## Recommended Exercise 7 in Statistical Linear Models, Spring 2021

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# Problem 1 Inference about a new observation in multiple linear regression

a)

Since  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (X^TX)^{-1}X^T\boldsymbol{Y}$ , we know that  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim N(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2(X^TX)^{-1})$ . Since the Gaussian distribution is closed under linear transformations, this means that  $\boldsymbol{x}_0^T\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim N(\boldsymbol{x}_0^T\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2\boldsymbol{x}_0^T(X^TX)^{-1}\boldsymbol{x}_0)$ , which is univariate. Now, since  $E\boldsymbol{x}_0^T\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \boldsymbol{x}_0^T\boldsymbol{\beta}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{x}_0^T\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $EY_0 = \boldsymbol{x}_0^T\boldsymbol{\beta}$ , with distribution as given above.

b)

Generally, we know that if  $Z \sim N(0,1)$  and  $U \sim \chi_q^2$ , where Z and U are independent, then  $\frac{Z}{\sqrt{U/q}} \sim t_q$ . In this case, we can set  $Z = \frac{\boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \boldsymbol{\beta}}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 \boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0)}}$  and  $U = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \text{SSE} = \frac{(n-p)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-p}^2$ . Moreover, Z and U are independent, because  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$  and  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  are independent. Hence, the estimator

$$T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{U/q}} = \frac{\frac{\boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \boldsymbol{\beta}}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 \boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0}}}{\sqrt{\frac{(n-p)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2} / (n-p)}} = \frac{\boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \boldsymbol{\beta}}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 \boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0}} \sim t_{n-p}.$$

This means that

$$\begin{split} -t &\leq \frac{\boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \boldsymbol{\beta}}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 \boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0}} \leq t, \\ &\iff \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - t \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0}) \leq \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \boldsymbol{\beta} \leq \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + t \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0}, \\ &\iff \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - t \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0}) \leq EY_0 \leq \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + t \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0}. \end{split}$$

Hence,

$$1 - \alpha = P\left(-t_{\alpha/2} \le \frac{\boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \boldsymbol{\beta}}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 \boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0}} \le t_{\alpha/2}\right)$$

$$= P\left(\boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - t_{\alpha/2} \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0} \le EY_0 \le \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + t_{\alpha/2} \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0}\right),$$

which means that  $\boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \pm t_{\alpha/2} \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0}$  is a  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $EY_0$ .

**c**)

A similar process to the one used in b) is used. For a future observation  $Y_0$  we can derive that  $Y_0 - \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim N(0, \sigma^2 (1 + \boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0))$ , since  $Y_0 = \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \varepsilon_0$  and  $\boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $EY_0$ . Set  $Z = \frac{Y_0 - \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}}{\sigma \sqrt{(1 + \boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0)}}$  and set U as in b). Solving the same inequalities as in b) then gives

$$1 - \alpha = P\left(\boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - t_{\alpha/2} \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{1 + \boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0} \le Y_0 \le \boldsymbol{x}_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + t_{\alpha/2} \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{1 + \boldsymbol{x}_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_0}\right),$$

which means that  $x_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \pm t_{\alpha/2} \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{1 + x_0^T (X^T X)^{-1} x_0}$  is a  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  prediction interval for  $Y_0$ . LF: Why does  $Y_0$  independent of  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  give independence from  $x_0^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ ?

d)

```
acidrain <-read.table("https://www.math.ntnu.no/emner/TMA4267/2018v/acidrain.txt",header=TRUE)
fit <-lm(y^{-}, data = acidrain)
# Confidence interval: Done manually via the equations found in previous tasks.
X <- model.matrix(fit)</pre>
x0 \leftarrow c(1, 3, 50, 1, 50, 2, 1, 0)
n \leftarrow dim(X)[1]
p \leftarrow dim(X)[2]
quantile <- qt(0.025, n-p,lower.tail = FALSE)
prediction <- t(x0)%*%fit$coefficients</pre>
upper.conf <- prediction + quantile*summary(fit)$sigma*sqrt(t(x0)%*%solve(t(X)%*%X)%*%x0)
lower.conf <- prediction - quantile*summary(fit)$sigma*sqrt(t(x0)%*%solve(t(X)%*%X)%*%x0)</pre>
prediction
#> [1,] 5.531684
lower.conf
#>
             [,1]
#> [1,] 5.446329
upper.conf
             [,1]
#> [1,] 5.617039
# Confidence interval: Done in R.
newdata \leftarrow data.frame(x1=3,x2=50,x3=1,x4=50,x5=2,x6=1,x7=0)
predict(fit, newdata, level=.95, interval="confidence")
#>
          fit
                    lwr
#> 1 5.531684 5.446329 5.617039
# Prediction interval: Done manually via the equations found in previous tasks.
upper.pred <- prediction + quantile*summary(fit)$sigma*sqrt(1+t(x0)%*%solve(t(X)%*%X)%*%x0)
lower.pred <- prediction - quantile*summary(fit)$sigma*sqrt(1+t(x0)%*%solve(t(X)%*%X)%*%x0)
prediction
#>
             [,1]
#> [1,] 5.531684
```

#### lower.pred

```
#> [,1]
#> [1,] 5.272555
upper.pred
```

```
#> [,1]
#> [1,] 5.790813
# Prediction interval: Done in R.
predict(fit, newdata, level=.95, interval="prediction")
```

```
#> fit lwr upr
#> 1 5.531684 5.272555 5.790813
```

e)

Calculate  $\boldsymbol{x}_0^T(X^TX)^{-1}\boldsymbol{x}_0$  with  $\boldsymbol{x}_0^T=(1 \ x_0)$  and

$$X^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & \dots & 1 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & \dots & \dots & x_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

This, combined with the rest of the expression for the confidence interval from b), gives the desired expression for simple linear regression.

### Problem 2 Plant stress

**a**)

- t-value for intercept is missing: This is calculated by the test statistic  $\hat{\beta}_{intercept}/\hat{SE} \approx 16.15942/0.04140 \approx 390.3242$ . This is the test statistic for testing  $H_0$ :  $\hat{\beta}_{intercept} = 0$  vs.  $H_1$ :  $\hat{\beta}_{intercept} \neq 0$ .
- Std. Error for D:T is missing: This can be calculated from the same test statistic as in the last bullet point, since we know the t-value for D:T. Hence,  $\hat{\beta}_{\text{D:T}}/\hat{S}E = t$  gives  $\hat{S}E = \hat{\beta}_{\text{D:T}}/t \approx -0.00242/-0.058 \approx 0.0417$ . This is the estimated standard deviation of the estimation of the coefficient for D:T. Another way of calculating this value is by noting the design of the experiment. This is a two-level full factorial design, which is a case where we know that  $\hat{\beta} \sim N(\beta, \sigma^2/n)$ , which means that the estimated std. error for D:T can be found by Residual standard error divided by  $\sqrt{32}$ .
- p-value for D:F:T is missing: This can be calculated as  $2P(T \ge t) = 2*pt(2.198, 24, lower.tail = F) \approx 0.037836$ . This is, loosely speaking, the probability that the t-statistic is as observed or more extreme. It is used to test  $H_0: \hat{\beta}_{\text{D:F:T}} = 0$  vs.  $H_1: \hat{\beta}_{\text{D:F:T}} \ne 0$ .
- Multiple R-squared is missing: This can be calculated as  $1-\frac{\text{SSE}}{\text{SST}}$ . SSE can be calculated from the formula  $(n-p)\hat{\sigma}^2=(32-8)\hat{\sigma}^2=24\hat{\sigma}^2\approx 1.3163914$ , where  $\hat{\sigma}$  is found as Residual Standard Error in the summary-table. We also know the F-statistic, which is calculated as  $\frac{\text{SSR}/(p-1)}{\text{SSE}/(n-p)}=\frac{(\text{SST-SSE})/(p-1)}{\text{SSE}/(n-p)}=\frac{(\text{SST-SSE})/(p-1)}{\text{SSE}/(22-8)}=\frac{(\text{SST-SSE})/7}{\text{SSE}/24}\approx 105.6$ , which gives that SST  $\approx 41.8612452$ . Finally, this gives  $R^2\approx 0.9685535$ .

b)

An estimator could be  $\hat{\gamma} = 2^{\hat{\beta}_F - \hat{\beta}_D}$ . The expected value and variance of this estimator can be calculated using a first order Taylor expansion. Setting  $h(x,y) = 2^{x-y}$  and using a Taylor expansion in x and y of first order gives

$$h(\hat{\beta}_{F}, \hat{\beta}_{D}) \approx h(\beta_{F}, \beta_{D}) + h_{\hat{\beta}_{F}}(\beta_{F}, \beta_{D})(\beta_{F} - \hat{\beta}_{F}) + h_{\hat{\beta}_{D}}(\beta_{F}, \beta_{D})(\beta_{D} - \hat{\beta}_{D})$$
$$= 2^{\beta_{F} - \beta_{D}} + 2^{\beta_{F} - \beta_{D}}(\beta_{F} - \hat{\beta}_{F})\ln(2) + 2^{\beta_{F} - \beta_{D}}(\beta_{D} - \hat{\beta}_{D})\ln(2),$$

since  $h_x(x,y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}h(x,y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}2^{x-y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\exp\left((x-y)\ln(2)\right) = 2^{x-y}\ln(2)$ . This means that  $E(\hat{\gamma}) = E(2^{\hat{\beta}_F - \hat{\beta}_D}) = E(h(\hat{\beta}_F, \hat{\beta}_D)) \approx h(\beta_F, \beta_D) = 2^{\beta_F - \beta_D}$ , since  $\hat{\beta}_F$  and  $\hat{\beta}_D$  are unbiased estimators of  $\beta_F$  and  $\beta_D$ . Moreover,  $Var(\hat{\gamma}) = Var(2^{\hat{\beta}_F - \hat{\beta}_D}) = Var(h(\hat{\beta}_F, \hat{\beta}_D)) \approx h_{\hat{\beta}_F}(\beta_F, \beta_D)^2 Var(\hat{\beta}_F) + h_{\hat{\beta}_D}(\beta_F, \beta_D)^2 Var(\hat{\beta}_D) = 2^{2(\beta_F - \beta_D)}(\ln(2))^2 (Var(\hat{\beta}_F) - Var(\hat{\beta}_D))$ .

From Figure 1, we can get the numerical estimates of the moments, given as

$$\widehat{\mathrm{E}(\hat{\gamma})} = 2^{\hat{\beta}_F - \hat{\beta}_D} \approx 0.636$$

$$\widehat{\mathrm{Var}(\hat{\gamma})} = 2^{2(\hat{\beta}_F - \hat{\beta}_D)} (\ln(2))^2 (\mathrm{Var}(\hat{\beta}_F) - \mathrm{Var}(\hat{\beta}_D)) \approx 6.67 \cdot 10^{-4}$$

## c)

A general test is  $C\beta = d$ . Let

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad d = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The test statistic is

$$F = \frac{(C\hat{\beta})^T (C(X^T X)^{-1} C^T)^{-1} C\hat{\beta}}{r\hat{\sigma}^2} = 4.705 \sim F_{\text{rank}(C), n-p} = F_{3,24}.$$

The critical values for  $F_{3,24}$  are 3.01 for  $\alpha = 0.05$  and 3.72 for  $\alpha = 0.025$ . Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected at (least) level 0.025.

 $\mathbf{d}$ 

The estimated regression coefficients are the same, since the columns in X are orthogonal (each estimate only depends on the response and its respective column in X). However, the estimated standard deviation changes because it is estimated from SSE and (n-p), which are quantities that change when the model changes. A prediction is  $\mathbf{x_0}^T \hat{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^T \hat{\beta} \approx 17.82$ , with a 95% prediction interval (calculated via the formula in c)) [17.198, 18.425].

## Problem 3 Multiple testing with plant stress

```
pvalues <- scan("https://www.math.ntnu.no/emner/TMA4267/2018v/damagePvalues.txt")
m <- length(pvalues)</pre>
```

**a**)

The family-wise error rate (FWER) is the probability of one or more false positive findings P(V > 0), where V is the number of false positive findings among the m tests. The false discovery rate (FDR) gives the expected proportion of false positive findings among the rejected hypotheses. A false positive is the same as a type I error, a case where the null hypothesis is rejected despite it being true. In the case of multiple linear regression this means that it is concluded that there is a linear relationship between the predictors and the response, despite the relationship not existing.

b)

Control FWER at level  $\alpha=0.05$  with the Bonferroni method. This gives  $\alpha_{\rm loc}=\frac{0.05}{m}=5\times 10^{-6}$ . In this case one would reject length(pvalues[pvalues<5e-6]) = 19 null-hypotheses in the data. Bonferroni's method can always be used. It is often called conservative because controlling FWER is a very strict criterion, especially when m is large, as is the case here. Moreover, since Bonferroni's method does not account for dependecy structures between the m hypotheses, the p-value cut-off might be estimated to a value that is much smaller than necessary, e.g. if the tests (here: genes) are highly correlated, which means that the effective number of tests is smaller than m. More elaborate methods take dependencies into account, which might yield more accurate cut-offs.

**c**)

```
pvaluesb <- ifelse(pvalues<5e-6, "Reject", "Keep")
type1c <- sum(pvaluesb[1:9000] == "Reject")
type2c <- sum(pvaluesb[9001:10000] == "Keep")
type1c # V. Hence, U = 9000 - V = 9000

#> [1] 0
type2c # T. Hence, S = 1000 - 981 = 19

#> [1] 981
# Hence, R = 19, m-R = 9981
```

Thus, there are zero false positives. In a true multiple hypothesis setting the only known values are m and R.

d)

```
pvaluesd <- ifelse(pvalues<0.05, "Reject", "Keep")
type1d <- sum(pvaluesd[1:9000] == "Reject")
type2d <- sum(pvaluesd[9001:10000] == "Keep")
type1d # V. Hence, U = 9000 - V = 8572

#> [1] 428
type2d # T. Hence, S = 1000 - 178 = 822

#> [1] 178
# Hence, R = V + S = 1250, m-R = 8750
```

Now we have 428 false positives.