

# Multiple Regression II

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Linear Regression Models - Lecture 8

## Content: ALRM Book Chapter 7 (Sec. 7.1-7.6)

- Extra Sums of Squares.
- Tests for regression coefficients using extra sums of squares.
- Coefficients of partial determination.
- Standardized Multiple Regression Model.
- Multicollinearity and its effects.

# General Linear Model

- *Independent responses* of the form  $Y_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma^2)$ , where

$$\mu_i = \mathbf{X}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

for some known vector of *explanatory* variables  $\mathbf{X}_i^\top = (X_{i1}, \dots, X_{ip})$ .

- Unknown *parameter* vector  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_0, \dots, \beta_{P-1})^\top$ , where  $P < N$ .
- This is the *linear model* and is usually written as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

(in vector notation) where

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_N \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1^\top \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_N^\top \end{pmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{P-1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_N \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $\varepsilon_i \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$ , for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ .

# Sum of Squares Decomposition

- Recall the sums of square decomposition:

$$SST = SSR + SSE,$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2.$$

- Using matrix notation

$$\mathbf{Y}^T(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{J}/N)\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{Y}^T(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y} + \mathbf{Y}^T(\mathbf{H} - \mathbf{J}/N)\mathbf{Y}.$$

- As usual  $SST$  has  $(N - 1)$  degrees of freedom associated with it.
- The term  $SSE$  has  $(N - P)$  degrees of freedom.
- The term  $SSR$  has  $(P - 1)$  degrees of freedom.

# Extra sums of squares

- An *extra sums of squares* measures the *marginal reduction* in the *SSE* when one or more explanatory variables are *added* to the regression model.
- They are useful in a variety of tests where the question of interest is whether certain explanatory variables can be dropped from the regression model.

## Illustration

- Consider the following two regression models:
  - I.  $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \varepsilon_i$
  - II.  $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \varepsilon_i$
- Model II contains one additional variable compared to Model I.

# Sums of squares

- Since  $SSE = \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$  and  $SSR = \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2$  are different depending on which explanatory variables are include in the model, we use the following notation:

$SSR(X_1)$  – the  $SSR$  for a model with only  $X_1$ .

$SSE(X_1)$  – the  $SSE$  for a model with only  $X_1$ .

$SSR(X_1, X_2)$  – the  $SSR$  for a model with  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ .

$SSE(X_1, X_2)$  – the  $SSE$  for a model with  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ .

## Sums of squares

- $SST = SSR(X_1) + SSE(X_1)$
- $SST = SSR(X_1, X_2) + SSE(X_1, X_2)$
- We also know that

$$SSR(X_1, X_2) \geq SSR(X_1)$$

and

$$SSE(X_1, X_2) \leq SSE(X_1).$$

# Extra sums of squares

- $SSR(X_1)$  measures the contribution by including  $X_1$  alone in the model.
- $SSR(X_2|X_1)$  measures the marginal effect of adding  $X_2$  to a model that already includes  $X_1$ .
- The *difference* between the  $SSE$ 's is called an *extra sum of squares* and is denoted by

$$SSR(X_2|X_1) = SSE(X_1) - SSE(X_1, X_2).$$

- The extra sum of squares  $SSR(X_2|X_1)$  can equivalently be viewed as the *marginal increase* in the regression sum of squares:

$$SSR(X_2|X_1) = SSR(X_1, X_2) - SSR(X_1).$$

Verify at home!

# Generalization

- The notation can easily be generalized to include more than two variables.
- For example we can write:

$$\begin{aligned} SSR(X_3|X_1, X_2) &= SSR(X_1, X_2, X_3) - SSR(X_1, X_2) \\ &= SSE(X_1, X_2) - SSE(X_1, X_2, X_3) \\ SSR(X_2, X_3|X_1) &= SSR(X_1, X_2, X_3) - SSR(X_1) \\ &= SSE(X_1) - SSE(X_1, X_2, X_3) \end{aligned}$$

- When dealing with 3 or more variables  $SSR$  can be decomposed in a variety of ways. For example:

$$\begin{aligned} SSR(X_1, X_2, X_3) &= SSR(X_1) + SSR(X_2|X_1) + SSR(X_3|X_1, X_2) \\ &= SSR(X_2) + SSR(X_1|X_2) + SSR(X_3|X_1, X_2) \\ &= SSR(X_1) + SSR(X_2, X_3|X_1) \end{aligned}$$



- Consider the following regression models:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \varepsilon_i$$

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \varepsilon_i$$

- $Y_i$ 's are the same in both models, hence the two SST's are of course equal but

$$SST = SSR(X_1) + SSE(X_1)$$

$$SST = SSR(X_1, X_2) + SSE(X_1, X_2)$$

- We can re-express the latter term:

$$SST = SSR(X_1) + SSE(X_1)$$

$$= SSR(X_1) + SSR(X_2|X_1) + SSE(X_1, X_2)$$

# ANOVA Table

- The ANOVA table corresponding to the model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \beta_3 X_{i3} + \varepsilon_i$$

Table: ANOVA Table

Source of Variation	SS	df
Regression	$SSR(X_1, X_2, X_3)$	$P - 1 = 3$
Error	$SSE(X_1, X_2, X_3)$	$N - P = N - 4$
Total	$SST$	$N - 1$

Table: Modified ANOVA Table

Source of Variation	SS	df
Regression	$SSR(X_1, X_2, X_3)$	3
$X_1$	$SSR(X_1)$	1
$X_2 X_1$	$SSR(X_2 X_1)$	1
$X_3 X_1, X_2$	$SSR(X_3 X_1, X_2)$	1
Error	$SSE(X_1, X_2, X_3)$	$N - 4$
Total	$SST$	$N - 1$

- *Mean squares* are constructed as usual. For example:

$$\begin{aligned}MSR(X_2|X_1) &= \frac{SSR(X_2|X_1)}{1} \\MSR(X_2, X_3|X_1) &= \frac{SSR(X_2, X_3|X_1)}{2}\end{aligned}$$

- Extra sums of squares occur in a variety of tests where the question of interest is whether certain explanatory variables can be *dropped* from the regression model.

## General Linear Test

The general linear test approach has three parts

- Compute the full model.
- Compute a *reduced model* corresponding to the null hypothesis.
- Compute a test statistic that compares the two models.

- In the general linear test, the test statistic is

$$F^* = \frac{\frac{SSE(R) - SSE(F)}{df_R - df_F}}{\frac{SSE(F)}{df_F}}$$

- Here  $df_R$  and  $df_F$  are the degrees of freedom associated with the reduced and full model error sums of square respectively.
- When  $H_0$  holds  $F^* \sim F_{df_R - df_F, df_F}$ .

# Testing individual coefficients

- Consider the following regression model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \beta_3 X_{i3} + \varepsilon_i$$

- Suppose we want to test:  $H_0 : \beta_3 = 0$  versus  $H_a : \beta_3 \neq 0$ .
- In the full model,  $SSE(F) = SSE(X_1, X_2, X_3)$ ;  $df_F = N - 4$ .
- In the reduced model

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \varepsilon_i,$$

$$SSE(R) = SSE(X_1, X_2); df_R = N - 3.$$

- Thus,

$$F^* = \frac{\frac{SSE(R) - SSE(F)}{df_R - df_F}}{\frac{SSE(F)}{df_F}} = \frac{\frac{SSR(X_3|X_1, X_2)}{1}}{\frac{SSE(X_1, X_2, X_3)}{N - 4}} = \frac{MSR(X_3|X_1, X_2)}{MSE(X_1, X_2, X_3)}$$

- Compare  $F^*$  with the  $F_{1, N-4}$  distribution.

# Testing subsets of coefficients

- Consider the following regression model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \beta_3 X_{i3} + \varepsilon_i$$

- Test  $H_0 : \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$  versus  $H_a$ : *Not Both equal to 0*.
- In the full model  $SSE(F) = SSE(X_1, X_2, X_3)$ ;  $df_F = N - 4$ .
- In the reduced model  $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \varepsilon_i$ ,  $SSE(R) = SSE(X_1)$ ;  $df_R = N - 2$
- Thus,

$$F^* = \frac{\frac{SSE(R) - SSE(F)}{df_R - df_F}}{\frac{SSE(F)}{df_F}} = \frac{\frac{SSR(X_2, X_3 | X_1)}{2}}{\frac{SSE(X_1, X_2, X_3)}{N - 4}} = \frac{MSR(X_2, X_3 | X_1)}{MSE(X_1, X_2, X_3)}.$$

- Compare  $F^*$  with the  $F_{2, N-4}$  distribution.

- When testing whether a single  $\beta_k$  equals 0, we can use *either* a  $t$ -test or a general linear  $F$ -test.
- Both tests will give equivalent results.
- When testing whether several  $\beta_k$  equal 0, only the general linear  $F$ -test is available.
- $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_{p-1} = 0$  – use the  $F$ -test.
- $H_0 : \beta_k = 0$  – use either the  $t$ -test or the  $F$ -test.
- $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$  – use the  $F$ -test.
- In the special case of simple linear regression the  $t$ -test allows for a *one-sided* alternative hypothesis, while the  $F$ -test only allows for *two-sided* alternative hypothesis.



- Consider the following regression model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \beta_3 X_{i3} + \varepsilon_i$$

- Suppose we want to test the hypothesis:

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 \quad \text{versus} \quad H_a : \beta_1 \neq \beta_2.$$

- Compare the full model with a reduced one.
- Full model:  $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \beta_3 X_{i3} + \varepsilon_i$
- Reduced model:  $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (X_{i1} + X_{i2}) + \beta_3 X_{i3} + \varepsilon_i$
- Use the general linear test statistic with 1 and  $N - 4$  degrees of freedom.

- Consider the following regression model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \beta_3 X_{i3} + \varepsilon_i$$

- Suppose we want to test the hypothesis:

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = 2, \beta_2 = 4 \quad \text{versus} \quad H_a : \text{not both equalities hold.}$$

- Compare the full model with a reduced one.
- Full model:  $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \beta_3 X_{i3} + \varepsilon_i$
- Reduced model:  $Y_i - 2X_{i1} - 4X_{i2} = \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_{i3} + \varepsilon_i$
- Use the general linear test statistic with 2 and  $N - 4$  degrees of freedom.

# Coefficient of Partial Determination

- The *coefficient of multiple determination*,  $R^2$ , measures the proportionate reduction in the variation of  $Y$  achieved by introducing all of the  $X$  variables into the model.
- A *coefficient of partial determination* measures the marginal contribution of a single  $X$  variable when all the others are already included in the model.

## Illustration

- Consider the following regression model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \varepsilon_i$$

- The relative marginal reduction in the variation of  $Y$  associated with  $X_1$  when  $X_2$  is already in the model is given by:

$$\frac{SSE(X_2) - SSE(X_1, X_2)}{SSE(X_2)} = \frac{SSR(X_1|X_2)}{SSE(X_2)}.$$

# Coefficient of Partial Determination

- Coefficient of partial determination:

$$R_{Y1|2}^2 = \frac{SSR(X_1|X_2)}{SSE(X_2)}$$

- Entries to the left of | show the response variable and the  $X$  variable being added.
- Entries to the right show the  $X$  variables already in the model.
- Other examples:

$$R_{Y1|23}^2 = \frac{SSR(X_1|X_2, X_3)}{SSE(X_2, X_3)}$$
$$R_{Y4|123}^2 = \frac{SSR(X_4|X_1, X_2, X_3)}{SSE(X_1, X_2, X_3)}$$

# Coefficient of Partial Correlation

- The *square root* of a coefficient of partial determination is called a coefficient of partial correlation.
- It is given the same sign as the corresponding regression coefficient in the fitted regression function.
- It is used in variable selection algorithms (discussed later).

# Numerical Precision Errors

- Numerical precision errors can occur when
  - (1) the predictor variables have substantially different magnitudes
  - (2)  $(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$  is poorly conditioned near singular : multicollinearity
- Solutions
  - (1) Standardized multiple regression (Correlation Transformation).
  - (2) Regularization (Ridge regression).

# Standardized Multiple Regression

- Lack of comparability of regression coefficients

$$\hat{Y} = 200 + 20000X_1 + 0.2X_2$$

$Y$  in dollars,  $X_1$  in thousand dollars,  $X_2$  in cents.

- Which is most important predictor?
- If  $X_1$  increases 1,000 dollars, then  $Y$  increases 20,000 dollars
- If  $X_2$  increases 1,000 dollars, then  $Y$  also increases 20,000 dollars
- Solution:
  - centering and scaling

$$Y_i^* = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-1}} \frac{Y_i - \bar{Y}}{s_Y}, \quad \text{where} \quad s_Y = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}{N-1}},$$

and, for  $k = 1, \dots, P-1$ ,

$$X_{i,k}^* = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-1}} \frac{X_{i,k} - \bar{X}_k}{s_{X_k}}, \quad \text{where} \quad s_{X_k} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_{i,k} - \bar{X}_k)^2}{N-1}}.$$

- it makes all entries in  $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$  matrix for the transformed variables fall between  $-1$  and  $1$  inclusive. Hence, it is also called Correlation Transformation.

# Standardized Regression Model

- The regression model using the transformed variables:

$$Y_i^* = \beta_1 X_{i,1}^* + \beta_2 X_{i,2}^* + \dots + \beta_{P-1} X_{i,P-1}^* + \varepsilon_i^*$$

- Notice that there is no need for intercept.
- We can set up a standard linear regression problem ( $\mathbf{X}^*$  is without the column of ones)

$$\mathbf{X}^{*T} \mathbf{X}^* \mathbf{b}^* = \mathbf{X}^{*T} \mathbf{Y}^*$$

and solve it to get

$$\mathbf{b}^* = (b_1^*, \dots, b_{P-1}^*)^T$$

- $\mathbf{b}^*$  can be related to the solution to the untransformed regression problem through the relationship

$$b_k = \left( \frac{s_Y}{s_{X_k}} \right) b_k^*, \text{ for } k = 1, \dots, P-1$$

$$b_0 = \bar{Y} - b_1 \bar{X}_1 - \dots - b_{P-1} \bar{X}_{P-1}.$$

Proof: ( $P = 2$  case), take the original regression function:  $Y_i = b_0 + b_1 X_{i,1}$ , then

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N-1}} \frac{Y_i - \bar{Y}}{s_Y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-1} s_Y} \underbrace{(b_0 - \bar{Y} + b_1 \bar{X}_1)}_{=0} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-1}} \frac{s_{X_1}}{s_Y} b_1 \frac{(X_{i,1} - \bar{X}_1)}{s_{X_1}}.$$



# Multicollinearity

- In multiple regression, the hope is that the explanatory variables  $\mathbf{X}_k$ , for  $k = 1, \dots, P - 1$ , are highly correlated with the response variable  $\mathbf{Y}$ .
- However, it is not desirable for the explanatory variables  $\mathbf{X}_k$ , for  $k = 1, \dots, P - 1$ , to be *correlated* with one another.
- *Multicollinearity* exists when two or more of the explanatory variables  $\mathbf{X}_k$ , for  $k = 1, \dots, P - 1$ , used in the regression model are highly correlated and provide redundant information about the response  $\mathbf{Y}$ .

# Uncorrelated Variables

- Sometimes a set of explanatory variables are *uncorrelated*
- In this case the regression coefficient for  $X_1$  is the *same* whether only  $X_1$  is included in the model or both  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are included.
- Also, the relationships  $SSR(X_1|X_2) = SSR(X_1)$  and  $SSR(X_1|X_2) = SSR(X_1)$  hold.
- When the explanatory variables are uncorrelated, the effects ascribed to each one of them is the same no matter which of the other variables are included in the model.

# Problems When Variables Are Correlated

Multicollinearity among the explanatory variables leads to the following problems:

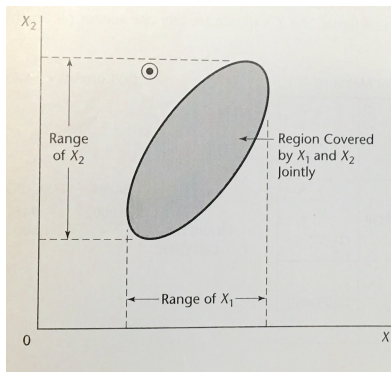
- The parameter estimates are *unstable*.
- The regression coefficients are not *interpretable*.
- The standard deviation of the regression coefficients  $s\{\mathbf{b}\} = \sqrt{MSE * \text{diag}((\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1})}$  is disproportionately *large*.
  - multicollinearity implies that some of the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$  are close to 0,
  - $(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} = (\mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{D} \mathbf{C})^{-1} = (\mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{D}^{-1} \mathbf{C})$  ( recall that  $\mathbf{C}^{-1} = \mathbf{C}^T$  )
  - hence, the same eigenvalues of the inverse matrix are very large.
- The estimated regression coefficient *may not be individually significant* even though they are statistically related to the response.

# Signs of Multicollinearity

Some typical signs of multicollinearity:

- There are *large changes* in the estimated regression coefficients when an explanatory variable is added or deleted.
- We obtain *non-significant* results in individual tests on the regression coefficients for important explanatory variables.
- We obtain estimated regression coefficients with an *opposite sign* from what was expected from theoretical considerations or prior experience.

# Caution About Hidden Extrapolations



- When one estimates a mean response or predicts a new observation in multiple regression, one needs to be particularly careful that the estimate or prediction does not fall outside the scope of the model.
- It is easy to spot this extrapolation when there are only two predictor variables, but it becomes much more difficult when the number of predictor variables is large and they are correlated.
- We will revisit this topic for more than two predictors variables.