## Linear Regression, Costs & Gradient Descent

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# Introduction to Linear Regression

- Linear Regression is a predictive model to map the relation between dependent variable and one or more independent variables.
- It is a supervised learning method and regression problem which predicts

real valued output.

• The predicted output is done by forming Hypothesis based

$$\hat{Y} = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1$$
 (Single Independent Variable)

$$\hat{Y} = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \dots + \theta_k x_k$$
 (Multiple Independent Va

$$=\sum_{i=0}^{k} \theta_i x_i$$
; Where  $x_0 = 1$  .....(1)

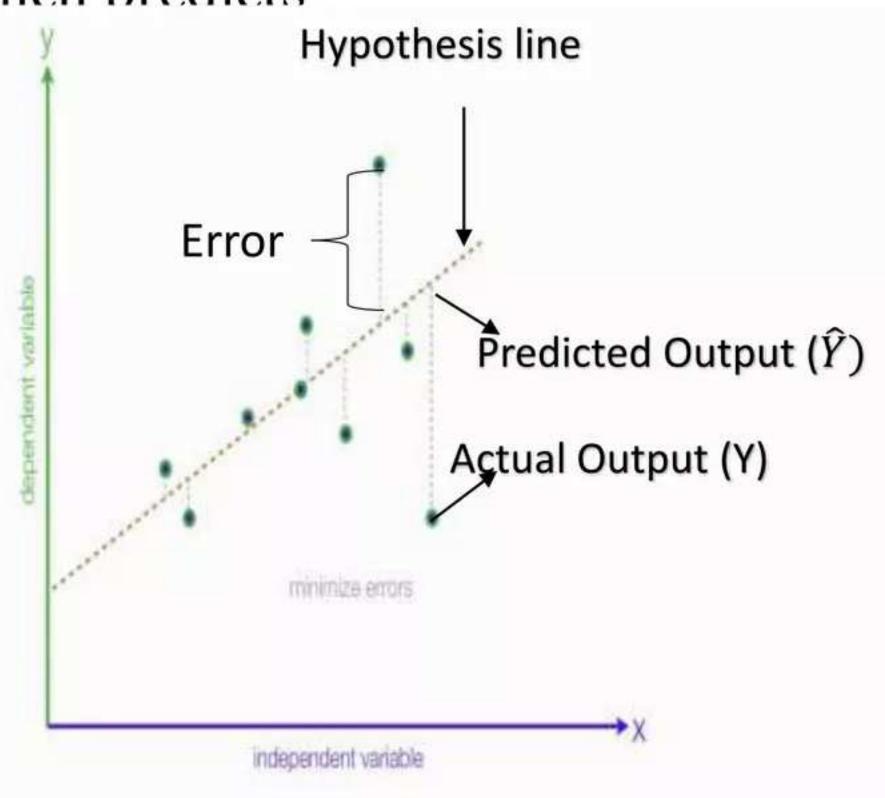
Where  $\theta_i$  = parameters for  $i^{th}$  independent variable(s)

For estimation of performance of the linear model, SSE

Squared Sum Error (SSE) = 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} (Y - \hat{Y})^2$$

Note: Here, *Y* is the actual observed output

And,  $\hat{Y}$  is the predicted output.



# Model Representation

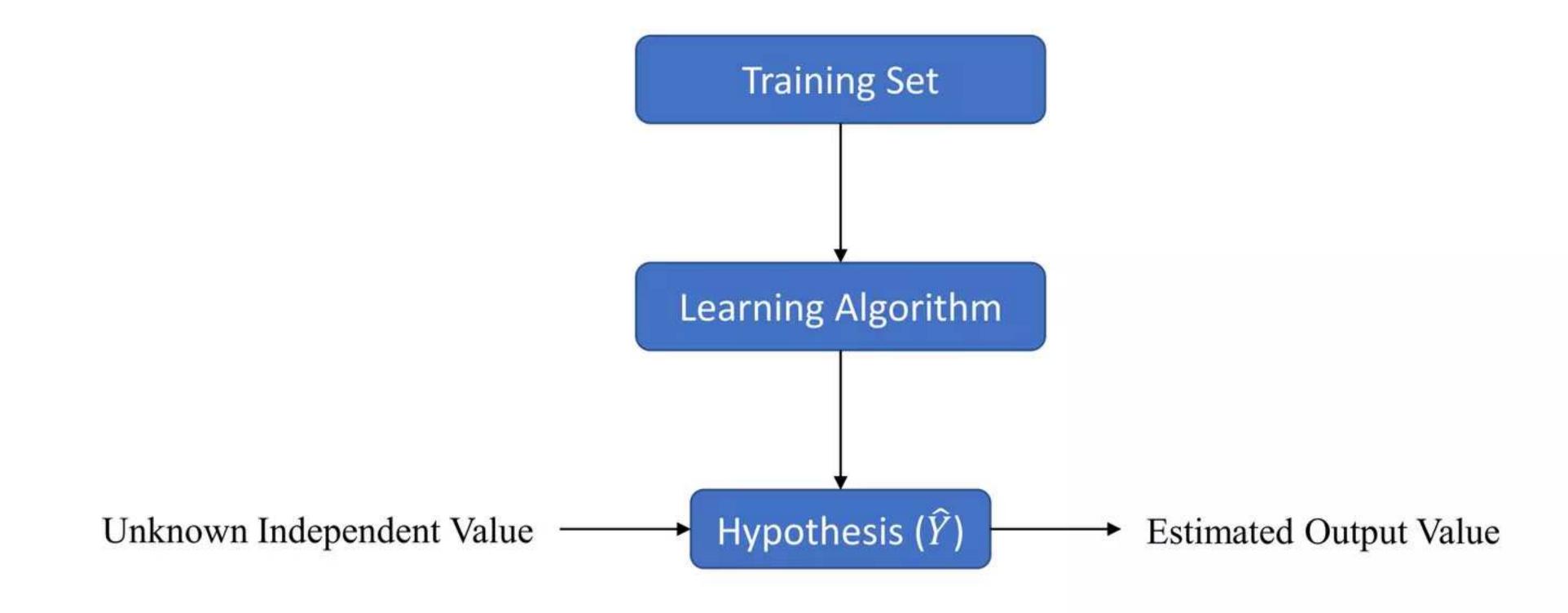


Fig.1 Model Representation of Linear Regression

Hint: Gradient descent as learning algorithm

# How to Represent Hypothesis?

- We know, hypothesis is represented by  $\hat{Y}$ , which can be formulated depending upon single variable linear regression (Univariate Linear Regression) or Multi-variate linear regression.
- $\hat{Y} = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1$
- Here,  $\theta_0$  = intercept and  $\theta_1$  = slope=  $\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}$  and  $x_1$  = independent variable
- Question arises: How do we choose  $\theta_{i's}$  values for best fitting hypothesis?
- Idea: Choose  $\theta_0$ ,  $\theta_1$  so that  $\hat{Y}$  is close to Y for our training examples (x, y)
- Objective: min  $J(\theta_0, \theta_1)$ ,
- Note:  $J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \text{Cost Function}$ .
- Formulation of  $J(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\hat{Y}^{(i)} Y^{(i)})^2$

Note: m = No. of instances of dataset

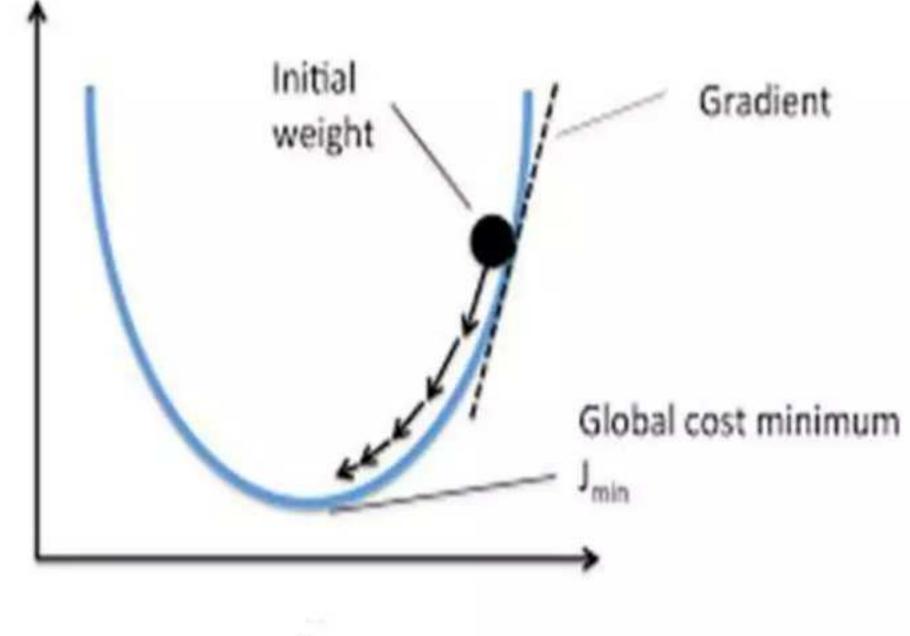
# Objective function for linear regression

- The most important objective of linear regression model is to minimize cost function by choosing a optimal value for  $\theta_0$ ,  $\theta_1$ .
- · For optimization technique, Gradient Descent is mostly used in case of predictive models.

• By taking  $\theta_0 = 0$  and  $\theta_1 = some random values (in case of univariate linear regression), the graph <math>(\theta_1 \text{ vs } J(\theta_1))$  gets represented in the form of l

#### Advantage of Gradient descent in linear regressio

• No scope to stuck in local optima, since there is only One global optima position where  $slope(\theta_1) = o_1(\theta_1)$  (convex graph)



# Normal Distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

#### Estimation of mean $(\mu)$ and variance $(\sigma^2)$ :

- Let size of data set = n, denoted by  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$
- Assuming  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$  are independent random variables or Independent Identically Distributed (iid), they are normally distributed random variables.
- Assuming no independent variables (x), in order to estimate the future value of y we need to find to find unknown parameters ( $\mu \& \sigma^2$ ).

#### Concept of Maximum Likelihood Estimation:

- Using Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) concept, we are trying to find the optimal value for value for the mean ( $\mu$ ) and standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) for distribution given a bunch of observed observed measurements.
- The goal of MLE is to find optimal way to fit a distribution to the data so, as to work easily with with data

#### Estimation of $\mu \& \sigma^2$ :

• Density of normal random variable =  $f(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2}(y-\mu)^2}$ 

L  $(\mu, \sigma^2)$  is a joint density

Now,

let, L 
$$(\mu, \sigma^2)$$
 = f  $(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2}(y-\mu)^2}$ 

let, assume  $\sigma^2 = \theta$ 

let, L 
$$(\mu, \theta) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi\theta})^n} e^{\frac{-1}{2\theta}\sum (y-\mu)^2}$$

taking log on both sides

LL 
$$(\mu, \theta) = \log (2\pi\theta)^{-\frac{n}{2}} + \log (e^{\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2}(y-\mu)^2})$$
 \*LL  $(\mu, \theta)$  is denoted as log of joint density 
$$= -\frac{n}{2}\log(2\pi\theta) - \frac{1}{2\theta}(y-\mu)^2$$
 (2) \*  $\log e^x = x$ 

- Our objective is to estimate the next occurring of data point y in the distribution of data. Using MLE we can find the optimal value for  $(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . For a given trainings set we need to find max LL  $(\mu, \theta)$ .
- Let us assume  $\theta = \sigma^2$  for simplicity
- Now, we use partial derivatives to find the optimal values of  $(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and equating to zero LL' = 0

$$LL(\mu, \theta) = -\frac{n}{2}\log(2\pi\theta) - \frac{1}{2\theta}(y - \mu)^2$$

• Taking partial derivative wrt  $\mu$  in eq (2), we get

$$LL'_{\mu} = 0 - \frac{2}{2\theta} \sum (y_i - \mu) (-1)$$

$$=> \sum (y_i - \mu) = 0$$

$$=>\sum y_i=n_\mu$$

\*  $LL'_{\mu}$  is partial derivative of LL wrt  $\mu$ 

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum y_i$$

\*  $\hat{\mu}$  is estimated mean value

Again taking partial derivatives on eq (2) wrt  $\theta$ 

$$LL'_{\theta} = -\frac{n}{2} \frac{1}{2\pi\theta} (2\pi) - \frac{-1}{2\theta^2} \sum (y_i - \mu)^2$$

Setting above to zero, we get

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2\theta} \sum (y_i - \mu)^2 = \frac{n}{2} \frac{1}{\theta}$$

Finally, this leads to solution

$$\widehat{\sigma^2} = \widehat{\theta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum (y_i - \mu)^2$$

After plugging estimate of

$$\widehat{\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{n} \sum (y - \overline{y})^2$$

\*  $\widehat{\sigma^2}$  is estimated variance

• Above estimate can be general  $\widehat{\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{n} \sum error^2$   $ror^2$ 

$$\widehat{\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{n} \sum error^2$$

- \* error =  $y \bar{y}$
- Finally we estimated the value of mean and variance in order to predict the future occurrence of y  $(\hat{y})$  data points.
- Therefore the best estimate of occurrence of next y  $(\hat{y})$  that is likely to occur is  $\hat{\mu}$  and the solution is arrived by using SSE  $(\widehat{\sigma^2})$

## Optimization & Derivatives

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} (y_i - \sum_{j=1}^{j=k} x_{ij} \theta_j)^2$$

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \dots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}; \qquad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1k} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2k} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ x_{n1} & x_{2n} & \dots & x_{nk} \end{bmatrix}; \qquad \theta = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \\ \dots \\ \theta_k \end{pmatrix}$$

 $\sum_{j=1}^{j=k} x_{ij} \theta_j$  is simple multiplication of  $i^{th}$  row of matrix X and vector  $\theta$ . Hence

$$= \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} (Y - X\theta)^2$$

$$= (Y - \hat{Y})'(Y - \hat{Y}) \qquad \therefore \hat{Y} = X\theta$$

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2n} (Y - X\theta)'(Y - X\theta)$$

$$= Y'Y - Y'X\theta - YX\theta' - X\theta'X\theta$$

Now, Derivative with respect to  $\theta$ 

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} = 0 - 2XY + 2X^2\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2n} (-2XY + 2X^2\theta)$$

$$= -\frac{2}{2n} (XY - X^2\theta)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{n} (XY - X'X\theta)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{n} X'(Y - \hat{Y})$$

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} X'(\hat{Y} - Y)$$

#### How to start with Gradient Descent

- The basic assumption is to start at any random position  $x_0$  and take derivative value.
- $1^{st}$  case: if derivative value > 0, increasing
- Action: then change the  $\theta_1$  values using the gradient descent formula.
- $\theta_1 = \theta_1 \alpha \frac{d J(\theta_1)}{d \theta_1}$
- here,  $\alpha$  = learning rate / parameter

# Gradient Descent algorithm

• Repeat until convergence  $\{\theta_1 := \theta_1 - \alpha \frac{d J(\theta_1)}{d\theta_1} \}$  here, assuming  $\theta_0 = 0$  for univariate linear regression  $\}$ 

For multi variate linear regression:

• Repeat until convergence  $\{\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \frac{d J(\theta_{0,\theta_1})}{d\theta_j}\}$ 

Simultaneous update of  $\theta_{0}$ ,  $\theta_{1}$ 

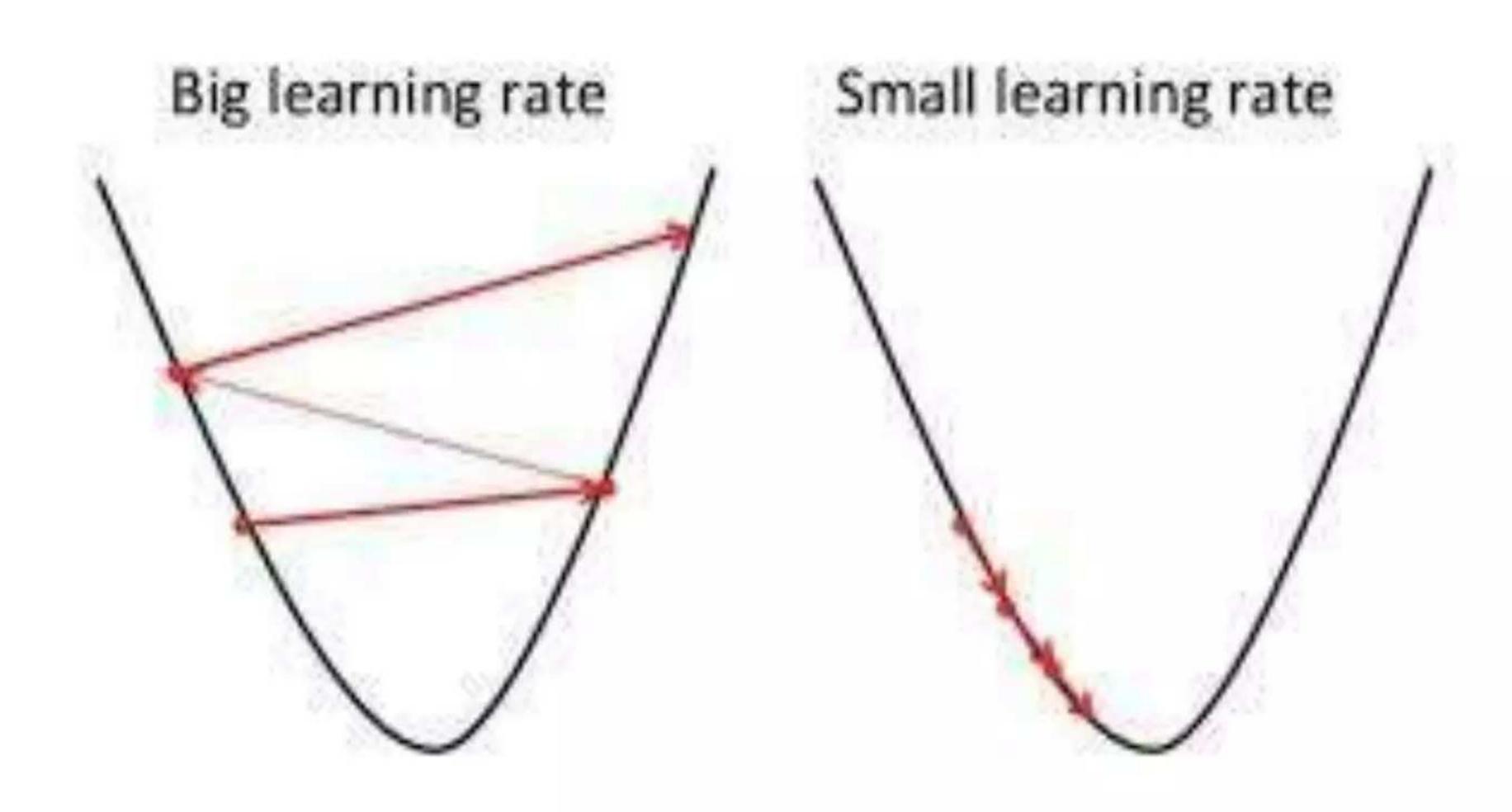
Temp o := 
$$\theta_0$$
: =  $\theta_0$  -  $\alpha \frac{d J(\theta_{0,}\theta_1)}{d\theta_0}$ 

Temp 1 := 
$$\theta_1$$
: =  $\theta_1$  -  $\alpha \frac{d J(\theta_{0,}\theta_1)}{d\theta_1}$ 

$$\theta_o$$
: = Temp o

$$\theta_1$$
: = Temp 1

# Effects associated with varying values of learning rate ( $\alpha$ )



#### Continue:

- In the first case, we may find difficulty to reach at global optima since large value of  $\alpha$  may overshoot the optimal position due to aggressive updating of  $\theta$  values.
- Therefore, as we approach optima position, gradient descent will take automatically smaller steps.

#### Conclusion

- The cost function for linear regression is always gong to be a bow-shaped function (convex function)
- This function doesn't have an local optima except for the one global optima.
- Therefore, using cost function of type  $J(\theta_{0},\theta_{1})$  which we get whenever we are using linear regression, it will always converge to the global optimum.
- Most important is make sure our gradient descent algorithms is working properly.
- On increasing number of iterations, the value of  $J(\theta_{0},\theta_{1})$  should get decreasing after every iterations.
- Determining the automatic convergence test is difficult because we don't know the threshold value.