Inferences in Regression Analysis

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Regression Analysis

Normal Errors Regression

Throughout this chapter we assume

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i,$$

$$\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2).$$

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This is equivalent to

$$Y_i \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i, \sigma^2)$$

Inferences on β_1 and β_0

Inferences on $\mathrm{E}[Y]$ and \hat{Y}

Analysis of Variance Approach

Coefficient of Determination

Proposition. b_1 is an unbiased estimator of β_1 .

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Proof.

Recall that $b_1 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})Y_i}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}.$

Expected value of the numerator is

$$E\left[\sum (x_i - \bar{x})Y_i\right] = \sum (x_i - \bar{x})E[Y_i] = \sum (x_i - \bar{x})(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i)$$
$$= \beta_0 \sum x_i - n\bar{x}\beta_0 + \beta_1 \sum x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2\beta_1 = \beta_1 \left(\sum x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2\right)$$

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The denominator is

$$\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \sum x_i^2 - 2 \sum x_i \cdot \bar{x} + \sum \bar{x}^2 = \sum x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2$$



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Hence,
$$E[b_1] = \beta_1$$
.



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We never know σ^2 , we estimate it by $MSE = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_i (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$.

Distribution of $\frac{b_1-\beta_1}{s[b_1]}$

Denote
$$s[b_1] = \sqrt{\frac{\mathsf{MSE}}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}$$
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Theorem. $\frac{b_1-\beta_1}{\mathrm{s}[b_1]}\sim t_{n-2}$.

Proof.

$$\frac{b_{1} - \beta_{1}}{s[b_{1}]} = \underbrace{\frac{Z}{b_{1} - \beta_{1}}}_{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}[b_{1}]}} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}[b_{1}]}}{s[b_{1}]}}_{s[b_{1}]} = Z \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^{2}}{\frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i} e_{i}^{2}}}$$

$$= \frac{Z}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i} e_{i}^{2} / \sigma^{2}}{n-2}}} = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{\frac{\chi_{n-2}^{2}}{n-2}}} \sim t_{n-2},$$

where we used the fact that $\frac{\sum_i e_i^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-2}^2$ (Ch 5).

Confidence interval for β_1 and testing $H_0:\beta_1=\beta_{10}$

A $(1 - \alpha) \cdot 100\%$ CI for β_1 has endpoints

$$b_1 \pm t_{n-2,1-\alpha/2} \cdot \mathbf{s}[b_1].$$

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In simple linear regression

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$$

of particular interest is H_0 : $\beta_1 = 0$, that Y_i and does not depend on x_i .

▶
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$$\blacktriangleright \ \mathrm{Var}[b_0] = \left[\tfrac{1}{n} + \tfrac{\bar{x}^2}{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \right] \sigma^2$$

- ▶ $E[b_0] = \beta_0$
- ▶ $b_0 \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\beta_0, \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^2}{\sum_i (x_i \bar{x})^2}\right]\sigma^2\right)$

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Exercise. Show that

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CI and Hypothesis Test for β_0 are as usual.

Table of regression coefficients

Regression output typically produces a table like:

Parameter	Estimate	Standard error	t^*	p-value
Intercept β_0	b_0	$s[b_0]$	$t_0^* = \frac{b_0}{s[b_0]}$	$\Pr(T > t_0^*)$
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The two p-values in the table test $H_0: \beta_0=0$ and $H_1: \beta_1=0$ respectively. The test for zero intercept is usually not of interest.

Regression Output in R: Poverty vs HS grad rate

```
https://raw.githubusercontent.com/zh3nis/MATH440/main/chp01/poverty.R
```

Coefficients:

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Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 64.78097 6.80260 9.523 9.94e-13 ***
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We reject $H_0: \beta_1=0$ at any reasonable significance level. There is a significant linear association between HS graduation and poverty rates.

Inferences on β_1 and β_0

Inferences on $\mathrm{E}[Y]$ and \hat{Y}

Analysis of Variance Approach

Coefficient of Determination

Inference on $E[Y] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$

Let x be any value of the *predictor*; we want to estimate the mean of all responses in the *population* that correspond to x. This is given by

$$E[Y] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x.$$

Our estimator of E[Y] is

$$\hat{Y} = b_0 + b_1 x
= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[\frac{1}{n} - \frac{\bar{x}(x_i - \bar{x})}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_j - \bar{x})^2} + \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})x}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_j - \bar{x})^2} \right] Y_i
= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x - \bar{x})(x_i - \bar{x})}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_j - \bar{x})^2} \right] Y_i$$

Again we have a linear combination of independent normals as our estimator. This leads, after some math, to

$$b_0 + b_1 x \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x, \sigma^2 \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x - \bar{x})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}\right]\right).$$
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For what value of x is the CI narrowest?

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Exercise. Prove (1).



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Exercise. Prove (1). Solution is on pp. 53-54 of the textbook.



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- ▶ If we knew β_0 , β_1 , and σ^2 this would be easy, because

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x, \sigma^2),$$

and a $(1 - \alpha) \cdot 100\%$ CI for $\mathrm{E}[Y]$ would be

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▶ Unfortunately, we don't know β_0 , β_1 , and σ , but we can estimate all three of these.



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▶ the variability of the estimators b_0 and b_1

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An interval that contains Y with $(1-\alpha)$ probability needs to account for

- the variability of the estimators b_0 and b_1
- ▶ the natural variability of response Y built into the model: $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$. We have

$$Var[b_0 + b_1 x + \epsilon] = Var[b_0 + b_1 x] + Var[\epsilon]$$

$$= \sigma^2 \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x - \bar{x})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \right] + \sigma^2$$

$$= \sigma^2 \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x - \bar{x})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} + 1 \right]$$

Estimating σ^2 by MSE we obtain that a $(1-\alpha)\cdot 100\%$ prediction interval (PI) for Y is

$$b_0 + b_1 x \pm t_{n-2,1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\ \mathsf{MSE}\left[rac{1}{n} + rac{(x-ar{x})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - ar{x})^2} + 1
ight]}.$$

Remark. As $n \to \infty$, we have $b_0 \stackrel{P}{\to} \beta_0$, $b_1 \stackrel{P}{\to} \beta_1$, $t_{n-2,1-\alpha/2} \to z_{1-\alpha/2}$, and $\mathrm{MSE} \stackrel{P}{\to} \sigma^2$.

I.e., as the sample size grows, the PI converges to

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 x \pm z_{1-\alpha/2} \cdot \sigma.$$

Example: Poverty vs HS Graduation data

- ▶ Find a 95% CI for the mean poverty rate E[Y] in a state with HS graduation rate x = 80.
- ► Find a 95% PI for the poverty rate *Y* in a state with HS graduation rate *x* = 80.
- R code follows...

R. code

```
https://raw.githubusercontent.com/zh3nis/MATH440/
main/chp02/pov_predict.R
> poverty = read.table("path/to/poverty.txt", h = T, sep = "\t")
> my_model = lm(Poverty ~ Graduates, data=poverty)
> new_x = data.frame(Graduates=80)
> predict.lm(my_model, new_x, interval="confidence", level=0.95)
      fit
          lwr
                       upr
1 15.08363 13.9636 16.20365
> predict.lm(my_model, new_x, interval="prediction", level=0.95)
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A 95% CI for E[Y] given x = 80 is [13.96, 16.20].
A 95% PI for Y given x = 80 is [10.75, 19.41].
```

Working-Hotelling

confidence band:

$$\hat{Y} \pm W \cdot \mathbf{s}[\hat{Y}],$$

where $W^2 = 2 \cdot F_{1-\alpha;2,n-2}$.

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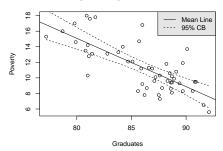
where $W^2 = 2 \cdot F_{1-\alpha;2,n-2}$. Gives region that *entire* regression line lies in with certain confidence.

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Working-Hotelling 95% confidence band



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https://raw.githubusercontent.com/zh3nis/MATH440/main/chp02/pov_cb.R

Inferences on β_1 and β_0

Inferences on $\mathbb{E}[Y]$ and \hat{Y}

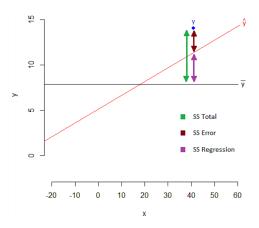
Analysis of Variance Approach

Coefficient of Determination

Decomposing $Y_i - \bar{Y}$

Notice that

$$\overbrace{Y_i - \bar{Y}}^{\text{Total}} = \overbrace{Y_i - \hat{Y}_i}^{\text{Error}} + \overbrace{\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}}^{\text{Regression}}$$



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because (see Chapter 1)

$$\sum (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)(\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}) = \sum e_i(\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}) = \sum e_i\,\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}\sum e_i = 0$$



Degrees of Freedom of SS

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- $\frac{\rm SSR}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_1^2$ (noncentral)

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Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) table

Source	SS	df	MS	E[MS]
Regression Error	$SSR = \sum (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2$ $SSE = \sum (Y_i - \hat{Y})^2$	1 n – 2	$\frac{\frac{SSR}{1}}{\frac{SSE}{n-2}}$	$\sigma^2 + \beta_1^2 \sum_{\sigma^2} (x_i - \bar{x})^2$
Total	$SST = \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$	n – 1		

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Remark.
$$\frac{\mathrm{E}[\mathsf{MSR}]}{\mathrm{E}[\mathsf{MSE}]} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \beta_1 = 0 \\ > 1 & \text{if } \beta_1 \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

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Loosely, we expect MSR to be larger than MSE when $\beta_1 \neq 0$.

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and both are generalized likelihood ratio tests (GLRT).

ANOVA F-test in R

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> poverty = read.table("path/to/poverty.txt", h = T, sep = "\t")
> my_model = lm(Poverty ~ Graduates, data=poverty)
> anova(my_model)
Analysis of Variance Table
Response: Poverty
         Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
Graduates 1 267.88 267.881 61.809 3.109e-10 ***
Residuals 49 212.37 4.334
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Coefficients:
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p-values of F-test and t-test for H_0 : $\beta_0 = 0$ are same.

←□ → ←□ → ← = → ← = → へ ○

Inferences on β_1 and β_0

Inferences on $\mathrm{E}[Y]$ and \hat{Y}

Analysis of Variance Approach

Coefficient of Determination

Coefficient of Determination

Definition. The **coefficient of determination** is

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

the proportion of total sample variation in Y that is explained by its linear relationship with x.

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Note:

- ▶ $0 \le R^2 \le 1$.
- $R^2 = 1 \Rightarrow$ data perfectly linear.
- ▶ $R^2 = 0 \Rightarrow$ regression line horizontal $(b_1 = 0)$.

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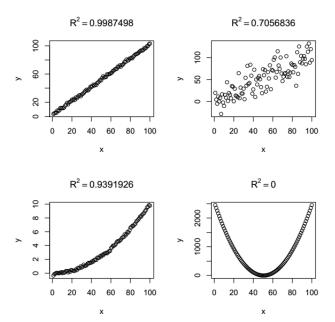
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Note:

- ▶ $0 \le R^2 \le 1$.
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The closer R^2 is to one, the greater the linear relationship between x and Y.

R^2 for different data sets



Sample correlation r

Let

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}}$$

be the sample correlation between x and Y.

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Exercise. Show that

- ► $R^2 = r^2$,

Remark.

- ▶ $r \approx 0 \Rightarrow$ little linear association b/w x and Y
- ▶ $r \approx 1 \Rightarrow$ strong positive, linear association b/w x and Y
- ▶ $r \approx -1 \Rightarrow$ strong negative, linear association b/w x and Y.

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Poverty vs HS Graduation data:

```
> summary(my_model)
```

. . .

Residual standard error: 2.082 on 49 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.5578, Adjusted R-squared: 0.5488 F-statistic: 61.81 on 1 and 49 DF, p-value: 3.109e-10

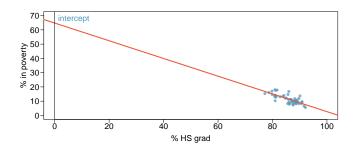
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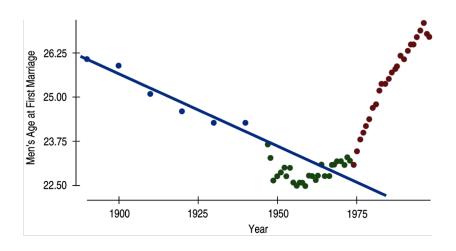
- Concluding that x and Y are linearly related (that $\beta_1 \neq 0$) does not imply a causal relationship between x and Y. (Correlation does not imply causation!)
- ▶ Beware of extrapolation: predicting *Y* for *x* far outside the range of *x* in the data. The relationship may not hold outside of the observed *x*-values.

- Concluding that x and Y are linearly related (that $\beta_1 \neq 0$) does not imply a causal relationship between x and Y. (Correlation does not imply causation!)
- ▶ Beware of extrapolation: predicting *Y* for *x* far outside the range of *x* in the data. The relationship may not hold outside of the observed *x*-values.
 - Sometimes the intercept might be an extrapolation.

- Concluding that x and Y are linearly related (that $\beta_1 \neq 0$) does not imply a causal relationship between x and Y. (Correlation does not imply causation!)
- ▶ Beware of extrapolation: predicting *Y* for *x* far outside the range of *x* in the data. The relationship may not hold outside of the observed *x*-values.
 - Sometimes the intercept might be an extrapolation.



Examples of extrapolation



Examples of extrapolation

Momentous sprint at the 2156 Olympics?

Women sprinters are closing the gap on men and may one day overtake them.

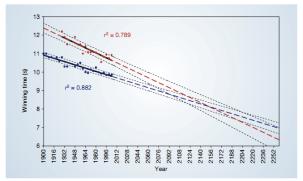


Figure 1 The winning Olympic 100-metre sprint times for men (blue points) and women (red points), with superimposed best-fit linear regression lines (solid black lines) and coefficients of determination. The regression lines are extrapolated (broken blue and red lines for men and women, respectively) and 95% confidence intervals (obtated black lines) based on the available points are superimposed. The projections inter-sect last before the 2156 Olympics, when the winning women's 100-metre sortif time of 8.079 s will be faster than the men's at 8.098 s.