2.6: Multiple Inference and Multicollinearity

Dr. Bean - Stat 5100

1 Why Multiple Inference?

We already have tools to test the significance of model coefficients:

- Individual coefficients: t-tests $(H_0: \beta_k = 0)$
- All coefficients: model F-test $(H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \cdots = \beta_{p-1} = 0)$

What if we want to consider the significance of a subset of the X predictor variables? (More than one, but not all of them).

(Individual) Why might we be interested in a "subset" F test?

We may wish to know if a group of predictors have are significantly related to the response variable, after accounting for another set of variables that are already in the model.

2 Subset Testing

Example: Bodyfat Dataset (Handout 2.6.1)

 $Y = \text{body}, X_1 = \text{triceps}, X_2 = \text{thigh}, X_3 = \text{midarm}$

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \epsilon$$

(Groups) Consider H_0 : $\beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$. How would you describe this hypothesis in an English sentence?

We want to know if thigh and midarm measurements share a significant relationship with bodyfat after accounting for the variance in bodyfat already explained by tricep measurements.

How to do this: See how much better the full model is (using tricep, thigh, and midarm) compared to the reduced one (using only triceps).

- Notation: $SSE(X_1, X_2, X_3) = SS_{error}$ when model has predictors X_1, X_2 , and X_3 represents amount variation in Y left unexplained by the full model
- Assuming $H_0: \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$ is true, fit "reduced" model (only predictor X_1) and calculate $SSE(X_1)$
- Note that $SSE(X_1) > SSE(X_1, X_2, X_3)$
 - ALWAYS true, as a "worthless" X variable won't ever increase the SSE, but may reduce it slightly by chance.
 - NOT true of validation error (more discussion in Module 4).

- then define "extra sum of squares"

$$SSR(X_2, X_3 | X_1) = SSE(X_1) - SSE(X_1, X_2, X_3)$$

Note: this represents amount variation in Y accounted for by $X_2 \& X_3$ when X_1 already in model

• Define

$$MSR(X_2, X_3 | X_1) = \frac{SSR(X_2, X_3 | X_1)}{2}$$

- think of this as the mean square reduction
- Build test statistic for H_0 : $\beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$

$$F^* = \frac{MSR(X_2, X_3|X_1)}{MSE(X_1, X_2, X_3)}$$
$$= \frac{SSR(X_2, X_3|X_1)/(2)}{SSE(X_1, X_2, X_3)/(16)}$$

• When H_0 : $\beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$ is true, $F^* \sim F_{2,16}$

General test of any # of β_k 's:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \ldots + \beta_{p-1} X_{p-1} + \epsilon$$

$$H_0 : \beta_q = \beta_{q+1} = \ldots = \beta_{p-1} = 0$$

$$p = \# \text{ of } \beta \text{'s in full model (incl. intercept)}$$

$$q = \# \text{ of } \beta \text{'s in reduced model (incl. intercept)}$$

$$p - q = \# \text{ of } \beta \text{'s being tested in } H_0$$

$$F^* = \frac{[(\text{SSE in reduced model}) - (\text{SSE in full model})]/(p - q)}{[\text{SSE in full model}]/(n - p)}$$

Under H_0 , $F^* \sim F_{p-q,n-p}$

Recall the t-statistic from test of individual predictor $(H_0: \beta_k = 0)$?

$$t^* = \frac{b_k}{s\{b_k\}}$$

– if only have one predictor in model then $(t^*)^2 \sim F_{1,n-p}$

SSR also called sequential sums of squares or Type I SS; example in SAS:

- $SSR(X_1) \approx 352.27$
- $SSR(X_2|X_1) \approx 33.17$
- $SSR(X_3|X_1,X_2) \approx 11.55$

(Individual) True or False (and explain): Because the Type I SS associated with X_1 is greatest, it means that X_1 is the most significant coefficient in the model.

FALSE The first of the Type I SS will often be the largest because no other predictors have yet been accounted for. This is why order matters in the Type I SS calculation.

Related concept: "Coefficients of Partial Determination"

• what proportion of [previously unexplained] variation in Y can be explained by addition of predictor X_k to model

$$R_{Y3|12}^2 = \frac{SSR(X_3|X_1, X_2)}{SSE(X_1, X_2)}$$

- $SSR(X_3|X_1,X_2)$ reduction in SSE that occurs when X_3 is added to the model when X_1 and X_2 are already in the model.
- $-SSE(X_1,X_2)$ amount of unexplained variation in Y when X_1 and X_2 are in the model.
- example in SAS:
 - $-R_{V1}^2 \approx 0.711$
 - $-R_{Y2|1}^2 \approx 0.232$
 - $-R_{Y3|12}^2 \approx 0.105$

(Draw box and fill in the first 71% of the big box, then fill in 23% of the little box that remains, finally fill in 10% of the even smaller box that remains.)

3 Multicollinearity

Textbook sections 7.6 and 10.5

The model F test says that the coefficients *collectively* are highly significant, but *none* of the individual variables are significant.

This is a symptom of **multicollinearity** (i.e. collinearity):

- Two X variables share a strong linear relationship with each other (independent of Y)
- One X variable is a near linear combination of two or more X variables

Problems with Multicollinearity:

- β_k hard to interpret as it no longer makes sense to "hold all other predictor variables constant."
- The variance of b_k will be very large (inflated) as our estimates are starting to become non-unique \rightarrow makes inference of β_k difficult if not impossible.
 - Could make estimate of b_k counter-intuitive (example: getting a negative estimate of b_k despite knowing that X and Y are positively correlated)).
- Contradictory results between individual t-tests and model F tests (or subset F tests).

NOT Problems with Multicollinearity:

• Multicollinearity does NOT affect a model's predictive ability.

3.1 Standardizing Variables

One way to better understand multicollinearity is by standardizing variables.

$$Y_i^* = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n-1}} \left(\frac{Y_i - \bar{Y}}{\text{SD of } Y} \right)$$
, $X_{ik}^* = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n-1}} \left(\frac{X_{ik} - \bar{X}_k}{\text{SD of } X_k} \right)$

- sometimes called "correlation transformation" because

$$Corr(X_k, Y) = \sum_i X_{ik}^* Y_i^*$$

If all variables have been standardized, then consider matrix approach (with no Intercept column in matrix X^*):

$$Y^* = X^*\beta^* + \varepsilon$$

$$b^* = (X^{*'}X^*)^{-1}X^{*'}Y^*$$

$$Cov(b^*) = (X^{*'}X^*)^{-1}\sigma^2$$

There is no intercept column because, by construction, the intercept will be Y=0 as all points must past through $(\bar{X}, \bar{Y}) = (0, 0)$

To un-standardize regression coefficient estimates:

$$b_k = \left(\frac{\mathrm{SD of } Y}{\mathrm{SD of } X_k}\right) \cdot b_k^*$$

$$b_0 = \bar{Y} - \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} b_k \bar{X}_k$$

Relevance to multicollinearity:

- the correlation matrix among the [original] predictor variables is $X^{*'}X^*$
- the "closer" X_j and X_h are, the larger will be the j^{th} and h^{th} diagonal elements of $Cov(b^*)$, so the estimated variance is higher for b_j and b_h

• We can use the correlation matrix to obtain a set of **condition indices** as obtained from the **eigenvalues** of the matrix.

While standardizing helps to better mathematically understand the effect of multicollinearity, it is not necessary to standardize to detect multicollinearity.

(Groups) What other advantages (besides help with multicollinearity) might standarizing our variables provide us?

Perhaps most notably: the slopes of each b_k coefficient are now directly comparable to each other.

3.2 Ways to Diagnose Multicollinearity

3.2.1 Condition Index/Principal Components

- Recall from linear algebra: λ is an **eigenvalue** of a symmetric, square matrix A iff there exists a vector x (the **eigenvector** for λ) such that $Ax = \lambda x$.
- Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k$ be the eigenvalues of $X^{*\prime}X^*$, and let

Condition Index_i =
$$\left(\frac{\lambda_{max}}{\lambda_i}\right)^{1/2}$$

- Each condition index is associated with a **principal component**
 - Each principal component is a linear combination of the original predictor variables. Each principal component shares no correlation with any other principal component (i.e. $cor(PC_1, PC_2) = 0$).

$$PC_1 = a_1 X_1^* + \dots + a_{p-1} X_{p-1}^*$$

$$PC_2 = c_1 X_1^* + \dots + c_{p-1} X_{p-1}^*$$
:

• Each principal component explains some percentage of the variation in the original predictors.

IF the condition index is high (more than 10 or so) AND the associated principal component explains a high proportion of the variance (usually more than 50% variability) in two or more predictor variables, then we have potentially problematic multicollinearity.

3.2.2 Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)

- Let R_k^2 be the coefficient of multiple determination (the R^2 value) when predictor X_k^* is regressed on the other predictors
 - This is a measure of how much of the variance of X_k^* is explained by the other X variables.
- Define $VIF_k = (1 R_k^2)^{-1}$, for k = 1, ..., p 1 as the "Variance Inflation Factor" for b_k (the estimate of β_k)

IF the largest VIF is much more than 10 **OR** the average VIF is much more than 1, then we have evidence of potentially problematic multicollinearity.

We usually use a combination of the VIF and condition index to asses multicollinearity.

3.2.3 Important things to remember about standardization

- ullet Relative magnitude of b_k^* estimates not meaningful if predictors are on different scales
- Standardization most common when predictors X_1, \ldots, X_{p-1} have very different scales
- β_k^* is expected change in Y for every <u>SD</u> (not unit) increase in predictor X_k , while all other predictors are held constant
- Standardizing has:
 - no effect on VIF
 - marginal effect on proportions of variance in Condition Index output
 - possibly substantial effect on magnitude of Condition Indexes
- Recommendations:
 - Standardize if either:
 - * desire common scale of b_k^* estimates
 - * <u>need</u> uncorrelated, higher-order predictors

3.3 Multicollinearity Summary

Three ways to diagnose multicollinearity:

- 1. combination of condition index and proportion of variation
- 2. variance inflation factors
- 3. model F-test vs. individual t-tests

Possible remedial measures for multicollinearity:

• Collect more data

- Choose a subset of predictor variables
- Ridge regression
- Latent root regression use Principal Components as predictors (may lack interpretability)

$$PC = a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 + \ldots + a_{p-1} X_{p-1}$$