# REGRESSION

## MACHINE LEARNING







Task

Performance

Experience

Algorithms that improve their performance at some task with experience

-Tom Mitchell (1998)



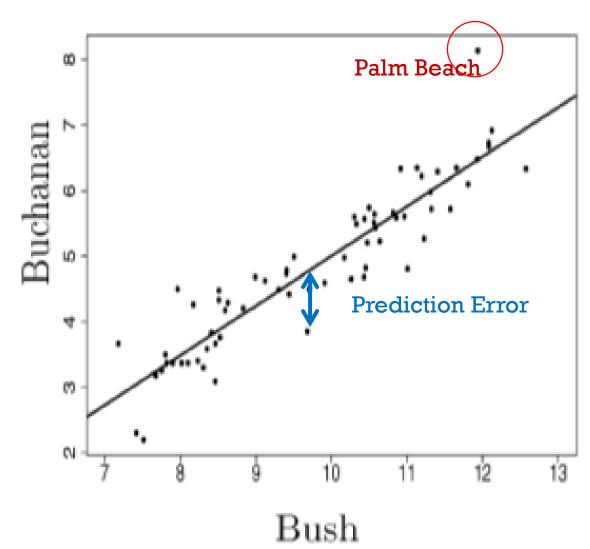
## REGRESSION

#### Machine Learning

- > Supervised Learning
  - > Regression
- **Task.** Find function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $y \approx f(x; \theta)$
- **Experience.** Training data  $(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), ..., (x^{(n)}, y^{(n)})$
- **Performance.** Prediction error  $y f(x; \theta)$  on test data

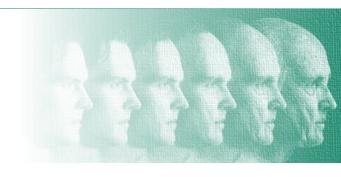


# WORKED EXAMPLE

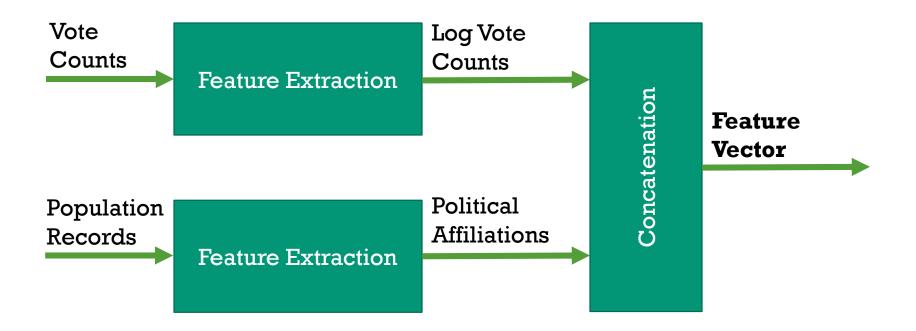








## **FEATURES**

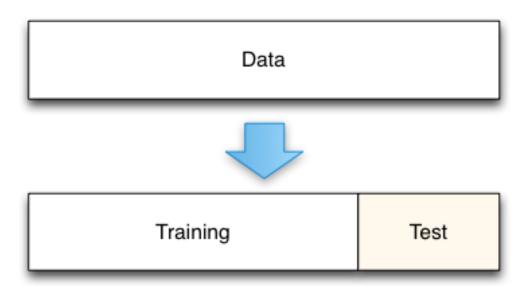




## TRAINING DATA VS TEST DATA

#### Partition data into:

- Training data set  $S_n$
- Test data set  $S_*$





#### **Training data**

$$S_n = \{ (x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) | i = 1, ..., n \}$$

- Features/Inputs  $x^{(i)} = \left(x_1^{(i)}, \dots, x_d^{(i)}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- Response/Output  $y^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}$



Each f is a predictor or hypothesis

#### **Model** (or Hypothesis Class) $\mathcal{H}$

Set of *linear* functions  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ 

$$f(x; \theta, \theta_0) = \theta_d x_d + \dots + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_0 = \theta^\top x + \theta_0$$

#### **Model Parameters**

$$\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$$
,  $\theta_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ 



Sometimes, we write  $\mathcal{L}(\theta; \mathcal{S}_n)$  instead of  $\mathcal{L}(f; \mathcal{S}_n)$ 

#### **Training Loss/Objective**

$$\mathcal{L}(f; \mathcal{S}_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{S}_n} \frac{1}{2} (y - f(x))^2$$

Find predictor  $\hat{f} \in \mathcal{H}$  that minimizes  $\mathcal{L}(f; \mathcal{S}_n)$ .

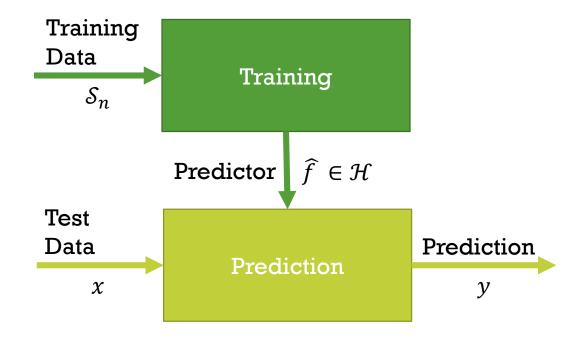
#### **Training Algorithm**

Set gradient to zero, and solve equations.

Training is also sometimes called Learning.



#### LEARNING AND PREDICTION



Assumption. Test data and training data are identically distributed.



#### **GENERALIZATION**

The goal of machine learning is to find a predictor  $\hat{f} \in \mathcal{H}$  that generalizes well, i.e. that predicts well on test data  $\mathcal{S}_*$ .



Sometimes, we write  $\mathcal{R}(\hat{\theta}; \mathcal{S}_*)$  instead of  $\mathcal{R}(\hat{f}; \mathcal{S}_*)$ 

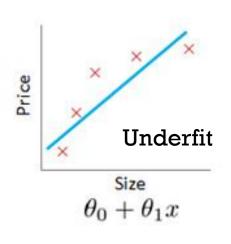
#### **Test Loss/Objective**

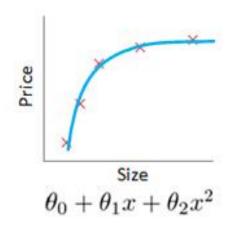
$$\mathcal{R}(\hat{f}; \mathcal{S}_*) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{S}_*} \frac{1}{2} \left( y - \hat{f}(x) \right)^2$$

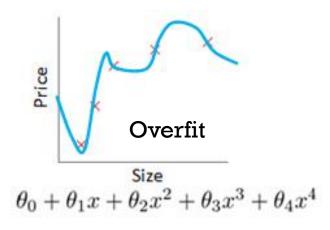
We often use some test loss  $\mathcal{R}(\hat{f}; \mathcal{S}_*)$  to measure how well a predictor  $\hat{f}$  generalizes. The test loss can be different from the training loss  $\mathcal{L}(f; \mathcal{S}_n)$ .

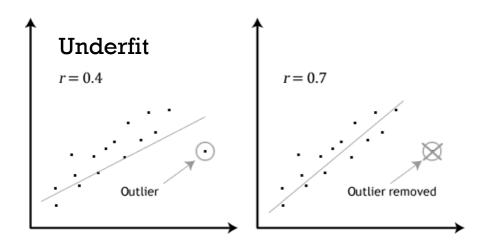


## UNDERFITTING AND OVERFITTING









#### MODEL SELECTION

**Overfitting.** If model  $\mathcal H$  is too big, then  $\hat f \in \mathcal H$  performs

well on training data, but poorly on test data.

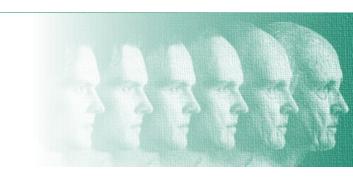
**Underfitting.** If model  $\mathcal H$  is too small, then  $\hat f \in \mathcal H$  performs

poorly on training data, and poorly on test data.

Finding a model with the right size is called model selection.







## LOSS AND RISK

**Loss Function** 

$$Loss(z) = \frac{1}{2}z^2$$

Squared error.

Penalize big errors more heavily.

**CONVEX!!** 

#### **Empirical Risk / Training Loss**

$$\mathcal{L}_{1}(\theta; x, y) = \operatorname{Loss}(y - f(x; \theta))$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{n}(\theta; \mathcal{S}_{n}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, y) \in \mathcal{S}_{n}} \mathcal{L}_{1}(\theta; x, y)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, y) \in \mathcal{S}_{n}} \frac{1}{2} (y - f(x; \theta))^{2}$$

Point loss

Average loss

Risk = "Expected Loss" Empirical = "of the Data"



## GRADIENT

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_{n}(\theta; \mathcal{S}_{n}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{n}}{\partial \theta_{1}}(\theta; \mathcal{S}_{n}) \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{n}}{\partial \theta_{2}}(\theta; \mathcal{S}_{n}) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{n}}{\partial \theta_{d}}(\theta; \mathcal{S}_{n}) \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{S}_{n}} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{1}}{\partial \theta_{1}}(\theta; x, y) \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{1}}{\partial \theta_{2}}(\theta; x, y) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{1}}{\partial \theta_{d}}(\theta; x, y) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_n(\theta; \mathcal{S}_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{S}_n} \nabla \mathcal{L}_1(\theta; x, y)$$



## EXACT SOLUTION

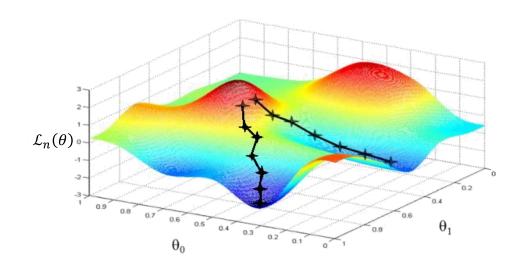
If there are no constraints on the parameters,

- 1. Set the gradient to zero, and solve for the parameters.
- Run through all the solutions to find the parameter that has the smallest training loss.



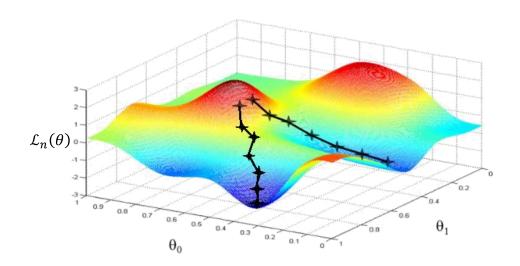
## GRADIENT DESCENT

- 1. Initialize  $\theta$  randomly.
- 2. Update  $\theta \leftarrow \theta \eta_k \nabla \mathcal{L}_n(\theta)$ ,  $\eta_k$  learning rate, k iteration number.
- 3. Repeat (2) until convergence. (e.g. when improvement in  $\mathcal{L}_n(\theta)$  is small enough)

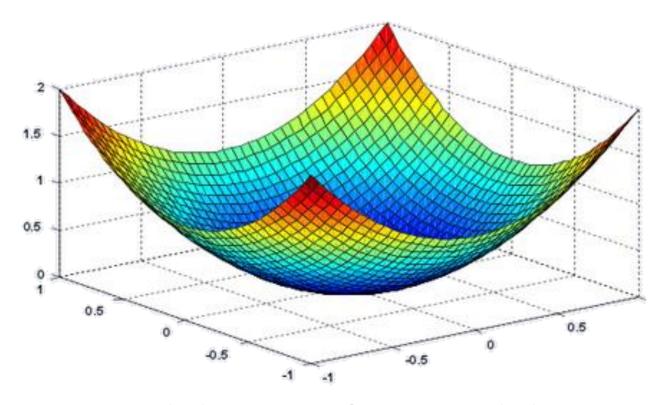


## LOCAL MINIMA

- Gradient descent leads us to a local minimum, which is not necessarily the global minimum. Different starting points may lead to different local minima.
- Typically, we perform gradient descent from several starting points, and run through all the local minima to find the parameter that has the smallest training loss.



# CONVEX OPTIMIZATION



Local Minimum = Global Minimum.
Fast Algorithms.

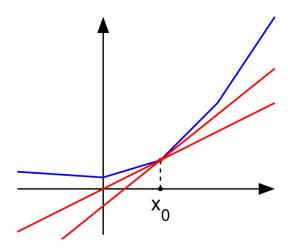


## SUB-GRADIENTS

• A sub-gradient  $v \in \partial f(x)$  is a vector such that for all y,

$$f(y) - f(x) \ge v^{\mathsf{T}}(y - x).$$

 At non-differentiable points of the training objective function, the gradient does not exist, but we can use any sub-gradient instead for descent.





training gradient = average of point gradients

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_n(\theta; \mathcal{S}_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{S}_n} \nabla \mathcal{L}_1(\theta; x, y)$$

This average can take a long time to compute for large data sets.

#### **Trick**

Estimate the gradient by averaging over a smaller *minibatch* (subset of the training data).

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_n(\theta; \mathcal{S}_n) \approx \nabla \mathcal{L}_m(\theta; \mathcal{B}_m)$$
$$= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{B}_m} \nabla \mathcal{L}_1(\theta; x, y)$$

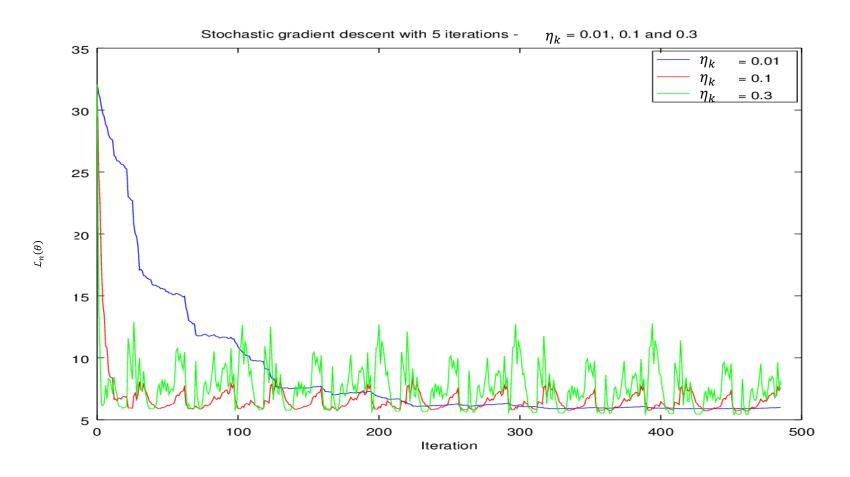


- 1. Initialize  $\theta$  randomly.
- 2. Select minibatch  $\mathcal{B}_m$  of data from  $\mathcal{S}_n$  at random.

a. 
$$\theta \leftarrow \theta - \eta_k \nabla \mathcal{L}_m(\theta; \mathcal{B}_m)$$
.

3. Repeat Step (2) until convergence.







#### **Learning Rate**

Small learning rates help convergence, but big learning rates speed up descent. We want the best of both worlds, so we choose a learning rate that starts big and ends small, e.g.  $\eta_k = 1/(k+1)$ .

#### Momentum

Reduce fluctuations in gradient by taking a weighted sum of the previous update  $\Delta^{(t-1)}$  with the current gradient.

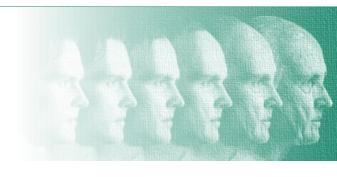
$$\theta^{(t+1)} = \theta^{(t)} - \eta_k \Delta^{(t)}, \quad \Delta^{(t)} = (1 - \epsilon) \Delta^{(t-1)} + \epsilon \, \nabla \mathcal{L}_m(\theta; \mathcal{B}_m)$$

#### Software

All these tricks are implemented in the ADAM optimizer.







# LEAST SQUARES

#### **Data**

$$(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (x^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), \dots, (x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}), x \in \mathbb{R}^d, y \in \mathbb{R}$$

#### Model

$$f(x; \theta, \theta_0) = \theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_d x_d + \theta_0 = \theta^\top x + \theta_0$$
$$\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d, \theta_0 \in \mathbb{R}$$

#### **Training Objective**

$$\mathcal{L}_1(\theta, \theta_0; x, y) = \frac{1}{2} (y - (\theta^T x + \theta_0))^2$$
  
$$\mathcal{L}_n(\theta, \theta_0; \mathcal{S}_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{S}_n} \mathcal{L}_1(\theta, \theta_0; x, y)$$



## CONSTANT FEATURE TRICK

Define  $x_0 = 1$  and set  $\tilde{x} = (x_d, ..., x_1, x_0) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ 

#### **Data**

$$\left(\tilde{x}^{(1)}, y^{(1)}\right), \left(\tilde{x}^{(2)}, y^{(2)}\right), \dots, \left(\tilde{x}^{(n)}, y^{(n)}\right), \ \tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}, y \in \mathbb{R}$$

#### Model

$$f(x; \theta, \theta_0) = \theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_d x_d + \theta_0 x_0 = \tilde{\theta}^{\top} \tilde{x}$$
$$\tilde{\theta} = (\theta, \theta_0) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$$

#### **Training Objective**

$$\mathcal{L}_{1}(\tilde{\theta}; \tilde{x}, y) = \frac{1}{2} (y - \tilde{\theta}^{T} \tilde{x})^{2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{n}(\tilde{\theta}; \mathcal{S}_{n}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{S}_{n}} \mathcal{L}_{1}(\tilde{\theta}; \tilde{x}, y)$$



# POINT GRADIENT (ACTIVITY)

Compute the point gradient

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_{1}(\theta; x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{1}}{\partial \theta_{1}}(\theta; x, y) \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{1}}{\partial \theta_{2}}(\theta; x, y) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{1}}{\partial \theta_{d}}(\theta; x, y) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_1(\theta; x, y) = \frac{1}{2} (y - \theta^{\mathsf{T}} x)^2$$

$$\mathcal{L}_n(\theta; \mathcal{S}_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, y) \in \mathcal{S}_n} \mathcal{L}_1(\theta; x, y)$$

## POINT GRADIENT

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{1}}{\partial \theta_{i}}(\theta; x, y) = -x_{i} (y - \theta^{T} x)$$

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_{1}(\theta; x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} -x_{1} (y - \theta^{T} x) \\ \vdots \\ -x_{d} (y - \theta^{T} x) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= -\begin{pmatrix} x_{1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{d} \end{pmatrix} (y - \theta^{T} x) = -x(y - \theta^{T} x)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_1(\theta; x, y) = \frac{1}{2} (y - \theta^{\mathsf{T}} x)^2$$

$$\mathcal{L}_n(\theta; \mathcal{S}_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, y) \in \mathcal{S}_n} \mathcal{L}_1(\theta; x, y)$$

# TRAINING GRADIENT (ACTIVITY)

Let 
$$X = [x^{(1)}, ..., x^{(n)}]^{\mathsf{T}}, Y = [y^{(1)}, ..., y^{(n)}]^{\mathsf{T}}$$

Write the training gradient in terms of X, Y.

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_n(\theta; x, y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{S}_n} \nabla \mathcal{L}_1(\theta; x, y)$$

Hints.

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} x^{(t)} y^{(t)} = \frac{1}{n} \left[ x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(n)} \right] \left[ y^{(1)}, \dots, y^{(n)} \right]^{\mathsf{T}} = \frac{1}{n} X^{\mathsf{T}} Y$$

$$\theta^{\mathsf{T}} x = x^{\mathsf{T}} \theta$$

$$\mathcal{L}_1(\theta; x, y) = \frac{1}{2} (y - \theta^{\mathsf{T}} x)^2$$

$$\mathcal{L}_n(\theta; \mathcal{S}_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, y) \in \mathcal{S}_n} \mathcal{L}_1(\theta; x, y)$$

## TRAINING GRADIENT

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_n(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\text{data}(x,y)} -x(y - \theta^{\top} x)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\text{data}(x,y)} -xy + x(\theta^{\top} x)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\text{data}(x,y)} -xy + x(x^{\top} \theta) = -B + A\theta$$

where

$$B = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} x^{(t)} y^{(t)} = \frac{1}{n} [x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(n)}] [y^{(1)}, \dots, y^{(n)}]^{\mathsf{T}} = \frac{1}{n} X^{\mathsf{T}} Y$$

$$A = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} x^{(t)} x^{(t)\mathsf{T}} = \frac{1}{n} [x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(n)}] [x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(n)}]^{\mathsf{T}} = \frac{1}{n} X^{\mathsf{T}} X$$



#### GRADIENT DESCENT

$$\theta \longleftarrow \theta - \eta_k \left[ \frac{1}{n} (X^{\mathsf{T}} X) \theta - \frac{1}{n} X^{\mathsf{T}} Y \right]$$

See Homework 1.

Bonus. Stochastic Gradient Descent.



## EXACT SOLUTION

Optimization problem is convex, so the minimum is attained when the gradient is zero.

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_n(\hat{\theta}) = 0 \qquad \Leftrightarrow \quad \frac{1}{n} (X^{\mathsf{T}} X) \, \hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{n} X^{\mathsf{T}} Y$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \quad \hat{\theta} = (X^{\mathsf{T}} X)^{-1} X^{\mathsf{T}} Y$$

#### Issues.

- 1. Need  $X^{T}X$  to be invertible
  - Feature vectors  $x^{(1)}, ..., x^{(n)}$  must span  $\mathbb{R}^d$
  - Must have more data than features,  $n \ge d$
  - Use regularization if  $X^TX$  is not invertible
- 2. What if  $X^TX \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  is a large matrix?
  - Takes long time to invert
  - Use stochastic gradient descent if  $X^TX$  is too large





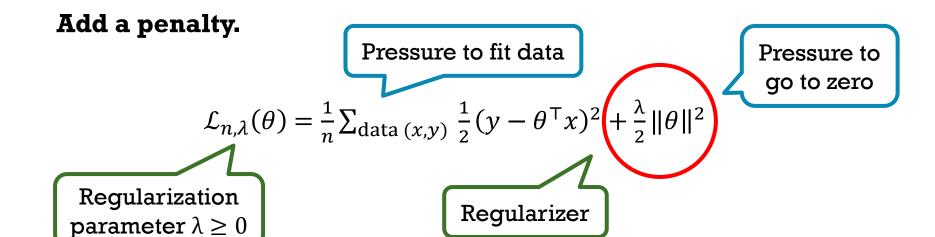
# RIDGE REGRESSION

Temp. Weight Age on Mars Weight 
$$y \approx \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \dots + \theta_d x_d$$
 For simplicity, we ignore  $\theta_0$ .

How do we ensure that  $\theta_k = 0$  when feature  $x_k$  is irrelevant? Pick simplest model that explains data  $\rightarrow$  generalization



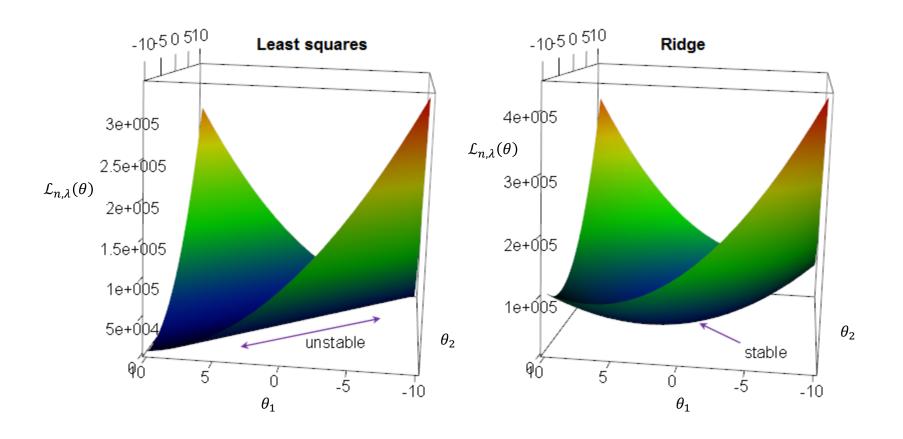
# RIDGE REGRESSION



(Unfortunately, to include the parameter  $\theta_0$ , we cannot simply apply the constant feature trick. Why?)



# RIDGE REGRESSION



# TRAINING ALGORITHMS

#### **Gradient**

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_{n,\lambda}(\theta) = \lambda \theta + \frac{1}{n} (X^{\mathsf{T}} X) \theta - \frac{1}{n} X^{\mathsf{T}} Y$$

#### **Exact Solution**

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_{n,\lambda}(\hat{\theta}) = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \lambda \hat{\theta} + \frac{1}{n} (X^{\mathsf{T}} X) \, \hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{n} X^{\mathsf{T}} Y$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \quad \hat{\theta} = (n\lambda I + X^{\mathsf{T}} X)^{-1} X^{\mathsf{T}} Y$$

This matrix is always invertible when  $\lambda > 0$ .



# TRAINING ALGORITHMS

#### **Gradient**

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_{n,\lambda}(\theta) = \lambda \theta + \frac{1}{n} (X^{\mathsf{T}} X) \theta - \frac{1}{n} X^{\mathsf{T}} Y$$

### **Gradient Descent**

$$\theta \leftarrow (1 - \eta_k \lambda) \theta - \eta_k \left[ \frac{1}{n} (X^\mathsf{T} X) \theta - \frac{1}{n} X^\mathsf{T} Y \right]$$

Without regularization, i.e.  $\lambda = 0$ , this shrinkage factor equals 1.



# TRAINING LOSS VS TEST LOSS

### **Training Loss**

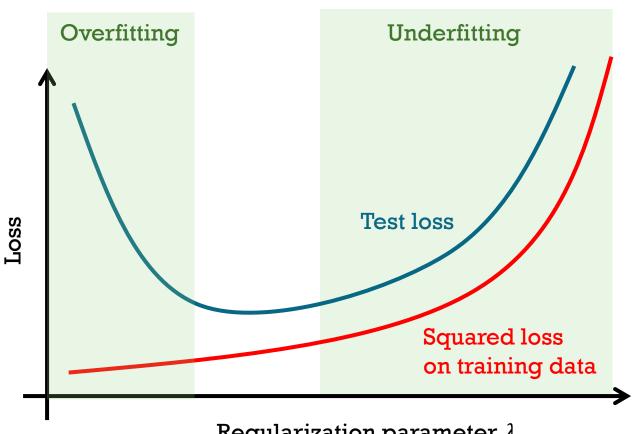
$$\mathcal{L}_{n,\lambda}(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\text{trg data } (x,y)} \frac{1}{2} (y - \theta^{\mathsf{T}} x)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\theta\|^2$$

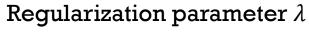
#### **Test Loss**

$$\mathcal{R}(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\text{test data } (x,y)} \frac{1}{2} (y - \theta^{\mathsf{T}} x)^2$$



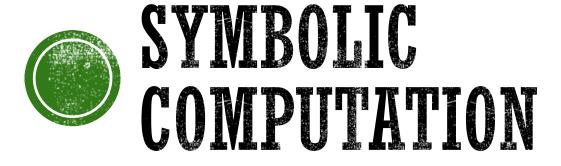
# EFFECT OF REGULARIZATION

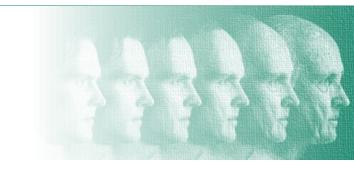






\* not in syllabus





# AUTOMATIC DIFFERENTIATION

In optimization, we often need to differentiate the objective function by hand to obtain the gradients for a descent algorithm.

Wouldn't it be nice if this step was automated?:)

Let us work through an example in Theano. Similar ideas are used in other software packages such as Google's TensorFlow.



# **SUMMARY**

- Methodology
  - o Features, Response
  - o Training, Prediction
  - o Training, Test Data
  - Model, Hypothesis, Parameters
  - Training, Test Loss
  - Training Algorithm
  - Generalization
  - o Underfitting, Overfitting
  - Model Selection

- Optimization
  - Loss Functions
  - Empirical Risk
  - Exact Solution
  - Gradient Descent
  - Convex Optimization
  - Stochastic Gradient Descent



# SUMMARY

- MultivariateLinear Regression
  - o Model
  - Training Loss
  - Constant Feature Trick
  - Gradient
  - Gradient Descent
  - Exact Solution
  - Issues with Exact Solution

- Regularization
  - Generalization
  - Ridge Regression
  - Regularizer
  - Regularization Parameter
  - Exact Solution and Invertibility
  - Gradient Descent and Shrinkage
  - Training Loss vs Test Loss
  - Effect on Test Loss



### Methodology

- Given a machine learning example, identify the components:
  - o Features, Response
  - Training, Prediction
  - Training data, Test data
  - Model, Hypothesis, Parameters
  - o Training loss, Test loss
  - Training algorithm
- State that the goal of machine learning is generalization.
- Give an example of underfitting, overfitting and model selection.



### **Optimization**

- Give examples of loss functions, and define empirical risk in terms of the loss function.
- List two general types of algorithms used in optimization, e.g. exact solution, and gradient descent. Outline the broad steps involved in each of them.
- Explain why framing a problem as convex optimization is highly desirable, in terms of speed and local minima.
- Explain the motivation behind performing stochastic gradient descent, rather than traditional gradient descent.



### **Multivariate Linear Regression**

- State the model and the training loss.
- Explain how the 'constant feature' trick can be used to reduce the problem to one without the constant parameter  $\theta_0$ .
- Describe two training algorithms that may be applied.
- Derive the gradient of the training loss.
- Derive the formula for the exact solution.
- Describe two potential weaknesses of the exact solution, and possible solutions for these weaknesses.
- Apply the above algorithms to a given data set.



## Regularization

- Explain why regularization can help with generalization.
- State the training loss and test loss in ridge regression.
- Identify the regularizer and regularization parameter in the training loss of a given machine learning problem.
- Explain why regularization solves the invertibility problem in traditional linear regression.
- Describe the difference in gradient descent between traditional and regularized linear regression.
- Describe how the test loss and training loss varies with the regularization parameter.

