

Essentials of Applied Data Analysis

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Linear Regression

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Correlation and linear model

As we have seen in class, we can exam the relationship between two continuous variables, X and Y by calculating the covariance, or, even better, it's "standardized" version, the correlation.

Another way to represent the same relationship is by a *linear model*, characterized by the following equation:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta X + \epsilon$$

Where α is the *intercept* coefficient, β is the slope coefficient and ϵ is an error term. We will carefully look the two coefficients and forget about the error term a little bit.

Slope

Let's say we want to ask the following question: how much we expect Y – that will be called the *dependent variable* or *outcome* from now on – to vary when we vary X – *independent variable* or *predictor*?

That can be answered by looking at β . Pay attention to the formula: if you increase X by 1 (and ignore the error term) Y will increase $\beta \times X$.

It is easy to answer what is the value of β when we are dealing with two variables that have been previously standardized ($z_x = (x_i - E[x])/\sigma$): it is exactly the correlation between the two variables!

We don't need, however, to transform the variables to calculate the β , but we already have a hint: it has something to do with correlation and, consequently, with covariance.

In fact, the formula to calculate β is quite easy to interpret. Let's take a look at 3 ways we can write it:

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X - \bar{X})(Y - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X - \bar{X})^2} = \frac{E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])]}{E(X - E[X])^2} = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{Var(X)}$$

The last two expressions should be familiar to us by now. The last one, in particular, can directly interpreted: β is the covariance of X and Y divided by the variance of X . In other words, it is how much of the covariance is "explained" by the variance of X .

So, on way to describe what we are doing in a linear regression model is: we are explaining the variation of the dependent variable (Y) by the variation in the independent variable (X).

Going back to the probability fundamentals: we are examining the joint distribution of the two variables and Y as a linear function of X .

Note that we are using a hat over β . This is because we are getting an estimate of β in the same way we were getting estimates of the mean and variance of variable in a random sample. $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{\alpha}$ are the *parameters* we estimate using a linear regression, or, more precisely, the *ordinary least squares* method.

Intercept

α , the intercept is even easier to interpret. When $X = 0$, α is the value for Y . Graphically, α is where the regression line intercepts the vertical axis. If $\alpha = 0$, the line goes through the origin.

The formula to calculate $\hat{\alpha}$ is:

$$\hat{\alpha} = E[Y] - \hat{\beta}E[X]$$

Fitted Values

The values of Y that can be obtained with regression line are called fitted values (because they fit the linear model perfectly). If you forget about the error term, Fitted values \hat{Y} are calculated in a sample by using the estimated parameters $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$:

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}X$$

A nice way to interpret the fitted values is: they are the expected values of Y given specific values of $X = X_i$, or $E[Y|X = x_i]$. This interpretation is directly connected to what we have discussed about joint and conditional probability, or joint distribution. The regression line is what we would expect of Y given X once we learn something about the relationship about Y and X .

Residuals

To estimate a regression line, we choose the line that has the least sum of residual squares:

$$SSR = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i^2$$

This line also has the following property: the sum of the residuals (not the squares residuals, just the residuals) should be zero:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i = 0$$

Residuals are, graphically, the vertical distance of each observation to the regression line. Mathematically, they can be obtained by subtracting the fitted values from the observed values:

$$\hat{\epsilon}_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}$$

or, by substituting \hat{Y} by its formula:

$$\hat{\epsilon}_i = Y_i - (\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}X_i)$$

A consequence of estimating a regression line through ordinary least squares is the line always goes through the center of the data, the point $(\bar{X}$ and \bar{Y}).

Take a look at the nice figure from chapter 4 of Imai's book and check if you can locate all of the parameters we have talked about

R-square - the coefficient of determination

How good is a model? The more of the variance in the outcome Y and X is explained by the predictor X , the better is the model. How can we measure it?

If you didn't have any information on the relationship of X and Y , and you want to guess the value of Y , what would be a good guess? The mean of Y .

With a regression model, you can guess better than just the mean value. You can use the conditional values of Y on $X - E[Y|X]$ to improve your guess.

The difference between these two guesses – the plain Y expected value and the conditional expected value on X – is exactly the variation of Y explained by the model and is represented by the model sum of squares:

$$MSS = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y} - \bar{Y})^2$$

The total variation in Y is the total sum of squares:

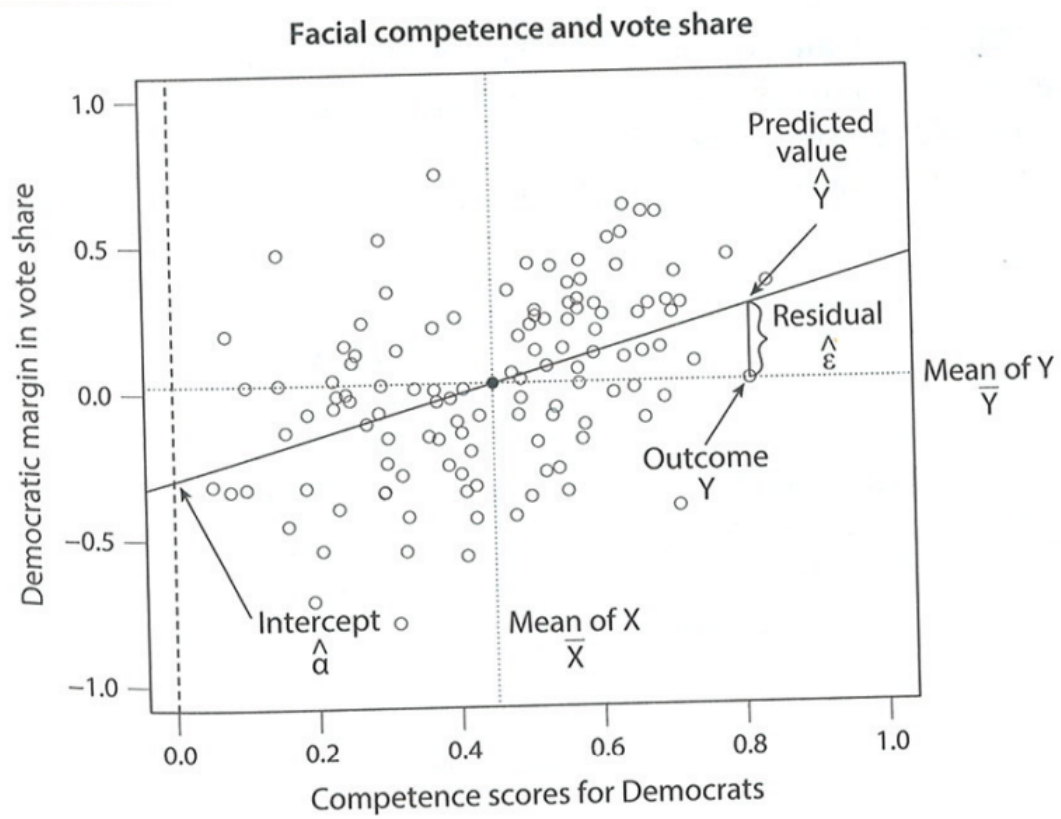


Figure 1:

$$TSS = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$$

and it can be divided into two parts, MSS and SSR, or into a part that is explained by the model and a part that it is not. Remember that the Squared Sum of Residuals (SSR) is:

$$SSR = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y})^2$$

The coefficient of determination, R^2 , is the answer to the first question. It is a measure of model fit and represents the portion of Y explained by X . It can be calculated using the summations described above:

$$R^2 = \frac{MSS}{TSS} = \frac{TSS - SSR}{TSS} = 1 - \frac{SSR}{TSS}$$