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WHAT STARTS HERE CHANGES THE WORLD

CHE384, From Data to Decisions: Measurement, Uncertainty, Analysis, and Modeling

Lecture 24

Heteroscedasticity: When Variance Varies

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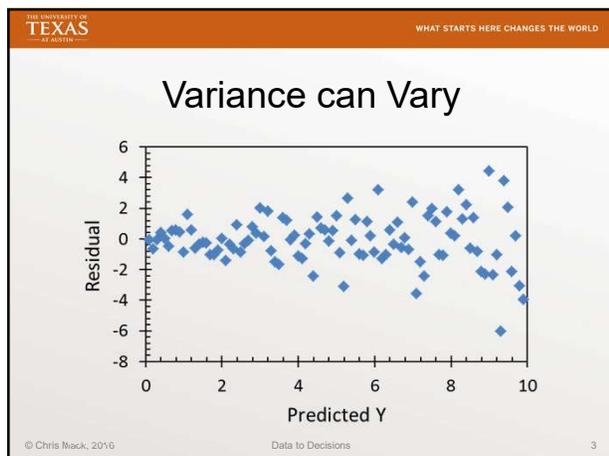
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Assumptions in OLS Regression

1. ε is a random variable that does not depend on x (i.e., the model is perfect, it properly accounts for the role of x in predicting y)
2. $E[\varepsilon_i] = 0$ (the population mean of the true residual is zero); this will always be true for a model with an intercept
3. All ε_i are independent of each other (uncorrelated for the population, but not for a sample)
4. All ε_i have the same probability density function (pdf), and thus the same variance (called homoscedasticity)
5. $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$ (the residuals, and thus the y_i , are normally distributed)
6. The values of each x_i are known exactly

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Plotting Residuals (visual inspection)

- **Plotting** residuals is the first step in detecting variation of variance
 - Plot **esr** versus each predictor variable, and versus the predicted response variable
 - Very hard to see heteroscedasticity unless there are many points
 - A plot of the absolute value of the residual is sometimes more revealing (sign doesn't matter when considering variance)

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Consequences of Heteroscedasticity

- Note that heteroscedasticity is often a by-product of other violations of assumptions
 - Wrong model, existence of outliers, non-normal errors
 - We'll assume here that only heteroscedasticity is present in our data
- Result of heteroscedasticity will be an unbiased estimator that is **inefficient**
 - The standard errors of the estimates are biased
 - **Only fairly large heteroscedasticity matters much**

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Common Ways Variance Varies

- If the experimental y -value is a mean, but the sample size is different for each calculated mean
 - $SE(\bar{y}) = \sigma/\sqrt{n}$
 - Ex: Average income vs. years of college
- Variance or standard error is a constant percentage of the y -value
- Variance has been experimentally determined for each y -value
- Some distributions naturally have variance that is a function of the mean (Poisson), or mean and variance both a function of parameters (Gamma)

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Checking the Variance

- Constant variance (variance is independent of the value of the predictor variable) is called **homoscedasticity**
- Non-constant variance (variance is not independent of the value of the predictor variable) is called **heteroscedasticity**
- Two ways to check for heteroscedasticity:
 - Independent knowledge of the variance of the measured y-values
 - Statistical tests for homoscedasticity

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Statistical Tests for Homoscedasticity

- Divide the residuals (ϵ_{SR} for fits) into two or more sub-groups (sort by magnitude of \hat{y})
 - Test to see if the sub-groups share the same variance (Null hypothesis: all groups have the same variance)
 - The **Bartlett test** compares variances; it assumes a normal distribution and is sensitive to deviations from normality
 - The **Brown-Forsythe test** (modified Levene test) compares deviations from the median; it is insensitive to departures from normality, but has somewhat less power

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Bartlett Test

- The Bartlett statistic is χ^2 distributed with k-1 degrees of freedom

$$T = \frac{(N - k) \ln s_{pool}^2 - \sum_{j=1}^k (n_j - 1) \ln s_j^2}{1 + \left(\frac{1}{3(k-1)} \right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^k \frac{1}{(n_j - 1)} \right) - 1/(N - k)}$$

N = total number of data points
 k = number of sub-groups
 n_j = sample size of the j^{th} sub-group
 s_j^2 = variance of the j^{th} sub-group

$$s_{pool}^2 = \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{(n_j - 1) s_j^2}{N - k}$$

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Bartlett Test

- For two equal-sized subgroups (e.g., after rank-ordering by \hat{y} and dividing in half),

$$T = \frac{(N - 2)^2}{N - 1} \ln \frac{s_{pool}^2}{s_1 s_2} \quad s_{pool}^2 = \frac{s_1^2 + s_2^2}{2}$$

- The null hypothesis (that the two sub-groups have equal variance) can be rejected if T is greater than the critical $\chi^2(1)$
 - For $\alpha = 0.05$, the critical value is 3.84
 - For $\alpha = 0.01$, the critical value is 6.63

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Brown-Forsythe Test

- Divide the data into two subgroups (of size n_1 and n_2), calculate the median of each group (m_1 and m_2), then the absolute deviation from the median for each data point

$$d_{i1} = |x_{i1} - m_1| \quad d_{i2} = |x_{i2} - m_2|$$
- Calculate the mean absolute deviation for each group (\bar{d}_1 and \bar{d}_2) and the variance of the absolute deviations for each group (s_{d1}^2 and s_{d2}^2)
- The pooled variance is

$$s_{pool}^2 = \frac{(n_1 - 1) s_{d1}^2 + (n_2 - 1) s_{d2}^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}$$

Morton B. Brown and Alan B. Forsythe, "Robust Tests for the Equality of Variances", *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 69(346), pp. 364-367 (Jun., 1974).

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Brown-Forsythe Test

- The studentized difference between the mean absolute deviations for each group ($\bar{d}_1 - \bar{d}_2$) is about t-distributed with $n - 2$ degrees of freedom

$$t = \frac{|\bar{d}_1 - \bar{d}_2|}{s_{pool} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}}$$
 - Assumes a not too small value of n ($n_1, n_2 > 25$)
 - Because we use deviations from the median, the statistic is insensitive to the distribution of x
 - Two tailed test, null hypothesis: constant variance

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Other Tests for Homoscedasticity

- **White test:** perform linear regression of ε_i^2 with x and test nR^2 as $\chi^2(p-1)$
- **Breusch-Pagan test:** a variation of the White test where x is replaced with any variable(s) of interest
- **Park test:** perform linear regression of $\ln(\varepsilon_i^2)$ with $\ln(x)$ and test the significance of the slope (is it significantly different from 0)

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Lecture 24: What have we learned?

- Define homoscedasticity and heteroscedasticity
- What are the consequences of heteroscedasticity to your regression?
- What are some of the causes of heteroscedasticity?
- What are the advantages of either the Bartlett test or the Brown-Forsythe test?

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