DS 4400

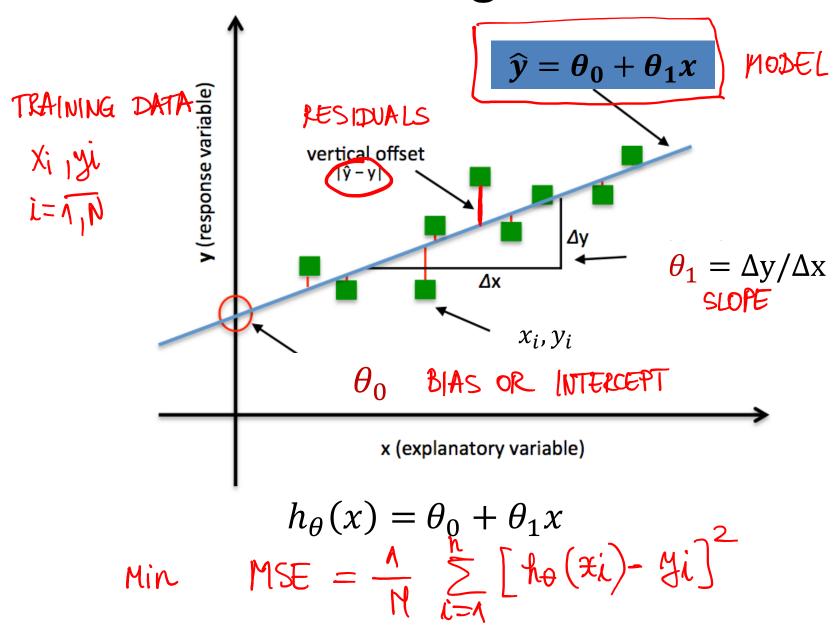
Machine Learning and Data Mining I

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Outline

- Multiple linear regression
 - Lab in Python
 - Feature standardization
 - Outliers
- Gradient descent optimization
 - General algorithm
 - Instantiation for linear regression

Linear Regression



Solution for simple linear regression

- Dataset $x_i \in R$, $y_i \in R$, $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$
- $J(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i y_i)^2$ MSE / Loss

$$\frac{\partial J(\theta)}{\partial \theta_0} = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1N} (\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i - y_i) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial J(\theta)}{\partial \theta_1} = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i (\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i - y_i) = 0$$

Solution of min loss

$$-\theta_0 = \bar{y} - \theta_1 \bar{x}$$

$$-\theta_1 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{\text{Cov}(x_i y)}{\text{Mi}(x)}$$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i}{N}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i}{N}$$

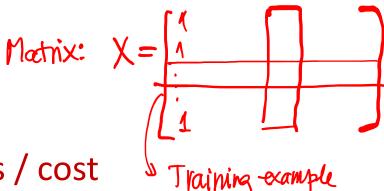
Multiple Linear Regression

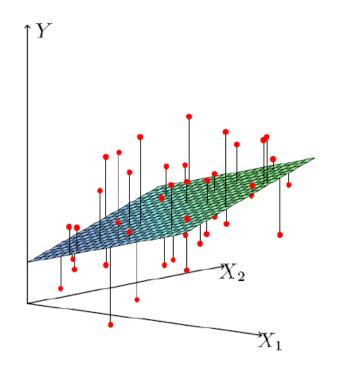
Feature

- Dataset: $x_i \in R^d$, $y_i \in R$
- Hypothesis $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta^T x$
- MSE = $\frac{1}{N}\sum (\theta^T x_i y_i)^2$ Loss / cost
- MSE is convex
- Unique minimum

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\boldsymbol{X}^\intercal \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^\intercal \boldsymbol{y}$$

Closed-form optimum solution for linear regression





Vectorization

- Two options for operations on training data
 - Matrix operations
 - For loops to update individual entries
- Most software packages are highly optimized for matrix operations
 - Python numpy
 - Preferred method!
- See Matthew's tutorial
- Matrix operations are much faster than loops!

Closed-form solution

• Can obtain heta by simply plugging X and y into

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\mathsf{T}}$$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \dots & x_{1d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{i1} & \dots & x_{id} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{N1} & \dots & x_{Nd} \end{bmatrix}$$

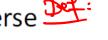
$$y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$
 $\chi: Size \quad Mx(d+n)$

$$\chi^T, \chi: Size \quad (d+n) \times (d+n)$$

- If $X^{T}X$ is not invertible (i.e., singular), may need to:
 - Use pseudo-inverse instead of the inverse $\frac{1}{2}$: Pseudo-inverse $\frac{1}{2}$:

 In python, numpy.linalg.pinv(a) $\frac{1}{2}$



$$AGA = A$$

- Remove redundant (not linearly independent) features
- Remove extra features to ensure that $d \le n$

move extra reactures to ensure that
$$d \le 11$$

 $\chi^{T}\chi$ insertible when result $(\chi^{T}\chi) = d+1$
If A is insertible \Rightarrow $G = A^{-1}$

Multiple LR Lab

```
LESPONSE
# Multiple LR
#X multi = pd.DataFrame(np.c [boston['LSTAT'], boston['RM']], columns = ['LSTAT','RM'])
X multi = boston.loc[:, boston.columns != [MEDV'
Y = boston['MEDV']
X_m_train, X_m_test, Y_m_train, Y_m_test = train_test_split(X_multi, Y, test_size = 0.2, random_state=5)
print(X m train.shape)
print(X m test.shape)
print(Y m train.shape)
print(Y m test.shape)
(404, 13)
                 13 FEATURES
(102, 13)
(404,)
(102,)
                                           MLR:
mlr = LinearRegression()
mlr.fit(X m train, Y m train)
```

: LinearRegression()

Multiple LR Lab

```
coeff df = pd.DataFrame(mlr.coef , X m train.columns, columns=['Coefficient'])
coeff df
                              h(x)= Oot SOixi
TMTERPRETABLE!
         Coefficient
          -0.130800
   CRIM
           0.049403
     ZN
  INDUS
           0.001095
   CHAS
           2.705366
         -15.957050
    NOX
           3.413973
     RM
           0.001119
    AGE
     DIS
          -1.493081
    RAD
           0.364422
          -0.013172
    TAX
PTRATIO
          -0.952370
      В
           0.011749
                     Ag.
```

-0.594076

LSTAT

Simple vs Multiple LR

```
print(slr.intercept_)
print(slr.coef_)

-32.839129906011266
[8.82345634]

Y_train_predict = slr.predict(X_train)
mse = mean_squared_error(Y_train, Y_train_predict)

print("The model performance for training set")
print('MSE is {}'.format(mse))

The model performance for training set
MSE is 48.612648648611334
```

Simple vs Multiple LR

" RM" (1 FEATURE)

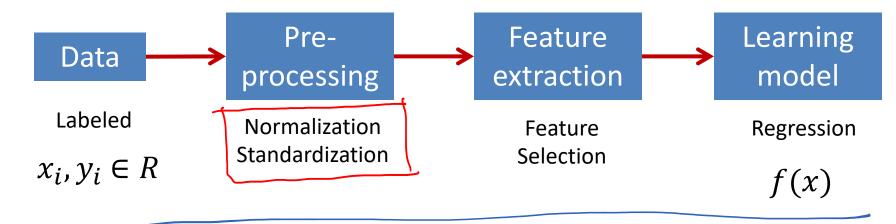
df_m = pd.DataFrame({'Actual': Y_train, 'Predicted simple': Y_train_predict, 'Predicted multi': Y_m_train_predict})
df_m.head(10)

	Actual	Predicted simple	Predicted multi
33	13.1	17.463395	13.828770
283	50.0	37.069115	44.528528
418	8.8	19.722200	3.915991
502	20.6	21.160423	22.377959
402	12.1	23.666285	18.235923
368	50.0	11.013448	25.523748
201	24.1	21.531008	29.439747
310	16.1	11.039918	18.694533
343	23.9	26.242734	27.856463
230	24.3	19.933962	24.644734

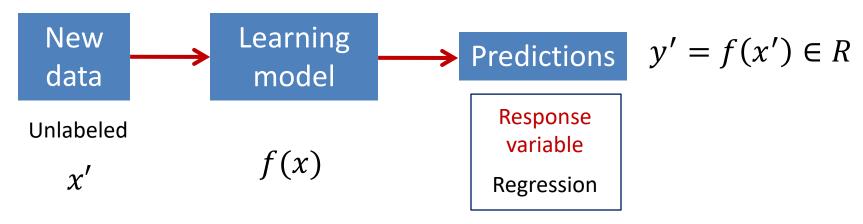
T SIMPLE MULTIPLE MULTIPLE LR FITS BETTER

Supervised Learning: Regression





Testing



Feature Standardization

Feature Standardization

- Rescales features to have zero mean and unit variance
 - Let μ_j be the mean of feature j:
 - Replace each value with:

$$x_{ij} \leftarrow \frac{x_{ij} - \mu_j}{s_j}$$

for j = 1...d (not $x_0!$)

- \boldsymbol{s}_{j} is the standard deviation of feature \boldsymbol{j}

Other feature normalization

Min-Max rescaling

$$-x_{ij} \leftarrow \frac{x_{ij} - min_j}{max_j - min_j} \in [0]$$

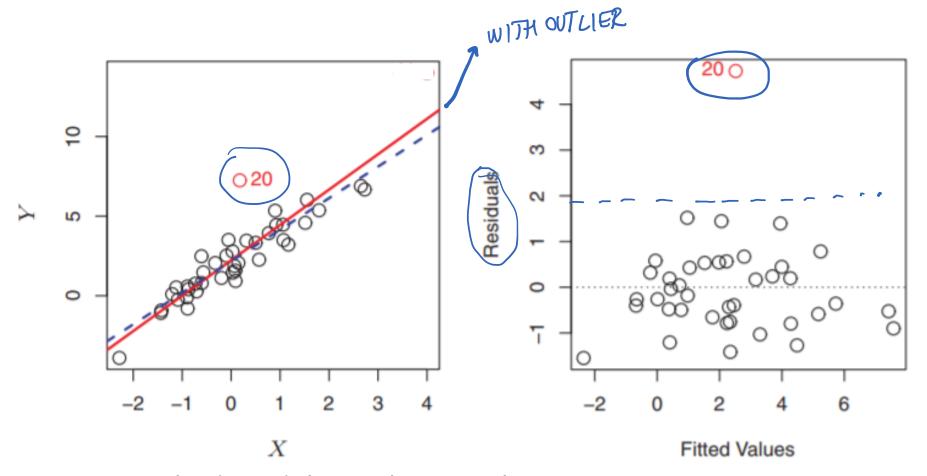
- $-min_j$ and max_j : min and max value of feature j
- Mean normalization

$$-x_{ij} \leftarrow \frac{x_{ij} - \mu_j}{max_j - min_j} \quad \text{Mean} \quad \bigcirc$$

Feature standardization/normalization

- Goal is to have individual features on the same scale
- Is a pre-processing step in most learning algorithms
- Necessary for linear models and Gradient Descent
- Different options:
 - Feature standardization
 - Feature min-max rescaling
 - Mean normalization

Practical issues: Outliers



- Dashed model is without outlier point
- Linear regression is not resilient to outliers!
- Outliers can be eliminated based on residual value
- Other methods to eliminate outliers (anomaly detection)

Categorical variables

- Predict credit card balance
 - Age
 - Income
 - Number of cards
 - Credit limit
 - Credit rating
- Categorical variables
- Student (Yes/No)State (50 different levels)

How to generate numerical representations of these?

Indicator Variables

- One-hot encoding
- Binary (two-level) variable
 - Add new feature $x_i = 1$ if student and 0 otherwise
- Multi-level variable
 - State: 50 values
 - $-x_{MA} = 1$ if State = MA and 0, otherwise
 - $-x_{NY} = 1$ if State = NY and 0, otherwise
 - **—** ...
 - How many indicator variables are needed?
- Disadvantages: data becomes too sparse for large number of levels
 - Will discuss feature selection later in class

How to optimize loss functions?

- Dataset: $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$
- Hypothesis $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta^T x$

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\theta^{T} x_{i} - y_{i})^{2} \text{ Loss / cost}$$

- Strictly convex function (unique minimum)
- General method to optimize a multivariate function
 - Practical (low asymptotic complexity)
 - Convergence guarantees to global minimum

What Strategy to Use?



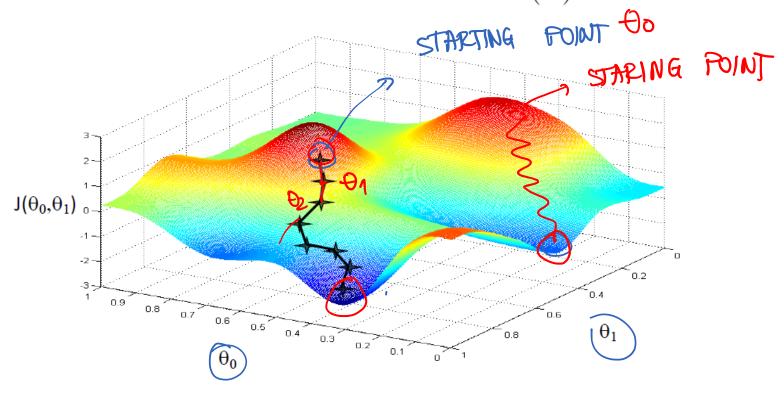
Follow the Slope



Follow the direction of steepest descent!

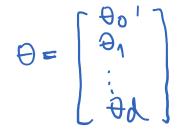
How to optimize $J(\theta)$?

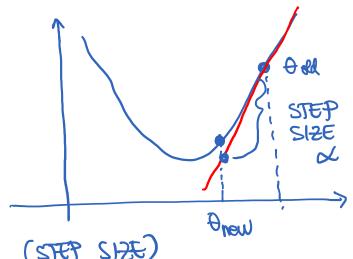
- Choose initial value for θ
- Until we reach a minimum:
 - Choose a new value for $oldsymbol{ heta}$ to reduce $J(oldsymbol{ heta})$



Goal: Min 3(0)

- · Initialize () 11 BAYDOM
- · REPEAT UNTIL STOPPING CONDITION MET:





M: LEARHING PATE (STEP SIZE)

DIR. OF STEEPEST DESCENT: SLOPE OF TANGENT

GRADIENT OF FUNCTION J(Q) W. RESTECT TO A

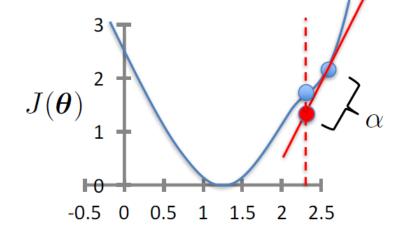
- Initialize θ
- Repeat until convergence

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

simultaneous update for j = 0 ... d

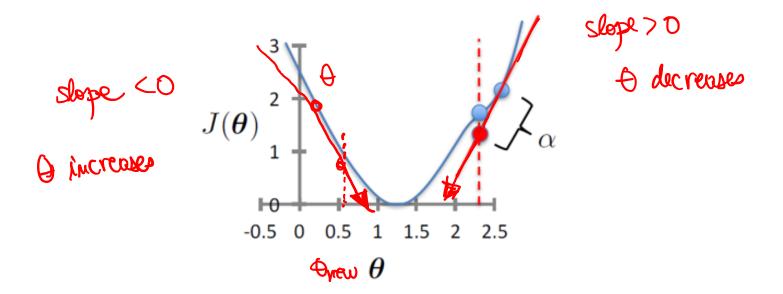


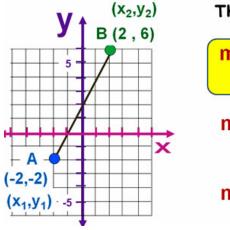
learning rate (small) e.g., $\alpha = 0.05$



$$\theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha \frac{92(\theta)}{92(\theta)}$$

VECTOR UPDATE
PULE

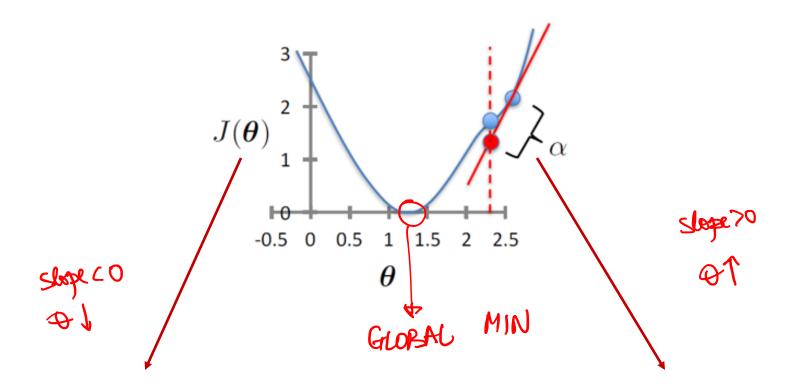




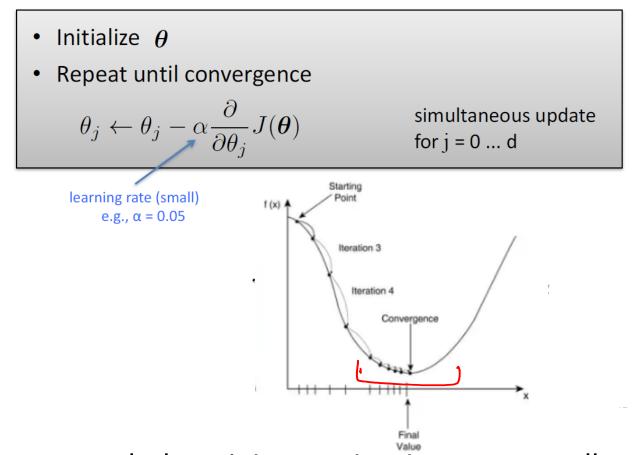
$$\mathbf{m} = \underbrace{\mathbf{y}_2 - \mathbf{y}_1}_{\mathbf{X}_2 - \mathbf{X}_1} = \underline{\Delta Y}_{\Delta X}$$

$$m = 6 - \frac{2}{2}$$

$$m = 8/4 = 2\sqrt{}$$



In both cases θ gets closer to minimum

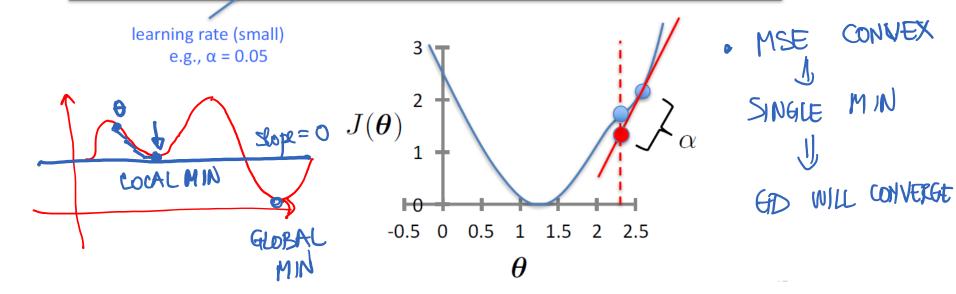


- As you approach the minimum, the slope gets smaller, and GD will take smaller steps
- It converges to local minimum (which is global minimum for convex functions)!

- Initialize θ
- Repeat until convergence

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

simultaneous update for j = 0 ... d



• What happens when θ reaches a local minimum?

CAN GET STUCK IN LOCAL MIN.

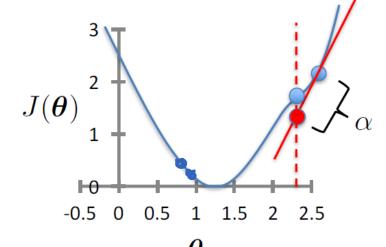
Stopping Condition

- Initialize θ
- Repeat until convergence

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

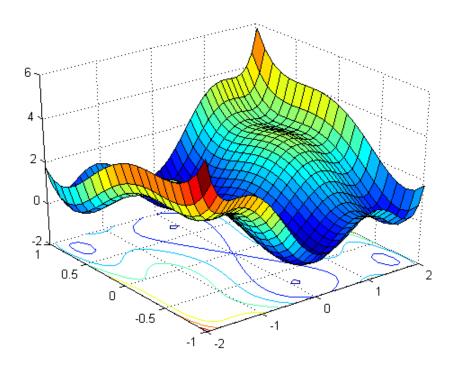
simultaneous update for j = 0 ... d

learning rate (small) e.g., $\alpha = 0.05$



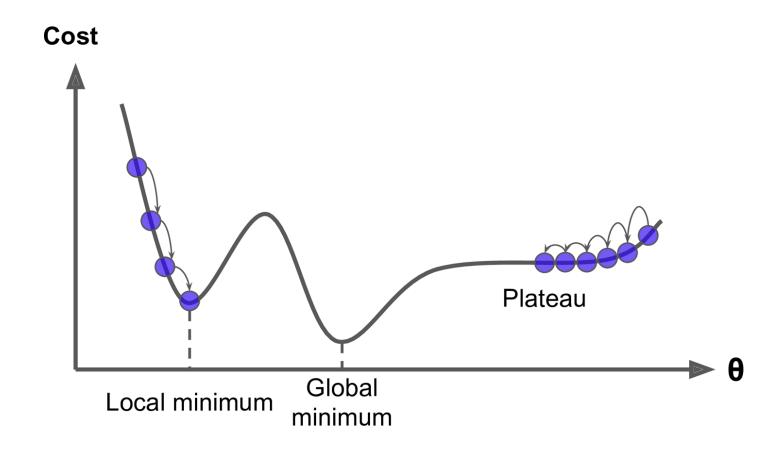
When should the algorithm stop?

Complex loss function

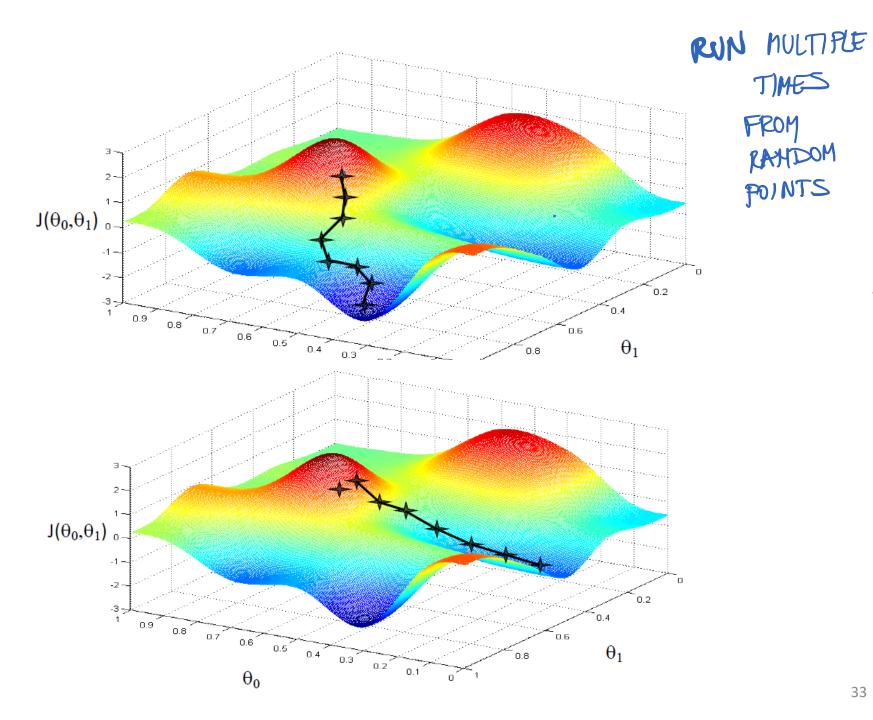


Complex loss functions are more difficult to optimize

GD Convergence Issues



- Local minimum: Gradient descent stops
- Plateau: Almost flat region where slope is small



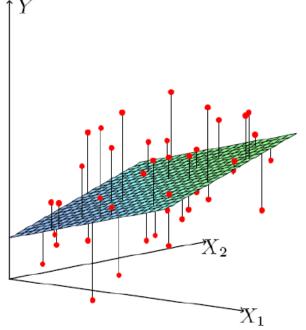
Multiple Linear Regression

- Dataset: $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$
- Hypothesis $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta^T x$

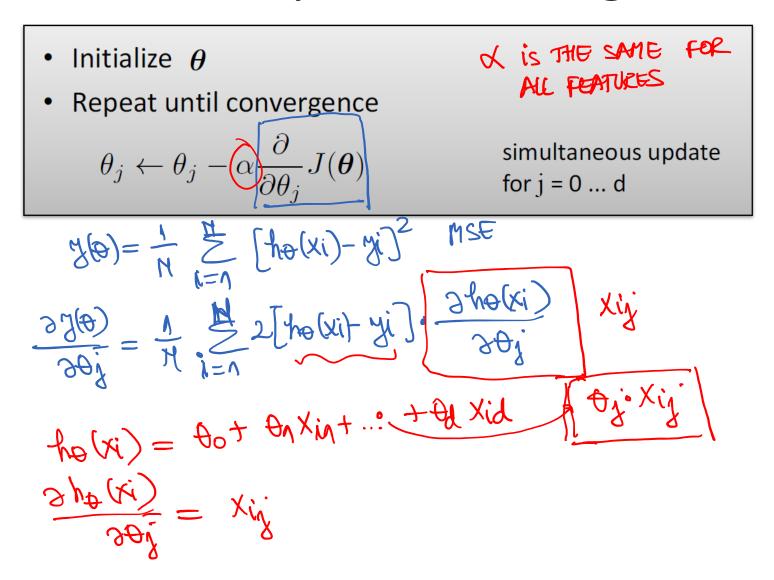
• MSE =
$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} (\theta^{T}x_{i} - y_{i})^{2}$$
 Loss / cost

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\boldsymbol{X}^\intercal \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^\intercal \boldsymbol{y}$$

MSE is a strictly convex function and has unique minimum



GD for Multiple Linear Regression



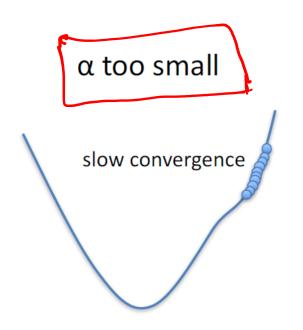
GD for Linear Regression

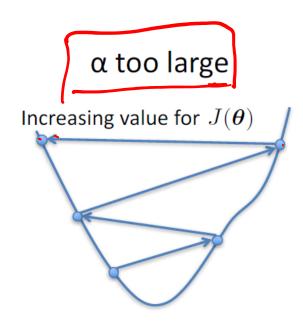
- Initialize θ Repeat until convergence ASSIGNMENT $\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j - \alpha \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (h_{\theta}(x_i) - y_i) x_{ij}$ simultaneous update for $j = 0 \dots d$ Residual
 - To achieve simultaneous update
 - At the start of each GD iteration, compute $h_{ heta}(x_i)$ Use this stored value in the update step loop
 - Assume convergence when $\|m{ heta}_{new} m{ heta}_{old}\|_2 < \epsilon$

$$\| m{v} \|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_i v_i^2} = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \ldots + v_{|v|}^2}$$

$$\theta_{\text{ven}}^{S} = \theta_{\text{old}}^{S} - \dots$$
 $\theta_{j} = \theta_{j}^{S} - \dots$

Choosing learning rate



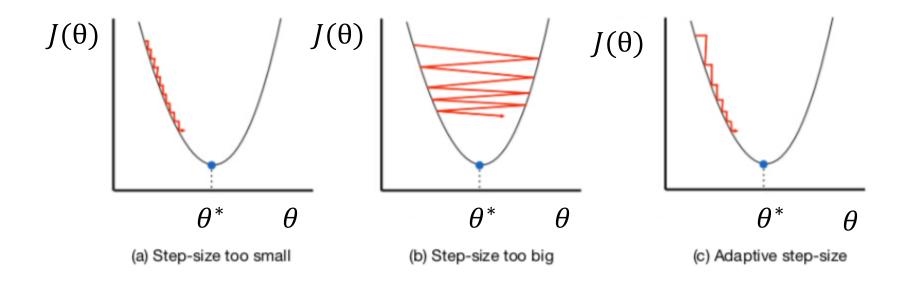


- May overshoot the minimum
- May fail to converge
- May even diverge

To see if gradient descent is working, print out $J(\theta)$ each iteration

- The value should decrease at each iteration
- If it doesn't, adjust α

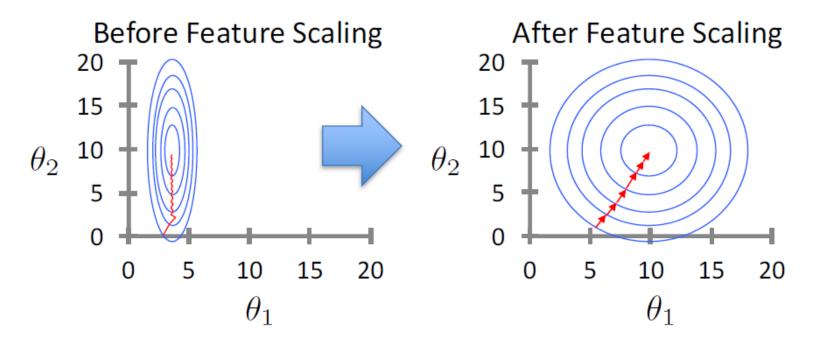
Adaptive step size



- Start with large step size and reduce over time, adaptively
- Line search method
- Measure how objective decreases

Feature Scaling

Idea: Ensure that feature have similar scales



Makes gradient descent converge much faster

Gradient Descent in Practice

- Asymptotic complexity
 - \int N is size of training data, d is feature dimension, and T is number of iterations
- Most popular optimization algorithm in use today
- At the basis of training

 - Linear RegressionLogistic regression

 - Neural networks and Deep learning
 Stochastic Gradient Descent variants



Review Gradient Descent

- Gradient descent is an efficient algorithm for optimization and training ML models
 - The most widely used algorithm in ML!
 - Much faster than using closed-form solution for linear regression
 - Main issues with Gradient Descent is convergence and getting stuck in local optima (for neural networks)
- Gradient descent is guaranteed to converge to optimum for strictly convex functions if run long enough