STAT 518 --- Section 5.5: Distribution-Free Tests in Regression

• Suppose we gather data on two random variables.

• We wish to determine: Is there a relationship between the two r.v.'s? (correlation and/or regression)

• Can we use the values of one r.v. (say, *X*) to predict the other r.v. (say, *Y*)? (regression)

• Often we assume a straight-line relationship between two variables.

• This is known as <u>simple linear regression</u>.

Example 1: We want to predict Y = breathalyzer reading based on X = amount of alcohol consumed. **Example 2:** We want to estimate the effect of a medication dosage on the blood pressure of a patient. **Example 3:** We want to predict a college applicant's college GPA based on his/her SAT score.

• This again assumes we have <u>paired</u> data (X_1, Y_1) , $(X_2, Y_2), \ldots, (X_n, Y_n)$ for the two related variables.

Linear Regression Model

• The linear regression model assumes that the mean of *Y* (for a specific value *x* of *X*) varies linearly with *x*:

 $\alpha =$

• These parameters are <u>unknown</u> and must be <u>estimated</u> using sample data.

• Estimating the unknown parameters is also called <u>fitting the regression model</u>.

Fitting the Model (Least Squares Method)

• If we gather data (X_i, Y_i) for several individuals, we can use these data to estimate α and β and thus estimate the linear relationship between *Y* and *X*.

• Once we settle on the "best-fitting" regression line, its equation gives a predicted *Y*-value for any new *X*-value:

• How do we decide, given a data set, which values *a* and *b* produce the best-fitting line?

• For each point, the <u>error</u> = (Some positive errors, some negative errors)

• We want the line that makes these errors as small as possible (so that the line is "close" to the points).

<u>Least-squares method</u>: We choose the line that minimizes the sum of all the <u>squared</u> errors (SSE).

Least squares estimates *a* and *b*:

• This least-squares method is completely distribution-free.

• In classical models, we must assume ______ of the data in order to perform parametric inference.

• Since the slope β describes the marginal effect of *X* on *Y*, we are most often interested in hypothesis tests and confidence intervals about β .

• If the data are normal, these are based on the *t*-distribution.

• If the data's distribution is unknown, we can use a nonparametric approach.

• We must assume only that the *Y*'s are independent, identically distributed, and that the *Y*'s and *X*'s are at least interval in measurement scale.

• We further assume that the residual

A Distribution-Free Test about the Slope

- Let β_0 be some hypothesized value for the slope.
- For each bivariate observation, compute

and calculate the Spearman's rho for the pairs

Hypotheses and Decision Rules

Two-tailed Lower-tailed Upper-tailed

A Distribution-Free Confidence Interval for the Slope

• For each pair of points

compute the "two-point slope":

- There are, say, N such "two-point slopes".
- Let the ordered two-point slopes be:

• For a $(1 - \alpha)100\%$ CI, find $w_{1-\alpha/2}$ from Table A11 and define *r* and *s* as:

• If *r* and *s* are not integers, round *r* down to the next smallest integer and round *s* up to the next largest integer (in order to produce a conservative CI).

- The $(1 \alpha)100\%$ CI for β is then
- This CI will have coverage probability of <u>at least</u> 1α .

Example 1 (GMAT/GPA data): Recall example from Section 5.4. Suppose a national study reports that an increase of 40 points in GMAT score yields a 0.4 expected increase in GPA. Does this sample provide evidence against that claim? (Use $\alpha = 0.05$.) • In cases with severe outliers, the least-squares estimated slope can be severely affected by such outliers. An alternative set of regression estimates was suggested by Theil:

Example 2: For several levels of drug dosage (*X*), a lipid measure (*Y*) is taken. The data are: X: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Y: 2.5 3.1 3.4 4.0 4.6 11.1 5.1

• See R code for example plots using the least-squares line and Theil's regression line.

• The point estimator of the slope in Theil's method is called the <u>Hodges-Lehmann estimator</u>.

Comparison to Competing Tests

• When the distribution of (*X*, *Y*) is bivariate normal and the *X*_i's are equally spaced, the nonparametric test for the slope has A.R.E. of ______ relative to the classical t-test.

• In general, this A.R.E. is <u>always</u> at least ______.

Nonparametric Regression

• Section 5.6 gives a rank-based procedure for estimating a regression function when the function is <u>unknown</u> and <u>nonlinear</u> BUT known to be <u>monotonic</u>.

• Here we will examine a distribution-free method of estimating a very general type of regression function.

• In nonparametric regression, we assume very little about the functional form of the regression function.

• We assume the model:

where $f(\cdot)$ is unknown but is typically assumed to be a smooth and continuous function.

• We also assume independence for the residuals

Goal: Estimate the mean response function $f(\cdot)$.

Advantages of Nonparametric Regression

• Useful when we cannot know the relationship between *Y* and *X*

- More flexible type of regression model
- Can account for unusual behavior in the data

• Less likely to have bias resulting from wrong model being chosen

Disadvantages of Nonparametric Regression

- Not as easy to interpret
- No easy way to describe relationship between *Y* and *X*
- with a formula (must be done with a graph)
- Inference is not as straightforward

<u>Note</u>: Nonparametric regression is sometimes called

Kernel Regression

• The idea behind kernel regression is to estimate f(x) at each value x^* along the horizontal axis.

• At each value x^* , the estimate is simply an

• Consider a "window' of points centered at *x**:

• The width of this window is called the _____.

• At each different *x**, the window of points ______ to the left or right

• Better idea: Use

• This can be done using a ______ function known as a <u>kernel</u>.

• Then, for any *x**,

where the weights

 $K(\cdot)$ is a kernel function, which typically is a <u>density</u> function symmetric about 0.

 λ = bandwidth, which controls the <u>smoothness</u> of the estimate of *f*(*x*).

Possible choices of kernel:

Pictures:

<u>Note</u>: The Nadaraya-Watson estimator

is a modification that assures that the weights for the Y_i 's will sum to one.

• The choice of <u>bandwidth</u> λ is of more practical importance than the choice of kernel.

• The bandwidth controls how many data values are used to compute $f(x^*)$ at each x^* .

Large $\lambda \rightarrow$

Small $\lambda \rightarrow$

• Choosing λ too large results in an estimate that ________ the true nature of the relationship between *Y* and *X*.

• Choosing λ too small results in an estimate that follows the "noise" in the data too closely.

• Often the best choice of λ is made through visual inspection (pick the roughest estimate that does not fluctuate implausibly?).

• Automatic bandwidth selection methods such as <u>cross-validation</u> are also available – this chooses the λ that minimizes a mean squared prediction error.

Example: We have data on the horsepower (X) and gas mileage (Y, in miles per gallon) of 82 cars, from Heavenrich et al. (1991).

• On computer: The R function ksmooth performs kernel regression (see web page for examples with various kernel functions and bandwidths).