R Lab for Regression Analysis

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Chapter 1

Linear Regression Analysis

```
data(BioOxyDemand, package = "MPV")
(BioOxyDemand <-
  BioOxyDemand %>%
  tbl_df())
# A tibble: 14 x 2
   <int> <int>
 1
       3
2
       8
              7
 3
      10
 4
      11
             8
 5
             10
 6
      16
             11
 7
      27
8
      30
             26
9
      35
             21
10
      37
             9
11
      38
             31
             30
12
      44
13
     103
             75
     142
             90
14
```

1.1 Relation

We wonder how x affects y, especially linearly.

• Functional relation: mathematical equation,

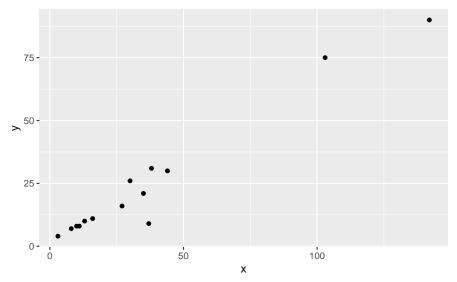
$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

• Statistical relation: embeded with noise

So we try to estimate

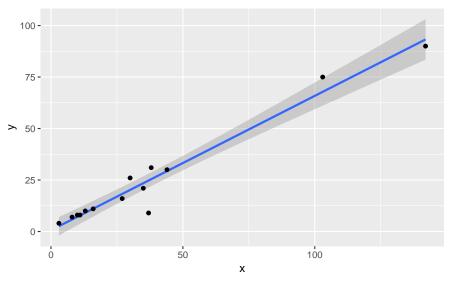
$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$$

```
BioOxyDemand %>%
ggplot(aes(x, y)) +
geom_point()
```



Looking just with the eyes, we can see the linear relationship. Regression analysis estimates the relationship statistically.

```
BioOxyDemand %>%
   ggplot(aes(x, y)) +
   geom_smooth(method = "lm") +
   geom_point()
```



Chapter 2

Simple Linear Regression

2.1 Model

```
delv <- MPV::p2.9 %>% tbl_df()

delv %>%
    ggplot(aes(x = x, y = y)) +
    geom_point() +
    labs(
        x = "Number of Cases",
        y = "Delivery Time"
    )
```

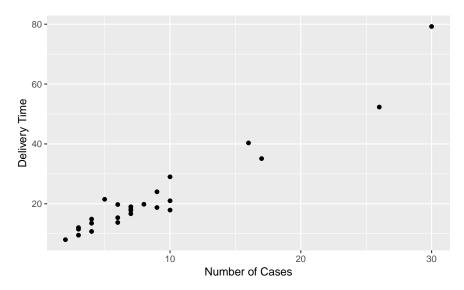


Figure 2.1: The Delivery Time Data

Given data $(x_1, Y_1), \ldots, (x_n, Y_n)$, we try to fit linear model

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$$

Here ϵ_i is a error term, which is a random variable.

$$\epsilon \stackrel{iid}{\sim} (0, \sigma^2)$$

It gives the problem of estimating three parameters $(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma^2)$. Before estimating these, we set some assumptions.

- 1. linear relationship
- 2. ϵ_i s are independent
- 3. ϵ_i s are identically destributed, i.e. constant variance
- 4. In some setting, $\epsilon_i \sim N$

2.2 Least Squares Estimation

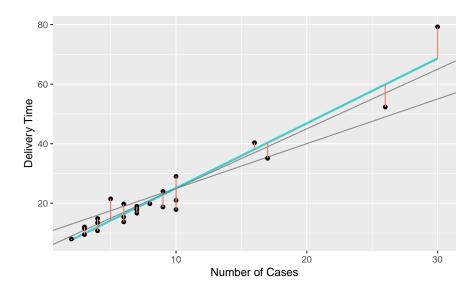


Figure 2.2: Idea of the least square estimation

We try to find β_0 and β_1 that minimize the sum of squares of the vertical distances, i.e.

$$(\beta_0, \beta_1) = \arg\min \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2$$
(2.1)

2.2.1 Normal equations

Denote that Equation (2.1) is quadratic. Then we can find its minimum by find the zero point of the first derivative. Set

$$Q(\beta_0, \beta_1) := \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2$$

Then we have

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \beta_0} = -2\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i) = 0$$
 (2.2)

and

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \beta_1} = -2\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i) x_i = 0$$
(2.3)

From (2.2),

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i - n\hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = 0$$

Thus,

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \overline{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \overline{x}$$

(2.3) gives

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i (Y_i - \overline{Y} + \hat{\beta}_1 \overline{x} - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i (Y_i - \overline{Y}) - \hat{\beta}_1 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i (x_i - \overline{x}) = 0$$

Thus,

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i (Y_i - \overline{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i (x_i - \overline{x})}$$

Remark.

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{S_{XY}}{S_{XX}}$$

where
$$S_{XX} := \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2$$
 and $S_{XY} := \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(Y_i - \overline{Y})$

Proof. Note that $\overline{x}^2 = \frac{1}{n^2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right)^2$. Then we have

$$S_{XX} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \overline{x} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \overline{x}^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 - \frac{2}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right)^2 + \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right)^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right)^2$$
(2.4)

It follows that

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum x_i (Y_i - \overline{Y})}{\sum x_i (x_i - \overline{x})}$$

$$= \frac{\sum x_i (Y_i - \overline{Y}) - \overline{x} \sum (Y_i - \overline{Y})}{\sum x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} (\sum x_i)^2} \qquad \because \sum (Y_i - \overline{Y}) = 0$$

$$= \frac{\sum (x_i - \overline{x})(Y_i - \overline{Y})}{\sum x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} (\sum x_i)^2}$$

$$= \frac{S_{XY}}{S_{XX}}$$

 $lm(y \sim x, data = delv)$

Call:

lm(formula = y ~ x, data = delv)

Coefficients:

(Intercept) x 3.32 2.18

2.2.2 Prediction and Mean response

"Essentially, all models are wrong, but some are useful."

—George Box

Recall that we have assumed the **linear assumption** between the predictor and the response variables, i.e. the true model. Estimating β_0 and β_1 is same as estimating the assumed true model.

Definition 2.1 (Mean response).

$$E(Y \mid X = x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

We can estimate this mean resonse by

$$\widehat{E(Y \mid x)} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x \tag{2.5}$$

However, in practice, the model might not be true, which is included in ϵ term.

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$$

Our real problem is predicting individual Y, not the mean. The prediction of response can be done by

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i \tag{2.6}$$

Observe that the values of Equation (2.5) and (2.6) are same. However, due to the **error term in the prediction**, it has larger standard error.

2.2.3 Properties of LSE

Parameters β_0 and β_1 have some properties related to the expectation and variance. We can notice that these lse's are **unbiased linear estimator**. In fact, these are the *best unbiased linear estimator*. This will be covered in the Gauss-Markov theorem.

Lemma 2.1.

$$S_{XX} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \right)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i (x_i - \overline{x})$$

$$S_{XY} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i Y_i - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i (x_i - \overline{x})$$

Proof. We already proven the first part of S_{XX} . See the Equation (2.4). The second part is tivial. Since $\sum (x_i - \overline{x}) = 0$,

$$S_{XX} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})x_i$$

For the first part of S_{XY} ,

$$S_{XY} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(Y_i - \overline{Y})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i Y_i - \overline{x} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i - \overline{Y} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i + n \overline{x} \overline{Y}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i Y_i - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i \right)$$

Second part of S_{XY} also can be proven from the definition.

$$S_{XY} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(Y_i - \overline{Y})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i(x_i - \overline{x}) - \overline{Y} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i(x_i - \overline{x}) \qquad \because \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x}) = 0$$

Lemma 2.2 (Linearity). Each coefficient is a linear estimator.

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \overline{x})}{S_{XX}} Y_i$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{(x_i - \overline{x})}{S_{XX}} \right) Y_i$$

Proof. From lemma 2.1,

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{S_{XY}}{S_{XX}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{S_{XX}} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \overline{x}) Y_i$$

It gives that

$$\begin{split} \hat{\beta}_0 &= \overline{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \overline{x} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i - \overline{x} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \overline{x})}{S_{XX}} Y_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{(x_i - \overline{x})\overline{x}}{S_{XX}} \right) Y_i \end{split}$$

Proposition 2.1 (Unbiasedness). Both coefficients are unbiased.

$$(a) E \hat{\beta}_1 = \beta_1$$

$$(b)\,E\hat{\beta}_0 = \beta_0$$

From the model, $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n \stackrel{indep}{\sim} (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i, \sigma^2)$.

Proof. From lemma 2.1,

$$E\hat{\beta}_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{(x_i - \overline{x})}{S_{XX}} E(Y_i) \right]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \overline{x})}{S_{XX}} (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i)$$

$$= \frac{\beta_1 \sum (x_i - \overline{x}) x_i}{\sum (x_i - \overline{x}) x_i} \quad \because \sum (x_i - \overline{x}) = 0$$

$$= \beta_1$$

It follows that

$$\begin{split} E\hat{\beta}_0 &= E(\overline{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \overline{x}) \\ &= E(\overline{Y}) - \overline{x} E(\hat{\beta}_1) \\ &= E(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \overline{x} + \overline{\epsilon}) - \beta_1 \overline{x} \\ &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \overline{x} - \beta_1 \overline{x} \\ &= \beta_0 \end{split}$$

Proposition 2.2 (Variances). Variances and covariance of coefficients

(a)
$$Var\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sigma^2}{S_{XX}}$$

$$(b) Var \hat{\beta}_0 = \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\overline{x}^2}{S_{XX}}\right) \sigma^2$$

$$(c) Cov(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1) = -\frac{\overline{x}}{S_{XX}} \sigma^2$$

Proof. Proving is just arithmetic.

(a)

$$Var\hat{\beta}_{1} = \frac{1}{S_{XX}^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[(x_{i} - \overline{x})^{2} Var(Y_{i}) \right] + \frac{1}{S_{XX}^{2}} \sum_{j \neq k}^{n} \left[(x_{j} - \overline{x})(x_{k} - \overline{x})Cov(Y_{j}, Y_{k}) \right]$$
$$= \frac{\sigma^{2}}{S_{XX}} \quad \because Cov(Y_{j}, Y_{k}) = 0 \text{ if } j \neq k$$

(b)

$$Var\hat{\beta}_{0} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{(x_{i} - \overline{x})\overline{x}}{S_{XX}} \right)^{2} Var(Y_{i}) + \sum_{j \neq k} \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{(x_{j} - \overline{x})\overline{x}}{S_{XX}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{(x_{k} - \overline{x})\overline{x}}{S_{XX}} \right) Cov(Y_{j}, Y_{k})$$

$$= \frac{\sigma^{2}}{n} - 2\sigma^{2} \frac{\overline{x}}{S_{XX}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \overline{x}) + \frac{\sigma^{2}\overline{x}^{2} \sum (x_{i} - \overline{x})^{2}}{S_{XX}^{2}}$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\overline{x}^{2}}{S_{XX}} \right) \sigma^{2} \qquad \because \sum (x_{i} - \overline{x}) = 0$$

(c)

$$Cov(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1) = Cov(\overline{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \overline{x}, \hat{\beta}_1)$$
$$= -\overline{x} Var \hat{\beta}_1$$
$$= -\frac{\overline{x}}{S_{XX}} \sigma^2$$

2.2.4 Gauss-Markov Theorem

Chapter 2.2.3 shows that the β_0^{LSE} and β_1^{LSE} are the **linear unbiased estimators**. Are these good? Good compared to what estimators? Here we consider linear unbiased estimator. If variances in the proposition 2.2 are lower than any parameters in this parameter family, β_0^{LSE} and β_1^{LSE} are the **best linear unbiased estimators**.

Theorem 2.1 (Gauss Markov Theorem). $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ are BLUE, i.e. the best linear unbiased estimator.

$$Var(\hat{\beta}_0) \le Var\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i Y_i\right) \forall a_i \in \mathbb{R} \ s.t. \ E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i Y_i\right) = \beta_0$$

$$Var(\hat{\beta}_1) \leq Var\left(\sum_{i=1}^n b_i Y_i\right) \forall b_i \in \mathbb{R} \ s.t. \ E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n b_i Y_i\right) = \beta_1$$

2.3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation

In this section, we add an assumption to an random errors ϵ_i .

$$\epsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$$

Example 2.1 (Gaussian Likelihood). Note that $Y_i \stackrel{indep}{\sim} N(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i, \sigma^2)$. Then the likelihood function is

$$L(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \right)$$

and so the log-likelihood function can be computed as

$$l(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma^2) = -\frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2$$

2.3.1 Likelihood equations

Definition 2.2 (Maximum Likelihood Estimator).

$$(\hat{\beta}_0^{MLE}, \hat{\beta}_1^{MLE}, \hat{\sigma}^{2MLE}) := \arg \sup L(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma^2)$$

Since $l(\cdot) = \ln L(\cdot)$ is monotone,

Remark.

$$(\hat{\beta}_0^{MLE}, \hat{\beta}_1^{MLE}, \hat{\sigma}^{2MLE}) = \arg\sup l(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma^2)$$

We can find the maximum of this quadratic function by making first derivative.

$$\frac{\partial l}{\partial \beta_0} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i) = 0$$

$$(2.7)$$

$$\frac{\partial l}{\partial \beta_1} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i) = 0$$
 (2.8)

$$\frac{\partial l}{\partial \sigma^2} = -\frac{n}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2 = 0$$
 (2.9)

Denote that Equations (2.7) and (2.8) given $\hat{\sigma}^2$ are equivalent to the normal equations. Thus,

$$\hat{\beta}_0^{MLE} = \hat{\beta}_0^{LSE}, \quad \hat{\beta}_1^{MLE} = \hat{\beta}_1^{LSE}$$

From (2.9),

$$\hat{\sigma}^{2MLE} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2 = \frac{n-2}{n} \hat{\sigma}^{2LSE}$$

Recall that $\hat{\sigma}^{2LSE}$ is an unbiased, i.e. this *MLE* is not an unbiased estimator. Since $\hat{\sigma}^{2MLE} \approx \hat{\sigma}^{2LSE}$ for large n, however, it is asymptotically unbiased.

2.4. RESIDUALS 15

Theorem 2.2 (Rao-Cramer Lower Bound, univariate case). Let $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} f(x; \theta)$. If $\hat{\theta}$ is an unbiased estimator of θ ,

$$Var(\hat{\theta}) \ge \frac{1}{I_n(\theta)}$$

where
$$I_n(\theta) = -E\left(\frac{\partial^2 l(\theta)}{\partial \theta^2}\right)$$

To apply this theorem @(thm:rclb) in the simple linear regression setting, i.e. (β_0, β_1) , we need to look at the *bivariate case*.

Theorem 2.3 (Rao-Cramer Lower Bound, bivariate case). Let $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} f(x; \theta 1, \theta_2)$ and let $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1, \theta_2)^T$. If each $\hat{\theta}_1$, $\hat{\theta}_2$ is an unbiased estimator of θ_1 and θ_2 , then

$$Var(\boldsymbol{\theta}) := \begin{bmatrix} Var(\hat{\theta}_1) & Cov(\hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_2) \\ Cov(\hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_2) & Var(\hat{\theta}_2) \end{bmatrix} \ge I_n^{-1}(\theta_1, \theta_2)$$

where

$$I_n(\theta_1, \theta_2) = -\begin{bmatrix} E\left(\frac{\partial^2 l(\theta_1, \theta_2)}{\partial \theta_1^2}\right) & E\left(\frac{\partial^2 l(\theta_1, \theta_2)}{\partial \theta_1 \partial \theta_2}\right) \\ E\left(\frac{\partial^2 l(\theta_1, \theta_2)}{\partial \theta_1 \partial \theta_2}\right) & E\left(\frac{\partial^2 l(\theta_1, \theta_2)}{\partial \theta_2^2}\right) \end{bmatrix}$$

2.4 Residuals

Definition 2.3 (Residuals).

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

2.4.1 Prediction error

```
delv %>%
  mutate(yhat = predict(lm(y ~ x))) %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = x, y = y)) +
  geom_smooth(method = "lm", se = FALSE) +
  geom_point() +
  geom_linerange(aes(ymin = y, ymax = yhat), col = I("red"), alpha = .7) +
  labs(
    x = "Number of Cases",
    y = "Delivery Time"
)
```

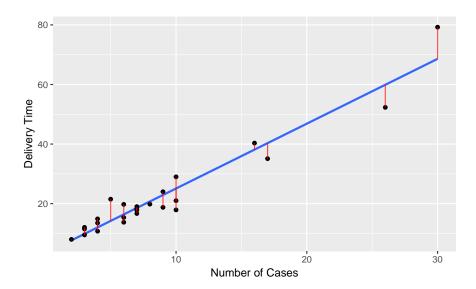


Figure 2.3: Fit and residuals

See Figure 2.3. Each red line is e_i . As we can see, e_i represents the difference between observed response and predicted response. A large $|e_i|$ indicates a large prediction error. You can call this e_i for each Y_i by lm()\$residuals or residuals().

 $\sum e_i^2$, which has been minimized in the procedure of LSE, can be used to see overall size of prediction errors.

Definition 2.4 (Error Sums of Squares).

$$SSE := \sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i^2$$

2.4.2 Residuals and the variance

 e_i contains the information for ϵ_i . $\sum e_i^2$ can give information about $\sigma^2 = Var(\epsilon_i)$. For this, it is expected that e_i and ϵ_i have similar feature.

Proposition 2.3 (Properties of residuals). Mean and variance of the residual

- $(a) E(e_i) = 0$
- (b) $Var(e_i) \neq \sigma^2$
- $(c) \forall i \neq j : Cov(e_i, e_j) \neq 0$

2.5 Decomposition of Total Variability

2.6 Geometric Interpretations

References