

CS 273A: Machine Learning

Fall 2021

Lecture 5: Linear Regression (cont.)

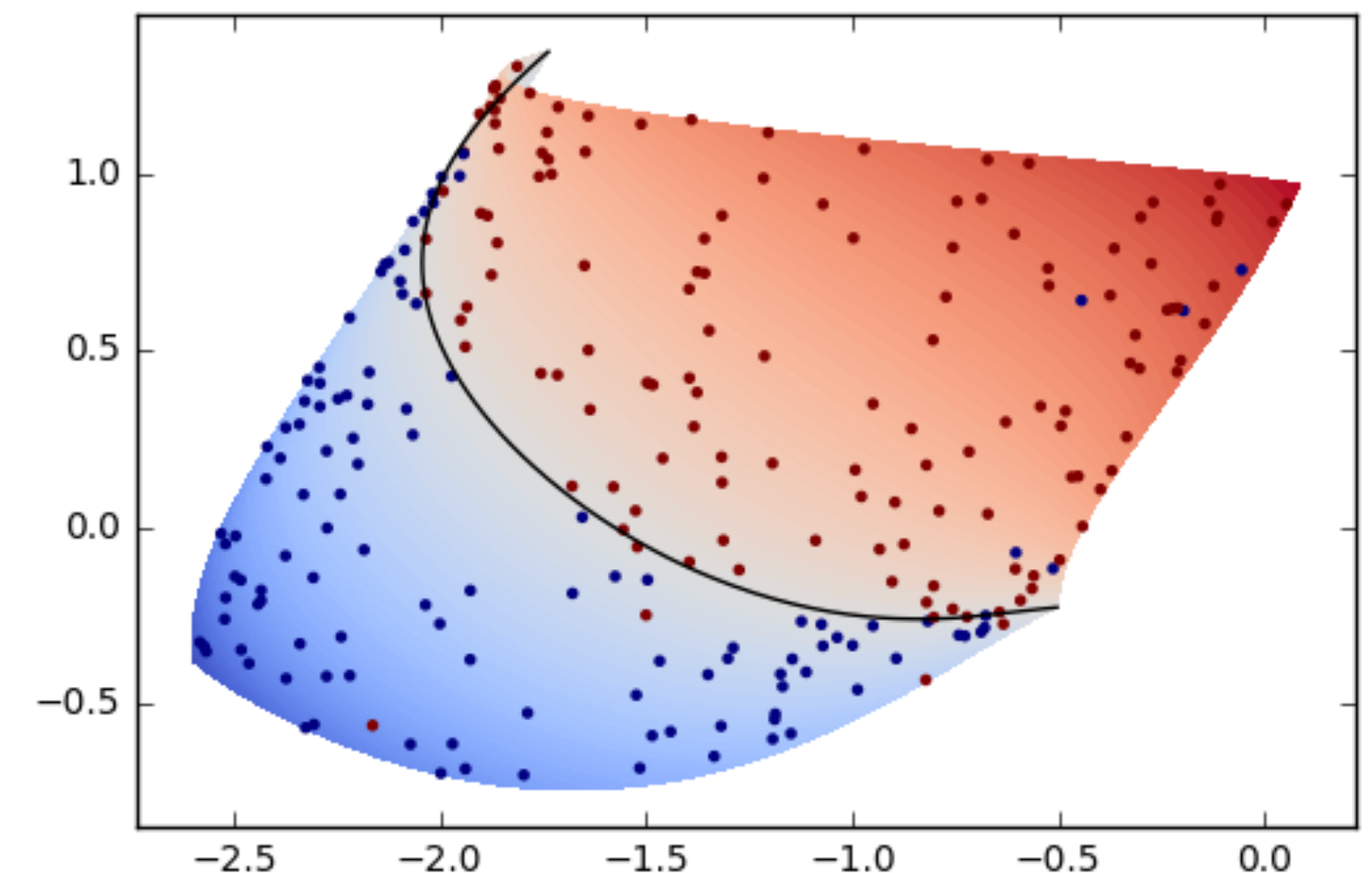
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All slides in this course adapted from Alex Ihler & Sameer Singh



Logistics

assignments

- Assignment 1 due **today**
- Assignment 2 to be published soon

Today's lecture

ROC curves

Linear regression

Least squares

Gradient descent

Bayes-optimal decision

- Maximum posterior decision: $\hat{p}(y = 0 | x) \lesseqgtr \hat{p}(y = 1 | x)$
 - Optimal for the **error-rate (0–1) loss**: $\mathbb{E}_{x,y \sim p}[\hat{y}(x) \neq y]$
- What if we have different cost for different errors? $\alpha_{\text{FP}}, \alpha_{\text{FN}}$
 - $\mathcal{L} = \mathbb{E}_{x,y \sim p}[\alpha_{\text{FP}} \cdot \#(y = 0, \hat{y}(x) = 1) + \alpha_{\text{FN}} \cdot \#(y = 1, \hat{y}(x) = 0)]$
- **Bayes-optimal decision**: $\alpha_{\text{FP}} \cdot \hat{p}(y = 0 | x) \lesseqgtr \alpha_{\text{FN}} \cdot \hat{p}(y = 1 | x)$
 - **Log probability ratio**: $\log \frac{\hat{p}(y = 1 | x)}{\hat{p}(y = 0 | x)} \lesseqgtr \log \frac{\alpha_{\text{FP}}}{\alpha_{\text{FN}}} = \alpha$

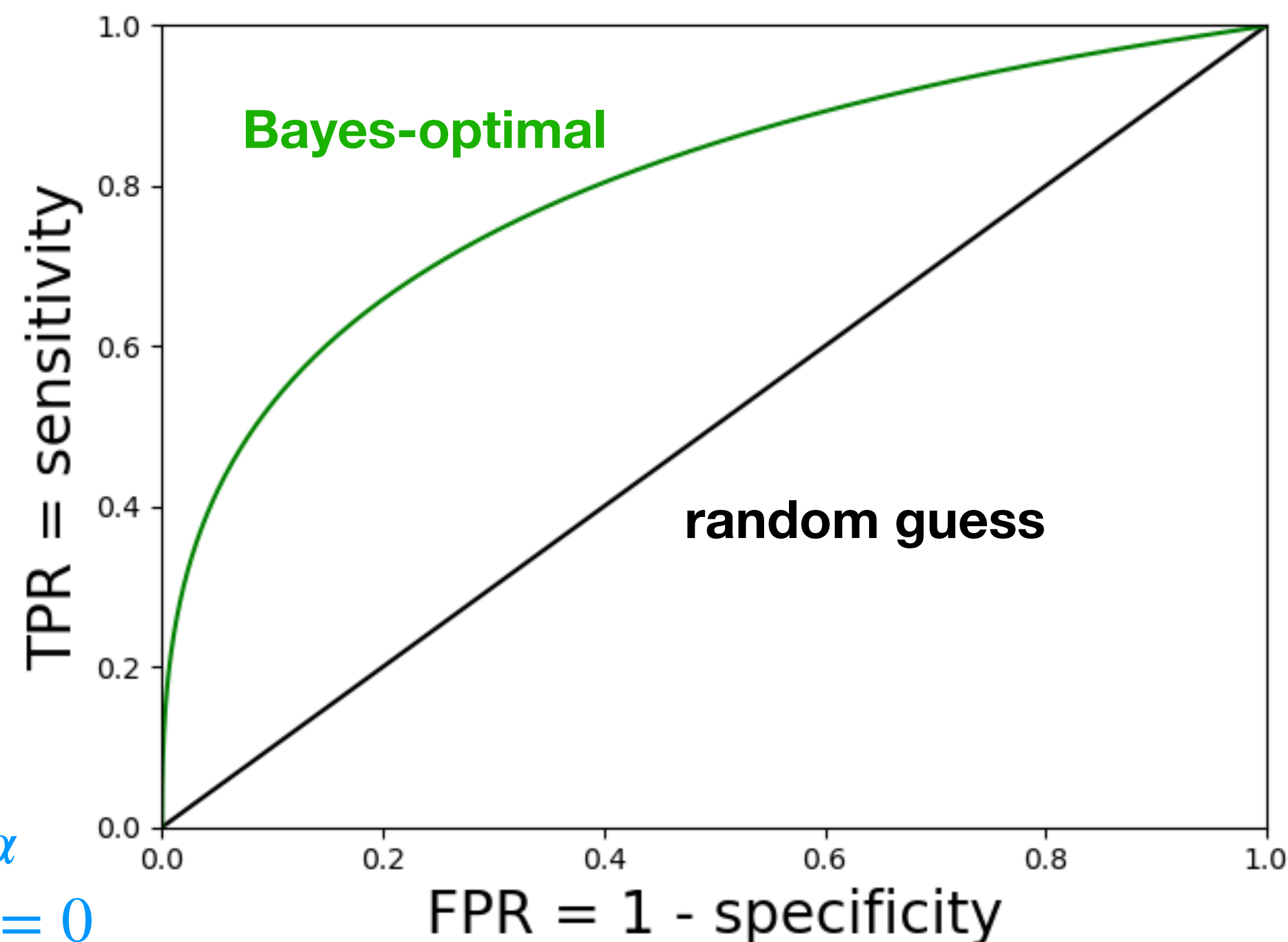
ROC curve

- Often models have a “knob” for tuning preference over classes (e.g. α)
 - Changing the decision boundary to include more instances in preferred class
- Characteristic performance curve:

$$\log \frac{\hat{p}(y = 1 | x)}{\hat{p}(y = 0 | x)} \gtrless \alpha$$

large α
always $\hat{y} = 0$

small α
always $\hat{y} = 1$



Demonstration

- <http://www.navan.name/roc>

Comparing classifiers

- Which classifier (**A** or **B**) performs “better”?

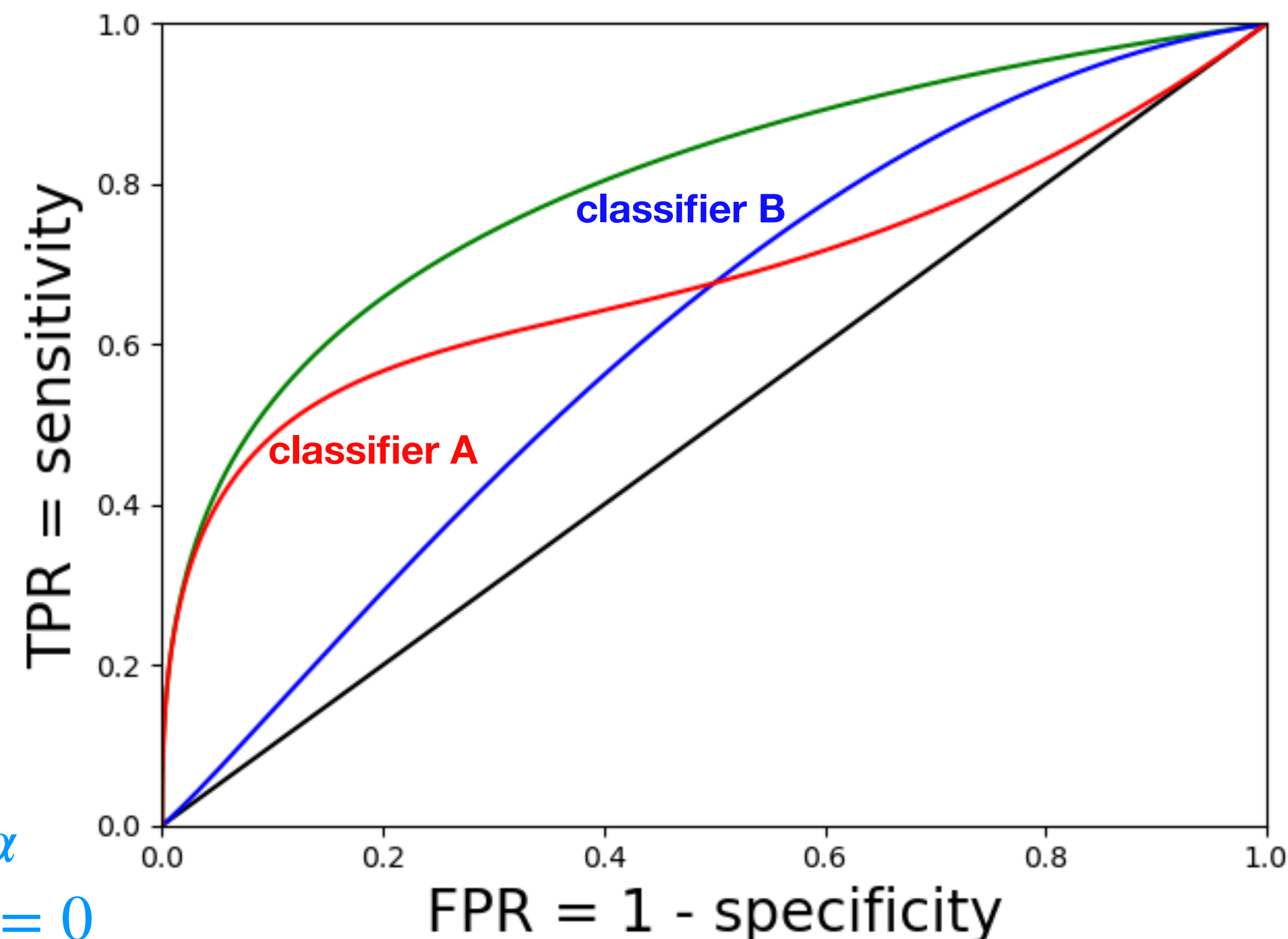
- ▶ **A** is better for high specificity
- ▶ **B** is better for high sensitivity
- ▶ Need single performance measure

- **Area Under Curve (AUC)**

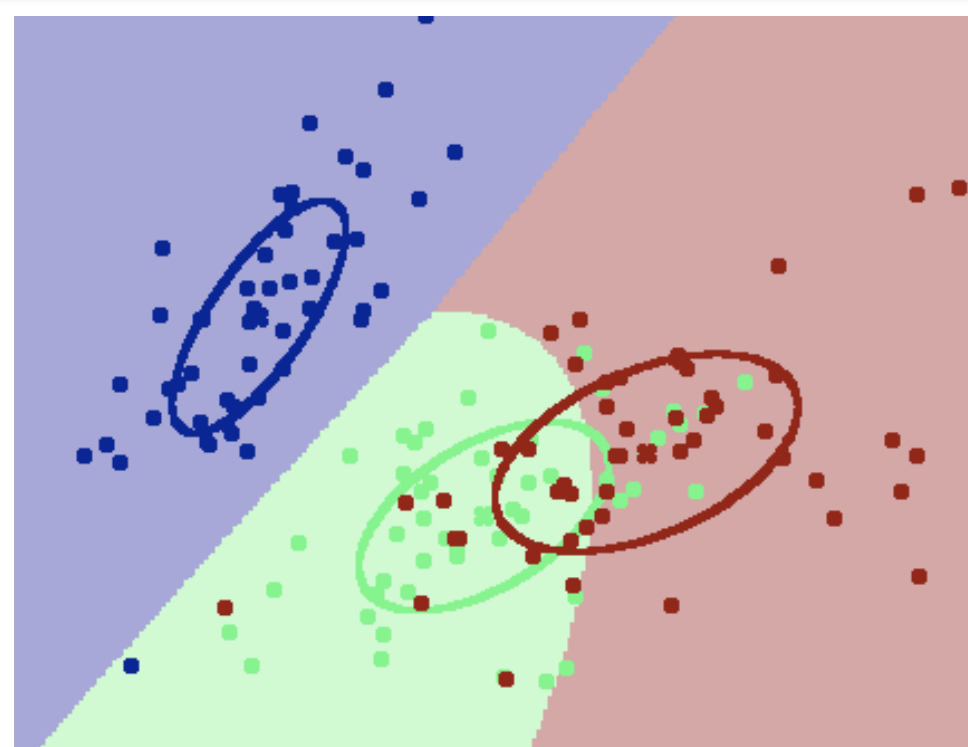
- ▶ $0.5 \leq \text{AUC} \leq 1$
- ▶ $\text{AUC} = 0.5$: random guess
- ▶ $\text{AUC} = 1$: no errors

large α
always $\hat{y} = 0$

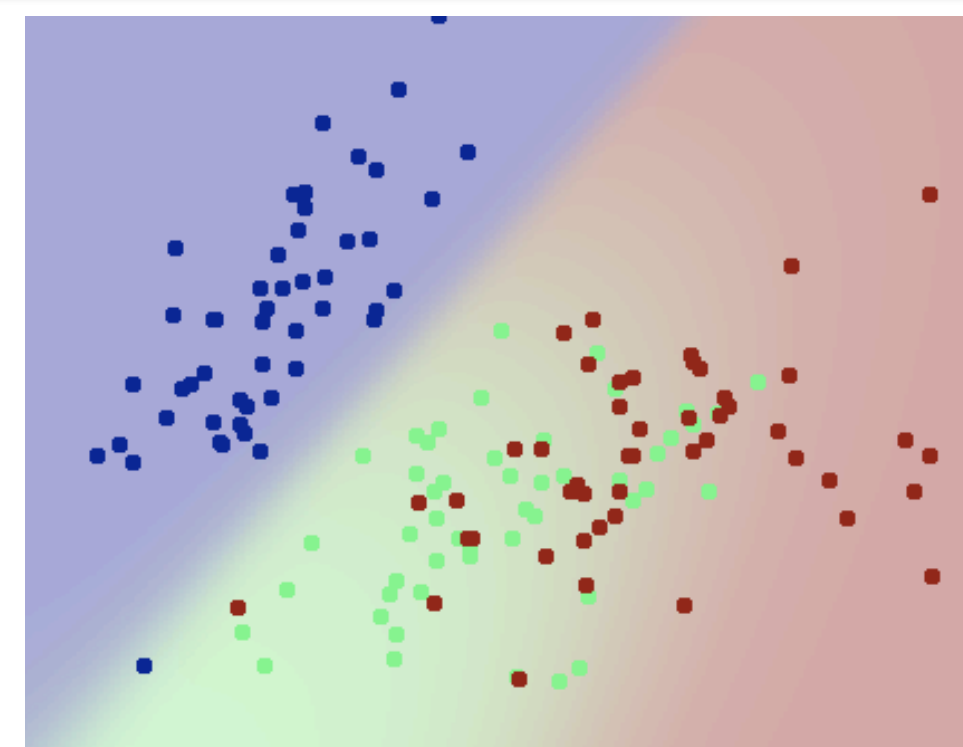
small α
always $\hat{y} = 1$



Discriminative vs. probabilistic predictions



discriminative predictions $\hat{y}(x)$



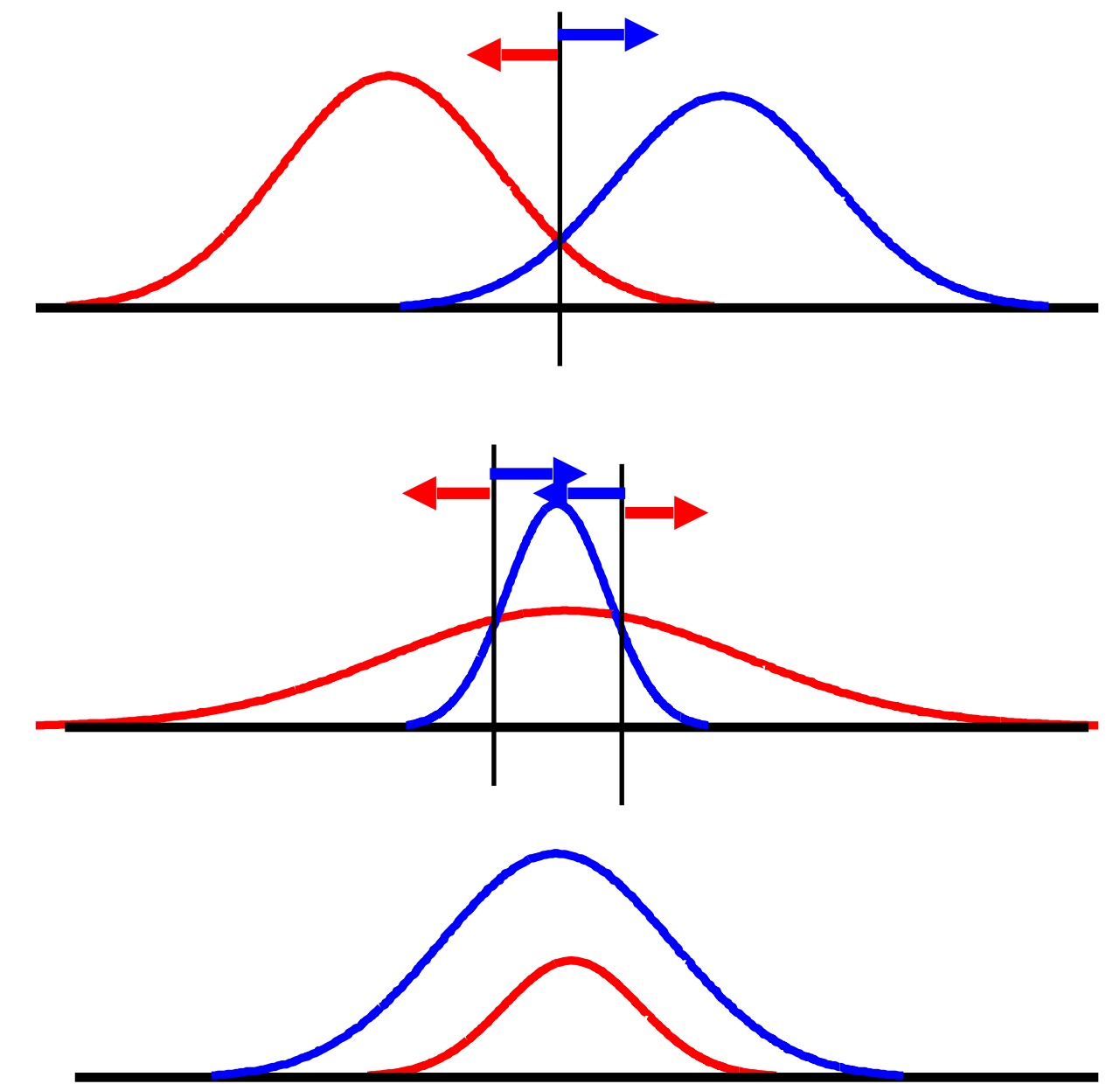
probabilistic predictions $p(y | x)$

```
>> learner = gaussianBayesClassify(X,Y) % build a classifier
>> Ysoft = predictSoft(learner, X) % M x C matrix of confidences
>> plotSoftClassify2D(learner,X,Y) % shaded confidence plot
```

- Probabilistic learning gives more nuanced prediction
 - ▶ Can use $p(y | x)$ to find $\hat{y}(x) = \arg \max_y p(y | x)$ (if argmax is feasible)
 - ▶ Express confidence in predicting \hat{y}
 - ▶ Conditional models: $p(y | x)$; vs. **generative models**: $p(x, y)$
 - Can be used to generate x
 - Bayes classifiers, Naïve Bayes classifiers are generative

Gaussian models

- Bayes-optimal decision:
 - Scale each Gaussian by prior $p(y)$ and relative cost of error
 - Choose the larger scaled probability density
- Decision boundary = where scaled probabilities equal



Gaussian models

- Consider binary classifier with Gaussian conditionals

- ▶ $p(x | y = c) = \mathcal{N}(x; \mu_c, \Sigma_c) = (2\pi)^{-\frac{d}{2}} |\Sigma_c|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_c)^\top \Sigma_c^{-1} (x - \mu_c)\right)$

- ▶ Assume same covariance $\Sigma_0 = \Sigma_1$

- What is the shape of the decision boundary $p(y = 0 | x) = p(y = 1 | x)$?

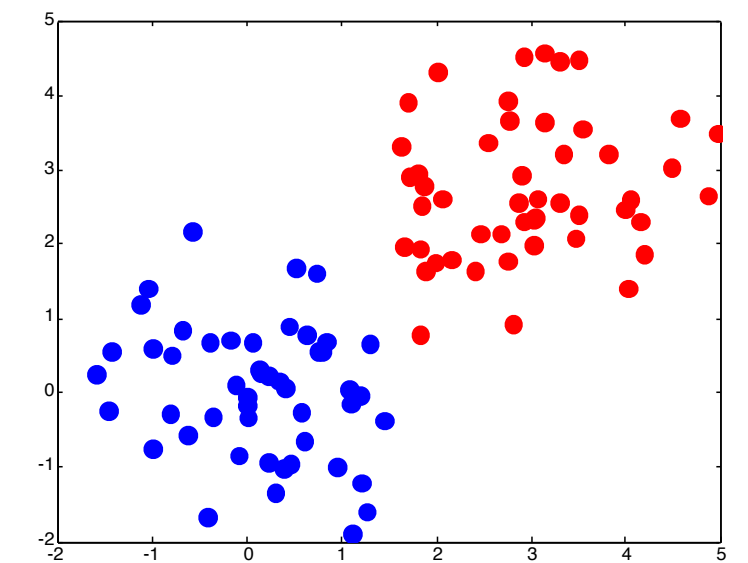
$$\alpha \lesseqgtr \log \frac{p(y = 1)p(x | y = 1)}{p(y = 0)p(x | y = 0)} = \log \frac{p(y = 1)}{p(y = 0)} + \text{const}$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \left(x^\top \Sigma^{-1} x - 2\mu_0^\top \Sigma^{-1} x + \mu_0^\top \Sigma^{-1} \mu_0 \right)$$

$$- \frac{1}{2} \left(x^\top \Sigma^{-1} x - 2\mu_1^\top \Sigma^{-1} x + \mu_1^\top \Sigma^{-1} \mu_1 \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\mu_1 - \mu_0)^\top \Sigma^{-1} x + \text{const}$$

← linear!

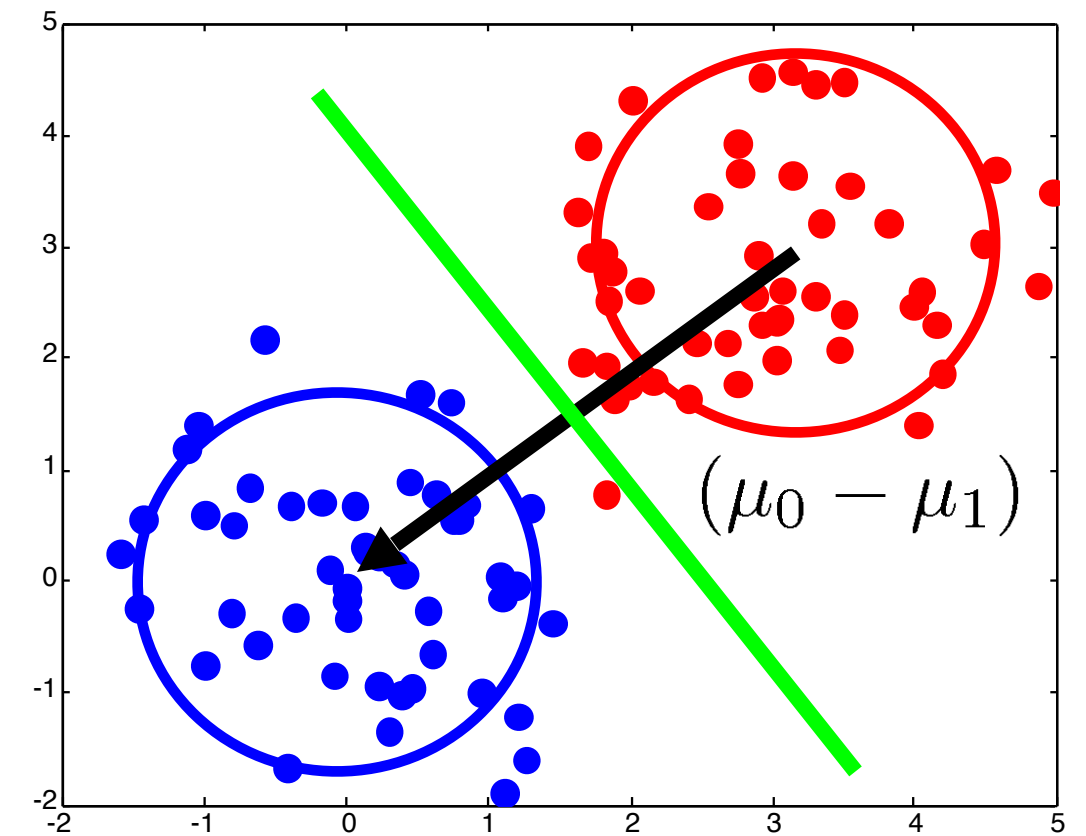


Gaussian models

- Isotropic covariance: $\Sigma = \sigma^2 I_d$

- ▶ Decision: $(\mu_1 - \mu_0)^T x \lesseqgtr \alpha$

- ▶ Decision boundary perpendicular to segment between means



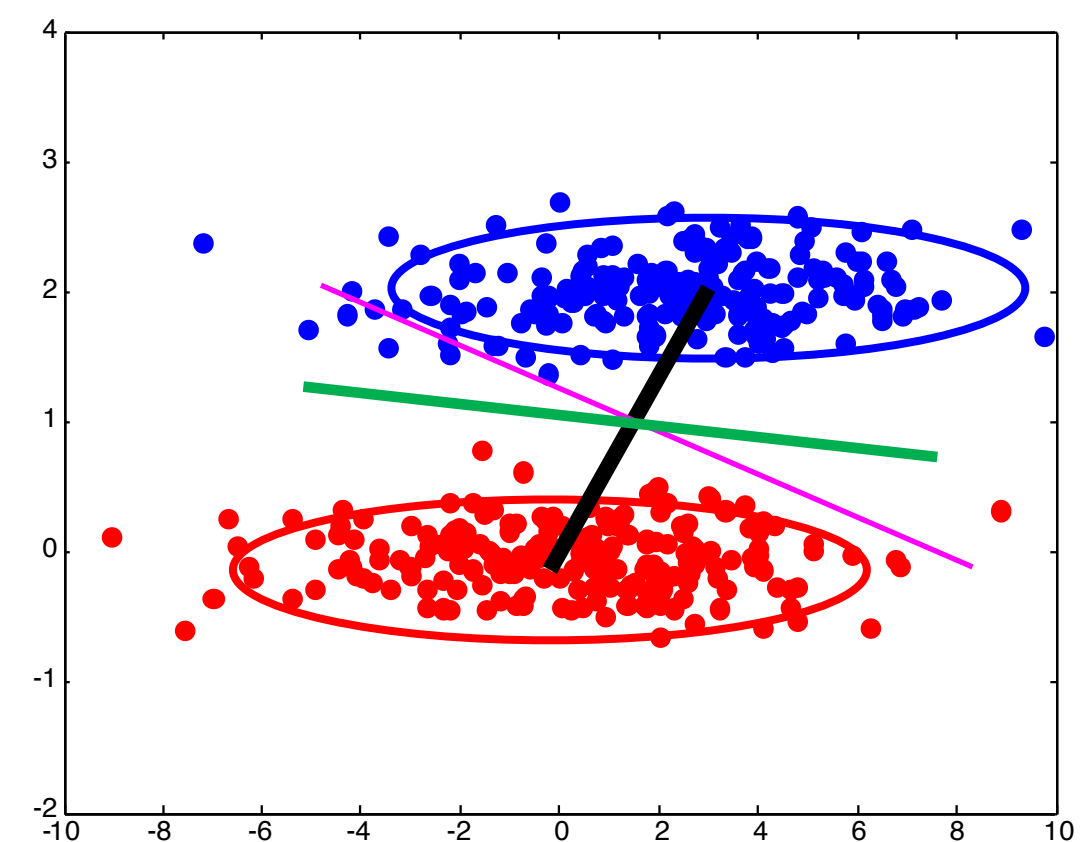
- General (but equal) covariance:

- ▶ Decision boundary linear, but

- scaled, if Σ has different eigenvalues

- rotated, if Σ is not diagonal

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & .25 \end{bmatrix}$$



Today's lecture

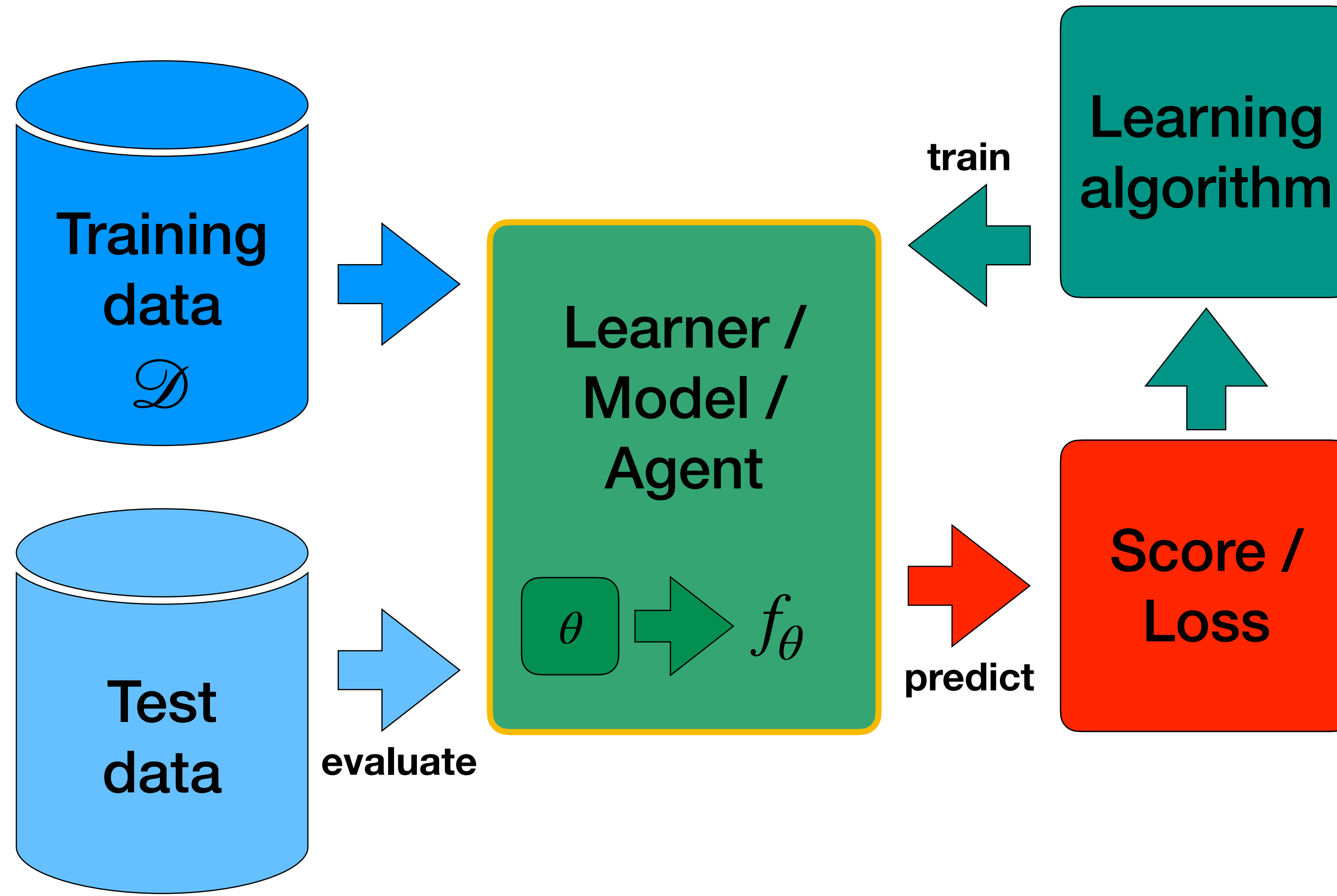
ROC curves

Linear regression

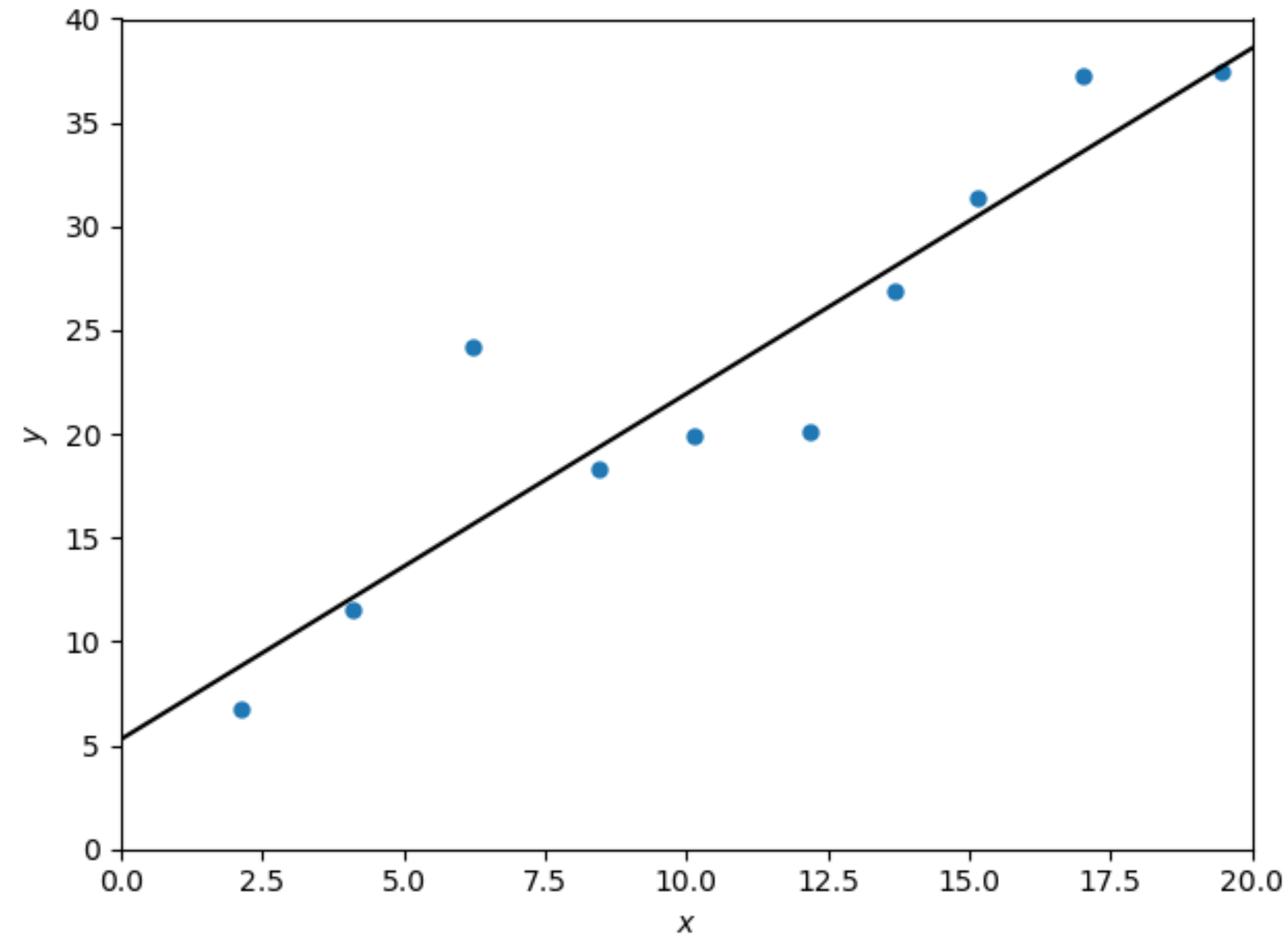
Least squares

Gradient descent

Machine learning



Linear regression



- Decision function $f : x \mapsto y$ is **linear**, $f(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$
- f is stored by its parameters $\theta = [\theta_0 \quad \theta_1]$

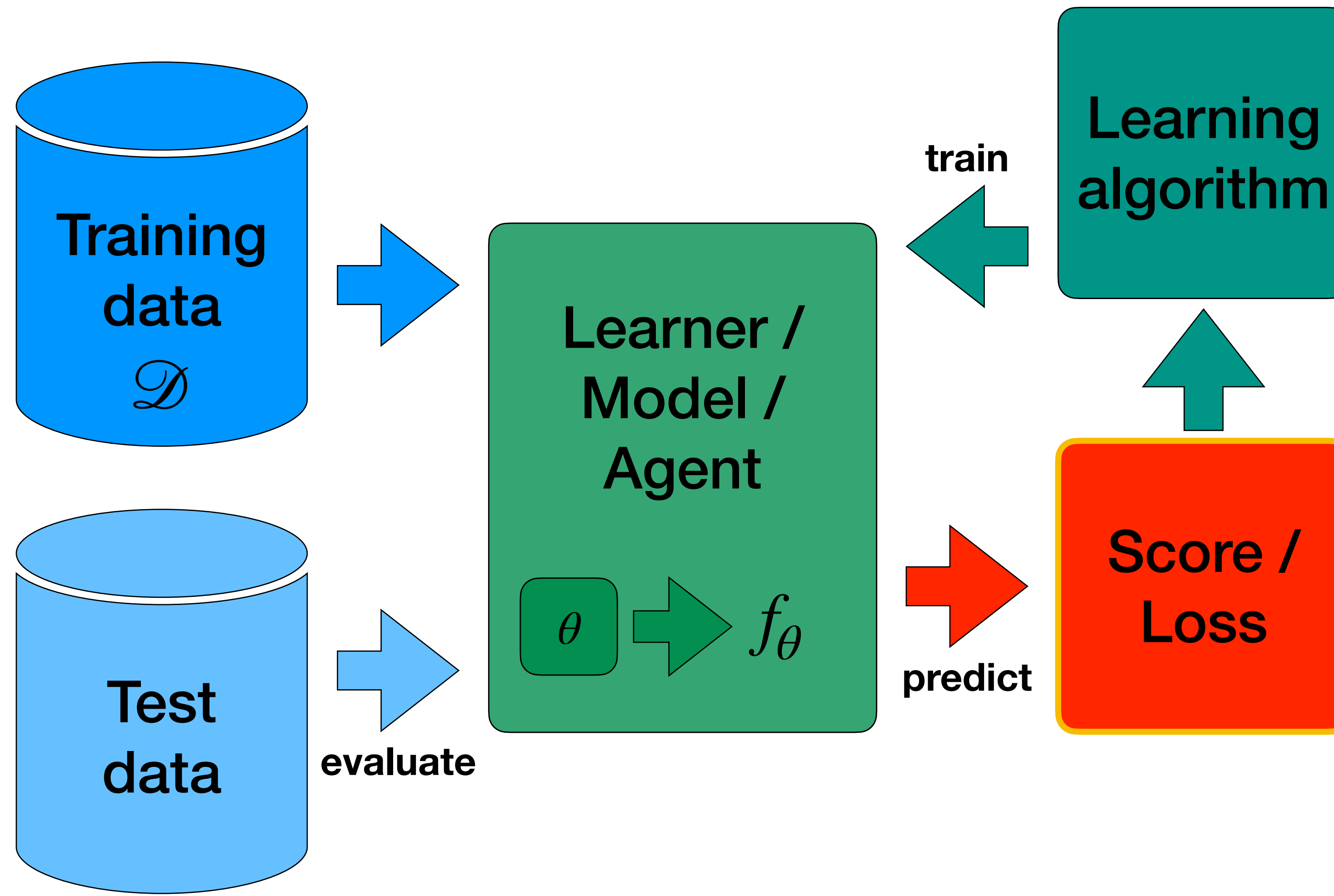
Linear regression

- More generally: $\hat{y}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \dots + \theta_n x_n$
- Define dummy feature $x_0 = 1$ for the **shift / bias** θ_0

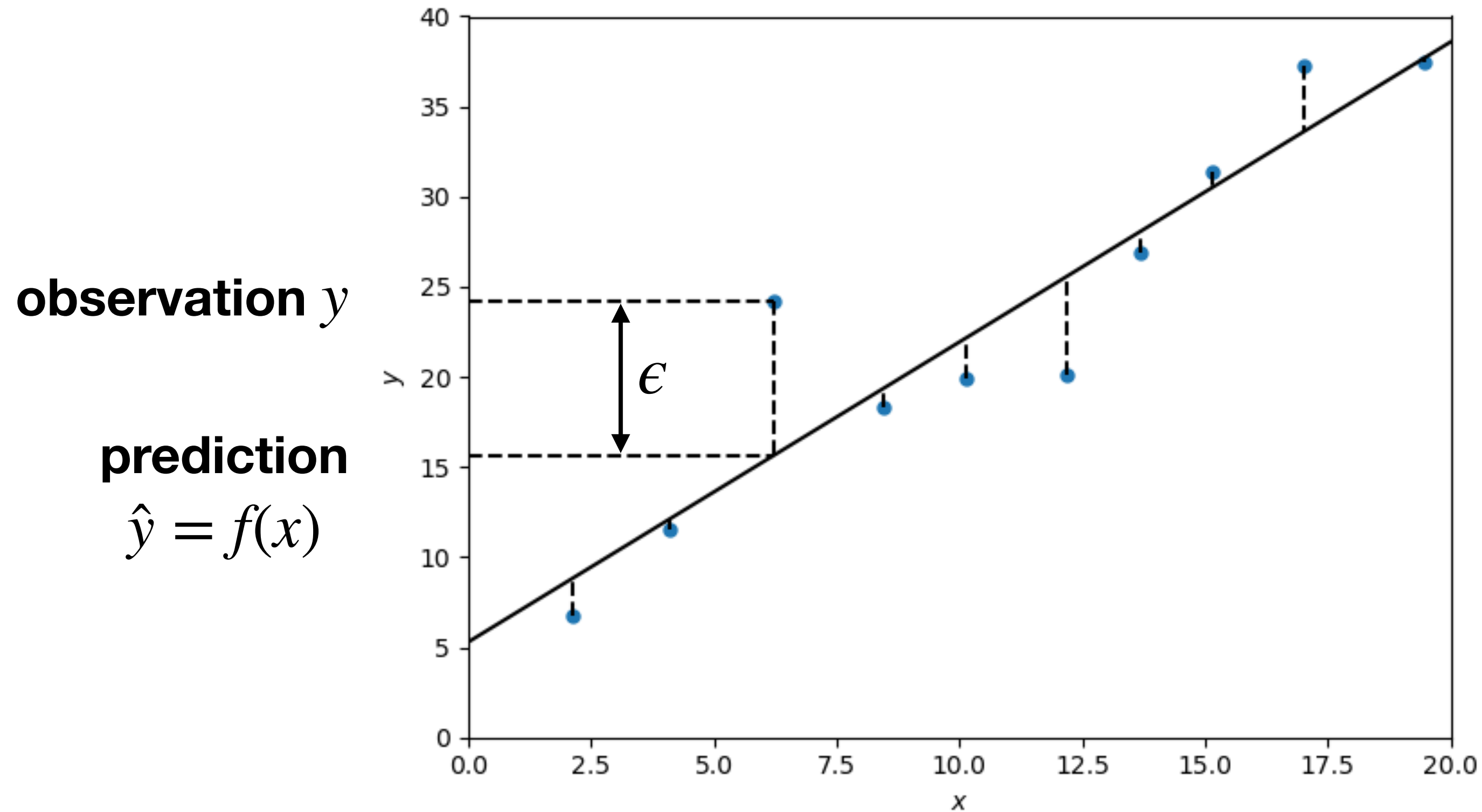
► $\hat{y}(x) = \theta^\top x$; where

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \theta = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_0 \\ \theta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \theta_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$$

Machine learning



Measuring error



- Error / residual: $\epsilon = y - \hat{y}$

- Mean square error (MSE): $\frac{1}{m} \sum_j (\epsilon^{(j)})^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j (y^{(j)} - \hat{y}^{(j)})^2$

Mean square error

- $\mathcal{L}_\theta = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j (y^{(j)} - \hat{y}(x^{(j)}))^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j (y^{(j)} - \theta^\top x^{(j)})^2$

- Why MSE?

- ▶ Mathematically and computationally convenient (we'll see why)
- ▶ Estimates the variance of the residuals
- ▶ Corresponds to log-likelihood under Gaussian noise model

$$\log p(y | x) = \log \mathcal{N}(y; \theta^\top x, \sigma^2) = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y - \theta^\top x)^2 + \text{const}$$

MSE of training data

- Training data matrix: $X = \begin{bmatrix} x_0^{(1)} & \dots & x_0^{(m)} \\ x_1^{(1)} & \dots & x_1^{(m)} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_n^{(1)} & \dots & x_n^{(m)} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n+1) \times m}$
- Training labels vector: $y = [y^{(1)} \quad \dots \quad y^{(m)}]$
- Prediction: $\hat{y} = [\hat{y}^{(1)} \quad \dots \quad \hat{y}^{(m)}] = \theta^\top X$

```
# Python / NumPy:  
e = y - theta.T @ X  
loss = (e @ e.T) / m # == np.mean( e ** 2 )
```
- Training MSE: $\mathcal{L}_\theta(\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j (y^{(j)} - \theta^\top x^{(j)})^2 = \frac{1}{m} (y - \theta^\top X)(y - \theta^\top X)^\top$

Today's lecture

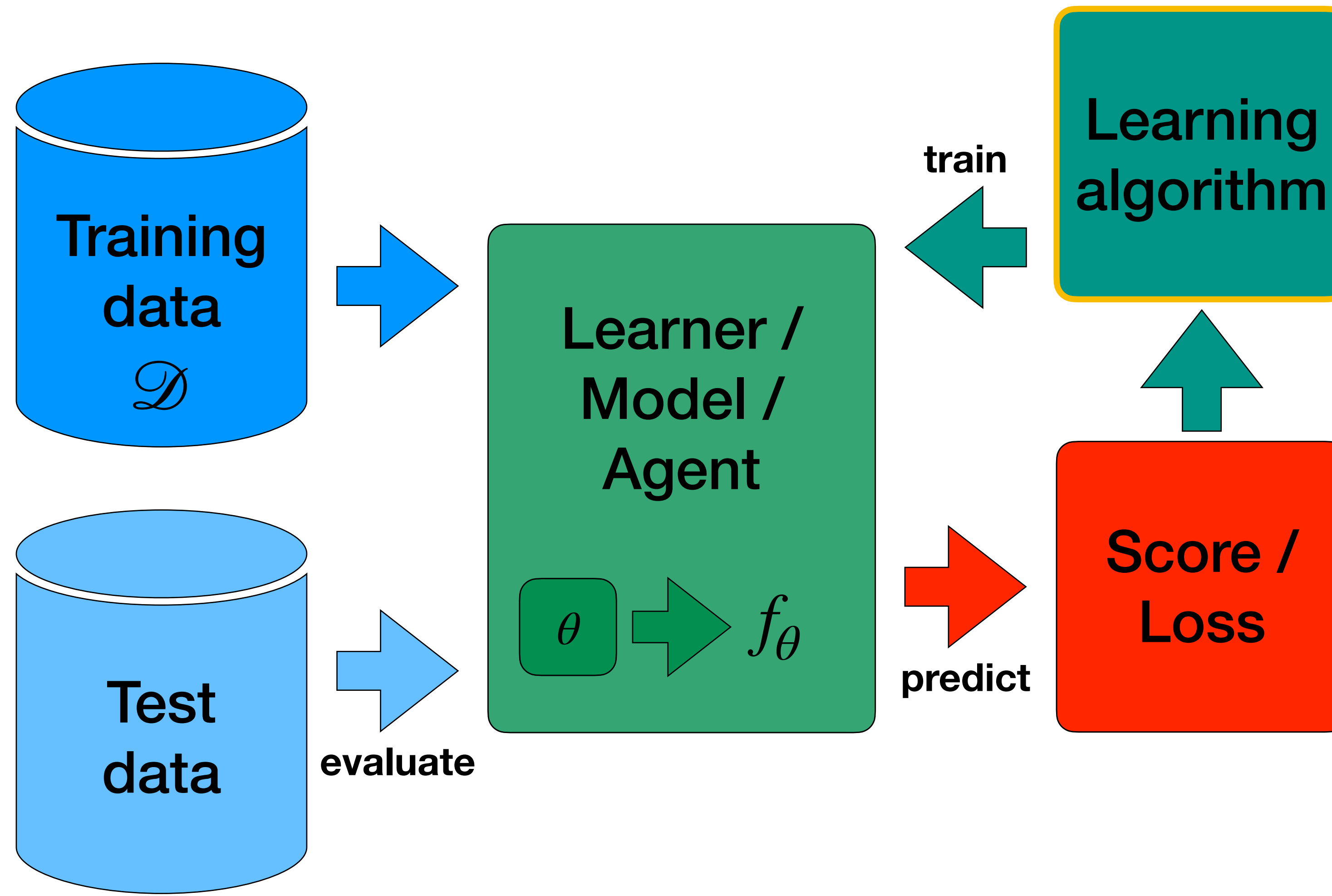
ROC curves

Linear regression

Least squares

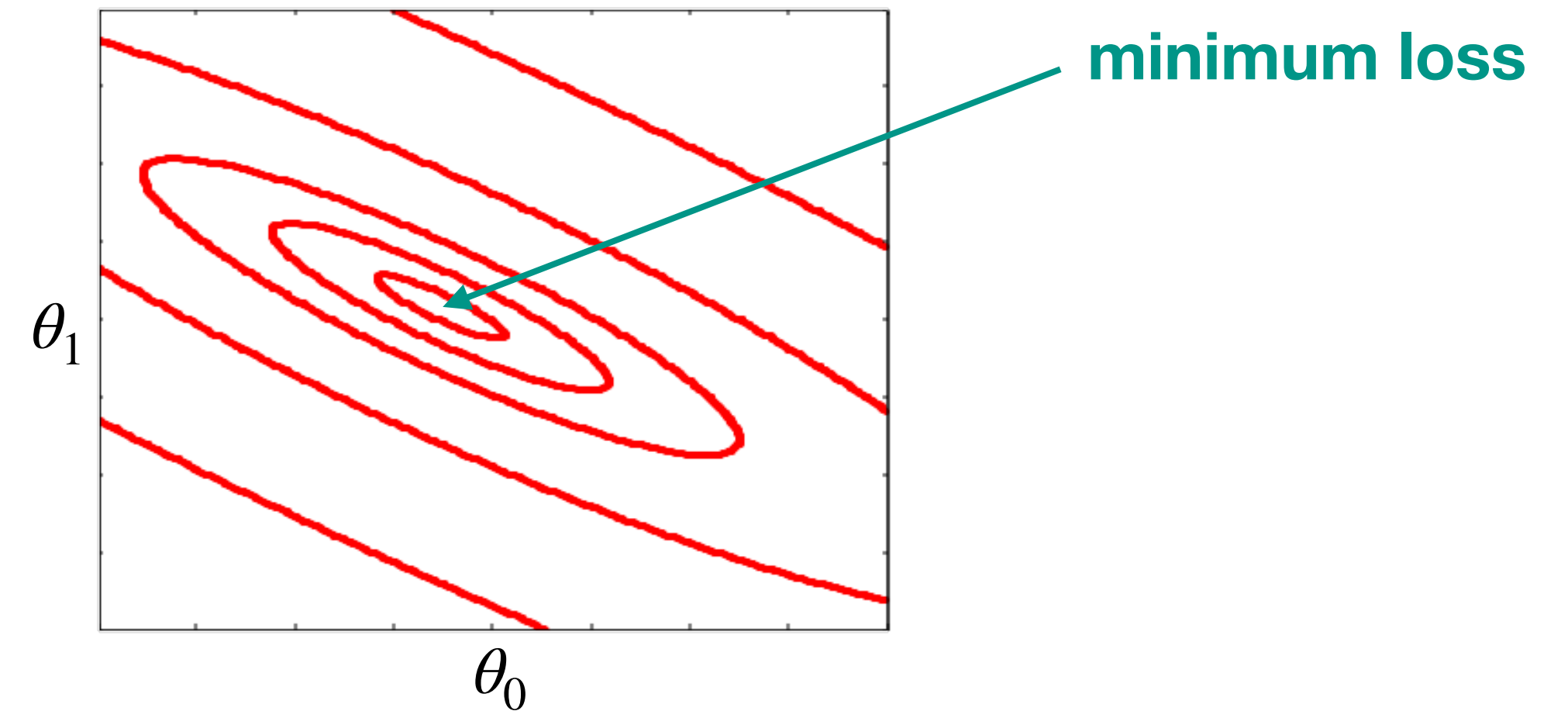
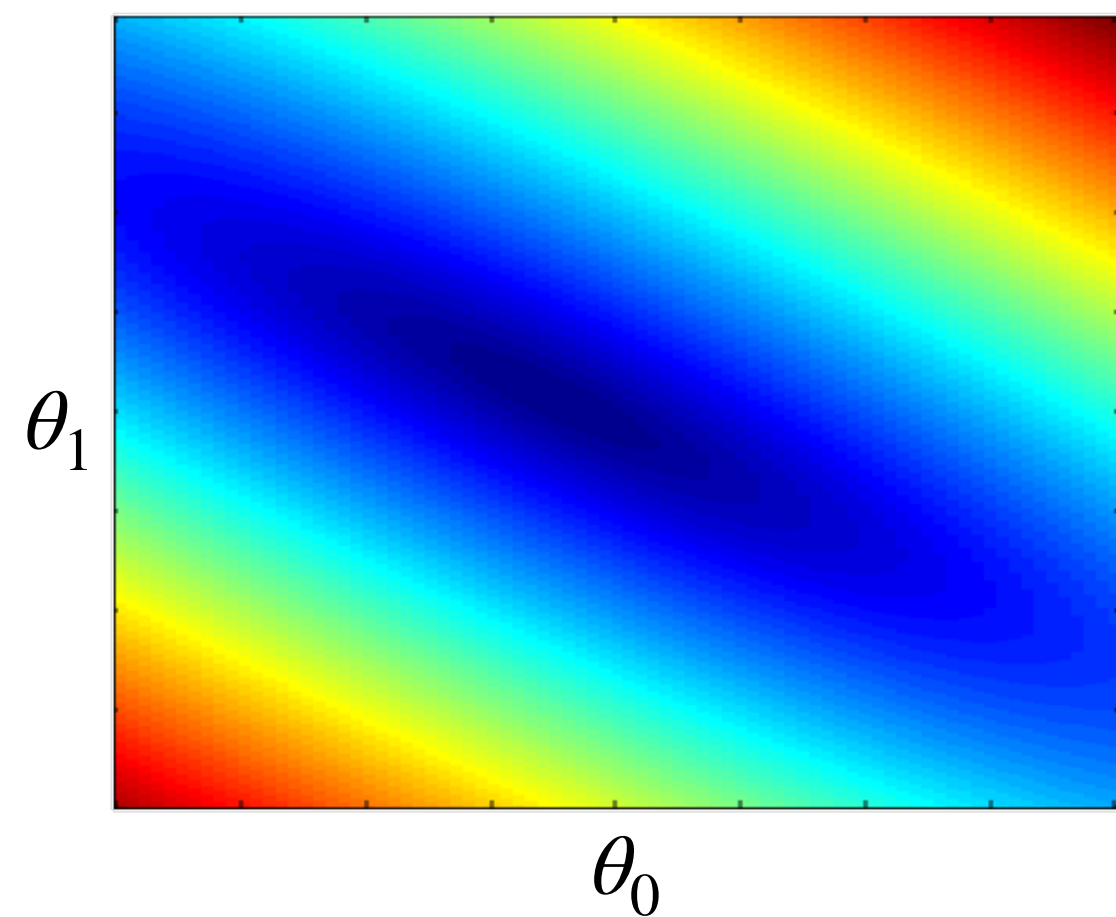
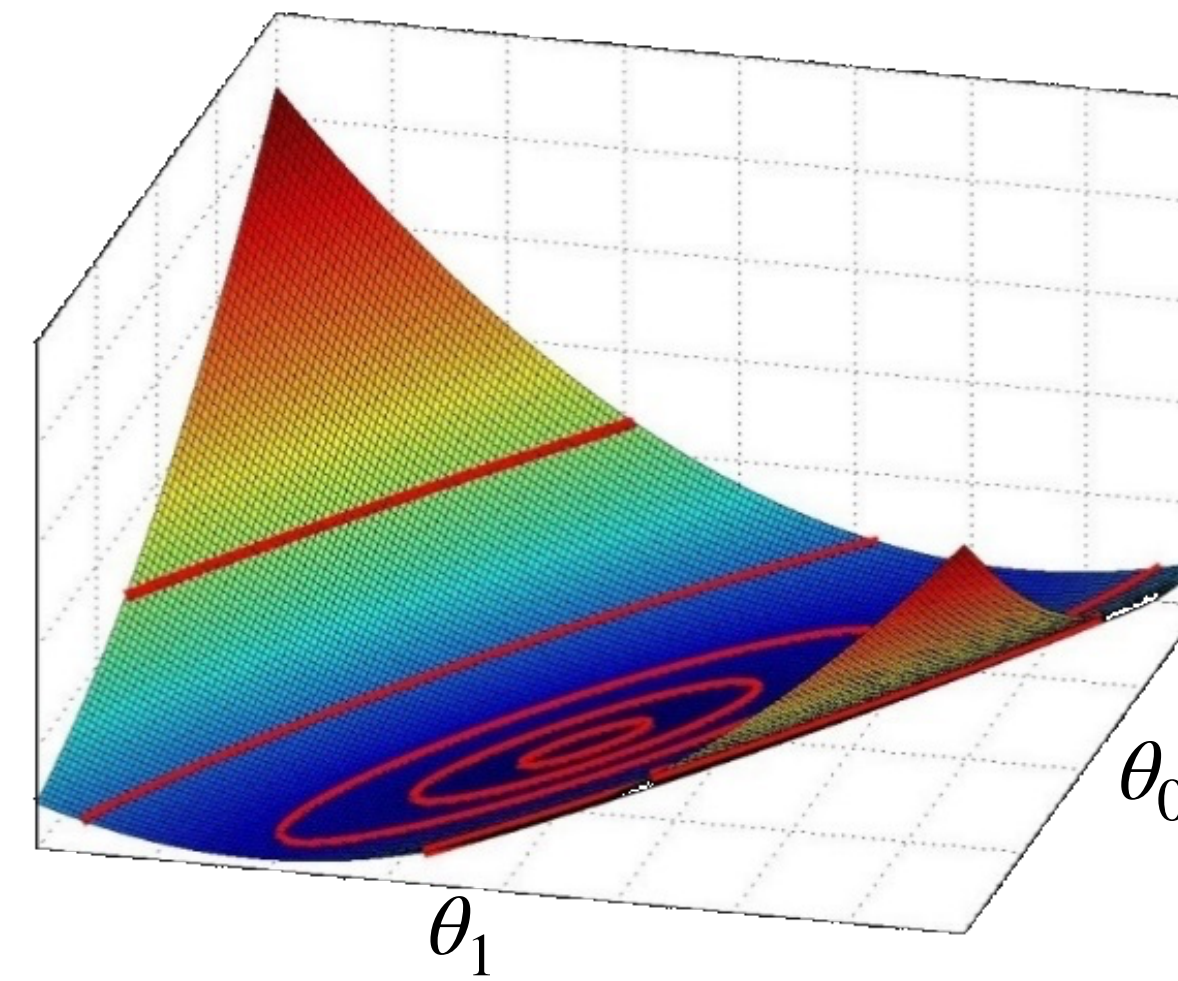
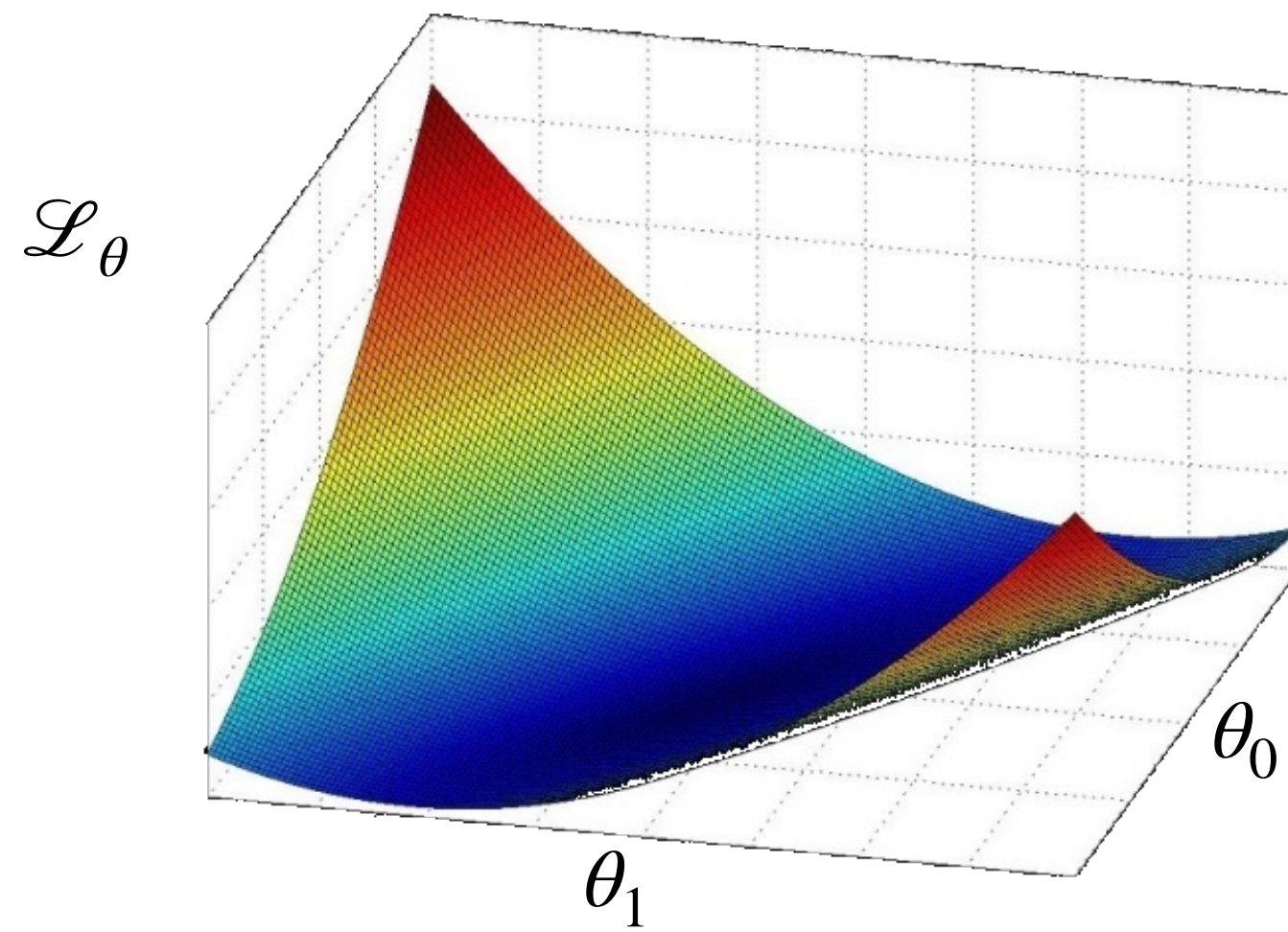
Gradient descent

Machine learning



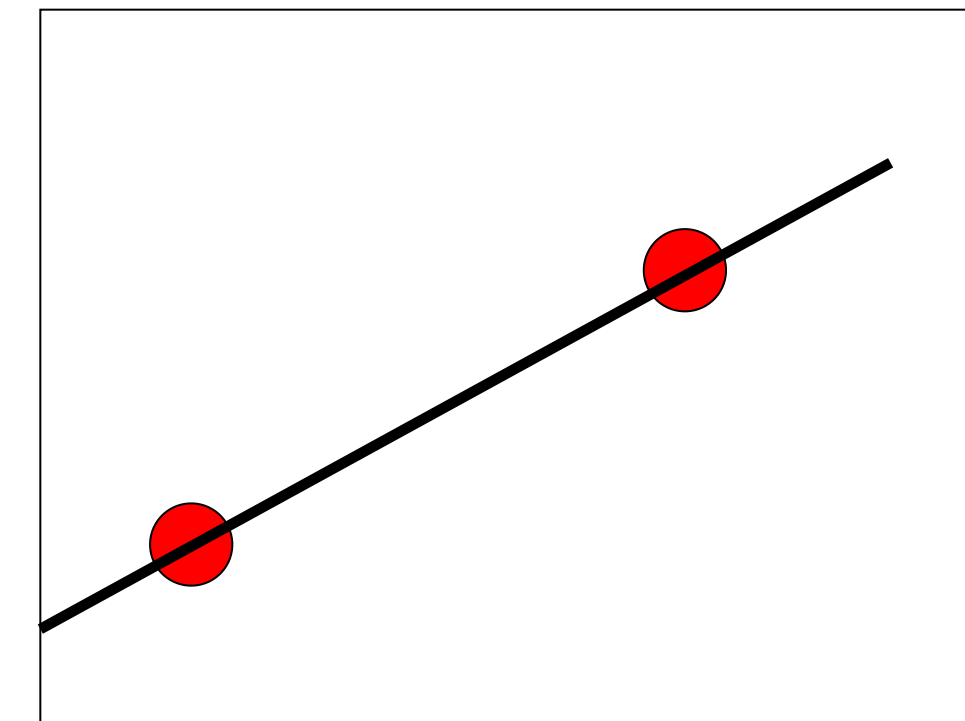
Loss landscape

- $\mathcal{L}_\theta(\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{m}(y - \theta^\top X)(y - \theta^\top X)^\top = \frac{1}{m}(\theta^\top XX^\top \theta - 2yX^\top \theta + yy^\top)$ ← quadratic!



Minimizing MSE

- Consider a simple problem
 - One feature, two data points $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}$
 - Two unknowns θ_0, θ_1
 - Two equations: $\theta_0 + \theta_1 x^{(1)} = y^{(1)}$ $\theta_0 + \theta_1 x^{(2)} = y^{(2)}$
- Can solve this system directly: $y = \theta^\top X \implies \theta^\top = yX^{-1}$
- Generally, X may not have an inverse; e.g., $m > n + 1$
- There may also be training loss, no θ achieves equality of y to $\theta^\top X$



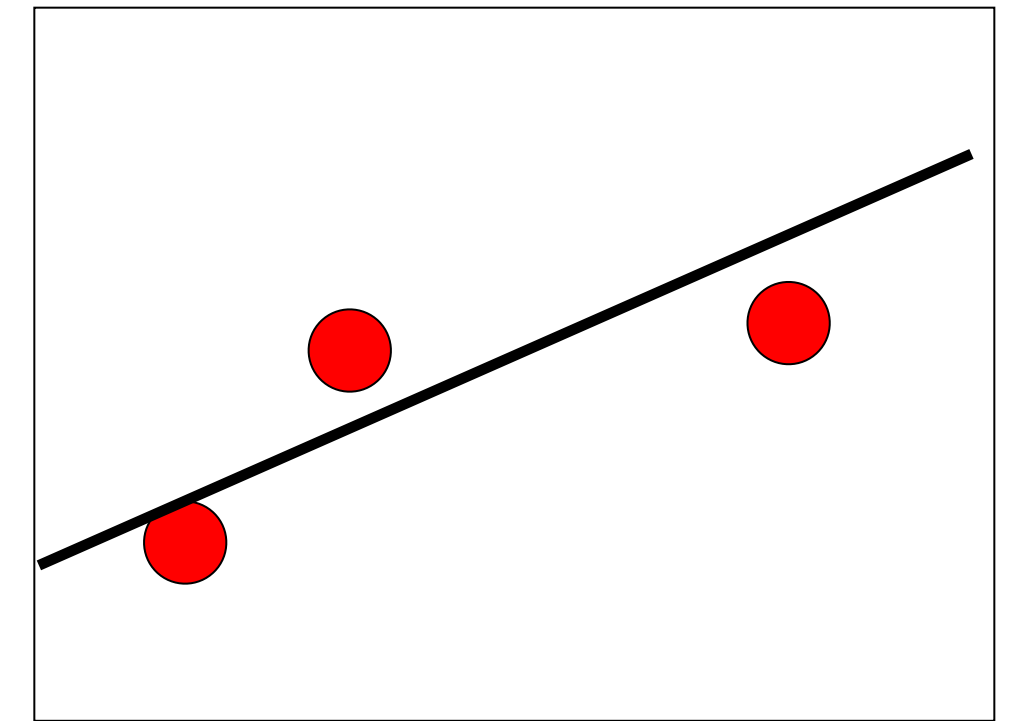
Least Squares

- The minimum is achieved when the gradient is 0

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta} = -\frac{2}{m}(y - \theta^T X)X^T = 0$$

$$\theta^T X X^T = y X^T$$

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



- XX^T is invertible when X has linearly independent rows = features
- $X^\dagger = X^T (XX^T)^{-1}$ is the Moore-Penrose **pseudo-inverse** of X
 - $X^\dagger = X^{-1}$ when the inverse exists
 - Can define X^\dagger via **Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)** when XX^T isn't invertible
- $\theta^T = y X^\dagger$ is the **Least Squares** fit of the data (X, y)

Linear regression in NumPy

- Linear regression with MSE: $\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{m} \|y - \theta^T X\|^2$

$$\theta^T = yX(XX^T)^{-1} = yX^\dagger$$

```
# Solution 1: the long way
theta = (y @ X @ np.linalg.inv(X @ X.T)).T

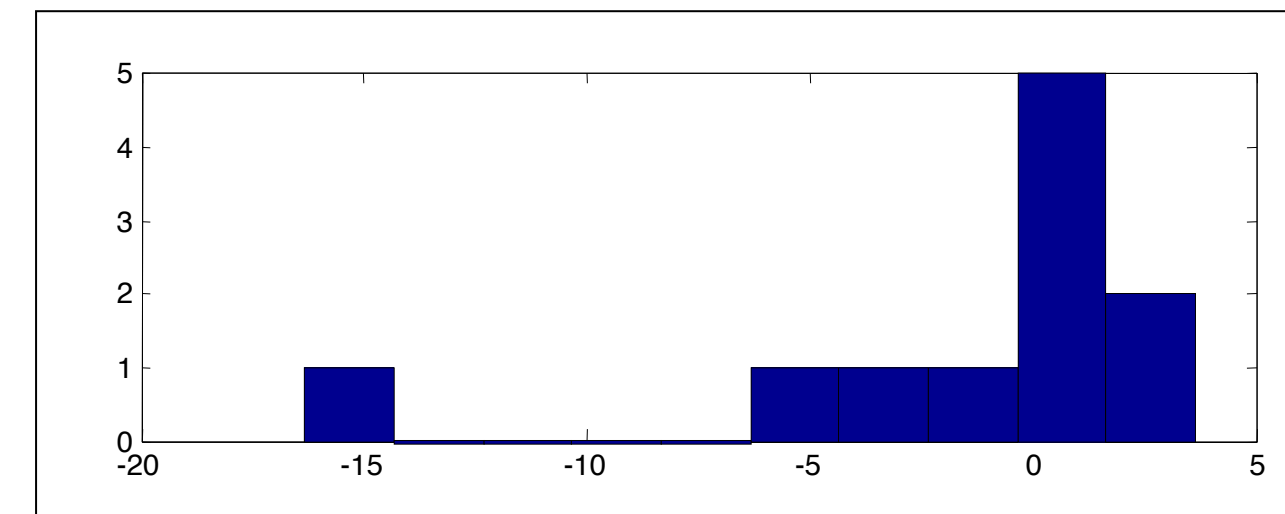
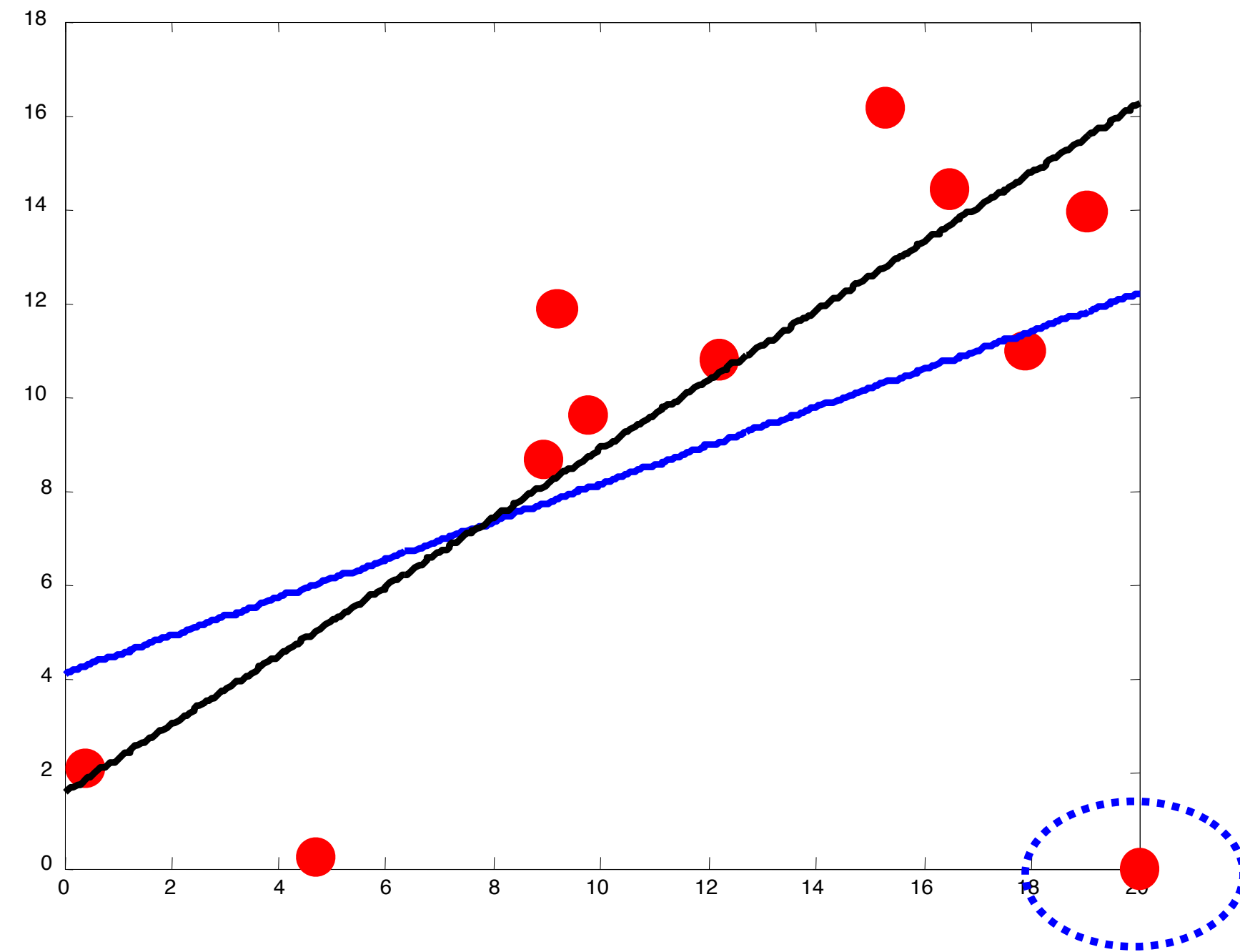
# Solution 2: pseudo-inverse
theta = (y @ np.linalg.pinv(X)).T

# Solution 3: Least Squares solver
theta = np.linalg.lstsq(a=X.T, b=y.T)
```

- Least Squares: approximate $Az = b$ by $\min_z \|Az - b\|^2$

MSE and outliers

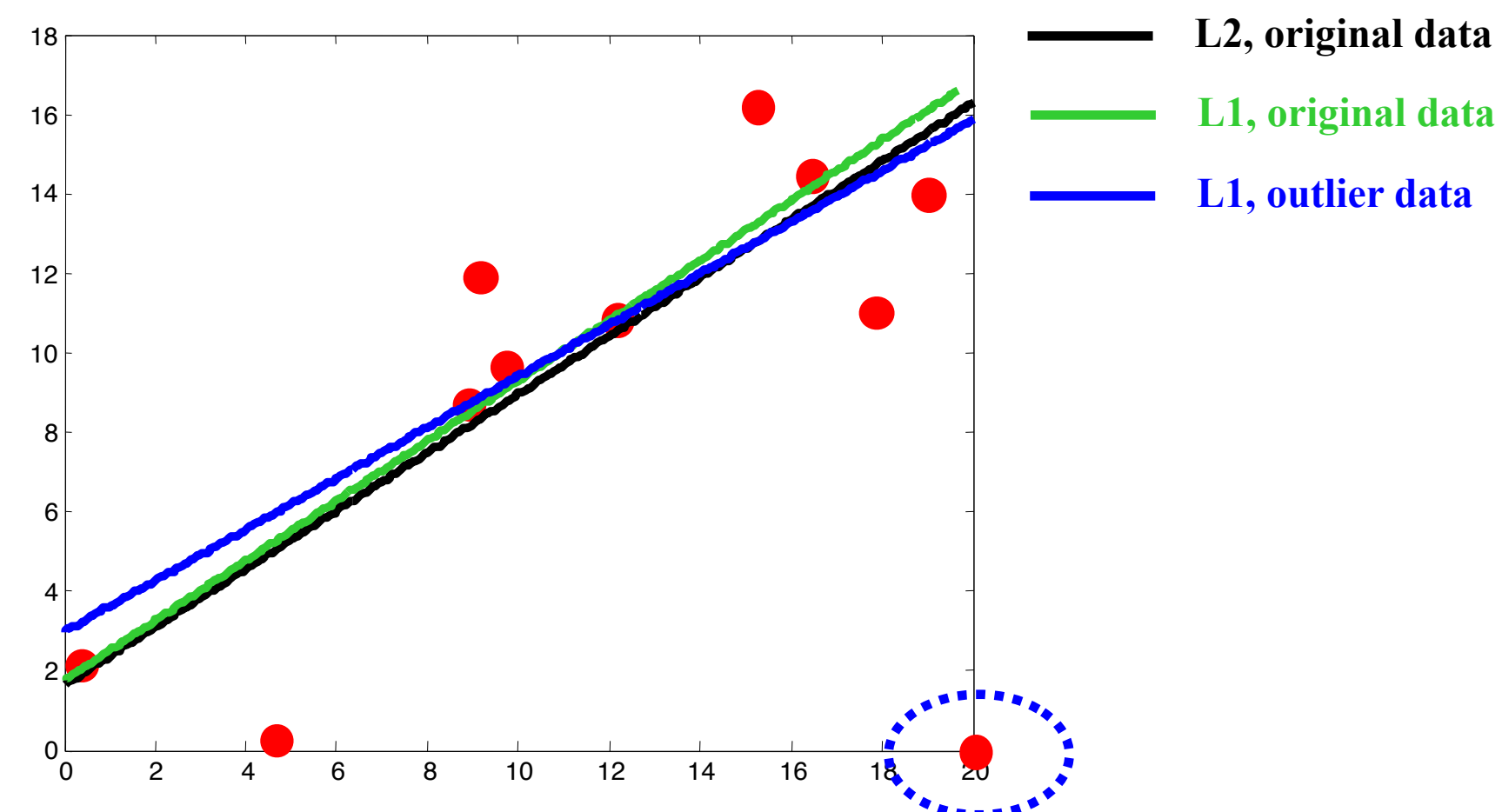
- MSE is sensitive to outliers



- Square error $\approx 16^2$ throws off entire optimization

Mean Absolute Error (MAE)

- MSE uses the L_2 norm of the error $\|y - \theta^T X\|_2^2 = \sum_j (y - \theta^T X)^2$
- What if we use the L_1 norm $\|y - \theta^T X\|_1 = \sum_j |y - \theta^T X|$?
- ▶ Mean Absolute Error (MAE): $\frac{1}{m} \sum_j |y - \theta^T X|$

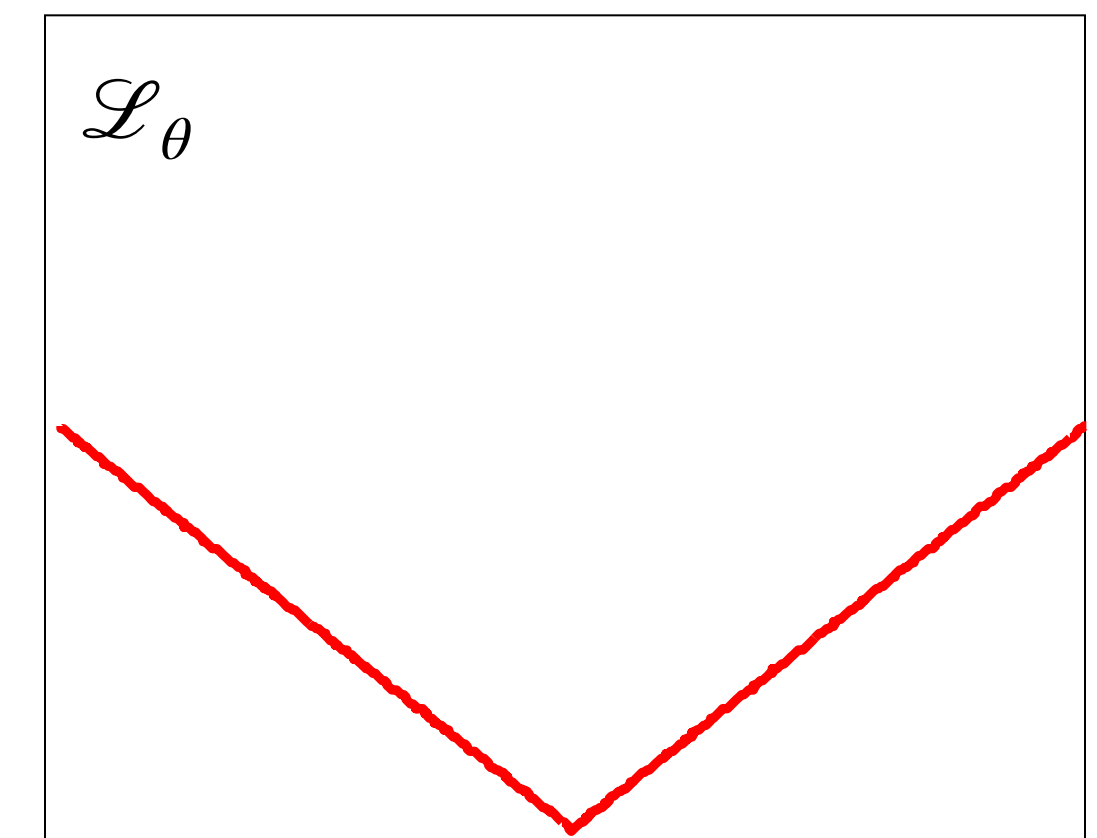


Minimizing MAE

- The absolute operator isn't differentiable
 - But assume no data point has 0 error

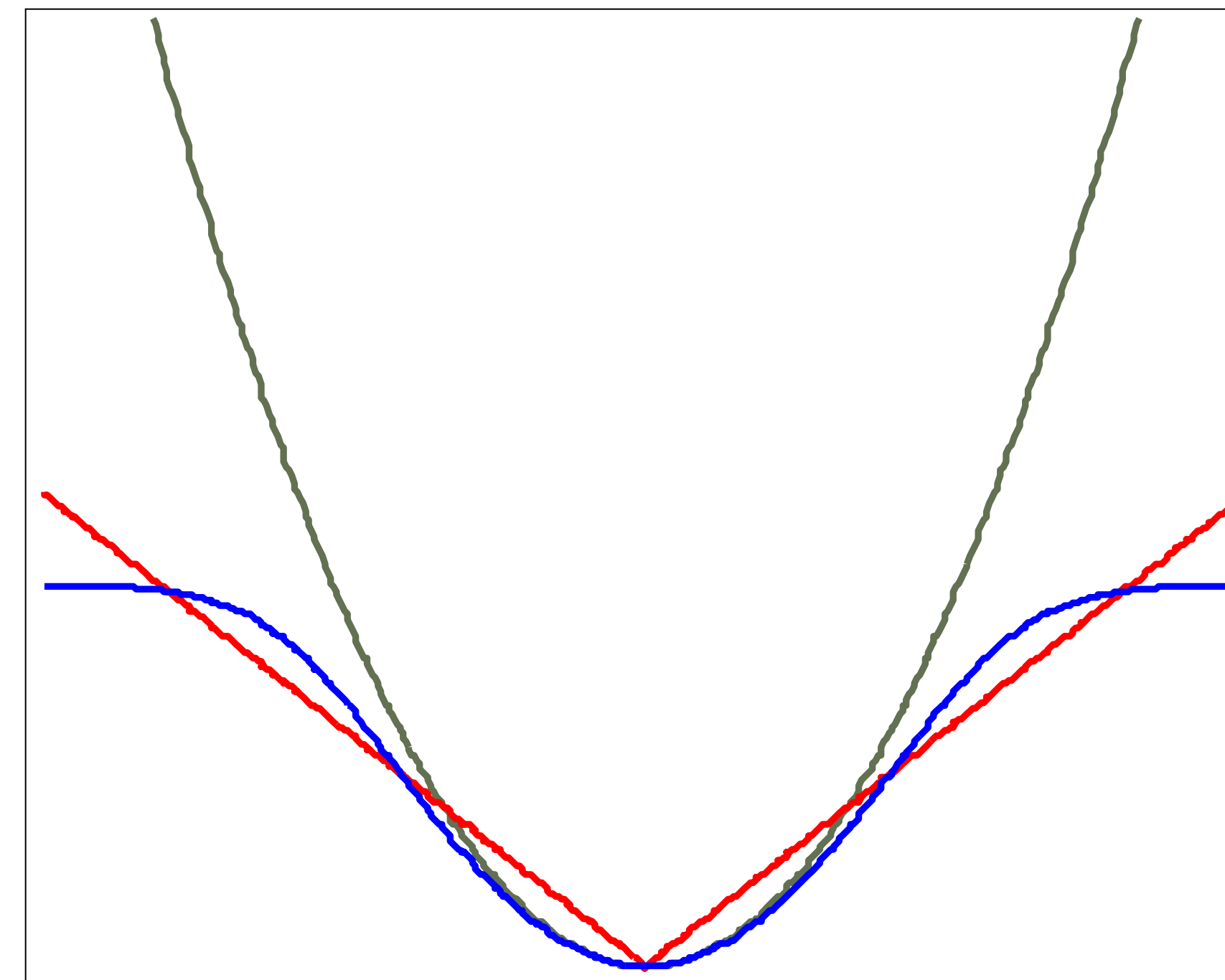
$$\nabla_{\theta} \frac{1}{m} \sum_j |y - \theta^T X| = \frac{1}{m} \left(\sum_{j: y^{(j)} < \theta^T x^{(j)}} x^{(j)} - \sum_{j: y^{(j)} > \theta^T x^{(j)}} x^{(j)} \right) = 0$$
$$\sum_{j: y^{(j)} < \theta^T x^{(j)}} x^{(j)} = \sum_{j: y^{(j)} > \theta^T x^{(j)}} x^{(j)}$$

- Can be solved with [Linear Programming](#)
- Without features (best constant fit for y): median
 - With MSE: mean — more sensitive to outliers



Other loss functions

- MSE: $\ell(y, \hat{y}) = (y - \hat{y})^2$
- MAE: $\ell(y, \hat{y}) = |y - \hat{y}|$
- Should loss of large errors saturate?
 - $\ell(y, \hat{y}) = c - \log(\exp(- (y - \hat{y})^2) + c)$
- Most loss functions cannot be optimized in close form
 - Gradient descent is a general algorithm for differentiable parametrization and loss



Today's lecture

ROC curves

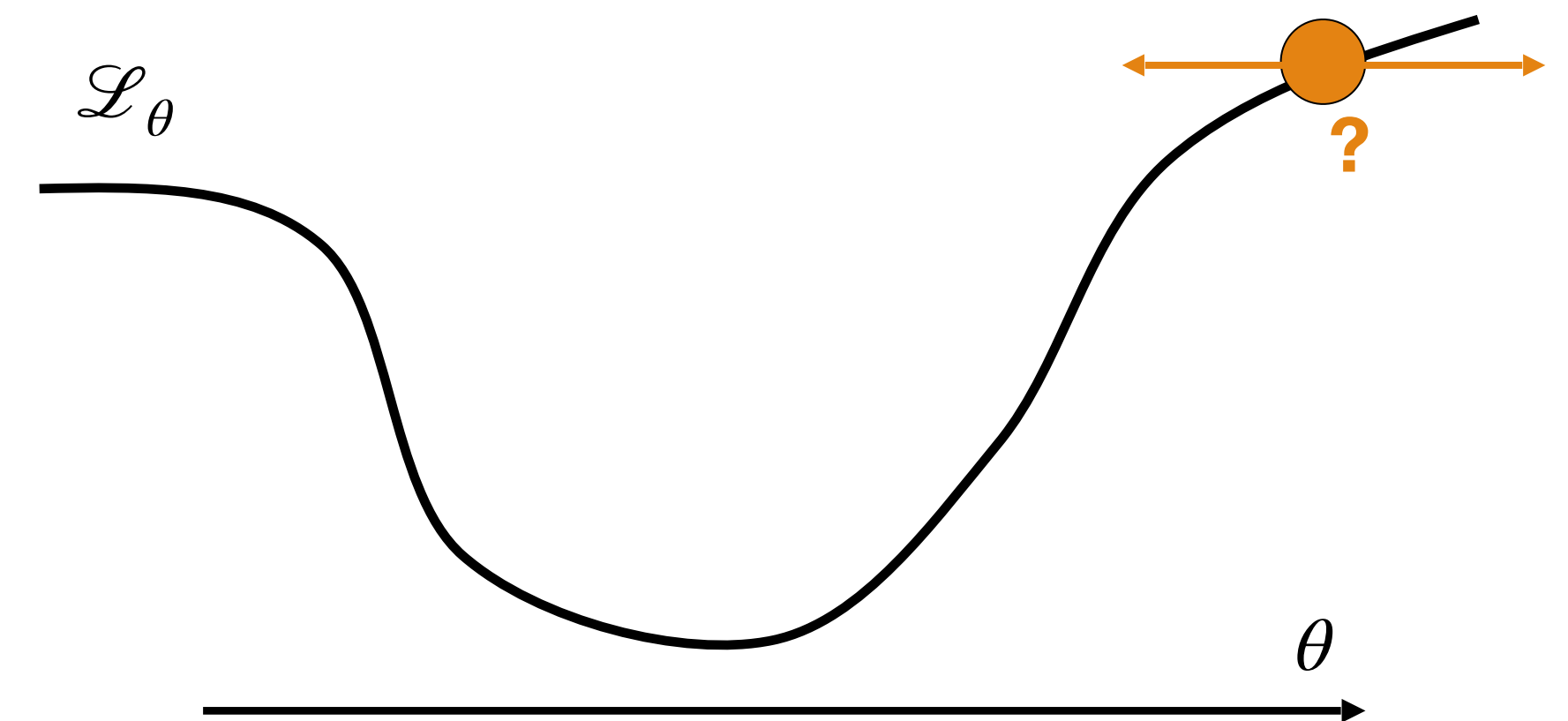
Linear regression

Least squares

Gradient descent

Gradient descent

- How to vary $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ to improve the loss \mathcal{L}_θ ?
 - Find a direction in parameter space in which \mathcal{L}_θ is decreasing

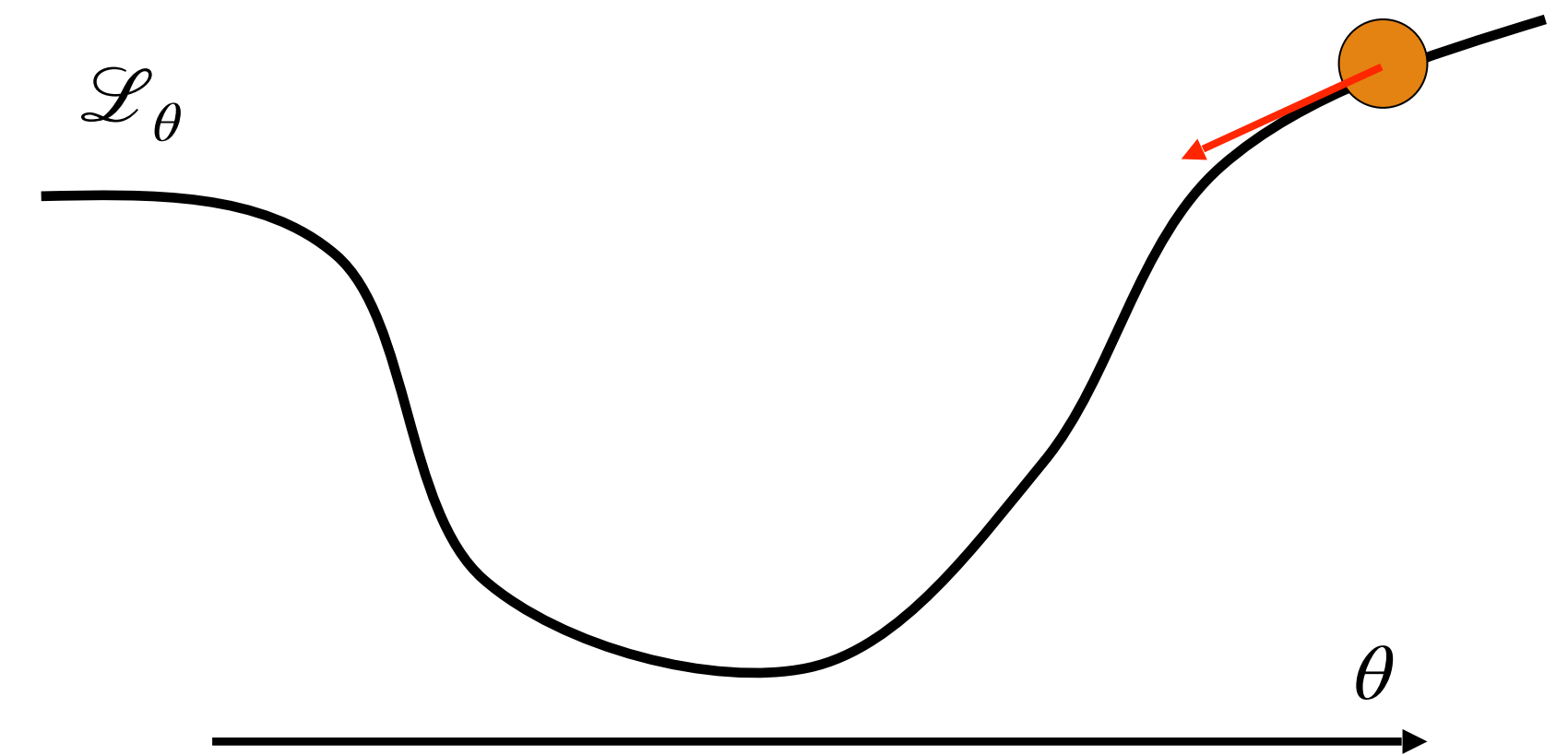


Gradient descent

- How to vary $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ to improve the loss \mathcal{L}_θ ?
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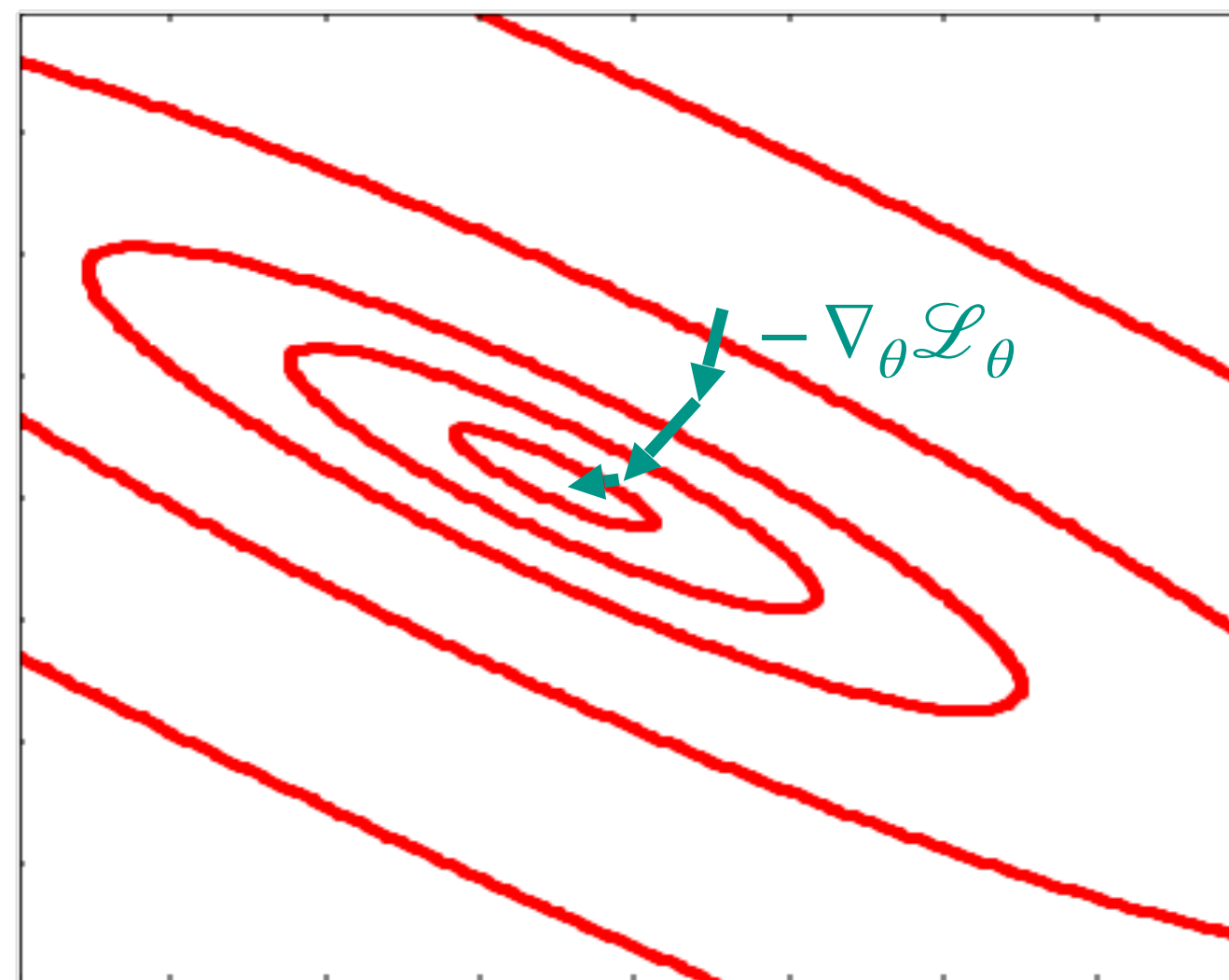
- Derivative $\partial_\theta \mathcal{L}_\theta = \lim_{\delta\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathcal{L}_{\theta+\delta\theta} - \mathcal{L}_\theta}{\delta\theta}$

- Positive = loss increases with θ
- Negative = loss decreases with θ



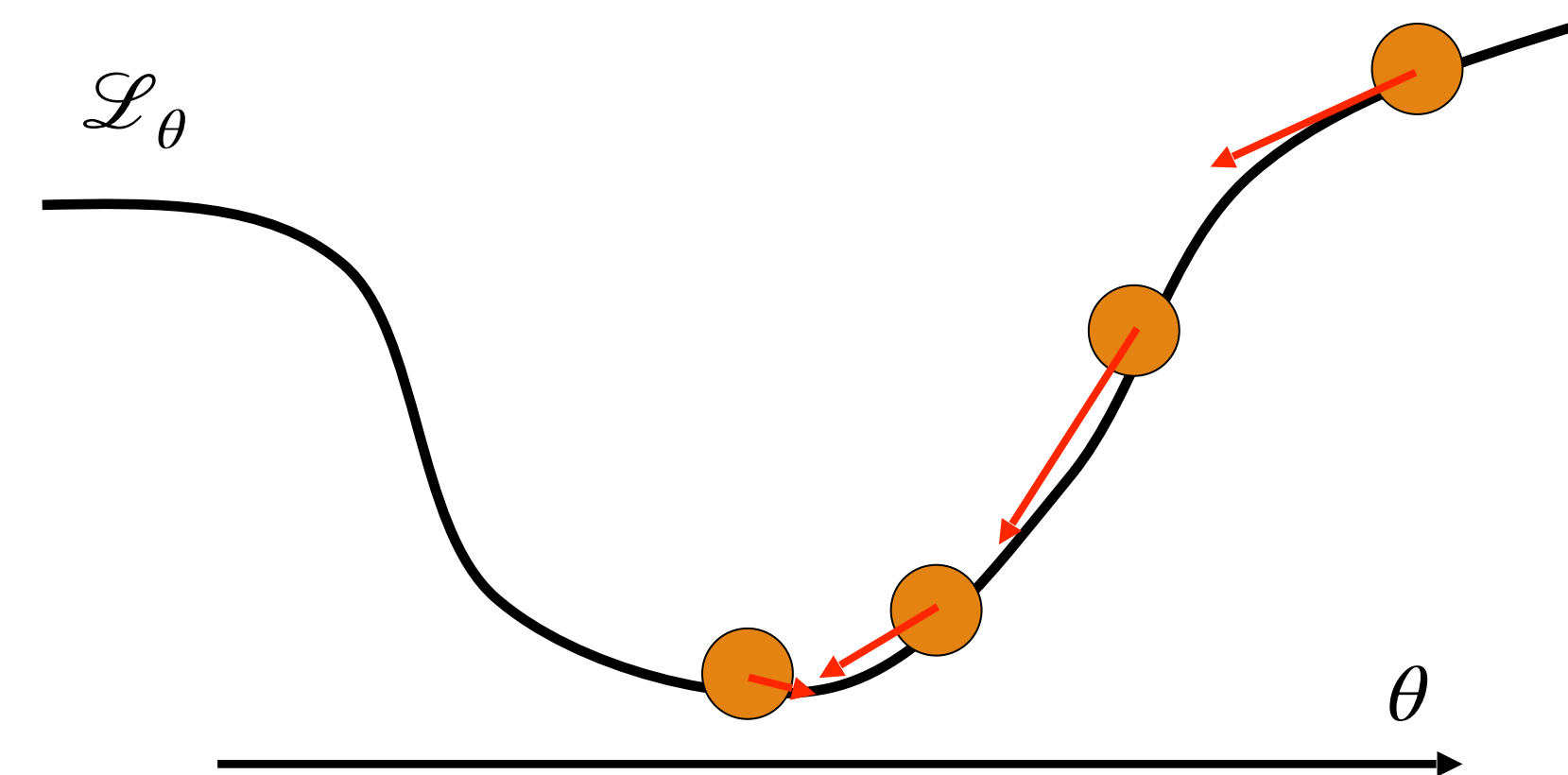
Gradient descent in higher dimension

- Gradient vector: $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta} = [\partial_{\theta_0} \mathcal{L}_{\theta} \quad \cdots \quad \partial_{\theta_n} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}]$
- Taylor expansion: $\mathcal{L}(\theta + \delta\theta) = \mathcal{L}(\theta) + (\delta\theta)^T \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta} + o(\|\delta\theta\|^2)$
 - If we take a small step $\delta\theta$, the best one is in direction $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}$
 - Gradient = direction of **steepest ascent** (negative = steepest descent)





Gradient Descent

- Initialize θ
- Do
 - $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}$
- While $\|\alpha \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}\| \leq \epsilon$
- **Learning rate:** α
 - Can change in each iteration



Gradient for the MSE loss

- MSE: $\mathcal{L}_\theta = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j (\epsilon^{(j)})^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j (y^{(j)} - \theta^\top x^{(j)})^2$
- $\partial_{\theta_i} \mathcal{L}_\theta = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j \partial_{\theta_i} (\epsilon^{(j)})^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j 2\epsilon^{(j)} \partial_{\theta_i} \epsilon^{(j)}$
 - $\partial_{\theta_i} (y^{(j)} - \theta^\top x^{(j)}) = -\partial_{\theta_i} \theta_i x_i^{(j)} + 0$ in the other terms $= -x_i^{(j)}$
 - $\partial_{\theta_i} \mathcal{L}_\theta = -\frac{2}{m} \sum_j \epsilon^{(j)} x_i^{(j)} = -\frac{2}{m} (y - \theta^\top X) X_i^\top$
- $\nabla_\theta \mathcal{L}_\theta = -\frac{2}{m} (y - \theta^\top X) X^\top$
 -  **error**
 -  **sensitivity to θ**
- Can also be seen directly from

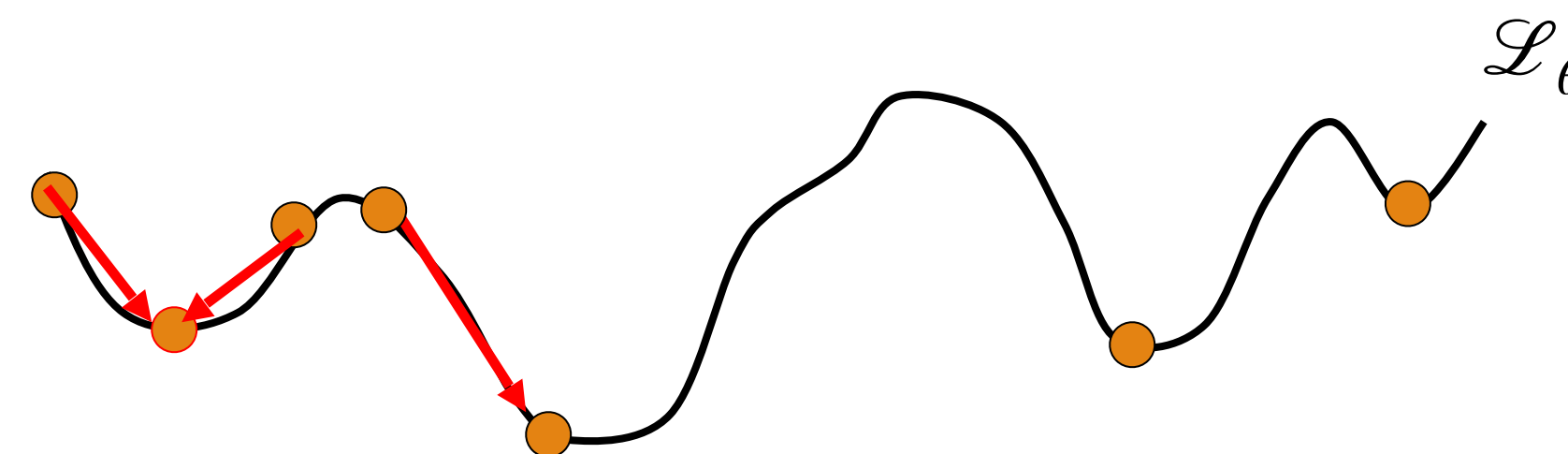
$$\mathcal{L}_\theta = \frac{1}{m} (y - \theta^\top X) (y - \theta^\top X)^\top = \frac{1}{m} (\theta^\top X X^\top \theta - 2y X^\top \theta + y y^\top)$$

Gradient Descent — further considerations

- GD is a very general algorithm
 - We'll use it often
 - Much of the engine for recent advances in ML

- Issues:

- Can get stuck in local minima
 - Worse — can get stuck in saddle points, $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta} = 0$ with improvement direction
- Can be slow to converge, sensitive to initialization
- How to choose step size / learning rate?
 - Constant? 1/iteration? Line search? Newton's method?



Newton's method

- Given black-box $f(z)$, how to find a **root** $f(z) = 0$?
- Initialize some z
- Repeat:
 - Evaluate $f(z)$ and $\partial_z f(z)$ to find **tangent** to f at z : $f'(z') = (z' - z)\partial_z f(z) + f(z)$
 - Update z to the root of f' : $z \leftarrow z - \frac{f(z)}{\partial_z f(z)}$
- Considerations:
 - May not converge, sometimes unstable
 - Usually converges quickly for nice, smooth, locally quadratic functions

Newton's method for gradient descent

- We want to find a (local) minimum $f(\theta) = \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta} = 0$
- Initialize some θ
- Repeat:
 - Evaluate gradient $g = \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}$ and **Hessian** $H = \nabla_{\theta}^2 \mathcal{L}_{\theta}$
 - Update $\theta \leftarrow \theta - H^{-1}g$
- Considerations:
 - Update step may be too large for highly non-convex losses
 - Computational complexity to invert H : $O(n^3)$

Gradient Descent: complexity

- Assume $\mathcal{L}_\theta(\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j \ell_\theta(x^{(j)}, y^{(j)})$
 - MSE: $\ell_\theta(x, y) = (y - \theta^\top x)^2$
- Computing $\nabla_\theta \mathcal{L}_\theta = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j \nabla_\theta \ell_\theta^{(j)}$: usually $O(mn)$
 - What if we use really large datasets? (“big data”)
 - What if we learn from data **streams**? (more data keeps coming in...)

Stochastic / Online Gradient Descent

- Estimate $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}$ fast on a sample of data points
- For each data point:

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}(x^{(j)}, y^{(j)}) = \nabla_{\theta} (y^{(j)} - \theta^{\top} x^{(j)})^2 = -2(y^{(j)} - \theta^{\top} x^{(j)})(x^{(j)})^{\top}$$

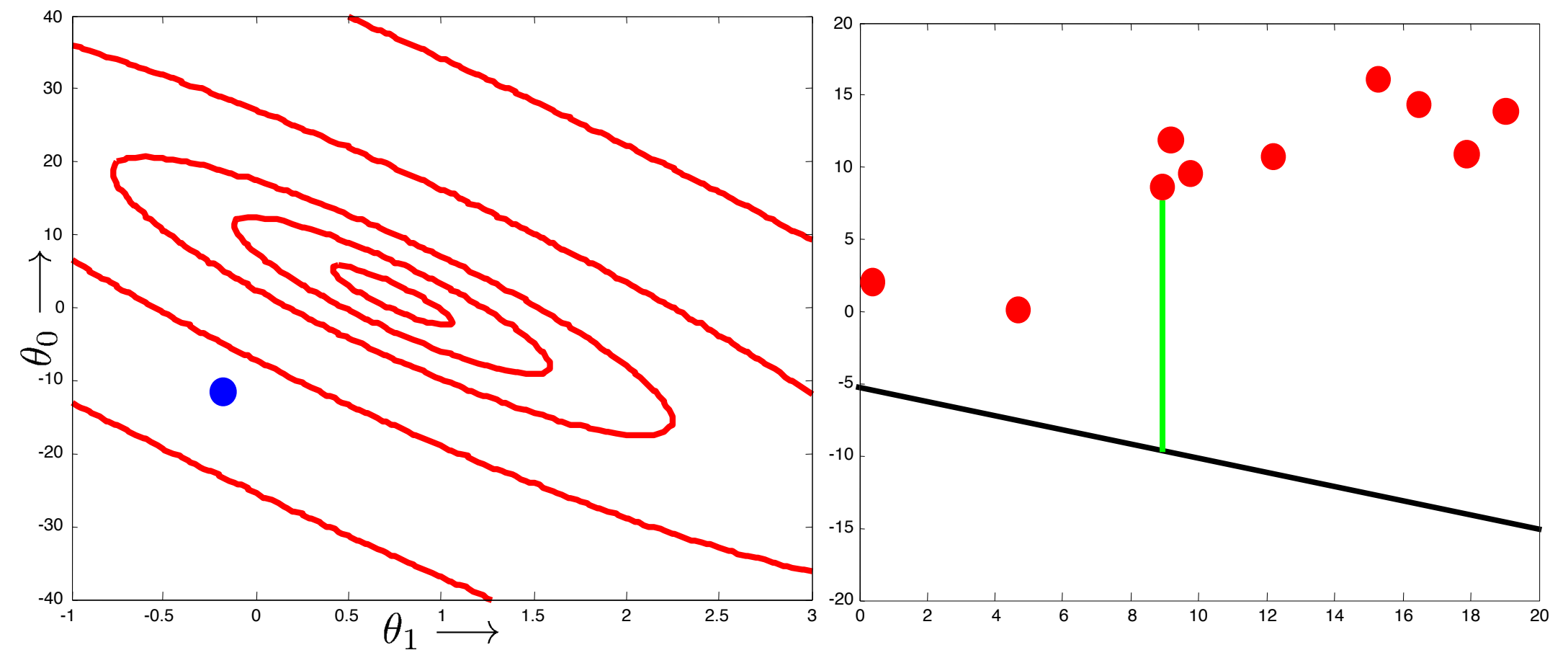
- This is an **unbiased estimator** of the gradient, i.e. in expectation

$$\mathbb{E}_{j \sim \text{Uniform}(1, \dots, m)} [\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}^{(j)}] = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}^{(j)} = \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}(\mathcal{D})$$

- $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}(\mathcal{D})$ is already a noisy unbiased estimator of true gradient $\mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim p} [\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}(x, y)]$
 - SGD is even more noisy

Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Initialize θ
- Repeat:
 - Sample $j \sim \text{Uniform}(1, \dots, m)$
 - $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}^{(j)}$
- Until some stop criterion; e.g., no average improvement in $\mathcal{L}_{\theta}^{(j)}$ for a while



Stochastic Gradient Descent

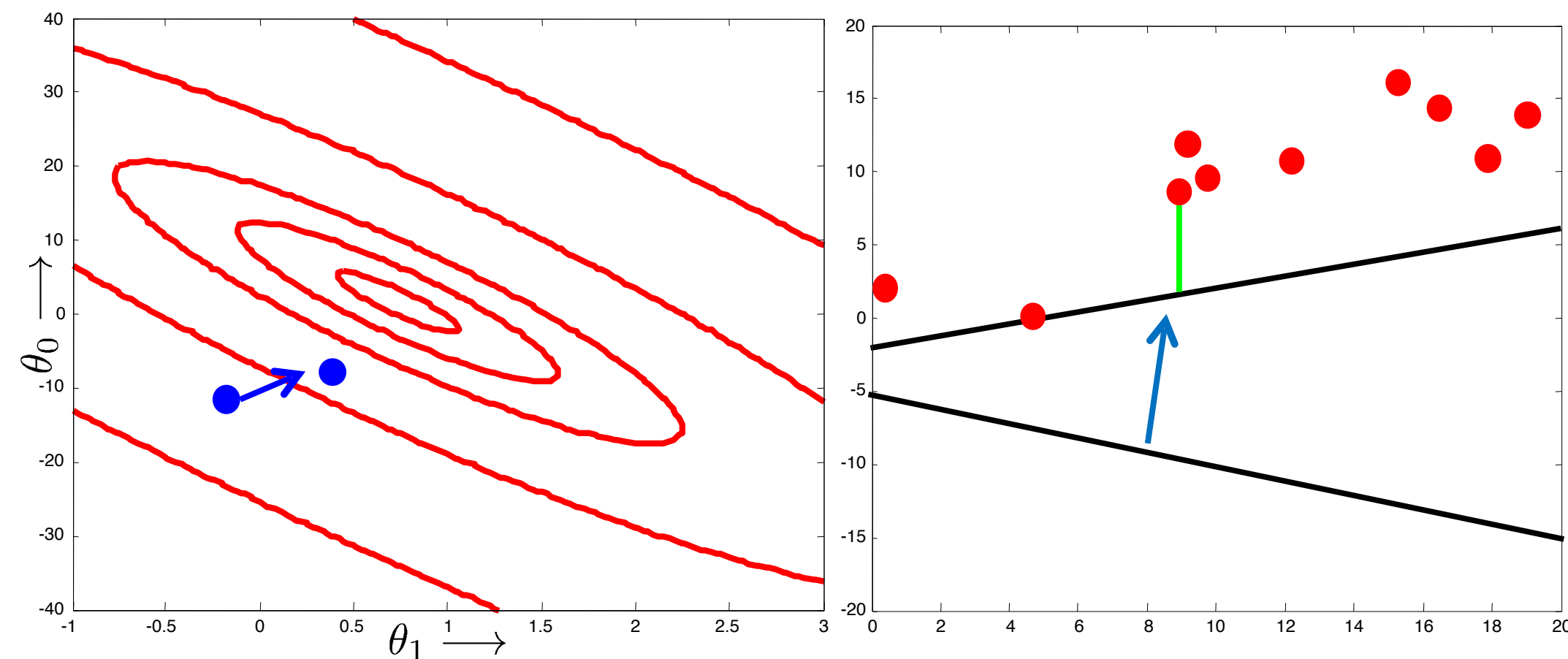
- Initialize θ

- Repeat:

- Sample $j \sim \text{Uniform}(1, \dots, m)$

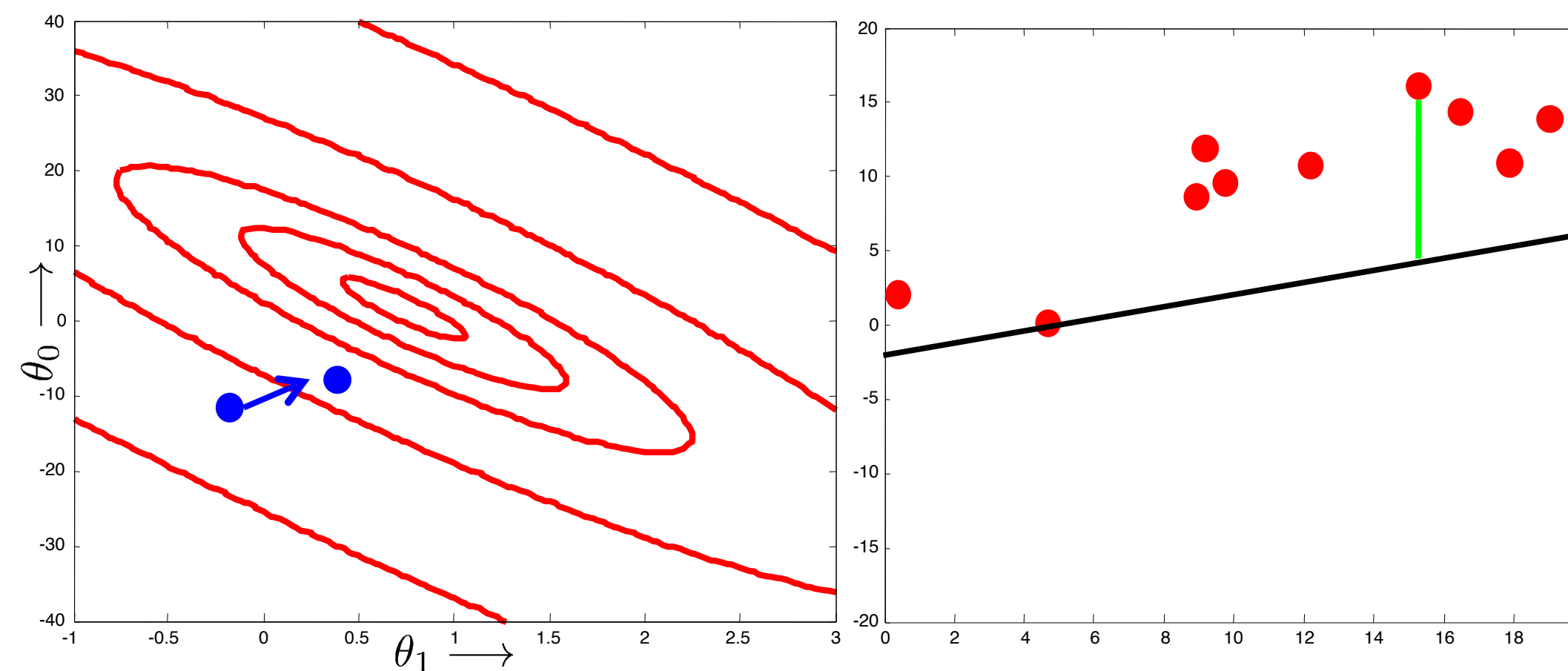
- $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}^{(j)}$

- Until some stop criterion; e.g., no average improvement in $\mathcal{L}_{\theta}^{(j)}$ for a while



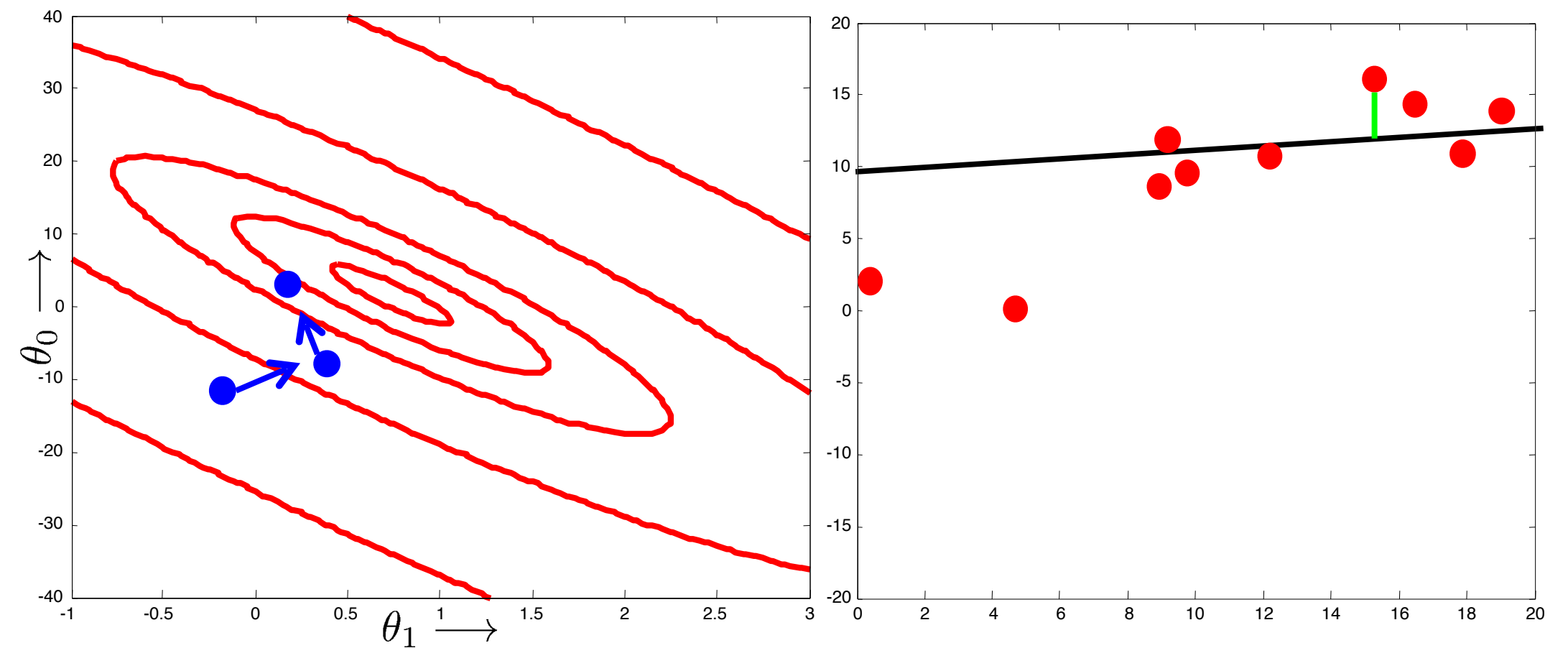
Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Initialize θ
- Repeat:
 - Sample $j \sim \text{Uniform}(1, \dots, m)$
 - $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}^{(j)}$
- Until some stop criterion; e.g., no average improvement in $\mathcal{L}_{\theta}^{(j)}$ for a while



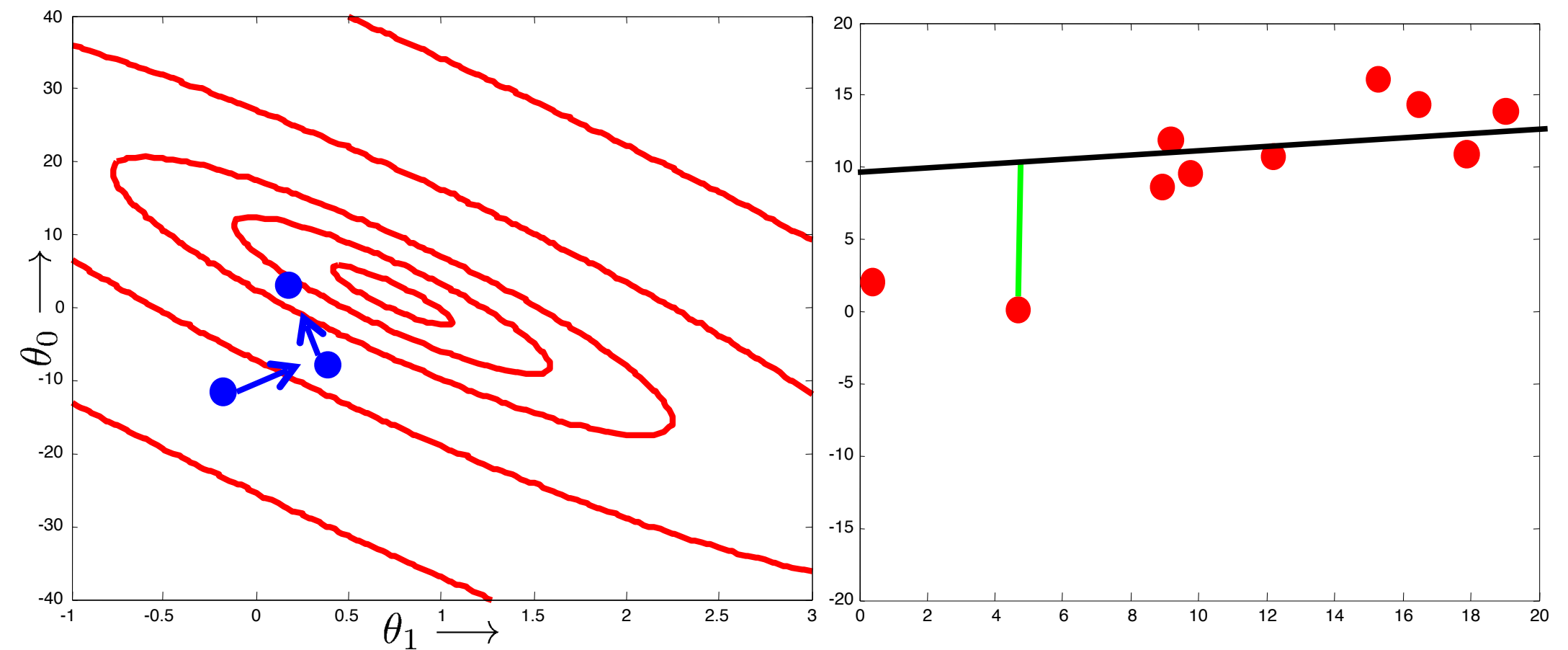
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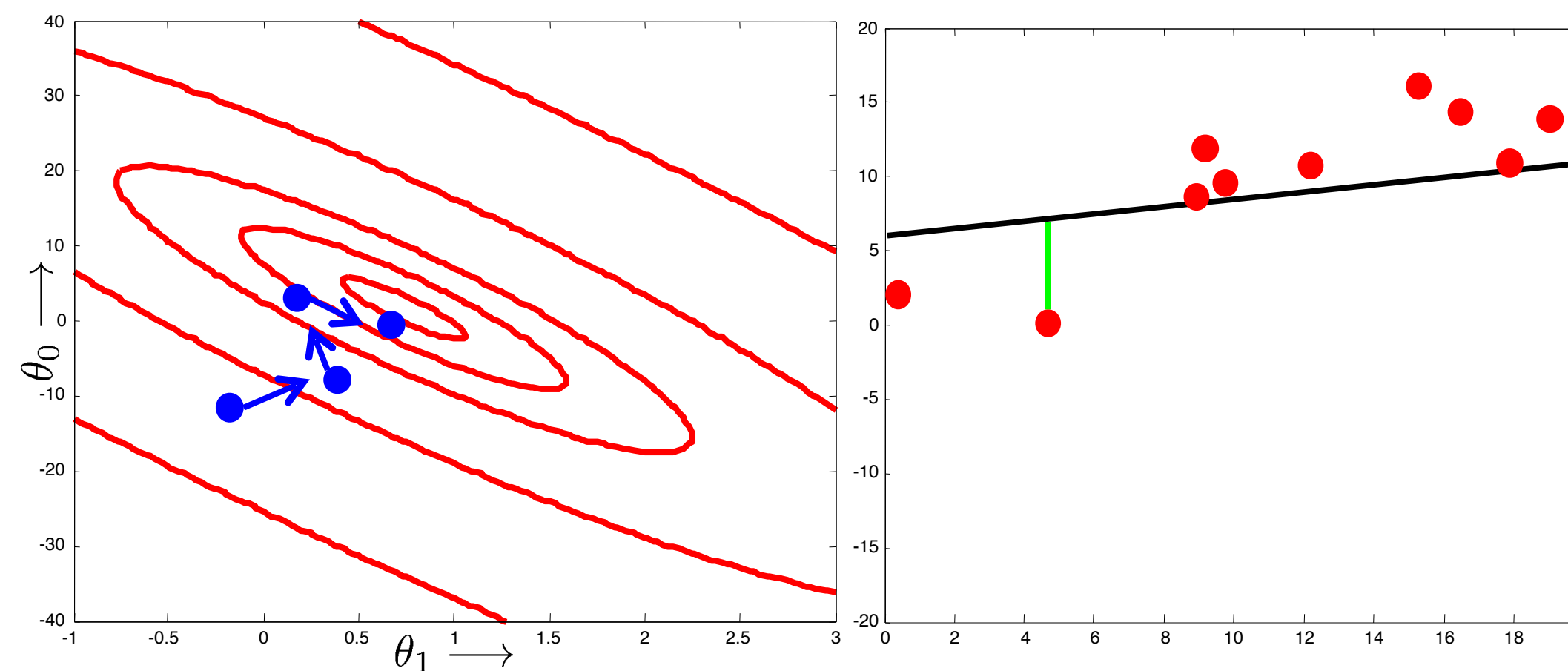
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Stochastic Gradient Descent

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- Until some stop criterion; e.g., no average improvement in $\mathcal{L}_{\theta}^{(j)}$ for a while



Stochastic Gradient Descent: considerations

- Benefits:
 - Each gradient step is faster
 - Don't wait for all data with same θ , improve θ “early and often”
 - Arguably the most important optimization algorithm nowadays
- Drawbacks:
 - May not actually descend on training loss
 - Stopping conditions may be harder to evaluate
- **Mini-batch** updates: draw $b \ll m$ data points
 - $$\text{var } \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}(\text{batch}) = \text{var} \frac{1}{b} \sum_{j \in \text{batch}} \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}^{(j)} = \frac{1}{b} \text{var } \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}(\text{point})$$
 - Variance increases the smaller the batch size
 - Generally bad, but can help overcome local minima / saddle points

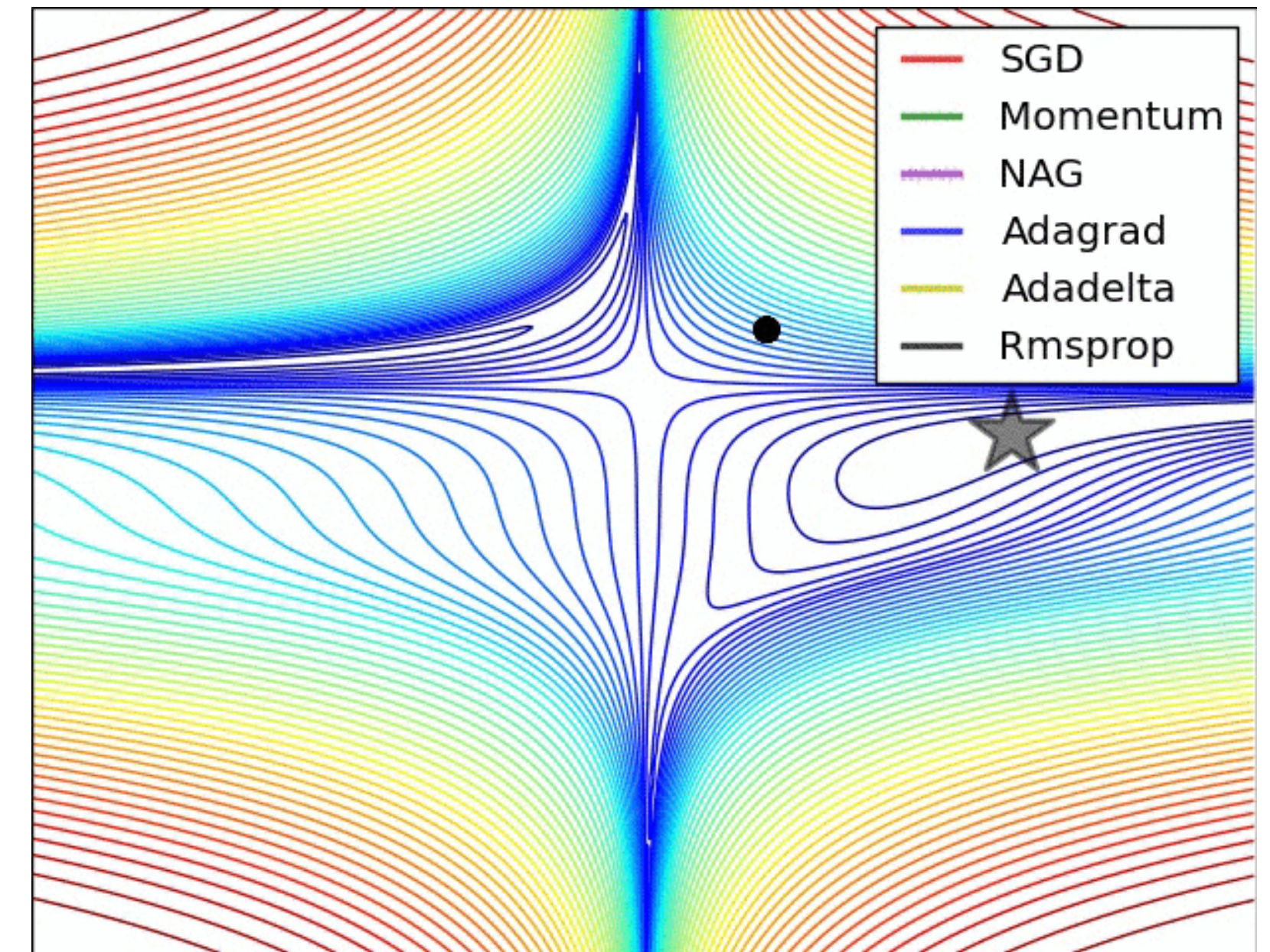
Advanced gradient-based methods

- Momentum

- ▶ Gradient is like velocity in parameter space
 - Previous gradients still carry momentum
- ▶ Smoothens SGD path
- ▶ Effectively averages gradients over steps, reduces variance

- Preconditioning

- ▶ Scale and rotate loss landscape to make it nicer
- ▶ E.g., multiply by inverse Hessian (as in Newton's method)



Logistics

assignments

- Assignment 1 due **today**
- Assignment 2 to be published soon