Linear Regression-2

Prof. Asim Tewari IIT Bombay

It assumes that there is approximately a linear relationship between *X* and *Y*

$$Y \approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$$
 or $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$.

β0 and β1 are intercept slope known as the model coefficients or parameters

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x$$

Hat symbol, ^, to denote the estimated value for an unknown parameter or coefficient

Estimating the Coefficients

Least squares approach

The least squares approach chooses parameters to minimize the <u>residual sum of squares</u> (RSS)

$$e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$$
 represents i_th residual

$$RSS = e_1^2 + e_2^2 + \dots + e_n^2$$

RSS =
$$(y_1 - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_1)^2 + (y_2 - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_2)^2 + \dots + (y_n - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_n)^2$$

Estimating the Coefficients

$$\hat{\beta}_{1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})(y_{i} - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}},$$

$$\hat{\beta}_{0} = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_{1}\bar{x},$$

where
$$\bar{y} \equiv \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$$
 and $\bar{x} \equiv \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$

Assessing the Accuracy of the Coefficient Estimates

Standard Errors associated with coefficients

95% confidence interval associated with coefficients

$$g_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \gamma_1 + \epsilon_1$$

Assessing the Accuracy of the Coefficient Estimates

Standard Errors associated with coefficients

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_0)^2 = \sigma^2 \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \right], \quad SE(\hat{\beta}_1)^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2},$$

Where $G^2 = var(\epsilon)$ and it is around that ϵ_i are uncorrelated 95% confidence interval associated with variance σ^2

95% confidence interval associated with coefficients

$$\hat{\beta} \pm 1.96 SE(\hat{\beta}) \qquad \hat{\beta} \pm 1.96 SE(\hat{\beta},)$$

$$g_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \gamma_1 + \epsilon_1$$

Assessing the Accuracy of the Coefficient Estimates

Standard Errors associated with coefficients

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_0)^2 = \sigma^2 \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \right], \quad SE(\hat{\beta}_1)^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2},$$

Where $G^2 = var(\epsilon)$ and it is around that ϵ_i are uncorrelated 95% confidence interval associated with variance σ^2

95% confidence interval associated with coefficients

$$\hat{\beta} \pm 1.96 SE(\hat{\beta}) \qquad \hat{\beta} \pm 1.96 SE(\hat{\beta},)$$

Hypothesis tests on the coefficients

 H_0 : There is no relationship between X and Y

versus the alternative hypothesis

 H_a : There is some relationship between X and Y

Mathematically, this corresponds to testing

$$H_0: \beta_1 = 0$$
 versus $H_a: \beta_1 \neq 0$

For this we calculate t statistics which measures the number of standard deviations that $\hat{\beta}_1$ is away from 0. $\hat{\beta}_1 - 0$

ME 781: Statistical Machine Learning and Data Mining

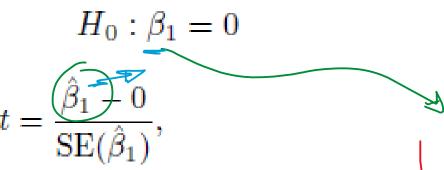
$$H_0: \beta_1 = 0$$

$$H_a: \beta_1 \neq 0$$

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - 0}{\text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_1)},$$

p-value is defined as

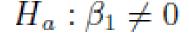
- ullet $\Pr(T \geq t|H)$ for a one-sided (right tail) test,
- $\Pr(T \leq t|H)$ for a one-sided (left tail) test,
- $2\min\{\Pr(T \leq t|H), \Pr(T \geq t|H)\}$ for a two-sided test,

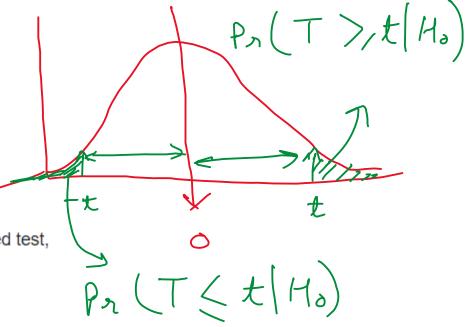


p-value is defined as ←

- ullet $\Pr(T \geq t|H)$ for a one-sided (right tail) test,
- $\Pr(T \leq t|H)$ for a one-sided (left tail) test,
- $2\min\{\Pr(T \leq t|H), \Pr(T \geq t|H)\}$ for a two-sided test,

95% Confidence 0(=1-C=0.05





Pr (observation | hypothesis) ≠ Pr (hypothesis | observation)

The probability of observing a result given that some hypothesis is true is *not equivalent* to the probability that a hypothesis is true given that some result has been observed.

p-value is defined as

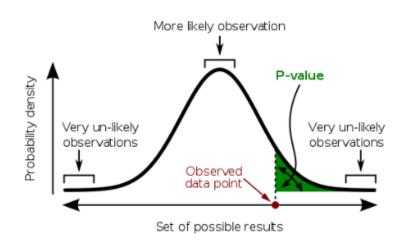
- $\bullet \Pr(T \geq t|H)$ for a one-sided (right tail) test,
- $\Pr(T \leq t|H)$ for a one-sided (left tail) test,
- $2\min\{\Pr(T \leq t|H), \Pr(T \geq t|H)\}$ for a two-sided test,

Notice that just by replacing T by -T one converts a test based on extremely large values to a test based on extremely small values; as by replacing T by |T| one gets a test with p-value

•
$$\Pr(T \le -|t||H) + \Pr(T \ge +|t||H)$$
.

p-value is defined as

- ullet $\Pr(T \geq t|H)$ for a one-sided (right tail) test,
- ullet $\Pr(T \leq t|H)$ for a one-sided (left tail) test,
- $2\min\{\Pr(T \leq t|H), \Pr(T \geq t|H)\}$ for a two-sided test,

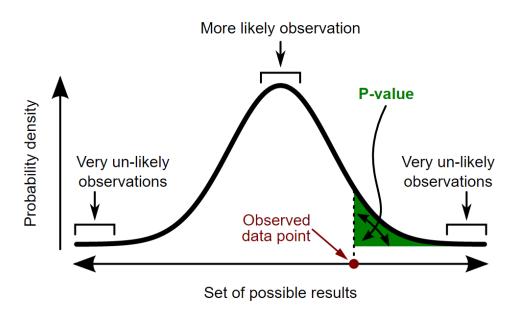


A **p-value** (shaded green area) is the probability of an observed (or more extreme) result assuming that the null hypothesis is true.

Notice that just by replacing T by -T one converts a test based on extremely large values to a test based on extremely small values; and by replacing T by |T| one gets a test with p-value

•
$$\Pr(T \le -|t||H) + \Pr(T \ge +|t||H)$$
.

P-Value is the probability of observing any value equal to |t| or larger for a t-distribution with n-2 degrees of freedom

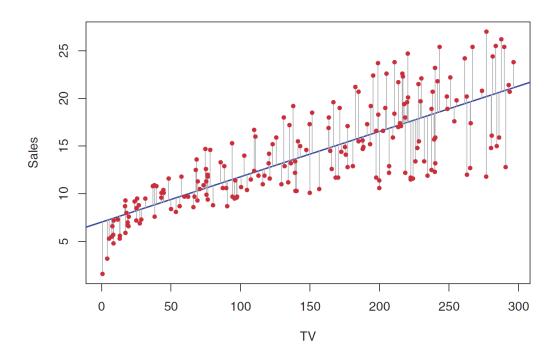


A **p-value** (shaded green area) is the probability of an observed (or more extreme) result assuming that the null hypothesis is true.

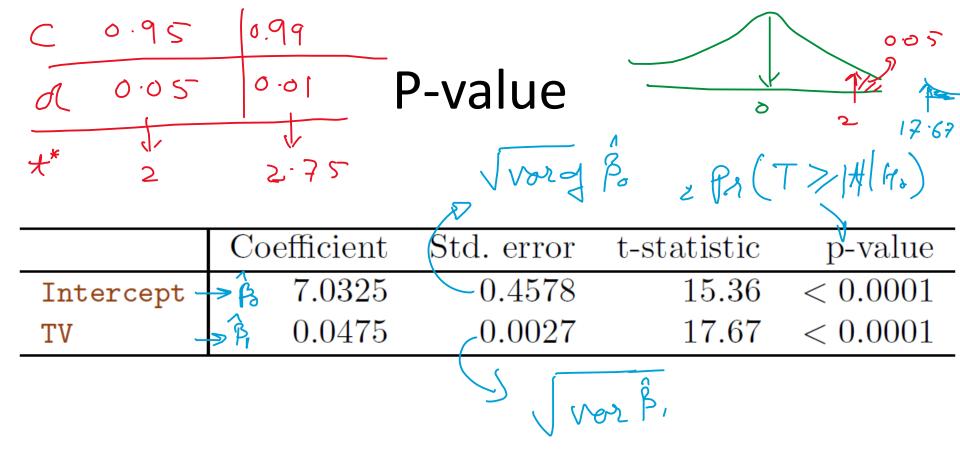
$$t = rac{\hat{eta}_1 - 0}{\mathrm{SE}(\hat{eta}_1)},$$
 $For a p-dimension \times with t distable of t and t dot$

 The p-value represents the chance your results could be random (i.e. happened by chance).

 So a small p-value means that there is a small chance that your results are random. Thus, they are not random. So we can infer that there is an association between the predictor and the response (i.e we reject the null hypothesis)



For the Advertising data, the least squares fit for the regression of sales onto TV is shown. The fit is found by minimizing the sum of squared errors. Each grey line segment represents an error, and the fit makes a compromise by averaging their squares. In this case a linear fit captures the essence of the relationship, although it is somewhat deficient in the left of the plot.



For the Advertising data, coefficients of the least squares model for the regression of number of units sold on TV advertising budget. An increase of \$1,000 in the TV advertising budget is associated with an increase in sales by around 50 units (Recall that the sales variable is in thousands of units, and the TV variable is in thousands of dollars).

SE of a mean of a RV

Standard error =
$$Vor(M)$$

= $\frac{6}{\sqrt{m}}$

SE($\hat{\beta}_0$) = $\frac{1}{2}$

SE($\hat{\beta}_0$) = $\frac{1}{2}$

SE of a mean of a RV

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_{0})^{2} = \sigma^{2} \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n^{2}} \right]$$

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_{0})^{2} = \frac{1}{n^{2}} \left[\frac{1}{n^{2}} + \frac{1}{n^{2}} \right]$$

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_{0})^{2} = \frac{1}{n^{2}} \left[\frac{1}{$$

Assessing the Accuracy of the Model Residual Standard Error (RSE)

RSE =
$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2}}$$
RSS = $\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$
RSS = $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$

 ${\bf R^2}$ Statistic: The RSE provides an absolute measure, ${\bf R^2}$ provides a relative measure

$$R^{2} = \frac{\mathrm{TSS} - \mathrm{RSS}}{\mathrm{TSS}} = 1 - \frac{\mathrm{RSS}}{\mathrm{TSS}} \quad \text{where } \mathrm{TSS} = \sum (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}$$

$$R = \mathrm{Cor}(X, Y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})(y_{i} - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}}}$$