CPSC 340: Machine Learning and Data Mining

Nonlinear Regression

"One of the most surprising and important stories of our time." -Ashlee Vance, author of $Elon\ Musk$

Genius Makers



The Mavericks Who Brought AI to Google, Facebook, and the World

CADE METZ

Last Time: Linear Regression

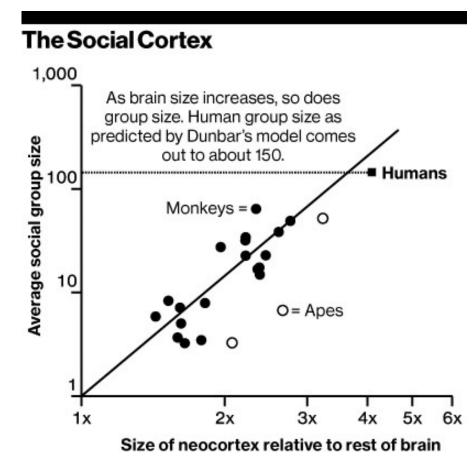
We discussed linear models:

- "Multiply feature x_{ij} by weight w_j , add them to get y_i ".
- We discussed squared error function:

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{a} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w^{T}x_{i} - y_{i})^{2}$$
Predicted value

Predicted value

- Minimize 'f' by equating gradient of 'f' with zero.
- Interactive demo:
 - http://setosa.io/ev/ordinary-least-squares-regression



DATA: THE SOCIAL BRAIN HYPOTHESIS, DUNBAR 1998

To predict on test case
$$\hat{x}_i$$

use $\hat{y}_i = w \hat{x}_i$

Matrix/Norm Notation (MEMORIZE/STUDY THIS)

- Parts 1&2: we used lists (not vectors): e.g. x_i was a 1D list of length d
- From now on: we use vectors, and typically assume that vectors are column-vectors
 - We use 'w' as a "d times 1" vector containing weight 'w_i' in position 'j'.
 - We use 'y' as an "n times 1" vector containing target 'y_i' in position 'i'.
 - We use 'x_i' as a "d times 1" vector containing features 'j' of example 'i'.
 - We're now going to be careful to make sure these are column vectors.
 - So 'X' is a matrix with x_i^T in row 'i'. (note the latter x is lowercase: it is not the ith row of X)
- Recommended: Course Notation Guide (on website)

$$w = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_k \end{bmatrix} \qquad y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix} \qquad \chi_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \chi_{11} \\ \chi_{12} \\ \vdots \\ \chi_{n1} \\ \chi_{n2} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \chi_2 = \begin{bmatrix} \chi_{11} \\ \chi_{21} \\ \chi_{22} \\ \vdots \\ \chi_{n1} \\ \chi_{n2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \chi_1^7 \\ \chi_2^7 \\ \vdots \\ \chi_{n1} \\ \chi_{n2} \end{bmatrix}$$

lowercase x's

Matrix/Norm Notation (MEMORIZE/STUDY THIS)

- We showed how to express various quantities in matrix notation:
 - Linear regression prediction for one example: $\hat{y}_i = w^T x_i$
 - Linear regression prediction for all 'n' examples: $\sqrt[\Lambda]{-}\chi_{W}$
 - Linear regression residual vector: $r = \chi_w \chi_w$
 - Sum of residuals squared in linear regression model:

$$f(w) = \sum_{j=1}^{2} (\sum_{j=1}^{d} w_j x_{ij} - y_i)^2 = \|X_w - y\|^2$$

- Today: derive gradient and least squares solution in matrix notation.

Digression: Matrix Algebra Review

- Quick review of linear algebra operations we'll use:
 - If 'a' and 'b' are vectors, and 'A' and 'B' are matrices then:

$$a^{T}b = b^{T}a$$

$$||a||^{2} = a^{T}a$$

$$(A+B)^{T} = A^{T} + B^{T}$$

$$(AB)^{T} = B^{T}A^{T}$$

$$(A+B)(A+B) = AA + BA + AB + BB$$

$$a^{T}Ab = b^{T}A^{T}a$$

$$vector \qquad vector$$

Sanity check:

ALWAYS CHECK THAT

DIMENSIONS MATCH

(if not, you did something wrong)

Linear and Quadratic Gradients

From these rules we have

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{2} (w^{T}x_{i} - y_{i})^{2} = \frac{1}{2} || \chi_{w} - y ||^{2} = \frac{1}{2} w^{T} \chi^{T} \chi_{w} - w^{T} \chi^{T} \chi_{w} + \frac{1}{2} y^{T} \chi_{w}$$
see post-lecture slide for black-to-blue steps
$$= \frac{1}{2} w^{T} A w + w^{T} b + c$$
These are scalars so dimensions match.

How do we compute gradient?

Let's first do it with d=1:

 $f(n) = \frac{1}{2}waw + wb + c$

f'(w) = aw + b+0

 $= \frac{1}{2} a w^2 + wb + c$

-> Here are the generalizations to '1' dimensions:

are on webpaye in $\nabla[c] = 0$ (zero vector) 7[w76] = 6 lineur and MEDWAW = Aw (if A is symm quadratic

Linear and Quadratic Gradients

• From these rules we have (see post-lecture slide for steps):

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{2} (w^{T}x_{i} - y_{i})^{2} = \frac{1}{2} || x_{w} - y ||^{2} = \frac{1}{2} w^{T} x^{T} x_{w} - w^{T} x^{T} y + \frac{1}{2} y^{T} y$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} w^{T} A w + w^{T} b + c$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} w^{T} A w + w^{T} b + c$$

Gradient is given by:

$$\nabla f(w) = Aw + b + D$$

Using definitions of 'A' and 'b': = X^TXw - X^Ty
 Sanity check: all dimensions match (dxn) (nxd) (dxl) - (dxn) (nxl)

Normal Equations for Least Squares Solution

Set gradient equal to zero to find the "critical" points:

$$\chi^{7}\chi_{w}-\chi^{7}\gamma=0$$

• We now move terms not involving 'w' to the other side:

$$\chi^7 \chi_w = \chi^7 \gamma$$

From last time

For linear least squares we have:

$$\nabla f(w) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_i} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_2} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_d} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{g}{g} & (\frac{g}{g} w_i x_{ij} - y_i) x_{i1} \\ \frac{g}{g} & (\frac{g}{g} w_i x_{ij} - y_i) x_{i2} \\ \frac{g}{g} & (\frac{g}{g} w_i x_{ij} - y_i) x_{id} \end{pmatrix}$$

Normal Equations for Least Squares Solution

Set gradient equal to zero to find the "critical" points:

$$\chi^{7}\chi_{w}-\chi^{7}\gamma=0$$

• We now move terms not involving 'w' to the other side:

$$\chi^7 \chi_w = \chi^7 \gamma$$

Virtually only ML alg where you just get the optimal w (and with one line of code!)

- This is a set of 'd' linear equations called the normal equations.
 - This a linear system like "Ax = b" from Math 152 (A is X^TX , x is w confusingly)

In linear algebra, the variables you adjust are x (in ML, w)

• You can use Gaussian elimination to solve for 'w'.

In Python: numpy.linalg.solve

— In Julia, the "\" command can be used to solve linear systems:

Train:
$$w = (X|X) \setminus (X|y)$$

Incorrect Solutions to Least Squares Problem

The least squares objective is
$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2} ||X_w - y||^2$$

The minimizers of this objective are solutions to the linear system:

 $X^T X w = X^7 y$

The following are not the solutions to the least squares problem:

 $w = (x^7 x)^T (x^7 y)$ (only true if $X^T X$ is invertible) we'll talk about when this is true later

 $w = (x^7 x)^T (x^7 y)$ (matrix multiplication is not commutative, dimensions don't even match)

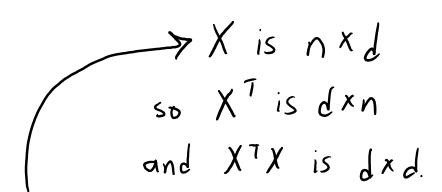
 $w = \frac{X^7 y}{x^7 x}$ (you cannot divide by a matrix)

Least Squares Cost

- Cost of solving "normal equations" $X^TXw = X^Ty$?
- Forming X^Ty vector costs O(nd).
 - It has 'd' elements, and each is an inner product between 'n' numbers.
- Forming matrix X^TX costs O(nd²).
 - It has d² elements, and each is an inner product between 'n' numbers.
- Solving a d x d system of equations costs $O(d^3)$.
 - Cost of Gaussian elimination on a d-variable linear system.
 - Other standard methods have the same cost.
- Overall cost is O(nd² + d³).
 - Which term dominates depends on 'n' and 'd'.

Least Squares Issues

- Issues with least squares model:
 - Solution might not be unique.
 - It is sensitive to outliers.
 - It always uses all features.
 - Data might so big we cannot store X^TX.
 - requires O(d²), which is bad (e.g. for 10 million features)
 - Or you cannot afford the $O(nd^2 + d^3)$ cost.
 - It might predict outside range of y_i values.
 - For some applications, only positive y_i values are valid.
 - It assumes a linear relationship between x_i and y_i .



Non-Uniqueness of Least Squares Solution

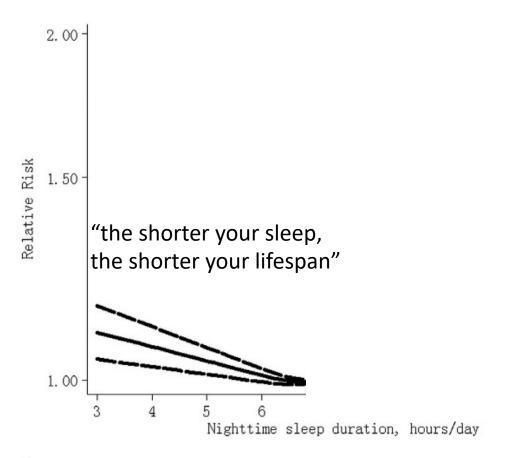
- Why is the solution vector 'w' not unique?
 - Imagine having two features that are identical for all examples.
 - I can increase weight on one feature, and decrease it on the other,

without changing predictions.
$$\gamma_{i} = w_{1} \chi_{i1} + w_{2} \chi_{i1} = (w_{1} + w_{2}) \chi_{i1} + 0 \chi_{i1}$$

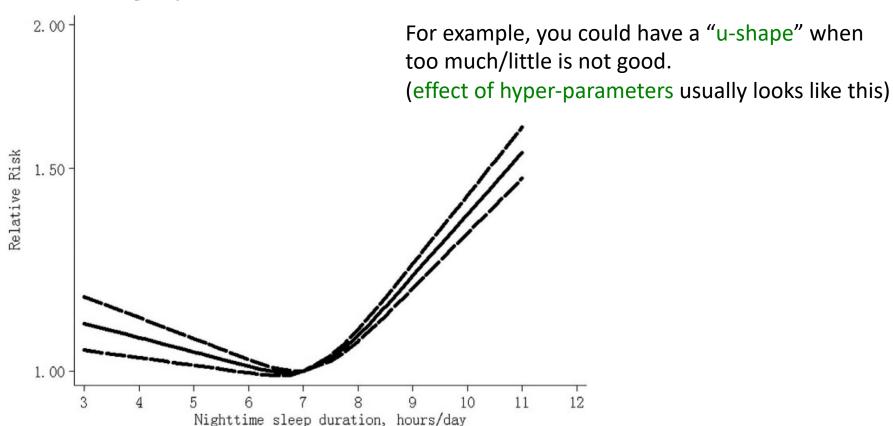
- In this setting, if (w_1, w_2) is a solution then $(w_1+w_2, 0)$ is another solution.
- This is special case of features being "collinear":
 - One feature is a linear function of the others.
- But, any 'w' where ∇ f(w) = 0 is a global minimizer of 'f'.
 - This is due to convexity of 'f', which we will discuss later.

Next Topic: Non-Linear Regression

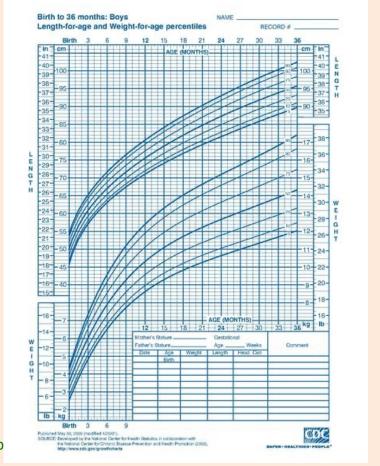
Many relationships are approximated well by linear function.



- Many relationships are approximated well by linear function.
 - But many are also highly non-linear.

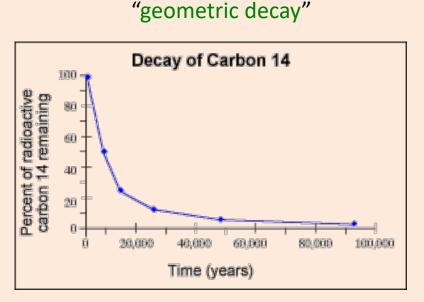


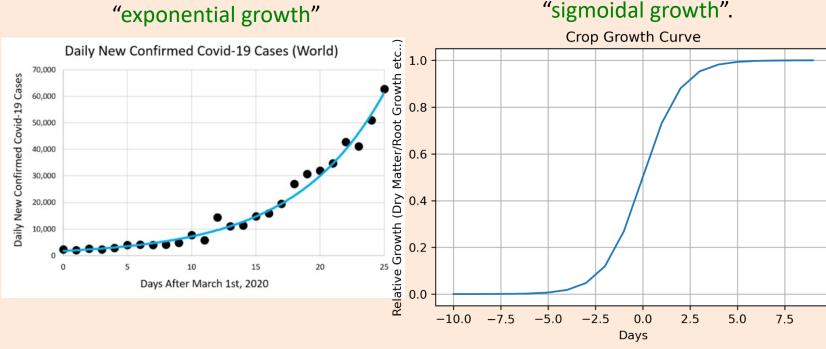
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Slope could slowly change or reach asymptote.

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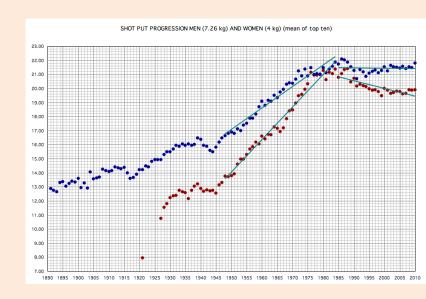




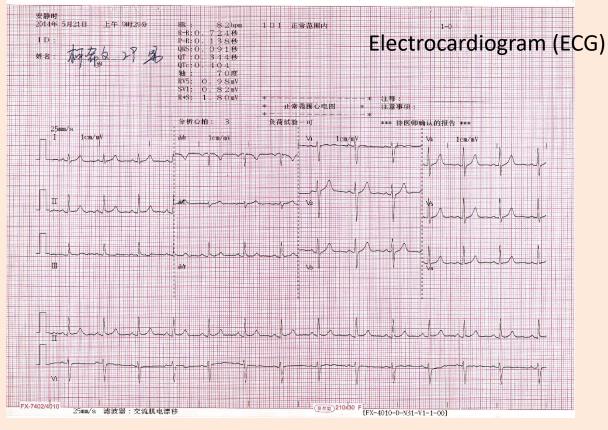
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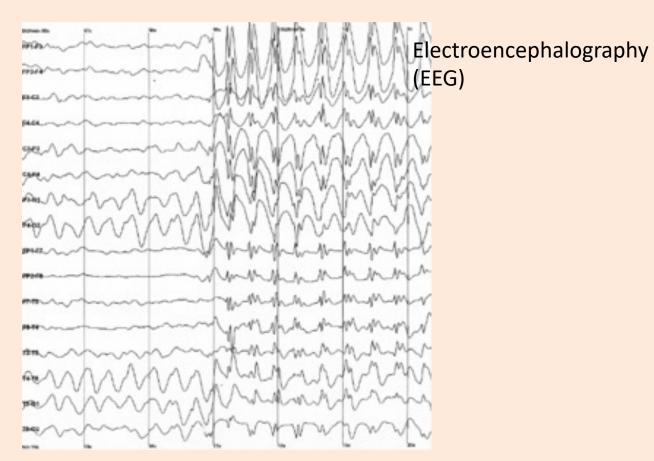
"Piecewise linear": different pieces follow different linear functions. (or be linear up to asymptote or phase transition)





- Many relationships are approximated well by linear function.
 - But many are also highly non-linear. "Periodic" signals.

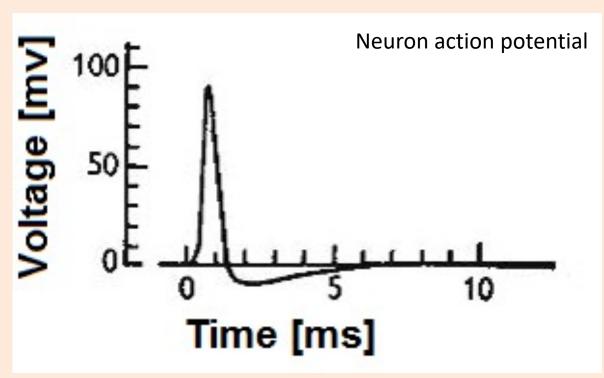


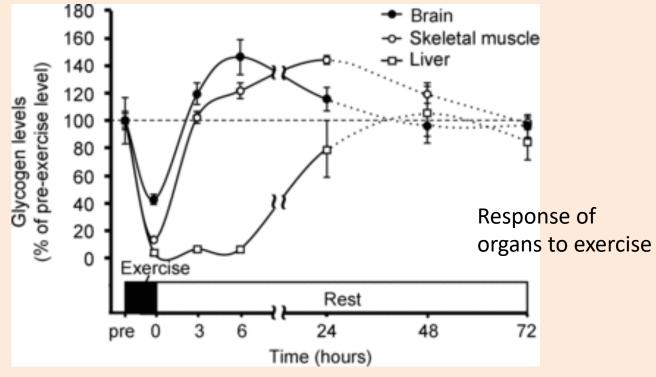


https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Electrocardiography#/media/File:Normal_12_lead_EKG.jpg

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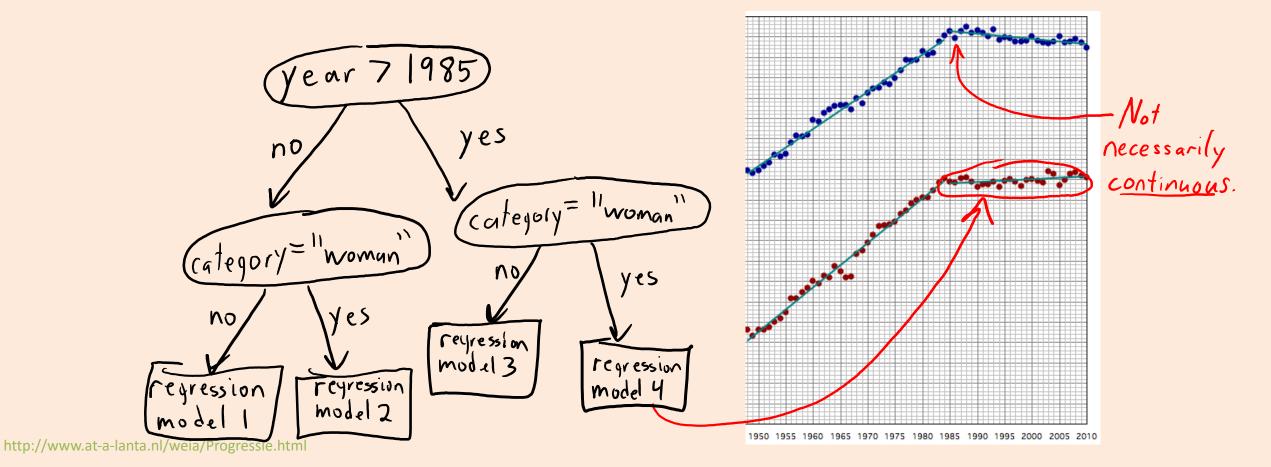
"Spike then recover"



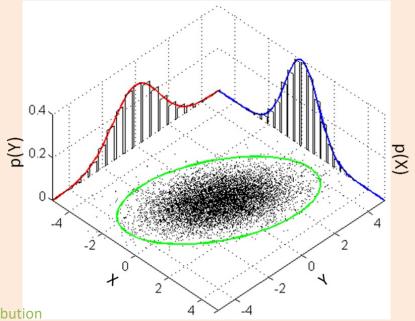


Can adapt classification methods to perform non-linear regression:

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 - Regression tree: tree with mean value or linear regression at leaves.

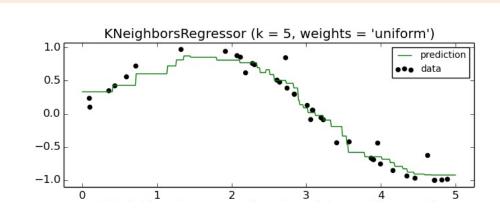


- Can adapt classification methods to perform non-linear regression:
 - Regression tree: tree with mean value or linear regression at leaves.
 - Probabilistic models: fit $p(x_i | y_i)$ and $p(y_i)$ with Gaussian or other model.
 - Take CPSC 440.

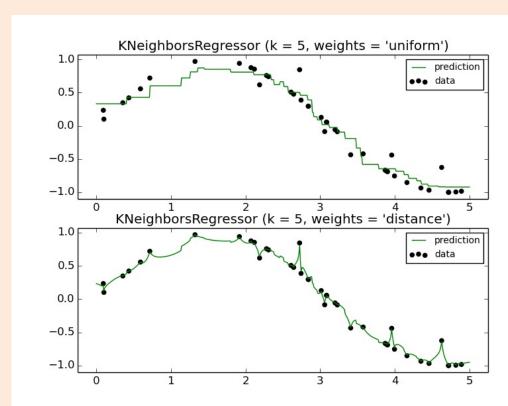


https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Multivariate normal distribution

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 - Probabilistic models: fit $p(x_i | y_i)$ and $p(y_i)$ with Gaussian or other model.
 - Non-parametric models:
 - KNN regression:
 - Find 'k' nearest neighbours of χ_i .
 - Return the mean of the corresponding y_i.

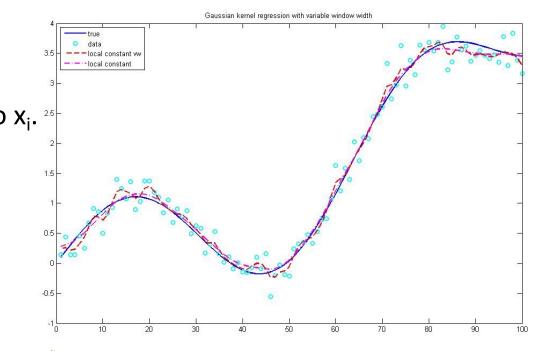


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 - KNN regression.
 - Could be weighted by distance.
 - Close points 'j' get more "weight" w_{ii}.



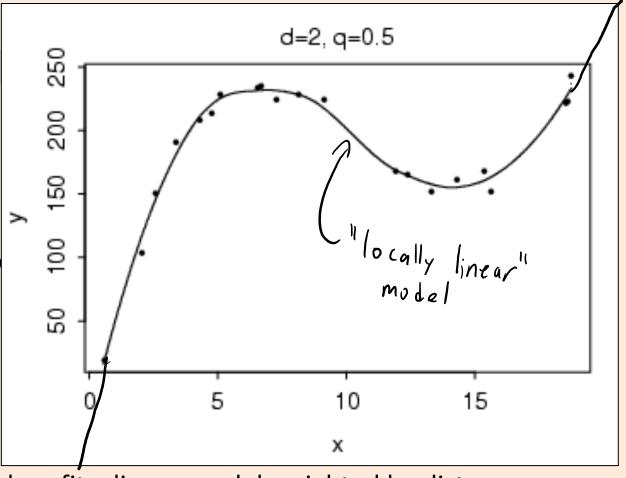
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 - 'Nadaraya-Watson': weight all y_i by distance to x_i. 25

$$\hat{y}_{i} = \underbrace{\frac{2}{2}}_{j=1} \frac{v_{ij}y_{j}}{\frac{2}{N}}$$



Adapting Counting/

- Can adapt classification meth
 - Regression tree: tree with mea >
 - Probabilistic models: fit $p(x_i | y)$
 - Non-parametric models:
 - KNN regression.
 - Could be weighted by distance.
 - 'Nadaraya-Watson': weight all y_i
 - 'Locally linear regression': for each x_i , fit a linear model weighted by distance. (Better than KNN and NW at boundaries.)

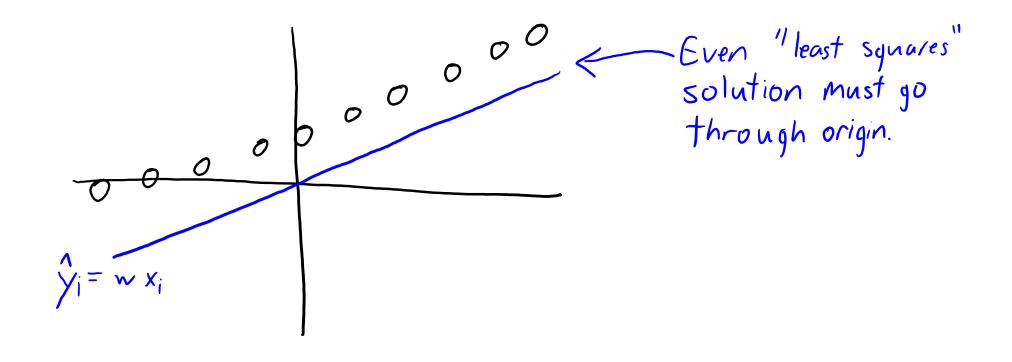


- Can adapt classification methods to perform non-linear regression:
 - Regression tree: tree with mean value or linear regression at leaves.
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 - 'Nadaraya-Watson': weight all y_i by distance to x_i.
 - 'Locally linear regression': for each x_i , fit a linear model weighted by distance. (Better than KNN and NW at boundaries.)
 - Ensemble methods:
 - Can improve performance by averaging predictions across regression models.

- Applications of non-linear regression (we will see many more):
 - Regression forests for <u>fluid simulation</u>:
 - KNN for <u>image completion</u>:
 - Combined with "graph cuts" and "Poisson blending".
 - See also "PatchMatch".
 - KNN regression for "voice photoshop":
 - Combined with "dynamic time warping" and "Poisson blending".
- We will first focus on linear models with non-linear transforms.
 - These are the building blocks for more advanced methods.

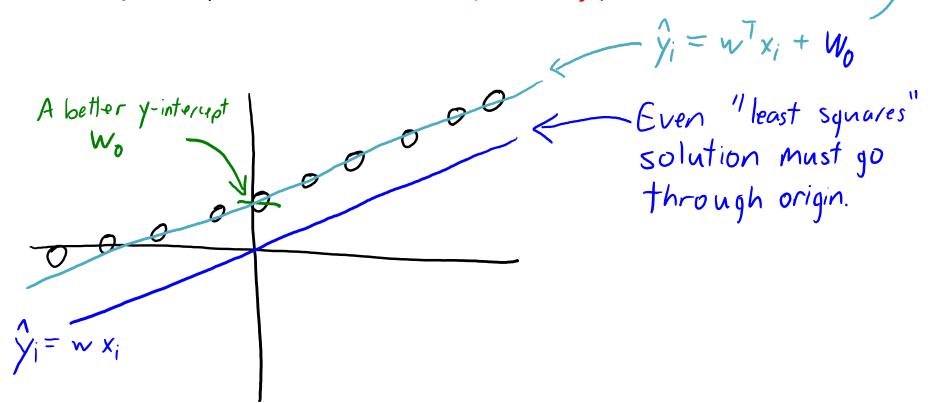
Why don't we have a y-intercept?

- Linear model is $\hat{y}_i = wx_i$ instead of $\hat{y}_i = wx_i + w_0$ with y-intercept w_0 .
- Without an intercept, if $x_i = 0$ then we must predict $\hat{y}_i = 0$.



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Adding

Adding a Y-Intercept ("Bias") Variable

- Simple trick to add a y-intercept ("bias") variable:
 - Make a new matrix "Z" with an extra feature that is always "1".

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} -0.1 \\ 0.3 \\ 0.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} -0.1 \\ 0.3 \\ 0.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Z = \begin{bmatrix} -0.1 \\ 0.3 \\ 0.2 \end{bmatrix}$$
"always!" X

- Now use "Z" as your features in linear regression.
 - We will use 'v' instead of 'w' as regression weights when we use features 'Z'.

$$y_{i} = v_{i} z_{i1} + v_{i2} z_{i2} = w_{0} + w_{1} x_{i1}$$

- So we can have a non-zero y-intercept by changing features.
 - This means we can ignore the y-intercept to make cleaner derivations/code.

Motivation: Limitations of Linear Models

• On many datasets, y_i is not a linear function of x_i .

A quadratic function would be a better fit for this dataset.

Non-Linear Feature Transforms

Can we use linear least squares to fit a quadratic model?

$$\hat{y}_{i} = w_{0} + w_{1}x_{1} + w_{2}x_{1}^{2}$$

- Notice that this is a non-linear function of x_i but a linear function of 'w'.
- So you can implement this by changing the features:

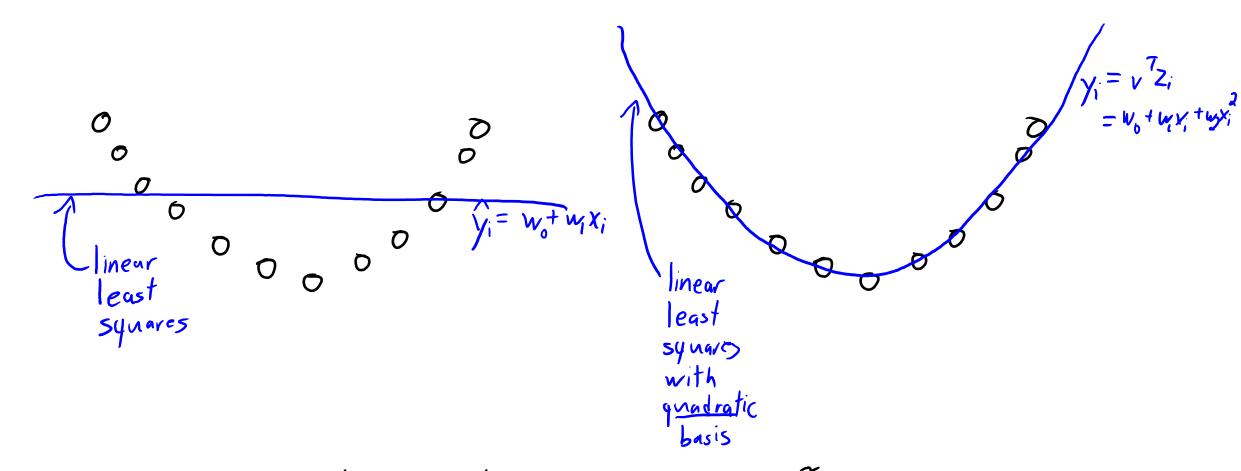
$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 6.2 \\ -0.5 \\ 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad Z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.2 & (0.2)^{2} \\ 1 & -0.5 & (-0.5)^{2} \\ 1 & 1 & (1)^{2} \\ 1 & 4 & (4)^{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Y = \inf_{x \to \infty} X = \frac{1}{x^{2}}$$

- Fit new parameters 'v' under "change of basis": solve $Z^TZv = Z^Ty$.
- It's a linear function of w, but a quadratic function of x_i . $y_i = v_1 z_1 = v_1 z_{i1} + v_2 z_{i2} + v_3 z_{i3}$ $v_0 = v_1 z_1 + v_2 z_{i2} + v_3 z_{i3}$

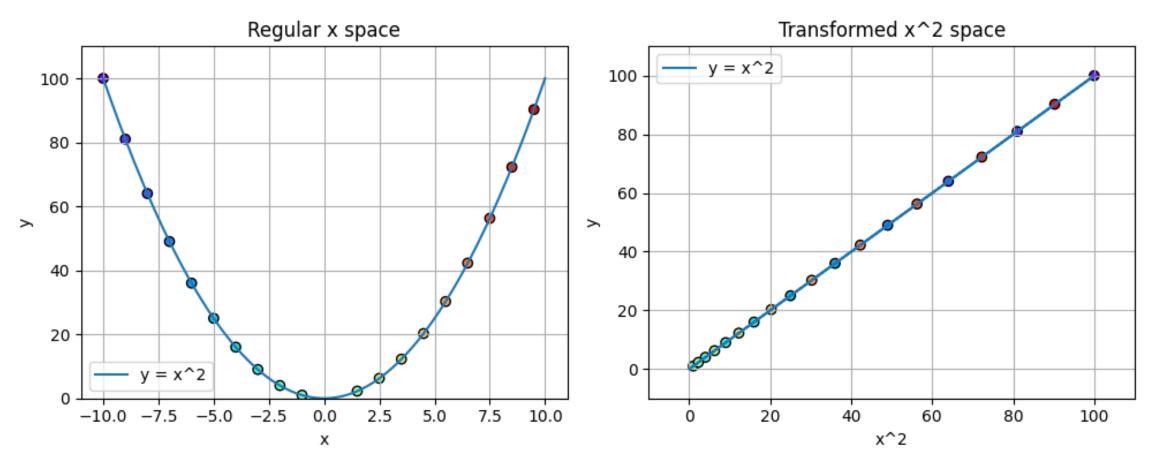
$$y_{i} = \sqrt{2}_{i} = \sqrt{2}_{i1} + \sqrt{2}_{i2} + \sqrt{2}_{i2} + \sqrt{2}_{i3}$$

Non-Linear Feature Transforms



To predict on new data \$\tilde{\chi}_{2}\$ form \$\tilde{\chi}\$ from \$\tilde{\chi}\$ and take \$y=\tilde{\chi} \chi\$

Non-Linear Feature Transforms



• It's a linear function of w, but a quadratic function of x_i.

$$\hat{y}_{i} = V^{T}Z_{i} = V_{1}Z_{i1} + V_{2}Z_{i2} + V_{3}Z_{i3}$$

Non-Linear Feature Transforms

To predict on new data X, form Z from X and take y=Zv

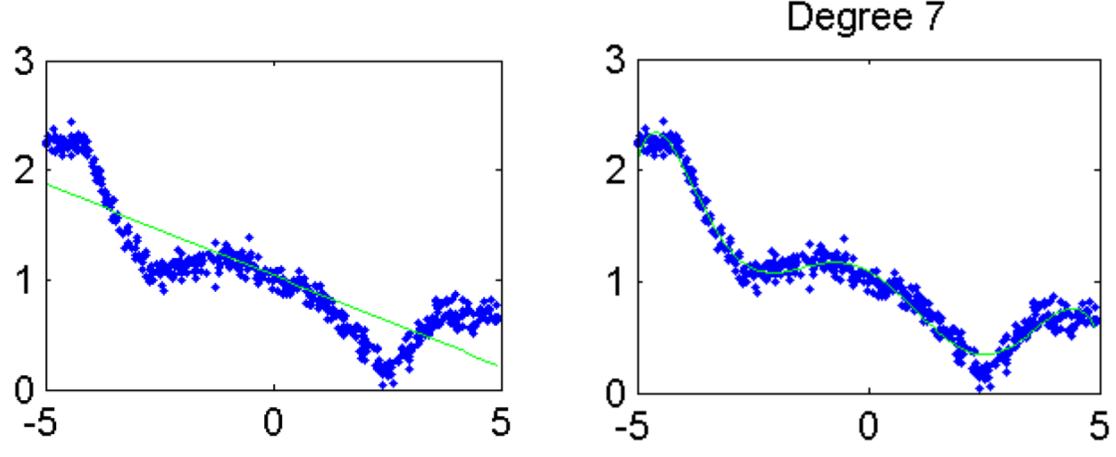
General Polynomial Features (d=1)

We can have a polynomial of degree 'p' by using these features:

$$Z = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1} & (x_{1})^{2} & \dots & (x_{n})^{p} \\ x_{2} & (x_{2})^{2} & \dots & (x_{n})^{p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_{n} & (x_{n})^{2} & \dots & (x_{n})^{p} \end{bmatrix}$$

- There are polynomial basis functions that are numerically nicer:
 - Such as Lagrange polynomials (see CPSC 303).

General Polynomial Features



- If you have more than one feature, you can include interactions:
 - With p=2, in addition to $(x_{i1})^2$ and $(x_{i2})^2$ you could include $x_{i1}x_{i2}$.

"Change of Basis" Terminology

- Instead of "nonlinear feature transform", in machine learning it is common to use the expression "change of basis".
 - The z_i are the "coordinates in the new basis" of the training example.

- "Change of basis" means something different in math:
 - Math: basis vectors must be linearly independent (in ML we don't care).
 - Math: change of basis must span the same space (in ML we change space).
- Unfortunately, saying "change of basis" in ML is common.
 - When I say "change of basis", just think "nonlinear feature transform".

Linear Basis vs. Nonlinear Basis

Usual linear Regression Train: - Vse' X'and 'y' to Find 'w'

Test:
- Use X and w to Find 3

Linear regression with change of basis

Traini

- Use 'X' to find 'Z'
- Use 'Z' and 'y' to find 'v'

Test:
- Vse 12 to find 12'
- Vse 2 and 11' to find 9

Change of Basis Notation (MEMORIZE)

- Linear regression with original features:
 - We use 'X' as our "n by d" data matrix, and 'w' as our parameters.
 - We can find d-dimensional 'w' by minimizing the squared error:

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \| \chi_w - \gamma \|^2$$

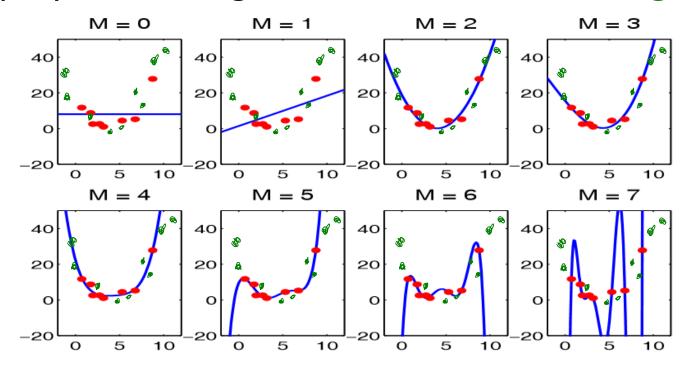
- Linear regression with nonlinear feature transforms:
 - We use 'Z' as our "n by k" data matrix, and 'v' as our parameters.
 - We can find k-dimensional 'v' by minimizing the squared error:

$$f(v) = \frac{1}{2} || 2v - y||^2$$

Notice that in both cases the target is still 'y'.

Degree of Polynomial and Fundamental Trade-Off

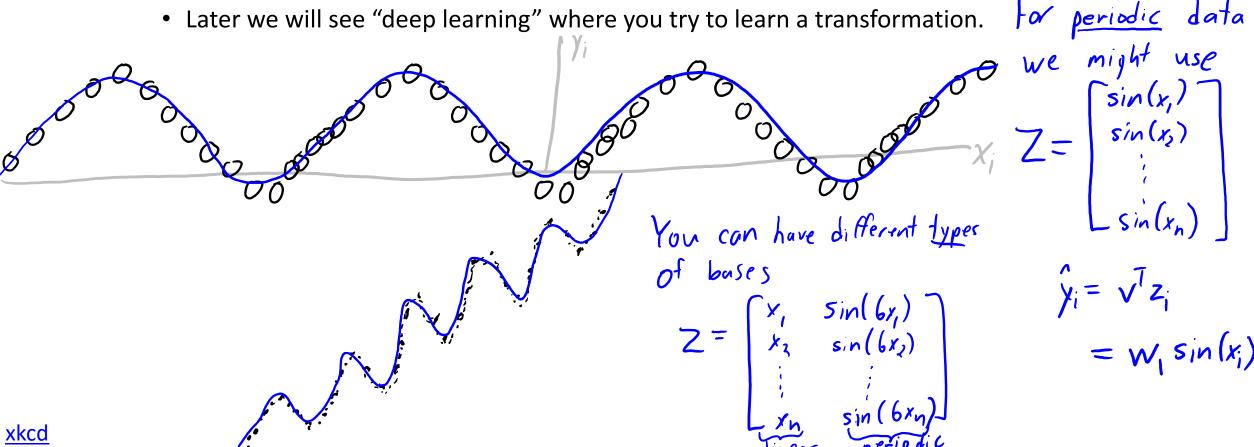
As the polynomial degree increases, the training error goes down.



- But generalization gap goes up: we start overfitting with large 'p'.
- Usual approach to selecting degree: validation or cross-validation.

Beyond Polynomial Transformations

- Polynomials are not the only possible transformation:
 - Exponentials, logarithms, trigonometric functions, and so on.
 - The right non-linear transform will vastly improve performance.
 - Later we will see "deep learning" where you try to learn a transformation.



Summary

- Matrix notation for expressing least squares problem.
- Normal equations: solution of least squares as a linear system.
 - Solve $(X^TX)w = (X^Ty)$.
- Solution might not be unique because of collinearity.
 - But any solution is optimal because of "convexity".
- Non-linear transforms:
 - Allow us to model non-linear relationships with linear models.

Next time: how to do least squares with a million features.

Linear Least Squares: Expansion Step

Want w that minimizes
$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (w^{7}x_{j} - y_{j})^{2} = \frac{1}{2} || x_{w} - y ||_{2}^{2} = \frac{1}{2} (x_{w} - y)^{T} (x_{w} - y)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} ((x_{w})^{T} - y^{T}) (x_{w} - y)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}$$

Vector View of Least Squares

We showed that least squares minimizes:

• The ½ and the squaring don't change solution, so equivalent to:

$$f(w) = \|\chi_w - \gamma\|$$

• From this viewpoint, least square minimizes Euclidean distance between vector of labels 'y' and vector of predictions Xw.

Bonus Slide: Householder(-ish) Notation

Househoulder notation: set of (fairly-logical) conventions for math.

Use greak letters for scalars:
$$d = 1$$
, $\beta = 3.5$, $7 = 11$

Use first/last lowercase letters for vectors: $w = \begin{bmatrix} 0.1 \\ 0.2 \end{bmatrix}$, $\chi = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\chi = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1$

Use first/last uppercase letters for matrices: X, Y, W, A, B

Indices use 1, j, K.

Sizes use m, n, d, p, and k is obvious from (ontext Sets use 5, 7, U, V

Functions use f, q, and h.

When I write x; I
mean "grab row" of
X and make a column-vector
with its values."

Bonus Slide: Householder(-ish) Notation

Househoulder notation: set of (fairly-logical) conventions for math:

Our ultimate least squares notation:
$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2} ||Xw - y||^2$$
But if we agree on notation we can quickly understand:
$$g(x) = \frac{1}{2} ||Ax - b||^2$$
If we use random notation we get things like:
$$H(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} ||R\beta - P_n||^2$$
Is this the same model?

When does least squares have a unique solution?

- We said that least squares solution is not unique if we have repeated columns.
- But there are other ways it could be non-unique:
 - One column is a scaled version of another column.
 - One column could be the sum of 2 other columns.
 - One column could be three times one column minus four times another.
- Least squares solution is unique if and only if all columns of X are "linearly independent".
 - No column can be written as a "linear combination" of the others.
 - Many equivalent conditions (see Strang's linear algebra book):
 - X has "full column rank", X^TX is invertible, X^TX has non-zero eigenvalues, $det(X^TX) > 0$.
 - Note that we cannot have independent columns if d > n.