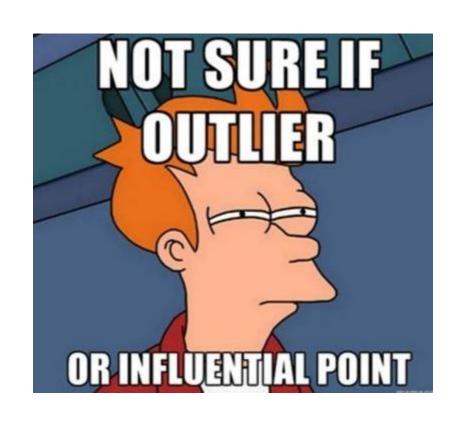
# Influential points, ANOVA for regression and multiple regression



### Overview

Review of inference for simple linear regression



Analysis of variance for regression

If there is time: multiple regression

- Basic ideas
- Nested model comparison
- Related sampling and multiple regression coefficients



### Announcements

Homework 7 has been posted. It is due on Sunday

I have your cheat sheets to give back to you

# Quick review of simple linear regression

### The process of building regression models

#### **Choose** the form of the model

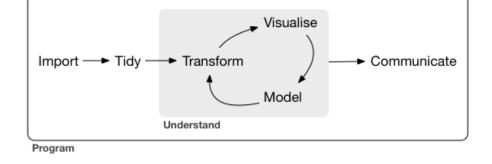
• Identify and transform explanatory and response variables

#### **Fit** the model to the data

Estimate model parameters

#### Assess how well the model describes the data

Analyze the residuals, evaluate unusual points, etc.



**Use** the model to address questions of interest

Make predictions, explore relationships, etc.

All models are wrong, but some models are useful

### Simple linear regression concepts

Theoretical model:  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$ 

Estimated model:  $\hat{y} = \hat{\beta_0} + \hat{\beta_1} x$ 

### Inference for simple linear regression models

- Hypothesis tests for intercept and slope
- Confidence intervals for slope and line; prediction intervals

#### Inference is valid if these conditions are met:

Linearity, Independence, Normality, Equal variance of errors



### Hypothesis test for regression coefficients

We can run hypothesis tests to assess whether there is a relationship between y and x, and calculate p-values

- $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = 0$  (slope is 0, so no relationship between x and y
- $H_A$ :  $\beta_1 \neq 0$

One type of hypothesis test we can run is based on a t-statistic:  $t=\frac{\beta_1-0}{\hat{SE}_{\hat{\beta_1}}}$  • The t-statistic comes from a t-distribution with n - 2 degrees of freedom

$$\hat{SE}_{\hat{\beta}_{1}} = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_{e}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}} \qquad \hat{SE}_{\hat{\beta}_{0}} = \hat{\sigma}_{e} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}}$$

By default the R summary(Im\_fit) shows p-values from running a two-sided test

### Summary of confidence and prediction intervals

### 1. CI for slope $\beta$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t^* \cdot \hat{SE}_{\hat{\beta}_1} \qquad \hat{SE}_{\hat{\beta}_1} = \hat{\sigma}_e \sqrt{\frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}$$

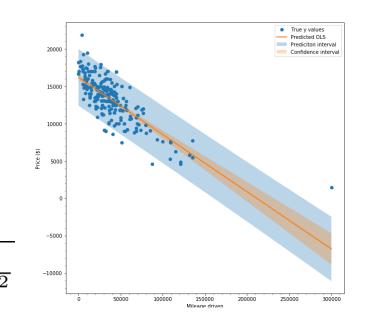
 $\beta_1$ 

### 2. CI for regression line $\mu_Y$ at point $x^*$

$$\hat{y}_{(x^*)} \pm t^* \cdot \hat{SE}_{\hat{y}_{(x^*)}} \quad \hat{SE}_{\hat{y}_{(x^*)}} = \hat{\sigma}_e \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* - \bar{x})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}$$

### 3. Prediction interval y

$$\hat{y}_{(x^*)} \pm t^* \cdot \hat{SE}_{pred} \quad \hat{SE}_{pred} = \hat{\sigma}_e \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* - \bar{x})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}$$



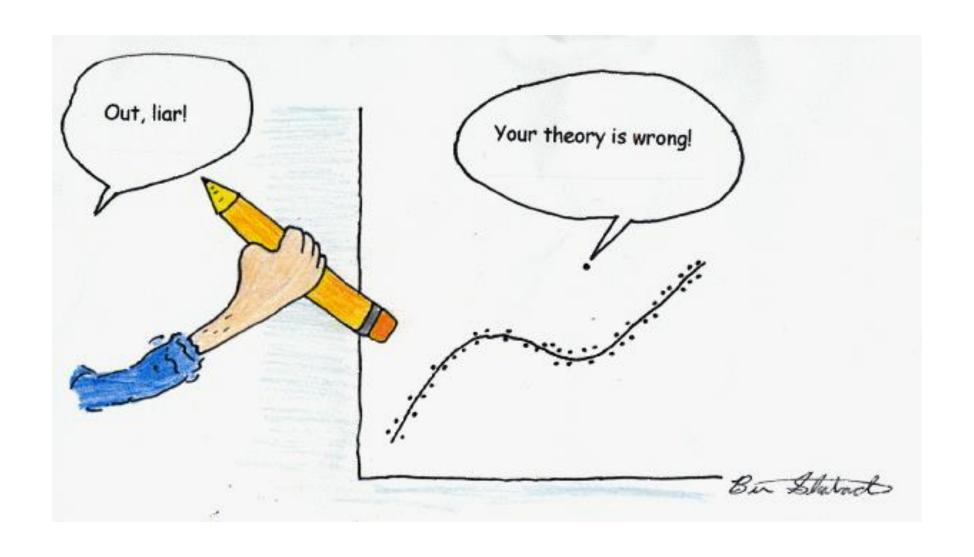
# Regression diagnostics

Linearity, Independence, Normality, Equal variance of errors Nonlinear Heteroscedasticity Normal data quantiles Normal theoretical quantiles -0.4

# Questions?



### Statistics for unusual observations



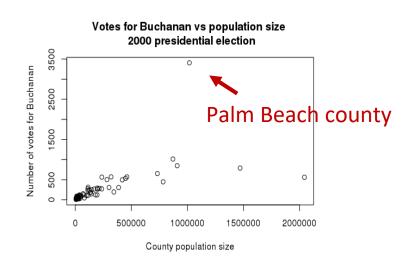
### Statistics for unusual observations

There are statistics that are useful for flagging usual observations

- **High leverage points**: usual **x** values
- Outliers (large residuals): unusual y values
- Influential points: both an outlier and a high leverage

#### Unusual observations can indicate:

- An error in data processing
- A need to modify the model
- An interesting phenomenon



Unusual observations can also have a big effect on the model fit

• E.g., a big effect on  $\hat{eta}_0$   $\hat{eta}_1$ 

### Leverage: unusual x values

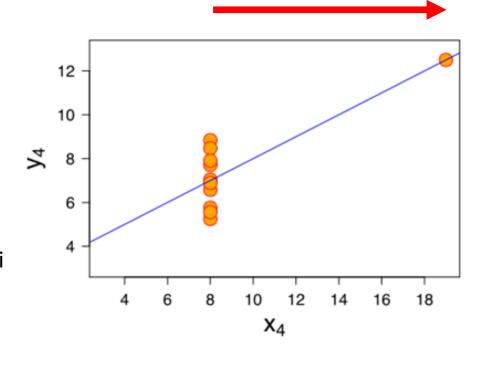
**High leverage** points are predictors **x** that are far from the mean

We can quantify the leverage a data point  $x_i$  has using the statistic:

$$h_i = \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{\sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - \bar{x})^2}$$

R: hatvalues()





$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} h_i = 2$$

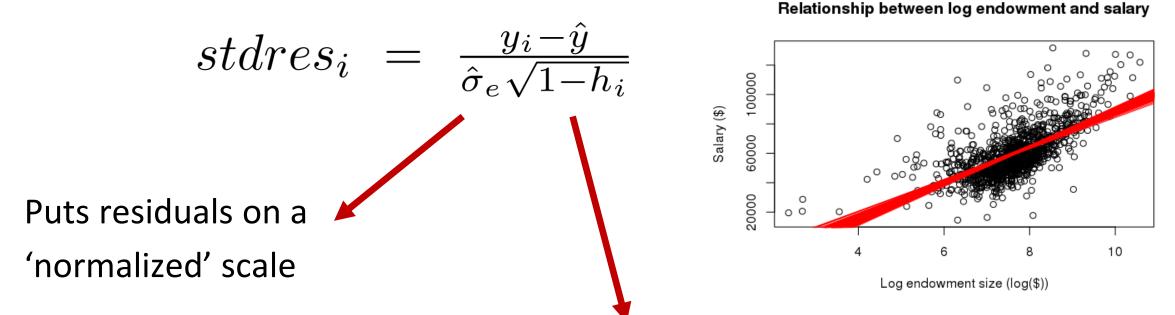
Typical:  $h_i = 2/n$ 

High:  $h_i = 4/n$ 

Very high:  $h_i = 6/n$ 

# Outliers (residuals): unusual y values

The **standardized residual** for the i<sup>th</sup> data point in a regression model can be computed using:



Makes residuals at the ends a bit larger to deal with the fact that they are 'overfit'

R: rstandard()

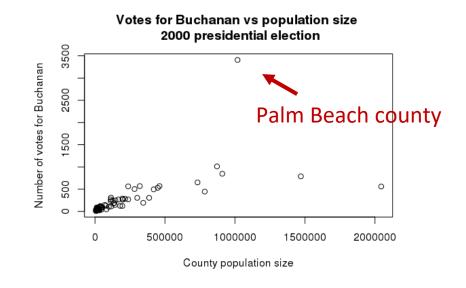
# Outliers (residuals): unusual y values

The **studentized residual** for the i<sup>th</sup> data point in a regression model can be computed using:

$$studres_i = \frac{y_i - \hat{y}}{\hat{\sigma}_{e(i)}\sqrt{1 - h_i}}$$

Here  $\hat{\sigma}_{e(i)}$  is the estimate of  $\hat{\sigma}_e$  with the i<sup>th</sup> point removed

**Q:** Why might we want to remove the  $i^{th}$  point when calculating  $\hat{\sigma}_e$ ?



**A:** Outliers could have a big effect on our estimate of  $\hat{\sigma}_e$ 

R: rstudent ()

# Influential points: unusual x and y values

The amount of influence a point has on a regression line depends on:

- The size of the residual e<sub>i</sub>
- The amount of leverage h<sub>i</sub>

Cook's distance is a statistic that captures how much influence a point has on

a regression line

$$D_i = \frac{(stdres_i)^2}{k+1} \frac{h_i}{1-h_i}$$

Larger for larger residuals (outliers)

Larger for high leverage points

Where *k* is the number of predictors in the model

R: cooks.distance()

• For simple linear regression k = 1 (just a single predictor x)

# Influential points: unusual x and y values

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Cook's distance is a statistic that captures how much influence a point has on

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$$D_i = \frac{(stdres_i)^2}{k+1} \frac{h_i}{1-h_i}$$

Larger for larger residuals (outliers)

Larger for high leverage points

#### Rule of thumb:

- Moderately influential:  $D_i > 0.5$
- Very influential: D<sub>i</sub> > 1

R: cooks.distance()

# Influential points: unusual x and y values

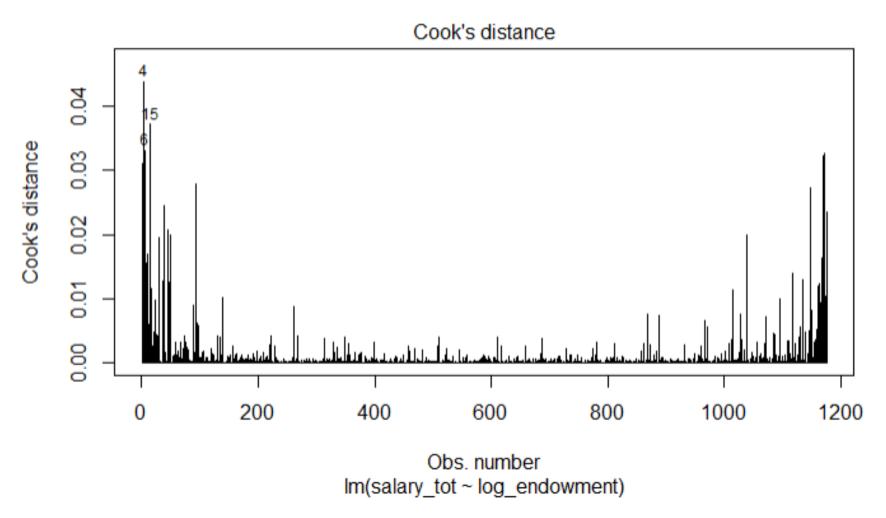
Cook's distance can also be expressed as the how much the predicted values ŷ's would change if the ith was not used when fitting the model

$$D_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} (\hat{y}_j - \hat{y}_{j(i)})^2}{(k+1) \cdot \hat{\sigma}_e^2}$$

Number of predictors in the model (i.e., k = 1 for simple linear regression)

The model fit with the i<sup>th</sup> point removed

# Cook's distances for salary ~ log<sub>10</sub> (endowment)



plot(lm\_fit, 4)

### Unusual points rules of thumb

Statistic	Moderately unusual	Very unusual
Leverage, h <sub>i</sub>	Above 2(k + 1)/n	Above 3(k + 1)/n
Standardized residual	Beyond ± 2	Beyond ± 3
Studentized residual	Beyond ± 2	Beyond ± 3
Cook's Distance	Above 0.5	Above 1.0

#### Where:

- k is the number of explanatory variables
- n is the number of data points

# Questions?



Let's try it in R!

# Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for regression

Suppose you had to guess a value Y

• E.g., the more accurate your guess the more \$ you win



Our guess would be off by about  $\hat{\sigma}_y$ 

Suppose you had to guess a value Y

• E.g., the more accurate your guess the more \$ you win

Suppose you had a sample of n = 30 from the distribution that Y came from

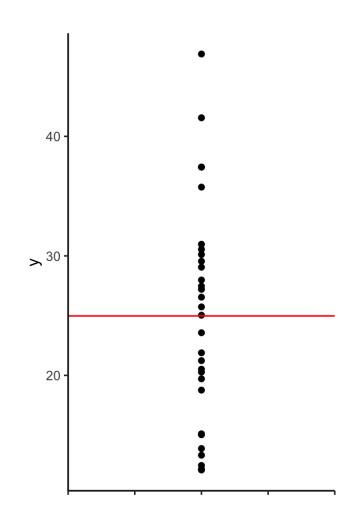
• They were values like: 27, 21, ..., 36

Q: What would your guess be?

A: The average of the data  $\bar{y}$  would be a good guess

• ȳ minimizes the sum of the squared deviations (residuals)

$$SS = \sum_{i=1}^{30} (y_i - c^*)^2$$
  $\mathbf{c^*} = \bar{\mathbf{y}} \text{ minimizes SS}$ 



Our guess would be off by about  $\hat{\sigma}_e$ 

Suppose you had to guess a value Y

• E.g., the more accurate your guess the more \$ you win

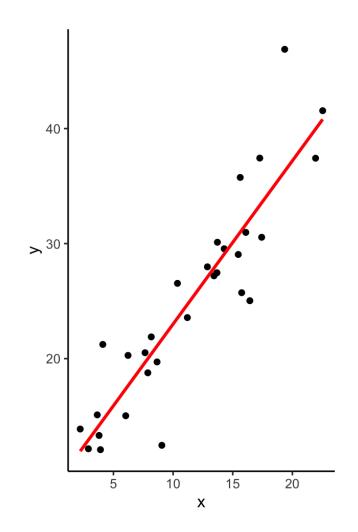
Suppose you also had a sample of n = 30 from the distribution with the following data:

Х	10	8	•••	16
у	27	21	•••	36

and you were told x = 15

Q: What would your guess be?

A: Could fit a linear regression model and predict y

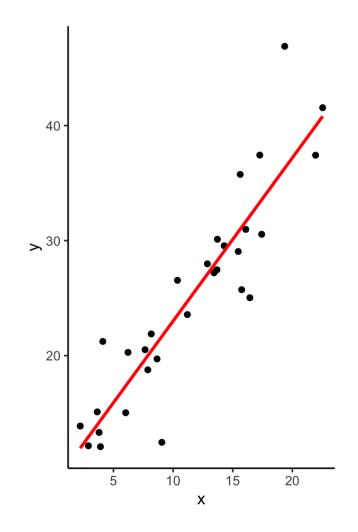


Suppose you had to guess a value Y

• E.g., the more accurate your guess the more \$ you win

As we add additional data x (predictors) our predictions become better, and we are able to account for more of the variability in the data y

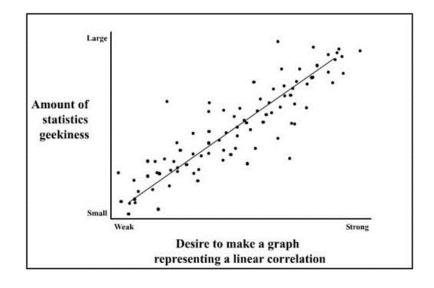
One could view the central goal of statistical analyses as coming up with models that can account for as much of the variability in y as possible



### Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for regression

In an analysis of variance, we break down the **total variability**  $(\sigma_v)$  in a **response variable y** into:

- 1. the variability explained by the model
- 2. the variability not explained by the model
  - i.e., the residuals



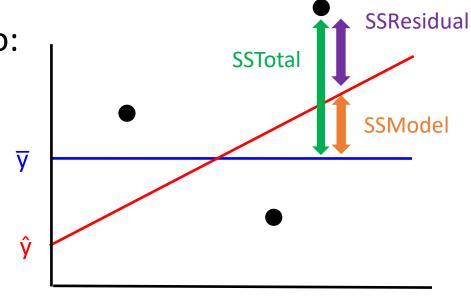
### Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for regression

In an analysis of variance, we break down the total variability  $(\sigma_v)$  in a response variable y into:

- 1. the variability explained by the model
- 2. the variability not explained by the model
  - i.e., the residuals

### We can express this as:

SSTotal = SSModel + SSResidual



$$y_i - \bar{y} = (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y}) + (y_i - \hat{y}_i)$$

$$y_i - \bar{y} = (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y}) + (y_i - \hat{y}_i) \quad \text{Added and subtracted } \hat{y}_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2 + (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 + \frac{2(y_i - \hat{y}_i)(\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})}{2}$$
This equal 0 (when using least squares)

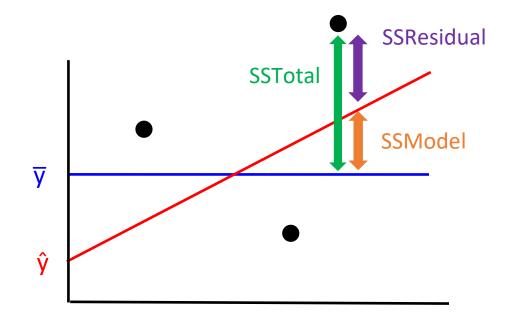
### The coefficient of determination r<sup>2</sup>

### The percentage of the total variability explained by the model is given by

$$r^2 = \frac{SSModel}{SSTotal} = 1 - \frac{SSResidual}{SSTotal}$$

### We can express this as:

SSTotal = SSModel + SSResidual



$$y_i - \bar{y} = (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y}) + (y_i - \hat{y}_i)$$

 $y_i - \bar{y} = (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y}) + (y_i - \hat{y}_i) \quad \text{Added and subtracted } \hat{\mathbf{y}}_i$   $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2 + (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 + 2(y_i - \hat{y}_i)(\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})$  This equal 0 (when using least squares)

### Hypothesis test based on ANOVA for regression

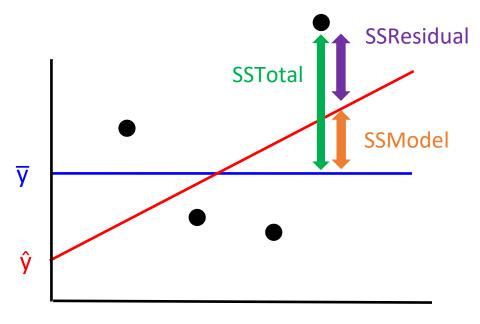
$$F = \frac{SSModel/df_{model}}{SSResidual/df_{error}}$$

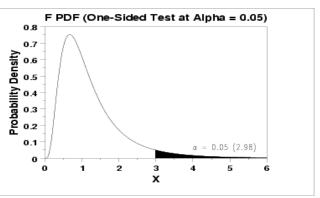
$$df_{model} = 1$$
  
 $df_{error} = n - 2$ 

### If the null hypothesis is true that $\beta_1$ = 0:

- F comes from an F-distribution with  $df_{model}$ ,  $df_{error}$  degrees of freedom
- For simple linear regression, this gives the same results as running a t-test

• 
$$F = t^2$$





### Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for regression in R

You can create an ANOVA table for regression relationships in R using:

anova(lm\_fit)

```
SSModel
```

**SSResidual** 

F

```
anova(lm_fit)

Analysis of Variance Table

Response: salary_tot

Df Sum Sa Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
log_endowment 1 132879258586 132879258586 764.29 0.000000000000000022 ***
Residuals 1173 203936190958 173858645

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

lm\_fit <- lm(salary\_tot ~ log\_endowment, data = assistant\_data)</pre>

### Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for regression in R

You can create an ANOVA table for regression relationships in R using:

anova(lm\_fit)

We can check that the ANOVA relationships holds: SSTotal = SSModel + SSResidual using:

- The original data y values
- Im\_fit\$residuals
- lm\_fit\$fitted.values

You can also check that F = t<sup>2</sup> by comparing anova(lm fit) and summary(lm fit) values

Homework 7!







In multiple regression we try to predict a quantitative response variable y using several predictor variables  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_k$ 

For multiple linear regression, the underlying model is:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_1 + \beta_2 \cdot x_2 + \dots + \beta_k \cdot x_k + \epsilon$$

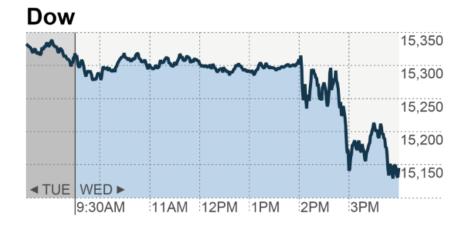
We estimate coefficients using a data set to make predictions ŷ

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta_0} + \hat{\beta_1} \cdot x_1 + \hat{\beta_2} \cdot x_2 + \dots + \hat{\beta_k} \cdot x_k$$

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta_0} + \hat{\beta_1} \cdot x_1 + \hat{\beta_2} \cdot x_2 + \dots + \hat{\beta_k} \cdot x_k$$

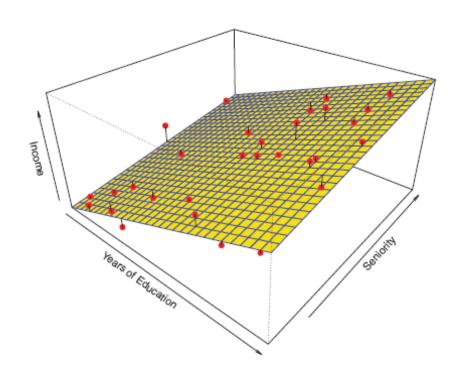
There are many uses for multiple regression models including:

- To make predictions as accurately as possible
- To understand which predictors (x) are related to the response variable (y)



salary = 
$$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \cdot f(endowment) + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot g(enrollment)$$

Let's explore this in R...



### Nested model comparison

We can also assess whether a particular subset of q parameters is 0

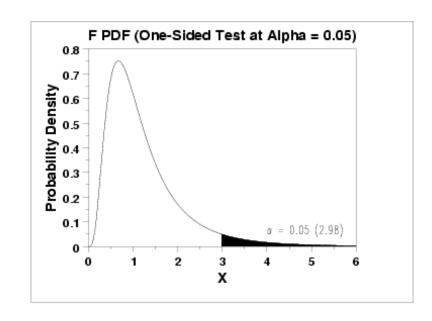
$$H_0$$
:  $\beta_h = \beta_i = ... = \beta_g = 0$ 

#### To do this we:

- 1. Fit the model without these features
- 2. Calculate the SSRes<sub>Reduced</sub> for the model without these predictors
- 3. Compare it to the full model SSRes<sub>Full</sub> with an F-statistic:

$$F = \frac{(SSRes_{Reduced} - SSRes_{Full})/q}{SSRes_{Full}/(n-k-1)}$$

where q is the number of additional terms in the full model



$$df_1 = df_{Reduced} - df_{Full}$$
  
 $df_2 = df_{Full}$ 

Suppose we fit both a simple and multiple regression models to the same data.

simple linear regression coefficient

Simple regression model: 
$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_{0(1)} + \hat{\beta}_{1(1)} \cdot x_1$$

multiple linear regression coefficient

Multiple regression model:  $\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_{0(2)} + \hat{\beta}_{1(2)} \cdot x_1 + \hat{\beta}_{2(2)} \cdot x_2$ 

**Question**: How are the coefficients  $\hat{\beta}_{1(1)}$  and  $\hat{\beta}_{1(2)}$  related?

**Question**: How are the simple regression coefficients  $\hat{\beta}_{1(1)}$  and the multiple regression coefficient  $\hat{\beta}_{1(2)}$  (for a predictor  $x_1$ ) related?

We can view the multiple regression coefficient  $\hat{\beta}_{1(2)}$  as the change in y with the change in  $x_1$  when we set the predictor  $x_2$  to a fixed value

• For real data, it might not be possible/realistic to set  $\mathbf{x}_2$  to a fixed value while changing  $\mathbf{x}_1$ 

We can view the simple regression coefficient  $\hat{\beta}_{1(1)}$  as the change in y when we let the other predictor  $x_2$  change with the value of  $x_1$ 

If the predictor  $x_1$  is correlated with  $x_2$ , then changing  $x_1$  will be associated with changes in  $x_2$  which in turn will be associated with changes in y

We can assess the association between  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , using regression:

$$x_2 = \hat{\delta}_0 + \hat{\delta}_1 \cdot x_1$$

We can then relate the change in y with the change in  $x_1$  in the simple regression coefficient to the multiple regression coefficients as:

$$\hat{\beta}_{1(1)} \cdot x_1 = \hat{\beta}_{1(2)} \cdot x_1 + \hat{\beta}_{2(2)} \cdot \hat{\delta}_1 \cdot x_1$$