

Linear Regression

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Outline

- Introduction
- Single Feature Case
- Multiple Features Case
- Numerical Optimization

Introduction

What is regression?

Based on the given features, predict the values of interested variables

Example: House price prediction

Features				nterest variable
				↓
Size (feet) x_1	# bedrooms x_2	# floors x_3	# years (Ages)	Price (\$ 1000) <i>y</i>
2104	5	1	45	460
1416	3	2	40	232
1534	3	2	30	315
852	2	1	36	178

Features: 1) size, 2) # bedrooms, 3) # floors, 4) # years

• Mathematically, regression aims to learn a function $f(\cdot)$ that can model the relation between input data x and output value y

$$\hat{y} = f(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$$

Linear regression

Restricting the function family $f(\cdot)$ to be linear-form, *i.e.*,

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

- w_k : model parameters
- m: number of features

Objective

Find a set of parameters $\{w_k\}_{k=1}^m$ so that the prediction

$$\hat{y} = f(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m)$$

is as close as possible to the ground-truth values *y* for all data samples in the training dataset

	Size (feet) x_1	# bedrooms x_2	# floors x_3	# years (Ages) x_4	Price (\$ 1000) <i>y</i>	
Sample 1 ——	2104	5	1	45	460	
Sample 2	1416	3	2	40	232	
Sample 3	1534	3	2	30	315	
Sample 4 ——	852	2	1	36	178	
					••••	

Outline

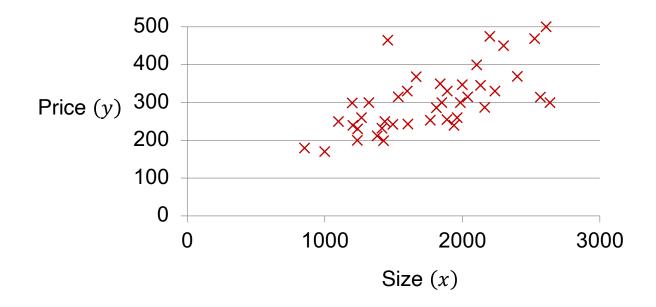
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Model

 For simplicity, first consider only one feature, e.g., house size

Size (feet) x	Price (\$ 1000) <i>y</i>
2104	460
1416	232
852	178

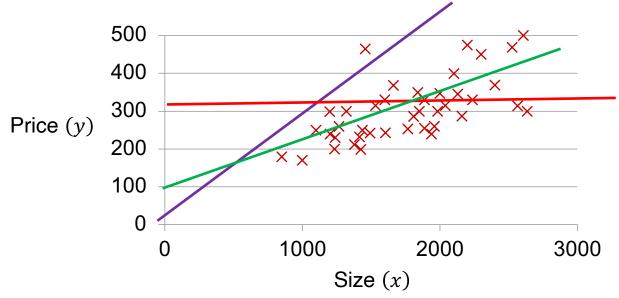
• Plot the (x, y) pairs on a plane



The prediction function is reduced to

$$f(x) = w_0 + w_1 x$$

• For different w_0 and w_1 , the function f(x) represents different straight lines



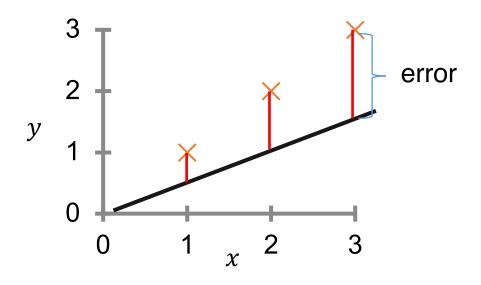
• The goal is to find an appropriate w_0 and w_1 such that the line is as fit as possible to the true y's for all given x

Cost / Loss Function

Mathematically, the goal can be formulated as minimizing the cost (loss) function

$$L(w_0, w_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (f(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

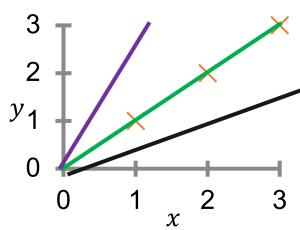
where $x^{(i)}$ and $y^{(i)}$ means the *i*-th feature and target values; n is the number of training examples



• Substituting $f(x^{(i)}) = w_0 + w_1 x^{(i)}$ into $L(w_0, w_1)$ gives

$$L(w_0, w_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w_0 + w_1 x^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^2$$

Remark: To better understand this cost function, we simplify it by setting $w_0 = 0$

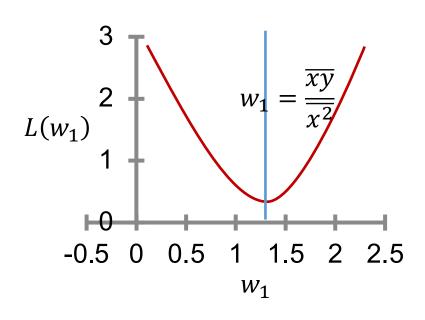


Then, the cost function becomes

$$L(w_1) = \overline{x^2}w_1^2 - 2\overline{xy}w_1 + \overline{y^2}$$

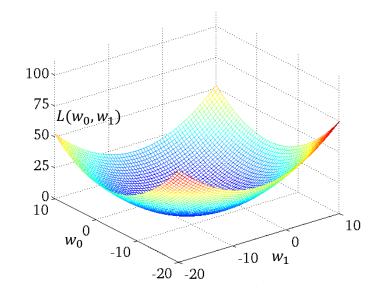
where
$$\overline{x^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x^{(i)})^2}{n}$$
, $\overline{xy} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x^{(i)} y^{(i)}}{n}$ and $\overline{y^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y^{(i)})^2}{n}$

The cost function is a quadratic function w.r.t. w₁



$$L(w_1) = \overline{x^2}w_1^2 - 2\overline{xy}w_1 + \overline{y^2}$$

• If w_0 is taken into account, the cost function $L(w_0, w_1)$ is still a quadratic function, but is two-dimensional



$$L(w_0, w_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w_0 + w_1 x^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^2$$

• The best w_0 and w_1 can be found by setting the derivatives to zero

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_0} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w_0 + w_1 x^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_1} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w_0 + w_1 x^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x^{(i)} = 0$$

 By solving the linear equation system, the optimal w₀ and w₁ can be derived as

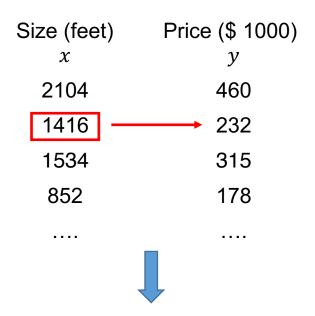
$$w_0 = \frac{\overline{xy}\overline{x} - \overline{x^2}\overline{y}}{\overline{x}^2 - \overline{x^2}}$$

$$w_1 = \frac{\bar{x}\bar{y} - \bar{x}\bar{y}}{\bar{x}^2 - \bar{x}^2}$$

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Training data from single-feature to multiple-feature case



Siz	ze (feet) x_1	# bedrooms x_2	# floors x_3	# years (Ages) x_4	Price (\$ 1000) y
	2104	5	1	45	460
	1416	3	2	40	
	1534	3	2	30	315
	852	2	1	36	178

The function of a general linear regression is

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

- x_i is the *i*-th feature
- Working with the scalar form is cumbersome. Reformulating it into a matrix-form gives

$$f(x) = xw$$

- $x = [1, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m]$ is the feature row vector
- $\mathbf{w} = [\mathbf{w_0}, w_1, w_2, \cdots, w_m]^T$ is the parameter column vector

By setting the first element in x to be 1, w_0 can be treated in the same way as the other parameters w_k

Cost Function

The goal is still to find a w such that the prediction

$$f(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = \mathbf{x}^{(i)}\mathbf{w}$$

is close to the true value $y^{(i)}$, where $x^{(i)}$ and $y^{(i)}$ is the i-th feature vector and target value

Siz	ze (feet)	# bedrooms	# floors	# years (Ages)	Price (\$ 1000)
	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	\mathcal{Y}
	2104	5	1	45	460
	1416	3	2	40	
	1534	3	2	30	315
	852	2	1	36	178

Thus, the cost function can be represented as

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x^{(i)} \mathbf{w} - y^{(i)})^{2}$$

The cost function can be further written as

$$L(\boldsymbol{w}) = \frac{1}{n} \|\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{y}\|^2$$

where X is the feature matrix defined as

$$\boldsymbol{X} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{x}^{(1)} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{x}^{(n)} \end{bmatrix}$$

Size (feet)				# years (Ages)	Pric	e (\$ 100)0)
x_0	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4		у	
1	2104	5	1	45		460	
1	1416	3	2	40		232	
1	1534	3	2	30		315	
1	852	2	1	36		178	
1	••••						
\boldsymbol{X}						y	

The gradient of the cost function w.r.t. w is

$$\frac{\partial L(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \frac{2}{n} \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})$$

• Since L(w) is a convex function, its optima can be found by setting

$$\frac{\partial L(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \frac{2}{n} \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}) = 0$$

Solving the equation gives

$$\boldsymbol{w}^* = (\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{y}$$

 It can be verified that when the number of feature is 1, the result reduces to

$$w_0 = \frac{\overline{xy}\overline{x} - \overline{x^2}\overline{y}}{\overline{x}^2 - \overline{x^2}}, \qquad w_1 = \frac{\overline{x}\overline{y} - \overline{xy}}{\overline{x}^2 - \overline{x^2}}$$

Supplement: gradient of a function w.r.t. a vector or matrix

- The meaning of gradient w.r.t a vector or matrix
 - $\succ L(\cdot)$ is a scalar function

$$\frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_m} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{X})}{\partial \boldsymbol{X}} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{X})}{\partial x_{11}} & \dots & \frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{X})}{\partial x_{1m}} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{X})}{\partial x_{m1}} & \dots & \frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{X})}{\partial x_{mm}} \end{bmatrix}$$

The gradient *w.r.t.* a vector or matrix is just the compact notation of gradients of function *w.r.t.* every element

 $\succ L(\cdot)$ could be any function, *e.g.*, norm $||\cdot||^2$, sum $\sum_{i=1}^m w_i$, matrix trace $trace(\cdot)$, matrix determinant $det(\cdot)$ etc.

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$$\frac{\partial ||\mathbf{w}||^2}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = 2\mathbf{w} \qquad \frac{\partial ||\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}||^2}{\partial (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})} = 2(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})$$

ightharpoonup When $L(\cdot) = \left[L_1(w), \cdots, L_p(w)\right]$ is a row vector function

$$\frac{\partial L(w)}{\partial w} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial L_1(w)}{\partial w} & \cdots & \frac{\partial L_p(w)}{\partial w} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial L_1(w)}{\partial w_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial L_p(w)}{\partial w_1} \\ \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial L_1(w)}{\partial w_m} & \cdots & \frac{\partial L_p(w)}{\partial w_m} \end{bmatrix}$$

It is still a compact notation

Then, we can see that

chain rule

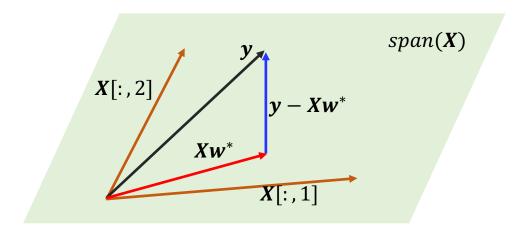
$$\frac{\partial \|Xw - y\|^2}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial (Xw - y)^T}{\partial w} \frac{\partial \|Xw - y\|^2}{\partial (Xw - y)} = 2X^T (Xw - y)$$

Geometric Interpretation

• From the requirement of $X^T(Xw^* - y) = 0$, we can see that

$$y - Xw^* \perp span(X)$$

The result suggests that Xw* can be understood as the projection
of y onto the space spanned by X



Outline

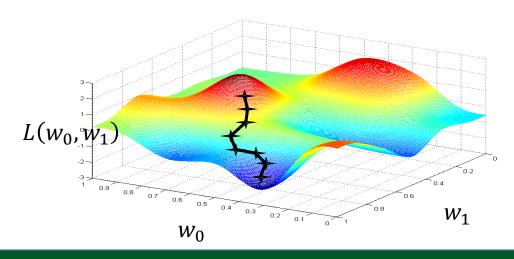
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Gradient Descent

- Close-form solutions do not always exist, or computing the close-form expression is too expensive
- Under such circumstances, we can resort to numerical methods, e.g., the gradient descent

$$\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(t)} - r \cdot \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \bigg|_{\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w}^{(t)}}$$

- r: the learning rate

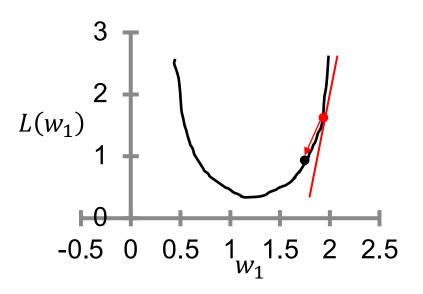


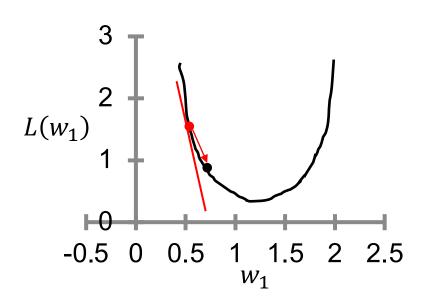
• Let us take the single-feature case and set $w_0 = 0$ as an example, under which the loss function becomes

$$L(w_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w_1 x^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^2$$

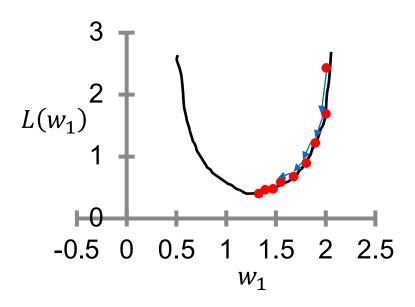
• The parameter w_1 can be updated as

$$w_1^{(t+1)} = w_1^{(t)} - r \cdot \frac{\partial L(w_1)}{\partial w_1} \bigg|_{w_1 = w_1^{(t)}}$$

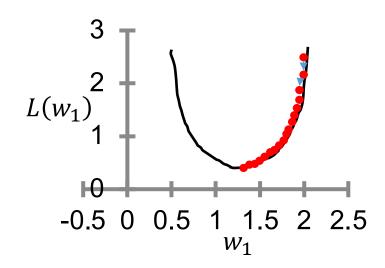




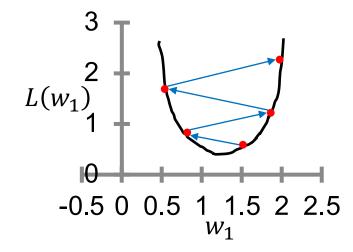
 With appropriate learning rate, the model parameter is iteratively updated, and will eventually converge to the optima



 As approaching the optimal value, the gradient becomes smaller and smaller. Thus, even if the learning rate is fixed, the updating intervals also approach 0 as the iteration proceeds, as long as the rate is set appropriately If the learning rate is too small, the convergence speed will be very slow



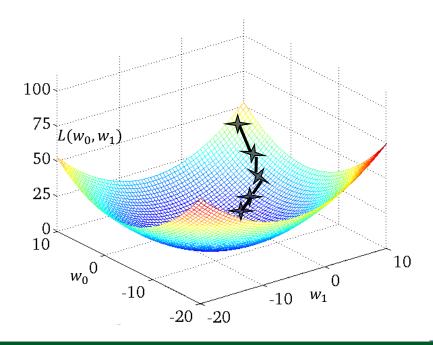
 If the learning rate is too large, the iteration may diverge



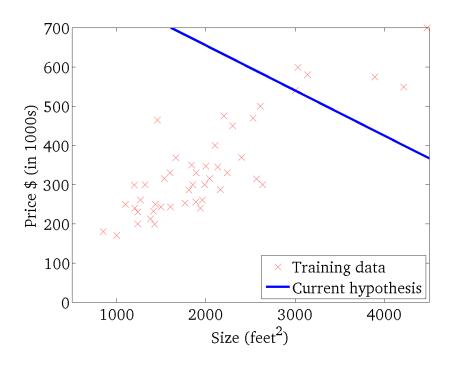
 So, setting appropriate learning rate is important • Now consider the case with both w_0 and w_1

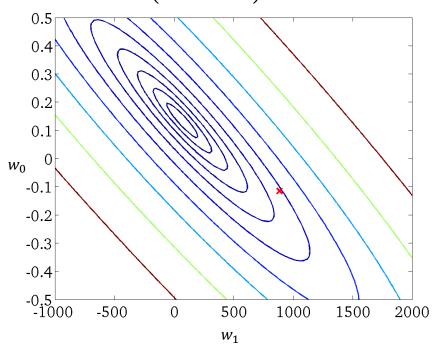
$$w_0^{(t+1)} = w_0^{(t)} - r \cdot \frac{\partial L(w_0, w_1)}{\partial w_0} \bigg|_{w_0 = w_0^{(t)}, w_1 = w_1^{(t)}}$$

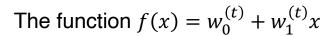
$$w_1^{(t+1)} = w_1^{(t)} - r \cdot \frac{\partial L(w_0, w_1)}{\partial w_1} \bigg|_{w_0 = w_0^{(t)}, w_1 = w_1^{(t)}}$$

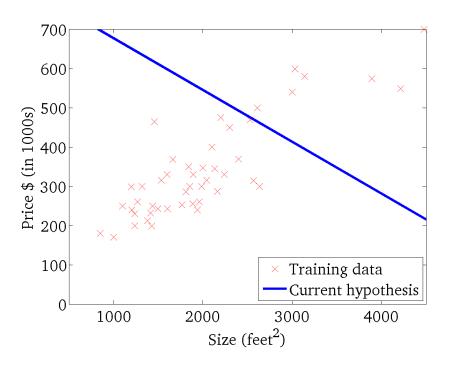


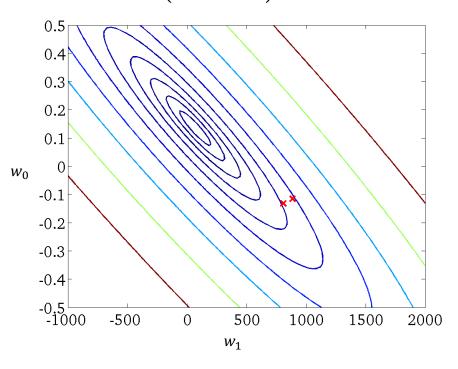
The function
$$f(x) = w_0^{(t)} + w_1^{(t)}x$$

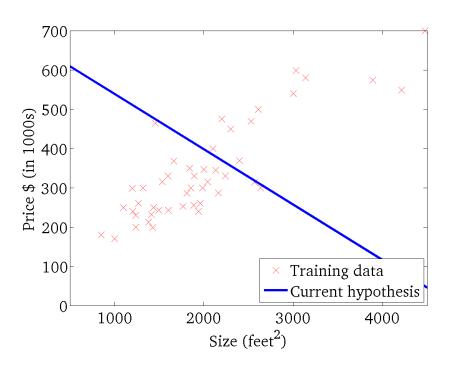


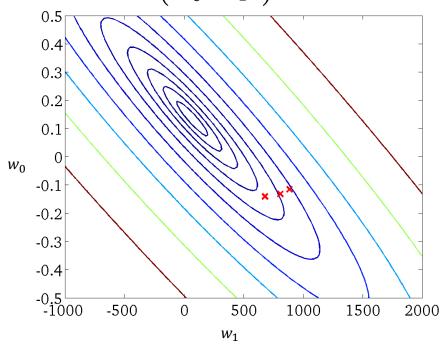


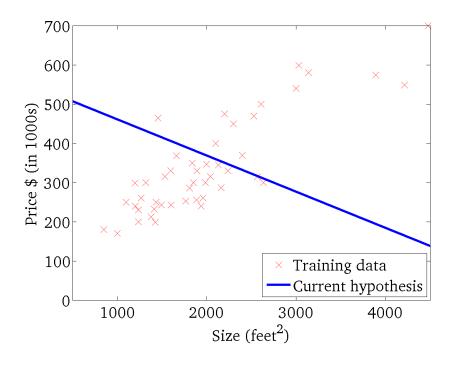


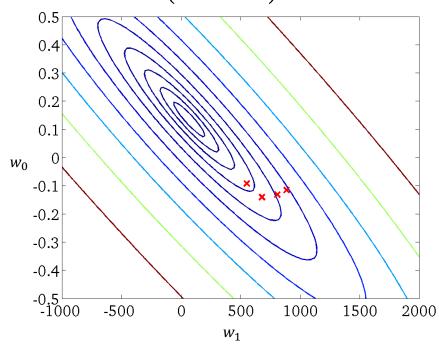


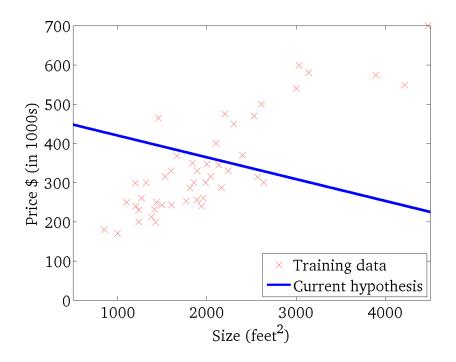


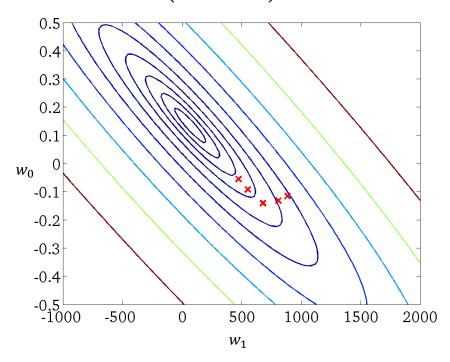


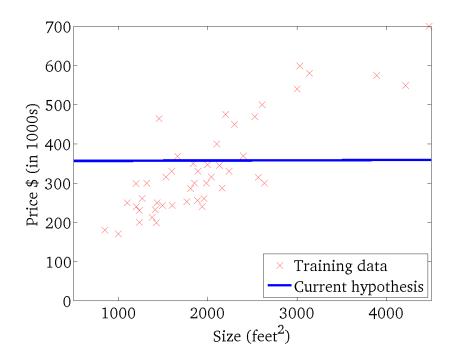


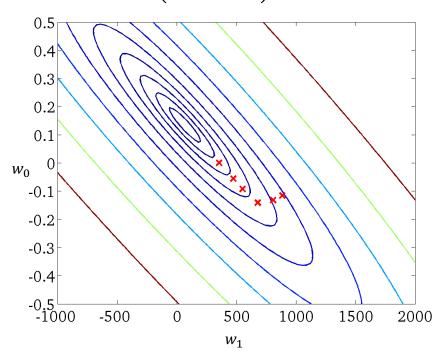


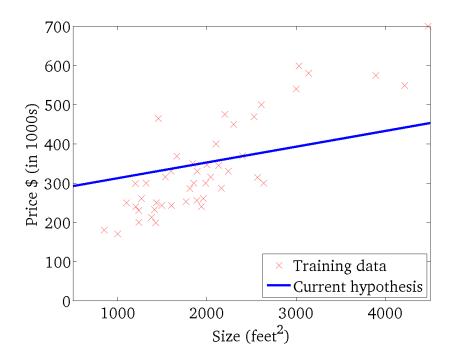


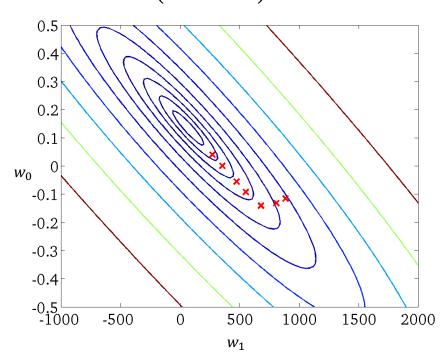


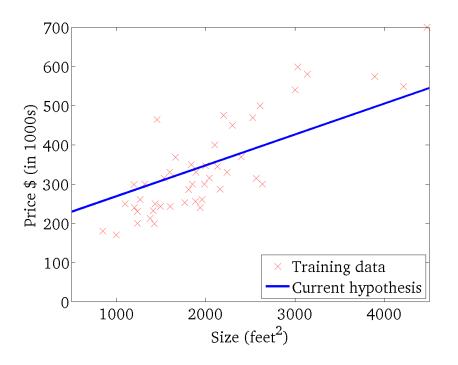


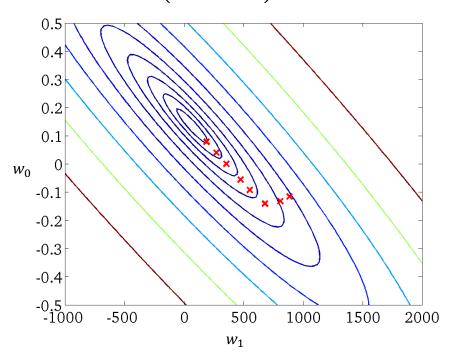


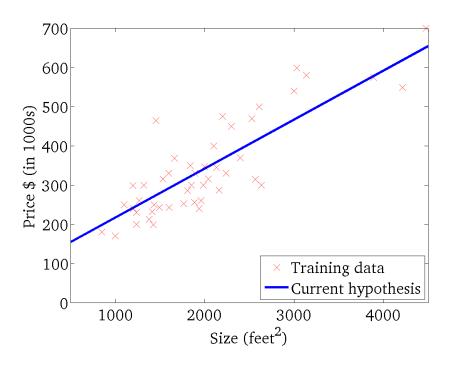


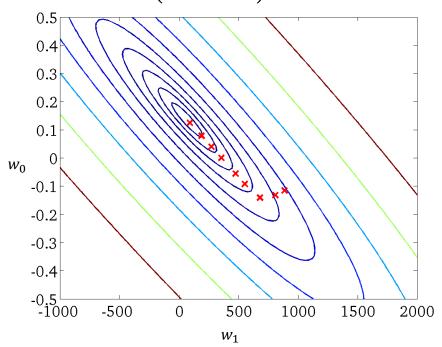












Stochastic Gradient Descent

- The GD algorithm need to evaluate the gradient of loss w.r.t.
 model parameters w at every iteration
- Generally, the gradient takes the form

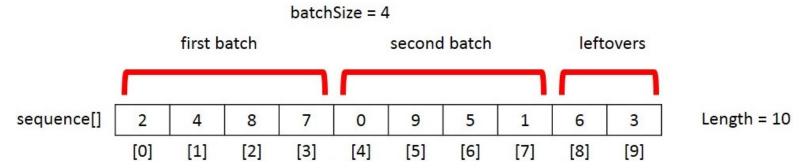
$$\frac{\partial L(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial \ell(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)})}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$

 Every iteration requires computing the gradient on all data samples in the training dataset

The complexity would be extremely high for large datasets

• To reduce the complexity, we can estimate the gradient $\frac{\partial L(w)}{\partial w}$ using a small portion of the dataset, *i.e.* mini-batch

- How to obtain the mini-batches?
 - Reshuffling
 - Segmenting



Update:

$$\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(t)} + r \cdot \frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}_t|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{B}_t} \frac{\partial \ell(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)})}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$

where \mathcal{B}_t is a mini-batch of the dataset at the t-th iteration

A noisy estimate to

the true gradient

Question: What's the relation between the stochastic gradient

$$\frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}_t|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{B}_t} \frac{\partial \ell(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)})}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$

and the ground-truth gradient below?

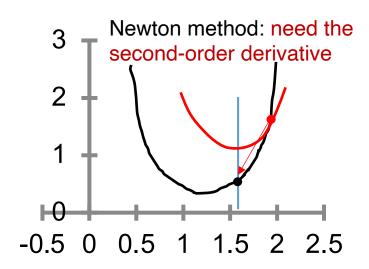
$$\frac{\partial L(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial \ell(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)})}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$

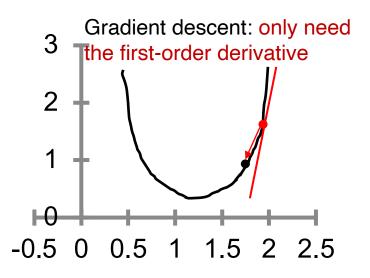
• $\frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}_t|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{B}_t} \frac{\partial \ell(w, x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})}{\partial w}$ is an unbiased estimate to the true $\frac{\partial L(w)}{\partial w}$, *i.e.*,

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{B}_t} \left[\frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}_t|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{B}_t} \frac{\partial \ell(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \right] = \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$

Other Optimization Methods

- There also exist many other optimization methods
 - 1) Newton method





Advantages

- No need to manually choose the learning rate
- Faster convergence rate

Disadvantages

More expensive

- 2) Quasi-Newton methods
- 3) Conjugate gradient method
- 4) Coordinated descent method

:

These methods generally converge faster than gradient descent methods, but are more expensive computationally