Statistics 452: Statistical Learning and Prediction

Chapter 3, Part 2: Multiple Linear Regression

Brad McNeney

2018-09-01

Multiple Linear Regression Model

Recall our general model from Chapter 2:

$$Y = f(X) + \epsilon$$

- Multiple linear regression assumes the function f is linear in $p \ge 1$ predictors $X = (X_1, \dots, X_p)$; i.e., $f(X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p$.
 - \triangleright β_0 is the intercept and
 - β_i is the slope for the *i*th predictor: A one unit increase in X_i holding all other predictors fixed is associated with a β_i increase in f.

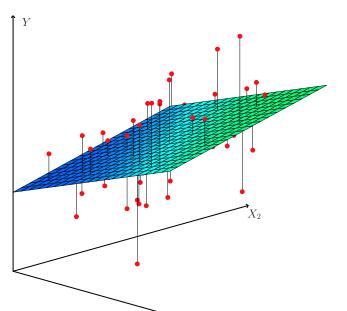
Fitting the line

- We use the method of least squares to fit the line.
- ▶ Goal: Using observed data $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ (where now x_i is a vector of length p) fit the model

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} + \ldots + \hat{\beta}_p x_{ip}$$

where \hat{y}_i is the fitted value of Y for $X = x_i$.

- ▶ The residuals are still defined as vertical distances $e_i = y_i \hat{y}_i$ (see Figure 3.4, page 73 of text).
- Least squares finds the $\hat{\beta}_0, \dots, \hat{\beta}_p$ that minimize $RSS = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$.



Advertising Example

TV

```
afit <- lm(sales ~ TV + newspaper + radio,data=advert)
summary(afit)$coefficients
##
                  Estimate Std. Error t value
                                                     Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 2.938889369 0.311908236 9.4222884 1.267295e-17
## TV
               0.045764645 0.001394897 32.8086244 1.509960e-81
             -0.001037493 0.005871010 -0.1767146 8.599151e-01
## newspaper
## radio
          0.188530017 0.008611234 21.8934961 1.505339e-54
confint(afit)
##
                    2.5 %
                          97.5 %
## (Intercept) 2.32376228 3.55401646
```

0.04301371 0.04851558

newspaper -0.01261595 0.01054097 ## radio 0.17154745 0.20551259

- ► We are 95% confident that an increase of \$1000 in TV advertising, holding newspaper and radio ads fixed, is associated with an increase in sales of between 43 and 49 units.
 - ► Compare to interval estimate (42,53) from simple linear regression.

Advertising Example: Affect of Newspaper Ads

```
afitN <- lm(sales ~ newspaper, data=advert)
summary(afitN)$coefficients</pre>
```

```
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 12.3514071 0.62142019 19.876096 4.713507e-49
## newspaper 0.0546931 0.01657572 3.299591 1.148196e-03
```

summary(afit)\$coefficients

```
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 2.938889369 0.311908236 9.4222884 1.267295e-17
## TV 0.045764645 0.001394897 32.8086244 1.509960e-81
## newspaper -0.001037493 0.005871010 -0.1767146 8.599151e-01
## radio 0.188530017 0.008611234 21.8934961 1.505339e-54
```

Newspaper ads are significantly associated with sales in the simple but not the multiple regression.

Confounding

- The effect of newspaper is different depending on whether or not we include TV and radio ads in the model.
 - ▶ TV and radio are said to **confound** the newspaper effect.
- Correlation between radio and newspaper is behind the confounding.
 - More radio ads, more sales. More radio adds more newspaper ads. ⇒ More newspaper ads, more sales.

cor(advert)

```
## TV radio newspaper sales
## TV 1.00000000 0.05480866 0.05664787 0.7822244
## radio 0.05480866 1.0000000 0.35410375 0.5762226
## newspaper 0.05664787 0.35410375 1.00000000 0.2282990
## sales 0.78222442 0.57622257 0.22829903 1.0000000
```

Testing the Overall Effect of Predictors

 Hypothesis of no association between the outcome and the predictors is

$$H_0: \beta_1 = \cdots = \beta_p = 0$$

and the alternative hypothesis is

 H_a : at least one β_j is non-zero

- ▶ We test H_0 vs H_a with an F test. The F statistic is MSM/MSE, where
 - ▶ MSM = SSM/p, with SSM = TSS RSS, and
 - ► MSE = RSS/(n-p-1).
- ▶ F is compared to an F-distribution with p numerator and n-p-1 denominator df.

Advertising Example

summary(afit)

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = sales ~ TV + newspaper + radio, data = advert)
##
## Residuals:
               1Q Median
      Min
                                     Max
## -8.8277 -0.8908 0.2418 1.1893 2.8292
##
## Coefficients:
##
               Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 2.938889 0.311908 9.422 <2e-16 ***
## TV
              0.045765 0.001395 32.809 <2e-16 ***
## newspaper -0.001037 0.005871 -0.177 0.86
## radio
              0.188530 0.008611 21.893 <2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 1.686 on 196 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.8972, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8956
## F-statistic: 570.3 on 3 and 196 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

There is strong evidence that TV, radio and newspaper advertising is associated with sales.

Testing the Effect of a Subset of Predictors

- ▶ E.G., suppose we are interested in testing H_0 : $\beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$ vs H_a : β_2 and β_3 are not both zero.
- ▶ We do a multiple-partial F test.
- ▶ The test statistic is

$$\frac{(RSS(red) - RSS(full))/q}{RSS(full)/(n-p-1)}$$

where

- ► *RSS*(*red*) is the RSS from the reduced model,
- ▶ RSS(full) is the RSS from the full model, and
- q is the difference in the number of model parmeters in the two models.
- ▶ The test statistic is compared to an F-distribution with q numerator and n p 1 denominator df.

Advertising Example

```
afitTV <- lm(sales ~ TV, data=advert) # reduced model
anova(afitTV,afit)</pre>
```

```
## Analysis of Variance Table
##
## Model 1: sales ~ TV
## Model 2: sales ~ TV + newspaper + radio
## Res.Df RSS Df Sum of Sq F Pr(>F)
## 1 198 2102.53
## 2 196 556.83 2 1545.7 272.04 < 2.2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1</pre>
```

► There is strong evidence that newspaper and radio ads are associated with sales, adjusting for TV ads.

Variable Selection

- ▶ Multiple-partial F-tests can be used for selecting subsets of variables that explain the association between *Y* and *X*.
- ▶ Alternately, we can think of variable selection as selecting f(X) to avoid over-fitting.
- We will study modern methods for variable selection in Chapter 6.
- ► Here we mention three classical approaches, forward selection, backward selection and mixed (stepwise) selection.

Selection Strategies

- 1. Forward selection. Start with a smallest model (e.g., null model) and try to add terms up to some largest model.
- 2. Backward selection. Start with a largest model and try to drop terms, down to some smallest model.
- 3. Stepwise selection. Try adding *and* dropping terms, staying between a smallest and largest model.
- ▶ (1-3) can be described in terms of adding (ADD1) and dropping (DROP1) steps.

ADD1 and DROP1

► ADD1:

- ▶ Given a current model (subset of X) M_c , try to find a model term *not* in M_c that will improve the model.
- Whether or not a particular term improves the model is a model comparison.
- If can't find a term to add that will improve the model, do nothing.

DROP1:

- ▶ Given a current model M_c , find a term in M_c that can be dropped to improve the model.
- Whether or not a particular term improves the model is a model comparison.
- If can't find a term to drop that will improve the model, do nothing.
- Both ADD1 and DROP1 make model comparisons and need to know when adding/dropping terms is an improvement.

Model Comparisons

- In Chapter 6 we will consider several types of comparisons of M_{full} to M_{red}.
- Given what we know now, we could use partial F tests or t tests of the null hypothesis that the coefficient being added/dropped is zero vs the two-sided alternative.

Forward Selection

- Starting from the smallest model, apply ADD1 to try adding a term.
- ▶ If we can add a term, do so. Othewise stop.
- Repeat until we stop or reach the largest model.

Backward Selection

- ► Starting from the largest model, apply DROP1 to try dropping a term.
- ▶ If we can drop a term, do so. Othewise stop.
- Repeat until we stop or reach the smallest model.

Stepwise Selection

- Starting from either the largest or smallest model, apply ADD1 and DROP1 to try to find a better model
 - ▶ But never add to largest or drop from smallest models.
- ▶ If we can either add or drop a term, do so. Othewise stop.
- Repeat until we stop or reach the model at the opposite extreme.
 - ► That is, if we reach the smallest having started from the largest, or if we reach the largest having started from the smallest.

Advertising Example

- ▶ Output from 1m summary makes it easiest to use *t* tests and backward selection.
 - ▶ Though not possible if p > n. More on this in Chapter 6.

```
afit <- lm(sales ~ TV + newspaper + radio,data=advert)
summary(afit)$coefficients
##
                  Estimate Std. Error t value
                                                      Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 2.938889369 0.311908236 9.4222884 1.267295e-17
## TV
               0.045764645 0.001394897 32.8086244 1.509960e-81
## newspaper -0.001037493 0.005871010 -0.1767146 8.599151e-01
## radio
                0.188530017 0.008611234 21.8934961 1.505339e-54
afit2<-lm(sales ~ TV + radio,data=advert)
summary(afit2)$coefficients
                Estimate Std. Error t value
                                                   Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept) 2.92109991 0.294489678 9.919193 4.565557e-19
## TV
              0.04575482 0.001390356 32.908708 5.436980e-82
## radio
              0 18799423 0 008039973 23 382446 9 776972e-59
```

Model Fit

 \triangleright Can use R^2 to describe the fit of the model

```
summary(afit2)$r.squared
```

[1] 0.8971943

Compare with summary(afit)\$r.squared

► TV and radio advertising expenditures explain about 90% of the variation in sales.

Predictions

- ▶ The fitted model can be used to make predictions.
- ▶ For value x_0 of X, the prediction is

$$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{01} + \ldots + \hat{\beta}_p x_{0p}$$

```
newdat <- data.frame(TV=150,radio=20)
predict(afit2,newdata=newdat)</pre>
```

```
## 1
## 13.54421
```

Sources of Uncertainty

Three sources:

- 1. Model bias: The model f(X) may be wrong. We will ignore this for now.
- 2. Estimation: Our \hat{f} is based on $\hat{\beta}_1$, ldots, $\hat{\beta}_p$, which will not be equal to β_1, \ldots, β_p . This is part of the reducible error.
- 3. Irreducible error: $Y = f(X) + \epsilon$, and so even if $\hat{f} = f$, predictions will not be perfect.
- ▶ We construct confidence intervals for f(X) to quantify estimation uncertainty, and prediction intervals to quantify estimation uncertainty plus irreducible error.

Confidence Intervals for f(X).

- For fixed X, f(X) is a function of parameters, and so is a parameter.
- ▶ We can construct a confidence interval for f(X) based on the sampling distribution of $\hat{f}(X)$.
 - Details are not important. We will use R.

```
predict(afit2,newdata=newdat,interval="confidence",level=0.95)

## fit lwr upr
## 1 13.54421 13.30387 13.78454
```

▶ We are 95% confident that the average sales for cities in which there are \$150,000 in TV ads and \$20,000 in radio ads is between 13,304 and 13,785.

Prediction Intervals

- Prediction intervals are constructed to contain a given proportion of future observations.
- ▶ The intervals must account for both the reducible error from estimating f and the irreducible error ϵ .
 - ▶ Details are not important. We will use R.

```
predict(afit2,newdata=newdat,interval="prediction",level=0.95)

## fit lwr upr
## 1 13.54421 10.21973 16.86868
```

▶ We believe that 95% of future observations of cities with \$150,000 in TV ads and \$20,000 in radio ads will have sales between 10,220 and 16,869.