

# Introduction to Regression and Model Fit

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# Learning Objectives

After this lesson, you should be able to:

- Define simple linear regression and multiple linear regression
- Build a linear regression model using a dataset that meets the linearity assumption
- Evaluate model fit
- Understand and identify multicollinearity in a multiple regression



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# Announcements and Exit Tickets

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Q & A

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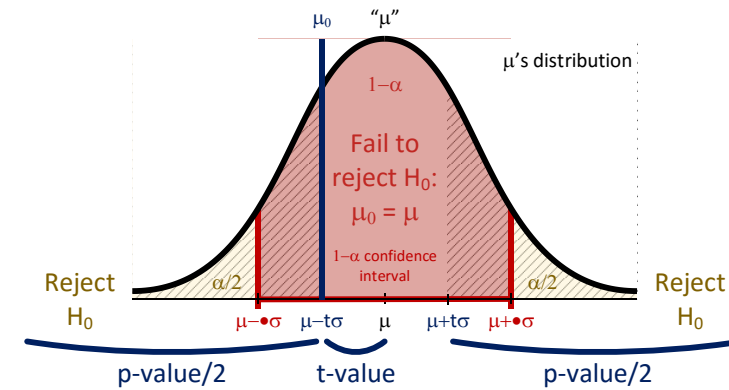
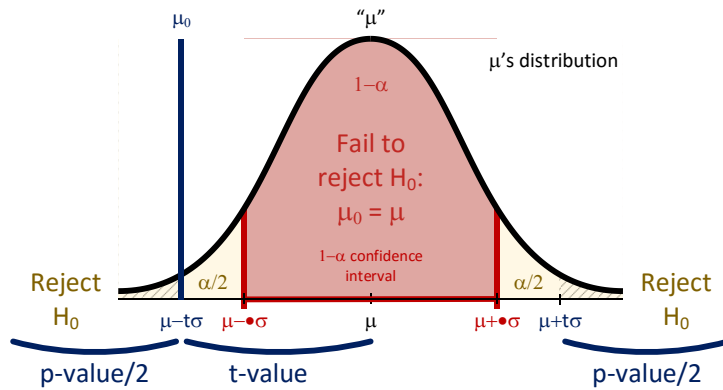
# Review

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# Review

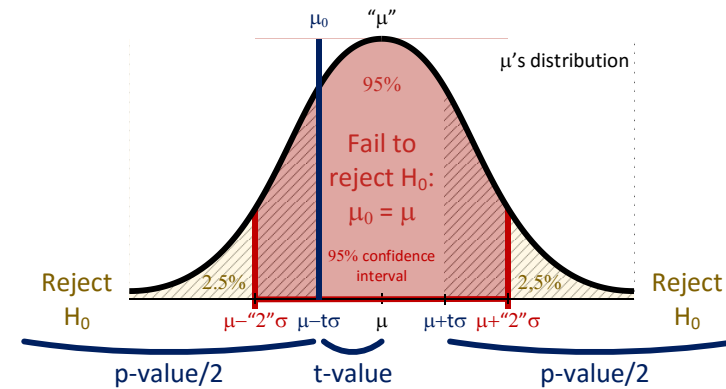
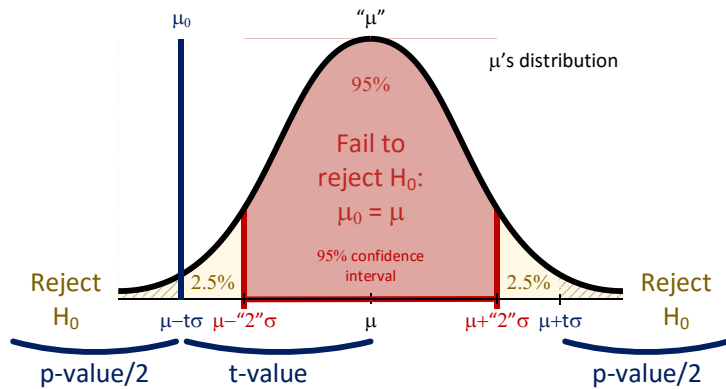
*Two-Tail Hypothesis Testing*

# Two-Tail Hypothesis Testing



$ t\text{-value} $	p-value	$1 - \alpha$ Confidence Interval ( $[\mu_0 - \sigma, \mu_0 + \sigma]$ )	$H_0 / H_a$	Conclusion
$\geq \cdot$	$\leq \alpha$	$\mu_0$ is outside	Found evidence that $\mu \neq \mu_0$ : Reject $H_0$	$\mu \neq \mu_0$
$< \cdot$	$> \alpha$	$\mu_0$ is inside	Did not find that $\mu \neq \mu_0$ : Fail to reject $H_0$	$\mu = \mu_0$

# Activity | Two-Tail Hypothesis Testing ( $\alpha = .05$ ) (cont.)



$ t\text{-value} $	p-value	$1 - \alpha$ Confidence Interval ( $[\mu_0 - 2\sigma, \mu_0 + 2\sigma]$ )	$H_0 / H_a$	Conclusion
$\geq \sim 2^{(*)}$ ( $^{(*)}$ check t-table)	$\leq .05$	$\mu_0$ is outside	Found evidence that $\mu \neq \mu_0$ : Reject $H_0$	$\mu \neq \mu_0$
$< \sim 2$	$> .05$	$\mu_0$ is inside	Did not find that $\mu \neq \mu_0$ : Fail to reject $H_0$	$\mu = \mu_0$

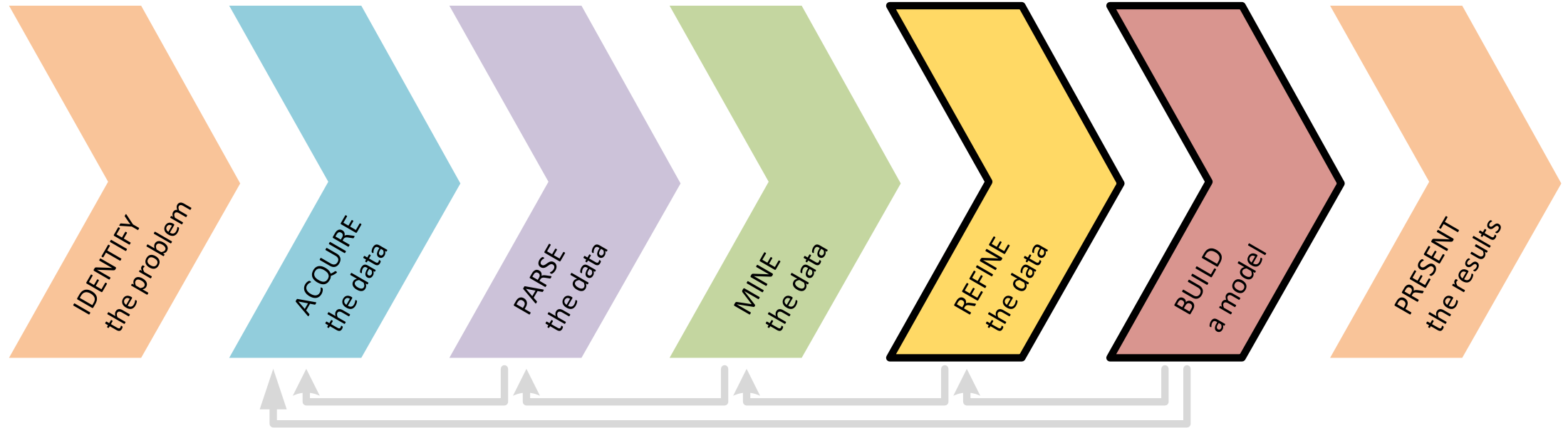




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# Today

Today we keep our focus on the **REFINE** the data and **BUILD** a model steps but with (1) a focus on linear regression modeling and (2) what the inferential statistics tell us about the fit of these linear models



# Today (cont.)

<b>Research Design and Data Analysis</b>	Research Design	Data Visualization in <i>pandas</i>	Statistics	Exploratory Data Analysis in <i>pandas</i>
<b>Foundations of Modeling</b>	Linear Regression	Classification Models	Evaluating Model Fit	Presenting Insights from Data Models
<b>Data Science in the Real World</b>	Decision Trees and Random Forests	Time Series Data	Natural Language Processing	Databases

# Here's what's happening today:

- Final Project 1 due today
- Announcements and Exit Tickets
- Review
- ⑤ Refine the Data and ⑥ Build a Model | Simple Linear Regression
  - Variable Transformations
  - How is a regression model fitted to a dataset?
  - Common regression assumptions
  - How to check modeling assumptions
  - How to check normality assumption
- Inference and Fit and  $R^2$  (r-squared)
- ⑤ Refine the Data and ⑥ Build a Model | Multiple Linear Regression
  - How to interpret the model's parameters
  - Multicollinearity
  - $\bar{R}^2$  (adjusted  $R^2$ )
- Lab – Introduction to Regression and Model Fit
- Review
- Exit Tickets

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# Simple Linear Regression

# Simple Linear Regression

- The simple linear regression model captures a linear relationship between a single input variable  $x$  and a response variable  $y$

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x + \varepsilon$$

- $y$  is the **response** variable (what we want to predict); also called *dependent* variable or *endogenous* variable
- $x$  is the **explanatory** variable (what we use to train the model); also called *independent* variable, *exogenous* variable, *regressor*, or *feature*
- $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  are the **regression's coefficients**; also called the model's parameters
  - $\beta_0$  is the line's intercept;  $\beta_1$  is the line's slope
- $\varepsilon$  is the **error** term; also called the residual

# Simple Linear Regression (cont.)

- Given  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  and  $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ , we can formulate the linear model as

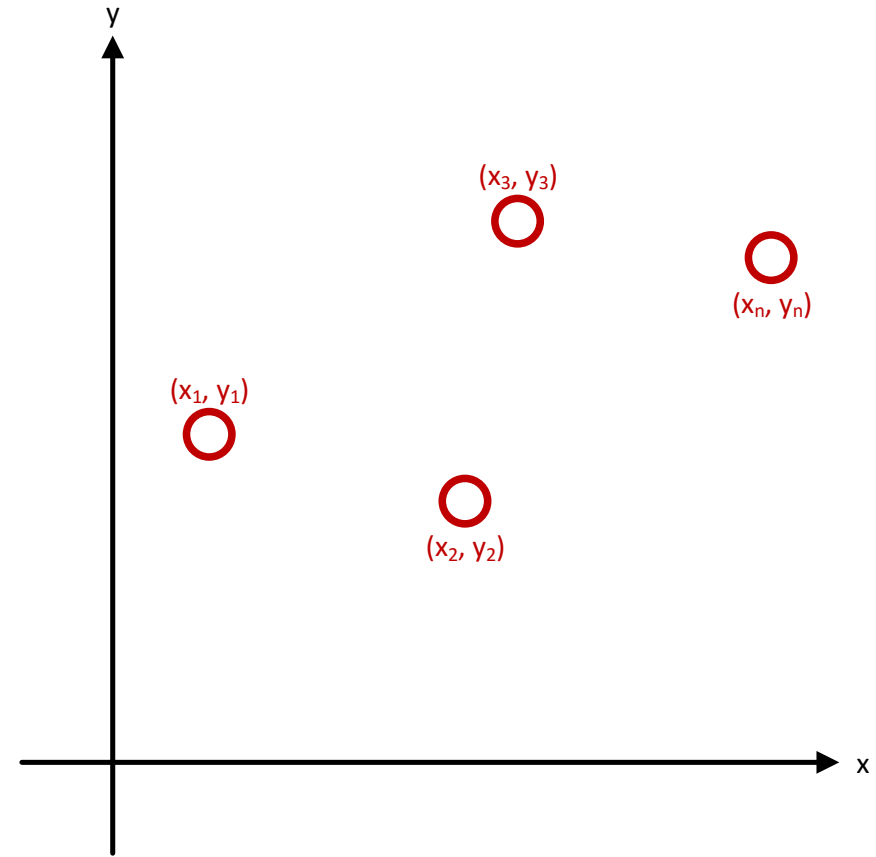
$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_i + \varepsilon_i$$

- In words, this equation says that for each observation  $i$ ,  $y_i$  can be explained by  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_i$

- In our Python environment,  $x$  and  $y$  represent *pandas Series* and  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  their values at row  $i - 1$
- E.g. (SF housing dataset),
  - $x$  is the property's size (`df.Size`)
  - $y$  is the property's sale price (`df.SalePrice`)

# Simple Linear Regression (cont.)

- $\varepsilon_i$  is a “white noise” disturbance which we do not observe
  - $\varepsilon_i$  models how the observations deviate from the exact slope-intercept relation
- We do not observe the constants  $\beta_0$  or  $\beta_1$  either, so we have to estimate them





# Simple Linear Regression (cont.)

- Given estimates for the model coefficients  $\hat{\beta}_0$  ( $\beta_0$  hat) and  $\hat{\beta}_1$ , we predict  $y$  using

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \cdot x$$

- The hat symbol (^) denotes an estimated value

- E.g. (SF housing dataset),

$$\widehat{SalePrice} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \cdot Size$$

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# Simple Linear Regression

*Codealong – Part A1*  
*Variable Transformations*  
*Simple Linear Regression*

# SalePrice as a function of Size

<b>Dep. Variable:</b>	SalePrice	<b>R-squared:</b>	0.565
<b>Model:</b>	OLS	<b>Adj. R-squared:</b>	0.565
<b>Method:</b>	Least Squares	<b>F-statistic:</b>	1255.
<b>Date:</b>		<b>Prob (F-statistic):</b>	7.83e-177
<b>Time:</b>		<b>Log-Likelihood:</b>	-1689.6
<b>No. Observations:</b>	967	<b>AIC:</b>	3381.
<b>Df Residuals:</b>	966	<b>BIC:</b>	3386.
<b>Df Model:</b>	1		
<b>Covariance Type:</b>	nonrobust		

	coef	std err	t	P> t	[95.0% Conf. Int.]
<b>Size</b>	0.8176	0.023	35.426	0.000	0.772 0.863

<b>Omnibus:</b>	1830.896	<b>Durbin-Watson:</b>	1.722
<b>Prob(Omnibus):</b>	0.000	<b>Jarque-Bera (JB):</b>	3370566.094
<b>Skew:</b>	13.300	<b>Prob(JB):</b>	0.00
<b>Kurtosis:</b>	291.005	<b>Cond. No.</b>	1.00

$$SalePrice [\$M] = \underbrace{0.}_{\hat{\beta}_0} + \underbrace{.810}_{\hat{\beta}_1} \times Size [1,000 sqft]$$

# SalePrice as a function of Size (cont.)

<b>Dep. Variable:</b>	SalePrice	<b>R-squared:</b>	0.236
<b>Model:</b>	OLS	<b>Adj. R-squared:</b>	0.235
<b>Method:</b>	Least Squares	<b>F-statistic:</b>	297.4
<b>Date:</b>		<b>Prob (F-statistic):</b>	2.67e-58
<b>Time:</b>		<b>Log-Likelihood:</b>	-1687.9
<b>No. Observations:</b>	967	<b>AIC:</b>	3380.
<b>Df Residuals:</b>	965	<b>BIC:</b>	3390.
<b>Df Model:</b>	1		
<b>Covariance Type:</b>	nonrobust		

	coef	std err	t	P> t	[95.0% Conf. Int.]
<b>Intercept</b>	0.1551	0.084	1.842	0.066	-0.010 0.320
<b>Size</b>	0.7497	0.043	17.246	0.000	0.664 0.835

<b>Omnibus:</b>	1842.865	<b>Durbin-Watson:</b>	1.704
<b>Prob(Omnibus):</b>	0.000	<b>Jarque-Bera (JB):</b>	3398350.943
<b>Skew:</b>	13.502	<b>Prob(JB):</b>	0.00
<b>Kurtosis:</b>	292.162	<b>Cond. No.</b>	4.40

$$SalePrice \text{ [\$M]} = \underbrace{.155}_{\hat{\beta}_0} + \underbrace{.750}_{\hat{\beta}_1} \times Size \text{ [1,000 sqft]}$$

(the slope is significant but not the intercept)

# SalePrice as a function of Size (cont.)

$$\text{Intercept}(\beta_0) = .155$$

- *Intercept* = *SalePrice* [\$M] when *Size* = 0
- *Intercept* = \$0.155M = \$155k
- The simple linear regression predicts that a property of 0 sqft would sell for \$155k

$$\text{Slope}(\beta_1) = .750$$

- $\text{Slope} = \frac{\text{SalePrice} [\$M] - \text{Intercept} [\$M]}{\text{Size}[1,000 \text{ sqft}]}$
- *Slope* = .750 [\$M per 1,000 sqft] = \$750k/1,000 sqft
- The simple linear regression predicts that buyers would pay an \$750k for each 1,000 sqft

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# Simple Linear Regression

*Codealong – Part A2*  
*Simple Linear Regression (cont.)*

$\text{SalePrice} \sim 0 + \text{Size}$  ('0' meaning the intercept is forced to 0)

<b>Dep. Variable:</b>	SalePrice	<b>R-squared:</b>	0.565
<b>Model:</b>	OLS	<b>Adj. R-squared:</b>	0.565
<b>Method:</b>	Least Squares	<b>F-statistic:</b>	1255.
<b>Date:</b>		<b>Prob (F-statistic):</b>	7.83e-177
<b>Time:</b>		<b>Log-Likelihood:</b>	-1689.6
<b>No. Observations:</b>	967	<b>AIC:</b>	3381.
<b>Df Residuals:</b>	966	<b>BIC:</b>	3386.
<b>Df Model:</b>	1		
<b>Covariance Type:</b>	nonrobust		

	coef	std err	t	P> t	[95.0% Conf. Int.]
<b>Size</b>	0.8176	0.023	35.426	0.000	0.772 0.863

<b>Omnibus:</b>	1830.896	<b>Durbin-Watson:</b>	1.722
<b>Prob(Omnibus):</b>	0.000	<b>Jarque-Bera (JB):</b>	3370566.094
<b>Skew:</b>	13.300	<b>Prob(JB):</b>	0.00
<b>Kurtosis:</b>	291.005	<b>Cond. No.</b>	1.00

$$\text{SalePrice } [\$M] = \underbrace{0.}_{\hat{\beta}_0} + \underbrace{.810}_{\hat{\beta}_1} \times \text{Size } [1,000 \text{ sqft}]$$

# SalePrice ~ Size (with outliers removed)

<b>Dep. Variable:</b>	SalePrice	<b>R-squared:</b>	0.200
<b>Model:</b>	OLS	<b>Adj. R-squared:</b>	0.199
<b>Method:</b>	Least Squares	<b>F-statistic:</b>	225.0
<b>Date:</b>		<b>Prob (F-statistic):</b>	1.41e-45
<b>Time:</b>		<b>Log-Likelihood:</b>	-560.34
<b>No. Observations:</b>	903	<b>AIC:</b>	1125.
<b>Df Residuals:</b>	901	<b>BIC:</b>	1134.
<b>Df Model:</b>	1		
<b>Covariance Type:</b>	nonrobust		

	coef	std err	t	P> t	[95.0% Conf. Int.]
<b>Intercept</b>	0.7082	0.032	22.152	0.000	0.645 0.771
<b>Size</b>	0.2784	0.019	15.002	0.000	0.242 0.315

<b>Omnibus:</b>	24.647	<b>Durbin-Watson:</b>	1.625
<b>Prob(Omnibus):</b>	0.000	<b>Jarque-Bera (JB):</b>	53.865
<b>Skew:</b>	0.054	<b>Prob(JB):</b>	2.01e-12
<b>Kurtosis:</b>	4.192	<b>Cond. No.</b>	4.70

*SalePrice [\$M] =*

$$\underbrace{.708}_{(was .155)} + \underbrace{.278}_{(was .750)} \times Size [1,000 sqft]$$

(both intercept and slope are now significant)

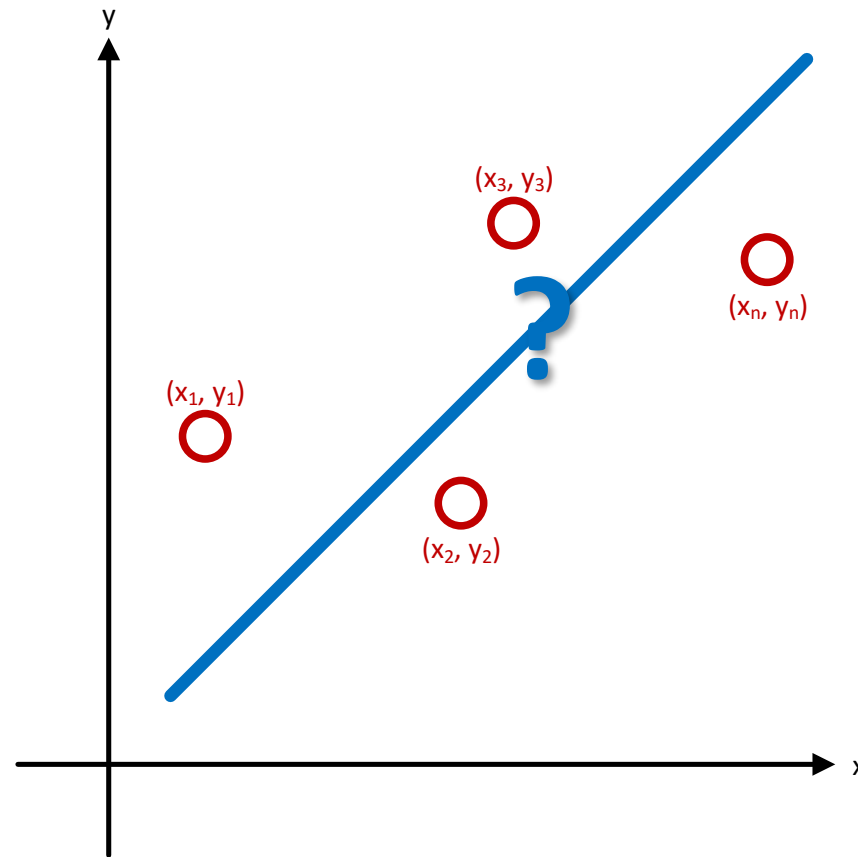


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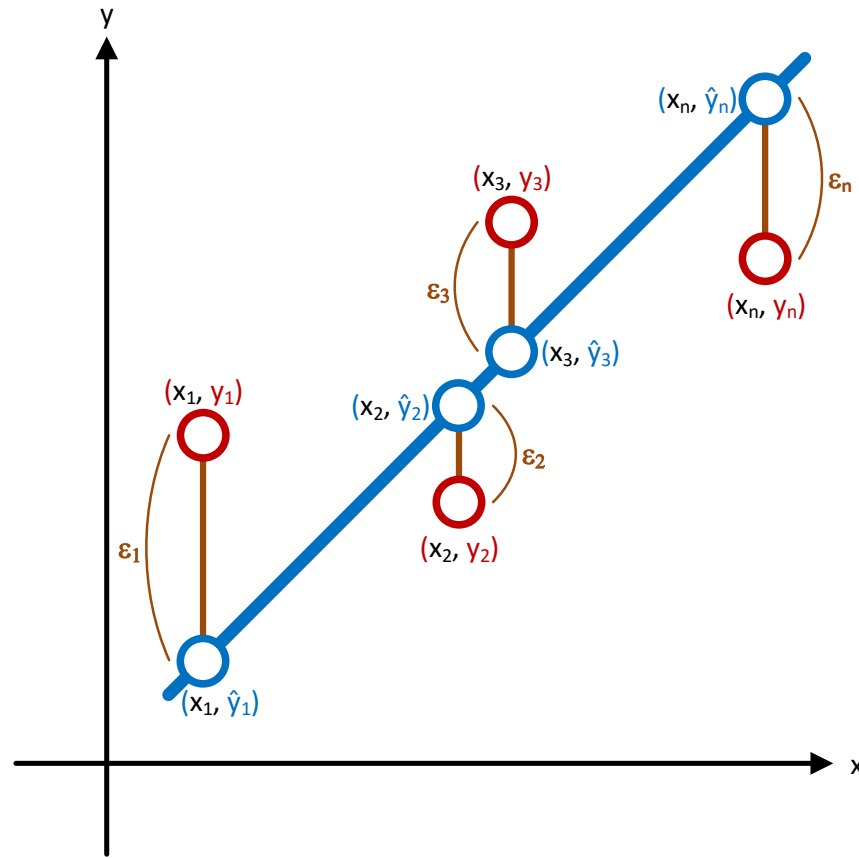
# Simple Linear Regression

*How is a linear regression model fitted?*

How do we estimate  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$ ?



We can estimate  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  with Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)



▸ Hypothesis

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x$$

▸ Parameters

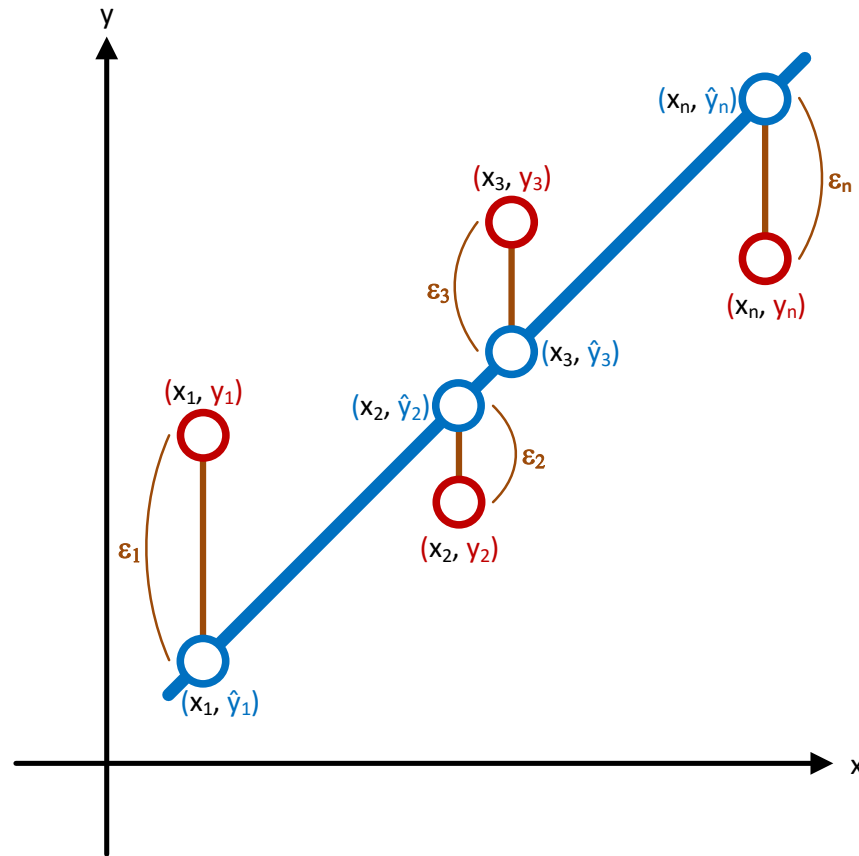
$$\beta_0, \beta_1$$

▸ Goal

$$\min_{\beta_0, \beta_1} \sum_{i=1}^m (y_i - y(x_i))^2$$

(i.e., minimizing the least square errors)

# We can estimate $\hat{\beta}$ with Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) (matrix representation)



- Hypothesis

$$y = X \cdot \beta$$

- Parameters

$$\beta$$

- Goal

$$\min_{\beta} (y - X \cdot \beta)^T \cdot (y - X \cdot \beta)$$

- Assuming  $X$  has full column rank,  $\beta$  has a closed-form solution

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T \cdot X)^{-1} \cdot X^T \cdot y$$

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# Simple Linear Regression

*Codealong – Part B*  
*How is a linear regression model fitted?*

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# Simple Linear Regression

*Common Regression Assumptions*

# Common Regression Assumptions (part 1)

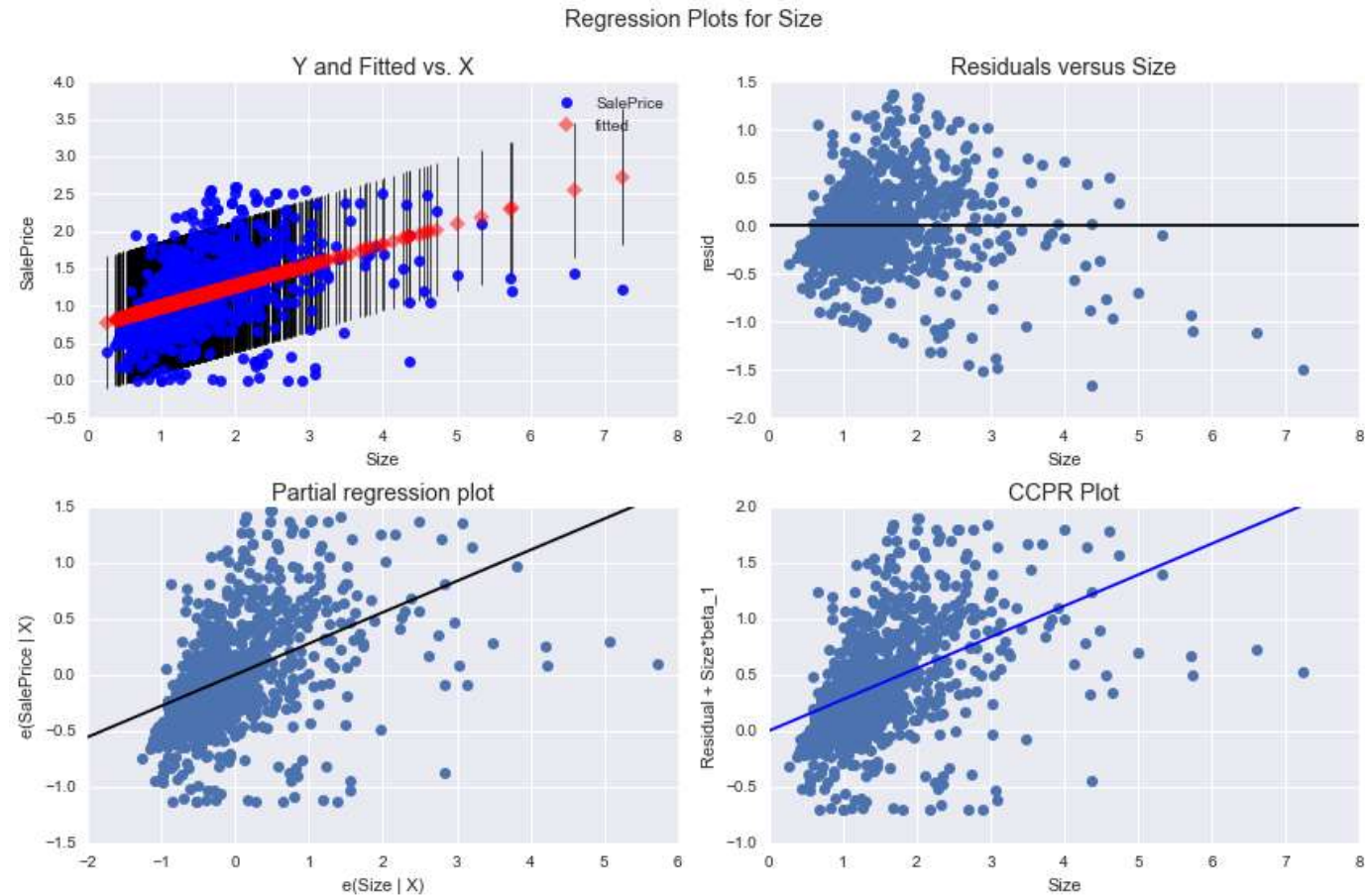
- The model is linear
  - $x$  significantly explains  $y$
- $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \cdot)$ 
  - Specifically, we expect  $\varepsilon$  to be 0 on average:  $\mu_\varepsilon = 0$
- $x$  and  $\varepsilon$  are independent
  - $\rho(x, \varepsilon) = 0$

# Simple Linear Regression

*Codealong – Part C*  
*How to check modeling assumptions?*



# `.plot_regress_exog()`



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# Simple Linear Regression

*How to check modeling assumptions?*

# `.plot_regress_exog()` to check modeling assumptions with respect to a single regressor

- Scatterplot of observed values ( $y$ ) compared to fitted values ( $\hat{y}$ ) with confidence intervals against the regressor ( $x$ )
- `.plot_fit()`

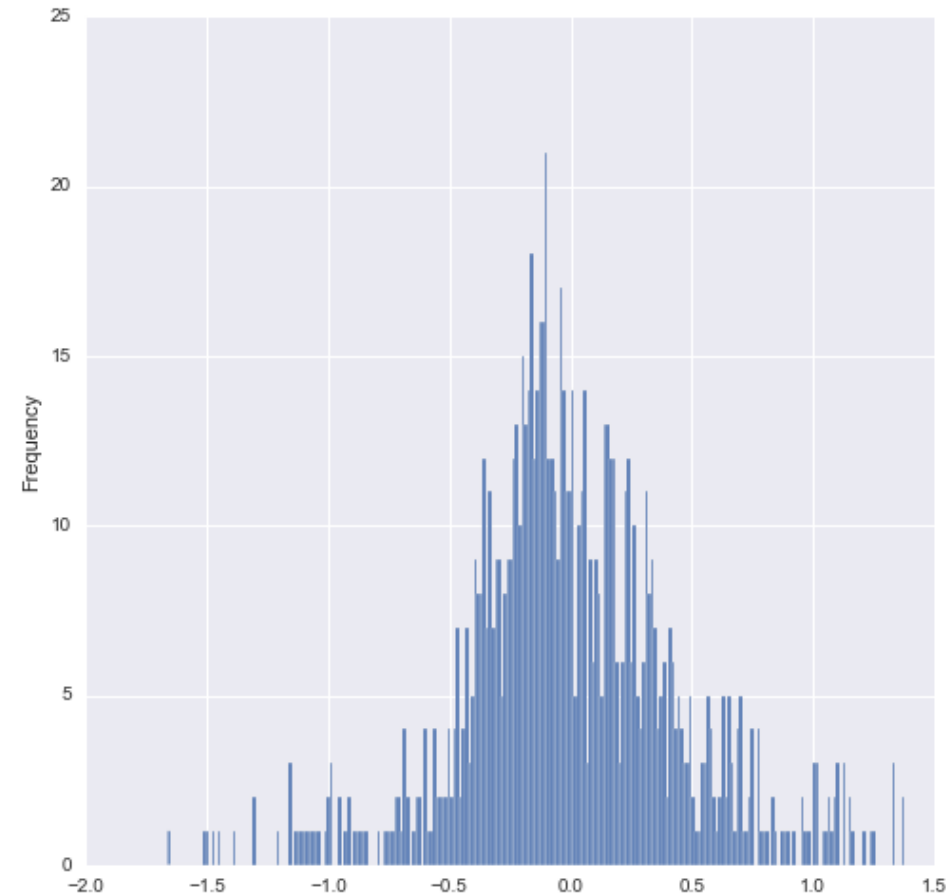
- “Residual Plot”
- Scatterplot of the model’s residuals ( $\hat{\varepsilon}$ ) against the regressor ( $x$ )

- “Partial Regression Plot” and “CCPR Plot (Component and Component-Plus-Residual)”
  - (useful for multiple regression) (more on this later)

# Simple Linear Regression

*Codealong – Part D1*  
*How to check normality assumption?*

# Is this normally distributed?



# Simple Linear Regression

*How to check normality assumption?*

# • `qqplot()` to check normality assumption

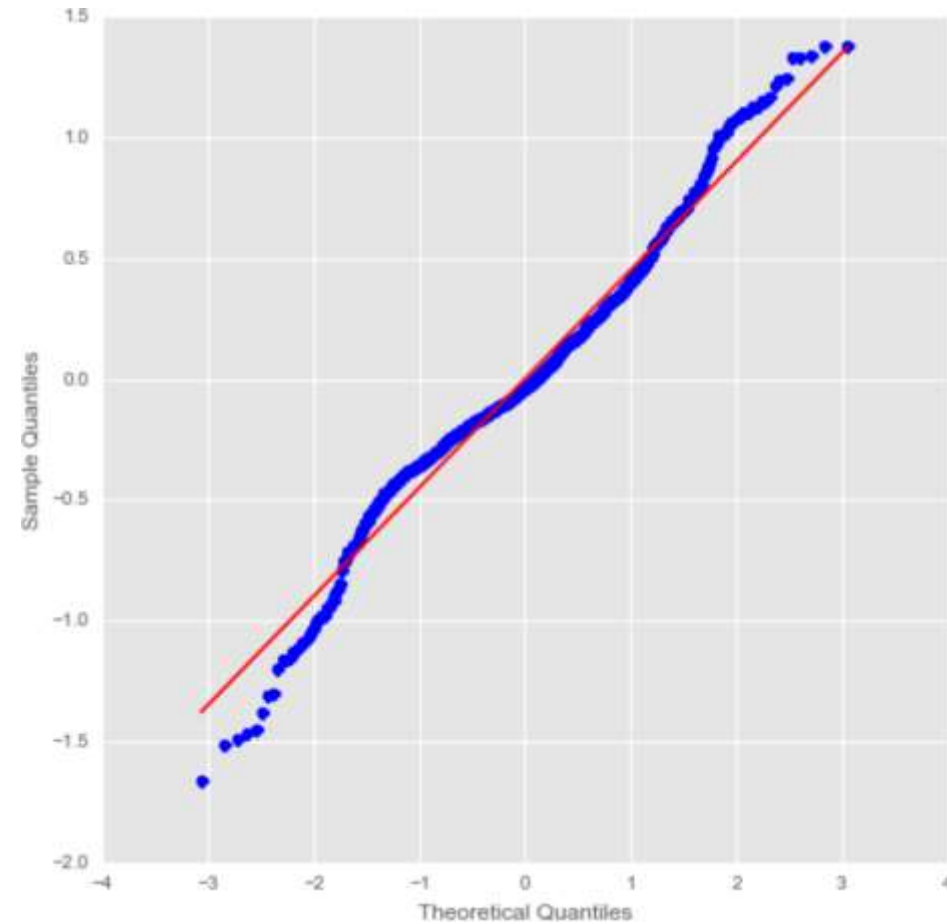
- “Quantile-Quantile (q-q) Plot”
- Graphical technique for determining if two datasets come from populations with a common distribution
- Plot of the quantiles of the first dataset (vertically) against the quantiles of the second’s (horizontally)
- If unspecified, the second dataset will default to  $N(0, 1)$
- If the two datasets come from a population with the same distribution, the points should fall approximately along a 45-degree reference line
- The greater the departure from this reference line, the greater the evidence for the conclusion that the datasets have come from populations with different distributions

# Simple Linear Regression

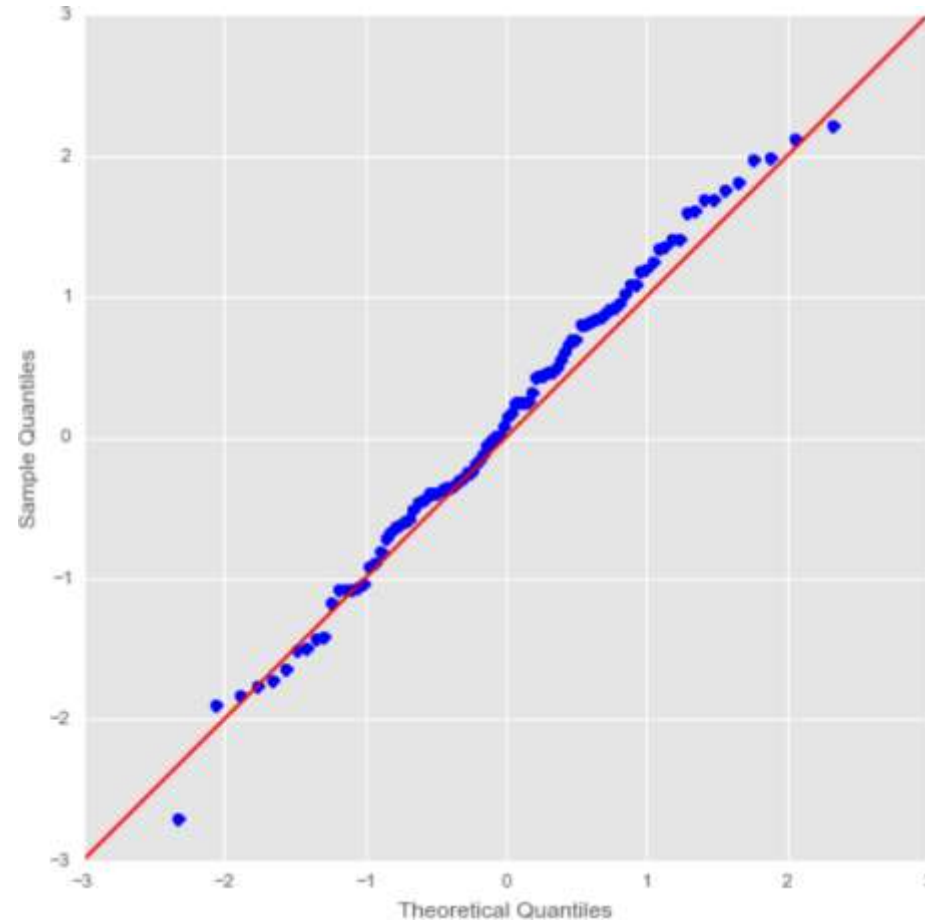
*Codealong – Part D2*  
*How to check normality assumption?*



`.qqplot()` with `line = 's'`

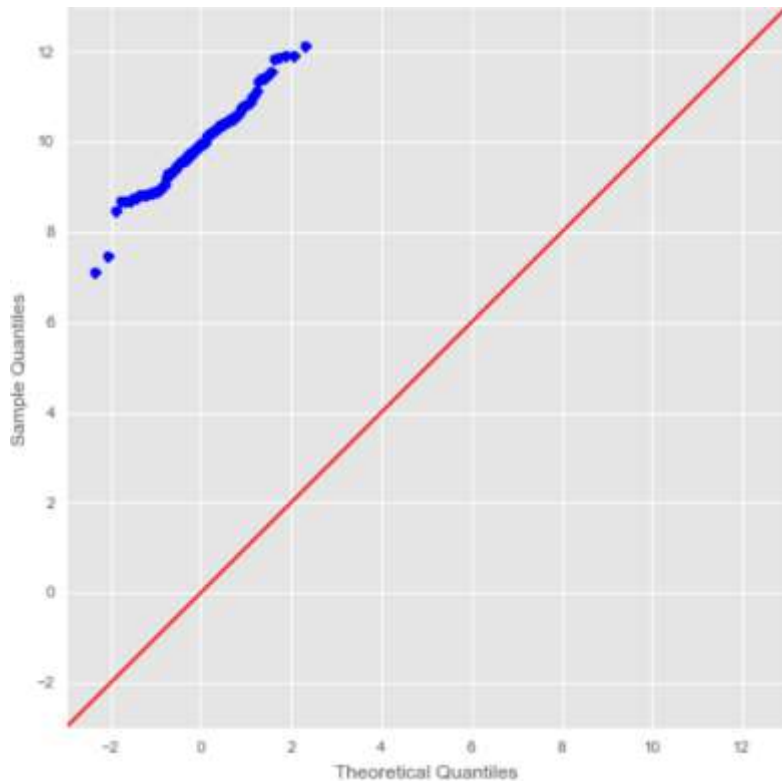


`.qqplot()` with `line = '45'`;  $N(0, 1)$  vs.  $N(0, 1)$

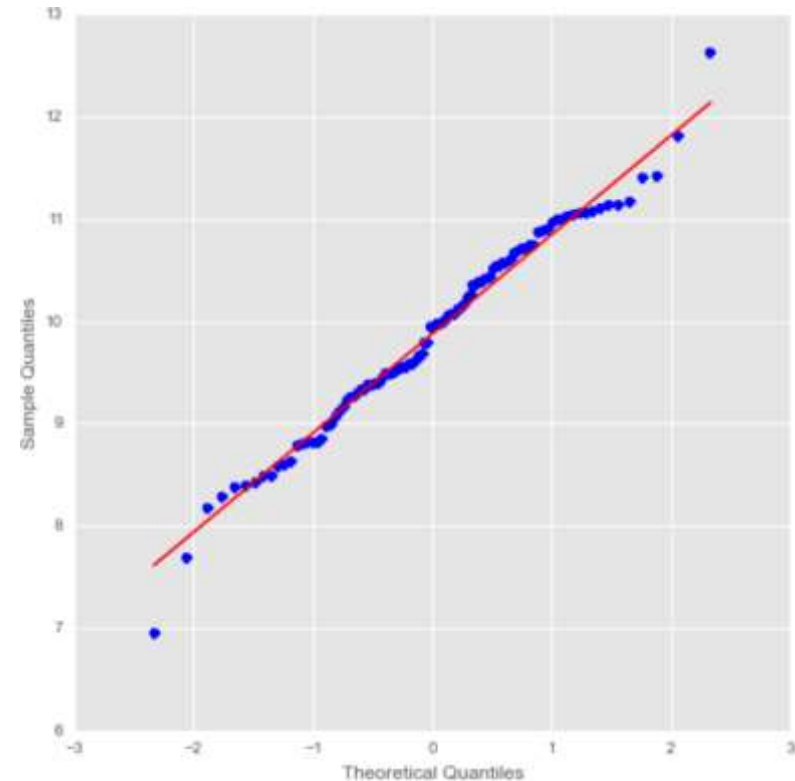


• `qqplot()`;  $N(10, 1)$  vs.  $N(0, 1)$

`line = '45'`

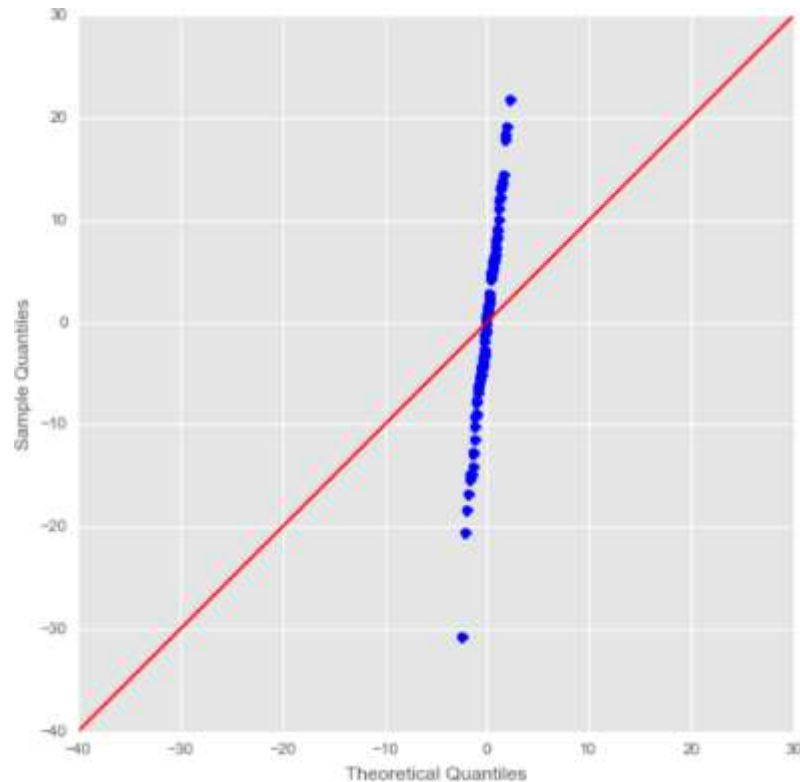


`line = 's'`



• `qqplot()`;  $N(0, 10)$  vs.  $N(0, 1)$

`line = '45'`



`line = 's'`

?

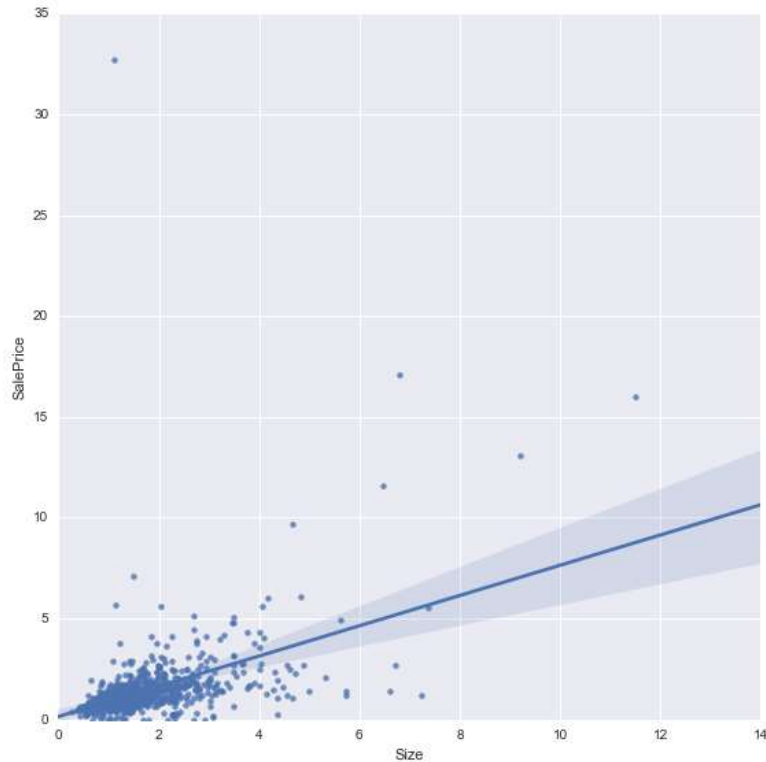
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# Simple Linear Regression

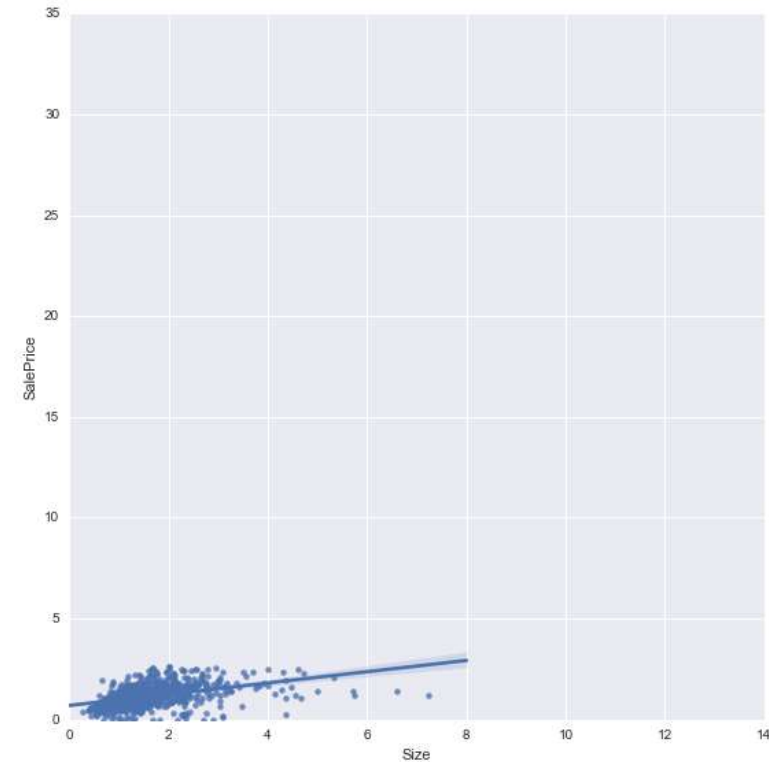
*Codealong – Part E*  
*Inference and Fit*

# Effect of outliers on linear regression modeling

**Using all samples**



**After outliers have been dropped**



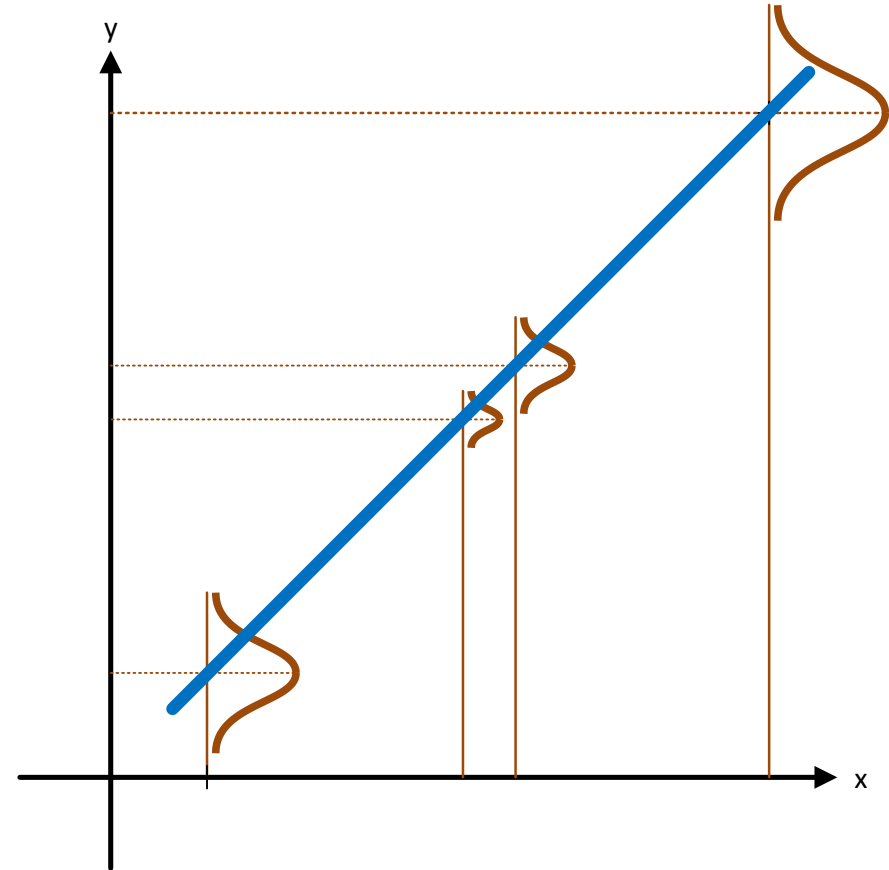
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# Simple Linear Regression

*Inference, Fit, and  $R^2$  (r-squared)*

# Inference and Fit

- The deviations of the data from the best fitting line are normally distributed about the line. Since  $\mu_\varepsilon = 0$ , we “expect” that on average, the line will be correct
- How confident we are about how well the relationship holds depends on  $\sigma_\varepsilon^2$





# Measuring the fit of the line with $R^2$

- When a measure of how much of the total variation in  $y$ ,  $\sigma_y^2 = \beta^2 \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_\varepsilon^2$ , is explained by the portion associated with the explanatory variable  $x$ ; also called systematic variation

$$R^2 = \rho_{xy}^2 = \frac{\beta^2 \sigma_x^2}{\beta^2 \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_\varepsilon^2}$$

- $0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$  (since  $-1 \leq \rho_{xy} \leq 1$ )

- $1 - R^2 = \frac{\sigma_\varepsilon^2}{\beta^2 \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_\varepsilon^2}$  is the idiosyncratic variation

# $R^2$ : Goodness of Fit

When x significantly explains y	When x does not significantly explains y
<input type="checkbox"/> The fit is <b>better</b>	<input type="checkbox"/> The fit is <b>worse</b>
<input type="checkbox"/> The <b>explained</b> systematic variation dominates	<input type="checkbox"/> The <b>unexplained</b> idiosyncratic variation dominates
<input type="checkbox"/> $\beta^2 \sigma_x^2$ is high and/or $\sigma_\varepsilon^2$ is low	<input type="checkbox"/> $\beta^2 \sigma_x^2$ is low and/or $\sigma_\varepsilon^2$ is high
<input type="checkbox"/> $R^2 = \frac{1}{1 + \underbrace{\frac{\sigma_\varepsilon^2}{\beta^2 \sigma_x^2}}_{\cong 0}}$ is closer to 1	<input type="checkbox"/> $R^2 = \frac{1}{1 + \underbrace{\frac{\sigma_\varepsilon^2}{\beta^2 \sigma_x^2}}_{\gg 1}}$ is closer to 0

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# Simple Linear Regression

*Codealong – Part F*  
 **$R^2$**

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# Multiple Linear Regression

# Multiple Linear Regression

- Simple linear regression with one variable can explain some variance, but using multiple variables can be much more powerful
- We can extend this model to several input variables, giving us the multiple linear regression model

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_1 + \cdots + \beta_k \cdot x_k + \varepsilon$$

- Given  $x_i = (x_{i,1}, x_{i,2}, \dots, x_{i,n})$  and  $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ , we formulate the linear model as

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_{1,i} + \cdots + \beta_k \cdot x_{k,i} + \varepsilon_i$$

- Given estimates for the model coefficients  $\hat{\beta}_i$ , we then predict  $y$  using

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \cdot x_1 + \cdots + \hat{\beta}_k \cdot x_k$$

# Multiple Linear Regression (cont.)

▸ E.g. (SF housing dataset),

$$\widehat{SalePrice} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \cdot Size + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot BedCount$$

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# Multiple Linear Regression

*Codealong – Part G*  
*Multiple Linear Regression*

# SalePrice ~ Size + BedCount (cont.)

<b>Dep. Variable:</b>	SalePrice	<b>R-squared:</b>	0.554
<b>Model:</b>	OLS	<b>Adj. R-squared:</b>	0.553
<b>Method:</b>	Least Squares	<b>F-statistic:</b>	506.9
<b>Date:</b>		<b>Prob (F-statistic):</b>	8.01e-144
<b>Time:</b>		<b>Log-Likelihood:</b>	-1026.2
<b>No. Observations:</b>	819	<b>AIC:</b>	2058.
<b>Df Residuals:</b>	816	<b>BIC:</b>	2073.
<b>Df Model:</b>	2		
<b>Covariance Type:</b>	nonrobust		

	coef	std err	t	P> t	[95.0% Conf. Int.]
<b>Intercept</b>	0.1968	0.068	2.883	0.004	0.063 0.331
<b>Size</b>	1.2470	0.045	27.531	0.000	1.158 1.336
<b>BedCount</b>	-0.3022	0.034	-8.839	0.000	-0.369 -0.235

<b>Omnibus:</b>	626.095	<b>Durbin-Watson:</b>	1.584
<b>Prob(Omnibus):</b>	0.000	<b>Jarque-Bera (JB):</b>	34896.976
<b>Skew:</b>	2.908	<b>Prob(JB):</b>	0.00
<b>Kurtosis:</b>	34.445	<b>Cond. No.</b>	8.35



# Multiple Linear Regression

*Common Regression Assumptions (cont.)*

# Common Regression Assumptions (part 2)

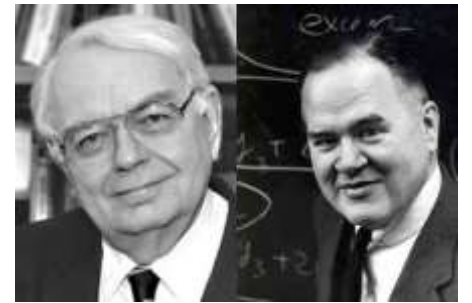
- $x_i$  are independent from each other (low multicollinearity)
- Multicollinearity (or collinearity) is a phenomenon in which two or more predictors in a multiple regression model are highly correlated, meaning that one can be linearly predicted from the others with a substantial degree of accuracy

# The ideal scenario: when predictors are uncorrelated

- Each coefficient can be estimated and tested separately
  - $\beta_i$  estimates the expected change in  $y$  per unit change in  $x_i$ , all other predictors held fixed
  - However predictors usually change together
- Correlations amongst predictors cause problems
    - The variance of all coefficients tends to increase, sometimes dramatically
    - Interpretations become hazardous – when  $x_i$  changes, everything else changes

# The woes of (interpreting) regression coefficients

- “The only way to find out what will happen when a complex system is distributed is to disturb the system, not merely to observe it passively” – Fred Mosteller and John Tukey



- “Essentially, all models are wrong, but some are useful” –  
George Box

# Common Regression Assumptions (part 3)

- Linear regression also works best when
  - the data is normally distributed (it doesn't have to be)
  - (if data is not normally distributed, we could introduce *bias*)

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# Multiple Linear Regression

*Activity / Variable Transformations*

# Activity | Variable Transformations



## EXERCISE

### DIRECTIONS (5 minutes)

1. We want to run the following regression with the following non-linear terms:

$$\text{SalePrice} \sim \text{Size}^2 + \sqrt{\text{BedCount}}$$

- a. How can we linearize it?
2. When finished, share your answers with your table

### DELIVERABLE

Answers to the above questions

# Multiple Linear Regression

*Codealong – Part H*  
*Variable Transformations (cont.)*  
*Multicollinearity*



# .plot\_regress\_exog() (cont.)

- “Partial regression plot” (lower left)
  - Partial regression for a single regressor
  - The full model’s  $\beta_i$  is the fitted line’s slope
  - The individual points can be used to assess the influence of points on the estimated coefficient
  - .plot\_partregress()
- “CCPR plot” (lower right)
  - Component and Component-Plus-Residual
  - Refined partial residual plot
  - Judge the effect of one regressor on the response variable by taking into account the effects of the other independent variables
  - Scatterplot of the full model’s residuals ( $\hat{\varepsilon}$ ) plus  $\beta_i \cdot x_i$  against the regressor ( $x_i$ )
  - .plot\_ccpr()

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# Multiple Linear Regression

*Codealong – Part I*  
 *$\bar{R}^2$  (Adjusted  $R^2$ )*

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# Multiple Linear Regression

$$\bar{R}^2$$

# $\bar{R}^2$

- $R^2$  increases as you add more variables in your model, even non-significant predictors; it's then tempting to add all the features from your dataset
- $\bar{R}^2$  attempts to adjust the explanatory power of regression models that contain different numbers of predictors so as to make comparisons possible

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2) \cdot \frac{n - 1}{n - k - 1}$$

( $n$  number of observations;  
 $k$  number of parameters)

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# Linear Regression

*Pros and Cons*

# Linear regression | Pros and cons

## ▸ Pros

- Intuitive and well-understood
- Can perform well with a small number of observations
- Highly interpretable and simple to explain
- Model training and prediction are fast
- No need to standardize your data (features don't need scaling)
- No tuning is required (excluding regularization which is a topic we won't discuss)

## ▸ Cons

- Assumes linear association among variables
- Assumes normally distributed residuals
- Outliers can easily affect coefficients

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# Linear Regression

*Further Readings*

# Further Readings

- ESLII

- Linear Regression Models and Least Squares (section 3.2, pp. 44 – 56)





# Lab

*Introduction to Regression and Model Fit*

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# Review

# Review

You should now be able to:

- Define simple linear regression and multiple linear regression
- Build a linear regression model using a dataset that meets the linearity assumption
- Evaluate model fit
- Understand and identify multicollinearity in a multiple regression

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Q & A

# Next Class

*Introduction to Regression and Model Fit, Part 2*

# Learning Objectives

After the next lesson, you should be able to:

- How to conduct linear regression modeling
- Use interaction effects and binary categorical variables (also called dummy variables)
- Understand model complexity, underfitting, right fit, and overfitting
- Define error metrics for regression problems



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# Exit Ticket

*Don't forget to fill out your exit ticket [here](#)*

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