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STAT2008/STAT6038

Overall Significance of the Regression

Assessing the model

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- In our fitting we assume the errors have a particular distribution – that is, $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$
 - Normal distribution
 - Mean = 0
 - Constant variance = σ_ε^2
 - If σ_ε^2 is small, then small spread of observations around fitted line
 - If σ_ε^2 is large, then observations have wide spread around fitted line
 - Errors are independent (the errors are independent from the observed regressor x , and independent of each other)

Mathematically

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$$\begin{aligned}
 E(\varepsilon_i | x_i) &= 0 \\
 E(\varepsilon_i^2 | x_i) &= \sigma^2 \\
 E(\varepsilon_i \varepsilon_j | x_i x_j) &= 0 \\
 E(x_i \varepsilon_i) &= 0 \\
 \varepsilon_i &\sim N(0, \sigma^2)
 \end{aligned}$$

Estimating σ^2

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- Recall from section 1

choose $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1$ to minimise

$$S(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_i)^2$$

Differentiating

$$A) \frac{\partial S}{\partial \beta_0} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_i)$$

$$B) \frac{\partial S}{\partial \beta_1} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n X_i (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_i)$$

Residuals

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$$\text{Let } e_i = Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i$$

e_i = sample residuals. They estimate the (unobservable) ε_i 's

$$\text{Equation (A) } 0 = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i$$

$$\text{Equation (B) } 0 = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i e_i$$

Therefore Assumptions

$$\bar{e} = 0 \quad E(\varepsilon_i) = 0$$

$$\overline{Xe} = 0 \quad E(X_i \varepsilon_i) = 0$$

Estimating σ^2

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The estimator is based on the sample variance of the e_i 's.

We use the **residual sum of squares** (also called the **sum of squared errors**, **SSE**) divided by its appropriate degrees of freedom, $n - 2$,

$$s_e^2 = \frac{SSE}{n-2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{n-2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2}{n-2},$$

This estimator is known as the **Mean Squared Error (MSE)**

Estimating σ^2 Matrix Notation

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$$s_e^2 = \frac{e^T e}{n-2} = \frac{(Y - \hat{Y})^T (Y - \hat{Y})}{n-2}$$

$$= \frac{(Y - HY)^T (Y - HY)}{n-2}$$

$$= \frac{Y^T (I - H)^T (I - H) Y}{n-2} = \frac{Y^T (I - H) Y}{n-2}$$

H and $I - H$ are projection matrices (any matrix, A , is called a projection matrix if it satisfies the identities, $A^T = A$ and $AA = A^2 = A$; see Section IV and the first set of tutorial exercises)

Assumptions

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- It turns out there are some issues with using our sample residuals to construct the estimator
- Leads to an adjustment that ensures that the estimator is unbiased

Leverage (see page 7 of brick)

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$$\text{Var}(e) = \sigma^2(I - H)$$

h_{ij} will usually be non-zero

- We can see that if the leverage (the measure of the influence of a data point) is not zero the residuals are not uncorrelated!
- The off diagonals are not zero.

Independence

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- Furthermore, it turns out that the correlations between the residuals are always positive
- They tend to be closer to each other in value than we might expect, and, more importantly, closer to each other than the corresponding $\varepsilon_i^2 s$
- This means that the $e_i^2 s$ will **underestimate** the $\varepsilon_i^2 s$
- Biased!

Why n-2? (see page 8 and 9 of the brick)

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- This means that we must divide by a smaller denominator (n-2) to overcome the correlation and make our estimator unbiased!

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{df} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$$

↑
n - 2

1st Year: $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$

Another Problem

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- The variance of our residuals is not constant

$$\text{Var}(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2 = \text{constant}$$

$$\text{Var}(e_i) = \sigma^2(1 - h_i)$$

where h_i is the leverage associated with data point i .

Summary

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GOOD

$$\sum e_i = 0$$

$$\sum X_i e_i = 0$$

BAD

$$e_i \text{ not ind.}$$

$$\text{Var}(e_i) \neq \text{Const} = \sigma^2(1 - h_{ii})$$

Standard errors of the parameter estimates and the MSE

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$$s_{b_1} = \frac{s_\varepsilon}{\sqrt{(n-1) \text{var}(X)}}$$

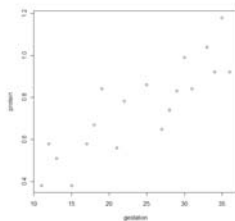
$$s_{b_0} = s_\varepsilon \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^2}{(n-1) \text{var}(x)}}$$

s_ε is the square root of the MSE

Example: Protein in Pregnancy

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```
> protpreg<-
  read.csv("protpreg.csv",hea
der=F)
> attach(protpreg)
> protein<-protpreg[,1]
> gestation<-protpreg[,2]
> plot(gestation,protein)
```



Example

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```
> reg.out<-lsfit(gestation,protein)
> reg.out$coef
Intercept      X
0.20173770 0.02284426
> reg.diag$std.dev
[1] 0.1150781
> reg.diag$std.err
               [,1]
Intercept 0.083363149
X         0.003294676
> var(gestation)
[1] 67.77778
> length(gestation)
[1] 19
```

$$s_{b_1} = \frac{s_\varepsilon}{\sqrt{(n-1) \text{var}(X)}}$$

$$= \frac{0.1151}{\sqrt{18 \times 67.7778}}$$

$$= 0.003295$$

ANOVA

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Analysis of Variance.

- This part of the output splits the variability in the response into two parts: one part that is variability explained by the model and another part that remains unexplained

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$$

$$\text{Total Sum of Squares} = \text{Regression Sum of Squares} + \text{Error (or Residual) Sum of Squares}$$

$$\text{SSTO} = \text{SSREG} + \text{SSE}$$

ANOVA

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- In the ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) table, the "F" column provides a statistic for testing the hypothesis that $\beta_1 = 0$ against the alternative $\beta_1 \neq 0$
- The test statistic F is the ratio MSR/MSE (the mean square regression term divided by the mean square error term).
- When the MSR term is large relative to the MSE term, then the ratio is large and there is evidence against the null hypothesis.
- For simple linear regression, the statistic $F = \text{MSR}/\text{MSE}$ has an F distribution with df (1, n - 2).

General Form of ANOVA Table in the Simple Linear Regression Model

Source	d.f.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Statistics
Regression	1	SSR	MSR=SSR/1	F=MSR/MSE
Error	n-2	SSE	MSE=SSE/(n-2)	
Total	n-1	Variation in Y SST		

ANOVA

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	P-value
Regression	1	$\sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2$	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2}{1}$	$\frac{MS_{REG}}{MS_E}$	$P(T^2 \geq \frac{MS_{REG}}{MS_E}) \quad T^2 \sim F(1, n-2)$
Error	n-2	$\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2}{n-2}$		
Total	n-1	$\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$			

Significance of the regression

Null and alternative hypothesis:

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$$

$$H_A : \beta_1 \neq 0.$$

Test Statistic:

$$F = MSR/MSE$$

Decision Rule: Compare F to F distribution on 1 numerator and n-2 denominator degrees of freedom. Reject the null if $F > F_{1,n-2}(1-\alpha)$

Conclusion: If the null is rejected we conclude that there is some relationship between the response and the predictor variable.

lm() function

- lm is used to fit linear models.
- It can be used to carry out regression and analysis of variance
- For instance, a linear regression can be done with the command `lm(y ~ x)` which means fitting a linear model with y as response and x as predictor.
- lm() allows us to pass dataframes as an argument
- In the next example we are just passing a vector

Example – ANOVA and R

```
> protpreg<-read.csv("protpreg.csv",header=F)
> attach(protpreg)
> protein<-protpreg[,1]
> gestation<-protpreg[,2]
> protpreg.lm<-lm(protein~gestation)
```

ANOVA

```
> anova(protpreg.lm)
Analysis of Variance Table

Response: protein
      Df  Sum Sq  Mean Sq  F value    Pr(>F)
gestation  1  0.63667   0.63667   48.076 2.416e-06 ***
Residuals 17  0.22513   0.01324
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

- Is this a one sided or two sided test?
- What would it mean to have a small F value?

Conclusion

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```
> qf(0.95,1,17)
[1] 4.451322
> qf(0.99,1,17)
[1] 8.39974
```

- We can see that the p-value is much smaller than 0.05 or 0.01
- Alternatively we can see that the test statistic 48.07606 is much larger than the critical values 4.45 or 8.39

R-Sq – The coefficient of determination

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- **Summary of Fit.** R-Squared, gives the proportion of variability in Y that is explained by the linear model in X. It is a measure of how good the model is: a value of 1 means a perfect fit; a value of 0 suggests a very poor fit (i.e. the linear fit in X provides no information about Y). The second useful part of this output is, the estimate of the error standard deviation σ . NB R-Sq (adj) is used when we consider multiple linear regression

Simple Linear Regression: Determining the Strength and Significance of Association

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The strength and significance of the association between the variables of interest is measured by r^2 , or the *coefficient of determination*, which measures the proportion of total variation explained:

$$R^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2} = \frac{SSR}{SST} = \frac{SST - SSE}{SST} = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}$$

- Coefficient of Determination measures proportion of total variation of Y explained by the independent variable X
- SSR: variation in Y that is explained by X
- SSE: variation in Y that is unexplained by the variation in X

Sample Correlation Coefficient

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The coefficient of determination is equivalent to the square of the sample correlation coefficient,

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}} = \frac{S_{xy}}{\sqrt{S_{xx} \cdot SST}}$$

Hypothesis test for correlation

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- $H_0: \rho=0$ (if correlation is zero, then there is no significant linear relationship)
- $H_1: \rho \neq 0$

□ Test Statistic:

$$t = r \sqrt{\frac{n-2}{1-r^2}}$$

- Decision Rule: Compare to a t-distribution with $n-2$ degrees of freedom.
- Conclusion: In terms of whether a significant linear relationship exists.

Example

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```
> cor(protein,gestation)
[1] 0.8595157

> cov(cbind(protein,gestation))
      protein gestation
protein 0.04787778 1.548333
gestation 1.54833333 67.777778
```

- The correlation coefficient is 0.85951567
- What is the coefficient of determination?

Hypothesis test in R

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```
> cor.test(protein, gestation)
```

Pearson's product-moment correlation

data: protein and gestation

t = 6.9337, df = 17, p-value = 2.416e-06

alternative hypothesis: true correlation is not equal to 0

95 percent confidence interval:

0.6648727 0.9448540

sample estimates:

cor

0.8595157

Testing the Slope

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To test $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ versus $H_A: \beta_1 \neq 0$

the test statistic is $T = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - 0}{se(\hat{\beta}_1)}$

the null hypothesis is rejected at level α if $|T| > t_{(n-2)}(\alpha/2)$.

$$s_{b1} = \frac{s_e}{\sqrt{(n-1)var(x)}}$$

$$= \frac{s_e}{\sqrt{SS_x}}$$

The null hypothesis is rejected if $p < \alpha$

Relationship to the F test

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The regression sum of squares, SSR , can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{b}_0 + \hat{b}_1 x_i - \bar{Y})^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n ((\bar{Y} - \hat{b}_1 \bar{x}) + \hat{b}_1 x_i - \bar{Y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{b}_1^2 (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \hat{b}_1^2 SS_x, \end{aligned}$$

which implies that

$$T^2 = \frac{\hat{b}_1^2 SS_x}{s_e^2} = \frac{SSR/1}{s_e^2} = \frac{MSR}{s_e^2} = F.$$

Relationship between T and F

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```
> qt(0.95, 1, 17)
```

```
[1] 4.451322
```

```
> qt(0.975, 17)^2
```

```
[1] 4.451322
```

```
>
```

$$\{t_{n-2}(1-\alpha/2)\}^2 = F_{1, n-2}(1-\alpha)$$

Protein Pregnancy Example

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```
> summary(protpreg.lm)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = protein ~ gestation)
```

Residuals:

```
    Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-0.16853 -0.08720 -0.01009  0.08578  0.20422
```

Coefficients:

```
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 0.201738   0.083363   2.420  0.027 *
gestation    0.022844   0.003295   6.934  2.42e-06 ***
```

```
---
```

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

Residual standard error: 0.1151 on 17 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.7388, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7234

F-statistic: 48.08 on 1 and 17 DF, p-value: 2.416e-06