## Linear Regression Analysis

- Least Sum of Squares Approach -

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# Motivation of Linear Regression

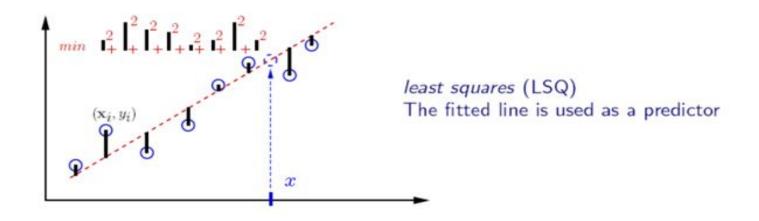
 Given two random variables x, and y, we use the following linear equation to model the correlation between two random variables

$$y = w x + b$$

- The coefficient w and correlation are related in the following way:
  - $\square$  w > 0, positive correlation
  - $\square$  w = 0, no correlation
  - $\square$  w < 0, negative correlation

## Motives of Linear Regression (cont.)

- The parameters w and b are unknown and can be determined by fitting the model with the dataset
- Fit model by minimizing the sum of squared errors (i.e. training errors)



# Linear Regression Model

- Features are random variables X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>, ..., X<sub>d</sub>
- The model can be generalized to model response y is also a random variable as follows

$$y = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + .... + w_d x_d$$

 It can be also expressed in terms of vector notation

$$y = h(x) = x^T w + w_0$$

# Linear Regression Model (cont.)

- Given a set of observed dataset points, we need to determined the coefficients which are best to fit the dataset points (x<sub>i</sub>, y<sub>i</sub>) I = 1, ..., N
- For dataset point (x<sub>i</sub>, y<sub>i</sub>) (revised version), the estimated y<sub>i</sub>

$$h(x_i) = x_i^T w$$
  
 $x_i = (1, x_{10}, x_{11}, ..., x_{1d}), w = (w_0, w_1, ..., w_d)$ 

• Let 
$$X = (x_1, ..., x_N)^T$$
  
 $(h(x_1), ..., h(x_N))^T = X w$ 

# **Optimization Problem**

 We can use training errors as the objective function to be minimized

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (h(x_i) - y_i)^2$$

- Let  $X = (x_1, ..., x_N)^T$  $(h(x_1), ..., h(x_N))^T = X w$
- The objective function can be re-written as

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})$$

### Closed Form Solution

Expand the objective function

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \frac{2}{N} \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} + \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y}$$

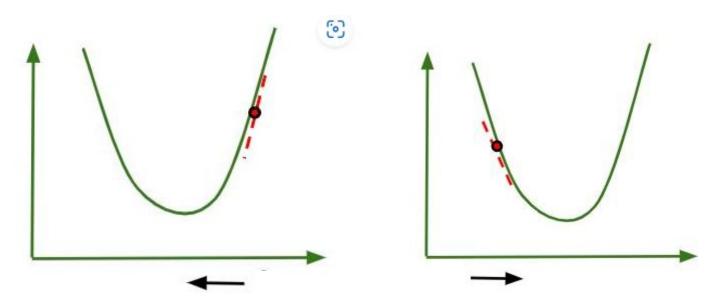
Find the solution which satisfies the following equation

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = 0$$

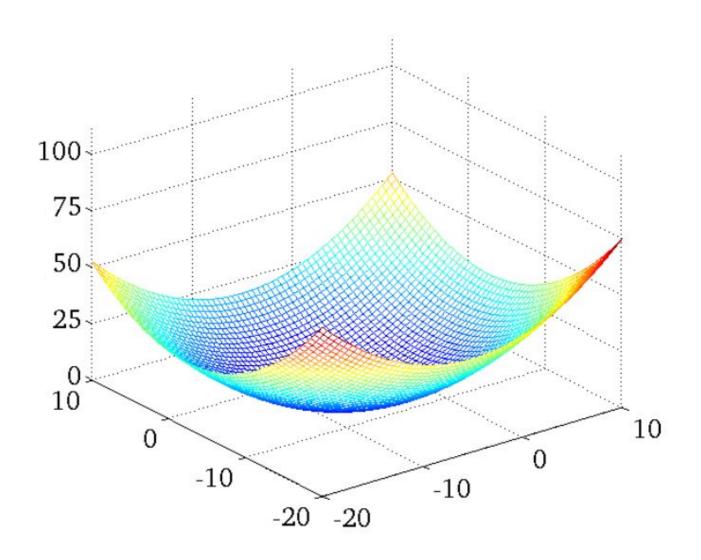
which leads to  $X^T X w = X^T y$ 

- Therefore, the solution is w = (X<sup>T</sup> X)<sup>-1</sup> X<sup>T</sup> y
- Use Python NumPy to implement the solution alpha = np.dot((np.dot(np.linalg.inv(np.dot(A.T,A)),A.T)),y)

- The objective function is a differential and convex function
- Gradient descent is a iterative process
  - ☐ Pick a starting point
  - ☐ At each iteration move to the next point by applying the slope of current point (derivative of the function)



## 3-D Convex Function



### Derivative of Function

The derivative of the function is

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w} \, \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial w} \frac{1}{N} \, \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_i) - \mathbf{y}_i)^2$$

- Since  $\frac{\partial}{\partial w} f(\mathbf{w}) = (\frac{\partial}{\partial w_0} f(\mathbf{w}), ..., \frac{\partial}{\partial w_d} f(\mathbf{w}))$ , we will find  $\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} f(\mathbf{w}) = 0, 1, 2, ..., d$
- The equation for  $\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{w})$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} f(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\sum_{k=0}^{k=d} w_d x_{id} - y_i)^2$$

### **Derivation of Function**

Apply the Derivative Chain Rule:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{j}} f(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\sum_{k=0}^{k=d} w_{d} x_{id} - y_{i}) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{j}} (\sum_{k=0}^{k=d} w_{d} x_{id} - y_{i})$$

We will get the following equation

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{i}} f(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\sum_{k=0}^{k=d} w_{d} x_{id} - y_{i}) x_{ij}$$

## **Gradient Descent Algorithm**

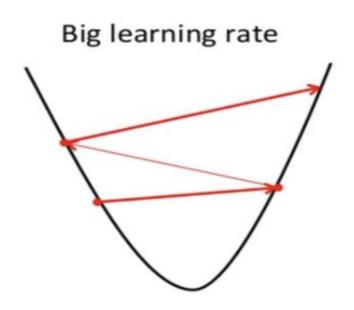
- Initialize w
- Update  $w_j$  at each iteration using the following equation until  $\mathbf{w}$  converges

$$w_{j} \leftarrow w_{j} + \alpha \left(\frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{k=d} w_{d} x_{id} - y_{i}\right) x_{ij}\right)$$

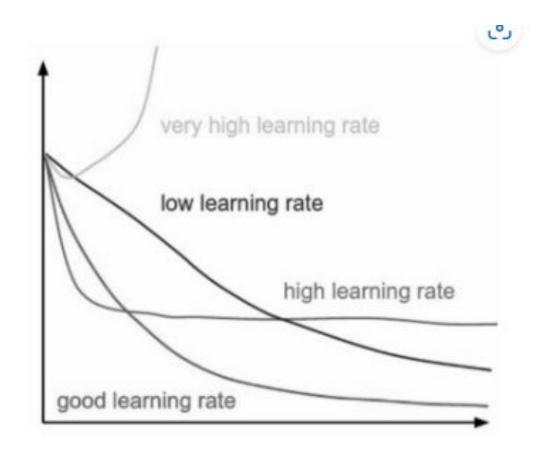
where  $\alpha$  is the *learning rate* 

## The Learning Rate

- If the learning rate is too high, we might OVERSHOOT the minima and keep bouncing, without reaching the minima
- If the learning rate is too small, the training might turn out to be too long

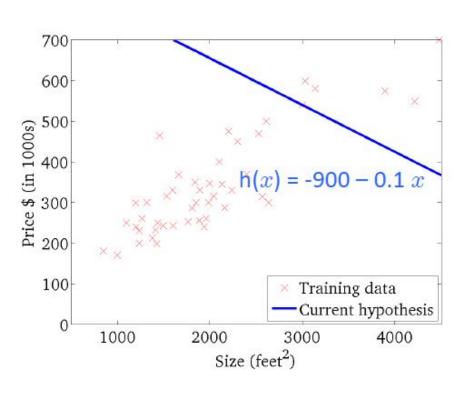


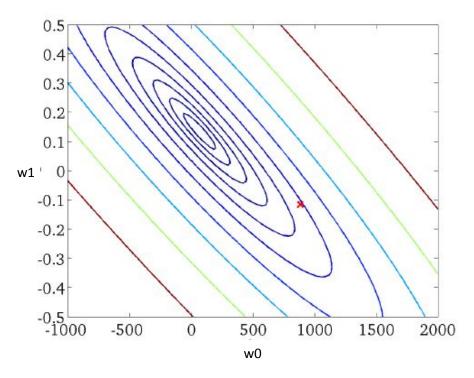
# Learning Rate (cont.)



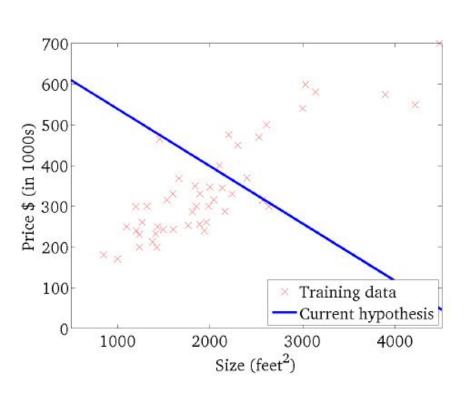
Loss value v.s. the number of iterations

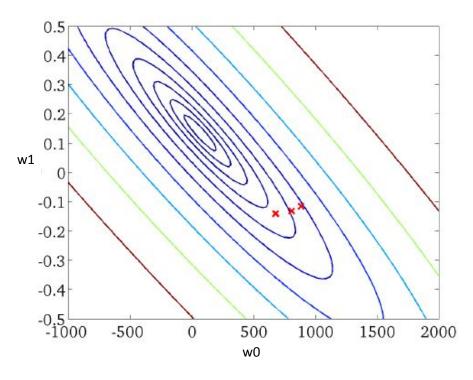
#### **Initial Iteration**



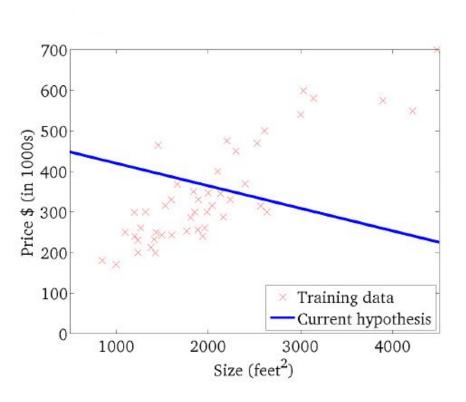


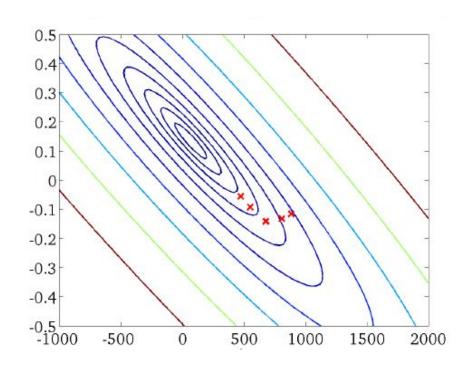
#### The 3rd Iteration



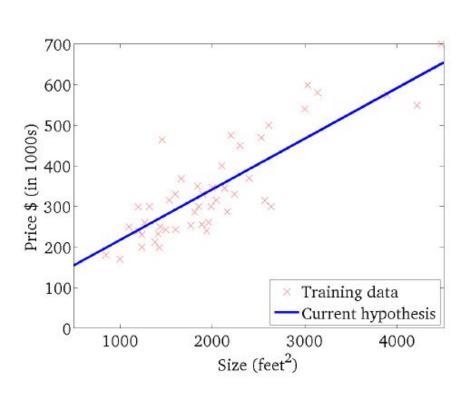


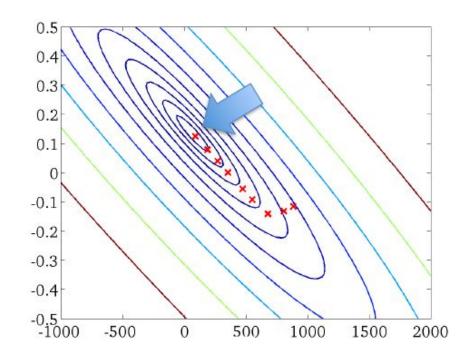
#### The 5th Iteration





#### The 9th Iteration

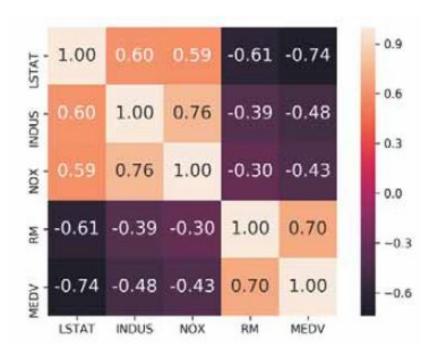




## Example

- Chapter 10 in Python Machine Learning, Sebastian Raschka Vahid Mirjalili Packt Publishing Ltd.
- Data preparation

### Correlation analysis



- Feature selection
- Feature scaling

```
>>> X = df[['RM']].values
>>> y = df['MEDV'].values
>>> from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
>>> sc_x = StandardScaler()
>>> sc_y = StandardScaler()
>>> X_std = sc_x.fit_transform(X)
>>> y_std = sc_y.fit_transform(y[:, np.newaxis]).flatten()
```

Implementation of Gradient Descent

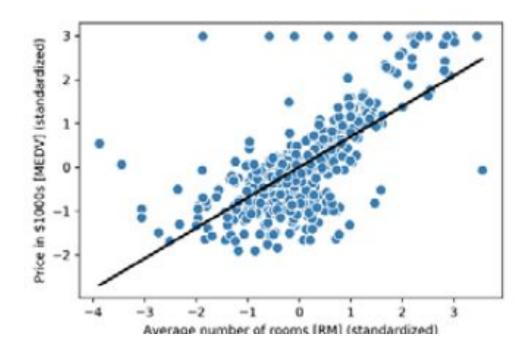
```
class LinearRegressionGD(object):
    def init (self, eta=0.001, n iter=20):
        self.eta = eta
        self.n iter = n iter
    def fit(self, X, y):
       self.w = np.zeros(1 + X.shape[1])
        self.cost = []
        for i in range (self.n iter):
            output = self.net input(X)
            errors = (y - output)
            self.w [1:] += self.eta * X.T.dot(errors)
            self.w [0] += self.eta * errors.sum()
            cost = (errors**2).sum() / 2.0
            self.cost .append(cost)
        return self
    def net input (self, X):
       return np.dot(X, self.w [1:]) + self.w [0]
    def predict (self, X):
       return self.net input(X)
```

Usage of GD method

```
>>> lr = LinearRegressionGD()
           >>> lr.fit(X_std, y_std)
>>> sns.reset orig() # resets matplotlib style
>>> plt.plot(range(1, lr.n iter+1), lr.cost )
>>> plt.ylabel('SSE')
>>> plt.xlabel('Epoch')
>>> plt.show()
                                       240
                                       220
                                       180
                                       160
                                       140
                                                                12.5
                                                                    15.0
                                             2.5
                                                  5.0
                                                       7.5
                                                           10.0
                                                                         17.5
                                                                              20.0
```

Epoch

```
>>> lin_regplot(X_std, y_std, lr)
>>> plt.xlabel('Average number of rooms [RM] (standardized)')
>>> plt.ylabel('Price in $1000s [MEDV] (standardized)')
>>> plt.show()
```



Scikit-learn library

```
>>> from sklearn.linear_model import LinearRegression
>>> slr = LinearRegression()
>>> slr.fit(X, y)
>>> print('Slope: %.3f' % slr.coef_[0])
Slope: 9.102
>>> print('Intercept: %.3f' % slr.intercept_)
Intercept: -34.671
```

## Gradient Descent vs Closed Form

#### **Gradient Descent**

- Requires multiple iterations
- Need to choose α
- Works well when n is large
- Can support incremental learning

#### Closed Form Solution

- Non-iterative
- No need for α
- Slow if n is large
  - Computing  $(X^TX)^{-1}$  is roughly  $O(n^3)$

# Kernel Regression Analysis

- Linear functions might not be good enough for some datasets
- Kernel method could be used to fit dataset with nonlinear functions
- Apply the kernel method and trick to get

$$y_i = \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j \, \varphi^T(\mathbf{x_j}) \, \varphi(\mathbf{x_i})$$

• Kernel matrix  $\mathbf{K}(i, j) = \boldsymbol{\varphi}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{x}_i) \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}_i)$