

## 机器学习与人工智能 Machine Learning and Artificial Intelligence

Lecture 2 Regressions

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2021 Fall

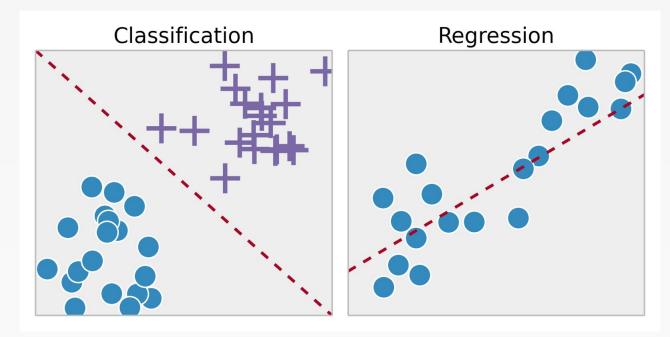
# **Group Project**

- Sign up the team by Sept 26 (email/msg TAs)
- Proposal: Due on Oct 10, 2021, 11:59pm (one submission per team)
  - Team members (at most 5 students)
  - Project goals (with a real-world business question and available datasets)
  - Models to address the questions (at least one supervised and one unsupervised learning models)
  - Advanced model applications and deeper analyses are encouraged
- In-Class Presentation (Nov 25)
- Final reports (Due Dec 9, 2021)



# Classification vs. Regression

- <u>Classification</u>: the goal is to predict a *class label*, which is a choice from a predefined list of possibilities
- <u>Regression</u>: the goal is to predict a continuous number, or a *floating-point number* (*real number*) in programming (math) terms





# Regression

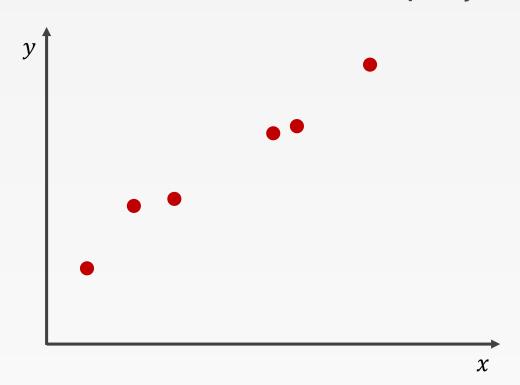
- Given the value of an input X, the output Y belongs to the set of real value R.
- Evaluation: predict output accurately
- Examples:
  - Predict housing price
  - Forecast precipitation



Source: CMU 10601

# Regression

**Example**: Dataset with only one feature *x* and one scalar output *y* 

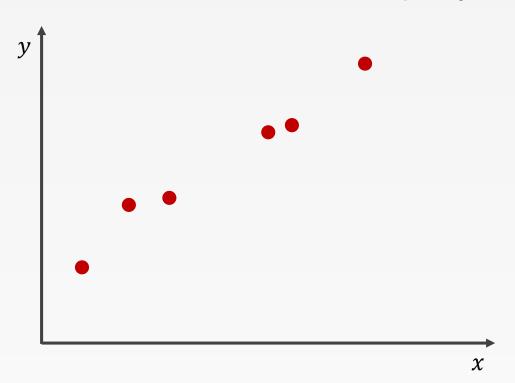


Q: What is the function that best fits these points?



# k-NN Regression

**Example**: Dataset with only one feature x and one scalar output y



k = 1

- *Train*: store all (x, y) pairs
- Predict. pick the nearest x in the training data and return its y

k = 2 Nearest Neighbor Distance Weighted Regression

- *Train*: store all (x, y) pairs
- *Predict*: pick the nearest two instances  $x^{(n1)}$  and  $x^{(n2)}$  in training data and return the weighted average of their y values



# Linear Regression



# Agenda

- Definition of Regression
- Linear functions
- Residuals
- Estimations (Optimization)
- Regularization



# Linear Regression

• Linear relationship: outcome (dependent) variable is a linear combination of predictor (independent) variables.

$$Y = b + w_1 X_1 + w_2 X_2 + \dots + w_n X_n$$

Outcome

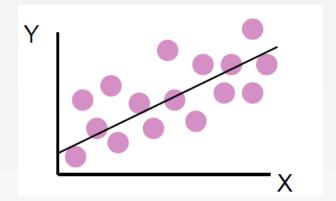
Intercept

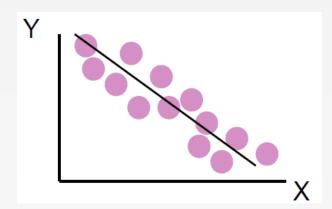
Coefficients

**Predictors** 



$$Y_i = b + wX_i$$

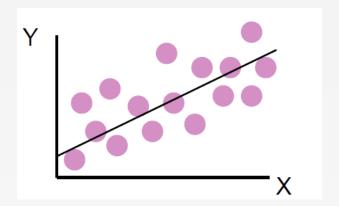


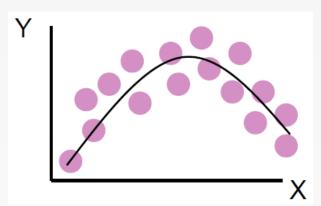


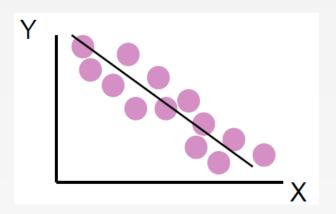


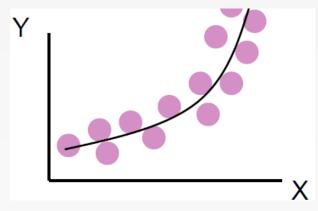
$$Y_i = b + wX_i$$

$$Y_i = b + w_1 X_i + w_2 X_i^2$$



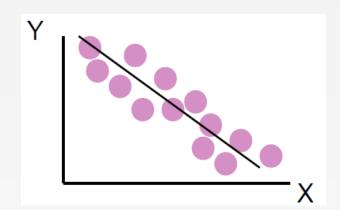




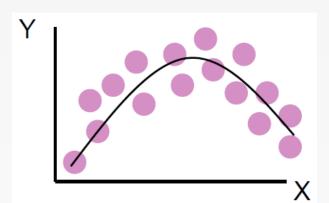


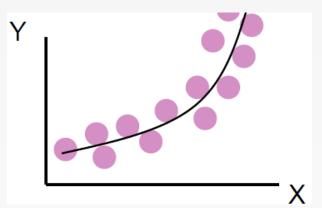


$$Y_i = b + wX_i$$



$$Y_i = b + w_1 X_i + w_2 X_i^2$$





A linear model means linear in parameters (not X)!



# Linear Regression?

• 
$$y = \sum_{i} \omega_{i} f_{i}(x)$$

• 
$$y = \sum_{i} \omega_{i} x^{i}$$

• 
$$y = \sum_{i} e^{w_i x}$$

• 
$$y = \sum_{i} w_i \sin(i^2 x^7)$$



# Results Interpretation

Level-Level

$$y = b + wx + \varepsilon$$

One unit increase of  $x \rightarrow w$  unit increase of y



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Level-Level

$$y = b + wx + \varepsilon$$

One unit increase of  $x \rightarrow w$  unit increase of y

Log-Level

$$\log(y) = b + wx + \varepsilon$$

One unit increase of  $x \rightarrow 100w\%$  increase of y

Example: y – income; x – tenured year; w = 0.04. One more tenured year increases 4% in income



# Results Interpretation

Level-Level

$$y = b + wx + \varepsilon$$

One unit increase of  $x \rightarrow w$  unit increase of y

Log-Level

$$\log(y) = b + wx + \varepsilon$$

One unit increase of  $x \rightarrow 100w\%$  increase of y

Example: y – income; x – tenured year; w = 0.04. One more tenured year increases 4% in income

Log-Log

$$\log(y) = b + w \log(x) + \varepsilon$$

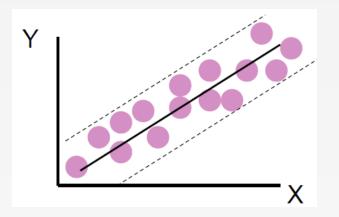
One percent increase of  $x \rightarrow w\%$  increase of y

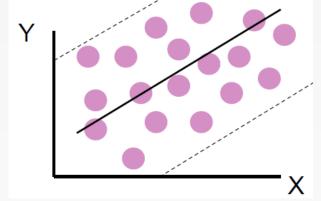
Example: y – demand; x – price; w = -0.6. 1% increase in price leads to 0.6% decrease in demand

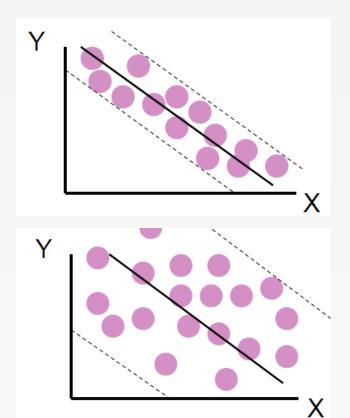


Strong relationship

Weak relationship



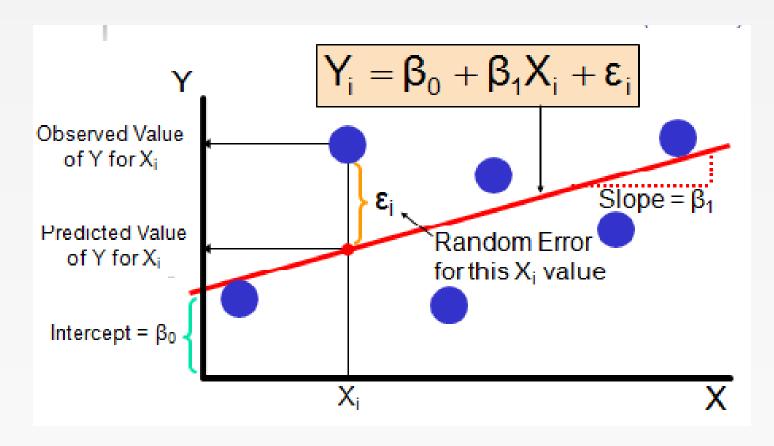




How to evaluation?



#### Residuals



Residuals e = observed (y) - predicted (y)



### Train a Linear Model

- Goal: minimize the Error
- Potential ways:
  - Sum (mean) of absolute errors  $|e_1| + |e_2| + |e_3| + \cdots$
  - Sum (mean) of squared errors  $e_1^2 + e_2^2 + e_3^2 + \cdots$



## **Function Approximation**

Objective function: mean squared error (MSE)

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} e_i^2 \qquad \qquad \boldsymbol{x}' = [1, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_M]^T$$
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)})^2 \qquad \qquad \boldsymbol{\theta} = [b, w_1, \dots, w_M]^T$$

- Solve the unconstrained optimization problem
  - Closed form
  - Gradient descent
  - Stochastic gradient descent

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- Test time:
  - Given a new x, make a prediction  $\hat{y} = \hat{\theta}^T x$



### Closed-form Solution

Criteria

Minimize the sum of squared errors

 $min \sum_{n} (y_i - \widehat{y}_i)^2$ 

Solution

$$y_i = b + w_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i$$

 $w_1$ : slope for the estimated regression equation

$$w_1 = \frac{\sum_n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

b: intercept for the estimated regression equation

$$b = \bar{y} - w_1 \bar{x}$$

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



## **Gradient Descent**



# Linear Regression Solutions

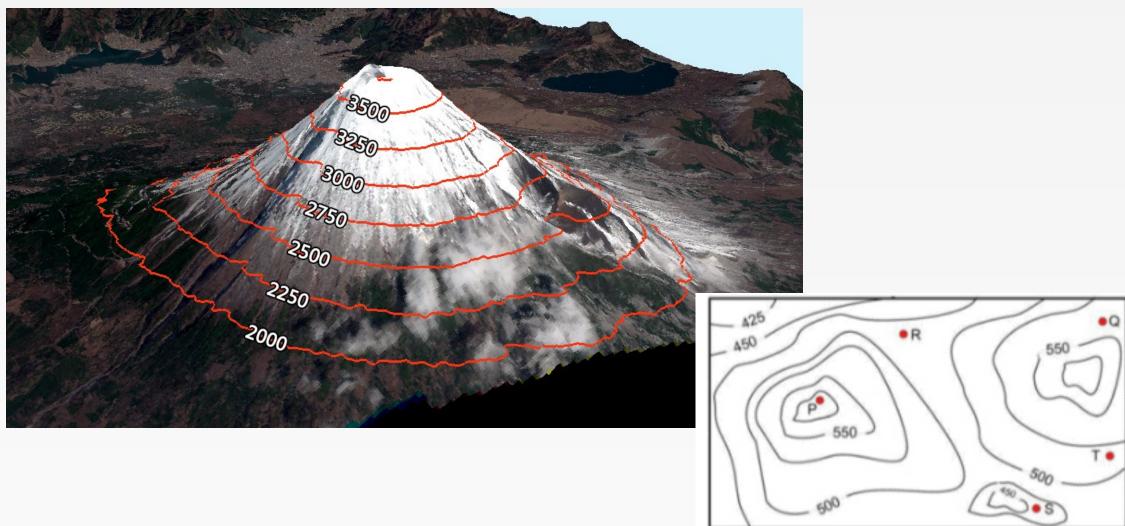
- Closed-form solution:
  - Computational complexity
  - Stability

$$\beta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$

Gradient Descent for Linear Regression



## **Contour Plots**





### Contour Plots

- 1. Each level curve labeled with value
- 2. Value label indicates the value of the function for all points lying on that level curve

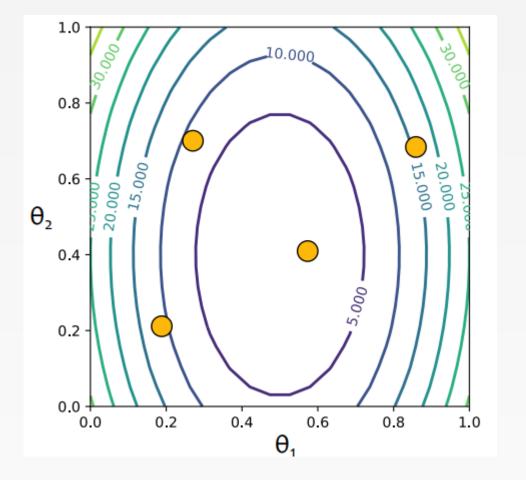


## **Optimization by Random Guessing**

#### Random guessing:

- 1. Pick a random  $\theta$
- 2. Evaluate  $J(\theta)$
- 3. Repeat steps 1 and 2 many times
- 4. Return  $\theta$  that gives smallest  $J(\theta)$

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\theta_1, \theta_2) = (10(\theta_1 - 0.5))^2 + (6(\theta_2 - 0.4))^2$$





## **Optimization by Random Guessing**

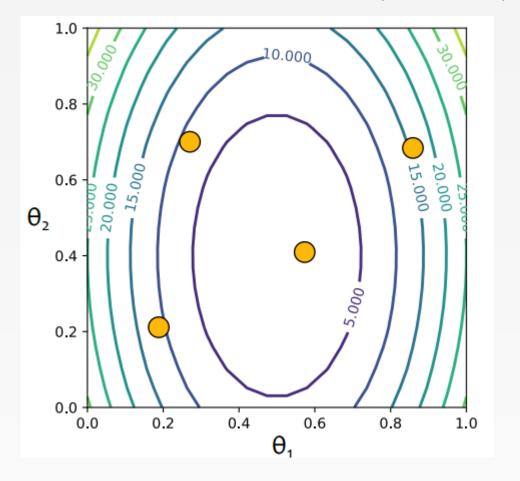
#### Random guessing:

- 1. Pick a random  $\theta$
- 2. Evaluate  $J(\theta)$
- 3. Repeat steps 1 and 2 many times
- 4. Return  $\theta$  that gives smallest  $J(\theta)$

#### **Linear Regression:**

- 1. Objective function: MSE
- 2. contour plot: each line labeled with MSE– lower means a better fit
- 3. minimum corresponds to parameters  $(w,b)=(\theta_1,\theta_2)$  that best fit some training dataset

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\theta_1, \theta_2) = (10(\theta_1 - 0.5))^2 + (6(\theta_2 - 0.4))^2$$

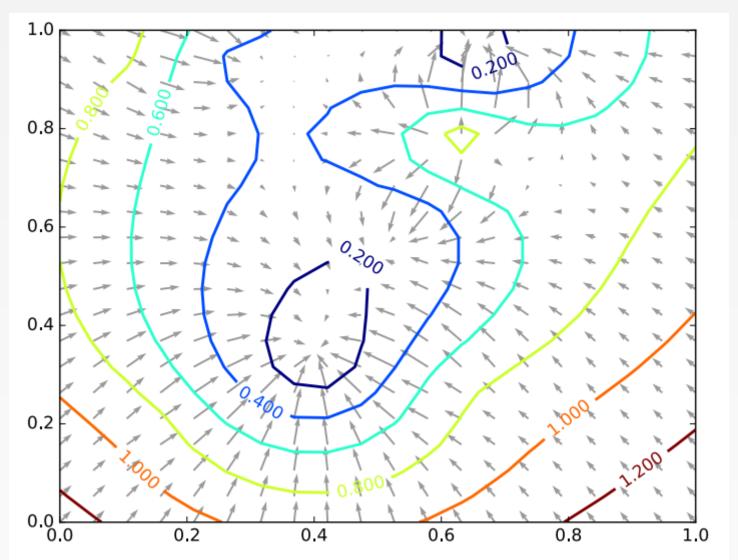




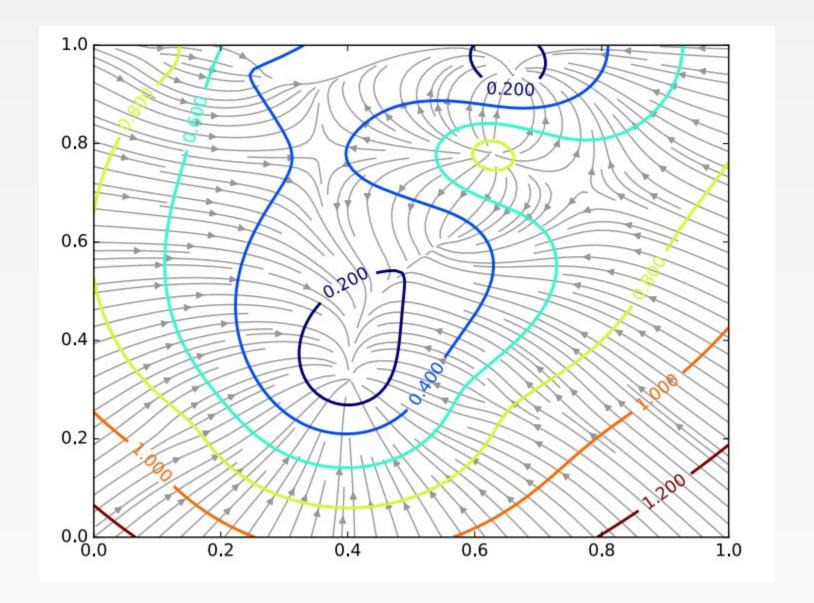




## **Gradient Descent**



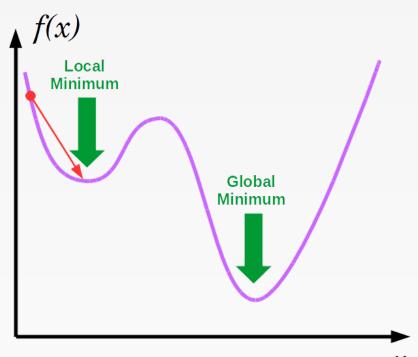






### **Pros and Cons**

- Advantages:
  - Simple and often quite effective on ML tasks
  - Often very scalable
- Drawbacks
  - Might find a local minimum
  - Only applies to smooth function (differentiable)





# Algorithm

#### Algorithm 1 Gradient Descent

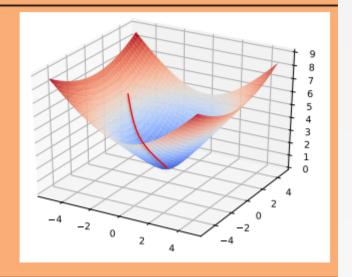
```
1: procedure GD(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)})
```

2: 
$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)}$$

3: **while** not converged **do** 

4: 
$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} - \gamma \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

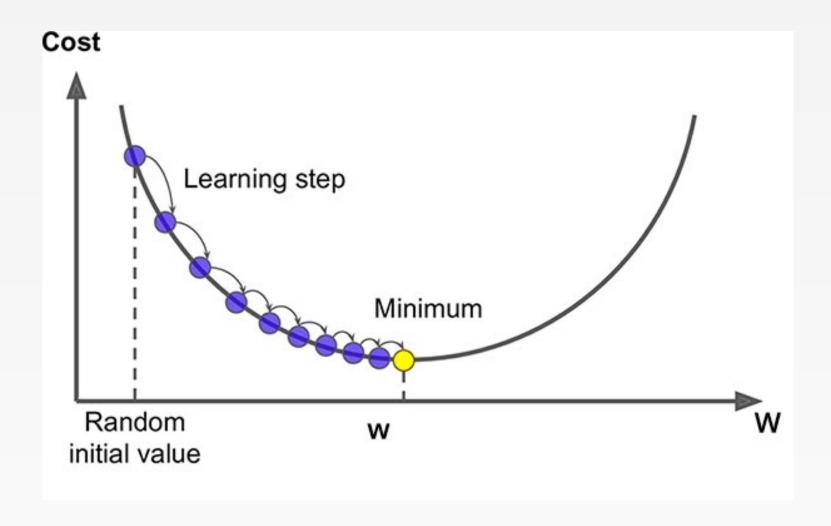
5: return  $\theta$ 



Convergence Criteria (one example):  $\|\nabla_{\theta}J(\theta)\|_2 \leq \epsilon$ 

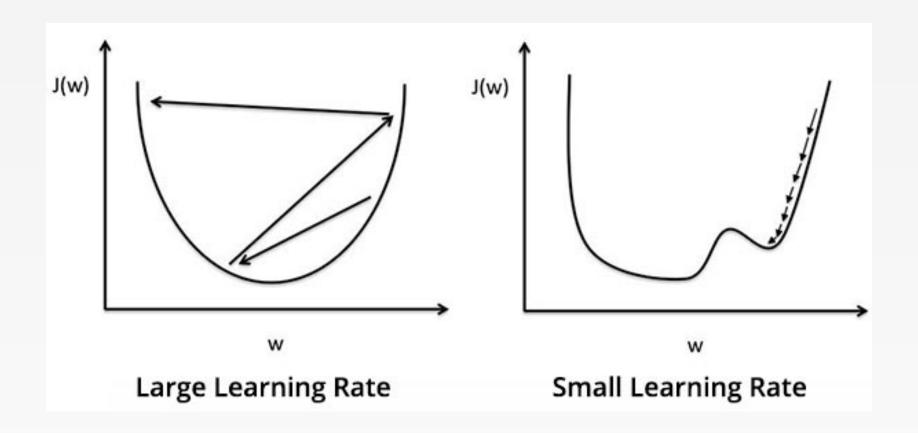


### **Gradient Descent**



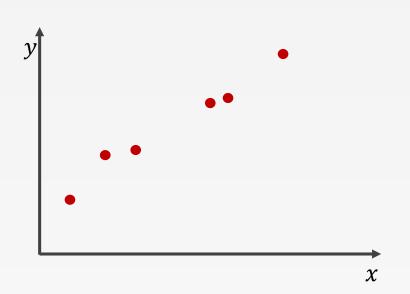


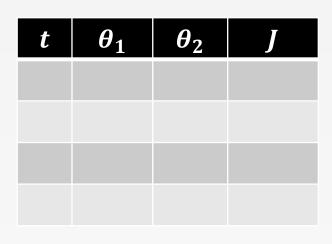
# Learning Rate



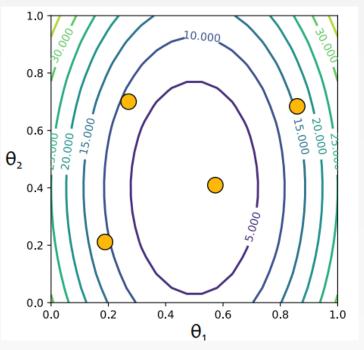


## GD for Linear Regression



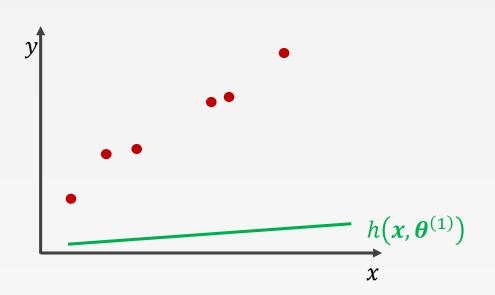


$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\theta_1, \theta_2) = \frac{1}{N} \sum (y^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)})^2$$



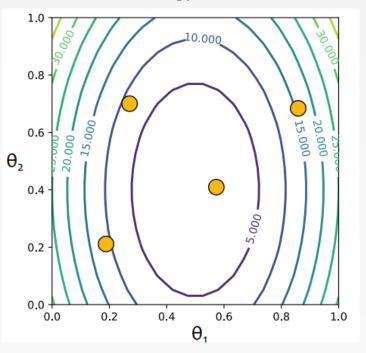


## GD for Linear Regression

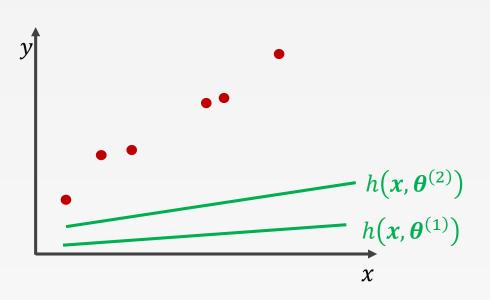


t	$ heta_1$	$ heta_2$	J
1	0.01	0.02	25.2

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\theta_1, \theta_2) = \frac{1}{N} \sum (y^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)})^2$$

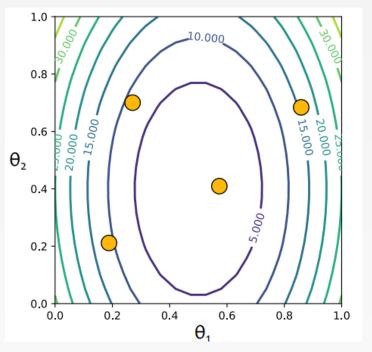




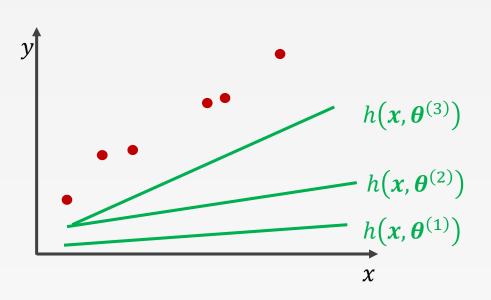


t	$ heta_1$	$ heta_2$	J
1	0.01	0.02	25.2
2	0.30	0.12	8.7

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\theta_1, \theta_2) = \frac{1}{N} \sum (y^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)})^2$$

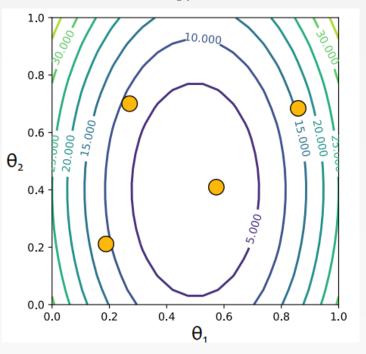




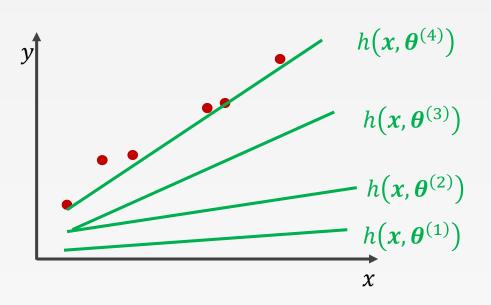


t	$ heta_1$	$ heta_2$	J
1	0.01	0.02	25.2
2	0.30	0.12	8.7
3	0.51	0.30	1.5

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\theta_1, \theta_2) = \frac{1}{N} \sum (y^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)})^2$$

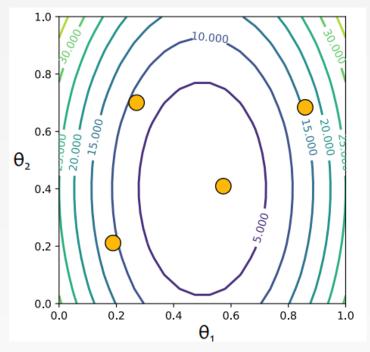




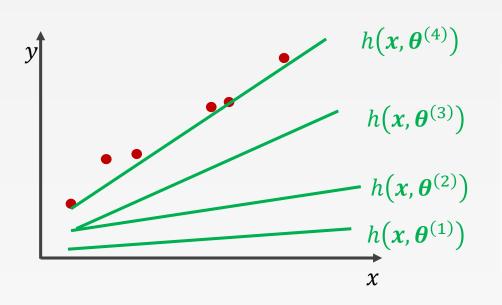


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4	0.59	0.43	0.2

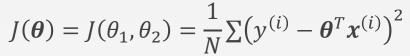
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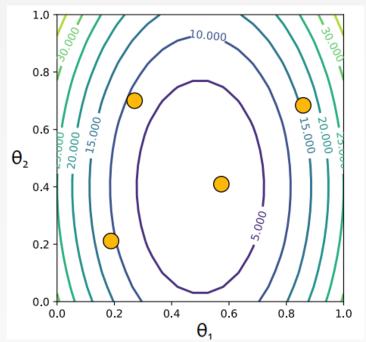


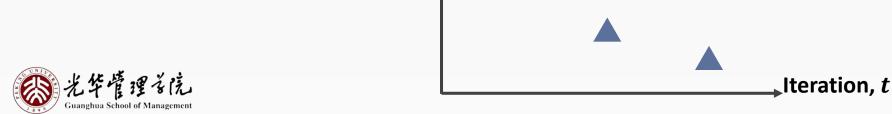




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MSE

#### Algorithm 1 GD for Linear Regression

```
1: procedure GDLR(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)})
```

2: 
$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)}$$

▷ Initialize parameters

3: **while** not converged **do** 

4: 
$$\mathbf{g} \leftarrow \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$$

▷ Compute gradient

$$oldsymbol{ heta} \leftarrow oldsymbol{ heta} - \gamma \mathbf{g}$$

□ Update parameters

6: return  $\theta$ 



#### Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

#### Algorithm 2 Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

```
1: procedure SGD (D, \theta^{(0)})

2: \theta \leftarrow \theta^{(0)}

3: while not converged do

4: for i \sim \text{Uniform}(\{1, 2, 3, ..., N\})

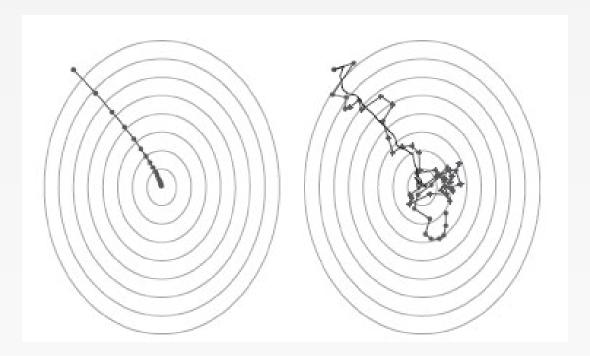
5: \theta \leftarrow \theta - \gamma \nabla_{\theta} J^{(i)}(\theta)

6: return \theta
```



#### Stochastic Gradient Descent

 Just picks a random instance (or sampling) in the training set to compute the gradient





#### Mini-Batch SGD

- Gradient Descent:
  - Compute true gradient exactly from all N examples
- Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD):
  - Approximate true gradient by the gradient of one randomly chosen example
- Mini-Batch SGD:
  - Approximate true gradient by the average gradient of K randomly chosen examples



# Logistic Regression

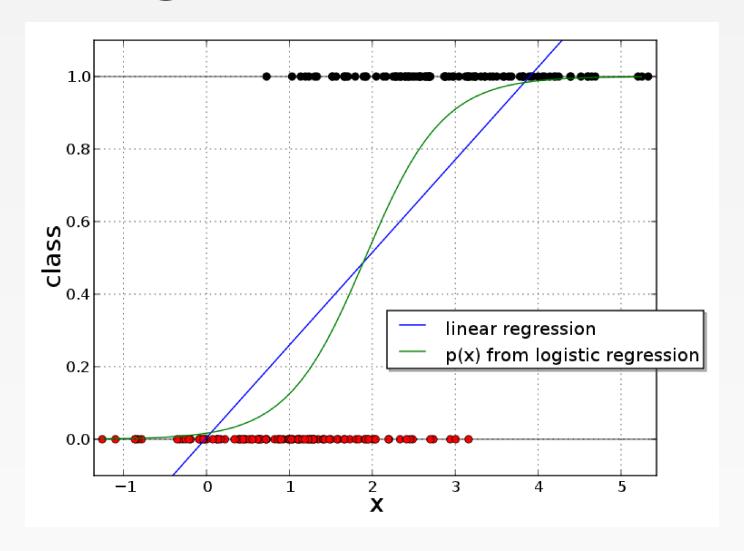


#### General View

- Logistic regression is a classification algorithm
- It predicts the probability of occurrence of an event by fitting data to a *logit* function
- Outcome: categorial variables



## Logistic vs. Linear





## Logistic Regression

• Data: Inputs are continuous vectors of length M. Outputs are discrete.

$$D = \left\{ x^{(i)}, y^{(i)} \right\}_{i=1}^{N}$$

• **Model**: Logistic function applied to dot product of parameters with input vector.

$$p_{\theta}(y=1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x})}$$

• Learning: finds the parameters that minimize some objective function.

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

• Prediction: Output is the most probable class.

$$\hat{y} = \underset{y \in \{0,1\}}{\operatorname{argmax}} p_{\theta}(y|\mathbf{x})$$



#### Additional Information

- Estimates of coefficients ( $\theta$ ) are derived through an iterative process called Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)
- If estimated probability > Cutoff → Classify as class "1"

- Probability of success (Odds)  $\hat{\pi} = P(y = 1 | x) = \frac{e^u}{1 + e^u}$
- Odds-Ratio for success  $\frac{\widehat{\pi}}{1-\widehat{\pi}} = e^u$
- Log Odds-Ratio  $\ln\left(\frac{\widehat{\pi}}{1-\widehat{\pi}}\right) = u = b + w_1X_1 + w_2X_2 + \cdots$



#### MLE

#### **Principle of Maximum Likelihood Estimation:**

Choose the parameters that maximize the likelihood of the data.  $\frac{N}{N}$ 

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathsf{MLE}} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(\mathbf{x}^{(i)} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE)

MLE tries to allocate as much probability mass as possible to the things we have observed... ...at the expense of the things we have not observed



## Polynomial Regression



## Polynomial Regression

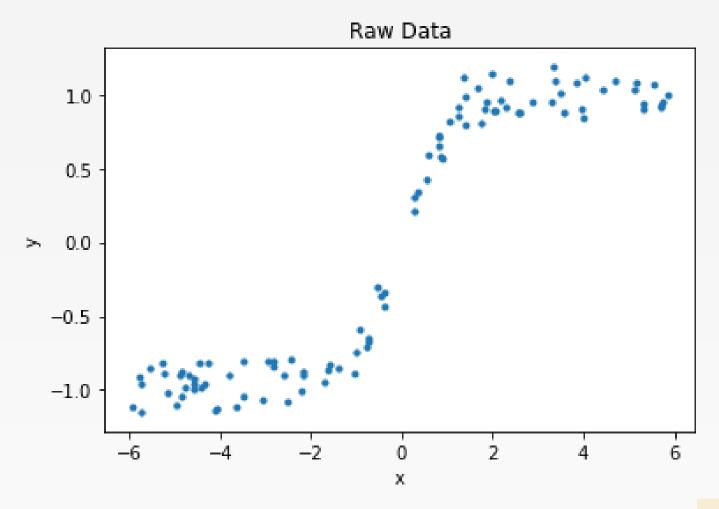
- Generate new features consisting of all polynomial combinations of the original features
- A linear model
- An application of non-linear transformations

$$X = (x_0, x_1) \longrightarrow X' = (x_0, x_1, x_0 x_1, x_0^2, x_1^2)$$
  

$$Y = w_0 x_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_{01} x_0 x_1 + w_{00} x_0^2 + w_{11} x_1^2$$

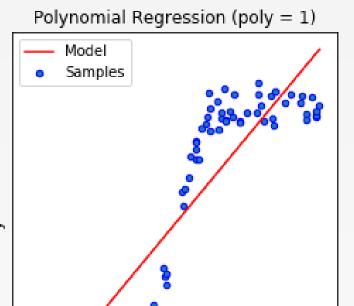


## Example I: Polynomial Features

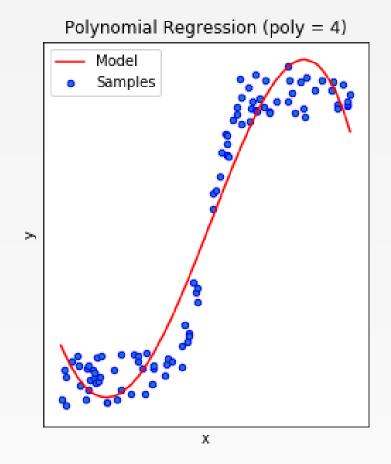


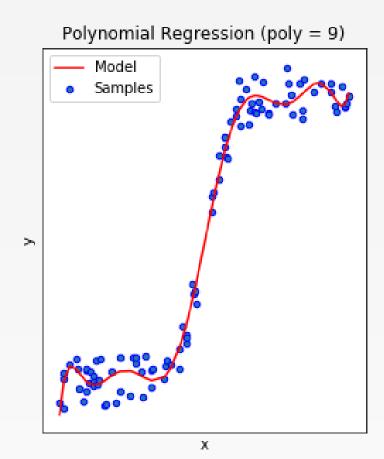


## Example I: Polynomial Features



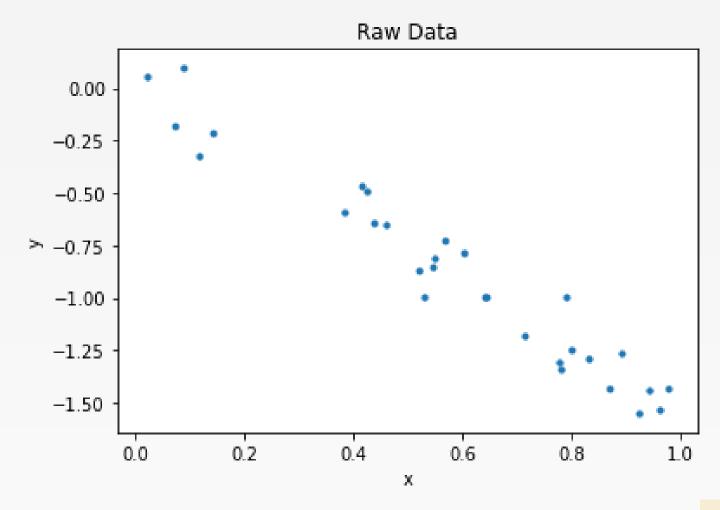
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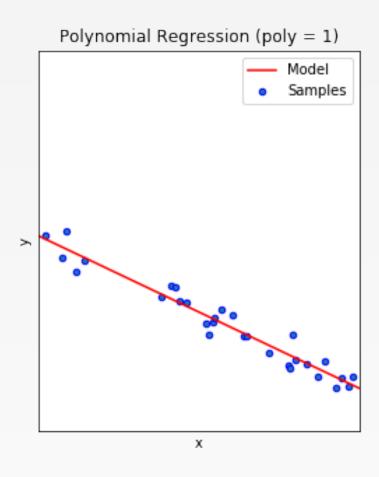


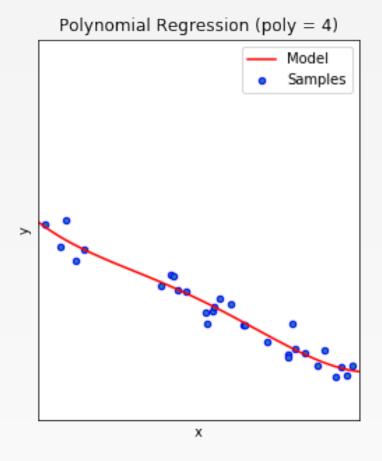
## **Example II: Polynomial Features**

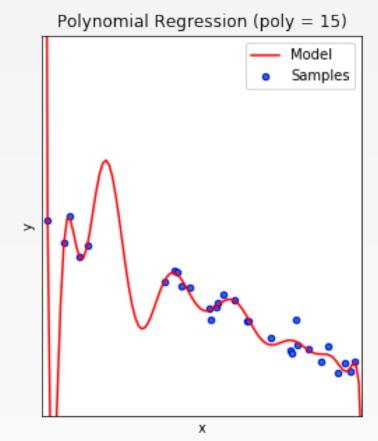




# Example II: Polynomial Features





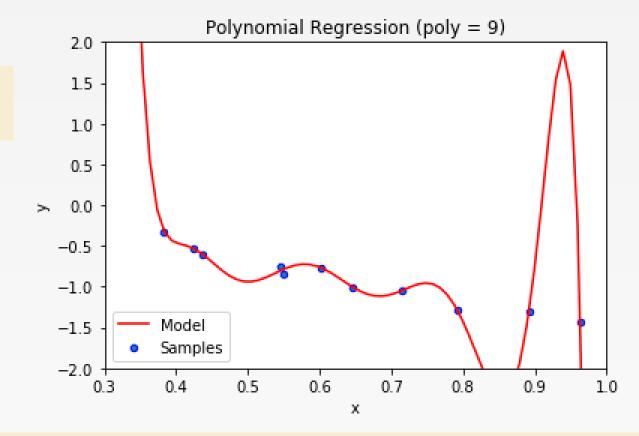




## Overfitting

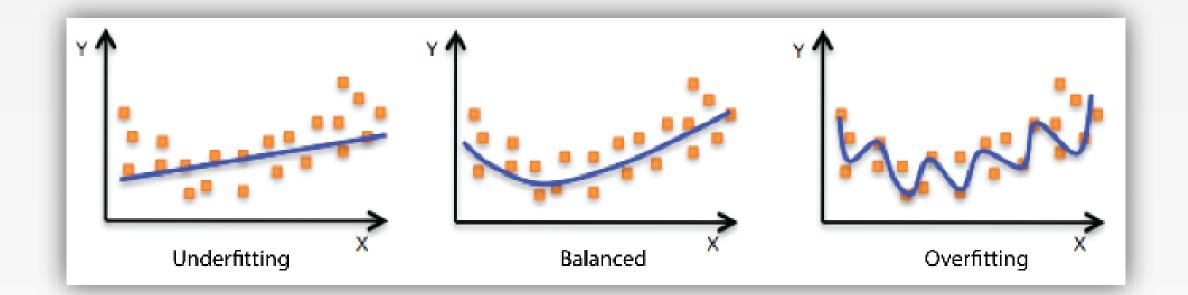
True:

$$y = -1.5 \cdot x + randn$$



Overfitting Definition: when the model captures the noise in the training data instead of the underlying structure.







# Regularization



## Regularization

- Goal: optimize some combination of fit and simplicity
  - Penalize the magnitude of coefficients of features
  - Minimize the error between predicted and actual examples
- Ridge Regression:
  - L2-norm: adds penalty equivalent to square of the magnitude of coefficients
- Lasso Regression:
  - L1-norm: adds penalty equivalent to absolute value of the magnitude of coefficients



## Ridge Regression

• Recall: in a linear regression with the least square estimation

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - (\omega \cdot x_i + b))^2$$

Ridge regression

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - (\omega \cdot x_i + b))^2 + \alpha \sum_{j=1}^{p} \omega_j^2$$

Shrinkage penalty



## Ridge Regression: λ

• Ridge regression

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - (\omega \cdot x_i + b))^2 + \alpha \sum_{j=1}^{p} \omega_j^2$$

#### $\alpha$ : tuning parameter

- $\alpha = 0$ :
  - A simple linear regression
- $\alpha = \infty$ :
  - Coefficients  $\omega$  will be zero
- As  $\alpha$  increases, the flexibility of the model fit decreases



#### LASSO

Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator Regression

• L1 Regularization

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - (\omega \cdot x_i + b))^2 + \alpha \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\omega_j|$$

- Lasso combines some of the shrinking advantages of ridge with variable selection
  - The L1 penalty has the effects of forcing some coefficient estimates to be exactly equal to zero

**Tip**: Techniques such as cross validation are recommended to determine which approach is better on a particular dataset



## Questions?

