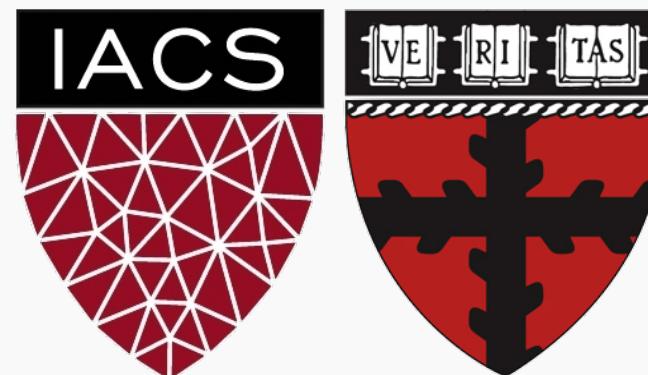


Lecture 6: Multiple and Poly Linear Regression

CS109A Introduction to Data Science
Pavlos Protopapas, Kevin Rader and Chris Tanner



ANNOUNCEMENTS

- **Office Hours:**

More office hours, schedule will be posted soon.

On-line office hours are for everyone, please take advantage of them.

- **Projects:**

Project guidelines and project descriptions will be posted Thursday 9/25.

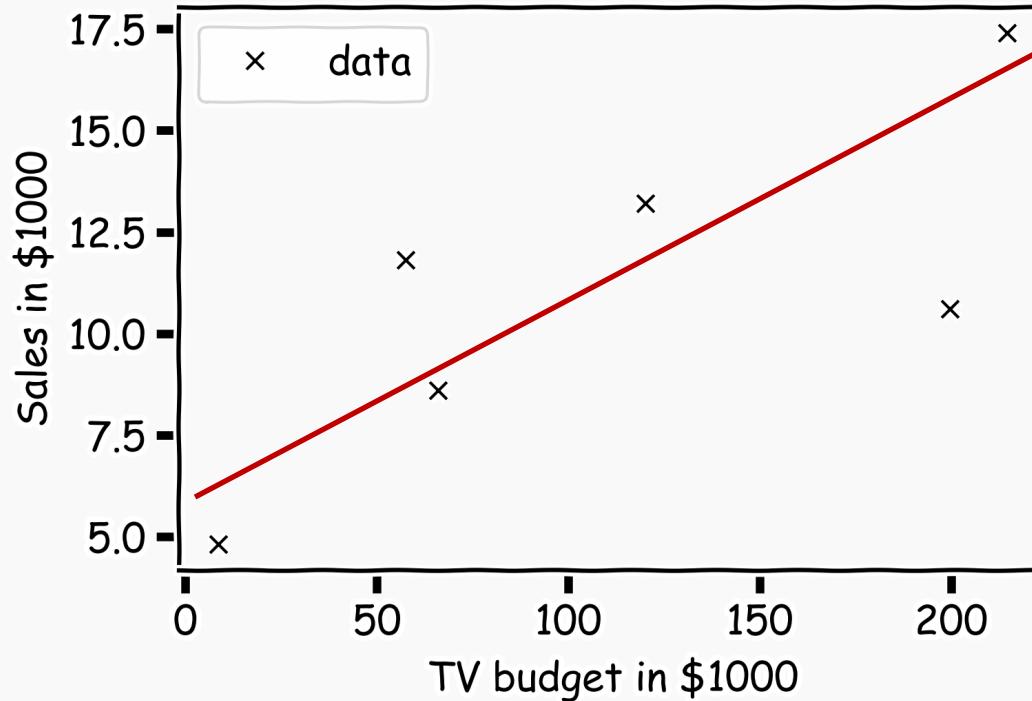
Milestone-1: Signup for project is Wed 10/2 .



Summary from last lecture

We **assume** a simple form of the statistical model f :

$$Y = f(X) + \epsilon = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

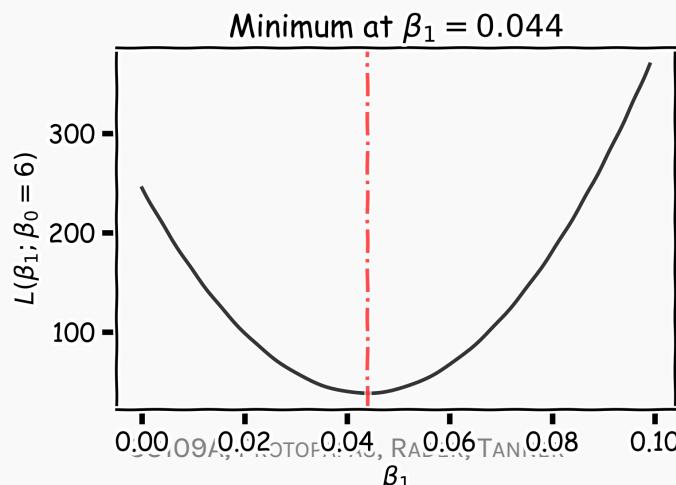


Summary from last lecture

We fit the model, i.e. estimate, $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1$ that minimize the loss function, which we **assume** to be the MSE:

$$L_{MSE}(\beta_0, \beta_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_n [y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)^2]$$

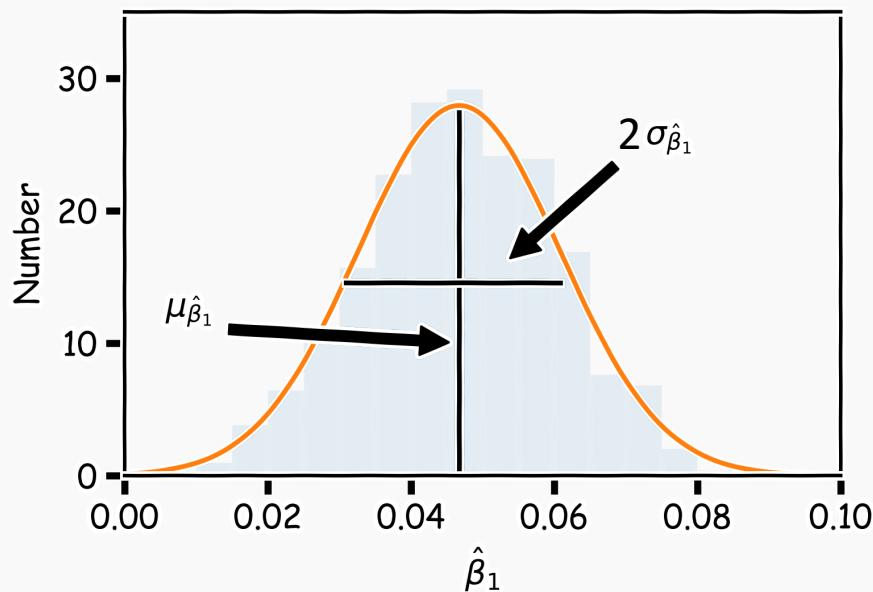
$$\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1 = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta_0, \beta_1} L(\beta_0, \beta_1).$$



Summary from last lecture

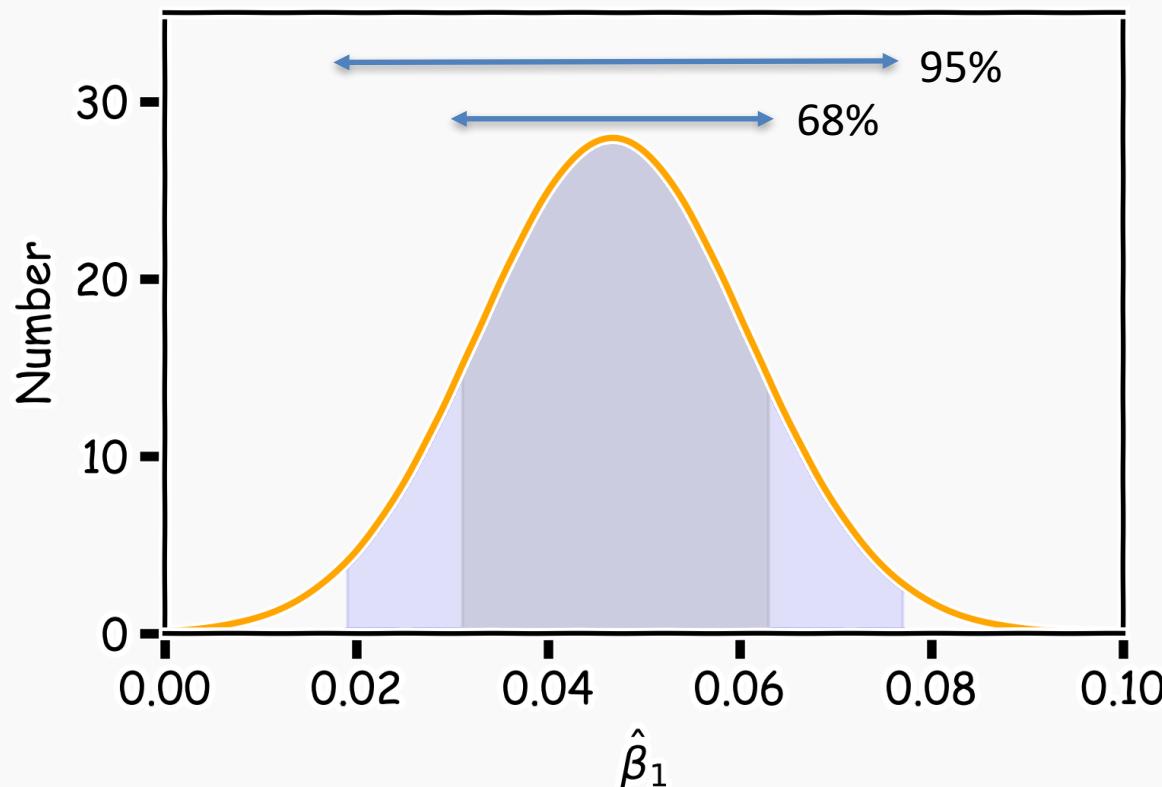
We acknowledge that because there are errors in measurements and a limited sample, there is an inherent uncertainty in the estimation of $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1$.

We used **bootstrap** to estimate the distributions of $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1$



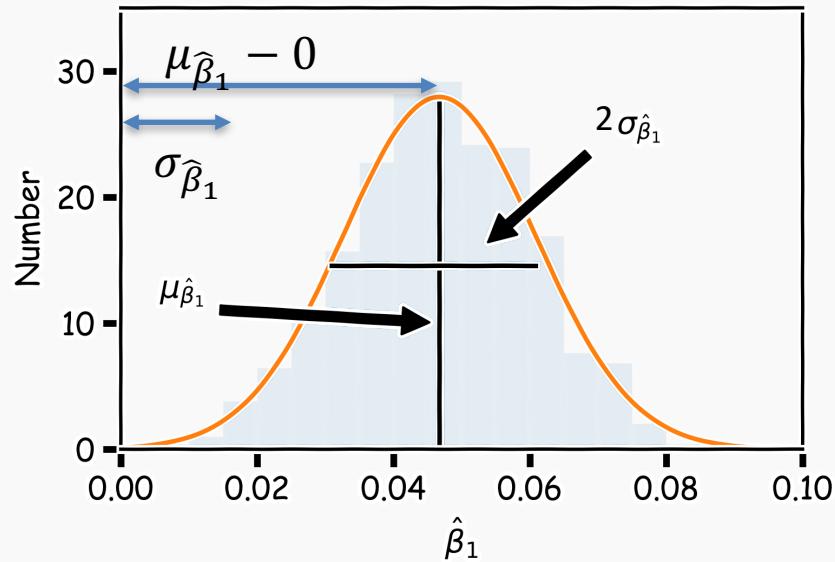
Summary from last lecture

We calculate the confidence intervals, which are the ranges of values such that the **true** value of β_1 is contained in this interval with n percent probability.



Summary from last lecture

We evaluate the importance of predictors using hypothesis testing, using the t-statistics and p-values.



Summary from last lecture

Model Fitness

How does the model perform predicting?

Comparison of Two Models

How do we choose from two different models?

Evaluating Significance of Predictors

Does the outcome depend on the predictors?

How well do we know \hat{f}

The confidence intervals of our \hat{f}

} This lecture



Summary

How well do we know \hat{f}

The confidence intervals of our \hat{f}

- Multi-linear Regression
 - Formulate it in Linear Algebra
 - Categorical Variables
- Interaction terms
- Polynomial Regression
 - Linear Algebra Formulation



Summary

How well do we know \hat{f}

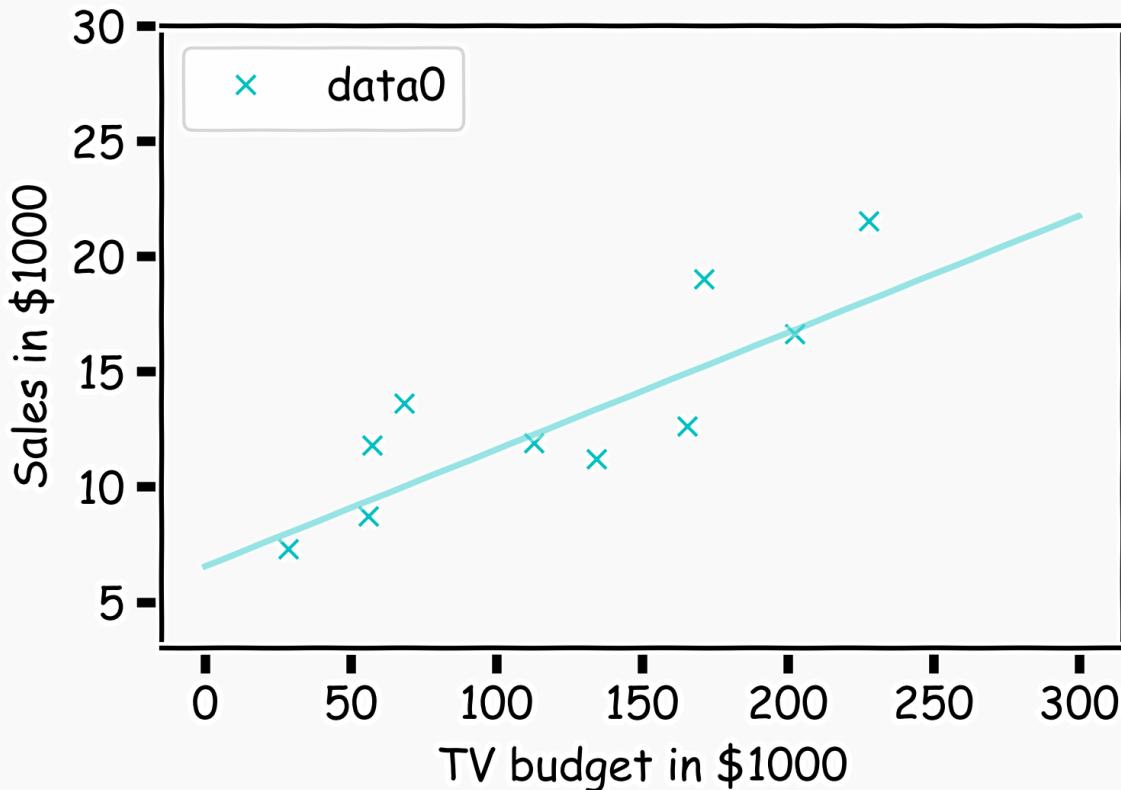
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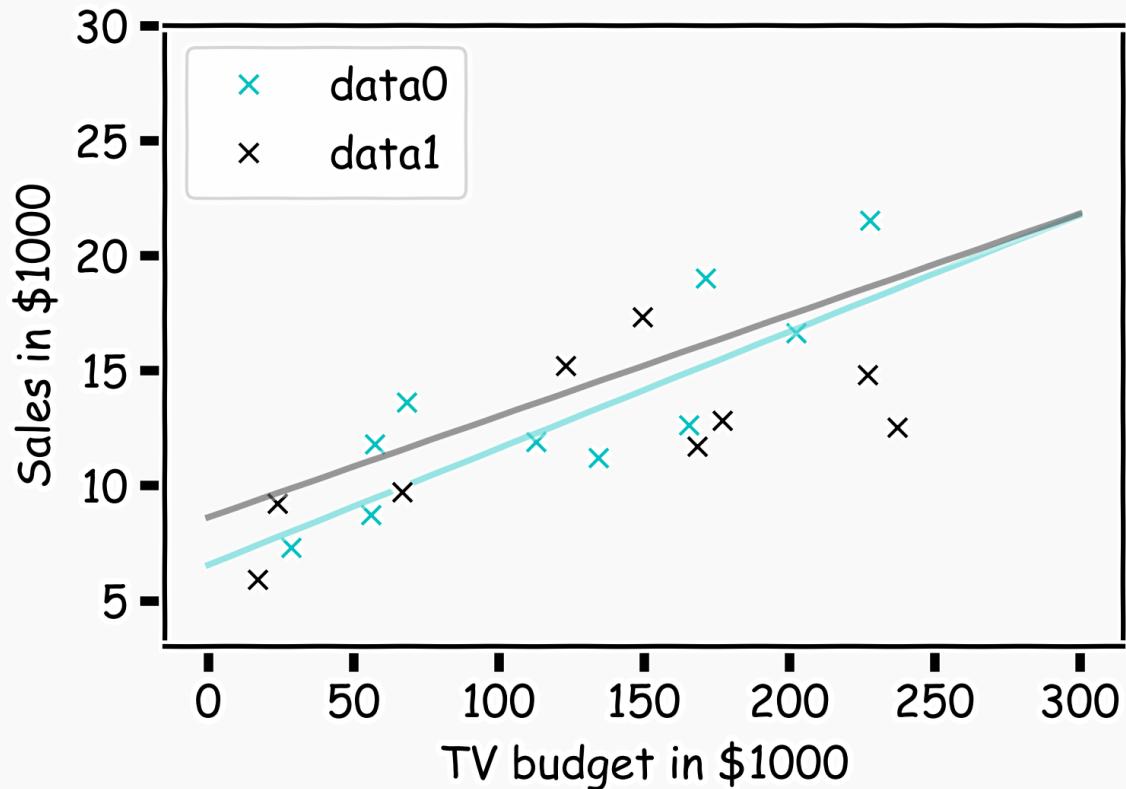
How well do we know \hat{f} ?

Our confidence in f is directly connected with the confidence in β s. So for each bootstrap sample, we have one β_0, β_1 which we can use to predict y for all x 's.



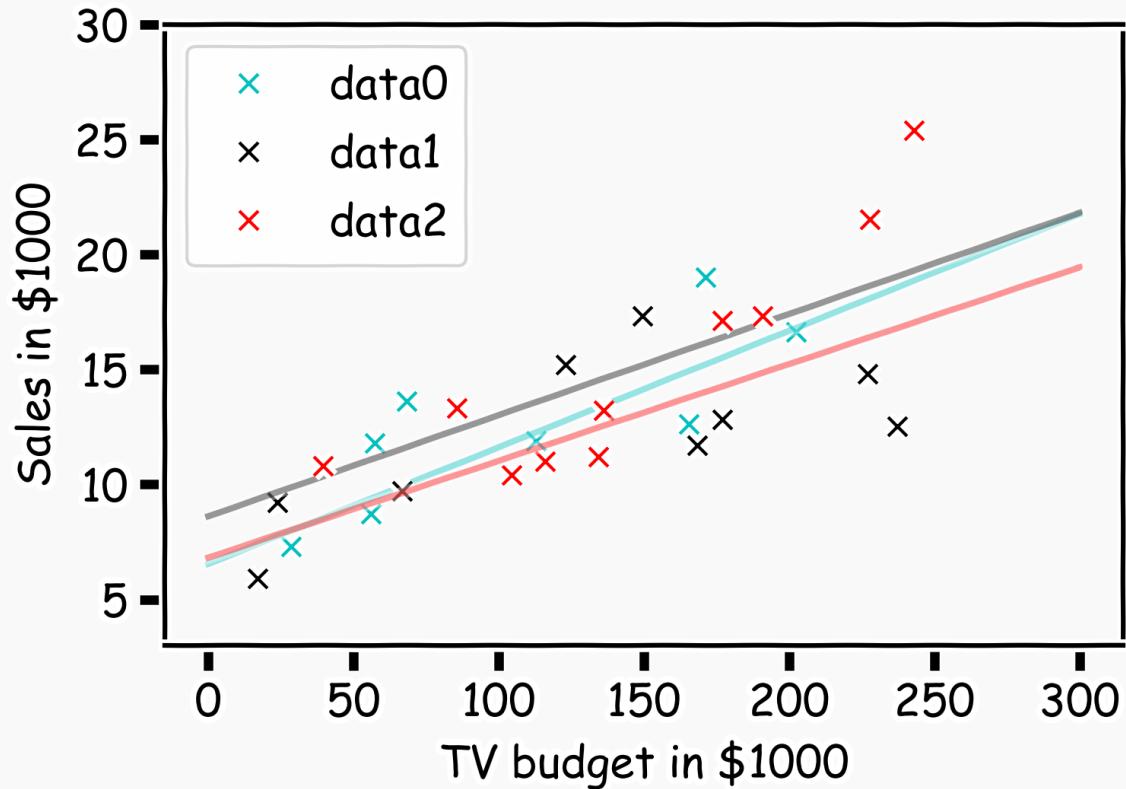
How well do we know \hat{f} ?

Here we show two different sets of models given the fitted coefficients.



How well do we know \hat{f} ?

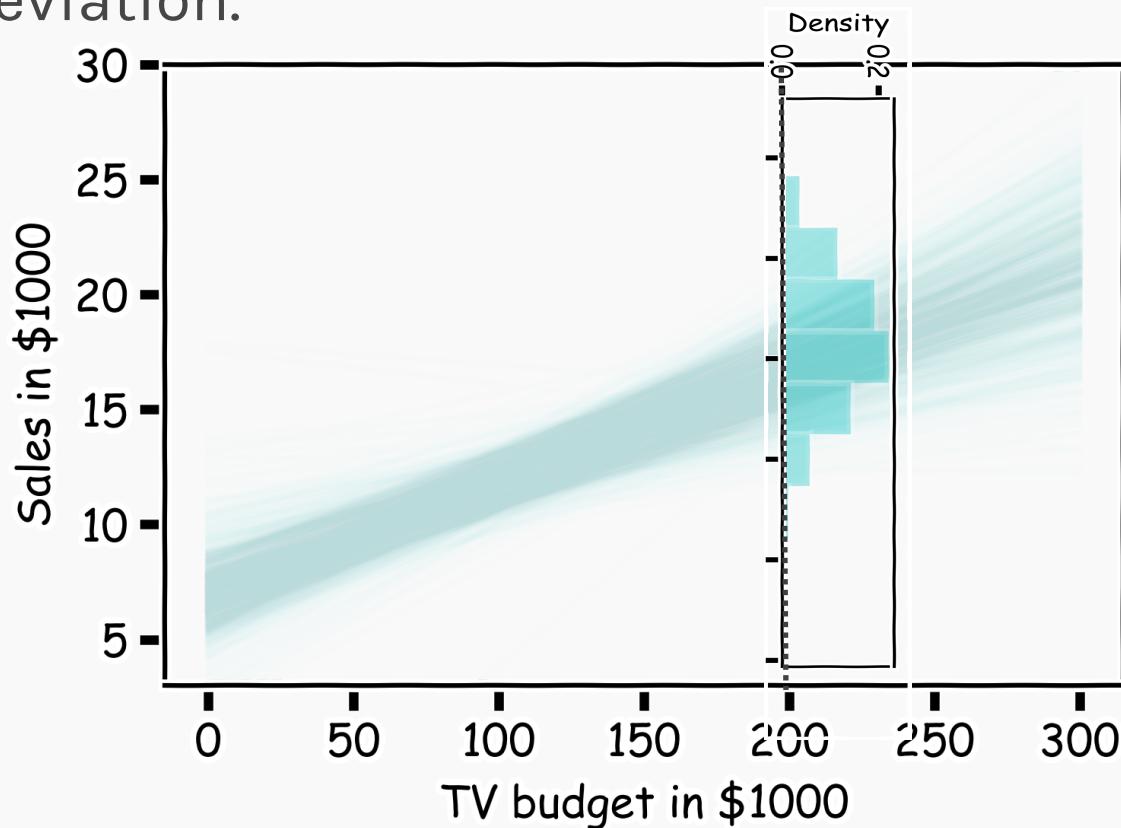
There is one such regression line for every bootstrapped sample.



How well do we know \hat{f} ?

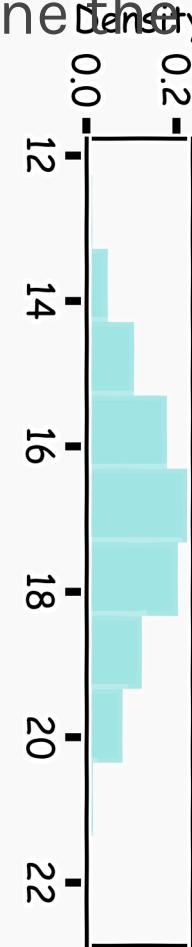
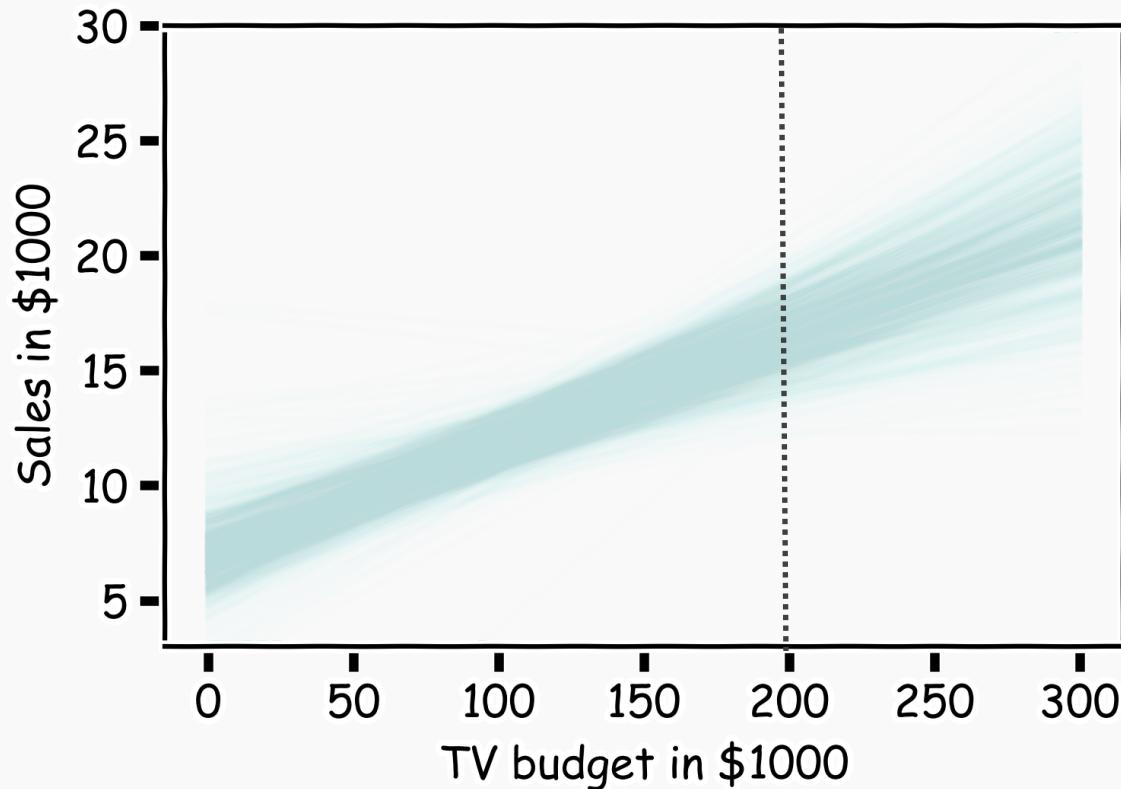
Below we show all regression lines for a thousand of such bootstrapped samples.

For a given x , we examine the distribution of \hat{f} , and determine the mean and standard deviation.



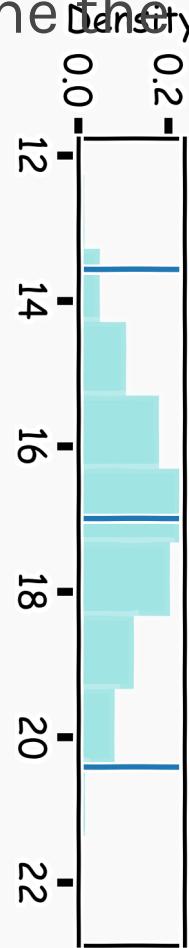
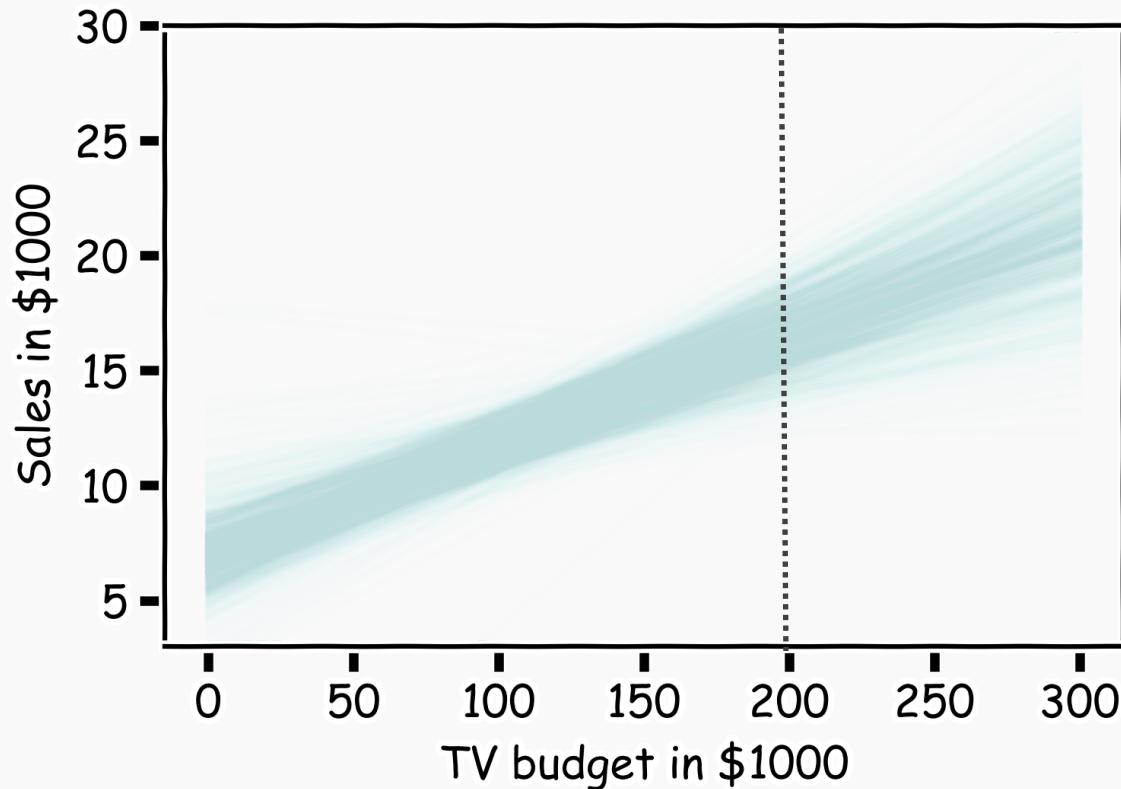
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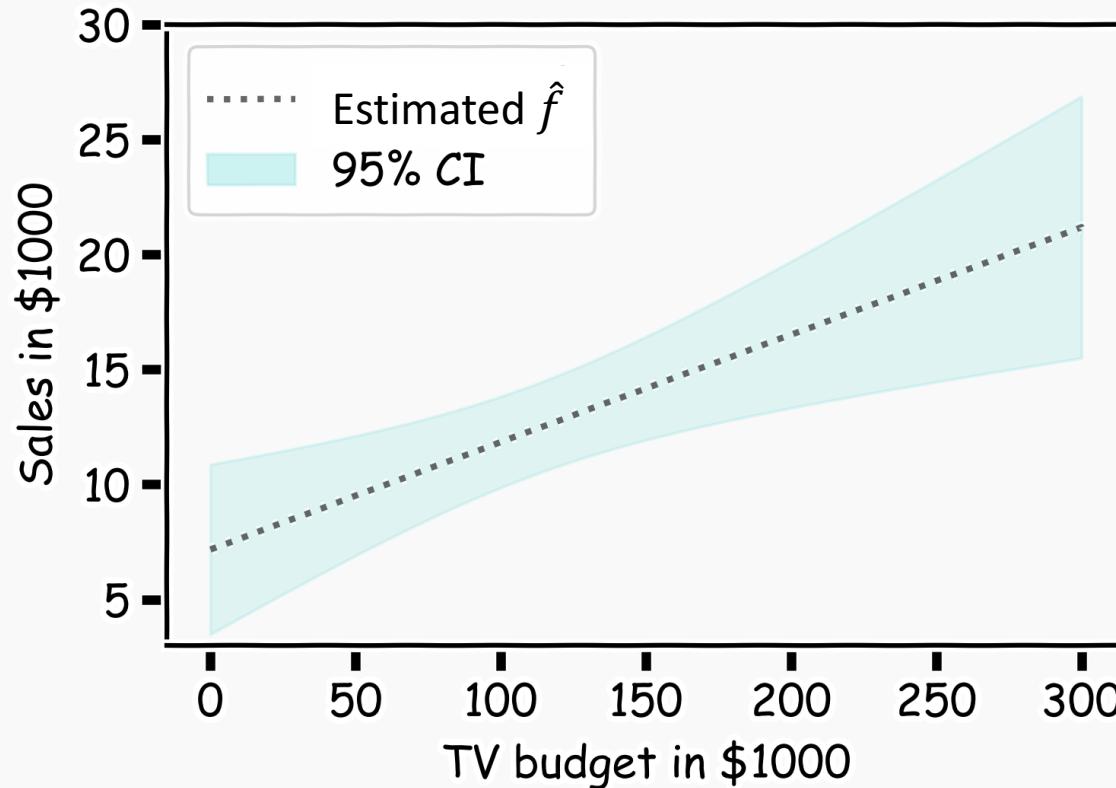
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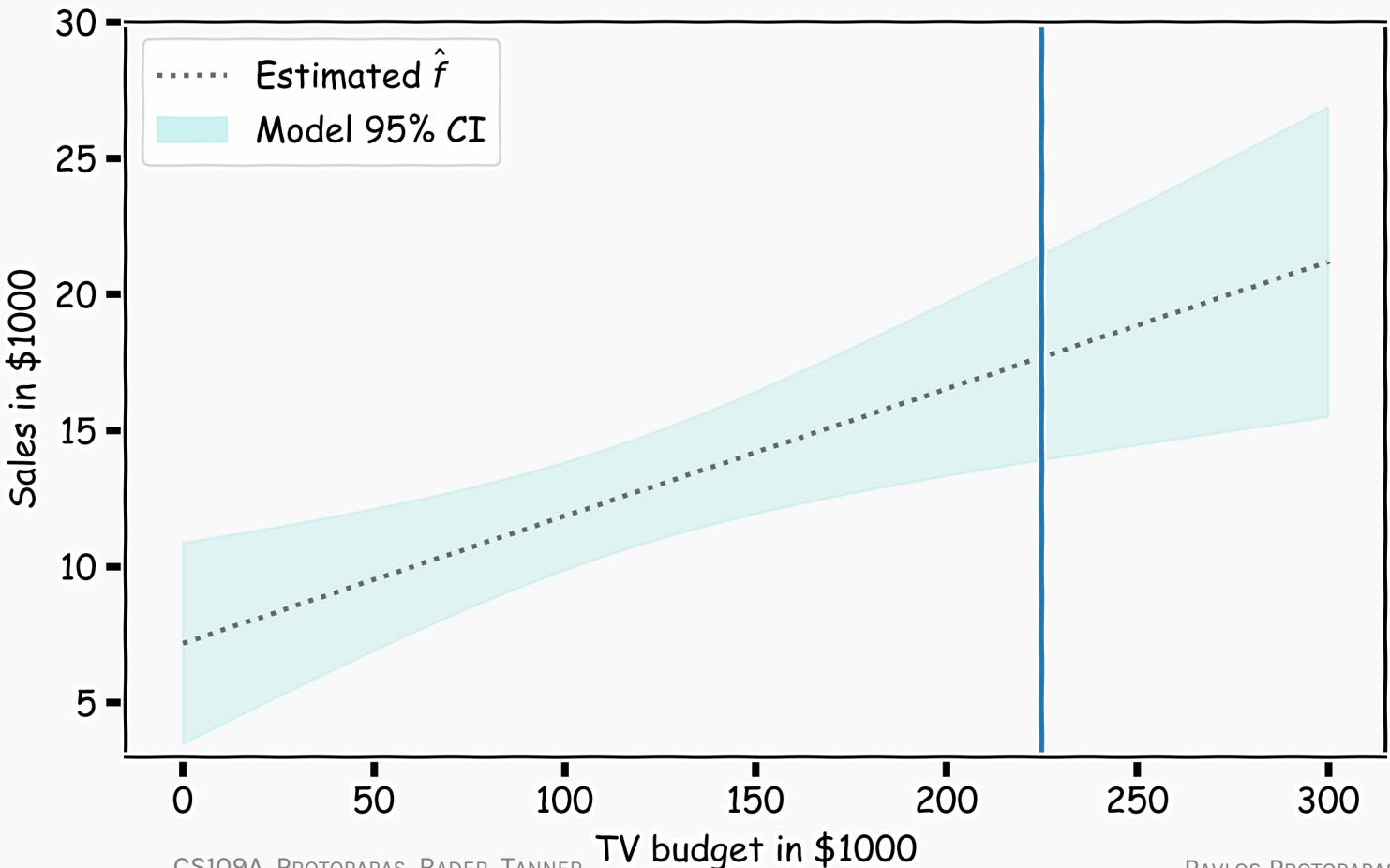


How well do we know \hat{f} ?

For every x , we calculate the mean of the models, \hat{f} (shown with dotted line) and the 95% CI of those models (shaded area).

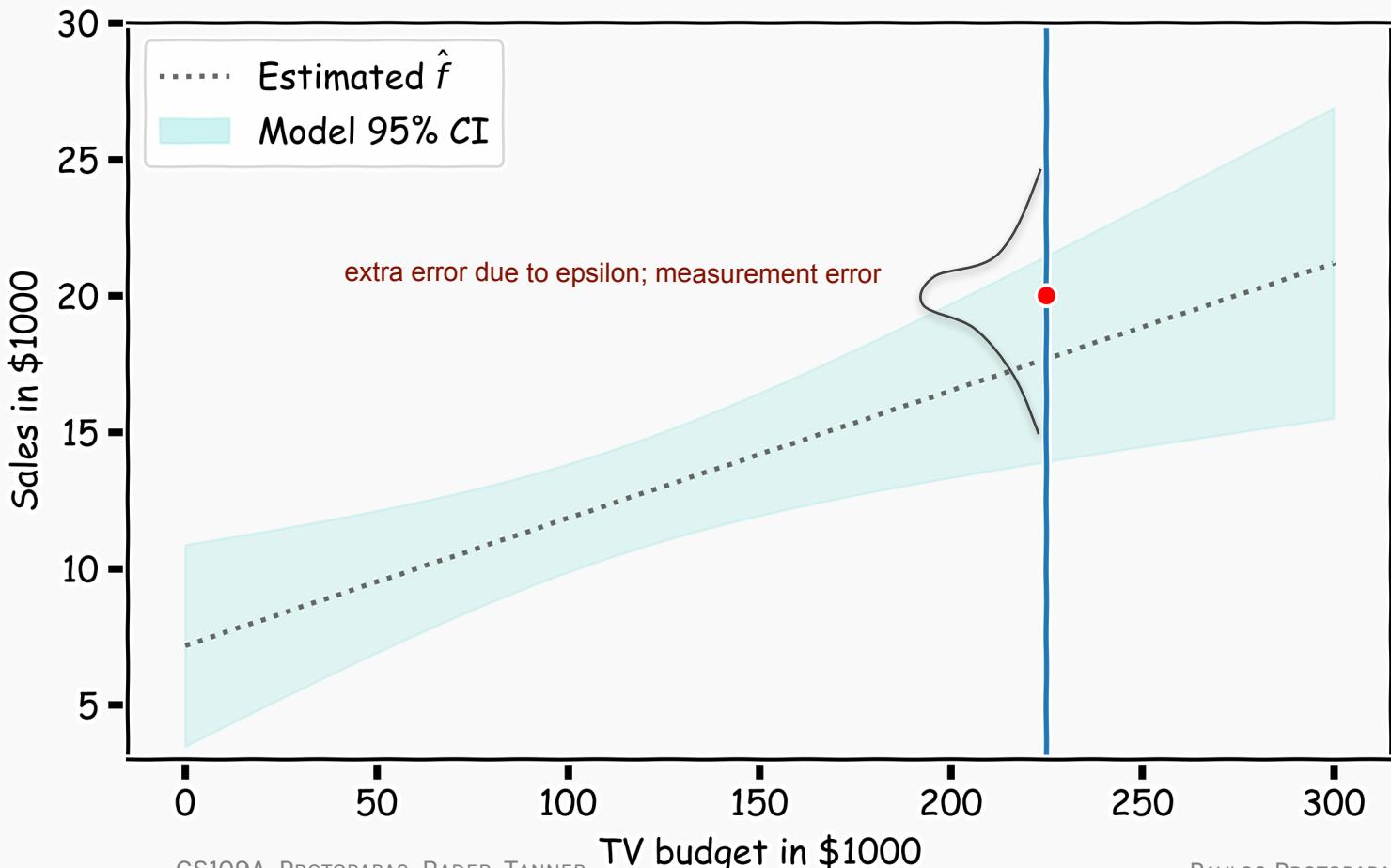


Confidence in predicting \hat{y}



Confidence in predicting \hat{y}

- for a given x , we have a distribution of models $f(x)$
- for each of these $f(x)$, the prediction for $y \sim N(f, \sigma_\epsilon)$



Confidence in predicting \hat{y}

- for a given x , we have a distribution of models $f(x)$
- for each of these $f(x)$, the prediction for $y \sim N(f, \sigma_\epsilon)$
- The prediction confidence intervals are then

lecture 4; we don't know σ_ϵ
but we can estimate it
We assume that we can measure the x
exactly (x is deterministic and all the
error is in y) but have measurement
error in the $y \rightarrow \sigma_\epsilon$

In addition to the model error (light
blue), there is measurement error
(darker blue)



Lecture Outline

How well do we know \hat{f}

The confidence intervals of our \hat{f}

- **Multi-linear Regression**
 - Brute Force
 - Exact method
 - Gradient Descent
- Polynomial Regression



Multiple Linear Regression

If you have to guess someone's height, would you rather be told

- Their weight, only
- Their weight and gender
- Their weight, gender, and income
- Their weight, gender, income, and favorite number

Of course, you'd always want as much data about a person as possible. Even though height and favorite number may not be strongly related, at worst you could just ignore the information on favorite number. We want our models to be able to take in lots of data as they make their predictions.

Response vs. Predictor Variables

X
predictors
features
covariates

Y
outcome
response variable
dependent variable

	TV	radio	newspaper	sales
1	230.1	37.8	69.2	22.1
2	44.5	39.3	45.1	10.4
3	17.2	45.9	69.3	9.3
4	151.5	41.3	58.5	18.5
5	180.8	10.8	58.4	12.9

n observations

p predictors

Multilinear Models

In practice, it is unlikely that any response variable Y depends solely on one predictor x . Rather, we expect that Y is a function of multiple predictors $f(X_1, \dots, X_J)$. Using the notation we introduced last lecture,

$$Y = y_1, \dots, y_n, \quad X = X_1, \dots, X_J \text{ and } X_j = x_{1j}, \dots, x_{ij}, \dots, x_{nj}$$

In this case, we can still assume a simple form for f -a multilinear form:

$$Y = f(X_1, \dots, X_J) + \epsilon = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_J X_J + \epsilon$$

Hence, \hat{f} , has the form

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{f}(X_1, \dots, X_J) + \epsilon = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 X_2 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_J X_J + \epsilon$$



Multiple Linear Regression

Again, to fit this model means to compute $\hat{\beta}_0, \dots, \hat{\beta}_J$ or to minimize a loss function; we will again choose the **MSE** as our loss function.

Given a set of observations,

$$\{(x_{1,1}, \dots, x_{1,J}, y_1), \dots, (x_{n,1}, \dots, x_{n,J}, y_n)\},$$

the data and the model can be expressed in vector notation,

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_y \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_{1,1} & \dots & x_{1,J} \\ 1 & x_{2,1} & \dots & x_{2,J} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n,1} & \dots & x_{n,J} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_J \end{pmatrix},$$

Multilinear Model, example

For our data

$$\text{Sales} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times TV + \beta_2 \times Radio + \beta_3 \times Newspaper + \epsilon$$

In linear algebra notation

n = number of observations

number of betas = number of predictors

$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} Sales_1 \\ \vdots \\ Sales_n \end{pmatrix}, X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & TV_1 & Radio_1 & News_1 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & TV_n & Radio_n & News_n \end{pmatrix}, \beta = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Sales_1 = [1 \quad TV_1 \quad Radio_1 \quad News_1] \times \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_3 \end{pmatrix}$$



Multiple Linear Regression

The model takes a simple algebraic form:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon$$

in stats model; you add constant to be able sum it up this way (having the 1 in the matrix)

Thus, the MSE can be expressed in vector notation as

$$\text{MSE}(\beta) = \frac{1}{n} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2$$

Minimizing the MSE using vector calculus yields,

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{Y} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \text{MSE}(\beta).$$

Standard Errors for Multiple Linear Regression

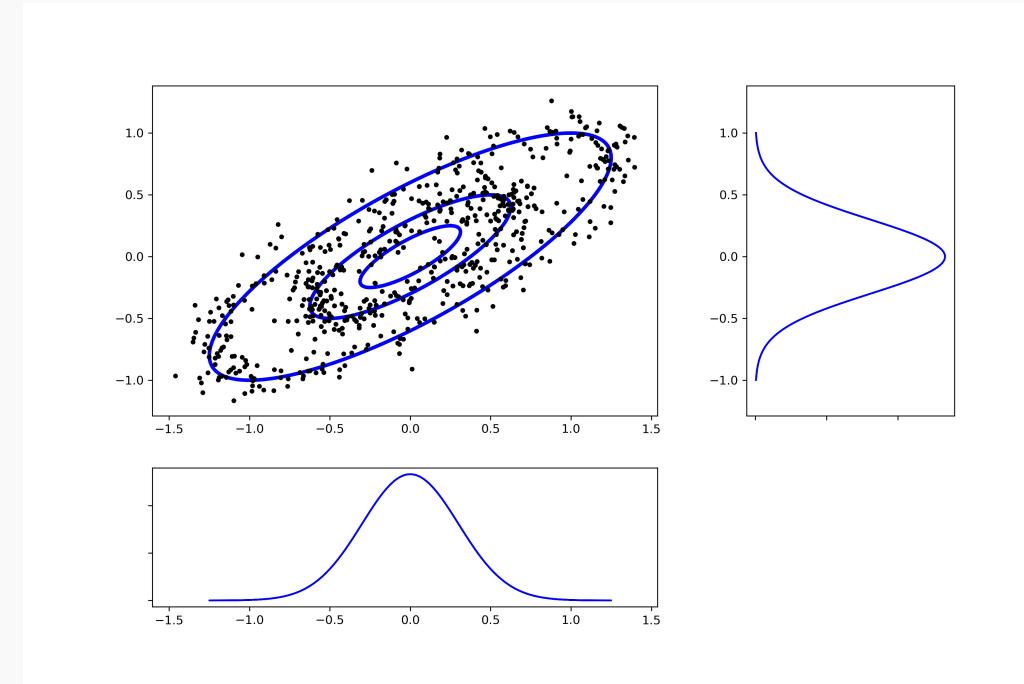
As with the simple linear regression, the standard errors can be calculated either using statistical modeling

formula for standard
errors for multi-linear
regression

$$SE(\beta_1) = \sigma^2 (X^T X^{-1})$$

convergence
matrix

Or bootstrap



Collinearity

Collinearity refers to the case in which two or more predictors are correlated (related).

We will re-visit collinearity in the next lecture when we address **overfitting**, but for now we want to examine how does collinearity affects our confidence on the coefficients and consequently on the importance of those coefficients.

Collinearity

Three individual models

TV

Coef.	Std.Err.	t	P> t	[0.025	0.975]
6.679	0.478	13.957	2.804e-31	5.735	7.622
0.048	0.0027	17.303	1.802e-41	0.042	0.053

RADIO

Coef.	Std.Err.	t	P> t	[0.025	0.975]
9.567	0.553	17.279	2.133e-41	8.475	10.659
0.195	0.020	9.429	1.134e-17	0.154	0.236

NEWS

Coef.	Std.Err.	t	P> t	[0.025	0.975]
11.55	0.576	20.036	1.628e-49	10.414	12.688
0.074	0.014	5.134	6.734e-07	0.0456	0.102

One model

	Coef.	Std.Err.	t	P> t	[0.025	0.975]
β_0	2.602	0.332	7.820	3.176e-13	1.945	3.258
β_{TV}	0.046	0.0015	29.887	6.314e-75	0.043	0.049
β_{RADIO}	0.175	0.0094	18.576	4.297e-45	0.156	0.194
β_{NEWS}	0.013	0.028	2.338	0.0203	0.008	0.035

Finding Significant Predictors: Hypothesis Testing

For checking the significance of linear regression coefficients:

1. we set up our hypotheses H_0 :

$$H_0 : \beta_0 = \beta_1 = \dots = \beta_J = 0 \quad \text{nothing is of importance} \quad (\textbf{Null})$$

$$H_1 : \beta_j \neq 0, \text{ for at least one } j \quad (\textbf{Alternative})$$

2. we choose the F -stat to evaluate the null hypothesis,

$$F = \frac{\text{explained variance}}{\text{unexplained variance}}$$



Finding Significant Predictors: Hypothesis Testing

3. we can compute the F -stat for linear regression models by

$$F = \frac{(\text{TSS} - \text{RSS})/J}{\text{RSS}/(n - J - 1)}, \quad \text{TSS} = \sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2, \text{RSS} = \sum_i (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

n.J-1 is needed to get an unbiased estimator

4. If $F = 1$ we consider this evidence for H_0 ; if $F > 1$, we consider this evidence against H_0 .

$F = 1$: we believe null hypothesis that nothing is of importance. If $F > 10$ we think that is evidence against H_0 and we believe H_1 could be true

Qualitative Predictors

So far, we have assumed that all variables are quantitative. But in practice, often some predictors are **qualitative**.

Example: The Credit data set contains information about balance, age, cards, education, income, limit , and rating for a number of potential customers.

Income	Limit	Rating	Cards	Age	Education	Gender	Student	Married	Ethnicity	Balance
14.890	3606	283	2	34	11	Male	No	Yes	Caucasian	333
106.02	6645	483	3	82	15	Female	Yes	Yes	Asian	903
104.59	7075	514	4	71	11	Male	No	No	Asian	580
148.92	9504	681	3	36	11	Female	No	No	Asian	964
55.882	4897	357	2	68	16	Male	No	Yes	Caucasian	331

Qualitative Predictors

If the predictor takes only two values, then we create an **indicator** or **dummy variable** that takes on two possible numerical values.

For example for the gender, we create a new variable:

$$x_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{ th person is female} \\ 0 & \text{if } i \text{ th person is male} \end{cases}$$

We then use this variable as a predictor in the regression equation.

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i = \begin{cases} \beta_0 + \beta_1 + \epsilon_i & \text{if } i \text{ th person is female} \\ \beta_0 + \epsilon_i & \text{if } i \text{ th person is male} \end{cases}$$



Qualitative Predictors

Question: What is interpretation of β_0 and β_1 ?



Qualitative Predictors

Question: What is interpretation of β_0 and β_1 ?

- β_0 is the average credit card balance among males,
- $\beta_0 + \beta_1$ is the average credit card balance among females,
- and β_1 the average difference in credit card balance between females and males.

Example: Calculate β_0 and β_1 for the Credit data.

You should find $\beta_0 \sim \$509$, $\beta_1 \sim \$19$

More than two levels: One hot encoding

Often, the qualitative predictor takes more than two values (e.g. ethnicity in the credit data).

In this situation, a single dummy variable cannot represent all possible values.

We create additional dummy variables as:

$$x_{i,1} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i\text{th person is Asian} \\ 0 & \text{if } i\text{th person is not Asian} \end{cases}$$

$$x_{i,2} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i\text{th person is Caucasian} \\ 0 & \text{if } i\text{th person is not Caucasian} \end{cases}$$

More than two levels: One hot encoding

We then use these variables as predictors, the regression equation becomes:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i,1} + \beta_2 x_{i,2} + \epsilon_i = \begin{cases} \beta_0 + \beta_1 + \epsilon_i & \text{if } i\text{th person is Asian} \\ \beta_0 + \beta_2 + \epsilon_i & \text{if } i\text{th person is Caucasian} \\ \beta_0 + \epsilon_i & \text{if } i\text{th person is AfricanAmerican} \end{cases}$$

Question: What is the interpretation of $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$?

Beyond linearity

In the Advertising data, we assumed that the effect on sales of increasing one advertising medium is independent of the amount spent on the other media.

If we assume linear model then the average effect on sales of a one-unit increase in TV is always β_1 , regardless of the amount spent on radio.

Synergy effect or **interaction effect** states that when an increase on the radio budget affects the effectiveness of the TV spending on sales.

Beyond linearity

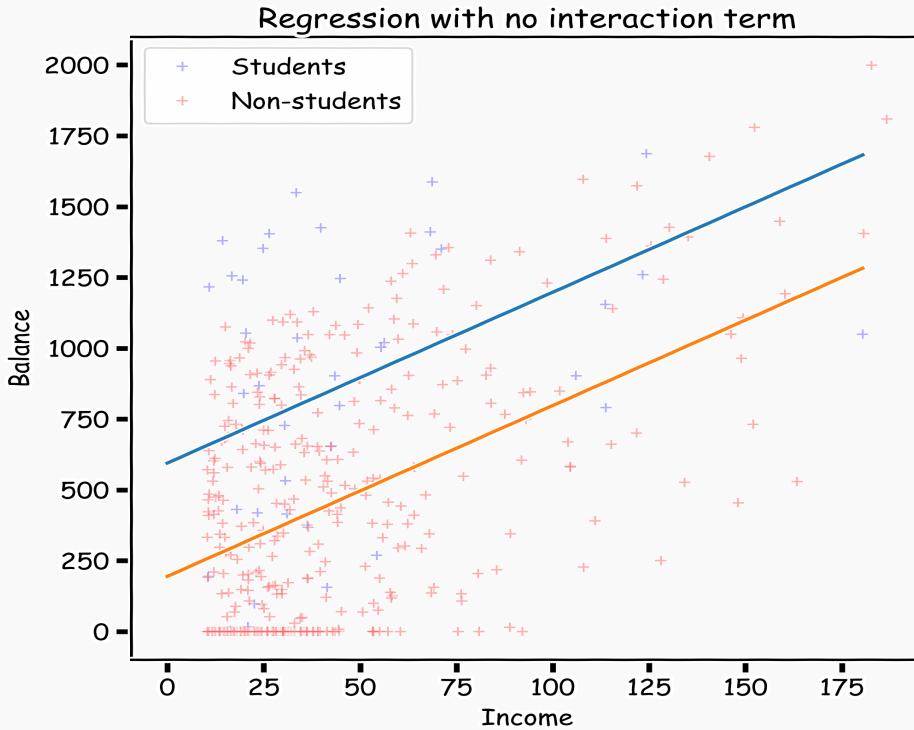
We change

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \epsilon$$

To

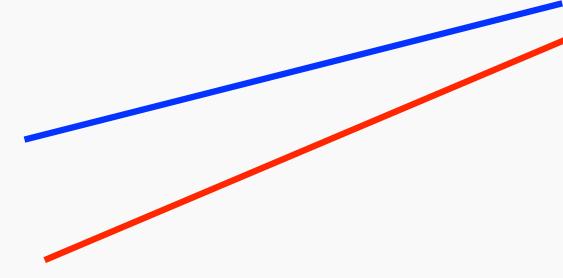
$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \boxed{\beta_3 X_1 X_2} + \epsilon$$

What does it mean?



$$x_{Student} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{Balance} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{Income}. \\ 1 & \text{Balance} = (\beta_0 + \beta_2) + (\beta_1) \times \text{Income}. \end{cases}$$

$$x_{Student} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{Balance} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{Income}. \\ 1 & \text{Balance} = (\beta_0 + \beta_2) + (\beta_1 + \beta_3) \times \text{Income} \end{cases}$$



Predictors predictors predictors

We have a lot predictors!

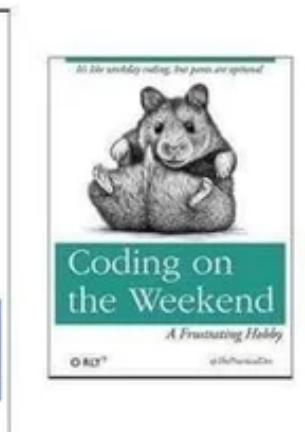
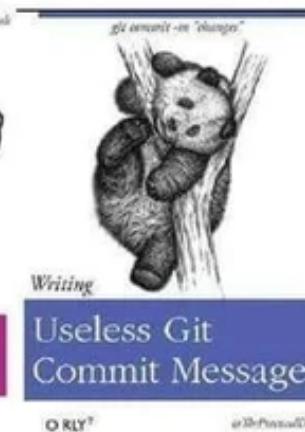
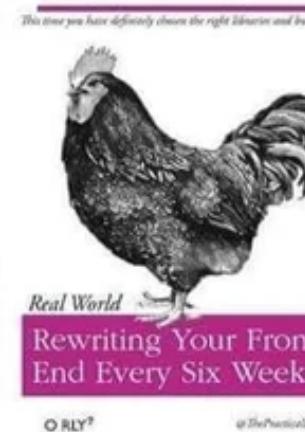
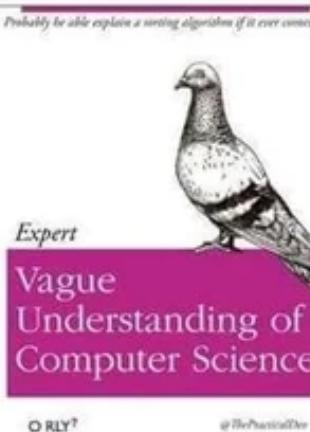
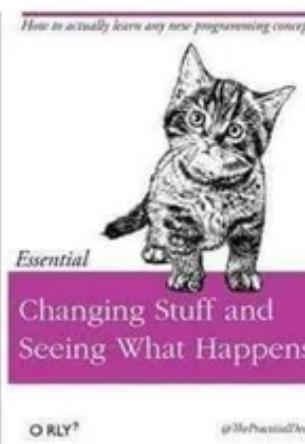
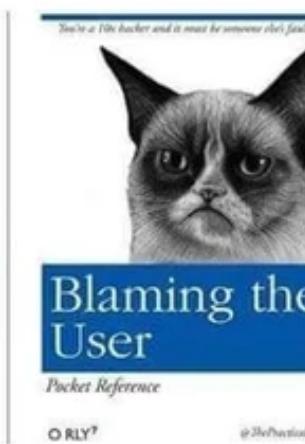
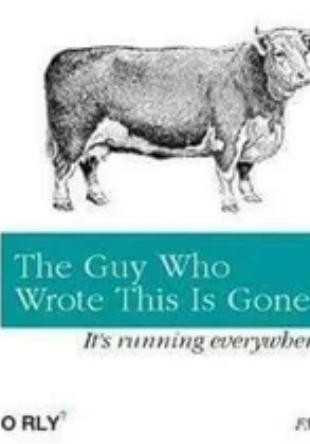
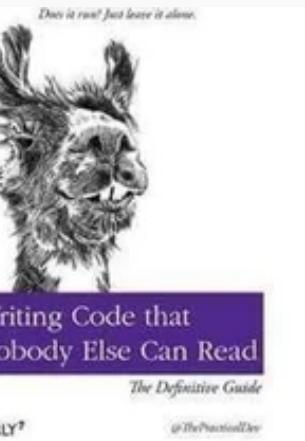
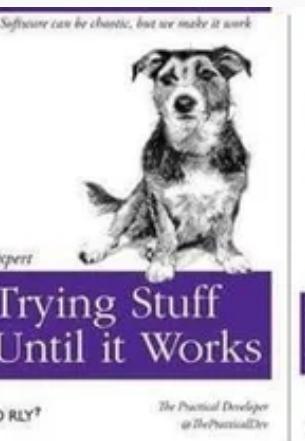
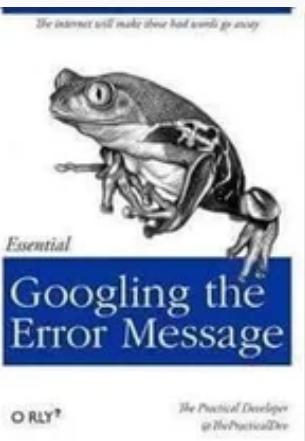
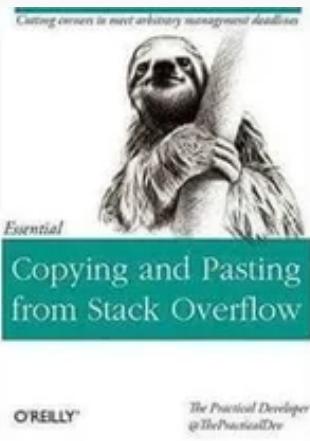
Is it a problem?

Yes: Computational Cost

Yes: Overfitting

Wait there is more ...





Residuals

We started with

$$y = f(x) + \epsilon$$

We **assumed** the exact form of $f(x)$, to be,

$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x,$$

then estimated the $\hat{\beta}'s$.

What if that is not correct? Instead:

$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \phi(x),$$

What is if the model is not linear - how to figure out that the true model is not linear?

But we model it as linear:

$$\hat{y} = \hat{f}(x) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x$$

Then the residual

I do have a term in my residuals that is not random but depends on x; that should not be the case!

$$r = (y - \hat{y}) = \hat{f}(x) = \epsilon + \phi(x)$$



Residuals

Residual Analysis

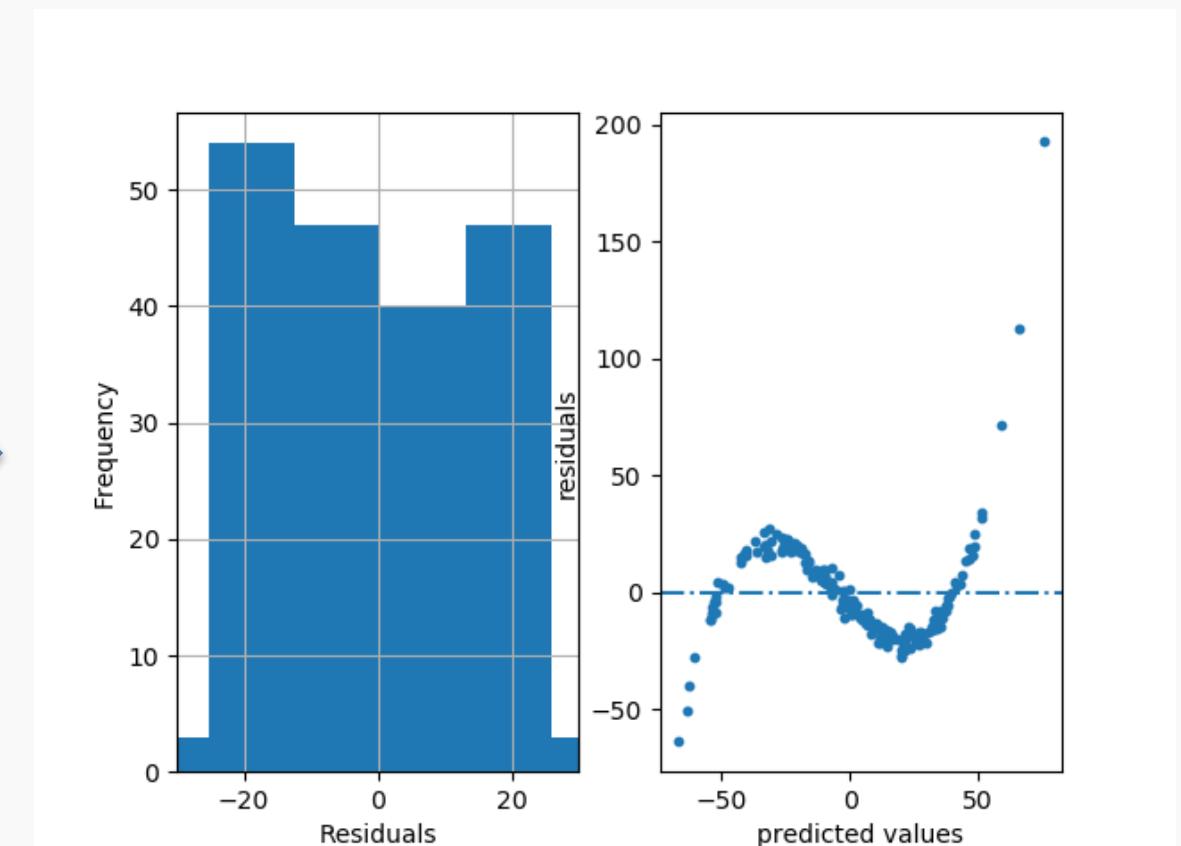
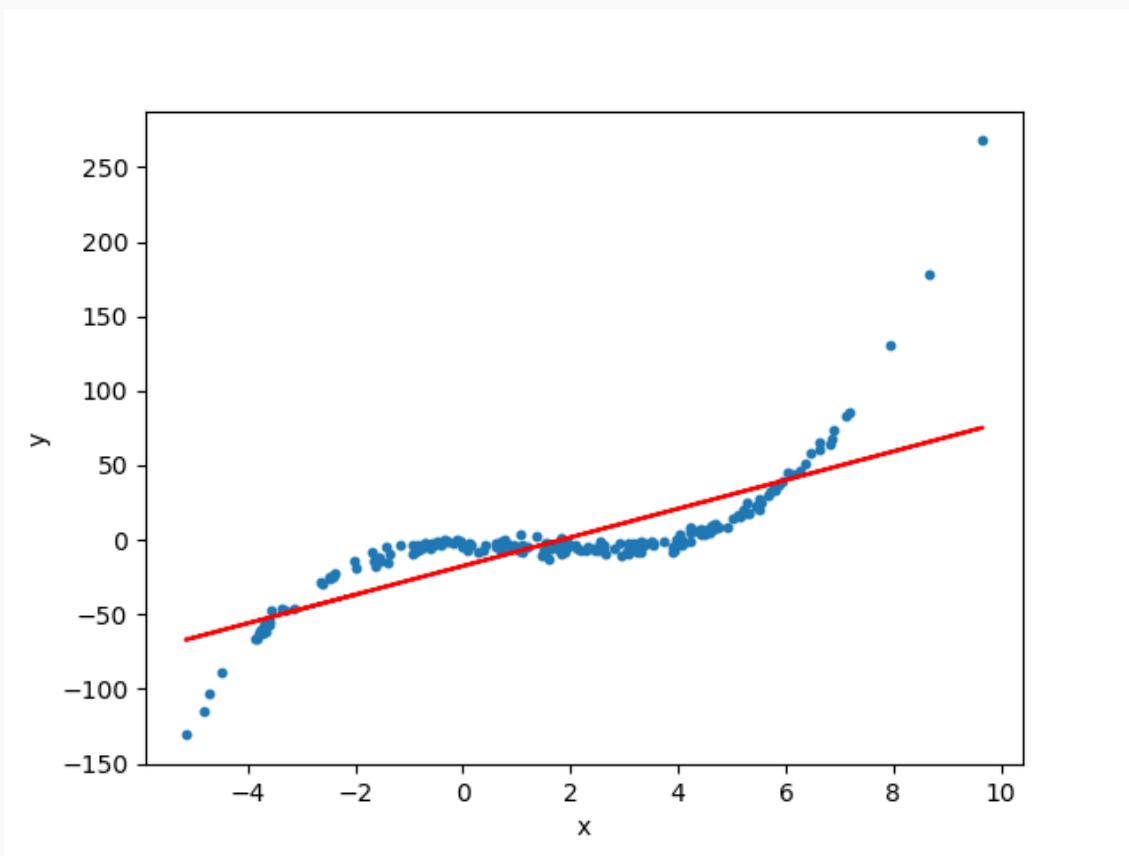
When we estimated the variance of ϵ , we assumed that the residuals $r_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$ were uncorrelated and normally distributed with mean 0 and fixed variance.

These assumptions need to be verified using the data. In residual analysis, we typically create two types of plots:

1. a plot of r_i with respect to x_i or \hat{y}_i . This allows us to compare the distribution of the noise at different values of x_i .
2. a histogram of r_i . This allows us to explore the distribution of the noise independent of x_i or \hat{y}_i .



Residual Analysis



If you have multi linear regression you would have to plot it against many x so this is a nice way to still plot it. If you see a stretch like that in our model - something is wrong and we misspecified the model

Lecture Outline

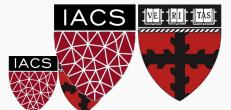
How well do we know \hat{f}

The confidence intervals of our \hat{f}

- Multi-linear Regression
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Polynomial Regression



Polynomial Regression

The simplest non-linear model we can consider, for a response Y and a predictor X , is a polynomial model of degree M ,

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \dots + \beta_M x^M + \epsilon.$$

Just as in the case of linear regression with cross terms, polynomial regression is a special case of linear regression - we treat each x^m as a separate predictor. Thus, we can write

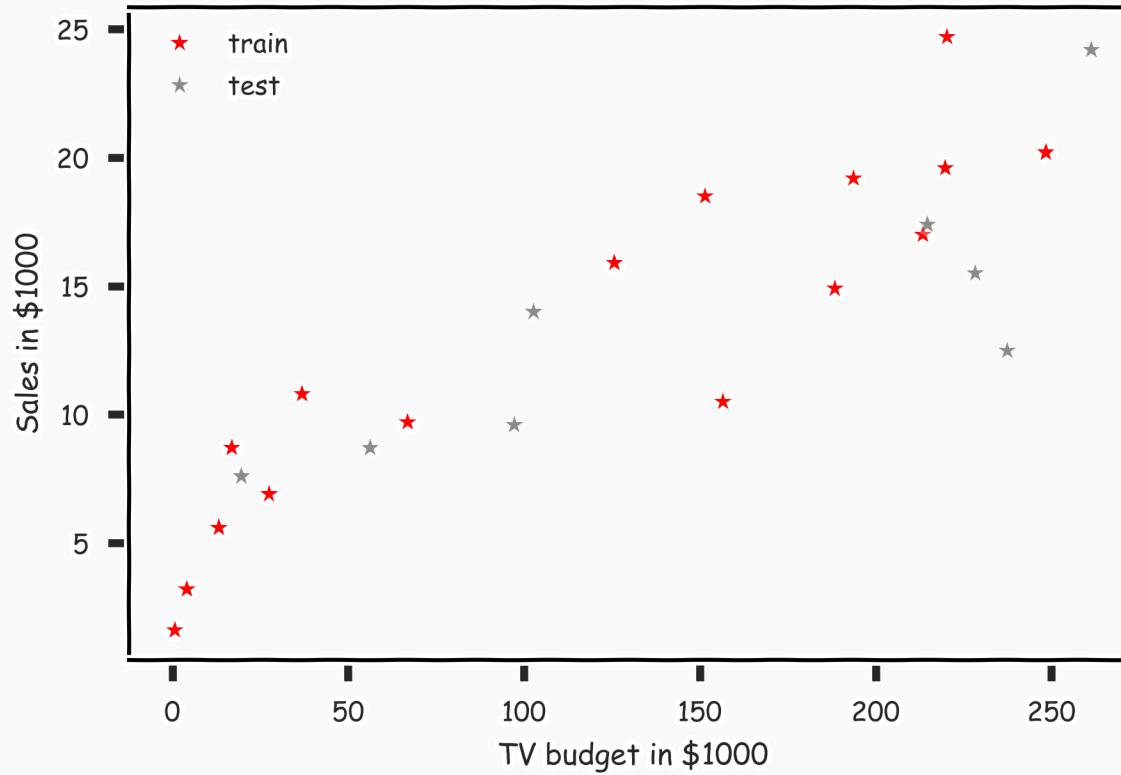
$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1^1 & \dots & x_1^M \\ 1 & x_2^1 & \dots & x_2^M \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n^1 & \dots & x_n^M \end{pmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_M \end{pmatrix}.$$

Polynomial Regression

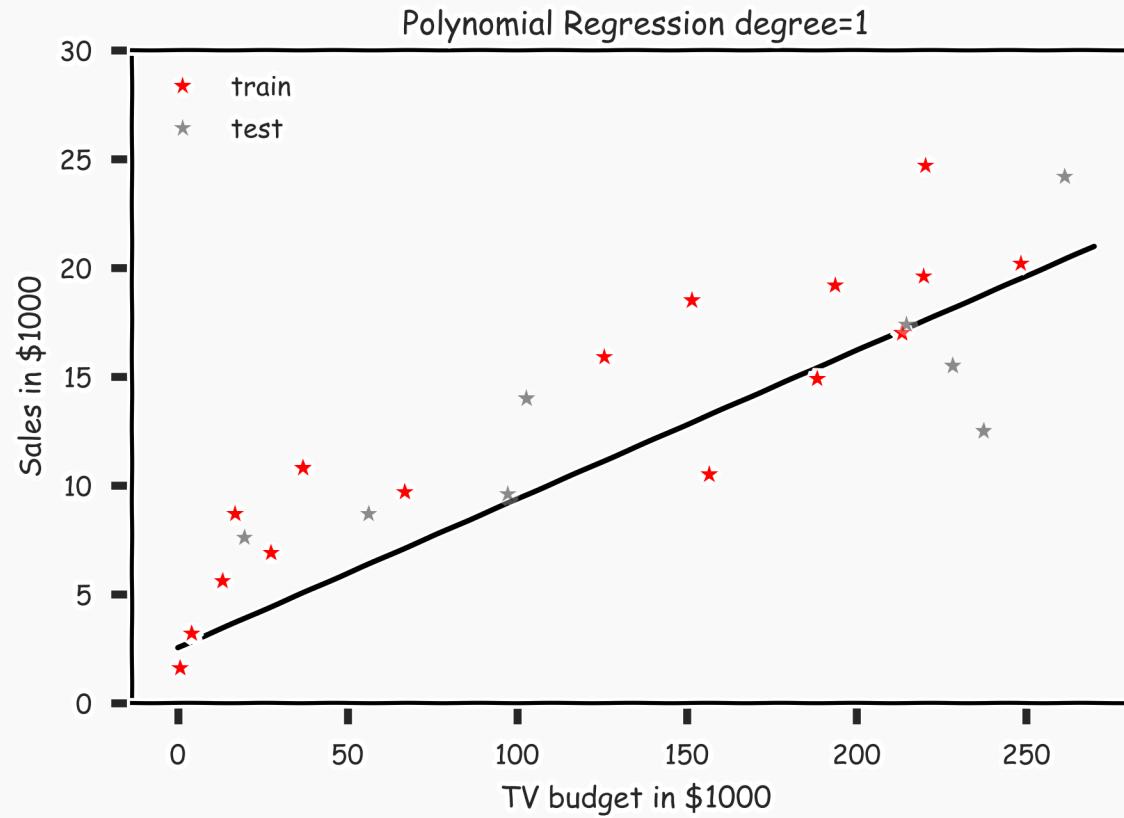
Again, minimizing the MSE using vector calculus yields,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\beta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \text{MSE}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{Y}.$$

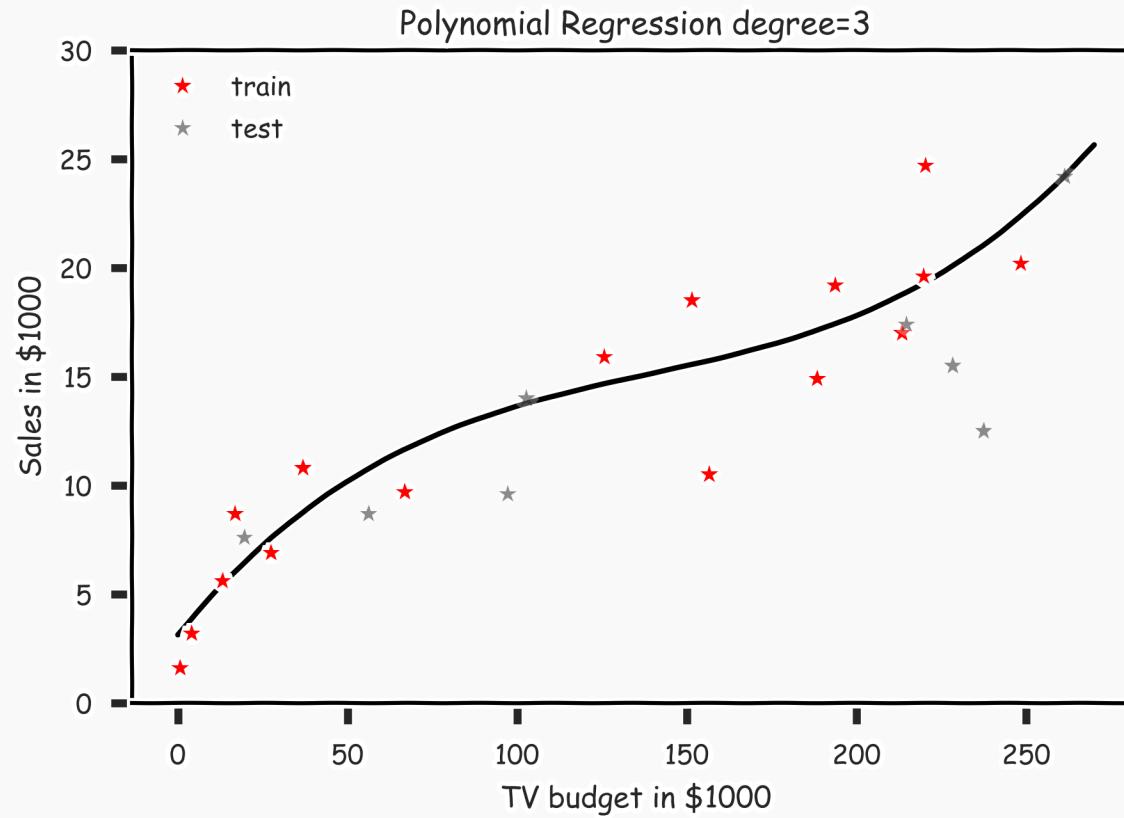
Polynomial Regression (cont)



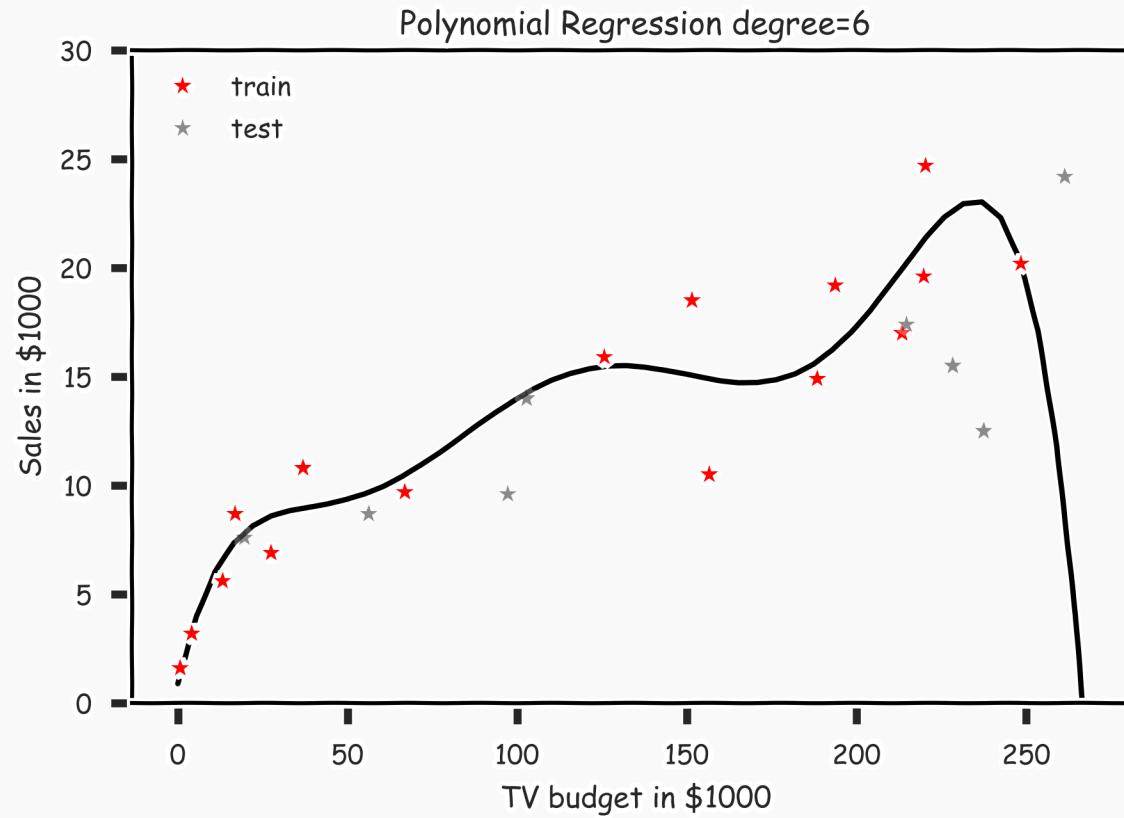
Polynomial Regression (cont)



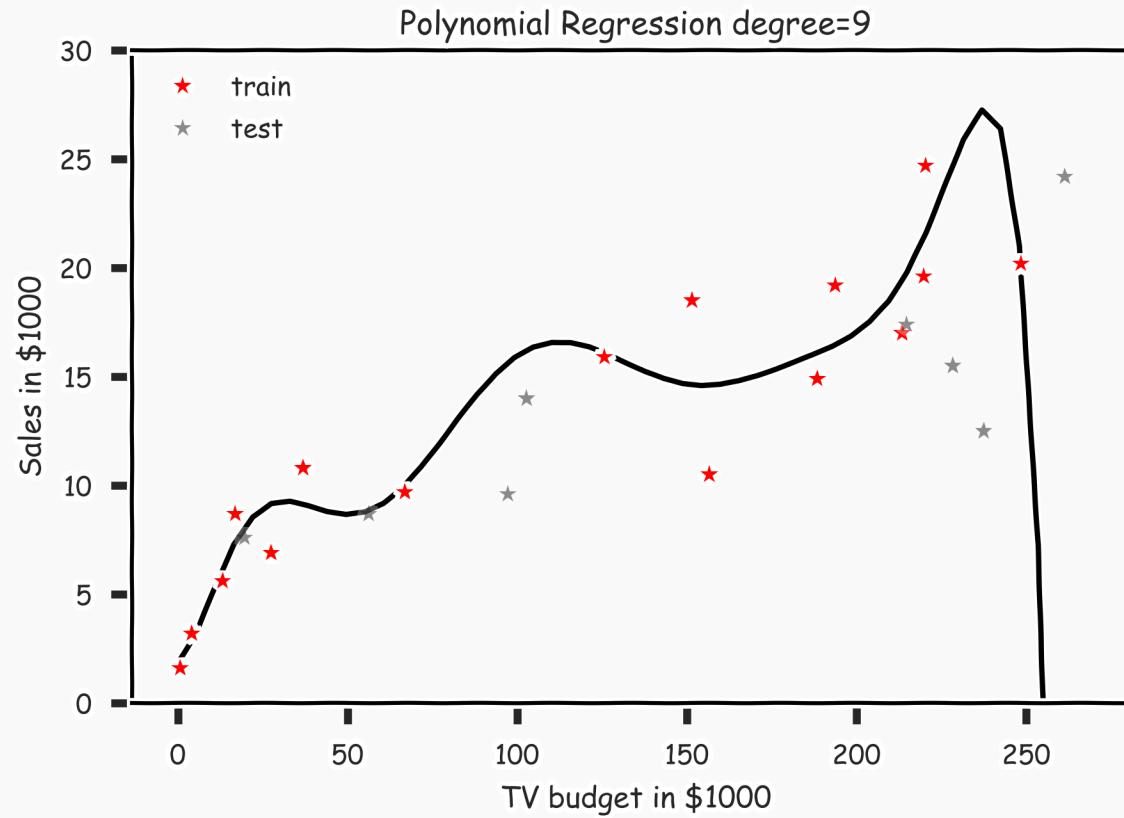
Polynomial Regression (cont)



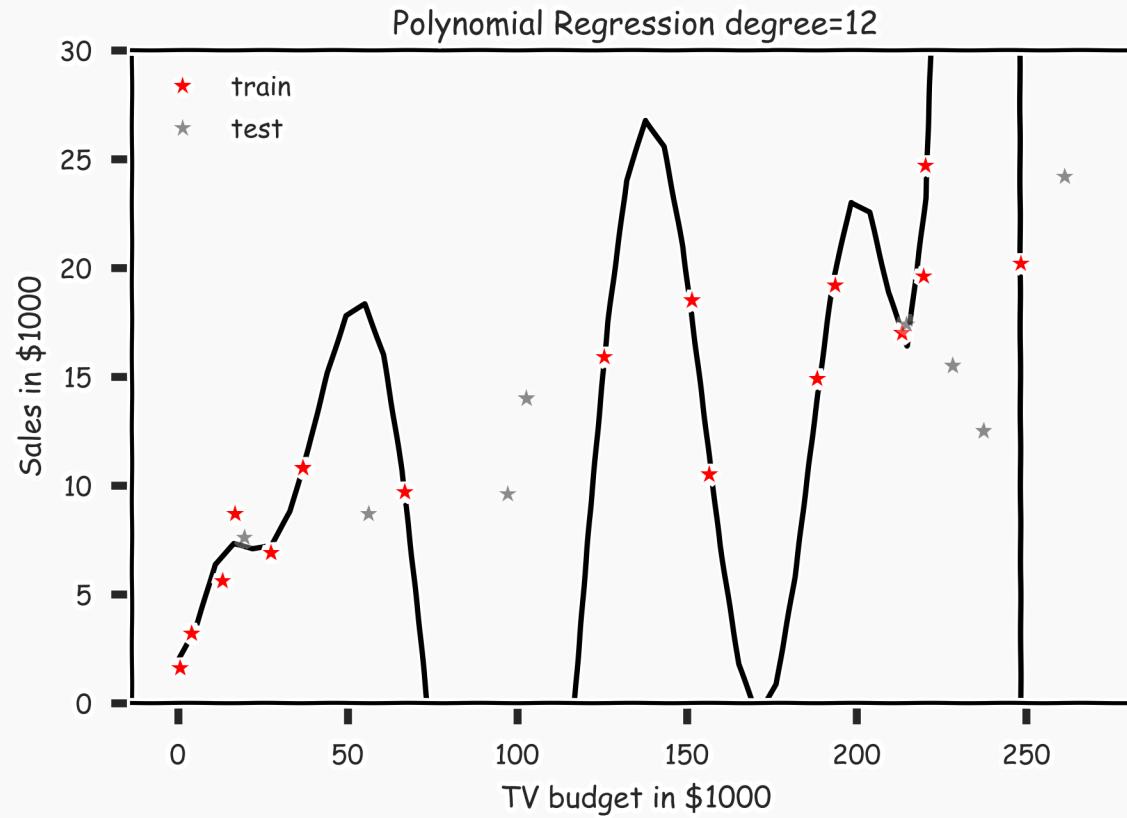
Polynomial Regression (cont)



Polynomial Regression (cont)



Polynomial Regression (cont)



Overfitting

In statistics, **overfitting** is "the production of an analysis that corresponds too closely or exactly to a particular set of data, and may therefore fail to fit additional data or predict future observations reliably"

More on this on Wednesday



Summary

How well do we know \hat{f}

The confidence intervals of our \hat{f}

- Multi-linear Regression
 - Formulate it in Linear Algebra
 - Categorical Variables
- Interaction terms
- Polynomial Regression
 - Linear Algebra Formulation



Afternoon Exercises

Quiz - to be completed in the next 10 min:

Sway: Lecture 6: Multi and poly Regression

Programmatic - to be completed by lab time tomorrow:

Lessons: Lecture 6:

