Step 1: Reading and understanding the data

```
In [1]:
import pandas as pd
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import seaborn as sns
from sklearn.datasets import load boston
In [2]:
boston = load_boston()
In [3]:
boston.keys()
Out[3]:
dict_keys(['data', 'target', 'feature_names', 'DESCR', 'filename'])
 · Print column names
In [4]:
print(boston.feature_names)
['CRIM' 'ZN' 'INDUS' 'CHAS' 'NOX' 'RM' 'AGE' 'DIS' 'RAD' 'TAX' 'PTRATIO'
 'B' 'LSTAT']
In [5]:
bos_data = pd.DataFrame(data = boston.data , columns=boston.feature_names )
```

- · Now,
 - we have a pandas DataFrame called bos_data containing all the data we want to use to predict Boston Housing prices.
 - Let's create a variable called PRICE which will contain the prices. This information is contained in the target data.

In [6]:

```
bos_data['PRICE'] = boston.target
bos_data.head()
```

Out[6]:

	CRIM	ZN	INDUS	CHAS	NOX	RM	AGE	DIS	RAD	TAX	PTRATIO	В	LST
0	0.00632	18.0	2.31	0.0	0.538	6.575	65.2	4.0900	1.0	296.0	15.3	396.90	4.
1	0.02731	0.0	7.07	0.0	0.469	6.421	78.9	4.9671	2.0	242.0	17.8	396.90	9.
2	0.02729	0.0	7.07	0.0	0.469	7.185	61.1	4.9671	2.0	242.0	17.8	392.83	4.
3	0.03237	0.0	2.18	0.0	0.458	6.998	45.8	6.0622	3.0	222.0	18.7	394.63	2.
4	0.06905	0.0	2.18	0.0	0.458	7.147	54.2	6.0622	3.0	222.0	18.7	396.90	5.

4

Step 2: Data Description

· A story of what data is all about and the features present in the data

Data Set Characteristics:

- Number of Instances: 506
- Number of Attributes: 13 numeric/categorical predictive
- · Median Value (attribute 14) is usually the target
 - Attribute Information (in order):
 - CRIM: per capita crime rate by town
 - **ZN**: proportion of residential land zoned for lots over 25,000 sq.ft.
 - INDUS: proportion of non-retail business acres per town
 - CHAS: Charles River dummy variable (= 1 if tract bounds river; 0 otherwise)
 - NOX : nitric oxides concentration (parts per 10 million)
 - RM: average number of rooms per dwelling
 - AGE: proportion of owner-occupied units built prior to 1940
 - · DIS: weighted distances to five Boston employment centres
 - RAD: index of accessibility to radial highways
 - PTRATIO: pupil-teacher ratio by town
 - **B**: 1000(Bk 0.63)^2 where Bk is the proportion of blacks by town
 - · LSTAT: % lower status of the population
 - MEDV: Median value of owner-occupied homes in \$1000's
 - Missing Attribute Values: None

```
In [7]:
```

```
bos data.info()
<class 'pandas.core.frame.DataFrame'>
RangeIndex: 506 entries, 0 to 505
Data columns (total 14 columns):
               Non-Null Count Dtype
#
     Column
0
     CRIM
               506 non-null
                                float64
                                float64
 1
     ΖN
               506 non-null
               506 non-null
 2
     INDUS
                                float64
 3
     CHAS
               506 non-null
                                float64
 4
     NOX
               506 non-null
                                float64
 5
     RM
               506 non-null
                                float64
 6
     AGE
               506 non-null
                                float64
7
     DIS
               506 non-null
                                float64
8
     RAD
               506 non-null
                                float64
9
                                float64
     TAX
               506 non-null
 10
     PTRATIO
              506 non-null
                                float64
                                float64
 11
     В
               506 non-null
 12
     LSTAT
               506 non-null
                                float64
 13
    PRICE
               506 non-null
                                float64
dtypes: float64(14)
memory usage: 55.5 KB
In [8]:
bos data.shape
Out[8]:
(506, 14)
In [9]:
bos_data.isnull().sum()
Out[9]:
CRIM
           0
\mathsf{ZN}
           0
INDUS
           0
CHAS
           0
NOX
           0
RM
           0
           0
AGE
DIS
           0
RAD
           0
TAX
           0
PTRATIO
           0
В
           0
           0
LSTAT
PRICE
dtype: int64
```

- · Data does not contain any null value
- · so, we good to go with next steps.

Step 3: Performing both Statistical and Graphical Data Analysis

Implementation: Calculate Statistics

- We will calculate descriptive statistics about the Boston housing prices. Since numpy has already been
 imported, we use this library for perform the necessary calculations. - These statistics will be extremely
 important later on to analyze various prediction results from the constructed model.
- In the code cell below, we will need to implement the following:
- Calculate the minimum, maximum, mean, median, and standard deviation of 'MEDV', which is stored in PRICE. Store each calculation in their respective variable.

In [10]:

```
min_price = np.min(bos_data['PRICE'])
max_price = np.max(bos_data['PRICE'])
mean_price = np.mean(bos_data['PRICE'])
median_price = np.median(bos_data['PRICE'])
std_price = np.std(bos_data['PRICE'])

# Show the calculated statistics
print("Statistics for Boston housing dataset: ")
print("Minimum price : ${:,.2f}".format(min_price))
print("Maximum price : ${:,.2f}".format(mean_price))
print("Mean price : ${:,.2f}".format(mean_price))
print("Median price : ${:,.2f}".format(median_price))
print("Std. Deviation : ${:,.2f}".format(std_price))
```

Statistics for Boston housing dataset:

Minimum price : \$5.00
Maximum price : \$50.00
Mean price : \$22.53
Median price : \$21.20
Std. Deviation : \$9.19

Pearson's Coeffecient 'r' can be used to justify the above correlations:

- r > 0 => Positive Correlation
- r = 0 => No Correlation
- r < 0 => Negative Correlation

In [11]:

bos_data.corr()

Out[11]:

	CRIM	ZN	INDUS	CHAS	NOX	RM	AGE	DIS
CRIM	1.000000	-0.200469	0.406583	-0.055892	0.420972	-0.219247	0.352734	-0.379670
ZN	-0.200469	1.000000	-0.533828	-0.042697	-0.516604	0.311991	-0.569537	0.664408
INDUS	0.406583	-0.533828	1.000000	0.062938	0.763651	-0.391676	0.644779	-0.708027
CHAS	-0.055892	-0.042697	0.062938	1.000000	0.091203	0.091251	0.086518	-0.099176
NOX	0.420972	-0.516604	0.763651	0.091203	1.000000	-0.302188	0.731470	-0.769230
RM	-0.219247	0.311991	-0.391676	0.091251	-0.302188	1.000000	-0.240265	0.205246
AGE	0.352734	-0.569537	0.644779	0.086518	0.731470	-0.240265	1.000000	-0.747881
DIS	-0.379670	0.664408	-0.708027	-0.099176	-0.769230	0.205246	-0.747881	1.000000
RAD	0.625505	-0.311948	0.595129	-0.007368	0.611441	-0.209847	0.456022	-0.494588
TAX	0.582764	-0.314563	0.720760	-0.035587	0.668023	-0.292048	0.506456	-0.534432
PTRATIO	0.289946	-0.391679	0.383248	-0.121515	0.188933	-0.355501	0.261515	-0.232471
В	-0.385064	0.175520	-0.356977	0.048788	-0.380051	0.128069	-0.273534	0.291512
LSTAT	0.455621	-0.412995	0.603800	-0.053929	0.590879	-0.613808	0.602339	-0.496996
PRICE	-0.388305	0.360445	-0.483725	0.175260	-0.427321	0.695360	-0.376955	0.249929
4								•

Visualising the Data

- EDA and Summary Statistics
 - Let's explore this data set. First we use describe() to get basic summary statistics for each of the columns.

In [12]:

bos_data.describe()

Out[12]:

	CRIM	ZN	INDUS	CHAS	NOX	RM	AGE	
count	506.000000	506.000000	506.000000	506.000000	506.000000	506.000000	506.000000	506
mean	3.613524	11.363636	11.136779	0.069170	0.554695	6.284634	68.574901	3
std	8.601545	23.322453	6.860353	0.253994	0.115878	0.702617	28.148861	2
min	0.006320	0.000000	0.460000	0.000000	0.385000	3.561000	2.900000	1
25%	0.082045	0.000000	5.190000	0.000000	0.449000	5.885500	45.025000	2
50%	0.256510	0.000000	9.690000	0.000000	0.538000	6.208500	77.500000	3
75%	3.677083	12.500000	18.100000	0.000000	0.624000	6.623500	94.075000	5
max	88.976200	100.000000	27.740000	1.000000	0.871000	8.780000	100.000000	12

localhost:8888/lab#Checking-Lasso-Score

In [13]:

```
plt.figure(figsize=(30, 20))
sns.heatmap(data = bos_data.corr(), annot = True)
plt.show()
```



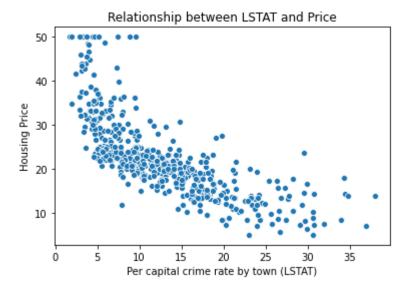
- Since the main goal of this project is to construct a working model which has the capability of predicting the value of houses, we will need to separate the dataset into features and the target variable.
- The features, 'RM', 'LSTAT', and 'PTRATIO', give us quantitative information about each data point.
- The target variable, 'MEDV', will be the variable we seek to predict. These are stored in features and prices, respectively.

Scatter plots

• Let's look at some scatter plots for three variables: 'LSTAT', 'RM' and 'PTRATIO'.

In [14]:

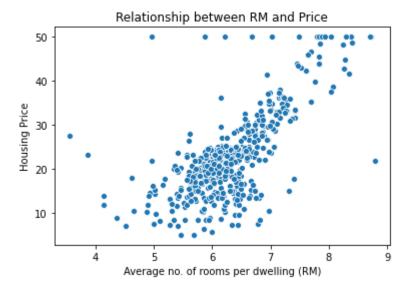
```
sns.scatterplot(x = bos_data.LSTAT, y = bos_data.PRICE)
plt.xlabel('Per capital crime rate by town (LSTAT)')
plt.ylabel('Housing Price')
plt.title("Relationship between LSTAT and Price")
plt.show()
```



- 'LSTAT' is the percentage of homeowners in the neighborhood considered "lower class" (working poor).
 - An increase in 'LSTAT' indicates that more number of lower class owners live in the neighbourhood indicating cheaper/lower house prices i.e. 'MEDV'. Hence 'LSTAT' and 'PRICE' are negatively correlated.

In [15]:

```
sns.scatterplot(x = bos_data.RM, y = bos_data.PRICE)
plt.xlabel('Average no. of rooms per dwelling (RM)')
plt.ylabel('Housing Price')
plt.title("Relationship between RM and Price")
plt.show()
```

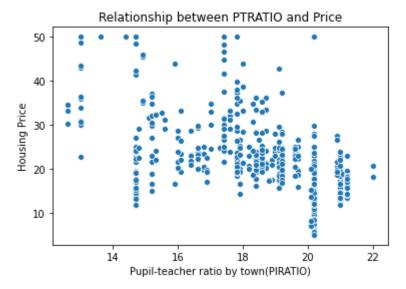


- 'RM' is the average number of rooms among homes in the neighborhood.
 - An increase in 'RM' indicates more number or rooms or more space which increase the price i.e.
 'MEDV'. Hence 'LSTAT' and 'PRICE' are positively correlated.

1/20/2021 Linear Regression

In [16]:

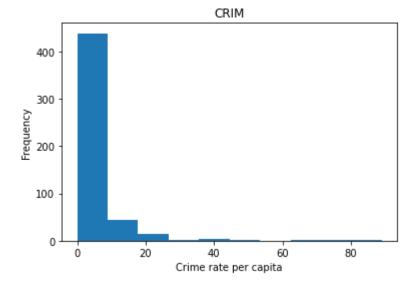
```
sns.scatterplot(x = bos_data.PTRATIO, y = bos_data.PRICE)
plt.xlabel('Pupil-teacher ratio by town(PIRATIO)')
plt.ylabel('Housing Price')
plt.title("Relationship between PTRATIO and Price")
plt.show()
```



- 'PTRATIO' is the ratio of students to teachers in primary and secondary schools in the neighborhood.
 - An increase in 'PTRATIO' indicates that there are more number students than teachers and the teachers will not be able to pay more attention to each of students thus lowering the quality of education which will decrease the price i.e. 'MEDV'. Hence 'PTRATIO' and 'PRICE' are negatively correlated.

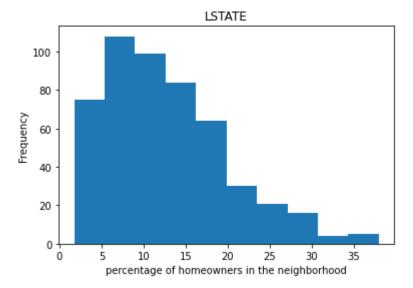
In [17]:

```
plt.hist(bos_data.CRIM)
plt.title("CRIM")
plt.xlabel("Crime rate per capita")
plt.ylabel("Frequency")
plt.show()
```



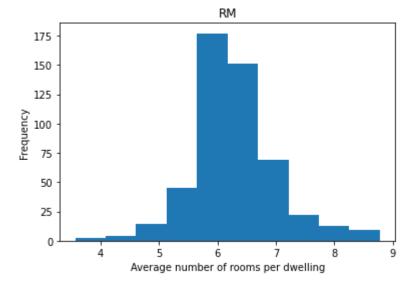
In [18]:

```
plt.hist(bos_data.LSTAT)
plt.title("LSTATE")
plt.xlabel("percentage of homeowners in the neighborhood")
plt.ylabel("Frequency")
plt.show()
```



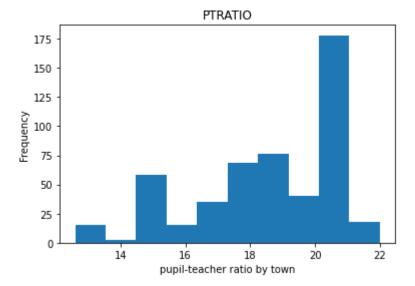
In [19]:

```
plt.hist(bos_data.RM)
plt.title("RM")
plt.xlabel("Average number of rooms per dwelling")
plt.ylabel("Frequency")
plt.show()
```



In [20]:

```
plt.hist(bos_data.PTRATIO)
plt.title("PTRATIO")
plt.xlabel("pupil-teacher ratio by town")
plt.ylabel("Frequency")
plt.show()
```

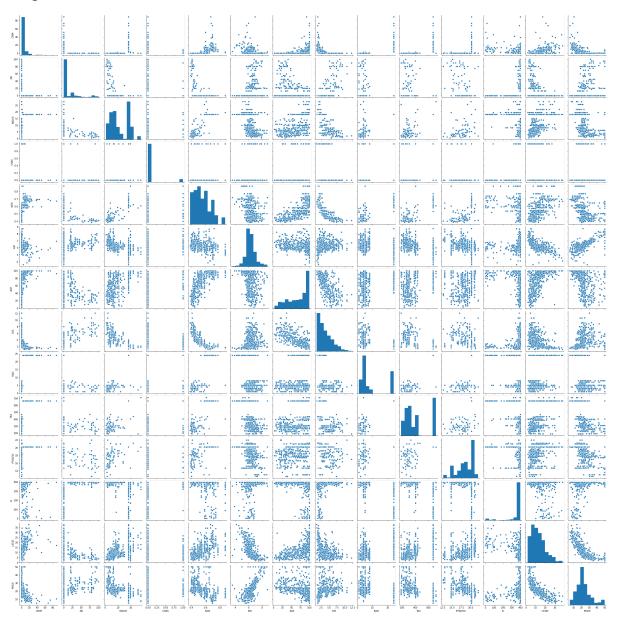


• Let's see the pair plot

In [21]:

```
plt.figure(figsize = (20, 20))
sns.pairplot(bos_data)
plt.show()
```

<Figure size 1440x1440 with 0 Axes>



1/20/2021 Linear Regression

Step 4: Data Standardization and Normalization

Rescaling the Features

- It is extremely important to rescale the variables so that varaibles have a comparable scale.
- if we don't have comparable scales, then some of the coeff. as obtained by fitting the regression model
 might be very large or very small as compared to the other coeff.
- this might be very annoying at the time of model evaluation.

as we know, there are two common ways to rescaling

- 1. Min-Max Scaling
- 2. Standardisation (mean-0, sigma-1)
- rescale all the numeric data in between 0 to 1

We use StandardScaler Scaling

```
In [22]:
    from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler

In [23]:
    var_list = list(bos_data.columns)

In [24]:
    var_list.remove('PRICE')

In [25]:
```

```
_____
```

```
def min_max_scale(col, bos_data):
    scale = StandardScaler()
    bos_data[col] = scale.fit_transform(bos_data[[col]])
    return bos_data
```

```
In [26]:
```

```
for col in var_list:
   bos_data = min_max_scale(col, bos_data)
```

In [27]:

```
bos_data.head()
```

Out[27]:

	CRIM	ZN	INDUS	CHAS	NOX	RM	AGE	DIS	RAE
0	-0.419782	0.284830	-1.287909	-0.272599	-0.144217	0.413672	-0.120013	0.140214	-0.982843
1	-0.417339	-0.487722	-0.593381	-0.272599	-0.740262	0.194274	0.367166	0.557160	-0.867883
2	-0.417342	-0.487722	-0.593381	-0.272599	-0.740262	1.282714	-0.265812	0.557160	-0.867883
3	-0.416750	-0.487722	-1.306878	-0.272599	-0.835284	1.016303	-0.809889	1.077737	-0.752922
4	-0.412482	-0.487722	-1.306878	-0.272599	-0.835284	1.228577	-0.511180	1.077737	-0.752922

Step 5: Creation of Train and Test data sets using optimum parameters

```
In [28]:
```

```
from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split

df_train, df_test = train_test_split(bos_data, test_size = 0.2, random_state = 0)

df_train.shape, df_test.shape

Out[28]:

((404, 14), (102, 14))

In [29]:

y_train = df_train.pop('PRICE')
X_train = df_train
```

Step 6: Model Training using the ML Algorithm tested above

6.1: Building Linear Regression by statsmodel.api

- · As wee might noticed, 'PRICE' seems to the correlated to 'RM' the most.
- so we pick 'RM' as the first variable and we'll try to fit a regression line.

In [30]:

```
# build model with statsmodel.api
import statsmodels.api as sm
```

- Dividing into X and Y sets for the model building
- Linear model with variable 'RM' as we above picked it.

In [31]:

```
# add constant
X_train_lm = X_train[['RM']]
X_train_lm = sm.add_constant(X_train_lm)
```

In [32]:

```
# creating a first fitted model
lr = sm.OLS(y_train, X_train_lm).fit()
```

In [33]:

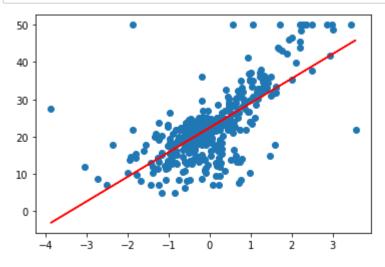
lr.params

Out[33]:

const 22.450958 RM 6.581495 dtype: float64

In [34]:

```
# scatter plot and the fitted regression line
plt.scatter(X_train_lm.iloc[:,1], y_train)
plt.plot(X_train_lm.iloc[:,1],22.450958 + 6.581495 * X_train_lm.iloc[:,1],'r')
plt.show()
```



In [35]:

```
lr.summary()
```

Out[35]:

OLS Regression Results

De	p. Variable	e:	PR	ICE	R-sc	quared:	0.497
	Mode	ıl:	(OLS	Adj. R-so	quared:	0.496
	Method: Le			ares	F-st	atistic:	397.3
	Date: Wed,			021 P	rob (F-sta	5.64e-62	
	Time	e:	17:09	9:20	Log-Like	-1332.2	
No. Ob	servations	s:		404		AIC:	2668.
Df Residuals:				402		BIC:	2676.
	Df Mode	l:		1			
Covar	iance Type	e:	nonrol	oust			
	coef	std err	t	P> t	[0.025	0.975]	
const	22.4510	0.326	68.768	0.000	21.809	23.093	
RM	6.5815	0.330	19.933	0.000	5.932	7.231	
Omnibus: 66.6			Durb	in-Wats	on:	1.892	
Prob(C)mnibus):	0.000	Jarque	-Bera (J	JB): 4	56.894	

Warnings:

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

Prob(JB): 6.12e-100

1.03

Adding another variable

Skew:

Kurtosis:

0.458

8.129

• the R sq. value obtained is 0.497. since we have so many variables,

Cond. No.

- · we can clearly do better than this.
- so let's go ahead and add the second variable.
- i.e CRIME . (choice of variable is random)

In [36]:

```
# build a linear model again with two varaibles

X_train_lm = X_train[['RM','CRIM']]

# add constant
X_train_lm = sm.add_constant(X_train_lm)
```

In [37]:

```
# build model
lr = sm.OLS(y_train, X_train_lm).fit()
```

In [38]:

lr.params

Out[38]:

const 22.390549 RM 6.061324 CRIM -2.765795 dtype: float64 1/20/2021 Linear Regression

In [39]:

```
lr.summary()
```

Out[39]:

OLS Regression Results

Dep. Variable: **PRICE** R-squared: 0.574 Model: Adj. R-squared: OLS 0.572 270.5 Method: Least Squares F-statistic: Wed, 20 Jan 2021 Prob (F-statistic): 4.21e-75 Time: 17:09:21 Log-Likelihood: -1298.5 No. Observations: 404 AIC: 2603. **Df Residuals:** 401 BIC: 2615. 2 Df Model: **Covariance Type:** nonrobust 0.975] coef std err P>|t| [0.025 const 22.3905 0.301 74.436 0.000 21.799 22.982 RM 6.0613 0.310 19.541 0.000 5.452 6.671 -2.7658 CRIM 0.324 -8.532 0.000 -3.403 -2.129**Omnibus:** 126.742 **Durbin-Watson:** 1.906

 Prob(Omnibus):
 0.000
 Jarque-Bera (JB):
 807.488

 Skew:
 1.172
 Prob(JB):
 4.53e-176

Kurtosis: 9.517 **Cond. No.** 1.23

Warnings:

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

- · we have clearly imporved the model as the value of adjusted R- sq.
- as its value has gone up to 0.574 from 0.497.

Adding another variable

let's go ahead and add another variable ZN

In [40]:

```
X_train_lm = X_train[['RM','CRIM','ZN']]
```

In [41]:

```
# add constant

X_train_lm = sm.add_constant(X_train_lm)
```

In [42]:

```
# build the model
lr = sm.OLS(y_train, X_train_lm).fit()
```

In [43]:

lr.params

Out[43]:

const 22.381875 RM 5.622117 CRIM -2.565376 ZN 1.336155 dtype: float64

In [44]:

```
lr.summary()
```

Out[44]:

OLS Regression Results

De	p. Variable	e:	PR	ICE	R-sc	quared:	0.593
	Mode	l:	(OLS	Adj. R-so	quared:	0.590
Method:		d: Le	ast Squa	ares	F-st	tatistic:	194.2
	Date	e: Wed,	20 Jan 2	021 P	rob (F-sta	atistic):	1.09e-77
	Time	e:	17:09	9:21	Log-Like	lihood:	-1289.5
No. Ob	servations	s:		404		AIC:	2587.
Df	Residuals	s:		400		BIC:	2603.
	Df Mode	l:		3			
Covar	iance Type	e:	nonrol	oust			
	coef	std err	t	P> t	[0.025	0.975]	
const	22.3819	0.295	75.983	0.000	21.803	22.961	
RM	5.6221	0.321	17.529	0.000	4.992	6.253	
CRIM	-2.5654	0.321	-7.995	0.000	-3.196	-1.935	
ZN	1.3362	0.313	4.265	0.000	0.720	1.952	
(Omnibus:	144.339	Dur	bin-Wat	son:	1.913	
Prob(C	mnibus):	0.000	Jarqu	e-Bera (JB):	941.398	
	Skew:	1.361		Prob	JB): 3.	79e-205	
	Kurtosis:	9.965		Cond	No.	1.51	

Warnings:

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

- we have improved the adjusted R-sq. again.
- now let's go ahead and add all the feature variables

Adding all the variables to the model

In [45]:

```
# check all the columns of the dataframe

X_train.columns
```

Out[45]:

In [46]:

```
# add a constant

X_train_lm = sm.add_constant(X_train)
```

In [47]:

```
# build the model
lr = sm.OLS(y_train, X_train_lm).fit()
```

In [48]:

lr.params

Out[48]:

const	22.480353
CRIM	-1.026382
ZN	1.043346
INDUS	0.037594
CHAS	0.593962
NOX	-1.866519
RM	2.603226
AGE	-0.087768
DIS	-2.916465
RAD	2.124022
TAX	-1.850331
PTRATIO	-2.262124
В	0.739679
LSTAT	-3.515584
dtype: floa	nt64

In [49]:

lr.summary()

Out[49]:

OLS Regression Results

3							
Dep. \	/ariable:		PRICE		R-square	ed:	0.773
	Model:		OLS	Adj.	R-square	ed:	0.765
	Method:	Leas	t Squares		F-statist	ic:	102.2
	Date:	Wed, 20	Jan 2021	Prob (F-statisti	c): 9.64	1e-117
Time:			17:09:22	Log-	Likelihoo	od: -	1171.5
No. Obser	vations:		404		A	IC:	2371.
Df Re	siduals:		390		В	IC:	2427.
D	f Model:		13				
Covarian	се Туре:	r	nonrobust				
	coef	std err	t	P> t	[0.025	0.975]	
const	22.4804	0.224	100.452	0.000	22.040	22.920	
CRIM	-1.0264	0.315	-3.257	0.001	-1.646	-0.407	
ZN	1.0433	0.336	3.102	0.002	0.382	1.705	
INDUS	0.0376	0.435	0.087	0.931	-0.817	0.892	
CHAS	0.5940	0.229	2.595	0.010	0.144	1.044	
NOX	-1.8665	0.488	-3.828	0.000	-2.825	-0.908	
RM	2.6032	0.321	8.106	0.000	1.972	3.235	
AGE	-0.0878	0.403	-0.218	0.828	-0.880	0.704	
DIS	-2.9165	0.450	-6.480	0.000	-3.801	-2.032	
RAD	2.1240	0.610	3.481	0.001	0.924	3.324	
TAX	-1.8503	0.656	-2.819	0.005	-3.141	-0.560	
PTRATIO	-2.2621	0.296	-7.636	0.000	-2.845	-1.680	
В	0.7397	0.269	2.749	0.006	0.211	1.269	
LSTAT	-3.5156	0.387	-9.086	0.000	-4.276	-2.755	

 Omnibus:
 141.494
 Durbin-Watson:
 1.996

 Prob(Omnibus):
 0.000
 Jarque-Bera (JB):
 629.882

 Skew:
 1.470
 Prob(JB):
 1.67e-137

 Kurtosis:
 8.365
 Cond. No.
 9.75

Warnings:

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

- · looking at the p-value,
- it look like some of the variables aren't really significant (in the presence of other variables).
 - we could simply drop the variable with the highest p-value (non-significant).
 - A better way would be to supplement this with the VIF information.

Checking VIF

- Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), gives a basic quantitative idea ablut how much the feautre variables are correlated with each other.
- · it is an extremely important parameter to test our linear model.

In [50]:

```
# importing library for VIF
from statsmodels.stats.outliers_influence import variance_inflation_factor
```

In [51]:

```
# create a dataframe to store data
vif = pd.DataFrame()
```

In [52]:

```
# creating 1st column which contain all the column name in vif DataFrame
vif['Features'] = X_train.columns
```

In [53]:

```
# creating 2nd column which contain value of VIF

vif['VIF'] = [variance_inflation_factor(X_train.values, i) for i in range(X_train.shape[1
])]
vif['VIF'] = round(vif['VIF'],2) # round values upto 2 decimal
```

In [54]:

```
# sorting value of VIF by decending order

vif = vif.sort_values(by = 'VIF', ascending=False)
vif
```

Out[54]:

	Features	VIF
9	TAX	8.90
8	RAD	7.43
4	NOX	4.74
7	DIS	3.99
2	INDUS	3.96
6	AGE	3.27
12	LSTAT	3.15
1	ZN	2.34
5	RM	2.03
10	PTRATIO	1.82
0	CRIM	1.79
11	В	1.38
3	CHAS	1.06

- · we generally want a VIF theat is less than 5
- · so, there are clearly some variable we need to drop

Dropping the variables and updating the model

now as we can see from the 'Summary' and 'VIF' dataframe. some variable are still indignificant.

- Here first we drop variable which have high p-value(non-significant) because when we drop this and rebuild the model then value of VIF will modify and reduce
- so, INDUS as it a very high p-value of 0.931

Drop 'INDUS' variable and rebuild the model

In [55]:

```
# dropping variable
X = X_train.drop('INDUS',1)
```

In [56]:

```
# create model
# adding constant

X_train_lm = sm.add_constant(X)
```

In [57]:

```
lr_2 = sm.OLS(y_train, X_train_lm).fit()
```

In [58]:

```
1r_2.summary()
```

Out[58]:

OLS Regression Results

Dep. \	/ariable:		PRICE	I	R-square	ed:	0.773
	Model:		OLS	Adj.	R-square	ed:	0.766
	Method:	Leas	t Squares		F-statist	ic:	111.0
	Date:	Wed, 20	Jan 2021	Prob (I	F-statisti	c): 8.9	8e-118
	Time:		17:09:23	Log-	Likelihoo	od: -	1171.5
No. Observations:			404		Al	2369.	
Df Re	siduals:		391		В	IC:	2421.
D	f Model:		12				
Covarian	се Туре:		nonrobust				
	coef	std err	t	P> t	[0.025	0.975]	
const	22.4807	0.223	100.597	0.000	22.041	22.920	
CRIM	-1.0274	0.314	-3.267	0.001	-1.646	-0.409	
ZN	1.0409	0.335	3.110	0.002	0.383	1.699	
CHAS	0.5957	0.228	2.616	0.009	0.148	1.043	
NOX	-1.8556	0.470	-3.944	0.000	-2.781	-0.931	
RM	2.6007	0.319	8.142	0.000	1.973	3.229	
AGE	-0.0885	0.402	-0.220	0.826	-0.880	0.703	
DIS	-2.9250	0.438	-6.671	0.000	-3.787	-2.063	
RAD	2.1073	0.578	3.646	0.000	0.971	3.244	
TAX	-1.8242	0.582	-3.133	0.002	-2.969	-0.680	
PTRATIO	-2.2581	0.292	-7.728	0.000	-2.833	-1.684	
В	0.7390	0.269	2.751	0.006	0.211	1.267	
LSTAT	-3.5130	0.385	-9.118	0.000	-4.270	-2.756	
Omi	nibus: 1	<i>4</i> 1 572	Durbin-V	Vateon:	1 (997	
Prob(Omn	ibus):	0.000	Jarque-Be	ra (JB):	630.8	0/4	

Warnings:

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

Prob(JB): 1.02e-137

8.15

Cond. No.

Skew:

Kurtosis:

1.470

8.370

In [59]:

```
# calculating VIF again new model

vif = pd.DataFrame()
vif['Features'] = X.columns
vif['VIF'] = [variance_inflation_factor(X.values,i) for i in range(X.shape[1])]
vif['VIF'] = round(vif['VIF'],2)
vif = vif.sort_values(by='VIF', ascending=False)
vif
```

Out[59]:

	Features	VIF
8	TAX	7.02
7	RAD	6.68
3	NOX	4.42
6	DIS	3.79
5	AGE	3.26
11	LSTAT	3.13
1	ZN	2.32
4	RM	2.02
0	CRIM	1.79
9	PTRATIO	1.77
10	В	1.38
2	CHAS	1.05

as we can notice some of the variable have high VIF values as well as high p-values.

- the variable TAX has a high VIF (7.02) and p-value (0.002).
- · hence, this variable isn't of much use and should be dropped

Again drop another variable 'TAX' and rebuild the model

In [60]:

```
# dropping variable 'bedroom'
X = X.drop('TAX', axis=1) # 1 for column
```

In [61]:

```
# add constant

X_train_lm = sm.add_constant(X)
```

In [62]:

```
# build model
lr_3 = sm.OLS(y_train, X_train_lm).fit()
```

In [63]:

```
1r_3.summary()
```

Out[63]:

OLS Regression Results

Dep. Variable:	PRICE	R-squared:	0.767
Model:	OLS	Adj. R-squared:	0.761
Method:	Least Squares	F-statistic:	117.5
Date:	Wed, 20 Jan 2021	Prob (F-statistic):	9.94e-117
Time:	17:09:24	Log-Likelihood:	-1176.5
No. Observations:	404	AIC:	2377.
Df Residuals:	392	BIC:	2425.
Df Model:	11		
Covariance Type:	nonrobust		
coef	std err t	P> t [0.025 0.9	75]

	0001	Sta CII	•	1 - 4	[0.020	0.570]
const	22.5234	0.226	99.860	0.000	22.080	22.967
CRIM	-0.9952	0.318	-3.131	0.002	-1.620	-0.370
ZN	0.8302	0.332	2.504	0.013	0.178	1.482
CHAS	0.6568	0.229	2.863	0.004	0.206	1.108
NOX	-2.1729	0.465	-4.677	0.000	-3.086	-1.260
RM	2.7341	0.320	8.542	0.000	2.105	3.363
AGE	-0.1081	0.407	-0.266	0.791	-0.908	0.692
DIS	-2.7613	0.440	-6.272	0.000	-3.627	-1.896
RAD	0.7462	0.386	1.935	0.054	-0.012	1.504
PTRATIO	-2.4121	0.291	-8.282	0.000	-2.985	-1.840
В	0.7608	0.272	2.801	0.005	0.227	1.295
LSTAT	-3.5375	0.390	-9.082	0.000	-4.303	-2.772

Omnibus:	133.243	Durbin-Watson:	1.998
Prob(Omnibus):	ibus): 0.000 Jarque-Bera (J		562.909
Skew:	1.393	Prob(JB):	5.83e-123
Kurtosis:	8.067	Cond. No.	5.63

Warnings:

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

In [64]:

```
# calculating VIF again in new model

vif = pd.DataFrame()
vif['Features'] = X.columns
vif['VIF'] = [variance_inflation_factor(X.values, i) for i in range(X.shape[1])]
vif['VIF'] = round(vif['VIF'],2)
vif = vif.sort_values(by='VIF', ascending=False)
vif
```

Out[64]:

	Features	VIF
3	NOX	4.22
6	DIS	3.74
5	AGE	3.26
10	LSTAT	3.13
7	RAD	2.91
1	ZN	2.23
4	RM	1.98
0	CRIM	1.79
8	PTRATIO	1.72
9	В	1.38
2	CHAS	1.04

now we can see the VIF and p-value both are within an acceptable range. so we go ahead and make our
predictions using this model only

Residual Analysis of the train data

- now, to check if the error terms are also normally distributed (which is infact, one of the major assumptions of linear regression).
- · let us plot the histogram of the error terms and see what it looks like. with final model

In [65]:

```
y_train_pred = lr_3.predict(X_train_lm)
y_train_pred
```

Out[65]:

```
220
       32.340189
71
       22.214052
240
       27.581276
6
       23.673391
417
        6.386207
323
       19.072939
192
       34.652608
117
       24.688279
47
       18.101102
       22.906744
172
Length: 404, dtype: float64
```

In [66]:

```
# error term RSS

res = y_train - y_train_pred
res
```

Out[66]:

```
220
      -5.640189
71
      -0.514052
240
      -5.581276
      -0.773391
6
417
       4.013793
323
     -0.572939
192
      1.747392
117
      -5.488279
47
      -1.501102
172
       0.193256
Length: 404, dtype: float64
```

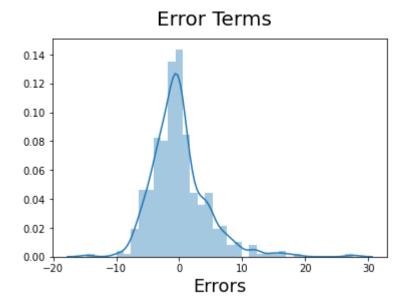
In [67]:

```
# plot histogram plot
import seaborn as sns

fig = plt.figure()
sns.distplot(res)
fig.suptitle('Error Terms', fontsize = 20)
plt.xlabel('Errors', fontsize = 18)
```

Out[67]:

Text(0.5, 0, 'Errors')



Making prediction on Test set using Final model

In [68]:

```
# this is our test dataset
df_test.head()
```

Out[68]:

	CRIM	ZN	INDUS	CHAS	NOX	RM	AGE	DIS	
329	-0.412692	-0.487722	-1.152214	-0.272599	-0.818007	0.068904	-1.826921	0.674814	-0.63
371	0.653875	-0.487722	1.015999	-0.272599	0.659147	-0.097781	1.117494	-1.248292	1.66
219	-0.407222	-0.487722	0.401721	3.668398	-0.040557	0.125891	0.847234	-0.205237	-0.52
403	2.465737	-0.487722	1.015999	-0.272599	1.194724	-1.332960	0.975252	-0.994588	1.66
78	-0.413947	-0.487722	0.247057	-0.272599	-1.016689	-0.074986	-0.528960	0.579502	-0.52
4									•

Dividing into X_test ant y_test

```
In [69]:
y_test = df_test.pop('PRICE')
X test = df test
In [70]:
# adding constant variable to test dataset
X_test_lm = sm.add_constant(X_test)
In [71]:
# as we know the final model so droppping unwanted
# variable from test dataset
X_test_lm = X_test_lm.drop(['INDUS','TAX'], axis = 1)
making prediction using final model which is lr_3
In [72]:
y_test_pred = lr_3.predict(X_test_lm)
calculating R sq.
```

```
In [73]:
```

```
from sklearn.metrics import r2_score
```

In [74]:

```
r2 = r2_score(y_test, y_test_pred)
```

In [75]:

```
# R sq. for test data set
r2
```

Out[75]:

0.5786416823996582

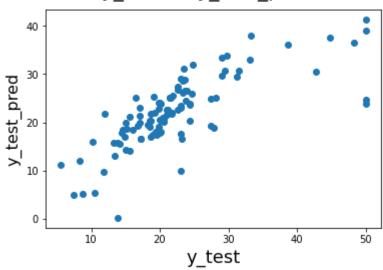
Model Evaluation

In [76]:

```
# plotting y_test and y_test_pred to understand the spread

fig = plt.figure()
plt.scatter(y_test, y_test_pred)
fig.suptitle("y_test vs y_test_pred", fontsize = 20)
plt.xlabel('y_test', fontsize = 18)
plt.ylabel('y_test_pred', fontsize = 16)
plt.show()
```

y_test vs y_test_pred



In [77]:

```
res = y_test - y_test_pred res
```

Out[77]:

```
329
       -4.098243
371
       26.163080
219
       -6.119655
403
       -3.686488
78
       -1.352907
56
       -1.221177
455
       -1.415425
60
        1.617532
213
        3.002182
       -3.005420
108
Length: 102, dtype: float64
```

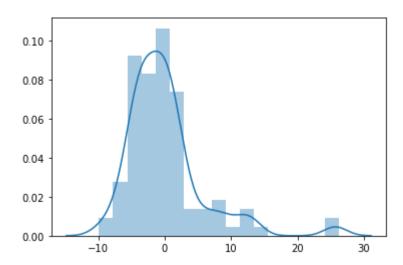
1/20/2021 Linear Regression

```
In [78]:
```

```
sns.distplot(res) # error plot for test data set
```

Out[78]:

<matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x29c0640e460>



6.2: Building Linear Regression by Sklearn

```
Splitting the Data into Training and Testing Sets
```

y = data.pop('PRICE')

X = data

```
In [83]:
```

```
from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split

x_train, x_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size = 0.2, random_state = 0)

x_train.shape, x_test.shape
```

Out[83]:

```
((404, 11), (102, 11))
```

Model Training using ML algo tested above

```
In [84]:
```

```
from sklearn.linear_model import LinearRegression
```

In [85]:

```
lr = LinearRegression()
```

In [86]:

```
lr.fit(x_train, y_train)
```

Out[86]:

LinearRegression()

· Predicted values of test data

```
In [87]:
```

```
y_pred_test = lr.predict(x_test)
```

· Predicted values of train data

```
In [88]:
```

```
y_pred_train = lr.predict(x_train)
```

Calculation of Model Accuracy:

Both Training and test Accuracies

In [89]:

```
print("Test data Accuracy : ", round(r2_score(y_test, y_pred_test), 3))
print("Train data Accuracy : ", round(r2_score(y_train, y_pred_train), 3))
Test data Accuracy : 0.579
```

Test data Accuracy : 0.579
Train data Accuracy : 0.767

In [90]:

```
from sklearn.metrics import mean_absolute_error, mean_squared_error
```

Mean Absolute Error

In [92]:

```
print('MAE for Test Data : ' , mean_absolute_error(y_test, y_pred_test))
print('MAE for Train Data : ' , mean_absolute_error(y_train, y_pred_train))
```

MAE for Test Data : 3.9498411059954015 MAE for Train Data : 3.132515673402906

Mean Square Error

In [94]:

```
print('MSE for Test Data : ' , mean_squared_error(y_test, y_pred_test))
print('MSE for Train Data : ' , mean_squared_error(y_train, y_pred_train))
```

MSE for Test Data : 34.31055008794417 MSE for Train Data : 19.812144707771346

• So it looks like our model train data score is less on the test data. #### It's mean our model is overfitted . let's check by using Regularization

Regularization

In [95]:

```
from sklearn.linear_model import Ridge, RidgeCV
from sklearn.linear_model import Lasso, LassoCV
from sklearn.linear_model import ElasticNet, ElasticNetCV
```

In [96]:

```
# let's see how data is distributed for every column
plt.figure(figsize=(20,25))
plotno = 1
for col in X:
      if plotno <= 15:</pre>
            ax = plt.subplot(5,3, plotno)
            plt.scatter(X[col], y)
            plt.xlabel(col, fontsize = 20)
            plt.ylabel('Chance of Admit', fontsize = 20)
      plotno += 1
plt.tight_layout()
Chance of Admit
                                        Chance of Admit
                                                                                Chance of Admit
                                        Chance of Admit
                                                                                Chance of Admit
Chance of Admit
                    NOX
                                        Chance of Admit
Chance of Admit
                                                                                Chance of Admit
                                                            RAD
                    DIS
                                                                                                  PTRATIO
Chance of Admit
                                                           LSTAT
```

- The relationship between the dependent and independent variable look fairly linear, thus our linearity assumption is satisfied.
- let's move ahead and check for multicolinearity.

Data Standardization

In [97]:

```
scale = StandardScaler()
```

In [98]:

```
X_scale = scale.fit_transform(X)
```

Split data into Train and Test

In [99]:

```
x_train, x_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X_scale, y, test_size = 0.20, random_s
tate = 42) #355
```

In [100]:

```
x_train.shape, x_test.shape, y_train.shape
```

Out[100]:

```
((404, 11), (102, 11), (404,))
```

Regularization

- 1). Lasso (L1)
- 2). Ridge (L2)
- 3). Elastic Net
- Let's see if our model is overfitting our training data or not. ## 1. Lasso Regression
- LassoCV will return best alpha and coeff. after performing 10 CV

In [101]:

```
lasscv = LassoCV(alphas = None, cv = 10, max_iter = 1000, normalize = True)
lasscv.fit(x_train, y_train)
```

Out[101]:

```
LassoCV(cv=10, normalize=True)
```

In [102]:

```
# best alpha parameter
```

In [103]:

```
alpha = lasscv.alpha_
alpha
```

Out[103]:

0.0009725797661664984

- now that we have best parameter
- · let's use lasso Regression and see how well our data had fitted before

In [104]:

```
lass_reg = Lasso(alpha)
lass_reg.fit(x_train, y_train)
```

Out[104]:

Lasso(alpha=0.0009725797661664984)

Checking Lasso Score

Score for train

In [105]:

```
lass_reg.score(x_train, y_train)
```

Out[105]:

0.7467562339777498

Score for test

In [106]:

```
lass_reg.score(x_test, y_test)
```

Out[106]:

0.6510131983061462

 our score for test data (65.101%) comes not same as before using regularization. So, it is fair to say our OLS model is overfit the data.

2. Ridge Regression

- RidgeCV will return best alpha and coeff. after performing 10 CV
- We will pass an array of random numbers for ridgeCV to select best alpha from them

In [107]:

```
alpha = np.random.uniform(low = 0, high = 10, size = (50,))
ridgecv = RidgeCV(alphas= alpha, cv = 10 , normalize=True)
ridgecv.fit(x_train, y_train)
Out[107]:
```

RidgeCV(alphas=array([4.19088048, 6.14813811, 5.19071174, 6.84022679, 2.26593 818,

```
5.36465011, 8.72132029, 0.72594771, 1.11476736, 0.7853579, 5.03328249, 7.88620301, 1.60918344, 9.24227043, 1.09190458, 3.01634306, 1.97601308, 5.50824773, 5.68656898, 1.23472488, 4.60143808, 1.67381429, 6.18341398, 5.62388918, 0.5561337, 8.55533135, 4.83049296, 0.7944039, 1.05916495, 3.85257315, 0.08492379, 2.08790489, 5.95047575, 4.5642833, 3.38369793, 8.77198575, 5.52381267, 7.49788995, 0.06664861, 0.50303636, 0.22974858, 4.30523044, 7.67907489, 4.18128492, 5.95243093, 0.65179207, 8.85504238, 6.12729838, 4.25638262, 2.08896906]), cv=10, normalize=True)
```

best alpha parameter

```
In [108]:
```

```
alpha = ridgecv.alpha_
alpha
```

Out[108]:

0.06664860689511443

- now that we have best parameter
- · let's use Ridge Regression and see how well our data had fitted before

In [109]:

```
ridge_reg = Ridge(alpha = alpha)
ridge_reg.fit(x_train, y_train)
```

Out[109]:

Ridge(alpha=0.06664860689511443)

Checking Ridge Score

Score for train

```
In [110]:
```

```
ridge_reg.score(x_train, y_train)
```

Out[110]:

0.7467565140286906

Score for test

In [111]:

```
ridge_reg.score(x_test, y_test)
```

Out[111]:

- 0.6510377206836205
 - we got the same score using Ridge reg as well as we got in linear reg so it's safe to say there is overfitting

3. Elatic Net

- Elatic Net will return best alpha and coeff. after performing 10 CV
- We will pass an array of random numbers for ridgeCV to select best alpha from them

In [112]:

```
elaticv = ElasticNetCV(alphas = None, cv = 10)
elaticv.fit(x_train, y_train)
```

Out[112]:

ElasticNetCV(cv=10)

· best alpha parameter

In [113]:

```
alpha = elaticv.alpha_
alpha
```

Out[113]:

0.027456948333396687

• I1_ratio gives how close the model is to L1 regulatization below value indicates we are giving equal prefernce to L1 and L2

In [114]:

```
ratio = elaticv.l1_ratio
```

- now that we have best parameter
- · let's use Elastic Net and see how well our data had fitted before

In [115]:

```
elastic_reg = ElasticNet(alpha=alpha, l1_ratio = ratio)
elastic_reg.fit(x_train, y_train)
```

Out[115]:

ElasticNet(alpha=0.027456948333396687)

Checking Elastic Net Score

Score for train

In [116]:

```
elastic_reg.score(x_train, y_train)
```

Out[116]:

0.7463361031829615

Score for test

In [117]:

```
elastic_reg.score(x_test, y_test)
```

Out[117]:

- 0.6504229437929967
 - So, we can see by using different type of regularization, we still are getting the same score.
 - That means our OLS model has been well trained over the training data and there is overfitting.

In []:

1/20/2021 Linear Regression

In []:			
In []:			