• For

x

Then any value between the middle two gives the same error.

• Even for constant model life is not so simple...



PROBABILISTIC MODELS

• What probabilistic model corresponds to squared error? Gaussian:

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x})^2}$$
$$\log p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{2}(y - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x})^2 + \text{const}$$
$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \sum_n \log p(y_n|\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}) \quad \text{for iid data}$$

- So minimzing squared error \equiv maximum Gaussian noise likelihood
- What probabilistic model corresponds to absolute error? Laplacian:

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = ae^{-a|y-\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x}|}$$
$$\log p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = -a|y-\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x}| + \text{const}$$

LINEAR REGRESSION

• For squared error, the problem is *linear regression*, or *ordinary least squares*, and we can get a direct solution:

$$y = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}$$
$$e = \sum_{n} (y_n - \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_n)^2$$
$$\mathbf{w}^* = (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^{\top})^{-1} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y}^{\top}$$

- X is matrix of inputs (one per column); y is output row vector.
- This is one of the most famous equations in all of linear algebra: the *discrete Weiner filter*.
- It says: take the correlation between inputs and outputs, but don't be fooled by large input-input correlations.
- Constant model corresponds to $w_0 = a, w_i = 0$.
- Predicted values are $\hat{y}_n = \mathbf{y} \mathbf{X}^\top (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^\top)^{-1} \mathbf{x}_n$.

Ordinary Least Squares

• Can we estimate the noise level? Yes. An unbiased estimate is:

$$\sigma^2 \approx \frac{1}{N-d-1} \sum_n (y_n - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x})^2$$

• What about the variance of parameters? Yes, also:

$$\operatorname{var}[\mathbf{w}] = (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top})^{-1}\sigma^2$$

• This allows us to put some crude error bars on our predictions: $p(\hat{y}|\mathbf{x})$ is Gaussian with

$$\begin{split} & \mathsf{mean}{=}\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} \\ & \mathsf{variance}{=}\mathbf{w}^{\top}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top})^{-1}\mathbf{w} + \sigma^2 \end{split}$$

Absolute Error

• What if we use absolute error with the linear model? What's the equivalent of the median estimator?

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{n} |y_n - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_n|$$

• We need to solve a *linear programming problem*:

$$\begin{split} \min \sum_n t_n \\ \text{subject to} & -t_n \leq y_n - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_n \leq t_n \end{split}$$

Multiple Outputs

- With multiple outputs, we can just treat each one separately.
- Amazingly, this is true even if the output noise is correlated.
- However, if the output noises are correlated *and* the noise changes from case to case, then the solutions are coupled.

REGULARIZATION

- What? You thought the linear model was simple enough that we don't need to regularlize it? Everything needs regularization!
- \bullet Example: you have fewer training cases than input dimensions. Now $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top}$ will not be invertible.
- Example: certain input dimensions are useless (on average) at predicting the output. But because of noise or small samples, you can always reduce the training error a tiny bit by putting huge weights on these dimensions. At test time you get killed.
- Two common solutions:
 - input subset selection
- parameter shrinkage

SUBSET SELECTION

- Use only a few x_i as inputs, discard the rest. Advantages: introduces inductive bias, produces small models. Disadvantage: high variability because of binary choices.
- Forward stepwise selection: start with constant and iteratively add the single x_i which most decreases error.
- Backward stepwise selection: start with constant and iteratively add the single x_i which most decreases error.
- Leaps-and-Bounds: Furnival and Wilson (74) came up with a very clever branch-and-bound trick for efficiently trying *all possible* subsets. Works for up to \approx 40 variables.
- Choose subset size with cross validation or F-statistic tests.

Lasso

• Shrinkage has less variance but doesn't give small models. Can we get the best of both worlds?

• Lasso: squared error with absolute weight penalty.

$$e = \sum_{n} (y_n - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x})^2 + \lambda \sum_{i} |w_i|$$

- Requires quadratic programming to solve, but still unique optimum.
- Cool thing happens: may coefficients go exactly to zero.

Shrinkage

- Idea: pull ("shrink") estimated parameters towards some fixed values that do not depend on the data. (Whoa....)
- Usually we shrink towards zero.
- Thus: penalize coefficients based on their size.
- For a penalty which is the sum of the squares of the weights, this is known as "weight decay" or "ridge regression":

$$y = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}$$

$$e = \sum_{n} (y_n - \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x})^2 + \lambda \sum_{i} w_i^2$$

$$\mathbf{w}^* = (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^{\top} + \lambda I)^{-1} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y}^{\top}$$

where \boldsymbol{I} is the identity matrix.

RIDGE REGRESSION

- Same trick as when we were training Gaussian classifiers.
- \bullet Set λ with cross-validation.
- \bullet There is a trick which lets you compute the leave-one-out error very efficiently without refitting N times.
- Warning: ridge regression is *not* invariant to input rescaling. Often we want to "whiten/sphere" inputs first (i.e. rescale them so their sample covariance is a multiple of the identity matrix).



BEYOND LINEAR REGRESSION

- We can augment the inputs, not just with a constant to get a bias term, but with lots of other things.
- If we decide beforehand on how to augment the input, this is still linear regression:

$$y = \sum_{j} w_{j} h_{j}(\mathbf{x})$$

- For linear regression, just use $h_0 = 1, h_j = x_j$.
- Optimal weights are still easy to find:

$$e = \sum_{n} (y_n - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}))^2$$
$$\mathbf{w}^* = (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^\top)^{-1}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{y}^\top$$

where h(x) is a vector of basis function outputs and H is a matrix with columns $h(x_n)$.

GENERALIZED LINEAR MODELS

- Any fixed, generalized basis set that depends on the inputs can be used to make a *generalized linear model*.
- Elements of basis are called *dictionary functions*.
- Examples include splines, radial basis functions, wavelets, etc.
- Common things to add: quadratic or other polynomial terms, sinusoidal terms, exponentials, square roots, logarithms, etc.
- Terms can depend on more than one input e.g.
- $h_j(\mathbf{x}) = x_2 x_8 x_9$ $h_j(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2$
- $h_j(\mathbf{x}) = [a \le x_i \le b][c \le x_j \le d]$
- These models can also be use for classification: as inputs to logistic/softmax regression, as a space for Fisher disciminants/Gaussians class-conditionals, KNN, etc.
- This is the "kernel" idea, which I hope to get to later!

Splines

• You can construct a special basis set that gives piecewise constant functions between pre-specified split points ("knots") a_i :

 $h_1 = (x-a_1)_+$ $h_2 = (x-a_2)_+ \dots h_k = (x-a_k)_+$ $h_{k+1} = x$ $h_{k+2} = 1$ where $(x - a_i)_+$ is the positive part of $(x - a_i)$.

 \bullet To enforce continuity up to the $(r-1)^{st}$ derivative, use

$$h_1 = (x - a_1)_+^r \dots h_k = (x - a_k)_+^r \quad h_{k+1} = x^r \dots h_{k+r+1} = 1$$

- Most common: *cubic splines*, corresponding to r = 3.
- Can also enforce linearity beyond edges: natural cubic spline.



RADIAL BASIS FUNCTIONS

• One way to generate a nice automatic basis is to place a dictionary element on each input datapoint, whose value depends on the distance of the input from the point it is on top of:

$$h_n(\mathbf{x}) = \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_n\|^2\right]$$

• Tricky part is setting σ^2 .



NEURAL NETWORKS

• Another generalized linear model, this time with the basis set:

$$h_j = g\left(\sum_i w_{ij} x_i\right)$$

with $g() \ {\rm a} \ \ {\rm "squashing"} \ {\rm function} \ {\rm with} \ {\rm limited} \ {\rm outputs}, \ {\rm e.g.}$

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$
 $g(z) = \tanh(z)$

• The outputs h_j are known as the "hidden layer".



Multivariate Adaptive Regression Splines (MARS)

• Piecewise constant 1D splines with knots at each data point value in each dimension. Also the "reflected pairs".

 $h_{ni}(\mathbf{x}) = (x_i - x_{ni})_+$ $h_{2ni}(\mathbf{x}) = (x_{ni} - x_i)_+$

• Now use forward stepwise regression, chosing from these basic elements *and* any product between them and an existing dictionary element.

• Then do backwards deletion.

• Another Stanford masterpiece. (What's in the water in Palo Alto?)

REGULARIZATION: LEARNING THE BASIS

- In all the examples above, the basis functions were fixed.
- Ideally, we'd like to adjust the basis set also. E.g. where are the knots for splines, the centres for RBF's, what are the input-to-hidden weights for neural networks?
- Three strategies: shrinkage, subset, adaptive.
- Shrinkage: of course, we can also do *ridge regression* on these generalized basis sets, by penalizing the coefficients. For splines, this technique gives *smoothing splines*.
- We can also start with a huge dictionary and try to pick a few elements. This is *subset selection* from a broader choice set.
- Lastly, we can have a fixed number of *adaptive* elements. Next lecture we can see how to do this, for certain error functions, using *gradient descent*. But the solutions are no longer optimal.

Things I won't cover

- Regression trees (very similar to MARS but worse).
- Partial Least Squares
- Empirical Bayes (ML-II) Automatic Relevance Determination (ARD)
- Canonical Correlation Analysis