# 8.1 - Regression Scratch

September 17, 2020

# 0.1 Regression from Scratch

```
[1]: import numpy as np from sklearn.datasets import load_boston
```

Let's load some boston data as our regression case study

```
[2]: #type - Bunch
#Bunch - dictionary of numpy data
#boston.feature_names
#print(boston)
boston = load_boston()
```

### 0.1.1 Step 1: Prepare your data

# 1.1 Get your X and y in the right shape

```
[3]: X = boston.data
X.shape #number of samples, number of features

m = X.shape[0] #number of samples
n = X.shape[1] #number of features
```

```
[4]: y = boston.target
```

```
[5]: #number of rows in X is the same as number of rows in y
#because so we have yhat for all y
assert m == y.shape[0]
```

### 1.2 Feature scale your data to reach faster convergence

```
[6]: #I want to standardize my data so that mean is 0, variance is 1
#average across each feature, NOT across each sample
#Why we need to standardize
#Because standardizing usually allows us to reach convergence faster
#Why -> because the values are within smaller range
#Thus, the gradients are also within limited range, and NOT go crazy

from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
```

```
#1. StandardScaler.fit(X) #this scaler (or self) knows the mean and std so now # it knows how to transform data #2 X = StandardScaler.transform(X) #not in place; will return something #1. StandardScaler.fit_transform(X) -> 1 and 2 sequentially #create an object of StandardScaler #StandardScaler is a class #scaler is called instance/object #ALMOST always, feature scale your data using normalization or standardization #If you assume your data is gaussian, use standardization, otherwise, you doughthe normalization scaler = StandardScaler()

X = scaler.fit_transform(X)
```

## 1.3 Train test split your data

```
[7]: #what is the appropriate size for test data
#70/30 (small dataset); 80/20 (medium dataset); 90/10 (large dataset);
#why large dataset, can set test size to 10, because
#10% of large dataset is already enough for testing accuracy
from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split

X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size = 0.3)
assert len(X_train) == len(y_train)
assert len(X_test) == len(y_test)
```

### 1.4 Add intercepts

```
intercept = np.ones((X_train.shape[0], 1))

#concatenate the intercept based on axis=1
X_train = np.concatenate((intercept, X_train), axis=1)

#np.ones((shape))
intercept = np.ones((X_test.shape[0], 1))

#concatenate the intercept based on axis=1
X_test = np.concatenate((intercept, X_test), axis=1)
```

1.5. Feature Engineering (optional) It is sometimes useful to engineer new features (e.g., polynomial, kernels) so to create some non-linear relationships with your target.

Here we gonna skip

# 0.1.2 Algorithm 1: Closed Form

The closed form is a normal equations derived from setting the derivatives = 0. By performing only some inverse operations and matrix multiplication, we will be able to get the theta.

When closed form is available, is doable (can be inversed - can use pseudoinverse), and with not many features (i.e., inverse can be slow), it is recommended to always use closed form.

$$\theta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$$

#### 1. Define your algorithm

```
[9]: #Closed form

#How to get Closed Form

#Simple; Set the d(cost function) = 0

#And find the \theta that satisfy the equation

#When we can do such a thing in which we set the d(cost function) = 0

#--->When its strictly concave, or strictly convex

#---> They have only one local maximum (concave), minimum (convex)

from numpy.linalg import inv

#run it, and return me the theta

#which one do first DOES NOT MATTER

#But don't flip y before X^T for example

def closed_form(X, y):
    return inv(X.T @ X) @ X.T @ y
```

```
[10]: #let's use the closed_form to find the theta
theta = closed_form(X_train, y_train)
theta #<----this is our model</pre>
```

```
[10]: array([22.64917743, -1.05547574, 1.22332735, -0.1144123, 0.75230475, -2.03959642, 2.69724278, -0.06751152, -3.528664, 2.94806347, -2.10031456, -2.15895157, 0.88454597, -3.93938543])
```

# 2. Compute accuracy/loss

```
[11]: #Compute the accuracy/loss

#6.1 predict --> \theta^T x
yhat = X_test @ theta #==> X (m, n+1) @ (n+1, ) w ==> (m, ) y

#if I want to compare yhat and y, I need to make sure they are the same shape
assert y_test.shape == yhat.shape
```

2710.09911982039

### 0.1.3 Algorithm 2: Batch Gradient Descent

The gradient descent has the following steps:

- 1. Prepare your data
  - add intercept
  - X and y in the right shape
  - train-test split
  - feature scale
  - clean out any missing data
  - (optional) feature engineering
- 2. Predict and calculate the loss
  - The loss function is the mean squared error

$$J = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{m} (h - y)^2}{m}$$

where h is simply

$$h = \theta^T x$$

3. Calculate the gradient based on the loss

• The gradient of the loss function is

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_j} = \sum_{i=1}^m (h^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x_j$$

4. Update the theta with this update rule

$$\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha * \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_j}$$

where  $\alpha$  is a typical learning rate range between 0 and 1

5. Loop 2-4 until max\_iter is reached, or the difference between old loss and new loss are smaller than some predefined threshold tol

# 1. Define your algorithm

```
[16]: from time import time
      #Step 1: Prepare your data
      #X_train, X_test have intercepts that are being concatenated to the data
      #[1, features
      # 1, features....]
      \#making sure our X_{train} has same sample size as y_{train}
      assert X_train.shape[0] == y_train.shape[0]
      #initialize our w
      #We don't have to do X.shape[1] + 1 because our X_train already has the
      #intercept
      #w = theta/beta/coefficients
      theta = np.zeros(X_train.shape[1])
      #define the learning rate
      #later on, you gonna know that it should be better to make it slowly decreasing
      #once we perform a lot of iterations, we want the update to slow down, so it_{\sqcup}
       →converges better
      alpha = 0.0001
      #define our max_iter
      #typical to call it epochs <---ml people likes to call it
      max_iter = 1000
      loss_old = 10000
      tol = 0.0001
      iter_stop = 0
      def h_theta(X, theta):
          return X @ theta
```

```
def mse(yhat, y):
    return ((yhat - y)**2 / yhat.shape[0]).sum()
def delta_loss(new, old, tol):
    return np.abs(loss_new - loss_old) < tol</pre>
def gradient(X, error):
    return X.T @ error
start = time()
#define your for loop
for i in range(max_iter):
    #1. yhat = X @ w
    #prediction
    #yhat (m, ) = (m, n) @ (n, )
    yhat = h_theta(X_train, theta)
    #2. error = yhat - y_train
    #error for use to calculate gradients
    \#error(m, ) = (m, ) - (m, )
    error = yhat - y_train
    #2.1 early stopping
    \textit{\#so we don't go through all max\_iter iterations}
    # )yi_hat - yi )^2 / m <--- mse
    \#loss_new\ (scalar) = ((m, ) - (m, ) **2 / m).sum()
    loss_new = mse(yhat, y_train)
    if delta_loss(loss_new, loss_old, tol): #np.allclose
        iter_stop = i
        break
    loss_old = loss_new
    #3. grad = X.T @ error
    #grad(n, ) = (n, m) @ (m, )
    #grad for each feature j
    grad = gradient(X_train, error)
    #4. w = w - alpha * grad
    #update w
    \#w(n,) = (n,) - scalar * (n,)
    theta = theta - alpha * grad
time_taken = time() - start
```

### 2. Compute accuracy/loss

```
[17]: #we got our lovely w
    #now it's time to check our accuracy
#1. Make prediction
    yhat = h_theta(X_test, theta)

#2. Calculate mean squared errors
    mse = mse(yhat, y_test)

#print the mse
    print("MSE: ", mse)
    print("Stop at iteration: ", iter_stop)
    print("Time used: ", time_taken)
```

MSE: 17.819515132071835 Stop at iteration: 797

Time used: 0.017093181610107422

# 0.1.4 Algorithm 3: Stochastic Gradient Descent

The gradient descent has the following steps:

- 1. Prepare your data
  - add intercept
  - X and y in the right shape
  - train-test split
  - feature scale
  - clean out any missing data
  - (optional) feature engineering
- 2. Predict and calculate the loss
- 3. Calculate the gradient based on the loss
  - This differs from batch gradient descent that it only uses one sample to estimate the loss and gradient

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_i} = (h^{(i)} - y^{(i)})x_j$$

where i is some random number

- 4. Update the theta
- 5. Loop 2-4 until max\_iter is reached, or the difference between old loss and new loss are smaller than some predefined threshold tol

# 1. Define your algorithm

```
w shape (n, )
    Returns:
       (m, )
    return X @ w
def mse(yhat, y):
    return ((yhat - y)**2 / yhat.shape[0]).sum()
def singe_mse(yhat, y):
    #yhat (1, ) - (1, ) ** 2
    return (yhat - y)**2
def delta_loss(new, old, tol):
    return np.abs(loss_new - loss_old) < tol</pre>
def gradient(X, error):
    return X.T @ error
#initialize our w
#We don't have to do X.shape[1] + 1 because our X_train already has the
#intercept
#w = theta/beta/coefficients
theta = np.zeros(X_train.shape[1])
#define the learning rate
#later on, you gonna know that it should be better to make it slowly decreasing
#once we perform a lot of iterations, we want the update to slow down, so it_{\sqcup}
→converges better
alpha = 0.01
loss_old = 10000
tol = 0.0001
iter_stop = 0
max_epochs = 10000
start = time()
#define your for loop
for epoch in range(max_epochs): #max_iter is the same as epochs
    #we have indices for all samples
    i = np.random.randint(X_train.shape[0])
    #1. yhat = X_i @ w
    \#X \ i \ (1, n)
    X_i = X_{train}[i, :].reshape(1, -1)
```

```
#prediction
    #yhat (1, ) = (1, n) @ (n, )
   yhat = h_theta(X_i, theta)
   #2. error = yhat - y_i
   #y_i (1, )
   y_i = y_train[i]
    #error for use to calculate gradients
   \#error(1,) = (1,) - (1,)
   error = yhat - y_i
   #2.1 early stopping
   #so we don't go through all max_iter iterations
   # (yi_hat - yi )^2 / m <--- mse
   \#loss_new\ (scalar) = ((m, ) - (m, ) **2 / m).sum()
   loss_new = singe_mse(yhat, y_i)
   if delta_loss(loss_new, loss_old, tol): #np.allclose
        iter_stop = epoch
       break
   loss_old = loss_new
   #3. grad = X.T @ error
   #grad(n, ) = (n, 1) @ (1, )
   #grad for each feature j
   grad = gradient(X_i, error)
   #4. w = w - alpha * grad
   #update w
   \#w(n,) = (n,) - scalar * (n,)
   theta = theta - alpha * grad
time_taken = time() - start
```

### 2. Compute accuracy/loss

```
[19]: #we got our lovely w
    #now it's time to check our accuracy
#1. Make prediction
yhat = h_theta(X_test, theta)

#2. Calculate mean squared errors
mse = mse(yhat, y_test)

#print the mse
print("MSE: ", mse)
print("Stop at iteration: ", iter_stop)
print("Time used: ", time_taken)
```

#the time taken is strangely higher than gradient descent
#perhaps using stochastic with decay learning rate may give us
#a better chance

MSE: 19.677024613338126 Stop at iteration: 0

Time used: 0.2084660530090332

### 0.1.5 Algorithm 4: Mini-Batch Gradient Descent

The gradient descent has the following steps:

1. Prepare your data

- add intercept
- X and y in the right shape
- train-test split
- feature scale
- clean out any missing data
- (optional) feature engineering
- 2. Predict and calculate the loss
- 3. Calculate the gradient based on the loss
  - This differs from batch gradient descent that it only uses a subset of samples to estimate the loss and gradient

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_j} = \sum_{i=start}^{batch} (h^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x_j$$

where start is a randomized number within the range of m and batch is a predefined batch size, typically around 100 to 500

- 4. Update the theta
- 5. Loop 2-4 until max\_iter is reached, or the difference between old loss and new loss are smaller than some predefined threshold tol

I will not implement this, but leave to your exercise. Enjoy!

[]: