



Single and multiple linear regression analysis

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It all starts here *



Outline of the session

- Introduction
- Simple linear regression analysis
- SPSS example of simple linear regression analysis
- Additional topics in multiple linear regression analysis
 - Adjusted R-squared
 - Standardised regression coefficients
 - Multicollinearity
 - A note on categorical predictors (dummy variables)

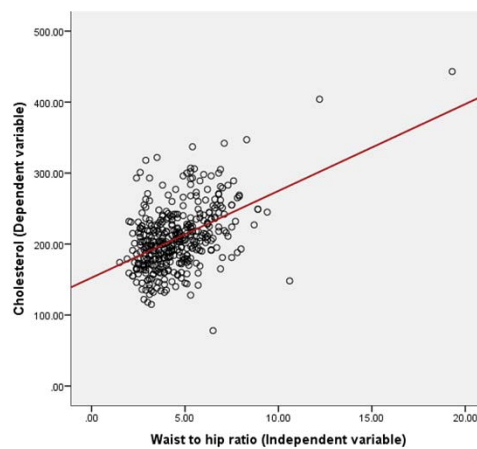
Introduction: Simple linear regression (1)

- Suppose we collect data on two variables:
 - Waist to hip ratio (X).
 - Cholesterol (Y).
- For each participant we now have a pair of observations (X_i, Y_i) .

ID	Cholesterol (Y)	Ratio (X)
1	203	3.60
2	165	6.90
3	228	6.20
4	78	6.50
5	249	8.90
⋮	⋮	⋮

Introduction: Simple linear regression (2)

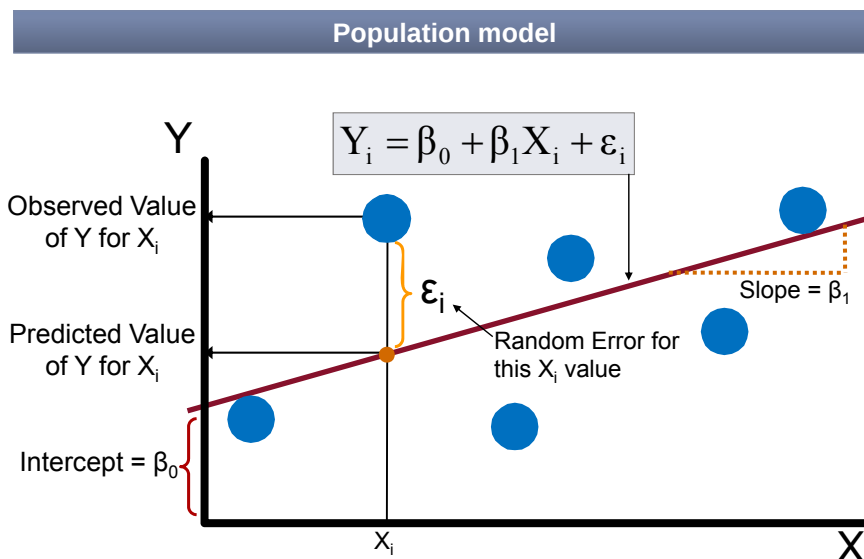
- We want to fit a straight line that describes the linear relationship between X and Y.



Introduction: Simple linear regression (3)

- Simple linear regression is a technique that is used to explore the nature of the relationship between **two** variables.
- Regression analysis enables us to investigate the change in one variable, called the response (dependent variable), which corresponds to a given change in the other, known as the explanatory variable (independent variable).
- The ultimate objective of regression analysis is to predict or estimate the value of the response that is associated with a fixed value of the explanatory variable.

Simple Linear Regression Model (1)



Simple Linear Regression Model (2)

Population model

The diagram illustrates the Simple Linear Regression Model (Population model) with the equation $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \varepsilon_i$. The equation is enclosed in a light blue box. Labels with arrows point to the components: 'Dependent variable' points to Y_i ; 'Population Y intercept' points to β_0 ; 'Population slope coefficient' points to β_1 ; 'Independent variable' points to X_i ; and 'Random error term' points to ε_i . Below the equation, a red bracket under $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i$ is labeled 'Linear component', and another red bracket under ε_i is labeled 'Random error component'.

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \varepsilon_i$$

Simple Linear Regression Equation (Prediction Line)

The simple linear regression equation provides an **estimate** of the population regression line

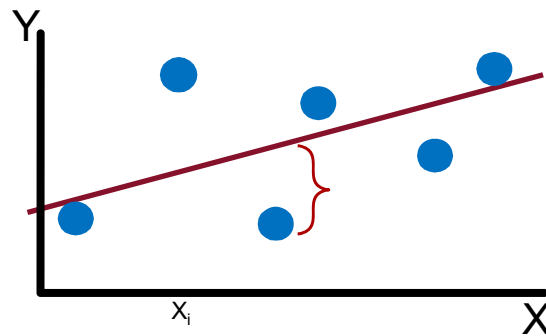
The diagram illustrates the Simple Linear Regression Equation (Prediction Line) with the equation $\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$. The equation is enclosed in a light gray box. Labels with arrows point to the components: 'Estimated (or predicted) Y value for observation i' points to $\hat{Y}_i$; 'Estimate of the regression intercept' points to $\hat{\beta}_0$; 'Estimate of the regression slope' points to $\hat{\beta}_1$; and 'Value of X for observation i' points to X_i .

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

Method of least squares

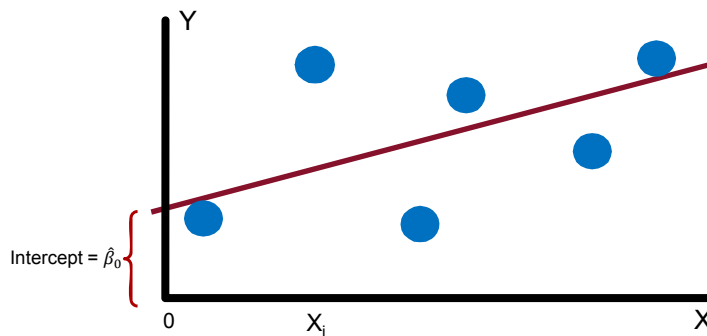
$\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ are obtained by finding the values of that minimize the sum of the squared differences between Y and $\hat{Y}$:

$$\min \sum (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$$



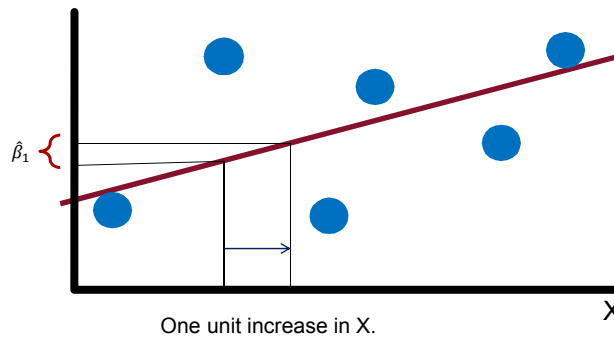
Interpretation of intercept term

- $\hat{\beta}_0$ is the estimated average values of Y when the value of X is zero.
- $\hat{\beta}_0$ has only practical application if $X=0$ is in the range of observed X values.



Interpretation of slope term

- $\hat{\beta}_1$ estimates the change in the average value of Y as a result of a one-unit increase in X.



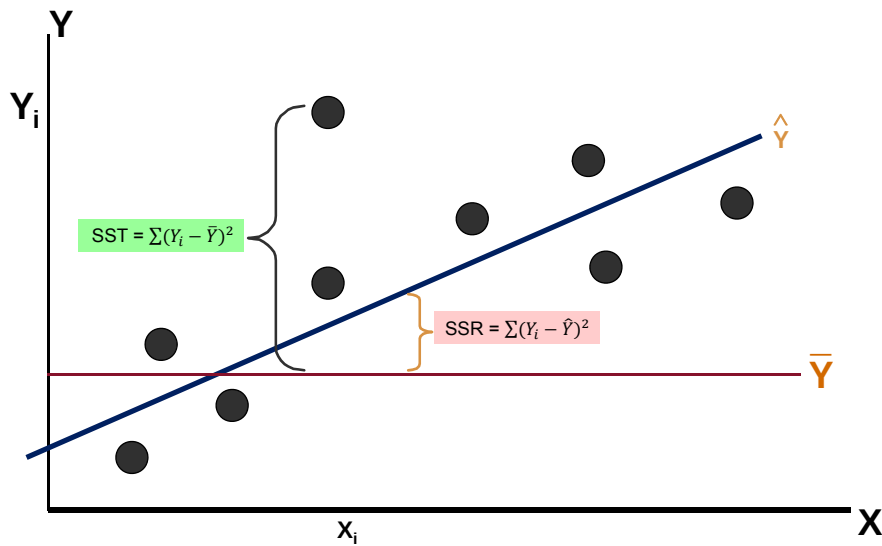
Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

- The **coefficient of determination** is the portion of the total variation in the dependent variable that is explained by variation in the independent variable
- The coefficient of determination is also called **R-squared** and is denoted as R^2 .

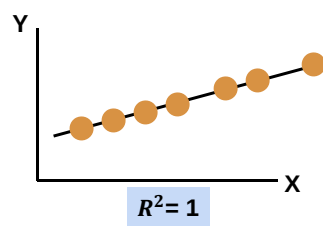
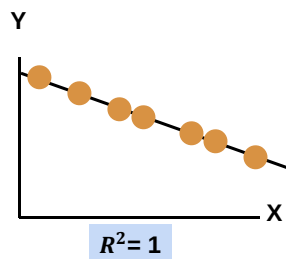
$$R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} = \frac{\text{regression sum of squares}}{\text{total sum of squares}}$$

$$0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$$

Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

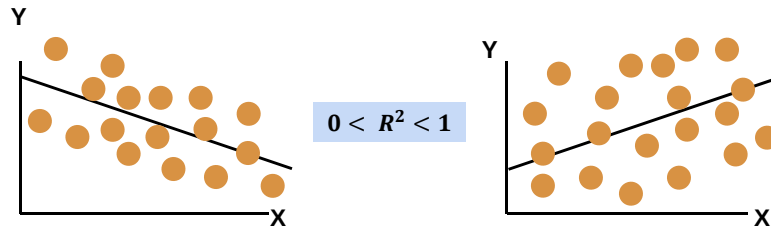


Examples of approximate R^2 values (1)



Perfect linear relationship between X and Y .
100% of the variation in Y is explained by variation in X .

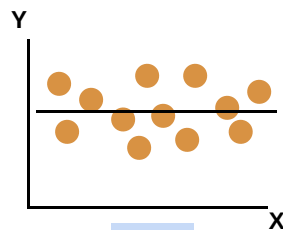
Examples of approximate R^2 values (2)



$$0 < R^2 < 1$$

Weak linear relationships between X and Y.
Some but not all of the variation in Y is explained by variation in X.

Examples of Approximate R^2 values (3)



$$R^2 = 0$$

No linear relationship between X and Y.
The value of Y does not depend on X.
None of the variation in Y is explained by the variation in X.

Assumption of simple linear regression models

- Linearity
 - The relationship between X and Y is linear.
- Independence of errors
 - Error values are statistically independent.
- Normality of error
 - Error values are normally distributed for any given value of X.
- Equal variance (homoscedasticity)
 - The probability distribution of the errors has constant variance.

Test assumptions **after fitting the model** by making use of the residuals.

Residual analysis

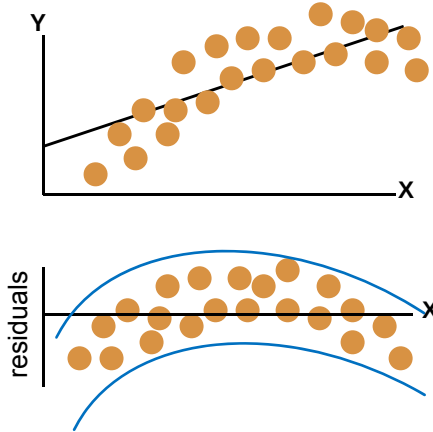
- The residual for observation i, e_i , is the difference between the observed and predicted values.

$$e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$$

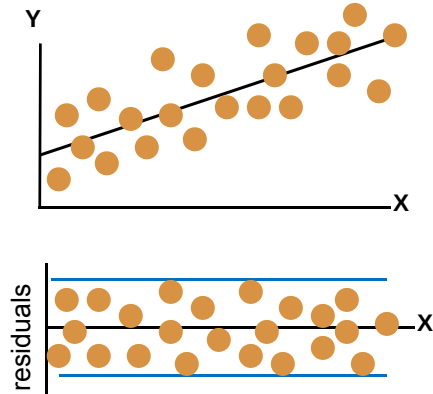
- Check the assumptions of regression by examining the residuals.
 - Linearity assumption
 - Independence assumption
 - Normal distribution assumption
 - Constant variance for all levels of X (homoscedasticity).
- Graphical analysis of residuals
 - Plot the residuals against X.

Residual analysis for linearity

✗ Not linear

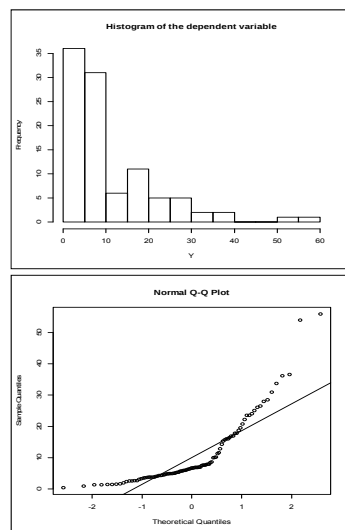


✓ Linear

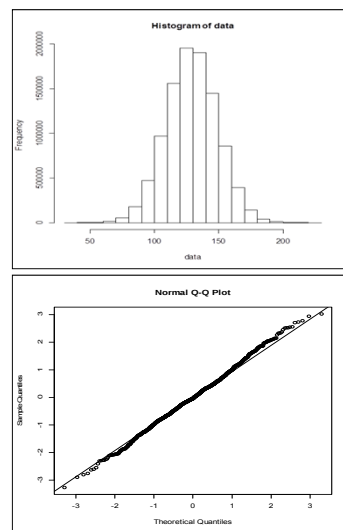


Residual analysis for normality

✗ Not normal

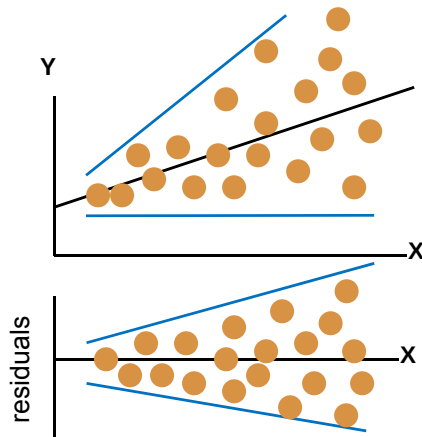


✓ Normal

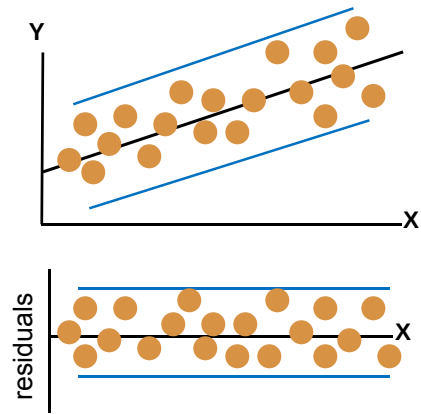


Residual analysis for equal variance

✗ Non-constant variance



✓ Constant variance

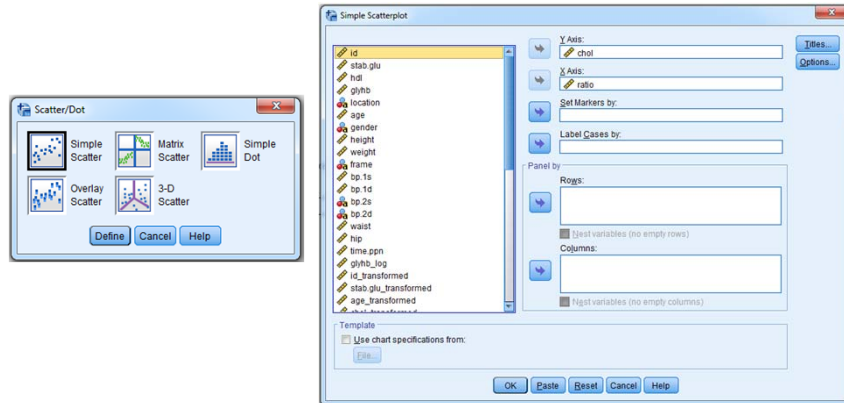


SPSS example: The data

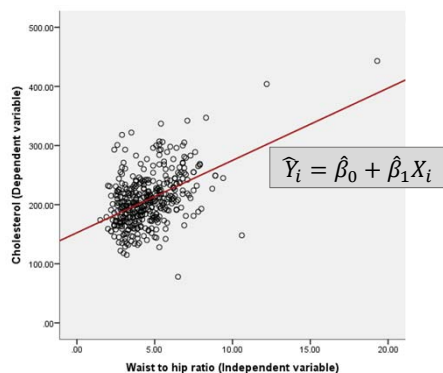
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- For each participant we now have a pair of observations (X_i, Y_i) .

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Steps in SPSS: Scatter plot and prediction line

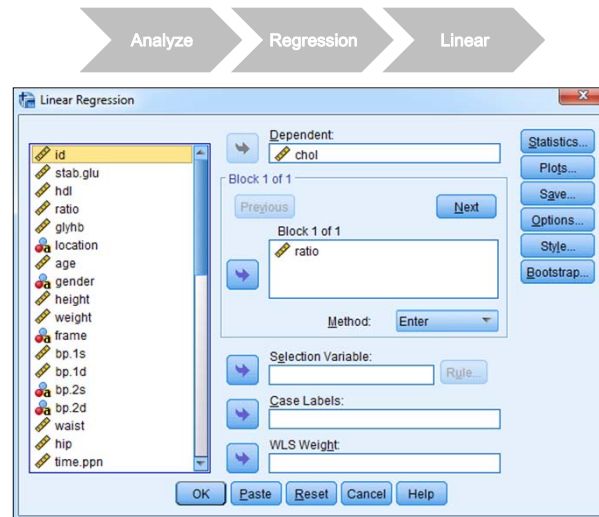


SPSS output: Scatter plot and prediction line

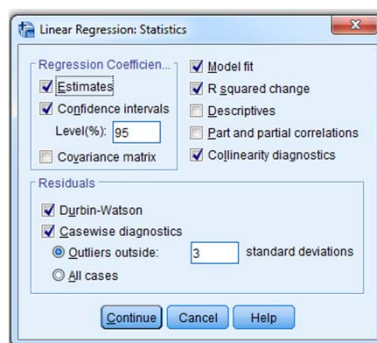


$$\text{Predicted cholesterol} = 0.970 + 0.387 \times \text{Waist}$$

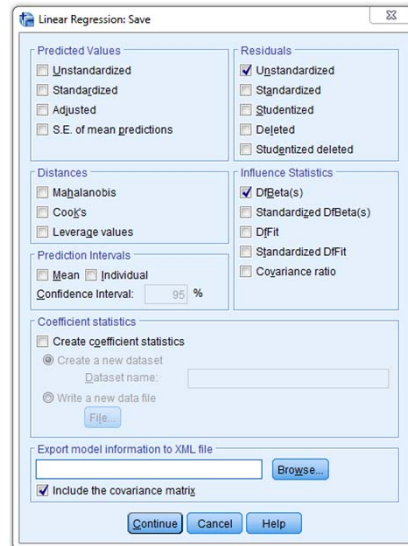
Steps in SPSS: Simple linear regression model



Steps in SPSS: Statistics tab



Steps in SPSS: Save tab



SPSS output: Regression equation

Coefficients ^a							
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Lower Bound Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	171.233	14.858		11.524	.000	142.022 200.443
	waist	.970	.387	.124	2.503	.013	.208 1.731

a. Dependent Variable: chol

$$\text{Predicted cholesterol} = 171.233 + 0.970 \times \text{Waist}$$

SPSS output: R^2 values

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.124 ^a	.015	.013	44.18890

a. Predictors: (Constant), waist
b. Dependent Variable: chol

1.5% of the variance of cholesterol could be explained by waist to hip ratio.

SPSS output: Inferences about the slope

Coefficients^a

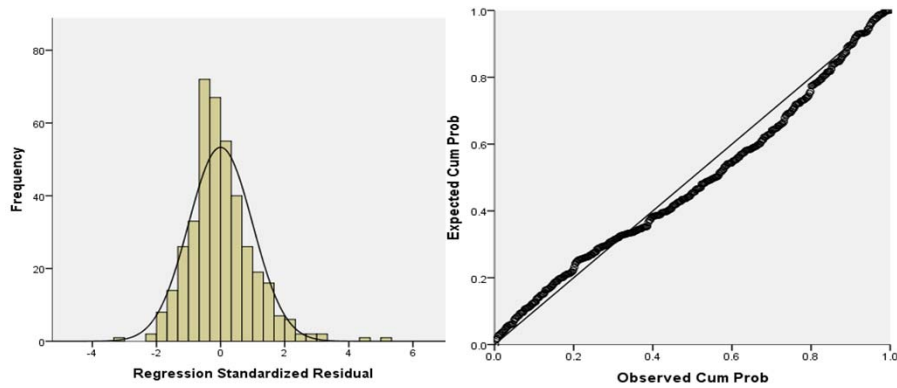
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	171.233	14.858		11.524	.000	142.022	200.443
	waist	.970	.387	.124	2.503	.013	.208	1.731

a. Dependent Variable: chol

$$H_0: \beta_1 = 0 \quad H_A: \beta_1 \neq 0$$

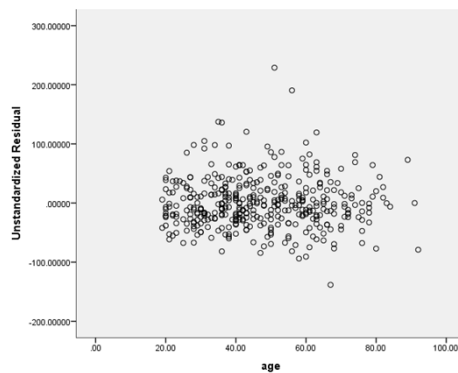
Waist to hip ratio is a significant predictor of the dependent variable cholesterol, $p=0.013$.

SPSS output: Residual analysis for normality



The residuals are normally distributed.

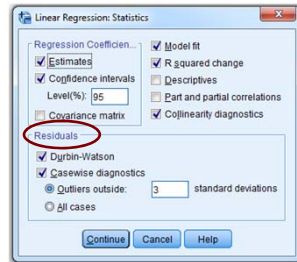
SPSS output: Residual analysis for equal variance



The residuals have constant variance.

SPSS output: Outliers

- If the absolute standardised residual value is larger than 3 then the observation is considered as an outlier.



Casewise Diagnostics^a

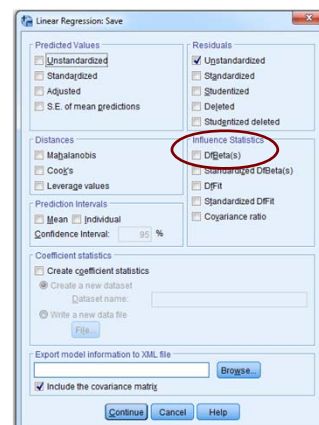
Case Number	Std. Residual	chol	Predicted Value	Residual
4	-3.935	78.00	232.0443	-154.04427
47	-3.428	148.00	282.1938	-134.19385
134	3.320	318.00	188.0105	129.98951
378	3.025	337.00	218.5895	118.41050
381	3.235	322.00	195.3495	126.65055

a. Dependent Variable: chol

SPSS output: Influential cases



- **DFBETAS**: It is the difference between the estimated regression coefficient $\hat{\beta}_k$ based on all n cases and the regression coefficient obtained when the i^{th} case is omitted.
- If the absolute value of the **DFBETAS** value exceeds $\frac{2}{\sqrt{n}}$ the value can be viewed as an influential value.



Introduction: Multiple linear regression analysis

- In the preceding chapter, we saw how simple linear regression can be used to explore the nature of the relationship between [two variables](#).
- If knowing the value of a single explanatory variable improves our ability to predict the response, we might expect that additional explanatory variables could be used to our advantage.
- To investigate the more complicated relationship among a number of different variables, we use a natural extension of simple linear regression analysis known as [multiple linear regression analysis](#).

Introduction: Multiple linear regression analysis

- Multiple linear regression equation:

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{B}_0 + \hat{B}_1X_1 + \hat{B}_2X_2 + \cdots + \hat{B}_pX_p$$

- The regression coefficients are still estimated by using the method of least squares.
- The independent variables can be continuous or categorical variables.
- In the case of categorical variables we need to use dummy variables.

Adjusted R-squared

- The inclusion of an additional variable in a model can never cause R^2 to decrease.
- To get around this problem, we can use a second measure, called the *adjusted R^2* , that compensated for the added complexity of a model.
- The *adjusted R^2* increases when the inclusion of a variable improves our ability to predict the response and decreases when it does not.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2		
1	.506 ^a	.256	.251	38.30893	.256	45.624	3	397	.000	1.985

a. Predictors: (Constant), weight, age, ratio
b. Dependent Variable: chol

Standardised coefficients

- Unstandardised coefficients**
 - The value of the unstandardised coefficient is dependent on the units of measurement of the variables.
 - It is not possible to compare the relative magnitude of coefficients.
- Standardised coefficients**
 - The value of the unstandardised coefficient now does not depend on the units of measurement of the variables.
 - It is now possible to compare the relative magnitude of coefficients.
 - How to standardise:

$$\frac{Y_i - \bar{Y}}{sd(Y_i)} \quad \frac{X_i - \bar{X}}{sd(X_i)}$$

Coefficients^a

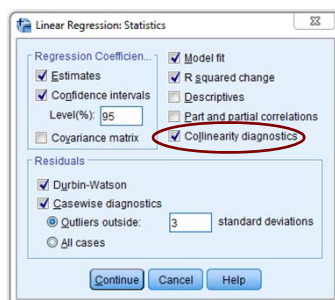
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error				Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	143.981	10.679		13.482	.000	122.986	164.976		
	ratio	11.908	1.172	.465	10.157	.000	9.603	14.212	.893	1.120
	age	.448	.119	.165	3.756	.000	.213	.682	.967	1.034
	weight	-.060	.050	-.055	-1.210	.227	-.159	.038	.911	1.098

a. Dependent Variable: chol

Multicollinearity

- Multicollinearity exists when there is a strong correlation between two or more predictors (independent variables) in a regression model.
- High levels of collinearity increase the probability that a good predictor of the outcome variable will be found non-significant and rejected from the model (Type II error).
- VIF (variance inflation factor) > 10 indicates a potential problem.
- Tolerance below 0.2 indicates a potential problem.

SPSS output: Multicollinearity



Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta				Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	143.981	10.679			13.482	.000	122.986	164.976		
	ratio	11.908	1.172	.465		10.157	.000	9.603	14.212	.893	1.120
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a. Dependent Variable: chol