

Multiple Linear Regression: Least squares and non-linearity

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Today's topics

- least squares for MLR: geometry, “hat matrix”
- collinearity and non-identifiability
- introduction to modeling non-linear relationships

Example predicting respiratory disease severity (“lung” dataset)
Holding off on inference/diagnostics for another week...

Multiple linear regression model

- Observe data $(y_i, x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip})$ for subjects $1, \dots, n$. Want to estimate $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p$ in the model

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip} + \epsilon_i; \epsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} (0, \sigma^2)$$

Déjà vu: MLR assumptions

Assumptions

- Residuals have mean zero, constant variance, are independent
- Often assuming linearity
- Our primary interest will be $E(y|\mathbf{x})$
- Estimation using least squares

Déjà vu: Least squares

As in simple linear regression, we want to find the $\vec{\beta}$ that minimizes the residual sum of squares.

$$\underline{RSS(\beta)} = \sum_i \epsilon_i^2 = \underline{\epsilon^T \epsilon}$$

After taking the derivative, setting equal to zero, we obtain:

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$
$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2} .$$

Déjà vu: Sampling distribution of $\hat{\beta}$

If our usual assumptions are satisfied and $\epsilon \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N[0, \sigma^2]$ then

$$\hat{\beta} \sim N \left[\beta, \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \right].$$

- This will be used later for inference.
- Even without Normal errors, asymptotic Normality of LSEs is possible under reasonable assumptions.


Déjà vu: Definitions

H

- ✓ ■ Fitted values: $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \underline{\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{y}$
- ✓ ■ Residuals / estimated errors: $\hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}} = \mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}$
- ✓ ■ Residual sum of squares: $\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i^2 = \hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}$
- ✓ ■ Residual variance: $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{RSS}{n-p-1}$
- ✓ ■ Degrees of freedom: $n - \underline{p} - 1$

$p = \#$ of predictors
not including intercept

Déjà vu: R^2 and sums of squares

- 
- Regression sum of squares $SS_{reg} = \sum(\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2$
 - Residual sum of squares $SS_{res} = \sum(y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$
 - Total sum of squares $SS_{tot} = \sum(y_i - \bar{y})^2$
 - Coefficient of determination

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum(y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum(y_i - \bar{y})^2} = \frac{\sum(\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2}{\sum(y_i - \bar{y})^2}$$

Not so Déjà vu: the “Hat matrix”

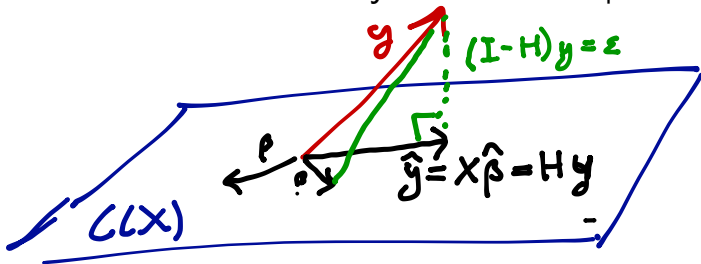
Some properties of the hat matrix:

- It is a projection matrix: $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{H}$
- It is symmetric: $\mathbf{H}^T = \mathbf{H}$
- The residuals are $\hat{\epsilon} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{I}\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}$
- ✓ ■ The inner product of $(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{y}$ is zero (predicted values and residuals are uncorrelated).

Projection space interpretation

The hat matrix projects \mathbf{y} onto the column space of \mathbf{X} .

Alternatively, minimizing the $RSS(\beta)$ is equivalent to minimizing the Euclidean distance between \mathbf{y} and the column space of \mathbf{X} .



Column space of $\mathbf{X} = C(\mathbf{X})$

$\beta_1 \vec{x}_1 + \beta_2 \vec{x}_2 + \beta_3 \vec{x}_3 =$ All possible linear combinations of \mathbf{X}

Lung Data Example

99 observations on patients who have sought treatment for the relief of respiratory disease symptoms. ~~The dependent variable,~~

The variables are:

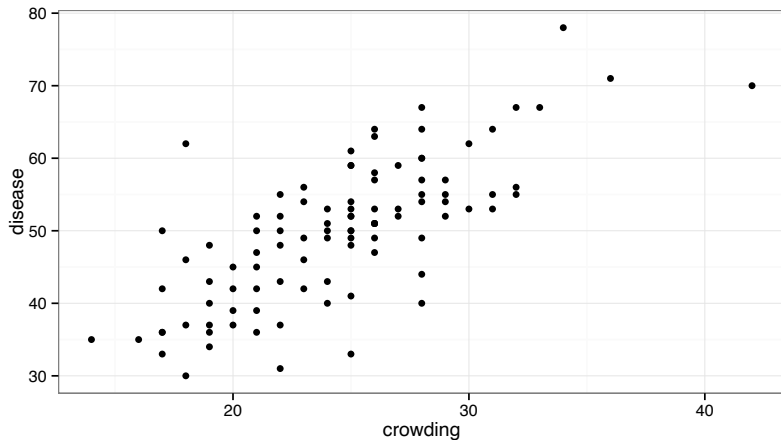
- disease measure of disease severity (larger values indicates more serious condition).
- education highest grade completed
- crowding measure of crowding of living quarters (larger values indicate more crowding)
- airqual measure of air quality at place of residence (larger number indicates poorer quality)
- nutrition nutritional status (larger number indicates better nutrition)
- smoking smoking status (1 if smoker, 0 if non-smoker)

continuous

binary

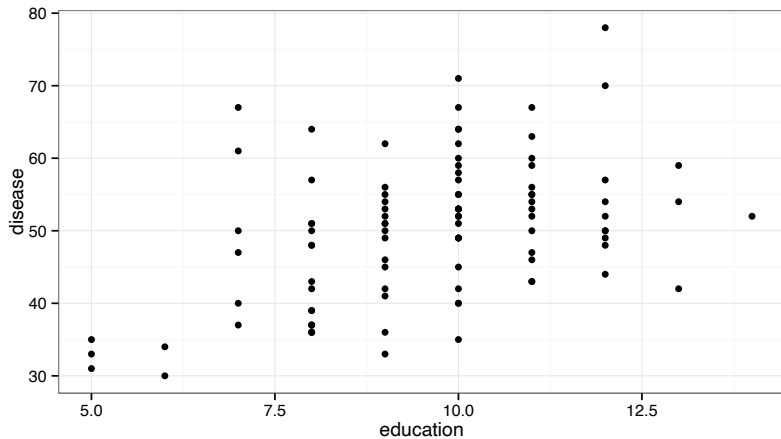
Lung Data Example

```
qplot(crowding, disease, data=dat)
```



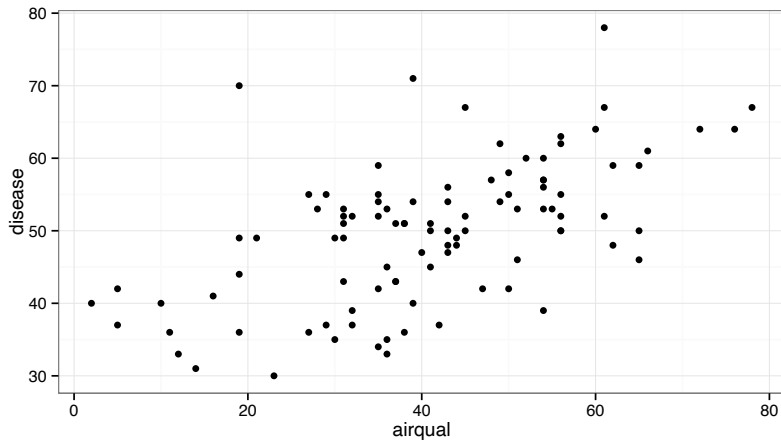
Lung Data Example

```
qplot(education, disease, data=dat)
```



Lung Data Example

```
qplot(airqual, disease, data=dat)
```



Lung Data Example

-1
 $+0$

```
mlr1 <- lm(disease ~ crowding + education + airqual,  
           data=dat, x=TRUE, y=TRUE)
```

```
coef(mlr1)
```

```
## (Intercept)    crowding    education    airqual  
## -7.7505215    1.3127837    1.4376563    0.2880687
```

```
X = mlr1$x
```

```
y = mlr1$y
```

```
(beta_hat = solve(t(X)%*%X) %*% t(X) %*% y )
```

```
## [ ,1]  
## (Intercept) -7.7505215  
## crowding    1.3127837  
## education   1.4376563  
## airqual     0.2880687
```

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$

y - beta_hat

Least squares estimates: identifiability

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

A condition on $(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})$: must be invertible

- If $(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})$ is singular, there are infinitely many least squares solutions, making $\hat{\beta}$ non-identifiable (can't choose between different solutions)
- In practice, true **non-identifiability** (there really are infinite solutions) is rare.
- More common, and perhaps more dangerous, is **collinearity**.

Causes of non-identifiability

- Can happen if \mathbf{X} is not of full rank, i.e. the columns of \mathbf{X} are linearly dependent (for example, including weight in Kg and lb as predictors)
- Can happen if there are fewer data points than terms in \mathbf{X} : $n < p$ (having 100 predictors and only 50 observations)
- Generally, the $p \times p$ matrix $(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})$ is invertible if and only if it has rank p .

Infinite solutions

Suppose I fit a model $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \epsilon_i$.

- I have estimates $\hat{\beta}_0 = 1, \hat{\beta}_1 = 2$
- I put in a new variable $x_2 = x_1$
- My new model is $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \epsilon_i$
- Possible least squares estimates that are equivalent to my first model:

- ▶ $\hat{\beta}_0 = 1, \hat{\beta}_1 = 2, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0 \Rightarrow n1$
- ▶ $\hat{\beta}_0 = 1, \hat{\beta}_1 = 0, \hat{\beta}_2 = 2 \Rightarrow n2$
- ▶ $\hat{\beta}_0 = 1, \hat{\beta}_1 = 1002, \hat{\beta}_2 = -1000 \Rightarrow n3$
- ▶ ...

$$\begin{aligned} \text{RSS}(n_1) &= \text{RSS}(n_2) \\ &= \text{RSS}(n_3) \end{aligned}$$

Non-identifiability example: lung data

```
mlr3 <- lm(disease ~ airqual, data=dat)
coef(mlr3)
```

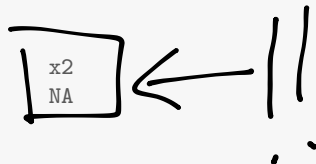
```
## (Intercept)      airqual
## 35.4444812      0.3537389
```

```
dat$x2 <- dat$airqual/100
mlr4 <- lm(disease ~ airqual + x2, data=dat, x=TRUE)
coef(mlr4)
```

```
## (Intercept)      airqual
## 35.4444812      0.3537389
```

```
X = mlr4$x
solve( t(X) %*% X)
```

```
## Error in solve.default(t(X) %*% X): system is computationally
singular: reciprocal condition number = 3.57906e-20
```



Non-identifiability: causes and solutions

- Often due to data coding errors (variable duplication, scale changes)
- Pretty easy to detect and resolve
- Can be addressed using *penalties* (might come up much later)
- A bigger problem is near-unidentifiability (collinearity)

$$\rightarrow X_3 = X_1 + X_2$$

Diagnosing collinearity

- Arises when variables are highly correlated, but not exact duplicates
- Commonly arises in data (perfect correlation is usually there by mistake)
- Might exist between several variables, i.e. a linear combination of several variables exists in the data
- A variety of tools exist (correlation analyses, multiple R^2 , eigen decompositions)

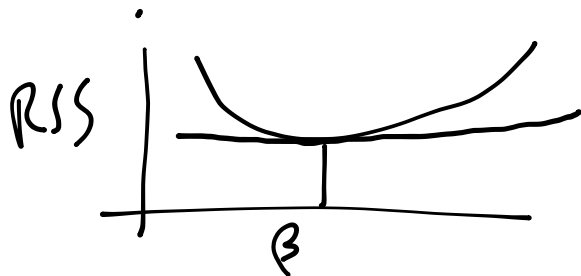
Effects of collinearity

Suppose I fit a model $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \epsilon_i$.

- I have estimates $\hat{\beta}_0 = 1, \hat{\beta}_1 = 2$
- I put in a new variable $x_2 = x_1 + \text{error}$, where *error* is pretty small
- My new model is $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \epsilon_i$
- Possible least squares estimates that are nearly equivalent to my first model:
 - ▶ $\hat{\beta}_0 = 1, \hat{\beta}_1 = 2, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0$
 - ▶ $\hat{\beta}_0 = 1, \hat{\beta}_1 = 0, \hat{\beta}_2 = 2$
 - ▶ $\hat{\beta}_0 = 1, \hat{\beta}_1 = 1002, \hat{\beta}_2 = -1000$
 - ▶ ...
- A unique solution exists, but it is hard to find

Effects of collinearity

- Collinearity results in a “flat” RSS
- Makes identifying a unique solution difficult
- Dramatically inflates the variance of LSEs ←



Collinearity example: lung data

$$X_1 + \text{Error}$$

```
dat$crowd2 <- dat$crowding + rnorm(nrow(dat), sd=.1)  
mlr5 <- lm(disease ~ crowding, data=dat)  
summary(mlr5)$coef
```

##	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
## (Intercept)	12.991536	3.4750250	3.738544	3.130355e-04
## crowding	1.508806	0.1393709	10.825836	2.231686e-18

```
mlr6 <- lm(disease ~ crowding + crowd2, data=dat)  
summary(mlr6)$coef
```

##	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
## (Intercept)	13.019617	3.490168	3.7303699	0.0003236495
## crowding	-1.510590	6.883739	-0.2194432	0.8267707628
## crowd2	3.017039	6.876945	0.4387180	0.6618516741

Some take away messages

- Collinearity can (and does) happen, so be careful
- Often contributes to the problem of variable selection, which we'll touch on later

Non-linear relationships: polynomial regression

Many relationships between X and Y are non-linear. A simple (not necessarily the best) way to account for this is using polynomial forms of X .



- Model of the form

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2 + \dots + \beta_p x_i^p + \epsilon_i; \epsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} (0, \sigma^2)$$

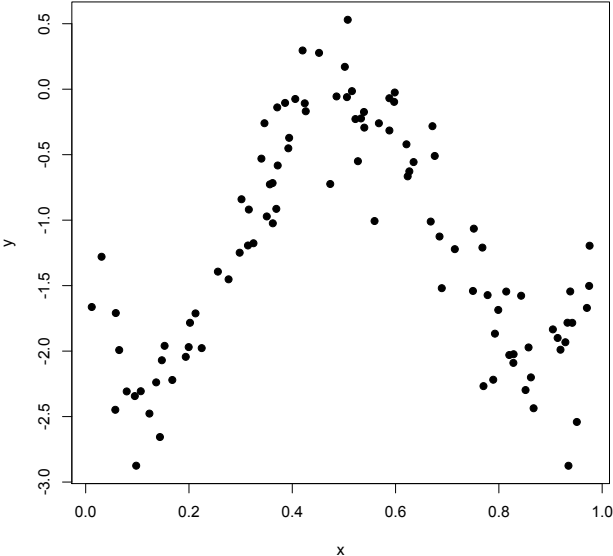
- p is the polynomial order
- More polynomial terms can lead to a better approximation of $E(y|x)$, but also higher variability in the fit
- Conversely, smaller p can lead to inability to capture $E(y|x)$, but is often more stable
- Quadratic and cubic fits are relatively common

Non-linear relationships

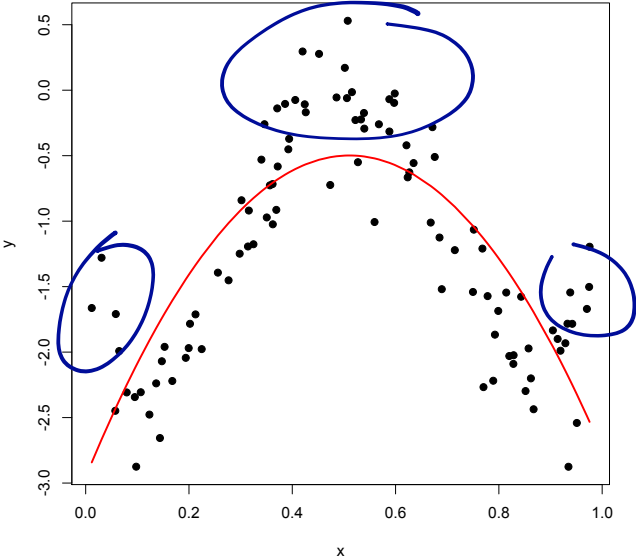
Some tips on non-linear relationships

- You can go as high as $p = n$, but don't do it! “Overfitting” data is common practice (unfortunately).
- Coefficients become harder to interpret – you can't increase x_2 without changing every other x_p
- Better (maybe) to think of the model as an estimated curve, whose interpretation is related to the derivative 
- The literal formulation above is numerically unstable. Better to use orthogonal polynomials (R's poly function) 

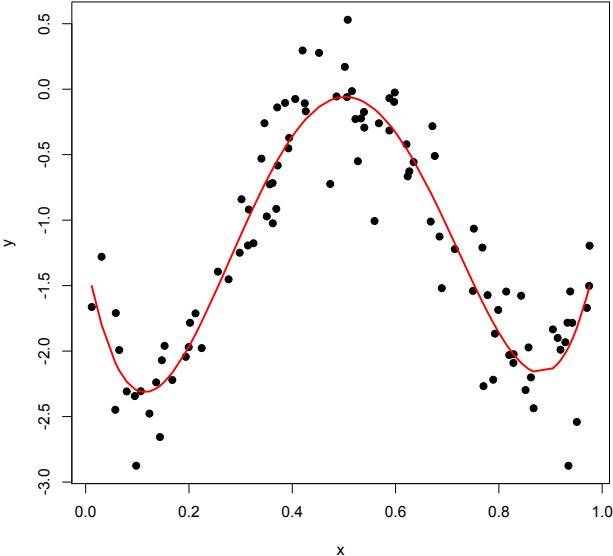
Non-linear relationships



Non-linear relationships

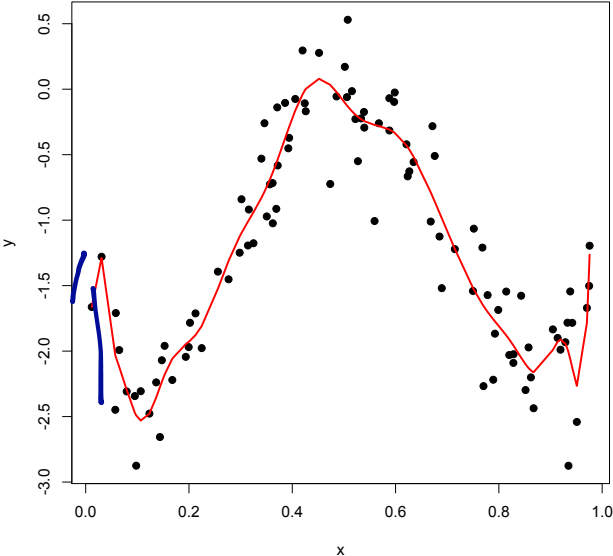


Non-linear relationships



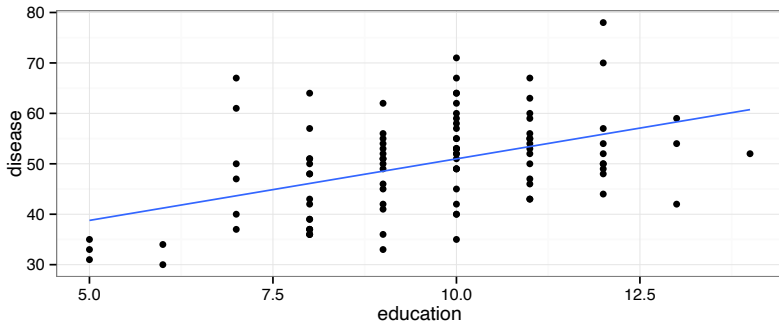
Non-linear relationships

Overfit



Non-linear relationships

```
(p <- ggplot(dat, aes(x=education, y=disease)) + geom_point() +  
  geom_smooth(method="lm", se=FALSE) )
```

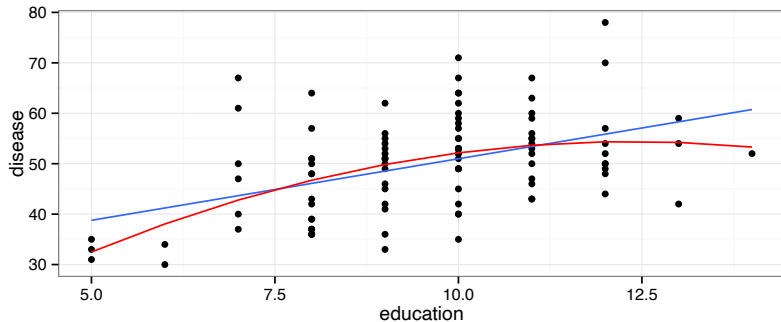


Non-linear relationships

```
mlr3 <- lm(disease ~ poly(education, 2), data=dat)  
coef(mlr3)
```

```
##          (Intercept) poly(education, 2)1 poly(education, 2)2  
##          49.91919          43.95171          -18.46921
```

```
(p <- p + geom_line(aes(y=predict(mlr3)), color="red" ) )
```

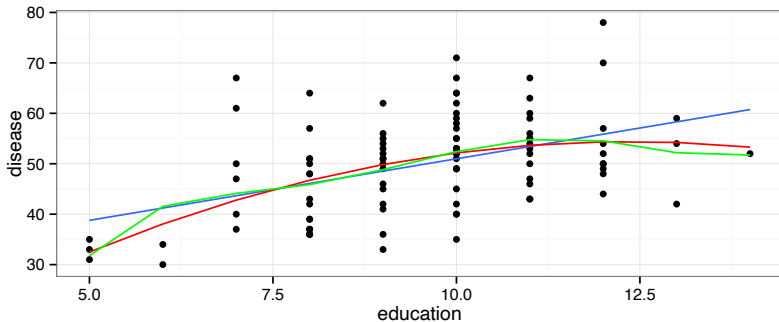


Non-linear relationships

```
mlr4 <- lm(disease ~ poly(education, 5), data=dat)  
coef(mlr4)
```

```
##      (Intercept) poly(education, 5)1 poly(education, 5)2  
##      49.919192      43.951707      -18.469208  
## poly(education, 5)3 poly(education, 5)4 poly(education, 5)5  
##      -4.131932      -4.651902      7.896361
```

```
(p <- p + geom_line(aes(y=predict(mlr4)), color="green"))
```



Smoothing and splines

Turns out there's a lot of work on estimating smooth

$$E(y|x) = f(x)$$

- Rather than polynomials, use smooth spline basis functions with nice properties (stable, smooth, flexible, smooth derivatives)
- These are piecewise polynomials
- How many to use governs how smooth or wiggly the final fit is
- Can introduce explicit penalties for smoothness, which gets you into semi-parametric regression ...

Today's big ideas

- least squares geometry, “hat matrix”
- dangers of collinearity and non-identifiability
- polynomial regression to model non-linear relationships

Lab

Analyze the NHANES dataset. Create a model with the outcome variable of cholesterol (`chol`) that estimates relationships with other variables in the dataset.

```
library(NHANES)  
data(NHANES)  
?NHANES
```