# Regression

#### Purdue ME 597, Distributed Energy Resources

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Regression overview

Example: Polynomial interpolation

Example: Thermal resistance from thermostat data

- extracting information from data, usually to make predictions
- includes two general tasks:
  - 1. build a model from data
  - 2. validate the model (assess performance on unseen data)
- a supervised learning model predicts targets given features
  - ◊ regression predicts real-valued targets
  - $\diamond~$  classification predicts targets from finite sets such as  $\{-1,1\}$
- unsupervised learning creates a model of the data

## Training and validation

- our true goal is to predict unseen data
- good practice: divide the full dataset into
  - 1. training data for choosing model parameters
  - 2. validation data for evaluating candidate models
- overfit models
  - o perform well on training data, but not on validation data
  - $\diamond~$  likely won't generalize well to unseen data

## Embeddings

- denote raw input, output data by  $u^{(i)} \in \mathcal{U}$ ,  $v^{(i)} \in \mathcal{V}$ 
  - $\diamond~\mathcal{U}$  is the set of possible input data
  - $\diamond~\mathcal{V}$  is the set of possible output data
- we often transform each
  - ♦ raw input  $u^{(i)}$  into a feature  $x^{(i)} = \phi(u^{(i)}) \in \mathbf{R}^{n_x}$
  - $\diamond$  raw output  $v^{(i)}$  into a target  $y^{(i)} = \psi(v^{(i)}) \in \mathbf{R}^{n_y}$
- $\phi: \mathcal{U} \to \mathbf{R}^{n_{x}}$  and  $\psi: \mathcal{V} \to \mathbf{R}^{n_{y}}$  are called **embeddings**
- we'll assume  $n_y = 1$  from now on, but methods extend to vector  $y^{(i)}$

## **Faithful** embeddings satisfy $\phi(u) \approx \phi(\tilde{u}) \iff u \approx \tilde{u}$

example: suppose  $\mathcal{U} = \{0, \dots, 23\}$  contains hour-of-day data

- problem: midnight  $\approx 11$  PM, but 0  $\not\approx 23$
- idea: choose  $\phi(u) = \sin(\frac{2\pi u}{24})$ , so  $\phi(0) \approx \phi(23)$
- new problem: midnight  $\not\approx$  noon, but  $\sin(0) = \sin(\pi)$
- faithful embedding:  $\phi(u) = \left(\sin(\frac{2\pi u}{24}), \cos(\frac{2\pi u}{24})\right)$



#### Standardization and normalization

- model training tends to work better when feature scales are similar
- standardization and normalization are two ways to rescale data
- standardization embedding,  $x_j^{(i)} = (u_j^{(i)} \mu_j)/\sigma_j$  with

$$\mu_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n u_j^{(i)}, \ \sigma_j = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (u_j^{(i)} - \mu_j)^2},$$

makes  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_j^{(i)} = 0$ ,  $\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_j^{(i)})^2} = 1$ 

• normalization embedding,  $x_j^{(i)} = (u_j^{(i)} - \underline{u}_j)/(\overline{u}_j - \underline{u}_j)$  with

$$\underline{u}_j = \min\left\{u_j^{(1)}, \ldots, u_j^{(n)}\right\}, \ \overline{u}_j = \max\left\{u_j^{(1)}, \ldots, u_j^{(n)}\right\},$$

makes each  $x_j^{(i)}$  lie between zero and one

### Models

- a model is a function  $f_{\theta}: \mathbf{R}^{n_{x}} \to \mathbf{R}$
- notation  $f_{ heta}$  emphasizes dependence on parameters  $heta \in \mathbf{R}^{n_{ heta}}$
- a good model predicts  $f_{\theta}(x) \approx y$  for unseen (x, y) data
- many possible model structures:
  - $\diamond$  linear models
  - ◊ nearest neighbors
  - ◊ neural networks
  - $\diamond~$  regression trees
  - ◊ support vector machines
  - ٥ . . .

#### Linear models

- linear models have the form  $f_{\theta}(x) = \theta^{\top} x$  (so  $n_{\theta} = n_x$ )
- usually, we embed with a constant feature  $x_1 = 1$ , so

$$f_{ heta}(x) = heta_1 + heta_2 x_2 + \dots + heta_{n_x} x_{n_x}$$

• in training, we choose  $\theta$  such that each  $f_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) \approx y^{(i)}$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \theta^{\top} x^{(1)} \\ \vdots \\ \theta^{\top} x^{(n)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (x^{(1)})^{\top} \theta \\ \vdots \\ (x^{(n)})^{\top} \theta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (x^{(1)})^{\top} \\ \vdots \\ (x^{(n)})^{\top} \end{bmatrix} \theta \approx \begin{bmatrix} y^{(1)} \\ \vdots \\ y^{(n)} \end{bmatrix}$$

• can write this as  $X\theta \approx Y$ , where

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} (x^{(1)})^{\top} \\ \vdots \\ (x^{(n)})^{\top} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(1)} & \dots & x_{n_x}^{(1)} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_1^{(n)} & \dots & x_{n_x}^{(n)} \end{bmatrix}, \quad Y = \begin{bmatrix} y^{(1)} \\ \vdots \\ y^{(n)} \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Loss functions

- a loss function  $\ell_i : \mathbf{R}^{n_{\theta}} \to \mathbf{R}$  quantifies how badly  $f_{\theta}(x^{(i)})$  misses  $y^{(i)}$
- square loss:  $\ell_i(\theta) = (f_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) y^{(i)})^2$
- absolute loss:  $\ell_i(\theta) = \left| f_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) y^{(i)} \right|$



#### Mean loss

• the mean loss  $\mathcal{L}: \mathbf{R}^{n_{\theta}} \to \mathbf{R}$  is

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell_i(\theta)$$

• with square loss,  $\mathcal{L}$  is the mean square error (MSE):

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (f_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$$

• with absolute loss,  $\mathcal{L}$  is the mean absolute error (MAE):

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left| f_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)} \right|$$

#### Regularization

- a model  $f_{\theta}$  is **insensitive** if  $f_{\theta}(x) \approx f_{\theta}(\tilde{x})$  when  $x \approx \tilde{x}$
- insensitive models tend to generalize better
- a regularizer  $r: \mathbf{R}^{n_{\theta}} \to \mathbf{R}$  quantifies the sensitivity of  $f_{\theta}$
- for linear model  $f_{\theta}(x) = \theta^{\top} x$ ,

$$\frac{\partial f_{\theta}(x)}{\partial x_j} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left( \theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_j x_j + \dots + \theta_{n_x} x_{n_x} \right) = \theta_j$$

 $\implies$   $f_{ heta}$  should be less sensitive if heta is smaller

• two common regularizers:

$$\Rightarrow \text{ ridge or } \ell_2: r(\theta) = \|\theta\|_2^2 = \theta_1^2 + \dots + \theta_{n_\theta}^2$$

- ◇ **lasso** or  $\ell_1$ :  $r(\theta) = \|\theta\|_1 = |\theta_1| + \cdots + |\theta_{n_\theta}|$
- with constant feature  $x_1 = 1$ , typically omit  $\theta_1$  from regularization

#### Lasso regularization promotes sparsity

- a vector is **sparse** if it has few nonzero elements
- if  $\theta_j = 0$  in linear model  $f_{\theta}(x) = \theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_{n_x} x_{n_x}$ , then
  - $\diamond$  feature  $x_j$  has no influence on predictions
  - $\diamond$  might as well omit  $x_j$  and simplify model training, evaluation
- lasso regularizer  $| heta_1|+\dots+| heta_{n_{\! X}}|$  promotes sparsity of heta



- choosing  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  is called  $\mathbf{training}$  the model
- two competing goals:
  - 1. fit training data well by making  $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$  small
  - 2. generalize well by making  $r(\theta)$  small
- to balance them, choose  $\theta$  to minimize  $\mathcal{L}(\theta) + \lambda r(\theta)$
- regularization hyperparameter  $\lambda \ge 0$  governs tradeoff: 1 vs. 2

## Training linear models, $f_{\theta}(x) = \theta^{\top} x$

 $\bullet$  with linear model, square loss, and  $\ell_2$  regularization,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\theta) + \lambda r(\theta) &= (X\theta - Y)^{\top} (X\theta - Y)/n + \lambda \theta^{\top} \theta \\ &= (\theta^{\top} X^{\top} X \theta - 2Y^{\top} X \theta + Y^{\top} Y)/n + \lambda \theta^{\top} I \theta \\ &= [\theta^{\top} (X^{\top} X + n\lambda I) \theta - 2Y^{\top} X \theta - Y^{\top} Y]/n \end{aligned}$$

• since 
$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) + \lambda r(\theta) = \theta^\top P \theta + q^\top \theta + r$$
, gradient is  $2P \theta + q$ 

$$2P\theta^{\star} + q = 0 \iff \theta^{\star} = (X^{\top}X + n\lambda I)^{-1}X^{\top}Y$$

- inverse always exists if  $\lambda>0$
- if  $\lambda = 0$  (no regularization), X needs linearly independent columns
- to omit  $\theta_1$  regularization, replace  $I_{n_x}$  by  $E^{\top}E$ , where

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I_{n_x-1} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{R}^{n_x-1 \times n_x}$$

• no formula for absolute loss or  $\ell_1$  regularization, but convex problems

## Validation

 $\bullet$  true goal: choose embeddings  $\phi,\,\psi$  and model  ${\it f}_{\theta}$  such that

$$\psi^{-1}(f_{\theta}(\phi(u))) \approx v$$

for unseen (u, v) data

- we can't test this until unseen data are revealed
- instead, validation
  - $\diamond~$  holds back some data from training
  - $\diamond~$  evaluates performance on held-back data

## Out-of-sample validation

- split data into training and validation (say, 70/30, 80/20, or 90/10)
- choose starter embeddings, model structure, hyperparameters
- repeat:
  - $\diamond~$  change embeddings, model structure, or hyperparameters
  - $\diamond\,$  train model in training data
  - $\diamond\,$  if performance degrades in validation data, revert change

until performance in validation data is acceptable

#### K-folds validation

- divide data into K folds
- for  $k = 1, \ldots, K$ 
  - $\diamond\,$  train on all data except fold k
  - $\diamond$  compute mean loss on fold k,  $\mathcal{L}_k(\theta)$
- evaluate performance using mean (over all folds) of mean losses,

$$ar{\mathcal{L}}( heta) = rac{1}{K}\sum_{i=1}^{K}\mathcal{L}_k( heta)$$

## Summary: How to build regression models

- choose a loss function to rate how badly predictions miss targets
- choose a regularizer to rate model sensitivity
- split data into training and validation
- repeat:
  - choose how to embed raw data into features and targets (feature engineering)
  - choose a model structure and hyperparameters (model selection and hyperparameter tuning)
  - choose model parameters to minimize regularized mean training loss (training)

until validation performance is acceptable

• retrain model on all (training + validation) data



Regression overview

Example: Polynomial interpolation

Example: Thermal resistance from thermostat data

### Problem

- goal: approximate an unknown function  $g: [-1,1] 
  ightarrow {f R}$
- n = 50 noisy raw data points:
  - $\diamond$  inputs  $u^{(1)}, \ldots, u^{(50)}$  are evenly spaced on [-1, 1]
  - $\diamond$  outputs  $v^{(i)}$  are noisy observations of  $g(u^{(i)})$
- want to predict unseen data between the 50 points



## Solution approach

- linear model, square loss
- high-order polynomial feature embeddings with normalization
- standardization target embedding
- K-folds validation with K = 10
- two stages of regularization with hyperparameter tuning:
  - ◊ lasso to select important features
  - $\diamond~$  ridge to reduce model sensitivity to selected features

#### Embeddings

• start with 25th degree polynomial feature embedding:

$$z^{(i)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ u^{(i)} \\ \vdots \\ (u^{(i)})^{25} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x^{(i)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ (z_2^{(i)} - \underline{z}_2)/(\overline{z}_2 - \underline{z}_2) \\ \vdots \\ (z_j^{(i)} - \underline{z}_{26})/(\overline{z}_{26} - \underline{z}_{26}) \end{bmatrix}$$

• standardize targets:  $y^{(i)} = (v^{(i)} - \mu)/\sigma$ 

#### Unregularized model overfits training data



mean losses in fold 1: 0.188 training, 4,577 validation





















#### Feature selection via lasso regularization























#### Hyperparameter tuning via ridge regularization



#### Final model



# Summary

- 'linear models' are linear in  $\theta$  and x, can be highly nonlinear in u
- general approach works for many problems
  - 1. embed raw inputs into a large number of candidate features
  - 2. select features via lasso regularization and K-folds validation
  - 3. 'polish' model with selected features and ridge regularization
- step 3 is fast (exact formula for square loss and ridge regularization)
- step 2 is slower (lasso regularization requires numerical optimization)
- approach also works for nonlinear models, but usually much slower



Regression overview

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Example: Thermal resistance from thermostat data

#### Problem

• estimate thermal resistance R in 1R1C building model,

$$C\frac{\mathsf{d}T(t)}{\mathsf{d}t} = \frac{T_{\mathsf{out}}(t) - T(t)}{R} + q(t) + w(t)$$

- available measurements (5-minute time step, 6-week duration):
  - $\diamond$  indoor temperature T(t)
  - $\diamond$  outdoor temperature  $T_{out}(t)$
  - $\diamond$  heater thermal power q(t)

#### Prior information

• time-average of 1R1C model with  $T(0) \approx T(\tau)$ :

$$\frac{C}{\tau} \int_0^\tau \frac{\mathrm{d}T(t)}{\mathrm{d}t} \mathrm{d}t = \frac{1}{\tau} \int_0^\tau \left[ \frac{T_{\mathrm{out}}(t) - T(t)}{R} + q(t) + w(t) \right] \mathrm{d}t$$
$$\frac{C(T(\tau) - T(0))}{\tau} = \frac{\bar{T}_{\mathrm{out}} - \bar{T}}{R} + \bar{q} + \bar{w}$$
$$\implies \bar{q} \approx \frac{\bar{T} - \bar{T}_{\mathrm{out}}}{R} - \bar{w}$$

where  $ar{q}=rac{1}{ au}\int_{0}^{ au}q(t)\mathrm{d}t$  and so on for  $ar{\mathcal{T}}$ ,  $ar{\mathcal{T}}_{\mathsf{out}}$ ,  $ar{w}$ 

- suggests linear model  $y \approx \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2$  with
  - $\diamond$  target  $y = \bar{q}$
  - $\diamond$  features  $x_1 = 1$ ,  $x_2 = \bar{T} \bar{T}_{\sf out}$
  - $\diamond~$  parameters  $heta_1=-ar{w}$ ,  $heta_2=1/R$
- to avoid solar effects, embed raw data into nightly averages

### Solution approach

- linear model, square loss
- ridge regularization (including on constant feature)
- K-folds validation with K = 100
- only 2 features, so no need for a feature selection step

# Hyperparameter tuning





#### Final model, retrained on all (training + validation) data

