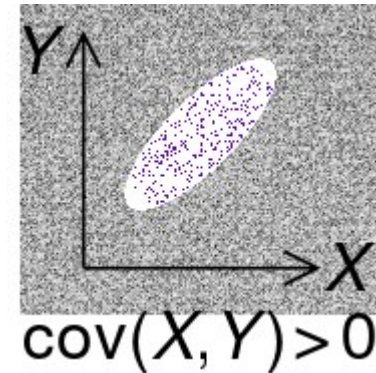
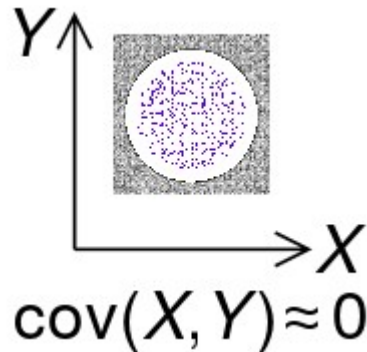
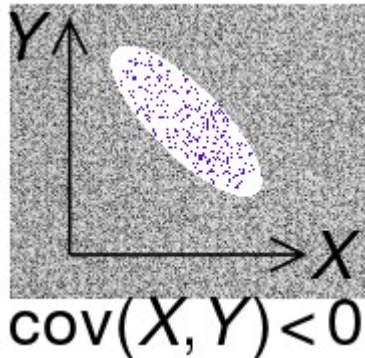




# Covariance

- To measure the relationship between two mathematical variables or measured data values covariance and correlation are used
- Covariance and correlation are very similar
- Covariance is a measure of the joint variability of two random variables
- The sign of the covariance shows the tendency in the linear relationship between the variables.



# Correlation

- The magnitude of the covariance is not easy to interpret because it is not normalized

$$\text{cov}_{XY} = \sigma_{XY} = E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)]$$

- Correlation measures both the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables

$$\text{corr}_{XY} = \rho_{XY} = E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] / (\sigma_X \sigma_Y)$$

- The value of covariance lies between  $-\infty$  and  $+\infty$ .
- correlation values will be between -1 and +1
- covariance only measures how two variables change together

# Correlation

- Pearson's correlation coefficient is the covariance of the two variables divided by the product of their standard deviations
- For a population
- Pearson's correlation coefficient, when applied to a population, is commonly represented by the Greek letter  $\rho$  (rho)

- $$\rho_{X,Y} = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

- Where:
- **cov** is the covariance
- $\sigma_X$  is the standard deviation of X
- $\sigma_Y$  is the standard deviation of Y

# Correlation

- For a sample
- Pearson's correlation coefficient, when applied to a sample, is commonly represented by  $r_{xy}$  and may be referred to as the sample correlation coefficient or the sample Pearson correlation coefficient

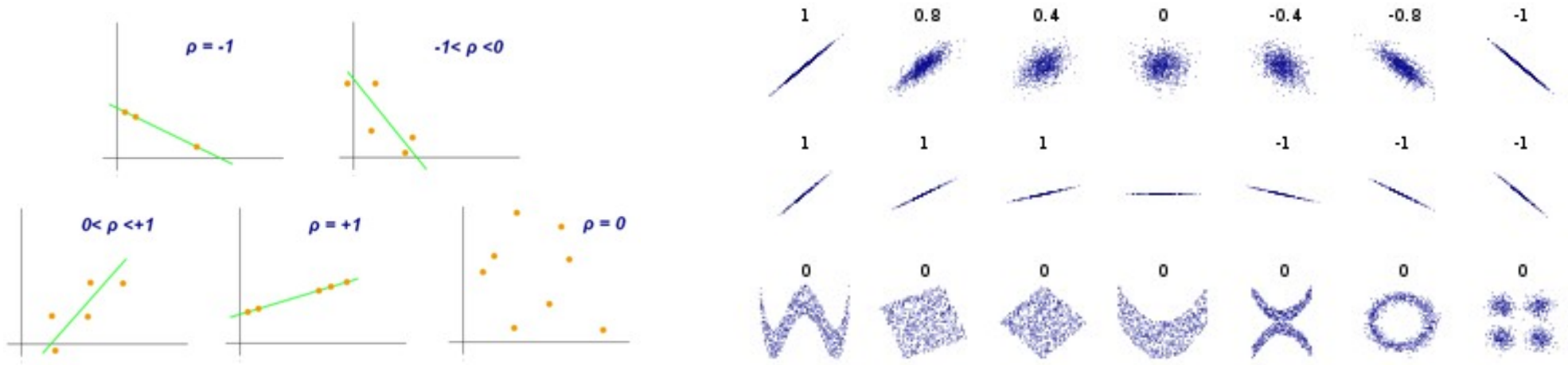
- $$r_{xy} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}$$

$$r_{xy} = \frac{n \sum x_i y_i - \sum x_i \sum y_i}{\sqrt{n \sum x_i^2 - (\sum x_i)^2} \sqrt{n \sum y_i^2 - (\sum y_i)^2}}.$$

- where:
- n is sample size
- $x_i, y_i$  are the individual sample points indexed with i
- $\bar{x}, \bar{y}$  the sample means

# Correlation

- Examples of scatter diagrams with different values of correlation coefficient ( $\rho$ )
- Several sets of  $(x, y)$  points, with the correlation coefficient of  $x$  and  $y$  for each set. Note that the correlation reflects the strength and direction of a linear relationship (top row), but not the slope of that relationship (middle), nor many aspects of nonlinear relationships (bottom)



# Correlation

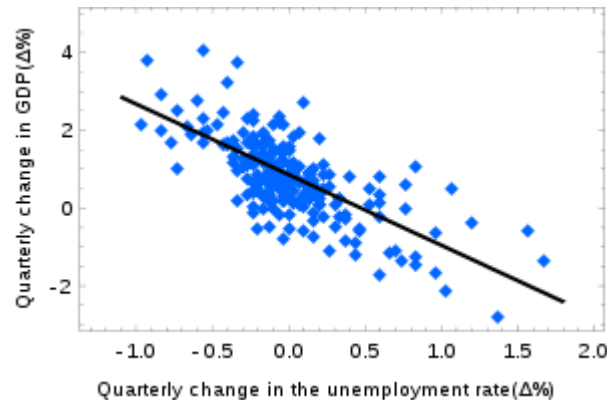
- The absolute values of both the sample and population Pearson correlation coefficients are on or between 0 and 1.
- Correlations equal to +1 or −1 correspond to data points lying exactly on a line (in the case of the sample correlation), or to a bivariate distribution entirely supported on a line (in the case of the population correlation).
- The Pearson correlation coefficient is symmetric:  $\text{corr}(X,Y) = \text{corr}(Y,X)$ .

<u>Correlation Coefficient Value (<math>r</math>)</u>	<u>Direction and Strength of Correlation</u>
---	--

•	-1	Perfectly negative
	-0.8	Strongly negative
	-0.5	Moderately negative
	-0.2	Weakly negative
	0	No association
	0.2	Weakly positive
	0.5	Moderately positive
	0.8	Strongly positive
	1	Perfectly positive

# Simple Linear Regression

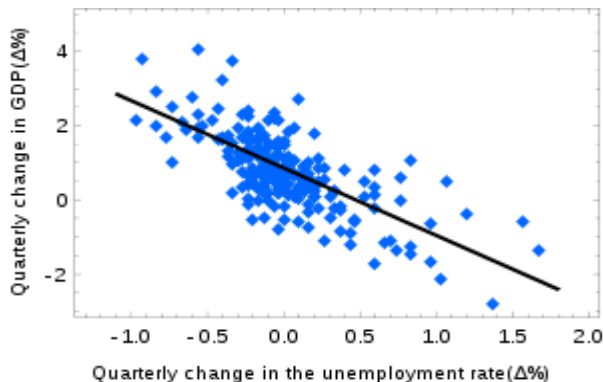
- simple linear regression is a linear regression model with a single explanatory variable.
- That is, it concerns two-dimensional sample points with one independent variable and one dependent variable and finds a linear function (a non-vertical straight line) that, as accurately as possible, predicts the dependent variable values as a function of the independent variable.
- The adjective simple refers to the fact that the outcome variable is related to a single predictor.





# Simple Linear Regression

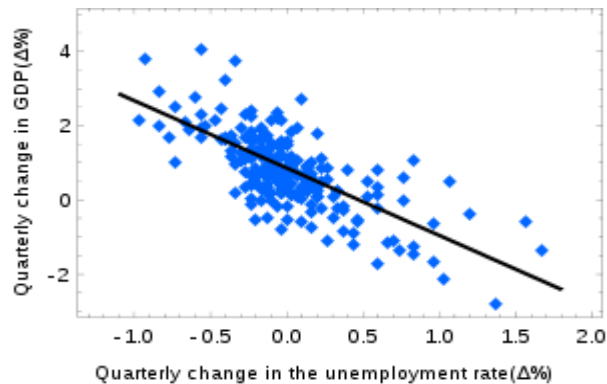
- Consider the model function
- $y = \alpha + \beta x$



- which describes a line with slope  $\beta$  and y-intercept  $\alpha$ .
- In general such a relationship may not hold exactly for the largely unobserved population of values of the independent and dependent variables;
- we call the unobserved deviations from the above equation the errors

# Simple Linear Regression

- Suppose we observe  $n$  data pairs and call them  $\{(x_i, y_i), i = 1, \dots, n\}$ . We can describe the underlying relationship between  $y_i$  and  $x_i$  involving this error term  $\varepsilon_i$  by

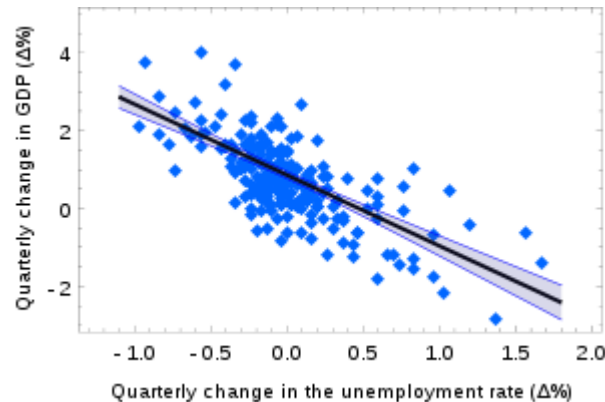


$$y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + \varepsilon_i.$$

- This relationship between the true (but unobserved) underlying parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  and the data points is called a linear regression model.

# Simple Linear Regression

- The goal is to find estimated values  $\hat{\alpha}$  and  $\hat{\beta}$  for the parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  which would provide the "best" fit in some sense for the data points.



- ordinary least squares (OLS) is method for estimating the unknown parameters in a linear regression model by making the sum of these squared deviations as small as possible.
- Finds a line that minimizes the sum of squared residuals  $\hat{\epsilon}_i$

$$\hat{\epsilon}_i = y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i. \quad SSE = \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2$$

# Simple Linear Regression

- We look for  $\hat{\alpha}$  and  $\hat{\beta}$  that minimize the sum of squared errors (SSE):

$$\min_{\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}} \text{SSE}(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}) \equiv \min_{\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}x_i)^2$$

To find a minimum take partial derivatives with respect to  $\hat{\alpha}$  and  $\hat{\beta}$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \hat{\alpha}} (\text{SSE}(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})) = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}x_i) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}x_i) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = n\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = \hat{\alpha} + \frac{1}{n} \hat{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

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

# Simple Linear Regression

- Before taking partial derivative with respect to  $\hat{\beta}$ , substitute the previous result for  $\hat{\alpha}$ .

$$\min_{\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ y_i - (\bar{y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{x}) - \hat{\beta} x_i \right]^2 = \min_{\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ (y_i - \bar{y}) - \hat{\beta} (x_i - \bar{x}) \right]^2$$

Now, take the derivative with respect to  $\hat{\beta}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \hat{\beta}} \left( \text{SSE}(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}) \right) &= -2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ (y_i - \bar{y}) - \hat{\beta} (x_i - \bar{x}) \right] (x_i - \bar{x}) = 0 \\ \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y}) (x_i - \bar{x}) - \hat{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \hat{\beta} &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y}) (x_i - \bar{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{\text{Cov}(x, y)}{\text{Var}(x)} \end{aligned}$$

And finally substitute  $\hat{\beta}$  to determine  $\hat{\alpha}$

$$\hat{\alpha} = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{x}$$

# Simple Linear Regression

- Find the regression coefficients and Pearson correlation coefficient

x	0	2	2	3
y	1	4	3	5

- $y = \alpha + \beta x$

$$\alpha = \bar{y} - \beta \bar{x}$$

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

X	y	x <sup>2</sup>	y <sup>2</sup>	xy
---	---	----------------	----------------	----

0	1	0	1	0
---	---	---	---	---

2	4	4	16	8
---	---	---	----	---

2	3	4	9	6
---	---	---	---	---

3	5	9	25	15
---	---	---	----	----

7	13	17	51	29
---	----	----	----	----

n = 4

$\Sigma x = 7$

$\therefore \bar{x} = \frac{7}{4} = 1.75$

$\Sigma y = 13$

$\therefore \bar{y} = \frac{13}{4} = 3.25$

# Simple Linear Regression

- Find the regression coefficients and Pearson correlation coefficient

x	0	2	2	3
y	1	4	3	5

$$a_1 = \frac{n \sum xy - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{n \sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2}$$

$$= \frac{4(29) - (7)(13)}{4(17) - (7)^2} = \frac{116 - 91}{68 - 49} = 1.316$$

$$Y = 0.947 + 1.316x$$

$$a_0 = \bar{y} - a_1 \bar{x} = 3.25 - (1.316)(1.75)$$

$$= 0.947$$

Coefficient of correlation (R) is

$$R = \frac{n \sum xy - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{[(n \sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2)(n \sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2)]^{1/2}}$$
$$= \frac{4(29) - (7)(13)}{[4(17) - (7)^2][4(51) - 13^2]} = \frac{25}{[(19)(35)]^{1/2}}$$
$$= \frac{25}{25.8} = 0.969$$



# Simple Linear Regression

- No. X Height (m) Y Mass (kg)
- 1 1.47 52.21
- 2 1.50 53.12
- 3 1.55 54.48
- 4 1.52 55.84
- 5 1.57 57.20
- mean of x 1.522
- mean of y 54.57
- correlation coefficient  $r$  0.86441627
- A -12.27197452
- B 43.91719745



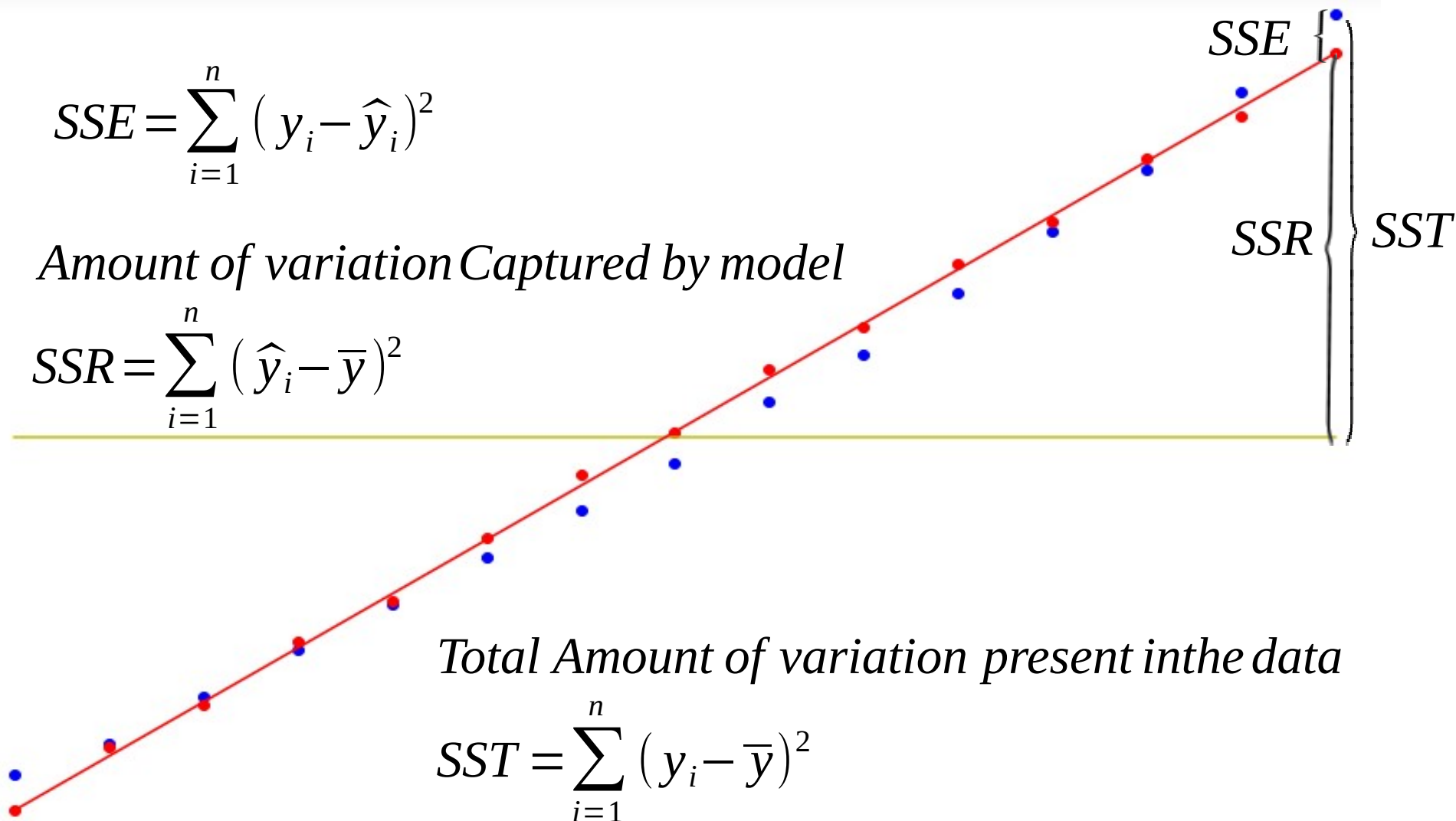
$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

*Amount of variation Captured by model*

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

*Total Amount of variation present in the data*

$$SST = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$



$$SST = SSE + SSR$$

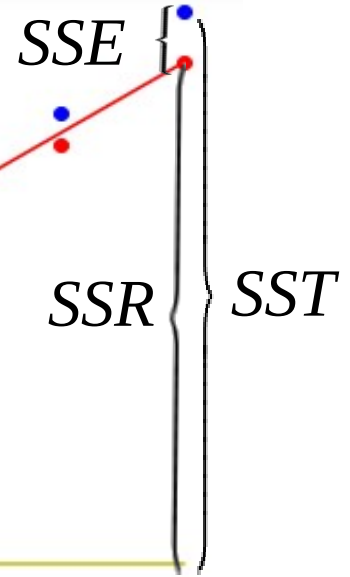
$$R^2 = \frac{SSR \text{ (Amount of variation explained by model)}}{SST \text{ (Amount of variation present in the data)}}$$

$$SSR = SST - SSE$$

$$R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}$$

R<sup>2</sup> is a statistic that will give some information about the **goodness of fit** of a model.

In regression, the R<sup>2</sup> coefficient of determination is a statistical measure of how well the regression predictions approximate the real data points





# Multiple Linear Regression

- Multiple linear regression (MLR) is a multivariate statistical technique for examining the linear correlations between two or more independent variables (IVs) and a single dependent variable (DV).
- Research questions suitable for MLR can be of the form "To what extent do X1, X2, and X3 (IVs) predict Y (DV)?"
- e.g., "To what extent does people's age and gender (IVs) predict their levels of blood cholesterol (DV)?"
- **When to use Multiple Linear Regression**
  - there should be one dependent and more than one independent variables
  - The relationship between dependent variable and independent variables is linear



# Multiple Linear Regression

- **Linearity**
- Check scatterplots between the DV (Y) and each of the IVs (Xs) to determine linearity:
  - Are there any bivariate outliers? If so, consider removing the outliers.
  - Are there any non-linear relationships? If so, consider using a more appropriate type of regression.



# Multiple Linear Regression

- **Homoscedasticity**
- Based on the scatterplots between the IVs and the DV:
  - Are the bivariate distributions reasonably evenly spread about the line of best fit?
  - Also can be checked via the the residuals plots.
- **Multicollinearity**
- IVs should not be overly correlated with one another.

# Multiple Linear Regression

- Multiple linear regression is a generalization of simple linear regression to the case of more than one independent variable, and a special case of general linear models, restricted to one dependent variable.
- The basic model for multiple linear regression is

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \dots + \beta_p X_{ip} + \epsilon_i$$

- for each observation  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

# Multiple Linear Regression

- Example

Height(cm)	Gender	Weight(kg)
152	0	49
155	0	51
157	0	52
152	1	52
155	1	54
157	1	56

$$(49 - (\beta_0 + 152 * \beta_1 + 0 * \beta_2))^2 + (51 - (\beta_0 + 155 * \beta_1 + 0 * \beta_2))^2 + (52 - (\beta_0 + 157 * \beta_1 + 0 * \beta_2))^2 \\ + (52 - (\beta_0 + 152 * \beta_1 + 1 * \beta_2))^2 + (54 - (\beta_0 + 155 * \beta_1 + 1 * \beta_2))^2 + (56 - (\beta_0 + 157 * \beta_1 + 1 * \beta_2))^2$$

# Multiple Linear Regression

- the above equation can be minimized by taking partial derivatives with respect to  $\beta_0, \beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  using the chain rule, and setting them equal to 0.
- we will get 3 equations with 3 unknowns. After solving them
- intercept ( $\beta_0$ ) = -57.19
- coefficients( $[\beta_1, \beta_2]$ ) = [0.7, 3.34]
- Final Regression equation for prediction is

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2$$

$$y = -57.19 + 0.7 X_1 + 3.34 X_2$$

$$y = 0.7 X_1 + 3.34 X_2 - 57.19$$





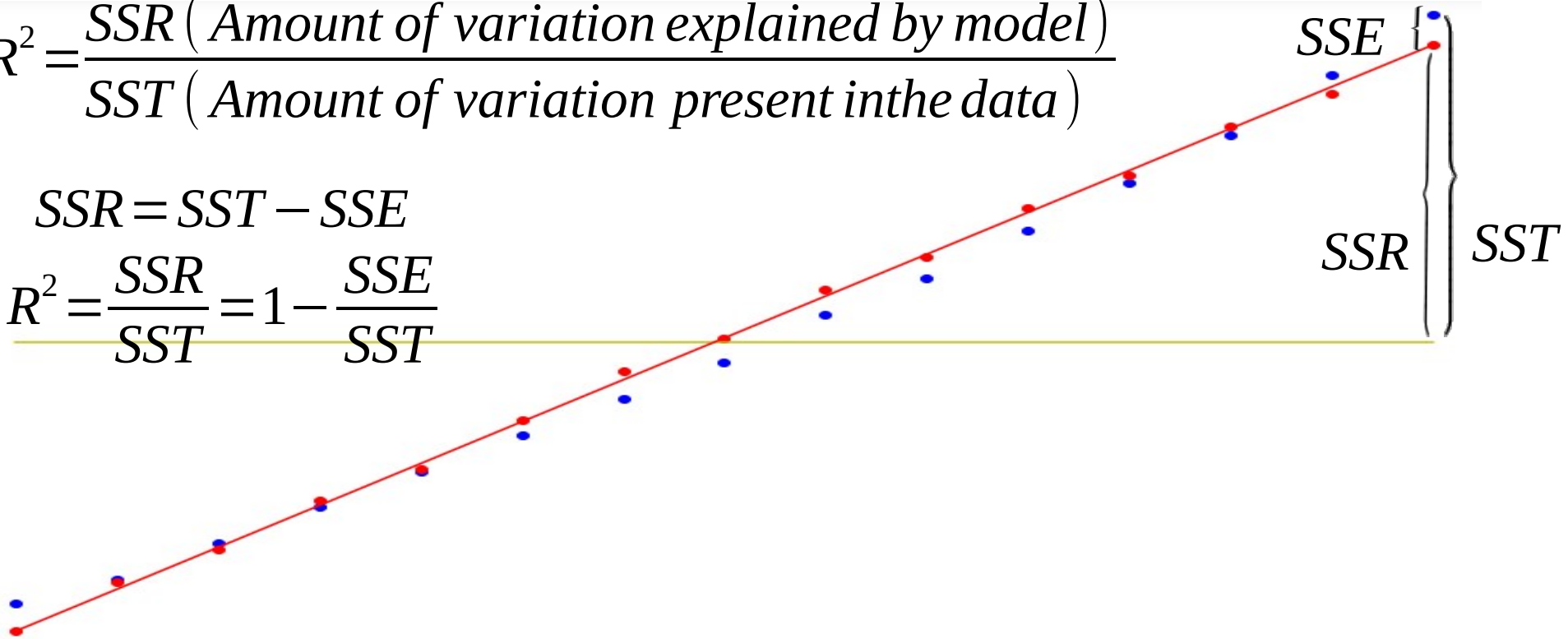
# Validation of Multiple Linear Regression

1. R-Square and Adjusted R-Square
2. t test between response variable and individual explanatory variable at given significans level
3. F test to check the statistical significance of the overall model at given significans level
4. Conduct Residual Analysis for Normality , homoscedasticity
5. Check for presence of multi colinearity

$$R^2 = \frac{SSR \text{ (Amount of variation explained by model)}}{SST \text{ (Amount of variation present in the data)}}$$

$$SSR = SST - SSE$$

$$R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}$$



R<sup>2</sup> coefficient of determination is a statistical measure of how well the regression predictions approximate the real data points

if R-square is 0.7, means 70% of the variation in dependent variable is explained by the independent variables



# Adjusted $R^2$

- The problem with  $R^2$  is that it will either stay the same or increase with addition of more variables, even if they do not have any relationship with the output variables.
- This is where “Adjusted  $R^2$ ” comes to help. Adjusted  $R^2$  penalizes you for adding variables which do not improve your existing model
- The adjusted  $R^2$  is modified version of  $R^2$  that has been adjusted for number of predictors in the model.
- The adjusted  $R^2$  increases only if new term improves the model more than would be expected by chance
- It decreases when a predictor improves the model by less than expected by chance. Adjusted  $R^2$  always lower than the  $R^2$

# Adjusted $R^2$

- The adjusted  $R^2$  increases only when you add your model by relevant/significant variables
- Adjusted  $R^2$  decrease if we add insignificant variables to our model while  $R^2$  increase even if we add our model insignificant variables

$$\text{Adjusted } R^2 = 1 - \frac{SSE / (N - k - 1)}{SST / (N - 1)}$$