

# Module 4B

# Supervised Machine

# Learning

Different flavors of REGRESSION and General Linear Models

## Finding a:

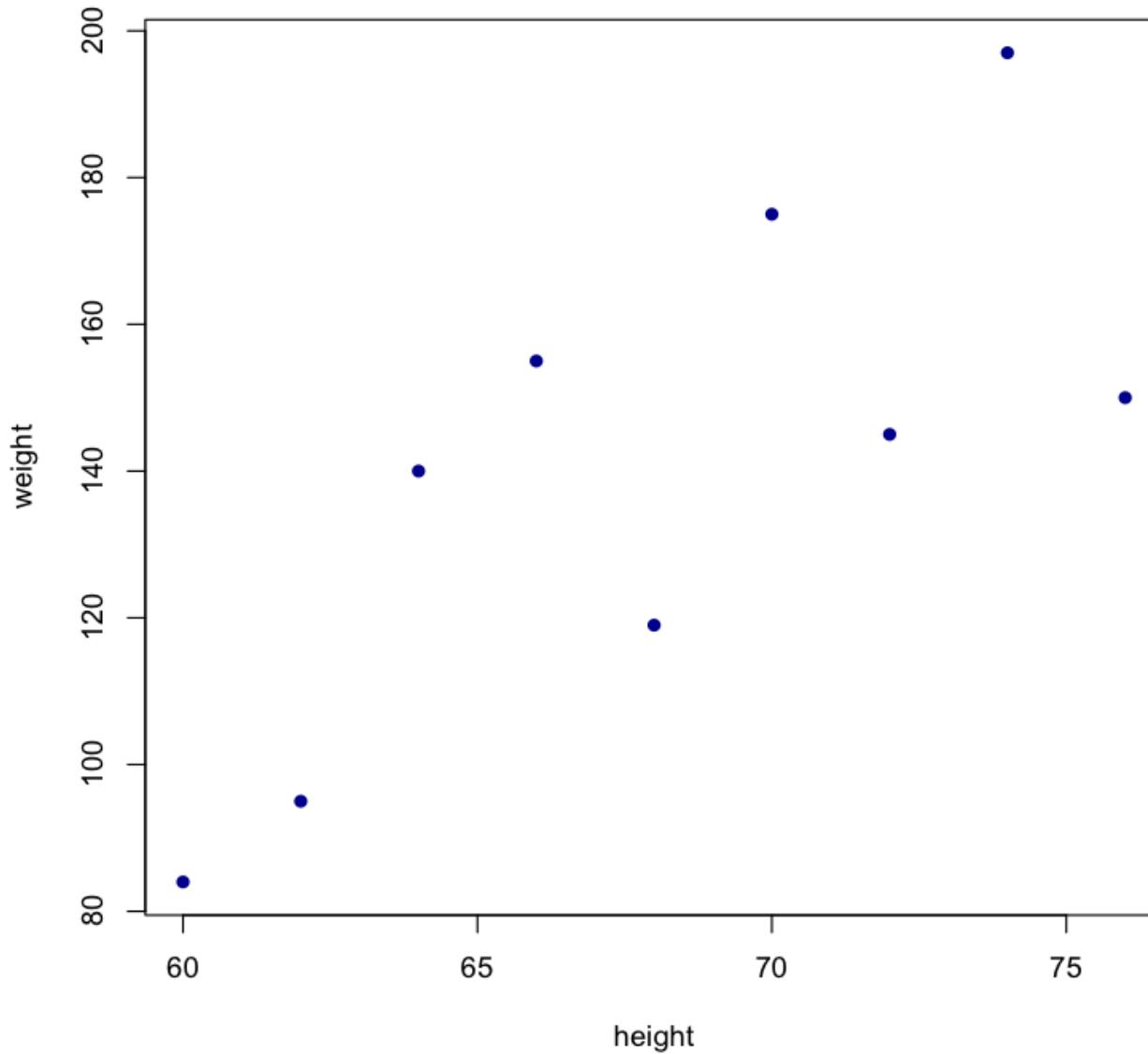
$$\bar{Y} = a + b\bar{X}$$

OR

$$a = \bar{Y} - b\bar{X}$$

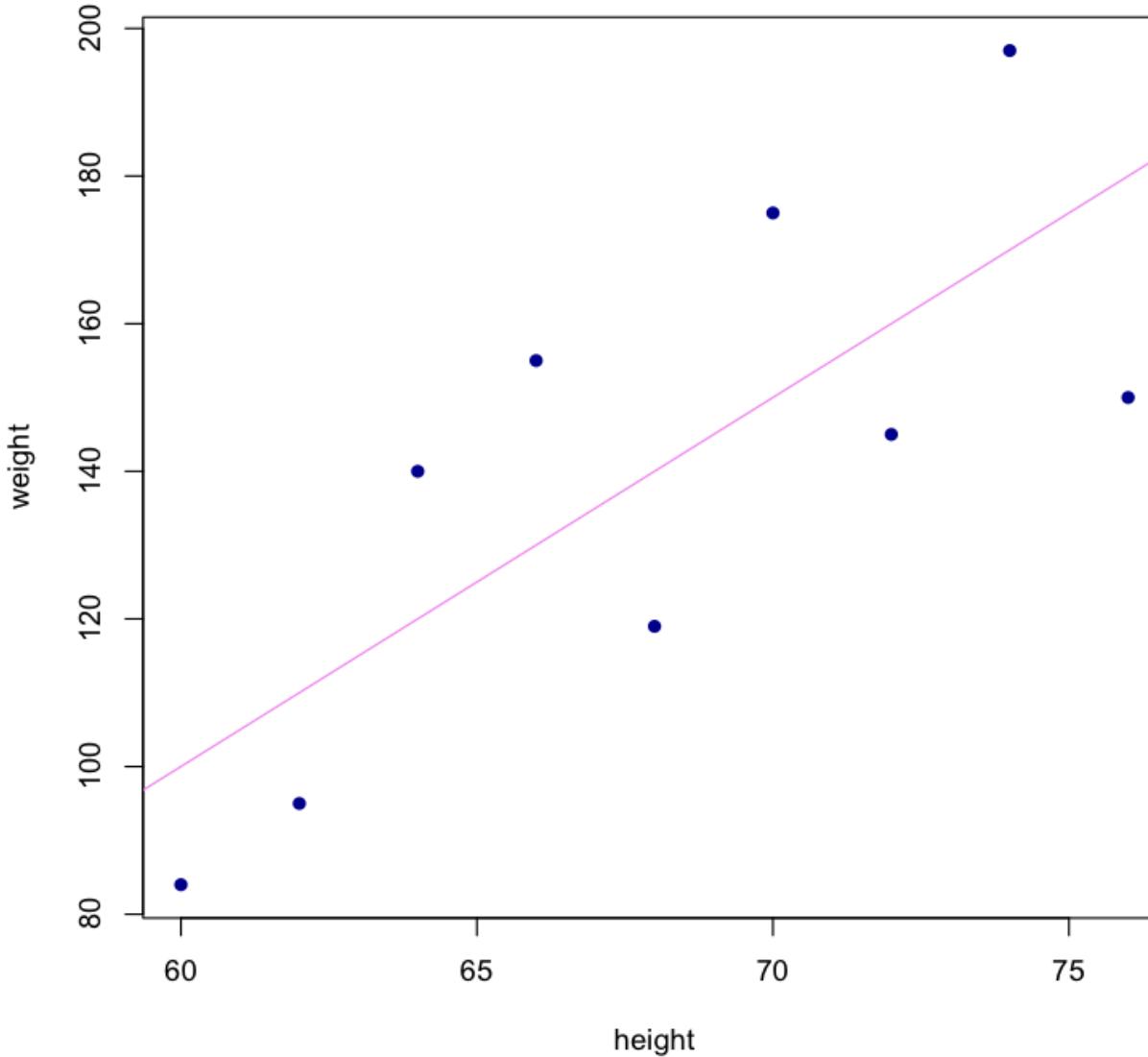
# Example: Predicted weight for someone who is 65 inches tall?

Height	Weight
60	84
62	95
64	140
66	155
68	119
70	175
72	145
74	197
76	150



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## Height Weight data:

$$\sum X = 612$$

$$\sum Y = 1260$$

$$n=9$$

$$\sum X^2 = 41856$$

$$\sum Y^2 = 186826$$

$$\sum (XY) = 86880$$

$$\bar{Y} = 140$$

$$\bar{X} = 68$$

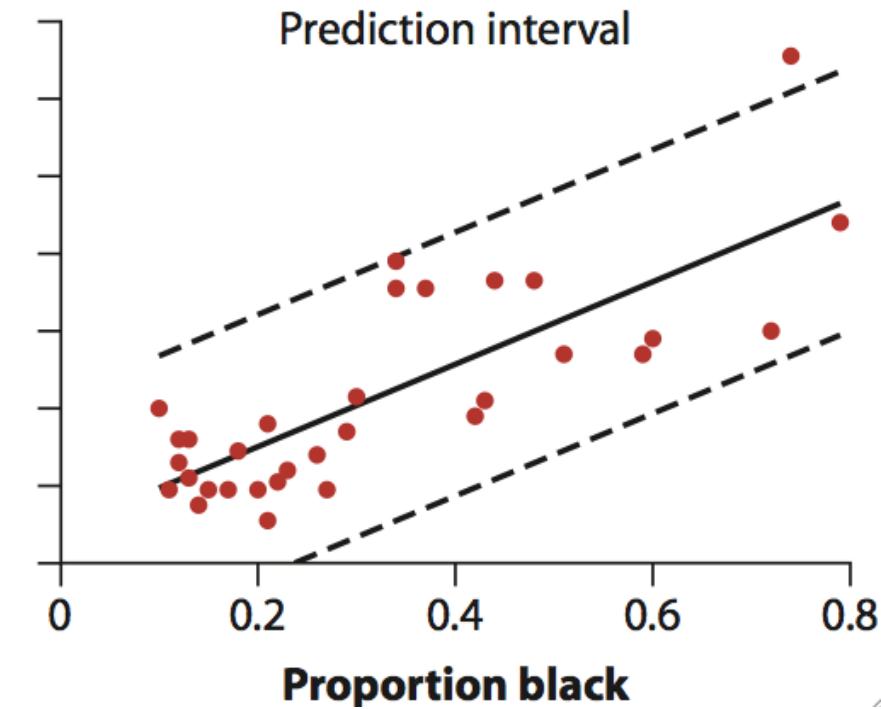
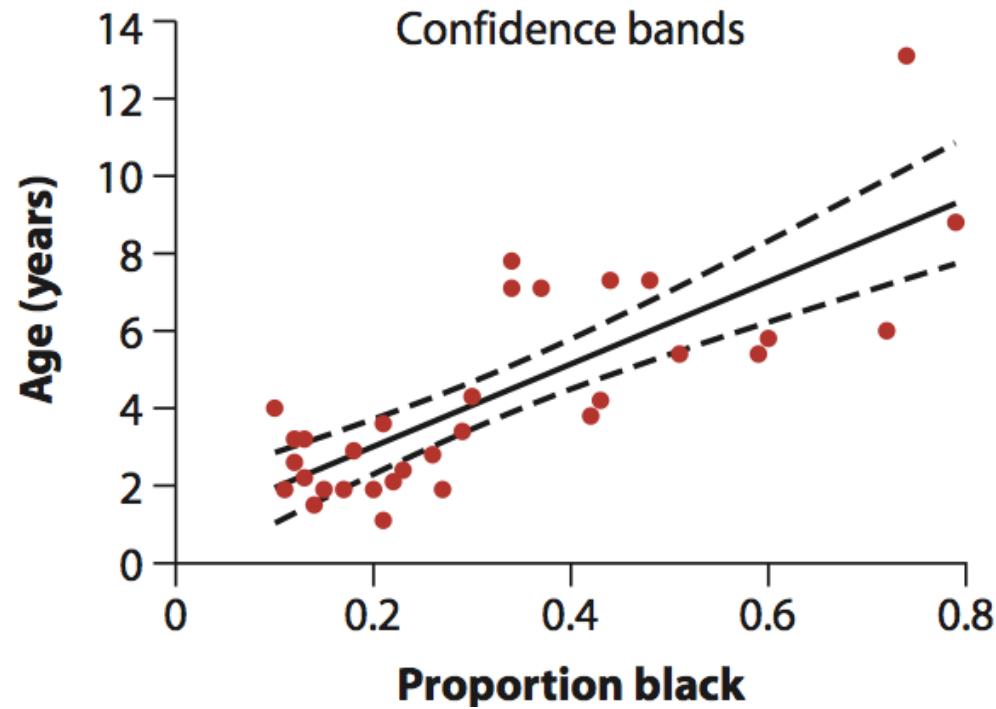
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$$b = 5$$

$$a = -200$$

$$\hat{Y} = -200 + 5X$$

# Prediction confidence:



## Prediction confidence:

The purpose of regression is to **predict**. There are two types of prediction:

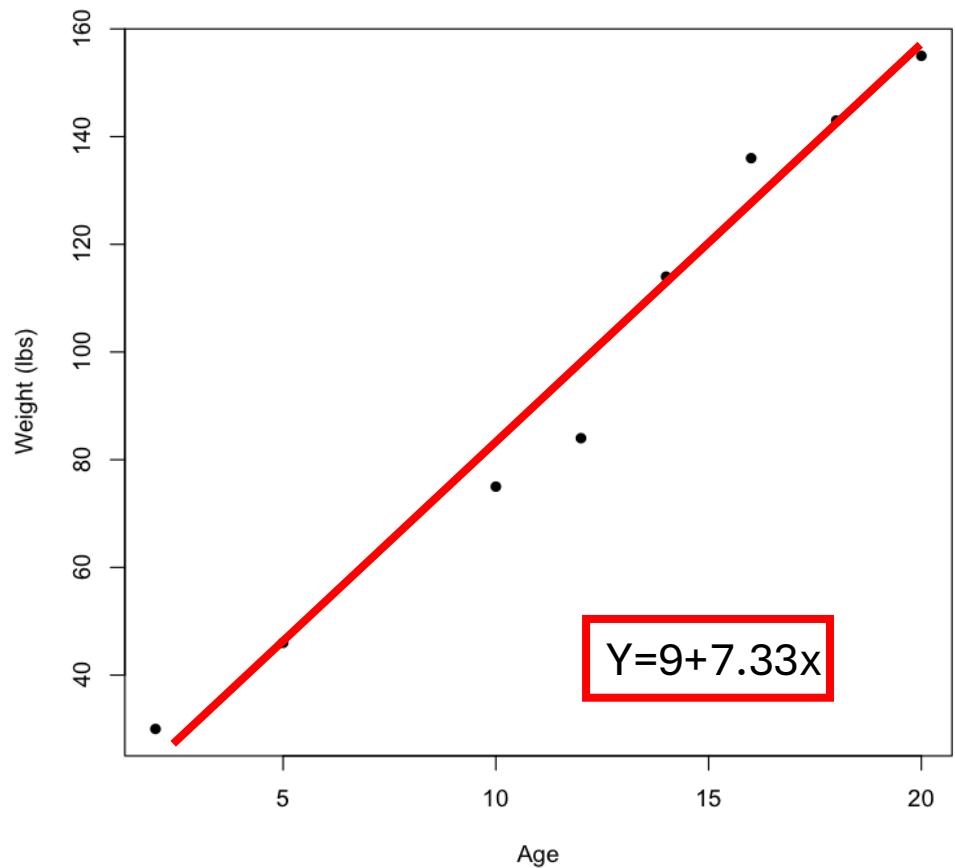
1.  $\bar{Y}$  for a given X. → Confidence bands (related to Confidence Interval)
2. Single Y for a given X → Prediction bands

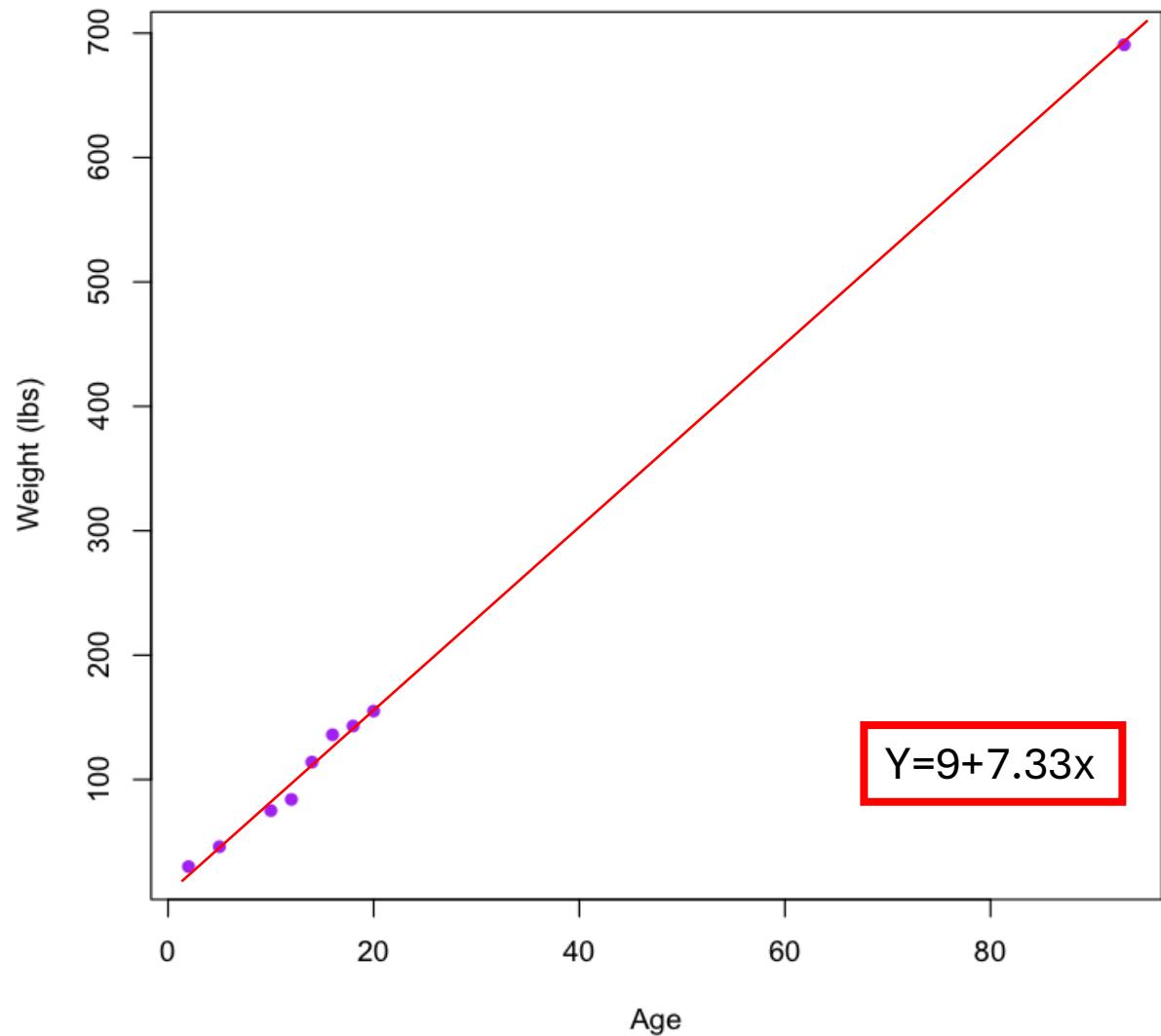
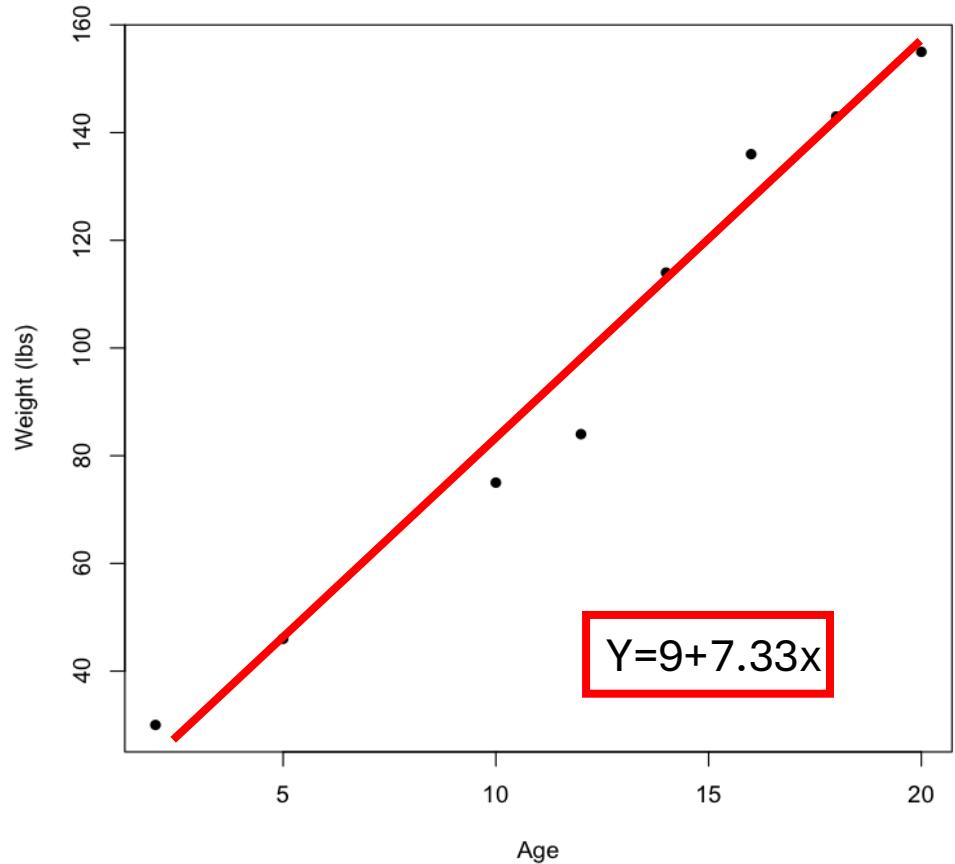
Both will generate  $\hat{Y}$  with the same value, but the prediction of a single Y point will have a lower precision.

# Caution! Do not extrapolate beyond the range of the data

<b>Age</b>	<b>Weight (lbs)</b>	<b>Time to run one mile</b>	<b>Bench Press (lbs)</b>
2	30		
5	46		
10	75		
12	84	5:40	
14	114	5:05	
16	136	4:40	160
18	143	4:35	180
20	155	4:30	

Measurements taken over the course of an individual's life





## Regression to the mean:

- Francis Galton invented the term to describe the observation that tall fathers had sons of average height
- He developed “regression analysis” to study this phenomenon of “regression towards mediocrity”
- results when two variables have correlation  $< 1$ 
  - Individuals who are far from the mean for one of the measurements will, on average, lie closer to the mean for the other measurement

## Regression fallacy:

- Tricky concept:
  - each individual has a **true** value, but the sampled value varies with time
    - the subset who scored highest on the first round included individuals who had higher values than their usual ‘true’ value
    - the second measurement captured these individuals when they happened to be closer to their own personal normal values
- failure to consider “regression towards the mean” when interpreting the results of **observational studies**
- can be a large problem when dealing with **sick** people - they are the tail of the distribution, and they might appear to improve even if the treatment applied has no real effect

## Regression to the mean:

A VERY old concept:

“You know, few sons turn out to be like their fathers;  
Most turn out worse, a few better.”

(Athena speaking to Telemachus)

- Homer, The Odyssey

## Regression fallacy: Rolling a die

<b>Student</b>	<b>First</b>	<b>Second</b>	<b>Second roll lower?</b>
1	4	5	no
2	4	3	yes
3	3	-	-
4	5	5	no
5	1	-	-
6	6	5	yes
7	5	2	yes
8	6	2	yes
9	3	-	-
10	2	-	-

Remaining students have a mean value of 5 (first roll) and 3.7 (second roll)

## Testing hypotheses about slope:

1.  $H_0: \beta = \beta_0$  (N.B. The null hypothesis is that Y cannot be predicted from X)

$H_A: \beta \neq \beta_0$

2. Test statistic:  $t = \frac{b - \beta_0}{SE_b}$

$$SE_b = \sqrt{\frac{MS_{residual}}{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2}}$$

**SE<sub>b</sub>**

3. significance level; df=n-2

4. Reject or FTR and:

$$b - t_{\alpha/2, n-2} SE_b < \beta < b + t_{\alpha/2, n-2} SE_b$$

When test is two-tailed and  $H_0: \beta = 0$ , you can use ANOVA approach to testing regression slopes (for multiple models, too!)

- F-test versus t-test
- If  $H_0$  is true, then the mean squares corresponding to the two components should be equal

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
Regression (model)	1	$\sum (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2$	$\sum (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2 / 1$	$MS_{\text{regression}} / MS_{\text{residual}}$
Error (residual)	N-2	$\sum (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$	$\sum (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2 / (n-2)$	
Total	N-1	$\sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$	$\sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 / (n-1)$	

## Assumptions of Regression Analysis:

- For each  $X_i$ , there is a population of  $Y$  values whose mean lies on the ‘true’ regression line
  - For each  $X_i$ , the  $Y$  are a random sample
  - For each  $X_i$ , the  $Y$  are normally distributed
- Homoscedasticity
  - For every  $X_i$ , the variance of  $Y$  is equal
- Nothing is assumed about the distribution of  $X$ 
  - It doesn’t need to be normally distributed or randomly sampled - they might be fixed by the experimenter

