

# Simple Linear Regression (Chapter 1 & 2)

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Stat 704: Data Analysis I

# When to Use What Statistics

Statistical Analyses	Independent Variables		Dependent Variables		Control Variables
	# of IVs	Data Type	# of DVs	Type of Data	
Chi square	1	categorical	1	categorical	0
t-Test	1	dichotomous	1	continuous	0
ANOVA	1 +	categorical	1	continuous	0
ANCOVA	1 +	categorical	1	continuous	1 +
MANOVA	1 +	categorical	2 +	continuous	0
MANCOVA	1 +	categorical	2 +	continuous	1 +
Correlation	1	dichotomous or continuous	1	continuous	0
Multiple regression	2 +	dichotomous or continuous	1	continuous	0
Path analysis	2 +	continuous	1 +	continuous	0
Logistic Regression	1 +	categorical or continuous	1	dichotomous	0

DV: dependent variable, response variable, outcome, phenotype (Y)

IV: independent variable, predictor variable, covariate (X)

Does the difference in gene expression exist between patients with/without a mutation?

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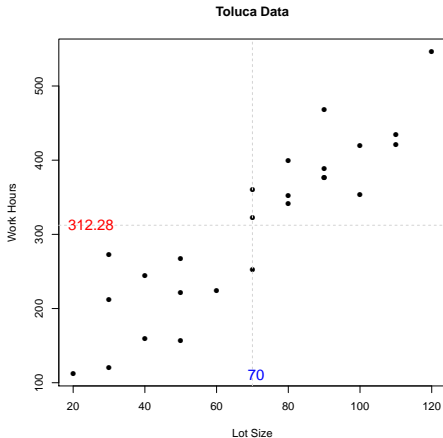
Does the difference in gene expression exist between patients with/without a mutation?

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Predict daughter's height from father's height.

- Toluca makes replacement parts for refrigerators.
- We consider one particular part, manufactured in varying lot sizes.
- It takes time to set up production regardless of lot size; this time plus machining & assembly makes up work hours.
- We want to relate work hours to lot size.
- $n = 25$  pairs  $(X_i, Y_i)$  were obtained.

# Toluca data



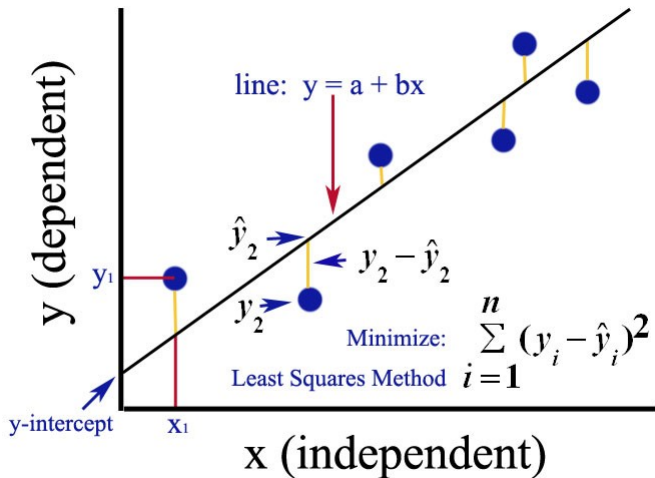
Roughly linear trend, no obvious outliers.

# The Model

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

- $Y_i$  the value of the response variable in the  $i^{th}$  trial
- $\beta_0, \beta_1$  are parameters
- $X_i$  is known; it is the value of the predictor variable in the  $i^{th}$  trial
- $\epsilon_i$  is a random error term with  $E(\epsilon_i) = 0$  and finite variance  $\sigma^2(\epsilon_i) = \sigma^2$
- $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$
- $\hat{Y} = E(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i$

# Least Square Linear Regression





# Least Squares Estimation

Seek to minimize

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i)]^2$$

Minimize by maximizing  $-Q$ .

$$\frac{dQ}{d\beta_0} = 0$$

$$\frac{dQ}{d\beta_1} = 0$$

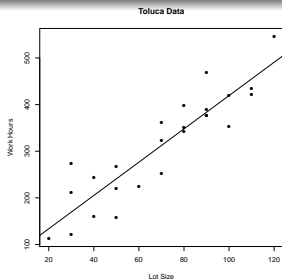
# Normal Equations

The result of this maximization step are called the normal equations.

$$\begin{aligned}\sum Y_i &= nb_0 + b_1 \sum X_i \\ \sum X_i Y_i &= b_0 \sum X_i + b_1 \sum X_i^2\end{aligned}$$

The solution to the normal equations:

$$\begin{aligned}b_1 &= \frac{\sum(X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum(X_i - \bar{X})^2} \\ b_0 &= \bar{Y} - b_1 \bar{X}\end{aligned}$$

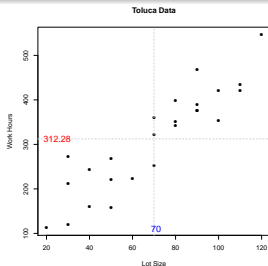


The fitted model is

$$\widehat{\text{hours}} = 62.37 + 3.570 \times \text{lot size}.$$

- A lot size of  $X = 65$  takes  $\hat{Y} = 62.37 + 3.570 \times 65 = 294$  hours to finish, *on average*.
- For each unit increase in lot size, the mean time to finish increases by 3.57 hours.
- Increasing the lot size by 10 parts increases the time by 35.7 hours, about a week.
- $b_0 = 62.37$  is only interpretable for lots of size zero. What does that mean here? (We don't observe any data with lot size = 0)

# Alternative Model: Centering



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

$$Y_i = \beta_0^* + \beta_1 (X_i - \bar{X}) + \epsilon_i$$

$$\hat{Y} = 62.37 + 3.570X$$

$$\hat{Y} = 312.28 + 3.570(X - 70)$$

- $b_0^* = b_0 + b_1 \bar{X} = \bar{Y}$ .
- $\beta_0^*$  is the mean outcome when  $X = 70$  (reference group).
- Interpretation for  $\beta_1$  has not changed.

```

>fit1<-lm(dat[,2] ~ dat[,1])
>summary(fit1)
Coefficients:
      Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)  62.366     26.177   2.382  0.0259 *
dat[, 1]      3.570      0.347  10.290 4.45e-10 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 48.82 on 23 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared:  0.8215, Adjusted R-squared:  0.8138
F-statistic: 105.9 on 1 and 23 DF,  p-value: 4.449e-10

>xstar<-dat[,1]-mean(dat[,1])
>fit2<-lm(dat[,2] ~ xstar)
>summary(fit2)
Coefficients:
      Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)  312.280      9.765   31.98 < 2e-16 ***
xstar        3.570      0.347   10.29 4.45e-10 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 48.82 on 23 degrees of freedom
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```

## Residuals & fitted values, Section 1.6

- The  $i$ th **fitted value** is  $\hat{Y}_i = b_0 + b_1 X_i$ .
- The points  $(X_1, \hat{Y}_1), \dots, (X_n, \hat{Y}_n)$  fall on the line  $y = b_0 + b_1 x$ , the points  $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$  do not.
- The  $i$ th **residual** is

$$e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i = Y_i - (b_0 + b_1 X_i), \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

the difference between observed and fitted values.

- $e_i$  “estimates”  $\epsilon_i$ .

## Properties of the residuals (pp. 23–24)

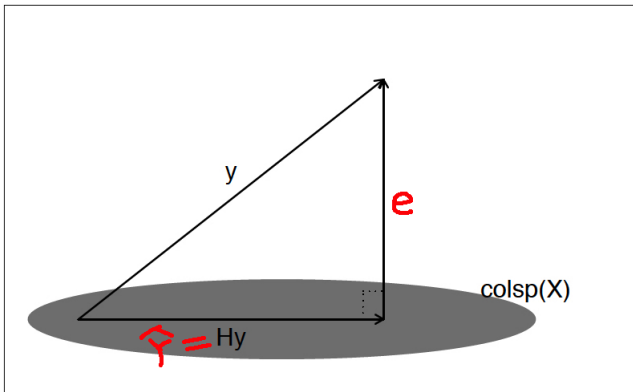
- 1  $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i = 0$  (from normal equations)
- 2  $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i e_i = 0$  (from normal equations)
- 3  $\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{Y}_i e_i = 0$  (1 and 2)
- 4 Least squares line always goes through  $(\bar{X}, \bar{Y})$ .

Plug in  $\bar{X}$  in the model

$$\hat{Y}_i = b_0 + b_1 X_i$$

$$\hat{Y}_i = \bar{Y} - b_1 \bar{X} + b_1 \bar{X}$$

# Orthogonal projection of $Y$





## Estimating $\sigma^2$ , Section 1.7

$\sigma^2$  is the error variance. A natural starting point for an estimator of  $\sigma^2$  is  $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$ . However,

$$\begin{aligned} E(\hat{\sigma}^2) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E(Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i)^2 \\ &= \dots \text{a lot of hideous algebra later} \dots \\ &= \frac{n-2}{n} \sigma^2. \end{aligned}$$

So in the end we use the unbiased *mean squared error*

$$MSE = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i)^2.$$

So an estimate of  $\text{var}(Y_i) = \sigma^2$  is

$$s^2 = MSE = \frac{SSE}{n-2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2}{n-2} \left( = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{n-2} \right).$$

Then  $E(MSE) = \sigma^2$ . *MSE* is automatically given in SAS and R.

$s = \sqrt{MSE}$  is an estimator of  $\sigma$ , the standard deviation of  $Y_i$ .

**Example:** Toluca data.  $MSE = 2383.72$  hours<sup>2</sup> and  $\sqrt{MSE} = 48.82$  hours from the R output. For a lot size of  $X = 65$  units, the mean work hour ( $\hat{Y}$ ) is 294.4 hours. The variation in work hours from lot to lot for lots of 65 units is quite substantial since the prediction would still be off by  $\frac{48.82}{294.4} \approx 16.6\%$ .

## Chapter 2: Normal errors regression

- So far we have only assumed  $E(\epsilon_i) = 0$  and  $\text{var}(\epsilon_i) = \sigma^2$ .
- We can *additionally* assume

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

- This allows us to make *inference* about  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ , and obtain prediction intervals for a new  $Y_h$  with covariate  $X_h$ .
- The model is, succinctly,

$$Y_i \stackrel{ind.}{\sim} N(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i, \sigma^2), \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

**Fact:** Under the assumption of normality, the least squares estimators  $(b_0, b_1)$  are also *maximum likelihood estimators* (pp. 27–30) for  $(\beta_0, \beta_1)$ .

The *likelihood* of  $(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma^2)$  is the density of the data given these parameters (p. 31):

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma^2) &= f(y_1, \dots, y_n | \beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma^2) \\ &\stackrel{\text{ind.}}{=} \prod_{i=1}^n f(y_i | \beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma^2) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-0.5 \frac{(y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2}{\sigma^2}\right) \\ &= (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2\right).\end{aligned}$$

## LS = MLE under normality

$\mathcal{L}(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma^2)$  is maximized when  $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2$  is as small as possible.

⇒ Least-squares estimators are MLEs too!

The MLE of  $\sigma^2$  is, instead,  $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$ ; the denominator changes.

## Section 2.1: Inferences on $\beta_1$

The least squares estimator for the slope is  $b_1$  is

$$b_1 = \frac{\sum (X_i - \bar{X}) Y_i}{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2} = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{(X_i - \bar{X})}{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2} \right] Y_i.$$

Thus,  $b_1$  is a linear combination  $n$  independent normal random variables  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$ . Therefore

$$b_1 \sim N \left( \beta_1, \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \right).$$

(proof in pp. 43)

## $se(b_1)$ estimates $sd(b_1)$

So,

$$\sigma\{b_1\} = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}.$$

Take  $b_1$ , subtract off its mean, and divide by its standard deviation and you've got...

$$\frac{b_1 - \beta_1}{\sigma\{b_1\}} \sim N(0, 1).$$

We will never know  $\sigma\{b_1\}$ ; we estimate it by

$$se(b_1) = \sqrt{\frac{MSE}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}}.$$

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

**Fact:**

$$\frac{b_1 - \beta_1}{se(b_1)} \sim t_{n-2}.$$

A  $(1 - \alpha)100\%$  CI for  $\beta_1$  has endpoints

$$b_1 \pm t_{n-2}(1 - \alpha/2)se(b_1).$$

Under  $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_{10}$ ,

$$t^* = \frac{b_1 - \beta_{10}}{se(b_1)} \sim t_{n-2}.$$

P-values are computed as usual.

**Note:** Of particular interest is  $H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$ , that  $E(Y_i) = \beta_0$  and does not depend on  $X_i$ . That is, " $H_0$ :  $X_i$  is useless in predicting  $Y_i$ ."



# Table of regression coefficients

Regression output typically produces a table like:

Parameter	Estimate	Standard error	$t^*$	p-value
Intercept $\beta_0$	$b_0$	$se(b_0)$	$t_0^* = \frac{b_0}{se(b_0)}$	$P( T  >  t_0^* )$
Slope $\beta_1$	$b_1$	$se(b_1)$	$t_1^* = \frac{b_1}{se(b_1)}$	$P( T  >  t_1^* )$

where  $T \sim t_{n-p}$  and  $p$  is the number of parameters used to estimate the mean, here  $p = 2$ :  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ . Later  $p$  will be the number of predictors in the model plus one.

The two p-values in the table test  $H_0 : \beta_0 = 0$  and  $H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$  respectively. The test for zero intercept is usually not of interest.

# Toluca data

Variable	Label	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Pr >  t
Intercept	Intercept	1	62.36586	26.17743	2.38	0.0259
size	Lot Size (parts/lot)	1	3.57020	0.34697	10.29	<.0001

We reject  $H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$  at any reasonable significance level ( $P < 0.0001$ ). There is a significant linear association between lot size and hours worked.

Note  $se(b_1) = 0.347$ ,  $t_1^* = \frac{3.57}{0.347} = 10.3$ , and  $P(|t_{23}| > 10.3) < 0.0001$ .

## 2.2 Inference about the intercept $\beta_0$

The intercept usually is not very interesting, but just in case...

Write  $b_0$  as a linear combination of  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$  as we did with the slope:

$$b_0 = \bar{Y} - b_1 \bar{X} = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{1}{n} - \frac{\bar{X}(X_i - \bar{X})}{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2} \right] Y_i.$$

After some slogging, this leads to

$$b_0 \sim N \left( \beta_0, \sigma^2 \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \right] \right).$$

# Distribution of $\frac{b_0 - \beta_0}{se(b_0)}$

Define  $se(b_0) = \sqrt{MSE \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \right]}$  and you're in business:

$$\frac{b_0 - \beta_0}{se(b_0)} \sim t_{n-2}.$$

Obtain CIs and tests about  $\beta_0$  as usual...

## 2.4 Estimating $E(Y_h)$

**Estimating**  $E(Y_h) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_h$

(e.g. inference about the regression line)

Let  $X_h$  be *any predictor*; say we want to estimate the mean of all outcomes in the *population* that have covariate  $X_h$ . This is given by

$$E(Y_h) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_h.$$

Our estimator of this is

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{Y}_h &= b_0 + b_1 X_h \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{1}{n} - \frac{\bar{X}(X_i - \bar{X})}{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2} + \frac{(X_i - \bar{X})X_h}{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2} \right] Y_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(X_h - \bar{X})(X_i - \bar{X})}{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2} \right] Y_i\end{aligned}$$

## Distribution of $\hat{Y}_h$

Again we have a linear combination of independent normals as our estimator. This leads, after slogging through some math (pp. 53–54), to

$$b_0 + b_1 X_h \sim N \left( \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_h, \sigma^2 \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(X_h - \bar{X})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \right] \right).$$

As before, this leads to a  $(1 - \alpha)100\%$  CI for  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_h$

$$b_0 + b_1 X_h \pm t_{n-2}(1 - \alpha/2)se(b_0 + b_1 X_h),$$

where  $se(b_0 + b_1 X_h) = \sqrt{MSE \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(X_h - \bar{X})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \right]}$ .

**Question:** For what value of  $x_h$  is the CI narrowest? What happens when  $X_h$  moves away from  $\bar{X}$ ?

## 2.5 Prediction intervals

- We discussed constructing a CI for the unknown **mean** at  $X_h$ ,  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_h$ .
- What if we want to find an interval that contains a single  $Y_h$  with fixed probability?
- If we knew  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ , and  $\sigma^2$  this is easy:

$$Y_h = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_h + \epsilon_h,$$

and so, for example,

$$P(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_h - 1.96\sigma \leq Y_h \leq \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_h + 1.96\sigma) = 0.95.$$

- Unfortunately, we don't know  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ . We don't even know  $\sigma$ , but we can construct a random variable with a  $t$  distribution to develop an appropriate *prediction interval*.

## Variability of $Y_h - \hat{Y}_h$

An interval that contains  $Y_h$  (independent of  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$ ) with  $(1 - \alpha)$  probability needs to account for

- 1 The variability of the least squares line  $b_0 + b_1 X_h$ , and
- 2 The natural variability of response  $Y_h$  built into the model;  
 $\epsilon_h \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ .

We have

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma^2 \{Y_h - \hat{Y}_h\} &\stackrel{\text{ind}}{=} \sigma^2 \{Y_h\} + \sigma^2 \{\hat{Y}_h\} \\ &= \sigma^2 + \sigma^2 \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(X_h - \bar{X})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \right] \\ &= \sigma^2 \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(X_h - \bar{X})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \right]\end{aligned}$$

This is different from the CI for  $\hat{Y}_h$  (**mean**). The prediction interval of next **data point** ( $Y_h$ , not the mean) includes the uncertainty in the population mean, plus data scatter. So a prediction interval is always wider than a confidence interval.



## Prediction interval

Since  $Y_h - \hat{Y}_h \sim N\left(0, \sigma^2 \left\{Y_h - \hat{Y}_h\right\}\right)$ ,

$$\frac{Y_h - \hat{Y}_h}{\hat{\sigma} \left\{Y_h - \hat{Y}_h\right\}} \sim t_{n-2}$$

We thus obtain a  $(1 - \alpha/2)100\%$  *prediction interval* (PI) for  $Y_h$ :

$$b_0 + b_1 X_h \pm t_{n-2}(1 - \alpha/2) \sqrt{MSE \left[1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(X_h - \bar{X})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}\right]}.$$

**Note:** As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $b_0 \xrightarrow{P} \beta_0$ ,  $b_1 \xrightarrow{P} \beta_1$ ,

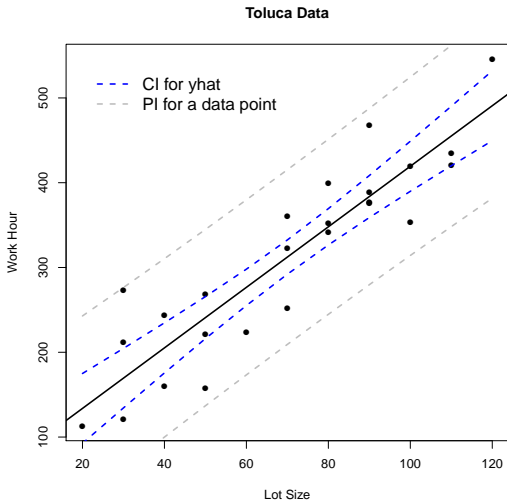
$t_{n-2}(1 - \alpha/2) \rightarrow \Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha/2)$ , and  $MSE \xrightarrow{P} \sigma^2$ . That is, as the sample size grows, the prediction interval converges to

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_h \pm \Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha/2)\sigma.$$

## Example: Toluca data

- Find a 95% CI for the mean number of work hours for lots of size  $X_h = 65$  units.
- Find a 95% PI for the number of work hours for a lot of size  $X_h = 65$  units.
- Repeat both for  $X_h = 100$  units.
- R Code in Lab6.R

# Plot of 95% CI for mean & prediction intervals



# Obtaining confidence intervals for $\beta_0$ and $\beta_1$

R code:

```
> confint(fit1)
              2.5 %      97.5 %
(Intercept) 8.213711 116.518006
LotSize      2.852435   4.287969
```

## 2.6 Confidence band for regression function

- Gives *region that entire regression line lies in* with certain probability/confidence.
- Given by

$$\hat{Y}_h \pm W \text{ se}\{\hat{Y}_h\} = b_0 + b_1 X_h \pm W \text{ se}\{b_0 + b_1 X_h\}$$

where  $W^2 = 2F(1 - \alpha; 2, n - 2)$

- Defined for  $X_h \in \mathbb{R}$ . Ignore for nonsense values of  $X_h$ .
- R code in Lab6.R

# Confidence band for regression function

