Chapter 5

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Stat 704: Data Analysis I

Chapter 3: Diagnostics

- Section 3.1: Outlying *x*-values can be found via boxplot (or a scatterplot!) Useful for assessing extrapolation. More advanced method in Sec. 10.3 for multiple predictors.
- Section 3.2: Recall $e_i = Y_i \hat{Y}_i$ is *i*th residual. The (externally) studentized residual t_i (defined on p. 396) has a t_{n-3} distribution.
- Section 3.3: Plots to consider
 - Plot of e_i vs. Ŷ_i or e_i vs. x_i: nonlinearity means line β₀ + β₁x_i inappropriate. Nonconstant variance means var(ε_i) = σ² not appropriate. Outlying observations (very large or small residuals) can indicate several potential problems (later).
 - Histogram or boxplot of e_i, normal probability plot of e_i to check normality. Expect one outlier out of 150 observations for truly normal data in boxplot. There are also formal tests for normality (later).

A matrix is a rectangular array of numbers. Here's an example:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.3 & -1.4 & 17 \\ -22.5 & 0 & \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

This matrix has dimensions 2×3 . The number of rows is first, then the number of columns.

We can write the $n \times p$ matrix **X** abstractly as

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{13} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & x_{23} & \cdots & x_{2p} \\ x_{31} & x_{32} & x_{33} & \cdots & x_{3p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & x_{n2} & x_{n3} & \cdots & x_{np} \end{bmatrix}$$

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Another notation that is common is $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]_{n \times m}$ for an $n \times m$ matrix \mathbf{A} with element a_{ij} in the i^{th} row and j^{th} column.

The matrix **X** on the previous page would then be written $\mathbf{X} = [x_{ij}]_{n \times p}$.

The transpose of a matrix **A**' takes the matrix **A** and makes the rows the columns and the columns the rows. Precisely, if $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]_{n \times m}$ then **A**' is the $m \times n$ matrix with elements $a'_{ij} = a_{ji}$. For example:

If
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$
, then $\mathbf{A}' = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

Question: what is $(\mathbf{A}')'$?

If two matrices $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]_{n \times m}$ and $\mathbf{B} = [b_{ij}]_{n \times m}$ have the same dimensions, you can add them together, element by element, to get a new matrix $\mathbf{C} = [c_{ij}]_{n \times m}$. That is, $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ is the matrix with elements $c_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij}$. For example,

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 \\ 5 & 7 \\ -10 & 20 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1+1 & -2+2 \\ 5+3 & 7+4 \\ -10+1 & 20+2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 8 & 11 \\ -9 & 22 \end{bmatrix}$$

Multiplying a matrix $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$ by a number *b* yields the matrix $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}b$ with elements $c_{ij} = a_{ij}b$. For example,

$$(-2) \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 \\ 5 & 7 \\ -10 & 20 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1(-2) & -2(-2) \\ 5(-2) & 7(-2) \\ -10(-2) & 20(-2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ -10 & -14 \\ 20 & -40 \end{bmatrix}$$

A vector is a matrix with only one column or row, called a "column vector" or "row vector" respectively. Here's an example of each:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ -1\\ 14 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 14 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that for these vectors, $\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{x}$.

Special column vectors:

$$\mathbf{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ \vdots\\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \ \mathbf{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\ \vdots\\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The **product** of an $1 \times n$ row vector and a $n \times 1$ column vector is the sum of the pairwise products of elements. So if $\mathbf{x} = [x_i]_{1 \times n}$ and $\mathbf{y} = [y_i]_{n \times 1}$ then $\mathbf{xy} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$. For example, if $\mathbf{x} = [-1 \ 2]$ and $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$ then

$$\mathbf{xy} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} = -1(10) + 2(-5) = -20.$$

The *inner product* of two $n \times 1$ column vectors **x** and **y** is the product

$$\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & \cdots & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i.$$

Note that if
$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 is a point in the plane \mathbb{R}^2 , then $\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x} = x_1^2 + x_2^2$ is the square of the length of \mathbf{x} . That is, $||\mathbf{x}|| = \sqrt{\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x}}$.

In general, for any point in
$$\mathbb{R}^n$$
, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_n \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x} = ||\mathbf{x}||^2$

The *outer product* of two $n \times 1$ column vectors **x** and **y** is the product

$$\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}' = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & y_3 & \cdots & y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_i y_j \end{bmatrix}^{n \times n}.$$

We often use **J** to denote a matrix of 1's. I.e., $\mathbf{J} = 11'$

We are now ready to define general matrix multiplication. The product of an $n \times p$ matrix **A** and a $p \times m$ matrix **B** is the $n \times m$ matrix **C** with elements $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik}b_{kj}$. Let **A** be comprised of $n \ 1 \times p$ row vectors $\mathbf{a}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{a}_n$ and let **B** be comprised of $m \ p \times 1$ column vectors $\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_m$ like

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \cdots \mathbf{a}_1 \cdots \\ \cdots \mathbf{a}_2 \cdots \\ \vdots \\ \cdots \mathbf{a}_n \cdots \end{bmatrix}_{n \times p} \text{ and } \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{b}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{b}_m \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix}_{p \times m}$$

Matrix multiplication

Then $c_{ii} = \mathbf{a}_i \mathbf{b}_i$ $\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{a}_1 \mathbf{b}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_1 \mathbf{b}_m \\ \mathbf{a}_2 \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 \mathbf{b}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_2 \mathbf{b}_m \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_n \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{a}_n \mathbf{b}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_n \mathbf{b}_m \end{bmatrix}.$ For example, let $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -2 \\ -3 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & -5 & 7 \\ 1 & 2 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $\mathbf{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} 1(2) - 1(0) - 2(1) & 1(0) - 1(-5) - 2(0.5) & 1(-2) - 1(7) - 2(-4) \\ -3(2) - 1(0) + 5(1) & -3(0) - 1(-5) + 5(0.5) & -3(-2) - 1(7) + 5(-4) \end{bmatrix}$ $= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 4 & 0 \\ -1 & 85 & -21 \end{bmatrix}.$

On the previous slide, does **BA** make sense? No. The rows of the first matrix must be the same length as the columns of the second. Note that, in general, $AB \neq BA$.

Define $\mathbf{I}_{n \times n}$ as $\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$

Then

$$\mathbf{A}_{n \times p} \mathbf{I}_{p \times p} = \mathbf{A}_{n \times p}$$
 and $\mathbf{I}_{n \times n} \mathbf{A}_{n \times p} = \mathbf{A}_{n \times p}$,

for any $\mathbf{A}_{n \times p}$. The matrix $\mathbf{I}_{n \times n}$ is called the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

For example,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -2 \\ -3 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -2 \\ -3 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

and
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -2 \\ -3 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -2 \\ -3 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

5.6 Matrix inverse

The *inverse* of a square $(p \times p)$ matrix **A** is the $p \times p$ matrix **A**⁻¹ such that $\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}_{p \times p}$. For example, if $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$, then $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix},$ and so $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$. Note that we must have $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$

as well.

There is an algorithm for finding the inverse of any size matrix but it is very computationally intensive, except for 2×2 matrices. Let

$$\mathbf{A} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{array} \right]$$

Then

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}} \begin{bmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{12} \\ -a_{21} & a_{11} \end{bmatrix}$$

.

That is, switch the diagonal entries, multiply the off-diagonals by -1, and divide the works by $a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$.

We can show that this is the inverse in class. Try it out on ${\bf A}$ on the previous slide.

Not every square matrix has an inverse. For example

$$\mathbf{A} = \left[egin{array}{cc} -1 & 2 \ 2 & -4 \end{array}
ight],$$

does not. Try the formula on the previous slide out on this matrix. What happens?

Square matrices that do not have an inverse are said to be singular.

Recall the two-sample normal model with equal variances:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{11}, Y_{12}, \dots, Y_{1n_1} &\stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu_1, \sigma^2), \\ Y_{21}, Y_{22}, \dots, Y_{2n_2} &\stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu_2, \sigma^2). \end{aligned}$$

We can rewrite this as

$$Y_{ij} = \mu_i + \epsilon_{ij},$$

where

$$\epsilon_{ij} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2),$$

where i = 1, 2 indexes the group (1 or 2) and $j = 1, ..., n_i$ is the observation within the group.

Each piece of data Y_{ij} follows:

Y_{11}	=	$\mu_1 + \epsilon_{11}$
Y_{12}	=	$\mu_1 + \epsilon_{12}$
Y_{13}	=	$\mu_1 + \epsilon_{13}$
÷	÷	÷
Y_{1n_1}	=	$\mu_1 + \epsilon_{1n_1}$
Y_{21}	=	$\mu_2 + \epsilon_{21}$
Y_{22}	=	$\mu_2 + \epsilon_{22}$
<i>Y</i> ₂₃	=	$\mu_2 + \epsilon_{23}$
÷	÷	÷
$Y_{2n_{2}}$	=	$\mu_2 + \epsilon_{2n_2}$

Define the following vectors and matrices:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_{11} \\ Y_{12} \\ \vdots \\ Y_{1n_2} \\ Y_{21} \\ Y_{22} \\ \vdots \\ Y_{2n_2} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } \boldsymbol{\epsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_{11} \\ \epsilon_{12} \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_{1n_2} \\ \epsilon_{21} \\ \epsilon_{22} \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_{2n_2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Then we can write the model succinctly as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}.$$

We'll show this on the board for $n_1 = n_2 = 3$. It turns out the the least squares estimators (and MLE's!) for μ_1 and μ_2 are $\hat{\mu}_1 = n_1^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_1} y_{1j} = \bar{y}_1$ and $\hat{\mu}_2 = n_2^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} y_{2j} = \bar{y}_2$ are obtained in matrix terms as

$$\hat{oldsymbol{eta}} = \left[egin{array}{c} \hat{\mu}_1 \ \hat{\mu}_2 \end{array}
ight] = ({f X}'{f X})^{-1}{f X}'{f y}$$

We'll show part of this:

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} n_1 & 0 \\ 0 & n_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

And so $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} n_1 & 0 \\ 0 & n_2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{n_1} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{n_2} \end{bmatrix}.$ 50, $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_{11} \\ y_{12} \\ \vdots \\ y_{1n_2} \\ y_{21} \\ y_{22} \\ \vdots \\ y_{2n_2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^{n_1} y_{1j} \\ \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} y_{2j} \end{bmatrix}.$ Also,

Then

$$(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{n_1} & 0\\ 0 & \frac{1}{n_2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^{n_1} y_{1j}\\ \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} y_{2j} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{y}_1\\ \bar{y}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mu}_1\\ \hat{\mu}_2 \end{bmatrix},$$

as promised. The unbiased estimate of σ^2 in terms of matrices is

$$\mathsf{MSE} = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})'(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})/(n_1 + n_2 - 2) = ||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}||^2/(n_1 + n_2 - 2).$$

What is the point? Although the two-sample normal model is fairly simple, very complex models with multiple predictors, both categorical and continuous, can be written as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon},$$

including the simple linear regression model, multiple regression models, oneway and multiway ANOVA models, and ANCOVA models.

In

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{eta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$$

- **Y** is the $n \times 1$ data vector.
- X is the n × p design matrix. Often the ith row of X is comprised of p 1 measurements taken on the ith subject in a study, e.g. the ith row of an Excel spreadsheet, and an intercept term.
- β is the $p \times 1$ coefficient vector. For the two-sample model, p = 2 and $\beta = (\mu_1, \mu_2)$.
- *ϵ* is the *n* × 1 error vector. All the elements of *ϵ* are assumed to be *iid* N(0, σ²).

The Celts were a vigorous race of people who once populated parts of England. It is not entirely clear whether they simply died out or merged with other people who were the ancestors of those who live in England today.

The maximum head breadths (mm) were measured on $n_2 = 16$ unearthed Celtic skulls and on $n_1 = 18$ modern-day Englishmen skulls. It is of interest to determine and quantify differences in skull size between the two populations.

```
data headbreadth;
input breadth group$ @@;
label breadth='Skull breadth (mm)' group='Skull origin';
datalines;
141 English 148 English 132 English 138 English 154 English 142 English 150 English
146 English 155 English 158 English 150 English 140 English 147 English 148 English
144 English 150 English 149 English 145 English 133 Celt 138 Celt 130 Celt
138 Celt 134 Celt 127 Celt 128 Celt 138 Celt 136 Celt 131 Celt
126 Celt 120 Celt 124 Celt 132 Celt 132 Celt 125 Celt
;
proc sgplot data=headbreadth;
hbox breadth / category=group; run;
proc gln plots=diagnostics;
class group;
model breadth=group / noint solution;
estimate "English-Celt" group -1 1; run;
```

Side-by-side boxplots



Spread is roughly the same, we'll fit a normal-errors model with common variance

$$Y_{ij} = \mu_i + \epsilon_{ij}, \ \ \epsilon_{ij} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2).$$

Recall the model

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

where $\epsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$.

Place the data (Y_1, \ldots, Y_n) , predictors (x_1, \ldots, x_n) , and trend parameters (β_0, β_1) into vectors and matrices and write the data and model as

$$Y_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \epsilon_1$$

$$Y_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_2 + \epsilon_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$Y_n = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n + \epsilon_n$$

Simple linear regression

or equivalently in vector/matrix terms

$$\begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \epsilon_1 \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_2 + \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n + \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Define the vectors **Y**, β , and ϵ , and the matrix X as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix}, \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix}, \boldsymbol{\epsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

The model is succinctly written

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}.$$

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The model is

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

where the ϵ_i are *iid* $N(0, \sigma^2)$. In matrix terms the model can be written

$$\begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{Y}_{n \times 1} = \mathbf{X}_{n \times 2} \qquad \beta_{2 \times 1} + \epsilon_{n \times 1}$$

As before, it can be shown through some matrix manipulations (not terribly hard, but not illuminating either) that the least squares estimators for (β_0, β_1) are given by

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \left[egin{array}{c} b_0 \\ b_1 \end{array}
ight] = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}.$$

This is a function of the matrix **X** (called the *design* matrix) and the data **Y** only. The unbiased estimator of σ^2 can be written in terms of b_0 and b_1 as

$$\mathsf{MSE} = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - [b_0 + b_1 x_i])^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} ||\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}||^2.$$

Mosteller and Tukey (1977) and Christensen (1996) considered data collected from n = 20 schools in the New England and Mid-Atlantic states of the USA.

There are two variables: Y_i , the overall verbal test score for sixth graders and x_i , a composite measure of socioeconomic status. The data are presented in the following table.

We wish to predict Y based on x and test whether there is a relationship between socioeconomic status and verbal test scores.

Coleman report data

School	У	X	School	У	X
1	37.01	7.20	11	23.30	-12.86
2	26.51	-11.71	12	35.20	0.92
3	36.51	12.32	13	34.90	4.77
4	40.70	14.28	14	33.10	-0.96
5	37.10	6.31	15	22.70	-16.04
6	33.90	6.16	16	39.70	10.62
7	41.80	12.70	17	31.80	2.66
8	33.40	-0.17	18	31.70	-10.99
9	41.01	9.85	19	43.10	15.03
10	37.20	-0.05	20	41.01	12.77

Look at the data...

```
data coleman:
input verbal ses @@:
label verbal='verbal test score' ses='socioeconomic status';
datalines;
37.01 7.20 23.30 -12.86 26.51 -11.71 35.20
                                            0.92
36.51 12.32 34.90 4.77 40.70 14.28 33.10 -0.96
37.10 6.31 22.70 -16.04 33.90 6.16 39.70 10.62
41.80 12.70 31.80 2.66 33.40 -0.17 31.70 -10.99
41 01 9 85 43 10 15 03 37 20 -0 05 41 01 12 77
proc sgscatter data=coleman:
plot verbal*ses; run;
options nocenter;
proc glm plots=diagnostics;
model verbal=ses / solution:
run;
```

Linear increasing trend; roughly constant variance, we'll fit

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i, \quad \epsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2).$$



Coleman Report data in matrix terms

X =		$\begin{array}{c} 7.2 \\ -11.71 \\ 12.32 \\ 14.28 \\ 6.31 \\ 6.16 \\ 12.7 \\ -0.17 \\ 9.85 \\ -0.05 \\ -12.86 \\ 0.92 \\ 4.77 \\ -0.96 \\ -16.04 \\ 10.62 \\ 2.66 \\ -10.99 \\ 2.66 \\ -10.99 \end{array}$, and $\mathbf{y} =$	7 37.01 26.51 36.51 40.7 37.1 33.9 41.8 33.4 41.01 37.2 23.3 35.2 23.3 35.2 34.9 33.1 22.7 39.7 31.8 31.7	
	1	2.00		31.8	
	1	-10.99		31.7	
	1	15.03		43.1	
	L 1	12.77		L 41.01	1

This yields

$$\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 20 & 62.81 \\ 62.81 & 1957.57 \end{array} \right], \\ (\boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{X})^{-1} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 0.05560 & -0.00178 \\ -0.00178 & 0.000568 \end{array} \right], \text{ and } \boldsymbol{X}'\boldsymbol{y} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 701.65 \\ 3189.9 \end{array} \right].$$

So the least squares estimates are

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.05560 & -0.00178 \\ -0.00178 & 0.000568 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 701.65 \\ 3189.9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 33.3 \\ 0.56 \end{bmatrix}.$$

So our best guess of the unknown $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1)$ is given by $\hat{\beta} = (\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1) = (33.3, 0.56)$. So our best guess for the overall population *trend* is

$$\widehat{E(Y)} = 33.3 + 0.56x.$$

For every unit increase in socioeconomic status, we see *on average* an increase of 0.56 in the overall verbal test scores.