# **Simple Linear Regression**

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#### 6.1 THE MODEL

By (1.1), the *simple linear regression* model for *n* observations can be written as

$$\mathbf{y}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathbf{x}_i + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n. \tag{6.1}$$

The designation simple indicates that there is only one x to predict the response y, and "linear" means that the model (6.1) is linear in  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ . [Actually, it is the assumption  $E(y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$  that is linear; see assumption 1 below.] For example, a model such as  $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i^2 + \varepsilon_i$  is linear in  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ , whereas the model  $y_i = \beta_0 + e^{\beta_1 x_i} + \varepsilon_i$ 

In this chapter, we assume that y<sub>i</sub> and  $\varepsilon_i$  are random variables and that the values of  $(x_i)$  are known constants, which means that the same values of  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$  would be used in repeated sampling. The case in which the x variables are random variables is treated in Chapter 10. 紅 豐田 값이 에 백업대를 다들거임.

To complete the model in (6.1), we make the following additional assumptions:

- 1.  $E(\varepsilon_i) = 0$  for all i = 1, 2, ..., n, or, equivalently,  $E(y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$ . 2.  $var(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2$  for all i = 1, 2, ..., n, or, equivalently,  $var(y_i) = \sigma^2$ .  $\rightarrow \varepsilon$

Assumption 1 states that the model (6.1) is correct, implying that  $y_i$  depends only on  $x_i$ and that all other variation in  $y_i$  is random. Assumption 2 asserts/that the variance of  $\varepsilon$ or y does not depend on the values of  $x_i$ /(Assumption 2 is also known as the assumption of homoscedasticity, homogeneous variance or constant variance.) Under assumption 3, the  $\varepsilon$  variables (or the y variables) are uncorrelated with each other. In Section 6.3, we will add a normality assumption, and the y (or the  $\varepsilon$ ) variables will thereby be independent as well as uncorrelated. Each assumption has been stated in terms of the  $\varepsilon$ 's or the y's. For example, if  $var(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2$ , then  $var(y_i) = E[y_i - E(y_i)]^2 = E(y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2 = E(\varepsilon_i^2) = \sigma^2.$ 

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Any of these assumptions may fail to hold with real data. A plot of the data will often reveal departures from assumptions 1 and 2 (and to a lesser extent assumption 3). Techniques for checking on the assumptions are discussed in Chapter 9.

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## 6.2 ESTIMATION OF $\beta_0$ , $\beta_1$ , AND $\sigma^2$

Using a random sample of n observations  $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n$  and the accompanying fixed values  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ , we can estimate the parameters  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ , and  $\sigma^2$ . To obtain the estimates  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$ , we use the method of least squares, which does not require any distributional assumptions (for maximum likelihood estimators based on normality, see Section 7.6.2).

In the *least-squares* approach, we seek estimators  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  that minimize the sum of squares of the deviations  $y_i - \hat{y}_i$  of the *n* observed  $y_i$ 's from their predicted values  $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$ :

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}'\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\varepsilon}_{i}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \hat{y}_{i})^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \hat{\beta}_{0} - \hat{\beta}_{1}x_{i})^{2}. \tag{6.2}$$

Note that the predicted value  $\hat{y}_i$  estimates  $E(y_i)$ , not  $y_i$ ; that is,  $\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$  estimates  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$ , not  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i$ . A better notation would be  $\widehat{E(y_i)}$ , but  $\hat{y}_i$  is commonly used. To find the values of  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  that minimize  $\hat{\varepsilon}'\hat{\varepsilon}$  in (6.2), we differentiate with respect to  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  and set the results equal to 0:

$$\frac{\partial \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}' \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}}{\partial \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_0} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_0 - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 x_i) = 0, \tag{6.3}$$

$$\frac{\partial \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}' \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}}{\partial \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_0 - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 x_i) x_i = 0. \tag{6.4}$$

The solution to (6.3) and (6.4) is given by

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2},$$
(6.5)

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_0 = \bar{\mathbf{y}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 \bar{\mathbf{x}}.\tag{6.6}$$

To verify that  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  in (6.5) and (6.6) minimize  $\hat{\epsilon}'\hat{\epsilon}$  in (6.2), we can examine the second derivatives or simply observe that  $\hat{\epsilon}'\hat{\epsilon}$  has no maximum and therefore the first  $\hat{\epsilon}'\hat{\epsilon}$  of applications of the property of the pr

derivatives yield a minimum. For an algebraic proof that  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  minimize (6.2), see (7.10) in Section 7.3.1.

**Example 6.2.** Students in a statistics class (taught by one of the authors) claimed/that doing the homework had not helped prepare them for the midterm exam./The exam score y and homework score x (averaged up to the time of the midterm) for the 18 students in the class were as follows:

$$\frac{y}{95} \quad \frac{x}{96} \quad \frac{y}{72} \quad \frac{x}{89} \quad \frac{35}{35} \quad 0$$

$$80 \quad 77 \quad 66 \quad 47 \quad 50 \quad 30$$

$$0 \quad 0 \quad 98 \quad 90 \quad 72 \quad 59$$

$$0 \quad 0 \quad 90 \quad 93 \quad 55 \quad 77$$

$$79 \quad 78 \quad 0 \quad 18 \quad 75 \quad 74$$

$$77 \quad 64 \quad 95 \quad 86 \quad 66 \quad 67$$
Using (6.5) and (6.6), we obtain
$$\hat{\beta}_{1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} y_{i} - n \bar{x} \bar{y}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} - n \bar{x}^{2}} = \frac{\sum (\lambda_{i} - \bar{x}) (y_{i} - \bar{y})}{\sum (\lambda_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}} = \frac{\sum (\lambda_{i} - \bar{x})^{2} + n \bar{x}^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} - n \bar{x}^{2}} = \frac{13,195 - 18(58.056)(61.389)}{80,199 - 18(58.056)^{2}} = .8726,$$

$$\hat{\beta}_{0} = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x} = 61.389 - .8726(58.056) = 10.73.$$

The prediction equation is thus given by

$$\hat{y} = 10.73 + .8726x$$
.

This equation and the 18 points are plotted in Figure 6.1./It is readily apparent in the plot/that the slope  $\hat{\beta}_1$  is the rate of change of  $\hat{y}$ /as x varies/and that the intercept  $\hat{\beta}_0$  is the value of  $\hat{y}$  at x = 0.

The apparent linear trend in Figure 6.1 does not establish cause and effect/between homework and test results (for inferences that can be drawn, see Section 6.3). The assumption  $var(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2$  (constant variance) for all i = 1, 2, ..., 18 appears to be reasonable.

Note that the three assumptions in Section 6.1 were not used/in deriving the least-squares estimators  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  in (6.5) and (6.6)/It is not necessary that  $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$  be based on  $E(y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$ ; that is,  $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$ /can be fit to a set of data for which  $E(y_i) \neq \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$ . This is illustrated in Figure 6.2, where a straight line has been fitted to curved data. If  $\hat{\beta}_0 = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_0 \hat{\beta}_0 = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_0 \hat{\beta}_0 = \hat{\beta}_0$ 

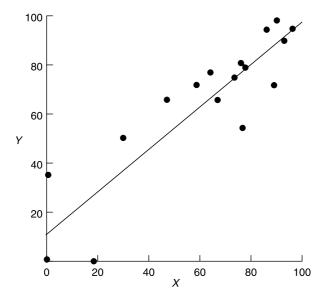


Figure 6.1 Regression line and data for homework and test scores.

However, if the three assumptions in Section 6.1 hold, then the least-squares estimators  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  are unbiased and have minimum variance among all linear unbiased estimators (for the minimum variance property, see Theorem 7.3d in Section 7.3.2; note that  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  are linear functions of  $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n$ ). Using the three

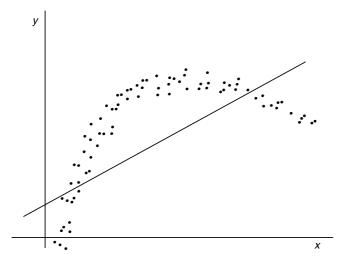


Figure 6.2 A straight line fitted to data with a curved trend.

assumptions, we obtain the following means and variances of  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$ :

$$E(\hat{\beta}_1) = \beta_1 \tag{6.7}$$

$$E(\hat{\beta}_0) = \beta_0 \tag{6.8}$$

$$\downarrow \operatorname{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$
(6.9)

$$\operatorname{var}(\hat{\beta}_0) = \sigma^2 \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \right]. \tag{6.10}$$

Note that in discussing  $E(\hat{\beta}_1)$  and  $var(\hat{\beta}_1)$ , for example, we are considering random variation of  $\hat{\beta}_1$  from sample to sample. It is assumed that the n values  $x_1$ ,  $x_2, \ldots, x_n$  would remain the same in future samples so that  $var(\hat{\beta}_1)$  and  $var(\hat{\beta}_0)$  are constant.

In (6.9), we see that  $\operatorname{var}(\hat{\beta}_1)$  is minimized when  $\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$  is maximized/If the  $x_i$  values have the range  $a \le x_i \le b$ ,/then  $\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$  is maximized/if half the x's are selected equal to a and half equal to b/(assuming that n is even; see Problem 6.4). In (6.10), it is clear that  $\operatorname{var}(\hat{\beta}_0)$  is minimized when  $\bar{x} = 0$ .

The method of least squares does not yield an estimator of  $var(y_i) = \sigma^2$ ; minimization of  $\hat{\varepsilon}'\hat{\varepsilon}$  yields only  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$ . To estimate  $\sigma^2$ , we use the definition in (3.6),  $\sigma^2 = E[y_i - E(y_i)]^2$ . By assumption 2 in Section 6.1,  $\sigma^2$  is the same for each  $y_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ . Using  $\hat{y}_i$  as an estimator of  $E(y_i)$ , we estimate  $\sigma^2$  by an average from the sample, that is

$$s^{2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \hat{y}_{i})^{2}}{n-2} = \frac{\sum_{i} (y_{i} - \hat{\beta}_{0} - \hat{\beta}_{1} x_{i})^{2}}{n-2} = \frac{SSE}{n-2},$$
 (6.11)

where  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  are given by (6.5) and (6.6) and SSE =  $\sum_i (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 / \text{The deviation}$   $\hat{\epsilon}_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$  is often called the *residual* of  $y_i$ , and SSE is called the *residual sum of squares* or *error sum of squares*. With n-2 in the denominator,  $s^2$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\sigma^2$ :

$$E(s^2) = \frac{E(SSE)}{n-2} = \frac{(n-2)\sigma^2}{n-2} = \sigma^2.$$
 (6.12)

Intuitively, we divide by n-2 in (6.11) instead of n-1 as in  $s^2 = \sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2/(n-1)$  in (5.6), because  $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$  has two estimated parameters and should thereby be a better estimator of  $E(y_i)$  than  $\bar{y}$ . Thus we

E(y<sub>i</sub>) >1 best 
$$\frac{1}{2}$$
 best  $\frac{1}{2}$  best  $\frac{1$ 

expect SSE =  $\sum_i (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$  to be less than  $\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2$ ./In fact, using (6.5) and (6.6), we can write the numerator of (6.11) in the form

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \overline{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \overline{y})^2 - \underbrace{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})\right]^2}_{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2}, \qquad (6.13)$$

which shows that  $\sum_{i} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$  is indeed smaller than  $\sum_{i} (y_i - \bar{y})^2$ .

### 6.3 HYPOTHESIS TEST AND CONFIDENCE INTERVAL FOR $\beta_1$

Typically, hypotheses about  $\beta_1$  are of more interest than hypotheses about  $\beta_0$ ,/since our first priority is to determine/whether there is a linear relationship between y and x./ (See Problem 6.9 for a test and confidence interval for  $\beta_0$ .)/In this section,/we consider the hypothesis  $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = 0$ , which states that there is no linear relationship between y and x in the model  $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i$ . The hypothesis  $H_0$ : $\beta_1 = c$  (for  $c \neq 0$ ) is of less interest.

In order to obtain a test for  $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = 0$ , we assume that  $y_i$  is  $N(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\hat{\beta}_1$  and  $s^2$  have the following properties (these are special cases of results established in Theorem 7.6b in Section 7.6.3):

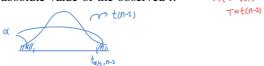
1. 
$$\hat{\beta}_1$$
 is  $N[\beta_1, \sigma^2/\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2]$ .  $\hat{\beta}_1 \sim N(\beta_1, \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum (X_\lambda - \bar{x})^2})$ 
2.  $(n-2)s^2/\sigma^2$  is  $\chi^2(n-2)$ .  $\frac{(n-2)S^2}{\sqrt{2}} \sim \chi^2(n-2)$ 
3.  $\hat{\beta}_1$  and  $s^2$  are independent.

From these three properties it follows by (5.29) that

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{s / \sqrt{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}} \quad \sim \quad t(N-2, \int) \qquad (6.14)$$

$$\int_{\sqrt{\sqrt{s}}} \frac{E(\hat{\beta}_1)}{\sqrt{\sqrt{s}}} = \frac{\beta_1}{\sqrt{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}(x_1 - \bar{x})^2}}$$

is distributed as  $t(n-2, \delta)$ , the noncentral t with noncentrality parameter  $\delta$ . By a comment following (5.29),  $\delta$  is given by  $\delta = E(\hat{\beta}_1)/\sqrt{\mathrm{var}(\hat{\beta}_1)} = \beta_1/[\sigma/\sqrt{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}]./\mathrm{If}\ \beta_1 = 0$ , then by (5.28), t is distributed as  $t(n-2)/\mathrm{For}\ a$  two-sided alternative hypothesis  $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$ , we reject  $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$  if  $|t| \geq t_{\alpha/2, n-2}$ , where  $t_{\alpha/2, n-2}$  is the upper  $\alpha/2$  percentage point of the central t distribution and  $\alpha$  is the desired significance level of the test/ (probability of rejecting  $H_0$  when it is true). Alternatively, we reject  $H_0$  if  $p \leq \alpha$ , where p is the p value/For a two-sided test, the p value is defined as twice the probability that t(n-2) exceeds the absolute value of the observed t.



A  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $\beta_1$  is given by

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t_{\alpha/2, \, n-2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}.$$
(6.15)

Confidence intervals are defined and discussed further in Section 8.6. A confidence interval for E(y) and a prediction interval for y are also given in Section 8.6.

**Example 6.3.** We test the hypothesis  $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = 0$  for the grades data in Example 6.2. By (6.14), the t statistic is

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{s/\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}} = \frac{.8726}{(13.8547)/(139.753)} = 8.8025.$$

Since  $t = 8.8025 > t_{.025, 16} = 2.120$ , we reject  $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = 0$  at the  $\alpha = .05$  level of significance. Alternatively, the p value is  $1.571 \times 10^{-7}$ , which is less than .05.

A 95% confidence interval for  $\beta_1$  is given by (6.15) as

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t_{.025, 16} \frac{s}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}$$

$$.8726 \pm 2.120(.09914)$$

$$.8726 \pm .2102$$

$$(.6624, 1.0828).$$

# 6.4 COEFFICIENT OF DETERMINATION 1817 714.

The coefficient of determination  $r^2$  is defined as

$$r^{2} = \frac{\text{SSR}}{\text{SST}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}}, \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_{j} - \bar{y})^{2}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}}, \tag{6.16}$$

where SSR =  $\sum_i (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2$  is the regression sum of squares/and SST =  $\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2$  is the total sum of squares./The total sum of squares can be partitioned into SST = SSR + SSE, that is,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2.$$
 (6.17)

Thus  $r^2$  in (6.16) gives the proportion of variation in y that is explained by the model or, equivalently, accounted for by regression on x.

We have labeled (6.16) as  $r^2$ /because it is the same as the square of the *sample* correlation coefficient r between y and x

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r} = \frac{s_{xy}}{\sqrt{s_x^2 s_y^2}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\left[\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2\right] \left[\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2\right]}},$$
(6.18)

where  $s_{xy}$  is given by 5.15 (see Problem 6.11). When x is a random variable, r estimates the population correlation in (3.19). The coefficient of determination  $r^2$  is discussed further in Sections 7.7, 10.4, and 10.5.

#### **Example 6.4.** For the grades data of Example 6.2, we have

$$r^2 = \frac{\text{SSR}}{\text{SST}} = \frac{14,873.0}{17,944.3} = .8288.$$

The correlation between homework score and exam score is  $r = \sqrt{.8288} = .910$ . The *t* statistic in (6.14) can be expressed in terms of *r* as follows:

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_{1}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}} \frac{\sum_{\vec{x}} (\vec{x}_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}{\sum_{\vec{x}} (\vec{x}_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{\hat{\beta}_{1}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}} \frac{\sum_{\vec{x}} (\vec{x}_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}{\sum_{\vec{x}} (\vec{x}_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}} \sqrt{\sum_{i} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}$$

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

$$(6.19)$$

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

$$(6.20)$$

If  $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = 0$  is true, then, as noted following (6.14), the statistic in (6.19) is distributed as t(n-2) under the assumption that the  $x_i$ 's are fixed and the  $y_i$ 's are independently distributed as  $N(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i, \sigma^2)$ . If x is a random variable such that x and y have a bivariate normal distribution, then  $t = \sqrt{n-2} \ r/\sqrt{1-r^2}$  in (6.20) also has the t(n-2) distribution/provided that  $H_0: \rho = 0$  is true, where  $\rho$  is the population correlation coefficient defined in (3.19) (see Theorem 10.5). However, (6.19) and (6.20) have different distributions if  $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$  and  $H_0: \rho = 0$  are false (see Section 10.4). If  $\beta_1 \neq 0$ , then (6.19) has a noncentral t distribution, but if  $\rho \neq 0$ , (6.20) does not have a noncentral t distribution.

#### **PROBLEMS**

- **6.1** Obtain the least-squares solutions (6.5) and (6.6) from (6.3) and (6.4).
- **6.2** (a) Show that  $E(\hat{\beta}_1) = \beta_1$  as in (6.7).
  - **(b)** Show that  $E(\hat{\beta}_0) = \beta_0$  as in (6.8).