

Computer Repair Data

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#To study the relationship between the length of a service call and the number of electronic components in the computer that must be repaired or replaced, a sample of records on service on service calls was taken. Import the data

```
setwd("C:\\Users\\Admin\\OneDrive\\Desktop\\santosh")
getwd()
```

```
## [1] "C:/Users/Admin/OneDrive/Desktop/santosh"
```

```
data=read.csv("comrepair.csv")
data
```

```
##      Minutes Units
## 1         23     1
## 2         29     2
## 3         49     3
## 4         64     4
## 5         74     4
## 6         87     5
## 7         96     6
## 8         97     6
## 9        109     7
## 10        119     8
## 11        149     9
## 12        145     9
## 13        154    10
## 14        166    10
```

#Alinear model $\hat{y} = \frac{\sum y_i}{n}$, $\hat{x} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$

$$\text{Cov}(Y, X) = \frac{\sum (y_i - \hat{y})(x_i - \hat{x})}{n - 1}$$

$$\text{Cor}(Y, X) = \frac{\sum (y_i - \hat{y})(x_i - \hat{x})}{\sqrt{\sum (y_i - \hat{y})^2 \sum (x_i - \hat{x})^2}}$$

$\text{Cor}(Y, X) = \text{Cor}(X, Y)$ measures only pairwise relationships

Regression analysis is an attractive extension to correlation analysis because it postulates a model that can be used not only to measure the direction and the strength of a relationship

between the response and predictor variables, but also to numerically describe that relationships.

```
M=data$Minutes
```

```
M
```

```
## [1] 23 29 49 64 74 87 96 97 109 119 149 145 154 166
```

```
mean(M)
```

```
## [1] 97.21429
```

```
U=data$Units
```

```
U
```

```
## [1] 1 2 3 4 4 5 6 6 7 8 9 9 10 10
```

```
mean(U)
```

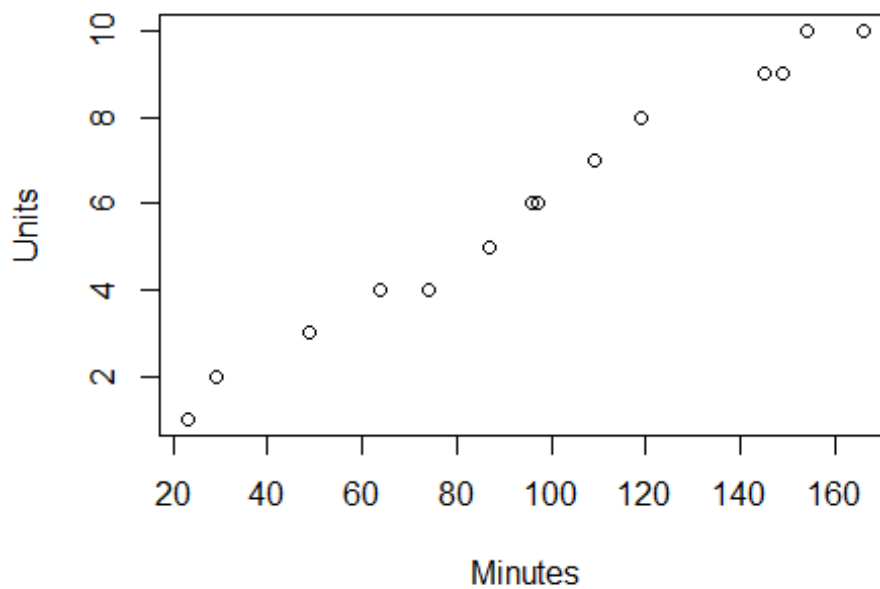
```
## [1] 6
```

```
Cov=cov(M,U)
```

```
Cov
```

```
## [1] 136
```

```
plot(data)
```



#The simple linear regression Model $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$,

where β_0 and β_1 are constants called the model regression coefficients or parameters, and ϵ is a random disturbance or error

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon_i \quad i=1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, n$$

Sometimes β_0 =intercepts β_1 =slope

Regression analysis differs in an important way from correlation analysis. The correlation coefficient is symmetric in the sense that $\text{Cor}(Y, X)$ is the same as $\text{Cor}(X, Y)$. The variables X and Y are of equal importance. In regression analysis the response variable Y is of primary importance. The Minutes= $\beta_0 + \beta_1$ Units + ϵ

is assumed to represent the relationship between the length of service calls and the number of electronic components in the computer that must be repaired or replaced. See above figure.

Parameter estimation by least square method

$$\text{errors} = \epsilon_i = Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_i, i=1, 2, 3, \dots, n$$

Vertical distance is the perpendicular (shortest) distance from each point to the line. The resultant line is called the orthogonal regression line.

Vertical distance is the perpendicular (shortest) distance from each point to the line. The resultant line is called the orthogonal regression line.

$$S(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1) = \epsilon_i^2 = (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i)^2$$

The values of β_0^* and β_1^* that minimize $S(\beta_0, \beta_1)$ are given by

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum (y_i - \bar{y})(x_i - \bar{x})}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

```
yi_ybar=(M-mean(M))
yi_ybar
```

```
## [1] -74.2142857 -68.2142857 -48.2142857 -33.2142857 -23.2142857 -
10.2142857
## [7] -1.2142857 -0.2142857 11.7857143 21.7857143 51.7857143
47.7857143
## [13] 56.7857143 68.7857143
```

```
xi_xbar=(U-mean(U))
xi_xbar
```

```
## [1] -5 -4 -3 -2 -2 -1 0 0 1 2 3 3 4 4
```

```
sqr=xi_xbar*xi_xbar
sqr
```

```
## [1] 25 16 9 4 4 1 0 0 1 4 9 9 16 16
```

```

s=sum(sqr)
s

## [1] 114

pro=yi_ybar*xi_xbar
pro

## [1] 371.07143 272.85714 144.64286 66.42857 46.42857 10.21429 0.00000
## [8] 0.00000 11.78571 43.57143 155.35714 143.35714 227.14286 275.14286

S=sum(pro)
S

## [1] 1768

B1=S/s
B1

## [1] 15.50877

```

After plot the graph is linearity assumption is proof

$$\widehat{\beta}_o = \bar{y} - \beta_1 \bar{x}$$

```

B0=(mean(M)-B1*mean(U))
B0

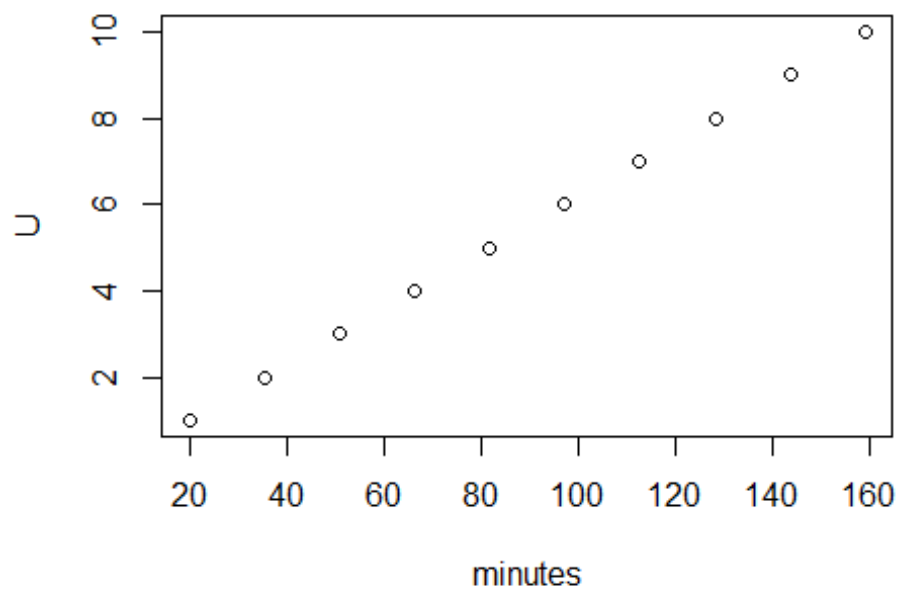
## [1] 4.161654

minutes=4.161654+15.50877*U
minutes

## [1] 19.67042 35.17919 50.68796 66.19673 66.19673 81.70550 97.21427
## [8] 97.21427 112.72304 128.23181 143.74058 143.74058 159.24935 159.24935

plot(minutes,U)

```



```
minutes=4.161654+15.50877*U
```

```
minutes
```

```
## [1] 19.67042 35.17919 50.68796 66.19673 66.19673 81.70550 97.21427
```

```
## [8] 97.21427 112.72304 128.23181 143.74058 143.74058 159.24935 159.24935
```

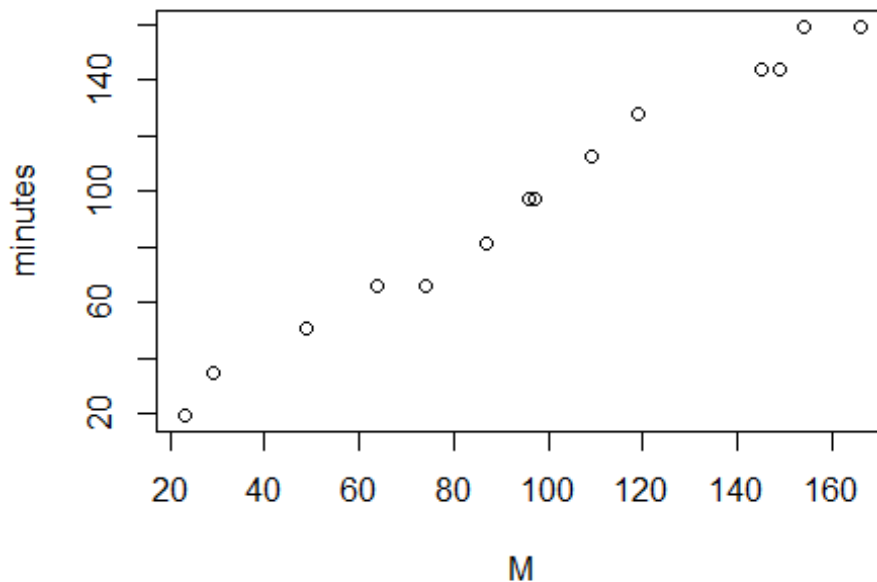
```
resi=M-minutes
```

```
resi
```

```
## [1] 3.329576 -6.179194 -1.687964 -2.196734 7.803266 5.294496 -1.214274
```

```
## [8] -0.214274 -3.723044 -9.231814 5.259416 1.259416 -5.249354 6.750646
```

```
plot(M,minutes)
```



The equation of the least squares regression line below. The constant term represents the setup or startup time for each repair.

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\text{cov}(Y, X)}{\text{var}(X)} = \frac{\text{cor}(y, x) S_y}{S_x}$$

positive (negative) slope means positive (negative) correlation. To check linearity. If we observe a nonlinear pattern, we will have to take corrective action. For example, we may reexpress or transform the data before we continue the analysis, Data transformation

Using the properties of least squares estimators, one can develop statistical inference procedures (e.g., confidence interval estimation, tests of hypothesis, and goodness-of-fit test

#Test of Hypothesis

Hypothesis requires the following assumption. For every fixed value of X, the ϵ 's are assumed to be independent random quantities normally distributed with mean zero and a common variance.

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_0) = \sigma^2 \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x - \bar{x})^2}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \right]$$

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

variances of $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ depend on the unknown parameter σ^2 . An unbiased estimate of σ^2 is given by

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\sum e_i^2}{n-2} = \frac{\sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{n-2} = \frac{\text{SSE}}{n-2}$$

It is equal to the number of observations minus the number of estimated regression coefficients.

```
sigma_2=sum(resi*resi)/(14-2)
sigma_2

## [1] 29.0707

sigma=sqrt(sigma_2)
sigma

## [1] 5.391725

seB0=sigma*sqrt(1/14+(mean(M)^2)/s)
seB0

## [1] 49.11254

seB1=sigma/sqrt(s)
seB1

## [1] 0.5049813
```

Null hypothesis H0: B1=0

Alternative Hypothesis H1: B1 !=0

$$t_1 = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{s.e.\hat{\beta}_1}, \text{ with } n-2 \text{ degree of freedom}$$

H0 is to be rejected at the significance level α if

$|t_1| \geq t(n-2, \alpha/2)$, compare the p value for the t-Test with α with reject
H0 $p(|t_1|) \leq \alpha$; predictor variable X is a statistically significant predictor of the response variable Y.

$T_{\text{tab}}(12, 0.05) = 2.179$

```
t1=B1/seB1
t1

## [1] 30.71158

#curve(,from=NULL,to=NULL,12,add=FALSE,type="I",xname="minutes",xlab=xname,yl
ab=NULL,xlim=NULL )
```

Since $t_{cal}=30.71158 > T_{tab}=2.179$ reject the null hypothesis. ## Testing Null hypothesis
Alternative Hypothesis

$$H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_{01} \text{ vs. } H_1: \beta_1 \neq \beta_{01}$$

$T_{tab}(12, 0.05) = 2.179$ Using the Repair data, let us suppose that the management expected the increase in service time for each additional unit to be repaired to be 12 minutes. Do the data support this conjecture?

```
T1=(B1-12)/seB1
```

```
T1
```

```
## [1] 6.94832
```

$T1_{cal}=6.94832 > T_{tab}=2.179$ The result is highly significant, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis. The management's estimate of the increase in time for each additional component to be repaired is not supported by the data. Their estimate is too low. ## To testing Null hypothesis $H_0: B_0 = B_0$ ## Alternative Hypothesis $H_1: B_0 \neq B_0$

```
t0=B0/seB0
```

```
t0
```

```
## [1] 0.0847371
```

```
datafit=lm(M~U, data = data)
```

```
datafit
```

```
##
```

```
## Call:
```

```
## lm(formula = M ~ U, data = data)
```

```
##
```

```
## Coefficients:
```

```
## (Intercept)          U
```

```
##      4.162      15.509
```

```
summary(datafit)
```

```
##
```

```
## Call:
```

```
## lm(formula = M ~ U, data = data)
```

```
##
```

```
## Residuals:
```

```
##      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
```

```
## -9.2318 -3.3415 -0.7143  4.7769  7.8033
```

```
##
```

```
## Coefficients:
```

```
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
```

```
## (Intercept)    4.162      3.355    1.24   0.239
```

```
## U              15.509      0.505   30.71 8.92e-13 ***
```

```
## ---
```

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

```
##
```



```
## Residual standard error: 5.392 on 12 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared:  0.9874, Adjusted R-squared:  0.9864
## F-statistic: 943.2 on 1 and 12 DF,  p-value: 8.916e-13
```

A test using the correlation

##Testing $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ ## Alternative Hypothesis $H_1 \neq 0$

a test for determining whether the response and the predictor variables are linearly related

$$t_1 = \frac{\text{Cor}(Y, X) \sqrt{n-2}}{\sqrt{1 - (\text{Cor}(Y, X))^2}}$$

if $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ is rejected, it means that there is a statistically significant linear relationship between Y and X

```
cor_1=cor(M,U)
cor_1
```

```
## [1] 0.9936987
```

```
t_1=(cor_1*sqrt(14-2))/sqrt(1-(cor_1)^2)
t_1
```

```
## [1] 30.71158
```

#Confident intervals # $(1-\alpha)*100\%$ confident interval for β_0 $\beta_0 \pm t(n-2, \alpha/2) \times \text{s.e.}(\beta_0)$

where $t(n-2, \alpha/2)$ is the $(1 - \alpha/2)$ percentile of a t distribution with $n - 2$ degrees of freedom. Similarly, limits of the $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval for β_1 are given by

$$\beta_1 \pm t(n-2, \alpha/2) \times \text{s.e.}(\beta_1)$$

```
conl=B0-(2.179*seB0)
conl
```

```
## [1] -102.8546
```

```
conu=B0+(2.179*seB0)
conu
```

```
## [1] 111.1779
```

#confident intervals # $(1-\alpha)*100\%$ confident interval for B_1

#confident intervals # $(1-\alpha)*100\%$ confident interval for B_1 This does not mean that a simultaneous (joint) confidence region for the two parameters is rectangular. Actually, the simultaneous confidence region is elliptical.

```
CONL=B1-(2.179*seB1)
CONL
```

```
## [1] 14.40842
```

```
CONU=B1+(2.179*seB1)  
CONU
```

```
## [1] 16.60913
```

Prediction

#d. If \hat{Y}_4 denotes the predicted value Two type of predictions: The prediction of the value of the response variable Y which corresponds to any chosen value, X_0 , of the predictor variable.

2. The estimation of the mean response μ_0 , when $X = x_0$. Predicted value $\hat{y}_0 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X^0$

$$s.e.(\hat{y}_0) = \sigma \sqrt{(1/n + x/\sum(x_0 - \bar{x})^2 / \sum(x_i - \bar{x})^2)}$$

the confidence limits for the predicted value with confidence coefficient $(1 - \alpha)$ are given by $\hat{Y}_0 \pm t(n-2, \alpha/2) \times s.e.(\hat{Y}_0)$

for forecast use or prediction the second case, the mean response μ_0 is estimated by

$$\hat{\mu}_0 = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \hat{x}_0$$

The standard error of this estimate

$$s.e.(\hat{\mu}_0) = \sigma \sqrt{(1/n + (x_0 - \bar{x})^2 / \sum(x_i - \bar{x})^2)}$$

that the confidence limits for μ_0 with confidence coefficient $(1 - \alpha)$ are given by $\hat{\mu}_0 \pm t(n-2, \alpha/2) \times s.e.(\hat{\mu}_0)$

for confident limits Note that the point estimate of μ_0 is identical to the predicted response \hat{Y}_0 . This can be seen by comparing. The standard error of μ_0 is, however, smaller than the standard error of y_0 can be seen by comparing. Intuitively, this makes sense. There is greater uncertainty (variability) in predicting one observation (the next observation) than in estimating the mean response when $X = X_0$. The averaging that is implied in the mean response reduces the variability and uncertainty associated with the estimate.

```
y4=B0+(B1*4)  
y4
```

```
## [1] 66.19674
```

```
sey4=sigma*sqrt(1+1/14+(4-mean(U))^2/s)  
sey4
```

```
## [1] 5.671614
```

```
mu4=B0+(B1*4)
mu4
```

```
## [1] 66.19674
```

```
semu4=sigma*sqrt(1/14+(4-mean(U))^2/s)
semu4
```

```
## [1] 1.759688
```

#Measuring The Quality of Fit #Measuring The Quality of Fit we are interested not only in knowing whether a linear relationship exists, but also in measuring the quality of the fit of the model to the data.

1:-The larger the t (in absolute value) or the smaller the corresponding p-value, the stronger the linear relationship between Y and X. assumption of normality of the ϵ 's.

2:-correlation coefficient $\text{Cor}(Y, X)$, the closer the set of points to a straight line .

3:- Examine the scatter plot of Y versus \hat{Y} . measure the strength of the linear relationship

$$\text{Cor}(Y, \hat{Y}) = \frac{\sum(Y_i - \bar{Y})(\hat{Y}_i - \bar{\hat{Y}})}{\sqrt{\sum(Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \sum(\hat{Y}_i - \bar{\hat{Y}})^2}}$$

In fact, the scatter plot of Y versus X and the scatter plot of Y versus \hat{Y} are redundant because the patterns of points in the two graphs are identical in simple linear regression, the scatter plot of Y versus \hat{Y} is redundant. But in multiple regression is not redundant.

$$1 \quad \text{Cor}(Y, \hat{Y}) = |\text{Cor}(Y, X)| \quad ; \quad -1 \leq \text{Cor}(Y, X) \leq 1$$

$$\text{Total sum of square deviation} = \text{SST} = \sum(Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \quad ;$$

$$\text{Sum of square due to regression} = \text{SSR} = \sum(\hat{Y}_i - \bar{\hat{Y}})^2$$

$$\text{Sum of square residuals(errors)} = \text{SSE} = \sum(Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$$

$$\text{SST} = \text{SSR} + \text{SSE} \quad ; \quad R^2 = \text{SSR} / \text{SST} = 1 - \text{SSE} / \text{SST} \quad ;$$

$$R^2 = [\text{Cor}(Y, X)]^2 = [\text{Cor}(Y, \hat{Y})]^2$$

In simple linear regression, R^2 is equal to the square of the correlation coefficient .

$$0 \leq R^2 \leq 1 \text{ since } \text{SSE} \leq \text{SST} .$$

If R^2 is near 1, this reason it is known as coefficient of determination.

```
COR=cor(M,minutes)
COR
```

```

## [1] 0.9936987

ycapbar=mean(minutes)
ycapbar

## [1] 97.21427

fit=(minutes-ycapbar)
fit

## [1] -77.54385 -62.03508 -46.52631 -31.01754 -31.01754 -15.50877 0.00000
## [8] 0.00000 15.50877 31.01754 46.52631 46.52631 62.03508 62.03508

sm=sum(fit*fit)
sm

## [1] 27419.5

sy=sum(yi_ybar*yi_ybar)
sy

## [1] 27768.36

COR1=sum(yi_ybar*(fit))/sqrt((sm)*sy)
COR1

## [1] 0.9936987

SST=sum((M-mean(M))^2)
SST

## [1] 27768.36

SSR=sum((minutes-mean(M))^2)
SSR

## [1] 27419.5

SSE=sum((resi)^2)
SSE

## [1] 348.8484

SST=SSR+SSE
SST

## [1] 27768.35

Rsqr=SSR/SST
Rsqr

## [1] 0.9874372

```

```
rsqr=1-(SSE/SST)
rsqr
```

```
## [1] 0.9874372
```

#R² =0.987 indicates that nearly 99% of total variability in response variable(Minutes) is accounted for the predictor variable(Units).

```
Rr=COR^2
Rr
```

```
## [1] 0.9874372
```

```
r=cor_1*cor_1
r
```

```
## [1] 0.9874372
```