Linear correlation and linear regression

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Recall: Covariance

$$cov(x,y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{X})(y_i - \overline{Y})}{n-1}$$

Interpreting Covariance

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cov(X,Y) > 0 \longrightarrow X and Y are positively correlated
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 $cov(X,Y) < 0 \longrightarrow X$ and Y are inversely correlated

 $cov(X,Y) = 0 \longrightarrow X$ and Y are independent

Correlation coefficient

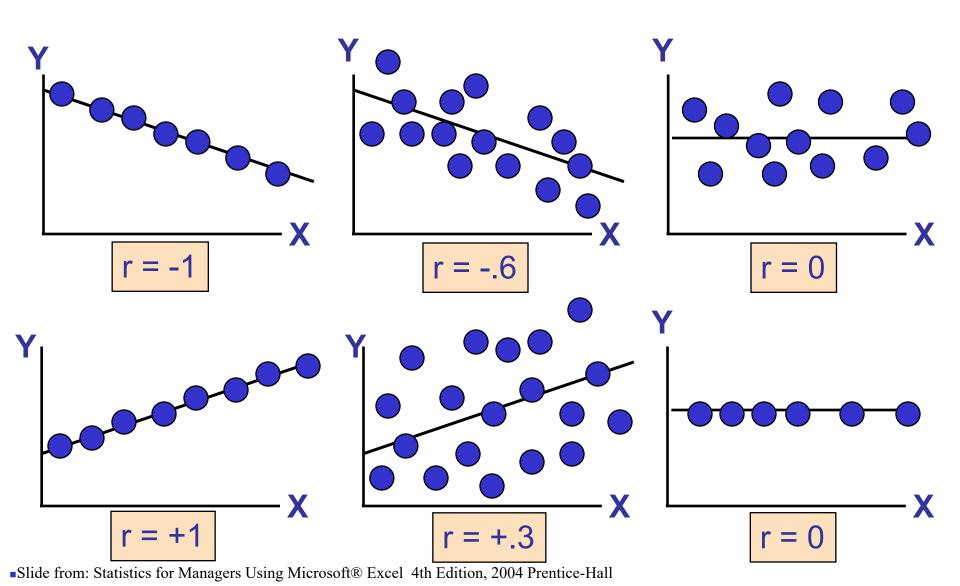
Pearson's Correlation Coefficient is standardized covariance (unitless):

$$r = \frac{\text{cov} \, ariance(x, y)}{\sqrt{\text{var} \, x} \sqrt{\text{var} \, y}}$$

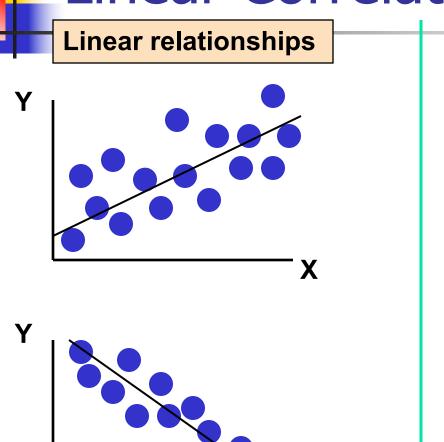
Correlation

- Measures the relative strength of the *linear* relationship between two variables
- Unit-less
- Ranges between −1 and 1
- The closer to −1, the stronger the negative linear relationship
- The closer to 1, the stronger the positive linear relationship
- The closer to 0, the weaker any positive linear relationship

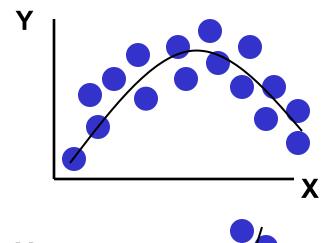
Scatter Plots of Data with Various Correlation Coefficients

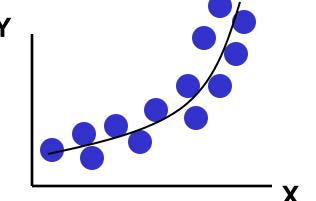


Linear Correlation

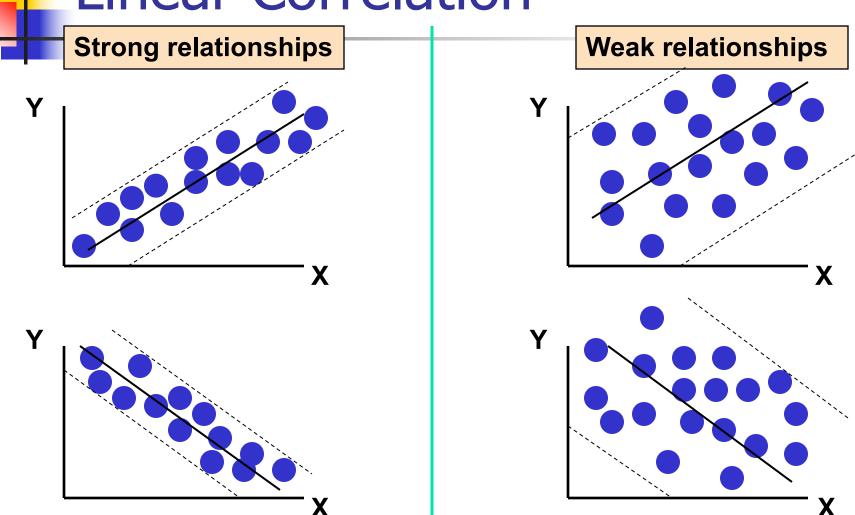


Curvilinear relationships



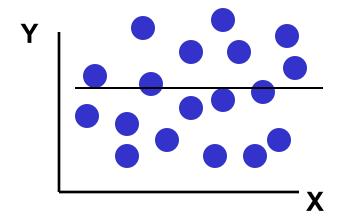


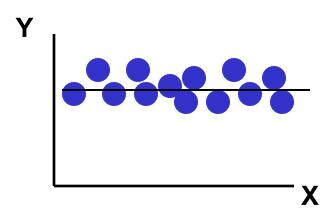
Linear Correlation





No relationship

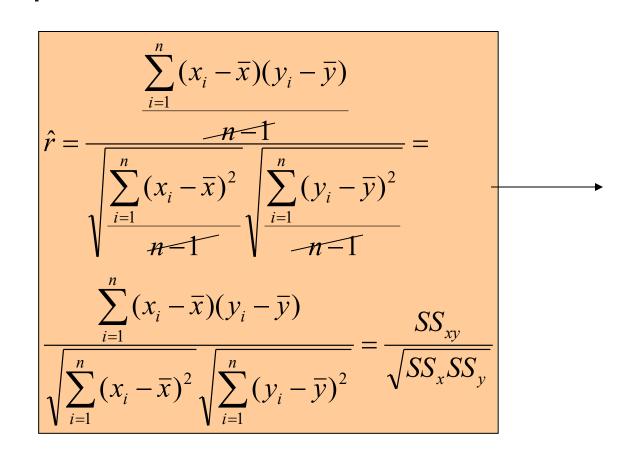


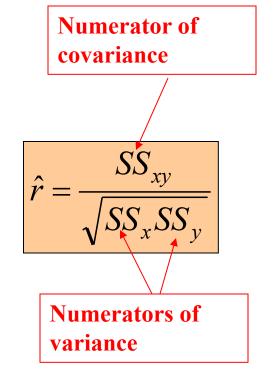


Calculating by hand...

$$\hat{r} = \frac{\text{cov } ariance(x, y)}{\sqrt{\text{var } x} \sqrt{\text{var } y}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2}$$

Simpler calculation formula...



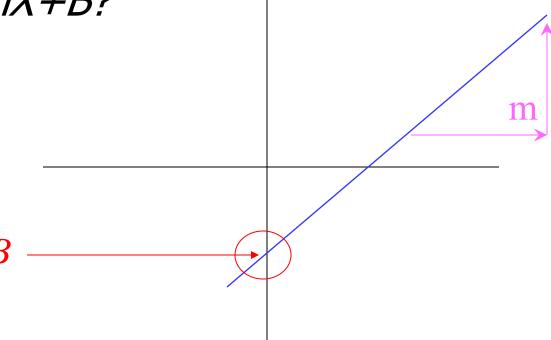


Linear regression

In correlation, the two variables are treated as equals. In regression, one variable is considered independent (=predictor) variable (X) and the other the dependent (=outcome) variable Y.

What is "Linear"?

- Remember this:
- *Y=mX+B?*



What's Slope?

A slope of 2 means that every 1-unit change in X yields a 2-unit change in Y.

Predicted value for an individual...

$$\hat{y}_i = \alpha + \beta * x_i + random error_i$$

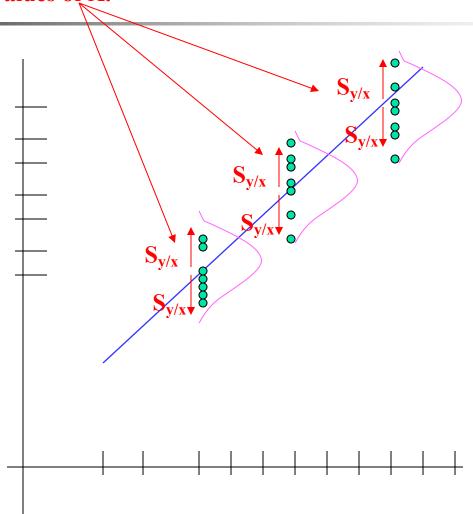
Fixed – exactly on the line

Follows a normal distribution

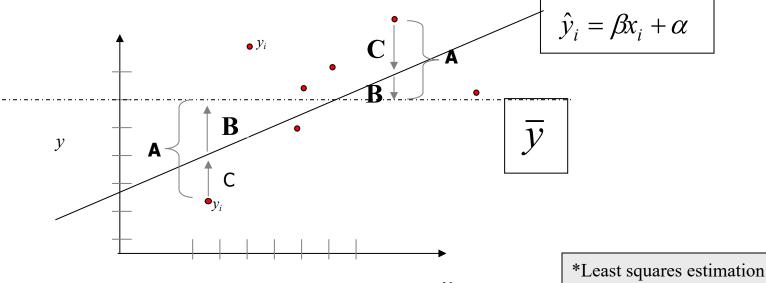


- Linear regression assumes that...
 - 1. The relationship between X and Y is linear
 - 2. Y is distributed normally at each value of X
 - 3. The variance of Y at every value of X is the same (homogeneity of variances)
 - 4. The observations are independent

The standard error of Y given X is the average variability around the regression line at any given value of X. It is assumed to be equal at all values of X.



Regression Picture



 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_i - y_i)$

gave us the line (β) that minimized C^2

 $R^2 = SS_{reg}/SS_{total}$

 A^2

SS_{total}

Total squared distance of observations from naïve mean of v

Total variation

 \mathbf{B}^2

 SS_{re}

Distance from regression line to naïve mean of y Variability due to x (regression)

 C^2

 SS_{residi}

Variance around the regression line

Additional variability not explained by x—what least squares method aims to minimize

Estimating the intercept and slope: least squares estimation

** Least Squares Estimation

A little calculus....

What are we trying to estimate? β , the slope, from

What's the constraint? We are trying to minimize the squared distance (hence the "least squares") between the observations themselves and the predicted values, or (also called the "residuals", or left-over unexplained variability)

Difference_i = $y_i - (\beta x + \alpha)$ Difference_i² = $(y_i - (\beta x + \alpha))^2$

Find the β that gives the minimum sum of the squared differences. How do you maximize a function? Take the derivative; set it equal to zero; and solve. Typical max/min problem from calculus....

$$\frac{d}{d\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - (\beta x_i + \alpha))^2 = 2(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \beta x_i - \alpha)(-x_i))$$

$$2(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (-y_i x_i + \beta x_i^2 + \alpha x_i)) = 0...$$

From here takes a little math trickery to solve for β ...



Resulting formulas...

Slope (beta coefficient) =
$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{Cov(x, y)}{Var(x)}$$

Intercept= Calculate:
$$\hat{\alpha} = \overline{y} - \hat{\beta}\overline{x}$$

Regression line always goes through the point: (\bar{x}, \bar{y})



Relationship with correlation

$$\hat{r} = \hat{\beta} \frac{SD_x}{SD_y}$$

In correlation, the two variables are treated as equals. In regression, one variable is considered independent (=predictor) variable (X) and the other the dependent (=outcome) variable (X).

Residual Analysis: check assumptions

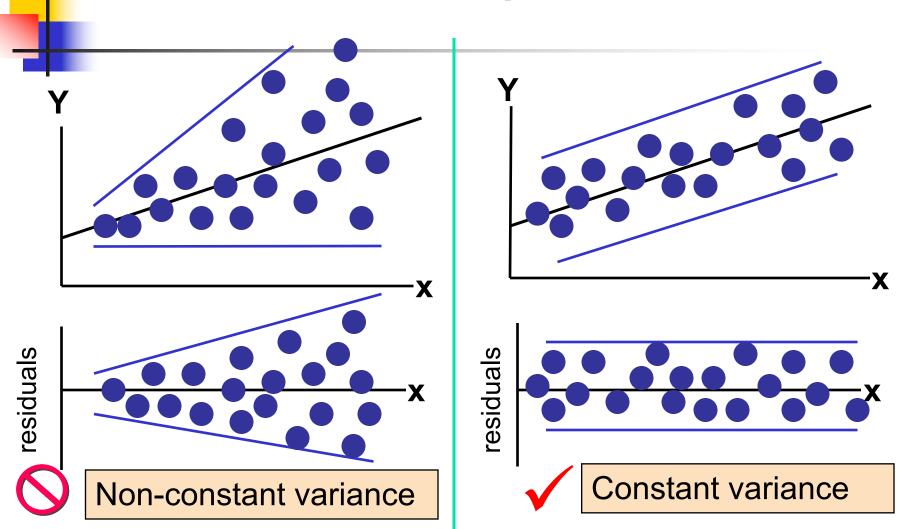
$$e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$$

- The residual for observation i, e_i, is the difference between its observed and predicted value
- Check the assumptions of regression by examining the residuals
 - Examine for linearity assumption
 - Examine for constant variance for all levels of X (homoscedasticity)
 - Evaluate normal distribution assumption
 - Evaluate independence assumption
- Graphical Analysis of Residuals
 - Can plot residuals vs. X

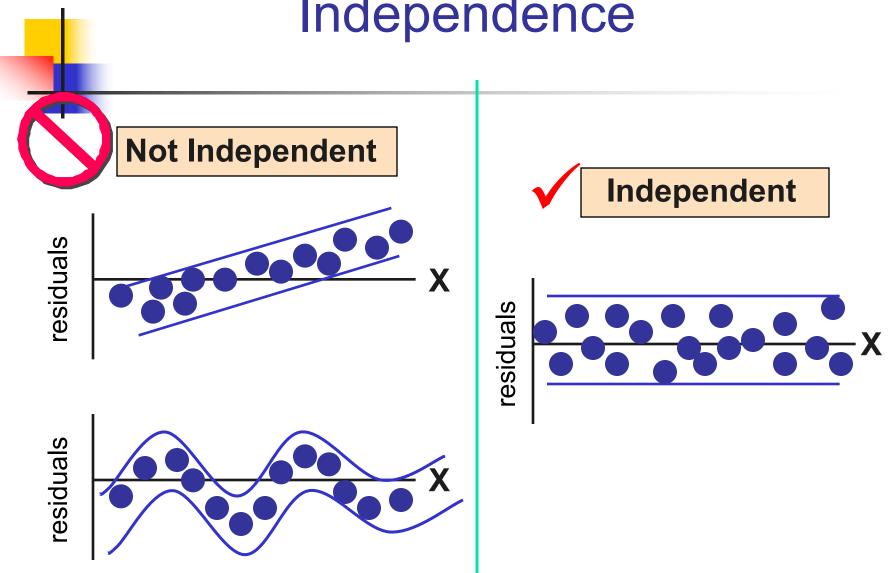
Residual Analysis for Linearity X residuals residuals **Not Linear** .inear

Slide from: Statistics for Managers Using Microsoft® Excel 4th Edition, 2004 Prentice-Hall

Residual Analysis for Homoscedasticity



Residual Analysis for Independence



4

Multiple Linear Regression

More than one predictor...

$$E(y) = \alpha + \beta_1 * X + \beta_2 * W + \beta_3 * Z...$$

Each regression coefficient is the amount of change in the outcome variable that would be expected per one-unit change of the predictor, if all other variables in the model were held constant.

Other types of multivariate regression

- Multiple linear regression is for normally distributed outcomes
- Logistic regression is for binary outcomes
- Cox proportional hazards regression is used when time-to-event is the outcome

Common multivariate regression models.

Outcome (dependent variable)	Example outcome variable	Appropriate multivariate regression model	Example equation	What do the coefficients give you?
Continuous	Blood pressure	Linear regression	blood pressure (mmHg) = $\alpha + \beta \text{salt*salt consumption (tsp/day)} + \beta \text{age*age (years)} + \beta \text{smoker*ever smoker (yes=1/no=0)}$	slopes—tells you how much the outcome variable increases for every 1-unit increase in each predictor.
Binary	High blood pressure (yes/no)	Logistic regression	In (odds of high blood pressure) = α + βsalt*salt consumption (tsp/day) + βage*age (years) + βsmoker*ever smoker (yes=1/no=0)	odds ratios—tells you how much the odds of the outcome increase for every 1-unit increase in each predictor.
Time-to-event	Time-to-death	Cox regression	ln (rate of death) = $\alpha + \beta \text{salt*salt consumption (tsp/day)} + \beta \text{age*age (years)} + \beta \text{smoker*ever smoker (yes=1/no=0)}$	hazard ratios—tells you how much the rate of the outcome increases for every 1-unit increase in each predictor.