# Lecture 3. Linear Regression 

## COMP90051 Statistical Machine Learning

Semester 2, 2017<br>Lecturer: Andrey Kan



## Weeks 2 to 8 inclusive

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* Office hour: after Thursday's lecture
- Past: software engineer
* Optimising compilers

- Present: postdoc
* Medical image analysis
* Computational biology

DISCOVERIES FOR HUMANITY

- Future: applied scientist
* Machine Learning
* Going to Seattle at the end of September!
amazon


## This lecture

- Linear regression
* Worked example and the model
* Regression as a probabilistic model
- Regularisation
* Irrelevant features and an ill-posed problem
* Regulariser as a prior


# Linear Regression Model 

A simple model that tends to require
less data and be easier to interpret.
It offers mathematical convenience at the expense of flexibility.

## Example: Predict humidity from temperature

| Temperature | Humidity |
| :---: | :---: |
| TraInING DATA |  |
| 85 | 85 |
| 80 | 90 |
| 83 | 86 |
| 70 | 96 |
| 68 | 80 |
| 65 | 70 |
| 64 | 65 |
| 72 | 95 |
| 69 | 70 |
| 75 | 80 |
| 73 |  |
| TEST DATA |  |
| 75 | 70 |



In regression, the task is to predict numeric response (aka dependent variable) from features (aka predictors or independent variables)
Assume a linear relation: $H=a+b T$
( $H$ - humidity; $T$ - temperature; $a, b$ - parameters)

## Example: Problem statement

- The model is

$$
H=a+b T
$$

- Fitting the model = finding "best" $a, b$ values for data at hand
- Popular criterion: minimise the sum of squared errors (aka residual sum of squares)



## Example: Finding parameter values

To find $a, b$ that minimise $L=\sum_{i=1}^{10}\left(H_{i}-\left(a+b T_{i}\right)\right)^{2}$ set derivatives to zero:

$$
\frac{\partial L}{\partial a}=-2 \sum_{i=1}^{10}\left(H_{i}-a-b T_{i}\right)=0
$$

if we know $b$, then $\hat{a}=\frac{1}{10} \sum_{i=1}^{10}\left(H_{i}-b T_{i}\right)$

Basic calculus:

- Write derivative
- Set to zero
- Solve for model

$$
\frac{\partial L}{\partial b}=-2 \sum_{i=1}^{10} T_{i}\left(H_{i}-a-b T_{i}\right)=0
$$

if we know $a$, then $\hat{b}=\frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{10} T_{i}^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{10} T_{i}\left(H_{i}-a\right)$
Coordinate descent: guess $a$, solve for $b$; solve for $a$; repeat gives linear regression $a=25.3, b=0.77$ (requires many iterations!)

## Example: Analytic solution

- Can we do better? We have two equations and two unknowns $a, b$
- Rewrite as a system of linear equations

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
10 & \sum_{i=1}^{10} T_{i} \\
\sum_{i=1}^{10} T_{i} & \sum_{i=1}^{10} T_{i}^{2}
\end{array}\right)\binom{a}{b}=\binom{\sum_{i=1}^{10} H_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{10} T_{i} H_{i}}
$$

- Analytic solution: $a=25.3, b=0.77$
- (Can solve using numpy. linalg. solve or equivalent)


## Linear regression model

- Assume a linear relationship between response $y \in \mathbb{R}$ and an instance with features $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m} \in \mathbb{R}$

$$
y \approx w_{0}+\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{i} w_{i}
$$

Here $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{m} \in \mathbb{R}$ denote weights (model parameters)

- Trick: add a dummy feature $x_{0}=1$ and use vector notation

$$
y \approx \sum_{i=0}^{m} x_{i} w_{i}=x^{\prime} \boldsymbol{w}
$$

## Checkpoint

- Consider a dataset $\left\{\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{1}, y_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}, y_{n}\right)\right\}$ and some parameter vector $\boldsymbol{w}$ (same dimensionality as $\boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ ). Which of the following statements is necessarily true

Each $y_{i}$ can be expressed as $\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}\right)^{\prime} \boldsymbol{w}$
Given $\boldsymbol{w}$, it is always possible to compute the sum of squared errors for this dataset

Linear regression model for this data has $n$ parameters

## Data is noisy!

Example: predict mark for Statistical Machine Learning (SML) from mark for Knowledge Technologies (KT)


* synthetic data :)


## Regression as a probabilistic model



- Assume a probabilistic model: $\mathcal{Y}=\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{w}+\varepsilon$
* Here $\mathcal{Y}$ and $\varepsilon$ are random variables
* Variable $\varepsilon$ encodes noise
- Next, assume normally distributed noise: $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \sigma^{2}\right)$
- Recall that $\mathcal{N}\left(x \mid \mu, \sigma^{2}\right) \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi \sigma^{2}}} \exp \left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2}}\right)$
- Therefore

$$
p\left(y \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{w}, \sigma^{2}\right)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi \sigma^{2}}} \exp \left(-\frac{\left(y-\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{w}\right)^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2}}\right)
$$

## Parametric probabilistic model



- Using simplified notation, our model is

$$
p(y \mid \boldsymbol{x})=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi \sigma^{2}}} \exp \left(-\frac{\left(y-\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{w}\right)^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2}}\right)
$$

- Note that parameters are now $\boldsymbol{w}, \sigma^{2}$
- Given observed data $\left\{\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{1}, y_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}, y_{n}\right)\right\}$, we want to find parameter values that "best" explain the data
- Maximum likelihood estimation: choose parameter values that maximise the probability of observed data


## Maximum likelihood estimation

- Assuming independence of data points, the probability of data is

$$
p\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right)=\prod_{i=1}^{n} p\left(y_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{i}}\right)
$$

- Recall that $p\left(y_{i} \mid x_{i}\right)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi \sigma^{2}}} \exp \left(-\frac{\left(y_{i}-\left(x_{i}\right)^{\prime} \boldsymbol{w}\right)^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2}}\right)$
- "Log trick": Instead of maximising this quantity, maximise the logarithm

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p\left(y_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{i}}\right)=-\frac{1}{2 \sigma^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(y_{i}-\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}\right)^{\prime} \boldsymbol{w}\right)^{2}+K+\begin{gathered}
\text { the sum of } \\
\text { squared } \\
\text { errors! }
\end{gathered}
$$

- Under this model, maximising log-likelihood as a function of $\boldsymbol{w}$ is equivalent to minimising the sum of squared errors


## Method of least squares

- Training data: $\left\{\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{1}, y_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}, y_{n}\right)\right\}$. Note bold face in $\boldsymbol{x}_{i}$
- For convenience, place instances in rows (so attributes go in columns), representing training data as an $n \times(m+1)$ matrix $\boldsymbol{X}$, and $n \times 1$ vector $\boldsymbol{y}$
- The model assumes $\boldsymbol{y} \approx \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{w}$
- To find $\boldsymbol{w}$, minimise the sum of squared errors

$$
L=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(y_{i}-\sum_{j=0}^{m} X_{i j} w_{j}\right)^{2}
$$

## Basic calculus:

- Write derivative
- Set to zero
- Solve for model
- Setting derivative to zero and solving for $\boldsymbol{w}$ yields

$$
\widehat{\boldsymbol{w}}=\left(\boldsymbol{X}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{y}
$$

* This is a system of equations called the normal equations
* This system is defined only if the inverse exists


## Heads up!

- This subject covers a large variety of computational methods
- But there will be several recurring topics, common threads run throughout the entire course
- These topics reflect fundamental aspects of machine learning
- Basis expansion, representation
- Optimisation, loss functions
- Regularisation, overfitting



## Regularisation

## Process of introducing additional information in order to solve an ill-posed problem or to prevent overfitting (Wikipedia)

## Regularisation

- Major technique, common in Machine Learning
- Addresses one or more of the following related problems
* Avoid ill-conditioning
* Introduce prior knowledge
* Constrain modelling
- This is achieved by augmenting the objective function
- In this lecture: we cover the first two aspects. We will cover more of regularisation throughout the subject


## Example 1: Irrelevant features

- Linear model on three features, first two same
* $\boldsymbol{X}$ is matrix a for $n=4$ instances (rows)
* First two columns of $\boldsymbol{X}$ identical
* Feature 2 is irrelevant (or feature 1)

| 3 | 3 | 7 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 6 | 6 | 9 |
| 21 | 21 | 79 |
| 34 | 34 | 2 |



- Effect of perturbations on model predictions?
* Add $\Delta$ to $w_{1}$
* Subtract $\Delta$ from $w_{2}$
...identical predictions
...no interpretability


## Problems with irrelevant features

- In our example, suppose $\left[\widehat{w}_{0}, \widehat{w}_{1}, \widehat{w}_{2}, \widehat{w}_{3}\right]$ is the "best solution"
- But for arbitrary $\delta$ solution $\left[\widehat{w}_{0}, \widehat{w}_{1}+\delta, \widehat{w}_{2}-\delta, \widehat{w}_{3}\right]^{\prime}$ will lead to the same predictions and to the same sum of squared errors
- The solution is not unique
- One problem is lack of interpretability
- A more serious problem is that the finding the best parameters becomes an ill-posed problem


## Irrelevant (co-linear) features in general

- X-treme case: features complete clones
- For linear models, more generally
* Feature $\boldsymbol{X}_{. j}$ is irrelevant if
* $\boldsymbol{X}_{\cdot j}$ is a linear combination of other columns

$$
\boldsymbol{X}_{\cdot j}=\sum_{l \neq j} \alpha_{l} \boldsymbol{X}_{\cdot l}
$$

... for some constants $\alpha_{l}$

- Even near-irrelevance can be problematic
- Not just a pathological x-treme; easy to happen!


## Example 2: Lack of data

- Model is more complex than data
- Extreme example:
* Model has two parameters (slope and intercept)
* Only one data point
- Underdetermined system



## III-posed problems

- In both examples, finding the best parameters becomes an ill-posed problem
- This means that the problem solution is not defined
* In our case $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ cannot be uniquely identified
- Remember the normal equations solution $\widehat{\boldsymbol{w}}=\left(\boldsymbol{X}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{y}$
- With irrelevant features, $\boldsymbol{X}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}$ has no inverse
- The system of linear equations has more unknowns than equations
convex, but not strictly convex


## Side note: L1 and L2 norms

- Throughout the course we will often encounter norms that are functions $\mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of a particular form
* Intuitively, norms measure lengths of vectors in some sense
- More specifically, we will often use the L2 norm (aka Euclidean distance)

$$
\|\boldsymbol{a}\|=\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{2} \equiv \sqrt{a_{1}^{2}+\cdots+a_{n}^{2}}
$$

- And also the L1 norm ( $a k a$ absolute norm or Manhattan distance)

$$
\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1} \equiv\left|a_{1}\right|+\cdots+\left|a_{n}\right|
$$

- For example, the sum of squared errors is a squared norm

$$
L=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(y_{i}-\sum_{j=0}^{m} X_{i j} w_{j}\right)^{2}=\|\boldsymbol{y}-\boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{w}\|^{2}
$$

## Re-conditioning the problem

- Regularisation: introduce an additional condition into the system
- The original problem is to minimise $\|\boldsymbol{y}-\boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{w}\|_{2}^{2}$
- The regularised problem is to minimise

$$
\|\boldsymbol{y}-\boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{w}\|_{2}^{2}+\lambda\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_{2}^{2} \text { for } \lambda>0
$$

- The solution is now

$$
\widehat{\boldsymbol{w}}=\left(\boldsymbol{X}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{X}+\lambda I\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{y}
$$

- This formation is called ridge regression

strictly convex
* Turns the ridge into a peak


## Regulariser as a prior

- Without regularisation model parameters are found based entirely on the information contained in the training set $\boldsymbol{X}$
- Regularisation essentially means introducing additional information
- Recall our probabilistic model $\mathcal{Y}=\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{w}+\varepsilon$
* Here $\mathcal{Y}$ and $\varepsilon$ are random variables, where $\varepsilon$ denotes noise
- Now suppose that $\boldsymbol{w}$ is also a random variable (denoted as $\mathcal{W}$ ) with a normal prior distribution

$$
\mathcal{W} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \lambda^{2}\right)
$$

## Regulariser as a prior

- Now suppose that $\boldsymbol{w}$ is also a random variable (denoted as $\mathcal{W}$ ) with a normal prior distribution

$$
\mathcal{W} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \lambda^{2}\right)
$$

- Prior = our initial expectations before seeing data
- In the above prior, we expect small weights and that no one feature dominates
* Is this always appropriate? Consider data centring and scaling
- We could encode much more elaborate problem knowledge


## Computing posterior using Bayes rule

- The prior is then used to compute the posterior

- Instead of maximum likelihood (MLE), take maximum a posteriori estimate (MAP)
- Apply log trick, so that $\log ($ posterior $)=\log ($ likelihood $)+\log ($ prior $)-\log ($ marg $)$
- Arrive at the problem of minimising

$$
\|\boldsymbol{y}-\boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{w}\|_{2}^{2}+\lambda\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_{2}^{2}
$$

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