



Residuals and residual variation

Brian Caffo, Jeff Leek and Roger Peng
Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health

Residuals

- Model $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i$ where $\epsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$.
- Observed outcome i is Y_i at predictor value X_i
- Predicted outcome i is \hat{Y}_i at predictor value X_i is

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

die β_0 und β_1 sind die "richtigen" Parameter fuer das Model.

Die haben wir aber nicht. Wir haben nur die estimated, also β^0 , β^1 .

der Hut (^) heisst einfach 'estimated', also estimated intercept, estimated slope.

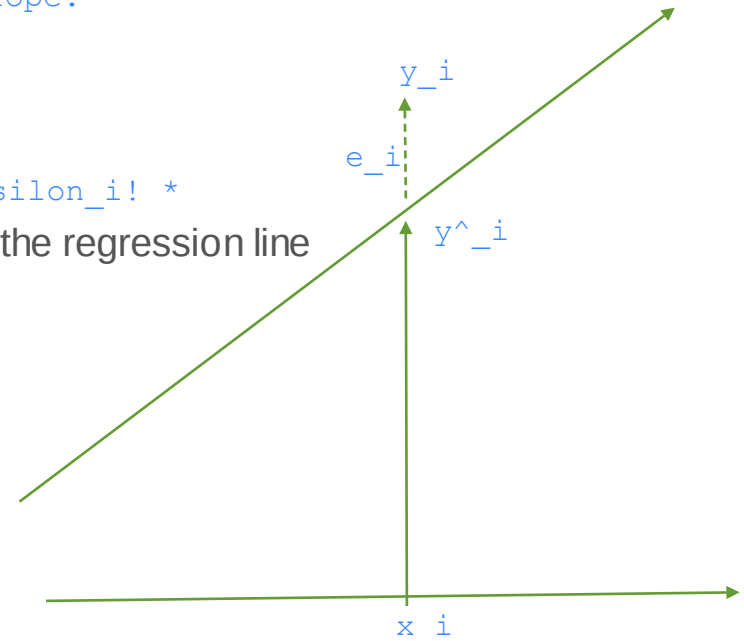
- Residual, the between the observed and predicted outcome

$$e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$$

Achtung: e_i ist /nicht/ ϵ_i ! *

- The vertical distance between the observed data point and the regression line
- Least squares minimizes $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$
- The e_i can be thought of as estimates of the ϵ_i .

* ϵ_i ist der "richtige" Fehler, e_i die beobachtete Distanz zwischen unserer Vorhersage \hat{Y}_i und dem richtigen Y_i .



Properties of the residuals

- $E[e_i] = 0$.
dh die e_i s koennen nicht unabhaengig voneinander sein, da sie sich zu 0 aufsummieren. Wenn man n-1 eins kennt, kann man das nte ausrechnen.
- If an intercept is included, $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i = 0$
- If a regressor variable, X_i , is included in the model $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i X_i = 0$.
Falls $X=1$, sei diese 3. Aussage equivalent zur zweiten, sagt er. X, X_i, x, x_i ??
- Residuals are useful for investigating poor model fit.
- Positive residuals are above the line, negative residuals are below.
- Residuals can be thought of as the outcome (Y) with the linear association of the predictor (X) removed. = "Y adjusted for X"
- One differentiates residual variation (variation after removing the predictor) from systematic variation (variation explained by the regression model).
- Residual plots highlight poor model fit.

Code

```
data(diamond)
y <- diamond$price; x <- diamond$carat; n <- length(y)
fit <- lm(y ~ x)
e <- resid(fit)
yhat <- predict(fit)
max(abs(e - (y - yhat)))
```

```
[1] 9.486e-13      residuals = predicted - observed
```

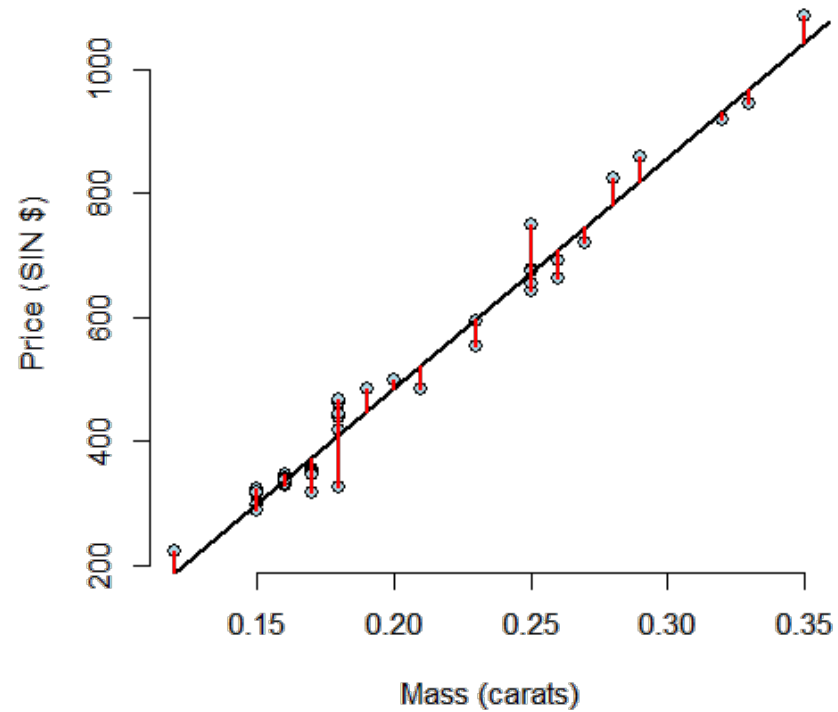
```
beta^0      beta^1
```

```
max(abs(e - (y - coef(fit)[1] - coef(fit)[2] * x)))
```

```
dasselbe:
```

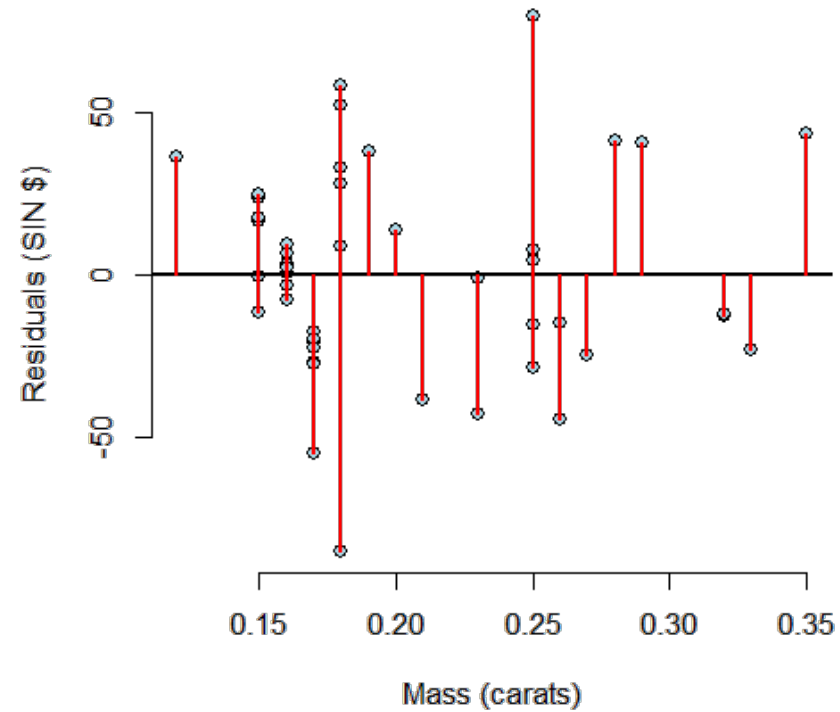
```
[1] 9.486e-13
```

Residuals are the signed length of the red lines



Residuals versus X

Wichtig: die Residuals sollten keinen
Zusammenhang haben mit dem Predictor.
Keine Muster.

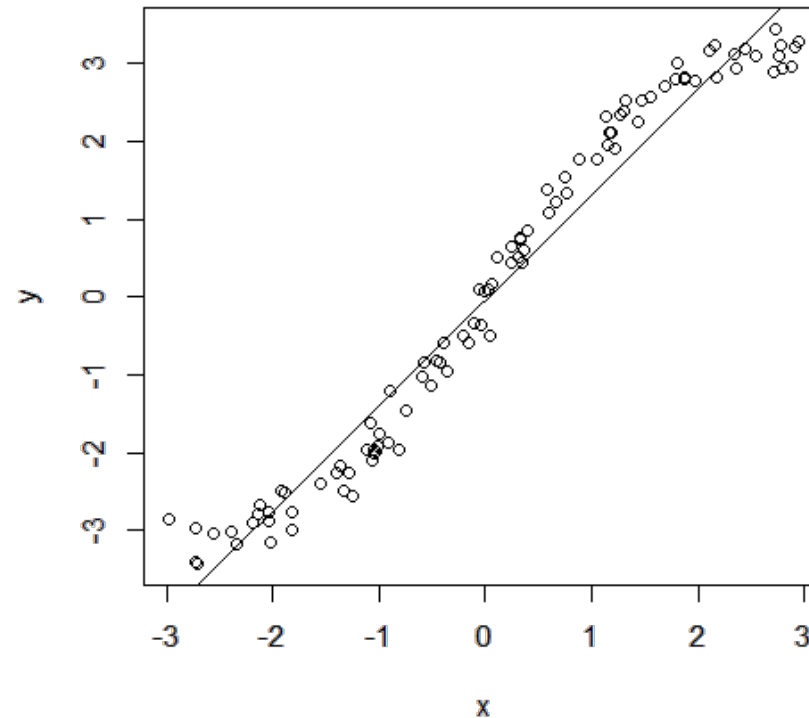


Non-linear data

Daten simulieren: X ist random uniform numbers. Y ist X plus eine Sinusfkt plus etwas Zufall:

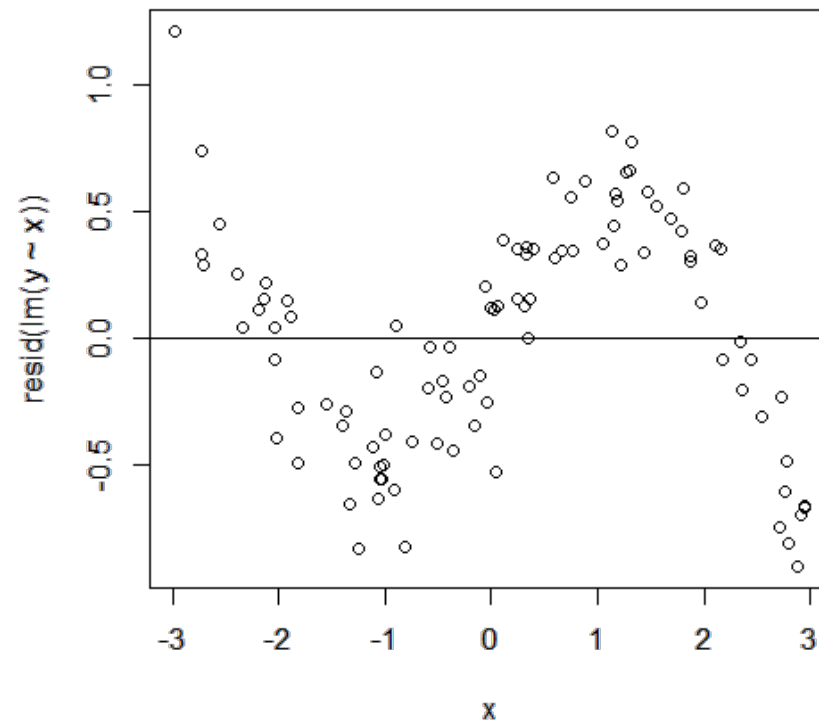
```
x <- runif(100, -3, 3); y <- x + sin(x) + rnorm(100, sd = .2);  
plot(x, y); abline(lm(y ~ x))
```

Und diese Fkt (den Synus) sieht man im Plot:



Aber noch viel deutlicher im Residualplot!

```
plot(x, resid(lm(y ~ x)));  
abline(h = 0)
```

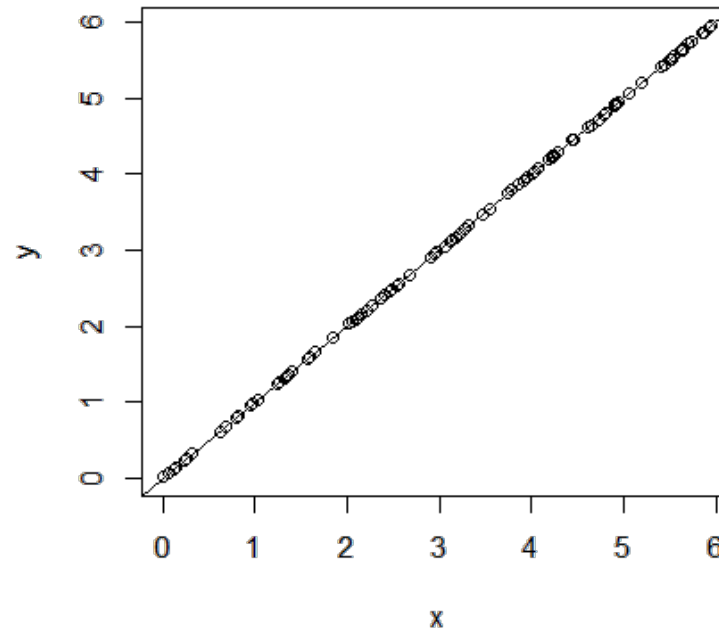


= Varianz nicht ueberall gleich!

Heteroskedasticity

Simulierte Daten: Varianz abhaengig von x!

```
x <- runif(100, 0, 6); y <- x + rnorm(100, mean = 0, sd = .001 * x);  
plot(x, y); abline(lm(y ~ x))
```

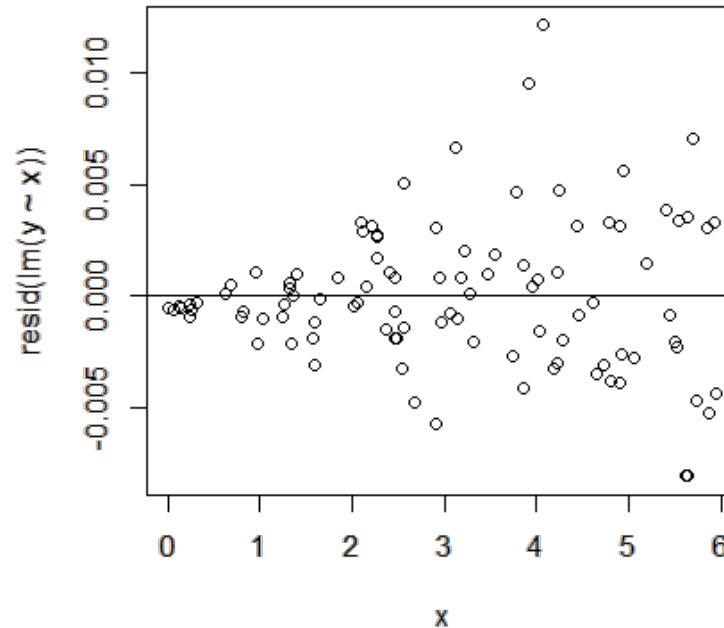


sieht eigentlich
aus
wie die perfekte

...jedoch im Residualplot sieht man, dass die Residuen nicht zufaellig sind!

Getting rid of the blank space can be helpful

```
plot(x, resid(lm(y ~ x)));  
abline(h = 0)
```



Leider ist so ein Residualplot nur mit 1 Variable moeglich :-)

Estimating residual variation

- Model $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i$ where $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$. Residual variation ist σ^2 .
- The ML estimate of σ^2 is $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$, the average squared residual.
Max.Likelihood
- Most people use

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2.$$

-2: zwei Freiheitsgrade weniger:
eins fuer estimate of beta0,
eins fuer estimate of beta1

- The $n - 2$ instead of n is so that $E[\hat{\sigma}^2] = \sigma^2$

-> unbiased

between friends: the difference is rather small, so
forget about it...

Diamond example

```
y <- diamond$price; x <- diamond$carat; n <- length(y)
fit <- lm(y ~ x)
summary(fit)$sigma
```

```
[1] 31.84
```

```
sqrt(sum(resid(fit)^2) / (n - 2))
```

```
[1] 31.84 ...same
```

Summarizing variation

Trick: Y_i addieren und subtrahieren

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

dann Quadrat ausmultiplizieren

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

Scratch work

$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i$
und $\beta_0 = \bar{Y} - \beta_1 \bar{X}$. Einsetzen:

Hier immer benutzt:
 $\sum (X_i - \bar{X}) = 0$,
 $\sum (Y_i - \bar{Y}) = 0$

$$(Y_i - \hat{Y}_i) = \{Y_i - (\bar{Y} - \beta_1 \bar{X}) - \beta_1 X_i\} = (Y_i - \bar{Y}) - \beta_1 (X_i - \bar{X})$$

$$(\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}) = (\bar{Y} - \beta_1 \bar{X} - \beta_1 X_i - \bar{Y}) = -\beta_1 (X_i - \bar{X})$$

derselbe Trick bei $Y_i - \bar{Y}$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)(\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \{(Y_i - \bar{Y}) - \beta_1 (X_i - \bar{X})\} \{-\beta_1 (X_i - \bar{X})\}$$

Nun diese beiden vereinfachten Terme hier einsetzen.

$$= -\beta_1 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})(X_i - \bar{X}) - \beta_1^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

$$= -\beta_1 \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 - \beta_1^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = 0$$

zweimal dasselbe, voneinander subtrahiert - gibt 0!

Summarizing variation

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

Totale Var. = Residual Var + "Model-Variation"

Or

Total Variation = Residual Variation + Regression Variation

weil mittlerer Term oben 0 wird!
(siehe Folie 13)

Define the percent of total variation described by the model as

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

Model-Variation ist immer kleiner als die totale Variation.

Relation between R^2 and r (the correlation)

Recall that $(\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}) = \hat{\beta}_1(X_i - \bar{X})$ so that

2 slides ago

$$R^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2} = \hat{\beta}_1^2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2} = \text{Cor}(Y, X)^2$$

Since, recall,

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \text{Cor}(Y, X) \frac{\text{Sd}(Y)}{\text{Sd}(X)}$$

So, R^2 is literally r squared.

Some facts about R^2

- R^2 is the percentage of variation explained by the regression model.
- $0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$
- R^2 is the sample correlation squared.
- R^2 can be a misleading summary of model fit.
 - Deleting data can inflate R^2 .
 - (For later.) Adding terms to a regression model always increases R^2 .
- Do `example(anscombe)` to see the following data. [illustrates some issues with \$R^2\$](#)
 - Basically same mean and variance of X and Y.
 - Identical correlations (hence same R^2).
 - Same linear regression relationship.

`data(anscombe) ; example(anscombe)`

Die haben alle
dasselbe R^2 !

Anscombe's 4 Regression data sets

