### Linear Modeling and Regression

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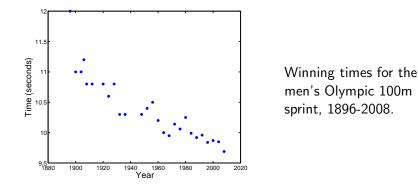
### Reference

The content and the slides are adapted from

S. Rogers and M. Girolami, A First Course in Machine Learning (FCML), 2nd edition, Chapman & Hall/CRC 2016, ISBN: 9781498738484

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### Some data and a problem

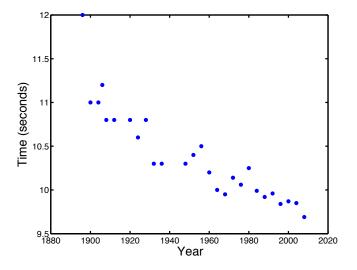


# In this lecture, we will use this data to predict the winning time in London 2012

Reading: Section 1.1 of FCML

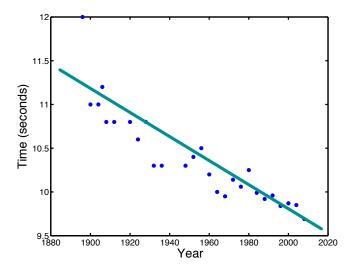
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Draw a line through it!



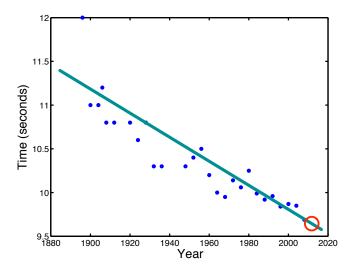
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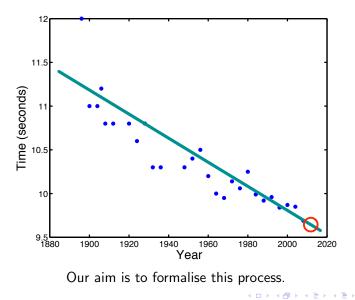
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#### Decided to draw a line through our data.

- Chose a straight line.
- Drew a good straight line.
- Extended the line to 2012.
- Read off the winning time for 2012.

- Decided we needed a model.
- Chose a linear model.
- Fitted a linear model.
- Evaluated the model at 2012.
- Used this as our prediction.

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Are they any good?

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### Attributes and targets

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#### Variables

Mathematically, each is described by a variable:

- Olympic year: x.
- Winning time: t.

#### Model

Our goal is to create a model.

This is a function that can relate x to t.

$$t = f(x)$$

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• Hence, we can work out *t* when x = 2012.

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#### Data

We're going to create the model from data:

- ▶ N attribute-response pairs,  $(x_n, t_n)$
- ▶ e.g. (1896, 12s), (1900, 11s), ..., (2008, 9.69s)

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$$x_1 = 1896, t_1 = 12$$
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Often called training data

t = f(x)



$$t = f(x) = w_0 + w_1 x$$

$$t = f(x) = w_0 + w_1 x = f(x; w_0, w_1)$$

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 $\blacktriangleright$   $w_0$  and  $w_1$  are *parameters* of the model.

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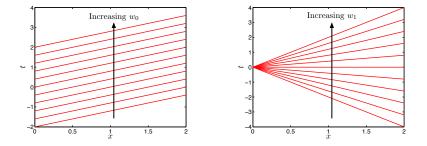
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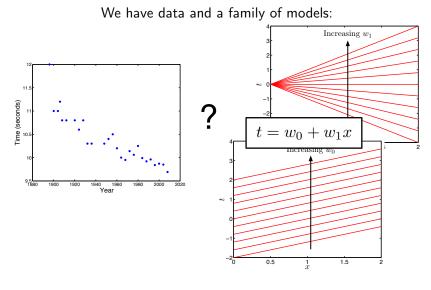
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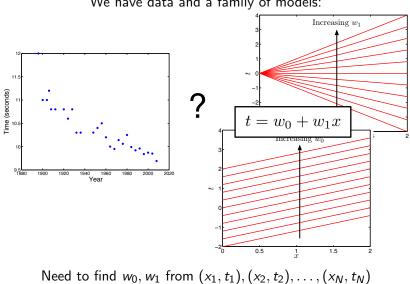
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### What next?



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### What next?



We have data and a family of models:

How good is a particular  $w_0, w_1$ ?

• How good is a particular line  $(w_0, w_1)$ ?

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How good is a particular  $w_0, w_1$ ?

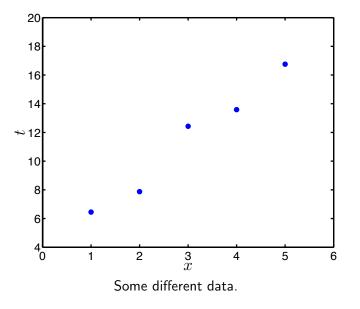
- How good is a particular line  $(w_0, w_1)$ ?
- We need to be able to provide a numerical value of goodness for any w<sub>0</sub>, w<sub>1</sub>.

- How good is  $w_0 = 5, w_1 = 0.1$ ?
- ▶ Is  $w_0 = 5$ ,  $w_1 = -0.1$  better or worse?

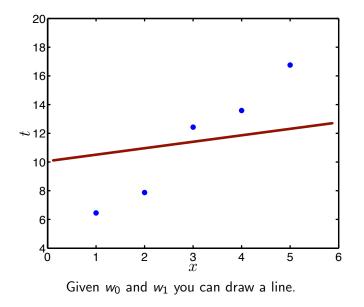
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  - How good is  $w_0 = 5, w_1 = 0.1$ ?
  - Is  $w_0 = 5$ ,  $w_1 = -0.1$  better or worse?
- Once we can answer these questions, we can search for the best w<sub>0</sub>, w<sub>1</sub> pair.

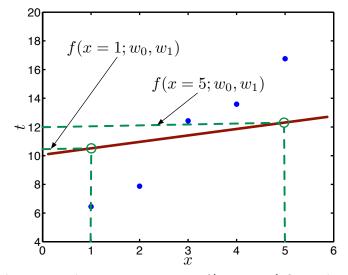
Loss



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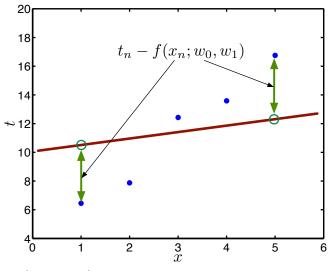


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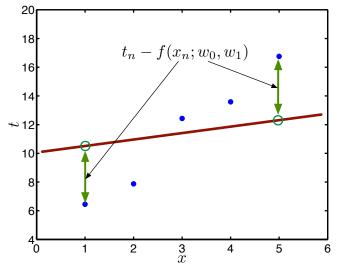


This means that we can compute  $f(x_n; w_0, w_1)$  for each  $x_n$ .

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 $f(x_n; w_0, w_1)$  can be compared with the truth,  $t_n$ .



 $f(x_n; w_0, w_1)$  can be compared with the truth,  $t_n$ .  $(t_n - f(x_n; w_0, w_1))^2$  tells us how *badly* we model  $(x_n, t_n)$ .

### Squared loss

#### The Squared loss of training point n is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_n = (t_n - f(x_n; w_0; w_1))^2$$

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It is the squared difference between the true response (winning time), t<sub>n</sub> when the input is x<sub>n</sub> and the response predicted by the model, f(x<sub>n</sub>; w<sub>0</sub>, w<sub>1</sub>) = w<sub>0</sub> + w<sub>1</sub>x<sub>n</sub>.

#### Squared loss

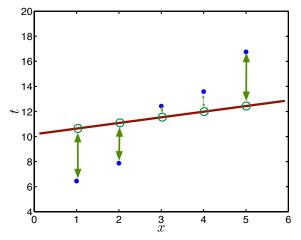
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- ▶ The lower  $\mathcal{L}_n$ , the closer the line at  $x_n$  passes to  $t_n$ .

### Total squared loss



Average the loss at each training point to give single figure for all data:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - f(x_n; w_0, w_1))^2$$

#### The average loss:

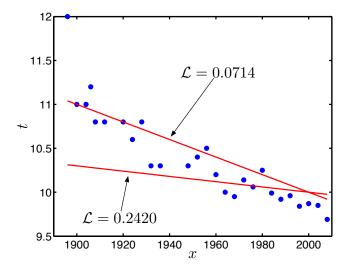
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 $\triangleright$   $\mathcal{L}$  tells us how good the model is as a function of  $w_0$  and  $w_1$ .

- Remember that lower is better!
- How good is  $w_0 = 5, w_1 = 0.1$ ?
- How good is  $w_0 = 6, w_1 = -0.2?$
- Which is better?

### Example



#### An optimisation problem

We've derived an expression for how good the model is for any w<sub>0</sub> and w<sub>1</sub>.

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - f(x_n; w_0, w_1))^2$$

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• Could use trial and error to find a good  $w_0, w_1$  combination.

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Could use trial and error to find a good w<sub>0</sub>, w<sub>1</sub> combination.
Can we get a mathematical expression?

$$\underset{w_{0},w_{1}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathcal{L} = \underset{w_{0},w_{1}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_{n} - f(x_{n}; w_{0}, w_{1}))^{2}$$

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Say we want to find

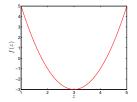
$$\underset{z}{\operatorname{argmin}} \ f(z), \ f(z) = 2z^2 - 12z + 15.$$

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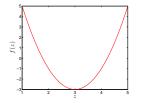
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At a minimum (or a maximum), the gradient must be zero.

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The gradient is given by the first derivative of the function:

$$\frac{df(z)}{dz} = 4z - 12$$

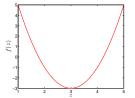
Setting to zero and solving for z

$$4z - 12 = 0, \ z = 12/4 = 3$$

- So, we know that the gradient is 0 at z = 3.
- How do we know if it is a minimum or a maximum?

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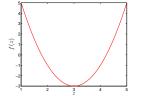


At a minimum, the gradient must be increasing.

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At a minimum, the gradient must be increasing.

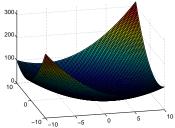
Taking the second derivative:

$$\frac{df(z)}{dz} = 4z - 12$$
$$\frac{d^2z}{dz^2} = 4$$

The gradient is always increasing. Therefore, we have found a minimum and it is the only minumum.

What about functions of more than one variable?

$$\underset{y,z}{\operatorname{argmin}} f(y,z), \ f(y,z) = y^2 + z^2 + y + z + yz$$



We now use *partial* derivatives,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ 

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When calculating the partial derivative with respect to y we assume everything else (including z) is a constant.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2y + 1 + z, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = 2z + 1 + y$$

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To find a potential minimum, set both to zero and solve for y and z:

$$y = -\frac{1}{3}$$
$$z = -\frac{1}{3}.$$

To make sure its a minimum, check second derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = 2, \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2} = 2.$$

Both are positive so we have a minimum.

### Back to our function

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - f(x_n; w_0, w_1))^2.$$

Now, recall that:

$$f(x_n; w_0, w_1) = w_0 + w_1 x$$

So:

$$\underset{w_{0},w_{1}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathcal{L} = \underset{w_{0},w_{1}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_{n} - w_{0} - w_{1}x_{n})^{2}$$

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So:

$$\mathop{\mathrm{argmin}}_{w_{0},w_{1}} \mathcal{L} = \mathop{\mathrm{argmin}}_{w_{0},w_{1}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_{n} - w_{0} - w_{1}x_{n})^{2}$$

We need to find  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_0}$  and  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_1},$  and use thoese to find the best values!

#### Differentiating the loss

Taking partial derivatives with respect to w<sub>0</sub> and w<sub>1</sub>:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - w_0 - w_1 x_n)^2$$
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_0} = -\frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - w_0 - w_1 x_n)$$
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_1} = -\frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n (t_n - w_0 - w_1 x_n)$$

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# Finding *w*<sub>0</sub>:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_0} = -\frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - w_0 - w_1 x_n)$$
$$0 = -\frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - w_0 - w_1 x_n)$$
$$\frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_0 = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} t_n - \frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_1 x_n$$

$$w_0 = \bar{t} - w_1 \bar{x}$$

Where

$$\bar{t} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} t_n, \ \bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n$$

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#### Finding *w*<sub>1</sub>:

 $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_1} = -\frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n (t_n - w_0 - w_1 x_n)$  $0 = -\frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n (t_n - w_0 - w_1 x_n)$  $w_1 \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n t_n - w_0 \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n$  $w_1 \overline{x^2} = \overline{xt} - w_0 \overline{x}$ 

Where

$$\overline{x^2} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n^2, \ \overline{xt} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n t_n$$

### Substituting:

Substituting our expression for  $w_0$  into that for  $w_1$ :

$$w_{0} = \overline{t} - w_{1}\overline{x}$$

$$w_{1}\overline{x^{2}} = \overline{xt} - w_{0}\overline{x}$$

$$w_{1}\overline{x^{2}} = \overline{xt} - \overline{x}(\overline{t} - w_{1}\overline{x})$$

$$w_{1} = \frac{\overline{xt} - \overline{x}\overline{t}}{\overline{x^{2}} - (\overline{x})^{2}}$$

So, to summarise:

$$w_1 = rac{\overline{xt} - \overline{xt}}{\overline{x^2} - (\overline{x})^2}, \quad w_0 = \overline{t} - w_1 \overline{x}$$

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Note that  $\overline{xt} \neq \overline{x}\overline{t}$  and  $\overline{x^2} \neq (\overline{x})^2$ .

### Gradient Descent: an alternative approach

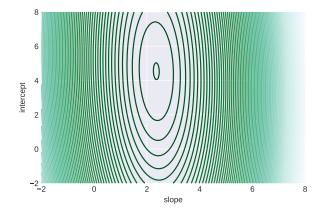
Repeatedly move in the direction of the gradient using step size  $\eta$ :

$$w_0 \leftarrow w_0 - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_0}$$
$$w_1 \leftarrow w_1 - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_1}$$

For *convex* functions, this is guaranteed to *converge* to the *global optimum*.

There are many *accelerated* variations to speed up convergence.

### searching for the best parameters



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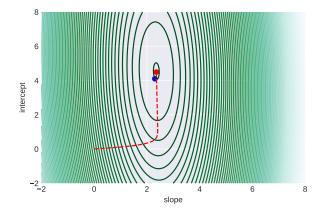
"climbing down" formally: gradient descent

- 1. define a "learning rate"  $\eta$
- 2. initialize the parameters  $w_0, w_1$  (slope and intercept)
- 3. compute the gradients (steepest direction)
- 4. update the parameters as

$$w_0 \leftarrow w_0 - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_0}$$
$$w_1 \leftarrow w_1 - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_1}$$

5. is the gradient close to zero? if no, go back to 3

### gradient descent example



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# Olympic data

n	x <sub>n</sub>	tn	x <sub>n</sub> t <sub>n</sub>	$x_n^2$
1	1896	12.00	22752.0	3.5948e+06
2	1900	11.00	20900.0	3.6100e+06
3	1904	11.00	20944.0	3.6252e+06
÷	:	÷	:	÷
26	2004	9.85	19739.4	4.0160e+06
27	2008	9.69	19457.5	4.0321e+06
$(1/N)\sum_{n=1}^{N}$	1952.37	10.39	20268.1	3.8130e+06
	$\overline{x}$	t	$\overline{xt}$	$\overline{x^2}$

## Olympic data

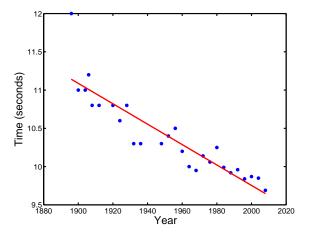
n	x <sub>n</sub>	tn	x <sub>n</sub> t <sub>n</sub>	$x_n^2$
1	1896	12.00	22752.0	3.5948e+06
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$(1/N)\sum_{n=1}^{N}$	1952.37	10.39	20268.1	3.8130e+06
	$\overline{X}$	t	$\overline{xt}$	$\overline{x^2}$

Substituting these values into our expressions gives:

$$w_1 = -0.0133, w_0 = 36.416$$

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### The model



t = 36.416 - 0.0133x

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### Our prediction

- We want to predict the winning time at London 2012.
- Substitute x = 2012 into our model.

$$t = 36.416 - 0.0133x$$
  

$$t_{2012} = 36.416 - 0.0133 \times 2012$$
  

$$t_{2012} = 9.5947 s$$

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Based on our modelling assumptions and the previous data, we predict a winning time of 9.5947 seconds.

### Assumptions

#### Our Assumptions

1. That there exists a relationship between Olympic year and winning time.

#### Are they any good?

1. Is the relationship really between Olympic year and time?

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## Assumptions

#### Our Assumptions

- 1. That there exists a relationship between Olympic year and winning time.
- 2. That this relationship is linear (i.e. a straight line).

#### Are they any good?

- 1. Is the relationship really between Olympic year and time?
- 2. Seems a bit simple? Does the line go through all of the points?

## Assumptions

#### Our Assumptions

- 1. That there exists a relationship between Olympic year and winning time.
- 2. That this relationship is linear (i.e. a straight line).
- 3. This this relationship will continue into the future.

#### Are they any good?

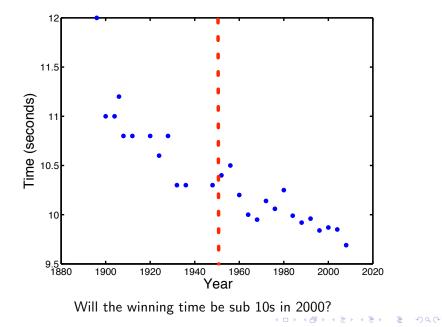
- 1. Is the relationship really between Olympic year and time?
- 2. Seems a bit simple? Does the line go through all of the points?
- 3. Forever? Negative winning times?

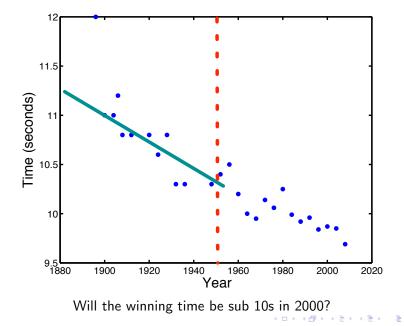
## Some things to think about

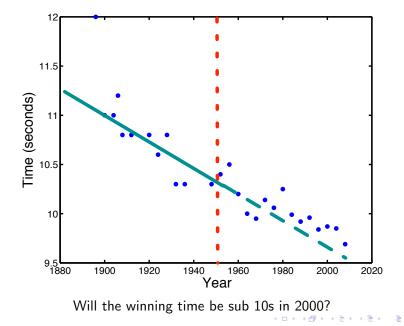
- Is this a good prediction?
- Would you go to the bookmakers and place a bet on the winning time being exactly 9.547 s?
- If we had done this before 2008 would we have been correct?

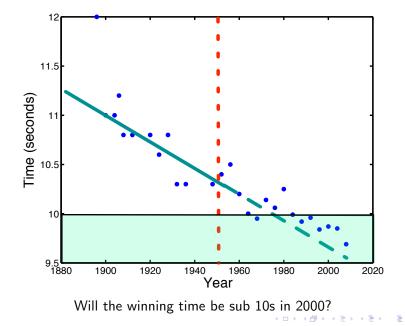
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Are we asking the correct question? Being too precise?









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## Regression in statistics and machine learning

- regression models are among the most widely used tools in statistics
- but regression is also an important problem in machine learning
- difference in emphasis:
  - in statistics, the purpose is often *explanation*: "how does x affect t?" "is x important for t?"

in machine learning, the purpose is typically prediction: "what's the most likely t, given x?"

## Multivariate Data

- Olympic winning time may depend also on weather, track conditions etc.
- Each data point is thus represented by a vector of dimension D of features or attributes, x.
- Our problem thus is to find a function  $t = f(\mathbf{x})$ .
- Multi-linear function:

$$t = f(x, w_0, w_1, \cdots, w_D) := w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \cdots + w_D x_D$$

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#### Squared loss

The squared loss of training point n is:

$$\mathcal{L}_n = (t_n - f(\mathbf{x}_n; w_0; w_1 \cdots, w_D))^2$$

The averaged squared loss is:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - f(\mathbf{x}_n; w_0, w_1, \cdots, w_D))^2$$

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#### Squared loss

The averaged squared loss is:

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$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_n)^2.$$

Note that: (we append 1 to the beginning of  $\mathbf{x}_n$ )

$$\mathbf{x}_n \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathbf{x}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore

$$\mathcal{L} = rac{1}{N} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w})^{^{\mathsf{T}}} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w})$$

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Put data and parameters into vectors/matrix.

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- Write the model in vector form.
- ▶ Write the loss in vector/matrix form.

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#### Why?

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#### Why?

$$\mathbf{w} = \left[ \begin{array}{c} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_D \end{array} \right],$$

- Put data and parameters into vectors/matrix.
- Write the model in vector form.
- Write the loss in vector/matrix form.

#### Why?

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_D \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x_{n,1} \\ x_{n,2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n,D} \end{bmatrix},$$

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$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})$$

#### Different models, same loss

We have a single loss that corresponds to many different models, with different w and X

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}).$$

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We can get an expression for the w that minimises L, that will work for any of these models.

## Minimising the loss

When minimising the scalar loss

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - w_0 - w_1 x_n)^2,$$

we took partial derivatives with respect to each parameter and set to zero.

### Minimising the loss

When minimising the scalar loss

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - w_0 - w_1 x_n)^2,$$

- we took partial derivatives with respect to each parameter and set to zero.
- We now have a vector/matrix loss

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w})^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}),$$

and will take partial derivatives with respect to the vector w and set to zero:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{0}$$

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## Partial diff. wrt vector

The result of taking the partial derivative with respect to a vector is a vector where each element is the partial derivative with respect to one parameter:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_0} \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_p} \end{bmatrix}$$

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Useful identites:

$$f(w)$$
 $\frac{\partial f}{\partial w}$  $w^{\mathsf{T}}x$  $x$  $x^{\mathsf{T}}w$  $x$  $w^{\mathsf{T}}w$  $2w$  $w^{\mathsf{T}}\mathsf{C}w$  $2\mathsf{C}w$ 

## Computing $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \left( \frac{1}{N} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w})^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) \right) = \frac{1}{N} (2 \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2 \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{t})$$

# Matrix transpose $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} \\ x_{31} & x_{32} \end{bmatrix}, \ \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{21} & x_{31} \\ x_{12} & x_{22} & x_{32} \end{bmatrix}$

Transpose of sum/product

$$(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b})^\mathsf{T} = \mathbf{a}^\mathsf{T} + \mathbf{b}^\mathsf{T}, \ (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w})^\mathsf{T} = \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T}$$

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## Computing $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \left( \frac{1}{N} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w})^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) \right) = \frac{1}{N} (2\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{t}) = \mathbf{0}$$
$$\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{t}$$

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$$\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{t}$$





$$\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{t}$$

Matrix inverse

Inverse is defined (for a square matrix A) as the matrix  $A^{-1}$  that satisfies:

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}$$

Where I is the *identity* matrix,

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } \mathbf{IA} = \mathbf{A}, \text{ for any } \mathbf{A}$$



$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} &=& \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{t} \\ (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} &=& (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{t} \end{array}$$

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An alternative optimization: Gradient Descent

Repeatedly move in the direction of the gradient for w using *step* size  $\eta$ :

$$\mathsf{w} \leftarrow \mathsf{w} - \eta rac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathsf{w}}$$

For *convex* functions, this is guaranteed to *converge* to the *global optimum*.

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There are many *accelerated* variations to speed up convergence.

Linear model - Olympic data

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \end{bmatrix}, \ \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1896 \\ 1 & 1900 \\ \vdots \\ 1 & 2008 \end{bmatrix}, \ \mathbf{t} = \begin{bmatrix} 12.00 \\ 11.00 \\ \vdots \\ 9.85 \end{bmatrix}$$

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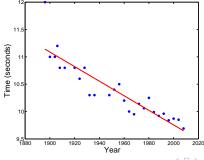
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$$\widehat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{t} = \begin{bmatrix} 36.416 \\ -0.0133 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Linear model - Olympic data

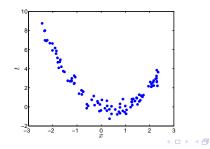
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Quadratic model - synthetic data

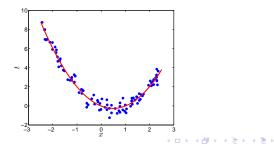
$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix}, \ \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_N & x_N^2 \end{bmatrix}$$



## Quadratic model - synthetic data

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix}, \ \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_N & x_N^2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\widehat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{t} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.0149 \\ -0.9987 \\ 1.0098 \end{bmatrix}$$

 $t_n = -0.0149 - 0.9987x_n + 1.0098x_n^2$ 



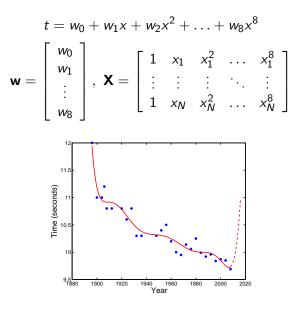
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## 8th order model - Olympic data

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_8 \end{bmatrix}, \ \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \dots & x_1^8 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_N & x_N^2 & \dots & x_N^8 \end{bmatrix}$$

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#### 8th order model - Olympic data



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### More general models

So far, we've only considered functions of the form

$$t = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + \ldots + w_D x^D$$

ln fact, each term can be any function of x (or even  $\mathbf{x}$ )

$$t = w_0 h_0(x) + w_1 h_1(x) + \ldots + w_D h_D(x)$$

► For example,

$$t = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 \sin(x) + w_3 x^{-1} + \dots$$

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In General:

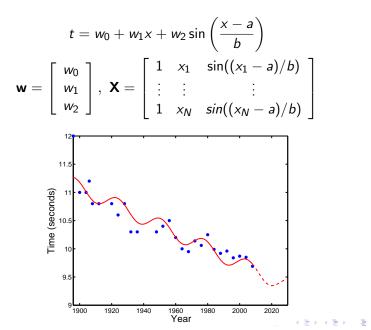
$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} h_0(x_1) & h_1(x_1) & \dots & h_D(x_1) \\ h_0(x_2) & h_1(x_2) & \dots & h_D(x_2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ h_0(x_N) & h_1(x_N) & \dots & h_D(x_N) \end{bmatrix}$$

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## Example – Olympic data

$$t = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 \sin\left(\frac{x-a}{b}\right)$$
$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix}, \ \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & \sin((x_1-a)/b) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_N & \sin((x_N-a)/b) \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Example – Olympic data



# Summary

- Formulated our loss in terms of vectors and matrices.
- Differentiated it with respect to the parameter vector.
- $\blacktriangleright$  Used this to find a general expression for  $\widehat{\mathbf{w}}$  the parameters that minimise the loss.
- Shown examples of models with differing numbers of terms.
- Not restricted to  $x^D$  can have any function of x (or even **x**).

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Shown example of model including a sin term.

# Making predictions

$$\widehat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{t}$$

Where **X** depends on the choice of model:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} h_0(x_1) & h_1(x_1) & \dots & h_D(x_1) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ h_0(x_N) & h_1(x_N) & \dots & h_D(x_N) \end{bmatrix}$$

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## Making predictions

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To predict t at a new value of x, we first create  $\mathbf{x}_{new}$ :

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}} = \left[ \begin{array}{c} h_0(x_{\text{new}}) \\ \vdots \\ h_D(x_{\text{new}}) \end{array} \right],$$

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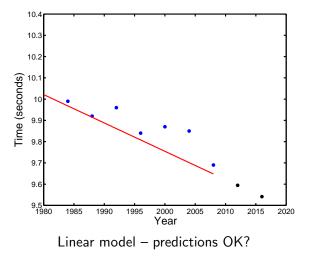
$$\mathbf{x}_{new} = \left[ egin{array}{c} h_0(x_{new}) \ dots \ h_D(x_{new}) \end{array} 
ight],$$

and then compute

$$t_{new} = \widehat{\mathbf{w}}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{new}$$

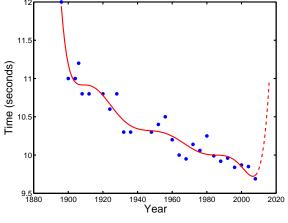
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# Example - Olympic data



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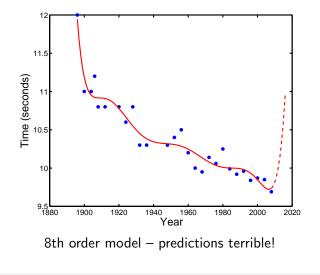
# Example - Olympic data



8th order model - predictions terrible!

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## Example - Olympic data



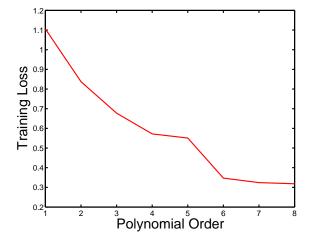
Choice of model is very important.

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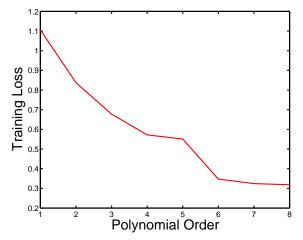


## How does loss change?



Loss, L, on the Olympic 100m data as additional terms  $(x^D)$  are added to the model.

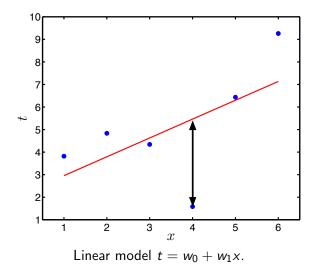
## How does loss change?



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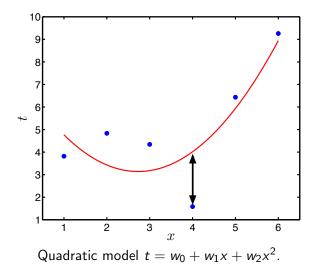
Loss **always** decreases as the model is made more complex (i.e. higher order terms are added)

Data comes from t = x with some *noise* added:



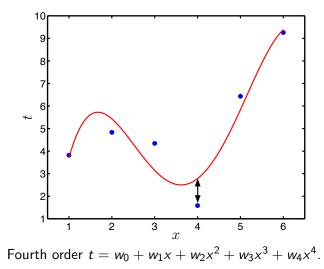
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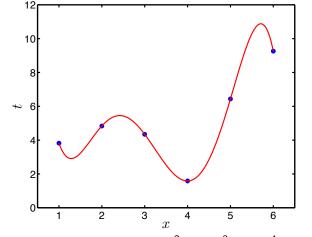
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Data comes from t = x with some *noise* added:



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Data comes from t = x with some *noise* added:



Fifth order  $t = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + w_3 x^3 + w_4 x^4 + w_5 x^5$ .

# Generalisation and over-fitting

There is a trade-off between generalisation (predictive ability) and over-fitting (decreasing the loss).

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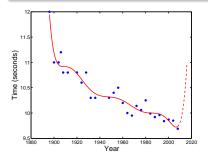
Fitting a model perfectly to the training data is likely to lead to poor predictions because there will almost always be *noise* present.

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# Generalisation and over-fitting

There is a trade-off between generalisation (predictive ability) and over-fitting (decreasing the loss).

Fitting a model perfectly to the training data is likely to lead to poor predictions because there will almost always be *noise* present.



#### Noise

Not necessarily 'noise', just things we can't, or don't need to model.

Lowest loss, L?

Loss always decreases as model gets more complex.

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#### Lowest loss, L?

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Predictions don't necessarily get better.

#### Lowest loss, L?

Loss always decreases as model gets more complex.

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- Predictions don't necessarily get better.
- Best predictions?

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- Loss always decreases as model gets more complex.
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  - Can't use future predictions because we don't know the answer!

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#### Lowest loss, L?

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  - Can't use future predictions because we don't know the answer!

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Other data?

▶ We have *N* input-response pairs for training:

 $(x_1, t_1), (x_2, t_2), \ldots, (x_N, t_N).$ 

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• We could use N - M pairs to find  $\widehat{\mathbf{w}}$  for several models.

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- We could use N M pairs to find  $\widehat{\mathbf{w}}$  for several models.
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  - The N M pairs constitute *training data*.
  - The *M* pairs are known as validation data.

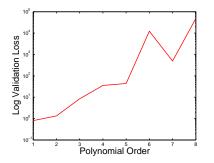
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- Choose the model that makes best predictions on remaining *M* pairs.
  - The N M pairs constitute *training data*.
  - The *M* pairs are known as validation data.
- Example use Olympics pre 1980 to train and post 1980 to validate.

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# Validation example



Predictions evaluated using validation loss:

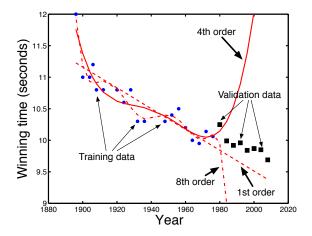
$$\mathcal{L}_{v} = rac{1}{M}\sum_{m=1}^{M}(t_{m} - \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_{m})^{2}$$

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#### Best model?

Results suggest that a first order (linear) model  $(t = w_0 + w_1x)$  is best.

# Validation example



#### Best model

First order (linear) model generalises best.

How should we choose which data to hold back?

#### In some applications it will be clear.

 Olympic data – validating on the most recent data seems sensible.

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In many cases – pick it randomly.

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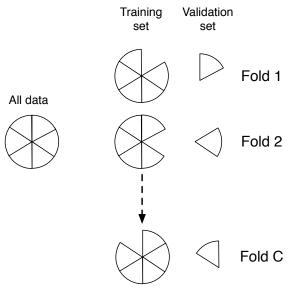
- In many cases pick it randomly.
- Do it more than once average the results.

How should we choose which data to hold back?

- In some applications it will be clear.
  - Olympic data validating on the most recent data seems sensible.
- In many cases pick it randomly.
- Do it more than once average the results.
- Do cross-validation.
  - Split the data into C equal sets. Train on C − 1, test on remaining.

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## **Cross-validation**



Average performance over the C 'folds'.

### Leave-one-out Cross-validation

- Cross-validation can be repeated to make results more accurate.
- e.g. Doing 10-fold CV 10 times gives us 100 performance values to average over.

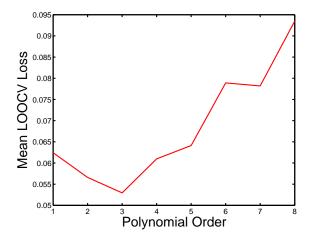
## Leave-one-out Cross-validation

- Cross-validation can be repeated to make results more accurate.
- e.g. Doing 10-fold CV 10 times gives us 100 performance values to average over.
- Extreme example is when C = N so each fold includes one input-response pair.

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- Leave-one-out (LOO) CV.
- Example....

# LOOCV – Olympic data



#### Best model?

LOO CV suggests a 3rd order model. Previous method suggests 1st order. Who knows which is right!

## LOOCV – synthetic data (we know the answer!)

Generate some data from a 3rd order model

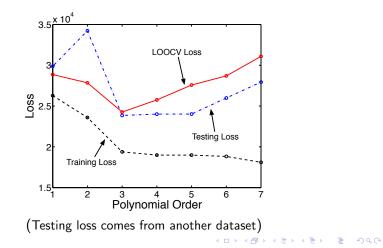
$$t = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + w_3 x^3.$$

# LOOCV – synthetic data (we know the answer!)

Generate some data from a 3rd order model

$$t = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + w_3 x^3.$$

Use LOOCV to compare models from first to 7th order:



 CV and LOOCV let us choose from a set of models based on predictive performance.

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► This comes at a computational cost:

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- This comes at a computational cost:
  - ▶ For *C*-fold CV, need to train our model *C* times.
  - ► For LOO-CV, need to train our model *N* times.

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  - ▶ For *C*-fold CV, need to train our model *C* times.
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- For t = w<sup>T</sup>x, this is feasible if D (number of terms in function) isn't too big:

$$t = \sum_{d=0}^{D} w_d h_d(x)$$
$$\widehat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{t}$$

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For some models we will need to use  $C \ll N$ .

# Summary

- Showed how we can make predictions with our 'linear' model.
- Saw how choice of model has big influence in quality of predictions.
- Saw how the loss on the training data, *L*, cannot be used to choose models.
  - Making model more complex always decreases the loss.
- Introduced the idea of using some data for validation.
- Introduced cross validation and leave-one-out cross validation.

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