# CS 696 Intro to Big Data: Tools and Methods Fall Semester, 2016 <br> Doc 11 Regression <br> Oct 4, 2016 

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## Machine Learning

Supervised<br>Unsupervised<br>Reinforcement learning<br>Clustering<br>Density Estimation<br>Dimensionality Reduction

## Supervised learning

Artificial neural network
Bayesian statistics
Bayesian network
Gaussian process regression
Inductive logic programming
Learning Vector Quantization
Logistic Model Tree
Nearest Neighbor Algorithm
Random Forests
Ordinal classification
ANOVA
Linear classifiers
Fisher's linear discriminant
Linear regression
Logistic regression
Multinomial logistic regression
Naive Bayes classifier

Quadratic classifiers
k-nearest neighbor
Boosting
Decision trees
Random forests
Bayesian networks
Naive Bayes
Hidden Markov models

## Unsupervised learning

Expectation-maximization algorithm
Vector Quantization
Generative topographic map
Information bottleneck method
Artificial neural networks

Hierarchical clustering
Single-linkage clustering
Conceptual clustering
Cluster analysis[edit]
K-means algorithm
Fuzzy clustering
DBSCAN
OPTICS algorithm

Outlier Detection
Local Outlier Factor

## Other

Reinforcement learning
Temporal difference learning
Q-learning
Learning Automata
SARSA

Deep learning
Deep belief networks
Deep Boltzmann machines
Deep Convolutional neural networks
Deep Recurrent neural networks
Hierarchical temporal memory

## Machine Learning \& Patterns

Machine learning algorithms
Detect patterns
Generate models based on those patterns

Feed a neural network pictures of cats
Neural net can identify cats
Can automate finding cat photo on internet

Drive a car with neural network "watching"
You actions
Videos of surroundings

Neural net can identify patterns \& start to drive

Limits of Pattern Matching


$$
2 *(5+1)=12
$$

$$
3^{*}(6+1)=21
$$

$$
8 *(11+1)=96
$$

$$
0+1+4=5
$$

$$
5+2+5=12
$$

$$
12+3+6=21
$$

$$
21+8+11=40
$$

## No Free Lunch Theorems

David Wolpert

For every pattern a machine learning algorithm is good at learning, there's another pattern that same learner would be terrible at picking up

## No Free Lunch



## Models

Machine Learning algorithms produce models

Models allow predictions or offer insights

## Examples

Decreasing latency by X increases Amazon's daily revenue by Y

White males without college degrees favor Trump by X\%
Females favor Clinton by Y\%

## Models Approximate Reality

World is flat

World is a sphere

World is an oblate ellipsoid

Does the model provide useful predictions/insights
Under what condidtions is the model useful

What are the estimates of the model's error

## Multiple Factors in Model

Amazon's daily revenue depends on
Latency
Price
Steps needed to order
Page layout
Some factors will be more important

Relevant suggestions
Search results
Font sizes
Color


Shipping costs

Regression

## Regression

Measure of relation between mean of one variable (dependent) on one or more other variables (independent)

In chapter 11 of Julia for Data Science

Download the Jupyter notebook before reading
https://technicspub.com/analytics/
https://app.box.com/v/codefiles

## Overview

Linear regression

Multiple linear regression

Generalized linear regression (model)

Is the dependent variable related to the independent variable

Generating the model
Error in the model

Effect of independent variables

## Linear Regression



$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(x)=2 x+3 \\
& y=2 x+3
\end{aligned}
$$

Model

Dependent
Variable

Independent Variable

## Linear Regression



Actual relation (assumed)

$$
y=a+b x
$$

Compute linear line that fits the data best

$$
y=a+b x+e
$$

e - error or residual

Goal is to minimize residual overall



## Are They Related?




## Covariance

If $x \& y$ are related then they should vary from their means in a similar way

$$
d x_{i}=x_{i}-\bar{x}
$$

$$
d y_{i}=y_{i}-\bar{y}
$$

positive values - positive relation
$\operatorname{cov}(X, Y)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathrm{dx}_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{dy}_{\mathrm{i}}$
Values near zero indicate no relation

negative values - negative relation

In Julia use function
cov


## Effects of Scale

| Cost USD | Pounds | Grams |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 9 | 3 | 1357.8 |
| 24 | 7 | 3168.2 |
| 38 | 10 | 4526.0 |

1 Pound = 452.6 grams

Changing the scale of units
Does not change the relationship Does change magnitude of Covariance

Makes covariance hard to evaluate

```
cov(pounds,Cost USD) == 50.8
cov(grams, Cost USD) == 23007
cov(grams, Cost INR) == 1,528,308.996
```


## Units

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
d x_{i}=x_{i}-\bar{x} & \text { Lbs } \\
d y_{i}=y_{i}-\bar{y} & \text { USD }
\end{array}
$$

$$
\operatorname{cov}(X, Y)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathrm{dx}_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{dy}_{\mathrm{i}}
$$

$\operatorname{cov}($ pounds,Cost USD) $==50.8 \mathrm{lbs} * U S D$ $\operatorname{cov}($ grams, Cost USD) $==23007$ grams*USD

| Cost USD | Pounds | Grams |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 9 | 3 | 1357.8 |
| 24 | 7 | 3168.2 |
| 38 | 10 | 4526.0 |

## Normalizing Data

Convert data to a common scale

Example - divide by maximum value

| Cost USD | Pounds | Grams |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 9 | 3 | 1357.8 |
| 24 | 7 | 3168.2 |
| 38 | 10 | 4526.0 |


| Cost | Amount |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0.237 | 0.3 |
| 0.632 | 0.7 |
| 1.00 | 1 |

$\operatorname{cov}($ Cost,Amount $)==0.134$ (unitless)

## Pearson's Correlation - r

## $r=\frac{\operatorname{cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_{x} \sigma_{y}}$

Julia function
cor

Normalized Covariance

Unitless

Range -1 to 1

1 = maximumly related
-1 - maximumly inversely related

0 - not related

## Pearson's Correlation - r

| Cost USD | Pounds | Grams |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 9 | 3 | 1357.8 |
| 24 | 7 | 3168.2 |
| 38 | 10 | 4526.0 |

$\operatorname{cor}($ Cost USD,pounds $)=0.998$
$\operatorname{cor}($ Cost USD,grams $)==0.998$

## Pearson's Correlation r Value Examples



## Regression Line

Pearson's Co<br>$\operatorname{cor}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})==0.992$



What the line that minimizes the amount of residuals

## Ordinary least squares

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}} \\
& \mathrm{~b}=\frac{\operatorname{cov}(\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y})}{\operatorname{var}(\mathrm{X})} \\
& a=\bar{y}-b \bar{x}
\end{aligned}
$$

## GLM.jI Package

Linear models (lm) \& Generalized linear models (glm)

```
Pkg.add("GLM")
using GLM
Im(independentVars,dataframe) returns linear model fitting the data
glm(independentVars,dataframe,distribution, link)
fit() called by glm and Im to produce model
residuals(model)
coef(model) returns coefficients of fitted line
deviance(model)
stderr(model)
predict(model)
r2(model)
    returns predicted values of dependent variable
```


## Example - Some Fake Data

using DataFrames
using Gadfly
using GLM
using Distributions
\#Adds random amount to value from distribution "dist"
\#Amount added is less than limit
function jitter(dist,value,limit)
value + (rand(dist, 1)[1] * 2 * limit ) - limit end
$f(x)=2^{*} x+3$
$x=\operatorname{rand}(50) * 10$
$y=\operatorname{map}(z->j i t t e r(\operatorname{Normal}(), f(z), 0.4), x)$

## Example - Are X \& Y related linearly?

Pearson's Co<br>$\operatorname{cor}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})==0.992$

near_exact_data $=$ DataFrame $(X=x, Y=y)$<br>plot(near_exact_data, $x=" X ", y=" Y ", G e o m . p o i n t, ~$<br>Guide.XLabel("X"),Guide.YLabel("Y"),Guide.Title("Data"))

## Fitting the Data

```
near_exact_model = Im(Y~X, near_exact_data)
show(near_exact_model)
```

Formula: Y ~ 1 + X
Coefficients:

|  | Estimate | Std.Error t value | $\operatorname{Pr}(>\|t\|)$ |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| (Intercept) | 2.94384 | 0.188246 | 15.6382 | $<1 e-19$ |
| X | 1.91493 | 0.0344778 | 55.5411 | $<1 e-44$ |

Source

$$
f(x)=2^{*} x+3
$$

Model
fitted_f(x) $=1.91493^{*} x+2.94384$

## What is t ?

|  | Estimate | Std.Error t value | $\operatorname{Pr}(>\|\mathrm{t}\|)$ |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| (Intercept) | 2.94384 | 0.188246 | 15.6382 | $<1 \mathrm{e}-19$ |
| X | 1.91493 | 0.0344778 | 55.5411 | $<1 \mathrm{e}-44$ |

From Student's T-test
Used when do not know the population parmeters

When population in know use $z$ value

Used to determine if should accept the regression line

$$
\text { Use } \operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)
$$

## Examples

$X \& Y$ both random, no relation

$$
\operatorname{cor}(x, y)==0.0254
$$

|  | Estimate | Std.Error $t$ value | $\operatorname{Pr}(>\|t\|)$ |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| (Intercept) | 10.8038 | 0.942533 | 11.4625 | $<1 \mathrm{e}-22$ |
| X | 0.0270376 | 0.0756465 | 0.35742 | 0.7212 |

$Y=X$

$$
\operatorname{cor}(x, y)==1.0
$$

Estimate Std.Error $\quad t$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)$
(Intercept) 2.00972e-15 1.67129e-16 $12.025<1 \mathrm{e}-24$
$X \quad 1.01 .34135 \mathrm{e}-177.45515 \mathrm{e} 16<1 \mathrm{e}-99$

## Regression Line

$$
\text { fitted_f(x) }=1.91493^{*} x+2.94384
$$

plot(layer(near_exact_data,x="X",y="Y",Geom.point), layer(fitted_f, 0,10 ),
Guide.XLabel("X"),Guide.YLabel("Y"))

## Regression Equation

fitted_coef = coef(near_exact_model)
fitted_f $(x)=$ fitted_coef[2]*x + fitted_coef[1]

## Residuals


near_exact_data[:Residual] = residuals(near_exact_model)
plot(layer(near_exact_data, $x=" X ", y=$ "Residual",Geom.point), layer(x-> 0, 0,10),
Guide.XLabel("X"),Guide.YLabel("Y"),Guide.Title("Residuals"))

## Coefficient of Determination $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{2}}$

$\mathrm{R}^{2}=1-\frac{\operatorname{var}(\varepsilon)}{\operatorname{var}(\mathrm{Y})} \quad \mathrm{e}=$ residuals,$~ \mathrm{Y}=$ observed data

Measure of how much the independent variable explains the variance of the data
r2(near_exact_model) $==0.985$

So one independent variable $x$ contributes $98.5 \%$ of the variation in the data

## Simple Regression and $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{2}}$

If only one independent variable
$R^{2}=r^{2} \quad$ (Pearson's Correlation squared)

In example

Pearson's Co
$\operatorname{cor}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})==0.992$

$$
\text { r2(near_exact_model) == } 0.985
$$

$0.992^{\wedge} 2=0.984$


## Second Example

```
\(\operatorname{cor}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})==0.552\)
```


$-100$
10
X

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(x)=2^{*} x+3 \\
& x=\operatorname{rand}(200) * 20 \\
& y=\operatorname{map}(z->j \operatorname{jitter}(\operatorname{Normal}(), f(z), 10), x)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Regression line

Coefficients:
Estimate Std.Error $t$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)$
$\begin{array}{lrrrr}\text { (Intercept) } & -8.12406 & 2.83688 & -2.86373 & 0.0046 \\ \mathrm{X} & 2.28285 & 0.24535 & 9.30447 & <1 \mathrm{e}-16\end{array}$
fitted_f(x) $=2.28^{*} x-8.12$
$f(x)=2^{*} x+3$

## Residuals

$R^{2}=0.304$


## Why Intercept So Off?

fitted_f(x) $=2.28^{*} x-8.12$
$f(x)=2^{*} x+3$

Coefficients:
Estimate Std.Error $t$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)$
(Intercept) -8.12406 $2.83688-2.86373 \quad 0.0046$
$X \quad 2.28285 \quad 0.24535 \quad 9.30447$ <1e-16

## Multiple Linear Regression

Using multiple independent varibles

Amazon's daily revenue depends on
Latency
Price
Steps needed to order
Page layout
Relevant suggestions
Search results
Font sizes
Color
Shipping costs

## Two Independent Variable Example

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(x, z)=2^{*} x-3^{*} z+3 \\
& x=\operatorname{rand}(200)^{*} 20 \\
& z=\operatorname{rand}(200)^{*} 20 \\
& \text { randomized_f(x,z) }=\text { jitter(Normal(),2*x, 1) - jitter(Normal(),3*z,0.5) + } 3
\end{aligned}
$$

## Exact Data

exact_y $=\operatorname{map}((x, z)->f(x, z), x, z)$
exact_data $=$ DataFrame $(X=x, Z=z, Y=$ exact_y)
plot(exact_data, $x=" X$ ", $y=" Y$ ",Geom.point,
Guide.XLabel("X"),Guide.YLabel("Y"),Guide.Title("Exact Data, X \& Y"
plot(exact_data, $x==" Z ", y=" Y ", G e o m . p o i n t, ~$
Guide.XLabel("Z"),Guide.YLabel("Y"),Guide.Title("Exact Data, Z \& Y"'

## Fake Data

$y=\operatorname{map}((x, z)->$ randomized_f(x,z),x,z)
two_data = DataFrame( $\mathrm{X}=\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{z}, \mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{y}$ )
plot(two_data, $x=" X$ ", $y=" Y$ ",Geom.point,
Guide.XLabel("X"),Guide.YLabel("Y"),Guide.Title("Data, X \& Y"))
plot(two_data,x="Z",y="Y",Geom.point,
Guide.XLabel("Z"),Guide.YLabel("Y"),Guide.Title("Data, Z \& Y"))
$\operatorname{cor}(\mathrm{x}$, exact_y) $=0.519$
$\operatorname{cor}(z$, exact_y $)==-0.825$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{cor}(x, y)=0.519 \\
& \operatorname{cor}(z, y)=-0.819
\end{aligned}
$$

## The Model

```
two_model = Im(Y~X + Z,two_data)
show(two_model)
```

Formula: Y ~ 1 + X + Z

Coefficients:

|  | Estimate Std.Error | t value | $\operatorname{Pr}(>\|t\|)$ |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| (Intercept) | 2.1751 | 0.431312 | 5.04299 | $<1 \mathrm{e}-5$ |
| X | 2.02513 | 0.0288004 | 70.316 | $<1 \mathrm{e}-99$ |
| Z | -3.00437 | 0.0285496 | -105.233 | $<1 \mathrm{e}-99$ |

```
fitted_coef = coef(two_model)
fitted_f(x,z) = fitted_coef[3]*z + fitted_coef[2]*x + fitted_coef[1]
    \(=-3.004^{*} z+2.025^{*} x+2.1751\)
```

$f(x, z)=2^{*} x-3^{*} z+3$

## $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{2}}$ - Coefficient of Multiple Determination

When have multiple independent variables $R^{2}$ has new name

Adding an other independent variable

Contributes to explain dependent variable
$R^{2}$ increases

Has nothing to do with dependent variable

$$
R^{2} \text { increases }
$$

## Adjusted $\mathbf{R}^{2}$

Modified version of $\mathrm{R}^{2}$

Adding new independent variable only increases $R^{2}$ more that expected by chance
adjr2(two_model)

