I don't trust linear regressions when it's harder to guess the direction of the correlation from the scatter plot than to find new constellations on it.
Announcements

Homework 4 due Sunday

Test next Wednesday... covers ch 15-17 (HW 3 & 4)
Linear Regression

Let’s move away from decision trees (yay!) and talk about more general learning.

Today we will look at regression a bit (as I have been ignoring it mostly).

This is a concept that you may have encountered before, but not in the context of learning.
Linear Regression

Idea: You have a bunch of data points, and you want to find the line “closest” to them.
Linear Regression

Why linear and not some polynomial?
**Linear Regression**

Why linear and not some polynomial?

It is a lot harder to “overfit” with a linear fit, yet it still gets the major “trend” of data.

Also a bit to “visualize” data if high dimension.

Another bonus is that it makes the calculations much easier (which is always nice...).
Linear Regression: How To

To find this line, let’s start with the simple case: only one variable

Then our line will look like (call them “h” just like our learning trees):

\[ h_w(x) = y = w_0 + w_1 \cdot x \]

\( w \) is \( \{w_0, w_1\} \) as parameters

Then we need to define what “fit to data” means (i.e. how do we calculate how “wrong” a line is)
Linear Regression: How To

There are multiple options, but a common choice is the square difference (called “loss”):

\[
\text{Loss}(h_w) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} (y_j - h_w(x_j))^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{N} (y_j - w_0 + w_1 \cdot x_j)^2
\]

- \(y_j\) is actual y-coordinate
- \(h_w(x_j)\) is approximated (line) y-coordinate

... where \(N\) is the number of examples/points

This makes sense as it penalizes “wrong” answers more the further they are away (two points off by 1 better than one off by 2)
Linear Regression: How To

You can plot this loss function (z-axis) with respect to the choice of $w_0$ and $w_1$. 

Regression

Loss
Linear Regression: How To

We want the regression line \((w_0, w_1)\) to have the lowest loss possible.

As the loss function looks convex (it is), the minimum is unique, so from calculus we want:

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial w_0} \text{Loss}(h_w) = 0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_0} \sum_{j=1}^{N} (y_j - w_0 + w_1 \cdot x_1)^2
\]

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial w_1} \text{Loss}(h_w) = 0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_1} \sum_{j=1}^{N} (y_j - w_0 + w_1 \cdot x_1)^2
\]

text aligns bottom is when both \(w_0\) and \(w_1\) derivatives zero
Linear Regression: How To

It is not too hard to do a bit of calculus to find the unique solution for $w_0$ and $w_1$:

$$w_1 = \frac{N \cdot (\sum_j x_j \cdot y_j) - (\sum_j x_j) \cdot (\sum_j y_j)}{N \cdot (\sum_j x_j^2) - (\sum_j x_j)^2}$$

(all sum from $j=1$ to $N$)

$$w_0 = \frac{\sum_j y_j - w_1 \cdot (\sum_j x_j)}{N}$$

Unfortunately, if you want to do polynomials, you might not have a closed form solution like this (i.e. no “easy” exact answer)
Linear Regression: Estimate

You can do a gradient descent (much like Newton’s method) (similar to “hill-climbing”)

[Graph showing the relationship between \( f(x) = x^2 \) and \( f(1) + \text{gradient}(1) \cdot (y-1) \) with points labelled as \( W_{\text{old}} \) and \( W_{\text{new}} \).]
Linear Regression: Estimate

Again, you need calculus to figure out what direction is “down hill”, so to move the weights ($w_0, w_1, ...$) towards the bottom:

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i - \alpha \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \text{Loss}(h_{w_i})$$

... where $\alpha$ is basically the “step size” (we will often use alpha in a similar fashion, but call it the “learning factor/rate”)
Linear Regression: Estimate

The choice of $\alpha$ is somewhat arbitrary...

You don’t want it too big, but anything small is fine (even better if you shrink it over time)
Linear Regression: Estimate

You can extend this to more than just one variable (or attribute) in a similar fashion

If we $X$ as (for attributes $a,b,c\ldots$):

\[
X = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & \ldots \\
1 & a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & \ldots \\
1 & a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & \ldots \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots
\end{bmatrix}
\]

... and $w$ as:

\[
w^T = [w_0 \ w_1 \ w_2 \ w_3 \ \ldots]
\]
Linear Regression: Estimate

Then if $x_j$ is a single row of $X$:

$$(x_j)^T = [1 \ a_j \ b_j \ c_j \ ...]$$

Then our “line” is just the dot product:

$$w_0 + w_1 \cdot x_j + w_2 \cdot y_j + w_3 \cdot z_j + ... = w \cdot x_j = w^T x_j$$

Just like for the single variable case, we update our w’s as:

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i - \alpha \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial w} \text{Loss}(h_w)$$

attribute for the corresponding weight in example, so if updating “$w_2$” then “$b_j$” as in line we do “$w_2 \cdot b_j$”

... after math:

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{N} x_{j,i}(y_j - h_w(x_j))$$

$y_j$ is actual output for example/point number j
Linear Regression: Exact

However, you can solve for linear regression exactly even with multiple inputs.

Specifically, you can find optimal weights as:

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

This requires you to find a matrix inverse, which can be a bit ugly... but do-able.

Thus we estimate our line as: $$Xw \approx y$$
You actually still can overfit even with a linear approximation by using too many variables (can’t overfit “trend”)

Another option to minimize (rather than loss):

$$\text{Cost}(h_w) = \text{Loss}(h_w) + \lambda \cdot \text{Complexity}(h_w)$$

... where we will treat $\lambda$ as some constant

and:  $\text{Complexity}(h_w) = L_p(w)$

... where $L_p(w)$ is similar to the p-norm
Side note: “Distance”

The p-norm is a generalized way of measuring distance (you already know some of these)

The definition is of a p-norm:

\[ \|x\|_p = (|x_1|^p + |x_2|^p + \ldots)^{1/p} \]

Specifically in 2 dimensions:

\[ \|(x, y)\|_1 = |x| + |y| \]

(Manhattan distance)

\[ \|(x, y)\|_2 = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \]

(Euclidean distance)
Linear Regression: Overfitting

We drop the exponent for L’s, so in 2D:

\[ \|(x, y)\|_2 = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \]
\[ L_2(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 \]

So we treat the weight vector’s “distance” as the complexity (to minimize)

Here \( L_1 \) is often the best choice as it tends to have 0’s on “irrelevant” attributes/variables

... why are 0’s good? Why does it happen?
Linear Regression: Overfitting

This is because the $L_1$ (Manhattan distance) has a sharper “angle” than a circle ($L_2$)

has $w_1 = 0$, as on y-axis ... so $w_1$ seems irrelevant (less overfit)
Linear Classification

A similar problem is instead of finding the “closest” line, we want to find a line that separates the data points (assume T/F for data).

This is more similar to what we were doing with decision trees, except we will use lines rather than trees.
Linear Classification

This is actually a bit harder than linear regression as you can wiggle the line, yet the classification stays the same.

This means, most places the derivative are zero, so we cannot do simple gradient descent.

To classify we check if:

$$h_w(x) = w \cdot x > y$$

... if yes, then guess True... otherwise guess False.
Linear Classification

For example, in three dimensions:

$$\omega_1 x + \omega_2 \cdot y + \omega_3 \cdot z > c$$

This is simply one side of a plane in 3D, so this is trying to classify all possible points using a single plane...
Despite gradient descent not working, we can still “update” weights until convergence as:

\[ w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha \cdot (y - h_w(x)) \cdot x_i \]

Start weight randomly, then update weight for every example with above equation

... what does this equation look like?
Linear Classification

Despite gradient descent not working, we can still “update” weights until convergence as:

\[ w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha \cdot (y - h_w(x)) \cdot x_i \]

Start weight randomly, then update weight for every example with above equation

... what does this equation look like? Just the gradient descent (but I thought you said we couldn’t since derivative messed up!)
Linear Classification

If we had only 2 inputs, it would be everything above a line in 2D, but consider XOR on right.

There is no way a single line can classify XOR.

...what should we do?
Linear Classification

If one line isn’t enough... use more!
Our next topic will do just this...
Computer science is fundamentally a creative process: building new & interesting algorithms.

As with other creative processes, this involves mixing ideas together from various places.

Neural networks get their inspiration from how brains work at a fundamental level (simplification... of course).
Biology: brains

(Disclaimer: I am not a neuroscience-person) Brains receive small chemical signals at the “input” side, if there are enough inputs to “activate” it signals an “output”
An analogy is sleeping: when you are asleep, minor sounds will not wake you up.

However, specific sounds in combination with their volume will wake you up.
Other sounds might help you go to sleep (my majestic voice?)

Many babies tend to sleep better with “white noise” and some people like the TV/radio on.
Neural networks are connected nodes, which can be arranged into layers (more on this later)

First is an example of a perceptron, the most simple NN; a single node on a single layer
Neural networks are connected nodes, which can be arranged into layers (more on this later).

First is an example of a perceptron, the most simple NN; a single node on a single layer.
Mammals

Let's do an example with mammals...

First the definition of a mammal (wikipedia):

Mammals [posses]:
(1) a neocortex (a region of the brain),
(2) hair,
(3) three middle ear bones,
(4) and mammary glands
Mammals

Common mammal misconceptions:
(1) Warm-blooded
(2) Does not lay eggs

Let's talk dolphins for one second.

Dolphins have hair (technically) for the first week after birth, then lose it for the rest of life ...
... I will count this as “not covered in hair”
Perceptrons

Consider this example: we want to classify whether or not an animal is mammal via a perceptron (weighted evaluation)

We will evaluate on:
1. Warm blooded? (WB) Weight = 2
2. Lays eggs? (LE) Weight = -2
3. Covered hair? (CH) Weight = 3

If \((2 \cdot WB - 2 \cdot LE + 3 \cdot CH > 1) \Rightarrow \text{Mammal}\)
Consider the following animals:
Humans \{WB=y, LE=n, CH=y\}, mam=y
\[2(1) + -2(-1) + 3(1) = 7 > 1 \ldots \text{Correct!}\]
Bat \{WB=sorta, LE=n, CH=y\}, mam=y
\[2(0.5) + -2(-1) + 3(1) = 6 > 1 \ldots \text{Correct!}\]
What about these?
Platypus \{WB=y, LE=y, CH=y\}, mam=y
Dolphin \{WB=y, LE=n, CH=n\}, mam=y
Fish \{WB=n, LE=y, CH=n\}, mam=n
Birds \{WB=y, LE=y, CH=n\}, mam=n
Neural network: feed-forward

Today we will look at feed-forward NN, where information flows in a single direction.

Recurrent networks can have outputs of one node loop back to inputs as previous.

This can cause the NN to not converge on an answer (ask it the same question and it will respond differently) and also has to maintain some “initial state” (all around messy).
Neural network: feed-forward

Since in feed-forward neural networks info only flows in one direction, we can group nodes into “layers” based off dependencies.
Let's expand our mammal classification to 5 nodes in 3 layers (weights on edges):

if Output(Node 5) > 0, guess mammal
Neural network: feed-forward

You try Bat on this: \{WB=0, LE=-1, CH=1\}

Assume (for now) output = sum input

if Output(Node 5) > 0, guess mammal
Neural network: feed-forward

Output is -7, so bats are not mammal... Oops...

if Output(Node 5) > 0, guess mammal
Neural network: feed-forward

In fact, this is no better than our 1 node NN

This is because we simply output a linear combination of weights into a linear function (i.e. if \( f(x) \) and \( g(x) \) are linear... then \( g(x)+f(x) \) is also linear)

Ideally, we want a activation function that has a limited range so large signals do not always dominate... what should we use?
One commonly used function is the sigmoid:

\[ S(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}} \] (in Logistic function family)

Why good?
1. Continuous (derivatives exist)
2. Tells you "how similar" not just T/F
Back-propagation

The neural network is as good as its structure and weights on edges

Structure we will ignore (more complex), but there is an automated way to learn weights

Whenever a NN incorrectly answer a problem, the weights play a “blame game”...
- Weights that have a big impact to the wrong answer are reduced
Back-propagation

Let’s go back to our simple Neural Network:

When output was threshold (i.e. sum > c), we had:

\[ w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha \cdot (y - h_w(x)) \cdot x_i \]

Now if we use the sigmoid for the output instead... how does this change?
Back-propagation

Basically we used to have:

\[ \text{Loss}(w) = (y - h_w(x)) = y - w \cdot x \]

Now we have:

\[ \text{Loss}(w) = (y - h_w(x)) = y - S(w \cdot x) \]

So we have to use our good old friend, the chain rule! So...

\[ w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha \cdot (y - h_w(x)) \cdot x_i \]

... turns into (math needed) ...

\[ w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha \cdot S'(w \cdot x) \cdot (y - h_w(x)) \cdot x_i \]
Back-propagation

So if we had input:
WB = 1, LE = -1, CH = 0.5
... and we expected output “1”

\[ w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha \cdot S'(w \cdot x) \cdot (y - h_w(x)) \cdot x_i \]

Then we would update the WB weight as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\omega_{WB} &= 2 + \alpha \cdot S'(1 \cdot 2 + -1 - 2 + 0.5 \cdot 3) \cdot (1 - \text{output}) \cdot 1 \\
&= 2 + 0.5 \cdot S'(5.5) \cdot (1 - \text{output}) \\
&= 2 + 0.5 \cdot S(5.5) \cdot (1 - S(5.5)) \cdot (1 - S(5.5)) \\
&= 2 + 0.5 \cdot 0.9959 \cdot 0.004070 \cdot (1 - 0.9959) \\
&= 2.00000830929
\end{align*}
\]
Back-propagation

The neural network is as good as its structure and weights on edges

Structure we will ignore (more complex), but there is an automated way to learn weights

Whenever a NN incorrectly answer a problem, the weights play a “blame game”...
- Weights that have a big impact to the wrong answer are reduced
Consider this example: 4 nodes, 2 layers

This node as a constant bias of 1
Node 1: 0.15 * 0.05 + 0.2 * 0.1 + 0.35 = 0.3775 input
thus it outputs (all edges) $S(0.3775) = 0.59327$
Eventually we get: $\text{out}_1 = 0.751$, $\text{out}_2 = 0.773$

Suppose wanted: $\text{out}_1 = 0.01$, $\text{out}_2 = 0.99$
Back-propagation

We will define the error as:

\[ \sum_i (\text{correct}_i - \text{output}_i)^2 \]

(you will see why shortly)

Suppose we want to find how much \( w_5 \) is to blame for our incorrectness.

We then need to find:

\[ \frac{\partial \text{Error}}{\partial w_5} \]

Apply the chain rule:

\[ \frac{\partial \text{Error}}{\partial \text{out}_1} \cdot \frac{\partial S(\text{In}(N_3))}{\partial \text{In}(N_3)} \cdot \frac{\partial \text{In}(N_3)}{\partial w_5} \]
Back-propagation

\[
Error = \sum_i (correct_i - output_i)^2
\]

\[
\frac{\partial Error}{\partial out_1} = -(correct_1 - out_1)
\]

\[
= -(0.01 - 0.751) = 0.741
\]

As \( S'(x) = S(x) \cdot (1 - S(x)) \)

\[
\frac{\partial S(In(N_3))}{\partial In(N_3)} = S(In(N_3)) \cdot (1 - S(In(N_3)))
\]

\[
= 0.751 \cdot (1 - 0.751) = 0.187
\]

\[
\frac{\partial In(N_3)}{\partial w_5} = \frac{\partial w_5 \cdot Out(N_1) + w_6 \cdot Out(N_2) + b_2 \cdot 1}{\partial w_5}
\]

\[
= Out(N_1) = 0.593
\]

Thus, \( \frac{\partial Error}{\partial w_5} = 0.593 \cdot 0.187 \cdot 0.741 = 0.0822 \)
Back-propagation

In a picture we did this:

Now that we know $w_5$ is 0.08217 part responsible, we update the weight by:

$$w_5 \leftarrow w_5 - \alpha \times 0.0822 = 0.3589 \text{ (from 0.4)}$$

$\alpha$ is learning rate, set to 0.5
Back-propagation

For $w_1$ it would look like:

(book describes how to dynamic program this)
Back-propagation

Specifically for $w_1$, you would get:

$$ \frac{\partial \text{Error}}{\partial S(In(N_1))} = \frac{\partial \text{Error}_1}{\partial S(In(N_1))} + \frac{\partial \text{Error}_2}{\partial S(In(N_1))} $$

$$ \frac{\partial S(In(N_1))}{\partial In(N_1)} = S(In(N_1)) \cdot (1 - S(In(N_1))) $$

$$ = 0.593 \cdot (1 - 0.593) = 0.241 $$

$$ \frac{\partial In(N_3)}{\partial w_5} = \frac{\partial w_1 \cdot In_1 + w_2 \cdot In_2 + b_1 \cdot 1}{\partial w_5} $$

$$ = In_1 = 0.05 $$

Next we have to break down the top equation...
Back-propagation

\[
\frac{\partial \text{Error}}{\partial S(\text{In}(N_1))} = \frac{\partial \text{Error}_1}{\partial S(\text{In}(N_1))} + \frac{\partial \text{Error}_2}{\partial S(\text{In}(N_1))}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial \text{Error}_1}{\partial S(\text{In}(N_1))} = \frac{\partial \text{Error}_1}{\partial S(\text{In}(N_3))} \cdot \frac{\partial S(\text{In}(N_3))}{\partial \text{In}(N_3)} \cdot \frac{\partial \text{In}(N_3)}{\partial S(\text{In}(N_1))}
\]

From before...

\[
\frac{\partial \text{Error}_1}{\partial S(\text{In}(N_3))} \cdot \frac{\partial S(\text{In}(N_3))}{\partial \text{In}(N_3)} = 0.7414 \cdot 0.1868 = 0.1385
\]

\[
\frac{\partial \text{In}(N_3)}{\partial S(\text{In}(N_1))} = \frac{\partial w_5 \cdot S(\text{In}(N_1)) + w_6 \cdot S(\text{In}(N_2)) + b_1 \cdot 1}{\partial S(\text{In}(N_1))}
\]

\[
= w_5 = 0.4
\]

Thus,

\[
\frac{\partial \text{Error}_1}{\partial S(\text{In}(N_1))} = 0.1385 \cdot 0.4 = 0.05540
\]
Back-propagation

Similarly for Error$ _2 $ we get:

\[
\frac{\partial Error}{\partial S(In(N_1))} = \frac{\partial Error_1}{\partial S(In(N_1))} + \frac{\partial Error_2}{\partial S(In(N_1))} \\
= 0.05540 + -0.01905 = 0.03635
\]

Thus, \( \frac{\partial Error}{\partial w_1} = 0.03635 \cdot 0.2413 \cdot 0.05 = 0.0004386 \)

Update \( w_1 \leftarrow w_1 - \alpha \frac{\partial Error}{\partial w_1} = 0.15 - 0.5 \cdot 0.0004386 = 0.1498 \)

You might notice this is small...

This is an issue with neural networks, deeper the network the less earlier nodes update
Despite this learning shortcoming, NN are useful in a wide range of applications:
- Reading handwriting
- Playing games
- Face detection
- Economic predictions

Neural networks can also be very powerful when combined with other techniques (genetic algorithms, search techniques, ...)

NN examples
NN examples

Examples:
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=umRdt3zGgpU
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qv6UVOQ0F44
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xcIBoPuNIiw
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0Str0Rdkxxo
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=l2_CPB0uBkc
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0VTI1BBLydE
AlphaGo/Zero has been in the news recently, and is also based on neural networks.

AlphaGo uses Monte-Carlo tree search guided by the neural network to prune useless parts.

Often limiting Monte-Carlo in a static way reduces the effectiveness, much like mid-state evaluations can limit algorithm effectiveness.
NN examples

Basically, AlphaGo uses a neural network to “prune” parts for a Monte-carlo search.