STA221

Neil Montgomery

Last edited: 2017-02-06 20:03

Start with the basic simple linear regression model:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$$

in which the error follows a $N(0, \sigma)$ distribution.

The slope estimator b_1 turns out to follow a normal distribtion with mean β_1 and standard deviation:

$$\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{S_{xx}}}$$

(Recall
$$S_{xx} = \sum (x_i - \overline{x})^2$$
)

(Note: there is a typo on the first formula in section 24.2 - the s_x should not be under the $\sqrt{}$.)

When I simulated thousands of b_1 from datasets with a variety of properties, we saw the following:

▶ histograms of simulated b_1 were symmetric and bell shaped. In fact, normal! Why? Let's look at the formula for b_1 :

$$b_1 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})}{\sum (x_i - \overline{x})^2} = \sum d_i(y_i - \overline{y})$$

where the d_i are constants.

When I simulated thousands of b_1 from datasets with a variety of properties, we saw the following:

▶ histograms of simulated b_1 were symmetric and bell shaped. In fact, normal! Why? Let's look at the formula for b_1 :

$$b_1 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})}{\sum (x_i - \overline{x})^2} = \sum d_i(y_i - \overline{y})$$

where the d_i are constants.

Less variation when the underlying σ was smaller.

When I simulated thousands of b_1 from datasets with a variety of properties, we saw the following:

▶ histograms of simulated b_1 were symmetric and bell shaped. In fact, normal! Why? Let's look at the formula for b_1 :

$$b_1 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})}{\sum (x_i - \overline{x})^2} = \sum d_i(y_i - \overline{y})$$

where the d_i are constants.

- Less variation when the underlying σ was smaller.
- Less variation when the x's were more spread out.

When I simulated thousands of b_1 from datasets with a variety of properties, we saw the following:

▶ histograms of simulated b_1 were symmetric and bell shaped. In fact, normal! Why? Let's look at the formula for b_1 :

$$b_1 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})}{\sum (x_i - \overline{x})^2} = \sum d_i(y_i - \overline{y})$$

where the d_i are constants.

- Less variation when the underlying σ was smaller.
- Less variation when the x's were more spread out.
- Less variation when the sample size was larger.

We have:

$$rac{b_1-eta_1}{\sigma/\sqrt{\mathcal{S}_{\mathsf{xx}}}}\sim extsf{N}(0,1)$$

and p-values and confidence intervals come from this—BAM we're done.

We have:

$$rac{b_1-eta_1}{\sigma/\sqrt{\mathcal{S}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle XX}}}\sim extsf{N}(0,1)$$

and p-values and confidence intervals come from this—BAM we're done.

Except we would never know the true value of σ . This is the third simple regression parameter—a nuisance we'll have to deal with.

We have:

$$rac{b_1-eta_1}{\sigma/\sqrt{S_{xx}}}\sim N(0,1)$$

and p-values and confidence intervals come from this—BAM we're done.

Except we would never know the true value of σ . This is the third simple regression parameter—a nuisance we'll have to deal with.

We can estimate σ using the "average" of the squared residuals:

$$s_e^2 = \frac{\sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{n-2}$$

Who wants to guess what distribution this will have:

$$rac{b_1-eta_1}{s_e/\sqrt{S_{xx}}}\sim t_{n-2}$$

hypothesis testing for β_1

The principal hypothesis test concerns whether there is any linear relationship at all between x and y. The null hypothesis immediately presents itself:

$$H_0: \beta_1=0$$

hypothesis testing for β_1

The principal hypothesis test concerns whether there is any linear relationship at all between x and y. The null hypothesis immediately presents itself:

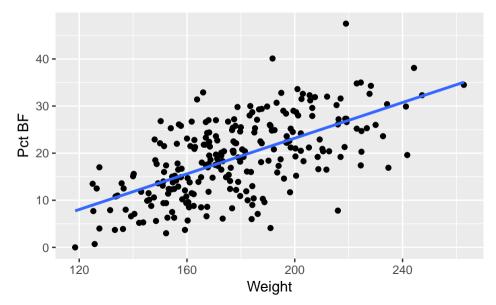
$$H_0: \beta_1 = 0$$

And it works the same way any other hypothesis test works. Use the data to compute:

$$rac{b_1-0}{s_e/\sqrt{S_{xx}}}$$

and get the probability of being "further away" from H_0 , according to the t_{n-2} distribution.

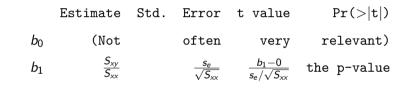
example - body fat versus weight



example - body fat versus weight

```
##
## Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept) -14.69314 2.76045 -5.323 0.000000229 ***
## Weight 0.18938 0.01533 12.357 < 2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 6.538 on 248 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.3811, Adjusted R-squared: 0.3786
## F-statistic: 152.7 on 1 and 248 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

Coefficients:



Coefficients:

Estimate Std. Error t value
$$\Pr(>|\mathbf{t}|)$$
 b_0 (Not often very relevant)
 b_1 $\frac{S_{xy}}{S_{xx}}$ $\frac{s_e}{\sqrt{S_{xx}}}$ $\frac{b_1-0}{s_e/\sqrt{S_{xx}}}$ the p-value

 $\ensuremath{\mathtt{A}}$ line of questionable utility.

Coefficients:

Estimate Std. Error t value
$$\Pr(>|\mathbf{t}|)$$
 b_0 (Not often very relevant) b_1 $\frac{S_{xy}}{S_{xx}}$ $\frac{s_e}{\sqrt{S_{xx}}}$ $\frac{b_1-0}{s_e/\sqrt{S_{xx}}}$ the p-value

A line of questionable utility.

Residual standard error: s_e on n-2 degrees of freedom

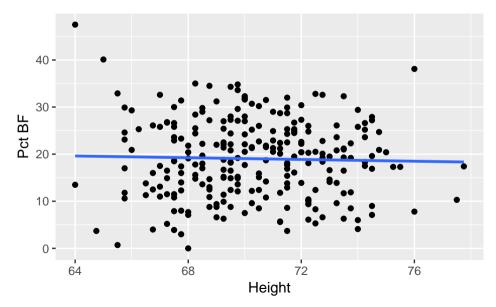
Coefficients:

Estimate Std. Error t value
$$\Pr(>|\mathbf{t}|)$$
 b_0 (Not often very relevant) b_1 $\frac{S_{xy}}{S_{xx}}$ $\frac{s_e}{\sqrt{S_{xx}}}$ $\frac{b_1-0}{s_e/\sqrt{S_{xx}}}$ the p-value

A line of questionable utility.

Residual standard error: s_e on n-2 degrees of freedom Other stuff at the bottom not yet explained...

example - body fat versus height



example - body fat versus height

```
##
## Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept) 25.58078 14.15400 1.807 0.0719 .
## Height -0.09316 0.20119 -0.463 0.6438
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 8.307 on 248 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.0008637, Adjusted R-squared: -0.003165
## F-statistic: 0.2144 on 1 and 248 DF, p-value: 0.6438
```

confidence interval for the true slope β_1

95% confidence intervals are all pretty much the same, based on:

$$\frac{\text{estimator }-\text{ parameter}}{\textit{SE}(\text{estimator})} \sim \text{ something symmetric and bell shaped}$$

resulting in a formula:

 $estimator \pm "2" \textit{SE}(estimator)$

confidence interval for the true slope β_1

95% confidence intervals are all pretty much the same, based on:

$$\frac{\text{estimator } - \text{ parameter}}{\textit{SE}(\text{estimator})} \sim \text{ something symmetric and bell shaped}$$

resulting in a formula:

estimator
$$\pm$$
 "2" SE (estimator)

In the case of β_1 we have:

$$\frac{b_1 - \beta_1}{s_e / \sqrt{S_{xx}}} \sim ???$$

result in a 95% C.I. of:

$$b_1 \pm ???_{???} \frac{s_e}{\sqrt{S_{xx}}}$$

example C.I.'s for β_1 - body fat versus weight and height

Since n = 250, our value of "2" is in this case: 1.9695757

```
##
## Coefficients:
##
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) -14.69314 2.76045 -5.323 0.000000229
## Weight 0.18938 0.01533 12.357 < 2e-16
##
  Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept) 25.58078 14.15400 1.807 0.0719
## Height -0.09316 0.20119 -0.463 0.6438
```

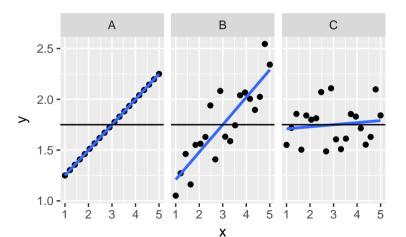


R^2

The *y* values are random. They aren't all the same. What "explains" the differences in the *y* values?

The y values are random. They aren't all the same. What "explains" the differences in the y values?

A = all "model" | B = "typical" | C = all "error":



variation in the y = variation due to the model + variation due to error

$$\sum (y_i - \overline{y})^2 = +$$

variation in the y = variation due to the model + variation due to error

$$\sum (y_i - \overline{y})^2 = \sum (\hat{y}_i - \overline{y})^2 +$$

variation in the y = variation due to the model + variation due to error

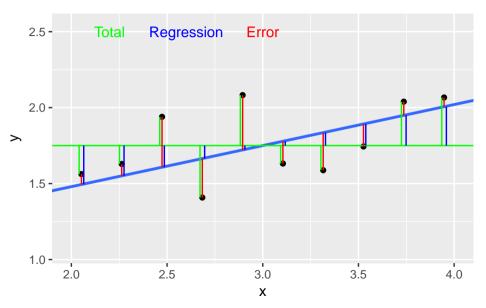
$$\sum (y_i - \overline{y})^2 = \sum (\hat{y}_i - \overline{y})^2 + \sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

variation in the y = variation due to the model + variation due to error

$$\sum (y_i - \overline{y})^2 = \sum (\hat{y}_i - \overline{y})^2 + \sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

$$SS_{Total} = SS_{Regression} + SS_{Error}$$

sum of squares decomposition, graphically



$$R^2 = \frac{SS_{Regression}}{SS_{Total}} = 1 - \frac{SS_{Error}}{SS_{Total}}$$

$$R^2 = \frac{SS_{Regression}}{SS_{Total}} = 1 - \frac{SS_{Error}}{SS_{Total}}$$

"The proportion of variation explained by the (regression) model."

$$R^2 = \frac{SS_{Regression}}{SS_{Total}} = 1 - \frac{SS_{Error}}{SS_{Total}}$$

"The proportion of variation explained by the (regression) model."

People prone to excessive drama in their lives might call this "THE COEFFICIENT OF DETERMINATION!!!"

$$R^2 = \frac{SS_{Regression}}{SS_{Total}} = 1 - \frac{SS_{Error}}{SS_{Total}}$$

"The proportion of variation explained by the (regression) model."

People prone to excessive drama in their lives might call this "THE COEFFICIENT OF DETERMINATION!!!"

Although it is not a coefficient, and it does not really determine anything. It's just a mildly useful number.

$$R^2 = \frac{SS_{Regression}}{SS_{Total}} = 1 - \frac{SS_{Error}}{SS_{Total}}$$

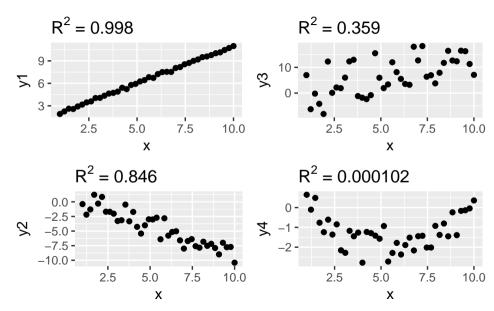
"The proportion of variation explained by the (regression) model."

People prone to excessive drama in their lives might call this "THE COEFFICIENT OF DETERMINATION!!!"

Although it is not a coefficient, and it does not really determine anything. It's just a mildly useful number.

Keep in mind it is *one number* that is being used to summarize an entire empirical bivariate relationship. And it isn't even the *best* number.

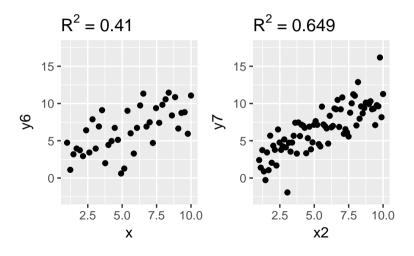
Some R^2 values



Another limitation: sample size effect

Both simulated datasets are from the same underlying model

(happens to be $y = 1 + 1 \cdot x + \varepsilon$ with $\varepsilon \sim N(0,2)$)



regression model assumption (etc.) verification

The model is:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$$
 with $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma)$

The model is:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$$
 with $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma)$

The requirements that should always be checked are:

ightharpoonup Linear relationship between y and x.

The model is:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$$
 with $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma)$

The requirements that should always be checked are:

- ▶ Linear relationship between *y* and *x*.
- Variation plus/minus the line is of constant magnitude.

The model is:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$$
 with $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma)$

The requirements that should always be checked are:

- ightharpoonup Linear relationship between y and x.
- Variation plus/minus the line is of constant magnitude.
- Error has a normal distribution.

The model is:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$$
 with $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma)$

The requirements that should always be checked are:

- ightharpoonup Linear relationship between y and x.
- Variation plus/minus the line is of constant magnitude.
- Error has a normal distribution.

The model is:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$$
 with $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma)$

The requirements that should always be checked are:

- ▶ Linear relationship between *y* and *x*.
- Variation plus/minus the line is of constant magnitude.
- Error has a normal distribution.

Also, the observations should be independent, but this is hard to verify (a plot of values versus time/order could be appropriate.)

The model is:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$$
 with $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma)$

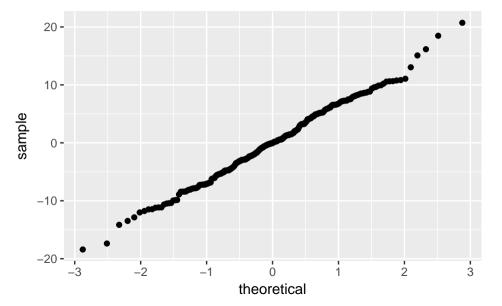
The requirements that should always be checked are:

- Linear relationship between y and x.
- Variation plus/minus the line is of constant magnitude.
- Error has a normal distribution.

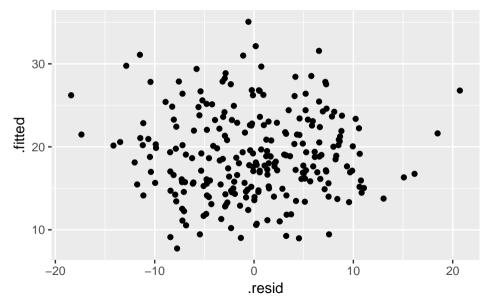
Also, the observations should be independent, but this is hard to verify (a plot of values versus time/order could be appropriate.)

We will verify graphically, using various plots of the *residuals* $\hat{\varepsilon}_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$

verify normality with normal quantile (or normal probability) plot of $\hat{arepsilon}_i$



verify linearity with plot of $\hat{\varepsilon}_i$ versus \hat{y}_i



verify equal variance with (same!) plot of $\hat{\varepsilon}_i$ versus \hat{y}_i

