

CS 696 Intro to Big Data: Tools and Methods
Spring Semester, 2019
Doc 10 Regression
Feb 26, 2019

Copyright ©, All rights reserved. 2019 SDSU & Roger Whitney, 5500 Campanile Drive, San Diego, CA 92182-7700 USA. OpenContent (<http://www.opencontent.org/openpub/>) license defines the copyright on this document.

Machine Learning

Supervised

Unsupervised

Reinforcement learning

Classification

Regression

Clustering

Density Estimation

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

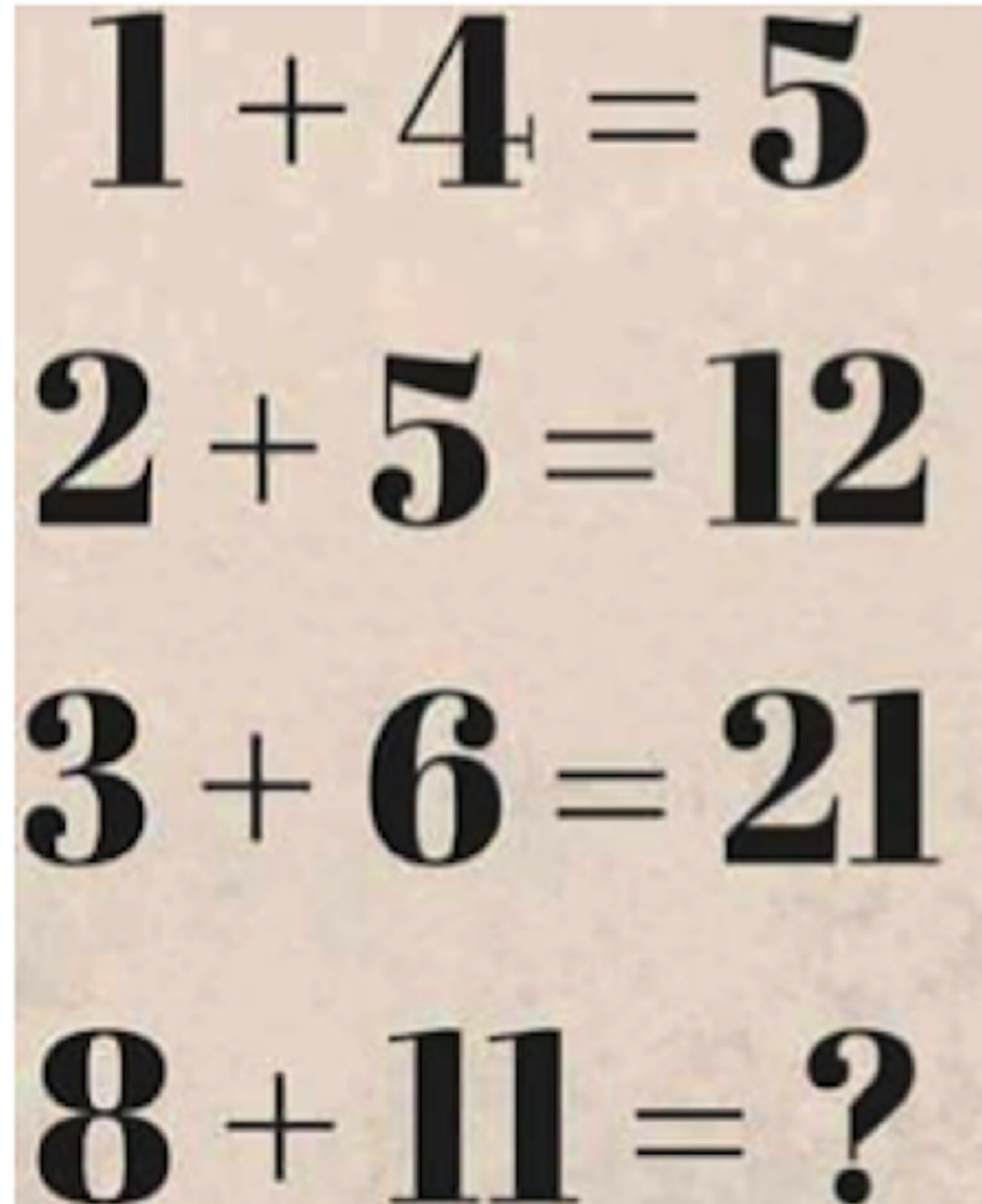
Drive a car with neural network “watching”

- You actions

- Videos of surroundings

- Neural net can identify patterns & start to drive

Limits of Pattern Matching



$$1 * (4 + 1) = 5$$

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

$$3 * (6 + 1) = 21$$

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

$$0 + 1 + 4 = 5$$

$$5 + 2 + 5 = 12$$

$$12 + 3 + 6 = 21$$

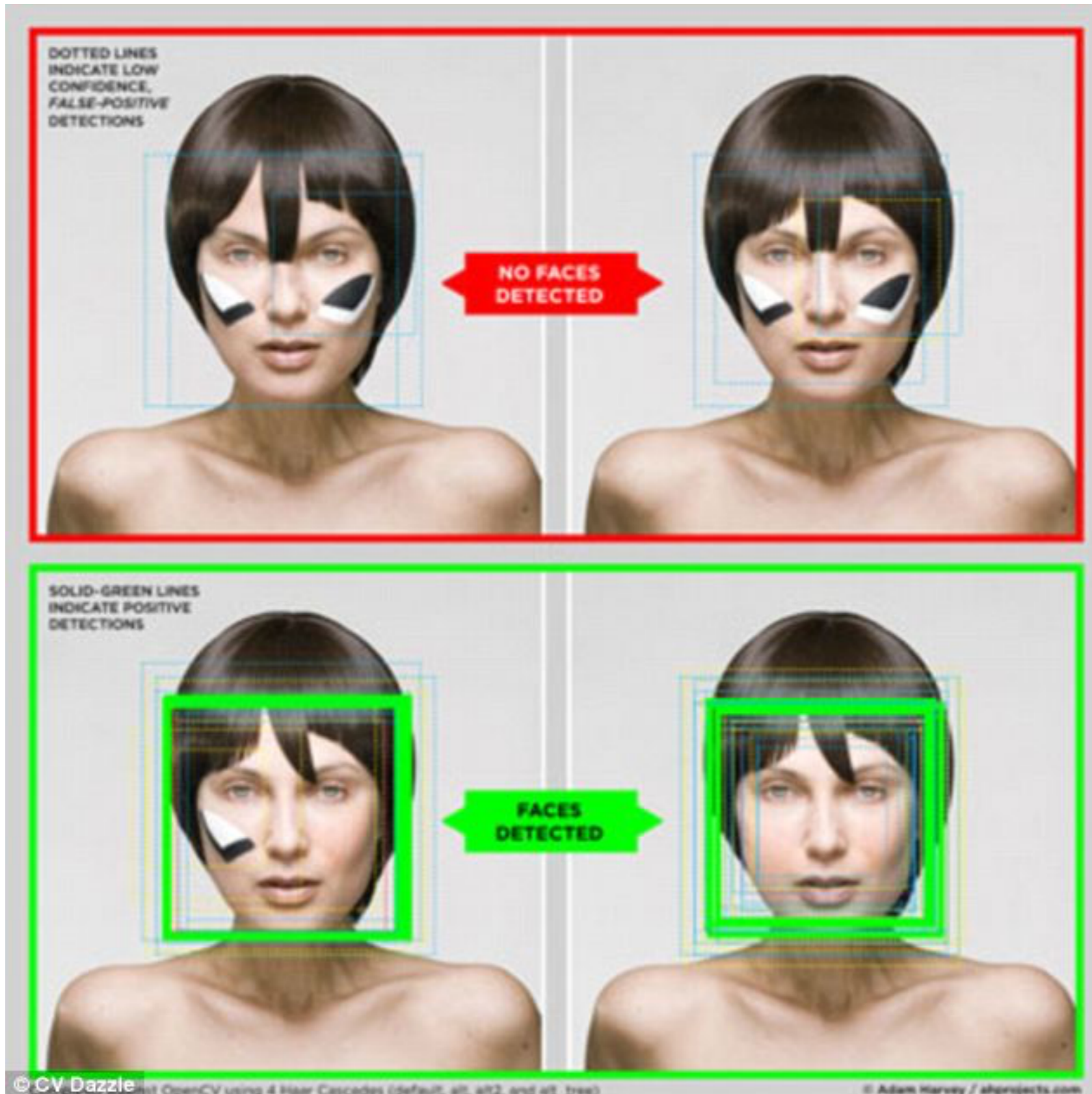
$$21 + 8 + 11 = 40$$

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



7 Deadly Sins of AI Predictions

Rodney Brooks, October 6, 2017

<https://goo.gl/oK6z5Z>

1. Amara's law

We tend to overestimate the effect of a technology in the short run and underestimate the effect in the long run.

Example U.S. Global Positioning System (GPS)

Started 1978

Precise delivery of bombs

First real use 1991, but not fully embraced by US military for several more years

Now

On mobile phones

Tracks planes, trucks

Sync US electrical grid

Determines which seed to plant in a field

7 Deadly Sins of AI Predictions

Rodney Brooks, October 6, 2017

<https://goo.gl/oK6z5Z>

3. Performance versus competence



7 Deadly Sins of AI Predictions

Rodney Brooks, October 6, 2017

<https://goo.gl/oK6z5Z>

3. Exponentials

Exponential growth not sustainable

iPod memory

| year | gigabytes |
|------|-----------|
| 2002 | 10 |
| 2003 | 20 |
| 2004 | 40 |
| 2006 | 80 |
| 2007 | 160 |

Deep Learning Breakthrough

Breakthrough paper on deep learning - back propagation

1986

Idea was abandoned for ~20 years because it was not producing results

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 conditions 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

Relevant suggestions

Search results

Font sizes

Color

Shipping costs

Some factors will be more important

Stochastic in nature

Independent variables

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)

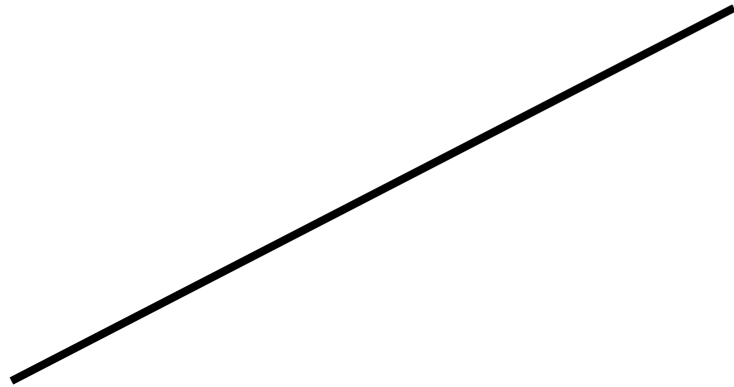
Is the dependent variable related to the independent variable

Generating the model

Error in the model

Effect of independent variables

Linear Regression



$$f(x) = 2x + 3$$

$$y = 2x + 3$$

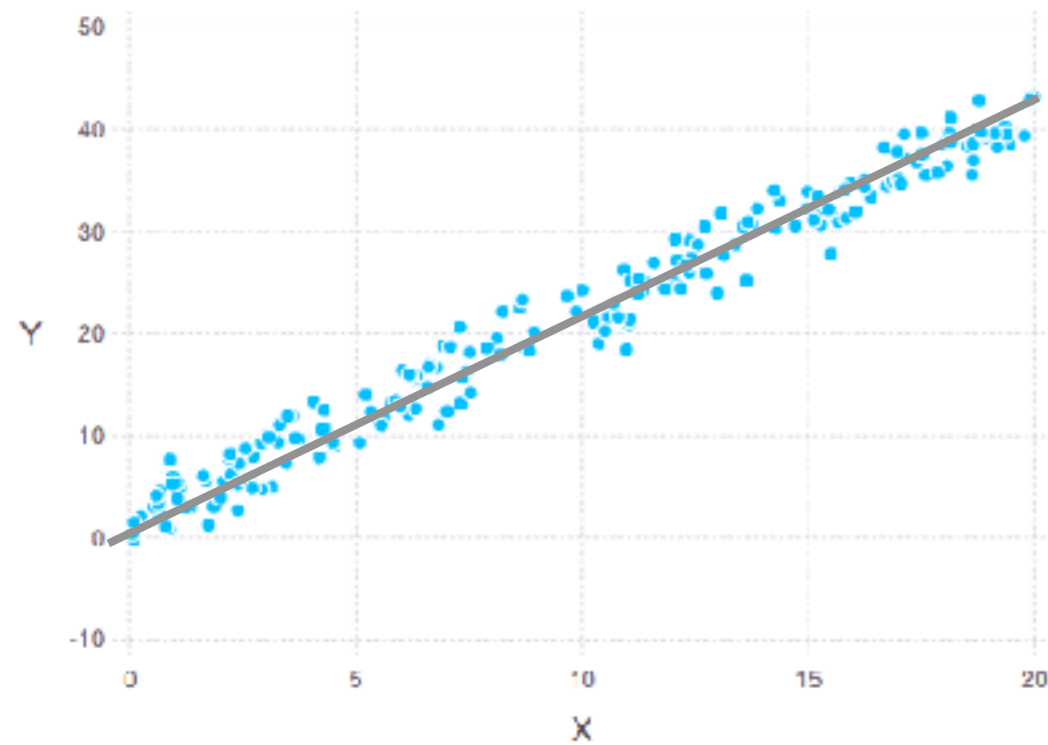
Model

$$y = 2x + 3$$

Dependent
Variable

Independent
Variable

Linear Regression



Actual relation (assumed)

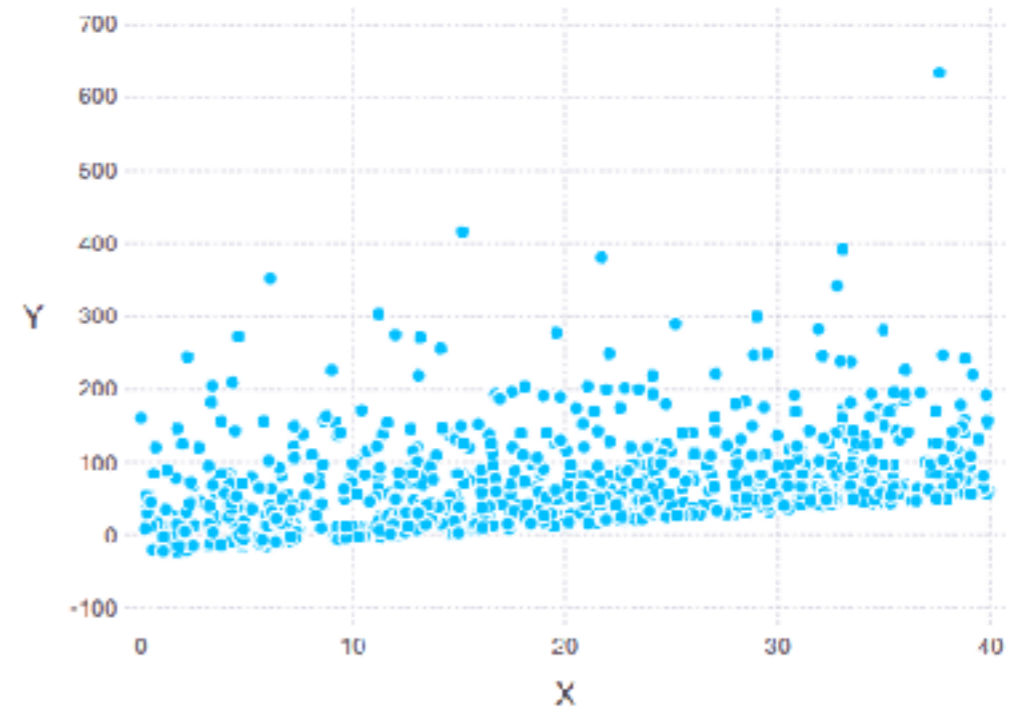
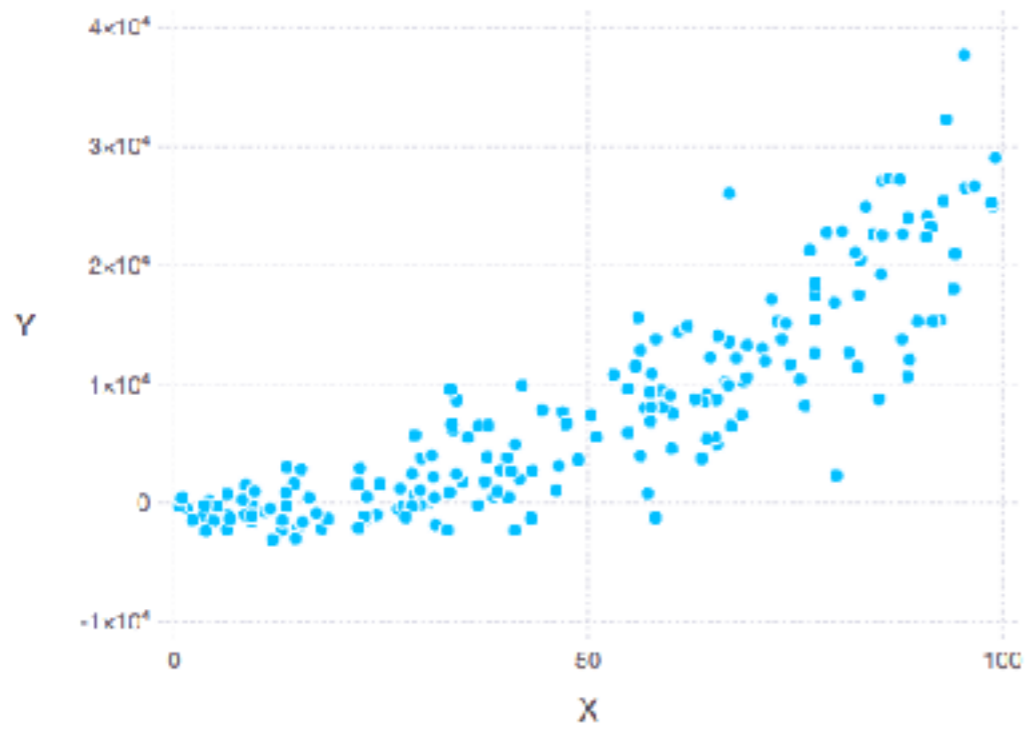
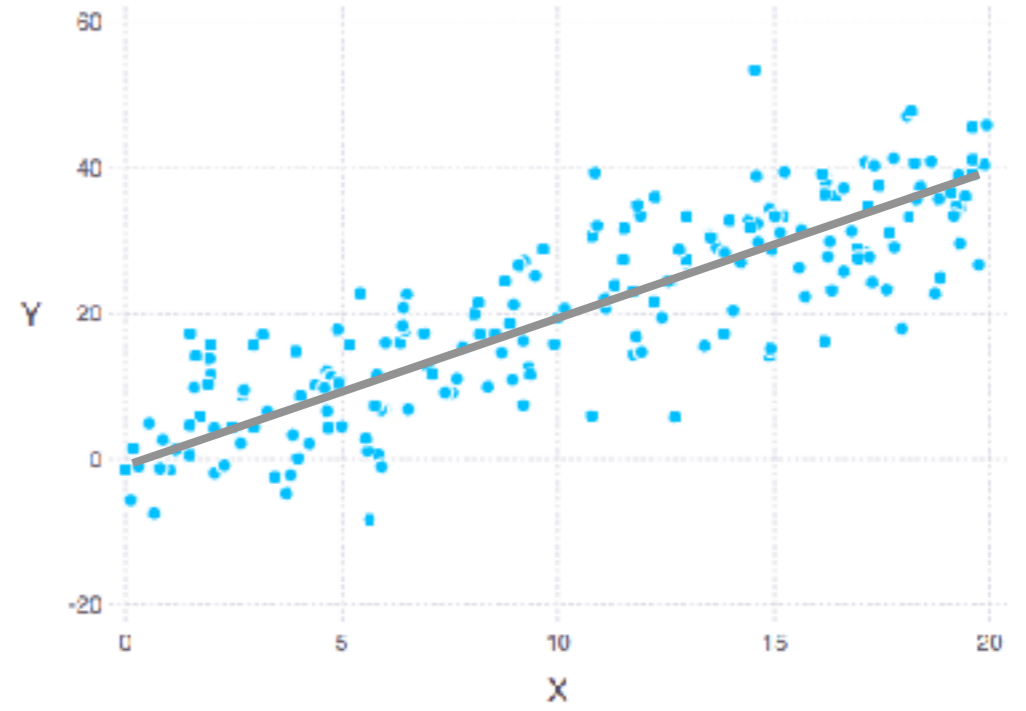
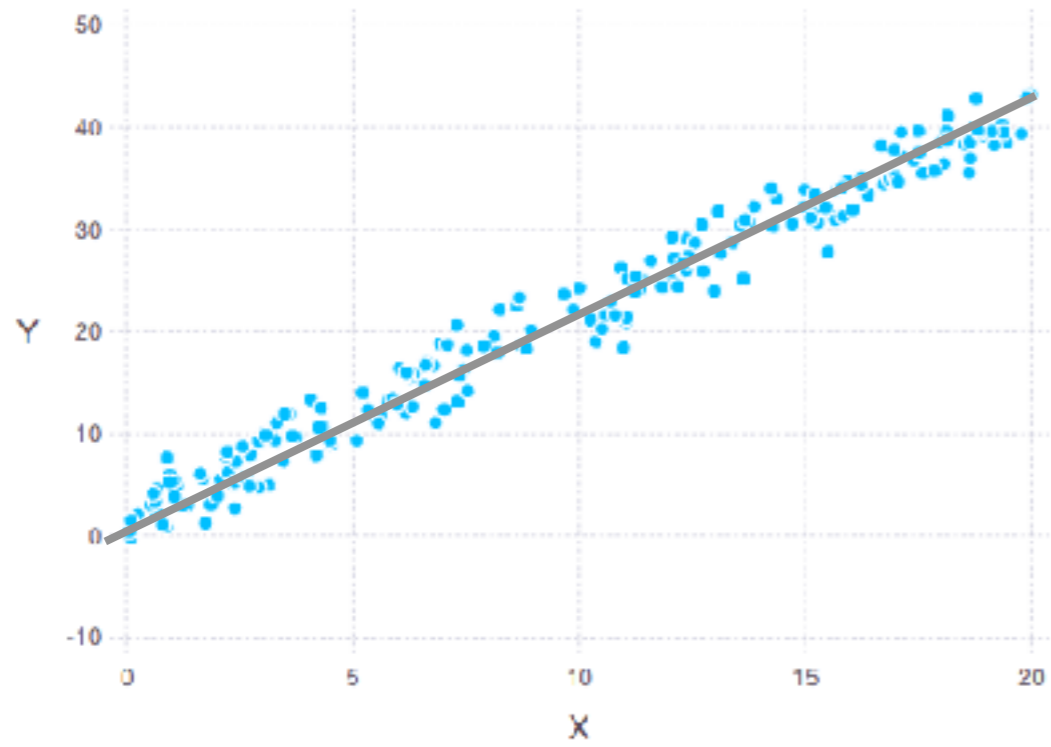
$$y = a + bx$$

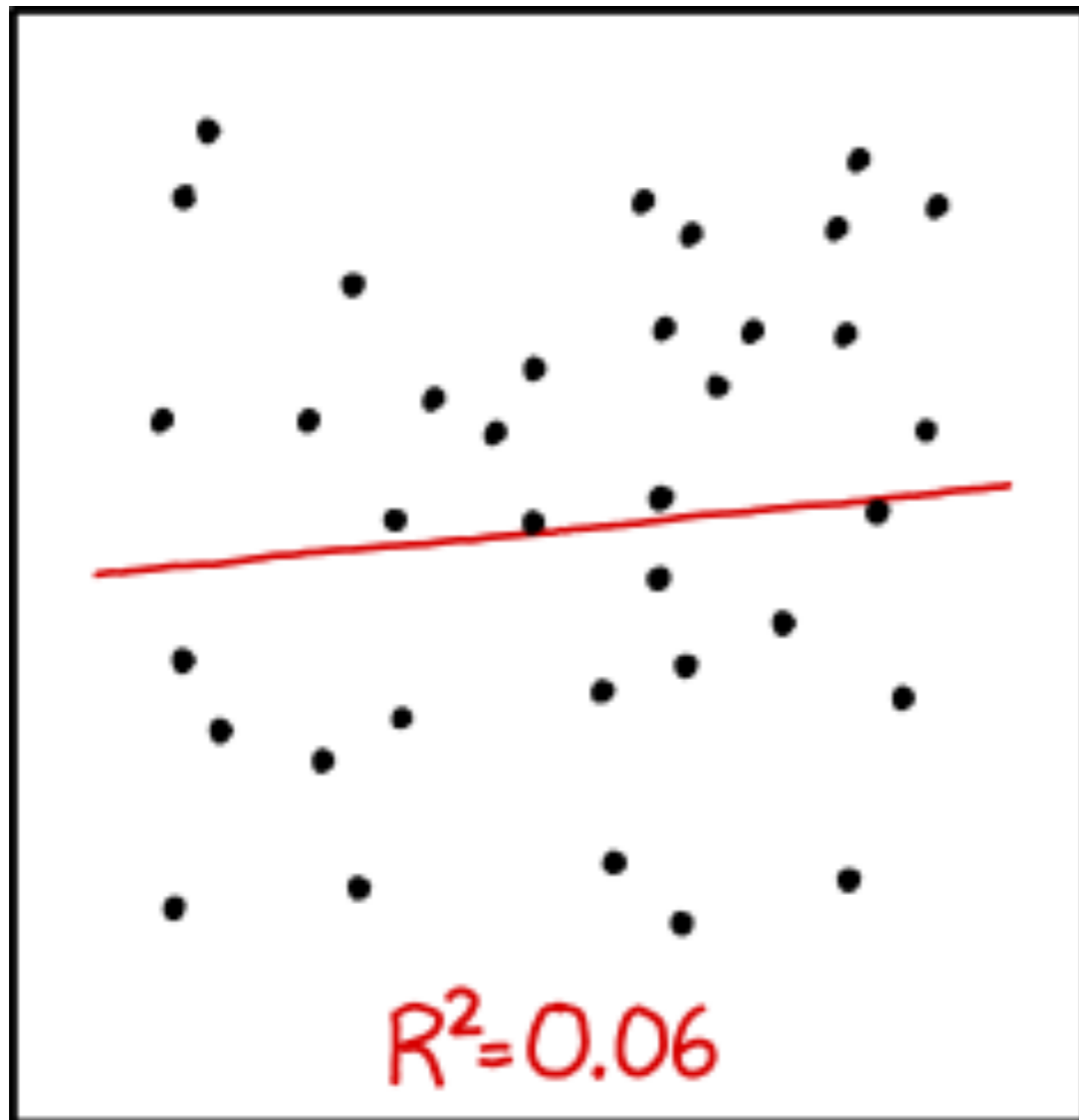
Compute linear line that fits the data best

$$\hat{y} = a + bx + e$$

e - error or residual

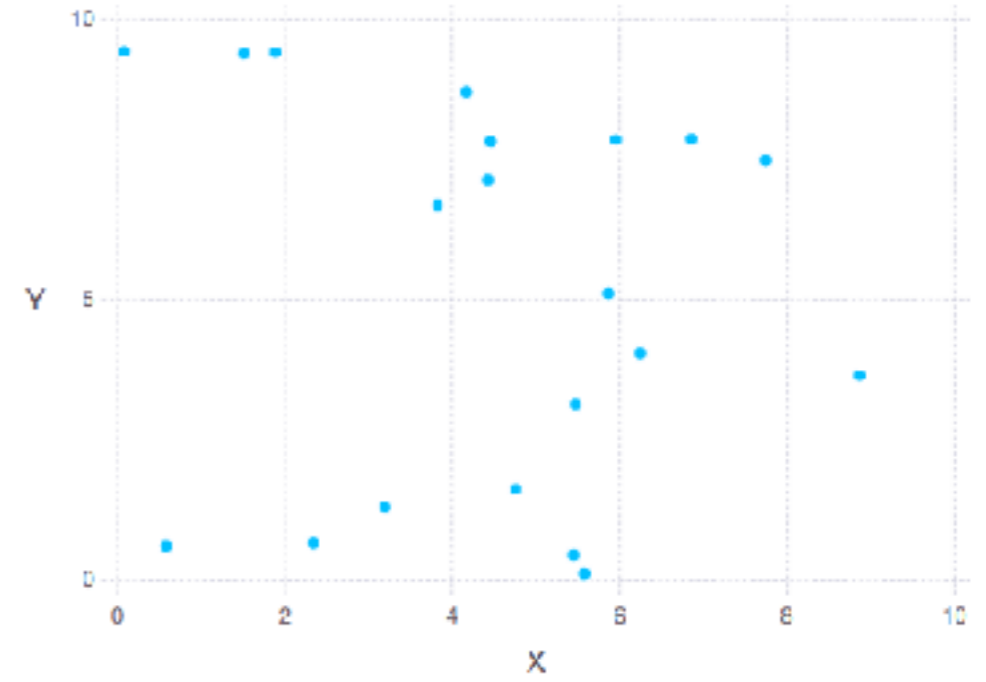
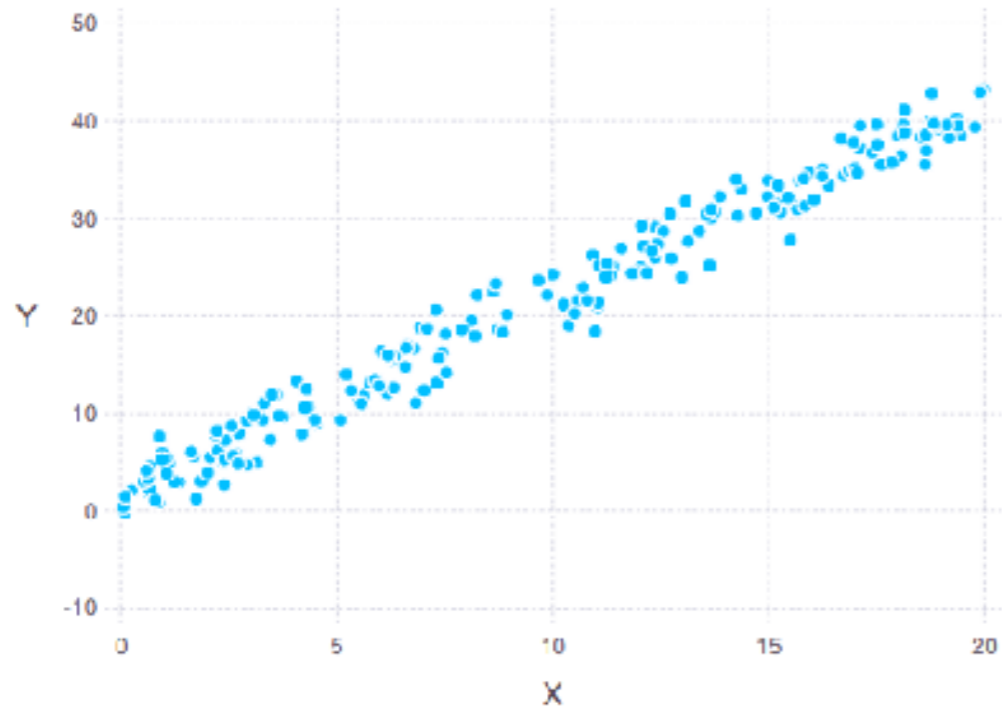
Goal is to minimize residual overall





I DON'T TRUST LINEAR REGRESSIONS WHEN IT'S HARDER TO GUESS THE DIRECTION OF THE CORRELATION FROM THE SCATTER PLOT THAN TO FIND NEW CONSTELLATIONS ON IT.

Are They Related?



Covariance

$$dx_i = x_i - \bar{x}$$

$$dy_i = y_i - \bar{y}$$

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n dx_i dy_i$$

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

Values near zero indicate no relation

positive values - positive relation

negative values - negative relation

DataFrame.cov

Effects of Scale

| Cost USD | Pounds | Grams |
|----------|--------|--------|
| 9 | 3 | 1357.8 |
| 24 | 7 | 3168.2 |
| 38 | 10 | 4526 |

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

```
cost_usd = pd.Series([9, 24, 38])
```

```
pounds = pd.Series([3, 7, 10])
```

```
grams = pd.Series([1357.8, 3168.2, 4526])
```

```
cost_usd.cov(pounds)          50.8
```

```
pounds.cov(cost_usd)
```

```
50.8
```

```
cost_usd.cov(grams)          23007.2
```

```
cost_inr = cost_usd * 71.04    1_634_429.1
```

```
cost_inr.cov(grams)
```

```
data = pd.DataFrame({"cost": [9, 24, 38],  
                    "pounds": [3, 7, 10],  
                    "grams": [1357.8, 3168.2, 4526]})
```

| | cost | pounds | grams |
|---|------|--------|--------|
| 0 | 9 | 3 | 1357.8 |
| 1 | 24 | 7 | 3168.2 |
| 2 | 38 | 10 | 4526 |

```
data.cov()
```

| | cost | pounds | grams |
|---------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| cost | 210.333333 | 50.833333 | 2.300717E+04 |
| pounds | 50.833333 | 12.333333 | 5.582067E+03 |
| grams | 23007.166667 | 5582.066667 | 2.526443E+06 |

Units

$$dx_i = x_i - \bar{x} \quad \text{Lbs}$$

$$dy_i = y_i - \bar{y} \quad \text{USD}$$

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n dx_i dy_i$$

`cost_usd.cov(pounds) == 50.8 lbs*USD`

`cost_usd.cov(grams) == 23007 grams*USD`

| Cost USD | Pounds | Grams |
|----------|--------|--------|
| 9 | 3 | 1357.8 |
| 24 | 7 | 3168.2 |
| 38 | 10 | 4526 |

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 |

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

`normalized_amount = pounds/pounds.max()`

`normalized_cost = cost_usd/cost_usd.max()`

`normalized_amount.cov(normalized_cost)` 0.134

Pearson's Correlation - r

$$r = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

Normalized Covariance

Unit less

Range -1 to 1

corr

1 = maximumly related

-1 - maximumly inversely related

0 - not related

Pearson's Correlation - r

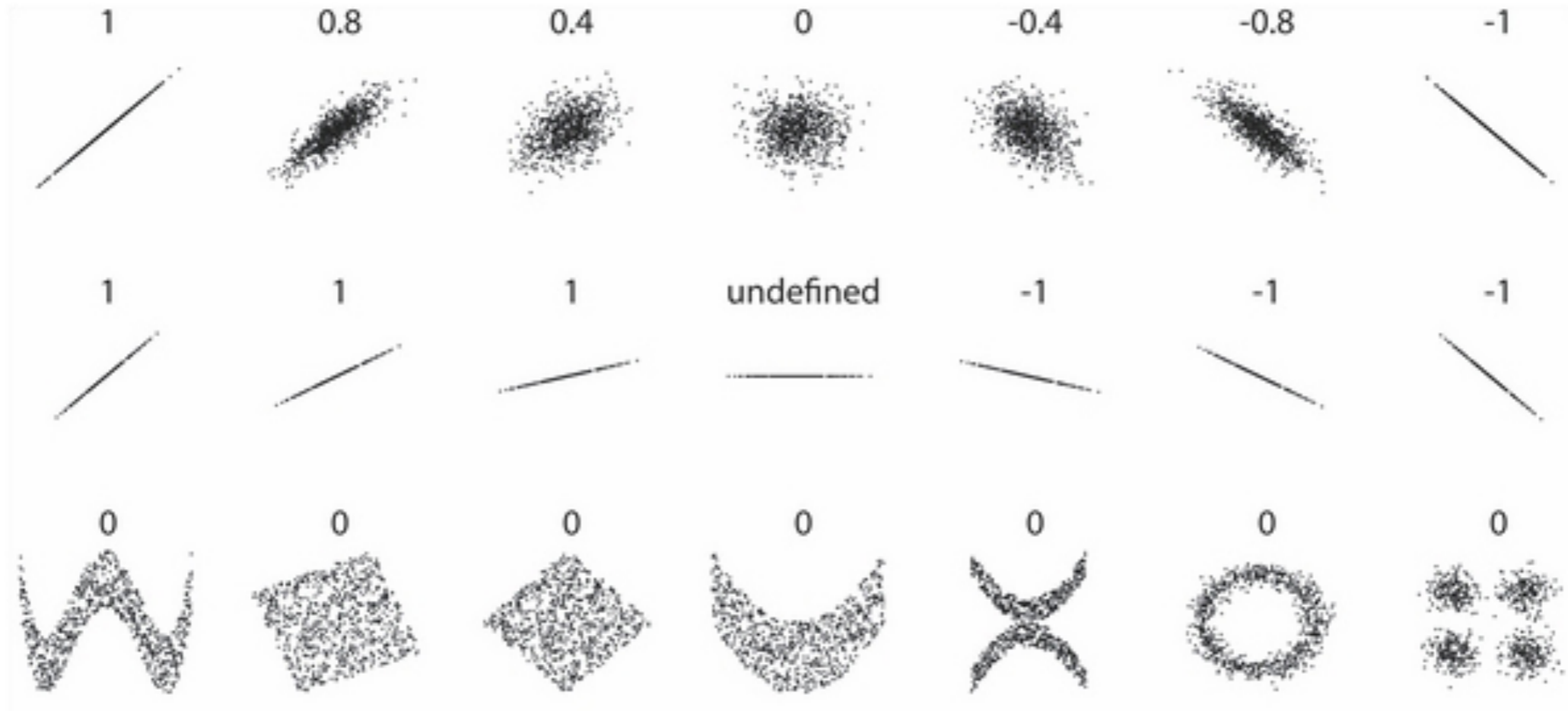
| Cost USD | Pounds | Grams |
|----------|--------|--------|
| 9 | 3 | 1357.8 |
| 24 | 7 | 3168.2 |
| 38 | 10 | 4526 |

`cost_usd.corr(pounds)`

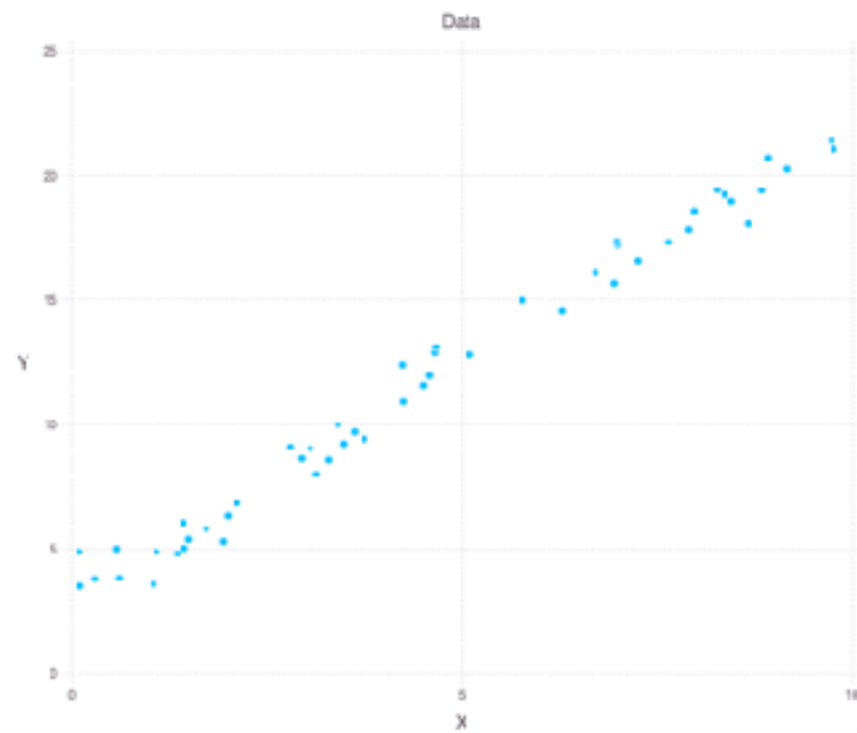
`cost_usd.corr(grams)`

0.998

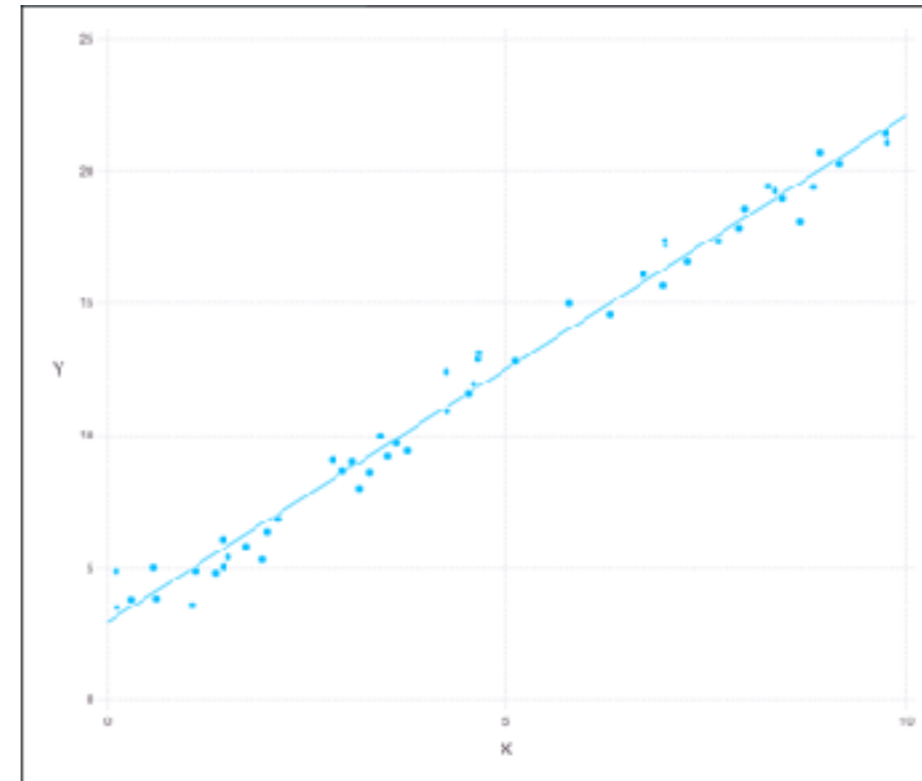
Pearson's Correlation r Value Examples



Regression Line



Pearson's Co
 $x.\text{corr}(y) == 0.992$



What the line that minimizes the amount of residuals

Ordinary least squares

$$b = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

Standard way to fit line to data

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

$$a = \bar{y} - b\bar{x}$$

Computing Linear Regression - Some Data

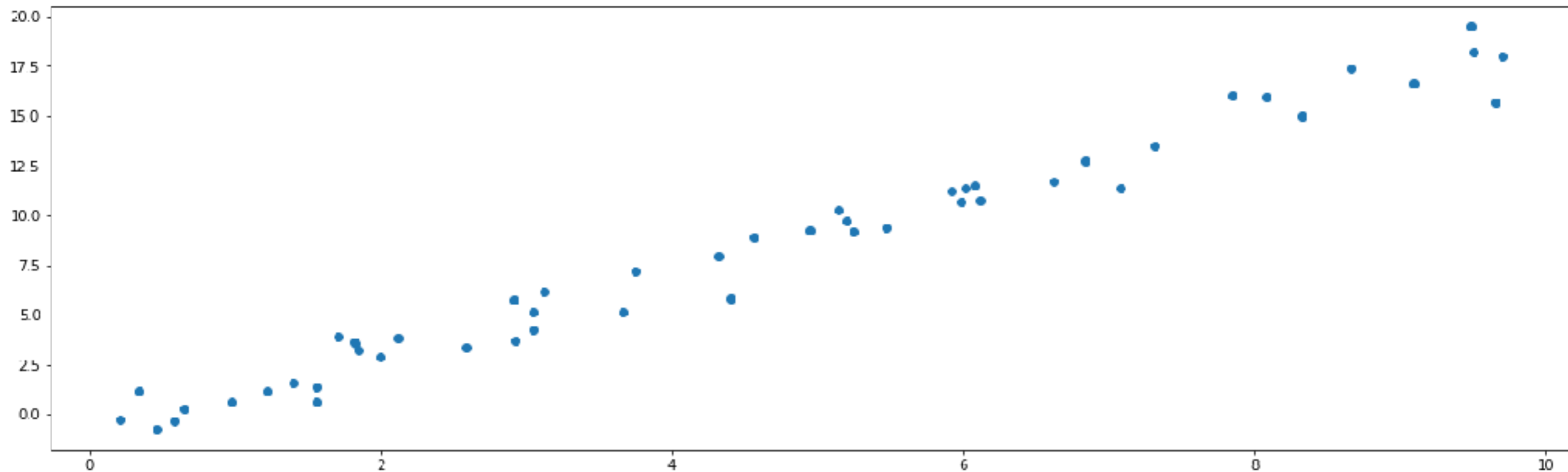
```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt  
import numpy as np
```

y is our fake observed values

```
rng = np.random.RandomState(42)  
x = 10 * rng.rand(50)  
y = 2 * x - 1 + rng.randn(50)  
plt.figure(figsize=(20,6))  
plt.scatter(x, y);
```

```
pd.Series(x).corr(pd.Series(y))
```

0.99



Training the Model

```
from sklearn.linear_model import LinearRegression
```

```
X = x[:,np.newaxis]                                     //sklearn requires 2D for independent var  
model = LinearRegression(fit_intercept=True)  
model.fit(X, y)
```

```
model.coef_[0]          1.977656600385311
```

```
model.intercept_       -0.9033107255311164
```

Regression line

$$y = 1.977656600385311 *x - 0.9033107255311164$$

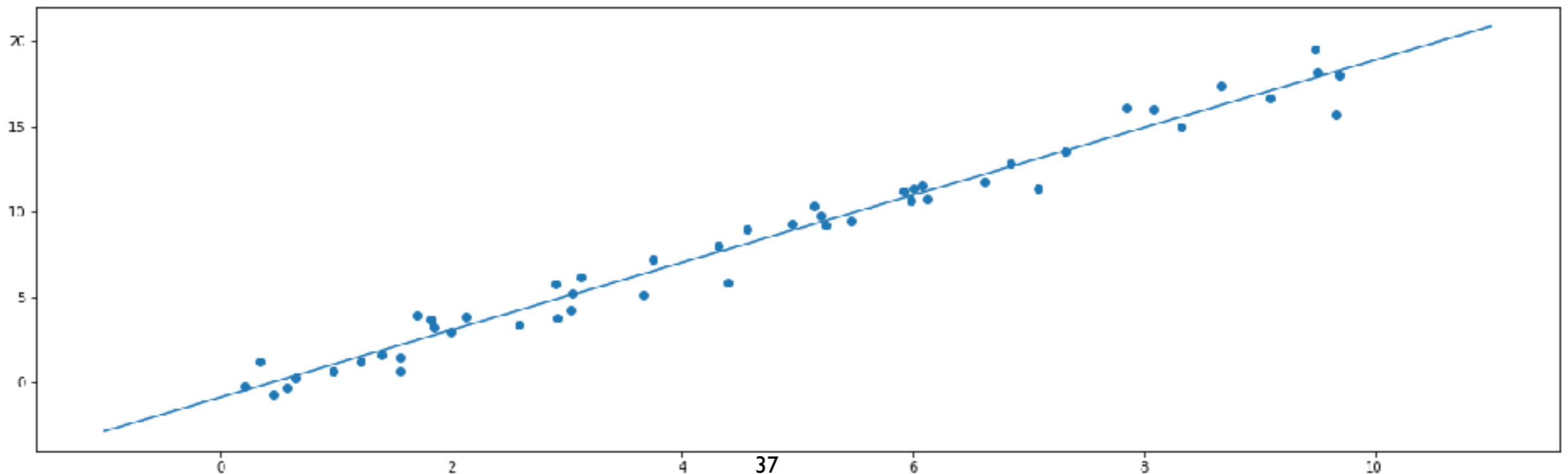
Regression Line

```
def regression_function(model):  
    return lambda x: x * model.coef_[0] + model.intercept_
```

```
regression = regression_function(model)  
regression(1)
```

```
plt.figure(figsize=(20,6))  
plt.scatter(x, y);
```

```
xfit = np.linspace(-1,11, num=50)  
plt.plot(xfit, regression(xfit))
```



Regression Line

Linear regression is simple

Other models are not so simple

Let the model compute the regression line

```
xfit = np.linspace(-1,11, num=50) # 50 evenly spaced points from -1 to 11
```

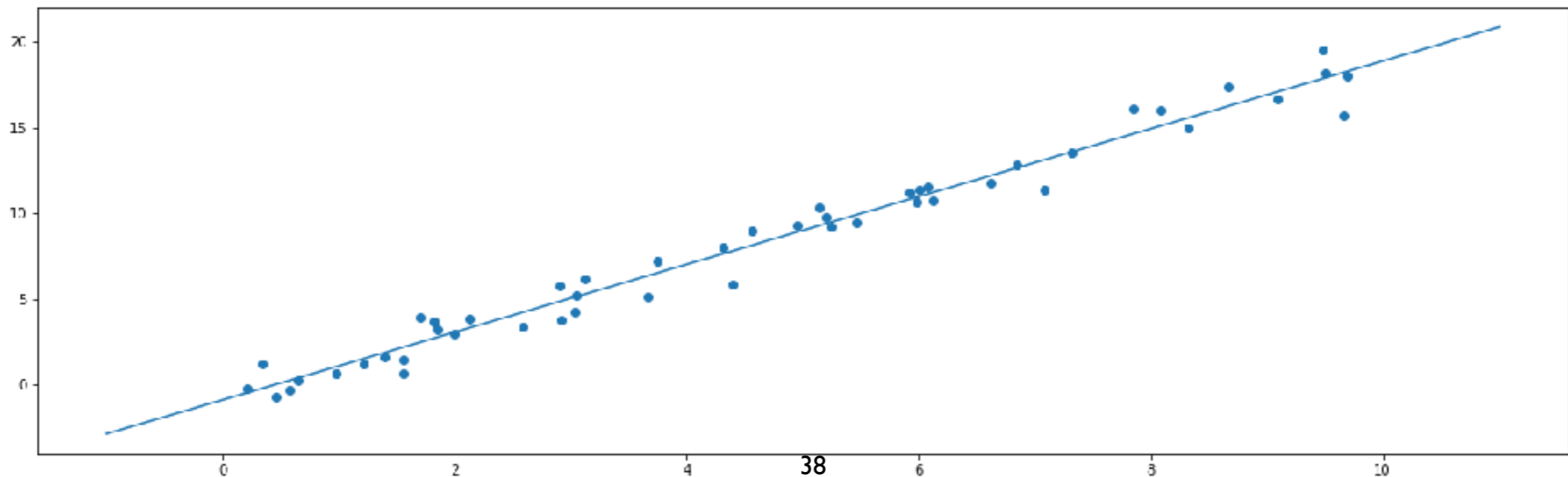
```
Xfit = xfit[:, np.newaxis] # need 2D
```

```
yfit = model.predict(Xfit)
```

```
plt.figure(figsize=(20,6))
```

```
plt.scatter(x, y)
```

```
plt.plot(xfit, yfit);
```

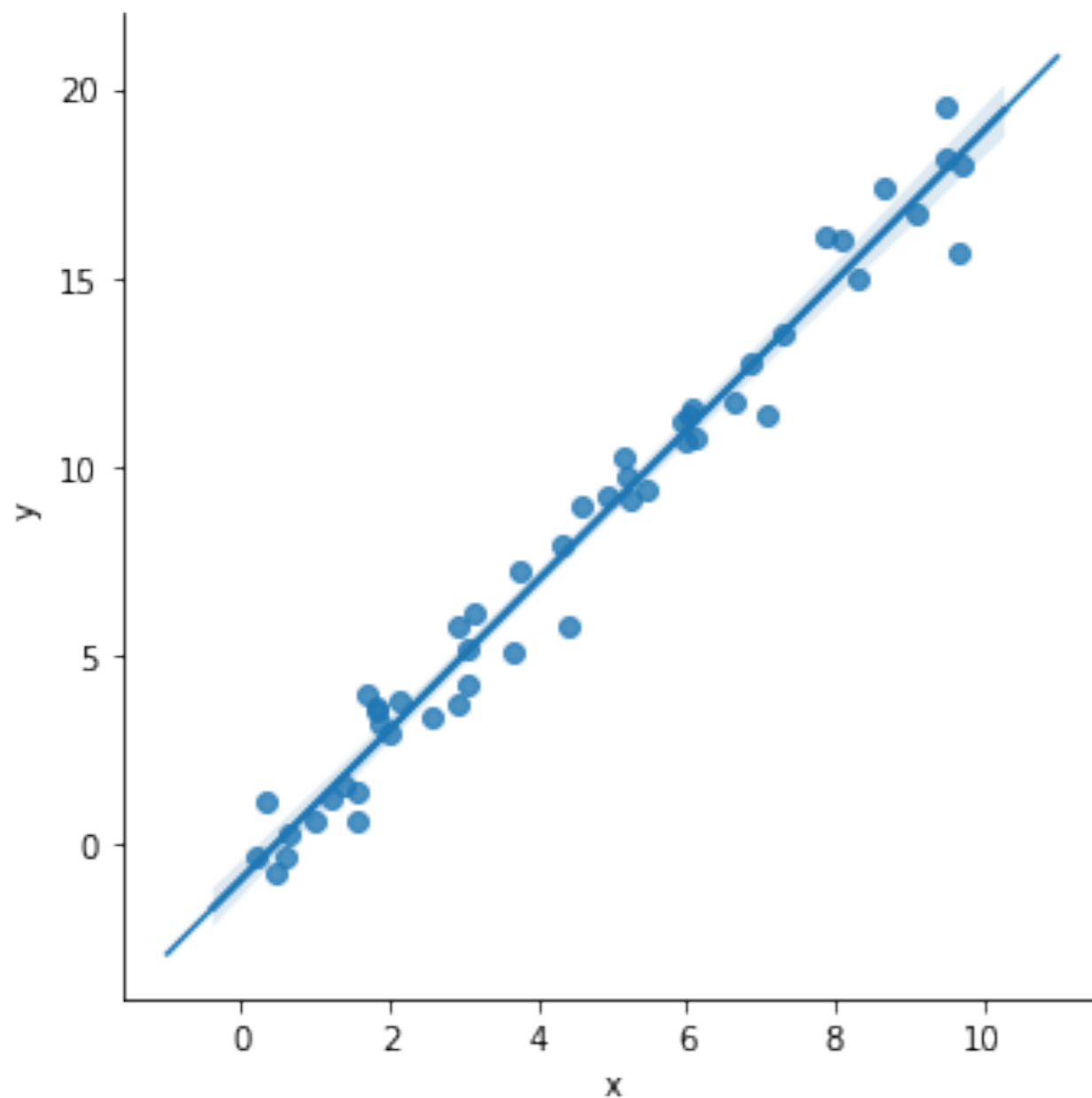


Who does it compare to SNS Regression Line?

```
import seaborn as sns
```

```
sns.lmplot(x='x', y='y', data=pd.DataFrame({'x': x, 'y':y}))
```

```
plt.plot(xfit, yfit)
```



Is Linear Regression the Correct Model?

Scikit Learn Generalized Linear Models

Ordinary Least Squares

Ridge Regression

Lasso

Multi-task Lasso

Elastic Net

Multi-task Elastic Net

Least Angle Regression

LARS Lasso

Orthogonal Matching Pursuit (OMP)

Bayesian Regression

Logistic regression

Stochastic Gradient Descent - SGD

Huber Regression

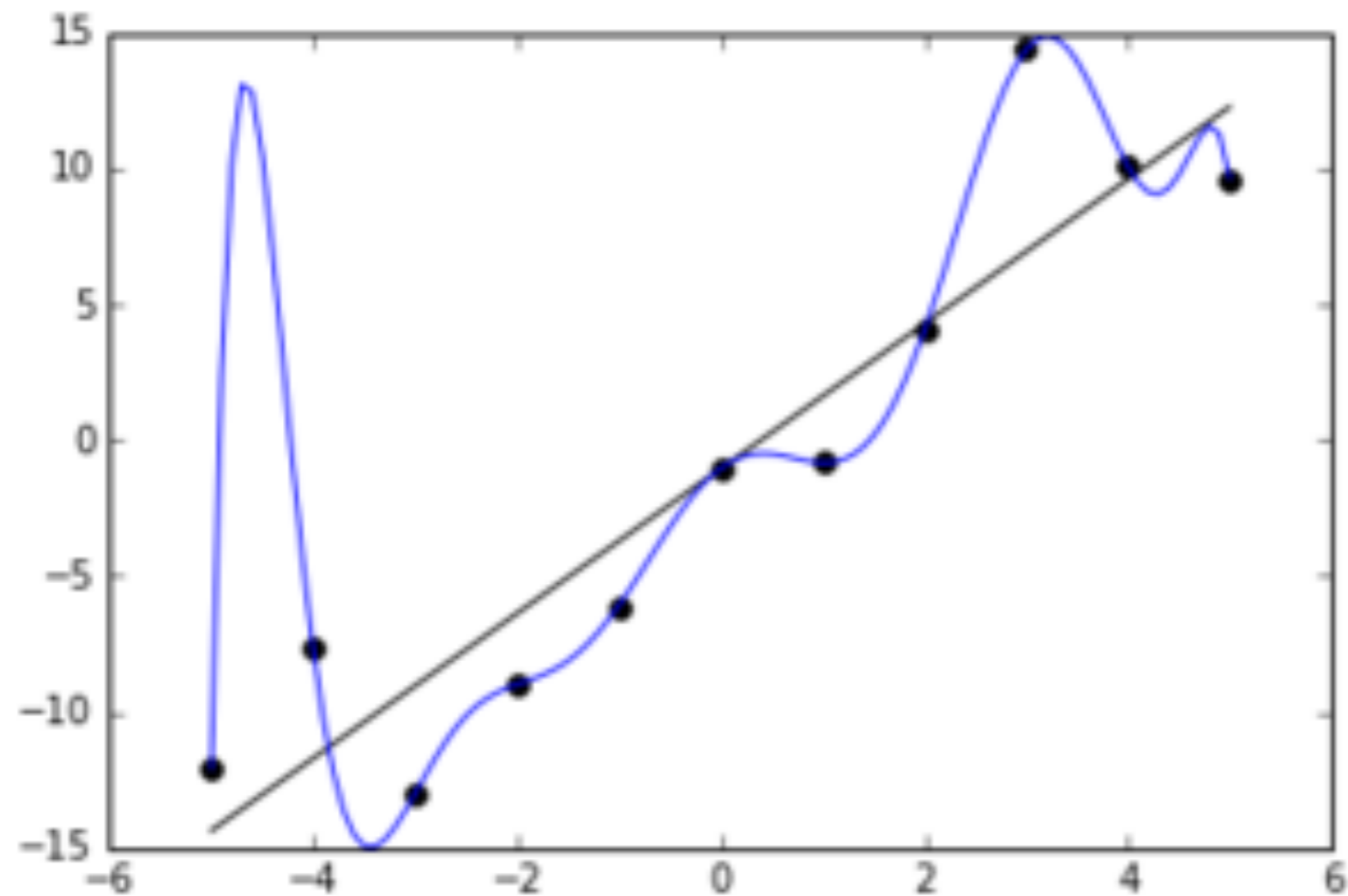
Polynomial regression

Overfitting

Model describes random error or noise instead of the underlying relationship

Overfitting occurs when a model is excessively complex,

Too many parameters relative to the number of observations



Is Linear Regression the Correct Model?

Residuals

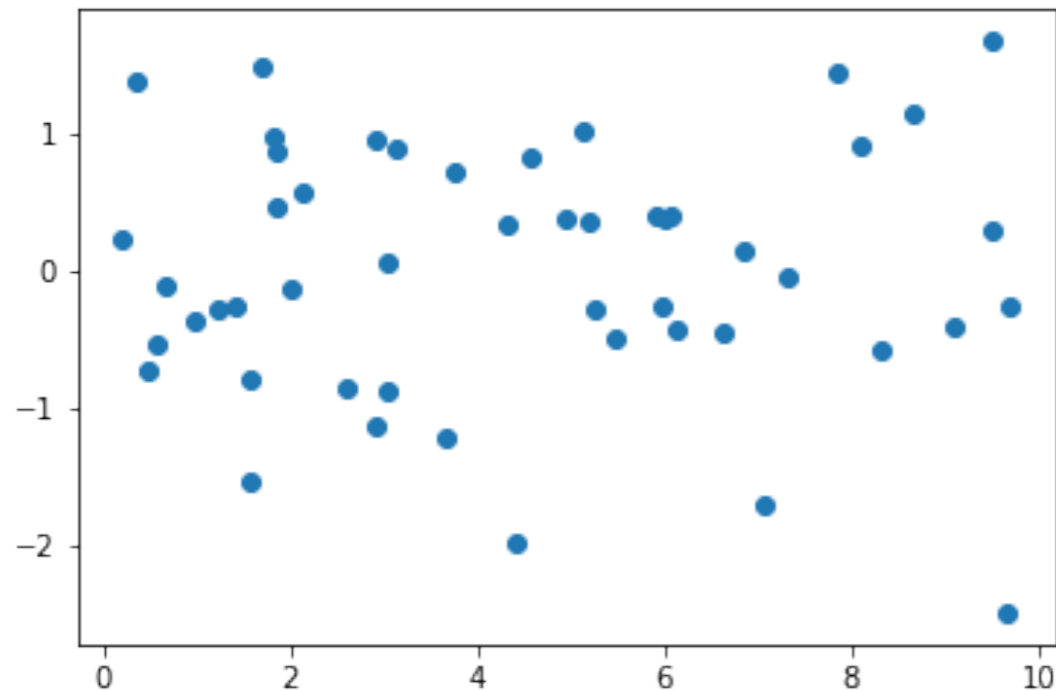
R^2

Residuals

Residual = Observed value - Predicted value

```
rng = np.random.RandomState(42)  
x = 10 * rng.rand(50)  
y = 2 * x - 1 + rng.randn(50) # Observed values  
X = x[:,np.newaxis]
```

```
residual = y - model.predict(X)  
plt.scatter(X,residual)
```



Residuals

Should be randomly distributed

Sum = 0

mean = 0

Coefficient of Determination R^2

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\text{var}(\varepsilon)}{\text{var}(Y)}$$

ε = residuals

Y = observed data

Measure of how much the independent variable explains the variance of the data

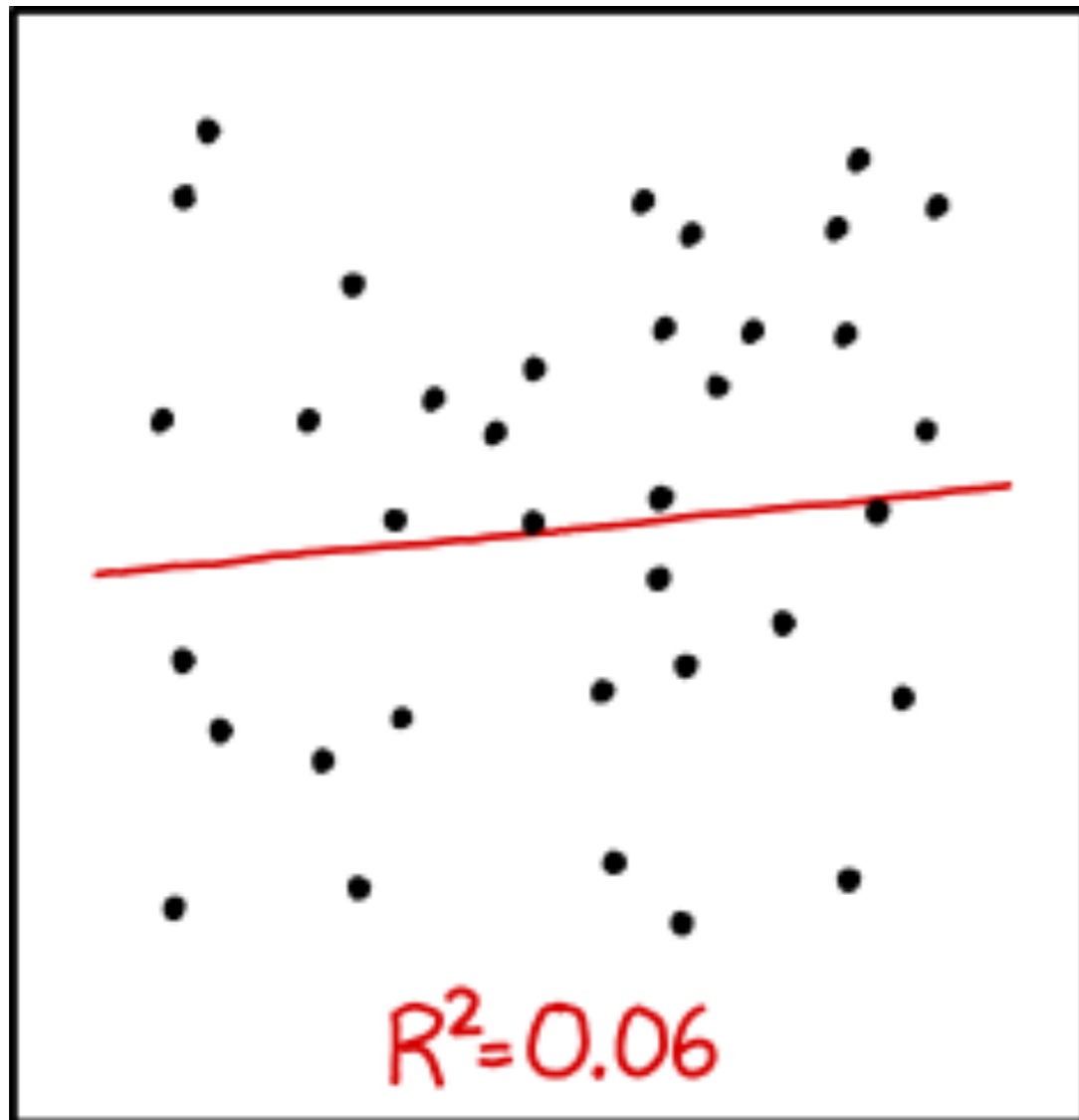
```
from sklearn.metrics import r2_score  
r2_score(y, model.predict(X))
```

0.9749140085676858

Simple Regression and R^2

If only one independent variable

$$R^2 = r^2 \quad (\text{Pearson's Correlation squared})$$



I DON'T TRUST LINEAR REGRESSIONS WHEN IT'S HARDER TO GUESS THE DIRECTION OF THE CORRELATION FROM THE SCATTER PLOT THAN TO FIND NEW CONSTELLATIONS ON IT.

Multiple Linear Regression

Using multiple independent variables

Amazon's daily revenue depends on

Latency

Price

Steps needed to order

Page layout

Relevant suggestions

Search results

Font sizes

Color

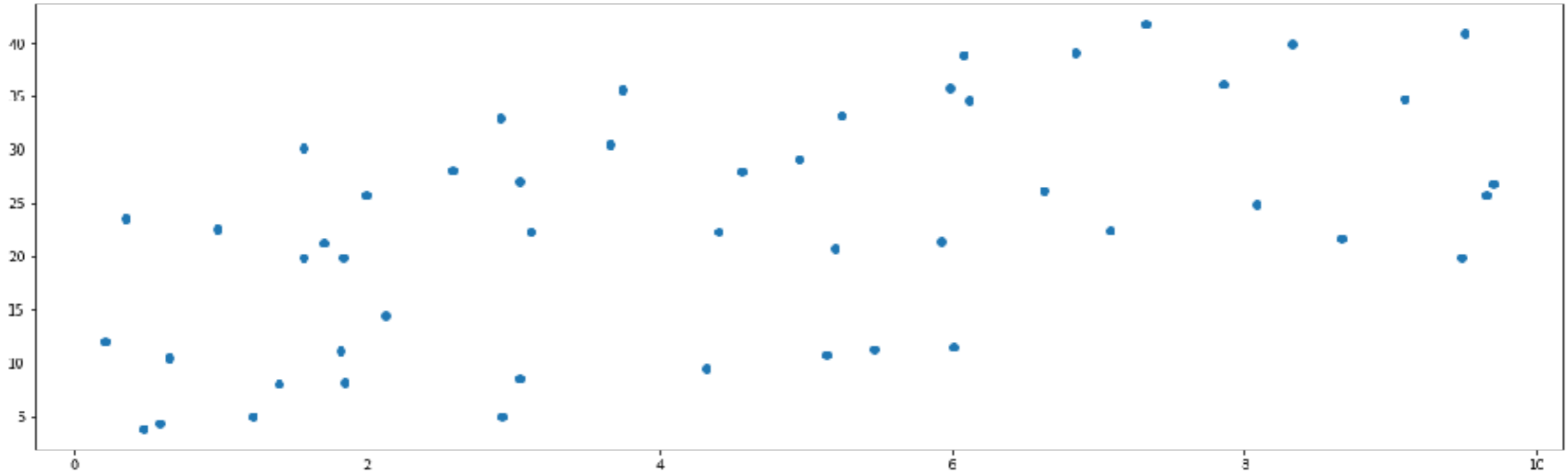
Shipping costs

Two Independent Variable Example

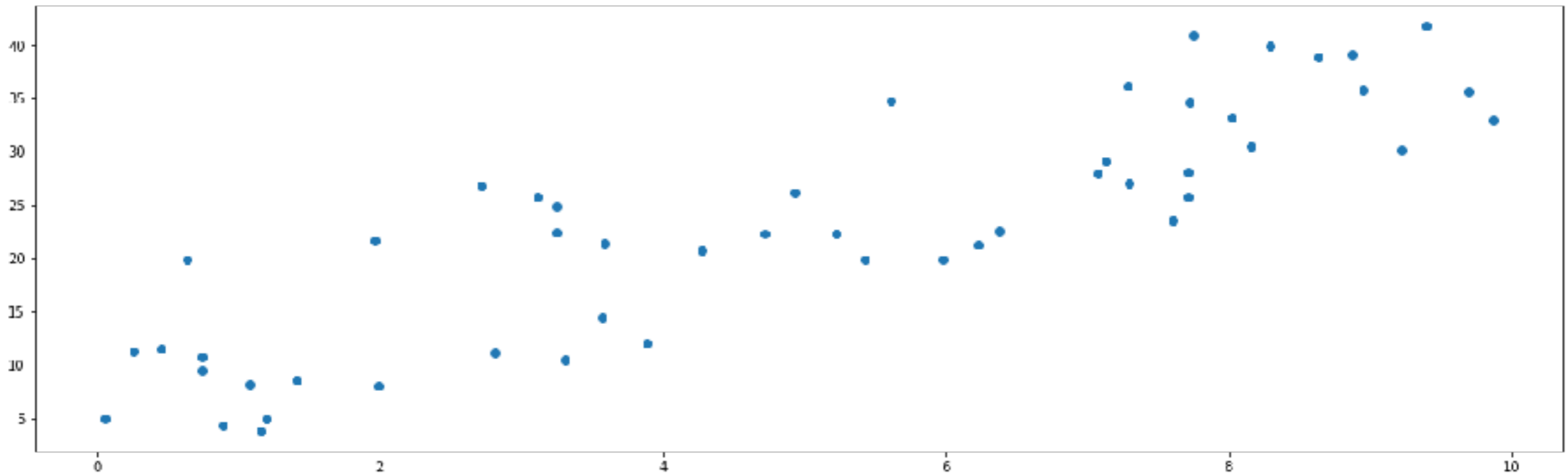
$$y = f(x, z) = 2*x + 3*z - 1$$

```
rng = np.random.RandomState(42)
x = 10 * rng.rand(50)
z = 10 * rng.rand(50)
y = 2 * x + 3 * z - 1 + rng.randn(50) #faking data
```


plt.scatter(x, y)



plt.scatter(z, y)



Fitting the Model

```
from sklearn.linear_model import LinearRegression
model2 = LinearRegression(fit_intercept=True)
model2.fit(pd.DataFrame({'x':x,'z':z}), y)
```

```
model2.coef_          array([1.86706076, 2.96638451])
```

```
model2.intercept_    -0.3049071881469345
```

Model

$$y = 1.86706076 * x + 2.96638451 * z - 0.3049071881469345$$

Actual

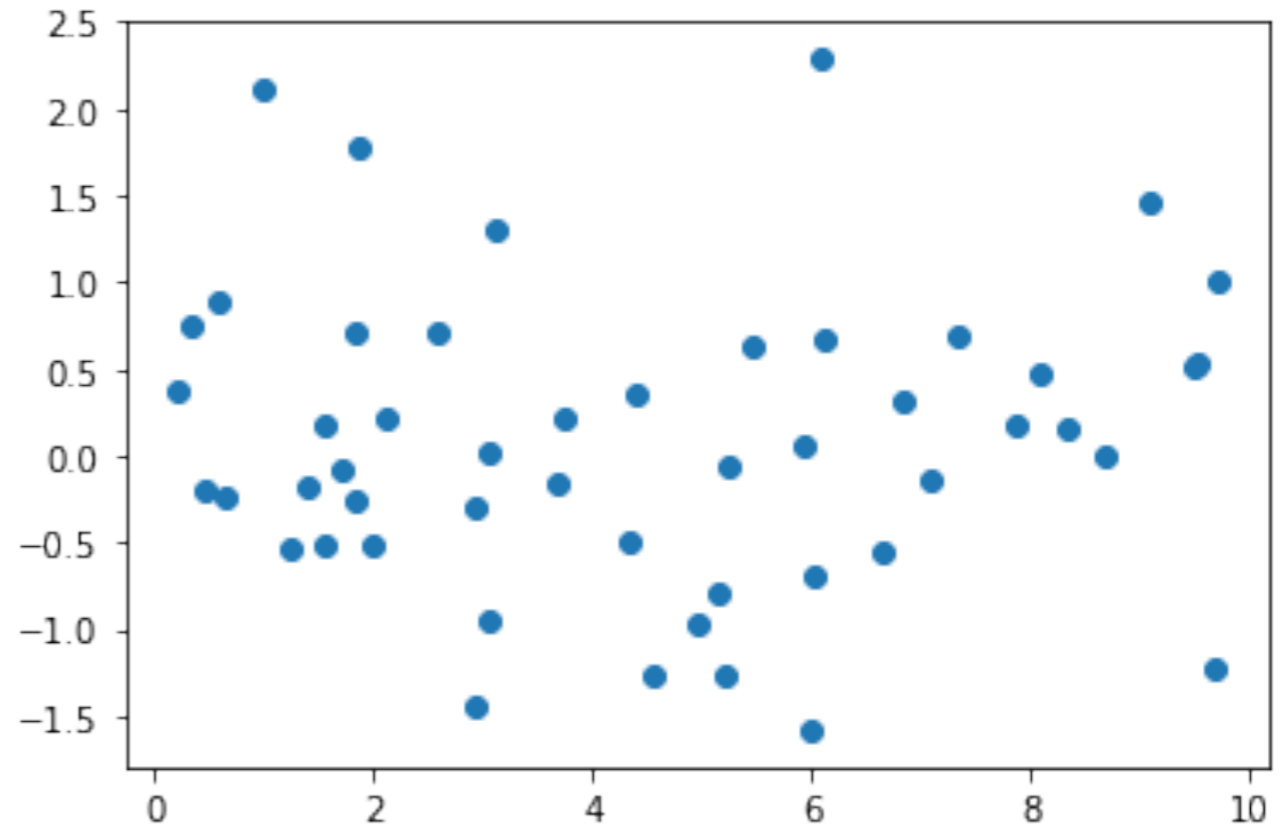
$$f(x, z) = 2*x + 3*z - 1$$

Residuals

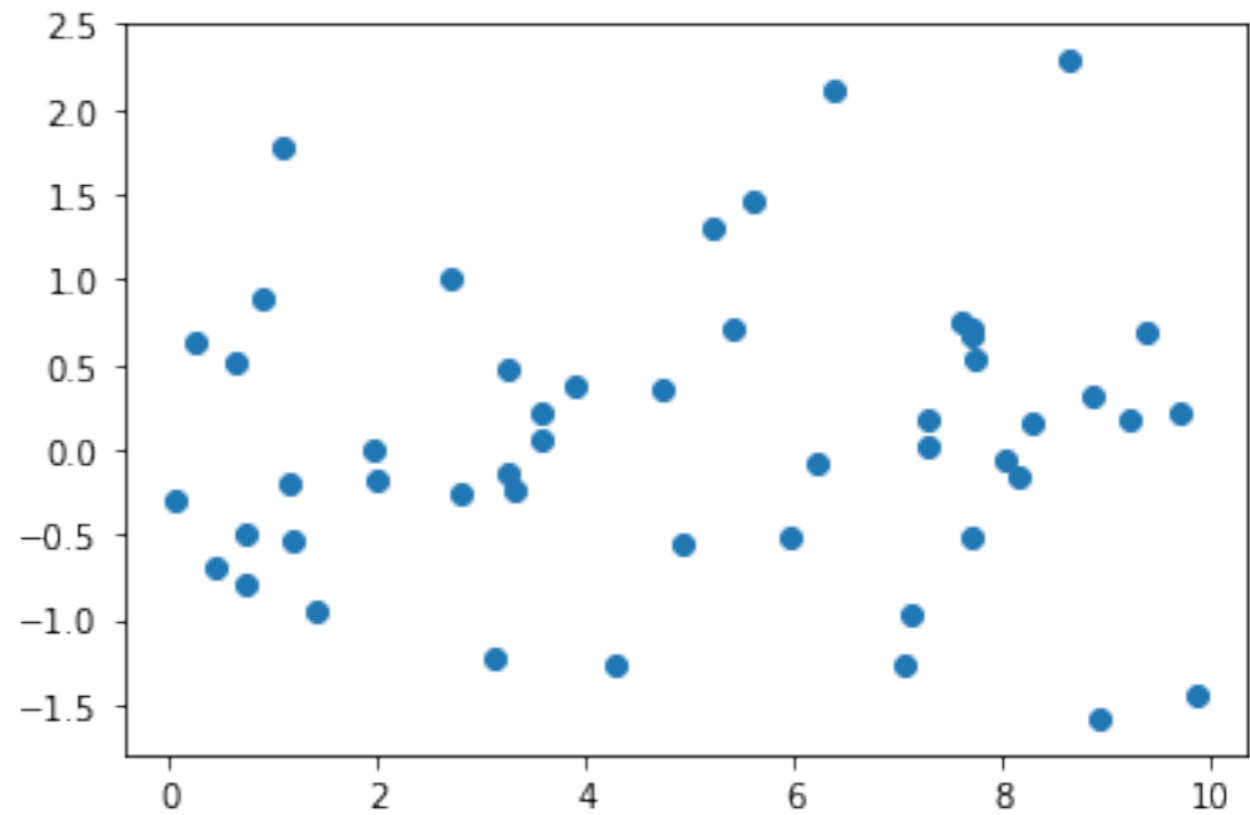
```
predicted = model2.predict(pd.DataFrame({'x':x,'z':z}))  
residuals2 = y - predicted  
residuals2.mean()          # 0.0831037982077566  
residuals2.sum()          # 4.1551899103878
```

Residuals

`plt.scatter(x,residuals2)`



`plt.scatter(z,residuals2)`



Two Independent Variable Example

Model With 50 Data points

$$y = 1.86706076 * x + 2.96638451 * z - 0.3049071881469345$$

Actual

$$f(x, z) = 2*x + 3*z - 1$$

Model With 100 Data points

$$y = 1.96582747 * x + 3.07193114 * z - 1.0893899635499302$$

Model With 1000 Data points

$$y = 1.99662862 * x + 2.99969211 * z - 0.9689826659919589$$

R^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 increases