

# CPSC 340: Machine Learning and Data Mining

Least Squares  
Spring 2022 (2021W2)

# Admin

- Assignment 2:
  - Due this Friday! (Or, with late days, Saturday or Sunday.)
- We're going to start using calculus and linear algebra a lot.
  - You should start reviewing these ASAP if you are rusty.
  - A review of relevant calculus concepts is [here](#).
  - A review of relevant linear algebra concepts is [here](#).

# Supervised Learning Round 2: Regression

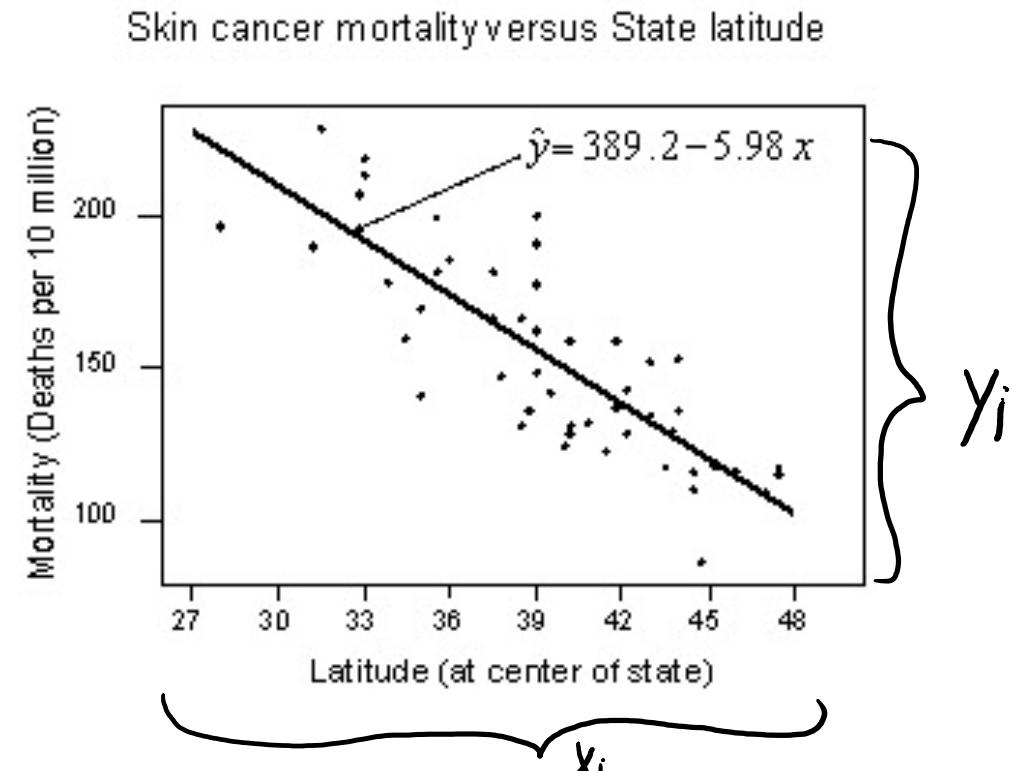
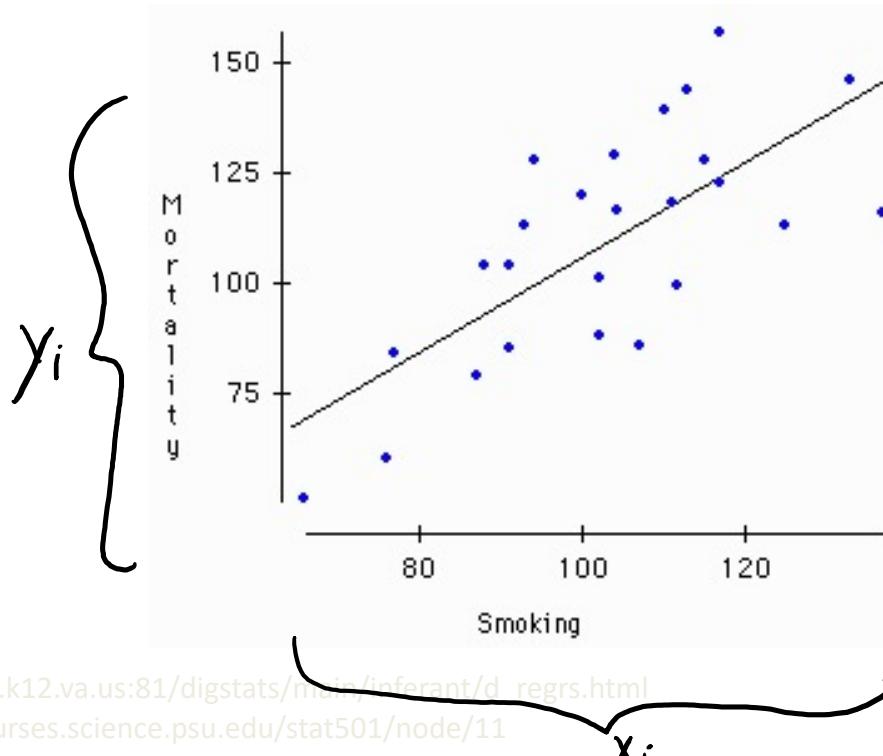
- We're going to revisit **supervised learning**:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \\ & \end{bmatrix} \quad Y = \begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \end{bmatrix}$$

- Previously, we considered **classification**:
  - We assumed  $y_i$  was discrete:  $y_i = \text{'spam'}$  or  $y_i = \text{'not spam'}$ .
- Now we're going to consider **regression**:
  - We allow  $y_i$  to be numerical:  $y_i = 10.34\text{cm}$ .

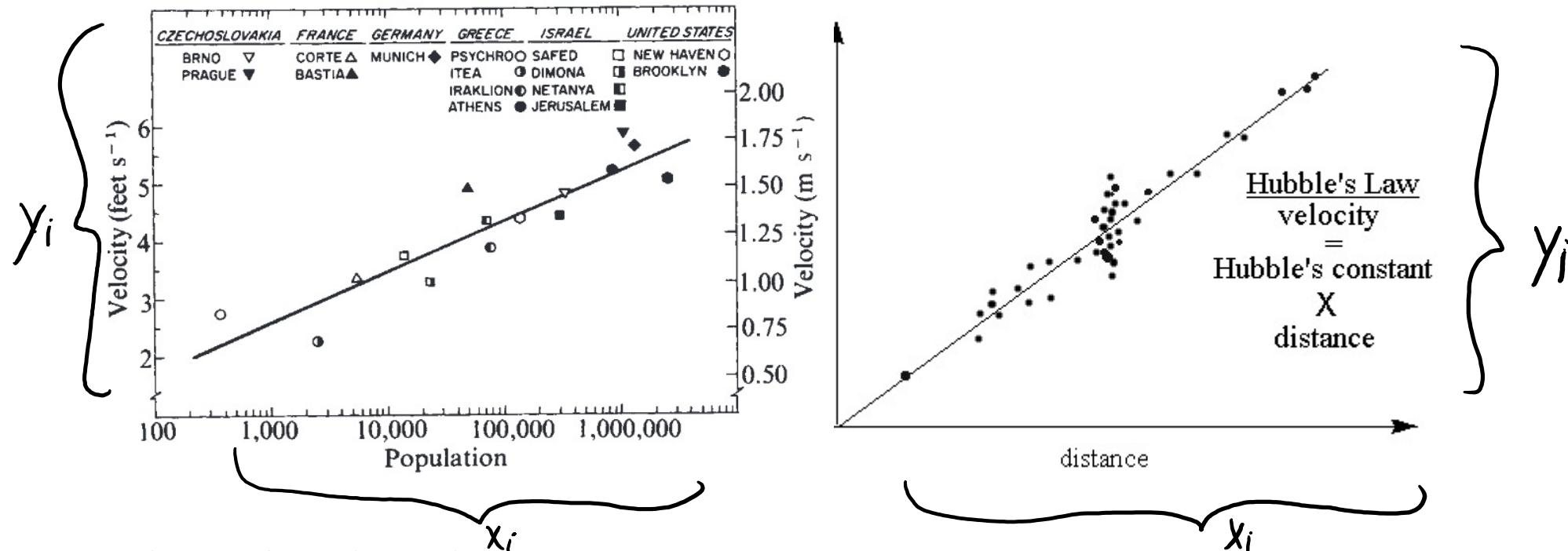
# Example: Dependent vs. Explanatory Variables

- We want to discover relationship between numerical variables:
  - Does number of lung cancer deaths change with number of cigarettes?
  - Does number of skin cancer deaths change with latitude?



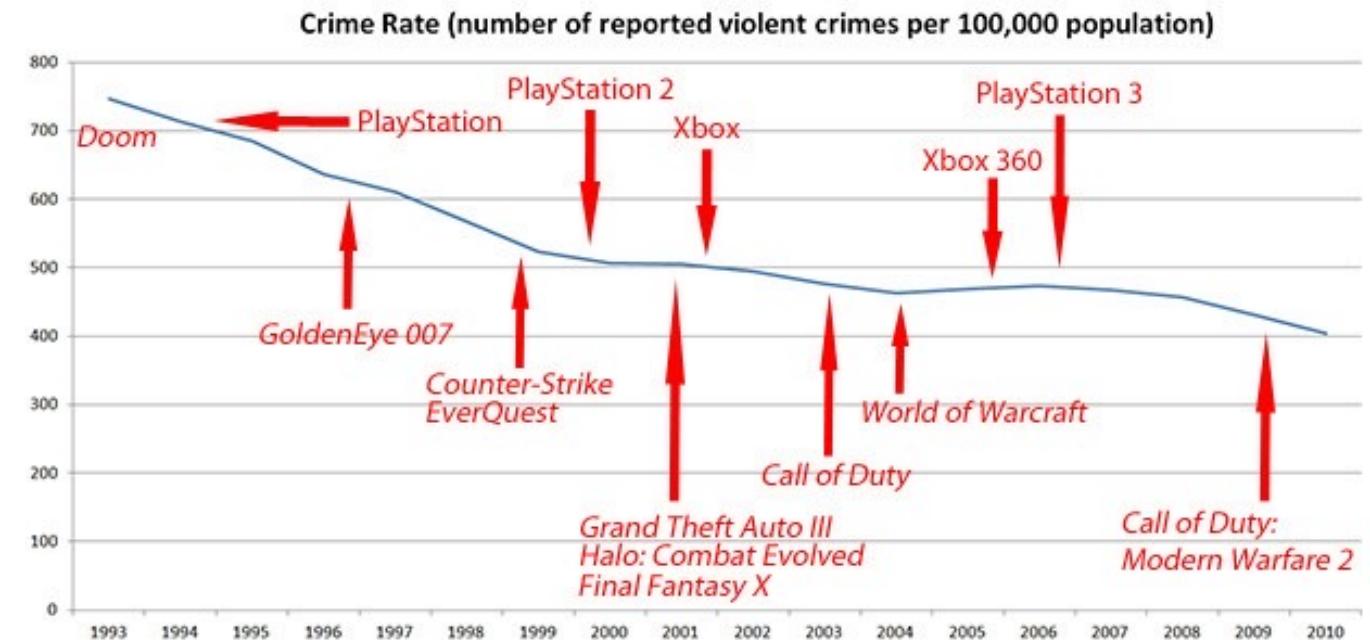
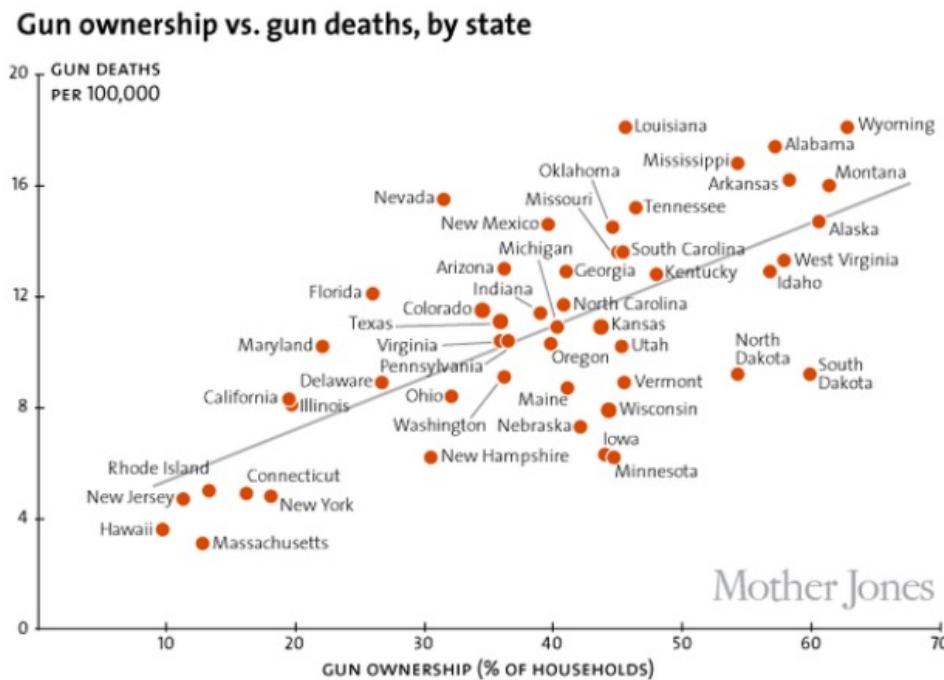
# Example: Dependent vs. Explanatory Variables

- We want to discover relationship between numerical variables:
  - Do people in big cities walk faster?
  - Is the universe expanding or shrinking or staying the same size?



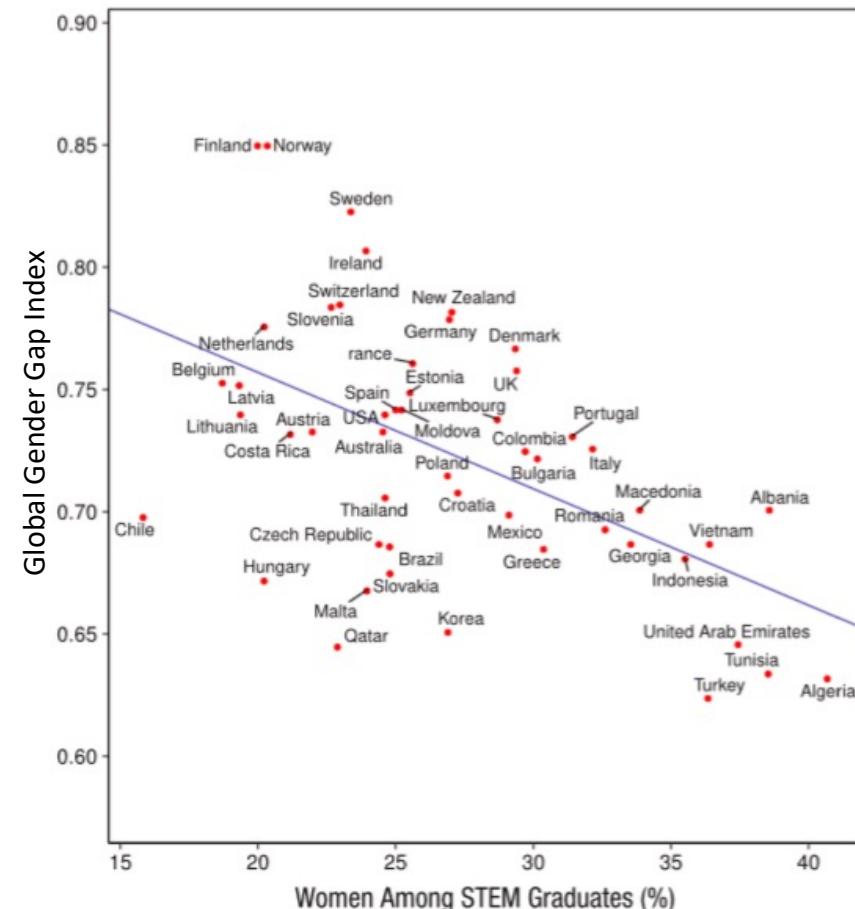
# Example: Dependent vs. Explanatory Variables

- We want to discover relationship between numerical variables:
  - Does number of gun deaths change with gun ownership?
  - Does number violent crimes change with violent video games?



# Example: Dependent vs. Explanatory Variables

- We want to discover relationship between numerical variables:
  - Does higher gender equality index lead to more women STEM grads?
- Not that we're doing supervised learning:
  - Trying to predict value of 1 variable (the ' $y_i$ ' values). (instead of measuring correlation between 2).
- Supervised learning **does not give causality**:
  - OK: "Higher index **is correlated** with lower grad %".
  - OK: "Higher index **helps predict** lower grad %".
  - BAD: "Higher index **leads to** lower grads %".
    - People/media get these confused all the time, be careful!
    - There **are lots of potential reasons** for this correlation.



# Handling Numerical Labels

- One way to handle numerical  $y_i$ : **discretize**.
  - E.g., for ‘age’ could we use {‘age  $\leq 20$ ’, ‘ $20 < \text{age} \leq 30$ ’, ‘ $\text{age} > 30$ ’}.
  - Now we can apply methods for classification to do regression.
  - But **coarse discretization loses resolution**.
  - And **fine discretization requires lots of data**.
- There exist regression versions of classification methods:
  - Regression trees, probabilistic models, non-parametric models.
- Today: one of oldest, but still most popular/important methods:
  - **Linear regression based on squared error**.
  - Interpretable and the building block for more-complex methods.

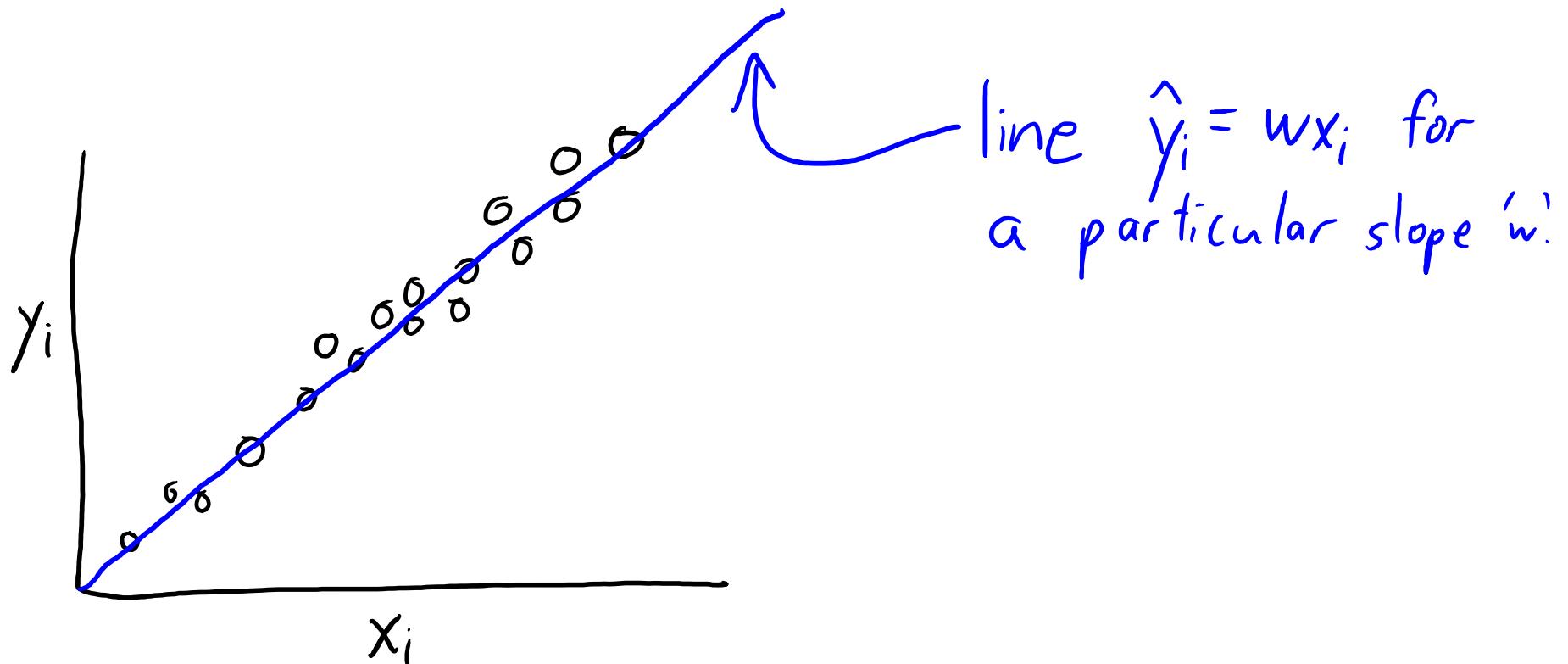
# Linear Regression in 1 Dimension

- Assume we only have 1 feature ( $d = 1$ ):
  - E.g.,  $x_i$  is number of cigarettes and  $y_i$  is number of lung cancer deaths.
- Linear regression makes predictions  $\hat{y}_i$  using a linear function of  $x_i$ :

$$\hat{y}_i = w x_i$$

- The parameter ‘w’ is the weight or regression coefficient of  $x_i$ .
  - We’re temporarily ignoring the y-intercept.
- As  $x_i$  changes, slope ‘w’ affects the rate that  $\hat{y}_i$  increases/decreases:
  - Positive ‘w’:  $\hat{y}_i$  increase as  $x_i$  increases.
  - Negative ‘w’:  $\hat{y}_i$  decreases as  $x_i$  increases.

# Linear Regression in 1 Dimension



bonus!

# Aside: terminology woes

- Different fields use different terminology and symbols.
  - Data points = **objects** = **examples** = rows = observations.
  - **Inputs** = predictors = **features** = explanatory variables = regressors = independent variables = covariates = columns.
  - **Outputs** = outcomes = targets = response variables = dependent variables = labels (especially if it's categorical).
  - Regression coefficients = **weights** = parameters = betas.
- With linear regression, the symbols are inconsistent too:
  - In ML, the data is  $X$  and  $y$ , and the weights are  $w$ ;  $X$  is  $n$  by  $d$ .
  - In statistics, the data is  $X$  and  $y$ , and the weights are  $\beta$ ;  $X$  is  $n$  by  $p$ .
  - In optimization, the data is  $A$  and  $b$ , and the weights are  $x$ ;  $X$  is  $m$  by  $n$ .

# Is linear regression “really” machine learning?

bonus!

Statisticians might hate it....

Darren Dahly, PhD @statsepi · May 4

This nonsense is everywhere now.

...

Darren Dahly, PhD @statsepi · Apr 8

THERE ISN'T ANY F\*\*KING "AI" IN THIS PAPER. [nature.com/articles/s4158...](https://nature.com/articles/s4158...)

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Lior Pachter ✅

@lpachter

...

Replying to @statsepi

Oh I know... logistic regression is "AI". Linear regression is "machine learning".

...but by any reasonable definition of ML, yes.

One rough “definition” of ML:  
*you can publish about it at NeurIPS*

## On Uniform Convergence and Low-Norm Interpolation Learning

[NeurIPS 2020]

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### Abstract

We consider an underdetermined noisy [linear regression model](#) where the minimum-norm interpolating predictor is known to be consistent, and ask: can

## Uniform Convergence of Interpolators: Gaussian Width, Norm Bounds and Benign Overfitting

[NeurIPS 2021]

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Collaboration on the Theoretical Foundations of Deep Learning ([deepfoundations.ai](http://deepfoundations.ai))

### Abstract

We consider interpolation learning in high-dimensional [linear regression](#) with Gaussian data, and prove a generic uniform convergence guarantee on the general-

# Least Squares Objective

- Our linear model is given by:

$$\hat{y}_i = w x_i$$

- So we make predictions for a new example by using:

$$\hat{y}_i = w \tilde{x}_i$$

- But we can't use the same error as before:

- Usually don't have a line where  $\hat{y}_i = y_i$  exactly for many points  $n$ .
    - Sampling noise, relationship not being quite linear, or even just floating-point issues.
    - “Best” model may have  $|\hat{y}_i - y_i|$  small but not exactly 0.

# Least Squares Objective

- Instead of “exact  $y_i$ ”, we evaluate “size” of the error in prediction.
- Classic way is setting slope ‘w’ to minimize sum of squared errors:

$$f(w) = \sum_{i=1}^n (wx_i - y_i)^2$$

Sum up the squared differences over all training examples.

True value of  $y_i$

Our prediction  $\hat{y}_i$

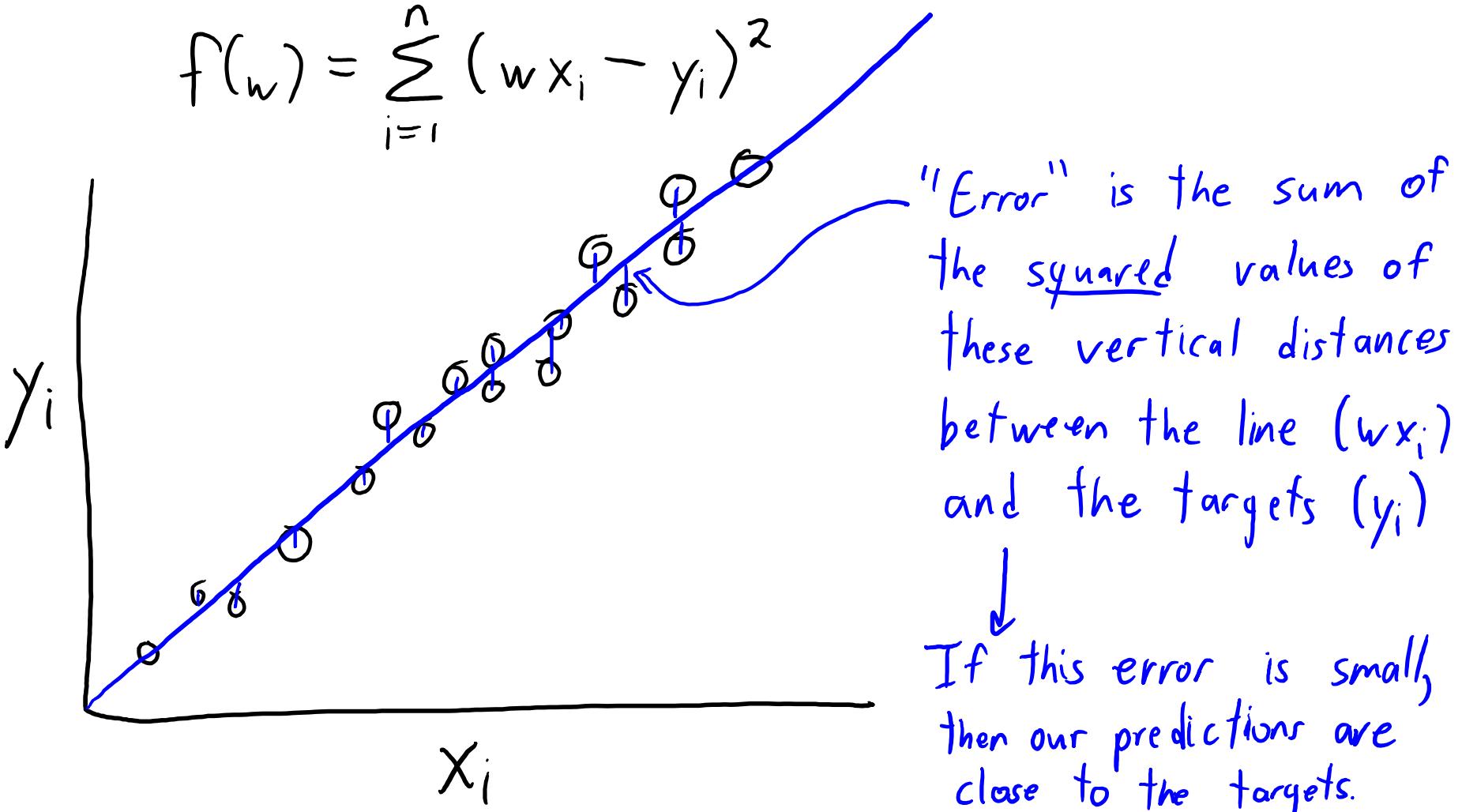
Difference between prediction and true value for example  $i$ .

- There are some justifications for this choice.
  - A probabilistic interpretation is coming later in the course.
- But one strong reason is it is easy to minimize.

# Least Squares Objective

- Classic way to set slope ‘w’ is minimizing sum of squared errors:

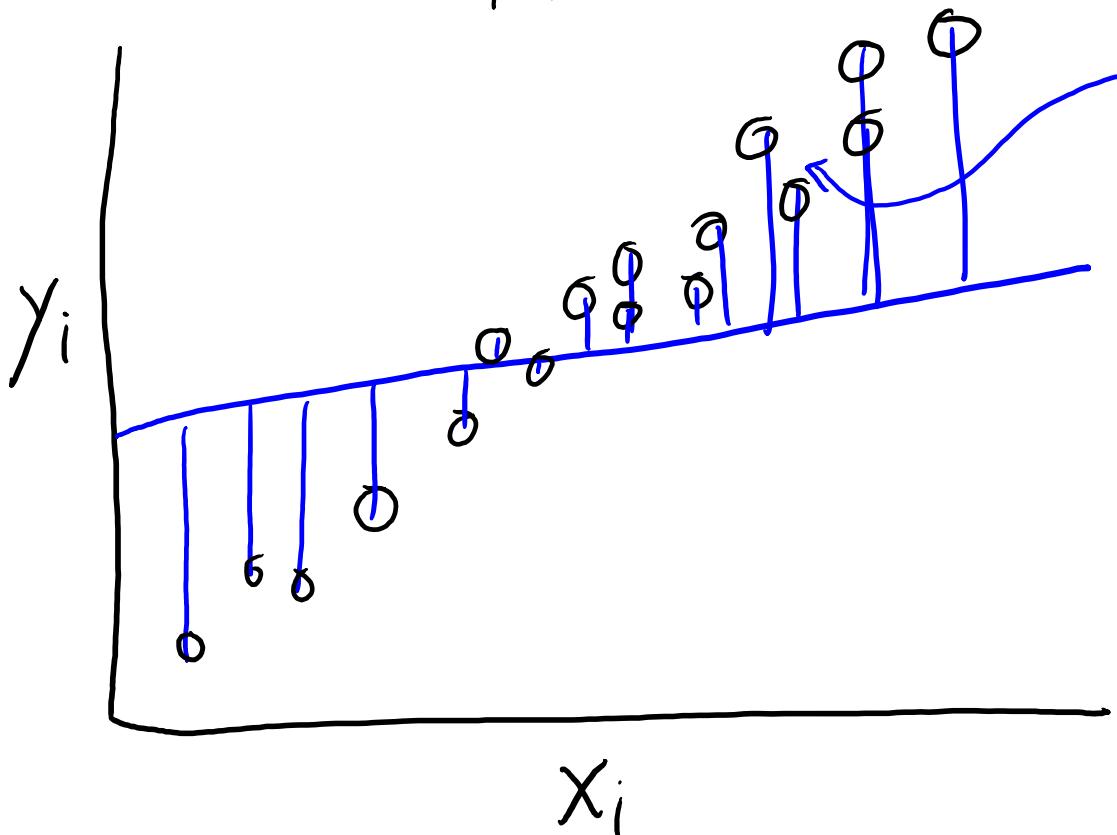
$$f(w) = \sum_{i=1}^n (wx_i - y_i)^2$$



# Least Squares Objective

- Classic way to set slope ‘w’ is minimizing sum of squared errors:

$$f(w) = \sum_{i=1}^n (wx_i - y_i)^2$$

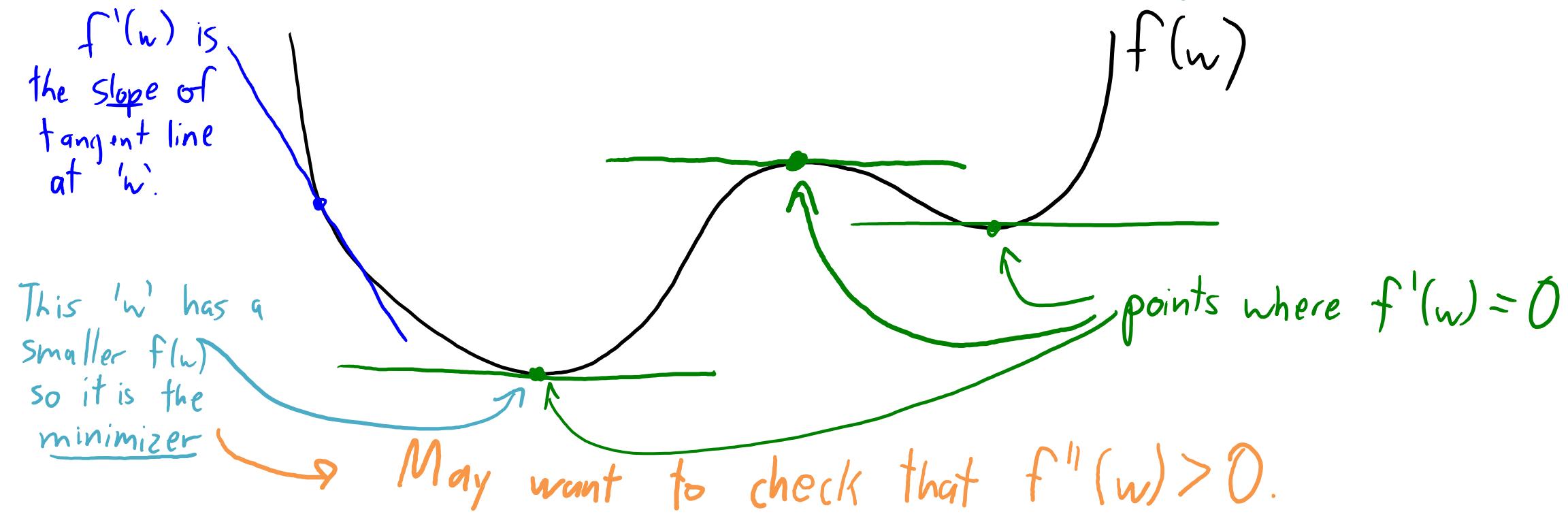


"Error" is the sum of the squared values of these vertical distances between the line ( $wx_i$ ) and the targets ( $y_i$ )

If this error is **large**, then our predictions are far from the targets.

# Minimizing a Differentiable Function

- Math 100 approach to minimizing a differentiable function 'f':
  1. Take the derivative of 'f'.
  2. Find points 'w' where the derivative  $f'(w)$  is equal to 0.
  3. Choose the smallest one (and check that  $f''(w)$  is positive).



# Digression: Multiplying by a Positive Constant

- Note that this problem:

$$f(w) = \sum_{i=1}^n (wx_i - y_i)^2$$

- Has the **same set of minimizers** as this problem:

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (wx_i - y_i)^2$$

- And these also have the same minimizers:

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (wx_i - y_i)^2$$

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^n (wx_i - y_i)^2 + 1000$$

- I can **multiply 'f' by any positive constant and not change solution.**

- Derivative will still be zero at the same locations.
  - We'll use this trick a lot!

# Finding Least Squares Solution

- Finding 'w' that minimizes sum of squared errors:

$$\begin{aligned} f(w) &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (wx_i - y_i)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n [w^2 x_i^2 - 2wx_i y_i + y_i^2] \quad (\text{expand square}) \\ &= \frac{w^2}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - w \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 \quad (\text{split sums, take 'w' outside}) \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{w^2}{2} a}_{\text{constant 'a'}} - \underbrace{w b}_{\text{constant 'b'}} + \underbrace{c}_{\text{constant 'c'}} \\ &= \frac{w^2}{2} a - wb + c \end{aligned}$$

Total derivative:  $f'(w) = wa - b + 0$

Setting  $f'(w)=0$  and solving gives  $w = \frac{b}{a} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$  (exists if we have a non-zero feature)

# Finding Least Squares Solution

- Finding 'w' that minimizes sum of squared errors:

Setting  $f'(w) = 0$  and solving gives  $w = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$  (exists if we have one non-zero  $x_i$ )

- Let's check that this is a minimizer by checking second derivative:

$$f'(w) = w \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$

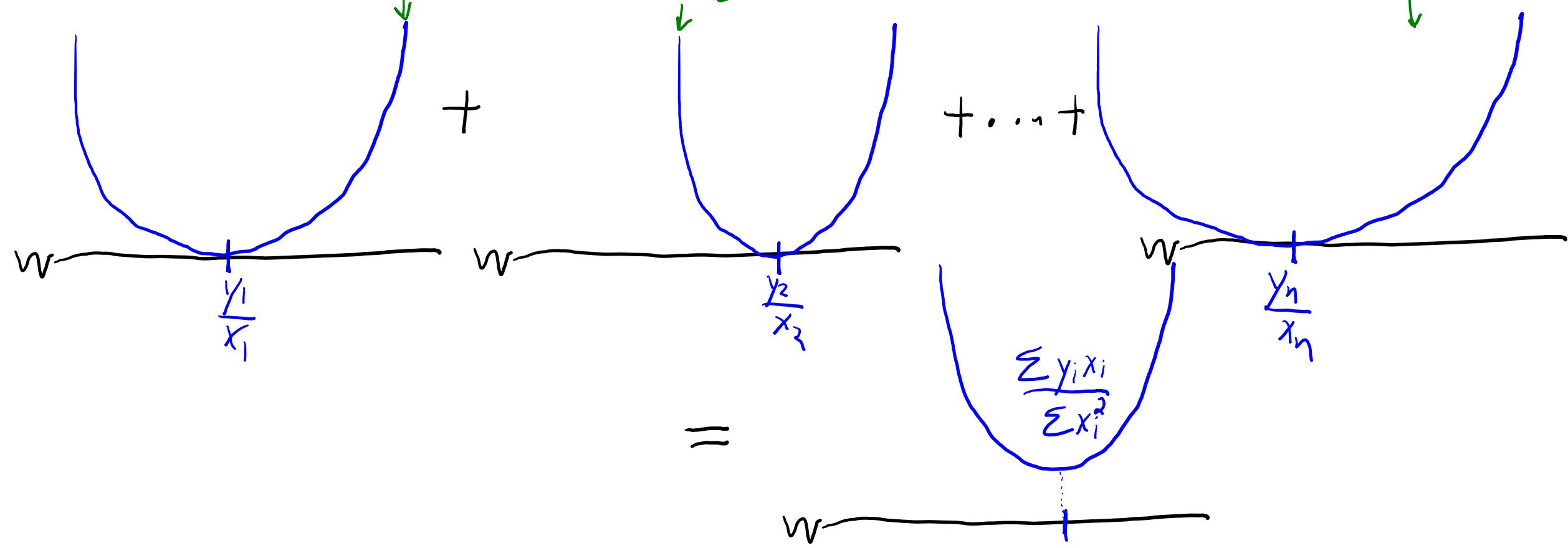
$$f''(w) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$

- Since (anything)<sup>2</sup> is non-negative and (anything non-zero)<sup>2</sup> > 0, if we have one non-zero feature then  $f''(w) > 0$  and this is a minimizer.

# Least Squares Objective/Solution (Another View)

- Least squares minimizes a quadratic that is a sum of quadratics:

$$f(w) = (wx_1 - y_1)^2 + (wx_2 - y_2)^2 + (wx_3 - y_3)^2 + \dots + (wx_n - y_n)^2$$



(pause)

# Motivation: Combining Explanatory Variables

- Smoking is **not the only contributor** to lung cancer.
  - For example, there environmental factors like exposure to asbestos.
- How can we model the **combined effect** of smoking and asbestos?
- A simple way is with a **2-dimensional linear function**:

$$\hat{y}_i = w_1 x_{i1} + w_2 x_{i2}$$

Annotations:

- "weight" of feature 1
- Value of feature 1 in example 'i'
- "weight" on feature 2.
- Value of feature 2 in example 'i'
- Value of feature 2 in example 'i'

- We have a weight  $w_1$  for feature '1' and  $w_2$  for feature '2':

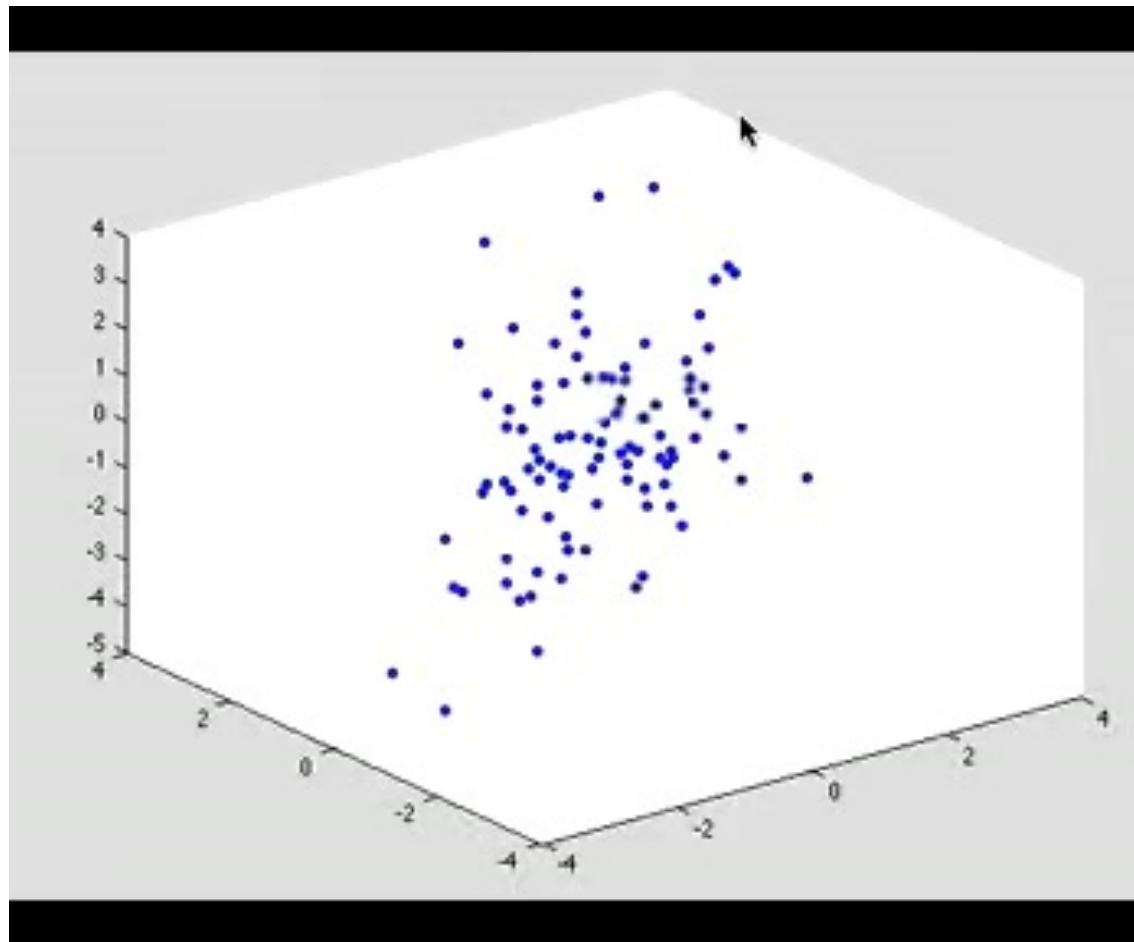
$$\hat{y}_i = 10(\# \text{ cigarettes}) + 25(\# \text{ asbestos})$$

# Least Squares in 2-Dimensions

- Linear model:

$$\hat{y}_i = w_1 x_{i1} + w_2 x_{i2}$$

- This defines a two-dimensional plane.



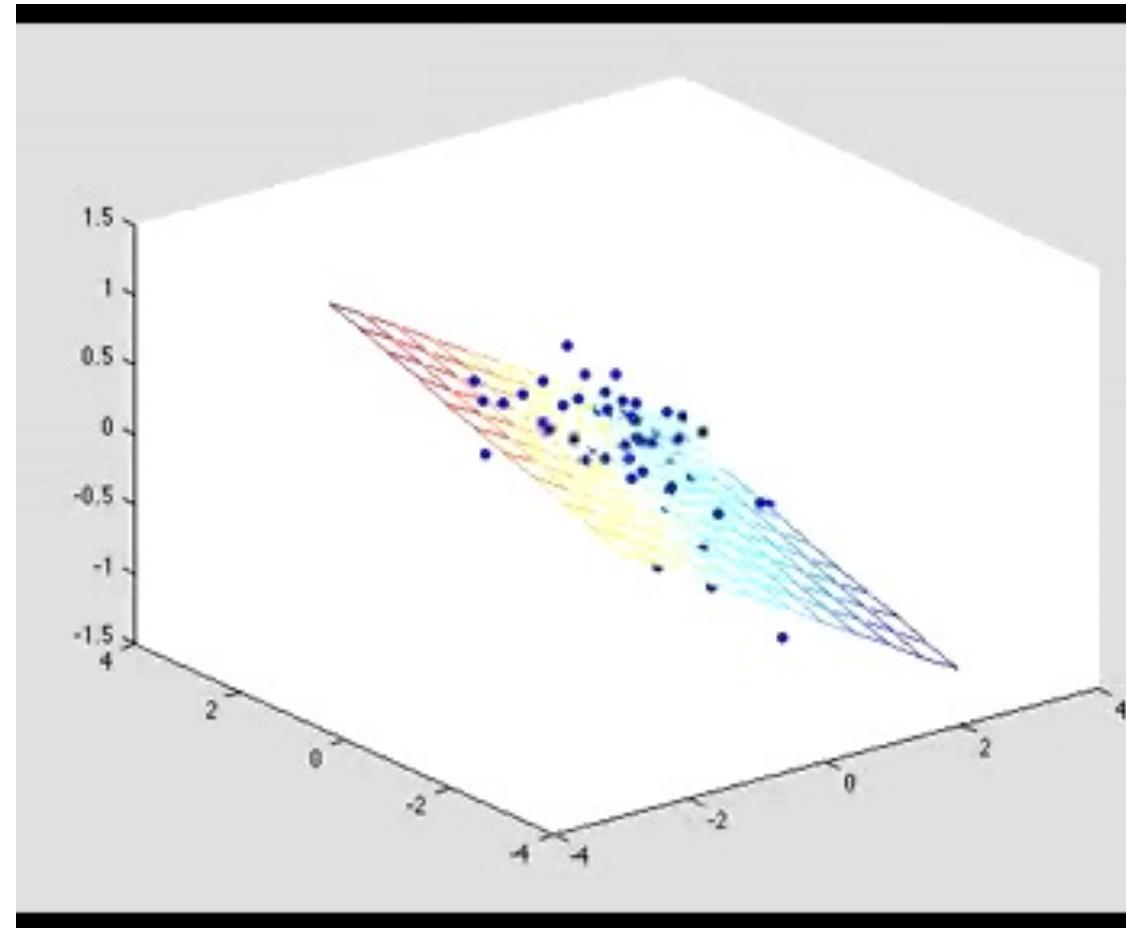
# Least Squares in 2-Dimensions

- Linear model:

$$\hat{y}_i = w_1 x_{i1} + w_2 x_{i2}$$

- This defines a two-dimensional plane.

- Not just a line!



# Different Notations for Least Squares

- If we have 'd' features, the **d-dimensional linear model** is:

$$\hat{y}_i = w_1 x_{i1} + w_2 x_{i2} + w_3 x_{i3} + \dots + w_d x_{id}$$

- In words, our model is that the **output** is a weighted sum of the inputs.
- We can re-write this in **summation notation**:

$$\hat{y}_i = \sum_{j=1}^d w_j x_{ij}$$

- We can also re-write this in **vector notation**:

$$\hat{y}_i = w^T x_i$$

*(assuming 'w' and  $x_i$  are column-vectors)*

*"inner product"*  
*between vectors*

# Notation Alert (again)

- In this course, all vectors are assumed to be column-vectors:

$$w = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_i = \begin{bmatrix} x_{i1} \\ x_{i2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{id} \end{bmatrix}$$

- So  $w^T x_i$  is a scalar:  
$$w^T x_i = [w_1 \ w_2 \ \dots \ w_d] \begin{bmatrix} x_{i1} \\ x_{i2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{id} \end{bmatrix} = w_1 x_{i1} + w_2 x_{i2} + \dots + w_d x_{id}$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^d w_j x_{id}$$
- So rows of 'X' are actually transpose of column-vector  $x_i$ :

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} -x_1^T- \\ -x_2^T- \\ \vdots \\ -x_n^T- \end{bmatrix}$$

# Least Squares in d-Dimensions

- The linear least squares model in d-dimensions minimizes:

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2$$

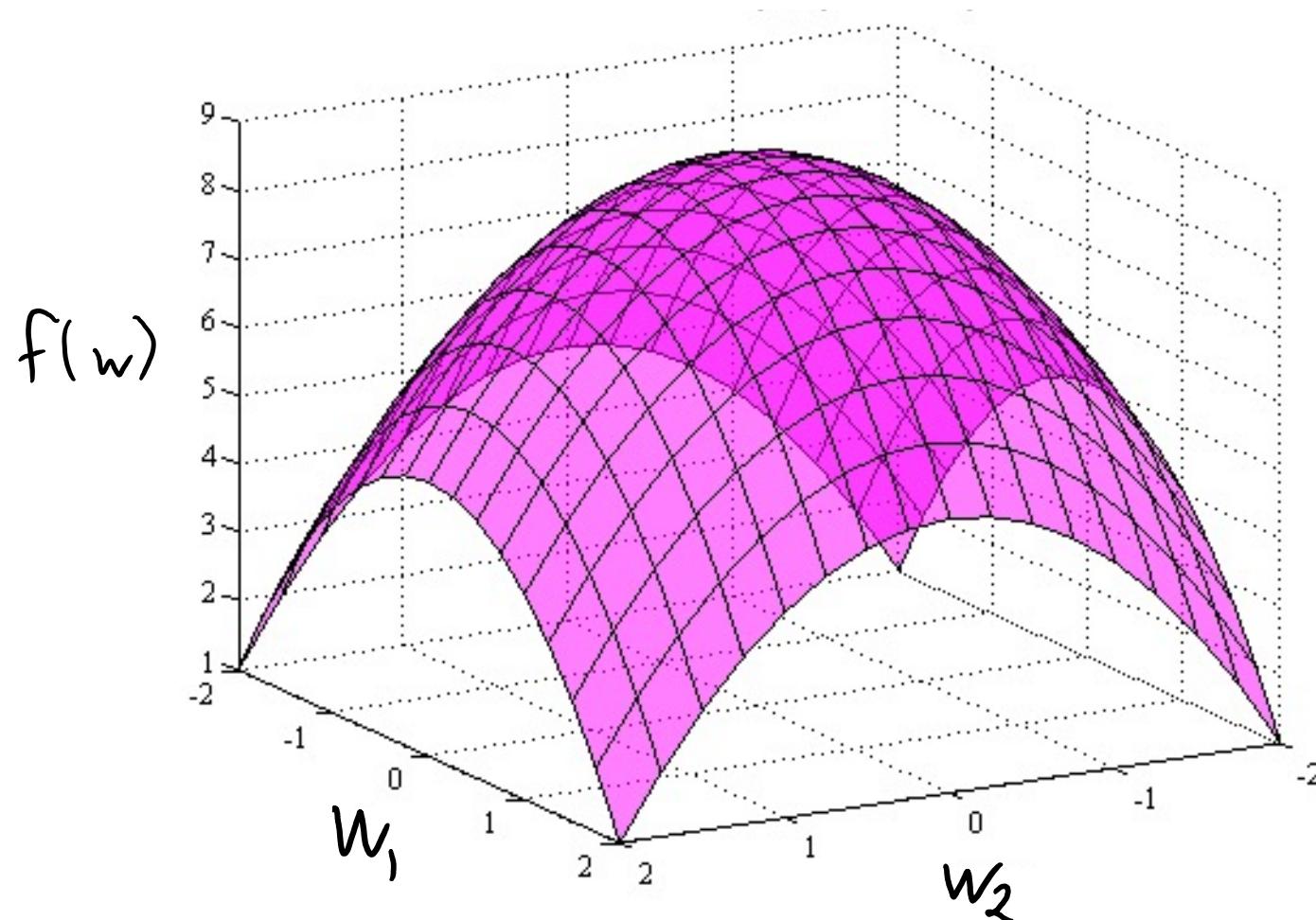
*'w'* is now a vector

prediction is inner product of '*w*' and '*x<sub>i</sub>*'  
(linear combination of features)

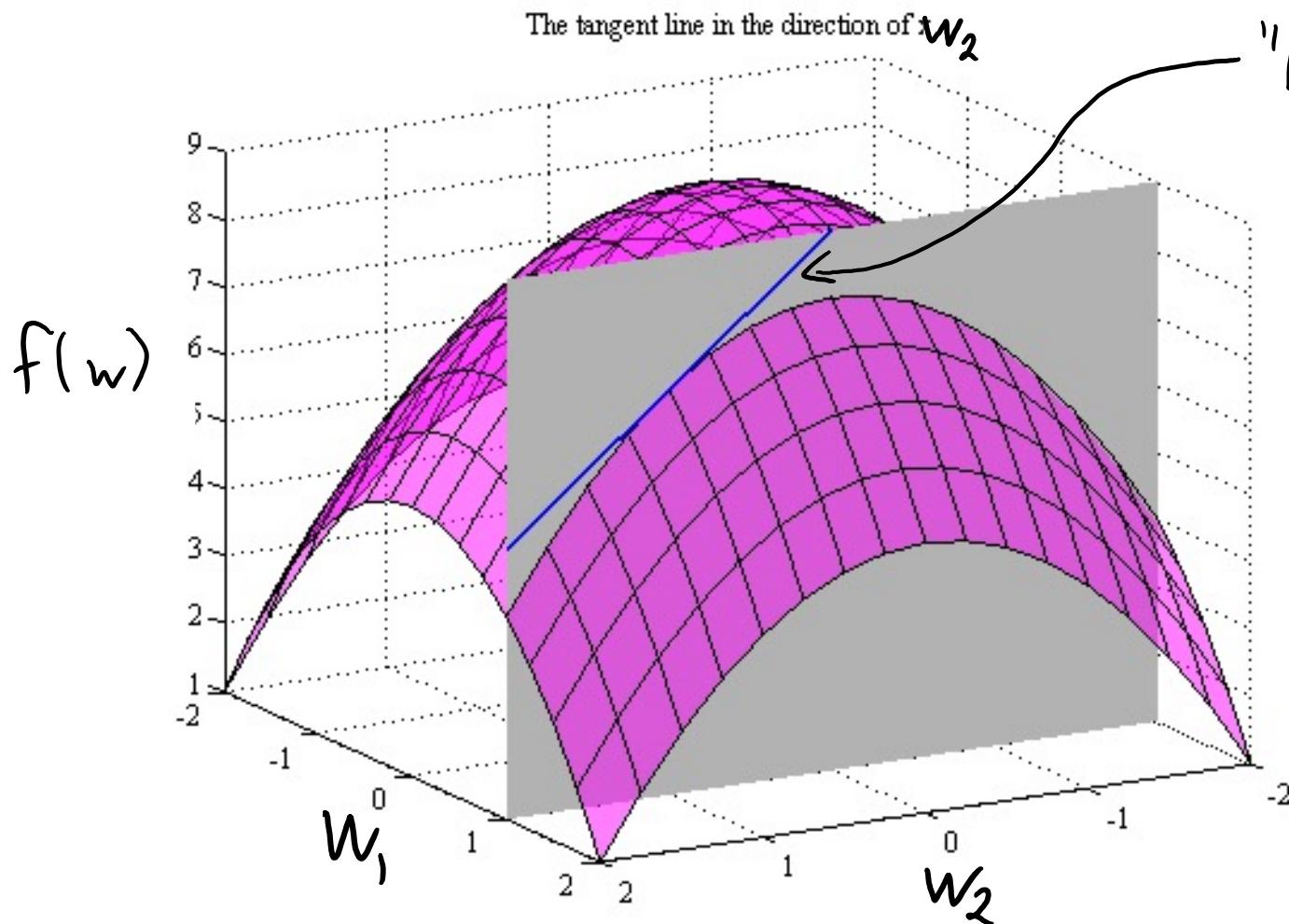
"Error" is still the sum of squared differences between "true" *y<sub>i</sub>* and our "prediction" *w<sup>T</sup>x<sub>i</sub>*

- Dates back to 1801: Gauss used it to predict location of Ceres.
- How do we find the best vector '*w*' in 'd' dimensions?
  - Can we set the "partial derivative" of each variable to 0?

# Partial Derivatives



# Partial Derivatives



"Partial" derivative of ' $f$ ' with respect to  $w_2$  is the derivative with respect to  $w_2$  when all other variables are held fixed.

Denoted by  $\frac{\partial}{\partial w_2}$  for variable  $w_2$

# Least Squares Partial Derivatives (1 Example)

- The linear least squares model in d-dimensions for 1 example:

$$f(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_d) = \frac{1}{2} (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \hat{y}_i^2 - \hat{y}_i y_i + \frac{1}{2} y_i^2$$
$$\hat{y}_i = w_1 x_{i1} + w_2 x_{i2} + \dots + w_d x_{id} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \sum_{j=1}^d w_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \left( \sum_{j=1}^d w_j x_{ij} \right) y_i + \frac{1}{2} y_i^2$$

- Computing the partial derivative for variable '1':

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_1} f(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_d) &= \left( \sum_{j=1}^d w_j x_{ij} \right) x_{i1} - y_i x_{i1} + 0 \\ &= \left( \sum_{j=1}^d w_j x_{ij} - y_i \right) x_{i1} \\ &= (w^T x_i - y_i) x_{i1} \end{aligned}$$

# Least Squares Partial Derivatives ('n' Examples)

- Linear least squares partial derivative for variable 1 on example 'i':

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_1} f(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_d) = (w^T x_i - y_i) x_{i1}$$

- For a generic variable 'j' we would have:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_j} f(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_d) = (w^T x_i - y_i) x_{ij}$$

- And if 'f' is summed over all 'n' examples we would have:

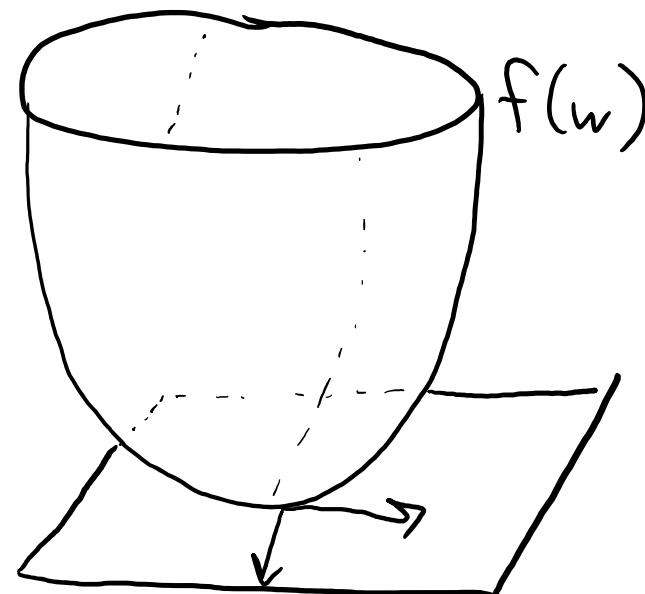
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_j} f(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_d) = \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i) x_{ij}$$

- Unfortunately, the partial derivative for  $w_j$  depends on all  $\{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_d\}$ 
  - I can't just "set equal to 0 and solve for  $w_j$ ".

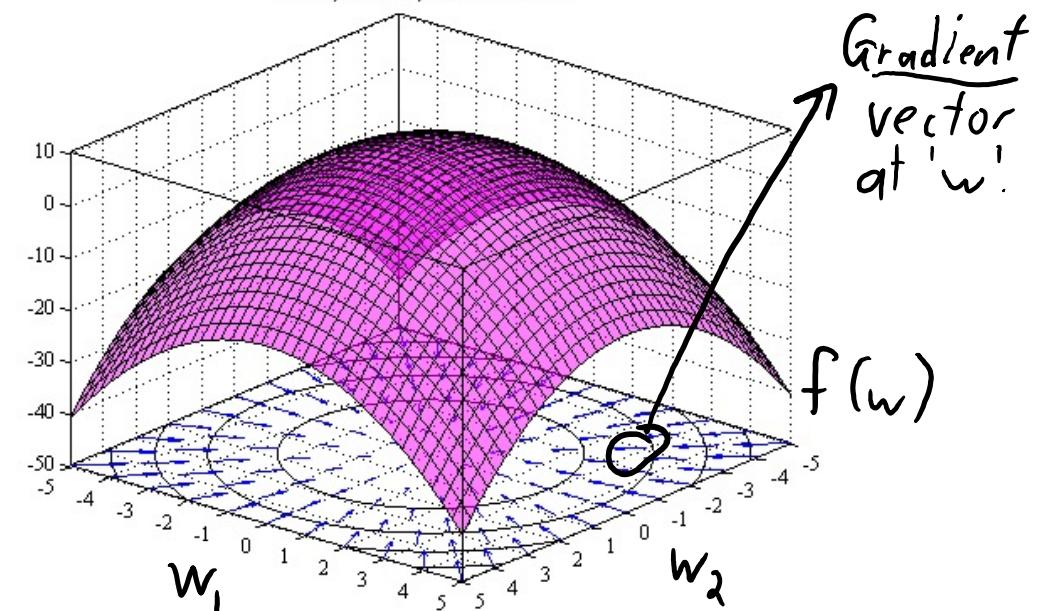
# Gradient and Critical Points in d-Dimensions

- Generalizing “set the derivative to 0 and solve” in d-dimensions:
  - Find ‘w’ where the **gradient** vector **equals the zero vector**.
- **Gradient** is vector with partial derivative ‘j’ in position ‘j’:

$$\nabla f(w) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_d} \end{bmatrix}$$



Tangent slope is 0 in every direction at minimizer.



# Gradient and Critical Points in d-Dimensions

- Generalizing “set the derivative to 0 and solve” in d-dimensions:
  - Find ‘w’ where the **gradient** vector **equals the zero vector**.
- **Gradient** is vector with partial derivative ‘j’ in position ‘j’:

$$\nabla f(w) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_d} \end{bmatrix}$$

For linear least squares:

$$\nabla f(w) = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i) x_{i1} \\ \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i) x_{i2} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i) x_{id} \end{bmatrix}$$

Claims for linear least square:

1. Finding a ‘w’ where  $\nabla f(w) = 0$  can be done by solving a System of linear equations.
2. All ‘w’ where  $\nabla f(w) = 0$  are minimizers.

# Summary

- Regression considers the case of a numerical  $y_i$ .
- Least squares is a classic method for fitting linear models.
  - With 1 feature, it has a simple closed-form solution.
  - Can be generalized to 'd' features.
- Gradient is vector containing partial derivatives of all variables.
- Next time:

minimizing  $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2$  in terms of 'w' is:

```
w = np.linalg.solve(X.T @ X, X.T @ y)
```

bonus!

- In Smithsonian National Air and Space Museum (Washington, DC):

