# Regression: model development

ENVX2001 Applied Statistical Methods

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## Outline

- Variable selection
- Partial F-test
- Another example: Bird abundance
- Other Assumptions
- Backward elimination
- Summary
- Next lecture
- Thanks!

# Variable selection

"The hardest thing to learn in life is which bridge to cross and which to burn."

- David Russell

### Workflow

- 1. Model development
  - Explore: visualise, summarise
  - Transform predictors: linearise, reduce skewness/leverage
  - Model: fit, check assumptions, interpret, transform. Repeat.
- 2. Variable selection
  - VIF: remove predictors with high variance inflation factor
  - Model selection: stepwise selection, AIC, principle of parsimony, assumption checks
- 3. Predictive modelling
  - Predict: Use the model to predict new data
  - Validate: Evaluate the model's performance

## Previously on ENVX2001...

We fitted a multiple linear regression model to the data.

```
Call:
lm(formula = log(Ozone) ~ Temp + Solar.R + Wind, data = airquality)
Residuals:
    Min
              1Q Median 3Q
                                      Max
-2.06193 -0.29970 -0.00231 0.30756 1.23578
Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -0.2621323 0.5535669 -0.474 0.636798
Temp
       0.0491711 0.0060875 8.077 1.07e-12 ***
Solar.R 0.0025152 0.0005567 4.518 1.62e-05 ***
Wind
      -0.0615625 0.0157130 -3.918 0.000158 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 0.5086 on 107 degrees of freedom
  (42 observations deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.6644, Adjusted R-squared: 0.655
```

$$\widehat{log(Ozone)} = -0.262 + 0.0492 \cdot Temp + 0.00252 \cdot Solar.R - 0.0616 \cdot Wind$$

### Question

$$\widehat{log(Ozone)} = -0.262 + 0.0492 \cdot Temp + 0.00252 \cdot Solar.R - 0.0616 \cdot Wind$$

Are all the variables/predictors needed?

### **Principles**

A good model:

- Has only *useful* predictors: principle of parsimony
- Has no redundant predictors: principle of orthogonality (no multicollinearity)
- Is interpretable (principle of transparency; last week), or predicts well (principle of accuracy; next week)

# On the principle of parsimony

- Ockham's razor: "Entities should not be multiplied unnecessarily."
- One should prefer the simplest explanation that fits the data if multiple explanations are equally good.

"It is vain to do with more what can be done with fewer."

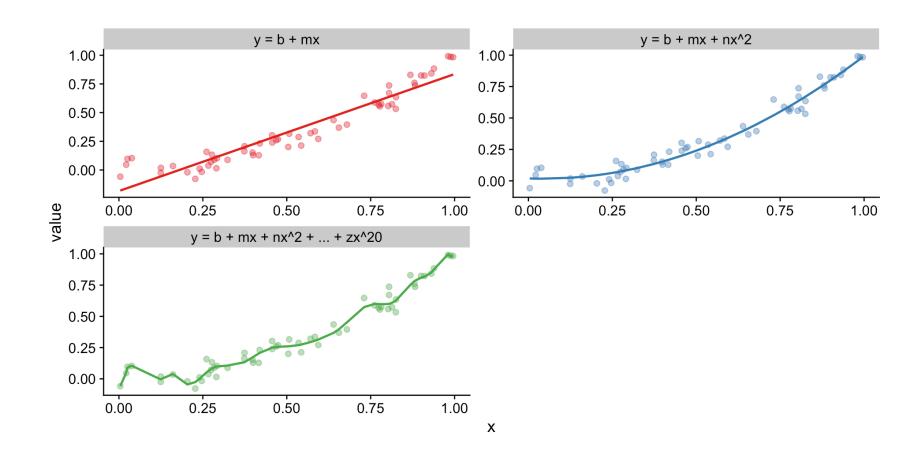
- William of Ockham (1287-1347)

# What happens when we add more predictors to a model?

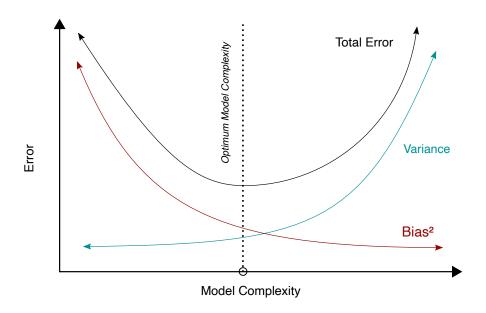
A simple example using polynomial regression.

- The more predictors we include, the more variance we can explain.
- However, the more predictors and complexity we include, the more overfitted the model becomes.

#### ► Code



### Variance-bias trade-off



In concept...

- As complexity increases, bias  $(\sum O \bar{P})$  decreases (the mean of a model's predictions is closer to the true mean).
- As complexity increases, prediction variance  $(\frac{\sum P \bar{P}}{n})$  decreases.
- The **goal** is to find a model that isn't too simple or complex with a good balance between bias and variance.

 $Mean Squared Error = Bias^2 + Variance + Immeasureable Error$ 

### How do we determine the best model?

Some model quality measures you should be familiar with:

- $\mathbb{R}^2$ : variance explained by the model with a maximum value of 1 = 100%
- **Residual standard error**: the mean error of the observed values from the predicted/fitted values (i.e. line of best fit).
- **Partial F-test**: compare the full model to a reduced model, works well when the number of predictors is small and simple models.

Some other commonly used measures:

- Information criteria: AIC, BIC, etc. (more on this later).
- **Error measures**: useful when the aim for the model is to **predict**. The best model has the smallest residual error (or other similar metrics).

## What models do we try?

- **Everything**: all possible combinations of predictors.
  - ightharpoonup Each variable can either be included or excluded so the number of possible combinations is  $2^n$
  - $\rightarrow$  e.g. 3 predictors  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  could have 8 models
    - ightharpoonup No variables i.e. mean y the null hypothesis
    - $\rightarrow$  1 variable:  $x_1$ ;  $x_2$ ;  $x_3$
    - $\Rightarrow$  2 variables:  $x_1 + x_2$ ;  $x_1 + x_3$ ;  $x_2 + x_3$
    - $\Rightarrow$  3 variables:  $x_1 + x_2 + x_3$
  - So\_not recommended
- **Stepwise regression**: add/remove predictors one at a time until removing a variable makes the model worse.
- Select meaningful predictors based on domain knowledge, correlation, or significance.
- More complex approaches are available for big data and machine learning.

## Air quality: can we reduce the number of predictors?

#### Full model:

```
Call:
lm(formula = log(Ozone) ~ Temp + Solar.R + Wind, data = airquality)
Residuals:
    Min
             10 Median 30
                                    Max
-2.06193 -0.29970 -0.00231 0.30756 1.23578
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -0.2621323 0.5535669 -0.474 0.636798
Temp
       0.0491711 0.0060875 8.077 1.07e-12 ***
Solar.R 0.0025152 0.0005567 4.518 1.62e-05 ***
      Wind
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 0.5086 on 107 degrees of freedom
  (42 observations deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.6644,
                          Adjusted R-squared: 0.655
```

- Wind has the highest p-value, can we remove it?
- Full model: Multiple R-squared = 0.66, Adjusted R-squared = 0.66

• Full model: multiple R-squared = 0.66, adjusted R-squared = 0.66

#### Reduced model: take out Wind

```
Call:
lm(formula = log(Ozone) ~ Temp + Solar.R, data = airquality)
Residuals:
    Min
              1Q Median 3Q
                                      Max
-1.83864 -0.33727 0.03444 0.29877 1.38210
Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -1.7646527 0.4249016 -4.153 6.58e-05 ***
Temp 0.0607386 0.0056663 10.719 < 2e-16 ***
Solar.R 0.0024651 0.0005924 4.161 6.38e-05 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 0.5413 on 108 degrees of freedom
  (42 observations deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.6163, Adjusted R-squared: 0.6092
F-statistic: 86.73 on 2 and 108 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

- Reduced model: multiple R-squared = 0.62, adjusted R-squared = 0.61
- Adjusted R-squared is lower, but is a 4% difference "worth it"? Is it significant?

### The R<sup>2</sup> value

The R-squared value is the proportion of variance explained by the model.

$$R^2 = rac{SS_{reg}}{SS_{tot}} = 1 - rac{SS_{res}}{SS_{tot}}$$

The adjusted R-squared value is the proportion of variance explained by the model, adjusted for the number of predictors.

$$R_{adj}^2 = 1 - rac{SS_{res}}{SS_{tot}} rac{n-1}{n-p-1}$$

where n is the number of observations and p is the number of predictors.

# Partial F-test

### Partial F-test

How much of an improvement in adjusted  $R^2$  is worth having an extra variable / more complex model?

- We can perform a hypothesis test to determine whether the improvement is significant.
- The F-test measures the full model against an intercept only model in terms of explained variance (residual sum of squares).
- The **partial F-test** compares the full model to a reduced model in terms of the trade-off between model complexity and variance explained (i.e. **adjusted**  $R^2$ ).
  - $ightharpoonup H_0$ : no significant difference between the full and reduced models
  - $ightharpoonup H_1$ : the full model is significantly better than the reduced model
  - Calculating the F-stat:

$$F = ig|rac{SS_{reg,full} - SS_{reg,reduced}}{(df_{res,full} - df_{res,reduced})}ig| \div MS_{res,full}$$

### Partial F-test: calculation

$$F = ig|rac{SS_{reg,full} - SS_{reg,reduced}}{(df_{res,full} - df_{res,reduced})}ig| \div MS_{res,full}$$

#### where:

- ullet  $SS_{reg,full}$  is the sum of squares of the full model (total of predictors)
- ullet  $SS_{reg,reduced}$  is the sum of squares of the reduced model (total of predictors)
- ullet  $df_{res,full}$  is the degrees of freedom of the residuals of the full model
- ullet  $df_{res,reduced}$  is the degrees of freedom of the residuals of the reduced model
- ullet  $MS_{res,full}$  is the mean square of the residuals of the full model

NA

NA

Code

4 Residuals 107 27.7

0.259

Code

```
# A tibble: 3 \times 6
            df sumsq meansq statistic
                                     p.value
 term
 <chr> <int> <dbl> <dbl>
                              <dbl>
                                       <dbl>
             1 45.8 45.8
1 Temp
                              156.
                                    1.05e-22
2 Solar.R 1 5.07 5.07
                               17.3 6.38e- 5
3 Residuals 108 31.6
                     0.293
                                   NA
                               NA
```

Each row is the *individual effect* of each predictor on the response log(Ozone) (whilst holding all other predictors constant).

# By hand

$$F = ig|rac{SS_{reg,full} - SS_{reg,reduced}}{(df_{res,full} - df_{res,reduced})}ig| \div MS_{res,full}$$

• 
$$SS_{reg,full} = 45.8 + 5.07 + 3.97 = 54.84$$

• 
$$SS_{reg,reduced} = 45.8 + 5.07 = 50.87$$

• 
$$df_{res,full} = 107$$

• 
$$df_{res,reduced} = 108$$

• 
$$MS_{res,full} = 0.259$$

$$F = |\frac{54.84 - 50.87}{(107 - 108)}| \div 0.259 = 15.33$$

# In R (manually)

► Code

[1] 15.35026

► Code

[1] 0.0001576806

(There is a slight difference due to rounding)

### In R with functions

▶ Code

```
Analysis of Variance Table

Model 1: log(Ozone) ~ Temp + Solar.R + Wind

Model 2: log(Ozone) ~ Temp + Solar.R

Res.Df RSS Df Sum of Sq F Pr(>F)

1 107 27.675

2 108 31.645 -1 -3.9703 15.35 0.0001577 ***

---

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

• The partial F-test is significant (p-value < 0.05), so we can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the full model is significantly better, even if adjusted  $R^2$  improves by 4%.

### But wait...

Looking back at the original model, we can see that the partial regression coefficients are the same as the partial F-test results!

#### Code

```
Analysis of Variance Table

Model 1: log(Ozone) ~ Temp + Solar.R + Wind

Model 2: log(Ozone) ~ Temp + Solar.R

Res.Df RSS Df Sum of Sq F Pr(>F)

1 107 27.675

2 108 31.645 -1 -3.9703 15.35 0.0001577 ***

---

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

#### Code

This is because the reduced model is *nested* within the full model so the partial F-test is equivalent to a partial regression coefficient test.

### Nested models

- Previous example is a simple example of a nested model.
- A model is nested within another model if the predictors in the first model are a subset of the predictors in the second model.
- This makes comparing the two models easier, as we can compare the regression coefficients of the two models.

### **Example**

- If the original model is  $y \sim a + b + c$ :
  - $\rightarrow$  Nested:  $y \sim a + b$
  - → Nested: y ~ a
  - $\rightarrow$  Not nested: y  $\sim$  a + b + **d** because **d** is not in the full model

## ! Important

Partial F-tests will only make sense/work for nested models!

Another example: Bird abundance

### **About**

```
'data.frame': 56 obs. of 7 variables:

$ ABUND : num 5.3 2 1.5 17.1 13.8 14.1 3.8 2.2 3.3 3 ...

$ AREA : num 0.1 0.5 0.5 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 ...

$ YR.ISOL: int 1968 1920 1900 1966 1918 1965 1955 1920 1965 1900 ...

$ DIST : int 39 234 104 66 246 234 467 284 156 311 ...

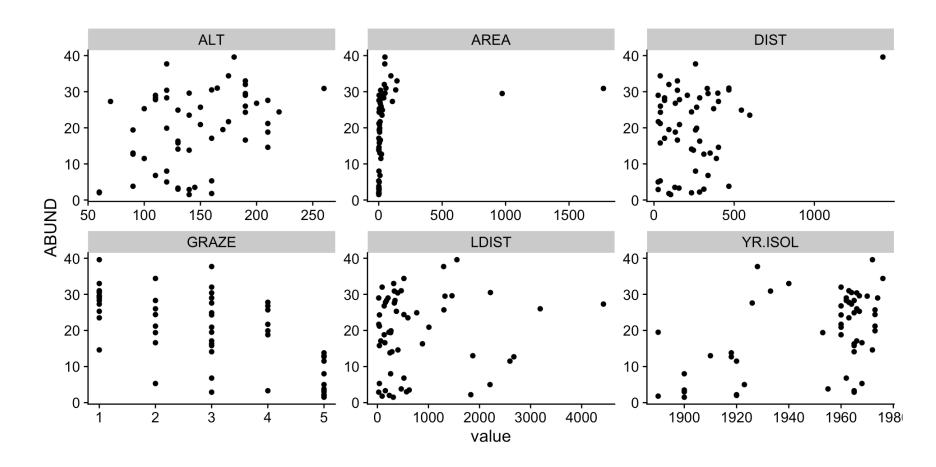
$ LDIST : int 39 234 311 66 246 285 467 1829 156 571 ...

$ GRAZE : int 2 5 5 3 5 3 5 5 4 5 ...

$ ALT : int 160 60 140 160 140 130 90 60 130 130 ...
```

- Can we predict the abundance of birds in forest patches cleared for agriculture, based on patch size, area, grazing and other variables?
- Loyn (1987)
  - → DIST: Distance to nearest patch (km)
  - LDIST: Distance to a larger patch (km)
  - → AREA: Patch area (ha)
  - GRAZE: Grazing pressure 1 (light) 5 (heavy) ALT: Altitude (m)
  - YR.ISOL: Years since isolation (years)
  - ABUND: Density of forest birds in a forest patch (birds/patch)

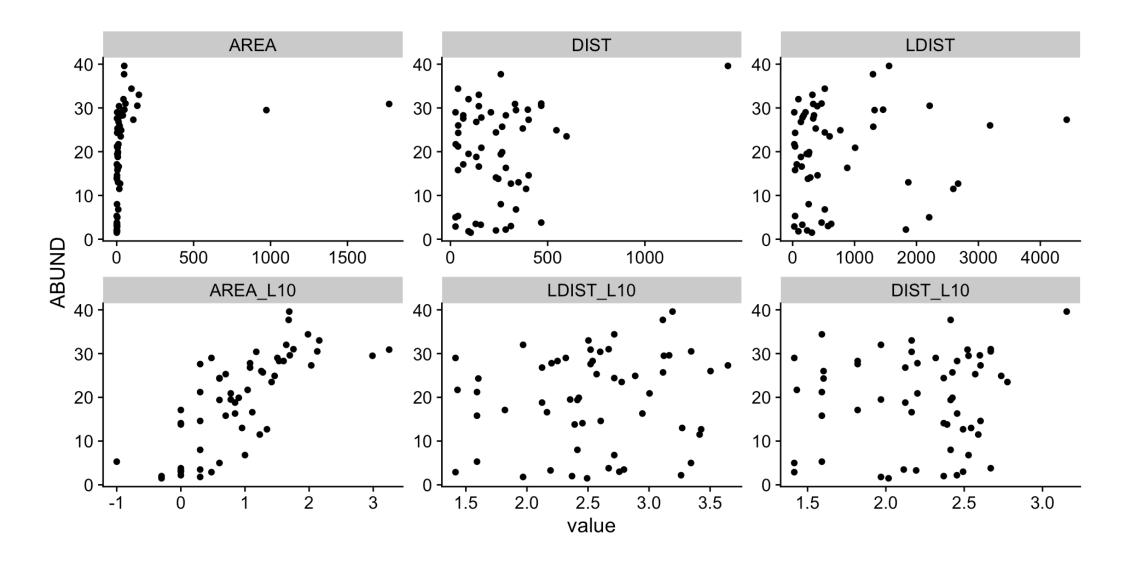
## **Data exploration**



- The predictors are on very different scales, which can cause problems for the model.
- The relationships don't look particularly linear...and outliers.
- We will perform log<sub>10</sub> transforms of AREA, LDIST, and DIST.

# Log<sub>10</sub> transformation

► Code

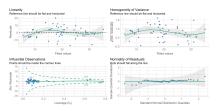


# Checking assumptions - no transformation

▶ Code

```
Call:
lm(formula = ABUND ~ YR.ISOL + GRAZE + ALT + AREA + LDIST + DIST,
   data = loyn)
Residuals:
    Min
             10 Median
                                     Max
                              30
-17.6638 -4.6409 -0.0883 4.2858 20.1042
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -1.097e+02 1.133e+02 -0.968 0.33791
           6.693e-02 5.684e-02 1.177 0.24472
YR.ISOL
       -3.447e+00 1.107e+00 -3.114 0.00308 **
GRAZE
         4.772e-02 3.089e-02 1.545 0.12878
ALT
AREA
      8.866e-04 4.657e-03 0.190 0.84980
      1.418e-03 1.310e-03 1.082 0.28451
LDIST
DIST
          3.811e-03 5.418e-03 0.703 0.48514
Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

Code

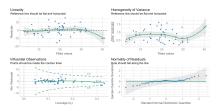


# Checking assumptions - transformation

▶ Code

```
Call:
lm(formula = ABUND ~ YR.ISOL + GRAZE + ALT + AREA_L10 + LDIST_L10 +
   DIST_L10, data = loyn)
Residuals:
    Min
             1Q Median
                                     Max
                              30
-15.6506 -2.9390 0.5289 2.5353 15.2842
Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -125.69725
                     91.69228 -1.371
                                        0.1767
                     0.04520 1.634 0.1086
YR.ISOL
             0.07387
                     0.92993 -1.793
                                        0.0791 .
GRAZE
            -1.66774
ALT
      0.01951
                       0.02396 0.814
                                        0.4195
         7.47023
                     1.46489 5.099 5.49e-06 ***
AREA_L10
            -0.64842 2.12270 -0.305 0.7613
LDIST_L10
DIST_L10
                       2.67572 -0.339 0.7361
            -0.90696
Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

Code



# Other Assumptions

LINE... + leverage + collinearity

## Leverage

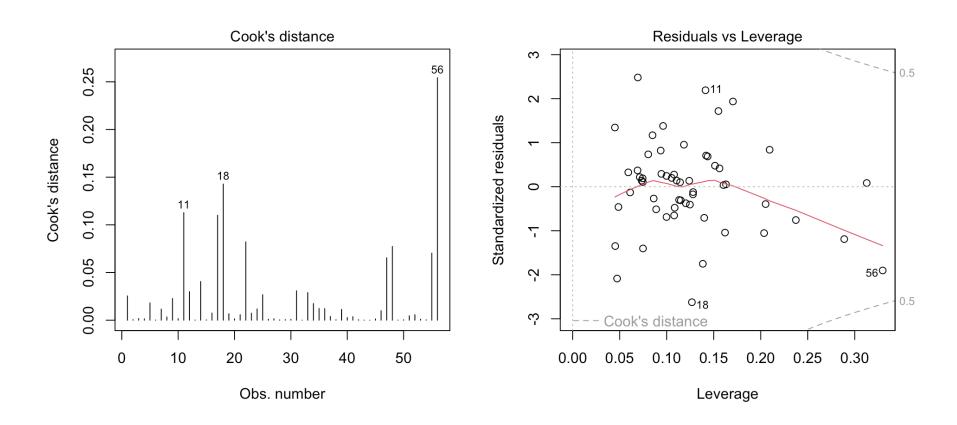
- The leverage plot shows the influence of each observation (i.e. point) on the model.
- Points with high leverage can have a large effect on the model when removed.
- Identified by the Cook's distance statistic named after the American statistician R. Dennis Cook, who introduced the concept in 1977.



### Tip

The leverage plot is a useful tool for identifying outliers and influential points, but can also be used to check for other issues such as heteroskedasticity (equal variances) and non-linearity!

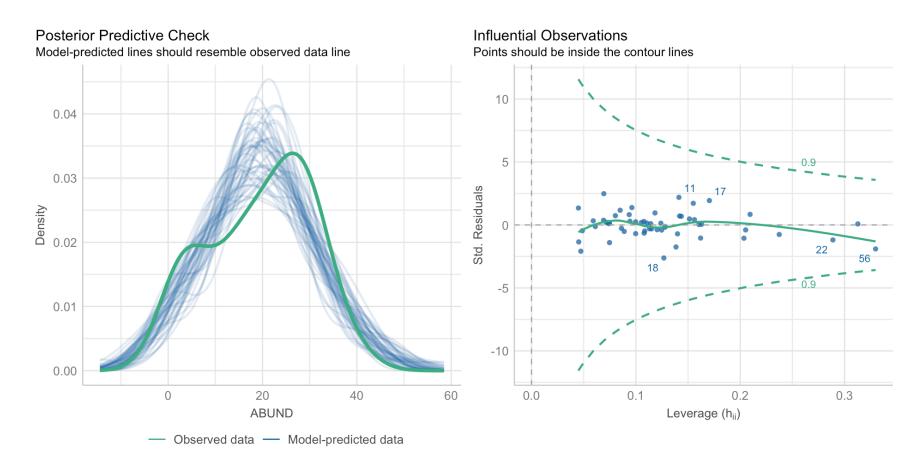
# Reading the leverage plot



- Visually, points with Cook's distance > 0.5 are considered influential by default, but this is a somewhat arbitrary threshold.
- In practice, you should use a threshold that is appropriate for your data and model.

# Outlier detection using performance

#### ▶ Code



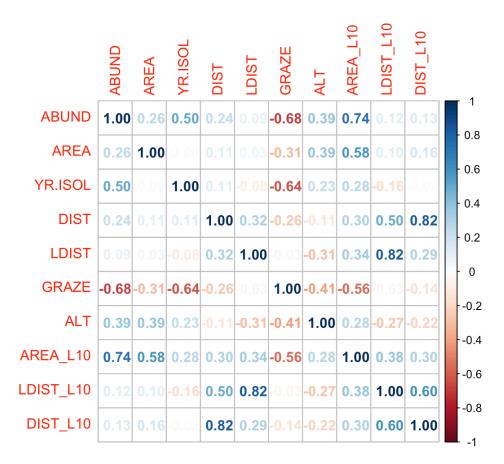
#### ▶ Code

OK: No outliers detected.

- Based on the following method and threshold: cook (0.919).
- For variable: (Whole model)

# Collinearity

- Two predictors that have a *perfect* linear relationship (i.e. r = 1 or -1) breaks the assumption of collinearity
- Even strong correlations between predictors can lead to unstable estimates and large standard errors.
- Variance inflation factors (VIFs) are a measure of collinearity in the model.



# **Calculating VIF**

▶ Code

YR.ISOL	GRAZE	ALT	AREA_L10	LDIST_L10	DIST_L10
1.80	2.52	1.47	1.91	2.01	1.65

Code

#### Collinearity

High collinearity (VIF) may inflate parameter uncertainty



- 1 = no correlation with other predictors.
- $\sim 10$  is a sign for high, not tolerable correlation of model predictors (which need to be removed and the model refitted).

### The best model?

If we remove the least significant variable...

Model	r.squared	adj.r.squared
ABUND ~ AREA_L10	0.55	0.54
ABUND ~ AREA_L10 + GRAZE	0.65	0.64
ABUND ~ AREA_L10 + GRAZE + YR.ISOL	0.67	0.65
ABUND ~ AREA_L10 + GRAZE + YR.ISOL + ALT	0.68	0.66
ABUND ~ AREA_L10 + GRAZE + YR.ISOL + ALT + DIST_L10	0.68	0.65
ABUND ~ AREA_L10 + GRAZE + YR.ISOL + ALT + DIST_L10 + LDIST_L10	0.68	0.65

- R-squared increases with addition of predictors.
- Adj. R-squared *varies* with addition of predictors.

# The problem

- Other combinations of predictors exist but are not shown.
- Need automated way to select the best model 6 predictors gives us 2<sup>6</sup> = **64 models** to choose from!
- Options:
  - Backward elimination
  - Forward selection
  - Combination (R default)

## **Backward elimination**

## Steps for backward elimination

- 1. Start with full model.
- 2. For each predictor, test the effect of its removal on the model fit.
- 3. Remove the predictor that has the *least* effect on the model fit i.e. the **least informative** predictor, unless it is nonetheless supplying significant information about the response.
- 4. Repeat steps 2 and 3 until no predictors can be removed without significantly affecting the model fit.

In backward selection, the model fit is assessed using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) or the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC). **Here we focus on the AIC.** 

### **About AIC**

- Most popular model selection criterion.
- Developed by Hirotsugu Akaike under the name of "an information criterion" (AIC)
- Founded on information theory which is concerned with the transmission, processing, utilization, and extraction of information.

$$AIC = 2k - 2\ln(L)$$

where k is the number of parameters in the model and L is the maximum value of the likelihood function.

## Interpretation

When used in linear regression, the AIC can also be defined as:

$$AIC = n\log(rac{RSS}{n}) + 2k$$

where RSS is the residual sum of squares and 2k is the number of parameters in the model (i.e. model complexity).

- The AIC is a measure of the **relative quality** or **goodness of fit** of a statistical model for a given set of data.
- It estimates the **relative amount of information** lost by a given model when it is used to approximate the true underlying process that generated the data.
- The smaller the AIC, the better the model fits the data.
- A relative measure and unitless, so it is not worth trying to interpret alone.

## Back to our example

▶ Code

```
Start: AIC=214.14
ABUND ~ YR.ISOL + GRAZE + ALT + AREA_L10 + LDIST_L10 + DIST_L10
         Df Sum of Sq RSS AIC
- LDIST_L10 1 3.80 2000.7 212.25
- DIST_L10 1 4.68 2001.5 212.27
- ALT 1 27.02 2023.9 212.90
- GRAZE 1 131.07 2127.9 215.70
- AREA_L10 1 1059.75 3056.6 235.98
Step: AIC=212.25
ABUND ~ YR.ISOL + GRAZE + ALT + AREA L10 + DIST L10
        Df Sum of Sq RSS AIC
- DIST_L10 1 12.64 2013.3 210.60
- ALT 1 35.12 2035.8 211.22
<none> 2000.7 212.25
- YR.ISOL 1 121.64 2122.3 213.55
```

#### Printing back\_step reveals the final model:

#### ► Code

```
Call:
lm(formula = ABUND ~ YR.ISOL + GRAZE + AREA_L10, data = loyn)

Coefficients:
(Intercept) YR.ISOL GRAZE AREA_L10
-134.26065 0.07835 -1.90216 7.16617
```

### Backward elimination: coefficients

#### Full model

▶ Code

	Full model		Reduced model	
Predictors	Estimates	р	Estimates	р
(Intercept)	-125.70	0.177	-134.26	0.126
YR ISOL	0.07	0.109	0.08	0.077
GRAZE	-1.67	0.079	-1.90	0.034
ALT	0.02	0.419		
AREA L10	7.47	<0.001	7.17	<0.001
LDIST L10	-0.65	0.761		
DIST L10	-0.91	0.736		
Observations	56		56	
R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.685 / 0.646		0.673 / 0.654	
AIC	375.064		371.109	

# Summary

#### Model selection

#### Model development

- 1. Start with full model and check assumptions (e.g. normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, etc.).
- 2. Look for additional issues (e.g. multicollinearity, outliers, etc.) correlations, leverage, VIF plots.
- 3. Consider transformations (e.g. log, sqrt, etc.).
- 4. Test assumptions again.

#### Model selection

- 5. Use VIF as an initial step to get rid of highly correlated predictors.
- 6. Perform variable selection using backward elimination (good and fast), because:
  - Using  $R^2$  as a criterion is *not* recommended (it is not a good measure of model fit, only a good measure of variance explained).
  - Using partial F-test is good, but slow.

## Next lecture

## Next lecture: model training and prediction

- How to incorporate calibration and validation into your workflow
- Determining prediction intervals and performance metrics

## Thanks!

**Questions? Comments?** 

Slides made with **Quarto**