Stat 306: Finding Relationships in Data. Lecture 9 Section 3.3 + Section 3.6 (recap) + Section 3.7 + Section 3.8 + Section 3.10

3.3 Statistical model for multiple regression

The main assumption of linear regression is that the outcomes, Y_i , (for i = 1,...,n), are independently normally distributed. This follows directly from our model:

 $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip} + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad \epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ independently.

(3.36)

3.6 Interval estimates and standard errors

From θ, define statistic,		Step 1: Consider th statistic, $\hat{\theta}$ random va	he sample , as a _ E[ep 2: etermine $\hat{\Theta}$] (to confirm it's unbiased) ar[$\hat{\Theta}$] (to calculate se)		Step 3: Define $se(\hat{\theta}) =$ estimate of $\sqrt{2}$	[tep 4: Define $1-\alpha)$ % C.I. = $\hat{\theta} \pm c \times se(\hat{\theta})$	
parar or "sor	Ilation meter mething uld like to ite"	Samp statis ("esti		Estimator as a Random Variable	5	Expected Value of the estimator	•	Variance of the estimator	Standard Error of estimator	Confidence Interval
β		$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}^T)$	$1.$ $\mathbf{\mathbf{X}}^{T}\mathbf{\mathbf{X}}^{T}\mathbf{\mathbf{y}}$	$\mathbf{B} \sim 2$ $\mathbf{N}(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}$	2. ')	E[b] = β	3.	Var[B] 4. = $\sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$	se(b) 5. = $\hat{\sigma} \sqrt{[(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}]_{j}}$	C.I. for β 6.
σ^2		s ² or l	MS(Res)	S ²		E[S ²]		Var[S ²]	se(s ²)	C.I. for σ^2
$\mu_{Y(2)}$	x)	$(\hat{\mu}_Y($	(x))	$(\hat{\mu}_Y(x))$		$E(\hat{\mu}_Y(x))$		$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\mu}_Y(x))$	$se(\hat{\mu}_Y(x))$	C.I. for $\mu_Y(x)$



(3.10)

(3.11)

We obtain the estimator that minimize the Sum of squares by simple matrix calculus:

$$SS(\mathbf{b}) = (\mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{b})^{2} = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})$$
$$\frac{\delta SS(\mathbf{b})}{\delta \mathbf{b}} = 0$$
$$See 3.29 \text{ and } 3.30$$
$$\Rightarrow$$
$$(\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{X})\hat{\mathbf{b}} = \mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{y}$$
or $\hat{\mathbf{b}} = (\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{y}$

Equation (3.11) assumes that $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$ is a non-singular matrix so that its inverse is defined. The discussion of a condition for non-singularity is given in Section 3.11.

Basic information on matrix calculus: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Matrix_calculus

2.

- Thing 1:
 - Linear combinations of independent normal random variables also have normal distributions! (see Appendix B)



or stated explicitly in terms of vectors and matrices:

• If $Y \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\mu, \Sigma)$, then if we have a linear combination of Y, CY, where C is $(q \times n)$, then $CY \sim \mathcal{N}_q(C\mu, C\Sigma C')$.

Then we have that B is normally distributed random vector, since:

From (3.11), with $\hat{\mathbf{B}} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ as a random vector, and k = p + 1 as the dimension of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$,

(3.66)

$$\hat{\mathbf{B}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Y},$$
(3.67)

$$\hat{\mathbf{A}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{a}_0^T \\ \mathbf{a}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_p^T \end{pmatrix},$$
(3.68)

$$(k \times n) \qquad (k \times k) \quad (k \times n)$$

Is the least squares estimator for **β** unbiased ? Does E[b] = β ?

Proof that $\hat{\beta}$ is an unbiased estimator of β .

We know from earlier that $\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'y$ and that $y = X\beta + \epsilon$. This means that

$$\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'(X\beta + \epsilon)$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \beta + (X'X)^{-1}X'\epsilon$$
(24)

since $(X'X)^{-1}X'X = I$. This shows immediately that OLS is unbiased so long as either (i) X is fixed (non-stochastic) so that we have:

$$E[\hat{\beta}] = E[\beta] + E[(X'X)^{-1}X'\epsilon]$$

= $\beta + (X'X)^{-1}X'E[\epsilon]$ (25)

where $E[\epsilon] = 0$ by assumption or (ii) X is stochastic but independent of ϵ so that we have:

$$E[\hat{\beta}] = E[\beta] + E[(X'X)^{-1}X'\epsilon]$$

= $\beta + (X'X)^{-1}E[X'\epsilon]$ (26)

where $E(X'\epsilon) = 0$.

source: https://web.stanford.edu/~mrosenfe/soc_meth_proj3/matrix_OLS_NYU_notes.pdf



We have that: Var(B) = Var(AY) Var(B) = A Var(Y) A^{T}

More information: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Covariance_matrix#Generalization_of_the_variance

We also have that the variance-covariance matrix of **Y** (random vector of length n) is $Var(Y) = \sigma^2 I_n$, where I_n is the n by n identity matrix.

Therefore, following equations 3.69 – 3.72, we have:

5.

Since a standard error is defined as an estimated square root of the variance of an estimator,

(3.77)
$$se(\hat{\beta}_j) = \hat{\sigma}\sqrt{[(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}]_{jj}}, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, p.$$

6.

For 95% confidence intervals for β 's or subpopulation means, or for 95% prediction intervals, the appropriate SE is multiplied by $t_{n-k,0.975}$ to get the margin of error to add/substract from the point estimate.

95% Confidence Interval:

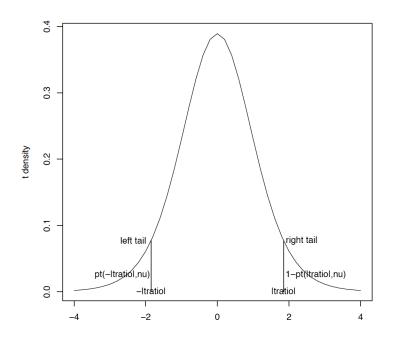
b +/- $t_{n-k,0.975}$ se(**b**)

```
> betahat[1] - qt(0.975, n-k)*sqrt(MS_Res)*sqrt(solve(t(X)%*%X)[1,1])
[1] 1.96994
> betahat[1] + qt(0.975, n-k)*sqrt(MS_Res)*sqrt(solve(t(X)%*%X)[1,1])
[1] 44.56221
> betahat[2] - qt(0.975, n-k)*sqrt(MS_Res)*sqrt(solve(t(X)%*%X)[2,2])
[1] 0.1792634
> betahat[2] + qt(0.975, n-k)*sqrt(MS_Res)*sqrt(solve(t(X)%*%X)[2,2])
[1] 1.183658
> betahat[3] - qt(0.975, n-k)*sqrt(MS_Res)*sqrt(solve(t(X)%*%X)[3,3])
[1] -0.6870086
> betahat[3] + qt(0.975, n-k)*sqrt(MS_Res)*sqrt(solve(t(X)%*%X)[3,3])
[1] 0.1327291
> confint(lm(y~x1+x2))
                           97.5 %
                 2.5 %
(Intercept) 1.9699396 44.5622139
             0.1792634
                        1.1836579
x1
x2
            -0.6870086
                       0.1327291
```

Using the R function $pt(\cdot, \nu)$ for the cdf of a t_{ν} random variable, the 2-sided P-value is $2[1-pt(|tratio|, \nu)]$ (see Figure 3.2).

Common thresholds for P-values are 0.10, 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001. Let $t_j = \hat{\beta}_j / se(\hat{\beta}_j)$ be the t-ratio for variable x_j .

Figure 3.2: P-value based on t_{ν} density; by symmetry, the left-tail area and right-tail area are the same. The sum of the two tail areas is the P-value.



```
> x1 <- c(82, 45, 71, 22, 29, 9, 12, 18, 24)
> x2 <- c(26, 49, 76, 37, 40, 0, 2, 10, 92)
> y <- c(71, 54, 43, 45, 21, 11, 30, 45, 10)
> n <- 9
> x1bar <- (1/n)*sum(x1)</pre>
> sx1 <- sqrt( sum((x1-x1bar)^2)/(n-1) )</pre>
>
> x2bar <- (1/n)*sum(x2)</pre>
> sx2 <- sqrt( sum((x2-x2bar)^2)/(n-1) )</pre>
>
> ybar <- (1/n)*sum(y)
> sy <- sqrt( sum((y-ybar)^2)/(n-1) )</pre>
>
> sx1y <- (1/(n-1))*sum((x1-x1bar)*(y-ybar))</pre>
> rx1y <- sx1y/(sx1*sy)</pre>
>
> sx2y <- (1/(n-1))*sum((x2-x2bar)*(y-ybar))</pre>
> rx2y <- sx2y/(sx2*sy)</pre>
>
> X <- cbind(1,x1,x2)
> y <- cbind(y)
```

- > betahat <- solve(t(X) %*% X) %*% t(X) %*% y
 > betahat
- y 23.2660767 x1 0.6814606
- x2 -0.2771398

```
>
```

- > yhat <- X%*%betahat</pre>
- > k <- dim(X)[2]</pre>
- > p <- k-1

```
> residuals <- yhat-y</pre>
```

```
> SS_Res <- sum(residuals^2)</pre>
```

```
> SS_Res
```

```
[1] 1159.452
```

```
> MS_Res <- SS_Res/(n-k)</pre>
```

> se_betahat0<-sqrt(MS_Res)*sqrt(solve(t(X)%*%X)[1,1])</pre> > se_betahat1<-sqrt(MS_Res)*sqrt(solve(t(X)%*%X)[2,2])</pre> > se_betahat2<-sqrt(MS_Res)*sqrt(solve(t(X)%*%X)[3,3])</pre> > > tratio0 <- betahat[1]/se_betahat0</pre> > tratio1 <- betahat[2]/se_betahat1</p> > tratio2 <- betahat[3]/se_betahat2</p> > > # two-sided p-values: > 2*(1-pt(abs(tratio0), n-k)) [1] 0.0368661 > 2*(1-pt(abs(tratio1), n-k))

```
[1] 0.01599726
> 2*(1-pt(abs(tratio2), n-k))
```

```
[1] 0.1491044
```

3.6 Interval estimates and standard errors

Step 0:Step 1:From θ , define estimator, $\hat{\theta}$ Consider the statistic, $\hat{\theta}$ random value				Step 3: Define $se(\hat{\theta}) =$ estimate of $\sqrt{2}$	D0 (1	Step 4: Define $(1-\alpha)\%$ C.I. = $\hat{\theta} \pm c \times se(\hat{\theta})$			
Population parameter or "something we would like to estimate"	Samp statis ("est		Estimator as a Random Variable	S	Expected Value of the estimator	ie	Variance of the estimator	Standard Error of estimator	Confidence Interval
β	$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{b} \\ = (\mathbf{X}^{T}) \end{vmatrix}$	1.	$\mathbf{B} \sim \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{\beta}, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^-$	<mark>2</mark> . 1)	E[b] = β	3.	Var[B] 4 . = $\sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$	$se(b) = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{[(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}]_{jj}}$	C.I. for β 6.
σ^2	s ² or	MS(Res) 1.	S ²	2.	E[S ²]	3.	Var[S ²]	se(s ²)	C.I. for σ^2
$\mu_{Y}(\mathbf{x})$	$(\hat{\mu}_Y)$	(x))	$(\hat{\mu}_Y(x))$		$E(\hat{\mu}_Y(x))$		$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\mu}_Y(x))$	$se(\hat{\mu}_Y(x))$	C.I. for $\mu_Y(x)$

MS(Res) is our estimator for σ^2

• Sum of squares of residuals

(3.41)
$$SS(Res) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2.$$

• Mean square of residuals or estimated σ^2 :

(3.42)
$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = (n-k)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = (n-k)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (e_i - \bar{e})^2 = \frac{SS(Res)}{(n-k)} = MS(Res).$$

The residual standard deviation (called residual standard error in R output) is the sample standard deviation of the residuals with a denominator of n - k instead of n - 1. A mathematical explanation of this denominator is given in Section 3.7. A property of the residuals after a least squares fit is that

(3.43)
$$\bar{e} = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i = 0$$
 Type: should be n-2



MS(Res) is an unbiased estimator for σ^{2} .

This is explained in Section 3.7

3.7 Denominator of the residual SD

The quantity $\hat{\sigma}^2$ in (3.42), also known as the mean square of residuals, in matrix form is:

(3.92)
$$MS(Res) = \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e}}{n-k} = \frac{SS(Res)}{n-k},$$

where e_i is defined in (3.40) and $\mathbf{e} = (e_1, \dots, e_n)^T$ is the column vector of residuals. From (3.39) and (3.40), $e_i = y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} - \dots - \hat{\beta}_p x_{ip}$ so that

 $(3.93) e = y - X\hat{\beta}$

$$(3.94) \qquad \qquad = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

(3.95)
$$= (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T) \mathbf{y}$$

 Let

(3.96)
$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T = (P_{ij})_{1 \le i,j \le n}.$$



MS(Res) is an unbiased estimator for σ^{2} .

This is explained in Section 3.7

3.7 Denominator of the residual SD

This is called the *projection matrix* in Section 4.3. Note that $\mathbf{P}^T = \mathbf{P}$ and

(3.97)
$$\mathbf{P}^2 = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T$$

$$(3.98) \qquad \qquad = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T = \mathbf{P};$$

a matrix whose square is itself is said to be *idempotent*. Check that $(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P})^T = \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P}$ and that (3.98) implies $(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P})^2 = \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P}$.

Now, we can compute the expected value of SS(Res)) as a random variable, with **E** as the random vector version of the residual vector **e**:

$$(3.99) \mathbb{E}[SS(Res)] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{E}] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Y}^T (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P})(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P})\mathbf{Y}]$$

$$(3.100) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Y}^T (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P})\mathbf{Y}]$$

$$(3.101) = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon})^T (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P})(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon})]$$

$$(3.102) = \mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P})\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + 2\boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P})\boldsymbol{\epsilon}] + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^T (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P})\boldsymbol{\epsilon}]$$

$$(3.103) = \mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^T (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P})\boldsymbol{\epsilon}]$$



MS(Res) is an unbiased estimator for $\sigma^{2.}$

This is explained in Section 3.7

3.7 Denominator of the residual SD

$$(3.99) \mathbb{E}[SS(Res)] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{F}^{T}\mathbf{E}] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Y}^{T}(\mathbf{I}_{n} - \mathbf{P})(\mathbf{I}_{n} - \mathbf{P})\mathbf{Y}]$$

$$(3.100) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Y}^{T}(\mathbf{I}_{n} - \mathbf{P})\mathbf{Y}]$$

$$(3.101) = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon})^{T}(\mathbf{I}_{n} - \mathbf{P})(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon})]$$

$$(3.102) = \mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{\beta}^{T}\mathbf{X}^{T}(\mathbf{I}_{n} - \mathbf{P})\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + 2\boldsymbol{\beta}^{T}\mathbf{X}^{T}(\mathbf{I}_{n} - \mathbf{P})\boldsymbol{\epsilon}] + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{T}(\mathbf{I}_{n} - \mathbf{P})\boldsymbol{\epsilon}]$$

$$(3.103) = \mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{T}(\mathbf{I}_{n} - \mathbf{P})\boldsymbol{\epsilon}]$$

$$(3.104) \mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{T}(\mathbf{I}_{n} - \mathbf{P})\boldsymbol{\epsilon}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n}(1 - P_{ii})\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i}^{2} + 2\sum_{i < j}(0 - P_{ij})\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{j}\right]$$

$$(3.105) = \sum_{i=1}^{n}(1 - P_{ii})\sigma^{2} + 0 = \sigma^{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(1 - P_{ii})$$

$$(3.106) = \sigma^{2}\operatorname{trace}(\mathbf{I}_{n} - \mathbf{P})$$

$$(3.107) = \sigma^{2}[\operatorname{trace}(\mathbf{I}_{n}) - \operatorname{trace}(\mathbf{P})]$$

$$(3.108) = \sigma^{2}[n - k],$$

because trace $(\mathbf{P}) = \text{trace}\left[(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}\right] = \text{trace}\left(\mathbf{I}_k\right) = k$. Hence $\operatorname{E}\left[MS(Res)\right] = (n-k)^{-1} \operatorname{E}\left[SS(Res)\right] = \sigma^2$, or MS(Res) is an unbiased estimator of σ^2 .



MS(Res) is an unbiased estimator for σ^{2} .

This is explained in Section 3.7

3.7 Denominator of the residual SD

In different textbooks notation can be a bit different. For example, from "Introduction to Linear Regression Analysis" by Douglas C. Montgomery, we have:

The expected value for SS_{Res} is

$$E(SS_{\text{Res}}) = E(\mathbf{y}' [\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}']\mathbf{y})$$

= trace([$\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'$] $\sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}$) + $E(\mathbf{y})' [\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}']E(\mathbf{y})$
= $(n - k)\sigma^{2}$

As a result,

$$E(MS_{\text{Res}}) = E\left(\frac{SS_{\text{Res}}}{n-k}\right) = \sigma^2$$

3.6 Interval estimates and standard errors

Step 0:Step 1:From θ , define estimator, $\hat{\theta}$ Consider the statistic, $\hat{\theta}$ random value					Step 3: Define $se(\hat{\theta}) =$ estimate of $\sqrt{2}$	D (1	Step 4:Define $(1-\alpha)\%$ C.1. = $\hat{\theta} \pm c \times se(\hat{\theta})$		
Population parameter or "something we would like to estimate"	Samp statis ("est		Estimator a Random Variable		Expected Value of the estimator	ne	Variance of the estimator	Standard Error of estimator	Confidence Interval
β	\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}^2)	1.	B ~ N(β, σ^2 (X ^T X)	2.) ⁻¹)	E[b] = β	3.	Var[B] 4 . = $\sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$	se(b) 5. = $\hat{\sigma} \sqrt{[(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}]_{jj}}$	C.I. for β 6.
σ^2	s ² or	MS(Res) 1.	S ²	2.	E[S ²]	3.	Var[S ²]	se(s ²)	C.I. for σ^2
$\mu_{Y}(\mathbf{x})$	$(\hat{\mu}_Y)$	(x)) 1.	$(\hat{\mu}_Y(x))$	2.	$E(\hat{\mu}_Y(x))$	3.	$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\mu}_Y(x))$ 4.	$se(\hat{\mu}_Y(x))$ 5.	C.I. for $\mu_Y(x)$ 6.

1.2.3.4.5.6.

3.6 Interval estimates and standard errors

Next consider the subpopulation mean $\mu_Y(\mathbf{x}^*)$, where $\mathbf{x}^* = (1, x_1^*, \dots, x_p^*)^T$. The point estimate is

(3.78)
$$\hat{\mu}_Y(\mathbf{x}^*) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i^* + \dots + \hat{\beta}_p x_p^* = \mathbf{x}^{*T} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}.$$

As a random variable, the variance is

(3.79)	Step 2: Determine	$\operatorname{Var}\left[\hat{\mu}_{Y}(\mathbf{x}^{*}) ight]$	=	$\operatorname{Var}\left[\mathbf{x}^{*T}\hat{\mathbf{B}}\right] = \mathbf{x}^{*T}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\hat{\beta}}\mathbf{x}^{*}$	Step 1: Consider the sample	
(3.80)	$E[\hat{\Theta}]~$ (to confirm it's unbiased) $Var[\hat{\Theta}]$ (to calculate se)		=	$\sigma^2 \mathbf{x}^{*T} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{x}^*$	statistic, , as a random variable	

For the special case of p = 1, check that this is the same as (2.66). With the definition of the standard error,

(3.81)
$$se[\hat{\mu}_Y(\mathbf{x}^*)] = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\mathbf{x}^{*T} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{x}^*} . \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{Step 3:} \\ \text{Define} \\ se(\hat{\theta}) = \end{array}$$

95% Confidence Interval:

Step 4: Define
(1-α)% C.I. =
$\hat{\theta} \pm c \times se(\hat{\theta})$

$$\hat{\mu}_{Y}(\mathbf{x}^{*})$$
 +/- $t_{n-k,0.975}$ $se[\hat{\mu}_{Y}(\mathbf{x}^{*})]$ =

estimate of $\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\Theta})}$

Step 0: From θ, define estimator,

Bonus: Prediction intervals

Next consider the prediction $\hat{Y}(\mathbf{x}^*)$ for a future value at \mathbf{x}^* . Then

(3.82)
$$\hat{Y}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i^* + \dots + \hat{\beta}_p x_p^* = \mathbf{x}^{*T} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$$

is the same as the subpopulation mean in (3.78), which could be considered as the average of many observations at \mathbf{x}^* . Assuming the model is correct, the prediction error is

(3.83)
$$E = \hat{Y}(\mathbf{x}^*) - [\beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathbf{x}_1^* + \dots + \beta_p x_p^* + \epsilon(\mathbf{x}^*)],$$

where $\epsilon(\mathbf{x}^*) \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ independent of the previous data. Hence

(3.84)
$$\operatorname{Var}(E) = \operatorname{Var}[\mathbf{x}^{*T}\hat{\mathbf{B}}] + \operatorname{Var}[\epsilon(\mathbf{x}^{*})]$$

(3.85) $= \sigma^2 \mathbf{x}^{*T} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{x}^* + \sigma^2$

and for the prediction error E,

(3.86)
$$se[E] = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{1 + \mathbf{x}^{*T} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{x}^*}.$$

95% Prediction Interval:

 $\hat{Y}(\mathbf{x}^*)$ +/- $t_{n-k,0.975}$ se[E]

3.6 Interval estimates and standard errors

95% Prediction Interval:

> # 50 year o

У

$$\hat{Y}(\mathbf{x}^{*}): +/- t_{n-k,0.975} \ se[E]$$

$$se[E] = \hat{\sigma}\sqrt{1 + \mathbf{x}^{*T}(\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{x}^{*}}.$$
50 year old who make 30K\$ in income
* star <- c(1,50,30)
* star%*%betahat
[1,] 49.02491

```
[1,] 49.02491
>
> se_E <- sqrt(MS_Res)*sqrt(1 + t(xstar)%*%solve(t(X)%*%X)%*%xstar)</pre>
> se_E
         [,1]
[1,] 15.12614
> mu_xstar -qt(0.975, n-k)*se_E
            У
[1,] 12.01257
> mu_xstar +qt(0.975, n-k)*se_E
            У
[1,] 86.03726
>
> predict(lm(y~x1+x2), newdata=data.frame(1,x1=50,x2=30), se.fit=TRUE,interval="prediction")
$fit
       fit
                lwr
                          upr
1 49.02491 12.01257 86.03726
```

Chapter 3

3.1 Least squares with two or more explanatory variables

3.4 Statistical software output for multiple regression

- R^2 and adj R^2 and 3.4.1 Properties of R^2 and σ^2
- Sum of squares decomposition

3.5 Important explanatory variables

3.6 Interval estimates and standard errors

3.7 Denominator of the residual SD

3.8 Residual plots

- 3.9 Categorical explanatory variables
- 3.10 Partial correlation

Residual plots include the following.

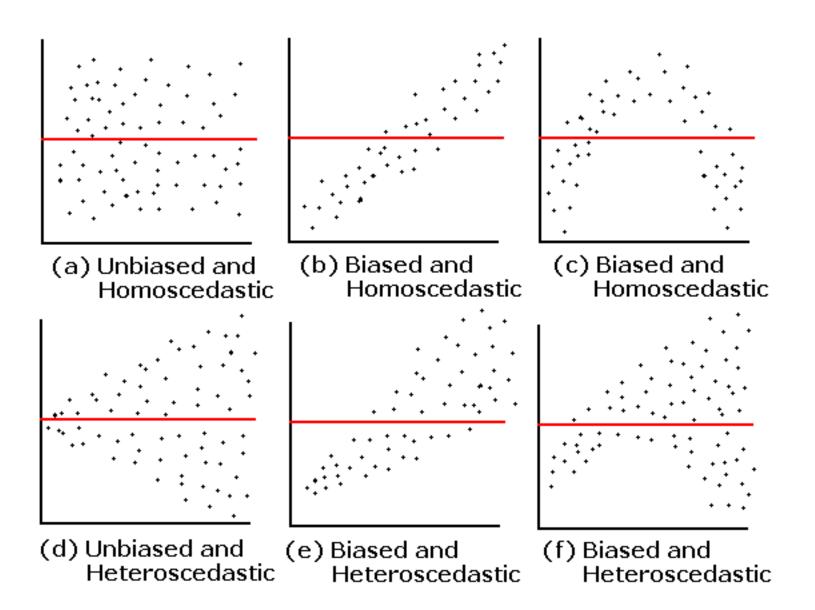
- (i) Check for homoscedasticity versus heteroscedasticity and possible structural deviations from model (plot of residuals versus predicted values, plots of residuals versus each explanatory variable).
- (ii) Check for normality (normal quantile plot of residuals) if the plots from (i) look OK.

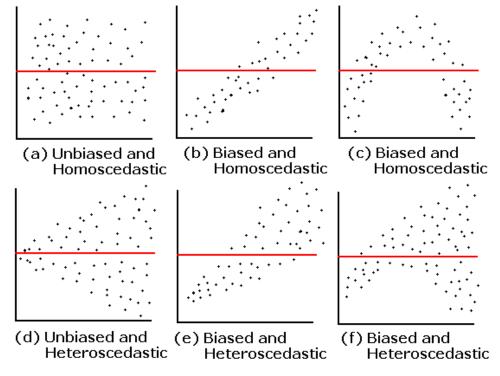
We are looking at the residuals to verify that our model is correct:

 $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip} + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad \epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ independently.

This model has the following assumptions:

- 1. residuals are independent
- 2. residuals are normally distributed
- 3. residuals all have common variance σ^2 (homoscedasticity)
 - -i.e. variance does not depend on any X or combination of X
- 4. Residuals have constant mean of 0 (i.e. no trends).

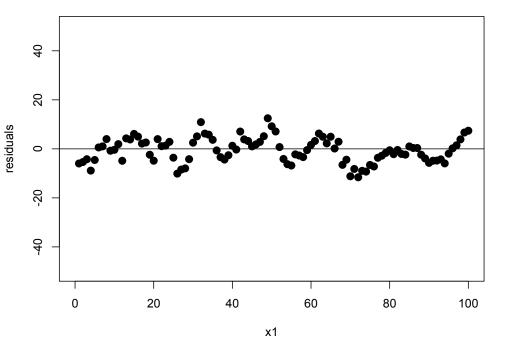




 $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip} + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad \epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ independently.

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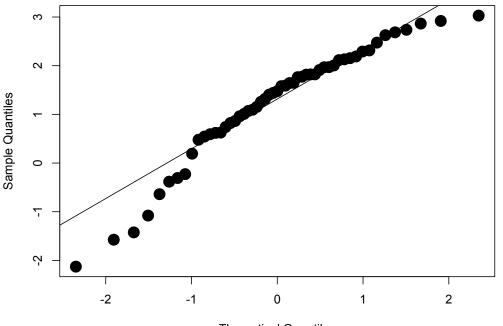
 $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip} + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad \epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ independently.

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Normal Q-Q Plot



Theoretical Quantiles

 $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip} + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad \epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ independently.

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- 4. Residuals have constant mean of 0 (i.e. no trends).

The art of linear regression

- Categorical predictors
- Quadratic (polynomial) relationships
- Outliers
- How to fix heterogeneity
- Regression to the mean
- Simpsons Paradox
- Unobserved Confounding



Chapter 3

3.1 Least squares with two or more explanatory variables

3.4 Statistical software output for multiple regression

- R^2 and adj R^2 and 3.4.1 Properties of R^2 and σ^2
- Sum of squares decomposition

3.5 Important explanatory variables

3.6 Interval estimates and standard errors

- 3.7 Denominator of the residual SD
- 3.8 Residual plots

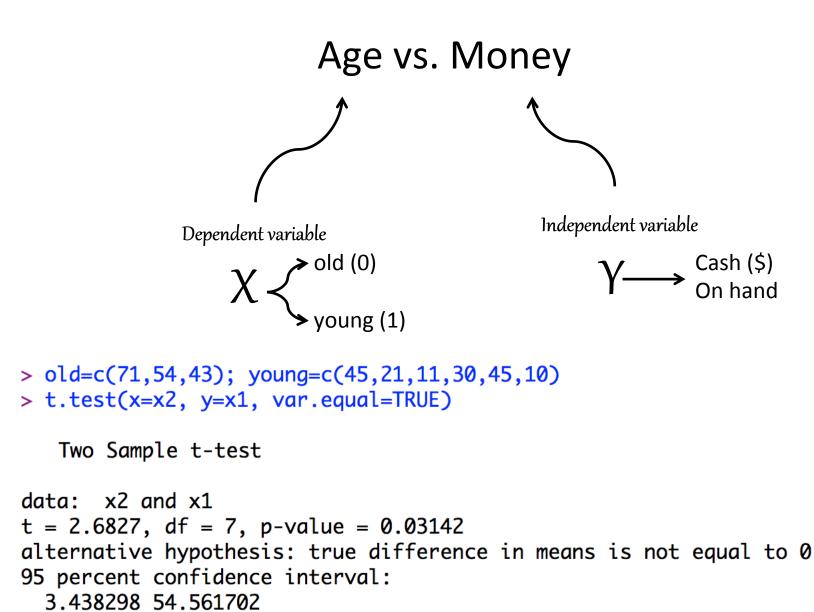
3.9 Categorical explanatory variables

3.10 Partial correlation

Age vs. Money Independent variable Dependent variable Cash (\$) On hand ➤ old (0) young (1) Sample, n=9 **Population** Population Sample statistics parameters μ_0 , μ_1 , σ^2

Hypothesis Test $H_0: \mu_0 = \mu_1$ $H_1: \mu_0 \neq \mu_1$ Sample statistics $\bar{y}_0 = 56$ $\bar{y}_1 = 27$ $\bar{y}_0 - \bar{y}_1 = 29$ $s_p = 10.81$ t = 2.68, df = 7 p-value = 0.03 95% C.I. = [3.4, 54.6]

		-,
	X	у
P	old	71
	old	54
Ť	old	43
	young	45
	young	21
	young	11
	young	30
İ	young	45
)	young	10

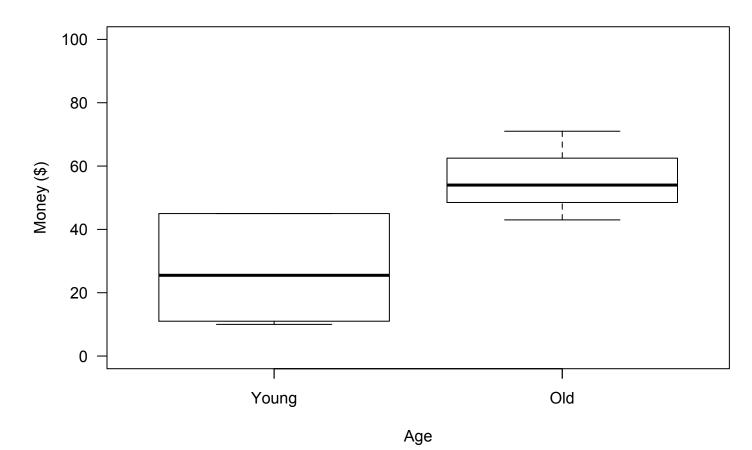


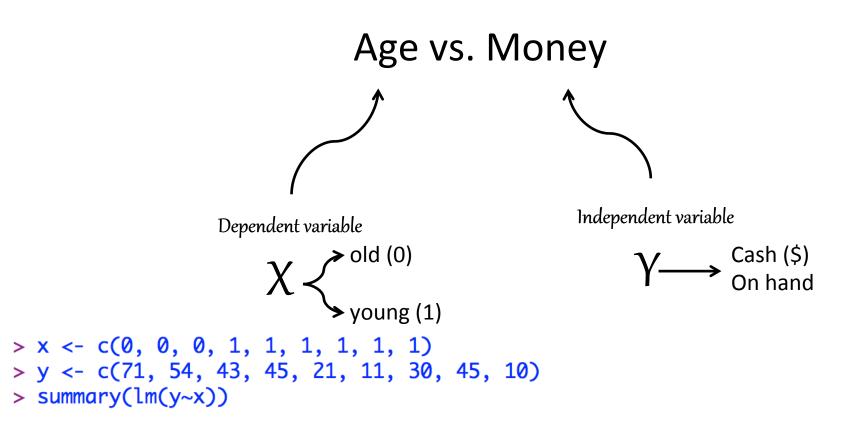
sample estimates:

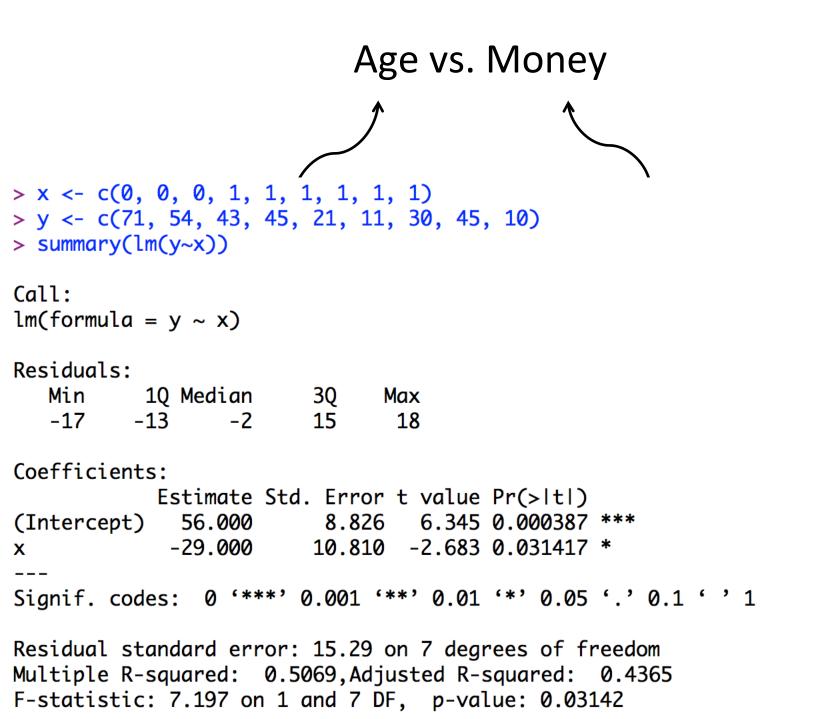
mean of x mean of y 56 27

Age vs. Money

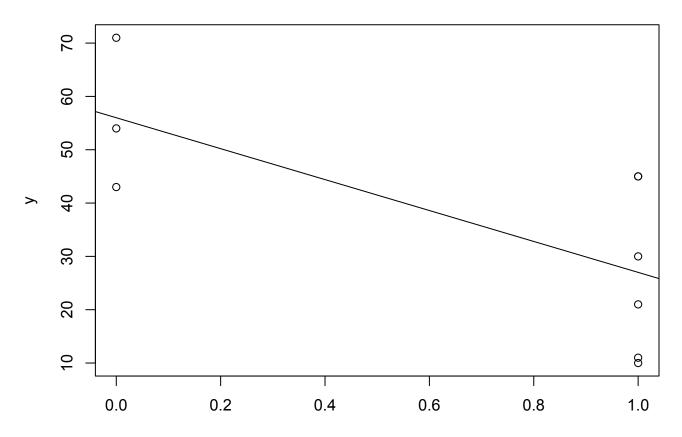






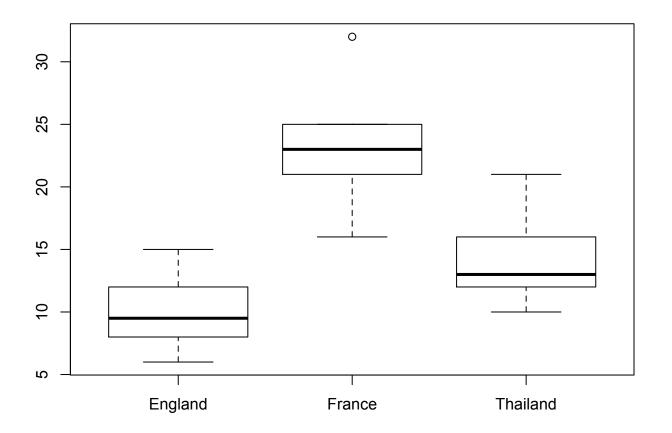


Age vs. Money

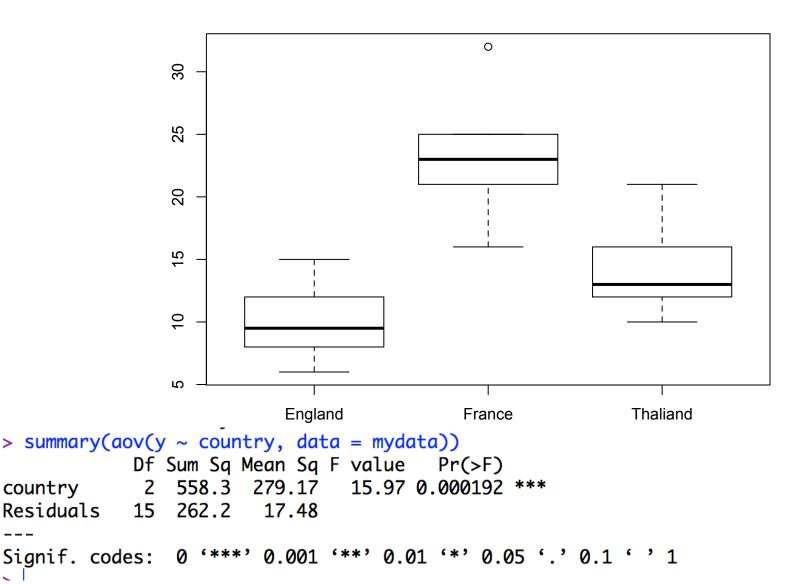


Х

> plot(y~x)
> abline(lm(y~x))

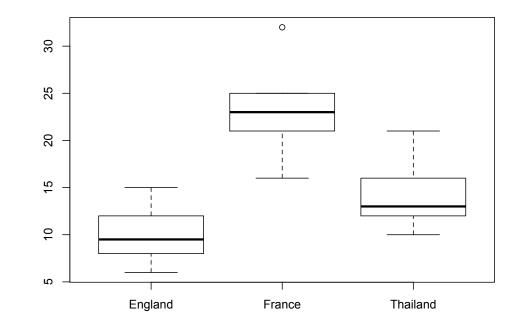


> country<-c(rep("France",6),rep("England",6),rep("Thailand",6))
> y<-c(23, 25, 21, 32, 16, 23, 15, 10, 8, 9, 6, 12, 13, 13, 12, 21, 16, 10)
> boxplot(y~country)
> |



> data.frame(y, country)

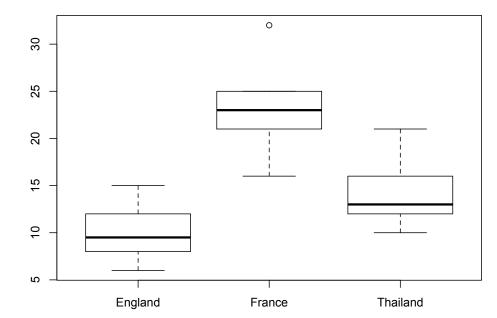
- y country 1 23 France
- 2 25 France
- 3 21 France
- 4 32 France
- 5 16 France
- 6 23 France
- 7 15 England
- 8 10 England
- 9 8 England
- 10 9 England
- 11 6 England
- 12 12 England
- 13 13 Thailand
- 14 13 Thailand
- 15 12 Thailand
- 16 21 Thailand
- 17 16 Thailand
- 18 10 Thailand



> data.frame(y, country, x=as.numeric(as.factor(mydata\$country))-1)

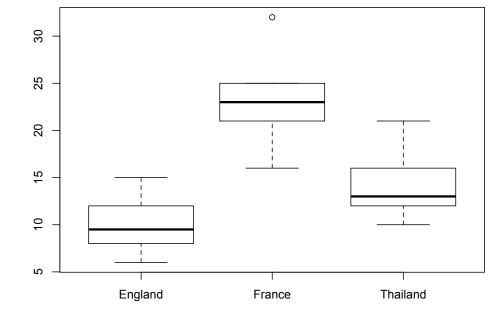
country x У

- 1 23 France 1
- 2 25 France 1
- 3 21 France 1
- 32 France 1 4
- 5 16 France 1
- 6 23 France 1
- England 0 7 15
- England 0 8 10
- 9 8 England 0
- 9 England 0 10
- 11 6 England 0
- England 0 12 12
- 13 Thailand 2 13
- Thailand 2 13 14
- 12 Thailand 2 15
- 21 Thailand 2 16
- 16 Thailand 2 17
- 10 Thailand 2 18



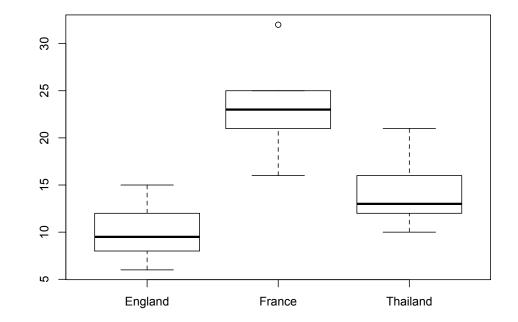
> data.frame(y, country, x=as.numeric(as.factor(mydata\$country))-1)

country x У France 1 France 1 France 1 France 1 France 1 France ⊿ lan an **Miland** Thailand 2 Thailand 2



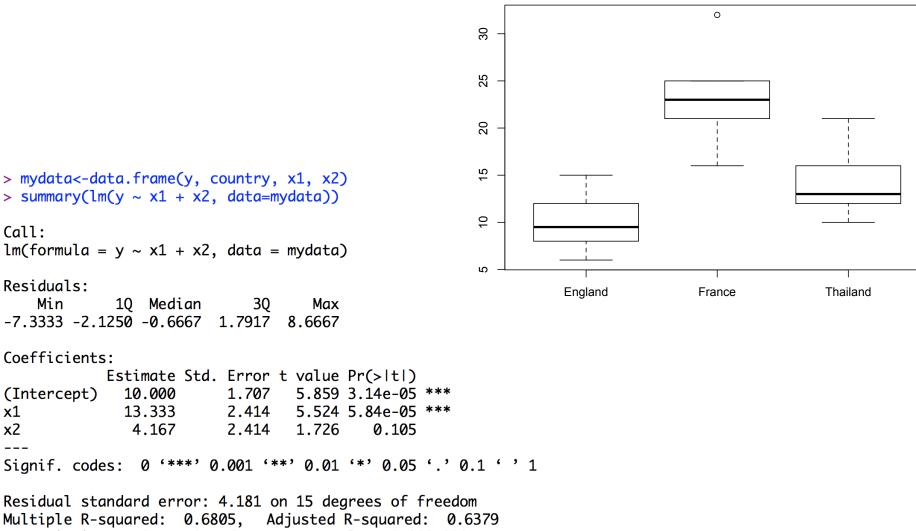
17 16 Thailand 2 18 10 Thailand 2

> data.frame(y, country, x1, x2) country x1 x2 У France France France France France France England England England England England England Thailand Thailand 12 Thailand 21 Thailand 16 Thailand Thailand



```
> mydata<-data.frame(y, country, x1, x2)</pre>
> summary(lm(y \sim x1 + x2, data=mydata))
Call:
lm(formula = y \sim x1 + x2, data = mydata)
Residuals:
            10 Median 30
   Min
                                 Max
-7.3333 -2.1250 -0.6667 1.7917 8.6667
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
             10.000 1.707 5.859 3.14e-05 ***
(Intercept)
   13.333 2.414 5.524 5.84e-05 ***
x1
x2
            4.167 2.414 1.726 0.105
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 4.181 on 15 degrees of freedom
```

Multiple R-squared: 0.6805, Adjusted R-squared: 0.6379 F-statistic: 15.97 on 2 and 15 DF, p-value: 0.0001922

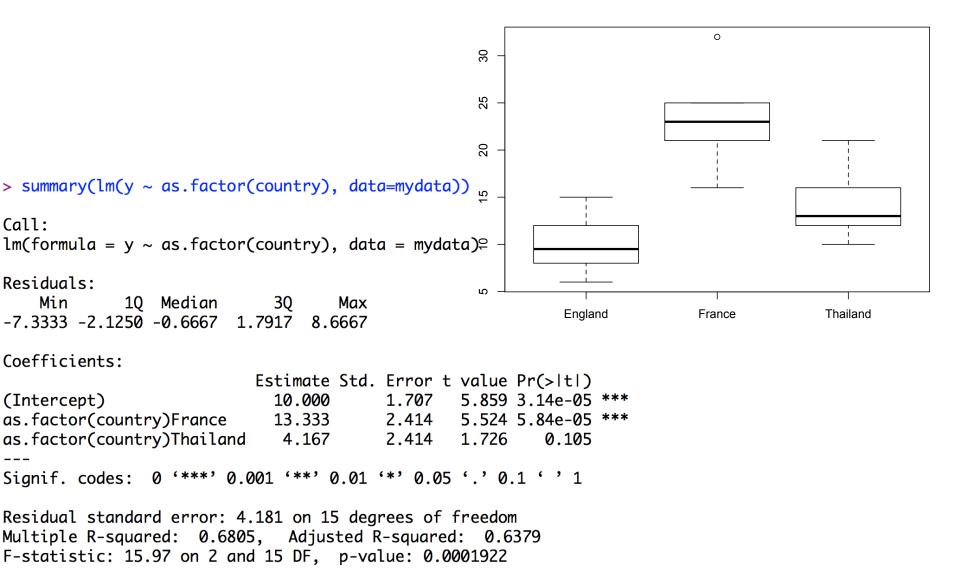


F-statistic: 15.97 on 2 and 15 DF, p-value: 0.0001922

Call:

x1

x2



How do we interpret this model?

```
> x3 < -c(34, 39, 32, 44, 22, 39, 41, 33, 37, 37, 27, 36, 67, 65, 56, 68, 60, 59)
> x3
[1] 34 39 32 44 22 39 41 33 37 37 27 36 67 65 56 68 60 59
> mydata<-data.frame(y, country, x1, x2, x3)</pre>
> summary(lm(y \sim x1 + x2 + x3, data=mydata))
Call:
lm(formula = y \sim x1 + x2 + x3, data = mydata)
Residuals:
            1Q Median
   Min
                            3Q
                                   Max
-3.7297 -2.1410 0.1536 1.5329 3.7008
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -10.0295 4.0969 -2.448 0.028149 *
      13.4283 1.4859 9.037 3.23e-07 ***
x1
           -11.4013 3.4177 -3.336 0.004899 **
x2
             0.5696 0.1126 5.058 0.000175 ***
х3
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 2.574 on 14 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.887, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8628
F-statistic: 36.63 on 3 and 14 DF, p-value: 7.02e-07
```

How do we make predictions from this model?

```
> x3<-c(34, 39, 32, 44, 22, 39, 41, 33, 37, 37, 27, 36, 67, 65, 56, 68, 60, 59)
> x3
[1] 34 39 32 44 22 39 41 33 37 37 27 36 67 65 56 68 60 59
> mydata<-data.frame(y, country, x1, x2, x3)</pre>
> summary(lm(y \sim x1 + x2 + x3, data=mydata))
Call:
lm(formula = y \sim x1 + x2 + x3, data = mydata)
Residuals:
            1Q Median
   Min
                           3Q
                                   Max
-3.7297 -2.1410 0.1536 1.5329 3.7008
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -10.0295 4.0969 -2.448 0.028149 *
     13.4283 1.4859 9.037 3.23e-07 ***
x1
           -11.4013 3.4177 -3.336 0.004899 **
x2
             0.5696 0.1126 5.058 0.000175 ***
х3
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
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```