# COSC 325: Introduction to Machine Learning

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#### Lecture 07: Linear Regression





# **Class Announcements**

#### Homework:

Reduced homework assignments from seven to six.

Homework #2 is due this Sunday.

Course Project: Check groups in Canvas. PRFAQ is due 09/19 (10 days)

#### Lectures:

Absences: In your email's subject, include the following text "[COSC325 ABSENCE]"

#### Exams:

I had to move things around due to exam policy 5 days before study day. Please check the new schedule. Exam #1: Thursday, 10/03 Exam #2: Thursday, 11/21



What: UTK Machine Learning Club

Where: **MK 525** 

When: **Tuesday** at **5:00** (including today)

Who: Any experience level

Everyone is welcome to the first meeting of ML/N club today. Whether you are a beginner looking to learn from our intro to ML lesson series, experienced practitioner who wants to learn from and discuss with other enthusiasts in our reading groups, or you just want to hear from our industry guest speakers and seminars, utkML can help you scratch your machine learning itch!



# **Today's Topics**





### Last Lecture

- Gradient descent algorithm and concepts
  - Convexity, learning rate, saddle point, global vs. local minimum, etc.
- Derivatives measure the influence of a variable on the function output.
- Computational graphs and the chain rule
- Linear regression
  - Close form vs. GD solutions
  - Python implementation.

$$\theta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$







#### **Linear Regression**

#### Gradient Descent for Linear Regression and MSE Cost Function

 $\hat{y} = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \dots + \theta_m x_m$ 





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#### **Notebook Time**

# Assessing the Accuracy of the Coefficients

• The standard error of an estimator reflects how it varies under repeated sampling. We have

$$SE(\theta_0)^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum (x^{(i)} - E[x])^2} \qquad SE(\theta_1)^2 = \frac{1}{n} + \frac{E[x]^2}{\sum (x^{(i)} - E[x])^2} \qquad \sigma = Var(\epsilon)$$

 These standard errors can be used to compute 95% confidence intervals. Confidence intervals is defined as a range of values such that with 95% probability, the range will contain the true unknown value of the parameter. It has the form

$$\theta_k \pm 2 \cdot SE(\theta_k)$$



### **Confidence Intervals**

That is, there is approximately a 95% chance that the interval

$$[\theta_1 - 2 \cdot SE(\theta_1), \theta_1 + 2 \cdot SE(\theta_1)]$$

will contain the actual value of  $\theta_1$ .

For the advertising data, the 95% confidence interval for  $\theta_1$  is [0.042, 0.053].



# Hypothesis Testing of Coefficients.

- Standard errors can also be used to perform hypothesis tests on the coefficients.
- The most common hypothesis test involves testing the null hypothesis of
  - $H_0$ : There is no relationship between X and y versus the alternative hypothesis.
  - $H_A$ : There is some relationship between X and y.
- Mathematically, this corresponds to testing
  - $H_0: \theta_1 = 0$  versus
  - $H_A: \theta_1 \neq 0,$

since if  $\theta_1 = 0$  then the model reduces to  $y = \theta_0 + \epsilon$ , and X is not associated with y.



# Hypothesis Testing (Continue)

- To test the null hypothesis, we compute a *t*-statistic, given by  $t = \frac{\theta_1 0}{SE(\theta_1)}$
- This will have a t-distribution with n-2 degrees of freedom, assuming  $\theta_1 = 0$ .
- Using statistical software, it is easy to compute the probability of observing any value equal to |t| or larger.
- We call this probability the *p-value*.



# **Hypothesis Testing Advertising Model**

	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-statistic	p-value
Intercept	7.0325	0.4578	15.36	< 0.0001
TV	0.0475	0.0027	17.67	< 0.0001



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#### **Notebook Time**

### **Multiple Linear Regression**

 $\hat{y} = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \dots + \theta_m x_m$ 

We interpret θ<sub>j</sub> as the average effect on ŷ
of a one unit increase in x<sub>j</sub>, holding all other predictors fixed.

- The ideal scenario is when the predictors are uncorrelated
  - Each coefficient can be estimated and tested separately.
- Correlations amongst predictors cause problems:
  - The variance of all coefficients tends to increase.
  - Interpretations become hazardous—when x<sub>j</sub> changes, everything else changes.
- Claims of causality should be avoided for observational data.



# Predictors usually change together!

- Example #1: *y* is the total amount of change in your pocket;  $x_1 = #$  of coins;  $x_2 = #$  of pennies, nickels, and dimes. By itself, the regression coefficient of *y* on  $x_2$  will be > 0. But how about with  $x_1$  in the model?
- Example #2: y = # of tackles by a football player in a season; w and h are his weight and height. Fitted regression model is  $\hat{y} = \theta_0 + 0.5w 0.1h$ . How do we interpret  $\theta_2 < 0$ ?



#### **Results for advertising data**

	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-statistic	p-value
Intercept	2.939	0.3119	9.42	< 0.0001
TV	0.046	0.0014	32.81	< 0.0001
radio	0.189	0.0086	21.89	< 0.0001
newspaper	-0.001	0.0059	-0.18	0.8599

Correlations:					
	TV	radio	newspaper	sales	
TV	1.0000	0.0548	0.0567	0.7822	
radio		1.0000	0.3541	0.5762	
newspaper			1.0000	0.2283	
sales				1.0000	



#### **Qualitative Features**

- Example: investigate differences in credit card balance between males and females, ignoring the other variables.
  - We map gender to zero/one (male=1, female=0)

$$-y^{(i)} = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x^{(i)}$$

Resulting model

$$y^{(i)} = \begin{cases} \theta_0 + \theta_1, & if & ith \, person \, male \\ \theta_0 & if & ith \, person \, female \end{cases}$$



#### **Qualitative Features**

- Example: investigate differences in credit card balance between Asian, Caucasian, and African American.
  - We create an extra dummy variables
    - Dummy variables = Qualitative classes 1
    - Variable 1: Asian
    - Variable 2: Caucasian
    - Baseline: African American

1s for Asian samples, 0s otherwise  $y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_{1,1} + \theta_2 x_{1,2}$ 1s for Caucasian samples, 0s otherwise



#### **Qualitative Features**

• Example: investigate differences in credit card balance between Asian, Caucasian, and African American.

 $y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_{1,1} + \theta_2 x_{1,2}$ 

#### Resulting model

![](_page_20_Figure_5.jpeg)

Baseline

	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-statistic	p-value
Intercept	531.00	46.32	11.464	< 0.0001
ethnicity[Asian]	-18.69	65.02	-0.287	0.7740
<pre>ethnicity[Caucasian]</pre>	-12.50	56.68	-0.221	0.8260

![](_page_20_Picture_7.jpeg)

### **Extensions to Linear Model**

- Removing the additive assumption: *interactions* and *nonlinearity*
- Interactions:
  - In our previous Advertising data analysis, we assumed that the effect on sales of increasing one advertising medium is independent of the amount spent on the other media.
- For example, the linear model

sales =  $\theta_0 + \theta_1 TV + \theta_2 radio + \theta_3 newspaper$ 

states that the average effect on sales of a one-unit increase in TV is always  $\theta_1$ , regardless of the amount spent on radio.

![](_page_21_Picture_8.jpeg)

#### Interactions

- However, spending money on radio advertising increases the effectiveness of TV advertising, so the slope term for TV should increase as radio advertising increases.
- Given a fixed budget of \$100,000, spending half on radio and half on TV may increase sales more than allocating the entire amount to TV or radio.
- In marketing, this is known as a synergy effect; in statistics, it is referred to as an *interaction* effect.

![](_page_22_Picture_5.jpeg)

![](_page_23_Figure_1.jpeg)

- When levels of either TV or radio are low, then the true sales are lower than predicted by the linear model.
- But when advertising is split between the two media, then the model tends to <u>underestimate</u> sales

![](_page_23_Picture_4.jpeg)

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### **Modeling Interactions**

- Model takes the form  $sales = \theta_0 + \theta_1 TV + \theta_2 radio + \theta_3 (radio \times TV)$   $= \theta_0 + (\theta_1 + \theta_3 radio)TV + \theta_2 radio$
- Results:

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	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-statistic	p-value
Intercept	6.7502	0.248	27.23	< 0.0001
TV	0.0191	0.002	12.70	< 0.0001
radio	0.0289	0.009	3.24	0.0014
TV×radio	0.0011	0.000	20.73	< 0.0001

![](_page_24_Picture_5.jpeg)

### Interpretation

- The results in this table suggest that interactions are essential.
- The *p*-value for the interaction term  $TV \times radio$  is extremely low, indicating that there is strong evidence for  $HA : \theta_3 \neq 0$
- The *R*<sup>2</sup> for the interaction model is 96.8%, compared to only 89.7% for the model that predicts sales using *TV* and *radio* without an interaction term.

![](_page_25_Picture_5.jpeg)

# Interpretation (Continue)

- This means that  $\frac{(96.8 89.7)}{100 89.7} = 69\%$  of the variability in sales that remains after fitting the additive model has been explained by the interaction term.
- The coefficient estimates in the table suggest that an increase in TV advertising of \$1,000 is associated with increased sales of  $(\theta_1 + \theta_3 radio) \cdot 1000 = 19 + 1.1 radio$  units
- An increase in radio advertising of \$1,000 will be associated with an increase in sales of  $(\theta_2 + \theta_3 TV) \cdot 1000 = 29 + 1.1 TV$  units.

![](_page_26_Picture_5.jpeg)

### **Polynomial Regression**

![](_page_27_Figure_2.jpeg)

![](_page_27_Picture_3.jpeg)

## Matrix Design

- We have an input matrix X with shape (n, m)
- $\bullet$  We want to fit a polynomial of degree d
- Polynomial feature extraction process
  - Columns for each feature polynomial power (e.g.,  $x_1^3$ ,  $x_4^5$ )
  - Plus, columns for each feature interaction up to d 1 (e.g.,  $x_1x_4, x_1^2x_4$ )
- Example for data with n samples, m = 2 features, and polynomial degree d = 3.

$$X_{new} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_2 & x_1^2 & x_1x_2 & x_2^2 & x_1^3 & x_1^2x_2 & x_1x_2^2 & x_2^3 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Then, apply linear regression algorithm on  $X_{new}$ 

![](_page_28_Picture_10.jpeg)

#### Example

•  $X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ , and we want to fit a polynomial of order d = 2 $X_t = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_2 & x_1^2 & x_1x_2 & x_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$   $\begin{array}{c} \text{Caution: } X \neq \text{of columns given by} \\ \stackrel{(m+d)!}{\xrightarrow{\text{mld}!}} \\ X_t = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 4 & 9 & 12 & 16 \end{bmatrix}$ 

![](_page_29_Picture_3.jpeg)

- Look at your data
- Learn about the domain
- Use equations that match your data and domain knowledge

![](_page_30_Figure_5.jpeg)

![](_page_30_Picture_6.jpeg)

- Look at your data
- Learn about the domain
- Use equations that match your data and domain knowledge

![](_page_31_Figure_5.jpeg)

- Look at your data
- Learn about the domain
- Use equations that match your data and domain knowledge

![](_page_32_Figure_5.jpeg)

- Look at your data
- Learn about the domain
- Use equations that match your data and domain knowledge

![](_page_33_Figure_5.jpeg)

- Look at your data
- Learn about the domain
- Use equations that match your data and domain knowledge

![](_page_34_Figure_5.jpeg)

#### **Notebook Time**

#### Review

- Regression Techniques
  - Linear
    - Parameter confidence intervals
    - Parameter hypothesis testing
    - Interactions
    - Polynomial regression

![](_page_36_Picture_7.jpeg)

![](_page_36_Picture_8.jpeg)

#### **Next Lectures**

- Logistic Regression
- Logistic Regression Loss
- Overfitting/Underfitting
- Bias-Variance Tradeoff
- Regularization

![](_page_37_Picture_6.jpeg)

![](_page_37_Picture_7.jpeg)