

# DATA MINING 1

## Introduction Regression

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Contains edited slides from StatQuest



# Linear Regression


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# Regression

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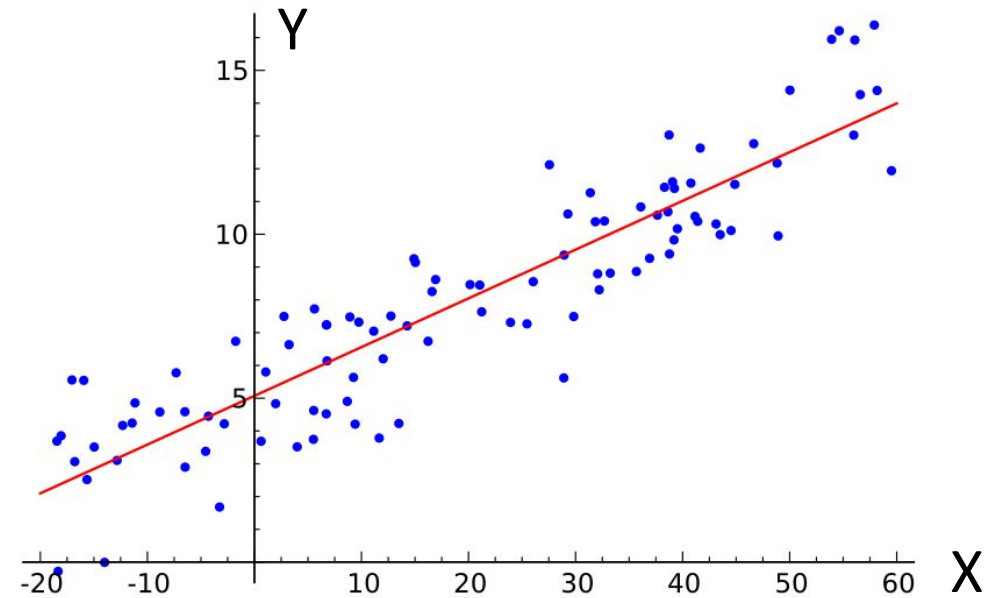
- Given a dataset containing  $N$  observations  $X_i, Y_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, N$
- **Regression** is the task of learning a target function  $f$  that maps each input attribute set  $X$  into an output  $Y$ .
- The goal is to find the target function that can fit the input data with minimum error.
- The error function can be expressed as
  - Absolute Error =  $\sum_i |y_i - f(x_i)|$
  - Squared Error =  $\sum_i (y_i - f(x_i))^2$

residuals



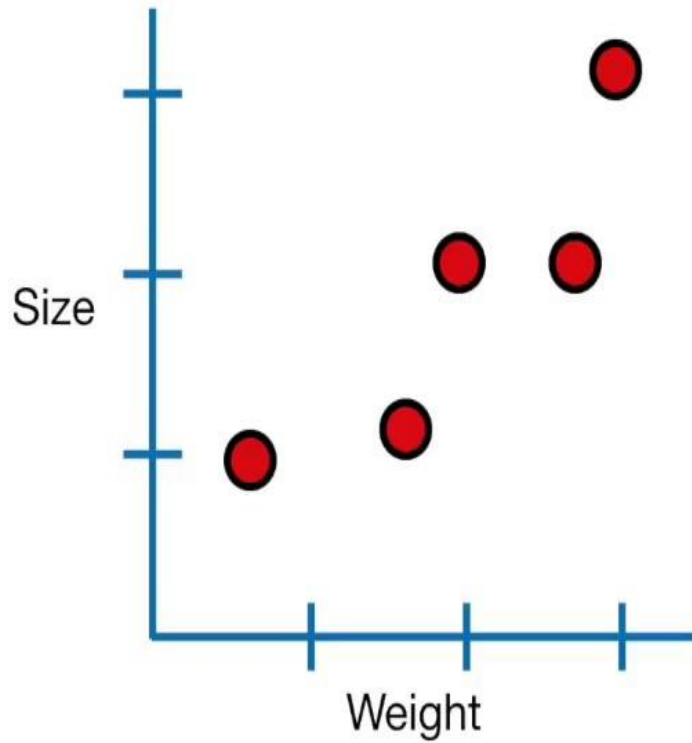
# Linear Regression

- **Linear regression** is a linear approach to modeling the relationship between a *dependent variable*  $Y$  and one or more *independent* (explanatory) variables  $X$ .
- The case of *one* explanatory variable is called **simple linear regression**.
- For *more than one* explanatory variable, the process is called **multiple linear regression**.
- For *multiple correlated dependent variables*, the process is called **multivariate linear regression**.

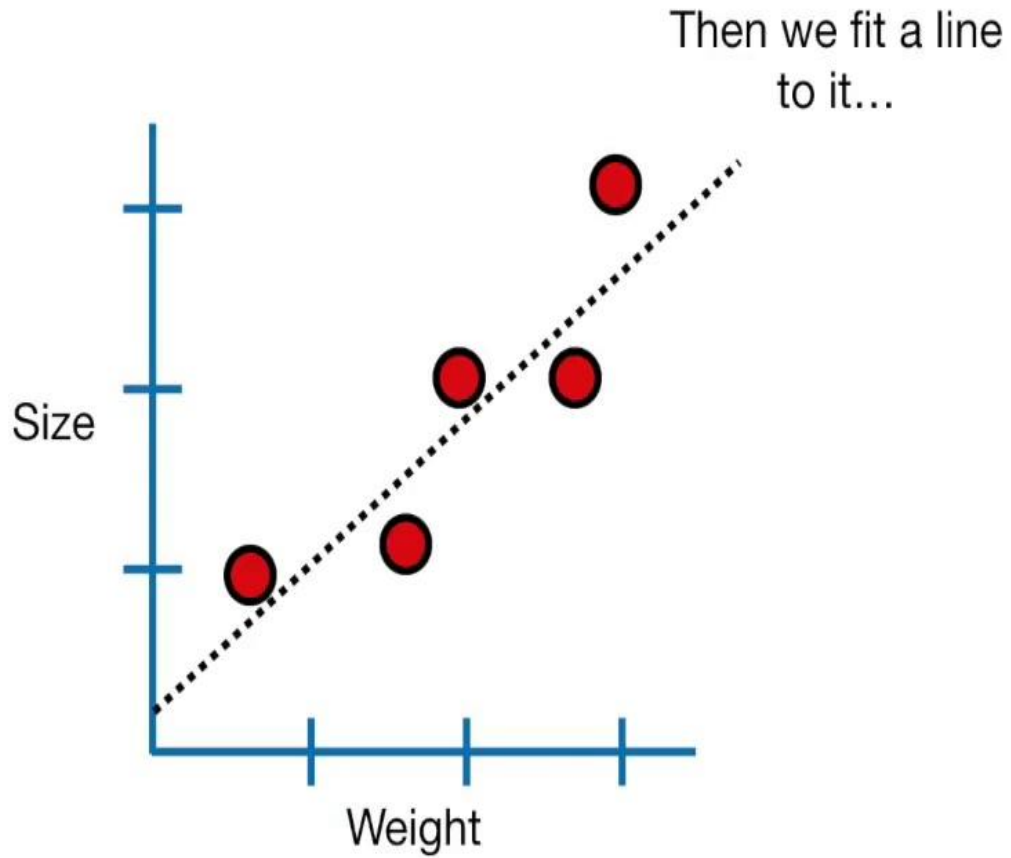


# What does it mean to predict Y?

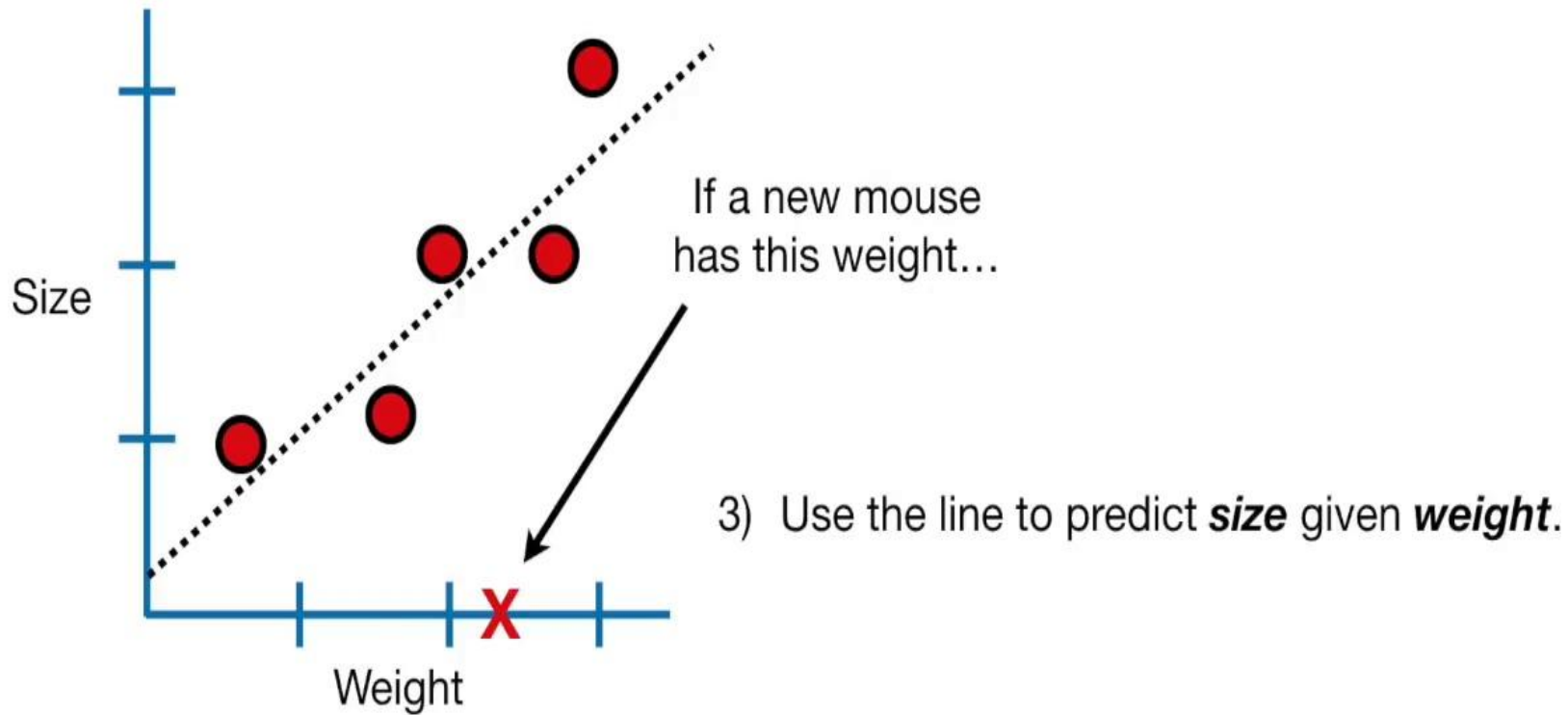
We had some data...



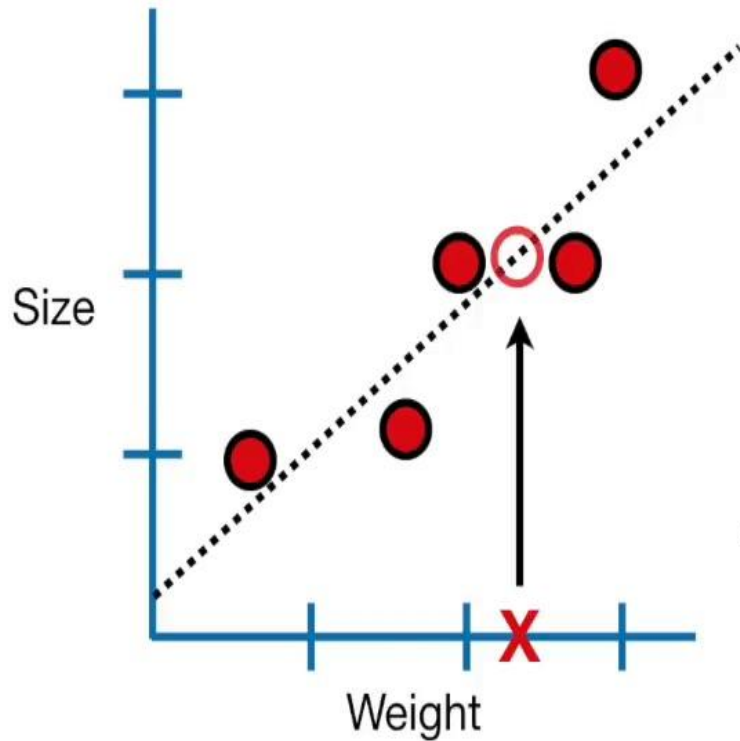
# What does it mean to predict Y?



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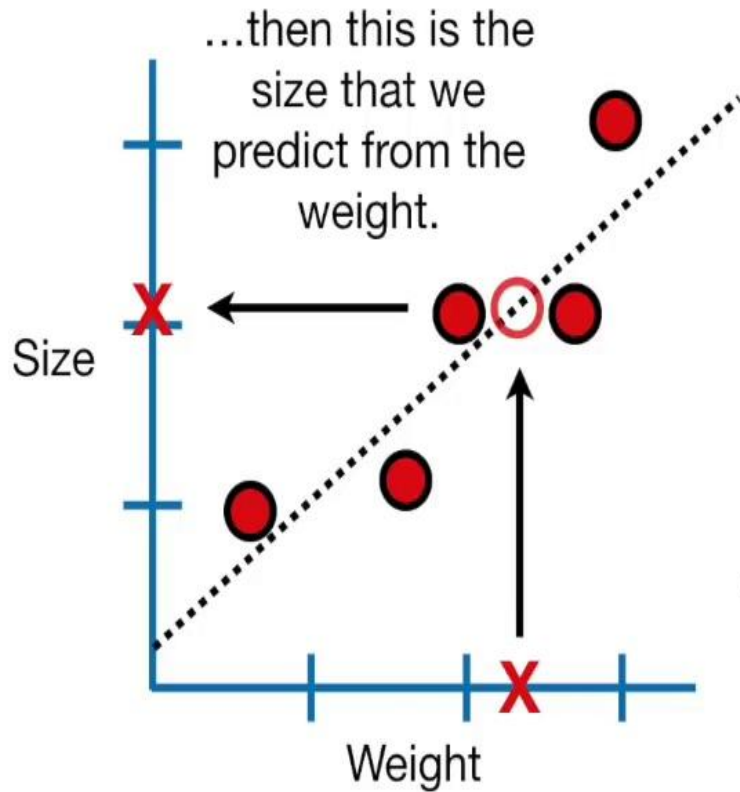
# What does it mean to predict Y?



3) Use the line to predict **size** given **weight**.



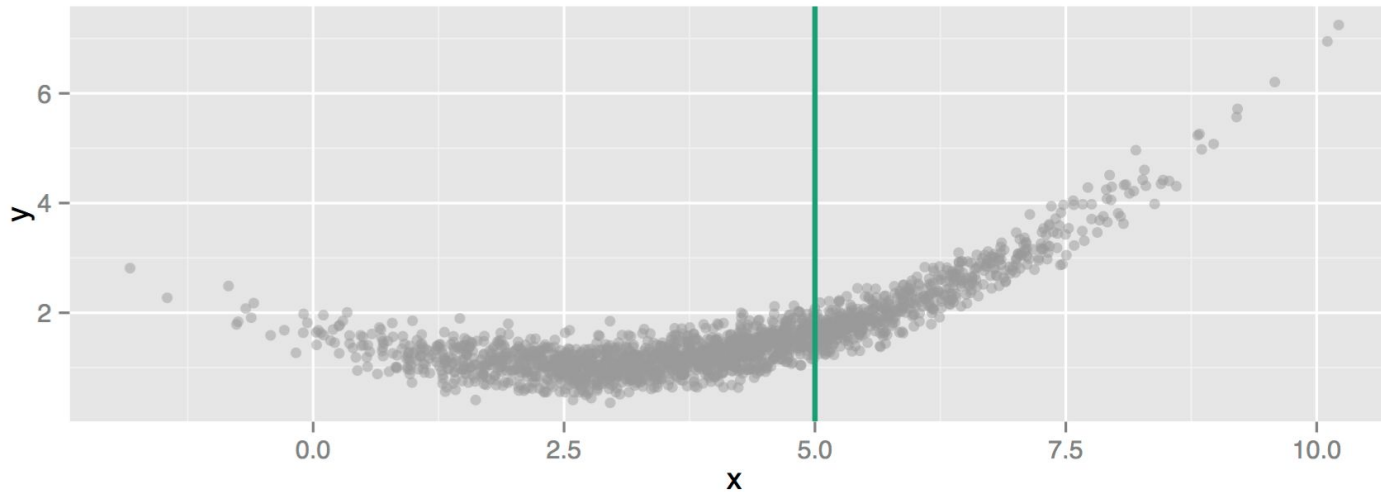
# What does it mean to predict Y?



3) Use the line to predict **size** given **weight**.

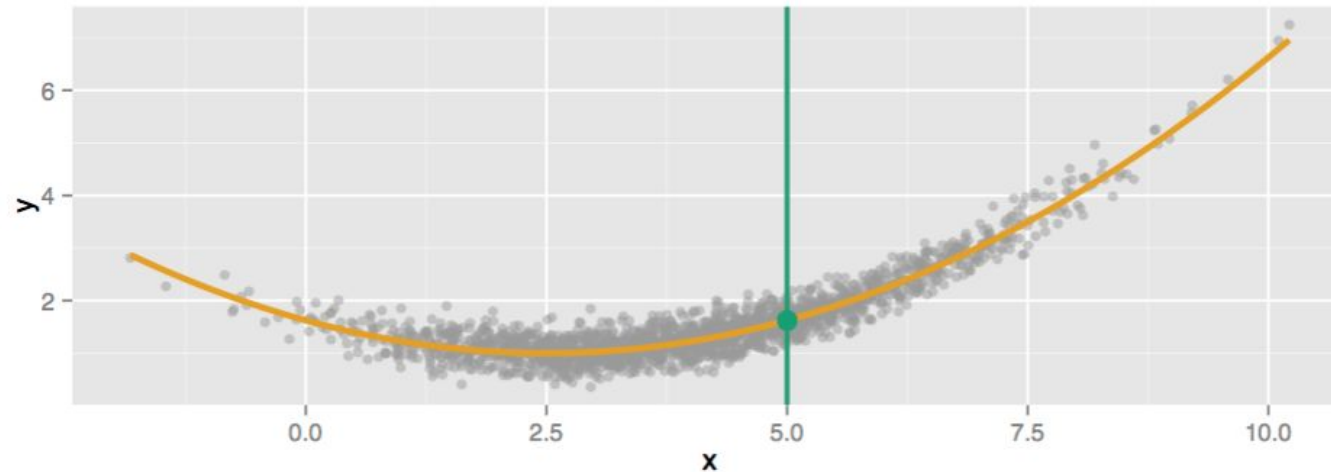
# What does it mean to predict $Y$ ?

- Look at  $X = 5$ . There are many different  $Y$  values at  $X=5$ .
- When we say predict  $Y$  at  $X = 5$ , we are really asking:
- What is the expected value (average) of  $Y$  at  $X = 5$ ?

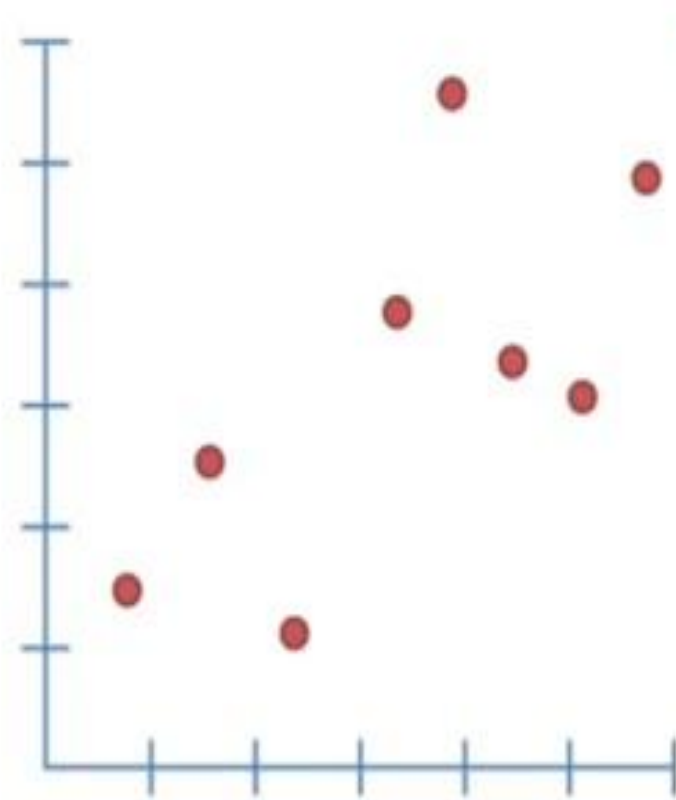


# What does it mean to predict Y?

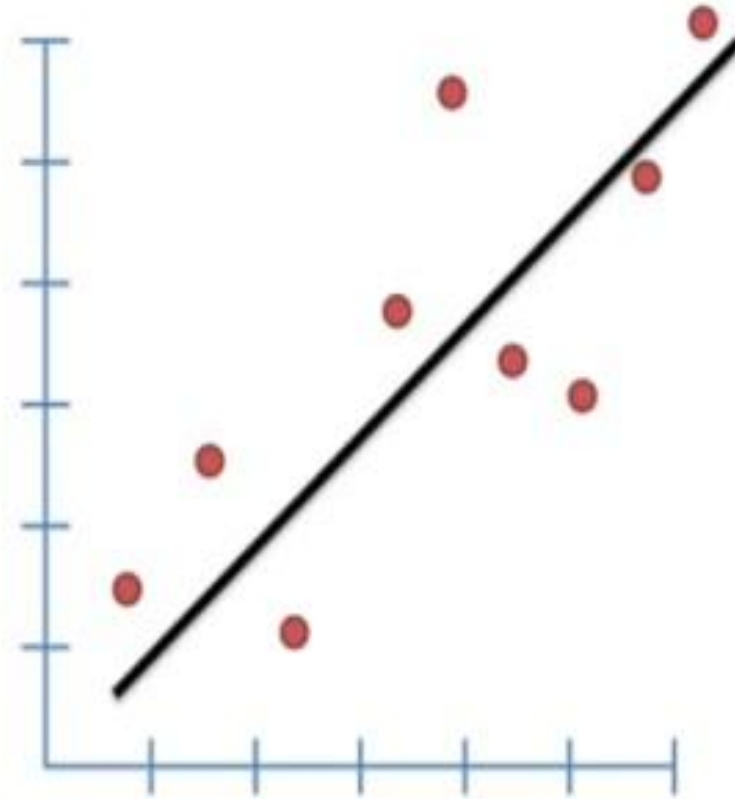
- Formally, the *regression function* is given by  $E(Y|X=x)$ . This is the expected value of Y at  $X=x$ .
- The ideal or optimal predictor of Y based on X is thus
  - $f(X) = E(Y | X=x)$



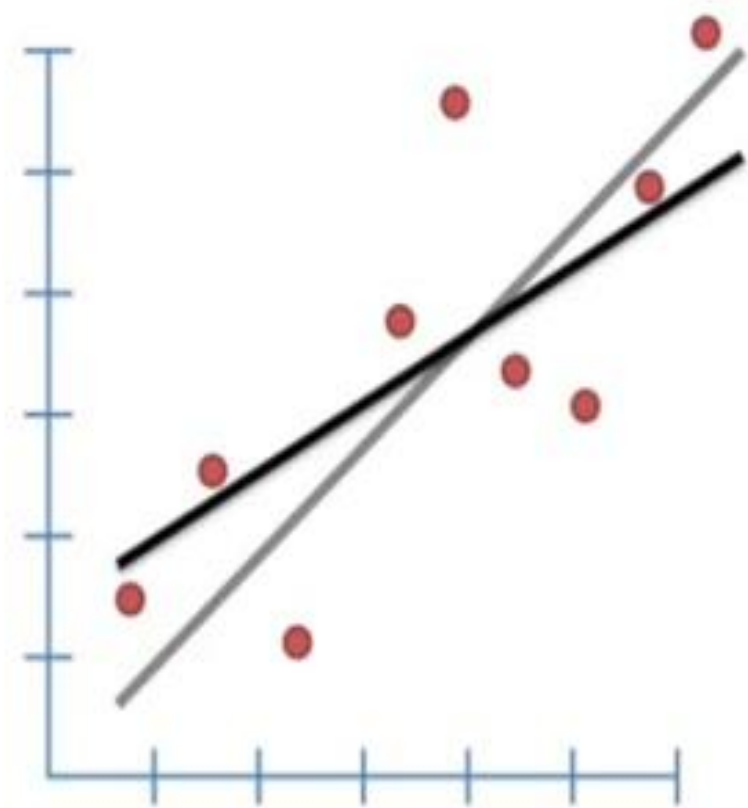
# Fitting a Line Example



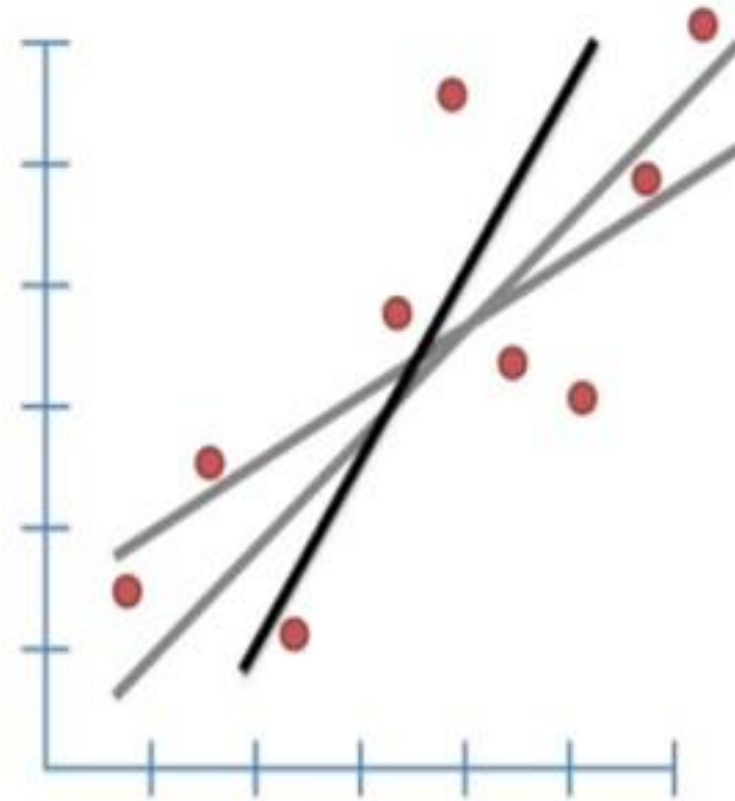
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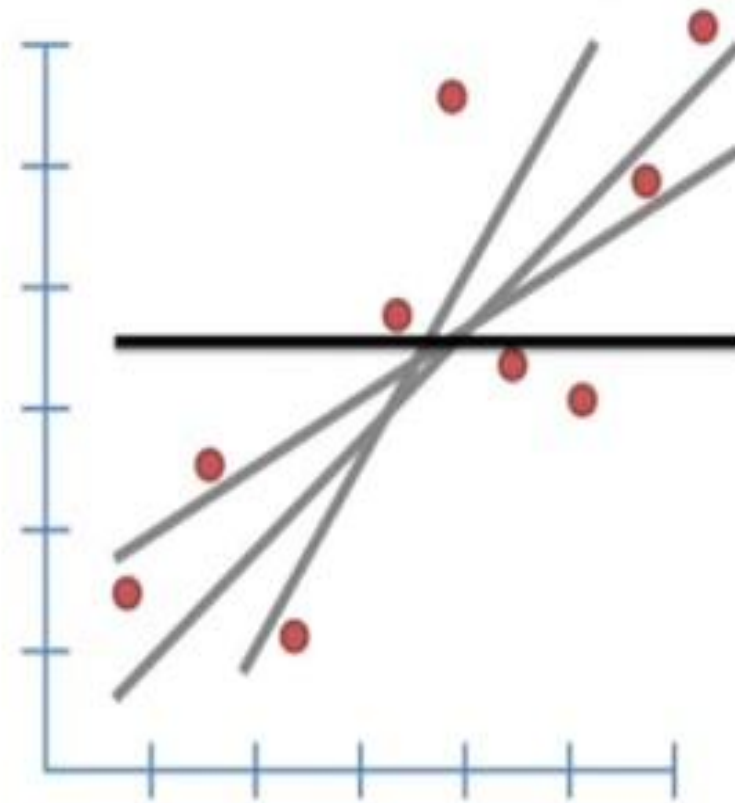
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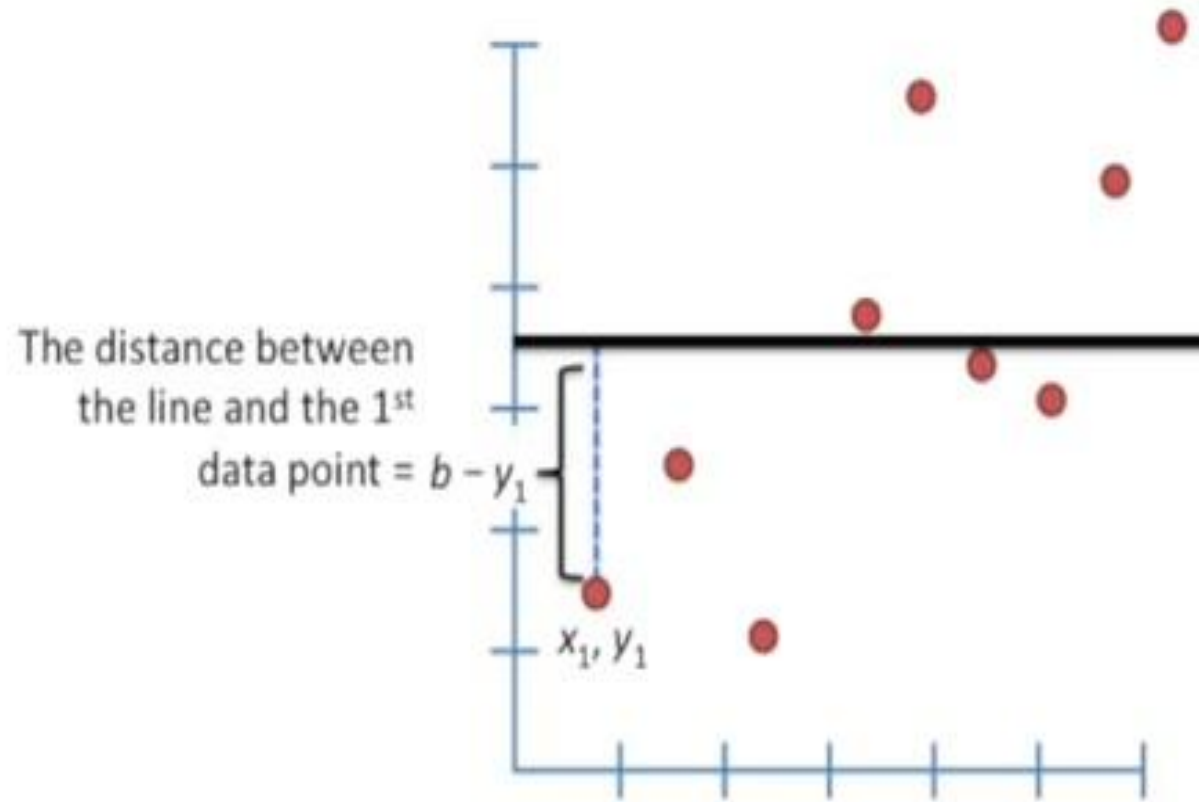


# Fitting a Line Example

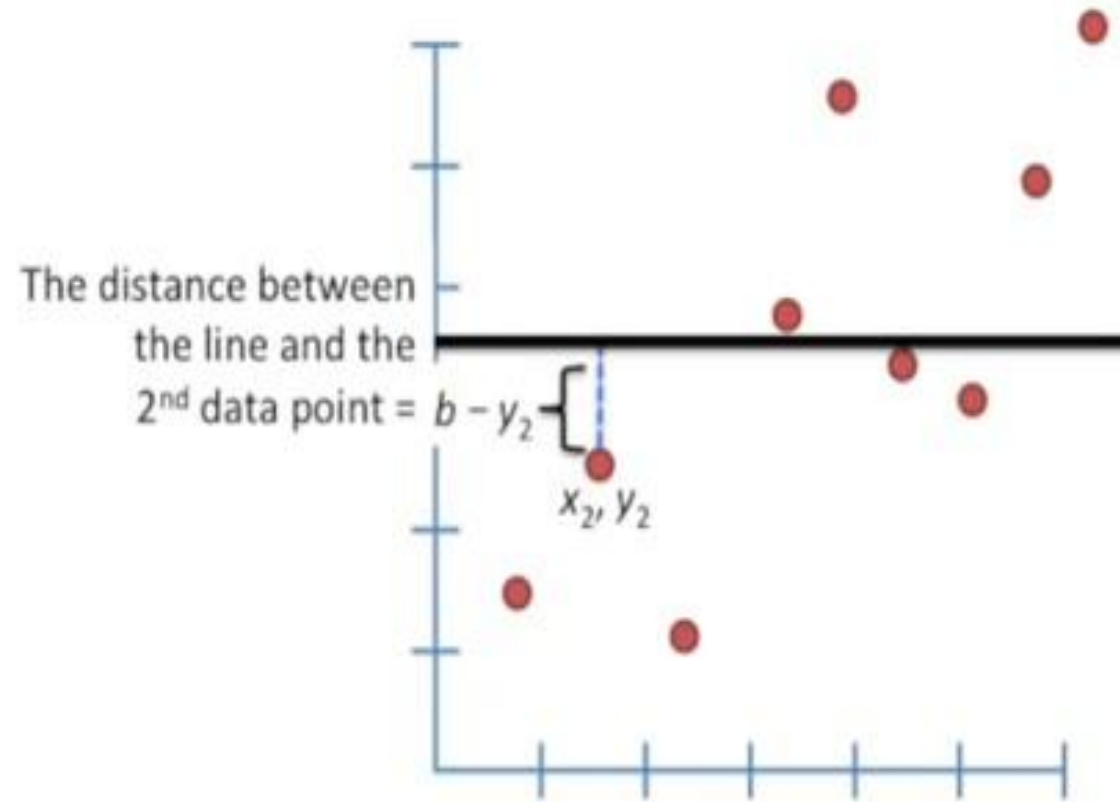




# Measuring Line Error



# Measuring Line Error



$$(b - y_1) + (b - y_2)$$

So far, the total distance between the data points and the line is the sum of the two distances.

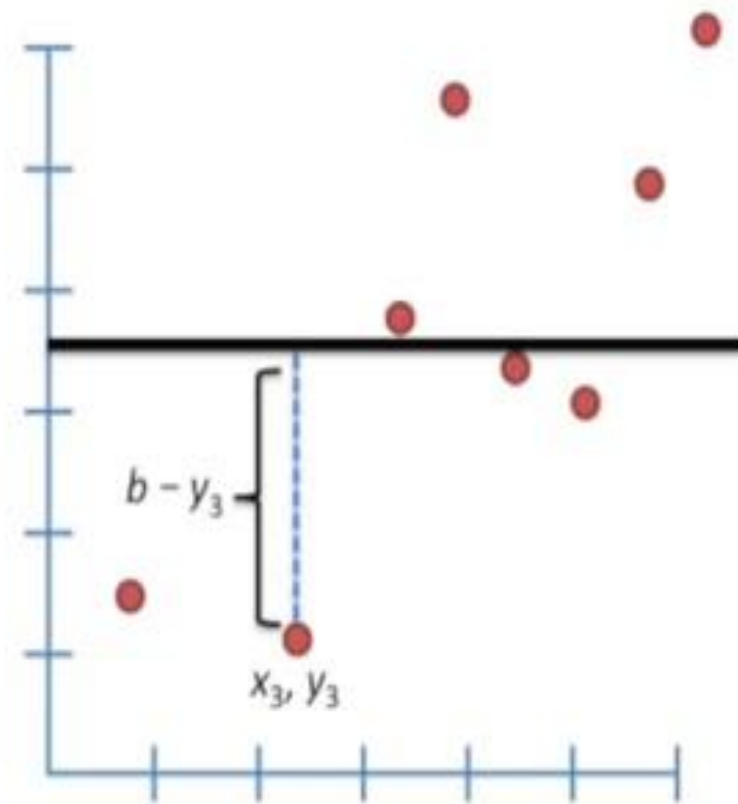
The distance between the line and the 2<sup>nd</sup> data point =

$$b - y_2$$

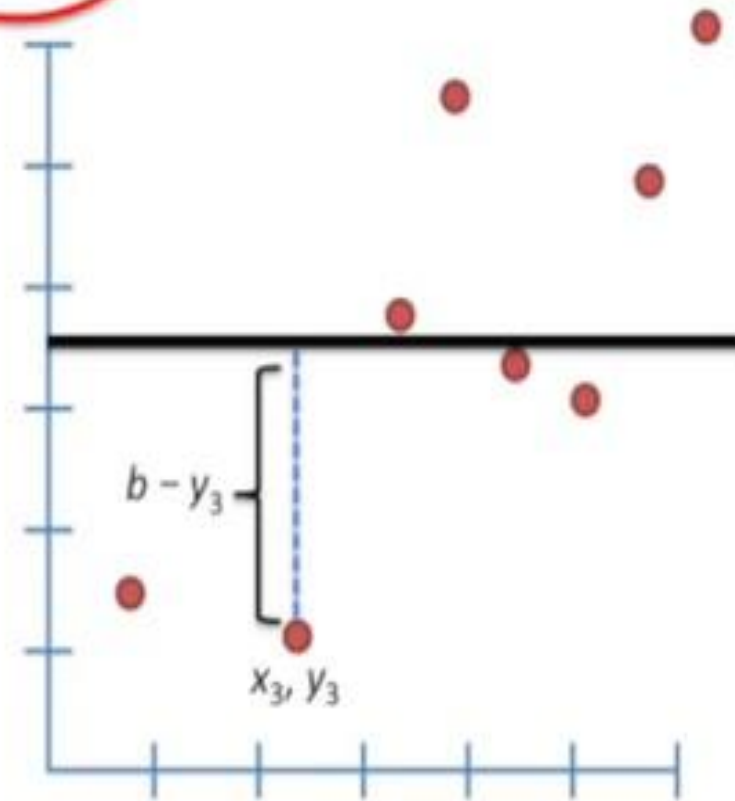
$x_2, y_2$



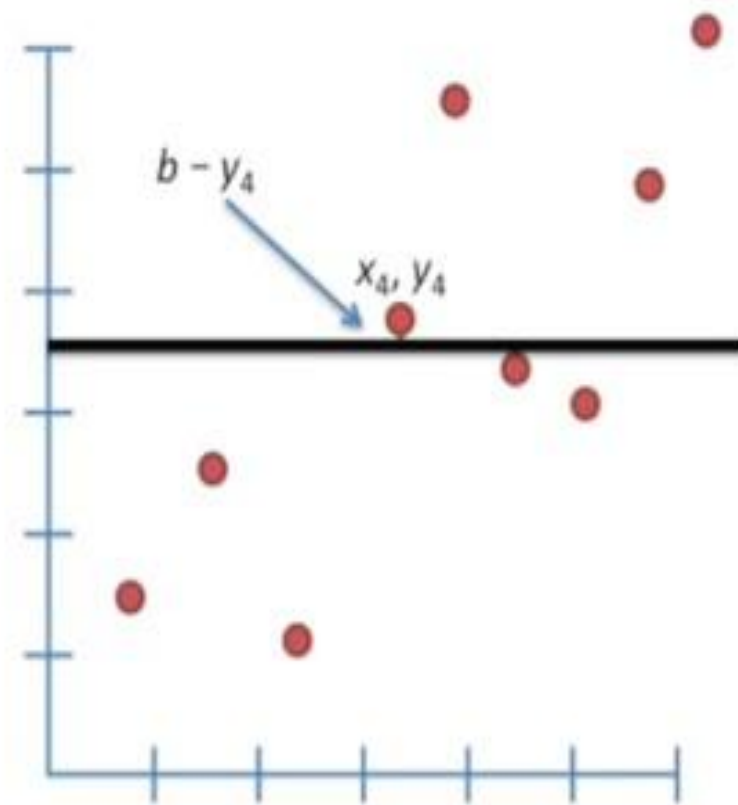
$$(b - y_1) + (b - y_2)$$



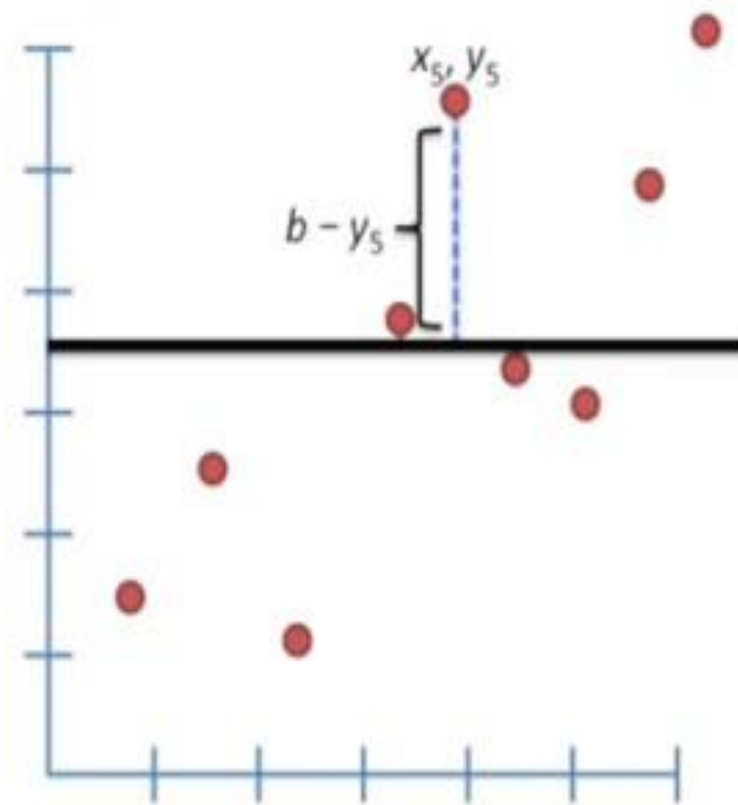
$(b - y_1) + (b - y_2) + (b - y_3)$  Now we've add the 3<sup>rd</sup> distance to our total sum.



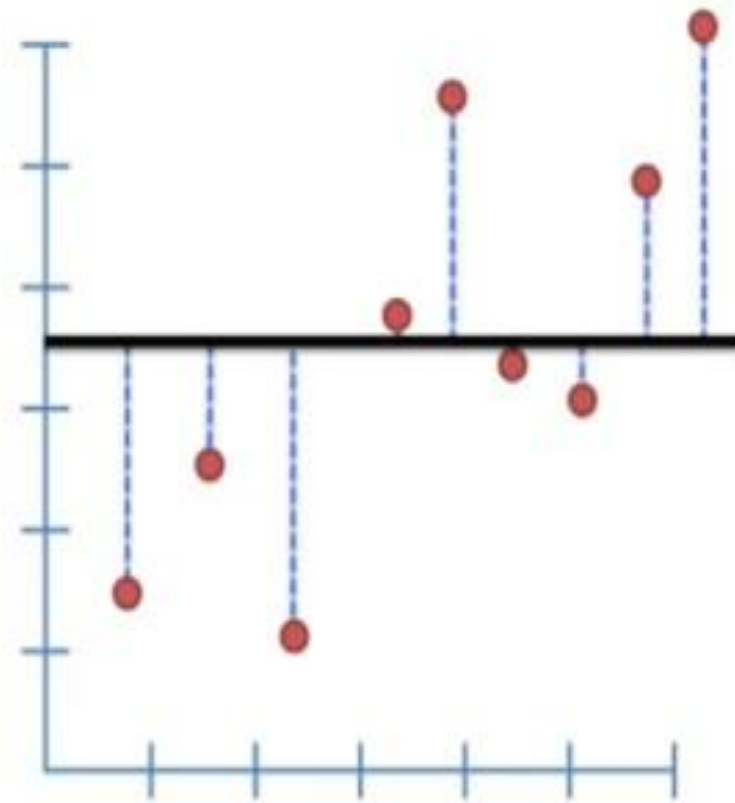
$$(b - y_1) + (b - y_2) + (b - y_3)$$



$$(b - y_1) + (b - y_2) + (b - y_3) + (b - y_4)$$

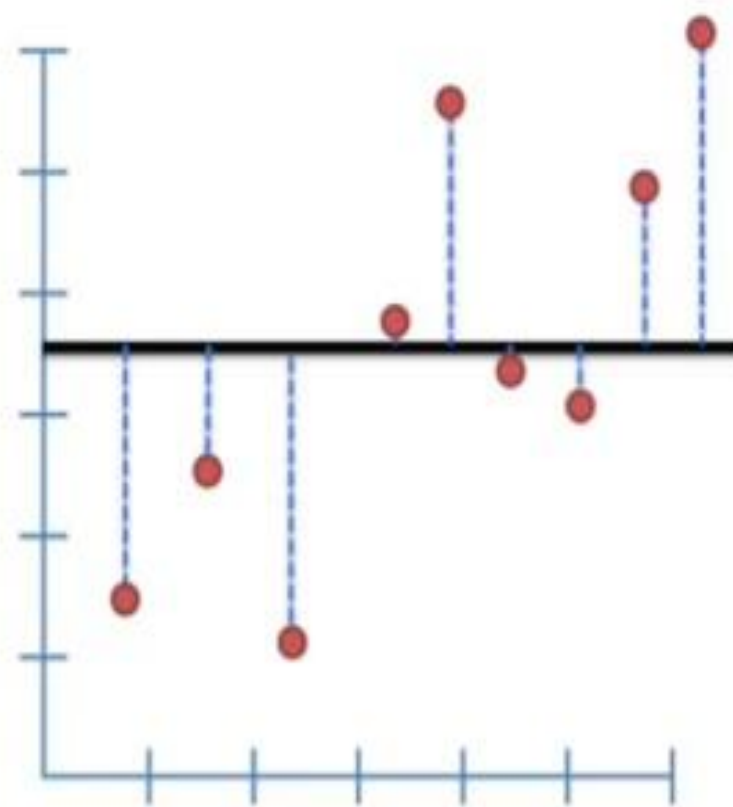


$$(b - y_1)^2 + (b - y_2)^2 + (b - y_3)^2 + (b - y_4)^2 + (b - y_5)^2 + (b - y_6)^2 + (b - y_7)^2 + (b - y_8)^2 + (b - y_9)^2$$





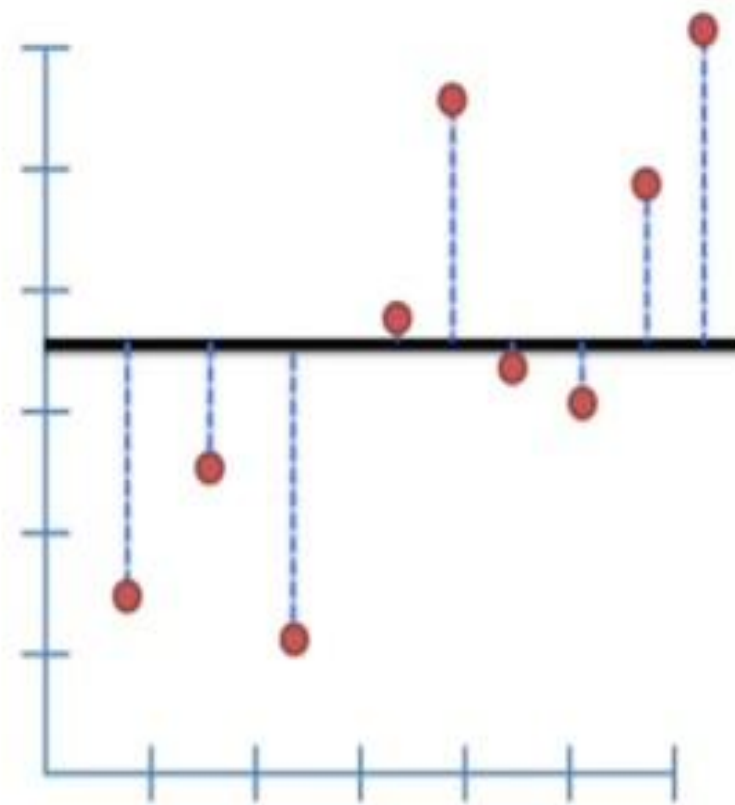
$$(b - y_1)^2 + (b - y_2)^2 + (b - y_3)^2 + (b - y_4)^2 + (b - y_5)^2 + (b - y_6)^2 + (b - y_7)^2 + (b - y_8)^2 + (b - y_9)^2$$



= 24.62

This is our measure of how well this line fits the data.

$$(b - y_1)^2 + (b - y_2)^2 + (b - y_3)^2 + (b - y_4)^2 + (b - y_5)^2 + (b - y_6)^2 + (b - y_7)^2 + (b - y_8)^2 + (b - y_9)^2$$

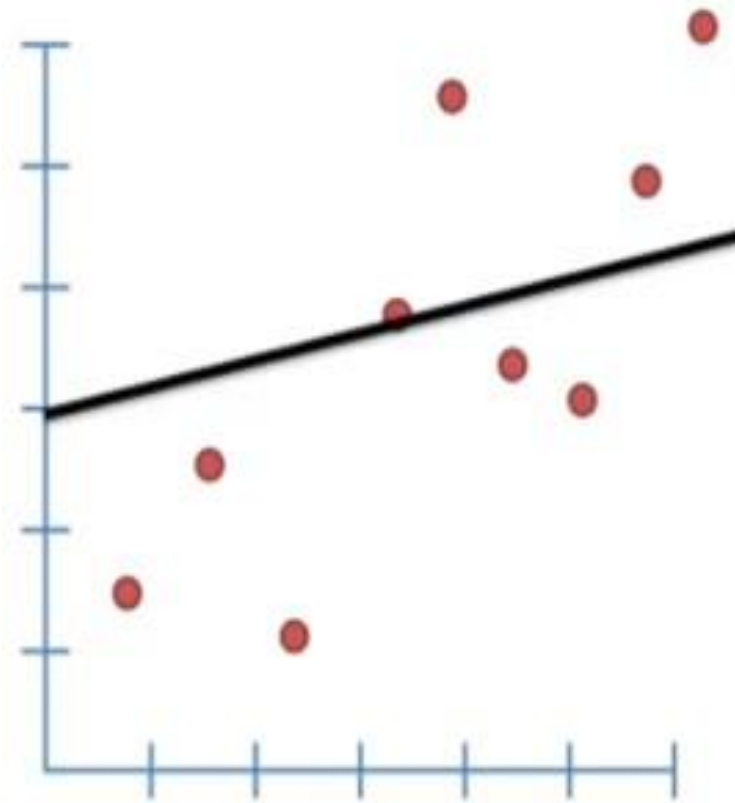


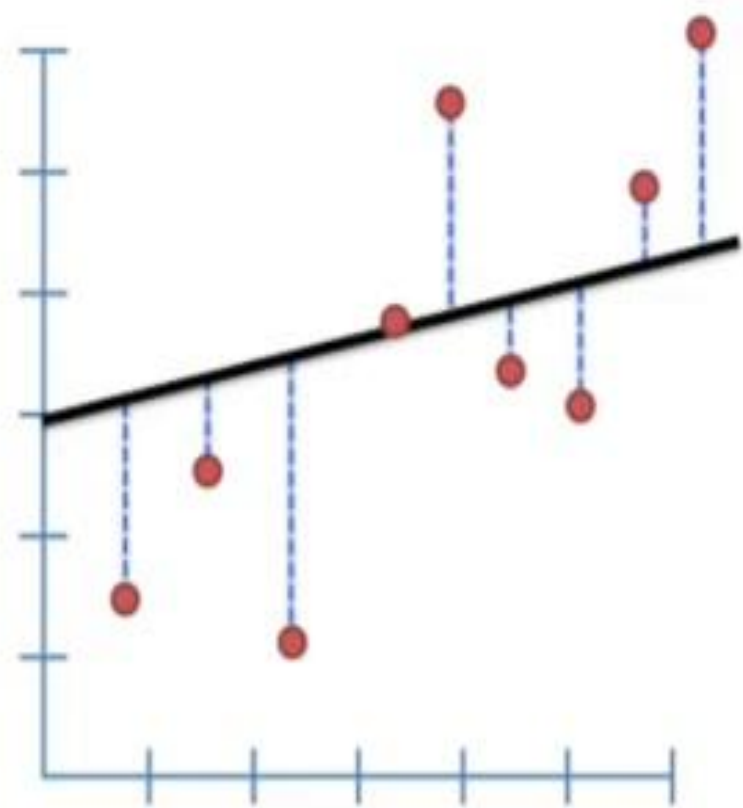
= 24.62

This is our measure of how well this line fits the data.

It's called the "sum of squared residuals," because the residuals are the differences between the real data and the line, and we are summing the square of these values.

Now let's see how good the fit is if we rotate the line a little bit.

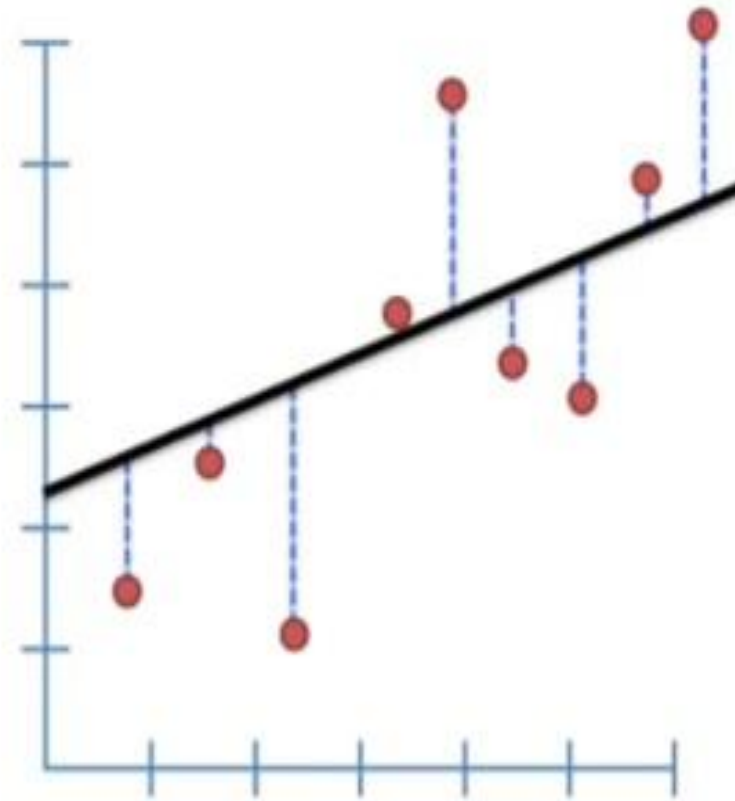




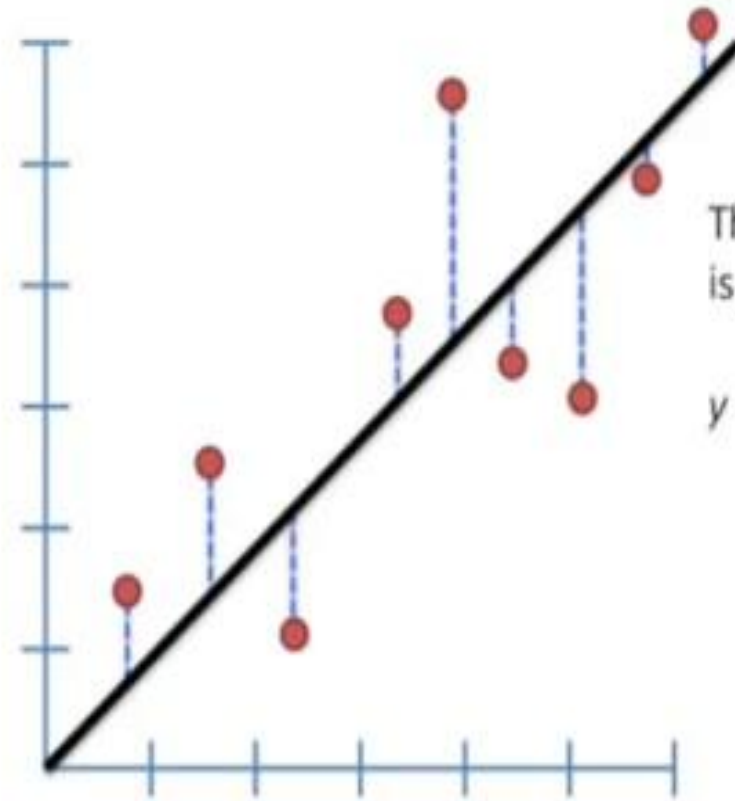
The sum of squared residuals = 18.72

This is better than before.

Does this fit improve if we rotate a little more?



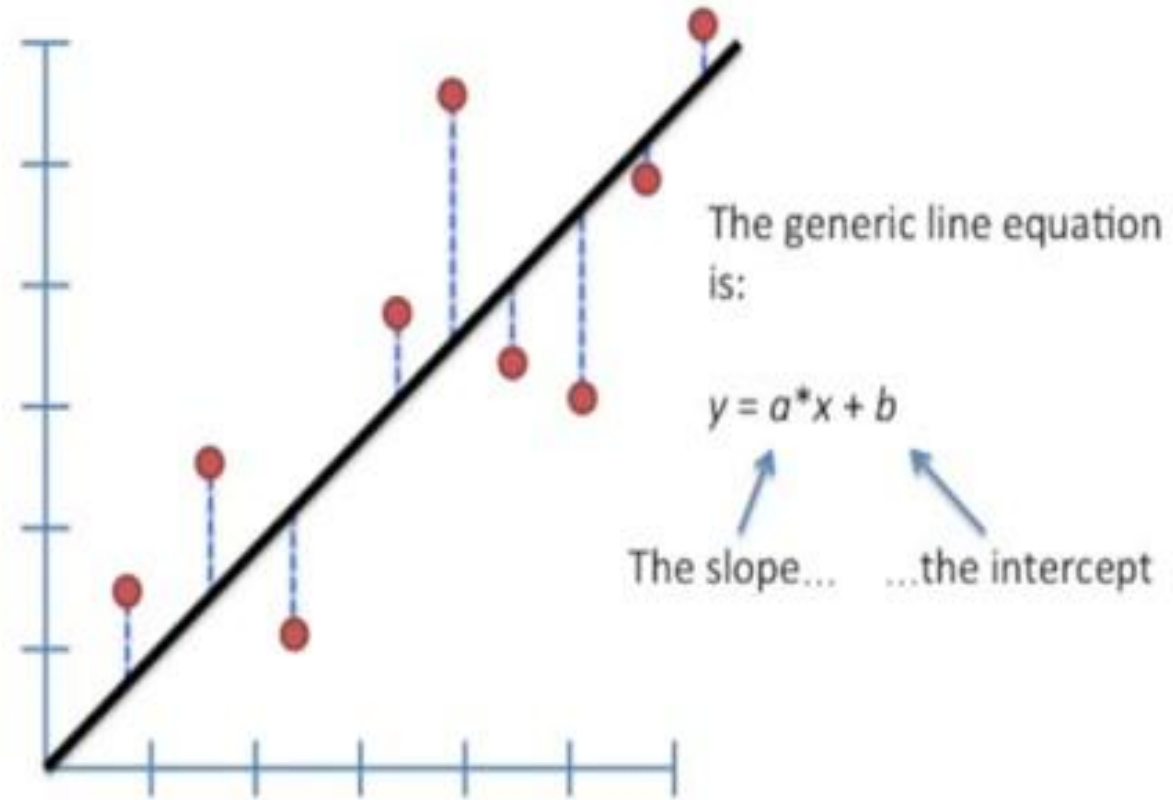
# Generic Line Equation



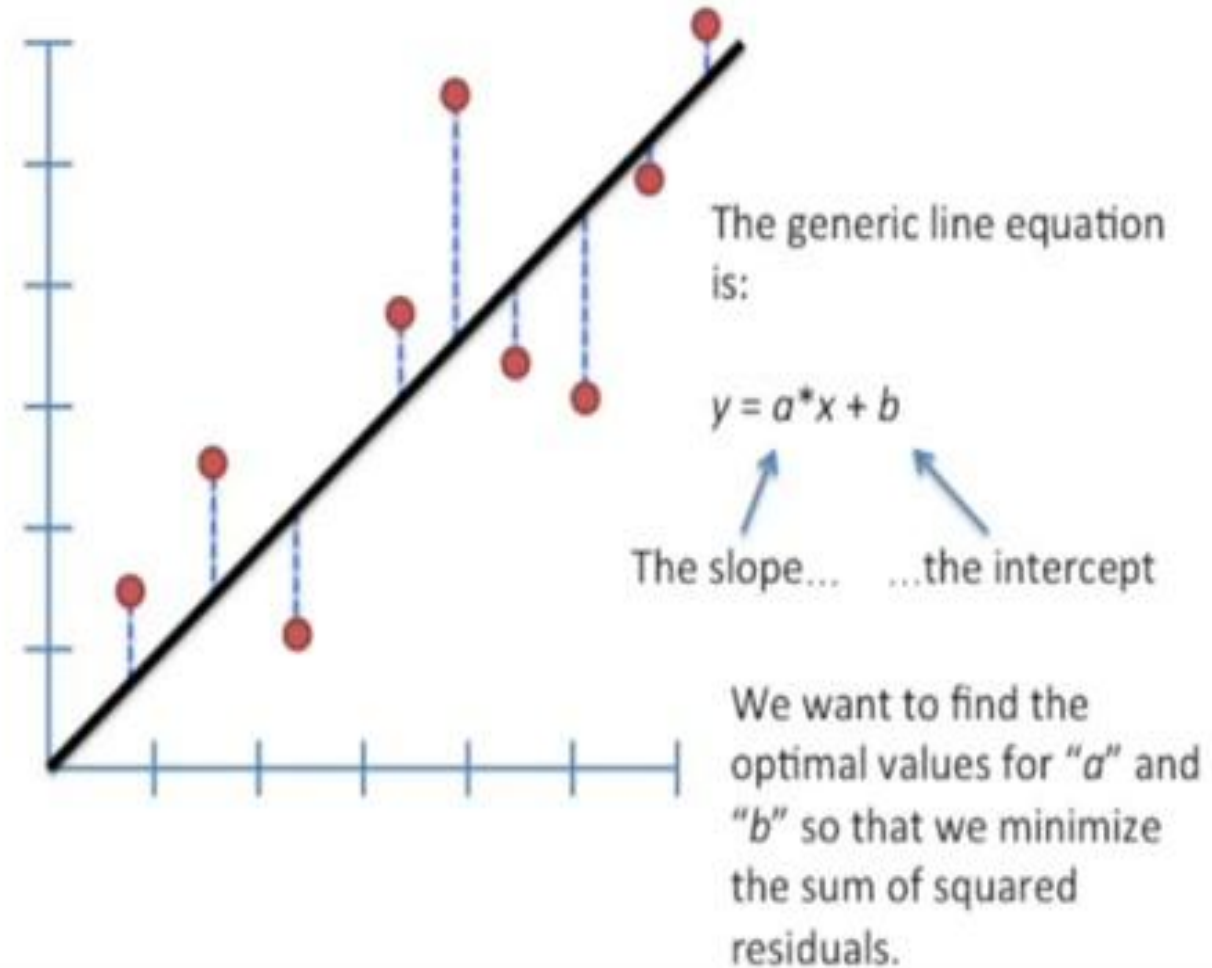
The generic line equation  
is:

$$y = a \cdot x + b$$

# Generic Line Equation



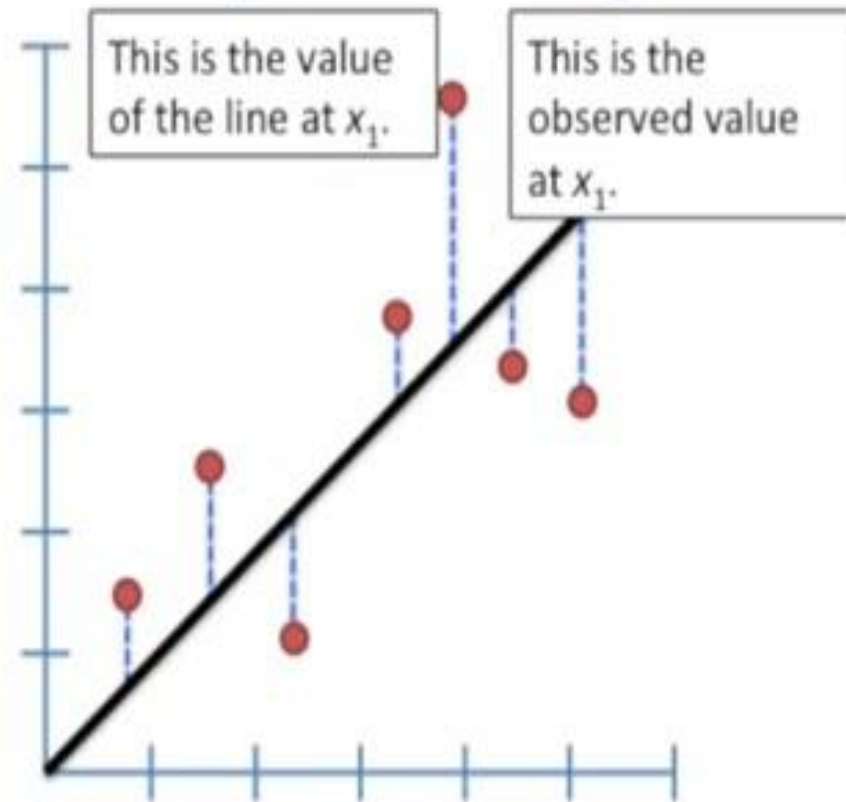
# Generic Line Equation





# Least Square

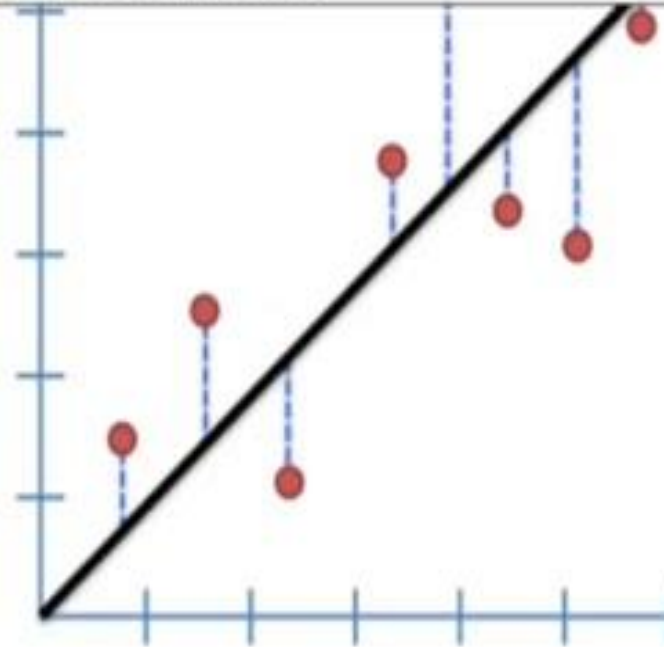
$$\text{Sum of squared residuals} = ((a \cdot x_1 + b) - y_1)^2 + ((a \cdot x_2 + b) - y_2)^2 + \dots$$



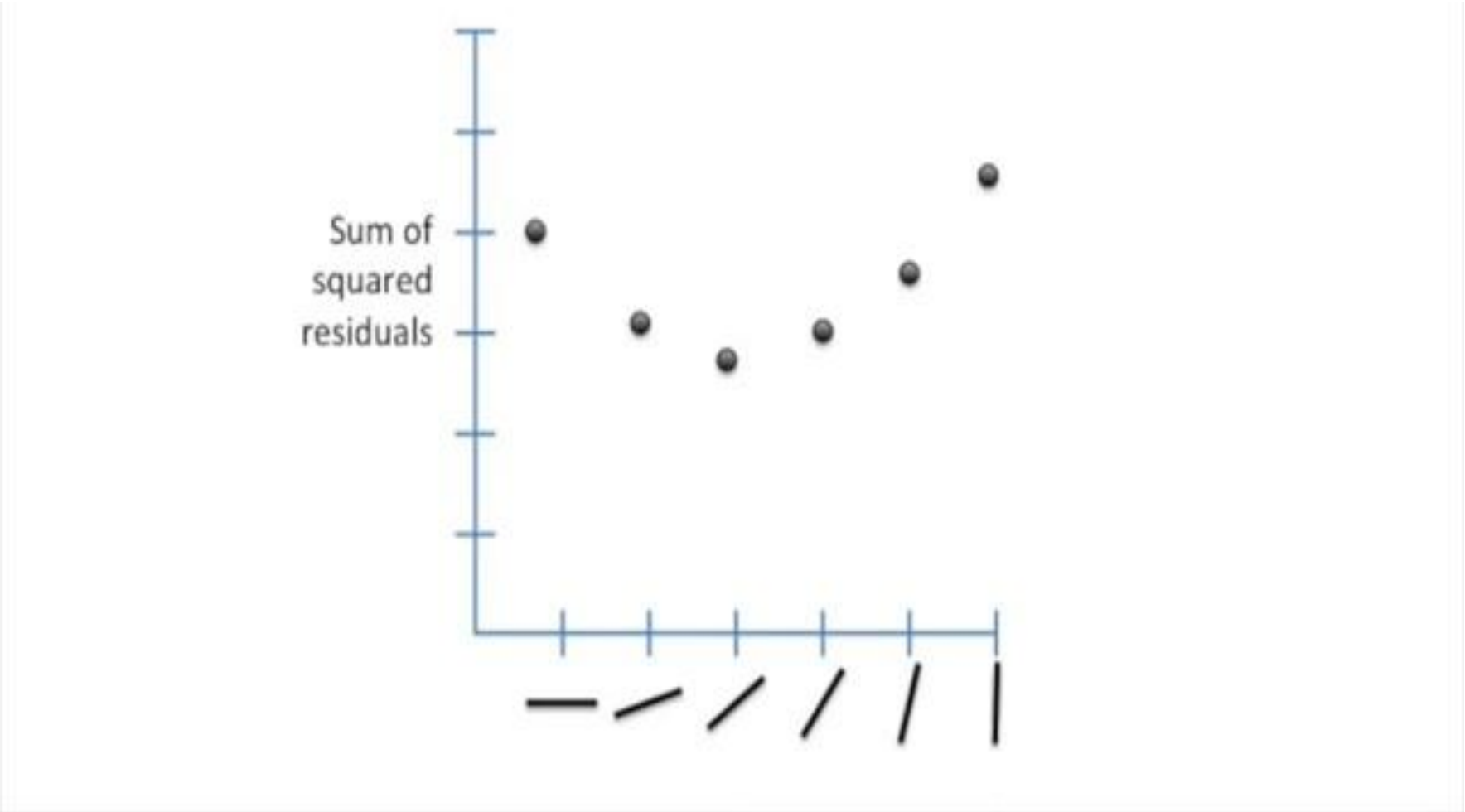
# Least Square

$$\text{Sum of squared residuals} = ((a \cdot x_1 + b) - y_1)^2 + ((a \cdot x_2 + b) - y_2)^2 + \dots$$

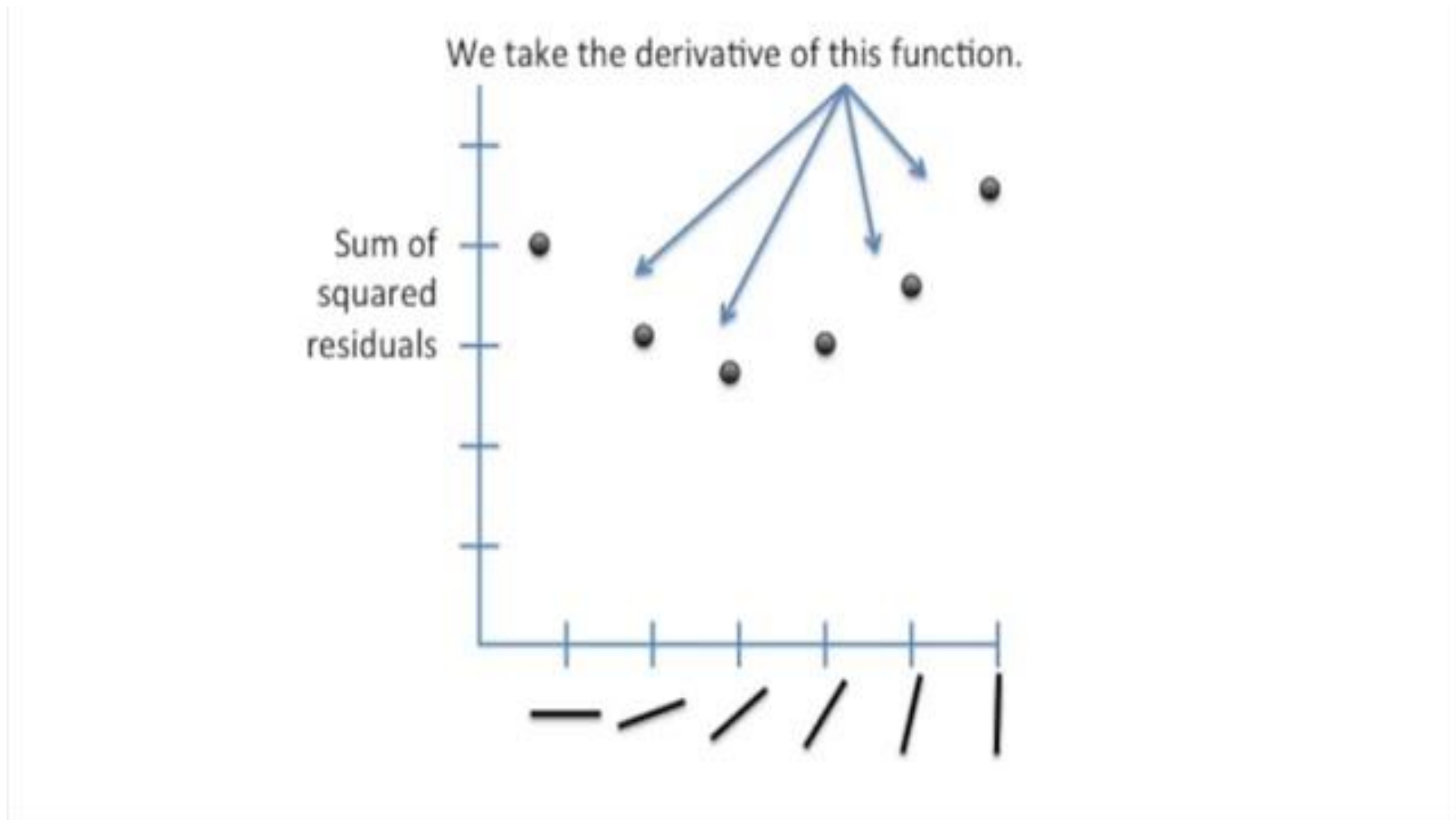
Since we want the line that will give us the smallest sum of squares, this method for finding the best values for "a" and "b" is called "Least Squares".



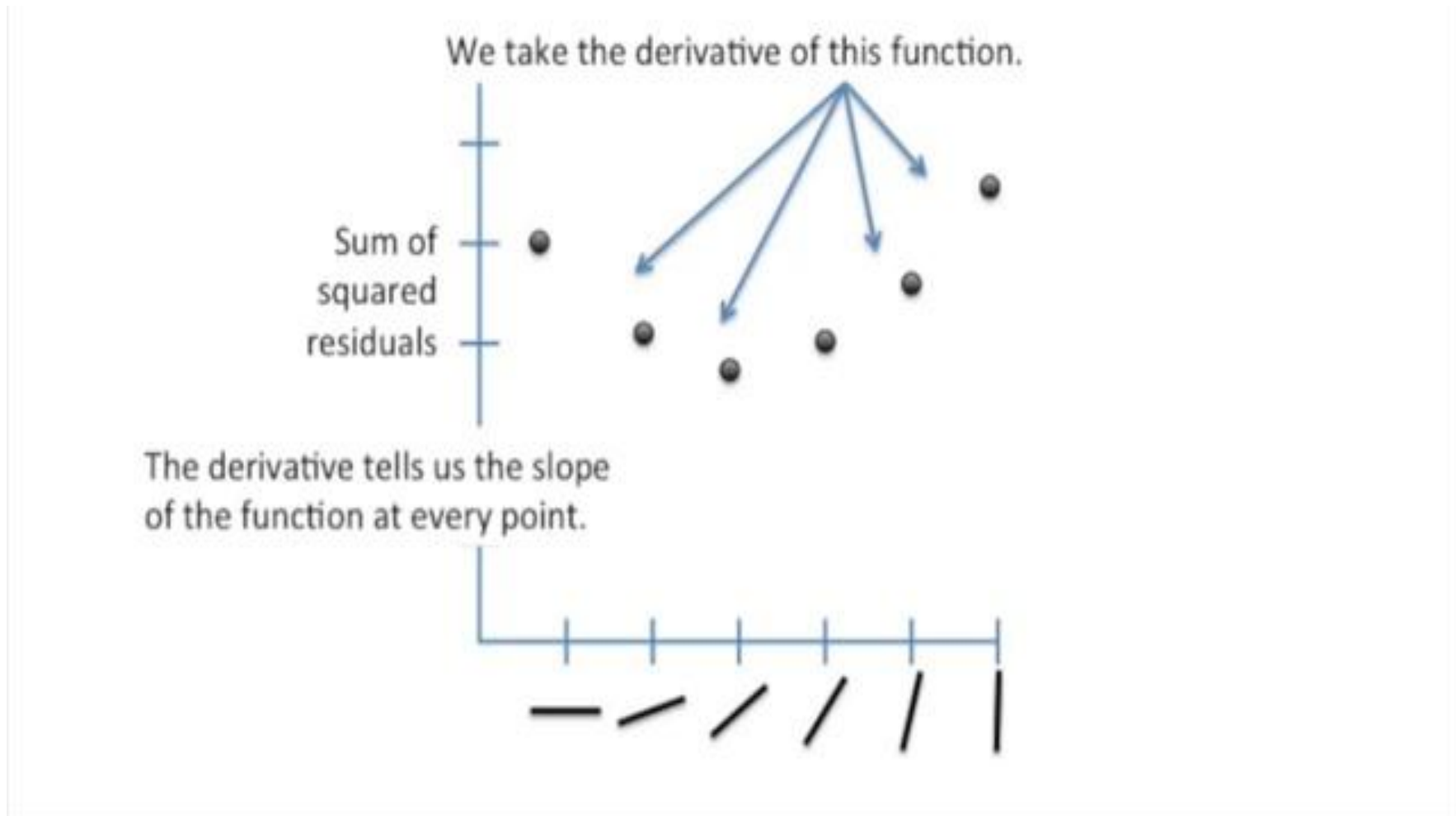
# Sum of Squares Residuals



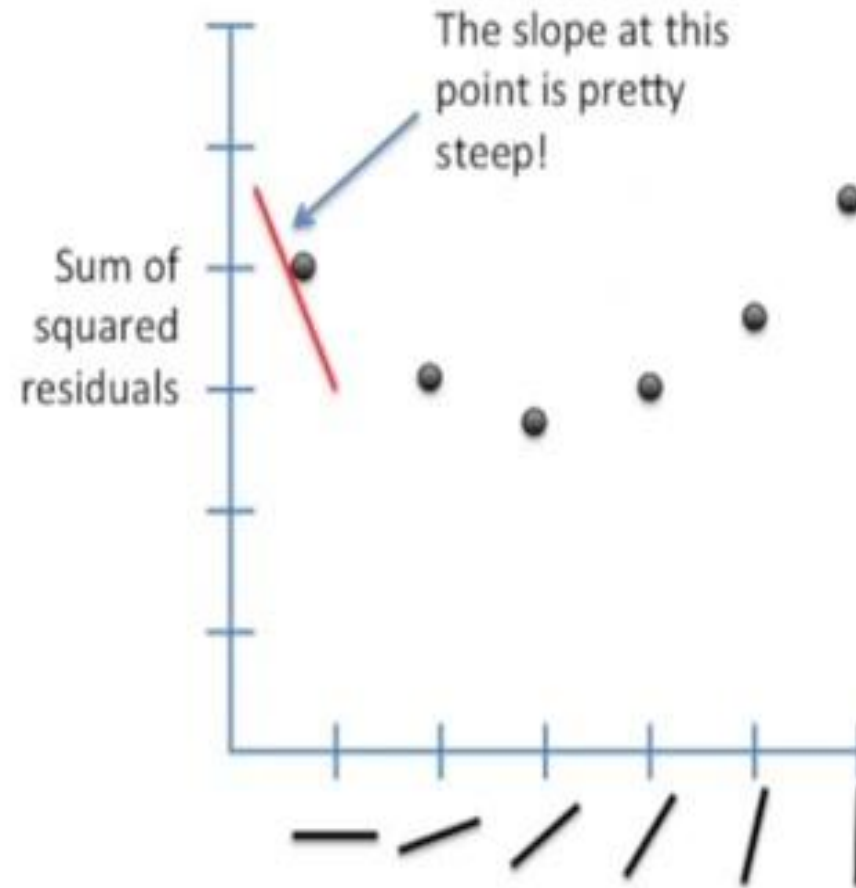
# Finding Best Rotation



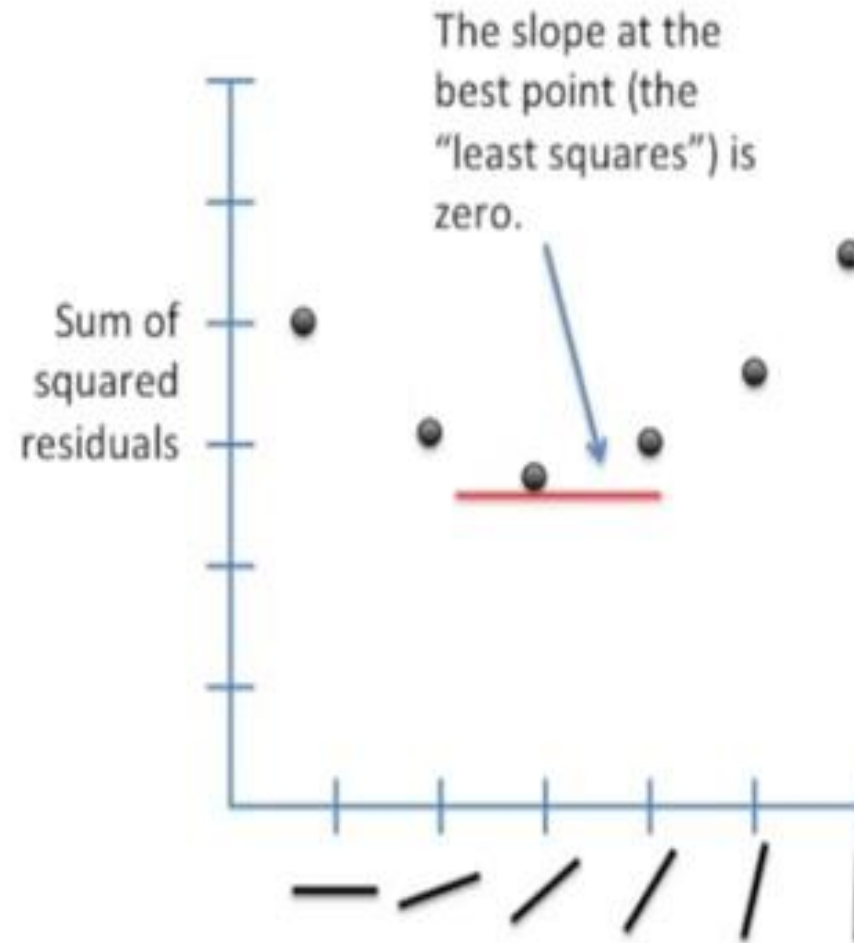
# Finding Best Rotation



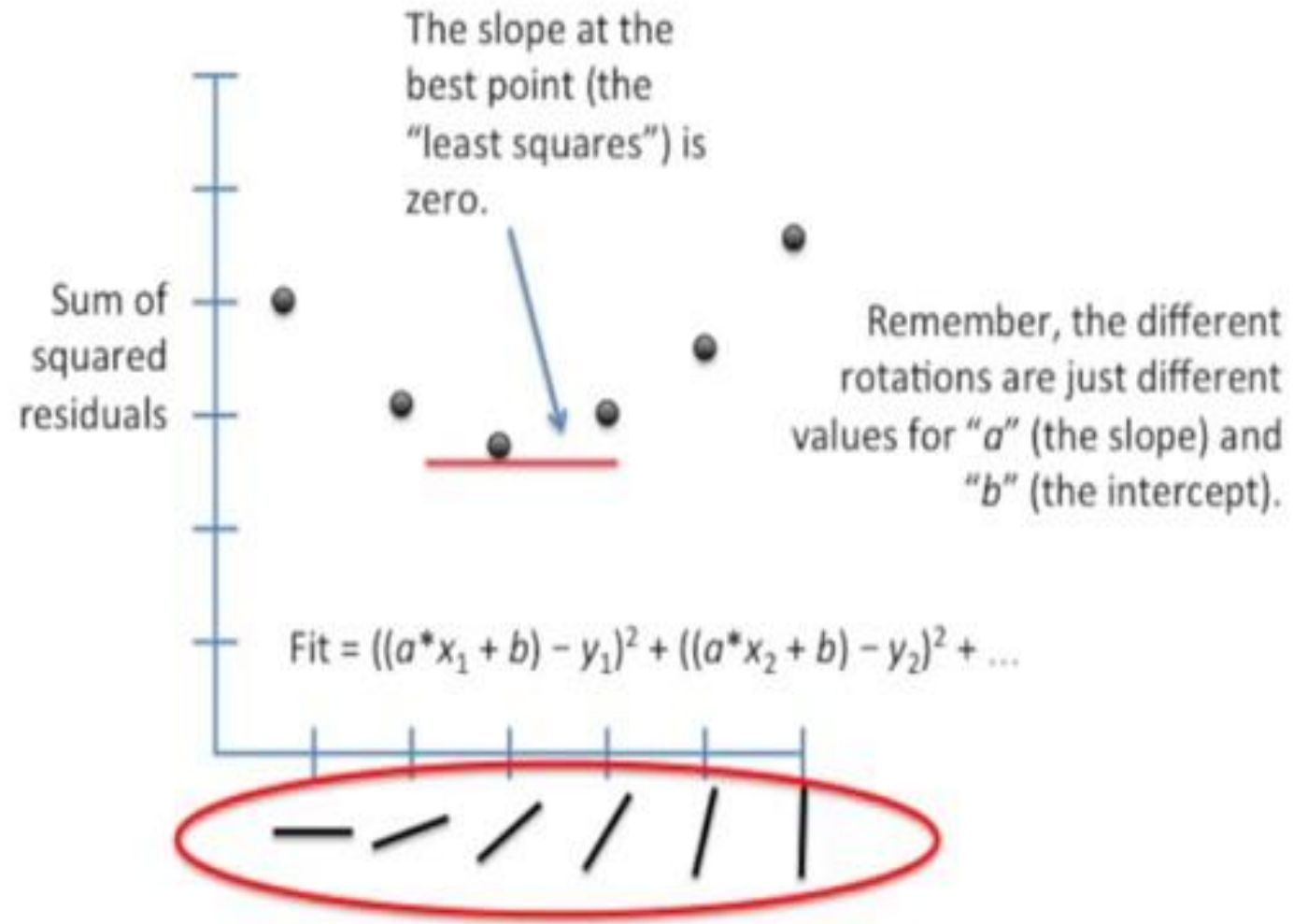
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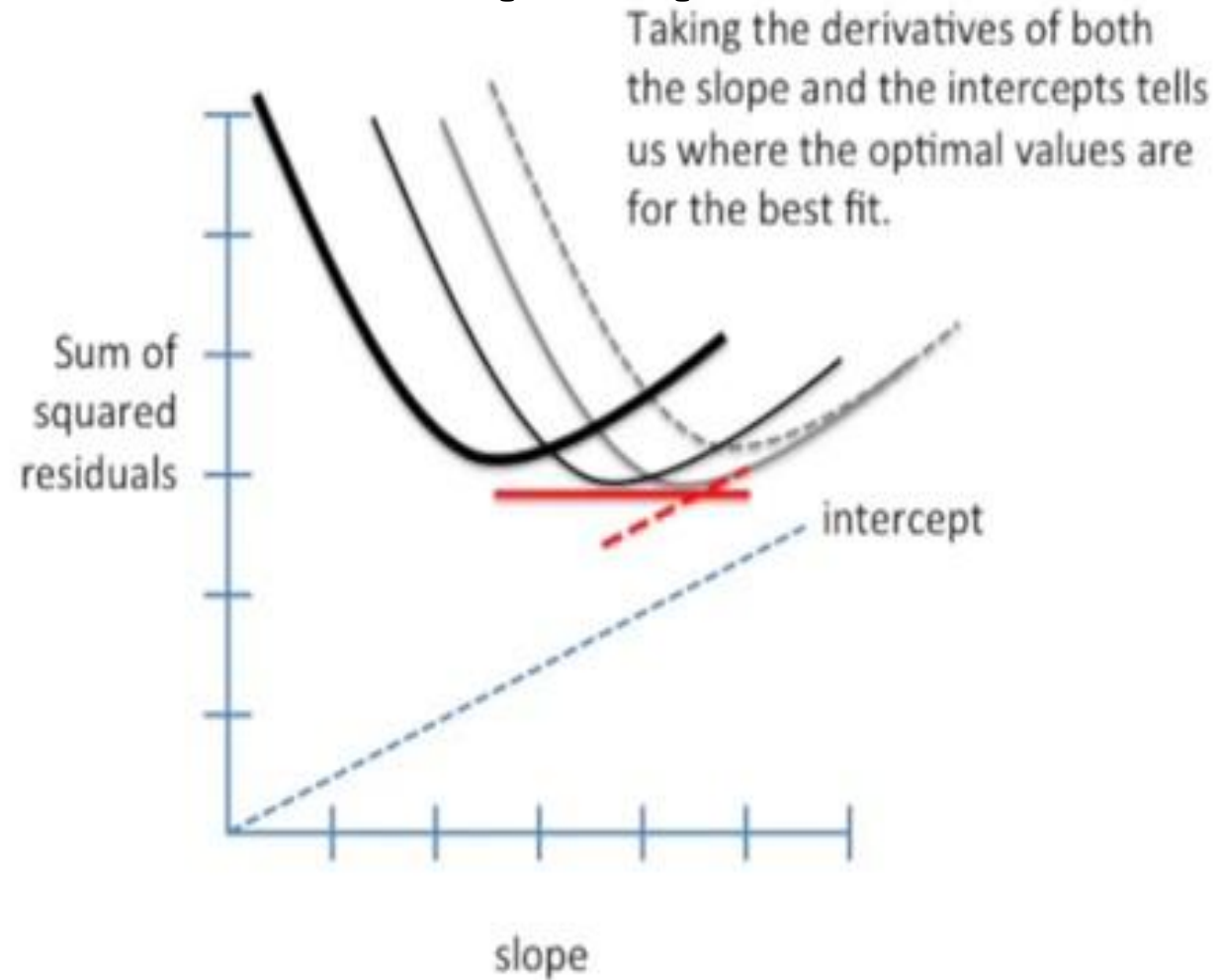


# Finding Best Rotation





# It works also for multiple params



# Simple Linear Regression

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Linear Model: 
$$Y = mX + b$$
 
$$Y = \beta_1 X + \beta_0$$

Dependent Variable      Independent Variable  
Slope      Intercept (bias)

- In general, such a relationship may not hold exactly for the largely unobserved population
- We call the unobserved deviations from  $Y$  the errors.
- The goal is to find estimated values  $m'$  and  $b'$  for the parameters  $m$  and  $b$  which would provide the "best" fit for the data points.

# Least Square Method (LSM)

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- A standard approach for doing this is to apply the **method of least squares** which attempts to find the parameters  $m, b$  that minimizes the sum of squared error.
- $SSE = \sum_i (y_i - f(x_i))^2 = \sum_i (y_i - mx_i - b)^2$
- also known as the **residual sum of squares**.
- The LSM finds  $m, b$  by setting to zero the first partial derivative of the above function w.r.t.  $m$  and  $b$  which are therefore calculated as follows:
  - $m = (n \sum(xy) - \sum x \sum y) / (n \sum(x^2) - (\sum x)^2)$
  - $b = (\sum y - m \sum x) / n$
- LSM can be extended to multiple linear regression.
- An alternative to find  $m, b$ , typically adopted in case of multivariate regression is the Gradient Descent method (see next lectures)

$$m = (n \sum(xy) - \sum x \sum y) / (n \sum(x^2) - (\sum x)^2)$$
$$b = (\sum y - m \sum x) / n$$

# LSM - Example

"x" Hours of Sunshine	"y" Ice Creams Sold
2	4
3	5
5	7
7	10
9	15

Let us find the best **m** (slope) and **b** (y-intercept) that suits that data  
 $y = mx + b$

# LSM - Example

$$m = (n \sum(xy) - \sum x \sum y) / (n \sum(x^2) - (\sum x)^2)$$
$$b = (\sum y - m \sum x) / n$$

x	y	x <sup>2</sup>	xy
2	4	4	8
3	5	9	15
5	7	25	35
7	10	49	70
9	15	81	135

Step 1: Calculate x<sup>2</sup> and xy

# LSM - Example

$$m = (n \sum(xy) - \sum x \sum y) / (n \sum(x^2) - (\sum x)^2)$$
$$b = (\sum y - m \sum x) / n$$

x	y	x <sup>2</sup>	xy
2	4	4	8
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5	7	25	35
7	10	49	70
9	15	81	135
<b>Σx: 26</b>	<b>Σy: 41</b>	<b>Σx<sup>2</sup>: 168</b>	<b>Σxy: 263</b>

Step 2: Sum all the columns

# LSM - Example

$$m = (n \sum(xy) - \sum x \sum y) / (n \sum(x^2) - (\sum x)^2)$$
$$b = (\sum y - m \sum x) / n$$

x	y	x <sup>2</sup>	xy
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9	15	81	135
<b>Σx: 26</b>	<b>Σy: 41</b>	<b>Σx<sup>2</sup>: 168</b>	<b>Σxy: 263</b>

$$m = \frac{N \sum(xy) - \sum x \sum y}{N \sum(x^2) - (\sum x)^2}$$
$$= \frac{5 \times 263 - 26 \times 41}{5 \times 168 - 26^2}$$
$$= \frac{1315 - 1066}{840 - 676}$$
$$= \frac{249}{164} = 1,5183\dots$$

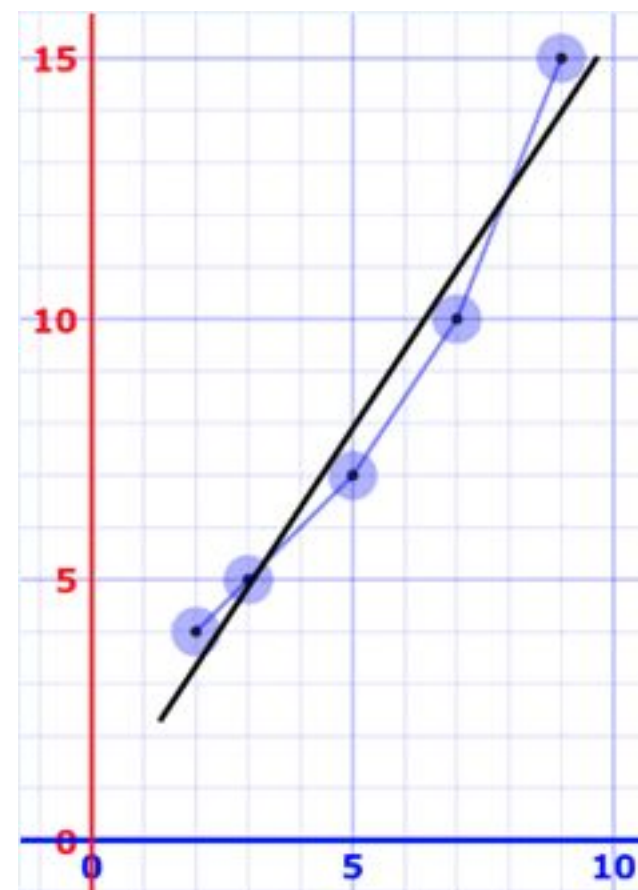
$$b = \frac{\sum y - m \sum x}{N}$$
$$= \frac{41 - 1,5183 \times 26}{5}$$
$$= 0,3049\dots$$

Step 3: Calculate the slope and the intercept with N = 5

# LSM - Example

$$m = (n \sum(xy) - \sum x \sum y) / (n \sum(x^2) - (\sum x)^2)$$
$$b = (\sum y - m \sum x) / n$$

x	y	$y = 1,518x + 0,305$	error
2	4	3,34	-0,66
3	5	4,86	-0,14
5	7	7,89	0,89
7	10	10,93	0,93
9	15	13,97	-1,03



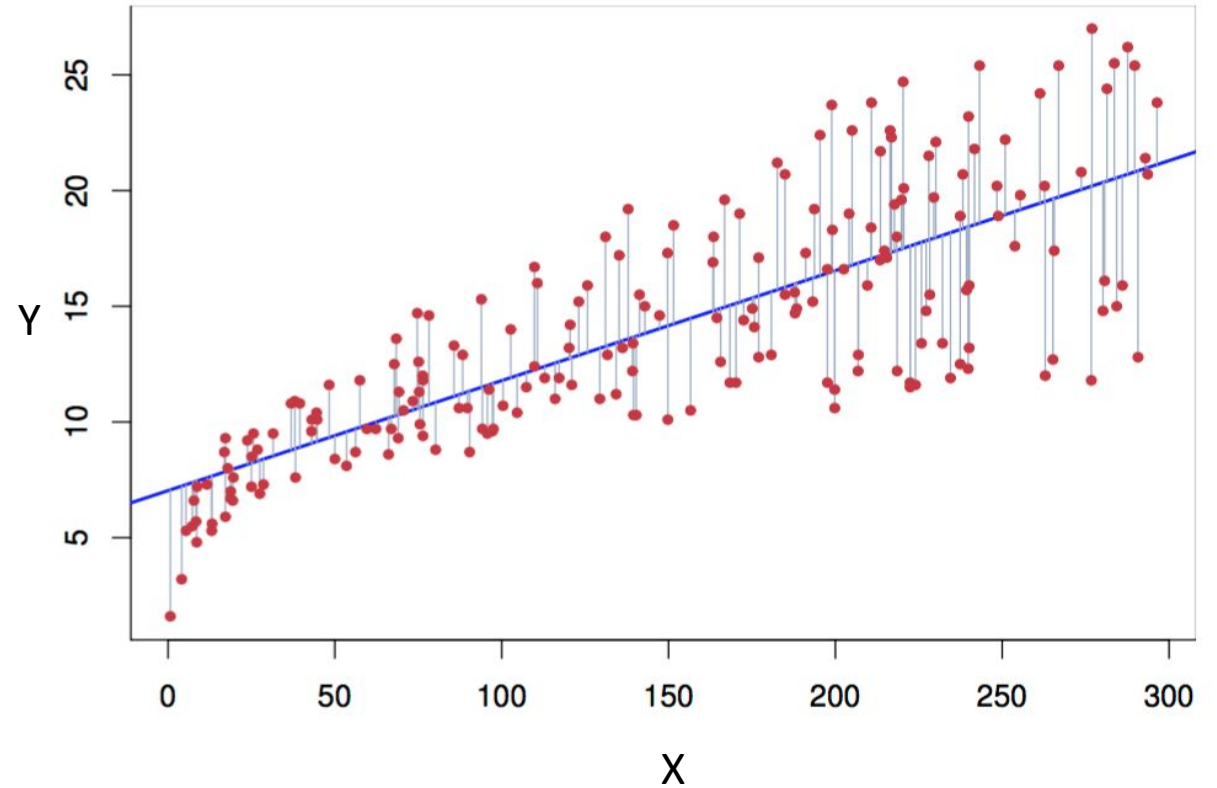
Step 4: test  $y = 1,518x + 0,305$

If  $x = 8$  then we expect to sell 12,45 ice creams

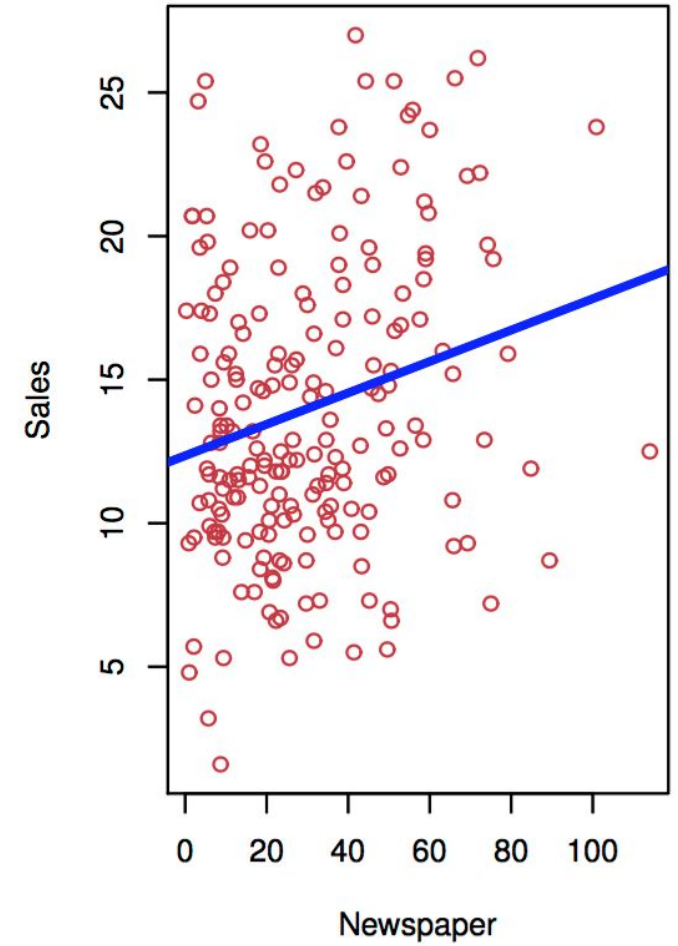
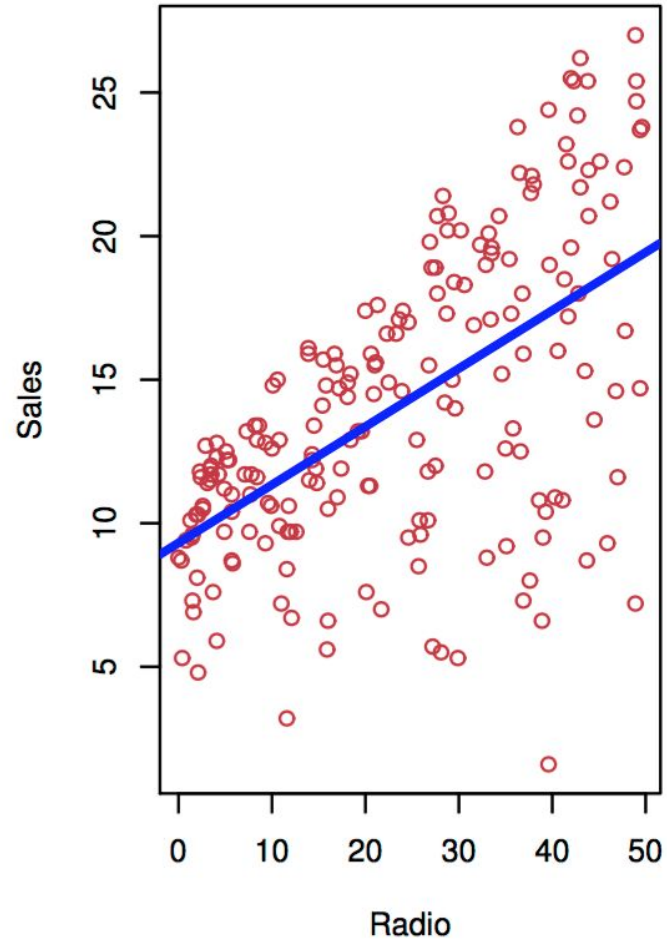
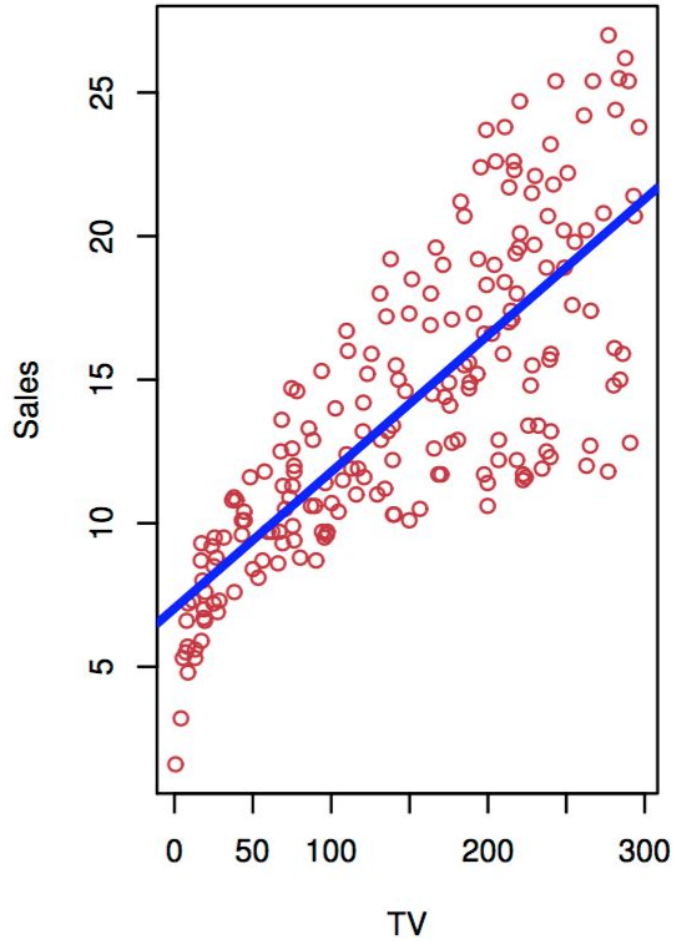


# Least Square Method

- Blue line shows the least square fit. Lines from red points to the regression line illustrate the residuals.
- For any other choice of slope  $m$  or intercept  $b$  the SSE between that line and the observed data would be larger than the SSE of the blue line.



# Examples



# Alternative Fitting Methods

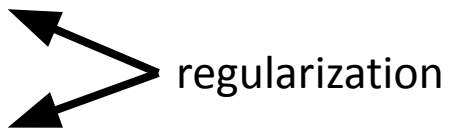
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- Linear regressions fitted using gradient descent can benefit from some regularizations.
- However, they can be fitted in other ways, such as by minimizing a penalized version of the least squares cost function as in **ridge regression** (L2-norm penalty) and **lasso** (L1-norm penalty).
- **Tikhonov** regularization, also known as *ridge regression*, is a method of regularization of ill-posed problems particularly useful to mitigate the multicollinearity, which commonly occurs in models with large numbers of parameters.
- **Lasso** (least absolute shrinkage and selection operator) performs both variable selection and regularization in order to enhance the prediction accuracy and interpretability of the statistical model it produces.

Multicollinearity: is a phenomenon in which one predictor variable in a multiple regression model can be linearly predicted from the others with a substantial degree of accuracy. In this situation, the coefficient estimates of the multiple regression may change erratically in response to small changes in the model or the data.

# Linear Regression Models Objective Functions

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- Simple  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x - y$
  - Multiple  $\beta_0 + \sum_i (y_i - \beta_i x_i)^2$
  - Ridge  $\beta_0 + \sum_i (y_i - \beta_i x_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_j \beta_j^2$
  - Lasso  $\beta_0 + \sum_i (y_i - \beta_i x_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_j |\beta_j|$
- 
- The diagram shows two arrows pointing from the word "regularization" to the  $\lambda$  terms in the Ridge and Lasso equations. The top arrow points to  $\lambda \sum_j \beta_j^2$  in the Ridge equation, and the bottom arrow points to  $\lambda \sum_j |\beta_j|$  in the Lasso equation.

Ridge: mitigate the problem of multicollinearity

Lasso: variable selection, i.e., minimizes the number of coefficient different from zeros

# Evaluating Regression

- **Coefficient of determination  $R^2$**

- is the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable that is predictable from the independent variable(s)

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

hat means predicted  
 $\bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^2$

- **Mean Squared/Absolute Error MSE/MAE**

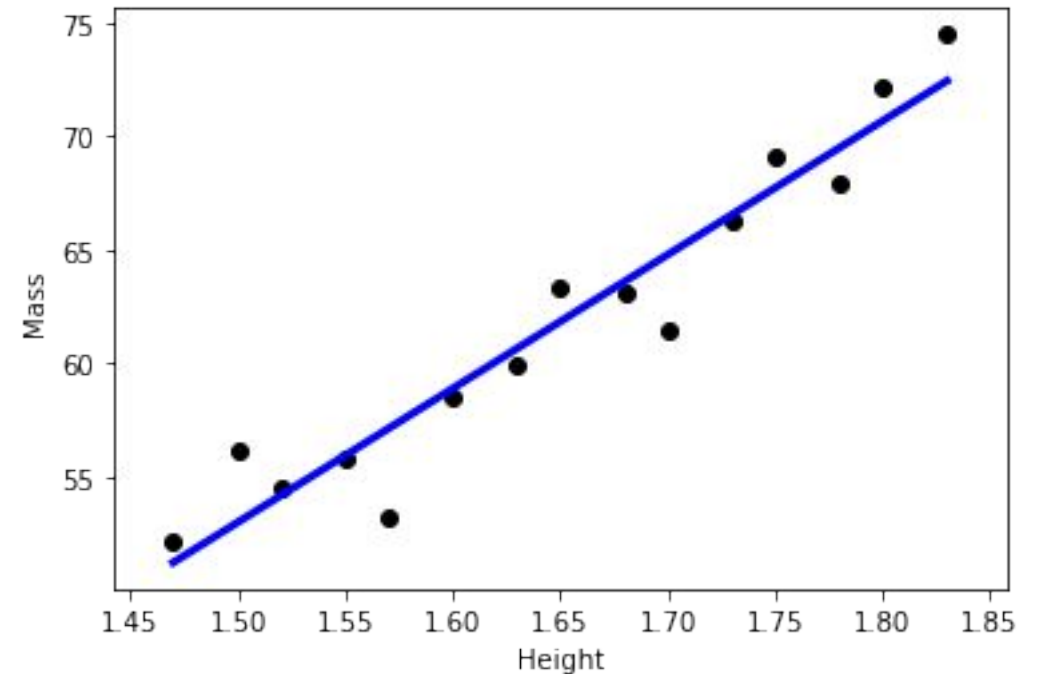
- a risk metric corresponding to the expected value of the squared (quadratic)/absolute error or loss

$$\text{MSE}(y, \hat{y}) = \frac{1}{n_{\text{samples}}} \sum_{i=0}^{n_{\text{samples}}-1} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \quad \text{MAE}(y, \hat{y}) = \frac{1}{n_{\text{samples}}} \sum_{i=0}^{n_{\text{samples}}-1} |y_i - \hat{y}_i|$$

# Example

- Height (m): 1.47, 1.50, 1.52, 1.55, 1.57, 1.60, 1.63, 1.65, 1.68, 1.70, 1.73, 1.75, 1.78, 1.80, 1.83
- Mass (kg): 52.21, 56.12, 54.48, 55.84, 53.20, 58.57, 59.93, 63.29, 63.11, 61.47, 66.28, 69.10, 67.92, 72.19, 74.46

- Intercept: -35.30454824113264
- Coefficient: 58.87472632
- $R^2$ : 0.93
- MSE: 3.40
- MAE: 1.43



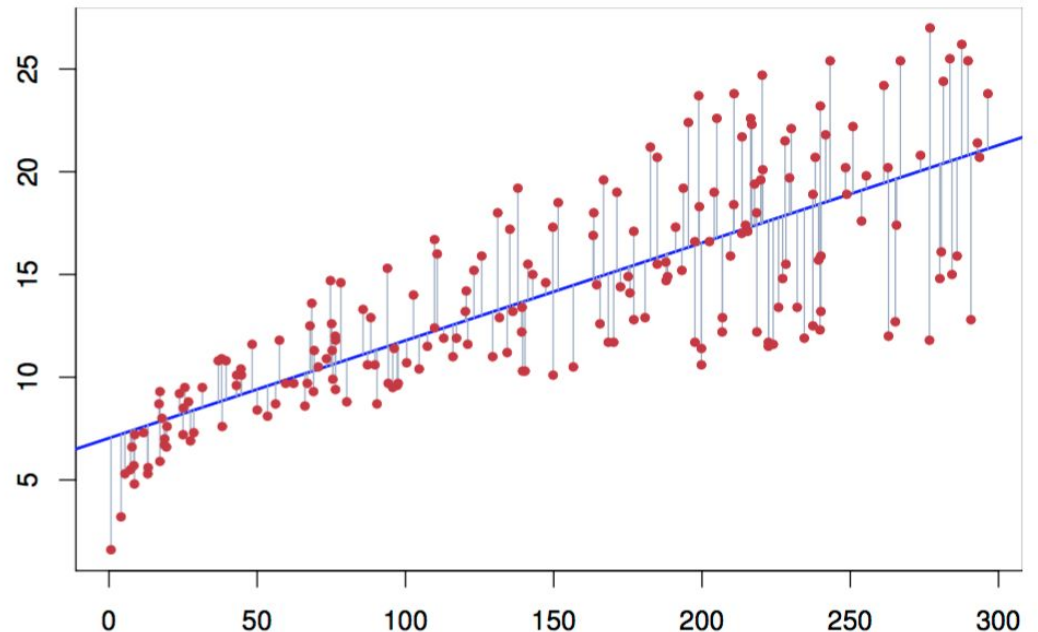
# Nonlinear Regression

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# Linear Regression Recap

- Linear regression is used to fit a linear model to data where the dependent variable is continuous.
- Given a set of points  $(X_i, Y_i)$ , we wish to find a linear function (or line in 2 dimensions) that “goes through” these points.
- In general, the points are not exactly aligned.
- The objective is to find the line that best fits the points.

$$Y = \beta_1 X + \beta_0$$

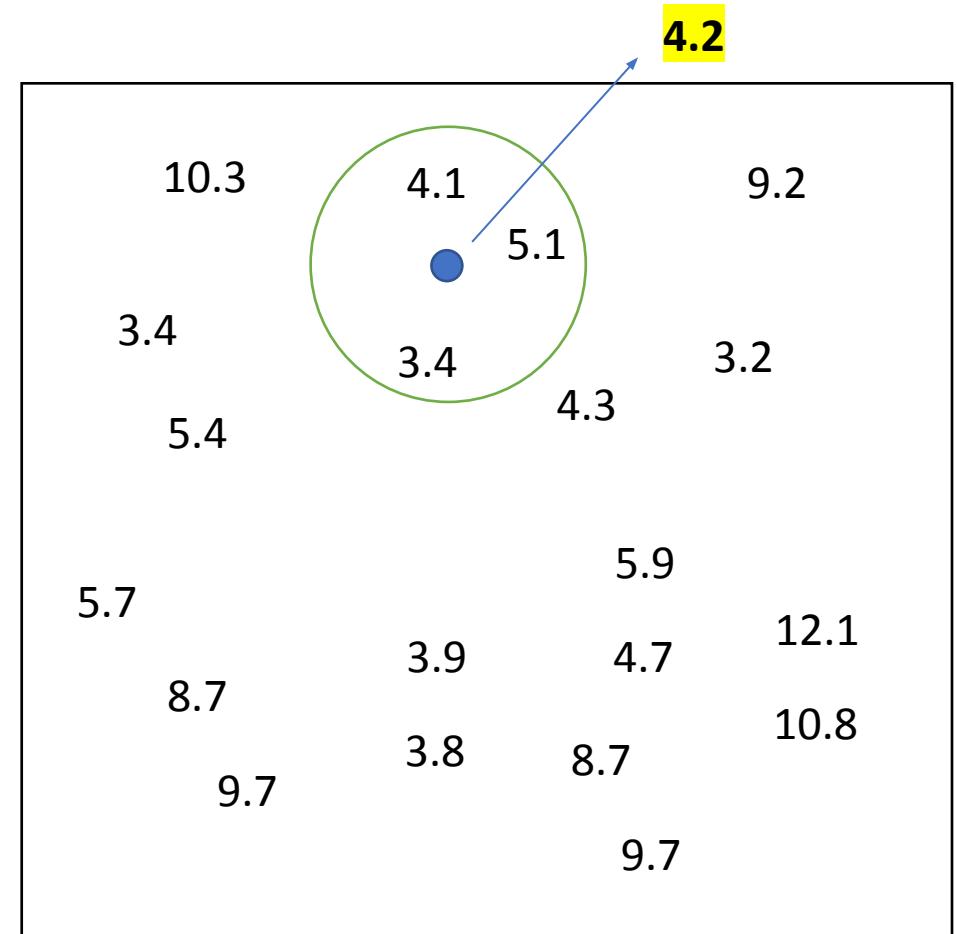




# k-NN for Regression

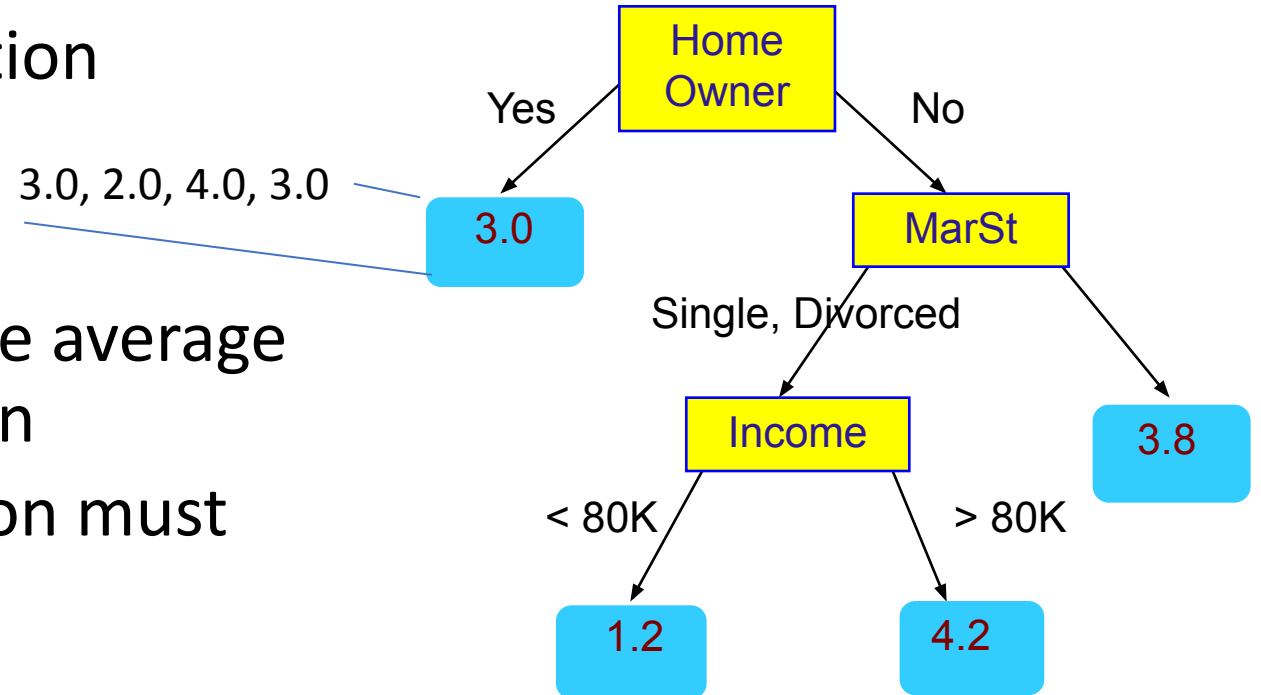
Given a set of training records (memory), and a test record:

- 1. Compute the distances** from the records in the training to the test.
- 2. Identify the  $k$  “nearest” records.**
3. Use target value of nearest neighbors to **determine the value** of unknown record (e.g., by averaging the values).



# Decision Trees for Regression

- The same induction and application procedures can be used.
- The only differences are:
  - When leaves are not pure, the average value is returned as prediction
  - Different optimization criterion must be used such as
    - MSE
    - MAE



$$\text{MSE}(y, \hat{y}) = \frac{1}{n_{\text{samples}}} \sum_{i=0}^{n_{\text{samples}}-1} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \quad \text{MAE}(y, \hat{y}) = \frac{1}{n_{\text{samples}}} \sum_{i=0}^{n_{\text{samples}}-1} |y_i - \hat{y}_i|$$

# References

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- Regression. Appendix D. Introduction to Data Mining.

