

Machine Learning

Lecture 4: Regression

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Lecture 3 - Topics

- y = f(x)
- Linear regression, constraints
- Poisson regression
- Survival analysis

Lab

https://drive.google.com/file/d/12lm4MO-xYqFZb-gp_VChhDncPjg_PPet/view?usp=sharing





Simple linear regression

- Simple linear regression model has one input *x* and one output *y*.
- The relationship can be explain as the following equation $f(x) = w_0 + w_1 x$

• Mathematically, parameters are obtained by least square method





Multiple regression (6LM)

• Multiple linear regression model structure is exactly the same as the linear regression

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + \cdots$$

• Mathematically, parameters are obtained by least square method





Multiple regression with interaction

- Adding interaction terms to a regression model can greatly expand understanding of the relationships among the variables in the model
- This occurs when two or more variables depend on one another for the outcome

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + w_3 x_1 x_2 + \cdots$$





Feature selection via shrinkage (Regularization)

- Instead of explicitly selecting features, in some approaches we can bias the learning process towards using a small number of features
- Key ideas: objective function has two parts
 - Term representing error minimization
 - Term that shrinks parameters toward 0







Shrinkage and regression

• Consider the case of linear regression

$$y = f(x) = w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i x_i$$

• The standard approach minimizes sum squared error

$$E(w) = \sum_{d \in D} (y^{(d)} - f(x^{d}))^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{d \in D} (y^{(d)} - w_{0} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} x_{i}^{(d)})^{2}$$





Ridge regression and the Lasso

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• Ridge regression adds a penalty term, the L2 norm of the weights

$$E(w) = \sum_{d \in D} \left(y^{(d)} - w_0 - \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i^{(d)} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^n w_i^2$$

• The Lasso method adds a penalty term, the L₁ norm of the weights

$$E(w) = \sum_{d \in D} \left(y^{(d)} - w_0 - \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i^{(d)} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^n |w_i|$$







Lasso optimization

• Lasso stands for "least absolute shrinkage and selection operator

$$E(w) = \sum_{d \in D} \left(y^{(d)} - w_0 - \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i^{(d)} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^n |w_i|$$

• This is equivalent to the following constrained optimization problem

$$E(w) = \sum_{d \in D} \left(y^{(d)} - w_0 - \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i^{(d)} \right)^2 \text{ subject to } \sum_{i=1}^n |w_i| \le t$$





Ridge regression and Lasso

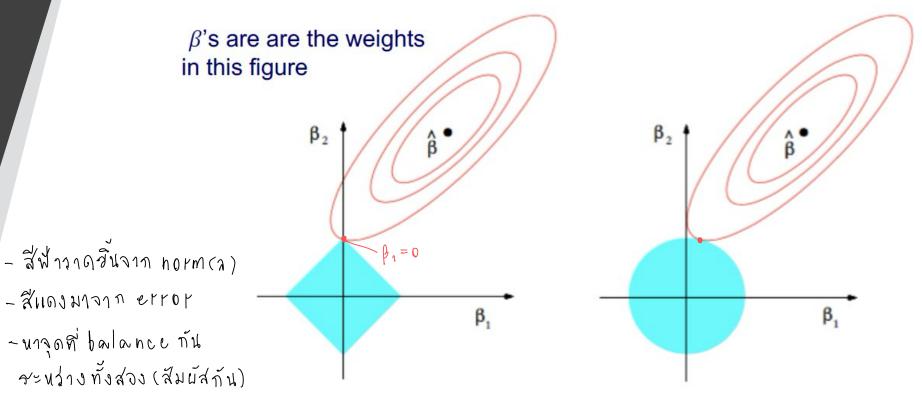


FIGURE 3.11. Estimation picture for the lasso (left) and ridge regression (right). Shown are contours of the error and constraint functions. The solid blue areas are the constraint regions $|\beta_1| + |\beta_2| \le t$ and $\beta_1^2 + \beta_2^2 \le t^2$, respectively, while the red ellipses are the contours of the least squares error function.



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-นาจุดที่ balance กัน



Feature selection via shrinkage

- Lasso (L1) tends to make many weights 0, inherently performing feature selection
- Ridge regression (L2) shrinks weights but isn't as biased towards selecting features
- L1 and L2 penalties can be used with other learning methods (logistic regression, neural nets, SVMs, etc.)
- Both can help avoid overfitting by reducing variance
- There are many variants with somewhat different biases
 - elastic net: includes L1 and L2 penalties





As an optimization problem, binary class ℓ_2 penalized logistic regression minimizes the following cost function:

$$\min_{w,c} rac{1}{2} w^T w + C \sum_{i=1}^n \log(\exp(-y_i(X_i^T w + c)) + 1).$$

Similarly, ℓ_1 regularized logistic regression solves the following optimization problem:

$$\min_{w,c} \|w\|_1 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \log(\exp(-y_i(X_i^T w + c)) + 1).$$

Elastic-Net regularization is a combination of ℓ_1 and ℓ_2 , and minimizes the following cost function:

$$0 <= 11$$
ratio $<= 1$ $\min{w,c} \frac{1-
ho}{2} w^T w +
ho \|w\|_1 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \log(\exp(-y_i(X_i^T w + c)) + 1),$

I1_ratio : float or None, optional (default=None)

The Elastic-Net mixing parameter, with 0 <= l1_ratio <= 1. Only used if penalty='elasticnet'`. Setting ``l1_ratio=0 is equivalent to using penalty='l2', while setting l1_ratio=1 is equivalent to using penalty='l1'. For 0 < l1_ratio <1, the penalty is a combination of L1 and L2.





Embedded approach Logistic regression

```
[45] lr = LogisticRegression(penalty = 'l1', C=0.1, solver='liblinear')
lr.fit(X_train, y_train)
```

```
LogisticRegression
LogisticRegression(C=0.1, penalty='l1', solver='liblinear')
```





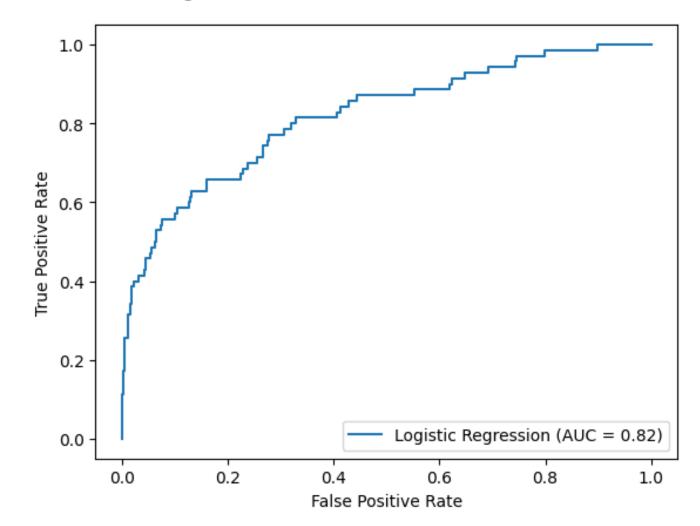
Embedded approach Logistic regression

```
[46] lr.coef [0]
     array([ 4.39645027e-01, 0.00000000e+00, 0.00000000e+00, 3.64882336e-01,
             0.0000000e+00, 0.0000000e+00, 0.0000000e+00, 0.0000000e+00,
             0.00000000e+00, 0.00000000e+00, 0.00000000e+00, 0.00000000e+00,
             0.00000000e+00, 0.00000000e+00, 0.00000000e+00, 0.00000000e+00,
             0.00000000e+00, 0.0000000e+00, 0.00000000e+00, 5.38658322e-01,
             1.08934507e+00, -1.10260038e-02, -3.53481268e-04, 3.35990896e-02,
             0.00000000e+00, -2.10427843e-01, 2.69803017e-03, -2.26244263e-01,
             0.00000000e+00, -1.45808259e-01, -1.18404056e-04, 7.08198896e-06,
             1.36897240e-01, 0.00000000e+00, 1.39256563e-01, -1.07618808e-01,
            -1.17913518e-01, -1.94316308e-02, -3.42778865e-02, -7.65126263e-02,
             3.73647156e-02, -1.03708133e-01, 1.20789097e-01, -6.54389495e-02])
    X_train.columns[lr.coef_[0]>0.001]
 □ Index(['BusinessTravel Travel Frequently', 'Department Sales',
            'MaritalStatus_Single', 'OverTime_Yes', 'DistanceFromHome',
            'HourlyRate', 'NumCompaniesWorked', 'PerformanceRating',
            'YearsAtCompany', 'YearsSinceLastPromotion'],
           dtvpe='object')
```





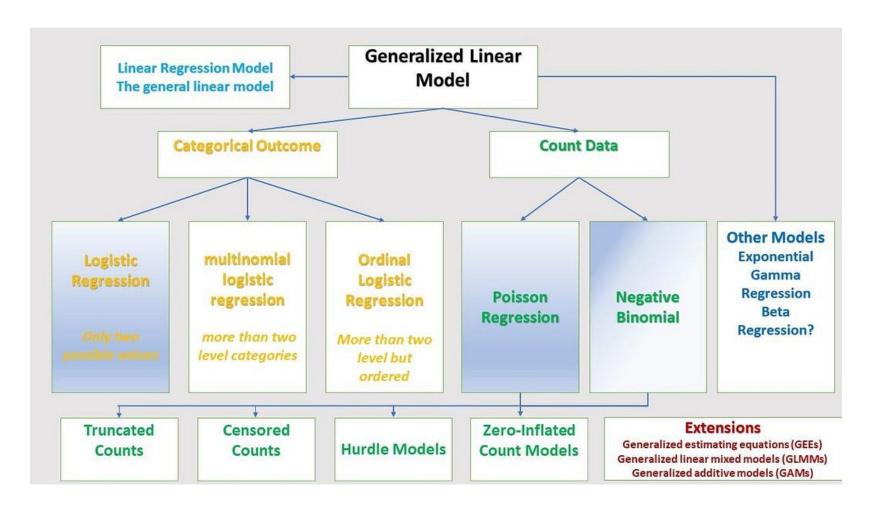
Embedded approach Logistic regression







Generalized linear model





https://medium.com/@sahin.samia/a-comprehensive-introduction-to-generalized-linear-models-fd773d460c1d



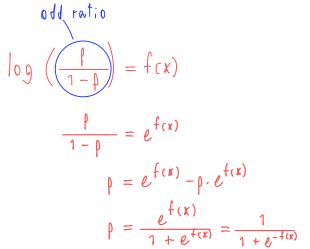
Poisson Regression





Poisson regression y=f(x) log (

$$y = f(x)$$



- So far we have looked at 2 kinds of regression
- Linear regression (simple, multiple) ท่านายปริมาณ
 - Continuous response, normally distributed with constant variance
 - Mean a linear function of the covariates
- "Logistic regression" โจกาสในการเกิดสิ้น
 - Response (number of successes in n trials) has a binomial distribution Bin(n, p)
 - Mean is *np* where log-odds of *p* is a linear function of the covariates





Poisson regression (cont)

- Now we consider "Poisson regression"
 - Response is a count, assumed to have a Poisson distribution with (positive) mean (positive) mean (positive)
 - Assume that $\log \mu$ is a linear function of the covariates
 - Alternatively,
 - $\mu = \exp(\text{linear function of covariates})$
- Poisson is a standard distribution when response is a count.





Poisson distribution

$$\Pr(Y=y) = \frac{e^{-\mu}\mu^y}{y!}$$

Count Y can have values 0, 1, 2, . . .

(thus, mean μ must be positive)





The Poisson Regression Model

• The response Y with covariates $x_1, ..., x_k$ has a Poisson distribution, with mean μ

• Mean μ is related to the covariates by

$$\log(\mu) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k \sim \text{part in reg. } y = m_1 x_1 + m_2 x_2 + \ldots$$

$$\mu = e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k)}$$

• As for logistic regression, the parameters are estimated by maximum likelihood





Interpretation of β 's

- If $\beta_j > 0$, mean *increases* with x_j
- If $\beta_j < 0$, mean decreases with x_j

no negative value

• Unit increase in x_j changes the mean by a factor of $\exp(\beta_j)$ (like the odds in logistic regression)





Estimation of β 's

- To estimate the β 's, we use the method of *maximum likelihood*, as in logistic regression
- Basic idea:
 - Using the *Poisson* distribution, we can work out the probability of getting any particular set of responses y.
 - In particular, we can work out the probability of getting the data we actually observed this is the likelihood
 - Choose β 's to maximise this probability (or, equivalently, the log-likelihood)





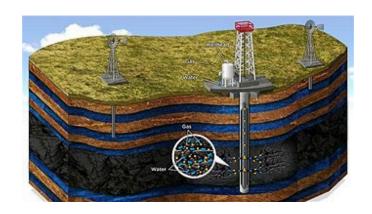
Example: Mining accident data

- This example features the number of accidents per mine in a 3 month period in 44 coal mines in West Virginia. The variables are
 - COUNT: the number of accidents (response)
 - INB: inner burden thickness
 - EXTRP: percentage of coal extracted from mine
 - AHS: the average height of the coal seam in the mine
 - AGE: the age of the mine

```
In .lpynb file: กักดำช่วง CI ไม่คร้อม 0 แสดงว่า feature มีผลต่อ y
ประกอบกับ P>|z| = 0

: EXTRP มีผลต่อ accidents อย่างมีนัยสำคัญ
```







Survival analysis





Logistic regression vs time

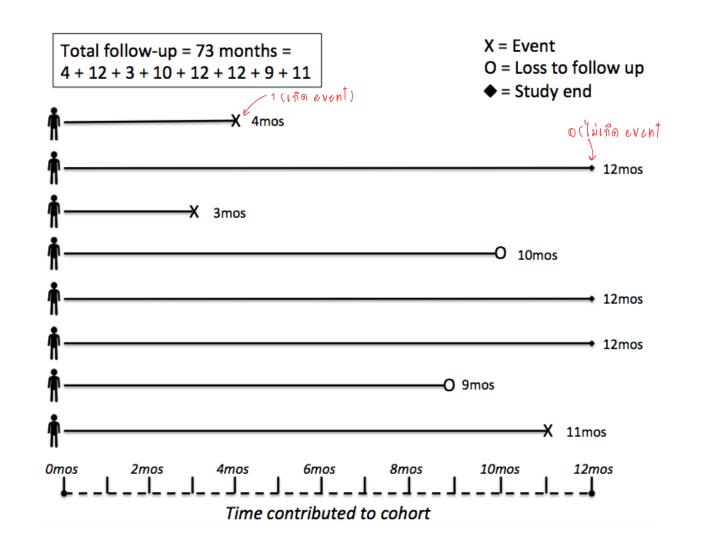
- In logistic regression, we were interested in studying how risk factors were associated with presence or absence of disease.
- Sometimes, we are interested in how a risk factor or treatment affects time to disease or some other event.
- In these cases, logistic regression is not appropriate.





Survival analysis

- Survival analysis is used to analyze data in which the time until the event is of interest.
- The response is often referred to as a failure time, survival time, or event time.







Example:

- Time until tumor recurrence
- Time until a machine part fails
- Time until mobile phone recharge
- Time until the next credit card usage





The survival time response

- Usually continuous
- May be incompletely determined for some subjects
 - For some subjects we may know that their survival time was <u>at least</u> equal to some time t. บอกได้เวลาก่อนพยุตอย่างน้อย †
 - Whereas, for other subjects, we will know their exact time of event.
- Incompletely observed responses are censored
- Is always≥0.

ช่วงเวลาไม่ได้กิจกรรมที่สนใจ ex.ไม่เช้าเกม า สัปดาห์, หมงนัดแล้วไม่ไป





Analysis issue

- If there is no censoring, standard linear regression procedures could be used.
- However, these may be inadequate because
 - Time to event is restricted to be positive and has a skewed distribution.
 - The probability of surviving past a certain point in time may be of more interest than the expected time of event.
 - The hazard function, used for regression in survival analysis, can lend more insight into the failure mechanism than linear regression.





Censoring เก็บช่อมูลต่อไม่ได้

- Censoring is present when we have some information about a subject's event time, but we don't know the exact event time.
- For the analysis methods we will discuss to be valid, censoring mechanism must be independent of the survival mechanism.





Reasons censoring might occur

- A subject does not experience the event before the study ends
- A person is lost to follow-up during the study period
- A person withdraws from the study

These are all examples of right-censoring.

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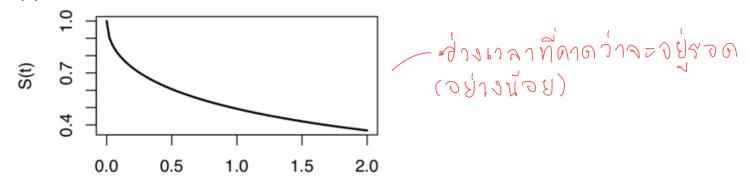
Terminology and notation

- T denotes the response variable, $T \geq 0$.
- The survival function is

$$S(t) = Pr(T > t) = 1 - F(t).$$

S(t): survival functional \rightarrow prob. ที่น่าจะอยู่ชอดอย่างน้อยถึงเวลานั้น

F(t): cumulative distribution of failure events







Survival function

- The survival function gives the probability that a subject will survive past time *t*.
- As t ranges from 0 to ∞ , the survival function has the following properties
 - It is non-increasing
 - At time t=0, S(t)=1. In other words, the probability of surviving past time 0 is 1.
 - At time $t=\infty$, $S(t)=S(\infty)=0$. As time goes to infinity, the survival curve goes to 0.
- In theory, the <u>survival function</u> is smooth.
- In practice, we observe events on a discrete time scale (days, weeks, etc.).





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• The hazard function, h(t), is the instantaneous rate at which events occur, given no previous events.

$$h(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{Pr(t < T \le t + \Delta t | T > t)}{\Delta t} = \frac{f(t)}{S(t)}.$$

• The cumulative hazard describes the accumulated risk up to time t, $H(t) = \int_0^t h(u)du$.





If we know any one of the functions S(t), H(t), or h(t), we can derive the other two functions.

$$h(t) = -\frac{\partial \log(S(t))}{\partial t}$$

$$H(t) = -\log(S(t))$$

$$S(t) = \exp(-H(t))$$





Survival data

How do we record and represent survival data with censoring?

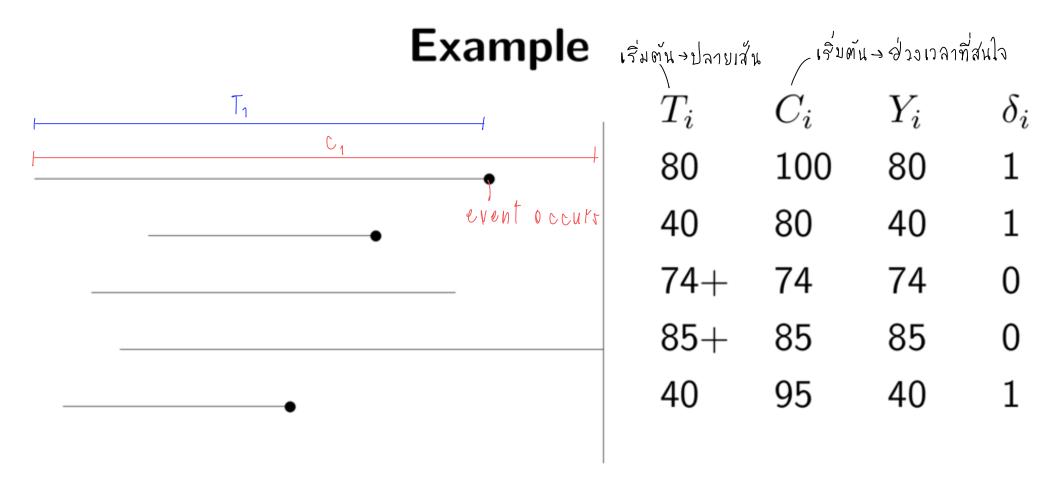
- T_i denotes the response for the *i*th subject.
- Let C_i denote the censoring time for the *i*th subject
- Let δ_i denote the event indicator

$$\delta_i = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if the event was observed } (T_i \leq C_i) \\ 0 \text{ if the response was censored } (T_i > C_i). \end{cases}$$

• The observed response is $Y_i = \min(T_i, C_i)$.







Termination of study





Estimating S(t) and H(t)

If we are assuming that every subject follows the same survival function (no covariates or other individual differences), we can easily estimate S(t).

We can use nonparametric estimators like the Kaplan-Meier estimator

aanu histogram

- We can estimate the survival distribution by making parametric assumptions
 - exponential
 - Weibull
 - Gamma
 - log-normal





Non-parametric estimation of S

- When no event times are censored, a non-parametric estimator of S(T) is $1 F_n(t)$, where $F_n(t)$ is the empirical cumulative distribution function.
- ullet When some observations are censored, we can estimate S(t) using the Kaplan-Meier product-limit estimator.





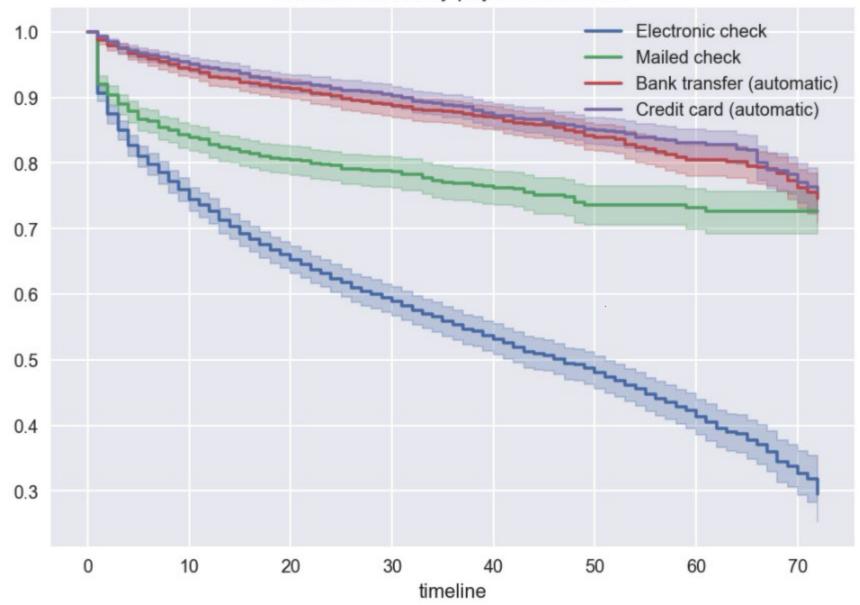
; 0;

	\overline{t}	No. subjects	Deaths	Censored	Cumulative
		at risk			คนรวจ survival
	59	26	1	0	25/26 = 0.962
	115	25	1	0	$24/25 \times 0.962 = 0.923 = \frac{24}{26}$
	156	24	1	0	$23/24 \times 0.923 = 0.885$
j	268	23	1	0	$22/23 \times 0.885 = 0.846$
))	329	22	1	0	$21/23 \times 0.846 = 0.808$
;]]	353	21	1	0	$20/21 \times 0.808 = 0.769$
	365	20	0	1	$20/20 \times 0.769 = 0.769$
	377	19	0	1	$19/19 \times 0.769 = 0.769$
	421	18	0	1	$18/18 \times 0.769 = 0.769$
	431	17	1	0	$16/17 \times 0.769 = 0.688$
	i				:
	÷				:





Survival curves by payment methods







End of Lecture 4



