Lecture 2: Supervised Learning

Tao LIN

February 23, 2023



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

- Course Project evaluation protocol
 - CS student: either (by-team) or (by-team-and-supervisor)
 - non-CS student: (by-team-and-supervisor)
- Homework due time
 - Every Wednesday at 9 pm

- Course Project evaluation protocol
 - CS student: either (by-team) or (by-team-and-supervisor)
 - non-CS student: (by-team-and-supervisor)
- Homework due time
 - Every Wednesday at 9 pm
- We will provide the reading materials for each lecture

- Course Project evaluation protocol
 - CS student: either (by-team) or (by-team-and-supervisor)
 - non-CS student: (by-team-and-supervisor)
- Homework due time
 - Every Wednesday at 9 pm
- We will provide the reading materials for each lecture
- QA session
 - No office hours for the moment.
 - Please post your question as a GitHub issue

- Course Project evaluation protocol
 - CS student: either (by-team) or (by-team-and-supervisor)
 - non-CS student: (by-team-and-supervisor)
- Homework due time
 - Every Wednesday at 9 pm
- We will provide the reading materials for each lecture
- QA session
 - No office hours for the moment
 - Please post your question as a GitHub issue
- Slides and prerequisites
 - We will upload the slides every Wednesday at noon.

- Course Project evaluation protocol
 - CS student: either (by-team) or (by-team-and-supervisor)
 - non-CS student: (by-team-and-supervisor)
- Homework due time
 - Every Wednesday at 9 pm
- We will provide the reading materials for each lecture
- QA session
 - No office hours for the moment
 - Please post your question as a GitHub issue
- Slides and prerequisites
 - We will upload the slides every Wednesday at noon.
- 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

Table of Contents

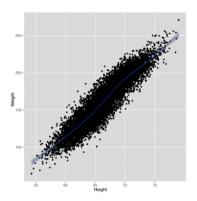
- 1 Regression and Classification
 - Regression
 - Classification
- 2 Linear Regression

Table of Contents

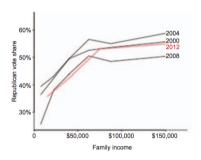
- 1 Regression and Classification
 - Regression
 - Classification

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

What is regression?



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



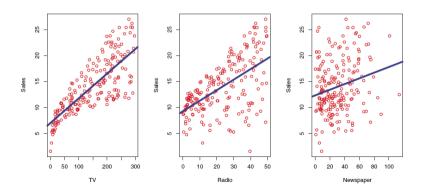
(b) Do rich people vote for republicans? Taken from Avi Feller et. al. 2013. Red state/blue state in 2012 elections.

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)

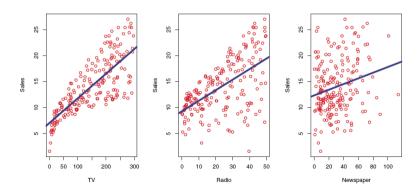
• data consists of pairs (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n) , where y_n is the *n*'th output and \mathbf{x}_n is a vector of *D* inputs.



Dataset for regression

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

- data consists of pairs (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n) , where y_n is the *n*'th output and \mathbf{x}_n is a vector of *D* inputs.
- The number of pairs *N* is the data-size and *D* is the dimensionality.



The regression function approximates the output y_n "well enough" given inputs x_n .

$$y_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n)$$
, for all n (2)

The regression function approximates the output y_n "well enough" given inputs x_n .

$$y_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n)$$
, for all n (2)

1) prediction: predict outputs for new inputs.

The regression function approximates the output y_n "well enough" given inputs x_n .

$$y_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n)$$
, for all n (2)

1 prediction: predict outputs for new inputs.

e.g., what is the weight of a person who is 170 cm tall?

The regression function approximates the output y_n "well enough" given inputs x_n .

$$y_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n)$$
, for all n (2)

- 1 prediction: predict outputs for new inputs.
 - e.g., what is the weight of a person who is 170 cm tall?
- interpretation: understand the effect of the input on the output.

The regression function approximates the output y_n "well enough" given inputs x_n .

$$y_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n)$$
, for all n (2)

- 1 prediction: predict outputs for new inputs.
 - e.g., what is the weight of a person who is 170 cm tall?
- interpretation: understand the effect of the input on the output.
 - e.g., are taller people heavier too?

The regression function approximates the output y_n "well enough" given inputs x_n .

$$y_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n)$$
, for all n (2)

- 1 prediction: predict outputs for new inputs.
 - e.g., what is the weight of a person who is 170 cm tall?
- interpretation: understand the effect of the input on the output.
 - e.g., are taller people heavier too?

Remark 1 (Correlation ≠ Causation)

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

The regression function approximates the output y_n "well enough" given inputs x_n .

$$y_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n)$$
, for all n (2)

- 1 prediction: predict outputs for new inputs.
 - e.g., what is the weight of a person who is 170 cm tall?
- interpretation: understand the effect of the input on the output.
 - e.g., are taller people heavier too?

Remark 1 (Correlation ≠ Causation)

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

Remark 2 (Shortcut learning in Deep Learning)

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

Table of Contents

- 1 Regression and Classification
 - Regression
 - Classification

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

We observe some data

$$\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_n, y_n\}_{n=1}^N \in \mathcal{X} \times \underbrace{\mathcal{Y}}_{\text{Discrete set}}$$
 (3)

We observe some data

$$\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_n, y_n\}_{n=1}^N \in \mathcal{X} \times \underbrace{\mathcal{Y}}_{\text{Discrete set}}$$
 (3)

• Binary classification: $y \in \{C_1, C_2\} \Rightarrow \text{The } C_i \text{ are called class labels or classes.}$

12/42

We observe some data

$$\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_n, y_n\}_{n=1}^N \in \mathcal{X} \times \underbrace{\mathcal{Y}}_{\text{Discrete set}}$$
 (3)

- Binary classification: $y \in \{C_1, C_2\}$ \Rightarrow The C_i are called class labels or classes.
- Multi-class classification: $y \in \{C_0, C_1, \dots, C_{K-1}\}$ for a K-class problem.

We observe some data

$$\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_n, y_n\}_{n=1}^N \in \mathcal{X} \times \underbrace{\mathcal{Y}}_{\text{Discrete set}}$$
 (3)

- Binary classification: $y \in \{C_1, C_2\}$ \Rightarrow The C_i are called class labels or classes.
- Multi-class classification: $y \in \{C_0, C_1, \dots, C_{K-1}\}$ for a K-class problem.

Remark 3

no ordering between classes.

Table of Contents

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

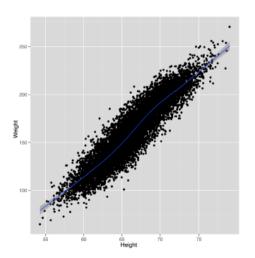
Table of Contents

- 1 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

Definition

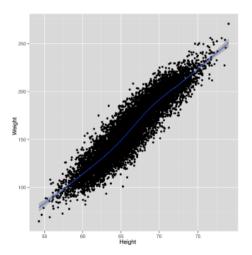
Linear regression is a model:



Definition

Linear regression is a model:

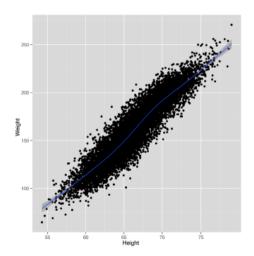
• $y_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n)$ for all n and $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_n, y_n\}_{n=1}^N \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$



Definition

Linear regression is a model:

- $y_n \approx f(\mathbf{x}_n)$ 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.

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. **Multiple linear regression** (multiple input dimension):

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

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

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

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. **Multiple linear regression** (multiple input dimension):

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

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

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

We add a tilde over the input vector & weights, to indicate containing the additional offset term (a.k.a. bias term).

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. **Multiple linear regression** (multiple input dimension):

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

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

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

We add a tilde over the input vector & weights, to indicate containing the additional offset term (a.k.a. bias term).

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

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. **Multiple linear regression** (multiple input dimension):

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

$$= w_0 + \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \left(\begin{array}{c} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_D \end{array} \right) \tag{5}$$

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

We add a tilde over the input vector & weights, to indicate containing the additional offset term (a.k.a. bias term).

Goal: Learning / Estimation / Fitting

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

We need an optimization algorithm!

simple

- simple
- easy to understand

- simple
- easy to understand
- widely used

- simple
- easy to understand
- widely used
- easily generalized to non-linear models

- simple
- easy to understand
- widely used
- easily generalized to non-linear models
- we can learn almost all fundamental concepts of ML with regression alone

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

Consider the following models.

1-parameter model: $y_n \approx w_0$

2-parameter model: $y_n \approx w_0 + w_1 x_{n1}$

Q: How can we estimate values of w given the data \mathcal{D} ?

Consider the following models.

1-parameter model: $y_n \approx w_0$

2-parameter model: $y_n \approx w_0 + w_1 x_{n1}$

Q: How can we estimate values of w given the data \mathcal{D} ?

A: Optimizing the **cost function** (or energy, loss, training objective)

Consider the following models.

1-parameter model: $y_n \approx w_0$

2-parameter model: $y_n \approx w_0 + w_1 x_{n1}$

Q: How can we estimate values of w given the data \mathcal{D} ?

A: Optimizing the **cost function** (or energy, loss, training objective) to quantify how well the learned parameter does

Consider the following models.

1-parameter model: $y_n \approx w_0$

2-parameter model: $y_n \approx w_0 + w_1 x_{n1}$

Q: How can we estimate values of w given the data \mathcal{D} ?

A: Optimizing the **cost function** (or energy, loss, training objective) to quantify how well the learned parameter does

Two desirable properties of cost functions

Consider the following models.

```
1-parameter model: y_n \approx w_0
```

2-parameter model:
$$y_n \approx w_0 + w_1 x_{n1}$$

Q: How can we estimate values of w given the data \mathcal{D} ?

A: Optimizing the **cost function** (or energy, loss, training objective) to quantify how well the learned parameter does

Two desirable properties of cost functions

• the cost is symmetric around 0 (penalize positive and negative errors equally)

Consider the following models.

```
1-parameter model: y_n \approx w_0
```

2-parameter model:
$$y_n \approx w_0 + w_1 x_{n1}$$

Q: How can we estimate values of w given the data \mathcal{D} ?

A: Optimizing the **cost function** (or energy, loss, training objective) to quantify how well the learned parameter does

Two desirable properties of cost functions

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

$$MSE(\mathbf{w}) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[y_n - f_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_n) \right]^2$$
 (7)

$$MSE(\mathbf{w}) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[y_n - f_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_n) \right]^2$$
 (7)

Does this cost function have both mentioned properties?

$$MSE(\mathbf{w}) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[y_n - f_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_n) \right]^2$$
 (7)

Does this cost function have both mentioned properties?

No!

$$MSE(\mathbf{w}) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[y_n - f_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_n) \right]^2$$
 (7)

Does this cost function have both mentioned properties?

No!

Definition 4 (Outliers)

Outliers are data examples that are far away from most of the other examples.

$$MSE(\mathbf{w}) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[y_n - f_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_n) \right]^2$$
 (7)

Does this cost function have both mentioned properties?

No!

Definition 4 (Outliers)

Outliers are data examples that are far away from most of the other examples.

MSE is not a good cost function when outliers are present.

$$MSE(\mathbf{w}) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[y_n - f_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_n) \right]^2$$
 (7)

Does this cost function have both mentioned properties?

No!

Definition 4 (Outliers)

Outliers are data examples that are far away from most of the other examples.

MSE is not a good cost function when outliers are present.

• **Pros:** It ensures that *trained model has no outlier predictions with huge errors.*

$$MSE(\mathbf{w}) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[y_n - f_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_n) \right]^2$$
 (7)

Does this cost function have both mentioned properties?

No!

Definition 4 (Outliers)

Outliers are data examples that are far away from most of the other examples.

MSE is not a good cost function when outliers are present.

- **Pros:** It ensures that *trained model has no outlier predictions with huge errors.*
- Cons: It is very sensitive to outliers.

Handling outliers well is a desired *statistical* property.

Handling outliers well is a desired statistical property.

$$\mathsf{MAE}(\mathbf{w}) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |y_n - f_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_n)| \tag{8}$$

Handling outliers well is a desired statistical property.

$$\mathsf{MAE}(\mathbf{w}) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |y_n - f_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_n)| \tag{8}$$

+ MAE is more robust to outliers.

Handling outliers well is a desired statistical property.

$$\mathsf{MAE}(\mathbf{w}) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |y_n - f_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_n)| \tag{8}$$

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

Learning / Estimation / Fitting

Definition 5 (*Learning* problem can be formulated as optimization problem)

Given a cost function $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$, we wish to find \mathbf{w}^{\star} which minimizes the cost:

Learning / Estimation / Fitting

Definition 5 (*Learning* problem can be formulated as optimization problem)

Given a cost function $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$, we wish to find \mathbf{w}^{\star} which minimizes the cost:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) \quad \text{subject to } \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{D}$$
 (9)

Learning / Estimation / Fitting

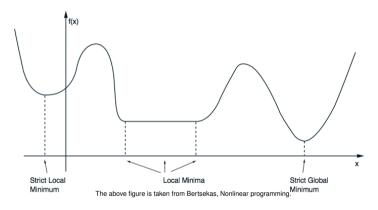
Definition 5 (*Learning* problem can be formulated as optimization problem)

Given a cost function $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$, we wish to find \mathbf{w}^{\star} which minimizes the cost:

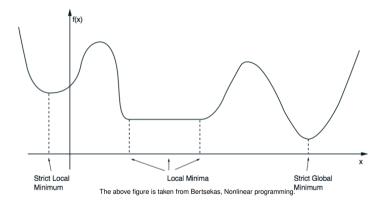
$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \ \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) \quad \text{subject to } \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{D}$$
 (9)

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

Optimization Landscapes



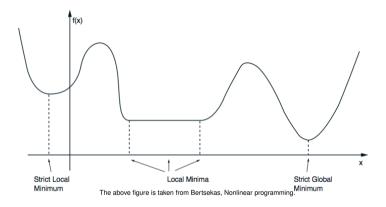
Optimization Landscapes



• 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,

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

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.

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

• A vector \mathbf{w}^* is a global minimum of \mathcal{L} if it is no worse than all others, $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^*) < \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}), \quad \forall \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D$

Definition 6 (Gradient)

A gradient $\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ (at a point) is the slope of the *tangent* to the function (at that point):

Definition 6 (Gradient)

A gradient $\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ (at a point) is the slope of the *tangent* to the function (at that point):

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) := \left[\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_D} \right]^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^D,$$
(10)

Definition 6 (Gradient)

A gradient $\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ (at a point) is the slope of the *tangent* to the function (at that point):

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) := \left[\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_D} \right]^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^D,$$
(10)

where it points to the direction of the largest increase of the function.

Definition 6 (Gradient)

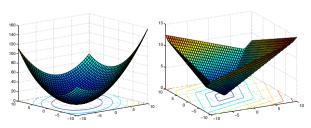
A gradient $\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ (at a point) is the slope of the *tangent* to the function (at that point):

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) := \left[\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_D} \right]^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^D,$$
(10)

where it points to the direction of the largest increase of the function.

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 $\mathbf{x}^\top = [-1, 1, -1]$).



Gradient Descent

Definition 7 (Gradient Descent)

To minimize the cost function, we iteratively take a step in the (opposite) direction of the gradient

Gradient Descent

Definition 7 (Gradient Descent)

To minimize the cost function, we iteratively take a step in the (opposite) direction of the gradient

$$\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} := \mathbf{w}^{(t)} - \gamma \nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})$$
(11)

Gradient Descent

Definition 7 (Gradient Descent)

To minimize the cost function, we iteratively take a step in the (opposite) direction of the gradient

$$\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} := \mathbf{w}^{(t)} - \gamma \nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^{(t)})$$
(11)

where $\gamma > 0$ is the step-size (or learning rate). Then repeat with the next t.

25/42

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

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

$$(12)$$

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

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

$$(12)$$

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

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

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

$$(12)$$

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:

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

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

$$\mathbf{y} = \left[egin{array}{c} y_1 \ y_2 \ dots \ y_{Nl} \end{array}
ight] \in \mathbb{R}^N \,, \qquad \mathbf{X} = \left[egin{array}{cccc} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1D} \ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2D} \ dots & dots & \ddots & dots \ x_{Nl} & x_{Nl2} & \dots & x_{ND} \end{array}
ight] \in \mathbb{R}^{N imes D}$$

We define the error vector e:

$$\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} = \left(egin{array}{c} e_1 \ dots \ e_N \end{array}
ight) \in \mathbb{R}^N \, ,$$

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

and then the gradient is given by

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

(14)

(12)

(13)

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

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

• In rare cases, one can compute the optimum of the cost function analytically.

- In rare cases, one can compute the optimum of the cost function analytically.
- Linear regression using an MSE cost function is one such case.

- In rare cases, one can compute the optimum of the cost function analytically.
- Linear regression using an MSE cost function is one such case.
- Here its solution can be obtained explicitly, by solving a linear system of equations.

- In rare cases, one can compute the optimum of the cost function analytically.
- Linear regression using an MSE cost function is one such case.
- Here its solution can be obtained explicitly, by solving a linear system of equations.
 - \Rightarrow These equations are sometimes called the normal equations.

- In rare cases, one can compute the optimum of the cost function analytically.
- Linear regression using an MSE cost function is one such case.
- Here its solution can be obtained explicitly, by solving a linear system of equations.
 - ⇒ 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

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

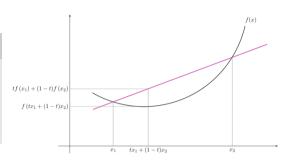
where

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^N, \qquad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1D} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2D} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{N1} & x_{N2} & \dots & x_{ND} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}.$$
 (17)

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:

$$h(\lambda \mathbf{u} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{v}) \le \lambda h(\mathbf{u}) + (1 - \lambda)h(\mathbf{v})$$
 (18)

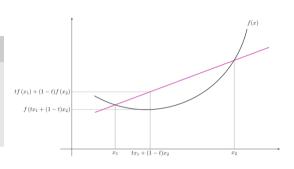


Definition 8 (Convexity)

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:

$$h(\lambda \mathbf{u} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{v}) \le \lambda h(\mathbf{u}) + (1 - \lambda)h(\mathbf{v})$$
 (18)

To derive the normal equations,



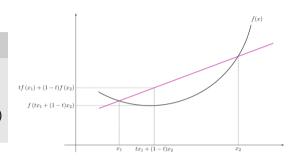
Definition 8 (Convexity)

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:

$$h(\lambda \mathbf{u} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{v}) \le \lambda h(\mathbf{u}) + (1 - \lambda)h(\mathbf{v})$$
 (18)

To derive the normal equations,

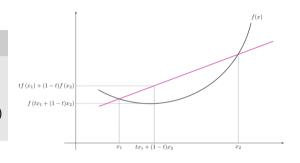
1 we first show that the problem is convex.



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:

$$h(\lambda \mathbf{u} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{v}) \le \lambda h(\mathbf{u}) + (1 - \lambda)h(\mathbf{v})$$
 (18)



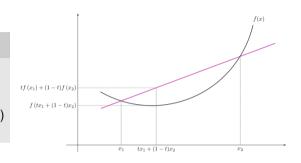
To derive the normal equations,

- 1) we first show that the problem is convex.
- 2 we then use the optimality conditions for convex functions, i.e.,

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:

$$h(\lambda \mathbf{u} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{v}) \le \lambda h(\mathbf{u}) + (1 - \lambda)h(\mathbf{v})$$
 (18)



To derive the normal equations,

- 1 we first show that the problem is convex.
- we then use the optimality conditions for convex functions, i.e.,

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

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

There are several ways of proving this:

There are several ways of proving this:

Way 1. Recall the definition of \mathcal{L} , where

$$\mathcal{L} := \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(\mathcal{L}_n := y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w} \right)^2 , \qquad (20)$$

where each \mathcal{L}_n is the composition of a linear function with a convex function.

There are several ways of proving this:

Way 1. Recall the definition of \mathcal{L} , where

$$\mathcal{L} := \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(\mathcal{L}_n := y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w} \right)^2 , \qquad (20)$$

where each \mathcal{L}_n is the composition of a linear function with a convex function. \Rightarrow We conclude the proof by "the sum of convex functions is still a convex function".

There are several ways of proving this:

Way 1. Recall the definition of \mathcal{L} , where

$$\mathcal{L} := \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(\mathcal{L}_n := y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w} \right)^2 , \qquad (20)$$

where each \mathcal{L}_n is the composition of a linear function with a convex function. \Rightarrow We conclude the proof by "the sum of convex functions is still a convex function".

Way 2. By verifying the definition of convexity, that for any $\lambda \in [0,1]$ and \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}' ,

$$\mathcal{L}(\lambda \mathbf{w} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{w}') - (\lambda \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) + (1 - \lambda)\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}')) \le 0.$$
 (21)

There are several ways of proving this:

Way 1. Recall the definition of \mathcal{L} , where

$$\mathcal{L} := \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(\mathcal{L}_n := y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w} \right)^2 , \qquad (20)$$

where each \mathcal{L}_n is the composition of a linear function with a convex function. \Rightarrow We conclude the proof by "the sum of convex functions is still a convex function".

Way 2. By verifying the definition of convexity, that for any $\lambda \in [0,1]$ and \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}' ,

$$\mathcal{L}(\lambda \mathbf{w} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{w}') - (\lambda \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) + (1 - \lambda)\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}')) \le 0.$$
 (21)

The LHS of our case $-\frac{1}{2N}\lambda(1-\lambda)\|\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{w}')\|_2^2$ indeed is non-positive.

There are several ways of proving this:

Way 1. Recall the definition of \mathcal{L} , where

$$\mathcal{L} := \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(\mathcal{L}_n := y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w} \right)^2 , \qquad (20)$$

where each \mathcal{L}_n is the composition of a linear function with a convex function. \Rightarrow We conclude the proof by "the sum of convex functions is still a convex function".

Way 2. By verifying the definition of convexity, that for any $\lambda \in [0,1]$ and \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}' ,

$$\mathcal{L}(\lambda \mathbf{w} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{w}') - (\lambda \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) + (1 - \lambda)\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}')) \le 0.$$
 (21)

The LHS of our case $-\frac{1}{2N}\lambda(1-\lambda)\|\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{w}')\|_2^2$ indeed is non-positive.

Way 3: check the second derivative (the Hessian) and show that it is positive semi-definite (all its eigenvalues are non-negative).

There are several ways of proving this:

Way 1. Recall the definition of \mathcal{L} , where

$$\mathcal{L} := \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(\mathcal{L}_n := y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w} \right)^2 , \qquad (20)$$

where each \mathcal{L}_n is the composition of a linear function with a convex function. \Rightarrow We conclude the proof by "the sum of convex functions is still a convex function".

Way 2. By verifying the definition of convexity, that for any $\lambda \in [0,1]$ and \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}' ,

$$\mathcal{L}(\lambda \mathbf{w} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{w}') - (\lambda \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) + (1 - \lambda)\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}')) \le 0.$$
 (21)

The LHS of our case $-\frac{1}{2N}\lambda(1-\lambda) \|\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{w}')\|_2^2$ indeed is non-positive.

Way 3: check the second derivative (the Hessian) and show that it is positive semi-definite (all its eigenvalues are non-negative).

 \Rightarrow the Hessian has the form $\frac{1}{N}X^{\top}X$,

There are several ways of proving this:

Way 1. Recall the definition of \mathcal{L} , where

$$\mathcal{L} := \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(\mathcal{L}_n := y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w} \right)^2 , \qquad (20)$$

where each \mathcal{L}_n is the composition of a linear function with a convex function. \Rightarrow We conclude the proof by "the sum of convex functions is still a convex function".

Way 2. By verifying the definition of convexity, that for any $\lambda \in [0,1]$ and \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}' ,

$$\mathcal{L}(\lambda \mathbf{w} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{w}') - (\lambda \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) + (1 - \lambda)\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}')) \le 0.$$
 (21)

The LHS of our case $-\frac{1}{2N}\lambda(1-\lambda) \|\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{w}')\|_2^2$ indeed is non-positive.

Way 3: check the second derivative (the Hessian) and show that it is positive semi-definite (all its eigenvalues are non-negative).

 \Rightarrow the Hessian has the form $\frac{1}{N}\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X}$, which is indeed positive semi-definite

There are several ways of proving this:

Way 1. Recall the definition of \mathcal{L} , where

$$\mathcal{L} := \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(\mathcal{L}_n := y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w} \right)^2 , \qquad (20)$$

where each \mathcal{L}_n is the composition of a linear function with a convex function. \Rightarrow We conclude the proof by "the sum of convex functions is still a convex function".

Way 2. By verifying the definition of convexity, that for any $\lambda \in [0,1]$ and \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}' ,

$$\mathcal{L}(\lambda \mathbf{w} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{w}') - (\lambda \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) + (1 - \lambda)\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}')) \le 0.$$
 (21)

The LHS of our case $-\frac{1}{2N}\lambda(1-\lambda) \|\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{w}')\|_2^2$ indeed is non-positive.

Way 3: check the second derivative (the Hessian) and show that it is positive semi-definite (all its eigenvalues are non-negative).

 \Rightarrow the Hessian has the form $\frac{1}{N}X^{\top}X$, which is indeed positive semi-definite (its non-zero eigenvalues are the squares of the non-zero singular values of the matrix X).

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

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}^{\top} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}). \tag{22}$$

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

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}^{\top} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}). \tag{22}$$

Given the property of convexity $\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}^{\star}) = \mathbf{0}$,

32/42

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

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}^{\top} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}). \tag{22}$$

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. $\mathrm{span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} = \{\alpha_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + \alpha_k\mathbf{x}_k \mid \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}\}.$

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. $\operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} = \{\alpha_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + \alpha_k\mathbf{x}_k \mid \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}\}.$

ullet The span of $old X \in \mathbb{R}^{N imes D}$ is the space spanned by the columns of old X

$$S := span(\mathbf{X}) = \{\mathbf{u} := \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D\}$$

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. $\operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} = \{\alpha_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + \alpha_k\mathbf{x}_k \mid \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}\}.$

• The span of $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ is the space spanned by the columns of \mathbf{X}

$$\mathcal{S} := span(\mathbf{X}) = \{\mathbf{u} := \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D\}$$

Which element \mathbf{u} of $span(\mathbf{X})$ shall we take? (for the normal equation $\mathbf{X}^{\top}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{0}$)

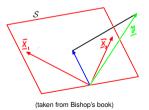
Definition 9 (Span of a set of vectors)

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. $\operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} = \{\alpha_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + \alpha_k\mathbf{x}_k \mid \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}\}.$

• The span of $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ is the space spanned by the columns of \mathbf{X}

$$S := span(\mathbf{X}) = \{\mathbf{u} := \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D\}$$

Which element \mathbf{u} of $span(\mathbf{X})$ shall we take? (for the normal equation $\mathbf{X}^{\top}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{0}$)



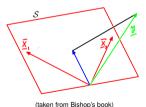
Definition 9 (Span of a set of vectors)

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. $\operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} = \{\alpha_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + \alpha_k\mathbf{x}_k \mid \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}\}.$

• The span of $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ is the space spanned by the columns of \mathbf{X}

$$S := span(\mathbf{X}) = \{\mathbf{u} := \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D\}$$

Which element \mathbf{u} of $span(\mathbf{X})$ shall we take? (for the normal equation $\mathbf{X}^{\top}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{0}$)



From $\mathbf{X}^{\top}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{0}$, we have:

Geometric Interpretation

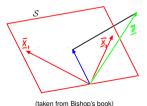
Definition 9 (Span of a set of vectors)

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. $\operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} = \{\alpha_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + \alpha_k\mathbf{x}_k \mid \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}\}.$

ullet The span of $old X \in \mathbb{R}^{N imes D}$ is the space spanned by the columns of old X

$$S := span(\mathbf{X}) = \{\mathbf{u} := \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D\}$$

Which element \mathbf{u} of $span(\mathbf{X})$ shall we take? (for the normal equation $\mathbf{X}^{\top}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{0}$)



From $\mathbf{X}^{\top}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{0}$, we have:

• the optimum choice for \mathbf{u} , i.e. \mathbf{u}^* , requires $\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{u}^*$ to be orthogonal to $span(\mathbf{X})$.

Geometric Interpretation

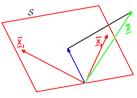
Definition 9 (Span of a set of vectors)

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. $\mathrm{span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} = \{\alpha_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + \alpha_k\mathbf{x}_k \mid \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}\}.$

ullet The span of $old X \in \mathbb{R}^{N imes D}$ is the space spanned by the columns of old X

$$S := span(\mathbf{X}) = \{\mathbf{u} := \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D\}$$

Which element \mathbf{u} of $span(\mathbf{X})$ shall we take? (for the normal equation $\mathbf{X}^{\top}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{0}$)



(taken from Bishop's book)

From $\mathbf{X}^{\top}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{0}$, we have:

- 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

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

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 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:

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

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

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

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 :

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

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 :

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

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 $rank(\mathbf{X}) = D$.

Unfortunately, in practice, $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ is often rank deficient.

Unfortunately, in practice, $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ is often rank deficient.

For example,

Unfortunately, in practice, $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ is often rank deficient.

For example,

• If D > N (namely over-parameterized), we always have $rank(\mathbf{X}) < D$

Unfortunately, in practice, $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ is often rank deficient.

For example,

• If D>N (namely over-parameterized), we always have $rank(\mathbf{X})< D$ (since row rank = col. rank)

Unfortunately, in practice, $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ is often rank deficient.

For example,

- If D > N (namely over-parameterized), we always have $rank(\mathbf{X}) < D$ (since row rank = col. rank)
- If $D \le N$, but some of the columns $\mathbf{x}_{:d}$ are (nearly) collinear

Unfortunately, in practice, $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ is often rank deficient.

For example,

- If D > N (namely over-parameterized), we always have $rank(\mathbf{X}) < D$ (since row rank = col. rank)
- If D ≤ N, but some of the columns x_{:d} are (nearly) collinear
 ⇒ X is ill-conditioned, leading to numerical issues when solving the linear system.

Unfortunately, in practice, $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ is often rank deficient.

For example,

- If D > N (namely over-parameterized), we always have $rank(\mathbf{X}) < D$ (since row rank = col. rank)
- If D ≤ N, but some of the columns x_{:d} are (nearly) collinear
 ⇒ X is ill-conditioned, leading to numerical issues when solving the linear system.

Can we solve least squares if X is rank deficient?

Unfortunately, in practice, $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ is often rank deficient.

For example,

- If D>N (namely over-parameterized), we always have $rank(\mathbf{X}) < D$ (since row rank = col. rank)
- If D ≤ N, but some of the columns x_{:d} are (nearly) collinear
 ⇒ X is ill-conditioned, leading to numerical issues when solving the linear system.

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

$$p(y \mid \mu, \sigma^2) = \mathcal{N}(y \mid \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\}.$$
 (27)

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

$$p(y \mid \mu, \sigma^2) = \mathcal{N}(y \mid \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\}.$$
 (27)

Definition 12 (The density of a Gaussian random vector)

The density of a Gaussian random vector with mean μ and covariance Σ (which must be a positive semi-definite matrix) is

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^D \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma})}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right\}.$$
 (28)

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

$$p(y \mid \mu, \sigma^2) = \mathcal{N}(y \mid \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\}.$$
 (27)

Definition 12 (The density of a Gaussian random vector)

The density of a Gaussian random vector with mean μ and covariance Σ (which must be a positive semi-definite matrix) is

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^D \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma})}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right\}.$$
(28)

Two random variables X and Y are called *independent* when p(x,y) = p(x)p(y).

Definition 13 (Data generation process)

We assume that the data is generated by the model,

$$y_n = \mathbf{x}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} + \epsilon_n, \tag{29}$$

where

Definition 13 (Data generation process)

We assume that the data is generated by the model,

$$y_n = \mathbf{x}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} + \epsilon_n, \tag{29}$$

where

• the ϵ_n (the noise) is a zero-mean Gaussian random variable with variance σ^2

Definition 13 (Data generation process)

We assume that the data is generated by the model,

$$y_n = \mathbf{x}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} + \epsilon_n, \tag{29}$$

where

- the ϵ_n (the noise) is a zero-mean Gaussian random variable with variance σ^2
- the noise is independent of each other and independent of the input.

Definition 13 (Data generation process)

We assume that the data is generated by the model,

$$y_n = \mathbf{x}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} + \epsilon_n, \tag{29}$$

where

- the ϵ_n (the noise) is a zero-mean Gaussian random variable with variance σ^2
- the noise is independent of each other and independent of the input.
- the model w is unknown.

Definition 13 (Data generation process)

We assume that the data is generated by the model,

$$y_n = \mathbf{x}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} + \epsilon_n, \tag{29}$$

where

- the ϵ_n (the noise) is a zero-mean Gaussian random variable with variance σ^2
- the noise is independent of each other and independent of the input.
- the model w is unknown.

The likelihood of the data vector $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_N)$ given the input \mathbf{X} and the model \mathbf{w} is

$$p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(y_n \mid \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}(y_n \mid \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}, \sigma^2).$$
(30)

Definition 13 (Data generation process)

We assume that the data is generated by the model,

$$y_n = \mathbf{x}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} + \epsilon_n, \tag{29}$$

where

- the ϵ_n (the noise) is a zero-mean Gaussian random variable with variance σ^2
- the noise is independent of each other and independent of the input.
- the model w is unknown.

The likelihood of the data vector $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_N)$ given the input \mathbf{X} and the model \mathbf{w} is

$$p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(y_n \mid \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}(y_n \mid \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}, \sigma^2).$$
(30)

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 take the logarithm of the likelihood, i.e., log-likelihood (LL):

$$\mathcal{L}_{LL}(\mathbf{w}) := \log p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w})^2 + \text{cnst.}$$
 (31)

Maximum-likelihood estimator (MLE)

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

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{LL}}(\mathbf{w}) := \log p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w})^2 + \text{cnst.}$$
 (31)

Compare the LL to the MSE (Mean Squared Error)

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{LL}}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w})^2 + \text{cnst}$$
 (32)

$$\mathcal{L}_{MSE}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w})^2$$
(33)

Maximum-likelihood estimator (MLE)

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

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{LL}}(\mathbf{w}) := \log p(\mathbf{y} \,|\, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w})^2 + \text{cnst.}$$
 (31)

Compare the LL to the MSE (Mean Squared Error)

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{LL}}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w})^2 + \mathsf{cnst}$$
 (32)

$$\mathcal{L}_{MSE}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w})^2$$
(33)

Maximizing the LL is equivalent to minimizing the MSE:

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

39/42

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

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{LL}}(\mathbf{w}) \approx \mathbb{E}_{p(y,\mathbf{x})} \left[\log p(y \,|\, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) \right]$$
 (35)

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

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{LL}}(\mathbf{w}) \approx \mathbb{E}_{p(y, \mathbf{x})} \left[\log p(y | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) \right]$$
 (35)

This gives us another way to design cost functions.

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

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{LL}}(\mathbf{w}) \approx \mathbb{E}_{p(y,\mathbf{x})} \left[\log p(y \,|\, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) \right]$$
 (35)

1 This gives us another way to design cost functions. MLE can also be interpreted as finding the model under which the observed data is most likely to have been generated from (probabilistically).

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

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{LL}}(\mathbf{w}) \approx \mathbb{E}_{p(y,\mathbf{x})} \left[\log p(y \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) \right]$$
 (35)

- 1 This gives us another way to design cost functions. MLE can also be interpreted as finding the model under which the observed data is most likely to have been generated from (probabilistically).
- 2 MLE is consistent, i.e., it will give us the correct model assuming that we have a sufficient amount of data. (can be proven under some weak conditions)

$$\mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{MLE}} \longrightarrow^{p} \mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{true}}$$
 in probability (36)

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

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{LL}}(\mathbf{w}) \approx \mathbb{E}_{p(y,\mathbf{x})} \left[\log p(y \,|\, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) \right]$$
 (35)

- 1 This gives us another way to design cost functions. MLE can also be interpreted as finding the model under which the observed data is most likely to have been generated from (probabilistically).
- 2 MLE is consistent, i.e., it will give us the correct model assuming that we have a sufficient amount of data. (can be proven under some weak conditions)

$$\mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{MLE}} \longrightarrow^{p} \mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{true}}$$
 in probability (36)

3 The MLE is asymptotically normal, i.e.,

$$(\mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{MLE}} - \mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{true}}) \longrightarrow^{d} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{MLE}} \,|\, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{true}})),$$
 (37)

where $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{w}) = -\mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{y})} \left[\frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w} \partial \mathbf{w}^\top} \right]$ is the Fisher information.

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

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{LL}}(\mathbf{w}) \approx \mathbb{E}_{p(y,\mathbf{x})} \left[\log p(y \,|\, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) \right]$$
 (35)

- 1 This gives us another way to design cost functions.

 MLE can also be interpreted as finding the model under which the observed data is most likely to have been generated from (probabilistically).
- 2 MLE is consistent, i.e., it will give us the correct model assuming that we have a sufficient amount of data. (can be proven under some weak conditions)

$$\mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{MLE}} \longrightarrow^{p} \mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{true}}$$
 in probability (36)

3 The MLE is asymptotically normal, i.e.,

$$(\mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{MLE}} - \mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{true}}) \longrightarrow^{d} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{MLE}} \mid \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{w}_{\mathsf{true}})),$$
 (37)

where $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{w}) = -\mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{y})} \left[\frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w} \partial \mathbf{w}^{\top}} \right]$ is the Fisher information.

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?

$$p(y_n \mid \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2b} e^{-\frac{1}{b} |y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^\top \mathbf{w}|}$$
(39)

Another example

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

$$p(y_n \mid \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2b} e^{-\frac{1}{b} |y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^\top \mathbf{w}|}$$
(39)

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