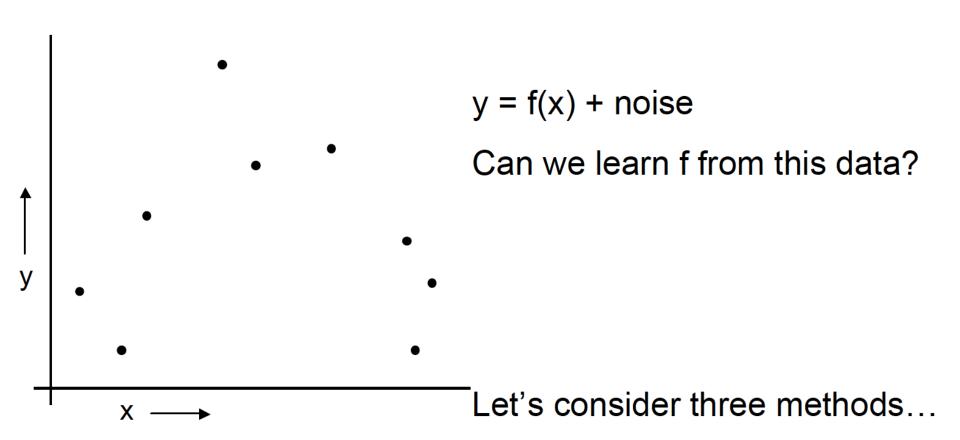
# CS 440 Introduction to Artificial Intelligence

Lecture 23:

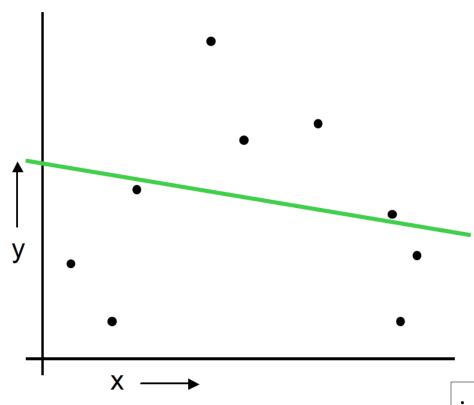
Cross-Validation – Linear Regression (continued)

May 14, 2020

# A Regression Problem



# Linear Regression



Objective: Minimize the

Sum of Squared Errors

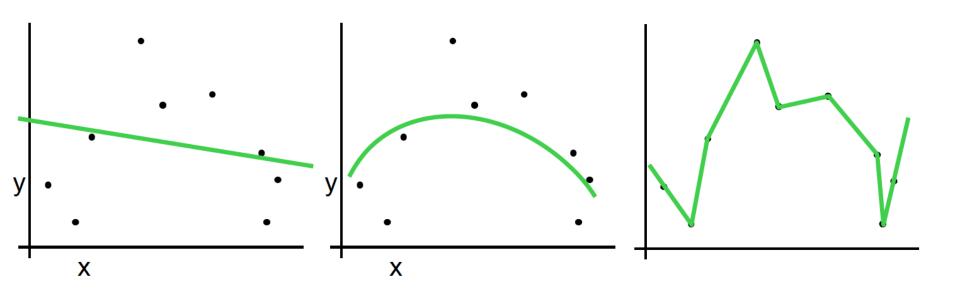
i.e. sum of squared differences

between y values

and the green line

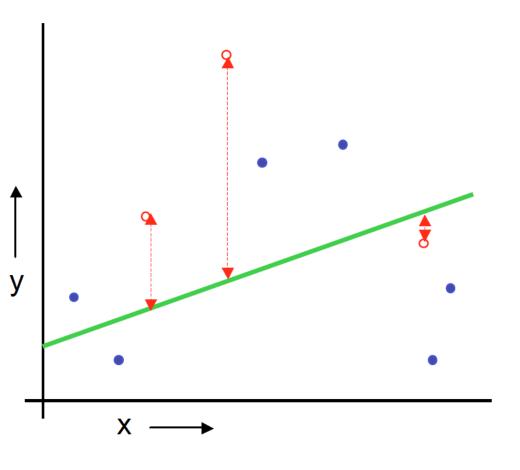
$$y = W_0 + W_1 \cdot x$$

- ŷi is the prediction of the linear model
- · yi the actual value for input xi
- Then minimize:  $Q = \Sigma i (\hat{y}i yi)2$



Why not choose the method with the best fit to the data?

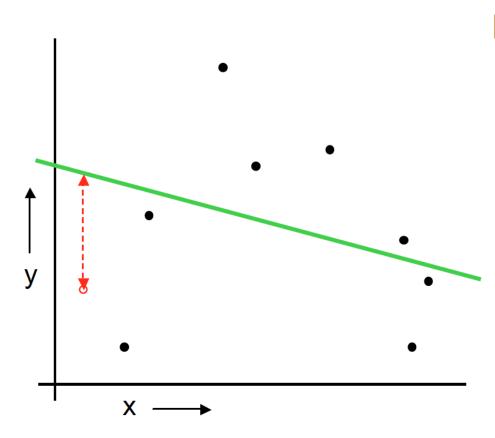
"How well are you going to predict future data drawn from the same distribution?"



(Linear regression example)
Mean Squared Error = 2.4

- 1. Randomly choose 30% of the data to be in a test set
- 2. The remainder is a training set
- 3. Perform your regression on the training set
- 4. Estimate your future performance with the test set

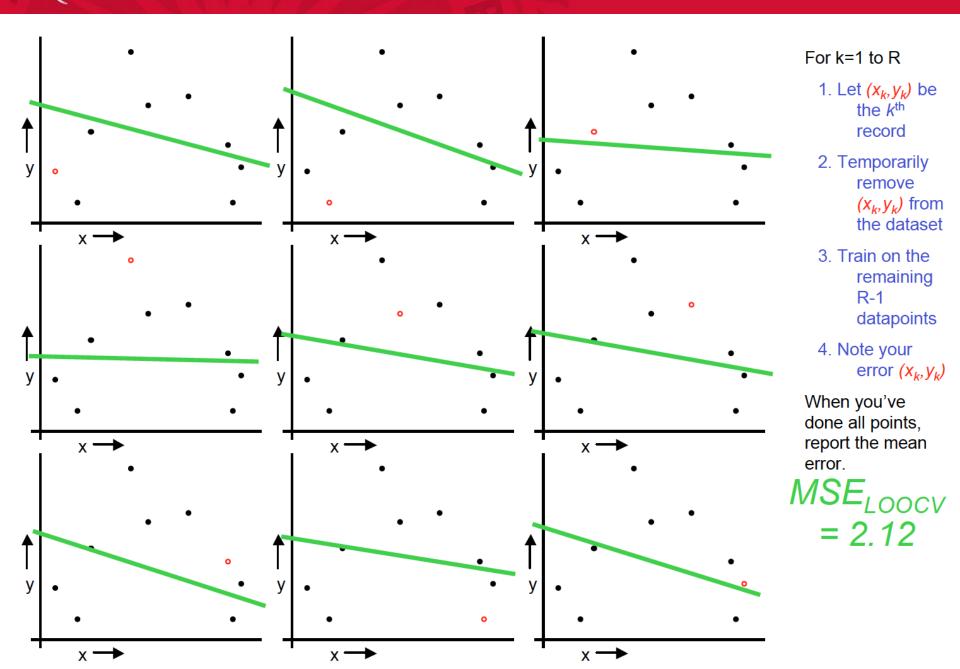
### Leave One Out Cross Validation



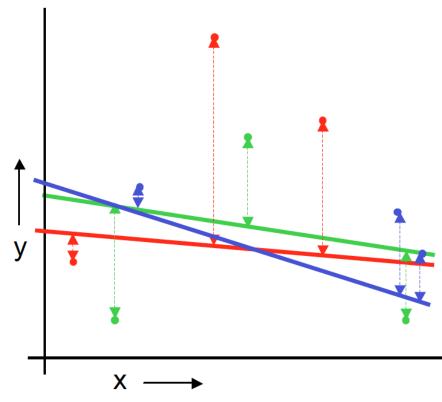
#### For k=1 to R

- 1. Let  $(x_k, y_k)$  be the  $k^{th}$  record
- 2. Temporarily remove  $(x_k, y_k)$  from the dataset
- 3. Train on the remaining R-1 datapoints
- 4. Note your error  $(x_k, y_k)$

### Leave One Out Cross Validation



# k-fold Cross Validation



Linear Regression  $MSE_{3FOLD} = 2.05$ 

Randomly break the dataset into k partitions (in our example we'll have k=3 partitions colored Red Green and Blue)

For the red partition: Train on all the points not in the red partition. Find the test-set sum of errors on the red points.

For the green partition: Train on all the points not in the green partition.

Find the test-set sum of errors on the green points.

For the blue partition: Train on all the points not in the blue partition. Find the test-set sum of errors on the blue points.

Then report the mean error

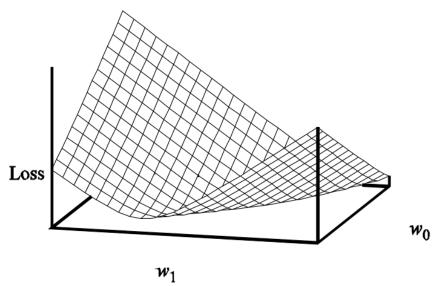
 It is traditional (going back to Gauss) to use the squared loss function L<sub>2</sub> summed over all the training examples

$$Loss(h_w) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} L_2(y_j, h_w(x_j)) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} (y_j - h_w(x_j))^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{N} (y_j - (w_1 x_j + w_0))^2$$

- We would like to find w\* = arg min<sub>w</sub> Loss(h<sub>w</sub>)
- The sum  $\sum_{j} (y_j (w_1 x + w_0))^2$  is minimized when its partial derivatives with respect to  $w_0$  and  $w_1$  are zero

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_0} \sum_{j=1}^{N} (y_j - (w_1 x_j + w_0))^2 = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_1} \sum_{j=1}^{N} (y_j - (w_1 x_j + w_0))^2 = 0$$



These equations have a unique solution

$$w_1 = \frac{N(\sum x_j y_j) - (\sum x_j)(\sum y_j)}{N(\sum x_j^2) - (\sum x_j)^2}$$

$$w_0 = \frac{(\sum y_j - w_1(\sum x_j))}{N}$$

- The weight space defined by  $w_0$  and  $w_1$  is convex
- This is true for every linear regression problem with an  $L_2$  loss function, and it implies that there are no local minima

How would you minimize lost for other functions?

- Parabolas
- Third order polynomial
- ect.

## Beyond Linear Regression

- To go beyond linear models, we will need to face the fact that the equation defining minimum loss will often have no closed-form solution
- Instead, we will face a general optimization search in continuous weight space
- As we already know, such problems can be addressed by a hillclimbing algorithm that follows the *gradient* of the function to be optimized
- Because we are trying to minimize the loss, we will use gradient descent
- We choose any starting point in weight space and then move to a neighboring point that is downhill, repeating until we converge on the minimum possible loss

### Learning Hypothesis Parameters

 $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \text{any point in the parameter space}$ loop until convergence do for each  $\mathbf{w}_i$  in  $\mathbf{w}$  do

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} Loss(\mathbf{w})$$

- The step size parameter α is usually called the *learning rate* when we are trying to minimize loss in a learning problem
- It can be a fixed constant, or it can decay over time as the learning problem proceeds
- For univariate regression, the loss function is a quadratic function, so the partial derivative will be a linear function

Let's consider the case of only one training example, (x, y):

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} Loss(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (y - h_{\mathbf{w}}(x))^2$$

$$= 2(y - h_{\mathbf{w}}(x)) \times \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (y - h_{\mathbf{w}}(x))$$

$$= 2(y - h_{\mathbf{w}}(x)) \times \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (y - (w_1 x + w_0))$$

Applying this to both w<sub>0</sub> and w<sub>1</sub> we get:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_0} Loss(\mathbf{w}) = -2(y - h_{\mathbf{w}}(x))$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_1} Loss(\mathbf{w}) = -2(y - h_{\mathbf{w}}(x)) \times x$$

 Plugging these values back to the gradient descent update rule (folding the constant 2 into the learning rate α), we get the following learning rules for the weights

$$w_0 \leftarrow w_0 + a(y - h_w(x))$$
  
 $w_1 \leftarrow w_1 + a(y - h_w(x)) \cdot x$ 

- Intuitively:
  - if h<sub>w</sub>(x) > y the output of the hypothesis is too large reduce w<sub>0</sub> a bit
  - Reduce w<sub>1</sub> if x was a positive input but increase w<sub>1</sub> if x was a negative input
- For N training examples the derivative of a sum is the sum of the derivatives, and we have

$$w_0 \leftarrow w_0 + \alpha \sum_j (\gamma_j - h_w(x_j))$$
  
$$w_1 \leftarrow w_1 + \alpha \sum_j (\gamma_j - h_w(x_j)) \cdot x_j$$

