# Statistics 452: Statistical Learning and Prediction

Chapter 3, Part 1: Simple Linear Regression

Brad McNeney

2017-09-01

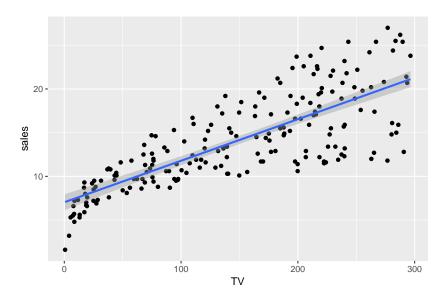
#### Example: Advertising Data

 Sales (in thousands of units), and advertising budgets in thousands of dollars for TV, radio and newspaper for 200 markets.

```
uu <- url("http://www-bcf.usc.edu/~gareth/ISL/Advertising.csv")
advert <- read.csv(uu,row.names=1)
head(advert)</pre>
```

```
## TV radio newspaper sales
## 1 230.1 37.8 69.2 22.1
## 2 44.5 39.3 45.1 10.4
## 3 17.2 45.9 69.3 9.3
## 4 151.5 41.3 58.5 18.5
## 5 180.8 10.8 58.4 12.9
## 6 8.7 48.9 75.0 7.2
```

```
ggplot(advert,aes(x=TV,y=sales)) + geom_point() +
geom_smooth(method="lm")
```



# Simple Linear Regression Model

▶ Recall our general model from Chapter 2:

$$Y = f(X) + \epsilon$$

- ▶ Simple linear regression assumes the function f is linear in a single predictor X; i.e.,  $f(X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$ .
  - $\beta_0$  is the intercept and
  - $\beta_1$  is the slope.

# Fitting the line

- ▶ We use the method of least squares to fit the line.
- ▶ Goal: Using observed data  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$  fit the model

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta_0} + \hat{\beta_1} x_i$$

where  $\hat{y}_i$  is the predicted or fitted value of Y for  $X = x_i$ .

- ▶ Idea: try all possible  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  until you find the line that fits the data the "best"; i.e. the  $\hat{y}$ 's are as close to the y's as possible.
  - ▶ What is the criteria for best?

#### Residuals

- ▶ The vertical distances  $e_i = y_i \hat{y}_i$  are called the residuals (see Figure 3.1, page 62 of text).
- ▶ How should we summarize the residuals?
- ► Least squares minimizes the sum of the squared residuals, known as the **residual sum of squares**

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i^2$$

► There are many visual demonstrations of the least squares idea on the internet; e.g.,

http://www.dangoldstein.com/regression.html

- ► Try clicking the slope, + slope, intercept, and + intercept buttons to minimize the sum of squared distances, summarized by the blue square.
- Then click "Fit and lock" to see the line that minimizes the sum of squares.

#### Least-Squares Regression

▶ The line that minimizes RSS has

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = r \frac{s_y}{s_x}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \overline{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \overline{x}$$

#### where

- r is the Pearson correlation between the x's and y's,
- $s_y$  is the sample SD of the y's and  $s_x$  is the sample SD of the x's.
- We will always use R to calculate these estimates.

# Advertising Example

```
afit <- lm(sales ~ TV,data=advert)
summary(afit)$coefficients</pre>
```

```
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 7.03259355 0.457842940 15.36028 1.40630e-35
## TV 0.04753664 0.002690607 17.66763 1.46739e-42
```

#### Accuracy of the Coefficient Estimates

- ▶ Least squares is a good way to fit a line to a scatterplot, but if we want to assess the accuracy of the coefficient estimates we need assumptions about the distribution of errors.
- ▶ Recall the errors  $\epsilon$  in  $Y = f(X) + \epsilon$ .
- $\blacktriangleright$  Errors are assumed to be normally distributed with mean zero and SD  $\sigma$ .
  - ▶ The  $\epsilon$  are the irreducible error terms, and  $\sigma$  quantifies the irreducible error.
- ▶ The SD of the error terms is assumed to be constant for all x.

# Model Summary

- ▶ We can summarize the model assumptions by saying that:
  - ▶ the (X, Y) pairs are independent,
  - conditional on X = x, Y has a normal distribution  $N(f(x), \sigma)$ , with conditional mean  $f(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$  and conditional standard deviation  $\sigma$  being a constant value (i.e. same for all x).

#### SD and SE of Coefficient Estimators

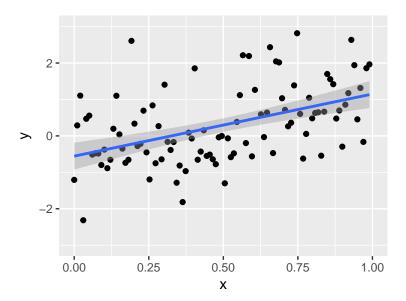
- ▶ Under the model assumptions, one can derive expressions for the SD of the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$ , which the text refers to as the standard error (SE).
  - Side note: What the text calls the SE is what I call the SD, and what the text calls the estimated SE is what I call the SE. I'll try to stick to their terminology, but may slip.
- One can derive expressions for the SE and estimated SE.
  - ▶ E.G., equation (3.8) of text, page 66.
  - ▶ Both SE and estimated SE denoted  $SE(\hat{\beta}_i)$ .
  - We will always use the computer to estimate SEs.

#### Simulation Example

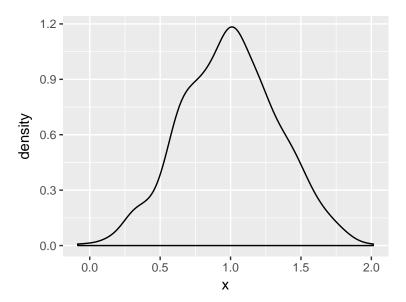
▶ Start R on your computer, choose your own random seed and run the following sequence of code chunks.

```
# simulation parameters
n <- 100; beta0 <- 0; beta1 <- 1; sd <- 1; NREPS <- 1000
x <- seq(from=0,to=1,length=n)
#simulation function
simdat <- function(x,n,beta0,beta1,sd) {
   f <- beta0 + beta1*x
   y <- f + rnorm(n,mean=0,sd=sd)
   return(list(dat = data.frame(x=x,y=y),coef=coefficients(lm(y~x))))
}
# Run the simulation
set.seed(1234)</pre>
```

# Do the following a few times
dat <- simdat(x,n,beta0,beta1,sd)\$dat
ggplot(dat,aes(x=x,y=y)) + geom\_point() + geom\_smooth(method="lm") + ylim(-3,3)</pre>



```
simcoef <- function(x,n,beta0,beta1,sd) {
  return(simdat(x,n,beta0,beta1,sd)$coef)
}
simout <- replicate(NREPS,simcoef(x,n,beta0,beta1,sd))
simout <- data.frame(t(simout))
head(simout)</pre>
```



#### Confidence Intervals

- ► The sampling distribution of the coefficients can be used to derive the following probability statement:
  - ▶ There is a 95% chance that the interval

$$(\hat{eta}_1 - t^* SE(\hat{eta}_1), \hat{eta}_1 + t^* SE(\hat{eta}_1))$$

contains the true value of  $\beta_1$ .

▶  $t^*$  is the upper critical value of a t distribution with n-2 degrees of freedom (df).

#### Simulation Example

```
simCI <- function(x,n,beta0,beta1,sd) {</pre>
  f <- beta0 + beta1*x
  y <- f + rnorm(n,mean=0,sd=sd)
  ci <- confint(lm(y~x))</pre>
  ci["x",]
simCI(x,n,beta0,beta1,sd) # Does it contain true value beta1?
## 2.5 % 97.5 %
## -0.3225214 1.0582357
# Exercise: Write code to repeat NREPS times and count
# how many intervals include beta1.
```

# Advertising Example

#### confint(afit)

```
## 2.5 % 97.5 %
## (Intercept) 6.12971927 7.93546783
## TV 0.04223072 0.05284256
```

▶ We say we are 95% confident that a \$1000 increase in TV advertising is associated with an increase in sales of between 42 and 53 units.

# Hypothesis Tests

- ► The sampling distibution of the coefficients can also be used to derive tests of hypotheses about the parameters.
- ▶ Under the null hypothesis that the true  $\beta_1$  is 0 (no association),

$$t = \frac{\hat{eta}_1}{\mathsf{SE}(\hat{eta}_1)} \sim t_{n-2}$$

The usual alternative hypothesis is that  $\beta_1 \neq 0$  (association). Then the p-value is the chance of T > |t|, where  $T \sim t_{n-2}$ .

# Advertising Example

#### summary(afit)\$coefficients

```
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 7.03259355 0.457842940 15.36028 1.40630e-35
## TV 0.04753664 0.002690607 17.66763 1.46739e-42
```

► There is very good evidence that increasing TV advertising increases sales.

# Accuracy of the Model

- ► Two common measures of the ability of the model to explain variation in *Y*:
  - 1. The residual SE (RSE)  $\sqrt{RSS/(n-2)}$ , which is an estimator of  $\sigma$ .
  - 2. The  $R^2 = \frac{TSS RSS}{TSS}$ , where TSS is the total sum of squares

$$\sum_{i}(y_{i}-\bar{y})^{2}$$

- $ightharpoonup R^2$  is the proportion of variation in Y explained by the regression on X.
- ▶ The R<sup>2</sup> is more commonly used as a goodness-of-fit measure.

# Advertising Example

summary(afit)

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = sales ~ TV, data = advert)
##
## Residuals:
##
      Min
            10 Median
                              30
                                     Max
## -8.3860 -1.9545 -0.1913 2.0671 7.2124
##
## Coefficients:
##
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 7.032594 0.457843 15.36 <2e-16 ***
## TV
              0.047537 0.002691 17.67 <2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 3.259 on 198 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.6119, Adjusted R-squared: 0.6099
## F-statistic: 312.1 on 1 and 198 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

► TV advertising explains about 61% of the variation in sales.

#### Residual Plots

- ▶ Residuals are the primary tool for checking model assumptions.
- For example, a plot of residuals versus fitted values can show evidence of
  - departures from linearity look for nonlinear trends
  - departures from constant SD look for funnel shapes
  - outliers unusually large residuals

#### Saving the Residuals and Fitted Values

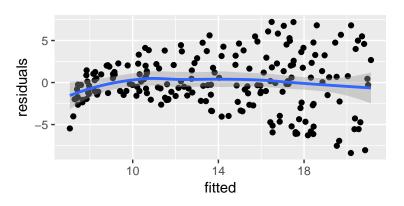
▶ Use the extractor functions residuals() and fitted().

```
advertDiag <- data.frame(advert,residuals=residuals(afit),fitted=fitted(afit))
head(advertDiag)</pre>
```

```
##
       TV radio newspaper sales residuals
                                          fitted
## 1 230.1
          37.8
                   69.2 22.1 4.1292255 17.970775
## 2 44.5 39.3
               45.1 10.4 1.2520260 9.147974
## 3 17.2 45.9
               69.3 9.3 1.4497762 7.850224
## 4 151.5 41.3
               58.5 18.5 4.2656054 14.234395
## 5 180.8 10.8
                58.4 12.9 -2.7272181 15.627218
      8.7 48.9
                   75.0 7.2 -0.2461623 7.446162
## 6
```

# Plotting Residuals vs. Fitted Values

```
ggplot(advertDiag,aes(x=fitted,y=residuals)) +
  geom_point() + geom_smooth()
```



- ▶ Some evidence of non-linearity on LHS of plot.
- Funnel from left to right.
- Consequences?