

Data & Things

(Spring 26)

Wednesday February 11

Lecture 5: Regression

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Outline of this lecture

- Correlation and testing for relationship
- Simple linear regression
- Evaluations of regression models
- Multiple linear regression
- Exercises

Correlation and testing for relationship

- **Relationship between a numeric and categorical variable**
 - Visualization: Histogram or boxplot for each value of the categorical variable
 - See the notebook “Correlation and test of relationship.ipynb” or the notebook “Exploratory data analysis.ipynb” from a previous class.
 - Significance test: We can do the tests for comparison of groups we learned last time
 - See the notebook “Correlation and test of relationship.ipynb” or the notebook “Comparison of groups.ipynb” from a previous class.
- **Relationship between two categorical variables**
 - Visualization: Mosaic plot
 - See the notebook “Correlation and test of relationship.ipynb” or the notebook “Exploratory data analysis.ipynb” from a previous class.
 - Significance test: Use the Chi-square test, or if one of the combined groups has less than 5 datapoints, use the Fisher’s Exact test.
 - See the notebook “Correlation and test of relationship.ipynb”.

Correlation and testing for relationship

- **Relationship between two numeric variables – correlation:**

- There is a tendency that the second goes up when the first one goes up, and there is a tendency that the second goes down when the first one goes down (positive correlation)
- There is a tendency that the second goes down when the first one goes up, and there is a tendency that the second goes up when the first one goes down (negative correlation)
- Examples of correlation: height and weight, engagement and sales, rain and sun

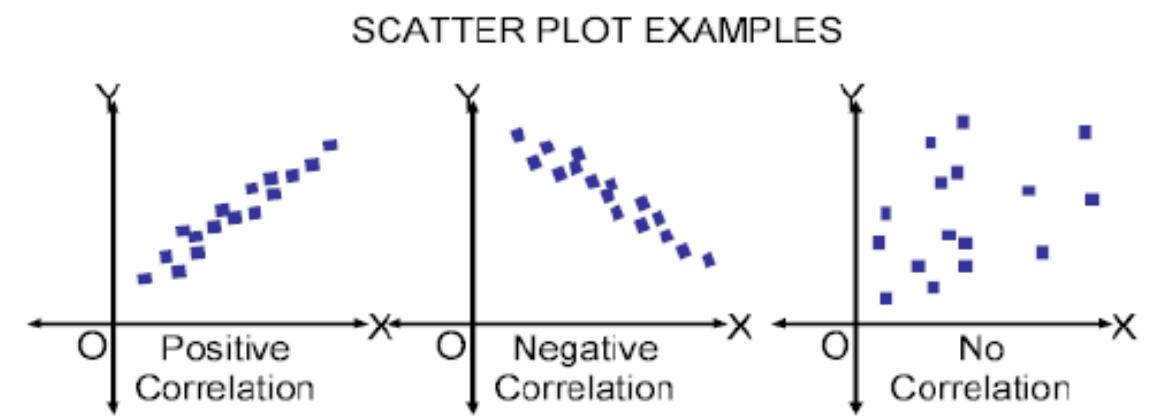


Correlation and testing for relationship



How to detect correlation (among two numerical variables)

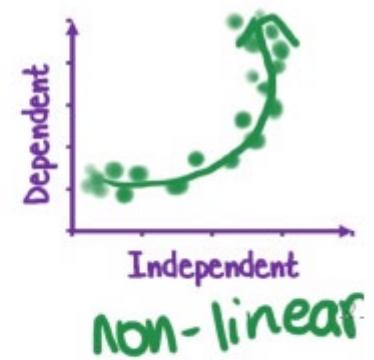
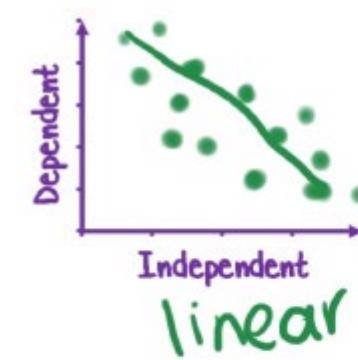
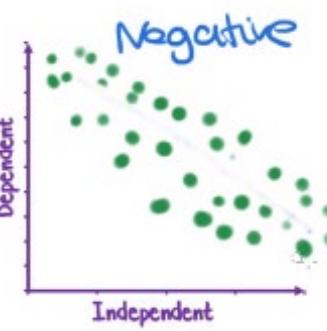
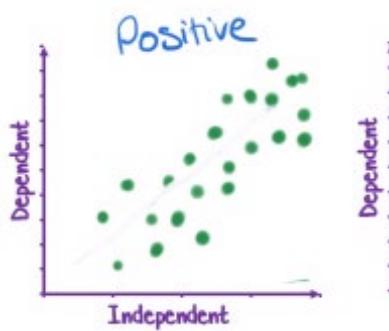
- Visualizing correlation
 - *Scatter plots*
- Quantifying the strength of correlation
 - **(Pearson's) Correlation coefficient**
 - A number between -1 and 1. 1 is perfect positive correlation, -1 is perfect negative correlation, and 0 is no correlation.
 - Only quantifies linear correlation



Correlation and testing for relationship

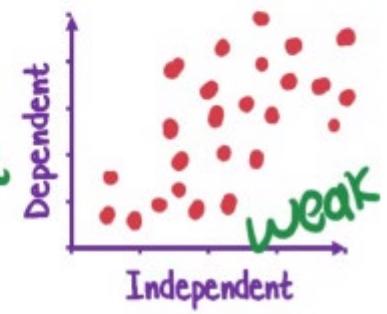
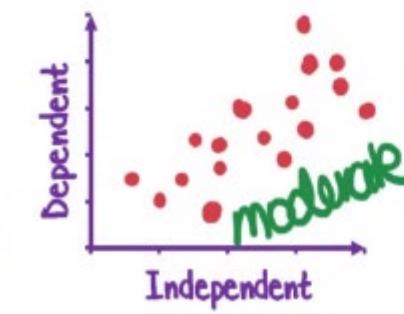
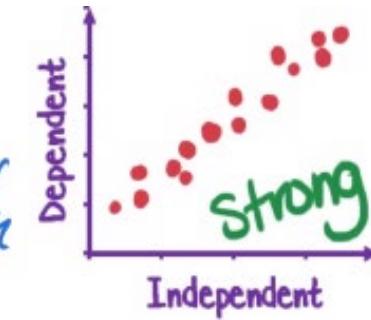
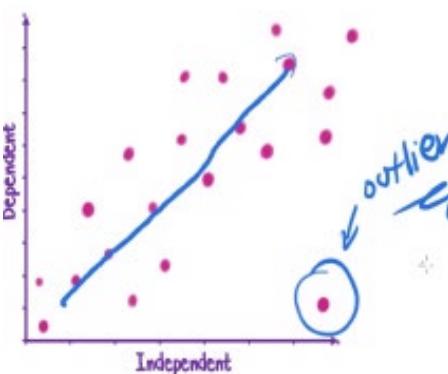
- **Types of Correlation**

- **Direction**
 - Positive
 - negative



- **Shape**
 - Linear
 - non-linear

- **Strength**
 - Weak
 - Moderate
 - strong



- **Outliers**

- See: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PE_BpXTyKCE

Correlation and testing for relationship

- In Python

- Visualization: *scatterplot*

- `sns.scatterplot(data = webdata, x = "Users", y = "PurchaseCompleted")`

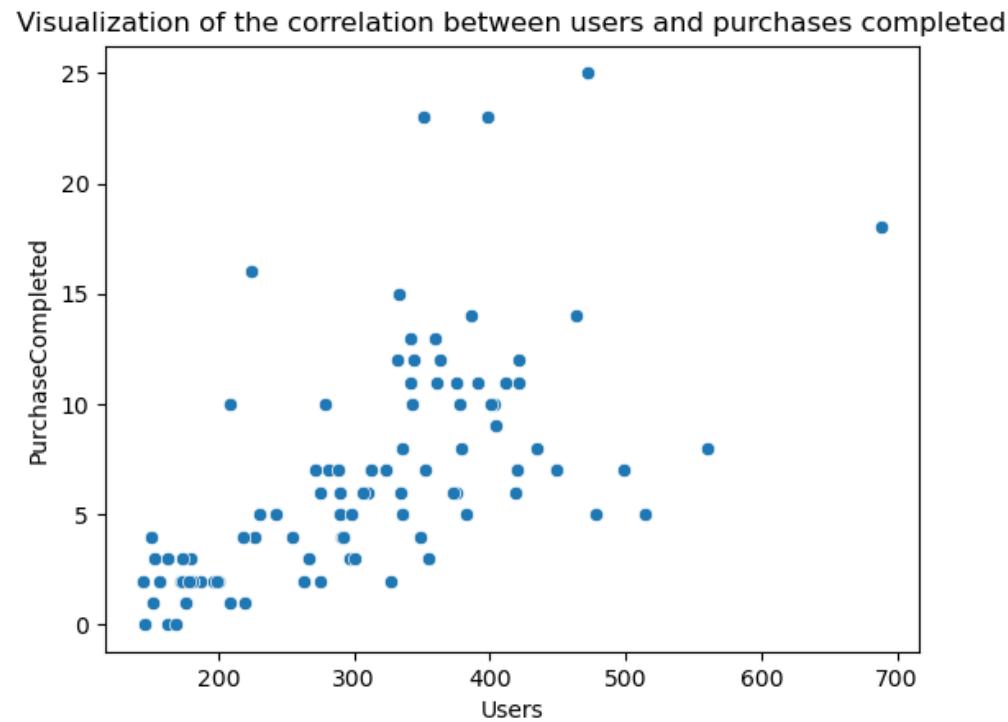
- Descriptive statistics: *Pearson correlations coefficient*:

- Pandas *.corr* method:

- `ebdata["Users"].corr(webdata["PurchaseCompleted"])`

- SciPy's function *pearsonr*

- `stats.pearsonr(webdata["Users"], webdata["PurchaseCompleted"])`

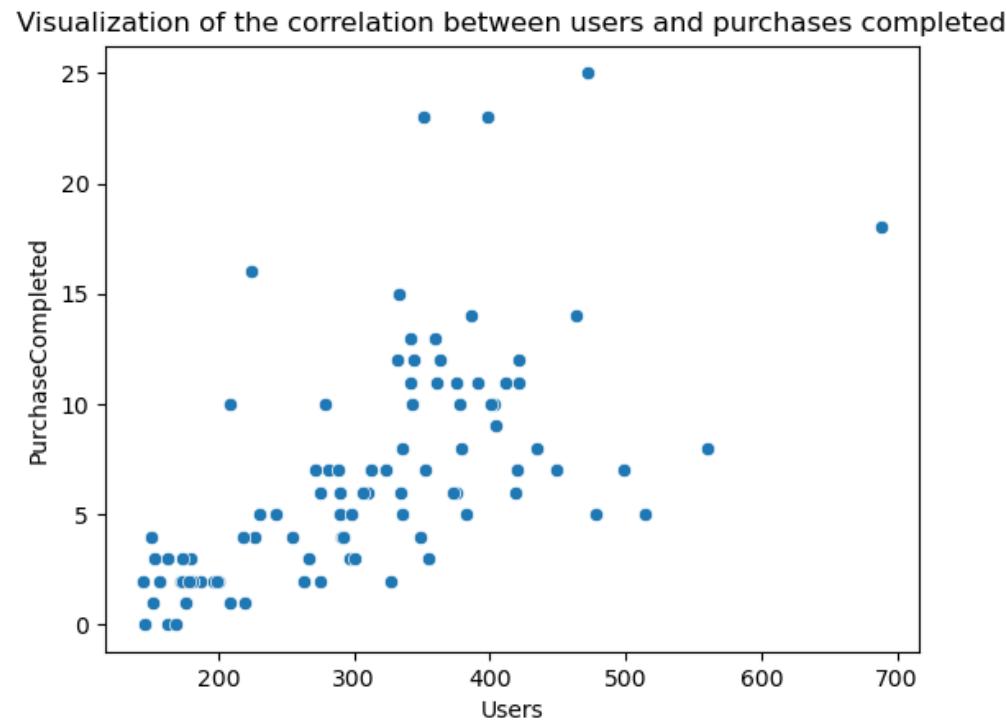


```
stats.pearsonr(webdata["Users"], webdata["PurchaseCompleted"])
```

```
PearsonRResult(statistic=0.6152012891837795, pvalue=6.80560196187495e-11)
```

Correlation and testing for relationship

- **Statistical testing for correlation (relationship) of two numeric variables**
 - The Pearson correlation coefficient tell us the strength of the linear relationship
 - To make sure the relationship is statistically significant (the correlation coefficient is truly different from 0) The *pearsonr* function from SciPy also give us a p-value



```
stats.pearsonr(webdata["Users"], webdata["PurchaseCompleted"])
```

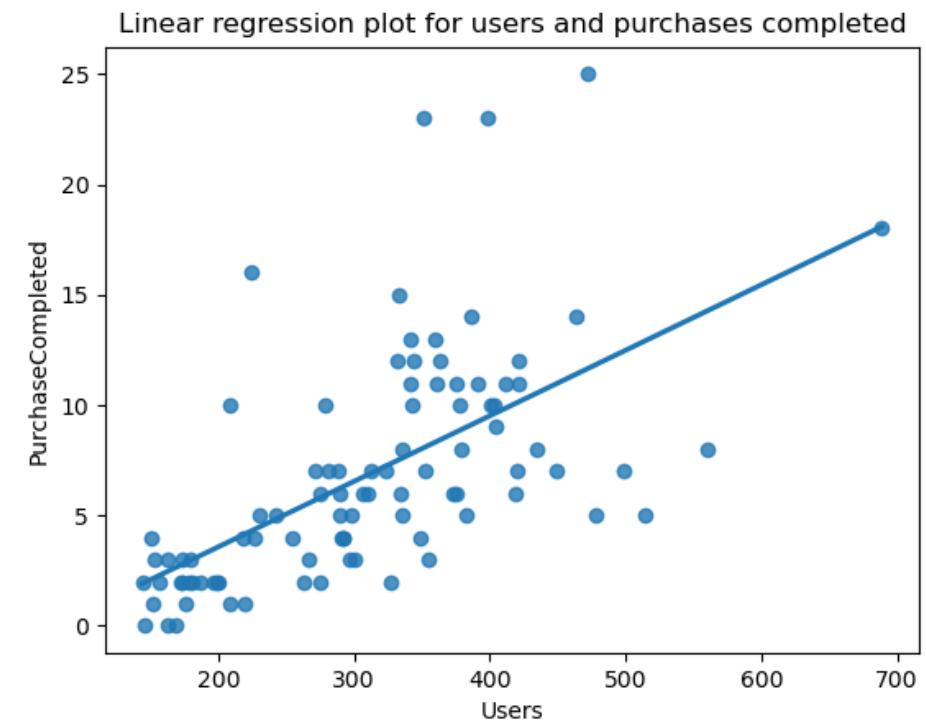
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PearsonRResult(statistic=0.6152012891837795, pvalue=6.80560196187495e-11)
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- Correlation and testing for relationship
- Simple linear regression
- Evaluations of regression models
- Multiple linear regression
- Exercises

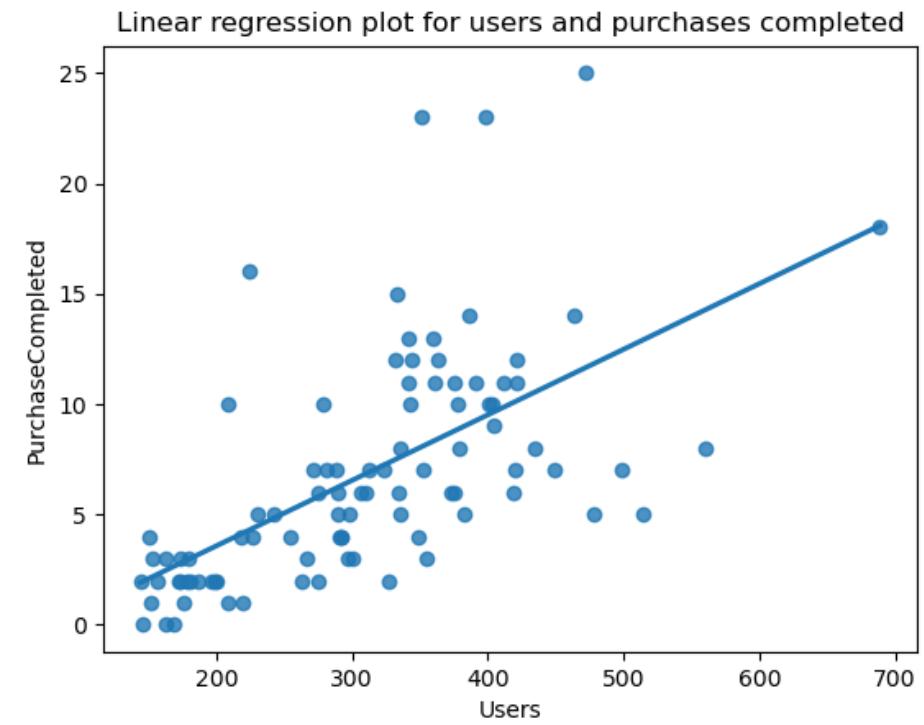
Simple linear regression

- **Correlation and linear regression**
 - We have seen how to measure the strength of a correlation and to test if it is statistically significant...
 - We have not yet seen how to quantify the relationship – if number of Users changes with a certain amount, how much exactly do the PurchaseComplete change?
 - Reformulated: Can we find the best linear line that fits the points?
 - Yes, that is what linear regression is all about
 - Can we use the line to predict y values from x values?
 - Yes, linear regression is the simplest form for predictive model for regression problems



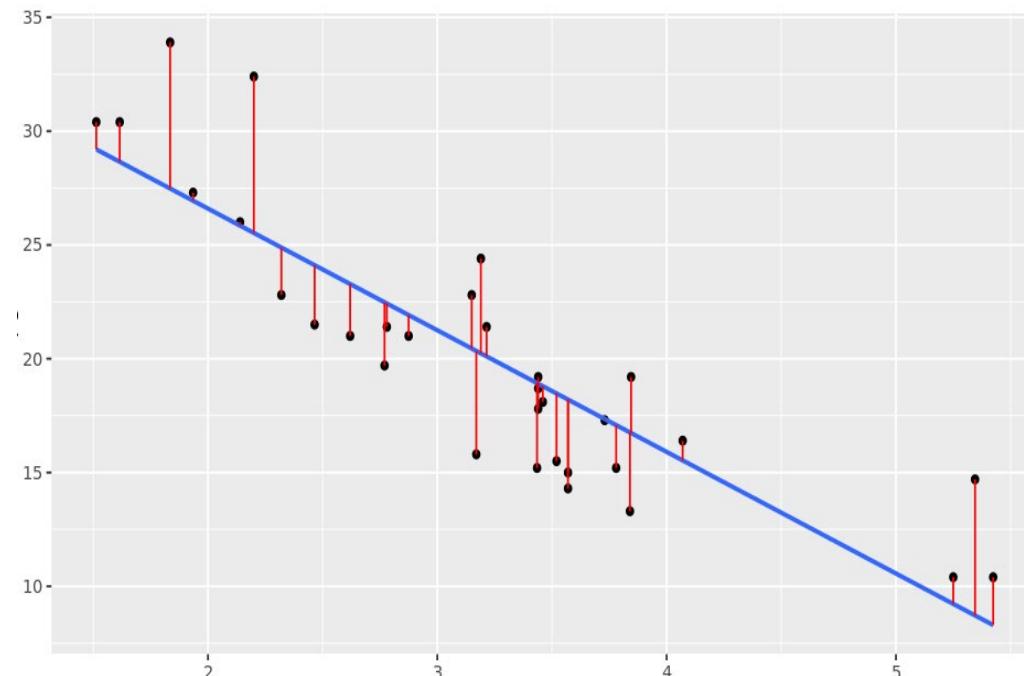
Simple linear regression

- **The simple linear regression model**
 - In a scatterplot, we characterize a linear line by the formula: $y = a + b * x$
 - How do we find parameters a and b that make the line fit the data points “best”?
 - One way is to minimize the sum of squared errors, also referred to as Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)...



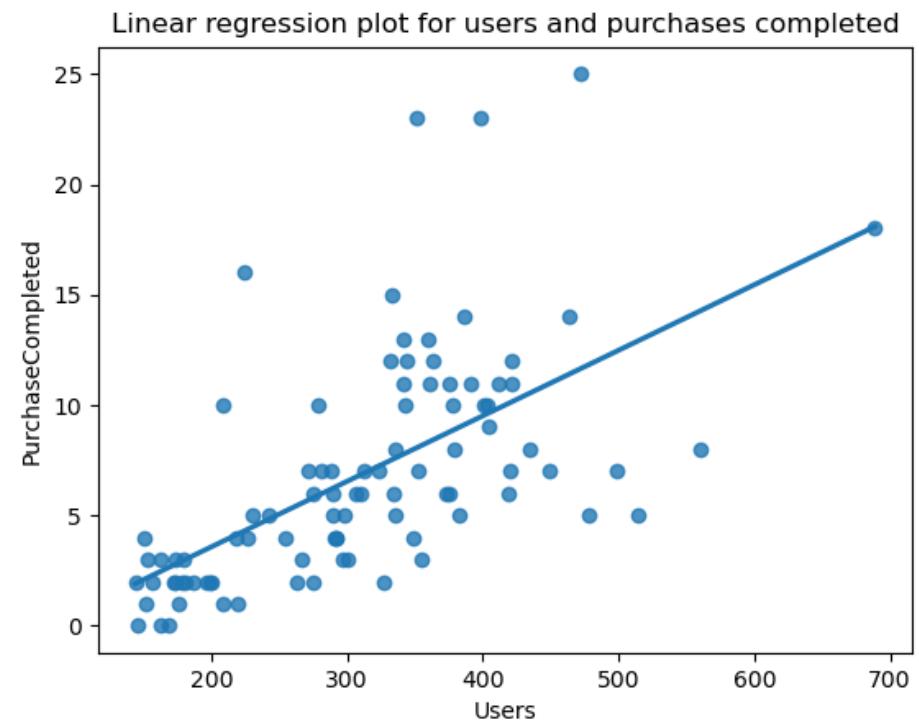
Simple linear regression

- **Ordinary Least Square (OLS)**
 - The simple linear regression formula:
 - $y = a + b * x$
 - Our dataset consists of pairs (x_i, y_i) and let \hat{y}_i denote the predicted value for x_i , that is:
 - $\hat{y}_i = a + b * x_i$
 - The error in predicting y_i from x_i is thus:
 - $\hat{y}_i - y_i$
 - These are also referred to the **residuals** of the model (-the red line in the plot)
 - The **sum of squared errors** is thus:
 - $\text{Sum}((\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2)$
 - OLS find the a and b that minimize the sum of squared errors (minimizes the sum of the square lengths of the red lines in the plot)
 - There are closed formulas for a and b , but one could also use approximation methods like gradient decent, generally used in machine learning



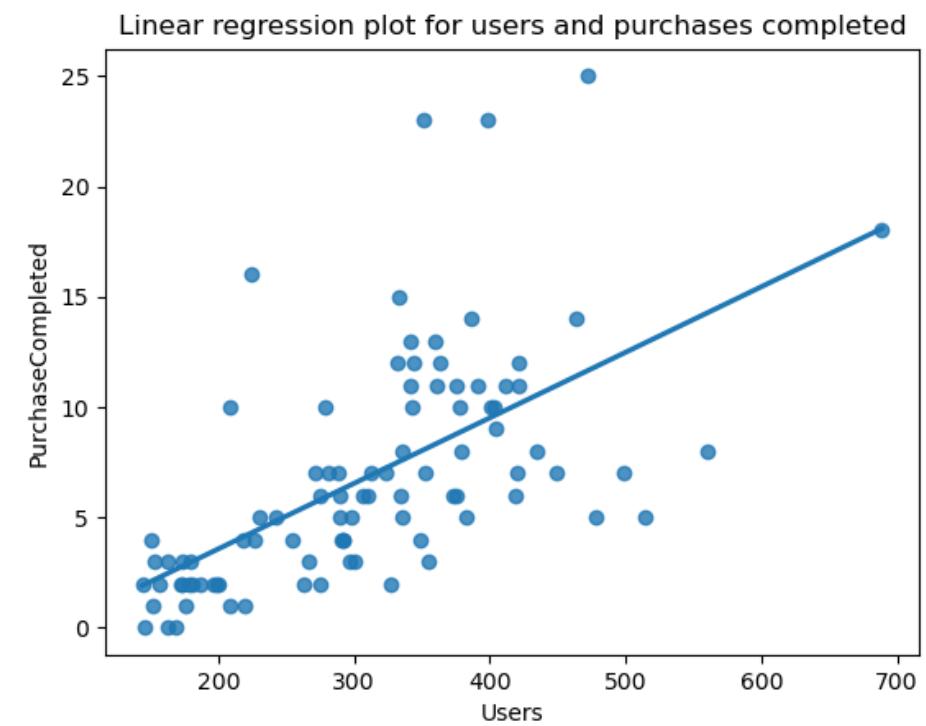
Simple linear regression

- **Interpretation of Simple Linear Regression models**
 - Given the linear line: $y = a + b * x$
 - a and b are also called the **coefficients**
 - a is called the **intercept** and is where the line intersects the y-axis – it corresponds to the prediction of y if x is 0
 - b is called the **slope** and tell us how much the line increase in the direction of y given one unit of increase in x .
 - Thus, linear regression models are easy to interpret and very useful for making inference about the population from the sample (inferential statistics)



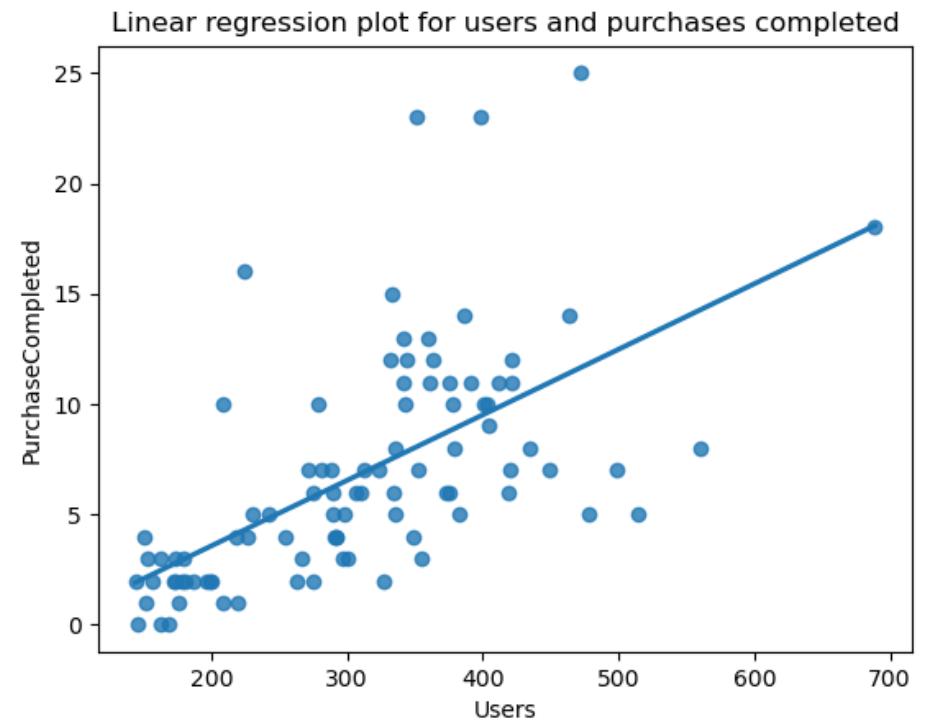
Simple linear regression

- **Difference between three important measures**
 - Given two numeric variables y and x .
 - *The correlation coefficients* between x and y tells us how strong a linear relationship (positive or negative) there is between x and y , that is how close to a straight line the points fall.
 - The associated *p-value* (returned by *personr* for instance) tell u whether this association is truly different from zero, that his whether the straight line is truly different from a horizontal line.
 - Finally, the *slope* or the *coefficient of x* (in $y = a + b * x$) tell us to what extent y changes as x changes, that is how steep the straight line is.
 - Note that we can have a very high correlation and a very small p-value, indicating a strong significant linear relations ship, and at the same time a very small coefficient of x indicating that y changes very little when x changes.



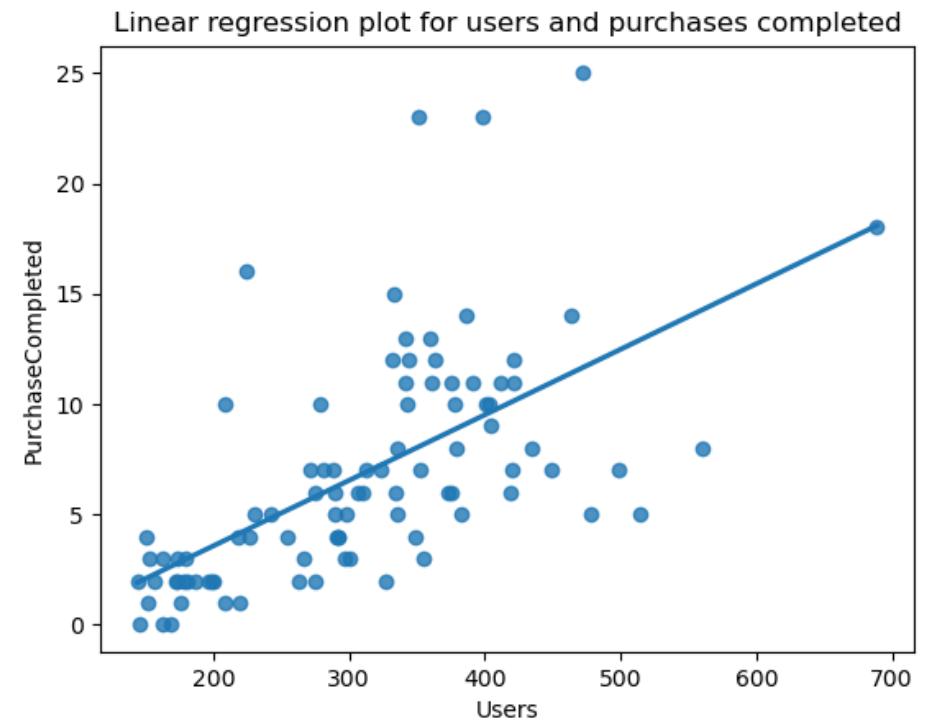
Simple linear regression

- **Assumptions and problems of simple linear regression**
 - We return to this when talking about multiple linear regression.



Simple linear regression

- Let us look at examples in Python in the notebook “Simple linear regression.ipynb”

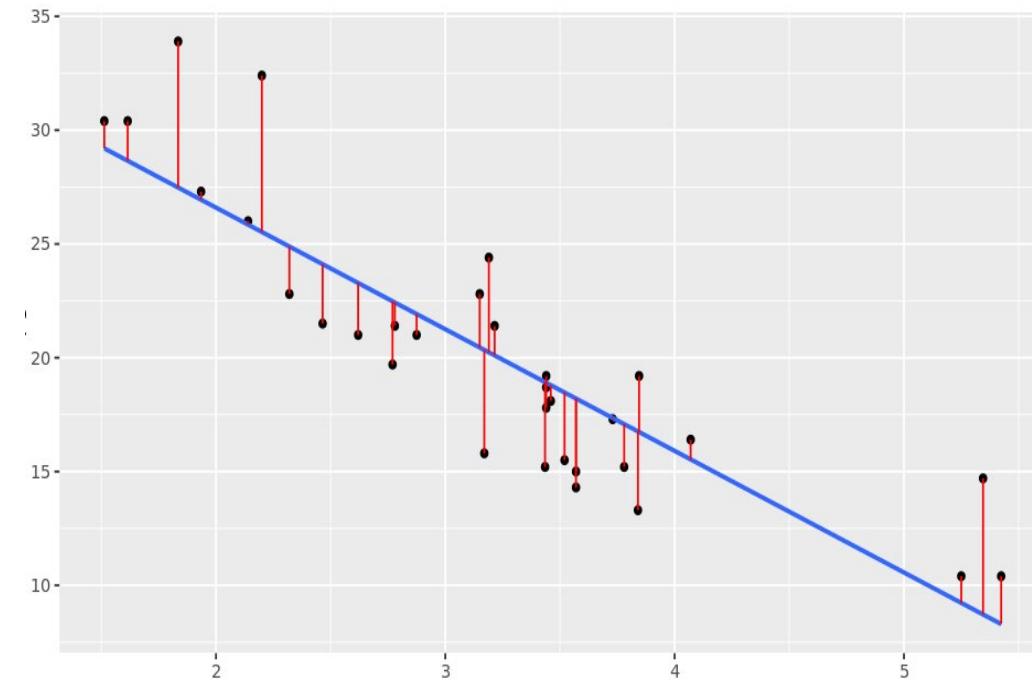


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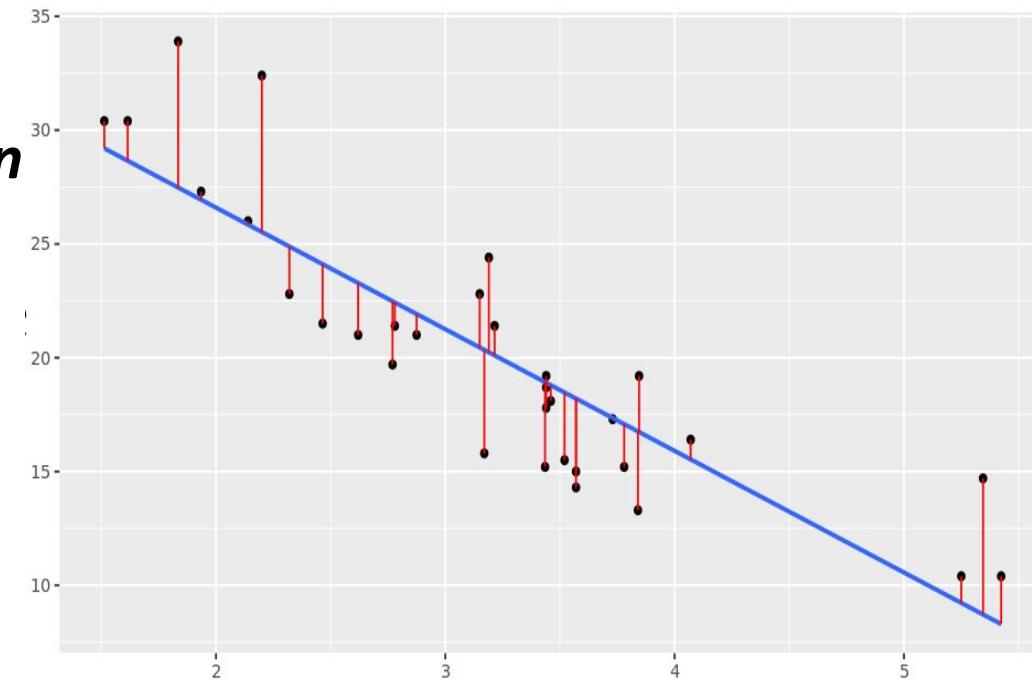
Evaluations of regression models

- **Evaluation of regression models**
 - How do we evaluate how good our line fit the points?
- **Error measures** (*smaller values are better*)
 - **MSE:** Mean Squared Error
 - $\text{MSE} = \text{mean}((\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2)$
 - **RMSE:** Root Mean Squared Error
 - $\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\text{mean}((\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2)}$
 - On scale of the variable y .
 - “The accuracy of regression models”
 - **MAE:** Mean Absolute Error
 - $\text{MAE} = \text{mean}(\text{abs}(\hat{y}_i - y_i))$
 - “On average how big are our errors when predicting y ”



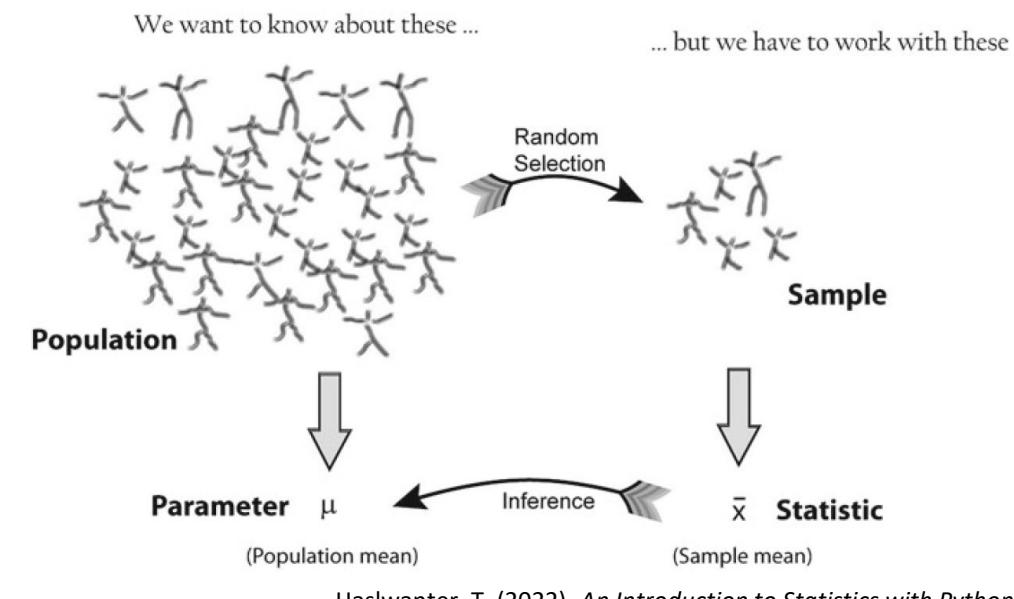
Evaluations of regression models

- **Evaluation of regression models**
 - ***R-squared (R^2) – coefficient of determination***
 - sum of squared errors / total sum of squares
 - $\text{sum}((\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2) / \text{sum}(y_i - \text{mean}(y_i))^2$
 - Always a value between 0 and 1
 - The fraction of variation in y explained by the variation in x
 - The higher value the better
 - For simple linear regression R^2 is indeed the Pearson correlation coefficient squared.
 - Different applications set different standards for what a good R^2 is. (Modeling a physical phenomena, we might want R^2 to be above 0.9, while an R^2 of 0.4 is really good if we are modeling human behavior.)



Evaluations of regression models

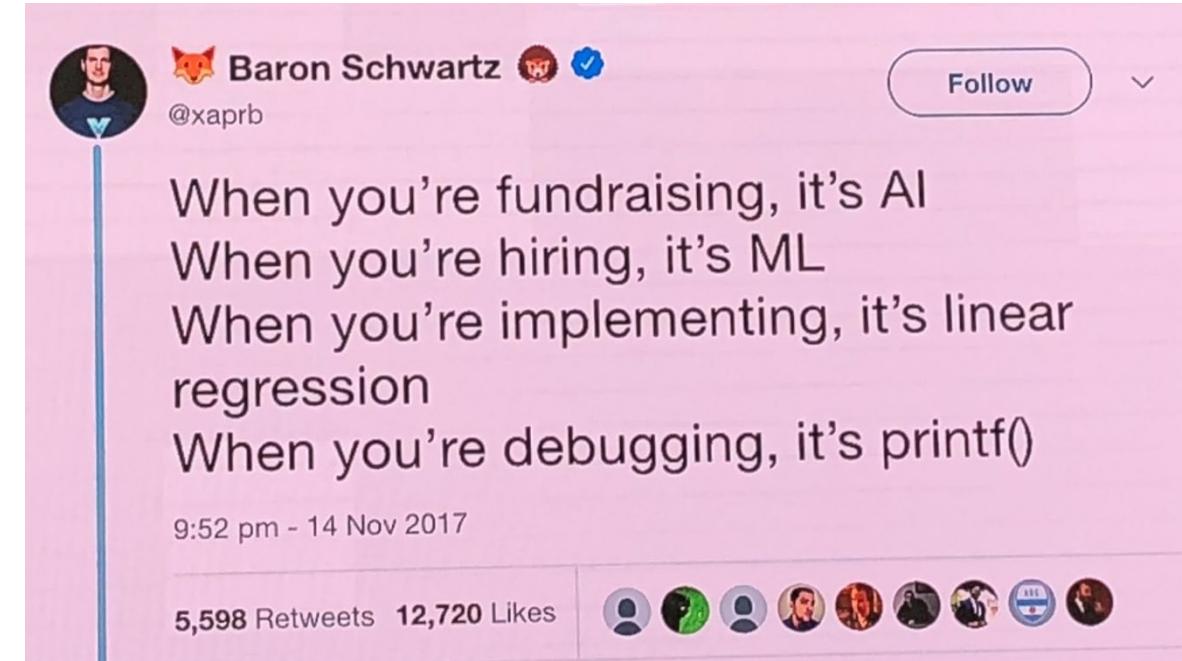
- **Simple linear regression in statistics and machine learning**
 - In **statistics**, we want to **infer** knowledge about a population from a data sample of the population
 - Evaluating how good a model is in terms of inference can be done by *R-squared*
 - In **machine learning**, we want to make **predictions** on a population from a model trained on a data sample (from the population)
 - Evaluating how good a model is in terms of prediction can be done by *RMSE* or *MAE*
 - Simple linear regression, showcase that the two tasks may overlap and can sometimes be done by the **same underlying models**



Haslwanter, T. (2022). *An Introduction to Statistics with Python - With Applications in the Life Sciences*. Springer, Cham.

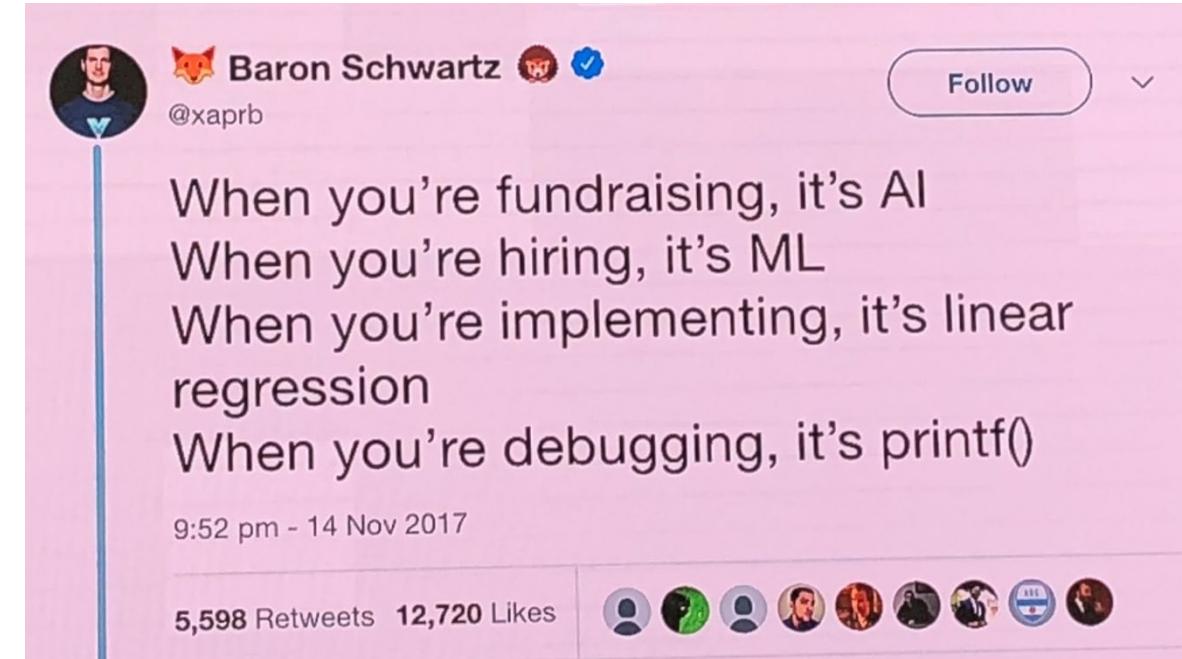
Evaluations of regression models

- **Linear regression in machine learning**
 - Linear regression is the easiest regression model to use and understand
 - Linear regression (and its extensions) is good enough for many real business problems
 - Linear regression models and predictions based on them can be explained and easily communicated
 - Linear regression provides a baseline to which more advanced and sophisticated regression models can be compared



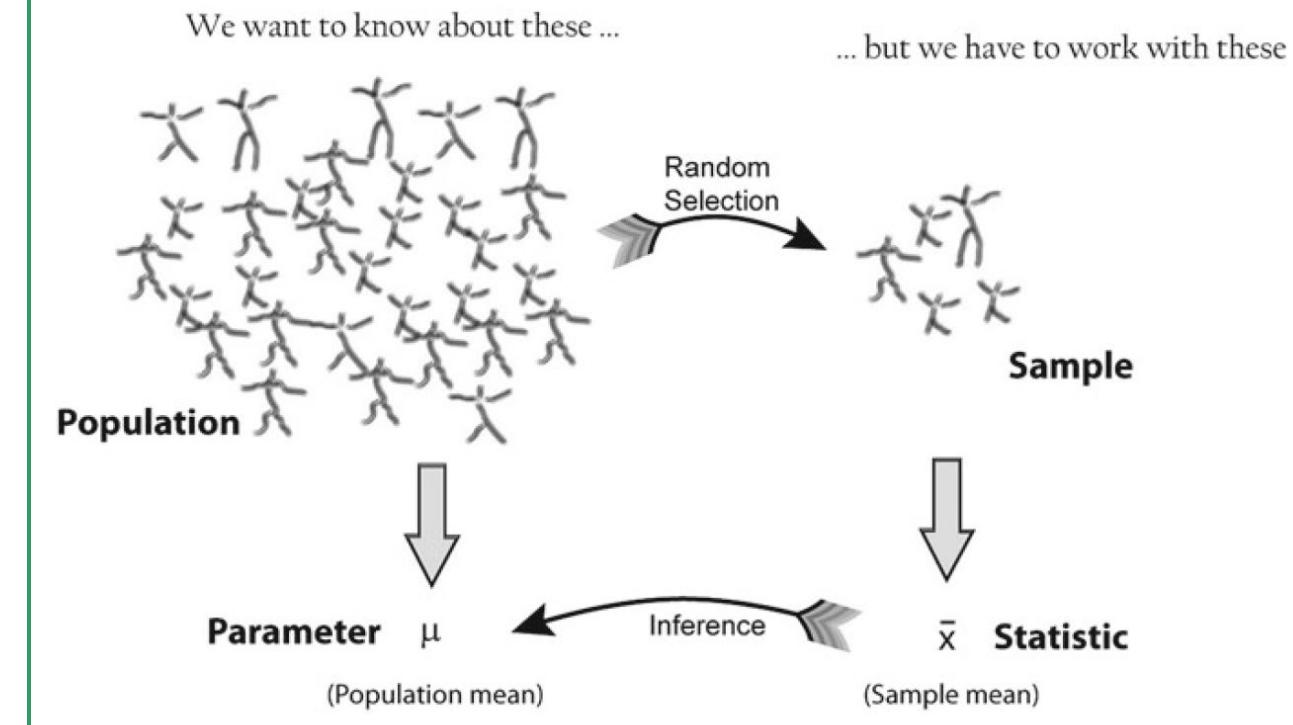
Evaluations of regression models

- **Machine learning beyond linear regression**
 - Linear regression models are extremely robust in the sense that training on different sub-samples of the entire dataset gives quite similar models – this is not the case for most other machine learning models.
 - For linear regression, if we satisfy the assumptions to be mentioned later, statistical theory can give use estimation of “goodness of fit” in terms of p-values for the coefficients and F-statistics – this is not the case for most other machine learning models.
 - Thus, we need another approach to evaluating machine learning models...



Evaluations of regression models

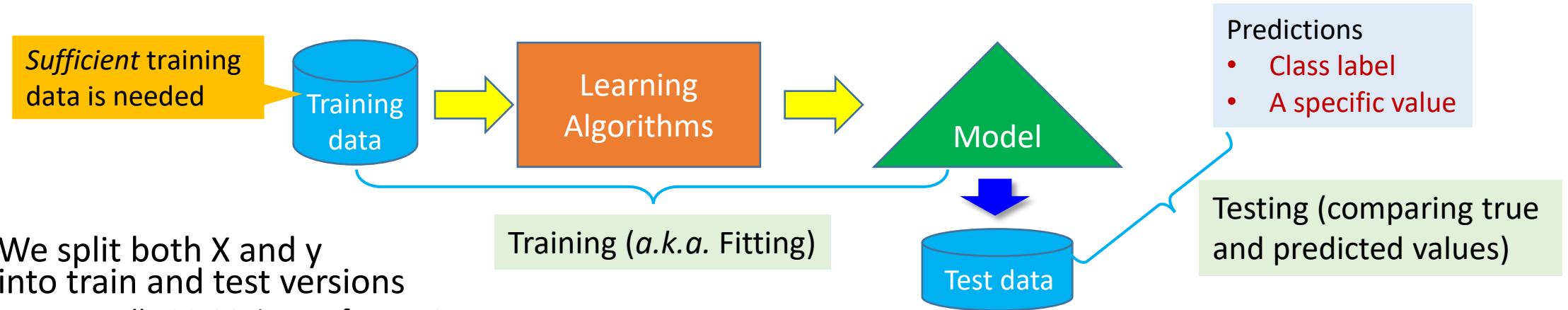
- In **statistics**, we want to **generalize** from sample statistics to population statistics (from sample mean to population mean)
- In **machine learning**, we want to build predictive models that make accurate predictions on the population – i.e. we want machine learning models that **generalize** well to the population
- In **statistics**, we get an estimate about how good our generalization is by making **assumptions about the data generation process** (such as data comes from a normal distribution) that allow us to calculate things like p-values
- In **machine learning**, we often make **no assumption about the data generation process** (we treat our predictive models as black boxes), so we need another way of measuring how well we generalize...



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Evaluations of regression models

- To be sure we generalize well in machine learning, we make a distinction between the data we ***train*** a model on and data we use to ***test/evaluate*** our model.



- We split both X and y into train and test versions
 - Usually 20-30% goes for testing
 - We split such that X and corresponding y values are together
- The test data is completely distinct from the train data
- Once the model is trained on the training data, we feed in the X part of the test data to make predictions \hat{Y} on the test data.
 - We can then calculate our final evaluation of the model based on metrics (such as RMSE) that compare \hat{Y} to the true Y from the test data.

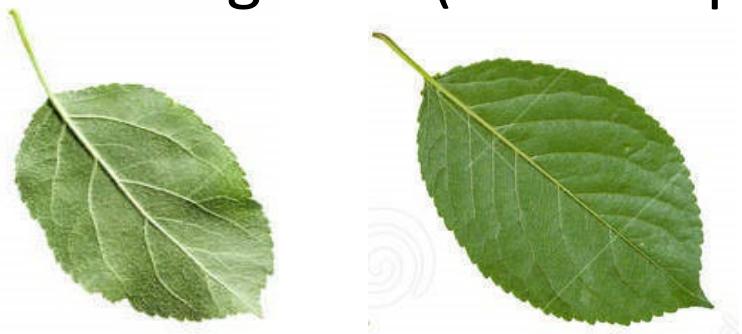
Evaluations of regression models

- **Overfitting:** A model works well on the training data but generalizes poorly to unseen data – much better evaluation scores on the training set than on the test set. Can be due to:
 - Noise in the training data is learned as pattern.
 - Too many features are used in training.
 - The model type used is too complex.
 - Lack of proper variance in the training data
- **Underfitting:** A model even does not work well on the training data – poor evaluation scores on the training set. Can be due to:
 - Too few features are used in training.
 - The model type used is too simple.
 - The training dataset is too little, failing to contain sufficient variance.

Evaluations of regression models

Example: Leaf Detection/Classification

- Training data (leaf samples)



Use more features or
a more complex model.

- Test data (unseen)



An *overfitting* model might say "Not a leaf".

- The training data samples all have sawtooth
- The model thinks a leaf must have sawtooth.

Include more training samples.
E.g., those without sawtooth.



An *underfitting* model might say "A leaf".

- Only color is used as the feature.
- The model thinks everything green is a leaf.



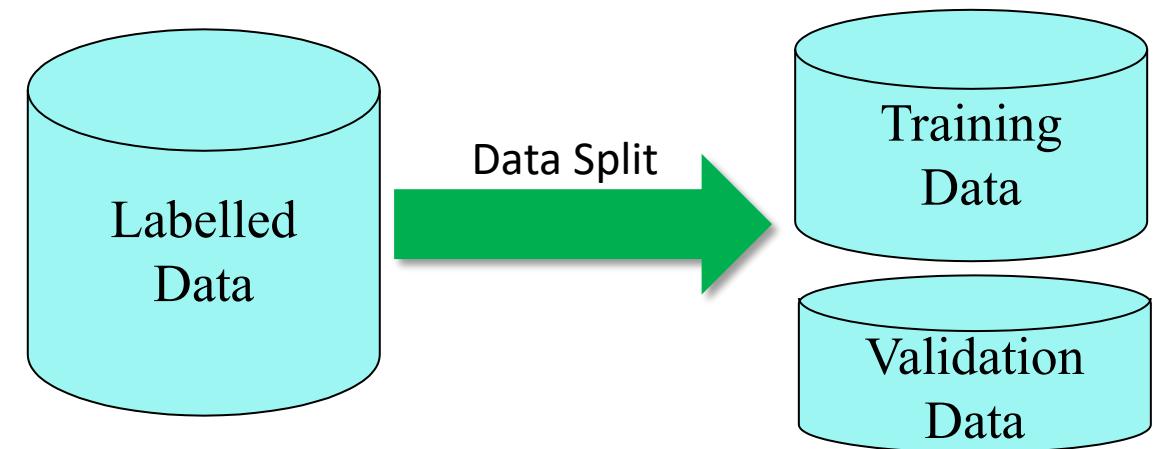
An *overfitting* model might say "Not a leaf".

- The training data samples are all green.
- The model thinks a leaf must be green.

Leaf images from <https://www.dreamstime.com/>

Evaluations of regression models

- To see how to evaluate regression models and make train-test split in Python, let us look at the notebook “Evaluation of regression models.ipynb”.



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Multiple linear regression

- The multiple regression formula now looks like:
 - $y = a + b^1*x^1 + b^2*x^2 + \dots + b^k*x^k$
 - *For some number of k features/predictors/independent variables*
- *Example*
 - $\text{HousePrice} = a + b^1*\text{"size"} + b^2*\text{"noRooms"} + b^3*\text{"distToSchools"}$
- Our dataset now consists of tuples/rows of the form $(x_1^1, x_2^2, \dots, x_k^k, y_i)$
- We still use \hat{y}_i to denote the predicted value for the i'th datapoint/row, that is
 - $\hat{y}_i = a + b^1*x_1^1 + b^2*x_2^2 + \dots + b^k*x_k^k$
- Residuals or errors are also still defined as
 - $\hat{y}_i - y_i$
- Sum of squared errors are defined in the same manner, and we can use OLS for fitting a multiple regression model, just as for simple linear regression

Multiple linear regression

- **Evaluation of multiple regression models**
 - We use the same metrics as for simple linear regression:
 - **MAE**: Mean Absolute Error
 - MEA = $\text{mean}(\text{abs}(\hat{y}_i - y_i))$
 - **MSE**: Mean Squared Error
 - MSE = $\text{mean}((\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2)$
 - **RMSE**: Root Mean Squared Error
 - RMSE = $\sqrt{\text{mean}((\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2)}$
 - **R-squared (R^2)** / coefficient of determination
 - $R^2 = \frac{\sum((\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2)}{\sum((y_i - \text{mean}(y_i))^2)}$
 - **Adjusted R-squared (Adj. R^2)**
 - $\text{Adj. } R^2 = 1 - \frac{(1 - R^2)(n-1)}{(n-p-1)}$, where n is the number of rows and p is the number of columns in X .
 - Useful when adding new predictor variables. When adding new predictor variables R^2 will always increase, but the increase might be so small that it could be really no effect. Adj R^2 adjust for this.

Multiple linear regression

- **Dealing with categorical variables**
 - All categorical predictor/feature/independent variables need to be transformed into “dummy variables” as we learned to do when discussing Data Transformation.
 - Recall that one of the dummy variables will be dropped and acts as the reference variable. This is important when interpreting the regression coefficients for the dummy variables
 - See the notebook “Multiple linear regression.ipynb”

Multiple linear regression

- **Extending with interaction and polynomial features**

- We could imagine adding an interacting term between two variables like x^3 and x^5 . This corresponds to adding the term $c*x^3*x^5$ to the multiple regression formula:
 - $y = a + b^1*x^1 + b^2*x^2 + \dots + b^k*x^k + c*x^3*x^5$
- This can be done by adding a new column that is x^3*x^5 . Following this, one can just conduct usual multiple linear regression and the coefficient for this new column will be c in the equation above.
- We could imagine adding a polynomial transformation of one of the variables, such as $(x^3)^2$. This corresponds to adding the term $d*(x^3)^2$ to the multiple regression formula:
 - $y = a + b^1*x^1 + b^2*x^2 + \dots + b^k*x^k + d*(x^3)^2$
- This can be done by adding a new column that is $(x^3)^2$. Following this, one can just conduct usual multiple linear regression and the coefficient for this new column will be d in the equation above.

Multiple linear regression

- **Assumptions and problems for linear regression**
 - For inference, these might affect the validity of our inferences, such as the actual effect, significance of coefficients (p-values), and confidence intervals
 - For predictions, these might result in low predictive performance or biased errors

Multiple linear regression

- **Assumptions and problems for linear regression**

- Linearity assumption: y varies linearly with x
 - Plot residuals vs predicted value \hat{y}
- Correlation of error terms assumption: There are no correlation amount the residuals (e_i does not tell us anything about e_{i+1})
 - Plot residuals vs x (time)
- Constant variance of error terms assumption: The variance of the residuals is constant (does not correlated with the predicted value \hat{y})
 - Plot residuals vs predicted value \hat{y}
- Outliers assumption: There are no outliers
 - Plot residuals vs predicted value \hat{y}
- High-leverage points assumption: There are no leverage points
 - Plot leverage statistics
- Collinearity assumption: None of the predictor variables are very strongly correlated
 - Look at correlation matrix of predictors

Multiple linear regression

- **Other regression models**
 - There are plenty of other models for regression that do not assume y is linear in the x variables
 - We will talk a bit about how tree-based models for regression, when we talk about tree-based models for classification.
 - We will also briefly see how neural networks can be used for regression, when we get to those
- **In Python**
 - Very similar to simple linear regression
 - We can both use statsmodels and scikit-learn
 - See the notebook “Multiple linear regression.ipynb”

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Exercises

- Do the exercises in the notebook
“Exercises in linear regression.ipynb”