

# Statistics

## Week 9: Regression (Chapter 10)

ESD, SUTD

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SINGAPORE UNIVERSITY OF  
TECHNOLOGY AND DESIGN

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# Information

## Guest lectures:

Tuesday 21 March, 2–3pm, TT21 (lecture time).

Thursday 23 March, 1–2pm, TT21 (recitation time).

Homework **assignment 2** solutions are available on *eDimension*.

- Q5: it is not convincing to add up the powers of two one-sided tests; refer to the solution.
- Q6 (if using a CI): the CI is *for*  $\sigma$ , *using*  $s$ ; then checking if  $\sigma_0$  lies inside it. It is NOT using  $\sigma_0$ , then checking if  $s$  lies inside it.
- Q8: there is no way to reduce the problem to testing the variance of *one* population, since we do not know  $\sigma_1$  or  $\sigma_2$ .

# Outline

- 1 (Simple) linear regression
  - SSE, SST, SSR
- 2 Multiple (linear) regression

# Introduction

Question: how can we construct a line of 'best fit' through some data points?

Set up: given  $n$  fixed  $x$ -coordinates  $x_i$ , and  $n$  corresponding  $y$ -coordinates  $y_i$ . A **regression line** is a linear model that describes their relationship.

$x$  is called the predictor/explanatory/independent variable;  
 $y$  is called the response/ outcome /dependent variable.

We should first make a scatter plot from  $(x_i, y_i)$  to check if we have a linear relationship, and if there are outliers.

If a true regression line exists, given by  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ , then we estimate  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  using the **least square** method.

This method is used partly due to mathematical convenience. We do not explore other methods here.

## Probabilistic set up

To explain why the data values  $(x_i, y_i)$  do not lie perfectly on a straight line, we can think of  $y_i$  as the observed value of a random variable  $Y_i$ , where

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i,$$

and  $\epsilon_i$  is the random error arising from measurement, variables other than  $x$ , etc.

It is common to assume that  $\epsilon_i$ 's are iid *normal* with mean 0 and **variance**  $\sigma^2$ . This assumption will be useful later when we construct confidence intervals.

## An optimization problem

To minimize

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i)]^2,$$

we compute  $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \beta_0}$  and  $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \beta_1}$  and set them both to 0.

Denoting the solutions of these equations by  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$ , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}_0 n + \hat{\beta}_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i &= \sum_{i=1}^n y_i, \\ \hat{\beta}_0 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \hat{\beta}_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i.\end{aligned}$$

These two equations can be routinely solved.

## Solution

Notation: let  $s_x$ ,  $s_y$  be the sample standard deviations, let  $s_{xy}$  be the sample covariance (covariance.s in *Excel*),

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

Then we can write the solutions as:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{s_{xy}}{s_x^2}, \quad \hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}.$$

The *least square line* is denoted by  $\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x$ , and is an estimate of the true regression line  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ .

The fitted values are given by  $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$ ;  
the *residuals* are  $e_i := y_i - \hat{y}_i$ .

### Exercise

In the spreadsheet, find the least square line for the triple jump example using the formulas, and check it against *Excel's* trendline.

## Some important terms

The **sum of squared errors (SSE)** is defined to be  $\sum_i e_i^2$ .

The **sum of squares (total) (SST)** is  $\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = (n - 1)s_y^2$ .

It can be shown that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{SST} &= \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2 \\ &= \mathbf{SSE} + \mathbf{SSR}.\end{aligned}$$

**SSR** stands for **sum of squares due to regression**.

**Coefficient of determination:**  $r^2 = \text{SSR}/\text{SST} = 1 - \text{SSE}/\text{SST}$ .

An unbiased estimator for  $\sigma^2$  (of  $Y_i$ ) is  $s^2 = \text{SSE}/(n - 2)$ , also known as the **mean squared error (MSE)**.



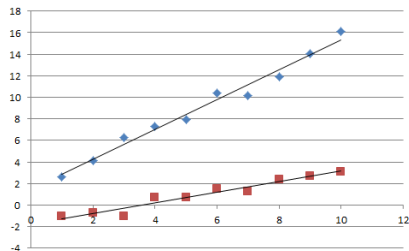
$r$  and  $r^2$ 

$r^2 \in [0, 1]$  can be interpreted as how much of the variation in  $y$  can be accounted for by the regression model.

The **correlation coefficient**,  $r \in [-1, 1]$ , is given by

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

Its sign corresponds to the slope of the least square line.  $r = \pm 1$  if and only if there is a perfect fit;  $r = 0$  means no correlation.



Which least square line has larger  $r$  (or are they about the same)?

# Residuals

## Exercise

Compute  $r^2$  for the triple jump example using the formula.  
Can the least square line be used to predict the future?

A plot of the *residuals*  $e_i$  can be used to check the linearity assumption. For example, a plot which is parabolic in shape indicates the need for an  $x^2$  term.

Rule of thumb: if  $|e_i| > 2s$ , then the corresponding value may be an outlier.

## Example

Investigate the residual plot for the life expectancy data, using Data Analysis → Regression.

# Data transformation

If there is a non-linear relationship between  $x$  and  $y$ , sometimes linear regression can still be used after appropriately transforming the data.

For example, if we suspect  $y = \alpha x^\beta$ , then take log of both sides. *Excel* uses `ln` for natural log.

## Exercises

- (1) What to do if we suspect  $y = \alpha x^2 + \beta$ ?  $y = \alpha e^{\beta x}$ ?
- (2) Interpolate a value in the spreadsheet.

# Outline

- 1 (Simple) linear regression
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## Multiple regression, matrix form

When there are  $k$  independent variables, we can construct a least square regression model of the form

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \cdots + \beta_k x_k,$$

for the data values  $(x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ik}, y_i)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

Geometrically, this can be a curve, a surface, etc.

Set things up using matrices:

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1k} \\ 1 & x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & x_{n2} & \cdots & x_{nk} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_k \end{bmatrix}.$$

*Question:* what are  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  for the life expectancy example?

## Solution

We need to minimize

$$\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|^2 = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta) = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} - 2\beta^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + \beta^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \beta.$$

This can be done by setting the *gradient* to  $\mathbf{0}$ , i.e. differentiate the right hand side with respect to each of the  $\beta_i$ 's, store the results as a column vector, then set it to the  $\mathbf{0}$  vector.

After manipulation, and using the fact that  $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$  is symmetric, the result can be simplified to  $-2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + 2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \beta = \mathbf{0}$ .

Denoting the solution by  $\hat{\beta}$ , we obtain

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

A more conceptual proof of this formula can be found in the Math2 Cohort 12 and Cohort 15 slides on projections.

## Some properties of multiple regression

- SSE, SST and SSR are defined the same way.
- The formula  $SSR + SSE = SST$  still holds.
- $r^2 := SSR/SST$ .
- $r$  is now the non-negative square root of  $r^2$ .
- For polynomial regression, just set the other independent variables as powers of the first one.
- Data transformation works the same way, e. g. for the model  $y = \beta_0 x_1^{\beta_1} x_2^{\beta_2}$ , take log of both sides.

## Multicollinearity

Beware if some of the independent variables are almost or exactly *linearly dependent*, e. g. income, saving and expenditure. This is sometimes manifested by high correlation between the variables.

If some columns of the matrix  $\mathbf{X}$  are linearly dependent, then there exists a non-zero vector  $\mathbf{v}$  such that  $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ , so  $(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ .

This means  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$  is not invertible, making  $\hat{\beta}$  impossible to compute. Likewise, if the columns are nearly linearly dependent, then  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$  is nearly singular, which causes numerical problems.

Solution: remove a variable that is linearly dependent on the others.