

## Linear Regression





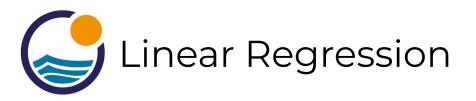
- The first machine learning algorithm we will explore is also one of the oldest!
- Let's have a quick overview of what is covered in this section of the course.





- Linear Regression
  - Theory of Linear Regression
  - Simple Implementation with Python
  - Scikit-Learn Overview
  - Linear Regression with Scikit-learn
  - Polynomial Regression
  - Regularization
  - Overview of Project Dataset





 Unlike future ML Algorithm sections, the exercise project for linear regression will be spread over many sections, since we will first discuss feature engineering and cross-validation before tackling the full project exercise.





## Let's get started!





## Introduction to Linear Regression

Algorithm Theory - Part One History and Motivation





 Before we do any coding, we will have a deep dive into building out an intuition of the theory and motivation behind Linear Regression.



- This will include understanding:
  - Brief History
  - Linear Relationships
  - Ordinary Least Squares
  - Cost Functions
  - Gradient Descent
  - Vectorization





- Relevant Reading in ISLR
  - Section 3: Linear Regression
    - 3.1 Simple Linear Regression





- The history of the "invention" of linear regression is a bit muddled.
- The linear regression methods based on least squares grew out of a need for mathematically improving navigation methods based on astronomy during the Age of Exploration in the 1700s.



- 1722 Roger Cotes discovers combining different observations yields better estimates of the true value.
- 1750 Tobias Mayer explores averaging different results under similar conditions in studying librations of the moon.





- 1757 Roger Joseph Boscovich further develops combining observations studying the shape of the Earth.
- 1788 Pierre-Simon LaPlace develops similar averaging theories in explaining the differences of motion between Jupiter and Saturn.





 1805 - First public exposition on Linear Regression with least squares method published by Adrien-Marie Legendre -Nouvelles Méthodes pour la Détermination des Orbites des Comètes





- 2005 Side portrait of Adrien-Marie Legendre is actually discovered to be Louis Legendre!
- Only one known sketch of Adrien-Marie Legendre...





 Only one known watercolor caricature sketch of Adrien-Marie Legendre...







 1809 - Carl Friedrich Gauss publishes his methods of calculating orbits of celestial bodies.

Claiming to have invented least-squares

back in 1795!





 Carl Friedrich Gauss was born in 1777, which would make him 18 years old at his proclaimed time of discovery!







 1808 - Robert Adrain published his formulation of least squares (a year before publication by Gauss).





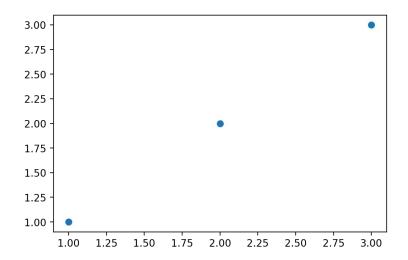


 Whatever the case of invention may be, let's build an intuitive understanding of linear regression!





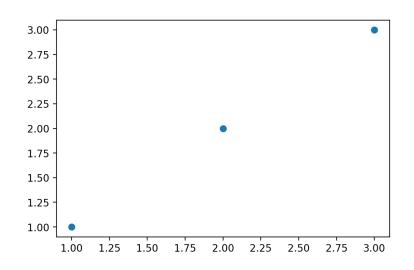
- Put simply, a linear relationship implies some constant straight line relationship.
- The simplest possible being y = x.



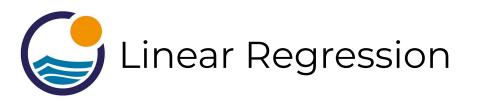


## Linear Regression

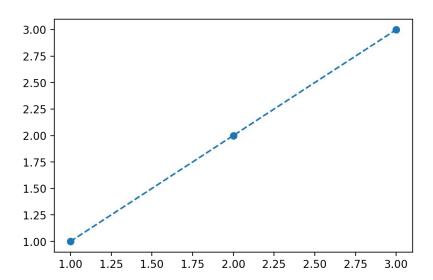
• Here we see x = [1,2,3] and y = [1,2,3]







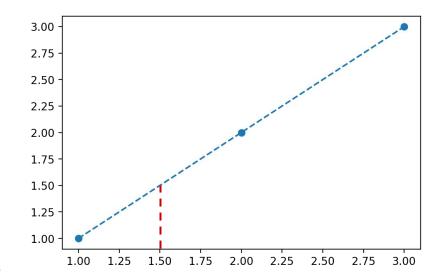
 We could then (based on the three real data points) build out the relationship y=x as our "fitted" line.







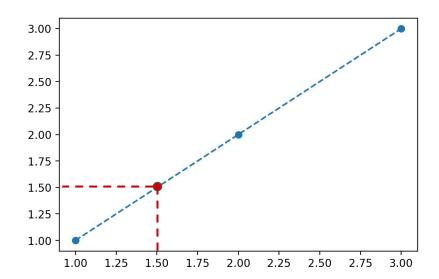
 This implies for some new x value I can predict its related y.







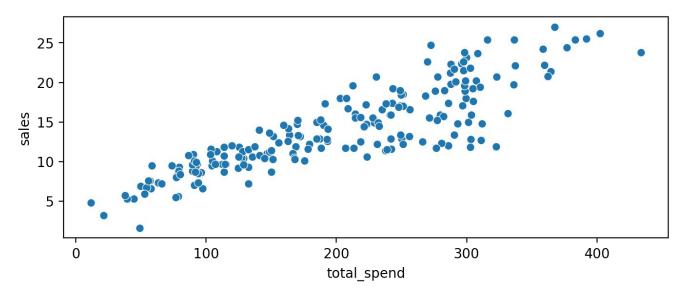
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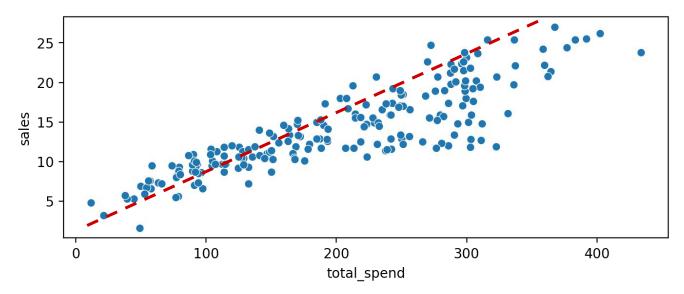
 But what happens with real data? Where do we draw this line?







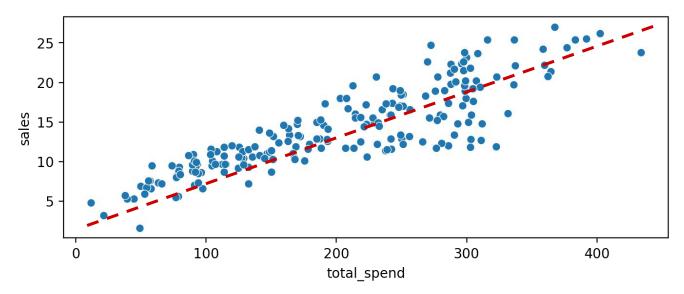
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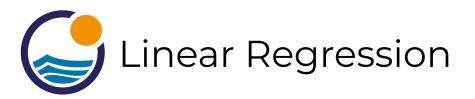




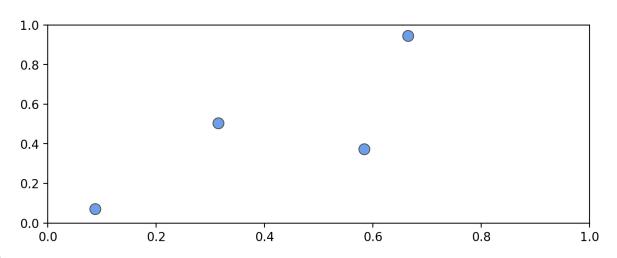
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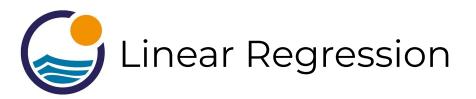




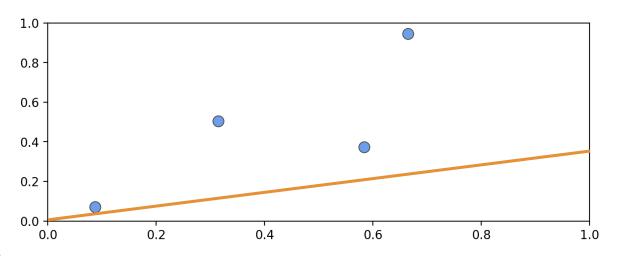
 Fundamentally, we understand we want to minimize the overall distance from the points to the line.







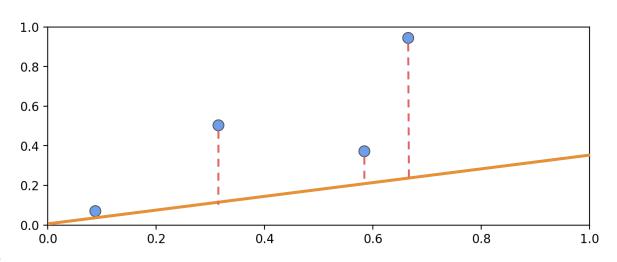
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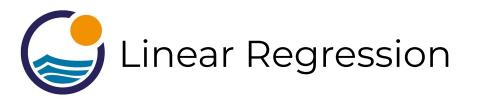




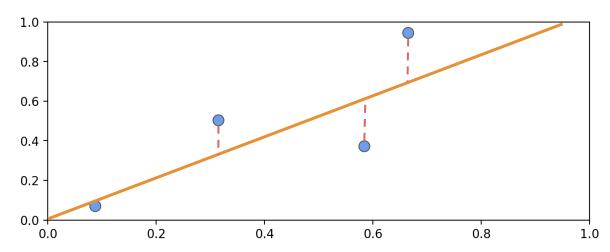
 We also know we can measure this error from the real data points to the line, known as the residual error.







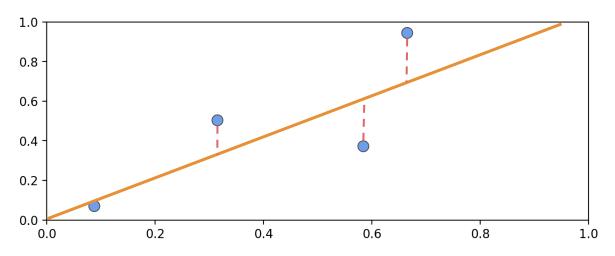
 Some lines will clearly be better fits than others.







 We can also see the **residuals** can be both positive and negative.



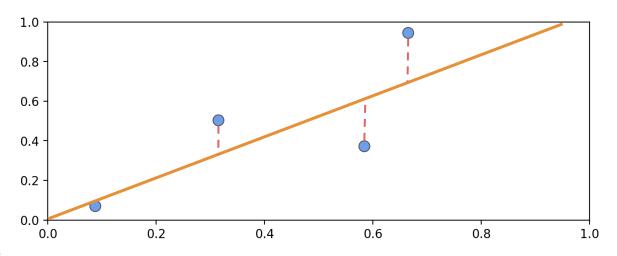




 Ordinary Least Squares works by minimizing the sum of the squares of the differences between the observed dependent variable (values of the variable being observed) in the given dataset and those predicted by the linear function.



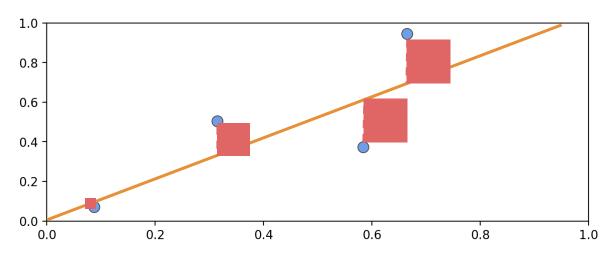
We can visualize squared error to minimize:







• We can visualize squared error to minimize:







- Having a squared error will help us simplify our calculations later on when setting up a derivative.
- Let's continue exploring OLS by converting a real data set into mathematical notation, then working to solve a linear relationship between features and a variable!





## Introduction to Linear Regression

Algorithm Theory - Part Two OLS Equations





- Linear Regression OLS Theory
  - We know the equation of a simple straight line:
    - y = mx + b
      - m is slope
      - b is intercept with y-axis





- Linear Regression OLS Theory
  - We can see for y=mx+b there is only room for one possible feature x.
  - OLS will allow us to directly solve for the slope **m** and intercept **b**.
  - We will later see we'll need tools like gradient descent to scale this to multiple features.





- Let's explore how we could translate a real data set into mathematical notation for linear regression.
- Then we'll solve a simple case of one feature to explore OLS in action.
- Afterwards we'll focus on gradient descent for real world data set situations.





 Linear Regression allows us to build a relationship between multiple features to estimate a target output.

Area m <sup>2</sup>	Bedrooms	Bathrooms	Price
200	3	2	\$500,000
190	2	1	\$450,000
230	3	3	\$650,000
180	1	1	\$400,000
210	2	2	\$550,000





X

Area m²	Bedrooms	Bathrooms	Price
200	3	2	\$500,000
190	2	1	\$450,000
230	3	3	\$650,000
180	1	1	\$400,000
210	2	2	\$550,000





	^		
<b>x</b> <sub>1</sub>	X <sub>2</sub>	x <sub>3</sub>	у
200	3	2	\$500,000
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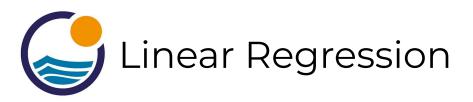
<b>A</b>			У
<b>x</b> <sub>1</sub>	X <sub>2</sub>	X <sub>3</sub>	у
x <sup>1</sup> <sub>1</sub>	3	2	\$500,000
x <sup>2</sup> <sub>1</sub>	2	1	\$450,000
x <sup>3</sup> <sub>1</sub>	3	3	\$650,000
x <sup>4</sup> <sub>1</sub>	1	1	\$400,000
x <sup>5</sup> <sub>1</sub>	2	2	\$550,000





X			У
<b>x</b> <sub>1</sub>	X <sub>2</sub>	X <sub>3</sub>	у
x <sup>1</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>1</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>1</sup> <sub>1</sub>	<b>y</b> <sub>1</sub>
<b>x</b> <sup>2</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>2</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>2</sup> <sub>1</sub>	y <sub>2</sub>
<b>x</b> <sup>3</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>3</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>3</sup> <sub>1</sub>	y <sub>3</sub>
x <sup>4</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>4</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>4</sup> <sub>1</sub>	<b>y</b> <sub>4</sub>
x <sup>5</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>5</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>5</sup> <sub>1</sub>	<b>y</b> <sub>5</sub>





 Now let's build out a linear relationship between the features X and label y.

X			У
<b>x</b> <sub>1</sub>	X <sub>2</sub>	X <sub>3</sub>	у
x <sup>1</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>1</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>1</sup> <sub>1</sub>	<b>y</b> <sub>1</sub>
x <sup>2</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>2</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>2</sup> <sub>1</sub>	y <sub>2</sub>
x <sup>3</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>3</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>3</sup> <sub>1</sub>	<b>y</b> <sub>3</sub>
x <sup>4</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>4</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>4</sup> <sub>1</sub>	У <sub>4</sub>
x <sup>5</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>5</sup> <sub>1</sub>	x <sup>5</sup> <sub>1</sub>	y <sub>5</sub>





 Now let's build out a linear relationship between the features X and label y.

X			У
<b>x</b> <sub>1</sub>	X <sub>2</sub>	X <sub>3</sub>	у

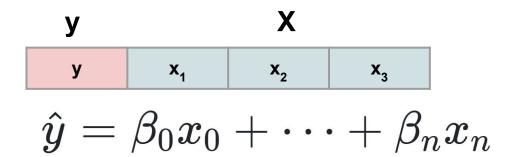


Reformat for y = x equation

У	X		
у	<b>x</b> <sub>1</sub>	X <sub>2</sub>	<b>x</b> <sub>3</sub>

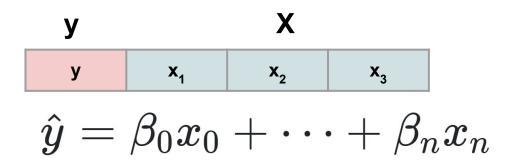


 Each feature should have some Beta coefficient associated with it.





 This is the same as the common notation for a simple line: y=mx+b





This is stating there is some Beta coefficient for each feature to minimize error.

$$\hat{y}=eta_0x_0+\cdots+eta_nx_n$$



• We can also express this equation as a sum:

$$egin{array}{c|c|c|c|c} \mathbf{y} & \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{x}_1 & \mathbf{x}_2 & \mathbf{x}_3 & \ \hat{y} &= eta_0 x_0 + \cdots + eta_n x_n \ \hat{y} &= \sum_n eta_i x_i & \ \end{array}$$



Note the y hat symbol displays a prediction.
 There is usually no set of Betas to create a perfect fit to y!

$$\hat{y} = \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i$$





1.0

8.0

0.6

0.4

0.2 -

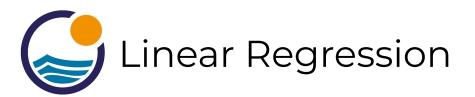
0.0

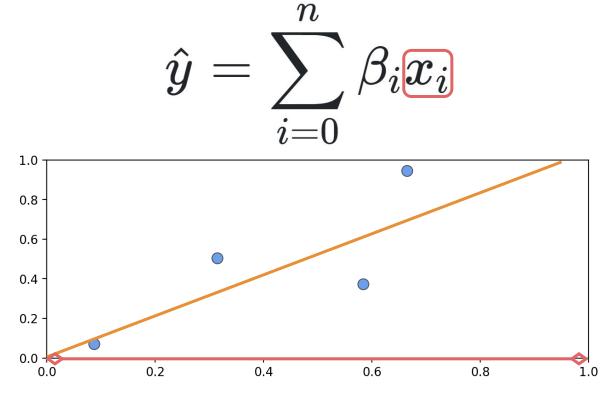
0.0

• Line equation:

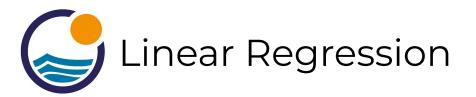
$$y = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \beta_i x_i$$

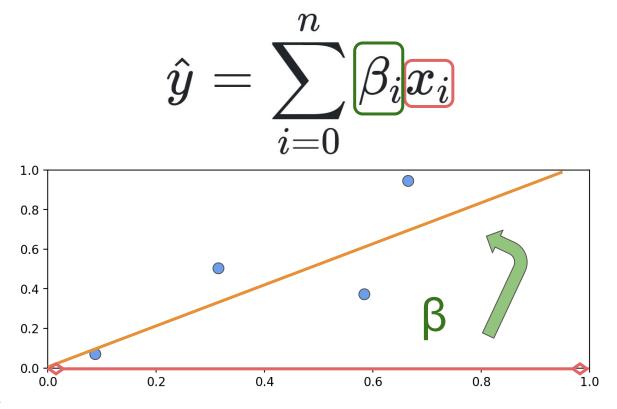






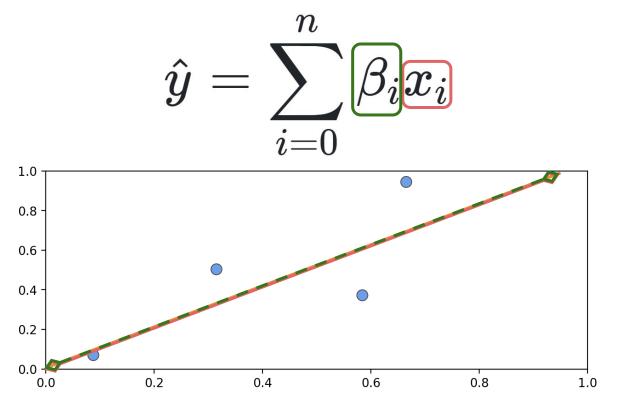




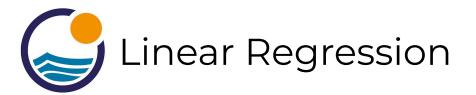


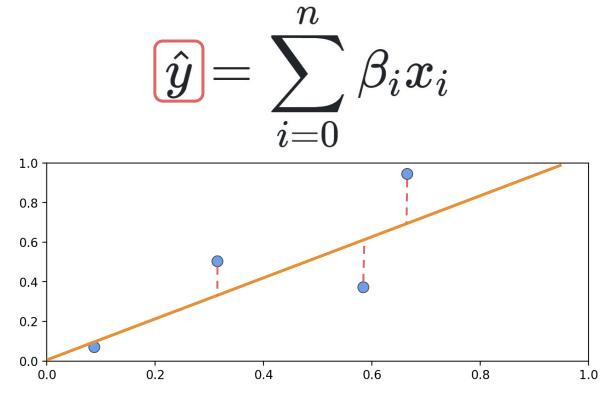
















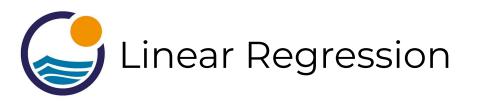
- For simple problems with one X feature we can easily solve for Betas values with an analytical solution.
- Let's quickly solve a simple example problem, then later we will see that for multiple features we will need gradient descent.





- As we expand to more than a single feature however, an analytical solution quickly becomes unscalable.
- Instead we shift focus on minimizing a cost function with gradient descent.

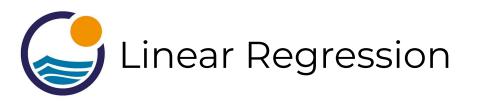




 We can use gradient descent to solve a cost function to calculate Beta values!

$$\hat{y} = \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i$$





 We'll work on developing a cost function to minimize in the next lectures!

$$\hat{y} = \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i$$





## Introduction to Linear Regression

Algorithm Theory - Part Three Cost Function





- What we know so far:
  - Linear Relationships
    - y = mx+b
  - OLS
    - Solve simple linear regression
  - Not scalable for multiple features
  - Translating real data to Matrix Notation
  - Generalized formula for Beta coefficients

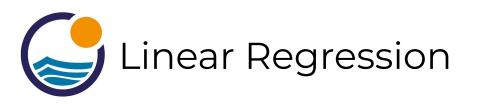




 Recall we are searching for Beta values for a best-fit line.

$$\hat{y} = \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i$$





 The equation below simply defines our line, but how to choose beta coefficients?

$$\hat{y} = \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i$$





 We've decided to define a "best-fit" as minimizing the squared error.

$$\hat{y} = \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i$$





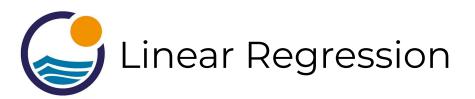
• The residual error for some row j is:

$$y^j - \hat{y}^j$$



• Squared Error for some row *j* is then:

$$\left(y^j - \hat{y}^j
ight)^2$$



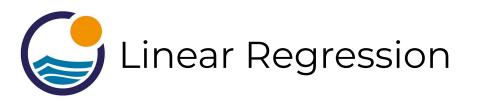
• Sum of squared errors for **m** rows is then:

$$\sum_{j=1}^m \left(y^j - \hat{y}^j
ight)^2$$



• Average squared error for **m** rows is then:

$$-rac{1}{m}\sum_{j=1}^m \left(y^j-\hat{y}^j
ight)^2$$



Exactly what we need for a cost function!

$$-rac{1}{m}\sum_{j=1}^m \left(y^j-\hat{y}^j
ight)^2$$



Begin by defining a cost function J.

$$J(\boldsymbol{eta})$$



 A cost function is defined by some measure of error.

$$J(oldsymbol{eta})$$



• This means we wish to **minimize** the cost function.

$$J(\boldsymbol{\beta})$$



 Our cost function can be defined by the squared error:

$$J(oldsymbol{eta}) = rac{1}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^m \left( y^j - \hat{y}^j 
ight)^2$$



• Note lowercase j is the specific data row.

$$J(oldsymbol{eta}) = rac{1}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^m \left(y^j - \hat{y}^j
ight)^2$$



Want to minimize cost for set of Betas.

$$oxed{J(oldsymbol{eta})} = rac{1}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^m \left( y^j - \hat{y}^j 
ight)^2$$



Error between real y and predicted ŷ

$$J(oldsymbol{eta}) = rac{1}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^m \left( \!\! egin{aligned} y^j - \hat{y}^j \end{aligned} \!\! 
ight)^2$$



Squaring corrects for negative and positive errors.

$$J(oldsymbol{eta}) = rac{1}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^m \left(y^j - \hat{y}^j
ight)^2$$



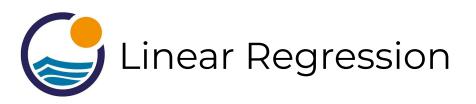
• Summing error for m rows.

$$J(oldsymbol{eta}) = rac{1}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^m \left( y^j - \hat{y}^j 
ight)^2$$



• Summing error for m rows.

$$J(oldsymbol{eta}) = rac{1}{2m} {\displaystyle \sum_{j=1}^{m}} {\left(y^j - \hat{y}^j
ight)^2}$$



Divide by m to get mean

$$J(oldsymbol{eta}) = egin{bmatrix} 1 \ 2m \end{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^m \left( y^j - \hat{y}^j 
ight)^2$$



 Additional ½ is for convenience for derivative.

$$J(oldsymbol{eta}) = rac{1}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^m \left(y^j - \hat{y}^j
ight)^{\!\! 2}$$



• What is  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ ?

$$J(oldsymbol{eta}) = rac{1}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^m \left( y^j - \hat{oldsymbol{y}}^j 
ight)^2$$





• It will be a function of **Betas** and **Features**!

$$egin{align} J(oldsymbol{eta}) &= rac{1}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^m \left( y^j - \hat{y}^j 
ight)^2 \ &= rac{1}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^m \left( y^j - \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j 
ight)^2 \end{split}$$



## Linear Regression

Recall from calculus to minimize a function

we can take its derivative and set it equal to zero. 
$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \beta_k}(\pmb{\beta}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \left( \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{j=1}^m \left( y^j - \sum_{i=0}^n \beta_i x_i^j \right)^2 \right)$$

 $=rac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^m\Biggl(y^j-\sum_{i=0}^neta_ix_i^j\Biggr)(-x_k^j).$ 



## Linear Regression

Recall from calculus to minimize a function

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## Linear Regression

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 $=rac{1}{m}\sum_{j=1}^m\Biggl(y^j-\sum_{i=0}^neta_ix_i^j\Biggr)(-x_k^j).$ 



- Unfortunately, it is not scalable to try to get an analytical solution to minimize this cost function.
- In the next lecture we will learn to use gradient descent to minimize this cost function.





## Introduction to Linear Regression

Algorithm Theory - Part Three Gradient Descent





- We just figured out a cost function to minimize!
- Taking the cost function derivative and then solving for zero to get the set of Beta coefficients will be too difficult to solve directly through an analytical solution.





 Instead we can describe this cost function through vectorized matrix notation and use gradient descent to have a computer figure out the set of Beta coefficient values that minimize the cost/loss function.





- Our goals:
  - Find a set of Beta coefficient values that minimizes the error (cost function)
  - Leverage computational power instead of having to manually attempt to analytically solve the derivative.



 Recall we now have the derivative of the cost function:

$$egin{aligned} rac{\partial J}{\partial eta_k}(oldsymbol{eta}) &= rac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \Bigg( y^j - \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j \Bigg) (-x_k^j) \end{aligned}$$



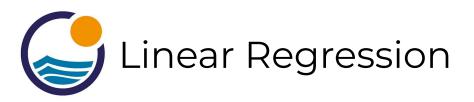
 Also recall our data will be in the form of a matrix X with a vector of labels y.

$$egin{aligned} rac{\partial J}{\partial eta_k}(oldsymbol{eta}) &= rac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \Bigg( y^j - \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j \Bigg) (-x_k^j) \end{aligned}$$



• Which means we need a  $\beta$  for each feature, so we can express a vector of  $\beta$  values.

$$egin{aligned} rac{\partial J}{\partial eta_k}(oldsymbol{eta}) &= rac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \Bigg( y^j - \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j \Bigg) (-x_k^j) \end{aligned}$$



• Use a **gradient** to express the derivative of the cost function with respect to each  $\beta$ 

$$abla_{oldsymbol{eta}J} = egin{bmatrix} rac{\partial J}{\partial eta_0} \ dots \ rac{\partial J}{\partial eta_n} \end{bmatrix}$$



 We can plug in our equation of the derivative of the loss function.

$$abla_{oldsymbol{eta}J} = egin{bmatrix} rac{\partial J}{\partialeta_0} \ dots \ rac{\partial J}{\partialeta_n} \ \end{pmatrix}$$



 We also already know what this cost function derivative is equal to:

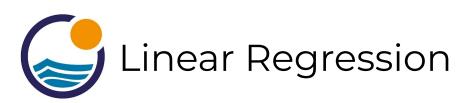
$$abla_{oldsymbol{eta}} J = egin{bmatrix} -rac{1}{m}\sum_{j=1}^m \left(y^j - \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j
ight) x_0^j \ dots \ -rac{1}{m}\sum_{j=1}^m \left(y^j - \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j
ight) x_n^j \end{bmatrix}$$



• We also know we can vectorize our data:

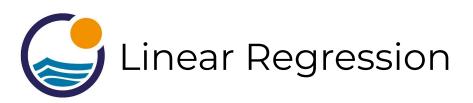
$$\mathbf{X} = egin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1^1 & x_2^1 & \dots & x_n^1 \ 1 & x_1^2 & x_2^2 & \dots & x_n^2 \ dots & dots & dots & \ddots & dots \ 1 & x_1^m & x_2^m & \dots & x_n^m \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{y} = egin{bmatrix} y_1 \ y_2 \ dots \ y_m \end{bmatrix} \quad oldsymbol{eta} = egin{bmatrix} eta_0 \ eta_1 \ dots \ eta_n \end{bmatrix}$$





 We can split the gradient of the cost function into two parts:

$$abla_{oldsymbol{eta}J} = egin{bmatrix} -rac{1}{m}\sum_{j=1}^m \left(y^j - \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j
ight) x_0^j \ dots \ -rac{1}{m}\sum_{j=1}^m \left(y^j - \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j
ight) x_n^j \end{bmatrix}$$



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ight) x_n^j \end{bmatrix}$$



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ight) x_0^j \ dots \ -rac{1}{m}\sum_{j=1}^m \left(y^j - \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j
ight) x_n^j \end{bmatrix}$$



• This then results in the following:

$$abla_{eta}J = -rac{1}{m}egin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^m y^j x_0^j \ dots \ \sum_{j=1}^m y^j x_n^j \end{bmatrix} + rac{1}{m}egin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j x_0^j \ dots \ \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=0}^m eta_i x_i^j x_n^j \end{bmatrix}$$



 We can now calculate the gradient for any set of Beta values!

$$abla_{eta}J = -rac{1}{m}egin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^m y^j x_0^j \ dots \ \sum_{j=1}^m y^j x_n^j \end{bmatrix} + rac{1}{m}egin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=0}^m eta_i x_i^j x_0^j \ dots \ \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=0}^m eta_i x_i^j x_n^j \end{bmatrix}$$



• In theory we could now guess and check Beta values that minimize this gradient.

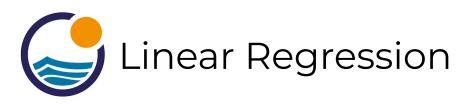
$$abla_{eta}J = -rac{1}{m}egin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^m y^j x_0^j \ dots \ \sum_{j=1}^m y^j x_n^j \end{bmatrix} + rac{1}{m}egin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j x_0^j \ dots \ \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=0}^m eta_i x_i^j x_n^j \end{bmatrix}$$



 Note how the Beta coefficients are the only unknown variable here:

$$abla_{eta}J = -rac{1}{m}egin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^m y^j x_0^j \ dots \ \sum_{j=1}^m y^j x_n^j \end{bmatrix} + rac{1}{m}egin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=0}^m eta_i x_i^j x_0^j \ dots \ \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=0}^m eta_i x_i^j x_n^j \end{bmatrix}$$





 The other variables are from our known data matrix values X and y.

$$abla_{eta}J = -rac{1}{m}egin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^m y^j x_0^j \ dots \ \sum_{j=1}^m y^j x_n^j \end{bmatrix} + rac{1}{m}egin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j x_0^j \ dots \ \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j x_n^j \end{bmatrix}$$



 What is the best way to "guess" at the correct Beta values that minimize the gradient?

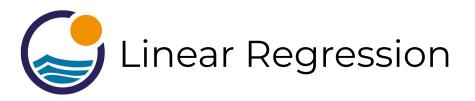
$$abla_{eta}J = -rac{1}{m}egin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^m y^j x_0^j \ dots \ \sum_{j=1}^m y^j x_n^j \end{bmatrix} + rac{1}{m}egin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j x_0^j \ dots \ \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j x_n^j \end{bmatrix}$$



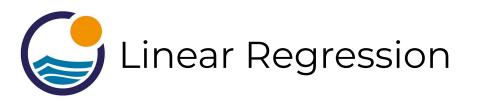


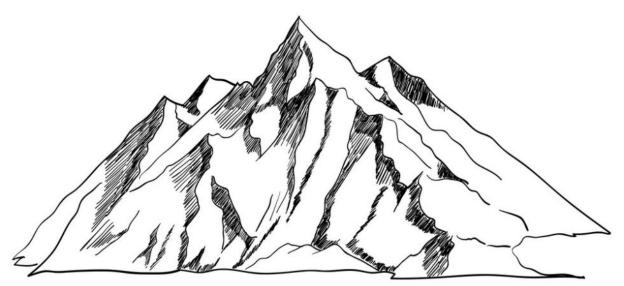
- We can use gradient descent to computationally search for the coefficients that minimize this gradient.
- Let's visually explore what this looks like in the case of a single Beta value.





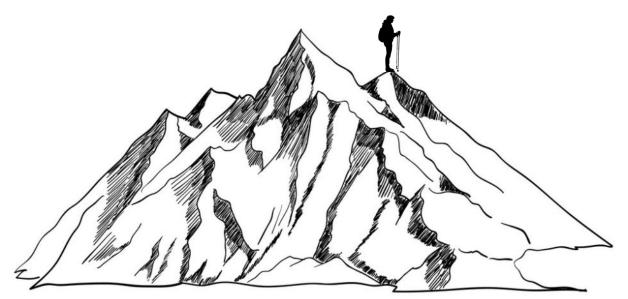
- Given a cost function of J(β) how can we computationally search for the correct value of β that minimizes the gradient of the cost function?
- What would the search process look like for single β value?





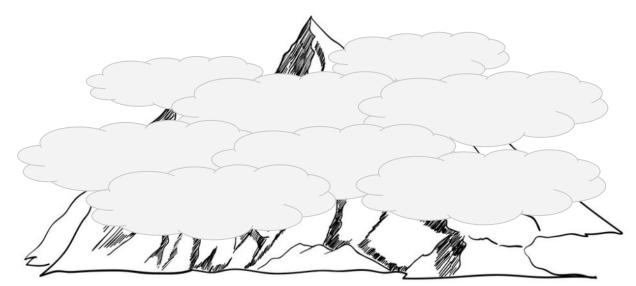






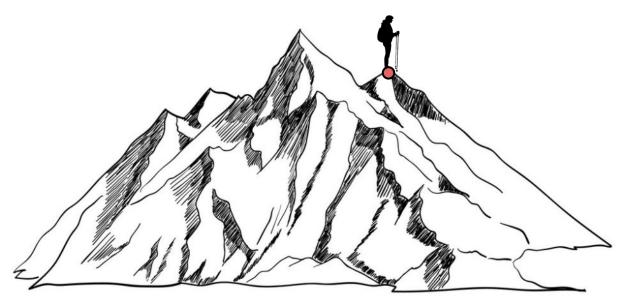












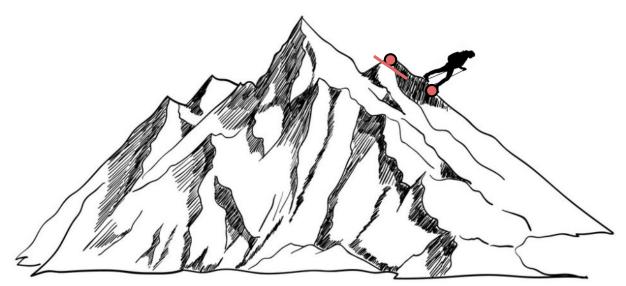






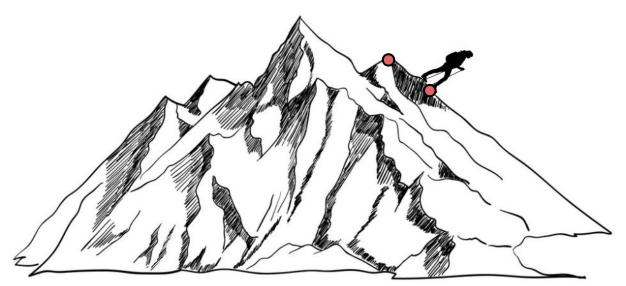






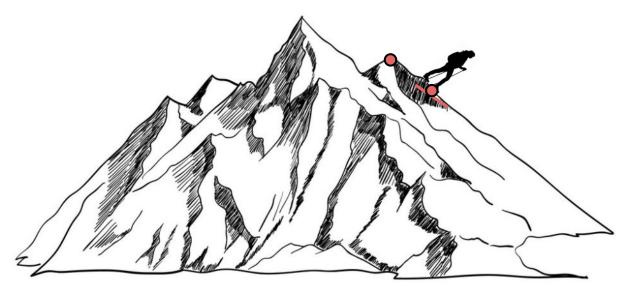






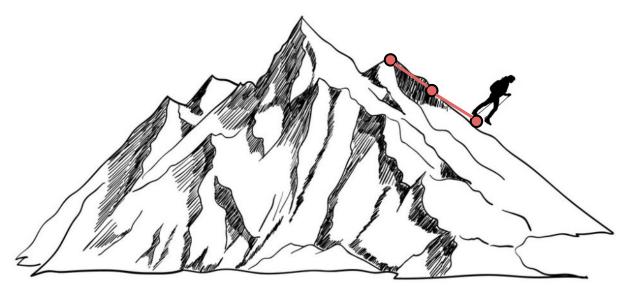






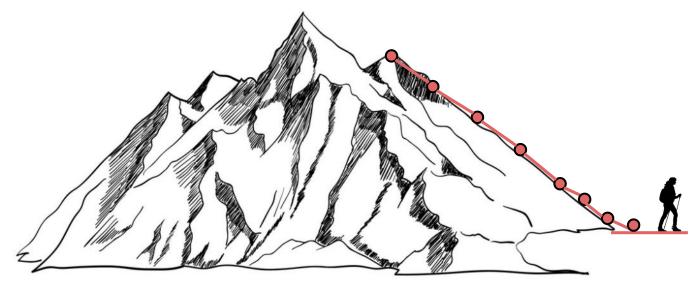












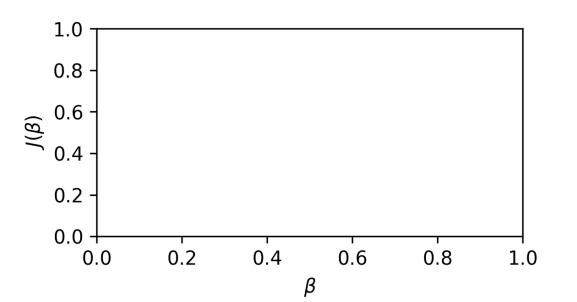




- This is exactly what gradient descent does!
- It even looks similar for the case of a single coefficient search.



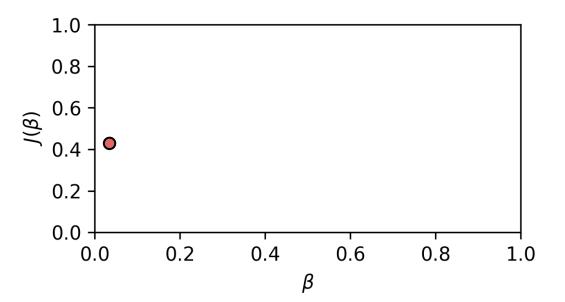
1 dimensional cost function (single Beta)







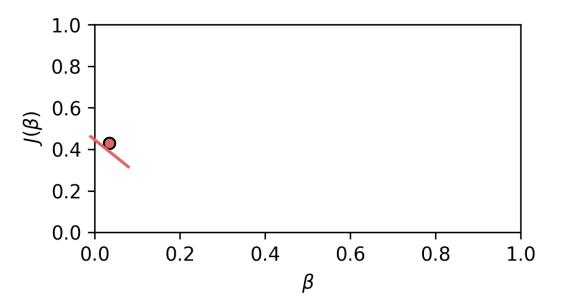
Choose a starting point







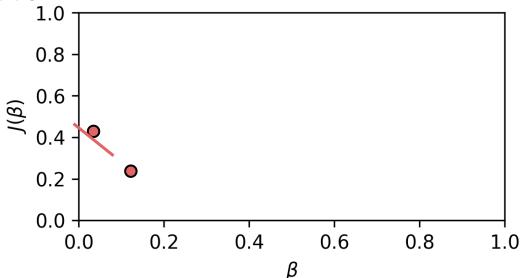
Calculate gradient at that point







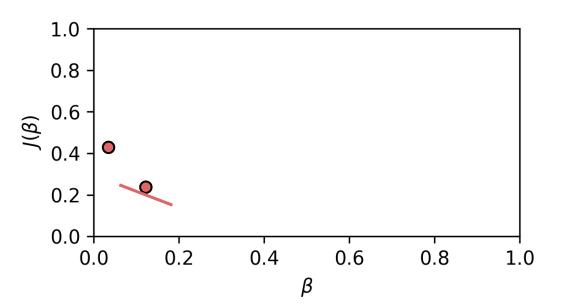
Step forward proportional to negative gradient







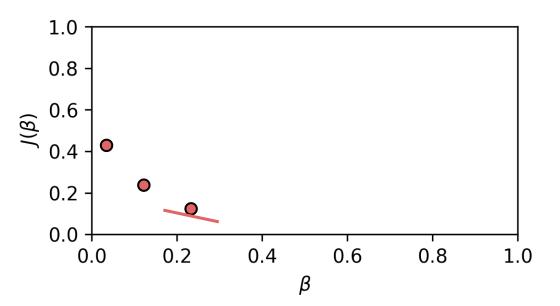
Repeat the steps







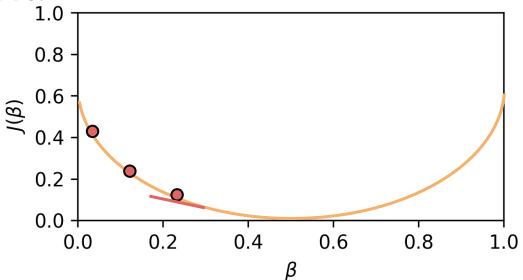
Repeat the steps







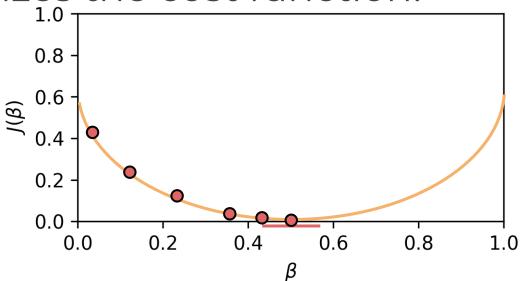
Note how we are essentially mapping the gradient!







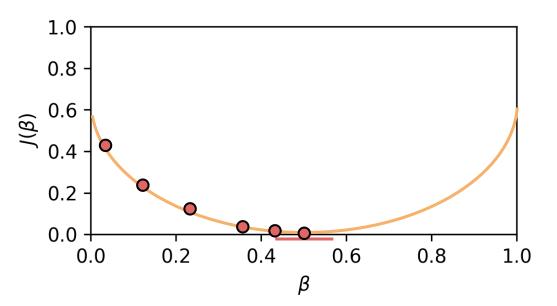
 Eventually we will find the Beta that minimizes the cost function!







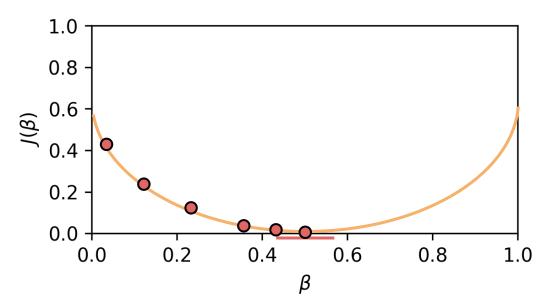
Steps are proportional to negative gradient!







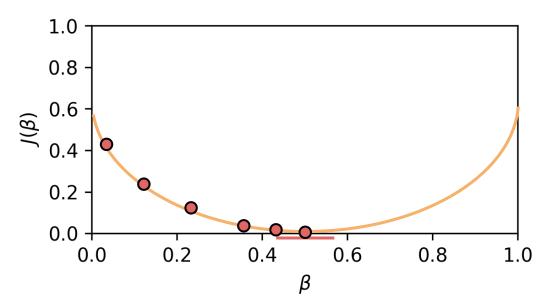
Steeper gradient at start gives larger steps.







Smaller gradient at end gives smaller steps.



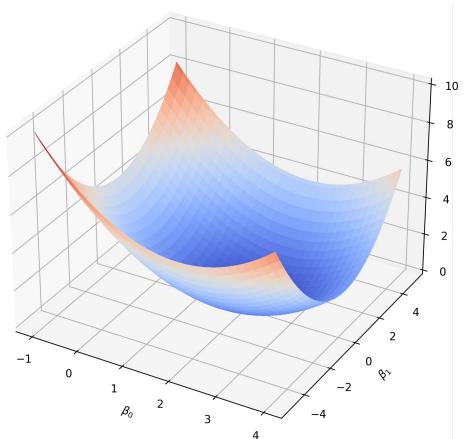




- To further understand this, let's visualize this gradient descent search for two Beta values.
- Process is still the same:
  - Calculate gradient at point.
  - Move in a step size proportional to negative gradient.
  - o Repeat until minimum is found.

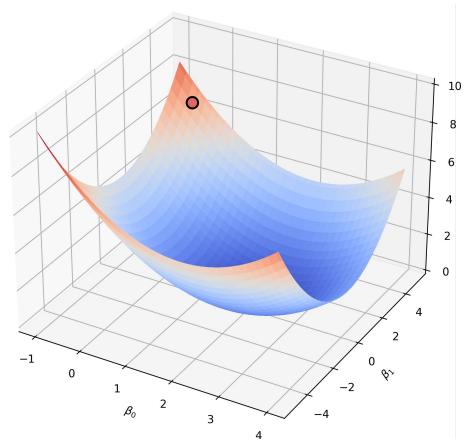






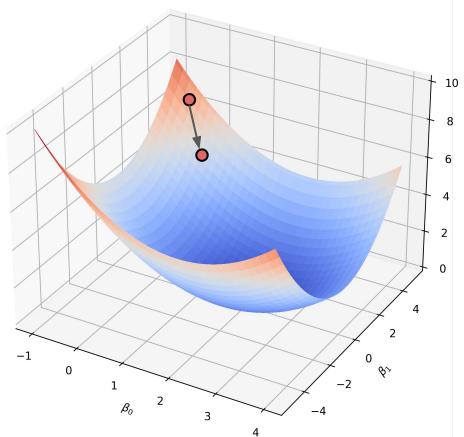






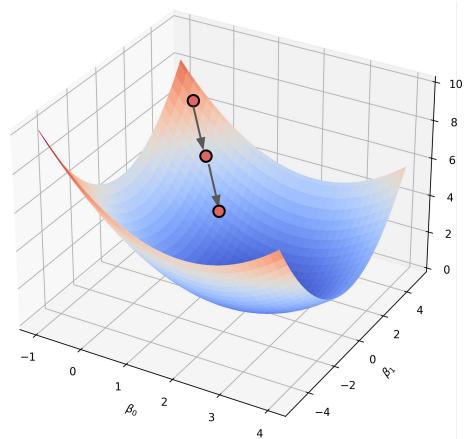






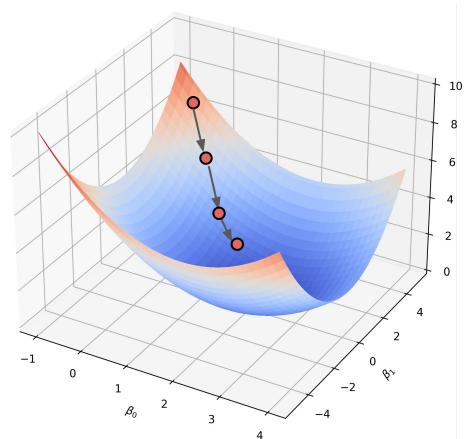






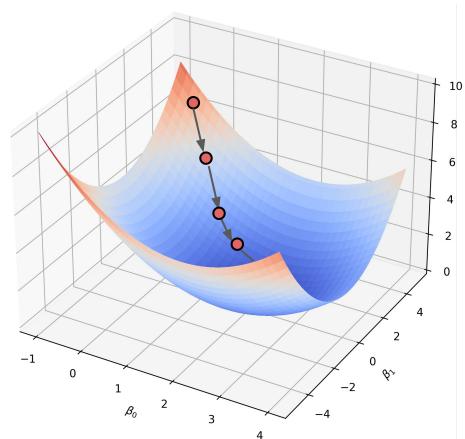






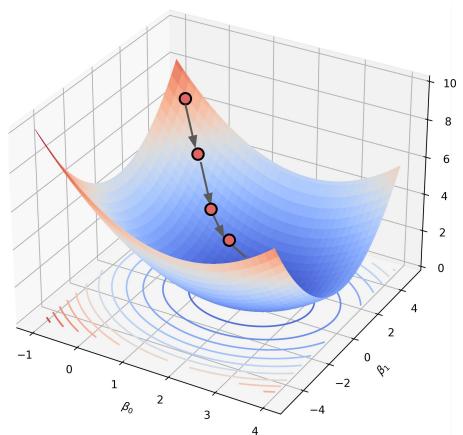




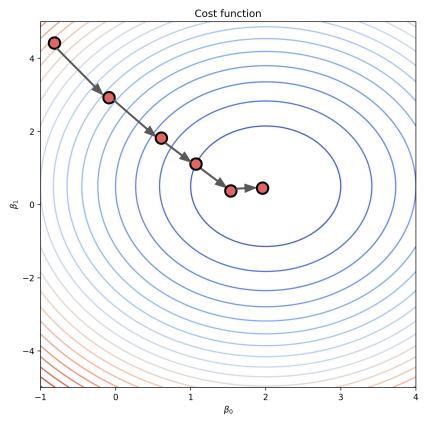
















- Finally! We can now leverage all our computational power to find optimal Beta coefficients that minimize the cost function producing the line of best fit!
- We are now ready to code out Linear Regression!





# Simple Linear Regression





 Now that we understand what is happening "under the hood" for linear regression, let's begin by coding through an example of simple linear regression.



- To help with our understanding, we will start by directly using the advertising data set mentioned in Chapter 3 of ISLR.
- This lecture also serves to start motivating us to think about performance evaluation and multivariate regression.





- Simple Linear Regression
  - Limited to one X feature (y=mx+b)
  - We will create a best-fit line to map out a linear relationship between total advertising spend and resulting sales.
  - Let's head over to the notebook!





### Scikit-Learn Overview



- We've seen NumPy had some built in capabilities for simple linear regression, but when it comes to more complex models, we'll need Scikit-Learn!
- Before we jump straight into machine learning with **Scikit-Learn** and Python, let's understand the philosophy behind **sklearn**.





- Scikit-learn is a library containing many machine learning algorithms.
- It utilizes a generalized "estimator API" framework to calling the models.
- This means the way algorithms are imported, fitted, and used is uniform across all algorithms.





- This allows users to easily swap algorithms in and out and test various approaches.
- Important Note:
  - This uniform framework also means users can easily apply almost any algorithm effectively without truly understanding what the algorithm is doing!





- Scikit-learn also comes with many convenience tools, including train test split functions, cross validation tools, and a variety of reporting metric functions.
- This leaves Scikit-Learn as a "one-stop shop" for many of our machine learning needs.





- Philosophy of Scikit-Learn
  - Scikit-Learn's approach to model building focuses on applying models and performance metrics.
  - This is a more pragmatic industry style approach rather than an academic approach of describing the model and its parameters.





- Philosophy of Scikit-Learn
  - Academic users used to R style reporting may also want to explore the statsmodels python library if interested in more statistical description of models such as significance levels.



- Let's quickly review the framework of Scikit-Learn for the supervised machine learning process.
- We will quickly see how the code directly relates to the process theory!





 Recall that we will perform a Train | Test split for supervised learning.



**TRAIN** 

**TEST** 

Area m <sup>2</sup>	Bedrooms	Bathrooms	Price
200	3	2	\$500,000
190	2	1	\$450,000
230	3	3	\$650,000
180	1	1	\$400,000
210	2	2	\$550,000





#### Supervised Machine Learning Process

 Also recall there are 4 main components after a Train | Test split:

	Area m <sup>2</sup>	Bedrooms	Bathrooms	Price	
	200	3	2	\$500,000	
X TRAIN	190	2	1	\$450,000	Y TRAIN
	230	3	3	\$650,000	
X TEST	180	1	1	\$400,000	Y TEST
	210	2	2	\$550,000	





 Scikit-Learn easily does this split (as well as more advanced cross-validation)



**TRAIN** 

**TEST** 

Area m <sup>2</sup>	Bedrooms	Bathrooms	Price
200	3	2	\$500,000
190	2	1	\$450,000
230	3	3	\$650,000
180	1	1	\$400,000
210	2	2	\$550,000





from sklearn.model\_selection import train\_test\_split

X\_train, X\_test, y\_train, y\_test = train\_test\_split(X, y)





 Also recall that we want to compare predictions to the y test labels.



Predictions	Area m <sup>2</sup>	Bedrooms	Bathrooms	Price
\$410,000	180	1	1	\$400,000
\$540,000	210	2	2	\$550,000





from sklearn.model\_family import ModelAlgo





from sklearn.model\_family import ModelAlgo
mymodel = ModelAlgo(param1,param2)





from sklearn.model\_family import ModelAlgo
mymodel = ModelAlgo(param1,param2)
mymodel.fit(X\_train,y\_train)





from sklearn.model\_family import ModelAlgo
mymodel = ModelAlgo(param1,param2)
mymodel.fit(X\_train,y\_train)
predictions = mymodel.predict(X\_test)





from sklearn.model\_family import ModelAlgo
mymodel = ModelAlgo(param1,param2)
mymodel.fit(X\_train,y\_train)
predictions = mymodel.predict(X\_test)

from sklearn.metrics import error\_metric





```
from sklearn.model_family import ModelAlgo
mymodel = ModelAlgo(param1,param2)
mymodel.fit(X_train,y_train)
predictions = mymodel.predict(X_test)
```

from sklearn.metrics import error\_metric
performance = error\_metric(y\_test,predictions)





- This framework will be similar for any supervised machine learning algorithm.
- Let's begin exploring it further with Linear Regression!





## Linear Regression with Scikit-Learn

Part One:

Data Setup and Model Training





- Previously, we explored "Is there a relationship between total advertising spend and sales?"
- Now we want to expand this to "What is the relationship between each advertising channel (TV,Radio,Newspaper) and sales?"





#### Performance Evaluation

Regression Metrics





- Now that we have a fitted model that can perform predictions based on features, how do we decide if those predictions are any good?
- Fortunately we have the known test labels to compare our results to.



- Let's take a moment now to discuss evaluating Regression Models
- Regression is a task when a model attempts to predict continuous values (unlike categorical values, which is classification)





- For example, attempting to predict the price of a house given its features is a regression task.
- Attempting to predict the country a house is in given its features would be a classification task.



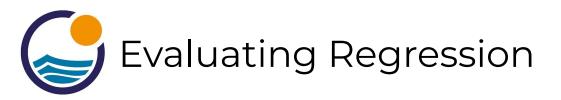
- You may have heard of some evaluation metrics like accuracy or recall.
- These sort of metrics aren't useful for regression problems, we need metrics designed for continuous values!





- Let's discuss some of the most common evaluation metrics for regression:
  - Mean Absolute Error
  - Mean Squared Error
  - Root Mean Square Error





 The metrics shown here apply to any regression task, not just Linear Regression!

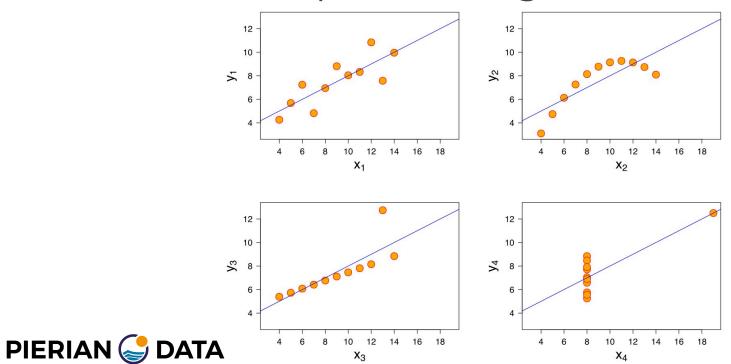


- Mean Absolute Error (MAE)
  - This is the mean of the absolute value of errors.
  - Easy to understand

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}|y_{i}-\mathring{y}_{i}|$$

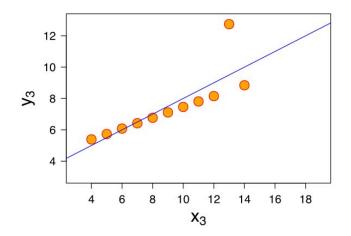


MAE won't punish large errors however.



### Evaluating Regression

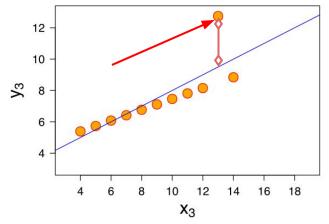
MAE won't punish large errors however.



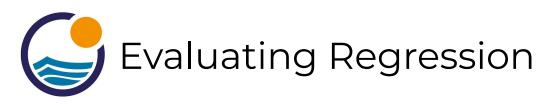




 We want our error metrics to account for these!







- Mean Squared Error (MSE)
  - o Issue with MSE:
    - Different units than y.
    - It reports units of y squared!

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$



- Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)
  - This is the root of the mean of the squared errors.
  - Most popular (has same units as y)

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_{i}-\hat{y}_{i})^{2}}$$



- Most common question from students:
  - "What is a good value for RMSE?"
  - Context is everything!
  - A RMSE of \$10 is fantastic for predicting the price of a house, but horrible for predicting the price of a candy bar!



- Compare your error metric to the average value of the label in your data set to try to get an intuition of its overall performance.
- Domain knowledge also plays an important role here!





- Context of importance is also necessary to consider.
  - We may create a model to predict how much medication to give, in which case small fluctuations in RMSE may actually be very significant.



- Context of importance is also necessary to consider.
  - If we create a model to try to improve on existing human performance, we would need some baseline RMSE to compare to.



 Let's quickly jump back to the notebook and calculate these metrics with SciKit-Learn!



## **Evaluating Residuals**

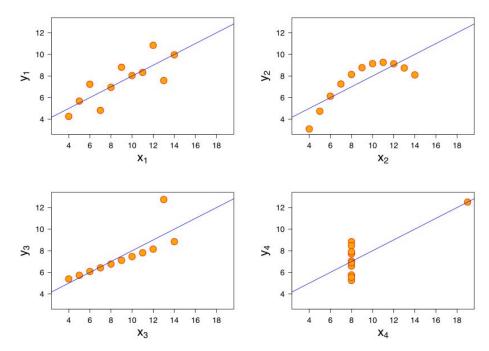




- Often for Linear Regression it is a good idea to separately evaluate residuals (y-ŷ) and not just calculate performance metrics (e.g. RMSE).
- Let's explore why this is important...



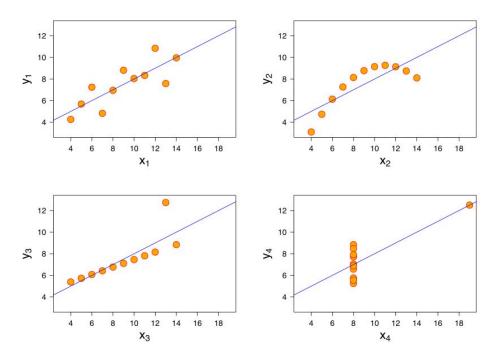
Recall Anscombe's quartet:







Clearly Linear Regression is not suitable!



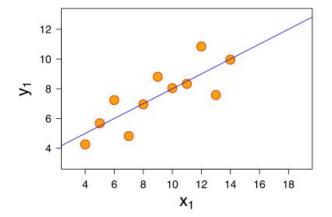




- But how can we tell if we're dealing with more than one x feature?
- We can not see this discrepancy of fit visually if we have multiple features!



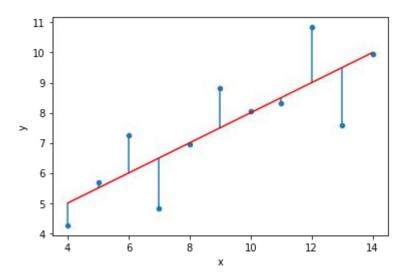
- What we could do is plot residual error against true y values.
- Consider an appropriate data set:



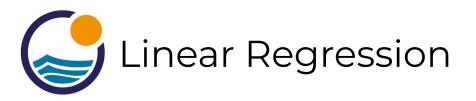




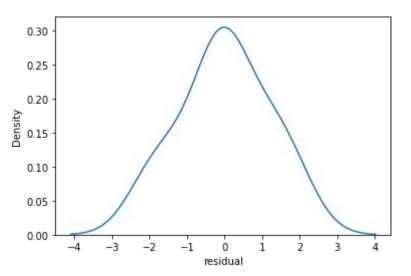
 The residual errors should be random and close to a normal distribution.







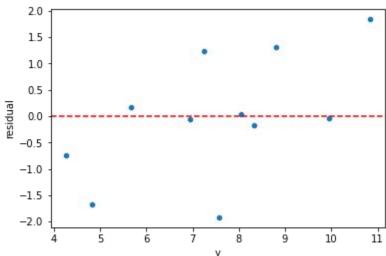
 The residual errors should be random and close to a normal distribution.







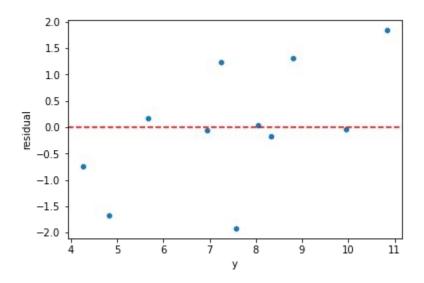
 Residual plot shows residual error vs. true y value.







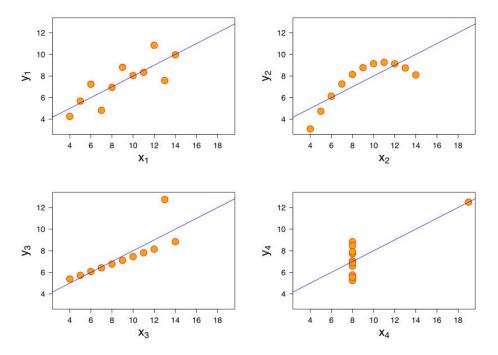
There should be no clear line or curve.







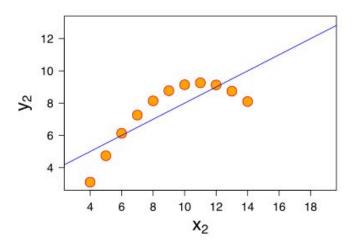
What about non valid datasets?







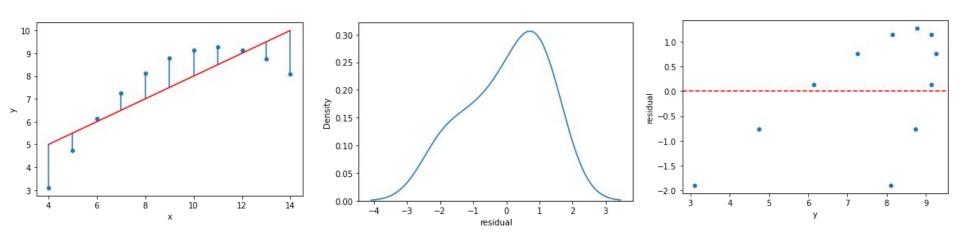
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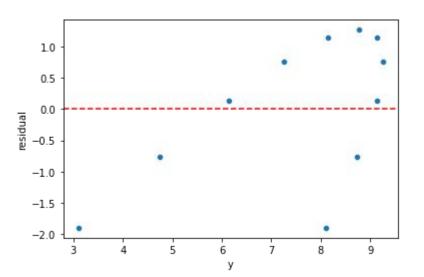
 Residual plot showing a clear pattern, indicating Linear Regression no valid!







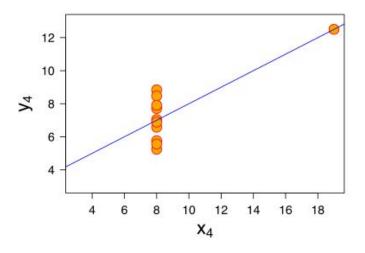
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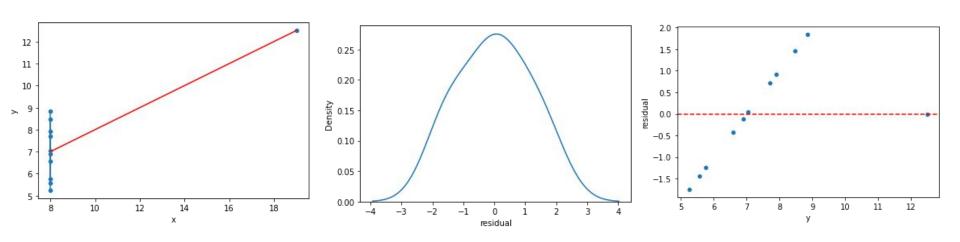
What about non valid datasets?







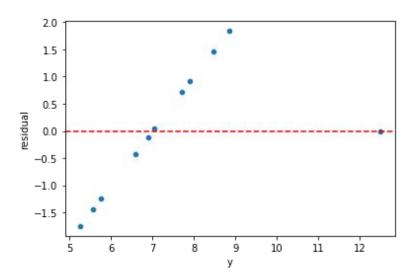
 Residual plot showing a clear pattern, indicating Linear Regression no valid!







 Residual plot showing a clear pattern, indicating Linear Regression no valid!







 Let's explore creating these plots with Python and our model results!



## **Model Deployment**

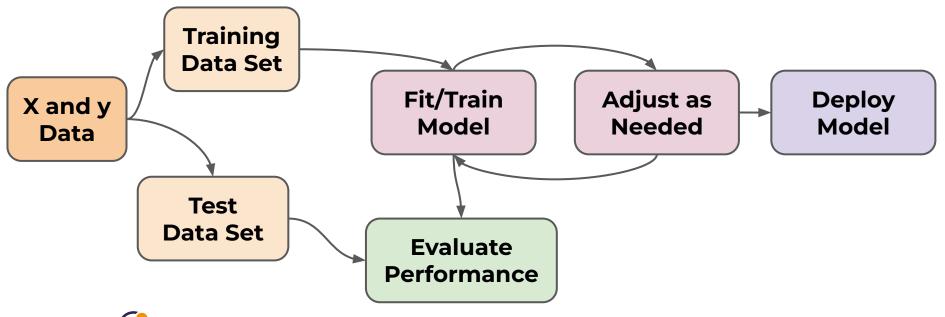




- We're almost done with our first machine learning run through!
- Let's quickly review what we've done so far in the ML process.



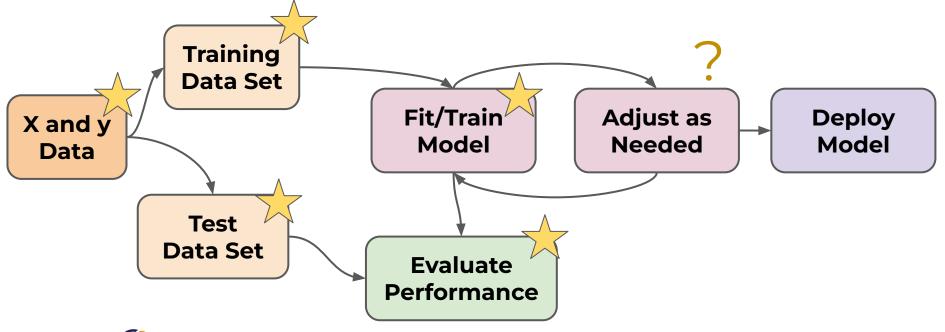
Recall the Supervised ML Process







Recall the Supervised ML Process







- Later on we will explore polynomial regression and regularization as model adjustments.
- For now, let's focus on a simple "deployment" of our model by saving and loading it, then applying to new data.



## **Polynomial Regression**

Theory and Motivation





- We just completed a Linear Regression task, allowing us to predict future label values given a set of features!
- How can we now improve on a Linear Regression model?
- One approach is to consider higher order relationships on the features.



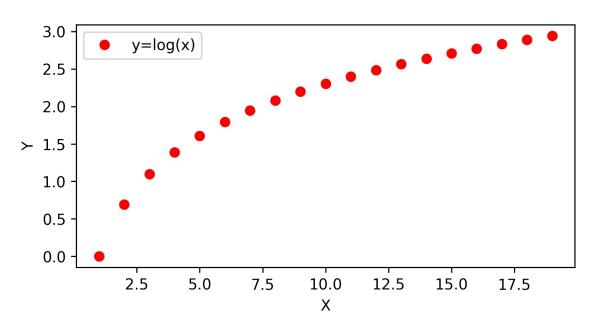


- There are two issues polynomial regression will address for us:
  - Non-linear feature relationships to label
  - Interaction terms between features
- Let's first explore non-linear relationships and how considering polynomial orders could help address this.





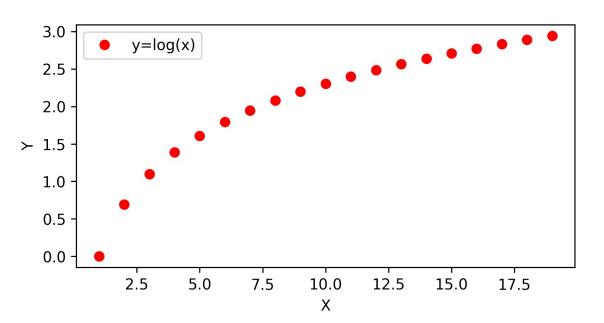
Imagine a feature that is not linear:







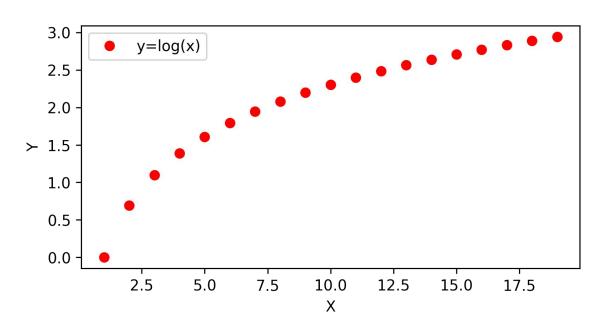
We know log(x) is not a linear relationship.







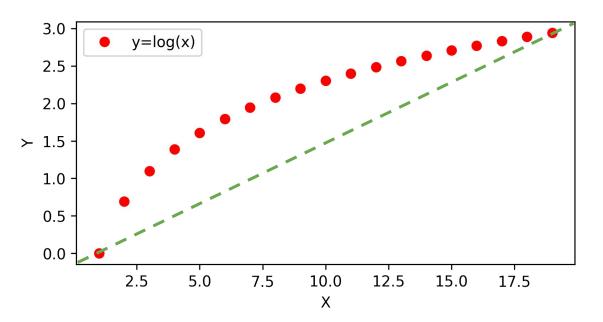
What is a feature X behaved like log(x)?







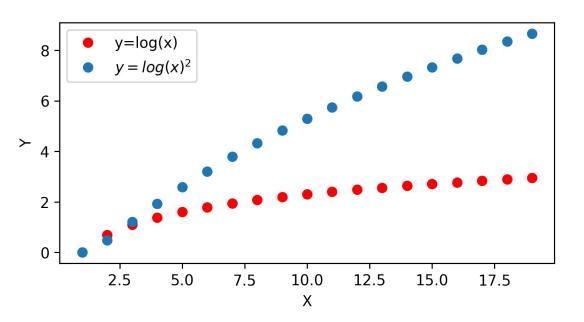
Will be difficult to find a linear relationship







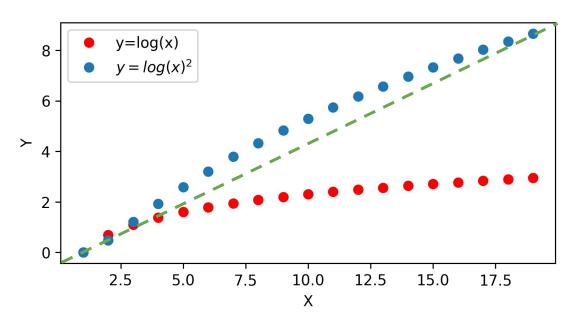
What about the square of this feature?







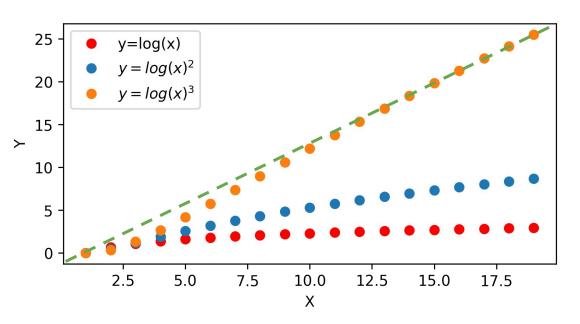
Relationship could be more linear.







Even more so for higher orders!







- Keep in mind this is an exaggerated example, and not every feature will have relationships at a higher order.
- The main point here is to show it could be reasonable to solve for a single linear Beta coefficient for polynomial of an original feature.



- Let's now also consider interaction terms.
- What if features are only significant when in sync with one another?
- For example:
  - Perhaps newspaper advertising spend by itself is not effective, but greatly increases effectiveness if added to a TV advertising campaign.



- Consumers only watching a TV ad will create some sales, but consumers who watch TV and are later "reminded" through a newspaper ad could contribute even more sales than TV or newspaper alone!
- How can we check for this?



- Simplest way is to create a new feature that multiplies two existing features together to create an **interaction term.**
- We can keep the original features, and add on this interaction term.
- Fortunately Scikit-Learn does this for us easily through a **preprocessing** call.





- Scikit-Learn's preprocessing library contains many useful tools to apply to the original data set **before** model training.
- One tool is the PolynomialFeatures which automatically creates both higher order feature polynomials and the interaction terms between all feature combinations.

- The features created include:
  - The bias (the value of 1.0)
  - Values raised to a power for each degree (e.g. x^1, x^2, x^3, ...)
  - Interactions between all pairs of features (e.g. x1 \* x2, x1 \* x3, ...)



- Converting Two Features A and B
  - o 1, A, B, A<sup>2</sup>, AB, B<sup>2</sup>



- Converting Two Features A and B
  - o 1, A, B, A<sup>2</sup>, AB, B<sup>2</sup>
- Generalized terms of features X<sub>1</sub> and X<sub>2</sub>
  - $\circ$  1,  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ ,  $X_1^2$ ,  $X_1X_2$ ,  $X_2^2$



- Converting Two Features A and B
  - o 1, A, B, A<sup>2</sup>, AB, B<sup>2</sup>
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  - $\circ$  1,  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ ,  $X_1^2$ ,  $X_1X_2$ ,  $X_2^2$
- Example if row was X<sub>1</sub>=2 and X<sub>2</sub>=3
  - 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 9



 Let's explore how to perform polynomial regression with Scikit-Learn in the next lecture!



# **Polynomial Regression**

Creating Polynomial Features





# **Polynomial Regression**

Training and Evaluating Model





# **Bias-Variance Trade Off**

Overfitting versus Underfitting





- We have seen that a higher order polynomial model performs significantly better than a standard linear regression model.
- But how can we choose the optimal degree for the polynomial?
- What trade-offs are we to consider as we increase model complexity?





- In general, increasing model complexity in search for better performance leads to a Bias-Variance trade-off.
- We want to have a model that can generalize well to new unseen data, but can also account for variance and patterns in the known data.



- Extreme bias or extreme variance both lead to bad models.
- We can visualize this effect by considering a model that underfits (high bias) or a model that overfits (high variance).
- Let's start with a model that overfits to a dataset...



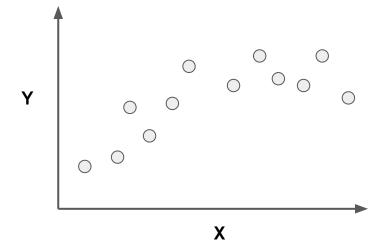


#### Overfitting

- The model fits too much to the noise from the data.
- This often results in low error on training sets but high error on test/validation sets.

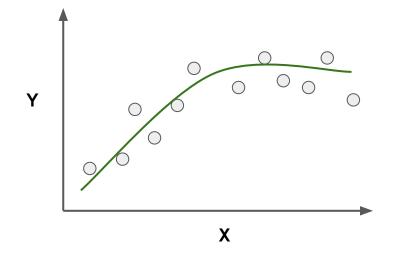


#### **Data**



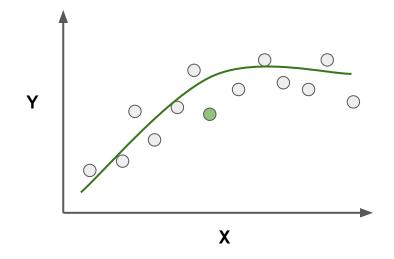


#### **Good Model**



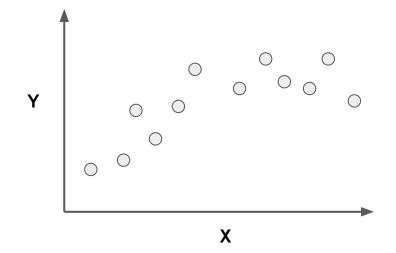


#### **Good Model**



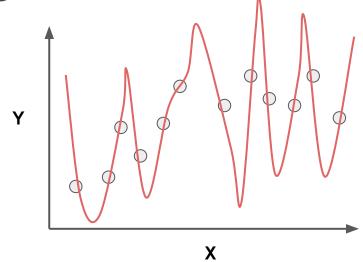


#### Overfitting



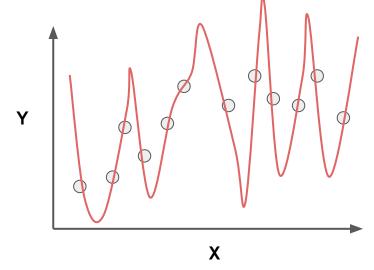


### Overfitting



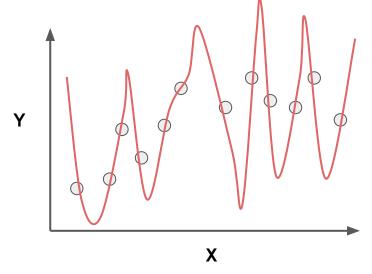


What is the error on the training data here?



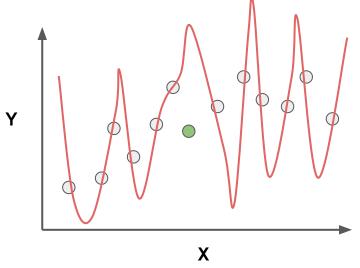


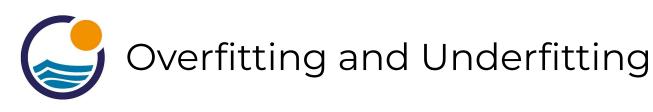
Error on train is zero! Model fits perfectly!



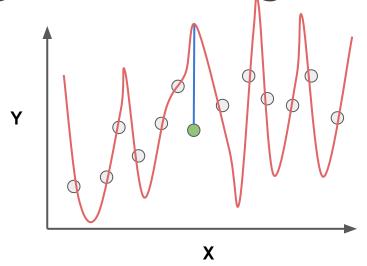


But what about on a new unseen data point?





Overfitting can cause large test errors!





#### Overfitting

- Model is fitting too much to noise and variance in the training data.
- Model will perform very well on training data, but have poor performance on new unseen data.



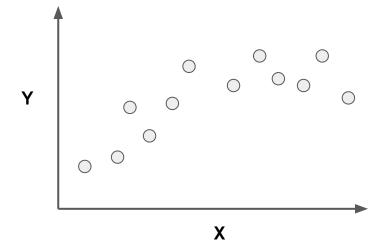
#### Underfitting

- Model does not capture the underlying trend of the data and does not fit the data well enough.
- Low variance but high bias.
- Underfitting is often a result of an excessively simple model.



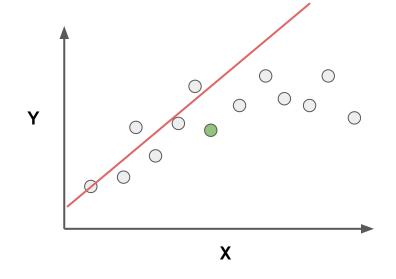


#### **Data**



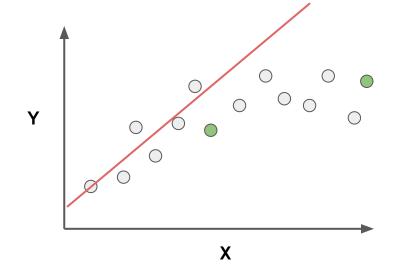


#### **Underfitting**





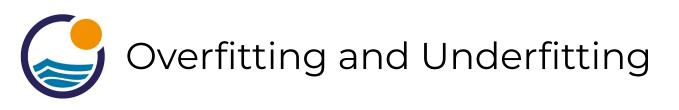
#### **Underfitting**





#### Underfitting

- Model has high bias and is generalizing too much.
- Underfitting can lead to poor performance in both training and testing data sets.



#### Overfitting versus Underfitting

 Overfitting can be harder to detect, since good performance on training data could lead to a model that appears to be performing well.

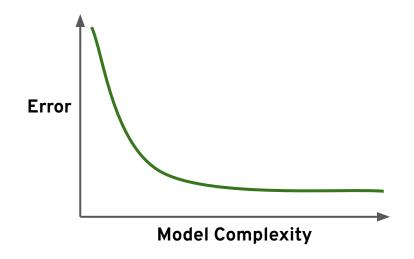




- This data was easy to visualize, but how can we see underfitting and overfitting when dealing with multi dimensional data sets?
- First let's imagine we trained a model and then measured its error versus model complexity (e.g. higher order polynomials).



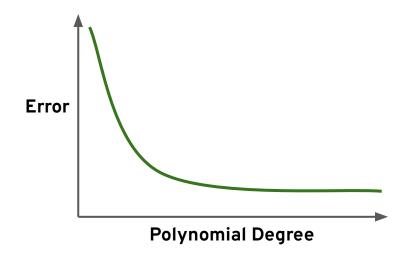
Good Model





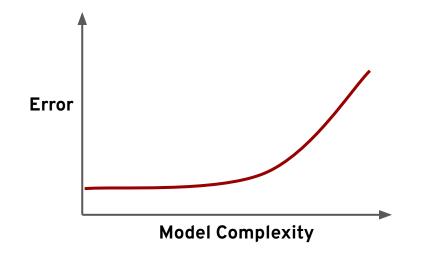


Good Model





Bad Model







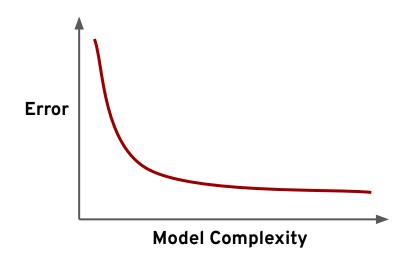
 When thinking about overfitting and underfitting we want to keep in mind the relationship of model performance on the training set versus the test/validation set.



Let's imagine we split our data into a training
 set and a test set



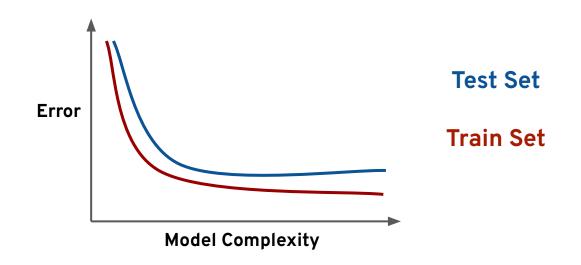
We first see performance on the training set







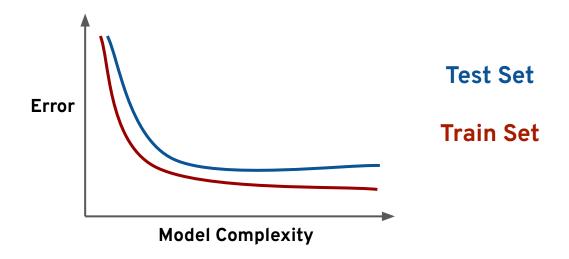
Next we check performance on the test set







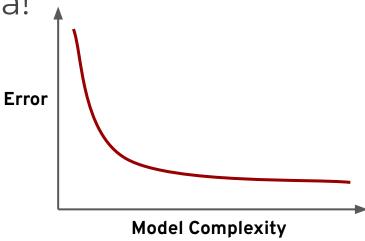
 Ideally the model would perform well on both, with similar behavior.







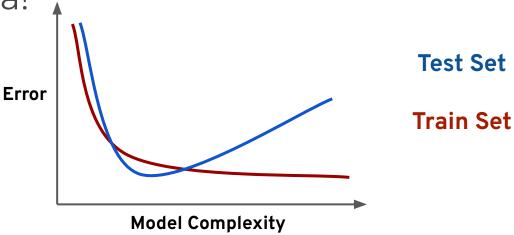
 But what happens if we overfit on the training data? That means we would perform poorly on new test data!







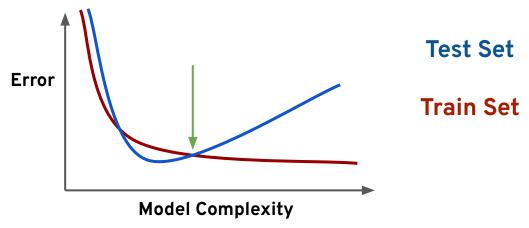
 But what happens if we overfit on the training data? That means we would perform poorly on new test data!







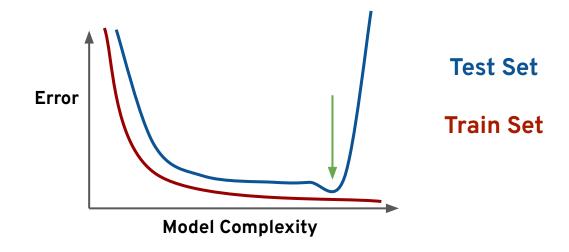
 This is a good indication too much complexity, you should look for the point to determine appropriate values!







 For certain algorithms this test error jump can be sudden instead of gradual.







 This means when deciding optimal model complexity and wanting to fairly evaluate our model's performance, we can consider both the train error and test error to select an ideal complexity.





• In the case of Polynomial Regression, complexity directly relates to degree of the polynomial, but many machine learning algorithms have their own hyperparameters that can increase complexity.





Let's explore this further in the next lecture!



# Polynomial Regression

Adjusting Model Parameters





- Let's explore choosing the optimal model complexity (order of polynomial).
- As we previously discussed, we will need to understand error for both training and test data to look out for potential overfitting.





# **Polynomial Regression**

Model Deployment





# Regularization

Theory





Section





# Regularization

Coding Implementations





Section





# Regularization

