Homework 2

Rohan Krishnan

2024-01-29

Problem 1

No submission required for this problem.

Problem 2

ISLR Chapter 3 Conceptual Exercise 3

- (a). Answer iii is correct. We can deduce this answer by noting that β_3 is a strong positive integer (35), indicating that when an individual has gone to college (when $X_3=1$), their salary is predicted to increase by \$35,000 holding all other factors constant. However, β_5 , which is the interaction between GPA and level, is -10, meaning that if a college graduate as a GPA above 3.5, the marginal benefit of being college (35) is canceled out (-10*1*3.5=-35) and begins to negatively impact their starting salary. Therefore, if their GPA is high enough (>3.5) and IQ and GPA are fixed, high school graduates do earn more on average.
- (b). The predicted starting salary after graduation of a college graduate with IQ of 110 and GPA of 4.0 can be calculated by the given equation as follows:

$$\widehat{Salary} = 50 + (20*4.0) + (0.07*110) + (35*1) + (0.01*4.0*110) + (-10*4.0*1) = 137.1$$

As seen above, it is predicted that such an individual would earn \$137,100 as their starting salary after graduation.

(c). **FALSE**. The only way to conclude that there is/is not evidence of an interaction effect is by examining the p-value produced by the regression's hypothesis test. If it is sufficiently small, we can conclude that there is statistically significant evidence of an interaction effect (even if the magnitude of the effect is small). It is also important to note that GPA and IQ are measured on very different scales, with GPAs falling between 1.0 and 4.0 and most IQs falling between 90 and 130.

ISLR Chapter 4 Conceptual Exercise 4

- (a). Since the cubic model contains the simple linear regression, it's training RSS would be at least as low as the simple model and with the addition of the quadratic and cubic terms will be lower, regardless of if the terms are useful or not.
- (b). Without being able to see exploratory plots of the predictor's relationship to the response, there is not enough information to tell whether the testing RSS would be lower or higher. However, if there is not a cubic relationship, it is possible that the cubic model is over-fitted to the training data and will have a higher testing RSS.
- (c). Knowing the relationship is not linear, we would still expect the cubic model to have a lower training RSS since it explains as much as the simple model plus the extra variation of the quadratic and cubic term.
- (d). There is not enough information to tell if the testing RSS would be lower for the simple or cubic model since we do not know the exact type of non-linear relationship.

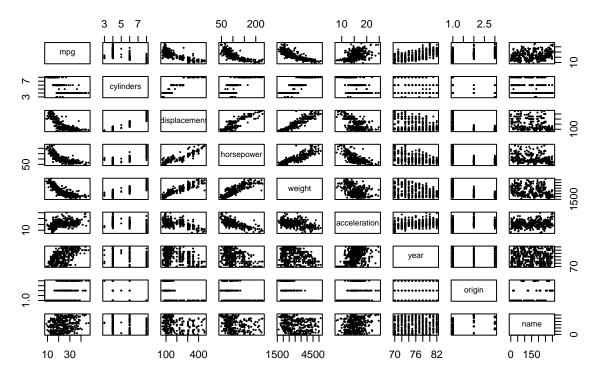
Problem 3

ISLR Chapter 3 Applied Exercise 9

Part A.

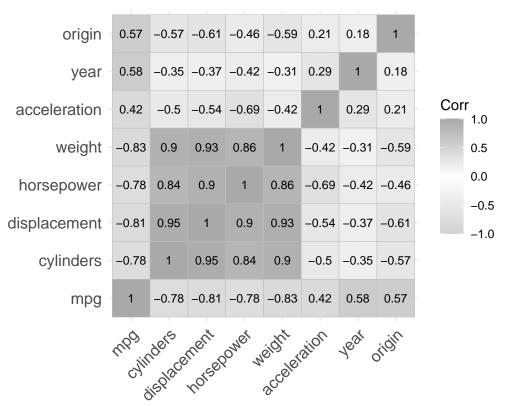
```
#Set working directory, load in Auto, remove any NA values
library(tidyverse)
## -- Attaching core tidyverse packages ----- tidyverse 2.0.0 --
## v dplyr
             1.1.4
                        v readr
                                     2.1.4
             1.0.0
                                     1.5.0
## v forcats
                         v stringr
## v ggplot2 3.4.4
                        v tibble
                                     3.2.1
## v lubridate 1.9.2
                         v tidyr
                                     1.3.0
## v purrr
               1.0.2
                                           ----- tidyverse_conflicts() --
## -- Conflicts -----
## x dplyr::filter() masks stats::filter()
## x dplyr::lag() masks stats::lag()
## i Use the conflicted package (<a href="http://conflicted.r-lib.org/">http://conflicted.r-lib.org/</a>) to force all conflicts to become error
setwd("~/Downloads/")
Auto <- read.table("Auto.data", header = T, na.strings = "?", stringsAsFactors = T)
Auto <- na.omit(Auto)</pre>
#Generate scatter plot matrix of all variables in Auto
pairs(Auto, main = "Scatter Plot Matrix of Auto Data Set", cex = 0.2)
```

Scatter Plot Matrix of Auto Data Set



Part B.

Auto Data Correlation Matrix



Part C.

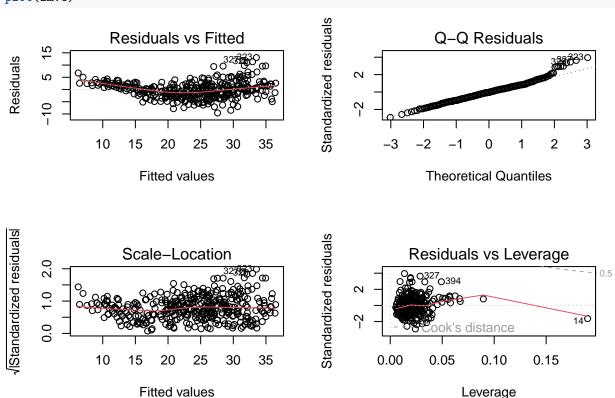
Table 1: Part C Multiple Linear Regression

	Dependent variable:
	mpg
cylinders	-0.493
	(0.323)
displacement	0.020***
	(0.008)
horsepower	-0.017
	(0.014)
weight	-0.006^{***}
	(0.001)
acceleration	0.081
	(0.099)
year	0.751***
	(0.051)
origin	1.426***
	(0.278)
Constant	-17.218^{***}
	(4.644)
Observations	392
\mathbb{R}^2	0.821
Adjusted R ²	0.818
Residual Std. Error	3.328 (df = 384)
F Statistic	$252.428^{***} (df = 7; 384)$
Note:	*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

- (i). There are negative relationships between mpg and cylinders, horsepower, and weight. There are positive relationship between mpg and displacement, acceleration, year, and origin.
- (ii). Weight, year, and origin appear to have statistically significant relationships with mpg at the 99.9% confidence level and displacement seems to have a statistically significant relationship with mpg at the 95% confidence level.
- (iii) Each increase in the model year of a car predicts a statistically significant 0.750773 increase in the car's miles per gallon holding all other features constant.

Part D.

```
#Generate diagnostic plots of the above linear regression
par(mfrow = c(2,2))
plot(lm.c)
```



The residuals appear to be slightly heteroskedastic as there is a small trumpeting outwards as the fitted values increase. This could also be some type of trend, meaning that there is some relationship we missed with our regression. There appears to be a point (14) with unusually high leverage as well. There also appear to be a few larger outliers (residuals hitting ~ 10) among the higher fitted values.

Part E.

Table 2: Part E MLR Interaction Effects

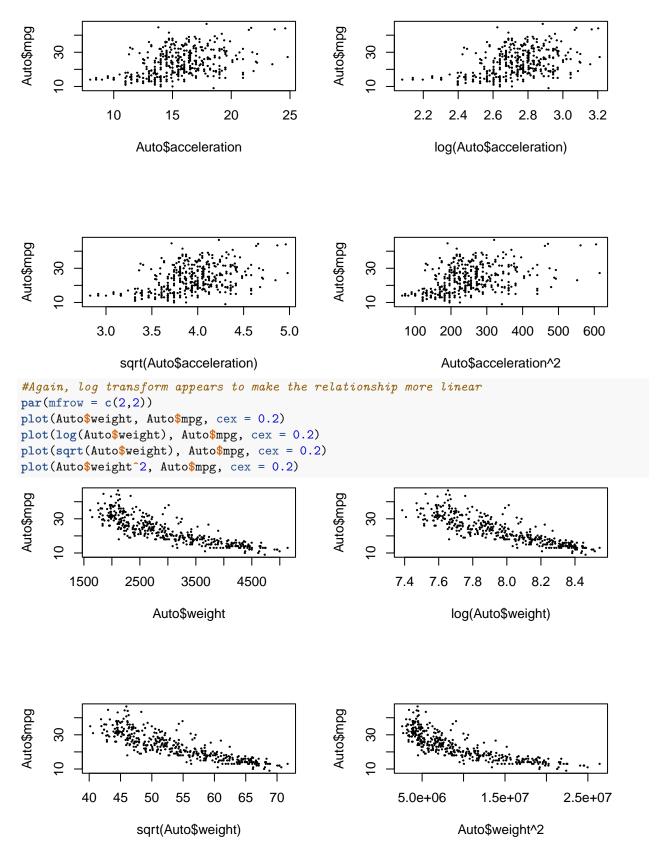
		Dependent variat	ble:
		mpg	
	(1)	(2)	(3)
cylinders	-4.306***	-0.214	-0.504
	(0.458)	(0.308)	(0.319)
displacement	-0.001	0.003	0.016**
	(0.007)	(0.007)	(0.008)
horsepower	-0.316^{***}	-0.041^{***}	-0.014
-	(0.031)	(0.013)	(0.014)
weight	-0.004***	0.004**	-0.006***
	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.001)
acceleration	-0.170^*	1.629***	0.092
	(0.090)	(0.242)	(0.098)
year	0.739***	0.782***	0.419***
•	(0.045)	(0.048)	(0.113)
origin	0.903***	1.033***	-14.046^{***}
	(0.250)	(0.269)	(4.699)
cylinders:horsepower	0.040***	` ,	, ,
	(0.004)		
weight:acceleration	, ,	-0.001***	
		(0.0001)	
year:origin			0.199***
			(0.060)
Constant	11.703**	-43.641***	8.492
	(4.912)	(5.811)	(9.044)
Observations	392	392	392
\mathbb{R}^2	0.862	0.841	0.826
Adjusted R^2	0.859	0.838	0.823
Residual Std. Error ($df = 383$)	2.929	3.141	3.286
F Statistic (df $= 8; 383$)	299.262***	253.908***	227.917***
Note:		*p<0.1; **p<0.0	05; ***p<0.01

All of the interactions tested appear to be statistically significant at at least the 0.04 level. There are at least 3 significant cases of interactions between variables.

Part F.

```
#Log transform appears to give a more linear relationship
par(mfrow = c(2,2))
plot(Auto$horsepower, Auto$mpg, cex = 0.2)
plot(log(Auto$horsepower), Auto$mpg, cex = 0.2)
plot(sqrt(Auto$horsepower), Auto$mpg, cex = 0.2)
plot(Auto$horsepower^2, Auto$mpg, cex = 0.2)
Auto$mpg
                                               Auto$mpg
    30
                                                    30
     9
                                                    10
          50
                 100
                          150
                                  200
                                                           4.0
                                                                     4.5
                                                                              5.0
                                                                                        5.5
                                                               log(Auto$horsepower)
                 Auto$horsepower
                                               Auto$mpg
    9
              8
                     10
                            12
                                   14
                                                            10000
                                                                       30000
                                                                                   50000
               sqrt(Auto$horsepower)
                                                                Auto$horsepower^2
#None of the transformations appear to make the relationship more linear
par(mfrow = c(2,2))
plot(Auto$acceleration, Auto$mpg, cex = 0.2)
plot(log(Auto$acceleration), Auto$mpg, cex = 0.2)
plot(sqrt(Auto$acceleration), Auto$mpg, cex = 0.2)
```

plot(Auto\$acceleration^2, Auto\$mpg, cex = 0.2)



For horsepower, the log transformation appeared to make the relationship between horsepower and mpg more linear. None of the transformations appeared to improve the linearity of the relationship between acceleration

and mpg. The log transformation also appeared to work in making the relationship between weight and mpg more linear.

ISLR Chapter 3 Applied Exercise 10

Part A.

```
#Load library
library(ISLR2)

##
## Attaching package: 'ISLR2'

## The following object is masked _by_ '.GlobalEnv':

##
## Auto

#Fit MLR of Sales ~ Price + Urban + US
lm.10a <- lm(Sales ~ Price + Urban + US, data = Carseats)

Part B
#Generate summary table of lm.10a</pre>
```

Table 3: Problem 10 B MLR Summary

stargazer(lm.10a, type = "latex", title = "Problem 10 B MLR Summary",

header = FALSE, no.space = TRUE)

	Dependent variable:	
	Sales	
Price	-0.054***	
	(0.005)	
UrbanYes	-0.022	
	(0.272)	
USYes	1.201***	
	(0.259)	
Constant	13.043***	
	(0.651)	
Observations	400	
\mathbb{R}^2	0.239	
Adjusted R ²	0.234	
Residual Std. Error	2.472 (df = 396)	
F Statistic	$41.519^{***} (df = 3; 396)$	
Note:	*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.0	

A \$1 (assumed unit of price measurement is in single dollars) increase in the price a company charges for car seats at each site predicts a statistically significant 0.054459 (sales measured in thousands so 0.054459 corresponds to 54.459) decrease in unit sales at each location holding all other factors constant. A store being in an urban location is not a statistically significant predictor of a change in sales at each location. A store being in the US predicts a statistically significant 1.200573 (sales measured in thousands so 1.200573 corresponds to 1200.573) increase in unit sales at each location holding all other factors constant.

Part C. Below is the model written out in equation form:

$$\widehat{Sales} = 13.04 + (-0.54 \times Price) + (-0.022 \times Urban) + (1.20 \times US)$$

If Urban = Yes, you set the Urban variable to 1. If not, it is set to 0. Similarly if US = Yes, it is set to 1 and 0 otherwise. Below are all of the possible models based on Urban and US values.

$$\widehat{Sales} = 13.04 + (-0.54 \times Price) + \begin{cases} -0.022, & \text{if Urban is Yes and US is No} \\ 1.20, & \text{if Urban is No and US is Yes} \\ 1.18, & \text{if Urban is Yes and US is Yes} \\ 0, & \text{if Urban is No and US is No} \end{cases}$$

Part D.

Price and US appear to have $\hat{\beta}s$ statistically significantly different than 0. Urban has a large p-value indicating that there is not sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

Part E.

Table 4: Problem 10 E MLR Summary

	Dependent variable:
	Sales
Price	-0.054***
	(0.005)
USYes	1.200***
	(0.258)
Constant	13.031***
	(0.631)
Observations	400
\mathbb{R}^2	0.239
Adjusted R ²	0.235
Residual Std. Error	2.469 (df = 397)
F Statistic	$62.431^{***} (df = 2; 397)$
Note:	*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0

Part F.

Analysis of Variance Table

Model 1: Sales ~ Price + Urban + US Model 2: Sales ~ Price + US Res. Df RSS Df Sum of Sq F Pr(>F) 1 396 2420.8 2 397 2420.9 -1 -0.03979 0.0065 0.9357

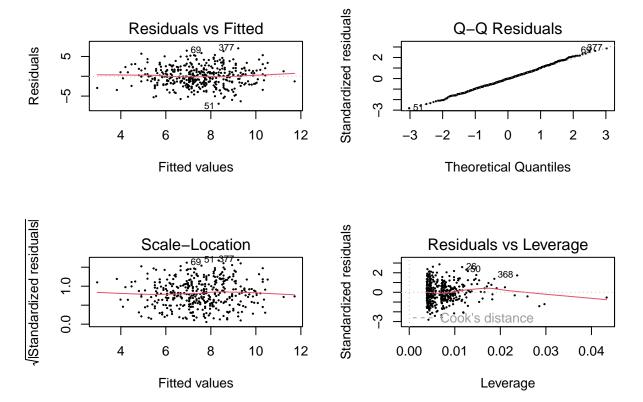
The models have similar R^2 values and coefficient values for each Price and USYes. The anova test shows that the model containing Urban does not significantly outperform the model that does not contain Urban.

Table 5: Problem 10 F MLR Comparison

	Dependen	t variable:
	Sales	
	(1)	(2)
Price	-0.054***	-0.054***
	(0.005)	(0.005)
UrbanYes	-0.022	
	(0.272)	
USYes	1.201***	1.200***
	(0.259)	(0.258)
Constant	13.043***	13.031***
	(0.651)	(0.631)
Observations	400	400
\mathbb{R}^2	0.239	0.239
Adjusted R ²	0.234	0.235
Residual Std. Error	2.472 (df = 396)	2.469 (df = 397)
F Statistic	$41.519^{***} (df = 3; 396)$	$62.431^{***} (df = 2; 397)$
\overline{Note} :	*p<	(0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

The model with Urban will always have a higher SSR because each additional variable will explain some variance even if it is not significant.

Part G.



There appear to be a couple high leverage observations in the model and one or two outliers.

ISLR Chapter 3 Applied Exercise 13

Part A.

```
#Set seed and create random normal variable x
set.seed(1)
x <- rnorm(100)</pre>
```

Part B.

```
#Set seed and create random normal variable eps
set.seed(5)
eps <- rnorm(100, mean = 0, sd = 0.25)</pre>
```

Part C.

```
#Create y as a linear function of x and eps and find length of y y \leftarrow -1 + (0.5*x) + eps; length(y)
```

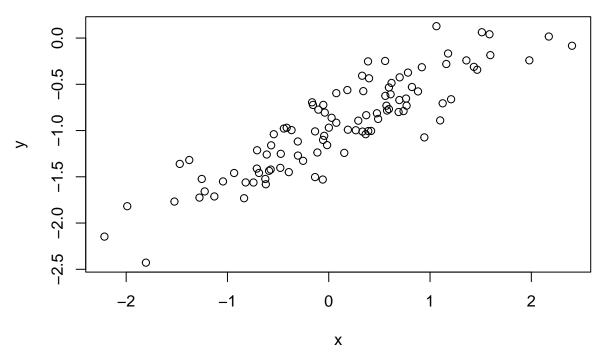
[1] 100

The length of y is 100. β_0 is -1 and β_1 is 0.50.

Part D.

```
#Plot x and y plot(x = x, y = y, main = "Problem 13 D Relationship Between x and y")
```

Problem 13 D Relationship Between x and y



The appears to be a fairly pronounced positive linear relationship between x and y.

Part E.

Table 6: Problem 13 E SLR Summary

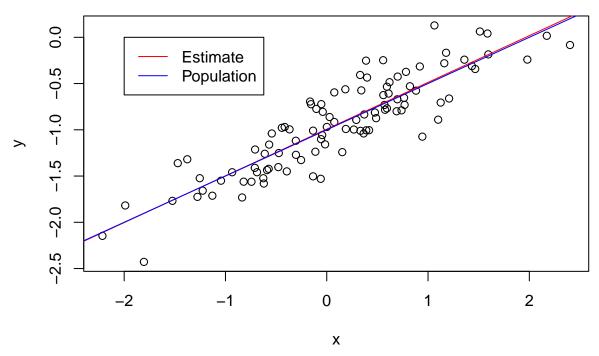
	$Dependent\ variable:$
	у
ζ	0.505***
	(0.027)
Constant	-0.993***
	(0.024)
Observations	100
\mathbb{R}^2	0.787
Adjusted R^2	0.785
Residual Std. Error	0.237 (df = 98)
F Statistic	$361.403^{***} (df = 1; 98)$
Note:	*p<0.1: **p<0.05: ***p<

 $\hat{\beta}_0$ is -0.99 which is extremely close to β_0 (which is -1). $\hat{\beta}_1$ is 0.51 which also extremely close to β_1 (which is 0.50).

Part F.

```
#Plot x vs y and compare true equation with regression
plot(x = x, y = y, main = "Problem 13 F Scatter Plot with Relationship Lines")
abline(lm.13e, col = "red")
abline(coef = c(-1,0.50), col = "blue")
legend(-2, 0, c("Estimate", "Population"), col = c("red", "blue"),lty = 1)
```

Problem 13 F Scatter Plot with Relationship Lines



Part G.

There is not a statistically significant correlation between x^2 and y. We know this because the t-test of its coefficient yielded a p-value of 0.299, which is too large to be considered statistically significant at any level.

Part H.

	$Dependent\ variable:$	
	,	y
	(1)	(2)
X	0.505***	0.509***
	(0.027)	(0.027)
$I(x^2)$		-0.022
, ,		(0.021)
Constant	-0.993***	-0.975***
	(0.024)	(0.029)
Observations	100	100
\mathbb{R}^2	0.787	0.789
Adjusted R ²	0.785	0.785
Residual Std. Error	0.237 (df = 98)	0.237 (df = 97)
F Statistic	$361.403^{***} (df = 1; 98)$	$181.413^{***} (df = 2; 97)$

Note:

*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

Table 8: Comparing Regular vs Less Noise Models

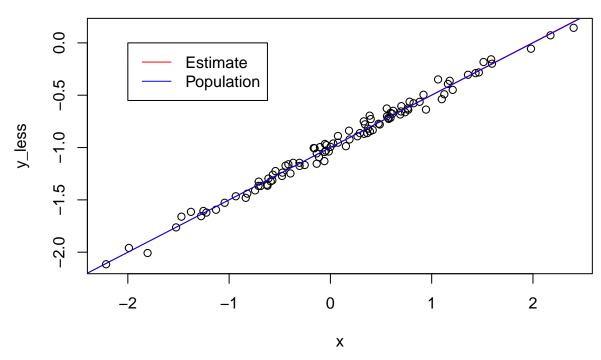
	$Dependent\ variable:$		
	У	y_less	
	(1)	(2)	
X	0.505***	0.501***	
	(0.027)	(0.005)	
Constant	-0.993***	-0.999***	
	(0.024)	(0.005)	
Observations	100	100	
\mathbb{R}^2	0.787	0.989	
Adjusted \mathbb{R}^2	0.785	0.989	
Residual Std. Error $(df = 98)$	0.237	0.047	
F Statistic ($df = 1; 98$)	361.403***	8,888.011***	

Note:

*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

```
abline(lm.13h, col = "red")
abline(coef = c(-1,0.5), col = "blue")
legend(-2, 0, c("Estimate", "Population"), col = c("red", "blue"),lty = 1)
```

Problem 13 I Model Comparison



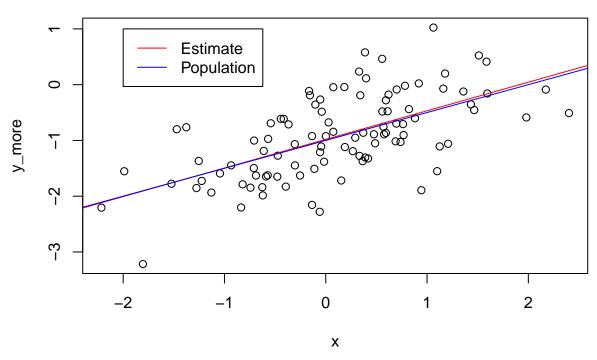
The data has a tighter positive linear relationship. The model fitted on the less noisy data also has a much higher \mathbb{R}^2 value.

Part I.

Table 9: Comparing Regular vs Less vs More Noise

	$Dependent\ variable:$		
	У	y_more	
	(1)	(2)	(3)
X	0.505***	0.501***	0.513***
	(0.027)	(0.005)	(0.066)
Constant	-0.993***	-0.999***	-0.982***
	(0.024)	(0.005)	(0.060)
Note:	*p<	<0.1; **p<0.05	5; ***p<0.01

Problem 13 I Model Comparison



The data shows a much weaker positive linear relationship between x and y. The model fitted on the noiser data also has a lower \mathbb{R}^2 value compared to the other two models.

Part J.

confint(lm.13i)

```
## 2.5 % 97.5 %
## (Intercept) -1.1003209 -0.8629446
## x 0.3810693 0.6447311
```

The confidence intervals narrow for the model fitted on less noisy data and widen for the model fitted on more noisy data.

ISLR Chapter 3 Applied Exercise 14

Part A.

```
#Set seed and generate random variables
set.seed(1)
x1 <- runif(100)
x2 <- 0.5 * x1 + rnorm(100) / 10
y <- 2 + 2 * x1 + 0.3 * x2 + rnorm(100)</pre>
```

The form of the linear model is as follows:

$$y = 2 + 2 \times x_1 + 0.3 \times x_2 + \epsilon$$

 β_0 is 2, β_1 is 2, and β_2 is 0.3.

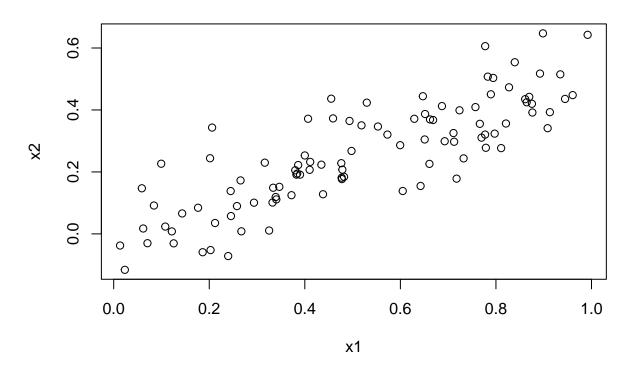
Part B.

```
#Find correlation between x1 and x2 and plot cor(x1, x2)
```

```
## [1] 0.8351212
```

```
plot(x1, x2, main = "Problem 14 B Scatterplot (x1 vs x2)")
```

Problem 14 B Scatterplot (x1 vs x2)



From Part A, we know that x_2 is a multiple of x_1 with some noise added on. In other words, x_2 is a linear function of x_1 . The correlation between x_1 and x_2 is 0.835. As is shown in the scatter plot, x_1 and x_2 have a positive correlation.

Part C.

Table 10: Problem 14 C Regression Summary

	Dependent variable:
	у
x1	1.440**
	(0.721)
x2	1.010
	(1.134)
Constant	2.130***
	(0.232)
Note:	*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<

 $\hat{\beta}_0$ is 2.13, $\hat{\beta}_1$ is 1.44, and $\hat{\beta}_2$ is 1.01. $\hat{\beta}_0$ (2.13) is quite close to β_0 (2). $\hat{\beta}_1$ (1.44) is somewhat close to β_1 (2) and $\hat{\beta}_2$ (1.01) is not very close to β_2 (0.30). From the summary table, we can reject the null hypothesis that $beta_1$ equals 0 only at the 0.05 level. In other words, we can say that β_1 is statistically significantly different from 0 with 95% confidence. However, we cannot reject the null hypothesis that β_2 equals 0, as it has a p-value of 0.3754 which is well above our minimum threshold of 0.05.

Part D.

The coefficient for x_1 shoots up to 1.98 which is much closer to its true value of 2. We can now reject the null hypothesis that β_1 equals 0 at the 0.001 level.

Part E.

The estimate for x_2 shoots up to 2.90 which is significantly higher than the model with both variables (1.01) but even farther away from its true value of 0.30. However, in this regression, we can reject the null hypothesis that β_2 equals 0 at the 0.001 level.

Table 11: Comparing Colinear Regression with ${\rm SLR}$

	Dependent variable:		
		y	
	(1)	(2)	
x1	1.440**	1.976***	
	(0.721)	(0.396)	
x2	1.010		
	(1.134)		
Constant	2.130***	2.112***	
	(0.232)	(0.231)	

Table 12: Comparing Colinear Regression with SLRs

	Dependent variable:		
		У	
	(1)	(2)	(3)
x1	1.440**	1.976***	
	(0.721)	(0.396)	
x2	1.010		2.900***
	(1.134)		(0.633)
Constant	2.130***	2.112***	2.390***
	(0.232)	(0.231)	(0.195)

Part F.

No because both variables are strongly correlated. They are each individually able to predict a large amount of the variability in y. However, since x_2 is a linear transformation of x_1 , it is hard to parse out what explainability comes from what variable when both are used in the regression together.

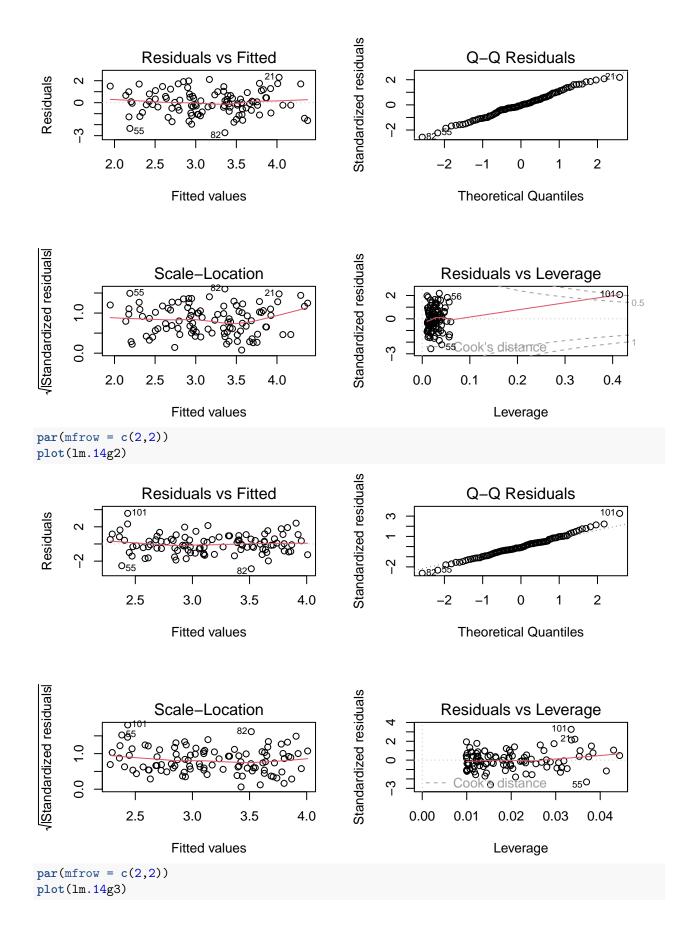
Part G.

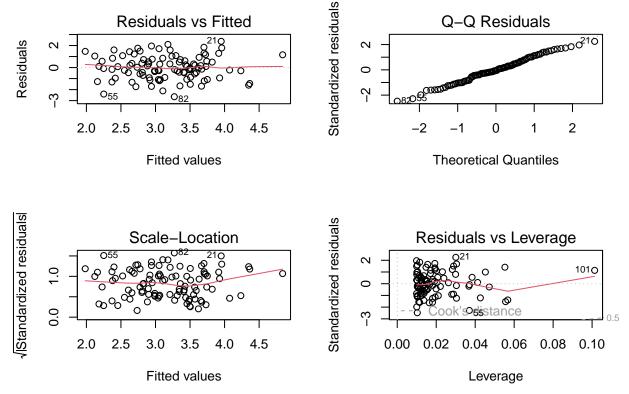
Table 13: Mismeasured Observation Regression Comparison

	Dependent variable: y		
	(1)	(2)	(3)
x1	0.539	1.766***	
	(0.592)	(0.412)	
x2	2.515***	,	3.119***
	(0.898)		(0.604)
Constant	2.227***	2.257^{***}	2.345***
	(0.231)	(0.239)	(0.191)
Observations	101	101	101
\mathbb{R}^2	0.219	0.156	0.212
Adjusted R ²	0.203	0.148	0.204
Residual Std. Error	1.075 (df = 98)	1.111 (df = 99)	1.074 (df = 99)
F Statistic	$13.724^{***} (df = 2; 98)$	$18.333^{***} (df = 1; 99)$	$26.664^{***} (df = 1; 99)$
Note:		* < () 1· **n<0.05· ***n<0.01

Note: *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

```
#Plot each regression
par(mfrow = c(2,2))
plot(lm.14g1)
```





In the model with both predictors, the point has very high leverage but is not an outlier. It also drastically reduced $\hat{\beta}_1$ and drastically increased $\hat{\beta}_2$ while making $\hat{\beta}_1$ not statistically significant from 0. In the model with just x_1 , it is an outlier but does not have high leverage. It also slightly reduced $\hat{\beta}_1$. Finally, in the model with only x_2 , it has high leverage and is not an outlier. It also greatly increased $\hat{\beta}_2$ and made it statistically significantly different from 0. All of the models had lower R^2 values.

Problem 4

Part A.

```
#Set seed so random samples are reproducible
set.seed(100)

#Create 25x25 matrix of random standard normal values and convert to df
df.train <- matrix(rnorm(625), nrow = 25)
df.train <- data.frame(df.train)
colnames(df.train)[1] <- "y"</pre>
```

Part B.

```
#Set seed so random samples are reproducible
set.seed(50)

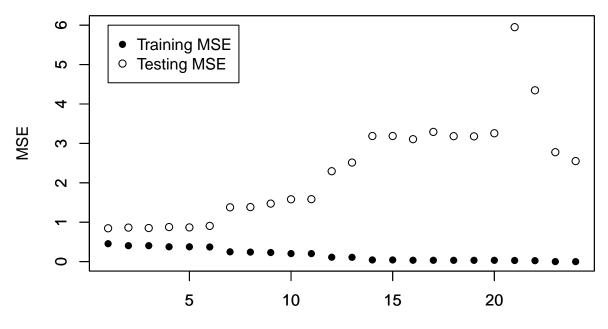
#Create 25x25 matrix of random standard normal values and convert to df
df.test <- matrix(rnorm(625), nrow = 25)
df.test <- data.frame(df.test)
colnames(df.test)[1] <- "y"</pre>
```

Part C.

```
#Initalize MSE.train and MSE.test vectors
MSE.train <- vector()</pre>
MSE.test <- vector()</pre>
#Write function to iteratively linearly regress on y while adding an additional predictor
for (i in 2:ncol(df.train)) {
  #Create interim data frame with only columns corresponding to i
  interim.df <- df.train[,c(1:i)]</pre>
  #Fit model
  lm.fit \leftarrow lm(y \sim ., data = interim.df)
  #Calculate training MSE
  MSE.train[i-1] <- mean(lm.fit$residuals^2)</pre>
  #Create evaluation data frame of residuals of predicted values from df.test
  eval.df <- data.frame(residuals = df.test$y - predict(lm.fit, df.test))</pre>
  #Calculate testing MSE
  MSE.test[i-1] <- mean((eval.df$residuals)^2)</pre>
}
```

Part D.

Training vs Testing MSE as Number of Predictors Included in Linear Model Increases



Number of Predictors in Linear Model

Part E.

As the number of predictors increases, the training MSE consistently decreases until it is essentially 0. However, the testing MSE actually increases as the number of predictors in the model increase and even spikes extremely high at around 21 predictors. This outcome makes sense as the two df.train and df.test are completely unrelated (both are simply 25 variables of 25 random samples around a standard normal distribution) and thus the model trained heavily on df.train is unable to generalize effectively when used on the different df.test data frame.