

Integrating statistical thinking to the reform of contract law: towards a leximetric approach of the French legal system

Louis Daniel Georges Brule Naudet

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Integrating statistical thinking to the reform of contract law: towards a leximetric approach of the French legal system

Detailed research plan for a mathematical analysis of the understanding of French law

Louis Brulé Naudet University of Paris-Dauphine (Paris Sciences et Lettres)

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1 Fractality of the legal phenomenon and mathematization of practice: an infinitely fragmented and statistically appropriable science

To this day¹, the majority tendency is based on the confrontation between the human and social sciences and the fundamental disciplines applied to the observations of nature and the constraining forces which are, in a non-limitative way, for example, physics or geology. However, to think of the brutal separation between the subjects presents itself as a logic refuted for centuries, notably, in the legal doctrine², thanks to the works of Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz³, and the structuring of the theories of language and fundamental computer science seems to go in this direction as well, effectively demonstrating the nature of complex dynamics attached to literary paradigms. In this sense, one of the points of rapprochement between computer science and literature that we will address is the rejection of ambiguity in decision making and its impact on the modeling of behaviors induced by iterative protocols⁴: thus, the objective of the study would be to demonstrate a possible mathematical representation of the practice of law in order to draw statistical conclusions on the effectiveness of the norm and its understanding by the legal actors.

¹L. Strauss. *Anthropologie structurale II*. Fonds Claude Lévi-Strauss. Place des éditeurs, 2014.

²Harvard University Press. Chapter 1. Beyond Geometry: Leibniz and the Science of Law, pages 17–27. Harvard University Press, 2009.

³M. H. Hoeflich. Law & geometry: Legal science from leibniz to langdell. *American Journal of Legal History*, 30(2):95–121, 1986.

⁴K. Falconer. Fractal Geometry: Mathematical Foundations and Applications. Wiley, 2013. ISBN 9781118762868.

1.1 Ambiguity, legal security and statistical modeling: a common paradigm for law and computer science

When we analyze the interpretation process resulting from the launching of an algorithm, whatever its language, we discover a particular characteristic that isolates computer grammar from other forms of communication practiced by human beings⁵: the rejection of algebraic ambiguity by the systematic application of precedence rules. This has two effects, the first is the neutralization of any form of uncontrolled decision, the second is the exact application of the developer's will. In natural grammar, if $\varphi \rightarrow \varphi \text{ or } \varphi \mid \varphi \text{ and } \varphi \mid \psi \mid \chi \mid \beta$, the sentence " $\psi \text{ or } \chi \text{ and } \beta$ " induces a syntactic ambiguity from which two derivation trees result:



We can then understand the importance of the forced contextualization of the reasoning in the avoidance of interpretation errors by singularizing out the possible result, and from this simple demonstration can easily arise an analogy with the functioning of the syllogism applied in the practice of law⁶, notably in the production of court decisions and the writing of conventions between people. From this conclusion, we can take the discussion

⁵H. M. Pandey. Advances in ambiguity detection methods for formal grammars. *Proceedia Engineering*, 24:700–707, 2011.

⁶S. Brunet. La conception originelle de la sécurité juridique : l'allemagne. *Titre VII*, 5:79–90, 2020.

even further by exploring the fractal character of law in its construction as an iterated function, and this conception appears to be relatively effective in capturing the elements of hierarchical order, recursivity and self-reference in legal reasoning⁷.

1.2 From the standardization of a large set of categorical variables to the realization of unbiased indicators of legal effectiveness

We have just demonstrated the importance of mathematics in the avoidance of errors of interpretation induced by the inambiguity caused with the extensive contextualization of the legal problem. Based on this fact, questioning the reform of contract law in terms of effectiveness would seem to be a major topic of research in doctrine, particularly thanks to the large production of case law and the possibility of a clear comparison between the periods before and after the adoption of ordinance No. 2016-131 of February 10, 2016 reforming contract law⁸. In this context, one particular point will attract our attention, concerning the quantitative approach to the practice of law in business and personal relationships. To speak of leximetry, in this sense, would consist of an application of econometric principles⁹ to legal problems, in order to empirically test the different provisions and interpret their understanding by the actors of the juridical system. In this context, the researcher finds himself in a problematic of observation and compilation of

⁷Dalmasso & al. Comparer, mesurer, classer : L'art périlleux de la leximétrie du licenciement. *Travail et emploi*, 4:33–46, 2009.

⁸In accordance with Section 1 of Act No. 2018-287 of April 20, 2018, Ordinance No. 2016-131 of February 10, 2016, is ratified.

⁹J. M. Wooldridge. *Introductory Econometrics: A Modern Approach*. South-Western, 2009.

data directly from reality¹⁰, which could be coupled with a survey of lawyers and jurists in contract law directly confronted with the dispositions of the 2016 reform. A general research problem could then be formulated: Is the reform of contract law a source of clarification or, on the contrary, of incomprehension for legal practitioners with regard to the judicial reading? This would mean questioning the underlying issues, in particular whether the reform is understood by the drafters of contracts, by introducing a quantitative analysis of the number of appeals at first instance on issues arising from the reform, and whether it is correctly applied by the judges, by referring to the number of appeals lodged by the parties following referral to the court, as well as the number of appeals to the Court of Cassation and the number of rulings in favor of or against resolution of the litigation. Using the great intellectual and practical production, makes this research theme a propitious field of leximetric application, notably thanks to the important size of the observed sample and the possibility of clearly isolating the explained variable and the explanatory ones. We can also be satisfied that the result will be indicators of high quality, in particular thanks to their minimization of statistical bias¹¹, and, especially in the context of multiple linear regression¹², which will allow viable significant results from the estimation of the coefficients associated with the explanatory variables.

¹⁰D. M. Hausman. *The Philosophy of Economics: An Anthology*. Cambridge University Press, 3 edition, 2007.

¹¹T. Alban. Econométrie des Variables Qualitatives. Dunod, 2000.

¹²H. Theil. *Principles of Econometrics*. Wiley Hamilton publication, 1979.

2 Towards a leximetry methodology for impact analysis of reforms: the example of ordinary least squares regression

One of the reasons for the development of specific statistical techniques is due to the nature of the data that are mobilized. These data are generally non-experimental and of several types, each one raising specific problems. In the context of an impact analysis, two models are possible: time series and panel data. These data are usually drawn from supposedly representative samples of the total population. This means in particular that one can only calculate an estimation of the parameters from this sample: even if it is randomly drawn, this sample is rarely perfect and there is always a risk that it is not exactly representative of the population it is supposed to represent¹³, in particular, in our example, this could result from anomalies in the judicial procedure. The first property expected of an estimator is therefore that it is unbiased, i.e. that its expectation is equal to the *true* parameter. The interest of the OLS method is precisely to produce unbiased representations: the situations where the estimator overestimates and underestimates θ such that the estimated value will be correct on average.

2.1 Simple linear regression and OLS estimator, analysis of both strengths and limitations

The least squares method consists in minimizing the sum of the squares of the residuals, weighted differences in the multidimensional case, between each point of the regression cloud and its projection, parallel to the ordinate

 $^{^{13}\}mathrm{P.}$ Kennedy. A Guide to Econometrics, 5th Edition, volume 1. The MIT Press, 5 edition, 2003.

axis, on the regression line, such as:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 \tag{1}$$

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$
(2)

$$\beta_0 = \bar{y} - \beta_1 \bar{x} \tag{3}$$

In this model, the β_1 coefficient will be interpreted as the marginal effect of an additional unit or variation of the explanatory variable on the explained one and for a leximetrical application¹⁴, it could explain, as an example, the relationship between the changes in positive law and the number of appeals to the court of first instance for contract law issues¹⁵. From this point of view, if there is evidence of an increase in the number of referrals to the courts of first instance, it could be interpreted either as a better reading of contract law, allowing for an increase in legal production by private individuals, or, on the contrary, as a lack of readability and comprehension of the provisions, and, if this is the case, as a lesser quality of the work of the drafters, weighing down on legal security, and in particular on the vulnerable party. However, the major drawback of simple linear regression is the existence of omitted variable bias. Thus, in addition to simultaneity, correlation between the explanatory variables and the error term can occur when an omitted variable affects both the explained variable and one¹⁶ explanatory variable. One method to

¹⁴The Python 3.8 source code is available in the appendix, tested with execution via Unix Shell (zsh), and aims at both a descriptive analysis of position variables and dispersion indicators, but also of simple and multiple linear regression coefficients, based on a gradient descent algorithm with empirical optimization of the learning coefficient.

¹⁵If we want to analyze the impact of a purely qualitative explanatory variable, we will use a dummy variable, taking either the value 0 or 1, which will be integrated into the equation in the same way as a quantitive data.

 $^{^{16}}$ (or more).

limit this bias would be to introduce several explanatory variables within a multiple linear regression.

2.2 Introduction to multiple regression by gradient descent algorithm

The gradient descent algorithm is designed for differentiable optimization: it is therefore intended to minimize a differentiable real function defined on a euclidean space¹⁷. By this process, it will be possible to optimize the value of the regression coefficients in order to minimize the mean square error and thereby approximate the real impact of the variation of the explanatory variables. The algorithm is iterative and proceeds by successive improvements, until convergence.



For our approach in Python, it is important to understand the mathematical decomposition of a gradient descent mechanism¹⁸. This model is

¹⁷R. Bonnin. Machine Learning for Developers. Packt Publishing, 2017.

¹⁸Y. Nesterov. *Introductory Lectures on Convex Optimization: A Basic Course*. Applied Optimization. Springer US, 2013.

structurally based on an approximation of the value of x, the global minimum of the generalized representation of partial derivatives associated with the empirically observed function, computed by a recursive process blocked by a learning rate modulating the correction and by extension, the speed of convergence. Mathematically, the problem can be formulated as follows :

$$\eta^{t+1} = \eta^t - \alpha \nabla S^t \tag{4}$$

$$\nabla S^{t} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (h_{\eta}(x_{i}) - y) x_{i}$$
(5)

Therefore,

$$\eta^{t+1} = \eta^t - \frac{\alpha}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (h_\eta(x_i) - y) x_i$$
(6)

Where ∇S^t represents the gradient associated with the function, α , the learning rate and η_t the estimator of the β_t coefficients. The issue of the determination of the learning rate makes an optimal analysis very complex: if the learning rate is too low, convergence can only be achieved with a very large number of iterations, requiring a lot of resources; if it is too high, the system will face a divergence and it will be impossible to approach the value of the gradient¹⁹. To overcome this risk, the attached algorithm, based on a matrix method of determination, has been designed for the optimization of this parameter by implementing a comparison process of the different linear coefficients of determination of Pearson from the regression²⁰. So, in the context of our study, the R-squared being defined as the ratio of the variance explained by the regression to the total variance, and allowing to measure

¹⁹K. P. Murphy. *Machine Learning: A Probabilistic Perspective*. Adaptive Computation and Machine Learning series. MIT Press, 2012.

²⁰C. Carrère. *Statistiques descriptives: Théorie et applications*.

the proximity of the data to the fitted regression line; a value close to 1 will indicate that the model explains all the variability of the data around the mean, and conversely, a reduced coefficient will present the regression as not explaining the dependencies between the variables.

In order to establish a research schedule, it would seem wise to plan a report over several years in order to complete the dataset concerning the various judicial institutions, probably over three years for the purpose to be more or less in line with the first decade of the reform and to obtain a better statistical significance, but this field of research is promising, especially in France, where it is actually absent from legal doctrine and thought, in spite of its potential for the identification of the weaknesses of our law, especially in such a fundamental discipline as contract, which, by extension, touches on the right to property and the freedom of entrepreneurship.

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A Appendix: full source code in Python 3.10, or how to perform leximetric analysis from scratch

```
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
from scipy.stats import t
def minimum(axis):
    ....
   minimum : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> Float
   minimum(axis) Calculates the minimum of all the variations of each
       variable of interest. Return minimum_val.
    . . .
   try:
        list values = axis. tolist () \# Transform
           pandas.core.frame.DataFrame to List to iterate.
       minimum_val = float(min(list_values))
   return minimum_val
def maximum(axis):
    ....
   max calculus : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> Float
   max_calculus(axis) Calculates the maximum of all the variations of
       each variable of interest. Return maximum val.
    . . .
   try:
        list_values = axis. tolist () # Transform
           pandas.core.frame.DataFrame to List to iterate.
```

```
maximum_val = float(max(list_values))
```

```
return maximum_val
```

```
def wide(axis):
```

....

```
wide : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> Float
wide(axis) Calculates the delta of all the variations of each
variable of interest. Return delta.
```

try:

```
delta = maximum(axis) - minimum(axis)
```

```
return delta
```

```
def average(axis):
```

```
. . .
```

```
average : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame \rightarrow Float
```

```
average(axis) Calculates the mean of all the variations of each variable of interest. Return mean.
```

. . .

```
try:
```

```
list_values = axis. tolist () # Transform
    pandas.core.frame.DataFrame to List to iterate.
mean = sum(float(i) for i in list_values) / len(list_values)
```

return mean

```
def median(axis):
```

. . .

median : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> Float median(axis) Calculates the median of all the variations of each variable of interest. Return median. """ try:

```
list_values = axis. tolist () # Transform
    pandas.core.frame.DataFrame to List to iterate.
list values sorted = sorted(list values)
```

```
if len(list_values_sorted) % 2 == 0:
median = (list_values_sorted[(int(len(list_values_sorted) -
1)) // 2] +
    list_values_sorted[(int(len(list_values_sorted) + 1)) //
2] ) / 2.0
```

else:

 $median = list_values_sorted[(len(list_values_sorted) - 1) // 2]$

return median

```
def quartiles (axis):
```

. . .

```
quartiles : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> Float * Float
quartiles(axis) Calculates the 1st and 3rd quartiles of all the
variations of each variable of interest. Return quartile_1,
quartile_3.
```

. . .

try:

list_values = axis. tolist () # Transform
 pandas.core.frame.DataFrame to List to iterate.
list_values_sorted = sorted(list_values)

if len(list_values_sorted) % 4 == 0:

quartile_1 = list_values_sorted[len(list_values_sorted) // 4 - 1] quartile_3 = list_values_sorted[3 * (len(list_values_sorted) // 4 - 1)]

else:

return quartile_1, quartile_3

```
def variance(axis):
```

```
"""
variance : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> Float
variance(axis) Calculates the corrected variance of all the
variations of each variable of interest . var.
"""
try:
```

```
list_values = axis. tolist () # Transform
    pandas.core.frame.DataFrame to List to iterate.
var = 0
```

```
for i in range(0, len(list_values)):
    var = (var + (list_values[i] - average(axis)) ** 2)
```

```
\mathbf{var} = \mathbf{var} / (\operatorname{len}(\operatorname{list\_values}) - 1)
```

```
return var
```

def std(axis):

"""
std : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> Float
std(axis) Calculates the standard deviation of all the variations of
 each variable of interest. Return standard_deviation.
"""
try:
 standard_deviation = variance(axis) ** (1 / 2)
return standard_deviation
def statistics (dataframe):
"""

```
statistics : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> pandas.core.frame.DataFrame
```

```
statistics (dataframe) Performs key statistic analysis for each
explanatory variable, stores all data in a summary table.
Return dataframe_stats.
```

```
. . .
```

```
dataframe_stats = pd.DataFrame(columns=["Explanatory variable",
    "Minimum", "Maximum", "Delta", "Mean", "Median", "1st
    quartile", "3rd quartile", "Adj. Variance", "Adj. Standard
    deviation"])
```

for element in dataframe:

```
min = minimum(dataframe[element])
max = maximum(dataframe[element])
delta = wide(dataframe[element])
mean = average(dataframe[element])
mdn = median(dataframe[element])
quar_1, quar_3 = quartiles(dataframe[element])
adj_var = variance(dataframe[element])
```

 $adj_std = std(dataframe[element])$

row = {"Explanatory variable": element, "Minimum": min, "Maximum": max, "Delta": delta, "Mean": mean, "Median": mdn, "1st quartile": quar_1, "3rd quartile": quar_3, "Adj. Variance": adj_var, "Adj. Standard deviation": adj_std} dataframe_stats = dataframe_stats.append(row, ignore_index=True)

return dataframe_stats

```
def covariance(y, x):
```

. . .

covariance: pandas.core.frame.DataFrame *
 pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> Float
covariance(y, x) Calculates the corrected covariance of the
 explanatory variables with respect to the explained variable.
 Return adj_cov.
"""

try:

numerator = 0

for i in range(0, len(x), 1): numerator += (y[i] - average(y)) * (x[i] - average(x))

 $adj_cov = numerator / (len(x) - 1)$

```
return adj_cov
```

```
def pearsonr(y, x):
```

pearsonr: pandas.core.frame.DataFrame *

pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> Float

pearsonr(y, x) Calculates the Pearson's correlation coefficient of the explanatory variables with respect to the explained variable. Return corr.

. . .

try:

```
corr = covariance(y, x) / (std(x) * std(y))
```

 $\mathbf{return}\ \mathbf{corr}$

def ols(y, x):

. . .

ols: pandas.core.frame.DataFrame * pandas.core.frame.DataFrame->Float

ols(y, x) Calculates the B1 and B0 coefficients of the Ordinary Least Mean Square Method, to perform linear regression. Return pearsonr_dict, pearsonr_dataframe.

. . .

try:

numerator = 0denominator = 0

for i in range(0, len(x)): numerator += (x[i] - average(x)) * (y[i] - average(y))denominator += (x[i] - average(x)) ** 2

b1 = numerator / denominatorb0 = average(y) - (b1 * average(x))

return b0, b1

def r2_score(y, x):

...

- r2_score: pandas.core.frame.DataFrame * pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> Float
- r2_score(y, x) Calculates the coefficient of determination of the explanatory variables with respect to the explained variable. Return score.

""" try:

> b0, b1 = ols(y, x)sum_total_squares = 0 sum_residuals_squares = 0

for i in range(0, len(x)) : $y_reg = b0 + b1 * x[i]$ $sum_total_squares += (y[i] - average(y)) ** 2$ $sum_residuals_squares += (y[i] - y_reg) ** 2$

 $score = 1 - (sum_residuals_squares / sum_total_squares)$

return score

$def adj_r2_score(y, x):$

. . .

adj_r2_score: pandas.core.frame.DataFrame *
 pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> Dict * Float
adj_r2_score(y, x) Calculates the adjusted coefficient of
 determination of the explanatory variables with respect to the
 explained variable. Return adj_score.
"""

try:

```
return adj_score
```

$def std_err(y, x)$:

. . .

std_err: pandas.core.frame.DataFrame *
 pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> Float
 std_err(y, x) Calculates the root-mean-square deviation of the
 Ordinary Least Mean Square Method. Return rmse.

. . .

try:

```
b0, b1 = ols(y, x)
rmse = 0
ss_xx = 0
```

```
for i in range(len(x)):

y\_reg = b0 + (b1 * x[i])

rmse += (y[i] - y\_reg) ** 2

ss\_xx += (x[i] - average(x)) ** 2
```

```
\label{eq:rmse} rmse = \left( (rmse \ / \ (len(x) \ - \ 2)) \ / \ ss\_xx \right) \, ** \, (1 \ / \ 2) \ \# \ Correction of the degree of liberties .
```

$\mathbf{return} \ \mathbf{rmse}$

```
def t_stat(y, x):
```

 $t_stat: \ pandas.core.frame.DataFrame * pandas.core.frame.Pandas.core.frame * pandas.core.frame * pandas.core.fram$

-> Float

t_stat(y, x) Calculates the test statistic of the Ordinary Least Mean Square Method. Return t.

. . .

try:

b0, b1 = ols(y, x)t = b1 / std_err(y, x)

 $\mathbf{return} \ \mathbf{t}$

```
def p_value(y, x):
    """
    p_value: pandas.core.frame.DataFrame *
        pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> Float
    p_value(y, x) Calculates the test statistic of the Ordinary Least
        Mean Square Method. Return p.
    """
```

try:

degrees_of_freedom = len(x) - 1p = $(1.0 - t.cdf(abs(t_stat(y, x)), degrees_of_freedom)) * 2.0$

return p

def slr (dataframe, dep_dataframe):

. . .

- slr : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame * pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> pandas.core.frame.DataFrame
- slr (dataframe, dep_variable) Simple linear regression on each explanatory variable, using the ordinary least squares method. Return ols_dataframe.

. . .

try:

ols_dataframe = pd.DataFrame(columns=["Explanatory variable", "Covariance", "Pearson's correlation", "R-squared", "Adj. R-squared", "B0 coef.", "B1 coef.", "Std err. (B1)", "t-stat.", "p-value"])

k = len(dataframe.columns) # Number of explicative variables

for element in dataframe:

 $\begin{aligned} & adj_cov = covariance(dep_dataframe, dataframe[element]) \\ & corr = pearsonr(dep_dataframe, dataframe[element]) \\ & b0, b1 = ols(dep_dataframe, dataframe[element]) \\ & score = r2_score(dep_dataframe, dataframe[element]) \\ & adj_score = adj_r2_score(dep_dataframe, \\ & dataframe[element]) \\ & rmse = std_err(dep_dataframe, dataframe[element]) \\ & t = t_stat(dep_dataframe, dataframe[element]) \\ & p = p_value(dep_dataframe, dataframe[element]) \end{aligned}$

row = {"Explanatory variable": element, "Covariance": adj_cov, "Pearson's correlation ": corr, "R-squared": score, "Adj. R-squared": adj_score, "B0 coef.": b0, "B1 coef.": b1, "Std err. (B1)":rmse, "t-stat.": t, "p-value": p} ols_dataframe = ols_dataframe.append(row, ignore index=True)

```
return ols_dataframe
```

```
def matrix_rewrite(y, x):
"""
matrix_rewrite : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame *
```

```
pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> List[List] * List[List]
matrix_rewrite(y, x) matrixing of the pandas tables, to solve the
multiple linear regression model. Shape of X : (n_samples,
n_features). Return Y, X.
"""
try:
Y, X = [], []
```

for element in y: Y.append(element)

```
for i in range(0, len(x), 1):
    X.append(x.iloc[i].values.tolist())
```

```
return Y, X
```

```
def mean_matrix(x):
```

```
. . .
```

```
mean_matrix : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> numpy.ndarray
mean_matrix(x) Creates a matrix containing the means of the
explanatory variables. Return mu.
```

. . .

 $mean_list = []$

```
for element in x:
```

```
mean_list.append(average(x[element]))
```

```
mu = np.array(mean\_list)
```

return mu

```
def std_matrix(x):
    . . .
   std_matrix : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> numpy.ndarray
   std_matrix(x): Creates a matrix containing the standard deviation
       of the explanatory variables. Return sigma.
    ....
   std\_list = []
   for element in x:
        std_list.append(std(x[element]))
   sigma = np.array(std_list)
   return sigma
def feature_normalize(y, x):
    . . .
   feature_normalize : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame *
       pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> numpy.ndarray *
       numpy.ndarray * numpy.ndarray
   feature_normalize(y, x) Normalize values to optimizing gradient
       descent. Return X_norm, Y, mu, sigma.
    . . .
   try:
       mu = mean\_matrix(x)
       sigma = std_matrix(x)
       Y, X = matrix\_rewrite(y, x)
       X_norm = (X - mu) / sigma
```

 $X_norm = np.c_[np.ones(X_norm.shape[0]), X_norm] #$

Translates slice objects to concatenation along the second axis.

return X_norm, Y, mu, sigma

```
def ulr(Y, X, theta):
    ....
    ulr : numpy.ndarray * numpy.ndarray * numpy.ndarray ->
       numpy.ndarray
    ulr(X, Y, theta) Computes the dependent variable of a particular
       combinaison of theta for linear regression. Return iterate_value.
    . . .
    predictions = X.dot(theta)
    errors = np.subtract(predictions, Y)
   sqrErrors = np.square(errors)
   iterate_value = 1 / (2 * len(Y)) * errors.T.dot(errors)
   return iterate_value
def accuracy(y, x, theta, mu, sigma):
    ....
   accuracy: numpy.ndarray * numpy.ndarray * numpy.ndarray *
       numpy.ndarray * numpy.ndarray -> Float
   accuracy(y, x, theta, mu, sigma) Calculates R2 of the regression to
       optimizing learning rate. Return score.
    . . .
   try:
       sum\_total\_squares = 0
       sum\_residuals\_squares = 0
       for i in range(0, len(x)) :
            normalize\_test\_data = ((np.array(x.iloc[i]) - mu) / sigma)
```

```
sum\_total\_squares += (y[i] - average(y)) ** 2
sum\_residuals\_squares += (y[i] - prediction) ** 2
```

```
score = 1 - (sum\_residuals\_squares / sum\_total\_squares)
```

return score

```
def gradient_descent(Y, X, theta, alpha, mu, sigma, iterations, y, x):
    """
    gradient_descent : numpy.ndarray * numpy.ndarray * numpy.ndarray
    * Float * Int -> numpy.ndarray * numpy.ndarray
    gradient_descent(X, Y, theta, alpha, iterations) Computes the
        dependent variables for linear regression. Return theta,
        iterate_values.
"""
try:
```

```
iterate_values = np.zeros(iterations)
```

```
for i in range(iterations):
```

```
predictions = X.dot(theta)
errors = np.subtract(predictions, Y)
sum_delta = (alpha / len(Y)) * X.transpose().dot(errors)
theta -= sum_delta
```

```
iterate_values[i] = ulr(Y, X, theta)
progressbar(iterations, i + 1, alpha=alpha)
```

if i == (iterations - 1):
 score = accuracy(y, x, theta, mu, sigma)
 progressbar(iterations, i + 1, alpha=alpha, score=score)

return theta, iterate_values, score

```
def mls(y, x):
```

. . .

mls : pandas.core.frame.DataFrame * pandas.core.frame.DataFrame -> pandas.core.frame.DataFrame * numpy.ndarray * numpy.ndarray * numpy.ndarray mls(y, x) Multiple linear regression on several endogenous variables. Return normalized_coef_dataframe, theta, mu, sigma. X, Y, mu, sigma = feature_normalize(y, x) theta = np.zeros(len(mu) + 1) iterations = 99999#alpha = [0.065, 0.50, 1.50, 2.00] # Test some learning rates to select the highest R-squared. alpha = [0.065]theta_list, score_list = [], []for element in alpha: $print("\n testing ({}/{}):".format((alpha.index(element) + 1),$ len(alpha))) theta_train, iterate_values, score = $gradient_descent(Y, X,$ theta, element, mu, sigma, iterations, y, x) theta_list.append(theta_train)

score_list.append(score)

 $print("\n{}".format(theta))$

normalized_coef_dataframe = pd.DataFrame(columns=["B0", "B1", "B2", "B3", "B4", "B5", "B6", "R-squared"]) row = {"B0":theta[0], "B1":theta [1], "B2":theta [2], "B3":theta [3], "B4":theta [4], "B5":theta [5], "B6":theta [6], "R-squared":max(score_list)} normalized_coef_dataframe = normalized_coef_dataframe.append(row, ignore_index=True)

return normalized_coef_dataframe, theta, mu, sigma