Multiple Regression I

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Regression Analysis

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For any Y in this population with predictors (x_1, x_2) we have

$$\mathrm{E}[Y] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2$$

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Simple Linear Regression	Multiple Linear Regression (2 Independent Variables (x ₁ , x ₂))	
y x	y x_1 x_2	

Generally, for k = p - 1 predictors x_1, \ldots, x_k our model is

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- ▶ β_j is the change in mean response when x_j is increased by one unit *but the remaining predictors are held constant*.
- ▶ We will assume normal errors:

$$\epsilon_1,\ldots,\epsilon_n\stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim}\mathcal{N}(0,\sigma^2).$$



Example: Dwayne Portrait Studio data

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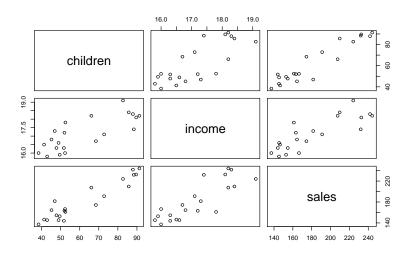
Example: Dwayne Portrait Studio data

Dwaine Studios, Inc., operates portrait studios in 21 cities of medium size. These studios specialize in portraits of children. The company is considering an expansion into other cities of medium size and wishes to investigate whether sales (Y) in a community can be predicted from the number of persons aged 16 or younger in the community (x_1) and the per capita disposable personal income in the community (x_2) .

Assume the linear model is appropriate. One way to check marginal relationships is through a scatterplot matrix.

Scatterplot matrix

https://github.com/zh3nis/MATH440/blob/main/chp06/scatter_matrix.R



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$$E[Y] = \begin{cases} \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot 0 + \beta_2 x_2 & \text{males} \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot 1 + \beta_2 x_2 & \text{females.} \end{cases}$$

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Response functions are two parallel lines, shifted by β_1 units.

Polynomial regression

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Often appropriate for curvilinear relationship between response and predictor

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Example.

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Example.

$$\log Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \epsilon.$$

Let $Y^* = \log Y$ and get general linear model.



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All of these models are *linear in the coefficients*, the β_i terms.

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$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_1 x_2 + \epsilon$$
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Let $x_3 = x_1x_2$ and get general linear model.

All of these models are *linear in the coefficients*, the β_j terms. An example of a model that is *not* in general linear model form is exponential growth:

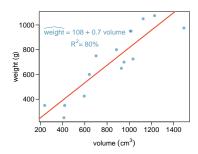
$$Y = \beta_0 \exp(\beta_1 x) + \epsilon.$$

Another example with a binary predictor – weights of books

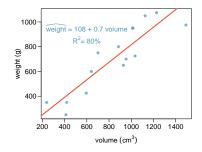
	weight (g)	volume (cm ³)	cover
1	800	885	hc
2	950	1016	hc
3	1050	1125	hc
4	350	239	hc
5	750	701	hc
6	600	641	hc
7	1075	1228	hc
8	250	412	pb
9	700	953	pb
10	650	929	pb
11	975	1492	pb
12	350	419	pb
13	950	1010	pb
14	425	595	pb
15	725	1034	pb



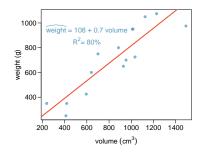
(From: Maindonald, J.H. and Braun, W.J. (2nd ed., 2007) "Data Analysis and Graphics Using R")



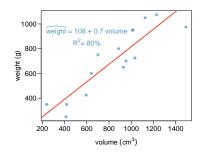
The scatterplot shows the relationship between weights and volumes of books as well as the regression output. Which of the below is correct?



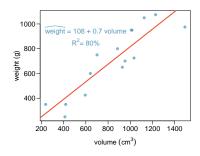
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- (a) Weights of 80% of the books can be predicted accurately using this model.
- (b) Books that are 10 cm³ over average are expected to weigh 7 g over average.
- (c) The correlation between weight and volume is $R = 0.80^2 = 0.64$.
- (d) The model underestimates the weight of the book with the highest volume.



Modeling weights of books using only volume

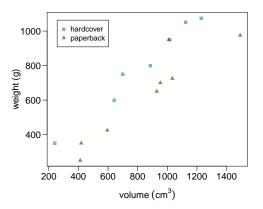
Coefficients:

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 107.67931 88.37758 1.218 0.245
volume 0.70864 0.09746 7.271 6.26e-06
```

Residual standard error: 123.9 on 13 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.8026, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7875 F-statistic: 52.87 on 1 and 13 DF, p-value: 6.262e-06

Weights of hardcover and paperback books

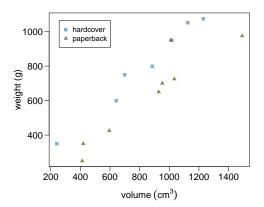
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Weights of hardcover and paperback books

Can you identify a trend in the relationship between volume and weight of hardcover and paperback books?

Paperbacks generally weigh less than hardcover books after controlling for the books volume.



Modeling weights of books using volume and cover type

Coefficients:

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 197.96284 59.19274 3.344 0.005841 **
volume 0.71795 0.06153 11.669 6.6e-08 ***
cover:pb -184.04727 40.49420 -4.545 0.000672 ***
```

Residual standard error: 78.2 on 12 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.9275, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9154 F-statistic: 76.73 on 2 and 12 DF, p-value: 1.455e-07

Determining the reference level

Based on the regression output below, which level of cover is the reference level? Note that pb: paperback.

	Estimate	Std.	Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	197.9628	5	9.1927	3.34	0.0058
volume	0.7180		0.0615	11.67	0.0000
cover:pb	-184.0473	4	0.4942	-4.55	0.0007

- (a) paperback
- (b) hardcover

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	197.96	59.19	3.34	0.01
volume	0.72	0.06	11.67	0.00
cover:pb	-184.05	40.49	-4.55	0.00

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volume	0.72	0.06	11.67	0.00
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1. For hardcover books: plug in 0 for cover

$$\widehat{weight} = 197.96 + 0.72 \ volume - 184.05 \times 0$$



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= 197.96 + 0.72 volume

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2. For paperback books: plug in 1 for cover

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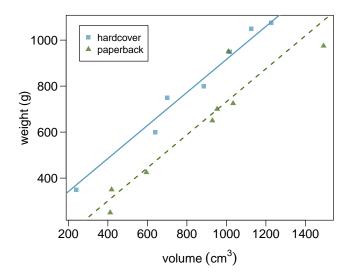
$$\widehat{weight}$$
 = 197.96 + 0.72 volume - 184.05 × 0
= 197.96 + 0.72 volume

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$$\widehat{weight}$$
 = 197.96 + 0.72 $volume - 184.05 \times 1$
= 13.91 + 0.72 $volume$



Visualising the linear model



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 β_1 : All else held constant, books that are 1 more cubic centimeter in volume tend to weigh about 0.72 grams more, on average.

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 - ▶ Obviously, the intercept does not make sense in the context.

Prediction

Which of the following is the correct calculation for the predicted weight of a paperback book that is 600 cm³?

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- (a) 197.96 + 0.72 * 600 184.05 * 1
- (b) 184.05 + 0.72 * 600 197.96 * 1
- (c) 197.96 + 0.72 * 600 184.05 * 0
- (d) 197.96 + 0.72 * 1 184.05 * 600

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(a)
$$197.96 + 0.72 * 600 - 184.05 * 1 = 445.91$$
 grams

(c)
$$197.96 + 0.72 * 600 - 184.05 * 0$$

Response vector:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

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Design matrix:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1k} \\ 1 & x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & x_{n2} & \cdots & x_{nk} \end{bmatrix}$$

The first column is a place-holder for the intercept term.

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The first column is a place-holder for the intercept term. What does each column represent? What does each row represent?

(Unknown) regression coefficients:

$$oldsymbol{eta} = egin{bmatrix} eta_0 \ eta_1 \ dots \ eta_k \end{bmatrix}$$

(Unobserved) error vector:

$$oldsymbol{\epsilon} = egin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

The general linear model is written in matrix terms as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}}_{n \times 1} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1k} \\ 1 & x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & x_{n2} & \cdots & x_{nk} \end{bmatrix}}_{n \times p} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_k \end{bmatrix}}_{p \times 1} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}}_{n \times 1},$$

where p = k + 1, or in short as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \epsilon.$$

Minimal assumptions about the random error vector ϵ are

$$E[\epsilon] = \mathbf{0}$$
 and $Cov[\epsilon] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n$,

where \mathbf{I}_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

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where \mathbf{I}_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

In general, we will require more and assume

$$\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n).$$

General linear model in matrix terms

Minimal assumptions about the random error vector ϵ are

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In general, we will require more and assume

$$\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n).$$

This allows us to construct t and F tests, obtain confidence intervals, etc.

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$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k)^{\top}$$

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Using matrix calculus we can show that the LSEs are

$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_k \end{bmatrix} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{Y}$$

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These are also MLEs.

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 $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}$ is called the **hat matrix** or **projection matrix**. We'll use it shortly when we talk about diagnostics. Notice that $\mathbf{e} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y}$.

In the Dwayne Portrait Studio data, we have

$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -68.857 \\ 1.455 \\ 9.366 \end{bmatrix},$$

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- ▶ b_2 : For each \$1000 increase in per capita income, mean sales increase by \$9,366, holding the number of children constant.

Recall the decomposition

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_{i} - \bar{Y})^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_{i} - \hat{Y}_{i})^{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{Y}_{i} - \bar{Y})^{2}$$
SST
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SSR

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Notice that

$$\mathsf{SSE} = (\mathbf{Y} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}})^\top (\mathbf{Y} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}}) = \mathbf{Y}^\top (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})^\top (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}) \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{Y}^\top (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}) \mathbf{Y}$$

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$$SSR = (\hat{\mathbf{Y}} - \bar{\mathbf{Y}})^{\top} (\hat{\mathbf{Y}} - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}) = \mathbf{Y}^{\top} \left(\mathbf{H} - \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{J} \right)^{\top} \left(\mathbf{H} - \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{J} \right) \mathbf{Y}$$

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where $\frac{1}{n}\mathbf{J} = \mathbf{1}(\mathbf{1}^{\top}\mathbf{1})^{-1}\mathbf{1}^{\top}$, and we used symmetry and idempotence of $\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}$ and $\mathbf{H} - \frac{1}{n}\mathbf{J}$ (Ch 5).



$$\begin{split} &\text{Theorem. } \frac{\text{SSE}}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2_{n-\rho} \\ &\text{Proof.} \\ &\textbf{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\textbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \textbf{I}) \end{split}$$

Theorem. $\frac{\text{SSE}}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2_{n-p}$

Proof.

$$\mathbf{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}_{\textit{n}}(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2\mathbf{I}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sigma^{-1}\mathbf{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}_{\textit{n}}(\sigma^{-1}\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{I}).$$

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where $\operatorname{rank}[I-H] = \operatorname{trace}[I-H]$

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where $\text{rank}[\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}] = \text{trace}[\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X}^\top\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^\top]$

$$= \text{trace}[\mathbf{I} - \text{trace}[\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^\top\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^\top]$$

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$$= \text{trace}[-\text{trace}[\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}]$$

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$$\mathbf{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2\mathbf{I}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sigma^{-1}\mathbf{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\sigma^{-1}\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{I}). \text{ Hence,}$$

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and
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 $\mathbf{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2\mathbf{I}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sigma^{-1}\mathbf{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\sigma^{-1}\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{I})$. Hence,
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and $\lambda = (\sigma^{-1}\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{\top}(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})(\sigma^{-1}\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\top}\mathbf{X}^{\top}[\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}]\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

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Lemma. H1 = 1

Proof.

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$$\boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}}(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}}=\boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}}$$

Lemma. H1 = 1

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X} &= \mathbf{X} \\ \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{\tilde{X}} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{\tilde{X}} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Lemma. H1 = 1

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X} &= \mathbf{X} \\ \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{1} & \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}\tilde{\mathbf{X}} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

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Since
$$\frac{\mathsf{SSR}}{\sigma^2} = (\frac{1}{\sigma}\mathbf{Y})^\top \left(\mathbf{H} - \frac{1}{n}\mathbf{J}\right) (\frac{1}{\sigma}\mathbf{Y})$$
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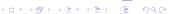
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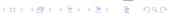


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Analysis of variance

In multiple regression we can decompose the total sum of squares into the SSR and SSE pieces.

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Source	SS	df	MS	$\mathrm{E}[MS]$
Regression	$SSR = \sum (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2$	p - 1	$\frac{SSR}{p-1}$	$\sigma^2 + QF$
Error	$SSE = \sum (Y_i - \hat{Y})^2$	n-p	$\frac{\text{SSE}}{n-p}$	σ^2
Total	$SST = \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$	n – 1	•	

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Here, QF stands for "quadratic form" and is given by

$$\mathsf{QF} = \frac{1}{p-1} \tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\top} \bar{\mathbf{X}}^{\top} \bar{\mathbf{X}} \tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \sum_{s=1}^{k} \beta_{j} \beta_{s} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_{j})(x_{is} - \bar{x}_{s}) \geq 0.$$

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Note that QF = 0 $\Leftrightarrow \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \ldots = \beta_k = 0$.

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If $F^* > F_{p-1,n-p,1-\alpha}$, we reject H_0 and conclude that *something* is going on, there is *some* relationship between one or more of the x_1, \ldots, x_k and Y. R provides a p-value for this test.

R^2 in case of multiple regression

The **coefficient of multiple determination** is

$$R^2 = \frac{\text{SSR}}{\text{SST}} = 1 - \frac{\text{SSE}}{\text{SST}}.$$

measures the proportion of sample variation in Y explained by its *linear* relationship with the predictors x_1, \ldots, x_k . As before, $0 < R^2 < 1$.

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The **adjusted** R^2

$$R_a^2 = 1 - \frac{\text{SSE}/(n-p)}{\text{SST}/(n-1)}$$

accounts for the number of predictors in the model. It may decrease when we add useless predictors to the model.



Dwayne Studio Regression Output

https://github.com/zh3nis/MATH440/blob/main/chp06/mlr.R

```
> m = lm(sales ~ children + income, data=dwayne)
> summary(m)
. . .
Multiple R-squared: 0.9167, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9075
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> anova(m)
Analysis of Variance Table
Response: sales
             Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
children 1 23371.8 23371.8 192.8962 4.64e-11 ***
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Conclusions?

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Conclusions?

We reject $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$ at any reasonable significance level α . About 92% of the total variability in the data is explained by the linear regression model.

Inference about individual regression parameters

The overall F-test concerns the *entire set* of predictors x_1, \ldots, x_k .

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If the *F*-test is significant, we will want to determine *which* of the individual predictors contribute significantly to the model.

We will talk about this shortly, but the main methods are forward selection, backwards elimination, stepwise procedures, C_p , R_a^2 , LASSO, etc.

Mean and covariance matrix of a vector

Recall: If **Y** is a random vector, then its expected value is also a vector

$$\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{Y}] = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{E}[Y_1] \\ \mathbf{E}[Y_2] \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{E}[Y_n] \end{bmatrix}$$

The random vector **Y** also has a covariance matrix

$$\operatorname{Cov}[\mathbf{Y}] = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Cov}[Y_1, Y_1] & \operatorname{Cov}[Y_1, Y_2] & \cdots & \operatorname{Cov}[Y_1, Y_n] \\ \operatorname{Cov}[Y_2, Y_1] & \operatorname{Cov}[Y_2, Y_2] & \cdots & \operatorname{Cov}[Y_2, Y_n] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \operatorname{Cov}[Y_n, Y_1] & \operatorname{Cov}[Y_n, Y_2] & \cdots & \operatorname{Cov}[Y_n, Y_n]. \end{bmatrix}$$

Multivariate normal

The multivariate normal density is given by

$$f(\mathbf{y}) = |2\pi \mathbf{\Sigma}|^{-1/2} \exp\{-0.5(\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu})' \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\},$$

where $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. We write

$$\mathbf{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}).$$

Then $E[Y] = \mu$ and $Cov[Y] = \Sigma$.

For the general linear model,

$$\mathbf{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n).$$



Error vector

Note that along the diagonal of $Cov[\mathbf{Y}]$, $Cov[Y_i, Y_i] = Var[Y_i]$.

For the general linear model,

$$\mathrm{E}[m{\epsilon}] = m{0} = egin{bmatrix} 0 \ 0 \ dots \ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 ,

$$\operatorname{Cov}[\boldsymbol{\epsilon}] = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma^2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Inference for β

$$\operatorname{Cov}[\mathbf{Y}] = \operatorname{Cov}[\underbrace{\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\text{fixed}} + \underbrace{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_{\text{random}}] = \operatorname{Cov}[\boldsymbol{\epsilon}]$$

Fact: If $\bf A$ is a constant matrix, $\bf a$ is a constant vector, and $\bf Y$ is any random vector, then

$$\mathrm{E}[\mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y} + \mathbf{a}] = \mathbf{A}\mathrm{E}[\mathbf{Y}] + \mathbf{a},$$

$$Cov[\mathbf{AY} + \mathbf{a}] = \mathbf{A}Cov[\mathbf{Y}]\mathbf{A}^{\top}.$$

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$$\operatorname{Cov}[\mathbf{e}] = (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H})\operatorname{Cov}[\mathbf{Y}](\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H})' = \sigma^2(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H}).$$

(Why?)

Mean and variance of **b**

Finally, $\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$ is unbiased

$$E[\mathbf{b}] = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'E[\mathbf{Y}] = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{\beta},$$

and has covariance matrix

$$\operatorname{Cov}[\mathbf{b}] = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\operatorname{Cov}[\mathbf{Y}][(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}']'$$

$$= \sigma^{2}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'[(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}']'$$

$$= \sigma^{2}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

$$= \sigma^{2}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}.$$

Hence,

$$\mathbf{b} \sim \mathcal{N}_{p}(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^{2}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}).$$

Table of regression effects

From the previous slide, the *j*th estimated coefficient β_j ,

$$Var[b_j] = \sigma^2 c_{jj},$$

where c_{jj} is the *j*th diagonal element of $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$.

As usually, we *estimate* the standard deviation of b_j by $\mathbf{s}[b_j] = \sqrt{\mathrm{MSE} \cdot c_{jj}}$ yielding

$$\frac{b_j-\beta_j}{\mathrm{s}[b_j]}\sim t_{n-p}$$

Note: R gives each $s[b_j]$ as well as b_j , $t_j^* = b_j/s[b_j]$, and a p-value for testing each $H_0: \beta_j = 0$.

Dwayne output

Coefficients:

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -68.8571 60.0170 -1.147 0.2663
children 1.4546 0.2118 6.868 2e-06 ***
income 9.3655 4.0640 2.305 0.0333 *
---
```

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

Residual standard error: 11.01 on 18 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.9167, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9075 F-statistic: 99.1 on 2 and 18 DF, p-value: 1.921e-10

We reject H_0 : $\beta_1=0$ at the $\alpha=0.01$ level and H_0 : $\beta_2=0$ at the $\alpha=0.05$ level.

Note: A test of $H_0: \beta_j = 0$ versus $H_a: \beta_j = 0$ – available in the table of regression coefficients – is a test of whether predictor x_j is necessary in a model with the other remaining predictors included.

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For the Dwayne Studio Data:

▶ The R summary gives us $F^* = \text{MSR/MSE} = 99.10$ with associated p-value < 0.0001 (it is actually 2×10^{-10} !). We strongly reject $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$.

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- ▶ For $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ we get p < 0.0001; for $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ we get p = 0.03. Are people under 16 (x_1) and income (x_2) important in the model?



Let's construct a CI for the mean response corresponding to a set of values

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x_{\text{new},1} \\ x_{\text{new},2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{\text{new},k} \end{bmatrix}$$

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We want to make inferences about

$$E[Y_{\text{new}}] = \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{\text{new},1} + \ldots + \beta_k x_{\text{new},k}.$$

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An approximate $100 \cdot (1 - \alpha)\%$ prediction interval for a new response $Y_{\text{new}} = \mathbf{x'}_{\text{new}} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\text{new}}$ is

$$\hat{Y}_{\text{new}} \pm t_{n-p,1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\text{MSE} \cdot [1 + \mathbf{x'}_{\text{new}} (\mathbf{X'X})^{-1} \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}]},$$

Dwayne Studios

https://github.com/zh3nis/MATH440/blob/main/chp06/dwayne_ci_pi.R

Say we want to estimate mean sales in cities with $x_1 = 65.4$ thousand children and per capita disposable income of $x_2 = 17.6$ thousand dollars.

Checking model assumptions

The general linear model assumes the following:

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- 2. The errors have constant variance.
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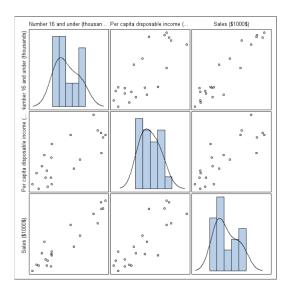
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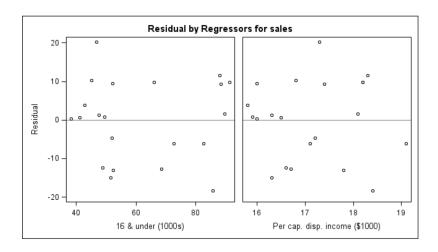
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- ► Remedies: (i) choose different functional form of model, (ii) transformation of one or more predictor variables.

Scatterplot matrix

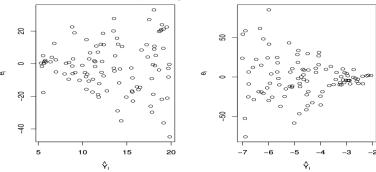


Residuals vs predictors

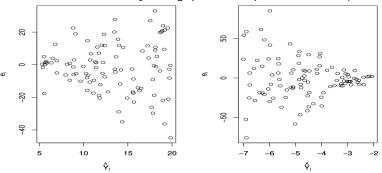


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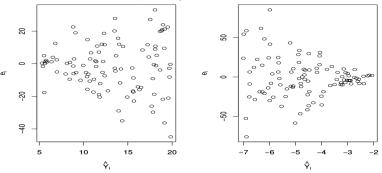


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- ▶ Easy remedy: transform the response, e.g. $Y^* = \log(Y)$ or $Y^* = \sqrt{Y}$.
- ► *A more advanced method: weighted least squares (Chapter 11).

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- ▶ Brown-Forsythe (Levene) test (pp. 116–117): Robust to non-normal errors. Requires user to break data into groups and test for constancy error variance across groups (not natural for continuous data).
- ► Graphical methods have advantage of checking for *general violations*, not just violation of a specific type.



Breusch Pagan test in R

```
> library(lmtest)
> dwayne = read.table("path/to/CH06FI05.txt", header=FALSE)
> colnames(dwayne) = c("children", "income", "sales")
> m = lm(sales ~ children + income, data=dwayne)
> bptest(m)

studentized Breusch-Pagan test

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With p-value = .3774 we do not reject H_0 : $\sigma_i = \sigma$ at $\alpha = 0.05$, no evidence of non-constant variance.

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Diagnostics include. . .

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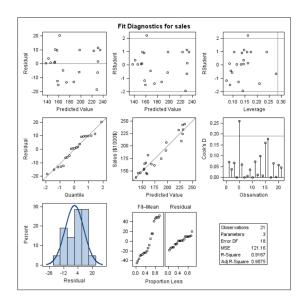
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- ▶ Remedy: transformation of Y or any of x_1, \ldots, x_k , *nonparametric methods (e.g. additive models), *robust regression (least sum of absolute distances), *median regression.

Standard diagnostics



Test for normal residuals in Portrait data

Tests for Normality

Test	Statistic		p Value	
Shapiro-Wilk	W	0.954073	Pr < W	0.4056
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	D	0.147126	Pr > D	>0.1500
Cramer-von Mises	W-Sq	0.066901	Pr > W-Sq	>0.2500
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The Anderson-Darling test looks primarily for evidence of non-normal data in the tails of a distribution; the Shapiro-Wilk emphasizes lack of symmetry in the distribution; i.e. less emphasis placed on the tails.

Comments

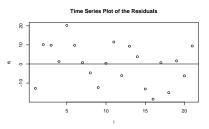
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Comments

- ▶ With large sample sizes, the normality assumption is not critical *unless you are predicting new observations*.
- ► The formal test will not tell you the *type* of departure from normality (e.g. bimodal, skew, heavy or light tails, etc.).
- ▶ Q-Q plots help answer these questions (if the mean is specified correctly).

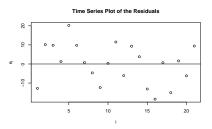
Independence

As in the case of SLR, plot of e_i vs i:



Independence

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and Runs test of independence:

```
> res = m$residuals
```

> library(lawstat)

> runs.test(res)

Runs Test - Two sided

data: res Standardized Runs Statistic = -0.66258, p-value = 0.5076

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- ▶ A nonlinear relationship *could* show itself in the scatterplot matrix of Y_i versus x_{ij} for j = 1, ..., k, or the residuals e_i versus x_{ij} .

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- ▶ A nonlinear relationship *could* show itself in the scatterplot matrix of Y_i versus x_{ij} for j = 1, ..., k, or the residuals e_i versus x_{ij} .
- ► The chosen transformation should roughly mimic the relationship seen in the plot.



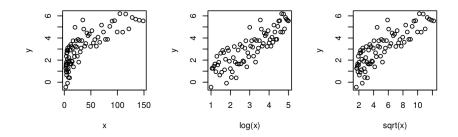
Transformations for x_{i1}, \ldots, x_{ik}

Examples of transformations for predictors are:

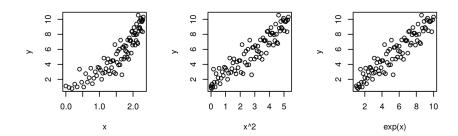
- $x^* = \log(x)$
- $\rightarrow x^* = \sqrt{x}$
- $x^* = 1/x$
- $x^* = \exp(x) \text{ or } x^* = \exp(-x)$

We will examine *marginal* relationships and transformation "fixes".

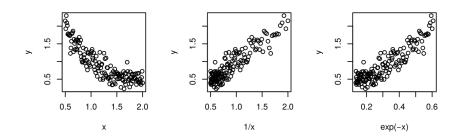
Example 1: transforming a predictor



Example 2: transforming a predictor



Example 3: transforming a predictor



Transforming a response

If there is evidence of nonconstant error variance, a transformation of Y can often fix things. Examples include:

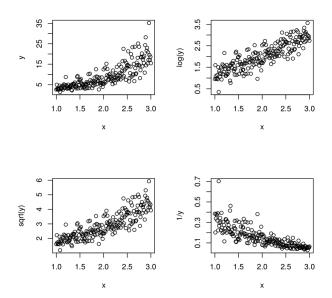
- $Y^* = \log(Y)$
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See Figure 3.15, page 132.

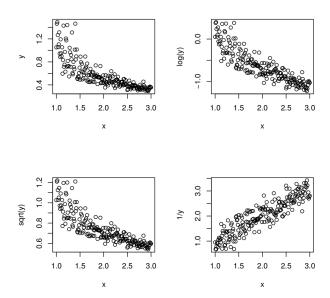
All of these are included in the Box-Cox family of transformations.

For some data, a transformation in Y may be followed by one or more transformations in the x_{i1}, \ldots, x_{ik} .

Example 4: transforming the response



Example 5: transforming the response



Box-Cox transformations

Box-Cox transformations are of the type

$$Y^* = \frac{Y^{\lambda} - 1}{\lambda}$$

where λ is estimated from the data, typically $-3 \le \lambda \le 3$. These include

$$\lambda = 2 Y^* = (Y^2 - 1)/2 \sim Y^2$$

$$\lambda = 1 Y^* = Y - 1 \sim Y$$

$$\lambda = 0 Y^* = \log(Y)$$

$$\lambda = -1 Y^* = 1 - 1/Y \sim 1/Y$$

$$\lambda = -2 Y^* = 1/2 - 1/(2Y^2) \sim 1/Y^2$$

R will help you to pick λ automatically.