

3) know In a 1D regression model 60

$y$  is conditionally independent of  $\underline{x}$  given  $\alpha + c\beta^T \underline{x}$ .  
often  $h(\underline{x}) = \alpha + c\beta^T \underline{x}$   
a single linear combination of the predictors, written  $y \perp\!\!\!\perp \underline{x} \mid \beta^T \underline{x}$ .

4) know p 4302 If  $y \perp\!\!\!\perp \underline{x} \mid \beta^T \underline{x}$ , then

$y \perp\!\!\!\perp \underline{x} \mid (\alpha + c\beta^T \underline{x})$  for any constants

$\alpha$  and  $c \neq 0$ . The quantity  $\alpha + c\beta^T \underline{x}$  is called a sufficient predictor (SP).

A sufficient summary plot (SSP) is a plot

of SP vs  $y$ . An estimated sufficient predictor (ESP) is  $\tilde{\alpha} + \tilde{\beta}^T \underline{x}$  where

$\tilde{\beta}$  is an estimator of  $c\beta$  for some  $c \neq 0$ .

An estimated sufficient summary plot (ESSP)

or response plot is a plot of ESP vs  $y$ .

5) \* p 440 The most used statistical regression models are 1D models.

$$\text{ex]} \quad y = g(\alpha + \beta^T \underline{x}, e)$$

single index model

(60.3)

$$y = m(\alpha + \beta^T x) + e$$

(often the function  $m$  is unknown)

ex)  $y = \alpha + \beta^T x + e$  (MLR)

ex)  $y = A^{-1}(\alpha + \beta^T x + e)$  (transformation model)

ex) logistic regression in ch 10

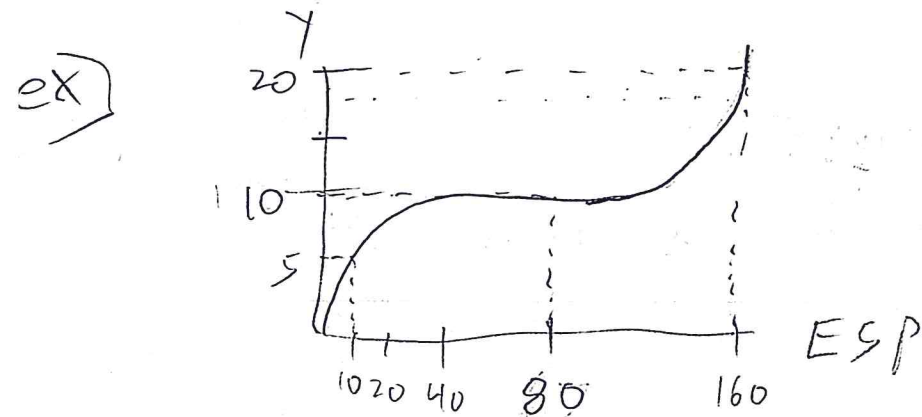
ex) poisson regression in ch 10

□ Any model with a single (non-trivial) predictor  $x$  ( $p-1=1$ ) is a 1D model. In this case  $x$  is both a SP and ESP and a plot of  $x$  vs  $y$  is both a SSP and a response plot (ESSP).

⇒ If  $p-1 > 1$  the SP is unknown and an SSP can not be made (except for simulated data). For the MLR model  $y = \alpha + \beta^T x + e$  the ESP =  $\hat{y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}^T x$ , and the ESSP = forward response plot = F1 plot.

8) know The response plot is used to visualize the conditional distribution  $Y|ESP$  and should be made for any ID regression.

9) know Predict  $Y$  for a given value of the ESP with "up and over lines".

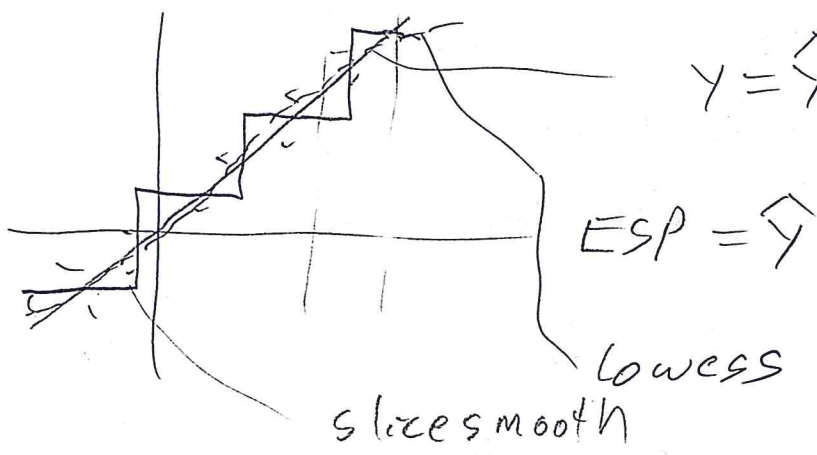


If  $ESP = 10, \hat{Y} = 5$   
 $ESP = 80, \hat{Y} = 10$   
 $ESP = 160, \hat{Y} = 20.$

See HW 11

10) know Adding an estimator of  $E(Y|ESP) = \hat{Y}$  to the plot can be useful.

Slice smooth divides the ESP into  $J$  "slices" containing roughly the same number of cases  $(\frac{n}{J})$  and computes the sample mean of  $Y$  in each slice. The resulting step function is added to the plot. Lowess is similar but smooths the step function.



$y = \hat{y}$  = identity line  
 = parametric MLR estimator of mean function

see HW 3 A.

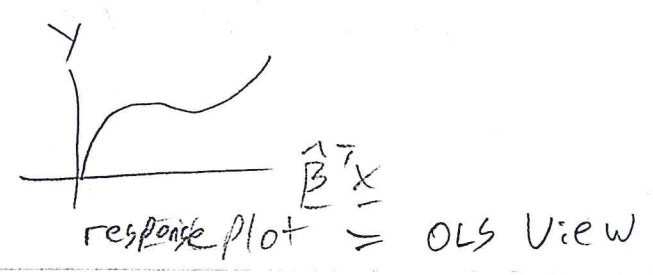
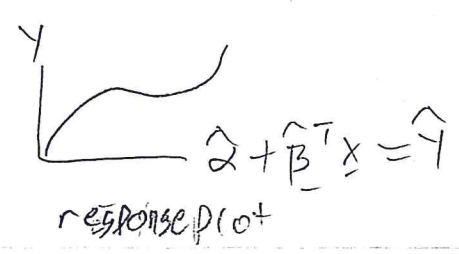
1) For simulated data,  $E(Y|X) = E(Y|ESP)$   
 $\approx \hat{E}(Y|ESP)$  may be known.

Let  $\hat{m}$  = lowess fit. Then a plot of  $\hat{m}$  vs  $E(Y|X)$  or  $\hat{m}$  vs  $\hat{E}(Y|ESP)$  should be linear.

See HW 4 L

12) For ID data  $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp X | \beta^T X$ , the OLS estimator

$\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}^T X$  obtained from the MLR regression of  $Y$  on  $X$  (even though the MLR model is not appropriate) is often such that  $\hat{\beta} \approx c \beta$ ,  $c \neq 0$ . Hence  $\hat{\beta}^T X$  (or  $\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}^T X$ ) is a good ESP.





13} p 432

$$Y \underline{1} \times | \underline{\beta}^T \underline{x}$$

585 b2

Suppose  $\hat{\underline{b}}$  is a consistent estimator of  $\underline{\beta}^*$ .

Then  $\underline{\beta}^* = C_x \underline{\beta} + \underline{u}_g$  where the (population)

bias vector  $\underline{u}_g = \underline{\beta}^* - C_x \underline{\beta}$ .

14} \* p 432 Often if there are no strong nonlinearities present among the predictors,

$\underline{u}_g$  is "small" compared to  $C_x \underline{\beta}$  and

$\hat{\underline{b}}^T \underline{x}$  is a useful ESP,

15} Let  $(\hat{\alpha}; \hat{\underline{\beta}})$  be the OLS estimator.

If  $\underline{x} \sim EC$  and  $Cov(\underline{x})$  is positive definite

then  $\hat{\underline{\beta}}$  is a consistent estimator

of  $C_x \underline{\beta}$  for some constant  $C_x$  and the

(population) bias vector  $\underline{u}_g = \underline{0}$

16} p 135 Let  $\begin{pmatrix} y_i \\ \underline{x}_i \end{pmatrix}$  be iid,  $Cov(\underline{x}) = \underline{I}_x$   
(1-1) x (p-1)

$$Cov(\underline{x}, y) = E \left[ \underbrace{(\underline{x} - E(\underline{x}))}_{\text{scalar}} \underbrace{(y - E(y))}_{(p-1) \times 1} \right] = \underline{I}_{xy}$$

The OLS estimator  $(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\underline{\beta}})$  estimates  $(\alpha_{OLS}, \underline{\beta}_{OLS})$

where  $\underline{\beta}_{OLS} = \underline{I}_x^{-1} \underline{I}_{xy}$ .

17) a) If  $y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + \epsilon_i$  (GLS)

then  $\underline{B}_{OLS} = \frac{1}{\underline{X}^T \underline{X}} \underline{X}^T \underline{y} = \underline{C}_{m \times x} \underline{\beta} + \underline{U}_{m \times x}$

where the scalar  $\underline{C}_{m \times x} = E \left[ \underline{\beta}^T (\underline{x} - E\underline{x}) m(\underline{\beta}^T \underline{x}) \right]$

and the bias vector  $\underline{U}_{m \times x} = \frac{1}{\underline{X}^T \underline{X}} E \left[ m(\underline{\beta}^T \underline{x}) \underline{\Gamma} \right]$

Here  $\underline{\Gamma} = \underline{x} - E\underline{x} - \left( \frac{1}{\underline{X}^T \underline{X}} \underline{X}^T \underline{\beta} \right) \underline{\beta}^T (\underline{x} - E\underline{x})$ .

b)  $\underline{C}_{m \times x} = \underline{0}$  if  $\underline{x}$  is EC with 2nd moments.

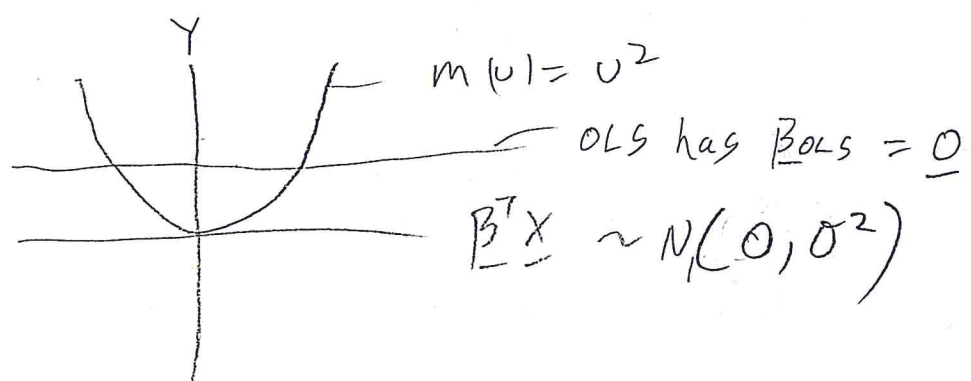
$\underline{C}_{m \times x} \neq \underline{0}$  unless  $\text{Cov}(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) = \underline{0}$ .

c) If the MLR model  $y_i = \alpha + x_i^T \underline{\beta} + \epsilon_i$

holds, then  $\underline{C}_{m \times x} = \underline{1}$  and  $\underline{U}_{m \times x} = \underline{0}$ ,

proof see HW Problem 9.2

Typically  $\text{Cov}(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) \neq \underline{0}$  unless i)  $\underline{\beta}^T \underline{x}$  follows a symmetric distribution and ii)  $m$  is symmetric about the median of  $\underline{\beta}^T \underline{x}$ .



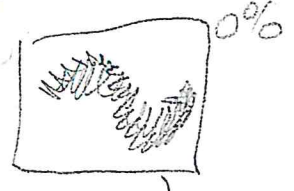
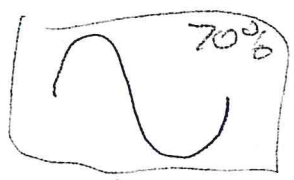
19] The OLS view = OLS response plot

is often useful if there are no strong non-linearities among the predictors (make a scatter plot matrix of  $X_1, \dots, X_{p-1}$  to check this assumption) but

20] The trimmed views estimator : plots  $\hat{\alpha}_M^T X$  or  $\hat{\alpha}_M + \hat{\beta}_M^T X$  vs  $Y$  but is otherwise identical

to the TV MLR estimator that plots

$\hat{\alpha}_M + \hat{\beta}_M^T X$  vs  $Y$ .



21] The trimmed views estimator uses ellipsoidal trimming.

$M\%$  of the cases with the largest Mahalanobis distances are trimmed. Eg.  $(\hat{\alpha}_M, \hat{\beta}_M)$  is the

OLS estimator applied to the cases not trimmed. A trimmed view is a plot

of  $\hat{\alpha}_M + \hat{\beta}_M^T X$  vs  $Y$  for  $M = 0, 10, \dots, 90$ .

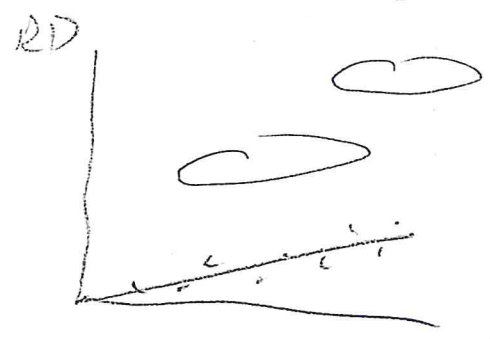
The best trimmed view  $\hat{\alpha}_{E^*} + \hat{\beta}_{E^*}^T X$  vs  $Y$  corresponds to the view with a smooth mean function and the smallest variance function. The best trimmed view is used as the response plot.

22] The tvreg estimator is  $\hat{\alpha}_{E^*} + \hat{\beta}_{E^*}^T X$  vs  $Y$  (or trimmed views estimator, the plot uses  $\hat{\alpha}_M + \hat{\beta}_M^T X$  vs  $Y$ ), and the identity line is

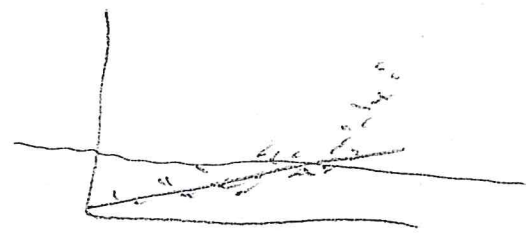
added to the plot. The  $t$ -reg estimator can be used to check whether an MMR model or some other single index model is appropriate. (63.9)

23) P 437 Ellipsoidal trimming can result in a better response plot than the OLS view (0% trimming) for at least 3 reasons.

a) trimming often removes strong nonlinearities from the predictors and the distribution of the untrimmed cases is closer to EC than the distribution of all of the cases.



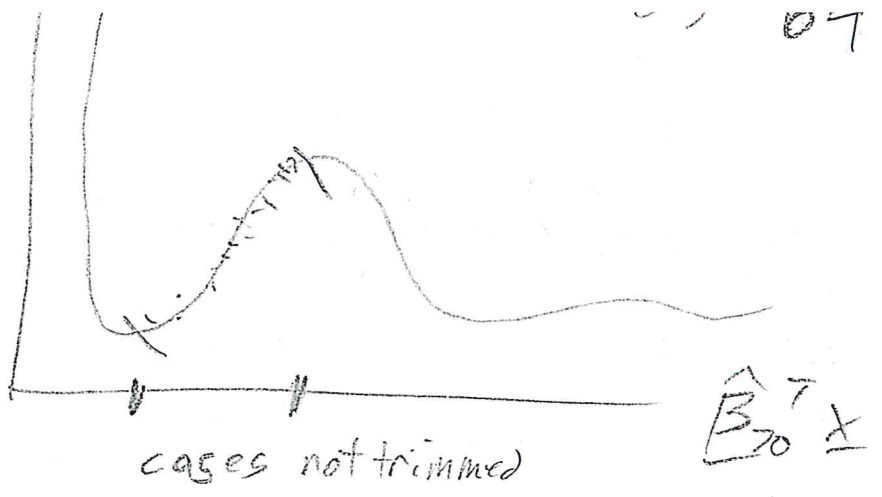
see Fig 9.3 for the effect of trimming on a scatterplot matrix.   
 DD plot get rid of the 2 clusters of outliers by trimming, then the remaining MD cases are much more EC



← NOT EC but trimming will cause the untrimmed cases to have greater clustering about the identity line than one gets by using all of the data.

b) Under heavy trimming the mean function of the untrimmed cases may be more linear than the mean function for the entire data set





c)  $\hat{\beta}_M = C_M \beta + \underline{u}_M$  and for some  $M$

$\|C_M \beta\|$  might be large compared to  $\|\underline{u}_M\|$ .

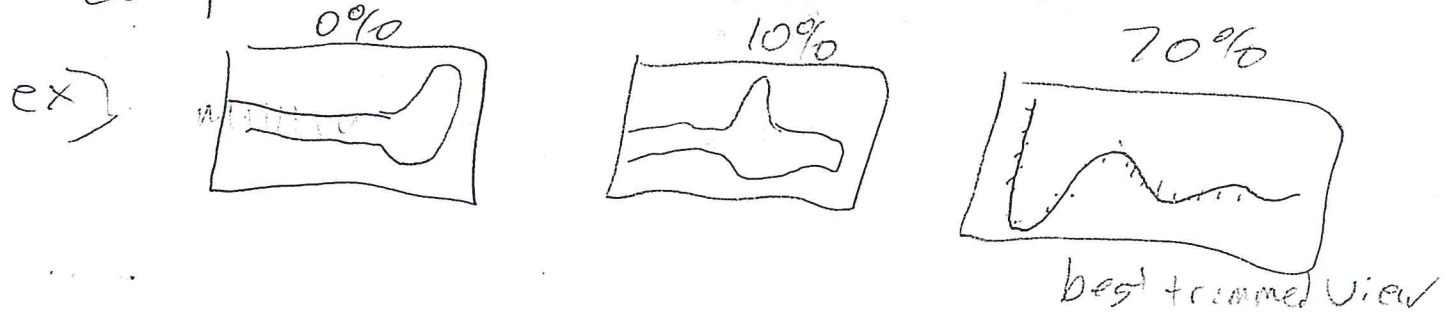
24) The trimmed views estimator depends on the regression estimator (often MLR estimator) and the MLD estimator

possible choices

reg	MLD
OLS	FCH RFCH
lmsreg	COV, mld
sr	(X, S)
...	etc

see HW 11  
for a preview.

As a project take a regression-MLD combo and compare it to the default OLS - FCH combo,



iid with pdf  $f$  and assume that the regression model  $y_i = g(\underline{x}_i, \underline{\eta}, e_i)$  has a unique solution for  $e_i$  given by  $e_i = h(\underline{x}_i, \underline{\eta}, y_i)$ . Then the

ith residual is  $\hat{e}_i = h(\underline{x}_i, \hat{\underline{\eta}}, y_i)$  where  $\hat{\underline{\eta}}$  is an estimator of  $\underline{\eta}$ .

note} could have  $\underline{\eta} = \mu$ ,  $\underline{\eta} = \beta$ ,  $\underline{\eta} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$  etc.

ex}  $\underline{\eta} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$ .  $y = m(\alpha + \beta^T x) + e$

where  $m$  is known. Then

$$e = y - m(\alpha + \beta^T x)$$

$$\text{So } \hat{e}_i = y_i - m(\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}^T x_i)$$

is the residual for  $e_i$ .

If  $m$  was unknown, then  $\hat{e}_i = y_i - \hat{m}(\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}^T x_i)$  where  $\hat{m}$  is an estimator of  $m$  (such as lowess).

See "wiv" 4.1.

13 \* p 49 = The binomial regression model

States that  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$  are independent binomial( $m_i, \beta(x_i)$ ). The logistic regression (LR) model is a special case with

$$\beta(x) = \frac{\exp(-\beta^T x)}{1 + \exp(-\beta^T x)}$$

The model

is binary if  $m_i \equiv 1$  for  $i=1, \dots, n$ .

2] know for E3. Instead of predicting  $Y$ ,

predict  $\beta(x) = P(\text{"Success"} | x) = P(Y=1 | x)$   
if  $Y$  is binary

$$\hat{\beta}(x) = \frac{\exp(-\hat{\beta}^T x)}{1 + \exp(-\hat{\beta}^T x)} = \frac{\exp(\hat{\beta}^T x)}{1 + \exp(\hat{\beta}^T x)}$$

see Quiz 11

ex] banknote data  $Y=0$  genuine  $Y=1$  counterfeit

label	est	SE	est/SE	pval
constant	-389.806	104.224	-3.740	.0002
bottom	2.26423	0.333233	6.795	.0000
left	2.43356	0.795601	3.562	.0004

predict  $\hat{\beta}(x)$  if  $x_2 = \text{bottom} = 9.4$  and  $x_3 = \text{left} = 130.1$ .

$$-389.806 + 2.26423(9.4) + 2.83356(30.1) \quad (67.2)$$

$$= 0.123918$$

$$\text{SO } \exp(\text{ESP}) = \exp(0.123918) = 1.131923$$

$$\text{and } \hat{\beta}(x) = \frac{\exp(\text{ESP})}{1 + \exp(\text{ESP})} = \frac{1.131923}{1 + 1.131923} = 0.5309$$

3) \* P304 The Poisson regression (PR) model

states that  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$  are independent

Poisson ( $\mu(x_i)$ ).

The log-linear regression (LLR) model is a special case

with  $\mu(x) = \exp(\underline{\beta}^T x)$ .

†) know for E3 In our case  $\mu(x) = \exp(\underline{\beta}^T x)$

Predict  $\mu(x)$  with  $\hat{\mu}(x) = \exp(\hat{\underline{\beta}}^T x) = \exp(\text{ESP})$

3) \*  $Y = \#$  of possums in area see Quiz 11

$x_2 = \text{bark}$

$x_3 = \text{habitat}$

$x_4 = \text{stags (hollow trees + 1)}$

label	est	stderr	Est/SE	pval
constant	-0.8994	.2135	-4.213	0.000
bark	0.0336	.0121	2.773	0.0055
habitat	0.1069	.0297	3.603	0.0003
stags	0.0302	.0094	3.210	0.0013



predict  $\hat{\mu}(x)$  if  $x_2 = 8.9$ ,  $x_3 = 5.8$  and  $x_4 = 6.2$  robstat 66

$$\text{So } \ln \text{ESP} = -0.49994 + 0.0336(8.9) + (1069)(5.8) + (0.307)6.2$$
$$= \underline{0.2673}$$

$$\text{So } \hat{\mu}(x) = \exp(\text{ESP}) = \exp(0.2673) = \boxed{1.3064}$$

5)  $\text{ESP} = \underline{x}^T \underline{\beta}$  just like for MLR.

6) A parametric 1D regression model

$$\text{is } Y | X = x \sim D(\eta(x), \underline{\theta})$$

$\leftarrow \theta$  vector of parameters

where  $D$  is a parametric distribution.

7) A generalized linear model (GLM) and  
D (generalized) additive model (GAM) use

$D$  from a 1 parameter exponential family.  
The Poisson and binomial (M, S) (with M known)  
are special cases. The GLM uses

$$SP = \underline{x}^T \underline{\beta} = \eta(x). \text{ The GAM uses}$$

$$SP = AP = \alpha + \sum_{i=2}^p S_i(x_i).$$

9) PITs for  $Y_i$  given  $X_i$  and  $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$ :  
 Use the parametric bootstrap:

Fit the model to get  $Y|X \sim D(\hat{h}(X), \hat{\sigma})$ .

Generate  $Y_1^*, \dots, Y_B^* \stackrel{iid}{\sim} D(\hat{h}(X), \hat{\sigma})$ .

Find the shorth of  $Y_1^*, \dots, Y_B^*$ .

10) Variable selection is like that for MLR. For PR and LR, Use AIC, or BIC instead of  $C_p$ . There are lasso

estimators for  $\beta$  for PR and LR. Forward selection and backward elimination too.

Parametric bootstrap  $Y^* = (Y_i^*)$

$Y_i^* \sim D(X_i^T \hat{\beta}, \hat{\sigma}), i=1, \dots, n$ . Do Variable

selection of  $Y^*$  on  $X$  to get  $\hat{\beta}_B^*$ . Repeat

to get the bootstrap sample  $\hat{\beta}_1^*, \dots, \hat{\beta}_B^*$ .

The nonparametric bootstrap may work, too.

11) A response plot is a plot

of  $ESP = \hat{h}(X)$  vs  $Y$ .

GLM  $ESP = X\hat{\beta}$  vs  $Y$

GAM  $ESP = EAP = \alpha + \sum_{j=2}^p \xi_j(X_j)$ .