# Reviewing Basic Statistics

Armine Hayrapetyan

# Assumptions of linear regression

When doing a simple regression model, we make the (often reasonable!) assumptions that

- the errors are normally distributed and, on average, zero
- the errors all have the same variance (they are homoscedastic)
- the errors are unrelated to each other (they are independent across observations)

# Assumptions of linear regression

Written mathematically (with the third assumption relaxed somewhat) for normally distributed errors

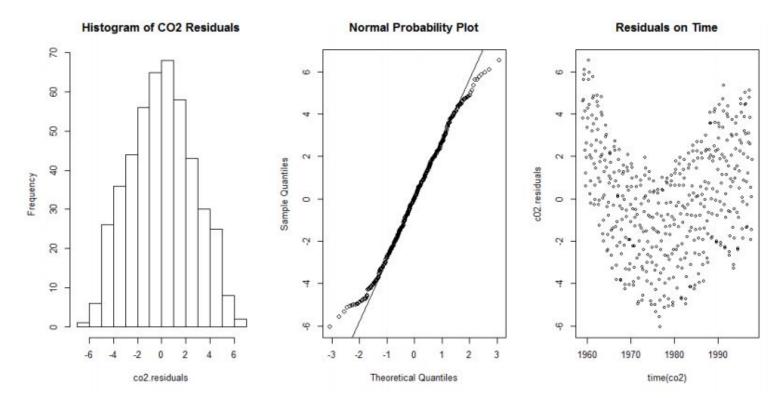
- $E[\epsilon_i] = 0$
- $Var[\epsilon_i] = \sigma^2\{\epsilon_i\} = constant = \sigma^2$
- $Cov[\epsilon_i, \epsilon_j] = \sigma\{\epsilon_i, \epsilon_j\} = 0, \ \forall \ i \neq j$

Even more compactly

$$\epsilon_i iid \sim N(\mu = 0, \sigma^2 = constant)$$

## Normality of residuals

When we have a large data set we can look at a **histogram**. When a data set is smaller, we can look at a **normal probability plot**.



# Normal probability plot

The normal probability plot is a graphical technique for assessing whether or not a data set is approximately normally distributed.

The data are plotted against a theoretical normal distribution in such a way that the points should form an approximate straight line. Departures from this straight line indicate departures from normality.

## Variation

Recall that the variance of a single random variable is written, for the random variable X as

$$\sigma^2 \equiv V[X] \equiv E[(X - \mu_x)(X - \mu_X)]$$

For a data set we'd estimate this as

$$s^2 \equiv (1 / (n-1)) \sum (x_i - \overline{x})(x_i - \overline{x})$$

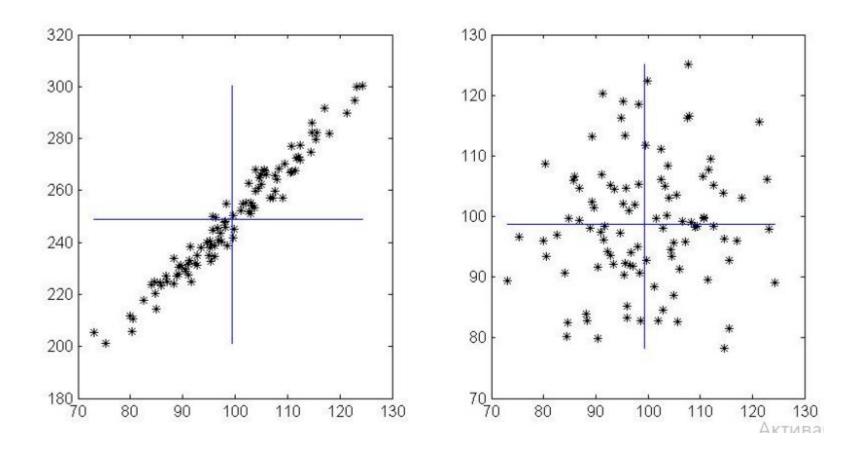
Now, if we have two random variables, we think about measuring their linear relationship with

$$COV[X, Y] \equiv E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)]$$

And, for data, we form the analogous estimator

$$cov \equiv ((1 / n - 1)) \sum (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})$$

For motivation, we look at what happens "on average" (that's the expected value operator,  $E[\ ]$ ) when we center the random variables, and then multiply these quantities together. Let's think through graphically why this is a good idea.



If you look at the first graph you will see that most of the above average x values go along with the above average y values. It is the same thing with the below average x values and the below average y values. Think about the deviations (distance from the mean). This means that

- When  $x_i \overline{x} > 0$  it is pretty common to find  $y_i \overline{y} > 0$  as well. A positive times a positive is positive, so this means that  $(x_i \overline{x})(y_i \overline{y}) > 0$  is also greater than 0
- On the other side, when  $x_i \overline{x} < 0$  it is pretty common to find  $y_i \overline{y} < 0$  as well. A negative times a negative is negative, so this means that  $(x_i \overline{x})(y_i \overline{y}) > 0$

- There aren't many positive x values associated with negative y values. So there aren't many terms where  $x_i \overline{x} > 0$  and  $y_i \overline{y} < 0$ . That means there aren't many terms where  $(x_i \overline{x})(y_i \overline{y}) < 0$
- Just to be complete, there aren't many negative x values associated with positive y values. So there aren't many terms where  $x_i \overline{x} < 0$  and  $y_i \overline{y} > 0$ . Again, that means there aren't many terms where  $(x_i \overline{x})(y_i \overline{y}) < 0$

When we move on to correlation, we are really just expressing the covariance concept in standard units. The motivation for this might be obvious- if we are measuring strength of linear association, we shouldn't have to worry about whether we've measure in feet, in inches, or in miles.

## Correlation

If we think about it in this way the defining formula for random variables should make sense:

$$\rho(X,Y) \equiv E\left[\left(\frac{X-\mu_X}{\sigma_X}\right)\left(\frac{Y-\mu_Y}{\sigma_Y}\right)\right]$$

If we have data instead of random variables, we estimate this term in the most direct way as

$$r \equiv \hat{\rho} \equiv \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i} \left( \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{s_x} \right) \left( \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{s_y} \right)$$

# Sum of squares notation

Remember the "sum of squares" notation as follows:

$$SSX \equiv \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \sum x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i \sum x_i$$

$$SSY \equiv \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum y_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \sum y_i \sum y_i$$

$$SSXY \equiv \sum x_i y_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i \sum y_i$$

## Correlation coefficient - r

$$r = \hat{\rho} = \sum \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sqrt{SSX}}\right) \left(\frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{\sqrt{SSY}}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{SSX SSY}} \sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) = \frac{SSXY}{\sqrt{SSX}\sqrt{SSY}}$$

## References

- https://d3c33hcgiwev3.cloudfront.net/\_9b250c9618ca8683ceba9343e0c0c83 a\_Introduction-to-R---Reviewing-Basic-Statistics.pdf?Expires=1581984000&S ignature=hEsUB9Mg6ZF5FQPLn8yluKBn9dH0EJyeuJnq2T6IYRAVyOgozc-i FsU7yKUDI4XvDVgxH2TAfSITQi3NE9TGT2804gEl~wSWXpaUdhP-IPZU~P QXBJftwlRaxc4yIndec~8prkGGVIIR5IMAGeXx9TXHhp3Ny9tdN5P-STkvw7U &Key-Pair-Id=APKAJLTNE6QMUY6HBC5A
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