

# MS-C1620 Statistical inference

## 7 Linear regression I

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- 1 Linear regression model
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# Regression analysis

The aim in regression analysis is to study how the value of a **response** (“dependent variable”) changes when the values of one or more **explanatory variables** (“independent variables”, covariates) are varied.

The name regression comes from the concept of *regression toward the mean* stating that, given independent replications, extremal values tend to be followed by average sized ones.

## Regression analysis, examples

- Does the number of violent crimes depend on alcohol consumption and if it does, how strong is this dependence?
- Does statistics exam score depend on hours slept on the night prior to the exam and if it does, how strong is this dependence?
- Does salary depend on education level and if it does, how strong is this dependence?
- Does a parent's smoking have an effect on the height of a child and if it does, how strong is this dependence?
- Do crime rates depend on income inequality level and if yes, how strong is this dependence?

# Regression analysis, objectives

Possible aims in regression analysis are for example:

- Description of the dependence between the explanatory and dependent variables. What is the type of the relationship? How strong is the dependence?
- Predicting the values of the dependent variable.
- Controlling the values of the dependent variable.

# Simple linear regression

We begin by discussing the simplest (but still extremely useful!) form of regression, linear regression, starting with the case of single explanatory variable.

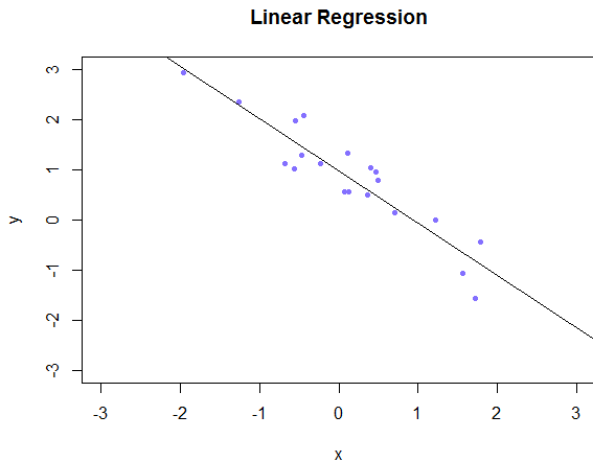
## Simple linear regression, assumptions

- Consider  $n$  observations (pairs)  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$  of  $(x, y)$ . Assume, for simplicity, that the values  $x_i$  are non-random (otherwise we need an assumption of *exogeneity*).
- Assume that the values  $y_i$  depend linearly on the value  $x_i$ :

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

where the **regression coefficients**  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  are unknown constants.

# Simple linear model



**Kuva:** When the values of the variable  $x$  increase, the values of the variable  $y$  decrease linearly.

# Simple linear regression

The simple linear regression model is usually coupled with the following additional assumptions.

## Simple linear regression, assumptions, continued

- The expected value of the errors is  $E[\varepsilon_i] = 0$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .
- The errors have the same variance  $\text{Var}[\varepsilon_i] = \sigma^2$ .
- The errors are uncorrelated i.e.  $\rho(\varepsilon_i, \varepsilon_j) = 0, \quad i \neq j$ .
- The errors are i.i.d. (*a stronger version of the previous two assumptions*).



## Simple linear regression

Under the previous assumptions, the random variables  $y_i$  have the following properties:

- Expected value:  $E[y_i] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$
- Variance:  $\text{Var}(y_i) = \text{Var}(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2.$
- Correlation:  $\rho(y_i, y_j) = 0, \quad i \neq j.$
- If we chose to assume that the errors are i.i.d., then  $y_i$  are independent of each other.

## Simple linear regression, parameters

The linear model

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

has three unknown parameters: regression coefficients  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$  and the error variance  $\text{Var}(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2$ .

These parameters are usually unknown and have to be *estimated* from the observations.

Under the assumption that  $E[\varepsilon_i] = 0$ , for all  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , the simple linear model can be given as

$$y_i = E[y_i] + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

where  $E[y_i] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$  is the **systematic part** and  $\varepsilon_i$  is the **random part** of the model.

# Simple linear regression, parameter interpretation

The systematic part

$$E[y_i] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$$

of the linear model defines the **regression line**

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

where  $\beta_0$  (**intercept**) is the intersection of the regression line and the  $y$ -axis and  $\beta_1$  is the **slope** of the regression line.

- The intercept  $\beta_0$  tells the average value of the response value when the explanatory variable  $x$  has the value zero.
- The slope  $\beta_1$  tells how much the average of the response variable  $y$  changes when the explanatory variable  $x$  grows by one unit.
- The error variance  $\text{Var}(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2$  describes the magnitude of the random deviations of the observed values from the regression line.

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## Simple linear regression, objective

The aim in (simple) linear regression analysis is to find **estimates** for the regression coefficients  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ .

The estimates  $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1$  should be chosen such that the **fitted values/predictions**,

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i,$$

best match the observations in some suitable sense.

Numerous ways of choosing the “best” estimates exist and the most popular of these is the **method of least squares**.

## The method of least squares

- In the method of least squares we choose the estimates by minimizing the sum of squared differences between the observations  $y_i$  and the fitted values  $\hat{y}_i$ ,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i))^2.$$

- The solutions are

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{s_{xy}}{s_x^2} = \hat{\rho}(x, y) \frac{s_y}{s_x} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x},$$

where  $s_x$ ,  $s_y$ ,  $s_{xy}$ ,  $\hat{\rho}(x, y)$  are the sample standard deviations, the sample covariance and the sample correlation of  $x$  and  $y$ .

## The estimated regression line

- The least squares estimates give an estimated regression line

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y}_i &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i \\ &= \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x} + \hat{\rho}(x, y) \frac{s_y}{s_x} x_i \\ &= \bar{y} + \hat{\rho}(x, y) \frac{s_y}{s_x} (x_i - \bar{x})\end{aligned}$$

- The slope (up or down) of the line is determined by the correlation between the two variables:
  - ▶ If  $\hat{\rho}(x, y) > 0$ , the line is increasing.
  - ▶ If  $\hat{\rho}(x, y) < 0$ , the line is decreasing.
  - ▶ If  $\hat{\rho}(x, y) = 0$ , the line is horizontal.

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## Fitted values and residuals

- Recall that the fitted value of the variable  $y_i$ , i.e. the value given to the variable  $y$  by the regression line at points  $x_i$ , is

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i, \quad i \in \{1, \dots, n\}.$$

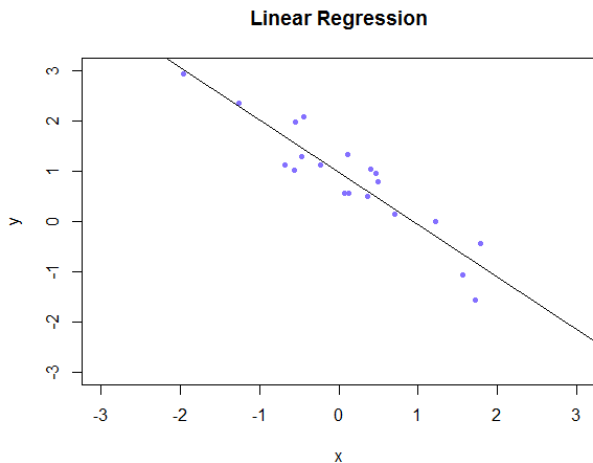
- The **residual**  $\hat{\varepsilon}_i$  of the estimated model is the difference

$$\hat{\varepsilon}_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i, \quad i \in 1, \dots, n$$

between the observed value  $y_i$  (of the variable  $y$ ) and fitted value  $\hat{y}_i$ .

- The smaller the residuals of the estimated model are, the better the regression model explains the observed values of the response variable.

# Example



**Kuva:** Estimated regression line minimizes the squared sum of the residuals.

## Residual mean square estimation

Under the regression assumptions, an unbiased estimate for the error variance  $\text{Var}(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2$  is given by

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{\varepsilon}_i - \bar{\hat{\varepsilon}})^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\varepsilon}_i^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2.$$

## Coefficient of determination

- **Coefficient of determination** (also known as “R-squared”) gives a single number with which to assess the accuracy of the model fit.
- Coefficient of determination is defined as

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST} = (\hat{\rho}(y, \hat{y}))^2,$$

where

$$SST = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 \quad \text{and} \quad SSE = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\varepsilon}_i^2$$

measure the variation of the data “before” and “after” fitting the model.

- If SSE is small compared to SST, the model has managed to *explain* a large proportion of the variance in the data.
- We always have  $0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$ .

## Properties of the coefficient of determination

The following conditions are equivalent:

- The coefficient of determination  $R^2 = 1$ .
- All the residuals vanish,  $\hat{\varepsilon}_i = 0$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .
- All the observations  $(x_i, y_i)$  lie on the same line.
- The sample correlation coefficient  $\hat{\rho}(x, y) = \pm 1$ .
- The regression model explains the variation of the observed values of the response  $y$  completely.

The following conditions are equivalent:

- The coefficient of determination  $R^2 = 0$ .
- The regression coefficient  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 0$ .
- The sample correlation coefficient  $\hat{\rho}(x, y) = 0$ .
- The regression model completely fails in explaining the variation of the observed values of the dependent variable  $y$ .

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## Inference for model parameters

We next go discuss *confidence intervals* and *hypothesis tests* for the intercept  $\beta_0$  and slope  $\beta_1$  of the simple linear regression model.

In addition to our earlier assumptions, the following results assume that

### Simple linear regression, assumptions, continued

- The errors  $\varepsilon_i$  are i.i.d.
- The errors  $\varepsilon_i$  are normally distributed.

The assumption of normality can be replaced by a *large enough* sample size.

## Slope, hypothesis test

The following test is used to test whether the slope parameter  $\beta_1$  of the simple linear model equals a given value (most often zero).

### Slope test, assumptions

(The assumptions of slides 8 and 23.)

### Slope test, hypotheses

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_1^0 \quad H_1 : \beta_1 \neq \beta_1^0.$$



# Slope, hypothesis test

## Slope test, test statistic

- The  $t$ -test statistic,

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1^0}{\frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n-1}s_x}},$$

where  $\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\text{Var}(\varepsilon_i)}$  (see slide 19) and  $s_x$  is the sample standard deviation of  $x$ , has under  $H_0$  Student's  $t$ -distribution with  $n - 2$  degrees of freedom.

- Under  $H_0$ , the expected value of  $t$  is 0 and **large absolute values** of the test statistic suggest that the null hypothesis  $H_0$  does not hold.

## Slope, confidence interval

A  $(1 - \alpha)100\%$  confidence interval for the slope  $\beta_1$  of the regression line is given as

$$\left( \hat{\beta}_1 - t_{n-2, \alpha/2} \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n-1} s_x}, \hat{\beta}_1 + t_{n-2, \alpha/2} \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n-1} s_x} \right),$$

where  $t_{n-2, \alpha/2}$  is the  $(1 - \alpha/2)$ -quantile of the  $t_{n-2}$ -distribution.

# Intercept, hypothesis test

Testing whether the intercept parameter  $\beta_0$  equals a given value is also sometimes of interest.

## Intercept test, assumptions

(The assumptions of slides 8 and 23.)

## Intercept test, hypotheses

$$H_0 : \beta_0 = \beta_0^0 \quad H_1 : \beta_0 \neq \beta_0^0.$$

# Intercept, hypothesis test

## Intercept test, test statistic

- The  $t$ -test statistic

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_0 - \beta_0^0}{\frac{\hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}}{\sqrt{n(n-1)} s_x}},$$

where  $\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\text{Var}(\varepsilon_i)}$  (see slide 19) and  $s_x$  is the sample standard deviation of  $x$ , has under  $H_0$  Student's  $t$ -distribution with  $n - 2$  degrees of freedom.

- Under  $H_0$ , the expected value of  $t$  is 0 and **large absolute values** of the test statistic suggest, that the null hypothesis  $H_0$  does not hold.

## Intercept, confidence interval

A  $(1 - \alpha)100\%$  confidence interval for the intercept  $\beta_0$  of the regression line is given as

$$\left( \hat{\beta}_0 - t_{n-2, \alpha/2} \frac{\hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}}{\sqrt{n(n-1)s_x}}, \hat{\beta}_0 + t_{n-2, \alpha/2} \frac{\hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}}{\sqrt{n(n-1)s_x}} \right),$$

where  $t_{n-2, \alpha/2}$  is the  $(1 - \alpha/2)$ -quantile of the  $t_{n-2}$ -distribution.