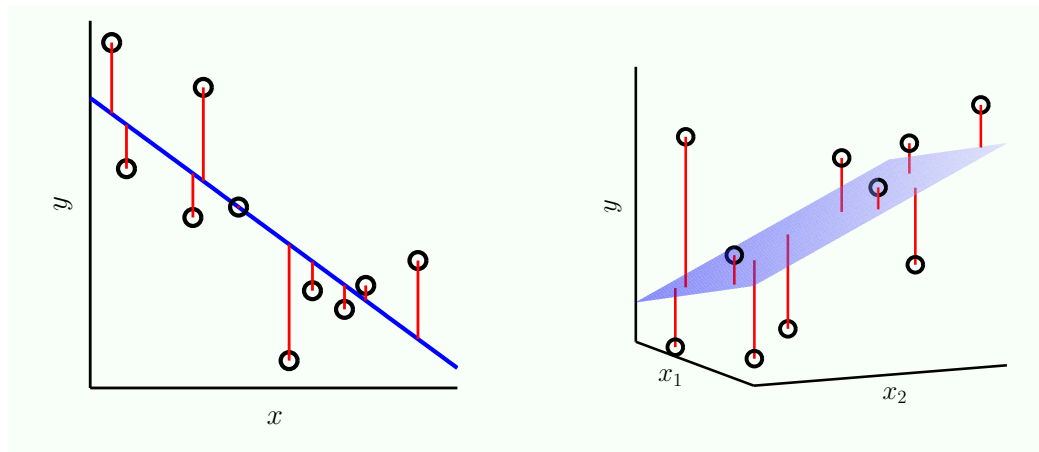
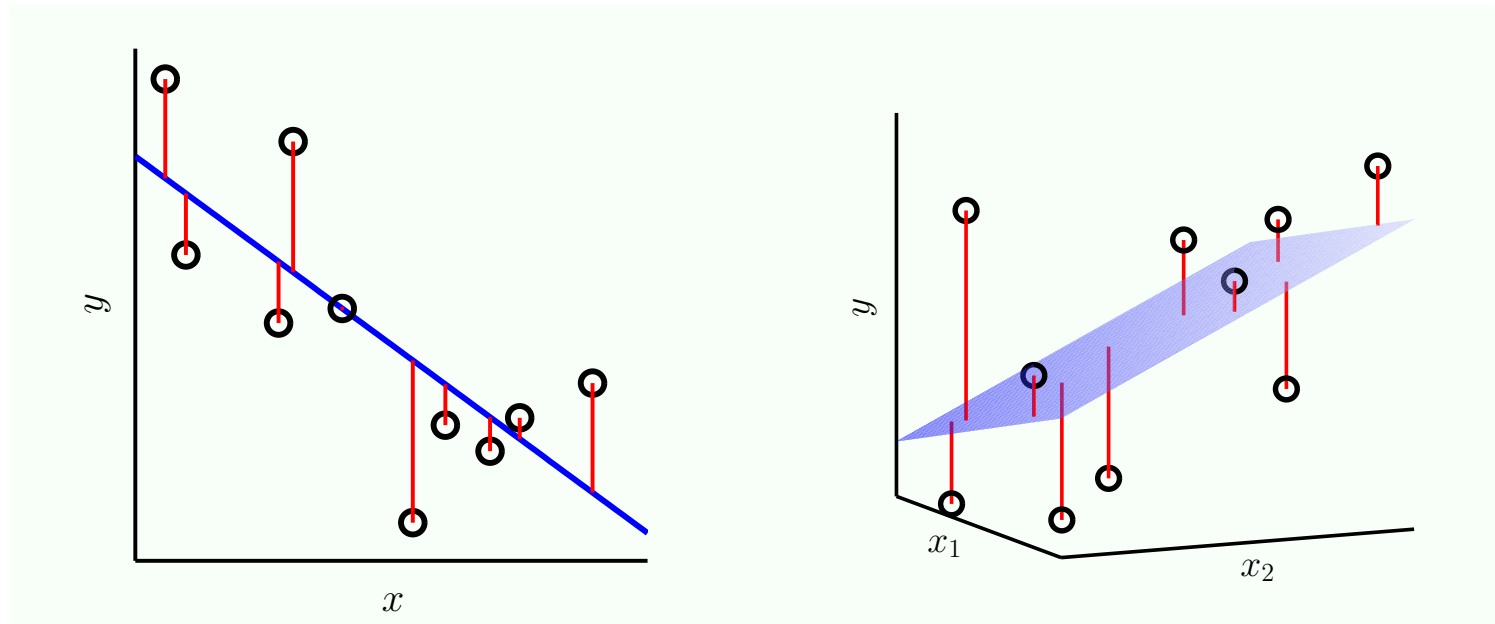

Linear models: Linear regression

Chapter 3.2



Least squares linear regression



$$E_{\text{in}}(h) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (h(\mathbf{x}_i) - y_i)^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} - y_i)^2$$

Note: there is no explicit bias, so introduce it via an additional feature

Least squares linear regression

Goal: the predicted values be as close as possible to the labels.

$$E_{\text{in}}(h) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (h(\mathbf{x}_i) - y_i)^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} - y_i)^2$$

Training: Find \mathbf{w} that minimize this cost function

The discrepancy between predictions and labels is measured using a **loss** function. Here we used the squared-error loss:

$$L(y, \hat{y}) = (y - \hat{y})^2$$

Expressing E_{in} in matrix form

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 \\ \mathbf{x}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_N \end{bmatrix}$$

data matrix, $N \times (d+1)$

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$$

target vector

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{y}_1 \\ \hat{y}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{y}_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_1 \\ \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_N \end{bmatrix} = X\mathbf{w}$$

in-sample predictions

$$\begin{aligned} E_{in}(\mathbf{w}) &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (\hat{y}_n - y_n)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \|\hat{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \|X\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{N} (\mathbf{w}^T X^T X \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{w}^T X^T \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y}) \end{aligned}$$

Gradients and vector differentiation

The gradient of a scalar function $f(\mathbf{w})$ denoted by $\nabla f(\mathbf{w})$

is the vector $\left(\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_d} \right)^\top$

We will also denote it as $\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$

The requirement that the gradient be a column vector implies:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{x}$$

Recall that a necessary (and not sufficient) condition for an extremum of a function $f(\mathbf{w})$ is:

$$\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = 0$$

Solving for the weight vector

Let's do some algebra before taking the derivative:

$$\begin{aligned}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^\top (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) &= (\mathbf{y}^\top - (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^\top)(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) \\ &= (\mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top)(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) \\ &= \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^\top (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) &= -(\mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{X})^\top - \mathbf{X}^\top + \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} + (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^\top \\ &= -2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y} + 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} = 0\end{aligned}$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{x}$$

Now we get that \mathbf{w} satisfies: $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}$

and $\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}$
pseudo-inverse

Probability theory digression

Random variable: the outcome of a random process

Examples: the possible outcomes of rolling a die: {1,2,3,4,5,6}

The **expected** value of a random variable X :

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_x xP(x)$$

(for a continuous variable replace sum with integral)

The empirical estimate for the expectation:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

Probability theory digression

The spread of a distribution around the expected value is its **variance**, defined by:

$$\mathbb{E} \left[(X - \mathbb{E}(X))^2 \right] = \mathbb{E} [X^2] - \mathbb{E} [X]^2$$

The **sample variance** is:

$$\sigma_X^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

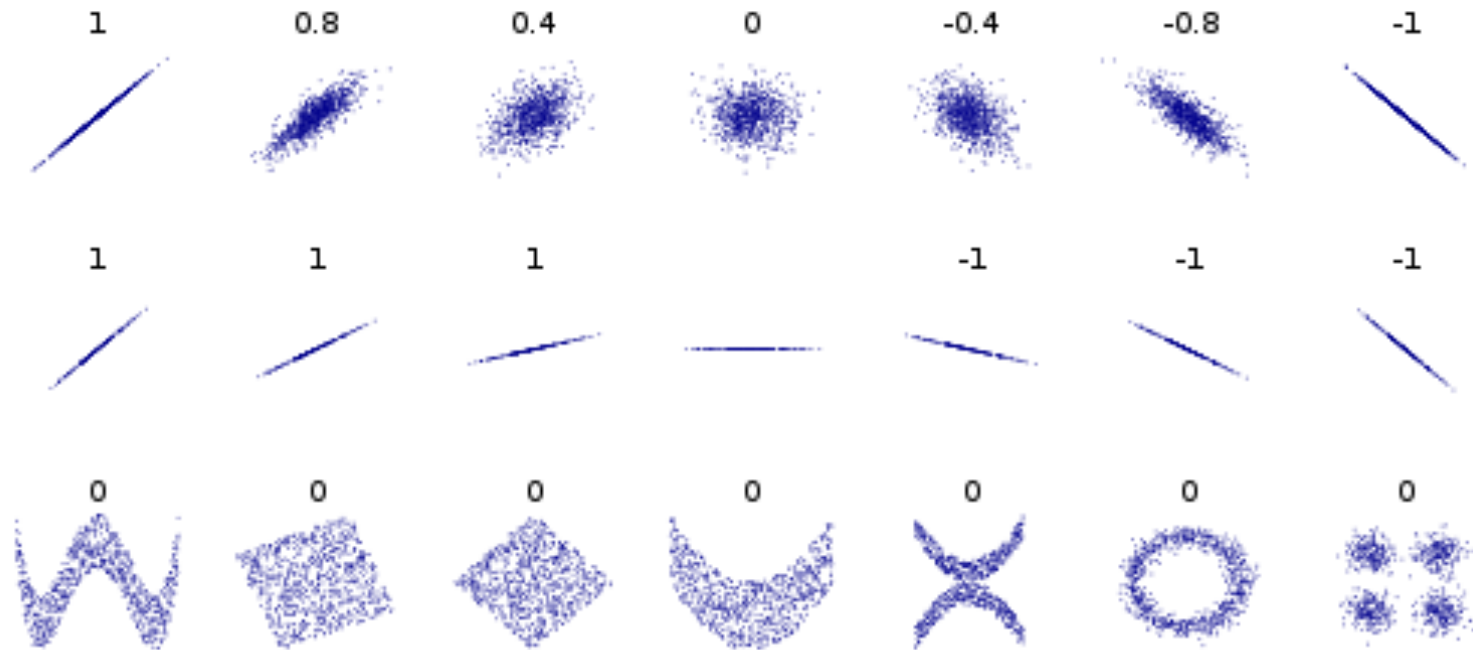
The **covariance** between two variables X and Y:

$$\mathbb{E} [(X - \mathbb{E}(X)) (Y - \mathbb{E}(Y))] = \mathbb{E} [X \cdot Y] - \mathbb{E} [X] \mathbb{E} [Y]$$

The **sample covariance**:

$$\sigma_{XY}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - \bar{x} \bar{y}$$

Correlation between variables



The Pearson correlation between two variables is defined as:

$$r_{XY} = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

It varies between -1 and 1

More insight into the solution

Let's compare the general solution

$$\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

With the solution to the one dimensional case (assume data is centered, i.e. has zero-mean):

$$w = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_{XX}^2}$$

Intuition: if X and Y are weakly correlated, the slope will be small

More insight into the solution

Let's compare the general solution

$$\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

With the solution to the one dimensional case:

$$w = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_{XX}^2}$$

And the special case of two dimensions:

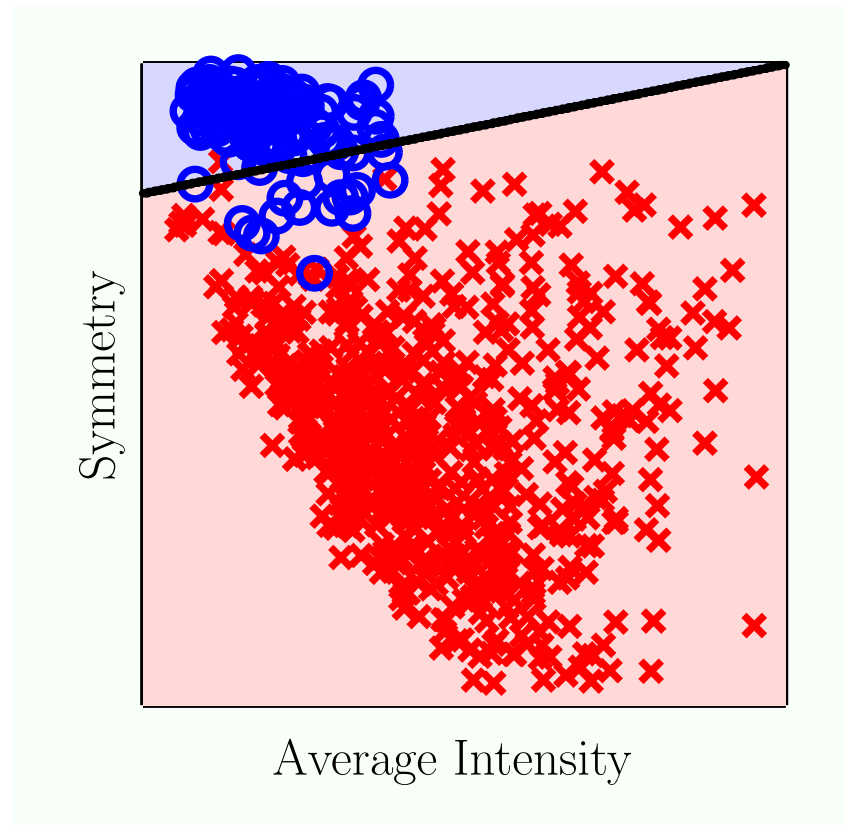
$$\mathbf{w} = \frac{1}{(\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}^2)} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{22}\sigma_{1y} - \sigma_{12}\sigma_{2y} \\ \sigma_{11}\sigma_{2y} - \sigma_{12}\sigma_{1y} \end{bmatrix}$$

What do we observe when x_1 and x_2 are uncorrelated?

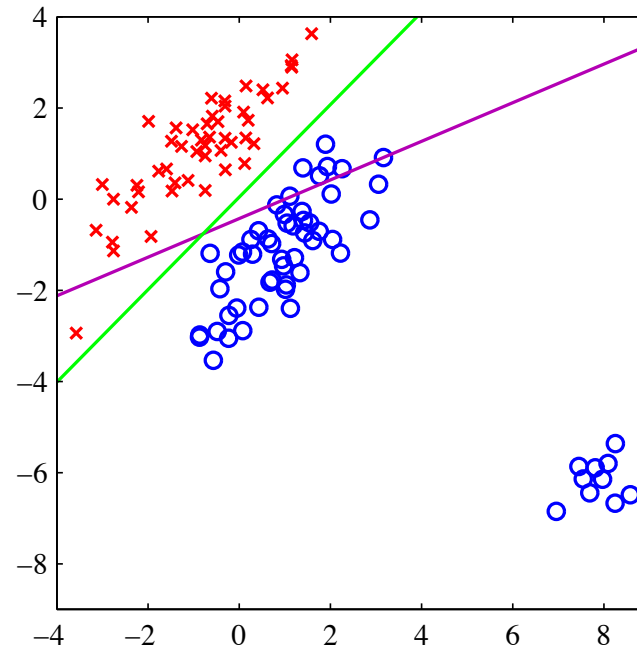
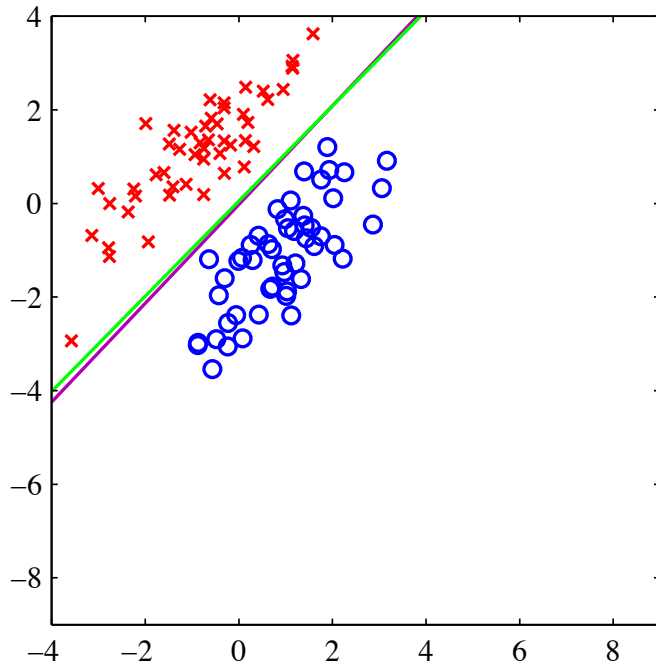
Also notice that w_1 may be nonzero even if x_1 is uncorrelated with the target variable.

Linear regression for classification

You can use linear regression for binary classification problems.



Sensitivity to outliers



Magenta: solution from least-squares
Green: logistic regression

Do I have to invert that matrix?

In order to compute \mathbf{w} you don't necessarily need to do it as:

$$\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

Instead, you can solve for \mathbf{w} as in:

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

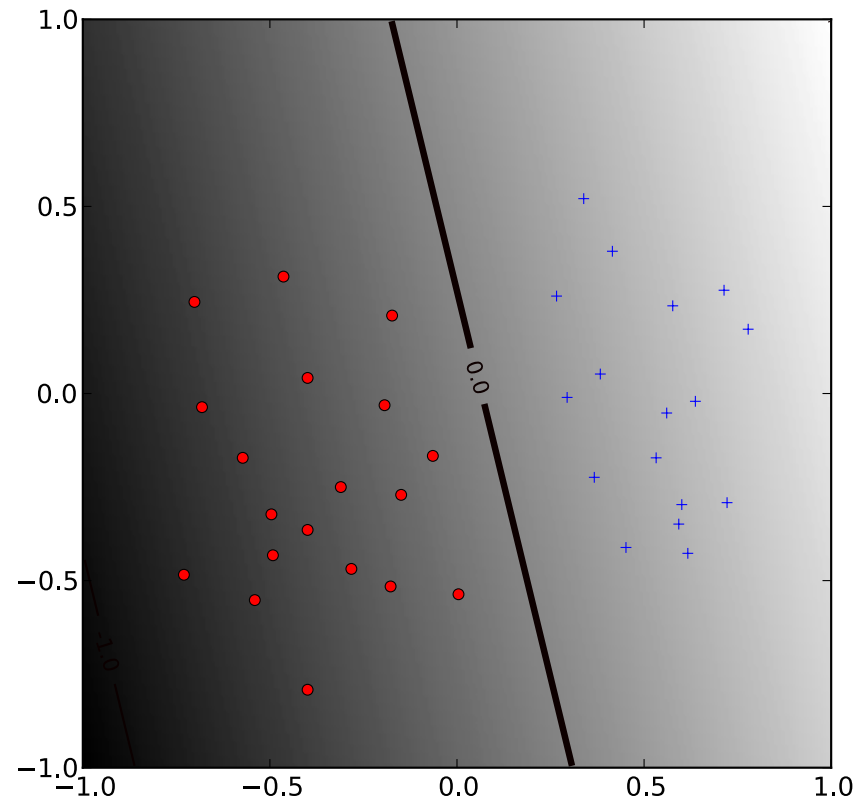
And, in python

```
import numpy as np
w = np.dot(np.linalg.inv(np.dot(X.T, X)), np.dot(X.T, y))
```

or, using the faster and more numerically stable solve function:

```
import numpy as np
w = np.linalg.solve(np.dot(X.T, X), np.dot(X.T, y))
```

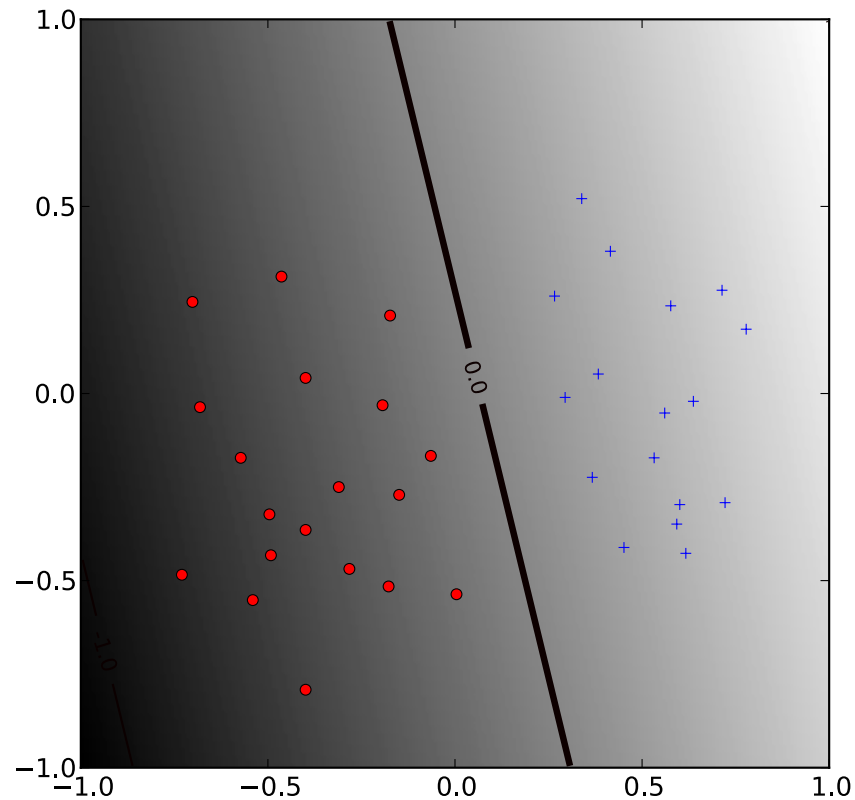
Interpreting the weight vector



Which component of the weight vector is larger?

Which variable is more relevant for the classification task?

Interpreting the weight vector



It is common practice to use the magnitude of weight vector components as an indicator of the importance of a feature.

Caveat: data needs to be normalized!

Interpreting the weight vector

The weight vector for the "heart" dataset:

```
array([-0.07006162, 0.15838763, 0.28357296, 0.20753778,  
0.23265869, -0.08271229, 0.08011837, -0.3363789 ,  
0.11753745, 0.25560924, 0.09984765, 0.40073063,  
0.23961789])
```

In the case of a binary classification problem, what is the relevance of the sign of w_i ?

Generalization

What can we say about E_{out} having minimized E_{in} ?

$$\mathbb{E}[E_{\text{out}}(h)] = \mathbb{E}[E_{\text{in}}(h)] + O\left(\frac{d}{N}\right)$$

See section 3.2.2 and exercise 3.4 for details.

Measuring regression accuracy

Root Mean Square Error (RMSE):

$$\text{RMSE}(h) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (h(\mathbf{x}_i) - y_i)^2}$$

Compute the RMSE on a test set

Another common measure of error is the Mean Absolute Deviation (MAD):

$$\text{MAD}(h) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |y_i - h(\mathbf{x}_i)|$$