An Introduction to Regression

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Note

Some of the contents of these slides have been adapted from materials created by Dr Taasoobshirazi (thanks Dr T!).

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Introduction

- Statistics, in general, is the study of variability. In the sport of baseball, for example, not every team has the exact same number of regular season wins.
 - Natural variability exists.
- One of the foundational premises of science is to try and understand why things vary. From this seemingly simple question, ultimately, the field of statistics was born.

Introduction

- One of the tools that scientists across a wide array of disciplines use is called **regression analysis**. (Note, when people typically say "regression" they are referring to linear regression, but be mindful that other types of regression methods also exist).
- Effectively, with regression, we have some outcome variable of interest (say, MLB team wins or systolic blood pressure or amount of nightly REM sleep) that we know, based on our experience/expertise/review of the literature, may be associated with some other measurable explanatory variables.
 - For the baseball example, I know that runs scored and earned run average are likely related to team wins.

Introduction

- While we'll get into the weeds of exactly how to fit and assess a regression model later on, suffice it to say that the results of the analysis will help us better answer the question: "Why and how does this observable phenomenon vary?"
- Somewhat implicit in that question is causality. We have to be careful with jumping immediately to that conclusion and will discuss this more throughout the semester.

- Okay, aside from all this waxing poetic about the scientific method, let's look at this a bit more pragmatically: I have some variables I'm interested in, where do I start?
- ► For those of you who have had courses with me before know, I'm a big proponent of data visualization as a way of describing data in all phases of an analysis. So let's start there!
- Let's say I want to visually examine the relationship between MLB team wins and runs scored. Team wins will be my outcome and runs scored will be my predictor.

- Typically, the way I interpret a scatterplot is by answering four basic questions:
- 1. What is the form of the relationship (linear/nonlinear)?
- 2. What is the direction of the relationship (positive, negative, not clear)?
- 3. What is the strength of the relationship (weak, moderate, strong)?
- 4. Are there any unusual characteristics (clustering, outliers, etc)?
- In our baseball example, what can we say?

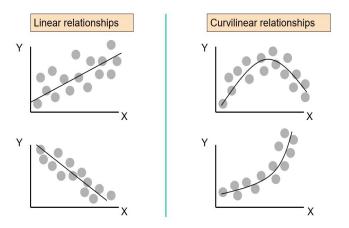


Figure 1: From: Statistics for Managers Using Microsoft® Excel 4th Edition, 2004 Prentice-Hall, c/o Dr. Taasoobshirazi

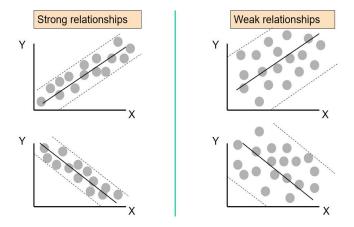


Figure 2: From: Statistics for Managers Using Microsoft® Excel 4th Edition, 2004 Prentice-Hall, c/o Dr. Taasoobshirazi

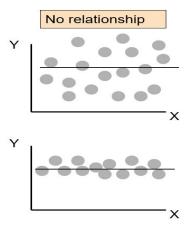


Figure 3: From: Statistics for Managers Using Microsoft® Excel 4th Edition, 2004 Prentice-Hall, c/o Dr. Taasoobshirazi

- We have so far learned some general methods for interpreting a scatterplot, and thus, the relationship between two quantitative variables.
- While this is a useful skill (especially in the exploratory phase of an analysis), it is a bit subjective. What someone considers a moderately strong linear relationship, someone else may interpret somewhat differently.
- There is resultingly a need to quantify the relationship between two variables. We do this through <u>correlation</u> and <u>covariance</u>.

► Sample covariance between two random variables, say *X* and *Y*, is defined as:

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

Covariance tells us how two variables literally "co-vary" or move together. (Also for you linear algebra fans out there it and regular variance are examples of inner products, which is a handy property).

- If two variables are positively related, then covariance will also be positively signed and if the converse is true, then covariance will be negatively signed.
- ▶ It is sometimes implied that a covariance of 0 means that the two variables are independent, which is typically true except in cases where the data are strongly nonlinear (e.g., a parabolic relationship).

- In mostly every manuscript I've read that does regression analysis or some sort of correlational analysis, I don't think I have ever seen the covariance between two variables reported.
- Why? Because while we can interpret the sign of covariance to help us understand the relationship, the actual value of covariance is a bit more challenging (consider the units!).
- Thus, having a unitless measure of the strength and direction of the relationship between two quantitative variables is much more useful.

- This is where <u>Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient</u> (more colloquially, correlation) becomes a valuable tool.
- Pearson's Correlation (for a sample) is defined as:

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

▶ More succinctly, it is the covariance between X and Y divided by the product of the standard deviations of X and Y:

$$r=\frac{s_{xy}}{s_x s_y}$$

- ▶ What's nice about Pearson's correlation is that it is:
 - 1. Unitless
 - 2. Bounded between -1 and +1.

- A value of r that is positive implies a positive relationship and a negatively signed value implies the opposite, just like covariance (makes sense as standard deviation must be positive...the sign of r comes from s_{xy}).
- If r = 0, the two variables are said to be "uncorrelated" (not necessarily independent).
- ▶ It is important to point out that the Pearson correlation coefficient measures the strength and direction of a <u>linear</u> relationship (i.e., if a strong nonlinear relationship is present, this coefficient won't be able to detect it very effectively).

- If our research hypothesis states that, based on our previous knowledge/experience, the correlation should be non-zero (i.e., significantly different from zero), then how do we go about testing that hypothesis?
- ► The traditional test used for testing the significance of a correlation coefficient tests the hypotheses:

$$H_0: \rho = 0$$

$$H_1: \rho \neq 0$$

Assuming that our observations were randomly sampled from normal distributions (important assumption, but often ignored), the test statistic we use is:

$$t_{Stat} = r\sqrt{\frac{n-2}{1-r^2}} \sim t(n-2)$$

- Obviously, most of the time we don't do this by hand. Let's see how to run these tests using R.

- Now, as alluded to previously, the purpose of regression analysis is to build a model (in this case a linear model) which describes the relationship between a response or outcome variable and one or more predictor or explanatory variables.
- ▶ In the case of simple linear regression (meaning we only have one predictor variable), the form of the model is typically given as:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i$$

▶ Here, y_i is an observed value of the response variable, β_0 is the y-intercept, β_1 is the slope parameter, x_i is an observed value of the explanatory variable which is paired with y_i , and ε_i is the random error term.

- ▶ Why do we need a random error term? Let's consider the penguins example.
- If we were to draw a line through the data to approximate the relationship between bill length and bill depth, not every single observation will perfectly fall along that line.
- ➤ The random error (sometimes also called the "residual term") accounts for the deviation an observed value is from the line we fit through our data.

- What are our assumptions?
- An approximate linear relationship between the response and the predictor(s)
- Observations are randomly sampled (independence of observations)
- The residuals are normally, independently, and identically distributed as:

$$\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

- Notice, the assumption of normality is not upon the response variable.

- ▶ Assuming the explanatory variable, *X*, is fixed, then what the simple linear regression equation (which can be generalized to multiple linear regression) is saying is that:
- We have a random variable, ε , that has a mean of 0, to which we're adding a fixed constant $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$.
- As you may recall (or will learn) from math stats, if you simply add a constant to a random variable, only its mean changes. Its variance and its overall distributional form will stay the same.

- Let's recall the basic principle of regression worded in a slightly different manner.
- Based on my prior knowledge of the data, I believe that observed variability in my response variable (e.g., regular season wins) can be explained by (or depends on) my predictor variable (e.g., runs scored).
- This reconceptualizes regression as a technique for conditioning my response on a set of predictors.

► All of this is to say that the way regression (and all generalized linear models) work is that they model/estimate the conditional mean of the response variable given values of my predictor variable:

$$E[y_i|x_i] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$$

► This is why when we check assumptions (which we'll discuss later on), we check them for the residuals, not the response (the residuals should have a constant mean and variance).

► The conditional variance is:

$$Var[y_i|x_i] = Var[\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i] = \sigma^2$$

Which, as we've discussed, is the variance of the residuals and why particular importance needs to be placed on residual analysis when validating a model.

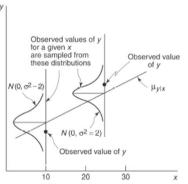


Figure 1.2 How observations are generated in linear regression.

Figure 4: Page 3 of your text

- ▶ The values that fall along the line, which are literally estimated conditional means, I will refer to as "predicted" or "fitted" values and denote them, \hat{y}_i .
- ▶ The closer the points are to falling exactly on the line, the better of a job our predictor variable does at explaining the variability in the response and vice versa.

- ► There are a few practical considerations we should be aware of before utilizing regression methods:
- 1. Be wary of extrapolation.
- Your model is only as good as the data you've collected or are using.
- 3. There are lots of spurious correlations out there which means just because you can fit a model doesn't mean you should.
- 4. CORRELATION DOES NOT IMPLY CAUSATION.