

Simple Linear Regression

Michael Noonan

January 11, 2021

Biol 520C: Statistical modelling for biological data

1. Housekeeping
2. Simple Linear Regression
3. Least Squares Fitting
4. Matrix Algebra Review
5. Linear regression and matrix notation
6. Assumptions of linear regression
7. Linear regression example

Housekeeping



- **Paper datasets:** Some have already started speaking with me about what datasets they're interested in using. For everyone's benefit, I'll keep a list of this up on Canvas. You can always change.

- **Paper datasets:** Some have already started speaking with me about what datasets they're interested in using. For everyone's benefit, I'll keep a list of this up on Canvas. You can always change.
- You have the ability to log in remotely to public workstations on campus, and these have R installed. Info here:
<https://students.ok.ubc.ca/academic-success/learning-hub/tech-support-for-online-learning/>.

- **Paper datasets:** Some have already started speaking with me about what datasets they're interested in using. For everyone's benefit, I'll keep a list of this up on Canvas. You can always change.
- You have the ability to log in remotely to public workstations on campus, and these have R installed. Info here:
<https://students.ok.ubc.ca/academic-success/learning-hub/tech-support-for-online-learning/>.
- You also have digital access to the textbooks I mentioned for free through the UBCO Library:

<https://muse-jhu-edu.ezproxy.library.ubc.ca/book/33194>

<https://link-springer-com.ezproxy.library.ubc.ca/book/10.1007%2F978-0-387-87458-6>

<https://www-degruyter-com.ezproxy.library.ubc.ca/princetonup/view/title/563354>



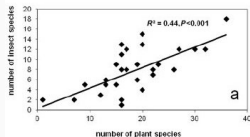
- Practical 01 is up on the course website, and will be unlocked on Canvas after today's lecture. It is due before the start of the lecture next Tuesday.

Simple Linear Regression

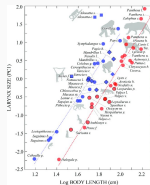


When observing biological systems, one of the first questions we often ask ourselves is: “Is there a relationship between X and Y ?”.

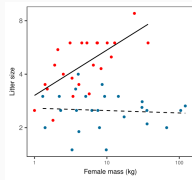
When observing biological systems, one of the first questions we often ask ourselves is: “Is there a relationship between X and Y?”.



Chmura et al. 2013

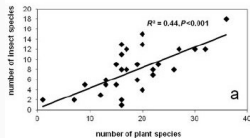


Bowling et al. 2020

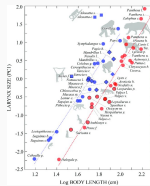


Johnson et al. 2017

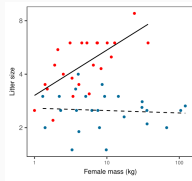
When observing biological systems, one of the first questions we often ask ourselves is: “Is there a relationship between X and Y?”.



Chmura et al. 2013



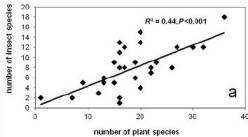
Bowling et al. 2020



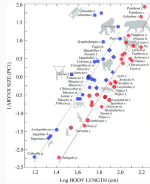
Johnson et al. 2017

Our verbal hypothesis in this case is ‘X is proportional to Y’.

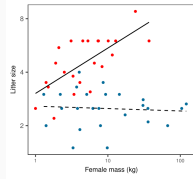
When observing biological systems, one of the first questions we often ask ourselves is: “Is there a relationship between X and Y?”.



Chmura et al. 2013



Bowling et al. 2020



Johnson et al. 2017

Our verbal hypothesis in this case is ‘X is proportional to Y’. But looking at the data isn’t enough. So how do we approach the problem statistically?



Fitting a straight line to data is the root of all modern modelling.

Fitting a straight line to data is the root of all modern modelling.

The 'simple' in simple linear regression refers to the fact that there is only one parameter affecting the relationship between x and y .

Fitting a straight line to data is the root of all modern modelling.

The 'simple' in simple linear regression refers to the fact that there is only one parameter affecting the relationship between x and y .

The method itself isn't simple and there's a lot going on under the hood.



Data is of the form:

$$d = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$$

| X | Y |
|---------|---------|
| x_1 | y_1 |
| x_2 | y_2 |
| \dots | \dots |
| x_n | y_n |

Data is of the form:

$$d = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$$

| X | Y |
|---------|---------|
| x_1 | y_1 |
| x_2 | y_2 |
| \dots | \dots |
| x_n | y_n |

Verbal description of the hypothesis:

y increases with x

Data is of the form:

$$d = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$$

| X | Y |
|---------|---------|
| x_1 | y_1 |
| x_2 | y_2 |
| \dots | \dots |
| x_n | y_n |

Verbal description of the hypothesis:

y increases with x or... y is proportional to x

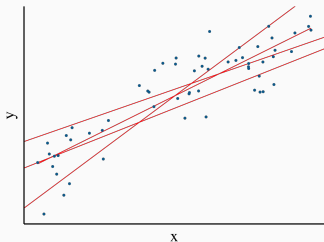
More formally, a straight line is described by an intercept (β_0) and a slope (β_1): $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$

More formally, a straight line is described by an intercept (β_0) and a slope (β_1): $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$

With data $d = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$, the question is what values of β_0 and β_1 best describe the relationship between x and y

More formally, a straight line is described by an intercept (β_0) and a slope (β_1): $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$

With data $d = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$, the question is what values of β_0 and β_1 best describe the relationship between x and y (i.e., what line do you draw through the data?)



Least Squares Fitting



The methods for fitting lines/shapes/curves date back thousands of years and are rooted in astronomy and geodesy.

The methods for fitting lines/shapes/curves date back thousands of years and are rooted in astronomy and geodesy. These original approaches served humanity well for thousands of years, but the challenges of navigating the Earth's oceans during the 'Age of Exploration' required more precise methods and there were a flurry of activity during the course of the eighteenth century.



Source: www.constellation-guide.com

The methods for fitting lines/shapes/curves date back thousands of years and are rooted in astronomy and geodesy. These original approaches served humanity well for thousands of years, but the challenges of navigating the Earth's oceans during the 'Age of Exploration' required more precise methods and there were a flurry of activity during the course of the eighteenth century.

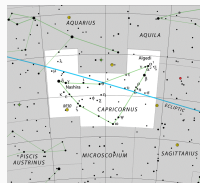
In 1805, Legendre published an algebraic procedure for fitting linear equations to data.



Source: www.constellation-guide.com

The methods for fitting lines/shapes/curves date back thousands of years and are rooted in astronomy and geodesy. These original approaches served humanity well for thousands of years, but the challenges of navigating the Earth's oceans during the 'Age of Exploration' required more precise methods and there were a flurry of activity during the course of the eighteenth century.

In 1805, Legendre published an algebraic procedure for fitting linear equations to data. His 'least squares' approach assumed each observation y_i is accompanied by some amount of noise ε_i .



Source: www.constellation-guide.com

The methods for fitting lines/shapes/curves date back thousands of years and are rooted in astronomy and geodesy. These original approaches served humanity well for thousands of years, but the challenges of navigating the Earth's oceans during the 'Age of Exploration' required more precise methods and there were a flurry of activity during the course of the eighteenth century.

In 1805, Legendre published an algebraic procedure for fitting linear equations to data. His 'least squares' approach assumed each observation y_i is accompanied by some amount of noise ε_i . If you further constrain the problem such that the sum of the squared errors needs to be minimized, only one line fits the data.



Source: www.constellation-guide.com



Source: Wikipedia

For a given observation, a line predicts y_i to be $\beta_0 + x_i\beta_1$.

For a given observation, a line predicts y_i to be $\beta_0 + x_i\beta_1$.

This implies that the error for y_i is $\varepsilon_i = y_i - (\beta_0 + x_i\beta_1)$

For a given observation, a line predicts y_i to be $\beta_0 + x_i\beta_1$.

This implies that the error for y_i is $\varepsilon_i = y_i - (\beta_0 + x_i\beta_1)$

i.e., observed – expected

For a given observation, a line predicts y_i to be $\beta_0 + x_i\beta_1$.

This implies that the error for y_i is $\varepsilon_i = y_i - (\beta_0 + x_i\beta_1)$

i.e., observed – expected

...and the sum of the squared errors is $\sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i^2$ or
 $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - (\beta_0 + x_i\beta_1))^2$.

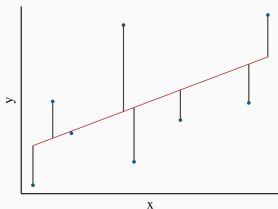
For a given observation, a line predicts y_i to be $\beta_0 + x_i\beta_1$.

This implies that the error for y_i is $\varepsilon_i = y_i - (\beta_0 + x_i\beta_1)$

i.e., observed – expected

...and the sum of the squared errors is $\sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i^2$ or
 $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - (\beta_0 + x_i\beta_1))^2$.

We want to find the value for β_0
and β_1 that minimizes this quantity.



So how we estimate the parameters β_0 & β_1 ?

So how we estimate the parameters β_0 & β_1 ?

One solution is to calculate $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - (\beta_0 + x_i \beta_1))^2$ for all values of β_0 and β_1 between $-\infty$ and ∞ .

So how we estimate the parameters β_0 & β_1 ?

One solution is to calculate $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - (\beta_0 + x_i \beta_1))^2$ for all values of β_0 and β_1 between $-\infty$ and ∞ .

But who wants to do that?

Matrix Algebra Review



Matrices are rectangular collections of numbers, generally denoted via bold capital letters.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 7 & -3 & 4 \\ -7 & 1 & 1 & 8 \\ -9 & 4 & 5 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrices are rectangular collections of numbers, generally denoted via bold capital letters.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 7 & -3 & 4 \\ -7 & 1 & 1 & 8 \\ -9 & 4 & 5 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The **dimension** of a matrix is expressed as number of rows \times number of columns. So, A is a 3×4 matrix.

Matrices are rectangular collections of numbers, generally denoted via bold capital letters.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 7 & -3 & 4 \\ -7 & 1 & 1 & 8 \\ -9 & 4 & 5 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The **dimension** of a matrix is expressed as number of rows \times number of columns. So, A is a 3×4 matrix.

It is common to refer to elements in a matrix by subscripts, with the row first and the column second:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & a_{1,3} & a_{1,4} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & a_{2,3} & a_{2,4} \\ a_{3,1} & a_{3,2} & a_{3,3} & a_{3,4} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrices are rectangular collections of numbers, generally denoted via bold capital letters.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 7 & -3 & 4 \\ -7 & 1 & 1 & 8 \\ -9 & 4 & 5 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The **dimension** of a matrix is expressed as number of rows \times number of columns. So, A is a 3×4 matrix.

It is common to refer to elements in a matrix by subscripts, with the row first and the column second:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & a_{1,3} & a_{1,4} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & a_{2,3} & a_{2,4} \\ a_{3,1} & a_{3,2} & a_{3,3} & a_{3,4} \end{pmatrix}$$

So here, $a_{3,2} =$

Matrices are rectangular collections of numbers, generally denoted via bold capital letters.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 7 & -3 & 4 \\ -7 & 1 & 1 & 8 \\ -9 & 4 & 5 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The **dimension** of a matrix is expressed as number of rows \times number of columns. So, A is a 3×4 matrix.

It is common to refer to elements in a matrix by subscripts, with the row first and the column second:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & a_{1,3} & a_{1,4} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & a_{2,3} & a_{2,4} \\ a_{3,1} & a_{3,2} & a_{3,3} & a_{3,4} \end{pmatrix}$$

So here, $a_{3,2} = 4$

Matrices are rectangular collections of numbers, generally denoted via bold capital letters.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 7 & -3 & 4 \\ -7 & 1 & 1 & 8 \\ -9 & 4 & 5 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The **dimension** of a matrix is expressed as number of rows \times number of columns. So, A is a 3×4 matrix.

It is common to refer to elements in a matrix by subscripts, with the row first and the column second:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & a_{1,3} & a_{1,4} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & a_{2,3} & a_{2,4} \\ a_{3,1} & a_{3,2} & a_{3,3} & a_{3,4} \end{pmatrix}$$

So here, $a_{3,2} = 4$, and $a_{1,3} =$

Matrices are rectangular collections of numbers, generally denoted via bold capital letters.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 7 & -3 & 4 \\ -7 & 1 & 1 & 8 \\ -9 & 4 & 5 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The **dimension** of a matrix is expressed as number of rows \times number of columns. So, A is a 3×4 matrix.

It is common to refer to elements in a matrix by subscripts, with the row first and the column second:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & a_{1,3} & a_{1,4} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & a_{2,3} & a_{2,4} \\ a_{3,1} & a_{3,2} & a_{3,3} & a_{3,4} \end{pmatrix}$$

So here, $a_{3,2} = 4$, and $a_{1,3} = -3$.



Vectors are special matrices with only one row (called a row vector) or only one column (called a column vector).

Vectors are special matrices with only one row (called a row vector) or only one column (called a column vector).

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 7 & -3 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

B is a 4 dimensional row vector (or a 1×4 matrix)

Vectors are special matrices with only one row (called a row vector) or only one column (called a column vector).

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 7 & -3 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

B is a 4 dimensional row vector (or a 1×4 matrix)

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 9 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

C is a 3 dimensional column vector (or a 3×1 matrix)

Vectors are special matrices with only one row (called a row vector) or only one column (called a column vector).

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 7 & -3 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

B is a 4 dimensional row vector (or a 1×4 matrix)

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 9 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

C is a 3 dimensional column vector (or a 3×1 matrix)

'Ordinary' numbers can be thought of as a 1×1 matrices, or scalars (e.g., $D = 7$).



To perform matrix addition/subtraction, two matrices must have the **same** number of rows and columns (i.e., dimensions).

To perform matrix addition/subtraction, two matrices must have the **same** number of rows and columns (i.e., dimensions). In that case simply add/subtract each of the individual components:

$$A + B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 8 & -3 & -4 \\ 4 & -2 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

To perform matrix addition/subtraction, two matrices must have the **same** number of rows and columns (i.e., dimensions). In that case simply add/subtract each of the individual components:

$$A + B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 8 & -3 & -4 \\ 4 & -2 & 9 \end{pmatrix} =$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 + 8 & -5 - 3 & 4 - 4 \\ 2 + 4 & 5 - 2 & 3 + 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

To perform matrix addition/subtraction, two matrices must have the **same** number of rows and columns (i.e., dimensions). In that case simply add/subtract each of the individual components:

$$\begin{aligned} A + B &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 8 & -3 & -4 \\ 4 & -2 & 9 \end{pmatrix} = \\ &\begin{pmatrix} 1+8 & -5-3 & 4-4 \\ 2+4 & 5-2 & 3+9 \end{pmatrix} = \\ &\begin{pmatrix} 9 & -8 & 0 \\ 6 & 3 & 12 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

To perform matrix addition/subtraction, two matrices must have the **same** number of rows and columns (i.e., dimensions). In that case simply add/subtract each of the individual components:

$$\begin{aligned} A + B &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 8 & -3 & -4 \\ 4 & -2 & 9 \end{pmatrix} = \\ &\begin{pmatrix} 1+8 & -5-3 & 4-4 \\ 2+4 & 5-2 & 3+9 \end{pmatrix} = \\ &\begin{pmatrix} 9 & -8 & 0 \\ 6 & 3 & 12 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Matrix addition has many of the same properties as normal addition.

$$A + B = B + A$$

$$A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C$$



To take the transpose of a matrix, simply switch the rows and columns around. The transpose of A can be denoted as A' or A^T .

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

To take the transpose of a matrix, simply switch the rows and columns around. The transpose of A can be denoted as A' or A^T .

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad A' = A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -5 & 5 \\ 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

To take the transpose of a matrix, simply switch the rows and columns around. The transpose of A can be denoted as A' or A^T .

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad A' = A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -5 & 5 \\ 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

If a matrix is its own transpose, then that matrix is said to be symmetric, e.g.:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ -5 & 7 & 3 \\ 4 & 3 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = A' = A^T$$



To multiply a matrix by a scalar, also known as scalar multiplication, multiply every element in the matrix by the scalar.

To multiply a matrix by a scalar, also known as scalar multiplication, multiply every element in the matrix by the scalar.

$$6 \times A = 6 \times \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

To multiply a matrix by a scalar, also known as scalar multiplication, multiply every element in the matrix by the scalar.

$$6 \times A = 6 \times \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \times 1 & 6 \times -5 & 6 \times 4 \\ 6 \times 2 & 6 \times 5 & 6 \times 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

To multiply a matrix by a scalar, also known as scalar multiplication, multiply every element in the matrix by the scalar.

$$6 \times A = 6 \times \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \times 1 & 6 \times -5 & 6 \times 4 \\ 6 \times 2 & 6 \times 5 & 6 \times 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & -30 & 24 \\ 12 & 30 & 18 \end{pmatrix}$$

To multiply a matrix by a scalar, also known as scalar multiplication, multiply every element in the matrix by the scalar.

$$6 \times A = 6 \times \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \times 1 & 6 \times -5 & 6 \times 4 \\ 6 \times 2 & 6 \times 5 & 6 \times 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & -30 & 24 \\ 12 & 30 & 18 \end{pmatrix}$$

To multiply two vectors with the same length together, multiply every entry in the two vectors together and then add all the products up (called dot product).

To multiply a matrix by a scalar, also known as scalar multiplication, multiply every element in the matrix by the scalar.

$$6 \times A = 6 \times \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \times 1 & 6 \times -5 & 6 \times 4 \\ 6 \times 2 & 6 \times 5 & 6 \times 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & -30 & 24 \\ 12 & 30 & 18 \end{pmatrix}$$

To multiply two vectors with the same length together, multiply every entry in the two vectors together and then add all the products up (called dot product).

$$x \cdot y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

To multiply a matrix by a scalar, also known as scalar multiplication, multiply every element in the matrix by the scalar.

$$6 \times A = 6 \times \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \times 1 & 6 \times -5 & 6 \times 4 \\ 6 \times 2 & 6 \times 5 & 6 \times 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & -30 & 24 \\ 12 & 30 & 18 \end{pmatrix}$$

To multiply two vectors with the same length together, multiply every entry in the two vectors together and then add all the products up (called dot product).

$$x \cdot y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -2 & 5 \end{pmatrix} = (1 \times 4) + (-5 \times -2) + (4 \times 5)$$

To multiply a matrix by a scalar, also known as scalar multiplication, multiply every element in the matrix by the scalar.

$$6 \times A = 6 \times \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \times 1 & 6 \times -5 & 6 \times 4 \\ 6 \times 2 & 6 \times 5 & 6 \times 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & -30 & 24 \\ 12 & 30 & 18 \end{pmatrix}$$

To multiply two vectors with the same length together, multiply every entry in the two vectors together and then add all the products up (called dot product).

$$x \cdot y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -2 & 5 \end{pmatrix} = (1 \times 4) + (-5 \times -2) + (4 \times 5) = 34$$



To perform matrix multiplication, the first matrix must have the same number of columns as the second matrix has rows.

To perform matrix multiplication, the first matrix must have the same number of columns as the second matrix has rows. The dimensions of the resulting matrix equals the number of rows of the first matrix, and the number of columns of the second matrix (e.g., a 3×5 matrix \times a 5×7 matrix = a 3×7 matrix).

To perform matrix multiplication, the first matrix must have the same number of columns as the second matrix has rows. The dimensions of the resulting matrix equals the number of rows of the first matrix, and the number of columns of the second matrix (e.g., a 3×5 matrix \times a 5×7 matrix = a 3×7 matrix). To perform the multiplication, you take the dot product of the corresponding row of the first matrix and the corresponding column of the second matrix.

To perform matrix multiplication, the first matrix must have the same number of columns as the second matrix has rows. The dimensions of the resulting matrix equals the number of rows of the first matrix, and the number of columns of the second matrix (e.g., a 3×5 matrix \times a 5×7 matrix = a 3×7 matrix). To perform the multiplication, you take the dot product of the corresponding row of the first matrix and the corresponding column of the second matrix.

$$C \times D = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -9 & -8 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 7 & -3 \\ -2 & 3 \\ 6 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

To perform matrix multiplication, the first matrix must have the same number of columns as the second matrix has rows. The dimensions of the resulting matrix equals the number of rows of the first matrix, and the number of columns of the second matrix (e.g., a 3×5 matrix \times a 5×7 matrix = a 3×7 matrix). To perform the multiplication, you take the dot product of the corresponding row of the first matrix and the corresponding column of the second matrix.

$$C \times D = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -9 & -8 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 7 & -3 \\ -2 & 3 \\ 6 & 2 \end{pmatrix} =$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} (3 \times 7) + (-9 \times -2) + (-8 \times 6) & (3 \times -3) + (-9 \times 3) + (-8 \times 2) \\ (2 \times 7) + (4 \times -2) + (3 \times 6) & (2 \times -3) + (4 \times 3) + (3 \times 2) \end{pmatrix}$$

To perform matrix multiplication, the first matrix must have the same number of columns as the second matrix has rows. The dimensions of the resulting matrix equals the number of rows of the first matrix, and the number of columns of the second matrix (e.g., a 3×5 matrix \times a 5×7 matrix = a 3×7 matrix). To perform the multiplication, you take the dot product of the corresponding row of the first matrix and the corresponding column of the second matrix.

$$C \times D = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -9 & -8 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 7 & -3 \\ -2 & 3 \\ 6 & 2 \end{pmatrix} =$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} (3 \times 7) + (-9 \times -2) + (-8 \times 6) & (3 \times -3) + (-9 \times 3) + (-8 \times 2) \\ (2 \times 7) + (4 \times -2) + (3 \times 6) & (2 \times -3) + (4 \times 3) + (3 \times 2) \end{pmatrix} =$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 21 + 18 - 48 & -9 - 27 - 16 \\ 14 - 8 + 18 & -6 + 12 + 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -9 & -52 \\ 24 & 12 \end{pmatrix}$$



An identity matrix is a square matrix where every diagonal entry is 1 and all the other entries are 0

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

An identity matrix is a square matrix where every diagonal entry is 1 and all the other entries are 0

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The trace of a $n \times n$ matrix is the sum of all the diagonal entries. In other words, for $n \times n$ matrix $trace(A) = tr(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{i,i}$

$$tr(I) = tr \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3$$



The inverse of a matrix is a special matrix that, when multiplied with its inverse, turn any matrix into an Identify matrix.

The inverse of a matrix is a special matrix that, when multiplied with its inverse, turn any matrix into an Identify matrix.

e.g., the matrix B is the inverse of matrix A if $AB = BA = I$.

The inverse of a matrix is a special matrix that, when multiplied with its inverse, turn any matrix into an Identify matrix.

e.g., the matrix B is the inverse of matrix A if $AB = BA = I$.

The inverse of matrix is denoted as $B = A^{-1}$, so $AA^{-1} = I$

The inverse of a matrix is a special matrix that, when multiplied with its inverse, turn any matrix into an Identify matrix.

e.g., the matrix B is the inverse of matrix A if $AB = BA = I$.

The inverse of matrix is denoted as $B = A^{-1}$, so $AA^{-1} = I$

Inverting matrices requires a complicated algorithm, so we usually rely on computers to perform the calculations (e.g. the `solve()` function in R).

Linear regression and matrix notation



Given our dataset $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ we can re-write x , y , and our regression parameters as matrices:

Given our dataset $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ we can re-write x , y , and our regression parameters as matrices:

The observations of the response variable y are grouped into a single column, $n \times 1$, matrix

$$y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Given our dataset $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ we can re-write x , y , and our regression parameters as matrices:

The observations of the response variable y are grouped into a single column, $n \times 1$, matrix

$$y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

The regression coefficients β_0 and β_1 are grouped into a 2×1 matrix

$$\beta = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Given our dataset $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ we can re-write x , y , and our regression parameters as matrices:

The observations of the response variable y are grouped into a single column, $n \times 1$, matrix

$$y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

The regression coefficients β_0 and β_1 are grouped into a 2×1 matrix

$$\beta = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The observations of the predictor are grouped into a two column, $n \times 2$ matrix.

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{pmatrix}$$



Why the column of 1s in \mathbf{x} ?

Why the column of 1s in \mathbf{x} ? When we multiply \mathbf{x} by β we get:

$$\mathbf{x}\beta$$

Why the column of 1s in \mathbf{x} ? When we multiply \mathbf{x} by β we get:

$$\mathbf{x}\beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Why the column of 1s in \mathbf{x} ? When we multiply \mathbf{x} by β we get:

$$\mathbf{x}\beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Why the column of 1s in \mathbf{x} ? When we multiply \mathbf{x} by β we get:

$$\mathbf{x}\beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \times \beta_0 + x_1 \times \beta_1 \\ 1 \times \beta_0 + x_2 \times \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \times \beta_0 + x_n \times \beta_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Why the column of 1s in \mathbf{x} ? When we multiply \mathbf{x} by β we get:

$$\mathbf{x}\beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \times \beta_0 + x_1 \times \beta_1 \\ 1 \times \beta_0 + x_2 \times \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \times \beta_0 + x_n \times \beta_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n \end{pmatrix}$$



At each data point, our model results in some amount of error in the prediction, so we have n errors. These form a vector:

$$\varepsilon = y - x\beta$$

At each data point, our model results in some amount of error in the prediction, so we have n errors. These form a vector:

$$\varepsilon = y - x\beta = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

At each data point, our model results in some amount of error in the prediction, so we have n errors. These form a vector:

$$\varepsilon = y - \mathbf{x}\beta = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1) \\ y_2 - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_2) \\ \vdots \\ y_n - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

At each data point, our model results in some amount of error in the prediction, so we have n errors. These form a vector:

$$\varepsilon = y - x\beta = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1) \\ y_2 - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_2) \\ \vdots \\ y_n - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

So our original regression problem in matrix notation is:

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{pmatrix}$$





So how does this help us estimate our regression parameters?

So how does this help us estimate our regression parameters?

We can also rewrite our sum of squares equation in matrix form

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

So how does this help us estimate our regression parameters?

We can also rewrite our sum of squares equation in matrix form

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

After some derivations we won't go over, we obtain a formula for the least squares estimates of the parameters:

$$\beta = (x^T x)^{-1} x^T y$$

So how does this help us estimate our regression parameters?

We can also rewrite our sum of squares equation in matrix form

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

After some derivations we won't go over, we obtain a formula for the least squares estimates of the parameters:

$$\beta = (x^T x)^{-1} x^T y$$

So instead of plugging in all of the possible values of β_0 and β_1 between $-\infty$ and ∞ to obtain our parameter estimates, all we have to do is a matrix calculation.

Assumptions of linear regression

A note on assumptions



THE UNIVERSITY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA
Okanagan Campus

As we just saw, translating a conceptual, verbal hypothesis into something that can actually be estimated with data requires the use of mathematical formulae.

As we just saw, translating a conceptual, verbal hypothesis into something that can actually be estimated with data requires the use of mathematical formulae.

In order to work out these formulae, we often rely on making assumptions/approximations to make the math more manageable.

As we just saw, translating a conceptual, verbal hypothesis into something that can actually be estimated with data requires the use of mathematical formulae.

In order to work out these formulae, we often rely on making assumptions/approximations to make the math more manageable.

Some assumptions don't have large impacts on outcomes, while others can be critically important.

As we just saw, translating a conceptual, verbal hypothesis into something that can actually be estimated with data requires the use of mathematical formulae.

In order to work out these formulae, we often rely on making assumptions/approximations to make the math more manageable.

Some assumptions don't have large impacts on outcomes, while others can be critically important.

Just because a specific estimator makes assumptions that aren't met by real data, this doesn't mean that the relationship doesn't exist or that the estimator is useless

As we just saw, translating a conceptual, verbal hypothesis into something that can actually be estimated with data requires the use of mathematical formulae.

In order to work out these formulae, we often rely on making assumptions/approximations to make the math more manageable.

Some assumptions don't have large impacts on outcomes, while others can be critically important.

Just because a specific estimator makes assumptions that aren't met by real data, this doesn't mean that the relationship doesn't exist or that the estimator is useless, but it does tell you that your estimator can be improved.

Applying linear regression to a problem relies on satisfying 5 assumptions:

Applying linear regression to a problem relies on satisfying 5 assumptions:

- Correct model specification

Applying linear regression to a problem relies on satisfying 5 assumptions:

- Correct model specification
- Normality of the residuals

Applying linear regression to a problem relies on satisfying 5 assumptions:

- Correct model specification
- Normality of the residuals
- Homogeneity

Applying linear regression to a problem relies on satisfying 5 assumptions:

- Correct model specification
- Normality of the residuals
- Homogeneity
- Fixed x

Applying linear regression to a problem relies on satisfying 5 assumptions:

- Correct model specification
- Normality of the residuals
- Homogeneity
- Fixed x
- Independence

i) Correct model specification



i) Correct model specification



In model based inference we need to apply some sort of model to our data.

i) Correct model specification



In model based inference we need to apply some sort of model to our data.

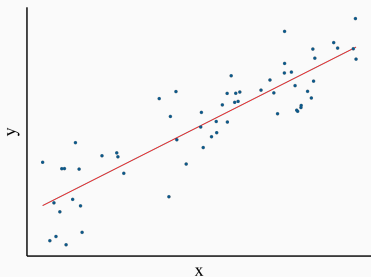
One of the first things you need to ask yourself before fitting a simple linear model to a dataset is: “Is this really a good model for my data?”

i) Correct model specification



In model based inference we need to apply some sort of model to our data.

One of the first things you need to ask yourself before fitting a simple linear model to a dataset is: “Is this really a good model for my data?”

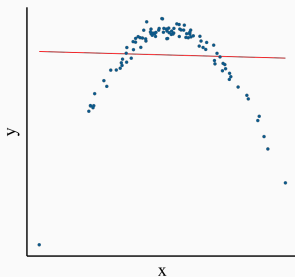
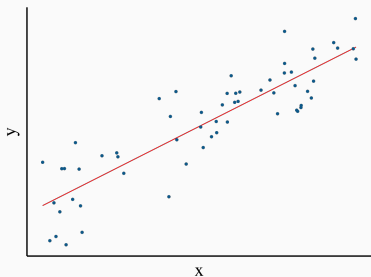


i) Correct model specification



In model based inference we need to apply some sort of model to our data.

One of the first things you need to ask yourself before fitting a simple linear model to a dataset is: “Is this really a good model for my data?”



ii) Normality of the residuals



ii) Normality of the residuals



The least squares derivations assume the errors, ε_i , are normally distributed.

ii) Normality of the residuals



The least squares derivations assume the errors, ε_i , are normally distributed.

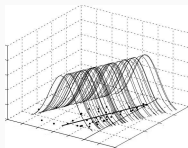
This doesn't mean the data need to be normally distributed (why?).

ii) Normality of the residuals



The least squares derivations assume the errors, ε_i , are normally distributed.

This doesn't mean the data need to be normally distributed (why?). It means that the **residuals** at each x value should be normally distributed.



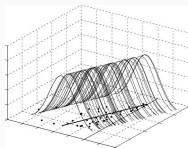
Source: Zuur et al. (2009)

ii) Normality of the residuals



The least squares derivations assume the errors, ε_i , are normally distributed.

This doesn't mean the data need to be normally distributed (why?). It means that the **residuals** at each x value should be normally distributed.



Source: Zuur et al. (2009)

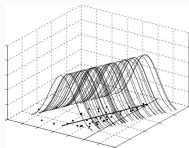
In practice, we usually don't have many repeat measures of a specific x value, so checking for this usually means pooling all of the residuals and checking for normality.

ii) Normality of the residuals



The least squares derivations assume the errors, ε_i , are normally distributed.

This doesn't mean the data need to be normally distributed (why?). It means that the **residuals** at each x value should be normally distributed.



Source: Zuur et al. (2009)

In practice, we usually don't have many repeat measures of a specific x value, so checking for this usually means pooling all of the residuals and checking for normality. Normality of pooled residuals is reassuring, but does not necessarily mean the population is normally distributed.

iii) Heterogeneity



THE UNIVERSITY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA
Okanagan Campus

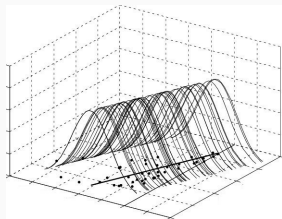
Heterogeneity is related to the assumption of normality.

Heterogeneity is related to the assumption of normality. We just saw that the residuals at each x value should be normally distributed

iii) Heterogeneity



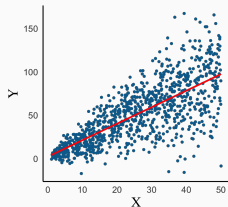
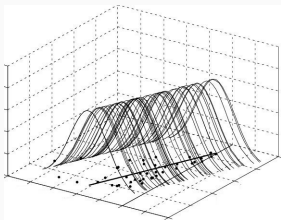
Heterogeneity is related to the assumption of normality. We just saw that the residuals at each x value should be normally distributed, but they also need to be drawn from the same distribution.



iii) Heterogeneity



Heterogeneity is related to the assumption of normality. We just saw that the residuals at each x value should be normally distributed, but they also need to be drawn from the same distribution.



What will heterogeneity do to your estimates?

iv) Fixed x



This assumption means you are assuming there is no stochasticity around your x values

This assumption means you are assuming there is no stochasticity around your x values (i.e., x is known exactly and entirely deterministic).

This assumption means you are assuming there is no stochasticity around your x values (i.e., x is known exactly and entirely deterministic).

If you have defined the exact values at which x and y are measured, and there is no measurement error, this assumption is perfectly fine.

This assumption means you are assuming there is no stochasticity around your x values (i.e., x is known exactly and entirely deterministic).

If you have defined the exact values at which x and y are measured, and there is no measurement error, this assumption is perfectly fine.

Situations where x is accompanied by a meaningful amount measurement error can break this assumption.

v) Independence



THE UNIVERSITY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA
Okanagan Campus

The assumption of independence is perhaps the most important assumption made by simple linear regression.

The assumption of independence is perhaps the most important assumption made by simple linear regression. Serial dependence can enter into your data in a number of ways, but the impact is typically the same: you over estimate the amount of information contained in a dataset.

The assumption of independence is perhaps the most important assumption made by simple linear regression. Serial dependence can enter into your data in a number of ways, but the impact is typically the same: you over estimate the amount of information contained in a dataset.

For example if I'm sitting in my back yard counting the number of birds, and I see a crow at 8:30:31

The assumption of independence is perhaps the most important assumption made by simple linear regression. Serial dependence can enter into your data in a number of ways, but the impact is typically the same: you over estimate the amount of information contained in a dataset.

For example if I'm sitting in my back yard counting the number of birds, and I see a crow at 8:30:31, and then again at 8:30:32

The assumption of independence is perhaps the most important assumption made by simple linear regression. Serial dependence can enter into your data in a number of ways, but the impact is typically the same: you over estimate the amount of information contained in a dataset.

For example if I'm sitting in my back yard counting the number of birds, and I see a crow at 8:30:31, and then again at 8:30:32, and then again at 8:30:33

The assumption of independence is perhaps the most important assumption made by simple linear regression. Serial dependence can enter into your data in a number of ways, but the impact is typically the same: you over estimate the amount of information contained in a dataset.

For example if I'm sitting in my back yard counting the number of birds, and I see a crow at 8:30:31, and then again at 8:30:32, and then again at 8:30:33, do I really have three unique pieces of information?

The assumption of independence is perhaps the most important assumption made by simple linear regression. Serial dependence can enter into your data in a number of ways, but the impact is typically the same: you over estimate the amount of information contained in a dataset.

For example if I'm sitting in my back yard counting the number of birds, and I see a crow at 8:30:31, and then again at 8:30:32, and then again at 8:30:33, do I really have three unique pieces of information?

The standard deviation is given by: $\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{n}}$

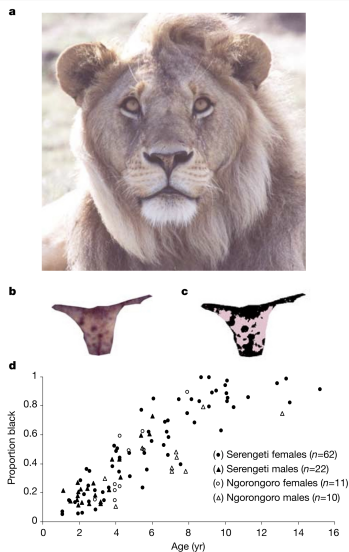
The assumption of independence is perhaps the most important assumption made by simple linear regression. Serial dependence can enter into your data in a number of ways, but the impact is typically the same: you over estimate the amount of information contained in a dataset.

For example if I'm sitting in my back yard counting the number of birds, and I see a crow at 8:30:31, and then again at 8:30:32, and then again at 8:30:33, do I really have three unique pieces of information?

The standard deviation is given by: $\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{n}}$, what effect does breaking the assumption of independence have?

Linear regression example

The Problem: In lion populations, the sustainable application of trophy hunting is often used as a way of maintaining stable populations while generating valuable funds to support conservation efforts. If you hunt older lions that are past their reproductive prime, the impact on the population is negligible, but if you hunt lions that are too young, there is a risk of the population destabilising. Whitman et al. (2004) looked at whether there was a relationship between how black a male lion's nose was and its age.





Lion noses: the data



| proportionBlack | Age |
|-----------------|------|
| 0.21 | 1.1 |
| 0.14 | 1.5 |
| 0.11 | 1.9 |
| 0.13 | 2.2 |
| 0.12 | 2.6 |
| 0.13 | 3.2 |
| 0.12 | 3.2 |
| 0.18 | 2.9 |
| 0.23 | 2.4 |
| 0.22 | 2.1 |
| 0.2 | 1.9 |
| 0.17 | 1.9 |
| 0.15 | 1.9 |
| 0.27 | 1.9 |
| 0.26 | 2.8 |
| 0.21 | 3.6 |
| 0.3 | 4.3 |
| 0.42 | 3.8 |
| 0.43 | 4.2 |
| 0.59 | 5.4 |
| 0.6 | 5.8 |
| 0.72 | 6 |
| 0.29 | 3.4 |
| 0.1 | 4 |
| 0.48 | 7.3 |
| 0.44 | 7.3 |
| 0.34 | 7.8 |
| 0.37 | 7.1 |
| 0.34 | 7.1 |
| 0.74 | 13.1 |
| 0.79 | 8.8 |
| 0.51 | 5.4 |

| proportionBlack | Age |
|-----------------|------|
| 0.21 | 1.1 |
| 0.14 | 1.5 |
| 0.11 | 1.9 |
| 0.13 | 2.2 |
| 0.12 | 2.6 |
| 0.13 | 3.2 |
| 0.12 | 3.2 |
| 0.18 | 2.9 |
| 0.23 | 2.4 |
| 0.22 | 2.1 |
| 0.2 | 1.9 |
| 0.17 | 1.9 |
| 0.15 | 1.9 |
| 0.27 | 1.9 |
| 0.26 | 2.8 |
| 0.21 | 3.6 |
| 0.3 | 4.3 |
| 0.42 | 3.8 |
| 0.43 | 4.2 |
| 0.59 | 5.4 |
| 0.6 | 5.8 |
| 0.72 | 6 |
| 0.29 | 3.4 |
| 0.1 | 4 |
| 0.48 | 7.3 |
| 0.44 | 7.3 |
| 0.34 | 7.8 |
| 0.37 | 7.1 |
| 0.34 | 7.1 |
| 0.74 | 13.1 |
| 0.79 | 8.8 |
| 0.51 | 5.4 |

The regression problem in matrix notation is:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.21 \\ 0.14 \\ \vdots \\ 0.51 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1.1 \\ 1 & 1.5 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & 5.4 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{pmatrix}$$



Calculating our parameters using $\beta = (x^T x)^{-1} x^T y$ can easily be done in R:

Calculating our parameters using $\beta = (x^T x)^{-1} x^T y$ can easily be done in R:

```
data <- read.csv("LionNoses.csv")

x <- matrix(c(rep(1, nrow(data)), data$ageInYears),
            nrow = nrow(data), ncol = 2)
y <- matrix(data$proportionBlack,
            nrow = nrow(data), ncol = 1)

xtx <- t(x) %*% x
xtx.inv <- solve(xtx)
xty <- t(x) %*% y

beta <- xtx.inv %*% xty
```

Calculating our parameters using $\beta = (x^T x)^{-1} x^T y$ can easily be done in R:

```
data <- read.csv("LionNoses.csv")

x <- matrix(c(rep(1, nrow(data)), data$ageInYears),
            nrow = nrow(data), ncol = 2)
y <- matrix(data$proportionBlack,
            nrow = nrow(data), ncol = 1)

xtx <- t(x) %*% x
xtx.inv <- solve(xtx)
xty <- t(x) %*% y

beta <- xtx.inv %*% xty
```

which gives us $\beta_0 = 0.06969626$ and $\beta_1 = 0.05859115$



We can also do this the easy way by using the `lm()` function:

```
lm(proportionBlack ~ ageInYears, data = data)
```

We can also do this the easy way by using the `lm()` function:

```
lm(proportionBlack ~ ageInYears, data = data)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = proportionBlack ~ ageInYears, data = data)
```

Residuals:

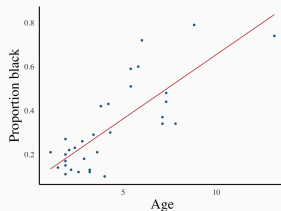
| Min | 1Q | Median | 3Q | Max |
|----------|----------|----------|---------|---------|
| -0.20406 | -0.07758 | -0.01750 | 0.07913 | 0.29876 |

Coefficients:

| | Estimate | Std. Error | t value | Pr(>t) |
|-------------|----------|------------|---------|--------------|
| (Intercept) | 0.069696 | 0.041956 | 1.661 | 0.107 |
| ageInYears | 0.058591 | 0.008307 | 7.053 | 7.68e-08 *** |

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.1238 on 30 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.6238, Adjusted R-squared: 0.6113
F-statistic: 49.75 on 1 and 30 DF, p-value: 7.677e-08



The least squares method provides a path for parametrising a model's deterministic component

The least squares method provides a path for parametrising a model's deterministic component, but without any statement about the stochasticity of the system.

The least squares method provides a path for parametrising a model's deterministic component, but without any statement about the stochasticity of the system.

To solve this issue, we need to approach the problem as probalists and assume that each error term ε_i comes from some distribution ϕ .

The least squares method provides a path for parametrising a model's deterministic component, but without any statement about the stochasticity of the system.

To solve this issue, we need to approach the problem as probalists and assume that each error term ε_i comes from some distribution ϕ .

We'll continue along this train of thought next lecture.