Univariate Linear Regresion

Definition

Given a data set (training set), contains elements which consists of paired values of the independent variable (input) and the dependent variable (output)

D = { (x_1 , y_1), (x_2 , y_2), ..., (x_n , y_n) } where x_i is called features and y_i is the **label** on the i^{th} data point. Linear Regression aims to estimate a function f_{θ} with little or no knowledge about the function form. This can be used to predict a label y given a new x.

General Form of Linear Regression

$$f_{ heta}(x) = heta^T \phi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m heta_i \phi_i(x)$$

- $f_{\theta}(x)$ is called the hypothesis function.
- $\phi(x)$ is a basis function (by analogy with the concept of vectors are composed of a linear combination of basis vectors).
- heta is the coefficient of the linear combination. In neural network it is often referred as 'Weight'

Cost Function

Definition

Cost Function (Loss Function), sometimes called Sum of Squared estimate of Errors (SSE). This is calculated by summing up all the squared differences between predicted and actual label \boldsymbol{y} . This is the important criteria to evaluate a Linear Regression model. The general formula for calculating the Cost Function is:

$$J(heta_0, heta_1,\dots, heta_n) = rac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(y_i - f_ heta(x_i)
ight)^2$$

- $J(\theta_0, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_n)$ is the Cost Function.
- $f_{\theta}(x)$ is the hypothesis.
- m is the size of the data set.

Usage

This can be used to calculate how fit the hypothesis is with the given set of data. The hypothesis will be the fittest when Cost Function is at its extreme minimum. This can be achieved by using Gradient Descent algorithm.

Gradient Descent

Definition

A first-order iterative optimization algorithm for finding a local minimum of a differentiable function. This idea is to take repeated steps in the opposite direction of the gradient of the cost function $J(\theta_0,\theta_1,\ldots,\theta_n)$ at the current point. We will use the θ as a matrix vector containing all θ .

$$heta = \left[egin{array}{c} heta_0 \ heta_1 \ heta_2 \ heta_n \end{array}
ight]$$

Algorithm

Repeat until converges:

$$\theta_{i+1} = \theta_i - \alpha \nabla J(\theta)$$

With

$$abla J(heta) = egin{bmatrix} rac{\partial J(heta_0)}{\partial heta_0} \ rac{\partial J(heta_1)}{\partial heta_1} \ rac{\partial J(heta_n)}{\partial heta_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

- α is the learning rate.
- $\nabla J(\theta)$ is the gradient of the cost function $J(\theta)$.

repeat until converge
{

$$heta_j = heta_j - lpha rac{\partial}{\partial heta_j} J(heta_j) \ heta_j = heta_j - lpha rac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left[(h_ heta(x_i) - y_i) \phi_j(x_i)
ight]$$

}

(simutaneously update θ_j for $j=0,1,2,\ldots,m$)

Demo Model

Read input, build DataFrame and plot the data points

```
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
%matplotlib inline

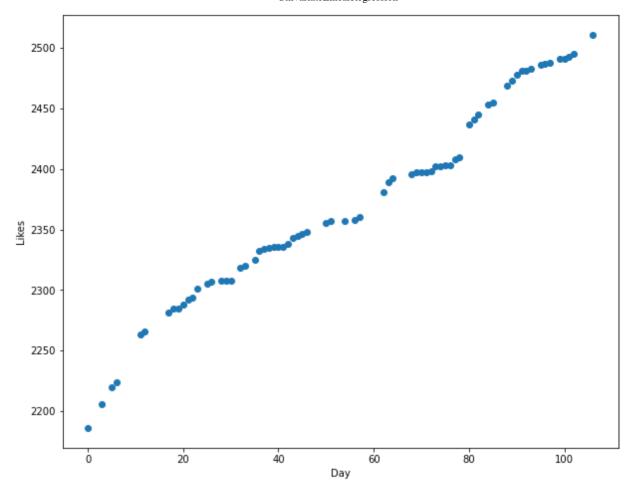
np.random.seed(100)

plt.rcParams["figure.figsize"] = (10,8)

df = pd.read_csv('/Users/danielnguyen/Repo/AI/Training_set/likes.csv')

df.tail()
```

```
Out[]:
             Day Likes
        102
            102 2495
        103
            103 2495
        104
            104 2499
        105
             105
                 2502
        106 106
                  2511
In [ ]:
         data0 = np.array(df.loc[:, 'Day':'Likes'])
         #Shuffle the data
         data1 = np.random.permutation(data0)
         #Sort the first 70 pairs (x, y) and use it as our training set
         training set = np.sort(data1[:70].T).T
         #Shows the first 10 data
         print(training_set[:10].T)
         #Arrays of x and y
         days = np.sort(training_set[:70, 0])
         likes = np.sort(training_set[:70, 1])
         #Training set size
         m = len(likes)
         plt.xlabel('Day')
         plt.ylabel('Likes')
         plt.scatter(days, likes)
```



Choosing the hypothesis function

Here is the plot for the total number of likes of the **GDSC**'s Facebook page for 107 days from **31/12/2020**. First, we choose the hypothesis fucntion $f_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$ (linear one-variable function). We will use $\theta_0 = 2186$ and $\theta_1 = 0$.

```
In [ ]:
         theta0 = 2186
         theta1 = 0
         t_vect = np.array([[theta0], [theta1]])
         print(t_vect)
         #Change the x matrix to a (m x 2) matrix
         x_0 = np.ones((m, 1))
         x_1 = days.reshape(m, 1)
         x = np.hstack((x_0, x_1))
         y = likes.reshape(m, 1)
         mean = np.mean(y)
         print(x[:10])
        [[2186]
             0]]
           1.
               3.]
           1.
               5.]
               6.]
         [ 1. 11.]
```

Out[]:

```
[ 1. 12.]
[ 1. 17.]
[ 1. 18.]
[ 1. 19.]
[ 1. 20.]]
```

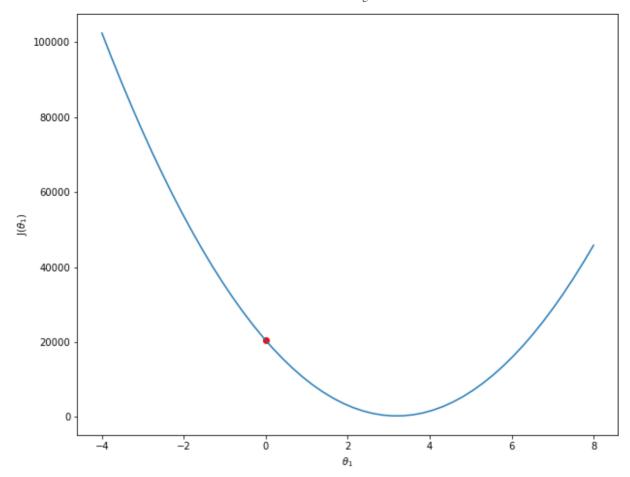
Find the Cost Function

Now we write the cost function for this hypothesis.

$$J(heta_0, heta_1) = rac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(f_ heta(x_i) - y_i
ight)^2$$

With m is the number of training example.

```
In []:
        def calculate_cost(t_vect, x_matrix, y_matrix) :
             """Calculate the cost function for linear regression model"""
             cost matrix = np.dot(x matrix, t vect) - y matrix
             return np.sum(np.square(cost_matrix)) / (2 * m)
In []:
         theta1_lst = np.linspace(-4, 8)
         cost_lst = []
         #Calculate the cost function for every theta1 from -4 to 8
         for theta in theta1 lst:
             t vect temp = np.array([[theta0], [theta]])
             cost_lst.append(calculate_cost(t_vect_temp, x, y))
         cost_lst = np.array(cost_lst)
         plt.xlabel(r'$\theta_1$')
         plt.ylabel('J(' + r'$\theta_1)$')
         plt.scatter(theta1, calculate_cost(t_vect, x, y), c='red')
         plt.plot(theta1_lst, cost_lst)
        [<matplotlib.lines.Line2D at 0×7f9cd9b0f490>]
```



Use Gradient Descent to optimize the model

From the plot of data above, we can see that the line has not fit the data, which means the hypothesis h_{θ} is not sufficient for predicting new values. This is called UNDERFITTING. If we want to be more precisely, we have to minimize the result of cost function $J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$, meaning find the local minima of the function. To achieve this, we use the Gradient Descent. The GD formula for this will be:

$$\theta_0 = \theta_1 - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_0} J(\theta_0)$$

$$\theta_1 = \theta_1 - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} J(\theta_1)$$

This is equivalent to:

$$\theta_0 = \theta_0 - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left((f_\theta(x_i) - y_i) \right)$$

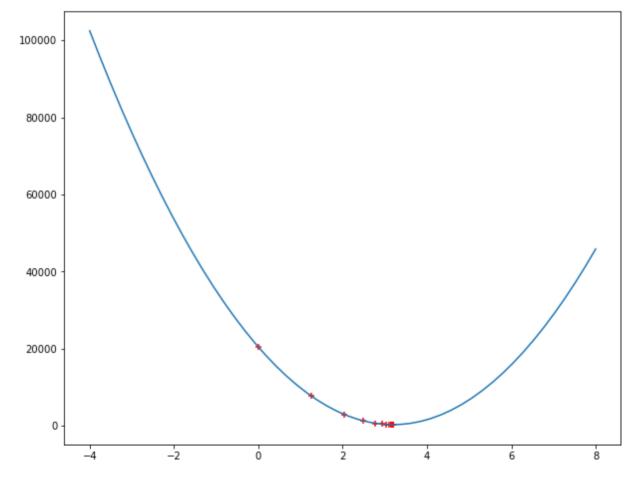
$$\theta_1 = \theta_1 - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left((f_{\theta}(x_i) - y_i) x_i \right)$$

def gradient_func(theta, x_matrix, y_matrix):
 """Find the gradient of the given model"""
 gradient_matrix = np.dot(x_matrix.T, (np.subtract(np.dot(x_matrix, theta
 return gradient_matrix / m

Out[]:

```
In [ ]:
         def gradient_descent(theta, x_matrix, y_matrix, threshhold = 1.0e-6, max_it
             """Optimize θ1 to minimize the cost function and return 2 arrays contain
             on the cost function plot for which the gradient descent visited each i
             theta1 history = theta[1][0]
             j_history = calculate_cost(theta, x_matrix, y_matrix)
             i = 0
             diff = 1e10
             while i < max_iterations and diff > threshhold:
                 theta = theta - learning_rate * gradient_func(theta, x_matrix, y_ma
                 theta1_history = np.vstack((theta1_history, theta[1][0]))
                 j_history = np.vstack((j_history, calculate_cost(theta, x_matrix, y)
                 diff = np.absolute(j history[-1] - j history[-2])
             return theta, theta1_history, j_history
```

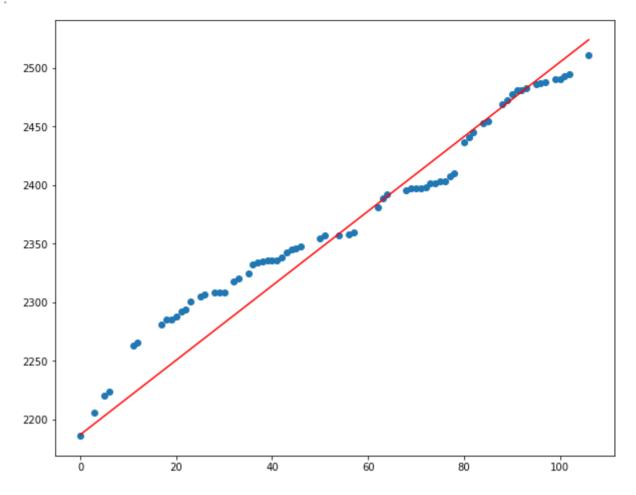
```
In []:
         t_vect, theta1_arr, j_arr = gradient_descent(t_vect, x, y)
         print(t_vect)
         plt.scatter(theta1_arr.T, j_arr.T, c='red', marker='+')
         plt.plot(theta1_lst, cost_lst)
        [[2186.90589965]
             3.182753 ]]
        [<matplotlib.lines.Line2D at 0×7f9cd9bdbed0>]
```



```
In [ ]:
         plt.scatter(days, likes)
```

```
plt.plot(days, np.dot(x, t_vect).reshape(1, m)[0], color='red')
```

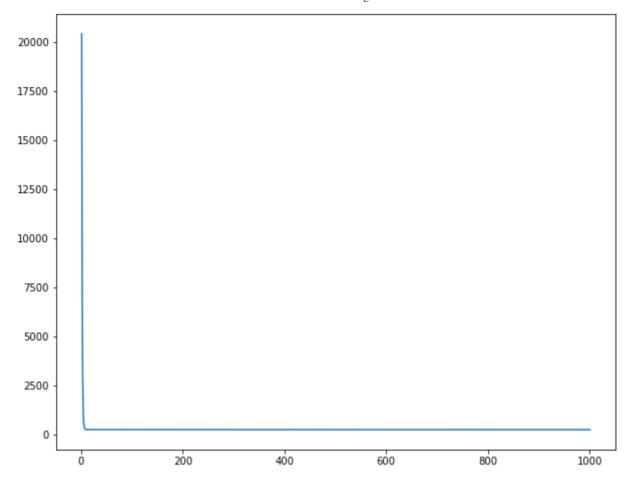
Out[]: [<matplotlib.lines.Line2D at 0×7f9cd9f78890>]



Gradient Descent Performance

This step is to check the performance of GD. For example, by looking at this plot, we can know if we had chosen the correct learning rate α or not. The plot gets steeper if we chose the correct learning rate. If it just a horizontal line, that means your learning rate is too large, making the algorithm diverge.

```
In []: plt.plot(range(1, len(j_arr) + 1), j_arr.reshape(1, len(j_arr))[0])
Out[]: [<matplotlib.lines.Line2D at 0×7f9cda117e90>]
```



Testing and evaluating the model

After finish optimizing the model, we use the unused data to test our model.

To how fit is the model, we calculate ${\cal R}^2$ (R-Squared value) of the model.

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{J}{SSTO}$$

SSTO (Total Sum of Square) is calculated according to this formula:

$$SSTO = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (y_{mean} - y_i)^2$$

```
In [ ]: SSTO = np.sum(np.square(mean - y)) / (2 * m)
```

```
r_square = 1 - (calculate_cost(t_vect, x, y) / SSTO)
print('R-Squared Value = ' + str(r_square))
```

R-Squared Value = 0.9247201340616541

The ${\cal R}^2$ is 0.92, which is a good fit model, can make good predictions without being overfitted

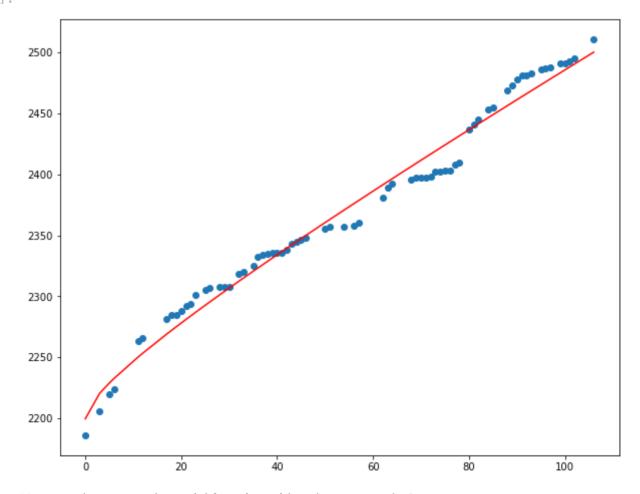
Changing the hypothesis

In the previous model, the R^2 = 0.92, but we can do better. Now I am going to change my hypothesis by using a different basis function $h_{\theta}(x)$ = θ_0 + θ_1 \sqrt{x} + $\theta_2 x$

```
In []:
    t0 = 2199.55779
    t1 = 8.622317
    t2 = 1.998494

    plt.plot(x, t0 + t1 * x ** 0.5 + t2 * x, c='red')
    plt.scatter(days, likes)
```

Out[]: <matplotlib.collections.PathCollection at 0×7f9cd9f6b450>



Now we also try a polynomial function with a degree equals 3.

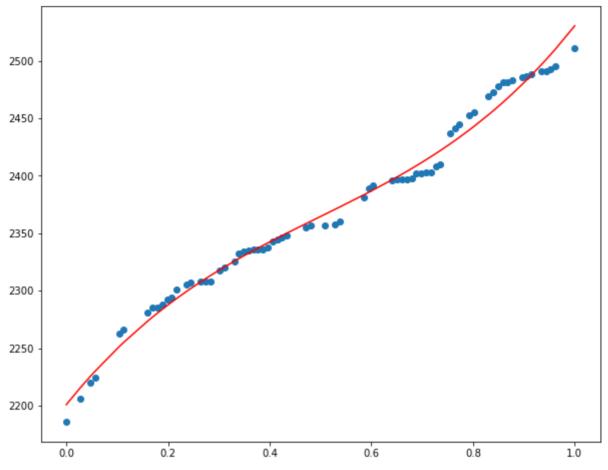
$$g_{ heta}(x) = heta_0 + heta_1 x + heta_2 x^2 + heta_3 x^3$$

```
In []: #First step: process all thetas into a column vector for easy computation
theta0 = 0 #2202.2975324712297
```

theta1 = 0 #5.01399360

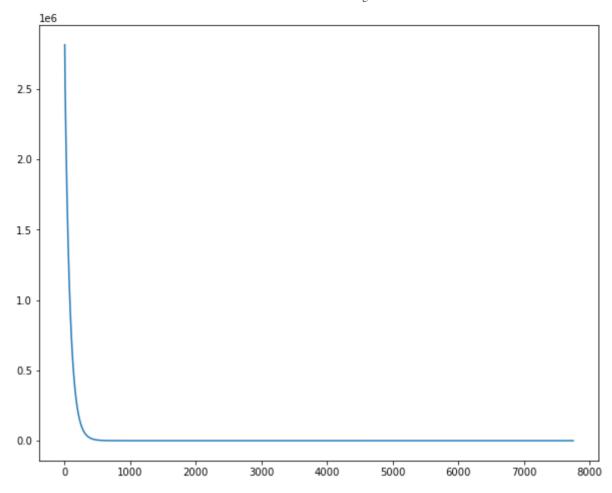
```
theta2 = 0 #-5.49625136e-2
         theta3 = 0 \#3.43653139e-4
         theta = np.array([[theta0], [theta1], [theta2], [theta3]])
         print(theta)
         x = (x - 1 - x - 1[0][0]) / (x - 1[-1][0] - x - 1[0][0])
         x_2 = np.square(days).reshape((m, 1))
         x_2 = (x_2 - x_2[0][0]) / (x_2[-1][0] - x_2[0][0])
         x = np.power(days, 3).reshape((m,1))
         x_3 = (x_3 - x_3[0][0]) / (x_3[-1][0] - x_3[0][0])
         # Second step: process x into a m x 4 matrix containing (from left to right
         x = np.hstack((x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3))
         print(x[-5:])
        [[0]]
         [0]
         [0]
         [0]
        [[1.
                     0.93396226 0.87228551 0.81468175]
                     0.94339623 0.88999644 0.83961928]
         ſ1.
         ſ1.
                     0.95283019 0.90788537 0.86506059]
         Γ1.
                     0.96226415 0.9259523 0.8910107
                                                      11
         [1.
                     1.
                                 1.
                                            1.
In [ ]:
         def cost func2(theta, x matrix, y matrix) :
             return np.sum(np.square(np.dot(x matrix, theta) - y matrix)) / (2 * len
In [ ]:
        def grad_desc(theta, x_matrix, y_matrix, threshhold=1e-10, iterations=7749,
             diff = -1e5
             cost_history = cost_func2(theta, x_matrix, y_matrix)
             i = 0
             while i < iterations and -diff > threshhold and diff ≤ 0:
                 hypo = np.dot(x_matrix, theta)
                 errors = np.subtract(hypo, y_matrix)
                 delta theta = np.dot(x matrix.T, errors) / len(y matrix)
                 theta = theta - learning_rate * delta_theta
                 i += 1
                 cost_history = np.vstack((cost_history, cost_func2(theta, x_matrix,
                 diff = cost_history[-1] - cost_history[-2]
             return theta, cost_history
In [ ]:
         def norm_func(x_matrix, y_matrix) :
             return np.linalg.multi dot((np.linalg.inv(np.dot(x matrix.T, x matrix))
In [ ]:
        theta, j arr = grad desc(theta, x, y)
         theta = norm_func(x, y)
```

```
print(theta)
         plt.scatter(x[:,1].T, likes)
         plt.plot(x[:,1].T, np.dot(x, theta).reshape(1, m)[0], c='red')
        [[2200.93237779]
         [ 549.18692639]
         [-667.79279393]
         [ 448.12902657]]
        [<matplotlib.lines.Line2D at 0×7f9cdbd69b90>]
Out[]:
```



```
In []:
         plt.plot(range(1, len(j_arr) + 1), j_arr.reshape(1, len(j_arr))[0])
```

[<matplotlib.lines.Line2D at 0×7f9cdc0109d0>] Out[]:



```
In []:
    #test
    def get_num_likes(day=0):
        global t0, t1, t2
        return t0 + t1 * day ** 0.5 + t2 * day

def cost_func1(theta0, theta1, theta2, x_matrix, y_matrix):
        return np.sum((theta0 + theta1 * x_matrix ** 0.5 + theta2 * x_matrix -

        r_square = 1 - cost_func1(t0, t1, t2, days, likes) / SSTO
        print("R-Squared value for h(x) " + str(r_square))

        r_square = 1 - cost_func2(theta, x, y) / SSTO
        print("R-Squared value for g(x) = " + str(r_square))
```

R-Squared value for h(x) 0.9789513092581201 R-Squared value for g(x) = 0.9876896649613331

The R^2 = 0.97895 and 0.98745 which is higher than before. Hence, base on the demand, we can choose a simple or a complicated hypothesis (unless it is underfitted or overfitted). Although higher R^2 can sometimes lead to overfitting.