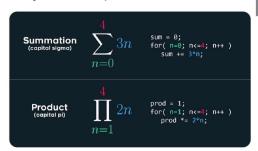
Lecture 6 – Simple Linear Regression



DSC 40A, Fall 2021 @ UC San Diego Suraj Rampure, with help from many others



btw these large scary math symbols are just for-loops



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Announcements

- ► Homework 3 will be released after lecture, will be due on Monday 10/18 at 11:59pm. Will be shorter than usual.
- Groupwork 3 will be released after lecture, will be due on Thursday 10/14 at 11:59pm.
- DISCUSSION SECTION ON WEDNESDAY WILL BE IN-PERSON!
 - Wednesday, 6-6:50PM, Center Hall 113.
- Homework 1, Groupwork 1, and Groupwork 2 grades are released on Gradescope.
- ► Midterm is **Thursday, 10/21 during class time**.
 - ▶ **Review Session:** Tuesday 10/19, 5-8PM, PCYNH 109.
 - See https://dsc40a.com/resources.

Agenda

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

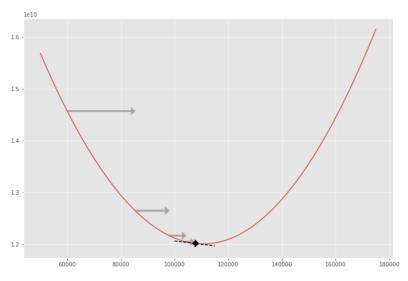
Recap: gradient descent

Gradient descent

- The goal of gradient descent is to minimize a function R(h).
- Gradient descent starts off with an initial guess h₀ of where the minimizing input to R(h) is, and on each step tries to get closer to the minimizing input h* by moving opposite the direction of the slope:

$$h_i = h_{i-1} - \alpha \cdot \frac{dR}{dh}(h_{i-1})$$

- ightharpoonup lpha is known as the learning rate, or step size. It controls how much we update our guesses by on each iteration.
- ► Gradient descent terminates once the guesses h_i and h_{i-1} stop changing much.



See Lecture 5's supplemental notebook for animations.

When does gradient descent work?

A function f is convex if, for any two inputs a and b, the line segment connecting the two points (a, f(a)) and (b, f(b)) does not go below the function f.

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

$$Arr R_{sq}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - h)^2$$
: convex.

$$Arr R_{ucsd}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[1 - e^{-(y_i - h)^2 / \sigma^2} \right]$$
: not convex.

► **Theorem:** If *R*(*h*) is convex and differentiable then gradient descent converges to a **global minimum** of *R* given an appropriate step size.

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 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 (i.e. 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
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^(years of experience)
 H_3 (years of experience) = \$100,000 - \$5,000 × (years of experience)

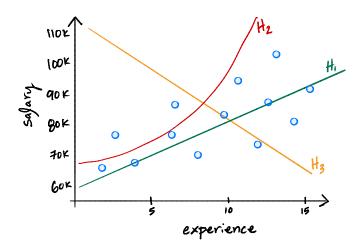
- These are all valid prediction rules.
- Some are better than others.

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:

See which rule works better on data.

Example

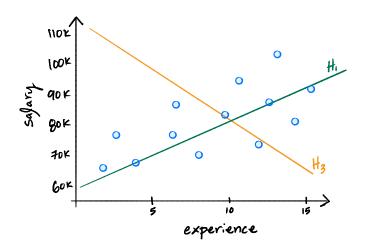


Quantifying the quality of a prediction rule H

- ▶ 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 use 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

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

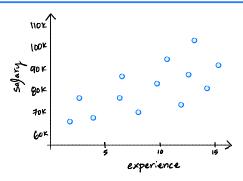
There's a problem.

Discussion Question

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

a) Yes b) No

To answer, go to menti.com and enter the code 8851 5429.



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.

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: $H(x) = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x^2$.
 - 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 **least squares regression**.
 - "Simple linear regression" refers to linear regression with a single predictor variable.

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 .
- ▶ 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, $R_{sq}(w_0, w_1)$:

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

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.

Strategy

To minimize $R(w_0, w_1)$: compute the gradient, set it equal to zero, and solve.

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

Discussion Question

Choose the expression that equals
$$\frac{\partial R_{so}}{\partial w_0}$$

a)
$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1} (y_i - (w_0 + w_1 x_i))$$

a)
$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - (w_0 + w_1 x_i))$$

b) $-\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - (w_0 + w_1 x_i))$

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

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

Go to menti.com and enter the code 8851 5429.

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

$$\frac{\partial R_{sq}}{\partial w_0} =$$

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

$$\frac{\partial R_{sq}}{\partial w_1} =$$

Strategy

$$-\frac{2}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(y_{i}-(w_{0}+w_{1}x_{i})\right)=0 \qquad -\frac{2}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(y_{i}-(w_{0}+w_{1}x_{i})\right)x_{i}=0$$

- 1. Solve for w_0 in first equation.
 - ► The result becomes w_0^* , since it is the "best intercept".
- 2. Plug w_0^* into second equation, solve for w_1 .
 - ▶ The result becomes w_1^* , since it is the "best slope".

Solve for \mathbf{w}_0^*

$$-\frac{2}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(y_{i}-(w_{0}+w_{1}x_{i})\right)=0$$

Solve for w₁*

$$-\frac{2}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(y_{i}-(w_{0}+w_{1}x_{i})\right)x_{i}=0$$

Least squares solutions

We've found that the values w_0^* and w_1^* that minimize the function $R_{sq}(w_0, w_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - (w_0 + w_1 x_i))^2$ are

$$w_{1}^{*} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \bar{y})x_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})x_{i}}$$

$$w_{0}^{*} = \bar{y} - w_{1}^{*}\bar{x}$$

where

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$
 $\bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$

Let's re-write the slope w_1^* to be a bit more symmetric.

Key fact

The **sum of deviations from the mean** for any dataset is 0.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x}) = 0 \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y}) = 0$$

Proof:

Equivalent formula for w_1^*

Claim

$$w_1^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})x_i} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

Proof:

Least squares solutions

► The least squares solutions for the slope w_1^* and intercept w_0^* are:

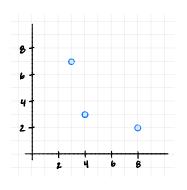
$$w_1^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

$$w_0^* = \bar{y} - w_1 \bar{x}$$

- ▶ We also say that w_0^* and w_1^* are optimal parameters.
- To make predictions about the future, we use the prediction rule

$$H^*(x) = W_0^* + W_1^* x$$

Example



$$\bar{x} =$$

$$W_1^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} =$$

$$w_0^\star = \bar{y} - w_1 \bar{x} =$$

Xi	Уi	$(x_i - \bar{x})$	$(y_i - \bar{y})$	$(x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})$	$(x_i - \bar{x})^2$
3	7				
4	3				
8	2				

Summary

Summary, next time

- ► We introduced the linear prediction rule, $H(x) = w_0 + w_1 x$.
- To determine the best choice of slope (w_1) and intercept (w_0) , we chose the squared loss function $(y_i H(x_i))^2$ and minimized empirical risk $R_{so}(w_0, w_1)$:

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

- After solving for w_0^* and w_1^* through partial differentiation, we have a prediction rule $H^*(x) = w_0^* + w_1^*x$ that we can use to make predictions about the future.
- ▶ **Next time**: Revisiting correlation from DSC 10. Revisiting gradient descent. Introducing a linear algebraic formulation of linear regression.