

# Machine Learning

Session 11 - T

**Linear Models** 

Ciência de Dados Aplicada 2023/2024

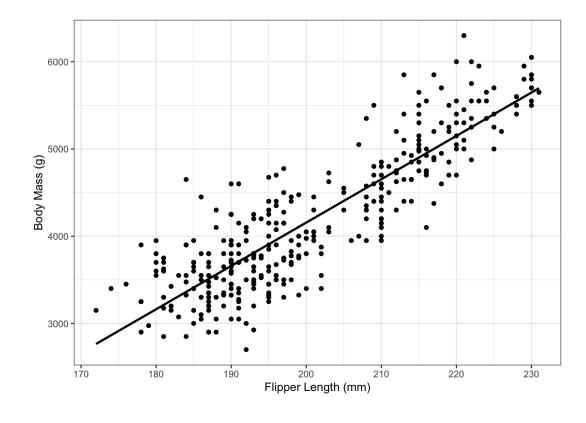
### **Linear Models**



• Linear models are a class of machine learning algorithms that model the relationship between dependent and independent variables using linear approximation.

### Key features:

- Easy to interpret and implement;
- Efficient for large datasets due to linear computation;
- Can be used for both regression and classification tasks.



### **Linear Models**



• A linear model is a **mathematical representation** of a relationship between a dependent variable y and one or more independent variables  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ , where this **relationship is assumed to be linear**.

• Mathematically, it is represented as:  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + ... + \beta_n x_n + \epsilon$ 

Where y is the **dependent variable**,

 $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$  are the independent variables,

 $\beta_0$  is the **intercept**,

 $\beta_1, \beta_2, ..., \beta_n$  are the **coefficients** and

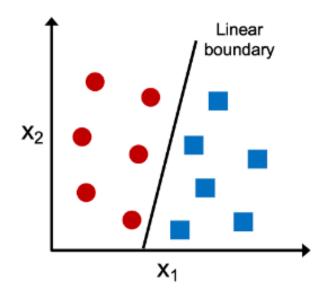
 $\epsilon$  is the **error term**.

### Non linear problems

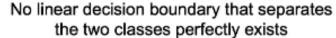


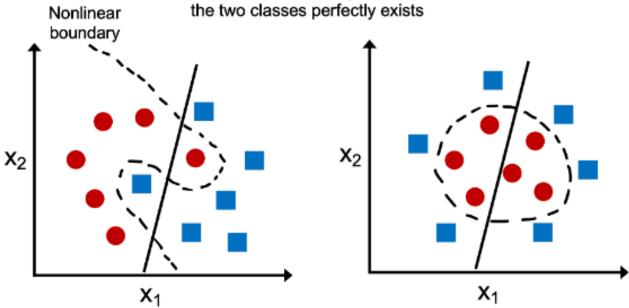
#### Linearly separable

A linear decision boundary that separates the two classes exists



### Not linearly separable





https://vitalflux.com/how-know-data-linear-non-linear/

• Limitation: In non linear cases, linear models may be insufficient...

### **Linear Models**



Simple Linear Regression

Multiple Linear Regression

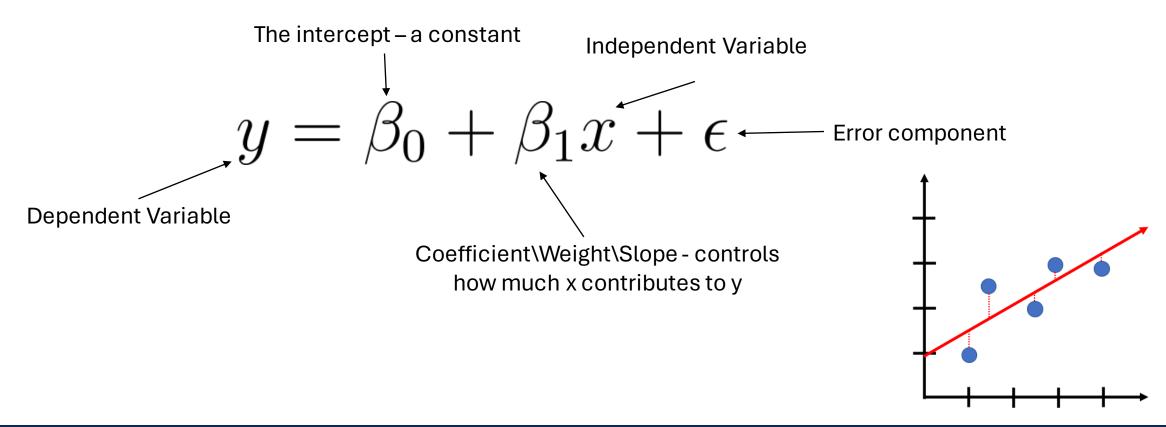
Polynomial Regression

Logistic Regression

# **Simple Linear Regression**



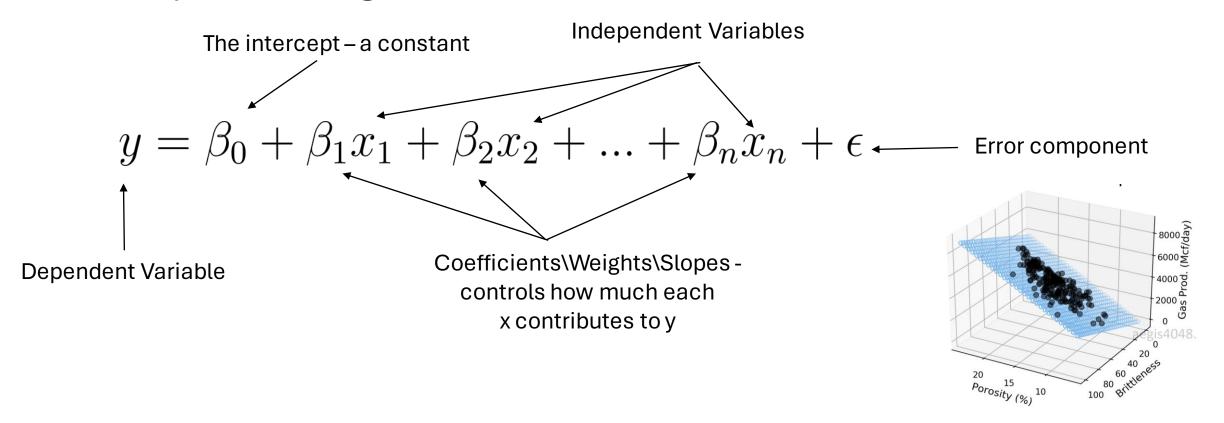
 Simple linear regression models the relationship between one independent variable and a dependent variable. The equation for a simple linear regression is:



## **Multiple Linear Regression**



 Multiple linear regression extends simple linear regression to incorporate multiple independent variables. The equation for multiple linear regression is:



### **Polynomial Regression**



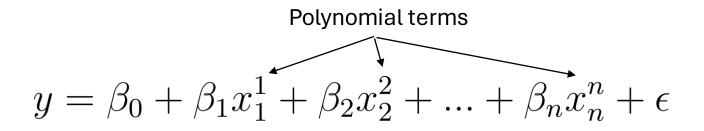
 Polynomial regression involves fitting a curve to the data by introducing polynomial terms. The equation for polynomial regression is:

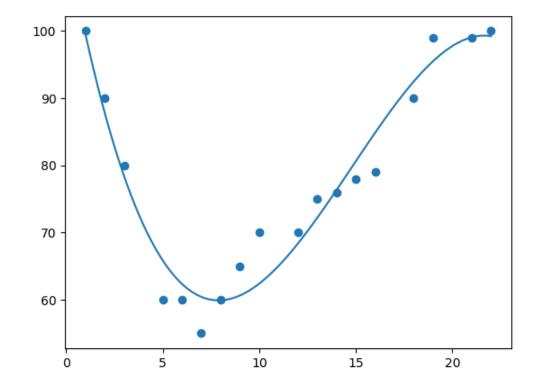
Polynomial terms 
$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1^1 + \beta_2 x_2^2 + \ldots + \beta_n x_n^n + \epsilon$$

- NOTE: The term "linear" in linear regression refers to the **linearity of the coefficients**, not necessarily the linearity of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.
- In polynomial regression, although the relationship between the variables is modeled using a polynomial function (which can appear curved), the estimation process is still linear with respect to the coefficients.

# **Polynomial Regression**







### **Linear Regression**



Cost function: Mean Squared Error (MSE)

$$J(\beta) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)} \right)^2$$
Predicted value given by:
$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + ... + \beta_n x_n$$

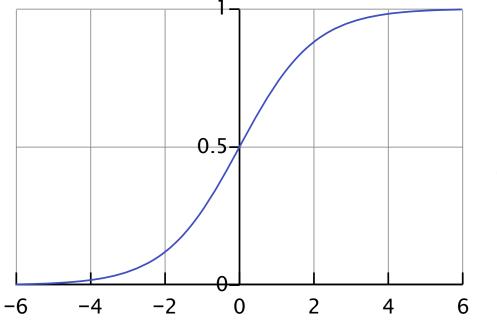
- J is a function of the model coefficients  $\beta_1, \beta_1, ..., \beta_n$
- Objective: identify the model coefficients that minimize J

## **Logistic Regression**



Logistic regression is used for binary classification.

 It models the probability of the outcome belonging to a particular class using the logistic function, also known as the sigmoid function.



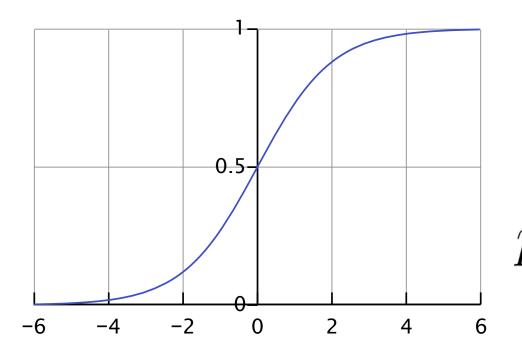
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(x)}}$$

## **Logistic Regression**



 The predicted class is given by the application of the sigmoid function to the linear regression output.

• It gives us the **probability** of y (output) being 1 for the example x.



$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(x)}}$$

$$p = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_n x_n)}}$$

### **Logistic Regression**



Train separate "binary" models for each class;

• Treat other classes as a single entity during training;

 Each model estimates probability of the example belonging to a class;

 Apply all models, select class with highest predicted probability.

### **Logistic Regression - Multiclass**



### Cost function:

$$J(\beta) = \begin{cases} -\log(\hat{y}) & \text{if } y = 1\\ -\log(1 - \hat{y}) & \text{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

### Example:

- If true label y=1, prediction=0.8, error = -log(0.8), low error
- If true label y=0, prediction=0.8, error = -log(1 0.8), high error

• Combining we get: 
$$J(\beta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left[ -y_{-}^{(i)} \log(\hat{y}^{(i)}) - (1-y_{-}^{(i)}) \log(1-\hat{y}^{(i)})) \right]$$
 
$$p = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_n x_n)}}$$
 Predicted value given by:

# Parameter estimation (coefficients eta )



• Parameter estimation consists in determining the values of the coefficients  $(\beta_1, \beta_2, ..., \beta_n)$  that best fit the model to the training data.

 This process involves finding the optimal parameters that minimize a predefined loss function.

• For linear models, we can use the **analytical method** of **Least Squares**, minimizing the error function **MSE**.

Other iterative methods like gradient descent can also be used.

### **Linear Regression - Least Squares**



Algebric method that involves solving a system of equations:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} J(\beta) = 0, j = 1, ..., n$$

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

X consists of the training data

F

# Linear\Logistic Regression - Gradient Descent



Can only be applied if the cost function is differentiable.

• **Iterative method** that at each iteration changes the values of the parameters in order to minimize the error between predictions and true labels.

$$\beta_j := \beta_j - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} J(\beta)$$
Learning rate

## **Least Squares vs Gradient Descent**



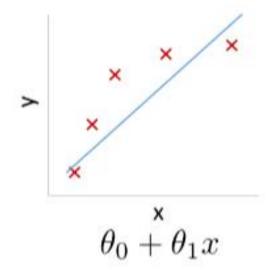
 Least squares ensures optimal solution. Gradient descent may not converge / get stuck in local optima.

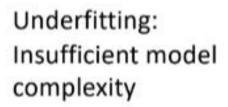
 Least squares is suitable and computationally efficient for small datasets;

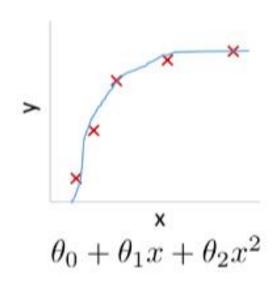
 Gradient descent is suitable for large datasets and can handle non-linear models.

### **Overfitting in Linear Models**

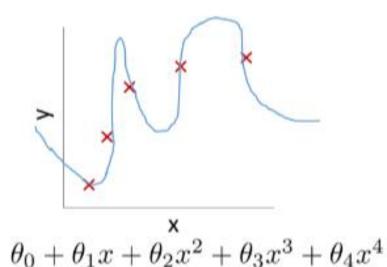








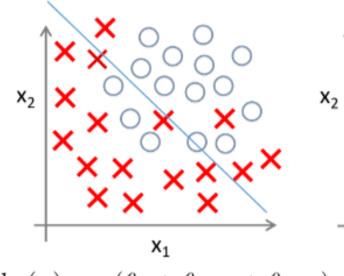
"Adequate" model complexity

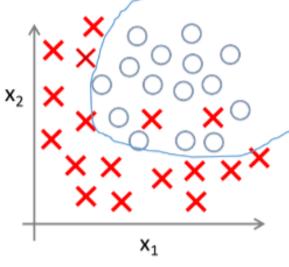


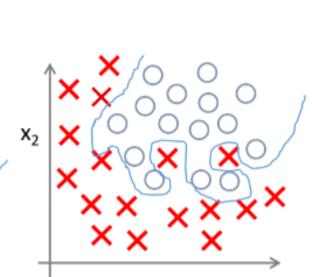
Overfitting: Excessive complexity

### **Overfitting in Linear Models**









$$h_{\theta}(x) = g(\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2)$$
  $g$  = sigmoid function

$$g(\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \theta_3 x_1^2 + \theta_4 x_2^2 + \theta_5 x_1 x_2)$$

$$g(\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_1^2 + \theta_3 x_1^2 x_2 + \theta_4 x_1^2 x_2^2 + \theta_5 x_1^2 x_2^3 + \theta_6 x_1^3 x_2 + \dots)$$

Underfitting: Insufficient model complexity

"Adequate" model complexity

Overfitting: Excessive complexity

## **Overfitting in Linear Models**



• In linear models, like simple linear regression or multiple linear regression, overfitting doesn't involve complex curves or surfaces bending to fit the data.

• Instead, it involves the linear model capturing noise or irrelevant fluctuations in the data, which can happen when the model is too complex relative to the amount of data available.

 Linear models are prone to overfit in the cases where the number of features is high (specially when compared with the number of examples).

### **Overcoming Overfitting in Linear Models**



• Reduce the number of features (coefficients) - feature selection.

- Regularization: Keep all features by try to reduce the magnitude of parameter values.
  - L1 regularization (Lasso regression)
  - L2 regularization (Ridge refression)
  - Elastic nets use both L1 and L2 regularization

## **Ridge Regression**



 Idea: penalize high values of the parameters (coefficients) in the cost function.

$$J(\beta) = \frac{1}{2m} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\hat{y}(i) - y^{(i)})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{n} \beta_j^2 \right]$$

Regularization parameter:

- higher values penalize parameter values more

If too high: risk of underfitting If too low: risk of overfitting

## **Ridge Regression**



Analytical method (least squares):

$$\beta = \left( X^T X + \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ & & \ddots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)^{-1} X^T y$$

### Ridge Regression



### Gradient descent:

$$\beta_0 := \beta_0 - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left( \hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)} \right) x_0^{(i)}$$

$$\beta_j := \beta_j (1 - \alpha \frac{\lambda}{m}) - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x_j^{(i)}$$

$$j = 1, ..., n$$

Term imposed by regularization It is always < 1

### **Lasso Regression**



 Idea: instead of penalizing the squared values of the parameters it penalizes the absolute values

$$J(\beta) = \frac{1}{2m} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{y}(i) - y^{(i)})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j^2 \right] \quad \text{Ridge}$$

$$J(eta)=rac{1}{2m}\left[\sum_{i=1}^m(\hat{y}(i)-y^{(i)})^2+\lambda\sum_{j=1}^n|eta_j|
ight]$$
 Lasso

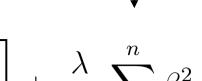
Everything else remains the same!

# Regularization in Logistic Regression



Cost function:

### **Ridge Regularization**



$$J(\beta) = \left[ -\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)} \log \left( \hat{y}^{(i)} \right) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log (1 - \hat{y}^{(i)}) \right] + \frac{\lambda}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \beta_j^2$$

$$J(\beta) = \left[ -\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)} \log \left( \hat{y}^{(i)} \right) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log (1 - \hat{y}^{(i)}) \right] + \frac{\lambda}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |\beta_j|$$







#### Gradient

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_0} J(\beta) \qquad \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x_0^{(i)} 
\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_1} J(\beta) \qquad \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x_1^{(i)} - \frac{\lambda}{m} \beta_1 
\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_2} J(\beta) \qquad \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x_2^{(i)} - \frac{\lambda}{m} \beta_2 
\dots 
\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_i} J(\beta) \qquad \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x_j^{(i)} - \frac{\lambda}{m} \beta_j$$

### Resources



 Rencher, A. C., & Schaalje, G. B. (2007). Linear Models in Statistics (2nd ed.) [PDF]. doi:10.1002/9780470192610

• Pillonetto, G., Chen, T., Chiuso, A., De Nicolao, G., & Ljung, L. (2022). Regularization of Linear Regression Models. In Regularized System Identification (pp. 33–93). Springer International Publishing. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-95860-2\_3">https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-95860-2\_3</a>

• Tran-Dinh, Q., & van Dijk, M. (2022). Gradient Descent-Type Methods: Background and Simple Unified Convergence Analysis (Version 1). arXiv. <a href="https://doi.org/10.48550/ARXIV.2212.09413">https://doi.org/10.48550/ARXIV.2212.09413</a>