# 16 - Linear Regression

# ST 560 | Fall 2017 University of Alabama

# 16-regression.pdf

# **Contents**

1	Goals of Regression		
	1.1	Modeling in general	2
2	Simple Linear Regression		
	2.1	Advertising Data	2
	2.2	Simple (univariate) Linear Regression Model	
	2.3	Estimating model parameters (coefficients)	
	2.4	Using lm() for fitting linear regression models	
	2.5	Using predict () to make predictions	
	2.6	More univariate models	
	2.7	Multivariate Considerations	
3	Multiple Linear Regression		
	3.1	Linear Regression	,
	3.2	Multiple Components	
4	Exte	ending the Linear Model	9
	4.1	Removing the Additive Structure	ç
	4.2	Transforming Variables	
5	Reg	ression Diagnostics 1	2
	5.1	Topics	2
	5.2	In-sample vs. Out-of-Sample	
6	Log	istic Regression 1	3
	_	Logistic Regression	3

### 1 Goals of Regression

There are two primary goals for using regression analysis

- 1. Inference about parameters
  - How does advertising budget affect sales?
  - Estimate effect of X on Y, controlling for other explanatory factors.
- 2. Prediction
  - How accurately can sales be predicted given a certain sales budget?
  - Use whatever it takes (transformations, new variables, etc.) to get better predictions.

These are different goals and drive potentially different model specifications.

#### 1.1 Modeling in general

Models are a way to summarize data. Linear regression models, in particular, are a family of models that impose a *linear* structure between the predictor and response variables.

See the RDS Models chapter of the textbook for some good information on modelling basics.

The free book An Introduction to Statistical Learning

This book provides an introduction to statistical learning methods. It is aimed for upper level undergraduate students, masters students and Ph.D. students in the non-mathematical sciences. The book also contains a number of R labs with detailed explanations on how to implement the various methods in real life settings, and should be a valuable resource for a practicing data scientist.

## 2 Simple Linear Regression

#### 2.1 Advertising Data

Consider some advertising data:

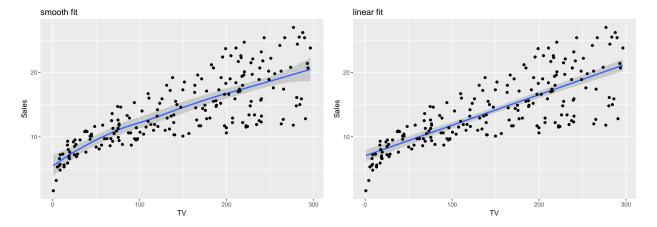
```
#- load advertising data (drop 1st column of row names)
advert = read_csv("http://www-bcf.usc.edu/~gareth/ISL/Advertising.csv") %>%
 select(-1)
                  # remove first column of rownames
summary (advert)
#>
                      Radio
         TV
                                   Newspaper
                                                      Sales
                  Min. : 0.000
                                 Min. : 0.30 Min. : 1.60
   Min.
        : 0.70
#> 1st Qu.: 74.38
                  1st Qu.: 9.975
                                  1st Qu.: 12.75
                                                 1st Qu.:10.38
#> Median :149.75 Median :22.900
                                  Median : 25.75
                                                 Median :12.90
#> Mean :147.04
                  Mean :23.264
                                  Mean : 30.55
                                                         :14.02
                                                  Mean
#> 3rd Qu.:218.82
                   3rd Qu.:36.525
                                   3rd Qu.: 45.10
                                                  3rd Qu.:17.40
#> Max. :296.40 Max. :49.600
                                  Max. :114.00 Max. :27.00
```

These data give the sales of a product (in thousands of units) under advertising budgets (in thousands of dollars) of TV, Radio, and Newspaper. This was most likely *observational* data (not experimental) which limits the conclusions we can make from modeling.

We can start by examining the relationship between the TV budget and Sales using scatterplots with a *linear* fit:

```
#- left (smooth)
ggplot(advert, aes(TV, Sales)) + geom_smooth() +
   geom_point() + ggtitle("smooth fit")

#- right (linear)
ggplot(advert, aes(TV, Sales)) + geom_smooth(method="lm") +
   geom_point() + ggtitle("linear fit")
```



#### 2.2 Simple (univariate) Linear Regression Model

A *simple* linear regression model is one with a single explanatory variable

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

- $\beta_0$  is the intercept
- $\beta_1$  is the slope
- We will use training data:  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$  to estimate the model parameters. (this is the same data used to make a scatterplot)

#### 2.3 Estimating model parameters (coefficients)

In the advertising data, let's consider how Sales are related to the TV budget. The linear model is

sales = 
$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \times TV + \epsilon$$

and the fitted, predictive model is

$$\widehat{\text{sales}} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \times TV$$

and we wish to find estimate the parameters,  $\hat{\beta}_0$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_1$  such that sales is close to the actual sales for any given value of TV budget.

#### 2.4 Using lm() for fitting linear regression models

In R, the lm() function creates (and estimates) a *linear model*.

```
lm.TV = lm(Sales~TV, data=advert)
```

Notice a few things:

- This produces the lm object lm. TV. This is basically a list, but structured so it can be used easily in other functions.
- The formula interface Sales~TV makes Sales the response/dependent variable and TV the predictor/independent variable
- The data=advert provides the data

We can do lots with the lm. TV object:

```
# gives a summary of the linear model
summary(lm.TV)
#>
#> Call:
#> lm(formula = Sales ~ TV, data = advert)
#> Residuals:
                         3Q
   Min
             1Q Median
                                   Max
#> -8.3860 -1.9545 -0.1913 2.0671 7.2124
#> Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
#> (Intercept) 7.032594 0.457843 15.36 <2e-16 ***
\#> TV
           #> ---
#> Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
#>
#> Residual standard error: 3.259 on 198 degrees of freedom
#> Multiple R-squared: 0.6119, Adjusted R-squared: 0.6099
#> F-statistic: 312.1 on 1 and 198 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
summary(lm.TV)$r.squared # R squared value
#> [1] 0.6118751
coef(lm.TV) # model coefficients (the betas)
#> (Intercept)
#> 7.03259355 0.04753664
confint(lm.TV, level=0.95)
                        # 95% confidence interval of coefficients
                  2.5 %
                         97.5 %
#> (Intercept) 6.12971927 7.93546783
#> TV 0.04223072 0.05284256
```

So we see the *fitted* linear model is:

$$\widehat{\text{sales}} = 7.03 + 0.048 \times TV$$

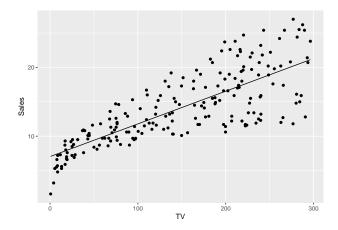
#### 2.5 Using predict () to make predictions

Once we have a model, the predict () function will give predictions. We have to pass in the model and the data for making predictions (as a data frame)

```
est.sales = predict(lm.TV, newdata = data.frame(TV = advert$TV))
advert2 = advert %>% mutate(est.sales)
```

Now we can replicate the geom\_smooth (method='lm') call

```
ggplot(advert2, aes(x=TV)) +
  geom_point(aes(y=Sales)) +
  geom_line(aes(y=est.sales))
```

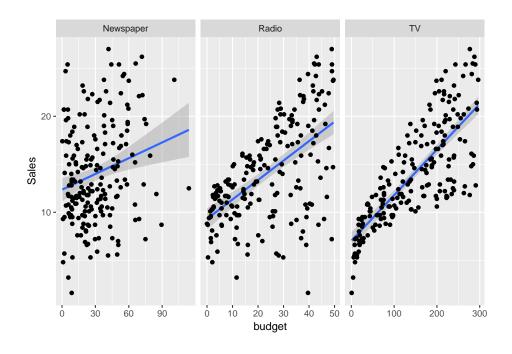


#### 2.6 More univariate models

Just change the name of the predictor variable to get the models for the other available predictors

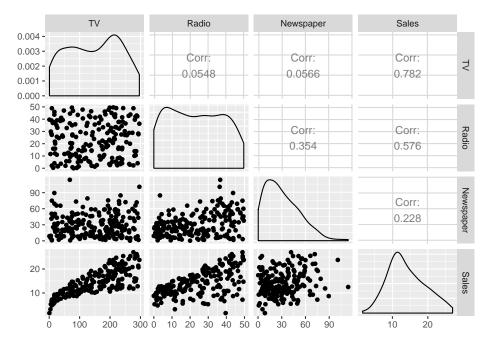
```
lm.TV = lm(Sales~TV, data=advert)
lm.Radio = lm(Sales~Radio, data=advert)
lm.Newspaper = lm(Sales~Newspaper, data=advert)
```

And if we wanted to plot all three, we could use faceting if we first convert the data into long form



#### 2.7 Multivariate Considerations





See the http://ggobi.github.io/ggally/ help page for more fun examples of cool plots.

### 3 Multiple Linear Regression

#### 3.1 Linear Regression

The standard general form for linear regression is

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots, + \beta_p X_p + \epsilon$$

- Y is the response or dependent variable
- $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p$  are called the p explanatory, independent, or predictor variables
- the greek letter  $\epsilon$  (epsilon) is the random error variable

Training data is used to estimate the model parameters or coefficients.

Producing the predictive model:

$$\hat{y}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2 + \dots, + \hat{\beta}_p x_p$$

- where  $\hat{\beta}_j$  are the weights assigned to each variable
- these weights are the values the minimize the residual sum of squares (RSS) for predicting the training data

#### 3.2 Multiple Components

Consider the advertising sales model that uses all three predictors

```
sales = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times (TV) + \beta_2 \times (radio) + \beta_3 \times (newspaper) + error
```

In R, the formula would be Sales  $\sim$  TV + Radio + Newspaper (the order of the predictor variables does not matter).

```
lm.all = lm(Sales ~ TV + Radio + Newspaper, data=advert)
summary(lm.all)
#>
#> Call:
#> lm(formula = Sales ~ TV + Radio + Newspaper, data = advert)
#> Residuals:
#> Min 1Q Median
                           30
                                  Max
#>
#> Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
#>
#> (Intercept) 2.938889 0.311908 9.422
            0.045765 0.001395 32.809 <2e-16 ***
\#>TV
#> Radio 0.188530 0.008611 21.893
                                        <2e-16 ***
#> Newspaper -0.001037 0.005871 -0.177
                                         0.86
#> ---
#> Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
#> Residual standard error: 1.686 on 196 degrees of freedom
#> Multiple R-squared: 0.8972, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8956
#> F-statistic: 570.3 on 3 and 196 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

Notice that we have a big increase in the  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and reduction in RSE indicating that this model with all three terms does better at fitting the training data than the models with only a single predictor.

However, notice that the *p*-value for the Newspaper coefficient is not small (and no significance stars). Maybe Newspaper is not very helpful once TV and Radio are in the model?

Let's consider using only these two variables (just remove Newspaper)

```
lm.TVRadio = lm(Sales ~ TV + Radio, data=advert)
summary(lm.TVRadio)
#>
#> Call:
#> lm(formula = Sales ~ TV + Radio, data = advert)
#>
#> Residuals:
#> Min 1Q Median
                         3Q
                                   Max
#> -8.7977 -0.8752 0.2422 1.1708 2.8328
#>
#> Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
#> (Intercept) 2.92110 0.29449 9.919 <2e-16 ***
#> TV 0.04575 0.00139 32.909 <2e-16 ***
```

```
#> Radio     0.18799     0.00804     23.382     <2e-16 ***
#> ---
#> Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
#>
#> Residual standard error: 1.681 on 197 degrees of freedom
#> Multiple R-squared: 0.8972, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8962
#> F-statistic: 859.6 on 2 and 197 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16</pre>
```

#### 3.2.1 Adjusted $R^2$

We want to compare a model with four estimated parameters (lm.all) to a model with only three estimated parameters (lm.TVRadio). By adding an additional parameter the  $R^2$  will necessarily increase. It is better to consider the RSE or adjusted  $R^2$ .

The adjusted  $R^2$  penalizes (reduces) the  $R^2$  to account for the number of parameters that need to be estimated

$$R_{\rm adj}^2 = 1 - \frac{RSS}{TSS} \left( \frac{n-1}{n-p-1} \right)$$

The larger the adjusted  $R^2$ ,  $R^2_{adj}$ , the better the model.

- The adjusted  $R^2$  for lm.all = 0.8956 and for lm. TVRadio = 0.8962
- Because the model  $\lim$ . TVRadio has the (slightly) larger  $R^2_{adj}$  it provides a reason to prefer it over the full model.
- When the values are this close, choose the simpler (less coefficients to estimate) model
  - What if we had a confidence interval for R<sup>2</sup>\_{adj}?
  - It is an estimate of a population parameter, so we can get a confidence interval, or test to see if the values differ between models
- Perhaps the company will stop spending money on Newspaper advertising? Should they?
  - If we believe our regression model is true, then yes. But for such observational data, proceed with caution. Check assumptions and try more models before making such a decision.

# 4 Extending the Linear Model

#### 4.1 Removing the Additive Structure

We have found that the best model so far is the one that uses TV and Radio to predict the value of Sales. Specifically, the least squares model is:

$$\widehat{\text{sales}} = 2.921 + 0.046 \times (\text{TV}) + 0.188 \times (\text{radio})$$

- So a one unit increase in TV would suggest a 0.046 unit increase in Sales, no matter the budget allocated to Radio
- But what if spending money on Radio advertising actually increases the effectiveness of the TV advertising?
  - So TV effects should increase as Radio increases

- E.g., spending 1/2 of a \$100,000 budget on TV and Radio may increase Sales more than allocating the entire amount to only TV or only Radio
- In marketing, this is the *synergy* effect. In statistics, this is known as an interaction effect.

#### 4.1.1 Interaction Effect

Consider the linear regression model with two variables and an interaction effect

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 X_2 + \epsilon$$

This model relaxes the additive structure, while maintaining the linear structure. Consider the equation re-written

$$Y = \beta_0 + (\beta_1 + \beta_3 X_2) X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \epsilon$$
  
= \beta\_0 + \tilde{\beta}\_1 X\_1 + \beta\_2 X\_2 + \epsilon

where  $\tilde{\beta}_1 = (\beta_1 + \beta_3 X_2)$ .

- Since  $\tilde{\beta}_1$  changes with  $X_2$ , the effect of  $X_1$  on Y is no longer constant.
  - Adjusting  $X_2$  will change the impact of  $X_1$  on Y

In R, use the notation  $X_1: X_2$  to include an interaction effect:

```
lm.synergy = lm(Sales ~ TV + Radio + TV:Radio, data=advert)
summary(lm.synergy)
#>
#> Call:
#> lm(formula = Sales ~ TV + Radio + TV:Radio, data = advert)
#>
#> Residuals:
#> Min
             1Q Median
                           3Q
                                  Max
#> -6.3366 -0.4028  0.1831  0.5948  1.5246
#>
#> Coefficients:
#>
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
#> (Intercept) 6.750e+00 2.479e-01 27.233 <2e-16 ***
#> TV 1.910e-02 1.504e-03 12.699 <2e-16 ***
#> Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
#>
#> Residual standard error: 0.9435 on 196 degrees of freedom
#> Multiple R-squared: 0.9678, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9673
#> F-statistic: 1963 on 3 and 196 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

#### **Your Turn #1**

1. Do you think the addition of an interaction helped? Why?

#### 4.1.2 Predicted values in R

In R, the predict () function will return the predicted values from a fitted regression model. Besides the model, the function needs the X values (the newdata argument) for making predictions.

- Type ?predict.lm to read the help pages
- The object argument is the 1m model
- The newdata must be a data.frame

```
# predict the Sales for a budget with TV = 50 ($50,000) and Radio = 20 ($20,000) predict(lm.TVRadio, newdata=data.frame(TV=50,Radio=20)) #> 1 #> 8.968725
```

#### **Your Turn #2**

- 1. Suppose the company has a total advertising budget of \$100,000. What is the predicted Sales for the following scenarios using the lm.TVRadio model
  - a. All budget to TV
  - b. All budget to Radio
  - c. Half budget to each
- 2. Suppose the company has a total advertising budget of \$100,000. What is the predicted Sales for the following scenarios using the lm.synergy (interaction) model
  - a. All budget to TV
  - b. All budget to Radio
  - c. Half budget to each
- 3. How would you recommend investment?

#### 4.2 Transforming Variables

In R, it is easy to manipulate the models. Here we can try some common transformations

```
#- Transforming predictors
lm(Sales ~ log(TV) + Radio , data=advert)
#>
#> Call:
#> lm(formula = Sales ~ log(TV) + Radio, data = advert)
#> Coefficients:
#> (Intercept)
                 log(TV)
                                Radio
#> -9.1343
                  3.9338
                               0.2054
lm(Sales ~ log(TV) + sqrt(Radio) , data=advert)
#>
#> Call:
#> lm(formula = Sales ~ log(TV) + sqrt(Radio), data = advert)
#> Coefficients:
#> (Intercept) log(TV) sqrt(Radio)
#> -11.659
                  3.901 1.662
#- Transforming Response variable
lm(log(Sales) ~ TV + Radio , data=advert)
#>
#> Call:
#> lm(formula = log(Sales) ~ TV + Radio, data = advert)
#> Coefficients:
#> (Intercept)
                       TV
                                Radio
                           0.011985
              0.003673
#> 1.745078
# Warning: if you transform the response variable, you can no longer
# compare to other non-transformed models using Rsq, etc.
```

#### 4.2.1 Formula Specification in R

R provides a flexible formula interface for trying different model specifications. Here is a good resource http://faculty.chicagobooth.edu/richard.hahn/teaching/FormulaNotation.pdf

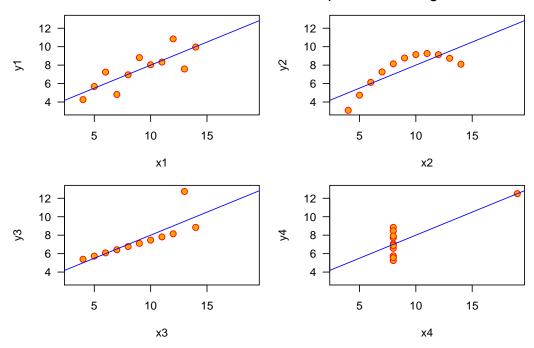
# 5 Regression Diagnostics

#### 5.1 Topics

- 1. Checking for non-linearity
- 2. Correlation of error terms
- 3. Non-constant variance of error terms
- 4. Outliers
- 5. High Leverage points
- 6. Collinearity

#### 5.1.1 Anscombe's Quartet





#### 5.2 In-sample vs. Out-of-Sample

Use a hold-out set or cross-validation to assess the performance of a model on future data

## 6 Logistic Regression

#### 6.1 Logistic Regression

In R, use the glm () function with the family = binomial setting.

```
library(openintro)
data(email)
g <- glm(spam ~ to_multiple + winner + format, data=email,
         family = binomial)
summary(g)
#>
#> glm(formula = spam ~ to_multiple + winner + format, family = binomial,
      data = email)
#>
#> Deviance Residuals:
                      Median
      Min
                 1Q
                                   3Q
                                           Max
#> -1.3122 -0.3536 -0.3536 -0.3536
```