

Data Analysis and Mining Master in Analysis and Engineering of Big Data

Linear Regression

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Summary

- 1. The Least Squares Estimates
- 2. The Correlation & Determination Coefficients: properties
- 3. The Regression Model
- 4. Inference in Regression
- 5. Verifying Regression Assumptions

Example of Simple Linear Regression

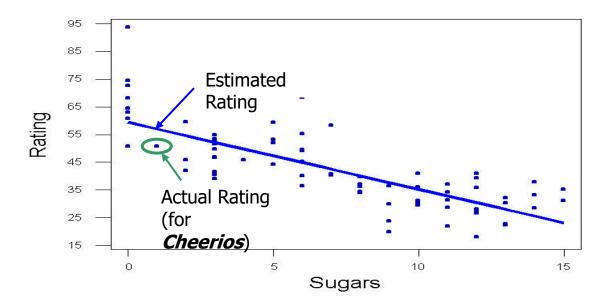
- Cereals data set contains nutritional information for 77 cereals
- Includes sugars and rating variables

Cereal Name	Manuf	Sugars	Calories	Protein	Fat	Sodium	Rating
100% Bran	N	6	70	4	1	130	68.4030
100% Natural Bran	Q	8	120	3	5	15	33.9837
All-Bran	K	5	70	4	1	260	59.4255
All-Bran Extra Fiber	K	0	50	4	0	140	93.7049
Almond Delight	R	8	110	2	2	200	34.3848

Let's estimate *nutritional rating* of a cereal, given its sugar content Use 'sugars' (predictor) to estimate 'rating' (response)

Example of Simple Linear Regression

Scatter plot of rating vs. sugars and least squares regression line



Estimated Regression Equation (ERE)

$$\hat{y} = b_0 + b_1 x$$

Estimated Regression Equation

$$\hat{y} = b_0 + b_1 x$$

- \hat{y} estimated value of response variable
- b_0 , b_1 regression coefficients
- b_0 *y-intercept* of regression line
- b_1 slope of regression line
- ERE for Cereals data set

$$\hat{y} = 59.4 - 2.42(Sugars)$$

Estimated cereal rating equals 59.4 minus 2.42 times the sugar content in grams

ERE is used to make estimates or predictions

Making predictions

$$\hat{y} = 59.4 - 2.42(Sugars)$$

Use ERE to estimate rating for new cereal containing 1 gram of sugar

$$\hat{y} = 59.4 - 2.42(1) = 56.98.$$

- Estimated value lies directly on ERE at $(x = 1, \hat{y} = 56.98)$
- Data set contains cereal with 1 gram of sugar (Cheerios)
- Cheerios rating = 50.765 at (x = 1, y = 50.765)

Example of Simple Linear Regression (cont'd)

ERE prediction too high by 56.98 - 50.765 = 6.215 rating points?

- Difference $(y \hat{y}) = 56.98 50.765$ known as *prediction error* or *residual*
- One seeks ERE that minimizes the size of residuals
- Least Squares Regression calculates unique ERE

The Least Squares Estimates

- Consider a second data sample of 77 cereals
- Cannot assume the Cereals' ERE $\hat{y} = 59.4 2.42(Sugars)$
- b_0 and b_1 statistics whose values differ from sample to sample
- Requires population parameters β_0 and β_1
- Regression Equation represents true linear relationship between rating and sugars for all cereals

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$$

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$$

- Suppose two or more cereals have the same nutrition rating but different sugar content
 - \blacksquare Error term ε accounts for the *indeterminacy* in model
 - Residuals $(y_i \hat{y})$ are estimates of error terms ε_i , i = 1, ..., n

Use Least Squares method to derive values for β_0 and β_1

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$$

Consider n observations from the model

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, ..., n$$

Least squares line minimizes population sum of squares

$$SSE_p = \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i^2$$

$$SSE_p = \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2$$

Determine optimal β_0 and β_1 minimizing

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i^2$$

Partial derivatives with respect to β_0 and β_1

$$\frac{\partial SSE_p}{\partial \beta_0} = -2\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)$$

$$\frac{\partial SSE_p}{\partial \beta_1} = -2\sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)$$

Estimates for b_0 and b_1 parameters

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i) = 0$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i (y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i) = 0$$

Equations re-expressed

re-expressed
$$b_0 n + b_1 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$$

$$b_0 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i + b_1 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i (y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i) = 0$$

Solving for b_0 and b_1 yields

$$b_0 = \overline{y} - b_1 \overline{x}$$
 $b_1 = \frac{\sum x_i y_i - [(\sum x_i)(\sum y_i)]/n}{\sum x_i^2 - (\sum x_i)^2/n}$

with n = total number of observations

The Least Squares Estimates

Estimations to 77 observations in Cereals data set

$$b_0 = \bar{y} - b_1 \bar{x} = 42.6657 - 2.42(6.935) = 59.4$$

$$b_{1} = \frac{\sum x_{i} y_{i} - \left[\left(\sum x_{i}\right)\left(\sum y_{i}\right)\right]/n}{\sum x_{i}^{2} - \left(\sum x_{i}\right)^{2}/n} = \frac{19,186.7 - (534)(3285.26)/77}{5190 - (534)^{2}/77}$$
$$= \frac{-3596.791429}{1486.675325} = -2.42$$

$$\hat{y} = 59.4 - 2.42(Sugars)$$

- b_0 is *y*-intercept
- lacksquare b_1 is slope for **Estimated Regression Equation** (ERE)

ERE: interpretation

$$\hat{y} = 59.4 - 2.42(Sugars)$$

- ERE estimates a cereal with zero grams of sugar to have 59.4 rating points ($b_0 = 59.4$)
- Interpretation for y-intercept when predictor value is zero may be meaningless
- **Example**: predicting person's weight based on height?
 - Height = 0 unclear
 - y intercept cannot be interpreted

ERE: interpretation

$$\hat{y} = 59.4 - 2.42(Sugars)$$

Slope of ERE measures change in y per unit increase x

"For each increase in one gram in sugar content, the estimated nutritional rating decreases by 2.42 rating points"

Summary

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- Least Squares Regression method can approximate linear relationship between any two variables
- How useful is the regression line?
- Useful for making predictions?
- Coefficient of Determination, r² statistic, measures ERE's goodness of fit to data

- Orienteering data set (#10) with ERE $\hat{y} = 6 + 2x$
- Measures elapsed time and distance traveled by hikers
- Residual $(y \hat{y})$ and residual squared $(y \hat{y})^2$ shown

Subject	X = Time	Y = Distance	Predicted Score	Error in Prediction	(Error in Prediction) ²
			$\hat{y} = 6 + 2x$	$(y-\hat{y})$	$(y-\hat{y})^2$
1	2	10	10	0	0
2	2	11	10	1	1
3	3	12	12	0	0
4	4	13	14	-1	1
5	4	14	14	0	0
6	5	15	16	-1	1
7	6	20	18	2	4
8	7	18	20	-2	4
9	8	22	22	0	0
10	9	25	24	1	1

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{10} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = 12$$

- Sum of Squares Error $SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \hat{y}_i)^2 = 12$
- Represents overall measure of error in ERE's prediction

Is SSE = 12 large or small?

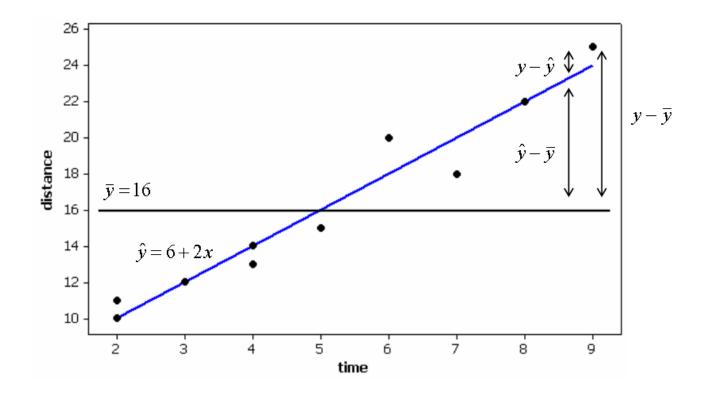
What can we compare it to?

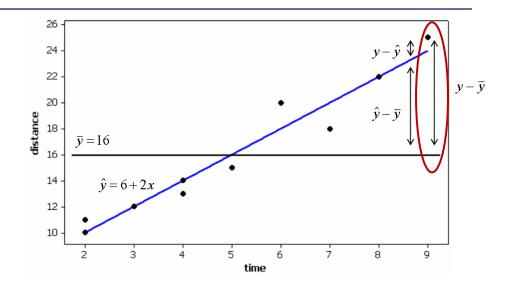
Assume we estimate distance traveled (y) without knowledge of time (x)

we lack access to predictor information

Less information available usually results in less accurate estimates

- Now, \bar{y} = 16 best estimate for **all** competitors, regardless of time hiking
- Not an optimal prediction





- Data points cluster more tightly along ERE, as compared to line \bar{y} = 16
 - Residuals smaller when using time (x-information)
- Consider competitor #10 where ignoring x-value leads to estimation error (25 - 16) = 9 km
- Indicated by distance between \bar{y} = 16 and data point (9, 25)
- Suppose estimation error for all data points are calculated similarly

Leads to Sum of Squares Total

$$SST = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y - \overline{y})^{2}$$

- Measures total variability in response variable, without reference to predictor variable
- SST univariate measure of y

$$SST = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y - \bar{y})^2 = (n-1)Var(y) = (n-1)(SD(y))^2$$

The Coefficient of Determination r^2 (cont'd)

Is SST larger or smaller than SSE?

SST = 228 much larger than SSE = 12

- Smaller values for SSE better
 - So, including predictor improves estimates
- How much does SSE improve estimates?
 - For competitor #10, by ignoring x-value leads to estimation error $(y \overline{y}) = (25 16) = 9 \text{ km}$
 - Including x-value in regression produces (y ŷ) = (25 24) = 1
 km estimation error
 - Improvement: $(\hat{y} \bar{y}) = 24 16 = 8$

 Sum of Squares Regression, SSR measures overall improvement in prediction accuracy

$$SSR = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_i - \overline{y})^2$$

Consider SST = SSR + SSE:

$$\sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2 + \sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

SSR measures the amount of variability in the response explained by Estimated Regression Equation (ERE)

SSE measures variability in *y* from all other sources, after linear relationship between *x* and *y* accounted for

Coefficient of Determination

$$r^{2} = \frac{SSR}{SST} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_{i} - \overline{y})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \overline{y})^{2}}$$

- r^2 is proportion of variability in response variable explained by ERE
- Maximum of r² occurs when all data points lie exactly on ERE (perfect fit)

$$r^2 = SSR/SST = 1$$
 (with $SSE = 0$)

- **Minimum** of r^2 occurs when ERE shows no improvement
 - ERE explains no variability in response variable
 - SSR = 0, resulting in $r^2 = 0/SST = 0$

$$r^{2} = \frac{SSR}{SST} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_{i} - \overline{y})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \overline{y})^{2}}$$

Interpreting r²

- Score above 90% -- "very good"
- Score above 80% -- "good"
- Score above 70% -- "somewhat satisfied"
- Score below 50% -- "bad"

Heuristic general guideline only

- it requires judgment

The Standard Error of the Estimate

Mean Square Error (MSE)

$$MSE = SSE/(n-m-1)$$

m = number predictors, n = number observations

 Standard Error of the Estimate s measures accuracy of estimates produced by ERE

$$s = \sqrt{MSE} = \sqrt{SSE/(n-m-1)}$$

- s 'typical' residual or error in estimation
 - \circ From Orienteering data s = 1.2 km
 - Using ERE estimate of hiking distance typically differs from actual distance by about 1.2 km

The Standard Error of the Estimate

Consider typical estimation error when ignoring predictor variable

$$SD_y = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y - \overline{y})^2}{n-1} = 5.0$$

- Using ERE reduces "typical" estimation error from 5 km to 1.2 km
- Calculation of SST and SSR

$$SST = \sum y^2 - \left(\sum y\right)^2 / n$$

$$SSR = \frac{\left[\sum xy - \left(\sum x\right)\left(\sum y\right) / n\right]^2}{\sum x^2 - \left(\sum x\right)^2 / n}$$

Sum of Squares Regression

The Standard Error of the Estimate

SST and SSR calculated from Orienteering data set

$$SST = \sum y - (\sum y)^2 / n = 2788 - (160)^2 / 10 = 2478 - 2560 = 228$$

$$SSR = \frac{\left[\sum xy - \left(\sum x\right)\left(\sum y\right)/n\right]^2}{\sum x^2 - \left(\sum x\right)^2/n} = \frac{\left[908 - (50)(160)/10\right]^2}{304 - (50)^2/10} = \frac{108^2}{54} = 216$$

ERE accounting of variability in distance traveled

$$r^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} = \frac{216}{228} = 0.9474$$

The Correlation Coefficient

Measures strength of linear relationship between two quantitative variables

$$r = \frac{\sum (x - \overline{x})(y - \overline{y})}{(n-1) s_x s_y}$$

- $-1.0 \le r \le 1.0$,
- $-s_x$ and s_y are sample standard deviations for x and y, respectively
- r close to 1: variables are positively correlated
- r close to -1: variables are negatively correlated
- Other values: uncorrelated variables

The Correlation Coefficient (cont'd)

Rough guidelines for interpreting correlation between two variables

```
-r > 0.7 positively correlated

-0.33 < r \le 0.7 mildly positively correlated

-0.33 < r \le 0.33 not correlated

-0.7 < r \le -0.33 mildly negatively correlated
```

Obs.: presence/absence of correlation requires more rigorous tests!

negatively correlated

depending on the field of study

 $- r \le -0.7$

The Correlation Coefficient (cont'd)

Definition of r

$$r = \frac{\sum xy - (\sum x)(\sum y)/n}{\sqrt{\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2/n} \sqrt{\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2/n}}$$

Calculate and interpret r for Orienteering data set

$$r = \frac{908 - (50)(160)/10}{\sqrt{304 - (50)^2/10}} = \frac{108}{\sqrt{54}\sqrt{228}} = 0.9733$$

r indicates that time and distance hiking are strongly positively correlated

- r conveniently expressed as $r = \pm \sqrt{r^2}$
 - r is positive when b₁ is positive
 - -r is negative when b_1 is negative
- From Orienteering example: $r = \sqrt{r^2} = \sqrt{0.9474} = 0.9733$

ANOVA: Simple Linear Regression

Regression statistics summarized in *Analysis of Variability* (ANOVA) table

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F
Regression	SSR	m	$MSR = \frac{SSR}{m}$	MSR
Error (or Residual)	SSE	n-m-1	$MSE = \frac{SSE}{n - m - 1}$	$F = \frac{MSR}{MSE}$
Total	SST = SSR + SSE	n-1		

- m = total predictors, n = total observations
- F statistic used for inferential purposes

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The Regression Model

- For model building and inference purposes, regression model assumptions require validation
- Deploying model with unverified assumptions can result in failure!

The Regression Model

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$$

- $-\beta_0$ and β_1 model parameters are *y*-intercept and slope, respectively.
- True values unknown, estimated by Estimation of Regression Equation (ERE).
- $-\varepsilon$ error term required because linear approximation to actual predictor-response relationship not deterministic.
- $-\varepsilon$ is a random variable.

Error Term ε : Assumptions

1. Zero Mean Assumption

- Error term ε random variable with mean, $E(\varepsilon) = 0$

2. Constant Variance Assumption

- Variance of ε constant, regardless of x-value

3. Independence Assumption

- Values of ε independent

4. Normality Assumption

- Error term ε normally distributed random variable
- So, ε_i are independent normal random variables, with mean = 0 and constant variance

The Regression Model (cont'd)

- Implied Behavior of Response Variable y
- 1. Based on: **Zero Mean Assumption**

$$E(y) = E(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon) = E(\beta_0) + E(\beta_1 x) + E(\varepsilon) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

For each x, mean of y's lie on regression line

2. Based on: Constant Variance Assumption

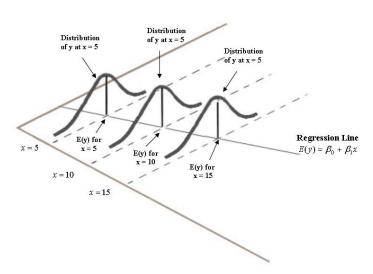
$$Var(y) = Var(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon) = Var(\varepsilon) = \sigma^2$$

Regardless of x-value, variance of y's constant

- 3. Based on: Independence Assumption
 - For any x, values of y are independent
- 4. Based on: Normality Assumption
 - y normally distributed random variable

The Regression Model (cont'd)

- Normality of y_i , with mean $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ and constant variance σ^2 shown
- Observed y-values corresponding to predictor values x = 5, 10, and 15 are samples from normal distribution with mean $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$
- Normal curves have exactly same shape



For each x value, the corresponding y are normally distributed.

Validating Regression Assumptions

- Validating the regression assumptions is not important when inference or model building is not performed
 - Regression analysis can be applied in a descriptive manner

Regression assumptions must be validated when inference or model building is performed

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Inference in Regression

- Suppose the data set is unfamiliar with x and y values in range – 4.0 to 4.0
- Predicting y with x from ERE: $r^2 = 0.3\%$
- r² value indicates linear relationship not useful
- Are we sure?
 - Can a linear relationship between x and y exist when r^2 is small?
 - Inference offers a systematic framework to assess significance of linear association between *x* and *y*.

Inferential Methods

- T-test for relationship between response and predictor
- 2. Confidence interval for slope (β_1)
- Confidence interval for mean of response, given an x-value
- 4. Prediction interval for random response value, given an *x*-value

Inference in Regression (cont'd)

Regression model

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$$

 β_1 model parameter, whose *true* value unknown

What value of β_1 indicates **non-existent** linear relationship between x and y?

When $\beta_1 = 0$

$$y = \beta_0 + \varepsilon$$

- Linear relationship
 - \blacksquare exists when $\beta_1 \neq 0$; no longer exists $\beta_1 = 0$
- Inference is based on this key idea

T-test for Relationship x and y

- Least squares estimate of slope b₁ is a statistic
- Sampling distribution of b_1 has mean = β_1 , and standard error σ_{b_1} :

$$\sigma_{b_1} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2 / n}}$$

- Regression inference about β₁ based on sampling distribution of b₁
- s_{b_1} is a point estimate of σ_{b_1} , with s = standard error of the estimate

$$s_{b_1} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2 / n}}$$

T-test for Relationship bt x and y (cont'd)

- S_{b_1} interpreted to measure variability of slope
 - Large s_{b_1} values indicate estimate of slope b_1 unstable
 - Small $s_{\rm b1}$ values indicate estimate of slope $b_{\rm 1}$ precise
- t-test based on *t*-distribution with *n* 2 degrees of freedom

$$t = \frac{\left(b_1 - \beta_1\right)}{S_{b_1}}$$

- null hypothesis true
 - \blacksquare $t = b_1 / s_{b_1}$ follows t-distribution with n 2 degrees of freedom

T-test for Relationship bt x and y

Example: applying t-test to regression results of nutritional rating on sugar content

Minitab results

```
The regression equation is
Rating = 59.4 - 2.42 Sugars
Predictor
            Coef SE Coef
                               Т
Constant 59.444 1.951 30.47 0.000
Sugars -2.4193 0.2376 -10.18 0.000
S = 9.16160 R-Sq = 58.0% R-Sq(adj) = 57.5%
Analysis of Variance
                      SS
Source
              DF
                             MS
                                      F
                                            P
               1 8701.7
                          8701.7 103.67 0.000
Regression
                            83.9
Residual Error 75 6295.1
              76
Total
                  14996.8
```

T-test for Relationship bt x and y

- $b_1 = -2.4193$ (under "Coef")
- $s_{b_1} = 0.2376$ (under "SE Coef")
- T-statistic value, $t = b_1/s_{b_1} = -2.4193/0.2376 = -10.18$ found under "T"
- p-value for t-statistic found under "p" represented by:

$$p-value = P(|t| > t_{obs}) = P(|t| > -10.18) \approx 0.000,$$

tobs observed value of t-statistic from regression

Actual p-value less than 0.000

T-test for Relationship bt x and y

- H_0 : asserts $β_1 = 0$ (no linear relationship exists)
- $\stackrel{\blacksquare}{}$ H_a: asserts β₁ ≠ 0 (linear relationship exists)



- t-test rejects H₀ when p-value small
- Routinely, 0.05 used as rejection threshold
- Because p-value ~ 0.000, H_0 rejected
- Indicates a linear relationship exists between nutritional rating and sugar content

Confidence Interval for Slope of Regression Line

- Can estimate slope of regression line β₁, using confidence interval
- The t-interval is based on sampling distribution for b₁
- 100(1- α)% confidence interval for slope β_1

$$b_1 \pm (t_{n-2})(s_{b_1})$$

 t_{n-2} based on 2 degrees of freedom

One get's 100(1- α)% confident true slope β_1 lies within interval

Confidence Interval for Slope of Regression Line

Example (Nutritional Data) Construct 95% confidence interval for true slope β_1

Regression results of nutritional rating on sugar content

$$b_1 = -2.4193$$
, $S_{b1} = 0.2376$

T-critical value for 95% confidence, n-2=75 deg. freedom

$$t_{75,95\%} = 2.0$$

Confidence interval equals

$$-2.4193 \pm 2.0 \times 0.2376 = (-2.8945, -1.9441)$$

Confidence Interval for Slope of Regression Line (cont'd)

Confidence interval

 $-2.4193 \pm 2.0 *0.2376 = (-2.8945, -1.9441)$

- 95% confident true slope of regression line lies between
 -2.8945 and -1.9441
- For each additional gram of sugar, nutritional rating decreases between 1.94 and 2.89 points
- Since $\beta_1 = 0$ not contained in (-2.8945, -1.9441) 95% confident of significance in **linear relationship** between *nutritional rating* and *sugar content*

Confidence Interval for Mean Value of y given x

- The point estimate obtained using ERE do not provide probability statement regarding their accuracy
- Two intervals provide probability statement for estimate
 - (1) Confidence interval for mean value of y, given x
 - (2) **Prediction interval** for value of randomly chosen *y* given *x*

Confidence Interval for Mean Value of y Given x (cont'd)

Confidence Interval for Mean Value of y given x

$$\hat{y}_{p} \pm t_{n-2}(s) \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_{p} - \bar{x})^{2}}{\sum (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}}$$

- x_p given value of x, for which prediction being made
- y_p point estimate of y, for given value of x
- t_{n-2} multiplier associated with sample size and confidence level
- standard error of estimate

Example: Probably not too unusual for randomly chosen student's score to exceed 98% on exam

However, class mean on exam extremely likely not to exceed 98% Variability associated with variable's mean smaller than variability of

individual observation for same variable

Example: random variable x has standard deviation σ , while sample mean \bar{x} has standard deviation σ/n

Predicting class average for exam easier than predicting exam score for randomly chosen student

- Often, analysts interested in predicting individual value, rather than mean of all values, for given x
 - **Example**: predict credit score for *single* applicant, rather than mean credit score for all applicants, given *x*
- Prediction Interval for Randomly Chosen Value of y, given x:

$$\hat{y}_p \pm t_{n-2}(s) \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_p - \bar{x})^2}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}$$

s is the standard error of the estimate

Obs.: similar to confidence interval for mean value of y, given x

$$\hat{y}_p \pm t_{n-2}(s) \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_p - \bar{x})^2}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}$$

- Formula reflects greater variability associated with estimating single value of y (includes additional constant "1+" under square root)
- Prediction interval always wider than confidence interval, given same confidence level

Example: ERE for Orienteering data set (10 hikers)

• Estimated distance traveled for hiker x = 5 hours: $\hat{y} = 6 + 2(5) = 16$ km

How accurate is point estimate = 16?

- Point estimate = 16 does not provide probability statement regarding its accuracy
- For each x-value, regression model assumes observed y-values are samples from normal population with mean located on regression line
 - regression model assumes existence of normal population of hikers with x5
 - Of all hikers in this population, 95% will travel within bounded interval, where distance = 16 km

- Calculate 95% confidence interval for mean distance traveled, for all hikers with x = 5
- Confidence Interval (for the mean)
 - $x_p = 5$, x-bar = 5, $y_p = 16$, $t_{8,95\%} = 2.306$
 - o s = 1.22474 (from regression results), and n = 10

$$\hat{y}_p \pm t_{n-2}(s) \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\left(x_p - \overline{x}\right)^2}{\sum \left(x_i - \overline{x}\right)^2}}$$

$$= 16 \pm (2.306) (1.22474) \sqrt{\frac{1}{10} + \frac{\left(5 - 5\right)^2}{54}}$$

$$= 16 \pm 0.893$$

$$= (15.107, 16.893)$$

95% confident that mean distance traveled by all hikers traveling
 5 hours, lies between 15.11 and 16.89 km

- Estimate distance traveled by randomly selected hiker who hiked x = 5 hours?
- Prediction Interval (for single hiker)

$$\hat{y}_p \pm t_{n-2}(s) \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\left(x_p - \overline{x}\right)^2}{\sum \left(x_i - \overline{x}\right)^2}}$$

$$= 16 \pm (2.306) (1.22474) \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{\left(5 - 5\right)^2}{54}}$$

$$= 16 \pm 2.962$$

$$= (13.038, 18.962)$$

 95% confident that distance traveled by randomly select hiker traveling 5 hours, lies between 13.04 and 18.96 km

- Prediction interval is wider than confidence interval
- Estimating single response is more difficult than estimating mean response
- In general, interpretation of prediction interval more useful to the analyst

Confidence Interval for Correlation Coefficient ρ

Assume x and y normally distributed

THE $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ CONFIDENCE INTERVAL FOR THE POPULATION CORRELATION COEFFICIENT ρ

We can be $100(1-\alpha)\%$ confident that the population correlation coefficient ρ lies between:

$$r \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1-r^2}{n-2}}$$

where $t_{\alpha/2,n-2}$ is based on n-2 degrees of freedom.

Example

Regression of In rating on carbo-hydrates

$$r = +\sqrt{r^2} = +\sqrt{0.025} = 0.1581$$

$$t_{\alpha/2, \text{ n-2}} = t_{0.025, 74} = 1.99$$

$$r \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1 - r^2}{n - 2}}$$

$$= 0.1581 \pm 1.99 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1 - 0.025}{74}}$$

$$= (-0.0703, 0.3865)$$

In rating and carbohydrates are not linearly correlated

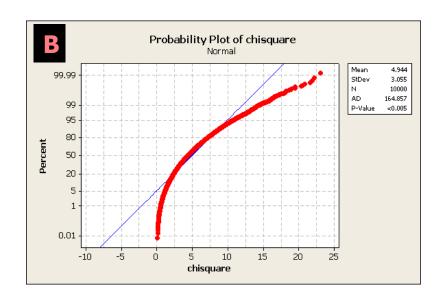
Using a Confidence Interval to Assess Correlation

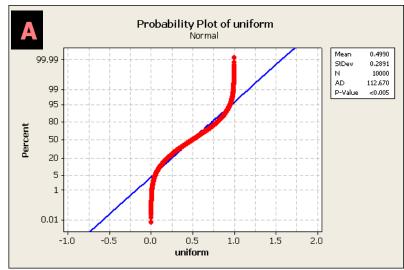
- If both endpoints of the confidence interval are **positive**, then x and y are positively correlated, with confidence level $100(1 \alpha)\%$
- If both endpoints of the confidence interval are **negative**, then x and y are negatively correlated, with confidence level $100(1 \alpha)\%$
- If one endpoint is negative and one endpoint is positive, then x and y are not linearly correlated, with confidence level $100(1 \alpha)\%$

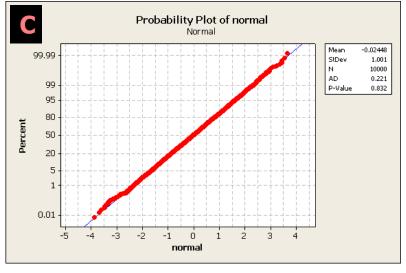
- Four inferential methods described require adherence to regression assumptions
- Two graphical methods used to verify assumptions
 - (1) Normal probability plot of residuals
 - (2) Plot of standardized residuals against predicted values
- Method 1: Normal Probability Plot

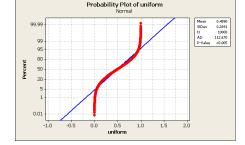
Quantile-Quantile plot of quantiles of particular distribution against quantiles of standard normal distribution

- Three examples show normal probability plots for:
 - (A) Uniform(0,1)
 - (B) Chi-square(5)
 - (C) Normal(0,1)

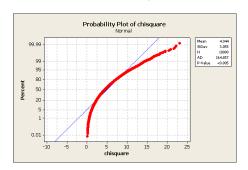




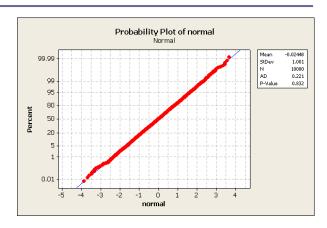




- (A) Uniform(0,1)
 - Clear pattern (reverse S curve) exists indicating systematic deviation from normality
 - Uniform distribution is rectangular-shaped distribution with heavy tails



- (B) Chi-Square(5)
 - Again, clear pattern indicates systematic deviation from normality
 - Chi-Square(5) distribution is right-skewed
 - Plot appearance typical of right-skewed distributions



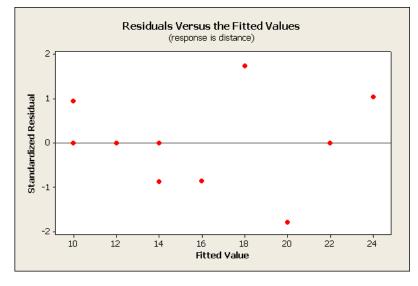
- (C) Normal(0,1)
 - All points line up on straight line indicating normality
 - Expected behavior for data drawn from Normal distribution
 - However, sampling error and noise found in real-world data make decisions about normality less certain
 - Note, each probability plot generated by Minitab shows AD statistic and corresponding p-value

- Quantile of distribution x_p measures p% of distribution less than or equal to x_p
- Determines whether specified distribution deviates from normality
- Observed values from distribution compared against same number observations expected from normal distribution
- Where normal, bulk of points should lie on straight line
- Otherwise, systematic deviations from linearity denote non-normality

- Method 2: Plot Standardized Residuals Against Fits (Predicted Values)
 - (qq-plot in MatLab)
- Example shows regression of distance vs time for

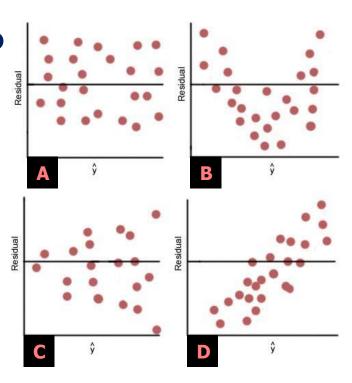
Orienteering data set

- Regression line (ERE) shown as horizontal blue line
- Discernable patterns in residuals vs. fits indicates regression assumptions violated

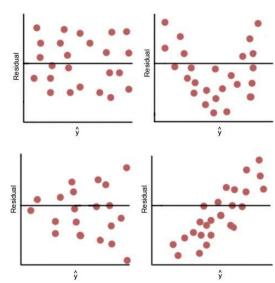


Too few data points exist to make determination

- Four commonly found patterns in residual-fit plots shown
- Plot (A): "healthy" plot where no discernible patterns exist
- Data points form overall rectangular shape
- Regression assumptions remain intact



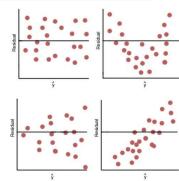
Plot (B): exhibits curvature, which violates independence assumption



- Why (plot B)?
 - Residuals, which estimate errors, assumed to exhibit independence
 - Residuals form curved pattern
 - Therefore, for given residual, we may predict where neighboring residuals fall
 - If residuals independent, no prediction is possible

Verifying Regression Assumptions II

■ Plot (C): displays "funnel" pattern, which violates constant variance assumption



- Why (plot C)?
 - Residual variance lower for smaller values of x, where variance increases as x-values increase
 - Constant variance assumption violated
- Plot (D): shows pattern increasing from left to right, which violates zero-mean assumption
- Why (plot D)?
 - Zero-mean states mean of error term zero, regardless of x-value
 - Plot shows small x-values have mean less than 0
 - Large x-values have mean greater than 0
 - Therefore, zero-mean assumption violated

Verifying Regression Assumptions

- Diagnostic Tests (just informative)
 - Several diagnostic hypothesis tests exist to validate regression assumptions
 - Anderson-Darling test validates residual fit to normal distribution
 - Bartlett's test or Levene's test indicates whether constant variance assumption violated
 - Durban-Watson test or runs test assesses whether independence assumption violated

Regression Assumptions: Outlook

- Suppose normality plot shows no systematic deviation from linearity, and
- Residuals-fits plot shows no discernible patterns
- Therefore, graphical evidence shows no evidence regression assumptions violated

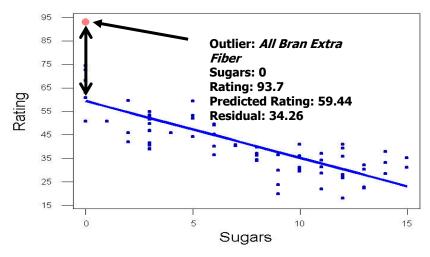
What if graphical tests indicate regression assumption(s) violated?

For example, constant variance assumption violated

Transforming response using In(y) may help

Supplementary

- Outliers are observations with very large standardized residual, in absolute value
- Recall Cereals scatter plot of rating against sugars



- Vertical distance from All Bran Extra Fiber to ERE has largest residual in data set
- o residual = $(y \hat{y}) = 93.7 59.44 = 34.26$

- Residuals may have different variances => standardize residuals to same the scale
- Let $s_{i,resid}$ denote standard error of i_{th} residual, with leverage h_i
- Standardized Residual: $s_{i,resid} = s \sqrt{1 h_i}$

$$residual_{i, standardized} = \frac{y_i - \hat{y}_i}{s_{i, resid}}$$

 Generally, observations with standardized residual > 2 are flagged as outliers

- Minitab detects All Bran Extra Fiber with standardized residual = 3.83
- Residual positive observed y-value is higher than estimated y-value
- Residual negative observed y-value is lower than estimated y-value
- High Leverage Points extreme observations in predictor space
- Very large values of x variable without reference to y variable

Leverage h_i for i_{th} observation:

$$h_i = \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

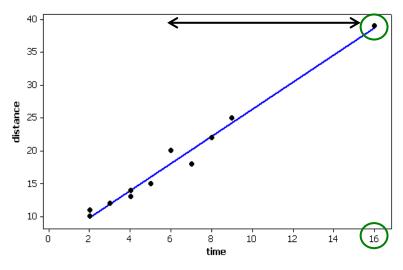
 h_i only dependents on $(x_i - \bar{x})^2$

So, as distance from x-value to \bar{x} increases, leverage increases

$$1/n \le Leverage \le 1.0$$

- High leverage
 - When leverage > 2(m + 1) or 3(m + 1)

Suppose 11th hiker from Orienteering data set hiked x = 16 hours



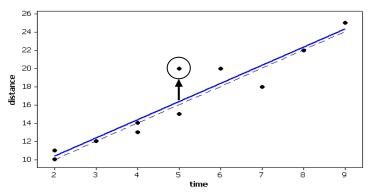
- Identified as high leverage point by extreme number of hours, without reference to distance traveled
- Minitab flags "unusual observation" with "large influence"

- Influential observation significantly alters regression parameters based on absence/presence in data set
- Outlier may or may not be influential
- High leverage point may or may not be influential.
- Example: suppose 11th hiker traveled 20 km in 5 hours Although Minitab flags observation as outlier, is it? Including/removing the observation results in ER'Es with:

$$b_0 = 6.00, b_1 = 2.00$$

$$b_0 = 6.36, b_1 = 2.00$$

Diagram shows mild effect on ERE by including/not including outlier



In fact, x = 5 same as x-bar leading to leverage:

$$h_{(5,20)} = \frac{1}{11} + \frac{(5-5)^2}{54} = 0.0909$$

So, point has low leverage and is not influential

Standard Error of the Residual and Standardized Residual are derived:

$$s_{(5,20), resid} = 1.71741\sqrt{1 - 0.0909} = 1.6375$$

$$residual_{(5,20),\text{standardized}} = \frac{y_i - \hat{y}_i}{s_{(5,20),resid}} = \frac{20 - 16.364}{1.6375} = 2.22,$$

- Cook's Distance measures an observation's level of influence
- Considers both size of residual and leverage for observation

Cook's Distance:

$$D_{i} = \frac{(y_{i} - \hat{y}_{i})^{2}}{(m+1)s^{2}} \left[\frac{h_{i}}{(1-h_{i})^{2}} \right]$$

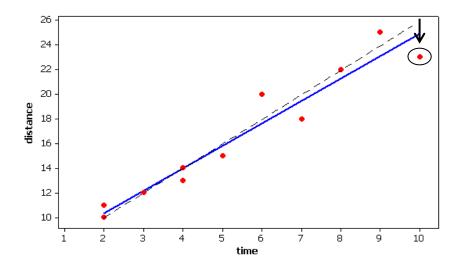
- $(y_i \hat{y}_i)$ i_{th} residual
- s standard error of the estimate
- $-h_{\rm i}$ leverage of i_{th} observation
- *m* number of predictors
- Combines elements representing outlier and leverage
- Cook's Distance for 11th (5, 20) hiker:

$$D_i = \frac{(20 - 16.364)^2}{(1+1)1.71741^2} \left[\frac{0.0909}{(1-0.0909)^2} \right] = 0.2465$$

- In general, influential observations have Cook's Distance1.0
- Cook's Distance also compared against F_{m,n-m} distribution
- Measure greater than median percentile of F_{m,n-m} influential
- **Example**: 11th hiker (5, 20) with Cook's Distance = 0.2465 not influential, lies within 37th percentile of F_{1,10}
- Example: hard-core hiker (16, 39) has high leverage = h_i
 = 0.7007, and standardized residual = 0.46801
- However, Cook's Distance = 0.2564 shows it's not influential

- So, outlier with **low influence** *or* **high leverage** point with **small residual** is not necessarily influential
- What about an observation with moderately high leverage and residual?
- **Example**: 11^{th} hiker (10, 23) has leverage $h_i = 0.36019$, and standardized residual = -1.70831
 - Observation influential with Cook's Distance = 0.821457, lies within 62^{nd} percentile of $F_{1,10}$
- Influence results from moderately high leverage combined with moderately high residual

Influence of 11th hiker "pulls down" regression line where slope b₁ decreases from 2.00 to 1.82



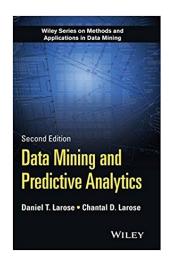
Homework

Do the tutorials available on CLIP

- Exploratory Data Analysis

- Linear Regression
 - Case Study: Baseball data set

References



Larose, T. & Larose, C. (2015). *Data Mining and Predictive Analytics*, Wiley Series on Methods and Applications in Data Mining, Wiley (2nd edition), **Chapter 8**