

# Data, Environment and Society: Lecture 10: Multiple Regression

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# Today

- ▶ First: Finish reviewing Jupyter notebook on confidence intervals.
  - ▶ Objective: understand how a distribution of parameter values is possible when you train OLS with a sample from a population.
- ▶ Next: slides, covering multiple regression and (one form of) model selection.  
Slides in GitHub
  - ▶ Model selection is the method for dealing with bias-variance tradeoff
  - ▶ It is one of the most important processes we do in statistical learning
- ▶ Third: Introduction to land use regression, start working with NO2 data in Jupyter notebook
  - ▶ We'll begin learning about a paper that uses one form of model selection.
  - ▶ Later in the semester you'll use the tools from this class to improve on this paper.

# Announcements

## Reading

- ▶ Today: ISLR 3.2
- ▶ Thursday: ISLR Ch 3.3.
- ▶ Next Tuesday: Novotny *et al*, see questions in GitHub folder for lecture 12 reading.

**Survey posted! Please respond**

# Final project – team and initial idea due Thursday

- ▶ You can work with your own data
- ▶ But we have also suggested data sets
- ▶ Working in groups up to three ok (you can self-organize)
- ▶ We will give you basic guardrails on what to do
  - ▶ Pose a coherent question that can be addressed using the skills we are learning
  - ▶ EDA and visualization requirements
  - ▶ Carry out multiple prediction exercises using the tools we are learning.
  - ▶ Critique the performance of your models
  - ▶ Interpret your results within the confines of what your models are capable of.

# What if the confidence interval contains zero?

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...where the upper and lower bounds comprise the 95% confidence interval.

This implies there is more than a remote chance that there is no significant relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

# p-values

**What are they?**

## p-values

**What are they?** p-values measure the probability that the estimated coefficients arose by chance from a data generating process that actually has *no* relationship between the inputs and outputs.

$p = 0.05$  implies a 5% chance that the true parameter value is *zero*.

If  $p \ll 0.05$ , then the parameter is strongly inside the 95% confidence interval.

If  $p > 0.05$ , then the parameter is outside the 95% confidence interval.

A small p-value indicates that it is unlikely to observe such a substantial association between the predictor and the response due to chance.



# p-hacking?

What's wrong with these practices:

- ▶ Stop collecting data once  $p < 0.05$
- ▶ Analyze many independent variables, but only report those for which  $p < 0.05$
- ▶ Collect and analyze many data samples, but only report those with  $p < 0.05$
- ▶ Exclude participants to get  $p < 0.05$ .
- ▶ Transform the data to get  $p < 0.05$ .

(credit to Leif Nelson, UCB Haas)

## The trouble with p-hacking...

...is that by looking for the data set and the models that give low p-values, you could just be looking for those 5% “chances” where the real relationship is non-existent.

In other words, if you flip a coin with 5% probability it'll turn up heads enough times, eventually you get heads.

In the case of p-hacking, a getting a p-value of 5% when there really is no relationship is the analogy to getting heads on that 5% probability coin.

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Some estimates suggest that this practice leads to false positive rates of 61%!

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**Maybe, but...**

- ▶ perhaps people simply don't understand the idea that their parameters are one draw from a *distribution* of possible parameters
- ▶ and therefore they don't really understand how to interpret  $p$ .

Now you understand – so my hope is that you'll always interpret these with caution!

## Model accuracy: $R^2$

TSS = total sum of squares =  $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$

RSS = residual sum of squares  $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$

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It's good for capturing predictive power, but not for evaluating the significance of the model.

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RSS or  $R^2$  are suitable. But there is much more to the story!

- ▶ Today we'll talk about adjustments to  $R^2$  that attempt to address bias-variance tradeoff
- ▶ We'll discuss other approaches in the coming weeks.

# Multivariate regression

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 x_{2i}$$

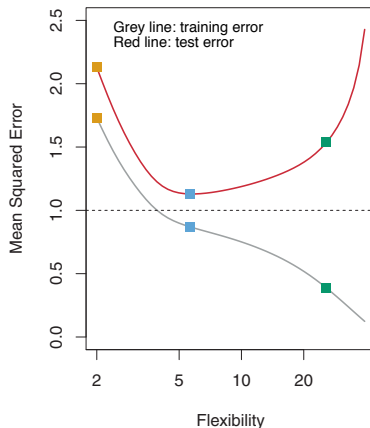
This is exactly the same process as single (independent) variable regression: minimize mean squared error (MSE). Parameter solutions can be found by

- ▶ Gradient search
- ▶ Normal equations
- ▶ Setting partial derivatives of MSE to zero and solving – but now for  $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_d$  ( $d$  is the number of features, a.k.a. independent variables).

The mechanics of finding parameters is easy. The real challenge is: Which features to include?

## Model selection

**The challenge:** Don't include variables in your model that lead to over-fit.



With multiple regression, increasing the number of variables increases the flexibility of the model.



# Model selection methods

## Two basic methods:

- ▶ Computationally heavy and theoretically robust:
  - ▶ repeated sampling of train and test data sets
  - ▶ build and test models with each sampled set
  - ▶ choose the model form that minimizes test error, on average.
  - ▶ the figure on the previous slide is an example of this approach.
- ▶ Easy to implement (no need for significant computing):
  - ▶ Use the full data set
  - ▶ Fit each candidate model once
  - ▶ Choose the model that minimizes an “adjusted” measure of  $R^2$  or mean squared error.

# An easy-to-implement method

Akaike information criterion (AIC):

1. Construct all the models you have time for using *all* the data (i.e. all your observations) to train the models.
2. Then, choose the model with the lowest AIC, where

$$AIC = \frac{1}{n\hat{\sigma}^2}(\text{RSS} + 2d\hat{\sigma}^2)$$

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$$\text{AIC} = \frac{1}{n\hat{\sigma}^2}(\text{RSS} + 2d\hat{\sigma}^2) = \frac{1}{\hat{\sigma}^2} \left( \frac{\text{RSS}}{n} \right) + \frac{2d}{n}$$

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As you can see, AIC “penalizes” models with a high value of  $d$ .

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It actually has a rigorous theoretical underpinning. Understanding the derivation requires background in information theory and more time than we have here.

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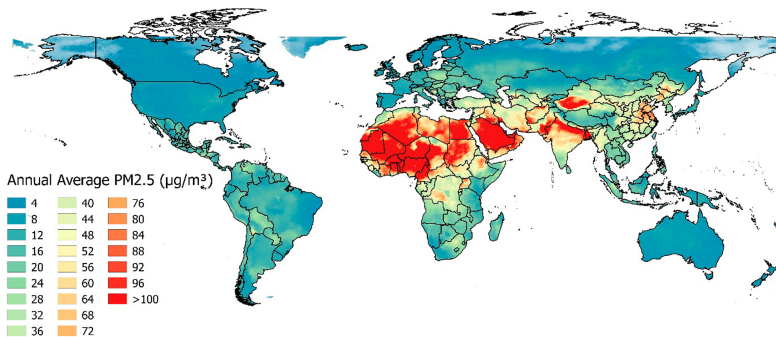
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But:

- ▶ It gives unbiased estimate of the MSE you'd get if you *did* use a test data set (as long as the errors are Gaussian)
- ▶ It's ok to just work with the intuition that choosing models that minimize AIC is analogous to
  - ▶ choosing models that minimize MSE ...
  - ▶ plus a penalty for the number of features.

# Prediction application: Land use regression

- ▶ Suppose we'd like to know pollutant concentrations at a fine spatial resolution
- ▶ We only have pollutant measurements at low resolution (coarse spatial scale)
- ▶ But we have other measurements at finer spatial resolution
- ▶ This is an ideal job for forecasting.
- ▶ But rather than forecast in *time* we will forecast in *space*.



(From Shaddick *et al* ES&T 2018)

# Nitrogen dioxide

NO<sub>2</sub>:

- ▶ Direct product of fossil fuel combustion
- ▶ Used as an indicator for larger group of nitrogen oxides.
- ▶ Health impact: Contributes to development of, and aggravates, asthma
- ▶ Environmental impact: Haze, acid rain, nutrient pollution in coastal waters

EPA Regulates NO<sub>2</sub>:

<a href="#">Nitrogen Dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>)</a>	primary	1 hour	100 ppb	98th percentile of 1-hour daily maximum concentrations, averaged over 3 years
	primary and secondary	1 year	53 ppb <a href="#">(2)</a>	Annual Mean

(Primary standards are designed to protect public health. Secondary standards are designed to address visibility, crop protection, damage to buildings, and so on.)

## Novotny *et al* setup

- ▶ NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are known where monitors are present.
- ▶ But we don't have monitors everywhere
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### **“Remote sensing” data from satellites can be useful:**

- ▶ Aurora satellite “Ozone Monitoring Instrument” provides tropospheric  $\text{NO}_2$  column abundance (units: ppb; Called “WRF+DOMINO” in data set we'll work with).

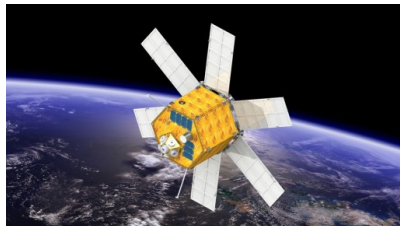


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### But!

- ▶ Measurements are for entire column of air above a location, not ground-level
- ▶ Spatial resolution is low

# Land use regression for NO<sub>2</sub>

**Dependent variable:** Hourly NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations from EPA sensors.

**Independent variables** to consider:

parameter	units	spatial resolution	buffer <sup>a</sup> or point estimate
impervious surface	%	30 m (United States only <sup>32</sup> ); 1000 m (global <sup>29</sup> )	buffer
tree canopy	%	30 m (United States only <sup>33</sup> ); 500 m (global <sup>30</sup> )	buffer
population	no.	Census block (United States only <sup>34</sup> ); 1 km (global <sup>31</sup> )	buffer
major road length <sup>35</sup>	km	NA	buffer
minor road length <sup>35</sup>	km	NA	buffer
total road length <sup>35</sup>	km	NA	buffer
elevation <sup>36</sup>	km	90 m	point
distance to coast	km	NA	point
OMI NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>25,26</sup>	ppb	13 × 24 km <sup>2</sup> at nadir	point

Novotny *et al* Table 1.

Let's run some linear regression models with these data. Move over to Jupyter notebook for today's lecture.