COMS21202: Symbols, Patterns and Signals Deterministic Data Models

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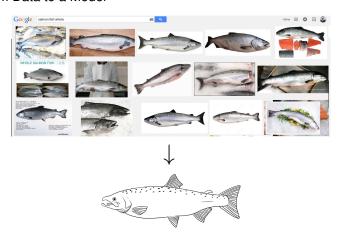
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From Data to a Model



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- Models are descriptions of the data
- They encode our assumptions about the data
- Enabling us to:
 - design 'optimal' algorithms
 - compare and contrast methods
 - quantify performance
- A model is 'more than' the data a 'generalisation' of the data

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- ▶ In others, this may be impossible and/or impractical

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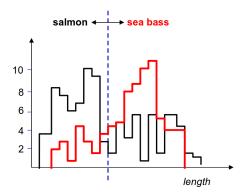
- Models do not have to exactly describe the 'real world', nor correctly model how data was generated
- In some cases, we may approximate an underlying physical process as part of our model
- In others, this may be impossible and/or impractical
- Models only need to enable us to define a method to tackle the task at hand
- Performance of the method then depends on how well the model 'maps' the data onto the required solution
- choice of model is often dictated by practicality of method, as well as by our assumptions about the data

Fish Again,

When classifying, we wish to find the model that achieves maximum discrimination

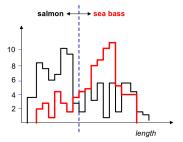
Fish Again,

- When classifying, we wish to find the model that achieves maximum discrimination
- Model selected here is a linear classifier



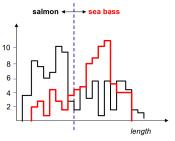
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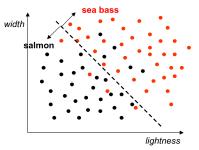


one parameter needed x = t

► Models are defined in terms of parameters (one or more)



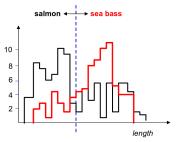
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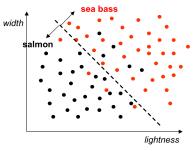
two parameters needed

$$y = mx + c$$

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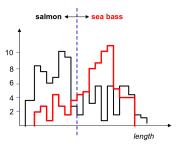
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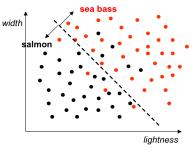
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- Models are defined in terms of parameters (one or more)
- These may be empirically obtained e.g. by trial and error
- or from training data by tuning or training the model



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- A good performance on training data is only a means to an end, not a goal in itself
- In fact trying too hard on training data leads to a damaging phenomenon called overfitting

Example

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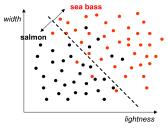
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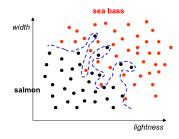
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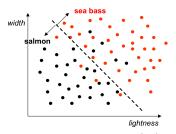


two parameters needed y = mx + c

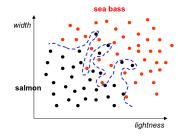


A large number of parameters needs to be tuned

 Simpler models often give good performance and can be more general

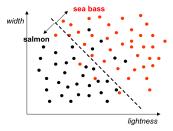


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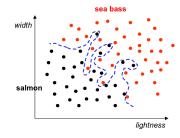


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- highly complex models over-fit the training data



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- Deterministic models do not encode the uncertainty in the data
- ► This is in contrast to probabilistic models (next lecture)

To build a deterministic model,

- Understand the task
- 2. Hypothesise the model's type
- 3. Hypothesise the model's complexity
- 4. Tune/Train the model's parameters

Another Fish Problem

Data: a set of data points $D = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \cdots, (x_N, y_N)\}$ where x_i is the length of fish i and y_i is the weight of fish i.

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(1)

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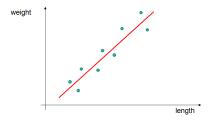
$$y_i = a + bx_i \tag{1}$$

Model Parameters: model has two parameters *a* and *b* which should be estimated.

- a is the y-intercept
- b is the slope of the line

Determinist Model - Line Fitting

- Finding the linear model parameters amounts to finding the best fitting line given the data
- criterion: The best fitting line is that which minimises a distance measure from the points to the line

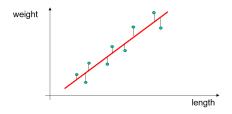


Determinist Model - Line Fitting

► Find *a,b* which minimises

$$R(a,b) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - (a + bx_i))^2$$

- This is known as the residual
- A method which gives a closed form solution is to minimise the sum of squared vertical offsets of the points from the line Method of Least-Squares



Example

The Ceres Orbit of Gauss:





source: Leon (1994). Linear Algebra and its Applications

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On Jan 1, 1801, the Italian astronomer G. Piazzi discovered the asteroid Ceres. He was able to track the asteroid for six weeks but it was lost due to interference caused by the sun.





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- A least squares problem is an overdetermined linear system of equations (i.e. number of equations >> number of unknowns)
- Such systems are usually inconsistent

Minimise residual by taking the partial derivatives, and setting them to zero (using chain rule)

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$$\frac{\partial R}{\partial a} = -2 \sum_{i} (y_i - (a + bx_i)) = 0$$

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$$a_{LS} = \bar{y} - b_{LS}\bar{x}$$

$$b_{LS} = \frac{\sum_{i} x_{i} y_{i} - N\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\sum_{i} x_{i}^{2} - N\bar{x}^{2}}$$

$$\bar{x} \equiv \text{mean of } \{x_i\}$$

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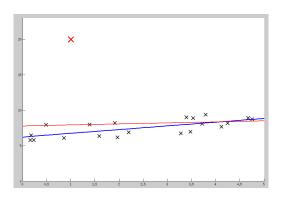
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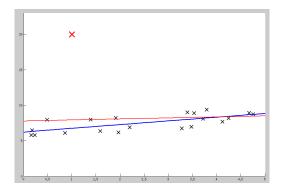
$$y = 1.8 + 2.9x$$

 Outliers can have disproportionate effects on parameter estimates when using least squares

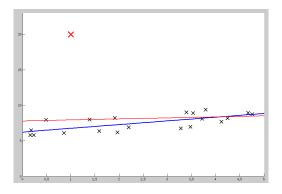
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- Outliers can have disproportionate effects on parameter estimates when using least squares
- Because residual is defined in terms of squared differences
- 'Best line' moves closer to outliers (Lab week 15)



- Least squared solution can be defined using matrices and vectors
- Easier when dealing with variables

$$R(a,b) = \sum_{i} (y_i - (a+bx_i))^2 = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Xa}\|^2$$

where
$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$$
, $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_N \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$

$$\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 - a - bx_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N - a - bx_N \end{bmatrix}$$

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 (minimise vector's length)
 $\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{a}_{LS} = 0$ (optimal vector is of length 0)
 $\mathbf{X} \mathbf{a}_{LS} = \mathbf{y}$ (re-arrange)

To solve least squares in matrix form, find a_{LS};

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$$\mathbf{a}_{LS} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} = \frac{1}{20} \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -2 \\ -2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.8 \\ 2.9 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$y = 1.8 + 2.9x$$

 Matrix formulation allows least squares method to be easily extended to data points in higher dimensions

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- ▶ Consider set of points $D = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), \cdots, (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)\}$ where \mathbf{x}_i has K dimensions

- Matrix formulation allows least squares method to be easily extended to data points in higher dimensions
- ▶ Consider set of points $D = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)\}$ where \mathbf{x}_i has K dimensions
- For a model where y_i is linearly related to x_i

$$y_i = a_0 + a_1 x_{i1} + a_2 x_{i2} + \cdots + a_K x_{iK}$$
 (2)

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{y}_{(N\times 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$$
,

$$\mathbf{y}_{(N\times 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1K} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{N1} & \cdots & x_{NK} \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{y}_{(N\times 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{X}_{(N\times (K+1))} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1K} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{N1} & \cdots & x_{NK} \end{bmatrix},$$

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$$R(\mathbf{a}) = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{a}\|^2$$

Solved in the same manner

$$\mathbf{y}_{(N\times 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{X}_{(N\times (K+1))} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1K} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{N1} & \cdots & x_{NK} \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{a}_{((K+1)\times 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_K \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R(\mathbf{a}) = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{a}\|^2$$

$$\mathbf{a}_{LS} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

where $(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})$ is a $(K+1)\times(K+1)$ square matrix

General Least Squares - matrix form

- Matrix formulation also allows least squares method to be extended to polynomial fitting
- For a polynomial of degree p + 1

$$y_i = a_0 + a_1 x_i + a_2 x_i^2 + \cdots + a_p x_i^p$$

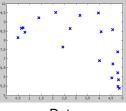
General Least Squares - matrix form

Solved in the same manner

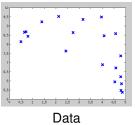
$$\mathbf{y}_{(N\times 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{X}_{(N\times (p+1))} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^p \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \cdots & x_2^p \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_N & x_N^2 & \cdots & x_N^p \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{a}_{((p+1)\times 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_p \end{bmatrix}$$

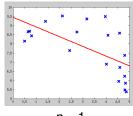
$$\mathbf{a}_{LS} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

where $(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})$ is a $(p+1)\times(p+1)$ square matrix

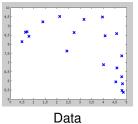


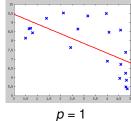
Data

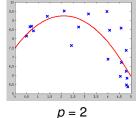




p = 1Residual = 4.7557

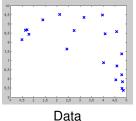


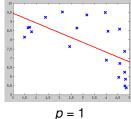


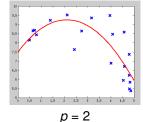


p = 1Residual = 4.7557

Residual = 3.7405

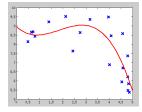




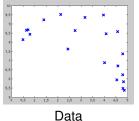


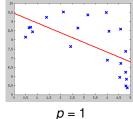
Residual = 4.7557

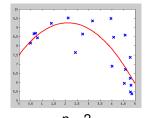
p = 2Residual = 3.7405



$$p = 3$$
 Residual = 3.5744

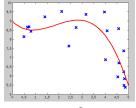


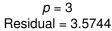


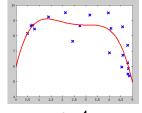


Residual = 4.7557

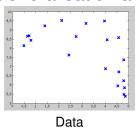
p = 2Residual = 3.7405

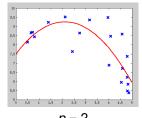




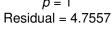


Residual = 3.4236

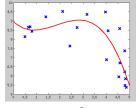


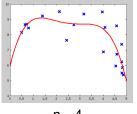


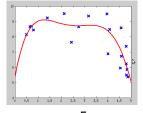
10 3.5. X X -



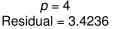
p = 2Residual = 3.7405





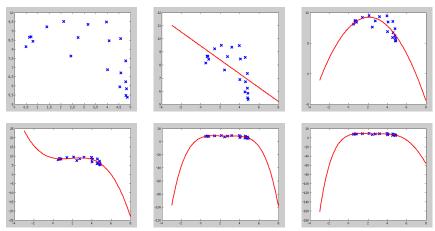


p = 3 Residual = 3.5744



p = 5Residual = 3.4217

Strong effect on how to generalise to future data



Further Reading

- ► Linear Algebra and its applications Lay (2012)
 - Section 6.5
 - Section 6.6
 - Available online

http://www.math.usu.edu/powell/pseudoinverses.pdf