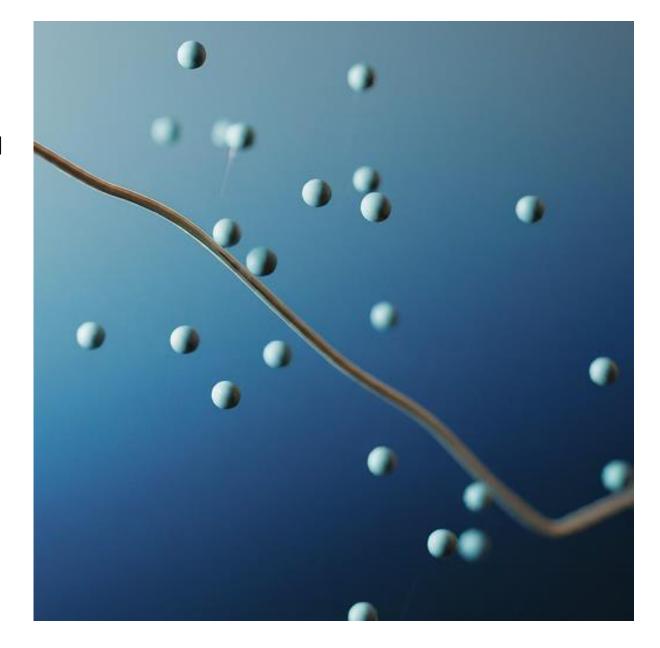
PH 3120 - Computational Physics Laboratory I

# Regression and Interpolation

Dr. E. M. D. Siriwardane

Department of Physics

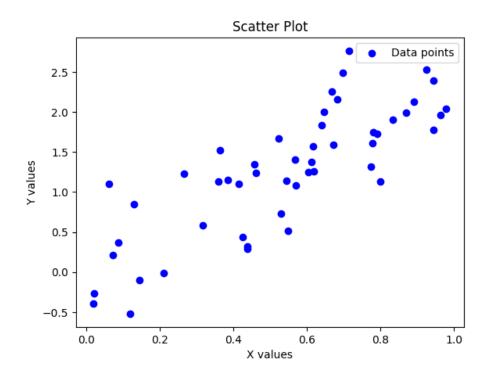
University of Colombo



## Regression

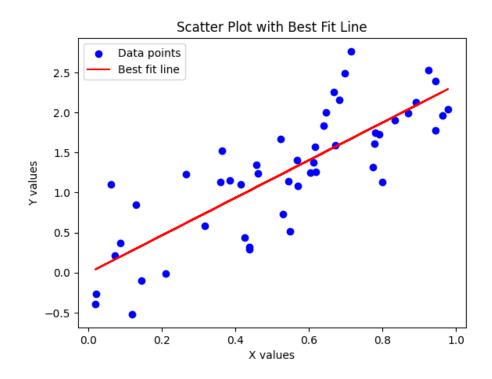
- Regression is a statistical method used to understand the relationship between variables.
- It allows you to model the relationship between a dependent variable (often called the response variable) and one or more independent variables (predictors or features).
- There are several types of regression, each suited to different types of data and research questions.
- In this laboratory, we will focus on
  - Least Square Regression Linear Regression
  - Polynomial Regression

## Regression



- The scatter plot consists of individual points plotted on a two-dimensional graph, where each point represents a pair of values from two variables:
  - ❖ X values: The independent variable, plotted along the horizontal axis.
  - ❖ Y values: The dependent variable, plotted along the vertical axis.
- ➤ The objective of regression is to model the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables.

# Regression



- The best fit line or curve is a straight line or a curve that best represents the data points on the scatter plot.
- The figure shows the best fit line found using least square regression.

## Applications of Regression

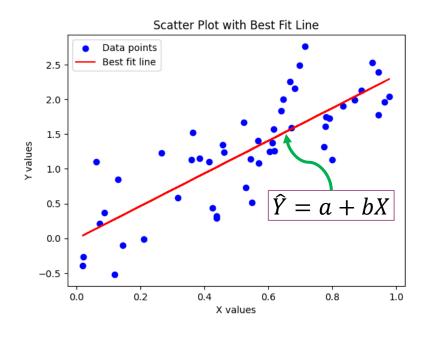
- Identify Patterns: Determine whether and how the dependent variable changes as the independent variable(s) change.
- Quantify Relationships: Quantify the strength and direction (positive or negative) of relationships between variables.
- **Predict Values for New X Values**: Use the regression model to make predictions about the dependent variable based on new values of the independent variable(s).
- Forecasting: Provide estimates for future observations, which is especially useful in fields like finance, economics, and engineering.

- Least Squares Regression is a method used to determine the best-fit line or model for a
  given set of data by minimizing the sum of the squares of the residuals (the differences
  between observed and predicted values).
- This technique is fundamental in statistical modeling and machine learning, especially for linear regression analysis.

- •Linear Relationship: The basic assumption is that there is a linear relationship between the dependent variable *Y* and the independent variable(s) *X*.
- •Model Equation: For simple linear regression, the model can be expressed as:

$$Y = a + bX + \epsilon$$
:

- Y is the dependent variable.
- *X* is the independent variable.
- *a* is the intercept.
- *b* is the slope.
- $\epsilon$  is the error term (residual).



 $\hat{Y}$ : Dependent variable values on the best fit line

The goal is to find the values of a and b that minimize the Residual Sum of Squares (RSS) between the observed values ( $Y_i$ ) and the predicted values ( $\hat{Y}_i$ ):

$$RSS = \sum_{i}^{n} (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i}^{n} (Y_i - (a + bX_i))^2$$

where:

- *n* is the number of observations.
- $Y_i$  is the observed value.
- $\hat{Y}_i = a + bX_i$  is the predicted value.

To find a and b, we take the partial derivatives of RSS with respect to a and b, set them to zero, and solve for a and b.

$$\frac{\partial RSS}{\partial a} = -2\sum_{i}^{n} (Y_i - (a + bX_i)) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial RSS}{\partial b} = -2\sum_{i}^{n} X_{i} (Y_{i} - (a + bX_{i})) = 0$$

By solving the two simultaneous equations

$$b = \frac{n\sum_{i}^{n} X_{i}Y_{i} - \sum_{i}^{n} X_{i}\sum_{i}^{n} Y_{i}}{n\sum_{i}^{n} X_{i}^{2} - \left(\sum_{i}^{n} X_{i}\right)^{2}}$$

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

 $\bar{X}$  and  $\bar{Y}$  are the means of X and Y respectively.

# **Error Analysis**

**R-squared** ( $R^2$ ): Indicates the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable that is predictable from the independent variable(s).

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i}^{n} (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2}{\sum_{i}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}$$
•  $\hat{Y}_i$  is the observed value.
•  $\hat{Y}_i$  is the predicted value

- *Y<sub>i</sub>* is the observed value.
- $\bar{Y}$  is the average value of observed values

**Mean Absolute Error (MAE)**: MAE is calculated as the average of the absolute differences between the predicted values  $(\bar{Y}_i)$  and the actual values  $(Y_i)$ :

$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |Y_i - \bar{Y}_i|$$

For a polynomial regression of degree d, the model can be expressed as:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2 + \dots + \beta_d X^d + \epsilon$$

*Y* is the dependent variable.

*X* is the independent variable.

 $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_d$  are the coefficients.

 $\epsilon$  is the error term (residual).

#### Consider n number of data points

$X_{i}$	$Y_i$
$X_1$	$Y_1$
$X_2$	$Y_2$
$X_3$	$Y_3$
$X_4$	$Y_4$
$X_5$	$Y_5$
<b>:</b>	÷
$X_n$	$Y_n$

**Transform the Independent Variables:** For polynomial regression, we transform the original variable X into polynomial features.

For example, if you have a polynomial of degree 2, the independent variable will be  $[1, X, X^2]$ 

**Set Up the Design Matrix:** The design matrix *X* for a polynomial of degree *d* will include *d* columns corresponding to each polynomial term. There is an additional column for constant 1.

For a degree *d* polynomial, the design matrix will look like:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_1 & X_1^2 & \cdots & X_1^d \\ 1 & X_2 & X_2^2 & \cdots & X_2^d \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & X_n & X_n^2 & \cdots & X_n^d \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_m \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 X_i^2 + \dots + \beta_d X_i^d + \epsilon_i$$

The residual or the error term can be rewritten using matrices as follows

$$\epsilon = Y - X\beta$$

RSS can be written as follows

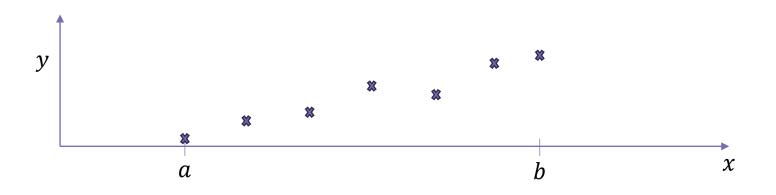
$$RSS = \epsilon^T \epsilon = (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^T (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$

To find the coefficients  $\beta$  that minimize the *RSS*, we take the derivative of *RSS* with respect to  $\beta$  and set it to zero:

$$\frac{\partial RSS}{\partial \beta} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} (\mathbf{Y} - \beta \mathbf{X})^T (\mathbf{Y} - \beta \mathbf{X}) = 0 \qquad \beta = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

## Interpolation

- Interpolation is a method used to estimate unknown values that fall between known values.
- In other words, interpolation involves constructing new data points within the range of a discrete set of known data points.
- This is commonly used in numerical analysis, data science, and various fields of engineering and science where the data points are discrete, and a continuous function is needed to approximate the data.

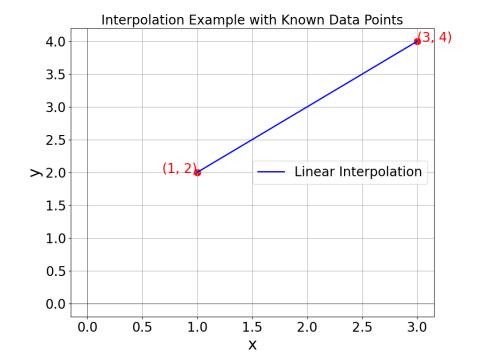


In this example, we attempt to find a function represents the data points within [a, b]interval.

## **Linear Interpolation**

- Linear interpolation involves connecting two adjacent known data points with a straight line.
- It is the simplest form of interpolation.

Given two known points  $(x_0, y_0)$  and  $(x_1, y_1)$ , the linear interpolation formula for a point x is:



$$(x_0, y_0) \equiv (1,2)$$

$$(x_1, y_1) \equiv (3,4)$$

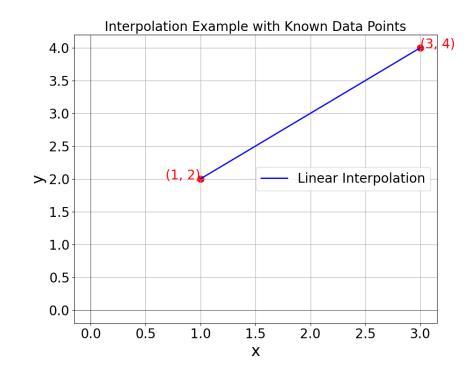
### **Linear Interpolation**

Using the slope of the straight line

$$\frac{y - y_0}{x - x_0} = \frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0}$$

For the example

$$\frac{y-2}{x-1} = \frac{4-2}{3-2}$$
  $\longrightarrow$   $y = 2x$ 



## Lagrange Interpolation

Lagrange Interpolation constructs a polynomial P(x) of degree n-1 that passes through n given data points  $(x_i, y_i)$ .

The Lagrange polynomial P(x) is given by:

$$P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} y_i L_i(x)$$

where  $L_i(x)$  are the Lagrange basis polynomials defined as:

$$L_i(x) = \prod_{\substack{0 \le j \le n-1 \\ j \ne i}} \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j}$$

## Lagrange Interpolation

#### **Example**

$$(x_0, y_0) = (1,2), (x_1, y_1) = (2,3), (x_2, y_2) = (3,5)$$

Calculate the basis polynomials:

$$L_0(x) = \frac{(x-2)(x-3)}{(1-2)(1-3)} = \frac{(x-2)(x-3)}{2}$$

$$L_1(x) = \frac{(x-1)(x-3)}{(2-1)(1-3)} = \frac{-(x-1)(x-3)}{1}$$

$$L_0(x) = \frac{(x-1)(x-2)}{(3-1)(3-2)} = \frac{(x-1)(x-2)}{2}$$

$$L_i(x) = \prod_{\substack{0 \le j \le n-1 \\ j \ne i}} \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j}$$

## Lagrange Interpolation

#### **Example**

Form the Lagrange polynomial:

$$P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} y_i L_i(x)$$

$$(x_0, y_0) = (1,2), (x_1, y_1) = (2,3), (x_2, y_2) = (3,5)$$

$$P(x) = 2.L_0(x) + 3.L_1(x) + 5.L_2(x)$$

$$P(x) = 2 \cdot \frac{(x-2)(x-3)}{2} + 3 \cdot \frac{-(x-1)(x-3)}{1} + 5 \cdot \frac{(x-1)(x-2)}{2}$$