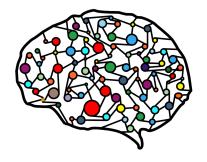
Lecture 7 – More Simple Linear Regression



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

Announcements

- Groupwork 3 is due tonight at 11:59pm.
- Homework 3 is due Monday at 11:59pm. No slip days allowed!
 - Everyone now has 5 slip days, though.
- Midterm exam is on Thursday, 10/21, from 11AM-12:30PM. Fully remote.
 - Covers Lectures 1-7.
 - Will receive a PDF on Gradescope and must submit it back within 90 minutes (80 minutes for the exam + 10 minutes for uploading).
 - More details this weekend.
- Midterm review session on **Tuesday, 10/19 from 5-8PM in PCNYH 109**.

Midterm study strategy

- Review the solutions to previous homeworks and groupworks.
 - Homework 2 solutions are now up.
- Identify which concepts are still iffy. Re-watch lecture, post on Campuswire, come to office hours.
- ► Look at the past exams at https://dsc40a.com/resources.
- Study in groups.
- Make a "cheat sheet".
- Remember: it's just an exam.

Agenda

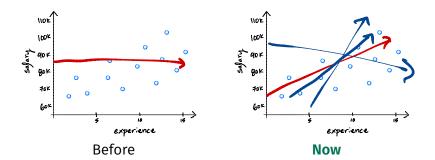
- Recap of Lecture 6.
- ► Correlation.
- Practical demo.
- Linear algebra review.

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Recap of Lecture 6

Linear prediction rules

- New: Instead of predicting the same future value (e.g. salary) h for everyone, we will now use a **prediction rule** H(x) that uses **features**, i.e. information about individuals, to make predictions.
- We decided to use a **linear** prediction rule, which is of the form $H(x) = w_0 + w_1 x$.
 - \triangleright w_0 and w_1 are called parameters.



Finding the best linear prediction rule

- In order to find the best linear prediction rule, we need to pick a loss function and minimize the corresponding empirical risk.
 - We chose squared loss, $(y_i H(x_i))^2$, as our loss function. sq locs for single prediction
- ► The MSE is a function R_{sa} 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 $H(x_i) = w_0 + w_1 x_i$.

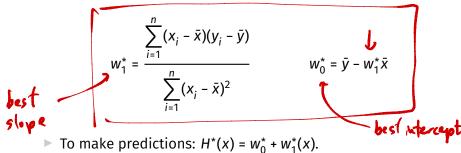
$$R_{sq}(w_0, w_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - (w_0 + w_1 x_i))^2$$

Finding the best linear prediction rule

Our goal last lecture was to find the slope w_1^* and intercept w_0^* that minimize the MSE, $R_{sq}(w_0, w_1)$:

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

We did so using multivariable calculus.



Example

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} = 5$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$w_1^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$w_0^* = \bar{y} - w_1^* \bar{x} = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$x_i \quad y_i \quad (x_i - \bar{x}) \quad (y_i - \bar{y}) \quad (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) \quad (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$$x_i \quad y_i \quad (x_i - \bar{x}) \quad (y_i - \bar{y}) \quad (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) \quad (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

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Terminology

- x: features.
- v: response variable.
- ► w₀, w₁: parameters. That define on prediction rule
- \triangleright w_0^* , w_1^* : optimal parameters.
 - Optimal because they minimize mean squared error.
- The process of finding the optimal parameters for a given prediction rule and dataset is called "fitting to the data".
- $R_{sq}(w_0, w_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i (w_0 + w_1 x_i))^2$: mean squared error, empirical risk.

Discussion Question

Consider a dataset with just two points, (2, 5) and (4, 15). Suppose we want to fit a linear prediction rule to this dataset by minimizing mean squared error.

What are the values of w_0^* and w_1^* that minimize mean squared error?

a)
$$w_0^* = 2, w_1^* = 5$$

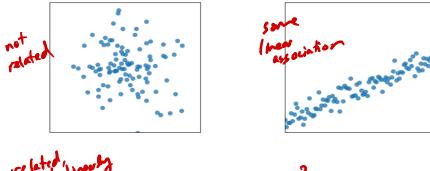
b)
$$w_0^* = 3, w_1^* = 10$$

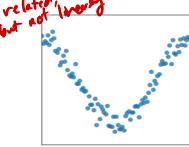
c) $w_0^* = -2, w_1^* = 5$

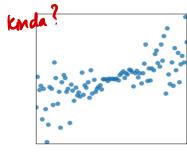
d)
$$W_0^* = -5, W_1^* = 5$$

To answer, go to menti.com and enter the code 3640 8748.

Correlation







Correlation coefficient

- In DSC 10, you were introduced to the idea of correlation.
 - It is a measure of the strength of the **linear** association of two variables, *x* and *y*.
 - Intuitively, it is a measure of how tightly clustered a scatter plot is around a straight line.
- The correlation coefficient, r, is defined as the average of the product of x and y, when both are in standard units.

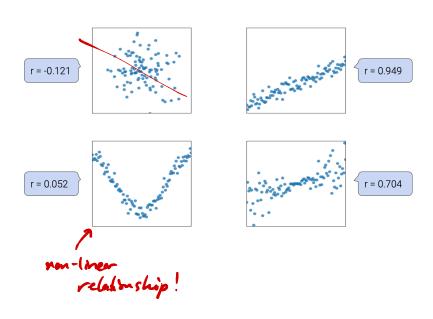
$$r = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x} \right) \left(\frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y} \right)$$

Properties of the correlation coefficient *r*

- r has no units.
- It ranges between -1 and 1.



- r = 1 indicates a perfect positive linear association (x and y lie exactly on a straight line that is sloped upwards).
- ► r = -1 indicates a perfect negative linear association between x and y.
- ► The closer *r* is to 0, the weaker the linear association between *x* and *y* is.
- r says nothing about non-linear association.
- Correlation != causation.



Another way to express w_1^*

It turns out that w_1^* , the optimal slope for the linear prediction rule, can be written in terms of r!

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

- It's not surprising that r is related to w_1^* , since r is a measure of linear association.
- ► Concise way of writing w_0^* and w_1^* :

$$w_1^* = r \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_y} \qquad w_0^* = \bar{y} - w_1^* \bar{x}$$

Proof that
$$W_1^* = r \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x}$$

$$\sigma_x^* = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (\kappa_i - \widehat{\kappa})^2$$

$$= \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\kappa_i - \widehat{\kappa}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{y_i - \widehat{y}}{\sigma_y}\right)\right] \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x}$$

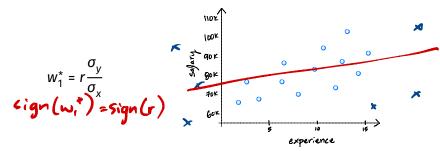
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[\frac{\kappa_i - \widehat{\kappa}}{\sigma_x} \left(\frac{y_i - \widehat{y}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{y_i - \widehat{y}}{\sigma_x}\right)\right]$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[\frac{\kappa_i - \widehat{\kappa}}{\sigma_x} \left(\frac{\kappa_i - \widehat{\kappa}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{y_i - \widehat{y}}{\sigma_x}\right)\right]$$

$$= \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x}) (y_i - \bar{y})}_{z_i} \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x}) (y_i - \bar{y})}_{z_i} = \omega_i^{n}$$

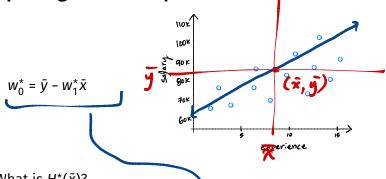
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Interpreting the slope



- σ_y and σ_x are always non-negative. As a result, the sign of the slope is determined by the sign of r.
- As the y values get more spread out, σ_y increases and so does the slope.
- As the x values get more spread out, σ_x increases and the slope decreases.

Interpreting the intercept



▶ What is $H^*(\bar{x})$?

$$H''(x) = \omega \cdot + \omega \cdot x$$

$$H''(\overline{x}) = \omega \cdot + \omega \cdot \overline{x} - (\overline{y} - \omega \cdot \overline{x}) + \omega \cdot \overline{x}$$

Discussion Question

We fit a linear prediction rule for salary given years of experience. Then everyone gets a \$5,000 raise. Which of these happens?

- a) slope increases, intercept increases
- b) slope decreases, intercept increases
- c) slope stays same, intercept increases
- d) slope stays same, intercept stays same

 To answer, go to menti.com and enter the code 3640

 8748.

Aside: Proof that if
$$x,y$$
 follow a straight line with positive slope, then $r=1$. Note that this means that $y_i=ax_i+b$.

$$\Rightarrow r=\frac{1}{n} \mathcal{E}\left(\frac{x_i-x}{\sigma_x}\right)\left(\frac{y_i-y}{\sigma_y}\right)=\frac{1}{n} \mathcal{E}\left(\frac{x_i-x}{\sigma_x}\right)\left(\frac{ax_i+b}{\sigma_x}\right)$$

 $\Rightarrow r = \frac{1}{n} \mathcal{E}\left(\frac{x_i - \overline{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{y_i - \overline{y}}{\sigma_y}\right) = \frac{1}{n} \mathcal{E}\left(\frac{x_i - \overline{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i + b - (ax + b)}{\sigma_{ax + b}}\right)$ Separate facts: if y=ax+b, then y=ax+b and

$$= \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y}\right)}_{\text{definition}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i + b - (ax + b)}{\sigma_{ax + b}}\right)}_{\text{operator}}$$

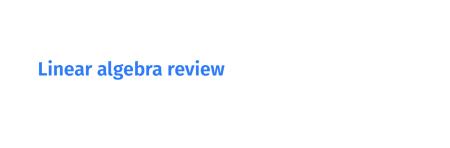
$$= \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right) \left(\frac{ax_i - b - a\bar{x} + b}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right)}_{\text{operator}} = \frac{1}{N} \underbrace{\sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x$$

 $=\frac{1}{n}\sum\left(\frac{\chi_{i}-\bar{\chi}}{\sigma_{\chi}}\right)\left(\frac{a\chi_{i}-b-a\bar{\chi}+b}{|a|\sigma_{\chi}}\right)=\frac{1}{n}\sum\left(\frac{\chi_{i}-\bar{\chi}}{\sigma_{\chi}}\right)\left(\frac{a(\chi_{i}-\bar{\chi})}{|a|\sigma_{\chi}}\right)$ = $\frac{1}{n} \frac{a}{|a|} \lesssim \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{\sigma_{x^2}} = \frac{a}{|a|} \lesssim \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n}$ Both we the voice

 $= \frac{a}{|a|} \rightarrow \text{if a is positive, this} = 1.$ If a is negative, this = -1.

Practical demo

Follow along with the demo by clicking th	ne code link on the
course website next to Lecture 7.	



Wait... why do we need linear algebra?

- Soon, we'll want to make predictions using more than one feature (e.g. predicting salary using years of experience and GPA).
- Thinking about linear regression in terms of linear algebra will allow us to find prediction rules that
 - use multiple features.
 - are non-linear.
- Before we dive in, let's review.
- No linear algebra on the midterm :)

Matrices

- An $m \times n$ matrix is a table of numbers with m rows and n columns.
- We use upper-case letters for matrices.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

 \triangleright A^T denotes the transpose of A:

$$A^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix addition and scalar multiplication

- We can add two matrices only if they are the same size.
- Addition occurs elementwise:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 8 & 9 \\ -1 & -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 10 & 12 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Scalar multiplication occurs elementwise, too:

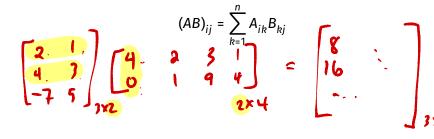
$$2 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 8 & 10 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix-matrix multiplication

▶ We can multiply two matrices A and B only if

$$\#$$
 columns in $A = \#$ rows in B .

- ▶ If A is $m \times n$ and B is $n \times p$, the result is $m \times p$.
 - ► This is **very useful**.
- The *ij* entry of the product is:



Some matrix properties

Multiplication is Distributive:

Multiplication is Associative:

$$(AB)C = A(BC)$$

A(B+C) = AB + AC

Multiplication is not commutative:

Transpose of sum:

$$(A+B)^T = A^T + B^T$$

Transpose of product:

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

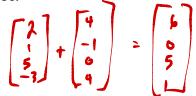
Vectors

- An vector in \mathbb{R}^n is an $n \times 1$ matrix.
- ► We use lower-case letters for vectors.



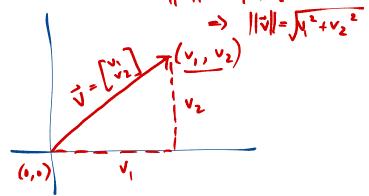
$$\vec{V} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 5 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Vector addition and scalar multiplication occur elementwise.



Geometric meaning of vectors

A vector $\vec{v} = (v_1, ..., v_n)$ is an arrow to the point $(v_1, ..., v_n)$ from the origin.



► The length, or norm, of \vec{v} is $\|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + ... + v_n^2}$.

Dot products

The **dot product** of two vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v} in \mathbb{R}^n is denoted by:

$$\vec{u}\cdot\vec{v}=\vec{u}^T\vec{v}$$

Definition:

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i v_i = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n$$

The result is a **scalar**!
$$\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

The result is a scalar!
$$\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{u}^T v = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Discussion Question

Which of these is another expression for the length of \vec{u} ?



a) **ū** ⋅ **ū**

To answer, go to menti.com and enter the code 3640 8748.

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = u_1^2 + u_2^2 + u_3^2 + \dots + u_n^2$$

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2} > ||\vec{u}||$$

Properties of the dot product

next time

Commutative:

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{u} = \vec{u}^T \vec{v} = \vec{v}^T \vec{u}$$

Distributive:

$$\vec{u}\cdot(\vec{v}+\vec{w})=\vec{u}\cdot\vec{v}+\vec{u}\cdot\vec{w}$$

Matrix-vector multiplication



- Special case of matrix-matrix multiplication.
- Result is always a vector with same number of rows as the matrix.
- One view: a "mixture" of the columns.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} = a_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + a_2 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} + a_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Another view: a dot product with the rows.

Discussion Question

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix and \vec{v} is a vector in \mathbb{R}^n , what are the dimensions of the product $\vec{v}^T A^T A \vec{v}$?

- a) $m \times n$ (matrix)
- b) $n \times 1$ (vector)
- c) 1 × 1 (scalar)
- d) The product is undefined.

To answer, go to menti.com and enter the code 3640 8748.

Summary

Summary, next time

- The correlation coefficient, *r*, measures the strength of the linear association between two variables *x* and *y*.
- We can re-write the optimal parameters for the linear prediction rule (under squared loss) as

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

- ► We can then make predictions using $H^*(x) = w_0^* + w_1^*x$.
- ► We will need linear algebra in order to generalize regression to work with multiple features.
- Next time: Formulate linear regression in terms of linear algebra.