Ch.7 Exercises: Moving Beyond Linearity

Conceptual

1. (a)

$$f_1(x)=\beta_0+\beta_1x+\beta_2x^2+\beta_3x^3$$

• Where, $a_1 = \beta_0$, $b_1 = \beta_1$, $c_1 = \beta_2$, $d_1 = \beta_3$

(b)

$$\begin{split} f_2(x) &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \beta_3 x^3 + \beta_4 (x - \xi)^3 \\ &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \beta_3 x^3 + \beta_4 (x^3 - 3x^2 \xi + 3x \xi^2 - \xi^3) \\ &= (\beta_0 - \beta_4 \xi^3) + x (\beta_1 + 3\beta_4 \xi^2) + x^2 (\beta_2 - 3\beta_4 \xi) + x^3 (\beta_3 + \beta_4) \end{split}$$

• Where, $a_2=\beta_0-\beta_4\xi^3,\, b_2=\beta_1+3\beta_4\xi^2,\, c_2=\beta_2-3\beta_4\xi,\, d_2=\beta_3+\beta_4$

(c)

$$\begin{split} f_1(\xi) &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \xi + \beta_2 \xi^2 + \beta_3 \xi^3 \\ f_2(\xi) &= (\beta_0 - \beta_4 \xi^3) + \xi (\beta_1 + 3\beta_4 \xi^2) + \xi^2 (\beta_2 - 3\beta_4 \xi) + \xi^3 (\beta_3 + \beta_4) \\ &= \beta_0 - \beta_4 \xi^3 + \beta_1 \xi + 3\beta_4 \xi^3 + \beta_2 \xi^2 - 3\beta_4 \xi^3 + \beta_3 \xi^3 + \beta_4 \xi^3 \\ &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \xi + \beta_2 \xi^2 + \beta_3 \xi^3 = f_1(\xi) \end{split}$$

(d)

$$f_1'(\xi) = \beta_1 + 2\beta_2 \xi + 3\beta_3 \xi^2$$

$$\begin{split} f_2'(\xi) &= (\beta_1 + 3\beta_4 \xi^2) + 2\xi(\beta_2 - 3\beta_4 \xi) + 3\xi^2(\beta_3 + \beta_4) \\ &= \beta_1 + 3\beta_4 \xi^2 + 2\beta_2 \xi - 6\beta_4 \xi^2 + 3\beta_3 \xi^2 + 3\beta_4 \xi^2 \\ &= \beta_1 + 2\beta_2 \xi + 3\beta_3 \xi^2 = f_1'(\xi) \end{split}$$

(e)

$$f_1''(\xi) = 2\beta_2 + 6\beta_3 \xi$$

$$\begin{split} f_2''(\xi) &= 2(\beta_2 - 3\beta_4 \xi) + 6\xi(\beta_3 + \beta_4) \\ &= 2\beta_2 - 6\beta_4 \xi + 6\beta_3 \xi + 6\beta_4 \xi \\ &= 2\beta_2 + 3\beta_3 \xi^2 = f_1''(\xi) \end{split}$$

• In general, when $\lambda = \infty$, the penalty term is so large that it forces a function g chosen to minimize the RSS into being perfectly smooth. This is because the penalty term reduces the variability in g.

(a)

• When $\lambda = \infty$, g = 0. So, $\hat{g} = 0$.

(b)

• When $\lambda = \infty$, g' = 0 (slope=0). So, $\hat{g} = constant$ (say a horizontal line).

(c)

• When $\lambda = \infty$, g'' = 0 (the change in slope=0). So, \hat{g} must be a straight line with a slope, say g_hat= cx + d.

(d)

• When $\lambda = \infty$, g''' = 0 (change in second derivative=0). So, \hat{g} must be a quadratic curve, say g_hat= $\cos^2 2 + dx + e$.

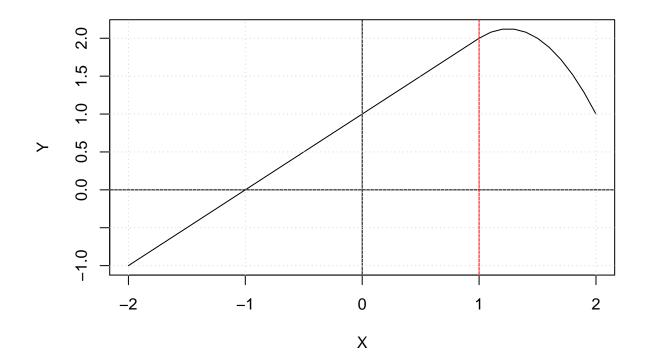
(e)

• When $\lambda = 0$ the penalty term has no effect, so we get a curve that interpolates all the n points perfectly (RSS Train = 0).

```
X = seq(-2,2,0.1)
Y = rep(NA,length(X))

for (i in 1:length(X)){
   if (X[i]<1){
        Y[i] = 1 + 1*X[i]
   }
   else{
        Y[i] = 1 + 1*X[i] - 2*(X[i]-1)^2
   }
}

plot(X,Y,type='l')
abline(h=0);abline(v=0);abline(v = 1, col = "red")
grid()</pre>
```

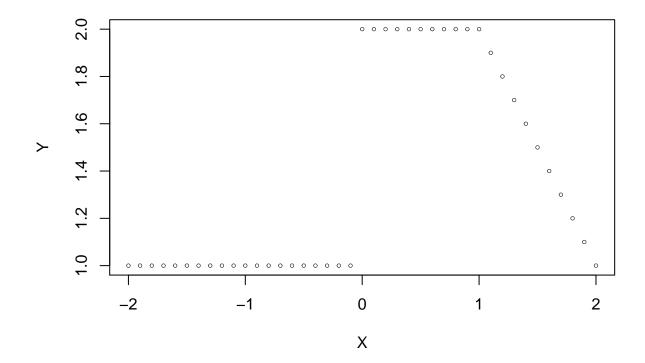


• The curve is linear when $-2 < X \le 1$, this portion has a slope and y intercept of 1. The curve then takes a quadratic shape when $1 < X \le 2$.

```
for (i in 1:length(X)){
   a = if (X[i]>=0 & X[i]<=2) 1 else 0
   b = if (X[i]>=1 & X[i]<=2) 1 else 0

Y[i] = 1 + (a-(X[i]-1)*b)
}

plot(X,Y,type = 'p', pch=1, lwd = 0.5, cex = 0.5)</pre>
```



• The chart consists of straight lines and a linear section with a slope of -2.

5.

(a)

• $\hat{g_2}$ is more flexible due to the higher order of the penalty term than $\hat{g_1}$, so it will likely have a lower training RSS.

(b)

• This depends on the shape of the underlying function for the dataset used. Generally, $\hat{g_1}$ will perform better on less flexible functions, and $\hat{g_2}$ will perform better on more flexible functions.

(c)

• The penalty terms will be zero for both equations, so training and test terms will be equal.

Applied

library(ISLR)
library(boot)
library(splines)

```
library(MASS)
library(leaps)
library(gam)

require(caTools)

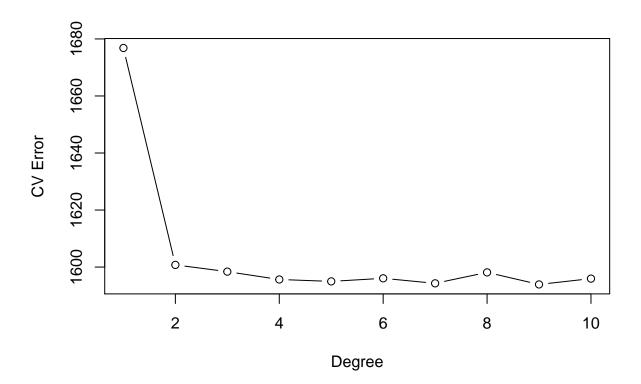
attach(Wage)
attach(Auto)
```

6. (a)

```
# Cross validation to choose degree of polynomial.
set.seed(1)
cv.error.10 = rep(0,10)
for (i in 1:10) {
   glm.fit=glm(wage poly(age,i),data=Wage)
   cv.error.10[i]=cv.glm(Wage,glm.fit,K=10)$delta[1]
}
cv.error.10
```

```
## [1] 1676.826 1600.763 1598.399 1595.651 1594.977 1596.061 1594.298 1598.134
## [9] 1593.913 1595.950
```

```
plot(cv.error.10, type="b", xlab="Degree", ylab="CV Error")
```



• The CV errors does not show clear improvement after degree 4 polynomial.

```
lm.fit = glm(wage poly(age,4),data=Wage)
summary(lm.fit)
##
## Call:
## glm(formula = wage ~ poly(age, 4), data = Wage)
## Deviance Residuals:
##
      Min
                10
                    Median
                                  30
## -98.707 -24.626 -4.993 15.217
                                     203.693
##
## Coefficients:
##
                 Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)
                 111.7036
                            0.7287 153.283 < 2e-16 ***
## poly(age, 4)1 447.0679
                             39.9148 11.201 < 2e-16 ***
## poly(age, 4)2 -478.3158
                             39.9148 -11.983 < 2e-16 ***
## poly(age, 4)3 125.5217
                             39.9148
                                       3.145 0.00168 **
## poly(age, 4)4 -77.9112
                             39.9148 -1.952 0.05104 .
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
## (Dispersion parameter for gaussian family taken to be 1593.19)
##
##
      Null deviance: 5222086 on 2999
                                       degrees of freedom
## Residual deviance: 4771604 on 2995 degrees of freedom
## AIC: 30641
## Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 2
# Using Anova() to compare degree 4 model with others.
fit.1 = lm(wage age ,data=Wage)
fit.2 = lm(wage poly(age ,2) ,data=Wage)
fit.3 = lm(wage poly(age ,3) ,data=Wage)
fit.4 = lm(wage poly(age ,4) ,data=Wage)
fit.5 = lm(wage poly(age ,5) ,data=Wage)
anova(fit.1,fit.2,fit.3,fit.4,fit.5)
## Analysis of Variance Table
## Model 1: wage ~ age
## Model 2: wage ~ poly(age, 2)
## Model 3: wage ~ poly(age, 3)
## Model 4: wage ~ poly(age, 4)
## Model 5: wage ~ poly(age, 5)
    Res.Df
               RSS Df Sum of Sq
                                            Pr(>F)
## 1
      2998 5022216
## 2
     2997 4793430 1
                         228786 143.5931 < 2.2e-16 ***
## 3
    2996 4777674 1
                          15756
                                  9.8888 0.001679 **
## 4 2995 4771604 1
                           6070
                                  3.8098 0.051046 .
## 5 2994 4770322 1
                           1283
                                 0.8050 0.369682
```

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

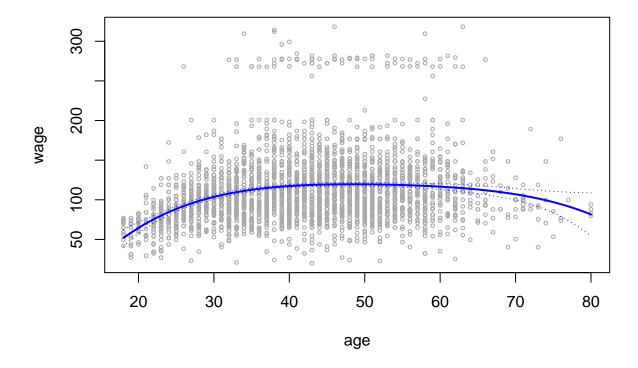
- The p-values comparing lower order models up to degree 3 are statistically significant. The p-value comparing model 3 to 4 is slightly above 5%, whereas that comparing 4 to 5 is not statistically significant. The results show a cubic or quartic model as providing the best fit, with higher or lower order polynomials being unjustified.
- The results match that of polynomial regression using 4 degrees.

```
# Grid of values for age at which we want predictions.
agelims=range(age)
age.grid=seq(from=agelims[1],to=agelims[2])

# Predictions.
preds=predict(lm.fit,newdata=list(age=age.grid),se=TRUE)
se.bands=cbind(preds\fit+2\*preds\$se.fit,preds\fit-2\*preds\$se.fit)

# Plot of polynomial fit onto data including SE bands.
plot(age,wage,xlim=agelims,cex=.5,col="darkgrey")
title("Polynomial fit using degree 4")
lines(age.grid,preds\fit,lwd=2,col="blue")
matlines(age.grid,se.bands,lwd =1,col="blue",lty =3)
```

Polynomial fit using degree 4



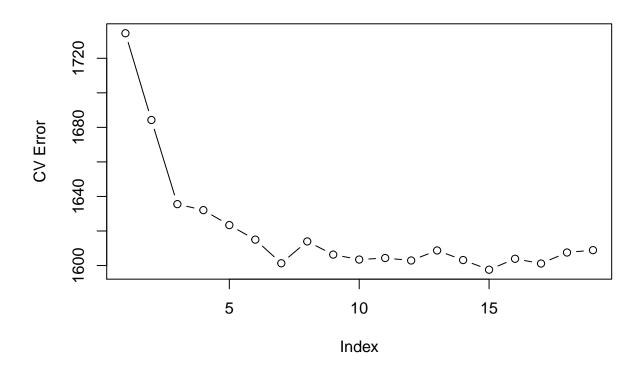
(b)

```
# Cross validation to choose optimal number of cuts.
set.seed(1)
cv.error.20 = rep(NA,19)

for (i in 2:20) {
    Wage$age.cut = cut(Wage$age,i)
    step.fit=glm(wage age.cut,data=Wage)
    cv.error.20[i-1]=cv.glm(Wage,step.fit,K=10)$delta[1] # [1]: Std [2]: Bias corrected.
}
cv.error.20

## [1] 1734.489 1684.271 1635.552 1632.080 1623.415 1614.996 1601.318 1613.954
## [9] 1606.331 1603.465 1604.349 1602.915 1608.731 1603.178 1597.583 1603.909
## [17] 1601.161 1607.540 1608.915

plot(cv.error.20,type='b',ylab="CV Error")
```

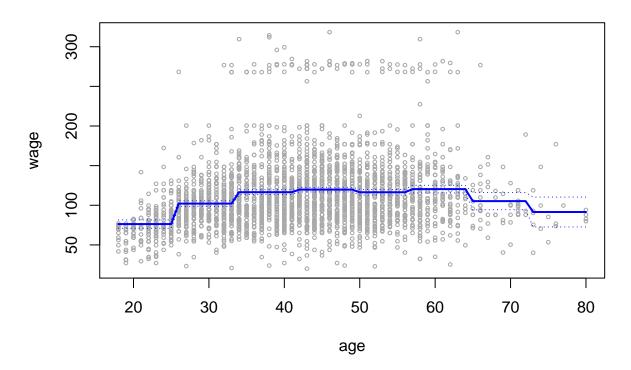


• The data and chart shows that the CV errors do not improve substantially after 8 (Index+1) cuts, and so 8 cuts will be used to fit the step function.

```
step.fit = glm(wage~cut(age,8), data=Wage)
preds2=predict(step.fit,newdata=list(age=age.grid), se=T)
se.bands2=cbind(preds2\fit+2\preds2\fit,preds2\fit-2\preds2\fit)
```

```
plot(age,wage,xlim=agelims,cex=.5,col="darkgrey")
title("Step function using 8 cuts")
lines(age.grid,preds2\fit,lwd=2,col="blue")
matlines(age.grid,se.bands2,lwd =1,col="blue",lty =3)
```

Step function using 8 cuts



Wage given marital status

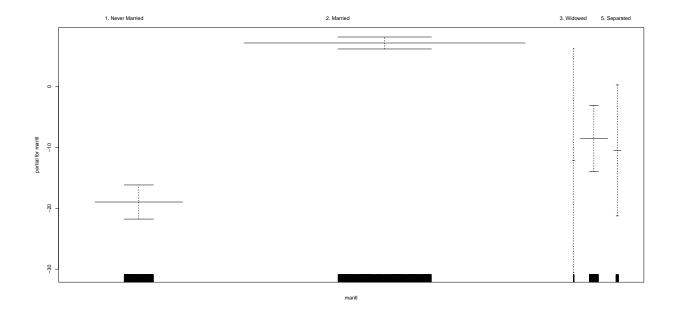


- Married and Never Married have a substantial number of outliers, and a bigger maximum (Q3 + 1.5IQR) to minimum (Q1 1.5IQR) range.
- The box plots for Widowed and Separated are similar to each other.

```
gam.model = gam(wage~maritl, data=Wage)

## Warning in model.matrix.default(mt, mf, contrasts): non-list contrasts argument
## ignored

plot(gam.model, col="blue", se=T)
```



- Married status tends to have a higher median wage, and has a lower range for standard errors/lower confidence intervals that the other categories.
- Widowed has very high confidence intervals. This is likely due to this category having very few examples.

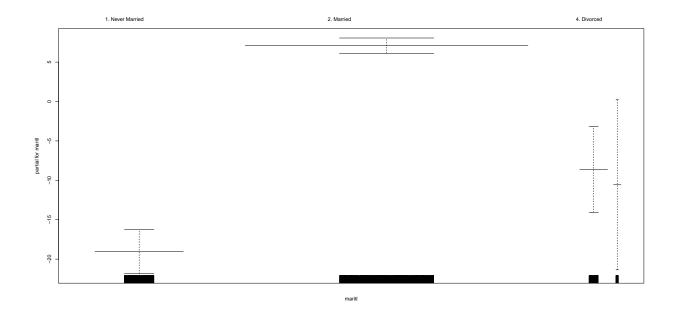
table(maritl)

Chart after removing Widowed:

```
# Removing rows with Widowed data.
Wage2 = Wage[(Wage$maritl!="3. Widowed"),]
gam.model = gam(wage~maritl, data=Wage2)

## Warning in model.matrix.default(mt, mf, contrasts): non-list contrasts argument
## ignored

plot(gam.model, col="blue", se=T)
```

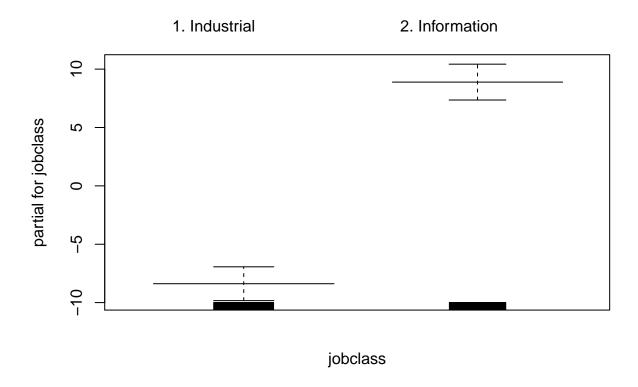


• The chart again confirms that those with a Married status have higher wages.

```
gam.model2 = gam(wage~jobclass, data=Wage)

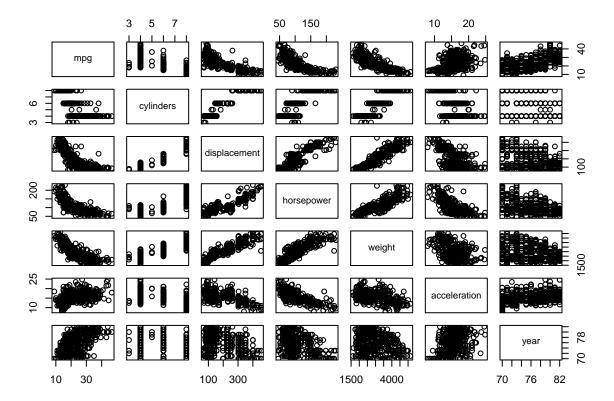
## Warning in model.matrix.default(mt, mf, contrasts): non-list contrasts argument
## ignored

plot(gam.model2, col="blue", se=T)
```



• We can see that jobs in the information category have a higher wage.

```
#fix(Auto)
pairs(Auto[1:7])
```



- mpg appears to have a non-linear relationship with horsepower, displacement and weight.
- The relationship between mpg and horsepower will be explored in more detail.

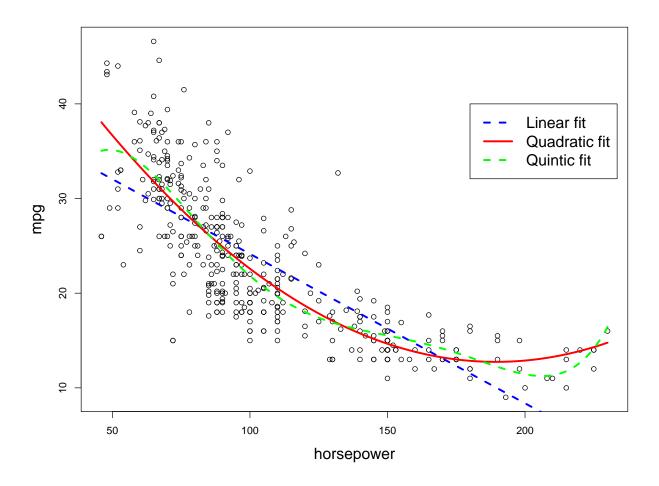
```
fit.1 = lm(mpg horsepower ,data=Auto)
fit.2 = lm(mpg poly(horsepower ,2) ,data=Auto)
fit.3 = lm(mpg poly(horsepower ,3) ,data=Auto)
fit.4 = lm(mpg poly(horsepower ,4) ,data=Auto)
fit.5 = lm(mpg poly(horsepower ,5) ,data=Auto)
fit.6 = lm(mpg poly(horsepower ,6) ,data=Auto)
anova(fit.1,fit.2,fit.3,fit.4,fit.5,fit.6)
```

```
## Analysis of Variance Table
##
## Model 1: mpg ~ horsepower
## Model 2: mpg ~ poly(horsepower, 2)
## Model 3: mpg ~ poly(horsepower, 3)
## Model 4: mpg ~ poly(horsepower, 4)
## Model 5: mpg ~ poly(horsepower, 5)
## Model 6: mpg ~ poly(horsepower, 6)
    Res.Df
               RSS Df Sum of Sq
                                            Pr(>F)
##
## 1
        390 9385.9
## 2
        389 7442.0 1
                        1943.89 104.6659 < 2.2e-16 ***
## 3
       388 7426.4 1
                          15.59
                                  0.8396 0.360083
## 4
       387 7399.5 1
                          26.91
                                  1.4491 0.229410
```

```
## 5  386 7223.4  1  176.15  9.4846  0.002221 **
## 6  385 7150.3  1  73.04  3.9326  0.048068 *
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

- The p-value comparing fit.1(linear) to fit.2(quadratic) is statistically significant, and the p-value comparing fit.2 to fit.3(cubic) is not significant. This indicates that a linear or cubic fit is not sufficient, but a quadratic fit should suffice.
- When taking into account the plot below and the ANOVA results, there is strong evidence of a non-linear relationship between horsepower and mpg.

Comparison of various fits to the data:

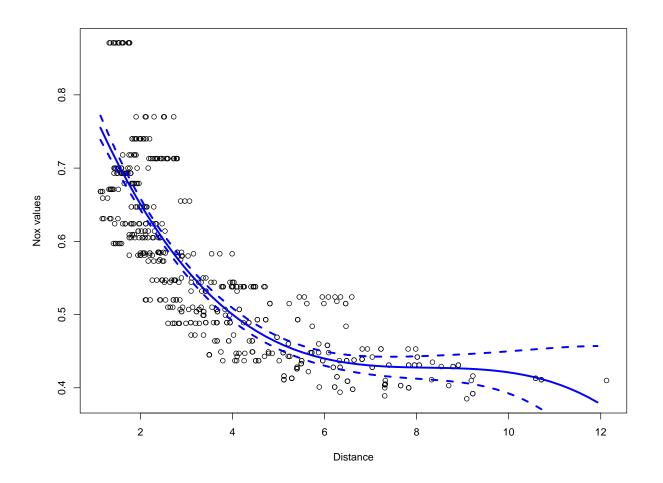


• As can be seen, a quadratic model likely provides the best fit to the underlying data.

9. (a)

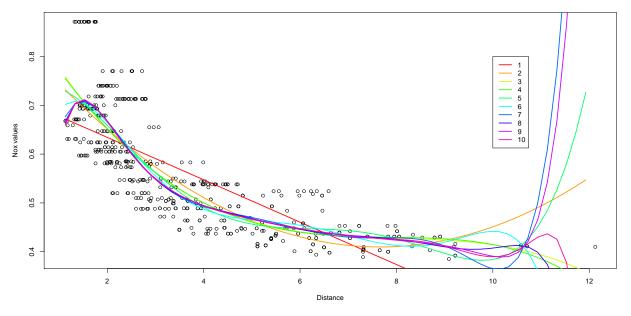
```
plot(Boston$dis,Boston$nox, xlab="Distance", ylab="Nox values")
model.1 = glm(nox~poly(dis,3), data=Boston)
summary(model.1)
##
## Call:
   glm(formula = nox ~ poly(dis, 3), data = Boston)
##
##
   Deviance Residuals:
##
         Min
                     1Q
                            Median
                                            3Q
                                                      Max
   -0.121130 -0.040619
                         -0.009738
                                      0.023385
                                                 0.194904
##
## Coefficients:
##
                  Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)
                  0.554695
                              0.002759 201.021
## poly(dis, 3)1 -2.003096
                             0.062071 -32.271 < 2e-16 ***
```

```
## poly(dis, 3)2 0.856330
                             0.062071
                                       13.796 < 2e-16 ***
## poly(dis, 3)3 -0.318049
                             0.062071
                                       -5.124 4.27e-07 ***
                    '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
## Signif. codes:
##
   (Dispersion parameter for gaussian family taken to be 0.003852802)
##
##
##
      Null deviance: 6.7810 on 505 degrees of freedom
## Residual deviance: 1.9341 on 502 degrees of freedom
  AIC: -1370.9
##
## Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 2
dis.grid = seq(from=min(Boston$dis),to=max(Boston$dis),0.2)
preds=predict(model.1,newdata=list(dis=dis.grid), se=T)
lines(dis.grid,preds$fit,col="blue",lwd=3)
lines(dis.grid,preds$fit+2*preds$se,col="blue",lwd=3,lty=2)
lines(dis.grid,preds$fit-2*preds$se,col="blue",lwd=3,lty=2)
```



- The regression summary shows a cubic fit is statistically significant.
- The cubic fit is plotted on the chart, and does appear to match the underlying shape of the data.

Polynomial fits from degree 1-10.



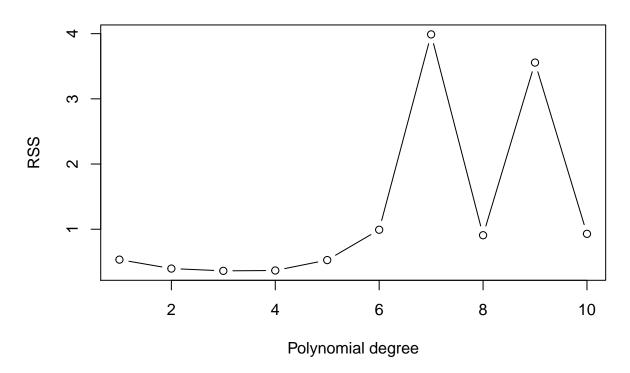
```
rss
```

```
## [1] 0.5335570 0.3967867 0.3616802 0.3668664 0.5269547 0.9919226 3.9884511 ## [8] 0.9079979 3.5563442 0.9293713
```

• The RSS decreases from the linear (0.533) to the cubic model (0.361), and increases thereafter. This supports the argument that the cubic model provides the best fit.

(b)

RSS on test set vs polynomial degree



• RSS is at a minimum for the degree 3 polynomial.

(d)

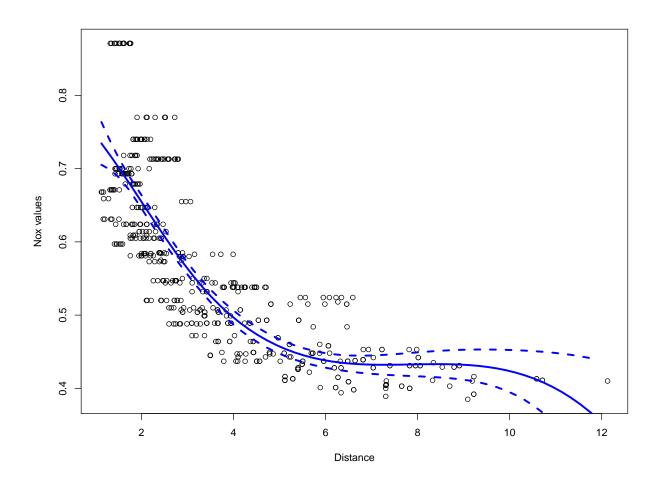
```
# Regression spline with four degrees of freedom.
spline.fit = lm(nox~bs(dis,df=4), data=Boston)
summary(spline.fit)
```

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = nox ~ bs(dis, df = 4), data = Boston)
##
## Residuals:
                          Median
##
         Min
                    1Q
                                        3Q
                                                 Max
   -0.124622 -0.039259 -0.008514 0.020850
##
## Coefficients:
##
                    Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)
                    0.73447
                                0.01460 50.306 < 2e-16 ***
## bs(dis, df = 4)1 -0.05810
                                0.02186 -2.658 0.00812 **
```

```
## bs(dis, df = 4)2 -0.46356
                            0.02366 -19.596 < 2e-16 ***
## bs(dis, df = 4)3 -0.19979
                              0.04311 -4.634 4.58e-06 ***
## bs(dis, df = 4)4 -0.38881
                              0.04551 -8.544 < 2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.06195 on 501 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.7164, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7142
## F-statistic: 316.5 on 4 and 501 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
attr(bs(Boston$dis,df=4),"knots")
##
      50%
## 3.20745
```

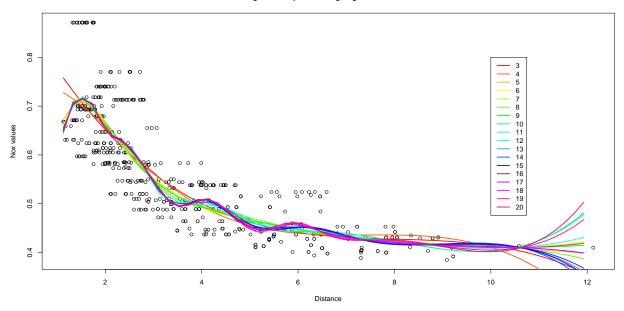
- $\bullet\,$ A regression spline with four degrees of freedom is statistically significant.
- The knots are chosen automatically when using the df() function. In this case we have single knot at the 50th percentile value.

```
plot(Boston$dis,Boston$nox,xlab="Distance", ylab="Nox values")
preds = predict(spline.fit, newdata=list(dis=dis.grid), se=T)
lines(dis.grid, preds$fit,col="blue",lwd=3)
lines(dis.grid, preds$fit+2*preds$se,col="blue",lwd=3,lty=2)
lines(dis.grid, preds$fit-2*preds$se,col="blue",lwd=3,lty=2)
```



• The resulting spline fit is very similar to that of polynomial regression using degree 3.

(e)



```
# Degree with minimum RSS value.
which.min(rss)+2
```

[1] 12

- Smaller differences between spline fits than with the polynomial fits.
- $\bullet~$ RSS is lowest for the degree 12 model.

(f)

Cross validation:

```
k=10
set.seed(3)
folds = sample(1:k, nrow(Boston), replace=T)
cv.errors = matrix(NA,k,18, dimnames = list(NULL, paste(3:20))) #CV errors for degrees 3 to 20.
  # Create models (total=k) for each degree using the training folds.
  # Predict on held out folds and calculate their MSE's(total=k).
  # Continue until all j degrees have been used.
  # Take the mean of MSE's for each degree.
for(j in 3:20){
  for(i in 1:k){
    spline.model=lm(nox~bs(dis,df=j), data=Boston[folds!=i,])
    pred=predict(spline.model,Boston[folds==i,],id=i)
    cv.errors[i,j-2]=mean((Boston$nox[folds==i] - pred)^2)
  }
}
mean.cv.errors = apply(cv.errors,2,mean)
mean.cv.errors[which.min(mean.cv.errors)]
```

```
## 8
## 0.003693139
```

- The minimum for the CV errors is using degree 8.
- This is different to the degree 12 model found using a validation set.

Cross validation using cv.glm() function:

```
set.seed(3)
cv.err = rep(0,18)

for(j in 3:20){
    fit=glm(nox~bs(dis,df=j), data=Boston)
    cv.err[j-2] = cv.glm(Boston, fit, K=10)$delta[1]
}
which.min(cv.err)+2
```

[1] 8

• The cv.glm() method finds a minimum at degree 8. This is the same degree found using the previous cross validation method, but different to using a validation set.

10. (a)

[1] 10

```
set.seed(4)
#sum(is.na(College$Outstate))

college_df = College
college_sample = sample.split(college_df$Outstate, SplitRatio = 0.80)
college_train = subset(college_df, college_sample==TRUE)
college_test = subset(college_df, college_sample==FALSE)
```

Forward stepwise selection to identify a satisfactory model:

```
# Forward stepwise on the training set using all variables.
fit.fwd = regsubsets(Outstate~., data=college_train, nvmax=17, method="forward")
fit.summary = summary(fit.fwd)

# Some Statistical metrics.
which.min(fit.summary$cp) #Estimate of the test error, lower is better.

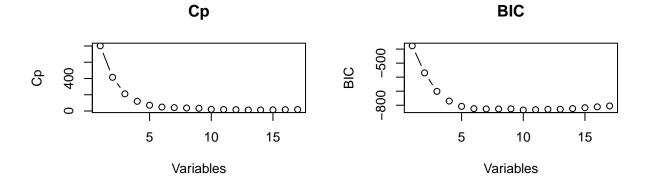
## [1] 13

which.min(fit.summary$bic) #Takes a small value for models with low test errors,
```

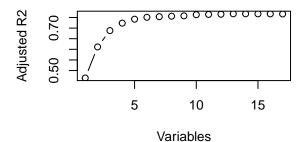
```
#so lower is better generally.
which.max(fit.summary$adjr2) #A larger value indicates a model with low test error.
```

[1] 14

```
par(mfrow=c(2,2))
plot(1:17, fit.summary$cp,xlab="Variables",ylab="Cp",main="Cp", type='b')
plot(1:17, fit.summary$bic,xlab="Variables",ylab="BIC",main="BIC", type='b')
plot(1:17, fit.summary$adjr2,xlab="Variables",ylab="Adjusted R2",main="Adjusted R2", type='b')
```



Adjusted R2

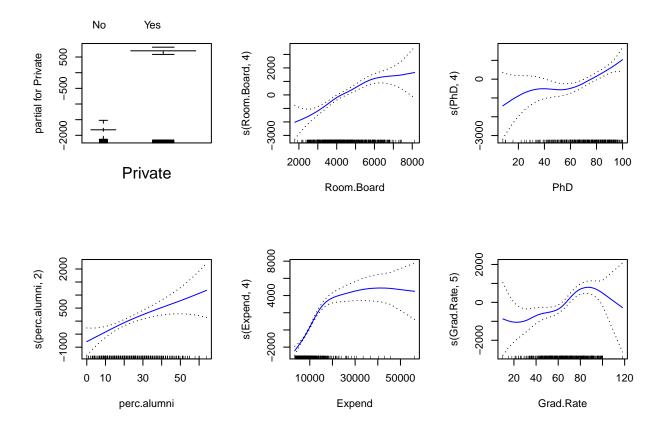


- The Cp, BIC and Adjusted R^2 all identify minimums and a maximum for models with a different number of variables. As can be seen from the charts, the metrics change rapidly as the number of variables increase, but there are only small improvements after a model with 6 variables.
- Therefore, the model with 6 variables is selected as it appears to be satisfactory in describing this relationship.

coef(fit.fwd,6)

```
##
     (Intercept)
                     PrivateYes
                                    Room.Board
                                                                 perc.alumni
                                                           PhD
   -3650.4408407
                   2808.2152589
                                     0.9423170
                                                                   41.6939034
##
                                                   41.2025877
                      Grad.Rate
##
          Expend
##
       0.2261454
                     28.1575077
```

(b)



- Holding other variables fixed, out of state tuition increases as room and board costs get higher.
- Similarly, out of state tuition increases as the proportion of alumni who donate increase.

(c)

```
# Predictions and MSE on Outstate from test set.
preds = predict(gam.m1,newdata = college_test)
mse = mean((college_test$Outstate - preds)^2)
mse
```

[1] 3753134

```
## Analysis of Deviance Table
## Model 1: Outstate ~ Private + s(Room.Board, 4) + s(PhD, 4) + s(perc.alumni,
       2) + s(Expend, 4)
## Model 2: Outstate ~ Private + s(Room.Board, 4) + s(PhD, 4) + s(perc.alumni,
       2) + s(Expend, 4) + Grad.Rate
## Model 3: Outstate ~ Private + s(Room.Board, 4) + s(PhD, 4) + s(perc.alumni,
       2) + s(Expend, 4) + s(Grad.Rate, 4)
## Model 4: Outstate ~ Private + s(Room.Board, 4) + s(PhD, 4) + s(perc.alumni,
##
       2) + s(Expend, 4) + s(Grad.Rate, 5)
##
     Resid. Df Resid. Dev
                             Df Deviance
                                                     Pr(>F)
## 1
          605 2185197963
## 2
          604 2088077461 1.0000 97120502 28.3753 1.415e-07 ***
          601 2059357222 3.0002 28720240 2.7968
## 3
                                                    0.03949 *
## 4
          600 2053630774 0.9995 5726448 1.6739
                                                    0.19623
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

• The results provide compelling evidence that a GAM which includes Grad.Rate as a non-linear function(spline with degree 4) is needed(p=0.03939).

11. (a)

```
# Generated dataset
X1 = rnorm(100, sd=2)
X2 = rnorm(100, sd=sqrt(2))
eps = rnorm(100, sd = 1)
b0 = 5; b1=2.5; b2=11.5
Y = b0 +b1*X1 + b2*X2 + eps
```

(b) (c)

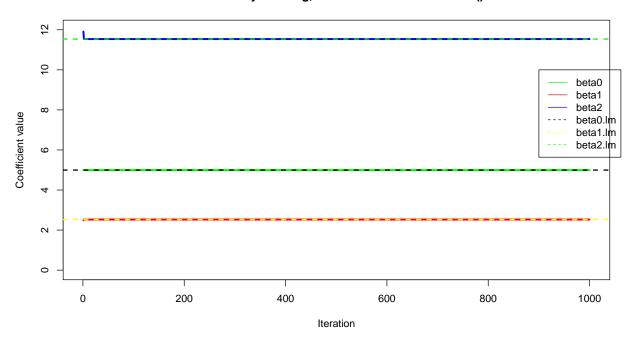
```
beta1 = 0.1

a=Y-beta1*X1
beta2=lm(a X2)$coef[2]
beta2
```

```
## X2
## 11.90966
```

```
(d)
a=Y-beta2*X2
beta1 = lm(a X1) \\coef[2]
beta1
##
       X 1
## 2.49134
(e)
beta.df = data.frame("beta0"=rep(0,1000), "beta1"=rep(0,1000), "beta2"=rep(0,1000))
beta1 = 0.1
for (i in 1:1000){
 a=Y-beta1*X1
  model = lm(a X2)
  beta2 = model$coef[2]
  beta.df$beta2[i]= beta2
 a=Y-beta2*X2
 model = lm(a X1)
  beta1 = model$coef[2]
  beta.df$beta1[i]=beta1
 beta.df$beta0[i]=model$coef[1]
 }
# Beta values after 5 iterations.
beta.df$beta0[5]
## [1] 4.996049
beta.df$beta1[5]
## [1] 2.52644
beta.df$beta2[5]
## [1] 11.53675
plot(1:1000,beta.df$beta2,ylim=range(0:12),type='l', lwd="3", col="blue",
     xlab="Iteration",ylab="Coefficient value")
title("Coefficients found by iterating, and overlaid values from lm() function.")
lines(1:1000,beta.df$beta1, col="red", lwd=3)
lines(1:1000,beta.df$beta0, col="green",lwd=3)
# Using results from multiple linear regression in part (f)
abline(h=4.996049, lty=2, lwd=2)
abline(h=2.526440, lty=2, lwd=2, col="yellow")
abline(h=11.536752, lty=2, lwd=2, col="green")
legend(900,10, legend=c("beta0", "beta1", "beta2", "beta0.lm", "beta1.lm", "beta2.lm"),
       col=c("green", "red", "blue", "black", "yellow", "green"), lty = c(1,1,1,2,2,2), xpd=T)
```

Coefficients found by iterating, and overlaid values from Im() function.



(f)

```
lm.fit = lm(Y~X1+X2)
coef(lm.fit)
```

```
## (Intercept) X1 X2
## 4.996049 2.526440 11.536752
```

• The coefficients found by multiple linear regression exactly match those found by iteration.

(g)

• Five iterations were needed to achieve a very good approximation to the multiple linear regression results.

12

Backfitting when p=100 and for 25 iterations:

```
set.seed(6)

n = 1000 # Number of examples
p = 100 # Number of predictors

# Generated dataset
X = matrix(rnorm(n*p),n,p)
beta0 = 8
betas = rnorm(100, sd = 2)
eps = rnorm(100, sd = 1)
```

```
Y = beta0 + X%*\%betas + eps
bhats = matrix(0,nrow=25,ncol=100)
intercepts = matrix(0, 25, 1)
# For loop to create models(M) that excludes the predictors that are 'fixed',
# and uses lm() to estimate the coefficent of the unfixed predictor.
# Estimates are stored such that the values can be used for the next set of calculations.
for (i in 1:25){
  for(j in 1:100){
    # Matrix multiplication of the fixed predictors and their respective coefficient estimates.
    M = Y - (X[,-j] %*% bhats[i,-j])
    # Linear regression with results stored in all rows from row(i):row(end).
    bhats[i:25,j] = lm(M~X[,j]) \\ \\ scoef[2]
    intercepts[i] = lm(M~X[,j])$coef[1]
  }
}
lm.fit = lm(Y~X)
# Intercept and selected coefficient values.
coef(lm.fit)[1];coef(lm.fit)[2]; coef(lm.fit)[10]; coef(lm.fit)[20]
## (Intercept)
      7.962958
##
          Х1
## -2.679775
##
           Х9
## -0.7035457
##
        X19
## 3.413312
# Intercept, and selected coefficient values after iterating 25 times.
intercepts[25]; bhats[25,1]; bhats[25,9]; bhats[25,19]
## [1] 7.962958
## [1] -2.679775
## [1] -0.7035457
## [1] 3.413312
```

• As can be seen, the values given by iterating 25 times and using multiple linear regression match exactly. Additionally, we can see from the chart below that iterating quickly converges to these values.

Plot of some coefficient estimates after 5 iterations:

