

Data Science Advanced

Lesson02–Regression using Gradient Descent

Objective

After completing this lesson you will be able to:



Linear Regression:

- Describe hypothesis for a linear regression
- Understand cost function as a measure to derive regression equation.
- Understand gradient descent algorithm and its working to minimize the cost function.
- Understand Bias and Variance Concept
- Apply Regularization for Model generalization

The essence of regression analysis is to use the information available about surrounding (independent variables) to better predict an outcome (dependent variable).

Regression–Building the Concept

	Weekly family income X (Rs.)									
X	800	1000	1200	1400	1600	1800	2000	2200	2400	2600
Weekly expenditure (Rs.) Y	550	650	790	800	1020	1100	1200	1350	1370	1500
	600	700	840	930	1070	1150	1360	1370	1450	1520
	650	740	900	950	1100	1200	1400	1400	1550	1750
	700	800	940	1030	1160	1300	1450	1520	1650	1780
	750	850	980	1080	1180	1350	-	1570	1750	1800
	-	880	-	1130	1250	1400	-	1600	1890	1850
	-		-	1150	-	-	-	1620	-	1910
Total	3250	4620	4450	7070	6780	7500	6850	10430	9660	12110
E(Y X)	650	770	890	1010	1130	1250	1370	1490	1610	1730

- The unconditional mean i.e. $E(Y) = 72720/60 = 1212$.
- The essence of regression analysis is to be use the knowledge of income level to better predict the weekly expenditure.

Regression—Sample Regression Function

Generally the information available will be a randomly selected sample of Y values for fixed X values.

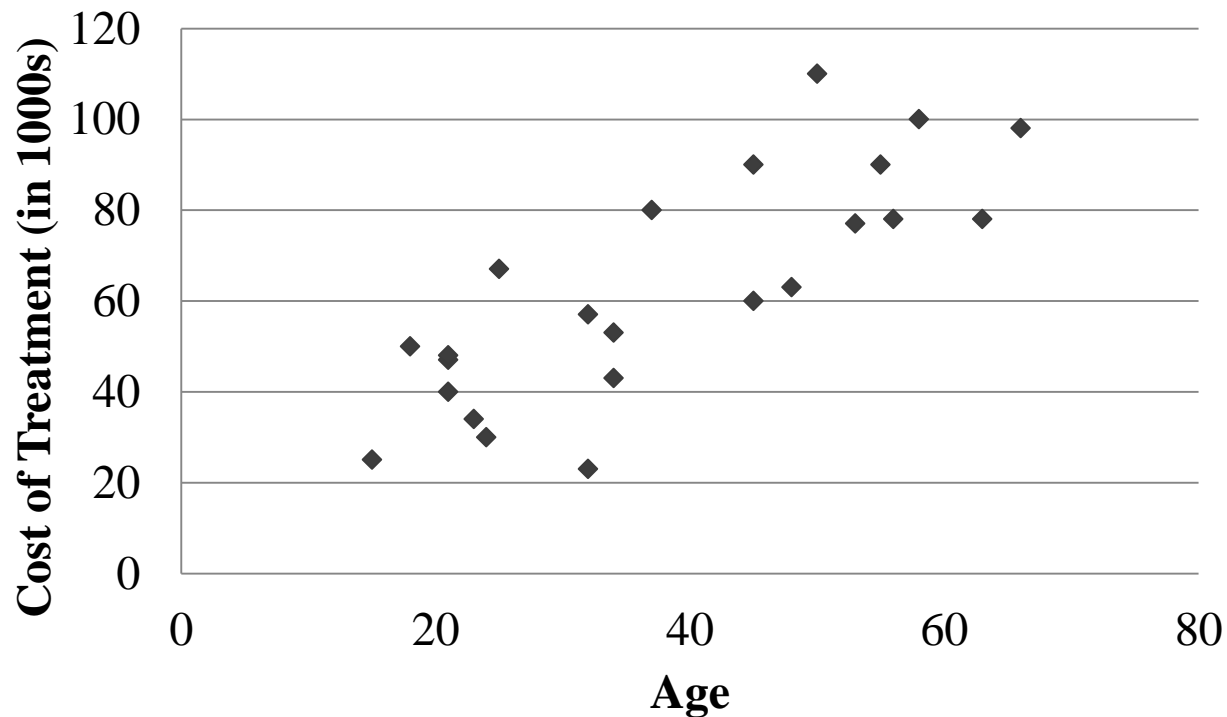
Y (Exp)	X (Inc)
700	800
650	1000
900	1200
950	1400
1100	1600
1150	1800
1200	2000
1400	2200
1550	2400
1500	2600

Y (Exp)	X (Inc)
550	800
880	1000
900	1200
800	1400
1180	1600
1200	1800
1450	2000
1350	2200
1450	2400
1750	2600

Linear Regression

Linear Regression to predict cost of treatment for a given age.

Cost of Heart Surgery



- It is a supervised learning problem as the “right answer” for each example is given in the dataset.
- A regression based supervised learning to predict real valued output.

Linear Regression–Data Representation

Age (x)	Cost of Treatment (y)
15	25
18	50
37	80
21	40
58	100
24	30
25	67

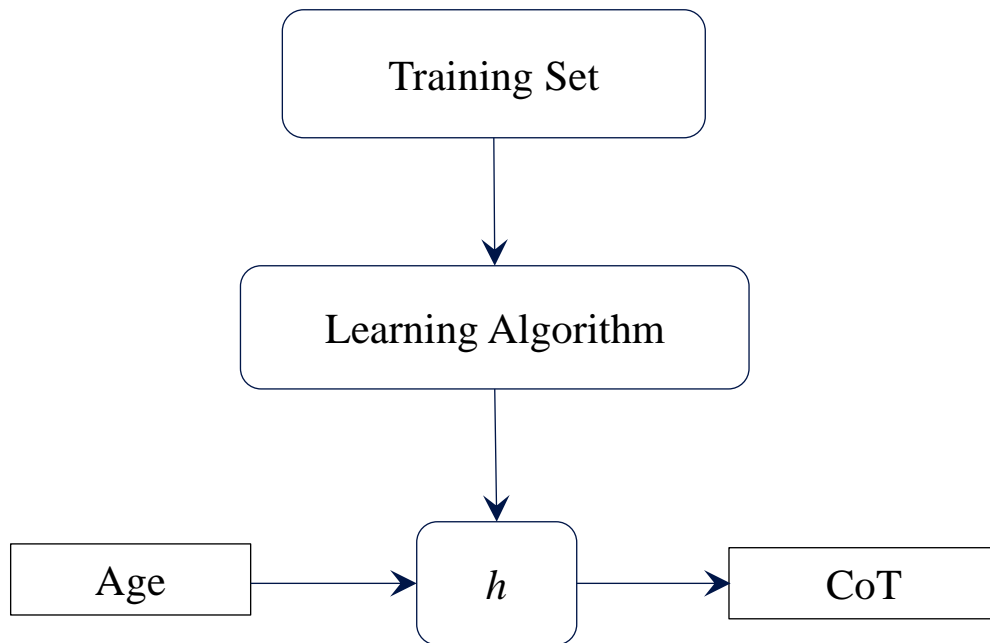
(x^i, y^i) – represents i^{th} training example

$x^1 = 15$
 $y^1 = 25$
 $(x^1, y^1) = (15, 25)$



Notions: **m** = Number of training examples (7 records in the above table)
x's = “input” variable / features; **y**'s = “output” variable / “target” variable
n = Number of features

Regression–Hypothesis Formulation



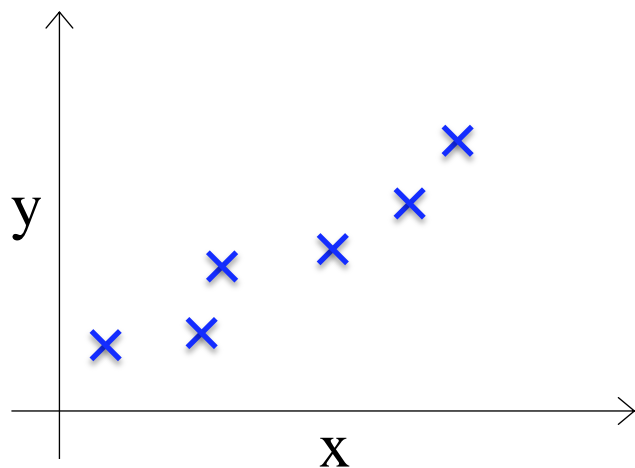
- In case of Linear Regression, the hypothesis function is:

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 * x$$

- How to choose θ s?

Regression–Cost Function

Choose θ_0, θ_1 so that $h_{\theta}(x)$ is close to y for the training examples (x, y) .



The cost function:

$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)})^2$$

Goal: $\min_{\theta_0, \theta_1} (J(\theta_0, \theta_1))$



- Cost function $J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$ for regression is also called squared error function.
- The mean is halved ($1/(2*m)$) as a convenience for the computation of the gradient descent. The derivative term of the square function will cancel out the $1/2$ term.

Regression—Cost Function Intuition with one parameter

Hypothesis: $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 * x$

Simplified

Parameters: θ_0, θ_1

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_1 x$$

Cost Function:

$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

Goal: minimize $J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$
 θ_0, θ_1

$$J(\theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

minimize $J(\theta_1)$
 θ_1

Regression–Cost Function Intuition with one parameter

Actual

Hypothesis: $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 * x$

Parameters: θ_0, θ_1

Cost Function:

$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)})^2$$

Goal: $\min_{\theta_0, \theta_1} (J(\theta_0, \theta_1))$

Simplified

Hypothesis: $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_1 * x$

Parameters: θ_1

Cost Function:

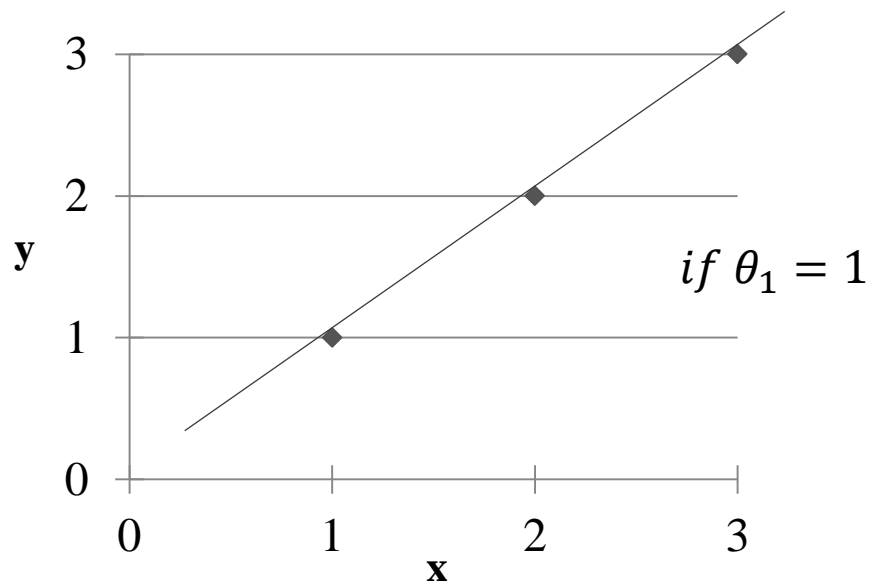
$$J(\theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)})^2$$

Goal: $\min_{\theta_0, \theta_1} (J(\theta_1))$

Regression–Cost Function Intuition with one parameter

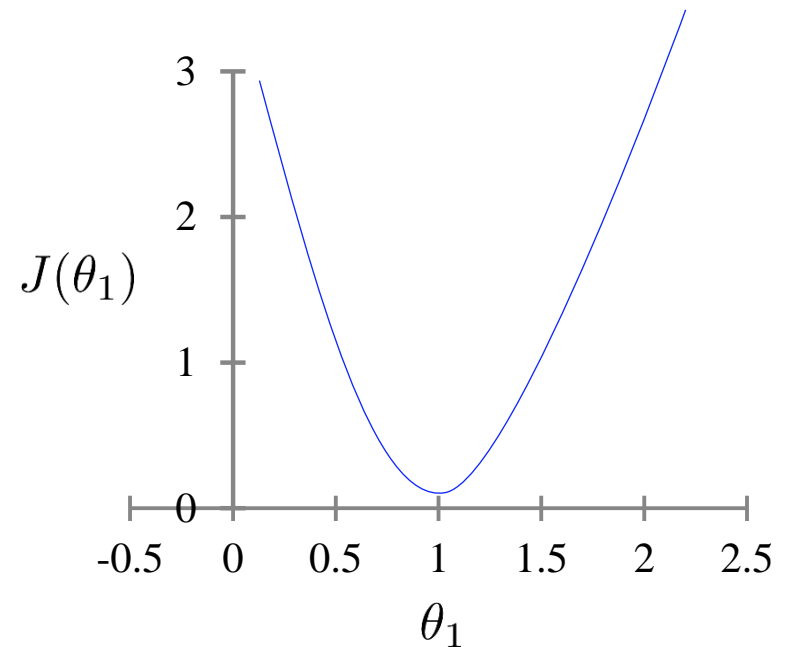
$$h_{\theta}(x)$$

(for fixed θ_1 , this is a function of x)



$$J(\theta_1)$$

(function of the parameter θ_1)



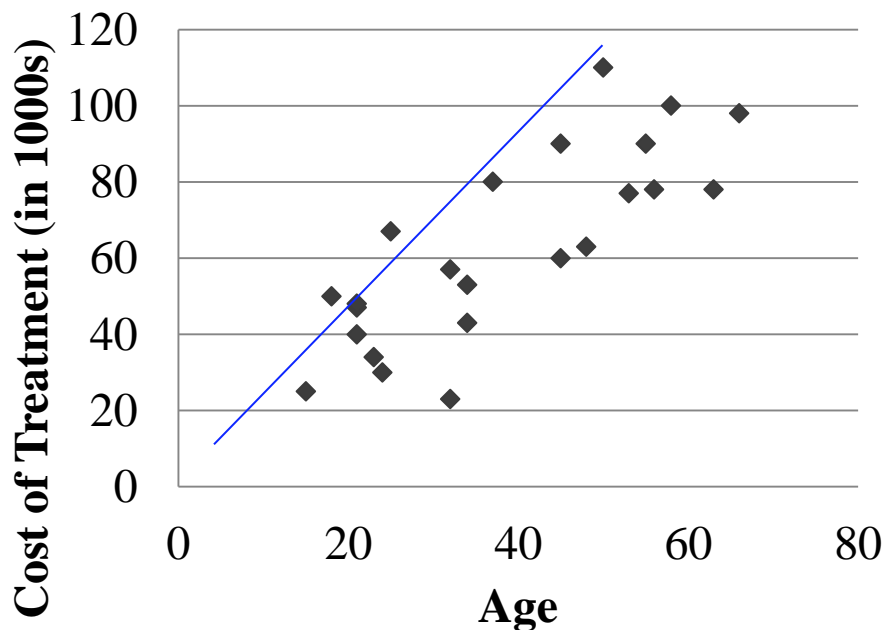
A simplified case where $\theta_0 = 0$. The cost function will be minimum for theta equal to zero. This will always be a convex shaped function.

Regression–Cost Function Intuition with two parameter

$$h_{\theta}(x)$$

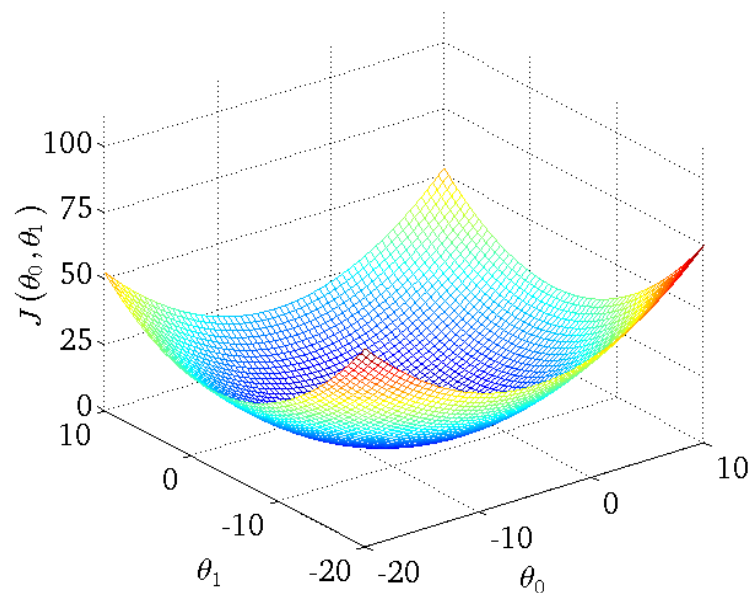
(for fixed θ_0, θ_1 , this is a function of x)

Cost of Heart Surgery



$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$$

(function of the parameters θ_0, θ_1)

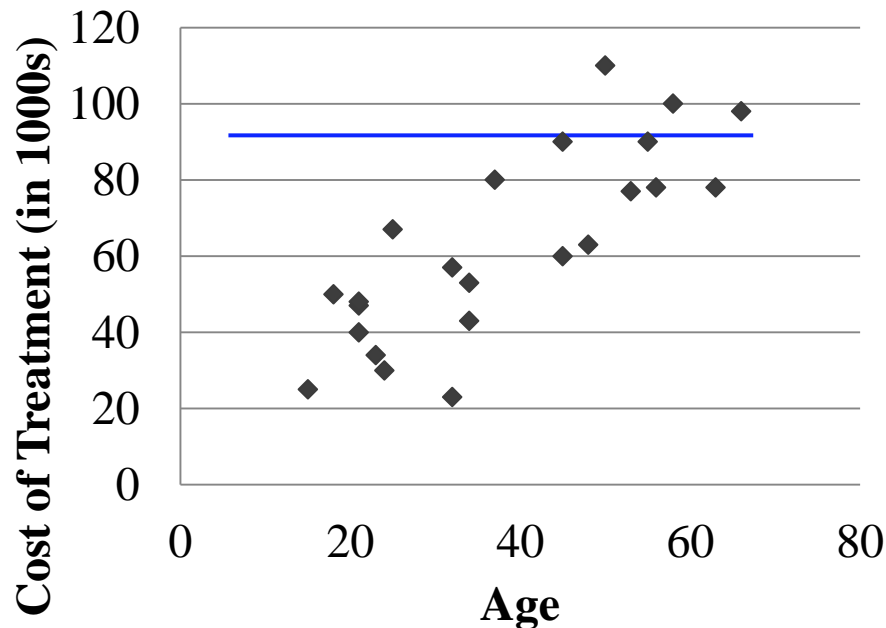


Regression–Cost Function Intuition with two parameter

$$h_{\theta}(x)$$

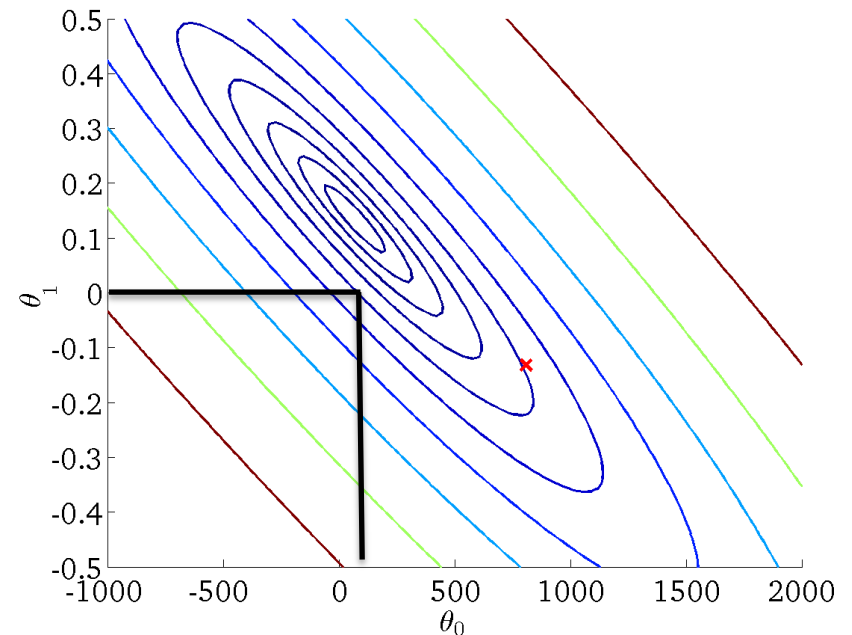
(for fixed θ_0, θ_1 , this is a function of x)

Cost of Heart Surgery



$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$$

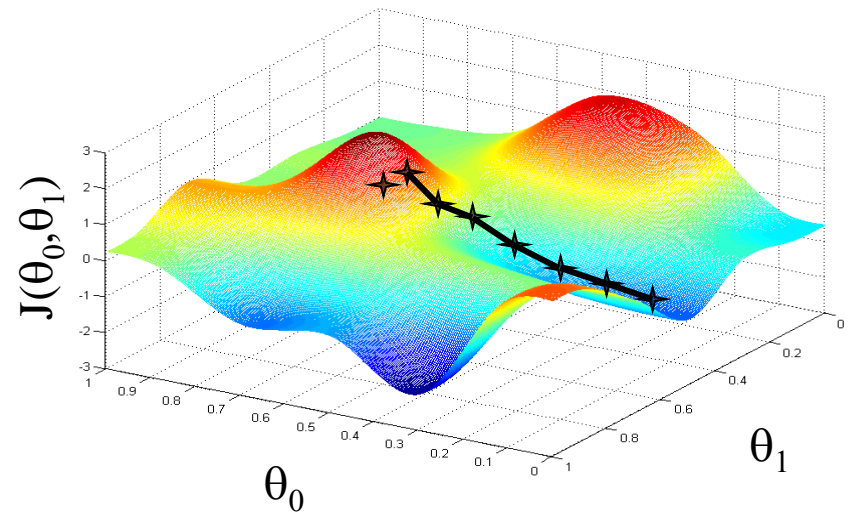
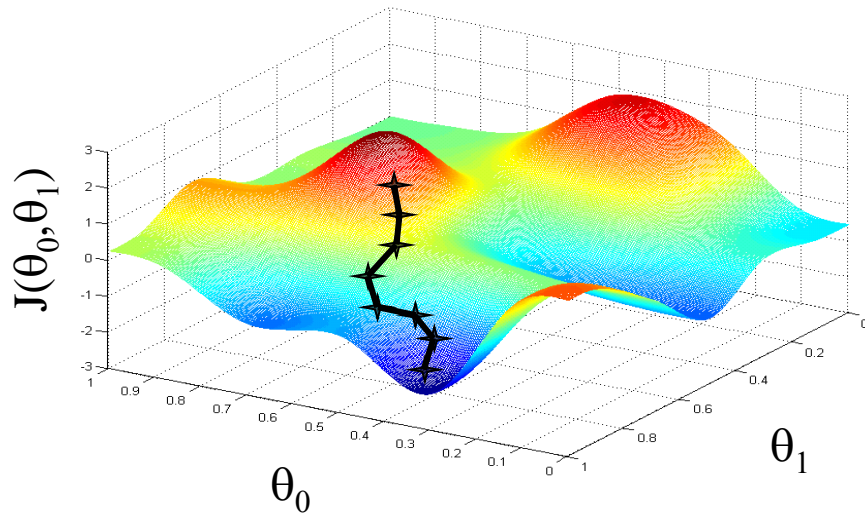
(function of the parameters θ_0, θ_1)



Gradient Descent

Gradient Descent algorithm:

- Start with some θ_0, θ_1
- Keep changing θ_0, θ_1 to reduce $J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$ until a minimum is reached.



Gradient descent is a generic algorithm which can be used to minimize any type of cost function.

The initiation of θ_0, θ_1 can lead to a different local optima.

Gradient Descent

- The gradient descent algorithm is:

repeat until convergence{

$$\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha * \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta_0, \theta_1) \text{ (for } j = 0 \text{ and } j = 1)$$

}

- Simultaneous update of θ_0, θ_1 is needed:

$$temp0 := \theta_0 - \alpha * \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_0} J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$$

$$temp1 := \theta_1 - \alpha * \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$$

$$\theta_0 := temp0$$

$$\theta_1 := temp1$$



- α is the learning rate which decides how big or small the steps of descent will be.
- Near to the local minimum, the gradient descent will automatically take smaller steps.
- At the local optima, the θ_0, θ_1 does not change as derivative term will equal to zero.

Linear Regression–Gradient Descent

The gradient descent algorithm is:

```
repeat until convergence{  
     $\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha * \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$   
    (for  $j = 0$  and  $j = 1$ )  
}
```

The cost function:

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 * x$$

$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)})^2$$

Goal: $\min_{\theta_0, \theta_1} (J(\theta_0, \theta_1))$

The derivate term for linear regression will be:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_0} J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)})$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)}) * x^i$$

Linear Regression–Gradient Descent

repeat until convergence{

$$\theta_0 := \theta_0 - \alpha * \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)})$$

$$\theta_1 := \theta_1 - \alpha * \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)}) * x^i$$

}

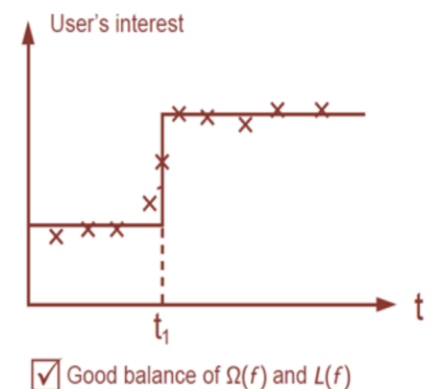
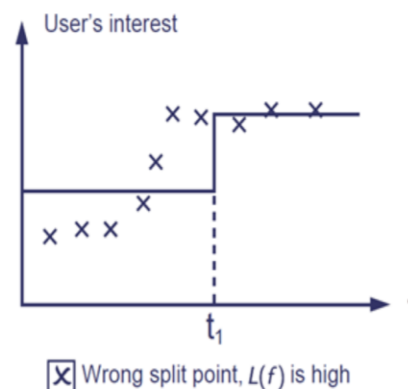
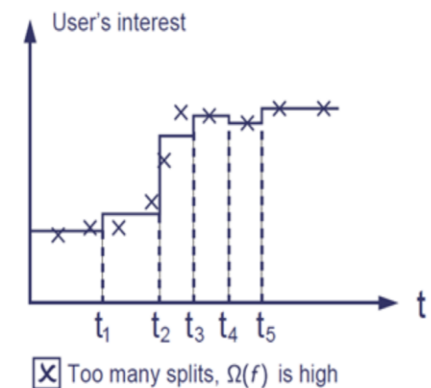
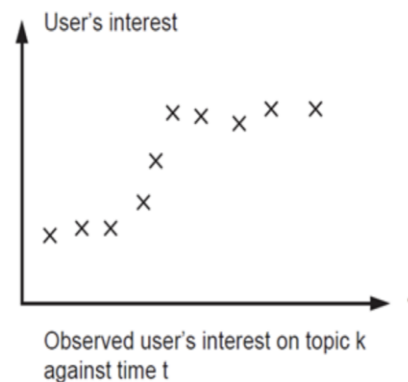


Since for θ_0 , x^i feature will be 1 so the gradient descent is written separate. The above can also be written as: $\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha * \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)}) * x^i$

Bias Versus Variance

The problem of high bias comes up when the model is misspecified (simple hypothesis is selected).

The problem of high variance comes up when the model fails to generalize.



If we have too many features, the learned hypothesis may fit the training set very well ($J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)})^2 \approx 0$), but fail to generalize to new examples (predict the cost of treatment for new patients).

Reduce Overfitting

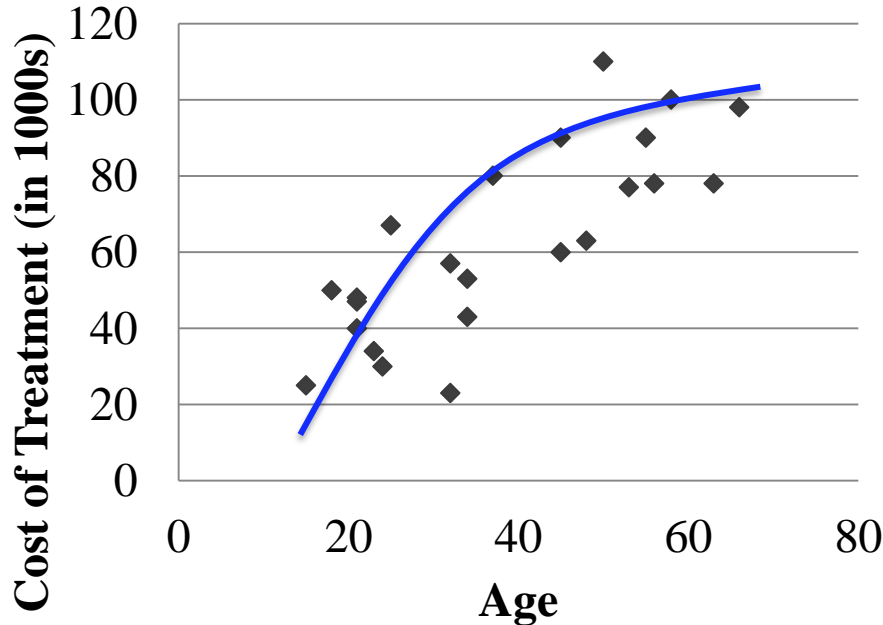
1. Reduce number of features.
 - Manually select which features to keep.
 - Model selection algorithm (discussed later).

2. Regularization.
 - Keep all the features, but reduce magnitude/values of parameters .
 - Works well when we have a lot of features, each of which contributes a bit to predicting .

Regularization – Reduce overfitting

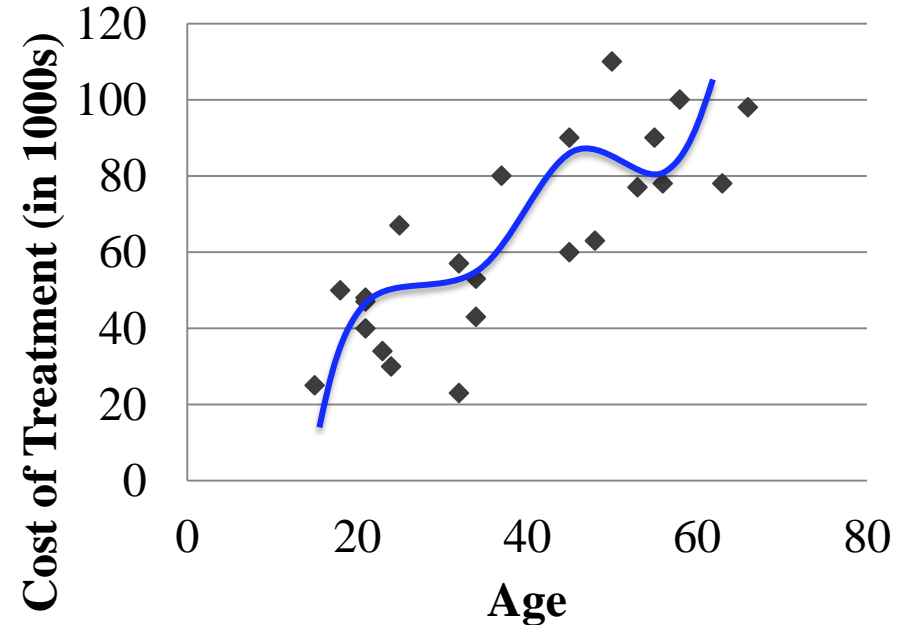
Penalize θ_3 and θ_4 to make them really small.

Cost of Heart Surgery



$$\theta_0 + \theta_1x + \theta_2x^2$$

Cost of Heart Surgery



$$\theta_0 + \theta_1x + \theta_2x^2 + \theta_3x^3 + \theta_4x^4$$



Modify the cost function to add high weights to θ_3 and θ_4 .

The cost function can be minimized only if θ_3 and $\theta_4 \approx 0$.

Regularization – Reduce overfitting

$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)})^2 + 1000 * \theta_3^2 + 1000 * \theta_4^2$$

- Since we do not know which feature to penalize. Small values for parameters $\theta_0, \theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3, \dots$. (Penalize all)

$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \left(\sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)})^2 + \lambda * \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j^2 \right)$$

“Simpler” hypothesis and Less prone to overfitting



The cost function, where the penalty added is **sum of θ – squared** is known as **Ridge Regression (L2)**.

In case, the penalty added is **absolute value of θ** then it is **Lasso Regression (L1)**.

Regularization – Reduce overfitting

Ridge versus Lasso Regression

Ridge

- shrink coefficients towards zero, it can never reduce it to zero.
- all features will be included in the model no matter how small the value of the coefficients.

Lasso

- able to shrink coefficient to exactly zero.
- reduces the number of features and serve as a feature selection tools at the same time.



Lasso regression useful in cases with high dimension and helps with model interpretability.

Linear Regression–Gradient Descent

The gradient descent algorithm is:

```
repeat until convergence{  
     $\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha * \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$   
    (for  $j = 0$  and  $j = 1$ )  
}
```

The cost function:

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 * x$$

$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \left(\sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)})^2 + \lambda * \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j^2 \right)$$

Goal: $\min_{\theta_0, \theta_1} (J(\theta_0, \theta_1))$

The derivate term for linear regression will be:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_0} J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)})$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)}) * x^i + \frac{\lambda}{m} * \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j$$

Linear Regression–Regularized Gradient Descent

repeat until convergence{

$$\theta_0 := \theta_0 - \alpha * \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)})$$

$$\theta_j := \theta_j - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^i) - y^{(i)}) * x^i - \frac{\lambda}{m} * \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j$$

}



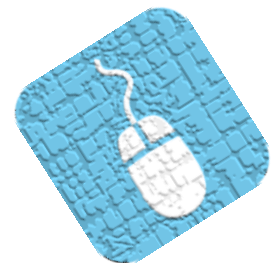
The regularization is for all the features excluding X_0 and thus gradient descent for θ_0 is separate. Note the summation for regularization starts from index 1.

Quiz

Quiz No:1

What if λ is set to an extremely large value (perhaps far too large for our problem, say $\lambda = 10^{10}$)?

- a. Algorithm works fine; setting λ to be very large can't hurt it
- b. Algorithm fails to eliminate overfitting.
- c. Algorithm results in under fitting. (Fails to fit even training data well).
- d. Gradient descent will fail to converge.



Use Regression on DAD Hospital Case

End of Lesson02–Regression using Gradient Descent

