CSE 392: Matrix and Tensor Algorithms for Data

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University of Texas, Austin Spring 2024 Lecture 3: Least squares regression and kernel methods

Outline

• Least squares regression

2 Ridge regression

Kernel methods

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Data fitting - Regression

- We are given,
 - ▶ A data matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ with n samples $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^n \in \mathbb{R}^d$ of d-dimensional features, and
 - ▶ A column vector $\boldsymbol{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (targets).
- **Data fitting:** Find a functional relation between features and targets wrt. certain loss. General form: For a loss function $\ell(\cdot, \cdot)$, and a function $f(\cdot, \theta)$, where θ are the function parameters over a possible set Θ , we solve

$$\theta^* = \min_{\theta \in \Theta} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(f(\boldsymbol{a}_i, \theta), b_i)$$

• **Numerous applications** from scientific computing to machine learning, finance, statistics and many more.

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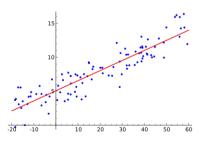
Least squares linear regression

Exercises:

• In the least-squares regression problem, assuming d < n, we solve:

$$oldsymbol{x}^* = \min_{oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \|oldsymbol{A}oldsymbol{x} - oldsymbol{b}\|_2^2.$$

- A linear function and Euclidean- (ℓ_2) norm (squared) loss function.
- The observed targets, $b_i = \mathbf{a}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + \varepsilon_i$, for i = 1, ..., n and ε_i is noise..



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Normal equation

The vector x^* minimizes $||Ax - b||^2$ if and only if it is the solution of the **normal** equations:

$$A^{\top}Ax = A^{\top}b.$$

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Proof: Consider any $\tilde{x} = x^* + \Delta x$, then we have

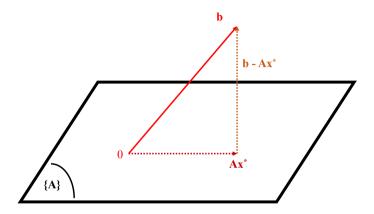
$$\|\mathbf{A}\tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{b}\|^{2} = \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^{*} + \mathbf{A}\Delta\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|^{2}$$

$$= \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^{*} - \mathbf{b}\|^{2} - 2(\mathbf{A}\Delta\mathbf{x})^{\top}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^{*} - \mathbf{b}) + \|\mathbf{A}\Delta\mathbf{x}\|^{2}$$

$$= \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^{*} - \mathbf{b}\|^{2} - 2(\Delta\mathbf{x})^{\top}\underbrace{\mathbf{A}^{\top}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^{*} - \mathbf{b})}_{\nabla_{\mathbf{x}\ell}} + \underbrace{\|\mathbf{A}\Delta\mathbf{x}\|^{2}}_{>0}$$

Hence, $\|\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}^* + \Delta \mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{b}\|^2 \ge \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^* - \mathbf{b}\|^2$ for any $\Delta \mathbf{x}$, iff the gradient vector $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}\ell$ is zero.

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 x^* is the best approximation to b from the subspace span $\{A\}$ iff (b - Ax) is \bot to the whole subspace span $\{A\}$. This in turn is equivalent to Normal equations $A^\top (Ax^* - b) = 0$.

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Matlab demo

Issue with normal equations

The solution is $\boldsymbol{x}^* = (\boldsymbol{A}^{\top} \boldsymbol{A})^{-1} \boldsymbol{A}^{\top} \boldsymbol{b}$.

• Condition number of a matrix :

$$\kappa_2(\boldsymbol{A}) = \|\boldsymbol{A}\|_2 \|\boldsymbol{A}^{-1}\|_2 = \sigma_{\text{max}}/\sigma_{\text{min}}$$

• Then, $\kappa_2(\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}) = \|\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\|_2 \|(\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A})^{-1}\|_2 = (\sigma_{\max}/\sigma_{\min})^2$.

E.g., suppose we have a matrix with spectrum in $[1, \epsilon]$, i..e, $\kappa_2(\mathbf{A}) = 1/\epsilon$. Then, $\kappa_2(\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}) = \epsilon^{-2}$.

 $\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}$ could be highly *ill-conditioned*.

Ridge Regression

Ridge Regression or Tikhonov regularization: For a given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ the ridge-regression estimator is the minimizer of the problem:

$$x_{rr} = \arg\min_{x} \|Ax - b\|_{2}^{2} + \lambda \|x\|_{2}^{2},$$

where $\lambda > 0$ is a fixed regularization parameter.

The solution is $\boldsymbol{x}_{rr} = (\boldsymbol{A}^{\top}\boldsymbol{A} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1}\boldsymbol{A}^{\top}\boldsymbol{b}$.

We select an appropriate λ such that:

- we have a better conditioned matrix, and
- we avoid over fitting.

Bias-variance tradeoff.

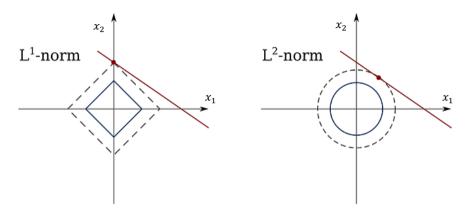
LASSO Regression

Least absolute shrinkage and selection operator, or LASSO, proposed by Thibshirani in 1996, solves the optimization problem:

$$\boldsymbol{x}_{lasso} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{x}} \|\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{b}\|_{2}^{2} + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{x}\|_{1},$$

where $\lambda > 0$ is a fixed regularization parameter.

- The problem is still convex, but is non-smooth.
- Many efficient optimization algorithms have been proposed. E.g., Fast Iterative Shrinkage-Thresholding Algorithm (FISTA), Alternating Direction Method of Multipliers (ADMM).
- Yields a sparse solution.



Constraint Regions for LASSO (left) and Ridge Regression (right). Shows why LASSO yields a sparse solution.

Matlab demo II

Feature maps

- Linear regression fits a linear functions to the data.
- However, the functional relation could be "non-linear".
- Example: Consider fitting a cubic function:

$$b = x_3 a^3 + x_2 a^2 + x_1 a + x_0.$$

• We can view the cubic function as a **linear function** over a different set of feature variables. Let the function $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^4$ be defined as:

$$\phi(a) = [1; a; a^2; a^3].$$

• If $\mathbf{x} = [x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3]$, then

$$b = x_3 a^3 + x_2 a^2 + x_1 a + x_0 = \boldsymbol{x}^{\top} \phi(a).$$

• The function ϕ is called the **feature map**.

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Kernelization

- Approach to linearize non-linear problems.
- Map rows of \mathbf{A} to $\phi(\mathbf{a}_i)$ in higher dimension.
- **Kernel Trick** or kernel substitution: if the input enters an algorithm only in the form of inner products, then we can replace the inner product with some other choice of a kernel.
- **Kernel:** corresponding to the feature map ϕ satisfies:

$$K(\boldsymbol{a}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{a}}) = \phi(\boldsymbol{a})^{\top} \phi(\tilde{\boldsymbol{a}})$$

• Kernel is symmetric of its arguments , i.e., $K(\boldsymbol{a}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{a}}) = K(\tilde{\boldsymbol{a}}, \boldsymbol{a})$.

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Kernel properties

Mercer Theorem

Let $K : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ be given. Then for K to be a valid (Mercer) kernel, it is necessary and sufficient that for any $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}, (n < \infty)$, the corresponding kernel matrix is symmetric positive semi-definite.

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Proof: Let the kernel matrix K be defined as $K_{ij} = \phi(\boldsymbol{a}_i)^{\top} \phi(\boldsymbol{a}_j)$. If K is a valid kernel, then $K_{ij} = \phi(\boldsymbol{a}_i)^{\top} \phi(\boldsymbol{a}_j) = \phi(\boldsymbol{a}_j)^{\top} \phi(\boldsymbol{a}_i) = K_{ji}$, hence symmetric. Also for any vector \boldsymbol{z} , we have:

$$\mathbf{z}^{\top} \mathbf{K} \mathbf{z} = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} z_{i} K_{ij} z_{j} = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} z_{i} \phi(\mathbf{a}_{i})^{\top} \phi(\mathbf{a}_{j}) z_{j}$$

$$= \sum_{i} \sum_{j} z_{i} \sum_{k} \phi_{k}(\mathbf{a}_{i}) \phi_{k}(\mathbf{a}_{j}) z_{j} = \sum_{k} \sum_{i} \sum_{j} z_{i} \phi_{k}(\mathbf{a}_{i}) \phi_{k}(\mathbf{a}_{j}) z_{j}$$

$$= \sum_{k} \left(\sum_{i} z_{i} \phi_{k}(\mathbf{a}_{i}) \right)^{2} \geq 0.$$

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Kernels as similarity metrics

- Intuitively, when $\phi(\boldsymbol{a})$ and $\phi(\tilde{\boldsymbol{a}})$ are close to each other, the kernel $K(\boldsymbol{a}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{a}}) = \phi(\boldsymbol{a})^{\top} \phi(\tilde{\boldsymbol{a}})$ should be large.
- Conversely, if they are far apart, $K(\boldsymbol{a}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{a}})$ should be small.
- Kernel as a similarity measure of the features.
- Gaussian Kernel: Homogeneous kernels defined by the magnitude of distance:

$$K(\boldsymbol{a}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{a}}) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\boldsymbol{a} - \tilde{\boldsymbol{a}}\|}{2\sigma^2}\right).$$

It corresponds to an infinite dimensional feature map ϕ .

Kernel Ridge Regression

- Kernel methods do not explicitly define or compute the feature map ϕ . Only compute the kernel function $K(\cdot,\cdot)$.
- In ridge regression, suppose we replace the feature vectors: $\mathbf{a}_i \to \Phi_i = \phi(\mathbf{a}_i)$ to account for non-linear function relation.
- Now the dimension can be much higher.
- The solution to the ridge regression is, with $\phi(a_i)$'s as columns of Φ :

$$\boldsymbol{x}_{kr} = (\Phi\Phi^{\top} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1}\Phi\boldsymbol{b} = \Phi (\Phi^{\top}\Phi + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1}\boldsymbol{b}$$

• Given a new data point a, the prediction will be:

$$b = \phi(\boldsymbol{a})^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}_{kr} = \boldsymbol{b}^{\top} (\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Phi} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top} \phi(\boldsymbol{a}) = \boldsymbol{b}^{\top} (\boldsymbol{K} + \lambda \boldsymbol{I})^{-1} \kappa(\boldsymbol{a}),$$

where
$$\kappa(\boldsymbol{a}) = [K(\boldsymbol{a}_i, \boldsymbol{a})]_{i=1}^n$$
.

 ${\bf Questions?}$