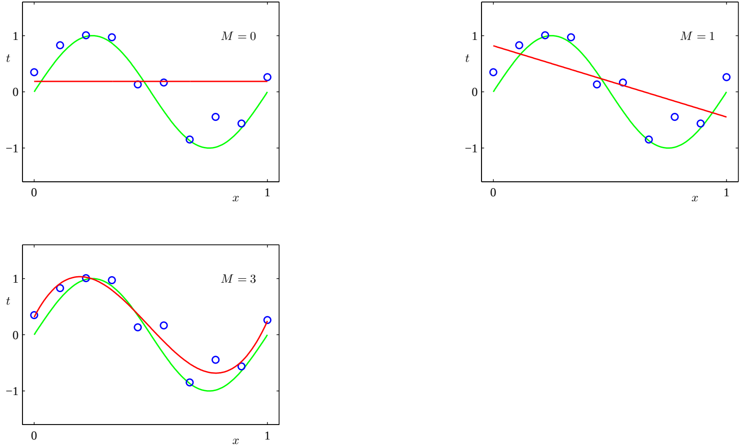
We will see more nonlinear mappings soon.

Outline

1. Linear regression
2. Linear regression with nonlinear basis
3. Overfitting and preventing overfitting
4. A Detour of Numerical Optimization Methods

Should we use a very complicated mapping?

Ex: fitting a noisy sine function with a polynomial:



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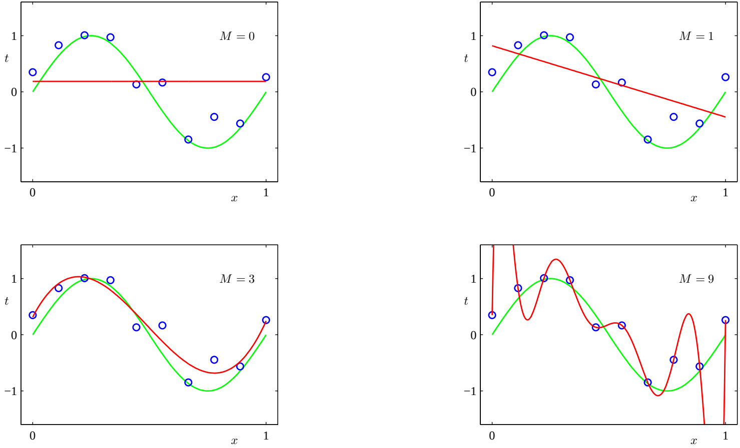

Underfitting and Overfitting

$M \leq 2$ is *underfitting* the data

- large training error
- large test error

$M \geq 9$ is *overfitting* the data

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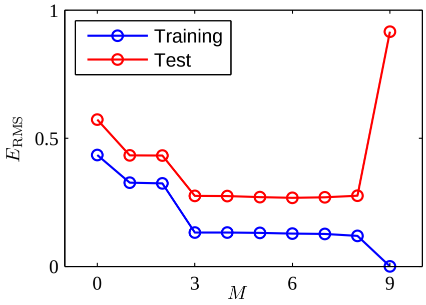

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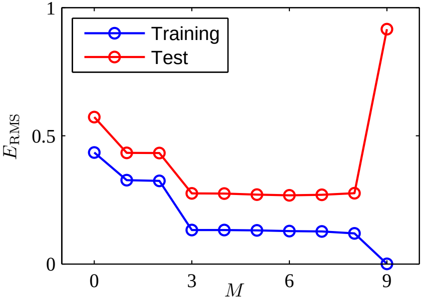

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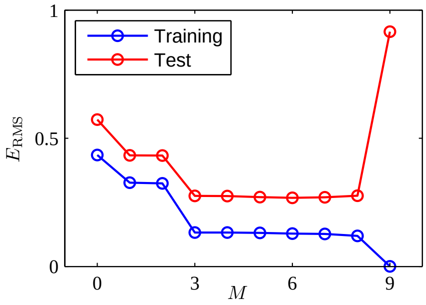

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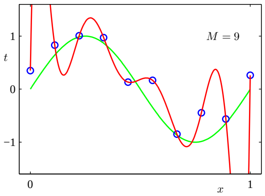
How to prevent overfitting?

Method 1: use more training data

The more, the merrier



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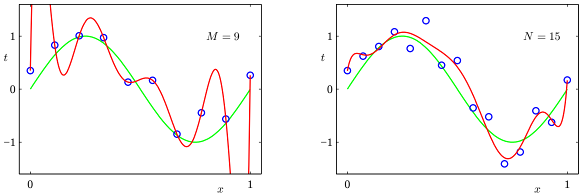

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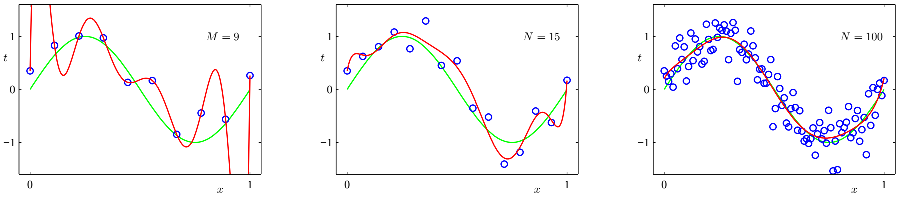

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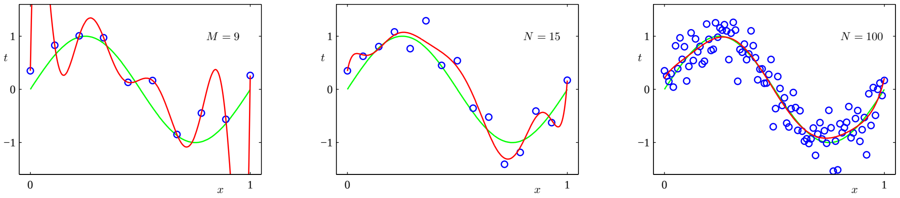

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Method 2: control the model complexity

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- use cross-validation to pick hyper-parameter M

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When M or in general Φ is fixed, are there still other ways to control complexity?

Magnitude of weights

Least square solution for the polynomial example:

	$M = 0$	$M = 1$	$M = 3$	$M = 9$
w_0	0.19	0.82	0.31	0.35
w_1		-1.27	7.99	232.37
w_2			-25.43	-5321.83
w_3			17.37	48568.31
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Intuitively, **large weights $\Rightarrow$ more complex model**

How to make $\boldsymbol{w}$ small?

Regularized linear regression: new objective

$$\mathcal{E}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \mathrm{RSS}(\boldsymbol{w}) + \lambda R(\boldsymbol{w})$$

Goal: find $\boldsymbol{w}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_w \mathcal{E}(\boldsymbol{w})$

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  - common choices: $\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_2^2$, $\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_1$, etc.
- $\lambda > 0$ is the *regularization coefficient*
  - $\lambda = 0$, no regularization
  - $\lambda \to +\infty$, $\boldsymbol{w} \to \operatorname{argmin}_w R(\boldsymbol{w})$
  - i.e. control **trade-off** between training error and complexity

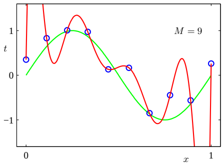
The effect of λ

when we increase regularization coefficient λ

	$\ln\lambda = -\infty$	$\ln\lambda = -18$	$\ln\lambda = 0$
w_0	0.35	0.35	0.13
w_1	232.37	4.74	-0.05
w_2	-5321.83	-0.77	-0.06
w_3	48568.31	-31.97	-0.06
w_4	-231639.30	-3.89	-0.03
w_5	640042.26	55.28	-0.02
w_6	-1061800.52	41.32	-0.01
w_7	1042400.18	-45.95	-0.00
w_8	-557682.99	-91.53	0.00
w_9	125201.43	72.68	0.01

The trade-off

when we increase regularization coefficient λ



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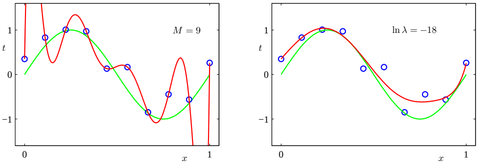

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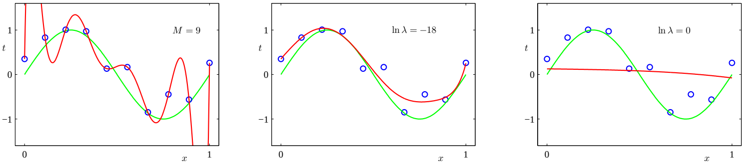

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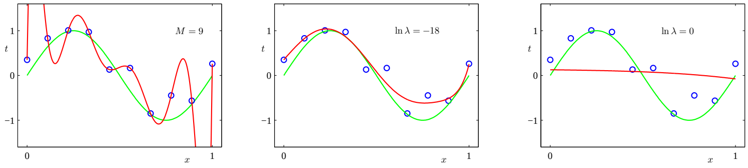

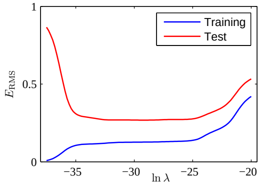

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For other regularizers, as long as it's **convex**, standard optimization algorithms can be applied.

Equivalent form

Regularization is also sometimes formulated as

$$\operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{w}} \mathrm{RSS}(w) \quad \textbf{subject to } R(\boldsymbol{w}) \leq \beta$$

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Choosing either λ or β can be done by cross-validation.

Summary

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Overfitting: small training error but large test error

Preventing Overfitting: more data + regularization

Recall the question

Typical steps of developing a machine learning system:

- Collect data, split into training, development, and test sets.
- *Train a model with a machine learning algorithm.* Most often we apply cross-validation to tune hyper-parameters.
- Evaluate using the test data and report performance.
- Use the model to predict future/make decisions.

How to do the *red part* exactly?

General idea to derive ML algorithms

1. Pick a set of **models** $\mathcal{F}$
   - e.g. $\mathcal{F} = \{f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}}\}$
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ML becomes optimization

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Numerical optimization

Problem setup

- Given: a function $F(\boldsymbol{w})$
- Goal: minimize $F(\boldsymbol{w})$ (approximately)

First-order optimization methods

Two simple yet extremely popular methods

- **Gradient Descent (GD)**: simple and fundamental
- **Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)**: faster, effective for large-scale problems

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Gradient is sometimes referred to as *first-order* information of a function. Therefore, these methods are called *first-order methods*.

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GD: keep moving in the *negative gradient direction*

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- might need to be **changing** over iterations (think $F(w) = |w|$)
- adaptive and automatic step size tuning is an active research area

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$$w_1^{(t+1)} \leftarrow w_1^{(t)} - \eta \left[2({w_1^{(t)}}^2 - w_2^{(t)})w_1^{(t)} + w_1^{(t)} - 1 \right]$$

$$w_2^{(t+1)} \leftarrow w_2^{(t)} - \eta \left[-({w_1^{(t)}}^2 - w_2^{(t)}) \right]$$

$$t \leftarrow t + 1$$

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- Initialize $w_1^{(0)}$ and $w_2^{(0)}$ (to be 0 or *randomly*), $t = 0$
- do

$$w_1^{(t+1)} \leftarrow w_1^{(t)} - \eta \left[2({w_1^{(t)}}^2 - w_2^{(t)})w_1^{(t)} + w_1^{(t)} - 1\right]$$
$$w_2^{(t+1)} \leftarrow w_2^{(t)} - \eta \left[-({w_1^{(t)}}^2 - w_2^{(t)})\right]$$
$$t \leftarrow t + 1$$

- until $F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})$ **does not change much** or t **reaches a fixed number**

Why GD?

Intuition: by first-order **Taylor approximation**

$$F(\boldsymbol{w}) \approx F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) + \nabla F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})^{\mathrm{T}}(\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})$$

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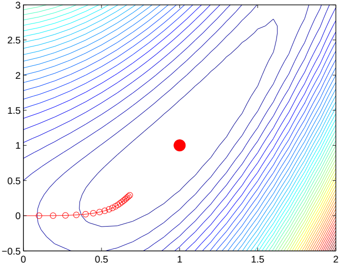

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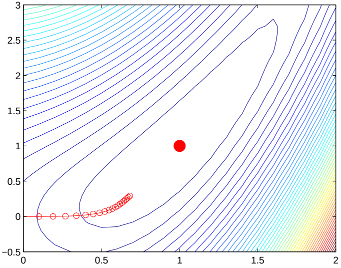

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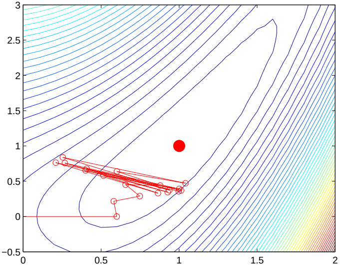

but large η is unstable

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

GD: keep moving in the negative gradient direction

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where $\tilde{\nabla} F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)})$ is a random variable (called **stochastic gradient**) s.t.

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Key point: it could be *much faster to obtain a stochastic gradient!*
(examples coming soon)

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Many for both GD and SGD on **convex objectives**.

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- but then again each iteration takes less time

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Even for *nonconvex objectives*, some guarantees exist: e.g. how many iterations t (in terms of ϵ) needed to achieve

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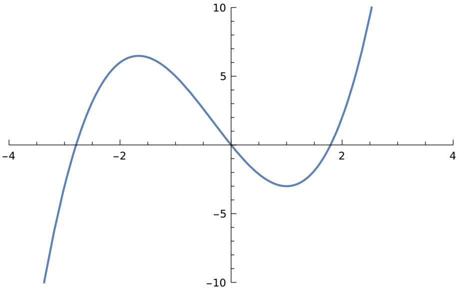
- for nonconvex objectives, *what does it mean?*

Convergence guarantees — nonconvex objectives

A stationary point can be a **local minimizer**



$$f(w) = w^3 + w^2 - 5w$$

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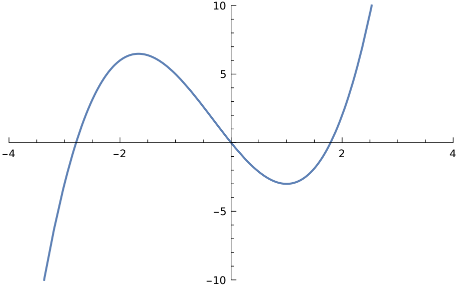

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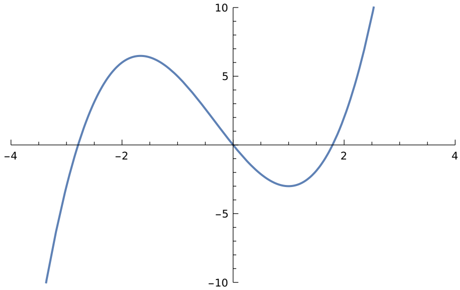

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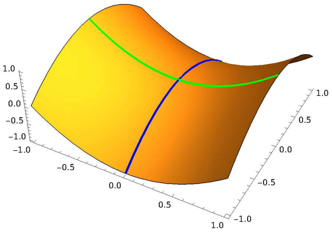

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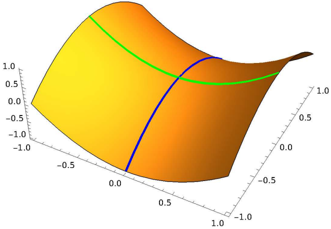

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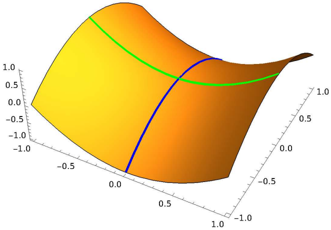

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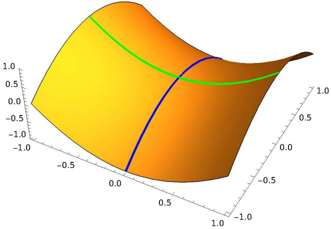

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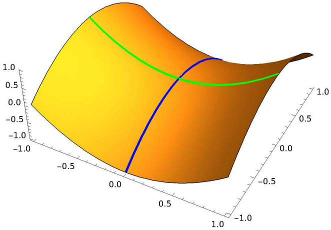

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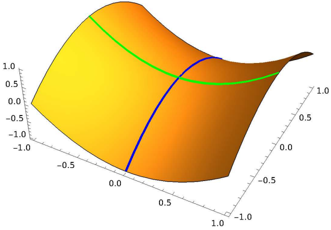

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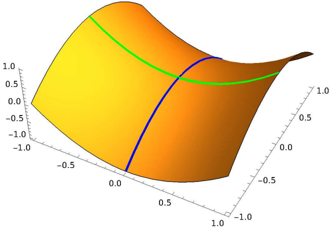

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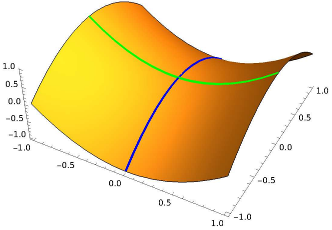

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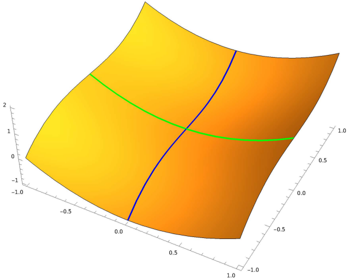

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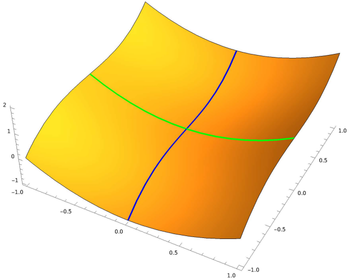

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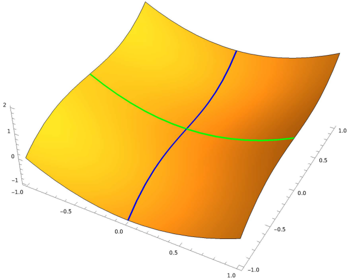

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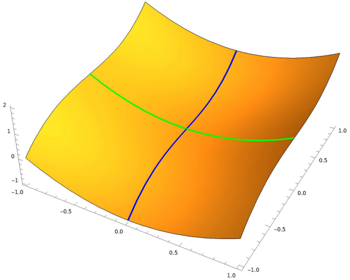

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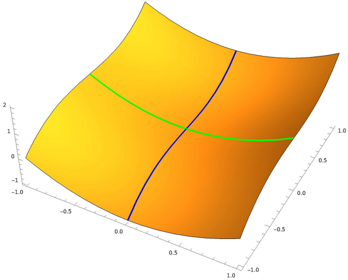

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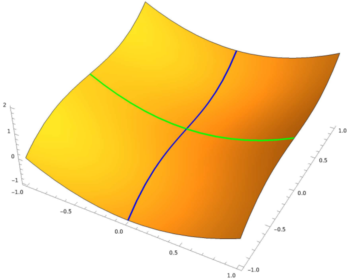

Even worse, distinguishing local min and saddle point is generally *NP-hard*.

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- recent research shows that *many problems have no "bad" saddle points or even "bad" local minimizers*
- justify the practical effectiveness of GD/SGD (default method to try)

Second-order methods

Recall the intuition of GD: we look at first-order **Taylor approximation**

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where $\boldsymbol{H}_t = \nabla^2 F(\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}) \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}\times\mathsf{D}}$ is the *Hessian* of F at $\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}$, i.e.,

$$H_{t,ij} = \frac{\partial^2 F(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_i \partial w_j}\Big|_{\boldsymbol{w}=\boldsymbol{w}^{(t)}}$$

(think "second derivative" when $D = 1$)

Newton method

If we minimize the second-order approximation (via "complete the square")

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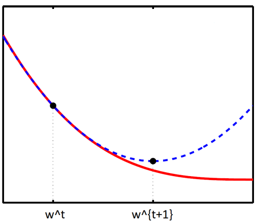

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for convex F (so H_t is *positive semidefinite*)
we obtain **Newton method**:

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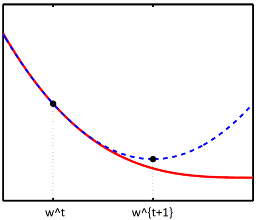

Comparing GD and Newton

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- does not really make sense for *nonconvex objectives* (but generally Hessian can be useful for escaping saddle points)