Bentley University MA252 in R $\,$

Content extracted from the How to Data Website

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Contents

MA252 is an undergraduate statistics course at Bentley University that focuses on model building using regression. The description from the course catalog can be found here.

It covers simple linear regression, multivariate linear regression, logistic linear regression, model building, transformations, and interactions.

Simple Linear Regression

- How to fit a linear model to two columns of data
- How to compute a confidence interval for the expected value of a response variable
- How to compute R-squared for a simple linear model
- How to predict the response variable in a linear model

Multivariate Linear Regression

- How to fit a multivariate linear model
- How to add an interaction term to a model
- How to add a polynomial term to a model
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- How to do a test of joint significance
- How to do a Spearman rank correlation test

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• How to compute the residuals of a linear model

Content last modified on 07 December 2021.

How to fit a linear model to two columns of data

Description

Let's say we have two columns of data, one for a single independent variable x and the other for a single dependent variable y. How can I find the best fit linear model that predicts y based on x?

In other words, what are the model coefficients β_0 and β_1 that give me the best linear model $\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ based on my data?

Related tasks:

- How to compute R-squared for a simple linear model
- How to fit a multivariate linear model
- How to predict the response variable in a linear model

Solution in R

This solution uses fake example data. When using this code, replace our fake data with your real data.

```
# Here is the fake data you should replace with your real data.
xs <- c( 393, 453, 553, 679, 729, 748, 817 )
ys <- c( 24, 25, 27, 36, 55, 68, 84 )

# If you need the model coefficients stored in variables for later use, do:
model <- lm( ys ~ xs )
beta0 = model$coefficients[1]
beta1 = model$coefficients[2]

# If you just need to see the coefficients, do this alone:
lm( ys ~ xs )</pre>
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = ys ~ xs)

Coefficients:
(Intercept) xs
-37.3214 0.1327
```

The linear model in this example is approximately y = 0.133x - 37.32.

Content last modified on 28 May 2021.

How to compute a confidence interval for the expected value of a response variable

Description

If we have a simple linear regression model, $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$, where ϵ is some random error, then given any x input, y can be veiwed as a random variable because of ϵ . Let's consider its expected value. How do we construct a confidence interval for that expected value, given a value for the predictor x?

Related tasks:

- How to compute a confidence interval for a mean difference (matched pairs) (on website)
- How to compute a confidence interval for a regression coefficient
- How to compute a confidence interval for a population mean (on website)
- How to compute a confidence interval for a single population variance (on website)
- How to compute a confidence interval for the difference between two means when both population variances are known (on website)
- How to compute a confidence interval for the difference between two means when population variances are unknown (on website)
- How to compute a confidence interval for the difference between two proportions (on website)
- How to compute a confidence interval for the population proportion (on website)
- How to compute a confidence interval for the ratio of two population variances (on website)

Solution in R

Let's assume that you already have a linear model. We construct an example one here from some fabricated data.

```
# Make the linear model

x <- c(34, 9, 78, 60, 22, 45, 83, 59, 25)

y <- c(126, 347, 298, 309, 450, 187, 266, 385, 400)

model <- lm(y ~ x)
```

Construct a data frame containing just one entry, the value of the independent variable for which you want to compute the confidence interval. That data frame can then be passed to R's predict function to get a confidence interval for the expected value of y.

```
# Use your chosen value of x below:
data <- data.frame(x=40)
# Compute the confidence interval for y:
predict(model, data, interval="confidence", level=0.95) # or choose a different confidence level; here we use 0</pre>
```

```
fit lwr upr
1 313.7217 226.648 400.7954
```

Our 95% confidence interval is [226.648, 400.7954]. We can be 95% confident that the true average value of y, given that x is 40, is between 226.648 and 400.7954.

Content last modified on 09 September 2021.

How to compute R-squared for a simple linear model

Description

Let's say we have fit a linear model to two columns of data, one for a single independent variable x and the other for a single dependent variable y. How can we compute R^2 for that model, to measure its goodness of fit?

Related tasks:

- How to fit a linear model to two columns of data
- How to compute adjusted R-squared

Solution in R

We assume you have already fit a linear model to the data, as in the code below, which is explained fully in a separate task, how to fit a linear model to two columns of data.

```
xs <- c( 393, 453, 553, 679, 729, 748, 817 )
ys <- c( 24, 25, 27, 36, 55, 68, 84 )
model <- lm( ys ~ xs )
```

You can get a lot of information about your model from its summary.

```
summary( model )
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = ys \sim xs)
Residuals:
                     3
                           4
                                    5
  9.163 2.199 -9.072 -16.795 -4.431
                                        6.047 12.890
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -37.32142 18.99544 -1.965 0.10664
             0.13272
                        0.02959
                                 4.485 0.00649 **
XS
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 11.62 on 5 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.8009, Adjusted R-squared:
F-statistic: 20.12 on 1 and 5 DF, p-value: 0.006486
```

In particular, it contains the R^2 value.

```
summary( model )$r.squared
```

```
[1] 0.8009488
```

Content last modified on 01 June 2021.

How to predict the response variable in a linear model

Description

If we have a linear model and a value for each explanatory variable, how do we predict the corresponding value of the response variable?

Related tasks:

- How to fit a linear model to two columns of data
- How to fit a multivariate linear model

Solution in R

Let's assume that you've already built a linear model. We do an example below with fake data, but you can use your own actual data. For more information on the following code, see how to fit a multivariate linear model.

```
x1 <- c( 2, 7, 4, 3, 11, 18, 6, 15, 9, 12)

x2 <- c( 4, 6, 10, 1, 18, 11, 8, 20, 16, 13)

x3 <- c(11, 16, 20, 6, 14, 8, 5, 23, 13, 10)

y <- c(24, 60, 32, 29, 90, 45, 130, 76, 100, 120)

model <- lm(y ~ x1 + x2 + x3)
```

Let's say we want to estimate y given that $x_1 = 5$, $x_2 = 12$, and $x_3 = 50$. We can use R's predict() function as shown below.

```
predict(model, newdata = data.frame(x1 = 5, x2 = 12, x3 = 50))
```

```
1
-91.71014
```

For the given values of the explanatory variables, our predicted response variable is -91.71014.

Note that if you want to compute the predicted values for all the data on which the model was trained, simply call predict(model) with no new data, and it defaults to using the training data.

```
predict(model)
```

```
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
47.57012 24.35988 42.21531 47.27614 110.86526 70.03098 95.12690 70.91291
9 10
106.52987 91.11264
```

Content last modified on 07 December 2021.

How to fit a multivariate linear model

Description

Let's say we have several independent variables, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k , and a dependent variable y. How can I fit a linear model that uses these independent variables to best predict the dependent variable?

In other words, what are the model coefficients $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_k$ that give me the best linear model $\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x + \dots + \beta_k x$ based on my data?

Related tasks:

- How to fit a linear model to two columns of data
- How to predict the response variable in a linear model

Solution in R

We're going to use fake data here for illustrative purposes. You can replace our fake data with your real data in the code below.

```
# Replace this fake data with your real data
x1 <- c(2, 7, 4, 3, 11, 18, 6, 15, 9, 12)
x2 <- c(4, 6, 10, 1, 18, 11, 8, 20, 16, 13)
x3 <- c(11, 16, 20, 6, 14, 8, 5, 23, 13, 10)
y <- c(24, 60, 32, 29, 90, 45, 130, 76, 100, 120)

# If you'll need the model coefficients later, store them as variables like this:
model <- lm(y ~ x1 + x2 + x3)
beta0 <- model$coefficients[1]
beta1 <- model$coefficients[2]
beta2 <- model$coefficients[3]
beta3 <- model$coefficients[4]

# To see the model summary, which includes the coefficients and much more, do this:
summary(model)
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = y \sim x1 + x2 + x3)
Residuals:
    Min
            1Q Median
                            30
                                   Max
-25.031 -20.218 -8.373 22.937 35.640
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)
            77.244
                        27.366
                                 2.823
                                       0.0302 *
             -2.701
                         2.855 -0.946
                                       0.3806
x1
x2
              7.299
                         2.875 2.539
                                        0.0441 *
х3
             -4.861
                         2.187 -2.223
                                       0.0679 .
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 30.13 on 6 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.5936,
                              Adjusted R-squared:
F-statistic: 2.921 on 3 and 6 DF, p-value: 0.1222
```

The coefficients and intercept appear on the left hand side of the output, about half way down, under the heading "Estimate."

Thus the multivariate linear model from the example data is $\hat{y} = 77.244 - 2.701x_1 + 7.299x_2 - 4.861x_3$.

Content last modified on 07 December 2021.

How to add an interaction term to a model

Description

Sometimes, a simple linear model isn't sufficient for our data, and we need more complex terms or transformed variables in the model to make adequate predictions. How do we include these complex and transformed terms in a regression model?

Related tasks:

- How to add a polynomial term to a model
- How to add a transformed term to a model

Solution in R

We're going to use the ToothGrowth dataset in R as example data. It contains observations of tooth growth for guinea pigs who received various doses of various supplements. You would use your own data instead.

```
df <- ToothGrowth
```

Let's model tooth length (len) based on the product of two predictors, the supplement given (supp) and its dosage (dose). We simply use the ordinary multiplication operator in R, written *, to express the product of these two factors when creating the model, as shown below.

Note that supp is a categorical variable with two values, so the model will include a binary variable for whether the supplement was equal to "VC."

```
# Build the model
model <- lm(len ~ supp*dose, data = df)
summary(model)</pre>
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = len ~ supp * dose, data = df)
Residuals:
    Min
             10 Median
                                    Max
-8.2264 -2.8462 0.0504 2.2893 7.9386
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)
             11.550
                          1.581
                                 7.304 1.09e-09 ***
suppVC
              -8.255
                          2.236 -3.691 0.000507 ***
                          1.195
                                 6.534 2.03e-08 ***
dose
              7.811
suppVC:dose
              3.904
                          1.691
                                  2.309 0.024631 *
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 4.083 on 56 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.7296,
                               Adjusted R-squared: 0.7151
F-statistic: 50.36 on 3 and 56 DF, p-value: 6.521e-16
```

Now we have a model of the form $\hat{L} = 11.55 - 8.255s + 7.811d + 3.904sd$, where L stands for tooth length, s for whether the VC supplement was given, and d for the dose given.

Content last modified on 16 September 2021.

How to add a polynomial term to a model

Description

Sometimes, a simple linear model isn't sufficient to describe the data. How can we include a higher-order term in a regression model, such as the square or cube of one of the predictors?

Related tasks:

- How to add a transformed term to a model
- How to add an interaction term to a model

Solution in R

We're going to use the Pressure dataset in R's ggplot library as example data. It contains observations of pressure and temperature. You would use your own data instead.

```
# install.packages( "ggplot2" ) # if you haven't done this already
library(ggplot2)
data("pressure")
```

Let's model temperature as the dependent variable with pressure squared as the independent variable. To place the "pressure squared" term in the model, we use R's poly function, as shown below. It automatically includes a pressure term as well (not squared).

```
# Build the model
model <- lm(temperature ~ poly(pressure, 2), data = pressure)
summary(model)</pre>
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = temperature ~ poly(pressure, 2), data = pressure)
Residuals:
               10
     Min
                    Median
                                 30
                                         Max
-113.095 -44.543
                     6.157
                                      75.791
                             50.459
Coefficients:
                   Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
                                 14.31 12.581 1.03e-09 ***
(Intercept)
                     180.00
poly(pressure, 2)1
                    361.84
                                 62.36
                                         5.802 2.70e-05 ***
poly(pressure, 2)2 -186.66
                                 62.36 -2.993
                                                 0.0086 **
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 62.36 on 16 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.7271,
                               Adjusted R-squared: 0.693
F-statistic: 21.31 on 2 and 16 DF, p-value: 3.079e-05
```

Now we have a model of the form $\hat{t} = 180 + 361.84p - 186.66p^2$, where t stands for temperature and p for pressure.

You can change the number in the poly function. For example, if we wanted to create a third-degree polynomial term then we would have specified poly(pressure, 3), and it would have included pressure, pressure squared, and pressure cubed.

Content last modified on 30 November 2021.

How to add a transformed term to a model

Description

Sometimes, a simple linear model isn't sufficient for our data, and we need more complex terms or transformed variables in the model to make adequate predictions. How do we include these complex and transformed terms in a regression model?

Related tasks:

- How to add a polynomial term to a model
- How to add an interaction term to a model

Solution in R

We're going to use the Pressure dataset in R's ggplot library as example data. It contains observations of pressure and temperature. You would use your own data instead.

```
# install.packages( "ggplot2" ) # if you haven't done this already
library(ggplot2)
data("pressure")
```

Let's model temperature as the dependent variable with the logarithm of pressure as the independent variable. To place the "log of pressure" term in the model, we use R's \log function, as shown below. It uses the natural logarithm (base e).

```
# Build the model
model.log <- lm(temperature ~ log(pressure), data = pressure)
summary(model.log)</pre>
```

```
lm(formula = temperature ~ log(pressure), data = pressure)
Residuals:
          10 Median
  Min
                        30
                              Max
-28.60 -22.30 -10.13 20.00 48.61
Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)
              153.970
                           6.330 24.32 1.20e-14 ***
log(pressure) 23.784
                           1.372 17.33 3.07e-12 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 26.81 on 17 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.9464,
                               Adjusted R-squared: 0.9433
F-statistic: 300.3 on 1 and 17 DF, p-value: 3.07e-12
```

The model is $\hat{t} = 153.97 + 23.784 \log p$, where t stands for temperature and p for pressure.

Another example transformation is the square root transformation. As with log, just apply the sqrt function to the appropriate term when defining the model.

```
# Build the model
model.sqrt <- lm(temperature ~ sqrt(pressure), data = pressure)
summary(model.sqrt)</pre>
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = temperature ~ sqrt(pressure), data = pressure)
Residuals:
  Min
          1Q Median 3Q
                             Max
-98.72 -34.74 11.53 42.75 56.59
Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)
              98.561 15.244 6.465 5.81e-06 ***
sqrt(pressure) 11.446
                          1.367 8.372 1.95e-07 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 51.16 on 17 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.8048, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7933
F-statistic: 70.1 on 1 and 17 DF, p-value: 1.953e-07
```

The model is $\hat{t} = 98.561 + 11.446\sqrt{p}$, with t and p having the same meanings as above.

Content last modified on 16 September 2021.

How to compute a confidence interval for a regression coefficient

Description

Say we have a linear regression model, either single variable or multivariate. How do we compute a confidence interval for the coefficient of one of the explanatory variables in the model?

Related tasks:

- How to compute a confidence interval for a mean difference (matched pairs) (on website)
- How to compute a confidence interval for a population mean (on website)
- How to compute a confidence interval for a single population variance (on website)
- How to compute a confidence interval for the difference between two means when both population variances are known (on website)
- How to compute a confidence interval for the difference between two means when population variances are unknown (on website)
- How to compute a confidence interval for the difference between two proportions (on website)
- How to compute a confidence interval for the expected value of a response variable
- How to compute a confidence interval for the population proportion (on website)
- How to compute a confidence interval for the ratio of two population variances (on website)

Solution in R

We'll assume that you have fit a single linear model to your data, as in the code below, which uses fake example data. You can replace it with your actual data.

```
x <- c(34, 9, 78, 60, 22, 45, 83, 59, 25)
y <- c(126, 347, 298, 309, 450, 187, 266, 385, 400)
model <- lm(y ~ x)
```

We can use R's confint() function to find the confidence interval for the model coefficients. You can change the level parameter to specify a different confidence level. Note that if you have a multiple regression model, it will make confidence intervals for all of the coefficient values.

```
confint(model, level = 0.95) # or choose any confidence level; here we use 0.95
```

```
2.5 % 97.5 %
(Intercept) 172.638075 535.526421
x -4.491961 2.473935
```

The 95% confidence interval for the regression coefficient is [-4.491961, 2.473935].

Content last modified on 09 September 2021.

How to compute adjusted R-squared

Description

If we have fit a multivariate linear model, how can we compute the Adjusted \mathbb{R}^2 for that model, to measure its goodness of fit?

Related tasks:

• How to compute R-squared for a simple linear model

Solution in R

We assume you have already fit a multivariate linear model to the data, as in the code below. (If you're unfamiliar with how to do so, see how to fit a multivariate linear model.) The data shown below is fake, and we assume you will replace it with your own real data if you use this code.

```
x1 <- c(2, 7, 4, 3, 11, 18, 6, 15, 9, 12)

x2 <- c(4, 6, 10, 1, 18, 11, 8, 20, 16, 13)

x3 <- c(11, 16, 20, 6, 14, 8, 5, 23, 13, 10)

y <- c(24, 60, 32, 29, 90, 45, 130, 76, 100, 120)

model <- lm(y ~ x1 + x2 + x3)
```

You can get a lot of information about your model from its summary.

```
summary(model)
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = y \sim x1 + x2 + x3)
Residuals:
    Min
             10 Median
                             30
                                    Max
-25.031 -20.218 -8.373 22.937 35.640
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)
              77.244
                         27.366
                                  2.823
                                          0.0302 *
              -2.701
                          2.855 -0.946
                                          0.3806
x1
               7.299
                          2.875
                                  2.539
                                          0.0441 *
x2
x3
              -4.861
                          2.187 -2.223
                                          0.0679 .
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 30.13 on 6 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.5936,
                                Adjusted R-squared:
F-statistic: 2.921 on 3 and 6 DF, p-value: 0.1222
```

In particular, that printout contains the Adjusted \mathbb{R}^2 value; it is the second value in the right-hand column, near the top.

You can also obtain it directly, as follows:

summary(model)\$adj.r.squared

[1] 0.3903924

In this case, the Adjusted \mathbb{R}^2 is 0.3904.

Content last modified on 07 December 2021.

How to compute covariance and correlation coefficients

Description

Covariance is a measure of how much two variables "change together." It is positive when the variables tend to increase or decrease together, and negative when they upward motion of one variable is correlated with downward motion of the other. Correlation normalizes covariance to the interval [-1, 1].

Solution in R

How to Data does not yet contain a solution for this task in R.

How to compute the standard error of the estimate for a model

Description

One measure of the goodness of fit of a model is the standard error of its estimates. If the actual values are y_i and the estimates are \hat{y}_i , the definition of this quantity is as follows, for n data points.

$$\sigma_{\rm est} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{n}}$$

If we've fit a linear model, how do we compute the standard error of its estimates?

Solution in R

Let's assume that you already fit the linear model, as shown in the code below. This one uses a small amount of fake data, but it's just an example. See also how to fit a linear model to two columns of data.

```
x <- c(34, 9, 78, 60, 22, 45, 83, 59, 25)
y <- c(126, 347, 298, 309, 450, 187, 266, 385, 400)
model <- lm(y ~ x)
```

The standard error is shown as part of the model summary, reported by R's built-in summary function; see the third line from the bottom.

```
summary(model)
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = y \sim x)
Residuals:
               10
     Min
                                 30
                    Median
                                         Max
-193.776
           -4.334
                    15.459
                             71.143 118.116
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 354.082
                                  4.614 0.00244 **
                         76.733
              -1.009
                          1.473 -0.685 0.51536
Х
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 107.1 on 7 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.06283, Adjusted R-squared:
                                                     -0.07106
F-statistic: 0.4693 on 1 and 7 DF, p-value: 0.5154
```

We can also extract just that one value using the code shown below.

```
summary(model)$sigma
```

```
[1] 107.1191
```

The standard error of the estimate is 107.119.

Content last modified on 14 September 2021.

How to do a hypothesis test of a coefficient's significance

Description

Let's say we have a linear model, either one variable or many. How do we conduct a test of significance for the coefficient of a single explanatory variable in the model? Similarly, how can we determine if an explanatory variable has a significant impact on the response variable?

Related tasks:

- How to compute a confidence interval for the difference between two proportions (on website)
- How to do a hypothesis test for a mean difference (matched pairs) (on website)
- How to do a hypothesis test for a population proportion (on website)
- How to do a hypothesis test for population variance (on website)
- How to do a hypothesis test for the difference between means when both population variances are known (on website)
- How to do a hypothesis test for the difference between two proportions (on website)
- How to do a hypothesis test for the mean with known standard deviation (on website)
- How to do a hypothesis test for the ratio of two population variances (on website)
- How to do a one-sided hypothesis test for two sample means (on website)
- How to do a two-sided hypothesis test for a sample mean (on website)
- How to do a two-sided hypothesis test for two sample means (on website)

Solution in R

We will use the fake data shown below with a single variable model. You can use a model created from your own actual data instead.

```
x <- c( 34, 9, 78, 60, 22, 45, 83, 59, 25)
y <- c(126, 347, 298, 309, 450, 187, 266, 385, 400)
model <- lm(y ~ x)
```

We can test whether a coefficient is zero by using that as our null hypothesis, $H_0: \beta_i = 0$. We can use any value $0 \le \alpha \le 1$ as our Type 1 error rate; we will set α to be 0.05 here.

The answer to our hypothesis test can be obtained by looking at just the coefficients portion of the model summary:

```
summary(model)$coef
```

The final column of output shows p-values for each β_i . The p-value associated with the x row is therefore for β_1 , the coefficient on x. Because it is 0.515358250, which is greater than α , we cannot reject the null hypothesis, and we should continue to assume that $\beta_1 = 0$ and there is no significant relationship between the explanatory and response variable in this situation.

Content last modified on 24 October 2021.

How to do a test of joint significance

Description

If we have a multivariate linear model, how do we test the joint significance of all the variables in the model? In other words, how do we test the overall significance of the regression model?

Solution in R

Let's assume that you already made your multiple regression model, similar to the one shown below. You can visit this task, , to see how to construct a multivariate linear model.

Let's assume that you already made your multivariate linear model, similar to the one shown below. If you still need to create one, first see how to fit a multivariate linear model.

We use example data here, but you would use your own data instead.

```
x1 <- c( 2, 7, 4, 3, 11, 18, 6, 15, 9, 12)

x2 <- c( 4, 6, 10, 1, 18, 11, 8, 20, 16, 13)

x3 <- c(11, 16, 20, 6, 14, 8, 5, 23, 13, 10)

y <- c(24, 60, 32, 29, 90, 45, 130, 76, 100, 120)

model <- lm(y ~ x1 + x2 + x3)
```

Now we want to test whether the model is significant. We will use a null hypothesis that states that all of the model's coefficients are equal to zero, that is, they are not jointly significant in predicting y. We can write $H_0: \beta_0 = \beta_1 = \beta 2 = \beta_3 = 0$.

We also choose a value $0 \le \alpha \le 1$ as our Type 1 error rate. Herer we'll use $\alpha = 0.05$.

The summary output for the model will give us both the F-statistic and the p-value.

```
summary(model)
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = y \sim x1 + x2 + x3)
Residuals:
    Min
            10 Median
                             30
                                    Max
-25.031 -20.218 -8.373 22.937 35.640
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)
             77.244
                         27.366
                                  2.823
                                        0.0302 *
              -2.701
                          2.855 -0.946
                                          0.3806
x1
x2
              7.299
                         2.875
                                 2.539
                                         0.0441 *
                          2.187 -2.223
x3
              -4.861
                                         0.0679 .
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 30.13 on 6 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.5936,
                              Adjusted R-squared:
F-statistic: 2.921 on 3 and 6 DF, p-value: 0.1222
```

In the final line of the output, we can see that the F-statistic is 2.921. The corresponding p-value in the same line is 0.1222, which is greater than α , so we do not have sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

We cannot conclude that the independent variables in our model are jointly significant in predicting the response variable.

Content last modified on 07 December 2021.

How to do a Spearman rank correlation test

Description

When we want to determine whether there is a relationship between two variables, but our samples do not come from normally distributed populations, we can use the Spearman Rank Correlation Test. How do we conduct it?

Solution in R

We will use some fake data about height and weight measurements for people. You can replace it with your real data.

Our data should be stored in R vectors, as shown below.

```
heights <- c(60, 76, 57, 68, 70, 62, 63)
weights <- c(145, 178, 120, 143, 174, 130, 137)
```

Let's say we want to test the correlation between height (inches) and weight (pounds). Our null hypothesis would state that the Pearson correlation coefficient is equal to zero, or that there is no relationship between height and weight, $H_0: \rho_s = 0$. We choose α , or the Type I error rate, to be 0.05 and carry out the Spearman Rank Correlation Test to get the test-statistic and p-value.

```
# Run the Spearman Rank Correlation Test to get the test-statistic and p-value
cor.test(heights, weights, alternative = "two.sided", method = "spearman")
```

```
Spearman's rank correlation rho

data: heights and weights
S = 12, p-value = 0.04802
alternative hypothesis: true rho is not equal to 0
sample estimates:
    rho
0.7857143
```

Our p-value is 0.04802, which is less than $\alpha = 0.05$, so we reject the null hypothesis. There does appear to be a relationship between height and weight.

(This p-value is different than the one computed in the solution using Python, because different approximation methods are used by the two software packages when the sample size is small.)

Note that for a right-tailed test, you can replace "two.sided" with "greater" and for a left-tailed test, you can replace "two.sided" with "less".

Content last modified on 05 October 2021.

How to compute the residuals of a linear model

Description

If a model has been fit to a dataset, the *residuals* are the differences between the actual data points and the results the model would predict. Given a linear model and a dataset, how can we compute those residuals?

Solution in R

Let's assume that you've already built a linear model similar to the one below. This one uses a small amount of fake data, but it's just an example. See also how to fit a linear model to two columns of data.

```
xs <- c( 393, 453, 553, 679, 729, 748, 817 )
ys <- c( 24, 25, 27, 36, 55, 68, 84 )
model <- lm(ys ~ xs)
```

We can extract the residuals of the model in either of two ways.

R has a built-in residuals() function for this purpose.

```
residuals(model)
```

```
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.162630 2.199457 -9.072500 -16.795165 -4.431143 6.047185 12.889535
```

The model itself has a \$residuals attribute.

```
model$residuals
```

```
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.162630 2.199457 -9.072500 -16.795165 -4.431143 6.047185 12.889535
```

Content last modified on 14 September 2021.