## Experimental Design and Statistical Methods Workshop

# SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION and CORRELATION

#### Jesús Piedrafita Arilla

jesus.piedrafita@uab.cat

Departament de Ciència Animal i dels Aliments



#### **Items**

- Correlation: degree of association
- Regression: prediction
  - The model
  - Assumptions
  - Matrix notation
  - Protocol of analysis
    - Plotting data
    - ANOVA in regression
    - Confidence intervals
    - Analysis of residuals
    - Influential observations

- Basic commands
  - cor.test
  - Im
  - anova
  - seq
  - influence.measures
- Libraries
  - car (scatterplot)

## **Analysis of several variables**

#### Two main interests:

- Estimating the degree of association between two variables:
   CORRELATION analysis.
- 2. Predicting the values of one variable given that we know the realised value of another variable(s): REGRESSION analysis. This analysis can also be used to understand the relationship among variables.
  - a) A response variable and an independent variable: **simple (linear) regression**.
  - b) A response variable and two or more independent variables: multiple (linear) regression.
  - c) When the relationship among variables is not linear: **nonlinear regression**.
  - d) If the variable is a dichotomous or binary variable: **logistic regression**.

## **Data example**



Suppose we have recorded the age (years) and blood pressure (mm Hg) of 20 people, obtaining the data presented in the table.

Age	Blood pressure
20	120
43	128
63	141
26	126
53	134
31	128
58	136
46	132
58	140
70	144
46	128
53	136
70	146
20	124
63	143
43	130
26	124
19	121
31	126
23	123

## Simple statistics

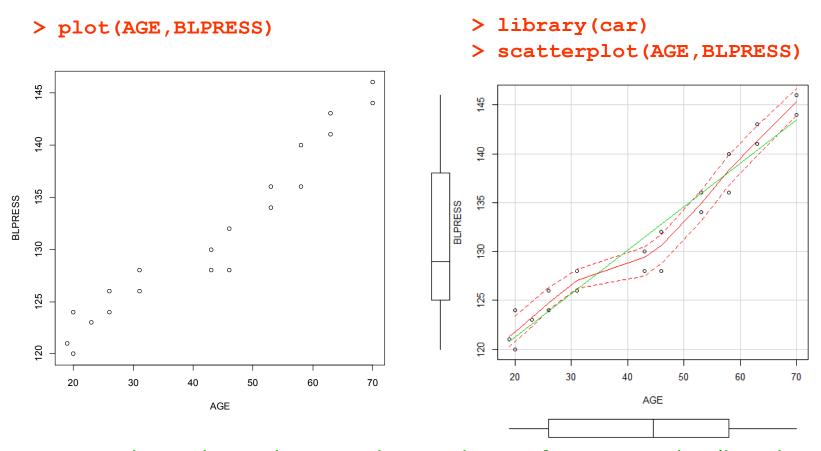
```
> ## Importing data
> BLOODP<-read.csv2("bloodpress.csv", header=T)
> attach(BLOODP)
> options(na.action=na.exclude)
> summary(BLOODP)
```

AGE		BLPRESS		
Min.	:19.0	Min.	:120.0	
1st Qu.	:26.0	1st Qu.	:125.5	
Median	:44.5	Median	:129.0	
Mean	:43.1	Mean	:131.5	
3rd Qu.	:58.0	3rd Qu.	:137.0	
Max.	:70.0	Max.	:146.0	

To avoid problems **in prediction** when missing values are present, we must use **options** (na.action=na.exclude). With the current data set it would be unnecessary.

### Plot of raw data

A plot for a pair of variables gives us a first impression about their relationship. It is also useful for detecting some extreme values.



Data not obviously non linear and no evidence of non-normality (boxplots not asymmetrical). No evidence of extreme values.  $_6$ 

## **Correlation** (Pearson)

The correlation is a measure of the degree of association between two variables. It is calculated as

$$r = \frac{\text{cov}(x, y)}{\sqrt{s_x^2 s_y^2}} = \frac{\sum_{i} (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum_{i} (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}$$

r is an estimator of  $\rho$ , the population parameter.

The denominator is the geometric mean of the sample variances estimates. This makes r to range from -1 to 1. As close is an estimate to -1 or 1, the correlation is larger.

> cor.test(BLPRESS, AGE)

Pearson's product-moment correlation

```
data: BLPRESS and AGE

t = 16.0262, df = 18, p-value = 4.239e-12

alternative hypothesis: true correlation is not equal to 0

95 percent confidence interval:
0.9160501 0.9869976

sample estimates:

cor

0.966699

r
```

## **Correlation** – sample size -

The sample size required to have a particular correlation statistically different from 0 depends upon the same correlation coefficient:

$$z' = 0.5 \ln \left[ \frac{1 - r}{1 + r} \right]$$

 $z' = 0.5 \ln \left| \frac{1-r}{1+r} \right|$  Fisher's classic z-transformation to normalize the distribution of Pearson correlation coefficient.

$$n = \left[\frac{z_{1-\alpha/2} + z_{1-\beta}}{|z'_{r_0} - z'_{r_1}|}\right] + 3$$

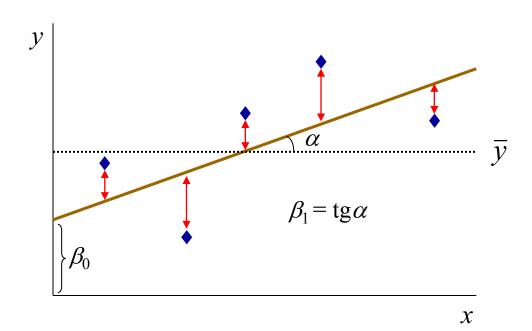
 $r_0$  = 0 and  $r_1$  is the magnitude of the coefficient we want to estimate.

	Sample size for a power of		
ho	80%	90%	
0.1	781	1044	
0.2	194	258	
0.3	85	113	
0.4	47	62	
0.5	29	38	
0.6	20	<b>25</b>	
0.7	14	17	
0.8	10	12	
0.9	7	8	

## Simple linear regression - the model -

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \mathcal{E}_i \longrightarrow \text{Random error}$$
 Dependent variable Intercept Independent variable

#### **Regression coefficient (slope)**



 $\beta_1$  is the increase of the dependent variable when the independent variable increases 1 unit

To estimate  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  we resort to the Least Squares methodology, i.e., minimize the sum of the squares of the deviations (red arrows) between actual (blue diamond) an predicted values (on the slope).

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\text{cov}(x, y)}{s_x^2}$$

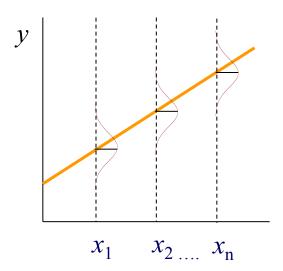
$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}$$

## **Assumptions in regression analysis**

- 1. The variables x and y are linearly related (definition of the model).
- 2. Both variables are measured for each of *n* observations.
- 3. Variable *x* is measured without error (fixed).
- 4. Variable *y* is a set of random observations measured with error.
- 5. The errors are independent and normally distributed with homogeneous variance:

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}\sigma_e^2)$$

Some of the above conditions can be seen in the figure. For each value (fixed) of x, there is a normal distribution of y (random), with mean on the regression line.



### **Matrix notation**

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ \dots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ 1 & x_3 \\ \dots & \dots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \varepsilon_3 \\ \dots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

Note that X is not a matrix of 0 and 1, but contains the values of the independent variable x.

As in ANOVA, we can minimize the sum of the squared errors and then we have the normal equations:

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} \implies \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$$

Now X'X is not singular and can be solved without need of a generalised inverse (or restrictions).

## Simple linear regression – Protocol -

- 1. Decide which variable is to be y and which is to be x.
- 2. Plot data, *y* in the vertical axis.
- 3. Check evenness of x and y variables by a box-plot.
- 4. Transform x and/or y if not even.
- 5. Compute regression, save residuals, fitted *y* values and influence statistics. Calculate Durbin-Watson statistic if data are in a logical order.
- 6. Plot studentized or standardized residuals against fitted values (or x variable). Examine residual plots for outliers, and consider rejection of outliers with studentized or standardized residuals > 3 and go to step 5.
- 7. Compare influence statistics with critical values:

•	Leverage	> 2 <i>p</i> / <i>n</i>
•	Dffits (absolute value)	$> 2\sqrt{(p/n)}$
•	Cook's D	> 4/n
•	Dfbetas	$> 2/\sqrt{n}$

- Where p = number of parameters in the model (number of  $\beta$ ) and n = number of **data points** in the regression. If **two or more** influence statistics (among the first three) are greater than the critical values, consider rejecting points and return to step 5.
- 8. If outliers or leverage points are a problem, consider using a robust regression method.

(Adapted from Fry, 1993)

## Simple linear regression - Results (1) -

Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

## For each increment of 1 year, blood pressure increases 0.4451 mm Hg

$$\hat{y}_i = 112.3167 + 0.4451 x_i$$

$$t(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{s.e.(\hat{\beta}_1)}$$
$$= \frac{0.44509}{0.02777} = 16.03$$

## Simple linear regression - Results (2) -

Residual standard error: 2.12 on 18 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.9345, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9309

F-statistic: 256.8 on 1 and 18 DF, p-value: 4.239e-12

#### > anova (BLOODP.REG)

Analysis of Variance Table

Response: BLPRESS

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value

AGE 1 1154.12 1154.12 256.84 4.239e-12 \*\*\*

Residuals 18 80.88 4.49

---

Signif. codes: 0 \\*\*\*' 0.001 \\*\*' 0.01 \\*' 0.05 \.' 0.1 \' 1

 $F = t^2$ 

Pr (>F)

*R-Squared* is the square of the correlation coefficient. It represents the fraction of the total variation in blood pressure that is explained by the linear relationship with age.

Adj R-Sq includes a correction to overcome the increment in R-Squared with the number of regressors (k).

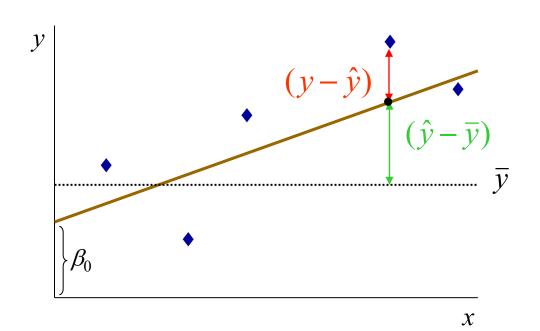
$$R^2 = SS_{AGE} / SS_{TOTAL}$$

$$R_{adj}^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2) \frac{N - 1}{N - k - 1}$$

 $H_0 (\beta_1 = 0)$  is

rejected

## **ANOVA** in regression



$$(y - \overline{y}) = (y - \hat{y}) + (\hat{y} - \overline{y})$$
Deviated to
regression
Due to
regression

Squaring and and summing on both sides of the equation we can arrive at the following ANOVA table:

Source	d.f.	S.S.	M.S.	<b>E(M.S.)</b>	F
Due to regression	1	$\hat{eta}_1 SP_{xy}$	$\hat{eta}_1 SP_{xy}$	$\sigma^2 + \beta_1^2 SS_x$	$MS_{ m Reg}/MS_{ m Error}$
Deviations to regression	<i>n</i> -2	$SS_y - \hat{\beta}_1 SP_{xy}$	$(SS_y - \hat{\beta}_1 SP_{xy})/(n-2)$	$\sigma^2$	

## Simple linear regression - Results (3) -

Confidence intervals for  $\beta_1$  (for  $\beta_0$  is similar):

$$(\hat{\beta}_1 - t_{\alpha/2} \, s.e.(\hat{\beta}_1), \, \hat{\beta}_1 + t_{\alpha/2} \, s.e.(\hat{\beta}_1))$$

This can be done easily with R (both for  $b_0$  and  $b_1$ ):

> confint(BLOODP.REG,level=0.95)

## Simple linear regression - Results (4) -

- > data.frame(BLOODP, Predicted=fitted(BLOODP.REG), Residuals=resid(BLOODP.REG),
  + RIstudent=rstandard(BLOODP.REG), Restudent=rstudent(BLOODP.REG))
- AGE BLPRESS Predicted Residuals RIstudent Restudent 121.2184 -1.21844210 -0.62038822 -0.60946002 1 20 120 43 128 131.4555 -3.45549109 -1.67245066 -1.76853813 3 63 141 140.3573 0.64272718 0.32284288 0.31465921 26 4 126 123.8890 2.11102338 1.04984002 1.05300889 5 53 134 135.9064 -1.90638196 -0.93096414 -0.92733538 6 31 128 126.1144 1.88557795 0.92493113 0.92102499 7 58 136 138.1318 -2.13182739 -1.05313803 -1.05653371 8 46 132 132.7908 -0.79075835 -0.38301620 -0.37375101 9 58 140 138.1318 1.86817261 0.92289068 0.91889212 10 70 144 143.4729 0.52710357 0.27363114 0.26647648 132.7908 -4.79075835 -2.32047892 -2.69371696 11 46 128 12 53 136 135.9064 0.09361804 0.04571751 0.04443202 13 70 146 143.4729 2.52710357 1.31187546 1.34061303 14 20 124 121.2184 2.78155790 1.41627226 1.46012594 15 63 143 140.3573 2.64272718 1.32744606 1.35824022 16 43 130 131.4555 -1.45549109 -0.70445473 -0.69424391 17 26 124 123.8890 0.11102338 0.05521340 0.05366233 18 19 121 120.7734 0.22664698 0.11594922 0.11272449 19 31 126 126.1144 -0.11442205 -0.05612736 -0.05455077 20 23 123 122.5537 0.22434720 0.21833176 0.44629064

"Internally studentized residual", i.e., the residual divided by the own standard error (not uniform across observations).

**REstudent** is an "Externally studentized residual".

Only observation 11 is a weak outlier.

$$\hat{y}_1 = 112.317 + 0.445 \times 20 = 121.2184;$$
  $\hat{r}_1 = 120 - 121.2184 = -1.2184$ 

## Some statistics useful for regression analysis

#### Internally studentized residual

Weak outlier,  $|rs_i| > 2$  (95% confidence) Strong outlier,  $|rs_i| > 3$  (95% confidence)

$$rs_i = \frac{r_i}{\sqrt{MSE(1-h_i)}} \sim t_{N-k-1}$$

#### Externally studentized residuals (-i)

Calculated as the previous one, but removing the *i* observation to calculate the  $s^2$ . Under  $H_0$ , it follows a *t* distribution with N-k-2 df.

#### Leverage $(h_i)$

Standardized value of how much an observation deviates from the centre of the space of x values. Observations with high leverage can indicate an outlier in the x and are potentially influent. Computed as the diagonal elements of  $\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'$ .

$$DFFITS_{i} = \frac{\hat{y}_{i} - \hat{y}_{i,-i}}{S_{-i}\sqrt{h_{i}}} = R - student_{i} \left[\frac{h_{i}}{1 - h_{i}}\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$DFBETAS_{j,i} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_{j} - \hat{\beta}_{j,-i}}{S_{-i}\sqrt{C_{jj}}}$$

where  $c_{jj}$  are the diagonal elements of  $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$ . Analyse only *DFBETAS* corresponding to high values of *DFFITS*.

#### Cook's D

Essentially a *DFFITS* statistic scaled and squared to make extreme values stand out more clearly.

## Simple linear regression - Results (5) -

#### > influence.measures(BLOODP.REG)

```
dfb.1
             dfb.AGE
                      dffit cov.r
                                   cook.d
                                             hat inf
  -0.23925 0.199083 -0.2475 1.251 3.17e-02 0.1416
  -0.15159 0.002377 -0.4057 0.842 7.36e-0.0500
  -0.05363 0.087353 0.1151 1.256 6.97e-03 0.1180
   0.32262 -0.248700 0.3514 1.098 6.14e-02 0.1002
   0.03674 -0.124512 -0.2482 1.088 3.10e-02 0.0668
5
6
   7
   0.10973 -0.215983 -0.3284 1.083 5.36e-02 0.0881
  -0.01804 -0.014580 -0.0870 1.163 3.98e-03 0.0514
  -0.09543 0.187846 0.2856 1.116 4.11e-02 0.0881
10 -0.07195 0.103347 0.1224 1.346 7.90e-03 0.1742
11 -0.13000 -0.105085 -0.6273 0.581 1.46e-01 0.0514
12 -0.00176 0.005966 0.0119 1.201 7.48e-05 0.0668
13 -0.36195 0.519927 0.6157 1.110 1.82e-01 0.1742
14 0.57320 -0.476956 0.5930 1.031 1.65e-01 0.1416
15 -0.23151 0.377061 0.4967 1.034 1.18e-01 0.1180
16 -0.05951 0.000933 -0.1593 1.116 1.31e-02 0.0500
17 0.01644 -0.012674 0.0179 1.246 1.70e-04 0.1002
   0.04595 -0.038599 0.0473 1.317 1.18e-03 0.1497
18
19 -0.01303 0.008992 -0.0155 1.212 1.28e-04 0.0751
   0.07612 -0.061268  0.0804  1.266  3.41e-03  0.1193
20
```

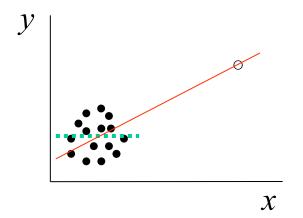
All values of DFFIT are below the critical value 0.63 (=2  $\sqrt{(2/20)}$ ), i.e., not influential observations on the predicted values. DFBETAS (dfb.) test influence on the parameter estimates, and do not need to be examined because DFFIT values are low.

Cook's D values are below the critical value 0.2 (=4/20).

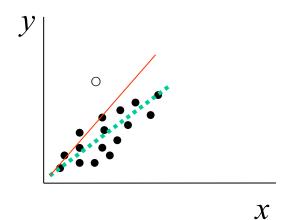
Leverage is presented in **hat**. All values are lower than 0.2, the critical value.

## Some graphics about influential observations

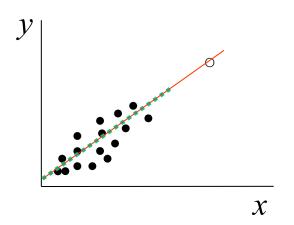
High leverage, influential



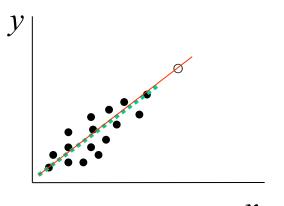
Low leverage, influential



High leverage, not influential



Low leverage, not influential



 $\mathcal{X}$ 

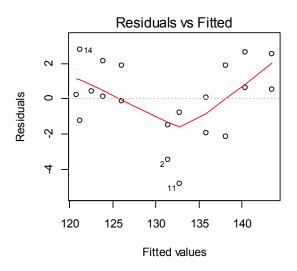
## Simple linear regression - diagnostics -

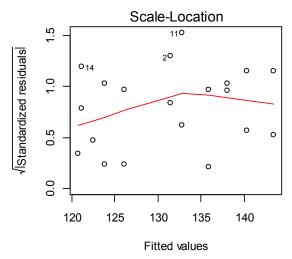
- > layout(matrix(c(1,2,3,4),2,2)) # optional 4 graphs/page
- > plot(BLOODP.REG)

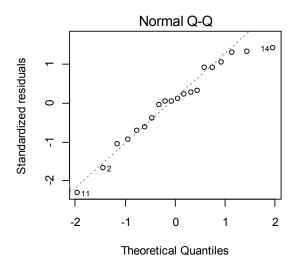
Residuals are distributed approximately at random: homogenetiy of variance met.

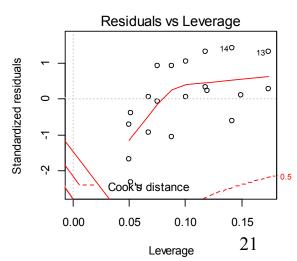
No important deviations in Q-Q plot: response variable normal.

None of the points approach the high Cook's distance contour(s): none of the observations are influential.



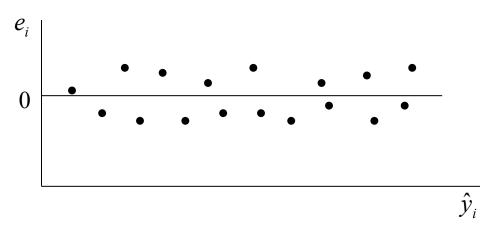




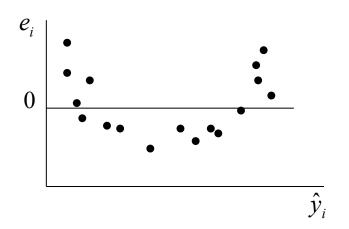


## Some plots of residuals

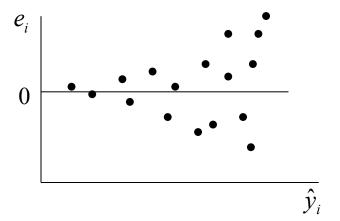
Ideal residual plot (random distribution around 0)



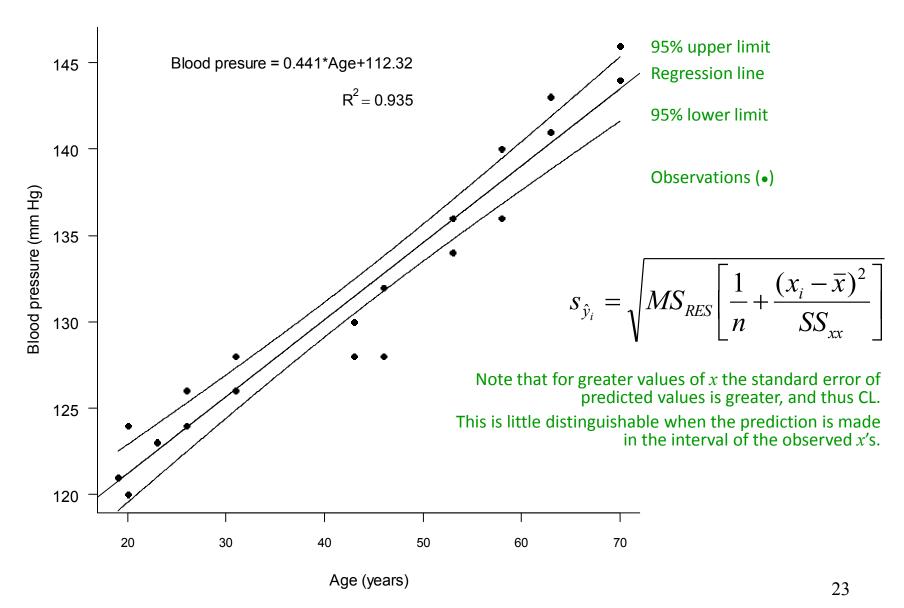
Model should involve curvature



Heterogeneous variance



## Simple linear regression - Regression line and CL -



## Simple linear regression – program of the graphic -

```
> ## Summary scatterplot
> #cretate a plot with solid dots (pch=16) and no axis or labels
> plot(BLPRESS~AGE, pch=16, axes=F, xlab="", ylab="")
> #put the x-axis (axis1) with smaller label font size
> axis(1, cex.axis=.8)
> #put the x-axis label 3 lines down from the axis
> mtext(text="Age (years)", side=1, line=3)
> #put the y-axis (axis 2) with horizontal tick labels
> axis(2, las=1)
> #put the y-aix label 3 lines to the left of the axis
> mtext(text= "Blood pressure (mm Hg)", side=2, line=3)
> #add the regression line from the fitted model
> abline(BLOODP.REG)
> #add the regression formula
> text(50,145,"Blood presure = 0.441*Age+112.32", pos=2)
> #add the r squared value
> text(50,143,expression(paste(R^2==0.935)), pos=2)
> #create a sequence of 100 numbers spanning the range of ages
> x < -seq(min(AGE), max(AGE), l=1000)
> #for each value of x, calculate the upper and lower 95% confidence
> y<-predict(BLOODP.REG, data.frame(AGE=x), interval="c")
> #plot the upper and lower 95% confidence limits
> matlines(x,y, lty=1, col=1)
> #put an L-shaped box to complete the axis
> box(bty="1")
```

## References

Fry J.C. 1993. Biological Data Analysis. IRL Press, Oxford.