# CS-GY 6923: Lecture 2
# Multiple Linear Regression + Feature Transformations + Model Selection

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# COURSE ADMIN

- First lab assignment `lab1.ipynb` due **Monday, by midnight.**
- First written assignment will be released this weekend.
- TA's will start office hours next week – thanks for everyone who filled out the poll.

# REMINDER: SUPERVISED LEARNING

**Training Dataset:**

- Given input pairs $(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \ldots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)$.
- Each $\mathbf{x}_i$ is an input data vector (the predictor).
- Each $y_i$ is a continuous output variable (the target).

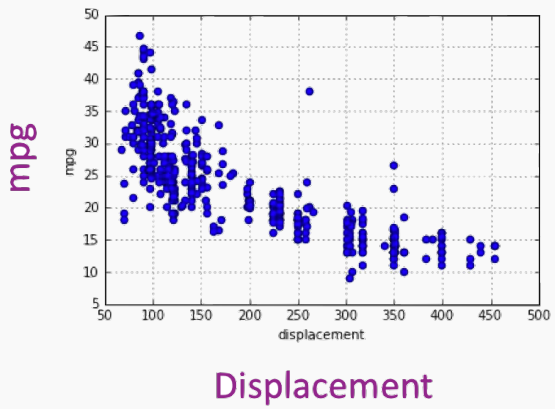
**Objective:**

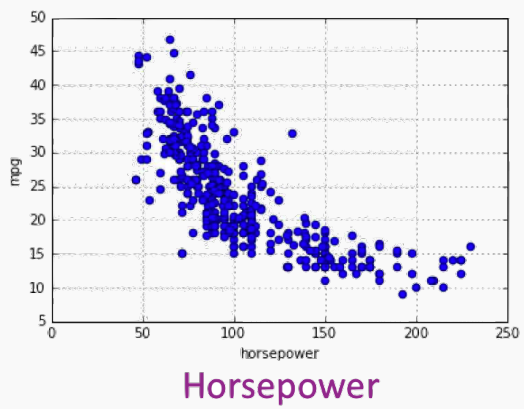
- Have the computer automatically find some function $f(\mathbf{x})$ such that $f(\mathbf{x}_i)$ is close to $y_i$ for the input data.

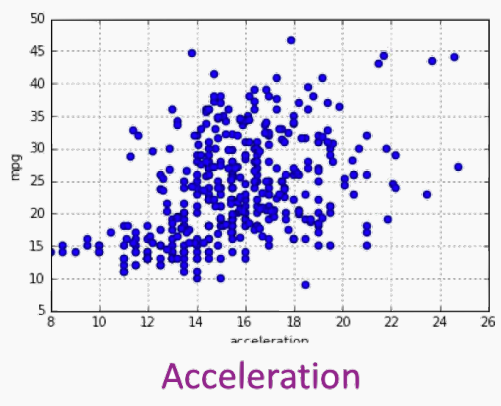
**Standard approach:** Convert the supervised learning problem to a multi-variable optimization problem.

# EXAMPLE FROM LAST CLASS

Predict miles per gallon of a vehicle given information about its engine/make/age/etc.



# SUPERVISED LEARNING DEFINITIONS

What are the three components needed to setup a supervised learning problem?

- Model $f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(x)$: Class of equations or programs which map input $x$ to predicted output. We want $f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(x_i) \approx y_i$ for training inputs.
- Model Parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$: Vector of numbers. These are numerical nobs which parameterize our class of models.
- Loss Function $L(\boldsymbol{\theta})$: Measure of how well a model fits our data. Typically some function of $f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(x_1) - y_1, \ldots, f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(x_n) - y_n$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(f_{\theta}(x_i) - y_i\right)^2$$

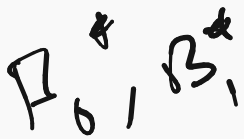
**Empirical Risk Minimization:** Choose parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}^*$ which minimize the Loss Function:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$f_{\theta^*}$

## Simple Linear Regression

- Model: $f_{\beta_0,\beta_1}(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x$
- Model Parameters: $\beta_0, \beta_1$
- Loss Function: $L(\beta_0, \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i - f_{\beta_0,\beta_1}(x_i))^2$



**Goal:** Choose $\beta_0, \beta_1$ to minimize $L(\beta_0, \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i|^2$.

Simple closed form solution: $\beta_1 = \sigma_{xy}/\sigma_x^2, \beta_0 = \bar{y} - \beta_1 \bar{x}$. How did we solve for this solution?

## Multiple Linear Regression Model:

Predict $y_i \approx \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_d x_{id}$

## Data matrix:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \ldots & x_{1d} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \ldots & x_{2d} \\ x_{31} & x_{32} & \ldots & x_{3d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & x_{n2} & \ldots & x_{nd} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{12} & \ldots & x_{1d} \\ 1 & x_{22} & \ldots & x_{2d} \\ 1 & x_{32} & \ldots & x_{3d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n2} & \ldots & x_{nd} \end{bmatrix}$$

## Linear algebraic form:

$$y_i \sim \langle \mathbf{x}_i, \beta \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{y} \sim \mathbf{X}\beta$$

## Linear Least-Squares Regression.

- Model Parameters:

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = [\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_d]$$

- Model:

$$f_{\boldsymbol{\beta}}(\mathbf{x}) = \langle \mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\beta} \rangle$$

- Loss Function:

$$L(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - \langle \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta} \rangle|^2 = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|_2^2$$

# LINEAR ALGEBRAIC FORM OF LOSS FUNCTION

$$y - XB$$

$$XB = \begin{bmatrix} \langle x_1, B \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle x_n, B \rangle \end{bmatrix} \Big\} n \qquad y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y - XB = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 - \langle x_1, B \rangle \\ y_2 - \langle x_2, B \rangle \\ \vdots \\ y_n - \langle x_n, B \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\|z\|_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i^2$$

$$\|y - XB\|_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \langle x_i, B \rangle)^2$$

**Machine learning goal:** minimize the loss function $L(\boldsymbol{\beta}) : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$.

Find possible optima by determining for which $\boldsymbol{\beta} = [\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_d]$ all the **gradient** equals **0**. I.e. when do we have:

$$\nabla L(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_1} \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_d} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \ldots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

# GRADIENT

Loss function:

$$L(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_2^2$$

Gradient:

$$-2 \cdot \mathbf{X}^T(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) = 0$$

Can check that this is equal to 0 if $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y}$. There are no other options, so this must be the minimum.

$X^T y - X^T X \beta = 0$

$X^T y - X^T X (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$

$I$

$X^T y - X^T y = 0$

What is the derivative of: $f(x) = x^2$?

$f'(x)$

$$f'(x) := \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \frac{f(x+\Delta) - f(x)}{\Delta}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} f(x) = 2x$$

$$\lim_{\Delta \to 0} \frac{(x+\Delta)^2 - x^2}{\Delta} = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \frac{x^2 + 2\Delta x + \Delta^2 - x^2}{\Delta}$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \frac{2\Delta x + \Delta^2}{\Delta} = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} 2x + \Delta = 2x.$$

# GRADIENT

Loss function:

$X^{(i)}$ = $i$th column of $X$

$\beta = [\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_d]$

$$L(\beta) = \|y - X\beta\|_2^2$$

$$\nabla L(\beta) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_d} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_1} = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \frac{L(\beta + \Delta e_1) - L(\beta)}{\Delta}$$

$$= \frac{\|y - X(\beta + \Delta e_1)\|_2^2 - \|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{\Delta}$$

$$= \frac{\|\underbrace{y - X\beta}_{a} - \underbrace{X\Delta e_1}_{b}\|_2^2 - \|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{\Delta}$$

$$= \frac{\|y - X\beta - \Delta X^{(1)}\|_2^2 - \|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{\Delta}$$

$$\|a - b\|_2^2 = (a-b)^T(a-b)$$

$$= a^Ta - 2a^Tb + b^Tb$$

$$= \|a\|_2^2 - 2a^Tb + \|b\|_2^2$$

$$\frac{\|y - X\beta\|_2^2 - 2(y - X\beta)^T \Delta X^{(1)} + \|\Delta X^{(1)}\|_2^2 - \|y - X\beta\|_2^2}{\Delta}$$

# MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION SOLUTION

Take away: simple form for the gradient means that multiple linea regression models are easy and efficient to optimize.

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^* = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_2^2 = \left(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}\right)^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y}$$

- Often the "go to" first regression method. Throw your data in a matrix and see what happens.
- Serve as the basis for much richer classes of models.

$$\lim_{\Delta \to 0} \frac{-2\Delta (y - X\beta)^T X^{(1)} + \Delta^2 \|X^{(1)}\|_2^2}{\Delta} = -2(y - X\beta)^T X^{(1)} + \Delta \|X^{(1)}\|_2^2$$

$$= -2(y - X\beta)^T X^{(1)} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_1}$$

$$-2 X^{(1)T}(y - X\beta)$$

# ENCODING DATA AS A NUMERICAL MATRIX

It is not always immediately clear how to do this! One of the first issue we run into is categorical data:

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = [42, 4, 104, \texttt{hybrid}, \texttt{ford}]$$
$$\mathbf{x}_2 = [18, 8, 307, \texttt{gas}, \texttt{bmw}]$$
$$\mathbf{x}_2 = [31, 4, 150, \texttt{gas}, \texttt{honda}]$$
$$\vdots$$

$$-2 \begin{bmatrix} x^{(1)T}(y - XB) \\ x^{(2)T}(y - XB) \\ \vdots \\ x^{(n)T}(y - XB) \end{bmatrix} = -2 \begin{bmatrix} x^{(1)T} \\ x^{(2)T} \\ \vdots \\ x^{(n)T} \end{bmatrix} (y - XB)$$

$X^T$

$y - XB$

$$-2X^T(y - XB)$$

# ENCODING DATA AS A NUMERICAL MATRIX

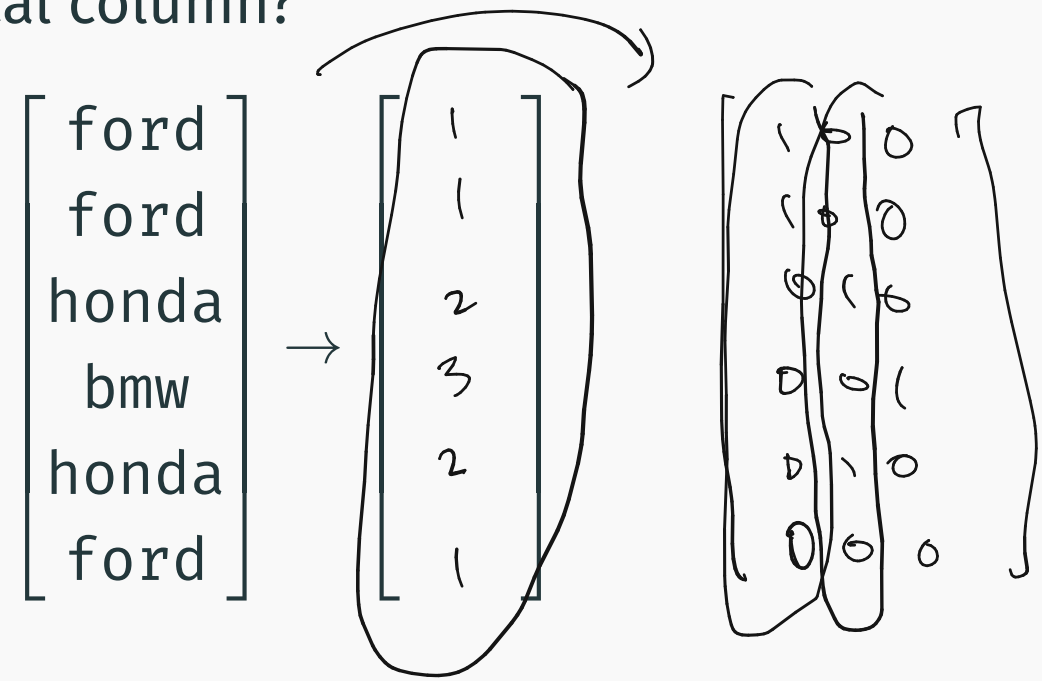
Binary data is easy to deal with – pick one category to be 0, one to be 1. The choice doesn't matter – it will not impact the overall loss of the model

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = [42, 4, 104, \texttt{hybrid}, \texttt{ford}]$$
$$\mathbf{x}_2 = [18, 8, 307, \texttt{gas}, \texttt{bmw}]$$
$$\mathbf{x}_2 = [31, 4, 150, \texttt{gas}, \texttt{honda}]$$
$$\vdots$$

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = [42, 4, 104, \texttt{1}, \texttt{ford}]$$
$$\mathbf{x}_2 = [18, 8, 307, \texttt{0}, \texttt{bmw}]$$
$$\mathbf{x}_2 = [31, 4, 150, \texttt{0}, \texttt{honda}]$$
$$\vdots$$

# DEALING WITH CATEGORICAL VARIABLES

What about a categorical predictor variable for car make with more than 2 options: e.g. Ford, BMW, Honda. **How would you encode as a numerical column?**



# ONE HOT ENCODING

**Better approach:** One Hot Encoding.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \texttt{ford} \\ \texttt{ford} \\ \texttt{honda} \\ \texttt{bmw} \\ \texttt{honda} \\ \texttt{ford} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

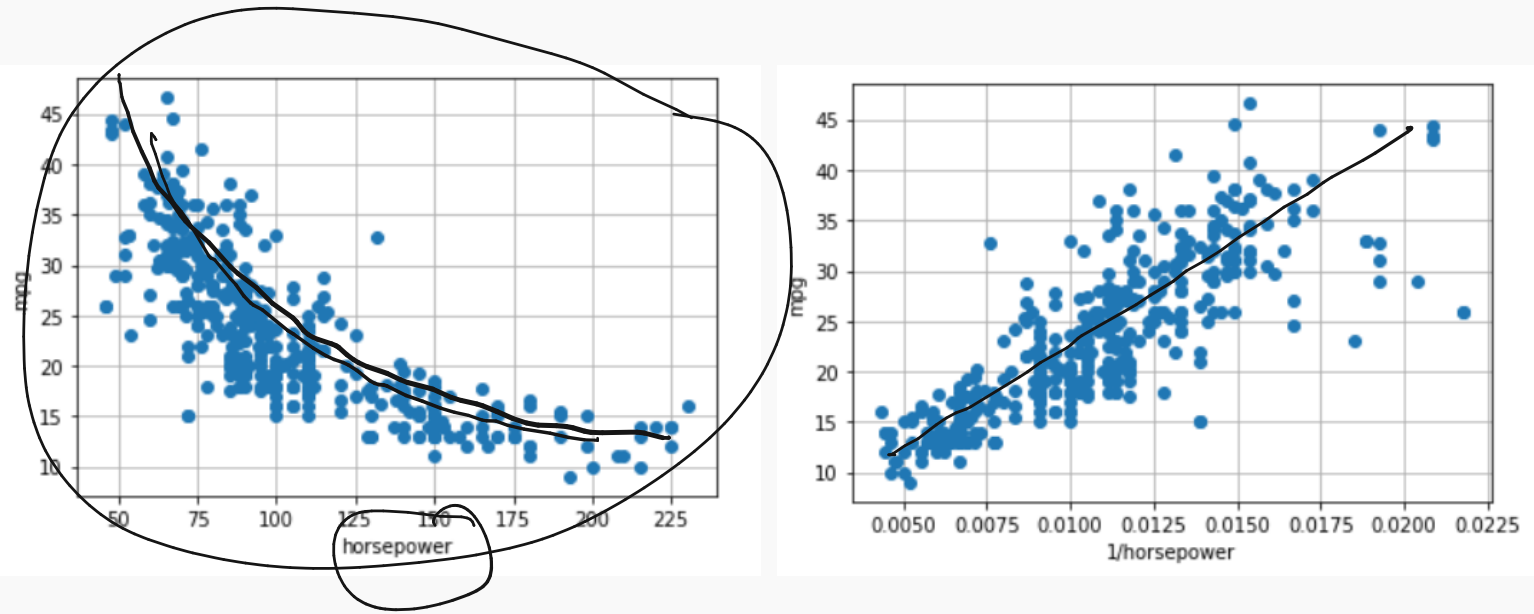
- Create a separate feature for every category, which is 1 when the variable is in that category, zero otherwise.
- Not too hard to do by hand, but you can also use library functions like `sklearn.preprocessing.OneHotEncoder`.

Avoids adding inadvertent linear relationships.

# TRANSFORMED LINEAR MODELS

# EXAMPLE FROM LAST TIME

Instead of fitting the model mpg $\approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot$ horsepower, fit the model mpg $\approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot 1/$horsepower.



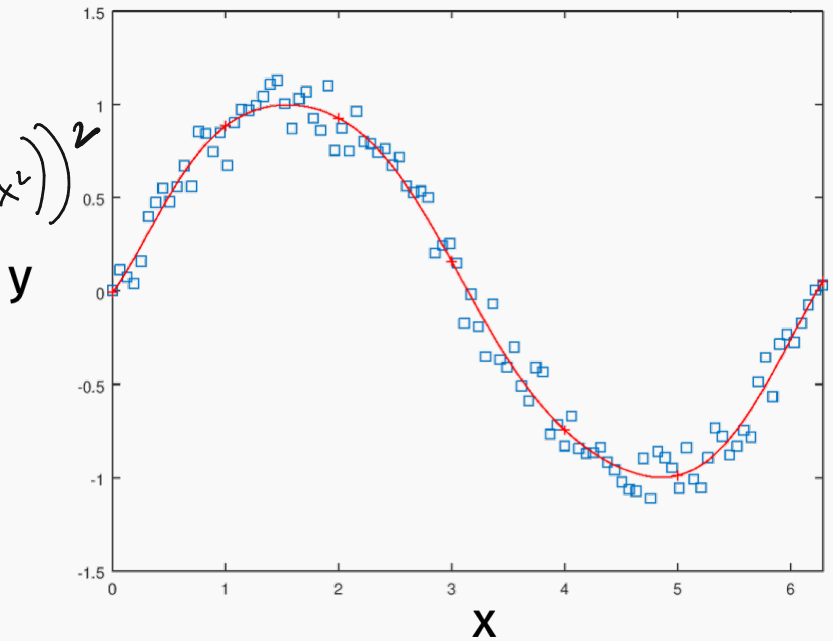

How would you know to make such a transformation?

**Better approach:** Choose a more flexible non-linear model class.

Suppose we have singular variate data examples $(x, y)$. We could fit the non-linear polynomial model:

$$y \approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \beta_3 x^3.$$

$$L(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2) \right)^2$$




want to minimize $L(\beta)$ over all $\beta$.

**Claim:** This can be done using an algorithm for multivariate regression! No need to compute another gradient or write good to optimize $\beta_0, \ldots, \beta_3$.

$(x_1, y_1) \ldots (x_n, y_n) \quad x_i \in \mathbb{R}$

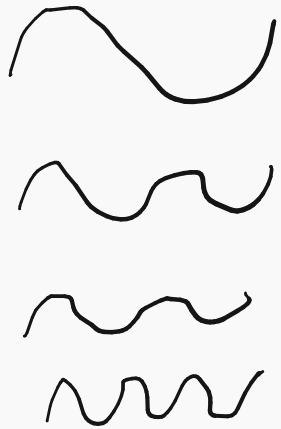
Transform into a multiple linear regression problem:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & x_1^3 \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & x_2^3 \\ 1 & x_3 & x_3^2 & x_3^3 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 & x_n^3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \beta_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_1^2 + \beta_3 x_1^3 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

What is the output of $\mathbf{X}\beta$?

More generally, have each column $j$ is generated by a different basis function $\phi_j(x)$. Could have:

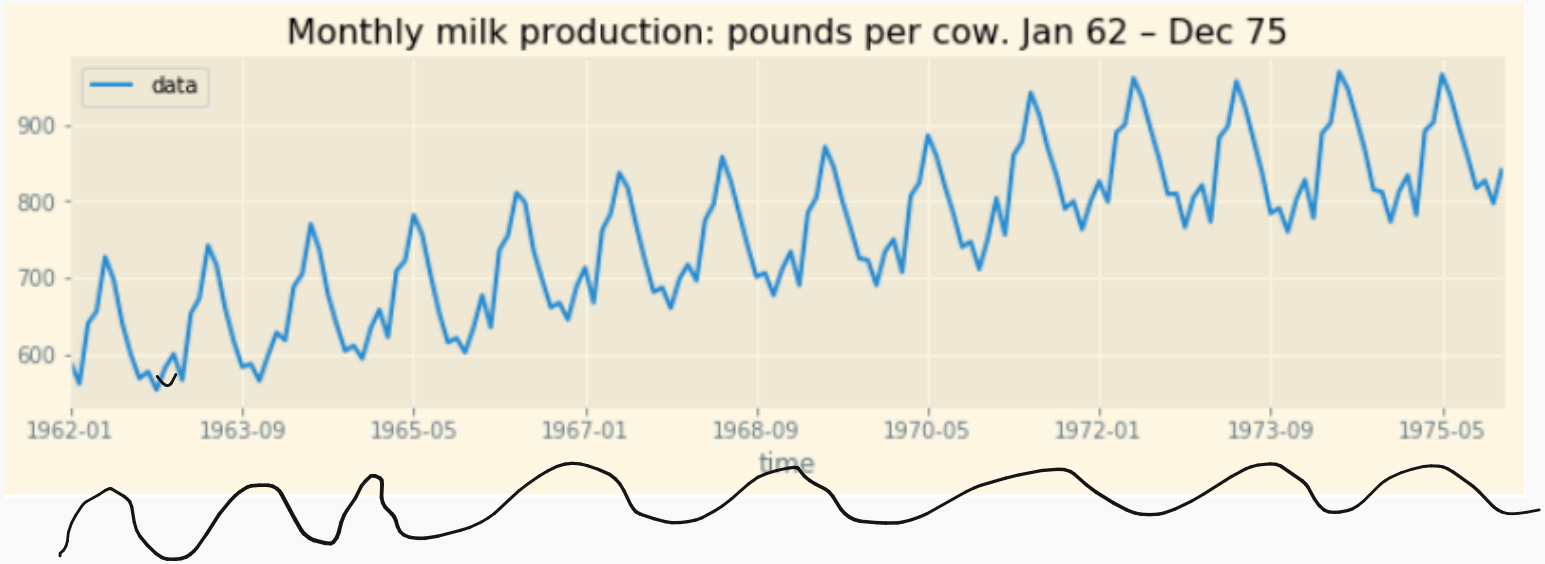
- $\phi_j(x) = x^q$
- $\phi_j(x) = sin(x)$
- $\phi_j(x) = cos(10x)$
- $\phi_j(x) = 1/x$



When might you want to include sins and cosines?

When might you want to include sins and cosines?

Time series data:




There is usually not much harm in including irrelevant variable transformation.

**Transformations can also be for multivariate data.**

**Example:** Multinomial model.

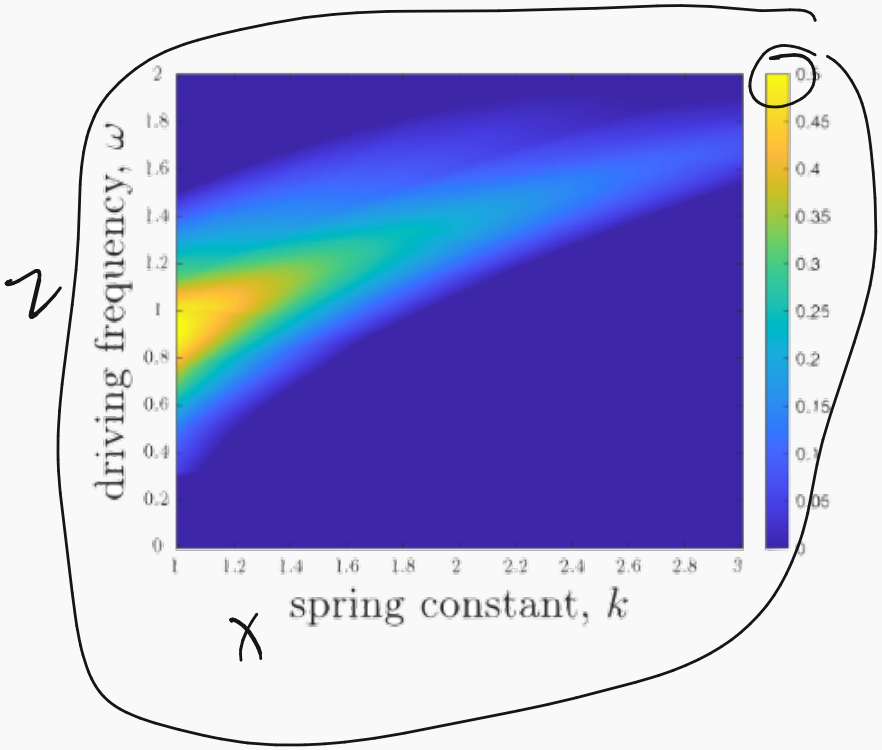
- Given a dataset with target $y$ and predictors $x, z$.
- For inputs $(x_1, z_1), \ldots, (x_n, z_n)$ construct the data matrix:

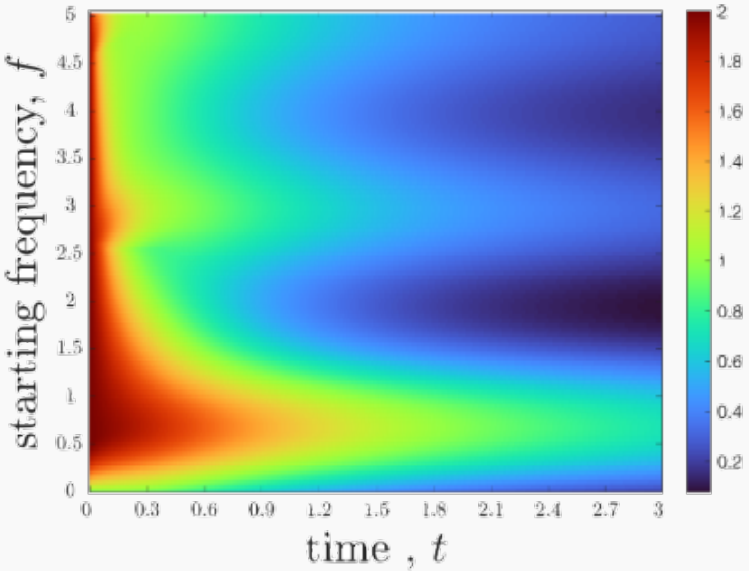
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & z_1 & z_1^2 & x_1 z_1 \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & z_2 & z_2^2 & x_2 z_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 & z_n & z_n^2 & x_n z_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$x_1^2 z_1$

- Captures non-linear interaction between $x$ and $z$.

We use these a lot in my work to fit models for physical phenomenon over low-dimensional surfaces:



Return at 12:20pm.

**Remainder of lecture:** Learn about model selection, test/train paradigm, and cross-validation through a simple example.

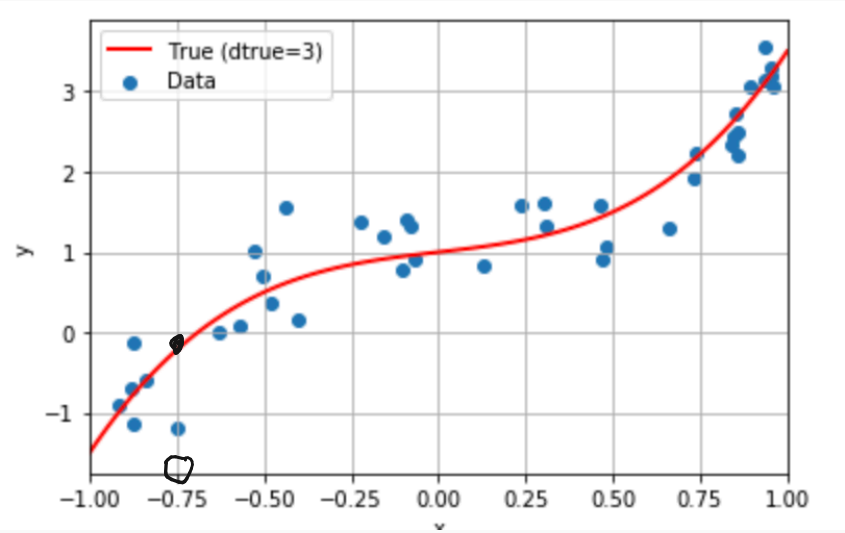
I have a Python demo working through this example.

$$a^T b = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i$$

$$y^T y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i y_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 = \|y\|_2^2$$

## Simple experiment:

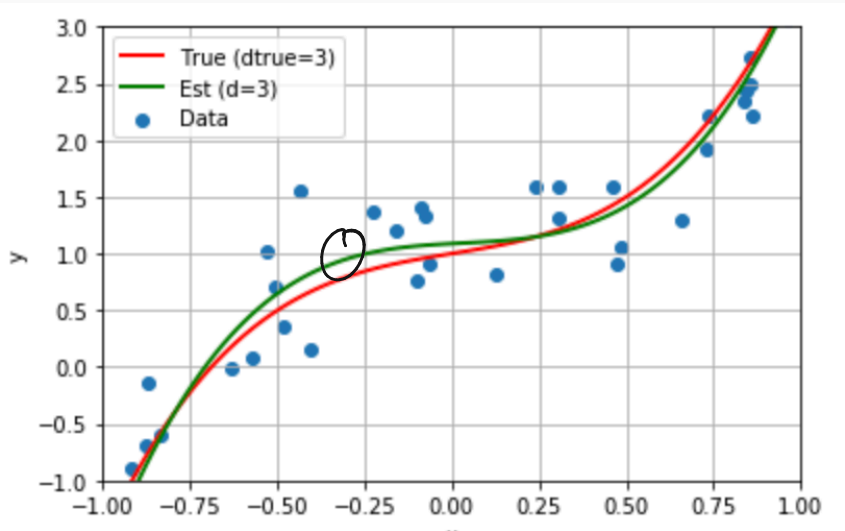
- Randomly select data points $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in [-1, 1]$.
- Choose a degree 3 polynomial $p(x)$.
- Create some fake data: $y_i = p(x_i) + \eta$ where $\eta$ is a random number (e.g random Gaussian).



# FITTING A POLYNOMIAL

Simple experiment:

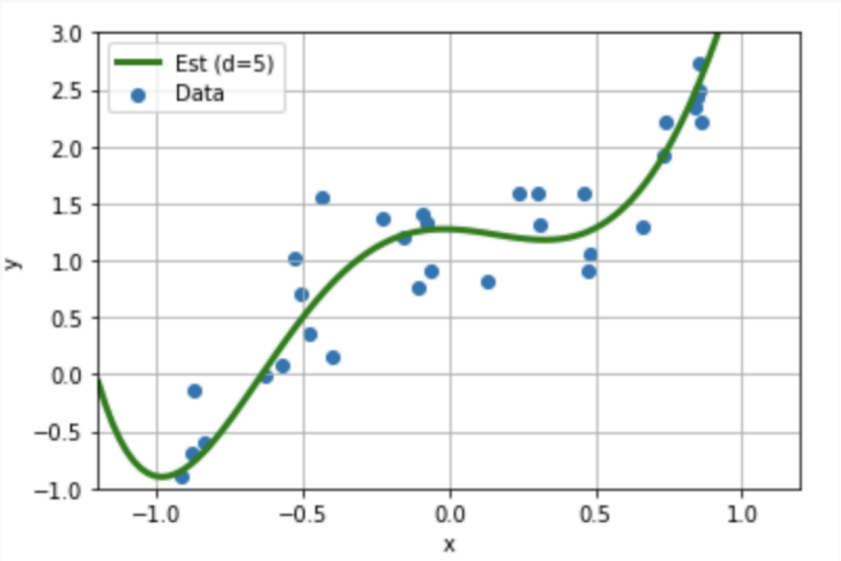
- Use multiple linear regression to fit a degree 3 polynomial.

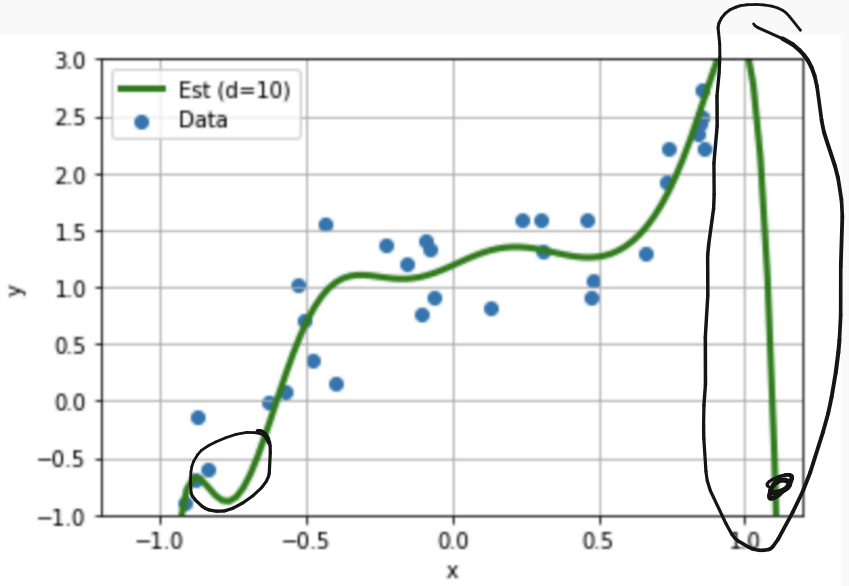


# FITTING A POLYNOMIAL

What if we fit a higher degree polynomial?

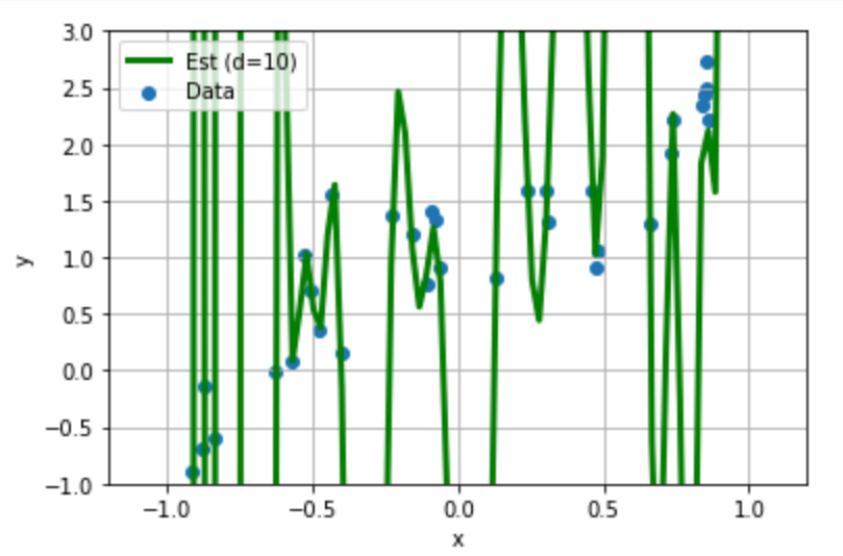
- Fit degree 5 polynomial under squared loss.
- Fit degree 10 polynomial under squared loss.



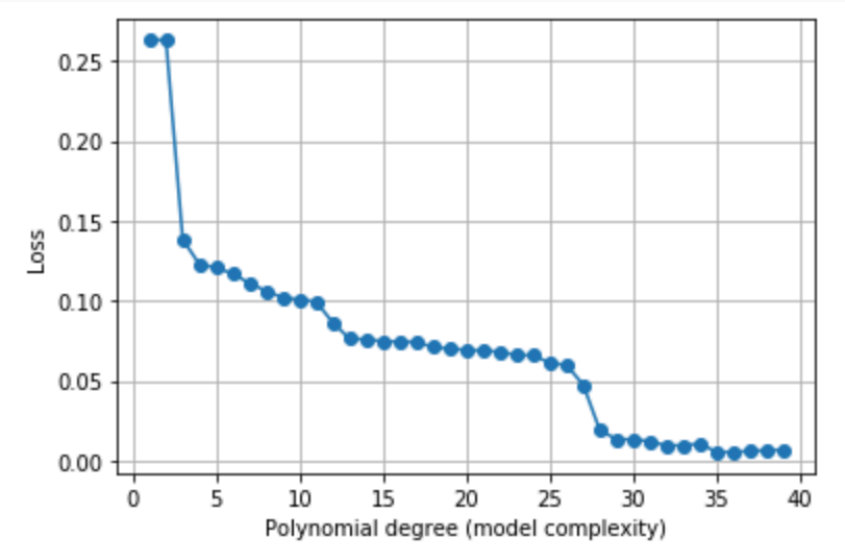
## Even higher?

- Fit degree 40 polynomial under squared loss.



# MODEL SELECTION

The more **complex** our model class (i.e. the higher degree we allow) the better our loss:



Consider $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ and $\bar{\mathbf{X}} = [\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{z}] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d+1}$ with one additional column appended on.

$\bar{X} B' = X B^* + z \cdot 0 = X B^*$

**Claim:**

$$\min_{\bar{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}} \|\bar{\mathbf{X}}\bar{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 \leq \min_{\boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \|\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2.$$

Get opt for right hand side: $B^*$

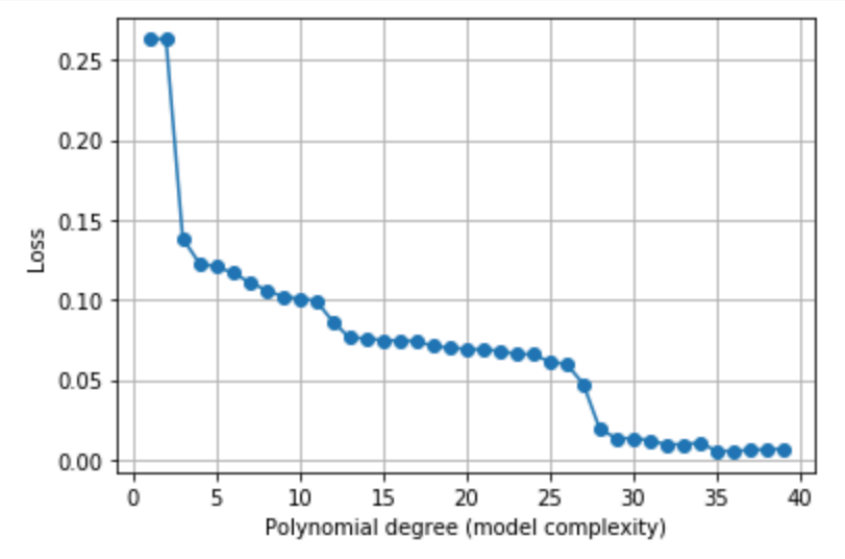
Come up with some $B'$ such that

$$\|\bar{X} B' - y\| = \|X B^* - y\|_2^2 \qquad B' = \begin{bmatrix} B^* \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$= X B^*$

# MODEL SELECTION

The more **complex** our model class the better our loss:

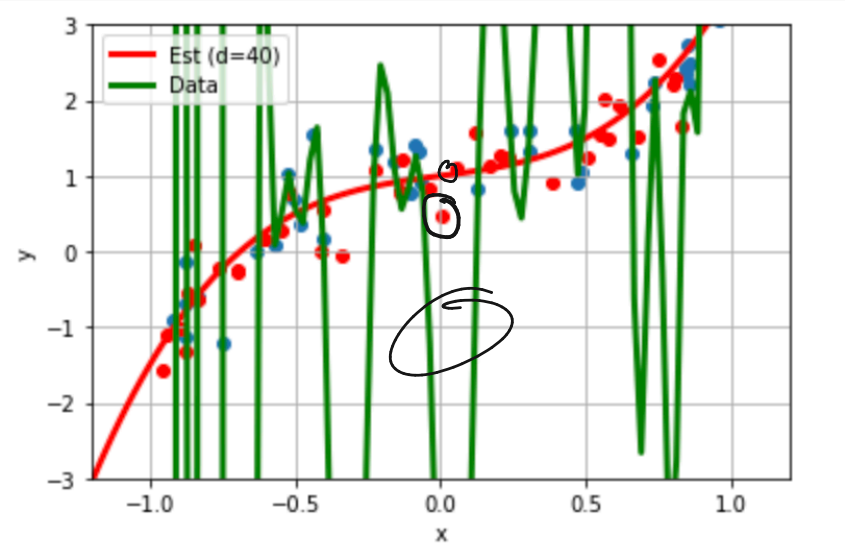



So training loss alone is not usually a good metric for model selection. Small loss does not imply generalization.

**Generalization:** How well do we do on new data.

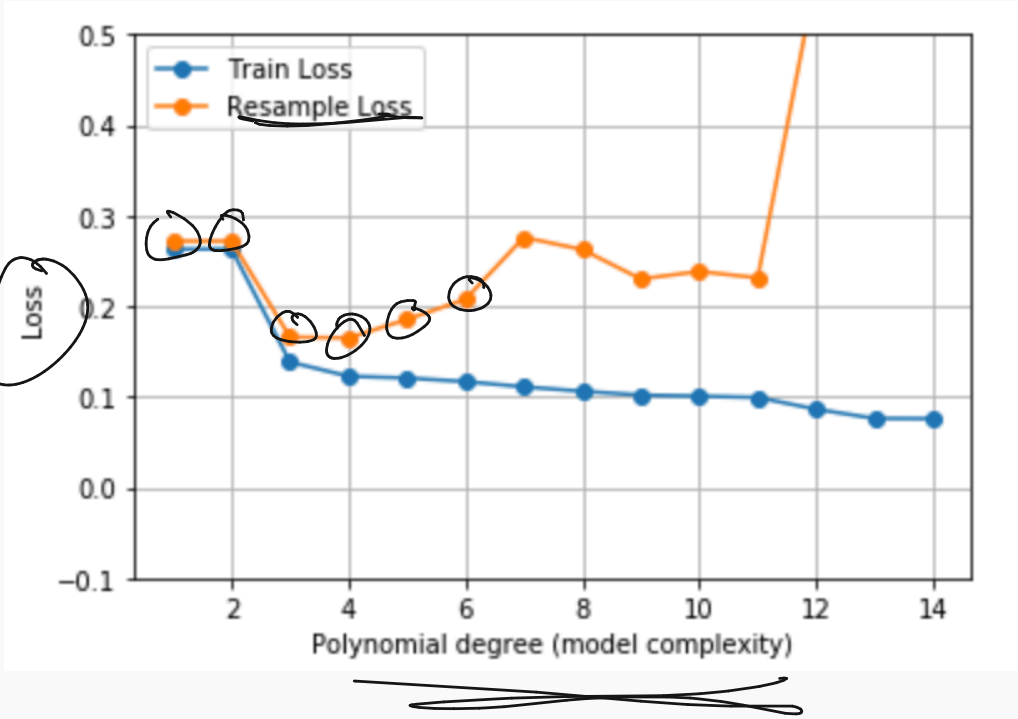
**Problem:** Loss alone is not informative for choosing model.

For more complex models, we get smaller loss on the training data, but don't expect to perform well on "new" data:




In other words, the model does not generalize.

**Solution:** Directly test model on "new data".




- Loss continues to decrease as model complexity grows.
- Performance on new data "turns around" once our model gets too complex. Minimized around degree 4.

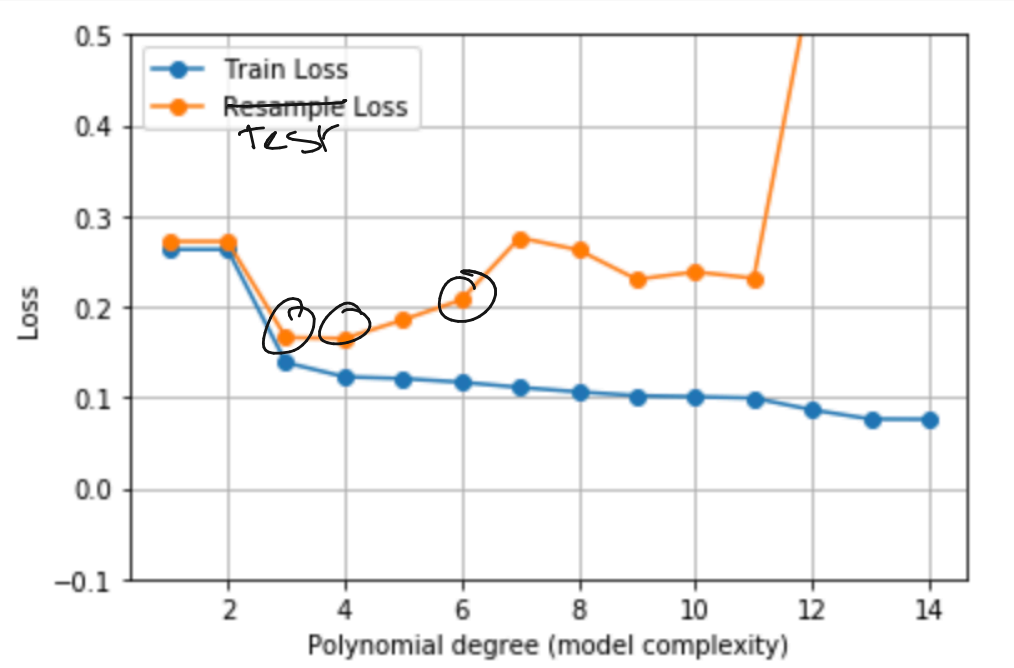
**More reasonable approach:** Evaluate model on fresh test data which was not used during training.

**Test/train split:**

- Given data set $(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})$, split into two sets $(\mathbf{X}_{\text{train}}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{train}})$ and $(\mathbf{X}_{\text{test}}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{test}})$.
- Train $q$ models $f^{(1)}, \ldots, f^{(q)}$ by finding parameters which minimize the loss on $(\mathbf{X}_{\text{train}}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{train}})$.
- Evaluate loss of each trained model on $(\mathbf{X}_{\text{test}}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{test}})$.

Sometimes you will see the term validation set instead of test set. Sometimes there will be both: use validation set for choosing the model, and test set for getting a final performance measure.

# TRAIN-TEST PARADIGM



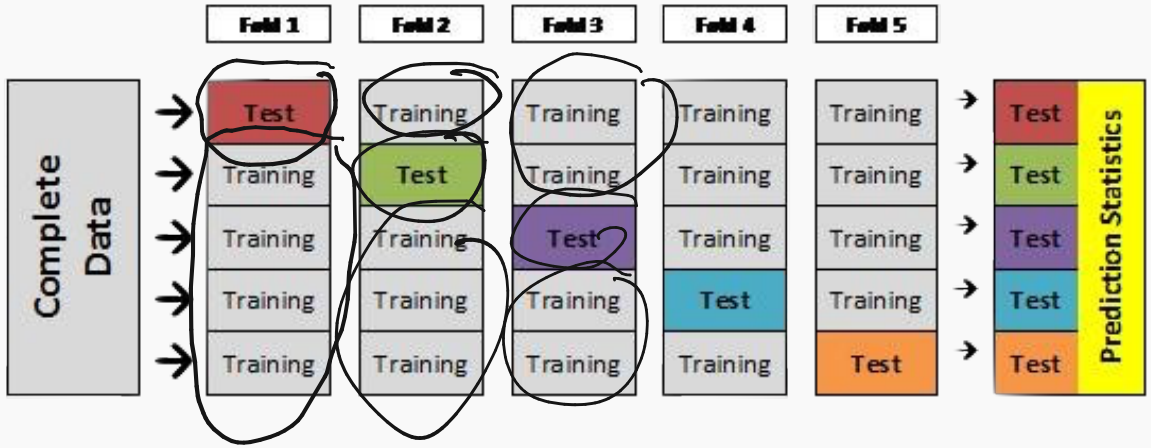

- **Train loss** continues to decrease as model complexity grows.
- **Test loss** "turns around" once our model gets too complex. Minimized around degree 3 — 4.

# GENERALIZATION ERROR

If the test loss remains low, we say that the model **generalizes**.
Test lost is often called **generalization error.**

**Typical train-test split:** 90-70% / 10-30%. Trade-off between between optimization of model parameters and better estimate of model performance.

# K-FOLD CROSS VALIDATION

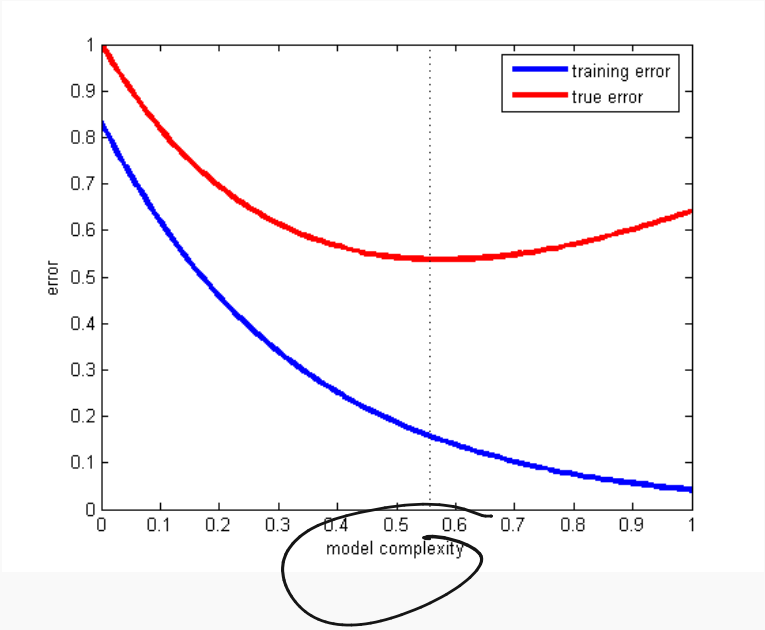



- Randomly divide data in $K$ parts.
  - Typical choice: $K = 5$ or $K = 10$.
- Use $K - 1$ parts for training, 1 for test.
- For each model, compute test loss $L_{ts}$ for each "fold".
- Choose model with best average loss.
- Retrain best model on entire dataset.

Is there any disadvantage to choosing $K$ larger?

# THE FUNDAMENTAL CURVE OF ML

The above trend is fairly representative of what we tend to see across the board:



# TRAIN-TEST INTUITION

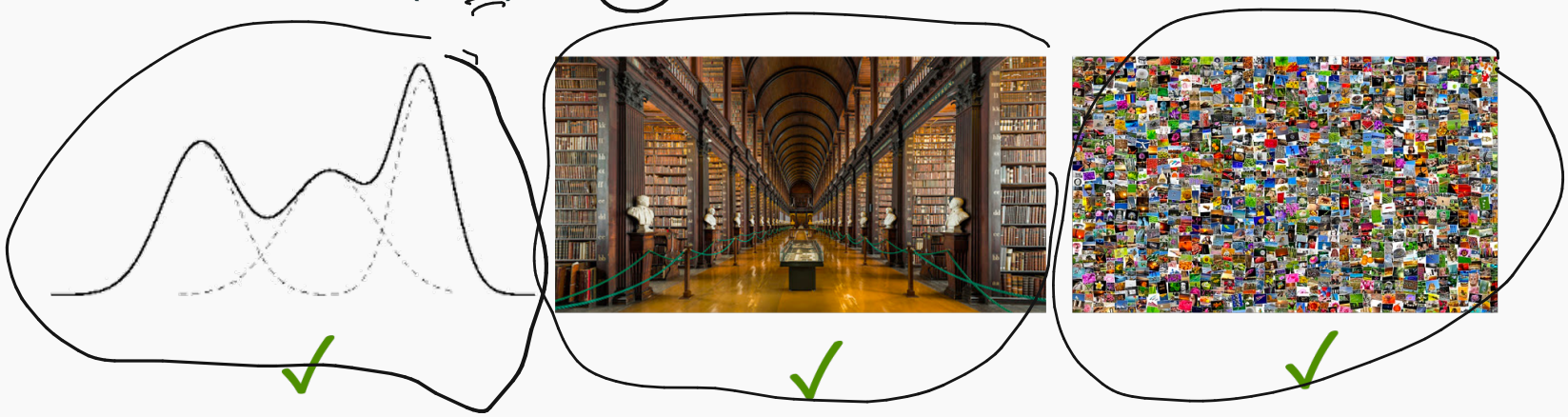
Is "test error" the end goal though? Don't we care about "future" error?

**Intuition:** Models which perform better on the test set will generalize better to future data.

**Goal:** Introduce a little bit of formalism to better understand what this means. What is "future" data?

## Statistical Learning Model:

- Assume each data example is randomly drawn from some distribution $(\mathbf{x}, y) \sim \mathcal{D}$.



E.g. $x_1, \ldots, x_d$ are Gaussian random variables with parameters

$$\mu_1, \sigma_1, \ldots, \mu_d, \sigma_d.$$

This is not (really) a simplifying assumption! The distribution could be arbitrarily complicated.

**Statistical Learning Model:**

- Assume each data example is randomly drawn from some distribution $(\mathbf{x}, y) \sim \mathcal{D}$.
- Define the Risk of a model/parameters:

$$R(f, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{x},y)\sim\mathcal{D}}\left[L\left(f(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}), y\right)\right]$$

here $L$ is our loss function (e.g. $L(z, y) = |z - y|$ or $L(z, y) = (z - y)^2$).

**Goal:** Find model $f \in \{f^{(1)}, \ldots, f^{(q)}\}$ and parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ to minimize the $R(f, \boldsymbol{\theta})$.

# RISK

$\mathbb{E}[R_E(f,\theta)] = R(f,\theta)$ $\qquad$ $\mathbb{E}[A+B] = \mathbb{E}[A] + \mathbb{E}[B]$

- (Population) Risk:

$$R(f, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{x},y)\sim\mathcal{D}}\left[L\left(f(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}), y\right)\right]$$

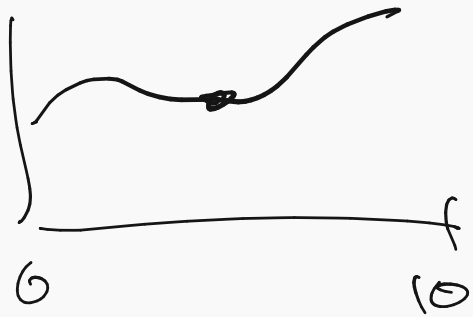
- Empirical Risk: Draw $(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \ldots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n) \sim \mathcal{D}$

$$R_E(f, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} L\left(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), y_i\right) = R(f,\theta)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} L\left(f(x_i,\theta), y_i\right)\right] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mathbb{E}\left[L\left(f(x_i,\theta), y_i\right)\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} R(f,\theta) = R(f,\theta)$$

# EMPIRICAL RISK




For any fixed model $f$ and parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[R_E(f, \boldsymbol{\theta})\right] = R(f, \boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

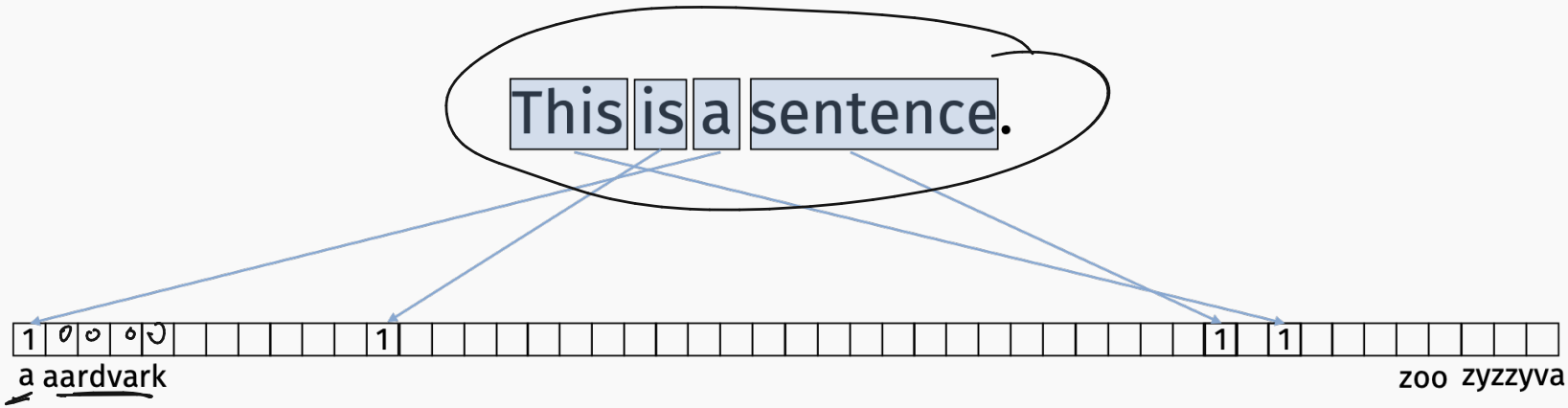
Only true if $f$ and $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ are chosen *without looking at the data used to compute the empirical risk.*

- Train $q$ models $(f^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1^*), \ldots, (f^{(q)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_q^*)$.
- For each model, compute empirical risk $R_E(f^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i^*)$ using test data.
- Since we assume our original dataset was drawn independently from $\mathcal{D}$, so is the random test subset.

No matter how our models were trained or how complex they are, $R_E(f^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i^*)$ is an unbiased estimate of the true risk $R(f^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i^*)$ for every $i$. Can use it to distinguish between models.

## **bag-of-words** models and **n-grams**

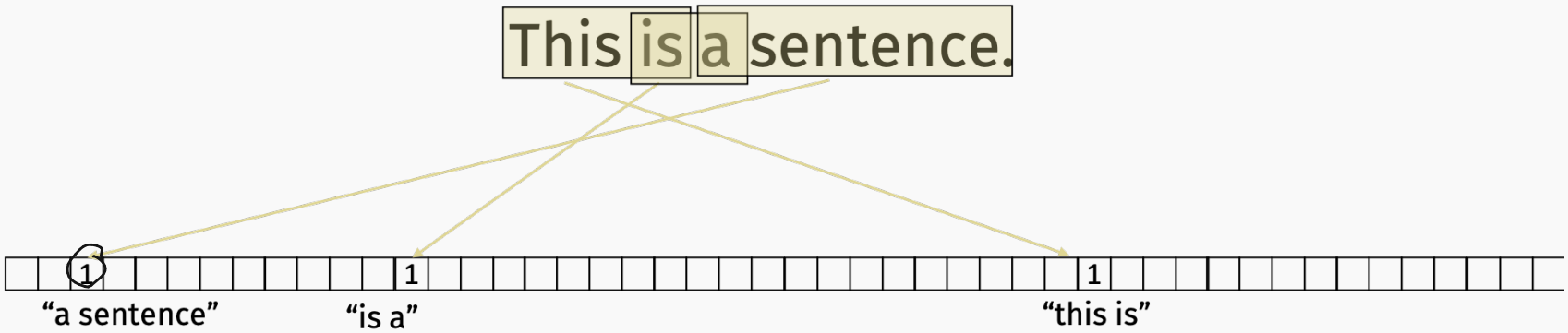
Common way to represent documents (emails, webpages, books) as numerical data. The ultimate example of 1-hot encoding.




bag-of-words

**bag-of-words** models and **n-grams**

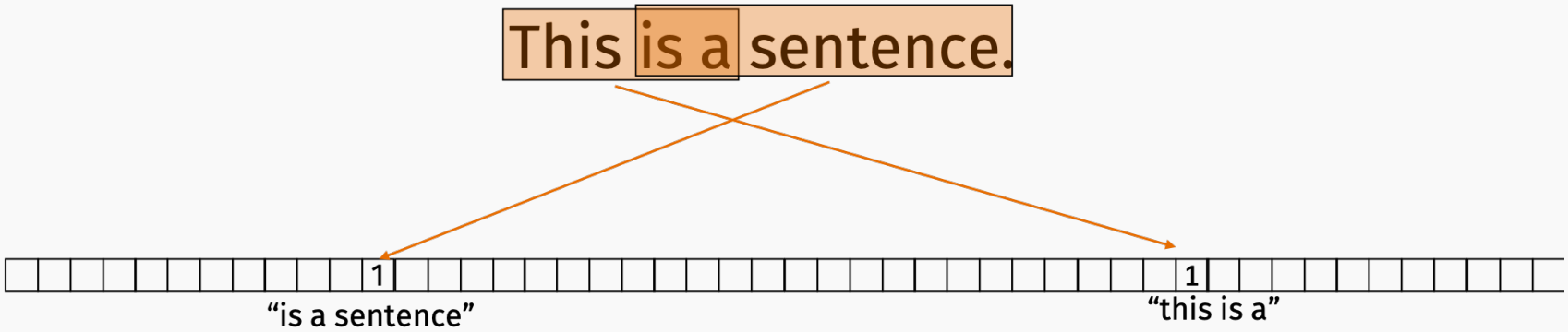
Common way to represent documents (emails, webpages, books) as numerical data. The ultimate example of 1-hot encoding.




bi-grams

**bag-of-words** models and **n-grams**

Common way to represent documents (emails, webpages, books) as numerical data. The ultimate example of 1-hot encoding.




tri-grams

# Model selection example

Models of increasing order:

- Model $f^{(1)}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_1}$: spam filter that looks at **single words**.
- Model $f^{(2)}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_2}$: spam filter that looks at **bi-grams**.
- Model $f^{(3)}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_3}$: spam filter that looks at **tri-grams**.
- ...

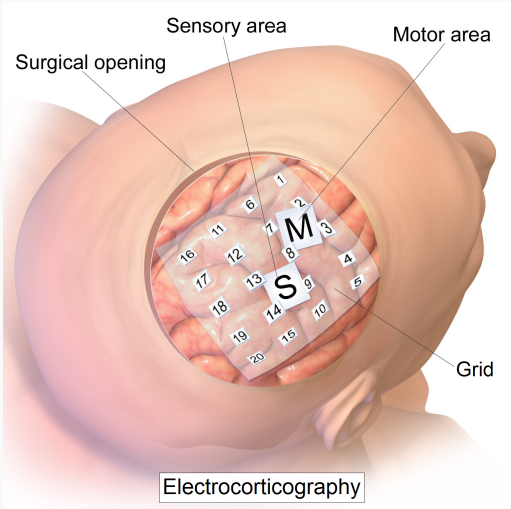
"interest" "low interest" "low interest loan"

Increased length of **n-gram** means more expressive power.

Will also be relevant in our first generative ML lab!

## Electrocorticography ECoG (upcoming lab):

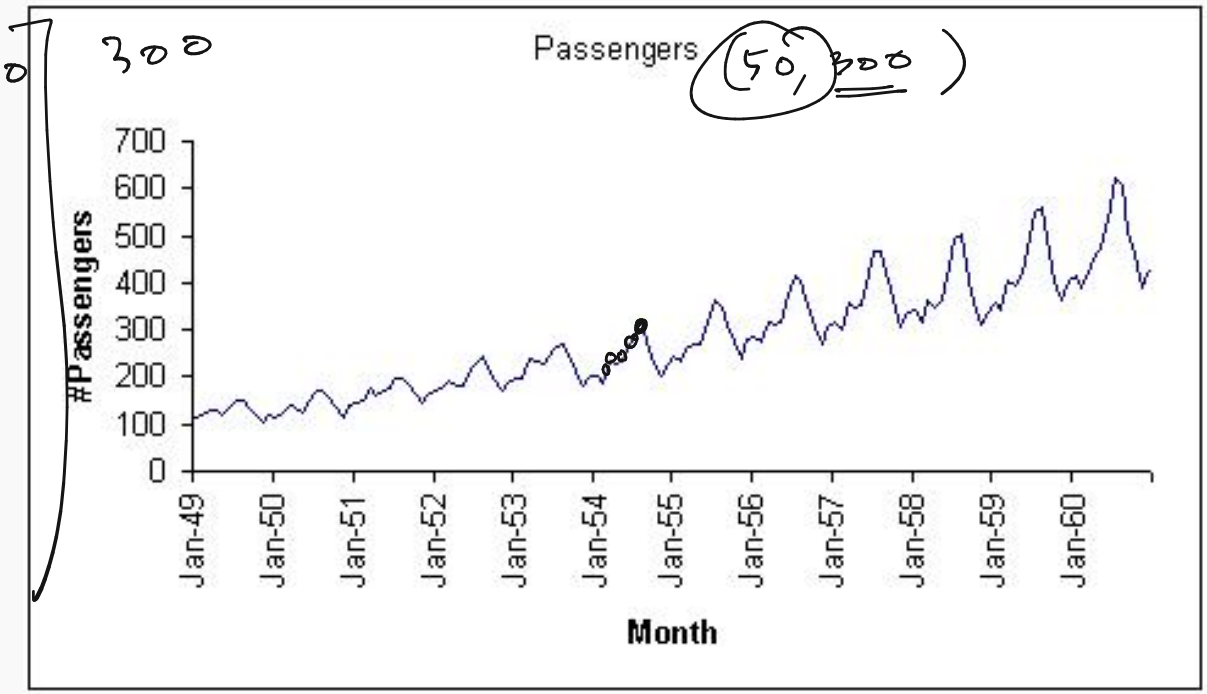
- Implant grid of electrodes on surface of the brain to measure electrical activity in different regions.




- Predict hand motion based on ECoG measurements.
- **Model order:** predict movement at time $t$ using brain signals at time $t, t-1, \ldots, t-q$ for varying values of $q$.

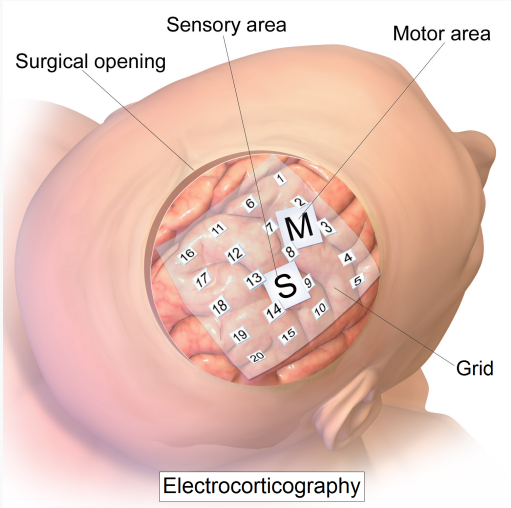
# AUTOREGRESSIVE MODEL

Predicting time $t$ based on a linear function of the signals at time $t, t-1, \ldots, t-q$ is not the same as fitting a line to the time series. It's much more expressive.




Predecessor of modern "recurrent neural networks".

Electrocorticography ECoG lab:




First lab where computation actually matters (solving regression problems with $\sim 40k$ examples, $\sim 1500$ features)

Makes sense to test and debug code using a subset of the data.

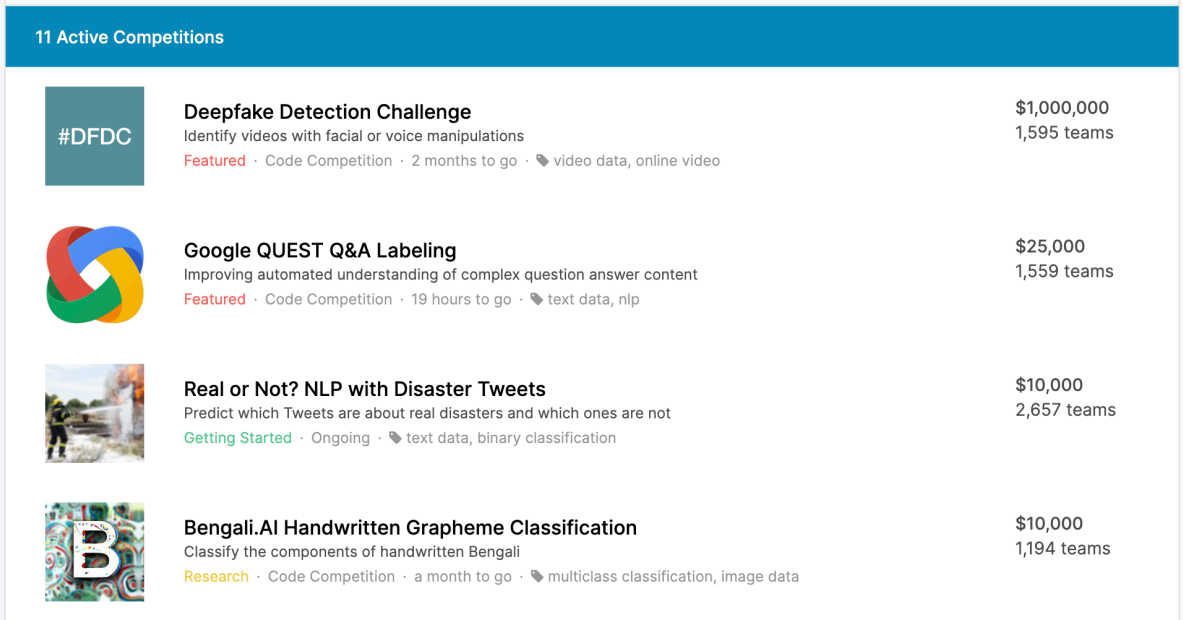
Slight caveat: This is typically not how machine learning or scientific discovery works in practice!

Typical workflow:

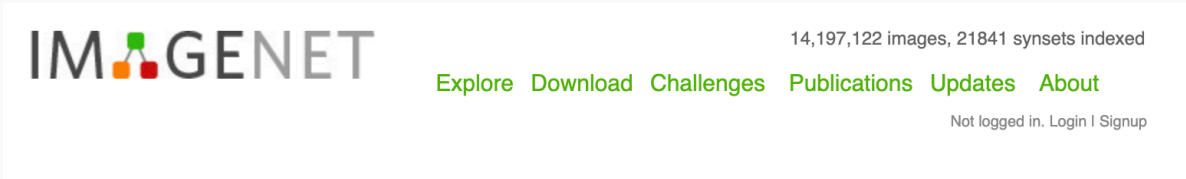
- Train a class of models.
- Test.
- Adjust class of models.
- Test.
- Adjust class of models.
- Cont...

Final model implicitly depends on test set because performance on the test set guided how we changed our model.

# Popularity of ML benchmarks and competitions leads to adaptivity at a massive scale.




Kaggle (various competitions)




Imagenet (image classification and categorization)

# ADAPTIVE DATA ANALYSIS

Is adaptivity a problem? Does it lead to over-fitting? How much? How can we prevent it? All current research. Related to the problem of "p-value hacking" in science.

REPORT

## The reusable holdout: Preserving validity in adaptive data analysis

Cynthia Dwork[1,*], Vitaly Feldman[2,*], Moritz Hardt[3,*], Toniann Pitassi[4,*], Omer Reingold[5,*], Aaron Roth[6,*]
+ See all authors and affiliations

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## Do ImageNet Classifiers Generalize to ImageNet?

Benjamin Recht* UC Berkeley
Rebecca Roelofs UC Berkeley
Ludwig Schmidt UC Berkeley
Vaishaal Shankar UC Berkeley

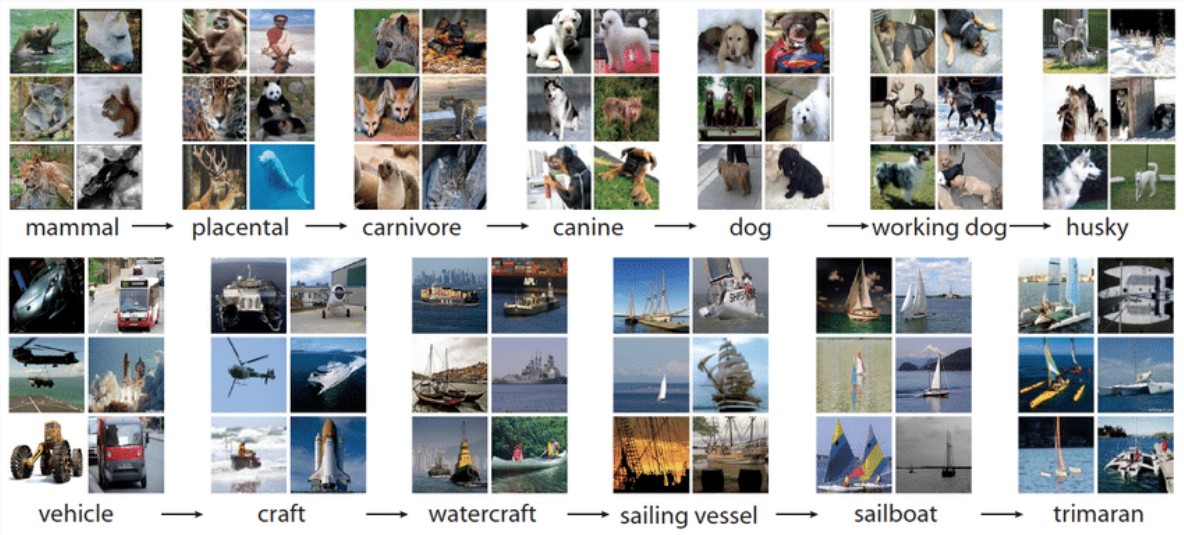


**Abstract**

We build new test sets for the CIFAR-10 and ImageNet datasets. Both benchmarks have been the focus of intense research for almost a decade, raising the danger of overfitting to excessively re-used test sets. By closely following the original dataset creation processes, we test to what extent current classification models generalize to new data. We evaluate a broad range of models and find accuracy drops of 3% – 15% on CIFAR-10 and 11% – 14% on ImageNet. However, accuracy gains on the original test sets translate to larger gains on the new test sets. Our results suggest that the accuracy drops are not caused by adaptivity, but by the models' inability to generalize to slightly "harder" images than those found in the original test sets.

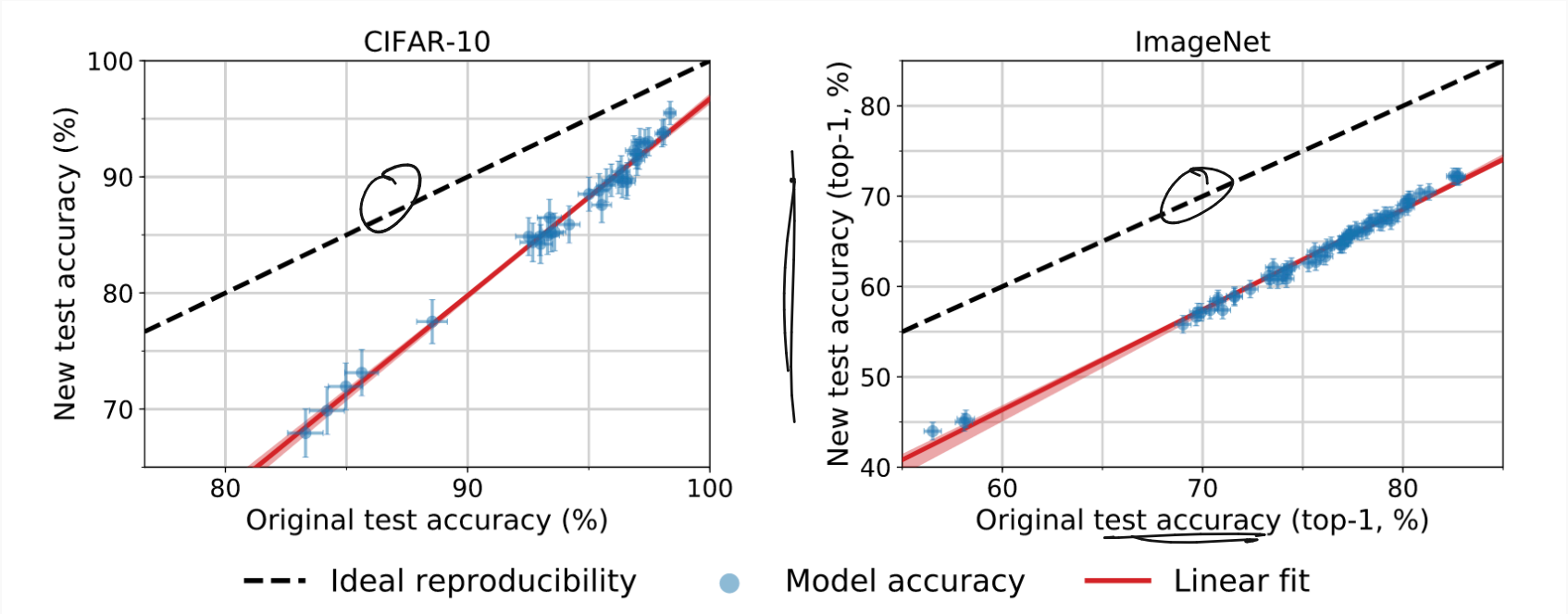
# IMAGENET DATASET


Collected by Fei-Fei Li's group at Stanford in 2006ish and labeled using Amazon Mechanical Turk.




We now have neural network models that can solve these classification problems with $> 95\%$ accuracy.

## Do ImageNet Classifiers Generalized to ImageNet?




Interestingly, when comparing popular vision models on "fresh" data, while performance dropped across the board, the relative rank of model performance did not change significantly.

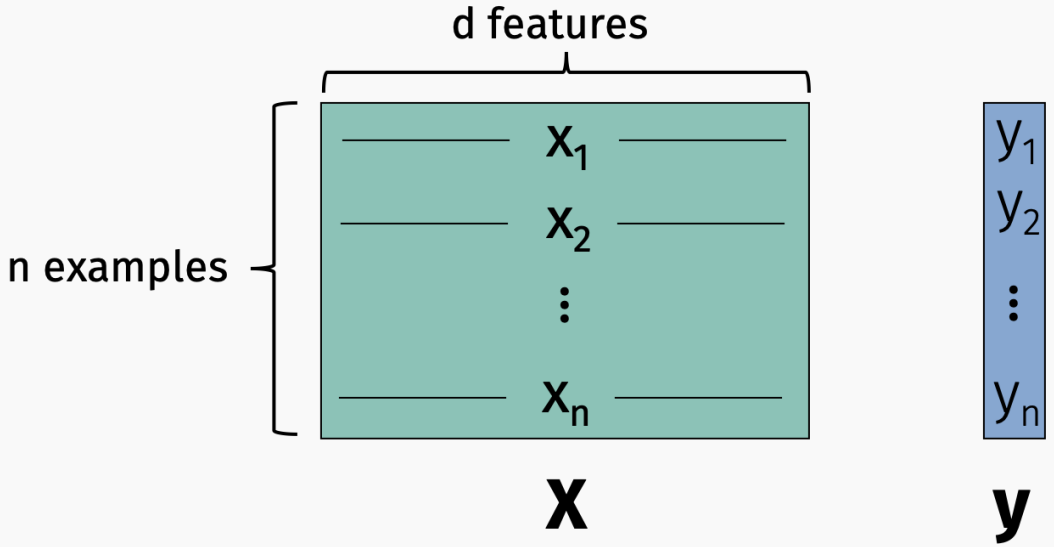
# REGULARIZATION

# OVER-PARAMETERIZED MODELS

In all the model selection examples we discussed we had full control over the complexity of the model: could range from underfitting to overfitting.

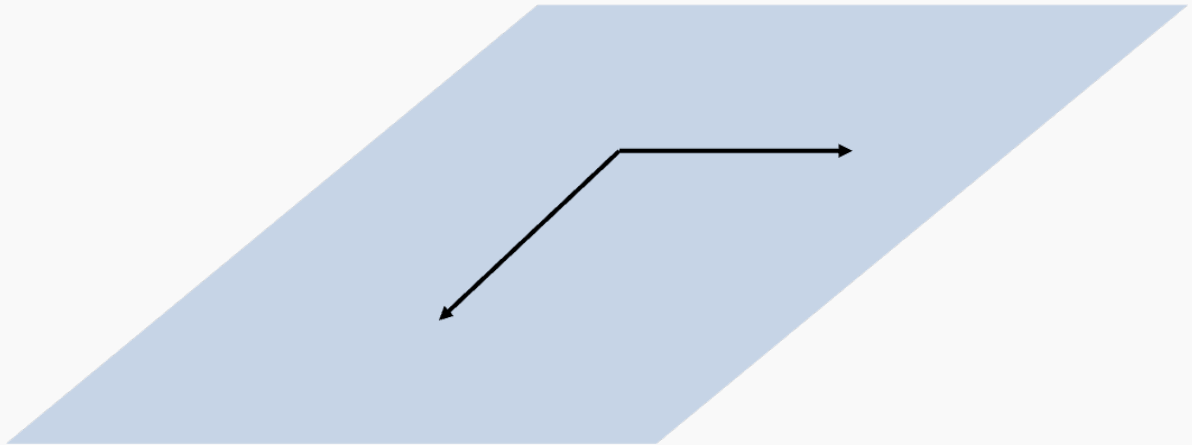
In practice, you often don't have this freedom. Even the most basic model might lead to overfitting.

**Example:** Linear regression model where $d \geq n$. Almost always the case e.g. when using bag-of-words features.

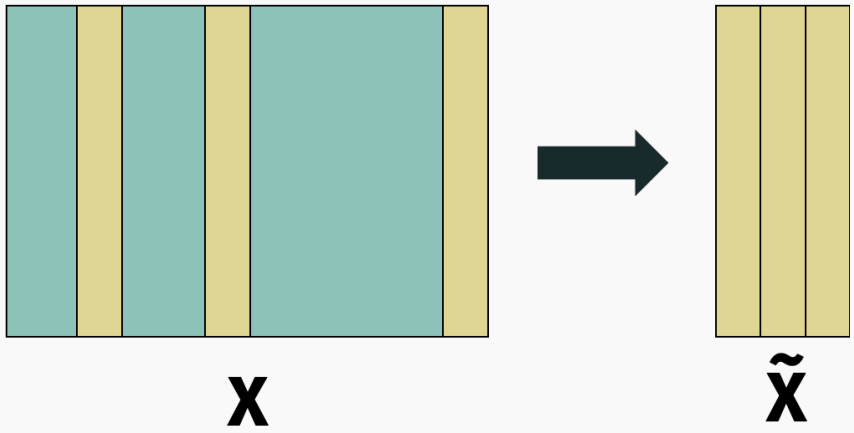



Can (almost) always find $\beta$ so that $X\beta = y$ exactly.

**Claim:** For almost all sets of $n$ length $n$ vectors $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \ldots, \mathbf{x}^{(n)}$, we can write any vector $\mathbf{y}$ as a linear combination of these vectors.



Select some subset of features to use in model:




**Filter method:** Compute some metric for each feature, and select features with highest score.

- Example: compute loss or $R^2$ value when each feature in $\mathbf{X}$ is used in single variate regression.

Any potential limitations of this approach?

# FEATURE SELECTION

# FEATURE SELECTION

**Exhaustive approach:** Pick best subset of $q$ features.

**Faster approach:** Greedily select $q$ features.

**Stepwise Regression:**

- **Forward:** Step 1: pick single feature that gives lowest loss. Step $k$: pick feature that when combined with previous $k-1$ chosen features gives lowest loss.
- **Backward:** Start with all of the features. Greedily eliminate those which have least impact on model performance.

Feature selection deserves more than two slides, but we won't go into too much more detail!

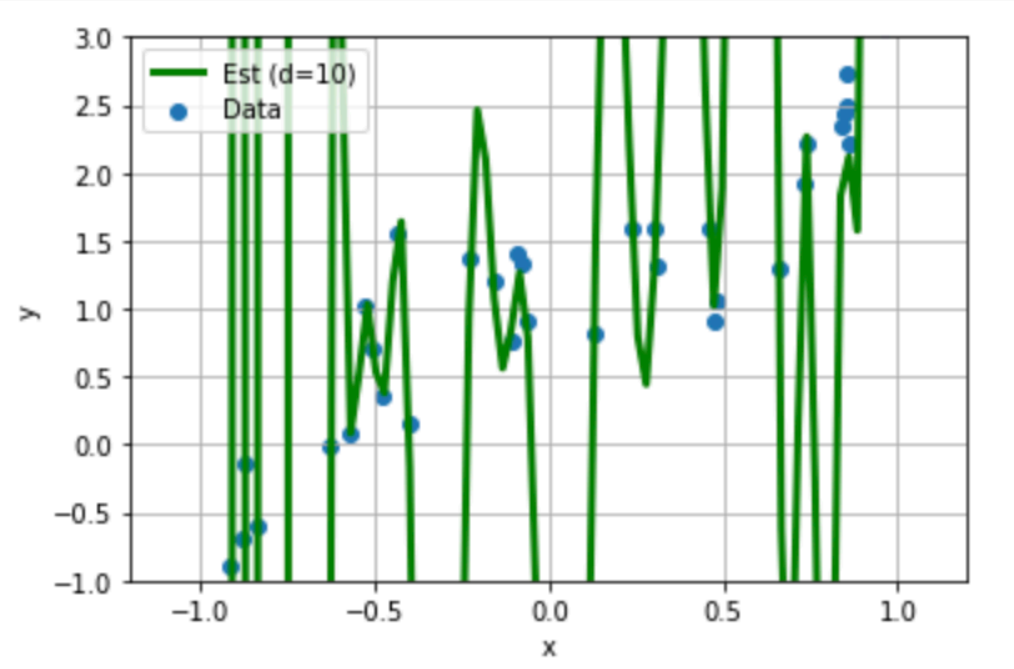
**Regularization:** Explicitly discourage overfitting by adding a regularization penalty to the loss minimization problem.

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left[ L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + Reg(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \right].$$

**Example:** Least squares regression. $L(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \|\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2$.

- Ridge regression ($\ell_2$): $Reg(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_2^2$
- LASSO (least absolute shrinkage and selection operator) ($\ell_1$): $Reg(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1$
- Elastic net: $Reg(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \lambda_1 \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1 + \lambda_2 \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_2^2$

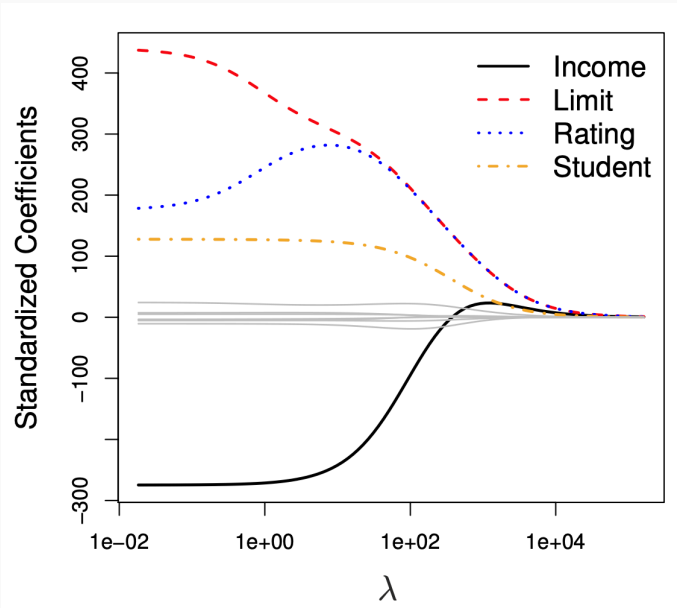
# REGULARIZATION



# RIDGE REGULARIZATION

Ridge regression: $\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \|\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \lambda\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_2^2$.

- As $\lambda \to \infty$, we expect $\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_2^2 \to 0$ and $\|\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 \to \|\mathbf{y}\|_2^2$.
- Feature selection methods attempt to set many coordinates in $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ to 0. Ridge regularizations encourages coordinates to be small.



Ridge regression: $\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \|\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \lambda\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_2^2$.

- Can be viewed as shrinking the size of our model class. Relaxed version of $\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}:\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_2^2 < c} \|\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2$.

**Claim:** For any $\lambda$, let $\boldsymbol{\beta}_\lambda^* = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \|\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \lambda\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_2^2$. Then there is some $c(\lambda)$ such that:

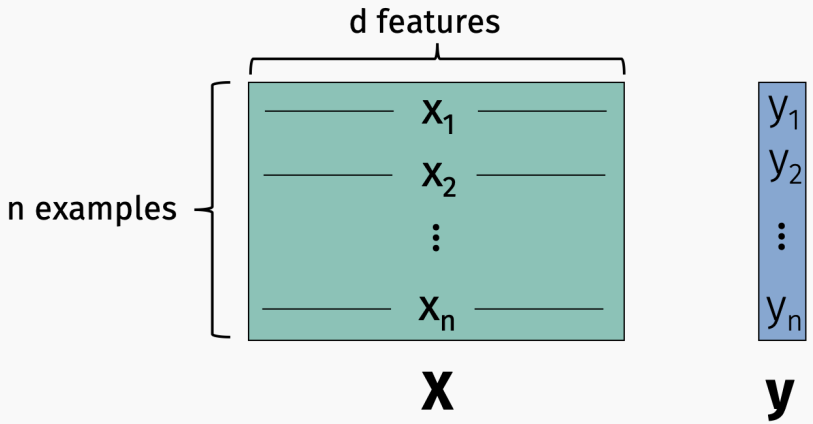
$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_\lambda^* = \underset{\boldsymbol{\beta}:\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_2^2 < c(\lambda)}{\arg\min} \|\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2.$$

Moreover, we have the for $\lambda' > \lambda$, $c(\lambda') < c(\lambda)$.

# RIDGE REGULARIZATION

Ridge regression: $\min_{\beta} \|X\beta - y\|_2^2 + \lambda\|\beta\|_2^2$.

- $\min_{\beta:\|\beta\|_2^2<c} \|X\beta - y\|_2^2$ won't have zero error solution for all $y$, even when over-parameterized.



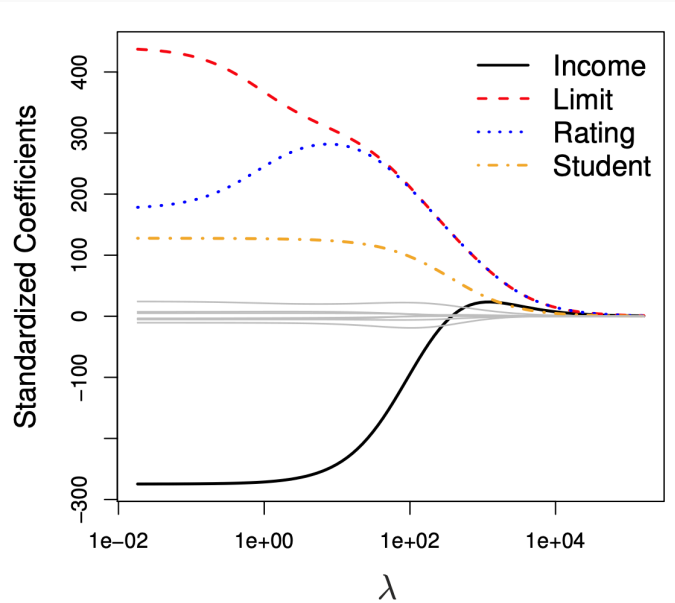
# RIDGE REGULARIZATION

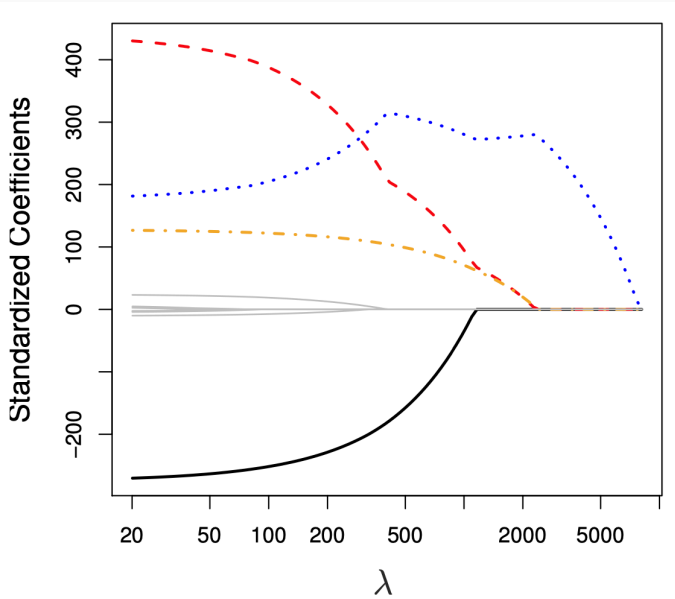
How do we minimize: $L_R(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \|\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \lambda\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_2^2$?

# LASSO REGULARIZATION

Lasso regularization: $\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \|\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \lambda\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1$.

- As $\lambda \to \infty$, we expect $\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1 \to 0$ and $\|\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 \to \|\mathbf{y}\|_2^2$.
- Typically encourages subset of $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i$'s to go to zero, in contrast to ridge regularization.



Pros:

- Simpler, more interpretable model.
- More intuitive reduction in model order.

Cons:

- No closed form solution because $\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1$ is not differentiable.
- Can be solved with iterative methods, but generally not as quickly as ridge regression.

Notes:

- Model selection/cross validation used to choose optimal scaling $\lambda$ on $\lambda\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_2^2$ or $\lambda\|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1$.
- Often grid search for best parameters is performed in "log space". E.g. consider $[\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_q] = 1.5^{[-4,-3,-2,-1,-0,1,2,3,4]}$.
- Regularization methods are not invariant to data scaling. Typically when using regularization we mean center and scale columns to have unit variance.