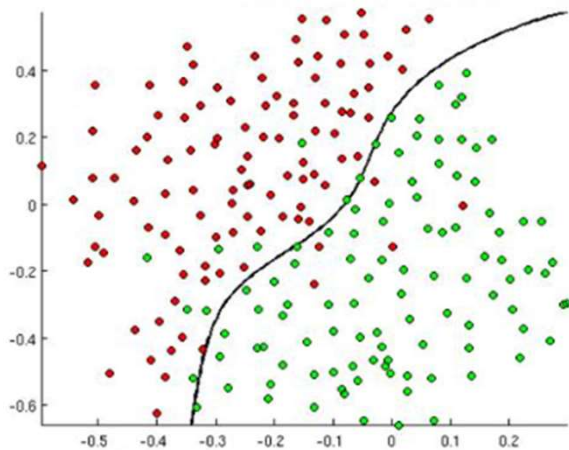


# Regression Analysis

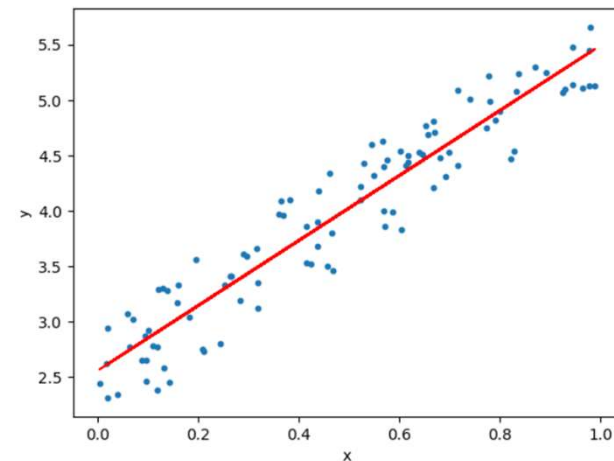
Linear Regression

# Classification vs. Regression

- Classification predicts a discrete value/class label
- Regression is a type of machine learning that predicts a continuous value.



e.g., Spam filtering, Image  
Classification



e.g., a house's [Area, Age] (**x**)  
vs. its Price(**y**)

- Is there any correlation between the observations ( $X_i, y_i$ )

# Recall Covariance from PCA

- Covariance tells us about the amount of dependency between two variables

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{n - 1}$$

□  $\text{cov}(X, Y) > 0 \rightarrow$  X and Y are positively related

□  $\text{cov}(X, Y) < 0 \rightarrow$  X and Y are inversely related

□  $\text{cov}(X, Y) = 0 \rightarrow$  X and Y are independent

# Correlation Coefficient

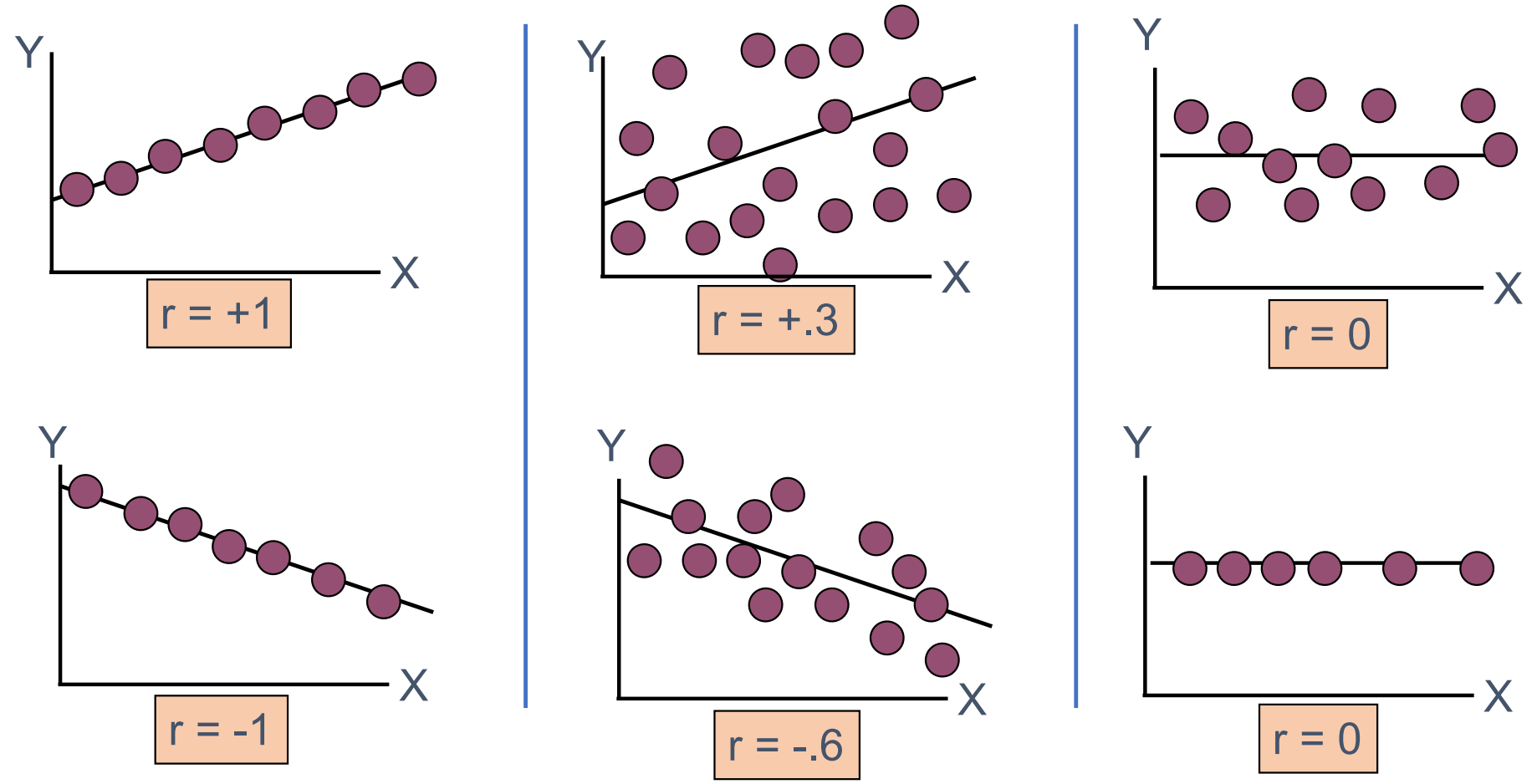
- Assuming a linear relationship between the variables, the relative strength between them can be observed
- Pearson's Correlation Coefficient is standardized covariance ranging between -1 and 1, and is unitless

$$r = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{var } X} \sqrt{\text{var } Y}}$$

- $r = 1$ : Perfect positive linear correlation
- $r = -1$ : Perfect negative linear correlation
- $r = 0$ : No linear correlation

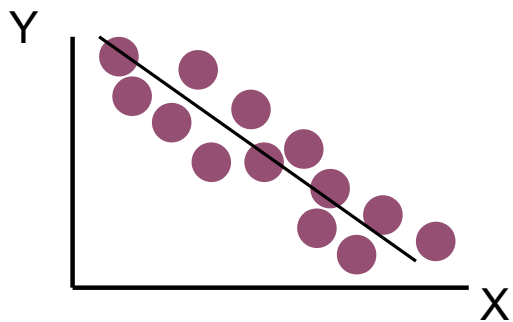
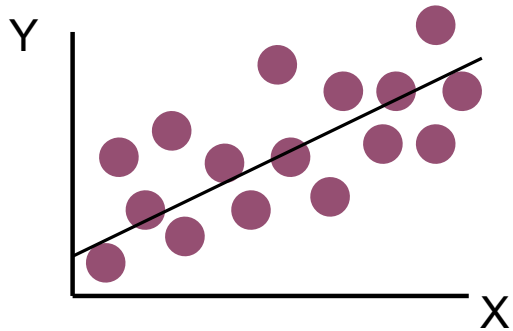
Note: Correlation does not imply causation. Even if two variables are correlated, it does not necessarily mean that changes in one variable cause changes in the other.

# Scatter Plots of Data with Various Correlation Coefficients

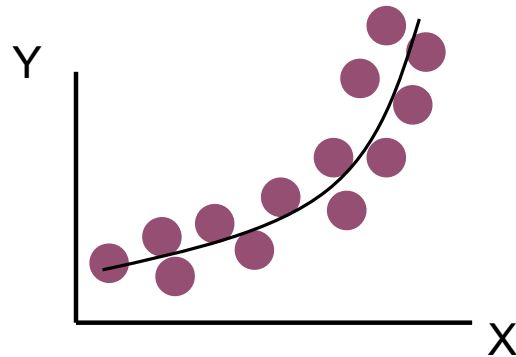
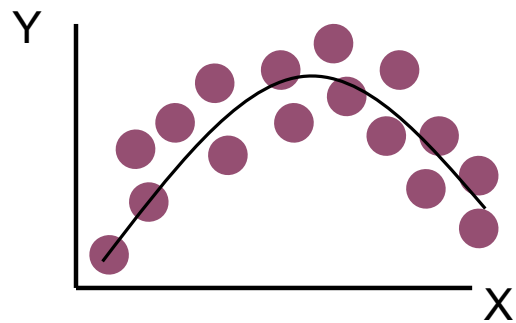


# Linear Correlation

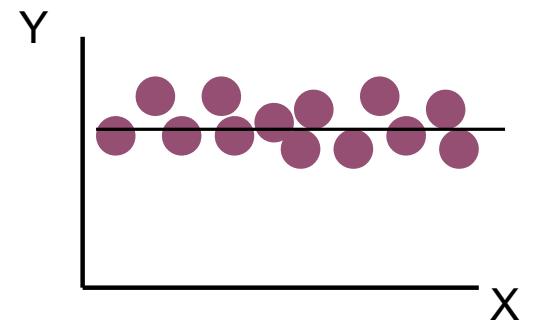
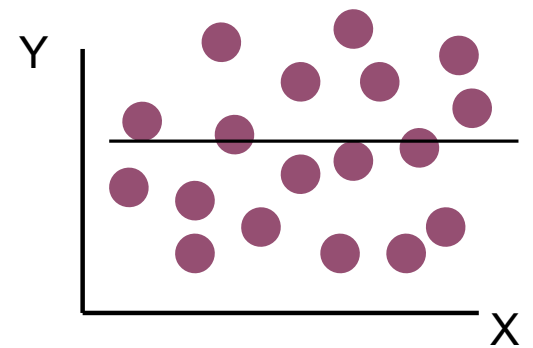
Linear relationships



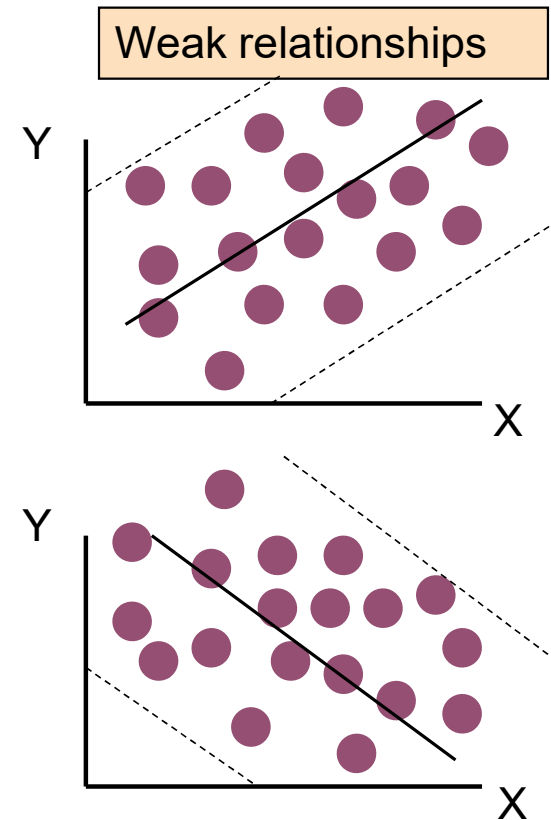
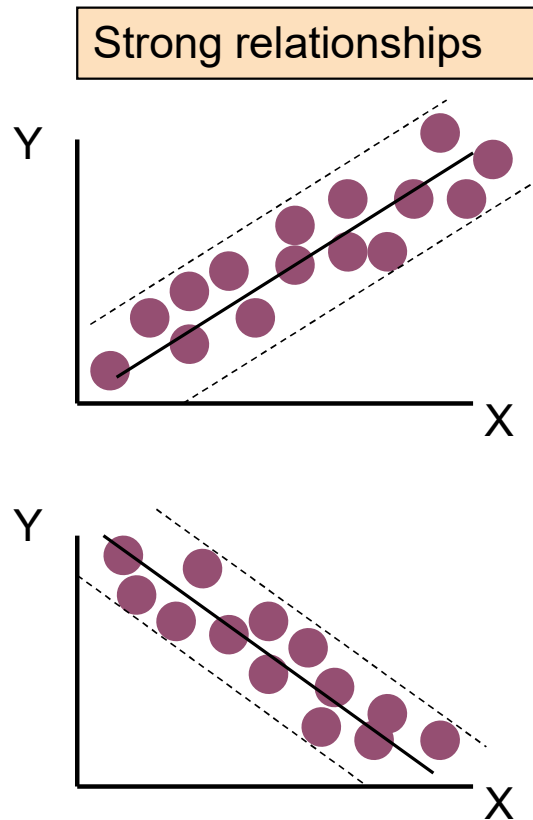
Curvilinear relationships



No relationship



# Linear Correlation



# Regression Analysis

- The two variables  $(x_i, y_i)$  are treated as equals in correlation
- Regression analysis is a statistical method that helps us to analyse and understand the relationship between two or more variables of interest
- **Dependent Variable:** This is the variable that we are trying to forecast (**y**).
- **Independent Variable:** These are the factors that influence the analysis and provide us with information regarding the relationship of the variables with the target variable (**x**).

TV	Radio	Newspaper	Sales
230.1	37.8	69.2	22.1
44.5	39.3	45.1	10.4
17.2	45.9	69.3	12

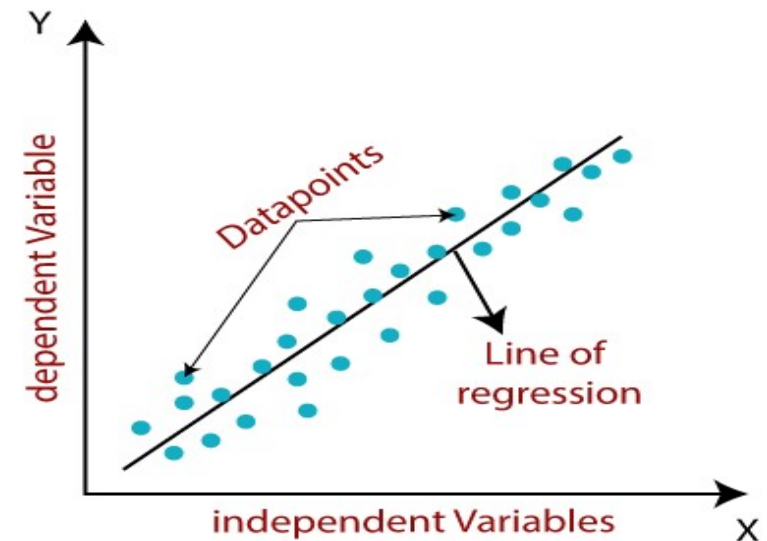


# Linear Regression

- Linear Regression is a predictive model used for finding the **linear** relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables

$$Y = m X + b,$$

- $Y$  = dependent variable,
- $X$  = independent variable
- $m$  = slope (or Gradient, determines change in  $Y$ , per unit change in  $X$ ),
- $b$  =  $Y$ -intercept



[Image Source: Link](#)

# Linear Model

- A model is linear, when it is linear in its parameters:  $\frac{\partial y}{\partial \alpha_i}$  is independent of  $\alpha_i$ 's
- $y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X$       **Linear**
- $y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1^2 X$       **Non-Linear**
- $y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 e^{\alpha_2 X}$       **Non-Linear**

# Modelling the dependent and independent variables

- Simple Linear Regression:  $y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X + \epsilon$
  - Multiple Linear Regression:  $y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X_1 + \alpha_2 X_2 + \dots + \alpha_n X_n + \epsilon$
  - Polynomial Regression:  $y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X + \alpha_2 X^2 + \dots + \alpha_n X^n + \epsilon$
- ✓  $\epsilon$  reflects the stochastic nature of the relationship between  $y$  and  $X$  indicating that such a relationship is not exact in nature

## Example:

- The income and education of a person are related, with on an average basis a higher level of education providing a higher income:

$$\text{income} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \times \text{education} + \epsilon$$

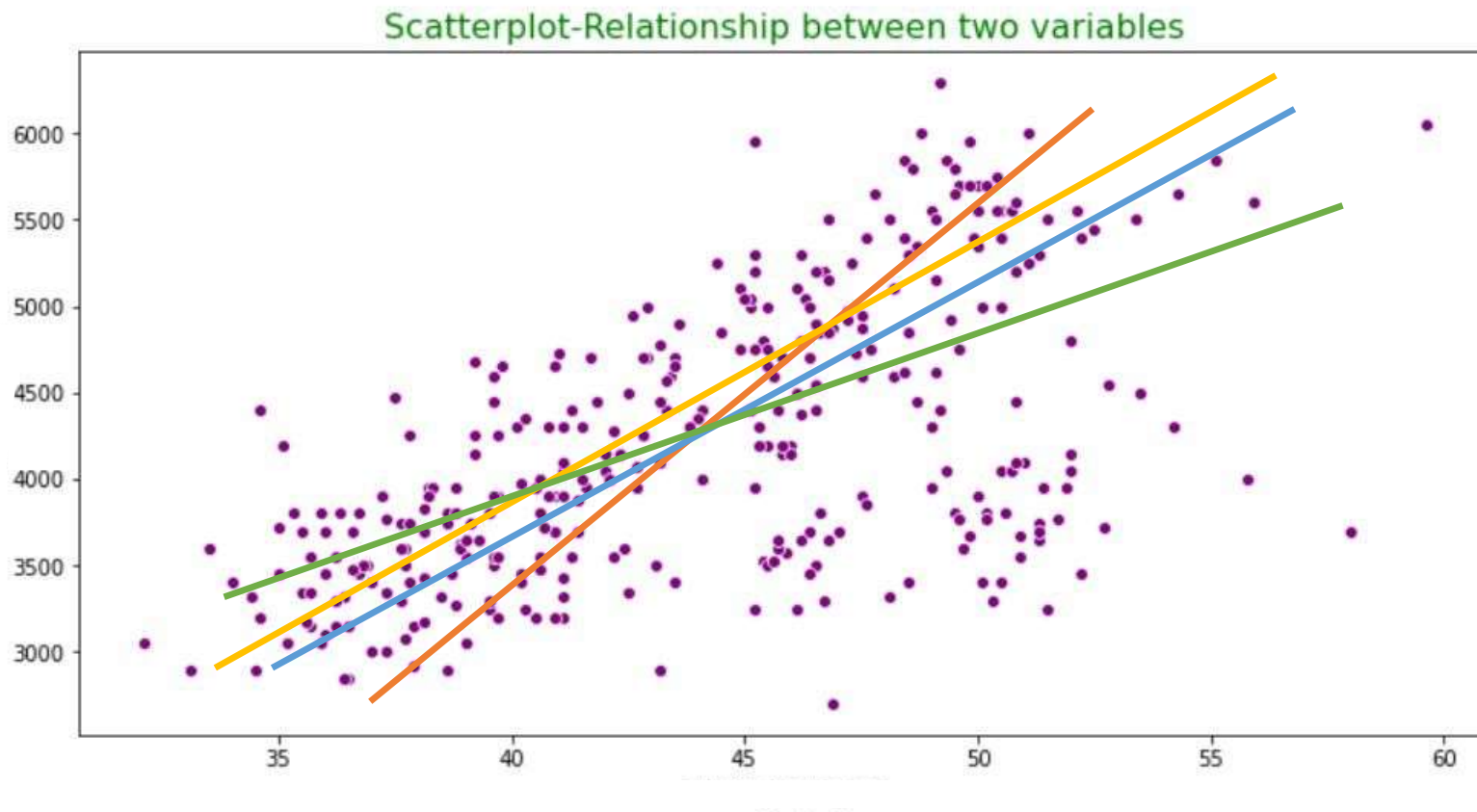
- We neglected the fact that most people have higher income when they are older than when they are young, regardless of education

$$\text{income} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \times \text{education} + \alpha_2 \times \text{age} + \epsilon$$

- Let's say that the income tends to rise less rapidly in the later earning years than in early years.

$$\text{income} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \times \text{education} + \alpha_2 \times \text{age} + \alpha_3 \times \text{age}^2 + \epsilon$$

# How a Linear Regression Model Works

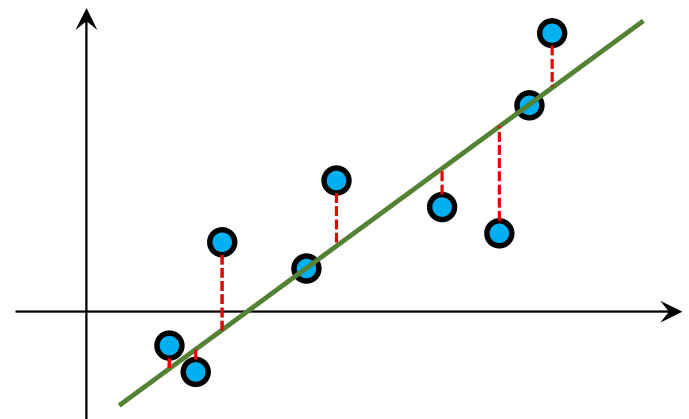
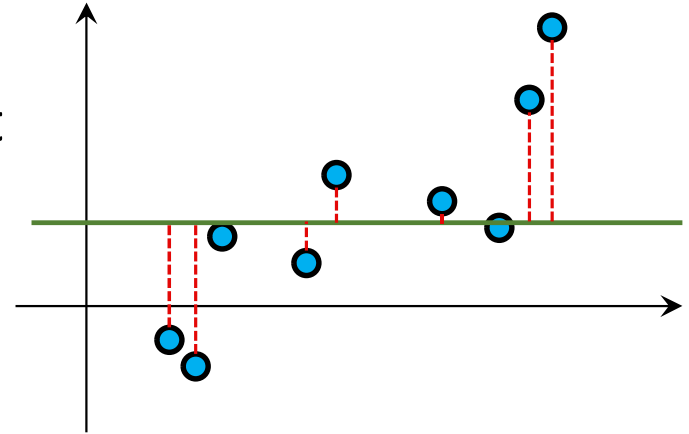


# The Linear Regression Problem

- Given a set of samples,  $(x_i, y_i)$ , find  $\alpha_{0,1}$  that minimizes:

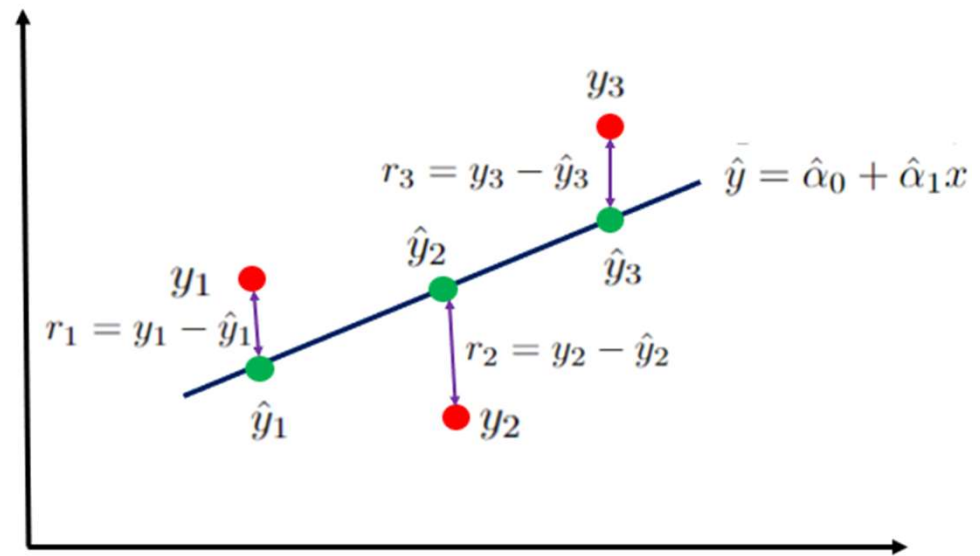
$$\sum_i (\alpha_1 x_i + \alpha_0 - y_i)^2$$

- Minimum squared error (MSE) criterion
- Simple Case:  $y_i = \alpha_0$
- Generic Case (one independent variable):  
 $y_i = \alpha_1 x_i + \alpha_0$
- Maximum Likelihood Estimate of  $\alpha_0$  and  $\alpha_1$ .



# Least Square Estimation

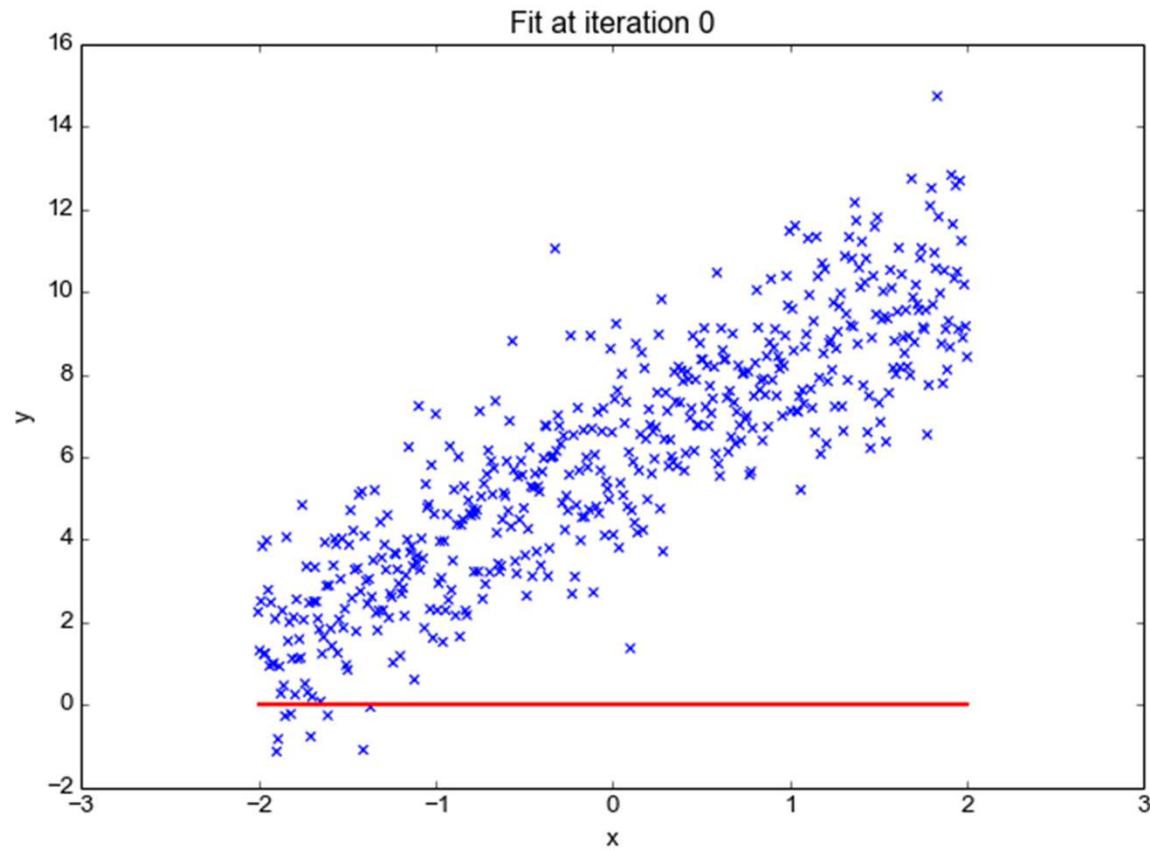
- The best fit line is drawn across a scatter plot of data points in order to represent a relationship between those data points
- The line for which the error between the predicted values and the observed values is minimum is called the best fit line
- The Loss function expresses how far off the mark our computed output is and is used to determine the error between the output of our algorithms and the given data.



$$\text{Residual} = (y_{\text{actual}} - y_{\text{predicted}}) = \epsilon$$

✓ Goal : Minimizing the loss

# How to gradually choose the best line





# Linear Regression: by Matrix Inverse

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{call it: } \mathbf{D}\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{y}.$$

- Can we compute:  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{y}$ ?
- $\mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{D} \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{y}$
- $\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{D})^{-1} \mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{D}^\dagger \mathbf{y}$ , where  
 $\mathbf{D}^\dagger = (\mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{D})^{-1} \mathbf{D}^T$  is called the pseudo-inverse of D.

# Linear Regression: by Gradient Descent

1. Randomly initialize  $\mathbf{w} = [\alpha_0, \alpha_1]$ ; call it:  $\mathbf{w}^0$
  2. Compute the gradient of the error function  $E$  at  $\mathbf{w}$ :  $\nabla E = \frac{\partial E}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$
  3.  $\mathbf{w}^{t+1} = \mathbf{w}^t - \eta \nabla E$
  4. Repeat steps 2 and 3 until convergence
- Convergence: when  $\|\eta \nabla E\|$  becomes small

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i (\alpha_1 x_i + \alpha_0 - y_i)^2$$
$$\nabla E = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_i (\alpha_1 x_i + \alpha_0 - y_i) \\ \sum_i x_i (\alpha_1 x_i + \alpha_0 - y_i) \end{bmatrix}$$

# Understanding Data with Linear Regression

- Data Scientists use linear regression to understand the relationship between variables in a dataset.
- Assume that we have a line fit between weight and height of a set of students.
  - We need to understand how much the weight of a person is dependent on their height.
  - Fit a line between height ( $x_i$ ) and weight ( $y_i$ ): Find the best  $\alpha_0$  and  $\alpha_1$ .
  - The Sum of Squared residual errors to fit ( $SS_{\text{fit}}$ ) is:  $\sum_i (\alpha_1 x_i + \alpha_0 - y_i)^2$
  - The Sum of Squared residual errors to mean ( $SS_{\text{mean}}$ ) is:  $\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2$

# Understanding Data with Linear Regression

- The Sum of Squared residual errors to mean ( $SS_{\text{mean}}$ ) is:  $\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2$
- The variation around mean:  $\text{Var}_{\text{mean}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \frac{1}{n} SS_{\text{mean}}$
- The Sum of Squared residual errors to fit ( $SS_{\text{fit}}$ ) is:  $\sum_i (\alpha_1 x_i + \alpha_0 - y_i)^2$
- The variation around fit:  $\text{Var}_{\text{fit}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i (\alpha_1 x_i + \alpha_0 - y_i)^2 = \frac{1}{n} SS_{\text{fit}}$
- $\text{Var}_{\text{fit}}$  will be smaller than  $\text{Var}_{\text{mean}}$ , and we can define:
- $R^2 = \frac{\text{Var}_{\text{mean}} - \text{Var}_{\text{fit}}}{\text{Var}_{\text{mean}}} = \frac{SS_{\text{mean}} - SS_{\text{fit}}}{SS_{\text{mean}}}$

# Understanding $R^2$

- $R^2$  is a statistical measure that assesses the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent variables in a multiple regression model.

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{SS_{\text{fit}}}{SS_{\text{mean}}}$$

1.  $R^2 = 0$  : Model does not explain any of the variability in the dependent variable
  2.  $R^2 = 1$  : Model explains all the variability in the dependent variable
  3.  $0 < R^2 < 1$ : The proportion of variability in the dependent variable explained by the model
- If  $R^2 = 0.6$ , we say that the height can explain 60% of the variation from mean.
  - × However it does not indicate the quality of the model's predictions or the significance of individual predictors.

# Adjusted $R^2$

- $R^2$  tends to increase as more independent variables are added, even if they do not contribute meaningfully to the model
- Adjusted  $R^2$  is the variation of  $Y$  that is explained by the set of independent variables selected, adjusted for the number of independent variables ( $k$ ) and the sample size ( $n$ )
- Penalizing models with more predictors unless those predictors significantly improve the fit

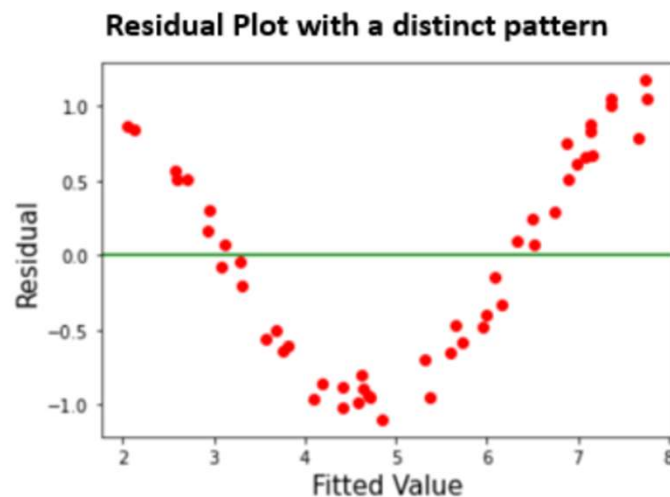
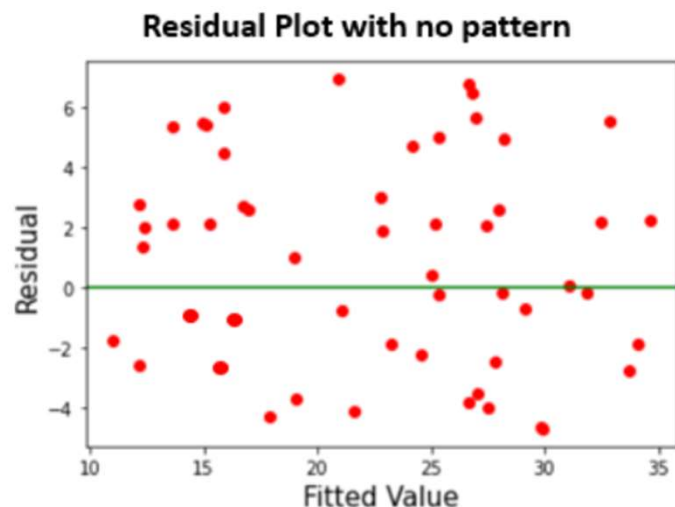
$$\text{Adjusted } R^2 = 1 - \left( \frac{(1 - R^2) \cdot (n - 1)}{n - k - 1} \right)$$

# Assumptions for Linear Regression

- **Linearity:** the Y variable is linearly related to the value of the X variable.
  - The change in the mean of the dependent variable is constant for any change in the independent variable,  $E(Y|X) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X$
- **No Perfect Multicollinearity:** Multicollinearity indicates that there is a high correlation between independent variables in the dataset.
  - A high level of correlation between the independent variables limits our model's interpretability ability.
  - Example: Using both total number of rooms and number of bedrooms as independent variables in same model
  - Examine the correlation matrix

# Assumptions

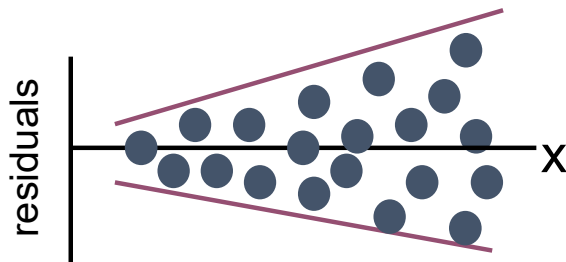
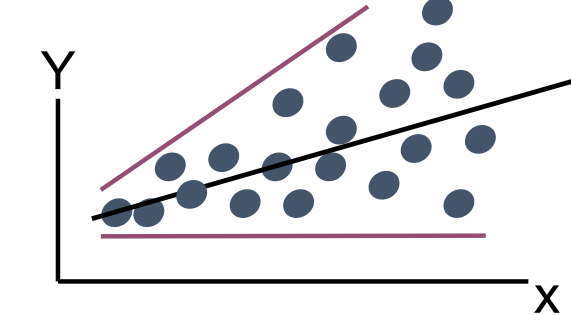
- **Normality of Residuals:** Residuals are assumed to be normally distributed,  $\varepsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ .
  - Create a histogram or a Q-Q (quantile-quantile) plot of the residuals, where points fall approximately along a straight line, when normally distributed.
- **Independence of Error** - The error (residual) is independent for each value of X
  - Residual plots, where residuals are plotted against the predicted values or X, can reveal patterns or trends that might indicate a lack of independence



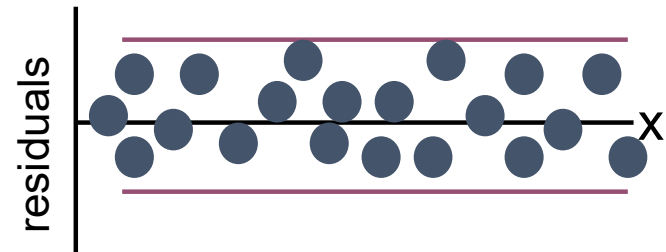
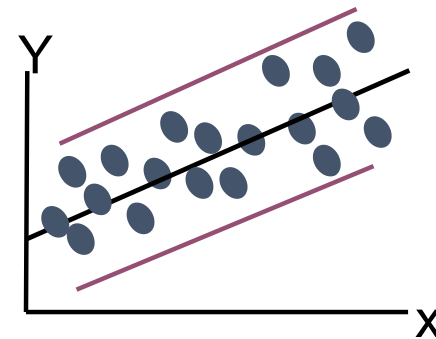


# Residual Analysis for Homoscedasticity

- **Homoscedasticity** - The variation around the line of regression be constant for all values of  $X$ . (the spread or dispersion of your data points remains constant across different levels of an independent variable)



Non-constant variance



Constant variance

# Comments on Linear Regression

- Least squared linear regression fits a line to a pair of observations in a dataset.
- What if we have more than one independent variable?
  - One can fit a plane or hyperplane
  - The more parameters we have, the better is  $R^2$ .
  - Adjusted  $R^2$  : scaled with the number of dimensions.
- Multiple algorithms to find the line fit.
- One can use other models of noise (not squared residual error)

# Polynomial Regression

- It is a type of linear regression where the relationship between the independent variable  $X$  and the dependent variable  $y$  is modeled as an  $n$ -degree polynomial.
- Second order polynomial in one variable:  $y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X + \alpha_2 X^2 + \varepsilon$
- Second order polynomial in two variables:  
$$y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X_1 + \alpha_2 X_2 + \alpha_{11} X_1^2 + \alpha_{22} X_2^2 + \alpha_{12} X_1 X_2 + \varepsilon$$
- Polynomial models are useful in situations where curvilinear effects are present in the true response function.
- Polynomial models are also useful as approximating functions to unknown and possible very complex nonlinear relationship.

# Polynomial Regression Shape

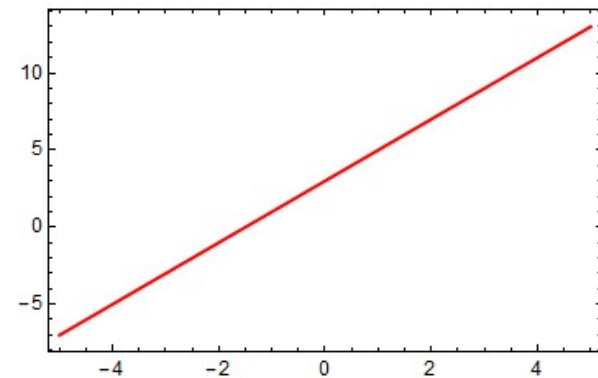
- The highest order determines the overall shape of the relationship:

$$y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X + \alpha_2 X^2 + \cdots + \alpha_N X^N + \varepsilon$$

**Linear**

$$y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X$$

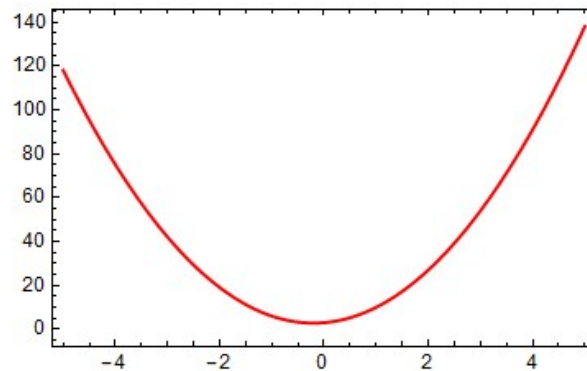
**Zero bends**



**Quadratic**

$$y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X + \alpha_2 X^2$$

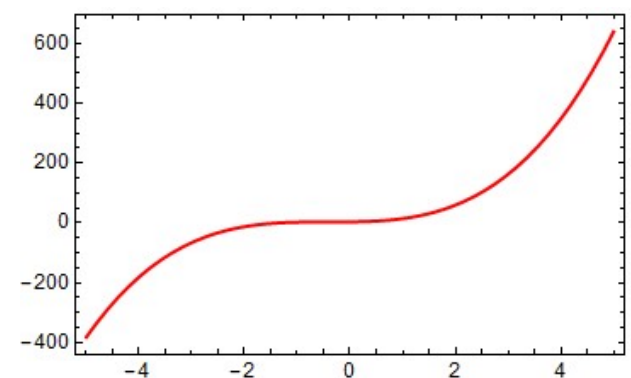
**One bend**



**Cubic**

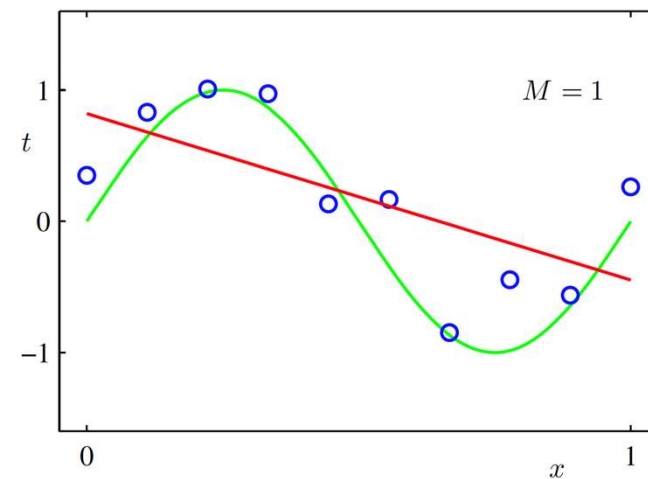
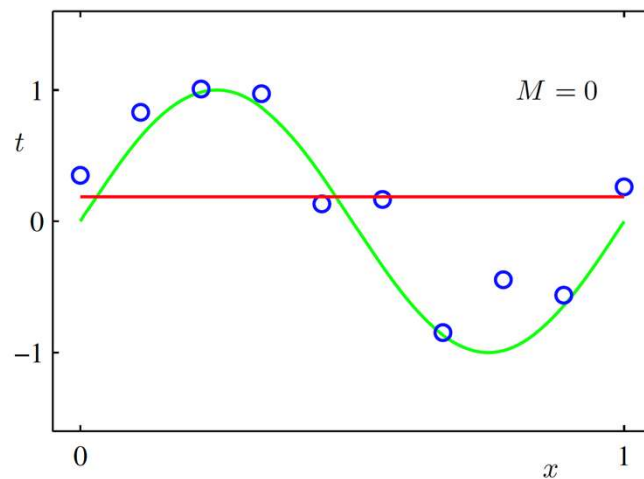
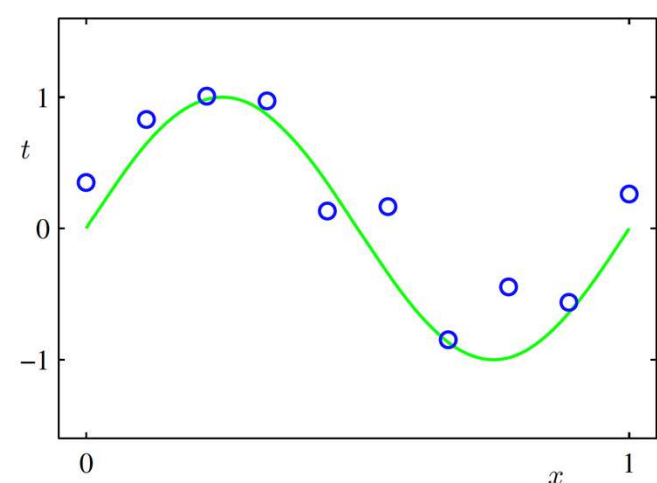
$$y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X + \alpha_2 X^2 + \alpha_3 X^3$$

**Two bends**



Note: There is one less bend than the highest order in the polynomial model

# Polynomial Regression: Example



A set of **data points** captured from a noisy variant of a sine function:  $\sin(2\pi x)$ .

