Chapter 1 Simple Linear Regression (part 4)

1 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) approach to regression analysis

Recall the model again

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, ..., n$$

The observations can be written as

| obs | Y | X | |
|-----|-------|-------|--|
| 1 | Y_1 | X_1 | |
| 2 | Y_2 | X_2 | |
| : | : | : | |
| n | Y_n | X_n | |

The deviation of each Y_i from the mean \bar{Y} ,

$$Y_i - \bar{Y}$$

The fitted $\hat{Y}_i = b_0 + b_1 X_i, i = 1, ..., n$ are from the regression and determined by X_i . Their mean is

$$\bar{\hat{Y}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i = \bar{Y}$$

Thus the deviation of \hat{Y}_i from its mean is

$$\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}$$

The residuals $e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$, with mean is

$$\bar{e} = 0$$
 (why?)

Thus the deviation of e_i from its mean is

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

Write

$$\underbrace{Y_i - \bar{Y}}_{\text{Total deviation}} = \underbrace{\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}}_{\text{Deviation}} + \underbrace{e_i}_{\text{Deviation}}$$

$$\underbrace{\text{Deviation}}_{\text{due the regression}} + \underbrace{e_i}_{\text{Deviation}}$$

| obs | deviation of | deviation of | deviation of |
|---------|------------------------------------|--|-------------------------|
| | Y_i | $\hat{Y}_i = b_0 + b_1 X_i$ | $e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$ |
| 1 | $Y_1 - \bar{Y}$ | $\hat{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}$ | $e_1 - \bar{e} = e_1$ |
| 2 | $Y_2 - \bar{Y}$ | $\hat{Y}_2 - \bar{Y}$ | $e_2 - \bar{e} = e_2$ |
| : | : | : | : |
| n | $Y_n - \bar{Y}$ | $\hat{Y}_n - \bar{Y}$ | $e_n - \bar{e} = e_n$ |
| Sum of | $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$ | $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2$ | $\sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i^2$ |
| squares | Total Sum | Sum of | Sum of |
| | of squares | squares due to | squares of |
| | | regression | error/residuals |
| | (SST) | (SSR) | (SSE) |

We have

$$\underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}_{\text{SST}} = \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2}_{\text{SSR}} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i^2}_{\text{SSE}}$$

Proof:

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

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

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

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

$$= SSR + SSE + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (b_0 + b_1 X_i - \bar{Y})e_i$$

$$= SSR + SSE + 2b_0 \sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i + 2b_1 \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i e_i - 2\bar{Y} \sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i$$

$$= SSR + SSE$$

It is also easy to check

$$SSR = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (b_0 + b_1 X_i - b_0 - b_1 \bar{X})^2 = b_1^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$
 (1)

Breakdown of the degree of freedom

The degrees of freedom for SST is n-1: noticing that

$$Y_1 - \bar{Y},, Y_n - \bar{Y}$$

have one constraint $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y}) = 0$

The degrees of freedom for SSR is 1: noticing that

$$\hat{Y}_i = b_0 + b_1 X_i$$

(see Figure 1)

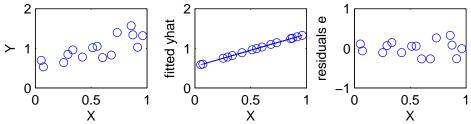


Figure 1: A figure shows the degree of freedom

The degrees of freedom for SSE is n-2: noticing that

$$e_1, ..., e_n$$

have TWO constraints $\sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i = 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i e_i = 0$ (i.e., the normal equation). Mean (of) Squares

$$MSR = SSR/1$$
 called **regression mean square** $MSE = SSE/(n-2)$ called **error mean square**

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) table Based on the break-down, we write it as a table

| Source of | | | | | |
|------------|--|-----|----|-------------------------|---------|
| variation | \mathbf{SS} | df | MS | F-value | P(>F) |
| Regression | $SSR = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2$ | | | $F^* = \frac{MSR}{MSE}$ | p-value |
| Error | $SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$ | | | | |
| Total | $SST = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2$ | n-1 | | | |

R command for the calculation

where "object" is the output of a regression.

Expected Mean Squares

$$E(MSE) = \sigma^2$$

and

$$E(MSR) = \sigma^2 + \beta_1^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

[Proof: the first equation was proved (where?). By (1), we have

$$E(MSR) = E(b_1)^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = [Var(b_1) + (Eb_1)^2] \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$
$$= \left[\frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} + \beta_1^2 \right] \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = \sigma^2 + \beta_1^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

1

2 F-test of $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$

Consider the hypothesis test

$$H_0: \beta_1 = 0, \quad H_a: \beta_1 \neq 0.$$

Note that $\hat{Y}_i = b_0 + b_1 X_i$ and

$$SSR = b_1^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

If $b_1 = 0$ then SSR = 0 (why). Thus we can test $\beta_1 = 0$ based on SSR. i.e. under H_0 , SSR or MSR should be "small".

We consider the F-statistic

$$F = \frac{MSR}{MSE} = \frac{SSR/1}{SSE/(n-2)}.$$

Under H_0 ,

$$F \sim F(1, n-2)$$

For a given significant level α , our criterion is

If
$$F^* \leq F(1-\alpha, 1, n-2)$$
 (i.e. indeed small), accept H_0
If $F^* > F(1-\alpha, 1, n-2)$ (i.e. not small), reject H_0

where $F(1-\alpha,1,n-2)$ is the $(1-\alpha)$ quantile of the F distribution.

We can also do the test based on the p-value = $P(F > F^*)$,

If p-value
$$\geq \alpha$$
, accept H_0
If p-value $< \alpha$, reject H_0

Example 2.1 For the example above (with n = 25, in part 3), we fit a model

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \varepsilon_i$$

(By (R code)), we have the following output

Analysis of Variance Table

| Response: | Y | | | | | |
|-----------|----|--------|---------|---------|-----------|-----|
| | Df | Sum Sq | Mean Sq | F value | Pr(>F) | |
| X | 1 | 252378 | 252378 | 105.88 | 4.449e-10 | *** |
| Residuals | 23 | 54825 | 2384 | | | |

Suppose we need to test $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ with significant level 0.01, based on the calculation, the p-value is $4.449 \times 10^{-10} < 0.01$, we should reject H_0 .

Equivalence of F-test and t-test We have two methods to test $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ versus $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$. Recall $SSR = b_1^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$. Thus

$$F^* = \frac{SSR/1}{SSE/(n-2)} = \frac{b_1^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{MSE}$$

But since $s^2(b_1) = MSE / \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$ (where?), we have under H_0 ,

$$F^* = \frac{b_1^2}{s^2(b_1)} = \left(\frac{b_1}{s(b_1)}\right)^2 = (t^*)^2.$$

Thus

$$F^* > F(1 - \alpha, 1, n - 2) \iff (t^*)^2 > (t(1 - \alpha/2, n - 2))^2 \iff |t^*| > t(1 - \alpha/2, n - 2).$$

and

$$F^* \le F(1-\alpha, 1, n-2) \iff (t^*)^2 \le (t(1-\alpha/2, n-2))^2 \iff |t^*| \le t(1-\alpha/2, n-2).$$

(you can check in the statistical table $F(1-\alpha,1,n-2)=(t(1-\alpha/2,n-2))^2$) Therefore, the test results based on F and t statistics are the same. (But ONLY for simple linear regression model)

3 General linear test approach

To test whether $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$, we can do it by comparing two models

Full model:
$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \varepsilon_i$$

and

Reduced model:
$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \varepsilon_i$$

Denote the SSR of the FULL and REDUCED models by SSR(F) and SSR(R) respectively (and SSE(R), SSR(F)). We have immediately

$$SSR(F) \ge SSR(R)$$

or

$$SSE(F) \leq SSE(R)$$
.

A question: when does the equality hold?

Note that if $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ holds, then

$$\frac{SSE(R) - SSE(F)}{SSE(F)}$$
 should be small

Considering the degree of freedoms, define

$$F = \frac{(SSE(R) - SSE(F))/(df_R - df_F)}{SSE(F)/df_F}$$
 should be small

where df_R and df_F indicate the degrees of freedom of SSE(R) and SSE(F) respectively. Under $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$, it is proved that

$$F \sim F(df_R - df_F, df_F)$$

Suppose we get the F value as F^* , then

If
$$F^* \leq F(1 - \alpha, df_R - df_F, df_F)$$
, accept H_0
If $F^* > F(1 - \alpha, df_R - df_F, df_F)$, reject H_0

Similarly, based on the p-value $= P(F > F^*),$

If p-value
$$\geq \alpha$$
, accept H_0
If p-value $< \alpha$, reject H_0

4 Descriptive measures of linear association between X and Y

It follows from

$$SST = SSR + SSE$$

that

$$1 = \frac{SSR}{SST} + \frac{SSE}{SST}$$

where

- $\frac{SSR}{SST}$ is the proportion of Total sum of squares that can be explained/predicted by the predictor X
- \bullet $\frac{SSE}{SST}$ is the proportion of Total sum of squares that caused by the random effect.

A "good" model should have large

$$R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}$$

 R^2 is called R-square, or coefficient of determination

Some facts about \mathbb{R}^2 for simple linear regression model

- 1. $0 \le R^2 \le 1$.
- 2. if $R^2 = 0$, then $b_1 = 0$ (because $SSR = b_1^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i \bar{X})^2$)
- 3. if $R^2 = 1$, then $Y_i = b_0 + b_1 X_i$ (why?)
- 4. the correlation coefficient between

$$r_{X,Y} = \pm \sqrt{R^2}$$

[Proof:

$$R^{2} = \frac{SSR}{SST} = \frac{b_{1}^{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \bar{X})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_{i} - \bar{Y})^{2}} = r_{XY}^{2}$$

- 5. R^2 only indicates the fitness in the observed range/scope. We need to be careful if we make prediction outside the range.
- 6. \mathbb{R}^2 only indicates the "linear relationships". $\mathbb{R}^2 = 0$ does not mean X and Y have no nonlinear association.

5 Considerations in Applying regression analysis

- 1. In prediction a new case, we need to ensure the model is applicable to the new case.
- 2. Sometimes we need to predict X, and thus predict Y. As a consequence, the prediction accuracy also depends on the prediction of X
- 3. The range of X for the model. If a new case X is far from the range, in the prediction, we need be careful
- 4. $\beta_1 \neq 0$ only indicates the correlation relationship, but not a cause-and-effect relation (causality).
- 5. Even if $\beta_1 = 0$ can be concluded, we cannot say Y has no relationship/association with X. We can only say there is no LINEAR relationship/association between X and Y.

6 Write an estimated model

$$\hat{Y} = b_0 + b_1 X$$
(S.E.) $(s(b_0))$ $(s(b_1))$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2(\text{or MSE}) = ..., \quad R^2 = ...,$$
F-statistic = ... (and others)

Other formats of writing a fitted model can be found in Part 3 of the lecture notes.