Lecture 2: Supervised Learning

Tao LIN

March 1, 2023



- Course Project evaluation protocol
 - CS student: either (by-team) or (by-team-and-supervisor)
 - non-CS student: (by-team-and-supervisor)

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- Theoretical foundation for DL
 - We will explain the mathematical intuitions and insights behind DL methods.

This lecture:

- Basic concept of regression and classification
- Linear regression
 - Definition
 - · Gradient Descent (GD) optimization
 - Least Square
 - The probabilistic interpretation of linear regression

Next lecture:

- Over-fitting and under-fitting
- Polynomial regression and Ridge regression
- Model selection
- Bias-Variance Decomposition

Reading materials

- Chapter 1, Stanford CS 229 Lecture Notes, https://cs229.stanford.edu/notes2022fall/main_notes.pdf
- Chapter 3.1, Bishop, Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning

Reference

• EPFL, CS-433 Machine Learning, https://github.com/epfml/ML_course

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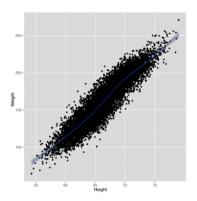
- 1 Regression and Classification
 - Regression
 - Classification
- 2 Linear Regression

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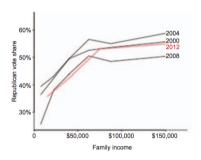
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 - Definition of Linear Regression
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What is regression?



(a) Height is correlated with weight. Taken from "Machine Learning for Hackers"



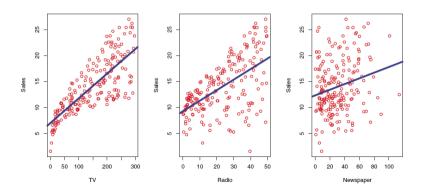
(b) Do rich people vote for republicans? Taken from Avi Feller et. al. 2013. Red state/blue state in 2012 elections.

Regression is to relate input variables to the output variable.

Dataset for regression

$$\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_n, y_n\}_{n=1}^N \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$$
 (1)

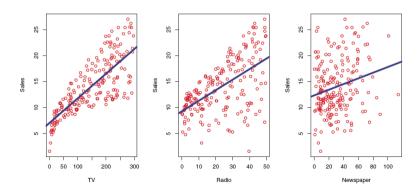
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- The number of pairs *N* is the data-size and *D* is the dimensionality.



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Remark 1 (Correlation ≠ Causation)

Regression finds a correlation not a causal relationship, so interpret your results with caution.

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Remark 2 (Shortcut learning in Deep Learning)

Models may only learn spurious correlation (and thus sensitive to distribution shifts).

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Remark 3

no ordering between classes.

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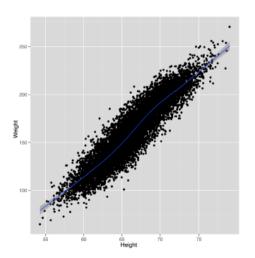
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Definition

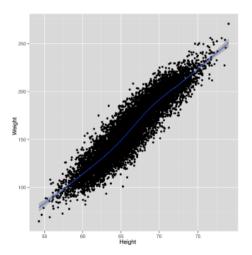
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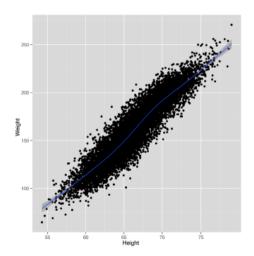
• $y_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n)$ for all n and $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_n, y_n\}_{n=1}^N \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$



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- $y_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n)$ for all n and $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_n, y_n\}_{n=1}^N \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$
- a linear relationship is assumed for *f*



Simple linear regression (w/ only one input dimension):

$$y_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n) := w_0 + w_1 x_{n1}$$

Here, $\mathbf{w} = (w_0, w_1)$ are the two parameters of the model. They describe f.

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$$y_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n) := w_0 + w_1 x_{n1} + \ldots + w_D x_{nD}$$
 (4)

$$= w_0 + \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_D \end{pmatrix} \tag{5}$$

$$=: \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n^\top \tilde{\mathbf{w}} \tag{6}$$

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Goal: Learning / Estimation / Fitting

Given data \mathcal{D} , we would like to find $\tilde{\mathbf{w}} = [w_0, w_1, \dots, w_D]$.

Detailed definition

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We need an optimization algorithm!

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- we can learn almost all fundamental concepts of ML with regression alone

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Consider the following models.

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- the cost is symmetric around 0 (penalize positive and negative errors equally)
- the cost penalizes "large" mistakes and "very-large" mistakes similarly

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- Cons: It is very sensitive to outliers.

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- + MAE is more robust to outliers.
- MAE is not differentiable at zero.

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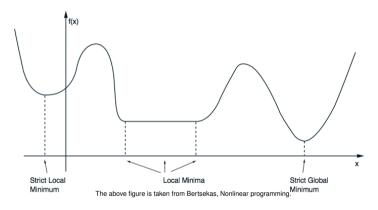
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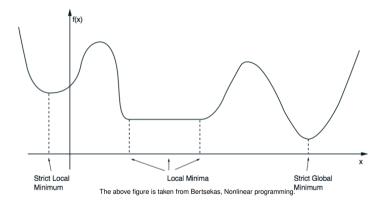
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We will use an optimization algorithm to solve the problem (to find a good w).

Optimization Landscapes



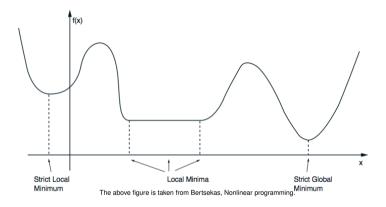
Optimization Landscapes



• A vector \mathbf{w}^* is a local minimum of \mathcal{L} if it is no worse than its neighbors; i.e. there exists an $\epsilon > 0$ such that,

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^{\star}) \leq \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}), \quad \forall \mathbf{w} \text{ with } \|\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^{\star}\| < \epsilon$$

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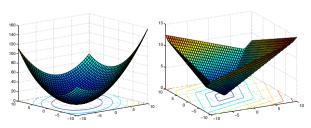
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For a 2-parameter model, MSE(w) and MAE(w) are shown below.

(We used
$$\mathbf{y}_n \approx w_0 + w_1 x_{n1}$$
 with $\mathbf{y}^\top = [2, -1, 1.5]$ and $\mathbf{x}^\top = [-1, 1, -1]$).



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$$\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} := \mathbf{w}^{(t)} - \gamma \nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})$$
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where $\gamma > 0$ is the step-size (or learning rate). Then repeat with the next t.

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Considering a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{X, y\}$ and learnable weights $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ for $f_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}$.

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^N, \qquad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1D} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2D} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{N1} & x_{N2} & \dots & x_{ND} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$$

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$$(12)$$

We define the error vector e:

$$\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} = \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ \vdots \\ e_N \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^N, \tag{13}$$

where $e_i := y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}$.

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$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^N, \qquad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1D} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2D} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{N1} & x_{N2} & \dots & x_{ND} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$$

$$(12)$$

We define the error vector e:

$$\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} = \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ \vdots \\ e_N \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^N, \tag{13}$$

where $e_i := y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}$. The MSE is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) := \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w})^2 = \frac{1}{2N} \mathbf{e}^{\top} \mathbf{e}, \qquad (14)$$

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$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{e}$$

(15

(12)

(13)

(14)

Table of Contents

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 - Classification

- Linear Regression
 - Definition of Linear Regression
 - Optimization and Gradient Descent (GD)
 - Normal Equations and Least Squares
 - Probabilistic Interpretation of Linear Regression

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 - ⇒ These equations are sometimes called the normal equations.
 - ⇒ Solving the normal equations is called the least squares.

Recall that the cost function for linear regression with MSE is given by

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w})^2 = \frac{1}{2N} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w})^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}), \tag{16}$$

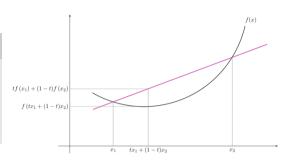
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Definition 8 (Convexity)

A function $h(\mathbf{u})$ with $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ is convex, if for any $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ and for any $0 \le \lambda \le 1$, we have:

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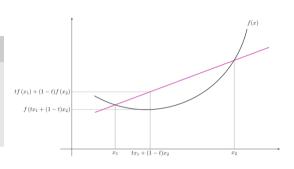


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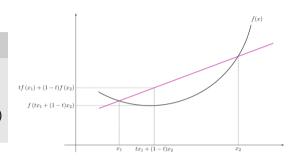
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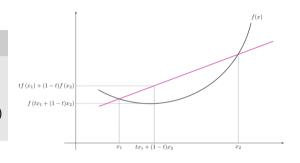
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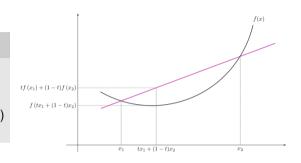
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$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^{\star}) = \mathbf{0}\,,\tag{19}$$

where \mathbf{w}^* corresponds to the parameter at the optimum point.

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Derivation (step 2): finding the minimum of a convex function

By taking the gradient of $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^\top \mathbf{w})^2 = \frac{1}{2N} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w})^\top (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w})$, we have

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Given the property of convexity $\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^*) = \mathbf{0}$, we can get the normal equations for linear regression:

$$\mathbf{X}^{\top} \underbrace{(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})}_{\text{error}} = \mathbf{0} \,, \tag{23}$$

where the error e := y - Xw is orthogonal to all columns of X.

Definition 9 (Span of a set of vectors)

The **span** of a set of vectors, $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$, is the set of all possible linear combinations of these vectors; i.e. $\mathrm{span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} = \{\alpha_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + \alpha_k\mathbf{x}_k \mid \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}\}.$

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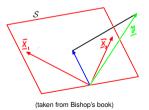
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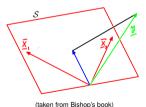
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Geometric Interpretation

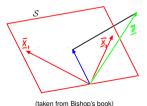
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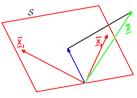
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(taken from Bishop's book)

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- the optimum choice for \mathbf{u} , i.e. \mathbf{u}^* , requires $\mathbf{v} \mathbf{u}^*$ to be orthogonal to $span(\mathbf{X})$.
- \mathbf{u}^* should be equal to the projection of \mathbf{v} onto $span(\mathbf{X})$.

We need to solve the linear system of the normal equation $X^{T}(y - Xw) = 0$, where

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We can use this model to predict a new value for an unseen datapoint (test point) x_m :

$$\hat{y}_m := \mathbf{x}_m^\top \mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{x}_m^\top (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}. \tag{26}$$

We need to solve the linear system of the normal equation $X^{T}(y - Xw) = 0$, where

$$\mathbf{X}^{\top} y = \underbrace{\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X}}_{\text{Gram matrix}} \mathbf{w} \tag{24}$$

If the Gram matrix is invertible, we can multiply the normal equation by the inverse of the Gram matrix from the left:

$$\mathbf{w}^{\star} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{y}, \tag{25}$$

where we can get a closed-form expression for the minimum.

We can use this model to predict a new value for an unseen datapoint (test point) x_m :

$$\hat{y}_m := \mathbf{x}_m^\top \mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{x}_m^\top (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$$
 (26)

Remark 10

The Gram matrix $\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$ is invertible if and only if \mathbf{X} has full column rank, or in other words $rank(\mathbf{X}) = D$.

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Can we solve least squares if X is rank deficient? Yes, using a linear system solver, e.g., np.linalg.solve(X, y).

Table of Contents

- Regression and Classification
 - Regression
 - Classification

- Linear Regression
 - Definition of Linear Regression
 - Optimization and Gradient Descent (GD)
 - Normal Equations and Least Squares
 - Probabilistic Interpretation of Linear Regression

Recall: Gaussian distribution and independence

Definition 11 (A Gaussian random variable)

The definition of a Gaussian random variable in $\mathbb R$ with mean μ and variance σ^2 . It has a density of

$$p(y \mid \mu, \sigma^2) = \mathcal{N}(y \mid \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\}.$$
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Two random variables X and Y are called *independent* when p(x,y) = p(x)p(y).

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The probabilistic view point: maximize this likelihood over the choice of model w.

Maximum-likelihood estimator (MLE)

Instead of maximizing the likelihood, we can maximize the negative of the log-likelihood, i.e., log-likelihood (LL):

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{LL}}(\mathbf{w}) := \log p(\mathbf{y} \,|\, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w})^2 + \text{cnst.}$$
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Maximizing the LL is equivalent to minimizing the MSE:

$$\underset{\mathbf{w}}{\arg\min} \ \mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{MSE}}(\mathbf{w}) = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\arg\max} \ \mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{LL}}(\mathbf{w}). \tag{34}$$

MLE is a *sample* approximation to the *expected log-likelihood*:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{LL}}(\mathbf{w}) \approx \mathbb{E}_{p(y,\mathbf{x})} \left[\log p(y \,|\, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) \right]$$
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4 MLE is efficient, i.e. it achieves the Cramer-Rao lower bound.

Covariance(
$$\mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{MLF}}$$
) = $\mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{true}})$

Another example

What if we replace the Gaussian distribution with a Laplace distribution?

$$p(y_n \mid \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2b} e^{-\frac{1}{b} |y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^\top \mathbf{w}|}$$
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we can recover the MAE cost function!

This lecture:

- Basic concept of regression and classification
- Linear regression
 - Definition
 - Gradient Descent (GD) optimization
 - Least Square
 - The probabilistic interpretation of Linear Regression

Next lecture:

- Over-fitting and under-fitting
- Polynomial regression and Ridge regression
- Model selection
- Bias-Variance Decomposition