



Machine Learning and Data Mining

Lecture 2.1: Linear Regression





RECAP

From Last Lecture

Why do we care about probability?

The world is a **very** uncertain place

- 30 years of Artificial Intelligence research danced around this fact
- Then some AI researchers decided to use some ideas from the eighteenth century to model uncertainty...
- **For us:** Really useful view of machine learning (both in practice for algorithm design and for deriving theoretic results about learning)





Your First Probabilistic Learning Algorithm: MLE

After taking this course, you drop out of OSU and join an illegal betting company focused on **underground mascot fights** because you want to start making some **real money with ML**.

Your new boss asks you:

- If Benny Beaver and the Oregon Duck face off, what is the probability Benny wins?

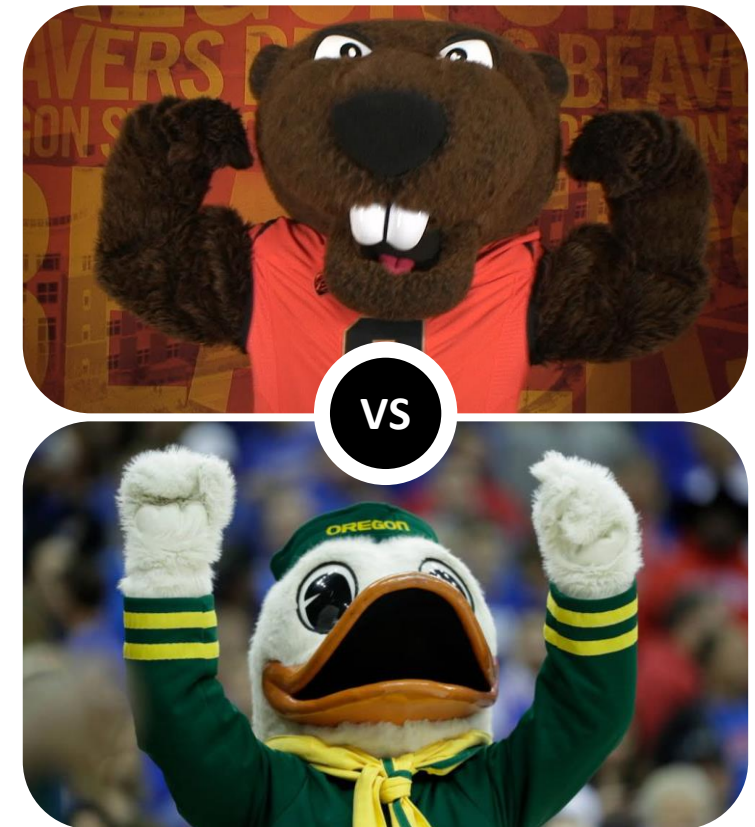
Knowing that data is everything, you ask:

- What happened in the past?

W, W, L, L, W

You say $P(\text{Benny Wins}) = ?$

Why?





The intuitive answer is that 3/5 “fits the data” the best. We’ll formalize that notion this lecture.

Maximum Likelihood Estimation – Find parameters that make the observed data most likely.


1. Assume a probabilistic model of how the data was generated $x \sim P(x; \theta)$ parameterized by some set of parameters θ
2. Find $\hat{\theta}_{MLE}$ that maximizes the probability (or likelihood) of generating the training data under the probabilistic model.

Why MLE?

- Often leads to “natural” or intuitive parameter estimates
- MLE is optimal if model class is correct (e.g. Normal model for normally distributed data)



Maximum A Posteriori – Find parameters that make the observed data most likely but consider a prior over the parameters.

1. Assume a prior distribution over θ , $P(\theta)$
2. Assume a probabilistic model of how the data is generated:
-- parameter $\theta \sim P(\theta)$ and then data $x \sim P(x|\theta)$
3. Find $\hat{\theta}_{MAP}$ that maximize the posterior $P(\theta|D) \propto P(D|\theta)P(\theta)$  $P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(D)}$

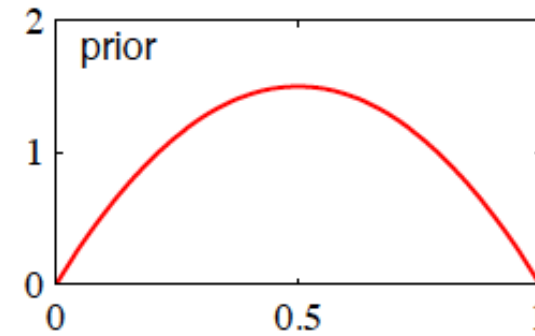
Why MAP?

- Rigorous framework to combine observations (likelihood) with beliefs (prior)



- **Prior = Beta(2,2)**

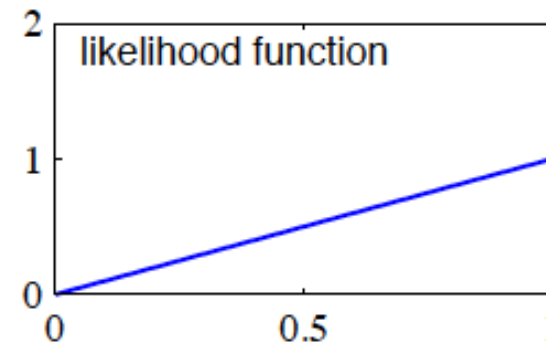
- $\theta_{\text{prior}} = 0.5$



- **Dataset = {H}**

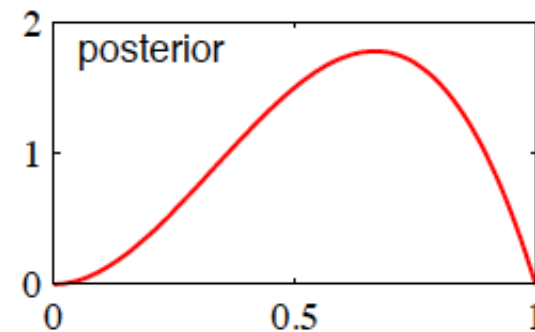
- $L(\theta) = \theta$

- $\theta_{\text{MLE}} = 1$



- **Posterior = Beta(3,2)**

- $\theta_{\text{MAP}} = (3-1)/(3+2-2) = 2/3$



Today's Learning Objectives

Be able to answer:

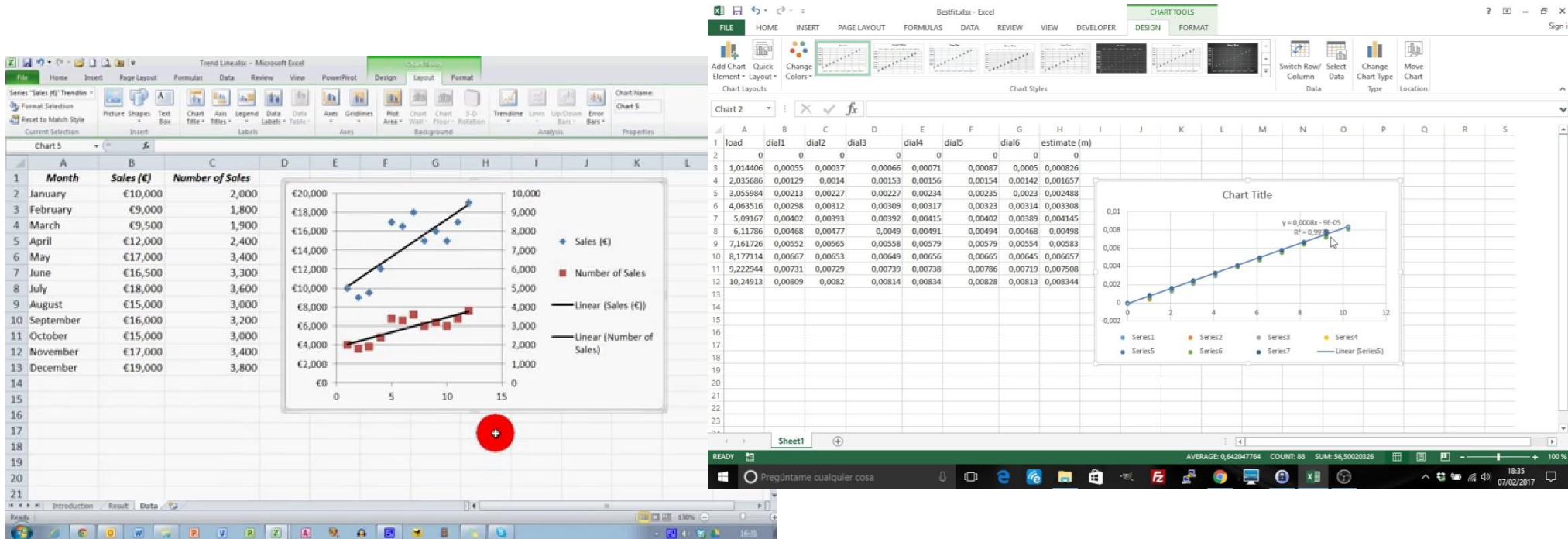
- What is linear regression?
- How do we find a solution for it?
 - With one dimensional input?
 - With multidimensional input?
 - We'll need to review some linear algebra
- How does this relate to MLE? Hint: Gaussians!
- What is regularization and how do they relate to priors from Bayesian statistics?





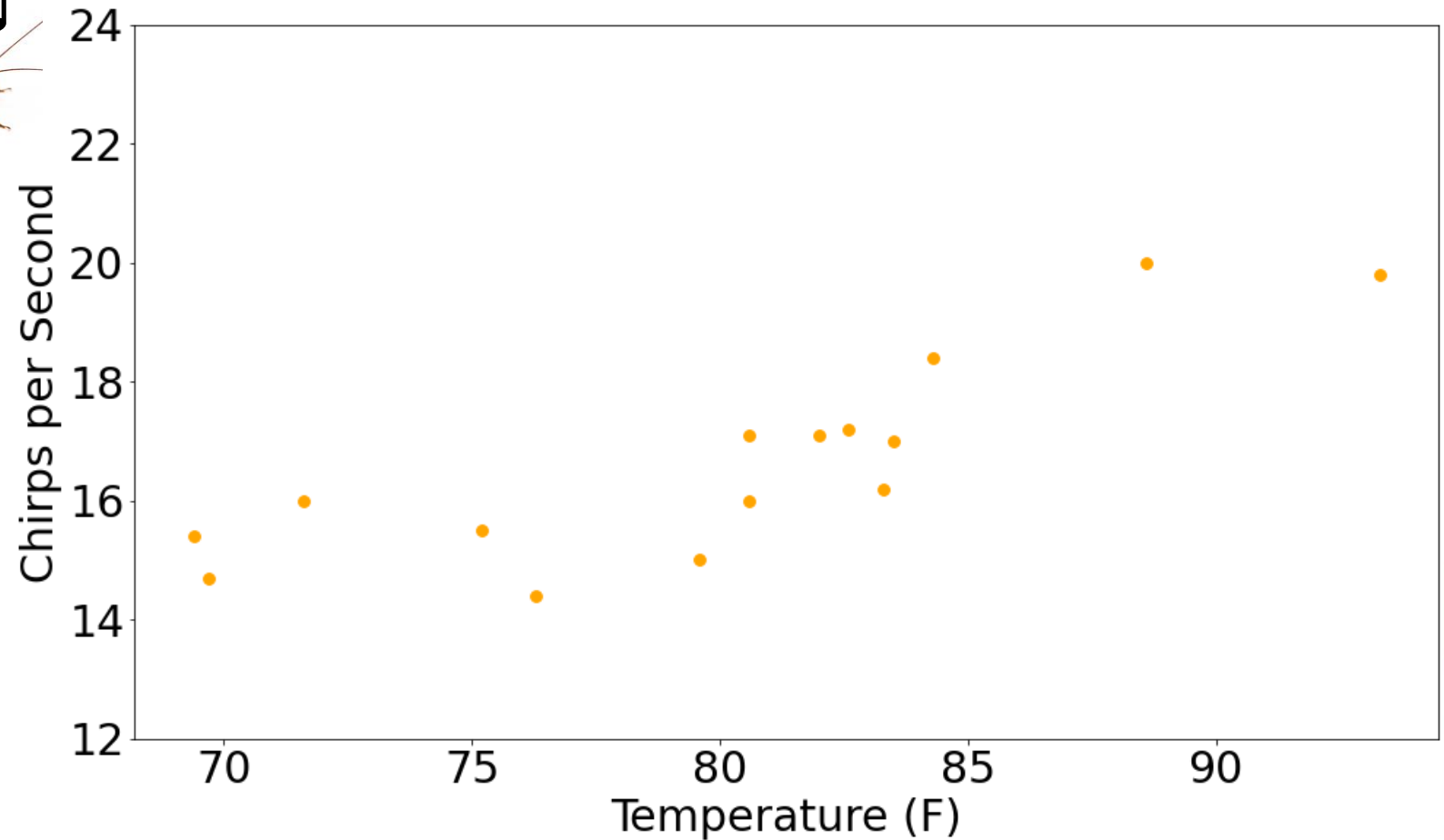
Regression → We are predicting some continuous output y

Linear → We assume there is a linear relationship between input x and output y



Can we predict how annoying crickets will be based on the temperature?

| X | Y |
|------|------|
| F | CPS |
| 88.6 | 20 |
| 71.6 | 16 |
| 93.3 | 19.8 |
| 84.3 | 18.4 |
| 80.6 | 17.1 |
| 75.2 | 15.5 |
| 69.7 | 14.7 |
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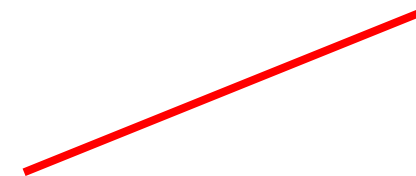


We will only consider linear functions (thus the name **linear regression**):

With one input dimension ($d=1$):

$$y = wx + b$$

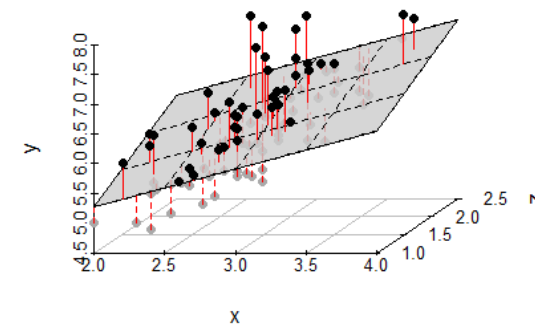
Line



With two input dimensions ($d=2$):

$$y = w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + b$$

Plane



With d input dimensions

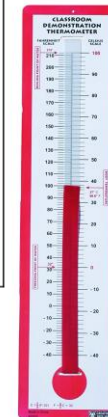
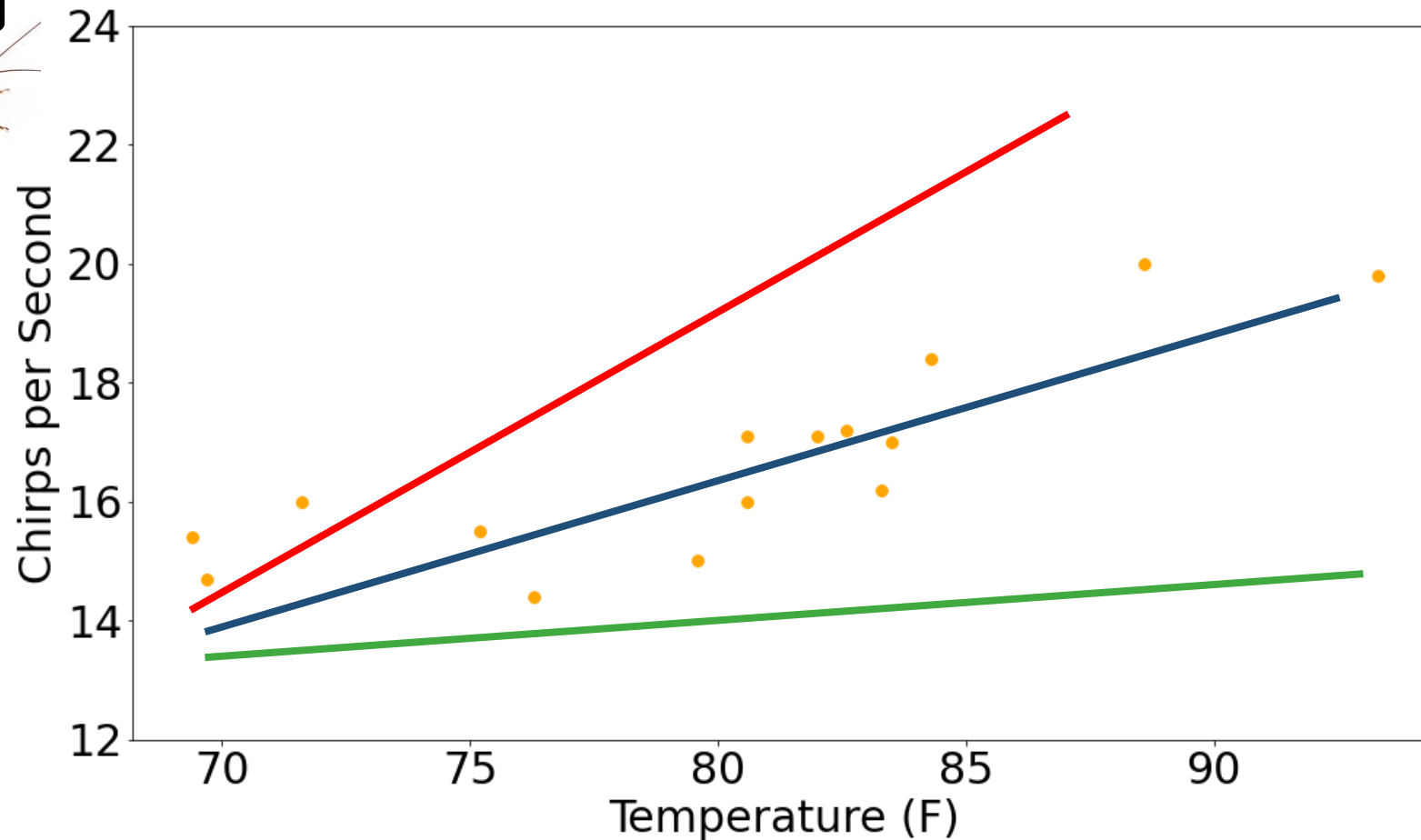
$$y = b + \sum_{i=1}^d w_i x_i$$

Hyperplane

?

Goal: fit a line through the points

Problem: the data isn't perfectly a line... how to measure "goodness" of a line?



Dataset: Given a set of training examples $D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$

Goal: Learn w and b such that $w x_i + b$ predict y_i as closely as possible

In mathematical terms, we want to find w and b that **minimize the error between $w x_i + b$ and y_i** . How should we measure this error?

Let me suggest squared error (or L2) error -- $(y_i - (w x_i + b))^2$

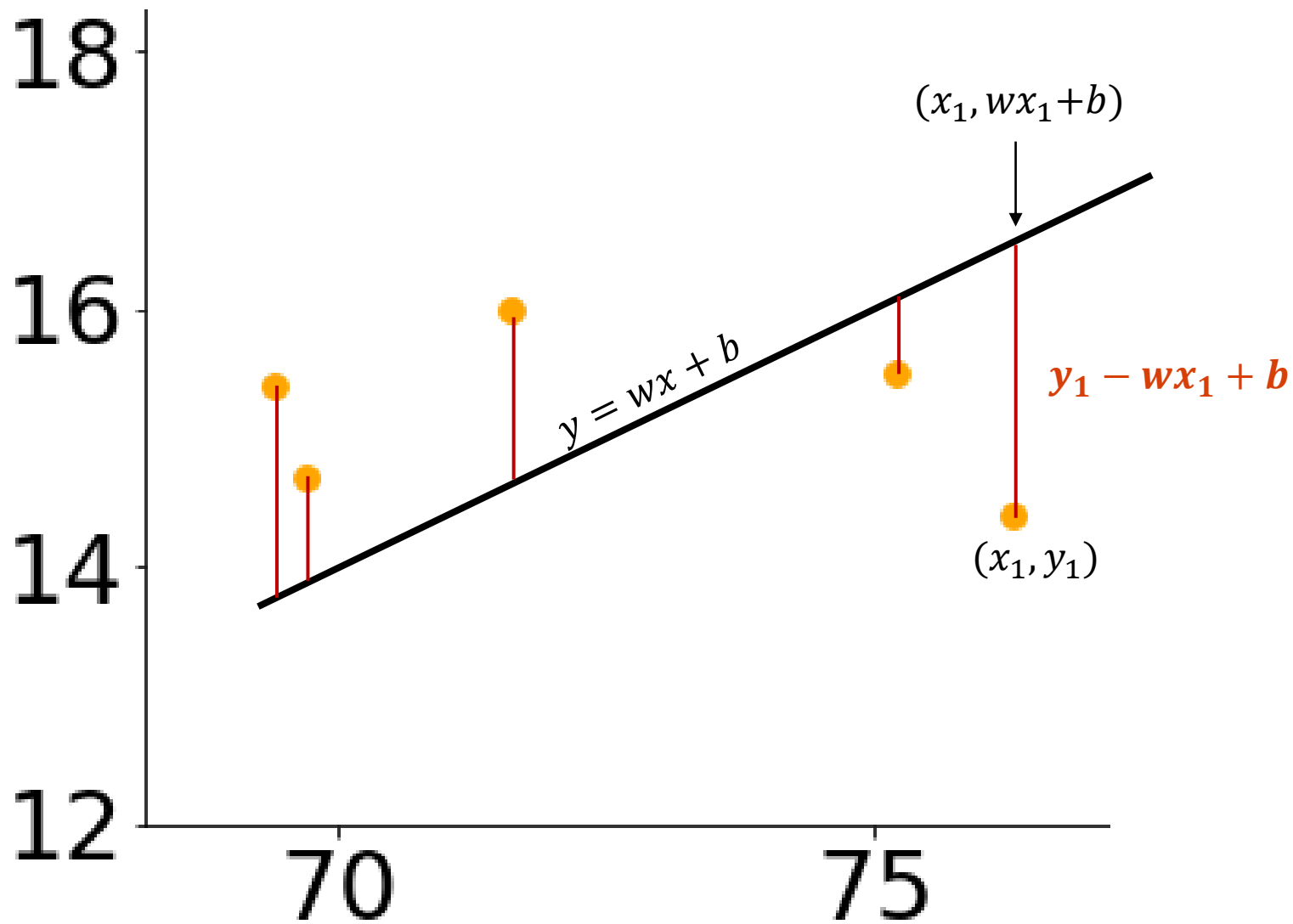
Why? Gaussians my dear Watson. Gaussians. Also is a convex function which will make solving it easier.

Objective: Find parameters that minimize the **sum of squared error (SSE)**

$$SSE(w, b) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - w x_i - b)^2$$

| X F | Y CPS |
|--------|----------|
| 88.6 | 20 |
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Visualizing Sum of Squared Error



$$SSE(w, b) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - wx_i - b)^2$$

Objective: Find parameters that minimize the **sum of squared error (SSE)**

$$w^*, b^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{w, b} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - wx_i - b)^2$$

1) Take partial derivative w.r.t w and b respectively:

$$\frac{\delta SSE}{\delta w} =$$

$$\frac{\delta SSE}{\delta b} =$$



Find the partial derivative of the SSE objective w.r.t. w and b :

$$SSE(w, b) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - wx_i - b)^2$$

$$\frac{\delta SSE}{\delta w} =$$

$$\frac{\delta SSE}{\delta b} =$$

1) Take partial derivative w.r.t w and b respectively:

$$\frac{\delta SSE}{\delta w} = \sum_{i=1}^n 2(y_i - wx_i - b)x_i \qquad \frac{\delta SSE}{\delta b} = - \sum_{i=1}^n 2(y_i - wx_i - b)$$

2) Set equal to zero and solve:

$$\frac{\delta SSE}{\delta w} = - \sum_{i=1}^n 2(y_i - wx_i - b)x_i = 0 \qquad \xrightarrow{\text{yields}} \qquad w^* = \frac{\overline{xy} - \bar{y}\bar{x}}{\overline{x^2} - \bar{x}^2}$$

$$\frac{\delta SSE}{\delta b} = - \sum_{i=1}^n 2(y_i - wx_i - b) = 0 \qquad \xrightarrow{\text{yields}} \qquad b^* = \bar{y} - w^*\bar{x}$$



Let's see if this works:

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|----------|------------|
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$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 80.03\bar{9}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = 16.65\bar{3}$$

$$\overline{xy} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i = 1341.821\bar{3}$$

$$\bar{x}^2 = 6406.4015\bar{9}$$

$$\overline{x^2} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = 6448.390\bar{6}$$

$$w^* = \frac{\overline{xy} - \bar{y}\bar{x}}{\overline{x^2} - \bar{x}^2} = \frac{1341.821\bar{3} - 16.65\bar{3} * 80.3\bar{9}}{6448.390\bar{6} - 80.03\bar{9}^2} = 0.2119$$

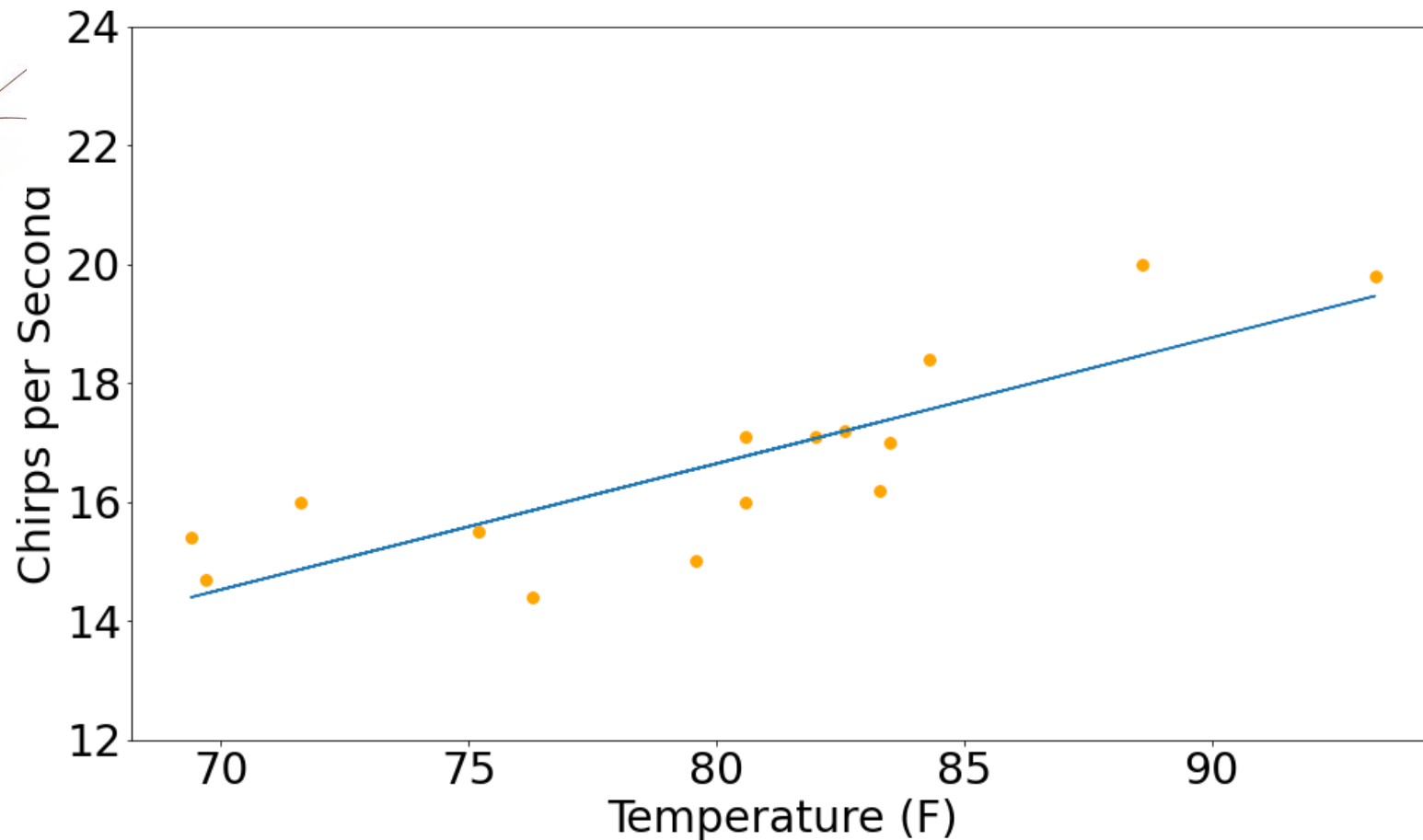
$$b^* = \bar{y} - w^* \bar{x} = 16.65\bar{3} - 0.2119 * 80.03\bar{9} = -3.0914$$

Let's see if this works:

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$$w^* = 0.2119$$

$$b^* = -3.0914$$

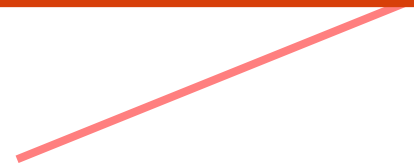


We will only consider linear functions (thus the name **linear regression**):

With one input dimension ($d=1$):

Nailed it
 $y = wx + b$

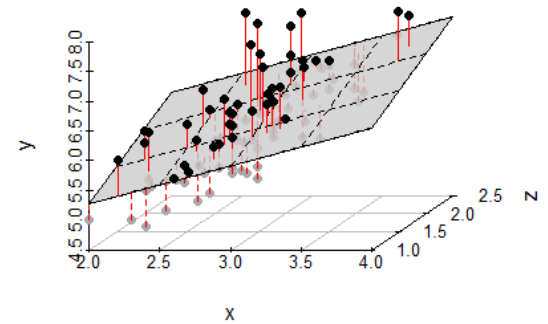
Line



With two input dimensions ($d=2$):

$$y = w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + b$$

Plane



With d input dimensions

$$y = b + \sum_{i=1}^d w_i x_i$$

Hyperplane

?



Despite only having one input dimension, we had to learn two parameters w and b such that $y = wx + b$. What would happen if we chose not to include b ? That is, if we just left $b=0$.

A The line would have to be horizontal

B Nothing. w would adjust to recover the same solution as if b was there.

C The line would have to go through the origin

D The line would not be defined

Same approach works in higher dimensions (i.e., when x_i is a vector)

- Take partial derivative for each weight
- Set all partial derivatives to zero
- Solve the system of equations simultaneously

If only we had some tools for expressing systems of equations...

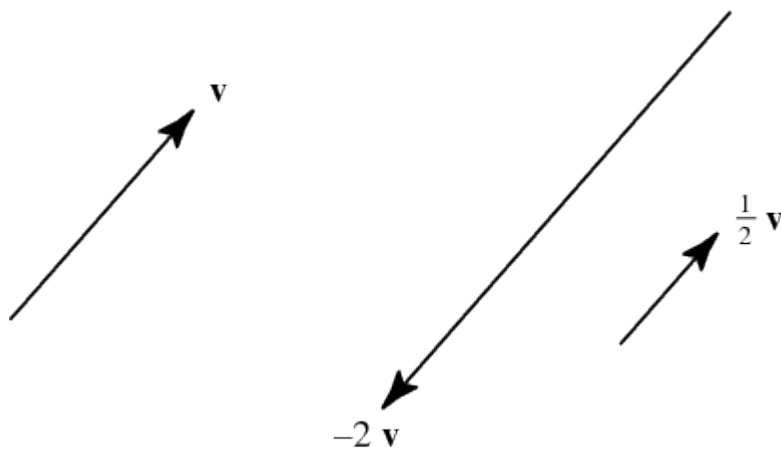
**Time for a brief linear algebra and
vector calculus “review”!**





A **scalar** is a single number. Usually denoted by lowercase, unbolded letters. Example: $a = 3$

Called a "scalar" because multiplying a vector by a single number "scales it".





A **vector** is a one-dimensional array. Typically denote vectors as boldface lower case letters. Example:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

If we don't specify otherwise, assume \mathbf{x} is a column vector (i.e. one column with multiple rows). Will denote elements of a vector with x_i

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_d \end{bmatrix}$$



A **matrix** is a two-dimensional array. Typically denote matrices as unbolded upper case letters. Example:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 5 \\ -1 & 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Will denote elements of a row with x_{ij} where i is the row and j is the column:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{13} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & x_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

Will talk about the **shape**/size/dimensionality of a matrix as number of rows x number of columns. Example: X has shape 2×3



Transposition (or the **transpose** operator) swaps rows and columns:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_d \end{bmatrix} \quad d \times 1$$

$$\mathbf{x}^T = [x_1 \quad x_2 \quad \dots \quad x_d] \quad 1 \times d$$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{13} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & x_{23} \end{bmatrix} \quad 2 \times 3$$

$$X^T = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{21} \\ x_{12} & x_{22} \\ x_{13} & x_{23} \end{bmatrix} \quad 3 \times 2$$

As a result, shape of the matrix swaps to. If X is n -by- m , then X^T is m -by- n



Matrix addition only defined for matrices of identical shape. Then is just performed element-wise:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{13} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & x_{23} \end{bmatrix} \qquad Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_{11} & y_{12} & y_{13} \\ y_{21} & y_{22} & y_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

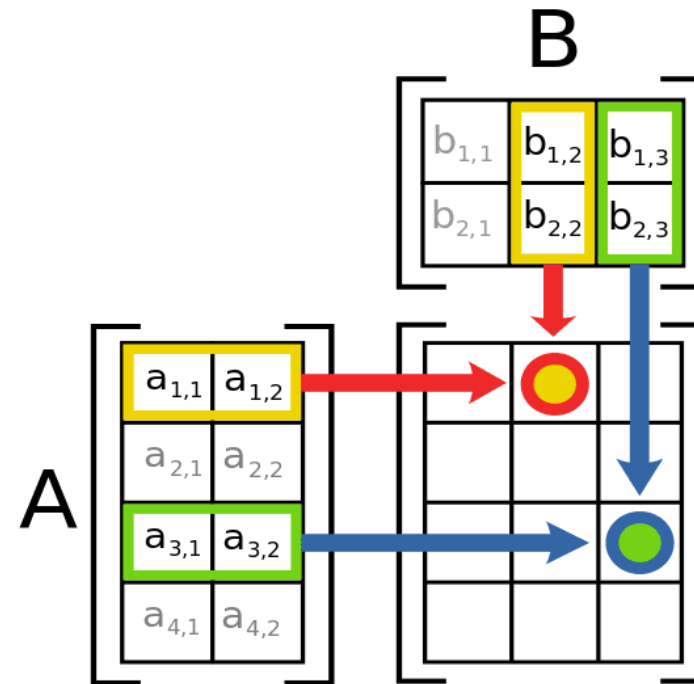
$$X + Y = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} + y_{11} & x_{12} + y_{12} & x_{13} + y_{13} \\ x_{21} + y_{21} & x_{22} + y_{22} & x_{23} + y_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

Output shape is the same as the input shapes.



Matrix multiplication only defined for matrices with identical *inner dimensions*. An m-by-n matrix can be multiplied by an r-by-c matrix if and only if $n=r$:

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB}$$
$$c_{ij} = \sum_k^n a_{ik} * b_{kj}$$



Output shape is the *outer dimensions* of the matrices - m-by-c in this case.



Matrix multiplication only defined for matrices with identical *inner dimensions*. An m-by-n matrix can be multiplied by an r-by-c matrix if and only if $n=r$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} & & \\ & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix}$$

Output shape is the *outer dimensions* of the matrices - m-by-c in this case.



Matrix multiplication only defined for matrices with identical *inner dimensions*. Unlike scalar multiplications, not commutative.

| Property | Example |
|--|---|
| The commutative property of multiplication does not hold! | $AB \neq BA$ |
| Associative property of multiplication | $(AB)C = A(BC)$ |
| Distributive properties | $A(B + C) = AB + AC$ $(B + C)A = BA + CA$ |
| Multiplicative identity property | $IA = A$ and $AI = A$ |
| Multiplicative property of zero | $OA = O$ and $AO = O$ |
| Dimension property | The product of an $m \times n$ matrix and an $n \times k$ matrix is an $m \times k$ matrix. |



Vector multiplication defined the same as matrix multiplication. Because vectors are just matrices with one dimension being 1.

$$[y_1 \quad y_2 \quad \cdots \quad y_d] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \cdots \\ x_d \end{bmatrix} = y_1x_1 + y_2x_2 + \cdots + y_dx_d$$

This is often called the inner (or dot) product of two vectors.
 $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = (\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y})$ **or** $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$ if \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are both column vectors.

This is often called the outer product of two vectors. $\mathbf{x} \otimes \mathbf{y}$ or $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^T$ if \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are both column vectors.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \cdots \\ x_d \end{bmatrix} [y_1 \quad y_2 \quad \cdots \quad y_d] = \begin{bmatrix} x_1y_1 & x_1y_2 & x_1y_3 \\ x_2y_1 & x_2y_2 & x_2y_3 \\ x_3y_1 & x_3y_2 & x_3y_3 \end{bmatrix}$$



Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $v \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times 1}$,
what is wrong with the following expression:

$$(A^T v)^T B^T + B^T (v \otimes v) v$$

A $(A^T v)^T B^T$ violates the rules of matrix multiplication

B Nothing is wrong with it

C It violates the rules of matrix addition

D $B^T (v \otimes v) v$ violates the rules of matrix multiplication



Vector norms define the “length” of a vector (or its distance from the zero vector). L2 should look familiar:

$$||\mathbf{x}||_2 = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_d^2} = \sqrt{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}}$$

Our friend the Minkowski distance still hanging around as the Lp norm:

$$||\mathbf{x}||_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^d |x_i|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$



Let $\mathbf{v} = [7, 6]^T$ and $\mathbf{w} = [3, 3]^T$, what is $\|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}\|_2$?

A 7

B $[4, 3]$

C 5

D 104



Matrix inverse of a square matrix A is a matrix A^{-1} such that $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$, where I is called an identity matrix.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- A square matrix A is invertible iff its determinant is nonzero.
 - We won't play much with non-invertible matrices.
- Some properties:

$$(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$$

$$(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$$

$$(kA)^{-1} = k^{-1}A^{-1}$$

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$



If $x \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times 1}$ (x is a d -dimensional column vector), what would I call the operation xx^T and what shape would the result have?

A Dot product, 1×1

B Inner product, 1×1

C Outer product, $d \times d$

D Cartesian product, $d \times 1$



Same approach works in higher dimensions (i.e., when x_i is a vector)

- Take partial derivative for each weight
- Set all partial derivatives to zero
- Solve the system of equations simultaneously

Now we consider the more general case that considers multiple input features.

| X | | Y |
|----------|----------|------------|
| F | H | CPS |
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In this example, each datapoint now has a 2-dimensional input $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2]^T$ where x_1 is temperature and x_2 is humidity.

Want to learn: $y = w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + b$

It is inconvenient to have to represent b separately, so we use a small trick to fold it in to w .

- Add a feature to each \mathbf{x} that is a constant 1 --
 $\mathbf{x} = [1, x_1, x_2]^T$ and let $\mathbf{w} = [b, w_1, w_2]^T$

Now $y = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = 1b + x_1w_1 + x_2w_2$

How can we express the Sum of Squared Error objective?

**One-dimensional
Version:**

$$SSE(w, b) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - wx_i - b)^2$$

**Vectorized Multi-
dimensional Version:**

$$SSE(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

Can we express it entirely as matrix operations?!

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|----------|----------|------------|
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$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1^T \\ \mathbf{x}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_n^T \end{bmatrix} \quad n \times d \qquad \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} \quad n \times 1$$

$$\mathbf{w} = [w_1, w_2, \dots, w_d]^T \quad d \times 1$$

$$SSE(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2 = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})$$

That seemed like magic. Show me how it works.

$$SSE(\mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w} = & \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} & - & \begin{bmatrix} x_1^T \\ x_2^T \\ \vdots \\ x_n^T \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_d \end{bmatrix} & = & \begin{bmatrix} y_1 - x_1^T \mathbf{w} \\ y_2 - x_2^T \mathbf{w} \\ \vdots \\ y_n - x_n^T \mathbf{w} \end{bmatrix} \\ & n \times 1 & & n \times d & d \times 1 & & n \times 1 \end{array}$$

That seemed like magic. Show me how it works.

$$SSE(\mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})$$

$$(\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} y_1 - \mathbf{x}_1^T \mathbf{w} \\ y_2 - \mathbf{x}_2^T \mathbf{w} \\ \vdots \\ y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{w} \end{bmatrix}}_{1 \times n} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} y_1 - \mathbf{x}_1^T \mathbf{w} \\ y_2 - \mathbf{x}_2^T \mathbf{w} \\ \vdots \\ y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{w} \end{bmatrix}}_{n \times 1} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

That seemed like magic. Show me how it works.

$$SSE(\mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})$$

1) Take partial derivative w.r.t each parameter. But we have d of them.
Take the gradient (vector of partial derivatives)

$$\nabla SSE(\mathbf{w}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\delta SSE(\mathbf{w})}{\delta w_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\delta SSE(\mathbf{w})}{\delta w_d} \end{bmatrix} = 2X^T (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})$$

[*Matrix cookbook*](#) is a good resource to help you with doing things like matrix calculus.

That seemed like magic. Show me how it works.

$$SSE(\mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})$$

2) Set equal to zero vector and solve:

$$2X^T(\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w}) = \vec{0}$$

$$\Rightarrow X^T X \mathbf{w} = X^T \mathbf{y}$$

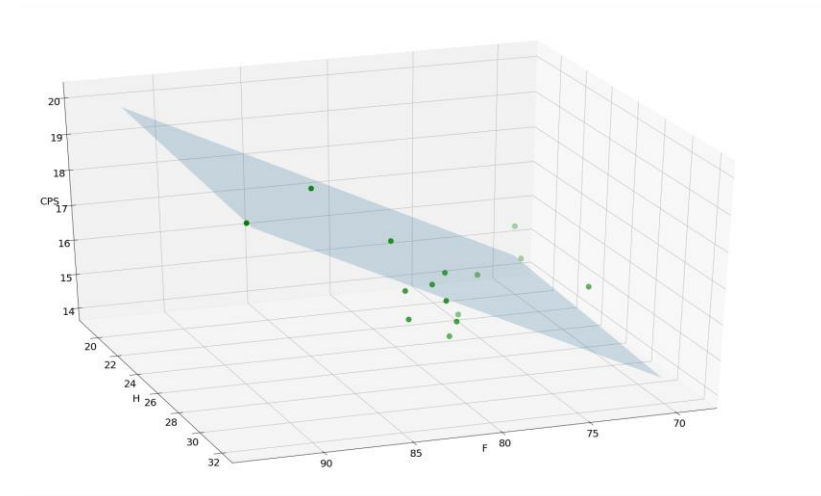
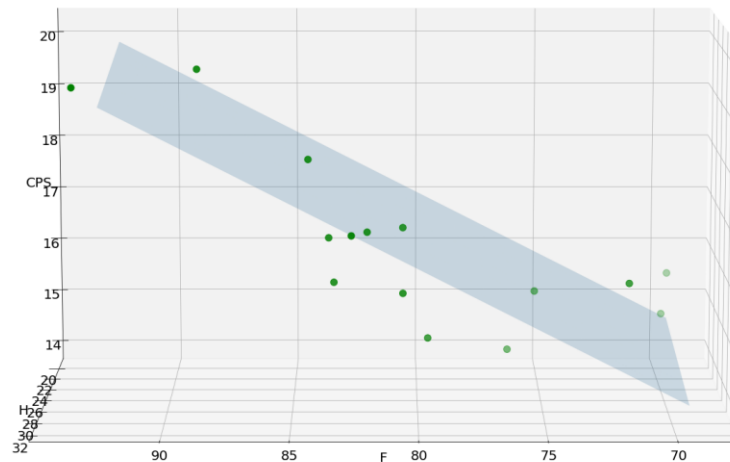
$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{w}^* = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \mathbf{y}$$

| X | | | Y |
|-------|------|----|------|
| Dummy | F | H | CPS |
| 1 | 88.6 | 30 | 20 |
| 1 | 71.6 | 28 | 16 |
| 1 | 93.3 | 32 | 19.8 |
| 1 | 84.3 | 30 | 18.4 |
| 1 | 80.6 | 29 | 17.1 |
| 1 | 75.2 | 24 | 15.5 |
| 1 | 69.7 | 20 | 14.7 |
| 1 | 82 | 30 | 17.1 |
| 1 | 69.4 | 19 | 15.4 |
| 1 | 83.3 | 30 | 16.2 |
| 1 | 79.6 | 28 | 15 |
| 1 | 82.6 | 32 | 17.2 |
| 1 | 80.6 | 30 | 16. |
| 1 | 83.5 | 30 | 17 |
| 1 | 76.3 | 24 | 14.4 |

$$X^T X = \begin{bmatrix} 3166.96573273 & -55.56717431 & 46.7770757 \\ -4477.28836672 & 106.98440986 & -147.32249273 \\ 1309.51468408 & -51.18581341 & 100.50713299 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{w}^* = [-0.80794992, 0.23142213, -0.03828404]$$

$$y = -0.808 + 0.231 * F - 0.038 * H$$



Today's Learning Objectives

Be able to answer:

- ~~• What is linear regression?~~
- ~~• How do we find a solution for it?~~
 - ~~• With one dimensional input?~~
 - ~~• With multidimensional input?~~
 - ~~• We'll need to review some linear algebra~~
- How does this relate to the MLE stuff we were doing? Hint: Gaussians!
- What are some implications of this relationship?





Finding x that maximizes $f(x)$ has the same result as finding x' that minimizes $-f(x)$

$$\operatorname{argmax}_x f(x) = \operatorname{argmin}_x -f(x)$$

A True

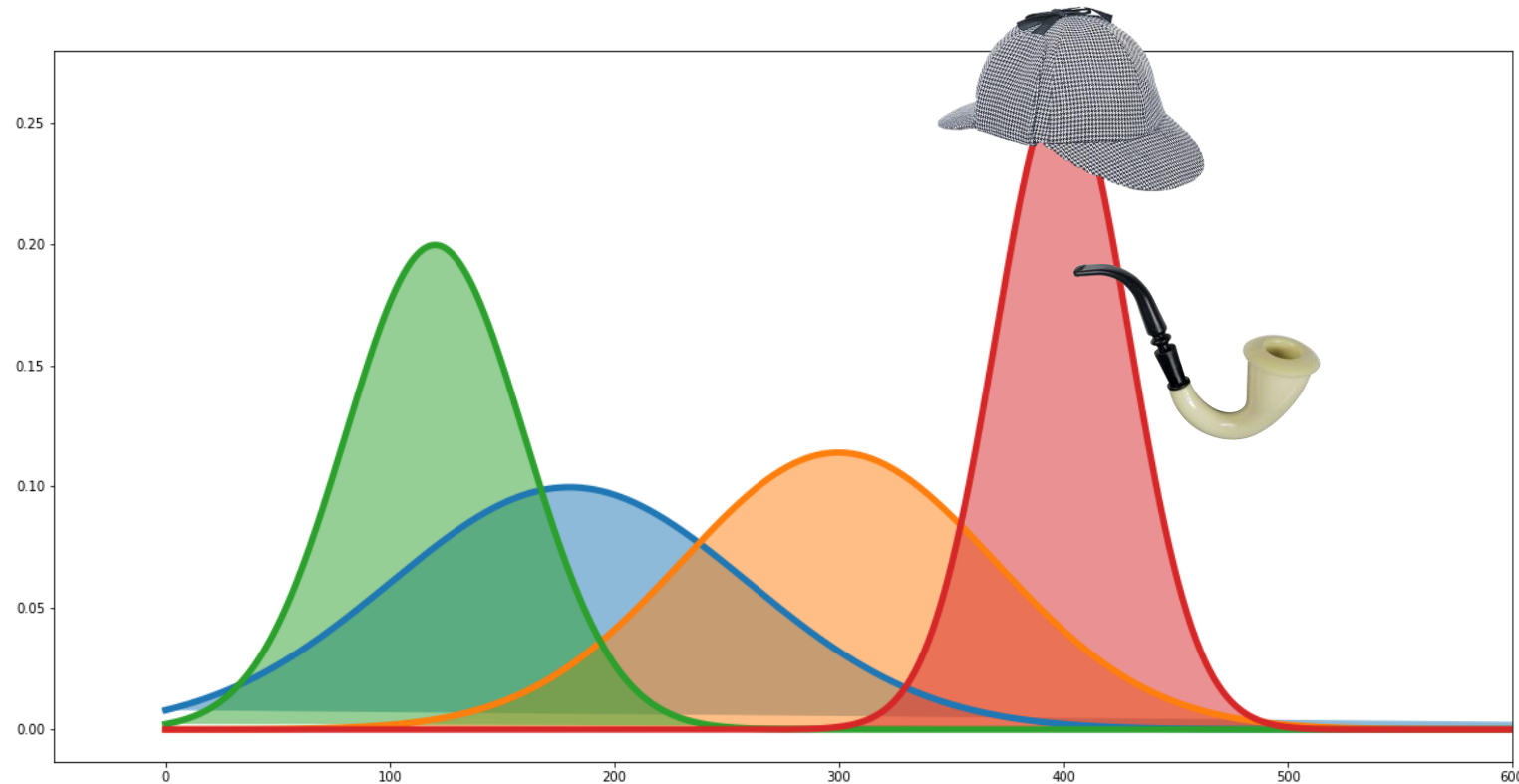
B False

C Duh.

D Bruh.

You: Linear regression has nothing to do with probability or MLE/MAP.
You just wanted to torture us last class. *I learned for no good reason!*

Me:



Linear regression from a probabilistic viewpoint:

To do all our MLE/MAP stuff, we need to assume some model of how the data was generated. Before, we only had x 's. Now we have x 's and y 's.

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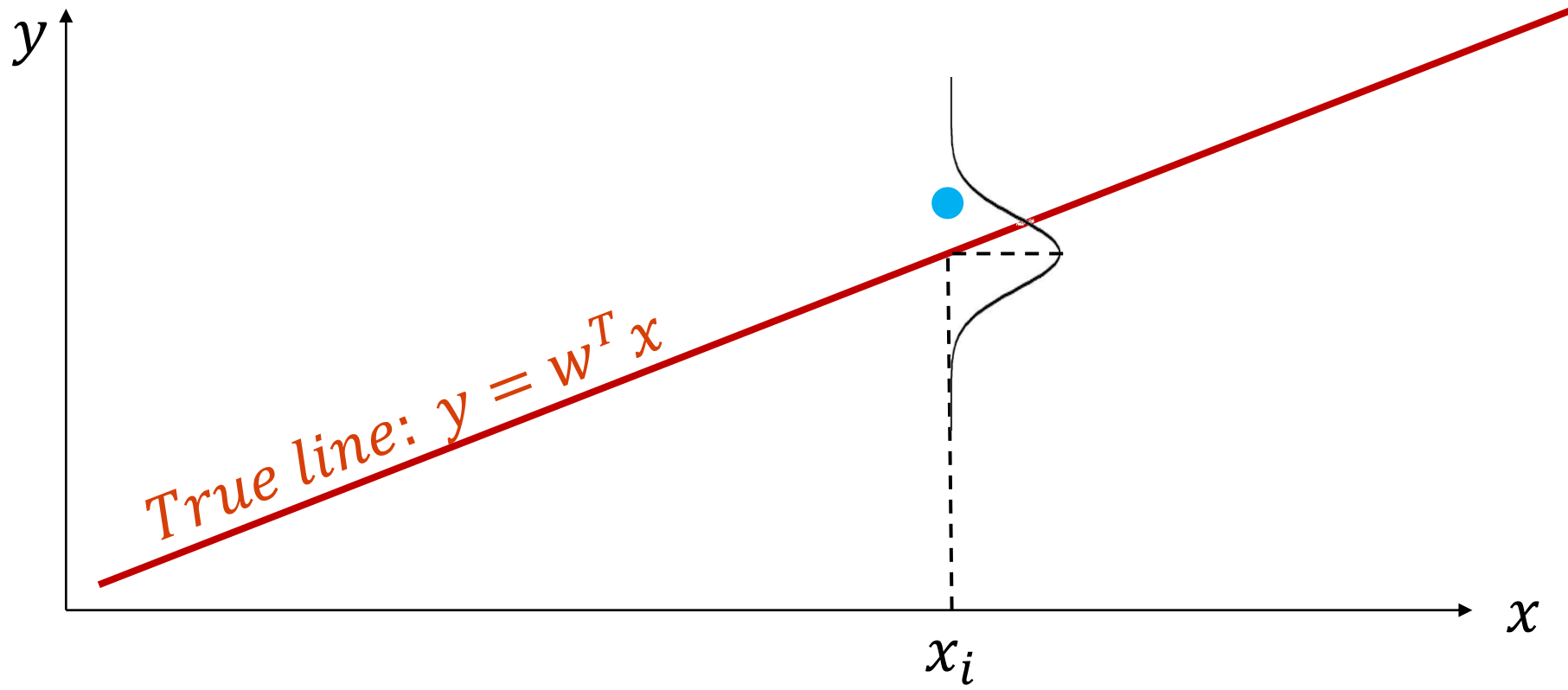
Conditional Model: We can still talk about conditional probabilities of y given x – i.e. $P(y|x)$.

In this case, let's assume there is a linear relationship between x and y that is corrupted by a bit of Gaussian noise with mean 0 and some unknown-but-constant variance.

$$y_i = w^T x_i + \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma)$$

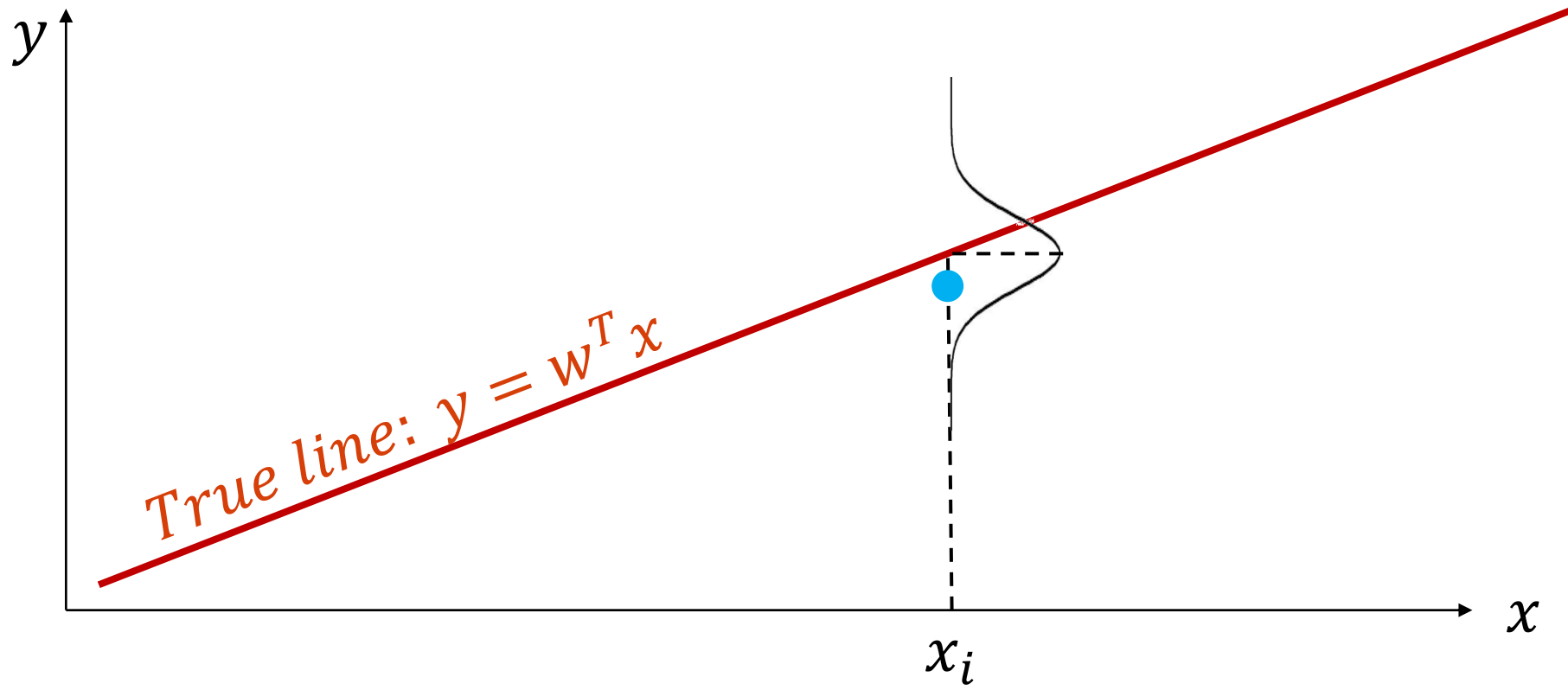
Our “generative story” for this data:

$$y_i = w^T x_i + \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma)$$



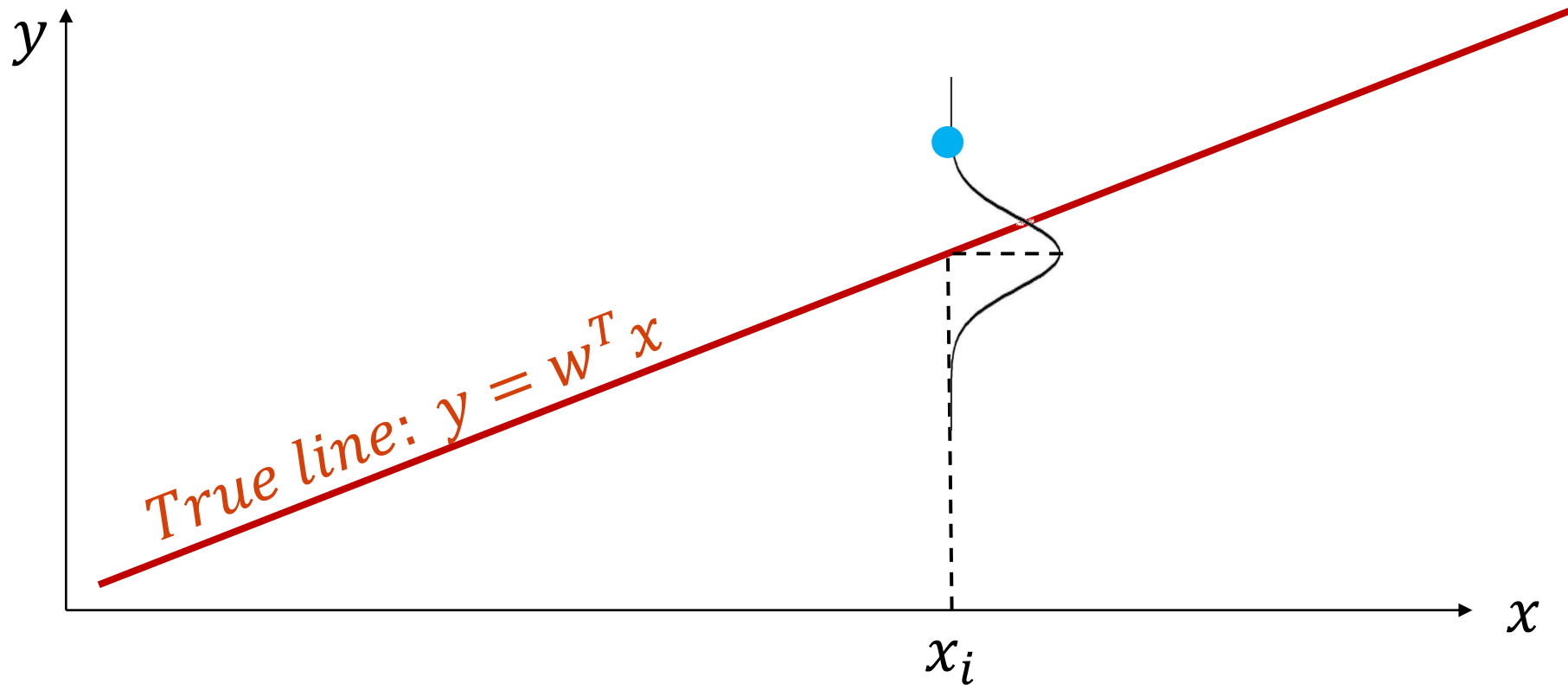
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Okay. Still not seeing why we care? Let's start doing MLE.

Dataset: Given a dataset $D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ assume the above conditional probability.

Model assumption: $y_i = w^T x_i + \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma) \Rightarrow P(y_i | x_i, w) = \mathcal{N}(w^T x_i, \sigma)$

Write out **likelihood** of the training data as a function of parameters θ :

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = P(D | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^N P(y_i | x_i, w) = \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(y_i - w^T x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Yikes. Let's apply a log and write the log-likelihood to clean this up:

$$\mathcal{LL}(\theta) = \log P(D | \theta) = N \log \left(\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \right) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - w^T x_i)^2$$

 Let's view this from a different angle



Wait... **this part** is looking familiar...

$$\mathcal{LL}(\theta) = N \log \left(\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \right) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

How do we maximize this log-likelihood with respect to \mathbf{w} ?



Find \mathbf{w}^* such that $\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2$ is as small as possible



AKA find weights that minimize the sum of squared error!

Linear regression is just MLE of a linear model with Gaussian noise!

I can choose a different noise model to arrive at different linear regression algorithms.

$$y_i = w^T x_i + \text{Laplace}(0, \sigma) \qquad \text{Laplace}(\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{2\sigma} e^{-\frac{|x-\mu|}{\sigma}}$$



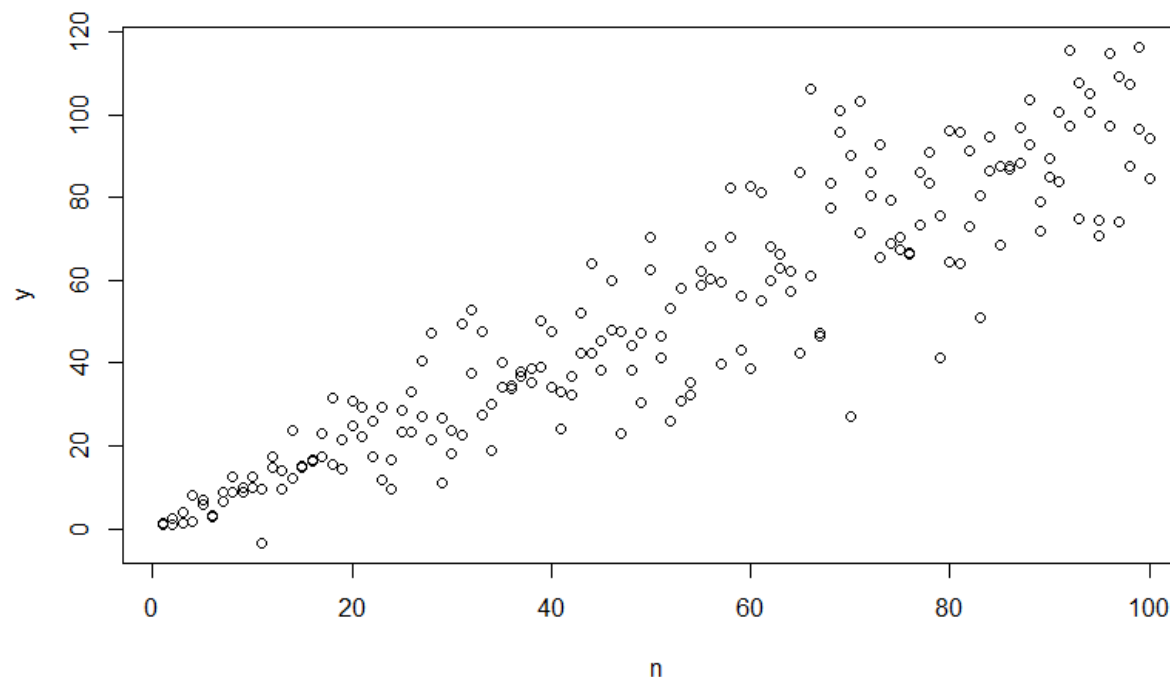
Minimizing sum of
absolute errors

I can understand and change the assumptions of my model. For instance, no longer assuming constant variance.

$$y_i \sim \text{Normal}(w^T x_i, \alpha^T x_i)$$



Correctly model
variances that
change with x



Called heteroscedastic when variance isn't constant

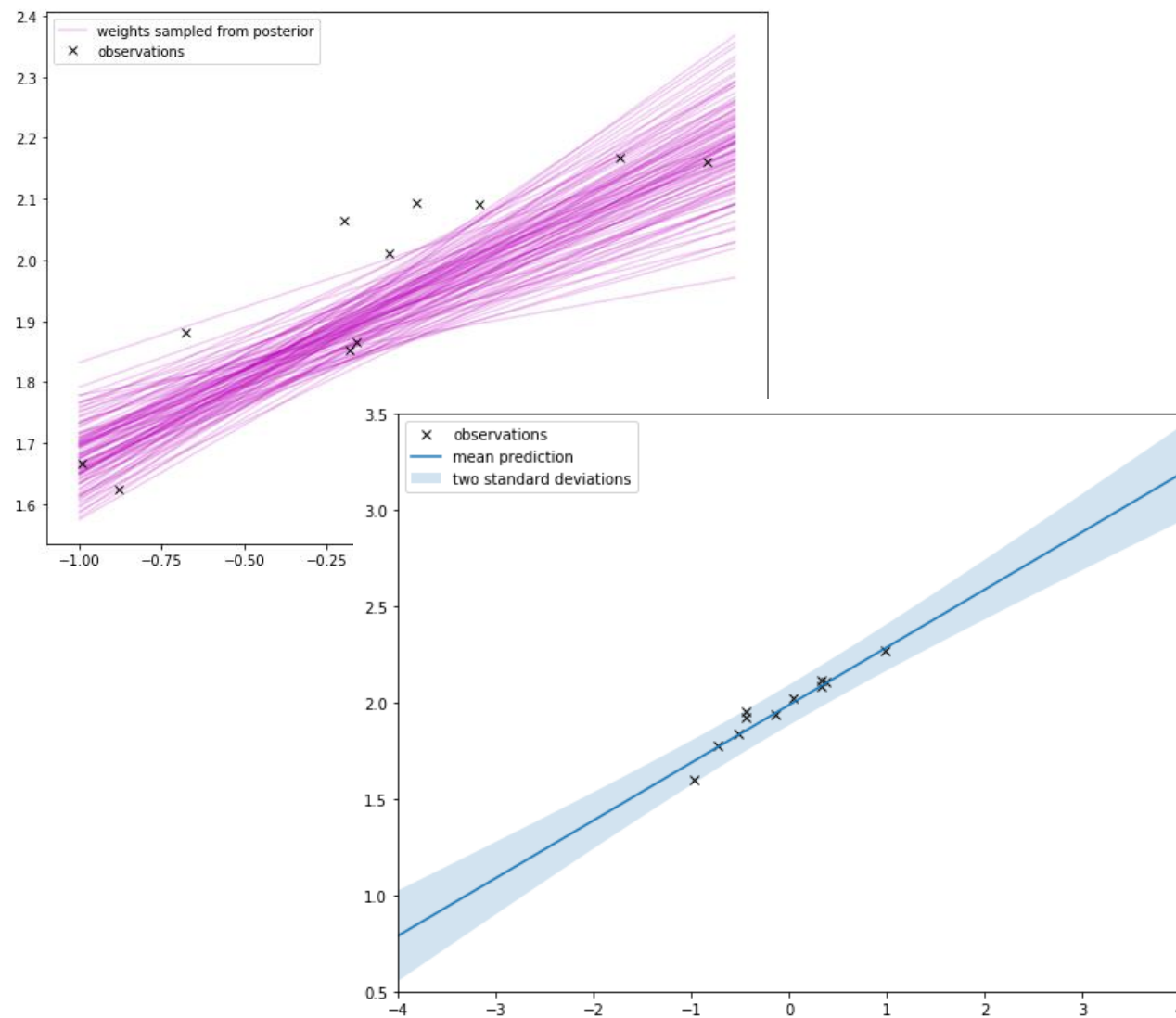
I can apply a Bayesian techniques to reason about uncertainty.

$$w \sim \text{Normal}(0, \Sigma)$$

$$y_i \sim \text{Normal}(w^T x_i, \sigma)$$



Sample from posterior
distribution or
compute estimate
confidence



I can also use a prior to encode beliefs about what my weights should be, leads to “regularized least squares”

$$w \sim \text{Normal}(0, \Sigma)$$

$$y_i \sim \text{Normal}(w^T x_i, \sigma)$$



$$w^* = \operatorname{argmin}_w \lambda \|w\|_2 + \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - w^T x_i)^2$$

Will talk more about regularization next time.



We introduced least-squares linear regression, which assumes the function that maps from \mathbf{x} to y is linear.

We defined the **sum of squared error** objective function:

$$SSE(\mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - X\mathbf{w})$$

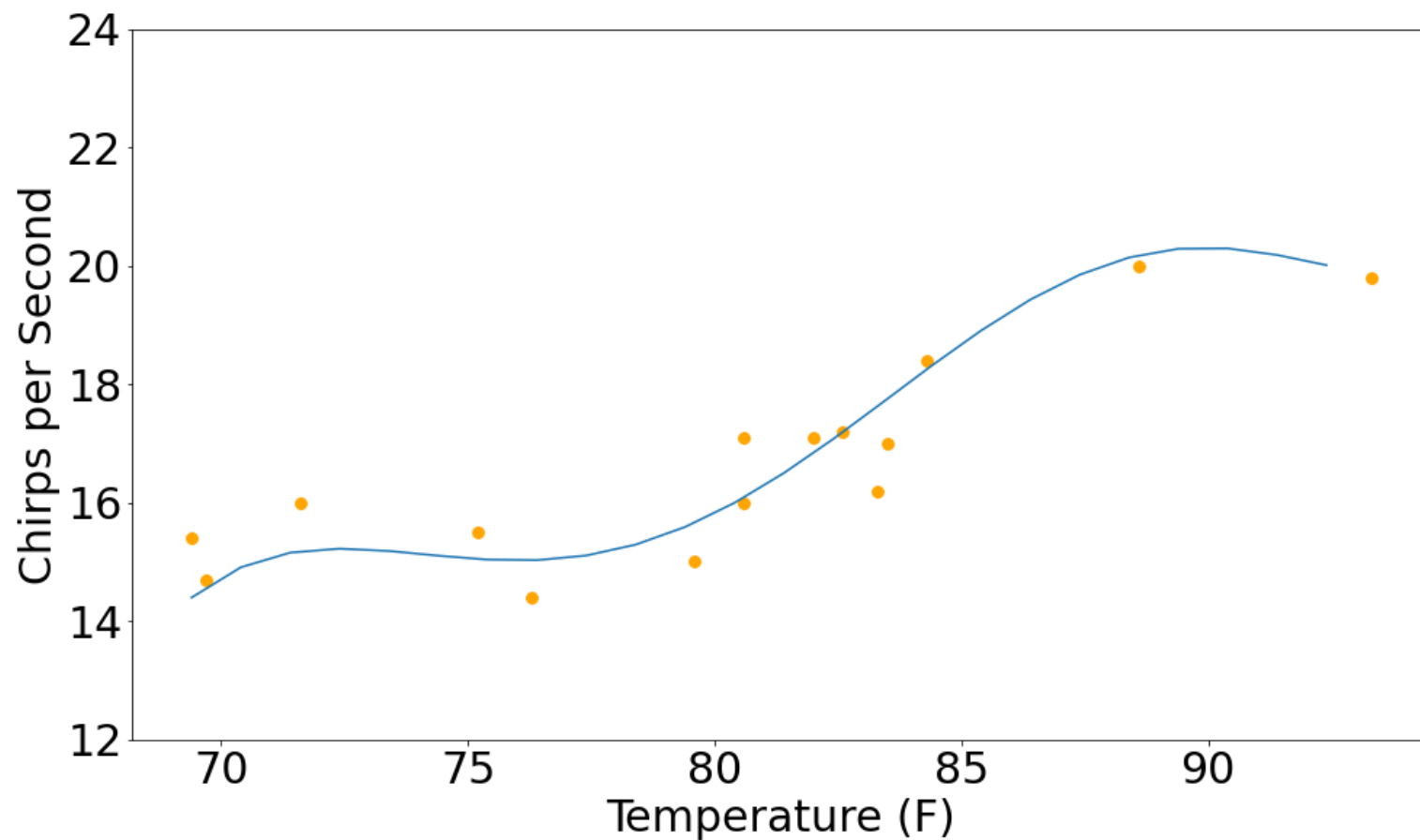
... and converted it into pure matrix/vector operations shown above.

We showed that least-squares linear regression has a probabilistic interpretation as the **MLE of a linear model with Gaussian noise**.



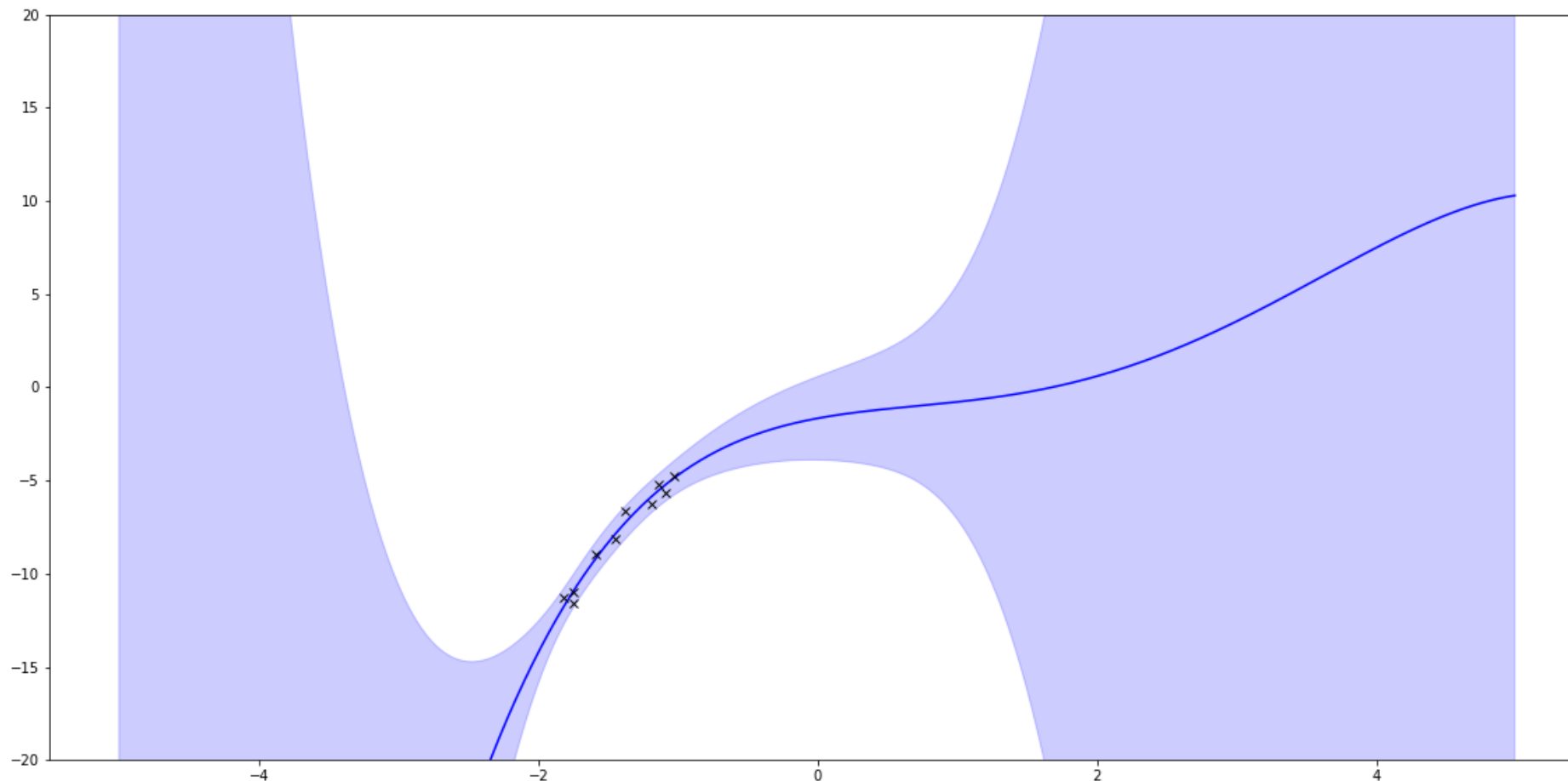
You: It's just fitting straight lines. Boring.

Me: I fit this with least-squares linear regression too. Tune in next time.





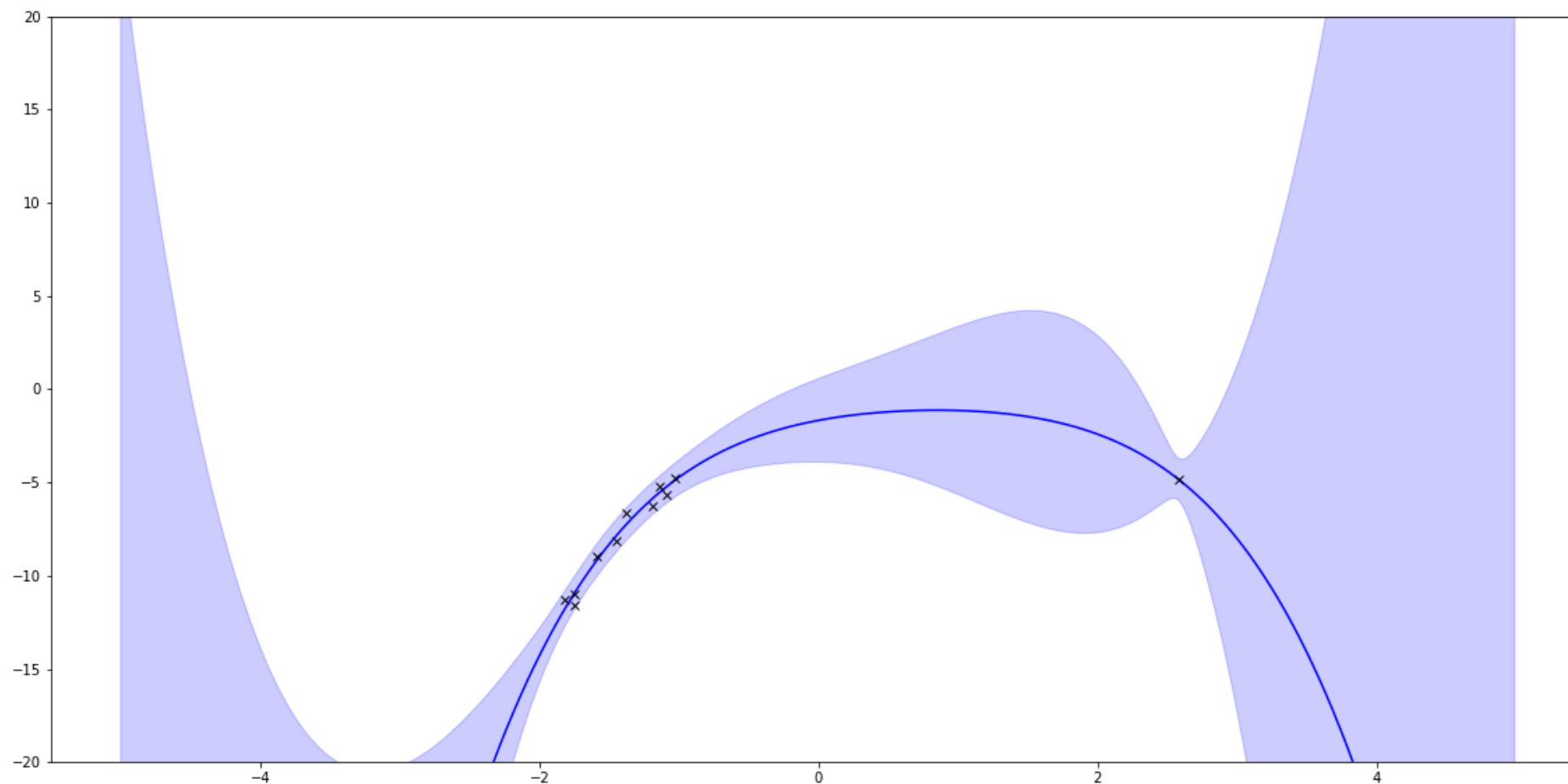
Me: You can combine this with the Bayesian stuff to make really cool fits.



Won't cover in class but the math is only somewhat worse than what we've already done (requires fiddling with multi-dimensional Gaussians)



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- ~~What are some implications of this relationship?~~



Next Time: We'll dig a bit deeper into the concept of regularization in linear models. Then we'll move onto linear models for classification.