

BIO-5023YB 2020 Spring term – week 3 Linear models continued

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#### Learning outcomes

- Understand the Ordinary Least Squares method of regression

- Calculate F and t for hypothesis testing

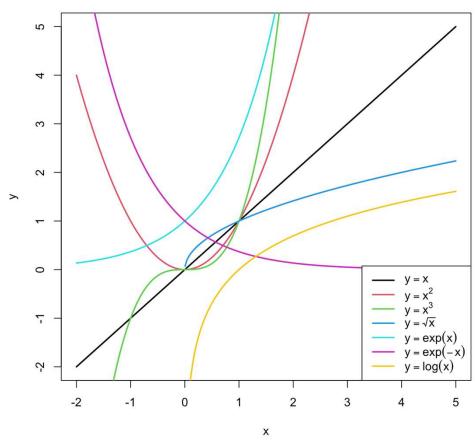
- Practice results writing

# Recap on Ordinary Least Squares

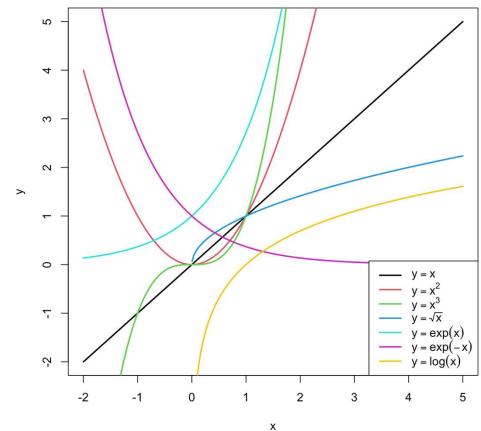
| Recall that we are usi                 | ing models to quantify the var             | ability in our datasets.                    |
|--|--|---|
| This fits a lir line and the data poin | •  | squares difference between our slope of the |
|  | odel to our data we can describe it in ter | ms of two parts                             |
| The v                                  | ariance which is not explained by the mo   | odel  |

What is the first assumption we met when using linear models?

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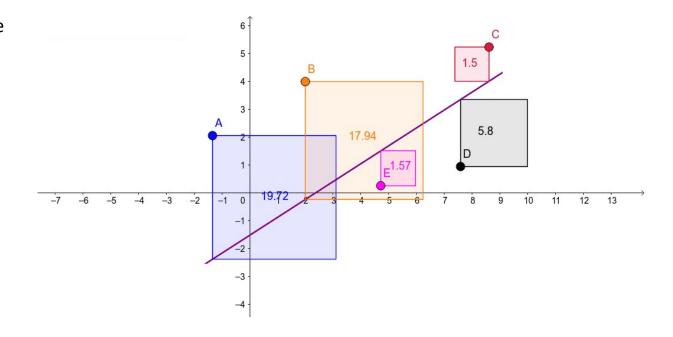
# What is the first assumption we met when using linear models?



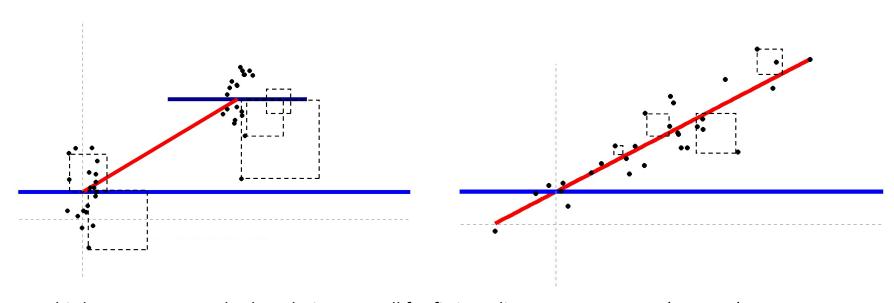
Later we will encounter methods (including data transformation) that often allow us to "approximate" a linear relationship

## Recap on Ordinary Least Squares

OLS ~ Draws the regression line in the way that produces the smallest value of the *squared* residuals



## Recap on Ordinary Least Squares



This least squares method works just as well for fitting a line to compare two (or more) means as it does to fit a regression

We use OLS to fit the line but what is the equation that explains the fit of a straight line?

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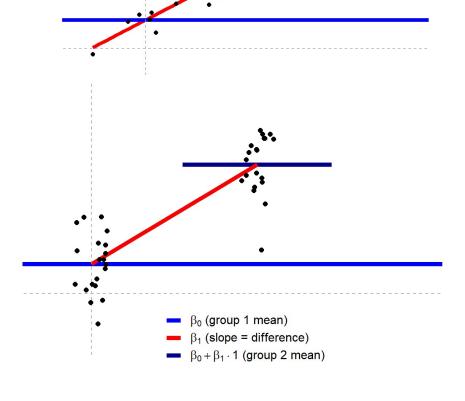
$$y = mx + c$$

When written to describe a general linear model

You may see this as

$$y = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * x$$

This is exactly the same equation just shuffled round



 $\beta_0$  (intercept)  $\beta_1$  (slope)

We use OLS to fit the line but what is the equation that explains the fit of a straight line?

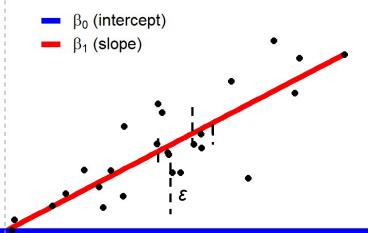
$$y = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * x$$

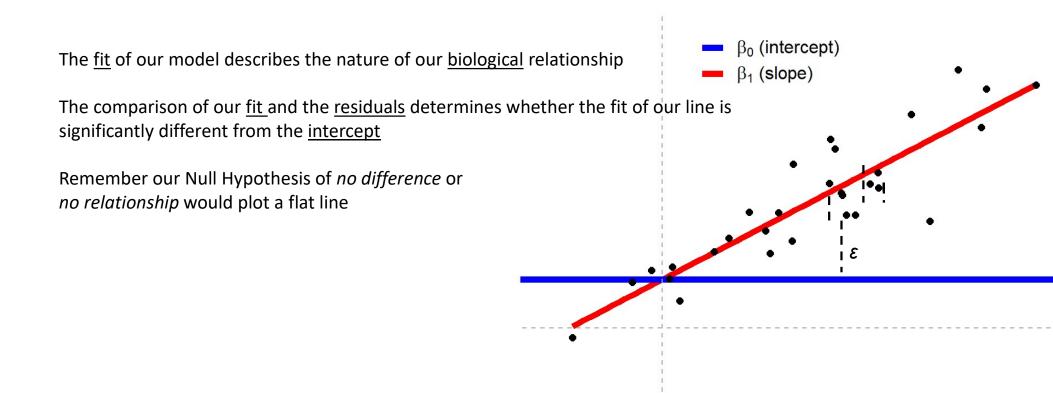
Describes the fit of the model

This is the bit we care about.

To produce the <u>full</u> equation for a linear model we can add a term for the <u>residuals</u>

$$y = \beta 0 + \beta 1x + \varepsilon$$

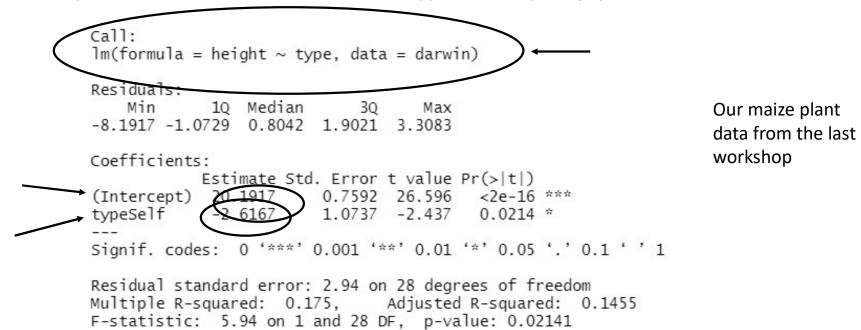




#### Hypothesis testing

We typically care whether our relationship/difference is significant.

We have already seen how an understanding of a linear model gives us *more* information about the nature of our relationship/ difference than the traditional ANOVA approach than just *significance*.



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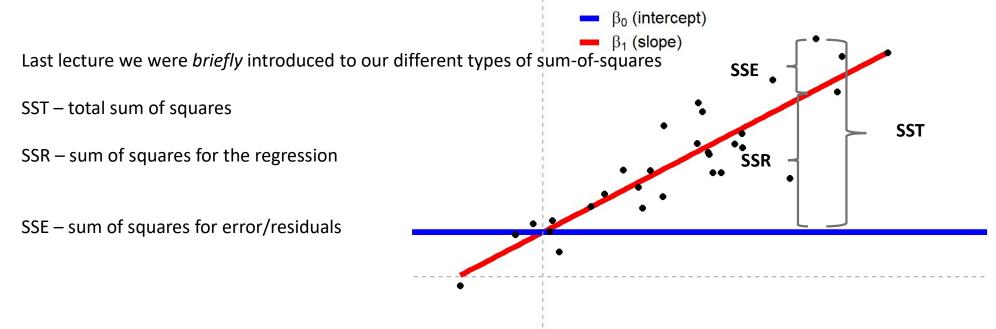
We have already seen how an understanding of a linear model gives us *more* information about the nature of our relationship/ difference than the traditional ANOVA approach than just *significance*.

```
Call:
lm(formula = height ~ type, data = darwin)
Residuals:
           1Q Median
   Min
                                 Max
-8.1917 -1.0729 0.8042 1.9021 3.3083
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 20.1917
                   0.7592 26.596 <2e-16 ***
typeSelf -2.6167
                   1.0737 -2.437
                                       0.0214 *
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' '1
Residual standard error: 2.94 on 28 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.175, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1455
F-statistic: 5.94 on 1 and 28 DF, p-value: 0.02141
```

#### Calculating F and R-squared

Calculating F & R-squared allow us to determine the amount of variance in our data that is explained by the <u>fit</u> of the model and then determine whether this is <u>significantly</u> bigger than the <u>residual</u> variance.

You may also have heard me refer to this as the signal-to-noise ratio.



#### Calculating F and R-squared

SST – total sum of squares

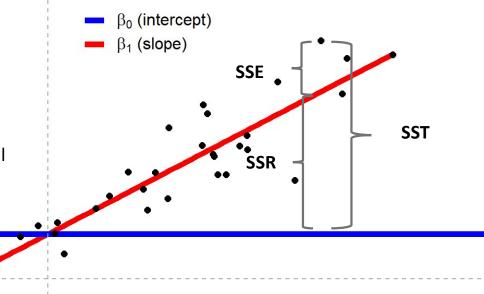
SSR – sum of squares for the regression

SSE – sum of squares for error/residuals

$$R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST}$$

A perfect fit would produce an R-squared of 1

e.g. 100% of our dataset variance is explained by our model



#### Calculating F and R-squared

SST – total sum of squares

SSR – sum of squares for the regression

SSE – sum of squares for error/residuals

$$F = \frac{SSR / (n-p)}{SSE / (p-1)}$$

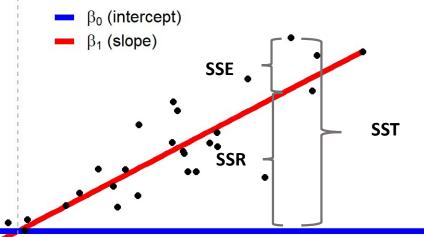
We don't need to calculate this by hand \*phew
But it helps us understand how we calculate *P* 

 $n = sample \ size$  $p = number \ of \ treatments$ 

The larger F is, the larger our signal-to-noise ratio

Report as  $F_{p,n-p}$  =

Our F-value with the sample size can be used to calculate P



#### Fvst

```
Call:
lm(formula = height ~ type, data = darwin)
Residuals:
            1Q Median
   Min
                            3Q
                                  Max
-8.1917 -1.0729 0.8042 1.9021 3.3083
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 20.1917
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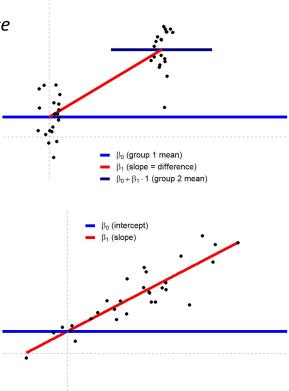
#### Fvst

t is calculated from the estimate divided by the standard error of the difference

For a difference model this is the difference between the two means

For a regression it's the *slope* both are found on the model summary as the estimate

```
lm(formula = height ~ type, data = darwin)
                          Residuals:
                                      1Q Median
                          -8.1917 -1.0729 0.8042 1.9021 3.3083
     -2.62
                          Coefficients:
                                     Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
                          (Intercept) 20.1917
                                                 0.7592 26.596 <2e-16 ***
                         typeSelf
                                      -2.6167
                                                 1.0737 -2.437 0.0214 *
t = 2.44
                         Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' '1
                          Residual standard error: 2.94 on 28 degrees of freedom
                          Multiple R-squared: 0.175,
                                                      Adjusted R-squared: 0.1455
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```



#### Fvst

So how does t compare to F

In a simple model they are the same:

- t is calculated directly from the means and errors in our model
- F is calculated from the squared errors in our model

So is it possible that  $t^2 = F$ 

 $-2.437^{2} = 5.94$ 



F-statistic: 5.94 on 1 and 28 DF, p-value: 0.02141

#### Why F and t?

If in our example here t and F are both essentially the same. Why have both?

t can only be calculated for single predictors – it cannot be used for more than one at a time

F can be used no matter the number of different predictors in our model

In more complex models we will see that multiple *t-values* are generated to test the significance of each predictor separately within a model and *F* is used to test the significance of the *whole* model.

#### Bringing it all together!

There is a significant difference in the heights of our cross-bred and selfed maize plants (P<0.05)

Can we do any better than this?

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

#### Bringing it all together!

Self pollinated maize plants were on average 17.6 inches high, while the cross-pollinated plants had a height of 20.2 inches – a difference of 2.6 inches which was statistically significant ( $F_{1,28} = 5.9$ , P = 0.02,  $R^2 = 0.15$ ).

#### This version of our write-up has:

- Sample size information (degrees of freedom)
- Test statistic (F)
- Together these produce our P value
- Information on the variance explained by our model  $R^2$
- Accurate information on our observations

#### **Next Time**

- We will look at more assumptions of our linear models and how to test we have a good fit
- Confidence intervals how to capture the *importance* or *effect size* of our models

Remember we have a discussion boards for:

- R code
- GitHub
- Stats theory

#### This week's assignments

1) Join the GitHub Classroom – Task 3 Wk 1

2) Complete last week's (Week 2) workshop:

Philip-Leftwich/5023Y-Week2-Statistics

3) Start this week's assignment

Philip-Leftwich/5023Y-Week3-Statistics