CSCI566 Deep Learning and Its Applications (Fall 2024)
Linear Regression, LR with nonlinear basis, Overfitting

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Outline

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Datasets

Training data

- N samples/instances: $\mathcal{D}^{\text{TRAIN}} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, y_1), (\boldsymbol{x}_2, y_2), \cdots, (\boldsymbol{x}_{\mathsf{N}}, y_{\mathsf{N}})\}$
- They are used for learning $f(\cdot)$

Test data

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

Development/Validation data

- L samples/instances: $\mathcal{D}^{\text{DEV}} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, y_1), (\boldsymbol{x}_2, y_2), \cdots, (\boldsymbol{x}_{\mathsf{L}}, y_{\mathsf{L}})\}$
- They are used to optimize hyper-parameter(s).

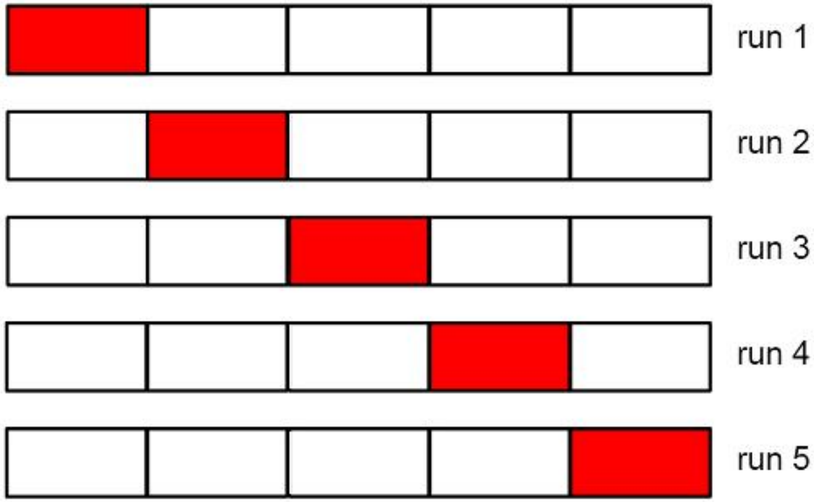
These three sets should *not* overlap!

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

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

- 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?

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

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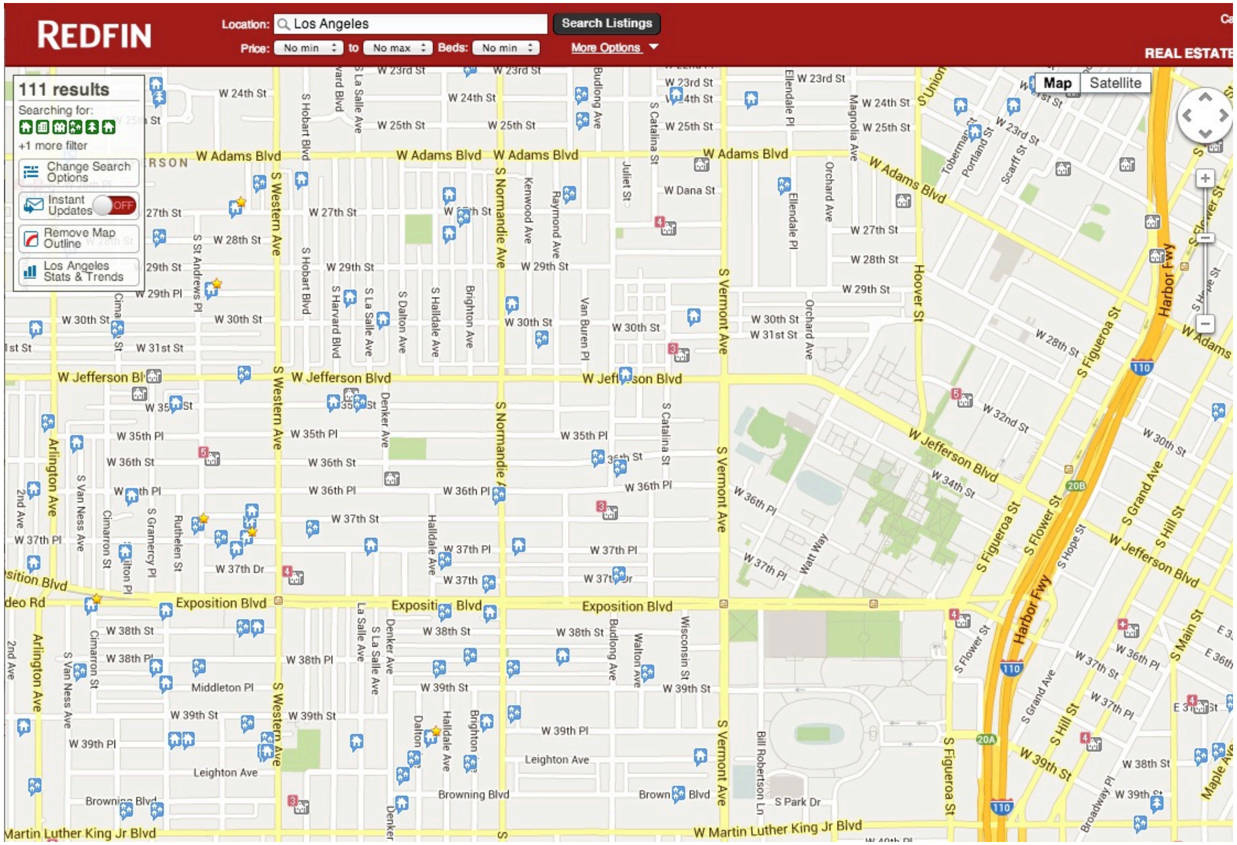
Linear Regression: regression with linear models

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	14	6	4,418 Sq. Ft.
Last Sold Price	Beds	Baths	$342 / 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-Tech MLS and may not match the public record. Learn More.

Interior Features

Kitchen Information
- Remodeled
- Oven, Range

Laundry Information
- Inside Laundry

Heating & Cooling
- Wall Cooling Unit(s)

Multi-Unit Information

Community Features
- Units in Complex (Total): 5

Multi-Family Information
- # Leased: 5
- # of Buildings: 1
- Owner Pays Water
- Tenant Pays Electricity, Tenant Pays Gas

Unit 1 Information
- # of Beds: 2
- # of Baths: 1
- Unfurnished
- Monthly Rent: $1,700

Unit 2 Information
- # of Beds: 3
- # of Baths: 1
- Unfurnished
- Monthly Rent: $2,250

Unit 3 Information
- Unfurnished

Unit 4 Information
- # of Beds: 3
- # of Baths: 1
- Unfurnished

- Monthly Rent: $2,350

Unit 5 Information
- # of Beds: 3
- # of Baths: 2
- Unfurnished
- Monthly Rent: $2,325

Unit 6 Information
- # of Beds: 3
- # of Baths: 1
- Monthly Rent: $2,250

Property / Lot Details

Property Features
- Automatic Gate, Card/Code Access

Lot Information
- Lot Size (Sq. Ft.): 9,649
- Lot Size (Acres): 0.2215
- Lot Size Source: Public Records

- Automatic Gate, Lawn, Sidewalks
- Corner Lot, Near Public Transit

Property Information
- Updated/Remodeled
- Square Footage Source: Public Records

- Tax Parcel Number: 5040017019

Parking / Garage, Exterior Features, Utilities & Financing

Parking Information
- # of Parking Spaces (Total): 12
- Parking Space
- Gated

Building Information
- Total Floors: 2

Utility Information
- Green Certification Rating: 0.00
- Green Location: Transportation, Walkability
- Green Walk Score: 0
- Green Year Certified: 0

Financial Information
- Capitalization Rate (%): 6.25
- Actual Annual Gross Rent: $128,331
- Gross Rent Multiplier: 11.29

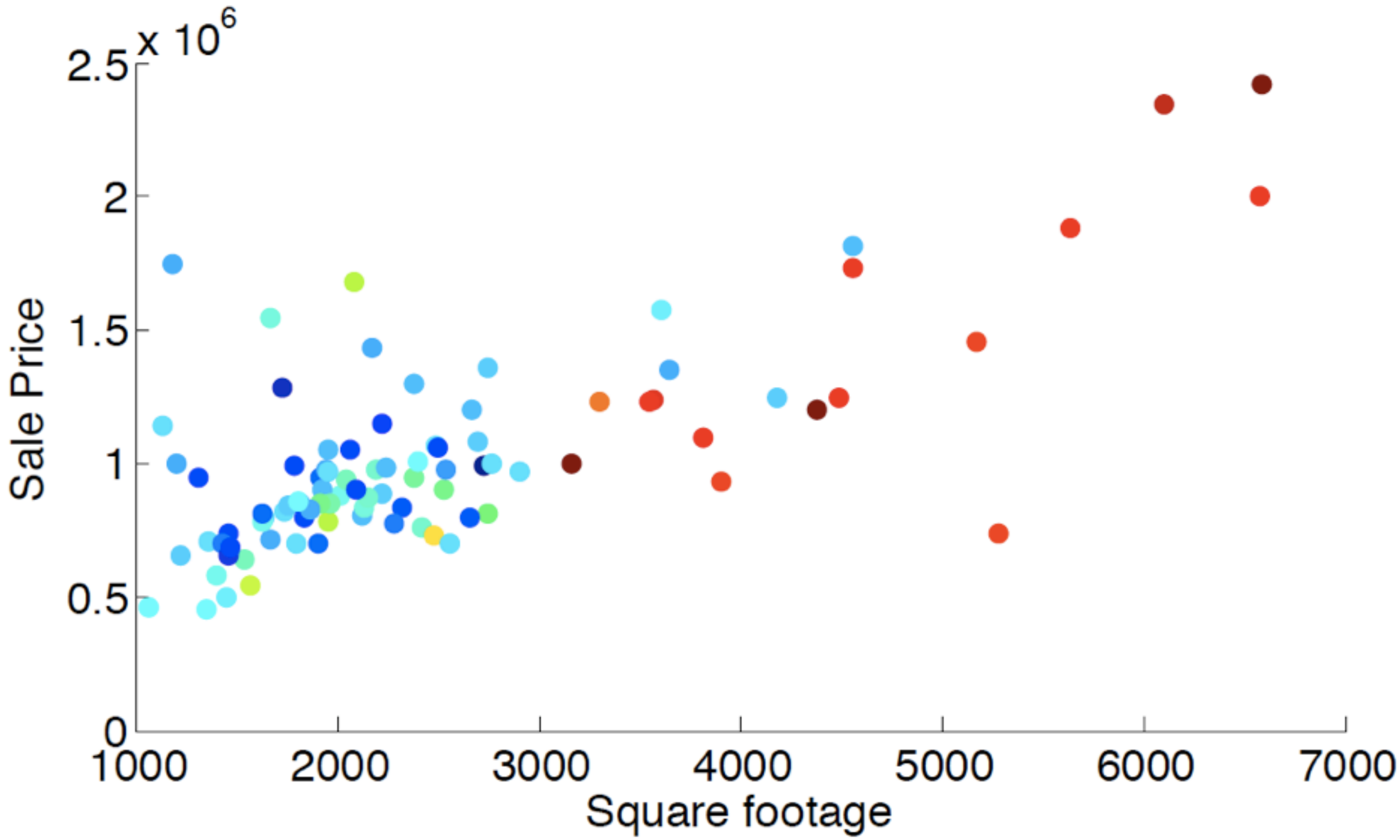
Location Details, Misc. Information & Listing Information

Location Information
- Cross Streets: W 36th Pl

Expense Information
- Operating: $37,664

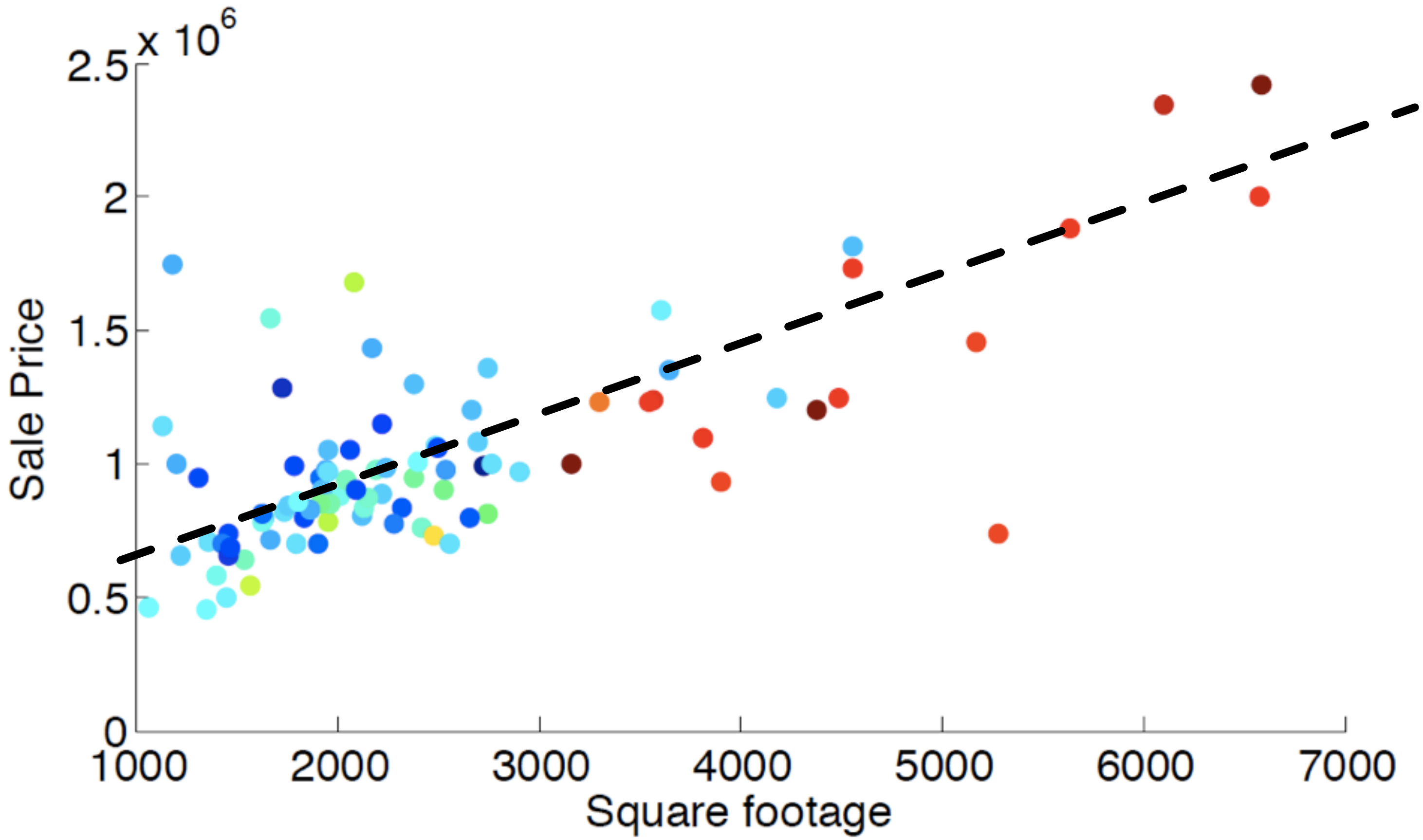
Listing Information
- Listing Terms: Cash, Cash To Existing Loan
- Buyer Financing: Cash

Correlation between square footage and sale price



Possibly linear relationship

Sale price ≈ **price_per_sqft** × square_footage + **fixed_expense**



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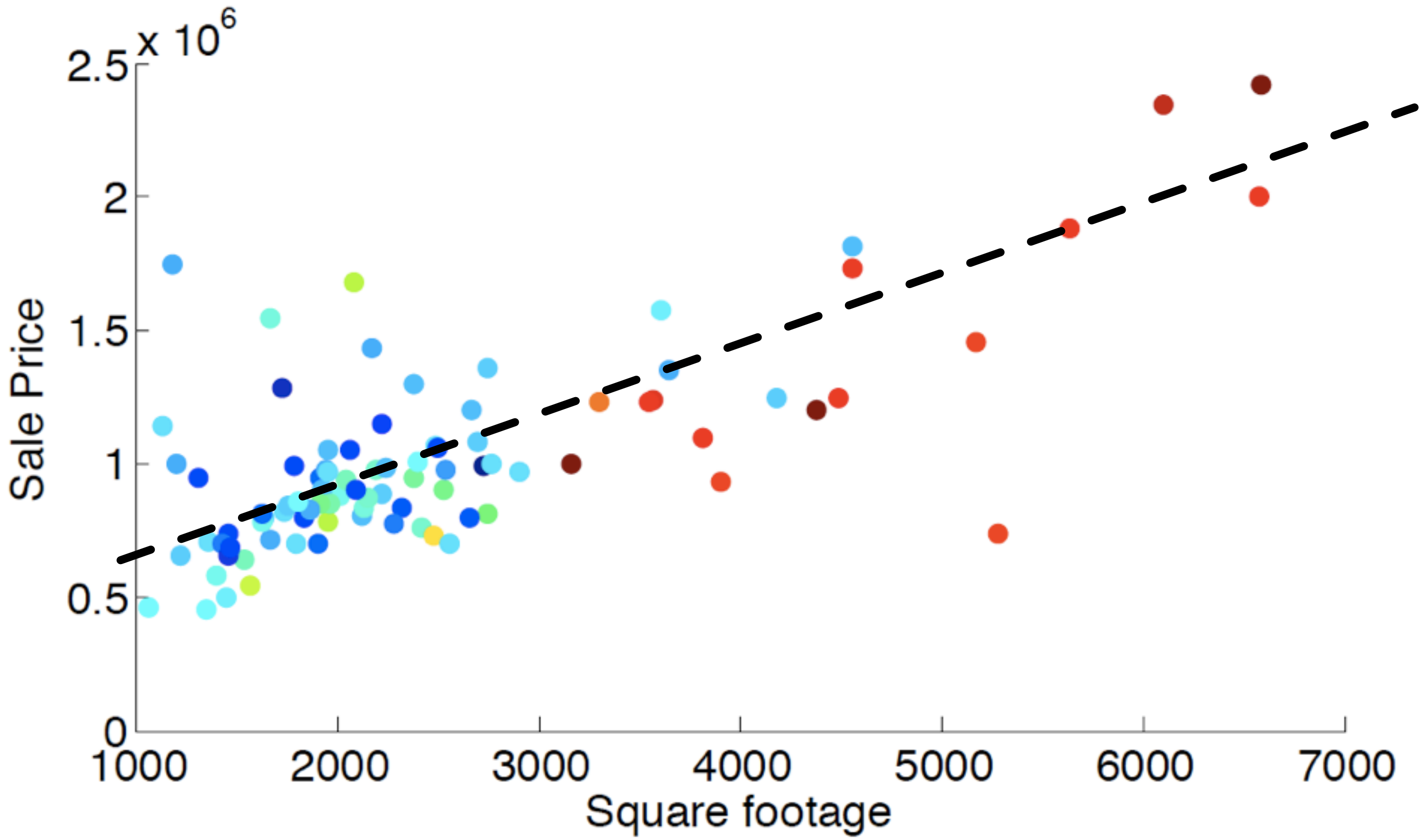
(*slope*) (*intercept*)



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- training set? (for now)

Example

Predicted price = **price_per_sqft** × 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			$0 + 67^2 + 228^2 + 740^2 + \cdots$

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

Formal setup for linear regression

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

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

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

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- sometimes just use $\boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{x}, \mathsf{D}$ for $\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}, \mathsf{D}+1$!

Goal

Minimize total squared error

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

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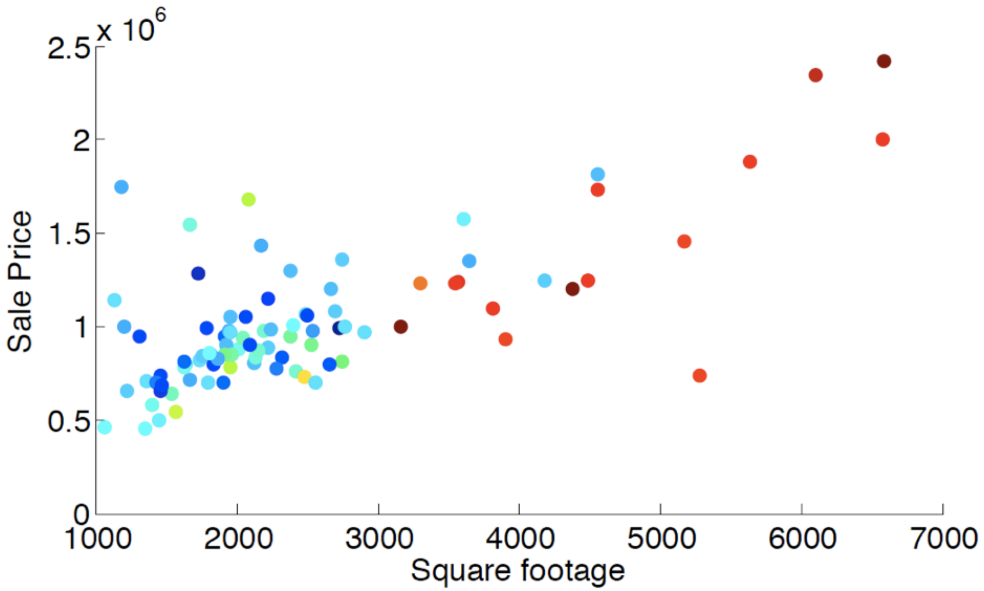
- *reduce machine learning to optimization*

- 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

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

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

Warm-up: D $= 1$

Optimization objective becomes

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

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \mathrm{RSS}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}})}{\partial w_0} = 0 \\ \frac{\partial \mathrm{RSS}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}})}{\partial w_1} = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} \textstyle\sum_n (w_0 + w_1 x_n - y_n) &= 0 \\ \textstyle\sum_n (w_0 + w_1 x_n - y_n) x_n &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

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$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} N w_0 + w_1 \textstyle\sum_n x_n &= \textstyle\sum_n y_n \\ w_0 \textstyle\sum_n x_n + w_1 \textstyle\sum_n x_n^2 &= \textstyle\sum_n y_n x_n \end{aligned} \qquad \text{(}\textbf{a linear system}\text{)}$$

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

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \mathrm{RSS}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}})}{\partial w_0} = 0 \\ \frac{\partial \mathrm{RSS}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}})}{\partial w_1} = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{ll} \sum_n (w_0 + w_1 x_n - y_n) & = 0 \\ \sum_n (w_0 + w_1 x_n - y_n) x_n & = 0 \end{array}$$

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

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

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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- not true in general

General least square solution

Objective

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where

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_1^{\mathrm{T}} \\ \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_2^{\mathrm{T}} \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_{\mathsf{N}}^{\mathrm{T}} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{N} \times (D+1)}, \quad \boldsymbol{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_{\mathsf{N}} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{N}}$$

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Verify the solution when $\mathsf{D} = 1$**:**

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^{\mathrm{T}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_{\mathsf{N}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \cdots & \cdots \\ 1 & x_{\mathsf{N}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} N & \sum_n x_n \\ \sum_n x_n & \sum_n x_n^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

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

Another approach

RSS is a quadratic:

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

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

Computational complexity

Bottleneck of computing

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

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

- naively need $O(\mathsf{D}^3)$ time

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

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Example: $\mathsf{D} = \mathsf{N} = 1$

sqft	sale price
1000	500K

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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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$\mathsf{D} = 2, \mathsf{N} = 3$**?**

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

sqft	#bedroom	sale price
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Again *infinitely many minimizers*.

How to resolve this issue?

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

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

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

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

i.e. just inverse the eigenvalues

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Non-invertible $\Rightarrow$ some eigenvalues are 0.

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One natural fix: add something positive

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

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

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

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

Fix the problem

The solution becomes

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

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

Comparison to NNC

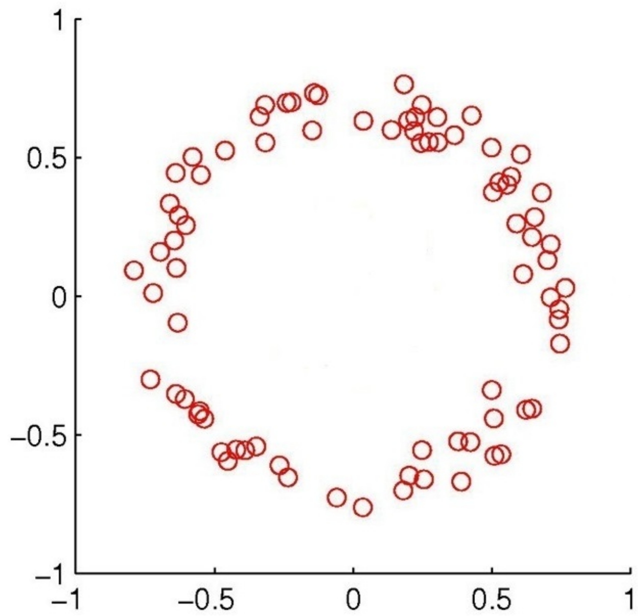
Parametric versus non-parametric

- **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

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

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

to transform the data to a more complicated feature space

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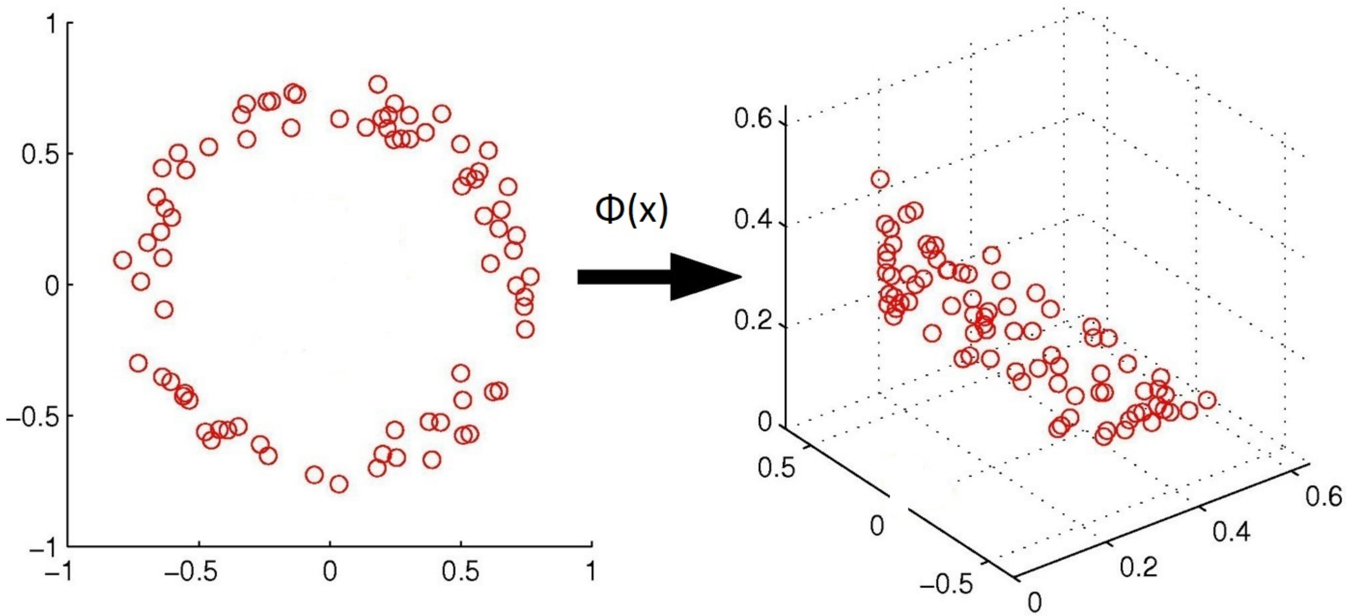

Regression with nonlinear basis

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

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Similar least square solution:

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

Example

Polynomial basis functions for $\mathrm{D} = 1$

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

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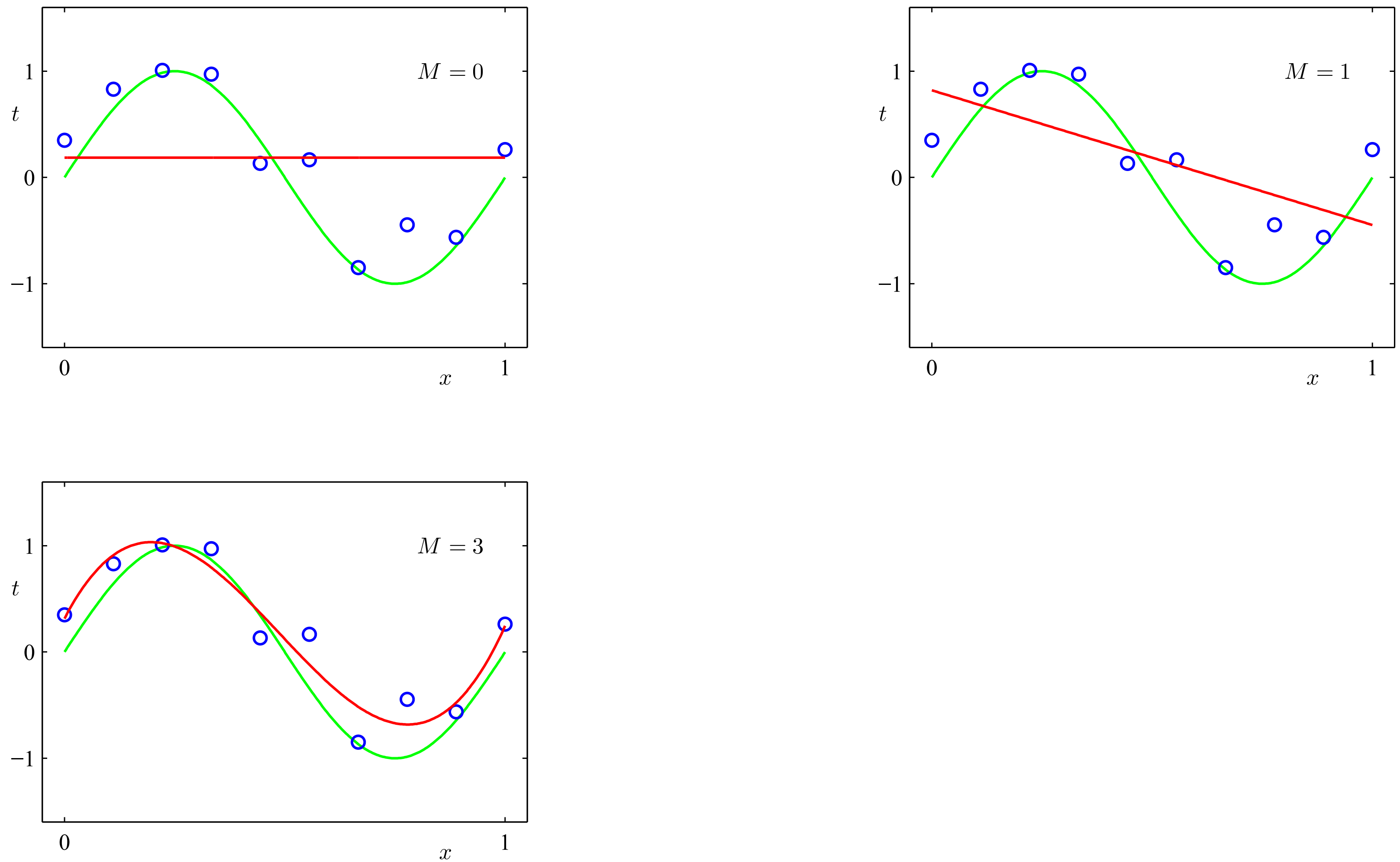
Learning a linear model in the new space
$=$ learning an *M-degree polynomial model* in the original space

Example

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



Why nonlinear?

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

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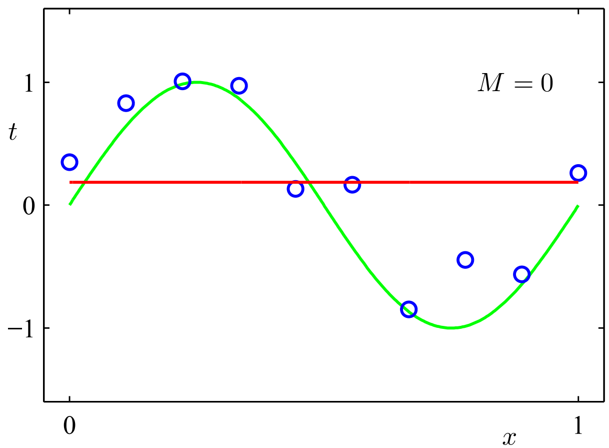
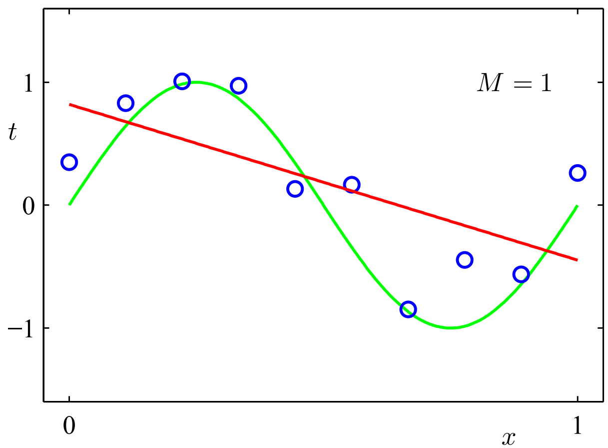
We will see more nonlinear mappings soon.

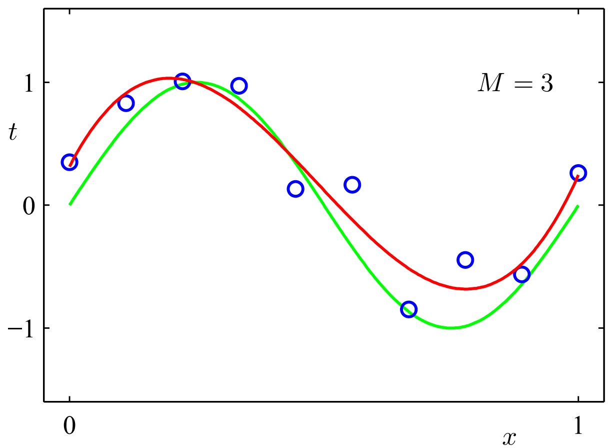
Outline

Should we use a very complicated mapping?

Ex: fitting a noisy sine function with a polynomial:







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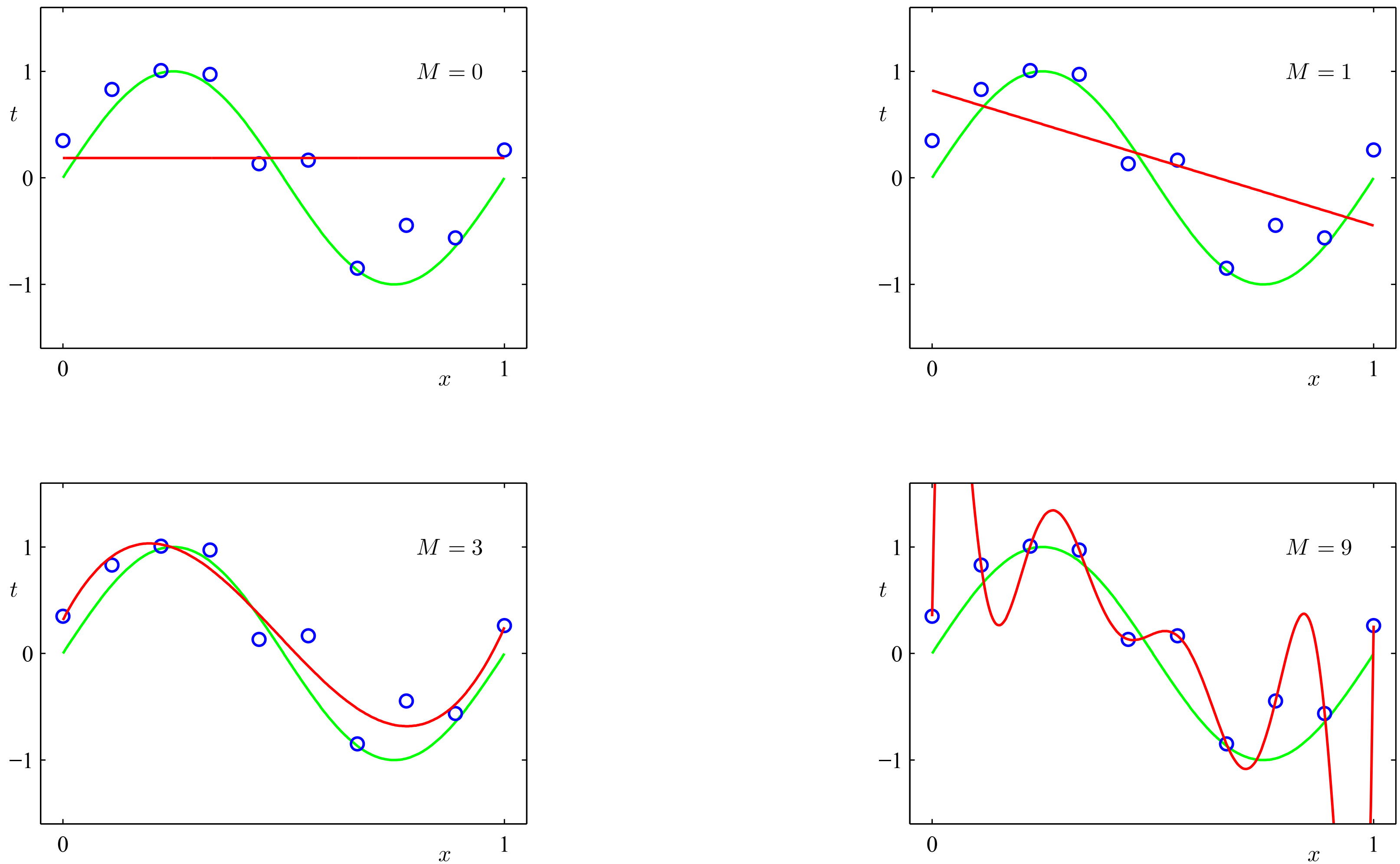

Underfitting and Overfitting

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

- large training error
- large test error

$M \geq 9$ is *overfitting* the data

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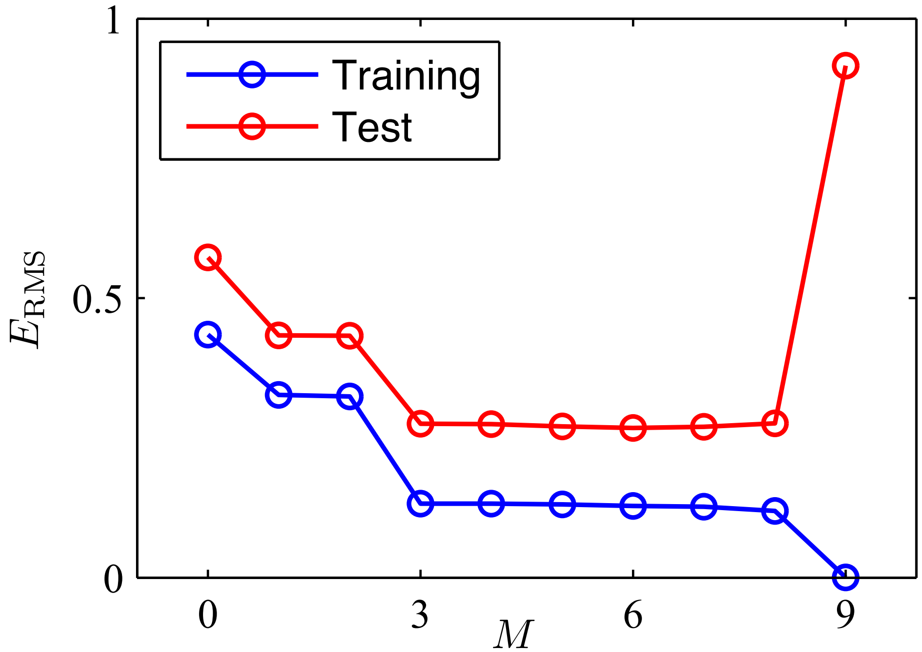

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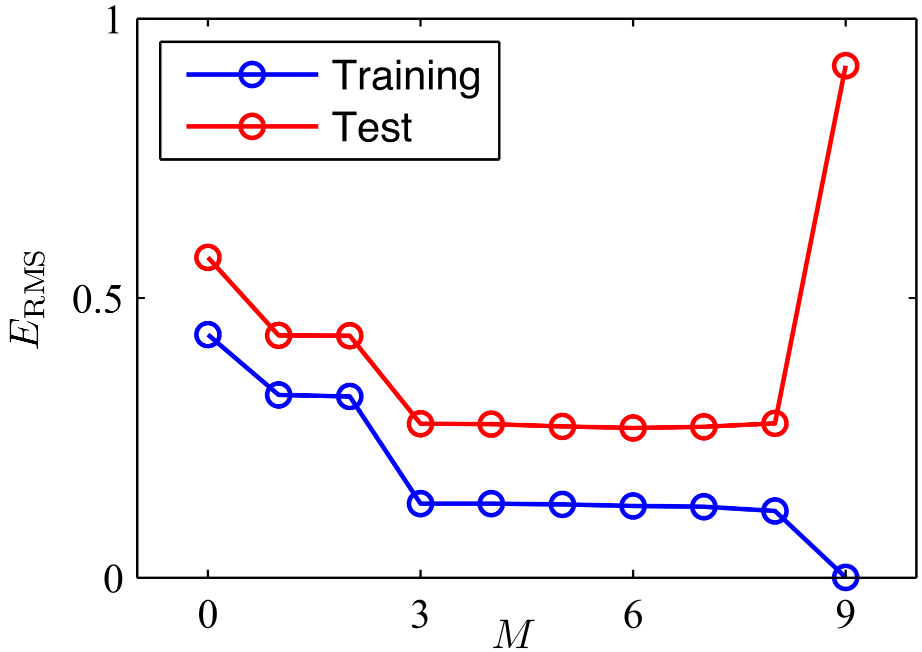

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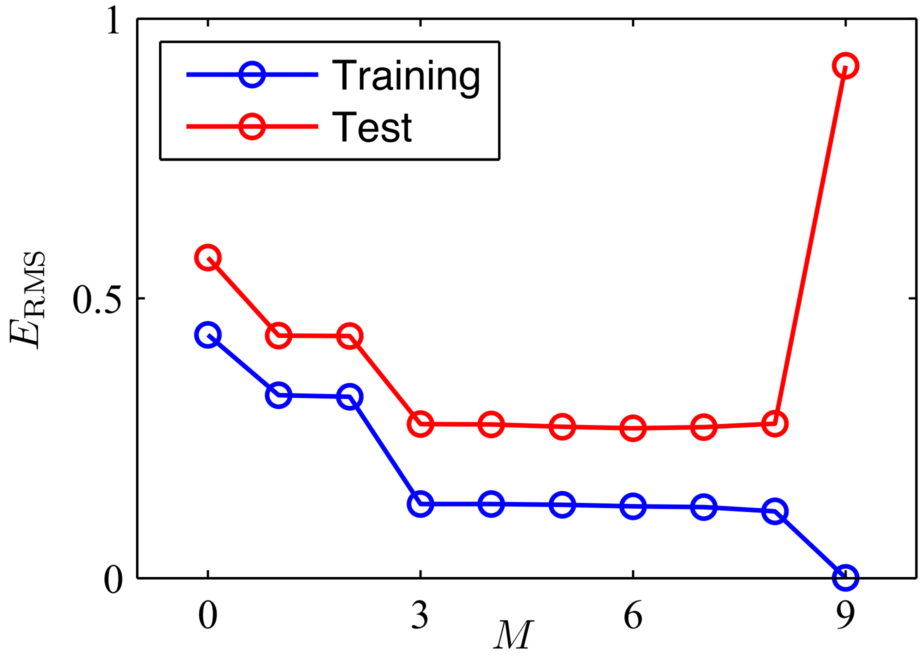

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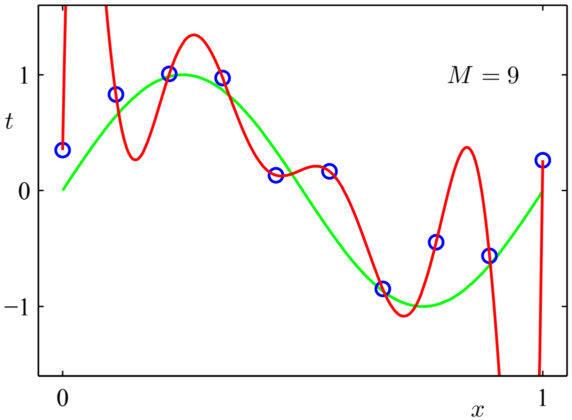
How to prevent overfitting?

Method 1: use more training data

The more, the merrier



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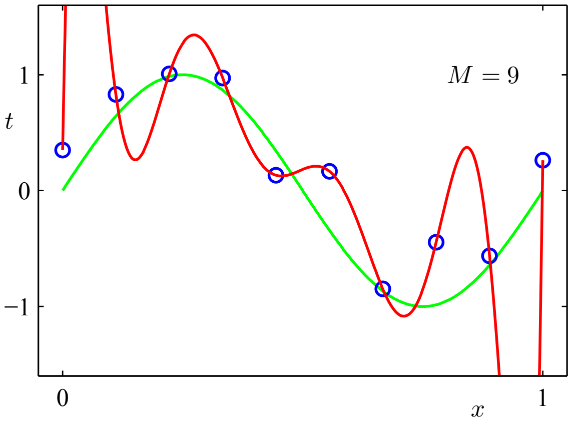

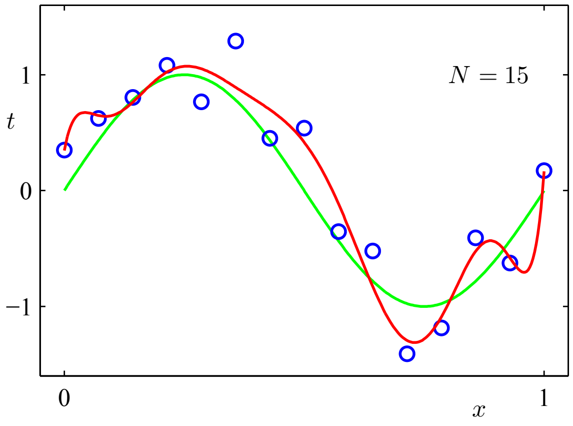

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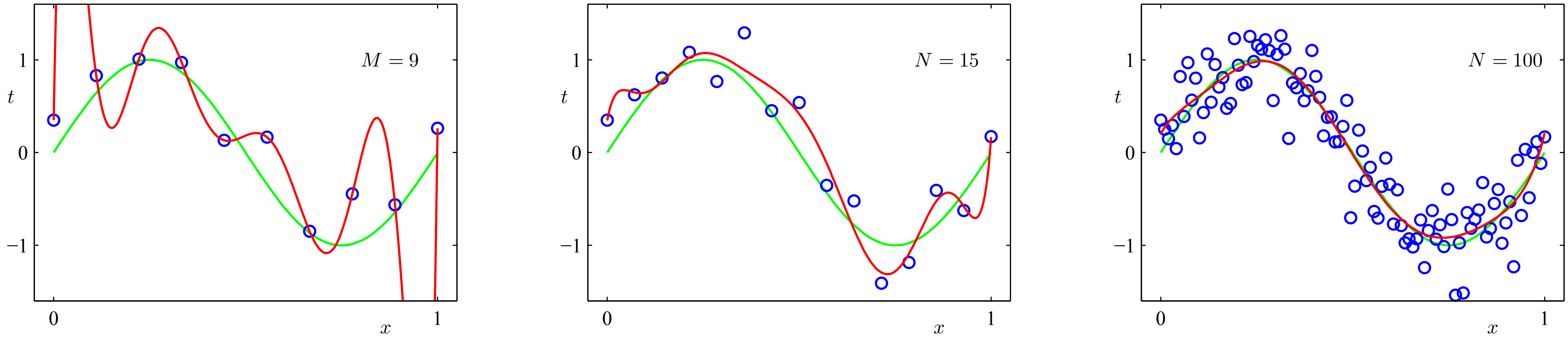

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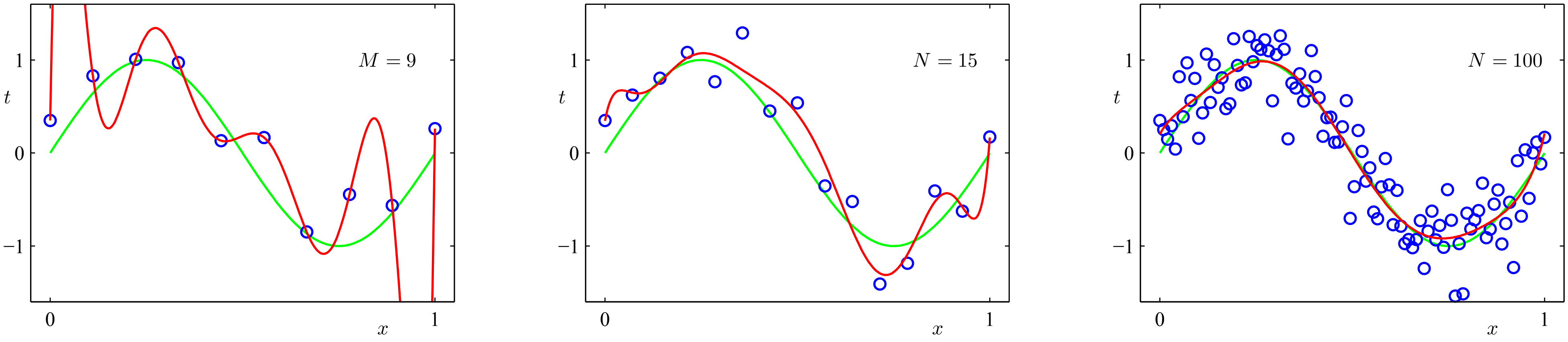

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Method 2: control the model complexity

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 $\boldsymbol{w}$ small?

Regularized linear regression: new objective

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

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

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  - common choices: $\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_2^2$, $\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_1$, etc.
- $\lambda > 0$ is the *regularization coefficient*
  - $\lambda = 0$, no regularization
  - $\lambda \rightarrow +\infty$, $\boldsymbol{w} \rightarrow \operatorname{argmin}_w R(\boldsymbol{w})$
  - 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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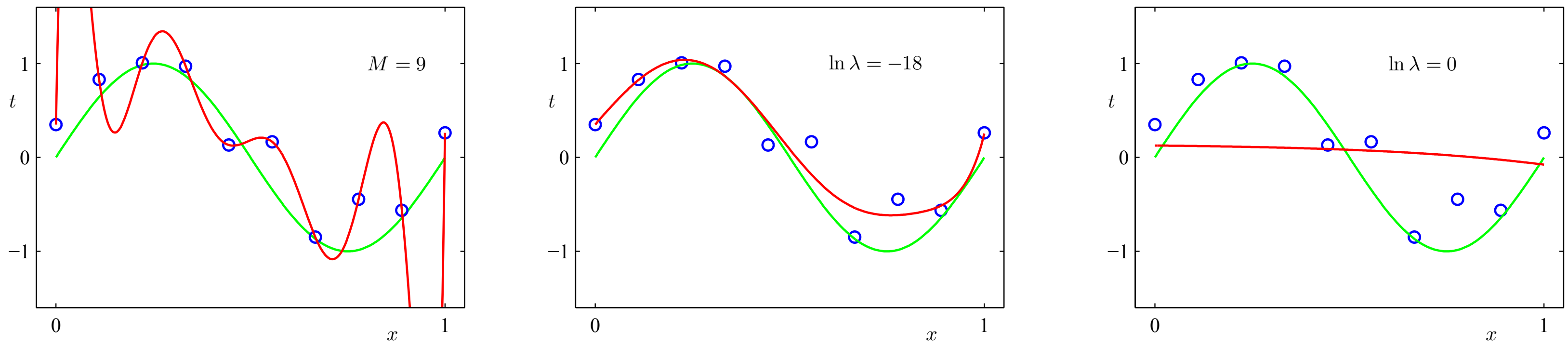

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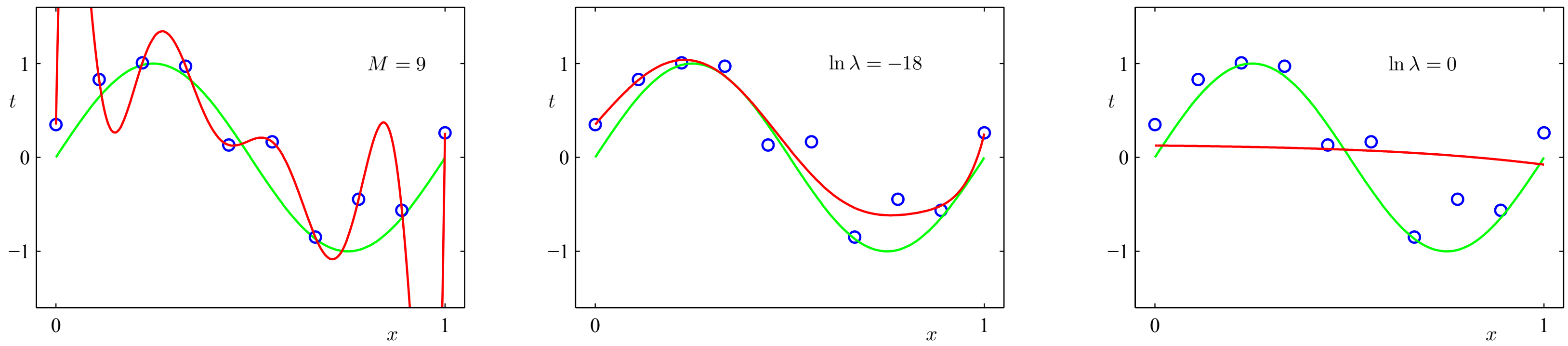

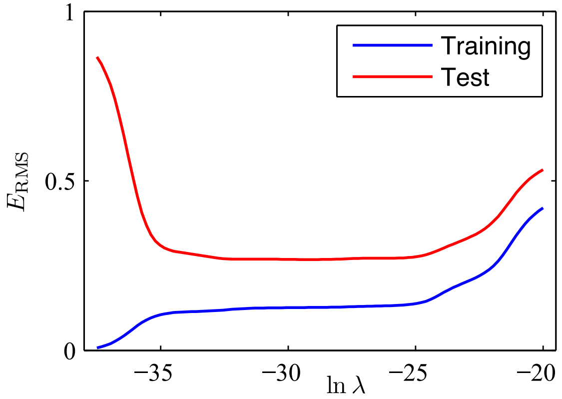

How to solve the new objective?

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

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

Equivalent form

Regularization is also sometimes formulated as

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

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Overfitting: small training error but large test error

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. $\mathcal{F} = \{f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}}\}$
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ML becomes optimization