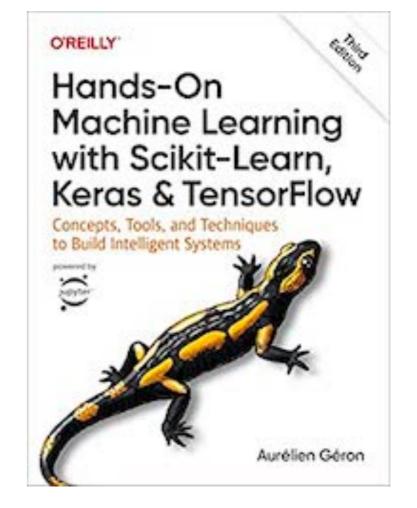
# Machine Learning Security

#### **4 Training Models**



Made Aug 26, 2023

# Topics

- Linear Regression
- Gradient Descent
- Polynomial Regression
- Learning Curves
- Regularized Linear Models
- Logistic Regression

#### **Linear Regression**

# **Two Ways to Train**

- Closed-form equation
  - Directly compute parameters for best fit
- Gradient Descent (GD)
  - Iterative process
  - Gradually tweak parameters to minimize the cost function
  - Types of gradient descent
    - Batch GD
    - Mini-batch GD
    - Stochastic GD

### **Linear Regression**

*life\_satisfaction* =  $\theta_0 + \theta_1 \times GDP_per_capita$ 

Equation 4-1. Linear regression model prediction

 $\hat{y}= heta_0+ heta_1x_1+ heta_2x_2+\dots+ heta_nx_n$ 

• The prediction depends linearly on the inputs  $(x_i)$ 

### **Cost Function**

Equation 4-3. MSE cost function for a linear regression model

$$MSE\left(\mathbf{X}, h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\right) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}\right)^{2}$$

• Mean Squared Error

## **The Normal Equation**

Equation 4-4. Normal equation

$$\widehat{oldsymbol{ heta}} = \left( \mathbf{X}^{\intercal} \mathbf{X} 
ight)^{-1} \, \mathbf{X}^{\intercal} \; \mathbf{y}$$

In this equation:

- $\widehat{\theta}$  is the value of  $\theta$  that minimizes the cost function.
- y is the vector of target values containing y(1) to y(m).

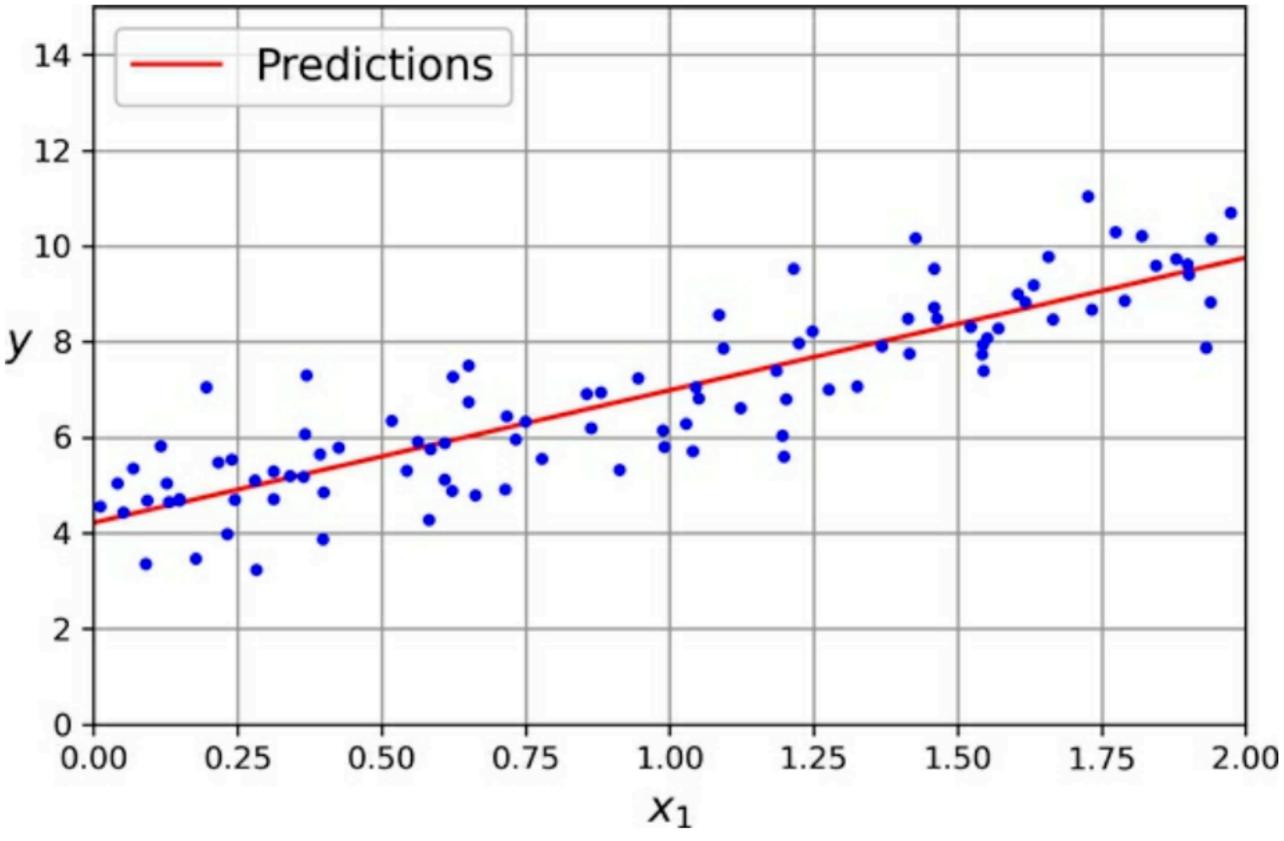


Figure 4-2. Linear regression model predictions

# **Computational Complexity**

- Computes the matrix inverse of X<sup>T</sup>X
  - (*n* + 1) x (*n* + 1) for *n* features
- Computational complexity is **O**(**n**<sup>2.4</sup>) to **O**(**n**<sup>3</sup>)
  - Doubling *n* increases computation time by a factor of 5 to 8
- Once the model is trained, prediction is fast
  - Complexity is linear in number of predictions and number of features

# When the Closed-form Equation Method Fails

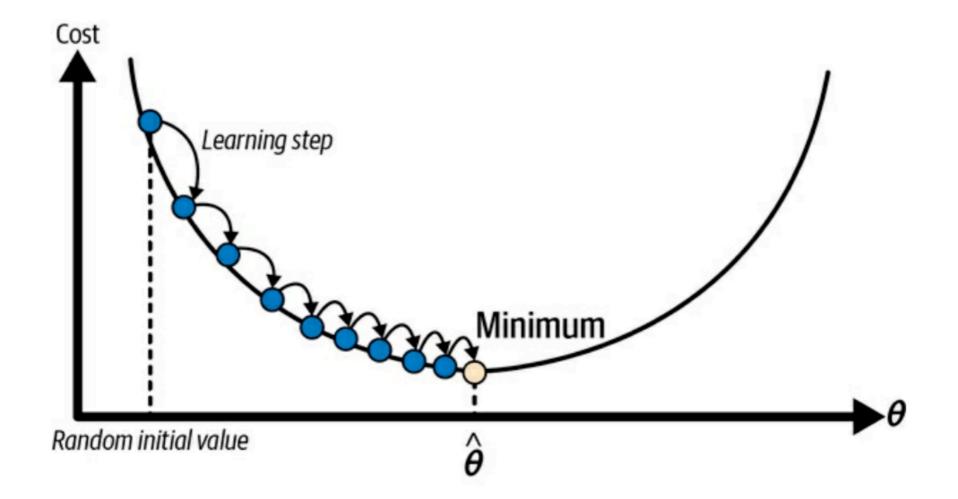
- There are a large number of features
- There are too many training instances to fit in memory

• For these cases, use Gradient Descent

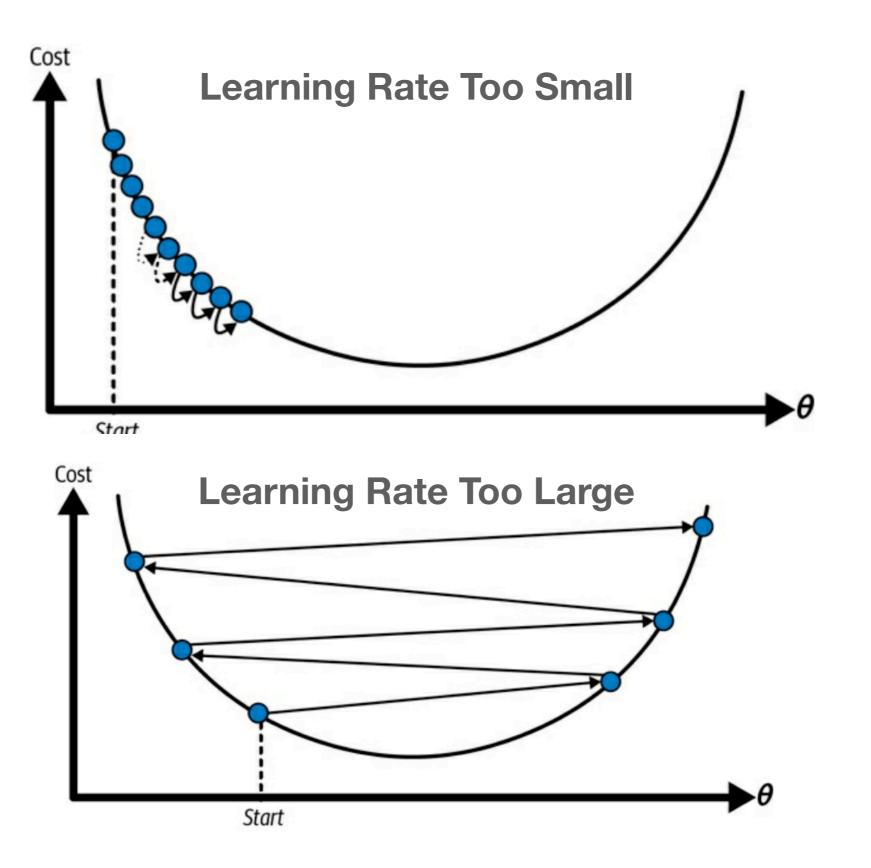
#### **Gradient Descent**

# **How Gradient Descent Works**

- Start with random parameters
- Step in direction of steepest descent



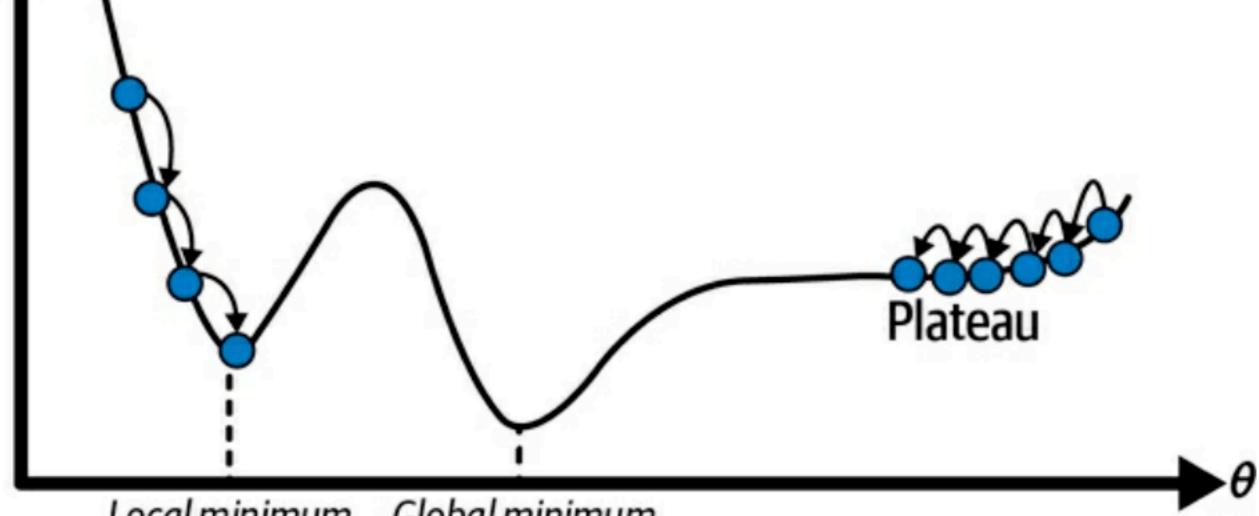
# Learning Rate



### Pitfalls

Cost

- Converge to a *local minimum*
- Waste time on a *plateu*



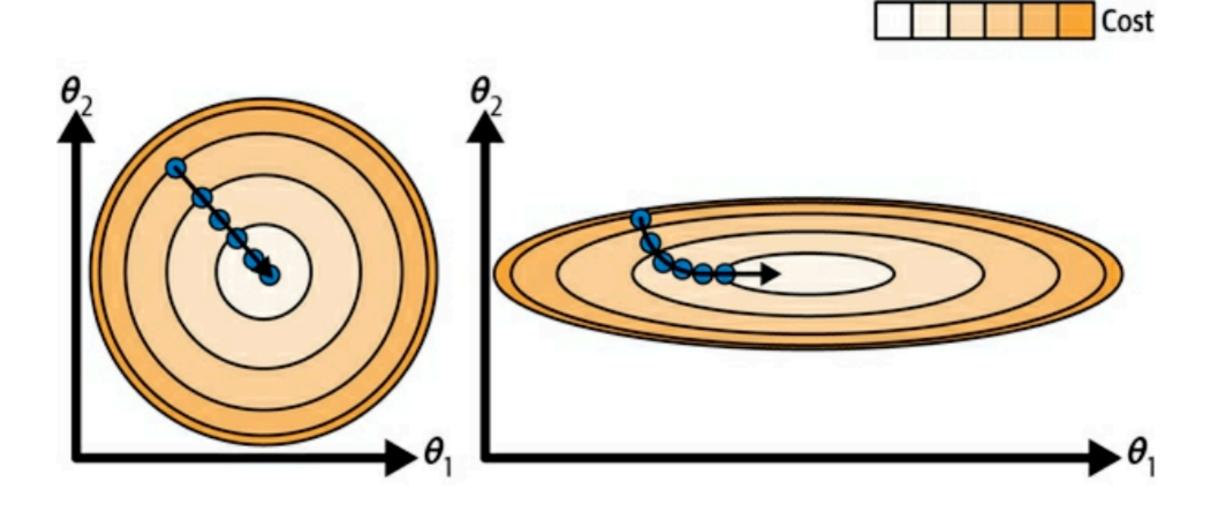
Local minimum Global minimum

# Mean Squared Error

- A convex function
  - No local minima, just one global minimum
- Continuous function
  - Slope never changes abruptly

## **Feature Scaling**

• Converges most rapidly when all features have the same scale



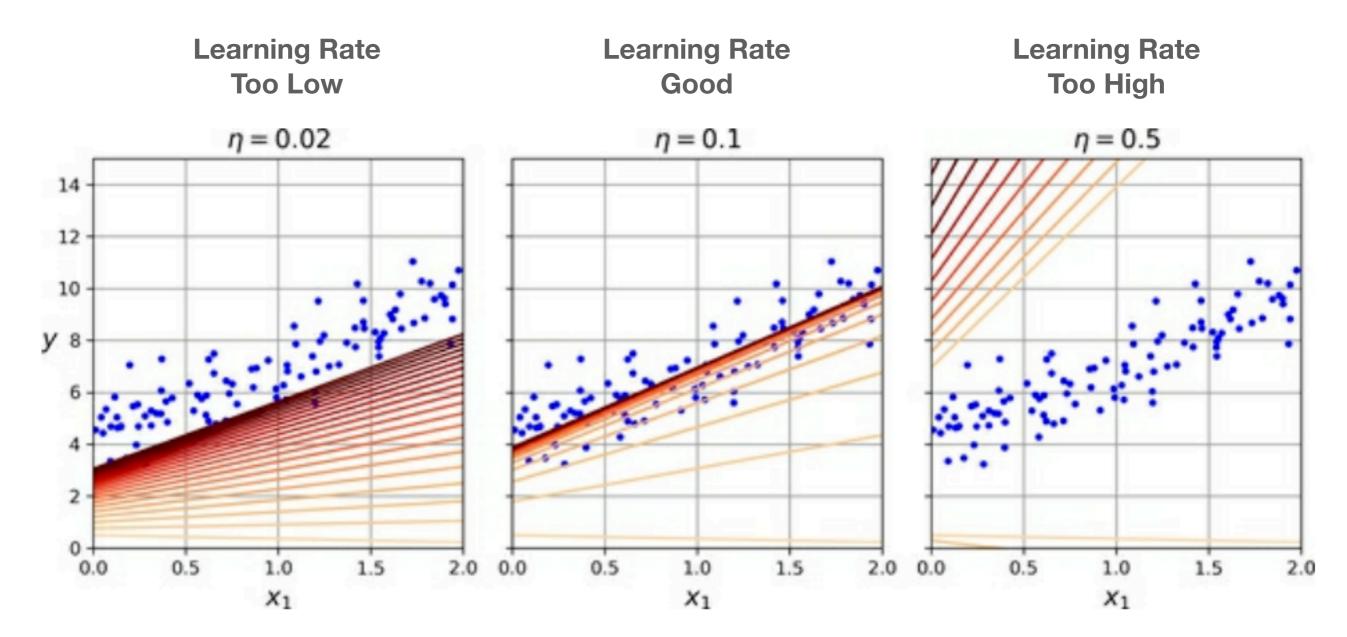
### **Batch Gradient Descent**

Equation 4-5. Partial derivatives of the cost function

$$rac{\partial}{\partial heta_j} \mathrm{MSE}\left(oldsymbol{ heta}
ight) = rac{2}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(oldsymbol{ heta}^\intercal \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}
ight) \, x_j^{(i)}$$

- The slope of the descent can be easily computed for linear models
- It uses the whole training data at each step
  - Very slow on large training sets
- Scales linearly with number of features
  - Much faster than Normal equation

#### **Gradient Descent with Various Learning Rates**



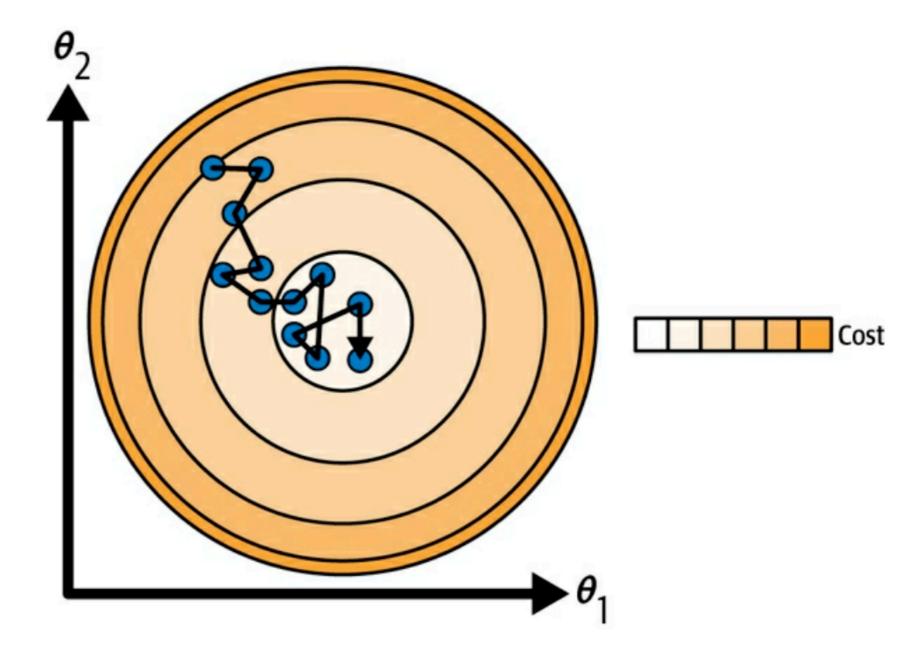
• Find the best learning rate with a grid search

### **Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)**

- Gradient descent uses the whole training set for each step
- Stochastic Gradient Descent
  - Picks a random instance in the training set at every step
  - Computes the gradient from that instance
  - Much faster, and can use huge training sets

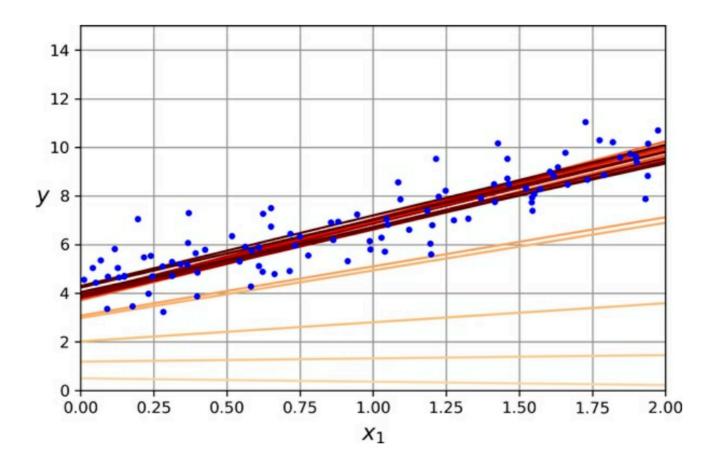
# **Stochastic Gradient Descent**

- Cost does not decrease with each step
- Bounces around randomly
- Decreases on average
- Never settles down to minimum
- If cost function is irregular, this can help it jump out of local minima



# Learning Schedule

- Gradually decrease learning rate
  - Causes stochastic gradient descent to settle at the global minimum
  - Similar to simulated annealing

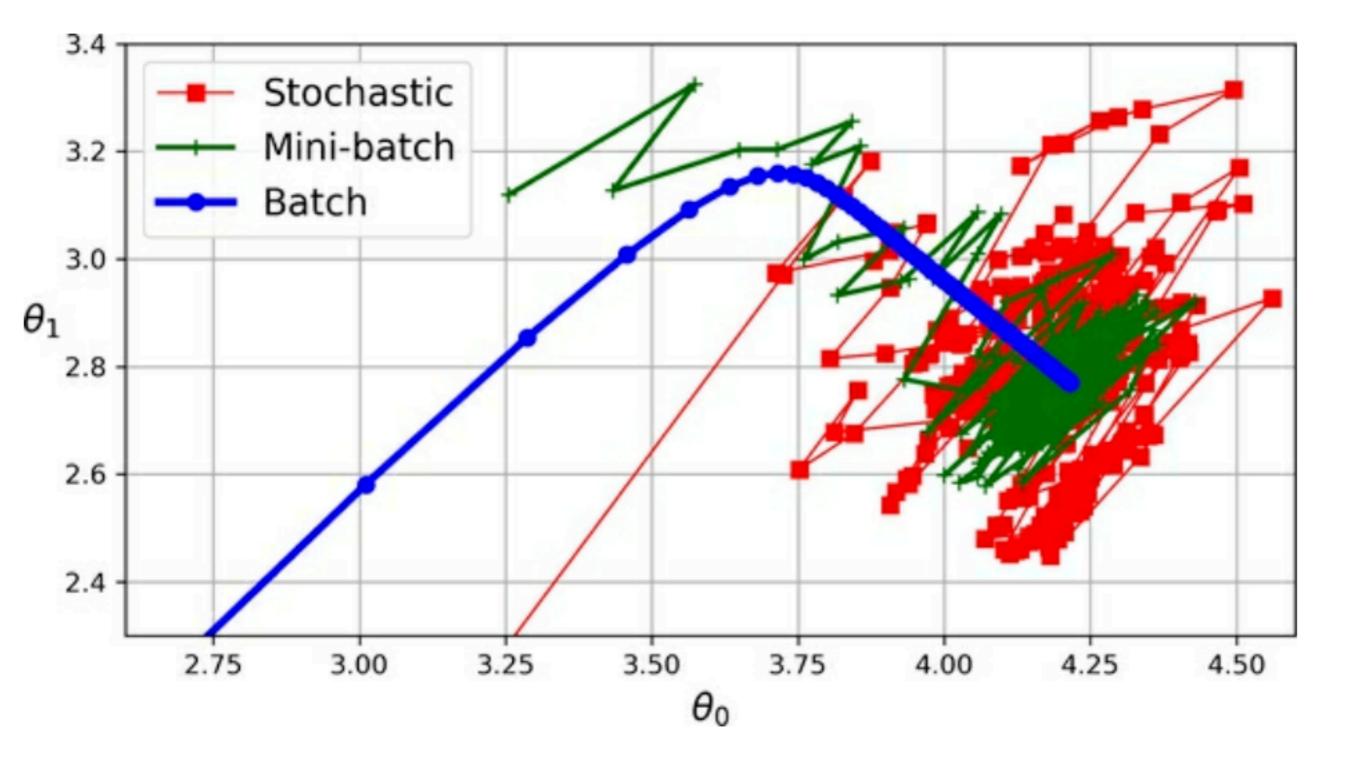


# Shuffling

- If the training set is sorted
  - SGD will first use one category of data, then switch to another
  - It won't converge to the global minimum
- To avoid this, shuffle the training data at each epoch
  - Or pick each instance randomly

# Mini-Batch Gradient Descent

- At each step, compute the gradient using small random sets of training instances (called *mini-batches*)
- Gets a performance boost from hardware optimization of matrix operatins, especially GPUs
- Less erratic than SGD
  - Especially with large mini-batches
  - But it may get stuck in local minima



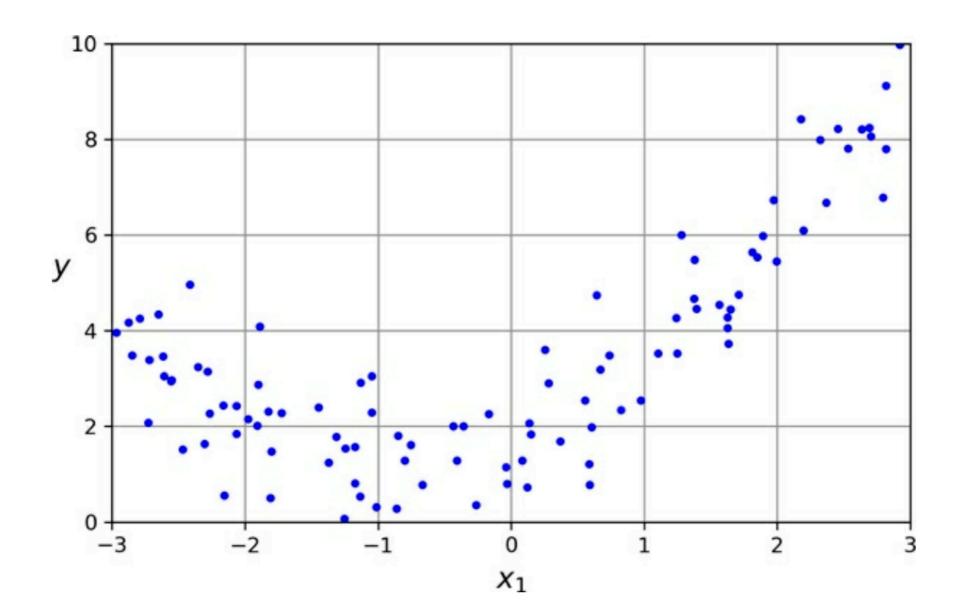
#### **Polynomial Regression**

#### **Use a Linear Model to Fit Nonlinear Data**

- Add powers of features as new features
- Train a linear model on the new features

#### **Quadratic Data**

```
np.random.seed(42)
m = 100
X = 6 * np.random.rand(m, 1) - 3
y = 0.5 * X ** 2 + X + 2 + np.random.randn(m, 1)
```



#### **Add Squared Feature as a New Feature**

```
>>> from sklearn.preprocessing import PolynomialFeatures
>>> poly_features = PolynomialFeatures(degree=2, include_bias=False)
>>> X_poly = poly_features.fit_transform(X)
>>> X[0]
array([-0.75275929])
>>> X_poly[0]
array([-0.75275929, 0.56664654])
```

- Original X has only one value
- X\_poly has two values per instance

#### Fit Linear Regression to Extended Training Data

>>> lin\_reg = LinearRegression()
>>> lin\_reg.fit(X\_poly, y)
>>> lin\_reg.intercept\_, lin\_reg.coef\_
(array([1.78134581]), array([[0.93366893, 0.56456263]]))

Not bad: the model estimates  $\hat{y} = 0.56x_1^2 + 0.93x_1 + 1.78$  when in fact the original function was  $y = 0.5x_1^2 + 1.0x_1 + 2.0 + \text{Gaussian noise}$ .

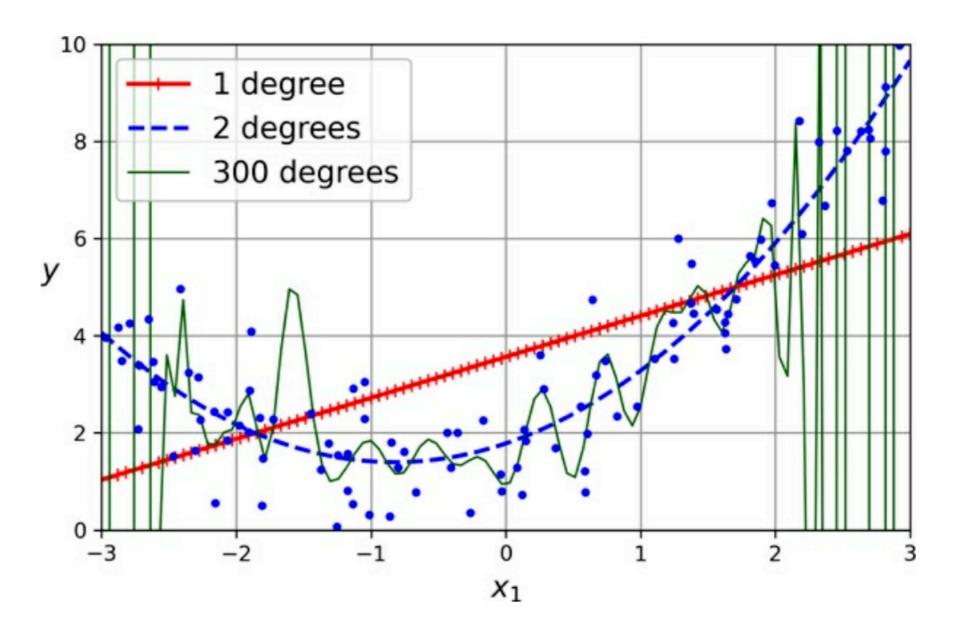


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#### Learning Curves

# Various Polynomials

- Line underfits the data (1 degree)
- 300 degrees overfits the data
- We could evaluate these models with crossvalidation

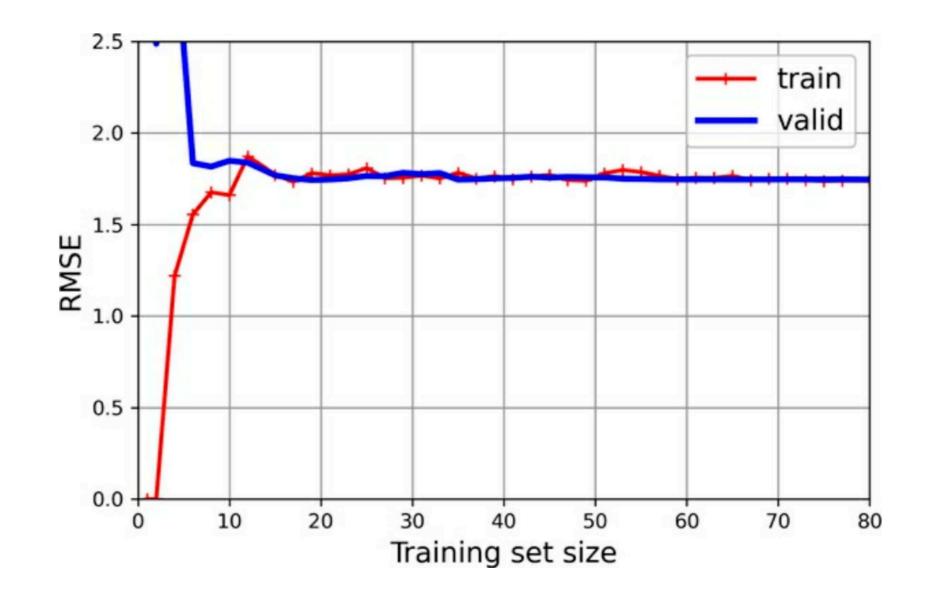


# Learning Curves

- Another way to measure a model's performance
- Plot training error and validation error
  - As a function of training iteration
- If a model canot be trained incrementally, use gradually larger subsets of the training data

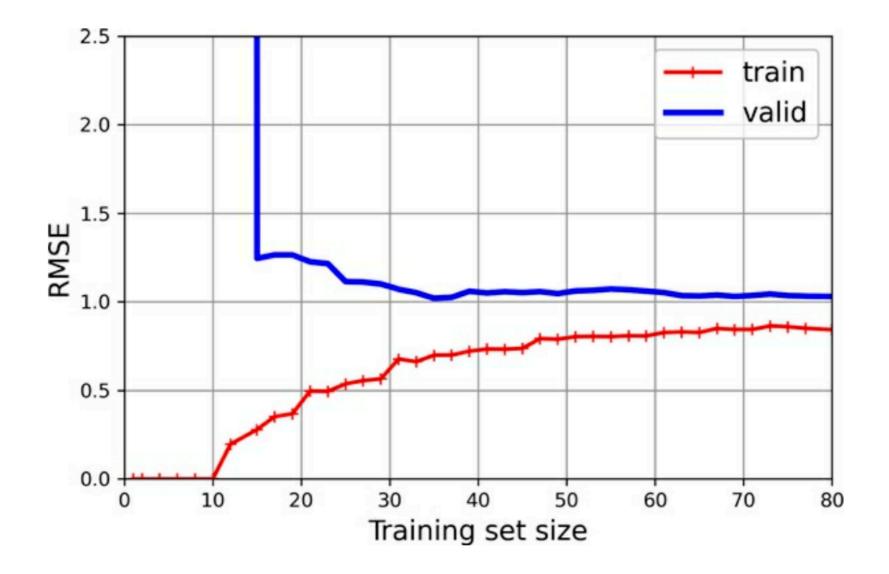
#### **Underfitting: Linear Model, Quadratic Data**

- Model can fit one or two training instances perfectly
- Model plateaus and stops improving when more data is added



#### **Overfitting: 10th Degree Model, Quadratic Data**

- Training error is always less than validation error
- Adding a lot more data can correct the overfitting



# **Types of Error**

#### • Bias

- Caused by wrong assumptions, underfitting
- Such as using a linear model to fit quadratic data

#### Variance

- Model with too many parameters
- Overfitting the training data

#### Irreducible error

- Noise in the data
- Increasing a model's complexity will increase variance and reduce bias

#### **Regularized Linear Models**

## **Regularizing the Model**

- Reduce the number of polynomial degrees
- For a linear model, constrain the weights of the model
- Three ways
  - Ridge regression
  - Lasoo regression
  - Elastic net regression

## **Ridge Regression**

Equation 4-8. Ridge regression cost function

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathrm{MSE}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + rac{lpha}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{n} {\theta_i}^2$$

- Squares of parameters are added to the cost function
- Model will keep the weights as small as possible
- Hyperparameter  $\alpha$  controls amount of regularization
  - $\alpha$  of zero is just linear regression
  - Large  $\alpha$  makes all weights small
- This is called the  $\ell_2$  norm, using the square of the weights

#### Various Levels of Ridge Regularization

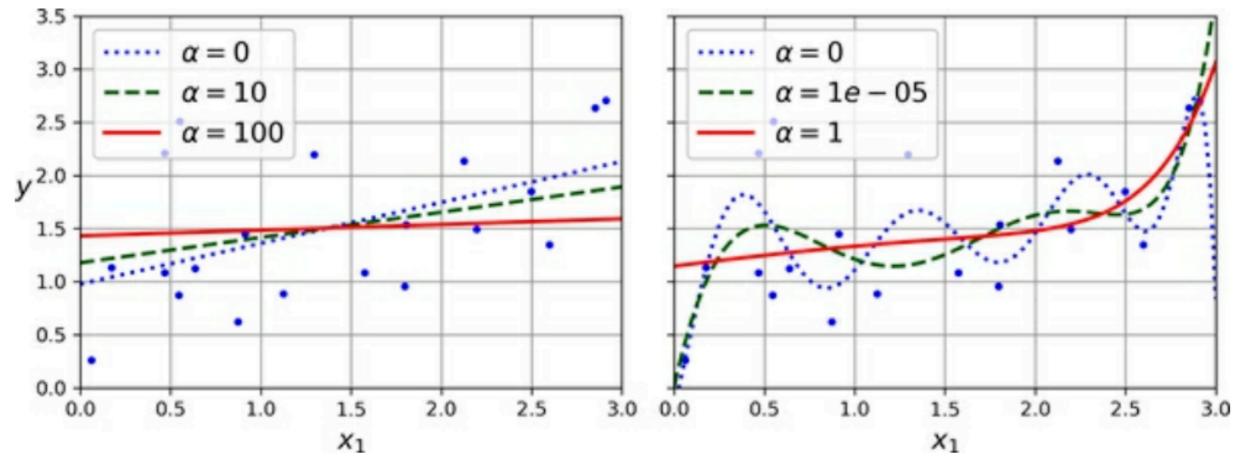


Figure 4-17. Linear (left) and a polynomial (right) models, both with various levels of ridge regularization

#### Lasso Regression

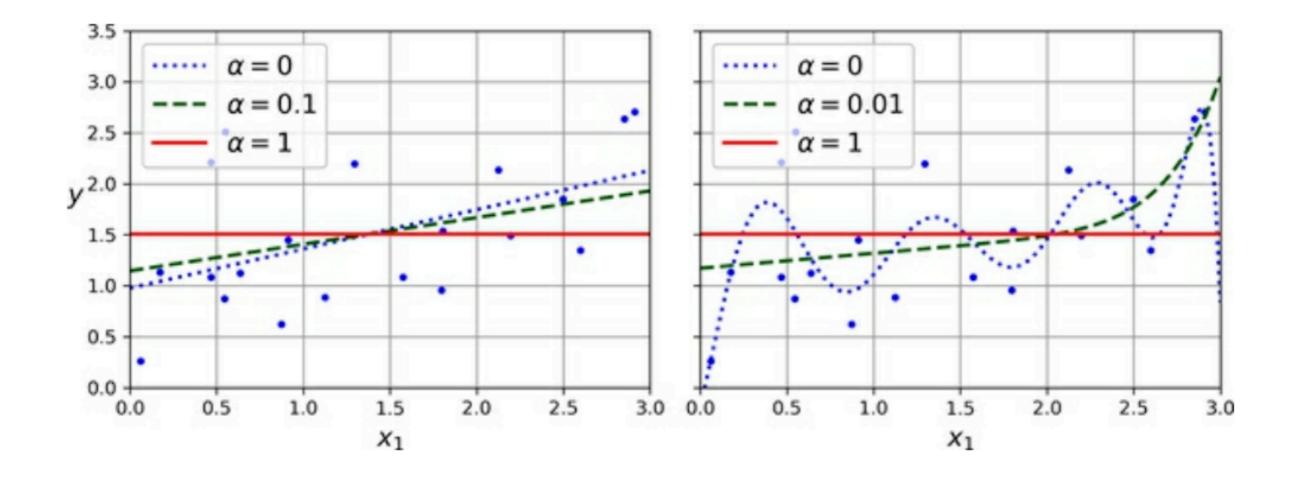
#### Equation 4-10. Lasso regression cost function

$$J(oldsymbol{ heta}) = \mathrm{MSE}(oldsymbol{ heta}) + 2lpha \sum_{i=1}^n | heta_i|$$

- Least absolute shrinkage and selection operator regression
- Uses the  $\ell_1$  norm, using the absolute value of the weights

#### Lasso Regression

• Tends to eliminate the weights of the least important features



## **Elastic Net Regression**

Equation 4-12. Elastic net cost function

 $J(oldsymbol{ heta}) = ext{MSE}(oldsymbol{ heta}) + r\left(2lpha\sum_{i=1}^n | heta_i|
ight) + \left(1-r
ight)\left(rac{lpha}{m}\sum_{i=1}^n heta_i^2
ight)$ 

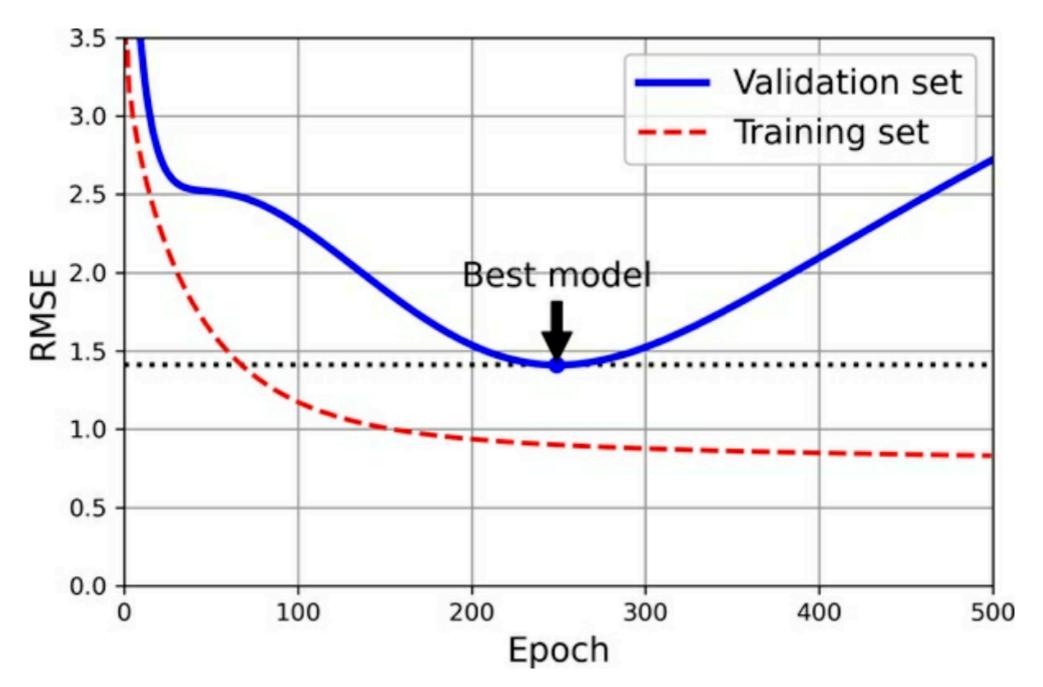
- Middle ground between ridge regression and lasoo regression
- Uses both  $\ell_1$  and  $\ell_2$  norms

## Which to Use?

- Linear regression without regularization
  - Usually a bad choice
- Ridge regression is a good default
- If you suspect that only a few features are useful,
  - Use lasoo or elastic net
- Elastic net is preferred over lasoo
  - Lasoo can behave erratically
    - When the number of features is larger than the number of training instances, or
    - When several features are strongly correlated

## **Early Stopping**

- A way to regularize gradient descent
- Stop training as soon as the validation error reaches a minimum



#### **Logistic Regression**

## Classification

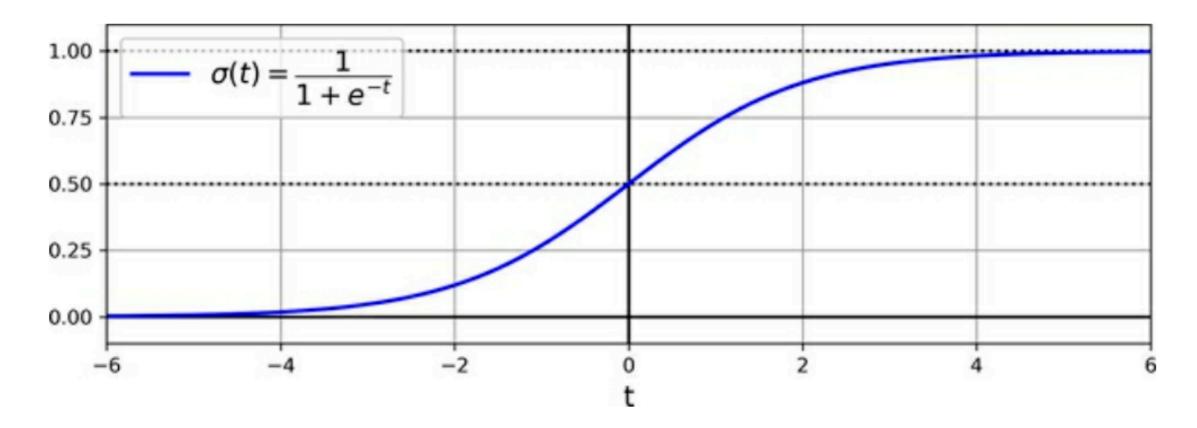
- A way to use a regression algorithm for classification
- Output of the regression measures probability of a classification
  - Such as whether an email is spam
- If the output is greater than a threshold (typically 50%)
  - The classification is *positive class* (True)

## **Logistic Function**

Logistic regression model estimated probability (vectorized form)

$$\hat{p} = h_{\theta} \left( \mathbf{x} \right) = \sigma \left( \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x} \right)$$

$$\sigma\left(t
ight)=rac{1}{1+\exp\left(-t
ight)}$$



## **Cost Function**

Equation 4-16. Cost function of a single training instance

$$c(oldsymbol{ heta}) = egin{cases} -\log(\hat{p}) & ext{if } y = 1 \ -\log(1-\hat{p}) & ext{if } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

- If model has a low probability for a positive instance
  - p is near zero, top row
  - Large cost
- If model has high probability for a negative instance
  - p is near one, bottom row
  - Large cost

## **Logistic Cost Function**

- No closed-form solution
- But cost function is convex
- Gradient descent works well

#### **Example: Iris Dataset**

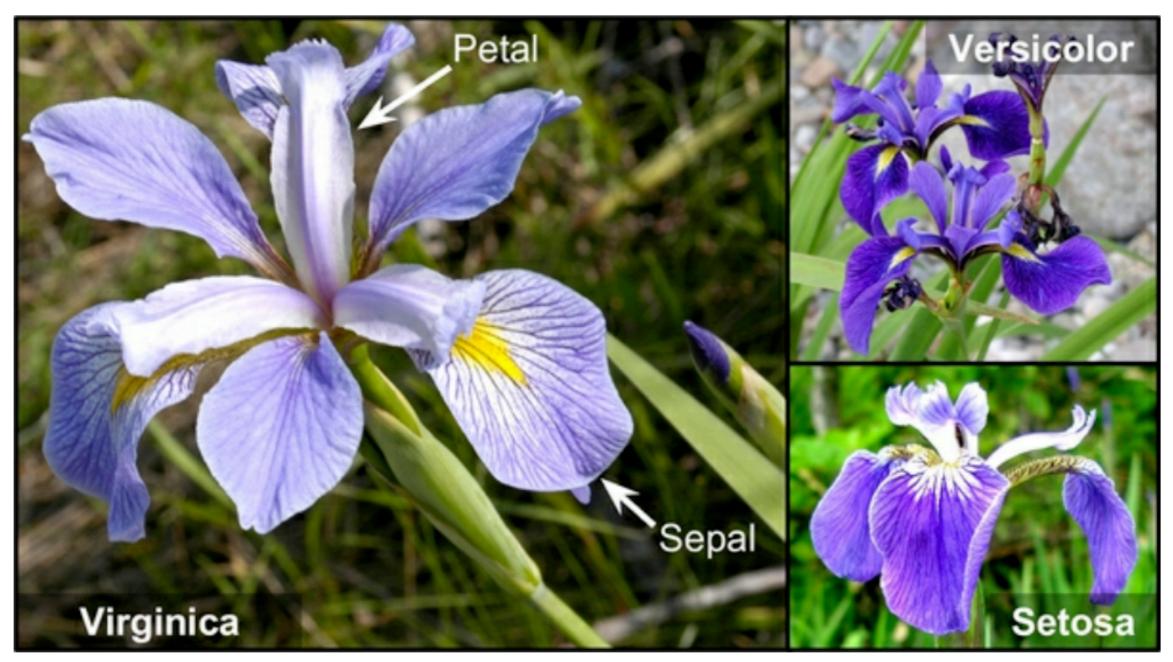


Figure 4-22. Flowers of three iris plant species 12

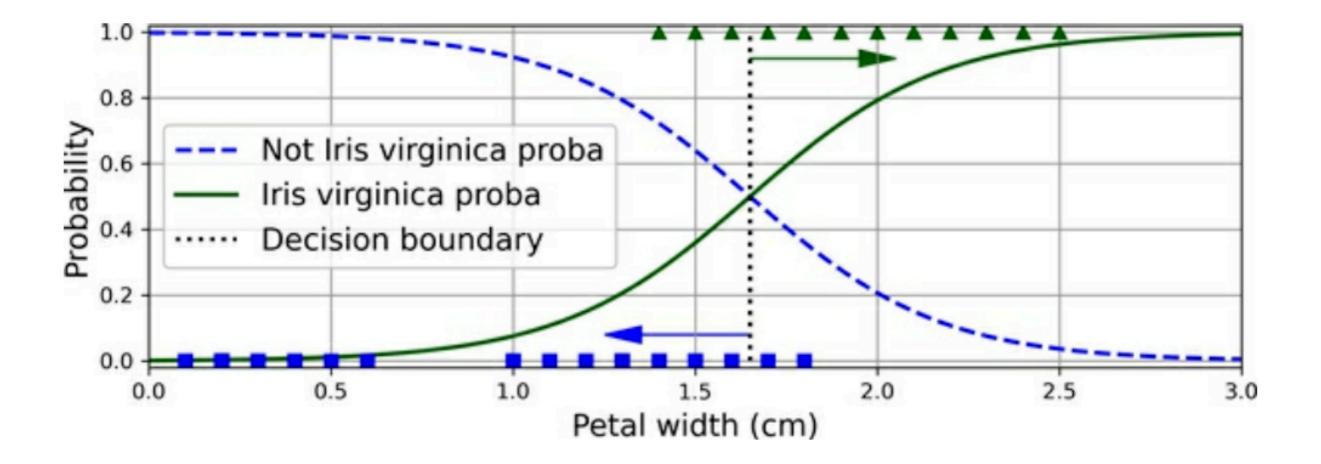
#### **Three Features**

```
>>> from sklearn.datasets import load_iris
>>> iris = load_iris(as_frame=True)
>>> list(iris)
['data', 'target', 'frame', 'target_names', 'DESCR', 'feature_names',
 'filename', 'data_module']
>>> iris.data.head(3)
   sepal length (cm) sepal width (cm) petal length (cm) petal width (cm)
0
                 5.1
                                   3.5
                                                      1.4
                                                                        0.2
                 4.9
                                   3.0
                                                      1.4
                                                                        0.2
1
2
                 4.7
                                   3.2
                                                      1.3
                                                                        0.2
```

- Sepal width
- Petal length
- Petal width

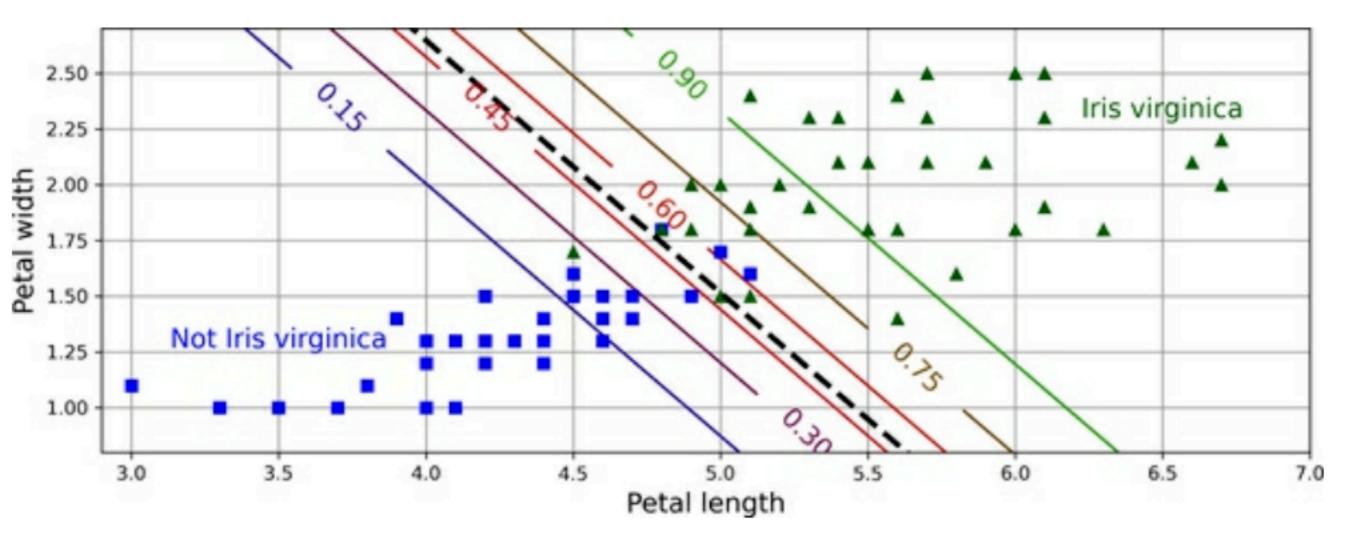
# **Using Only Petal Width**

- Iris virginica proba has wider petals
- But there's considerable overlap



#### **Using Petal Length and Petal Width**

• Dashed line is 50% probability





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