04. Linear Regression

Network Data Analysis - NDA'22 Anastasios Giovanidis

Sorbonne-LIP6







October 11, 2022

Bibliography

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B.1 Gareth James, Daniela Witten, Trevor Hastie, Robert Tibshirani. "An introduction to statistical learning: with applications in R". Springer Texts in Statistics.

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B.2 H. Pishro-Nik, "Introduction to probability, statistics, and random processes", available at https://www.probabilitycourse.com, Kappa Research LLC, 2014. Intro

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Linear Regression: A very simple approach for Supervised Learning:

- been around for a very long time...
- predicts a quantitative response.
- explains the relationship between two or more variables.

Many fancy statistical learning approaches can be seen as generalisation or extensions of linear regression.

This lecture: Linear Regression, Least-Squares

Some history

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- ▶ (1875) Sir Francis Galton originally conceived modern notions of correlation and regression, by studying eugenics of sweet pea seeds.
- ▶ (1896) Karl Pearson publishes the first rigorous treatment of correlation and regression in the *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*.
- ▶ (1981) E.E. Ghiselli presents a simple proof of optimality of regression related to the sum of squared errors.

Source

Galton, Pearson, and the Peas: A Brief History of Linear Regression for Statistics Instructors, by Jeffrey M. Stanton (2017)

It all started like this...

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Training data available:

$$D_n = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}\$$

Data come in pairs (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) of

- $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i,1}, \dots, x_{i,K})$ input data, as a vector of size $K \ge 1$.
- ▶ *y_i* output data of size 1.

Goal: Given set of known I/O pairs, "guess" a function $f: \mathbb{R}^K \to \mathbb{R}$ that for any input $\mathbf{x}^{(\mathbf{o})}$ predicts its output $y^{(o)}$.

₩ We hope to get a "good" prediction. What is "good"?

We are looking for an expression

$$y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_K) + \epsilon$$

which can express the output y as a deterministic function of the input $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_K)$ plus an additive random perturbation ϵ from some distribution (usually white noise $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$).

In this way we can do predictions of unknown output, given any input.

We will try to **estimate** the function $f(x_1, ..., x_K)$ using the existing training data.

Linear Regression

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Linear Regression: Assumes that the output is an affine function of the input

$$y = \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \ldots + \beta_K x_K + \beta_0 + \epsilon. \tag{1}$$

Unknowns:

- $(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_K) \in \mathbb{R}^K$ is a vector of parameters/coefficients.
- β_0 is the bias parameter or intercept.
- ϵ is a random error term; independent of **x** with mean 0.

Using known pairs, find the Regression line = "line of best fit".

Simple Linear Regression

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Let us simplify for just 1-dimension, $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$y = \beta_1 x + \beta_0 + \epsilon \tag{2}$$

- \blacktriangleright β_1 is the slope (average increase in y for unit increase of x).
- \triangleright β_0 is the intercept term (expected value of y when x = 0),
- ϵ is the error term, which summarises what we miss by using a simple linear model, e.g. non-linearities, other variables, or measurement errors.

Simple Linear Regression, cont'd

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Simple Goal: Use training data to produce estimates $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ for the model coefficients. Then we can make the prediction \hat{y}_o for y_o , on the basis of input x_o :

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_1 x + \hat{\beta}_0, \tag{3}$$

 \square Draw a line in the x-y plane that best "fits" our data points. This is called the regression line (without the error term).

Examples

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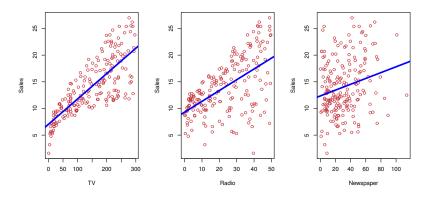


Figure: Advertisement Related Example. ¹

 $^{^{1}}$ Figure from [B.1] with permission from the authors: G. James, D. Witten, T. Hastie and R. Tibshirani

How to draw the line?

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We need to draw a line that "fits well" the known data. How?

- ▶ The available known data are the pairs (x_i, y_i) , i = 1, ..., n.
- ▶ The regression line gives $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_1 x_i + \hat{\beta}_0$, for input x_i .

Definition: the following quantities are called residuals

$$\epsilon_i := y_i - \hat{y}_i = y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i \quad . \tag{4}$$

Residuals

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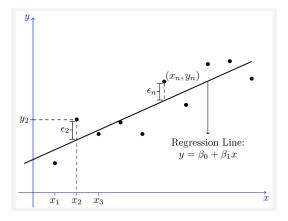


Figure: Regression Line and Residuals.²

²Source [B.2]

Sum of Squares

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The Residual Sum of Squares (RSS) is a function of $\hat{\beta}_0$, $\hat{\beta}_1$,

$$RSS(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^2 := \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i)^2.$$

It is always non-negative $RSS \ge 0$.

Find and use the coefficients that minimize the RSS! This should provide a good fit to the data.

Least Squares

The optimal least squares coefficient estimates are found by:

min
$$RSS(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1)$$
.

Solution:

$$\frac{\partial RSS}{\partial \hat{\beta}_0} = 2(-1) \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i) = 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial RSS}{\partial \hat{\beta}_1} = 2(-1) \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i) x_i = 0.$$

Coefficient Estimates

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Given $n \ge 3$ observations $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$, we estimate β_0 and β_1 as

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2},$$
 (5)

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}, \tag{6}$$

where $\bar{y} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$ and $\bar{x} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$ are the sample means.

Alternative Method

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Consider again the linear model with random errors. Error ϵ has zero mean $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon]=0$ and is independent of x.

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

Applying expectation on both sides, we get

$$\mathbb{E}[y] = \beta_1 \mathbb{E}[x] + \beta_0 + \mathbb{E}[\epsilon]$$

= $\beta_1 \mathbb{E}[x] + \beta_0$.

Alternative Method cont'd

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We take covariance between x and $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$.

$$Cov(x,y) := \mathbb{E}[(x - \mathbb{E}[x])(y - \mathbb{E}[y])]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[(x - \mathbb{E}[x])(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon - \beta_0 - \beta_1 \mathbb{E}[x] - \mathbb{E}[\epsilon])]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[(x - \mathbb{E}[x])(\epsilon + \beta_1 (x - \mathbb{E}[x])]$$

$$= \beta_1 \mathbb{E}[(x - \mathbb{E}[x])^2] =: \beta_1 \cdot Var(x)$$

Alternative Method cont'd II

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(9)

$$\beta_1 = \frac{Cov(x, y)}{Var(x)}, \qquad (7)$$

$$\beta_0 = \mathbb{E}[y] - \beta_1 \mathbb{E}[x]. \qquad (8)$$

With the observed pairs $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$ we get the estimates $\hat{\beta}_0$, $\hat{\beta}_1$,

$$\mathbb{E}[x] \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i =: \bar{x},$$

$$\mathbb{E}[y] \quad \approx \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i =: \bar{y}, \tag{10}$$

$$Var(x) \approx \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 =: s_{xx}$$
 (11)

$$Cov(x,y) \approx \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) := s_{xy}$$
 (12)

Remark: For s_{xx} and s_{xy} , division by n or n-1 does not affect the coefficients. But the same choice should be applied to both estimators. 19/44

Numerical Example

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Consider a data set of n = 4 known (x, y) samples

$$D_4 = \{(1,3), (2,4), (3,8), (4,9)\}$$

Find:

- ▶ The coefficients $\hat{\beta}_0$, $\hat{\beta}_1$ for the simple linear regression.
- ▶ The residuals ϵ_i from the estimated values.

Solution

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$$\bar{x} = \frac{1+2+3+4}{4} = 2.5$$
 , $\bar{y} = \frac{3+4+8+9}{4} = 6$.

$$s_{xx} = \frac{1}{4-1} \left[(1-2.5)^2 + (2-2.5)^2 + (3-2.5)^2 + (4-2.5)^2 \right] = \frac{5}{3}$$

$$s_{xy} = \frac{1}{4-1} [(1-2.5)(3-6) + (2-2.5)(4-6) + (3-2.5)(8-6) + (4-2.5)(9-6)] = \frac{11}{3}$$

Solution cont'd

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$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{s_{xy}}{s_{xx}} = \frac{11}{5} = 2.2$$

 $\hat{\beta}_0 = 6 - (2.2)(2.5) = 0.5$

Regression-line:

$$\hat{y}_i = 0.5 + 2.2x_i,$$

Residuals:

$$\hat{y}_1 = 2.7, \ \hat{y}_2 = 4.9, \ \hat{y}_3 = 7.1 \ \hat{y}_4 = 9.3$$

$$\hat{\epsilon}_1 = 0.3, \ \hat{\epsilon}_2 = -0.9, \ \hat{\epsilon}_3 = 0.9 \ \hat{\epsilon}_4 = -0.3$$

We Verification:
$$\hat{\epsilon}_1 + \hat{\epsilon}_2 + \hat{\epsilon}_3 + \hat{\epsilon}_4 = 0$$
. (Why?)

Accuracy of the model

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- Mean Squared Error (MSE).
- Residual Standard Error (RSE).
- ▶ R² statistic or Coefficient of determination.
- Confidence intervals.
- p-value.

Mean Squared Error

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One can use the Mean Squared Error (MSE), defined as

$$MSE := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$
 (13)

$$= \frac{1}{n}RSS \tag{14}$$

It is a measure of lack of fit for the model.

RSS is Residual Sum of Squares.

Residual Standard Error

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The residual standard error provides the average amount that the response y deviates form the true regression line $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$.

$$RSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2}RSS} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}.$$
 (15)

It is a measure of *lack of fit* for the model, having also the nice interpretation,

$$Var(\epsilon) \approx RSE^2$$
. (16)

R^2 statistic

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An alternative name is Coefficient of determination.

 $R^2 \in [0,1]$ is the proportion of variability in y (dependent) that can be explained / predicted by knowing the variability of x (independent). \square The closer to 1, the better the fit.

$$R^{2} = \frac{Explained \ Variation}{Total \ Variation} = 1 - \frac{RSS}{TSS}$$

$$= \frac{\beta_{1}^{2} Var(x)}{Var(y)} \stackrel{(7)}{=} \frac{[Cov(x, y)^{2}]}{Var(x) Var(y)} \approx \frac{s_{xy}^{2}}{s_{xx} s_{yy}} =: \rho^{2}.$$
 (17)

In this case equal to ρ^2 the "sample correlation coefficient".

$$TSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$
 is the Total Sum of Squares.

R^2 statistic cont'd

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To better understand, let us take a look at the variance of $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$,

$$Var(y) \stackrel{indep.x,\epsilon}{=} \beta_1^2 Var(x) + Var(\epsilon).$$

- 1. Variance due to variation of x: $\beta_1^2 Var(x)$
- 2. Variance of error: $Var(\epsilon)$. (Variance left in y after we know x)

If $Var(\epsilon)$ is small, then y will be close to $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$, so that our linear regression model will successfully estimate y.

R^2 example

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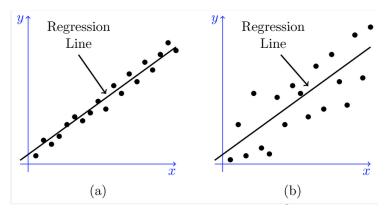


Figure: *left*: high value of R^2 , *right*: low value of R^2 .

³Source [B.2]

Confidence intervals

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The 95% confidence intervals for β_0 and β_1 are

$$\hat{\beta}_0 \pm 2 \cdot SE(\hat{\beta}_0), \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\beta}_1 \pm 2 \cdot SE(\hat{\beta}_1),$$
 (18)

where SE is the Standard Error.

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_0)^2 = Var(\epsilon) \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \right], \tag{19}$$

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_1)^2 = \frac{Var(\epsilon)}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}.$$
 (20)

To estimate $Var(\epsilon)$ we use the Residual Standard Error (RSE)

$$Var(\epsilon) \approx RSE^2$$
. (21)

p-value: Are x and y related?

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$$H_0: \beta_1=0$$

versus

$$H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$$

If $\beta_1=0$ then the model reduces to $Y=\beta_0+\epsilon$, and x is not associated with y.

Q: Given $\hat{\beta}_1 > 0$ what is the probability of this being a false alarm?

 $^{\mbox{\tiny LSP}}$ To answer, we compute the p-value. This relates to the probability that $\hat{\beta}_1$ is close to 0, related to the standard error.

If the *p-value* is very small (1%-5%) we reject the null hypothesis, i.e. a relationship does exist between x and y.

Numerical Example cont'd

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► RSS =
$$\hat{\epsilon}_1^2 + \hat{\epsilon}_2^2 + \hat{\epsilon}_3^2 + \hat{\epsilon}_4^2 = 0.3^2 + 0.9^2 + 0.9^2 + 0.3^2 = 1.8$$

$$ightharpoonup MSE = \frac{RSS}{n} = \frac{1.8}{4} = 0.45.$$

► RSE =
$$\sqrt{\frac{RSS}{n-2}} = \sqrt{\frac{1.8}{4-2}} \approx 0.949$$
.

$$R^2 = \frac{s_{xy}^2}{s_{xx}s_{yy}} = \frac{(11/3)^2}{(5/3) \cdot s_{yy}} = \frac{(11/3)^2}{(5/3) \cdot (26/3)} \approx 0.93.$$

 \mathbb{R}^2 -statistic is 0.93, hence close to 1, and the fit is good! (Cannot tell just by RSE)

Multiple Linear Regression Model

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Very often, a response depends on several (K > 1) features.

- Naive approach: Run one simple linear regression per feature.
 But! In this way the estimates ignore all other features left outside:
 Not always good, due to correlation among features.
- Correct approach: Extend the simple linear model to accommodate multiple predictors. Give to each predictor a separate slope coefficient in a single model,

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k + \epsilon.$$
 (22)

Coefficient Estimation

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Again, the regression coefficients are unknown and must be estimated. We use the formula:

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2 + \ldots + \hat{\beta}_k x_k. \tag{23}$$

We choose the parameters that minimise again the RSS

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

= $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i,1} - \hat{\beta}_2 x_{i,2} - \dots - \hat{\beta}_k x_{i,k})^2$ (24)

Complicated expressions, better use existing software packages.

Least-squares plane

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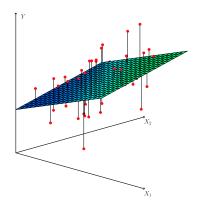


Figure: Regression plane for two features.⁴

Source [B.1]

Hypothesis test (again)

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$$H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \ldots = \beta_k = 0$$

versus

 H_a : at least one β_j non-zero.

■ To answer, we compute the F-statistic:

$$F = \frac{(TSS - RSS)/k}{RSS/(n-k-1)},$$
 (25)

 $RSS = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$, and $TSS = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$ is the Total Sum of Squares.

If the *F-statistic* is very close to 1 then we expect no relationship between the response and the predictors. On the other hand, if H_a is true, we expect F > 1.

Variable selection

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How do we decide on the important variables that influence the y? use the F-statistic and the individual p-value.

- ▶ Use different combinations of features to derive the F-statistic. If for a specific combination among these the value of the statistic drops considerably, then this is an indicator that among the included features, some are unrelated to the response.
- From the individual *p*-values, the one with the highest *p*-value is a candidate to be removed from the model.
- ► The R² value determines how much of the data variance is explained by the model. If it is low then the feature set used does not contain much info.
- other selection methods (forward and backward selection...)

Potential Problems of Linear Regression

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- Non-linearity of the responce-predictor relationships.
- Correlation of error terms.
- Non-constant variance of error terms (heteroscedasticity)
- Outliers (e.g. incorrect data collection)
- ► High leverage points.

Use Residual plots to detect problems: $(y_i - \hat{y}_i, x_i)$ or $(y_i - \hat{y}_i, \hat{y}_i)$.

Non-linearity

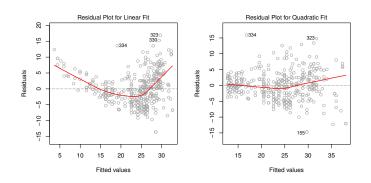


Figure: Residual plots for Linear and Polynomial fit.⁵

⁵Source [B.1]

Error Correlation

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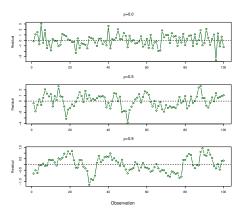


Figure: Residual plots for Time-series.⁶

⁶Source [B.1]

Heteroscedasticity

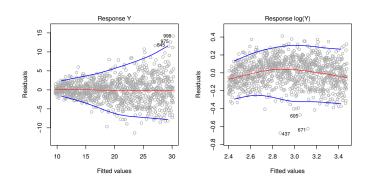


Figure: Residual plots for non-constant variance.⁷

⁷Source [B.1]

Outliers

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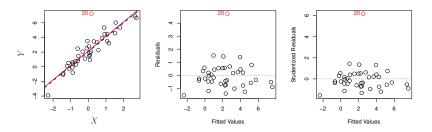


Figure: Effect of an outlier in least-squares fit.8

Outliers influences RSE, confidence intervals and p-values.

⁸Source [B.1]

High Leverage Points

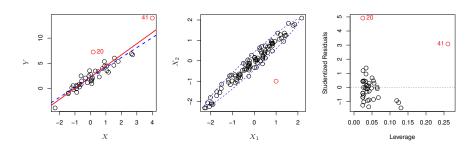


Figure: Effect of a high-leverage point in least-squares fit.⁹

⁹ Source [B.1]

Collinearity

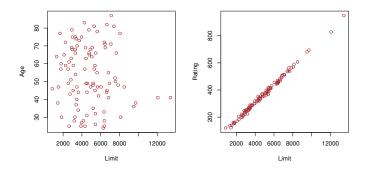


Figure: Effect of collinearity in least-squares fit. 10

Difficult to separate out the individual effects of collinear variables on the response.

¹⁰Source [B.1]

END