## 廻 歸 分 析（一）

Kutner＇s Applied Linear Statistical Models（5／E）

## 授課教師：吳漢銘國立政治大學統計學系

開課單位：統計二
科目代碼： 304008001
教學網站：http：／／www．hmwu．idv．tw

系級： $\qquad$學號： $\qquad$姓名： $\qquad$


ALSM：Companion to Applied Linear Statistical Models
Functions and Data set presented in Applied Linear Statistical Models Fifth Edition（Chapters 1－9 and 16－25），Michael H．Kutner；Christopher J．
Nachtsheim；John Neter；William Li，2005．（ISBN－10：0071122214，
ISBN－13：978－0071122214）that do not exist in R，are gathered in this package．The whole book will be covered in the next versions．

Version：$\quad 0.2 .0$
Depends：$\quad R(\geq 3.0 .0)$ ，stats，graphics，leaps，SuppDists，car
Published：2017－03－07
Author：Ali Ghanbari
Maintainer：Ali Ghanbari＜a．ghanbari541 at gmail．com＞
License：$\quad \underline{\text { GPL－2 }} \mid \underline{\text { GPL－3 }}$
NeedsCompilation：no
CRAN checks：ALSM results


## 111 學年度第 2 學期

## Contents

## PART I ：SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION

Ch 1 Linear Regression with One Predictor Variable
Ch 2 Inferences in Regression and Correlation Analysis
Ch 3 Diagnostics and Remedial Measures
Ch 4 Simultaneous Inferences and Other Topics in Regression Analysis
Ch 5 Matrix Approach to Simple Linear Regression Analysis
PART II ：MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION
Ch 6 Multiple Regression I
Ch 7 Multiple Regression II
Ch 8 Regression Models for Quantitative and Qualitative Predictors
Ch 9 Building the Regression Model I：Model Selection and Validation
Ch10 Building the Regression Model II：Diagnostics
Ch11 Building the Regression Model III：Remedial Measures
Ch12 Autocorrelation in Time Series Data

## PART III ：NONLINEAR REGRESSION

Ch13 Introduction to Nonlinear Regression and Neural Networks
Ch14 Logistic Regression，Poisson Regression，and Generalized Linear Models Ch15～Ch30

附錄：110－1 學年第1學期小考題，期中考題，期末考題。

## 叮嚀

A．平常就要唸書，做習題。
B．考過的題目，要主動訂正。
C．上課以「互相尊重」為最高原則並盡到「告知老師」的義務。
D．上課可小聲討論，上廁所安靜去回，不鼓勵飲食。（請一定要維護教室整潔）
E．四不一要：「上課不聊天，睡覺不趴著，手機不要滑，考試不作弊，要認真 ｣

## Regression Analysis（I）

Kutner＇s Applied Linear Statistical Models（5／E）
Chapter 1：Linear Regression with One Predictor Variable

Thursday 09：10－12：00，商館 260205
Han－Ming Wu
Department of Statistics，National Chengchi University
http：／／www．hmwu．idv．tw

## Overview

1．Regression analysis（迴歸分析）is a $\qquad$ that utilizes the relation between two or more $\qquad$ so that a $\qquad$ or $\qquad$ variable can be predicted from the other，or others．

2．Examples：general form of a regression model $\qquad$ ：
（a）$Y$ ：the sales of a product，$X$ ：the amount of advertising expenditures（支出）．
（b）$Y$ ：the performance of an employee on a job，$X$ ：a battery of aptitude tests （能力傾向成套測驗，性向測驗）．
（c）$Y$ ：the size of the vocabulary of a child，$X_{1}$ ：age of the child，$X_{2}$ ：amount of education of the parents．
（d）$Y$ ：the length of hospital stay of a surgical patient，$X_{1}$ ：the time in the hospital， $X_{2}$ ：the severity of the operation．

3．In this chapter，we consider the basic ideas of regression analysis and discuss the
$\qquad$ of regression models containing a single predictor variable．

### 1.1 Relations between Variables

## Functional Relation between Two Variables

1. A $\qquad$ relation between two variables is expressed by a $\qquad$
formula. If $X$ denotes the $\qquad$ variable and $Y$ the $\qquad$ variable, a functional relation is of the form:
2. Example: $Y$ : dollar sales of a product sold at a fixed price, $X$ : the number of units sold. If the selling price is $\$ 2$ per unit, the relation is expressed by the equation:
$\qquad$ .


## Statistical Relation between Two Variables

1. In general, the observations for a statistical relation do not $\qquad$ the curve of relationship.
2. Example 1: Performance evaluations
(a) Performance evaluations for 10 employees were obtained at midyear $(X)$ and at year-end $(Y)$.
(b) Figure 1.2a: the $\qquad$ the midyear evaluation, the $\qquad$ tends to be the year-end evaluation.
(c) Figure 1.2b: a $\qquad$ that describes the statistical relation between midyear and year-end evaluations.
（d）Note：that most of the points do not fall directly on the line of statisti－ cal relationship．This $\qquad$ around the line represents
$\qquad$ in year－end evaluations that is not associated with midyear per－ formance evaluation and that is usually considered to be of a $\qquad$ ．

FIGURE 1．2 Statistical Relation between Midyear Performance Evaluation and Year－End Evaluation．
（a）
Scatter Plot

（b）
Scatter Plot and Line of Statistical Relationship


## 3．Example 2：

（a）The data on age and level of a steroid（類固醇）in plasma（血漿）for 27 healthy females between 8 and 25 years old．（Figure 1．3）
（b）The data strongly suggest that the statistical relationship is $\qquad$ （not linear）．
（c）As age $\qquad$ ，steroid level $\qquad$ up to a point and then begins to $\qquad$ ．
FIGURE 1．3 Curvilinear Statistical Relation between Age and Steroid Level in．Healthy Females Aged 8 to 25.


## 1．2 Regression Models and Their Uses

## Historical Origins

1．Regression analysis was first developed by $\qquad$ in the latter part of the $\qquad$ ．

2．Galton had studied the relation between $\qquad$ and noted that the heights of children of both tall and short parents appeared to
$\qquad$ （回復）or $\qquad$ （回歸）to the $\qquad$ ．

3．He considered this tendency to be a regression to $\qquad$
4．Galton developed a mathematical description of this $\qquad$ ，the precursor of today＇s regression models．

5．The term regression persists to this day to describe $\qquad$ ．
（－）行銷資料科學：小時了了，大未必佳 迴歸均值的有趣現象：
https：／／medium．com／marketingdatascience／d5f8e5e73163．
© 均值廻歸（regression toward the mean）現象：當一個特性的極端傾向發生時，會有返回這項特性的平均值（regression toward mediocrity）。
（）例子：身高較高的父母，其子女的平均身高，要低於他們父母的平均身高，不會長得更高；相對的，身高比較矮的父母，其子女的平均身高，要高於他們父母的平均身高，不會變得更矮。

## Basic Concepts

1．A regression model is：
（a）A tendency of the $\qquad$ variable $Y$ to vary with the $\qquad$ variable $X$ in a $\qquad$ fashion．
（b）A scattering of points around the $\qquad$ of statistical relationship．

2．Assumptions for a regression model：
（a）There is a $\qquad$ （機率分佈）of $Y$ for each level of $X$ ．
(b) The $\qquad$ of these probability distributions vary in some systematic fashion with $\qquad$ . $\qquad$
3. Example: Performance evaluation (Figure 1.2)
(a) The year-end evaluation $Y$ is treated in a regression model as a $\qquad$ . For each level of midyear performance evaluation $\qquad$ , there is postulated
a $\qquad$ .

FIGURE 1.4
Pictorial
Representation of Regression Model.

(b) Figure 1.4: shows probability distributions of $Y$ for midyear evaluation levels at $X=50, X=70$ and $X=90$. Note that the $\qquad$ of the probability distributions have a systematic relation to the level of $X$.
(c) This systematic relationship is called the $\qquad$ . The graph of the regression function is called the $\qquad$ .
(d) The regression curve, which describes the relation between $\qquad$
$\qquad$ and $\qquad$ , is the counterpart to the general tendency of $Y$ to vary with $X$ systematically in a statistical relation.

## Construction of Regression Models

1. Selection of Predictor Variables:
(a) Choosing a $\qquad$ of explanatory or $\qquad$ variables that is "good" in some sense for the purposes of the analysis.
（b）Other considerations：the $\qquad$ of the variable；the degree to which observations on the variable can be obtained more than on competing variables；and the degree to which the variable can be
$\qquad$ ．

## 2．Functional Form of Regression Relation：

（a）The functional form of the regression relation is $\qquad$ and must be decided upon $\qquad$ once the data have been collected．
（b）The $\qquad$ or $\qquad$ regression functions are often used as satis－ factory first approximations to regression functions of unknown nature．

## 3．Scope of Model：

（a）In formulating a regression model，we usually need to $\qquad$ of the model to some interval or region of values of the predictor variable（s）．
（b）Example：a company studying the effect of price on sales volume investigated six price levels，ranging from $\$ 4.95$ to $\$ 6.95$ ．Here，the scope of the model is limited to price levels ranging from near $\$ 5$ to near $\$ 7$ ．The shape of the regression function substantially outside this range would be in serious doubt because the investigation provided no evidence as to the nature of the statistical relation below $\$ 4.95$ or above $\$ 6.95$ ．

## Uses of Regression Analysis

1．Regression analysis serves three major purposes：（1） $\qquad$ ，（2） $\qquad$ ， and（3） $\qquad$ ．

2．The several purposes of regression analysis frequently $\qquad$ in practice．

## Regression and Causality（因果關係）

1．The existence of a statistical relation between the response variable $Y$ and the explanatory or predictor variable $X$ $\qquad$ in any way that $Y$ depends on $X$ ．
2. No matter how strong is the statistical relation between $X$ and $Y$, no $\qquad$ pattern is necessarily implied by the regression model.
3. Example: data on size of vocabulary $(X)$ and writing speed $(Y)$ for a sample of young children aged 5-10 will show a positive regression relation. This relation does not imply, however, that an increase in vocabulary causes a faster writing speed. Here, other explanatory variables, such as age of the child and amount of education, affect both the vocabulary $(X)$ and the writing speed $(Y)$. Older children have a larger vocabulary and a faster writing speed.
4. Regression analysis by itself provides $\qquad$ about causal patterns and must be supplemented by $\qquad$ to obtain insights about causal relations.

## Use of Computers

1. Regression analysis often entails lengthy and tedious calculations, computers are usually utilized to perform the necessary calculations.
2. Almost every statistics package for computers contains a regression component: BMDP, MINITAB, $\qquad$ , $\qquad$ , SYSTAT, JMP, S-Plus, MATLAB, and
$\qquad$ .

### 1.3 Simple Linear Regression Model with Distribution of Error Terms Unspecified

## Formal Statement of Model

1. A simple linear regression model:
where:
(a) $Y_{i}$ : the value of the $\qquad$ variable in the $\qquad$ .
(b) $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$ : $\qquad$ to be estimated.
(c) $X_{i}$ : the value of the $\qquad$ variable in the $i$ th trial
(d) $\epsilon_{i}: \mathrm{a}$ $\qquad$ term with mean $\qquad$ and variance $\qquad$ .
(e) $\epsilon_{i}$ and $\epsilon_{j}$ are $\qquad$ so that their covariance is zero (i.e., for all $i, j ; i \neq j) i=1, \cdots, n$.
2. Regression model (1.1) is said to be
(a) simple: there is $\qquad$ predictor variable
(b) linear in the $\qquad$ : no parameter appears as an exponent or is multiplied or divided by another parameter
(c) linear in the $\qquad$ variable: because this variable appears only in the first power.
3. A model that is linear in the parameters and in the predictor variabie is also called
$\qquad$ model.

## Important Features of Model

1. The response $Y_{i}$ in the $i$ th trial is the sum of two components: (1) the constant term
$\qquad$ and (2) the random term $\qquad$ . Hence, $Y_{i}$ is a $\qquad$ .
2. Since $E\left(\epsilon_{i}\right)=0$, it follows that:

$$
E\left(Y_{i}\right)=\ldots=
$$

Thus, the response $Y_{i}$, when the level of $X$ in the $i$ th trial is $X_{i}$, comes from a probability distribution whose mean is:
$\qquad$

The regression function for model (1.1) is:
since the regression function relates the means of the probability distributions of $Y$ for given $X$ to the level of $X$.

3．The response $Y_{i}$ in the $i$ th trial $\qquad$ of the value of the re－ gression function（＿＿）by the error term amount＿＿＿

4．The error terms $\epsilon_{i}$ are assumed to have constant variance $\qquad$ －It therefore follows that the responses $Y_{i}$ have the same constant variance：

$$
\sigma^{2}\left(Y_{i}\right)=\sigma^{2}
$$

Thus，regression model（1．1）assumes that the probability distributions of $Y$ have the same variance $\qquad$ ，regardless of the level of the predictor variable $X$ ．

5．Since the error terms $\epsilon_{i}$ and $\epsilon_{j}$ are assumed to be uncorrelated，so are the responses
$\qquad$ －

6．Summary：regression model $\qquad$ implies that the responses $Y_{i}$ come from probability distributions whose means are and whose variances are $\qquad$ ，the same for all levels of $X$ ．Further，any two responses $Y_{i}$ and $Y_{j}$ are $\qquad$ ．

7．Example：Electrical distributor（Figure 1．6）
A consultant for an electrical distributor is studying the relationship between the number of bids（＿＿）requested by construction contractors（承包商）for basic lighting equipment during a week and the number of hours（＿＿＿）required to prepare the bids．
（a）Suppose that regression model（1．1）is：

$$
Y_{i}=9.5+2.1 X_{i}+\epsilon_{i}
$$

（b）The regression function is：
（c）Suppose that in the $i$ th week，$X_{i}=45$ bids are prepared and the actual number of hours required is $Y_{i}=108$ ．We have

$$
E\left(Y_{i}\right)=
$$ and $\epsilon_{i}=$ $\qquad$

（d）The error term $\epsilon_{i}$ is simply the $\qquad$ of $Y_{i}$ from its mean value $E\left(Y_{i}\right)$ ．



## Meaning of Regression Parameters

1. The parameters $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$, in regression model (1.1) are called $\qquad$ .
(a) The parameter $\beta_{0}$ is the $Y$ $\qquad$ of the regression line. $\beta_{1}$, is the
$\qquad$ of the regression line.
(b) $\beta_{1}$ indicates the $\qquad$ in the mean of the probability distribution of $Y$ per unit increase in $X$.
(c) When the scope of the model includes $\qquad$ , $\beta_{0}$ gives the mean of the probability distribution of $Y$ at $X=0$. When the scope of the model does not cover $X=0, \beta_{0}$ $\qquad$ as a separate term in the regression model.
2. Example: Electrical distributor (Figure 1.7)
(a) The regression function: $E(Y)=9.5+2.1 X$. The slope $\beta_{1}=2.1$ indicates that the preparation of $\qquad$ bid in a week leads to an $\qquad$ in the $\qquad$ of the probability distribution of $Y$ of 2.1 hours.
(b) The intercept $\beta_{0}=9.5$ indicates the value of the regression function at $\qquad$ . Since the linear regression model was formulated to apply to weeks where the number of bids prepared ranges from $\qquad$ , $\beta_{0}=9.5$ does not have any intrinsic meaning of its own here.

FIGURE 1.7
Meaning of
Parameters of
Simple Linear
Regression
Model (1.1).


## Alternative Versions of Regression Model

1. Let $\qquad$ be a constant identically equal to $\qquad$ . Then, we can write (1.1) as follows:

$$
\text { where } \quad X_{0} \equiv 1
$$

This version of the model associates an $X$ variable with each regression coefficient.
2. An alternative modification is to use for the predictor variable the $\qquad$ rather than $X_{i}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
Y_{i} & = \\
& =\square \\
& =\square
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\beta_{0}^{*}=
$$

$\qquad$

### 1.4 Data for Regression Analysis*

### 1.5 Overview of Steps in Regression Analysis*

### 1.6 Estimation of Regression Function

## Method of Least Squares

1. For the observations $\qquad$ for each case, the method of least squares considers the sum of the $n$ squared deviation of $Y_{i}$ from its expected value $E\left(Y_{i}\right)$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q= \tag{1.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

2. According to the method of least squares, the estimators of $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$ are those values $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$ respectively, that $\qquad$ for the given sample observations $\left(X_{1}, Y_{1}\right),\left(X_{2}, Y_{2}\right), \cdots,\left(X_{n}, Y_{n}\right)$.

FIGURE 1.9 Illustration of Least Squares Criterion $Q$ for Fit of a Regression Line-Persistence Study Example.

(a)

(b)
3. Example: (Figure 1.9)
(a) Figure 1.9a: $Y=9.0+0 \cdot X$. This regression line is not a good fit. The sum of the squared deviations for the three cases is:

$$
Q=(5-9.0)^{2}+(12-9.0)^{2}+(10-9.0)^{2}=26.0
$$

(b) Figure 1.9b: $Y=2.81+0.177 X$ (the least squares regression line). The criterion $Q$ is much reduced:

$$
Q=(5-6.35)^{2}+(12-12.55)^{2}+(10-8.12)^{2}=5.7
$$

Thus, a better fit of the regression line to the data corresponds to a smaller sum $Q$.

## 4. Least Squares Estimators:

(a) For given sample observations $\left(X_{i}, Y_{i}\right)$, the quantity $Q$ in (1.8) is a function of $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$. The values of $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$, that minimize $Q$ can tie derived by differentiating (1.8) with respect to $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial Q}{\partial \beta_{0}}= \\
& \frac{\partial Q}{\partial \beta_{1}}= \\
&
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) Set these partial derivatives equal to zero, using $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$ (or $\qquad$ to denote the particular values of $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$, that minimize $Q$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
-2 \sum\left(Y_{i}-b_{0}-b_{1} X_{i}\right)=0 & \Rightarrow \\
-2 \sum X_{i}\left(Y_{i}-b_{0}-b_{1} X_{i}\right)=0 & \Rightarrow
\end{aligned}
$$

$\qquad$ .
(c) Normal equations:
$b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$ are called point estimators of $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$, respectively.
NOTE:
(d) The normal equations can be solved simultaneously for $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$ :

where $\bar{X}$ and $\bar{Y}$ are the means of the $X_{i}$ and the $Y_{i}$ observations, respectively.

## 5. Properties of Least Squares Estimators:

(a) Gauss-Markov theorem: Under the conditions of regression model (1.1), the least squares estimators $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$ in (1.10) are $\qquad$ and have
$\qquad$ among all unbiased linear estimators.
and $\qquad$
so that neither estimator tends to overestimate or underestimate systematically.
(b) The theorem states that the estimators $b_{0}$ and $b_{l}$ are $\qquad$ (i.e., their sampling distributions are $\qquad$ ) than any other estimators belonging to the class of unbiased estimators that are linear functions of the observations $Y_{1}, \cdots, Y_{n}$.
(c) The estimators $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$ are such linear functions of the $Y_{i}$.

$$
b_{1}=\frac{\sum\left(X_{i}-\bar{X}\right)\left(Y_{i}-\bar{Y}\right)}{\sum\left(X_{i}-\bar{X}\right)^{2}}
$$

This expression is equal to:

where:

$$
k_{i}=
$$

Since the $k_{i}$ are known constants (because the $X_{i}$ are known constants), $b_{1}$ is a linear combination of the $Y_{i}$ and hence is a linear estimator.
(d) In the same fashion, it can be shown that $b_{0}$ is a linear estimator.

## 6. Example: The Toluca Company Manufactures Refrigeration Equipment

In the past, one of the replacement parts has been produced periodically in lots of varying sizes. When a cost improvement program was undertaken, company officials wished to determine the optimum lot size $\left(X_{i}\right)$ for producing this part. The production of this part involves setting up the production process and machining and assembly operations. One key input for the model to ascertain the optimum lot size was the relationship between lot size and labor hours required to produce the lot. To determine this relationship, data on lot size and work hours $\left(Y_{i}\right)$ for 25 recent production runs were utilized. The production conditions were stable during the six-month period in which the 25 runs were made and were expected to continue to be the same during the next three years, the planning period for which the cost improvement program was being conducted.
(a) (Table 1.1) All lot sizes are multiples of 10 , a result of company policy to facilitate the administration of the parts production.

TABLE 1.1 Data on Lot Size and Work Hours and Needed Calculations for Least Squares Estimates-Toluca Company Example.

|  | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Lot | Work |  |  |  |  |  |
| Run | Size | Hours |  |  |  |  |  |
| i | $X_{i}$ | $\boldsymbol{Y}_{\boldsymbol{j}}$ | $X_{i}-\bar{X}$ | $\boldsymbol{Y}_{\boldsymbol{i}}-\overline{\boldsymbol{Y}}$ | $\left(X_{i}-\bar{X}\right)\left(Y_{i}-\bar{Y}\right)$ | $\left(X_{j}-\bar{X}\right)^{2}$ | $\left(Y_{i}-\bar{Y}\right)^{2}$ |
| 1 | 80 | 399 | 10 | 86.72 | 867.2 | 100 | 7,520.4 |
| 2 | 30 | 121 | -40 | -191.28 | 7,651.2 | 1,600 | 36,588.0 |
| 3 | 50 | 221 | -20 | -91.28 | 1,825.6 | 400 | 8,332.0 |
| $\cdots$ | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | $\cdots$ | - |
| 23 | 40 | 244 | -30 | $-68.28$ | 2,048.4 | 900 | 4,662.2 |
| 24 | 80 | 342 | 10 | 29.72 | 297.2 | 100 | 883.3 |
| 25 | 70 | 323 | 0 | 10.72 | 0.0 | 0 | 114.9 |
| Total | 1,750 | 7,807 | 0 | 0 | 70,690 | 19,800 | 307,203 |
| Mean | 70.0 | 312.28 |  |  |  |  |  |

(b) (Figure 1.10a) shows a SYSTAT scatter plot of the data. The scatter plot indicates that the relationship between $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ is reasonably $\qquad$ . We also see that no observations on work hours are
$\qquad$ , with reference to the relationship between lot size and work hours.

FIGURE 1.10
SYSTAT Scatter Plot and Fitted Regression Line-Toluca Company Example.
(a) Scatter Plot

(b) Fitted Regression Line

(c) Calculate the least squares estimates:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b_{1}=\frac{\sum\left(X_{i}-\bar{X}\right)\left(Y_{i}-\bar{Y}\right)}{\sum\left(X_{i}-\bar{X}\right)^{2}}=\frac{70690}{19800}=3.5702 \\
& b_{0}=\bar{Y}-b_{1} \bar{X}=312.28-3.5702(70.0)=62.37
\end{aligned}
$$

(d) We estimate that the $\qquad$ number of work hours
for each additional unit produced in the lot. This estimate applies to the range of lot sizes (from about $\qquad$ to about $\qquad$ ) in the data from which the estimates were derived.

FIGURE 1.11 The regression equation is
Portion of MINITAB

| Regression | Predictor | Coef | Stdev | t-ratio | p |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Output- | Constant | 62.37 | 26.18 | 2.38 | 0.026 |
| Toluca | X | 3.5702 | 0.3470 | 10.29 | 0.000 |
| Company |  |  |  |  |  |
| Example. | $\mathbf{s}=48.82$ | R -sq $=82.2 \%$ | R-sq(adj) $=81.4 \%$ |  |  |

- $R$ code example:


```
head(iris)
    Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length Petal.Width Species
1 5.1 3.5 3.5 1.4 0.2 setosa
2 4.9 3.0 0.4 1.4 0.2 setosa
3 4.7 3.2 1.3 1.3 0.2 setosa
4 4.6 3.1 0.0
```



```
6 5.4 0.9 3.9 1.7 llll
> str(iris)
'data.frame': }150\mathrm{ obs. of 5 variables:
    $ Sepal.Length: num 5.1 4.9 4.7 4.6 5 5.4 4.6 5 4.4 4.9 ...
    $ Sepal.Width : num 3.5 3 3.2 3.1 3.6 3.9 3.4 3.4 2.9 3.1 ...
    $ Petal.Length: num 1.4 1.4 1.3 1.5 1.4 1.7 1.4 1.5 1.4 1.5 ...
    $ Petal.Width : num 0.2 0.2 0.2 0.2 0.2 0.4 0.3 0.2 0.2 0.1 ...
    $ Species : Factor w/ 3 levels "setosa","versicolor",..: 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 ...
> attach(iris)
> plot(Petal.Width, Petal.Length, main = "iris data", asp = 1)
> iris.lm <- lm(Petal.Length ~ Petal.Width)
> summary(iris.lm)
Call:
lm(formula = Petal.Length ~ Petal.Width)
Residuals:
\begin{tabular}{rrrrr} 
Min & 1Q & Median & 3Q & Max \\
-1.33542 & -0.30347 & -0.02955 & 0.25776 & 1.39453
\end{tabular}
Coefficients:
    Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 1.08356 0.07297 14.85 <2e-16 ***
Petal.Width 2.22994 0.05140 43.39 <2e-16 ***
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 0.4782 on 148 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.9271, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9266
F-statistic: 1882 on 1 and 148 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
    > abline(iris.lm, col = "blue")
```


## Point Estimation of Mean Response

## 1. Estimated Regression Function

(a) Given sample estimators $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$ of the parameters in the regression function:
we estimate the regression function as follows:
where $\hat{Y}$ (read $\qquad$ ) is the value of the estimated regression function at the level $X$ of the predictor variable.
(b) We call a value of the response variable a $\qquad$ and $E(Y)$ the $\qquad$ .
(c) The mean response stands for the mean of the probability distribution of $Y$ corresponding to the level $X$ of the predictor variable.
(d) $\hat{Y}$ then is a point estimator of the mean response when the level of the predictor variable is $X$.
(e) An extension of the Gauss-Markov theorem: $\hat{Y}$ is an $\qquad$ estimator of $E(Y)$, with $\qquad$ in the class of unbiased linear estimators.
(f) For the cases in the study, we will call $\hat{Y}_{i}$ :

$$
\hat{Y}_{i}=\quad, \quad i=1, \ldots, n
$$

the $\qquad$ for the $i$ th case. Thus, the fitted value $\hat{Y}_{i}$ is to be viewed in distinction to the $\qquad$ .
2. Example: The Toluca Company Example
(a) (Figure 1.10b) The estimated regression function:

$$
\hat{Y}=62.37+3.5702 X
$$

It appears to be a good description of the $\qquad$ between lot size and work hours.
(b) Suppose that we estimate the mean number of work hours (mean response) required when the lot size is $X=65$ units:

$$
\hat{Y}=\quad \text { hours }
$$

(c) Interpretation: if many lots of 65 units are produced under the conditions of the 25 runs on which the estimated regression function is based, the mean labor time for these lots is about 294 hours.
(d) NOTE Of course, the labor time for anyone lot of size 65 is likely to fall above or below the mean response because of inherent variability in the production system, as represented by the error term in the model.
(e) (Table 1.2) The fitted value for the first case $X_{1}=80$ is:

$$
\hat{Y}_{1}=\quad \text { hours }
$$

$\left.\begin{array}{lcccccc}\text { TABLE 1.2 } & \text { (1) } & \text { (2) } & \begin{array}{c}\text { (3) } \\ \text { Estimated } \\ \text { Fitted Values, }\end{array} & & \text { (5) } & \text { (4) }\end{array}\right]$
-() $R$ code example:

```
> predict(iris.lm, list(Petal.Width = c(0.2, 0.4)))
    1 2
1.529546 1.975534
> data.frame(iris.lm$fitted.values, iris.lm$residuals)
    iris.lm.fitted.values iris.lm.residuals
1 1.529546 -0.129546132
2 1.529546 -0.129546132
3 1.529546 -0.229546132
8 1.529546 -0.029546132
9 1.529546 -0.129546132
10
    1.306552 0.193447918
...
```


## 3. Alternative Model

(a) When the alternative regression model (1.6) is to be utilized:
$\qquad$
the least squares estimator $b_{1}$ of $\beta_{1}$ $\qquad$ as before.
(b) The least squares estimator of $\beta_{0}^{*}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} \bar{X}$ becomes

$$
b_{0}^{*}=
$$

$\qquad$
Hence, the estimated regression function for alternative model (1.6) is:
4. In the Toluca Company example, $\bar{Y}=312.28$ and $\bar{X}=70.0$. Hence, the estimated regression function in alternative form is:

$$
\hat{Y}=312.28+3.5702(X-70.0)
$$

For the first lot in our example, $X_{1}=80$; hence, we estimate the mean response to be:

$$
\hat{Y}_{1}=312.28+3.5702(80-70.0)=347.98
$$

which, of course, is identical to our earlier result.


## Residuals (殘差)

1. The $i$ th residual is the difference between the $\qquad$ and the corresponding $\qquad$ . This residual is denoted by $\qquad$ :

$$
e_{i}=
$$

$\qquad$
2. For regression model (1.1), the residual $e_{i}$ becomes:

$$
e_{i}=
$$

$\qquad$
3. (Figure 1.12) The magnitude of a residual is represented by the $\qquad$ of the $Y_{i}$ observation from the corresponding point on the estimated regression function (i.e., from the corresponding fitted value $\hat{Y}_{i}$ ).

NOTE We need to distinguish between the model error term value and the residual $\qquad$ . The former involves the vertical deviation of $Y_{i}$ from the unknown true regression line and hence is $\qquad$ . On the other hand, the residual is the vertical deviation of $Y_{i}$ from the fitted value $\hat{Y}_{i}$ on the estimated regression line, and it is $\qquad$ .
4. Residuals are highly useful for studying whether a given regression model is $\qquad$ for the data at hand.

## Properties of Fitted Regression Line

1. The sum of the residuals is zero:

$$
\sum e_{i}=\sum\left(Y_{i}-b_{0}-b_{1} X_{i}\right)=\sum Y_{i}-n b_{0}-b_{1} \sum X_{i}
$$

NOTE Rounding errors may, of course, be present in any particular case, resulting in a sum of the residuals that does not equal zero exactly.
2. The sum of the squared residuals, $\qquad$ , is a minimum. This was the requirement to be satisfied in deriving the least squares estimators of the regression parameters.
3. The sum of the observed values $Y_{i}$ equals the sum of the fitted values $\hat{Y}_{i}$ :

NOTE:
4. The sum of the weighted residuals is zero when the residual in the $i$ th trial is weighted by the level of the predictor variable in the $i$ th trial:

NOTE:
5. The sum of the weighted residuals is zero when the residual in the $i$ th trial is weighted by the fitted value of the response variable for the $i$ th trial:

NOTE:
6. The regression line always goes through the point $\qquad$ .

$$
\hat{Y}=\square=\bar{Y}
$$

NOTE:

### 1.7 Estimation of Error Terms Variance $\sigma^{2}$

## Point Estimator of $\sigma^{2}$

1. The variance $\sigma^{2}$ of the $\qquad$ in regression model (1.1) needs to be estimated to obtain an indication of the $\qquad$ of the probability distributions of $Y$. A variety of $\qquad$ (推論) concerning the regression function and the prediction of $Y$ require an estimate of $\sigma^{2}$.
2. Single Population: The estimator of the variance $\sigma^{2}$ is the sample variance $s^{2}$ :

$$
s^{2}=
$$

$\qquad$
which is an $\qquad$ estimator of the variance $\sigma^{2}$ of an infinite population. The sample variance is often called a $\qquad$ , because a sum of squares has been divided by the appropriate number of $\qquad$ .

## 3. Regression Model

(a) We need to calculate a $\qquad$ , but must recognize that the $Y_{i}$ now come from $\qquad$ probability distributions with $\qquad$ means that depend upon the level $X_{i}$. The deviations are the $\qquad$ :
and the appropriate sum of squares, denoted by $\qquad$ , is:

$$
\mathrm{SSE}=
$$

where SSE stands for $\qquad$ or $\qquad$ .
(b) The sum of squares SSE has $\qquad$ degrees of freedom associated with it. Two degrees of freedom are lost because both $\qquad$ had to be estimated in obtaining the estimated means $\hat{Y}_{i}$. Hence, the appropriate
$\qquad$ , denoted by MSE or $s^{2}$, is:

$$
s^{2}=\mathrm{MSE}=
$$

$\qquad$
where MSE stands for $\qquad$ or $\qquad$ .
(c) It can be shown that MSE is an $\qquad$ estimator of $\sigma^{2}$ for regression model (1.1): $\qquad$ -
4. Example: The Toluca Company Example
(a) (Table 1.2) we obtain: $S S E=54,825$ and

$$
s^{2}=\mathrm{MSE}=\frac{54,825}{23}=2,384
$$

A point estimate of $\sigma$, the standard deviation of the probability distribution of $Y$ for any $X$, is $s=\sqrt{2,384}=48.8$ hours.
(b) Consider again the case where the lot size is $X=65$ units. We found earlier that the mean of the probability distribution of $Y$ for this lot size is estimated to be 294.4 hours. Now, we have the additional information that the standard deviation of this distribution is estimated to be 48.8 hours.

FIGURE 1.13
Densities for
Sample
Observations
for Two
Possible Values
of $\mu: Y_{1}=250$,
$Y_{2}=265$,
$Y_{3}=259$.

(a)

(b)

### 1.8 Normal Error Regression Model

## Model

1. To set up $\qquad$ and make $\qquad$ , however, we need to make an assumption about the form of the distribution of the error terms $\epsilon_{i}$ : they are
$\qquad$ $\cdot$
2. The normal error regression model:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\quad i=1, \cdots, n \tag{1.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

(a) $Y_{i}$ : the $\qquad$ in the $i$ th trial.
(b) $X_{i}$ : known constant, the level of the $\qquad$ variable in the $i$ th trial.
(c) $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$ : $\qquad$ to be estimated.
(d) $\epsilon_{i}$ : independent normally distributed, with mean 0 and variance $\sigma^{2}$ ( $\qquad$ ).
3. (Figure 1.6) Regression model (1.24) implies that the $\qquad$ are independent normal random variables, with mean $\qquad$ and variance $\qquad$ -

FIGURE 1.6 Illustration of Simple Linear Regression Model (1.1).

4. The normality assumption for the error terms is $\qquad$ in many situations because
(a) the error terms frequently represent the $\qquad$ omitted from the model that $\qquad$ to some extent and that $\qquad$ without reference to the variable $X$.
（b）the estimation and testing procedures are based on the $\qquad$ and are usually only sensitive to large departures from $\qquad$ ．Thus，un－ less the departures from normality are $\qquad$ ，particularly with respect to $\qquad$ ，the actual confidence coefficients and risks of errors will be close to the levels for $\qquad$ ．

## Estimation of Parameters by Method of Maximum likelihood

## 1．Single Population＊

## 2．Regression Model

（a）For the normal error regression model（1．24），each $Y_{i}$ observation is normally distributed with mean $\qquad$ and standard deviation $\qquad$ ．
（b）The density of an observation $Y_{i}$ for the normal error regression model（1．24） is：

$$
f_{i}=
$$

（c）The $\qquad$ （可能性函數）for $n$ observations $Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \cdots, Y_{n}$ is the product of the individual densities．Since the variance $\sigma^{2}$ of the error terms is usually unknown，the likelihood function is a function of three parameters，
$\qquad$ ．

$$
L\left(\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}, \sigma^{2}\right)=
$$

$$
=
$$

（d）The values of $\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}$ ，and $\sigma^{2}$ that maximize this likelihood function are the
$\qquad$ （最大概估計量）and are denoted by $\qquad$ ，respectively．
（e）We find the values of $\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}$ and $\sigma^{2}$ that maximize the logarithm of likelihood function $\log L$ ：

$$
\log L=
$$

$\qquad$
(f) Partial differentiation of the logarithm of the likelihood function:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial(\log L)}{\partial \beta_{0}}=\square=0 \\
& \frac{\partial(\log L)}{\partial \beta_{1}}=\square=0 \\
& \frac{\partial(\log L)}{\partial \sigma^{2}}=\square=0
\end{aligned}
$$

(g) Set these partial derivatives equal to zero, replacing, $\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}$ and $\sigma^{2}$ by the estimators $\hat{\beta}_{0}, \hat{\beta}_{1}$ and $\hat{\sigma}^{2}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =0 \\
& =0 \\
& =\hat{\sigma}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

(h) The MLE of $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$ are the $\qquad$ as those provided by the method of $\qquad$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{\beta}_{0}=\square=b_{0} \\
& \hat{\beta}_{1}= \\
& \hat{\sigma}^{2}=
\end{aligned}
$$

(i) The maximum likelihood estimator $\hat{\sigma}^{2}$ is biased, and ordinarily the unbiased estimator is used.

NOTE The unbiased estimator MSE or $s^{2}$ differs but slightly from the maximum likelihood estimator $\hat{\sigma}^{2}$, especially if $n$ is not small:

$$
s^{2}=M S E=
$$

$\qquad$

## 3. Properties:

Since the maximum likelihood estimators $\hat{\beta}_{0}$ and $\hat{\beta}_{1}$, are the same as the least squares estimators $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$ they have the properties of all least squares estimators:
(a) They are $\qquad$ .
(b) They have $\qquad$ among all unbiased linear estimators.
(c) In addition, the maximum likelihood estimators $\hat{\beta}_{0}$ and $\hat{\beta}_{1}$, for the normal error regression model have other desirable properties: $\qquad$ (A. 52), $\qquad$ (A.53) and the $\qquad$ estimators (linear or otherwise).

Question
Assume the normal error regression model:

$$
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i}+\epsilon_{i} .
$$

Find the estimation of parameters using method of maximum likelihood. sol:

## (): TA Class

- Problems: 1.6, 1.7, 1.18, 1.20, 1.24
- Exercises: 1.32, 1.33, 1.35, 1.36, 1.41
- Projects: 1.43
＂少花點時間去取悅別人，多花些時間來經營自己。＂
＂Spend a little more time trying to make something of yourself and a little less time trying to impress people．＂
—早餐俱樂部（Breakfast Club，1985）

Regression Analysis (I)
Kutner's Applied Linear Statistical Models (5/E)

# Chapter 2: Inferences in Regression and Correlation Analysis 

Thursday 09:10-12:00, 商館 260205
Han-Ming Wu
Department of Statistics, National Chengchi University
http://www.hmwu.idv.tw

## Overview

1. Take up inferences ( $\qquad$ ) concerning the regression parameters $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$.
2. Discuss interval estimation of the mean $E(Y)$ of the probability distribution of $Y$, for given $X$, prediction intervals for a new observation $Y$, confidence bands for the regression line, the analysis of variance approach to regression analysis, the general linear test approach, and descriptive measures of association.
3. Assume that the normal error regression model (1.24) is applicable:
$\qquad$ ,
where $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$, are parameters, $X_{i}$ are known constants, $\epsilon_{i}$ are independent
$\qquad$ .

### 2.1 Inferences Concerning $\beta_{1}$

1. Testing whether or not $\qquad$ is that, when $\beta_{1}=0$, there is no $\qquad$ between $Y$ and $X$.

$$
E(Y)=
$$

$\qquad$
2. For normal error regression model (2.1), the condition $\beta_{1}=0$ follows that the probability distributions of $Y$ are $\qquad$ . There is no relation of any type between $Y$ and $X$.

## Sampling Distribution of $\hat{\beta}_{1}$

## Question

For normal error regression model (2.1), show that $b_{1}$, the point estimator of $\beta_{1}$, is a linear combination of the observation $Y_{i}$. That is

$$
b_{1}=\sum k_{i} Y_{i}, \quad \text { where } \quad k_{i}=\frac{X_{i}-\bar{X}}{\sum\left(X_{i}-\bar{X}\right)^{2}}
$$

sol:

Question
For normal error regression model (2.1), if $b_{1}$ is expressed as $b_{1}=\sum k_{i} Y_{i}$, show that

$$
\sum k_{i}=0, \sum k_{i} X_{i}=1, \text { and } \sum k_{i}^{2}=\frac{1}{\sum\left(X_{i}-\bar{X}\right)^{2}}
$$

sol:

Chapter 2: Inferences in Regression and Correlation Analysis
Question (p41)

For normal error regression model (2.1), show that the sampling distribution of $b_{1}$, the point estimator of $\beta_{1}$, is normal, with mean and variance:

$$
E\left(b_{1}\right)=\beta_{1}, \quad \text { and } \quad \sigma^{2}\left(b_{1}\right)=\frac{\sigma^{2}}{\sum\left(X_{i}-\bar{X}\right)^{2}}=\sum k_{i}^{2} \sigma^{2}
$$

sol:

Question
Show that $b_{1}$ has minimum variance among all unbiased linear estimator of the form:

$$
\hat{\beta}_{1}=\sum c_{i} Y_{i}
$$

where the $c_{i}$ are arbitrary constants.
sol:

## Sampling Distribution of $\left(b_{1}-\beta_{1}\right) / s\left(b_{1}\right)$

1. Since $b_{1}$ is normally distributed, we know that the standardized statistic is a standard normal variable.
2. We need to estimate $\sigma\left(b_{1}\right)$ by $\qquad$ , and hence are interested in the distribution of the statistic $\left(b_{1}-\beta_{1}\right) / s\left(b_{1}\right)$.
3. When a statistic is standardized but the denominator is an estimated standard deviation rather than the true standard deviation, it is called a $\qquad$ .

Question
Show the studentized statistic $\frac{b_{1}-\beta_{1}}{s\left(b_{1}\right)}$ is distributed as $t_{(n-2)}$ for regression model (2.1).
sol:

## Confidence Interval for $\beta_{1}$

Question ............................................................................................
Find the $(1-\alpha) \%$ confidence interval for $\beta_{1}$.
sol:

Question
(Toluca Company Example) Management wishes an estimate of $\beta_{1}$, with 95 percent confidence coefficient.
sol:
Obtain

$$
s^{2}\left(b_{1}\right)=\frac{M S E}{\sum\left(X_{i}-\bar{X}\right)^{2}}=\frac{2,384}{19,800}=0.12040, \quad s\left(b_{1}\right)=0.3470 .
$$

For a 95 percent confidence coefficient, we find $t_{(0.975 ; 23)}=2.069$. The 95 percent confidence interval:

$$
\begin{gathered}
3.5702-2.069(0.3470) \leq \beta_{1} \leq 3.5702+2.069(0.3470) \\
\Rightarrow 2.85 \leq \beta_{1} \leq 4.29
\end{gathered}
$$

Thus, with confidence coefficient .95 , we estimate that the mean number of work hours increases by somewhere between 2.85 and 4.29 hours for each additional unit in the lot.

| FIGURE 2.2 | The regression equation is |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Portion of | $\mathrm{Y}=62.4+3.57 \mathrm{X}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| MINITAB |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Regression | Predictor | Coef | Stdev |  |  |  | p |
| Output- | Constant | 62.37 | 26.18 |  | 38 |  |  |
| Toluca | X | 3.5702 | 0.3470 |  |  |  |  |
| Company |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Example. | $s=48.82$ | $\mathrm{R}-\mathrm{sq}$ | = $82.2 \%$ | R-sq(ad | ) $=$ | 1.4\% |  |
|  | Analysis of | Variance |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | SOURCE | DF | SS | MS |  | F | p |
|  | Regression | 1 | 252378 | 252378 |  |  | 0.000 |
|  | Error | 23 | 54825 | 2384 |  |  |  |
|  | Total | 24 | 307203 |  |  |  |  |

## Tests Concerning $\beta_{1}$

## Question

Two-Sided Test A cost analyst in the Toluca Company is interested in testing, using regression model (2.1), whether or not there is a linear association between work hours and lot size, i.e., whether or not, $\beta_{1}=0$. Please conduct the Two-Sided Test for this problem and control the risk of a Type I error at $\alpha=0.05$. sol:

Question ................................................................................
One-Sided Test Suppose the analyst in the Toluca Company had wished to test whether or not , $\beta_{1}$, is positive, controlling the level of significance at $\alpha=0.05$. Please conduct the One-Sided Test for this problem.
sol:

## Comments:

1. The P-value is sometimes called the $\qquad$ .
2. Many scientific publications commonly report the P-value together with the value of the test statistic. In this way, one can conduct a test at any desired level of significance a by comparing the P-value with the specified level $\alpha$.
3. Users of statistical calculators and computer packages need to be careful to ascertain whether $\qquad$ or $\qquad$ P -values are reported.
4. It is desired to test whether or not $\beta_{1}$ equals some specified nonzero value $\qquad$ . The alternatives are:
versus
and the appropriate test statistic is:

### 2.2 Inferences Concerning $\beta_{0}$

1. The point estimator $b_{0}$ : $\qquad$ .
2. The sampling distribution of $b_{0}$ is normal, with mean and variance:

$$
E\left(b_{0}\right)=\quad, \quad \sigma^{2}\left(b_{0}\right)=
$$

3. An estimator of $\sigma^{2}\left(b_{0}\right)$ is obtained by replacing $\sigma^{2}$ by its point estimator $\qquad$ $:$

$$
s^{2}\left(b_{0}\right)=
$$

4. The sampling distribution of $\left(b_{0}-\beta_{0}\right) / s\left(b_{0}\right)$ is $\qquad$ for regression model (2.1)
5. The confidence intervals for $\beta_{0}$ is $\qquad$ .

### 2.3 Some Considerations on Making Inferences Concerning $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$

## Effects of Departures from Normality

1. If the probability distributions of $Y$ are not exactly normal but $\qquad$
$\qquad$ , the sampling distributions of $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$ will be approximately $\qquad$ , and the use of the $t$ distribution will provide approximately the specified confidence coefficient or level of significance.
2. Even if the distributions of $Y$ are far from normal, the estimators $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$ generally have the property of $\qquad$ - their distributions approach normality under very general conditions as the $\qquad$ increases.

## Interpretation of Confidence Coefficient and Risks of Errors

1. Since regression model (2.1) assumes that the $X_{i}$ are known constants, the confidence coefficient and risks of errors are interpreted with respect to taking $\qquad$ in which the $X$ observations are kept at the same levels as in the observed sample.
2. (Toluca Company Example) The meaning of a confidence interval (CI) for $\beta_{1}$, with confidence coefficient 0.95: if many independent samples are taken where the levels of $X$ (the lot sizes) are the same as in the data set and a 95 percent confidence interval is constructed for each sample, $\qquad$ of the intervals will $\qquad$ the true value of $\beta_{1}$.

## Spacing of the $X$ levels

1. For given $n$ and $\sigma^{2}$, the variances of $b_{1}$ and $b_{0}$ are affected by the spacing of the $X$ levels in the observed data.
2. The $\qquad$ is the spread in the $X$ levels, the larger is the quantity and the $\qquad$ is the variance of $b_{1}$.

## Power of Tests

(NOTE: The power of tests on $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$, can be obtained from Appendix Table B.5.)

1. The general test concerning $\beta_{1}$ :

2. Test statistic: $t^{*}=$
3. Decision rule for level of significance $\alpha$ :

$$
\text { If } \quad \text {, conclude } H_{0} \text {. }
$$

4. The power of this test is the probability that the decision rule will lead to conclusion $H_{a}$ when $H_{a}$ in fact holds:
Power =
$\qquad$
where $\delta$ is the noncentrality measure - i.e., a measure of how far the true value of $\beta_{1}$, is from $\beta_{10}$ :

$$
\delta=
$$

Question ..........................................................................................
In Toluca Company example, conduct the test for:

$$
H_{0}: \beta_{1}=\beta_{10}=0, \quad \text { versus } \quad H_{a}: \beta_{1} \neq \beta_{10}=0
$$

Calculate the power of the test when $\beta_{1}=1.5$.
sol:

### 2.4 Interval Estimation of $E\left(Y_{h}\right)$

1. Let $\qquad$ denote the level of $X$ for which we wish to estimate the mean response.
2. $X_{h}$ may be a value which occurred in the sample, or it may be some other value of the predictor variable within the scope of the model.
3. The mean response when $X=X_{h}$ is denoted by $\qquad$ . The point estimator $Y_{h}$ of $E\left(Y_{h}\right)$ is $\qquad$ .

Question
For normal error regression model, show that the sampling distribution of $\hat{Y}_{h}$ is normal, with mean and variance:

$$
E\left(\hat{Y}_{h}\right)=E\left(Y_{h}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \sigma^{2}\left(\hat{Y}_{h}\right)=\sigma^{2}\left[\frac{1}{n}+\frac{\left(X_{h}-\bar{X}\right)^{2}}{\sum\left(X_{i}-\bar{X}\right)^{2}}\right]
$$

sol:


The variability of the sampling distribution of $\hat{Y}_{h}$ is affected by how far $X_{h}$ is from $\bar{X}$ through the term $\qquad$ .

## Sampling Distribution of $\left(\hat{Y}_{h}-E\left(Y_{h}\right)\right) / s\left(\hat{Y}_{h}\right)$

1. $\frac{\hat{Y}_{h}-E\left(Y_{h}\right)}{s\left(\hat{Y}_{h}\right)}$ is distributed as $\quad$ for regression model (2.1).

## Confidence Interval for $E\left(Y_{h}\right)$

1. A $(1-\alpha) \%$ confidence interval for $E\left(Y_{h}\right)$ is
$\qquad$
Question
In the Toluca Company example, find a $90 \%$ CI for $E\left(Y_{h}\right)$ when the lot size is $X_{h}=65$ units.
sol:

### 2.5 Prediction of New Observation

The new observation on $Y$ to be predicted is viewed as the result of a new trial, independent of the trials on which the regression analysis is based. We denote the level of $X$ for the new trial as $\qquad$ and the new observation on $Y$ as $\qquad$ .

## Prediction Interval for $Y_{h(n e w)}$ when Parameters Known

In general, when the regression parameters of normal error regression model (2.1) are known, the $(1-\alpha) \%$ prediction limits for $Y_{h(n e w)}$ are:

$$
E\left(Y_{h}\right) \pm z_{(1-\alpha / 2)} \sigma
$$

## Prediction Interval for $Y_{h(n e w)}$ when Parameters Unknown

Question
As we know, $\frac{Y_{h(n e w)}-\hat{Y}_{h}}{s(\text { pred })}$ is distributed as $t_{(n-2)}$ for a normal error regression model. Find the prediction limits for a new observation $Y_{h(n e w)}$ at a given level $X_{h}$. sol:

Chapter 2: Inferences in Regression and Correlation Analysis Page 13/26

FIGURE 2.5
Prediction of $\boldsymbol{Y}_{h(\text { new })}$ when Parameters Unknown.


Question (p59)

The Toluca Company studied the relationship between lot size and work hours primarily to obtain information on the mean work hours required for different lot sizes for use in determining the optimum lot size. The company was also interested, however, to see whether the regression relationship is useful for predicting the required work hours for individual lots. Find a 90 percent prediction interval for the number of work hours for the next production runs of $X_{h}=100$ units.
sol:

## Prediction of Mean of $m$ New Observations for Given $X_{h}$

1. Denote the mean of $m$ new $Y$ observations to be predicted as $\qquad$ . The $1-\alpha$ prediction limits are, assuming that the new $m Y$ observations are independent:
where

$$
s^{2}(\text { predmean })=
$$

$\qquad$
or equivalently:

$$
s^{2}(\text { predmean })=
$$

$\qquad$
Question
In the Toluca Company example, find the 90 percent prediction interval for the mean number of work hours $\bar{Y}_{h(n e w)}$ in three new production runs, each for $X_{h}=100$ units. sol:

### 2.6 Confidence-Band for Regression Line

1. A confidence band for the entire regression line $E(Y)=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X$ enables us to see the $\qquad$ in which the entire regression line lies. It is particularly useful for determining the appropriateness of a fitted regression function.
2. The Working-Hotelling $(1-\alpha) \%$ confidence band for the regression line for regression model (2.1) has the following two boundary values at any level $X_{h}$ :
$\qquad$ , where

Question (p62)

Find the 90 percent confidence band for the regression line to determine how precisely we have been able to estimate the regression function for the Toluca Company example.
sol:

### 2.7 Analysis of Variance Approach to Regression Analysis

## Partitioning of Total Sum of Squares

1. The variation is measured in terms of the deviations of the $Y_{i}$ around their mean $\bar{Y}$ : $\qquad$ .
2. SSTO (total sum of squares): the measure of total variation is the sum of the squared deviations: $\qquad$ .
3. SSE (error sum of squares): the measure of variation in $Y_{i}$ that is present when the predictor variable $X$ is taken into account: $\qquad$ .
4. $S S R$ (regression sum of squares): $\qquad$ .

FIGURE 2.7 Illustration of Partitioning of Total Deviations $\boldsymbol{Y}_{\boldsymbol{i}}-\overline{\boldsymbol{Y}}$-Toluca Company Example (not drawn to scale; only observations $Y_{1}$ and $Y_{2}$ are shown).


Show that $S S T O=S S R+S S E$. That is

$$
\sum\left(Y_{i}-\bar{Y}\right)^{2}=\sum\left(\hat{Y}_{i}-\bar{Y}\right)^{2}+\sum\left(Y_{i}-\hat{Y}_{i}\right)^{2}
$$

sol:

## Breakdown of Degrees of Freedom

1. Corresponding to the partitioning of the total sum of squares $S S T O$, there is a partitioning of the associated degrees of freedom (df).
2. SSTO has $\qquad$ degrees of freedom associated with it. One degree of freedom is lost because the deviations $\qquad$ are subject to one constraint: they must sum to $\qquad$ . Equivalently, one degree of freedom is lost because the sample mean $\bar{Y}$ is used to estimate the population mean.
3. SSE has $\qquad$ degrees of freedom associated with it. Two degrees of freedom are lost because the two parameters $\qquad$ are estimated in obtaining the fitted values $\hat{Y}_{i}$.
4. SSR has $\qquad$ degree of freedom associated with it. Although there are $n$ deviations $\qquad$ , all fitted values $\hat{Y}_{i}$ are calculated from the same estimated regression line.

## Mean Squares

1. A sum of squares divided by its associated degrees of freedom is called a $\qquad$ (MS).
2. The regression mean square:
3. The error mean square:

## Analysis of Variance Table

## 1. Basic Table:

(a) The breakdowns of the total sum of squares and associated degrees of freedom are displayed in the form of an analysis of variance table $\qquad$ in Table 2.2.
(b) The ANOVA table contains a column of $\qquad$ that will be utilized.

TABLE 2.2 ANOVA Table for Simple Linear Regression.

| Source of <br> Variation | SS | $\boldsymbol{d f}$ | MS | E\{MS $\}$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Regression | $S S R=\sum\left(Y_{i}-\bar{Y}\right)^{2}$ | 1 | MSR $=\frac{S S R}{1}$ | $\sigma^{2}+\beta_{1}^{2} \sum\left(X_{i}-\bar{X}\right)^{2}$ |
| Error | $S S E=\sum\left(Y_{i}-Y_{i}\right)^{2}$ | $n-2$ | MSE $=\frac{S S E}{n-2}$ | $\sigma^{2}$ |
| Total | $S S T O=\sum\left(Y_{i}-\bar{Y}\right)^{2}$ | $n-1$ |  |  |

## 2. Modified Table:

(a) The modified ANOVA table is based on the fact that the total sum of squares can be decomposed into two parts:

$$
S S T O=
$$

(b) In the modified ANOVA table, the total $\qquad$ sum of squares, denoted by SSTOU, is defined as:

$$
S S T O U=
$$

$\qquad$
and the correction for the mean sum of squares, denoted by SS (correction for mean), is defined as:
$S S($ correction for mean $)=$ $\qquad$

| TABLE 2.3 <br> Modified <br> ANOVA Table | Source of Variation | SS | df | Ms |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| for Simple Linear | Regression | SSR $=\sum\left(\hat{\gamma}_{i}-\bar{Y}\right)^{2}$ | 1 | $M S R=\frac{S S R}{1}$ |
| Regression. | Error | SSE $=\sum\left(Y_{i}-\hat{Y}_{i}\right)^{2}$ | $n-2$ | $M S E=\frac{S S E}{n-2}$ |
|  | Total | $S S T O=\sum\left(Y_{i}-\bar{Y}\right)^{2}$ | $n-1$ |  |
|  | Correction for mean | SS(correction for mean) $=n \bar{Y}^{2}$ | 1 |  |
|  | Total, uncorrected | SSTOU $=\sum Y_{i}^{2}$ | $n$ |  |

## Expected Mean Squares

Question ............................................................................................

Chapter 2: Inferences in Regression and Correlation Analysis

Show that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E(M S E)=\sigma^{2}, \quad \text { and } \\
& E(M S R)=\sigma^{2}+\beta_{1}^{2} \sum\left(X_{i}-\bar{X}\right)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

sol:

## $F$ Test of $\beta_{1}=0$ versus $\beta_{1} \neq 0$

1. The analysis of variance provides us with a test for:
$\qquad$ versus $\qquad$ .
2. Test Statistic: The test statistic for the analysis of variance approach is denoted by $F^{*}$ :

$$
F^{*}=
$$

$\qquad$
3. Large values of $F^{*}$ support $\qquad$ and values of $F^{*}$ near $\qquad$ support $H_{0}$.

Chapter 2: Inferences in Regression and Correlation Analysis

Question ..........................................................................................
Show that if $H_{0}$ holds, $F^{*}$ follows the $F_{(1, n-2)}$ distribution.
sol:

1. Construction of Decision Rule: Since the test is upper-tail and $F^{*}$ is distributed as $F_{(1, n-2)}$ when $H_{0}$ holds, the decision rule is as follows when the risk of a Type I error is to be controlled at $\alpha$ :

If $\qquad$ , conclude $H_{0}$,

If $F^{*}>F_{(1-\alpha ; 1, n-2)}$, conclude $H_{a}$

Question .........................................................................................
For the Toluca Company example, conduct a $F$ test for $H_{0}: \beta_{1}=0$ versus $H_{a}$ : $\beta_{1} \neq 0$.
sol:

Question
Show that for a given $\alpha$ level, the $F$ test of $\beta_{1}=0$ versus $\beta_{1} \neq 0$ is equivalent algebraically to the two-sided $t$ test.
sol:

### 2.8 General Linear Test Approach

## Full Model

1. For the simple linear regression case, the full model or unrestricted model is the normal error regression model:
$\qquad$
2. The error sum of squares for the full model:

$$
S S E(F)=\quad=
$$

3. $S S E(F)$ measures the variability of the $Y_{i}$ observations around the fitted regression line.

## Reduced Model

1. Consider $H_{0}: \beta_{1}=0$ versus $H_{a}: \beta_{1} \neq 0$, the model when $H_{0}$ holds is called the reduced or restricted model:
$\qquad$
2. The error sum of squares for the reduced model:

$$
\operatorname{SSE}(R)=\ldots=
$$

## Test Statistic

1. It can be shown that $S S E(F)$ never is greater than $S S E(R)$ :
$\qquad$ .
2. The actual test statistic is a function of $S S E(R)-S S E(F)$,

$$
F^{*}=
$$

which follows the $F$ distribution when $H_{0}$ holds.
3. The decision rule therefore is:

If $\qquad$ , conclude $H_{0}$

$$
\text { If } F^{*}>F_{\left(1-\alpha ; d f_{R}-d f_{F}, d f_{F}\right)} \text {, conclude } H_{a}
$$

4. For testing whether or not $\beta_{1}=0$, we therefore have:

$$
S S E(R)=S S T O, \quad S S E(F)=S S E, \quad d f_{R}=n-1, \quad d f_{F}=n-2
$$

so that we obtain

$$
F^{*}=\quad=\quad=
$$

which is identical to the analysis of variance test statistic.

### 2.9 Descriptive Measures of Linear Association between $X$ and $Y$

## Coefficient of Determination

1. The coefficient of determination $R^{2}$ is defined to measure the effect of $X$ in reducing the variation in $Y$. It is expressed as the reduction in variation as a proportion of the total variation:

$$
R^{2}=\quad=
$$

2. We may interpret $R^{2}$ ( $\qquad$ ) as the proportionate reduction of total variation associated with the use of the predictor variable $X$.
3. The larger $R^{2}$ is, the more the total $\qquad$ of $Y$ is reduced by introducing the predictor variable $X$.
4. The limiting values of $R^{2}$ may occur:
(a) When all observations fall on the fitted regression line, then $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ . The predictor variable $X$ accounts for $\qquad$ in the observations $Y_{i}$
(b) When the fitted regression line is horizontal so that $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ , then $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ . There is no linear association between $X$ and $Y$ in the sample data.

FIGURE 2.8
(a) $R^{2}=1$

Scatter Plots when $R^{2}=1$ and $R^{2}=0$.



## limitations of $R^{2}$ : three common misunderstandings

1. Misunderstanding 1: A high $R^{2}$ indicates that $\qquad$ can be made. (not necessarily correct)
(a) (Toluca Company Example) the coefficient of determination was high $\left(R^{2}=\right.$ 0.82). Yet the 90 percent prediction interval for the next lot, consisting of 100 units, was wide ( 332 to 507 hours) and not precise enough to permit management to schedule workers effectively.
(b) Misunderstanding 1 arises because $R^{2}$ measures only a $\qquad$ from SSTO and provides no information about absolute precision for estimating a mean response or predicting a new observation.
2. Misunderstanding 2: A high $R^{2}$ indicates that the estimated regression line is a
$\qquad$ . (not necessarily correct)
(a) (Figure 2.9a) a scatter plot where $R^{2}$ is high $\left(R^{2}=0.69\right)$. Yet a linear regression function would not be a good fit since the regression relation is curvilinear.
3. Misunderstanding 3: A $R^{2}$ near zero indicates that $X$ and $Y$ are not related. (not necessarily correct).
(a) (Figure 2.9b) a scatter plot where $R^{2}$ between $X$ and $Y$ is $R^{2}=0.02$. Yet $X$ and $Y$ are strongly related; however, the relationship between the two variables is curvilinear.
(b) Misunderstandings 2 and 3 arise because $R^{2}$ measures the degree of $\qquad$ between $X$ and $Y$, whereas the actual regression relation may be curvilinear.


## Coefficient of Correlation

1. A measure of linear association between $Y$ and $X$ when both $Y$ and $X$ are random is the coefficient of correlation. This measure is the signed square root of $R^{2}$ :
2. A plus or minus sign is attached to this measure according to whether the slope of the fitted regression line is $\qquad$ or $\qquad$ . Thus, the range of $r$ is:
$\qquad$ .

Chapter 2: Inferences in Regression and Correlation Analysis
2.10 Considerations in Applying Regression Analysis*

### 2.11 Normal Correlation Models*

## () TA Class

- Problems: 2.5, 2.8, 2.10, 2.14, 2.17, 2.24, 2.30, 2.31, 2.32
- Exercises: 2.50, 2.55
- Projects: 2.62
＂永遠不要讓別人的冷漠，影響了你對這世界的熱情。＂
＂Never allow the indifference of others to affect your passion for this world．＂
—魔女宅急便（Kiki＇s Delivery Service，1989）


## Regression Analysis (I)

Kutner's Applied Linear Statistical Models (5/E)

# Chapter 3: Diagnostics and Remedial Measures 

Thursday 09:10-12:00, 商館 260205
Han-Ming Wu
Department of Statistics, National Chengchi University
http://www.hmwu.idv.tw

## Overview

1. The features of the model, such as $\qquad$ of the regression function or
$\qquad$ of the error terms, may not be appropriate for the particular data.
2. It is important to examine the aptness of the model for the data before $\qquad$ based on that model are undertaken.
3. Use some simple $\qquad$ methods to study the appropriateness of a model, as well as some $\qquad$ .
4. Consider some $\qquad$ techniques that can be helpful when the data are not in accordance with the conditions of regression model (2.1).

### 3.1 Diagnostics for Predictor Variable

1. Diagnostic for the predictor variable to see if there are any $\qquad$ that could influence the appropriateness of the fitted regression function.
2. Example: Toluca Company Example
(a) (Figure 3.1a) $\qquad$ : the minimum and maximum lot sizes are 20 and 120 , respectively, that the lot size levels are spread throughout this interval, and that there are no lot sizes that are far $\qquad$ .
(b) (Figure 3.1b) $\qquad$ : lot size is plotted against production run (i.e., against time sequence). The plot had shown that smaller lot sizes had been utilized early on and larger lot sizes later on.
(c) (Figure 3.1c) $\qquad$ : provides information similar to a frequency $\qquad$ The letter $M$ denotes the median, and the letter $H$ denotes the first and third quartiles.
(d) (Figure 3.1d) $\qquad$ : the middle half of the lot sizes range from 50 to 90 , and that they are fairly $\qquad$ distributed because the median is located in the middle of the central box.

## FIGURE 3.1 MINITAB and SYGRAPH Diagnostic Plots for Predictor Variable-Toluca Company Example.

(a) Dot Plot

(c) Stem-and-Leaf Plot

20
3000
400
$5 \mathrm{H} \quad 000$
60
7M 000
8000
$9 \mathrm{H} \quad 0000$
$10 \quad 00$
1100
120
(b) Sequence Plot

(d) Box Plot


### 3.2 Residuals

1. Diagnostics for the response variable are usually carried out indirectly through an examination of the $\qquad$ .
2. The residual $e_{i}$ is the difference between the observed value $Y_{i}$ and the fitted value $\hat{Y}_{i}$ : $\qquad$ .
3. The residual may be regarded as the $\qquad$ , in distinction to the unknown true error $\epsilon_{i}$ in the regression model: $\qquad$ .
4. For regression model (2.1), the error terms $\epsilon_{i}$ are assumed to be $\qquad$
$\qquad$ random variables, with mean $\qquad$ and constant variance $\qquad$ .If the model is appropriate for the data at hand, the observed residuals $e_{i}$ should then reflect the properties assumed for the $\epsilon_{i}$.

## Properties of Residuals

## 1. Mean

(a) The mean of the $n$ residuals $e_{i}$ for the simple linear regression model (2.1) is always 0 : $\qquad$ .
(b) It provides $\qquad$ as to whether the true errors $\epsilon_{i}$ have expected value $\qquad$ .

## 2. Variance

(a) The variance of the $n$ residuals $e_{i}$ for regression model is

$$
s^{2}=
$$

(b) If the model is appropriate, MSE is an $\qquad$ estimator of the variance of the error terms $\sigma^{2}$.

## 3. Nonindependence

(a) The residuals $e_{i}$ are $\qquad$ random variables because they involve the fitted values $\hat{Y}_{i}$ which are based on the $\qquad$ fitted regression function.
(b) The residuals for regression model (2.1) are subject to two constraints. These are constraint (1.17) - $\qquad$ - and constraint (1.19) - $\qquad$ .
(c) When the $\qquad$ is large in comparison to the number of $\qquad$ in the regression model, the dependency effect among the residuals $e_{i}$ is relatively unimportant and can be $\qquad$ for most purposes.

## Semistudentized Residuals

1. Since the standard deviation of the error terms $\epsilon_{i}$ is $\sigma$, which is estimated by
$\qquad$ , it is natural to consider the $\qquad$ residuals:

$$
e_{i}^{*}=
$$

2. Both semistudentized residuals and studentized residuals can be very helpful in identifying $\qquad$ observations. (details in Chapter 10)

## Departures from Model to Be Studied by Residuals

1. We shall consider the use of residuals for examining six important types of departures from the simple linear regression model (2.1) with normal errors:
(a) The regression function is not $\qquad$ .
(b) The error terms do not have $\qquad$ .
(c) The error terms are not $\qquad$ .
(d) The model fits all but one or a few $\qquad$ observations.
(e) The error terms are not $\qquad$ distributed.
(f) One or several $\qquad$ variables have been omitted from the model.

### 3.3 Diagnostics for Residuals

1. Some informal diagnostic plots of residuals to provide information on whether any of the six types of departures from the simple linear regression model (2.1)
(a) Plot of residuals against $\qquad$ variable.
(b) Plot of $\qquad$ or $\qquad$ residuals against predictor variable.
(c) Plot of residuals against $\qquad$ . (the most important)
(d) Plot of residuals against $\qquad$ or other sequence.
(e) Plots of residuals against $\qquad$ variables.
(f) Box plot of residuals.
(g) $\qquad$ of residuals.
2. (Figure 3.2) Toluca Company example: plots of the residuals against the predictor variable and against time, a box plot, and a normal probability plot.

FIGURE 3.2 MINITAB and SYGRAPH Diagnostic Residual Plots-Toluca Company Example.


## Nonlinearity of Regression Function

1. Residual plot: whether a linear regression function is appropriate for the data being analyzed can be studied from a $\qquad$ against the $\qquad$ .
2. Nonlinearity of the regression function can also be studied from a $\qquad$ , but this plot is not always as effective as a residual plot.
3. Example) Ridership - Transit Example (Figure 3.3)(TABLE 3.1)
(a) One would like to study the relation between maps distributed and bus ridership in eight test cities. Let $X$ be the number of bus transit maps distributed free to residents of the city at the beginning of the test period and $Y$ be the
increase during the test period in average daily bus ridership during nonpeak hours.
(b) (Figures 3.3) the lack of linearity of the regression function.
(c) In general, the residual plot is to be preferred. It can clearly show any
$\qquad$ in the deviations around the fitted regression line.

FIGURE 3.3 Scatter Plot and Residual
Plot Illustrating Nonlinear Regression FunctionTransit Example.
(a) Scatter Plot

(b) Residual Plot

4. (Figure 3.4a) the residual plot against $X$ when a linear regression model is $\qquad$ . The residuals then fall within a horizontal band centered around 0 , displaying no systematic tendencies to be positive and negative.
5. (Figure 3.4 b ) a departure from the linear regression model that indicates the need for a $\qquad$ regression function. Here the residuals tend to vary in a systematic fashion between being $\qquad$ .

(a)

(b)

## Nonconstancy of Error Variance

1. The residuals plot is also helpful to examine whether the variance of the error terms is $\qquad$ .
2. Plots of the $\qquad$ values of the residuals or of the $\qquad$ residuals against the predictor variable $X$ or against the fitted values $\hat{Y}$ are also useful for diagnosing $\qquad$ of the error variance since the $\qquad$ of the residuals are not meaningful for examining the constancy of the error variance.
3. Example Blood Pressure - Age Example
(a) A study of the relation between diastolic blood pressure of healthy, adult women $(Y)$ and their age $(X)$.
(b) (Figure 3.5) The residual plot suggests that the older the woman is, the more
$\qquad$ the residuals are.
(c) Since the relation between blood pressure and age is positive, this suggests that the error variance is $\qquad$ women than for younger ones.
(d) (Figure 3.5b) a plot of the absolute residuals against age for the blood pressure shows more clearly that the residuals tend to be larger in absolute magnitude for older-aged women.


(b) Absolute Residual Plot against $X$

4. (Figure 3.4c) a residual plots when the error variance increases with $X$. One can also encounter error variances $\qquad$ with increasing levels of the predictor variable and occasionally varying in some more complex fashion.

FIGURE 3.4
Prototype Residual Plots.

(c)

(d)

## Presence of Outliers

1. Residual $\qquad$ (extreme observations) can be identified from residual plots against $X$ or $Y$, as well as from box plots, stem-and-leaf plots, and dot plots of the residuals.
2. A rough rule of thumb when the number of cases is large is to consider $\qquad$ with absolute value of $\qquad$ to be outliers. (details in Chapter 10).
3. (Figure 3.6) The residual plot in presents semistudentized residuals and contains one outlier, which is circled.

4. How to deal with outliers:
(a) A safe rule frequently suggested is to $\qquad$ only if there is direct evidence that it represents an error in recording, a miscalculation, a malfunctioning of equipment, or a similar type of circumstance.
(b) Under the least squares method, a fitted line may be pulled disproportionately
$\qquad$ an outlying observation because the sum of the squared deviations is minimized.
(c) This could cause a misleading fit if indeed the outlying observation resulted from a mistake or other extraneous cause.
5. (Figure 3.7) The fitted regression is $\qquad$ by the outlier that the residual plot suggest a lack of fit of the linear regression model.


## Nonindependence of Error Terms

1. A sequence plot of the residuals: the purpose of plotting the residuals against time or in some other type of sequence is to see if there is any $\qquad$ between error terms that are near each other in the sequence.
2. Example Linear Time-related Trend Effect
(a) (Figure 3.8a) contains a time sequence plot of the residuals in an experiment to study the relation between the diameter of a weld $(X)$ and the shear strength of the weld $(Y)$.
(b) An evident correlation between the error terms stands out. residuals are associated mainly with the early trials, and $\qquad$ residuals with the later trials.
(c) It is sometimes useful to view the problem of nonindependence of the error terms as one in which an important variable (in this case, $\qquad$ ) has been omitted from the model.

FIGURE 3.8 Residual Time Sequence Plots Illustrating Nonindependence of Error Terms.
(a) Welding Example Trend Effect

(b) Cyclical Nonindependence


## 3. Example Cyclical Nonindependent

(a) (Figure 3.8b) the adjacent error terms are also related, but the resulting pattern is a cyclical one with no trend effect present.
(b) When the error terms are $\qquad$ , we expect the residuals in a sequence plot to $\qquad$ in a more or less random pattern around the base line 0 .

## Nonnormality of Error Terms

1. Small departures from normality do not create any serious problems.
2. The normality of the error terms can be studied informally by examining the residuals in a variety of $\qquad$ ways.
3. Distribution Plots A box plot, histogram, dot plot, or stem-and-leaf plot of the residuals can be helpful for detecting gross departures from normality. Note that the number of cases in the regression study must be $\qquad$ for any of these plots to convey reliable information about the $\qquad$ of the distribution of the error terms.
4. Comparison of Frequencies Another possibility when the number of cases is reasonably large is to compare $\qquad$ frequencies of the residuals against
$\qquad$ frequencies under $\qquad$ . For example, one can determine whether, say, about 68 percent of the residuals $e_{i}$ fall between $\qquad$ or about 90 percent fall between $\qquad$ .
5. Normal Probability Plot of the residuals Each residual is plotted against its
$\qquad$ under normality. A plot that is nearly linear suggests agreement with normality, whereas a plot that departs substantially from linearity suggests that the error distribution is not normal.

Question
In Toluca Company example, find the expected values of the ordered residuals under normality.
sol:

|  | TABLE 3.2 |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Residuals and <br> Expected |  | $(1)$ | (2) | (3) <br> Expected <br> Value under |
| Values under | Run | Residual | Rank | Normality |
| Normality- | $\boldsymbol{i}$ | $\boldsymbol{e}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ | $\boldsymbol{k}$ | 51.95 |
| Toluca | 1 | 51.02 | 22 | -44.10 |
| Company | 2 | -48.47 | 5 | -14.76 |
| Example. | 3 | -19.88 | 10 | $\ldots$ |
|  | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 31.05 |
|  | 23 | 38.83 | 19 | 0 |
|  | 24 | -5.98 | 13 | 19.93 |


5. Three normal probability plots when the distribution of the error terms departs substantially from normality.
(a) (Figure 3.9a) shows a normal probability plot when the error term distribution is highly $\qquad$ . Note the $\qquad$ shape of the plot.
(b) (Figure 3.9b) shows a normal probability plot when the error term distribution is highly $\qquad$ . Here, the pattern is $\qquad$ .
(c) (Figure 3.9c) shows a normal probability plot when the distribution of the error tenus is $\qquad$ but has $\qquad$ ; in other words, the distribution has higher probabilities in the tails than a normal distribution.

```
https://www.ucd.ie/ecomodel/Resources/QQplots_WebVersion.html
```

FIGURE 3.9 Normal Probability Plots when Error Term Distribution Is Not Normal.
(a) Skewed Right

(b) Skewed Left

(c) Symmetrical with Heavy Tails


## 6. Difficulties in Assessing Normality

(a) The analysis for model departures with respect to normality is, in many respects, $\qquad$ than that for other types of departures.
(b) It is usually a good strategy to investigate these other types of departures first, before concerning oneself with the normality of the error terms.

## Omission of Important Predictor Variables

1. Residuals should also be plotted against variables omitted from the model that might have important effects on the response.
2. Example One would like to study the relation between output $(Y)$ and age $(X)$ of worker in an assembling operation for a sample of employees. In this study, the machines produced by two companies ( $A$ and $B$ ) are used in the assembling operation.

(b) Company A Machines

(c) Company B Machines

(a) (Figure 3.10a) no ground for suspecting the appropriateness of the linearity of the regression function or the constancy of the error variance.
(b) (Figure 3.10b, 3.10c) The residuals for Company $A$ machines tend to be positive: while those for Company $B$ machines tend to be negative.
(c) Type of machine appears to have a definite effect on productivity, and output predictions may turn out to be far superior when this variable is added to the model.

## Some Final Comments ${ }^{1}$

1. Several types of departures may occur $\qquad$ .
2. Although graphic analysis of residuals is only an informal method of analysis, in many cases it $\qquad$ for examining the aptness of a model.
3. The basic approach to residual analysis explained here applies not only to simple linear regression but also to more $\qquad$ and other types of
$\qquad$ .
4. Model misspecification due to either $\qquad$ or the $\qquad$ of important predictor variables tends to be serious, leading to $\qquad$ estimates of the regression parameters and error variance.
5. $\qquad$ of error variance tends to be less serious, leading to less efficient estimates and invalid error variance estimates.
6. The presence of $\qquad$ can be serious for smaller data sets when their influence is large.
7. The $\qquad$ of error terms results in estimators that are unbiased but whose variances are seriously $\qquad$ .

### 3.4 Overview of Tests Involving Residuals

1. Graphic analysis of residuals is inherently $\qquad$ .
2. Most statistical tests require independent observations. The residuals are $\qquad$ . The dependencies become quite small for $\qquad$ , so that one can usually then ignore them.

## Tests for Randomness

1. A $\qquad$ is frequently used to test for lack of randomness in the residuals arranged in time order.

[^0]2. $\qquad$ : designed for lack of randomness in least squares residuals. (Chapter 12).

## Tests for Constancy of Variance

1. When a residual plot gives the impression that the variance may be increasing or decreasing in a systematic manner related to $X$ or $E(Y)$, a simple test is based on the $\qquad$ between the absolute values of the residuals and the corresponding values of the predictor variable.
2. Tests for constancy of the error variance: the $\qquad$ test and the
$\qquad$ test (Section 3.6.)

## Tests for Outliers

1. A simple test for identifying an outlier observation: detail in (Chapter 10).
2. Many other tests to aid in evaluating outliers have been developed (Reference 3.1.)

## Tests for Normality

1. $\qquad$ (the chi-square test, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and its modification, the Lilliefors test) can be employed for testing the normality of the error terms by analyzing the residuals.
2. A simple test based on the $\qquad$ of the residuals (Section 3.5.)

### 3.5 Correlation Test for Normality

1. A formal test for normality of the error terms can be conducted by calculating the coefficient of $\qquad$ between the residuals $e_{i}$ and their $\qquad$ under normality.
2. A high value of the correlation coefficient is indicative of normality.
3. (Table B.6) (Looney and Gulledge) (Ref. 3.2) contains $\qquad$ (percentiles) for various sample sizes for the distribution of the coefficient of correlation between the ordered residuals and their expected values under normality when the error terms are normally distributed.
4. If the observed coefficient of correlation is $\qquad$ as the tabled value, for a given a level, one can conclude that the error terms are reasonably normally distributed.
5. Example Toluca Company Example: the coefficient of correlation between the ordered residuals and their expected values under normality is $\qquad$ . Controlling the a risk at $\qquad$ , we find from Table B. 6 that the critical value for $n=25$ is $\qquad$ . Since the observed coefficient exceeds this level, we have support for our earlier conclusion that the distribution of the error terms does not depart substantially from a normal distribution.
(-) Normality test: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Normality_test.

### 3.6 Tests for Constancy of Error Variance

## Brown-Forsythe Test

1. Assumption: the sample size needs to be large enough so that the dependencies among the residuals can be ignored.
2. The Brown-Forsythe test is based on the $\qquad$ of the residuals. The larger the error variance, the larger the variability of the residuals will tend to be.
3. The Brown-Forsythe test then consists simply of the $\qquad$ based on test statistic (A.67)
to determine whether the $\qquad$ for one group differs significantly from the mean absolute deviation for the second group. Steps:
(a) Divide the data set into two groups, according to the $\qquad$ , so that one group consists of cases where the $X$ level is comparatively $\qquad$ and the other group consists of cases where the $X$ level is comparatively $\qquad$ .
(b) If the error variance is either increasing or decreasing with $X$, the residuals in one group will tend to be $\qquad$ than those in the other group.
(c) Equivalently, the $\qquad$ of the residuals around their group mean will tend to be larger for one group than for the other group.
(d) In order to make the test more $\qquad$ , we utilize the absolute deviations of the residuals around the $\qquad$ for the group (Ref. 3.5).
4. Although the distribution of the absolute deviations of the residuals is usually
$\qquad$ , it has been shown that the $t^{*}$ test statistic still follows approximately the $\qquad$ when the variance of the error terms is $\qquad$ and the sample sizes of the two groups are not extremely small.
5. Notations: the $i$ th residual for group $1(2)$ by $e_{i 1}\left(e_{i 2}\right)$, the sample sizes of the two groups by $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$, the medians of the residuals in the two groups by $\tilde{e}_{1}$ and $\tilde{e}_{2}$.
6. The Brown-Forsythe test uses the absolute deviations of the residuals around their group $\qquad$ , to be denoted by $d_{i 1}$ and $d_{i 2}$ :
and
7. The two-samplet test statistic (called the Brown-Forsythe test statistics $t_{B F}^{*}$ ) becomes:

$$
t_{B F}^{*}=
$$

where $\bar{d}_{1}$ and $\bar{d}_{2}$ are the sample means of the $d_{i 1}$ and $d_{i 2}$ respectively, and the pooled variance $s^{2}$ becomes:

$$
s^{2}=
$$

$\qquad$
8. If the error terms have constant variance and $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ are not extremely small, $t_{B F}^{*}$ follows approximately the $\qquad$ distribution with $\qquad$ degrees of freedom.
9. Large absolute values of $t_{B F}^{*}$ indicate that the error terms do not have constant variance.

Question ............................................................................................
Use the Brown-Forsythe test for the Toluca Company example to determine whether or not the error term variance varies with the level of $X$. (Note that since the $X$ levels are spread fairly uniformly, you can divide the 25 cases into two groups with approximately equal $X$ ranges. The first group consists of the 13 runs with lot sizes from 20 to 70 . The second group consists of the 12 runs with lot sizes from 80 to 120. $\left(\alpha=0.05, t_{0.975,23}=2.069\right)$
sol:

| TABLE 3.3 |  |  |  | Group 1 |  | ' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| for Brown- |  |  | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) |
| Forsythe Test |  |  | Lot | Residual |  |  |
| for Constancy | $i$ | Run | Size | $e_{i 1}$ | $d_{11}$ | $\left(d_{i 1}-\bar{d}_{1}\right)^{2}$ |
| of Error | 1 | 14 | 20 | -20.77 | . 89 | 1,929.41 |
| Variance- | 2 | 2 | 30 | -48.47 | 28.59 | 263.25 |
| Toluca | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | ... | $\ldots$ |  |
| Company | 12 | 12 | 70 | -60.28 | 40.40 | 19.49 |
| Example. | 13 | 25 | 70 | 10.72 | 30.60 | 202.07 |
|  |  | Total |  |  | 582,60 | 12,566.6 |
|  |  |  |  | $88 \quad \bar{d}_{1}$ |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | Group 2 |  |  |
|  |  |  | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) |
|  |  |  | Lot | Residual |  |  |
|  | $i$ | Run | Size |  | $d_{i 2}$ | $\left(d_{i 2}-\bar{d}_{2}\right)^{2}$ |
|  | 1 | 1 | 80 | 51.02 | 53.70 | 637.56 |
|  | 2 | 8 | 80 | 4.02 | 6.70 | 473.06 |
|  | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | ... | ... | ... |
|  | 11 | 20 | 110 | -34.09 | 31.41 | 8.76 |
|  | 12 | 7 | 120 | 55.21 | 57.89 | 866.71 |
|  |  | Total |  |  | 341.40 | 9,610.2 |
|  |  |  |  | $68 d_{2}$ |  |  |

## Breusch-Pagan Test*

## 3.7 $F$ Test for Lack of Fit

## Assumptions

1. $F$ test for $\qquad$ is a formal test for determining whether a specific type of regression function adequately fits the data.
2. The lack of fit test assumes that the observations $Y$ for given $X$ are (1) and (2) $\qquad$ distributed, and that (3) the distributions of $Y$ have the
3. Replications, Replicates: the lack of fit test requires $\qquad$ observations at one or more $X$ levels. Repeat trials for the same level of the predictor variable, of the type described, are called $\qquad$ . The resulting observations are called $\qquad$ .
4. Example Bank Example
(a) In an experiment involving 12 similar but scattered suburban branch offices of a commercial bank, holders of checking accounts at the offices were offered gifts for setting up money market accounts. Minimum initial deposits in the new money market account were specified to qualify for the gift. The value of the gift was directly proportional to the specified minimum deposit. Various levels of minimum deposit and related gift values were used in the experiment in order to ascertain the relation between the specified minimum deposit and gift value, on the one hand, and number of accounts opened at the office, on the other. Altogether, six levels of minimum deposit and proportional gift value were used, with two of the branch offices assigned at random to each level. One branch office had a fire during the period and was dropped from the study. Table 3.4a contains the results, where $X$ is the amount of minimum deposit and $Y$ is the number of new money market accounts that were opened and qualified for the gift during the test period.

TABLE 3.4
Data and
Analysis of
Variance
Table-Bank
Example.

| (a) Data |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Branch <br> $i$ | Size of Minimum Deposit (dollars) $X_{i}$ | Number of New Accounts $\boldsymbol{Y}_{i}$ | Branch <br> $i$ | Size of Minimum Deposit (dollars) $X_{i}$ | Number of New Accounts $\boldsymbol{Y}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ |
| 1 | 125 | 160 | 7 | 75 | 42 |
| 2 | 100 | 112 | 8 | 175 | 124 |
| 3 | 200 | 124 | 9 | 125 | 150 |
| 4 | 75 | 28 | 10 | 200 | 104 |
| 5 | 150 | 152 | 11 | 100 | 136 |
| 6 | 175 | 156 |  |  |  |
| (b) ANOVA Table |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Source of Variation | SS | df | MS |  |
|  | Regression | 5,141.3 | 1 | 5,141.3 |  |
|  | Error | 14,741.6 | 9 | 1,638.0 |  |
|  | Total | 19,882.9 | 10 |  |  |

(b) A linear regression function was fitted:

$$
\hat{Y}=50.72251+0.48670 X
$$

(Table 3.4b): The analysis of variance table.
(c) (Figure 3.11) A scatter plot, together with the fitted regression line, indicates that a linear regression function is $\qquad$ . We use the general linear test approach to do a formal test.

FIGURE 3.11 Scatter Plot and Fitted Regression Line-Bank Example.


TABLE 3.5 Data Arranged by Replicate
Number and Minimum Deposit-Bank Example.

|  | Size of Minimum Deposit (dollars) |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $j=1$ | $j=2$ | $j=3$ | $j=4$ | $j=5$ | $j=6$ |
| Replicate | $X_{1}=75$ | $X_{2}=100$ | $X_{3}=125$ | $X_{4}=150$ | $X_{5}=175$ | $X_{6}=200$ |
| $j=1$ | 28 | 112 | 160 | 152 | 156 | 124 |
| $i=2$ | 42 | 136 | 150 |  | 124 | 104 |
| Mean $\bar{Y}_{j}$ | 35 | 124 | 155 | 152 | 140 | 114 |

## Notation

1. (Table 3.5) presents the same data but in an arrangement that recognizes the replicates. We shall denote the different $X$ levels in the study, whether or not replicated observations are present, as $X_{1}, \cdots, X_{c}$.
2. There are six minimum deposit size levels in the study $(c=6)$, for five of which there are two observations and for one there is a single observation. We shall let $X_{1}=75$ (the smallest minimum deposit level), $X_{2}=100, \cdots, X_{6}=200$.
3. Denote the number of replicates for the $j$ th level of $X$ as $n_{j}$; for our example, $n_{1}=n_{2}=n_{3}=n_{5}=n_{6}=2$ and $n_{4}=1$. Thus, the total number of observations $n$ is given by: $n=\sum_{j=1}^{c} n_{j}$.
4. Denote the observed value of the response variable for the $i$ th replicate for the $j$ th level of $X$ by $Y_{i j}$, where $i=1, \cdots, n_{j}, j=1, \cdots, c$.
5. (Table 3.5), $Y_{11}=28, Y_{21}=42, Y_{12}=112$, and so on. Denote the mean of the $Y$ observations at the level $X=X_{j}$ by $\bar{Y}_{j}$. Thus, $\bar{Y}_{1}=(28+42) / 2=35$ and $\bar{Y}_{4}=152 / 1=152$.

## Full model

1. The full model used for the lack of fit test makes the $\qquad$ as the simple linear regression model (2.1) except for assuming a linear regression relation, the subject of the test.
$\qquad$
where $\mu_{j}$ are parameters $j=1, \cdots, c, \epsilon_{i j}$ are independent $\qquad$ .
2. Since the error terms have expectation zero, it follows that:

$$
E\left(Y_{i j}\right)=
$$

Thus, the parameter $\mu_{j}(j=1, \cdots, c)$ is the mean response when $X=X_{j}$.
3. The full model states that each response $Y$ is made up of two components: the
$\qquad$ when $X=X_{j}$ and a $\qquad$ term.
4. The difference between the two models is that in the full model (3.13) there are no restrictions on the $\qquad$ , whereas in the regression model (2.1) the mean responses are linearly related to $X$ (i.e., $\qquad$
5. The least squares or maximum likelihood estimators for the parameters $\mu_{j}$ : $\qquad$ .
6. The estimated expected value for observation $Y_{i j}$ is $\qquad$ , and the error sum of squares (also called the pure error sum of squares, $\overline{\mathrm{SSPE}) \text { for the full model: }}$

$$
S S E(F)=\quad=S S P E
$$

7. Note that $S S P E$ is made up of the sums of squared deviations $\qquad$ .

At level $X=X_{j}$, this sum of squared deviations is:

$$
\sum_{i}\left(Y_{i j}-\bar{Y}_{j}\right)^{2}
$$

These sums of squares are then added over all of the $X$ levels $(j=1, \cdots, c)$.
8. Example For the bank example, we have:

$$
S S P E=(28-35)^{2}+(42-35)^{2}+(112-124)^{2}+\cdots+(104-114)^{2}=1,148
$$

Note that any $X$ level with no replications makes $\qquad$ to $S S P E$ because $\bar{Y}_{j}=Y_{1 j}$ for $j=4$.
9. The degrees of freedom associated with $S S P E$ can be obtained by recognizing that the sum of squared deviations (3.17) at a given level of $X$ is like an ordinary total sum of squares based on $n$ observations, which has $\qquad$ degrees of freedom associated with it. Here, there are $n_{j}$ observations when $X=X_{j}$; hence the degrees of freedom are $\qquad$ -
10. Just as $S S P E$ is the sum of the sums of squares (3.17), so the number of degrees of freedom associated with $S S P E$ is the sum of the component degrees of freedom:

$$
d f_{F}=
$$

$\qquad$

## Reduced Model

1. For testing the appropriateness of a linear regression relation, the alternatives are:
$\qquad$
Thus, $H_{0}$ postulates that $\mu_{j}$ in the full model (3.13) is linearly related to $X_{j}$

The reduced model under $H_{0}$ therefore is:
2. Note that the reduced model is the ordinary simple linear regression model (2.1), with the subscripts modified to recognize the existence of $\qquad$ .
3. We know that the estimated expected value for observation $Y_{i j}$ with regression model (2.1) is the fitted value $\hat{Y}_{i j}$

Hence, the error sum of squares for the reduced model is the usual error sum of squares $S S E$ :

$$
S S E(R)=
$$

$\qquad$
We also know that the degrees of freedom associated with $S S E(R)$ are: $\qquad$ .
4. Example For the bank example, we have from Table 3.4b: $\operatorname{SSE}(R)=S S E=$ 14741.6, $d f_{R}=9$

## Test Statistic

1. The general linear test statistic (2.70):

$$
F^{*}=
$$

here becomes:

$$
F^{*}=
$$

$\qquad$
2. The difference between the two error sums of squares is called the $\qquad$
$\qquad$ (SSLF):

$$
S S L F=
$$

$\qquad$
3. We can then express the test statistic as follows:

$$
F^{*}=
$$

where MSLF denotes the lack of fit mean square and MSPE denotes the pure error mean square.
4. We know that large values of $F^{*}$ lead to conclusion $H_{a}$ in the general linear test. Decision rule (2.71) here becomes:

$$
\text { If } F^{*} \leq F_{(1-\alpha ; c-2, n-c)}, \text { conclude } H_{0}
$$

If $\qquad$
5. Example For the bank example, the test statistic:

$$
\begin{aligned}
S S P E & =1148.0, \quad n-c=11-6=5 \\
S S E & =14741.6 \\
S S L F & =14741.6-1,148.0=13,593.6, \quad c-2=6-2=4 \\
F^{*} & =\frac{13,593.6}{4} \div \frac{1148.0}{5}=\frac{3,398.4}{229.6}=14.80
\end{aligned}
$$

If the level of significance is to be $\alpha=0.01$, we require $F_{(0.99 ; 4,5)}=11.4$. Since $F^{*}=14.80>11.4$, we conclude $H_{a}$, that the regression function is not linear. The $P$-value for the test is 0.006 .

## ANOVA Table

1. The error deviations in SSE are made up of a pure error component and a lack of fit component: $\qquad$ .

$$
Y_{i j}-\hat{Y}_{i j}=
$$

Error deviation $=$ $\qquad$
2. Example (Figure 3.12) illustrates this partitioning for the case $Y_{13}=160, X_{3}=125$ in the bank example.

3. When (3.28) is squared and summed over all observations, we obtain (3.27) since the cross-product sum equals zero:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum \sum\left(Y_{i j}-\hat{Y}_{i j}\right)^{2} & = \\
S S E & =\overline{S S P E+S S L F}
\end{aligned}
$$

4. Why SSLF measures lack of fit? If the linear regression function is appropriate, then the $\qquad$ will be near the $\qquad$ calculated from the estimated linear regression function and $S S L F$ will be $\qquad$ .
5. On the other hand, if the linear regression function is not appropriate, the means $\bar{Y}_{j}$ will not be near the fitted values calculated from the estimated linear regression function and $S S L F$ will be large.
6. SSLF has $c-2$ degrees of freedom: there are $\qquad$ means $\bar{Y}_{j}$ in the sum of squares, and $\qquad$ degrees of freedom are lost in estimating the parameters $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$, of the linear regression function to obtain the fitted values $\hat{Y}_{j}$.
7. (Table 3.6) contains the ANOVA decomposition for the bank example.

TABLE 3.6
General
ANOVA Table for Testing Lack of Fit of Simple Linear Regression Function and ANOVA Table-Bank Example.

| (a) General |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Source of Variation | SS | df | MS |
| Regression | $S S R=\sum \sum\left(\hat{Y}_{i j}-\bar{Y}\right)^{2}$ | 1 | $M S R=\frac{S S R}{1}$ |
| Error | $S S E=\sum \sum\left(Y_{i j}-\hat{Y}_{i j}\right)^{2}$ | $n-2$ | $M S E=\frac{S S E}{n-2}$ |
| Lack of fit | SSLF $=\sum \sum\left(\bar{Y}_{j}-\hat{Y}_{i j}\right)^{2}$ | $c-2$ | $\text { MSLF }=\frac{\text { SSLLF }}{C-2}$ |
| Pure error | SSPE $=\sum \sum\left(Y_{i j}-\bar{Y}_{j}\right)^{2}$ | $n-c$ | $M S P E=\frac{S S P E}{n-c}$ |
| Total | $S S T O=\sum \sum\left(Y_{i j}-\bar{Y}\right)^{2}$ | $n-1$ |  |
| (b) Bank Example |  |  |  |
| Source of Variation | SS | df | MS |
| Regression | 5,141.3 | 1 | 5,141.3 |
| Error | 14,741.6 | 9 | 1,638.0 |
|  | $13,593.6$ | 4 | 3,398.4 |
| Pure error | $1,148.0$ | 5 | 229.6 |
| Total | 19,882.9 | 10 |  |

## Comments

1. Not all levels of $X$ need have repeat observations for the $F$ test for lack of fit to be applicable. Repeat observations at only one or some levels of $X$ are $\qquad$ .
2. Suppose that prior to any analysis of the appropriateness of the model, we had fitted a linear regression model and wished to test whether or not $\beta_{1}=0$. For the bank example (Table 3Ab), test statistic (2.60) would be:

$$
F^{*}=\frac{M S R}{M S E}=\frac{5141.3}{1638.0}=3.14
$$

For $\alpha=.10, F_{(0.90 ; 1,9)}=3.36$, and we would $\qquad$ , that $\beta_{1}=0$ or that there is $\qquad$ between minimum deposit size (and value of gift) and number of new accounts. A conclusion that there is no relation between these variables would be improper, however. Such an inference requires that regression model (2.1) be $\qquad$ . Here, there is a definite relationship, but the regression function is not linear. This illustrates the importance of always examining the appropriateness of a model before any inferences are drawn.
3. The alternative $H_{a}$ in (3.19) includes all regression functions other than a $\qquad$ one. For instance, it includes a quadratic regression function or a logarithmic one. If $H_{a}$ is concluded, a study of $\qquad$ can be helpful in identifying an appropriate function.
4. When no replications are present in a data set, an approximate test for lack of fit can be conducted if there are some cases at adjacent $X$ levels for which the mean responses are quite close to each other. Such adjacent cases are grouped together and treated as $\qquad$ , and the test for lack of fit is then carried out using these groupings of adjacent cases. (Reference 3.8.)

### 3.8 Overview of Remedial Measures

1. If the simple linear regression model (2.1) is not appropriate for a data set, there are two basic choices:
(a) Abandon regression model (2.1) and develop and use a $\qquad$ .
(b) Employ some $\qquad$ on the data so that regression model (2.1) is appropriate for the transformed data.

## Nonlinearity of Regression Function

Section 3.9, Section 3.10. Chapter 7.

## Nonconstancy of Error Variance

Section 3.9, Chapter 11.

## Nonindependence of Error Terms

Chapter 12.

## Nonnormality of Error Terms

Section 3.9.

## Omission of Important Predictor Variables

Chapter 6.

## Outlying Observations

Chapter 11.

### 3.9 Transformations

Simple transformations of either the response variable $\qquad$ or the predictor variable
$\qquad$ , or of $\qquad$ , are often sufficient to make the simple linear regression model appropriate for the transformed data.

## Transformations for Nonlinear Relation Only

1. We first consider transformations for linearizing a nonlinear regression relation when the distribution of the $\qquad$ is reasonably close to a $\qquad$ distribution and the error terms have approximately $\qquad$ .
2. In this situation, transformations on $\qquad$ should be attempted. Transformation on $Y$ may materially change the shape of the distribution of the - error terms from the normal distribution and may also lead to substantially differing error term variances.

3. (Figure 3.13) some prototype nonlinear regression relations with constant error variance and also presents some simple transformations on $X$ that may be helpful to
$\qquad$ the regression relationship without affecting the $\qquad$ .
4. Example A battery of simulated sales
(a) Data from an experiment on the effect of number of days of training received $(X)$ on performance $(Y)$ in a battery of simulated sales situations are presented in Table 3.7, columns 1 and 2, for the 10 participants in the study.

(b) (Figure 3.14a) Clearly the regression relation appears to be curvilinear, so the simple linear regression model (2.1) does not seem to be appropriate. Since the
$\qquad$ at the different $X$ levels appears to be fairly $\qquad$ , we shall consider a transformation on $X$. Based on Figure 3.13a, consider initially the square root transformation $\qquad$ .

FIGURE 3.14 Scatter Plots and Residual Plots-Sales Training Example.

(c) (Figure 3.14b), the same data are plotted with the predictor variable transformed to $X^{\prime}=\sqrt{X}$. Note that the scatter plot now shows a reasonably
$\qquad$ relation. The variability of the scatter at the different $X$ levels is the same as before, since we did not make a transformation on $\qquad$ -
(d) To examine further whether the simple linear regression model (2.1) is appropriate now, we fit it to the transformed $X$ data:
(e) (Figure 3.14c) the plot of residuals against $X^{\prime}$ shows $\qquad$ of lack of fit or of strongly unequal error variances.
(f) (Figure 3.14d) a normal probability plot of the residuals. No strong indications of substantial departures from $\qquad$ . This conclusion is supported by the $\qquad$ between the ordered residuals and their expected values under normality, 0.979 .
(g) For $\alpha=0.01$, Table B. 6 shows that the critical value is 0.879 , so the observed coefficient is substantially larger and supports the reasonableness of normal error terms. Thus, the simple linear regression model (2.1) appears to be appropriate here for the transformed data.
(h) The fitted regression function in the $\qquad$ can easily be obtained, if desired:

$$
\hat{Y}=
$$

$\qquad$

## Transformations for Nonnormality and Unequal Error Variances

1. Unequal error variances and nonnormality of the error terms frequently appear together. To remedy these departures from the simple linear regression model (2.1), we need a $\qquad$ , since the $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ of the distributions of $Y$ need to be changed.
2. A simultaneous $\qquad$ may be needed to obtain or maintain a linear regression relation.
3. (Figure 3.15) Frequently, the nonnormality and unequal variances departures from regression model (2.1) take the form of $\qquad$ and of the distributions of the error terms as the mean response $E(Y)$ increases.

4. $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ should be prepared to determine the most effective transformations．

| TABLE 3.8 |  | （1） |  | （2） | （3） |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Use of | Child | Ag |  | Plasma Level |  |
| Transforma－ | ； | $X_{i}$ |  | $\boldsymbol{Y}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ | $Y_{i}^{\prime}=\log _{10} Y_{i}$ |
| tion of $Y$ to | 1 |  | （newborn） | 13.44 | 1.1284 |
| Linearize | 2 |  | （newborn） | 12.84 | 1.1086 |
| Regression | 3 |  | （newborn） | 11.91 | 1.0759 |
| Relation and | 4 |  | （newborn） | 20.09 | 1.3030 |
| Stabilize Error | 5 | 0 | （newborn） | 15.60 | 1.1931 |
| Variance－ | 6 | 1.0 |  | 10.11 | 1.0048 |
| Plasma Levels | 7 | 1.0 |  | 11.38 | 1.0561 |
| Example． | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ |  | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ |
|  | 19 | 3.0 |  | 6.90 | ． 8388 |
|  | 20 | 3.0 |  | 6.77 | ． 8306 |
|  | 21 | 4.0 |  | 4.86 | ． 6866 |
|  | 22 | 4.0 |  | 5.10 | ． 7076 |
|  | 23 | 4.0 |  | 5.67 | ． 7536 |
|  | 24 | 4.0 |  | 5.75 | ． 7597 |
|  | 25 | 4.0 |  | 6.23 | ． 7945 |

5．Example Plasma Level Example
（a）（Table 3．8）Data on age（ $X$ ）and plasma（血漿）level of a polyamine（多元胺） $(Y)$ for a portion of the 25 healthy children in a study．
（b）（Figure 3．16a）a scatter plot shows the distinct $\qquad$ regression relationship，as well as the greater variability for younger children than for older ones．
（c）（Figure 3．16b）the scatter plot of the logarithmic transformation $\qquad$ ． The transformation not only has led to a reasonably linear regression relation， but the variability at the different levels of $X$ also has become reasonably
$\qquad$ ．

(d) To further examine the reasonableness of the transformation $Y^{\prime}=\log _{10} Y$, we fitted the simple linear regression model (2.1) to the transformed $Y$ data and obtained:
(e) (Figure 3.16c, d) the evidence supports the appropriateness of regression model (2.1) for the transformed $Y$ data: (i) A plot of the residuals against $X$, and a normal probability plot of the residuals. (ii) The coefficient of correlation between the ordered residuals and their expected values under normality is
$\qquad$ . (iii) For $\alpha=0.05$, Table B. 6 indicates that the critical value is
$\qquad$ so that the observed coefficient supports the assumption of normality of the error terms.
(f) NOTE: When $Y$ is negative, the logarithmic transformation to shift the origin in $Y$ and make all $Y$ observations positive would be $\qquad$ , where $k$ is an appropriately chosen constant.
(g) NOTE: When unequal error variances are present but the regression relation is linear, a transformation on $Y$ may not be sufficient while such a transformation may $\qquad$ the error variance, it will also change the linear relationship to a $\qquad$ one. A transformation on $X$ may therefore also be required.

## Box-Cox Transformations

1. The Box-Cox procedure (Ref. 3.9) automatically identifies a transformation from the family of power transformations on $Y$. The family of $\qquad$ is of the form:
where $\lambda$ is a parameter to be determined from the data.
2. Note that this family encompasses the following simple transformations:

$$
\begin{array}{rl}
\lambda=2 & Y^{\prime}=Y^{2} \\
\lambda=0.5 & Y^{\prime}=\sqrt{Y} \\
\lambda=0 & \\
\hline \lambda=-0.5 & Y^{\prime}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{Y}} \\
\lambda=-1.0 & Y=\frac{1}{Y}
\end{array} \quad \text { (by definition) }
$$

(-) Power transform (Box-Cox transformation) - Wikipedia:
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Power_transform.
3. The normal error regression model with the response variable a member of the family of power transformations becomes:

$$
Y^{\lambda}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i}+\epsilon_{i}
$$

Note that above regression model includes an additional parameter, $\lambda$, which needs to be estimated.
4. The Box-Cox procedure uses the method of $\qquad$ to estimate $\lambda$, as well as the other parameters $\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}$, and $\sigma^{2}$.
5. A simple procedure for obtaining $\hat{\lambda}$ :
(a) search in a range of potential $\lambda$ values; for example, $\lambda=-2, \lambda=-1.75, \cdots, \lambda=$ $1.75, \lambda=2$. For each $\lambda$ value, the $Y_{i}^{\lambda}$ observations are first $\qquad$ so that the magnitude of the error sum of squares does not depend on the value of $\lambda$.
(b) Once the standardized observations have been obtained for a given $\lambda$ value, they are regressed on the predictor variable $X$ - and is obtained.
(c) It can be shown that the maximum likelihood estimate $\hat{\lambda}$ is that value of $\lambda$ for which SSE is a minimum.
6. After a transformation has been tentatively selected, residual plots and other analyses described earlier need to be employed to ascertain that the simple linear regression model (2.1) is appropriate for the transformed data.

### 3.10 Exploration of Shape of Regression Function*

## lowess Method*

## Use of Smoothed Curves to Confirm Fitted Regression Function*

### 3.11 Case Example - Plutonium Measurement

1. Background Description: Some environmental cleanup work requires that nuclear materials, such as plutonium 238 (鈽-238), be located and completely removed from a restoration site. When plutonium has become mixed with other materials in very small amounts, detecting its presence can be a difficult task. Even very small amounts can be traced, however, because plutonium emits subatomic particles alpha particles - that can be detected. Devices that are used to detect plutonium record the intensity of alpha particle strikes in counts per second (\#/sec). The regression relationship between alpha counts per second (the response variable) and
plutonium activity（the explanatory variable）is then used to estimate the activity of plutonium in the material under study．

2．Data Description：（Table 3．10）In a study to establish the regression relationship for a particular measurement device，four plutonium standards were used．These standards are aluminum／plutonium rods containing a fixed，known level of pluto－ nium activity．The levels of plutonium activity in the four standards were 0．0，5．0， 10.0 ，and 20.0 picocuries（皮克居禮，衡量幅射的單位）per gram（ $\mathrm{pCi} / \mathrm{g}$ ）．Each standard was exposed to the detection device from 4 to 10 times，and the rate of alpha strikes，measured as counts per second，was observed for each replication．

| TABLE 3．10 <br> Basic Data－ | Case | Plutonium <br> Activity <br> （pCi／g） | Alpha Count <br> Rate <br> （\＃／sek） |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Plutomium <br> Measurement | 1 | 20 | .150 |
| Example． | 2 | 0 | .004 |
|  | 3 | 10 | .069 |
|  | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ |
|  | 22 | 0 | .002 |
|  | 23 | 5 | .049 |
|  | 24 | 0 | .106 |

3．Goal：The task here is to estimate the regression relationship between alpha counts per second $(Y)$ and plutonium activity $(X)$ ．

4．Assumption Before Doing Analysis：the level of alpha counts increases with pluto－ nium activity，but the exact nature of the relationship is generally unknown．

5．Exploratory Data Analysis，EDA：
（a）Scatter plot：（Figure 3．20a）The strike rate tends to increase with the activity level of plutonium．Notice also that nonzero strike rates are recorded for the standard containing no plutonium．This results from background radiation and indicates that a regression model with an intercept term is required here．

(b) Investigate Relationship: The regression relationship may be linear or slightly curvilinear in the range of the plutonium activity levels included in the study.
(c) Outlier Detection: An examination of laboratory records revealed that the experimental conditions were not properly maintained for the last case, and it was therefore decided that $\qquad$ . A linear regression function was fitted next, based on the remaining 23 cases.
6. Parameters Estimation and ANOVA: (Figure 3.21a) the slope of the regression line is not zero $\left(F^{*}=228.9984, P\right.$-value $\left.=0.0000\right)$ so that a regression $\qquad$ .

FIGURE 3.21 SAS-JMP Regression Output and Diagnostic Plots for Untransformed Data-Plutonium Measurement Example.

| Term | Estimate | Std Error | t Ratio | Prob $>\|\mathbf{t}\|$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Intercept | 0.0070331 | 0.0036 | 1.95 | 0.0641 |
| Plutonium | 0.005537 | 0.00037 | 15.13 | 0.0000 |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Ratio |
| Model | 1 | 0.03619042 | 0.036190 | 228.9984 |
| Error | 21 | 0.00331880 | 0.000158 | Prob>F |
| CTotal | 22 | 0.03950922 |  | 0.0000 |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Ratio |
| Lack of Fit | 2 | 0.00016811 | 0.000084 | 0.5069 |
| Pure Error | 19 | 0.00315069 | 0.000166 | Prob> $>$ |
| Total Error | 21 | 0.00331880 |  | 0.6103 |


7. Model Diagnostic:
(a) Residuals Plot: (Figure 3.21b) the flared, megaphone shape of the residual plot shows that the error variance appears to be increasing with the level of plutonium activity.
(b) The Normal Probability plot: (Figure 3.21c) suggests non-normality $\qquad$ but the nonlinearity of the plot is likely to be related (at least in part) to the unequal error variances.
(c) Breusch-Pagan Test: the existence of nonconstant variance is confirmed by the Breusch-Pagan Test statistic:

$$
\chi_{B P}^{2}=23.29>\chi_{(0.95 ; 1)}^{2}=3.84
$$

8. Re-analysis After Data Transformation on $Y$ :
(a) Box-Cox transformation: using the standardized variable, the maximum likelihood estimate of $\lambda$ to be $\hat{\lambda}=0.65$. The Box-Cox procedure supports the use of the $\qquad$ (i.e., use of $\lambda=0.5$ ).
(b) Parameters Estimation and ANOVA: (Figure 3.22a) The results of fitting a linear regression function when the response variable is $Y^{\prime}=\sqrt{Y}$. The Lack of Fit Test statistic is $F^{*}=10.1364$ with $P$-value $=0.0010$.

FIGURE 3.22 SAS-JMP Regression Output and Diagnostic Plots for Transformed Response Variable-Plutonium Measurement Example.
(a) Regression Output

| Term | Estimate | Std Error | t Ratio | Prob> $>\mathbf{t}$ \| |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Intercept | 0.0947596 | 0.00957 | 9.91 | 0.0000 |
| Plutonium | 0.0133648 | 0.00097 | 13.74 | 0.0000 |
| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Ratio |
| Model | 1 | 0.21084655 | 0.210847 | 188.7960 |
| Error | 21 | 0.02345271 | 0.001117 | Prob>F |
| C Total | 22 | 0.23429926 |  | 0.0000 |
| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Ratio |
| Lack of Fit | 2 | 0.01210640 | 0.006053 | 10.1364 |
| Pure Error | 19 | 0.01134631 | 0.000597 | Prob>F |
| Total Error | 21 | 0.02345271 |  | 0.0010 |

(b)

Residual Plot
(c)

Normal Probability Plot


(c) Diagnostic Plots: (Figure 3.22b, c) the residual plot shows that the error variance appears to be more $\qquad$ , it also suggests the $Y^{\prime}$ is nonlinearly related to $X$. The points in the normal probability plot fall roughly on a
$\qquad$ line.
9. Re-analysis Again After Transformation on $X$
(a) Parameters Estimation and ANOVA: (Figure 3.23a) The Lack of Fit Test $\left(F^{*}=1.2868\right.$ with $P$-value $\left.=0.2992\right)$ supports the linearity of the regression relating $\qquad$ to $\qquad$ .

FIGURE 3.23 SAS-JMP Regression Output and Diagnostic Plots for Transformed Response and Predictor Variables-Plutonium Measurement Example.
(a) Regression Output

| Term | Estimate | Std Error | t Ratio | Prob> $\mid$ \|t |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Intercept | 0.0730056 | 0.00783 | 9.32 | 0.0000 |
| Sqrt Plutonium | 0.0573055 | 0.00302 | 19.00 | 0.0000 |
| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Ratio |
| Model | 1 | 0.22141612 | 0.221416 | 360.9166 |
| Error | 21 | 0.01288314 | 0.000613 | Prob>F |
| C Total | 22 | 0.23429926 |  | 0.0000 |
| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Ratio |
| Lack of Fit | 2 | 0.00153683 | 0.000768 | 1.2868 |
| Pure Error | 19 | 0.01134631 | 0.000597 | Prob>F |
| Total Error | 21 | 0.01288314 |  | 0.2992 |

(b) Diagnostic Plots (Figure 3.23b, c) the residual plot shows that the square root transformation of the predictor variable has eliminated the lack of fit. It also suggests that some nonconstancy of the error variance may still remain; but if so, it does not appear to be $\qquad$ . The normal probability plot of the residuals in Figure 3.23c appears to be satisfactory.

(c) Diagnostic Tests: the $\qquad$ ( $r=0.986$ ) supports the assumption of normally distributed error terms (the interpolated critical value in Table B. 6 for $\alpha=0.05$ and $n=23$ is 0.9555 ). The
$\left(X_{B P}^{2}=3.85\right.$ with a $P$-value $\left.=0.05\right)$ supports the conclusion from the residual plot that the nonconstancy of the error variance is not substantial.
(d) Additional Results: (Figure 3.23d) the scatter plot of $X$ and $Y$ with the con-
fidence band for the fitted regression line: $\qquad$ . The
regression line has been estimated fairly precisely. The lowess curve falls entirely within the confidence band, supporting the reasonableness of a linear regression relation between $Y^{\prime}$ and $X^{\prime}$.
(d)

(): TA Class

- Problems: 3.4, 3.9, 3.13, 3.15, 3.17
- Exercises: 3.20, 3.21
- Projects: 3.25
＂很多時候我們缺的不是機會，而是決心與勇氣。＂
＂Often times we lack is not the opportunity，but courage and determination．＂
— 心靈補手（Good Will Hunting，1997）


## Regression Analysis (I)

Kutner's Applied Linear Statistical Models (5/E)

## Chapter 5: Matrix Approach to Simple Linear Regression Analysis

Thursday 09:10-12:00, 商館 260205
Han-Ming Wu
Department of Statistics, National Chengchi University
http://www.hmwu.idv.tw

## Overview

1. The matrix approach is practically a necessity in $\qquad$ regression analysis, since it permits extensive systems of equations and large arrays of data to be denoted compactly and operated upon efficiently.
2. This chapter gives a brief introduction to $\qquad$ .
3. Then we apply matrix methods to the simple linear regression model.

### 5.1 Matrices

## Definition of Matrix

1. A matrix is a $\qquad$ array of elements arranged in rows and columns.
2. A matrix with $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ will be represented either in full:

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{cccccc}
a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1 j} & \cdots & a_{1 c} \\
a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2 j} & \cdots & a_{2 c} \\
\vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\
a_{i 1} & a_{i 2} & \cdots & a_{i j} & \cdots & a_{i c} \\
\vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\
a_{r 1} & a_{r 2} & \cdots & a_{r j} & \cdots & a_{r c}
\end{array}\right]
$$

or in abbreviated form:

$$
\mathbf{A}=\quad, i=1, \cdots, r ; j=1, \cdots, c
$$

or simply by a boldface symbol, such as $\mathbf{A}$.

## Square Matrix

1. A matrix is said to be square if the number of rows $\qquad$ the number of columns.

## Vector

1. A matrix containing only one column is called a $\qquad$ vector or simply a vector.

$$
\mathbf{C}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
c_{1} \\
c_{2} \\
c_{3} \\
c_{4} \\
c_{5}
\end{array}\right]
$$

the vector $\mathbf{C}$ is a $\qquad$ .
2. A matrix containing only one row is called a $\qquad$ : e.g., $\mathbf{B}^{\prime}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}15 & 25 & 50\end{array}\right]$. We use the prime symbol ( $\qquad$ ) for row vectors. Note that the row vector $\mathbf{B}^{\prime}$ is a $\qquad$ matrix.

## Transpose

1. The transpose of a matrix $\mathbf{A}$ is another matrix, denoted by $\qquad$ , that is obtained by interchanging corresponding columns and rows of the matrix $\mathbf{A}$.

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
2 & 5 \\
7 & 10 \\
3 & 4
\end{array}\right]
$$

then the transpose $\mathbf{A}^{\prime}$ is:

$$
\mathbf{A}^{\prime}=
$$

$\qquad$
2. The transpose of a column vector is a row vector, and vice versa. This is the reason why we used the symbol $\mathbf{B}$ ' earlier to identify a row vector, since it may be thought of as the transpose of a column vector $\mathbf{B}$. In general, we have:

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[a_{i j}\right]
$$

## Equality of Matrices

1. Two matrices $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ are said to be equal if they have the same dimension and if all corresponding $\qquad$ .

## Regression Examples

1. In regression analysis, one basic matrix is the vector $\mathbf{Y}$, consisting of the $n$ observations on response variable

$$
\mathbf{Y}=
$$

2. Another basic matrix in regression analysis is the $\mathbf{X}$ matrix, which is defined as follows for simple linear regression analysis:

$$
\mathbf{X}=
$$

The matrix $\mathbf{X}$ consists of a column of 1 s and a column containing the $n$ observations on the predictor variable $X$. The $\mathbf{X}$ matrix is often referred to as the design matrix.

### 5.2 Matrix Addition and Subtraction

1. Adding or subtracting two matrices requires that they have the same dimension. The sum, or difference, of two matrices is another matrix whose elements each consist of the sum, or difference, of the corresponding elements of the two matrices.
2. 

$$
\text { if } \mathbf{A}_{r \times c}=\left[a_{i j}\right], \quad \mathbf{B}_{r \times c}=\left[b_{i j}\right], \text { then } \mathbf{A} \pm \mathbf{B}=
$$

$\qquad$
3. The regression model: $Y_{i}=E\left(Y_{i}\right)+\varepsilon_{i}, i=1, \cdots, n$ can be written in matrix notation:
4. The observations vector $\mathbf{Y}$ equals the sum of two vectors, a vector containing the expected values and another containing the error terms.

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
Y_{1} \\
Y_{2} \\
\vdots \\
Y_{n}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
E\left(Y_{1}\right) \\
E\left(Y_{2}\right) \\
\vdots \\
E\left(Y_{n}\right)
\end{array}\right]+\left[\begin{array}{c}
\varepsilon_{1} \\
\varepsilon_{2} \\
\vdots \\
\varepsilon_{n}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
E\left(Y_{1}\right)+\varepsilon_{1} \\
E\left(Y_{2}\right)+\varepsilon_{2} \\
\vdots \\
E\left(Y_{n}\right)+\varepsilon_{n}
\end{array}\right]
$$

### 5.3 Matrix Multiplication

## Multiplication of a Matrix by a Scalar

1. A scalar is an ordinary number or a symbol representing a number. In multiplication of a matrix by a scalar, every element of the matrix is multiplied by the scalar.
2. If $\mathbf{A}=\left[a_{i j}\right]$ and $k$ is the scalar, then

$$
k \mathbf{A}=\mathbf{A} k=
$$

$\qquad$

## Multiplication of a Matrix by a Matrix

1. In general, the product $\mathbf{A B}$ is defined only when the number of columns in $\mathbf{A}$ equals the number of rows in $\mathbf{B}$ so that there will be corresponding terms in the
$\qquad$ .
2. Note that the dimension of the product $\mathbf{A B}$ is given by the number of rows in $\mathbf{A}$ and the number of columns in $\mathbf{B}$. Note also that in the second case the product $\mathbf{B A}$ would not be defined since the number of columns in $\mathbf{B}$ is not equal to the number of rows in $\mathbf{A}$.
3. In general, if $\mathbf{A}=\left[a_{i k}\right]$ has dimension $r \times c$ and $\mathbf{B}=\left[b_{k j}\right]$ has dimension $c \times s$, the product $\mathbf{A B}$ is a matrix of dimension $r \times s$ whose element in the $i$ th row and $j$ th column is:

$$
\mathbf{A B}=
$$

## Regression Examples

1. A product frequently needed is $\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}$, where $\mathbf{Y}$ is the vector of observations on the response variable

$$
\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
Y_{1} & Y_{2} & \cdots & Y_{n}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
Y_{1} \\
Y_{2} \\
\vdots \\
Y_{n}
\end{array}\right]=\square=
$$

2. $\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}$ is a $2 \times 2$ matrix:

$$
\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\
X_{1} & X_{2} & \cdots & X_{n}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & X_{1} \\
1 & X_{2} \\
\vdots & \vdots \\
1 & X_{n}
\end{array}\right]=
$$

3. $\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}$ is a $2 \times 1$ matrix:

$$
\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\
X_{1} & X_{2} & \cdots & X_{n}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
Y_{1} \\
Y_{2} \\
\vdots \\
Y_{n}
\end{array}\right]=
$$

### 5.4 Special Types of Matrices

Certain special types of matrices arise regularly in regression analysis. We consider the most important of these.

## Symmetric Matrix

1. If $\qquad$ , A is said to be symmetric.
2. A symmetric matrix necessarily is $\qquad$ .
3. Symmetric matrices arise typically in regression analysis when we premultiply a matrix, say, $\mathbf{X}$, by its transpose, $\mathbf{X}$ '. The resulting matrix, $\qquad$ , is symmetric.

## Diagonal Matrix

1. A diagonal matrix is a square matrix whose $\qquad$ elements are all
$\qquad$ .
2. We will often not show all zeros for a diagonal matrix, presenting it in the form:

$$
\mathbf{B}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
4 & & & \\
& 1 & & \\
& & 10 & \\
& & & 5
\end{array}\right]
$$

3. Identity Matrix The identity matrix or $\qquad$ matrix is denoted by $\qquad$ . It is a diagonal matrix whose elements on the main diagonal are all 1 s .
4. Premultiplying or postmultlying any $r \times r$ matrix $\mathbf{A}$ by the $r \times r$ identity matrix $\mathbf{I}$ leaves A unchanged.

$$
\mathbf{A I}=
$$

5. A scalar matrix is a diagonal matrix whose $\qquad$ elements are the
$\qquad$ . A scalar matrix can be expressed as $\qquad$ , where $k$ is the scalar.
6. Multiplying an $r \times r$ matrix $\mathbf{A}$ by the $r \times r$ scalar matrix $k \mathbf{I}$ is equivalent to multiplying A by the scalar $k$.

## Vector and Matrix with All Elements Unity

1. A column vector with all elements 1 will be denoted by $\qquad$ and a square matrix with all elements 1 will be denoted by $\qquad$ .
2. Note that for an $n \times 1$ vector 1 we obtain:

$$
\mathbf{1}^{\prime} \mathbf{1}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 1 & \cdots & 1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
1 \\
\vdots \\
1
\end{array}\right]=
$$

and

$$
\mathbf{1 1}^{\prime}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
1 \\
\vdots \\
1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 1 & \cdots & 1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & \cdots & 1 \\
\vdots & & \vdots \\
1 & \cdots & 1
\end{array}\right]=
$$

## Zero Vector

1. A zero vector is a vector containing only zeros. The zero column vector will be denoted by $\qquad$ .

### 5.5 Linear Dependence and Rank of Matrix

## Linear Dependence

1. Consider the following matrix:

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 2 & 5 & 1 \\
2 & 2 & 10 & 6 \\
3 & 4 & 15 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

We view A as being made up of four column vectors. Note that the third column vector is a multiple of the first column vector.

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
5 \\
10 \\
15
\end{array}\right]=5\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
2 \\
3
\end{array}\right]
$$

We say that the columns of $\mathbf{A}$ are $\qquad$ . They contain $\qquad$ information, since one column can be obtained as a linear combination of the others.
2. We define the set of $c$ column vectors $\mathbf{C}_{1}, \cdots, \mathbf{C}_{c}$ in an $r \times c$ matrix to be linearly dependent if one vector can be expressed as a $\qquad$ of the others. If no vector in the set can be so expressed, we define the set of vectors to be
$\qquad$ -
3. When $c$ scalars $k_{1}, \cdots, k_{c}$, not all zero, can be found such that:

$$
k_{l} \mathbf{C}_{1}+k_{2} \mathbf{C}_{2}+\cdots+k_{c} \mathbf{C}_{c}=\mathbf{0}
$$

where $\mathbf{0}$ denotes the zero column vector, the $c$ column vectors are $\qquad$ If the only set of scalars for which the equality holds is $k_{1}=0, \cdots, k_{c}=0$, the set of $c$ column vectors is $\qquad$ .
4. For our example, $k_{1}=5, k_{2}=0, k_{3}=-1, k_{4}=0$ leads to:

$$
5\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
2 \\
3
\end{array}\right]+0\left[\begin{array}{l}
2 \\
2 \\
4
\end{array}\right]-1\left[\begin{array}{c}
5 \\
10 \\
15
\end{array}\right]+0\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
6 \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right]
$$

Hence, the column vectors are linearly dependent. Note that some of the $k_{j}$ equal zero here. For linear dependence, it is only required that not all $k_{j}$ be zero.

## Rank of Matrix

1. The rank of a matrix is defined to be the $\qquad$ of linearly independent $\qquad$ in the matrix.
2. The rank of a matrix is $\qquad$ and can equivalently be defined as the maximum number of linearly independent rows.
3. It follows that the rank of an $r \times c$ matrix cannot exceed $\qquad$ , the minimum of the two values $r$ and $c$.
4. When a matrix is the product of two matrices, its rank cannot exceed the smaller of the two ranks for the matrices being multiplied. Thus, if $\mathbf{C}=\mathbf{A B}$, the rank of $\mathbf{C}$ cannot exceed $\qquad$ .

### 5.6 Inverse of a Matrix

1. In matrix algebra, the inverse of a matrix $\mathbf{A}$ is another matrix, denoted by $\qquad$ , such that
where $\mathbf{I}$ is the identity matrix.

## Finding the Inverse

1. An inverse of a square $r \times r$ matrix exists if the $\qquad$ of the matrix is $\qquad$ . Such a matrix is said to be nonsingular or of full rank.
2. An $r \times r$ matrix with rank less than $r$ is said to be $\qquad$ or $\qquad$ , and does not have an inverse. The inverse of an $r \times r$ matrix of full rank also has rank $r$.
3. Finding the inverse of a matrix can often require a large amount of computing. We shall take the approach that the inverse of a $2 \times 2$ matrix and a $3 \times 3$ matrix can be calculated by hand. For any larger matrix, one ordinarily uses a computer to find the inverse.
4. If

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right]
$$

then

$$
\mathbf{A}^{-1}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right]^{-1}=
$$

where $\qquad$ , $D$ is called the $\qquad$ of the matrix $\mathbf{A}$.
5. If A were singular, its determinant would equal $\qquad$ and no inverse of $\mathbf{A}$ would exist.

## Regression Example

1. The principal inverse matrix encountered in regression analysis is the inverse of the matrix $\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}$.

Chapter 5: Matrix Approach to Simple Linear Regression Analysis
Question ...........................................................................................
Find the inverse of the matrix $\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}$ :

$$
\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
n & \sum X_{i} \\
\sum X_{i} & \sum X_{i}^{2}
\end{array}\right]
$$

sol:

## Uses of Inverse Matrix

1. In matrix algebra, if we have an equation:

$$
\mathbf{A} \mathbf{Y}=\mathbf{C}
$$

We correspondingly premultiply both sides by $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$, assuming $\mathbf{A}$ has an inverse
$\qquad$
we obtain the solution:

$$
\mathbf{Y}=
$$

$\qquad$ .

### 5.7 Some Basic Results for Matrices

We list here, without proof, some basic results for matrices which we will utilize in later work.

$$
\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B}=\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{A}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{r}
(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B})+\mathbf{C}=\mathbf{A}+(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{C}) \\
(\mathbf{A B}) \mathbf{C}=\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{B C}) \\
\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B})=\mathbf{C A}+\mathbf{C B} \\
k(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B})=k \mathbf{A}+k \mathbf{B} \\
\left(\mathbf{A}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=\mathbf{A} \\
(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B})^{\prime}=\mathbf{A}^{\prime}+\mathbf{B}^{\prime} \\
(\mathbf{A B})^{\prime}=\underline{(\mathbf{A B C})^{\prime}=} \\
(\mathbf{A B})^{-1}= \\
(\mathbf{A B C})^{-1}=\underline{\left(\mathbf{A}^{-1}\right)^{-1}=\mathbf{A}} \\
\left(\mathbf{A}^{\prime}\right)^{-1}= \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

### 5.8 Random Vectors and Matrices

## Expectation of Random Vector or Matrix

1. A random vector or a random matrix contains elements that are $\qquad$ .
Thus, the observations vector $\mathbf{Y}$ in (5.4) is a random vector since the $Y_{i}$ elements are random variables.
2. The expected value of $\mathbf{Y}$ is a vector, denoted by $E(\mathbf{Y})$, that is defined as follows:

$$
E(\mathbf{Y})=\ldots \quad, i=1, \cdots, n
$$

3. For the error terms in regression model, we have

## Variance-Covariance Matrix of Random Vector

1. The variance-covariance matrix of $\mathbf{Y}$, denoted by $\sigma^{2}(\mathbf{Y})$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sigma^{2}(\mathbf{Y})= \\
& =\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\sigma^{2}\left(Y_{1}\right) & \sigma^{2}\left(Y_{1}, Y_{2}\right) & \cdots & \sigma^{2}\left(Y_{1}, Y_{n}\right) \\
& & & \\
\sigma^{2}\left(Y_{2}, Y_{1}\right) & \sigma^{2}\left(Y_{2}\right) & \cdots & \sigma^{2}\left(Y_{2}, Y_{n}\right) \\
\vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\
\sigma^{2}\left(Y_{n}, Y_{1}\right) & \sigma^{2}\left(Y_{n}, Y_{2}\right) & \cdots & \sigma^{2}\left(Y_{n}, Y_{n}\right)
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

2. Note that the $\qquad$ are on the main diagonal, and the is found in the $i$ th row and $j$ th column of the matrix.
3. The error terms in regression model have constant variance:

$$
\sigma^{2}(\varepsilon)=
$$

## Some Basic Results

1. Frequently, we shall encounter a random vector $\mathbf{W}$ that is obtained by premultiplying the random vector $\mathbf{Y}$ by a constant matrix $\mathbf{A}$ (a matrix whose elements are fixed): $\mathbf{W}=\mathbf{A Y}$. Some basic results for this case are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
E(\mathbf{A}) & = \\
E(\mathbf{W}) & =E(\mathbf{A Y})= \\
\sigma^{2}(\mathbf{W}) & =\sigma^{2}(\mathbf{A Y})=
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\sigma^{2}(\mathbf{Y})$ is the variance-covariance matrix of $\mathbf{Y}$.

Chapter 5: Matrix Approach to Simple Linear Regression Analysis
Question ..........................................................................................
Suppose that a random vector $\mathbf{W}$ that is obtained by premultiplying the random vector $\mathbf{Y}$ by a constant matrix $\mathbf{A}$, that is $\mathbf{W}=\mathbf{A Y}$. Find the expected value and the variance-covariance matrix of $\mathbf{W}$.
sol:

## Multivariate Normal Distribution

1. The density function of the multivariate normal distribution can now be stated as follows:

$$
f(\mathbf{Y})=
$$

where $\mathbf{Y}$ containing an observation on each of the $p Y$ variables

$$
\mathbf{Y}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
Y_{1} \\
Y_{2} \\
\vdots \\
Y_{p}
\end{array}\right]
$$

2. The mean vector $E(\mathbf{Y})$, denoted by $\qquad$ , contains the expected values for each of the $p Y$ variables:

$$
\boldsymbol{\mu}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\mu_{1} \\
\mu_{2} \\
\vdots \\
\mu_{p}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Chapter 5: Matrix Approach to Simple Linear Regression
3. The variance-covariance matrix $\sigma^{2}(\mathbf{Y})$ is denoted by $\qquad$ : and contains as always the variances and covariances of the $p Y$ variables:

$$
\boldsymbol{\Sigma}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\sigma_{1}^{2} & \sigma_{12} & \cdots & \sigma_{1 p} \\
\sigma_{21} & \sigma_{2}^{2} & \cdots & \sigma_{2 p} \\
\vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\
\sigma_{p 1} & \sigma_{p 2} & \cdots & \sigma_{p}^{2}
\end{array}\right]
$$

$\sigma_{i}^{2}$ denotes the variance of $Y_{1}, \sigma_{i j}$ denotes the covariance of $Y_{i}$ and $Y_{j}$.
4. The multivariate normal density function has properties that correspond to the ones described for the $\qquad$ normal distribution.
5. For instance, if $Y_{1}, \cdots, Y_{p}$ are jointly normally distributed (i.e., they follow the multivariate normal distribution), the marginal probability distribution of each variable $Y_{k}$ is normal, with mean $\mu_{k}$ and standard deviation $\sigma_{k}$.

### 5.9 Simple Linear Regression Model in Matrix Terms

1. The normal error regression model (2.1):

$$
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i}+\varepsilon_{i}, \quad i=1, \cdots, n
$$

2. The normal error regression model in matrix terms:
$\qquad$
where
$\mathbf{Y}=\quad, \quad \mathbf{X}=\quad, \quad \boldsymbol{\beta}=\quad, \quad \varepsilon=$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ is a vector of independent normal random variables with $E(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})=\mathbf{0}$ and $\sigma^{2}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})=\sigma^{2} \mathbf{I}$

### 5.10 Least Squares Estimation of Regression Parameters

## Normal Equations

Question
Express the normal equations (1.9),

$$
\begin{aligned}
n b_{0}+b_{1} \sum X_{i} & =\sum Y_{i} \\
b_{0} \sum X_{i}+b_{1} \sum X_{i}^{2} & =\sum X_{i} Y_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

in the matrix form

$$
\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{X b}=\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}
$$

where $\mathbf{b}$ is the vector of the least squares regression coefficients:

$$
\mathbf{b}_{2 \times 1}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
b_{0} \\
b_{1}
\end{array}\right]
$$

sol:

Chapter 5: Matrix Approach to Simple Linear Regression Analysis
Question .......................................................................................201)
Derive the normal equations by the method of least squares in matrix notation. sol:

## Estimated Regression Coefficients

1. Obtain the estimated regression coefficients from the normal equations (5.59) by matrix methods, We premultiply both sides by

We then find, since $\left(\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}=\mathbf{I}$ and $\mathbf{I b}=\mathbf{b}$,

$$
\mathbf{b}=
$$

$\qquad$

Chapter 5: Matrix Approach to Simple Linear Regression Analysis
Question ........................................................................................200)
Use matrix methods to obtain the estimated regression coefficients for the Toluca Company example.
sol:

### 5.11 Fitted Values and Residuals

## Fitted Values

1. Let the vector of the fitted values $Y_{i}$ be denoted by $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$, then

$$
\begin{gathered}
\hat{\mathbf{Y}}= \\
{\left[\begin{array}{c}
\hat{Y}_{1} \\
\hat{Y}_{2} \\
\vdots \\
\hat{Y}_{n}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & X_{1} \\
1 & X_{2} \\
\vdots & \vdots \\
1 & X_{n}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
b_{0} \\
b_{1}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
b_{0}+b_{1} X_{1} \\
b_{0}+b_{1} X_{2} \\
\vdots \\
b_{0}+b_{1} X_{n}
\end{array}\right]}
\end{gathered}
$$

2. Hat Matrix We can express the matrix result for $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$ as follows by using the expression for $\mathbf{b}$ in (5.60):

$$
\hat{\mathbf{Y}}=
$$

or, equivalently:

$$
\hat{\mathbf{Y}}=
$$

where

$$
\mathbf{H}_{n \times n}=
$$

3. The fitted values $\hat{Y}_{i}$ can be expressed as linear combinations of the response variable observations $Y_{i}$, with the coefficients being elements of the matrix $\mathbf{H}$.
4. The $\mathbf{H}$ matrix involves only the observations on the predictor variable $\mathbf{X}$. The square $n \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{H}$ is called the Hat matrix. It plays an important role in diagnostics for regression analysis (Chapter 10) when we consider whether regression results are unduly influenced by one or a few observations.
5. The matrix $\mathbf{H}$ is symmetric and has the special property (called $\qquad$ ):

In general, a matrix $\mathbf{M}$ is said to be $\qquad$ if $\mathbf{M M}=\mathbf{M}$.

## Residuals

1. Let the vector of the residuals $e_{i}=Y_{i}-\hat{Y}_{i}$ be denoted by $\mathbf{e}$ :

$$
\mathbf{e}_{n \times 1}=
$$

$\qquad$
2. Variance-Covariance Matrix of Residuals. The residuals $e_{i}$, like the fitted values $\hat{Y}_{i}$, can be expressed as linear combinations of the response variable observations $Y_{i}$, using the result in (5.73) for $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$ :

$$
\mathbf{e}=
$$

$\qquad$
We thus have the important result:

$$
\mathbf{e}=
$$

$\qquad$
where $\mathbf{H}$ is the hat matrix defined in (5.53a). The matrix $\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{H}$, like the matrix $\mathbf{H}$, is symmetric and idempotent.

Chapter 5: Matrix Approach to Simple Linear Regression Analysis
3. The variance-covariance matrix of the vector of residuals $\mathbf{e}$ involves the matrix $\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{H}$ :

$$
\sigma^{2}(\mathbf{e})=
$$

$\qquad$
and is estimated by:

$$
s^{2}(\mathbf{e})=
$$

Question (p204)

Show that the variance-covariance matrix of $\mathbf{e}$ is $\sigma^{2}(\mathbf{e})=\sigma^{2}(\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{H})$.
sol:

### 5.12 Analysis of Variance Results

## Sums of Squares

Question ..........................................................................................204)
Express the sums of squares, $S S T O, S S E$ and $S S R$ in matrix notation. sol:

Chapter 5: Matrix Approach to Simple Linear Regression Analysis

## Sums of Squares as Quadratic Forms

1. In general, a quadratic form is defined as:

$$
\text { , where } a_{i j}=a_{j i} .
$$

2. $\mathbf{A}$ is a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix and is called the matrix of the quadratic form.
3. The ANOVA sums of squares $S S T O, S S E$, and $S S R$ are all $\qquad$ , as can be seen by reexpressing $\mathbf{b}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}^{\prime}$.

Question ........................................................................................
Show that the ANOVA sums of squares $S S T O, S S E$, and $S S R$ are all quadratic forms.
sol:

### 5.13 Inferences in Regression Analysis

## Regression Coefficients

Question .............................................................................
(a) Derive the variance-covariance matrix of the simple linear regression coefficients, $\mathbf{b}$ by matrix methods. (b) Obtain the estimated variance-covariance matrix of $\mathbf{b}$. sol:

## Mean Response*

## Prediction of New Observation*

## () TA Class

- Problems: 5.5, 5.16, 5.22, 5.24, 5.26
- Exercises: 5.31
＂會讓人後悔的從來都不是失敗，而是當機會出現時你沒有全力以赴。＂
＂Regrets don＇t come from failure，they come from moments you failed to give your best．＂
—熱底辣妹（Flying Colors，2015）


## Regression Analysis (I)

Kutner's Applied Linear Statistical Models (5/E)

> Chapter 6: Multiple Regression (I)

Thursday 09:10-12:00, 商館 260205
Han-Ming Wu
Department of Statistics, National Chengchi University
http://www.hmwu.idv.tw

## Overview

1. Discuss a variety of multiple regression models. (more than one predictors)
2. Present the basic statistical results for multiple regression in $\qquad$ .
3. The matrix expressions for multiple regression are the $\qquad$ as for SLR.
4. An example to illustrate a variety of $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ in multiple regression analysis.

### 6.1 Multiple Regression Models

## Need for Several Predictor Variables

1. A single predictor variable in the model would have provided an $\qquad$ description since a number of $\qquad$ affect the response variable.
2. Predictions of the response variable based on a model containing only a single predictor variable are too $\qquad$ to be useful.
3. Multiple regression analysis is highly useful in experimental situations where the experimenter can $\qquad$ -
4. The multiple regression models can be utilized for either $\qquad$ data or for $\qquad$ data from a completely randomized design.

## First-Order Model with Two Predictor Variables

1. When there are two predictor variables $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$, the regression model:
is called a $\qquad$ model with two predictor variables.
2. Assuming that $\qquad$ , the regression function for model (6.1) is a $\qquad$ :
3. (Figure 6.1) The response plane: $E(Y)=10+2 X_{1}+5 X_{2} \quad$ (6.3).

FIGURE 6.1
Response
Function is a
Plane-Sales
Promotion
Example.

(a) Any point on the response plane (6.3) corresponds to the mean response $E(Y)$ at the given combination of levels of $\qquad$ .
(b) The error term $\qquad$ : the vertical rule between $Y_{i}$ and the response plane represents the difference between $Y_{i}$ and the mean $E\left(Y_{i}\right)$ of the probability distribution of $Y$ for the given $\left(X_{i 1}, X_{i 2}\right)$ combination.
4. The regression function in multiple regression is called a $\qquad$ or a $\qquad$ . In Figure 6.1, the response surface is a $\qquad$ , but in
other cases the response surface may be more $\qquad$ in nature.

## 5. Meaning of Regression Coefficients

(a) The parameter $\beta_{0}$ is the $\qquad$ of the regression plane.
(b) If the scope of the model includes $\qquad$ , then $\beta_{0}$ represents the mean response $E(Y)$ at $X_{1}=0, X_{2}=0$. Otherwise, $\beta_{0}$ $\qquad$ have any particular meaning as a separate term in the regression model.
(c) The parameter $\beta_{1}\left(\beta_{2}\right)$ indicates the $\qquad$ in the mean response $E(Y)$ per unit increase in $\qquad$ when $\qquad$ is held constant.
(d) When the effect of $X_{1}$ on the mean response does not depend on the level of $X_{2}$, and correspondingly the effect of $X_{2}$ does not depend on the level of $X_{1}$, the two predictor variables are said to have $\qquad$ or not to
$\qquad$ -
(e) Thus, the first-order regression model (6.1) is designed for predictor variables whose effects on the mean response are additive or do not interact.
6. The parameters $\beta_{1}$ and $\beta_{2}$ are sometimes called because they reflect the partial effect of one predictor variable when the other predictor variable is included in the model and is $\qquad$ .

## First-Order Model with More than Two Predictor Variables

1. The regression model:

$$
\begin{align*}
Y_{i} & = \\
& = \tag{6.5a}
\end{align*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
=\quad \text { where } X_{i 0} \equiv 1 \tag{6.5b}
\end{equation*}
$$

is called a first-order model with $p-1$ predictor variables.
2. Assuming that $E\left(\varepsilon_{i}\right)=0$, the response function for regression model (6.5) is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(Y)= \tag{6.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
3. This response function is a $\qquad$ , which is a plane in more than two dimensions.
4. The parameter $\beta_{k}$ indicates the $\qquad$ with a unit increase in the predictor variable $X_{k}$ when all other predictor variables in the regression model are held constant.
5. The first-order regression model (6.5) is designed for predictor variables whose effects on the mean response are $\qquad$ and therefore do not interact.

## General Linear Regression Model

1. Define the general linear regression model, with normal error terms, simply in terms of $X$ variables:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{i}= \tag{6.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where:
(a) $\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}, \cdots, \beta_{p-1}$ are $\qquad$ .
(b) $X_{i 1}, \cdots, X_{i, p-1}$ are $\qquad$ constants (predictors, explanatory variables).
(c) $\varepsilon_{i}$ are independent $\qquad$ $, i=1, \cdots, n$.
2. The response function for regression mode1 (6.7) is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(Y)=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{1}+\beta_{2} X_{2}+\cdots+\beta_{p-1} X_{p-1} \tag{6.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

3. Thus, the general linear regression model with normal error terms implies that the observations $Y_{i}$ are independent $\qquad$ , with mean $\qquad$ as given by (6.8) and with constant variance $\qquad$ .

## 4. Qualitative Predictor Variables

(a) The general linear regression model (6.7) encompasses not only quantitative predictor variables but also $\qquad$ ones, such as gender (male, female) or disability status (not disabled, partially disabled, fully disabled).
(b) Use $\qquad$ variables that take on the values $\qquad$ to identify the classes of a qualitative variable.
(c) Example Consider a regression analysis to predict the length of hospital stay $(Y)$ based on the age $\left(X_{1}\right)$ and gender $\left(X_{2}\right)$ of the patient. The first-order regression model is:

$$
\begin{align*}
& Y_{i}=  \tag{6.9}\\
& \quad X_{i 1}=i \text { th patient's age } \\
& X_{i 2}=
\end{align*}
$$

The response function for regression model (6.9) is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(Y)= \tag{6.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
For male patients, $X_{2}=0$ and response function (6.10) becomes:

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(Y)=\ldots, \quad \text { Male patients } \tag{6.10a}
\end{equation*}
$$

For female patients, $X_{2}=1$ and response function (6.10) becomes:

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(Y)=\ldots, \quad \text { Female patients } \tag{6.10b}
\end{equation*}
$$

These two response functions represent $\qquad$ lines with different intercepts.
(d) In general, we represent a qualitative variable with $c$ classes by means of
$\qquad$ indicator variables. (details in Chapter 8)
5. Example The first-order model with age, gender (male, female) or disability status (not disabled, partially disabled, fully disabled) as predictor variables then is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{i}= \tag{6.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
where:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X_{i 1}=i \text { th patient's age } \\
& X_{i 2}=
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
X_{i 3}=
$$

$$
X_{i 4}=
$$

## 6. Polynomial Regression

(a) Polynomial regression models are special cases of the general linear regression model. They contain $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ terms of the predictor variable(s), making the response function $\qquad$ .
(b) Example A polynomial regression model with one predictor variable:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i}+\beta_{2} X_{i}^{2}+\varepsilon_{i} \tag{6.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

(c) If we let $X_{i 1}=X_{i}$ and $X_{i 2}=X_{i}^{2}$; we can write (6.12) as

$$
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i 1}+\beta_{2} X_{i 2}+\varepsilon_{i}
$$

which is in the form of general linear regression model (6.7). (detail in Chapter 8).

## 7. Transformed Variables

(a) Models with transformed variables involve complex, curvilinear response functions, yet still are special cases of the general linear regression model.
(b) Example A model with a transformed $\qquad$ variable:

$$
Y_{i}^{\prime}=\log Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i 1}+\beta_{2} X_{i 2}+\beta_{3} X_{i 3}+\varepsilon_{i}
$$

(c) Example A model with a transformed $\qquad$ variable:

$$
Y_{i}^{\prime}=1 / Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i 1}+\beta_{2} X_{i 2}+\varepsilon_{i} .
$$

## 8. Interaction Effects

(a) When the effects of the predictor variables on the response variable are not additive, the effect of one predictor variable depends on the levels of the other predictor variables. The general linear regression model (6.7) encompasses regression models with nonadditive or $\qquad$ .
(b) Example An example of a nonadditive regression model with two predictor variables $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
Y_{i} & =\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i 1}+\beta_{2} X_{i 2}+\beta_{3} X_{i 1} X_{i 2}+\varepsilon_{i} \\
& =\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i 1}+\beta_{2} X_{i 2}+\beta_{3} X_{i 3}+\varepsilon_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

The response function is complex because of the interaction term $\qquad$ . It is a special case of the general linear regression model. (detail in Chapter 8)

## 9. Combination of Cases

(a) A regression model may combine several of the elements we have just noted and still be treated as a general linear regression model.
(b) Example Consider the following regression model containing linear and quadratic terms for each of two predictor variables and an interaction term represented by the cross-product term:

$$
\begin{aligned}
Y_{i} & =\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i 1}+\beta_{2} X_{i 1}^{2}+\beta_{3} X_{i 2}+\beta_{4} X_{i 2}^{2}+\beta_{5} X_{i 1} X_{i 2}+\varepsilon_{i} \\
& =\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} Z_{i 1}+\beta_{2} Z_{i 2}+\beta_{3} Z_{i 3}+\beta_{4} Z_{i 4}+\beta_{5} Z_{i 5}+\varepsilon_{i} .
\end{aligned}
$$

(c) (Figure 6.2) Two complex response surfaces.

FIGURE 6.2 Additional Examples of Response Functions.


## 10. Meaning of Linear in General Linear Regression Model

(a) It should be clear from the various examples that general linear regression model (6.7) is not restricted to linear response surfaces.

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i 1}+\beta_{2} X_{i 2}+\cdots+\beta_{p-1} X_{i, p-1}+\varepsilon_{i} \tag{6.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

The term $\qquad$ refers to the fact that model (6.7) is linear in the
$\qquad$ ; it does-not refer to the $\qquad$ .
(b) We say that a regression model is linear in the parameters when it can be written in the form:

$$
Y_{i}=
$$

$\qquad$ ,
where the terms $c_{i 0}, c_{i 1}$, etc., are coefficients involving the $\qquad$ .
(c) An example of a nonlinear regression model is the following:

$$
Y_{i}=\beta_{0} \exp \left(\beta_{1} X_{i}\right)+\varepsilon_{i}
$$

This is a $\qquad$ regression model because it cannot be expressed in the form of (6.17). (nonlinear regression models in Part III)

### 6.2 General Linear Regression Model in Matrix Terms

1. We now present the principal results for the general linear regression model (6.7) in matrix terms. The matrix notation may hide enormous computational complexities.
2. The actual computations will, in all but the very simplest cases, be done by computer.
3. Express general linear regression model (6.7):

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{i}= \tag{6.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
in matrix terms:
$\qquad$ ,
where

$$
\mathbf{Y}=\quad, \quad \mathbf{X}=
$$

$$
\boldsymbol{\beta}=\quad, \quad \varepsilon=
$$

$\qquad$
4. $\varepsilon$ is a vector of independent normal random variables with $\qquad$ and
$\qquad$ .
5. The random vector $\mathbf{Y}$ has expectation: $\qquad$ , and the variance-covariance matrix of $\mathbf{Y}$ is the same as that of $\varepsilon$ : $\qquad$ .

### 6.3 Estimation of Regression Coefficients

1. The least squares criterion (1.8) is generalized as follows for general linear regression model (6.7):

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q= \tag{6.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

2. The least squares estimators are those values of $\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}, \cdots, \beta_{p-1}$ that $\qquad$ .
3. The least squares normal equations for the general linear regression model (6.19) are:
4. The least squares estimators are:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{b}= \tag{6.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
5. The method of maximum likelihood leads to the same estimators for normal error regression model (6.19) as those obtained by the method of least squares in (6.25).
6. The likelihood function in (1.26) generalizes directly for multiple regression:

$$
L\left(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^{2}\right)=\frac{1}{\left(2 \pi \sigma^{2}\right)^{n / 2}} \exp \left\{-\frac{1}{2 \sigma^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(Y_{i}-\beta_{0}-\beta_{1} X_{i 1}-\cdots-\beta_{p-1} X_{i, p-1}\right)^{2}\right\}(6.26)
$$

7. Maximizing this likelihood function with respect to $\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}, \cdots, \beta_{p-1}$ leads to the estimators in (6.25). These estimators are least squares and maximum likelihood estimators and have all the properties mentioned in Chapter 1: they are $\qquad$
$\qquad$ , and $\qquad$ .

### 6.4 Fitted Values and Residuals

1. Let the vector of the fitted values $\hat{Y}_{i}$ be denoted by $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$ and the vector of the residual terms $e_{i}=Y_{i}-\hat{Y}_{i}$ be denoted by $\mathbf{e}$ :

$$
\hat{\mathbf{Y}}=\quad, \quad \mathbf{e}=
$$

2. The fitted values: $\qquad$ .
3. The vector of the fitted values $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$ can be expressed in terms of the hat matrix $\mathbf{H}$ as follows:

$$
\hat{\mathbf{Y}}=\ldots, \quad \text { where }
$$

4. The residual terms: $\mathbf{e}=\mathbf{Y}-\hat{\mathbf{Y}}=$ $\qquad$ .
5. Similarly, the vector of residuals can be expressed: $\mathbf{e}=$ $\qquad$ .
6. The variance-covariance matrix of the residuals is: $\sigma^{2}(\mathbf{e})=\sigma^{2}(\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{H})$ which is estimated by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
s^{2}(\mathbf{e})= \tag{6.33}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 6.5 Analysis of Variance Results

## Sums of Squares and Mean Squares

1. The sums of squares for the analysis of variance in matrix terms are, from (5.89):

$$
\begin{gathered}
S S T O= \\
S S E= \\
S S R=
\end{gathered}
$$

where $\mathbf{J}$ is an $n \times n$ matrix of $1 \mathbf{s}$ defined in (5.18) and $\mathbf{H}$ is the hat matrix defined in (6.30a).
2. (Table 6.1) ANOVA Table for general linear regression:

TABLE 6.1 ANOVA Table for General Linear Regression Model (6.19).

| Source of <br> Variation | SS | $\boldsymbol{d f}$ | MS |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Regression | $S S R=\mathbf{b}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}-\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{J Y}$ | $p-1$ | $M S R=\frac{S S R}{p-1}$ |
| Error | $S S E=\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}-\mathbf{b}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}$ | $n-p$ | $M S E=\frac{S S E}{n-p}$ |
| Total | $S S T O=\mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}-\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \mathbf{Y}^{\prime} \mathbf{J Y}$ | $n-1$ |  |

## $F$ Test for Regression Relation

1. To test whether there is a regression relation between the response variable $Y$ and the set of $X$ variables $X_{1}, \cdots, X_{p}$,

$$
\begin{array}{l:l}
H_{0} & : \\
H_{a}: \\
\end{array}
$$

2. The test statistic:

$$
F^{*}=
$$

$\qquad$
3. The decision rule to control the Type I error at $\alpha$ :

## Coefficient of Multiple Determination

1. The coefficient of multiple determination, denoted by $R^{2}$, is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
R^{2}= \tag{6.40}
\end{equation*}
$$

2. It measures the $\qquad$ of total variation in $Y$ associated with the use of the set of $X$ variables $X_{1}, \cdots, X_{p-1}$.
3. $0 \leq R^{2} \leq 1$ assumes the value 0 when all $\qquad$ , and the value 1 when all $Y$ observations fall directly on the fitted regression surface, ie., when $\qquad$ for all $i$.
4. Adding more $X$ variables to the regression model can only $\qquad$ $R^{2}$ and never reduce it, because $S S E$ can never become larger with more $X$ variables and SSTO is always the same for a given set of responses.
5. Since $R^{2}$ usually can be made larger by including a larger number of predictor variables, it is sometimes suggested that a modified measure be used that adjusts for the number of $X$ variables in the model.
6. The $\qquad$ coefficient of multiple determination, denoted by $R_{a}^{2}$, adjusts $R^{2}$ by dividing each sum of squares by its associated degrees of freedom:

$$
R_{a}^{2}=
$$

This adjusted coefficient of multiple determination may actually become smaller when another $X$ variable is introduced into the model, because any decrease in SSE may be more than offset by the loss of a degree of freedom in the denominator $n-p$.
7. Comments A large value of $R^{2}$ does not necessarily imply that the fitted model is a useful one. For instance, observations may have been taken at only a few levels of the predictor variables. Despite a high $R^{2}$ in this case, the fitted model may not be useful if most predictions require extrapolations outside the region of observations. Again, even though $R^{2}$ is large, MSE may still be too large for inferences to be useful when high precision is required.

## Coefficient of Multiple Correlation

1. The coefficient of multiple correlation $R$ is the positive square root of

$$
R=
$$

### 6.6 Inferences about Regression Parameters

1. The least squares and maximum likelihood estimators in $\mathbf{b}$ are $\qquad$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
E\{\mathbf{b}\}= \tag{6.44}
\end{equation*}
$$

2. The variance-covariance matrix (dimension $p \times p$ ):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma^{2}\{\mathbf{b}\}= \tag{6.46}
\end{equation*}
$$

3. The estimated variance-covariance matrix (dimension $p \times p$ ):

$$
\begin{equation*}
s^{2}\{\mathbf{b}\}= \tag{6.48}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$

## Interval Estimation of $\beta_{k}$

1. For the normal error regression model (6.19), we have:

$$
\begin{equation*}
, \quad k=0,1, \ldots, p-1 \tag{6.49}
\end{equation*}
$$

2. The confidence limits for $\beta_{k}$ with $1-\alpha$ confidence coefficient are:

Tests for $\beta_{k}$

1. The test hypothesis:
2. The test statistic:
3. The decision rule:
$\qquad$
4. The $\qquad$ of the $t$ test can be obtained as explained in Chapter 2, with the degrees of freedom modified to $n-p$. As with simple linear regression, an
$\qquad$ can also be conducted to determine whether or not $\beta_{k}=0$ in multiple regression models. (details in Chapter 7).

## Joint Inferences*

### 6.7 Estimation of Mean Response and Prediction of New Observation*

Interval Estimation of $E\left\{Y_{h}\right\}$
Confidence Region for Regression Surface
Simultaneous Confidence Intervals for Several Mean Responses
Prediction of New Observation $Y_{h(n e w)}$
Prediction of Mean of $m$ New Observations at $X_{h}$
Predictions of $g$ New Observations
Caution about Hidden Extrapolations

### 6.8 Diagnostics and Remedial Measures

1. Diagnostics play an important role in the $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ of multiple regression models.
2. Most of the diagnostic procedures for $\qquad$ (Chapter 3) carry over directly to multiple regression.
3. Many specialized diagnostics and remedial procedures for multiple regression have also been developed (details in Chapters 10 and 11.)

## Scatter Plot Matrix

1. Univariate plots: $\qquad$
for each of the predictor variables and for the response variable can provide helpful,
preliminary univariate information about these variables.
2. Bivariate plots: Scatter plots
(a) Scatter plots of the $\qquad$ variable against each $\qquad$ variable can aid in determining the nature and strength of the $\qquad$ between each of the predictor variables and the response variable and in identifying gaps in the data points as well as $\qquad$ data points.
(b) Scatter plots of each predictor variable against each of the other predictor variables are helpful for studying the bivariate relationships among the predictor variables and for finding $\qquad$ and detecting $\qquad$ .

## 3. Multiivariate plots: Scatter plot matrix

## FIGURE 6.4 SYGRAPH Scatter Plot Matrix and Correlation Matrix Dwaine Studios Example.

(a) Scatter Plot Matrix

(b) Correlation Matrix

|  | SALES | TARGTPOP | DISPOINC |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SALES | 1.000 | .945 | .836 |
| TARGTPOP |  | 1.000 | .781 |
| DISPOINC |  |  | 1.000 |

(a) (Figure 6.4) the $Y$ variable for anyone scatter plot is the name found in its
$\qquad$ , and the $X$ variable is the name found in its $\qquad$ .
(b) The scatter plot matrix in Figure 6.4 shows in the first row the plots of $Y$ (SALES) against $X_{1}$ (TARGETPOP) and $X_{2}$ (DISPOINC), of $X_{1}$ against $Y$ and $X_{2}$ in the second row, and of $X_{2}$ against $Y$ and $X_{1}$ in the third row. (These variables are described on page 236.)
(c) Scatter plot matrix facilitates the study of the relationships among the variables by comparing the scatter plots within a row or a column.
4. A complement to the scatter plot matrix that may be useful at times is the $\qquad$ . This matrix contains the coefficients of simple correlation $\qquad$
between $Y$ and each of the predictor variables $X_{i}, i=1, \cdots, p-1$, as well as all of the coefficients of simple correlation among the predictor variables: $\qquad$ between $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$, $\qquad$ between $X_{1}$ and $X_{3}$, etc.
5. Note that the correlation matrix is $\qquad$ and that its main diagonal contains $\qquad$ because the coefficient of correlation between a variable and itself is $\qquad$ .

## Three-Dimensional Scatter Plots

1. Some $\qquad$ statistics packages provide three-dimensional scatter plots or point clouds, and permit $\qquad$ of these plots to enable the viewer to see the point cloud from different perspectives or patterns. (Figure 6.6)

## Residual Plots

1. plot $\left(e_{i} \sim \hat{Y}_{i}\right):$ A plot of the $\qquad$ against the $\qquad$ is useful for assessing the $\qquad$ of the multiple regression function and the of the variance of the error terms, as well as for providing information about $\qquad$ , just as for simple linear regression.
2. $\operatorname{plot}\left(e_{i} \sim\right.$ time $):$ A plot of the $\qquad$ against $\qquad$ or against some other $\qquad$ can provide diagnostic information about possible $\qquad$ between the error terms in multiple regression.
3. boxplot $\left(e_{i}\right)$, qqnorm $\left(e_{i}\right)$ : Box plots and normal probability plots of the residuals are useful for examining whether the error terms are reasonably $\qquad$ distributed.
4. $\operatorname{plot}\left(e_{i} \sim X_{i}\right)$ : The plot of the residuals against each of the $\qquad$ variables can provide further information about the adequacy of the regression function with respect to that predictor variable (e.g., whether a curvature effect is required for that variable) and about possible $\qquad$ in the magnitude of the error variance in relation to that predictor variable.
5. $\operatorname{plot}\left(e_{i} \sim X_{o m i t}\right)$ : Plot the residuals against $\qquad$ variables that were omitted from the model, to see if the omitted variables have substantial ad-
ditional effects on the response variable that have not yet been recognized in the regression model.
6. plot $\left(e_{i} \sim X_{i} X_{j}\right)$ : Plot the residuals against interaction terms for potential interaction effects not included in the regression model, such as against $X_{1} X_{2}, X_{1} X_{3}$, and $X_{2} X_{3}$, to see whether some or all of these $\qquad$ are required in the model.
7. $\operatorname{plot}\left(\left|e_{i}\right| \sim \hat{Y}_{i}\right), \operatorname{plot}\left(e_{i}^{2} \sim \hat{Y}_{i}\right)$ : A plot of the $\qquad$ residuals or the $\qquad$ residuals against the fitted values is useful for examining the $\qquad$ of the variance of the error terms.
8. $\operatorname{plot}\left(\left|e_{i}\right| \sim X_{i}\right), \operatorname{plot}\left(e_{i}^{2} \sim X_{i}\right)$ : If nonconstancy is detected, a plot of the absolute residuals or the squared residuals against each of the predictor variables may identify one or several of the predictor variables to which the magnitude of the is related.

## Correlation Test for Normality*

1. The correlation test for normality described in Chapter 3 carries forward directly to multiple regression.

## Brown-Forsythe Test for Constancy of Error Variance

1. The Brown-Forsythe test statistic (3.9) for assessing the constancy of the error variance can be used readily in multiple regression when the error variance increases or decreases with $\qquad$ variables.
2. To conduct the Brown-Forsythe test, we divide the data set into $\qquad$ , as for simple linear regression, where one group consists of cases where the level of the predictor variable is relatively $\qquad$ and the other group consists of cases where the level of the predictor variable is relatively $\qquad$ .
3. The Brown-Forsythe test then proceeds as for simple linear regression.

## Breusch-Pagan Test for Constancy of Error Variance*

## $F$ Test for Lack of Fit

1. The lack of fit $F$ test (Chapter 3) for SLR can be carried over to test whether the multiple regression response function:
is an appropriate response surface.
2. Repeat observations in multiple regression are $\qquad$ observations on $Y$ corresponding to levels of each of the $X$ variables that are constant from trial to trial.
3. With two predictor variables, repeat observations require that $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ each remain at given levels from trial to trial.
4. Once the ANOVA table (Table 6.1), has been obtained, SSE is decomposed into the pure error sum of squares (SSPE) and the lack of fit sum of squares (SSLF).
5. SSPE is obtained by first calculating for each replicate group the sum of squared deviations of the $Y$ observations around the group mean, where a replicate group has the $\qquad$ for each of the $X$ variables.
6. Let $c$ denote the number of groups with $\qquad$ , and let the mean of the $Y$ observations for the $j$ th group be denoted by $\bar{Y}_{j}$. Then the pure error sum of squares is $\qquad$ . The lack of fit sum of squares $S S L F$ equals the difference $\qquad$ .
7. Test hypothesis:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{0}: \\
& \qquad H_{a}: E\{Y\} \neq \beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{1}+\cdots+\beta_{p-1} X_{p-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

8. Test statistic:

$$
F^{*}=
$$

9. Decision rule:

## Remedial Measures

1．The remedial measures described in Chapter 3 are also applicable to multiple re－ gression．

2．When a more complex model is required to recognize $\qquad$ or $\qquad$ effects，the multiple regression model can be expanded to include these effects．

3．Transformations on the $\qquad$ variable $Y$ may be helpful when the distribu－ tions of the error terms are $\qquad$ and the variance of the error terms is $\qquad$ ．

4．Transformations of some of the predictor variables may be helpful when the effects， of these variables are $\qquad$ ．

5．Transformations on $Y$ and／or the predictor variables may be helpful in eliminating or substantially $\qquad$ －

6．The usefulness of potential transformations needs to be examined by means of
$\qquad$ and other $\qquad$ to determine whether the mul－ tiple regression model for the transformed data is appropriate．

7．Box－Cox Transformations is also applicable to multiple regression models．

## 6．9 An Example－Multiple Regression with Two Pre－ dictor Variables

## Setting

1．（Figure 6．5a）Dwaine Studios，Inc．，operates portrait studios in 21 cities $(n=21)$ of medium size．These studios specialize in portraits of children．The company is considering an expansion into other cities of medium size and wishes to investigate whether sales（ $Y$ or SALES，in thousands of dollars）in a community can be pre－ dicted from the number of persons aged 16 or younger in the community（ $X_{1}$ or TARGTPOP for target population）and the per capita disposable（平均每人可支配所得）personal income in the community（ $X_{2}$ or DISPOINC for disposable income in thousands of dollars）．

2. The first-order regression model:
with normal error terms is expected to be appropriate, on the basis of the scatter plot matrix in Figure 6.4a.
3. Note the $\qquad$ between target population and sales and between disposable income and sales.
4. Also note that there is $\qquad$ between disposable income and sales relationship.
5. Finally note that there is also some $\qquad$ relationship between the two predictor variables.
6. (Figure 6.6) A 3D plot of the point cloud supports the tentative conclusion that a response plane may be a reasonable regression function to utilize here.

## FIGURE 6.6 SYGRAPH Plot of Point Cloud before and after Spinning-Dwaine Studios Example.



## Basic Calculations

1. The $X$ and $\mathbf{Y}$ matrices for the Dwaine Studios example:

$$
\mathbf{X}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 68.5 & 16.7 \\
1 & 45.2 & 16.8 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
1 & 52.3 & 16.0
\end{array}\right] \quad \mathbf{Y}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
174.4 \\
164.4 \\
\vdots \\
166.5
\end{array}\right]
$$

2. 

$$
\left(\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-\mathbf{1}}=\left[\begin{array}{rrr}
29.7289 & 0.0722 & -1.9926 \\
0.0722 & 0.00037 & -0.0056 \\
-1.9926 & -0.0056 & 0.1363
\end{array}\right]
$$

3. 

$$
\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}=\left[\begin{array}{r}
3.820 \\
249.643 \\
66.073
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Estimated Regression Function

1. The least squares estimates $\mathbf{b}$ are readily obtained by

$$
\mathbf{b}=\left(\mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\prime} \mathbf{Y}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
-68.857 \\
1.455 \\
9.366
\end{array}\right]
$$

2. The estimated regression function is:

$$
\hat{Y}=-68.857+1.455 X_{1}+9.366 X_{2}
$$

3. (Figure 6.7) A 3D plot of the estimated regression function, with the responses super-imposed. The residuals are represented by the small vertical lines connecting the responses to the estimated regression surface.
FIGURE 6.7
S-Plus Plot of
Estimated
Regression
Surface-
Dwaine Studios
Example.

4. This estimated regression function indicates that mean sales are expected to $\qquad$ thousand dollars when the target population increases by 1 thousand persons aged 16 years or younger, holding per capita disposable personal income constant, and that mean sales are expected to $\qquad$ thousand dollars when per capita income increases by 1 thousand dollars, holding the target population constant.
5. (Figure 6.5a) Software output for the Dwaine Studios example.

## Fitted Values and Residuals

1. The fitted values

$$
\hat{\mathbf{Y}}=\mathbf{X b}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
187.2 \\
154.2 \\
\vdots \\
157.1
\end{array}\right]
$$

2. The residuals

$$
\mathbf{e}=\mathbf{Y}-\hat{\mathbf{Y}}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
-12.8 \\
10.2 \\
\vdots \\
9.4
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Analysis of Appropriateness of Model

1. (Figure 6.8a) Begin analysis of the appropriateness of regression model by considering the plot of the residuals $e_{i}$ against the fitted values $Y$ in Figure 6.8a. This plot does not suggest any $\qquad$ from the response plane nor that the variance of the error terms varies with the level of $\hat{Y}$.

2. (Figures 6.8b, 6.8c) Plots of the residuals $e$ against $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are entirely consistent with the conclusions of $\qquad$ by the response function and $\qquad$ of the error terms.
3. If a plot of the residuals $e$ against the interaction term $X_{1} X_{2}$ shows a $\qquad$ , that means an interaction effect may be present, so that a response function of the type
might be more appropriate.
4. (Figure 6.8d) Plot does not exhibit any $\qquad$ ; hence, no interaction effects reflected by the model term $X_{1} X_{2}$ appear to be present.
5. (Figure 6.9a) A plot of the absolute residuals against the fitted values. There is no indication of $\qquad$ of the error variance.


(b)

6. (Figure 6.9b) A normal probability plot of the residuals shows a pattern.
7. The coefficient of $\qquad$ between the ordered residuals and their expected values under normality is $\qquad$ . This high value helps to confirm the reasonableness of the conclusion that the error terms are fairly normally distributed.
8. Since the Dwaine Studios data are cross-sectional and do not involve a time sequence, a time sequence plot is not relevant here. Thus, all of the diagnostics the use of regression model (6.69) for the Dwaine Studios example.

## Analysis of Variance

1. To test whether sales are related to target population and per capita disposable income, we require the ANOVA table.
FIGURE 6.5
SISTAT
Multiple
Regression
Output and
Basic
Data-Dwaine
Studios
Example.


ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

| SOURCE | SUM-OF-SQUARES | DF | MEAN-SQUARE | F-RATIO | P |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| REGRESSION | 24015.2821 | 2 | 12007.6411 | 99.1035 | 0.0000 |
| RESIDUAL | 2180.9274 | 18 | 121.1626 |  |  |

inverse ( x ' x )
$1 \quad 2 \quad 3$

| 1 | 29.7289 |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | :---: | ---: |
| 2 | 0.0722 | 0.00037 |  |
| 3 | -1.9926 | -0.0056 | 0.1363 |

2. Test of Regression Relation. To test whether sales are related to target population and per capita disposable income:

$$
H_{0}: \beta_{1}=0 \text { and } \beta_{2}=0
$$

$$
H_{a}: \text { not both } \beta_{1} \text { and } \beta_{2} \text { equal zero }
$$

Test statistic:

$$
F^{*}=99.1
$$

For $\alpha=0.05$, we require $F_{(0.95 ; 2.18)}=3.55$. Since $F^{*}=99.1>3.55$, we conclude $H_{a}$ (reject $H_{0}$ ), that sales are related to target population and per capita disposable income. The P -value for this test is 0.0000 .
3. Coefficient of Multiple Determination.

$$
R^{2}=0.917
$$

Thus, when the two predictor variables, target population and per capita disposable income, are considered, the variation in sales is reduced by $\qquad$ . The adjusted coefficient of multiple determination $R^{2}=0.907$.

## Estimation of Regression Parameters*

Estimation of Mean Response*
Prediction Limits for New Observations*

## () TA Class

- Problems: 6.5 (a-d, f), 6.6 (a, b), 6.9, 6.10 (a-d)
- Exercises: 6.22
＂不要畏懼失敗，你應該要擔心沒有機會堂試，但你有的是機會嘗試！＂
＂Don＇t fear failure．Be afraid of not having the chance，you have the chance！＂
—汽車總動員 3：閃電再起（Cars 3，2017）


## Regression Analysis（I）

Kutner＇s Applied Linear Statistical Models（5／E）
Chapter 7：Multiple Regression（II）

Thursday 09：10－12：00，商館 260205
Han－Ming Wu
Department of Statistics，National Chengchi University
http：／／www．hmwu．idv．tw

## Overview

1．Some specialized topics that are unique to multiple regression：（1）extra sums of squares，（2）the standardized version of the multiple regression model，and（3） multicollinearity．

## 7．1 Extra Sums of Squares

## Basic Ideas

1．An extra sum of squares measures the $\qquad$ in the $\qquad$
$\qquad$ when one or several predictor variables are added to the re－ gression model，given that other predictor variables are already in the model．

2．Equivalently，one can view an extra sum of squares as measuring the $\qquad$
$\qquad$ in the $\qquad$ sum of squares when one or several predictor variables are added to the regression model．

3．Example（Table 7．1）A portion of the data for a study of the relation of amount of body fat $(Y)$ to several possible predictor variables，based on a sample of 20 healthy females $25-34$ years old．The possible predictor variables are triceps skinfold thickness $\left(X_{1}\right)$（三頭肌皮下脂肪厚度），thigh circumference $\left(X_{2}\right)$（大腿圍）， and midarm circumference（ $X_{3}$ ）（中臂圍）。

| Basic <br> Data-Body <br> Fat Example. | Subject <br> $i$ | Triceps Skinfold Thickness $X_{i 1}$ | Thigh Circumference $X_{i 2}$ |  | Body Fat $Y_{i}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 | 19.5 | 43.1 | 29.1 | 11.9 |
|  | 2 | 24.7 | 49.8 | 28.2 | 22.8 |
|  | 3 | 30.7 | 51.9 | 37.0 | 18.7 |
|  | 18 | . 30.2 | ... 58.6 | . 24.6 | $25.4$ |
|  | 19 | $22.7$ | $48.2$ | $27.1$ | $14.8$ |
|  | 20 | 25.2 | 51.0 | 27.5 | 21.1 |

4. Background and goal: The amount of body fat in Table 7.1 for each of the 20 persons was obtained by a cumbersome and expensive procedure requiring the immersion of the person in water. It would therefore be very helpful if a regression model with some or all of these predictor variables could provide reliable estimates of the amount of body fat since the measurements needed for the predictor variables are easy to obtain.
5. (Table 7.2) Conduct four regression results when body fat $(Y)$ is regressed on triceps skinfold thickness $\left(X_{1}\right)$ alone, (2) on thigh circumference $\left(X_{2}\right)$ alone, (3) on $X_{1}$, and $X_{2}$ only, and (4) on all three predictor variables. The total sum of squares is
$\qquad$ .
(a) (Table 7.2a) The regression sum of squares when $X_{1}$, only is in the model is,


TABLE 7.2 (Continued).

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { (c) Regression of } Y \text { on } X_{1} \text { and } X_{2} \\ & \hat{Y}=-19.174+.2224 X_{1}+.6594 X_{2} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Source of Variation | SS | df | MS |
| Regression Error | $\begin{aligned} & 385.44 \\ & 109.95 \end{aligned}$ | 2 17 | 192.72 6.47 |
| Total | 495.39 | 19 |  |
| Variable | Estimated Regression Coefficient | Estimated Standard Deviation | $t^{*}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & x_{1} \\ & x_{2} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & b_{1}=.2224 \\ & b_{2}=.6594 \end{aligned}$ | $s\left\{b_{1}\right\}=.3034$ $s\left\{b_{2}\right\}=.2912$ | .73 2.26 |
| (d) Regression of $Y$ on $X_{1}, X_{2}$, and $X_{3}$$\hat{\gamma}=117.08+4.334 X_{1}-2.857 X_{2}-2.186 X_{3}$ |  |  |  |
| Source of Variation | SS | df | MS |
| Regression | 396.98 | 3 | 132.33 |
| Error | 98.41 | 16 | 6.15 |
| Total | 495.39 | 19 |  |
| Variable | Estimated Regression Coefficient | Estimated Standard Deviation | $t^{*}$ |
| $X_{1}$ | $b_{1}=4.334$ | $s\left\{b_{1}\right\}=3.016$ | 1.44 |
| $x_{2}$ | $b_{2}=-2.857$ | $s\left\{b_{2}\right\}=2.582$ | -1.11 |
| $X_{3}$ | $b_{3}=-2.186$ | $s\left\{b_{3}\right\}=1.596$ | -1.37 |

(b) (Table 7.2c) When $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are in the regression model, the regression sum of squares is $\qquad$ and the error sum of squares is
$\qquad$ -
(c) Notice that the error sum of squares when $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are in the model,
$\qquad$ , is smaller than when the model contains only $X_{1}$, $\qquad$
(d) The difference is called an $\qquad$ and will be denoted by
$\qquad$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{2} \mid X_{1}\right) & = \\
& =385.44-352.27=33.17 \\
& = \\
& = \\
& =143.12-109.95=33.17
\end{aligned}
$$

This $\qquad$ in the error sum of squares is the result of $\qquad$ to the regression model when $\qquad$ , is already included in the model.
(e) Thus, the extra sum of squares $\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{2} \mid X_{1}\right)$ measures the (additional or extra reduction) of adding $X_{2}$ to the regression model when $X_{1}$, is already in the model.
(f) The reason for the equivalence of the $\qquad$ in the error sum of squares and the $\qquad$ in the regression sum of squares is the basic analysis of variance identity:
$\qquad$
Since SSTO measures the $\qquad$ and hence does not depend on the regression model fitted, any reduction in SSE implies an identical increase in SSR.
6. (Tables $7.2 \mathrm{c}, 7.2 \mathrm{~d}$ ) We can consider other extra sums of squares, such as the marginal effect of adding $X_{3}$ to the regression model when $X_{1}$, and $X_{2}$ are already in the model.
$\qquad$
or, equivalently:

$$
=\ldots=396.98-385.44=11.54
$$

7. (table 7.2a, 7.2d) We can even consider the marginal effect of adding several variables, such as adding both $X_{2}$ and $X_{3}$ to the regression model already containing $X_{1}$.
$\qquad$
or, equivalently:
$\qquad$
$=$

$$
=396.98-352.27=44.71
$$

## Definitions

1. An extra sum of squares always involves the $\qquad$ between the $\qquad$ for the regression model containing the $X$ variable(s) already in the model and the error sum of squares for the regression model containing both the
$\qquad$ $X$ variable(s) and the $\qquad$ $X$ variable(s).
2. Equivalently, an extra sum of squares involves the difference between the two corresponding $\qquad$ .
3. Thus, we define:

$$
\begin{equation*}
S S R\left(X_{1} \mid X_{2}\right)= \tag{7.1a}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
or, equivalently:

$$
\begin{equation*}
S S R\left(X_{1} \mid X_{2}\right)= \tag{7.1b}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
4. If $X_{2}$ is the extra variable, We define:

$$
\begin{equation*}
S S R\left(X_{2} \mid X_{1}\right)= \tag{7.2a}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
or, equivalently:

$$
\begin{equation*}
S S R\left(X_{2} \mid X_{1}\right)= \tag{7.2b}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
5. Extensions for three or more variables are straightforward:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{3} \mid X_{1}, X_{2}\right)= \tag{7.3a}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
or:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{3} \mid X_{1}, X_{2}\right)= \tag{7.4b}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{2}, X_{3} \mid X_{1}\right)= \tag{7.4a}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
or:

$$
\begin{equation*}
S S R\left(X_{2}, X_{3} \mid X_{1}\right)= \tag{7.4b}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$

## Decomposition of SSR into Extra Sums of Squares

1. In multiple regression, we can obtain a $\qquad$ of decompositions of SSR into
$\qquad$ sums of squares.
2. Consider the multiple regression model with two $X$ variables:

$$
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{1 i}+\beta_{2} X_{2 i}+\epsilon_{i}, i=1, \cdot, n
$$

3. Begin with the identity for $X_{1}$ :
when $X_{1}$ is the $X$ variable in th model. Replacing $\operatorname{SSE}\left(X_{1}\right)$ by its equivalent in (7.2a): $\qquad$ , we obtain:

$$
\begin{equation*}
S S T O= \tag{7.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
4. Use the same identity for multiple regression with two $X$ variables as in (7.5) for a single $X$ variable:

$$
\begin{equation*}
S S T O= \tag{7.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
Solving (7.7) for $\operatorname{SSE}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right)$ and using this expression in (7.6) lead to:
5. We have decomposed $\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right)$ into two marginal components:
(a) $\qquad$ : measuring the contribution by including $X_{1}$ alone in the model.
(b) $\qquad$ : measuring the additional contribution when $X_{2}$ is included, given that $X_{1}$ is already in the model.
6. The order of the $X$ variables is arbitrary:

$$
\begin{equation*}
S S R\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right)= \tag{7.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
7. Example Body Fat Example
(a) A sample of $n=20$ healthy females $25-34$ years old; $Y$ : amount of body fat; $X_{1}$ : triceps skinfold thickness; $X_{2}$ : thigh circumference; $X_{3}$ : midarm circumference.
(b) (Figure 7.1): The extra sum of squares can be viewed either as a $\qquad$ or as an $\qquad$ when the second predictor variable is added to the regression model.

FIGURE 7.1 Schematic Representation of Extra Sums of Squares-Body Fat Example.

8. When the regression model contains three $X$ variables, a variety of decompositions of $\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right)$ can be obtained. We illustrate three of these:

$$
\begin{equation*}
S S R\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right)= \tag{7.10a}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right)=$ $\qquad$
$\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right)=$
9. The number of possible decompositions becomes $\qquad$ as the number of $X$ variables in the regression model $\qquad$ .

## ANOVA Table Containing Decomposition of SSR

1. (Table 7.3, 7.4) ANOVA tables can be constructed containing decompositions of the regression sum of squares into extra sums of squares.

| TABLE 7.3 | Source of |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Example of | Source of Variation | SS | $d f$ | MS |
| ANOVA Table with | Regression | $\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, x_{3}\right)$ | 3 | $\operatorname{MSR}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, x_{3}\right)$ |
| Decomposition | $X_{1}$ | $\operatorname{SSR}\left(x_{1}\right)$ | 1 | $\operatorname{MSR}\left(X_{1}\right)$ |
| of $S S R$ for | $X_{2} \mid X_{1}$ | $\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{2} \mid X_{1}\right)$ | 1 | $\operatorname{MSR}\left(X_{2} \mid x_{1}\right)$ |
| Three $X$ | $X_{3} \mid X_{1}, X_{2}$ | $\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{3} \mid X_{1}, X_{2}\right)$ | 1 | $\operatorname{MSR}\left(X_{3} \mid X_{1}, X_{2}\right)$ |
| Variables. | Error | $\operatorname{SSE}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right)$ | $n-4$ | $\operatorname{MSE}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right)$ |
|  | Total | SSTO | $n-1$ |  |

2. Note that each extra sum of squares involving a $\qquad$ has associated with it $\qquad$ degree of freedom.
3. Extra sums of squares involving two extra $X$ variables, such as $\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{2}, X_{3} \mid X_{1}\right)$, have two degrees of freedom associated with them: an extra sum of squares as a sum of two extra sums of squares, each associated with $\qquad$ degree of freedom.
4. Many computer regression packages provide decompositions of SSR into $\qquad$ -degree-of-freedom extra sums of squares, usually in the order in which the $X$ variables are $\qquad$ .
5. If the $X$ variables are entered in the order $X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}$, the extra sums of squares given in the output are:
6. If an extra sum of squares involving several extra $X$ variables is desired, it can be obtained by summing appropriate single-degree-of-freedom extra sums of squares. For instance, to obtain $\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{2}, X_{3} \mid X_{1}\right)$ :

$$
S S R\left(X_{2}, X_{3} \mid X_{1}\right)=
$$

$\qquad$ -
7. The reason why extra sums of squares are of interest is that they occur in a variety of $\qquad$ about $\qquad$ where the question of concern is whether certain $X$ variables can be dropped from the regression model.

### 7.2 Uses of Extra Sums of Squares in Tests for Regression Coefficients

Test whether a Single $\beta_{k}=0$

1. Test whether the term $\beta_{k} X_{k}$ can be dropped from a multiple regression model,
$\qquad$
$H_{0}$ : $H_{a}$ : ,
the test statistic: is appropriate for this test.
2. Use $\qquad$ : consider the first-order regression model with three predictor variables:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i 1}+\beta_{2} X_{i 2}+\beta_{3} X_{i 3}+\varepsilon_{i} \quad \text { Full model } \tag{7.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

To test the alternatives:

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{0}: \beta_{3}=0 \quad H_{a}: \beta_{3} \neq 0 \tag{7.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

3. The error sum of squares $\operatorname{SSE}(F)$ for the full model:

$$
S S E(F)=\ldots, \quad d f_{F}=n-4
$$

4. (Reduced Model) The reduced model when $H_{0}$ in (7.13) holds:

Reduced model
The error sum of squares $S S E(E)$ for the reduced model:

$$
S S E(R)=\quad, \quad d f_{R}=n-3
$$

5. The general linear test statistic:

6. The test whether or not $\beta_{3}=0$ is a $\qquad$ , given that $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are already in the model.
7. Test statistic (7.15) shows that we do not need to fit both the full model and the reduced model to use the general linear test approach here. A single $\qquad$ can provide a fit of the full model and the appropriate extra sum of squares.
8. Example Body Fat Example
(a) To test for the model with all three predictor variables whether midarm circumference ( $X_{3}$ ) can be dropped from the model.

TABLE 7.4 ANOVA Table with Decomposition of $S S R$-Body Fat Example with Three $\quad X_{3} \mid X_{1}, X_{2}$ Predictor Error

| Source of |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Variation | SS | $\boldsymbol{d f}$ | MS |
| Regression | 396.98 | 3 | 132.33 |
| $X_{1}$ | 352.27 | 1 | 352.27 |
| $X_{2} \mid X_{1}$ | 33.17 | 1 | 33.17 |
| $X_{3} \mid X_{1}, X_{2}$ | 11.54 | 1 | 11.54 |
| Error | 98.41 | 16 | 6.15 |
| Total | 495.39 | 19 |  |

(b) (Table 7.4) ANOVA results of the full regression model (7.12), including the extra sums of squares when the predictor variables are entered in the order $X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}$. Hence, test statistic (7.15) is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
F^{*} & =\frac{S S R\left(X_{3} \mid X_{1}, X_{2}\right)}{1} \div \frac{S S E\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right)}{n-4} \\
& =
\end{aligned}
$$

For $\alpha=0.01$, we require $\qquad$ . Since $\qquad$ , we conclude $\qquad$ , that $\overline{X_{3}}$ can be dropped from the regression model that already contains $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$.
(c) (Table 7.2d) the $t^{*}$ test statistic:

$$
t^{*}=
$$

Since $\qquad$ , we see that the two test statistics are
$\qquad$ , just as for simple linear regression.
9. The $F^{*}$ test statistic (7.15) to test whether or not $\beta_{3}=0$ is called a $\qquad$
$\qquad$ to distinguish it from the $F^{*}$ statistic in (6.39b) for testing whether all $\beta_{k}=0$, i.e., whether or not there is a regression relation between $Y$ and the set of $X$ variables. The latter test is called the $\qquad$ .

## Test whether Several $\beta_{k}=0$

1. To know whether both $\beta_{2} X_{2}$ and $\beta_{3} X_{3}$ can be dropped from the full model (7.12). The alternatives here are:

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{0}: \quad H_{a}: \text { not both } \beta_{2} \text { and } \beta_{3} \text { equal zero } \tag{7.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

2. With the general linear test approach, the reduced model under $H_{0}$ is:

Reduced model (7.17)
and the error sum of squares for the reduced model is:

$$
S S E(R)=\quad d f_{R}=
$$

3. The general linear test statistic:

(a) To test in the body fat example for the model with all three predictor variables whether both thigh circumference $\left(X_{2}\right)$ and midarm circumference $\left(X_{3}\right)$ can be dropped from the full regression model (7.12):
$\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{2}, X_{3} \mid X_{1}\right)=$ $\qquad$
(b) Test statistic (7.18) therefore:

$$
F^{*}=
$$

(c) For $\alpha=0.05$, we require $\qquad$ . Since $F^{*}=3.63$ is at the of the decision rule (the $P$-value of the test statistic is $\qquad$ ), we may wish to make $\qquad$ before deciding whether $X_{2}$ and $X_{3}$ should be dropped from the regression model that already contains $X_{1}$.

### 7.3 Summary of Tests Concerning Regression Coefficients*

### 7.4 Coefficients of Partial Determination

1. Extra sums of squares are not only useful for $\qquad$ on the regression coefficients of a multiple regression model, but they are also encountered in descriptive measures of relationship called $\qquad$ .
2. Recall: the coefficient of multiple determination, $R^{2}$, measures the $\qquad$
$\qquad$ in the variation of $Y$ achieved by the introduction of the $\qquad$ of $X$ variables considered in the model.
3. A coefficient of $\qquad$ determination measures the of one $X$ variable when all others are already included in the model.

## Two Predictor Variables

1. Consider a first-order multiple regression model with two predictor variables:

$$
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i 1}+\beta_{2} X_{i 2}+\varepsilon_{i}
$$

(a) $\qquad$ : measures the variation in $Y$ when $X_{2}$ is included in the mode1.
(b) $\qquad$ measures the variation in $Y$ when both $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are included in the model.
2. (Recall) Coefficient of determination:
3. The relative marginal reduction in the variation in $Y$ associated with $X_{1}$ when $X_{2}$ is already in the model is:

$$
R_{Y 1 \mid 2}^{2}=\quad=
$$

$\qquad$
This measure is the $\qquad$ between $Y$ and $X_{1}$, given that $X_{2}$ is in the mode1. Denoted by $\qquad$
4. $R_{Y 1 \mid 2}^{2}$ measures the $\qquad$ in the variation in $Y$ remaining after $X_{2}$ is included in the model that is $\qquad$ by also including $X_{1}$ in the model.
5. The coefficient of partial determination between $Y$ and $X_{2}$, given that $X_{1}$ is in the model, is defined correspondingly:

## General Case

1. The generalization of coefficients of partial determination to three or more $X$ variables in the model:

$$
\begin{align*}
R_{Y 1 \mid 23}^{2} & =  \tag{7.37}\\
R_{Y 2 \mid 13}^{2} & =  \tag{7.38}\\
& =\frac{S S R\left(X_{3} \mid X_{1}, X_{2}\right)}{S S E\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right)}  \tag{7.39}\\
& =\frac{\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{4} \mid X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right)}{\operatorname{SSE}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right)} \tag{7.40}
\end{align*}
$$

2. Example Body Fat Example
(a) Example: we can obtain a variety of coefficients of partial determination. (Tables 7.2 and 7.4):

$$
R_{Y 2 \mid 1}^{2}=
$$

$\qquad$

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{Y 3 \mid 12}^{2} & = \\
R_{Y 1 \mid 2}^{2} & =
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) When $X_{2}$ is added to the regression model containing $X_{1}$, the $\qquad$ sum of squares $\qquad$ is reduced by $\qquad$ .
(c) SSE for the model containing both $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ is only reduced by another
$\qquad$ percent when $X_{3}$ is added to the model.
(d) If the regression model already contains $X_{2}$, adding $X_{1}$ reduces $\qquad$ by only $\qquad$ .

## Coefficients of Partial Correlation

1. The $\qquad$ of a coefficient of partial determination is called a $\qquad$
$\qquad$
2. One use of partial correlation coefficients is in computer routines for finding the to be selected next for inclusion in the regression model.
3. For the body fat example, we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
r_{Y 2 \mid 1} & =\sqrt{0.232}=0.482 \\
r_{Y 3 \mid 12} & =-\sqrt{0.105}=-0.324 \\
r_{Y 1 \mid 2} & =\sqrt{0.031}=0.176
\end{aligned}
$$

4. The coefficients $r_{Y 2 \mid 1}$ and $r_{Y 1 \mid 2}$ are positive because we see from Table 7.2c that $b_{2}=0.6594$ and $b_{1}=0.2224$ are . Similarly, $r_{Y 3 \mid 12}$ is negative because we see from Table 7.2 d that $b_{3}=-2.186$ is $\qquad$ .

### 7.5 Standardized Multiple Regression Model*

### 7.6 Multicollinearity and Its Effects

1. In multiple regression analysis, some questions frequently asked:
(a) What is the $\qquad$ of the effects of the different predictor variables?
(b) What is the $\qquad$ of the effect of a given predictor variable on the response variable?
(c) Can any predictor variable be $\qquad$ from the model because it has little or no effect on the response variable?
(d) Should any predictor variables not yet included in the model be considered for
$\qquad$ ?
2. In many nonexperimental situations in business, economics, and the social and biological sciences, the $\qquad$ tend to be $\qquad$ among themselves and $\qquad$ that are related to the response variable but are not included in the model.
3. Example In a regression of family food expenditures on the explanatory variables family income, family savings, and age of head of household, the explanatory variables will be $\qquad$ among themselves. Further, they will also be correlated with other socioeconomic variables not included in the model that do affect family food expenditures, such as family size.
4. When the predictor variables are correlated among themselves, $\qquad$ or $\qquad$ among them is said to exist.

## Uncorrelated Predictor Variables

1. (Table 7.6) The data for a small-scale experiment on the effect of work crew size $\left(X_{1}\right)$ and level of bonus pay $\left(X_{2}\right)$ on crew productivity $(Y)$. The predictor variables $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are uncorrelated ( $\qquad$

| TABLE 7.6 | Crew Size | Bonus Pay <br> (dollars) <br> Uncorrelated | Case | $\boldsymbol{X}_{i 1}$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

2. (Table $7.7 \mathrm{a}(7.7 \mathrm{~b})(7.7 \mathrm{c})$ ) The fitted regression function and the analysis of variance table when both $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are (only $\left(X_{1}\right)\left(X_{2}\right)$ is) included in the model.
3. (Table 7.7) The regression coefficient for $X_{1}$, $\qquad$ , is the $\qquad$ whether only $X_{1}$ is included in the model or both predictor variables are included. The same holds for $\qquad$ .

TABLE 7.7 Regression Results when Predictor Variables Are UncorrelatedWork Crew Productivity Example.

|  | (a) Regression of $Y$ on $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$$\hat{Y}=.375+5.375 X_{1}+9.250 X_{2}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Source of Variation | SS | $d f$ | MS |
| Regression | 402.250 | 2 | 201.125 |
| Error | 17.625 | 5 | 3.525 |
| Total | 419.875 | 7 |  |
| (b) Regression of $Y$ on $X_{1}$ $\hat{Y}=23.500+5.375 X_{1}$ |  |  |  |
| Source of Variation | SS | $d f$ | MS |
| Regression | 231.125 | 1 | 231.125 |
| Error | 188.750 | 6 | 31.458 |
| Total | 419.875 | 7 |  |
| (c) Regression of $Y$ on $X_{2}$$\hat{Y}=27.250+9.250 X_{2}$ |  |  |  |
| Source of Variation | SS | $d f$ | MS |
| Regression | 171.125 | 1 | 171.125 |
| Error | 248.750 | 6 | 41.458 |
| Total | 419.875 | 7 |  |

4. When the predictor variables are $\qquad$ , the effects ascribed to them by a first-order regression model are the $\qquad$ no matter which other of these predictor variables are included in the model.
5. The extra sum of squares $S S R\left(X_{1} \mid X_{2}\right)$ equals the regression sum of squares $S S R\left(X_{1}\right)$ when only $X_{1}$, is in the regression model:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{1} \mid X_{2}\right)= \\
&= \\
& \operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{1}\right)= \\
&
\end{aligned}
$$

6. Similarly, the extra sum of squares $S S R\left(X_{2} \mid X_{1}\right)$ equals $S S R\left(X_{2}\right)$, the regression sum of squares when only $X_{2}$ is in the regression model:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{2} \mid X_{1}\right)= \\
&= \\
& \operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{2}\right)= \\
&
\end{aligned}
$$

7. In general, when two or more predictor variables are uncorrelated, the $\qquad$
$\qquad$ of one predictor variable in reducing the error sum of squares when the other predictor variables are in the model is $\qquad$ as when this predictor variable is in the model alone.
8. See Comment on page 281 for the proof: when $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are uncorrelated, adding $X_{2}$ to the regression model does not change the regression coefficient for $X_{1}$; correspondingly, adding $X_{1}$ to the regression model does not change the regression coefficient for $X_{2}$.

## Nature of Problem when Predictor Variables Are Perfectly Correlated

1. (Table 7.8) Example The data refer to four sample observations on a response variable and two predictor variables. The first-order multiple regression function fit:

$$
E(Y)=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{1}+\beta_{2} X_{2}
$$

TABLE 7.8
Example of Perfectly Correlated Predictor Variables.

| Case | $X_{i 1}$ | $X_{i 2}$ | $Y_{i}$ | Fitted Values for Regression Function |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $i$ |  |  |  | (7.58) | (7.59) |  |
| 1 | 2 | 6 | 23 | 23 | 23 |  |
| 2 | 8 | 9 | 83 | 83 | 83 |  |
| 3 | 6 | 8 | 63 | 63 | 63 |  |
| 4 | 10 | 10 | 103 | 103 | 103 |  |
|  |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{r} \text { Res } \\ \hat{Y}=-8 \\ \hat{Y}=-7 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ctions } \\ & 18 X_{2} \\ & 2 X_{2} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & (7.58) \\ & (7.59) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { Mr. A }: \hat{Y}=-87+X_{1}+18 X_{2} \quad \text { (perfect fit) }  \tag{7.58}\\
& \text { Mr. B }: \hat{Y}=-7+9 X_{1}+2 X_{2} \quad \text { (perfect fit) } \tag{7.59}
\end{align*}
$$

2. It can be shown that $\qquad$ will fit the data in Table 7.8 perfectly. The reason is that the predictor variables $X_{1}$, and $X_{2}$ are perfectly related:

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{2}=5+0.5 X_{1} \tag{7.60}
\end{equation*}
$$

3. (Figure 7.2) The fitted response functions (7.58) and (7.59) are entirely different response surfaces. The two response surfaces have $\qquad$ only when they $\qquad$ .

FIGURE 7.2 Two Response Planes That Intersect when $X_{2}=5+.5 X_{1}$.


马. Two key implications of this example are:
(a) The perfect relation between $X_{1}$, and $X_{2}$ did not inhibit our ability to obtain a $\qquad$ to the data.
(b) Since many different response functions provide the same good fit, we cannot
$\qquad$ anyone set of $\qquad$ as reflecting the effects of the different predictor variables.

## Effects of Multicollinearity

1. The fact that some or all predictor variables are correlated among themselves (a) does not, in general, inhibit our ability to obtain a $\qquad$ (b) nor does it tend
to affect $\qquad$ or $\qquad$ ,
provided these inferences are made within the region of observations.
2. The estimated $\qquad$ tend to have $\qquad$
when the predictor variables are highly correlated. Thus, the estimated regression coefficients tend to vary widely from one sample to the next when the predictor variables are highly correlated.
3. Many of the estimated regression coefficients individually may be $\qquad$ even though a definite statistical relation exists between the response variable and the set of predictor variables.
4. The common $\qquad$ of a regression coefficient as measuring the change in the expected value of the response variable when the given predictor variable is increased by one unit while all other predictor variables are held constant is when multicollinearity exists.
5. Example The Body Fat Example
(a) (Table 7.1): A sample of 20 healthy females $25-34$ years old, $Y$ : amount of body fat, $X_{1}$ : triceps skinfold thickness, $X_{2}$ : thigh circumference, $X_{3}$ : midarm circumference. (Table 7.2): The regression results for different fitted models.
(b) (Figure 7.3) The scatter plot matrix and the $\qquad$ matrix of the predictor variables: predictor variables $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are highly correlated $\qquad$ .
(c) $r_{13}=0.458$ and $r_{23}=0.085$.
(d) The $\qquad$ when $X_{3}$ is regressed on $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ is 0.998: $X_{3}$ is highly correlated with $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ together.

| FIGURE 7.3 | (a) Scatter Plot Matrix of $X$ Variables |  |  | (b) Correlation Matrix of X Variables |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Scatter Plot <br> Matrix and <br> Correlation <br> Matrix of the <br> Predictor | X1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Variables- <br> Body Fat <br> Example. | . $\quad \therefore:^{\circ}$ | X2 | $\bullet$ $\because$ $\bullet$ $\square$ | $\mathbf{r}_{x x}=$ | $\left[\begin{array}{l}1.0 \\ .924 \\ .458\end{array}\right.$ | .924 1.0 .085 | $\left.\begin{array}{l}.458 \\ .085 \\ 1.0\end{array}\right]$ |
|  |  |  | X3 |  |  |  |  |

## 6. Effects on Regression Coefficients.

(a) The regression coefficient for $X_{1}$, triceps skinfold thickness, depending on which other variables are included in the model.

| Variables in Model | $\boldsymbol{b}_{\mathbf{1}}$ | $\boldsymbol{b}_{\mathbf{2}}$ |
| :--- | :---: | ---: |
| $X_{1}$ | .8572 | - |
| $X_{2}, X_{2}$ | .2224 | .8565 |
| $X_{1}, X_{3}$ | 4.334 | -2.857 |
| $X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}$ |  |  |

(b) The story is the same for the regression coefficient for $X_{2}$. The regression coefficient $b_{2}$ even $\qquad$ when $X_{3}$ is added to the model that includes $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$.
(c) Important conclusion: When predictor variables are correlated, the regression coefficient of anyone variable $\qquad$ which other predictor variables are included in the model and which ones are left out. Thus, a regression coefficient does not reflect any inherent effect of the particular predictor variable on the response variable but only a $\qquad$ or $\qquad$ effect, given whatever other correlated predictor variables are included in the model.

## 7. Effects on Extra Sums of Squares.

(a) When predictor variables are correlated, the marginal contribution of anyone predictor variable in reducing the error sum of squares $\qquad$ , depending on which other variables are already in the regression model, just as for regression coefficients.
(b) (Table 7.2) Consider the following extra sums of squares for $X_{1}$ :

$$
S S R\left(X_{1}\right)=352.27 \quad \operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{1} \mid X_{2}\right)=3.47
$$

The reason why $S S R\left(X_{1} \mid X_{2}\right)$ is so small compared with $\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{1}\right)$ is that $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are $\qquad$ with each other and with the response variable.
(c) When $X_{2}$ is already in the regression model, the marginal contribution of $X_{1}$ in reducing the error sum of squares is $\qquad$ because $X_{2}$ contains much of the $\qquad$ as $X_{1}$.
(d) The same story is found in Table 7.2 for $X_{2}$. Here $S S R\left(X_{2} \mid X_{1}\right)=$ $\qquad$ , which is much smaller than $\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{2}\right)=$ $\qquad$ .
(e) Important conclusion: When predictor variables are correlated, there is $\qquad$
$\qquad$ sum of squares that can be ascribed to anyone predictor variable as reflecting its effect in reducing the total variation in $Y$. The reduction in the total variation ascribed to a predictor variable must be viewed in the context of $\qquad$ variables already included in the model.
8. Effects on $s\left(b_{k}\right)$.
(a) (Table 7.2 for the body fat example) how much more $\qquad$ the estimated regression coefficients $b_{1}$ and $b_{2}$ become as more predictor variables are added to the regression model:

| Variables in Model | $s\left\{\boldsymbol{b}_{1}\right\}$ | $\boldsymbol{s}\left\{\boldsymbol{b}_{\mathbf{2}}\right\}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $X_{1}$ | .1288 | $-\overline{1100}$ |
| $X_{2}$ | - | .11012 |
| $X_{1}, X_{2}$ | .3034 | .2912 |
| $X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}$ | 3.016 | 2.582 |

(b) The $\qquad$ of multicollinearity among the predictor variables is responsible for the $\qquad$ of the estimated regression coefficients.

## 9. Effects on Fitted Values and Predictions.

(a) (Table 7.2 for the body fat example) the high multicollinearity among the predictor variables $\qquad$ , measuring the variability of the error terms, from being $\qquad$ as additional variables are added to the regression model:

|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Variables in Model | $M S E$ |
| $X_{1}$ | 7.95 |
| $X_{1}, X_{2}$ | 6.47 |
| $X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}$ | 6.15 |

(b) The $\qquad$ within the range of the observations on the predictor variables is $\qquad$ with the addition of correlated predictor variables into the regression model.
(c) Example Consider the estimation of mean body fat when the only predictor variable in the model is triceps skinfold thickness $\left(X_{1}\right)$ for $X_{h 1}=25.0$. The fitted value and its estimated standard deviation are (calculations not shown):

$$
\hat{Y}_{h}=19.93, \quad s\left(\hat{Y}_{h}\right)=0.632
$$

When the highly correlated predictor variable thigh circumference $\left(X_{2}\right)$ is also included in the model, the estimated mean body fat and its estimated standard deviation are as follows for $X_{h 1}=25.0$ and $X_{h 2}=50.0$ :

$$
\hat{Y}_{h}=19.36 \quad s\left(\hat{Y}_{h}\right)=0.624
$$

Thus, the $\qquad$ is equally good as before, despite the addition of the second predictor variable that is highly correlated with the first one.
(d) The essential reason for the $\qquad$ is that the $\qquad$
$\qquad$ is negative, which plays a strong $\qquad$ influence to the increase in $s^{2}\left(b_{1}\right)$, in determining the value of $s^{2}\left(\hat{Y}_{h}\right)$ as given in (6.79).

$$
\begin{align*}
s^{2}\left\{\hat{Y}_{h}\right\}= & s^{2}\left\{b_{0}\right\}+X_{h 1}^{2} s^{2}\left\{b_{1}\right\}+X_{h 2}^{2} s^{2}\left\{b_{2}\right\}+2 X_{h 1} s\left\{b_{0}, b_{1}\right\} \\
& +2 X_{h 2} s\left\{b_{0}, b_{2}\right\}+2 X_{h 1} X_{h 2} s\left\{b_{1}, b_{2}\right\} \tag{6.79}
\end{align*}
$$

10. Effects on Simultaneous Tests of $\beta_{k}$. Paradox of $t$-test and $F$-test:
(a) (The Body Fat Example) test whether $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ . Controlling the family level of significance at 0.05 , we require with the $\qquad$ that each of the two $t$ tests be conducted with level of significance $\qquad$ .
(b) Hence, we need $\qquad$ - Since both $t^{*}$ statistics in Table 7.2c have absolute values that do not exceed 2.46, we would conclude from the two
$\qquad$ tests that $\beta_{1}=0$ and that $\beta_{2}=0$.
(c) (Table 7.2c) Yet the proper $F$ test for $\qquad$ would lead to the $\qquad$ that not both coefficients equal zero. We find $F^{*}=$ $M S R / M S E=192.72 / 6.47=29.8$, which far exceeds $F_{(0.95 ; 2,17)}=3.59$.
(d) The reason for this apparently paradoxical result is that each $\qquad$ is a $\qquad$ , as we have seen in (7.15) from the perspective of the general linear test approach.
(e) Thus, a $\qquad$ here indicates that $X_{1}$, does not provide much additional information beyond $X_{2}$, which already is in the model; hence, we are led to the conclusion that $\beta_{1}=0$.
(f) Similarly, we are led to conclude $\beta_{2}=0$ here because is small, indicating that $X_{2}$ does not provide much more additional information when $X_{1}$ is already in the model.
(g) But the two tests of the marginal effects of $\qquad$ are not equivalent to testing whether there is a regression relation between $Y$ and the two predictor variables.
(h) The reason is that the reduced model for each of the separate tests contains the $\ldots$, whereas the reduced model for testing whether
$\qquad$ $\beta_{1}=0$ and $\beta_{2}=0$ would contain $\qquad$ predictor variable. The proper $F$ test shows that there is a definite regression relation here between $Y$ and $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$.

## Need for More Powerful Diagnostics for Multicollinearity

1. The diagnostic tool for identifying multicollinearity: the pairwise $\qquad$ between the predictor variables is frequently helpful.
2. (Chapter 10) more powerful tool for identifying the existence of serious multicollinearity.
3. (Chapter 11) Some remedial measures for lessening the effects of multicollinearity.

## () TA Class

- Problems: 7.2, 7.3, 7.6, 7.11, 7.24.
- Exercises: 7.31
＂你無法改變別人的長相，但我們可以改變我們看人的方式。＂
＂You can not change someone＇s looks，but we can change the way we look．＂
—奇蹟男孩（Wonder，2017）


# Chapter 8: Regression Models for Quantitative and Qualitative Regression Analysis (I) 

Kutner's Applied Linear Statistical Models (5/E)

## Chapter 8: Regression Models for Quantitative and Qualitative Predictors

Thursday 09:10-12:00, 商館 260205
Han-Ming Wu
Department of Statistics, National Chengchi University
http://www.hmwu.idv.tw

## Overview

1. We consider in greater detail standard modeling techniques for $\qquad$ predictors, for $\qquad$ predictors, and for regression models containing
$\qquad$ quantitative and qualitative predictors.
2. These techniques include the use of $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ terms for quantitative predictors, and the use of $\qquad$ for qualitative predictors.

### 8.1 Polynomial Regression Models

1. The polynomial regression models for quantitative predictor variables are among the most frequently used $\qquad$ models in practice because they are handled easily as a special case of the general linear regression model (6.7).
2. We discuss several commonly used polynomial regression models.
3. Then we present a case to illustrate some of the major issues encountered with polynomial regression models.

## Uses of Polynomial Models

1. Polynomial regression models have two basic types of uses:
(a) When the true curvilinear response function is $\qquad$ a polynomial function.
(b) When the true curvilinear response function is but a polynomial function is a good $\qquad$ to the true function.

## One Predictor Variable - Second Order

1. Polynomial regression models may contain one, two, or more than two $\qquad$
$\qquad$ . Further, each predictor variable may be present in $\qquad$ .
2. Considering a polynomial regression model (called a $\qquad$ with one predictor variable):

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} x_{i}+\beta_{2} x_{i}^{2}+\varepsilon_{i} \tag{8.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

or
$\qquad$
where: $x_{i}=$ $\qquad$ .
3. Note that the predictor variable is $\qquad$ -in other words, expressed as a deviation around its mean $\bar{X}$ - and that the $i$ th centered observation is denoted by $x_{i}$.
4. The reason for using a centered predictor variable in the polynomial regression model is that $X$ and $X^{2}$ often will be $\qquad$ . Centering the predictor variable often reduces the $\qquad$ substantially.
5. The response function for regression model (8.2) is (called a $\qquad$ ):

(a)

(b)
6. The regression coefficient $\beta_{0}$ represents the mean response of $Y$ when $x=0$, i.e., when $\qquad$ . The regression coefficient $\beta_{1}$ is called the $\qquad$ coefficient, and $\beta_{11}$ is called the $\qquad$ coefficient.

## One Predictor Variable - Third Order

1. The regression model is called a third-order model with one predictor variable
where $x_{i}=X_{i}-\bar{X}$
2. The response function for regression model (8.5) is:


## One Predictor Variable - Higher Orders

1. Polynomial models with the predictor variable present in $\qquad$
$\qquad$ should be employed with special caution. The $\qquad$ of the coefficients becomes difficult for such models.

## Two Predictor Variables - Second Order

1. The regression model:
where $x_{i 1}=X_{i 1}-\bar{X}_{1}, x_{i 2}=X_{i 2}-\bar{X}_{2}$.
2. The response function is:
3. Note that regression model (8.7) contains separate $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ components for each of the two predictor variables and a $\qquad$ term.
4. The latter represents the interaction effect between $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$. The coefficient $\beta_{12}$ is often called the $\qquad$ .

## FIGURE 8.3 Example of a Quadratic Response Surface- $E\{Y\}=1,740-4 x_{1}^{2}-3 x_{2}^{2}-3 x_{1} x_{2}$.


(b) Contour Curves


## Three Predictor Variables - Second Order* <br> Implementation of Polynomial Regression Models*

## Case Example

1. Setting. A researcher studied the effects of the charge rate and temperature on the life of a new type of power cell in a preliminary small-scale expetiment. The charge rate $\left(X_{1}\right)$ was controlled at three levels $(0.6,1.0$, and 1.4 amperes (安培) ) and the ambient temperature $\left(X_{2}\right)$ was controlled at three levels ( $10,20,30 \circ \mathrm{C}$ ). Factors pertaining to the discharge of the power cell were held at fixed levels. The life of the power cell $(Y)$ was measured in terms of the number of discharge - charge cycles that a power cell underwent before it failed.
2. Model to be Considered. (Table 8.1) The data obtained in the study are contained in Table 8.1, columns 1-3. The researcher was not sure about the nature of the response function in the range of the factors studied. Hence, the researcher decided to fit the second-order polynomial regression model (8.7):

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} x_{i 1}+\beta_{2} x_{i 2}+\beta_{11} x_{i 1}^{2}+\beta_{22} x_{i 2}^{2}+\beta_{12} x_{i 1} x_{i 2}+\varepsilon_{i} \tag{8.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

for which the response function is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
E\{Y\}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} x_{1}+\beta_{2} x_{2}+\beta_{11} x_{1}^{2}+\beta_{22} x_{2}^{2}+\beta_{12} x_{1} x_{2} \tag{8.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

TABLE 8.1 Data-Power Cells Example.

|  | $(1)$ <br> Number of <br> Cycles | $(2)$ <br> Charge <br> Rate | $(3)$ <br> Temperature | (4) <br> Coded Values | $(5)$ | $(6)$ | $(7)$ | $(8)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\boldsymbol{i}$ | $\boldsymbol{Y}_{i}$ | $X_{i 1}$ | $X_{l 2}$ | $x_{i 1}$ | $x_{i 2}$ | $x_{i 1}^{2}$ | $x_{i 2}^{2}$ | $x_{i 1} x_{i 2}$ |
| 1 | 150 | .6 | 10 | -1 | -1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2 | 86 | 1.0 | 10 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 3 | 49 | 1.4 | 10 | 1 | -1 | 1 | 1 | -1 |
| 4 | 288 | .6 | 20 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 | 157 | 1.0 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 | 131 | 1.0 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 7 | 184 | 1.0 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 | 109 | 1.4 | 20 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | 279 | .6 | 30 | -1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | -1 |
| 10 | 235 | 1.0 | 30 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 11 | 224 | 1.4 | 30 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
|  |  | $\bar{X}_{1}=1.0$ | $\bar{X}_{2}=20$ |  |  |  |  |  |

Setting adapted from: S. M. Sidik. H. F. Leibecki, and J. M. Bozek, Cycies Till Failure nf Silver-Ziuc Cells with Competing Fainure Mndes-Prelintinary Dana Analvsis. NASA Technical Memorandum 815-56, 1980.
3. Coded Variables. Because of the balanced nature of the $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ levels studied, the researcher not only centered the variables $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ around their respective means but also scaled them in convenient units, as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{i 1}=\frac{X_{i 1}-\bar{X}_{1}}{0.4}=\frac{X_{i 1}-1.0}{0.4} \\
& x_{i 2}=\frac{X_{i 2}-\bar{X}_{2}}{10}=\frac{X_{i 1}-20}{10}
\end{aligned}
$$

(a) Here, the denominator used for each predictor variable is the absolute difference between $\qquad$ of the variable.
(b) These centered and scaled variables are shown in columns 4 and 5 of Table 8.1. Note that the codings defined in (8.15) lead to simple coded values, -1 , 0 , and 1 . The squared and cross-product terms are shown in columns $6-8$ of Table 8.1.
(c) Use of the coded variables $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ rather than the original variables $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ $\qquad$ between the first power and second power terms markedly. Low levels of $\qquad$ can be helpful in avoiding computational inaccuracies.

| Correlation between |  | Correlation between |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $X_{1}$ and $X_{1}^{2}$ : | . 991 | $X_{2}$ and $X_{2}^{2}$ : | . 986 |
| $x_{1}$ and $x_{1}^{2}$ : | 0.0 | $x_{2}$ and $x_{2}^{2}$ : | 0.0 |

(d) The researcher was particularly interested in whether $\qquad$ effects and $\qquad$ effects are required in the model for the range of the $X$ variables considered.
4. Fitting of Model. (Figure 8.4) contains the basic regression results for the fit of model (8.13) with the SAS regression package. The $\qquad$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{Y}=162.84-55.83 x_{1}+75.50 x_{2}+27.39 x_{1}^{2}-10.61 x_{2}^{2}+11.50 x_{1} x_{2} \tag{8.16}
\end{equation*}
$$


5. Residual Plots. (Figure 8.5) None of these plots suggest any gross inadequacies of regression model (8.13). The coefficient of correlation between the ordered residuals and their expected values under normality is 0.974 , which supports the assumption of normality of the error terms.

(c) Residual Plot against $x_{2}$

(d) Normal Probability Plot

6. Test of Fit. Since there are three replications at $x_{1}=0, x_{2}=0$, another indication of the adequacy of regression model (8.13) can be obtained by the formal test in (6.68) of the $\qquad$ of the regression function (8.14).
(a) The pure error sum of squares (3.16):

$$
S S P E=(157-157.33)^{2}+(131-157.33)^{2}+(184-157.33)^{2}=1,404.67
$$

Since there are $c=9$ distinct combinations of levels of the $X$ variables here, there are $n-c=11-9=2$ degrees of freedom associated with SSPE.
(b) (Figure 8.4) $S S E=5,240.44$. Hence the lack of fit sum of squares (3.24) is:

$$
S S L F=\square=3,835.77
$$

with which $c-p=9-6=3$ degrees of freedom are associated. $\quad(p=6$ regression coefficients in model (8.13) had to be estimated.)
(c) Hence, test statistic (6.68b) for testing the adequacy of the regression function (8.14) is:

$$
F^{*}=
$$

(d) For $\alpha=0.05$, we require $\qquad$ . Since $F^{*}=1.82 \leq 19.2$, we conclude according to decision rule (6.68c) that the second-order polynomial regression function (8.14) is a good fit.
7. Coefficient of Multiple Determination. (Figure 8.4) $\qquad$ : the variation in the lives of the power cells is reduced by about 91 percent when the first-order and second-order relations to the charge rate and ambient temperature are utilized. The adjusted $\qquad$ .
8. Partial F Test. Whether a first-order model would be sufficient? The test alternatives are:
$H_{0}$ : $\qquad$ , $H_{a}$ : not all $\beta \mathrm{s}$ in $H_{0}$ equal zero
(a) The partial F test statistic (7.27) here is:

$$
F^{*}=
$$

(b) (Figure 8.4) $S S R\left(x_{1}\right)=18,704, S S R\left(x_{2} \mid x_{1}\right)=34,202$. The required extra sum of squares is therefore obtained:

$$
\operatorname{SSR}\left(x_{1}^{2}, x_{2}^{2}, x_{1} x_{2} \mid x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=
$$

$\qquad$
$\qquad$
(c) (Figure 8.4) $M S E=$ $\qquad$ . Hence the test statistic is:

$$
F^{*}=
$$

(d) For level of significance $\alpha=0.05$, we require $\qquad$ . Since $F^{*}=0.78 \leq 5.41$, we conclude $\qquad$ , that no curvature and interaction effects are needed, so that a $\qquad$ for the range of the charge rates and temperatures considered.
9. First-Order Model. On the basis of this analysis, the researcher decided to consider the first-order model:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} x_{i 1}+\beta_{2} x_{i 2}+\varepsilon_{i} \tag{8.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

(a) A fit of this model yielded the estimated response function:

$$
\hat{Y}=172.00-55.83 x_{1}+75.50 x_{2} \quad(8.18) \quad s\left(b_{1}\right)=12.67, s\left(b_{2}\right)=12.67
$$

(b) A variety of $\qquad$ for this first-order model were made and analyzed by the researcher (not shown here), which confirmed the appropriateness of first-order model (8.17).
10. Fitted First-Order Model in Terms of $X$. The fitted first-order regression function (8.18) can be transformed back to the $\qquad$ by utilizing (8.15). We obtain:
(Figure 8.6) contains an S-Plus regression-scatter plot of the fitted response plane. The researcher used this $\qquad$ for investigating the effects of charge rate and temperature on the life of this new type of power cell.

FIGURE 8.6
S-Plus Plot of
Fitted
Response Plane
(8.19)-POwer

Cells Example.

11. Estimation of Regression Coefficients. The researcher wished to estimate the
$\qquad$ of the two predictor variables in the first-order model, with a 90 percent family confidence coefficient, by means of the Bonferroni method.
(a) Joint Inferences (page 228) The $\qquad$ can
be used to estimate several regression coefficients simultaneously. If $g$ parameters are to be estimated jointly (where $g \leq p$ ), the confidence limits with family confidence coefficient $1-\alpha$ are:
, where
(b) Here, $g=2$ statements are desired; hence, by (6.52a), we have:

$$
B=
$$

$\qquad$
(c) The estimated standard deviations of $b_{1}$ and $b_{2}$ in (8.18) apply to the model in the coded variables. Since only first-order terms are involved in this fitted model, we obtain the estimated standard deviations of $b_{1}^{\prime}$ and $b_{2}^{\prime}$ for the fitted model (8.19) in the original variables:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& s\left\{b_{1}^{\prime}\right\}=\frac{1}{0.4} s\left\{b_{1}\right\}=\frac{12.67}{0.4}=31.68 \\
& s\left\{b_{2}^{\prime}\right\}=\frac{1}{10} s\left\{b_{2}\right\}=\frac{12.67}{10}=1.267
\end{aligned}
$$

(d) The Bonferroni confidence limits by (6.52) therefore are $-139.58 \pm 2.306$ (31.68) and $7.55 \pm 2.306(1.267)$, yielding the confidence limits:

$$
-212.6 \leq \beta_{1} \leq-66.5, \quad \text { and } \quad 4.6 \leq \beta_{2} \leq 10.5
$$

(e) With confidence $90 \%$, we conclude that the mean number of charge/discharge cycles before failure $\qquad$ with a unit increase in the charge rate for given ambient temperature, and $\qquad$ with a unit increase of ambient temperature for given charge rate.
(f) The researcher was satisfied with the precision of these estimates for this initial small-scale study.

## Some Further Comments on Polynomial Regression

### 8.2 Interaction Regression Models*

### 8.3 Qualitative Predictors

1. Examples of $\qquad$ predictor variables are gender (male, female), purchase status (purchase, no purchase), and disability status (not disabled, partly disabled, fully disabled).
2. Example In a study of innovation in the insurance industry, an economist wished to relate the speed with which a particular insurance innovation is adopted $(Y)$ to the size of the insurance firm $\left(X_{1}\right)$ and the type of firm $\left(X_{2}\right)$.
(a) $Y$ : the number of months elapsed between the time the first firm adopted the innovation and the time the given firm adopted the innovation.

Chapter 8: Regression Models for Quantitative and Qualitative Predictors Page 12/24
(b) $X_{1}$ : size of firm, is quantitative, and is measured by the amount of total assets of the firm.
(c) $X_{2}$ : type of firm, is qualitative and is composed of two classes - stock companies and mutual companies.

In order that such a qualitative variable can be used in a regression model, $\qquad$
$\qquad$ for the classes of the qualitative variable must be employed.

## Qualitative Predictor with Two Classes

1. We shall use indicator variables that take on the $\qquad$ to quantify a qualitative variable.
2. Example For the insurance innovation example, where the qualitative predictor variable has two classes, we might define two indicator variables $X_{2}$ and $X_{3}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X_{2}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if stock company } \\
0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases} \\
& X_{3}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if mutual company } \\
0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

3. A first-order model:
4. This intuitive approach of setting up an indicator variable for each class of the qualitative predictor variable unfortunately leads to $\qquad$
$\qquad$ matrix does not have an $\qquad$ and no unique estimators of the regression coefficient can be found (see details at page 314.)
5. Principle: A qualitative variable with $\qquad$ will be represented by $\qquad$ indicator variables, each taking on the values 0 and 1 .
6. Indicator variables are frequently also called $\qquad$ or binary variables.

## Interpretation of Regression Coefficients

1. Example Returning to the insurance innovation example, suppose that we drop the indicator variable $X_{3}$ from regression model (8.31) so that the model becomes:
where:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X_{1}=\text { size of firm } \\
& X_{2}=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

2. The response function for this regression model is:
(a) (Figure 8.11) Consider first the case of a mutual firm. For such a firm, $X_{2}=0$ and response function (8.34) becomes:

Mutual firms (8.34a)

Thus, the response function for mutual firms is a straight line, with $Y$ intercept
$\qquad$ and slope $\qquad$ .
(b) For a stock firm, $X_{2}=1$ and response function (8.34) becomes:

Stock firms
This also is a straight line, with the same slope $\qquad$ but with $Y$ intercept
$\qquad$ .

## 316 Part Two Multiple Linear Regression

FIGURE 8.11
Illustration of
Meaning of
Regression Coefficients for
Regression
Model (8,33)
with Indicator
Variable
$X_{2}$-Insurance
Innovation
Example.

3. The meaning of the regression coefficients in response function (8.34)

$$
\begin{equation*}
E\{Y\}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{1}+\beta_{2} X_{2} \tag{8.34}
\end{equation*}
$$

(a) The mean time elapsed before the innovation is adopted, $\qquad$ , is a linear function of size of firm $\left(X_{1}\right)$, with the $\qquad$ for both types of firms.
(b) $\beta_{2}$ indicates $\qquad$ the response function for $\qquad$
firms (coded 1 ) is than the one for $\qquad$ firms (coded 0), for any given size of firm.
(c) $\beta_{2}$ measures the $\qquad$ of type of firm.
4. Why we did not simply $\qquad$ for stock firms and mutual firms in our example, and instead adopted the approach of $\qquad$ with an $\qquad$ . There are two reasons:
(a) Since the model assumes $\qquad$ and the $\qquad$

Chapter 8: Regression Models for Quantitative and Qualitative Predictors Page 15/24
for each type of firm, the common slope $\qquad$ can best be estimated by pooling the two types of firms.
(b) Also, other inferences, such as for $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{2}$, can be made more $\qquad$ by working with one regression model containing an indicator variable since
$\qquad$ will then be associated with $\qquad$ .

## Example: the insurance innovation example

1. (Table 8.2) In the insurance innovation example, the economist studied 10 mutual firms and 10 stock firms Note that $X_{2}=1$ for each stock firm and $X_{2}=0$ for each mutual firm.

2. (Table 8.3) The fitted response function is:

TABLE 8.3
Regression
Results for Fit
of Regression
Model (8.33)-
Insurance
Innovation
Example.

| (a) Regression Coefficients |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Regression Coefficient```\beta \beta \beta``` | Estimated Regression Coefficient |  |  | nated <br> Deviation | $t^{*}$ |
|  | 33.87407 |  |  | 1386 | 18.68 |
|  | -. 10174 |  |  | 889 | -11.44 |
|  | 8.05547 |  |  | 9911 | 5.52 |
|  | (b) Analysis of Variance |  |  |  |  |
|  | Source of Variation | SS | $d f$ | MS |  |
|  | Regression | 1,504.41 | 2 | 752.20 |  |
|  | Error | 176.39 | 17 | 10.38 |  |
|  | Total | 1,680.80 | 19 |  |  |

3. (Figure 8.12) contains the fitted response function for each type of firm, together with the actual observations.

4. The economist was most interested in the effect of type of firm $\left(X_{2}\right)$ on the elapsed time for the innovation to be adopted and wished to obtain a 95 percent confidence interval for $\beta_{2}$.
(a) We require $t_{(0.975 ; 17)}=2.110$ and obtain from the results in Table 8.3 the confidence limits
(b) The confidence interval for $\beta_{2}$ therefore is:

$$
4.98 \leq \beta_{2} \leq 11.13
$$

Thus, with 95 percent confidence, we conclude that stock companies tend to adopt the innovation somewhere between $\qquad$ , on the average, than mutual companies $\qquad$ .
(c) A formal test of:

$$
H_{0}: \beta_{2}=0 \quad H_{a}: \beta_{2} \neq 0
$$

with level of significance 0.05 would lead to $\qquad$ , that type of firm has an effect, since the 95 percent confidence interval for $\beta_{2}$ $\qquad$ .

## Qualitative Predictor with More than Two Classes

1. Example Consider the regression of tool wear $(Y)$ on tool speed $\left(X_{1}\right)$ and tool model, where the latter is a qualitative variable with four classes ( $M 1, M 2, M 3, M 4$ ):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X_{2}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if tool model } M 1 \\
0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases} \\
& X_{3}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if tool model } M 2 \\
0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases} \\
& X_{4}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if tool model } M 3 \\
0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

2. A first-order regression model:
3. For this model, the data input for the X variables would be as follows:

| Tool Model | $X_{1}$ | $X_{2}$ | $X_{3}$ | $X_{4}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $M 1$ | $X_{i 1}$ | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| $M 2$ | $X_{i 1}$ | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| $M 3$ | $X_{i 1}$ | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| $M 4$ | $X_{i 1}$ | 0 | 0 | 0 |

4. The response function for regression model (8.36) is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
E\{Y\}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{1}+\beta_{2} X_{2}+\beta_{3} X_{3}+\beta_{4} X_{4} \tag{8.37}
\end{equation*}
$$

(a) To understand the meaning of the regression coefficients, consider first what response function (8.37) becomes for tool models $M 4$ for, which $X_{2}=0$, $X_{3}=0$, and $X_{4}=0$ :

Tool models M4
(b) For tool models $M 1, X_{2}=1, X_{3}=0$, and $X_{4}=0$, and response function (8.37) becomes:

Tool models M1
(c) Similarly, response functions (8.37) becomes for tool models M2 and M3:

|  | Tool models M2 | $(8.37 c)$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
|  | Tool models M3 | $(8.37 d)$ |

(d) Response function (8.37) implies that the regression of tool wear on tool speed is $\qquad$ , with the $\qquad$ for all four tool models.
(e) The coefficients $\beta_{2}, \beta_{3}$, and $\beta_{4}$ indicate, respectively, the response functions for tool models $M 1, M 2$, and $M 3$ are than the one for, tool models $M 4$, for any given level of $\qquad$ .
(f) Thus, $\beta_{2}, \beta_{3}$, and $\beta_{4}$ measure the classes on the height of the response function for any given level of $X_{1}$, always compared with the class for which $\qquad$ .
(g) (Figure 8.13) we may wish to estimate $\qquad$ other than against tool models $M_{4}$. $\qquad$ measures how much higher (lower) the response function for tool models $\qquad$ is than the response function for tool models $\qquad$ for any given level of tool speed, as may be seen by comparing ( 8.37 c ) and (8.37d). The point estimator of this quantity is, of course,
$\qquad$ , and the estimated variance of this estimator is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
s^{2}\left\{b_{4}-b_{3}\right\}=s^{2}\left\{b_{4}\right\}+s^{2}\left\{b_{3}\right\}-2 s\left\{b_{4}, b_{3}\right\} . \tag{8.38}
\end{equation*}
$$

The needed variances and covariance can be readily obtained from the estimated variance-covariance matrix of the regression coefficients.

FIGURE 8.13
Illustration of
Regression Model (8.36)-
Tool Wear Example.


### 8.4 Some Considerations in Using Indicator Variables*

### 8.5 Modeling Interactions between Quantitative and Qualitative Predictors

1. Example: the insurance innovation example The economist actually did not begin the analysis with regression model (8.33) because of the possibility of $\qquad$ between size of firm and type of firm on the response variable:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i 1}+\beta_{2} X_{i 2}+\varepsilon_{i} \tag{8.33}
\end{equation*}
$$

2. Even though one of the predictor variables in the regression model here is qualitative, interaction effects can still be introduced into the model in the usual manner, by including $\qquad$ .
3. A first-order regression model with an added interaction term for the insurance innovation example is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X_{1}=\text { size of firm } \\
& X_{2}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if stock company } \\
0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

4. The response function for this regression model is:

## Meaning of Regression Coefficients

1. (Figure 8.14) The meaning of the regression coefficients in response function (8.50) can best be understood by examining the nature of this function for $\qquad$ .
(a) For a mutual firm, $\qquad$ and hence $\qquad$ . Response function (8.50) therefore becomes for mutual firms:

> Mutual films
(b) For stock firms, $\qquad$ and hence $\qquad$ . Response function (8.50) therefore becomes for stock firms:
or

> Stock films

FIGURE 8.14
Illustration of Meaning of
Regression Coefficients for
Regression
Model (8.49)
with Indicator
Variable $X_{2}$ and Interaction TermInsurance Innovation Example.

(c) $\beta_{2}$ : indicates $\qquad$ is the $\qquad$ of the response function for the class $\qquad$ (stock firms) than that for the class $\qquad$ (mutual firms).
(d) $\beta_{3}$ : indicates $\qquad$ is the $\qquad$ of the response function for the class coded 1 than that for the class coded 0 .
(e) (Figure 8.14) shows that the effect of type of firm with regression model (8.49) depends on $X_{1}$, the size of the firm.
i. For smaller firms, mutual firms tend to innovate more quickly.
ii. For larger firms stock firms tend to innovate more quickly.
2. When interaction effects are present, the effect of the qualitative predictor variable can be studied only by comparing the regression functions $\qquad$ of the model for the $\qquad$ of the qualitative variable.
3. (Figure 8.15) Another possible interaction pattern for the insurance innovation example. Here, mutual firms tend to introduce the innovation more quickly than stock
firms $\qquad$ in the scope of the model. but the $\qquad$ is $\qquad$ than for small ones.

4. When one of the predictor variables is qualitative and the other quantitative, $\qquad$ that do not intersect within the scope of the model (as in Figure 8.15) are sometimes said to represent an $\qquad$ . When the response functions $\qquad$ the scope of the model (as in Figure 8.14), the interaction is then said to be a $\qquad$ .

## Example

1. Example: the insurance innovation example Since the economist was concerned that interaction effects between size and type of firm may be present, the fitted was model (8.49):

$$
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i 1}+\beta_{2} X_{i 2}+\beta_{3} X_{i 1} X_{i 2}+\varepsilon_{i}
$$

Chapter 8:
2. The values for the interaction term $X_{1} X_{2}$ for the insurance innovation example are shown in Table 8.2, column 5, on page 317. Note that this column contains 0 for mutual companies and $X_{i 1}$ for stock companies.
3. (Table 8.4) the regression results of $Y$ on $X_{1}, X_{2}$, and $X_{1} X_{2}$. To test for the presence of interaction effects:

$$
H_{0}: \beta_{3}=0, \quad H_{a}: \beta_{3} \neq 0
$$

the economist used the $t^{*}$ statistic from Table 8.4a:

$$
t^{*}=
$$

4. For level of significance 0.05 , we require $t_{(0.975 ; 16)}=2.120$. Since $\qquad$ , we conclude $\qquad$ , that $\beta_{3}=0$.
5. The conclusion of $\qquad$ effects is supported by the two-sided $p$-value for the test, which is very high, $\qquad$ .

TABLE 8.4
Regression
Results for Fit
of Regression
Model (8.49)
with
Interaction
Term-
Insurance
Innovation
Example.

| (a) Regression Coefficients |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: | :---: |
| Regression | Estimated | Estimated |  |  |
| Coefficient | Regression Coefficient | Standard Deviation | $\boldsymbol{t}^{*}$ |  |
| $\beta_{0}$ | 33.83837 | 2.44065 | 13.86 |  |
| $\beta_{1}$ | -.10153 | .01305 | -7.78 |  |
| $\beta_{2}$ | 8.13125 | 3.65405 | 2.23 |  |
| $\beta_{3}$ | -.0004171 | .01833 | -.02 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  | (b) Analysis of Variance |  |  |  |
|  | Source of |  |  |  |
|  | Variation | SS | df |  |
|  | Regression | $1,504.42$ | 3 |  |
|  | Error | 176.38 | 16 |  |
|  | Total | $1,680.80$ | 19 |  |

Chapter 8: Regression Models for Quantitative and Qualitative Predictors Page 24/24

### 8.6 More Complex Models*

### 8.7 Comparison of Two or More Regression Functions*

## () TA Class

- Problems: 8.4, 8.5, 8.15, 8.21
- Exercises: 8.33, 8.34
- Projects: 8.39
＂有時候壞事是注定要發生，而我們卻無能為力。那我們何必擔心呢？＂
＂Look，sometimes bad things happen —and there＇s nothing you can do about it．So why worry？＂
—獅子王（The Lion King，2019）

Chapter 9: Model Selection and Validation

## Regression Analysis (I)

Kutner's Applied Linear Statistical Models (5/E)

# Chapter 9: Model Selection and Validation 

Thursday 09:10-12:00, 商館 260205
Han-Ming Wu
Department of Statistics, National Chengchi University
http://www.hmwu.idv.tw

### 9.1 Overview of Model-Building Process

A strategy for the building of a regression model:

1. Data collection and $\qquad$
2. Reduction of explanatory or $\qquad$ variables (for exploratory observational studies)
3. Model refinement and $\qquad$
4. Model $\qquad$

FIGURE 9.1
Strategy for Building a Regression Model.


FIGURE 9.1
Strategy for Building a Regression Model.


## 9．2 Surgical Unit Example

1．A hospital surgical unit was interested in predicting survival in patients undergoing a particular type of liver operation．A random selection of 108 patients was available for analysis．From each patient record，the following information was extracted from the pre－operation evaluation：
$X_{1} \quad$ blood clotting score（血栓分數）
$X_{2} \quad$ prognostic index（預後指數）
$X_{3} \quad$ enzyme function test score（酶功能）
$X_{4} \quad$ liver function test score（肝功能）
$X_{5} \quad$ age，in years
$X_{6} \quad$ indicator variable for gender $(0=$ male， $1=$ female $)$
$X_{7}, X_{8}$ indicator variables for history of alcohol use：
None：$X_{7}=0, X_{8}=0$ ，Moderate：$X_{7}=1, X_{8}=0$ ，Severe：$X_{7}=0, X_{8}=1$
2．These constitute the pool of $\qquad$ or predictor variables for a predictive regression model．

3．（Table 9．1）The response variable $Y$ is $\qquad$ ，which was ascertained in a follow－up study．A portion of the data on the potential predictor variables and the response variable is presented in Table 9．1．These data have already been
$\qquad$ and properly $\qquad$ for errors．

TABLE 9.1 Potential Predictor Variables and Response Variable－Surgical Unit Example．

| Case Number i | Blood－ Clotting Score $X_{i 1}$ | Prognostic Index $X_{i 2}$ | Enzyme Test $x_{i 3}$ | Liver Test $X_{i 4}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Age } \\ X_{i 5} \end{gathered}$ | Gender $X_{i 6}$ | Alc． <br> Use： <br> Mod． <br> $X_{i 7}$ | Alc． <br> Use： <br> Heavy $X_{i 8}$ | Survival Time $Y_{i}$ | $Y_{i}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{l n} Y_{i}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 6.7 | 62 | 81 | 2.59 | 50 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 695 | 6.544 |
| 2 | 5.1 | 59 | 66 | 1.70 | 39 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 403 | 5.999 |
| 3 | 7.4 | 57 | 83 | 2.16 | 55 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 710 | 6.565 |
| $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | ． 8 | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ |  |  |
| 52 | 6.4 | 85 | 40 | 1.21 | 58 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 579 | 6.361 |
| 53 | 6.4 | 59 | 85 | 2.33 | 63 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 550 | 6.310 |
| 54 | 8.8 | 78 | 72 | 3.20 | 56 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 651 | 6.478 |

4．To illustrate the model－building procedures discussed in this and the next section， we will use only the first four explanatory variables．We will also use only the first 54 of the 108 patients．
5. Since the pool of predictor variables is small, a reasonably $\qquad$ of relationships and of possible strong interaction effects is possible at this stage of data preparation.
(a) Stem-and-leaf plots for each of the predictor variables (not shown). These highlighted several cases as $\qquad$ with respect to the explanatory variables. The investigator was thereby alerted to examine later the $\qquad$ of these cases.
(b) A scatter plot matrix and the correlation matrix (not shown)
6. A first-order regression model based on all predictor variables was fitted to serve as a starting point.
(a) (Figure 9.2a) A plot of residuals against predicted values suggests that both
$\qquad$ and $\qquad$ are apparent.
(b) (Figure 9.2b) the normal probability plot suggests some $\qquad$ from normality.

(a) Residual Plot for $Y$

(c) Residual Plot for $\operatorname{In} Y$

(b) Normal Plot for $Y$


7. Transformation: To make the distribution of the error terms more nearly normal and to see if the same transformation would also reduce the apparent curvature, the investigator examined the $\qquad$ transformation $\qquad$ .
(a) (Figure 9.2c) A plot of residuals against fitted values when $Y^{\prime}$ is regressed on all four predictor variables in a first-order model;
(b) (Figure 9.2d) The normal probability plot of residuals for the transformed data shows that the distribution of the error terms is more $\qquad$ .
8. (Figure 9.3) A scatter plot matrix and the correlation matrix with the transformed $Y$ variable.
FIGURE 9.3
JMP Scatter
Plot Matrix
and
Correlation
Matrix when
Response
Variable Is
$Y^{\prime}$-Surgical
Unit Example.

| Multivariate Correlations |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: | :---: |
|  | LnSurvival | Bloodclot | Progindex | Enzyme | Liver |
| LnSurvival | 1.0000 | 0.2462 | 0.4699 | 0.6539 | 0.6493 |
| Bloodclot | 0.2462 | 1.0000 | 0.0901 | -0.1496 | 0.5024 |
| Progindex | 0.4699 | 0.0901 | 1.0000 | -0.0236 | 0.3690 |
| Enzyme | 0.6539 | -0.1496 | -0.0236 | 1.0000 | 0.4164 |
| Liver | 0.6493 | 0.5024 | 0.3690 | 0.4164 | 1.0000 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |


(a) Each of the predictor variables is $\qquad$ with $Y^{\prime}$, with $X_{3}$ and $X_{4}$ showing the highest degrees of association and $X_{1}$ the lowest.
(b) Show $\qquad$ among the potential predictor variables. In particular, $X_{4}$ has moderately high pairwise correlations with $X_{1}, X_{2}$, and $X_{3}$
9. Various $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ were obtained (not shown here).
10. On the basis of these analyses, the investigator concluded to use, at this stage of the model-building process, $\qquad$ as the response variable, to represent the predictor variables in linear terms, and not to include any interaction terms.
11. The next stage is to examine whether all of the $\qquad$ variables are needed or whether a subset of them is adequate.

### 9.3 Criteria for Model Selection

1. From any set of $\qquad$ predictors, $\qquad$ alternative models can be constructed. This calculation is based on the fact that each predictor can be either included or excluded from the model.
2. (Table 9.2) the $\qquad$ different possible subset models that can be formed from the pool of four $X$ variables in The Surgical Unit Example.

TABLE $9.2 \operatorname{SSE}_{p}, R_{p}^{2}, R_{a, p}^{2}, C_{p}, A I C_{p}, S B C_{p}$, and $\operatorname{PRESS}_{p}$ Values for All Possible Regression Models-Surgical Unit Example.

| $\boldsymbol{X}$ | $(1)$ | $(2)$ | $(3)$ | $(4)$ | $(5)$ | $(6)$ | $(7)$ | $(8)$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: | ---: |
| Variables <br> in Model | $p$ | $S S E_{p}$ | $\boldsymbol{R}_{p}^{2}$ | $R_{a, p}^{2}$ | $C_{p}$ | $\boldsymbol{A I C}_{p}$ | SBC $_{p}$ | PRESS $_{p}$ |
| None | 1 | 12.808 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 151.498 | -75.703 | -73.714 | 13.296 |
| $X_{1}$ | 2 | 12.031 | 0.061 | 0.043 | 141.164 | -77.079 | -73.101 | 13.512 |
| $X_{2}$ | 2 | 9.979 | 0.221 | 0.206 | 108.556 | -87.178 | -83.200 | 10.744 |
| $X_{3}$ | 2 | 7.332 | 0.428 | 0.417 | 66.489 | -103.827 | -99.849 | 8.327 |
| $X_{4}$ | 2 | 7.409 | 0.422 | 0.410 | 67.715 | -103.262 | -99.284 | 8.025 |
| $X_{1}, X_{2}$ | 3 | 9.443 | 0.263 | 0.234 | 102.031 | -88.162 | -82.195 | 11.062 |
| $X_{1}, X_{3}$ | 3 | 5.781 | 0.549 | 0.531 | 43.852 | -114.658 | -108.691 | 6.988 |
| $X_{1}, X_{4}$ | 3 | 7.299 | 0.430 | 0.408 | 67.972 | -102.067 | -96.100 | 8.472 |
| $X_{2}, X_{3}$ | 3 | 4.312 | 0.663 | 0.650 | 20.520 | -130.483 | -124.516 | 5.065 |
| $X_{2}, X_{4}$ | 3 | 6.622 | 0.483 | 0.463 | 57.215 | -107.324 | -101.357 | 7.476 |
| $X_{3}, X_{4}$ | 3 | 5.130 | 0.599 | 0.584 | 33.504 | -121.113 | -115.146 | 6.121 |
| $X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}$ | 4 | 3.109 | 0.757 | 0.743 | 3.391 | -146.161 | -138.205 | 3.914 |
| $X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{4}$ | 4 | 6.570 | 0.487 | 0.456 | 58.392 | -105.748 | -97.792 | 7.903 |
| $X_{1}, X_{3}, X_{4}$ | 4 | 4.968 | 0.612 | 0.589 | 32.932 | -120.844 | -112.888 | 6.207 |
| $X_{2}, X_{3}, X_{4}$ | 4 | 3.614 | 0.718 | 0.701 | 11.424 | -138.023 | -130.067 | 4.597 |
| $X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}, X_{4}$ | 5 | 3.084 | 0.759 | 0.740 | 5.000 | -144.590 | -134.645 | 4.069 |

3. $\qquad$ procedures, also known as subset selection or $\qquad$ procedures, have been developed to identify a small group of regression models that are $\qquad$ according to a specified criterion.
4. While many criteria for comparing the regression models have been developed, we will focus on six: $\qquad$
5. We shall denote the number of potential $X$ variables in the pool by $\qquad$ . We assume throughout this chapter that all regression models contain an intercept term $\qquad$ . Hence, the regression function containing all potential $X$ variables contains $\qquad$ parameters, and the function with no $X$ variables contains one parameter $\left(\beta_{0}\right)$.
6. The number of $X$ variables in a subset will be denoted by $\qquad$ , as always, so that there are $\qquad$ parameters in the regression function for this subset of $X$ variables. Thus, we have: $1 \leq p \leq P$.
7. We will assume that the number of observations exceeds the maximum number of potential parameters: $\qquad$ .

## $R_{p}^{2}$ or $S S E_{p}$ Criterion

1. $R_{p}^{2}$ criterion calls for the use of the coefficient of $\qquad$ :

$$
R_{p}^{2}=
$$

$\qquad$
2. $R_{p}^{2}$ indicates that there are $p$ parameters, or $\qquad$ $X$ variables, in the regression function on which $R_{p}^{2}$ is based.
3. The $R_{p}^{2}$ criterion is equivalent to using the error sum of squares $\qquad$ as the criterion (we again show the number of parameters in the regression model as a subscript).
4. The $R_{p}^{2}$ criterion is not intended to identify the subsets that maximize this criterion.
5. We know that $R_{p}^{2}$ can never decrease as $\qquad$ variables are included in the model. Hence, $R_{p}^{2}$ will be a $\qquad$ when $\qquad$ potential $X$ variables are included in the regression model.
6. The intent in using the $R_{p}^{2}$ criterion is to find the point where $\qquad$ variables is not worthwhile because it leads to a very $\qquad$ -
7. Example The Surgical Unit Example
(a) (Table 9.2, column 3) the $R_{p}^{2}$ values were obtained from a series of computer runs.
(b) For instance, when $X_{4}$ is the only $X$ variable in the regression model, we obtain:

$$
R_{2}^{2}=1-\frac{\operatorname{SSE}\left(X_{4}\right)}{\operatorname{SSTO}}=
$$

$\qquad$
Note that $S S T O=S S E_{1}=12.808$
(c) (Figure 9.4a) a plot of the $R_{p}^{2}$ values against $p$, the number of parameters in the regression model.

FIGURE 9.4 Plot of Variables Selection Criteria-Surgical Unit Example.

(d) The maximum $R_{p}^{2}$ value for the possible subsets each consisting of $p-1$ predictor variables, denoted by $\qquad$ , appears at the top of the graph for each $p$. These points are connected by solid lines to show the impact of
$\qquad$ -
(e) (Figure 9.4a) little increase in $\max \left(R_{p}\right)$ takes place after three $X$ variables are included in the model.
(f) Hence, consideration of the subsets for which $R_{4}^{2}=0.757$ (as shown in column 3 of Table 9.2) and for which $R_{4}^{2}=0.718$ appears to be reasonable according to the $R_{p}^{2}$ criterion.
(g) Note that variables $X_{3}$ and $X_{4}$, correlate most $\qquad$ with the response variable, yet this pair does not appear together in the $\max \left(R_{p}^{2}\right)$ model for $p=4$.

## $R_{a, p}^{2}$ or $M S E_{p}$ Criterion

1. Since $R_{p}^{2}$ does not take account of the $\qquad$ in the regression model and since $\max \left(R_{p}^{2}\right)$ can never decrease as $p$ increases, the
of multiple determination $R_{a, p}^{2}$ in (6.42) has been suggested as an alternative criterion:

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{a, p}^{2}= \tag{9.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

2. It can be seeg from (9.4) that $R_{a, p}^{2}$ increases if and only if $\qquad$ decreases since $S S T O /(n-1)$ is fixed for the given $Y$ observations. Hence, $R_{a, p}^{2}$ and $M S E_{p}$ provide $\qquad$ information.
3. The largest $R_{a, p}^{2}$ for a given number of parameters in the model, $\max \left(R_{a, p}^{2}\right)$, can, indeed, $\qquad$
4. Find a few subsets for which $R_{a, p}^{2}$ is at the $\qquad$ or so $\qquad$ the maximum that $\qquad$ more variables is not worthwhile.
5. Example The Surgical Unit Example
(a) (Table 9.2, column 4). For instance, we have for the regression model containing only $X_{4}$ :

$$
R_{a, 2}^{2}=
$$

$$
=
$$

(b) (Figure 9.4b) The story told by the $R_{a, p}^{2}$ plot in Figure 9.4b is $\qquad$ to that told by the $R_{p}^{2}$ plot in Figure 9.4a.
(c) Consideration of the subsets $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ appears to be reasonable according to the $R_{a, p}^{2}$ criterion.
(d) Notice that $\qquad$ is maximized for subset $\qquad$ , and that adding $\qquad$ to this subset - thus using all four predictors - decreases the criterion slightly: $\qquad$

## Mallows' ${ }^{\prime} C_{p}$ Criterion*

## $A I C_{p}$ and $S B C_{p}$ Criteria

1. Two popular alternatives that also provide penalties for adding predictors are $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ .
2. We search for models that have small values of $A I C_{p}$, or $S B C_{p}$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
& A I C_{p}=  \tag{9.14}\\
& S B C_{p}=  \tag{9.15}\\
&
\end{align*}
$$

3. Notice that for both of these measures, the first term is $n \ln S S E_{p}$ which $\qquad$ as $\qquad$ , The second term is $\qquad$ (for a given sample size $n$ ), and the third term $\qquad$ with the number of parameters, $\qquad$ -
4. Models with $\qquad$ will do well by these criteria as long as the penalties $-2 p$ for $A I \overline{C_{p} \text { and }(\ln n) p \text { for }} S B C_{p}$ - are $\qquad$ .
5. If $\qquad$ the penalty for $S B C_{p}$ is larger than that for $A I C_{p}$.
6. Example The Surgical Unit Example
(a) (Table 9.2, columns 6 and 7) When $X_{4}$ is the only $X$ variable in the regression model:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A I C_{2}=n \ln S S E_{2}-n \ln n+2 p \\
&= \\
& S B C_{2}=\overline{n \ln S S E_{2}-n \ln n+(\ln n) p} \\
&= \\
&
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) (Figures $9.4 \mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{e}$ ) both of $A I C_{p}$ and $S B C_{p}$ criteria are minimized for subset
$\qquad$ -

## PRESS $S_{p}$ Criterion

1. The $\qquad$ criterion is a measure of how well the use of the $\qquad$ for a subset model can predict the $\qquad$
$\qquad$ . The error sum of squares, $\qquad$ , is also such a measure.
2. The $P R E S S$ measure differs from $S S E$ in that each fitted value $Y_{i}$ for the $P R E S S$ criterion is obtained by $\qquad$ from the data set, estimating the regression function for the subset model from the $\qquad$ , and then using the fitted regression function to obtain the predicted value $\qquad$ the $i$ th case.
3. We use the notation $\qquad$ now for the fitted value to indicate, by the first subscript $i$, that it is a $\qquad$ for the $i$ th case and, by the second subscript ( $i$ ), that the $i$ th case was $\qquad$ when the regression function was fitted.
4. The $P R E S S$ prediction error for the $i$ th case then is:
and the $P R E S S_{p}$ criterion is the sum of the squared prediction errors over all $n$ cases:

$$
\begin{equation*}
P R E S S_{p}= \tag{9.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

5. Models with $\qquad$ are considered good candidate models. The reason is that when the prediction errors $Y_{i}-\hat{Y}_{i(i)}$ are small, so are the squared prediction errors and the sum of the squared prediction errors.
6. Example The Surgical Unit Example
(a) (Table 9.2, column 8)(Figure 9.4f) The message given by the $P R E S S_{p}$ values in Table 9.2 and plot in Figure 9.4f is very $\qquad$ to that told by the other criteria.
(b) We find that subsets $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ have small PRESS values;
(c) The set of all $X$ variables $\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}, X_{4}\right)$ involves a slightly larger $\operatorname{PRESS}$ value than subset $\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right)$.
(d) The subset $\left(X_{2}, X_{3}, X_{4}\right)$ involves a $P R E S S$ value of 4.597 , which is moderately larger than the $P R E S S$ value of 3.914 for subset $\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right)$.

### 9.4 Automatic Search Procedures for Model Selection

1. The number of possible models, $\qquad$ , grows rapidly with the number of predictors.
2. A variety of $\qquad$ procedures have been developed, e.g., "best" subsets regression and stepwise regression.

## "Best" Subsets Algorithms

1. Time-saving algorithms require the calculation of only a $\qquad$ of all possible regression models.
2. For instance, the algorithms search for the five best subsets of $X$ variables with the smallest $C_{p}$ values using much less computational effort than when all possible subsets are evaluated. These algorithms are called $\qquad$ .
3. When the pool of potential $X$ variables is very large, say greater than 30 or 40 , even the "best" subset algorithms may require $\qquad$ .
4. As previously emphasized, our objective at this stage is not to identify $\qquad$
$\qquad$ ; we hope to identify a small set of $\qquad$ for further study.
5. Example The Surgical Unit Example (eight predictors), we know there are $2^{8}=256$ possible models.


(a)

(c)

(e)

(b)

(d)

(f)
(a) (Figure 9.5) Plots of the six model selection criteria. The best values of each criterion for each $p$ have been connected with $\qquad$ lines.
(b) (Table 9.3) The overall $\qquad$ criterion values have been underlined in each column of the table.

| TABLE 9.3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) |
| Selection | $p$ | SSE $p$ | $\mathrm{R}_{p}^{2}$ | $R_{a, p}^{2}$ | $C_{p}$ | $A I C_{p}$ | SBC ${ }_{p}$ | PRESS $_{p}$ |
| Criterion | 1 | 12.808 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 240.452 | -75.703 | -73.714 | 13.296 |
| Values- | 2 | 7.332 | 0.428 | 0.417 | 117.409 | -103.827 | -99.849 | 8.025 |
| Surgical Unit | 3 | 4.312 | 0.663 | 0.650 | 50.472 | -130.483 | -124.516 | 5.065 |
| Example. | 4 | 2.843 | 0.778 | 0.765 | 18.914 | -150.985 | -143.029 | 3.469 |
|  | 5 | 2.179 | 0.830 | 0.816 | 5.751 | -163.351 | -153.406 | 2.738 |
|  | 6 | 2.082 | 0.837 | 0.821 | 5.541 | -163.805 | -151.871 | 2.739 |
|  | 7 | 2.005 | 0.843 | $\underline{0.823}$ | 5.787 | -163.834 | -149.911 | 2.772 |
|  | 8 | 1.972 | 0.846 | $\underline{0.823}$ | 7.029 | -162.736 | -146.824 | 2.809 |
|  | 9 | 1.971 | $\underline{0.846}$ | 0.819 | 9.000 | -160.771 | -142.870 | 2.931 |

(c) For example
i. a 7-or 8-parameter model is identified as best by the $R_{a, p}^{2}$ criterion (both have $\qquad$ )
ii. a 6-parameter model is identified by the $C_{p}$ criterion ( $\qquad$ ),
iii. a 7-parameter model is identified by the $A I C_{p}$ criterion ( $\qquad$ ).
iv. Both the $S B C_{p}$ and $P R E S S_{p}$ criteria point to 5 -parameter models
$\qquad$
(d) (Figure 9.6) MINITAB output for the "best" subsets algorithm. We specified that the $\qquad$ be identified for each number of variables in the regression model.

(e) The MINITAB algolithm uses the
criterion, but also shows for each of the "best" subsets the $R_{a, p}^{2}, C_{p}$, and $\sqrt{M} S E_{p}($ labeled $S$ ) values. The rightmost columns of the tabulation show the $\qquad$ in the subset.
(f) According to the $R_{a, p}^{2}$ criterion, the 7-parameter model based on all predictors except $\qquad$ $\left(X_{4}\right)$ and $\qquad$ (history of moderate alcohol use $X_{7}$ ), or the 8-parameter model based on all predictors except $\qquad$ $\left(X_{4}\right)$ are best.
(g) The $R_{a, p}^{2}$ criterion value for both of these models is $\qquad$ .
6. The $\qquad$ leads to the identification of a small number of subsets that are "good" according to a specified criterion.
7. Consequently, one may wish at times to consider $\qquad$ in evaluating possible subsets of $X$ variables.
8. Once the investigator has identified a few "good" subsets for intensive examination, a final choice of the model variables must be made. This choice is aided by (and other $\qquad$ to be covered in Chapter 10)
and by the investigator's $\qquad$ of the subject under study, and is finally
confirmed through $\qquad$ studies.

## Stepwise Regression Methods

1. When the pool of potential $X$ variables contains 30 to 40 or even more variables, use of a "best" subsets algorithm may not be $\qquad$ .
2. An $\qquad$ search procedure that develops the "best" subset of $X$ variables $\qquad$ may then be helpful. The procedure is probably the most widely used of the automatic search methods.
3. Essentially, the forward stepwise search method develops
$\qquad$ , at each step $\qquad$ or $\qquad$ an $X$ variable. The criterion for adding or deleting an $X$ variable can be stated equivalently in terms of
$\qquad$ , coefficient of partial correlation, $\qquad$ statistic, or $\qquad$ statistic.
4. An essential difference between stepwise procedures and the "best" subsets algorithm is that stepwise search procedures end with the identification of a regression model as "best." With the "best" subsets algorithm, $\qquad$ regression models can be identified as "good" for final consideration.

## Forward Stepwise Regression

We shall describe the forward stepwise regression search algorithm in terms of the $\qquad$ (2.17) and their associated $\qquad$ for the usual tests of regression parameters.

1. The stepwise regression routine first fits a $\qquad$ model for each of the $p-1$ potential $X$ variables. For each SLR model, the $t^{*}$ statistic for testing whether or not the slope is zero is obtained:
(a) The $X$ with the $\qquad$ value is the candidate for first $\qquad$ . If this $t^{*}$ value exceeds a $\qquad$ , or if the corresponding $P$-value is less than a predetermined $\alpha$, the $X$ variable is $\qquad$ .
(b) Otherwise, the program terminates with $\qquad$ considered sufficiently helpful to enter the regression model.
2. Assume $X_{7}$ is the variable entered at step 1. The stepwise regression routine now fits all regression models with $\qquad$ , where $X_{7}$ is one of the pair.
(a) For each such regression model, the $\qquad$ corresponding to the newly added predictor $X_{k}$ is obtained.
(b) This is the statistic for testing whether or not $\qquad$ when $\qquad$ are the variables in the model.
(c) The $X$ variable with the $\qquad$ value-or equivalently, the $\qquad$ is the candidate for addition at the second stage.
(d) If this $t^{*}$ value exceeds a predetermined level (i.e., the $P$-value falls below a predetermined level), the second $X$ variable is $\qquad$ . Otherwise, the program terminates.
3. Suppose $X_{3}$ is added at the second stage. Now the stepwise regression routine examines whether any of the other $X$ variables $\qquad$ should be $\qquad$ .
(a) There is at this stage only one other $X$ variable in the model, $X_{7}$, so that only one $t^{*}$ test statistic is obtained:

$$
t_{7}^{*}=
$$

(b) At later stages, there would be a number of these $t^{*}$ statistics, one for each of the variables in the model $\qquad$ .
(c) The variable for which this $\qquad$ (or equivalently the variable for which the $P$-value is largest) is the candidate for $\qquad$ .
(d) If this $t^{*}$ value falls below-or the $P$-value exceeds-a predetermined limit, the variable is dropped from the model; otherwise, it is $\qquad$ .
4. Suppose $X_{7}$ is retained so that both $X_{3}$ and $X_{7}$ are now in the model.
(a) The stepwise regression routine now examines which $X$ variable is the next candidate for $\qquad$ .
(b) Then examines whether any of the variables $\qquad$ should now be dropped.
(c) And so on until no further $X$ variables can either be added or deleted, at which point the search $\qquad$ -
5. Note that the stepwise regression algorithm allows an $X$ variable, brought into the model at an $\qquad$ stage, to be dropped subsequently if it is $\qquad$ in conjunction with variables added at later stages.

## Example

(Figure 9.7) MINITAB computer printout for the forward stepwise regression procedure for The Surgical Unit Example. The maximum acceptable a limit for $\qquad$ a variable is 0.10 and the minimum acceptable a limit for $\qquad$ a variable is 0.15 .


1. At the start of the stepwise search, $\qquad$ is in the model so that the model to be fitted is $Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\epsilon_{i}$;
(a) (Step 1), the $\qquad$ statistics and corresponding $P$-values are calculated for each potential $X$ variable, and the predictor having the $\qquad$
$\qquad$ ) is chosen to enter the equation.
(b) Enzyme $\left(X_{3}\right)$ had the largest test statistic:

$$
t_{3}^{*}=\frac{b_{3}}{s\left\{b_{3}\right\}}=\frac{0.015124}{0.002427}=
$$

(c) The $P$-value for this test statistic is $\qquad$ , which falls below the maximum acceptable $\alpha$-to-enter value of 0.10 ; hence Enzyme $\left(X_{3}\right)$ is added to the model.
(d) The current regression model contains Enzyme ( $X_{3}$ ), "Step 1": the regression coefficient for Enzyme (0.0151).
(e) At the bottom of column 1, a number of variables-selection criteria, including $R_{1}^{2}(42.76), R_{a, 1}^{2}(41.66)$, and $C_{1}(117.4)$ are also provided.
2. Next, all regression models containing $X_{3}$ and $\qquad$ variable are fitted, and the $t^{*}$ statistics calculated:

$$
t_{k}^{*}=\quad, \quad \text { since }
$$

$\qquad$
Progindex $\overline{\left(X_{2}\right) \text { has the highest } t^{*}}$ value, and its $P$-value (0.000) falls below 0.10 , so that $X_{2}$ now enters the model.
3. Enzyme and Progindex ( $X_{3}$ and $X_{2}$ ) are now in the model. At this point, a test whether $\qquad$ should be dropped is undertaken, but because the $\qquad$ (0.000) corresponding to $X_{3}$ is not above 0.15 , this variable is
$\qquad$ .
4. Next, all regression models containing $X_{2}, X_{3}$, and one of the remaining potential $X$ variables are fitted. The appropriate $t^{*}$ statistics:

$$
t_{k}^{*}=
$$

The predictor labeled Histheavy $\left(X_{8}\right)$ had the largest $t^{*}$ value, $(P$-value $=0.000)$ and was next added to the model. $X_{2}, X_{3}$, and $X_{8}$ are now in the model.
5. Next, a test is undertaken to determine whether $\qquad$ .
Since both of the corresponding $P$-values are less than 0.15 , neither predictor is dropped from the model.
6. (Step 4) Bloodclot $\left(X_{1}\right)$ is added, and no terms previously included were dropped. The right-most column of Figure 9.7 summarizes the addition of variable $X_{1}$ into the model containing variables $X_{2}, X_{3}$, and $X_{8}$.
7. Next, a test is undertaken to determine whether either should be dropped. Since all $P$-values are less than 0.15 (all are $0.0(0)$, all variables are retained.
8. Finally, the stepwise regression routine considers adding one of $X_{4}, X_{5}, X_{6}$, or $X_{7}$ to the model containing $X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}$, and $X_{8}$. In each case, the $P$-values are greater than 0.10 (not shown); therefore, no additional variables can be added to the model and the search process is terminated.
9. Thus, the stepwise search algorithm identifies $\qquad$ as the "best" subset of $X$ variables. This model also happens to be the model identified by both the $\qquad$ and criteria in our previous analyses based on an assessment of "best" subset selection.

## Other Stepwise Procedures

1. Forward Selection. The forward selection search procedure is a simplified version of forward stepwise regression, $\qquad$ whether a variable once entered into the model should be $\qquad$ .
2. Backward Elimination. The backward elimination search procedure is the
$\qquad$ selection.
(a) It begins with the model containing $\qquad$ potential $X$ variables and identifies the one with the largest $P$-value.
(b) If the maximum $P$-value is greater than a predetermined limit, that $X$ variable is dropped.
(c) The model with the remaining $(P-2) X$ variables is then fitted, and the next candidate for dropping is identified.
(d) This process continues until no further $X$ variables can be dropped.

### 9.5 Some Final Comments on Automatic Model Selection Procedures*

### 9.6 Model Validation

1. The final step in the model-building process is the $\qquad$ of the selected regression models.
2. Model validation usually involves checking a $\qquad$ against $\qquad$ Three basic ways of validating a regression model are:
(a) Collection of $\qquad$ to check the model and its predictive ability.
(b) $\qquad$ of results with theoretical expectations, earlier empirical results, and simulation results.
(c) Use of a $\qquad$ to check the model and its $\qquad$ .
3. What is difference between: training set, testing set and hold-out set: (The training set is for $\qquad$ )
(a) A observed data set (100\%): e.g, training set (75\%), testing set (25\%).
(b) A observed data set (100\%): $k$-fold cross validation: e.g, $k=4(25 \%, 25 \%$, $25 \%, 25 \%$ ), in turns "testing set ( $25 \%$ ), training set ( $75 \%$ )" 4 times.
(c) A observed data set (100\%): hold-out set (20\%), Not hold-out set (80\% for 4-fold CV)

## Collection of New Data to Check Model

1. The $\qquad$ means of model validation is through the $\qquad$ .
The purpose of collecting new data is to be able to examine whether the regression model developed from the earlier data is still $\qquad$ . If
so, one has assurance about the $\qquad$ of the model to data beyond tho,se on which the model is based.

Methods of Checking Validity. A means of measuring the $\qquad$ of the selected regression model is to use this model to predict each case in the new data set and then to calculate the mean of the squared prediction errors, to be denoted by $M S P R$, which stands for mean squared prediction error:

$$
M S P R=
$$

$\qquad$
where:

- $Y_{i}$ is the value of the response variable in the $i$ th $\qquad$ .
- $\hat{Y}_{i}$ is the $\qquad$ for the $i$ th validation case based on the modelbuilding dataset.
- $n^{*}$ is the number of cases in the validation data set.

2. If the mean squared prediction error $M S P R$ is fairly close to $\qquad$ based on the regression fit to the $\qquad$ , then the error mean square $M S E$ for the selected regression model is $\qquad$ and gives an appropriate indication of the predictive ability of the model.
3. If the mean squared prediction error is $\qquad$ , one should rely on the mean squared prediction error as an indicator of how well the selected regression model will predict in the future.

## () TA Class

- Problems: 9.6, 9.11, 9.18, 9.21
- Exercises: none
- Projects: none
＂對一個不滿意的人生你只有兩種選擇，強迫自己接受，或說服自己改變。＂
＂You can only do one of two things to an unsatisfying life：force yourself to accept it，or convince yourself to change．＂
—媽的多重宇宙（Everything Everywhere All at Once，2022）

Regression Analysis (I)
Kutner's Applied Linear Statistical Models (5/E)
Chapter 14: Logistic Regression

Thursday 09:10-12:00, 商館 260205
Han-Ming Wu
Department of Statistics, National Chengchi University
http://www.hmwu.idv.tw

# 14.1 Regression Models with.Binary Response Variable* 

### 14.2 Sigmoidal Response Functions for Binary Responses*

### 14.3 Simple Logistic Regression

1. If $X$ is a random variable with $\qquad$ , then
and the probability mass function of this distribution
$\qquad$ $\cdot$
2. The logit is the logarithm of the $\qquad$ , where $\pi=$ probability of a positive outcome (e.g., survived Titanic sinking)
3. A formal statement of the $\qquad$ : recall that when the response variable is $\qquad$ , taking on the values $\qquad$ with probabilities $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ , respectively, $Y$ is a Bernoulli random variable with parameter $\qquad$ -
4. We could state the simple logistic regression model in the usual form:
5. Since the distribution of the error term $\varepsilon_{i}$ depends on the $\qquad$ distribution of the response $Y_{i}$, it is preferable to state the simple logistic regression model as: $Y_{i}$ are independent Bernoulli random variables with expected values:
6. The $X$ observations are assumed to be known $\qquad$ . Alternatively, if the $X$ observations are random, $E\left\{Y_{i}\right\}$ is viewed as a $\qquad$ , given the value of $X_{i}$.

## Likelihood Function

1. Since each $Y_{i}$ observation is an ordinary Bernoulli random variable, where:

$$
P\left(Y_{j}=1\right)=\pi_{i} ; \quad P\left(Y_{j}=0\right)=1-\pi_{i} ; \quad i=1, \cdots, n
$$

we can represent its probability distribution as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
, \quad Y_{i}=0,1 ; \quad i=1, \cdots, n \tag{14.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ . Hence, $f_{i}\left(Y_{i}\right)$ simply represents the $\qquad$ that $Y_{i}=1$ or 0 .
2. Since the $Y_{i}$ observations are independent, their joint probability function is:
3. Find the maximum likelihood estimates by working with the logarithm of the joint probability function:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\ln g\left(Y_{1}, \cdots, Y_{n}\right) & =\ln \prod_{i=1}^{n} f_{i}\left(Y_{i}\right) \\
& =
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
=
$$

4. Since $E\left\{Y_{i}\right\}=\pi_{i}$; for a binary variable, it follows from (14.20) that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
1-\pi_{i}= \tag{14.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
5. Furthermore, from (14.18a), we obtain:
6. Hence, log likelihood (14.23) can be expressed as follows:
$\ln L\left(\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}\right)=$
where $L\left(\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}\right)$ replaces $g\left(Y_{1}, \cdots, Y_{n}\right)$ to show explicitly that we now view this function as the likelihood function of the parameters to be estimated, given the sample observations.

## Maximum Likelihood Estimation

1. The maximum likelihood estimates of $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$ in the simple logistic regression model are those values of $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$ that $\qquad$ the log-likelihood function in (14.26).
2. $\qquad$ exists for the values of $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$, in (4.26) that maximize the log-likelihood function. Computer-intensive numerical search procedures are therefore required to find the maximum likelihood estimates $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$.
3. Once the maximum likelihood estimates $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$ are found, we substitute these values into the response function in (14.20) to obtain the fitted response function. We shall use $\pi_{i}$ to denote the fitted value for the $i$ th case:
4. The fitted logistic response function is as follows:
5. If we utilize the logit transformation in (14.18), we can express the fitted response function in (14.28) as follows:
$\qquad$ ,

We call (14.29) the $\qquad$ .
6. Once the fitted logistic response function has been obtained, the usual next steps are to $\qquad$ of the fitted response function and, if the fit is good, to make a variety of $\qquad$ .
7. We shall postpone a discussion of how to examine the goodness of fit of a logistic response function and how to make inferences and predictions until we have considered the multiple logistic regression model with a number of predictor variables.

## Example

1. A systems analyst studied the effect of computer programming experience on ability to complete within a specified time a complex programming task, including debugging. Twenty-five persons were selected for the study. They had varying amounts of programming experience (measured in months of experience), as shown in Table 14.1a column 1.

2. All persons were given the same programming task, and the results of their success in the task are shown in column 2. The results are coded in binary fashion: $Y=1$ if the task was completed successfully in the allotted time, and $Y=0$ if the task was not complete d successfully.
3. (Figure 14.5) contains a scatter plot of the data. This plot is not too informative because of the nature of the response variable, other than to indicate that ability to complete the task successfully appears to increase with amount of experience. A lowess nonparametric response curve was fitted to the data and is also shown in Figure 14.5.

4. A $\qquad$ response function is clearly suggested by the $\qquad$
$\qquad$ fit. It was therefore decided to fit the $\qquad$ regression model (14.20).
5. A standard logistic regression package was run on the data. The results are contained in Table 14.1b. Since $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ , the estimated logistic regression function:
6. This fitted value is the estimated probability that a person with 14 months experience ( $X_{1}=14$ ) will successfully complete the programming task.
7. In addition to the lowess fit, Figure 14.5 also contains a plot of the fitted logistic response function, $\qquad$ .

## Interpretation of $b_{1}$

1. The interpretation of the estimated regression coefficient $b_{1}$ in the fitted logistic response function (14.30) is $\qquad$ of the slope in a linear regression model.
2. The reason is that the effect of a unit increase in $X$ varies for the logistic regression model according to the $\qquad$ on the $X$ scale.
3. An interpretation of $b_{1}$ is found in the property of the fitted logistic function that the estimated odds $\qquad$ are multiplied by $\qquad$ for any unit increase in $X$.
(a) Consider the value of the fitted logit response function (14.29) at $X=X_{j}$ :

The notation $\hat{\pi}^{\prime}\left(X_{j}\right)$ indicates specifically the $X$ level associated with the fitted value.
(b) We also consider the value of the fitted logit response function at $\qquad$ : The difference between the two fitted values is simply:
(c) Now according to (14.29a), $\hat{\pi}^{\prime}\left(X_{j}\right)$ is the logarithm of the estimated odds when $X=X_{j}$; we shall denote it by $\log _{e}\left(\right.$ odds $\left._{1}\right)$. Similarly, $\hat{\pi}^{\prime}\left(X_{j}+1\right)$ is the logarithm of the estimated odds when $X=X_{j}+1$; we shall denote it by $\log _{e}\left(o d d s_{2}\right)$.
(d) Hence, the difference between the two fitted logit response values can be expressed as follows:

$$
\log _{e}\left(\text { odds }_{2}\right)-\log _{e}\left(\text { odds }_{1}\right)=
$$

(e) Taking $\qquad$ of each side, we see that the estimated ratio of the odds, called the $\qquad$ and denoted by $\widehat{O R}$, equals $\qquad$ :
4. Example The programming task example.
(a) We see from Figure 14.5 that the probability of success with experience.
(b) Specifically, Table 14.1 b shows that the odds ratio is

$$
\widehat{O R}=\exp \left(b_{1}\right)=\exp (0.1615)=1.175
$$

so that the $\qquad$ by 17.5 percent with each additional month of experience.
(c) Since a unit increase of one month is quite small, the estimated odds ratio of 1.175 may not adequately show the change in odds for a longer difference in time. In general, the estimated odds ratio when there is a $\qquad$ of $X$ is $\qquad$
(d) For example, should we wish to compare individuals with relatively little experience to those with extensive experience, say 10 months versus 25 months so that $c=15$, then the odds ratio would be estimated to be $\exp [15(0.1615)]=$ 11.3. This indicates that the odds of completing the task increase over $\qquad$ for experienced persons compared to relatively inexperienced persons.

## Supplementary

1. The 6 Assumptions of Logistic Regression
(a) The response variable is $\qquad$ -
(b) The observations are $\qquad$ .
(c) There is $\qquad$ among explanatory variables.
(d) There are $\qquad$ .
(e) There is a $\qquad$ between explanatory variables and the Variable.
(f) The sample size is sufficiently $\qquad$ .
2. Assumptions of Logistic Regression vs. Linear Regression: In contrast to linear regression, logistic regression does not require:
(a) A linear relationship between the explanatory variable(s) and the response variable.
(b) The residuals of the model to be $\qquad$ distributed.
(c) The residuals to have $\qquad$ , also known as $\qquad$ -

## :) TA Class

- Problems: 14.7
- Exercises: none
- Projects: none
＂不管你再怎麼努力，還是有人會忽略你的付出；就為了自己而奮鬥吧。＂
＂Your efforts will always be neglected no matter how hard you try；so fight for yourself．＂緊急迫降（Emergency Declaration，2022）

| 國立政治大學110 學年度第1 學期 小考（1）考試命題紙 |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 考試科目：Regression Analsis（I） | 開課班別：商院選修 |  |  |  | 命題教授：吳漢銘 |
| 考試日期：10月21日（四）11：10－12：00 | ＊准帶項目打「O」 否則打「×」 |  |  |  | 1．需加發計算紙或答案紙請備註。 2．為環保節能減碳．試題一律採雙面印刷•如有特殊印製需求，請註記： |
| 本試題共 2 頁，印刷份數：36 份 | Calculator | Book <br> Notes | Dictionary | Cell phone Laptop |  |
| 備註：注意事項要看！！（§1～§2） | O | $\times$ | $\times$ | $\times$ |  |

Note：（1）Fill in your name and student ID•（2）Answer the questions in English $\circ$（3）Answer the questions in the order in which they appear ${ }^{\circ}$（4）Pencils are permitted for use ${ }^{\circ}(5)$ Hand in the question，the answer sheets and the sketch papers ${ }^{\circ}(6)$ The calculation process is required．

1．（ $20 \%$ ）Explain the following：
（a）What is the＂Regression Analysis＂？
（b）Let $\alpha$ be the level of the significance．What is the so－called＂$(1-\alpha) \%$ Confidence Interval＂for a parameter $\theta$ of the population．
（c）What is the＂Coefficient of Determination＂for a regression model？How to interpret this number？
（d）What is the＂ANOVA table＂for simple linear regression？What is it used for？

2．（ $15 \%$ ）For the given sample observations $\left\{\left(X_{i}, Y_{i}\right), i=1, \cdots, n\right\}$ ，we assume a simple linear regression model with distribution of error term unspecified as $Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i}+\epsilon_{i}$ ．Find the least squares estimators of the parameters $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$ ．

3． $20 \%$ ）For the given sample observations $\left\{\left(X_{i}, Y_{i}\right), i=1, \cdots, n\right\}$ ，we assume a normal error regression model as $Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i}+\epsilon_{i}$ ，where $\epsilon_{i}$ are independent normally distributed with mean 0 and variance $\sigma^{2}$ ．Find the MLEs of the parameters $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$ ．

4．（10\％）Given a random sample of data，$\left\{\left(X_{i}, Y_{i}\right), i=1, \cdots, n\right\}$ ，and the level of the significance $\alpha$ ， describe how to conduct the two－sided test concerning whether or not there is a linear association be－ tween $X$ and $Y$ for a normal error regression model．（State the null hypothesis，alternative hypothesis， test statistics（in terms of data），and decision rule．）

5．Grade point average．The director of admissions of a small college selected 120 students at random from the new freshman class in a study to determine whether a student＇s grade point average（GPA） at the end of the freshman year $(Y)$ can be predicted from the ACT test score $(X)$ ．The results of the study follow．Assume that a simple linear regression model is appropriate．

| $i:$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | $\cdots$ | 118 | 119 | 120 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $X_{i}:$ | 21 | 14 | 28 | $\cdots$ | 28 | 16 | 28 |
| $Y_{i}:$ | 3.897 | 3.885 | 3.778 | $\cdots$ | 3.914 | 1.860 | 2.948 |


| 國立政治大學110學年度第1 學期 小考（1）考試命題紙 |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 考試日期：10月21日（四）11：10－12：00 | ＊准帶項目打「O」 ，否則打「×」 |  |  |  | 1．需加弦計算純或答案純請備詿。 |
| 本試題共 2 頁，印刷份數： 36 份 | Calculator | Book Notes | Dictionary | Cell phone Laptop | 2．為環保節能減碳，試題一律採雙面印刷，如有特殊印製需 |
| 備註：注意事項要看！！（§1～§2） | O | $\times$ | $\times$ | $\times$ | 求•請詿記： |

The regression analysis report conducted by R is given in Table 1.
（b）（ $10 \%$ ）Obtain a 95 percent confidence interval for $\beta_{1}$ ．Interpret your confidence interval．Does it include zero？Why might the director of admissions be interested in whether）he confidence interval includes zero？$\quad\left(t_{0.025,120}=-1.97993, t_{0.05,120}=-1.657651, t_{0.025,119}=-1.9801\right.$ ， $\left.t_{0.05,119}=-1.657759, t_{0.025,118}=-1.980272, t_{0.05,118}=-1.65787\right)$
（c）$(10 \%)$ Test，using the test statistic $t *$ ，whether or not a linear association exists between student＇s ACT score $(X)$ and GPA at the end of the freshman year $(Y)$ ．Use a level of significance of 0．O5． State the alternatives，decision rule，and conclusion．
（d）（5\％）What is the $P$－value of your test in part（b）？How does it support the conclusion reached in part（b）？
（e） $\mathbf{( 5 \% )}$ How do you interpret R－squared in this analysis？
（f）（5\％）The ANOVA table is shown in Table 2．How to you interpret ANOVA results？

[^1]Table 1: Regression analysis for Grade point average data
Call:
$\operatorname{lm}($ formula $=G P A \sim A C T$, data $=$ ex2.4.data)

Residuals:

| Min | 1Q | Median | 3Q | Max |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| -2.74004 | -0.33827 | 0.04062 | 0.44064 | 1.22737 |

Coefficients:
Estimate Std. Error $t$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)$

| (Intercept) | 2.11405 | 0.32089 | 6.588 | $1.3 \mathrm{e}-09 * * *$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ACT | 0.03883 | 0.01277 | 3.040 | $0.00292 * *$ |

---


Residual standard error: 0.6231 on 118 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.07262,Adjusted R-squared: 0.06476
F-statistic: 9.24 on 1 and $118 \mathrm{DF}, \mathrm{p}$-value: 0.002917

Table 2: Analysis of Variance Table for Grade point average data

```
Analysis of Variance Table
Response: GPA
        Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
ACT 1 1 3.588 3.5878 9.2402 0.002917 **
Residuals 118 45.818 0.3883
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 '' 1
```

| 國立政治大學 110 學年度第 1 學期 小考（2）考試命題紙 |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 考試科目：Regression Analsis（I） | 開課班別：商院選修 |  |  |  | 命題教授：吳漢銘 |
| 考試日期： 12 月 02 日（四）11：10－12：00 |  | 目打 | ，否則 |  | 計算 |
| 本試題共 1 頁，印刷份數： 30 份 | Calculator | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Book } \\ & \text { Notes } \end{aligned}$ | Dictionary | Cell phone Laptop | 試題一律採雙面印 |
| 備註：注意事項要看！！（範圍：§5） | O | $\times$ | $\times$ | $\times$ | 求，請詩記 |

Note：（1）Fill in your name and student ID•（2）Answer the questions in English $\circ$（3）Answer the questions in the order in which they appear ${ }^{\circ}(4)$ Pencils are permitted for use $\circ(5)$ Hand in the question，the answer sheets and the sketch papers ${ }^{\circ}(6)$ The calculation process is required．（7）Use $\underset{\sim}{\beta}$ or $\underset{\sim}{X}$ to represent a vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ or a matrix $\mathbf{X}$ ．

1．One would like to fit the simple linear regression（SLR）model to a given dataset $\left\{\left(Y_{i}, X_{i}\right), i=1, \cdots, n\right\}$ ．
（a）$(10 \%)$ Write down the normal error regression model for SLR in terms of $\left(Y_{i}, X_{i}\right)$ ．
（b）$(10 \%)$ Express variables and regression coefficient by column vectors or a matrix first．And then Express the model in matrix terms（boldface symbols）．
（c）$(20 \%)$ Derive the normal equations（in matrix notation）by the method of least squares：

$$
Q=\sum\left[Y_{i}-\left(\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i}\right)\right]^{2} .
$$

（d）（10\％）Obtain the estimated regression coefficients（denoted by b）from normal equations by matrix methods．

2．（20\％）Use matrix methods to obtain the estimated regression coefficients for the following data：

3．ANOVA results from SLR．
（a）$(15 \%)$ There are three sums of squares in ANOVA results，write down their formulas（definitions） and derive their corresponding matrix representation．（Not just express them in matrix terms directly．）
（b）$(15 \%)$ Show that these three sums of squares are all quadratic forms．

注意：1，考試求公平及公正，請同學務必自律，維蒦學校與學生之榮譽。
2，考試時不得有交談，窺視，夾帶，抄营，傳遞，代考或其它作弊等舞弊行為，考畢務必交卷，不得飌卷出場•違者依考場規則議虎。

| 國立政治大學110 學年度第1 學期 小考（3）考試命題紙 |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 考試日期： 12 月 23 日（四）11：10－12：00 | ＊准帶項目打「O」 ，否則打「×」 |  |  |  | 1．需加發計算紙或答案紙請備註。 <br> 2．為環保節能減碳． <br> 試題一律採雙面印 <br> 刷•如有特殊印製需 <br> 求，請詿記： |
| 本試題共 4 頁，印刷份數： 30 份 | Calculator | Book <br> Notes | Dictionary | Cell phone Laptop |  |
| 備註：注意事項要看！！（範圍：$\S 6 \sim 7$ ） | O | $\times$ | $\times$ | $\times$ |  |

Note：（1）Fill in your name and student ID ${ }^{\circ}(2)$ Answer the questions in English ${ }^{\circ}(3)$ Answer the questions in the order in which they appear ${ }^{\circ}(4)$ Pencils are permitted for use ${ }^{\circ}(5)$ Hand in the question，the answer sheets and the sketch papers ${ }^{\circ}(6)$ The calculation process is required．（7）Use $\underset{\sim}{\beta}$ or $\underset{\sim}{X}$ to represent a vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ or a matrix $\mathbf{X}$ ．

1．$(10 \%)$ Consider the multiple linear regression model for a given data $\left\{Y_{i}, X_{i 1}, X_{i 2}, \cdots, X_{i p}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ ，some－ one would like to perform a $F$－test for Lack of Fit for this model．Please state（a）the general（multiple） linear regression model for this data；（b）the mean response function；（c）the test hypothesis（ $H_{0}, H_{a}$ ）； （d）the test statistic；and（e）the decision rule．

2．$(5 \%)$ What is the extra sums of squares and what does it measure？

3．（ $10 \%$ ）When the regression model contains three $X$ variables，a variety of decompositions of $\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right)$ into extra sums of squares can be obtained．Please give three examples．

4．$(10 \%)$ Consider the first－order regression model with three predictor variables，someone would like to use extra sums of squares in testing whether both $\beta_{2} X_{2}$ and $\beta_{3} X_{3}$ can be dropped from the full model． Please state（a）the test hypothesis $\left(H_{0}, H_{a}\right)$ ；（b）the full model and the reduced model；（c）the general linear test statistics；and（d）the decision rule．

5．（5\％）What is the definition of the coefficient of partial determination（take $R_{Y 1 \mid 2}^{2}$ as an example and express it in terms of the extra sum of squares）and what does it measure？

6．$(20 \%)$ Consider the multiple regression analysis，what is the multicollinearity problem？What are the effects of multicollinearity when conduct the multiple regression analysis？（Hint：you cannot just say that the multicollinearity has effects on the regression coefficients，for example，you need to describe what does it result in on the regression coefficients．）

| 國立政治大學 110 學年度第1 學期 小考（3）考試命題紙 |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 考試科目：Regression Analsis（I） | 開課班別：商院選修 |  |  |  | 命題教授：吳漢銘 |
| 考試日期： 12 月 23 日（四）11：10－12：00 | ＊准带項目打 「 O 」 ．否則打 「×」 |  |  |  | ```1.需加發計算細或答案紙請備註。 2.為環保節能減碳. 試題一律採歓面印 刷•如有特殊印製需 求,請誩記:``` |
| 本試題共 4 頁，印刷份數： 30 份 | Calculato | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Book } \\ & \text { Notes } \end{aligned}$ | Dictionary | Cell phone <br> Laptop |  |
| 備註：注意事項要看！！（範圍：$¢ 6 \sim 7$ ） | O | $\times$ | $\times$ | $\times$ |  |

7．Commercial properties．A commercial real estate company evaluates vacancy rates，square footage， rental rates，and operating expenses for commercial properties in a large metropolitan area in order to provide clients with quantitative information upon which to make rental decisions．The data below are taken from 81 suburban commercial properties that are the newest，best located，most attractive， and expensive for five specific geographic areas．Shown here are the age $\left(X_{1}\right)$ ，operating expenses and taxes $\left(X_{2}\right)$ ，vacancy rates $\left(X_{3}\right)$ ，total square footage $\left(X_{4}\right)$ ，and rental rates $(Y)$ ．
（a）（10\％）Obtain the analysis of variance table that decomposes the regression sum of squares into extra sums of squares associated with $X_{4}$ ；with $X_{1}$ given $X_{4}$ ；with $X_{2}$ ，given $X_{1}$ ，and $X_{4}$ ；and with $X_{3}$ ，given $X_{1}, X_{2}$ and $X_{4}$ ．（Hint： $\operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{4}\right), \operatorname{SSR}\left(X_{1} \mid X_{4}\right), \cdots$ ）
（b）$(10 \%)$ Test whether $X_{3}$ can be dropped from the regression model given that $X_{1}, X_{2}$ and $X_{4}$ are retained．Use the $F^{*}$ test statistic and level of significance 0.01 ．State the alternatives，decision rule，and conclusion．（Hint：$F(0.99 ; 1,76)=6.980578 ; F(0.99 ; 2,76)=4.89584 ; F(0.99 ; 3,76)=$ $4.050282 ; F(0.99 ; 1,75)=6.985359 ; F(0.99 ; 2,75)=4.899877 ; F(0.99 ; 3,75)=4.054022)$
（c）$(10 \%)$ Test whether both $X_{2}$ and $X_{3}$ can be dropped from the regression model given that $X_{1}$ and $X_{4}$ are retained；use $\alpha=0.01$ ．State the alternatives，and decision rule．（Hint：specify $d f 1$ and $d f 2$ in $F(0.99 ; d f 1, d f 2)$ as a critical value．）
（d）（ $10 \%$ ）Using the given R report sheet below，calculate the coefficient of partial determination $R_{Y 2 \mid 14}^{2}$ and interpret．（Hint：Answer＂There was not sufficient information provided．＂if the information provided was not sufficient to calculate $R_{Y 2 \mid 14}^{2}$ ．）

注意：1，考試求公平及公正，請同學務必自律，維護學校與學生之榮譽。
2，考試時不得有交談，窺視，夾帶，抄襲，傳遞，代考或其它作弊等舞弊行為，考畢務必交卷，不得攜卷出場•違者依考場規則議處。
> summary (m4)
$\operatorname{lm}$ (formula $=Y \sim X 4$ )
Coefficients:
Estimate Std. Error $t$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)$
(Intercept) $1.378 \mathrm{e}+012.903 \mathrm{e}-0147.482<2 \mathrm{e}-16 * * *$
$\mathrm{X4} \quad 8.437 \mathrm{e}-06 \quad 1.498 \mathrm{e}-06 \quad 5.632 \quad 2.63 \mathrm{e}-07$ ***
---

Residual standard error: 1.462 on 79 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.2865, Adjusted R-squared: 0.2775 F-statistic: 31.72 on 1 and 79 DF, p-value: $2.628 \mathrm{e}-07$

```
> summary(m14)
lm(formula = Y ~ X1 + X4)
Coefficients:
    Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 1.436e+01 2.771e-01 51.831 < 2e-16 ***
X1 -1.145e-01 2.242e-02 -5.105 2.27e-06 ***
X4 1.045e-05 1.363e-06 7.663 4.23e-11 ***
```

---

Residual standard error: 1.274 on 78 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.4652, Adjusted R-squared: 0.4515
F-statistic: 33.93 on 2 and 78 DF, p-value: $2.506 e-11$
> summary (m124)
lm(formula $=\mathrm{Y} \sim \mathrm{X} 1+\mathrm{X} 2+\mathrm{X} 4$ )
Coefficients:
Estimate Std. Error $t$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)$
(Intercept) $1.237 \mathrm{e}+014.928 \mathrm{e}-0125.100<2 \mathrm{e}-16 * * *$
$X 1 \quad-1.442 \mathrm{e}-01 \quad 2.092 \mathrm{e}-02 \quad-6.891 \quad 1.33 \mathrm{e}-09$ ***
X2 $2.672 \mathrm{e}-01 \quad 5.729 \mathrm{e}-02 \quad 4.6631 .29 \mathrm{e}-05$ ***
$\mathrm{X} 4 \quad 8.178 \mathrm{e}-06 \quad 1.305 \mathrm{e}-06 \quad 6.265 \quad 1.97 \mathrm{e}-08 \quad * * *$
Residual standard error: 1.132 on 77 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.583, Adjusted R-squared: 0.5667
F-statistic: 35.88 on 3 and 77 DF, p-value: 1.295e-14
> summary (m1234)
$\operatorname{lm}(f o r m u l a=Y ~ X 1+X 2+X 3+X 4)$
Coefficients:
Estimate Std. Error $t$ value $\operatorname{Pr}(>|t|)$
(Intercept) $1.220 \mathrm{e}+01 \quad 5.780 \mathrm{e}-01 \quad 21.110<2 \mathrm{e}-16 * * *$
$X 1 \quad-1.420 \mathrm{e}-01 \quad 2.134 \mathrm{e}-02 \quad-6.655 \quad 3.89 \mathrm{e}-09$ ***
$X 2 \quad 2.820 \mathrm{e}-01 \quad 6.317 \mathrm{e}-02 \quad 4.4642 .75 \mathrm{e}-05$ ***
$\begin{array}{lllll}X 3 & 6.193 e-01 & 1.087 e+00 & 0.570 & 0.57\end{array}$
$\mathrm{X} 4 \quad 7.924 \mathrm{e}-06 \quad 1.385 \mathrm{e}-06 \quad 5.722 \quad 1.98 \mathrm{e}-07$ ***
---

Residual standard error: 1.137 on 76 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.5847, Adjusted R-squared: 0.5629 F-statistic: 26.76 on 4 and 76 DF , p-value: $7.272 \mathrm{e}-14$

```
> anova(m4)
Analysis of Variance Table
Response: Y
    Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr (>F)
X4 1 67.775 67.775 31.723 2.628e-07 ***
Residuals 79 168.782 2.136
-_-
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*'0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
> anova(m124)
Analysis of Variance Table
Response: Y
    Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr (>F)
X1 1 14.819 14.819 11.566 0.001067 **
X2 1 72.802 72.802 56.825 7.841e-11 ***
X4 1 50.287 50.287 39.251 1.973e-08 ***
Residuals 77 98.650 1.281
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*'0.05 '.'0.1 ' ' 1
> anova(m14)
Analysis of Variance Table
Response: Y
\begin{tabular}{lrrrrc} 
& Df & Sum Sq Mean Sq F value & \(\operatorname{Pr}(>F)\) \\
X1 & 1 & 14.819 & 14.819 & 9.1365 & \(0.003389 * *\) \\
X4 & 1 & 95.231 & 95.231 & 58.7160 & \(4.225 e^{*}-11\)
\end{tabular}\(\quad * * *\)
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.'0.1 ' ' 1
> anova(m1234)
Analysis of Variance Table
Response: Y
    Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr (>F)
X1 1 14.819 14.819 11.4649 0.001125 **
X2 1 72.802 72.802 56.3262 9.699e-11 ***
X3 1 8.381 8.381 6.4846 0.012904 *
X4 1 42.325 42.325 32.7464 1.976e-07 ***
Residuals 76 98.231 1.293
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

| 國立政治大學 110 考試科目：Regression Analysis R | 季年度第 | 學期 期中考 考試命題紙 |  |  | 命題紙 <br> 命題教授：吳漢銘 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 考試日期：11 月 11 日（四）9：10－10：30 | ＊准帶項目打「 O 」，否則打「×」 |  |  |  | 1．需加發計算紙或答案紙請備註。 <br> 2．為環保節能減碳，試題一律採雙面印 <br> 刷，如有特殊印製需 <br> 求，請註記： |
| 本試題共 3 頁，印刷份數：36 份 | Calculator | Book <br> Notes | Dictionary | Cell phone Laptop |  |
| 備註：注意事項要看！！（§1～§3） | O | $\times$ | $\times$ | $\times$ |  |

Note：（1）Fill in your name and student ID on the answer sheet ${ }^{\circ}(2)$ Answer the questions in English ${ }^{\circ}$ （3）Answer the questions in the order in which they appear。（4）Pencils are permitted for use ${ }^{\circ}$（5）Hand in the question，the answer sheets and the sketch papers ${ }^{\circ}$（6）The calculation process is required．

1．（10\％）For the given sample observations $\left\{\left(X_{i}, Y_{i}\right), i=1, \cdots, n\right\}$ ，we assume a normal error regression model as $Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{i}+\epsilon_{i}$ ，where $\epsilon_{i}$ are independent normally distributed with mean 0 and variance $\sigma^{2}$ ．Find the MLEs of the parameters $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$ ．

2．Let $\left\{\left(X_{i}, Y_{i}\right), i=1, \cdots, n\right\}$ be the observed data and we would like to perform a simple linear regression analysis．Please answer the following questions．
（a）$(8 \%)$ Which plots can be used to conduct the diagnostics for predictor variable？
（b）$(12 \%)$ The residuals can be used to examine six important types of departures from the simple linear regression model with normal errors．What are those six important types of departures？
（c）$(10 \%)$ Describe the Brown－Forsythe Test with a level of significant $\alpha$（including at least the assumption for the data，the null hypothesis，the test statistics and the decision rule．）

3．$(25 \%)$ In the textbook，we have already learned some transformations for $X$ and／or $Y$ to ensure that the assumptions for a simple linear regression normal error model are adequate．The transformations are

$$
\log _{10}(X), 1 / X, \sqrt{X}, X^{2}, \exp (X), \exp (Y), \log _{10}(Y), 1 / Y, \sqrt{Y}, Y^{\lambda}
$$

Four real world cases given below are analyzed each by a simple linear regression normal error model．
（a）A research would like to study the regression relationship between alpha counts per second（ $Y$ ） and plutonium activity $(X)$ to estimate the activity of plutonium in the material under study．
（b）A chemist studied the concentration of a solution $(Y)$ over time $(X)$ ．Fifteen identical solutions were prepared．The 15 solutions were randomly divided into five sets of three，and the five sets were measured，respectively，after $1,3,5,7$ ，and 9 hours．
（c）A marketing researcher studied annual sales of a product that had been introduced 10 years ago． The data is collected，where $X$ is the year（coded）and $Y$ is sales in thousands of units．
（d）In a manufacturing study，the production times for 111 recent production runs were obtained． The data consists of records for each run the production time in hours $(Y)$ and the production lot size $(X)$ ．

| 國立政治大學 110 學年度第 1 學期 期中考 考試命題紙 |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 考試日期：11 月 11 日（ 四）9：10－10：30 | ＊准帶項目打「O」 ，否則打「×」 |  |  |  | 1．需加發計算紙或答案紙請備註。 <br> 2．為環保節能減碳，試題一律採雙面印 <br> 刷，如有特殊印製需 <br> 求，請註記： |
| 本試題共 3 頁，印刷份數： 36 份 | Calculator | Book <br> Notes | Dictionary | Cell phone Laptop |  |
| 備註：注意事項要看！！（§1～§3） | O | $\times$ | $\times$ | $\times$ |  |

Based on the scatterplots of $Y$ versus $X$ with a regression line，please indicates whether the transfor－ mations are needed for $Y$ and／or $X$ and conclude which transformations are possible for each case． That is，fill in the blank spaces with the transformation methods in the following table in the answer sheet．Mark the blank by＂$\times$＂if the transformation is not necessary．You don＇t have to specify the $\lambda$ value when you think the Box－Cox transformation is appropriate．

| Case | Transformation of $X$ | Transformation of $Y$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| （a） |  |  |
| （b） |  |  |
| （c） |  |  |
| （d） |  |  |



| 國立政治大學 110 學 |  |  |  | 顥紙 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 考試科目：Regression Analysis |  | 開課班別：商院選修 |  |  | 命題教授：吳漢銘 |  |
| 考試日期： 11 月 11 日（四）9：10－10：30 | ＊准带項目打「O」」，否則打「×」 |  |  |  | ```1. 需加發計算紙或答案紙請備註。 2. 為環保節能減碳, 試題一律採雙面印 刷, 如有特殊印製需 求, 請註記:``` |  |
| 本試題共 3 頁，印刷份數： 36 份 | Calculator | Notes | Dictionary | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Cell phone } \\ & \text { Laptop } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
| 備註：注意事項要看！！（\＄1～§3） | O | x | $\times$ | x |  |  |

4．Suppose that we obtain a data set that can be expressed in the form：

$$
\left\{\left(X_{j}, Y_{i j}\right): i=1, \cdots, n_{j} ; j=1, \cdots, c\right\}, \text { where } c>2 .
$$

Someone would like to use $F$ test for lack of fit to determine whether a simple linear regression model adequately fits the data，where $X$ is the predictor variables and $Y$ is the response．
（a）$(5 \%)$ What are the assumptions of the lack of fit test？
（b） $5 \%$ ）What is the full model used for the lack of fit test？
（c）$(5 \%)$ What is the reduced model used for the lack of fit test？
（d）$(5 \%)$ What is the null hypothesis for the lack of fit test？
（e）$(10 \%)$ The Growth rate data are available on the effect of dietary supplement on the growth rates of rats．Here $X=$ dose of dietary supplement and $Y=$ growth rate．The following table presents the data in a form suitable for the analysis $(c=6, n=12)$ ．Construct a general ANOVA Table （including Source of Variation，Sum of Square（SS），Degree of Freedom（df），Mean Square（MS） and $F$ statistics）for testing lack of fit of a simple linear regression function．

| Data |  | $j=1$ | $j=2$ | $j=3$ | $j=4$ | $j=5$ | $j=6$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Replicate |  | $X_{1}=10$ | $X_{2}=15$ | $X_{3}=20$ | $X_{4}=25$ | $X_{5}=30$ | $X_{6}=35$ |
| $Y_{i j}$ | $i=1$ | 73 | 85 | 90 | 87 | 75 | 65 |
|  | $i=2$ | 78 | 88 | 91 | 86 |  | 63 |
|  | $i=3$ |  |  | 91 |  |  |  |

（f）（5\％）State the test statistics，decision rule and conclusion．（for all $j$ at $5 \%$ level of significance）
（Some numbers：error sum of squares for the reduced model $(S S E(R))=891.73$ ，regression sum of squares（SSR） $=204.27$ ，total sum of squares $(S S T O)=1096.00, F(0.95 ; 5,5)=5.050, F(0.95 ; 6,4)=6.163, F(0.95 ; 4,6)=$ $4.534, F(0.95 ; 1,10), F(0.95 ; 10,1)=241.881, F(0.95 ; 2,10)=4.103, F(0.95 ; 2,9)=4.256, F(0.95 ; 2,8)=4.459$ ； $\left.\hat{Y}_{i j}=92.003-0.498 X_{j}\right)$

## 注意：1，考試求公平及公正，請同學務必自律，維護學校與學生之榮譽。

2，考試時不得有交談，窺視，夾帶，抄襲，傳遞，代考或其它作弊等舞弊行為，考畢務必交卷，不得攜卷出場，違者依考場規則議處。

| 國立政治大學110 學年度第1 學期 期末考 考試命題紙 |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 考試日期：01 月 13 日（四）9：10－10：40 | ＊准帶項目打「O」 ，否則打「×」 |  |  |  | 1．需加發計算紙或答案紙請備註。 <br> 2．為環保節能減碳，試題一律採雙面印刷，如有特殊印製需求，請註記： |
| 本試題共 5 頁，印刷份數： 36 份 | Calculator | Book <br> Notes | Dictionary | Cell phone Laptop |  |
| 備註：注意事項要看！！（§5～§14） | O | $\times$ | $\times$ | $\times$ |  |

Note：（1）Fill in your name and student ID on the answer sheet ${ }^{\circ}(2)$ Answer the questions in English ${ }^{\circ}$ （3）Answer the questions in the order in which they appear。（4）Pencils are permitted for use ${ }^{\circ}$（5）Hand in the question，the answer sheets and the sketch papers ${ }^{\circ}(6)$ The calculation process is required．（7）The total is 100 points．

1．$(15 \%)$ For SLR，there are three sums of squares in ANOVA results，write down their formulas（def－ initions）and derive their corresponding matrix representation．（Do not just express them in matrix terms directly．）

2．$(5 \%)$ What is the four main steps for building a regression model？

3．$(10 \%)$ Describe the＂Forward Stepwise Regression＂procedure to a hypothesized data set with variables $\left\{Y, X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}, X_{4}\right\}$ for selecting a good model．
see next page．．．

| 國立政治大學110學年度第1 學期 期末考 考試命題紙 |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 考試科目：Regression Analysis（ ${ }^{\text {a }}$（ ${ }^{\text {考試日期：01月 } 13 \text { 日（四）9：10－10：40 }}$ | 開課班別：商院選修 |  |  |  | 命題教授：吳漢銘 |
|  |  | 項目打 | 否 |  |  |
| 本試題共 5 頁，印刷份數： 36 份 | alculator | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Book } \\ & \text { Notes } \end{aligned}$ | Dictionary | Cell phone Laptop | 2．為環保節能減碳， <br> 試題一律採雙面印 |
| 備註：注意事項要看！！（§1～§3） | O | $\times$ | $\times$ | $\times$ | 求，請䛨記 |

4．$(20 \%)$ Patient satisfaction．A hospital administrator wished to study the relation between patient satisfaction $(Y)$ and patient＇s age（ $X_{1}$ ，in years），severity（嚴重性）of illness（ $X_{2}$ ，an index），and anxiety （焦慮）level（ $X_{3}$ ，an index）．The administrator randomly selected 46 patients and collected the data presented below（not shown），where larger values of $Y, X_{2}$ ，and $X_{3}$ are，respectively，associated with more satisfaction，increased severity of illness，and more anxiety．
（a）$(5 \%)$ Obtain the analysis of variance table that decomposes the regression sum of squares into extra sums of squares associated with $X_{2}$ ；with $X_{1}$ given $X_{2}$ ；with $X_{3}$ ，given $X_{2}$ ，and $X_{1}$ ．
（b）（5\％）Test whether $X_{3}$ can be dropped from the regression model given that $X_{1}$ ，and $X_{2}$ are retained．Use the $F^{*}$ test statistic and level of significance 0.025 State the alternatives， decision rule，and conclusion．（Hint：（lower．tail）$F(0.975,1,41)=5.4136, F(0.975 ; 1,42)=$ $5.4039, F(0.975,2,41)=4.0416, F(0.975,2,42)=4.0327)$
（c）$(5 \%)$ Test whether both $X_{2}$ and $X_{3}$ can be dropped from the regression model given that $X_{1}$ are retained；use $\alpha=0.01$ ．State the alternatives，and decision rule．（Hint：specify $d f 1$ and $d f 2$ in $F(0.99 ; d f 1, d f 2)$ as a critical value．Since the value of $F(0.99 ; d f 1, d f 2)$ is not given，you don＇t have to draw a conclusion．）
（d）（5\％）Using the given R report sheet below，calculate the coefficient of partial determination $R_{Y \mid 23}^{2}$ and interpret．（Hint：Answer＂There was not sufficient information provided．＂if the information provided was not sufficient to calculate $R_{Y 1 \mid 23}^{2}$ ．）

```
> anova(m2)
Analysis of Variance Table
Response: Y
    Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
X2 1 4860.3 4860.3 25.132 9.23e-06 ***
Residuals 44 8509.0 193.4
> anova(m12)
Response: Y
        Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr (>F)
X1 1 8275.4 8275.4 77.1389 3.802e-11 ***
X2 1 480.9 480.9 4.4828 0.04006 *
Residuals 43 4613.0 107.3
> anova(m123)
Response: Y
    Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr (>F)
X1 1 8275.4 8275.4 81.8026 2.059e-11 ***
X2 1 480.9 480.9 4.7539 0.03489 *
X3 1 364.2 364.2 3.5997 0.06468.
Residuals 42 4248.8 101.2
```

| 國立政治大學 110 學 |  | 期末考 考試命題紙 |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 考試科目：Regression Analysis（I） |  | 開課班別 |  |  | 命題教授：吳漢銘 |
| 考試日期： 01 月 13 日（四）9：10－10：40 |  | 項目打 | ，否則 |  |  |
| 本試題共 5 頁，印刷份數： 36 份 | Cal | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Book } \\ & \text { Notes } \end{aligned}$ | Dictionary | Cell phone Laptop | 一律採萑面 |
| 備註：注意事項要看！！（§1～§3） | O | $\times$ | $\times$ | $\times$ |  |

5．$(20 \%)$ Assessed valuations Assessed valuations．A tax consultant studied the current relation between selling price and assessed valuation of one－family residential dwellings in a large taX district by obtaining data for a random sample of 16 recent＂arm＇s－length＂sales transactions of one－family dwellings located on comer lots and for a random sample of 48 recent sales of one－family dwellings not located on corger lots．In the data that follow，both selling price $(Y)$ and assessed valuation（ $X_{1}$ are expressed in thousand dollars，whereas lot location $\left(X_{2}\right)$ is coded 1 for comer lots and 0 for non－comer lots．Assume that the error variances in the two populations are equal and that a first－order regression model with an added interaction term is appropriate．
（a）State the estimated regression function．
（b）Explain the meaning of all regression coefficients in the model．
（c）Test whether the interaction term can be dropped from the model；use $\alpha=0.05$ ．State the alternatives．decision rule，and conclusion．If the interaction term cannot be dropped from the model，describe the nature of the interaction effect．
（d）What is the predicted selling price $\hat{Y}$ when the assessed valuation $X_{1}$ is 77.1 （thousand dollars） for corner lots．

Call：
lm（formula $=Y \sim$ X1＊X2，data $=$ AssessedValuations）

Residuals：

| Min | $1 Q$ | Median | 3Q | Max |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| -10.8470 | -2.1639 | 0.0913 | 1.9348 | 9.9836 |

Coefficients：

| Estimate Std．Error t value $\operatorname{Pr}(>\|\mathrm{t}\|)$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| （Intercept） | －126．9052 | 14.7225 | －8．620 | $4.33 \mathrm{e}-12$ | ＊＊＊ |  |
| X1 | 2.7759 | 0.1963 | 14.142 | ＜2e－16 | ＊＊＊ |  |
| X21 | 76.0215 | 30.1314 | 2.523 | 0.01430 | ＊ |  |
| X1：X21 | －1．1075 | 0.4055 | －2．731 | 0.00828 | ＊＊ |  |
| Signif．code | s： $0{ }^{\prime} * *$ | 0.001 | ＇＊＊＇ 0 ． | 01 ＇${ }^{\prime}$ | 0.05 | 0.1 |

Residual standard error： 3.893 on 60 degrees of freedom
Multiple R－squared：0．8233，Adjusted R－squared： 0.8145
F－statistic： 93.21 on 3 and $60 \mathrm{DF}, \mathrm{p}$－value：$<2.2 \mathrm{e}-16$

| 國立政治大學 110 學年度第1 學期 期末考 考試命題紙 |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 考試日期：01 月 13 日（四）9：10－10：40 | ＊准帶項目打「O」 ，否則打「×」 |  |  |  | 1．需加發計算紙或答案紙請備註。 <br> 2．為環保節能減碳，試題一律採雙面印 <br> 刷•如有特殊印製需 <br> 求，請詩記： |
| 本試題共 5 頁，印刷份數： 36 份 | Calculator | Book <br> Notes | Dictionary | Cell phone Laptop |  |
| 備註：注意事項要看！！（§1～§3） | O | $\times$ | $\times$ | $\times$ |  |

6．$(10 \%)$ Peruvian Blood Pressure Data This dataset consists of variables possibly relating to blood pressures of $n=39$ Peruvians（秘魯人）who have moved from rural high altitude areas to urban lower altitude areas．The variables in this dataset are：$Y=$ Systolic blood pressure（Systol），$X_{1}=$ Age，$X_{2}=$ Years in urban area，$X_{3}=$ Weight（kg），$X_{4}=$ Calf（小腿肚）skinfold，and $X_{5}=$ resting Pulse rate．Using only first－order terms for predictor variables，the various criteria values using R for all possible regression models is given below．（a）What are the formulas of the following critera： $R_{a, p}, A I C_{p}, S B C_{p}$ and $P R E S S_{p}$（b）Find just one best subset regression model according to the above criteria and state your reasons．

|  | p 12345 SSEp |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 004756.056 | 27 | ． 2521 | ． 9711 | 191.3409 | 880 | 5182.089 |
|  | 2000106120.6400 |  |  | 19.0132 |  |  |  |
|  | 2000016411.558 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 2010006481.4520 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 2100006531.2130 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 3011003783.157 |  | ， |  |  |  |  |
|  | 3101004370.331 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 3001104739.383 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 3001014750.751 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 3010106070.3400 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 00011607 | 0.0701 |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 3100106120.3020 | 0.062 |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 10016312.616 |  | －0．0 |  |  |  |  |
|  | 000164 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 0 |  |  | 23. |  |  |  |
|  | 0037 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 4011103772.5620 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 4011013782.2450 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 01014359 | 0.3326 |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 10 | 0.33 |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 010115 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 106035 |  | －0 | 22.2 |  |  |  |
|  | 00116073 |  | －0．0096 | 22 | 204.8766 | 211.5309 | 54.830 |
|  | 0016269 |  | －0．0422 | 24.3 | 206.1175 |  | 148.679 |
|  | 1 |  | ． 3600 | 4.0056 | 187.9691 | 96.2869 | 112.528 |
|  | 1013755.13 |  |  | 4.1382 | 188.1254 | 196.4432 | 5373.499 |
|  | 011113770. | 0.4227 | 0.3548 | 4.2751 | 188.2862 |  |  |
|  | 01114359.281 | 0.3326 | 0.2540 | 9.4 | 193. | 3 | 255.259 |
|  | 1101015950.595 | 0.0889 | －0．0183 | 23.512 | 206.0 | 14 | 3 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |


| 國立政治大學 110 學年度第 | 學年度第 | 開課 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 期 } \overline{7} \\ & \text { 商院 } \end{aligned}$ | 考 考試 | 命題紙 <br> 命題教授：吳漢銘 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 考試日期：01 月 13日（四）9：10－10：40 | ＊准帶項目打「O」 ，否則打「×」 |  |  |  | 1．需加發計算紙或答案紙請備註 <br> 2．為環保節能減碳，試題一律採雙面印刷，如有特殊印製需求•請註記： |
| 本試題共 5 頁，印刷份數： 36 份 | Calculator | Book <br> Notes | Dictionary | Cell phone Laptop |  |
| 備註：注意事項要看！！（§1～§3） | O | $\times$ | $\times$ | $\times$ |  |

7．（20\％）Toxicity experiment．In an experiment testing the effect of a toxic substance， 1,500 exper－ imental insects were divided at random into six groups of 250 each．The insects in each group were exposed to a fixed dose of the toxic substance．A day later，each insect was observed．Death from exposure was scored 1 ，and survival was scored 0 ．The results are shown below；$X_{j}$ denotes the dose level（on a logarithmic scale）administered to the insects in group $j$ and $Y_{. j}$ denotes the number of in－ sects that died out of the $250\left(n_{j}\right)$ in the group．The estimated proportions is denoted by $p_{j}=Y_{. j} / n_{j}$ ．

| $j:$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $X_{j}:$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| $n_{j}:$ | 250 | 250 | 250 | 250 | 250 | 250 |
| $Y_{. j}$ | 28 | 53 | 93 | 126 | 172 | 197 |

Simple Logistic regression model is assumed to be appropriate．The R output for the logistic regression is given below．
（a）State the fitted logistic response function．
（b）Obtain $\exp \left(b_{1}\right)$ and interpret this number．
（c）What is the estimated probability that an insect dies when the dose level is $X=3.5$ ？
（d）What is the estimated median lethal dose－that is，the dose for which 50 percent of the experimental insects are expected to die？

Coefficients：


Residual standard error： 0.089 on 4 degrees of freedom
Multiple R－squared：0．9961，Adjusted R－squared： 0.9951
F－statistic： 1019 on 1 and 4 DF，p－value：5．743e－06

注意：1，考試求公平及公正，請同學務必自律，維護學校與學生之榮譽。
2 ，考試時不得有交談，窺視，夾帶，抄襲，傳遞，代考或其它作弊等舞弊行為，考畢務必交卷，不得攜卷出
場，違者依考場規則議處。
＂堅持做對的事，永遠不會錯。＂
＂You are never wrong to do the right thing．＂


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Some will be discussed in other Chapters.

[^1]:    注意：1，考試求公平及公正，請同學務必自律，維護學校與學生之榮譽。
    2 ，考試時不得有交談，窺視，夾帶，抄襲，傳遞，代考或其它作弊等舞弊行為，考畢務必交卷，不得攜卷出
    場，違者依考場規則議處。

