# **Lab 2: Linear Regression**

NOTE: This is a lab project accompanying the following book [MLF] and it should be used together with the book.

[MLF] H. Jiang, "Machine Learning Fundamentals: A Concise Introduction (<a href="http://wiki.eecs.yorku.ca/user/hj/research:mlfbook">http://wiki.eecs.yorku.ca/user/hj/research:mlfbook</a>)", Cambridge University Press, 2021. (<a href="http://www.cse.yorku.ca/~hj/mlf-jiang.bib">http://www.cse.yorku.ca/~hj/mlf-jiang.bib</a>))

The purpose of this lab is to apply a simple machine learning method, namely *linear regression*, to some regression and classification tasks on two popular data sets. We will show how linear regression may differ when used to solve a regression or classification problem. As we know, linear regression is simple enough so that we can derive the closed-form solution to solve it. In this project, we will use both the closed-form method and an iterative gradient descent method (e.g. minibatch SGD) to solve linear regression for these tasks and compare their pros and cons in practice. Moreover, we will use linear regression as a simple example to explain some fine-tuning tricks when using any iterative optimization methods (e.g. SGD) in machine learning. As we will see in the up-coming projects, these tricks become vital in learning large models in machine learning, such as deep neural networks.

Prerequisites: N/A

## I. Linear Regression for Regression

#### Problem 2.1:

Use linear regression to predict house prices in the popular <u>Boston House data set</u> (<a href="https://www.cs.toronto.edu/~delve/data/boston/bostonDetail.html">https://www.cs.toronto.edu/~delve/data/boston/bostonDetail.html</a>). Consider to use both the closed-form solution and an iterative method to fit to the data and discuss their pros and cons in practice.

```
In [1]: #link my Google drive
    from google.colab import drive
    drive.mount('/content/drive')
```

Mounted at /content/drive

```
In [86]:
         # load Boston House data set
         import pandas as pd
         import numpy as np
         raw data = pd.read csv('/content/drive/My Drive/Colab Notebooks/datase
         ts/boston.csv', header=None)
         data rows = np.reshape(raw_data.to_numpy(), (506,14))
         data = data rows[:,:13]
         target = data rows[:,13]
         # normalize data to zero-mean and unit-variance
         data = (data-np.mean(data, axis=0))/np.std(data, axis=0)
         print(data.shape)
         print(target.shape)
         (506, 13)
         (506,)
In [88]: # use the closed-form solution (Eq(6.9) on page 112)
         # add a constant column of '1' to accommodate the bias (see the margin
         note on page 107)
         data wb = np.hstack((data, np.ones((data.shape[0], 1), dtype=data.dtyp
         e)))
         print(data_wb.shape)
         # refer to the closed-form solution, i.e. Eq.(6.9) on page 112
         w = np.linalg.inv(data_wb.T @ data_wb) @ data_wb.T @ target
         # calculate the mean square error in the training set
         predict = data wb @ w
         error = np.sum((predict - target)*(predict - target))/data.shape[0]
         print(f'mean square error for the closed-form solution: {error:.5f}')
         (506, 14)
         mean square error for the closed-form solution: 21.89483
```

Consider to solve the above linear regression using an iterative optimization, such as gradient descent.

Refer to eq.(6.8) on page 112, the objective function, i.e. the mean square error (MSE), is given as:

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i})^{2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - 2 \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y})$$

we can show that its gradient can be computed in several equivallent ways as follows:

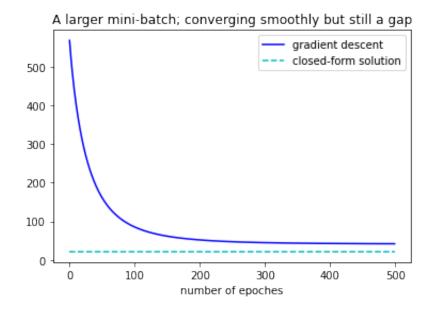
$$\frac{\partial E(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i}) \mathbf{x}_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}_{i} (\mathbf{x}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} - y_{i})$$
$$= \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \right) \mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}$$
$$= \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{v}$$

where X and y are defined in the same way as on page 112.

In the following, we use the formula from last row to calculate gradients via vectorization. Furthermore, we implement a mini-batch SGD, .i.e. **Algorithm 2.3** on page 62, to learn linear regression iteratively.

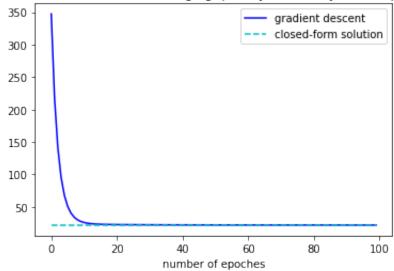
```
# solve linear regression using gradient descent
In [90]:
         import numpy as np
         class Optimizer():
           def init (self, lr, annealing rate, batch size, max epochs):
             self.lr = lr
             self.annealing rate = annealing rate
             self.batch size = batch size
             self.max epochs = max_epochs
         # X[N,d]: input features; y[N]: output targets; op: hyper-parameters f
         or optimzer
         def linear regression gd(X, y, op):
           n = X.shape[0] # number of samples
           w = np.zeros(X.shape[1]) # initialization
           lr = op.lr
           errors = np.zeros(op.max epochs)
           for epoch in range(op.max epochs):
             indices = np.random.permutation(n) #randomly shuffle data indices
             for batch_start in range(0, n, op.batch_size):
               X batch = X[indices[batch start:batch start + op.batch size]]
               y batch = y[indices[batch start:batch start + op.batch size]]
               # vectorization to compute gradients for a whole mini-batch (see
         the above formula)
               w_grad = X_batch.T @ X_batch @ w - X_batch.T @ y_batch
               w -= lr * w grad / op.batch size
             diff = X @ w - y # prediction difference
             errors[epoch] = np.sum(diff*diff)/n
             lr *= op.annealing rate
             #print(f'epoch={epoch}: the mean square error is {errors[epoch]}')
           return w, errors
```

Out[]: <matplotlib.legend.Legend at 0x7ffb4f8f94d0>



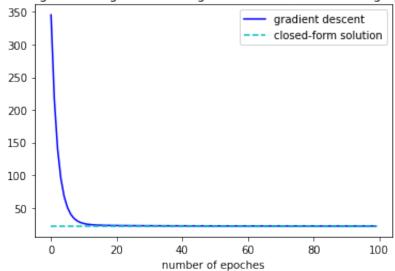
Out[]: <matplotlib.legend.Legend at 0x7ffb4f786510>

use a small mini-batch; converging quickly and nicely to the optimum



Out[]: <matplotlib.legend.Legend at 0x7ffb4f619850>





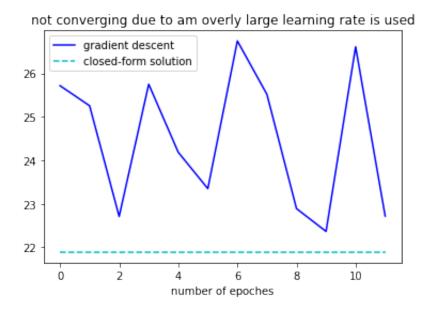
```
In [94]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

op = Optimizer(lr=0.2, annealing_rate=0.99, batch_size=20, max_epochs=
12)

w, errors = linear_regression_gd(data_wb, target, op)

plt.title('not converging due to am overly large learning rate is used ')
 plt.xlabel('number of epoches')
 plt.plot(errors, 'b', 21.89*np.ones(errors.shape[0]), 'c--')
 plt.legend(['gradient descent', 'closed-form solution'])
```

Out[94]: <matplotlib.legend.Legend at 0x7f223e034450>



Finally, let us show how to solve the above linear regression problem using the scikit-learning implmenetation.

```
In [95]: import numpy as np
    from sklearn import linear_model
    from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error

# Create linear regression object
    l_regr = linear_model.LinearRegression()

# Train the model using the training set
    l_regr.fit(data_wb, target)

# Make predictions using the same training set
    predict = l_regr.predict(data_wb)

# The mean squared error
    print("Mean squared error: %.5f" % mean_squared_error(target, predict)
)
```

Mean squared error: 21.89483

## **II. Linear Regression for Classification**

#### Problem 2.2:

Use linear regression to build a binary classifier to classify two digits ('3' and '8') in the MNIST data set. Consider to use both the closed-form solution and an iterative method to fit to the data and discuss their pros and cons in practice.

```
In [96]: # install python_mnist
    !pip install python_mnist
```

Requirement already satisfied: python\_mnist in /usr/local/lib/python 3.7/dist-packages (0.7)

```
In [97]: #load MINST images
         from mnist import MNIST
         import numpy as np
         mnist loader = MNIST('/content/drive/My Drive/Colab Notebooks/datasets
         /MNIST')
         train data, train label = mnist loader.load training()
         test data, test label = mnist loader.load testing()
         train data = np.array(train data, dtype='float')/255 # norm to [0,1]
         train label = np.array(train label, dtype='short')
         test data = np.array(test data, dtype='float')/255 # norm to [0,1]
         test label = np.array(test label, dtype='short')
         #add small random noise to avoid matrix singularity
         train data += np.random.normal(0,0.0001,train data.shape)
         print(train data.shape, train label.shape, test data.shape, test label
         .shape)
         (60000, 784) (60000,) (10000, 784) (10000,)
In [98]: # convert digits '3' and '8' for linear regression
         digit train index = np.logical or(train label == 3, train label == 8)
         X train = train data[digit train index]
         y train = train label[digit train index]
         digit test index = np.logical or(test label == 3, test label == 8)
         X test = test data[digit test index]
         y_test = test_label[digit_test_index]
         # converge labels: '3' => -1, '8' => +1
         CUTOFF = 5 # any number between '3' and '8'
         y train = np.sign(y train-CUTOFF)
         y test = np.sign(y test-CUTOFF)
         print(X train.shape)
         print(y train)
         print(X test.shape)
         print(y test)
         (11982, 784)
         [-1 \ -1 \ -1 \ \dots \ 1 \ -1 \ 1]
         (1984, 784)
```

 $[-1 \ -1 \ -1 \ \dots \ -1 \ 1 \ -1]$ 

```
In [99]: # use the closed-form solution (Eq(6.9) on page 112)
         # add a constant column of '1' to accommodate the bias (see the margin
         note on page 107)
         X train = np.hstack((X train, np.ones((X train.shape[0], 1), dtype=X t
         rain.dtype)))
         X test = np.hstack((X test, np.ones((X test.shape[0], 1), dtype=X test
         .dtype)))
         # refer to the closed-form solution, i.e. Eq.(6.9) on page 112
         w = np.linalg.inv(X train.T @ X train) @ X train.T @ y train
         # calculate the mean square error and classification accuracy on the t
         raining set
         predict = X train @ w
         error = np.sum((predict - y_train)*(predict - y train))/X train.shape[
         0]
         print(f'mean square error on training data for the closed-form solutio
         n: {error:.5f}')
         accuracy = np.count_nonzero(np.equal(np.sign(predict),y_train))/y_trai
         n.size*100.0
         print(f'classification accuracy on training data for the closed-form s
         olution: {accuracy:.2f}%')
         # calculate the mean square error and classification accuracy on the t
         est set
         predict = X test @ w
         error = np.sum((predict - y_test)*(predict - y_test))/X_test.shape[0]
         print(f'mean square error on training data for the closed-form solutio
         n: {error:.5f}')
         accuracy = np.count nonzero(np.equal(np.sign(predict),y test))/y test.
         size*100.0
         print(f'classification accuracy on test data for the closed-form solut
         ion: {accuracy:.2f}%')
```

```
mean square error on training data for the closed-form solution: 0.1 9612 classification accuracy on training data for the closed-form solutio n: 97.00% mean square error on training data for the closed-form solution: 0.9 1871 classification accuracy on test data for the closed-form solution: 9 5.87%
```

```
In [100]: # use linear regression from sklearn
          import numpy as np
          from sklearn import linear model
          from sklearn.metrics import mean squared error
          # Create linear regression object
          l regr = linear model.LinearRegression()
          # Train the model using the training set
          l regr.fit(X train, y train)
          # Make predictions using the same training set
          predict = 1 regr.predict(X train)
          print("Mean squared error on training data: %.5f" % mean squared error
          (y train, predict))
          # Make predictions using the test set
          predict = 1 regr.predict(X test)
          print("Mean squared error on test data: %.5f" % mean squared error(y t
          est, predict))
          Mean squared error on training data: 0.19612
```

Next, let us consider to use mini-batch stochastic gradient descent (SGD) to learn linear regression models for this binary classification problem. When we fine-tune any SGD method for a classification problem in machline learning, it is very important to monitor the following three learning curves:

Mean squared error on test data: 0.91871

- 1. Classification Accuracy on the training set (**curve A**): this is the goal of the empirical risk mininization (ERM) of the zero-one loss for classification (see Eq.(5.6) on page 99).
- 2. Classification Accuracy on an unseen test/development set (curve B): we need to compare the curves A and B over the learning course to monitor whether overfitting or underfit occurs. Overfitting happens when the gap between A and B is overly big while underfitting happens when A and B get very close and both of them yield fairly poor performance. Moreover, we can also monitor the curves A and B to determine when to terminate the learning proces for the best possible performance on the test/devopement set.
- 3. The value of the learning objective function (curve C): because the zero-one loss is not directly minimizable, we will have to establish a proxy objective function according to some criteria (see Tabe 7.1 on page 135). These objective functions are closelly related to the zero-one loss but they are NOT the same. The first thing when we fine-tune an iterative optimization method is to ensure that the value of the chosen objective function descreases over the entire learning course. If we cannot reduce the objective function (even when a sufficiently small learning rate is used), it is very likely that the implementation or code is buggy. If curve C is going down but curve A is not going up, this is also a good indicator that someting is wrong in the implementation.

```
import numpy as np
class Optimizer():
  def init (self, lr, annealing rate, batch size, max epochs):
    self.lr = lr
    self.annealing rate = annealing rate
    self.batch size = batch size
    self.max epochs = max epochs
# X[N,d]: training features; y[N]: training targets;
# X2[N,d]: test features; y2[N]: test targets;
# op: hyper-parameters for optimzer
# Note: X2 and y2 are not used in training
       but only for computting the learning curve B
#
def linear regression gd2(X, y, X2, y2, op):
 n = X.shape[0] # number of samples
 w = jnp.zeros(X.shape[1]) # initialization
 lr = op.lr
 errorsA = np.zeros(op.max epochs)
 errorsB = np.zeros(op.max epochs)
 errorsC = np.zeros(op.max epochs)
  for epoch in range(op.max epochs):
    indices = np.random.permutation(n) #randomly shuffle data indices
    for batch start in range(0, n, op.batch size):
      X batch = X[indices[batch start:batch start + op.batch size]]
     y batch = y[indices[batch start:batch start + op.batch size]]
      # vectorization to compute gradients for a whole mini-batch (see
the above formula)
     w grad = X batch.T @ X batch @ w - X batch.T @ y batch
     w -= lr * w grad / op.batch size
    # for learning curve C
    diff = X @ w - y # prediction difference
    errorsC[epoch] = np.sum(diff*diff)/n
    # for learning curve A
   predict = np.sign(X @ w)
   errorsA[epoch] = np.count nonzero(np.equal(predict,y))/y.size
   # for learning curve B
   predict2 = np.sign(X2 @ w)
    errorsB[epoch] = np.count nonzero(np.equal(predict2,y2))/y2.size
    lr *= op.annealing rate
   print(f'epoch={epoch}: the mean square error is {errorsC[epoch]:.3
f} ({errorsA[epoch]:.3f}, {errorsB[epoch]:.3f})')
```

return w, errorsA, errorsB, errorsC

### In [102]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

```
op = Optimizer(lr=0.001, annealing_rate=0.99, batch_size=50, max_epoch
s=20)

w, A, B, C = linear_regression_gd2(X_train, y_train, X_test, y_test, o
p)

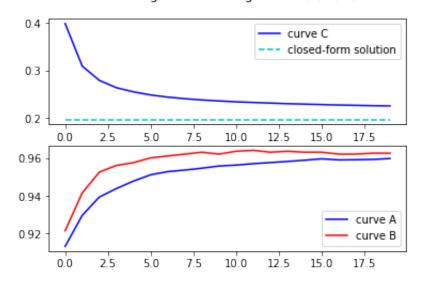
fig, ax = plt.subplots(2)
fig.suptitle('monitoring three learning curves (A, B, C)')
ax[0].plot(C, 'b', 0.196*np.ones(C.shape[0]), 'c--')
ax[0].legend(['curve C', 'closed-form solution'])

ax[1].plot(A, 'b', B, 'r')
ax[1].legend(['curve A', 'curve B'])
```

```
epoch=0: the mean square error is 0.399 (0.913, 0.921)
epoch=1: the mean square error is 0.309 (0.930, 0.942)
epoch=2: the mean square error is 0.279 (0.939,0.953)
epoch=3: the mean square error is 0.263 (0.944,0.956)
epoch=4: the mean square error is 0.254 (0.948,0.958)
epoch=5: the mean square error is 0.248 (0.951,0.960)
epoch=6: the mean square error is 0.244 (0.953,0.961)
epoch=7: the mean square error is 0.240 (0.954,0.962)
epoch=8: the mean square error is 0.237 (0.955,0.963)
epoch=9: the mean square error is 0.235 (0.956,0.962)
epoch=10: the mean square error is 0.234 (0.956,0.964)
epoch=11: the mean square error is 0.232 (0.957,0.964)
epoch=12: the mean square error is 0.231 (0.958,0.963)
epoch=13: the mean square error is 0.230 (0.958,0.964)
epoch=14: the mean square error is 0.229 (0.959,0.963)
epoch=15: the mean square error is 0.228 (0.960,0.963)
epoch=16: the mean square error is 0.227 (0.959,0.962)
epoch=17: the mean square error is 0.226 (0.959,0.962)
epoch=18: the mean square error is 0.225 (0.959,0.963)
epoch=19: the mean square error is 0.225 (0.960,0.963)
```

Out[102]: <matplotlib.legend.Legend at 0x7f223e21de10>

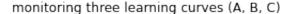
#### monitoring three learning curves (A, B, C)



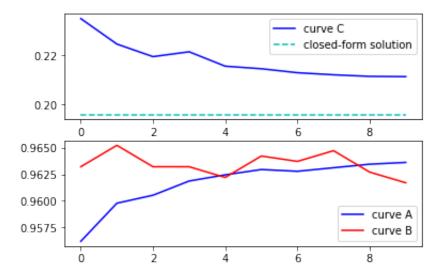
In the above setting, we use a large mini-batch (50), which leads to fairly smooth convergence. As we can see, even though there is a big gap in the objective function between SGD (curve C) and the closed-form solution, classification accuracy of SGD exceeds that of the closed-form solution on either the training or testing set. This indicates that MSE used in linear regression is NOT a good learning criterion for classification (see why in section 7.1.1 on page 136).

## import matplotlib.pyplot as plt In [104]: op = Optimizer(lr=0.001, annealing rate=0.99, batch size=5, max epochs =10)w, A, B, C = linear\_regression\_gd2(X\_train, y\_train, X\_test, y\_test, o fig, ax = plt.subplots(2)fig.suptitle('monitoring three learning curves (A, B, C)') ax[0].plot(C, 'b', 0.196\*np.ones(C.shape[0]), 'c--')ax[0].legend(['curve C', 'closed-form solution']) ax[1].plot(A, 'b', B, 'r') ax[1].legend(['curve A', 'curve B']) epoch=0: the mean square error is 0.235 (0.956,0.963) epoch=1: the mean square error is 0.225 (0.960,0.965) epoch=2: the mean square error is 0.219 (0.961,0.963) epoch=3: the mean square error is 0.221 (0.962,0.963) epoch=4: the mean square error is 0.216 (0.962, 0.962)epoch=5: the mean square error is 0.215 (0.963,0.964)

Out[104]: <matplotlib.legend.Legend at 0x7f223dcf9c90>



epoch=6: the mean square error is 0.213 (0.963,0.964) epoch=7: the mean square error is 0.212 (0.963,0.965) epoch=8: the mean square error is 0.211 (0.963,0.963) epoch=9: the mean square error is 0.211 (0.964,0.962)



In this setting, we use the same learning rate but a much smaller mini-batch size. A smaller mini-batch means more model updates in each epoch. As a result, the classification accuracy on the training set is improved over the previous setting. However, we can see that the classification accuracy on the unseen set starts to go down from epoch 2, which indicates that we should terminate the learning at epoch 2.

### **Exercises**

### Problem 2.1:

Use Ridge regression to solve the regression problem in Example 2.1 as well as the classification problem in Example 2.2, also implement both closed-form and iterative approachs, compare the results of Ridge regression with those of linear regression.

### Problem 2.2:

Use LASSO to solve the regression problem in Example 2.1 as well as the classification problem in Example 2.2, compare the results of LASSO with those of linear regression and Ridge regression.