

Linear Regression

Intermediate Data Analytics

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Introduction to Linear Regression

- ▶ Linear regression is a fundamental statistical method used for inference and prediction.
- ▶ Describes the relationship between two variables (two features of the world.)
- ▶ Useful for forecasting and finding out how much one variable affects another.
- ▶ Different from “correlation” in that it allows us to measure changes in the units of the variables of interest.
 - ▶ e.g. “When X increases by 1, we expect to see Y increase by 1.7”

From Correlation to Regression

- ▶ Recall correlation: Measures the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two variables.
- ▶ Regression builds on this: Not just describing the relationship, but modeling it to predict outcomes or infer causes.
- ▶ Single variable (simple) linear regression involves two variables: one independent (predictor, X) and one dependent (outcome, Y).
- ▶ Multiple regression involves more than one independent variables (more than one X determining Y).

The Linear Regression Model

- ▶ The equation of a line: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$
 - ▶ Y : Dependent variable (what we're trying to predict)
 - ▶ X : Independent variable (predictor)
 - ▶ β_0 : Intercept (value of Y when $X = 0$)
 - ▶ β_1 : Slope (change in Y for a one-unit change in X)
 - ▶ ϵ : Error term (difference between observed and predicted values)

The “Error” or “Residual”

- ▶ Error, also called “residual”
 - ▶ ϵ_i for observation i , is equal to $y_i - \hat{y}_i$ where y_i is the actual value and \hat{y}_i is the predicted value.
- ▶ Don't get mixed up, Error = Actual - Predicted, not the other way around!

Sum Squared of Errors (SSE)

- ▶ SSE measures the total deviation of the response values from the fit line.
- ▶ Formula: $SSE = \sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$ where y_i is the actual value and \hat{y}_i is the predicted value.
- ▶ Minimizing SSE helps in finding the best-fitting line.

Simulating Data: Crime vs. Temperature in Chicago

- ▶ Assume a positive relationship between temperature and crime rates.
- ▶ We'll simulate data for a basic analysis:
 - ▶ Temperature: Predictor (X).
 - ▶ Crime Rate: Dependent variable (Y).

Plotting and Analysis

- ▶ We'll plot our simulated data.
- ▶ Fit a linear regression model.
- ▶ Visualize the line of best fit with error bars.

Simulating some Crime Data

- ▶ I am hardcoding a relationship where each degree of temperature increases crime rate by 1.5.
- ▶ I am adding a normally distributed “error” to that (noise) that has mean of 0 and sd of 5.

```
set.seed(123)  # for reproducibility
# drawing 100 temperatures in
# Fahrenheit from a uniform
# distribution
temperature <- runif(100, min = 30, max = 100)
crime_rate <- 1.5 * temperature + rnorm(100,
    mean = 0, sd = 5)  # Simulated crime rate
# that `+rnorm` is me simulating an
# error term
chicago <- data.frame(temperature, crime_rate)
```

Fitting a model.

The theoretical model:

- ▶ $CrimeRate = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * Temperature + \epsilon$

The fitted model using our sample data:

- ▶ $PredictedCrimeRate = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 * Temperature$
- ▶ We *assume* the error is, on average, equal to 0. (I did hardcode it that way.)
 - ▶ If it's not, we have to use more advanced techniques.

```
# Fit a linear model  
model <- lm(crime_rate ~ temperature, data = chicago)
```

Viewing the results

► $\text{PredictedCrimeRate} = .14770 + 1.49358 * \text{Temperature}$

Imagine temperature is 50, then we predict:

► $\text{PredictedCrimeRate} = .14770 + 1.49358 * 50 = 76.156$

```
summary(model)
```

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = crime_rate ~ temperature, data = chicago)
##
## Residuals:
##      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
## -11.1899  -3.0661  -0.0987   2.9817  11.0861
##
## Coefficients:
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)  0.14770    1.65702   0.089   0.929
## temperature  1.49358    0.02442  61.173 <2e-16 ***
```

Cleaner way to observe the regression coefficients

```
model$coefficients
```

```
## (Intercept) temperature  
##    0.1476965    1.4935835
```

Predicting crime?

- ▶ The “predict” command will automatically do the previous calculation for all observations
- ▶ It plugs in values of temperature from each observation to the model.
- ▶ We can then calculate our “error” term for each observation by subtracting predicted from actual.

```
# Add predictions to the dataset
```

```
chicago$predicted_crime_rate <- predict(model,  
  data = chicago)
```

```
# Calculate residuals (errors)
```

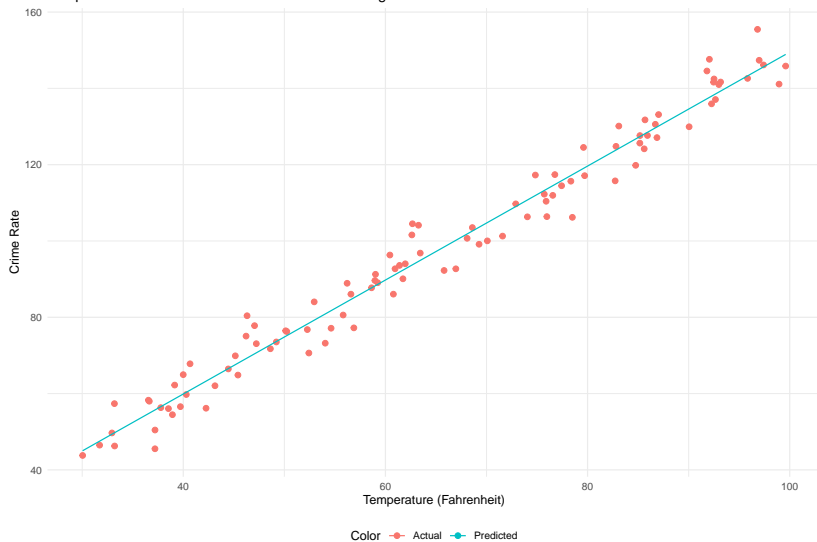
```
chicago$residuals <- with(chicago, crime_rate -  
  predicted_crime_rate)
```

Plotting it

- ▶ NOTE: Us saying `geom_line(aes(y=predicted))` is the same as us doing `geom_smooth(method=lm)`
 - ▶ We ran the `lm`, the “linear model”, already!

```
plot1 <- ggplot(chicago, aes(x = temperature, y = crime_rate)) +  
  geom_point(aes(color = "Actual"), size = 2) + # Actual data  
  geom_line(aes(y = predicted_crime_rate, color = "Predicted")) +  
  labs(title = "Temperature as a Function of Crime Rate in Chicago",  
        x = "Temperature (Fahrenheit)", y = "Crime Rate", color = "Type") +  
  theme_minimal() +  
  theme(legend.position = "bottom")
```

Temperature as a Function of Crime Rate in Chicago

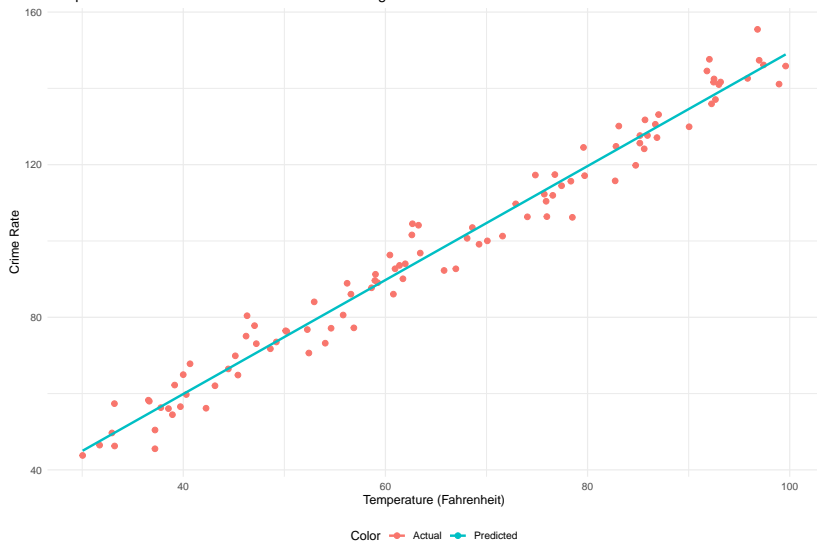


Let me prove it to you

- Notice how the little message it gives when you run it literally says “using formula = $y \sim x$ ”

```
plot2 <- ggplot(chicago, aes(x = temperature, y = crime_rate)) +  
  geom_point(aes(color = "Actual"), size = 2) + # Actual data  
  geom_smooth(method="lm", aes(color="Predicted"), se=FALSE) +  
  labs(title = "Temperature as a Function of Crime Rate in Chicago",  
        x = "Temperature (Fahrenheit)", y = "Crime Rate",  
        theme_minimal() +  
        theme(legend.position = "bottom"))
```

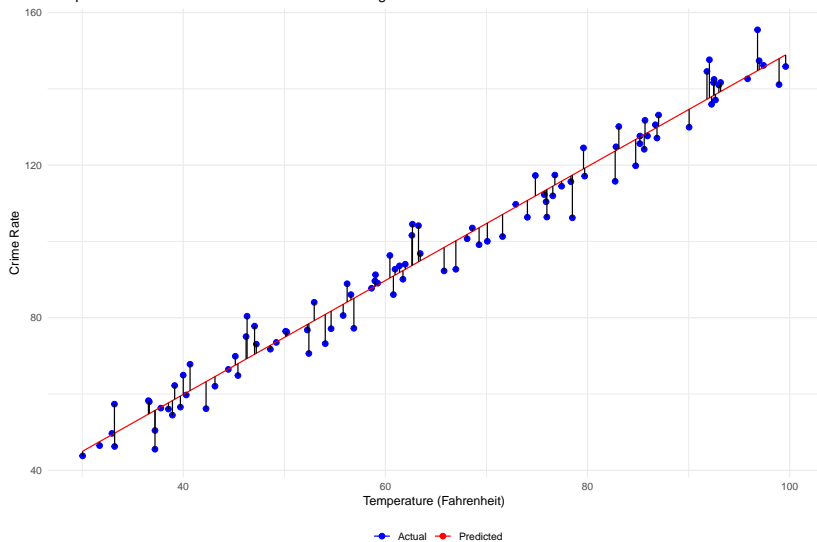

Temperature as a Function of Crime Rate in Chicago



Plotting with errors

```
plot_errors <- ggplot(chicago, aes(x = temperature, y = crime_rate)) +  
  geom_point(aes(color = "Actual"), size = 2) + # Actual data points  
  geom_line(aes(y = predicted_crime_rate, color = "Predicted")) +  
  geom_segment(aes(xend = temperature, yend = predicted_crime_rate)) +  
  scale_color_manual("", breaks = c("Actual", "Predicted")) +  
  labs(title = "Temperature as a Function of Crime Rate in Chicago",  
        x = "Temperature (Fahrenheit)", y = "Crime Rate", color = "Type") +  
  theme_minimal() +  
  theme(legend.position = "bottom")
```

Temperature as a Function of Crime Rate in Chicago



Understanding the Model Output

```
##
```

```
## Call:
```

```
## lm(formula = crime_rate ~ temperature, data = chicago)
```

```
##
```

```
## Residuals:
```

```
##      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
## -11.1899  -3.0661  -0.0987   2.9817  11.0861
```

```
##
```

```
## Coefficients:
```

```
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)  0.14770    1.65702   0.089    0.929
## temperature  1.49358    0.02442  61.173   <2e-16 ***
```

```
## ---
```

```
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1
```

```
##
```

```
## Residual standard error: 4.846 on 98 degrees of freedom
```

```
## Multiple R-squared:  0.9745, Adjusted R-squared:  0.9742
```

```
## F-statistic: 3742 on 1 and 98 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

Statistical Significance

- ▶ Each coefficient in the regression model is hypothesis tested
 - ▶ $H_0 : \beta_k = 0$
 - ▶ $H_1 : \beta_k \neq 0$
- ▶ If the sample coefficient $\hat{\beta}_k$ is large enough (in absolute value) relative to its standard error, the odds of finding a coefficient that large if the true population coefficient β_k were 0, is very small
- ▶ p-value ($\Pr(>|t|)$) measures that probability
 - ▶ answers the question “If the null is true, $\beta_k = 0$, what is the probability of finding a sample coefficient $\hat{\beta}_k$ this large in magnitude or larger?”
 - ▶ p-value less than 0.05 is usually our standard for statistical significance.

Interpretations for your reference

Intercept

- ▶ What would we expect Y to be if $X = 0$?
- ▶ Can't be interpreted if we never observe $X = 0$ in our data.

R-squared

- ▶ Answers the question “how much of the variation in Y can be explained by variation in our X variables?”

F-statistic

- ▶ $H_0: \beta_k$ for all $k = 0$
- ▶ H_1 : At least one $\beta_k \neq 0$
- ▶ Answers the question “is at least one of our X variables statistically significant?”
 - ▶ If p-value is small, then yes.

On Wednesday

- ▶ We will do some hands-on coding and exercises with regression.
- ▶ If you feel uncomfortable with some of the statistics here, you need to review.