

CSCI567 Machine Learning (Spring 2023)

Week 2: Linear Regression, LR with nonlinear basis, Overfitting

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Outline

- 1 Review of last lecture
- 2 Linear regression
- 3 Linear regression with nonlinear basis
- 4 Overfitting and Preventing Overfitting

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Multi-class classification

Training data (set)

- N samples/instances: $\mathcal{D}^{\text{TRAIN}} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)\}$
- Each $\mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^D$ is called a feature vector.
- Each $y_n \in [C] = \{1, 2, \dots, C\}$ is called a label/class/category.
- They are used for learning $f : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow [C]$ for future prediction.

Special case: binary classification

- Number of classes: $C = 2$
- Conventional labels: $\{0, 1\}$ or $\{-1, +1\}$

K-NNC: predict the majority label within the K -nearest neighbor set

Datasets

Training data

- N samples/instances: $\mathcal{D}^{\text{TRAIN}} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)\}$
- They are used for learning $f(\cdot)$

Test data

- M samples/instances: $\mathcal{D}^{\text{TEST}} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_M, y_M)\}$
- They are used for assessing how well $f(\cdot)$ will do.

Development/Validation data

- L samples/instances: $\mathcal{D}^{\text{DEV}} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_L, y_L)\}$
- They are used to optimize hyper-parameter(s).

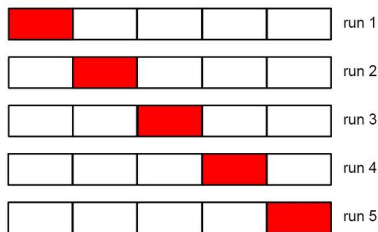
These three sets should *not* overlap!

S-fold Cross-validation

What if we do not have a development set?

- Split the training data into S equal parts.
- Use each part *in turn* as a development dataset and use the others as a training dataset.
- Choose the hyper-parameter leading to best *average* performance.

$S = 5$: 5-fold cross validation



Special case: $S = N$, called leave-one-out.

Expected risk

For a loss function $L(y', y)$,

- e.g. $L(y', y) = \mathbb{I}[y' \neq y]$, called *0-1 loss*.
- many more other losses as we will see.

the *expected risk* of f is defined as

$$R(f) = \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{x}, y) \sim \mathcal{P}} L(f(\mathbf{x}), y)$$

- expectation of test error is the expected risk
- training error can sometimes be a good proxy of expected risk

High level picture

Typical steps of developing a machine learning system:

- Collect data, split into training, development, and test sets.
- *Train a model with a machine learning algorithm.* Most often we apply cross-validation to tune hyper-parameters.
- Evaluate using the test data and report performance.
- Use the model to predict future/make decisions.

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How to do the *red part* exactly?

Outline

- 1 Review of last lecture
- 2 Linear regression
 - Motivation
 - Setup and Algorithm
 - Discussions
- 3 Linear regression with nonlinear basis
- 4 Overfitting and Preventing Overfitting

Regression

Predicting a continuous outcome variable using past observations

- Predicting future temperature (last lecture)
- Predicting the amount of rainfall
- Predicting the demand of a product
- Predicting the sale price of a house
- ...

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Key difference from classification

- continuous vs discrete
- measure *prediction errors* differently.
- lead to quite different learning algorithms.

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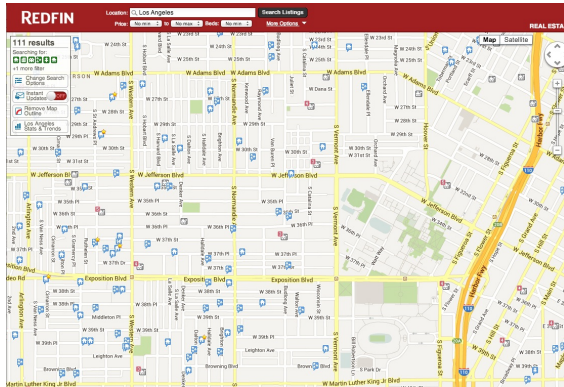
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Linear Regression: regression with linear models

Ex: Predicting the sale price of a house

Retrieve historical sales records (training data)



Features used to predict

3620 South BUDLONG
 Los Angeles, CA 90007
 Status: Closed

\$1,510,000
 Last Sold Price

14 Beds

6 Baths

4,418 Sq. Ft.
 Sq. Ft.

Built: 1956 Lot Size: 9,649 Sq. Ft. Sold On: Jul 26, 2013

[Overview](#)
[Property Details](#)
[Tour Insights](#)
[Property History](#)
[Public Records](#)
[Activity](#)
[Schools](#)

1 of 12

Five unit apartment complex within 2 blocks of USC campus, Gate #6. Great for students (most student leases have parents as guarantors). Most USC students live off campus, so housing units like this are always fully leased. Situated on a gated, corner lot, and across from an elementary school, this complex was recently renovated, and has in-unit laundry hook ups, wall-unit AC, and 12 parking spaces. It is within a DPS (Department of Public Safety) and Campus Cruiser patrolled area. This is a great income generating property, not to be missed!

Property Type
 Multi-Family

Style
 Two Level, Low Rise

Community
 Downtown Los Angeles

County
 Los Angeles

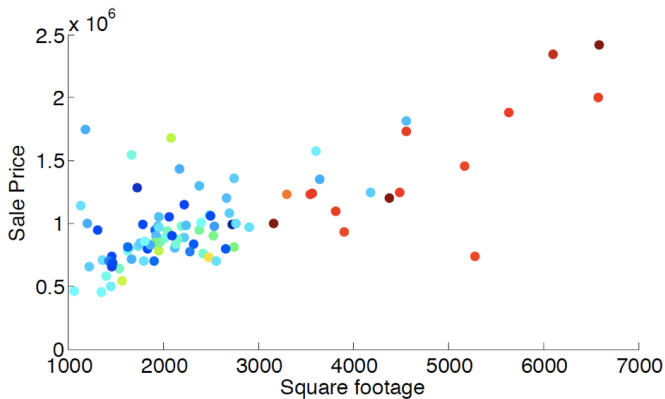
MLS# 22176741

Property Details for 3620 South BUDLONG, Los Angeles, CA 90007

Details provided by i-Tach MLS and may not match the public record. [Learn More](#)

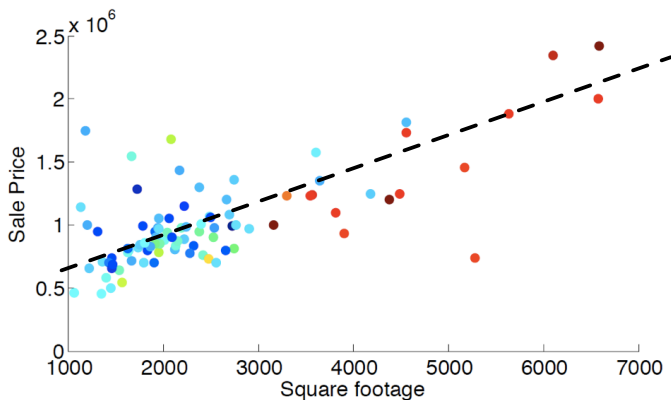
Interior Features		
Kitchen Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Remodeled Oven, Range 	Laundry Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inside Laundry 	Heating & Cooling <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Wall Cooling Units(s)
Multi-Unit Information		
Community Features <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Units in Complex (Total): 5 Multi-Family Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> # Leased: 5 # of Buildings: 1 Owner Pays Water Tenant Pays Electricity, Tenant Pays Gas Unit 1 Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> # of Beds: 2 # of Baths: 1 Unfurnished Monthly Rent: \$1,700 	Unit 2 Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> # of Beds: 3 # of Baths: 1 Unfurnished Monthly Rent: \$2,250 Unit 3 Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Unfurnished Unit 4 Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> # of Beds: 3 # of Baths: 1 Unfurnished 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Monthly Rent: \$2,350 Unit 5 Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> # of Beds: 3 # of Baths: 2 Unfurnished Monthly Rent: \$2,325 Unit 6 Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> # of Beds: 3 # of Baths: 1 Monthly Rent: \$2,250
Property / Lot Details		
Property Features <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Automatic Gate, Card/Code Access Lot Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lot Size (Sq. Ft.): 9,649 Lot Size (Acres): 0.2215 Lot Size Source: Public Records 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Automatic Gate, Lawn, Sidewalks Corner Lot, Near Public Transit Property Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Updated/Remodeled Square Footage Source: Public Records 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tax Parcel Number: 5040017019
Parking / Garage, Exterior Features, Utilities & Financing		
Parking Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> # of Parking Spaces (Total): 12 Parking Space Gated Building Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Total Floors: 2 	Utility Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Green Certification Rating: 0.00 Green Location: Transportation, Walkability Green Walk Score: 0 Green Year Certified: 0 	Financial Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Capitalization Rate (%): 6.25 Actual Annual Gross Rent: \$126,331 Gross Rent Multiplier: 11.29
Location Details, Misc. Information & Listing Information		
Location Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cross Streets: W 36th Pl 	Expense Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Operating: \$37,664 	Listing Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listing Terms: Cash, Cash To Existing Loan Buyer Financing: Cash

Correlation between square footage and sale price



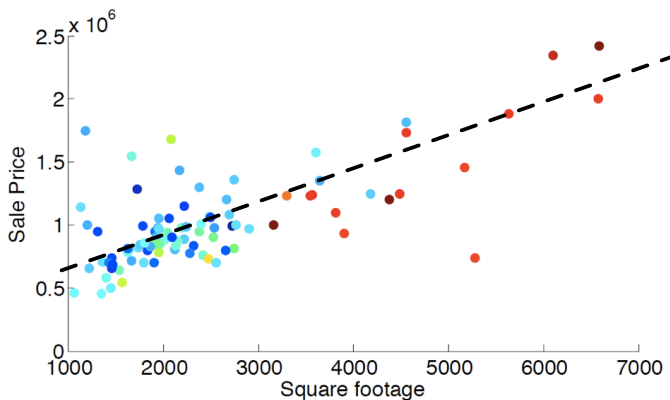
Possibly linear relationship

Sale price \approx **price_per_sqft** \times square_footage + **fixed_expense**



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(*slope*) (*intercept*)



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How to measure error for one prediction?

- The classification error (0-1 loss, i.e. *right* or *wrong*) is *inappropriate* for continuous outcomes.

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- test set, ideal but we *cannot use test set while training*
- training set? (for now)

Example

Predicted price = **price_per_sqft** \times square_footage + **fixed_expense**

one model: price_per_sqft = 0.3K, fixed_expense = 210K

sqft	sale price (K)	prediction (K)	squared error
2000	810	810	0
2100	907	840	67^2
1100	312	540	228^2
5500	2,600	1,860	740^2
...
Total			$0 + 67^2 + 228^2 + 740^2 + \dots$

Adjust price_per_sqft and fixed_expense such that the total squared error is minimized.

Formal setup for linear regression

Input: $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ (features, covariates, context, predictors, etc)

Output: $y \in \mathbb{R}$ (responses, targets, outcomes, etc)

Training data: $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_n, y_n), n = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$

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- append 1 to each \mathbf{x} as the first feature: $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = [1 \ x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_D]^T$

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- the model becomes simply $f(x) = \tilde{\mathbf{w}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{x}}$
- sometimes just use $\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}, D$ for $\tilde{\mathbf{w}}, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}, D + 1!$

Goal

Minimize total squared error

$$\sum_n (f(\mathbf{x}_n) - y_n)^2 = \sum_n (\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n^T \tilde{\mathbf{w}} - y_n)^2$$

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- **Residual Sum of Squares** (RSS), a function of $\tilde{\mathbf{w}}$

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(more generally called **empirical risk minimizer**)

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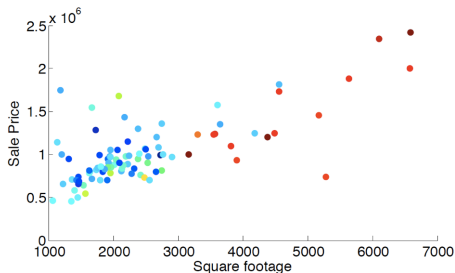
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(more generally called **empirical risk minimizer**)
- *reduce machine learning to optimization*
- in principle can apply any optimization algorithm, but linear regression admits a *closed-form solution*

Warm-up: $D = 0$

Only one parameter w_0 : constant prediction $f(x) = w_0$



f is a horizontal line, where should it be?

Warm-up: $D = 0$

Optimization objective becomes

$$\text{RSS}(w_0) = \sum_n (w_0 - y_n)^2 \quad (\text{it's a } \textit{quadratic} \text{ } aw_0^2 + bw_0 + c)$$

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$$\begin{aligned}\text{RSS}(w_0) &= \sum_n (w_0 - y_n)^2 && \text{(it's a *quadratic* } aw_0^2 + bw_0 + c) \\ &= Nw_0^2 - 2 \left(\sum_n y_n \right) w_0 + \text{cnt.}\end{aligned}$$

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Exercise: what if we use absolute error instead of squared error?

Warm-up: $D = 1$

Optimization objective becomes

$$\text{RSS}(\tilde{\mathbf{w}}) = \sum_n (w_0 + w_1 x_n - y_n)^2$$

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General approach: find *stationary points*, i.e., points with *zero gradient*

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial \text{RSS}(\tilde{\mathbf{w}})}{\partial w_0} = 0 \\ \frac{\partial \text{RSS}(\tilde{\mathbf{w}})}{\partial w_1} = 0 \end{array} \right. \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} \sum_n (w_0 + w_1 x_n - y_n) = 0 \\ \sum_n (w_0 + w_1 x_n - y_n) x_n = 0 \end{array}$$

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$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} N w_0 + w_1 \sum_n x_n = \sum_n y_n \\ w_0 \sum_n x_n + w_1 \sum_n x_n^2 = \sum_n y_n x_n \end{cases} \quad (\text{a linear system})$$

Warm-up: $D = 1$

Optimization objective becomes

$$\text{RSS}(\tilde{\mathbf{w}}) = \sum_n (w_0 + w_1 x_n - y_n)^2$$

General approach: find *stationary points*, i.e., points with *zero gradient*

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$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} N & \sum_n x_n \\ \sum_n x_n & \sum_n x_n^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_n y_n \\ \sum_n x_n y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Least square solution for $D = 1$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} w_0^* \\ w_1^* \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} N & \sum_n x_n \\ \sum_n x_n & \sum_n x_n^2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \sum_n y_n \\ \sum_n x_n y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

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(assuming the matrix is invertible)

Are stationary points minimizers?

- yes for **convex** objectives (RSS is convex in \tilde{w})
- not true in general

General least square solution

Objective

$$\text{RSS}(\tilde{\mathbf{w}}) = \sum_n (\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n^T \tilde{\mathbf{w}} - y_n)^2$$

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where

$$\tilde{\mathbf{X}} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_1^T \\ \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_N^T \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times (D+1)}, \quad \mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^N$$

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$$(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}}) \tilde{\mathbf{w}} - \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tilde{\mathbf{w}}^* = (\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}})^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \mathbf{y}$$

assuming $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}}$ (**covariance matrix**) is invertible for now.

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Verify the solution when $D = 1$:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \cdots & \cdots \\ 1 & x_N \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} N & \sum_n x_n \\ \sum_n x_n & \sum_n x_n^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

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when $D = 0$: $(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}})^{-1} = \frac{1}{N}$, $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \mathbf{y} = \sum_n y_n$

Another approach

RSS is a quadratic:

$$\text{RSS}(\tilde{\mathbf{w}}) = \sum_n (\tilde{\mathbf{w}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n - y_n)^2 = \|\tilde{\mathbf{X}} \tilde{\mathbf{w}} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2$$

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Note: $\mathbf{u}^T (\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}}) \mathbf{u} = (\tilde{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{u})^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{u} = \|\tilde{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{u}\|_2^2 \geq 0$ and is 0 if $\mathbf{u} = 0$.

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So $\tilde{\mathbf{w}}^* = (\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}})^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \mathbf{y}$ is the minimizer.

Computational complexity

Bottleneck of computing

$$\tilde{\mathbf{w}}^* = \left(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \right)^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \mathbf{y}$$

is to invert the matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \in \mathbb{R}^{(D+1) \times (D+1)}$

- naively need $O(D^3)$ time

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Bottleneck of computing

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is to invert the matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \in \mathbb{R}^{(D+1) \times (D+1)}$

- naively need $O(D^3)$ time
- there are many faster approaches (such as conjugate gradient)

What if $\tilde{X}^T \tilde{X}$ is not invertible

Why would that happen?

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Example: $D = N = 1$

sqft	sale price
1000	500K

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Example: $D = N = 1$

sqft	sale price
1000	500K

Any line passing this single point is a minimizer of RSS.

How about the following?

$D = 1, N = 2$

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Any line passing **the average** is a minimizer of RSS.

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Any line passing **the average** is a minimizer of RSS.

$$D = 2, N = 3?$$

sqft	#bedroom	sale price
1000	2	500K
1500	3	700K
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$$D = 2, N = 3?$$

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Again *infinitely many minimizers*.

How to resolve this issue?

Intuition: what does inverting $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}}$ do?

eigendecomposition: $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{U}^T \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \lambda_D & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_{D+1} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}$

where $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \lambda_{D+1} \geq 0$ are **eigenvalues**.

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inverse: $(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}})^{-1} = \mathbf{U}^T \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda_1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda_2} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \frac{1}{\lambda_D} & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda_{D+1}} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}$

i.e. just inverse the eigenvalues

How to solve this problem?

Non-invertible \Rightarrow some eigenvalues are 0.

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One natural fix: add something positive

$$\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}} + \lambda \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{U}^T \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 + \lambda & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 + \lambda & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \lambda_D + \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_{D+1} + \lambda \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}$$

where $\lambda > 0$ and \mathbf{I} is the identity matrix.

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where $\lambda > 0$ and \mathbf{I} is the identity matrix. Now it is invertible:

$$(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} = \mathbf{U}^T \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda_1 + \lambda} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda_2 + \lambda} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \frac{1}{\lambda_D + \lambda} & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda_{D+1} + \lambda} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}$$

Fix the problem

The solution becomes

$$\tilde{\mathbf{w}}^* = \left(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}} + \lambda \mathbf{I} \right)^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \mathbf{y}$$

- not a minimizer of the original RSS

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The solution becomes

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- not a minimizer of the original RSS

λ is a *hyper-parameter*, can be tuned by cross-validation.

Comparison to NNC

Parametric versus non-parametric

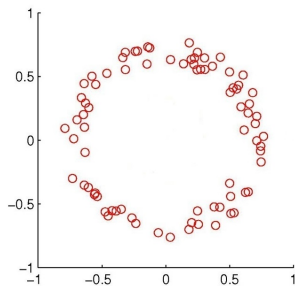
- **Parametric methods:** the size of the model does *not grow* with the size of the training set N .
 - e.g. linear regression, $D + 1$ parameters, independent of N .
- **Non-parametric methods:** the size of the model *grows* with the size of the training set.
 - e.g. NNC, the training set itself needs to be kept in order to predict. Thus, the size of the model is the size of the training set.

Outline

- 1 Review of last lecture
- 2 Linear regression
- 3 Linear regression with nonlinear basis**
- 4 Overfitting and Preventing Overfitting

What if linear model is not a good fit?

Example: a straight line is a bad fit for the following data



Solution: nonlinearly transformed features

1. Use a nonlinear mapping

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^M$$

to transform the data to a more complicated feature space

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2. Then apply linear regression (hope: linear model is a better fit for the new feature space).

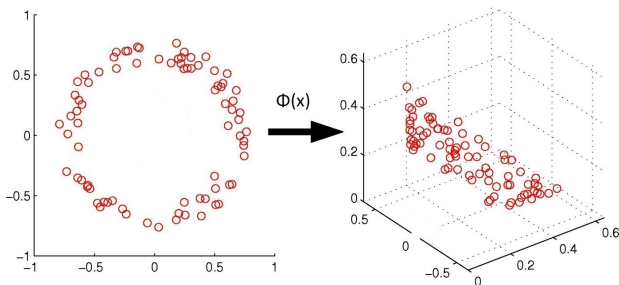
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Regression with nonlinear basis

Model: $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x})$ where $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^M$

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Similar least square solution:

$$\mathbf{w}^* = (\Phi^T \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^T \mathbf{y} \quad \text{where} \quad \Phi = \begin{pmatrix} \phi(\mathbf{x}_1)^T \\ \phi(\mathbf{x}_2)^T \\ \vdots \\ \phi(\mathbf{x}_N)^T \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times M}$$

Example

Polynomial basis functions for $D = 1$

$$\phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x \\ x^2 \\ \vdots \\ x^M \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow f(x) = w_0 + \sum_{m=1}^M w_m x^m$$

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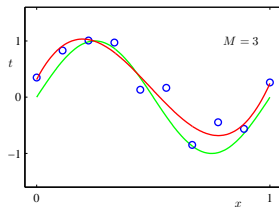
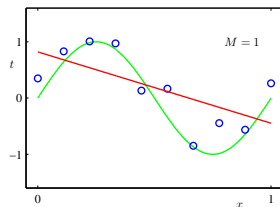
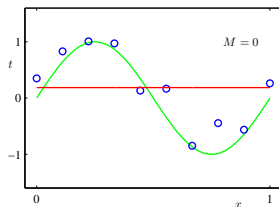
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Learning a linear model in the new space

= learning an *M -degree polynomial model* in the original space

Example

Fitting a noisy sine function with a polynomial ($M = 0, 1$, or 3):



Why nonlinear?

Can I use a fancy **linear feature map**?

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - x_2 \\ 3x_4 - x_3 \\ 2x_1 + x_4 + x_5 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \quad \text{for some } \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times D}$$

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No, it basically *does nothing* since

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Why nonlinear?

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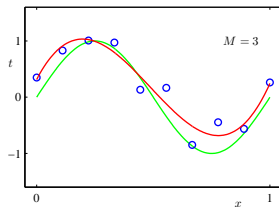
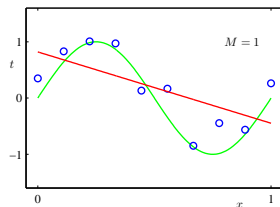
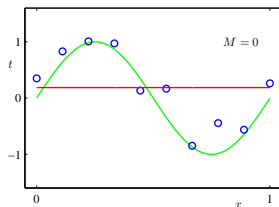
We will see more nonlinear mappings soon.

Outline

- 1 Review of last lecture
- 2 Linear regression
- 3 Linear regression with nonlinear basis
- 4 Overfitting and Preventing Overfitting**

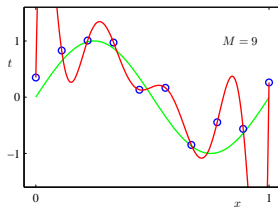
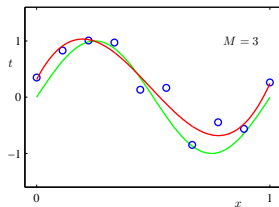
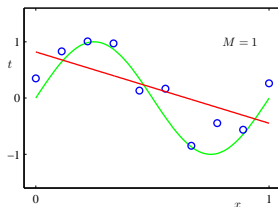
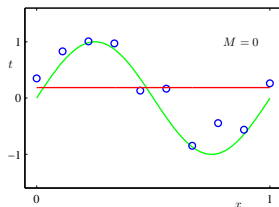
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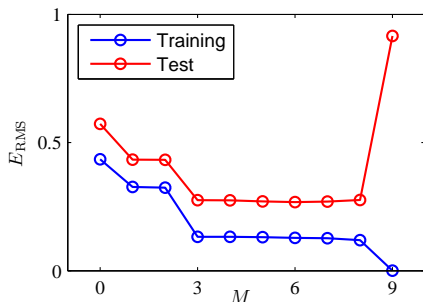
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$M \leq 2$ is *underfitting* the data

- large training error
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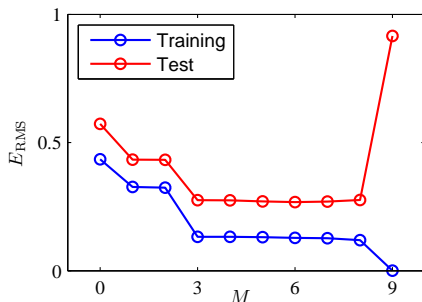
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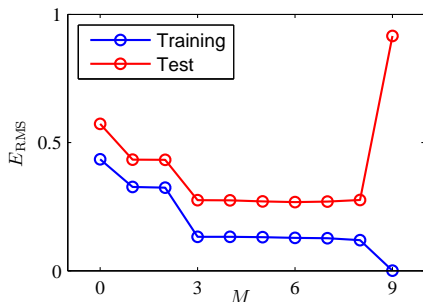
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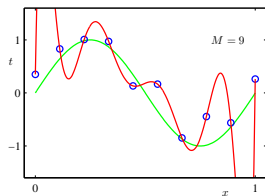


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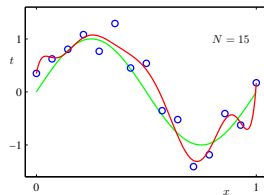
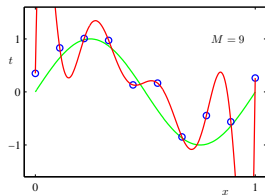
Method 1: use more training data

The more, the merrier



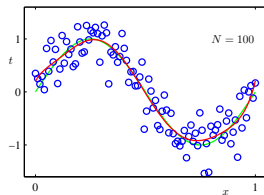
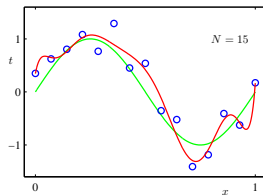
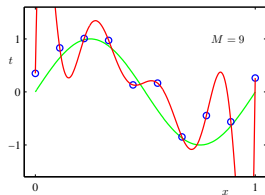
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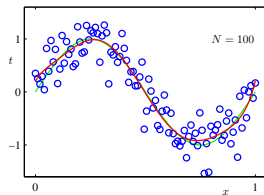
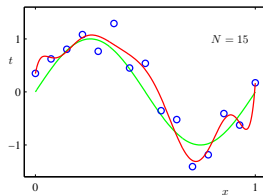
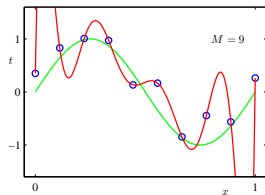
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More data \Rightarrow smaller gap between training and test error

Method 2: control the model complexity

For polynomial basis, the **degree** M clearly controls the complexity

- use cross-validation to pick hyper-parameter M

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When M or in general Φ is fixed, are there still other ways to control complexity?

Magnitude of weights

Least square solution for the polynomial example:

	$M = 0$	$M = 1$	$M = 3$	$M = 9$
w_0	0.19	0.82	0.31	0.35
w_1		-1.27	7.99	232.37
w_2			-25.43	-5321.83
w_3			17.37	48568.31
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Intuitively, **large weights** \Rightarrow **more complex model**

How to make w small?

Regularized linear regression: new objective

$$\mathcal{E}(w) = \text{RSS}(w) + \lambda R(w)$$

Goal: find $w^* = \text{argmin}_w \mathcal{E}(w)$

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 - common choices: $\|w\|_2^2$, $\|w\|_1$, etc.
- $\lambda > 0$ is the *regularization coefficient*
 - $\lambda = 0$, no regularization
 - $\lambda \rightarrow +\infty$, $w \rightarrow \text{argmin}_w R(w)$
 - i.e. control **trade-off** between training error and complexity

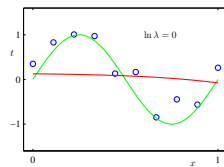
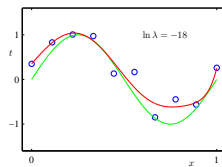
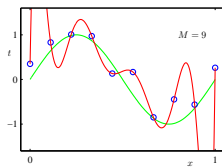
The effect of λ

when we increase regularization coefficient λ

	$\ln \lambda = -\infty$	$\ln \lambda = -18$	$\ln \lambda = 0$
w_0	0.35	0.35	0.13
w_1	232.37	4.74	-0.05
w_2	-5321.83	-0.77	-0.06
w_3	48568.31	-31.97	-0.06
w_4	-231639.30	-3.89	-0.03
w_5	640042.26	55.28	-0.02
w_6	-1061800.52	41.32	-0.01
w_7	1042400.18	-45.95	-0.00
w_8	-557682.99	-91.53	0.00
w_9	125201.43	72.68	0.01

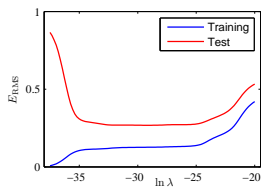
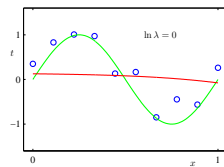
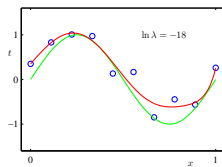
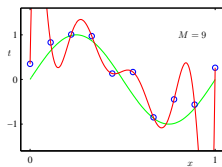
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How to solve the new objective?

Simple for $R(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$:

$$\mathcal{E}(\mathbf{w}) = \text{RSS}(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 = \|\Phi \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$$

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For other regularizers, as long as it's **convex**, standard optimization algorithms can be applied.

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Regularization is also sometimes formulated as

$$\underset{w}{\operatorname{argmin}} \operatorname{RSS}(w) \quad \textbf{subject to} \quad R(w) \leq \beta$$

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Choosing either λ or β can be done by cross-validation.

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Preventing Overfitting: more data + regularization

Recall the question

Typical steps of developing a machine learning system:

- Collect data, split into training, development, and test sets.
- *Train a model with a machine learning algorithm.* Most often we apply cross-validation to tune hyper-parameters.
- Evaluate using the test data and report performance.
- Use the model to predict future/make decisions.

How to do the *red part* exactly?

General idea to derive ML algorithms

1. Pick a set of **models** \mathcal{F}

- e.g. $\mathcal{F} = \{f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D\}$
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