#### Lecture 8: 2 February, 2023

Madhavan Mukund

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Data Mining and Machine Learning January–April 2023

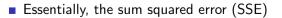
### Linear regression

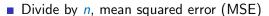
■ Training input is

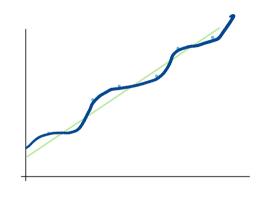
$$\{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$$

- Each input  $x_i$  is a vector  $(x_i^1, ..., x_i^k)$
- Add  $x_i^0 = 1$  by convention
- y<sub>i</sub> is actual output
- How far away is our prediction  $h_{\theta}(x_i)$  from the true answer  $y_i$ ?
- Define a cost (loss) function

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (h_{\theta}(x_i) - y_i)^2$$



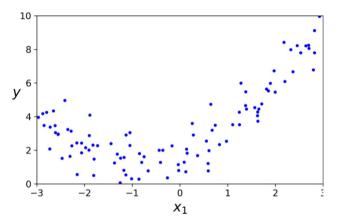




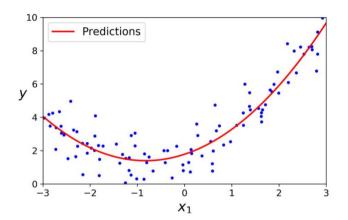


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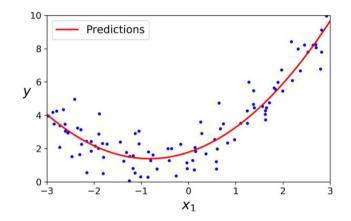
What if the relationship is not linear?



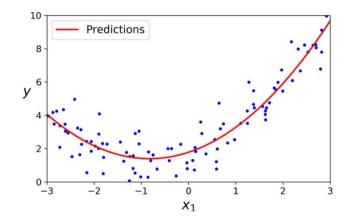
- What if the relationship is not linear?
- Here the best possible explanation seems to be a quadratic



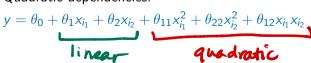
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- Non-linear : cross dependencies

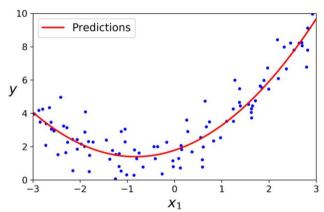


- What if the relationship is not linear?
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- Non-linear : cross dependencies
- Input  $x_i : (x_{i_1}, x_{i_2})$



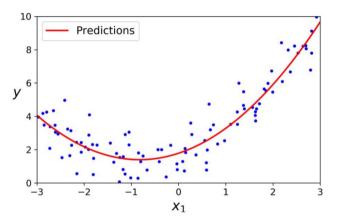
- What if the relationship is not linear?
- Here the best possible explanation seems to be a quadratic
- Non-linear : cross dependencies
- Input  $x_i : (x_{i_1}, x_{i_2})$
- Quadratic dependencies:





■ Recall how we fit a line

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & \mathsf{x}_{i_1} \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} \theta_0 \\ \theta_1 \end{array}\right]$$

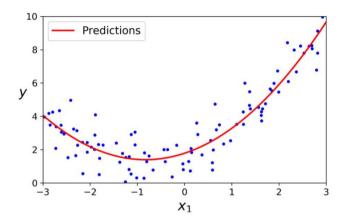


Recall how we fit a line

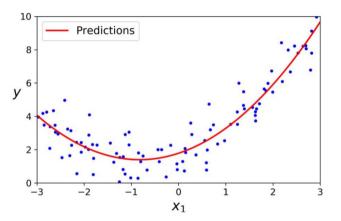
$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & \mathsf{x}_{i_1} \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} \theta_0 \\ \theta_1 \end{array}\right]$$

 For quadratic, add new coefficients and expand parameters

$$\left[ egin{array}{ccc} 1 & \mathsf{x}_{i_1} & \mathsf{x}_{i_1}^2 \end{array} 
ight] \left[ egin{array}{c} heta_0 \ heta_1 \ heta_2 \end{array} 
ight]$$

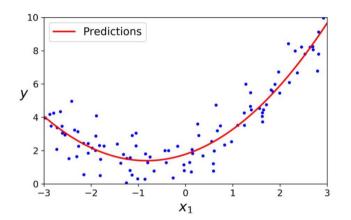


■ Input  $(x_{i_1}, x_{i_2})$ 



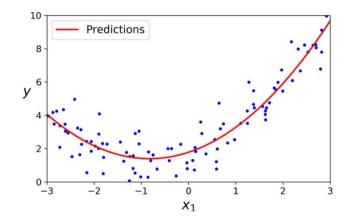
- Input  $(x_{i_1}, x_{i_2})$
- For the general quadratic case, we are adding new derived "features"

$$x_{i_3} = x_{i_1}^2$$
  
 $x_{i_4} = x_{i_2}^2$   
 $x_{i_5} = x_{i_1} x_{i_2}$ 



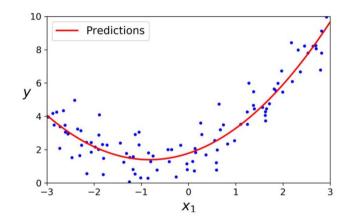
Original input matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{1_1} & x_{1_2} \\ 1 & x_{2_1} & x_{2_2} \\ & \cdots & \\ 1 & x_{i_1} & x_{i_2} \\ & \cdots & \\ 1 & x_{n_1} & x_{n_2} \end{bmatrix}$$



#### ■ Expanded input matrix

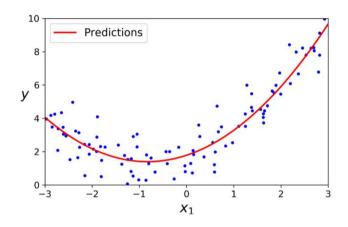
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{1_1} & x_{1_2} & x_{1_1}^2 & x_{1_2}^2 & x_{1_1}x_{1_2} \\ 1 & x_{2_1} & x_{2_2} & x_{2_1}^2 & x_{2_2}^2 & x_{2_1}x_{2_2} \\ & \cdots & & & & \\ 1 & x_{i_1} & x_{i_2} & x_{i_1}^2 & x_{i_2}^2 & x_{i_1}x_{i_2} \\ & \cdots & & & & \\ 1 & x_{n_1} & x_{n_2} & x_{n_1}^2 & x_{n_2}^2 & x_{n_1}x_{n_2} \end{bmatrix}$$



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 New columns are computed and filled in from original inputs



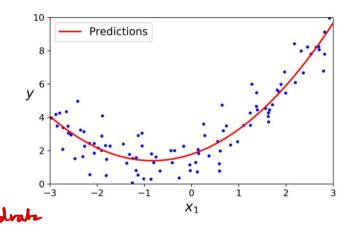
### Exponential parameter blow-up

Cubic derived features

$$x_{i_1}^3, x_{i_2}^3, x_{i_3}^3,$$
 $x_{i_1}^2 \times_{i_2}, x_{i_1}^2 \times_{i_3},$ 
 $x_{i_2}^2 \times_{i_1}, x_{i_2}^2 \times_{i_3},$ 
 $x_{i_3}^2 \times_{i_1}, x_{i_3}^2 \times_{i_2},$ 
 $x_{i_1} \times_{i_2} \times_{i_3},$ 

$$x_{i_1}^2, x_{i_2}^2, x_{i_3}^2,$$
  
 $x_{i_1}x_{i_2}, x_{i_1}x_{i_3}, x_{i_2}x_{i_3},$ 

$$x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, x_{i_3}$$
. Linear

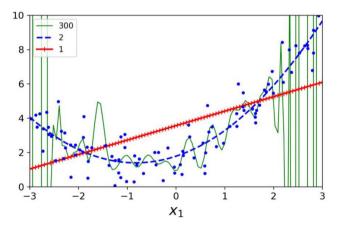


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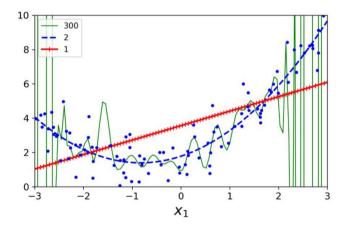
### Higher degree polynomials

How complex a polynomial should we try?



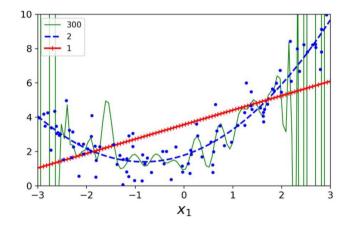
### Higher degree polynomials

- How complex a polynomial should we try?
- Aim for degree that minimizes SSE



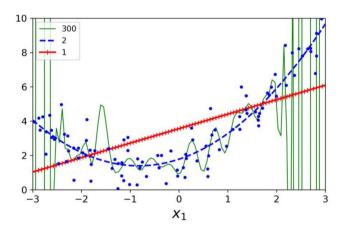
### Higher degree polynomials

- How complex a polynomial should we try?
- Aim for degree that minimizes SSE
- As degree increases, features explode exponentially



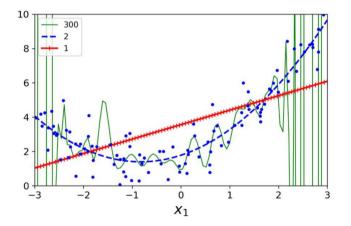
### Overfitting

 Need to be careful about adding higher degree terms



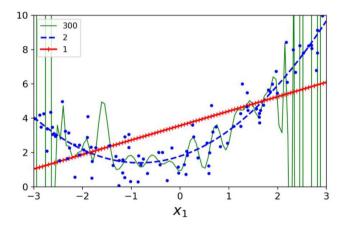
### Overfitting

- Need to be careful about adding higher degree terms
- For n training points,can always fit polynomial of degree (n-1) exactly
- However, such a curve would not generalize well to new data points

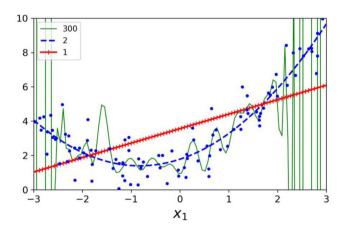


### **Overfitting**

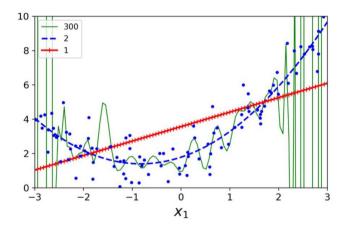
- Need to be careful about adding higher degree terms
- For n training points,can always fit polynomial of degree (n-1) exactly
- However, such a curve would not generalize well to new data points
- Overfitting model fits training data well, performs poorly on unseen data



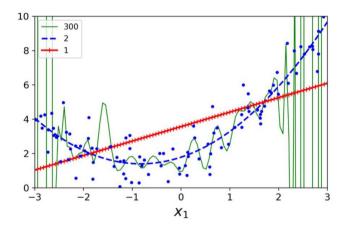
 Need to trade off SSE against curve complexity



- Need to trade off SSE against curve complexity
- So far, the only cost has been SSE

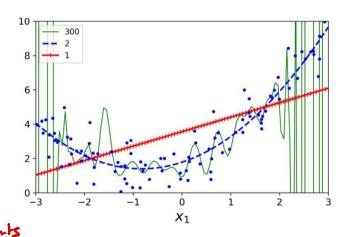


- Need to trade off SSE against curve complexity
- So far, the only cost has been SSE
- Add a cost related to parameters  $(\theta_0, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_k)$



- Need to trade off SSE against curve complexity
- So far, the only cost has been SSF
- Add a cost related to parameters  $(\theta_0, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_k)$
- Minimize, for instance

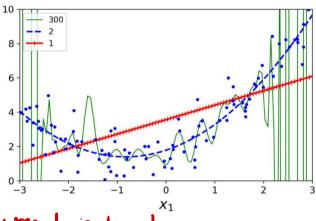
$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (z_i - y_i)^2 + \sum_{j=1}^{k} \theta_j^2$$



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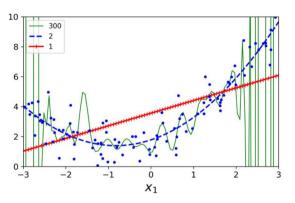
$$\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(z_{i}-y_{i})^{2}+\sum_{j=1}^{k}\theta_{j}^{2}$$

Second term penalizes curve complexity



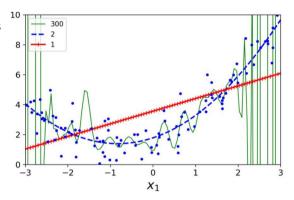
regularization term

- Variations on regularization
  - Change the contribution of coefficients to the loss function



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  - Change the contribution of coefficients to the loss function
- Ridge regression:

Coefficients contribute  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \theta_j^2$ 

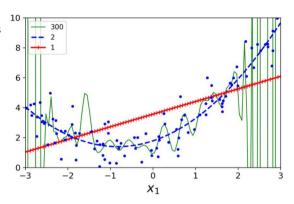


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■ LASSO regression:

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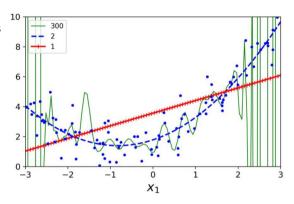
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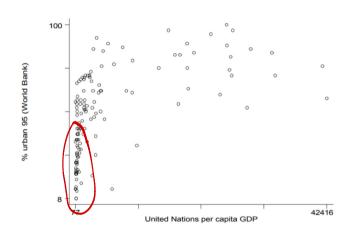
Elastic net regression:

Coefficients contribute 
$$\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_1 |\theta_j| + \lambda_2 \theta_j^2$$



#### The non-polynomial case

- Percentage of urban population as a function of per capita GDP
- Not clear what polynomial would be reasonable

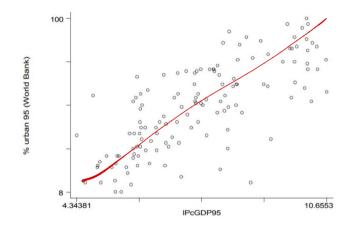


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#### The non-polynomial case

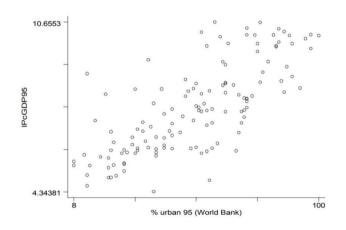
- Percentage of urban population as a function of per capita GDP
- Not clear what polynomial would be reasonable
- Take log of GDP
- Regression we are computing is

$$y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \log x_1$$



### The non-polynomial case

- Reverse the relationship
- Plot per capita GDP in terms of percentage of urbanization
- Now we take log of the output variable  $\log y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1$
- Log-linear transformation
- Earlier was linear-log
- Can also use log-log

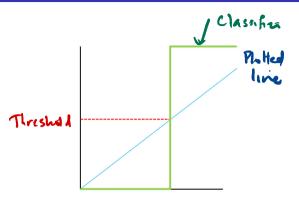


#### Regression for classification

- Regression line
- Set a threshold
- Classifier
  - Output below threshold : 0 (No)
  - Output above threshold : 1 (Yes)

# Regression for classification

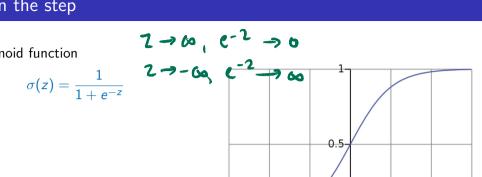
- Regression line
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  - Output below threshold : 0 (No)
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- Classifier output is a step function



### Smoothen the step

■ Sigmoid function

$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$



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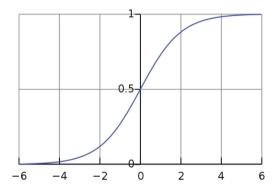
### Smoothen the step

Sigmoid function

$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

Input z is output of our regression

$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_k x_k)}}$$



#### Smoothen the step

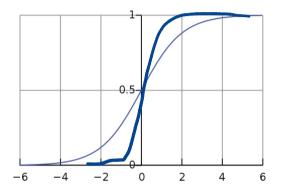
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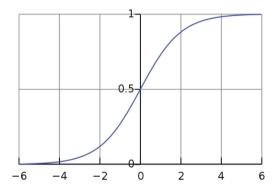
$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_k x_k)}}$$

 Adjust parameters to fix horizontal position and steepness of step



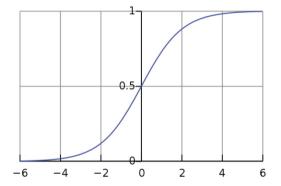
## Logistic regression

- Compute the coefficients?
- Solve by gradient descent



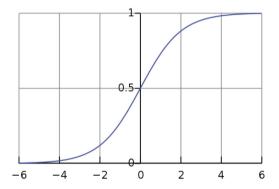
### Logistic regression

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  - Hence smooth sigmoid, not step function
  - Check that  $\sigma'(z) = \sigma(z)(1 \sigma(z))$

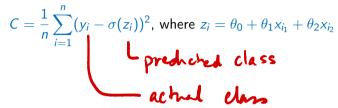


### Logistic regression

- Compute the coefficients?
- Solve by gradient descent
- Need derivatives to exist
  - Hence smooth sigmoid, not step function
  - Check that  $\sigma'(z) = \sigma(z)(1 \sigma(z))$
- Need a cost function to minimize



Suppose we take mean squared error as the loss function.



■ Suppose we take mean squared error as the loss function.

$$C = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \sigma(z_i))^2$$
, where  $z_i = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_{i_1} + \theta_2 x_{i_2}$ 

■ For gradient descent, we compute  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_1}$ ,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_0}$ 

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- For gradient descent, we compute  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_1}$ ,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_2}$
- Consider two inputs  $x = (x_1, x_2)$ 
  - For j = 1, 2,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_j} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \sigma(z_i)) \cdot -\frac{\partial \sigma(z_i)}{\partial \theta_j}$

Suppose we take mean squared error as the loss function.

$$C = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \sigma(z_i))^2$$
, where  $z_i = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_{i_1} + \theta_2 x_{i_2}$ 

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$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_j} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \sigma(z_i)) \cdot -\frac{\partial \sigma(z_i)}{\partial \theta_j} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\sigma(z_i) - y_i) \frac{\partial \sigma(z_i)}{\partial z_i} \frac{\partial z_i}{\partial \theta_j}$$



Suppose we take mean squared error as the loss function.

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- For gradient descent, we compute  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_1}$ ,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_0}$
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$$= \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\sigma(z_i) - y_i) \sigma'(z_i) x_{i_j}$$

Suppose we take mean squared error as the loss function.

$$C = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \sigma(z_i))^2$$
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- For gradient descent, we compute  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_1}$ ,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_0}$
- Consider two inputs  $x = (x_1, x_2)$ 
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  - $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_0} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\sigma(z_i) y_i) \frac{\partial \sigma(z_i)}{\partial z_i} \frac{\partial z_i}{\partial \theta_0} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\sigma(z_i) y_i) \sigma'(z_i) \cdot \mathbf{1}$

■ For 
$$j = 1, 2$$
,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_j} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\sigma(z_i) - y_i) \sigma'(z_i) x_j^i$ , and  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_0} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\sigma(z_i) - y_i) \sigma'(z_i)$ 

■ Each term in  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_1}$ ,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_0}$  is proportional to  $\sigma'(z_i)$ 



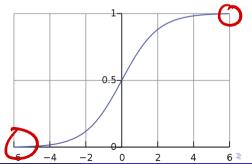
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- Each term in  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_1}$ ,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_0}$  is proportional to  $\sigma'(z_i)$
- Ideally, gradient descent should take large steps when  $\sigma(z) y$  is large

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$$j = 1, 2$$
,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_j} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\sigma(z_i) - y_i) \sigma'(z_i) x_j^i$ , and  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_0} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\sigma(z_i) - y_i) \sigma'(z_i)$ 

- Each term in  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_1}$ ,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_0}$  is proportional to  $\sigma'(z_i)$
- Ideally, gradient descent should take large steps when  $\sigma(z) y$  is large
- $\sigma(z)$  is flat at both extremes
- If  $\sigma(z)$  is completely wrong,  $\sigma(z) \approx (1-y)$ , we still have  $\sigma'(z) \approx 0$
- Learning is slow even when current model is far from optimal



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. So,  $P(y_i = 1 \mid x_i; \theta) = h_{\theta}(x_i)$ ,  $P(y_i = 0 \mid x_i; \theta) = 1 - h_{\theta}(x_i)$ 

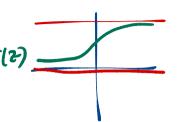
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- Minimize cross entropy:  $-\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \log h_{\theta}(x_i) + (1-y_i) \log(1-h_{\theta}(x_i))$

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■ Recall that  $\sigma'(z) = \sigma(z)(1 - \sigma(z))$ 

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- Similarly,  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial \theta_0} = (\sigma(z) y)$
- Thus, as we wanted, the gradient is proportional to  $\sigma(z) y$
- The greater the error, the faster the learning rate

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