

Objective

The primary objective of this study is to conduct a comprehensive regression analysis on a dataset encompassing various factors related to alcohol consumption and their impact on the cirrhosis death rate. The focus is on modelling the relationship between the cirrhosis death rate and several covariates, including urban population, late births, wine consumption per capita, and liquor consumption per capita. By developing an effective regression model, the study aims to predict the cirrhosis death rate based on these covariates. The ultimate goal is to understand the relationships and the underlying dynamics between alcohol consumption, demographic factors, and health outcomes, thereby providing insights that could inform public health policies and interventions aimed at reducing alcohol-related mortality.

Introduction

Alcohol consumption is a significant public health concern globally, with various studies linking it to numerous health issues, including liver diseases such as cirrhosis. Cirrhosis, characterized by the replacement of liver tissue by fibrosis, scar tissue, and regenerative nodules, often results from chronic alcohol abuse. Understanding the factors contributing to cirrhosis death rates is crucial for developing effective prevention and treatment strategies.

This study utilizes a dataset comprising 46 observations from different places, focusing on variables such as urban population, late births, wine consumption per capita, and liquor consumption per capita. The response variable in this analysis is the cirrhosis death rate, while the other variables are treated as covariates. The primary aim is to explore the relationships between these covariates and the cirrhosis death rate and to develop a regression model that can reliably predict the cirrhosis death rate based on these variables.

The theoretical framework for this analysis is built upon multiple linear regression, which helps describe the relationship between one dependent variable (cirrhosis death rate) and several independent variables (urban population, late births, wine consumption per capita, and liquor consumption per capita).

To ensure the model's validity and reliability, several key assumptions must be met: linearity, independence, homoscedasticity, and normality of residuals. Additionally, multicollinearity among independent variables must be detected and addressed using tools like the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and correlation matrices. Influential points that disproportionately affect the model's outcomes are identified using diagnostic tools such as Cook's Distance and leverage values.

Model selection and validation are critical steps in this analysis, employing criteria such as Adjusted R-squared, AIC, and BIC to choose the best model. Cross-validation techniques are used to assess the model's performance on unseen data, ensuring its robustness. Shrinkage methods like Ridge Regression and Lasso help address overfitting and multicollinearity, while robust regression techniques handle outliers and violations of model assumptions.

Through detailed exploratory data analysis, model fitting, assumption checking, and model refinement, this study aims to develop a robust and reliable regression model that enhances our understanding of the factors influencing cirrhosis death rates and informs public health strategies to mitigate the adverse effects of alcohol consumption.

Theoretical Framework of the topic:

The theoretical framework for this regression analysis involves the following key components:

1. Multiple Linear Regression:

- A multiple linear regression model is used to describe the relationship between one dependent variable (Cirrhosis Death Rate) and several independent variables (Urban Population, Late Births, Wine Consumption Per Capita, Liquor Consumption Per Capita).
- The general form of the multiple linear regression model is: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \epsilon$, where Y is the dependent variable, X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4 are the independent variables, $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4$ are the coefficients, and ϵ is the error term.

2. Model Assumptions:

- Linearity: The relationship between the dependent and independent variables should be linear.
- Independence: The residuals (errors) should be independent.
- Homoscedasticity: The residuals should have constant variance at every level of the independent variables.
- Normality: The residuals should be approximately normally distributed.

3. Detection and Treatment of Multicollinearity:

- Multicollinearity occurs when independent variables are highly correlated, which can inflate the variance of the coefficient estimates and make the model unstable.
- Techniques such as Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and correlation matrices are used to detect multicollinearity.

4. Detection and Treatment of Influential Points:

- Influential points are observations that have a disproportionate impact on the regression model.
- Diagnostic tools like Cook's Distance, leverage values, and DFFITS are employed to identify influential points.

5. Model Selection and Validation:

- Different model selection criteria such as Adjusted R-squared, AIC, and BIC are used to choose the best model.
- Cross-validation techniques are implemented to assess the model's performance on unseen data.

6. Shrinkage and Robust Regression Methods:

- Shrinkage methods such as Ridge Regression and Lasso are used to address overfitting and multicollinearity.
- Robust regression techniques are applied to handle outliers and violations of model assumptions.

The report thoroughly investigates these aspects through detailed exploratory data analysis, model fitting, assumption checking, and model refinement to achieve a robust and reliable regression model for predicting cirrhosis death rate.

Methodology

1. **Data Collection:**

- Gathered data on cirrhosis death rates and potential covariates, including urban population, late births, wine consumption per capita, and liquor consumption per capita, from 46 different observations.

2. **Data Preprocessing:**

- Cleaned and prepared the dataset by handling missing values, if any.
- Standardized and normalized the data to ensure comparability between different variables.

3. **Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA):**

- Conducted descriptive statistics to understand the distribution and central tendency of the data.
- Visualized relationships between the dependent variable (cirrhosis death rate) and independent variables (urban population, late births, wine consumption per capita, and liquor consumption per capita) using scatter plots, histograms, and box plots.
- Used correlation matrices to identify potential multicollinearity among independent variables.

4. **Model Fitting:**

- Applied multiple linear regression to model the relationship between cirrhosis death rate and the covariates.
- Estimated the regression coefficients using the least squares method.
- Assessed the overall model fit using R-squared and Adjusted R-squared values.

5. **Assumption Checking:**

- Checked for linearity by plotting residuals versus fitted values.
- Assessed independence of residuals using the Durbin-Watson test.
- Evaluated homoscedasticity (constant variance of residuals) using residual plots.
- Tested for normality of residuals with Q-Q plots and the Shapiro-Wilk test.

6. **Multicollinearity Detection:**

- Calculated Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) to detect multicollinearity among independent variables.
- Examined correlation matrices to identify high correlations between covariates.

7. **Influential Points Detection:**

- Identified influential points using Cook's Distance, leverage values, and DFFITS.
- Assessed the impact of influential points on the regression model.

8. **Model Selection and Validation:**

- Compared multiple models using criteria like Adjusted R-squared, AIC, and BIC to select the best-fitting model.
- Employed cross-validation techniques to validate the model's performance on unseen data.

9. **Shrinkage Methods:**

- Applied Ridge Regression and Lasso to address issues of overfitting and multicollinearity.
- Compared the performance of these models with the standard multiple linear regression model.

10. Robust Regression Techniques:

- Used robust regression methods to handle outliers and violations of model assumptions.
- Evaluated the robustness of the regression results under different assumptions and conditions.

11. Final Model Interpretation:

- Interpreted the final regression model coefficients to understand the impact of each covariate on the cirrhosis death rate.
- Provided insights and recommendations based on the regression analysis findings to inform public health strategies and interventions.

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1 Exploratory Data Analysis

Loading the Dataset

To get an overview of the data, we first load it in R and print first few values:-

```
library(MASS)
library(lattice)
library(olsrr)
library(car)
library(L1pack)
X = read.csv(file = "D:\\PG files\\Projects\\Regression-Analysis-Project-main\\population_drinking1.txt",
header=TRUE,sep = "\\t")
names(X) <- c("Ind","Ind_1","Urban population", "Late births", "Wine consumption per capita", "Liquor consumption per capita", "Cirrhosis death rate")
head(X)
```

	Ind	Ind_1	Urban population	Late births	Wine consumption per capita	Liquor consumption per capita	Cirrhosis death rate
1	1	1	44	33.2	5	30	41.2
2	2	1	43	33.8	4	41	31.7
3	3	1	48	40.6	3	38	39.4
4	4	1	52	39.2	7	48	57.5
5	5	1	71	45.5	11	53	74.8
6	6	1	44	37.5	9	65	59.8

Here we have “Cirrhosis death rate” as the response and “Urban population”, “Late births”, “Wine consumption per capita”, “Liquor consumption per capita” as the covariates.

Type of the covariates

To know type of each covariates, we use the str() function :-

```
str(X)
```

```
'data.frame': 46 obs. of 7 variables:
 $ Ind          : int  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 ...
 $ Ind_1        : int  1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 ...
 $ Urban population : int  44 43 48 52 71 44 57 34 70 54 ...
 $ Late births    : num  33.2 33.8 40.6 39.2 45.5 37.5 44.2 31.9 45.6 45.9 ...
 $ Wine consumption per capita : int  5 4 3 7 11 9 6 3 12 7 ...
 $ Liquor consumption per capita: int  30 41 38 48 53 65 73 32 56 57 ...
 $ Cirrhosis death rate      : num  41.2 31.7 39.4 57.5 74.8 59.8 54.3 47.9 77.2 56.6 ...
```

So the dataset contains no factor covariate hence we can perform multiple linear regression here. For ease of indexing, we name the columns as “I”, “1”, “A1”, “A2”, “A3”, “A4”, “Y”.

```
names(X) <- c("I","1","A1","A2","A3","A4","Y")
```

5-number Summary of Covariates

To get an idea of the values of each covariate we calculate the 5-number summary for each of them :-

```
summary(X[, -c(1,2)])
```

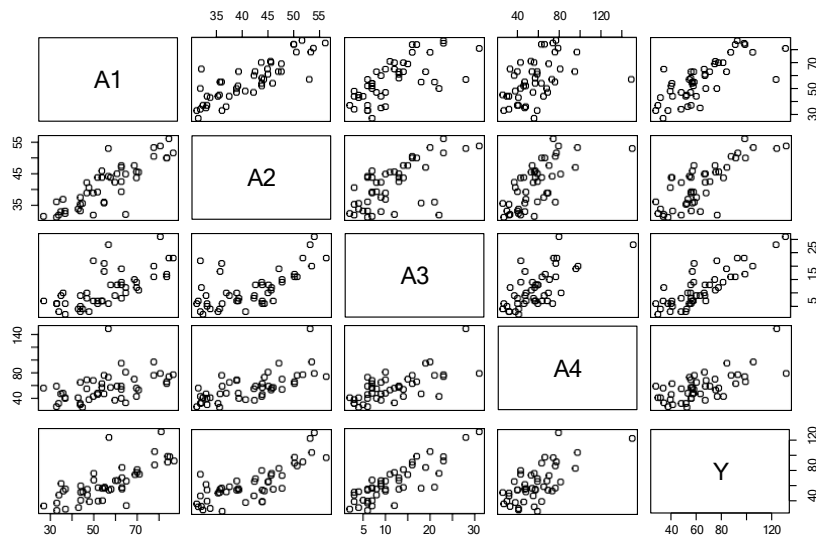
A1		A2		A3		A4	
Min.	:27.00	Min.	:31.20	Min.	: 2.00	Min.	: 26.00
1st Qu.:	44.25	1st Qu.:	35.62	1st Qu.:	6.25	1st Qu.:	41.50
Median	:55.00	Median	:42.25	Median	:10.00	Median	: 56.00
Mean	:56.26	Mean	:41.48	Mean	:11.59	Mean	: 57.50
3rd Qu.:	65.00	3rd Qu.:	45.83	3rd Qu.:	15.75	3rd Qu.:	68.75
Max.	:87.00	Max.	:56.10	Max.	:31.00	Max.	:149.00

Y	
Min.	: 28.00
1st Qu.:	48.90
Median	: 57.65
Mean	: 63.49
3rd Qu.:	75.70
Max.	:129.90

Pairwise Scatterplots

To get an idea of the relationship between covariates and response, we make pairwise scatterplots using pairs() function :-

```
pairs(X[, -c(1,2)])
```

This plot clearly indicates linear relationship between the covariates and response also. This might lead to the problem of multicollinearity which we will formally diagnose.

Correlation Between Covariates

We calculate the correlation between the covariates and response to get even better idea of linear dependence between them :-

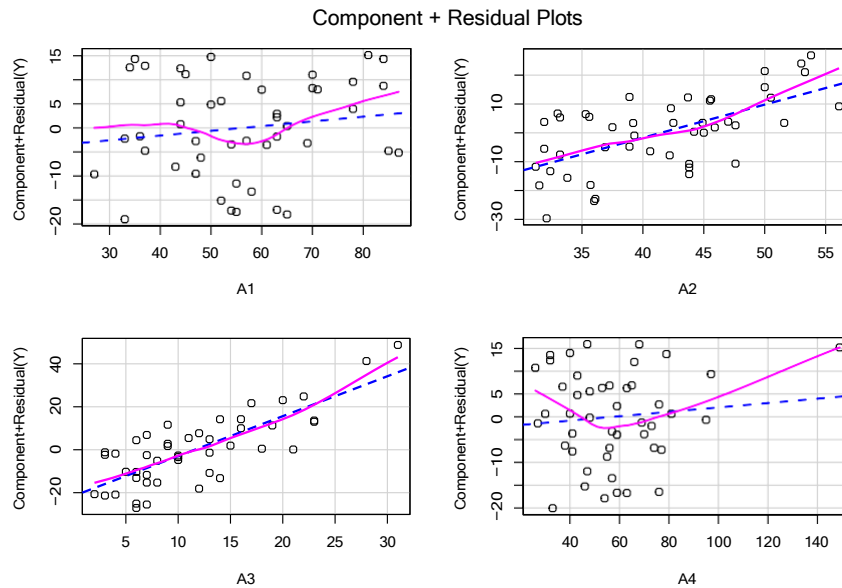
	A1	A2	A3	A4
A1	1.0000000	0.8432812	0.6786230	0.4402957
A2	0.8432812	1.0000000	0.6398407	0.6863643
A3	0.6786230	0.6398407	1.0000000	0.6759206
A4	0.4402957	0.6863643	0.6759206	1.0000000

We can see that the correlations are high between many predictors which can lead to problem of multicollinearity.

Partial Residual Plots

To get an idea of the nature of relationship between the covariates and response, we make the partial residual plot for all the covariates :-

```
crPlots(lm(Y~A1+A2+A3+A4,data = X))
```



Conclusion

The plot indicates the linear relationship between the covariates and response.

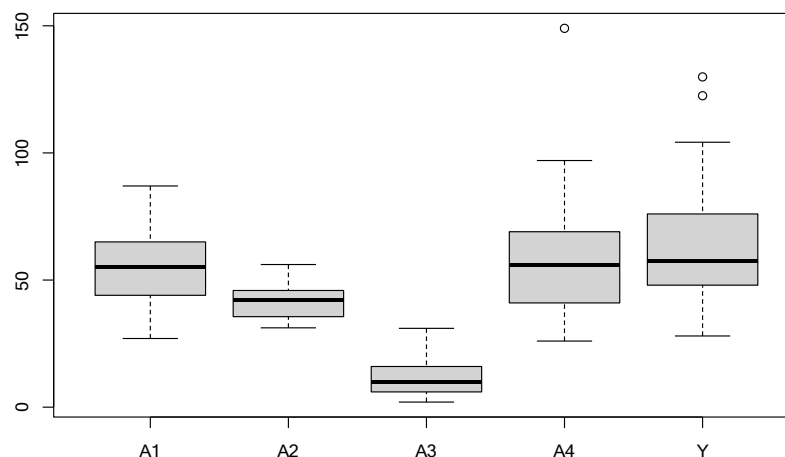
Hence, we will fit the usual multiple linear regression model with no higher order polynomial terms.

Later we will see if other models with interaction terms are better or not.

Boxplots of Covariates and Response

We draw the boxplots for different covariates to get idea of presence of outlier / high leverage points :-

```
boxplot(X[, -c(1, 2)])
```



Here also we get some indication of possible presence of those points.

2 Regression Analysis

2.1 Fitting a Linear Model

Fitting a Linear Model to the Dataset

We fit a linear model of the form :-

$$\mathbf{Y}^{n \times 1} = \mathbf{X}^{n \times p} \boldsymbol{\beta}^{p \times 1} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{n \times 1}$$

where $n = 46$ (total number of observed responses) and $p = 5$ where columns of $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{1}_n \ x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3 \ x_4$ and $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \beta_0 \ \dots \ \beta_4$ each corresponding to the 4 different covariates.

We fit a linear model based on the given dataset in R and then verify the different assumptions of it.

Features of the fitted model

We fit the linear model specified before in the dataset using `lm()` function and to get an idea about the estimates we use the `summary()` function :-

```
colnames(X)=c("I","1","A1","A2","A3","A4","Y")
attach(X)
reg <- lm(Y~A1+A2+A3+A4)
summary(reg)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = Y ~ A1 + A2 + A3 + A4)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-18.8723	-6.7803	0.1507	7.3252	16.4419

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	-13.96310	11.40035	-1.225	0.2276
A1	0.09829	0.24407	0.403	0.6893
A2	1.14838	0.58300	1.970	0.0556 .
A3	1.85786	0.40096	4.634	3.61e-05 ***
A4	0.04817	0.13336	0.361	0.7198

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 10.61 on 41 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.8136, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7954

F-statistic: 44.75 on 4 and 41 DF, p-value: 1.951e-14

Explanation of the fitted model

As we can see only the coefficients β_2, β_3 for covariates “A2”, “A3” are statistically significant.

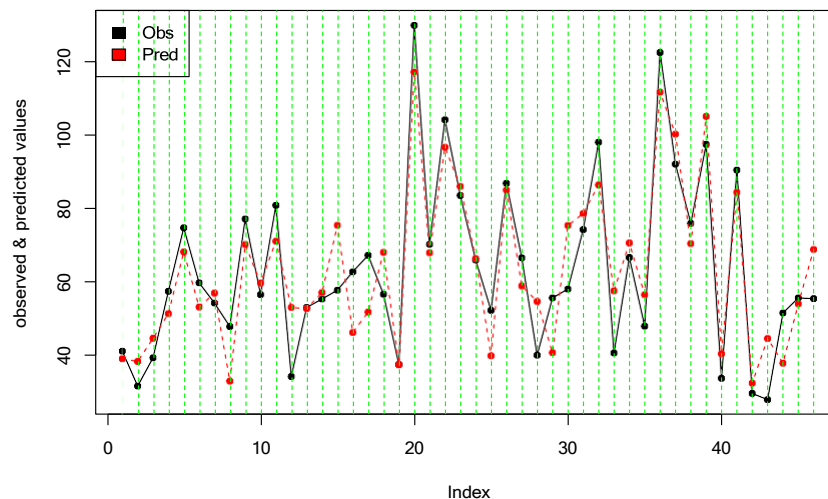
This does not imply that other covariates are insignificant since there may be many problems that are hidden in the model.

So, before concluding anything we verify all the assumptions of a linear model.

Obs vs Fitted Values

We plot the observed vs fitted values to get some idea about prediction :-

```
plot(1:nrow(X),X$Y,type = "o",pch = 20,ylab = "observed & predicted values",xlab = "Index")
lines(1:nrow(X),reg$fitted.values,type = "o",pch = 20,col = "red",lty = 2)
abline(v = 1:nrow(X),lty = 2,col = rgb(0,1,0,alpha = 0.3))
legend("topleft",legend = c("Obs","Pred"),fill = c("black","red"))
```



The fit is good except a few observations.

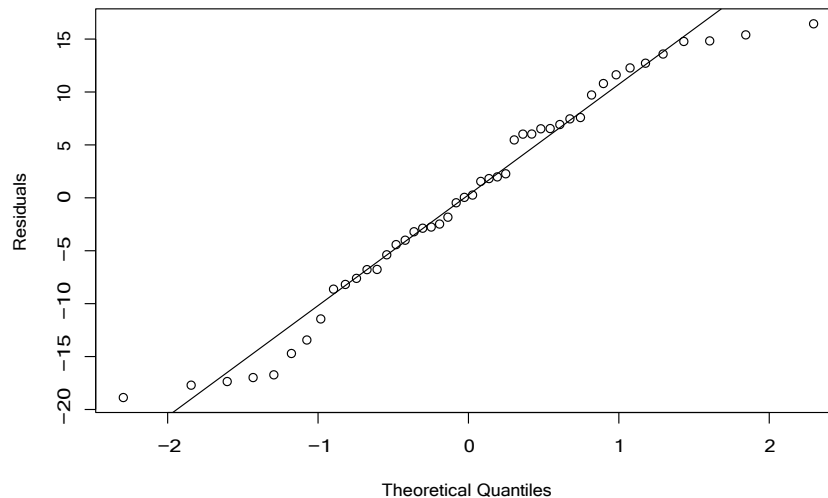
There may be many reasons for this which we will eventually look into.

2.2 Checking Model Assumptions

QQ-plot of residuals

We now plot the sorted residuals (quantiles) against the population quantiles of a normal distribution :-

```
resi<-residuals(reg)
qqnorm(resi,ylab="Residuals",main="")
qqline(resi)
```



We can see the qq-plot indicates light-tailed residuals with possible deviation from normality.

There may be some outlier points present which we will verify later.

Shapiro-Wilk Test

We test the following hypothesis H_0 : residuals are normally distributed against H_1 : H_0 is false using Shapiro-Wilk test in R as :-

```
shapiro.test(resi)
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: resi

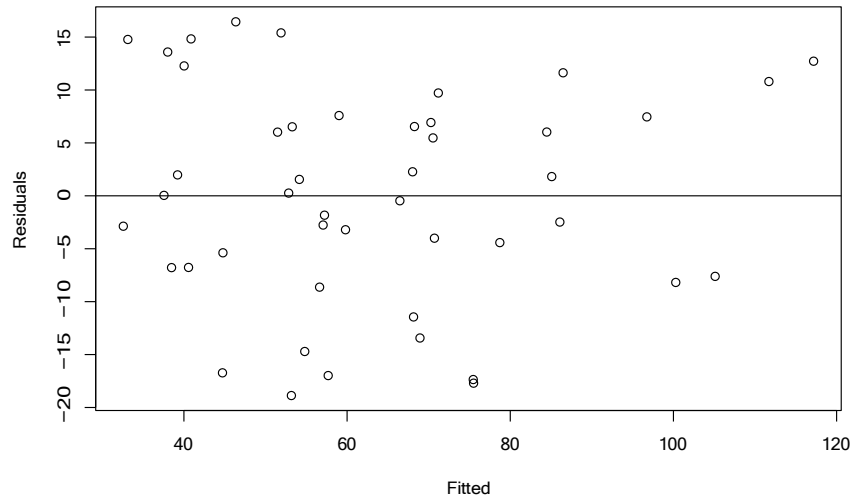
W = 0.95987, p-value = 0.1133

Though the p-value is more than 0.1 but this doesn't give strong evidence in favour of H_0 so we will further check for presence of correlation between the errors and other issues also.

Checking Homoskedasticity Assumptions

First to check homoskedasticity assumption, we make the residuals (e) vs fitted (ŷ) plots :-

```
plot(fitted(reg),residuals(reg),xlab="Fitted",ylab="Residuals")
abline(h=0)
```



We can see the plot doesn't give indication of presence of heteroskedasticity, hence we will perform confirmatory tests.

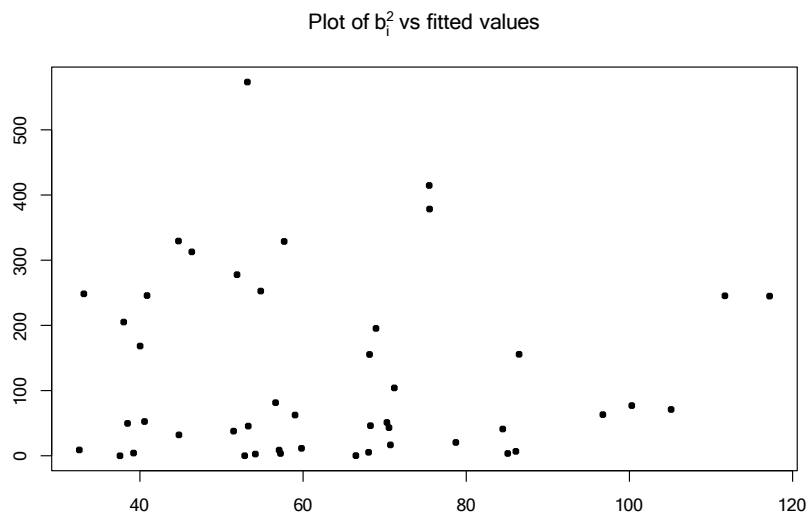
[https://online.stat.psu.edu/stat462/node/117/#:~:text=When%20conducting%20a%20residual%](https://online.stat.psu.edu/stat462/node/117/#:~:text=When%20conducting%20a%20residual%20analysis%20the%20variance%20of%20the%20residuals%20is%20assumed%20to%20be%20constant,https://www.statcrunch.com/outputs/regression/regstats/regstat1.html)

b_i vs y_i^2 plot

A standard technique to detect presence of heteroskedasticity is to plot the quantities $b_i = \frac{e_i^2}{1-h_i}$ against the fitted values \hat{y}_i .

We make the plot using R :-

```
A = as.matrix(X[,-1])
H = A%*%solve(t(A)%*%A)%*%t(A)
H_i = diag(H)
e_i = residuals(reg)
b_i = e_i^2/(1-H_i)
plot(fitted(reg),b_i,pch = 20,main = bquote("Plot of" ~ b[i]^2 ~ "vs fitted values"))
```



This plot gives no indication of any heteroskedasticity present in the residuals.

Breusch-Pagan Test

We perform the Breusch–Pagan test for testing the homoskedasticity assumptions using R :-

```
library(lmtest)
bptest(reg)

studentized Breusch-Pagan test

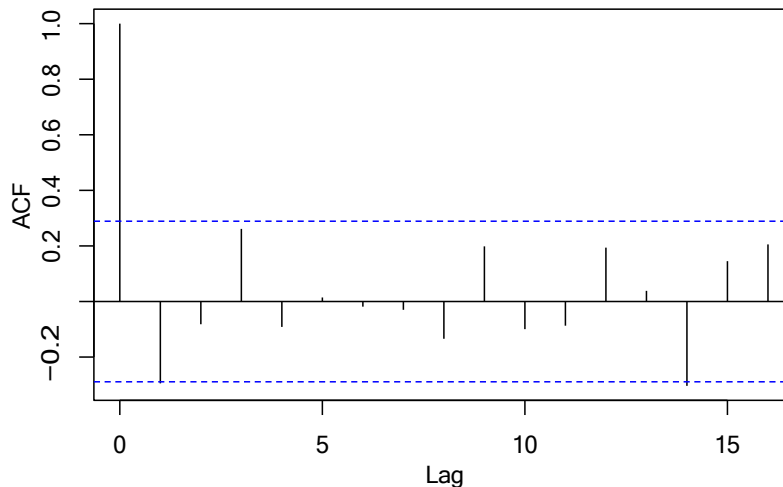
data:  reg
BP = 2.6929, df = 4, p-value = 0.6105
```

We can see that the p-value of the outcome is satisfactorily high so we can safely assume the error variances to be equal.

ACF plot

If the errors in the model are truly independent, then we will expect the sample autocorrelation coefficients for different lags k to be insignificant.

```
acf(resi,ylab = "",xlab = "",main = "")
title(xlab="Lag", ylab="ACF", line=2)
```

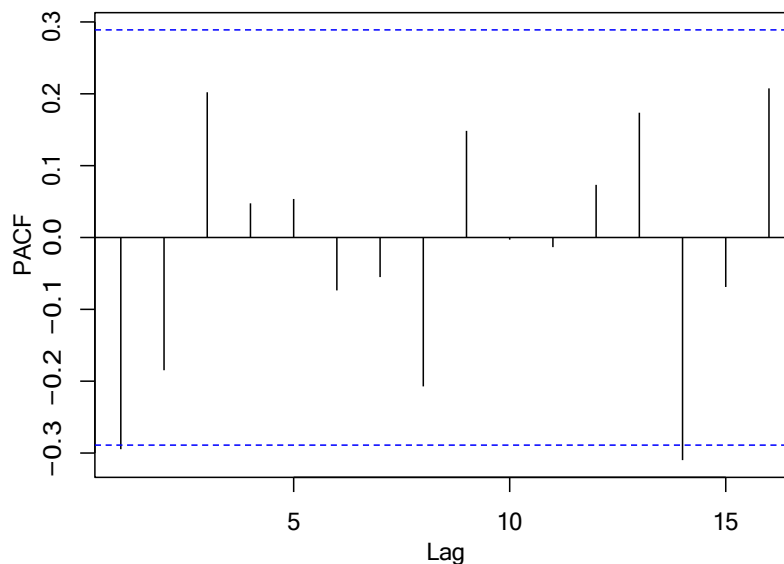


This plot clearly gives indication of no presence of any type of correlation between the residuals.

PACF plot

Similarly, we plot the sample partial autocorrelation coefficients for different lags and got the same kind of observations indicating no presence of correlations.

```
pacf(resi,ylab = "",xlab = "",main = "")
title(xlab="Lag", ylab="PACF", line=2)
```



Durbin-Watson Test

To test the null hypothesis H_0 : errors are uncorrelated against H_1 : errors are correlated, we perform Durbin-Watson test which gives the following results :-

```
require(lmtest)
dwtest(Y~A1+A2+A3+A4,data=X)
```

Durbin-Watson test

data: Y ~ A1 + A2 + A3 + A4

DW = 2.5494, p-value = 0.9734

alternative hypothesis: true autocorrelation is greater than 0

Since the test gives high p-value we can accept H_0 hence the assumption of uncorrelated residuals can be assumed to be satisfied.

Breusch–Godfrey test

To check whether residuals are uncorrelated for higher orders, we perform the Breusch–Godfrey test upto order 20.

```
require(lmtest)
bptest(reg,order = 20)
```

Breusch-Godfrey test for serial correlation of order up to 20

data: reg

LM test = 24.951, df = 20, p-value = 0.2033

Here also the p-value is fairly high favouring the null assumption.

2.3 Detecting Influential Points

Hat Matrix Diagonals

To detect high leverage points, we compute the hat matrix diagonals h_i of the matrix $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T$:-

```
hat_d <- hatvalues(reg)
head(sort(hat_d,dec=TRUE))
```

	36	20	12	38	30	39
	0.4994692	0.3042241	0.3015417	0.2998329	0.2078749	0.1721364

We find out if there is any diagonal element with value $> \frac{2p}{n}$ as they should be looked at more closely.

```
n = nrow(X);p = 5
hat_d[hat_d > 2*(p/n)]
```

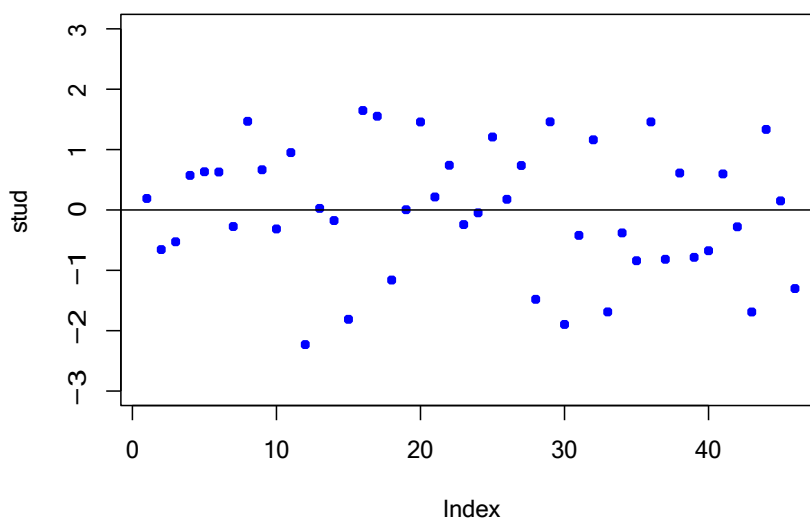
	12	20	36	38
	0.3015417	0.3042241	0.4994692	0.2998329

Hence we will apply other procedures also to confirm whether these points are influential or not.

Externally Studentized Residuals

We plot the externally studentized residuals using the formula $t_i^2 = \frac{e_i^2}{\frac{1}{n-p-1} \sum_{j=1}^n e_j^2}$:-

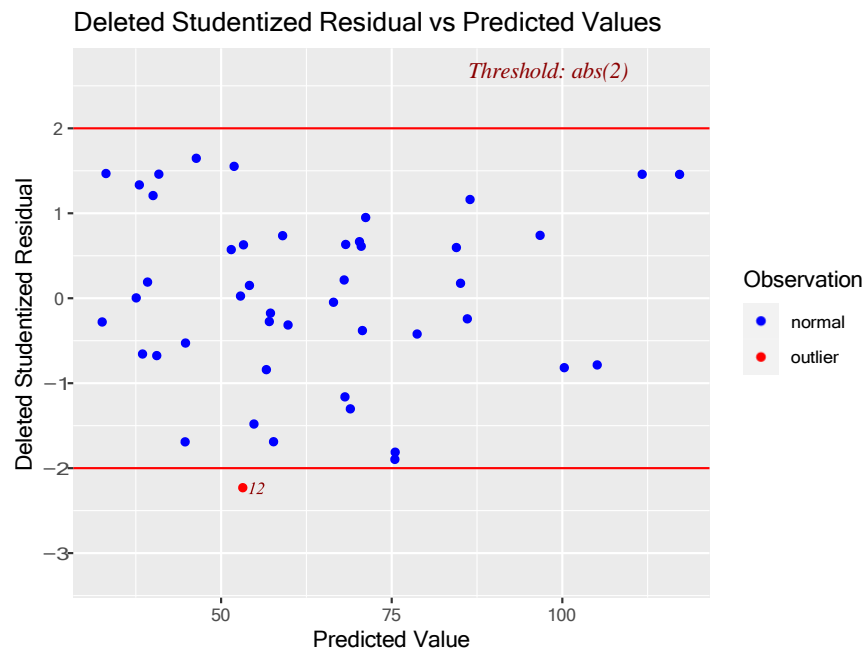
```
stud <- rstudent(reg)
plot(stud,ylim = c(-3,3),pch=20,col = "blue")
abline(h=c(0))
```



If the assumptions are correct i.e. $\epsilon \sim N_n(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$ then we should get that $t_i \sim t_{n-p-1}$.

Hence the significant externally studentized residuals will have values $|t_i| > t_{n-p-1; \frac{\alpha}{2}} \iff t_i^2 > F_{n-p-1; \alpha} :-$

```
ols_plot_resid_stud_fit(reg)
```



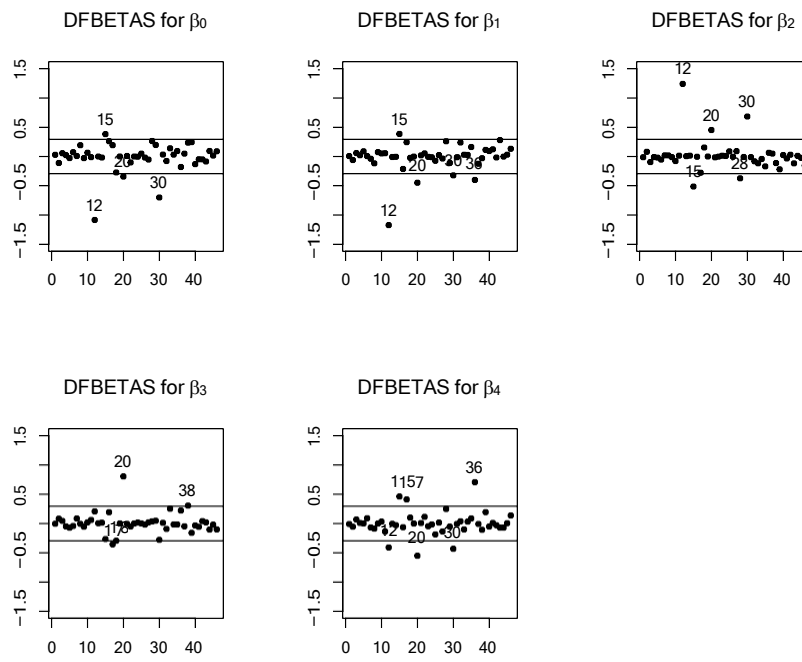
We can see from the plot that one residual is significant hence we treat that as an outlier.

DFBETAS

After outliers, we check for presence of high leverage points, which can be detected using DFBETAS measure for different parameters $DFBETAS_{ij} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j - \hat{\beta}_{(i)}}{s(i) \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_i \frac{c_{j+1,i}^2}{c_{j+1,i}^2}}}$ where $\mathbf{C} = ((c_{ij})) = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{X}_1^{-1} \mathbf{X}$.

We will consider the points for which $|DFBETAS_{ij}| > \sqrt{\frac{2}{n}}$. In the next slide we plot the values for all the 5 coefficients $\beta_i, i = 0, \dots, 4$.

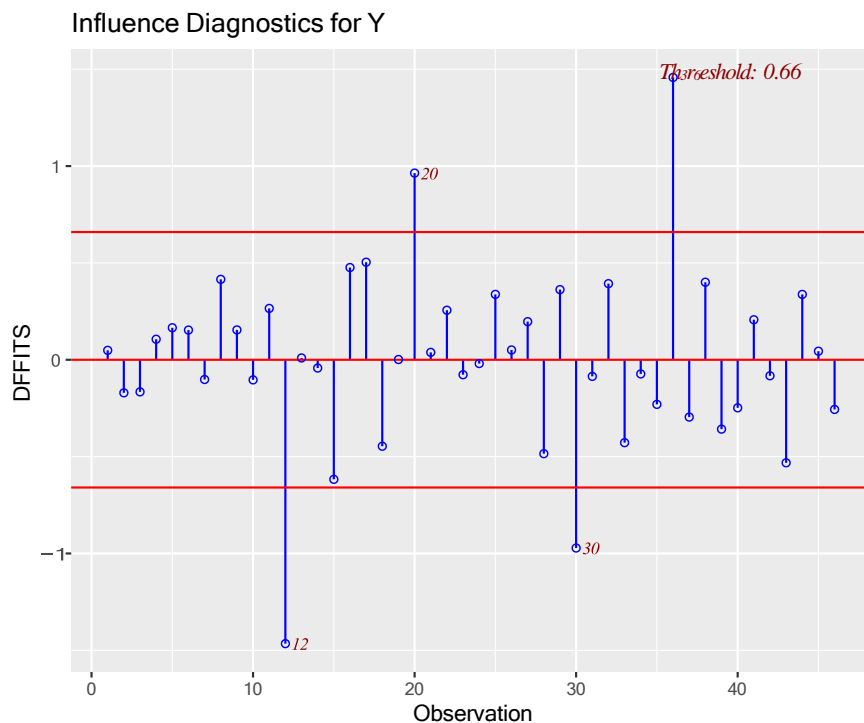
```
par(mfrow = c(2,3))
DFBETAS = dfbetas(reg)
for(i in 1:5)
{
  plot(DFBETAS[,i], main=bquote("DFBETAS for" ~ beta[.(i-1)]), ylab="", ylim=c(-1.5,1.5), xlab="", pch=
  abline(h=c(-2/sqrt(n), 2/sqrt(n)))
  ind = which(abs(DFBETAS[,i]) > 2/sqrt(n)) # beta_0
  text = text(ind, DFBETAS[ind,i], pos = 3, labels = ind)
}
```



DFFITS

To notice the change in fitted values, we plot the DFFITS values for all the points where $DFFITS_i = t_i \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-h_i}} \frac{\hat{e}_i}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2}}$ and we will check for the points for which $|DFFITS_i| > 2 \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{n}}$.

`ols_plot_dffits(reg)`



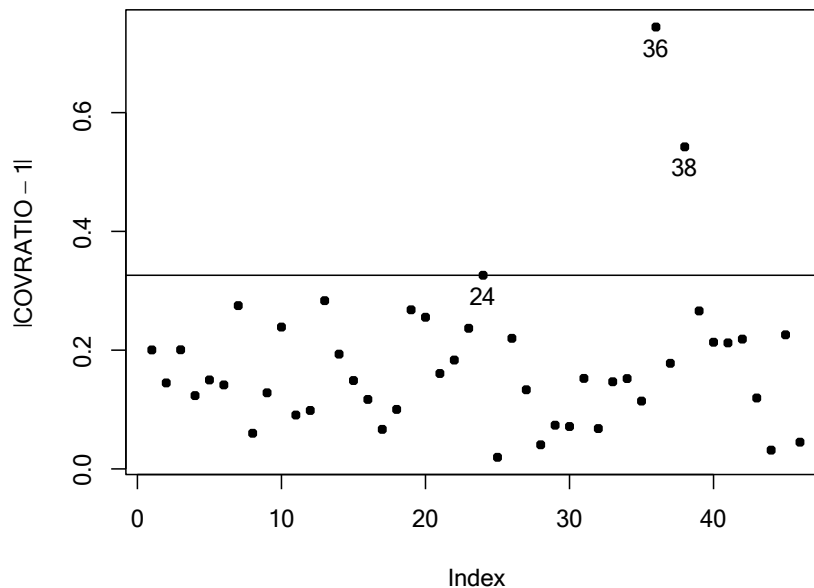
COVRATIO

We also plot the COVRATIO values which are defined as

$$COVRATIO_i = \frac{A}{n-p} + \frac{t_i^2}{n-p} B^{-p} (1-h_i)^{-1}$$

and we consider the points to have high fluence for which $|COVRATIO - 1| > \frac{3p}{n}$.

```
COVRATIO = covratio(reg)
plot(abs(COVRATIO-1),ylab=expression(abs(COVRATIO-1)),pch = 20)
abline(h = 3*p/n)
ind = which(abs(COVRATIO-1) >= 3*p/n)
text(ind,abs(COVRATIO[ind]-1),pos = 1,labels = ind)
```



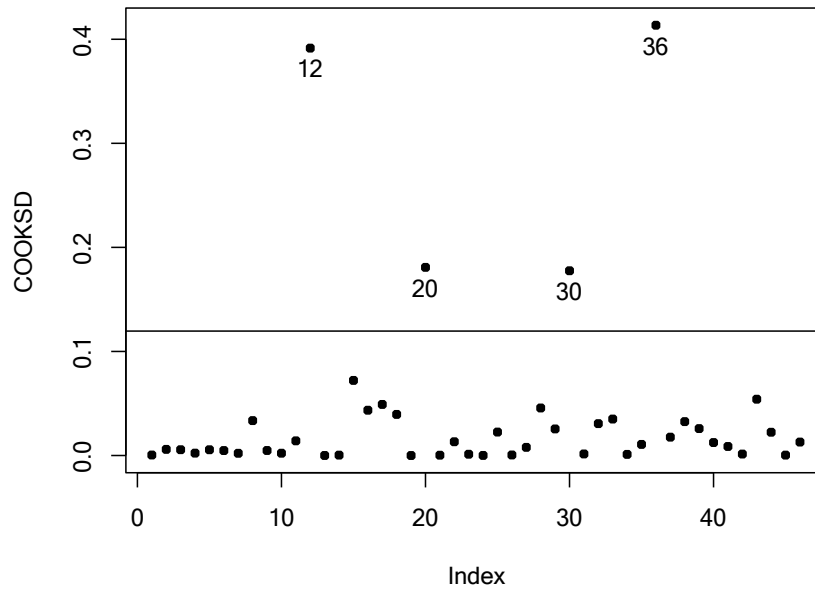
Cook's D

Lastly, we calculate the Cook's Distance $D_i = \frac{(\hat{\beta}_i - \hat{\beta})^T X^T X (\hat{\beta}_i - \hat{\beta})}{p S^2} = \frac{r_i^2 h_i}{p(1-h_i)}$ for all the n points.

We flag the points as suspicious for which $D_i > \frac{4}{n}$ here $n = 46, p = 5$. Whose value equals to 0.087.

We plot the values and see if such suspicious points exists or not.

```
COOKSD = cooks.distance(reg)
plot(COOKSD,pch=20)
abline(h = 3*mean(COOKSD))
ind = which(COOKSD > 3*mean(COOKSD)) # beta_0
text = text(ind,COOKSD[ind],pos = 1,labels = ind)
```



We can clearly notice that the points 12,20,30,36 have significant values of D_i . So we will investigate them further.

Conclusion

From all the diagnostics performed for finding influential observations, we can make the following table of our findings :-

Diagnostic Measures	Points Detected
h_i	12, 20, 36, 38
t_i	12
$DFBETAS$	12, 15, 17, 18, 20, 28, 30, 36
$DFFITS$	12, 20, 30, 36
$COV\ RATIO$	24, 36, 38
$Cook's\ D$	12, 20, 30, 36

Hence, from the table, we conclude the points 12, 20, 30, 36 to be influential points and we will later remove them from the model and see the changes occurring in all aspects of the fitted linear models.

2.4 Remedies For Influential Points

Removing Influential Points

We remove the influential points and then again fit a linear model with all the covariates and write the summary output of the fitted model here :-

```
summary(lm(Y~A1+A2+A3+A4,data=X[-c(12,20,30,36),]))
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = Y ~ A1 + A2 + A3 + A4, data = X[-c(12, 20, 30, 36),
])
```

```

Residuals:
    Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-16.6468  -5.0683  -0.3998   6.1885  16.7016

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 20.2021    11.7358   1.721 0.09353 .
A1           0.8783     0.2582   3.401 0.00162 **
A2          -0.7104     0.6205  -1.145 0.25960
A3           1.2890     0.3960   3.255 0.00243 **
A4           0.1489     0.1312   1.134 0.26392
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 8.672 on 37 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared:  0.8236, Adjusted R-squared:  0.8045
F-statistic: 43.18 on 4 and 37 DF, p-value: 1.867e-13

```

This model has increased value of $R^2_{adj} = 0.8045$.

Improvements in the fitted model

From the output, we can see that the R^2_{adj} value has increased from that of the full model which was = 0.7954.

Also we can see that the model indicates the estimates of the intercept term $\hat{\beta}_0$, variables A1 & A3 $\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_3$ to be significant.

Whether covariate A2 is significant or not, will be verified later.

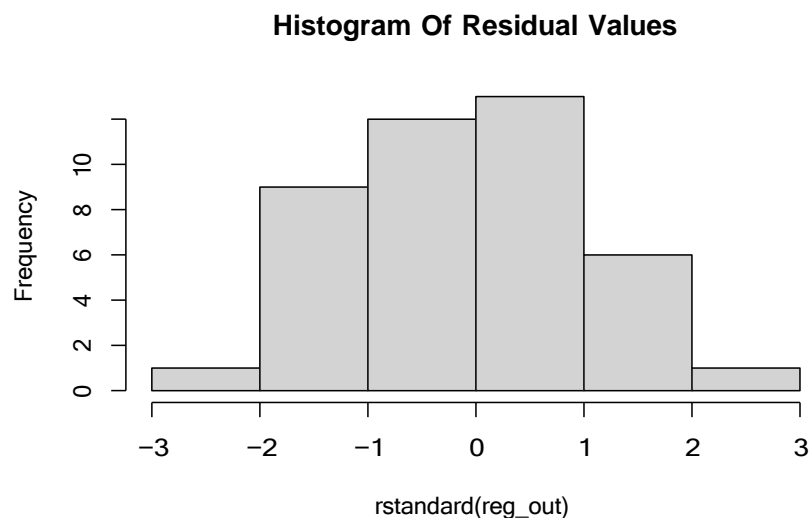
Histogram of Residuals

We also plot the histogram of the residual values and can notice it's symmetric about 0 and seems to be normally distributed :-

```

reg_out = lm(Y~A1+A2+A3+A4,data = X[-c(12,20,30,36),])
hist(rstandard(reg_out),breaks = 5,main = "Histogram Of Residual Values")

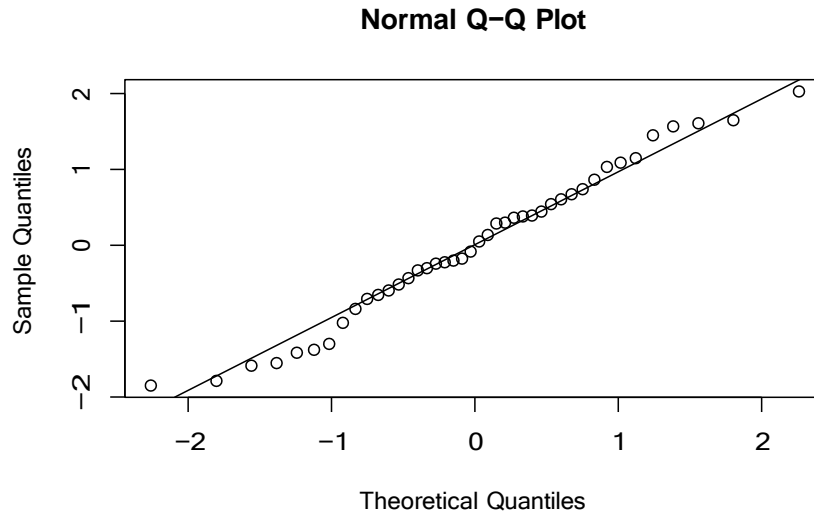
```



QQ-plot

For checking the assumptions for the residuals we again make the quantile-quantile plot of the standardized residuals :-

```
reg_out = lm(Y~A1+A3+A4,data = X[-c(12,20,30,36),])  
qqnorm(rstandard(reg_out))  
qqline(rstandard(reg_out))
```



Checking Other Assumptions

We again perform both the Shapiro-Wilk test and Durbin-Watson test for checking normality and presence of correlation between the residuals, respectively. We write down the observations in the following table :-

Tests	Model with influential points	Model without influential points
Shapiro-Wilk	0.1133	0.8429
Durbin-Watson	0.9734	0.6943
Breusch-Pagan	0.6105	0.5742
Breusch-Godfrey	0.2033	0.7973

Hence we can see considerable improvement in the normality assumptions of the residuals whereas the uncorrelated & homoskedasticity assumptions are more or less remains equally acceptable.

Hence, the model can be considered to be better than the previous model as a result of removing the influential points.

2.5 Collinearity

Multicollinearity

Next we consider the problem of multicollinearity that may be present in our dataset as suspected from the pairwise scatterplots.

We calculate the condition number for the scaled and centred model matrix \mathbf{X}^* which is $\kappa(\mathbf{X}^*) = \frac{\lambda_{max}}{\lambda_{min}}$ where λ_i 's are the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{X}^{*T} \mathbf{X}^* = \mathbf{R}_{xx}$. We calculate $\kappa(\mathbf{X}^*)$ using R :-

```
X_mdl = model.matrix(reg)[-1]
kappa(scale(X_mdl))
```

```
[1] 8.624355
```

Hence, the square of condition number $\kappa^2(\mathbf{X}^*) \approx 74.379$ is an upper bound for the VIFs which is quite large !

VIF

Now, to determine whether some covariate with corresponding column \mathbf{x}_j , can be predicted accurately using other covariates or not, we compute the variance inflation factors $VIF_j = \frac{1}{1-R_j^2}$ where R_j^2 is the coefficient of determination of the regression of $\mathbf{x}^{*(j)}$ on the columns of $\mathbf{X}^{*(j)}$.

We calculate the VIF_j values for $j = 1, 2, 3, 4$ in R :-

```
require("faraway")
vif(lm(Y~A1+A2+A3+A4,data = X[-c(12,20,30,36),]))#high implies collinearity
```

```
      A1      A2      A3      A4
9.261059 9.360894 2.857795 2.751179
```

For the variables A1 and A2, we can see that the VIF values are greater than 5 and even close to 10! So we can interpret this as “the standard error of $\hat{\beta}_1$ and $\hat{\beta}_2$ would be $\sqrt{9.26} \approx 3.043$ and $\sqrt{9.361} \approx 3.059$ times more (respectively) than it would have been without the presence of collinearity”.

Effect of Influential Points on Collinearity

This is a very interesting observation that we have made in the dataset.

If we remove the influential points and then calculate the VIF values, we get :-

```
require("faraway")
vif(lm(Y~A1+A2+A3+A4,data = X[-c(12,20,30,36),]))#high implies collinearity
```

```
      A1      A2      A3      A4
9.261059 9.360894 2.857795 2.751179
```

But if we do the same without removing those points, we get :-

```
require("faraway")
vif(lm(Y~A1+A2+A3+A4,data = X[[]]))#high implies collinearity
```

```
      A1      A2      A3      A4
5.910333 6.748416 3.080737 3.488172
```

So, as we can see the VIF values increased after removal of the influential points.

This is intuitive from the fact that actual linear dependence between the covariates was being slightly nullified by the presence of such influential points.

Demonstrating Effect of Collinearity

To demonstrate how collinearity can affect the estimates badly, we deliberately introduce some random noise in the response observations ($\epsilon \sim N(0, 1)$) and then fit a linear model and see the changes in the estimate.

```
set.seed(2124)
lmod_per = lm(Y+10*rnorm(nrow(X)-4,s = 5) ~ A1+A2+A3+A4,data = X[-c(12,20,30,36),])
reg$coefficients
```

```
(Intercept)          A1          A2          A3          A4
-13.96310010   0.09828590   1.14837707   1.85786103   0.04817018
```

```
lmod_per$coefficients
```

```
(Intercept)          A1          A2          A3          A4
  1.304038    2.353402   -2.501280   -4.056390    1.437409
```

Hence, we can clearly see the how the estimates change a lot for introducing random noise in the response.

2.6 Remedies For Collinearity

Dealing with Collinearity

To deal with the collinearity present in the dataset, we first try to remove one of the correlated covariates “A1” or “A2” and see what improvements are observed in the variation inflation factors :-

Model	Condition Number (κ)	R^2_{adj}
$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A1 + \beta_2 A2 + \beta_3 A3 + \beta_4 A4$	8.512	0.795
$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_2 A2 + \beta_3 A3 + \beta_4 A4$	5.625	0.755
$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A1 + \beta_3 A3 + \beta_4 A4$	3.951	0.803

We also check for other assumptions between the models :-

Tests	Full Model	Without “A1”	Without “A2”
Shapiro-Wilk	0.1133	0.563	0.2461
Durbin-Watson	0.9734	0.7376	0.7638
Breusch-Pagan	0.6105	0.3742	0.9423

Dealing with Collinearity

Hence, the model with covariates “A1”, “A3”, “A4” seems to be a much better model in terms of both prediction and accuracy of the estimates of β . Also if we calculate the VIF values for the last model, we get them to be considerably small :-

```
vif(reg_out)
```

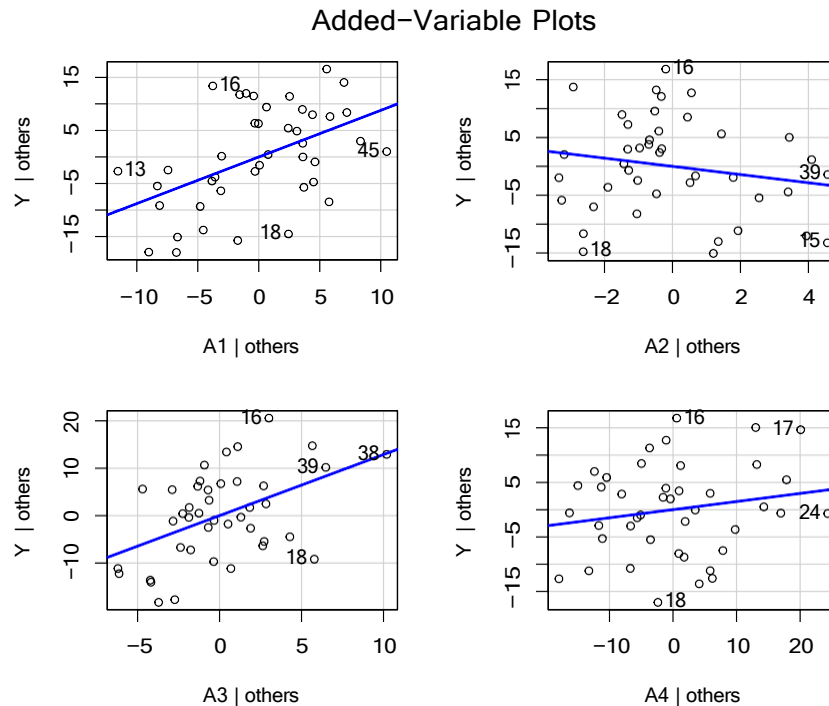
```
          A1          A3          A4
2.360578  2.491333  1.677148
```

This is also relatable from the fact that initially covariate “A2” had the maximum VIF value and the condition number also decreased significantly due to its removal.

Added Variable Plot

For better understanding the contribution of a covariate in the regression model, we make a scatter plot of $\mathbf{e}^{(i)} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P}_i) \mathbf{Y}$ against $(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P}_i) \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ where $\mathbf{e}^{(i)}$ are the residuals of the model with variable A_i excluded and $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ is the column of observations of A_i . This is also called the added variable plot.

```
avPlots(lm(Y~A1+A2+A3+A4,data = X[-c(12,20,30,36),]))
```



Conclusion

From the 4 plots, we can see that slopes of the fitted lines for the added variable plots of $A1$ & $A3$ are much more significant than other two plots for $A2$ & $A4$.

We can make some important conclusions from here.

This indicates that once predictor $A1$, $A3$, $A4$ is included, $A2$ can be excluded from the model for the high collinearity present between them.

Similar can be said for $A4$.

Now, for much better conclusions, we perform further model selection procedures based on several criterias.

2.7 Model Selection

Stepwise Selection

We perform the stepwise selection algorithm which performs a forward selection (FS) followed by a backward elimination (BE) using the AIC criterion and get to an optimum model.

We get the following sequence of models in the selection procedure :-

Model	AIC Value
$Y = \beta_0$	372.1803
$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_3 A_3$	319.7608
$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A_1 + \beta_3 A_3$	305.0896

We give the final model as an output we get in R :-

Stepwise Selection Method

Candidate Terms:

- 1 . A1
- 2 . A2
- 3 . A3
- 4 . A4

Step 0: AIC = 372.1803
Y ~ 1

Variables Entered/Removed:

Enter New Variables

Variable	DF	AIC	Sum Sq	RSS	R-Sq	Adj. R-Sq
A1	1	319.761	11455.113	4316.877	0.726	0.719
A3	1	324.405	10950.375	4821.615	0.694	0.687
A2	1	340.276	8736.385	7035.605	0.554	0.543
A4	1	355.432	5678.829	10093.161	0.360	0.344

- A1 added

Step 1 : AIC = 319.7608
Y ~ A1

Enter New Variables

Variable	DF	AIC	Sum Sq	RSS	R-Sq	Adj. R-Sq
A3	1	305.090	12869.415	2902.575	0.816	0.807
A4	1	318.972	11732.403	4039.587	0.744	0.731
A2	1	321.033	11529.316	4242.673	0.731	0.717

- A3 added

Step 2 : AIC = 305.0896
Y ~ A1 + A3

Remove Existing Variables

Variable	DF	AIC	Sum Sq	RSS	R-Sq	Adj. R-Sq
A3	1	319.761	11455.113	4316.877	0.726	0.719
A1	1	324.405	10950.375	4821.615	0.694	0.687

Enter New Variables

Variable	DF	AIC	Sum Sq	RSS	R-Sq	Adj. R-Sq
A2	1	306.749	12892.877	2879.113	0.817	0.803
A4	1	306.775	12891.077	2880.913	0.817	0.803

No more variables to be added or removed.

Final Model Output

Model Summary								
R	0.903	RMSE		8.627				
R-Squared	0.816	Coef. Var		14.066				
Adj. R-Squared	0.807	MSE		74.425				
Pred R-Squared	0.788	MAE		6.755				
RMSE: Root Mean Square Error								
MSE: Mean Square Error								
MAE: Mean Absolute Error								
ANOVA								
	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.			
Regression	12869.415	2	6434.707	86.459	0.0000			
Residual	2902.575	39	74.425					
Total	15771.990	41						
Parameter Estimates								
model	Beta	Std. Error	Std. Beta	t	Sig	lower	upper	
A1	0.640	0.126	0.521	5.078	0.000	0.385	0.895	
A3	1.516	0.348	0.447	4.359	0.000	0.813	2.219	
Stepwise Summary								
Variable	Method	AIC	RSS	Sum Sq	R-Sq	Adj. R-Sq		
A1	addition	319.761	4316.877	11455.113	0.72629	0.71945		
A3	addition	305.090	2902.575	12869.415	0.81597	0.80653		

Hence, this method gives the model containing covariates “A1”, “A3” as the optimum one.

Best Subset Selection

We use different criteria for choosing optimal model among all the 15 possible linear models and plot the diagrams for all of them one by one.

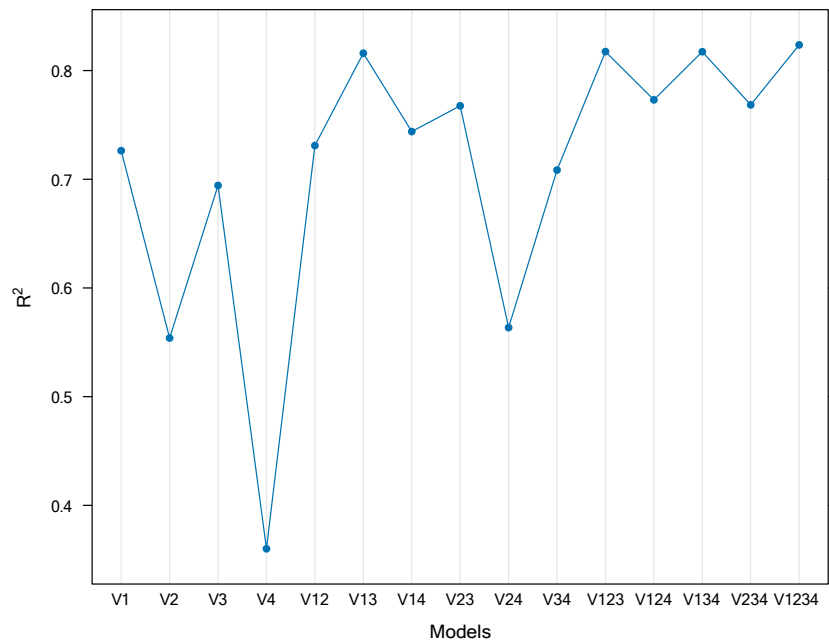
```
X_m = X[, -c(1, 2)]
X1 <- X_m[-c(12, 20, 30, 36), ]
names(X1) <- c("V1", "V2", "V3", "V4", "V5")
models <- list()
models[["V1"]] <- lm(V5 ~ V1, X1)
models[["V2"]] <- lm(V5 ~ V2, X1)
models[["V3"]] <- lm(V5 ~ V3, X1)
models[["V4"]] <- lm(V5 ~ V4, X1)
models[["V12"]] <- lm(V5 ~ V1 + V2, X1)
models[["V13"]] <- lm(V5 ~ V1 + V3, X1)
models[["V14"]] <- lm(V5 ~ V1 + V4, X1)
models[["V23"]] <- lm(V5 ~ V2 + V3, X1)
models[["V24"]] <- lm(V5 ~ V2 + V4, X1)
models[["V34"]] <- lm(V5 ~ V3 + V4, X1)
models[["V123"]] <- lm(V5 ~ V1 + V2 + V3, X1)
```

```
models[["V124"]] <- lm(V5~V1+V2+V4,X1)
models[["V134"]] <- lm(V5~V1+V3+V4,X1)
models[["V234"]] <- lm(V5~V2+V3+V4,X1)
models[["V1234"]] <- lm(V5~V1+V2+V3+V4,X1)

mnames<-factor(names(models),levels = names(models))
```

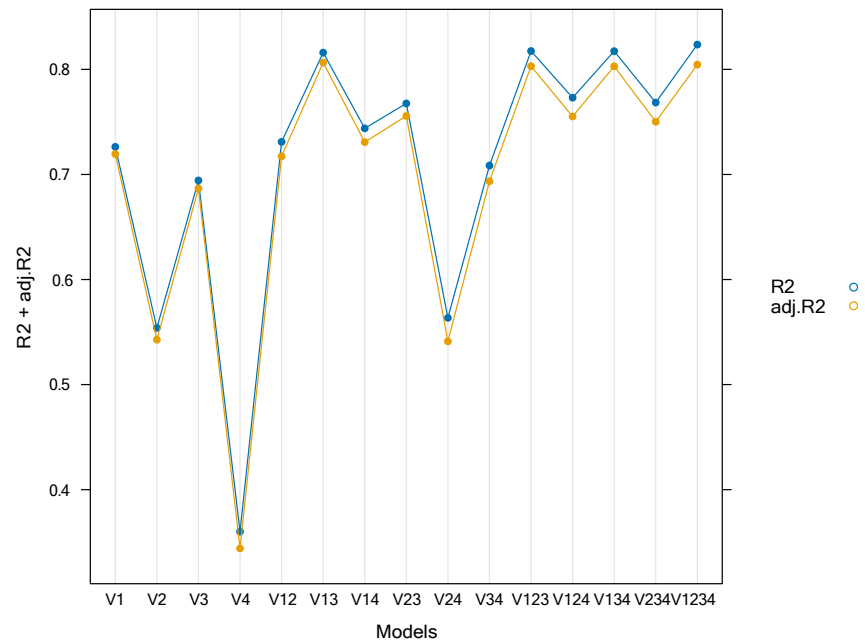
Coefficient of determination (R^2)

```
R2 <- sapply(models, function(fit) summary(fit)$r.squared)
dotplot(R2 ~ mnames, type = "o", pch = 16, auto.key=list(space="right"), xlab="Models", ylab="expressi
```

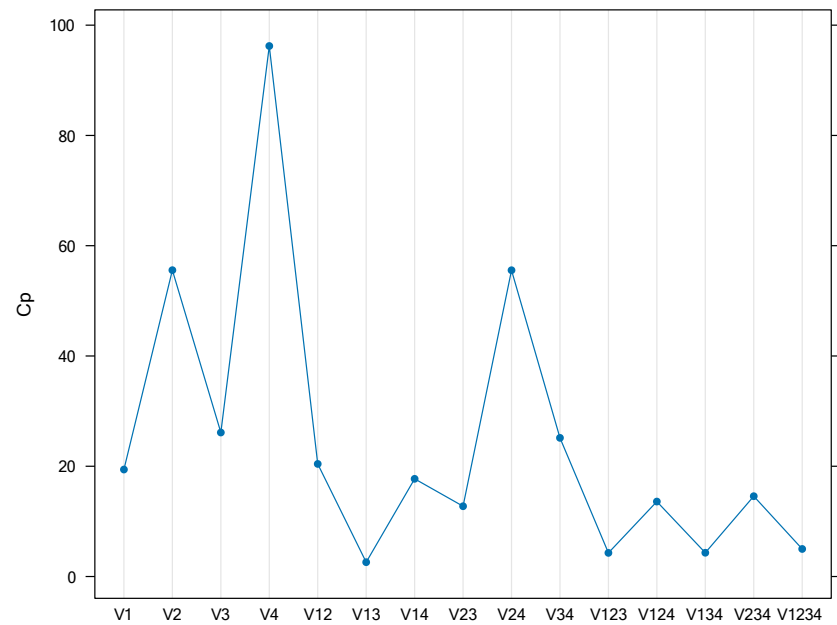


R^2 & R^2_{adj}

```
adj.R2 <- sapply(models, function(fit) summary(fit)$adj.r.squared)
dotplot(R2 + adj.R2 ~ mnames, type = "o", pch = 16, auto.key=list(space="right"), xlab="Models")
```

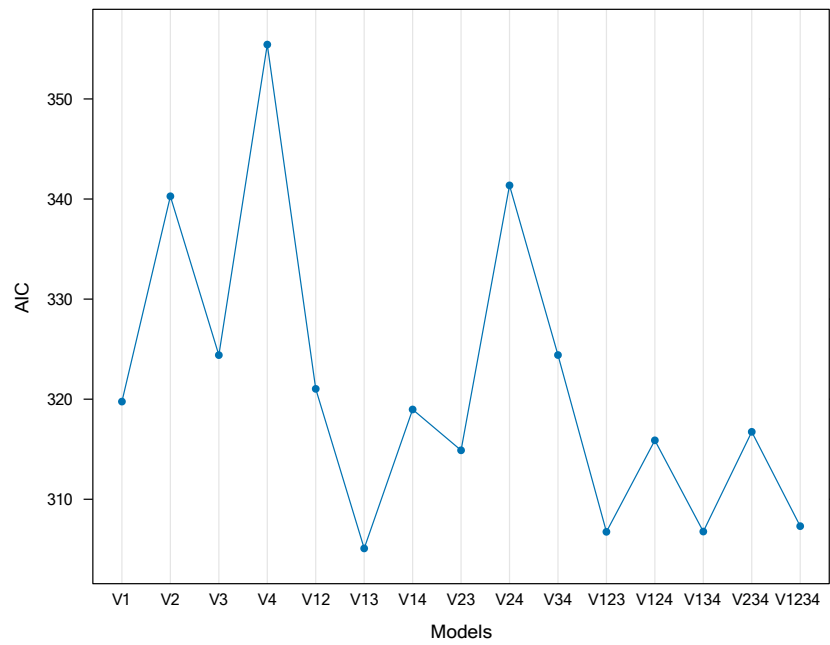


Mallow's C_p



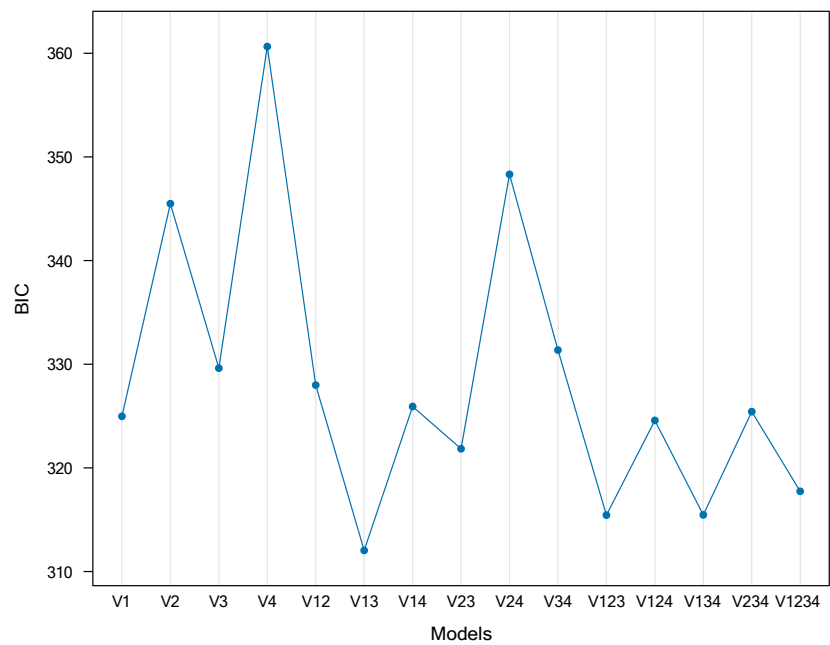
Akaike information criterion (AIC)

```
AIC <- sapply(models, function(fit) AIC(fit))
dotplot(AIC ~ mnames, type = "o", pch = 16, xlab="Models")
```



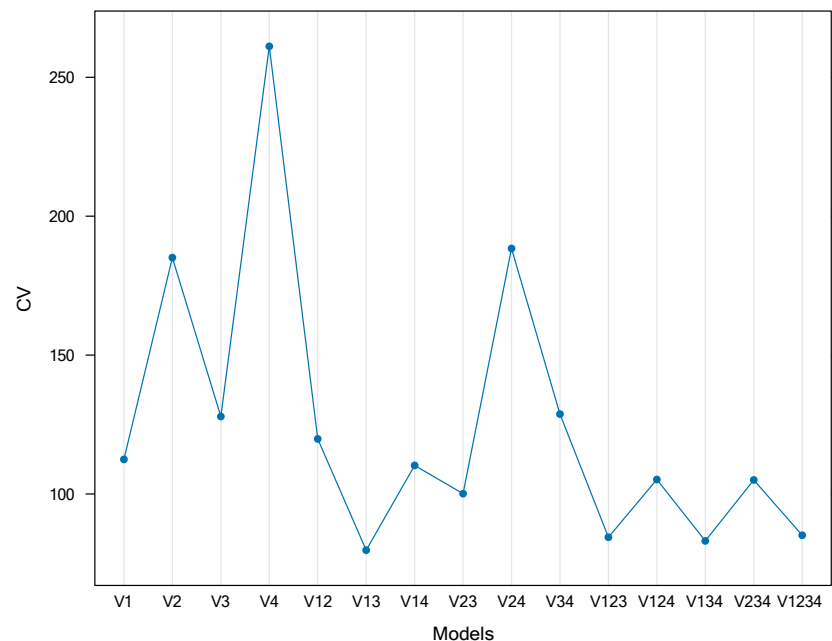
Bayesian information criterion (BIC)

```
BIC <- sapply(models, function(fit) BIC(fit))
dotplot(BIC ~ mnames, type = "o", pch = 16, xlab="Models")
```



Leave-One-Out CV

```
CV = NULL
for(i in 1:15)
{
  X_mdl_mat = model.matrix(models[[i]])
  head(X_mdl_mat)
  Y_vec = X1$V5
  H = X_mdl_mat%*%solve(t(X_mdl_mat)%*%X_mdl_mat)%*%t(X_mdl_mat)
  h = diag(H)
  n_h = nrow(X1)
  CV[i] = (1/n_h)*sum((Y_vec-H%*%Y_vec)^2/(1-h)^2)
}
dotplot(CV ~ mnames, type = "o", pch = 16,xlab="Models")
```



Values of different measures for all the models

We list down the values of R^2 , R^2_{adj} , Mallows's C_p , AIC , BIC , $CV(1)$ values in one table for all the 15 models for better comparison :-

	R2	adj.R2	Cp	AIC	BIC	CV
V1	0.7262947	0.7194521	19.406493	319.7608	324.9738	112.46225
V2	0.5539177	0.5427657	55.560548	340.2757	345.4888	185.08170
V3	0.6942925	0.6866498	26.118573	324.4050	329.6180	127.88888
V4	0.3600579	0.3440593	96.220397	355.4325	360.6455	261.15078
V12	0.7309995	0.7172046	20.419718	321.0326	327.9832	119.82317
V13	0.8159665	0.8065289	2.598883	305.0896	312.0402	79.76883
V14	0.7438759	0.7307413	17.719047	318.9724	325.9231	110.28385
V23	0.7675782	0.7556591	12.747757	314.8939	321.8445	100.10949
V24	0.5635089	0.5411247	55.548917	341.3629	348.3135	188.38242
V34	0.7084529	0.6935017	25.148610	324.4131	331.3638	128.75523
V123	0.8174541	0.8030425	4.286879	306.7487	315.4370	84.42043
V124	0.7730732	0.7551579	13.595257	315.8890	324.5773	105.20886
V134	0.8173399	0.8029194	4.310820	306.7749	315.4633	83.10493


```
V234 0.7684411 0.7501601 14.566777 316.7376 325.4260 105.04886
V1234 0.8235897 0.8045183 5.000000 307.3127 317.7387 85.14023
```

Conclusion

Now, we write down the optimal models we get from different model selection criteria with corresponding values :-

Criteria	Optimum Model	Value
R^2_{adj}	$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A_1 + \beta_3 A_3$	0.8065
Mallow's C_p	$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A_1 + \beta_3 A_3$	2.598
AIC	$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A_1 + \beta_3 A_3$	305.089
BIC	$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A_1 + \beta_3 A_3$	312.0402
CV (1)	$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A_1 + \beta_3 A_3$	79.76883

Hence, clearly this indicates among all the linear models, $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A_1 + \beta_3 A_3$ is optimum based on several criteria.

This is also intuitive from the fact that here we are removing the covariates which had linear dependence.

In terms of terminology of the given dataset, the optimum predictors of Y = Cirrhosis death rate are A_1 = Urban population & A_3 = Wine consumption per capita.

So the optimum fitted model can be written as :-

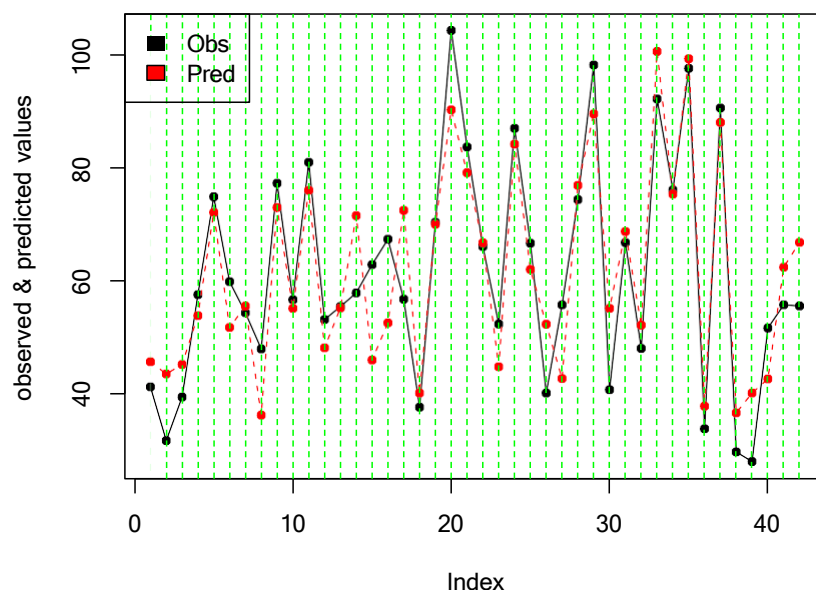
$$Y = 9.9241 + 0.6397A_1 + 1.5159A_3$$

Also we observed that all the covariates in the model are significant.

Obs vs Fitted Values

We plot the observed vs fitted values obtained using this model :-

```
X1 = X[-c(12,20,30,36),]
mod_opt = lm(Y ~ A1+A3, data = X[-c(12,20,30,36),])
plot(1:nrow(X1),X1$Y,type = "o",pch = 20,ylab = "observed & predicted values",xlab = "Index")
lines(1:nrow(X1),mod_opt$fitted.values,type = "o",pch = 20,col = "red",lty = 2)
abline(v = 1:nrow(X1),lty = 2,col = rgb(0,1,0,alpha = 0.3))
legend("topleft",legend = c("Obs","Pred"),fill = c("black","red"))
```



Here we can see the prediction is accurate compared to the full model.

Conclusion

Again we perform all the diagnostic tests for this final model and find the following :-

Tests	p-values
Shapiro-Wilk	0.6282
Durbin-Watson	0.645
Breusch-Pagan	0.2723
Breusch-Godfrey	0.9345

All the assumptions seem to be satisfied here. Hence we can really consider this to be a good model.

Models with Interaction Terms

One class of models that we have not considered yet are those with interaction terms (upto second order). Since there can be too many of them, we will not perform best subset selection here. Rather we again perform stepwise regression for choosing an optimal one among them.

In this class, we get the following model :-

```
mod_wt_out = lm(Y ~ A1+A2+A3+A4, data = X[-c(12,20,30,36),])
STEP_REG = stepAIC(mod_wt_out,scope = list(upper = ~(A1+A2+A3+A4)^2, lower = ~1),trace = TRUE)
```

```
Start:  AIC=186.12
Y ~ A1 + A2 + A3 + A4
```

	Df	Sum of Sq	RSS	AIC
+ A1:A4	1	186.85	2595.5	185.20
+ A2:A4	1	173.31	2609.0	185.42

```

- A4      1      96.77 2879.1 185.56
- A2      1      98.57 2880.9 185.58
+ A3:A4   1     153.19 2629.1 185.74
+ A1:A2   1     134.69 2647.7 186.04
<none>                2782.3 186.12
+ A2:A3   1      77.78 2704.6 186.93
+ A1:A3   1      22.44 2759.9 187.78
- A3      1     796.75 3579.1 194.70
- A1      1     869.80 3652.1 195.55

```

Step: AIC=185.2

Y ~ A1 + A2 + A3 + A4 + A1:A4

	Df	Sum of Sq	RSS	AIC
- A2	1	104.35	2699.8	184.86
<none>			2595.5	185.20
- A1:A4	1	186.85	2782.3	186.12
+ A1:A3	1	56.52	2539.0	186.28
+ A1:A2	1	7.45	2588.0	187.08
+ A3:A4	1	4.07	2591.4	187.14
+ A2:A3	1	3.27	2592.2	187.15
+ A2:A4	1	0.45	2595.0	187.19
- A3	1	674.06	3269.6	192.90

Step: AIC=184.86

Y ~ A1 + A3 + A4 + A1:A4

	Df	Sum of Sq	RSS	AIC
--	----	-----------	-----	-----

Call:

```
lm(formula = Y ~ A1 + A3 + A4 + A1:A4, data = X[-c(12, 20, 30, 36), ])
```

Coefficients:

(Intercept)	A1	A3	A4	A1:A4
36.182148	0.121091	1.366505	-0.448029	0.008963

This model has an adjusted R^2 value equal to 0.8299. But the main problem is this model has very high vif values and many of the predictors are not significant. So we don't consider these type of models.

Conclusion

Hence we conclude our final multiple linear regression model is :-

$$Y = 9.9241 + 0.6397A1 + 1.5159A3$$

Obviously this model also has some drawback and there is no such "best" model that we can have but this performs more or less better than most of the models hence, it is a good one.

Next we use other types of regression models with different interpretations.

2.8 Shrinkage Methods

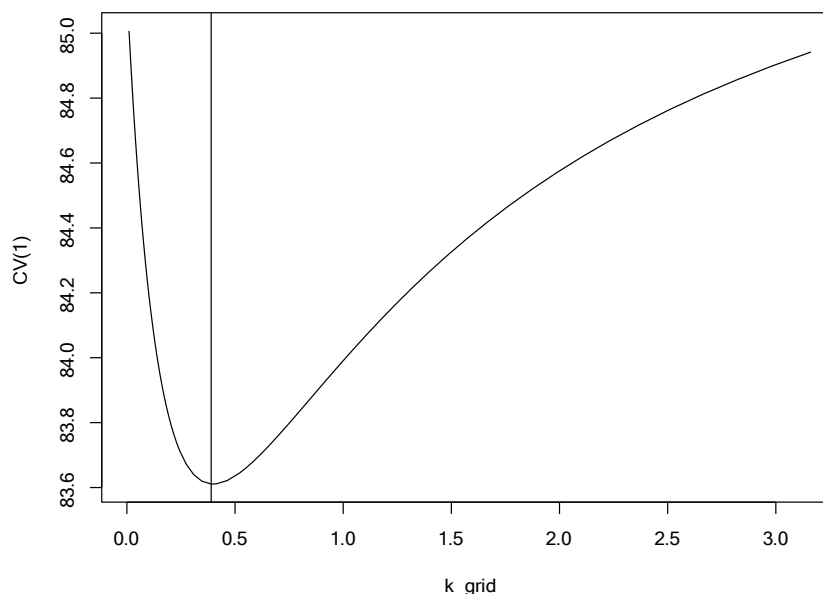
Ridge Regression

An alternate approach to deal with collinearity is fitting a ridge regression model as it can improve the accuracy of the predictions. The ridge estimate of the model parameters is $\hat{\beta}(k) = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + k \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$ where k is the ridge parameter. For an optimal choice of k , we calculate estimates of prediction errors of the ridge predictors for different choices of k over a set of trial values. This can be expressed as $CV_k(1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^T \hat{\beta}_k}{[1 - a_{ii}(k)]^2}$ and choose the k_{opt} for which this quantity is minimum.

We plot the $CV_k(1)$ values for different choices of k :-

```
k_grid = 10^seq(-2,1/2,length.out = 100)
PE = NULL
X_R = as.matrix(X[-c(12,20,30,36),c(2,3,4,5,6)])
Y_R = as.matrix(X[-c(12,20,30,36),c(7)])
n = nrow(X_R)
for(i in 1:length(k_grid))
{
  k = k_grid[i]
  beta_k = solve(t(X_R)%*%X_R + k*diag(rep(1,5)))%*%t(X_R)%*%Y_R
  A_k = X_R%*%solve(t(X_R)%*%X_R + k*diag(rep(1,5)))%*%t(X_R)
  Y_ft_R = X_R%*%beta_k
  A_K_diag = diag(A_k)
  PE[i] = (1/n)*sum((Y_R-Y_ft_R)^2/(1-A_K_diag)^2)
}

plot(k_grid,PE,type = "l",ylab = "CV(1)",xlab = "k")
k_opt = k_grid[which(PE == min(PE))]
abline(v = k_opt)
```



We find that the $CV_k(1)$ is minimum for $k \approx 0.3898$ hence, we calculate the corresponding ridge estimates.

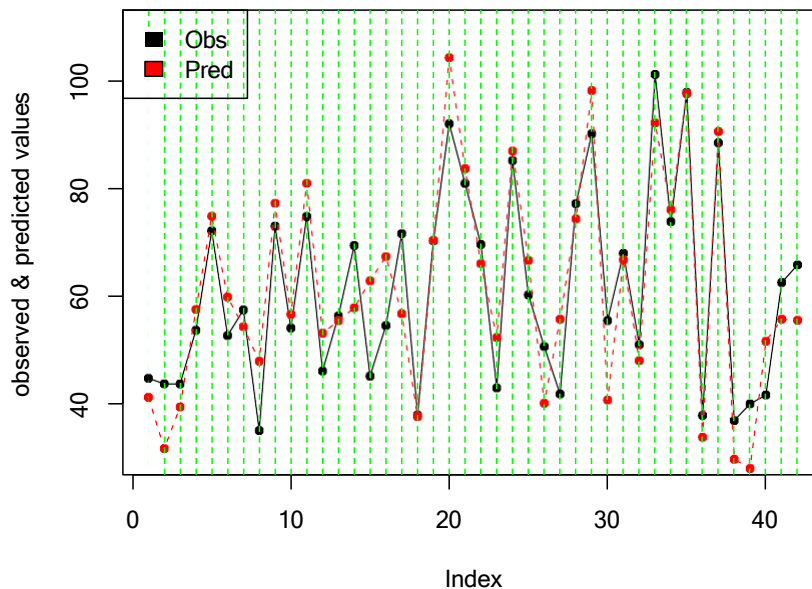
The fitted model then becomes :-

$$Y = 11.777 + 0.767A_1 + -0.322A_2 + 1.324A_3 + 0.114A_4$$

This model has estimated prediction error ≈ 83.612 .

This is close to the optimum OLS model that we have fitted.

We plot the observed & fitted values with the same index in the x-axis and get the following output :-



Lasso Regression

Another efficient way of model selection is using the Lasso Regression method. Here we minimize the sum of squares $\|Y - X\beta\|^2$ subject to the constraint $\sum_j |\beta_j| \leq \lambda$ for some $\lambda > 0$.

Using R, we find the Lasso Estimates of β where the value of λ is chosen using k -fold cross-validation criteria.

The optimum value of λ chosen by the criteria approximately equals ≈ 0.501 and the model is :-

```
library(glmnet)
x <- as.matrix(X[-c(12,20,30,36),c(3,4,5,6)])
y <- X[-c(12,20,30,36),7]
lambdas <- 10^seq(-1, 5, by = 0.1)

lasso_reg <- cv.glmnet(x,y, alpha = 1, lambda = lambdas, standardize = TRUE, nfolds = 10)

lambda_best <- lasso_reg$lambda.min

lasso_model <- glmnet(x,y, alpha = 1, lambda = 5, standardize = TRUE)
c(lasso_model$a0,t(lasso_model$beta))

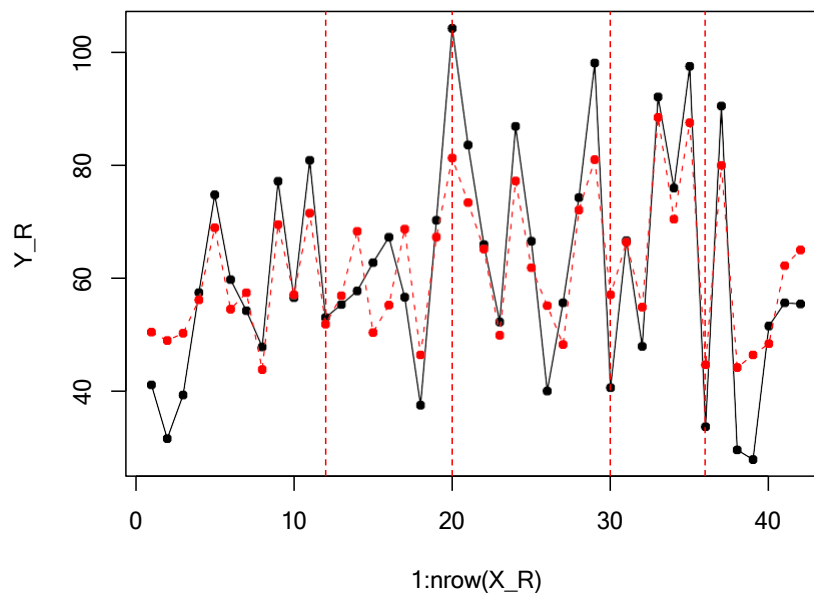
$0
[1] 25.2888

[[2]]
```

```
1 x 4 sparse Matrix of class "dgCMatrix"
      A1 A2      A3 A4
s0 0.4579335 . 1.013119 .
```

Hence the Lasso Estimates of the parameters $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \beta_3 \\ \beta_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 25.28 \\ 0.457 \\ 0 \\ 1.013 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

As we can see from the output, here also, the variables “A2”, “A4” has been dropped and this also gives strong evidence in favour of the optimum linear model. Here also make the observed and fitted plot for different index values :-



2.9 Robust Regression Methods

We have detected influential points in our dataset, and also removed them to get better models.

Now, we demonstrate using different robust regression methods how they can be used even if we have outliers in our dataset.

So we perform the rest of the methods using the full dataset, without removing any observation.

Least Absolute Deviation

Here we minimize the quantity $\sum_i |e_i(\mathbf{b})|$ i.e. $\hat{\mathbf{b}}_{LAD} = \underset{\mathbf{b}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_i |e_i(\mathbf{b})|$ where $e_i(\mathbf{b}) = y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{b}$.

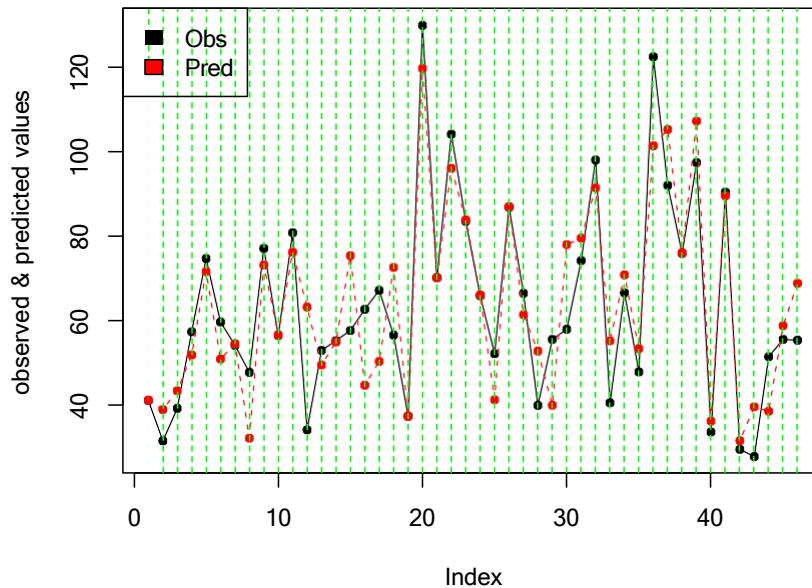
The estimated values of $\hat{\mathbf{b}}_{LAD}$ equals :-

```
library("L1pack")
rmodel_l <- lad(formula = Y~A1+A2+A3+A4,data = X)
rmodel_l$coefficients
```

(Intercept)	A1	A2	A3	A4
-7.19977780	0.42727435	0.61749765	1.96154792	-0.02363183

We plot the observed vs fitted values obtained using this model :-

```
plot(1:nrow(X),X$Y,type = "o",pch = 20,ylab = "observed & predicted values",xlab = "Index")
lines(1:nrow(X),rmodel_1$fitted.values,type = "o",pch = 20,col = "red",lty = 2)
abline(v = 1:nrow(X),lty = 2,col = rgb(0,1,0,alpha = 0.3))
legend("topleft",legend = c("Obs","Pred"),fill = c("black","red"))
```



The plot shows here the predicted values are more or less accurate for all the observations.

Least Median Square

Here we minimize the median of the squared residuals $\hat{\theta}_{LMS} = \underset{b}{\operatorname{argmin}} \operatorname{med}_i e_i^2(b)$.

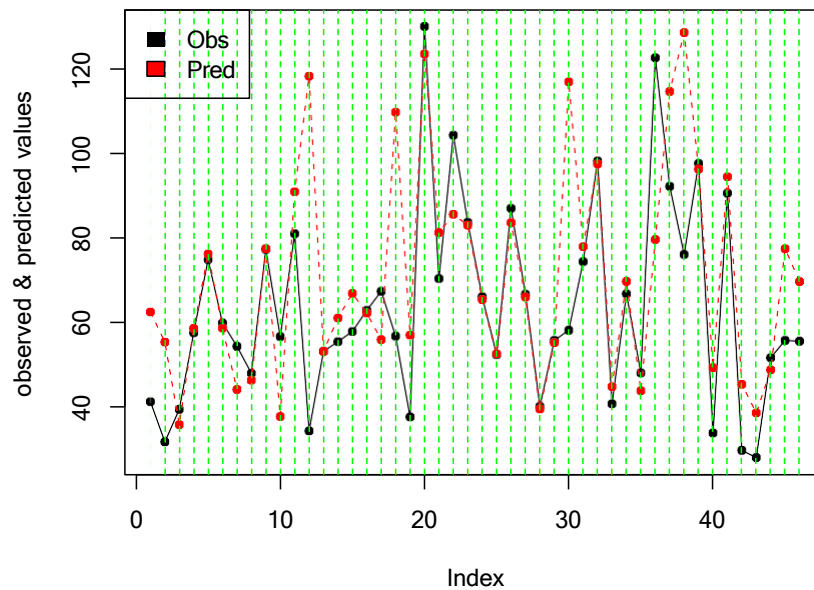
Using R, we get the estimated value of $\hat{\theta}_{LMS}$ as :-

```
rmodel_1 <- lqs(Y~A1+A2+A3+A4,data = X,method = "lms")
rmodel_1$coefficients
```

(Intercept)	A1	A2	A3	A4
100.67646579	1.43011898	-3.48160404	3.15085397	-0.04186281

We plot the observed vs fitted values obtained using this model :-

```
par(mfrow = c(1,1))
plot(1:nrow(X),X$Y,type = "o",pch = 20,ylab = "observed & predicted values",xlab = "Index")
lines(1:nrow(X),rmodel_1$fitted.values,type = "o",pch = 20,col = "red",lty = 2)
abline(v = 1:nrow(X),lty = 2,col = rgb(0,1,0,alpha = 0.3))
legend("topleft",legend = c("Obs","Pred"),fill = c("black","red"))
```



We can see the prediction is quite accurate at some places where as it is bad at some others possibly due to the presence of outliers.

Least Trimmed Squares Estimate

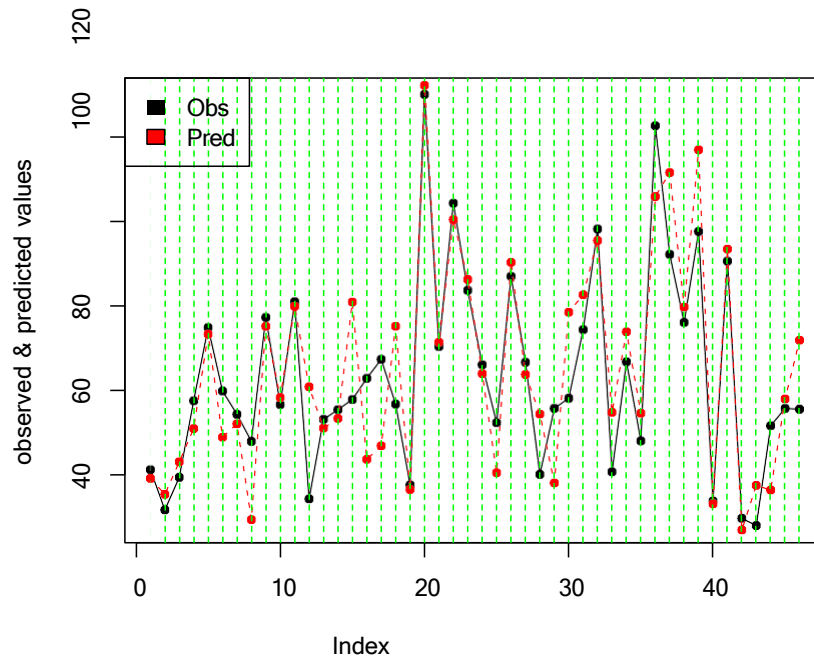
Lastly, we compute the LTS estimates of $\boldsymbol{\beta}_h$ where we minimize the trimmed mean of the squared residuals $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{LMS} = \underset{\boldsymbol{b}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e^2(\boldsymbol{b})$ for some appropriate choice of h . (Here we choose $h = \lceil n/2 \rceil + 1$)

```
rmodel_1 <- lqs(Y ~ A1 + A2 + A3 + A4, data = X, method = "lts")
rmodel_1$coefficients
```

(Intercept)	A1	A2	A3	A4
-21.7304500	0.2861684	1.2215938	2.4980685	-0.1567162

We plot the observed vs fitted values obtained using this model :-

```
plot(1:nrow(X), X$Y, type = "o", pch = 20, ylab = "observed & predicted values", xlab = "Index")
lines(1:nrow(X), rmodel_1$fitted.values, type = "o", pch = 20, col = "red", lty = 2)
abline(v = 1:nrow(X), lty = 2, col = rgb(0, 1, 0, alpha = 0.3))
legend("topleft", legend = c("Obs", "Pred"), fill = c("black", "red"))
```

We can see that this method performs better in terms of prediction compared to LMS estimates.

Comparative Study Of All Models

Finally, as a measure of comparison of different models, we use the root mean square error $RMSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$ where \hat{y}_i denotes the fitted values using different regression models. We calculate this measure for all the “good” models we have found so far :-

Methods	<i>RMSE</i> values
OLS model with “A1” & “A3”	8.313178
Ridge Model	8.195655
Lasso Model	9.889319
LAD Model	10.59494
LMS Model	11.6656
LTS Model	11.0904

Hence, we can conclude the Ridge and the OLS model with influential points removed with covariates “A1” & “A3” performs more or less better than the others in terms of prediction accuracy.

Conclusion

The regression analysis of the population drinking dataset provides significant insights into the factors affecting cirrhosis death rates. The analysis reveals that urban population, late births, wine consumption per capita, and liquor consumption per capita are key predictors of cirrhosis death rates. The positive coefficients for these variables highlight the critical impact of alcohol consumption and demographic factors on liver health.

The study underscores the importance of considering various demographic and consumption-related factors when addressing public health issues related to alcohol consumption. The developed regression model serves as a valuable tool for predicting cirrhosis death rates based on these factors, offering a data-driven approach to inform public health policies and interventions.

Key recommendations based on the findings include:

- Implementing targeted public health campaigns in urban areas to reduce excessive alcohol consumption.
- Providing education and resources to mitigate the health impacts associated with late births.
- Encouraging moderation in alcohol consumption, particularly wine and liquor, to lower the risk of cirrhosis and related health issues.

Overall, this regression analysis enhances our understanding of the complex relationships between demographic factors, alcohol consumption, and cirrhosis death rates, providing a foundation for future research and public health strategies aimed at reducing alcohol-related mortality.

References

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