Data Analysis and Knowledge Discovery Regression

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Regression

- ► Given: training set of input-output pairs $\{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), ..., (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}$
- ► Learn: model f such that given a new input x for which corresponding output y unknown
 - $f(\mathbf{x}) \approx y$
- $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a d-dimensional feature vector (input)
- ▶ $y \in \mathbb{R}$ is the real-valued output to be predicted

The linear model, a simple yet popular choice:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = w_1 \cdot x_1 + \dots + w_d \cdot x_d + b$$

- \triangleright $x_1, ..., x_d$, feature values
- \triangleright $w_1, ..., w_d$ model coefficients
- ▶ $b \in \mathbb{R}$ intercept term

In sum notation, this is written as

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^d w_i \cdot x_i + b$$

- $\triangleright x_1, ..., x_d$, feature values
- \triangleright $w_1, ..., w_d$ model coefficients
- ▶ $b \in \mathbb{R}$ intercept term

Append value 1 to to the beginning of each feature vector (new constant valued feature x_0), and define a new coefficient $w_0 = b$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{d} w_i \cdot x_i + b = \sum_{i=0}^{d} w_i \cdot x_i$$

- \triangleright $x_0 = 1$ the constant valued feature
- $\triangleright x_1,...,x_d$, feature values
- \triangleright $w_0, ..., w_d$ model coefficients

(A standard trick, re-naming the bias term 'b' just makes the following math and algorithmics a bit simpler.)

Finally, defining a coefficient vector $\mathbf{w} = [w_0, ..., w_d]$, we can reformulate this as the inner product between the model and feature vectors

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=0}^{d} w_i \cdot x_i = \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}$$

- x feature vector
- w model vector

Regression line (single feature case)

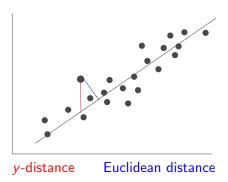
given: A data set for two continuous attributes x (input feature) and y (output).

It is assumed that there is an approximate linear dependency between x and y: $y \approx w_1 x + w_0$

Find a regression line (i.e. determine the parameters w_1 and w_0) such that the line fits the data as good as possible.

What is a good fit?

Regression



Usually, the mean square error in *y*-direction is chosen as error measure (to be minimized).

It is equivalent to minimize the sum of squared errors in *y*-direction.

Regression

Other reasonable error measures:

- mean absolute distance in y-direction
- mean Euclidean distance
- maximum absolute distance in y-direction (or equivalently: the maximum squared distance in y-direction)
- maximum Euclidean distance
- **.** . . .

Regression line

Given data (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) (i = 1, ..., n), the least squares error function is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i} \right)^{2}$$

Least squares

Classical least-squares method (1809, Carl Friedrich Gauss):

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_i - y_i \right)^2$$

- choose model w* having smallest least-squares error
- can sometimes work fine if dimensionality d much smaller than training set size n
- however, especially prone to overfitting in high dimensions (also, no unique solution if d > n)
- Sensitive to outliers

Regularized least-squares

Regularized least-squares, aka ridge regression:

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_i - y_i \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=0}^d w_i^2 \right\}$$

- regularization term penalizes too complex models
- $\lambda > 0$ regularization parameter (can be chosen with cross-validation)
- unique solution, much more robust than basic least-squares fitting, especially for high-dimensional data

Regularization for linear regression

Regularized least-squares regression:

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \left\{ \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i} \right)^{2}}_{\text{Training set error}} + \underbrace{\lambda \sum_{i=0}^{d} w_{i}^{2}}_{\text{Regularizer}} \right\}$$

Regularization for linear regression

Let us assume the following data structures:

- **X**: a nxd -sized data matrix, one row for each instance
- ▶ **y**: a n-length column vector of correct outputs, one element for each instance
- w: d-length column vector of coefficients, we wish to learn from data
- (Minor technical detail: if we use the intercept term in our model, X has one additional column of ones, and w correspondingly one more element. This can be useful especially on low-dimensional data, where the additional flexibility given to model may be helpful.)

Regularization for linear regression

Regularized least-squares regression:

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \left\{ \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i} \right)^{2}}_{\text{Training set error}} + \lambda \sum_{i=0}^{d} w_{i}^{2} \right\}$$

The same in matrix form:

$$\underset{\mathbf{w}}{\mathsf{argmin}} \left\{ \underbrace{(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})^\mathsf{T} (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})}_{\mathsf{Training set error}} + \underbrace{\lambda \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w}}_{\mathsf{Regularizer}} \right\}$$

Objective function to be minimized

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})^\mathsf{T}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}) + \lambda \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{w}$$

Gradient

$$\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \Big((\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})^\mathsf{T} (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}) + \lambda \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w} \Big)$$

It can be shown that the global minimum of the objective function can be found at the point where the gradient is zero (due to convexity of the objective function).

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial \textit{J}(\textbf{w})}{\partial \textbf{w}} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \textbf{w}} \Big((\textbf{X}\textbf{w} - \textbf{y})^\mathsf{T} (\textbf{X}\textbf{w} - \textbf{y}) + \lambda \textbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \textbf{w} \Big) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \textbf{w}} \Big(\textbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \textbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \textbf{X} \textbf{w} - \textbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \textbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \textbf{y} - \textbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \textbf{X} \textbf{w} + \textbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \textbf{y} + \lambda \textbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \textbf{w} \Big) \end{split}$$

Recall: rules of matrix transposition

$$(\mathbf{M}\mathbf{N})^\mathsf{T} = \mathbf{N}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{M}^\mathsf{T}$$

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \Big((\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})^\mathsf{T} (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}) + \lambda \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w} \Big) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \Big(\mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} + \lambda \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w} \Big) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \Big(\mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{w} - 2 \mathbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} \Big) \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \Big((\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})^\mathsf{T} (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}) + \lambda \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w} \Big) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \Big(\mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} + \lambda \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w} \Big) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \Big(\mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{w} - 2 \mathbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} \Big) \\ &= (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{w} + (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w} - 2 \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} \end{split}$$

Gradient rules

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial}{\partial w} \mathbf{v}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w} &= \mathbf{v} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial w} \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{w} &= \mathbf{M} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{M}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w} \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \Big((\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})^\mathsf{T} (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}) + \lambda \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w} \Big) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \Big(\mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} + \lambda \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w} \Big) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \Big(\mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{w} - 2 \mathbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{y}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} \Big) \\ &= (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{w} + (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w} - 2 \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} \\ &= 2 (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{w} - 2 \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} \end{split}$$

$$\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = 2(\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y} = 0$$

$$(\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{y}$$

$$(\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{y}$$

Regularized least-squares

- Given: data matrix \mathbf{X} , outputs \mathbf{y} , hyperparameter λ
- ► Solve the above linear system to find model coefficients w
- Can be solved using any standard linear algebra package (e.g. numpy.linalg.solve())
- ► Computational complexity: $O(d^3 + d^2n)$, memory usage $O(d^2 + dn)$
- ▶ feasible if dimensionality d is not too large (at most couple of thousands), but what if d >> n?

Code for training regularized least-squares

```
import numpy as np
def rls(X, y, regparam):
   #X: nxd data matrix
   #y: n-length vector of outputs
   \#regparam > 0: parameter
   #returns: coefficients w
    d = X.shape[1]
    I = np.eye(d)
   A = np.dot(X.T, X) + regparam*I
    b = np.dot(X.T, y)
   w = np.linalg.solve(A, b)
    return w
```

Solving regularized least-squares, the other way

$$\begin{array}{rcl} (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} + \lambda \mathbf{I})\mathbf{a} & = & \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{w} & = & \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{a} \end{array}$$

Regularized least-squares

- It can be shown, that regularized least-squares can equivalently be trained by solving a nxn-sized linear system of equations
- Much more efficient than previous form, if dimensionality much larger than sample size (e.g. microarray data in bioinformatics)
- ► Computational complexity: $O(n^3 + n^2d)$, memory usage $O(n^2 + dn)$

Code for training regularized least-squares, dual form

```
import numpy as np
def rls(X, y, regparam):
   #X: nxd data matrix
   #y: n-length vector of outputs
   \#regparam > 0: parameter
   #returns: coefficients w
    n = X.shape[0]
    I = np.eye(n)
   A = np.dot(X, X.T) + regparam*I
    a = np.linalg.solve(A, y)
   w = np.dot(X.T, a)
    return w
```

Code for lazy people

```
from sklearn.linear_model import Ridge

def rls_using_sklearn(X, y, regparam):
    learner = Ridge(alpha=regparam,
    fit_intercept=False)
    learner.fit(X, y)
    w = learner.coef_
    return w
```

Should give same results as previous codes, the underlying implementation automatically decides, which of the previously shown formulations is solved depending on the values of d and n. Minor technical detail: Usually you should set fit_intercept=True, this would be equivalent to appending a constant feature to each feature vector in the previous examples.

Applying the model on new data

```
import numpy as np

def predict(x_test, w):
    #x_test: test instance, vector of d-features
    #w: vector of d-coefficients
    return np.dot(x_test, w)
```

What did we learn?

- linear model for regression
- regularized least squares, aka ridge regression, aka least-squares support vector machine
- idea: minimize mean squared error on training data, use a regularization term to penalize model complexity (here coefficients squared)
- unique optimal solution by solving a linear system of equations
- efficient to train, either by solving dxd or nxn -sized linear system (choose minimum)
- produces a compact linear model, that can be very efficiently be used to predict on test instances
- often gives good predictive performance, assuming the problem is not highly non-linear (you could also try, say, k-nearest neighbour, in case it is)

About model selection

- challenge: need to do model selection (default choices like $\lambda=1$ may often work suboptimally or not at all)
- regularization parameter λ , value needs to be chosen for example by 10-fold or leave-one-out cross-validation
 - Advanced topic: very fast cross-validation algorithms exist for regularized least-squares (especially fast leave-one-out widely known and found in most decent implementations)
 - My rule of thumb: in most cases selecting λ by choosing the parameter leading to lowest cross-validation error from the exponential grid $\{2^{-15},...,2^{15}\}$ should suffice.

Wait, what if we had chosen to minimize some other reasonable criterion?

- for example, what if we would measure the fit of model to training data with absolute error $|f(\mathbf{x}) y|$ instead of squared error $(f(\mathbf{x}) y)^2$?
- ▶ or maybe I could penalize the model coefficients instead of the squared terms w_i^2 with, say, absolute magnitudes $|w_i|$?
- or maybe...

Regularized least-squares regression:

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \left\{ \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i} \right)^{2}}_{\mathsf{Training set error}} + \lambda \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^{d} w_{i}^{2}}_{\mathsf{Regularizer}} \right\}$$

Lasso:

$$\underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i} \right)^{2}}_{\text{Training set error}} + \underbrace{\lambda \sum_{i=0}^{d} |w_{i}|}_{\text{Regularizer}} \right\}$$

Regularized least-squares regression:

$$\underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i} \right)^{2}}_{\mathsf{Training set error}} + \lambda \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^{d} w_{i}^{2}}_{\mathsf{Regularizer}} \right\}$$

Elastic Net:

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \left\{ \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i}\right)^{2}}_{\text{Training set error}} + \underbrace{\lambda_{1} \sum_{i=0}^{d} |w_{i}| + \lambda_{2} \sum_{i=0}^{d} w_{i}^{2}}_{\text{Regularizer}} \right\}$$

Regularized least-squares regression:

$$\underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i} \right)^{2}}_{\mathsf{Training set error}} + \underbrace{\lambda \sum_{i=0}^{d} w_{i}^{2}}_{\mathsf{Regularizer}} \right\}$$

Support vector regression

$$\underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \max\left(0, |\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i}| - \epsilon\right)}_{\text{Training set error}} + \underbrace{\lambda \sum_{i=0}^{d} w_{i}^{2}}_{\text{Regularizer}} \right\}$$

- Why you might need to consider these alternatives
 - ► Lasso: leads to sparse solutions with many zero-coefficients, good for feature selection (sklearn.linear_model.Lasso)
 - ► Elastic Net: tries to get best of both worlds by interpolating between basic regularized least-squares and Lasso (sklearn.linear_model.ElasticNet)
 - Support vector regression: more robust towards outliers in data (sklearn.svm.SVR)
- ► Then again...
 - much more difficult to optimize, there is no analytical solution for minimizer, and since these are non-smooth basic gradient descent methods will not work well
 - in practice, often will not yield much better predictive accuracy
- ▶ Huge number of other approaches also out there

Classification as regression

- ► Given: training set of input-output pairs $\{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), ..., (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}$
- ► Learn: model f such that given a new input x for which corresponding output y unknown
 - $f(\mathbf{x}) \approx y$
- $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a d-dimensional feature vector (input)
- ▶ $y \in 0, 1$ denotes, whether instance belongs to class 0 or 1

Classification as regression

A two-class classification problem (with classes encoded as -1 and 1) can be viewed as regression problem.

The regression function will usually not yield exact outputs -1 and 1, but the classification decision can be made by considering 0 as a cut-off value.

Problem: The objective functions aims at minimizing the function approximation error (for example, the mean squared error), but not misclassifications.

Classification as regression

For multiclass problems we may try to learn a single regression function without enumerating the classes:

▶ This leads to interpolation errors. For example: A data object between class 1 and 3 might be classified as class 2 by the regression function.

Another possibilty is to train a classifier (regression function) for each class against all other classes (one-versus-all). At prediction time all classifiers vote, assign to class with highest predicted value.

Probably the best approach is to have a single multiple output model (binary coding of classes) and select the class that has the highest value.

Regularized logistic regression

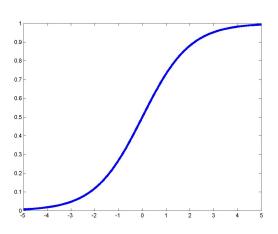
- ▶ **Given:** A set of data points $\{x_1, ..., x_n\}$ each of which belongs to one of the two classes denoted as -1 and 1.
- ▶ **Desired:** A simple description of the function $p(y = 1|\mathbf{x})$, probability that instance belongs to class 1 given features \mathbf{x} (obviously, $p(y = -1|\mathbf{x}) = 1 p(y = 1|\mathbf{x})$)
- **Approach:** Describe p by a logistic function:

$$\rho(y=1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}}}$$

▶ A linear model, with logistic function used to squeeze the predictions between 0 and 1. How to learn the coefficients from data?

Sigmoid function





Regularized logistic regression

Minimize the logarithm of the likelihood of training data, with regularization added

$$\underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} log \left(1 + e^{-y_{i}\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_{i}} \right)}_{\text{Training set error}} + \lambda \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^{d} w_{i}^{2}}_{\text{Regularizer}} \right\}$$

Regularized logistic regression

- logistic regression: a very classical linear model for classification
- predictions scaled between 0 and 1, can be interpreted as probabilities
- regularization can be used to help control model complexity
- may lead to better classification accuracy than using standard regularized least-squares regression
- can be trained with standard gradient descent optimization
- sklearn.linear_model.LogisticRegression

Non-linear models

- what if the model to be learned is highly non-linear, and nearest neighbour does not work well enough?
- kernel methods: generalize basic linear models to handling non-linear data
- classification: kernel logistic regression, support vector machines
- regression: kernel regularized least-squares
- more complicated models, same basic idea: balance training error with model complexity
- outside the scope of this course