Linear regression with multiple predictors (multiple regression)

Frank Edwards 2/14/2020

The linear and stochastic components of the model

Understanding a linear model with one predictor

Let's say that wages are related to years of education according to this linear model:

wages
$$_i \sim \textit{Normal}(\mu, \sigma)$$

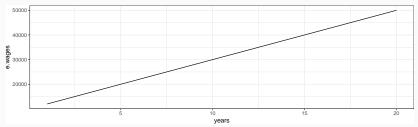
$$\textit{E}(\textit{wages}_i) = \mu_i = 10000 + 2000 \times \textit{years}_i$$

The linear component of the model

$$E(wages_i) = \mu_i = 10000 + 2000 \times years_i$$

This defines the expected value of wages, conditional on knowing someone's years of education.

```
### make sequence of years to describe wages over
plot_dat<-data.frame(years = seq(1, 20, length.out = 100))
### apply the linear component to estimate expected wages
plot_dat<-plot_dat %>%
    mutate(e.wages = 10000 + 2000 * years)
ggplot(plot_dat, aes(x = years, y = e.wages)) +
    geom_line()
```

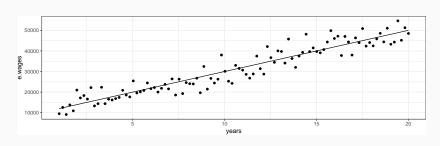


This is not a deterministic (perfectly accurate) prediction. It is just accurate on average. The stochastic component of the model describes (sd = σ) how different people are from the expected value (μ_i).

```
plot dat<-plot dat %>%
  mutate(sim wages = rnorm(n = 100, mean = plot dat$e, wages, sd = 4000))
### sigma = 4000
ggplot(plot dat, aes(x = years, y = e.wages)) +
  geom line()
  50000
  40000
e.wages
  20000
                                                                               15
                                                                                                       20
                                                       vears
```

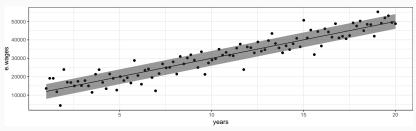
This is not a deterministic (perfectly accurate) prediction. It is just accurate on average. The stochastic component of the model describes how different people are from the expected value (μ_i) .

```
plot_dat<-plot_dat %>%
  mutate(sim_wages = rnorm(n = 100, mean = plot_dat$e.wages, sd = 4000))
### sigma = 4000
ggplot(plot_dat, aes(x = years, y = e.wages)) +
geom_line() +
geom_point(aes(y = sim_wages))
```



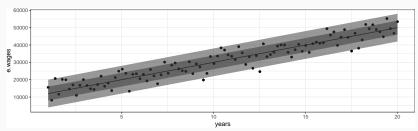
This is not a deterministic (perfectly accurate) prediction. It is just accurate on average. The stochastic component of the model describes how different people are from the expected value (μ_i) .

```
plot_dat<-plot_dat %>%
  mutate(sim_wages = rnorm(n = 100, mean = plot_dat$e.wages, sd = 4000))
### sigma = 4000
ggplot(plot_dat, aes(x = years, y = e.wages)) +
  geom_line() +
  geom_point(aes(y = sim_wages)) +
  geom_ribbon(aes(ymax = e.wages + 4000, ymin =e.wages - 4000), alpha = 0.5) # 1 SD
```



This is not a deterministic (perfectly accurate) prediction. It is just accurate on average. The stochastic component of the model describes how different people are from the expected value (μ_i) .

```
plot_dat<-plot_dat %>%
  mutate(sim_wages = rnorm(n = 100, mean = plot_dat$e.wages, sd = 4000))
### sigma = 4000
ggplot(plot_dat, aes(x = years, y = e.wages)) +
  geom_line() +
  geom_point(aes(y = sim_wages)) +
  geom_ribbon(aes(ymax = e.wages + 4000, ymin =e.wages - 4000), alpha = 0.5) + # 1 SD
  geom_ribbon(aes(ymax = e.wages + 2*4000, ymin =e.wages - 2*4000), alpha = 0.5) ## 2 SD
```



Returning to the height model

The anatomy of a linear model

Likelihood: $h_i \sim Normal(\mu_i, \sigma)$

Linear model: $\mu_i = \alpha + \beta x_i$

Prior: $\alpha \sim Normal(150, 25)$

Prior: $\beta \sim Uniform(0,5)$

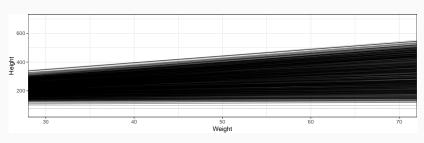
Prior: $\sigma \sim Uniform(0, 10)$

Estimating this model

```
data(Howell1)
d<-Howell1 %>%
  filter(age>=18)
m0<-quap(
  flist = alist(
    height ~ dnorm(mu, sigma),
    mu<-a + b * weight,
    a \sim dnorm(150, 25),
    b \sim dunif(0, 5),
    sigma ~ dunif(0,10)
  ),
  data = d
```

Generate prior predictions

Prior predictions let us confirm that our priors make logical sense for our question



Draw posterior samples and visualize parameters

summary(m0)

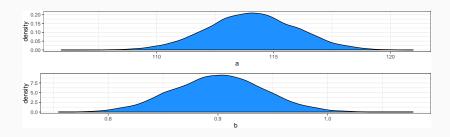
```
## mean sd 5.5% 94.5%

## a 114.0880506 1.90021304 111.0511432 117.1249581

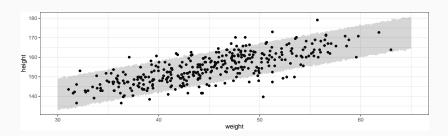
## b 0.9004846 0.04181116 0.8336623 0.9673069

## sigma 5.0719529 0.19116289 4.7664377 5.3774682
```

```
post_m0<-extract.samples(m0)
a<-ggplot(post_m0, aes(x = a)) + geom_density(fill = "dodgerblue")
b<-ggplot(post_m0, aes(x = b)) + geom_density(fill = "dodgerblue")
grid.arrange(a, b)</pre>
```



Predict from the posterior and compare to observed

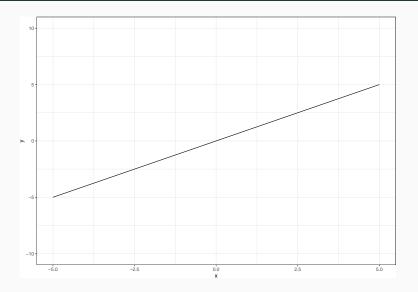


The basic process

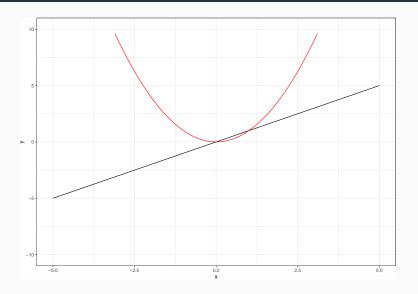
- 1. Define a model
- 2. Evaluate / critique your priors
- 3. Fit the model
- 4. Evaluate fit / critique model
- 5. Repeat

Fitting curves in linear regression models

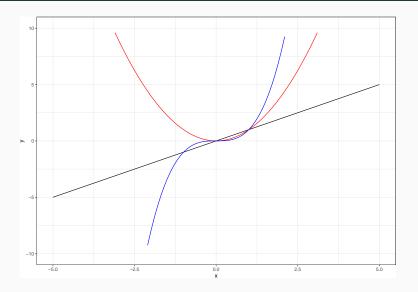
Polynomials: linear



Polynomials: quadratic

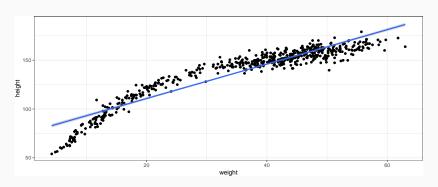


Polynomials: cubic



When do we want a polynomial?

```
d2<-Howell1
ggplot(d2, aes(x = weight, y = height)) +
geom_point() +
geom_smooth(method = "lm")</pre>
```

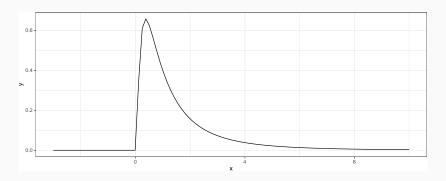


Defining a model with a polynomial term

$$h_i \sim Normal(\mu, \sigma)$$

 $\mu = \alpha + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2$
 $\alpha \sim Normal(0, 5)$
 $\beta_1 \sim LogNormal(0, 1)$
 $\beta_2 \sim Normal(0, 1)$
 $\sigma \sim Exponential(1)$

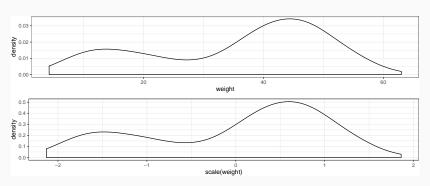
Why use the log-Normal distribution?



Scaling variables

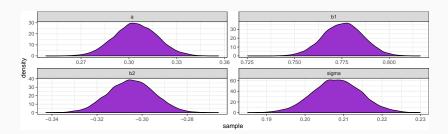
Rescaling variables: $\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{sd(x)}$ doesn't change the shape of a variable's distribution. Priors are easier to define and models easier to fit.

```
p_original<-ggplot(d2, aes(x = weight)) +
    geom_density()
p_scaled<-ggplot(d2, aes(x = scale(weight))) +
    geom_density()
grid.arrange(p_original, p_scaled)</pre>
```



```
d2<-d2 %>%
  mutate(height.s = scale(height),
         weight.s = scale(weight))
m_quad<-quap(</pre>
  alist(height.s ~ dnorm(mu, sigma),
        mu<-a + b1 * weight.s + b2 * weight.s^2,
        a \sim dnorm(0, 5),
        b1 \sim dlnorm(0, 1),
        b2 \sim dnorm(0,1),
        sigma \sim dexp(1),
  data = d2
```

Evaluating the posterior for each parameter

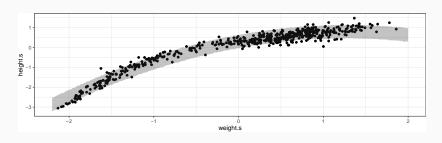


Compare to MAP and posterior credible intervals (89%)

summary(m_quad)

```
##
                             sd
                                      5.5%
                                                94.5%
               mean
## a
         0.3042272 0.013537975
                                 0.2825909
                                            0.3258635
## b1
         0.7757469 0.010503956
                                 0.7589596
                                            0.7925343
##
  b2
         -0.3047910 0.010194448 -0.3210837 -0.2884983
## sigma 0.2082656 0.006311462 0.1981787
                                            0.2183525
```

Visualize the fit



Multiple regression

I have an irrational affection for this place



Waffle house and divorce rates

```
data("WaffleDivorce")
ggplot(WaffleDivorce,
    aes(x = WaffleHouses / Population,
    y = Divorce,
    label = Loc)) +
geom_text() +
geom_smooth(method = "lm")
```



Why add variables to a regression?

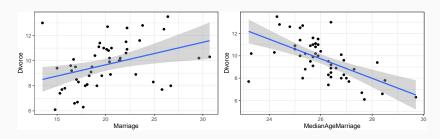
When we aim to estimate a causal relationship:

- 1. Confounding
- 2. Multiple causation
- 3. Interactions

When we are not estimating a causal relationship:

1. Predictive accuracy

More plausible causes

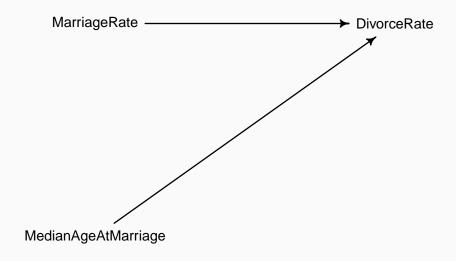


Two theories for the causes of divorce rates



MedianAgeAtMarriage → DivorceRate

An equivalent statement



Propose a model for divorce rates with age at first marriage as a predictor

$$D_i \sim Normal(\mu_i, \sigma)$$

 $\mu_i = \alpha + \beta_A A_i$
 $\alpha \sim Normal(0, 0.2)$
 $\beta_A \sim Normal(0, 0.5)$
 $\sigma \sim Exponential(1)$

Load and scale variables

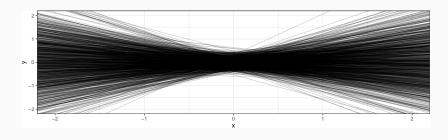
Recall that scaling variables to $\bar{x}=0, sd=1$ makes defining priors and fitting complex models *much* easier.

```
WaffleDivorce<- WaffleDivorce %>%
mutate(A = scale(MedianAgeMarriage),
    D = scale(Divorce),
    M = scale(Marriage))
```

Fit the model(s)

```
mAge<-quap(
  alist(
    D ~ dnorm(mu, sigma),
    mu<-a + bA * A,
    a \sim dnorm(0, 0.2),
    bA \sim dnorm(0, 0.5),
    sigma ~ dexp(1)),
  data = WaffleDivorce
mMarriage<-quap(
  alist(
    D ~ dnorm(mu, sigma),
    mu < -a + bM * M,
    a \sim dnorm(0, 0.2),
    bM \sim dnorm(0, 0.5),
    sigma ~ dexp(1)),
  data = WaffleDivorce
```

Evaluate the priors



Evaluate the posterior

summary(mAge)

```
## a -9.422234e-08 0.09737869 -0.1556301 0.1556299
## bA -5.684027e-01 0.10999970 -0.7442035 -0.3926020
## sigma 7.883249e-01 0.07801114 0.6636480 0.9130018
```

summary(mMarriage)

```
## mean sd 5.5% 94.5%

## a 7.884148e-07 0.1082465 -0.1729980 0.1729996

## bM 3.500548e-01 0.1259275 0.1487983 0.5513114

## sigma 9.102662e-01 0.0898626 0.7666484 1.0538840
```

Adding a second predictor

Perhaps age at first marriage and overall divorce rate both impact divorce rates.

$$D_i \sim Normal(\mu, \sigma)$$
 $\mu_i = \alpha + \beta_M M_i + \beta_A A_i$
 $\alpha \sim Normal(0, 0.2)$
 $\beta_M \sim Normal(0, 0.5)$
 $\beta_A \sim Normal(0, 0.5)$
 $\sigma \sim Exponential(1)$

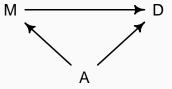
Note: we'll consider DAGs in detail next week

Estimating the model

```
mBoth<-quap(
 alist(
   D ~ dnorm(mu, sigma),
   mu < -a + bA * A + bM * M,
   a \sim dnorm(0, 0.2),
   bA \sim dnorm(0, 0.5),
   bM \sim dnorm(0, 0.5),
   sigma ~ dexp(1)),
 data = WaffleDivorce
summary(mBoth)
                 mean sd 5.5% 94.5%
##
## a
     1.462063e-06 0.09707596 -0.1551447 0.1551476
## bA
      -6.135125e-01 0.15098348 -0.8548132 -0.3722117
## bM
      -6.537987e-02 0.15077294 -0.3063441 0.1755844
## sigma 7.851172e-01 0.07784320 0.6607087 0.9095257
```

What's going on here?

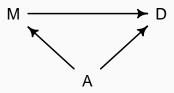
Do both age at marriage and overall marriage rate contribute to the divorce rate? Do both A and M have a causal impact on D?



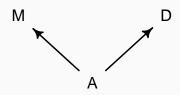
Causal graphs (DAGs)

This DAG assumes:

- · A lower age at first marriage (A) leads to higher divorce rates (D)
- More marriages (M) could mean either more divorces (opportunities) or less divorces (stronger norms)
- · A lower age at first marriage probably leads to more marriages
- Age at first marriage affects divorce both directly and indirectly through its effect on overall marriage rates
- · A, D, and M are all correlated with each other



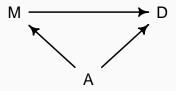
An alternative model: spurious association

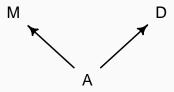


- This model suggests that *D* and *M* are only associated with each other because of their relationship with *A*.
- Another way of saying this: Conditional on A, D is independent of M:
 D ⊥ M | A

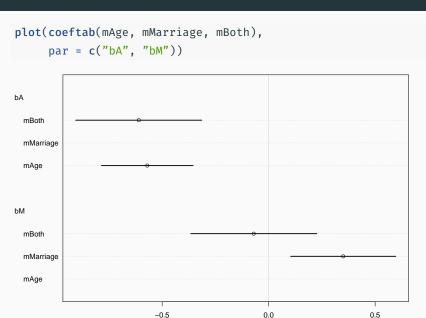
Comparing models

Recall that DAG 1 implies that A, D, and M are all associated with each other





Comparing results



Value

Next week

- · Much more multiple regression
- · Visualizing multiple regression
- More DAGs and causality
- HW 4 is posted