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Acknowledgement



- These slides are based on the following page:
- https://savan77.github.io/2017-04-19-ml-part1/
- Why?

•They provide the code that you can try out. Yaay!!

Supervised Learning



- Supervised learning problems can be divided into two types:
 - · Regression, and
 - Classification

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Linear Regression

 Example: Property prices have become a hot topic and we happen to have a dataset about houses:



area (square feet)	price (1k\$s)
3456	600
2089	395
1416	232

(the data happen to be for houses in San Francisco – measuring the house area in square feet and house price in USD) – the example code uses the a similar dataset for the Boston area in the US

 Say, we try to predict house prices based on their areas. Then, price becomes our target variable (y), and area is our only input variable (x)

Linear Regression

 The Regression Problem is the problem of learning the target function f(x) that outputs the target value y for a given input x. In our example, price = f(area)



 If we believe that linear regression can be a good model for the target function f, f would take the form of a linear function: y = f(x) = a * x + b

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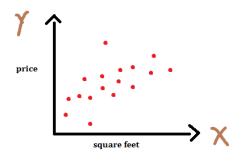
Linear Regression

For our dataset:

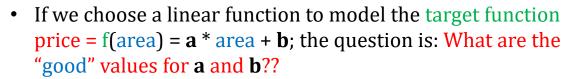
area (square feet)	price (1k\$s)
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• If we visualise it:

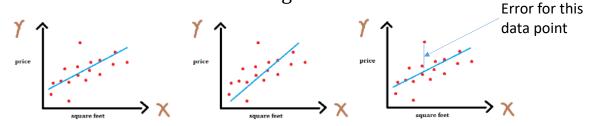


Linear Regression





• Different values of **a** and **b** will give us different lines:



 The aim of ML algorithms is to search for the good values for the parameters a and b (optimization = minimizing the error)

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Linear Regression

• Instead of writing y = f(x) = a * x + b, we can adopt the following standardized form: $y = f(x) = w_0 + w_1 * x$ (replacing the parameters a by w_1 and b by w_0)



(this is why parameters are also called "weights")

• More generally, if instead of having just one input variable x, we have m input variables $x_1, ..., x_m$ then the linear regression target function will be written as:

$$y = f(x_1, ..., x_m) = w_0 + w_1 * x_1 + ... + w_m * x_m$$

Linear Regression



• Then, given a model represented by the parameters $W = (\mathbf{w_0}, \mathbf{w_1}, \dots, \mathbf{w_m})$, we can calculate the error of this model using the cost function J(W):

$$J = rac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (pred_i - y_i)^2$$

where:

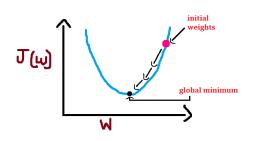
- *n* is the number of data points in the training dataset.
- For the i^{th} data point $(x_1^i,...,x_m^i,y_i)$: $pred_i = f(x_1^i,...,x_m^i)$ is the model prediction.
- The above cost function **J** is the mean squared error.

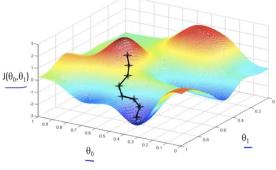
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Gradient descent



- Now that we have a way to measure the model's error in the cost function J(W), we want to find the value of weights for which error is smallest (minimizing cost function).
- Gradient Descent is one of the most popular and widely used optimization algorithm.





More terminologies



Cost function is also called "loss function"

Model loss ∼ model error

- There are many variants of Gradient Descent (GD):
 - **Batch GD**: cost function is calculated on the entire training data (*n* = size of dataset) → slow
 - **Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)**: cost function is calculated on each training example (*n* = 1)
 - Mini-batch gradient descent: cost function is calculated on every mini-batch of k training examples (k < size of dataset)
- For more info: https://ruder.io/optimizing-gradient-descent/index.html#gradientdescentvariants

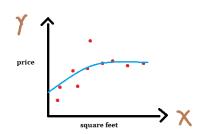
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More terminologies



- What if a straight line (or hyperplane in the case of multiple input variables) does not fit the data well?
- Linear regression will still do the job by introducing a new feature $x_{new} = x^2$
- The target function will then look like this:

$$y = f(x) = w_0 + w_1 * x + w_2 * x^2$$

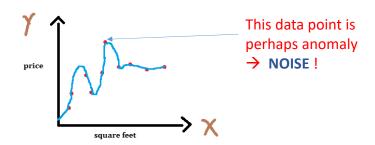


• And of course, we can have other features for x^3 , x^4 , etc.

Overfitting



• If we are overzealous in fitting the training data (e.g. by introducing x^3 , x^4 , etc.) we may end up overfitting the data:



- The above model is unlikely to perform well on unseen data, especially around the anomaly data points.
- But, the aim of ML models is to perform well on unseen data.

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Underfitting

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- The opposite of **overfitting** is **underfitting**:
 - Typically that is when the model is unable to capture the relationship between the input variables and the target variables accurately, generating a high error rate on both the training set and unseen data.
 - Perhaps we chose the wrong representation?
 - E.g. we should use decision tree (or SVM, or kNN, or Naïve Bayes) instead of linear regression??
 - Perhaps there are no patterns that can generalise for the data at hand??

Overfitting - How to deal with noise?



· Instead of

$$J(W) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w_0 + w_1 x_1^i + \dots + w_m x_m^i - y_i)^2$$

• We will add the regularization term:

$$J(W) = \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(w_0 + w_1 x_1^i + \dots + w_m x_m^i - y_i \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{m} w_j^2 \right)$$

Regularization term L₂

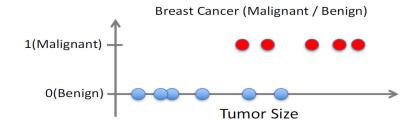
When $\,\lambda$ is sufficiently large, it will diminish the impact of the training examples

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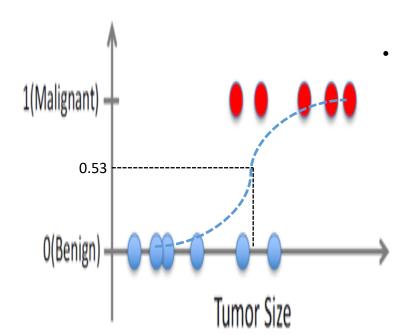
What about logistic regression?



- It is actually a classification technique! How??
- · Remember this classification problem?



Based on example by Andrew Ng



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One way to get the desired classification is by fitting a symmetric curve (dashed blue one). Then a tumor size can map to that curve and give us a value between 0 and 1 → the probability that the tumor of that size is malignant!

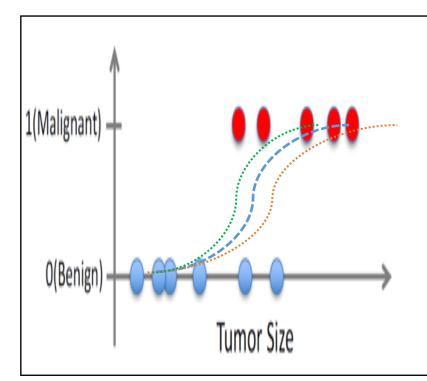
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 A function with this shape is called logistic function or sigmoid function:

$$\sigma(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{X}}}$$



- As we don't want to return the probability (requiring some interpretation), what we can do is to map this probability outcome to the classification:
 - when the prob ≥ 0.5, the tumor will be classified by our model as Malignant; else it will be classified as Benign.





Note that the blue model is not the only one. There are many.
 We still face the problem of which logistic regression model is the "right" one → minimize the cost function

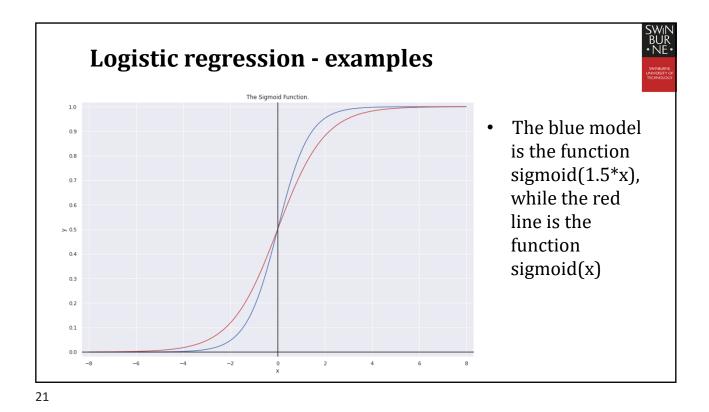
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Logistic regression - mathematically



- $y \sim f(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-g(x)}} = \sigma(g(x))$
- (Well, more precisely Prob(y=1| x) = $\frac{1}{1+e^{-g(x)}}$)
- E.g., Prob(y = Malignant | size) = $\frac{1}{1+e^{-g}(size)}$
- and $g(x) = w_0 + w_1 * x$
- Of course, for multivariate problem:

$$g_W(x_1,...,x_m) = \mathbf{w_0} + \mathbf{w_1} * x_1 + ... + \mathbf{w_m} * x_m$$



Logistic regression - examples

The Sigmoid Function.

The blue model is the function sigmoid(-10+1.5*x), while the red line is the function sigmoid(-8 + x)

Logistic regression - more maths



So, what would a cost function look like for Log.Reg?

$$J(W) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \log \sigma(g(\mathbf{x}^i)) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \sigma(g(\mathbf{x}^i))))$$

- Note the minus (-) sign at the beginning
- The expression after the sum is called the (log) likelihood of the parameters W (i.e., how likely does the model (parameterized by W) correctly classify the target variable y based on the input vars x)
- Method: Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE). The mathematical intuition of the above can be found in Andrew Ng's video:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SHEPb1JHw5o

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Summary

- In this mini lecture, we looked at the following:
 - The regression problem with the linear regression method (even though it's "linear", the model does NOT have to be a straight line; the feature selection problem)
 - The cost (or, loss) function
 - Gradient Descent (several variants)
 - Overfitting, Underfitting, Regularization
 - The classification problem with logistic regression
 - Sigmoid function, Maximum Likelihood Estimation