

Regression (Module 5)



Statistics (MAST20005) &
Elements of Statistics
(MAST90058)

School of Mathematics and Statistics
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Aims of this module

- Introduce the concept of **regression**
- Show a simple model for studying the relationship between two variables
- Discuss correlation and how it relates to regression

Outline

Introduction

Regression

Simple linear regression

Point estimation of the mean

Interlude: Analysis of variance

Point estimation of the variance

Standard errors of the estimates

Confidence intervals

Prediction intervals

R examples

Model checking

Further regression models

Correlation

Definitions

Point estimation

Relationship to regression

Relationships between two variables

We have studied how to do estimation for some simple scenarios:

- iid samples from a single distribution (X_i) μ, σ^2
- comparing iid samples from two different distributions (X_i & Y_j) $\mu_x - \mu_y, \sigma_x^2 / \sigma_y^2$
- differences between paired measurements ($X_i - Y_i$) $\mu_x - \mu_y$

We now consider how to analyse bivariate data more generally, i.e. two variables, X and Y , measured at the same time, i.e. as a pair.

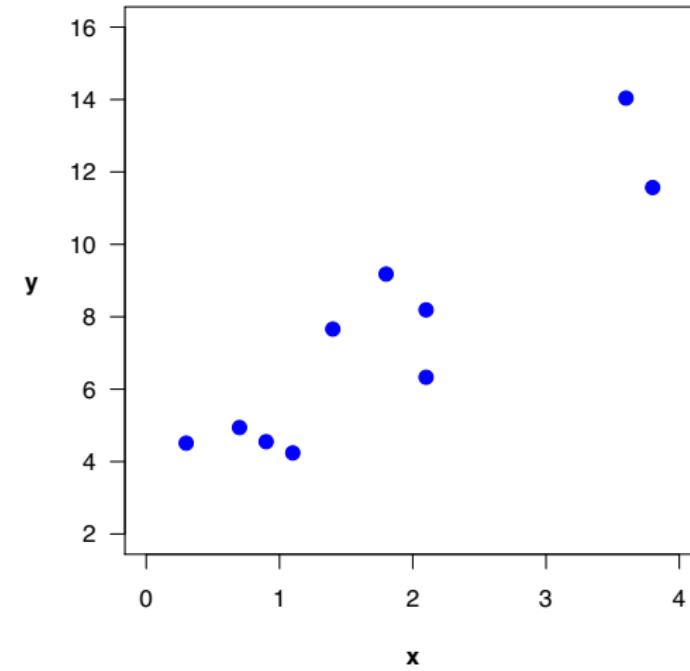
The data consist of pairs of data points, (x_i, y_i) .

These can be visualised using a scatter plot.

Example data

x_i	y_i
1.80	9.18
1.40	7.66
2.10	6.33
0.30	4.51
3.60	14.04
0.70	4.94
1.10	4.24
2.10	8.19
0.90	4.55
3.80	11.57

$n = 10$



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Regression

Often interested in how Y depends on X . For example, we might want to use X to predict Y .

$$\begin{aligned}y &= f(x) + \epsilon \\E(y|x) &= E(f(x)|x) + E(\epsilon|x) \\&= f(x) + \epsilon \\var(y|x) &= var(f(x)|x) + var(\epsilon|x) \\&= 0 + var(\epsilon|x) \\&= \sigma^2\end{aligned}$$

In such a setting, we will assume that the X values are known and fixed (henceforth, x instead of X), and look at how Y varies given x .

Example: Y is a student's final mark for Statistics, and x is their mark for the prerequisite subject Probability. Does x help to predict Y ?

The **regression** of Y on x is the conditional mean, $\mathbb{E}(Y | x) = \mu(x)$.

The regression can take any form. We consider simple linear regression, which has the form of a straight line:

$$\mathbb{E}(Y | x) = \alpha + \beta x \quad \text{and} \quad \boxed{\var(Y | x) = \sigma^2} \quad ?$$

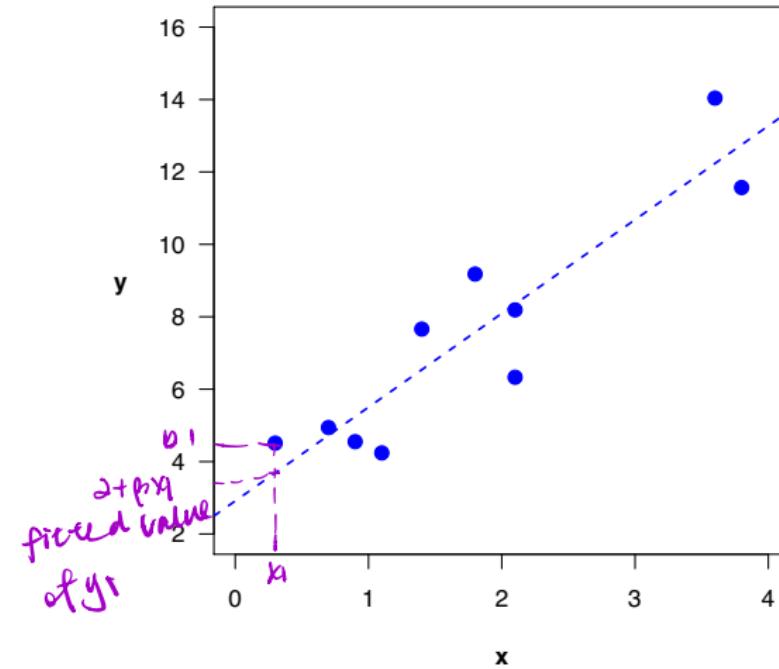
does not depend on x

Example: simple linear regression model

$$\mathbb{E}(Y | x) = \alpha + \beta x$$

$$\text{var}(Y | x) = \sigma^2$$

$$(y_i - (\alpha + \beta x_i))^2$$



Terminology (x, y)

- y is called a **response** variable. Can also be called an **outcome** or **target** variable. Please do **not** call it the 'dependent' variable.
- x is called a **predictor** variable. Can also be called an **explanatory** variable. Please do **not** call it an 'independent' variable.

$E(y|x)$

- $\mu(x)$ is called the **(linear) predictor function** or sometimes the **regression curve** or the **model equation**.
- The parameters in the predictor function are called **regression coefficients**.

$$\text{var}(y|x) = \sigma^2$$



not a coefficient

since not inside the predictor
function

Why 'regression'?

It is strange terminology, but it has stuck.

Refers to the idea of '**regression to the mean**:

if a variable is extreme on its first measurement, it will tend to be closer to the average on its second measurement, and vice versa.

First described by Sir Francis Galton when studying the inheritance of height between fathers and sons. In doing so, he invented the technique of simple linear regression.

Linearity

not necessary in X

A regression model is called **linear** if it is linear in the coefficients.

It doesn't have to define a straight line! *of x*

Complex and non-linear functions of x are allowed, as long as the resulting predictor function is a linear combination (i.e. an additive function) of them, with the coefficients 'out the front'.

coefficient and function of x
For example, the following are linear models:

$$\mu(x) = \alpha + \beta x + \gamma x^2$$

$$\mu(x) = \frac{\alpha}{x} + \frac{\beta}{x^2}$$

$$\mu(x) = \alpha \sin x + \beta \log x$$

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 &= \phi_1(x) \\x_2 &= \phi_2(x) \\&\vdots \\x_p &= \phi_p(x)\end{aligned}$$

$$\mu(x) = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_p x_p$$

linear combination of α & β 's

The following are NOT linear models:

$$\mu(x) = \alpha \sin(\beta x)$$

$$\mu(x) = \frac{\alpha}{1 + \beta x}$$

$$\mu(x) = \alpha x^\beta$$

$$\log(\mu(x)) = \log \alpha + \beta \log x$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mu^*(x) &= \log(\mu(x)) \\ \alpha^* &= \log \alpha\end{aligned}$$

... but the last one can be re-expressed as a linear model on a log scale (by taking logs of both sides),

$$\mu^*(x) = \alpha^* + \beta \log x \quad (\alpha^*, \beta)$$

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Estimation goals

Back to our simple linear regression model:

$$\mathbb{E}(Y | x) = \alpha + \beta x \quad \text{and} \quad \text{var}(Y | x) = \sigma^2.$$

- We wish to estimate the slope (β), the intercept (α), the variance of the errors (σ^2), their standard errors and construct confidence intervals for these quantities.
- Often want to use the fitted model to make predictions about future observations (i.e. predict Y for a new x).
- Note: the Y_i are not iid. They are independent but have different means, since they depend on x_i . $E(Y_i | x_i) = \alpha + \beta x_i$
- We have not (yet) assumed any specific distribution for Y , only a conditional mean and variance.

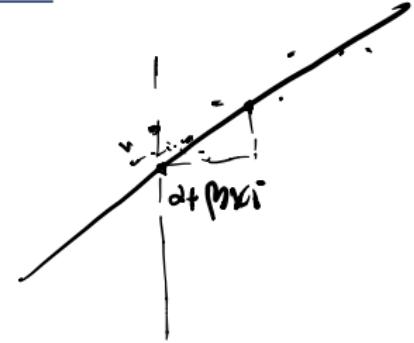
Reparameterisation

Changing our model slightly...

Let $\alpha_0 = \alpha + \beta\bar{x}$, which gives:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(Y | x) &= \alpha + \beta x \\ &= \alpha_0 + \beta(x - \bar{x})\end{aligned}$$

variable $x - \bar{x}$
(α_0, β)



Now our model is in terms of α_0 and β .

This will make calculations and proofs simpler.

Least squares estimation

Choose α_0 and β to minimize the sum of squared deviations:

$$H(\alpha_0, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \underbrace{\alpha_0 - \beta(x_i - \bar{x})}_{\text{true value of } \underline{Y_i}})^2$$

H(α₀, β) is continuous in α₀ and β

Solve this by finding the **partial derivatives** and setting to zero:

$$0 = \frac{\partial H(\alpha_0, \beta)}{\partial \alpha_0} = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - \alpha_0 - \beta(x_i - \bar{x})](-1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - \alpha_0 - \beta(x_i - \bar{x})] &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - n\alpha_0 - \beta \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$0 = \frac{\partial H(\alpha_0, \beta)}{\partial \beta} = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - \alpha_0 - \beta(x_i - \bar{x})](-(x_i - \bar{x}))$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \beta \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i - n\bar{x} \right) = 0 \\ &\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - n\alpha_0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

These are called the **normal equations**.

$$\hat{\alpha}_0 = \bar{y}$$

Least squares estimators

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - (\hat{\alpha}_0 + \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x}))] [x_i - \bar{x}] &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n y_i(x_i - \bar{x}) - \hat{\alpha}_0 \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}) - \hat{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Some algebra yields the least square estimators,

y_i for r.v.

y_i for a particular value.

$$\hat{\alpha}_0 = \bar{Y}, \quad \hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}) Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}.$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n y_i(x_i - \bar{x}) = \hat{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}) y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

Another expression for $\hat{\beta}$ is:

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}.$$

sample covariance between x and y

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})$$

$$S_x^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

These are equivalent, due to the following result:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum (x_i - \bar{x})(Y_i - \bar{Y}) &= \boxed{\sum (x_i - \bar{x}) Y_i} \\ &= \sum (x_i - \bar{x}) Y_i - \sum (x_i - \bar{x}) \bar{Y} \\ &= \bar{Y} \sum (x_i - \bar{x}) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Can also then get an estimator for α :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\alpha} &= \hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\beta}\bar{x} \\ &= \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}\bar{x}.\end{aligned}$$

$\alpha_0 = \alpha + \beta\bar{x}$
 $\Leftrightarrow \alpha = \alpha_0 - \beta\bar{x}$
plug in method

And also an estimator for the predictor function,

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\mu}(x) &= \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x \\ &= \hat{\alpha}_0 + \hat{\beta}(x - \bar{x}) \\ &= \bar{Y} + \hat{\beta}(x - \bar{x}).\end{aligned}$$

Ordinary least squares

This method is sometimes called ordinary least squares or OLS.

Other variants of least squares estimation exist, with different names.
For example, 'weighted least squares'.

$$OLS : \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha_0 - \beta(x_i - \bar{x}))^2$$

$$WLS : \sum_{i=1}^n w_i (y_i - \alpha_0 - \beta(x_i - \bar{x}))^2$$

↑
weight

Example: least squares estimates

For our data:

$$\bar{x} = 1.78$$

$$\bar{y} = 7.52 = \hat{\alpha}_0 \rightarrow \text{easier to calculate}$$

$$\hat{\alpha} = 2.91$$

$$\hat{\beta} = 2.59$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \rightarrow \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - n \bar{x} \bar{y}}{(n-1) s_x^2}$$

The fitted model equation is then:

$$\hat{\mu}(x) = 2.91 + 2.59x$$

```
> rbind(y, x)
   [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6] [,7] [,8] [,9] [,10]
y  9.18 7.66 6.33 4.51 14.04 4.94 4.24 8.19 4.55 11.57
x  1.80 1.40 2.10 0.30  3.60 0.70 1.10 2.10 0.90  3.80
```

```
> model1 <- lm(y ~ x)
> model1
```

\uparrow
linear model

Call:

```
lm(formula = y ~ x)
```

Coefficients:

(Intercept)	x
2.911	2.590

$\hat{\alpha}$ $\hat{\beta}$

Properties of these estimators

What do we know about these estimators?

* y_i fitted
 Y_i random

They are all linear combinations of the Y_i ,

$$\hat{\alpha}_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{n} \right) Y_i \quad \bar{Y}$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{K} \right) Y_i$$

where $K = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$.

This allows us to easily calculate means and variances.

Means?

$$E(Y_i) = E(E(Y_i | X_i)) = E\left\{ \alpha_0 + \beta(X_i - \bar{x}) \right\} = \alpha_0 + \beta(X_i - \bar{x})$$

✓ $E(\hat{\alpha}_0) = E(\bar{Y}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E(Y_i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n [\alpha_0 + \beta(x_i - \bar{x})] = \alpha_0$ @ x known ✓ parameter

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_0 + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \beta(x_i - \bar{x}) = \alpha_0.$$

✓ $E(\hat{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})}{K} E(Y_i) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(\alpha_0 + (x_i - \bar{x})\beta)$

$$= \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})\alpha_0 + \frac{K}{K}\beta = \beta$$
 $K = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$

This also implies, $E(\hat{\alpha}_0) = \alpha_0$ and $E(\hat{\mu}(x)) = \mu(x)$, and so we have
✓ that all of the estimators are unbiased.

$$E(\hat{\delta}) = E(\hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\beta}\bar{x}) = E(\hat{\alpha}_0) - E(\hat{\beta})\bar{x} = \alpha_0 - \beta\bar{x} = \alpha.$$

$$\text{Variances? } z = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i y_i \Rightarrow \text{Var}(z) = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i^2 y_i$$

$$\checkmark \quad \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}_0) = \text{var}(\bar{Y}) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var}(Y_i) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

$\hat{\alpha}_0 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$ ↳ $\frac{n\sigma^2}{n^2}$ //

$$\begin{aligned}
 \checkmark \text{var}(\hat{\beta}) &= \text{var} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})}{K} Y_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{K} \right)^2 \text{var}(Y_i) \\
 &= \frac{1}{K^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \text{var}(Y_i) = \frac{1}{K^2} \boxed{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \sigma^2 \\
 &= \frac{1}{K^2} \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \frac{1}{K^2} \sigma^2 K \\
 &= \frac{\sigma^2}{K}
 \end{aligned}$$

1

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{cov}(x+y, xy) \\ &= \text{cov}(x, x) + \text{cov}(x, y) \\ &+ \text{cov}(y, x) + \text{cov}(y, y) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{cov}(\hat{\alpha}_0, \hat{\beta}) \\ &= \text{cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} y_i, \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{K}\right) y_i\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \text{cov}\left(\frac{1}{n} y_i, \frac{x_j - \bar{x}}{K} y_j\right) \quad \text{the additive law.} \\ &\uparrow \quad \text{if } i \neq j, \text{ since } y_i \text{ s are indep} \\ &\text{why?} \quad \text{cov}(y_i, y_j) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{cov}\left(\frac{1}{n} y_i, \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{K} y_i\right) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{K}\right) \text{var}(y_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sigma^2 \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})}_{=0} \cdot \frac{1}{K} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,
 $\hat{\delta} = \hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\beta} \bar{x}$.

$$\text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^2}{K}\right) \sigma^2$$

$$\text{cov}(\hat{\alpha}_0, \hat{\beta}) = 0$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\mu}(x)) = \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x - \bar{x})^2}{K}\right) \sigma^2 \Rightarrow \sigma^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x - \bar{x})^2}{K}\right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(\hat{\mu}(x)) &= \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}_0 + \hat{\beta}(x - \bar{x})) \\ &= \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}_0) + \text{var}(\hat{\beta} \frac{(x - \bar{x})}{\sqrt{n}}) \\ &\uparrow \quad \text{known} \\ & (x - \bar{x})^2 \cdot \text{var}(\hat{\beta}) \\ &= (x - \bar{x})^2 \cdot \frac{\sigma^2}{K}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(\hat{\delta}) &= \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\beta} \bar{x}) \\ &= \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}_0) + \text{var}(\hat{\beta} \bar{x}) \\ &\uparrow \quad \frac{\bar{x}^2 \text{var}(\hat{\beta})}{\bar{x}^2 \cdot \frac{\sigma^2}{K}} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sigma^2 + \underline{2\text{cov}(\hat{\alpha}_0, \hat{\beta} \bar{x})}. \\ &\Rightarrow 0 \quad \text{since } \text{cov}(\hat{\alpha}_0, \hat{\beta}) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Can we get their standard errors?

We need an estimate of σ^2 .

$$\curvearrowleft \text{var}(Y|xi)$$

ANOVA

Analysis of variance: iid model

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x} + \bar{x} - \mu)^2$$

For $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ iid,

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n [(x_i - \bar{x})^2 + (\bar{x} - \mu)^2 + 2(x_i - \bar{x})(\bar{x} - \mu)]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{x} - \mu)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 + n(\bar{x} - \mu)^2$$

$$+ 2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \bar{x} - x_i \mu - \bar{x}^2 + \mu \bar{x}$$

Total sum of squares

$$= n \bar{x}^2 - \mu n \bar{x} - n \bar{x}^2 + \mu \bar{x}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 + n(\bar{x} - \mu)^2$$

↗ variation of the estimator \bar{x}
↓ sample sum of square

$$\text{since } S_x^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$$\text{take expectation } E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2\right) = n E[(x_i - \mu)^2] = n \text{var}(x_i) = n \sigma^2$$

LHS $n \sigma^2 \rightarrow$ RHS $(n-1)E(S_x^2) + E(n(\bar{x} - \mu)^2)$

$$\Rightarrow (n-1)E(S_x^2) = (n-1)\sigma^2 = n E(\bar{x} - \mu)^2$$

$E(S_x^2) = \sigma^2$ unbiased $= \sigma^2$

since \bar{x} is unbiased for μ ,
then $E(\bar{x} - \mu)^2 = \text{var}(\bar{x})$

$$= \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

Analysis of variance: regression model

$$E(Y_i | x_i) = \alpha_0 + \beta x_i = \alpha_0 + \beta(x_i - \bar{x})$$

$$\text{var}(Y_i | x_i) = \sigma^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \alpha_0 - \beta(x_i - \bar{x}))^2$$

fitted value of Y_i

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x}) + \underline{\hat{\alpha}_0 + \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x})} - \alpha_0 - \beta(x_i - \bar{x}))^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x}) + (\hat{\alpha}_0 - \alpha_0) + (\hat{\beta} - \beta)(x_i - \bar{x}))^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x}))^2 + n(\hat{\alpha}_0 - \alpha_0)^2 + K(\hat{\beta} - \beta)^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i=1}^n (A_i + B_i + C_i)^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n A_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n B_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n C_i^2 \\ &+ 2 \sum_{i=1}^n A_i B_i + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n A_i C_i + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n B_i C_i \end{aligned}$$

Note that the cross-terms disappear. Let's see...

The cross-terms...

$$\hat{\alpha}_0 = \frac{1}{n} \sum Y_i$$

$$t_1 = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i (\hat{\alpha}_0 - \alpha_0) - 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\alpha}_0 (\hat{\alpha}_0 - \alpha_0)$$

$$- 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\beta} (x_i - \bar{x}) (\hat{\alpha}_0 - \alpha_0).$$

$$= 2(\hat{\alpha}_0 - \alpha_0) \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i - 2n \hat{\alpha}_0 (\hat{\alpha}_0 - \alpha_0).$$

$$- 2(\hat{\alpha}_0 - \alpha_0) \hat{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}). \quad \cancel{= 0}$$

$$t_1 = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{(Y_i - \hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x}))}_{Ai} \underbrace{(\hat{\alpha}_0 - \alpha_0)}_{Bi}$$

$$t_2 = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{(Y_i - \hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x}))}_{Ai} \underbrace{(\hat{\beta} - \beta)(x_i - \bar{x})}_{Ci}$$

$$t_3 = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(\hat{\beta} - \beta)(\hat{\alpha}_0 - \alpha_0) = 2(\hat{\beta} - \beta)(\hat{\alpha}_0 - \alpha_0) \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}) \cancel{\downarrow 0} = 0.$$

Since $\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}) = 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\alpha}_0) = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y}) = 0$,
the first and third cross-terms are easily shown to be zero.

For the second term,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{t_2}{2(\hat{\beta} - \beta)} &= \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})(x_i - \bar{x}) - \hat{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})(x_i - \bar{x}) - \hat{\beta} K \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i(x_i - \bar{x}) - \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i(x_i - \bar{x}) \\
 &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, all the cross-terms are zero.

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}) Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \quad \checkmark$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 t_2 &= 2 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x})) (\hat{\beta} - \beta)(x_i - \bar{x}) \\
 &= 2(\hat{\beta} - \beta) \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x})) (x_i - \bar{x})}_{\downarrow} \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\alpha}_0) (x_i - \bar{x}) - \hat{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})(x_i - \bar{x}) - \hat{\beta} K \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i(x_i - \bar{x}) - \hat{\beta} K \\
 &\text{since } \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{Y}(x_i - \bar{x}) = 0, \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i(x_i - \bar{x}) - \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i(x_i - \bar{x}) \\
 &= 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

Back to the analysis of variance formula...

$$E(Y_i) = \alpha_0 + \beta(x_i - \bar{x})$$

so $n \text{ var}(Y_i) = n \sigma^2$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \alpha_0 - \beta(x_i - \bar{x}))^2$$

known. a statistic, doesn't depend on $\alpha_0, \beta, \sigma^2$

$$E(K(\hat{\beta} - \beta)^2)$$

$\hat{\beta}$ is unbiased for β

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x}))^2 + n(\hat{\alpha}_0 - \alpha_0)^2 + K(\hat{\beta} - \beta)^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(n(\hat{\alpha}_0 - \alpha_0)^2) &= n E(\hat{\alpha}_0 - \alpha_0)^2 \\ &= n \text{ var}(\hat{\alpha}_0) \end{aligned}$$

$\hat{\alpha}_0$ is unbiased for α_0

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\beta} &= K E((\hat{\beta} - \beta)^2) = K \cdot \text{var}(\hat{\beta}) \\ &= K \cdot \frac{\sigma^2}{K} = \sigma^2. \end{aligned}$$

Taking expectations gives,

$$\begin{aligned} n\sigma^2 &= E(D^2) + \sigma^2 + \sigma^2 \\ \Rightarrow E(D^2) &= (n-2)\sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

where

$$D^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x}))^2.$$

Variance estimator

if let $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \sum(Y_i - \hat{y}_0 - \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x}))^2 / D^2$,
then $E(\hat{\sigma}^2) = (n-2)\sigma^2$.

so unbiased estimator

$$D = \frac{1}{n-2}\sigma^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(\hat{\sigma}^2) &= E\left(\frac{1}{n-2}D^2\right) \\ &= E(D^2) \cdot \frac{1}{n-2} = \sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

Based on these results, we have an unbiased estimator of the variance,

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-2}D^2.$$

The inferred mean for each observation is called its **fitted value**,

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{y}_0 + \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x}).$$

estimated value when $x=x_i$

The deviation from each fitted value is called a **residual**, $R_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$.

The variance estimator is based on the sum of squared residuals,

$$D^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n R_i^2.$$

Example: variance estimate

For our data:

$$d^2 = 16.12$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = 2.015$$

$$\hat{\sigma} = 1.42$$

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

since $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} D^2$

then $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} d^2$

Standard errors

We can substitute $\hat{\sigma}^2$ into the formulae for the standard deviation of the estimators in order to calculate standard errors.

For example,

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{K}$$
$$\Rightarrow \text{se}(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{K}}$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}) = (\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^2}{K}) \hat{\sigma}^2$$
$$\text{se}(\hat{\beta}) = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^2}{K}}$$

Example: standard errors

For our data:

$$\text{se}(\hat{\alpha}_0) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}} = 0.449$$

$$\text{se}(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{K}} = 0.404$$

$$\text{se}(\hat{\mu}(x)) = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x - \bar{x})^2}{K}} = 1.42 \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{10} + \frac{(x - 1.78)^2}{12.34}}$$

Maximum likelihood estimation

for $\alpha, \beta, \mu(x)$

find sampling distribution for $\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}, \hat{\mu}(x)$

Want to also construct confidence intervals. This requires further assumptions about the population distribution.

Let's assume a normal distribution:

$$Y_i \sim N(\alpha + \beta x_i, \sigma^2).$$

$$E(Y_i | x_i) = \alpha + \beta x_i$$

$$\text{Var}(Y_i | x_i) = \sigma^2$$

Alternative notation (commonly used for regression/linear models):

$$Y_i = \underbrace{\alpha + \beta x_i}_{\text{mean}} + \underbrace{\epsilon_i}_{\text{error term}}, \quad \text{where} \quad \epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2) \quad \checkmark$$

Let's maximise the likelihood...

Since the Y_i 's are independent joint distribution of Y_i 's product

$$L(\alpha, \beta, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{(y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\}$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \right)^n \exp \left\{ -\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha_0 - \beta(x_i - \bar{x}))^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} -\ln L(\alpha, \beta, \sigma^2) &= \frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha_0 - \beta(x_i - \bar{x}))^2 \\ &\text{minimise} \\ &= \frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} H(\alpha_0, \beta) \rightarrow \text{sum of square deviations} \\ &\text{free of } \sigma, p \end{aligned}$$

The α_0 and β that maximise the likelihood (minimise the log-likelihood) are the same as those that minimise the sum of squares, H .

minimise H

$$\hat{\alpha} = \bar{Y}$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x}) y_i}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

OLS
ordinary least squares

The OLS estimates are the same as the MLEs!

$$\psi = -\ln L(\alpha, \beta, \sigma^2) = \frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta(x_i - \bar{x}))^2$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \alpha} = \frac{-1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta(x_i - \bar{x})) = 0.$$

$$= \frac{-1}{\sigma^2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i - n\bar{y} \right) = 0. \Rightarrow \hat{\alpha} = \bar{y}$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \beta} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta(x_i - \bar{x}))(x_i - \bar{x}) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n y_i (x_i - \bar{x}) - 0 - \beta \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = 0.$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i (x_i - \bar{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \sigma^2} = \frac{n}{2} \cdot \frac{\partial \ln \sigma^2}{\partial \sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2} \times (-2) \cdot \frac{1}{\sigma^3} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta(x_i - \bar{x}))^2$$

$$= \frac{n}{\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{\sigma^3} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta(x_i - \bar{x}))^2 = 0.$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta(x_i - \bar{x}))^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \cdot D^2$$

$$so \quad \hat{\sigma}_{MLE}^2 = \frac{1}{n} D^2 \quad \text{biased.}$$

$$E(\hat{\sigma}_{MLE}^2) = E\left(\frac{1}{n} D^2\right) = \frac{n-2}{n} \sigma^2$$

What about σ^2 ?

Differentiate by σ , set to zero, solve...

$$\hat{\sigma}_{MLE}^2 = \frac{1}{n} D^2$$

This is biased. Prefer to use the previous, unbiased estimator,

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} D^2$$

$x_1, \dots, x_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \Rightarrow E(S^2) = \sigma^2$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_{MLE}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \Rightarrow E(\hat{\sigma}_{MLE}^2) = \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^2$$

$$\frac{\partial \ln(\lambda, \beta, \sigma^2)}{\partial \sigma^2} = -\frac{n}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} H(\lambda, \beta)$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_{MLE}^2 = \frac{1}{n} H(\lambda, \beta)$$



since we already
get MLE for λ, β
plug in

$$\hat{\sigma}_{MLE}^2 = \frac{1}{n} D^2$$

$$D^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n R_i^2 \quad \text{and } R_i = y_i - \hat{\lambda} - \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x})$$

$$E(\hat{\sigma}_{MLE}^2) = \frac{1}{n} E(D^2)$$

$$= \frac{n-2}{n} \sigma^2 + \sigma^2$$

why different

Sampling distributions

The Y_1, \dots, Y_n are independent normally distributed random variables.

$$\hat{\delta} = \bar{Y}$$
$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}) y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

① assume σ^2 fixed

Except for $\hat{\sigma}^2$, our estimators are linear combinations of the Y_i so will also have normal distributions, with mean and variance as previously derived.

For example,

$$\hat{\beta} \sim N\left(\beta, \frac{\sigma^2}{K}\right).$$

$$\hat{\alpha}_0 = \bar{Y} \sim N(\alpha_0, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$$

$\text{cov}(\hat{\alpha}_0, \hat{\beta}) = 0 \Rightarrow \hat{\alpha}_0, \hat{\beta}$ uncorrelated.

Moreover, we know $\hat{\alpha}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}$ are independent because they are bivariate normal rvs with zero covariance

$$x_1, \dots, x_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$$\frac{(n-1)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$$

Using the analysis of variance decomposition (from earlier), we can show that,

$$\frac{(n-2)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-2}^2.$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} D^2.$$

Therefore, we can define pivots for the various mean parameters. For example,

$$\frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{K}} \sim t_{n-2}$$

$$se(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{K}}$$

$$\frac{\hat{\mu}(x) - \mu(x)}{\hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x-\bar{x})^2}{K}}} \sim t_{n-2}$$

$$se(\hat{\mu}(x))$$

This allows us to construct confidence intervals.

$$\hat{\beta} \pm a \cdot se(\hat{\beta}) \rightarrow \frac{a}{\sqrt{K}}$$

↑ quantile of t_{n-2}

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

and

$$(n-2)\hat{\sigma}^2 = D^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\beta}\hat{x}_i - \hat{\beta}(x_i - \bar{x}))^2$$

$$\frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{\sigma/\sqrt{K}} \sim N(0, 1).$$

$$\frac{\sqrt{(n-2)\hat{\sigma}^2}}{\sqrt{(n-2)\sigma^2}} = \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{\hat{\sigma}^2/\sqrt{K}} \sim t_{n-2}$$

Example: confidence intervals

For our data, a 95% CI for β is:

$$\hat{\beta} \pm c \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{K}} = 2.59 \pm 2.31 \times 0.404 = (1.66, 3.52)$$

where c is the 0.975 quantile of t_{n-2} .

A 95% CI for $\mu(3)$ is:

$$\hat{\mu}(3) \pm c \times \text{se}(\hat{\mu}(3)) = 10.68 \pm 2.31 \times 0.667 = (9.14, 12.22)$$

for a CI, $\hat{\mu}_{\text{fix}x}$ is used to estimate $E(Y|x)$
 \downarrow
fixed value ②.

Deriving prediction intervals

Use the same trick as we used for the simple model,

for a PI, $\hat{\mu}(x)$ is used to estimate $\gamma \rightarrow$

$$\begin{aligned} Y^* &\sim N(\mu(x^*), \sigma^2) \\ \hat{\mu}(x^*) &\sim N\left(\mu(x^*), \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* - \bar{x})^2}{K}\right)\sigma^2\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$Y^* - \hat{\mu}(x^*) \sim N\left(0, \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* - \bar{x})^2}{K}\right)\sigma^2\right)$$

$$\frac{Y^* - \hat{\mu}(x^*)}{\sigma \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* - \bar{x})^2}{K}}} \sim t_{n-2}$$

A 95% PI for Y^* is given by:

$$\hat{\mu}(x^*) \pm c \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* - \bar{x})^2}{K}}$$

Example: prediction interval

A 95% PI for Y^* corresponding to $x^* = 3$ is:

$$10.68 \pm 2.31 \times 1.42 \times \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{(3 - 1.78)^2}{12.34}} = (7.06, 14.30)$$

Much wider than the corresponding CI, as we've seen previously.

```
> model1 <- lm(y ~ x)
> summary(model1)
```

Call:
lm(formula = y ~ x)

Residuals: $R_i = y_i - (\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta} x_i)$
Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
-2.01970 -1.05963 0.02808 1.04774 1.80580

Coefficients: \rightarrow testing
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) $\hat{\alpha}$ 2.9114 $se(\hat{\alpha})$ 0.8479 3.434 0.008908 **
x $\hat{\beta}$ 2.5897 $se(\hat{\beta})$ 0.4041 6.408 0.000207 ***

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

Residual standard error: 1.419 on $n-2$ degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.8369, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8166
F-statistic: 41.06 on 1 and 8 DF, p-value: 0.0002074

```

> # Confidence intervals for mean parameters
> confint(model1)
                2.5 %   97.5 %
 $\alpha$  (Intercept) 0.9560629 4.866703    95% CIs for  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ 
 $\beta$  x           1.6577220 3.521623

> # Data to use for prediction.
> data2 <- data.frame(x = 3)       $\mu(x)$ 

> # Confidence interval for mu(3).
> predict(model1, newdata = data2, interval = "confidence")
      fit     lwr     upr
1 10.6804 9.142823 12.21798

> # Prediction interval for y when x = 3.
> predict(model1, newdata = data2, interval = "prediction")
      fit     lwr     upr
1 10.6804 7.064 14.2968

```

$\hat{\mu}(x^*)$

R example explained

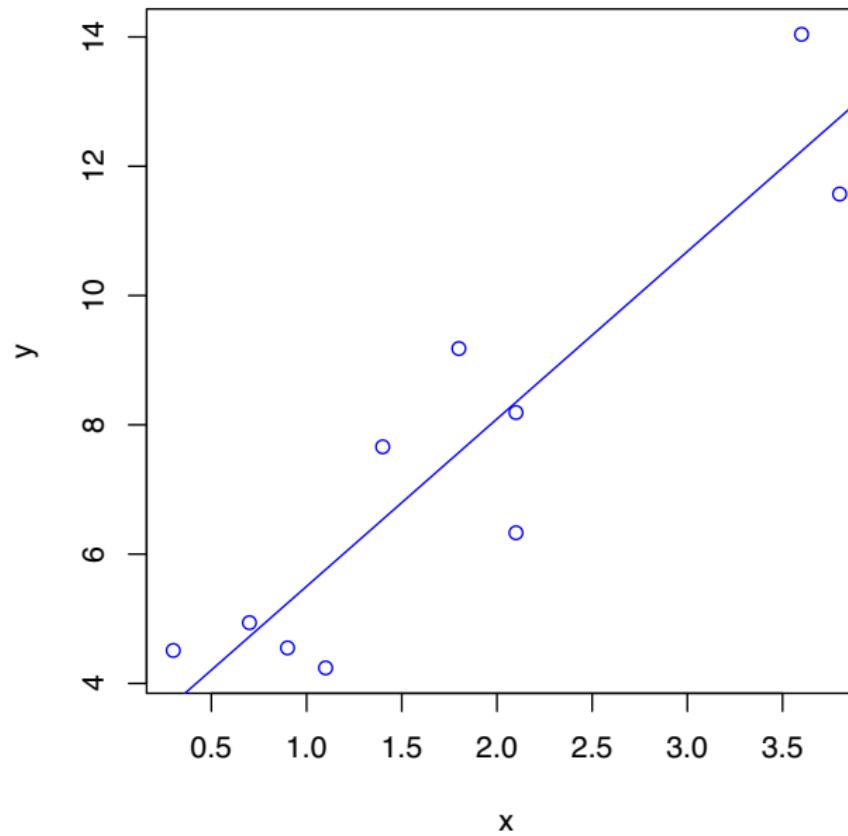
- The `lm` (linear model) command fits the model.
- `model1` is an object that contains all the results of the regression needed for later calculations.
- `summary(model1)` acts on `model1` and summarizes the regression.
- `predict` can calculate CIs and PIs.
- R provides more detail than we need at the moment. Much of the output relates to hypothesis testing that we will get to later.

Plot data and fitted model

```
> plot(x, y, col = "blue")
> abline(model1, col = "blue")
```

The command `abline(model1)` adds the fitted line to a plot.





Fitted values and CIs for their means

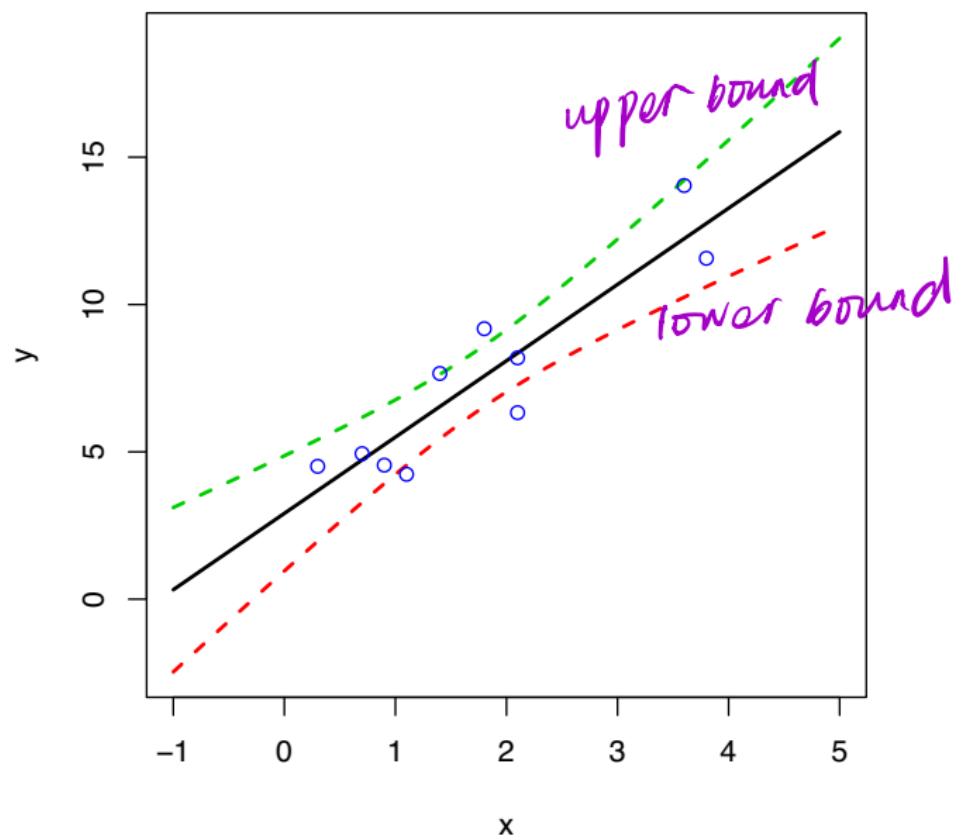
```
> predict(model1, interval = "confidence")
   fit      lwr      upr
1 7.572793 6.537531 8.608056
2 6.536924 5.442924 7.630925
3 8.349695 7.272496 9.426895
4 3.688285 1.963799 5.412771
5 12.234204 10.247160 14.221248
6 4.724154 3.280382 6.167925
7 5.760023 4.546338 6.973707
8 8.349695 7.272496 9.426895
9 5.242088 3.921478 6.562699
10 12.752138 10.603796 14.900481
```

Confidence band for the mean

⑨

```
> data3 <- data.frame(x = seq(-1, 5, 0.05))
> y.conf <- predict(model1, data3, interval = "confidence")
> head(cbind(data3, y.conf))
      x       fit      lwr      upr
1 -1.00 0.3217104 -2.468232 3.111653
2 -0.95 0.4511941 -2.295531 3.197919
3 -0.90 0.5806777 -2.122943 3.284298
4 -0.85 0.7101613 -1.950472 3.370794
5 -0.80 0.8396449 -1.778124 3.457414
6 -0.75 0.9691286 -1.605906 3.544164

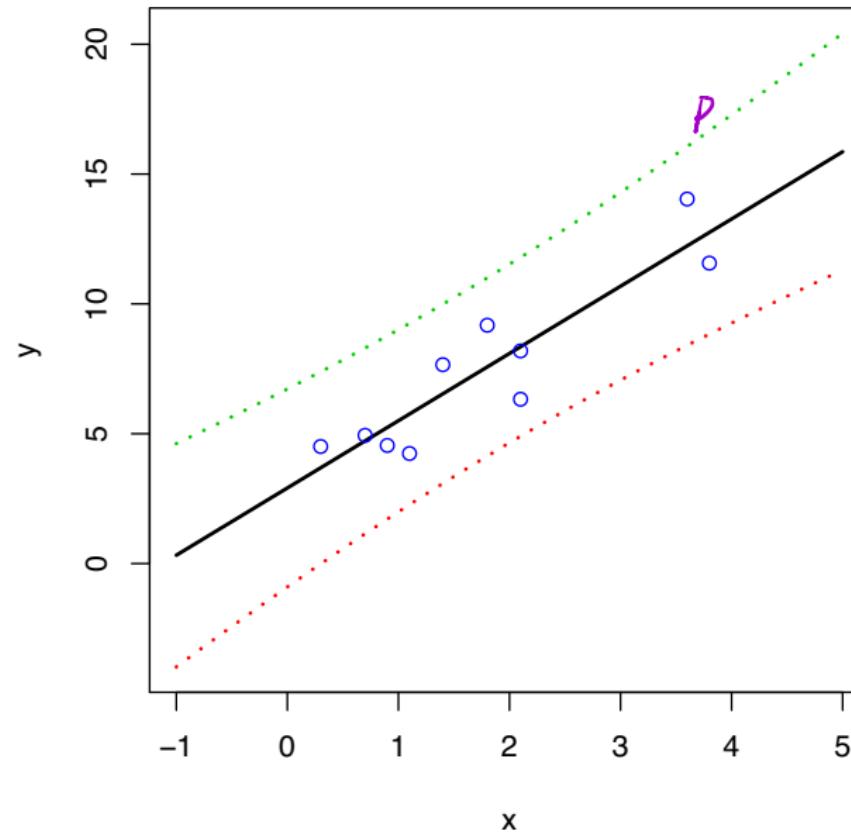
> matplot(data3$x, y.conf, type = "l", lty = c(1, 2, 2),
+           lwd = 2, xlab = "x", ylab = "y")
> points(x, y, col = "blue")
```



Prediction bands for new observations

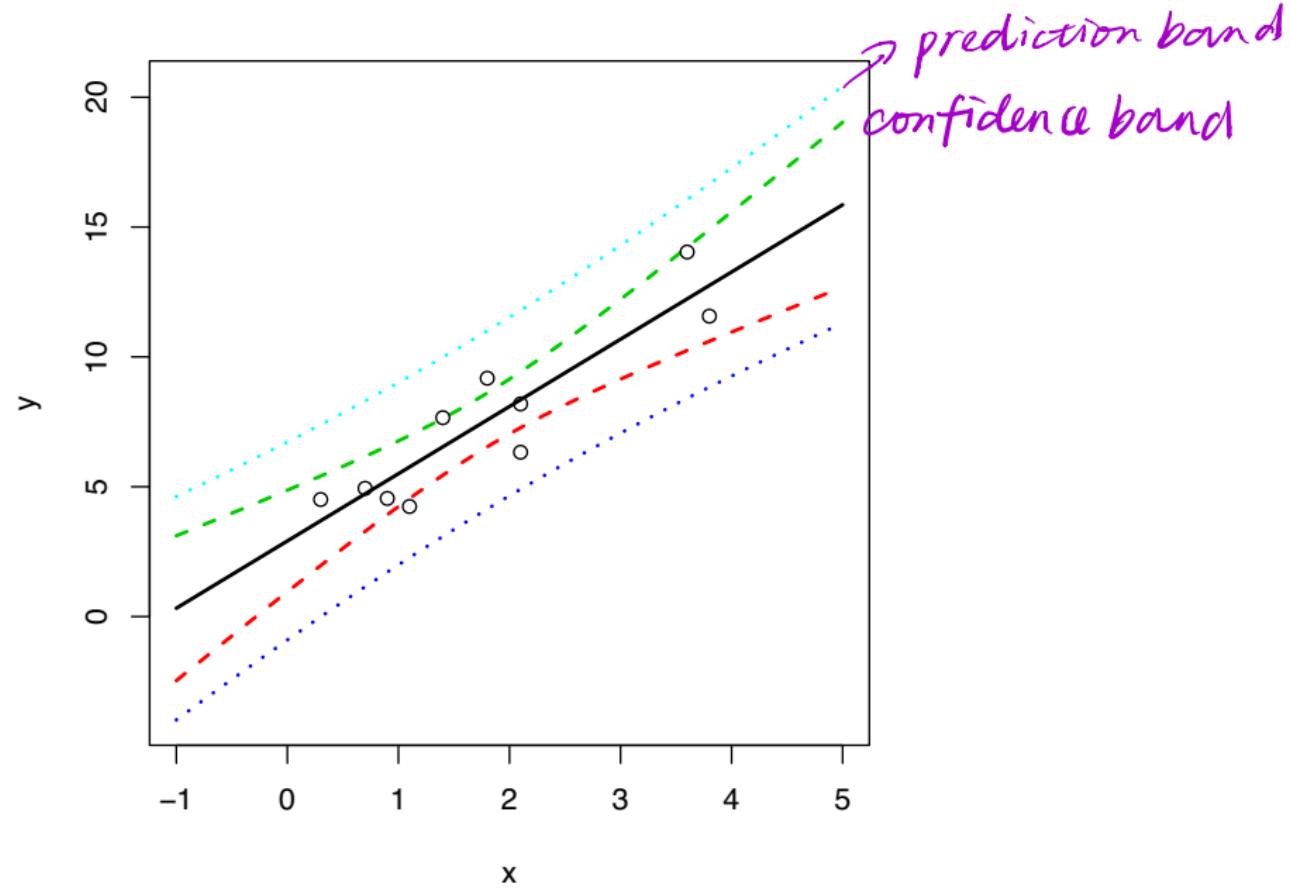
```
> y.pred <- predict(model1, data3, interval = "prediction")
> head(cbind(data3, y.pred))
      x      fit     lwr     upr
1 -1.00 0.3217104 -3.979218 4.622639
2 -0.95 0.4511941 -3.821827 4.724215
3 -0.90 0.5806777 -3.664763 4.826119
4 -0.85 0.7101613 -3.508034 4.928357
5 -0.80 0.8396449 -3.351646 5.030936
6 -0.75 0.9691286 -3.195606 5.133863

> matplot(data3$x, y.pred, type = "l", lty = c(1, 3, 3),
+           lwd = 2, xlab = "x", ylab = "y")
> points(x, y, col = "blue")
```



Both bands plotted together

```
> matplot(data3$x, y.pred, type = "l", lty = c(1, 2, 2, 3, 3),  
+           lwd = 2, xlab = "x", ylab = "y")  
> points(x, y, col = "blue")
```



Checking our assumptions

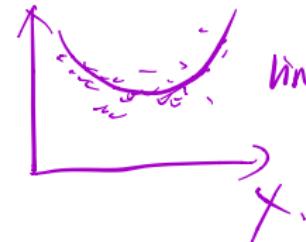
What modelling assumptions have we made?

- Linear model for the mean
- Equal variances for all observations (**homoscedasticity**)
- Normally distributed residuals

$$E(Y|X) = \alpha + \beta X$$

$$\sigma^2$$

Ways to check these:



linear model

- Plot the data and fitted model together (done!)

- Plot residuals vs fitted values
- QQ plot of the residuals

$$Y_i \sim N(\alpha + \beta x_i, \sigma^2)$$

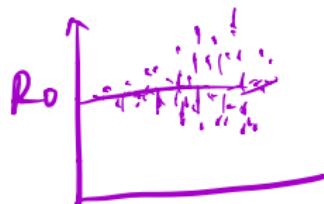
$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + \epsilon_i$$

$$\downarrow N(0, \sigma^2)$$

check residual

In R, the last two of these are very easy to do:

```
> plot(model1, 1:2)
```

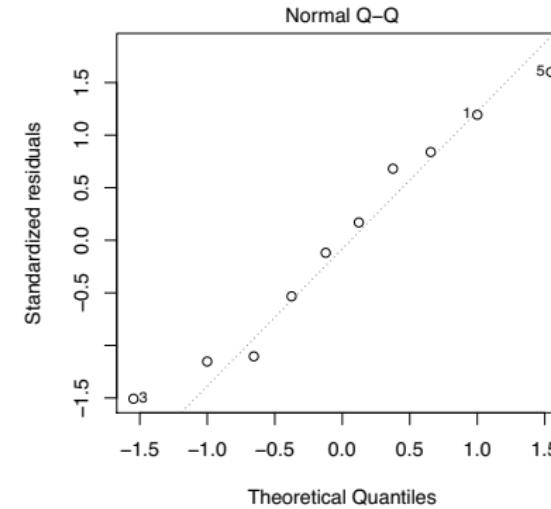
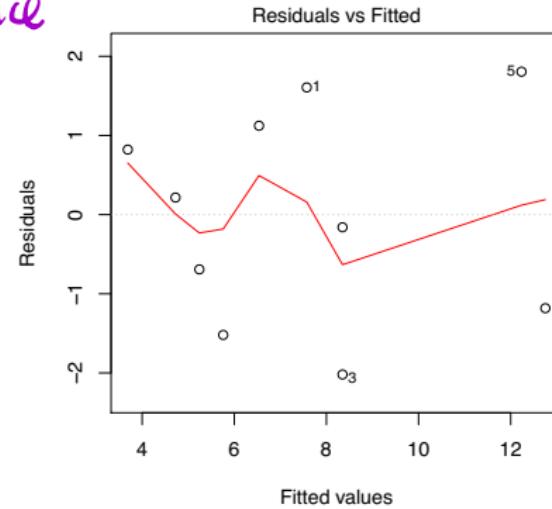


FV

FVT var(ρ_0) \uparrow

contradict constance
variance

$\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2(x))$



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Point estimation

Multiple regression

- What if we have more than one predictor?
- Observe x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ik} as well as y_i (for each i)
- Can fit a **multiple regression model**:

*multiple predictor
k+1 coefficient*

$$\mathbb{E}(Y | x_1, \dots, x_k) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_k x_k$$

- This is linear in the coefficients, so is still a linear model
- Fit by method of least squares by minimising:

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_{i1} - \beta_2 x_{i2} - \dots - \beta_k x_{ik})^2$$

- Take partial derivatives, etc., and solve for β_0, \dots, β_k .
- The subject Linear Statistical Models (MAST30025) looks into these types of models in much more detail.

Two-sample problem

- The two-sample problem can be expressed as a linear model!
- Sample $Y_1, \dots, Y_n \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma^2)$ and $Y_{n+1}, \dots, Y_{n+m} \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma^2)$.
- Define **indicator variables** (x_{i1}, x_{i2}) where $(x_{i1}, x_{i2}) = (1, 0)$ for *from first sample*
 $i = 1, \dots, n$ and $(x_{i1}, x_{i2}) = (0, 1)$ for $i = n + 1, \dots, n + m$.*from second sample*
- Observed data: (y_i, x_{i1}, x_{i2})
- Then Y_1, \dots, Y_n each have mean $1 \times \beta_1 + 0 \times \beta_2 = \mu_1$ and
 Y_{n+1}, \dots, Y_{n+m} each have mean $0 \times \beta_1 + 1 \times \beta_2 = \mu_2$.
- This is in the form a multiple regression model.
- The **general linear model** unifies many different types of models together into a common framework. The subject MAST30025 covers this in more detail.

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Relationship to regression

Correlation coefficient

(Revision) for two rvs X and Y , the correlation coefficient, or simply the correlation, is defined as:

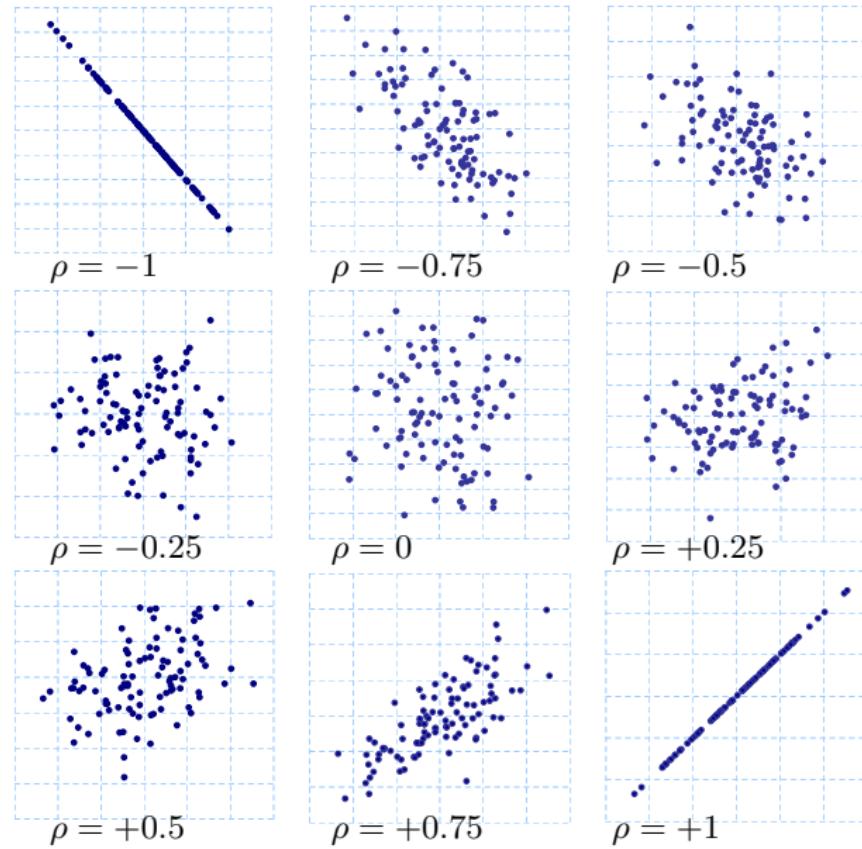
$$\rho = \rho_{XY} = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{var } X \text{ var } Y}} = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

$|\rho| \leq 1$

This is a quantitative measure of the strength of relationship, or association, between X and Y .

We will now consider inference on ρ ,
based on an iid sample of pairs (X_i, Y_i) .

Note: unlike in regression, X is now considered as a random variable.



$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

$$\sigma_{XY} = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

Sample covariance

To estimate $\text{cov}(X, Y)$ we use the **sample covariance**:

$$S_{XY} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y}) = \frac{1}{n-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i - n \bar{X} \bar{Y} \right)$$

↑
random X

You can check that this is unbiased, $\mathbb{E}(S_{XY}) = \sigma_{XY} = \text{cov}(X, Y)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{1} \quad (n-1) \mathbb{E}(S_{XY}) &= E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i\right) - \frac{1}{n} E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right) \\ &= n \mu_{XY} - E\left(\frac{1}{n} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n X_i Y_j \right]\right) \\ &= n \mu_{XY} - \frac{1}{n} [n \mu_{XY} + n(n-1) \mu_X \mu_Y] \end{aligned}$$

Sample correlation coefficient

$$\rho = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

To estimate ρ we use the **sample correlation coefficient** (also known as **Pearson's correlation coefficient**):

$$R = R_{XY} = \frac{S_{XY}}{S_X S_Y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}}$$

$$R^2 = \frac{s_{XY}^2}{s_X^2 s_Y^2}$$

You can check that $|R| \leq 1$, just like $|\rho| \leq 1$.

This gives a point estimate of ρ .

For further results, we make some more assumptions...

Bivariate normal

Assume X and Y have correlation ρ and follow a bivariate normal distribution,

$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix} \sim N_2 \left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu_X \\ \mu_Y \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_X^2 & \rho\sigma_X\sigma_Y \\ \rho\sigma_X\sigma_Y & \sigma_Y^2 \end{bmatrix} \right) \xrightarrow{\text{mean vector covariance matrix}} \text{cov}(X, Y)$$

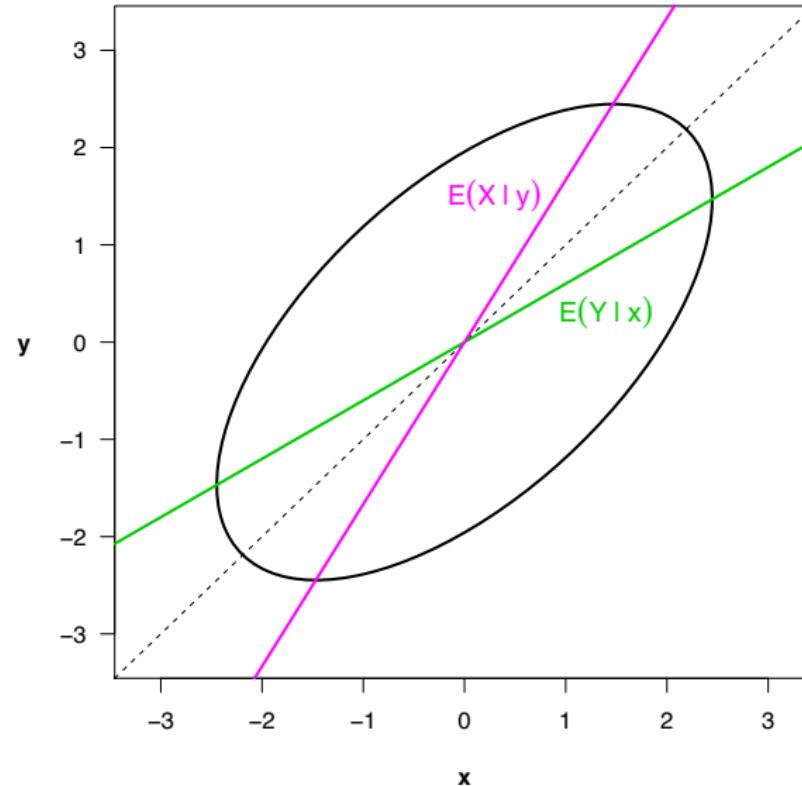
In this case, the regressions are linear,

?

$$\mathbb{E}(X | Y = y) = \mu_X + \frac{\rho\sigma_X}{\sigma_Y}(y - \mu_Y) = \alpha' + \beta'y \quad \text{linear in } y$$

$$\mathbb{E}(Y | X = x) = \mu_Y + \frac{\rho\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X}(x - \mu_X) = \alpha + \beta x \quad \text{linear in } x$$

Note: $\beta' \neq 1/\beta$



Variance explained

In regression

$$E(Y|x) = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x$$

$$\text{var}(Y|x) = \hat{\sigma}^2$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \bar{Y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}\bar{x} \Rightarrow \hat{\beta} = \bar{Y} - \hat{\alpha}$$

$$\sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 = \sum (Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}x_i)^2$$

$$= \sum (Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}x_i + \hat{\beta}x_i - \hat{\beta}x_i)^2$$

$$= \sum (Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}x_i)^2 + \sum (\hat{\beta}x_i - \hat{\beta}x_i)^2$$

$$= \sum (Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}x_i)^2 + \sum (\hat{\beta}x_i - \hat{\beta}\bar{x})^2$$

$$= \sum (Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}x_i)^2 + \sum (\hat{\beta}x_i - \hat{\beta}\bar{x})^2$$

$$\text{cross term}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum (Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}x_i)(\hat{\beta}x_i - \hat{\beta}\bar{x})$$

?

An alternative analysis of variance decomposition:

$$\sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 = \sum (Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}x_i)^2 + \hat{\beta}^2 \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$$= (1 - R^2) \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 + R^2 \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 = (1 - R^2) \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$$

This implies that R^2 is the proportion of the variation in Y 'explained' by x .

In this usage, R^2 is called the coefficient of determination.

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{s_{xy}}{s_x^2} \Rightarrow \hat{\beta}^2 = \frac{s_{xy}^2}{s_x^2 \cdot s_y^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow (\hat{\beta})^2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \frac{s_{xy}^2}{s_x^2 \cdot s_y^2} \cdot (n-1)s_x^2 = \frac{s_{xy}^2}{s_x^2 \cdot s_y^2} \cdot (n-1)s_y^2 = R^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

Remarks

- For simple linear regression, the coefficient of determination is the same as the square of the sample correlation, with both being denoted by R^2 .
- Also, the proportion of Y explained by x is the same as the proportion of X explained by y . Both are equal to R^2 , which is a symmetric expression of both X and Y .
*do regression of Y on X
or do regression of X on Y .
same coefficient of determination
 R^2 .*
- For more complex models, the coefficient of determination is more complicated: it needs to be calculated using all predictor variables together.

Approximate sampling distribution

Define:

$$g(r) = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{1+r}{1-r} \right)$$

This function has a standard name, $g(r) = \text{artanh}(r)$, and so does its inverse, $g^{-1}(r) = \tanh(r)$. The function $g(r)$ is also known as the **Fisher transformation**.

The following is a widely used approximation:

r is used to estimate ρ

$$g(R) \approx N \left(g(\rho), \frac{1}{n-3} \right)$$

$g(R)$ is used to estimate $g(\rho)$

We can use this to construct approximate confidence intervals.

free of ρ

Example: correlation

For our data:

$$r = 0.91$$

$$r^2 = 0.84$$

An approximate 95% CI for $g(\rho)$ is: $se(g(r)) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-3}}$

$$g(r) \pm \frac{c}{\sqrt{n-3}} = 1.56 \pm 1.96 \times 0.378 = (0.819, 2.30)$$

where $c = \Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha/2)$. Transforming this to an approximate 95% CI for ρ :

$$(\tanh(0.819), \tanh(2.30)) = (0.67, 0.98)$$

```
> cor(x, y)
[1] 0.9148421
```

```
> cor(x, y)^2
[1] 0.836936
```

```
> cor.test(x, y)
```

Pearson's product-moment correlation

```
data: x and y      n=2
t = 6.4078, df = 8, p-value = 0.0002074
alternative hypothesis: true correlation is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
 0.6726924 0.9799873
sample estimates:
cor
0.9148421       $\rho = \hat{\rho}$ 
```

```
> model1 <- lm(y ~ x)
> summary(model1)

Call:
lm(formula = y ~ x)

Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q     Max 
-2.01970 -1.05963  0.02808  1.04774  1.80580 

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)    
(Intercept)  2.9114    0.8479   3.434 0.008908 ** 
x             2.5897    0.4041   6.408 0.000207 *** 
---
Signif. codes:  0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1

R2 Residual standard error: 1.419 on 8 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared:  0.8369, Adjusted R-squared:  0.8166 
F-statistic: 41.06 on 1 and 8 DF,  p-value: 0.0002074 test  $\rho=0$ 
```