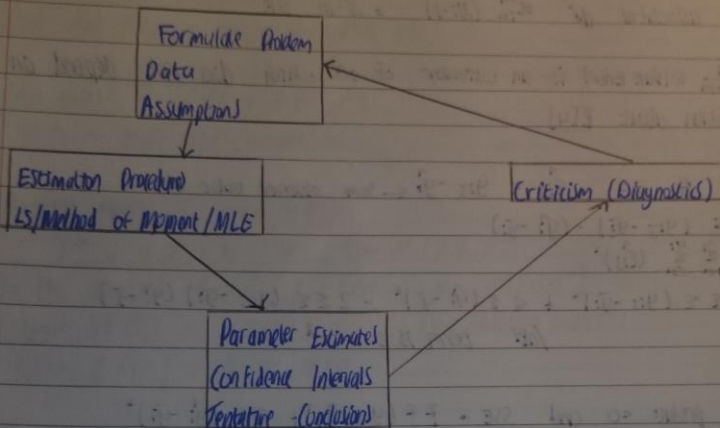


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## CHAPTER 3: REGRESSION DIAGNOSTIC



### 3.1 LACK OF FIT AND PURE ERROR

MSE is an unbiased estimator of  $\sigma^2$  IF the model is correctly specified, otherwise it is biased.

If we repeat observations of  $y$  at each value of  $x$  (or multiple variables) then we can use these to get an estimate of  $\sigma^2$  that does not depend on the model.

Suppose there are  $m$  different values of  $x$ :  $x_1, \dots, x_m$ . Say at each  $x_i$  we measure  $y$   $N_i$  times... So there are  $N_i$  observations i.e.:

$y_{11}, y_{12}, \dots, y_{1N_1}, x_1$

$y_{21}, y_{22}, \dots, y_{2N_2}, x_2$

$\vdots$

$y_{m1}, y_{m2}, \dots, y_{mN_m}, x_m$

$$N = \sum_{i=1}^m N_i \quad \text{Let } \bar{y}_i = \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} y_{ij}$$

Pure error Sum of Squares  $SS(\text{Pure Error}) = \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} (y_{ij} - \bar{y}_i)^2$   
 with associated df  $\sum_{i=1}^M (N_i - 1) = N - M$  df

So  $\frac{1}{N-M} SS(\text{Pure Error})$  is an estimator of  $\sigma^2$  which does not depend on any assumption about  $E[y]$

Consider the SSE  $\hat{\epsilon}_{ij} = y_{ij} - \hat{y}_i \leftarrow$  some observed value of  $x$

$$= (y_{ij} - \bar{y}_i) - (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y}_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} (\hat{\epsilon}_{ij})^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} (y_{ij} - \bar{y}_i)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y}_i)^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} (y_{ij} - \bar{y}_i)(\hat{y}_i - \bar{y}_i)$$

last term is 0  $\rightarrow$

$$\text{The cross product } = 0 \text{ and } SSE = \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} (y_{ij} - \bar{y}_i)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y}_i)^2$$

$$= SS(\text{Pure Error}) + SS(\text{Lack of fit})$$

The lack of fit SS has  $m-p+1$  d.f. (with  $p$  predictors). The best statistic

$$F = \frac{MS(\text{Lack of fit})}{MS(\text{Pure Error})} \text{ follows an } F_{m-p+1, n-m} \text{ d.f. distribution}$$

If error is due to pure error and not just lack of fit.

Suggests that the model is adequate. If we reject, then investigate L.O.F.

### 3.2 RESIDUAL ANALYSIS

If the model is correct, then error terms have following properties:

zero mean, common variance  $\sigma^2$ , uncorrelated, normal

The residuals  $\hat{\epsilon}_i$  should exhibit similar properties

Hence we often use residual analysis to assess models.

Can be used to measure discrepancy between what we have observed and what we have assumed

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### 3.3 MODEL MISSPECIFICATION

What effect does a misspecified model have?

True model:  $y_i = x_i\beta + z_i\psi + \varepsilon_i$  additional design matrix  
 $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ , uncorrelated

Analysed model:  $y_i = x_i\beta + \varepsilon_i^*$

$$\varepsilon_i^* = z_i\psi + \varepsilon_i \Rightarrow \varepsilon_i^* \sim N(z_i\psi, \sigma^2)$$

In this situation,  $\beta \sim N(\beta + (x^T x)^{-1} x^T z\psi, \sigma^2 (x^T x)^{-1})$

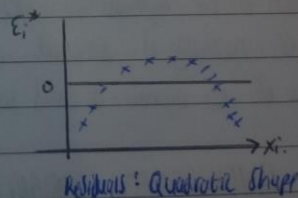
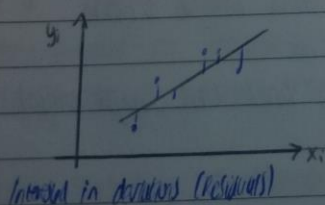
$$\text{and } E[\hat{\beta}^*] = (I - H) z\psi \quad \text{SEE PROBLEM SHEET 3}$$

With  $E[\varepsilon_i^*] = 0$  if  $z=0$

As an example:  $x\beta = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$  (SLR) but we actually should fit a quadratic model  
i.e.:  $z\psi = \beta_2 x_i^2$

$$\text{Then, it can be shown that } E[\hat{\varepsilon}_i^*] = \beta_2 \left[ x_i^2 - \frac{\sum x_i^2}{n} - (x_i - \bar{x}) \frac{\sum x_i^3 (x_i - \bar{x})}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \right]$$

Unless  $\beta_2 = 0$ , the  $i^{\text{th}}$  residual is a quadratic function of  $x_i$ , hence a plot of the residuals against  $x_i$



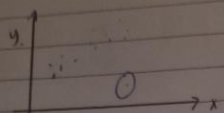
Should have curved in appearance

It is often useful to plot  $\hat{\varepsilon}_i^*$  against  $y_i$

### 3.4 DETECTION OF OUTLIERS

Outliers are individual observations points which don't follow the same model assumed for the rest of the data.





- The size of the standardised residuals  $\frac{\hat{\epsilon}_i}{\sqrt{\text{MSE}(1-h_{ii})}}$  is an important diagnostic
- If  $\sigma^2$  is replaced by MSE we have the studentised residual
- However, if the  $i^{\text{th}}$  point is an outlier, MSE will be biased upwards (bigger than it should be)
- Instead we use the MSE from a fit with the  $i^{\text{th}}$  observation deleted:  $\text{MSE}_{-i}$
- "Internal Studentised Residual"  $r_i = \hat{\epsilon}_i / \sqrt{\text{MSE}_{-i}(1-h_{ii})}$  ( $i^{\text{th}}$  point included)
- "External Studentised Residual"  $t_i = \hat{\epsilon}_i / \sqrt{\text{MSE}_{-i}(1-h_{ii})}$  ( $i^{\text{th}}$  excluded)
- if point outside  $\pm 2$  then it is most likely an outlier

### 3.5 CHECKING FOR NORMALITY

- Inference (CIs, hypothesis test) require a normal assumption
- Minor departures from normality are insignificant
- Model misspecification could lead to false detection of departure from normality

#### Normal Probability Plot

- Order the studentised residuals  $r_1 \leq r_2 \leq \dots \leq r_n$
- These are the sample order statistics. If these are  $N(0,1)$  then  $E[r_{(i)}] = E[z_{(i)}]$  which is the expected value for the  $i^{\text{th}}$  order statistic from a  $N(0,1)$
- So, if normality is satisfied,  $r_{(i)} = E[z_{(i)}] + \text{error}$
- A plot of  $r_{(i)}$  against  $E[z_{(i)}]$  should be approximately linear (45° through origin).

### 3.6 INHOMOGENEOUS VARIANCE

- There is a problem in using the ordinary residuals  $\hat{\epsilon}_i$  as diagnostic
- Consider the vector  $\hat{\epsilon}$  where  $\hat{\epsilon} = y - \hat{y} = y - H\hat{y} = (I-H)y$   $H = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T$
- $\text{Var}[\hat{\epsilon}] = (I-H) \text{Var}[y] (I-H)^T$
- $\text{Var}[y] = \sigma^2 I$  (Assumption in model)
- $\text{Var}[\hat{\epsilon}] = \sigma^2 (I-H)(I-H)^T = \sigma^2 (I-H)$  while  $\text{Var}[\hat{\epsilon}] = \sigma^2 I$  no hat
- So  $\text{Var}[\hat{\epsilon}] = \sigma^2 (I-H)$

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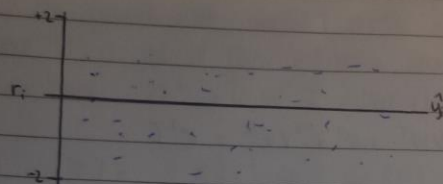
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-  $H_{ii}$  is the  $i$ th diagonal element of  $H$ . If there is large variation in the diagonal element of  $H$ , there will be large differences in the variances of the residuals.

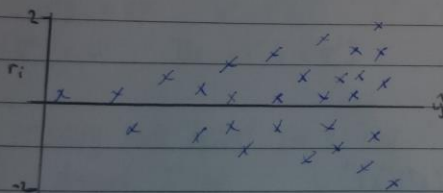
- As a result, we work with standardised residuals:  $\frac{\hat{\epsilon}_i}{\sqrt{\text{MSE}(1-H_{ii})}}$

Homogeneous Variance:



- no obvious pattern
- scattered between  $\pm 2$
- $r_i \Rightarrow$  standardised residuals

Inhomogeneous Variance (depends on predictor):



- Fans (outward) or inward

### 3.7 NON-STANDARD CONDITIONS - TRANSFORMATIONS OF VARIABLES

- transformation to stabilise variance
- transformation to achieve normality

Variance Stabilising Transformations

- Consider  $y = X\beta + \epsilon$  with  $E[\epsilon] = 0$   $\text{Var}[\epsilon] = \sigma^2 V$   $\leftarrow$  diagonal matrix where  $V \neq I$
- Weighted least squares assumes errors are uncorrelated but heteroskedastic errors.

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} a_1^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_2^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_n^2 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{as not } \sigma^2$$

- So that  $\text{Var}[\epsilon_i] = a_i^2 \sigma^2$   $\text{Cov}[\epsilon_i, \epsilon_j] = 0 \quad i \neq j$
- Consider the transformation  $z_i = y_i / a_i$

$$\text{Var}[z_i] = \frac{1}{a_i^2} \text{Var}[y_i] = \frac{a_i^2 \sigma^2}{a_i^2} = \sigma^2$$

$\Sigma$  is homoskedastic

Let  $W = [V^{-1}]^{-1}$  inverse of root

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} 1/a_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1/a_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1/a_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$z = W y \quad y = x\beta + \varepsilon$$

$$z = W x \beta + W \varepsilon$$

$$z^* = x^* \beta + \varepsilon^*$$

$$\text{where } x^* = W x \quad \varepsilon^* = W \varepsilon$$

$$\text{Then } E[\varepsilon^*] = 0 \quad \text{Var}[\varepsilon^*] = \sigma^2 W V W^T = \sigma^2 V^{-1/2} V^{-1/2} = \sigma^2 I$$

Ordinary least squares can be used on  $z$  and  $x^*$

The weighted least squares estimator is:

$$\hat{\beta} = (x^{*T} x^*)^{-1} x^{*T} z$$

$$= (x^T W^T W x)^{-1} x^T W^T W y$$

$$= (x^T V^{-1} x)^{-1} x^T V^{-1} y$$

$$E[\hat{\beta}] = \beta$$

$$\text{Var}[\hat{\beta}] = \sigma^2 (x^T V^{-1} x)^{-1} = \sigma^2 (x^T V^{-1} x)^{-1}$$

Example:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i \quad \text{Var}[\varepsilon_i] = a_i^2 \sigma^2$$

$$z_i = y_i/a_i = \beta_0/a_i + \beta_1 x_i/a_i + \varepsilon_i/a_i$$

$$E[z_i] = \beta_0/a_i + \beta_1 x_i/a_i$$

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^n (z_i - \hat{z}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i/a_i - \hat{\beta}_0/a_i - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i/a_i)^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{a_i^2} (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i)^2$$

$$= \sum \frac{1}{a_i^2} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

↑ weights → contribution for each i

Consider when  $a_i$  is small/large and how reliable collected data are in these cases



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$y_i$  is large variance  $\rightarrow$  unreliable  $\rightarrow$  small weight

$y_i$  is small variance  $\rightarrow$  reliable  $\rightarrow$  large weight

Let  $w_i = 1/\sigma_i^2$  be the weights

$$SSE = \sum w_i (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \quad \text{Weighted least squares WLS}$$

### 3.8 GENERALISED LEAST SQUARES

- In the general case  $\text{Var}[\varepsilon] = \sigma^2 V$  where  $V$  is not necessarily diagonal

- Since  $V$  is positive definite matrix, there exist a  $n \times n$  non singular matrix  $T$ , such that  $TT^T = V$   $T$ -called Cholesky triangle

$$y = X\beta + \varepsilon \quad E[\varepsilon] = 0 \quad \text{Var}[\varepsilon] = \sigma^2 V$$

$$z = T^{-1}y = T^{-1}(X\beta + \varepsilon)$$

$$= T^{-1}X\beta + T^{-1}\varepsilon$$

$$z = X^*\beta + \varepsilon^* \quad X^* = T^{-1}X \quad \varepsilon^* = T^{-1}\varepsilon$$

$$E[\varepsilon^*] = 0 \quad \text{Var}[\varepsilon^*] = \sigma^2 I$$

- Use ordinary least square on  $z$  and  $X^*$

- If  $V$  is diagonal,  $T^{-1} = W$

- This is a special case of generalised least squares.

### 3.9 VARIABLE SELECTION

- Have candidate regressors - want subset to use in model

- If we use all the regressors:

• Unbiased estimate

• Large variance of parameter estimates and predicted value

• More costly (more calculations)

• Cost of inverting  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix scales cubically with  $n$  (Cholesky decomposition)

- If we use a subset: • Reduced cost

• Possibly biased parameter estimates

• Reduced variance of the parameter estimates and predicted values

How difficult to choose a subset?

- If  $p$  possible predictors/regressors
- $\binom{p}{0} + \binom{p}{1} + \dots + \binom{p}{p} = 2^p$  possible models
- If  $p$  is large (wide data), this is ok.

#### Forward Selection

- Begin with  $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \epsilon_i$  where  $x_k$  is the  $x$  which gives the largest  $R^2$  on its own
- Then add  $x_2$  to the model s.t.  $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \epsilon_i$   $x_2$  such that the largest increase in  $R^2$  is achieved
- Repeat until some stopping criterion is satisfied e.g. the F-best for each of the variables that not yet entered is less than some pre-determined value

#### Stepwise Regression

- Begin as for forward selection, then at each step remove one of the variables in the current model if has  $F < \text{pre-determined value}$  (partial F-test)
- Similarly add a variable not included in the model if  $F > \text{pre-determined value}$
- Iterate under no further additions or removals

#### All Possible Regression

- Fit all possible models
  - Only an option if you have a small number of variables ( $2^p$  models)
  - We can consider some statistics for each e.g. (likelihood criteria, AIC, BIC)
  - Max likelihood - penalty function - depends on # variables in model - penalises complex models
  - Lots of possible statistics e.g. Mallows suggested statistics for model with  $p$  predictors
- $$C_p = \frac{SSE(p)}{s^2} - n + 2p$$
- One can draw parallel with AIC & BIC. Can show  $\# [C_p] = p$