

Testes de Hipóteses em regressão linear

Renato

Testes de hipóteses

- Assunto amplo e com varias polemicas
- Existe uma teoria geral de testes de hipóteses. Veremos isso na segunda metade do curso.
- Como no caso de ICs, vamos no concentrar apenas nos principais testes de hipóteses associados com o modelo de regressão linear.
- Vamos começar com nosso exemplo básico da resistência à compressão de blocos de cimento.

Kaggle Dataset

- Aim: To predict the compressive strength of concrete based on material composition.

🎯 Target Variable (Response Variable)

Feature Name	Description	Units	Typical Range
Compressive Strength	The maximum compressive stress the concrete can withstand.	MPa (MegaPascals)	2.33 - 82.6

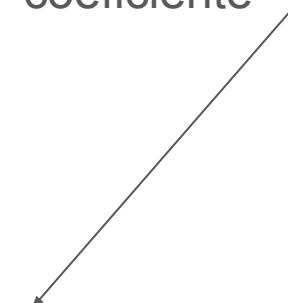
- Number of Samples: 1,030 observations
- Number of Features: 8 predictors

```
#generate OLS regression results for all features
import statsmodels.api as sm

X_sm = sm.add_constant(X)
model = sm.OLS(y,X_sm)
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```

OLS Regression Results						
	Dep. Variable:	csMPa	R-squared:	0.616		
	Model:	OLS	Adj. R-squared:	0.613		
	Method:	Least Squares	F-statistic:	204.3		
Date:	Fri, 15 Oct 2021	Prob (F-statistic):	6.29e-206			
Time:	16:43:15	Log-Likelihood:	-3869.0			
No. Observations:	1030	AIC:	7756.			
Df Residuals:	1021	BIC:	7800.			
Df Model:	8					
Covariance Type:	nonrobust					
	coef	std err	t	P> t	[0.025	0.975]
const	-23.3312	26.586	-0.878	0.380	-75.500	28.837
cement	0.1198	0.008	14.113	0.000	0.103	0.136
slag	0.1039	0.010	10.247	0.000	0.084	0.124
flyash	0.0879	0.013	6.988	0.000	0.063	0.113
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fineaggregate	0.0202	0.011	1.887	0.059	-0.001	0.041
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ICs de 95% para cada coeficiente



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A variável “cement” tem um IC de 95% igual a

(0.103, 0.136)

Quando cement passa para cement+1, a resistência aumenta entre 0.103 e 0.136

A incerteza sobre o valor do coeficiente é refletida na largura do IC

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A variável “water” tem um efeito negativo

$$IC = (-0.229, -0.071)$$

Quando water passa para water+1, a resistência DIMINUI entre 0.229 e 0.071

Predição com incerteza

No primeiro caso:

- embora com incerteza, predizemos um efeito positivo de “cement”

No segundo caso:

- com incerteza, predizemos um efeito negativo de “water”

Um terceiro caso: o IC contém o valor zero

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IC de “fineaggregate”

IC = (-0.001, 0.041)

Quando fineaggregate passa para fineaggregate+1, a resistência pode diminuir ou aumentar.

A incerteza sobre o valor inclui incerteza até sobre a direção do efeito (positivo ou negativo)

ICs contendo zero

Os ICs contendo o valor zero formam uma classe especial:

- são coeficientes em que não temos confiança sobre seu efeito
- Pode ser positivo, negativo, pode ser ZERO.

O que acontece se o verdadeiro valor do coeficiente for ZERO?

Nesse caso, a variável pode ser descartada do modelo.

$$\begin{aligned}(Y|\mathbf{x}) &\sim N(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \mathbf{0}x_2 + \beta_3 x_3, \sigma^2) \\ &\sim N(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_3 x_3, \sigma^2)\end{aligned}$$

Testando se verdadeiro coeficiente e' zero

Uma maneira simples de descartar variáveis irrelevantes no modelo de regressão linear e' olhar os ICs.

Se contém ZERO, a variável e' descartada.

Esse método e' muito simples e possui algumas desvantagens que veremos mais tarde.

Esse método e' baseado num teste de hipótese de que o verdadeiro coeficiente e' zero.

Além dos ICs, olhamos também os p-valores dos testes.

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Os principais testes de hipóteses associados com regressão linear estão aqui.

Vamos agora conectar ICs a teoria de testes de hipóteses.

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Assuma que o modelo de regressão linear é o mecanismo gerador dos dados.

Existe um vetor desconhecido de coeficientes que gera os dados e que queremos aprender

$$\beta^* = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0^* \\ \beta_1^* \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p^* \end{bmatrix}$$

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Sabemos que

$$\hat{\beta} \sim N_{p+1}(\beta^*, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1})$$

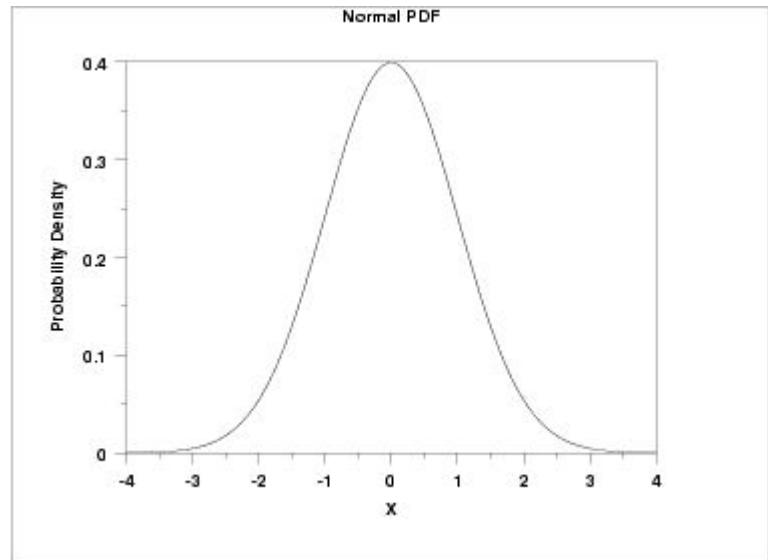
Então: cada coordenada $\hat{\beta}_j$ do vetor estimado $\hat{\beta}$ oscila como uma Gaussiana em torno do seu verdadeiro e desconhecido valor β_j

$$\hat{\beta}_j \sim N(\beta_j^*, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}[jj])$$

Gaussiana padrão

Mas sabemos muito sobre o comportamento de variáveis aleatórias Gaussianas.

- 1) Considere a Gaussiana padrão:
 $N(0,1)$:
 - a) Dificilmente sai de (-2, 2)
 - b) Probab(estar em (-2,2)) = 0.95 (ou 95%)



Gaussiana padrão

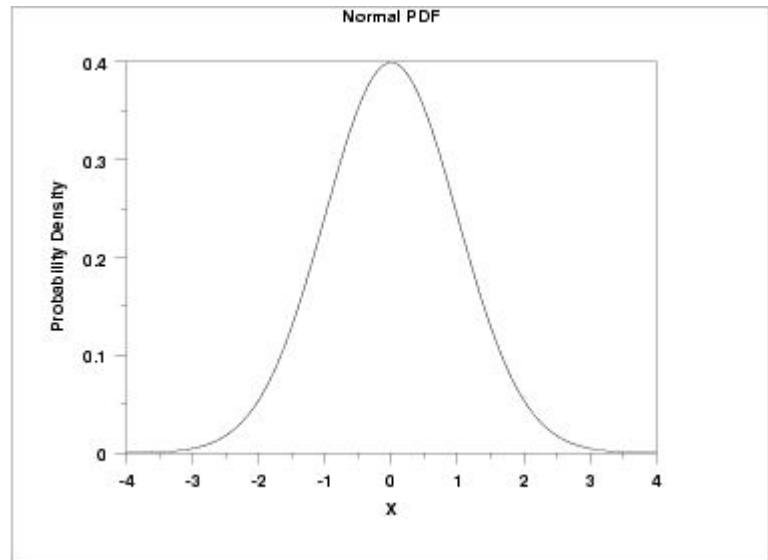
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1) Considere a Gaussiana padrão: $N(0, 1)$:

- a) Dificilmente sai de $(-2, 2)$
- b) Probab(estar em $(-2,2)$) = 0.95 (ou 95%)

2) Toda Gaussiana $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

pode ser transformada em Gaussiana padrão: $Z = \frac{X-\mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$



De volta para regressão linear...

$$\hat{\beta}_j \sim N(\beta_j^*, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}[jj])$$

$$Z = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j - \beta_j^*}{\sqrt{\sigma^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}[jj]}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

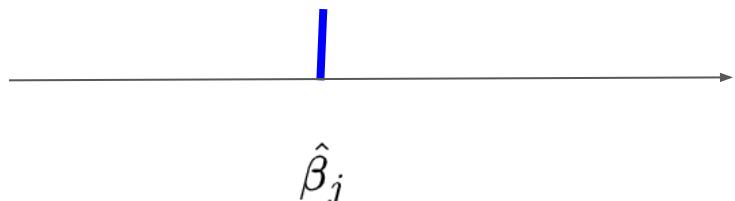


$$\hat{\beta}_j$$

De volta para regressão linear...

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$$Z = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j - \beta_j^*}{\sqrt{\sigma^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}[jj]}} \sim N(0, 1)$$



Esta distribuição é a correta sempre que usarmos o VERDADEIRO e DESCONHECIDO valor de β_j^*

Com os ICs: como Z está entre -2 e 2 com alta probabilidade, revertemos a desigualdade para obter um intervalo de valores razoáveis para o desconhecido e verdadeiro β_j^*

De volta para regressão linear...

$$\hat{\beta}_j \sim N(\beta_j^*, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}[jj])$$

$$Z = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j - \beta_j^*}{\sqrt{\sigma^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}[jj]}} \sim N(0, 1)$$



$$\hat{\beta}_j$$

FUNDAMENTAL: se subtrairmos um valor errado (ao invés do verdadeiro β_j^*) a distribuição de Z não vai seguir uma $N(0, 1)$

Exemplo

Suponha que $\hat{\beta}_j \sim N(\beta_j^*, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}[jj]) = N(5.5, 4.0)$

Então

$$Z = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j - 5.5}{\sqrt{4.0}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

O que acontece se usarmos um valor diferente do verdadeiro valor 5.5?

Por exemplo, se usarmos ZERO?

Exemplo

Suponha que $\hat{\beta}_j \sim N(\beta_j^*, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}[jj]) = N(5.5, 4.0)$

Temos

$$Z = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j - 5.5}{\sqrt{4.0}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

O que acontece se usarmos um valor diferente do verdadeiro valor 5.5?

Por exemplo, se usarmos ZERO?

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_j - 0}{\sqrt{4.0}} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j \pm 5.5 - 0}{\sqrt{4.0}} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j - 5.5}{\sqrt{4.0}} + \frac{(5.5 - 0)}{\sqrt{4.0}} = N(0, 1) + \frac{\beta_j^* - 0}{\sqrt{4.0}} = N\left(\frac{\beta_j^*}{2}, 1\right)$$

Resumo:

Suponha que $\hat{\beta}_j \sim N(\beta_j^*, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}[jj]) = N(5.5, 4.0)$

Quando usamos o verdadeiro β_j^* no numerador, temos $Z = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j - 5.5}{\sqrt{4.0}} \sim N(0, 1)$

Se usarmos o valor ZERO, teremos

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_j - 0}{\sqrt{4.0}} \sim N\left(\frac{\beta_j^*}{\sqrt{4.0}}, 1\right)$$

Teremos esta quantidade como $\frac{\hat{\beta}_j - 0}{\sqrt{v^2}} \sim N(0, 1)$ se, e somente se, $\beta_j^* = 0$

onde $v^2 = \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}[jj]$

Resumo 2:

Suponha que $\hat{\beta}_j \sim N(\beta_j^*, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}[jj]) = N(\beta_j^*, v^2)$

Se usarmos o valor ZERO, teremos $\frac{\hat{\beta}_j - 0}{\sqrt{v^2}} \sim N\left(\frac{\beta_j^*}{v}, 1\right)$

Se a HIPÓTESE $H: \beta_j^* = 0$ for verdadeira \rightarrow temos $N(0,1) \rightarrow$ entre -2 e 2

Se a hipótese for falsa, a Gaussiana estará centrada num valor diferente de zero

Como usamos esse resultado na prática?

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$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j - 0}{\sqrt{v^2}}$$

Se o verdadeiro coeficiente é ZERO (variável pode ser descartada) então t deve estar entre -2 e 2

Se t estiver fora desse intervalo, é evidência de que o verdadeiro e desconhecido β_j^* é diferente de zero e variável NÃO DEVERIA ser descartada.

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P-valor

E' uma probabilidade

Supõe que a hipótese nula

$$H_0 : \beta_j^* = 0 \text{ e' verdadeira}$$

Nesse caso devemos ter

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j - 0}{\sqrt{v^2}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

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Date:	Fri, 15 Oct 2021	Prob (F-statistic):	6.29e-206			
Time:	16:43:15	Log-Likelihood:	-3869.0			
No. Observations:	1030	AIC:	7756.			
Df Residuals:	1021	BIC:	7800.			
Df Model:	8					
Covariance Type:	nonrobust					
	coef	std err	t	P> t	[0.025	0.975]
const	-23.3312	26.586	-0.878	0.380	-75.500	28.837
cement	0.1198	0.008	14.113	0.000	0.103	0.136
slag	0.1039	0.010	10.247	0.000	0.084	0.124
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superplasticizer	0.2922	0.093	3.128	0.002	0.109	0.476
coarseaggregate	0.0181	0.009	1.926	0.054	-0.000	0.037
fineaggregate	0.0202	0.011	1.887	0.059	-0.001	0.041
age	0.1142	0.005	21.046	0.000	0.104	0.125

P-valor

Se $H_0 : \beta_j^* = 0$ é verdadeira,
temos $t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j - 0}{\sqrt{v^2}} \sim N(0, 1)$

Observamos t=3.128 para
superplasticizer, fora de (-2, 2)

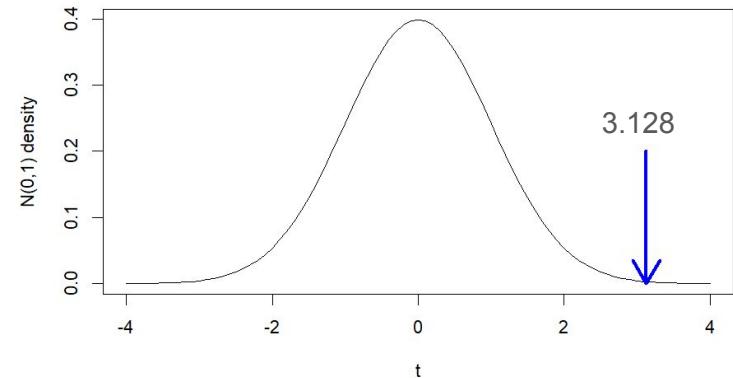
P-valor calcula quanto extremo é
este valor observado CASO A
**HIPÓTESE NULA SEJA
VERDADEIRA**

```
#generate OLS regression results for all features
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```

P-value

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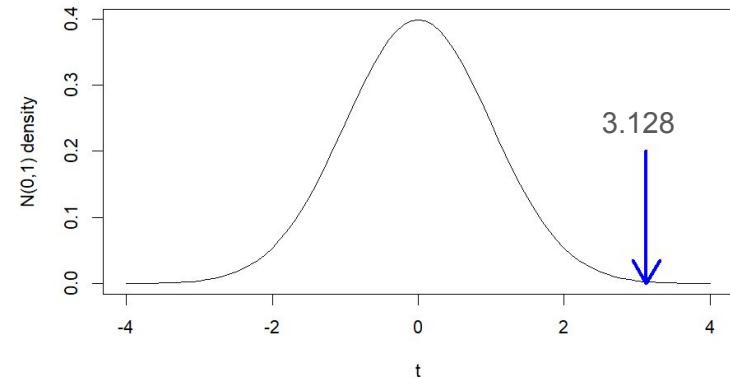
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P-valor

$$p\text{-valor} = \mathbb{P}(|t| > |t_{\text{obs}}| \mid H_0 \text{ e' verdadeira})$$

$$\mathbb{P}(|t| > 3.128 \mid H_0 \text{ e' verdadeira}) = 0.002$$

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Usando p-valor e testes

p-valor muito pequeno (menor que 0.05) $\rightarrow \beta_j^* = 0$ não é compatível com os dados

→ REJEITAMOS a hipótese nula

$$H_0 : \beta_j^* = 0$$

P-valor grande (> 0.05): Hipótese nula $\beta_j^* = 0$ é compatível com os dados.

→ ACEITAMOS a hipótese nula

Um detalhe

O valor do denominador da razão t precisa ser aprendido (σ^2 é desconhecido)

O cálculo exato do p-valor usa a distribuição t-Student com $n-(p+1)$ graus de liberdade.

Se $n-(p+1) > 30$ é praticamente idêntico a usar a $N(0,1)$

Equivalências

Existem equivalências entre o resultado do teste de hipótese e IC:

- p-valor < 0.05 se, e somente se, 0 não pertence ao IC de 95%
- Se 0 não pertence ao IC de 95%, rejeita a hipótese nula $H_0 : \beta_j^* = 0$

```
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Mais um teste

Testando se TODAS as features podem ser zeradas.

$$H_0 : \beta^* = 0$$

$$H_0 : \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0^* \\ \beta_1^* \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0^* \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

```
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Como testar?

Se todas as features tem coeficientes zero, os resíduos com ou sem elas deveriam ser similares.

Régressão sem as features → fica apenas a coluna de 1's

Projeção de Y no espaço das combinações lineares do vetor $(1, 1, \dots, 1)$:

$$\bar{y}(1, 1, \dots, 1)^t$$

```
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Df Model:	8		
Covariance Type:	nonrobust		
		$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_p x_p \approx \hat{\beta}_0 + 0x_1 + \dots + 0x_p = \hat{\beta}_0$	

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Two sum of residuals

If the null hypothesis is true:

$$H_0 : \beta^* = \mathbf{0}$$

then

$$y_i - \hat{y}_i \approx y_i - \bar{y}$$

Why? Because

$$\sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \approx \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

Compare the two sum of residuals:

$$\frac{\sum_i (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2}$$

Comparing lengths of vectors

```
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Two sum of residuals

Consider the degrees of freedom:

$$F = \frac{\sum_i (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 / (n - (p+1))}{\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2 / (n - 1)}$$

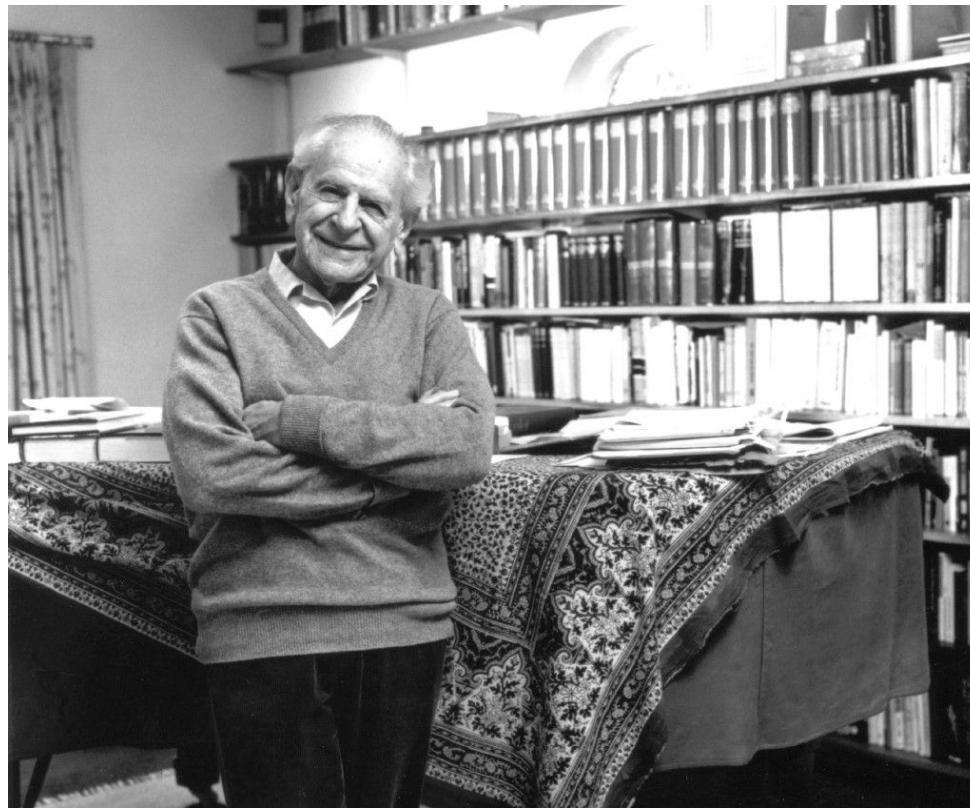
Ratio of two INDEPENDENT chi-squared distributions (divided by their degrees of freedom) has a KNOWN distribution: the F-distribution.

F for (Ronald) Fisher

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/F-distribution>

<https://www.nature.com/articles/s41437-020-00394-6#Bib1>

Um voo mais filosófico: Karl Popper



1902 - 1994

Viena → Nova Zelândia →
Inglaterra (de 46 pra frente)

Marxista na juventude

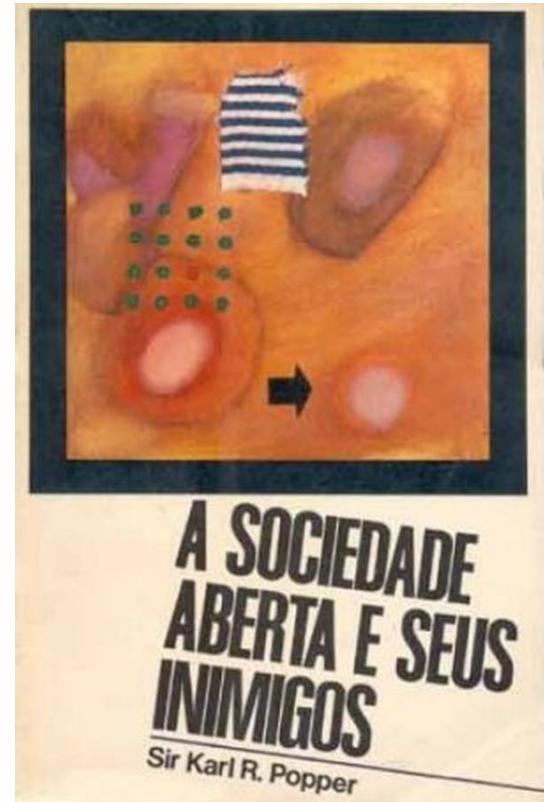
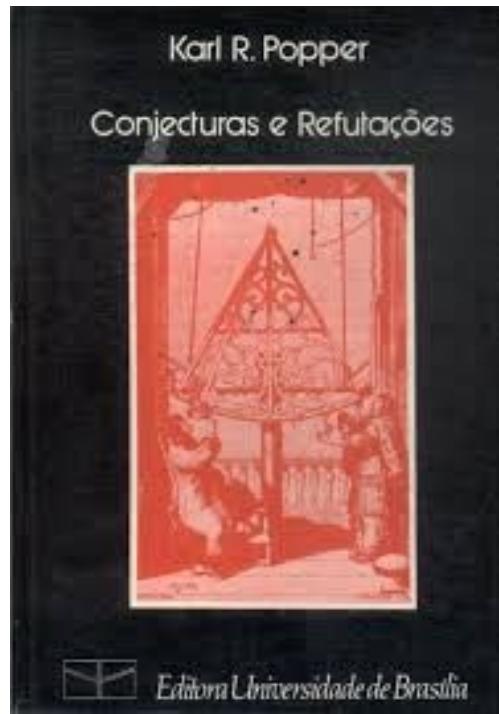
O que torna uma teoria científica?

Psicanálise e marxismo são
ciencia? A teoria de Einstein é
científica?

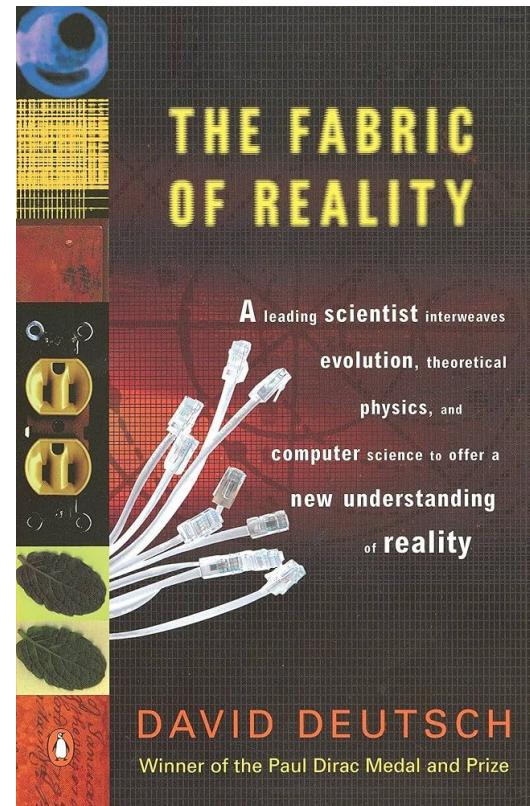
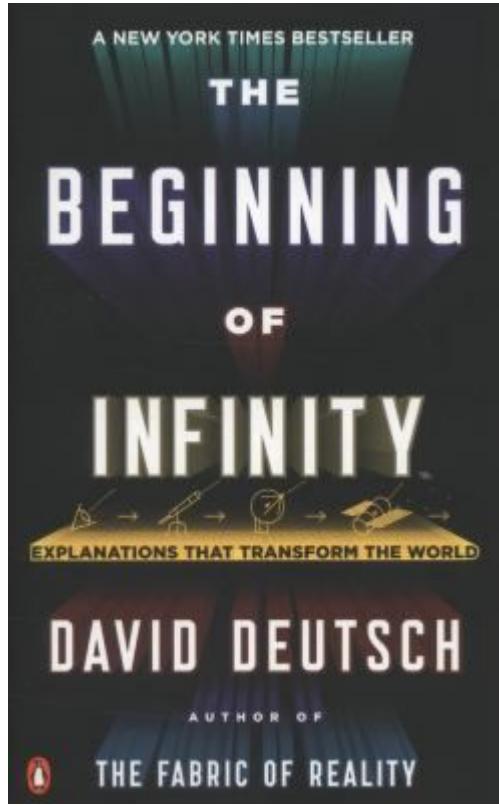
Livros em português

KARL A POPPER LÓGICA DA PESQUISA CIENTÍFICA

Editora
Universidade de Brasília



Porta-voz mais moderno: David Deutsch



TED Ideas change everything. WATCH

A new way to explain explanation
1,601,718 plays | David Deutsch | TEDGlobal 2009 • July 2009

A video still from a TED talk. David Deutsch, a man with glasses and grey hair, is standing on a stage in a white shirt, holding a small device in one hand and a piece of paper in the other. He is looking down at the paper. The background shows a dark stage with some equipment and a screen.

https://www.ted.com/talks/david_deutsch_a_new_way_to_explain_explanation

Contexto

Teorias aparentemente perfeitas mostram-se erradas:

- Teoria Newtoniana durou séculos e é' usada até hoje
- Mas foi um choque descobrir em 1920 (Einstein) que ela não era a explicação perfeita para o funcionamento do mundo físico.
- Psicanálise era um sucesso em Viena em 1920-1930. Era ciência?
- Como saber se uma teoria é científica?
- Como saber que uma teoria é correta?

Princípio da Falseabilidade

Uma forma de demarcar a ciência da não-ciência.

Uma teoria é científica se ela pode ser provada falsa.

Teste

1919: Sir Arthur Stanley Eddington and Frank Watson Dyson led two expeditions to observe a total solar eclipse. (Africa and SOBRAL, CE)

To measure how much starlight bends as it passes close to the sun.

The results confirmed Albert Einstein's theory of general relativity (light is curved by gravity)

It made Einstein a worldwide celebrity.

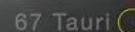
The main point: if the results were not confirmed, the theory was completely wrong, it would be FALSE.



HR1375

HR1403

Taurus



67 Tauri



65 Tauri



72 Tauri



69 Tauri

Princípio da Falseabilidade

Uma forma de demarcar a ciência da não-ciência.

Uma teoria é científica se ela pode ser provada falsa.

Para ser científica, a teoria deve ser:

- passível de ser testada
- passível de ser refutada
- se for refutada, a teoria está errada, e' falsa
- se não for refutada, não quer dizer que seja verdadeira.

Conjecturas e refutações

Nosso conhecimento científico não é aquilo que sabemos ser verdade

Mas sim, o conjunto de teorias que não conseguimos refutar.

Teorias que não podem ser testadas dessa forma não são necessariamente absurdas, mas não são científicas.

E de onde vêm as ideias científicas? Não existe um método científico para gerar ideias e teorias.