Inference for Linear Regression

November 6, 2019

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Asking R for a summary of the regression model, we get the following:

```
lm(formula = eruptions ~ waiting)
Residuals:
    Min
             10 Median
                              30
                                      Max
-1.29917 -0.37689 0.03508 0.34909 1.19329
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -1.874016  0.160143 -11.70  <2e-16 ***
waiting 0.075628 0.002219 34.09 <2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' 1
Residual standard error: 0.4965 on 270 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.8115, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8108
F-statistic: 1162 on 1 and 270 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

Let's pick this apart piece by piece.

```
Call:
lm(formula = eruptions ~ waiting)

Residuals:
    Min     10     Median     30     Max
-1.29917 -0.37689     0.03508     0.34909     1.19329
```

- The first line shows the command used in R to run this regression model.
- The Residuals item shows a quartile-based summary of our residuals.

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```
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```

The F-statistic and p-value give information about the model overall.

- These are based on an F-distribution.
- The null hypothesis is that all of our model parameters are 0 (the model gives us no good info).
- Since p-value $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16} < \alpha = 0.05$, at least one of the parameters is nonzero (the model is useful).

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```
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```

- Multiple R-squared is our squared correlation coefficient \mathbb{R}^2 .
- This tells us how good our fit is.
- Ignore the adjusted R-squared and residual standard error for now.

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Finally, the Coefficients section gives us several pieces of information:

- Estimate shows the estimated parameters for each value.
- **2** Std. Error gives the standard error for each parameter estimate.
- **3** The t valuess are the test statistics for each parameter estiamte.
- Finally, Pr(>|t|) are the p-values for each parameter estimate.

The hypothesis test for each regression coefficient has hypotheses

$$H_0: \beta_i = 0$$

$$H_A: \beta_i \neq 0$$

where i = 0 for the intercept and i = 1 for the slope.

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- $p value < 2 \times 10^{-16}$ for b_0 so we can conclude that the intercept is nonzero.
- $p value < 2 \times 10^{-16}$ for b_1 so we conclude that the intercept is also nonzero.
- This means that the intercept and slope both provide useful information when predicting values of y =eruptions.

Confidence Intervals for a Coefficient

We can construct confidence intervals similar to those for hypothesis tests. A $(1-\alpha)100\%$ confidence interval for β_i is

$$b_i \pm t_{\alpha/2}(df) \times SE(b_i)$$

where the model df and SE can be found in the regression output.

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Aside: ANOVA for Regression Models

- ANOVA will also play a role in regression.
- We can get the ANOVA table for a regression.

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Aside: ANOVA for Regression Models

The ANOVA table in regression will look something like this:

	Df	$\operatorname{Sum}\operatorname{Sq}$	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)
faithful\$waiting	1	286.478	286.478	1162.1	< 2.2e-16
Residuals	270	66.562	0.247		

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Example

Find 95% confidence intervals for β_0 and β_1 .

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We now know

- how to examine if a model is useful.
- how to confirm that our regression assumptions are satisfied.

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Given a useful regression line, we want to

- \bullet estimate an average value of y for a given value of x.
- \bullet estimate a particular value of y for a given value of x.

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We've already talked about using a regression line to make predictions.

$$\hat{y} = b_0 + b_1 x$$

Plug in x and we get a good estimate for the *average* value of y at that point.

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Point estimates are useful, but we want to consider variability!

- Recall: one of our regression assumptions is normally distributed errors.
- This means that the variability around the regression line should be approximately normal
 - with mean $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$
 - and standard deviation σ^2 .

The Variability of \hat{y}

- Notice that \hat{y} is an estimator.
- The variability of an estimator is its standard error.
- Then σ^2 is well-approximated by

$$SE(\hat{y}) = \sqrt{\text{MSE}\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_0 - \bar{x})^2}{s_x}\right)}$$

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The Variability of \hat{y}

Since we are working with a normal distribution, estimation and testing can be based on the test statistic

$$t = \frac{\hat{y} - y_0}{SE(\hat{y})}$$

which corresponds to a t(n-2) distribution.

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Confidence Intervals for \bar{y}

A $(1-\alpha)100\%$ confidence interval for the average value of y (measured by $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$) when $x = x_0$ is

$$\hat{y} \pm t_{\alpha/2}(n-2) \times SE(\hat{y})$$

or

$$\hat{y} \pm t_{\alpha/2}(n-2) \times \sqrt{\text{MSE}\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_0 - \bar{x})^2}{s_x}\right)}$$

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- So far, we've only considered average values of the outcome variable y.
- What if we wanted to predict a particular value of y?

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For a residual,

$$e = \epsilon + \text{error in estimating line}$$

- We don't know the true breakdown between these components.
- ...but we can use this concept to build a new standard error formula.

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The standard error of $(y - \hat{y})$ is

$$SE(y - \hat{y}) = \sqrt{MSE\left(1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_0 - \bar{x})^2}{s_x}\right)}$$

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A $(1-\alpha)100\%$ **prediction interval** for a specific value of y when $x=x_0$ is

$$\hat{y} \pm t_{\alpha/2}(n-2) \times SE(y-\hat{y})$$

or

$$\hat{y} \pm t_{\alpha/2}(n-2) \times \sqrt{\text{MSE}\left(1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_0 - \bar{x})^2}{s_x}\right)}$$