Fitting a Line, Residuals, and Correlation

August 27, 2019

August 27, 2019

1 / 54

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In this section, we will talk about fitting a line to data.

- Our hypothesis testing framework allowed us to examine one variable at a time.
- Linear regression will allow us to look at relationships between two (or more) variables.

- We discussed relationships between two variables when we looked at scatterplots.
- We thought some about correlations and the strength of those relationships.
- This section will help us to formalize some of those concepts.

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Fitting a Line to Data



This relationship can be modeled perfectly with a straight line:

$$y = 5 + 64.96x$$

Section 8.1

4 / 54

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When we can model a relationship *perfectly*,

y = 5 + 64.96x,

we know the exact value of y just by knowing the value of x.

However, this kind of perfect relationship is pretty unrealistic... it's also pretty uninteresting.

Linear regression takes this idea of fitting a line and allows for some error:

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

- β_0 ("beta 0") and β_1 are the model's parameters.
- The error is represented by ϵ .

- The parameters β_0 and β_1 are estimated using data.
- We denote these point estimates by b_0 and b_1 .

For a regression line

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

we make predictions about y using values of x.

- y is called the **response variable**.
- x is called the **predictor variable**.

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When we find our point estimates b_0 and b_1 , we usually write the line as

$$\hat{y} = b_0 + b_1 x$$

We drop the error term because it is a random, unknown quantity. Instead we focus on \hat{y} , the predicted value for y.

As with any line, the intercept and slope are meaningful.

- The slope β_1 is the change in y for every one-unit change in x.
- The intercept β_0 is the predicted value for y when x = 0.

Clouds of Points



In all 3 datasets, finding the linear trend may be useful! This is true despite the points sometimes falling somewhat far from the line.

August 27, 2019

11 / 54

Clouds of Points



Think of this like the 2-dimensional version of a point estimate.

- The line gives our best estimate of the relationship.
- There is some variability in the data that will impact our confidence in our estimates.
- The true relationship is unknown.

12 / 54

Linear Trends



Sometimes, there is a clear relationship but linear regression will not work! We can use slightly more advanced models for these settings (but we'll leave that for STAT 100B).

13 / 54

Image: A matrix

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Often, when we build a regression model our goal is prediction.

• We want to use information about the predictor variable to make predictions about the response variable.

Example: Possum Head Lengths



Remember our brushtail possums?

Section 8.1

August 27, 2019

15 / 54

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Researchers captured 104 brushtail possums and took a variety of body measurements on each before releasing them back into the wild.

We consider two measurements for each possum:

- total body length.
- head length.

Example: Possum Head Lengths



Total Length (cm)

17 / 54

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- The relationship isn't perfectly linear.
- However, there does appear to be a linear relationship.
- We want to try to use body length to predict head length.

The textbook gives the following linear relationship:

 $\hat{y} = 41 + 0.59x$

As always, the hat denotes an estimate of some unknown true value.

Example: Possum Head Lengths



Suppose we wanted to predict the head length for a possum with a body length of 80 cm.

20 / 54

We could try to do this using the scatterplot, but since the relationship isn't perfectly linear it's difficult to estimate.

With a regression line, we can instead calculate this mathematically:

 $\hat{y} = 41 + 0.59x$ = 41 + 0.59 × 80 = 88.2 This estimate should be thought of as an average.

The regression equation predicts that, *on average*, possums with total body length 80 cm will have a head length of 88.2 mm.

If we had more information (other variables), we could probably get a better estimate.

We might be interested in including

- sex
- region
- diet

or others.

Absent addition information, 88.2 mm is a reasonable prediction.

Residuals are the leftover variation in the data after accounting for model fit:

data = prediction + residual

Each observation will have its own residual.

Formally, we define the residual of the *i*th observation (x_i, y_i) as the difference between observed (y_i) and expected (\hat{y}_i) :

$$e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$$

We denote the residuals by e_i and find \hat{y} by plugging in x_i .

If an observation lands above the regression line,

$$e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i > 0.$$

If below,

$$e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i < 0.$$

When we estimate the parameters for the regression, our goal is to get our residuals as close to 0 as possible.

Example: Possum Head Lengths



The residual for each observation is the vertical distance between the line and the observation.

28 / 54

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Example: Possum Head Lengths



- × has a residual of about -1
- \bullet + has a residual of about 7
- \triangle has a residual of about -4

29 / 54

The scatterplot is nice, but a calculation is always more precise. Let's find the residual for the observation (77.0, 85.3).

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The predicted value \hat{y} is

 $\hat{y} = 41 + 0.59x$ = 41 + 0.59 × 77.0 = 86.4

August 27, 2019

Then the residual is

$$e = y - \hat{y}$$

= 85.3 - 86.4
= -1.1

So the model over-predicted head length by 1.1mm for this particular possum.

- Our goal is to get our residuals as close as possible to 0.
- Residuals are a good way to examine how well a linear model fits a data set.
- We can examine these quickly using a residual plot.

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Residual Plots



- $\bullet\,$ Residual plots show the x-values plotted against their residuals.
- Essentially we've titled and re-scaled the scatterplot so that the regression line is horizontal at 0.

Section 8.1

August 27, 2019

34 / 54

- We use residual plots to identify characteristics or patterns.
- These are things that are still apparent event after fitting the model.
- Obvious patterns suggest some problems with our model fit.



Figure 8.8: Sample data with their best fitting lines (top row) and their corresponding residual plots (bottom row).

August 27, 2019

36 / 54

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We've talked about the strength of linear relationships, but it would be nice to formalize this concept.

The **correlation** between two variables describes the strength of their linear relationship. It always takes values between -1 and 1.

We denote the correlation (or correlation coefficient) by R:

$$R = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{s_x} \times \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{s_y} \right)$$

where s_x and s_y are the respective standard deviations for x and y.

Correlations

- Close to -1 suggest strong, negative linear relationships.
- Close to +1 suggest strong, positive linear relationships.
- Close to 0 have little-to-no linear relationship.

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Note: the sign of the correlation will match the sign of the slope!

- If R < 0, there is a downward trend and $b_1 < 0$.
- If R > 0, there is an upward trend and $b_1 > 0$.
- If $R \approx 0$, there is no relationship and $b_1 \approx 0$.

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Correlation



41 / 54

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Correlations only represent *linear* trends!



Clearly there are some strong relationships here, but they are not ones we can represent well using a correlation coefficient.

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We want a line with small residuals, but if we minimize

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

we will get very large negative residuals!

As with the standard deviation, we will use squares to shift the focus to magnitude:

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

and will find the β estimates that minimize this. This is called the Least Squares Criterion.

We often call this approach **least square regression**. To fit this line, we want

- Linearity. The data should show a linear trend.
- Nearly normal residuals. The residuals should be well-approximated by a normal distribution.
- Constant variability. As we move along x, the variability around the regression line should stay constant.
- Independent observations. This will apply to random samples.

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We want to estimate β_0 and β_1 in the equation

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

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

This turns out to be remarkably straightforward! The slope can be estimated as

$$b_1 = \frac{s_y}{s_x}R$$

and the intercept by

$$b_0 = \bar{y} - b_1 \bar{x}$$

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Although these formulas are easy to write out, they can be cumbersome to work through.

We usually use a computer to find the equation for a least squares linear regression line!

- When we make predictions, we simply plug in values of x to estimate values of y.
- However, this has limitations!
- We don't know how the data outside of our limited window will behave.

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Applying a model estimate for values outside of the data's range for x is called **extrapolation**.

- The linear model is only an approximation.
- We don't know anything about the relationship outside of the scope of our data.
- Extrapolation assumes that the linear relationship holds in places where it has not been analyzed.

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When those blizzards hit the East Coast this winter, it proved to my satisfaction that global warming was a fraud. That snow was freezing cold. But in an alarming trend, temperatures this spring have risen. Consider this: On February 6th it was 10 degrees. Today it hit almost 80. At this rate, by August it will be 220 degrees. So clearly folks the climate debate rages on.

 $\begin{array}{l} \text{Stephen Colbert} \\ \text{April 6th, } 2010^{12} \end{array}$

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We've evaluated the strength of a linear relationship between two variables using the correlation coefficient R.

However, it is also common to use R^2 . This helps describe how closely the data cluster around a linear fit. Suppose $R^2 = 0.62$ for a linear model. Then we would say

• About 62% of the data's variability is accounted for using the linear model.

And yes, R^2 is the square of the correlation coefficient R!

So what is a good or a bad fit? This will depend a lot on what field you are in!

However, for the purpose of this class, we will use a GPA system:

- $R^2 \ge 0.9$ is an A fit.
- $0.8 \le R^2 < 0.9$ is a B fit.
- $0.7 \le R^2 < 0.8$ is a C fit.
- $0.6 \le R^2 < 0.7$ is a D fit.
- $R^2 < 0.6$ is an F fit.

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