### Unit 4: Review of Regression

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Spring 2020

# Readings for Unit 4

Textbook chapter 2.1.



### Last Unit

- Stationarity
- 2 Autocovariance and Autocorrelation of Stationary Time Series
- Stimating the ACF

### This Unit

- Parameter Estimation
- Model Selection
- Oiagnostics

### Motivation

In time series analysis, we frequently would prefer to analyze a stationary process. This allows us to better estimate autocorrelation and other quantities of interest. In addition, ARMA processes provide a rich framework for analyzing stationary processes. A strong trend, however, may **obscure** the behavior of the stationary process. It may, therefore, be necessary to **remove** a trend; one way to do that is via regression.

- 1 Linear Regression Basics
- Parameter Estimation
- Model Selection
- 4 Diagnostics
- Worked Example

## Linear Regression Basics

The basic data type for regression consists of a list of pairs of numbers,  $(x_1, z_1), ..., (x_n, z_n)$ , where the  $x_i$  are thought of as the response variables and  $z_i$  are thought of as the predictor variables. The simple linear regression model would then be

$$x_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 z_t + w_t$$

for t = 1, ..., n where  $w_t, t = 1, ..., n$  are zero-mean iid normal random variables with variance  $\sigma_w^2$ .

# Linear Regression Basics

We can extend this to multiple predictors with a model

$$x_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 z_{t1} + ... + \beta_q z_{tq} + w_t.$$

Using vector notation, the linear regression model can be written as

$$x_t = \beta' z_t + w_t \tag{1}$$

where 
$$\boldsymbol{\beta'}=(\beta_0,\beta_1,\cdots,\beta_q)$$
 and  $\boldsymbol{z_t}=(1,z_{t1},z_{t2},\cdots,z_{tq})'$ .

- 1 Linear Regression Basics
- 2 Parameter Estimation
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### Parameter Estimation

Estimating the parameter vector  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  is done by minimizing the error sum of squares

$$Q = \sum_{t=1}^{n} (x_t - \beta' \mathbf{z_t})^2$$
 (2)

with respect to  $\beta_0, \beta_1, \cdots, \beta_q$ . Let the matrix  $\mathbf{Z} = (1, z_1, z_2, \cdots, z_n)'$  be the  $n \times (q+1)$  matrix of n samples of the predictor variables, and  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n)'$  the vector of response variables. It turns out that

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{Z}'\mathbf{Z})^{-1}\mathbf{Z}'\mathbf{x} \tag{3}$$

The estimators  $\hat{\beta}$  are unbiased, and are called **ordinary least** squares estimators.

### Parameter Estimation

The minimized error sum of squares, denoted by SSE, is

$$SSE = \sum_{t=1}^{n} (x_t - \hat{\beta}' \mathbf{z}_t)^2$$
 (4)

### Parameter Estimation

An unbiased estimator for the variance  $\sigma_w^2$  is

$$s_w^2 = MSE = \frac{SSE}{n - (q + 1)}. ag{5}$$

# Other Terminology

#### Fitted values:

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_t = \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}' \mathbf{z}_t. \tag{6}$$

#### Residuals:

$$e_i = x_t - \hat{x}_t. \tag{7}$$

### Inference

Assuming independent Gaussian errors, we can build confidence intervals using statistics such as

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_i - \beta_i}{\text{standard error}(\hat{\beta}_i)}$$

which have a t-distribution with n-(q+1) d.f, and  $s_w^2$  is distributed proportionally to a  $\chi^2_{n-(q+1)}$ .

- Linear Regression Basics
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### Model Selection: Nested Models

Often times, we want to compare various competing models or select a subset of predictors. Consider a model that only has a subset r < q predictors  $\mathbf{z_{t,1:r}} = (z_{t1}, z_{t2}, \cdots, z_{tr})'$ ,

$$x_t = \beta_r' z_{t,1:r} + w_t. \tag{8}$$

(8) is called the **reduced** model, and is compared with the **full** model, as specified in (1), which has all q predictor variables. Models (1) and (8) are called **nested** models since all the terms in the reduced model occur in the full model.

### Model Selection: Nested Models

With nested models, we compare the SSE of both models using the partial F statistic

$$F_{q-r,n-q-1} = \frac{SSE_r - SSE}{SSE} \frac{n-q-1}{q-r},\tag{9}$$

where  $SSE_r$  denotes the SSE of the reduced model.

### Model Selection: Non-Nested Models

When comparing non-nested models, we can use the Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC)

$$AIC = \log \hat{\sigma_k}^2 + \frac{n+2k}{n},\tag{10}$$

where  $\hat{\sigma_k}^2 = \frac{SSE(k)}{n}$  and SSE(k) is the SSE for a model with k regression coefficients. For model selection, we would like to **minimize** the AIC.

### Coefficient of Determination

The coefficient of determination,  $R^2$ , is a popular measure of model fit. For example, for the full model,

$$R^2 = \frac{SSE_0 - SSE}{SSE_0},\tag{11}$$

where  $SSE_0$  is the total sum of squares.  $R^2$  is interpreted as the proportion of the variance in the response variable that can be explained by our model.

**Question:** When should  $R^2$  be used / not used?

- Linear Regression Basics
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# Assumptions for Linear Regression

### The assumptions for linear regression are

- There exist a linear relationship between the response and predictor variables.
- $E(w_i) = 0$ .
- $Var(w_i) = \sigma_w^2$  is constant and finite.
- w<sub>i</sub>'s are uncorrelated.
- w<sub>i</sub> are iid normal.

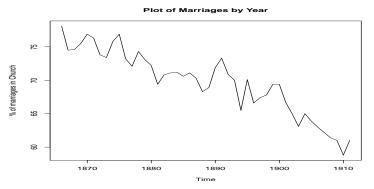
## Diagnostics

Use the following to check regression assumptions are satisfied:

- Residual plot: to check if right regression equation used, variance of errors is constant, mean of errors is zero.
- ACF plot: to determine correlation.
- Normal probability plot: to check for normality.

- Linear Regression Basics
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In this example, we go back to the data regarding number of marriages in the Church of England.



We choose to fit a simple linear regression because of the apparent decreasing trend.



```
> timefit<-lm(marriages~time)</pre>
```

> summary(timefit)

#### Coefficients:

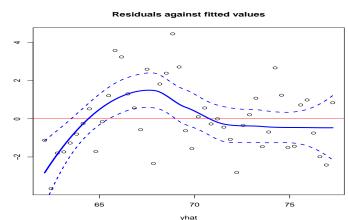
```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|) (Intercept) 704.78168 37.93471 18.58 <2e-16 *** time -0.33629 0.02009 -16.74 <2e-16 ***
```

```
Residual standard error: 1.809 on 44 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.8643, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8612
F-statistic: 280.3 on 1 and 44 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

```
> AIC(timefit)
[1] 189.0146
```



### Check residual plot.



Curvature present. Let's add a square term for time.



- > timesq<-time^2
  > timefitsq<-lm(marriages~time+timesq)</pre>
- > anova(timefitsq)

Analysis of Variance Table

```
Response: marriages
```

```
Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
time 1 916.90 916.90 324.6874 < 2.2e-16 ***
timesq 1 22.50 22.50 7.9682 0.007182 **
```

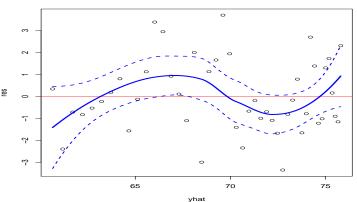
Residuals 43 121.43 2.82

```
> AIC(timefitsq)
[1] 183.1945
```

P-value for timesq is significant. AIC has gone down, indicating the fit of the model has improved.

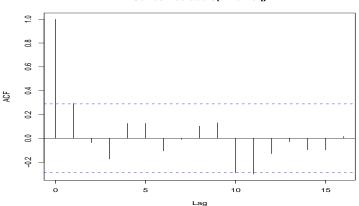
### Check residual plot.

#### Residuals against fitted values

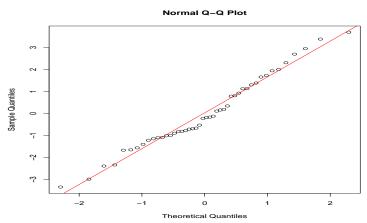


### Check ACF plot.

#### Series residuals(timefitsq)



### Check QQ plot.





Another possibility is that we wish to compare two time series via regression. We can treat one series as fixed, and the other series as simply a linearly transformed, perturbed version of that series. For example, is the percentage of marriages in the Church of England linearly related to the mortality rate in England?

- > comparefit<-lm(marriages~mortality)</pre>
- > summary(comparefit)

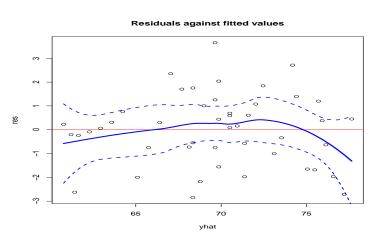
#### Coefficients:

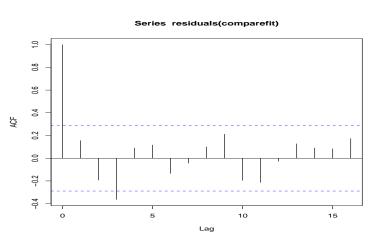
```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 30.0553 1.9439 15.46 <2e-16 ***
mortality 2.1633 0.1054 20.52 <2e-16 ***
```

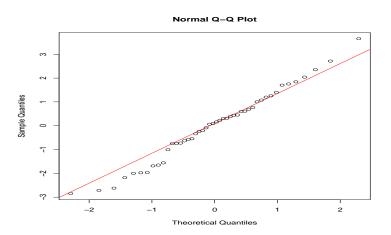
```
Residual standard error: 1.51 on 44 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.9054, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9033
F-statistic: 421.3 on 1 and 44 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

```
> AIC(comparefit)
[1] 172.4094
```











# Marriages in Church of England against Mortality Rate and Year

Use both mortality rate and year as predictor variables.

```
> comparetimefit<-lm(marriages~mortality+time)
> anova(comparetimefit)
Analysis of Variance Table
```

```
Response: marriages
```

```
Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
mortality 1 960.52 960.52 416.149 <2e-16 ***
time 1 1.07 1.07 0.464 0.4994
Residuals 43 99.25 2.31
```

> AIC(comparetimefit)
[1] 173.9157

