# Statistical Learning for Data Science

Lecture 10

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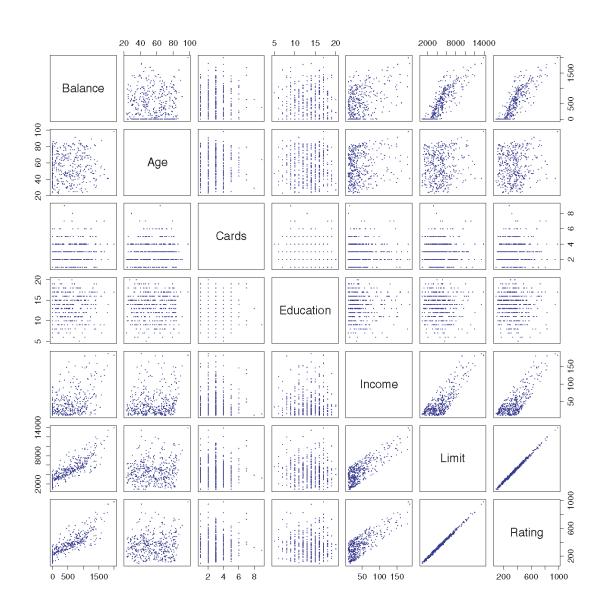
March 27, 2023

#### Qualitative predictors

- Some predictors are not quantitative but are qualitative, taking a discrete set of values.
- These are also called *categorical predictors* or *factor variables*.
- Example: geographical position of a house in a house price prediction model
- In regression problems, qualitative predictors usually need to be converted into numerical variables to be used by the model.

Qualitative predictors

In addition to the 7 quantitative variables, we also have four qualitative variables: gender, student (student status), marital status (married or single), and ethnicity (Caucasian, African American, or Asian).



Qualitative predictors

Predictors with only two levels

Investigate differences in credit card balance between males and females, ignoring the other variables

Create an indicator or dummy variable that takes on two possible numerical values.

$$x_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{th person is female} \\ 0 & \text{if } i \text{th person is male} \end{cases}$$

Qualitative predictors

Predictors with only two levels

Investigate differences in credit card balance between males and females, ignoring the other variables

Use this dummy variable as a predictor in the regression equation

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i = \begin{cases} \beta_0 + \beta_1 + \varepsilon_i & \text{if } i \text{th person is female} \\ \beta_0 + \varepsilon_i & \text{if } i \text{th person is male} \end{cases}$$

## Qualitative predictors

#### Predictors with only two levels

Investigate differences in credit card balance between males and females, ignoring the other variables

$$y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i} + \varepsilon_{i} = \begin{cases} \beta_{0} + \beta_{1} + \varepsilon_{i} & \text{if } i \text{th person is female} \\ \beta_{0} + \varepsilon_{i} & \text{if } i \text{th person is male} \end{cases}$$

- $\beta_0$  -- the average credit card balance among males
- $\beta_0 + \beta_1$  -- the average credit card balance among females
- $^{\beta_1}$  -- the average difference in credit card balance between females and males

#### Qualitative predictors

#### Predictors with only two levels

	Coefficient	Std. error	t-statistic	p-value
Intercept	509.80	33.13	15.389	<0.0001
Gender [Female]	19.73	46.05	0.429	0.6690

The p-value for the dummy variable is very high. This indicates that there is no statistical evidence of a difference in average credit card balance between the genders.

Qualitative predictors

Predictors with only two levels

- The decision to code females as 1 and males as 0 is arbitrary, and has no effect on the regression fit.
- Instead of a 0/1 coding scheme, we could create a dummy variable

$$x_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{th person is female} \\ -1 & \text{if } i \text{th person is male} \end{cases}$$

## Qualitative predictors

#### Predictors with only two levels

• Instead of a 0/1 coding scheme, we could create a dummy variable

$$y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i} + \varepsilon_{i} = \begin{cases} \beta_{0} + \beta_{1} + \varepsilon_{i} & \text{if } i \text{th person is female} \\ \beta_{0} - \beta_{1} + \varepsilon_{i} & \text{if } i \text{th person is male} \end{cases}$$

- $\beta_0$  -- the overall average credit card balance (ignoring the gender effects)
- $\beta_1$  -- the amount that females are above the average and males are below the average

Qualitative predictors

Predictors with only two levels

Note: the final predictions for the credit balances of males and females will be identical regardless of the coding scheme used. The only difference is in the way that the coefficients are interpreted.

## Qualitative predictors

#### Predictors with more than two levels

Investigate differences in credit card balance among different ethnicity groups.

Create additional dummy variables

$$x_{i1} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{th person is Asian} \\ 0 & \text{if } i \text{th person is not Asian} \end{cases}$$

$$x_{i2} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{th person is Caucasian} \\ 0 & \text{if } i \text{th person is not Caucasian} \end{cases}$$

## Qualitative predictors

#### Predictors with more than two levels

Investigate differences in credit card balance among different ethnicity groups.

Use these variables in the regression equation

$$y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i1} + \beta_{2}x_{i2} + \varepsilon_{i} = \begin{cases} \beta_{0} + \beta_{1} + \varepsilon_{i} & \text{if } i \text{th person is Asian} \\ \beta_{0} + \beta_{2} + \varepsilon_{i} & \text{if } i \text{th person is Caucasian} \\ \beta_{0} + \varepsilon_{i} & \text{if } i \text{th person is African American} \end{cases}$$

- $\beta_0$  -- the average credit card balance for African Americans
- $eta_{\!\scriptscriptstyle 1}$  the difference in the average balance between Asian and African American categories
- $eta_{\scriptscriptstyle 2}$  -- the difference in the average balance between Caucasian and African American categories

Qualitative predictors

Predictors with more than two levels

Note: there will always be one fewer dummy variables than the number of levels.

Qualitative predictors

Predictors with more than two levels

Investigate differences in credit card balance among different ethnicity groups.

	Coefficient	Std. error	t-statistic	p-value
Intercept	531.00	46.32	11.464	<0.0001
Ethnicity [Asian]	-18.96	65.02	-0.287	0.7740
Ethnicity [Caucasian]	-12.50	56.68	-0.221	0.826

## Qualitative predictors

Predictors with more than two levels

	Coefficient	Std. error	t-statistic	p-value
Intercept	531.00	46.32	11.464	<0.0001
Ethnicity [Asian]	-18.96	65.02	-0.287	0.7740
Ethnicity [Caucasian]	-12.50	56.68	-0.221	0.826

Investigate differences in credit card balance among different ethnicity groups.

- The estimated balance for African American is \$531.00.
- The Asian category will have \$18.69 less debt than the African American category.
- The Caucasian category will have \$12.50 less debt than the African American category.
- The p-values associated with the coefficient estimates for the two dummy variables are very large, suggesting no statistical evidence of a real difference in credit card balance between the ethnicities.

## Qualitative predictors

Predictors with more than two levels

Investigate differences in credit card balance among different ethnicity groups.

$$y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i1} + \beta_{2}x_{i2} + \varepsilon_{i} = \begin{cases} \beta_{0} + \beta_{1} + \varepsilon_{i} & \text{if } i \text{th person is Asian} \\ \beta_{0} + \beta_{2} + \varepsilon_{i} & \text{if } i \text{th person is Caucasian} \\ \beta_{0} + \varepsilon_{i} & \text{if } i \text{th person is African American} \end{cases}$$

Alternatively, we can use an F-test to perform hypothesis testing  $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$ 

- This hypothesis testing does not depend on the coding
- This F-test has a p-value of 0.96, indicating that we cannot reject the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between balance and ethnicity



Qualitative predictors

#### Note:

- This dummy variable approach also works when there are both quantitative and qualitative predictors.
- There are many different ways of coding qualitative variables besides the dummy variable approach taken here. They all lead to equivalent model fits, but the coefficients are different and have different interpretations.

Extensions of the linear model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + ... + \beta_p X_p + \varepsilon$$

- Why do we need extension?
  - In linear regression, we assume that the relationship between the predictor variables and the response variable is linear.
  - However, in many real-life situations, a linear model may not adequately capture the underlying relationship between the variables.
- The extension is to improve the predictive performance of the linear model.

Extensions of the linear model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + ... + \beta_p X_p + \varepsilon$$

- Extensions of linear model
  - Examples: Polynomial regression, generalized linear models, kernel regression, ...
  - Help better fit the data to improve the predictive ability of the model
  - Consider about overfitting and underfitting
- Removing additive assumptions of linear model
  - Allowing for non-additive effects of predictor variables on the response variable, such as interactions between predictors or nonlinear relationships.
  - Does not necessarily mean that the effect of each predictor variable is dependent on the values of the other predictor variables.

Extensions of the linear model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + ... + \beta_p X_p + \varepsilon$$

#### Two highly restrictive assumptions:

- Additive: the effect of changes in the predictor on the response is independent of the values of the other predictors (there may be interactions).
- Linear: the change in the response Y due to a one-unit change in  $X_j$  is constant, regardless of the value of  $X_j$  (there may be nonlinearity).

Extensions of the linear model

#### Removing the additive assumption

- In our previous analysis of the advertising data, 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 = 
$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \times TV + \beta_2 \times radio + \beta_3 \times newspaper + \varepsilon$$

states that the average effect on sales of a one-unit increase in TV is always  $\beta_1$  regardless of the amount spent on radio.

Extensions of the linear model

#### Removing the additive assumption

- But suppose that spending money on radio advertising actually increase the effectiveness of TV advertising, so that the slope term for TV should increase as radio increases.
- In this situation, 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 either TV or to radio.
- In marketing, this is known as a synergy effect, and in statistics it is referred to as an interaction effect.

Extensions of the linear model

Removing the additive assumption

The standard linear regression model with two variables:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

*Note*: if we increase  $X_1$  by one unit, then Y will increase by an average of  $\beta_1$  units. The presence of  $X_2$  does not alter this statement.

Extensions of the linear model

Removing the additive assumption

Extending the model to allow for interaction effects:

The standard linear regression model with two variables:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

Interaction term

Extensions of the linear model

Removing the additive assumption

Extending the model to allow for interaction effects:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 X_2 + \varepsilon$$
  
= \beta\_0 + (\beta\_1 + \beta\_3 X\_2) X\_1 + \beta\_2 X\_2 + \varepsilon

The effect of  $X_1$  on Y is no longer constant: adjusting  $X_2$  will change the impact of  $X_1$  on Y.

Extensions of the linear model

Removing the additive assumption

Example: To predict the number of units produced on the basis of the number of production lines and the total number of workers.

- The effect of increasing the number of production lines will depend on the number of workers, since if no workers are available to operate the lines, then increasing the number of lines will not increase production.
- It would be appropriate to include an interaction term between lines and workers in a linear model to predict units.

Extensions of the linear model

#### Removing the additive assumption

Example: To predict the number of units produced on the basis of the number of production lines and the total number of workers.

Suppose that when we fit the model, we obtain

units 
$$\approx 1.2 + 3.4 \times \text{lines} + 0.22 \times \text{workers} + 1.4 \times (\text{lines} \times \text{workers})$$
  
=  $1.2 + (3.4 + 1.4 \times \text{workers}) \times \text{lines} + 0.22 \times \text{workers}$ 

Conclusion: adding an additional line will increase the number of units produced by  $3.4+1.4\times workers$ . Hence, the more workers we have, the stronger will be the effect of lines.

Extensions of the linear model

#### Removing the additive assumption

Example: Advertising data (sales versus TV & radio)

sales 
$$\approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{TV} + \beta_2 \times \text{radio} + \beta_3 \times (\text{TV} \times \text{radio}) + \varepsilon$$
  
=  $\beta_0 + (\beta_1 + \beta_3 \times \text{radio}) \times \text{TV} + \beta_2 \times \text{radio} + \varepsilon$ 

 $\beta_3$ : the increase in the effectiveness of TV advertising for a one unit increase in radio advertising (or vice-versa).

#### Extensions of the linear model

Removing the additive assumption

Example: Advertising data (sales versus TV & radio)

	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
${ t TV}{ imes { t radio}}$	0.0011	0.000	20.73	< 0.0001

*Conclusion*: the p-value for the interaction term,  $TV \times radio$ , is extremely low, indicating that there is strong evidence for  $H_a: \beta_3 \neq 0$ . In other words, it is clear that the true relationship is not additive.

Extensions of the linear model

Removing the additive assumption

Example: Advertising data (sales versus TV & radio)

 $R^2$  Statistic (the fraction of variance explained)

With interaction term (sales versus TV and radio)

$$R^2 = 0.968$$

Without interaction term (sales versus TV and radio)

$$R^2 = 0.897$$

Extensions of the linear model

Removing the additive assumption

Example: Advertising data (sales versus TV & radio)

 $R^2$  Statistic (0.968 versus 0.897)

#### Conclusion:

- The model that includes the interaction term is superior to the model that contains only main effects.
- (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.

Extensions of the linear model

#### Removing the additive assumption

Example: Advertising data (sales versus TV & radio)

sales = 
$$6.7502 + 0.0191 \times \text{TV} + 0.0289 \times \text{radio} + 0.0011 \times (\text{TV} \times \text{radio}) + \varepsilon$$

#### Conclusion:

- An increase in TV advertising of \$1,000 is associated with increased sales of  $(\beta_1 + \beta_3 \times \text{radio}) \times 1000 = 19 + 1.1 \times \text{radio units}$ .
- An increase in radio advertising of \$1,000 is associated with increased sales of  $(\beta_2 + \beta_3 \times TV) \times 1000 = 29 + 1.1 \times TV$  units.

Extensions of the linear model

Removing the additive assumption

Example: Advertising data (sales versus TV & radio)

	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-statistic	p-value
Intercept	6.7502	0.248	27.23	< 0.0001
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${ t TV}{ imes { t radio}}$	0.0011	0.000	20.73	< 0.0001

Conclusion: both the main effects (TV, radio) and the interaction effect (TV×radio) are statistically significant, so it is obvious that all three variables should be included in the model.

Extensions of the linear model

Removing the additive assumption

**Question**: What if an interaction term has a very small p-value, but the associated main effects (in this case, TV and radio) do not?

Answer: The hierarchical principle states that if we include an interaction in a model, we should also include the main effects, even if the p-values associated with their coefficients are not significant

Extensions of the linear model

Removing the additive assumption

If we include an interaction in a model, we should also include the main effects, even if the p-values associated with their coefficients are not significant. (Why?)

**Rationale**: If  $X_1 \times X_2$  is related to the response, then whether or not the coefficients of  $X_1$  or  $X_2$  are exactly zeros is of little interest. Also  $X_1 \times X_2$  is typically correlated with  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ , and so leaving them out tends to alter the meaning of the interaction.

#### Extensions of the linear model

#### Removing the additive assumption

Interactions of qualitative variables, or a combination of quantitative and qualitative variables.

Example: Credit data (balance versus income (quantitative) & student (qualitative))

#### No interaction term:

balance<sub>i</sub> 
$$\approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{income}_i + \begin{cases} \beta_2, & \text{if } i \text{th person is a student} \\ 0, & \text{if } i \text{th person is not a student} \end{cases}$$

$$= \beta_1 \times \text{income}_i + \begin{cases} \beta_0 + \beta_2, & \text{if } i \text{th person is a student} \\ \beta_0, & \text{if } i \text{th person is not a student} \end{cases}$$

Extensions of the linear model

### Removing the additive assumption

Example: Credit data (balance versus income (quantitative) & student (qualitative))

### No interaction term:

balance<sub>i</sub> = 
$$\beta_1 \times \text{income}_i + \begin{cases} \beta_0 + \beta_2, & \text{if } i \text{th person is a student} \\ \beta_0, & \text{if } i \text{th person is not a student} \end{cases}$$

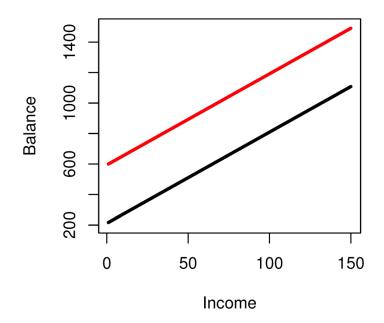
- Fitting two lines, one for students and one for non-students
- The two lines have different intercepts,  $\beta_0 + \beta_2$  versus  $\beta_0$ , but the same slope,  $\beta_1$

Extensions of the linear model

Removing the additive assumption

Example: Credit data (balance versus income (quantitative) & student (qualitative))

### No interaction term:



balanc NOT income REASONABLE! ether or not the income a student.

Extensions of the linear model

### Removing the additive assumption

Interactions of qualitative variables, or a combination of quantitative and qualitative variables.

Example: Credit data (balance versus income (quantitative) & student (qualitative))

### With interaction term:

- A change in income may have a very different effect on the credit card balance of a student versus a non-student.
- Adding an interaction variable, created by multiplying income with the dummy variable for student.

Extensions of the linear model

Removing the additive assumption

Example: Credit data (balance versus income (quantitative) & student (qualitative))

With interaction term:

balance<sub>i</sub> 
$$\approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{income}_i + \begin{cases} \beta_2 + \beta_3 \times \text{income}_i, & \text{if student} \\ 0, & \text{if not student} \end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{cases} (\beta_0 + \beta_2) + (\beta_1 + \beta_3) \times \text{income}_i, & \text{if student} \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{income}_i, & \text{if not student} \end{cases}$$

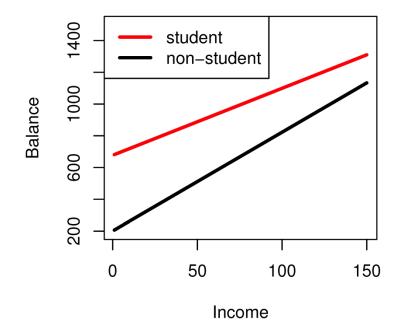
- Fitting two lines, one for students and one for non-students
- The two lines have different intercepts,  $\beta_0 + \beta_2$  versus  $\beta_0$ , as well as different slopes  $\beta_1 + \beta_3$  versus  $\beta_3$

Extensions of the linear model

Removing the additive assumption

Example: Credit data (balance versus income (quantitative) & student (qualitative))

### With interaction term:



### Conclusion:

- Changes in income affect the credit card balances of students and non-students differently.
- The slope for students is lower than the slope for non-students, suggesting that increases in income are associated with smaller increase in credit card balance among students as compared to nonstudents

Extensions of the linear model

Non-linear relationships

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + ... + \beta_p X_p + \varepsilon$$

The above equation assumes a linear relationship between the response and predictors. What if the true relationship between the response and the predictors may be non-linear?

Extensions of the linear model

### Non-linear relationships

A very simple way to directly extend the linear model to accommodate non-linear relationships, using *polynomial regression*.

Later, we will present more complex approaches for performing nonlinear fits in more general settings.

Extensions of the linear model

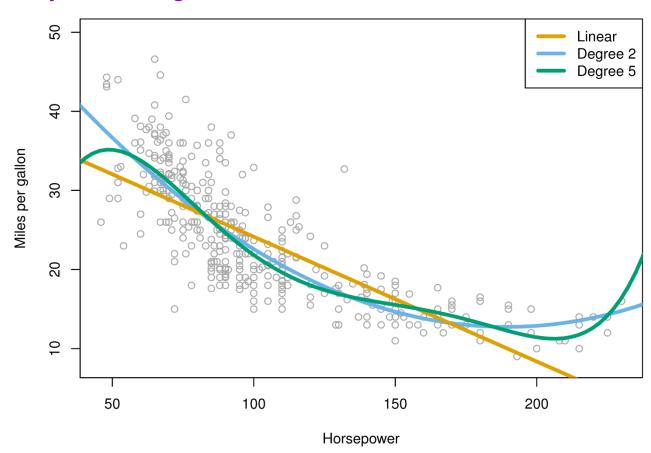
### Non-linear relationships

A very simple way to directly extend the linear model to accommodate non-linear relationships, using *polynomial regression*.

Polynomials	Form	Degree	Examples
Linear Polynomial	p(x): ax+b, a ≠0	Polynomial with Degree 1	x + 8
Quadratic Polynomial	p(x): ax²+b+c, a ≠ 0	Polynomial with Degree 2	$3x^2-4x+7$
Cubic Polynomial	$p(x): ax^3 + bx^2 + cx,$ $a \neq 0$	Polynomial with Degree 3	$2x^3+3x^2+4x+6$

Extensions of the linear model

### Polynomial regression



The data suggests a curved relationship between mpg and horsepower.

Extensions of the linear model

Polynomial regression (quadratic)

$$mpg = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times horsepower + \beta_2 \times horsepower^2 + \varepsilon$$

### **Questions:**

- 1. Is the relationship between horsepower and mpg linear? NO
- 2. Is the model linear? YES

Extensions of the linear model

Polynomial regression (quadratic)

$$mpg = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times horsepower + \beta_2 \times horsepower^2 + \varepsilon$$

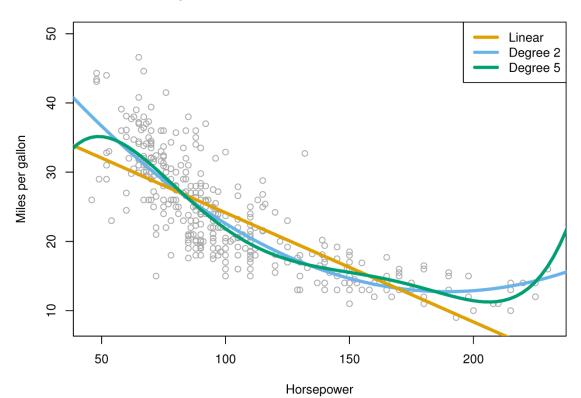
$$X_1 \qquad X_2$$

We can still use standard linear regression software to estimate the model coefficients in order to produce a non-linear fit.

Extensions of the linear model

Polynomial regression (quadratic)

$$mpg = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times horsepower + \beta_2 \times horsepower^2 + \varepsilon$$



### Linear

$$R^2 = 0.606$$

### Degree 2

$$R^2 = 0.688$$

### Extensions of the linear model

Polynomial regression (quadratic)

$$mpg = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times horsepower + \beta_2 \times horsepower^2 + \varepsilon$$

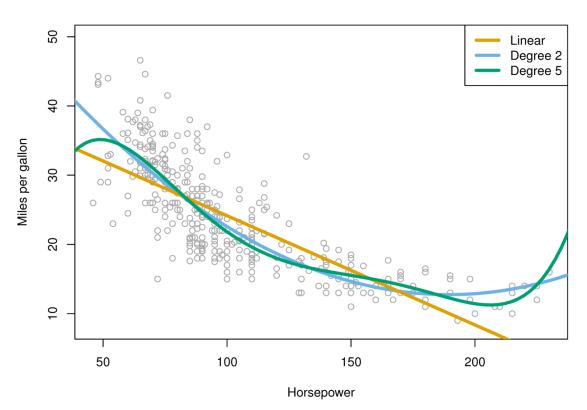
	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-statistic	p-value
Intercept	56.9001	1.8004	31.6	< 0.0001
horsepower	-0.4662	0.0311	-15.0	< 0.0001
${ t horsepower}^2$	0.0012	0.0001	10.1	< 0.0001

Conclusion: the p-value for the quadratic term is highly significant.

Extensions of the linear model

Polynomial regression (quadratic)

Why not even higher degree (e.g. 5)?



- It is unclear (not obvious) that including the additional terms really has led to a better fit to the data.
- It increased the fitting difficulty.

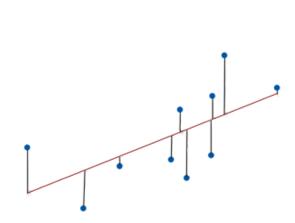
- Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model
  - Non-linearity of the response-predictor relationships.
  - Correlation of error terms.
  - Non-constant variance of error terms.
  - Outliers.
  - High-leverage points.
  - Co-linearity.

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

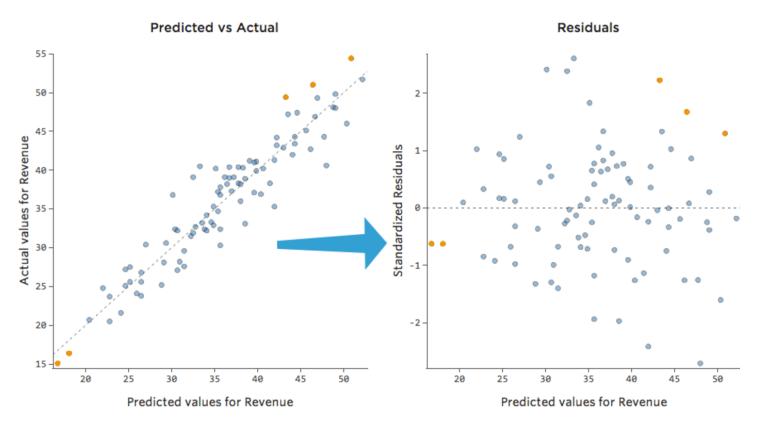
Non-linearity of the data

- If the true relationship is far from linear, then virtually all of the conclusions that we draw from the fit are suspect.
- In addition, the prediction accuracy of the model can be significantly reduced.
- Residual plots (residuals vs. predictor OR residuals vs. predicted values) are a useful graphical tool for identifying non-linearity. **Ideally, the residual plot will show no discernible pattern.** The presence of a pattern may indicate a problem with some aspect of the linear model.

### Residual plots



Residuals = Observed value - Fitted value

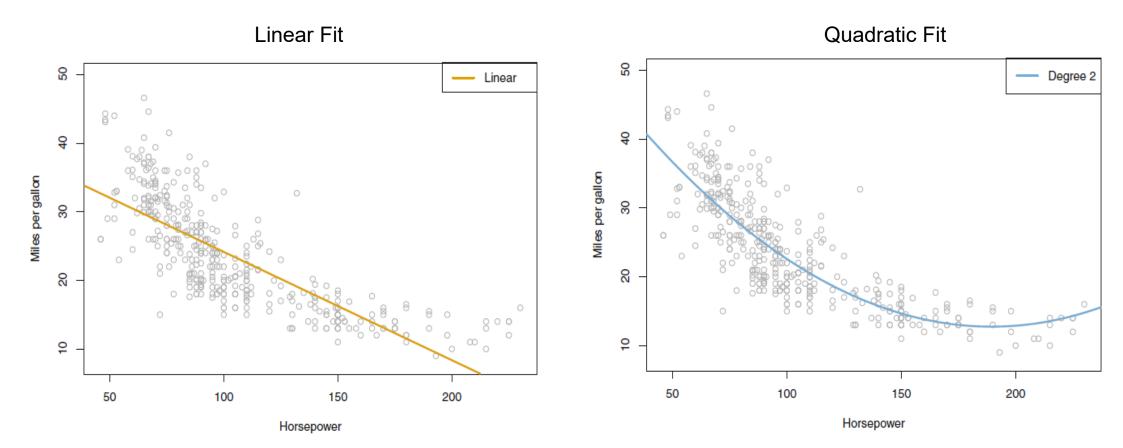


Note that we've colored in a few dots in orange so you can get the sense of how this transformation works.

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Non-linearity of the data

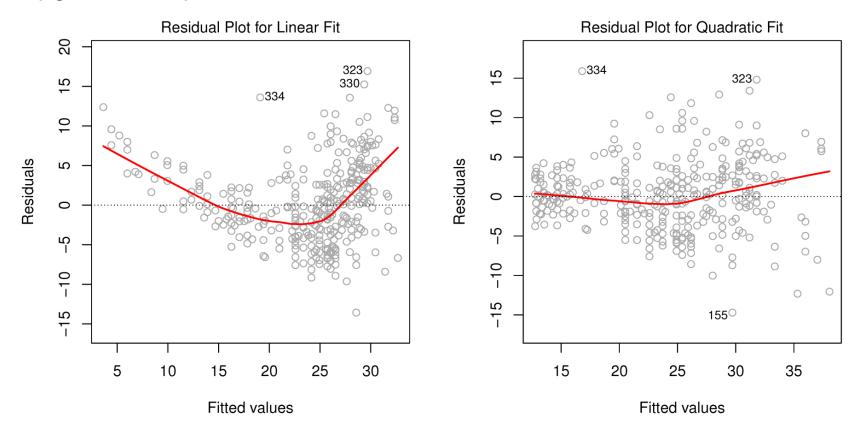
mpg vs. horsepower



Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Non-linearity of the data

mpg vs. horsepower



Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Non-linearity of the data

Suggestion: if the residual plot indicates that there are non-linear associations in the data, then a simple approach is to use non-linear transformations of the predictors, such as  $\log X$ ,  $\sqrt{X}$ , and  $X^2$ , in the regression model.

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Correlation of error terms

An important assumption of the linear regression model is that the error terms,  $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, ..., \varepsilon_n$ , are uncorrelated.

**Question:** What is the difference between **independent** and **uncorrelated** random variables? Describe your understanding without any math formula.

**Answer:** If two random variables are uncorrelated, they have no linear dependence, but they might have a dependence that is nonlinear. If two random variables are independent they have no dependence at all. So being independent means being uncorrelated as well. But being uncorrelated does not necessarily guarantee being independent.

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Correlation of error terms

An important assumption of the linear regression model is that the error terms,  $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, ..., \varepsilon_n$ , are uncorrelated.

- The SEs that are computed for the estimated regression coefficients or the fitted values are based on the assumption of uncorrelated error terms.
- If in fact there is correlation among the error terms, then the estimated SEs will tend to underestimate the true standard errors.
- Confidence and prediction intervals will be narrow than they should be.
- P-values associated with the model will be lower than they should be.

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Correlation of error terms

An important assumption of the linear regression model is that the error terms,  $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, ..., \varepsilon_n$ , are uncorrelated.

Conclusion: if the error terms are correlated, we may have an unwarranted sense of confidence in our model.

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Correlation of error terms

**Example**: suppose we accidently doubled our data, leading to observations and error terms identical in pairs. If we ignored this, our SE calculations would be as if we had a sample of size 2n, when in fact we have only n samples. Our estimated parameters would be the same for the 2n samples as for the n samples, but the confidence intervals would be narrower by a factor of  $\sqrt{2}$ !

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

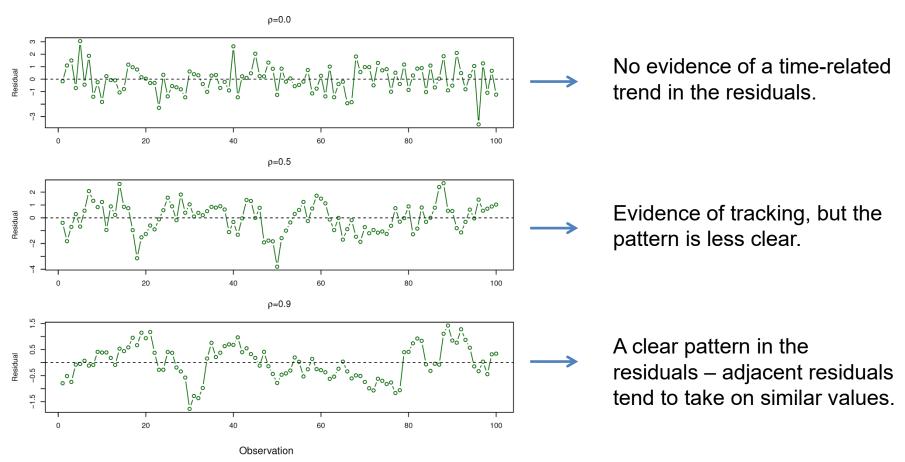
Correlation of error terms

Why might correlations among the error terms occur?

- In the context of *time series data*, it consists of observations for which measurements are obtained at discrete points in time.
- Observations that are obtained at adjacent time points will have positively correlated errors.
- To determine whether this is the case, we can plot the residuals from our model as a function of time. If the error terms are positively correlated, then we may see *tracking* in the pattern (adjacent residuals may have similar values).

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

### Correlation of error terms



Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Correlation of error terms

Why might correlations among the error terms occur?

Outside of time series data.

**Example**: consider a study in which individuals' heights are predicted from their weights. The assumption of uncorrelated errors should be violated if some of the individuals in the study are members of the same family, or eat the same diet, or have been exposed to the same environmental factors.

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Correlation of error terms

**Suggestion**: the assumption of uncorrelated errors is extremely important for linear regression as well as for other statistical methods, and good experimental design is crucial in order to mitigate the risk of such correlations.

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

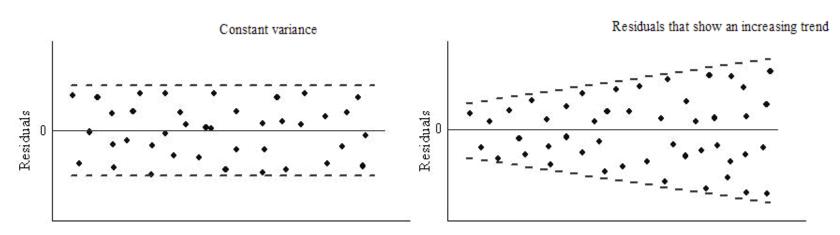
Non-constant variance of error terms

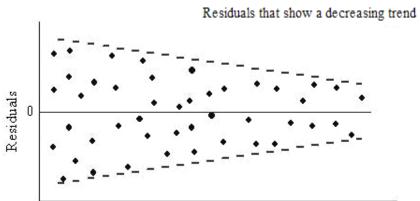
Another important assumption of the linear regression model is that the error terms have a constant variance,  $var(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2$ . The SEs, confidence intervals, and hypothesis testing associated with the linear model rely upon this assumption.

- It is often the case that the variances of the error terms are non-constant.
- One can identify non-constant variances in the errors, or *heteroscedasticity*, from the presence of a *funnel shape*(漏斗形状)in the residual plot.

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

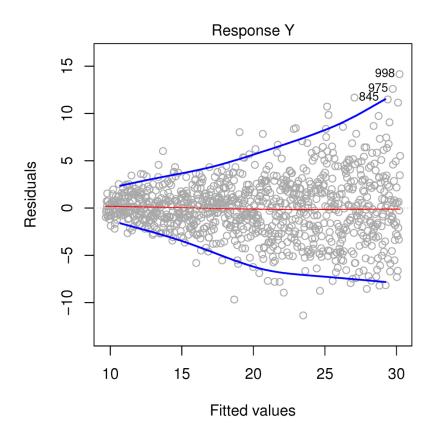
Non-constant variance of error terms





Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

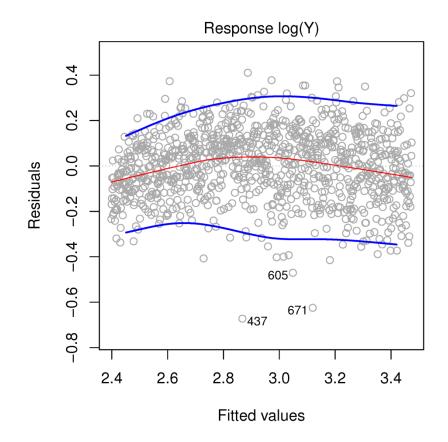
Non-constant variance of error terms



Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Non-constant variance of error terms

Potential solution: transform the response Y using a **concave function** such as  $\log Y$  or  $\sqrt{Y}$ 



Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Non-constant variance of error terms

Potential solution: transform the response Y using a **concave function** such as  $\log Y$  or  $\sqrt{Y}$ .

### Questions:

1. What's the definition of a concave function?

$$f((1-a)x + ay) \ge (1-a)f(x) + af(y), \forall a \in [0,1]$$

2. Quickly show that  $\log Y$  is a concave function.

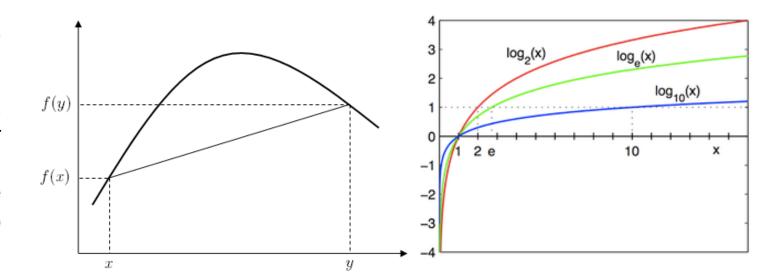
Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Non-constant variance of error terms

Potential solution: transform the response Y using a **concave function** such as  $\log Y$  or  $\sqrt{Y}$ .

An important property of concave functions:

For a function  $f: R \rightarrow R$ , the definition of a concave function merely states that for every z between x and y, the point (z, f(z)) on the graph of f is above the straight line joining the points (x, f(x)) and (y, f(y)).



Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Non-constant variance of error terms

Sometimes we have a good idea of the variance of each response.

For example: The i-th response could be an average of  $n_i$  raw observations. If each of these raw observations is uncorrelated with variance  $\sigma^2$ , then their average has variance  $\sigma_i^2 = \sigma^2 / n_i$ . In this case a simple remedy is to fit our model by **weighted least squares**, with weights proportional to the inverse variances – i.e.  $w_i = n_i$  in this case. Most linear regression software allows for observation weights.

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Non-constant variance of error terms

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

Ordinary least squares (constant variance)

$$\mathcal{E} \sim \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^2 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \sigma^2 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \text{(multivariate) normally distributed with mean vector $\mathbf{0}$ and constant variance-covariance matrix}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_{\text{OLS}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Non-constant variance of error terms

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

Weighted least squares (non-constant variance)

$$\boldsymbol{\mathcal{E}} \sim \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2^2 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \sigma_n^2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{(multivariate) normally distributed with mean vector $\mathbf{0}$ and nonconstant variance-covariance matrix }$$

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{y} \mathbf{b}}{\partial \mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{a} \mathbf{b}^T$$

Non-constant variance of error terms

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{b}}{\partial \mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{b} \mathbf{a}^T$$

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

Weighted least squares (non-constant variance)

$$\varepsilon \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{W}^{-1})$$



$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sigma_1^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1/\sigma_2^2 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1/\sigma_n^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}, \beta) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{N}{2}} \det^{\frac{1}{2}}(\mathbf{W}^{-1})} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^{T} \mathbf{W}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)\right]$$

$$(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^T \mathbf{W} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$
  
=  $\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}$ 

$$\partial (\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^T \mathbf{W}$$

$$\frac{\partial (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^T \mathbf{W} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)}{\partial \beta}$$

$$= -\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X}\beta + \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{X}\beta$$

$$\hat{\beta}_{\text{WLS}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y}$$

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Non-constant variance of error terms

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

Weighted least squares (non-constant variance)

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sigma_1^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1/\sigma_2^2 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1/\sigma_n^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_{\text{WLS}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y}$$

$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{W}^{T}$$

$$\frac{\partial (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^{T} \mathbf{W} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)}{\partial \beta} = -2\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y} + 2\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X}\beta$$

$$\frac{\partial (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^{T} \mathbf{W} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)}{\partial \beta} = 0$$

 $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{MLE} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y}$ 

Potential problems of fitting a linear regression model

Non-constant variance of error terms

One situation that we can easily identify the weight matrix:

If the i-th response is an average of  $n_i$  equally variable observations, then

$$\operatorname{var}(y_i) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n_i}$$
 and  $w_i = n_i$ 

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{pmatrix} n_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & n_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & n_n \end{pmatrix}$$