# Bil 470 / YAP 470

Introduction to Machine Learning (Yapay Öğrenme)

Batuhan Bardak

Lecture 3: Regression, Overfitting & Underfitting, Regularization

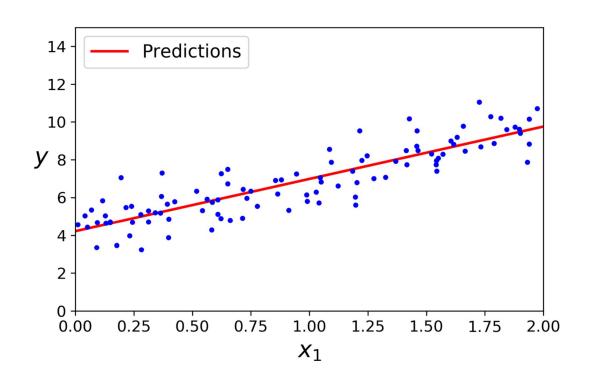
**Date**: 20.09.2022 & 26.09.2022

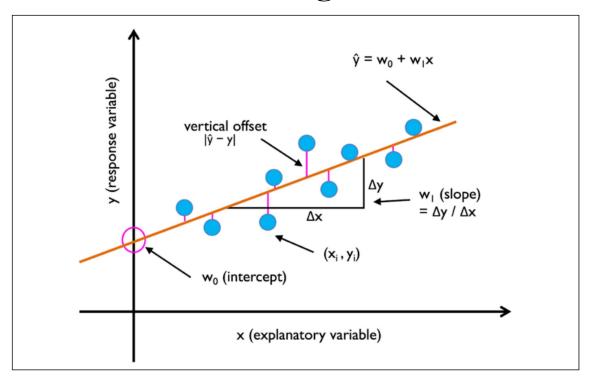
### Plan for today

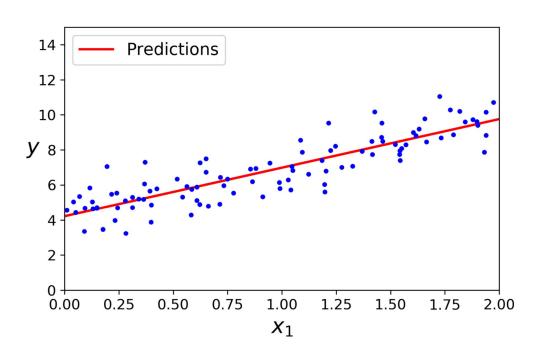
- Linear Regression
- Gradient Descent
- Overfitting & Underfitting
- Regularization

### Key Terms for Simple Linear Regression

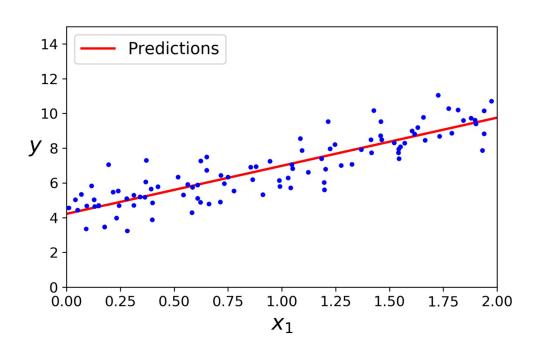
- Response
  - The variable we are trying to predict.
    - Dependent variable, Y variable, target, outcome
- Independent variable
  - The variable used to predict the response.
    - X variable, feature, attribute, predictor
- Record
  - The vector of predictor and outcome values for a specific individual
    - Row, case, instance, example
- Intercept
  - The intercept of the regression line
    - **■** b0, β0
- Regression coefficient
  - The slope of the regression line.
    - Slope, b1,  $\beta$ 1, parameter estimates, weights
- Fitted values
  - The estimates Yi obtained from the regression line.
    - Predicted values
- Residuals
  - The difference between the observed values and the fitted values.
    - Errors
- Least Squares
  - The method of fitting a regression by minimizing the sum of squared residuals.







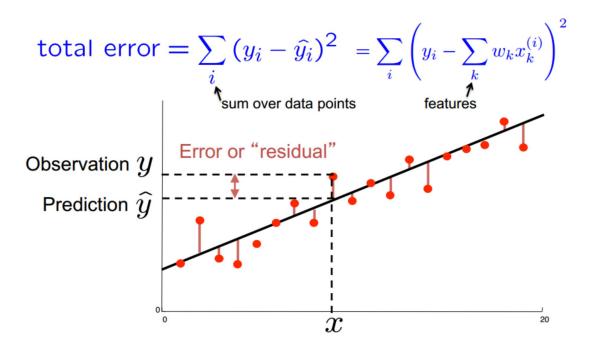
$$\hat{y} = w^T\mathbf{x} + b = \sum_{i=1}^p w_i x_i + b$$



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$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p, b \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T \mathbf{x}_i + b - y_i)^2$$

### Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)



### Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)

• Regression Line is the estimate that minimizes the sum of squared residual values, also called the *residual sum of squares* or *RSS*:

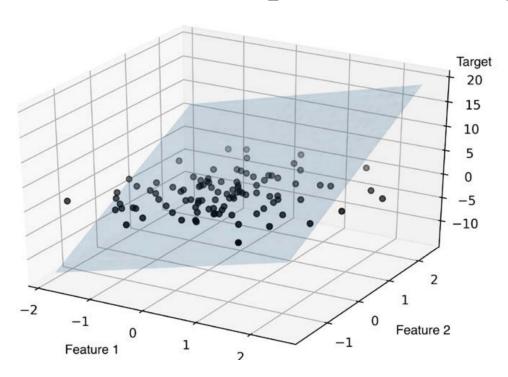
$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \hat{b}_0 - \hat{b}_1 X_i)^2$$

• The method of minimizing the sum of the squared residuals is termed *least squares* regression, or ordinary least squares (OLS) regression.

### Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)

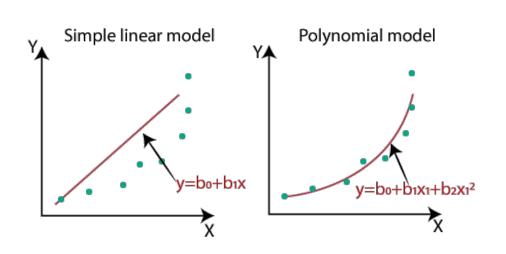
https://phet.colorado.edu/sims/html/curve-fitting/latest/curve-fitting en.html

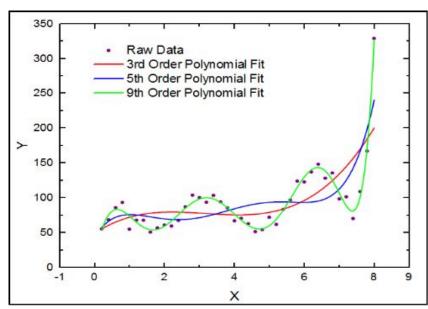
### Multiple Linear Regression



$$y = w_0 x_0 + w_1 x_1 + ... + w_m x_m = \sum_{i=0}^{n} w_i x_i = w^T x$$

### Polynomial Regression





#### **Evaluation Metrics**

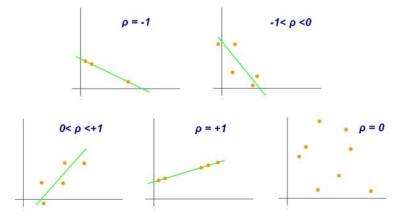
- Pearson correlation
- R-squared, or R<sup>2</sup>
- Adjusted- R-squared
- Mean Squared Error
- Mean Absolute Error
- Root Mean Squared Error

#### Pearson Correlation

- Pearson's r
- Is a measure of linear correlation between two sets of data.
- It is the ratio between the *covariance* of two variables and the product of their *standard* deviations.
- The results always has a value between -1 and 1.

$$r = rac{\sum \left(x_i - ar{x}
ight)\left(y_i - ar{y}
ight)}{\sqrt{\sum \left(x_i - ar{x}
ight)^2 \sum \left(y_i - ar{y}
ight)^2}}$$

Where, r = Pearson Correlation Coefficient  $x_{i_{=\text{x variable samples}}}$   $y_{i_{=\text{y variable sample}}}$   $\bar{x}$   $\bar{y}$ 



#### Coefficient of Determination

- R-squared, or R<sup>2</sup>
- R-squared ranges from 0 to 1 and measures the proportion of variation in the data that is accounted for in the model.
- It is useful mainly in explanatory uses of regression where you want to assess how well the model fits the data.
- **Note**: It does not take into consideration of overfitting problem. If your model has many independent variables, due to model is too complicated, it may fit very well to the training data but performs badly for testing data.

$$R^{2} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \hat{y}_{i})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}}$$

# Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>

• The disadvantage of the R\_square score is while adding new features in data the R\_square score starts increasing or remains constant but never decreases because it assumes that while adding more data variance of data increases.

$$Adjusted \ R^2 = 1 - \frac{(1-R^2)(N-1)}{N-p-1}$$
 Where 
$$\frac{R^2 \text{Sample R-Squared}}{N \ \text{Total Sample Size}}$$
 
$$\frac{R^2 \text{Number of independent}}{P \ \text{Number of independent}}$$

• Where where n is the total number of observations and p is the number of predictors. Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> will always be less than or equal to R<sup>2</sup>.

# Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>

Case 1		Case 2			Case 3		
Var1	Υ	Var1	Var2	Υ	Var1	Var2	Υ
x1	у1	x1	2*x1	у1	x1	2*x1+0.1	у1
x2	y2	x2	2*x2	y2	x2	2*x2	у2
x3	у3	x3	2*x3	у3	x3	2*x3 + 0.1	у3
x4	у4	x4	2*x4	у4	x4	2*x4	y4
x5	у5	x5	2*x5	у5	x5	2*x5 + 0.1	у5

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3
R_squared	0.985	0.985	0.987
Adj_R_squared	0.981	0.971	0.975

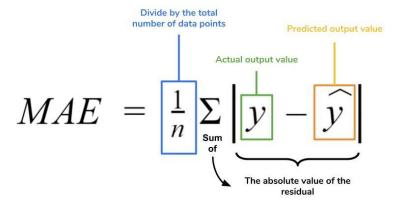
#### Mean Square Error (MSE)

- MSE is calculated by the sum of square of prediction error which is real output minus predicted output and the divide by the number of data points.
- It is hard to interpret many insights from one single result but it gives you a real number to compare against other model results and help you select the best regression model.
- If you have outliers in the dataset then it penalizes the outliers most and the calculated MSE is bigger (-).

$$MSE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

#### Mean Absolute Error (MAE)

- Same unit as the output variable (+)
- Robust to outliers (+)



### Root Mean Square Error (MSE)

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2}{n}}$$

### Choosing the right metric

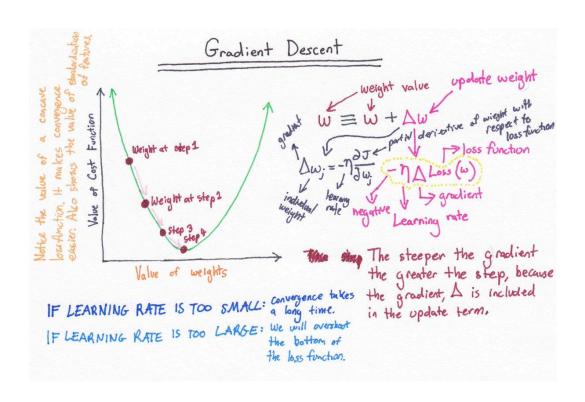
- A nice blog post that you can read more about metrics for evaluation regression models.
  - https://medium.com/usf-msds/choosing-the-right-metric-for-machine-learning-models-part-1-a99d7d7414e4

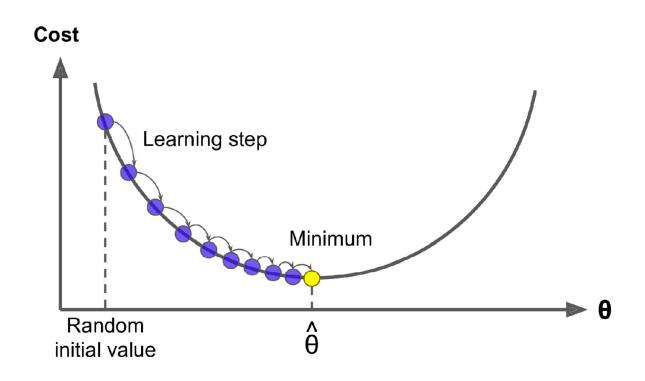
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Case 1: Actual Values = [2,4,6,8], Predicted Values = [4,6,8,10]
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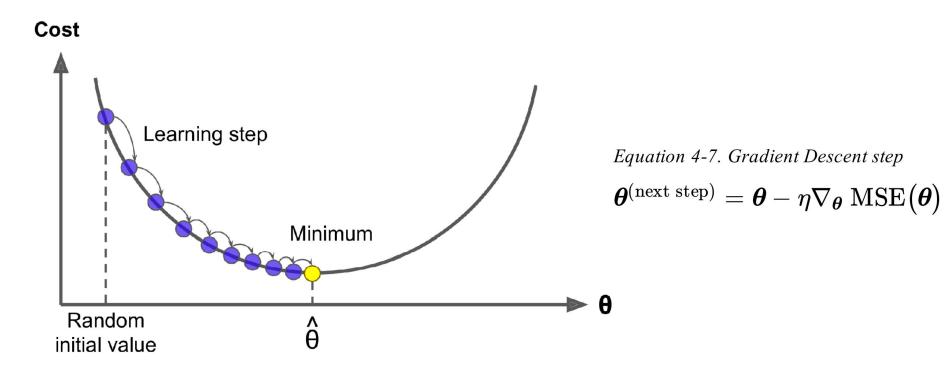
Case 2: Actual Values = [2,4,6,8], Predicted Values = [4,6,8,12]

MAE for case 1 = 2.0, RMSE for case 1 = 2.0

MAE for case 2 = 2.5, RMSE for case 2 = 2.65







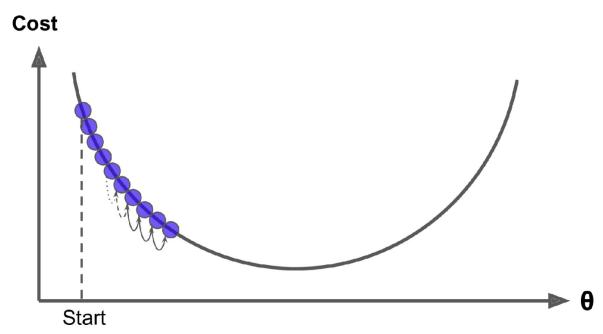


Figure 4-4. The learning rate is too small

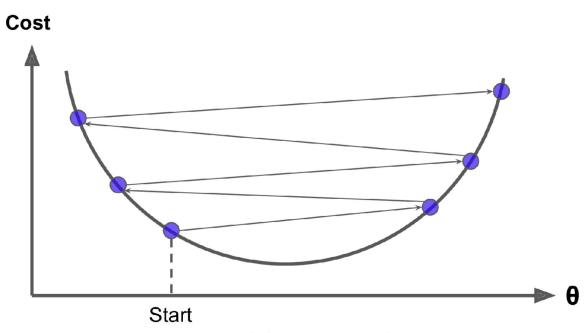


Figure 4-5. The learning rate is too large

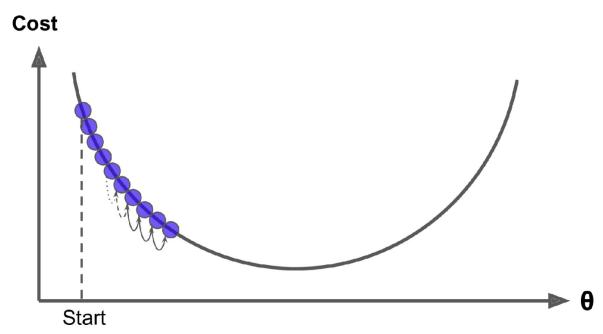
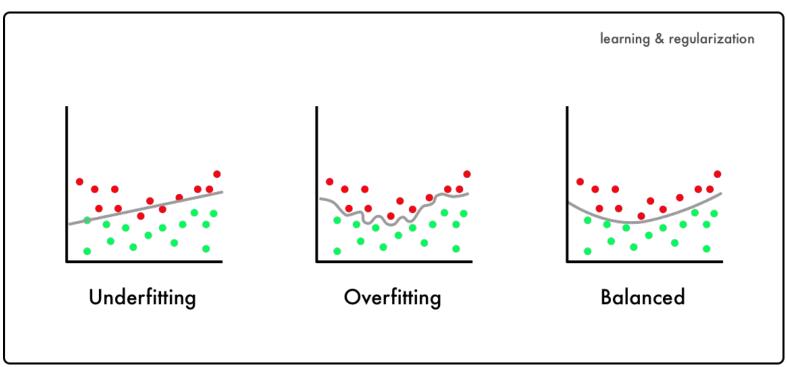


Figure 4-4. The learning rate is too small

- Check this blog post for interactive explanation of Linear Regression
  - https://machinelearningcompass.com/machine learning math/gradient d
     escent for linear regression/

## Overfitting & Underfitting

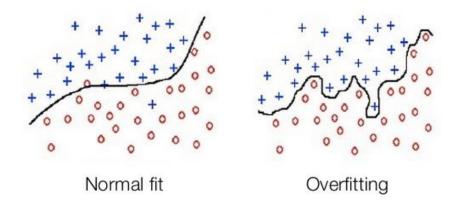


### Overfitting

- Overfitting: Good performance on the training data, poor generalization to other (test) data.
- Overfitting refers to a model that models the training data to well.
- Overfitting happens when a model learns the detail and noise in the training data to the extent that it negatively impacts the performance of the model on new data.
- This means that the noise or random fluctuations in the training data is picked up and learned as concepts by the model.

## Overfitting

Overfitting (High Variance)



# How to avoid overfitting

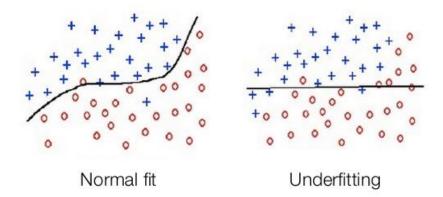
How to avoid overfitting Simple models Cross-validation Regularization Get More Data Ensemble Models

### Underfitting

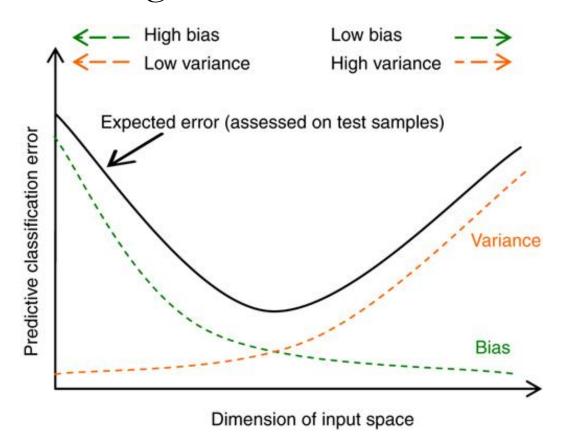
- **Underfitting:** Poor performance on the training data and poor generalization to other (test, val) data.
- Underfitting refers to a modal that can neither model the training data nor generalize to new data.
- Underfitting is often not discussed as it is easy to detect given a good performance metric.

### Underfitting

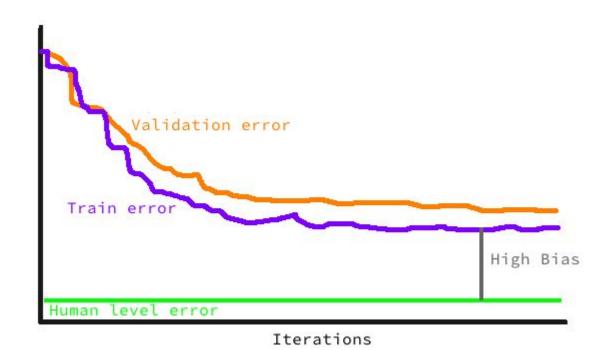
Underfitting (High Bias)



#### Understanding the Bias Variance Tradeoff



#### High Bias



- Bigger model
- Train longer
- New architecture
- Example model:
  - Linear Regression

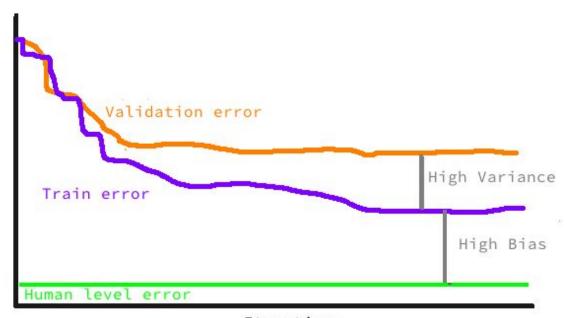
# High Variance



- Regularization
- Bagging Methods
- Dimensionality Reduction
- Feature Selection
  - Example model:
    - KNN, Decision Tree

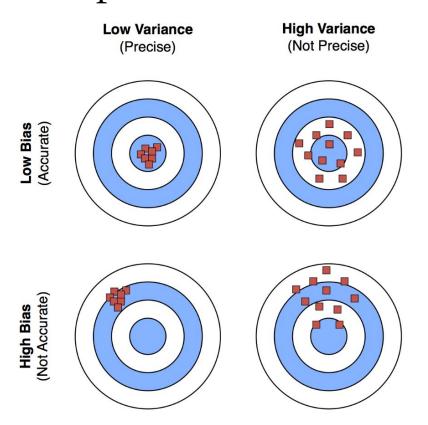
Iterations

## High Variance & High Bias

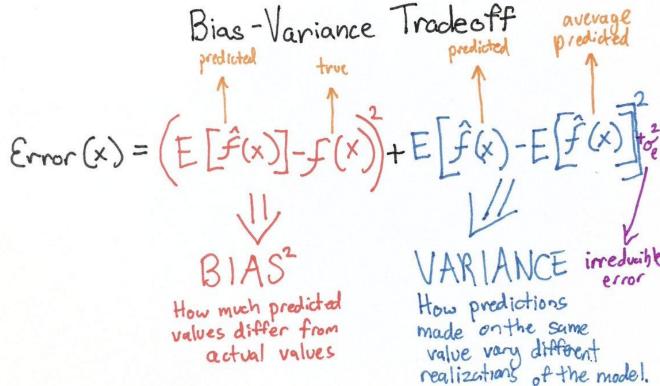


Iterations

#### Graphical Definition



#### Mathematical Definition



#### Regularization

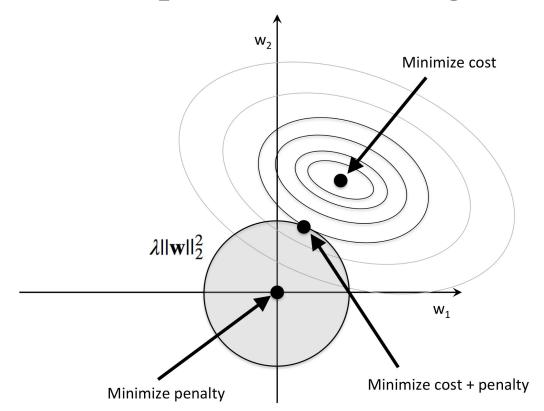
- Regularization is a technique used in an attempt to solve the overfitting problem in statistical mode and can be motivated as a technique to improve the generalizability of a learned model.
- There can be different types such as:
  - Ridge Regularization
  - Lasso Regularization
  - Elastic Net

## Ridge Regression

- Always has a unique solution.
- Tuning parameter alpha.

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p, b \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T \mathbf{x}_i + b - y_i)^2 + lpha ||w||^2$$

# Geometric Interpretation of Ridge Regression

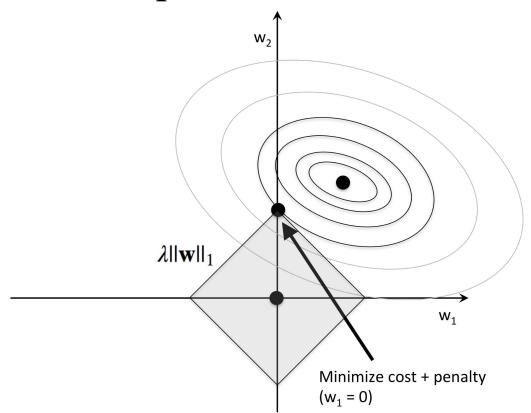


## Lasso Regression

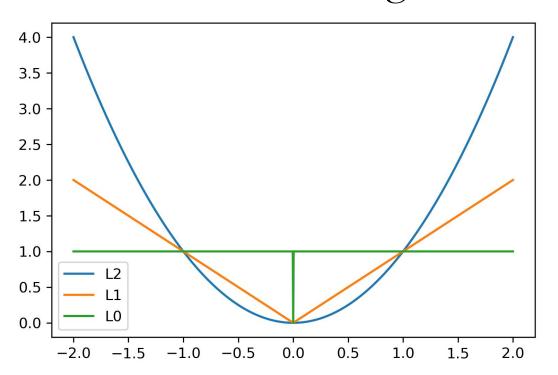
- Shrinks w towards zero like Ridge
- Sets some w exactly to zero automatic feature selection!

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p, b \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T \mathbf{x}_i + b - y_i)^2 + lpha ||w||_1$$

#### Geometric Interpretation of Lasso Regression



#### Understanding L1 and L2 Penalties



$$\ell_2(w) = \sqrt{\sum_i w_i^2}$$

$$\ell_1(w) = \sum_i |w_i|$$

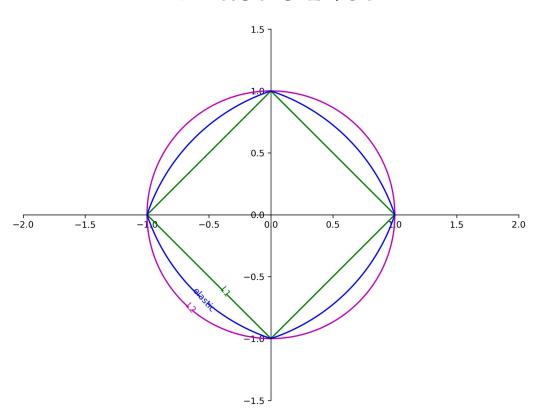
$$\ell_0(w) = \sum_i 1_{w_i!=0}$$

#### Elastic Net

- Combines benefits of Ridge and Lasso
- 2 parameters to tune

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p, b \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{i=1}^n ||w^T \mathbf{x}_i + b - y_i||^2 + lpha_1 ||w||_1 + lpha_2 ||w||_2^2$$

#### Elastic Net



## Recap

- Basics of ML
- KNN
- Train / Test / Validation
- Evaluation Metrics
- Regression
- Regularization
- Overfitting & Underfitting

#### Next Class:

Feature Selection & Details of Evaluation metrics and Cross Validation