

# Linear Regression

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$$y = mx + b + e$$

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Usually the basis for this is a *linear association* between two variables.

Usually this association is assumed to have the following form:

$$y = mx + b + e$$

- $x$  is the predictor variable
- $y$  is the dependent or predicted variable
- $m$  is the slope of the regression line
- $b$  is the intercept of the regression
- $e$  has a bell curve distribution with mean zero

# Linear Regression

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The *correlation coefficient*  $r$  is a measure of *linear* association between two variables.

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An  $r$  value of 1 or  $-1$  indicates a perfect linear relationship,  
 $y = mx + b$

An  $r$  value of 0 indicates no linear relationship.

This is equivalent to saying that the slope  $m$  is zero.



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The slope  $m$ , correlation coefficient  $r$ , and the standard deviations  $SD_x$  and  $SD_y$  are related by:

$$m = \frac{r \cdot SD_y}{SD_x}$$

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$$m = \frac{r \cdot SD_y}{SD_x}$$

Notice that  $m$  is necessarily zero if  $r$  is zero:

$$m = \frac{0 \cdot SD_y}{SD_x}$$

so

$$m = 0$$

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The slope  $m$ , intercept  $b$ , and the means  $\bar{x}$ ,  $\bar{y}$  are related by:

$$b = \bar{y} - m \cdot \bar{x}$$

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The term  $e$  in the usual linear model

$$y = mx + b + e$$

is assumed to have a bell curve distribution with mean zero.



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The term  $e$  in the usual linear model

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is assumed to have a bell curve distribution with mean zero. The standard deviation of this bell curve is the RMS error,  $s$ .

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The **RMS error** has characteristics similar to the standard deviation for a bell curve.

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If we take a scatter plot and draw the regression line on it,

68% of the observations will fall in a band of width  $s$  on either side of the regression line.

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If we take a scatter plot and draw the regression line on it,

68% of the observations will fall in a band of width  $s$  on either side of the regression line.

About 95% will fall in a band of width  $2s$  on either side of the regression line.

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The **RMS error** is given by the formula:

$$s = \sqrt{1 - r^2} \cdot SD_y$$

where  $r$  is the correlation coefficient.

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where  $r$  is the correlation coefficient.

The closer  $r$  is to  $-1$  or  $1$ , the smaller the RMS error becomes.

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**Definition:** The **coefficient of determination**, denoted by  $R^2$ , is the square of the correlation coefficient  $r$ .



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**Definition:** The **coefficient of determination**, denoted by  $R^2$ , is the square of the correlation coefficient  $r$ .

$$R^2 = r^2$$

The coefficient of determination  $R^2$  can be interpreted as the *proportion of the dispersion of  $y$  that is explained by the regression line*.

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For example, if there are 40 pairs of  $x$  and  $y$  values in columns  $A$  and  $B$ ,

**=CORREL(A1:A40,B1:B40)**

will compute the correlation coefficient  $r$ .

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The exact name and syntax of this function will vary somewhat among the different brands of spreadsheet programs.

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For example, if there are 40 pairs of  $x$  and  $y$  values in columns  $A$  and  $B$ ,

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will compute the slope  $m$ .

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For example, if there are 40 pairs of  $x$  and  $y$  values in columns  $A$  and  $B$ ,

**=SLOPE(A1:A40,B1:B40)**

will compute the slope  $m$ .

**=INTERCEPT(A1:A40,B1:B40)**

will compute the intercept  $b$ .



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If there are 40 pairs of  $x$  and  $y$  values in columns  $A$  and  $B$ ,

$= SQRT(1 - (CORREL(A1 : A40, B1 : B40))^2) * STDEV(B1 : B40)$

will compute the RMS error  $s$ .

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In this type of application, the  $x$  values represent time.

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In this type of application, the  $x$  values represent time.

The  $y$  values represent the quantity we want to determine the growth rate of.

The slope represents the increase in the quantity measured per unit of time.

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The regression models we have studied so far will work fine in this situation, provided the following assumption is reasonable:

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The change in  $y$  measured in *units* is the same, on average, for each unit of time.

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For example, if we are measuring cars produced, we can assume that the **number** of cars produced increases or decreases by the same amount each month.



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The change in  $y$  measured in *units* is the same, on average, for each unit of time.

For example, if we are measuring cars produced, we can assume that the **number** of cars produced increases or decreases by the same amount each month.

That number is the slope of the regression line.

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In these applications, it is assumed that the *percentage* change in  $y$  from month to month is constant.

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This creates a problem, because  $x$  and  $y$  *no longer have a linear relationship*

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In these applications, it is assumed that the *percentage* change in  $y$  from month to month is constant.

This creates a problem, because  $x$  and  $y$  *no longer have a linear relationship*

That is, the equation

$$y = mx + b + e$$

no longer holds.

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In a constant percentage growth situation, if we plot  $y$  and  $x$  over time, we *do not* get a straight line:

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Constant percentage growth produces an *exponential curve*. One formulation is:

$$y = b \cdot m^x$$

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Generally speaking, a curve is much more difficult to fit to data than a straight line.



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Hopefully, the second model is easier to work with.

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In general a transformation turns data that fits one model into data that fits another.

Hopefully, the second model is easier to work with.

Once we have the fitted or projected values, we reverse the transformation to recover the original measures.

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There are many transformations, but the one that works in this case is the *log transform*

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If we take (natural) logs of both sides of the equation

$$y = b \cdot m^x$$

we get

$$\ln y = \ln b + \ln m \cdot x$$

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If we take (natural) logs of both sides of the equation

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we get

$$\ln y = \ln b + \ln m \cdot x$$

Now we have a linear equation instead of an exponential one.

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The inverse of the log transform is the *exponential*, usually denoted by EXP



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To get back to a model for the untransformed data, we apply the inverse of the transform to the fitted  $y$  values, the slope, and the intercept. For the original model,

- $m = EXP(SLOPE)$

- $b = EXP(INTERCEPT)$

- $y = EXP(SLOPE * x + INTERCEPT)$

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To get back to a model for the untransformed data, we apply the inverse of the transform to the fitted  $y$  values, the slope, and the intercept. For the original model,

- $m = EXP(SLOPE)$

- $b = EXP(INTERCEPT)$

- $y = EXP(SLOPE * x + INTERCEPT)$

Use these values with the model

$$y = b \cdot m^x$$