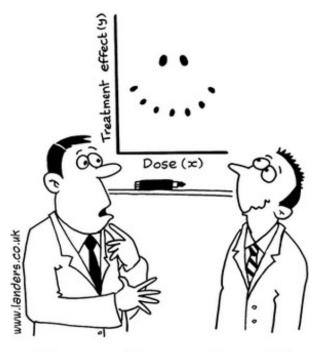
Influential points, ANOVA for regression and multiple regression



"It's a non-linear pattern with outliers.....but for some reason I'm very happy with the data."

Overview

Review of inference for simple linear regression

Examining unusual data points

Analysis of variance for regression

If there is time: Multiple regression

- Basic ideas
- Nested model comparison
- Related sampling and multiple regression coefficients

Quick review of simple linear regression

The process of building regression models

Choose the form of the model

• Identify and transform explanatory and response variables

Fit the model to the data

Estimate model parameters

Assess how well the model describes the data

Analyze the residuals, evaluate unusual points, etc.

Use the model to address questions of interest

• Make predictions, explore relationships, etc.



All models are wrong, but some models are useful

Simple linear regression concepts

Theoretical model: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$

Estimated model: $\hat{y} = \hat{\beta_0} + \hat{\beta_1} x$

Inference for simple linear regression models

- Hypothesis tests for intercept and slope
- Confidence intervals for slope and line; prediction intervals



Regression diagnostics

Linearity, Independence, Normality, Equal variance of errors

Hypothesis test for regression coefficients

We can run hypothesis tests to assess whether there is a relationship between y and x, and calculate p-values

- H_0 : $\beta_1 = 0$ (slope is 0, so no relationship between x and y
- H_A : $\beta_1 \neq 0$

One type of hypothesis test we can run is based on a t-statistic: $t=\frac{\beta_1-0}{\hat{SE}_{\hat{\beta_1}}}$ • The t-statistic comes from a t-distribution with n - 2 degrees of freedom

$$\hat{SE}_{\hat{\beta}_{1}} = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}} \qquad \hat{SE}_{\hat{\beta}_{0}} = \hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}}$$

Confidence and prediction intervals

1. Cl for slope β_1

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t^* \cdot SE_{\hat{\beta}_1} \qquad SE_{\hat{\beta}_1} = \sigma_{\epsilon} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}$$

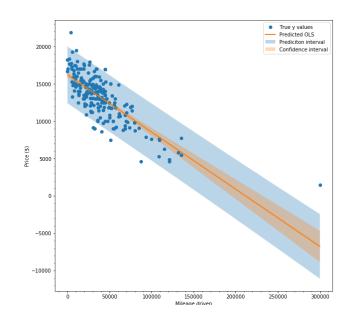
P_1

2. CI for regression line μ_Y at point x^*

$$\hat{y} \pm t^* \cdot SE_{\hat{\mu}} \qquad SE_{\hat{\mu}} = \sigma_{\epsilon} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* - \bar{x})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}$$

3. Prediction interval y

$$\hat{y} \pm t^* \cdot SE_{\hat{y}} \qquad SE_{\hat{y}} = \sigma_{\epsilon} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* - \bar{x})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}$$



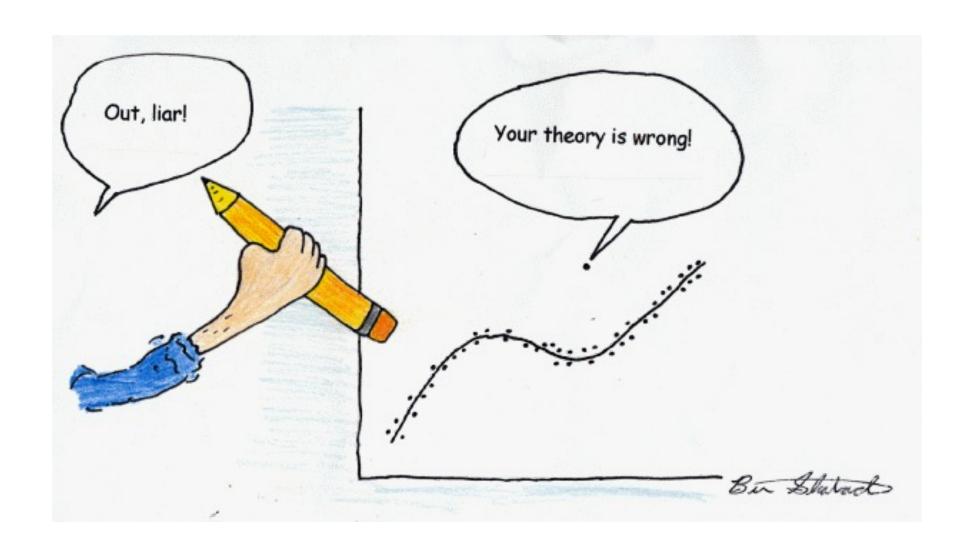
Regression diagnostics

Linearity, Independence, Normality, Equal variance of errors Nonlinear Heteroscedasticity Normal data quantiles Normal theoretical quantiles -0.4-0.2

Questions?



Statistics for unusual observations



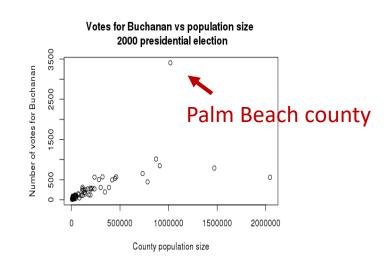
Statistics for unusual observations

There are statistics that are useful for flagging usual observations

- Outliers (large residuals): unusual y values
- **High leverage points**: usual **x** values
- Influential points: both an outlier and a high leverage

Unusual observations can indicate:

- An error in data processing
- A need to modify the model
- An interesting phenomenon



Unusual observations can also have a big effect on the model fit

• E.g., a big effect on $\hat{\beta}_0$ $\hat{\beta}_1$

Leverage

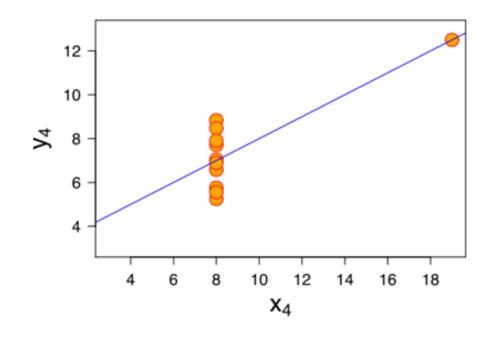
High leverage points are predictors **x** that are far from the mean

We can calculate the leverage a data point has using the statistic:

$$h_i = \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{\sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - \bar{x})^2}$$

High leverage points can have a big impact on the model that is fit!!!

R: hatvalues()



$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} h_i = 2$$

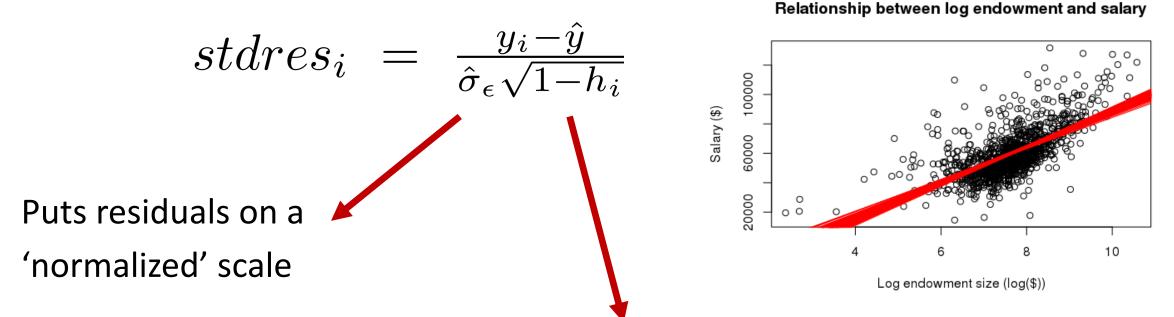
Typical: $h_i = 2/n$

High: $h_i = 4/n$

Very high: $h_i = 6/n$

Outliers: standardized residuals

The **standardized residual** for the ith data point in a regression model can be computed using:



Makes residuals at the ends a bit larger to deal with the fact that they are 'overfit'

R: rstandard()

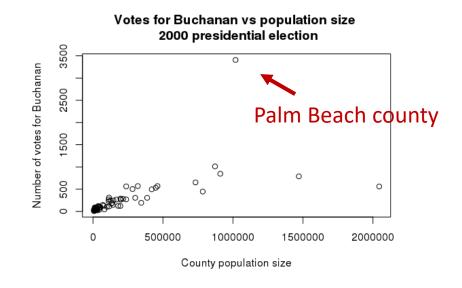
Outliers: studentized residuals

The **studentized residual** for the ith data point in a regression model can be computed using:

$$studres_i = \frac{y_i - \hat{y}}{\hat{\sigma}_{(i)}\sqrt{1 - h_i}}$$

Here $\hat{\sigma}_{(i)}$ is the an estimate of $\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}$ with the ith point removed

Q: Why might we want to remove the i^{th} point when calculating $\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}$?



A: Outliers could have a big effect on our estimate of $\hat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}$

R: rstudent ()

Cook's distance

The amount of influence a point has on a regression line depends on:

- The size of the residual e_i
- The amount of leverage h_i

Cook's distance is a statistic that captures how much influence a point has on

a regression line

$$D_i = \frac{(stdres_i)^2}{k+1} \frac{h_i}{1-h_i}$$

Larger for larger residuals (outliers)

Larger for high leverage points

Where *k* is the number of predictors in the model

R: cooks.distance ()

• For simple linear regression k = 1 (just a single predictor x)

Cook's distance

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- The size of the residual e_i
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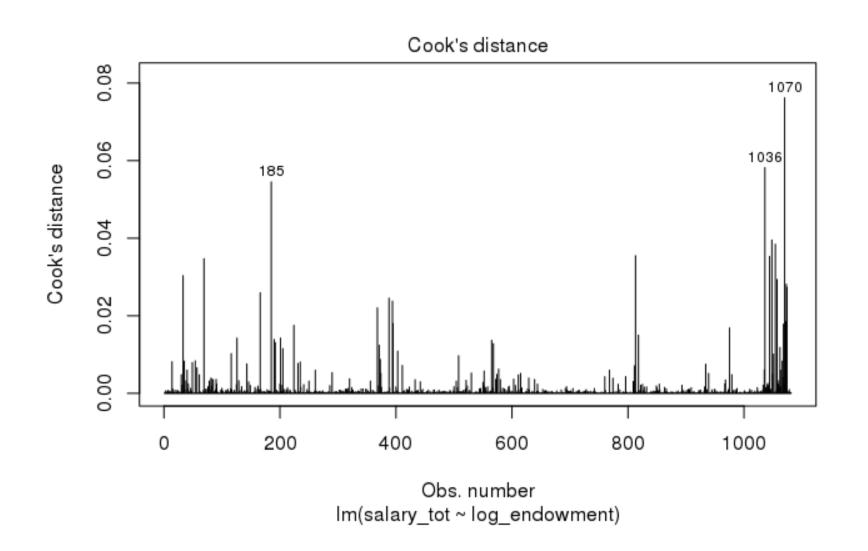
Larger for high leverage points

Rule of thumb:

- Moderately influential: $D_i > 0.5$
- Very influential: D_i > 1

R: cooks.distance ()

Cook's distances for salary ~ log₁₀ (endowment)



plot(lm_fit, 4)

Unusual points rules of thumb

Statistic	Moderately unusual	Very unusual
Leverage, h _i	Above 2(k + 1)/n	Above 3(k + 1)/n
Standardized residual	Beyond ± 2	Beyond ± 3
Studentized residual	Beyond ± 2	Beyond ± 3
Cook's D	Above 0.5	Above 1.0

Where:

- k is the number of explanatory variables
- n is the number of data points

Questions?



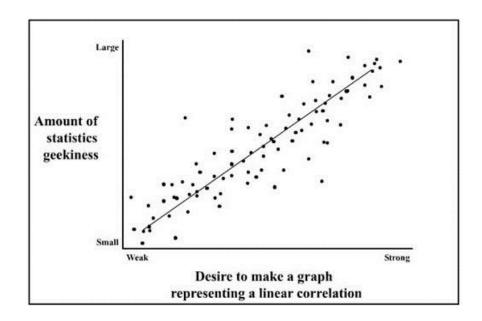
Let's try it in R...

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for regression

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for regression

In an analysis of variance, we break down the **total variability** in the **response variable y** into:

- 1. the variability explained by the model
- 2. the variability not explained by the model
 - i.e., the residuals



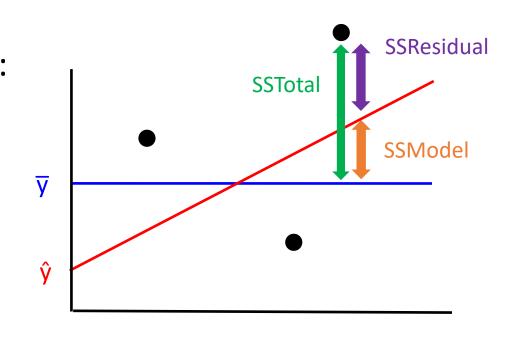
Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for regression

In an analysis of variance, we break down the total variability in the response variable y into:

- 1. the variability explained by the model
- 2. the variability not explained by the model
 - i.e., the residuals

We can express this as:

SSTotal = SSModel + SSResidual



$$y - \hat{y} = (\hat{y} - \hat{y}) + (y - \hat{y})$$
 Added and subtracted \hat{y}

 $y-J=(\hat{y}-y)+(y-\hat{y}) \text{ Added and subtracted } \hat{y}$ This equal $\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i-\bar{y})^2=\sum_{i=1}^{n}(\hat{y}_i-\bar{y})^2+(y_i-\hat{y}_i)^2+\frac{2(y_i-\hat{y}_i)(\hat{y}_i-\hat{y}_i)^2}{2(y_i-\hat{y}_i)(\hat{y}_i-\hat{y}_i)^2}$

This equal 0 (proof via algebra)

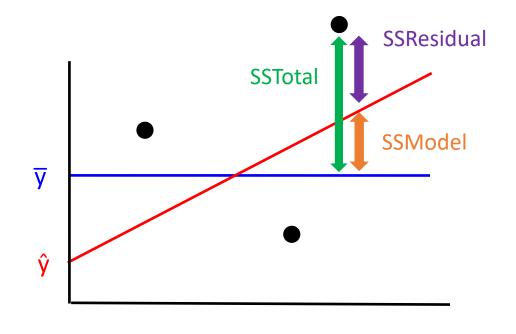
The coefficient of determination r²

The percentage of the total variability explained by the model is given by

$$r^2 = \frac{SSModel}{SSTotal} = 1 - \frac{SSResidual}{SSTotal}$$

We can express this as:

SSTotal = SSModel + SSResidual



$$y-\bar{y}=(\hat{y}-\bar{y})+(y-\hat{y}) \text{ Added and subtracted } \hat{y}$$
 This equal 0 (proof via algebra)
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i-\bar{y})^2=\sum_{i=1}^{n}(\hat{y}_i-\bar{y})^2+(y_i-\hat{y}_i)^2+2(y_i-\hat{y}_i)(\hat{y}_i-\bar{y})$$

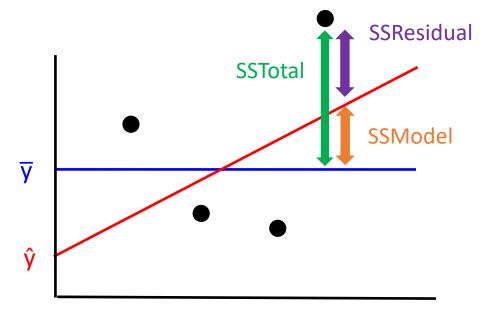
Hypothesis test based on ANOVA for regression

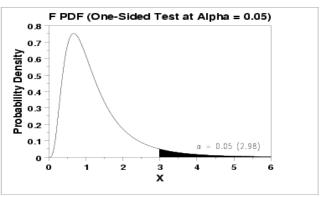
$$F = \frac{\text{SSModel/df}_{\text{model}}}{\text{SSResidual/df}_{\text{error}}} \qquad \text{df}_{\text{model}} = 1$$

$$\text{df}_{\text{error}} = n - 2$$

If the null hypothesis is true that β_1 = 0:

- Both the numerator and denominator are estimates of σ^2
- F comes from an F-distribution with df_{model} , df_{error} degrees of freedom
- For simple linear regression, this gives the same results as running a t-test.
 - $F = t^2$





Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for regression in R

You can create an ANOVA table for regression relationships in R using:

anova(lm_fit)



```
SSModel
```

SSResidual

F

```
lm_fit <- lm(salary_tot ~ log_endowment, data = assistant_data)</pre>
anova(lm_fit)
Analysis of Variance Table
Response: salary_tot
                          Sum Sa
                                      Mean Sa F value
                                                                      Pr(>F)
                  1 132879258586 132879258586 764.29 < 0.000000000000000022 ***
 log_endowment
               1173 203936190958
Residuals
                                    173858645
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' '1
```

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for regression in R

You can create an ANOVA table for regression relationships in R using:

anova(lm_fit)

We can check that the ANOVA relationships holds: SSTotal = SSModel + SSResidual using:

- The original data y values
- Im_fit\$residuals
- Im_fit\$fitted.values

You can also check that F = t² by comparing anova(Im_fit) and summary(Im_fit) values

Homework 7!







In multiple regression we try to predict a quantitative response variable y using several predictor variables $x_1, x_2, ..., x_k$

For multiple linear regression, the underlying model is:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_1 + \beta_2 \cdot x_2 + \dots + \beta_k \cdot x_k + \epsilon$$

We estimate coefficients using a data set to make predictions ŷ

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta_0} + \hat{\beta_1} \cdot x_1 + \hat{\beta_2} \cdot x_2 + \dots + \hat{\beta_k} \cdot x_k$$

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta_0} + \hat{\beta_1} \cdot x_1 + \hat{\beta_2} \cdot x_2 + \dots + \hat{\beta_k} \cdot x_k$$

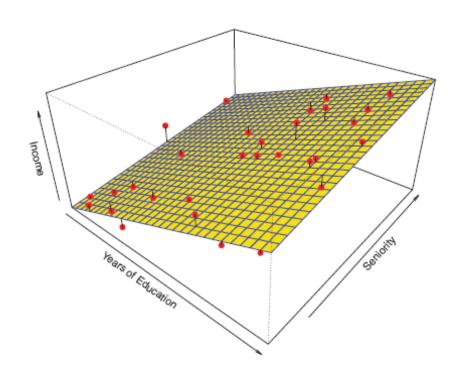
There are many uses for multiple regression models including:

- To make predictions as accurately as possible
- To understand which predictors (x) are related to the response variable (y)



salary =
$$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \cdot f(endowment) + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot g(enrollment)$$

Let's explore this in R...



Nested model comparison

We can also assess whether a particular subset of *q* parameters is 0

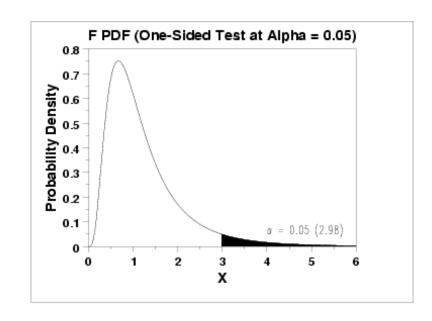
$$H_0$$
: $\beta_h = \beta_i = ... = \beta_g = 0$

To do this we:

- 1. Fit the model without these features
- 2. Calculate the SSRes_{Reduced} for the model without these predictors
- 3. Compare it to the full model SSRes_{Full} with an F-statistic:

$$F = \frac{(SSRes_{Reduced} - SSRes_{Full})/q}{SSRes_{Full}/(n-k-1)}$$

where q is the number of additional terms in the full model



$$df_1 = df_{Reduced} - df_{Full}$$

 $df_2 = df_{Full}$

Relating simple and multiple regression

Suppose we fit both a simple and multiple regression models to the same data.

simple linear regression coefficient

Simple regression model: $\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_{0(1)} + \hat{\beta}_{1(1)} \cdot x_1$

multiple linear regression coefficient

Multiple regression model: $\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_{0(2)} + \hat{\beta}_{1(2)} \cdot x_1 + \hat{\beta}_{2(2)} \cdot x_2$

Question: How are the coefficients $\hat{\beta}_{1(1)}$ and $\hat{\beta}_{1(2)}$ related?

Relating simple and multiple regression

Question: How are the simple regression coefficients $\hat{\beta}_{1(1)}$ and the multiple regression coefficient $\hat{\beta}_{1(2)}$ (for a predictor x_1) related?

We can view the multiple regression coefficient $\hat{\beta}_{1(2)}$ as the change in y when we set the predictions x_2 , to a fixed value.

We can view the simple regression coefficient $\hat{\beta}_{1(1)}$ as the change in y when we let the other predictor x_2 change with the value of x_1 .

Relating simple and multiple regression

If the predictor x_1 is correlated with x_2 , then changing x_1 will be associated with changes in x_2 which in turn will be associated with changes in y.

We can assess the association between x_1 and x_2 , using regression:

$$x_2 = \hat{\delta}_0 + \hat{\delta}_1 \cdot x_1$$

We can then relate the change in y with the change in x_1 in the simple regression coefficient to the multiple regression coefficients as:

$$\hat{\beta}_{1(1)} \cdot x_1 = \hat{\beta}_{1(2)} \cdot x_1 + \hat{\beta}_{2(2)} \cdot \hat{\delta}_1 \cdot x_1$$

Let's explore this in R...