#### **Lecture 7 – Linear Prediction Rules**



Winter 2024
DSC 40A, Spring 2023

#### **Announcements**

- ► Homework 2 is due today at 11:59pm.
- Homework 3 will be posted soon.
  - Last homework before Midterm 1.

## **Agenda**

- Recap of convexity.
- ▶ Prediction rules.
- Minimizing mean squared error, again.

**Recap: convexity** 

#### **Convexity: Definition**

▶ A function  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is **convex** if for every choice of a, b and  $t \in [0, 1]$ :

$$(1-t)f(a) + tf(b) \ge f((1-t)a + tb)$$

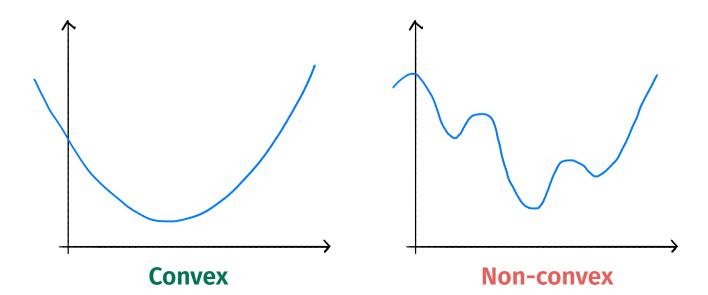
This means that for **every** a, b in the domain of f, the line segment between

$$(a, f(a))$$
 and  $(b, f(b))$ 

does not go below the plot of f.

## Second derivative test for convexity

- If f(x) is a function of a single variable and is twice differentiable, then:
- ► f(x) is convex if and only if  $\frac{d^2f}{dx^2}(x) \ge 0$  for all x.
- Example:  $f(x) = x^4$  is convex.



#### **Discussion Question**

Suppose we have a function  $f(x) = (x - a)^n$ , which of the following statement is correct?

- a) f(x) is always convex
- b) f(x) is convex if n is **odd**, non-convex if n is **even**
- c) f(x) is convex if n is even, non-convex if n is odd
- d) f(x) is always non-convex

$$f(x) = (x-a)^{n}$$

$$f'(x) = n(x-a)^{n-1}$$

$$f''(x) = n(n-1)(x-a)^{n-2}$$

$$f''(x) = n(n-1)(x-a)^{n-2}$$

$$f''(x) = n(n-1)(x-a)^{n-2}$$

#### **Convexity and gradient descent**

- ► **Theorem**: if *R*(*h*) is convex and differentiable then gradient descent converges to a **global minimum** of *R* provided that the step size is small enough.
  - If a function is convex and has a local minimum, that local minimum must be a global minimum.
  - In other words, gradient descent won't get stuck/terminate in local minimums that aren't global minimums.
- For nonconvex functions, gradient descent can still be useful, but it's not guaranteed to converge to a global minimum.

## **Convexity of empirical risk**

If L(h, y) is a convex function (when y is fixed) then

$$R(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(h, y_i)$$

is convex.

- More generally, sums of convex functions are convex.
- What does this mean?
  - ► If a loss function is convex, then the corresponding empirical risk will also be convex.

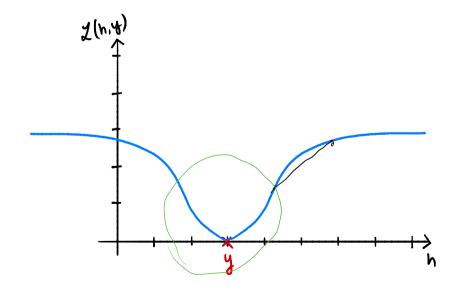
## **Convexity of loss functions** $(x^{-\alpha})^{\alpha}$

$$(x-\alpha)^{r_1}$$

- Is  $L_{sq}(h, y) = (y h)^2$  convex? Yes or No.
- Is  $L_{abs}(h, y) = |y h|$  convex? Yes or No.



ls  $L_{ucsd}(h, y)$  convex? Yes or No.



## **Convexity of** $R_{ucsd}$

- A function can be convex in a region.
- If  $\sigma$  is large,  $R_{ucsd}(h)$  is convex in a big region around data.
  - A large  $\sigma$  led to a very smooth, parabolic-looking empirical risk function with a single local minimum (which was a global minimum).
- If  $\sigma$  is small,  $R_{ucsd}(h)$  is convex in only small regions.
  - ightharpoonup A small  $\sigma$  led to a very bumpy empirical risk function with many local minimums.

#### **Discussion Question**

Recall the empirical risk for absolute loss,

$$R_{abs}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - h|$$

Is  $R_{abs}(h)$  convex? Is gradient descent guaranteed to find a global minimum, given an appropriate step size?

- a) YES convex, YES guaranteed
- b) YES convex, NOT guaranteed
- c) NOT convex, YES guaranteed
- d) **NOT** convex, **NOT** guaranteed

## **Prediction rules**

#### How do we predict someone's salary?

After collecting salary data, we...

- 1. Choose a loss function.
- 2. Find the best prediction by minimizing the average loss across the entire data set (empirical risk).
- So far, we've been predicting future salaries without using any information about the individual (e.g. GPA, years of experience, number of LinkedIn connections).
- New focus: How do we incorporate this information into our prediction-making process?

#### **Features**

A **feature** is an attribute – a piece of information.

- Numerical: age, height, years of experience
- Categorical: college, city, education level
- Boolean: knows Python?, had internship?

Think of features as columns in a DataFrame or table.

	YearsExperience	Age	FormalEducation	Salary
0	6.37	28.39	Master's degree (MA, MS, M.Eng., MBA, etc.)	120000.0
1	0.35	25.78	Some college/university study without earning	120000.0
2	4.05	31.04	Bachelor's degree (BA, BS, B.Eng., etc.)	70000.0
3	18.48	38.78	Bachelor's degree (BA, BS, B.Eng., etc.)	185000.0
4	4.95	33.45	Master's degree (MA, MS, M.Eng., MBA, etc.)	125000.0

#### **Variables**

- The features, x, that we base our predictions on are called predictor variables.
- ► The quantity, y, that we're trying to predict based on these features is called the response variable.
- We'll start by predicting salary based on years of experience.

#### **Prediction rules**

- We believe that salary is a function of experience.
- In other words, we think that there is a function *H* such that:
  - salary ≈ H(years of experience)
- H is called a hypothesis function or prediction rule.
- Our goal: find a good prediction rule, H.

## Possible prediction rules

$$H_1$$
(years of experience) = \$50,000 + \$2,000 × (years of experience)

$$H_2$$
(years of experience) = \$60,000 × 1.05<sup>(years of experience)</sup>

$$H_3$$
(years of experience) = \$100,000 - \$5,000 × (years of experience)

- These are all valid prediction rules.
- Some are better than others.

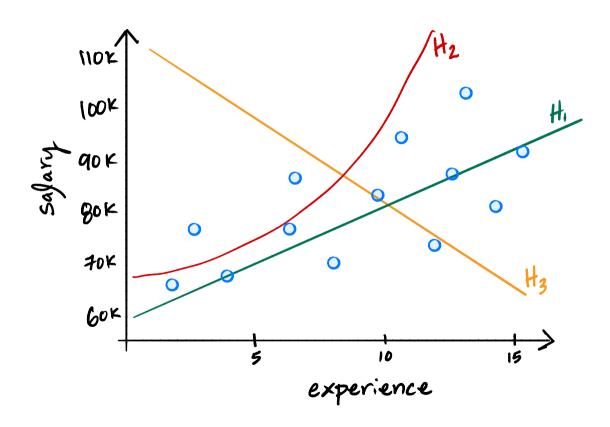
## **Comparing predictions**

- ► How do we know which prediction rule is best:  $H_1$ ,  $H_2$ ,  $H_3$ ?
- We gather data from n people. Let  $x_i$  be experience,  $y_i$  be salary:

(Experience<sub>1</sub>, Salary<sub>1</sub>) 
$$(x_1, y_1)$$
  
(Experience<sub>2</sub>, Salary<sub>2</sub>)  $\rightarrow$   $(x_2, y_2)$   
...  $(x_n, y_n)$ 

See which rule works better on data.

## **Example**

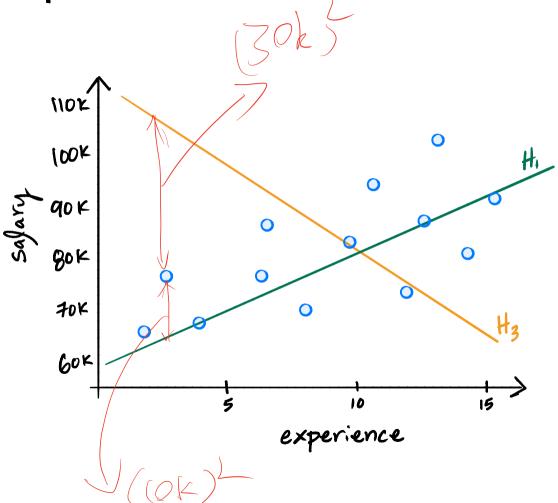


## Quantifying the quality of a prediction rule H

- ▶ Our prediction for person i's salary is  $H(x_i)$ .
- As before, we'll use a **loss function** to quantify the quality of our predictions.
  - Absolute loss:  $|y_i H(x_i)|$ .
  - Squared loss:  $(y_i H(x_i))^2$ .
- We'll focus on squared loss, since it's differentiable.
- Using squared loss, the empirical risk (mean squared error) of the prediction rule H is:

$$R_{sq}(H) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - H(x_i))^2$$

Mean squared error



#### Finding the best prediction rule

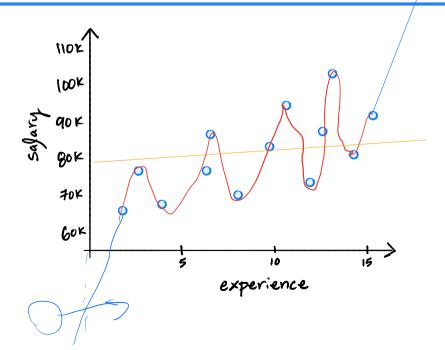
- ▶ **Goal:** out of all functions  $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ , find the function  $H^*$  with the smallest mean squared error.
- That is, H\* should be the function that minimizes

$$R_{sq}(H) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - H(x_i))^2$$

#### **Discussion Question**

Given the data below, is there a prediction rule *H* which has **zero** mean squared error?

a) Yes b) No



#### **Problem**

- We can make mean squared error very small, even zero!
- ▶ But the function will be weird.
- ► This is called **overfitting**.
- Remember our real goal: make good predictions on data we haven't seen.

  At a Sample Data

#### **Solution**

- Don't allow H to be just any function.
- Require that it has a certain form.
- Examples:
  - ► Linear:  $H(x) = w_0 + w_1 x$ .
  - ► Quadratic:  $H(x) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2$ .
  - Exponential:  $H(x) = w_0 e^{w_1 x}$ .
  - Constant:  $H(x) = w_0$ .

## Finding the best linear prediction rule

- ▶ **Goal:** out of all **linear** functions  $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ , find the function  $H^*$  with the smallest mean squared error.
  - Linear functions are of the form  $H(x) = w_0 + w_1 x$ .
  - ► They are defined by a slope  $(w_1)$  and intercept  $(w_0)$ .
- ► That is, H\* should be the linear function that minimizes

$$R_{sq}(H) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - H(x_i))^2$$

- ► This problem is called linear regression.
  - Simple linear regression refers to linear regression with a single predictor variable, x.

# Minimizing mean squared error for the linear prediction rule

## Minimizing the mean squared error

► The MSE is a function  $R_{sq}$  of a function H.

$$R_{sq}(H) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - H(x_i))^2$$

But since H is linear, we know  $H(x_i) = w_0 + w_1 x_i$ .

$$R_{sq}(w_0, w_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - (w_0 + w_1 x_i))^2$$

- Now  $R_{sa}$  is a function of  $w_0$  and  $w_1$ .
- $\triangleright$  We call  $w_0$  and  $w_1$  parameters.
  - Parameters define our prediction rule.

#### **Updated** goal

Find the slope  $w_1^*$  and intercept  $w_0^*$  that minimize the MSE,  $R_{sq}(w_0, w_1)$ :

$$R_{sq}(w_0, w_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - (w_0 + w_1 x_i))^2$$

Strategy: multivariable calculus.

#### **Recall: the gradient**

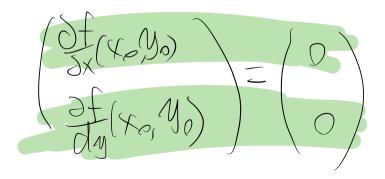
If f(x, y) is a function of two variables, the gradient of f at the point  $(x_0, y_0)$  is a vector of partial derivatives:

$$\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) \end{pmatrix}$$

- ► **Key Fact #1**: The derivative is to the tangent line as the gradient is to the tangent plane.
- **Key Fact #2**: The gradient points in the direction of the biggest increase.
- Key Fact #3: The gradient is zero at critical points.

## Minimizing multivariable functions

- From calculus, to optimize a multivariable differentiable function:
  - Calculate the gradient vector, or vector of partial derivatives.
  - Set the gradient equal to to 0 (that is, the zero vector).
  - 3. Solve the resulting system of equations.



## **Example**

#### **Discussion Question**

Find the point at which the function

$$f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2 - 2x - 4y$$

is minimized.

## **Summary**

## **Summary, next time**

- We introduced the linear prediction rule,  $H(x) = w_0 + w_1 x$ .
- ► To determine the best linear prediction rule, we'll use the squared loss and choose the one that minimizes the empirical risk, or mean squared error:

$$R_{sq}(w_0, w_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - (w_0 + w_1 x_i))^2$$

- ► **Next time**: We'll use calculus to minimize the mean squared error and find the best linear prediction rule.
  - Spoiler alert: it's the regression line, as we saw in DSC 10.