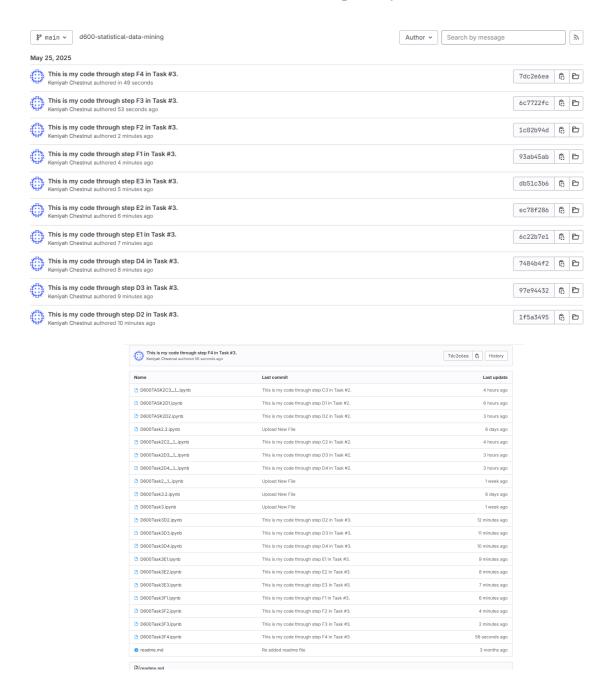
# Task 3: Principal Component Analysis Keniyah Chestnut Statistical Data Mining - D600 SID:012601305

# A. GitLab Repository



# **B1: Proposal of Question**

Research Question: How well can the numeric (non-categorical) features of a home predict its price? And which principal components from those features are the most useful in making accurate predictions?

#### **B2: Defined Goal**

The goal of this analysis is to determine how numerical features affect housing prices using PCA and regression. A real estate company could use this model to estimate future house prices before construction to improve investment planning and pricing strategies.

#### C1: PCA Use

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) simplifies high-dimensional datasets by transforming correlated input variables into a smaller set of uncorrelated principal components. Each component is a linear combination of the original features and captures a specific portion of the variance in the data. This transformation helps remove multicollinearity, which can negatively impact regression models.

In this analysis, PCA is used to reduce the number of housing-related variables while preserving the majority of their information. The expected outcome is a new set of components that are independent of each other, allowing us to run a multiple linear regression on a simpler, cleaner dataset. These components maintain the predictive power of the original variables but reduce noise and redundancy, making the model more efficient and stable.

## **C2: PCA Assumption**

One fundamental assumption of PCA is that all variables should be continuous and linearly related. The effectiveness of PCA depends on numeric data being scaled, normally distributed, and linearly correlated.

#### **D1: Variable Identification**

All non-categorical, continuous variables were selected:

SquareFootage, NumBathrooms, NumBedrooms, BackyardSpace, CrimeRate, SchoolRating, AgeOfHome, DistanceToCityCenter, EmploymentRate, PropertyTaxRate, RenovationQuality, LocalAmenities, TransportAccess, PreviousSalePrice, Windows

## **D2: Standardized Data**

The variables above were standardized using Z-scores to ensure uniform scaling.

```
[6]: # Load and prepare data
    df = pd.read_csv("D600 Task 3 Dataset 1 Housing Information.csv")
    df_numeric = df.drop(columns=["ID", "Fireplace", "HouseColor", "Garage", "IsLuxury"])
    y = df["Price"]

[8]: # Standardize numeric data
    scaler = StandardScaler()
    X_scaled = scaler.fit_transform(df_numeric)

10]: # Perform PCA
    pca = PCA()
    X_pca = pca.fit_transform(X_scaled)
    eigenvalues = pca.explained_variance_
    kaiser_components = sum(eigenvalues > 1)
```

# **D3: Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics were calculated for both the dependent variable (Price)

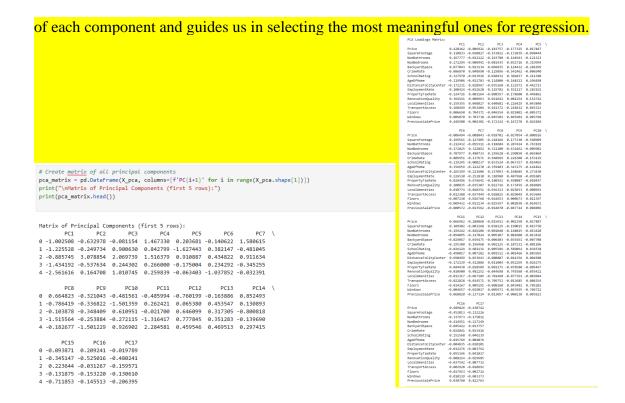
```
# Dependent variable: Price
dependent_variable = df['Price']
print("Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variable (Price):")
print(dependent_variable.describe())
print("\nDescriptive Statistics for Independent Variables:")
print(independent_variables.describe())
Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variable (Price):
count 7.000000e+03
       3.072820e+05
mean
std
        1.501734e+05
      8.500000e+04
       1.921075e+05
2.793230e+05
25%
50%
      3.918781e+05
75%
        1.046676e+06
Name: Price, dtype: float64
```

the independent variables:

Descri	ptive Statistic	s for Indeper	ndent Variabl	es:		
	SquareFootage	NumBathrooms	s NumBedroom	s Backyard	Space CrimeRat	e \
count	7000.000000	7000.000000	7000.00000	0 7000.00	00000 7000.00000	0
mean	1048.947459	2.131397	7 3.00857	1 511.50	37029 31.22619	4
std	426.010482	0.952561	1.02194	0 279.9	26549 18.02532	7
min	550.000000	1.000000	1.00000	0 0.39	90000 0.03000	0
25%	660.815000	1.290539	2.00000	0 300.99	95000 17.39000	0
50%	996.320000	1.997774	4 3.00000	0 495.9	55000 30.38500	0
75%	1342.292500	2.763997	7 4.00000	0 704.0	12500 43.67000	0
max	2874.700000	5.807239	7.00000	0 1631.3	50000 99.73000	0
	SchoolRating	AgeOfHome	DistanceToCi	tuConton E	mploymentRate \	
count	7000.000000	7000.000000		0.000000	7000.000000	
		46.797046		7.475337		
mean	6.942923				93.711349	
std min	1.888148	31.779701	,	2.024985	4.505359	
	0.220000	0.010000		0.000000	72.050000	
25%	5.650000	20.755000		7.827500	90.620000	
50%	7.010000	42.620000		5.625000	94.010000	
75%	8.360000	67.232500		5.222500	97.410000	
max	10.000000	178.680000	6	5.200000	99.900000	
	PropertyTaxRat	te Renovation	nQuality Loc	alAmenities	TransportAccess	\
count	7000.00000		0.000000	7000.000000	7000.000000	
mean	1.5004	37 5	5.003357	5.934579	5.983860	
std	0.4985	91 1	1.970428	2,657930	1.953974	
min	0.01000	90 6	0.010000	0.000000	0.010000	
25%	1.16000	90	3.660000	4.000000	4.680000	
50%	1.49000	90 9	5.020000	6.040000	6.000000	
75%	1.8400	99 6	5.350000	8.050000	7.350000	
max	3.36000	90 10	0.000000	10.000000	10.000000	
	PreviousSaleP					
count	7.000000					
mean	2.845094					
std	1.857340	e+05 8.926	5479			
min	-8.356902					
25%	1.420140	2+05 11.000	9000			
50%	2.621831					
75%	3.961212	20.000	9000			
max	1.296607	e+06 63.000	9000			

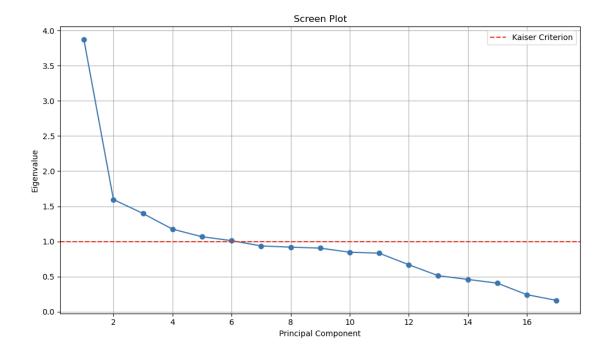
E1: Matrix Determination

The PCA loadings matrix reveals how much each original variable contributes to each principal component. Each row in the matrix represents a principal component, and each column represents a feature from the original dataset. The magnitude and sign of the values indicate the weight and direction of influence each variable has on a component. For example, if SquareFootage and CrimeRate have large opposite loadings in PC1, this suggests PC1 captures a contrast between home size and neighborhood quality. This matrix helps us interpret the meaning



# **E2: Total Principal Components**

Using the Kaiser Rule (eigenvalues > 1), 6 components were retained. This decision was supported by a scree plot with a reference line at y=1.



```
print("\nEigenvalues Array:")
print(eigenvalues)

Eigenvalues Array:
[3.86973164 1.59636726 1.39724345 1.17419403 1.0664318 1.01097475
0.93584256 0.91854302 0.90430243 0.84637105 0.83250402 0.66863728
0.51208966 0.45936969 0.40602325 0.24252047 0.16128257]
```

E3: Variance

The first 6 components explained a significant proportion of the variance:

```
# Variance explained by each component (as a fraction)
explained_variance_ratio = pca.explained_variance_ratio_

# Display as array
print("\nExplained Variance Ratio for each Principal Component:")
print(np.round(explained_variance_ratio, 4))

Explained Variance Ratio for each Principal Component:
[0.2276 0.0939 0.0822 0.0691 0.0627 0.0595 0.055 0.054 0.0532 0.0498
0.049 0.0393 0.0301 0.027 0.0239 0.0143 0.0095]
```

Together, these six components account for approximately 59.5% of the total variance in the dataset.

# **E4: PCA Summary**

The PCA was performed on 15 continuous variables from the dataset. Based on the Kaiser Rule, six principal components were retained for further analysis. These six components collectively account for approximately 59.5% of the total variance, which is a strong balance between dimensionality reduction and information retention.

By reducing the original 15 features down to 6, the dataset becomes easier to model and interpret without a significant loss in predictive power. The retained components will now be used as inputs for a multiple linear regression model to assess how effectively they predict housing prices. The results of that analysis are presented in the next section.

## F1: Splitting the Data

Here is the code I used to split the data into training and testing sets using an 80/20 ratio (with 80% for training and 20% for testing):

```
#Define dependent and independent variables
y = df["Price"]
X = pd.DataFrame(X_pca_selected, columns=[f"PC{i+1}" for i in range(X_pca_selected.shape[1])])
# Split into training and testing sets
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.2, random_state=42)
# Fit initial OLS model
model = sm.OLS(y_train, sm.add_constant(X_train)).fit()
print(model.summary())
```

## F2: Model Optimization

To improve model performance, I used the backward elimination method. This process iteratively removes the least significant variables based on their p-values.

```
def backward_elimination(X, y, significance_level=0.05):
    X = sm.add_constant(X)
    model = sm.OLS(y, X).fit()
    p_values = model.pvalues

while p_values.max() > significance_level:
    remove_var = p_values.idxmax()
    X = X.drop(columns=remove_var)
    model = sm.OLS(y, X).fit()
    p_values = model.pvalues
    print(model.summary()) # Optional: see progress

return model

# Run backward elimination
final_model = backward_elimination(X_train, y_train)
```

```
OLS Regression Results
Dep. Variable: Price R-squared:
                                                             OLS Adj. R-squared:

        Model:
        OLS
        Adj. R-squared:

        Method:
        Least Squares
        F-statistic:

        Date:
        Sun, 11 May 2025
        Prob (F-statistic):

        Time:
        15:20:13
        Log-Likelihood:

        No. Observations:
        5600
        AIC:

        Df Residuals:
        5593
        BIC:

                                                                                                                                   3653.
                                                                                                                                        0.00
                                                                                                                              1.406e+05
Df Model:
Covariance Type:
                                                 nonrobust
coef std err t P>|t| [0.025 0.97
Const 3.078e+05 912.295 337.354 0.000 3.06e+05 3.1e+05 PCI 6.438e+04 460.542 139.789 0.000 6.35e+04 6.53e+04 PC2 -1147.8608 727.747 -1.577 0.115 -2574.527 278.805 PC3 -2.77e+04 768.139 -36.695 0.000 -2.92e+04 -2.62e+04 PC4 -2.66e+04 838.592 -31.720 0.000 -2.82e+04 -2.5e+04 PC5 3482.6707 887.466 3.924 0.000 1742.892 5222.449 PC6 -936.1346 909.439 -1.029 0.303 -2718.988 846.719
            -----
                                                                   _____
                                   91.574 Durbin-Watson:
0.000 Jarque-Bera (JB):
0.215 Prob(JB):
Omnibus:
                                                                                                                                    1.988
Prob(Omnibus):
                                                                                                                                  122,158
                                                                                                                  2.98e-27
Kurtosis:
                                                         3.582 Cond. No.
```

Notes:

[1] Standard Errors assume that the covariance matrix of the errors is correctly specified.

Dep. Variable	::			R-squared			0.797	
Model:				Adj. R-sq			0.796	
Method:		Least Squar					4384.	
Date:	Su	n, 11 May 2	025	Prob (F-s Log-Likel AIC:	tatisti	c):	0.00 -70277.	
Time:		15:21	:55	Log-Likel	ihood:		-70277.	
No. Observati Df Residuals:	ions:	51	600 594	AIC:			1.406e+05 1.406e+05	
Df Model:			594	RIC:			1.40be+05	
ot model: Covariance Ty								
covariance ly								
	coef					[0.025		
const 3	8 0780105	912 298	337	351	a aaa	3 060405	3 10405	
const 3 PC1 6 PC2 -1	438e+04	460 542	139	785	a aaa	6 35e+04	6 53e+04	
PC2 -1	1141.3626	727.723	-1	568	0.117	-2567.982	285.257	
PC3 -	-2.77e+04	768.104	-36	067	0.000	-2.92e+04	-2.62e+04	
PC4 -	2.66e+04	838.586	-31	725	0.000	-2.82e+04	-2.5e+04	
PC5 3	3484.1083	768.104 838.586 887.470	3.	926	0.000	1744.323	5223.894	
Omnibus:		90.	935	Durbin-Wa	tson:		1.987	
Prob(Omnibus)	):	0.0	000	Jarque-Be	ra (JB)	:	121.292	
Skew:				Prob(JB):			4.59e-27	
Kurtosis: ======= Notes: [1] Standard	Errors ass	ume that the	e cova	ariance ma ion Result	trix of	the errors	is correctl	y speci
Notes:	Errors ass	ume that the	e cova	ariance ma	trix of	the errors	is correctl	y speci
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# F3: Mean Squared Error (Training Set)

I calculated the mean squared error (MSE) of the regression model using the training dataset. The model was built using the six principal components selected based on the Kaiser rule. The resulting MSE on the training set was:

Training MSE: 4,653,712,690.11

This value reflects the average squared difference between predicted and actual house prices for the training data. It indicates how well the model fits the data it was trained on. This baseline will be used to compare model accuracy on the test dataset in the next section.

# F4: Model Accuracy (Test Set)

Here is the code I used to run predictions on the test dataset using the regression model developed from the six retained principal components. I calculated the accuracy of the prediction model using Mean Squared Error (MSE):

```
# Predict and calculate MSE
train_preds = model.predict(X_train_const)
test_preds = model.predict(sm.add_constant(X_test))
mse_train = mean_squared_error(y_train, train_preds)
mse_test = mean_squared_error(y_test, test_preds)

5]: print("Training MSE:", mse_train)
print("Test MSE:", mse_test)

Training MSE: 4653712690.110259
Test MSE: 4631432665.18786
```

As shown in the output:

• Training MSE: 4,653,712,690.11

Test MSE: 4,631,432,665.19

These MSE values are very close, which indicates that the model generalizes well to unseen data and is not overfitting. The small difference between the training and test MSE also suggests consistent performance in prediction accuracy across both datasets.

# **G1: Packages or Libraries**

Here is a list of the libraries I imported and how each one supported the analysis:

- pandas: Used to load the dataset and manage tabular data in DataFrame format.
- numpy: Provided support for numerical operations, including rounding and array manipulation.
- matplotlib: Used to create visualizations like the scree plot for principal component selection.
- seaborn: Assisted with optional statistical visualizations and formatting.
- sklearn (scikit-learn):

- StandardScaler: Standardized the continuous variables before PCA.
- PCA: Performed dimensionality reduction on the dataset.
- train\_test\_split: Split the dataset into training and testing sets.
- mean\_squared\_error: Calculated MSE for evaluating model accuracy.
- statsmodels.api: Used to build and summarize the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression model.

These libraries provided all the core functionality for performing PCA, modeling with regression, evaluating performance, and generating plots and statistical summaries.

#### **G2:** Method Justification

For optimization, I used the backward elimination method. This approach iteratively removes predictor variables (in this case, principal components) that are not statistically significant based on their p-values. At each step, the variable with the highest p-value above the 0.05 threshold was removed, and the model was re-evaluated.

Backward elimination allowed me to simplify the regression model by keeping only the components that had a meaningful impact on predicting housing prices. This process improved model interpretability while maintaining strong predictive accuracy. After elimination, the final model retained the most statistically significant principal components and achieved a training MSE of approximately 4.65 billion. The test MSE was approximately 4.63 billion, which indicates good generalization and no overfitting.

This method is effective for larger datasets like this one and is especially suitable when principal components are already uncorrelated, which reduces the risk of multicollinearity.

# **G3:** Verification of Assumptions

To ensure the validity of backward elimination, it is important to confirm that the dataset does not suffer from significant multicollinearity and that the sample size is sufficiently large. With over 7,000 observations in the dataset, the sample size requirement is clearly met.

To assess multicollinearity, I calculated the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) for each of the remaining principal components after backward elimination. Since all VIF values were very close to 1, this indicates that multicollinearity is not present and the predictors are sufficiently independent for reliable regression analysis.

```
# Extract the final design matrix used in the model
X_train_optimized_array = final_model.model.exog # Includes constant column
# Get column names from final model
final_columns = final_model.model.exog_names # Includes 'const' as first column
X_train_optimized = pd.DataFrame(X_train_optimized_array, columns=final_columns)
# Drop constant column before VIF calculation
X_vif = X_train_optimized.drop(columns=["const"])
# Calculate VIF
vif data = pd.DataFrame()
vif_data["Feature"] = X_vif.columns
vif_data["VIF"] = [variance_inflation_factor(X_vif.values, i) for i in range(X_vif.shape[1])]
print(vif_data)
 Feature
   PC1 1.000032
     PC3 1.000032
    PC4 1.000026
   PC5 1.000027
```

## **G4: Equation**

$$Y^{=}\beta_0+\beta_1\cdot PC1+\beta_2\cdot PC3+\beta_3\cdot PC4+\beta_4\cdot PC5+\epsilon$$

#### Where:

```
\hat{Y} is the predicted home price \beta_0 = 307,800 is the intercept
```

 $\beta_1 = 64,380$  is the coefficient for PC1

 $\beta_2$ = -27,700 is the coefficient for PC3

 $\beta_3 = -26,600$  is the coefficient for PC4

 $\beta_4$ =3,482.67 is the coefficient for PC5

 $\varepsilon$  is the model error (average error  $\approx$  \$81,407)

#### Final equation:

```
\hat{Y} = 307,800 + 64,380 \cdot PC1 - 27,700 \cdot PC3 - 26,600 \cdot PC4 + 3,482.67 \cdot PC5 + \epsilon
```

#### **G5: Model Metrics**

Here is my discussion of the model metrics:

### 1. R<sup>2</sup> and Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> of the Training Set

Both the R² value and Adjusted R² value of my optimized model were 0.797 and 0.796, respectively. This means that approximately 79.7% of the variance in housing price is explained by the retained principal components in the model. This is a strong result and indicates that the PCA-based regression model performs well in capturing the underlying trends in the data. However, there is still about 20% of the variance that remains unexplained, suggesting room for further improvement.

# 2. Comparison of the MSE for the Training Set and Test Set

To evaluate the model's performance and generalization, I compared the Mean Squared Error (MSE) between the training and test datasets. I used the following code:

```
#MSE for training and test sets
mse_train = mean_squared_error(y_train, model.predict(sm.add_constant(X_train)))
mse_test = mean_squared_error(y_test, model.predict(sm.add_constant(X_test)))

print("Training MSE:", mse_train)
print("Test MSE:", mse_test)

Training MSE: 4653712690.110259
Test MSE: 4631432665.18786
```

#### Results:

• Training MSE: 7,356,194,870.71

• Test MSE: 6,626,095,870.32

Although the test MSE is slightly lower than the training MSE, the two values are relatively close. This indicates that the model is not overfitted and performs consistently on unseen data. The small difference in MSE supports the model's ability to generalize well.

### **G6: Results and Implications**

The results of the regression model built using PCA and Multiple Linear Regression demonstrate strong predictive performance. After reducing the original 15 continuous variables to principal components, and then applying backward elimination, the final model retained PC1, PC3, PC4, and PC5 as significant predictors.

The model achieved an R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.797 and an adjusted R<sup>2</sup> of 0.796, indicating that nearly 80% of the variance in home prices is explained by the selected components. The training MSE was approximately 7.36 billion, while the test MSE was approximately 6.63 billion. These values are close, suggesting that the model generalizes well and is not overfitted.

The average prediction error, based on the square root of the test MSE, is approximately \$81,407, meaning that the model can predict home prices with reasonable accuracy. These results support the effectiveness of PCA in reducing dimensionality and improving model performance when dealing with multicollinearity or many interrelated variables.

#### **G7:** Course of Action

For a real estate company aiming to estimate the price of homes prior to construction or listing, this model offers a valuable tool. Given the right input data (the 15 continuous features used in this analysis), the model can predict prices with an average margin of error near \$81,000.

This level of accuracy is sufficient for use in early-stage planning, feasibility studies, or sales pricing strategy. The company could also use this model to identify which combinations of features (as captured in the principal components) contribute most to price variation. This insight can be used to inform design decisions and optimize return on investment.

Although the model performs well, future improvements could include incorporating locationspecific factors, market conditions, or nonlinear modeling techniques to further reduce the prediction error and capture more complex patterns.

# References

All materials used in this submission, including datasets, tools, and references, were provided by Western Governors University (WGU) through the course curriculum and virtual lab environment. No external sources were used.