#### Instructor Introductions

Osbert Bastani Assistant Professor, CIS Mingmin Zhao Assistant Professor, CIS

https://obastani.github.io/



https://www.cis.upenn.edu/~mingminz/



# Research Area: Multimodal Learning and Sensing

#### In addition to:

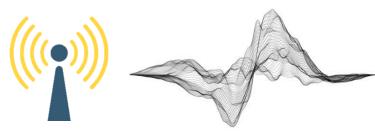
Vision

Text

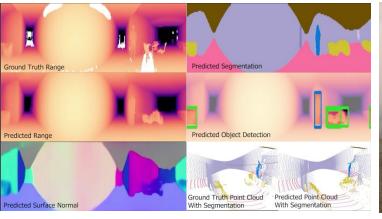
| Control of the Contr

#### We also look at:

Radio/Wireless Acoustic/Ultrasound

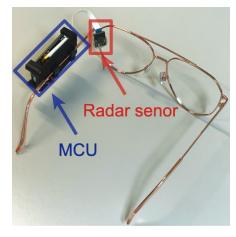


See Through Occlusions & X-Ray Vision





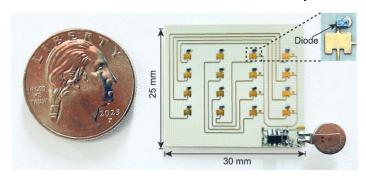
Smart Eyeglasses for Ocular Health & Cognitive State Tracking



Sound Rendering / Acoustic Modeling



#### Sub-mm and NLOS Motion Capture



# Life & Hobbies

Moko





Moki







#### **Announcements**

- Homework 0: Due in 1 week (Wed 1/29 8 pm).
  - Should only take you a few hours. Primers on various topics on the class website.
- OH time and location will be posted soon.
  - After HW0 is due and HW1 is released.
  - 20+ hours every week from instructors and TAs.

#### Waitlist

- Some movement on add/drop, some of you added. Prioritizing by date of graduation, and when you came on the waitlist.
- Email instructors if you have an extraordinary need to take the class.
- If you have been accepted off the waitlist, please enroll by Friday

# Lecture 2: Linear Regression (Part 1)

CIS 4190/5190 Spring 2025

# Recap: Types of Machine Learning

#### Supervised learning

- Input: Examples of inputs and desired outputs
- Output: Model that predicts output given a new input

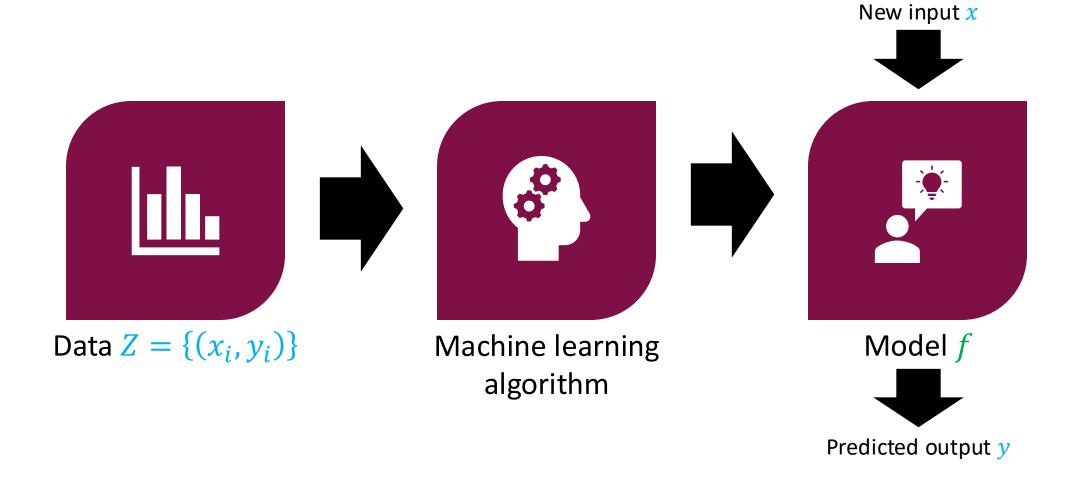
#### Unsupervised learning

- Input: Examples of some data (no "outputs")
- Output: Representation of structure in the data

#### Reinforcement learning

- Input: Sequence of interactions with an environment
- Output: Policy that performs a desired task

# Supervised Learning



Question: What model family (a.k.a. hypothesis class) to consider?

#### **Linear Functions**

• Consider the space of linear functions  $f_{\beta}(x)$  defined by

$$f_{\beta}(x) = \beta^{\mathsf{T}} x$$

#### **Linear Functions**

• Consider the space of linear functions  $f_{\beta}(x)$  defined by

$$f_{\beta}(x) = \beta^{\mathsf{T}} x = [\beta_1 \quad \cdots \quad \beta_d] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_d \end{bmatrix} = \beta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \beta_d x_d$$

- $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is called an **input** (a.k.a. **features** or **covariates**)
- $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is called the **parameters** (a.k.a. **parameter vector**)
- $y = f_{\beta}(x)$  is called the **label** (a.k.a. **output** or **response**)

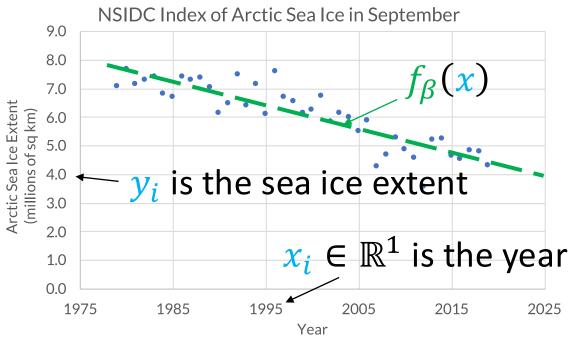
- Input: Dataset  $Z = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$ , where  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$
- Output: A linear function  $f_{\beta}(x) = \beta^{\top} x$  such that  $y_i \approx \beta^{\top} x_i$

#### Typical notation

- Use i to index examples  $(x_i, y_i)$  in data Z
- Use j to index components  $x_i$  of  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- $x_{ij}$  is component j of input example i
- Goal: Estimate  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d$

- Input: Dataset  $Z = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$ , where  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$
- Output: A linear function  $f_{\beta}(x) = \beta^{\top} x$  such that  $y_i \approx \beta^{\top} x_i$

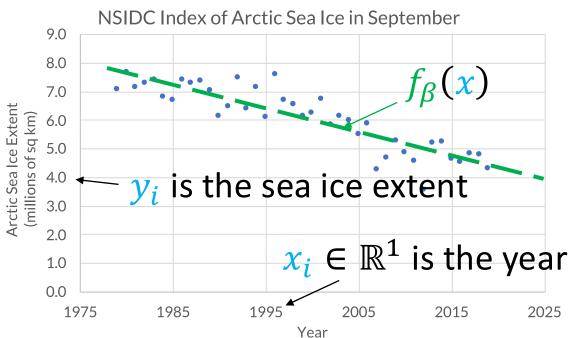




#### What does this mean?

- Input: Dataset  $Z = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$ , where  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$  Output: A linear function  $f_{\beta}(x) = \beta^{\top} x$  such that  $y_i \approx \beta^{\top} x_i$



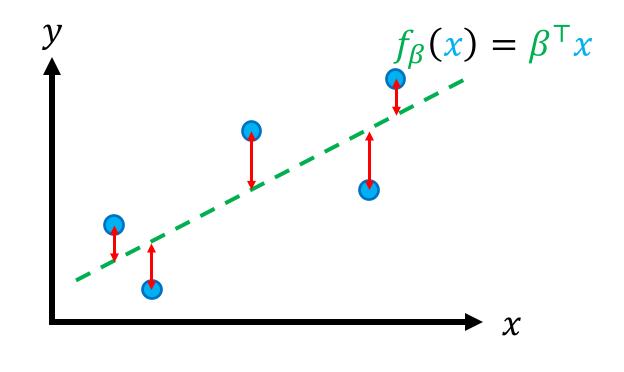


#### Choice of Loss Function

- $y_i \approx \beta^T x_i$  if  $(y_i \beta^T x_i)^2$  small
- Mean squared error (MSE):

$$L(\beta; \mathbf{Z}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{y}_i - \beta^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

 Computationally convenient and works well in practice



$$L(\beta; \mathbf{Z}) = \frac{\mathbf{1}^2 + \mathbf{1}^2 + \mathbf{1}^2 + \mathbf{1}^2 + \mathbf{1}^2}{n}$$

- Input: Data  $Z = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$ , where  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$
- Output: A linear function  $f_{\beta}(x) = \beta^{\top} x$  such that  $y_i \approx \beta^{\top} x_i$

- Input: Data  $Z = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$ , where  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$
- Output: A linear function  $f_{\beta}(x) = \beta^{T}x$  that minimizes the MSE:

$$L(\beta; \mathbf{Z}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{y}_i - \beta^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

### Linear Regression Algorithm

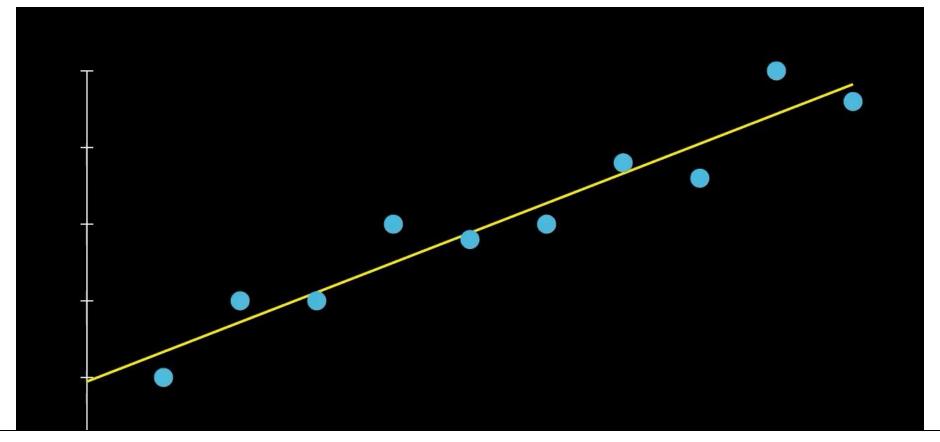
- **Input:** Dataset  $Z = \{(x_1, y_1), ..., (x_n, y_n)\}$
- Compute

$$\hat{\beta}(Z) = \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d}{\arg \min} L(\beta; Z)$$

$$= \underset{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d}{\arg \min} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta^\top x_i)^2$$

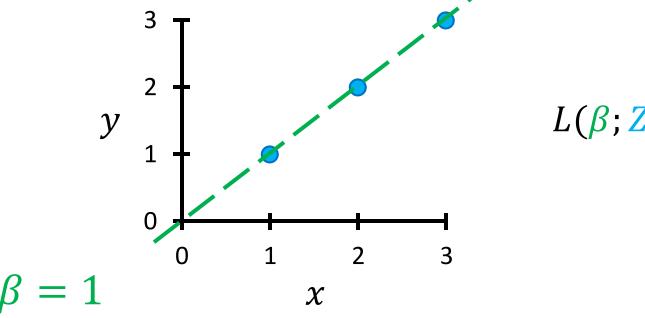
- Output:  $f_{\widehat{\beta}(Z)}(x) = \widehat{\beta}(Z)^{\top}x$
- Discuss algorithm for computing the minimal  $\beta$  later

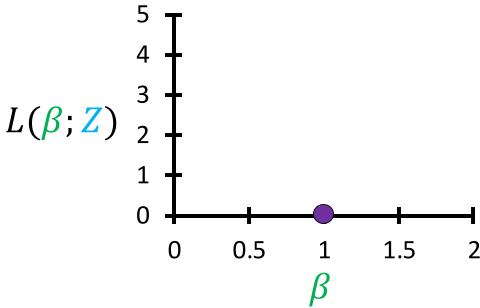
### Minimizing the Mean Squared Error

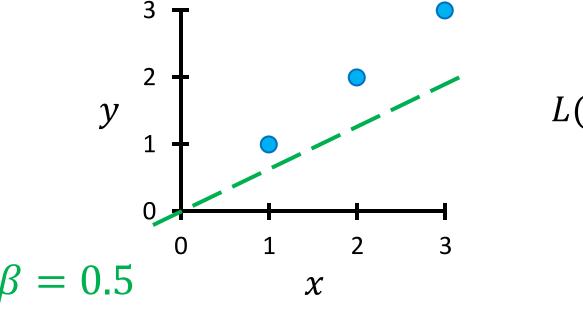


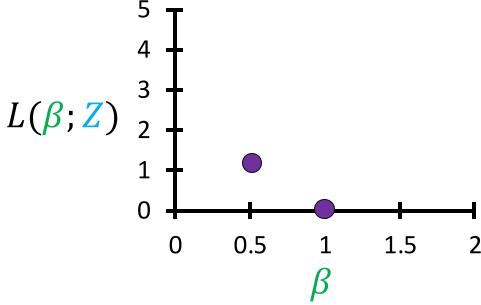
Q: What is depicted here is actually the "sum" of squared errors (SSE), but it doesn't really matter. Why?

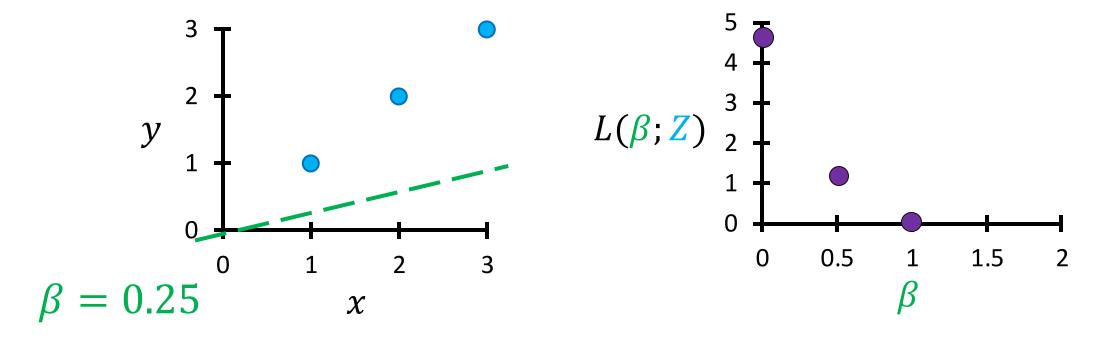
Youtube: 3-Minute Data Science

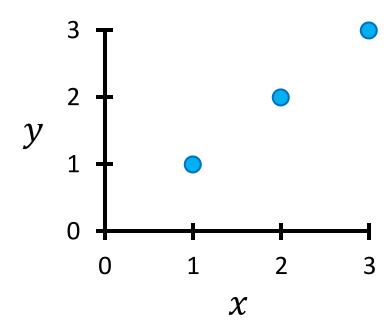


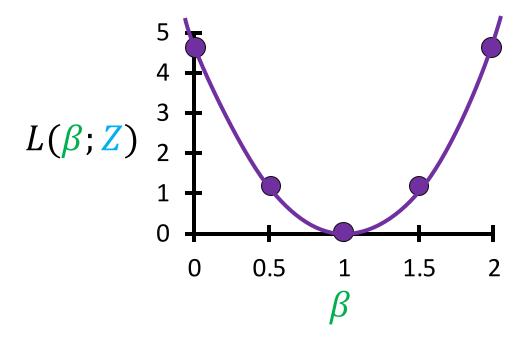




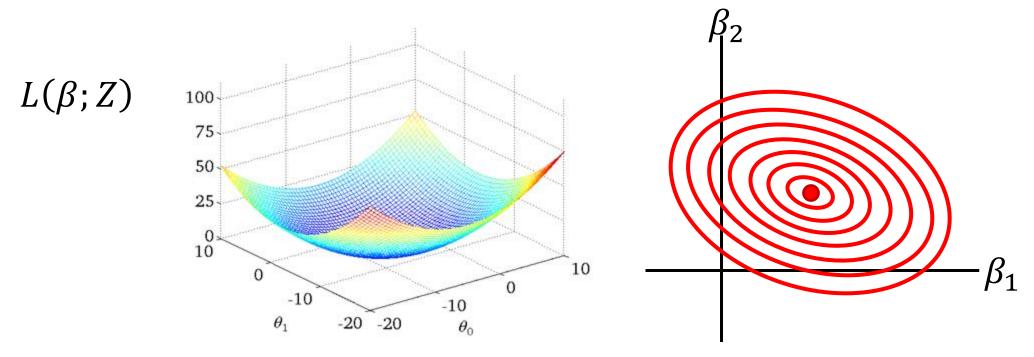








• Convex ("bowl shaped") in general



Later, we will discuss how to find the parameters  $\beta$  that minimize the MSE loss L

# What Is A "Good" Mean Squared Error?

- Zero MSE is rarely achievable. How do we know that the linear regression algorithm worked well?
- Compare to simple baselines: "Is my ML algorithm giving me more than what I could easily have coded up?" For example,
  - Constant prediction, e.g., predicting the mean of the training dataset target labels
  - Handcrafted model
  - ...
- A suite of performance metrics: There's no reason to solely rely on MSE for performance evaluation, even if you use MSE as the loss function.
- Evaluate beyond the training examples: (more on this soon)

#### Alternative Functions to Measure Performance

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}|\hat{y}_i-y_i|$$

• Mean relative error:

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{|\widehat{y_i}-y_i|}{|y_i|}$$

•  $R^2$  score:

- "Coefficient of determination"
- Higher is better,  $R^2 = 1$  is perfect

#### Alternative Functions to Measure Performance

#### • Pearson correlation:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(\hat{y}_i - \hat{\mu})(y_i - \mu)}{\hat{\sigma}\sigma}$$

• Usually estimated from some sampled measurements of those variables, and denoted as R (related to  $R^2$  on the last slide!)

#### Rank-order correlation:

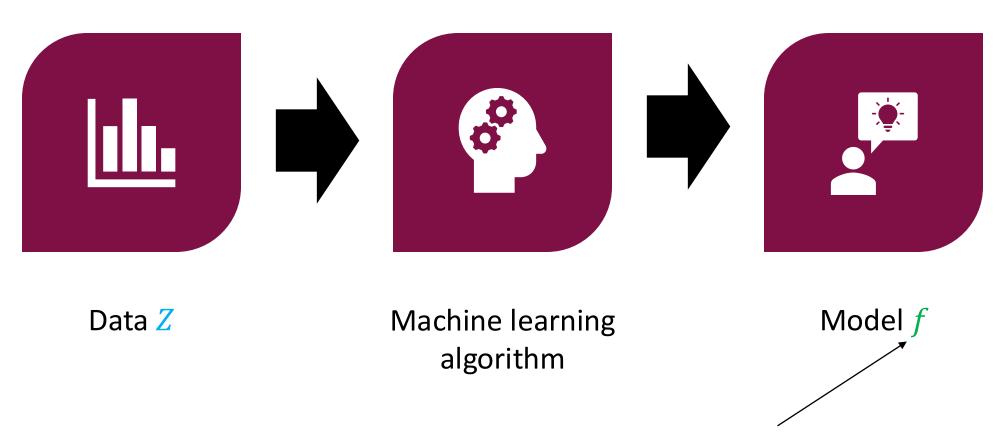
- First rank the measurements of  $\hat{y}_i$  and y separately, then replace each value in y by its rank, and ditto for  $\hat{y}$
- Then measure the linear correlation between those ranks

#### Performance Metrics

- Loss functions are special performance metrics.
  - Every loss function, e.g. MSE, is a performance metric, but not every performance metric is a convenient loss function for ML. (Reasons later)
- Always think carefully about the useful performance metric(s) for your ML problem. Use them to iterate on your ML design choices.
  - E.g. For an ML model that makes car driving decisions,
    - How frequently did it successfully get from A to B?
    - How fast did it get there?
    - How many traffic violations did it commit?
- The loss function is a single scalar function. A good choice of loss function:
  - expresses all the performance metrics.
  - is "convenient for machine learning." More on this later.

# Zooming Out of Linear Regression To The Big Picture For a Bit ...

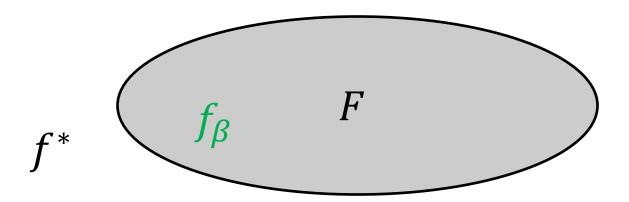
### Function Approximation View of ML



ML algorithm outputs a model f that best "approximates" the given data Z

# The "True Function" $f^*$

- Input: Dataset Z
  - Presume there is an unknown function  $f^*$  that **generates** Z
- Goal: Find an approximation  $f_{\beta} \approx f^*$  in our model family  $f_{\beta} \in F$ 
  - Typically,  $f^*$  not in our model family F



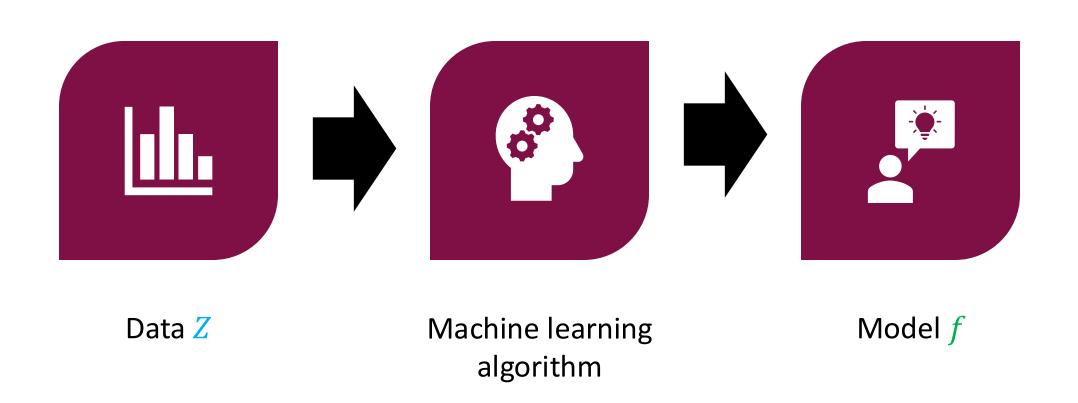
# Function Approximation View of ML

Framework for designing machine learning algorithms

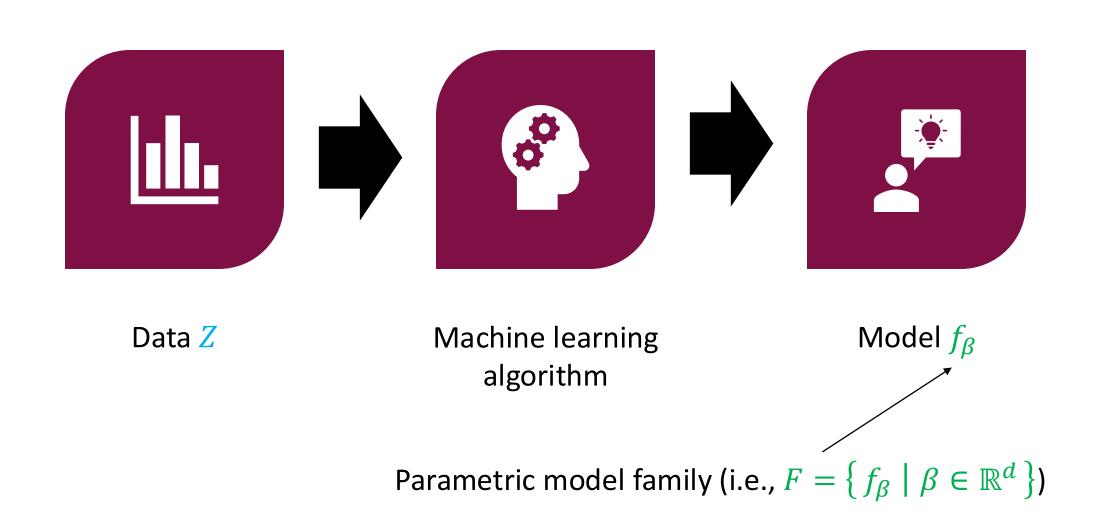
- Two key design decisions:
  - What is the family of candidate models f?
  - How to define "approximating"?

Let us see how linear regression fits in this framework.

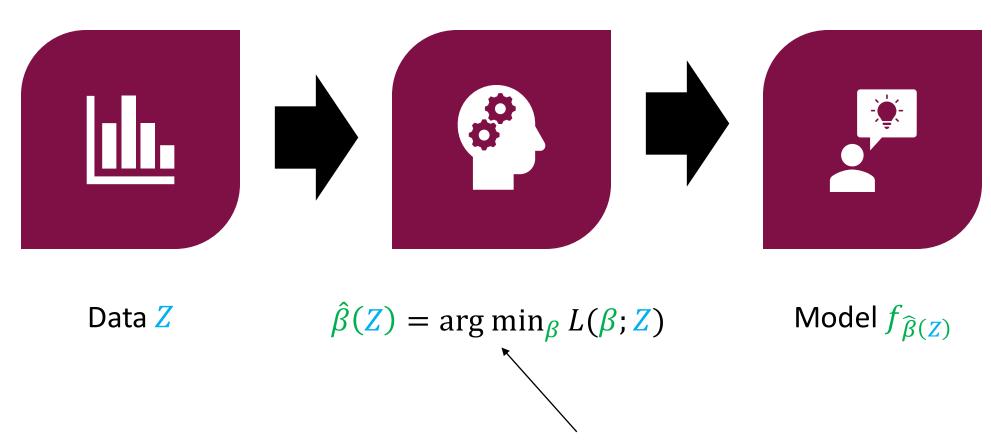
# Machine Learning



#### Machine Learning as Parametric Function Approximation

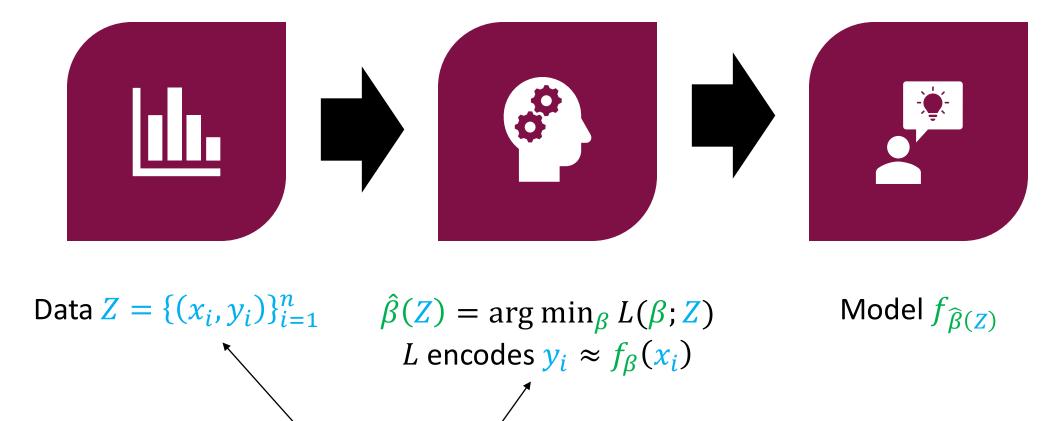


#### Machine Learning as Parametric Function Approximation



ML algorithm minimizes loss of parameters  $\beta$  over data Z

### ... For Supervised Learning



Goal is for function to approximate label y given input x

# ... Specifically, For Regression



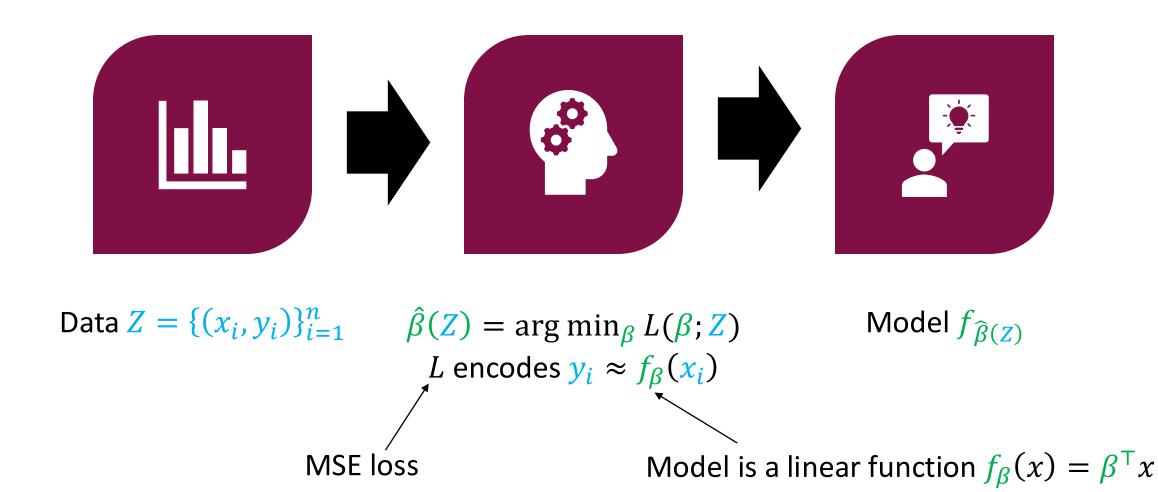
Data 
$$Z = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$$
  $\hat{\beta}(Z) = \arg\min_{\beta} L(\beta; Z)$ 

$$L \text{ encodes } y_i \approx f_{\beta}(x_i)$$

Model  $f_{\widehat{eta}(\mathbf{Z})}$ 

Label is a real number  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ 

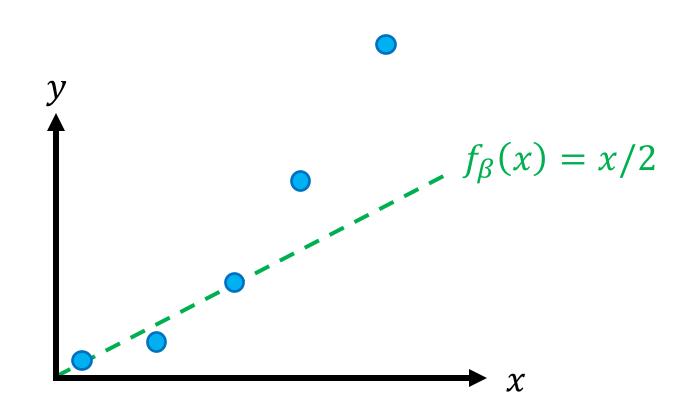
## ... Specifically, For Linear Regression



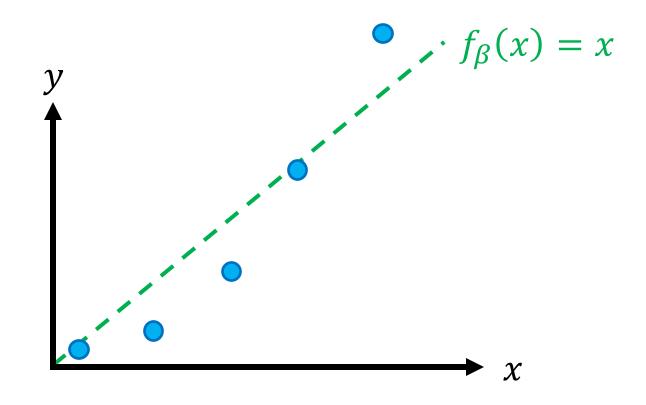
# Linear Regression With Feature Maps

Linear Regression When Data is Non-Linear?

# Example: Quadratic Function



## Example: Quadratic Function



Can we get a better fit?

## Feature Maps

#### **General strategy**

- Model family  $F = \{f_{\beta}\}_{\beta}$
- Loss function  $L(\beta; Z)$

#### Linear regression with feature map

• Linear functions over a given **feature**  $\operatorname{map} \phi \colon X \to \mathbb{R}^d$ 

$$F = \{ f_{\beta}(x) = \beta^{\mathsf{T}} \phi(x) \}$$

• MSE  $L(\beta; \mathbf{Z}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{y_i} - \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathsf{T}} \phi(\mathbf{x_i}))^2$ 

## Quadratic Feature Map

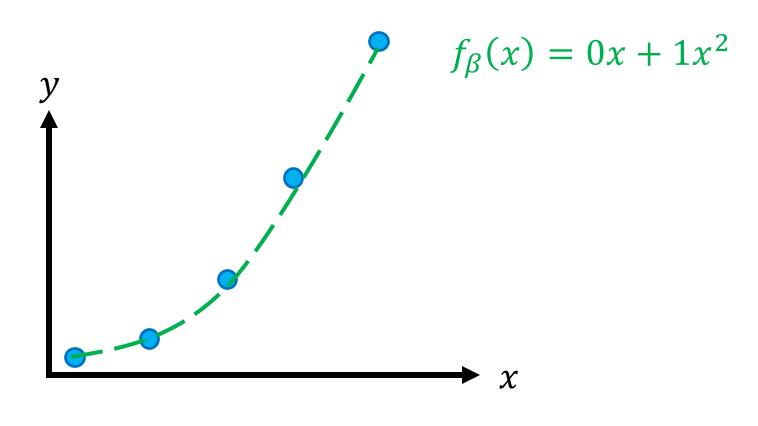
• Consider the feature map  $\phi \colon \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^2$  given by

$$\phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ x^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Then, the model family is

$$f_{\beta}(x) = \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2$$

# Quadratic Feature Map



In our family for 
$$\beta = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
!

#### Feature Maps

• Effectively changes the hypothesis space! This is a powerful strategy for encoding "prior knowledge" about the function we are looking to approximate.

#### Terminology

- x is the **input** and  $\phi(x)$  is the **features**
- Often used interchangeably

## **Examples of Feature Maps**

- Polynomial features
  - $\phi(x) = [1, x_1, x_2, x_1^2, x_1x_2, x_2^2]$
  - $f_{\beta}(x) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_1 + \beta_3 x_2 + \beta_4 x_1^2 + \beta_5 x_1 x_2 + \beta_6 x_2^2 + \cdots$
  - Quadratic features are very common; capture "feature interactions"
  - Can use other nonlinearities (exponential, logarithm, square root, etc.
- Note the intercept term (in red)
  - $\phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & \dots & x_d \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T}$
  - Almost always used; captures constant effect
- Encoding non-real inputs
  - E.g. Education level  $x \in \{\text{"high school"}, \text{"college"}, \text{"masters"}, \text{"doctoral"}\} \phi(x)$  maps to  $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$

## **Examples of Feature Maps**

- Feature maps can also help handle very complex data like text and images
  - E.g., x = "the food was good" and y = 4 stars
  - $\phi(x) = [1(\text{"good"} \in x) \ 1(\text{"bad"} \in x) \ ...]^{T}$

More on features for text and images later in the course!

# Algorithm for Non-Linear Regression

First, select an appropriate feature map:

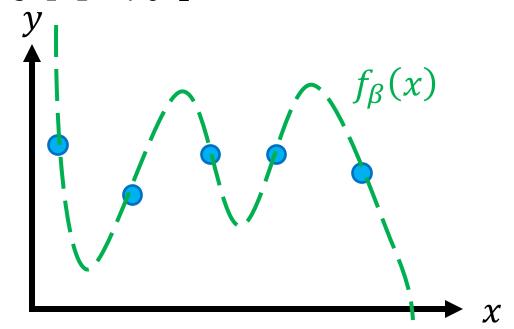
$$\boldsymbol{\phi}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ \phi_{d'}(x) \end{bmatrix}$$

Then, non-linear regression reduces to linear regression!

- Step 1: Compute  $\phi_i = \phi(x_i)$  for each  $x_i$  in Z
- Step 2: Run linear regression with  $Z' = \{(\boldsymbol{\phi}_1, y_1), ..., (\boldsymbol{\phi}_n, y_n)\}$

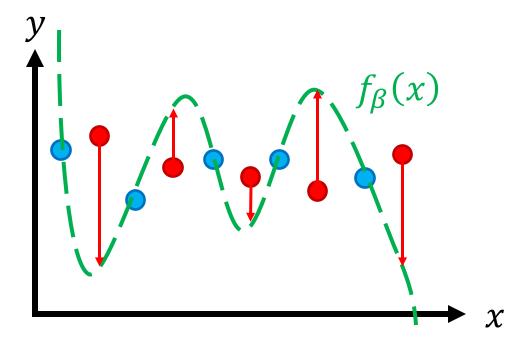
#### Question

- Why not always throw in lots of features?
  - After all, more features => more expressive hypothesis space!
  - For example, if  $\phi(x) = [1, x_1, x_2, x_1^2, x_1x_2, x_2^2, ...]$
  - Can fit any n points using an n-th degree polynomial  $f(x)=\beta_1+\beta_2x_1+\beta_3x_2+\beta_4x_1^2+\beta_5x_1x_2+\beta_6x_2^2+\cdots$



#### Prediction

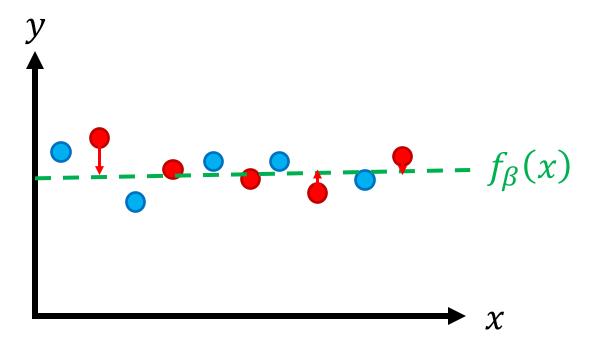
- Issue: The goal in machine learning is prediction
  - Given a **new** input x, predict the label  $\hat{y} = f_{\beta}(x)$



The errors on new inputs is very large!

#### Prediction

- Issue: The goal in machine learning is prediction
  - Given a **new** input x, predict the label  $\hat{y} = f_{\beta}(x)$



Vanilla linear regression actually works better!

#### Training vs. Test Data

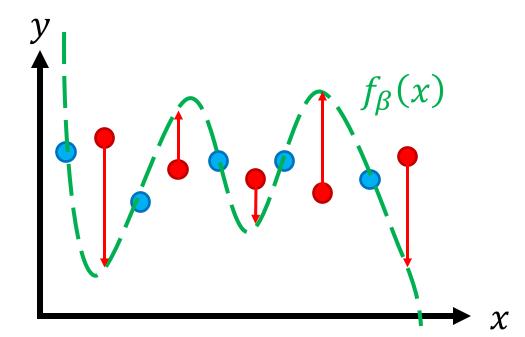
• Training data: Examples  $Z = \{(x, y)\}$  used to fit our model

• **Test data:** New inputs x whose labels y we want to predict

# Overfitting vs. Underfitting

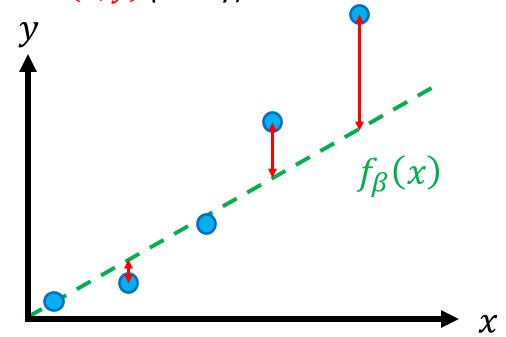
#### Overfitting

- Fit the training data Z well
- Fit new **test data** (x, y) poorly



#### Underfitting

- Fit the training data Z poorly
- (Necessarily also fit new test data (x, y) poorly)

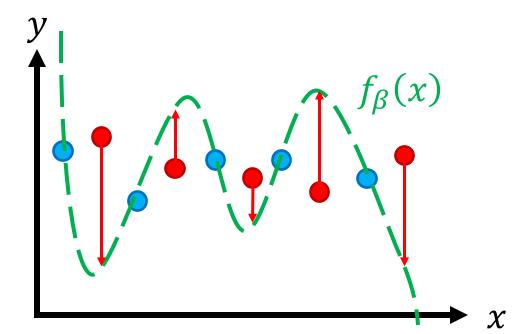


# Role of Capacity

- Capacity of a model family captures "complexity" of data it can fit
  - Higher capacity  $\rightarrow$  more likely to overfit (model family has high variance)
  - Lower capacity → more likely to underfit (model family has high bias)
- ullet For linear regression, capacity roughly corresponds to feature dimension d
  - I.e., number of features in  $\phi(x)$

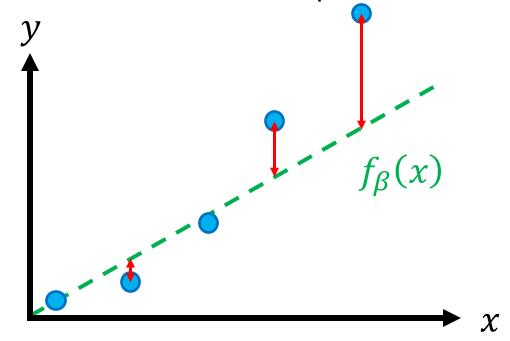
#### **Bias-Variance Tradeoff**

- Overfitting (high variance)
  - High capacity model capable of fitting complex data
  - Insufficient data to constrain it

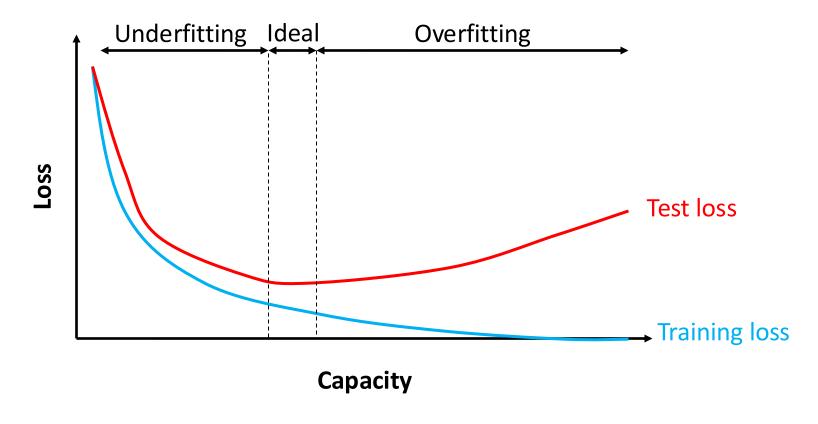


#### Underfitting (high bias)

- Low capacity model that can only fit simple data
- Sufficient data but poor fit



#### **Bias-Variance Tradeoff**



Warning: Very stylized plot!