

Chapter 17: Regression

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Correlation vs regression

- Correlation measures the aspects of the linear relationship between two numerical variables
- **Regression** is a method that predicts values of one numerical variable from values of another numerical variable
- Fits a line through the data
 - Used for prediction
 - Measures how steeply one variable changes with the other

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Linear regression

- The most common type of regression
 - Although there are non-linear models (e.g., quadratic, logistic)
- Draws a straight line through the data to predict the response variable (Y , vertical axis) from the explanatory variable (X , horizontal axis)

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Ex 17.1: The lion's nose



- Trophy hunting of African lions typically aims to remove older males
- Is there a way to predict the age?
- Research has shown that the amount of black pigmentation on the nose of male lions increase with age

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Ex 17.1: The lion's nose



- Study used proportion black on nose (explanatory) to predict age (response)

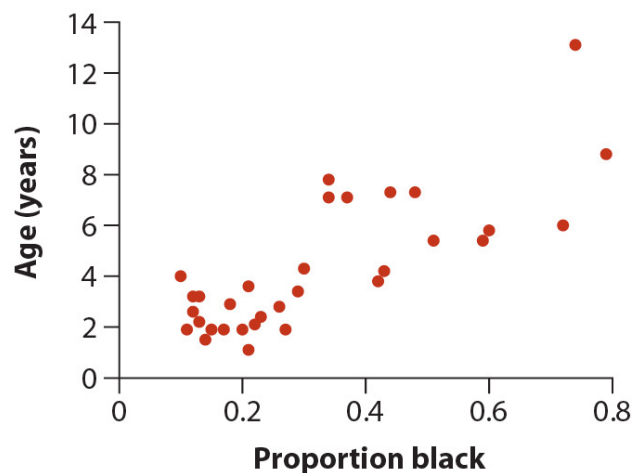


Fig 17.1-1

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Fitting the "best" line

- You want a line that gives the most accurate predictions of Y from X
- Least-squares regression: line for which the sum of all the squared deviations in Y is smallest

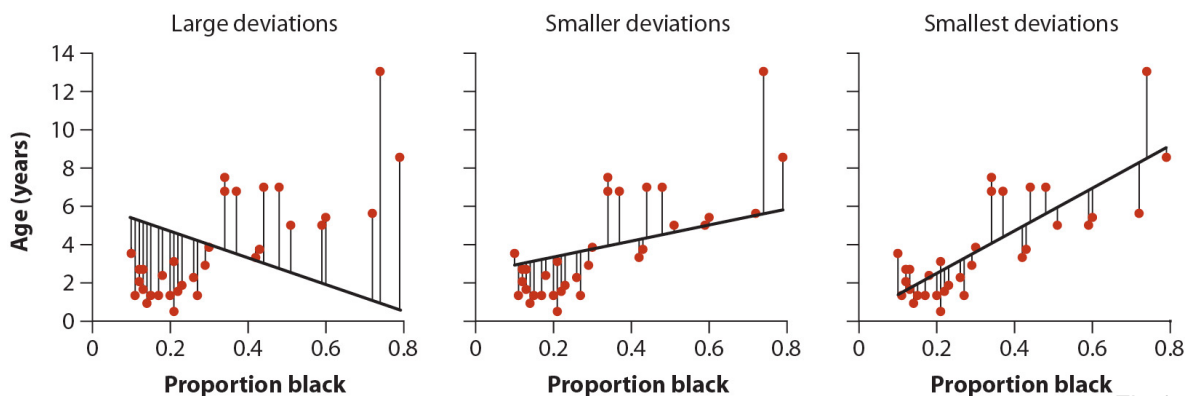


Fig 17.1-2

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Formula for the line

$$Y = a + bX$$

- a is the **Y -intercept**; b is the **slope**
- The **slope** of a linear regression is the rate of change in Y per unit X
- Also measures direction of prediction
 - Positive: as X increases Y increases
 - Negative: as X increases Y decreases

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Slopes and intercepts

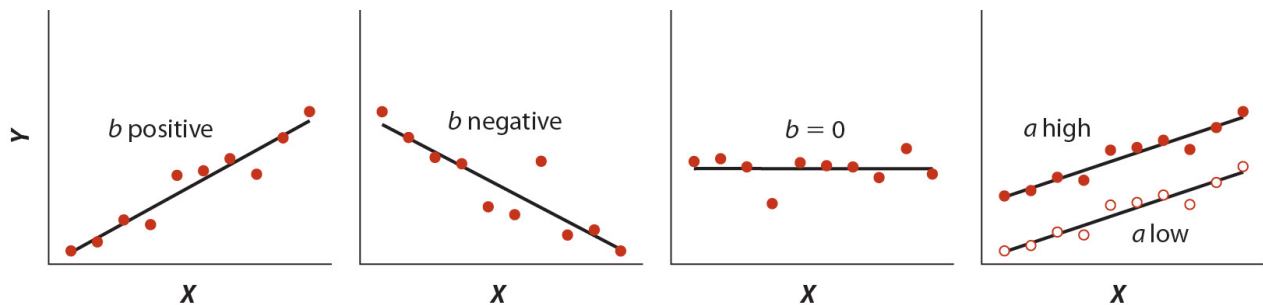


Fig 17.1-3

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Calculating slope

$$b = \frac{\sum_i (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_i (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

*Measures how deviations in
X and Y vary together*

Sum of squares for X

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Calculating intercept

- Once slope is calculated, getting intercept is straightforward because the least-squares regression **always** goes through point (\bar{X}, \bar{Y})

Plug mean values into line formula: $\bar{Y} = a + b\bar{X}$

Rearrange to solve for intercept: $a = \bar{Y} - b\bar{X}$

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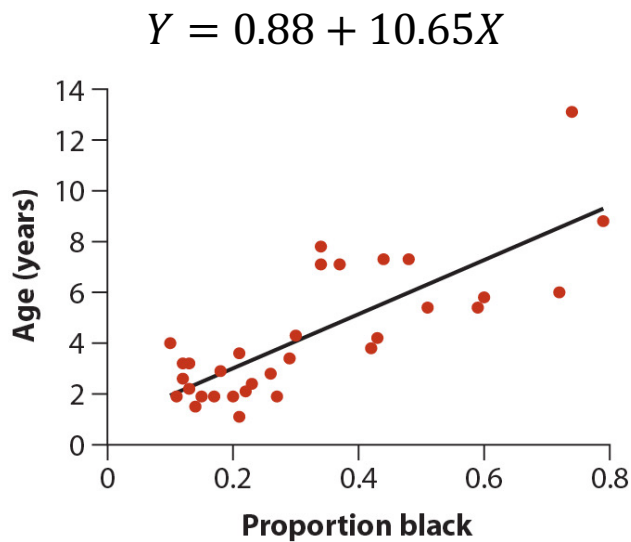
Ex 17.1: The lion's nose

$$b = \frac{\sum_i (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_i (X_i - \bar{X})^2} = \frac{13.0123}{1.2221} = 10.647$$

$$a = \bar{Y} - b\bar{X} = 4.3094 - 10.647(0.3222) = 0.879$$

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Ex 17.1: The lion's nose



- On average, lion age increases by 10.65 years per unit of change in proportion of nose that is black
- Or, 1.065 years for every 0.1 increase of proportion of black on nose

Fig 17.1-4

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Samples vs populations

- The slope (b) and intercept (a) are estimated from a sample of measurements, hence these are estimates/statistics
- The true population slope (β) and intercept (α) are parameters
- Regression assumes that there is a population for every value of X , and the mean Y for each of these populations lies on the regression line

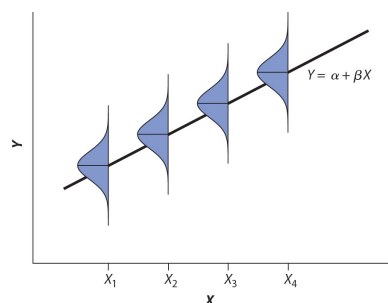


Fig 17.5-1

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Predicting values

- Now that you have the regression line you can predict values of Y for any specified value of X
- Predictions are mean Y for all individuals with value X
- Designated \hat{Y} , or “Y-hat”
- How old are lions with a proportion of black of 0.5?

$$\hat{Y} = 0.88 + 10.65(0.5) = 6.2$$

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How well do data fit line?

- The **residual** of a point is the difference between its measured Y value and the value of Y predicted by the regression line

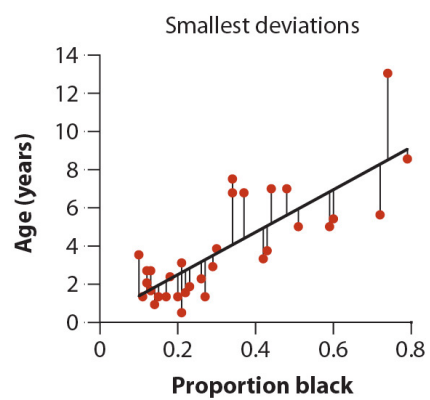


Fig 17.1-2

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How well do data fit line?

- **Residuals** measure the scatter of points above and below the least-squares regression line
- Can be positive or negative
- Variance in residuals (MS_{residual}) quantifies the spread of the scatter
 - **Residual mean square**
 - Analogous to error mean square in ANOVA
- Used to quantify the uncertainty of the slope

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Residual mean square

$$MS_{\text{residual}} = \frac{\sum_i (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 - b \sum_i (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{n - 2}$$
$$= \frac{222.0872 - 10.647(13.0123)}{32 - 2} = 2.785$$

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Standard error of slope

- Uncertainty (precision) with the sample estimate (b) of the population slope (β)

$$SE_b = \sqrt{\frac{MS_{residual}}{\sum_i (X_i - \bar{X})^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{2.785}{1.2221}} = 1.510$$

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Confidence interval of the slope

$$b - t_{\alpha(2),df} SE_b > \beta > b + t_{\alpha(2),df} SE_b$$

$$10.647 - 2.042(1.510) > \beta > 10.647 + 2.042(1.510)$$

$$7.56 > \beta > 13.73$$

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Two types of predictions

- Predict **mean** Y for a given X
 - e.g., what is the mean age of all male lions whose noses are 60% black?
- Predict **single** Y for a given X
 - e.g., how old is that lion over there with a 60% black nose?
- Both predictions give the same value of \hat{Y} , but they **differ in precision**
 - Can predict mean with more certainty than a single value

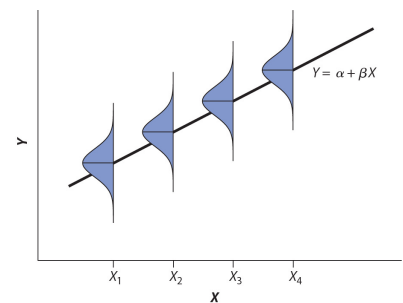


Fig 17.5-1

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Two types of predictions

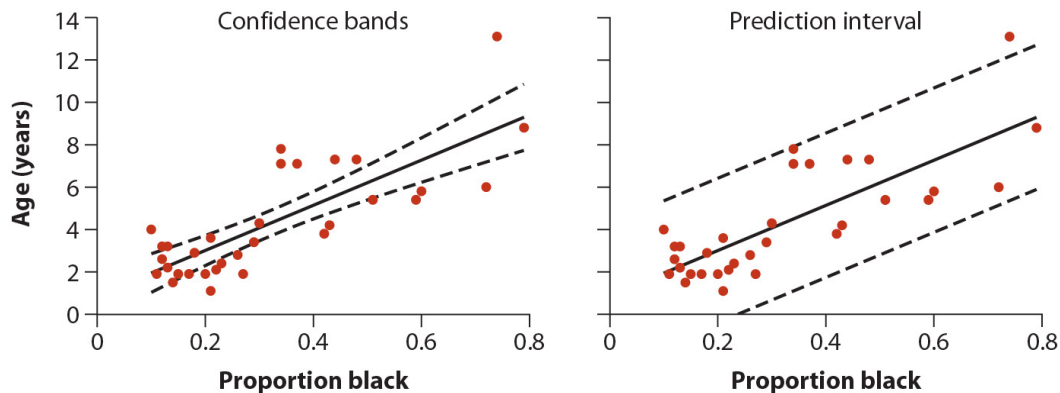


Fig 17.2-1

- **Confidence bands** measure the precision of the predicted mean Y for each value of X . **Prediction intervals** measure the precision of the predicted single Y -values for each X

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Extrapolation

- Regressions should be used to predict Y for any value of X lying between the smallest and largest values of X (**interpolation**)
- **Extrapolation** is the prediction of the value of a response variable outside the range of X -values in the data
- No way to ensure the relationship continues to be linear beyond the range of the data!

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Testing hypotheses about a slope

- H_0 : age cannot be predicted by proportion of black on nose ($\beta = 0$)
- H_A : age can be predicted by proportion of black on nose ($\beta \neq 0$)

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t-test of regression slope

- *t*-statistic $t = \frac{b - \beta_0}{SE_b} \quad df = n - 2$
$$t = \frac{10.65 - 0}{1.510} = 7.053 \quad df = 32 - 2 = 30$$
- *P*-value for $t_{30} = 7.053$?
- $P = 7.68 \times 10^{-8}$ (**reject the null** hypothesis that $\beta = 0$)

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ANOVA (F) approach

- Recall two source of variation in ANOVA
 - Among groups (MS_{groups})
 - Within groups (MS_{error})
- In regression framework:
- Deviations between the predicted values \hat{Y}_i and \bar{Y}
 - Analogous to MS_{groups}
- Deviations between each Y_i and its predictive value \hat{Y}_i
 - Analogous to MS_{error}

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ANOVA (F) approach

- Using ANOVA approach will generate the same P -value as the t -test approach
- Can be used to measure R^2 : the fraction of the variation in Y that is “explained” by X

$$R^2 = \frac{SS_{regression}}{SS_{total}}$$

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summary(regression) in R

```
summary(lionRegression)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = ageInYears ~ proportionBlack, data = lion)
##
## Residuals:
##      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
## -2.5449 -1.1117 -0.5285  0.9635  4.3421
##
## Coefficients:
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)    0.8790     0.5688   1.545    0.133
## proportionBlack 10.6471     1.5095   7.053 7.68e-08 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 1.669 on 30 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared:  0.6238    Adjusted R-squared:  0.6113
## F-statistic: 49.75 on 1 and 30 DF,  p-value: 7.677e-08
```

Y-intercept

slope

R^2

P-value
 $H_0: \alpha = 0$

P-value
 $H_0: \beta = 0$

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Regression toward the mean

- **Regression toward the mean** results when two variables measured on a sample of individuals have a correlation less than one. Individuals that are far from the mean for one of the measurements will, on average, lie closer to the mean for the other measurement

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Regression toward the mean

- Cholesterol measurements before and after drug
- Solid line: linear regression
- Dashed line: one-to-one line with slope of 1

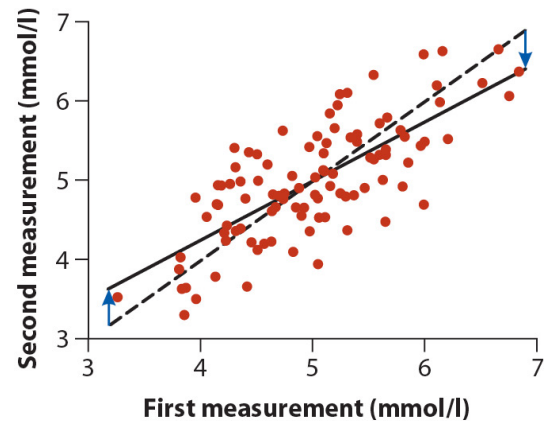


Fig 17.4-1

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Assumptions of linear regression

- At each value of X :
 - there is a population of Y -values whose mean lies on the regression line
 - the distribution of possible Y -values is normal (with same variance)
 - The variance of Y -values is the same at all values of X
 - the Y -measurements represent a random sample from the possible Y -values

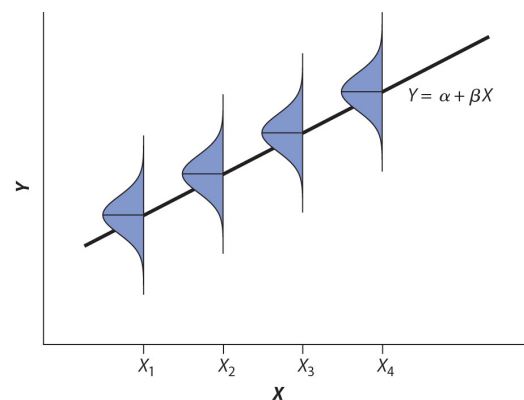


Fig 17.5-1

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Detecting issues

- **Outliers**
- If only one (or a low number) then it may be reasonable to report regression with and without outlier

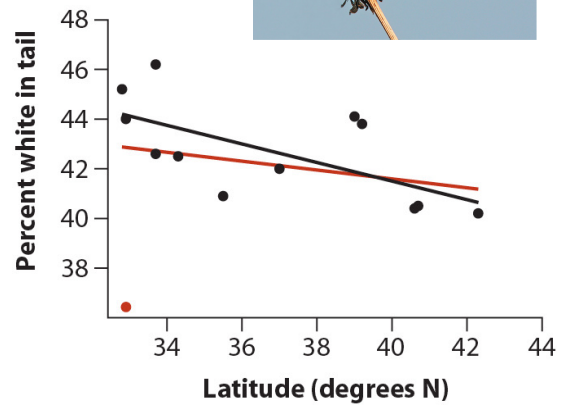


Fig 17.5-2

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Detecting issues

- **Nonlinearity** can be detected by inspecting graphs

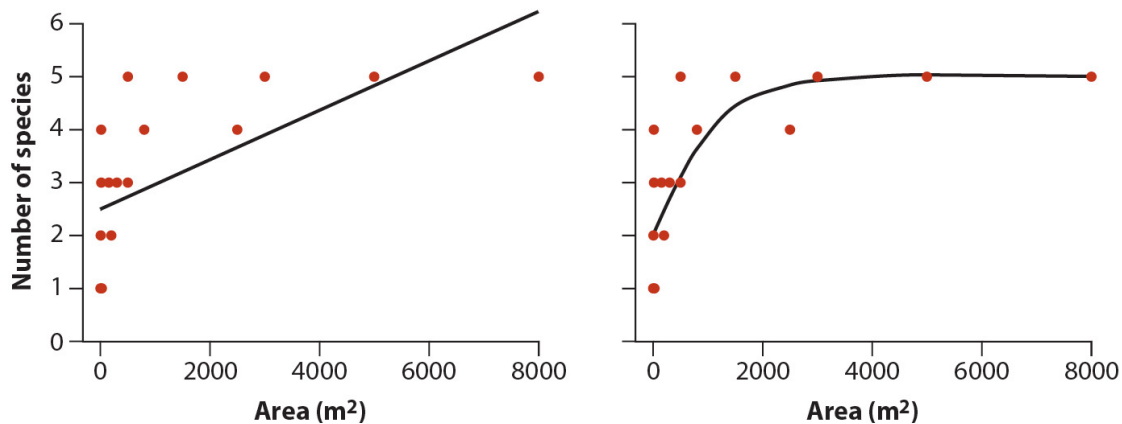


Fig 17.5-3

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Detecting issues

- **Non-normality and unequal variances** can be inspected with a residual plot
- Residual plot: residual of every data point ($Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$) is plotted against X_i
- If assumptions of normality and equal variances are met then there should be a roughly symmetric cloud above/below horizontal line at 0

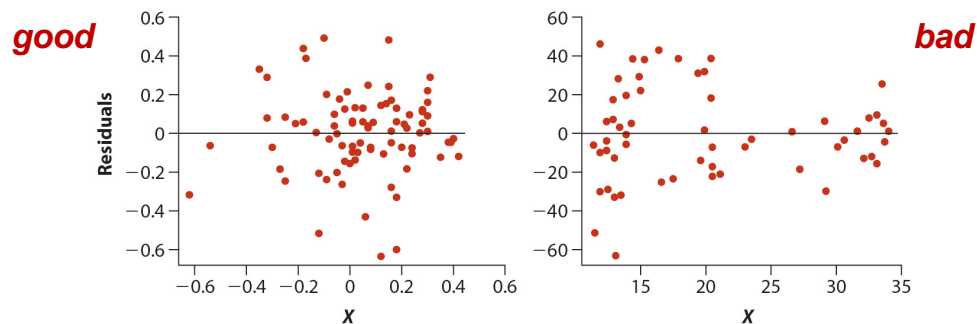


Fig 17.5-4

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Notes

- Skipping sections 17.6 through 17.9

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