

Math 1710 Class 37

Chi Square, Regression Inference Dr. Back

Nov. 23, 2009

Distribution

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V1

Exam Results

Chi Square
Distribution as
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Chi Square
Hypotheses

Why
 $\frac{(Obs - Exp)^2}{Exp}$?

2 by 2 Tables

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Multiple
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5- number summary: 33, 72, 82, 91, 100
mean 79.07 std. dev. 14.83

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5- number summary: 33, 72, 82, 91, 100
mean 79.07 std. dev. 14.83

Approximate Guide to How You Did:

Scores	Freq.	Letter
96-100	6	A+
90-95	19	A
88-89	6	A-
80-86	19	B+
71-79	17	B
63-69	10	B-
54-58	4	C
41-42	3	D
33-37	2	F

Distribution

5- number summary: 33, 72, 82, 91, 100
mean 79.07 std. dev. 14.83

Approximate Guide to How You Did:

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90-95	19	A
88-89	6	A-
80-86	19	B+
71-79	17	B
63-69	10	B-
54-58	4	C
41-42	3	D
33-37	2	F

We may not use these letters.

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Let X_1, \dots, X_d be d independent standard normal random variables.

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Let X_1, \dots, X_d be d independent standard normal random variables.

The **Chi Square distribution with d degrees of freedom** is given by:

$$\chi^2 = X_1^2 + X_2^2 + \dots + X_d^2$$

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Chi Square Distribution Formula

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\frac{d}{2})2^{\frac{d}{2}}} x^{\frac{d}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{x}{2}}$$

where d is the number of degrees of freedom.

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where d is the number of degrees of freedom.

The mean is d and the variance is $2d$.

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Test of Independence: Two Categorical Variables.

- H_0 : The two categorical variables are independent.
- H_a : There is an association between the variables.

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Test of Homogeneity: Multiple samples/populations.
and Another Categorical Variable.

- H_0 : The categorical variable has the same distribution within each population.
- H_a : The distributions differ among some of the populations.

(Which Population? could be viewed as a cat. var.)

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Same Chi Square statistic,
Degrees of Freedom = $(\text{numrows}-1)(\text{numcols}-1)$ for both indep.
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Same Chi Square statistic,
Degrees of Freedom = $(\text{numrows}-1)(\text{numcols}-1)$ for both indep.
and homog.

The concept of “what is a population” does not have a clear
answer, so we will not require you to distinguish between indep.
and homog. on exams or homework.

(You need to know lots about the design to truly tell these
apart.)

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The concept of “what is a population” does not have a clear answer, so we will not require you to distinguish between indep. and homog. on exams or homework.

(You need to know lots about the design to truly tell these apart.)

In fact indep. and homog. have different exact mathematical models, but both are approximated by the same χ^2 .

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Goodness of Fit: Frequencies of One Cat Var
AND a hypothesized distribution.

- H_0 : The cat. var. follows the hypothesized distribution.
- H_a : The cat. var. doesn't.

Degrees of Freedom = number of cells - 1.

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Focus on 1 cell in our contingency table for a moment.
Each cell corresponds to a particular value of each of the two categorical variables.

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Focus on 1 cell in our contingency table for a moment.

Notation:

n The total number of observed subjects.

\hat{p} The observed proportion in the cell of interest.

p The true proportion in the cell of interest.

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Focus on 1 cell in our contingency table for a moment.

Then

Observed $n\hat{p}$.

Expected np .

$$\frac{(Obs - Exp)^2}{Exp} = \frac{(n\hat{p} - np)^2}{np} = \left(\frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sqrt{\frac{pq}{n}}} \right)^2 q$$

Why $\frac{(Obs - Exp)^2}{Exp}$?

Focus on 1 cell in our contingency table for a moment.

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Observed $n\hat{p}$.

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Thus except for the extra q (often near 1), we have the square of a Z-statistic!

Why $\frac{(Obs - Exp)^2}{Exp}$?

Focus on 1 cell in our contingency table for a moment.
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$$\frac{(Obs - Exp)^2}{Exp} = \frac{(n\hat{p} - np)^2}{np} = \left(\frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sqrt{\frac{pq}{n}}} \right)^2 q$$

Thus except for the extra q (often near 1), we have the square of a Z-statistic!

The degrees of freedom being less than the number of cells may be viewed as the result of careful analysis of all those extra q factors.

2 × 2 Tables

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In this case let

p_1 : true proportions of column 1 in the top cell of that column.

p_2 : true proportions of column 2 in the top cell of that column.

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In this case let

p_1 : true proportions of column 1 in the top cell of that column.

p_2 : true proportions of column 2 in the top cell of that column.

The null hypothesis in an independence test can also be expressed as

$$p_1 = p_2.$$

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In this case let

p_1 : true proportions of column 1 in the top cell of that column.

p_2 : true proportions of column 2 in the top cell of that column.

The null hypothesis in an independence test can also be expressed as

$$p_1 = p_2.$$

The Chi Square statistic will be the square of the Z statistic for the 2-sided 2-sample proportion test with the same H_0 .

Chi Square as Multiple Proportion

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If X and Y are the categorical variables the contingency table describes, then H_0 in a test of independence can also be expressed as for each value j of Y , **all the proportions**

$$P(X = i | Y = j)$$

are equal, regardless of the value of i .

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Why $df = (\text{numrows} - 1)(\text{numcols} - 1)$ for test of independence? (a
3 by 4 example: $df = 2 * 3 = 6$)

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Why $df = (\text{numrows} - 1)(\text{numcols} - 1)$ for test of independence? (a
3 by 4 example: $df = 2 * 3 = 6$)

Imagine these marginals ...

known	known	known		300
known	known	known		300
				300
100	200	300	400	1000

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Idea: Consider all 3 by 4 contingency tables with the same marginal totals. These determine the expected values. How well the observed values match the expected tests the null hypothesis of independence.

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The idea is that if we specify the observed values in the **6 known** cells, then the rest of the cells are determined by the marginal totals. In other words $df=6$ corresponds to 6 cells can vary freely, the rest are determined.

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Suppose we know the values in the 2×3 upper left:

40	80	100		300
30	110	150		300
				300
100	200	300	400	1000

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Then the remaining values are determined by subtraction

40	80	100	80	300
30	110	150	10	300
30	10	50	310	400
100	200	300	400	1000

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Regression Inference Questions

Basic Setup:

- 1) Data (x_i, y_i) , $1 \leq i \leq n$ leads to line of regression

$$\hat{y} = b_0 + b_1x$$

- 2) Assume an ideal line

$$\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1x$$

- 3) Together with an error process ϵ_i following an $N(0, \sigma)$ law (independent for each i .)

- 4) So that individual observations come from

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1x_i + \epsilon_i.$$

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Start with some data (x_i, y_i)



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(X_i, Y_i)



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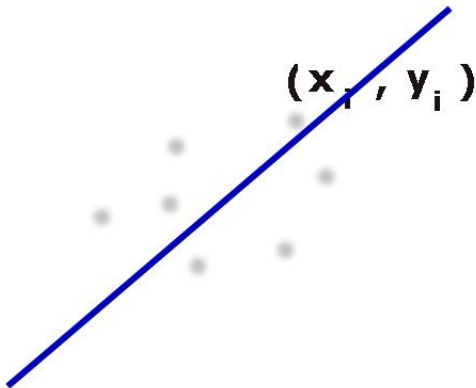
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These give the line of regression

$$\hat{y} = b_0 + b_1 x_i$$



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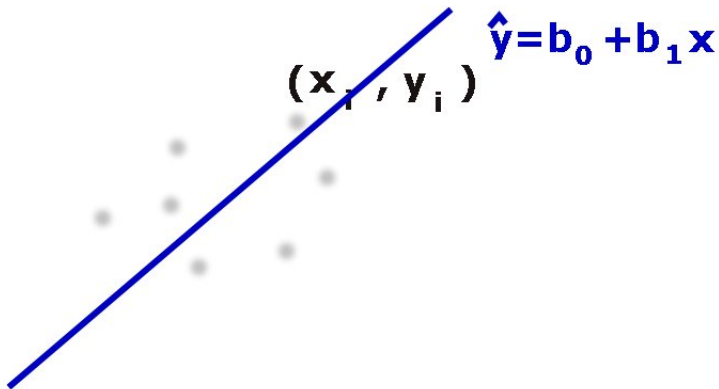
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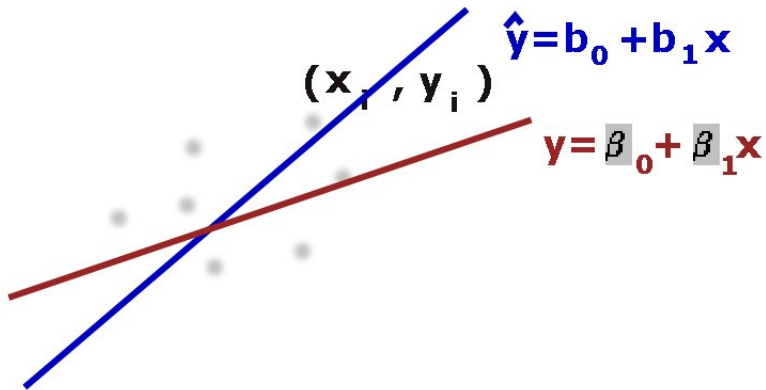
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There is also an ideal line

$$\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$$



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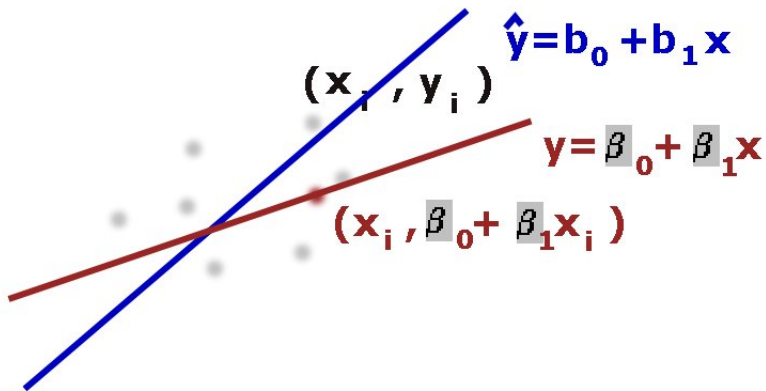
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We think of the data point (x_i, y_i) as arising by first
plugging in x_i into the ideal line



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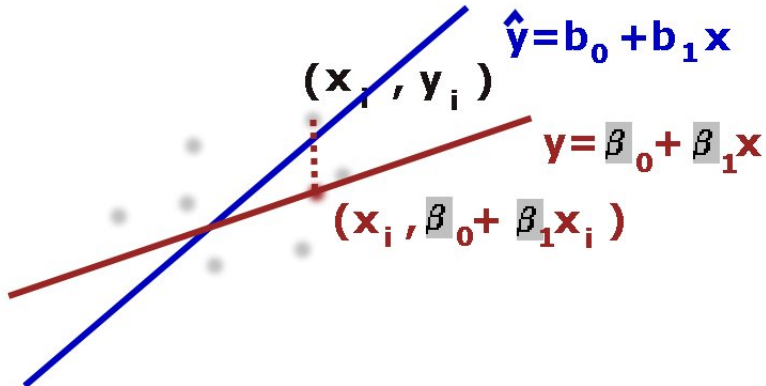
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Then randomly choosing an offset

$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma)$$

to see how far off the ideal line we go.



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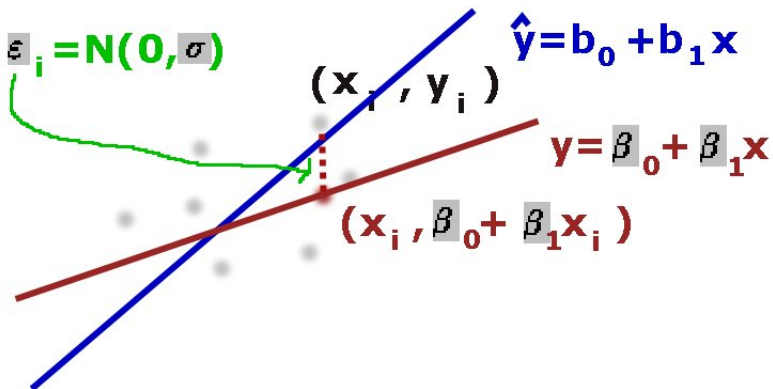
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The errors must be independent and all have the same standard deviation σ in the ideal model.

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Natural Questions in Regression:

- 1) Estimate β_0 and β_1 .
- 2) Estimate the accuracy of b_0 and b_1 as estimators of β_0 and β_1 .
- 3) Estimate σ , the standard deviation of the error process.

For a given value x^* of x :

- 4) How accurately does the regression estimate $b_0 + b_1x^*$ approximate an actual y observation when $x = x^*$.
- 5) How accurately does the regression estimate $b_0 + b_1x^*$ approximate the average of a lot of y observations when $x = x^*$.

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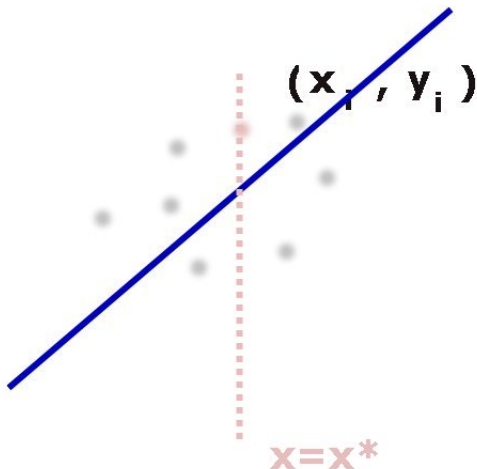
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For $x = x^*$, we can try to predict **one value of y** leading to a **prediction interval when $x = x^*$**



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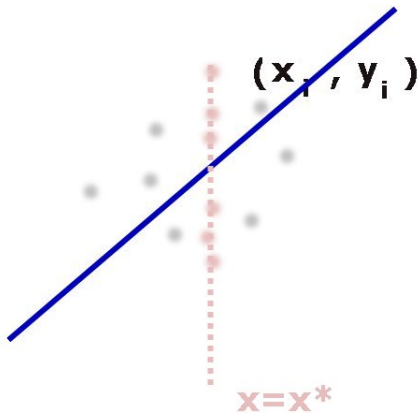
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Or we can try to predict the average of many values of y leading to a confidence interval for the mean response μ_y when

$$x = x^*$$



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