Linear Regression and Gradient Descent

Souptik Barua

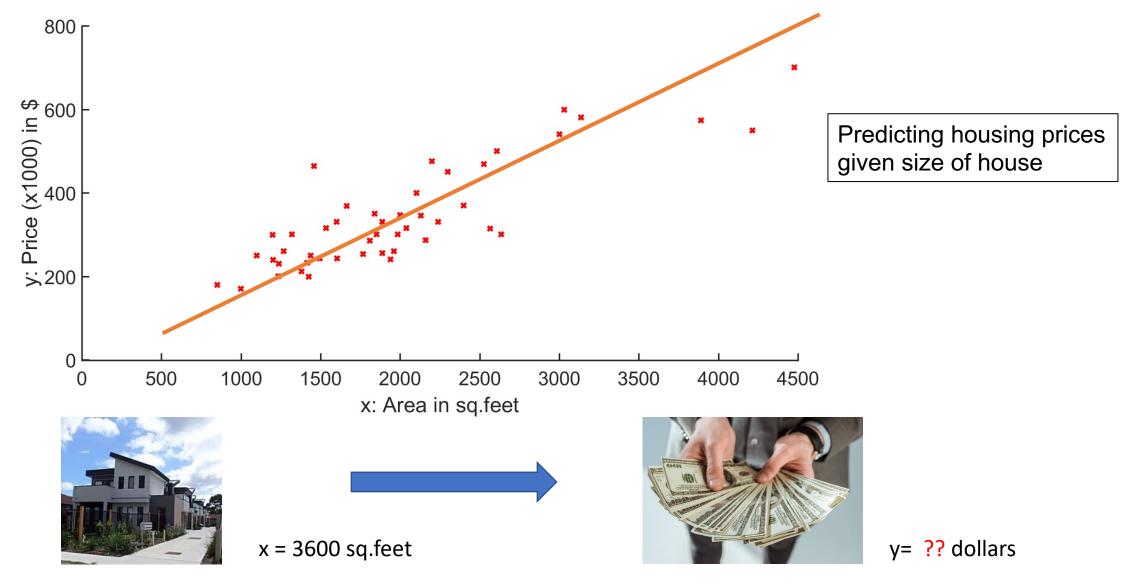
PATHS-UP Course module

Part I: Linear regression

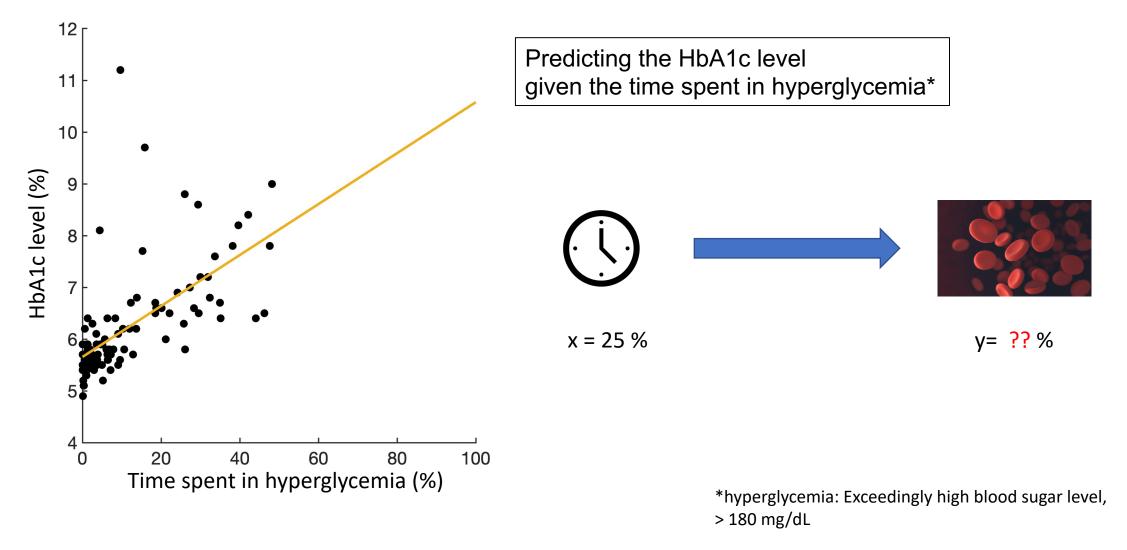
Overview of linear regression

- Linear regression is a statistical analysis technique to model the relationship between a 'response' variable and several 'predictor' variables.
- Linear regression is widely used in computational biology research to quantify the relationship between a clinical outcome (response) and several potential explanatory variables (predictor), in two major ways:
 - **Prediction:** Goal is to predict clinical outcome of interest, e.g. the HbA1c level of a diabetes patient given their age, weight, waist circumference, daily carb intake, and time spent in post-meal hyperglycemia.
 - Identifying key associations: Goal is to identify which explanatory variables have a statistically significant relationship with the clinical outcome of interest, which improves understanding of the physiology of a disorder or condition. E.g., if the HbA1c is significantly associated with the time spent in post-meal hyperglycemia, it shows the importance of diet in diabetes management.

A real-world linear regression problem-I



A real-world linear regression problem



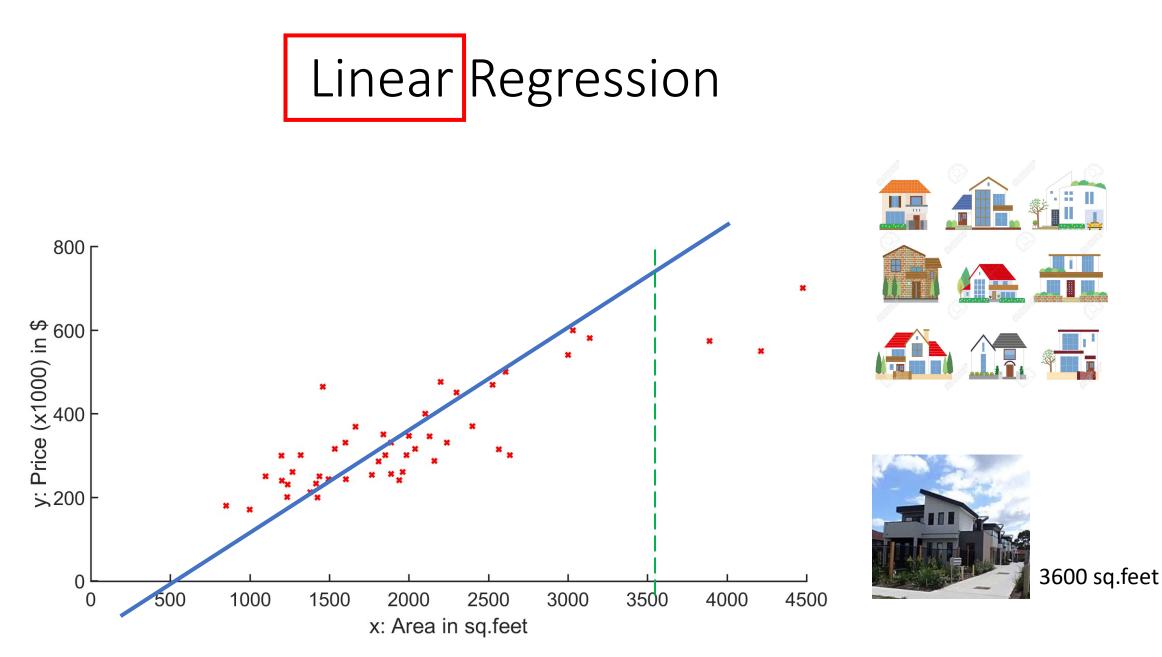


Regression: When the output you are trying to estimate or predict is a continuous-valued number

For e.g: Price of a house, or HbA1c level of an individual with diabetes

Classification: When the output you are trying to estimate or predict is a categorical quantity

For e.g: Cats vs Dogs image classification, or level of risk (High, moderate, or low) for an individual with diabetes



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A real-world linear regression problem

x: Area in square feet	y: Price (x1000) in \$
2104	399
1600	329
2400	369
1416	232
3000	539
•••	

Housing prices dataset (Portland, OR)

Notation: **n**: Number of examples **x**: Input variable/ features/ predictors **y**: Output variable/ target/ response

Dataset from https://www.kaggle.com/kennethjohn/housingprice

A real-world linear regression problem

x: Area in square feet	y: Price (x1000) in \$
 2104	399
1600	329
2400	369
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Housing prices dataset (Portland, OR)

Notation: **n:** Number of examples **x:** Input variable/ features/ predictors **y:** Output variable/ target/ response A specific example shall be denoted as:

 $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$ Where *i* indicates the row number

For example $x^{(1)} = 2104; y^{(1)} = 399$

Dataset from https://www.kaggle.com/kennethjohn/housingprice

Quiz: Notation

Consider the data set shown below. What is $y^{(3)}$?

Area in square feet	Price (x1000) in \$
2104	399
1600	329
2400	369
1416	232

(a) 2400

(b) 1416

(c) 369

(d) 232

Quiz: Notation

Consider the data set shown below. What is $y^{(3)}$?

x: Area in square feet	y: Price (x1000) in \$
2104	399
1600	329
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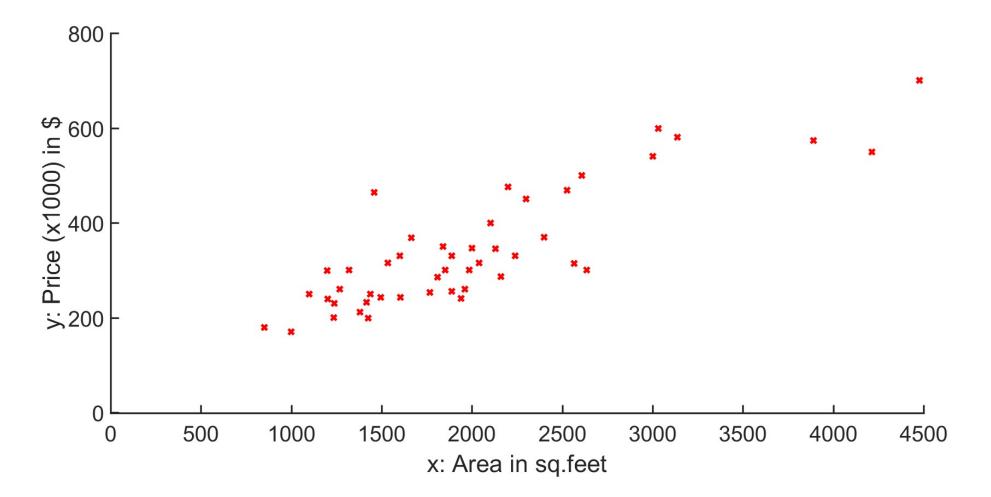
(a) 2400

(b) 1416

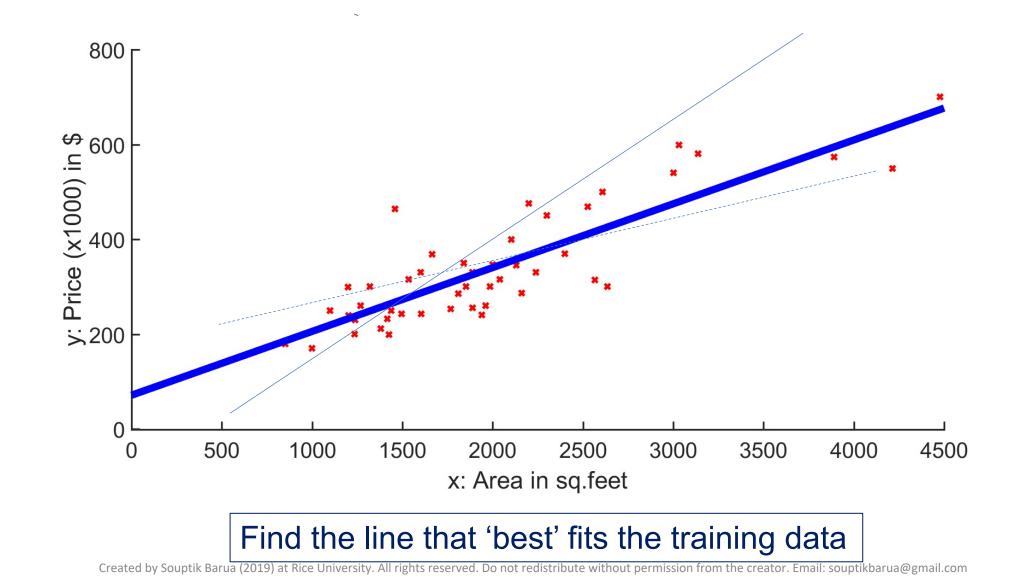
(c) 369

(d) 232

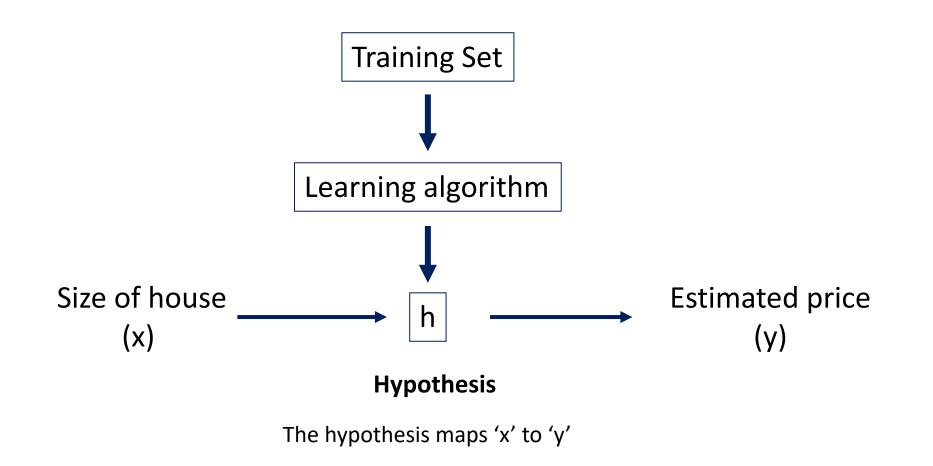
A real-world linear regression problem



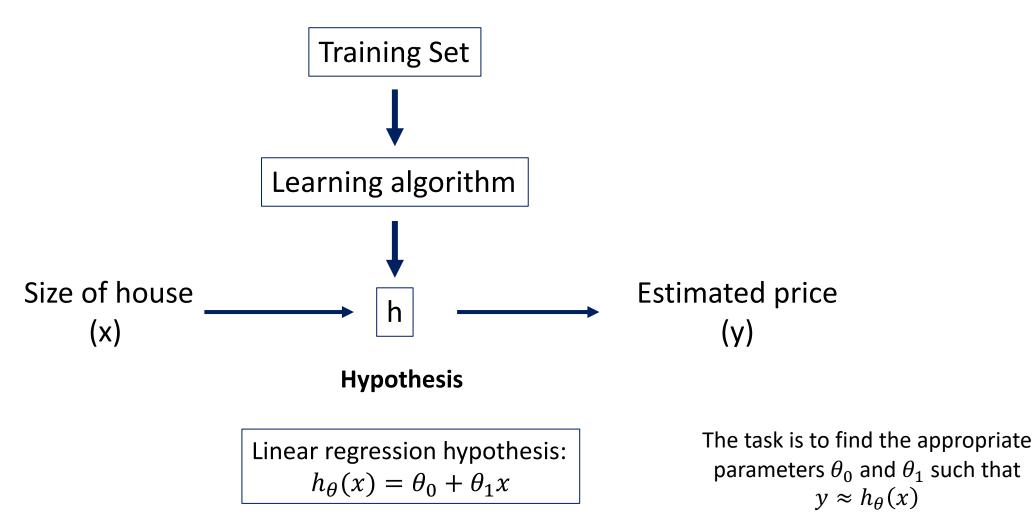
A real-world linear regression problem



The framework



The framework



Solving the linear regression problem

x: Area in square feet	y: Price (x1000) in \$
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	•••

Housing prices dataset (Portland, OR)

Notation: **n**: Number of examples/observations **x**: Input variable/ features/ predictors **y**: Output variable/ target/ response

Solving the linear regression problem

x: Area in square feet	y: Price (x1000) in \$
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Housing prices dataset (Portland, OR)

Hypothesis:

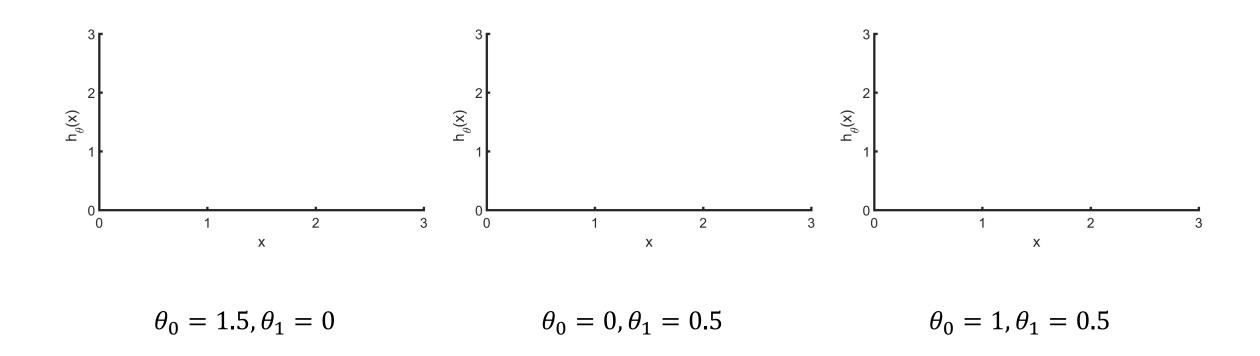
$$h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$$

 θ refers to the parameters $[\theta_0, \theta_1]$

Dataset from https://www.kaggle.com/kennethjohn/housingprice

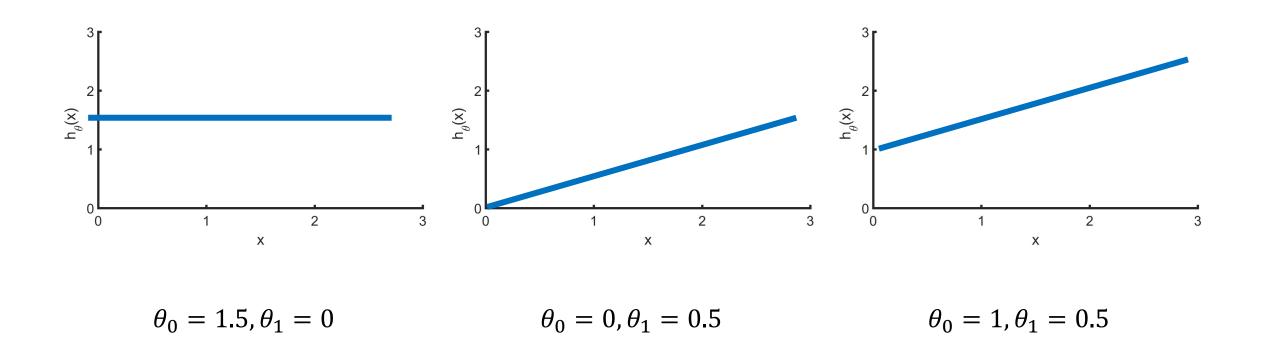
Different straight lines using different heta

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



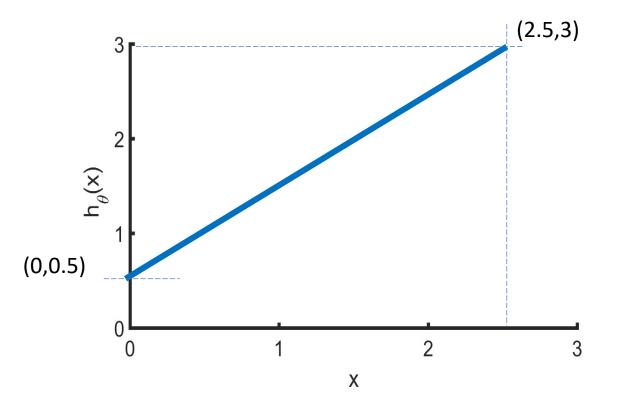
Different straight lines using different heta

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



Quiz: Different straight lines using different heta

An example plot of $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$ is shown. What are the values θ_0 and θ_1 ? (a) $\theta_0 = 0, \theta_1 = 1$ (b) $\theta_0 = 0.5, \theta_1 = 1$ (c) $\theta_0 = 1, \theta_1 = 0.5$ (d) $\theta_0 = 0.5, \theta_1 = 1.2$



Quiz: Different straight lines using different heta

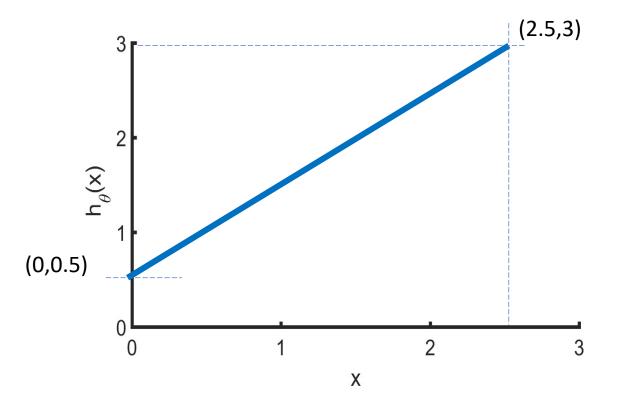
An example plot of $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$ is shown. What are the values θ_0 and θ_1 ?

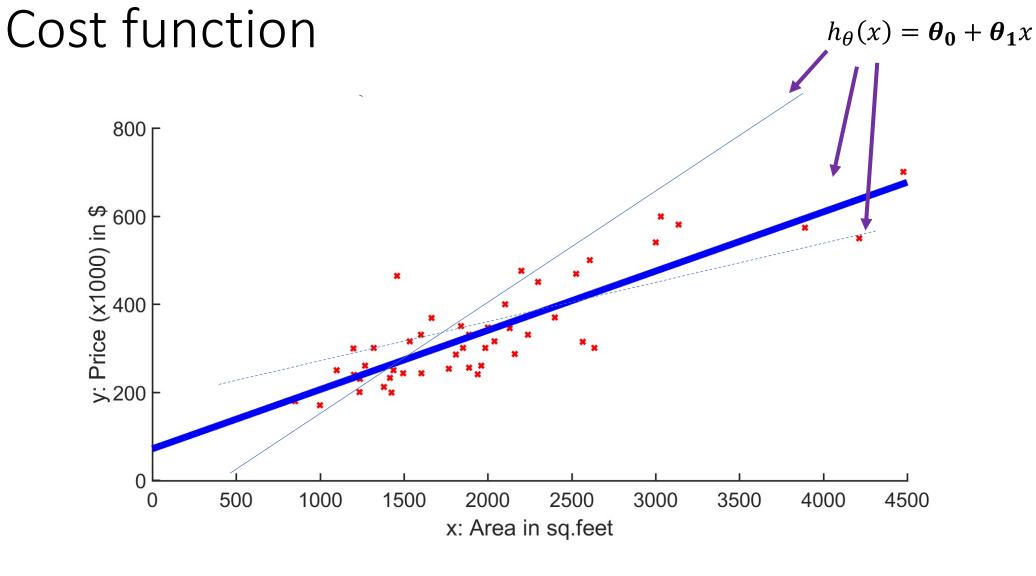
(a)
$$\theta_0 = 0, \theta_1 = 1$$

(b) $\theta_0 = 0.5, \theta_1 = 1$

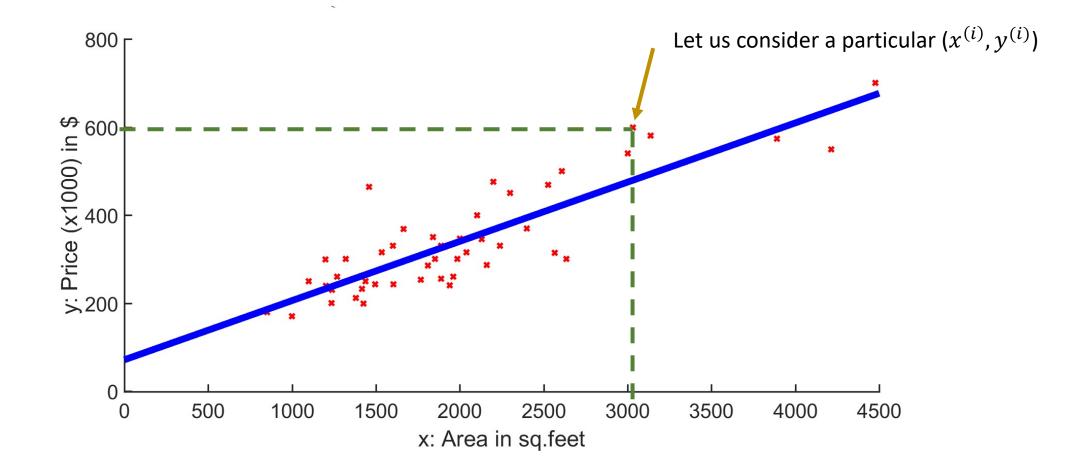
(c)
$$\theta_0 = 1, \theta_1 = 0.5$$

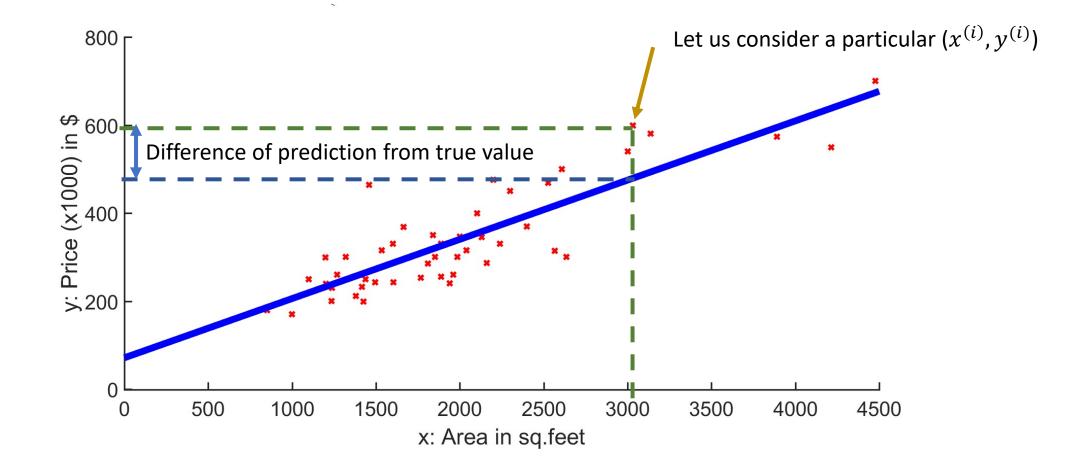
(d) $\theta_0 = 0.5, \theta_1 = 1.2$





All the lines are hypotheses with different choices of θ_0 and θ_1





Cost of prediction for each observation = $(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$ Prediction True value

Total Cost of predictions for the whole training set = $\sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$ Simply add all the individual costs!

Cost of prediction for each observation = $(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$

Total cost of predictions for the whole training set = $\sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$

Linear regression cost function:

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

An averaged form of the total cost

Cost of prediction for each observation = $(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$

Total cost of predictions for the whole training set = $\sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$

Linear regression cost function:

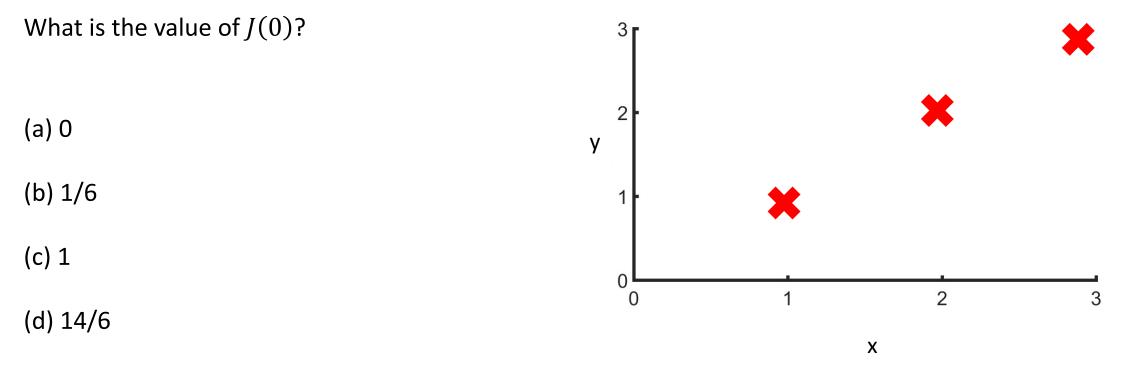
$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

Find the values of θ_0 and θ_1 that minimize this cost function

Quiz: Cost function

Suppose we have a training set with three observations as shown. Let $\theta_0 = 0$ for now so:

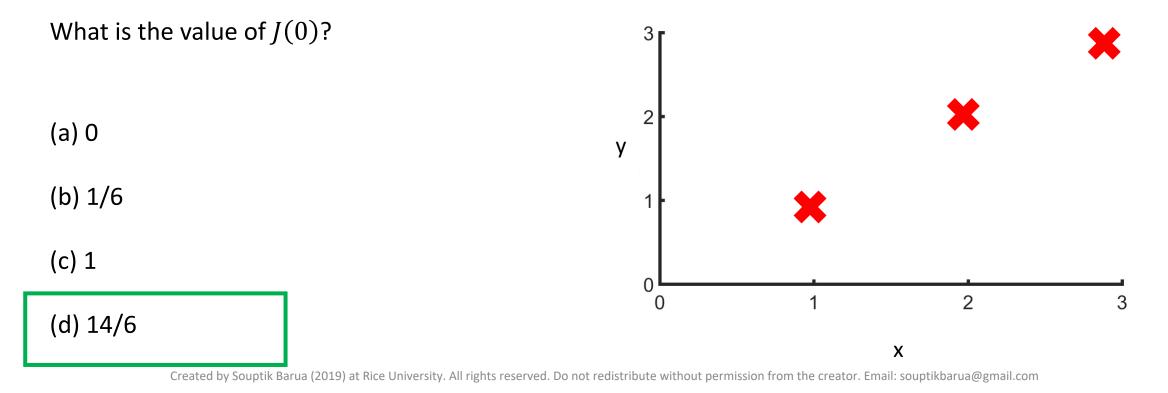
- -- Our hypothesis becomes $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_1 x$.
- -- The cost function then becomes $J(\theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) y^{(i)})^2$

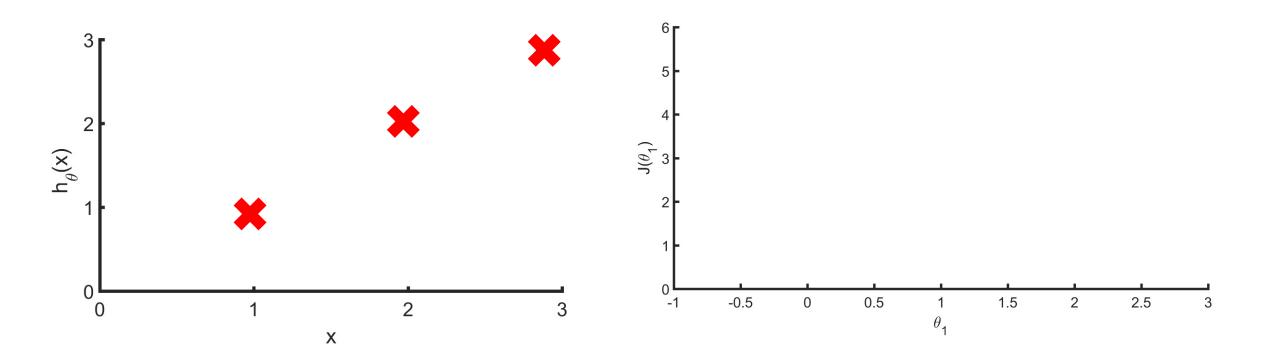


Quiz: Cost function

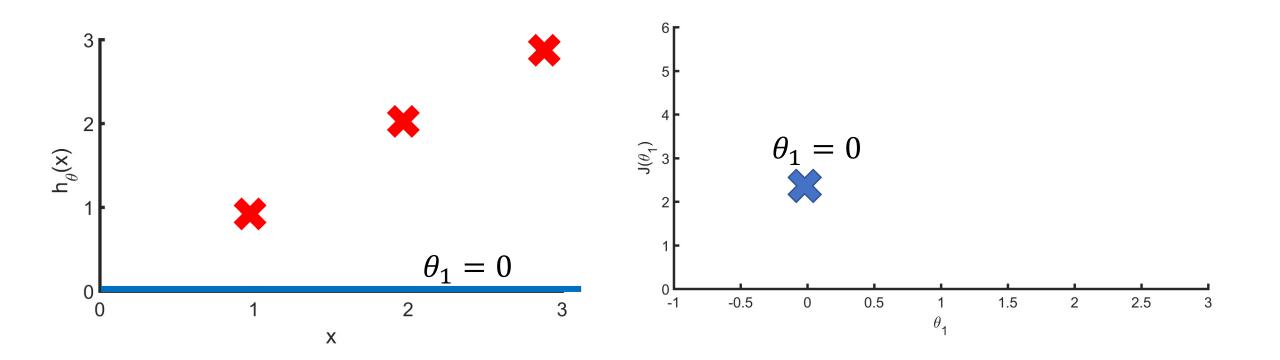
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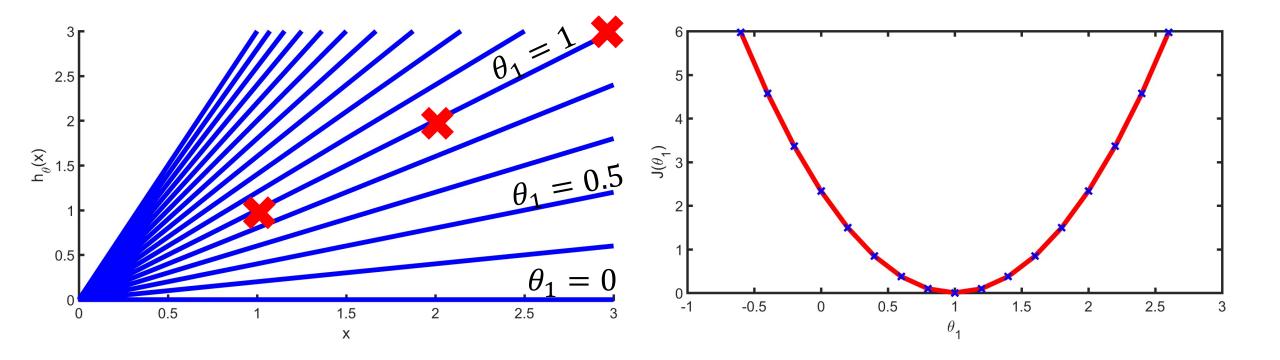




How does the cost function change with different choices of θ_1 ?



How does the cost function change with different choices of θ_1 ?



Plotting the different hypotheses and cost function values as a function of θ_1

Learning outcomes - I

By the end of part I, you now know how to:

- -- Formulate a linear regression **hypothesis**: $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$
- -- Understand intuitively what the **parameters** represent: θ_0 and θ_1
- -- Understand what a **cost function** is and why the linear regression cost function is formulated as: $J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)} \right)^2$
- -- The main **computational goal** to generate our linear regression model: $\min_{\substack{\theta_0, \theta_1}} I(\theta_0, \theta_1)$

Next class

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

Parameters: θ_0 and θ_1

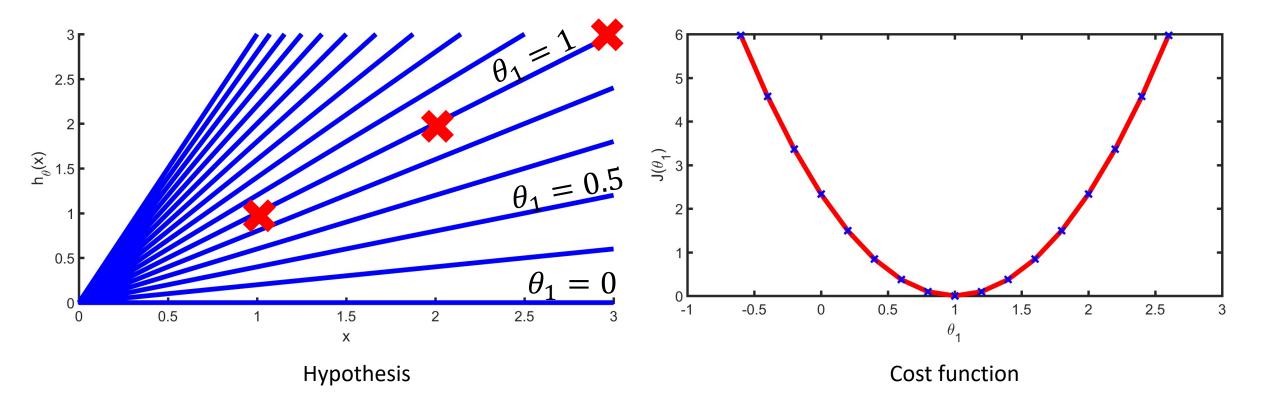
Cost function:
$$J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)} \right)^2$$

Goal:

 $\underset{\theta_0,\theta_1}{\text{minimize}} J(\theta_0,\theta_1)$

A powerful and standard tool: Gradient Descent

Part-II: Gradient Descent



Plotting the different hypotheses and cost function values as a function of θ_1

A solution strategy

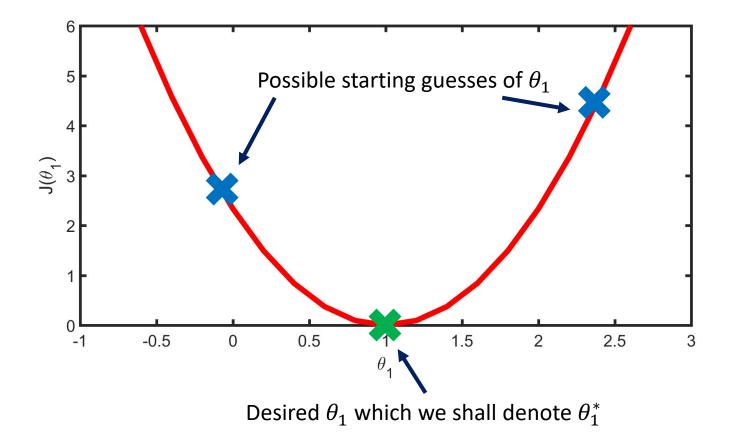
Given a function $J(\theta_1)$:

Step 1: Start with some θ_1

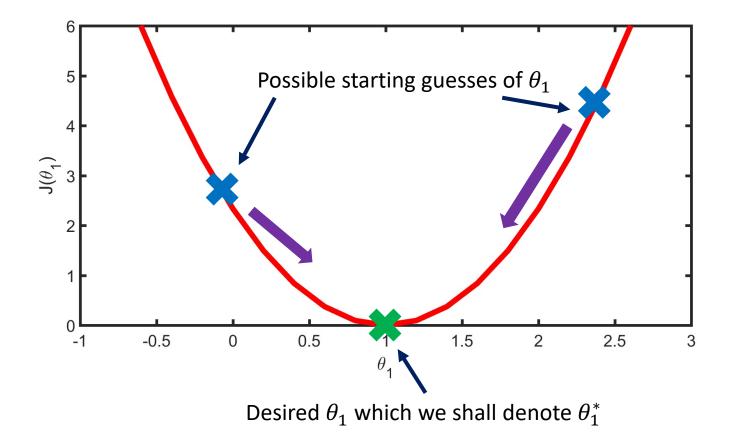
Step 2: Update θ_1 such that it reduces $J(\theta_1)$

Step 3: Keep repeating step 2 until we hopefully reach the minimum value of $J(\theta_1)$

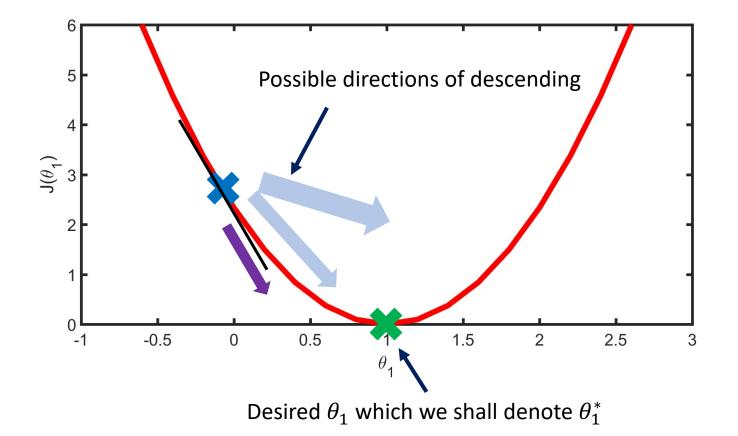












A solution strategy

Given a function $J(\theta_1)$:

Step 1: Start with some θ_1

Step 2: Update θ_1 such that it reduces $J(\theta_1)$

Step 3: Keep repeating step 2 until we hopefully reach the minimum value of $J(\theta_1)$

$$\theta_1^{[k+1]} = \theta_1^{[k]} - \alpha \frac{\partial J(\theta_1)}{\partial \theta_1}$$

Iteration continues until θ_1 does not change much.

- -- [k] : denotes the iteration number. k = 0,1,2,3,...
- -- $\theta_1^{[0]}$ is our starting value for θ_1
- -- α : Learning rate; a positive number

 $--\frac{\partial J(\theta_0, \theta_1)}{\partial \theta_1}$: Gradient term Created by Souptik Barua (2019) at Rice University

$$\theta_1^{[k+1]} = \theta_1^{[k]} - \alpha \frac{\partial J(\theta_1)}{\partial \theta_1}$$

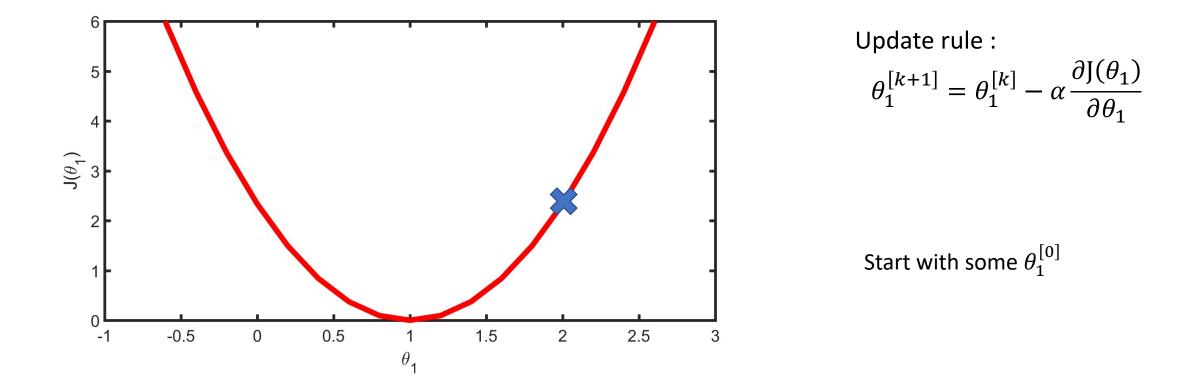
Your current guess of θ_1

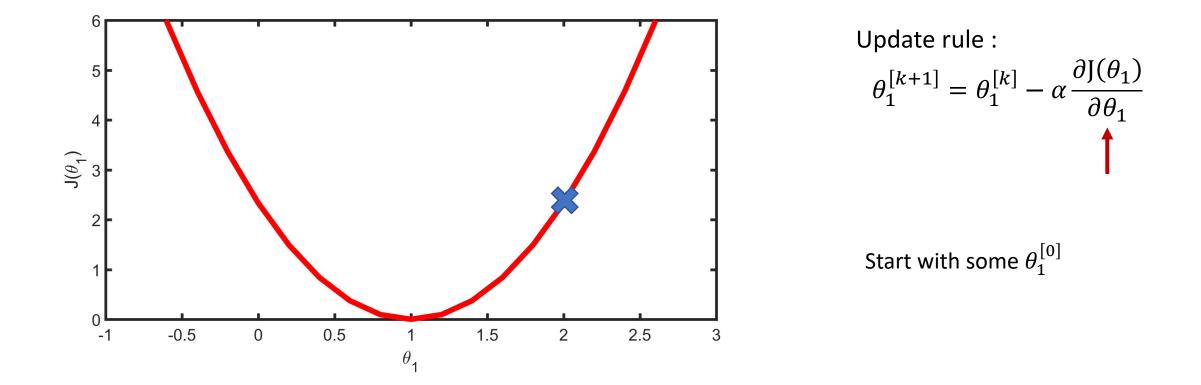
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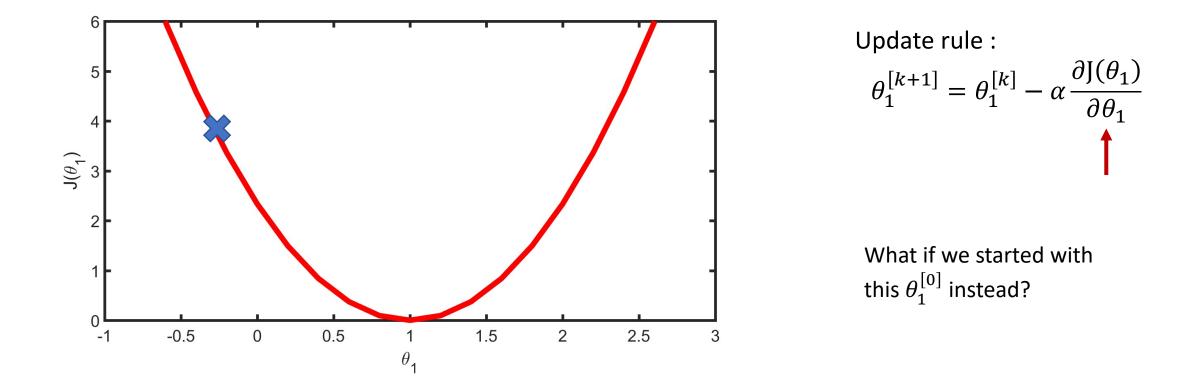
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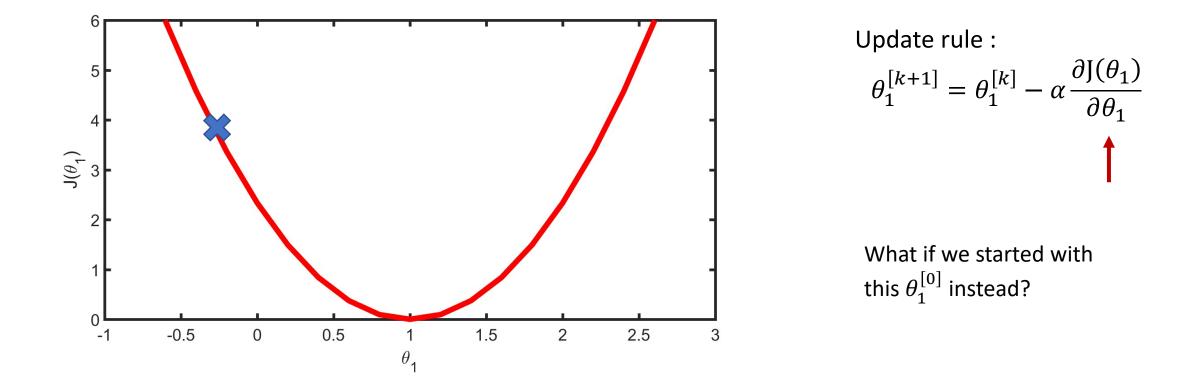
 $\frac{\partial J(\theta_1)}{\partial \theta_1}$: which direction to descend?

 α : *how fast* to descend?





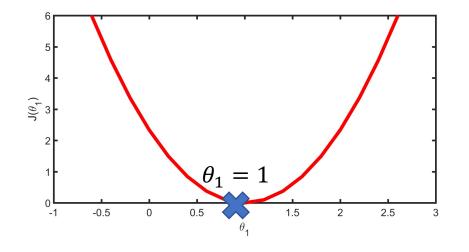




Quiz: Gradient descent intuition

Suppose you're really lucky and your initial guess of $\theta_1^{[0]} = 1$ results in the minimum value of $J(\theta_1)$. Assume $\alpha > 0$. What happens if you apply a gradient descent update here?

$$\theta_1^{[1]} = \theta_1^{[0]} - \alpha \frac{\partial J(\theta_1)}{\partial \theta_1}$$



 $\theta_1 = 1$ results in the minimum $J(\theta_1)$

(A) No change in θ_1 (B) A random change in θ_1 (C) Increase θ_1 (D) Decrease θ_1

Quiz: Gradient descent intuition

Suppose you're really lucky and your initial guess of $\theta_1^{[0]} = 1$ results in the minimum value of $J(\theta_1)$. Assume $\alpha > 0$. What happens if you apply a gradient descent update here?

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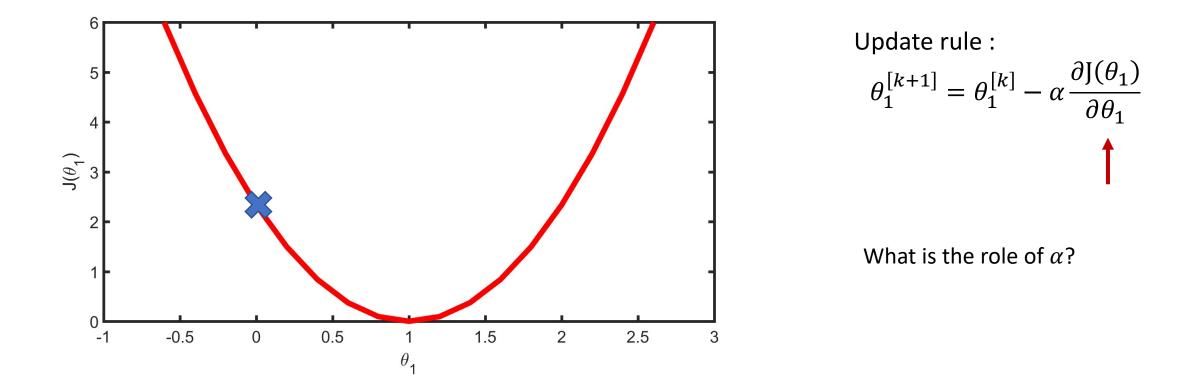
 $\theta_1 = 1$ results in the minimum $J(\theta_1)$

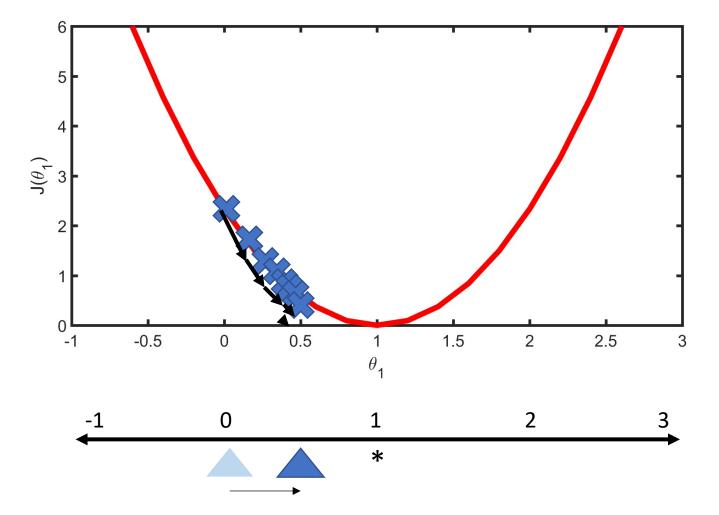
(A) No change in $heta_1$

(B) A random change in θ_1

(C) Increase θ_1

(D) Decrease $heta_1$





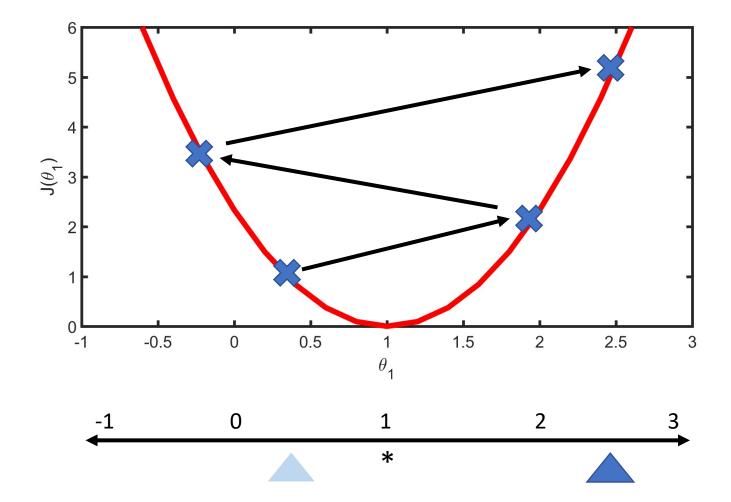
Update rule :

$$\theta_1^{[k+1]} = \theta_1^{[k]} - \alpha \frac{\partial J(\theta_1)}{\partial \theta_1}$$

When α is too **small**;

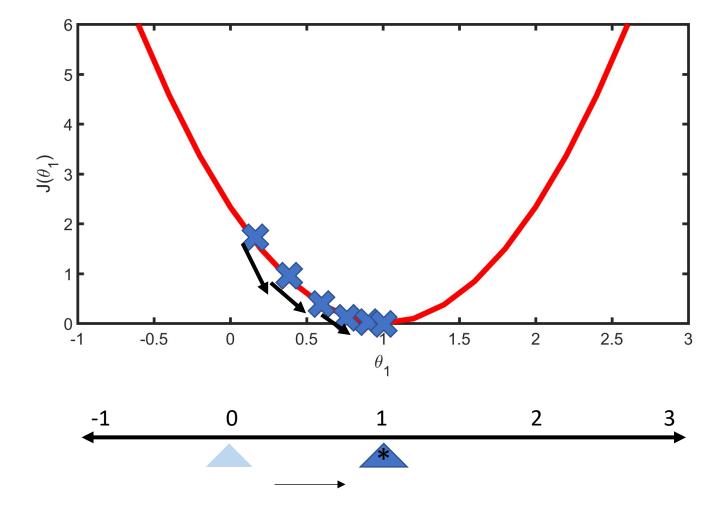
Convergence to θ_1^* can be prohibitively slow

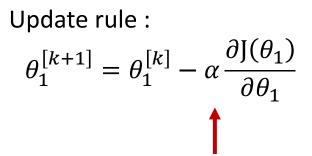
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Update rule : $\theta_1^{[k+1]} = \theta_1^{[k]} - \alpha \frac{\partial J(\theta_1)}{\partial \theta_1}$

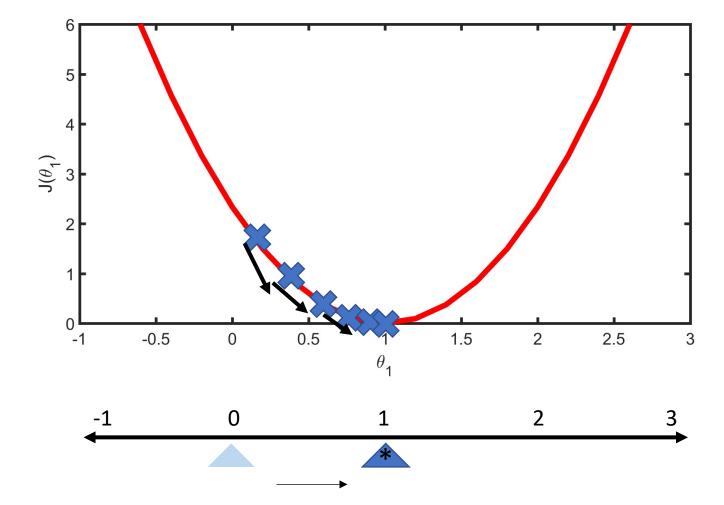
When α is too **large;** Divergence may occur instead of convergence





A good choice of α leads to convergence to θ_1^* in a reasonable amount of time

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Update rule : $\theta_1^{[k+1]} = \theta_1^{[k]} - \alpha \frac{\partial J(\theta_1)}{\partial \theta_1}$

-- For a linear regression cost function, a fixed α works because the gradient value itself tapers off

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A solution strategy

Given a function $J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$:

Step 1: Start with some θ_0, θ_1

Step 2: Update θ_0 , θ_1 such that it reduces $J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$

Step 3: Keep repeating step 2 until we hopefully reach the minimum value of $J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$

An iterative approach to finding the best θ_0, θ_1

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_0^{[k+1]} &= \theta_0^{[k]} - \alpha \frac{\partial J(\theta_0, \theta_1)}{\partial \theta_0} \\ \theta_1^{[k+1]} &= \theta_1^{[k]} - \alpha \frac{\partial J(\theta_0, \theta_1)}{\partial \theta_1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{split} \theta_0^{[k+1]} &= \theta_0^{[k]} - \alpha \frac{\partial J(\theta_0, \theta_1)}{\partial \theta_0} \\ \theta_1^{[k+1]} &= \theta_1^{[k]} - \alpha \frac{\partial J(\theta_0, \theta_1)}{\partial \theta_1} \end{split}$$

Update θ_0 and θ_1 simultaneously!

-- If you do sequentially, that's a different algorithm called coordinate descent

-- Parallel computation

Quiz: Gradient descent algorithm

Let $\theta_0^{[0]} = 1$, $\theta_1^{[0]} = 2$. For a different problem, it turns out that the update rule should be:

$$heta_j^{[1]} = heta_j^{[0]} + \sqrt{ heta_0 heta_1}$$
 for $j = 0,1$. What are $heta_0^{[1]}, heta_1^{[1]}$?

(A)
$$\theta_0^{[1]} = 1, \theta_1^{[1]} = 2$$

(B) $\theta_0^{[1]} = 1 + \sqrt{2}, \theta_1^{[1]} = 2 + \sqrt{2}$
(C) $\theta_0^{[1]} = 2 + \sqrt{2}, \theta_1^{[1]} = 1 + \sqrt{2}$
(D) $\theta_0^{[1]} = 1 + \sqrt{2}, \theta_1^{[1]} = 2 + \sqrt{2}(1 + \sqrt{2})$

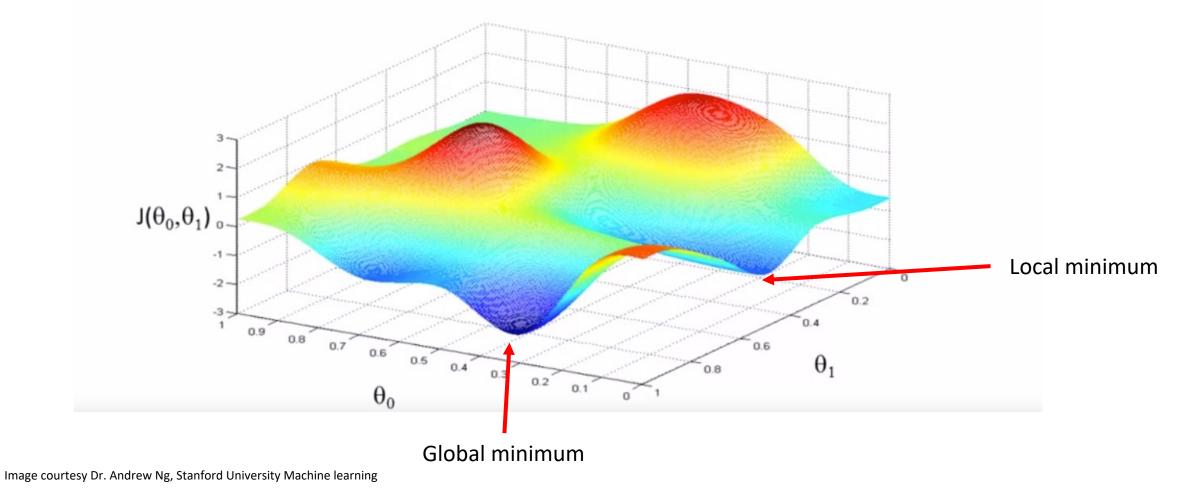
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(D) $\theta_0^{[1]} = 1 + \sqrt{2}, \theta_1^{[1]} = 2 + \sqrt{2}(1 + \sqrt{2})$



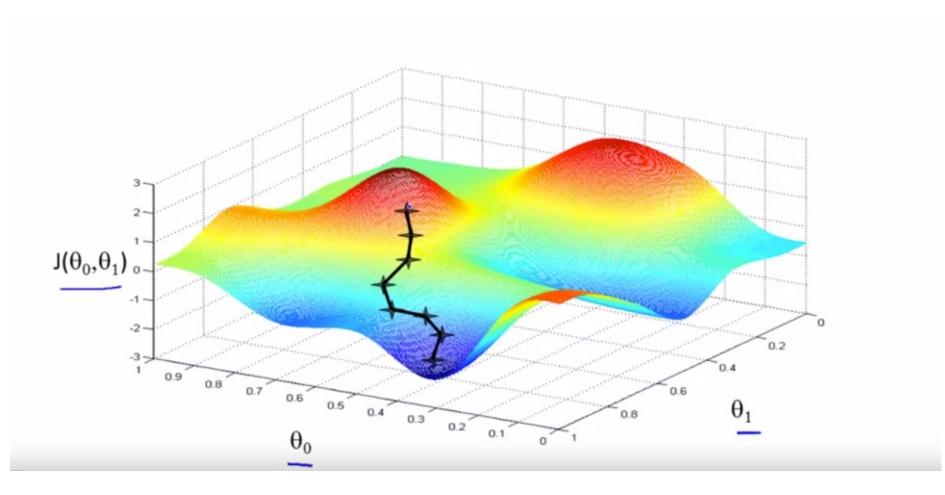


Image courtesy Dr. Andrew Ng, Stanford University Machine learning

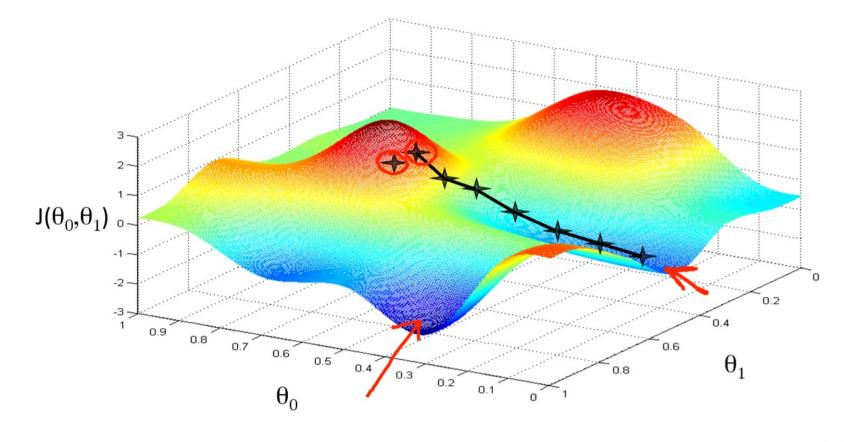


Image courtesy Dr. Andrew Ng, Stanford University Machine learning

Designing a gradient descent framework

Given a function $J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$:

Step 1: Start with some θ_0, θ_1 *It's an art. Try multiple random initializations.*

Step 2: Update θ_0 , θ_1 such that it reduces $J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$

Computing the *derivative* is important! A varying α can help!

Step 3: Keep repeating step 2 until we hopefully reach the minimum value of $J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$

Either fix maximum iterations or set a threshold on % change per iteration

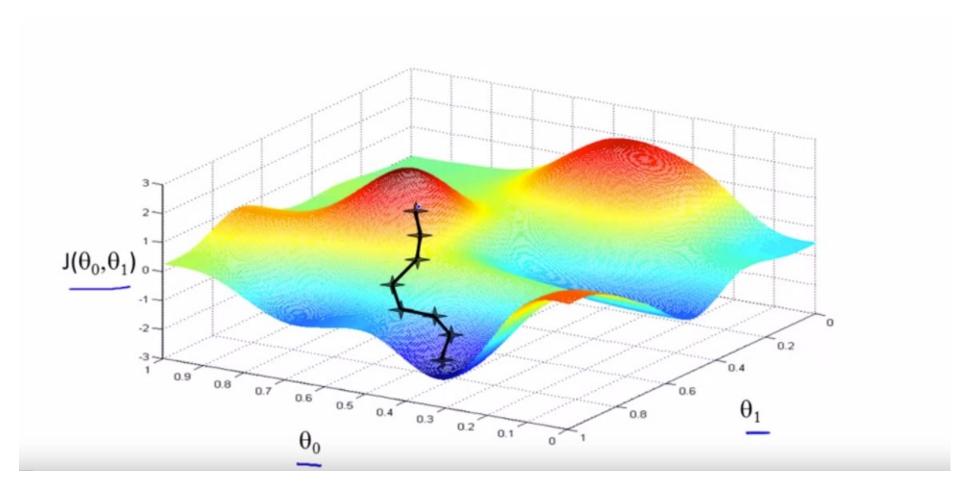


Image courtesy Dr. Andrew Ng, Stanford University Machine learning

Which of the following statements are true regarding gradient descent?

- 1. To make gradient descent converge, we must always decrease α with time
- 2. Gradient descent is guaranteed to find the global minimum for any cost function $J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$
- 3. Gradient descent can converge if α is fixed (But α shouldn't be too large, else there is divergence)
- 4. For the linear regression cost function, local and global minimum are one and the same

(A) 1 and 4

(B) 3 and 4

(C) 1 and 2

(D) 4

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(A) 1 and 4

(B) 3 and 4

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The Normal equation

 $\theta^* = (x^T x)^{-1} x^T y$

There is a direct, mathematical way to obtain the 'best' $\theta = [\theta_0, \theta_1]$ using one equation

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The Normal equation

There is a direct, mathematical way to obtain the 'best' $\theta = [\theta_0, \theta_1]$ using one equation

 $\theta^* = (x^T x)^{-1} x^T y$

Why, then, don't we use that instead of gradient descent?

- -- Computational cost when number of predictors is very large
- -- Sparse data (when most of the predictors are zero)
- -- Collinear predictors

Learning outcomes - II

By now, you know:

-- Gradient descent is an iterative algorithm that is a standard tool for minimizing cost functions

-- Involves choosing a starting guess for θ , updating θ using a learning rate α and a gradient term $\frac{\partial J(\theta)}{\partial \theta}$, and continuing to update until we reach the solution

- -- Why gradient descent converges to a local minimum of the cost function if α isn't too large
- -- Effects of a too small or too large α
- -- Gradient descent for general cost functions

-- The normal equation is an alternative approach to finding the linear regression model, albeit with a high memory requirement