LGN 5822 - Biometrical Genetics

L04 – Linear Models

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2023

Motivation

 Linear models are a class of statistical models that are used to describe the relationship between a dependent variable (or response) and one or more independent variables (or predictors) through a linear relationship

• A model is an **approximation** of reality

Motivation

 Linear models are relatively simple and provide an easily interpreted mathematical formula

Motivation

To reflect

"The most that can be expected from any model is that it can supply a useful approximation to reality: All models are wrong; some models are useful" George Box¹



George Box (1919-2013)

Motivation

Models are never perfect!

Motivation: Whats is the difference?



The line in Figure A is just a line, but the line in Figure B is a linear model fit to the data

Motivation

Residual = Real Value - Predicted Value



Motivation



Which equation will best fit the straight line to the set of data points?

Motivation

- We will focus on **analysis of variance** (ANOVA) models
 - These are frequently used for experimental data analysis

Most of the discussion of our course also applies to regression models

Linear models and linear regression are synonymous?

- "Linear model" is a large category of statistical models that describe the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables linearly
 - ¥
- "Linear regression" is a specific technique within the category of linear models that focuses on modeling a linear relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables.

Regression Models



The linear regression model (blue line) explains the relationship between the explanatory variable and the response variable

How to deal with outliers in linear models?

- Outlier Identification: Identify outliers in your data set using, for example, scatter plots
- Data Transformations: In some cases, it is possible to apply mathematical transformations to the data
- Truncation or Cut: Consider removing the most extreme outliers from the data set if they are found to be invalid values or measurement errors
- **Robustness:** More robust models are less sensitive to outliers
- Cross Validation: Use cross validation to evaluate how the model handles outliers (training and validation)

Interpretability: Linear models are relatively simple to understand

 Versatility: Linear models can be applied to a wide variety of problems, from simple regression to classification problems such as regression

 Computational Efficiency: Linear models are computationally efficient and can be trained on large datasets with less computational and resource effort

 Statistical Inference: Linear models allows the application of hypothesis tests and the obtaining of confidence intervals for the coefficients

 This is important when you want to make statistically significant statements about relationships between variables



But...

- It is important to understand that linear models may not be the ideal choice for all types of data
- In cases where relationships are highly non-linear, more complex models such as *decision trees, neural networks or kernel methods (machine learning)* may be more appropriate

What is the difference between correlation and regression analysis?





What is Linear Regression?

 Linear regression is a statistical technique used to model the relationship between a dependent variable (or response) and one or more independent variables (or predictors) linearly

 Linear regression analysis is used to predict the value of a variable based on the value of another variable

What is Linear Regression?

In resume, linear regression is to find the best line (or hyperplane, in cases of multiple independent variables) that fits the data to make predictions or inferences



Simple Linear Regression Models

Simple Linear Regression Model describes the linear relationship between a dependent variable (y) and a single independent variable (X)

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \varepsilon$$

where:

y is the dependent or study variable X is the independent or explanatory variable β_0 is an intercept coefficient β_1 is the slope coefficient ε is the residuals $e \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

Simple Linear Regression Models

 Simple Linear Regression Model describes the linear relationship between a dependent variable (y) and a single independent variable (X)

• Objective: Minimize the error term $m{\epsilon}$, that is, try to get the predicted values as close as possible to the observed values $m{y}$

Multiple Linear Regression Models

• When the response y is often influenced by more than one predictor variable $(X_1, X_2, X_3 \dots X_n)$



For example, the yield of a crop may depend on the amount of nitrogen, potash, and phosphate fertilizers used

Multiple Linear Regression Models

• Models the relationship between a dependent variable (y) and two or more independent variables $(X_1, X_2, X_3 \dots X_n)$

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_k X_k + \varepsilon$$

y is the dependent or study variable

X are the independent or explanatory variable

 β_0 is an intercept coefficient (the estimated value of Y when X is equal to zero)

 β_k is the slope coefficients for each explanatory variable (rate of change in Y for one unit of change in X)

 ε is the residuals

Simple x Multiple Linear Regression



Simple x Multiple Linear Regression



• Let's Practice 01!



10 values of a variable X (temperature) were observed and the corresponding Y values (plant growth)

Х	25	24.5	22	19.6	19	21	22.8	24	25.6	21.9
Y	5	2	3	3.8	4.9	5.1	3.5	4	5	2.3

#Define the model and parameter estimation #use "Im () function"

#Represent the points graphically (scatter plot) to see if there is apparent linear relationship between X and Y #use "plot () function" Let's Practice 01!

Create a simple dataset X = c(25, 25.4, 22, 19.6, 19, 21, 22.8, 24, 25.6, 21.9)Y = c(5, 42, 3, 3.8, 4.9, 5.1, 3.5, 4, 5, 2.3)

Perform simple linear regression model <- $lm(Y \sim X, data = data)$

```
# Display the model summary
summary(model)
```

plot(X,Y)

• Let's Practice 01!

F-statistic: 1.743 on 1 and 8 DF, p-value: 0.2232

Let's Practice 01!



• Let's Practice 02!

Considering an experiment with maize, the following were observed:

- 7 repetitions of variables:
- Y=Plant weight, X1=Dry Matter, X2=Average Diameter, X3=Average Height and X4=Number of sheets

Y	X1	X2	X3	X4
0,25	12	36	26	38
0,45	15	38	27	45
0,23	12.5	39	28	44
0,10	11	35.5	25	43.5
0,15	15	31	24	39
0,17	10	32	22	35
0,18	14	31.8	21	38



• Let's Practice 02!

Considering an experiment with maize, the following were observed:

- 7 repetitions of variables:
- Y=Plant weight, X1=Dry Matter, X2=Average Diameter, X3=Average Height and X4=Number of sheets

#Represent the points graphically (scatter plot) to see if there is apparent linear relationship between X and Y

#use "plot () function"

Let's Practice 02!

```
 \begin{array}{l} x1 \ = \ c(12,15,12.5,11,15,10,14) \\ x2 \ = \ c(36,38,39,35.5,31,32,31.8) \\ x3 \ = \ c(26,27,28,25,24,22,21) \\ x4 \ = \ c(38,45,44,43.5,39,35,38) \\ Y \ = \ c(0.25,0.45,0.23,0.10,0.15,0.17,0.18) \end{array}
```

```
# Create a data frame with the data
data <- data.frame(X1, X2, X3, X4, Y)</pre>
```

```
# Perform multiple linear regression
model <- lm(Y \sim X1 + X2 + X3 + X4, data = data)
```

```
## Display the model summary summary(model)
```

--. .

• Let's Practice 02!

```
Call:

lm(formula = Y ~ X1 + X2 + X3 + X4, data = data)

Residuals:

1 2 3 4 5 6

-0.020477 0.094573 -0.066446 -0.010990 -0.007082 0.065271

7

-0.054849
```

Coefficients	5:			
	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	-0.93666	0.55360	-1.692	0.233
X1	0.04490	0.02663	1.686	0.234
x2	0.05372	0.03726	1.442	0.286
X3	-0.02003	0.04076	-0.492	0.672
X4	-0.01959	0.02117	-0.925	0.452

```
Residual standard error: 0.103 on 2 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.7255, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1764
F-statistic: 1.321 on 4 and 2 DF, p-value: 0.4737
```

• Let's Practice 03!



- Imagine you want to compare the yield of two particular genotypes
- For simplicity, assume you collect data from four field replicates for each genotype

Genot	ype A	Genotype B		
2.8	3.2	4.1	3.9	
3.2	2.8	4.0	3.6	

#Test an initial hypothesis #Compare the means of each genotype #Graph to observe the behavior of the 02 genotypes

Building Models

Initial Hypothesis Testing

- How can we compare the means of each genotype?
 - t- test
Initial Hypothesis Testing

How can we compare the means of each genotype?

t- test

```
yield_1 <- c(2.8, 3.2, 3.2, 2.8)
yield_2 <- c(4.1, 3.9, 4.0, 3.6)
t.test(yield_1, yield_2, var.equal = TRUE)</pre>
```

Initial Hypothesis Testing

How can we compare the means of each genotype?

```
Two Sample t-test
```

Graph to observe the behavior of the 02 genotypes

```
yield_1 <- c(2.8, 3.2, 3.2, 2.8)
yield_2 <- c(4.1, 3.9, 4.0, 3.6)
yields <- c(yield_1, yield_2)</pre>
groups <- factor(rep(c("A", "B"), each = 4))</pre>
df <- data.frame(yield = yields, genotype = groups)</pre>
g <- ggplot(df, aes(genotype, yield)) +
  geom_jitter(width = 0.1, height = 0) +
  ylab("Yield") +
  xlab("Genotype") +
  theme_bw() +
  theme(axis.text=element_text(size=12),
        axis.title=element_text(size=14,face="bold"),
        legend.title=element_text(size=14,face="bold"),
        legend.text=element_text(size=12)) +
  theme(panel.grid.minor = element_blank())
g
```



- Can we simply model the average yields?
 - Let y_1 represent the yield of a plant with genotype **A** and y_2 the yield of a plant with genotype **B**

How can we express the models?

$$y_1 = \mu_1 + \varepsilon_1 \qquad \qquad y_2 = \mu_2 + \varepsilon_2$$

where μ_1 is the average yield of genotype A; μ_2 is the average of genotype B; ε_1 and ε_2 are random error terms

• Can we model deviations from a common mean?

• Denote a common intercept by μ and the effects of genotypes A and B by and τ_1 and τ_2 , respectively

The model can then be expressed as:

$$y_1 = \mu_1 + \tau_1 + \varepsilon_1$$
 $y_2 = \mu_2 + \tau_2 + \varepsilon_2$

where the values are as previously defined

Because we have observations from four replicates of each genotype, we can write a model for each of the observations as:

$$y_{11} = \mu_1 + \tau_1 + \varepsilon_{11} \qquad y_{12} = \mu_1 + \tau_1 + \varepsilon_{12}$$
$$y_{13} = \mu_1 + \tau_1 + \varepsilon_{13} \qquad y_{14} = \mu_1 + \tau_1 + \varepsilon_{14}$$
$$y_{21} = \mu_1 + \tau_2 + \varepsilon_{21} \qquad y_{22} = \mu_1 + \tau_2 + \varepsilon_{22}$$
$$y_{23} = \mu_1 + \tau_3 + \varepsilon_{23} \qquad y_{24} = \mu_1 + \tau_3 + \varepsilon_{24}$$

Equivalently, we can write:

 $y_{ij} = \mu + \tau_i + \varepsilon_{ij}$ i = 1,2, j = 1,2,3,4

where y_{ij} is the observed yield of the j_{th} plant of the i_{th} genotype and ε_{ij} is the associated random error

How to represent the eight equations in matrix form?

How to represent the eight equations in matrix form?



Verify!

Exploring more... Linear Model!

Tradicional Linear Model

 $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \varepsilon_i$

i = 1, ..., n

where:

 y_i is the dependent or study variable (is the value of the response variable) X_i is the independent or explanatory variable (a known constant) β_0 is an intercept coefficient (unknown parameter) β_1 is the slope coefficient (unknown parameter) ε_i is the residuals

Tradicional Linear Model

We assume that y_i and ε_i are random variables and that the values of x_i are known constants, which means that the same values of x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n would be used in repeated sampling

Linear Model in Matrix Form

• In general, we can write a linear model in matrix form as:

$$y = X\beta + \varepsilon$$

where:

y is an $n \ge 1$ vector of observed values (is the dependent or study variable) **X** is an $n \ge p$ design matrix (independent variable) **B** is a $p \ge 1$ vector of unknown parameters ε is an $n \ge 1$ vector of unknown errors

Residues Assumptions

```
i) E(\varepsilon_{ij}) = 0 for all ij (presupposition of conditional expectation of residues)

ii) var(\varepsilon_{ij}) = \sigma^2 for all ij

iii) cov(\varepsilon_{ij}, \varepsilon_{i'j'}) = 0 for all i \neq i' and j \neq j'

iv) \varepsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2) for all i, j
```

Any of these assumptions may not be valid with real data

i) $E(\varepsilon_{ij}) = 0$ for all *ij*

- Implying that y_i depends only on x_i and that all other variation in y_i is random
- Means that the expected value (mean) of the residuals (ε) for all observations
 (i) and all independent variables (j) is equal to zero

ii) $var(\varepsilon_{ij}) = \sigma^2$ for all *ij*

- The variance of ε or y does not depend on the values of x_i (is also known as the assumption of **homoscedasticity**, homogeneous variance or constant variance)
- The dispersion or variability of the residuals must be the same for all combinations of values of the independent variables

iii)
$$cov(\varepsilon_{ij}, \varepsilon_{i'j'}) = 0$$
 for all $i \neq i'$ and $j \neq j'$

• Indicates that the covariance between the residuals (ε) for all different observations ($i \neq i'$) and all different independent variables ($j \neq j'$) must be equal to zero

iv) $\varepsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ for all i, j

- Errors are normally distributed (normal distribution with mean equal to zero and constant variance)
- This is one of the fundamental assumptions of linear regression, known as the assumption of normality of residuals

• Each assumption has been stated in terms of the ε 's or the y's

For example, $var(\varepsilon_{ij}) = \sigma^2$, then

$$var(y_i) = E[y_i - E(y_i)]^2 = E(y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2 = E(\varepsilon_i^2) = \sigma^2$$

- Any of these assumptions may not be valid with real data
 - There are techniques for checking on the assumptions

• What are the techniques for checking residual assumptions?

- What are the techniques for checking residual assumptions?
 - Shapiro-Wilk test: Tests the normality of the residuals. A low W statistic suggests that the residuals do not follow a normal distribution

#If the p-value is greater than the significance level (usually 0.05), there is not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the data follows a normal distribution

#Data: Practice 03

Genot	уре А	Genotype B			
2.8	3.2	4.1	3.9		
3.2	2.8	4.0	3.6		

yield_1 <- c(2.8, 3.2, 3.2, 2.8) yield_2 <- c(4.1, 3.9, 4.0, 3.6)

check_residual <- shapiro.test(yield_1)
check_residual</pre>

```
check_residual <- shapiro.test(yield_2)
check_residual</pre>
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: yield_1
W = 0.72863, p-value = 0.02386
```

```
> check_residual <- shapiro.test(yield_2)
> check_residual
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: vield_2 w = 0.92708, p-value = 0.5774 #Use shapiro.test () function to test

#If the p-value is greater than the significance level (usually 0.05), there is not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the data follows a normal distribution

- What are the techniques for checking residual assumptions?
 - Durbin-Watson test: Evaluates the autocorrelation of residuals. Values close to 2 indicate independence of the residuals

#install.packages("Imtest")

#Create a data frame with the data

```
data <- data.frame(X1, X2, X3, X4, Y)
```

Perform multiple linear regression

```
model <- lm(Y \sim X1 + X2 + X3 + X4, data = data)
```

```
result <- dwtest(model)
result</pre>
```

Durbin-Watson test

data: model <u>DW = 2.9182, p-value = 0.8967</u> alternative hypothesis: true autocorrelation is greater than 0

#A p-value smaller than your chosen significance level (usually 0.05) may suggest the presence of first-order autocorrelation

- What are the tests for checking residual assumptions?
 - Box-Cox or logarithmic transformations can be applied to the data to make residuals more normally distributed or to improve homoscedasticity

And others...

• We say that there is a functional relationship between two variables x and y if there is a function f such that y = f(x)

- There is a probability distribution for y for each value of the variable x, since we assume that there is a statistical relationship between x and y
- The mean of y varies systematically with respect to x

- To fit a simple linear regression we need to have at least 3 observations:
 - If we only have 2 observations (2 points), the determination of the line is a problem of analytic geometry
 - It is not possible, in this case, to make any statistical analysis

 We must also check whether the number of available observations is greater than the number of parameters in the regression equation

 The general rule of is that n should be at least 10 to 20 times larger than p to obtain robust results and avoid overfitting problems

#What is overfitting? The model is overfitted to the training data, resulting in unstable and unreliable coefficient estimates

• Let's Practice 04!



- Create a vector of "X" values
- Apply the quadratic function: $y = f(x) = x^2$ and to get the y values
- Create a scatter plot

Let's Practice 04!

> # Create a vector of x values > x <- seg(-10, 10, by = 0.1) # Values from -10 to 10 with an interv al of 0.1 > x [1] -10.0 -9.9 -9.8 -9.7 -9.6 -9.5 -9.4 -9.3 -9.2 -9.1-9.0 -8.9 -8.8 -8.7 -8.6 -8.5 -8.4 -8.3 -8.2 -8.1 [11] [21] -8.0 -7.9 -7.8 -7.7 -7.6 -7.5 -7.4 -7.3 -7.2 -7.1 [31] -7.0 -6.9 -6.8 -6.7 -6.6 -6.5 -6.4 -6.3 -6.2 -6.1[41] -6.0 -5.9 -5.8 -5.7 -5.6 -5.5 -5.4 -5.3 -5.2 -5.1 [51] -5.0 -4.9 -4.8 -4.7 -4.6 -4.5 -4.4 -4.3 -4.2 -4.1-4.0 -3.9 -3.8 -3.7 -3.6 [61] -3.5 -3.4 -3.3 -3.2 -3.1 -2.8 -2.7 -2.6 -2.5 -3.0 -2.9 -2.4 -2.3 -2.2 [71]-2.1 -1.7 -1.6 -1.5 [81] -2.0 -1.9 -1.8-1.4 -1.3 -1.2 -1.1 -0.8 -0.6 -0.5 [91] -1.0-0.9 -0.7 -0.4 -0.3 -0.2 -0.1 0.4 0.5 [101] 0.0 0.10.2 0.3 0.6 0.7 0.8 0.9 [111]1.11.2 1.3 1.4 1.5 1.6 1.7 1.8 1.9 1.0[121] 2.0 2.1 2.2 2.3 2.4 2.5 2.6 2.7 2.8 2.9 3.4 [131]3.0 3.13.2 3.3 3.5 3.6 3.7 3.8 3.9 [141]4.0 4.14.2 4.3 4.4 4.5 4.6 4.7 4.8 4.9 5.0 5.3 5.4 5.5 5.9 [151]5.1 5.2 5.6 5.7 5.8 6.3 6.4 [161]6.0 6.16.2 6.5 6.6 6.7 6.8 6.9 [171]7.0 7.1 7.2 7.3 7.4 7.5 7.6 7.7 7.8 7.9 [181]8.0 8.18.2 8.3 8.4 8.5 8.6 8.7 8.9 8.8 9.2 9.5 9.6 [191]9.0 9.1 9.3 9.4 9.7 9.8 9.9 [201] 10.0

Let's Practice 04!

> # Apply the function f(x) to get the y values

> y <- x

> y										
[1]	-10.0	-9.9	-9.8	-9.7	-9.6	-9.5	-9.4	-9.3	-9.2	-9.1
[11]	-9.0	-8.9	-8.8	-8.7	-8.6	-8.5	-8.4	-8.3	-8.2	-8.1
[21]	-8.0	-7.9	-7.8	-7.7	-7.6	-7.5	-7.4	-7.3	-7.2	-7.1
[31]	-7.0	-6.9	-6.8	-6.7	-6.6	-6.5	-6.4	-6.3	-6.2	-6.1
[41]	-6.0	-5.9	-5.8	-5.7	-5.6	-5.5	-5.4	-5.3	-5.2	-5.1
[51]	-5.0	-4.9	-4.8	-4.7	-4.6	-4.5	-4.4	-4.3	-4.2	-4.1
[61]	-4.0	-3.9	-3.8	-3.7	-3.6	-3.5	-3.4	-3.3	-3.2	-3.1
[71]	-3.0	-2.9	-2.8	-2.7	-2.6	-2.5	-2.4	-2.3	-2.2	-2.1
[81]	-2.0	-1.9	-1.8	-1.7	-1.6	-1.5	-1.4	-1.3	-1.2	-1.1
[91]	-1.0	-0.9	-0.8	-0.7	-0.6	-0.5	-0.4	-0.3	-0.2	-0.1
[101]	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9
[111]	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9
[121]	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.9
[131]	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.9
[141]	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.8	4.9
[151]	5.0	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.8	5.9
[161]	6.0	6.1	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.7	6.8	6.9
[171]	7.0	7.1	7.2	7.3	7.4	7.5	7.6	7.7	7.8	7.9
[181]	8.0	8.1	8.2	8.3	8.4	8.5	8.6	8.7	8.8	8.9
[191]	9.0	9.1	9.2	9.3	9.4	9.5	9.6	9.7	9.8	9.9
[201]	10.0									

Let's Practice 04!

Create a scatter plot
plot(x, y, type = "1", col = "blue", lwd = 2, xlab = "x", ylab = "y", main = "Quadratic Function y = x^2")




Parameter Estimation: Method of Least Squares

Using a random sample of n observations y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n and the accompanying fixed values x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n , we can estimate the parameters β_0, β_1 , and σ^2

Method of Least Squares

• The main objective of the method is to find the best estimates β_0 and β_1 that minimize the sum of the squares of the residuals (errors) between the observed values and the values predicted by the model

Method of Least Squares

• In the least-squares method, we seek estimators β_0 and β_1 that minimize the sum of squares of the deviations $(y_i - \hat{y}_i)$ of the n observed y_i 's from their predicted values, then $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}'\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{\varepsilon}_{i}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \hat{y}_{i})^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \hat{\beta}_{0} - \hat{\beta}_{1}x_{i})^{2}$$

Method of Least Squares

• To find the values of β_0 and β_1 that minimize the sum of squares of the deviations, we derivatives with respect to β_0 and β_1

Method of Least Squares

- First, to find the derivatives $\hat{\varepsilon}'\hat{\varepsilon}$ (sum of the squares of the errors) with respect to β_0
 - and set the results equal to 0

$$\frac{\partial \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}' \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}}{\partial \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_0} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_0 - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 x_i) = 0,$$

Method of Least Squares

- And, to find the derivatives $\hat{\varepsilon}'\hat{\varepsilon}$ (the sum of the squares of the errors) with respect to β_1
 - and set the results equal to 0

$$\frac{\partial \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}' \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}}{\partial \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1} = -2\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_0 - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 x_i) x_i = 0$$

Method of Least Squares

• The solution to β_0 and β_1 and is given by

$$\hat{\beta}_{1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} y_{i} - n \bar{x} \bar{y}_{\bar{y}}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} - n \bar{x}^{2}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})(y_{i} - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_0 = \bar{\boldsymbol{y}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 \bar{\boldsymbol{x}}$$

 x_i and y_i are the individual values of x and y in your data \overline{x} is the average of the x values \overline{y} is the average of the y values

• Let's Practice 05!

Students in a statistics class claimed that doing the homework had no helped prepare them for the exam (y). The **exam score** y and homework score x for the 18 students in the class were as follows:

У	x	У	x	У	x
95	96	72	89	35	0
80	77	66	47	50	30
0	0	98	90	72	59
0	0	90	93	55	77
79	78	0	18	75	74
77	64	95	86	66	67

#Find the values of β_0 and β_1 : use coef() or lm () functions #Define the prediction equation # Create the regression graph (use plot function)



#Find the values of β_0 and β_1 : use coef() or lm () functions

```
# Fit the linear regression model
model <- lm(y ~ x, data = data)
model</pre>
```

```
# Coefficients of the model
beta_0 <- coef(model)[1] # Intercept ( $\beta$ 0)
beta_1 <- coef(model)[2] # Slope coefficient ( $\beta$ 1)</pre>
```

```
beta_0
beta_1
```

#Find the values of β_0 and β_1 : use coef() or Im () functions

```
> # Fit the linear regression model
> model <- lm(y \sim x, data = data)
> model
Call:
lm(formula = y \sim x, data = data)
Coefficients:
(Intercept)
                       х
    10.7269 0.8726
> # Coefficients of the model
> beta_0 <- coef(model)[1] # Intercept (\beta_0)
> beta_1 <- coef(model)[2] # Slope coefficient (\beta_1)
> beta_0
(Intercept)
   10.72691
> beta 1
        х
0.8726465
```

$$\hat{\beta}_{1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} y_{i} - n \bar{x} \bar{y}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} - n \bar{x}^{2}}$$
$$= \frac{81,195 - 18(58.056)(61.389)}{80,199 - 18(58.056)^{2}} = .8726,$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x} = 61.389 - .8726(58.056) = 10.73$$

#Define the prediction equation

$$\hat{y} = 10.73 + .8726x$$

٠

#Create the regression graph

Graphic
plot(data\$x, data\$y, pch = 16, col = "blue", xlab = "X", ylab = "Y", main = "Regression y ~ x ")
abline(model, col = "red")

#Create the regression graph



Regression y ~ x

 $\hat{y} = 10.73 + .8726x$

```
Let's Practice 06!
```

Remember the Practice 03:



#Calculate the matrix "X" #Calculate X'X and X'Y#Calculate the coefficients in a regression model #Estimate μ , τ_1 and τ_2

Genotype A	Genotype B		
2.8 3.2	4.1 3.9		
3.2 2.8	4.0 3.6		

#Calculate the matrix "X"

```
> y <- c(2.8, 3.2, 3.2, 2.8, 4.1, 3.9, 4.0, 3.6)
> X
   [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
    1 1 0
[2,] 1 1 0
[3,] 1 1 0
   1 1 0
[4,]
   1 0 1
[5,]

    1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \\
    1 \quad 0 \quad 1

[6,]
[7,]
[8,]
     1
            1
         0
```

• Remember that:

#Calculate X'X and X'Y

```
> xlx <- t(x) %*% x
> xlx
    [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] 8 4 4
[2,] 4 4 0
[3,] 4 0 4
>
> xly <- t(x) %*% y
> xly
    [,1]
[1,] 27.6
[2,] 12.0
[3,] 15.6
```

%*% is used to perform matrix multiplication in R

#Calculate the coefficients in a regression model

```
#Calculate \hat{\beta} = (XX)^{-1}XY
```

```
beta_hat <- solve(xlx)%*%xly</pre>
```

the solve() function to calculate the inverse matrix of XIX

```
> beta_hat <- solve(XlX)%*%Xly
Error in solve.default(XlX) :
   Lapack routine dgesv: system is exactly singular: U[3,3] = 0</pre>
```

#the matrix has no inverse

Restrictions

Non-Full-Rank Models

- As currently defined, *X* is not of full rank
- Notice that the first column is equal to the sum of the other two

• We need **restrictions** to make X'X nonsingular

#nonsingular: is a square matrix in which its determinant is non-zero (no inverse)

Restrictions

There are multiple possible restrictions

Restrictions

- There are multiple possible constraints
 - One such possibility is to set $\tau_1 = 0$ (effects of genotypes A)
 - The model is then expressed as:



Restrictions

Genotype A	Genotype B		
2.8 3.2	4.1 3.9		
3.2 2.8	4.0 3.6		

Parameter Estimation with Restrictions: $\tau_1 = 0$ (effects of genotypes A)

#Calculate the matrix "X"

```
> y <- c(2.8, 3.2, 3.2, 2.8,4.1, 3.9, 4.0, 3.6)
> X <- matrix(c(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1), ncol=2)
> X
      [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1 0
[2,] 1 0
[3,] 1 0
[4,] 1 0
[5,] 1 1
[6,] 1 1
[7,] 1 1
[8,] 1 1
```

#Calculate X'X and X'Y

```
> X1X <- t(X) %*% X
> X | X
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 8 4
[2,] 4 4
> xly <- t(x) %*% y
> Xly
     [,1]
[1,] 27.6
[2,] 15.6
> beta_hat <- solve(XlX)%*%Xly</pre>
> beta_hat
```

```
[,1]
[1,] 3.0
[2,] 0.9
```

#Calculate the coefficients in a regression model

```
#Calculate \hat{\beta} = (XX)^{-1}XY
```

```
> beta_hat <- solve(xlx)%*%xly
> beta_hat
    [,1]
[1,] 3.0
[2,] 0.9
```

#Calculate the coefficients in a regression model

• Or use the function *lm*

#Calculate the coefficients in a regression model

```
y <- c(2.8, 3.2, 3.2, 2.8,4.1, 3.9, 4.0, 3.6)
genotype <-factor(rep(c("A", "B"), each = 4))
genotype</pre>
```

```
model <- lm(y ~ genotype)
model</pre>
```

#Calculate the coefficients in a regression model

```
Call:
lm(formula = y ~ genotype)
Coefficients:
(Intercept) genotypeB
3.0 0.9
```

Parameter Estimation with Restrictions: Model without the intercept μ

model $<-1m(y \sim 0 + genotype)$ model

Call: $lm(formula = y \sim 0 + genotype)$

```
Coefficients:
genotypeA genotypeB
3.0 3.9
```

Parameter Estimation with Restrictions: Model with the sum-to-zero

#The coefficients (or parameters) associated with the independent variables are estimated so that the sum of these coefficients is equal to zero #to facilitate the interpretation of coefficients

```
contrasts(genotype) <- contr.sum
model <- lm(y ~ genotype)
model</pre>
```

Call: lm(formula = y ~ genotype)

Coefficients: (Intercept) genotype1 3.45 -0.45

Reduced and Full Models

 Continuing with the previous example, let us begin with the following reduced model:

$$y_{ij} = \mu + \varepsilon_{ij},$$
 $i = 1,2$ $j = 1,2,3,4$

Reduced and Full Models

$$y_{ij} = \mu + \varepsilon_{ij},$$
 $i = 1,2$ $j = 1,2,3,4$

In matrix form

y_{11}		1		ε_{11}
y_{12}	_	1	[µ] +	ε_{12}
y_{13}		1		ε_{13}
y_{14}		1		ε_{14}
y_{21}		1		ε_{21}
y_{22}		1		ε_{22}
y_{23}		1		ε_{23}
y_{24}		1		ε_{24}

Reduced and Full Models

• For this reduced model, the only source of variation is the random error

Reduced and Full Models

- In that case, the error sum of squares (SSE) is equal to the total sum of squares (SST)
 - It has n 1 associated degrees of freedom (correction for the mean)

 Dividing the sum of squares by its corresponding degrees of freedom yields the mean square

Reduced Models

In R

#y is a function of 1
#models only the intercept, without any effect

Reduced Models

The ANOVA table:

Residuals 7 1.92 0.27429
Full Models

• Next, we fit the **full model**, in this case including the genotype factor

Full Models

• Next, we fit the **full model**, in this case including the genotype factor

- This causes a reduction in the SSE (error sum of squares)
 - It explains part of the variation

- The difference in SSE between the full and reduced models is the treatment sum of squares
 - It has t degrees of freedom, where t is the number of parameters

Full Models

• Fit the full model

```
full_model <- lm(y ~ genotype)
full_model</pre>
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = y ~ genotype)
```

Coefficients: (Intercept) genotype1 3.45 -0.45

Full Models

• Finally, build the ANOVA table:

Partitioning Variability

 How can we quantify the proportion of the total variability explained by the model?

Partitioning Variability

 How can we quantify the proportion of the total variability explained by the model?

Coefficient of determination, often denoted as R² (R-squared)

Coefficient of Determination (R²)

- R² is a measure that ranges from 0 to 1
- Represents the proportion of the total variability in the dependent variable (Y) that is explained by the independent variables (X)

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}$$

SSE (Sum of Squared Errors) SST (Total Sum of Squares)

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$$
 $SST = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$

#Therefore, a higher R² implies a better fit of the model to the data

Coefficient of Determination (R²)

The total sum of squares can be partitioned into SST = SSR + SSE, that is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

Coefficient of Determination (R²)

#use summary() function
 "Multiple R-squared"

Genotype A		Genotype B	
2.8	3.2	4.1	3.9
3.2	2.8	4.0	3.6

Coefficient of Determination (R²)

```
y <- c(2.8, 3.2, 3.2, 2.8, 4.1, 3.9, 4.0, 3.6)
```

```
genotype <-factor(rep(c("A", "B"), each = 4))
genotype</pre>
```

```
model <- lm(y ~ genotype)
model
summary(model)</pre>
```

```
Coefficients:
```

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 3.0000 0.1118 26.833 1.77e-07 ***
genotypeB 0.9000 0.1581 5.692 0.00127 **
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

```
Residual standard error: 0.2236 on 6 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.8437, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8177
F-statistic: 32.4 on 1 and 6 DF, p-value: 0.001269
```

#Multiple R-squared is a measure of the proportion of the total variability in the dependent variable that is explained by the regression model

#Adjusted R-squared is a modified version of Multiple Rsquared that takes into account the number of independent variables in the model

#Penalizes the inclusion of unnecessary or irrelevant independent variables in the model



- Now we can work through a more realistic example
- We will use a subset of the data from the maize drought and nitrogen stress trials conducted at the CIMMYT breeding program²
- The subset includes yield data for (progenies of) 25 genotypes from an F2 population, obtained from a biparental cross between drought tolerant and susceptible maize plants
- Data from four different water stress trials are available, including no stress, intermediate stress and severe stress environments (in two years)

- Now there are two factors of interest, namely **genotypes** and **environments**
 - The genotype factor has 25 levels and the environment factor has four levels
 - There is only one observation per genotype and environment combination

Let's Practice

- Now there are two factors of interest, namely **genotypes** and **environments**
 - The genotype factor has 25 levels and the environment factor has four levels
 - There is only one observation per genotype and environment combination

Let:

 y_{ij} represent the yield of the *i*th genotype at the *j*th environment g_i represent the effect of the *i*th genotype e_j represent the effect of the *j*th environment

• We want to test hypotheses such as $H_0 = g_1 = g_2 = \dots = g_{25}$ and $H_0 = e_1 = e_2 = e_3 = e_4$

Let's Practice

- Use the R function read.csv to import the data
- Fit the following models:

$$y_{ij} = \mu + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

$$y_{ij} = \mu + g_i + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

$$y_{ij} = \mu + e_j + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

$$y_{ij} = \mu + g_i + e_j + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

- Investigate the sums of squares and F statistics
 - Make sure to use the correct reduced model in each case!

Let's Practice

 $y_{ij} = \mu + \varepsilon_{ij}$

```
reduced_model <- lm(yield ~ 1, data =data)
anova(reduced_model)</pre>
```

```
> reduced_model <- lm(yield ~ 1, data =data)
> anova(reduced_model)
Analysis of Variance Table
```

```
Response: yield
Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
Residuals 99 326820441 3301217
```

#y is a function of 1
#models only the intercept, without any effect

 $y_{ij} = \mu + g_i + \varepsilon_{ij}$

```
genotype_model <- lm(yield ~ genotype, data = data)
anova(genotype_model)</pre>
```

```
> genotype_model <- lm(yield ~ genotype, data = data)
> anova(genotype_model)
Analysis of Variance Table
```

 $y_{ij} = \mu + e_j + \varepsilon_{ij}$

```
environment_model <- lm(yield ~ environment, data = data)
anova(environment_model)</pre>
```

 $y_{ij} = \mu + g_i + e_j + \varepsilon_{ij}$

genotype_environment_model <- lm(yield ~ genotype + environment, data = data)
anova(genotype_environment_model)</pre>

```
> genotype_environment_model <- lm(yield ~ genotype + environment, data = data)
> anova(genotype_environment_model)
Analysis of Variance Table
```

References

Chapters 6, 7^3 .

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2. Malosetti, M., Ribaut, J.-M. & van Eeuwijk, F. A. The statistical analysis of multienvironment data: modeling genotype-by-environment interaction and its genetic basis. *Frontiers in Physiology* 4, 44 (2013).

3. Rencher, A. Linear Models in Statistics. (1999).