Simple Linear Regression

Prof Wells

STA 295: Stat Learning

February 6th, 2024

Outline

In today's class, we will...

- Discuss theoretical foundation for linear regression
- Perform inference for simple linear models
- Implement simple linear regression in R

Section 1

Foundations

• Suppose we have one or more predictors (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p) and a *quantitative* response variable Y, and that

$$Y = f(X_1, \ldots, X_p) + \epsilon$$

• Suppose we have one or more predictors (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p) and a *quantitative* response variable Y, and that

$$Y = f(X_1, \ldots, X_p) + \epsilon$$

The function f could theoretically take many forms. But the simplest form assumes f
is a linear function:

$$f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_p) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \beta_p x_p$$

• Suppose we have one or more predictors (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p) and a *quantitative* response variable Y, and that

$$Y = f(X_1, \ldots, X_p) + \epsilon$$

The function f could theoretically take many forms. But the simplest form assumes f
is a linear function:

$$f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_p) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \beta_p x_p$$

Note: a change in f is constant per unit change in any of the inputs.

• Suppose we have one or more predictors (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p) and a *quantitative* response variable Y, and that

$$Y = f(X_1, \ldots, X_p) + \epsilon$$

The function f could theoretically take many forms. But the simplest form assumes f
is a linear function:

$$f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_p) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \beta_p x_p$$

- Note: a change in f is constant per unit change in any of the inputs.
- If Y depends on only 1 predictor X, then the linear model reduces to

$$y = \hat{f}(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

• Suppose we have one or more predictors (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p) and a *quantitative* response variable Y, and that

$$Y = f(X_1, \ldots, X_p) + \epsilon$$

The function f could theoretically take many forms. But the simplest form assumes f
is a linear function:

$$f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_p) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \beta_p x_p$$

- Note: a change in f is constant per unit change in any of the inputs.
- If Y depends on only 1 predictor X, then the linear model reduces to

$$y = \hat{f}(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

• We'll use Simple Linear Regression (SLR) to build intuition about all linear models

• In reality, the relationship f between Y and X_1, \ldots, X_p may not be linear

- In reality, the relationship f between Y and X_1, \ldots, X_p may not be linear
- But many functions can be well-approximated by linear ones (especially when inputs are restricted to a small range)

- In reality, the relationship f between Y and X_1, \ldots, X_p may not be linear
- But many functions can be well-approximated by linear ones (especially when inputs are restricted to a small range)
- But even if f is truly linear, we still have problems: We do not know the parameters
 of the linear model.

- In reality, the relationship f between Y and X_1, \ldots, X_p may not be linear
- But many functions can be well-approximated by linear ones (especially when inputs are restricted to a small range)
- But even if f is truly linear, we still have problems: We do not know the parameters
 of the linear model.
- Based on data, we estimate the parameters to create an estimated linear model

$$\hat{f} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_p x_p$$

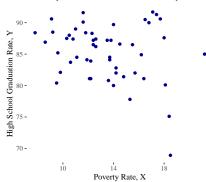
- In reality, the relationship f between Y and X_1, \ldots, X_p may not be linear
- But many functions can be well-approximated by linear ones (especially when inputs are restricted to a small range)
- But even if f is truly linear, we still have problems: We do not know the parameters
 of the linear model.
- Based on data, we estimate the parameters to create an estimated linear model

$$\hat{f} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_p x_p$$

 So we are estimating an approximation to a relationship between response and predictors.

Consider the relationship between a state's high school grad rate Y and its poverty rate X.

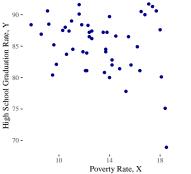
Consider the relationship between a state's high school grad rate Y and its poverty rate X. State-by-State Graduation and Poverty Rates



Poverty rate based 2020 US Census, obtained from US Census website Grad rate based 2018–19 school year, obtained from NCES website

Consider the relationship between a state's high school grad rate Y and its poverty rate X.

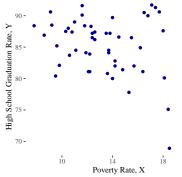
State-by-State Graduation and Poverty Rates



Poverty rate based 2020 US Census, obtained from US Census website Grad rate based 2018–19 school year, obtained from NCES website Suppose we want to model Y as a function of X

Consider the relationship between a state's high school grad rate Y and its poverty rate X.

State-by-State Graduation and Poverty Rates



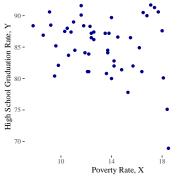
Poverty rate based 2020 US Census, obtained from US Census website Grad rate based 2018–19 school year, obtained from NCES website

- Suppose we want to model Y as a function of X
- Let's assume a linear relationship

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

Consider the relationship between a state's high school grad rate Y and its poverty rate X.

State-by-State Graduation and Poverty Rates



Poverty rate based 2020 US Census, obtained from US Census website Grad rate based 2018–19 school year, obtained from NCES website

- Suppose we want to model Y as a function of X
- Let's assume a linear relationship

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

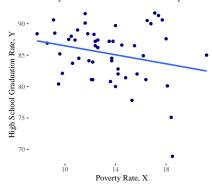
• Fitted Model:

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X = 90 - 0.4 X$$

SIR Review

Foundations

Consider the relationship between a state's high school grad rate Y and its poverty rate X. State-by-State Graduation and Poverty Rates



Poverty rate based 2020 US Census, obtained from US Census website Grad rate based 2018-19 school year, obtained from NCES website

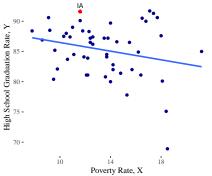
- Suppose we want to model Y as a function of X
- Let's assume a linear relationship

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

Fitted Model:

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X = 90 - 0.4 X$$

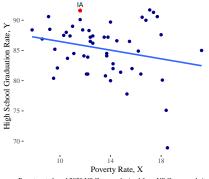
State-by-State Graduation and Poverty Rates



Poverty rate based 2020 US Census, obtained from US Census website Grad rate based 2018–19 school year, obtained from NCES website Model:

$$\hat{Y} = 90 - 0.4 \cdot X$$

State-by-State Graduation and Poverty Rates

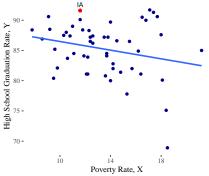


Poverty rate based 2020 US Census, obtained from US Census website Grad rate based 2018–19 school year, obtained from NCES website Model:

$$\hat{Y} = 90 - 0.4 \cdot X$$

 lowa has a poverty rate of 11.6. What does the model predict is lowa's graduation rate?

State-by-State Graduation and Poverty Rates



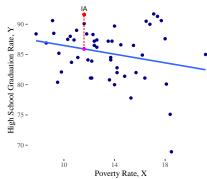
Poverty rate based 2020 US Census, obtained from US Census website Grad rate based 2018–19 school year, obtained from NCES website Model:

$$\hat{Y} = 90 - 0.4 \cdot X$$

 lowa has a poverty rate of 11.6. What does the model predict is lowa's graduation rate?

$$\hat{Y} = 90 - 0.4 \cdot 11.6 = 85.36$$

State-by-State Graduation and Poverty Rates



Poverty rate based 2020 US Census, obtained from US Census website Grad rate based 2018–19 school year, obtained from NCES website Model:

$$\hat{Y} = 90 - 0.4 \cdot X$$

 lowa has a poverty rate of 11.6. What does the model predict is lowa's graduation rate?

$$\hat{Y} = 90 - 0.4 \cdot 11.6 = 85.36$$

But Iowa's actual graduation rate is 91.6

Residuals

- Residuals are the leftover variation in the data after accounting for model fit.
- Each observation (X_i, Y_i) has its own residual e_i, which is the difference between the observed (Y_i) and predicted (Ŷ_i) value:

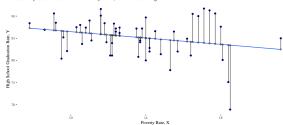
$$e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$$

Foundations 00000000000000

- Residuals are the leftover variation in the data after accounting for model fit.
- Each observation (X_i, Y_i) has its own residual e_i , which is the difference between the observed (Y_i) and predicted (\hat{Y}_i) value:

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

State-by-State Graduation and Poverty Rates, with Residual Heights

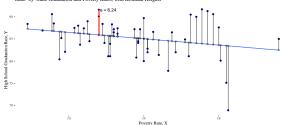


Residuals

- Residuals are the leftover variation in the data after accounting for model fit.
- Each observation (X_i, Y_i) has its own residual e_i , which is the difference between the observed (Y_i) and predicted (\hat{Y}_i) value:

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

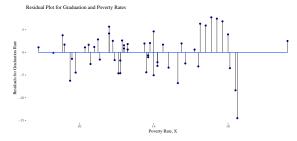
State-by-State Graduation and Poverty Rates, with Residual Heights



lowa's residual is

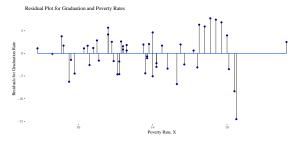
$$e = Y - \hat{Y} = 91.6 - 85.36 = 6.24$$

• To visualize the degree of accuracy of a linear model, we use residual plots:



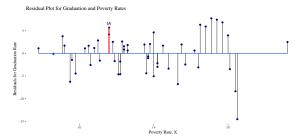
Foundations 00000000000000

To visualize the degree of accuracy of a linear model, we use residual plots:



Points preserve original *x*-position, but with *y*-position equal to residual.

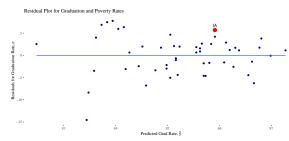
• To visualize the degree of accuracy of a linear model, we use residual plots:



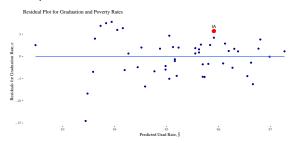
Points preserve original x-position, but with y-position equal to residual.

In many cases, it is more convenient to look at the residual plot of residuals vs **fitted** values (instead of vs X)

In many cases, it is more convenient to look at the residual plot of residuals vs **fitted** values (instead of vs X)



In many cases, it is more convenient to look at the residual plot of residuals vs **fitted** values (instead of vs X)



 This residual plot can still be used to determine accuracy of model, but can be used when we have more than 1 predictor.

• Define the Residual Sum of Squares (RSS) as

RSS =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = e_1^2 + \dots + e_n^2$$

• Define the Residual Sum of Squares (RSS) as

RSS =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = e_1^2 + \dots + e_n^2$$

• Note that $RSS = n \cdot MSE$.

• Define the Residual Sum of Squares (RSS) as

RSS =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = e_1^2 + \dots + e_n^2$$

- Note that $RSS = n \cdot MSE$.
- ullet Using calculus or linear algebra, we can show that ${
 m RSS}$ is minimized when

$$\hat{\beta}_{1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})(y_{i} - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}} \qquad \hat{\beta}_{0} = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_{1}\bar{x}$$

Define the Residual Sum of Squares (RSS) as

RSS =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = e_1^2 + \dots + e_n^2$$

- Note that $RSS = n \cdot MSE$.
- ullet Using calculus or linear algebra, we can show that ${
 m RSS}$ is minimized when

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

 Therefore, the least squares regression line has the lowest training MSE among all linear models.

Residual Sum of Squares

• Define the Residual Sum of Squares (RSS) as

RSS =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = e_1^2 + \dots + e_n^2$$

- Note that $RSS = n \cdot MSE$.
- ullet Using calculus or linear algebra, we can show that ${
 m RSS}$ is minimized when

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

- Therefore, the least squares regression line has the lowest training MSE among all linear models.
- Does this mean it has the lowest test MSE among linear models?

Residual Sum of Squares

Define the Residual Sum of Squares (RSS) as

RSS =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = e_1^2 + \dots + e_n^2$$

- Note that $RSS = n \cdot MSE$.
- ullet Using calculus or linear algebra, we can show that ${
 m RSS}$ is minimized when

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

- Therefore, the least squares regression line has the lowest training MSE among all linear models.
- Does this mean it has the lowest test MSE among linear models?
 - No, as we will see later with penalized regression (Ch 6, ISLR)

The following (closely related) measures are used to assess accuracy of a linear model:

The following (closely related) measures are used to assess accuracy of a linear model:

• Residual Sum of Squares, Mean Squared Error and Root Mean Squared Error:

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \qquad \text{training MSE} = \frac{RSS}{n} \qquad RMSE = \sqrt{MSE}$$

The following (closely related) measures are used to assess accuracy of a linear model:

Residual Sum of Squares, Mean Squared Error and Root Mean Squared Error:

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \qquad \text{training MSE} = \frac{RSS}{n} \qquad RMSE = \sqrt{MSE}$$

• Residual Standard Error (RSE or $\hat{\sigma}$)

$$\hat{\sigma} = \text{RSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2}} \text{RSS} = \sqrt{\frac{n}{n-2}} \text{RMSE}$$

The following (closely related) measures are used to assess accuracy of a linear model:

Residual Sum of Squares, Mean Squared Error and Root Mean Squared Error:

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \qquad \text{training MSE} = \frac{RSS}{n} \qquad RMSE = \sqrt{MSE}$$

• Residual Standard Error (RSE or $\hat{\sigma}$)

$$\hat{\sigma} = \text{RSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2}} \text{RSS} = \sqrt{\frac{n}{n-2}} \text{RMSE}$$

- RSE is an estimate of the standard deviation σ of model error ϵ
- RSE measures the typical size of model errors

The following (closely related) measures are used to assess accuracy of a linear model:

• Residual Sum of Squares, Mean Squared Error and Root Mean Squared Error:

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \qquad \text{training MSE} = \frac{RSS}{n} \qquad RMSE = \sqrt{MSE}$$

• Residual Standard Error (RSE or $\hat{\sigma}$)

$$\hat{\sigma} = \text{RSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2}} \text{RSS} = \sqrt{\frac{n}{n-2}} \text{RMSE}$$

- RSE is an estimate of the standard deviation σ of model error ϵ
- RSE measures the typical size of model errors
- The coefficient of determination R²

$$R^{2} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \hat{y}_{i})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}} = 1 - \frac{\text{RSS}}{\text{TSS}}$$

The following (closely related) measures are used to assess accuracy of a linear model:

Residual Sum of Squares, Mean Squared Error and Root Mean Squared Error:

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \qquad \text{training MSE} = \frac{RSS}{n} \qquad RMSE = \sqrt{MSE}$$

• Residual Standard Error (RSE or $\hat{\sigma}$)

$$\hat{\sigma} = \text{RSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2}} \text{RSS} = \sqrt{\frac{n}{n-2}} \text{RMSE}$$

- ullet RSE is an estimate of the standard deviation σ of model error ϵ
- RSE measures the typical size of model errors
- The coefficient of determination R²

$$R^{2} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \hat{y}_{i})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}} = 1 - \frac{\text{RSS}}{\text{TSS}}$$

• R^2 is the proportion of variation in the response explained by the model.

Section 2

Inference for Linear Models

 Goal: Use statistics calculated from data to make estimates about unknown parameters

- Goal: Use statistics calculated from data to make estimates about unknown parameters
- Parameters: β_0 , β_1

- Goal: Use *statistics* calculated from data to make estimates about unknown *parameters*
- Parameters: β_0 , β_1
- Statistics: $\hat{\beta}_0$, $\hat{\beta}_1$

- Goal: Use statistics calculated from data to make estimates about unknown parameters
- Parameters: β_0 , β_1
- Statistics: $\hat{\beta}_0$, $\hat{\beta}_1$
- Tools: confidence intervals, hypothesis tests

- Goal: Use statistics calculated from data to make estimates about unknown parameters
- Parameters: β_0 , β_1
- Statistics: $\hat{\beta}_0$, $\hat{\beta}_1$
- Tools: confidence intervals, hypothesis tests
- The Problems: Our model will change if built using a different random sample. So in addition to estimates, we need to know about variability

 Confidence Intervals give estimates and express an amount of uncertainty we have about those estimates

- Confidence Intervals give estimates and express an amount of uncertainty we have about those estimates
- A C-level confidence interval for a parameter θ using the statistic $\hat{\theta}$ takes the form

$$\hat{\theta} \pm t_C^* \cdot \mathrm{SE}(\hat{\theta})$$

- Confidence Intervals give estimates and express an amount of uncertainty we have about those estimates
- A C-level confidence interval for a parameter θ using the statistic $\hat{\theta}$ takes the form

$$\hat{\theta} \pm t_C^* \cdot SE(\hat{\theta})$$

- The value $t_{\mathcal{C}}^*$ is the $1-(1-\mathcal{C})/2$ quantile for the sampling distribution of $\hat{\theta}$
 - i.e. if $\hat{\theta}$ is approximately Normally distributed and C=.95, then $t_C^*\approx 2$.

- Confidence Intervals give estimates and express an amount of uncertainty we have about those estimates
- ullet A C-level confidence interval for a parameter heta using the statistic $\hat{ heta}$ takes the form

$$\hat{\theta} \pm t_C^* \cdot SE(\hat{\theta})$$

- The value $t_{\mathcal{C}}^*$ is the $1-(1-\mathcal{C})/2$ quantile for the sampling distribution of $\hat{\theta}$
 - i.e. if $\hat{\theta}$ is approximately Normally distributed and C=.95, then $t_C^*\approx 2$.
- The value $SE(\hat{\theta})$ is the standard error of $\hat{\theta}$, or the standard deviation of the sampling distribution

In order to use simple linear regression for inference, we require these assumptions:

In order to use simple linear regression for inference, we require these assumptions:

 $oldsymbol{0}$ Y is related to X by a simple linear regression model.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

In order to use simple linear regression for inference, we require these assumptions:

 \bullet Y is related to X by a simple linear regression model.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

2 The errors e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n are independent of one another.

In order to use simple linear regression for inference, we require these assumptions:

 $oldsymbol{0}$ Y is related to X by a simple linear regression model.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

- **2** The errors e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n are independent of one another.
- **3** The errors have a common variance $Var(\epsilon) = \sigma^2$.

In order to use simple linear regression for inference, we require these assumptions:

 $oldsymbol{0}$ Y is related to X by a simple linear regression model.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

- 2 The errors e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n are independent of one another.
- **3** The errors have a common variance $Var(\epsilon) = \sigma^2$.
- **4** The errors are normally distributed: $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

In order to use simple linear regression for inference, we require these assumptions:

 \bullet Y is related to X by a simple linear regression model.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

- 2 The errors e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n are independent of one another.
- **3** The errors have a common variance $Var(\epsilon) = \sigma^2$.
- **4** The errors are normally distributed: $\epsilon \sim \textit{N}(0, \sigma^2)$

If one or more of these conditions do not hold, our predictions may not be accurate and we should be skeptical of inferential claims.

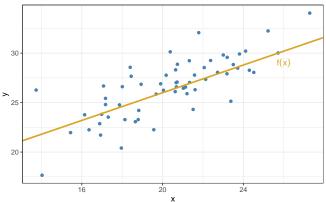
Assume the following true model:

$$f(x) = 12 + 0.7x; \quad \epsilon \sim N(0,4)$$

Assume the following true model:

$$f(x) = 12 + 0.7x$$
; $\epsilon \sim N(0, 4)$

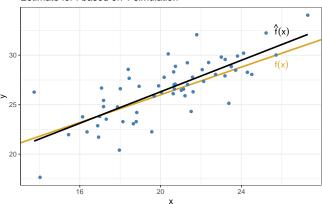
Simulated Data from true model



Assume the following true model:

$$f(x) = 12 + 0.7x$$
; $\epsilon \sim N(0, 4)$

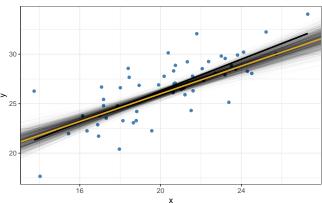
Estimate for f based on 1 simulation

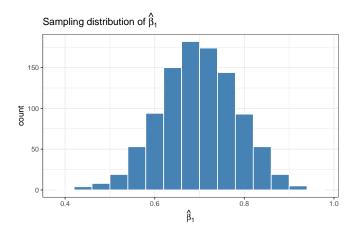


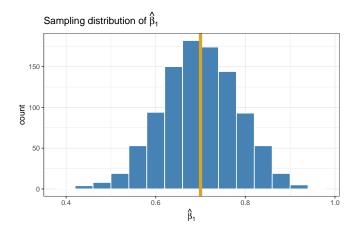
Assume the following true model:

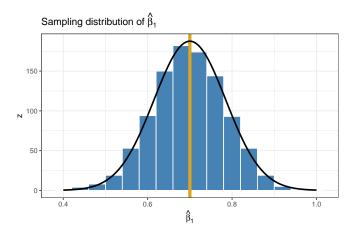
$$f(x) = 12 + 0.7x; \quad \epsilon \sim N(0,4)$$

Estimates for f based on 1000 simulations









The Sampling Distribution has the following characteristics:

1 Centered at β_1 , i.e. $E(\hat{\beta}_1) = \beta$.

The Sampling Distribution has the following characteristics:

- **1** Centered at β_1 , i.e. $E(\hat{\beta}_1) = \beta$.
- $\text{ Var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{S_{XX}}.$
 - where $S_{XX} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i \bar{x})^2$

The Sampling Distribution has the following characteristics:

- Centered at β_1 , i.e. $E(\hat{\beta}_1) = \beta$.
- $\text{OVar}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{S_{XX}}.$
 - where $S_{XX} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i \bar{x})^2$
- $\hat{\beta}_1|X \sim N(\beta_1, \frac{\sigma^2}{S_{XX}}).$

Approximating the Sampling Dist. of \hat{eta}_1

• Our best estimate of β_1 is $\hat{\beta}_1$ (since the expected value $\hat{\beta}_1$ is β_1)

Approximating the Sampling Dist. of \hat{eta}_1

- Our best estimate of β_1 is $\hat{\beta}_1$ (since the expected value $\hat{\beta}_1$ is β_1)
- However, we have to estimate σ with the Residual Standard Error:

$$\hat{\sigma} = \text{RSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{RSS}}{n-2}}$$

Approximating the Sampling Dist. of \hat{eta}_1

- Our best estimate of β_1 is $\hat{\beta}_1$ (since the expected value $\hat{\beta}_1$ is β_1)
- However, we have to estimate σ with the Residual Standard Error:

$$\hat{\sigma} = \text{RSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{RSS}}{n-2}}$$

• Thus, the distribution of $\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\hat{\sigma}}$ isn't Normal. . .

Approximating the Sampling Dist. of $\hat{\beta}_1$

- Our best estimate of β_1 is $\hat{\beta}_1$ (since the expected value $\hat{\beta}_1$ is β_1)
- However, we have to estimate σ with the Residual Standard Error:

$$\hat{\sigma} = \text{RSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{RSS}}{n-2}}$$

- \bullet Thus, the distribution of $\frac{\hat{\beta}_1-\beta_1}{\hat{\sigma}}$ isn't Normal. . .
- Instead, it is the *t*-distribution with n-2 degrees of freedom.

Approximating the Sampling Dist. of \hat{eta}_1

- Our best estimate of β_1 is $\hat{\beta}_1$ (since the expected value $\hat{\beta}_1$ is β_1)
- However, we have to estimate σ with the Residual Standard Error:

$$\hat{\sigma} = \text{RSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{RSS}}{n-2}}$$

- Thus, the distribution of $\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 \beta_1}{\hat{\sigma}}$ isn't Normal...
- Instead, it is the *t*-distribution with n-2 degrees of freedom.
- Our confidence interval for $\hat{\beta}_1$ is thus

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t_{\alpha/2,n-2} \cdot SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$$
 where $SE(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}$

Approximating the Sampling Dist. of \hat{eta}_1

- Our best estimate of β_1 is $\hat{\beta}_1$ (since the expected value $\hat{\beta}_1$ is β_1)
- However, we have to estimate σ with the Residual Standard Error:

$$\hat{\sigma} = \text{RSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{RSS}}{n-2}}$$

- Thus, the distribution of $\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 \beta_1}{\hat{\sigma}}$ isn't Normal...
- Instead, it is the *t*-distribution with n-2 degrees of freedom.
- Our confidence interval for $\hat{\beta}_1$ is thus

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t_{\alpha/2,n-2} \cdot SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$$
 where $SE(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}$

Interpretation We are 95% confident that the true slope relating x and y lies between lower and upper bound of this interval.

Hypothesis test for $\hat{\beta}_1$

Suppose we are interested in testing the claim that the slope is zero.

$$H_0: \beta_1^0 = 0$$
 vs $H_A: \beta_1^0 \neq 0$

Hypothesis test for $\hat{\beta}_1$

Suppose we are interested in testing the claim that the slope is zero.

$$H_0: \beta_1^0 = 0$$
 vs $H_A: \beta_1^0 \neq 0$

• Consider the statistic t given by

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)}$$

• Then t will be t-distributed with n-2 degrees of freedom and $SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$ calculated the same as in the CI.

Hypothesis test for $\hat{\beta}_1$

Suppose we are interested in testing the claim that the slope is zero.

$$H_0: \beta_1^0 = 0$$
 vs $H_A: \beta_1^0 \neq 0$

• Consider the statistic t given by

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)}$$

- Then t will be t-distributed with n-2 degrees of freedom and $SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$ calculated the same as in the CI.
- The p-value for an observed test statistic t is the probability that a randomly chosen value from the t-dist is larger in absolute value than |t|.

Hypothesis test for \hat{eta}_1

Suppose we are interested in testing the claim that the slope is zero.

$$H_0: \beta_1^0 = 0$$
 vs $H_A: \beta_1^0 \neq 0$

Consider the statistic t given by

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)}$$

- Then t will be t-distributed with n-2 degrees of freedom and $SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$ calculated the same as in the CI.
- The p-value for an observed test statistic t is the probability that a randomly chosen value from the t-dist is larger in absolute value than |t|.
- An observed t with p-value less than a desired significance level (often $\alpha = 0.05$) gives good evidence against the null-hypothesis.

• We can also perform inference for β_0 , although it is often less interesting in practice (why?)

- We can also perform inference for β_0 , although it is often less interesting in practice (why?)
 - We proceed as before, using a t distribution to estimate the sampling distribution of $\hat{\beta}_0$.
 - However, the SE of $\hat{\beta}_0$ is

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_0) = \hat{\sigma}^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}} \right)$$

- We can also perform inference for β_0 , although it is often less interesting in practice (why?)
 - ullet We proceed as before, using a t distribution to estimate the sampling distribution of \hat{eta}_0 .
 - However, the SE of $\hat{\beta}_0$ is

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_0) = \hat{\sigma}^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}} \right)$$

• Inference is even possible for combinations of β_0 and β_1 (i.e $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ for any fixed value of x)

- We can also perform inference for β_0 , although it is often less interesting in practice (why?)
 - We proceed as before, using a t distribution to estimate the sampling distribution of $\hat{\beta}_0$.
 - However, the SE of $\hat{\beta}_0$ is

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_0) = \hat{\sigma}^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}} \right)$$

- Inference is even possible for combinations of β_0 and β_1 (i.e $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ for any fixed value of x)
 - Why might we want to obtain a confidence interval for $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$?

- We can also perform inference for β_0 , although it is often less interesting in practice (why?)
 - We proceed as before, using a t distribution to estimate the sampling distribution of $\hat{\beta}_0$.
 - However, the SE of $\hat{\beta}_0$ is

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_0) = \hat{\sigma}^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}} \right)$$

- Inference is even possible for combinations of β_0 and β_1 (i.e $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ for any fixed value of x)
 - Why might we want to obtain a confidence interval for $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$?
 - The associated statistic is again *t*-distributed, although with more complicated SE.

- We can also perform inference for β_0 , although it is often less interesting in practice (why?)
 - We proceed as before, using a t distribution to estimate the sampling distribution of $\hat{\beta}_0$.
 - However, the SE of $\hat{\beta}_0$ is

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_0) = \hat{\sigma}^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}} \right)$$

- Inference is even possible for combinations of β_0 and β_1 (i.e $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ for any fixed value of x)
 - Why might we want to obtain a confidence interval for $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$?
 - The associated statistic is again *t*-distributed, although with more complicated SE.
 - For details, see DeGroot and Schervish "Probability and Statistics" (or take STA 336)

Section 3

Linear Models in R

Creating Linear Models in R

Consider the povery data set, consisting of high school grad rate Graduates and its poverty rate Poverty:

Creating Linear Models in R

Consider the povery data set, consisting of high school grad rate Graduates and its poverty rate Poverty:

```
## # A tibble: 6 x 3
     state
                Graduates Poverty
##
     <chr>>
                     <dbl>
                             <dbl>
## 1 Alabama
                      91.7
                              17.1
## 2 Alaska
                     80.4
                               9.5
## 3 Arizona
                     77.8
                              15.3
## 4 Arkansas
                     87.6
                              18
## 5 California
                     84.5
                              13.7
## 6 Colorado
                     81.1
                              12.2
```

Creating Linear Models in R

Consider the povery data set, consisting of high school grad rate Graduates and its poverty rate Poverty:

```
## # A tibble: 6 x 3
                Graduates Poverty
     state
     <chr>>
                     <dbl>
                             <dbl>
##
## 1 Alabama
                      91.7
                              17.1
## 2 Alaska
                     80.4
                               9.5
## 3 Arizona
                     77.8
                              15.3
## 4 Arkansas
                     87.6
                              18
## 5 California
                     84.5
                              13.7
## 6 Colorado
                     81.1
                              12.2
```

• We fit a linear model using the 1m function in R:

```
poverty_mod <- lm(Graduates ~ Poverty, data = poverty)</pre>
```

Summary of the Model

ullet When we use the 1m function, R computes several values related to the linear model

Summary of the Model

- \bullet When we use the 1m function, R computes several values related to the linear model
 - We can obtain a high-level summary of the model using summary()

Summary of the Model

- When we use the lm function, R computes several values related to the linear model
 - We can obtain a high-level summary of the model using summary()

```
summary(poverty_mod)
```

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = Graduates ~ Poverty, data = poverty)
##
## Residuals:
      Min
              1Q Median
                             3Q
                                    Max
##
## -14.541 -2.774 0.876
                           2.543
                                  7.758
##
## Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept) 90.0615
                          2.8347 31.772 <2e-16 ***
## Poverty -0.3579 0.2056 -1.741 0.088 .
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 4.396 on 49 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.05823, Adjusted R-squared: 0.03901
## F-statistic: 3.03 on 1 and 49 DF, p-value: 0.08802
```

• The summary table is itself an R object, with many attributes:

The summary table is itself an R object, with many attributes:

```
mod_summary <- summary(poverty_mod)
names(mod_summary)</pre>
```

The summary table is itself an R object, with many attributes:

```
mod_summary <- summary(poverty_mod)
names(mod_summary)</pre>
```

• To access these attributes, we can preface the name of the attribute with the summary table name and \$:

• The summary table is itself an R object, with many attributes:

```
mod_summary <- summary(poverty_mod)
names(mod_summary)</pre>
```

 To access these attributes, we can preface the name of the attribute with the summary table name and \$:

```
summary table name and $:
mod summary$r.squared
```

```
## [1] 0.05823356
```

• The summary table is itself an R object, with many attributes:

```
mod_summary <- summary(poverty_mod)
names(mod_summary)</pre>
```

 To access these attributes, we can preface the name of the attribute with the summary table name and \$:

```
mod_summary$r.squared

## [1] 0.05823356

mod_summary$sigma
```

```
## [1] 4.395734
```

• When R creates a linear model, it saves many attributes in the model object

 When R creates a linear model, it saves many attributes in the model object names(poverty_mod)

```
## [1] "coefficients" "residuals" "effects" "rank"
## [5] "fitted.values" "assign" "qr" "df.residual"
## [9] "xlevels" "call" "terms" "model"
```

• When R creates a linear model, it saves many attributes in the model object names (poverty mod)

```
## [1] "coefficients" "residuals" "effects" "rank"
## [5] "fitted.values" "assign" "qr" "df.residual"
## [9] "xlevels" "call" "terms" "model"
```

- To access these attributes, we can preface the name of the attribute with the model name and \$.
- Two of the most useful attributes are fitted.values and residuals:

• When R creates a linear model, it saves many attributes in the model object names (poverty mod)

```
## [1] "coefficients" "residuals" "effects" "rank"
## [5] "fitted.values" "assign" "qr" "df.residual"
## [9] "xlevels" "call" "terms" "model"
```

- To access these attributes, we can preface the name of the attribute with the model name and \$.
- Two of the most useful attributes are fitted.values and residuals:

```
poverty_mod$fitted.values
```

```
## 1 2 3 4 5 6 6 ## 83.94205 86.66182 84.58621 83.61997 85.15879 85.69559
```

• When R creates a linear model, it saves many attributes in the model object names (poverty mod)

```
## [1] "coefficients" "residuals" "effects" "rank"
## [5] "fitted.values" "assign" "qr" "df.residual"
## [9] "xlevels" "call" "terms" "model"
```

- To access these attributes, we can preface the name of the attribute with the model name and \$.
- Two of the most useful attributes are fitted.values and residuals:

```
poverty_mod$fitted.values
```

```
## 1 2 3 4 5 6 ## 83.94205 86.66182 84.58621 83.61997 85.15879 85.69559
```

poverty_mod\$residuals

```
## 1 2 3 4 5 6
## 7.7579486 -6.2618192 -6.7862069 3.9800264 -0.6587896 -4.5955859
```