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# **Simple Linear Regression (Ch 2)**

## **Week 4 – Thursday**

### **Applied Regression Analysis (STAT 757)**

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# Recap: Confidence Intervals

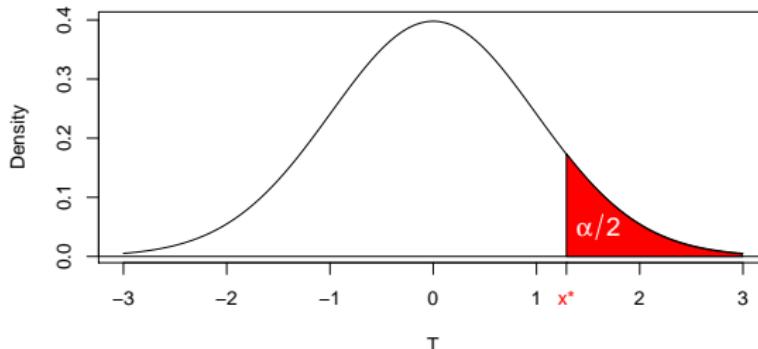
**Intercept CI:** The distribution of the intercept estimator  $\hat{\beta}_0$  can be computed by *un-standardizing* the following r.v., which follows a *Student's t* distribution with  $n - 1$  d.f.

$$T = \frac{\hat{\beta}_0 - \beta_0}{\text{se}(\hat{\beta}_0)}$$

Recall  $S = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}$  and  $S_{xx} = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$ , and that the standard error of  $\hat{\beta}_0$  is  $\text{se}(\hat{\beta}_0) = S \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \frac{\bar{x}^2}{S_{xx}}}$ .

**CI:** 100(1- $\alpha$ )% of the time, parameter  $\beta_0$  is in  
 $\left[ \hat{\beta}_0 + qt(\frac{\alpha}{2}, n - 2)\text{se}(\hat{\beta}_0), \hat{\beta}_0 + qt(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}, n - 2)\text{se}(\hat{\beta}_0) \right]$

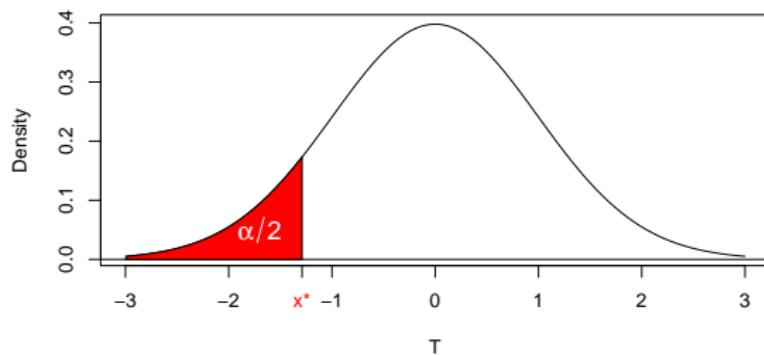
# Note: $t()$ vs $qt()$



The  $T$ -score (and  $Z$ -score) tables found in classical textbooks tell you the *random variable value*  $x_*$  that satisfy

$$P(X > x_*) = \alpha/2$$

Our textbook uses  $x_* = t(\alpha/2, n - 2)$  to denote these “upper tail” values. **However, in R...**



... we compute these values as **quantiles**. For example, the 25% quantile,  $x_*$ , satisfies  $P(X \leq x_*) = 0.25$ .

Thus, to clarify **textbook** vs **R** notation:

$$-t(\alpha/2, n-2) = qt(\alpha/2, n-2)$$

$$t(\alpha/2, n-2) = qt(1 - \alpha/2, n-2)$$

## Recap: Confidence Intervals

**Slope CI:** The distribution of the slope estimator  $\hat{\beta}_1$  can be computed by *un-standardizing* the  $t_{n-1}$  distributed r.v.

$$T = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\text{se}(\hat{\beta}_1)}$$

Recall  $S = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}$  and  $S_{xx} = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$ , and that the standard error of  $\hat{\beta}_1$  is  $\text{se}(\hat{\beta}_1) = S / \sqrt{S_{xx}}$ .

**CI:**  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  of the time, parameter  $\beta_1$  is in  
 $\left[ \hat{\beta}_1 + qt\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}, n-2\right) \text{se}(\hat{\beta}_1), \quad \hat{\beta}_1 - qt\left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}, n-2\right) \text{se}(\hat{\beta}_1) \right]$

## Recap: Confidence Intervals

**Regression Line CI:** The distribution of  $\hat{y}_* = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_*$  (or,  $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$ ) can be computed by *un-standardizing* the  $t_{n-1}$  distributed r.v.

$$T = \frac{\hat{y}_* - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_*)}{S \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_* - \bar{x})^2}{S_{xx}}}}$$

Thus,

**CI:** 100(1- $\alpha$ )% of the time,  $E(\hat{y}_*) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_*$  is in  
 $\hat{y}_* \pm qt(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}, n - 2) S \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_* - \bar{x})^2}{S_{xx}}}$

## Recap: Prediction Intervals

**Prediction Interval:** The distribution of  $\widehat{Y}_* = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 x_*$  (or,  $\widehat{y}_i = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 x_i$ ) can be computed by *un-standardizing* the  $t_{n-1}$  distributed r.v.

$$T = \frac{\widehat{y}_* - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_*)}{S \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_* - \bar{x})^2}{S_{XX}}}}$$

Note the CI for  $E(\widehat{y}_*)$  uses  $se(\widehat{y}_*)$  while the prediction interval uses  $se(\widehat{Y}_* - \widehat{y}_*)$ . Thus,

**CI:** 100(1- $\alpha$ )% of the time,  $E(\widehat{y}_*) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_*$  is in  
 $\widehat{y}_* \pm qt(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}, n - 2) S \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_* - \bar{x})^2}{S_{XX}}}$

# Analysis of Variance

Observe that, if  $\beta_1 = 0$  then the SLR model becomes

$$Y = \beta_0 + \epsilon \sim \text{Normal}(\beta_0, \sigma)$$

and so  $\hat{\beta}_0 = \hat{y} = \bar{y}$ . To test for a significant linear relationship, we test against this null hypothesis ( $H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$ ) using

$$T = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - 0}{\text{se}(\hat{\beta}_1)} \sim t_{n-2}$$

In multiple regression, however, we need to generalize. This leads us to a different test statistic...

# Analysis of Variance

**Q:** How much of the variation in  $y_i$  values comes from the linear component?

$$SST = S_{YY} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

$$SS_{reg} = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2$$

It can be shown (see next slide) that

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{Total variation in Y} & \quad \text{SS explained by regression} & \quad \text{residuals} \\ \overbrace{SST} & = & \overbrace{SS_{reg}} + \overbrace{RSS} \end{array}$$

**Proof** that  $SST = SS_{reg} + RSS$ :

$$\begin{aligned} SST &= \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (\overbrace{y_i - \hat{y}_i}^{e_i} + \hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 + (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2 + 2 e_i (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y}) = SS_{reg} + RSS + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n e_i (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y}) \end{aligned}$$

However, from our derivation of  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  (see textbook pg. 18), recall that  $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i = 0$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i e_i = 0$ . Thus we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{y}_i e_i - \bar{y} e_i = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i) e_i - \bar{y} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 \sum_{i=1}^n e_i + \hat{\beta}_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i e_i - \bar{y} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i = 0. \end{aligned}$$

# Analysis of Variance

Generalizing the  $t$  test above, we can also get a  $p$ -value for the hypothesis test

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = 0 \quad vs \quad H_A : \beta_1 \neq 0$$

by using a more general test statistic that quantifies how much variation in  $Y$  results from the linear trend relative to the random variation determined by the magnitude of  $\sigma$ :

$$F = \frac{SS_{reg}/1}{RSS/(n - 2)}$$

$F$  has an  $F_{1,n-2}$  distribution, and will be revisited in Ch. 5.

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# 0-1 Categorical SLR

§2.6-2.7 on Monday