

Chapter 6 Multiple Regression

Timothy Hanson

Department of Statistics, University of South Carolina

Stat 704: Data Analysis I

6.7 CI for mean response and PI for new response

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

$$\mathbf{x}_h = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x_{h1} \\ x_{h2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{hk} \end{bmatrix} .$$

We want to make inferences about

$$E(Y_h) = \mathbf{x}'_h \boldsymbol{\beta} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{h1} + \cdots + \beta_k x_{hk} .$$

- A point estimate is $\hat{Y}_h = \widehat{E(Y_h)} = \mathbf{x}'_h \mathbf{b}$.
- Then $E(\hat{Y}_h) = E(\mathbf{x}'_h \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{x}'_h E(\mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{x}'_h \boldsymbol{\beta}$.
- Also $\text{var}(\hat{Y}_h) = \text{cov}(\mathbf{x}'_h \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{x}'_h \text{cov}(\mathbf{b}) \mathbf{x}_h = \sigma^2 \mathbf{x}'_h (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{x}_h$.

So...

- A $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ CI for $E(Y_h)$ is

$$\hat{Y}_h \pm t_{n-p}(1 - \alpha/2) \sqrt{MSE \mathbf{x}'_h (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{x}_h},$$

- A $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ *prediction interval* for a new response $Y_h = \mathbf{x}'_h \boldsymbol{\beta} + \epsilon_h$ is

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

Say we want to estimate mean sales in cities with $x_1 = 65.4$ thousand people 16 or younger and per capita disposable income of $x_2 = 17.6$ thousand dollars. Now say we want a prediction interval for a *new city* with these covariates. We can add these covariates to the data step, with a missing value "." for sales, and ask SAS for the CI and PI.

```
data studio;
  input people16 income sales @@;
  label people16='16 & under (1000s)' income ='Per cap. disp. income ($1000)'
        sales ='Sales ($1000$)';
datalines;
  68.5 16.7 174.4 45.2 16.8 164.4 91.3 18.2 244.2 47.8 16.3 154.6
  46.9 17.3 181.6 66.1 18.2 207.5 49.5 15.9 152.8 52.0 17.2 163.2
  48.9 16.6 145.4 38.4 16.0 137.2 87.9 18.3 241.9 72.8 17.1 191.1
  88.4 17.4 232.0 42.9 15.8 145.3 52.5 17.8 161.1 85.7 18.4 209.7
  41.3 16.5 146.4 51.7 16.3 144.0 89.6 18.1 232.6 82.7 19.1 224.1
  52.3 16.0 166.5 65.4 17.6 .
;
```

```
proc reg data=studio;
  model sales=people16 income / clm cli alpha=0.05;
```

Output Statistics

Obs	Dependent Variable	Predicted Value	Std Error Mean Predict	95% CL Mean	95% CL Predict	Residual
1	174.4000	187.1841	3.8409	179.1146 195.2536	162.6910 211.6772	-12.7841
21	166.5000	157.0644	4.0792	148.4944 165.6344	132.4018 181.7270	9.4356
				...et cetera...		
22	.	191.1039	2.7668	185.2911 196.9168	167.2589 214.9490	.

6.8 Checking model assumptions

The general linear model assumes the following:

- 1 A linear relationship between $E(Y)$ and associated predictors x_1, \dots, x_k .
- 2 The errors have constant variance.
- 3 The errors are normally distributed.
- 4 The errors are independent.

We estimate the unknown $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n$ with the residuals e_1, \dots, e_n . Assumptions can be checked informally using plots and formally using tests.

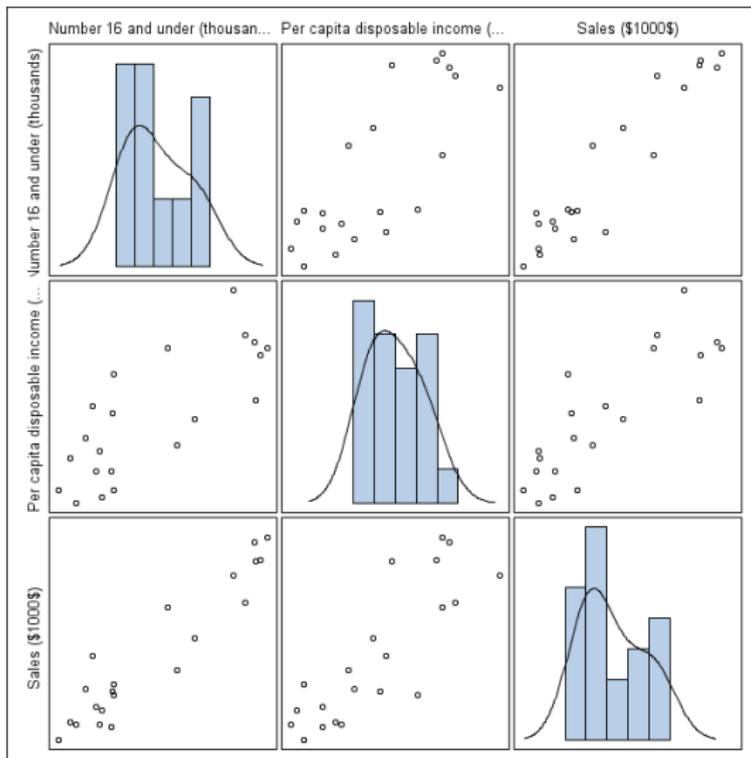
Note: We can't check $E(\epsilon_i) = 0$ because $e_1 + \dots + e_n = 0$, i.e. $\bar{e} = 0$, by construction.

Assumption 1: Linear mean

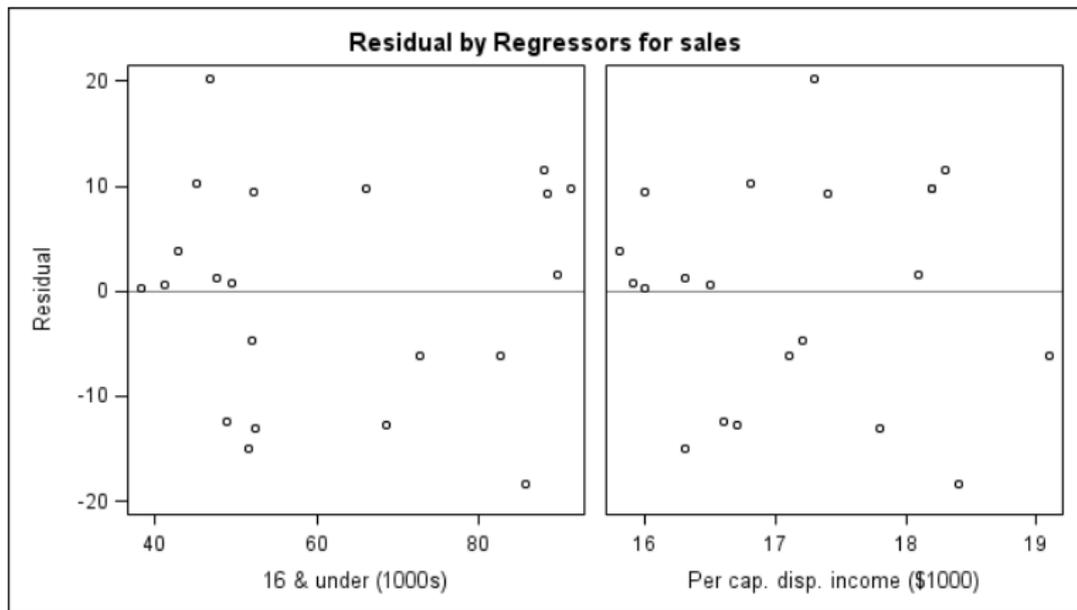
- Scatterplots of $\{(x_{ij}, Y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ for each predictor $j = 1, \dots, k$. Look for “nonlinear” patterns. These are *marginal* relationships, and do not get at the simultaneous relationship among variables.
- Look at residuals versus each predictor $\{(x_{ij}, e_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, and (or?) residuals versus fitted values $\{(\hat{Y}_i, e_i)\}_{i=1}^n$.
- Book suggests looking at residuals versus pairwise interactions, e.g. e_i versus $x_{i1}x_{i2}$.
- Look for non-random (especially curved) pattern in the residual plots, indicating violation of linear mean.
- **Remedies:** (i) choose different functional form of model, (ii) transformation of one or more predictor variables.
- Formal “lack of fit” test is available (Section 3.7, also p. 235), but requires replicate observations at each distinct predictor value.

Scatterplot matrix

```
proc sgscatter; matrix people16 income sales / diagonal=(histogram kernel); run;
```

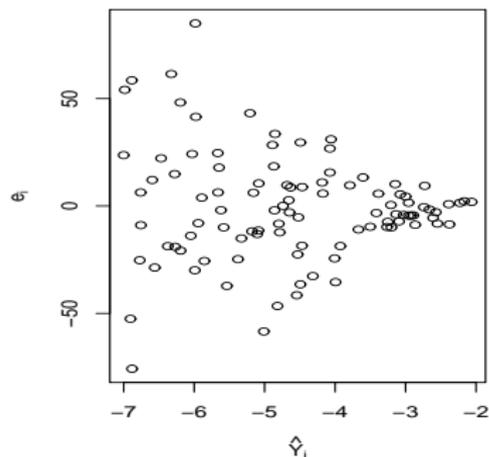
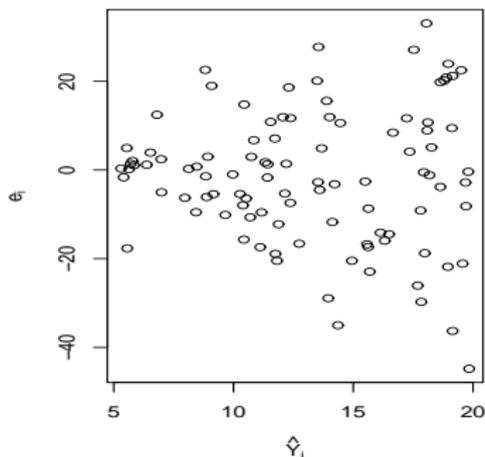


Standard diagnostics from ODS GRAPHICS



Assumption 2: Constant variance

- Often the most worrisome assumption.
- Violation indicated by “megaphone shape” in residual plot:



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

- **Breusch-Pagan test** (pp. 118–119): tests whether the log error variance increases or decreases linearly with the predictor(s). Where $Y_i \sim N(\mathbf{x}'_i\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma_i^2)$, set $\log \sigma_i^2 = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \alpha_k x_{ik}$ and test $H_0 : \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_k = 0$, i.e. $\log \sigma_i^2 = \alpha_0$. Requires large samples & assumes normal errors.
- **Brown-Forsythe 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 SAS

PROC MODEL carries out a modified version of the test where $\sigma_i = \sigma + \alpha_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \alpha_k x_{ik}$ and $H_0 : \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_k = 0$. If H_0 is true then $\sigma_i = \sigma$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

```
proc model data=studio;
  parms beta0 beta1 beta2;
  sales=beta0+people16*beta1+income*beta2;
  fit sales / breusch=(1 income sales);
```

Nonlinear OLS Summary of Residual Errors

Equation	Model	DF	Error	SSE	MSE	Root MSE	R-Square	Adj R-Sq	Label
sales		3	18	2180.9	121.2	11.0074	0.9167	0.9075	Sales (\$1000\$)

Nonlinear OLS Parameter Estimates

Parameter	Estimate	Approx Std Err	t Value	Approx Pr > t
beta0	-68.8571	60.0170	-1.15	0.2663
beta1	1.45456	0.2118	6.87	<.0001
beta2	9.3655	4.0640	2.30	0.0333

Heteroscedasticity Test

Equation	Test	Statistic	DF	Pr > ChiSq	Variables
sales	Breusch-Pagan	2.10	2	0.3503	1, income, sales

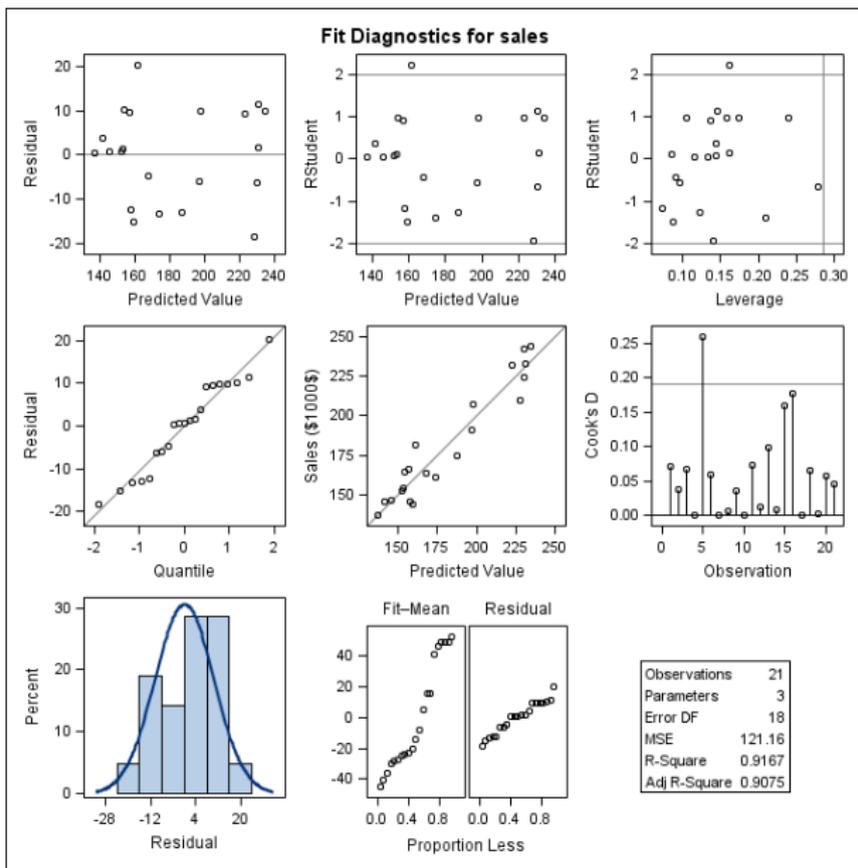
With $p = 0.35$ we do not reject $H_0 : \sigma_i = \sigma$ at $\alpha = 0.05$, no evidence of non-constant variance.

Assumption 3: errors are normally distributed

Caution: *your estimate of ϵ , given by $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Xb}$, is only as good as the model for your mean!* Changing the mean can *drastically* change the residuals \mathbf{e} and any residual plots or formal tests based on them. Diagnostics include...

- Q-Q plot of e_1, \dots, e_n .
- Formal test for normality: Shapiro-Wilk (Section 3.5), essentially based on the correlation coefficient r for expected versus observed in normal Q-Q plot.
- **Remedy:** transformation of Y and or any of x_1, \dots, x_k , nonparametric methods (e.g. additive models), robust regression (least sum of absolute distances), median regression.

Standard diagnostics from ODS GRAPHICS



Test for normal residuals in Portrait data

```
proc reg data=studio;
  model sales=people16 income;
  output out=temp r=residual;
proc univariate data=temp normal; var residual; run;
```

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
Anderson-Darling	A-Sq 0.432299	Pr > A-Sq >0.2500

We accept (or “do not reject” if you are a purist) $H_0 : e_1, \dots, e_n$ are normal.

The Anderson-Darling tests 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.

- 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, et cetera).
- Q-Q plots help answer these questions (*if* the mean is specified correctly).

Assumption 4: Independence

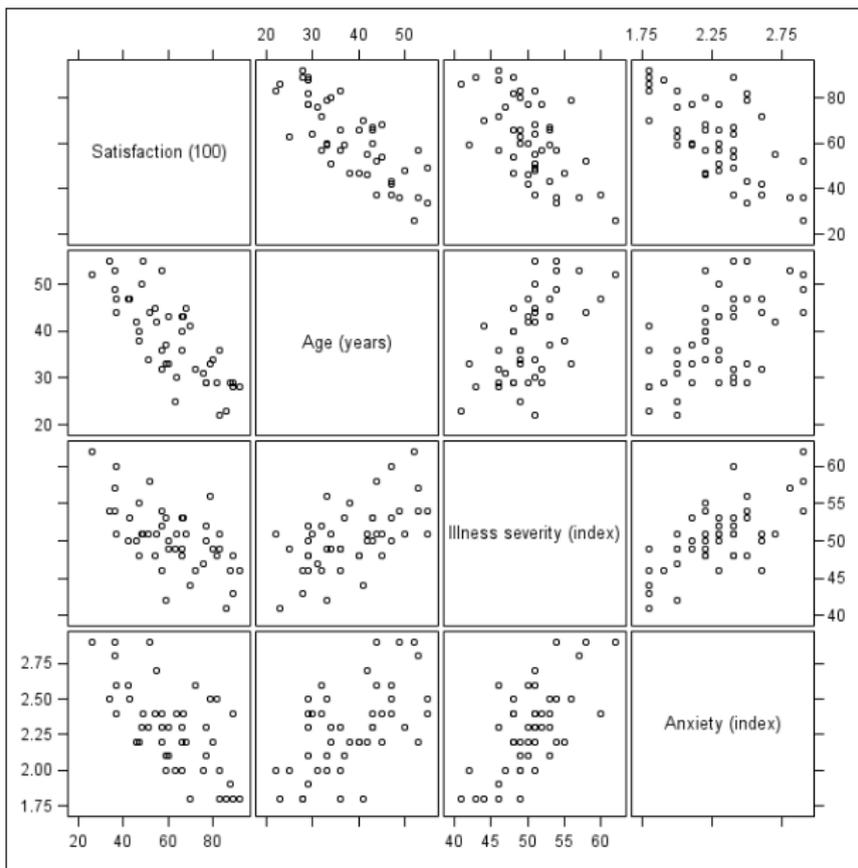
- Chapter 12 discusses time-series methods. Handles correlated errors over time (or space). Can also include time as a predictor.
- If willing to assume some *structure* on the errors, e.g. AR(1), then can do a formal test (Chapter 12, e.g. Durbin-Watson test pp. 484–488).
- Christensen, R. and Bedrick, E. (1997). Testing the independence assumption in linear models. *JASA*, 92, 1006–1016. Uses “near-replicates” instead of replicates. (Replicates needed for standard LOF test).
- In general, need to test $H_0 : \text{cov}(\epsilon) = \text{diag}(\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_n^2)$ (diagonal), or even stronger $H_0 : \text{cov}(\epsilon) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n$ (spherical – constant variance).

Problems 6.15, 6.16, 6.17

- Y = patient satisfaction (100 point scale)
- x_1 = age in years
- x_2 = illness severity (an index)
- x_3 = anxiety level (an index)

Let's analyze these data with SAS...

6.15(b) scatterplot matrix



```
data sat;
  input sat age sev anx;
  age_sev=age*sev; age_anx=age*anx; sev_anx=sev*anx; * interactions;
  label sat='Satisfaction (100)'
         age='Age (years)'
         sev='Illness severity (index)'
         anx='Anxiety (index)';
datalines;
  48   50   51   2.3
  57   36   46   2.3
  66   40   48   2.2
  ...et cetera...
  68   45   51   2.2
  59   37   53   2.1
  92   28   46   1.8
;
proc sgscatter data=sat; matrix sat age sev anx; run;

options nocenter;
proc reg data=sat;
  model sat=age sev anx;
  output out=resid r=residual; run;

proc sgscatter data=resid;
  plot residual*age_sev residual*age_anx residual*sev_anx; run;
```

Regression output

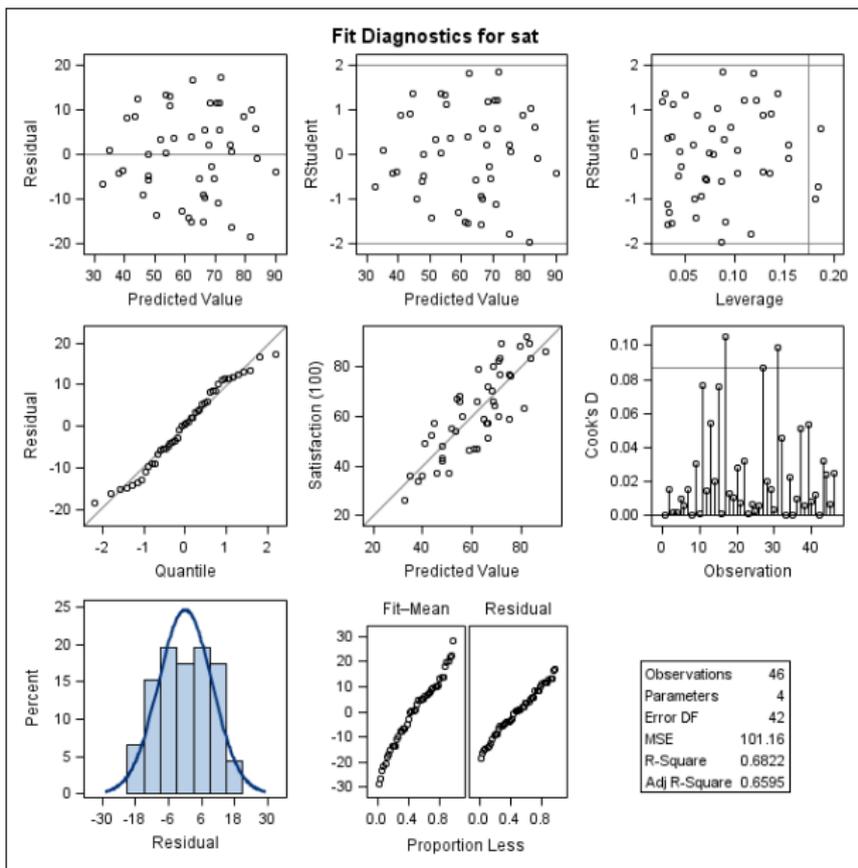
Analysis of Variance

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	3	9120.46367	3040.15456	30.05	<.0001
Error	42	4248.84068	101.16287		
Corrected Total	45	13369			
Root MSE	10.05798	R-Square	0.6822		
Dependent Mean	61.56522	Adj R-Sq	0.6595		
Coeff Var	16.33711				

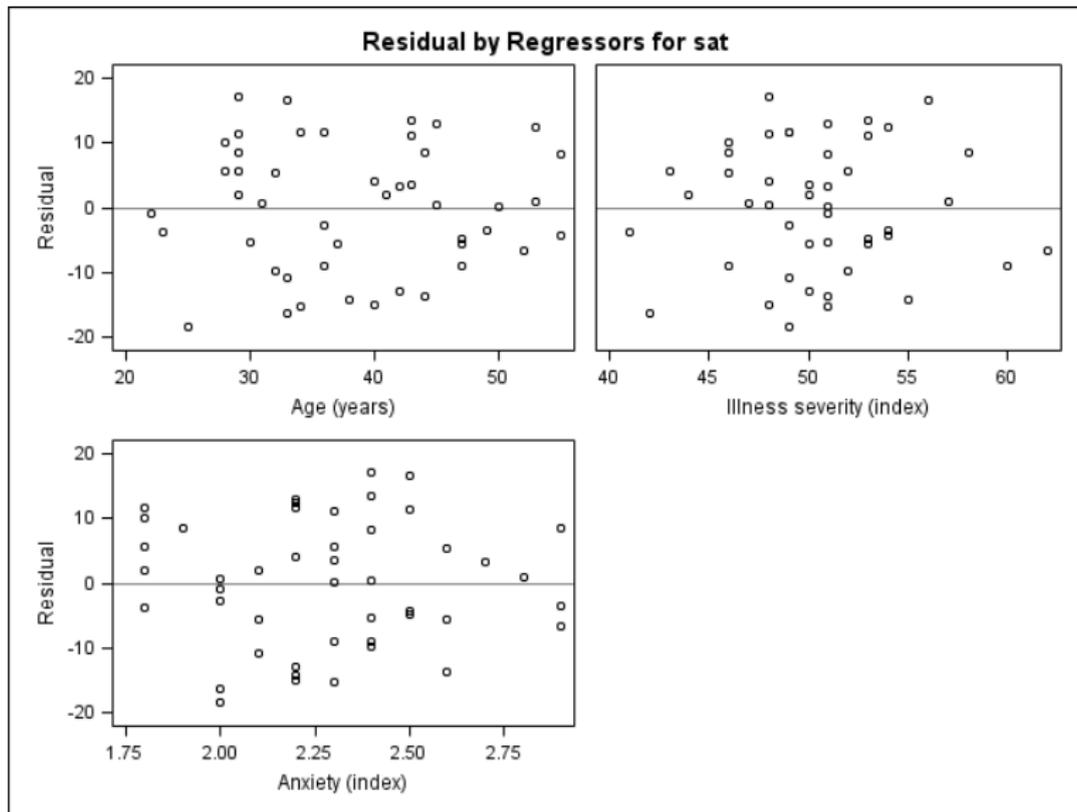
Parameter Estimates

Variable	Label	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Pr > t
Intercept	Intercept	1	158.49125	18.12589	8.74	<.0001
age	Age (years)	1	-1.14161	0.21480	-5.31	<.0001
sev	Illness severity (index)	1	-0.44200	0.49197	-0.90	0.3741
anx	Anxiety (index)	1	-13.47016	7.09966	-1.90	0.0647

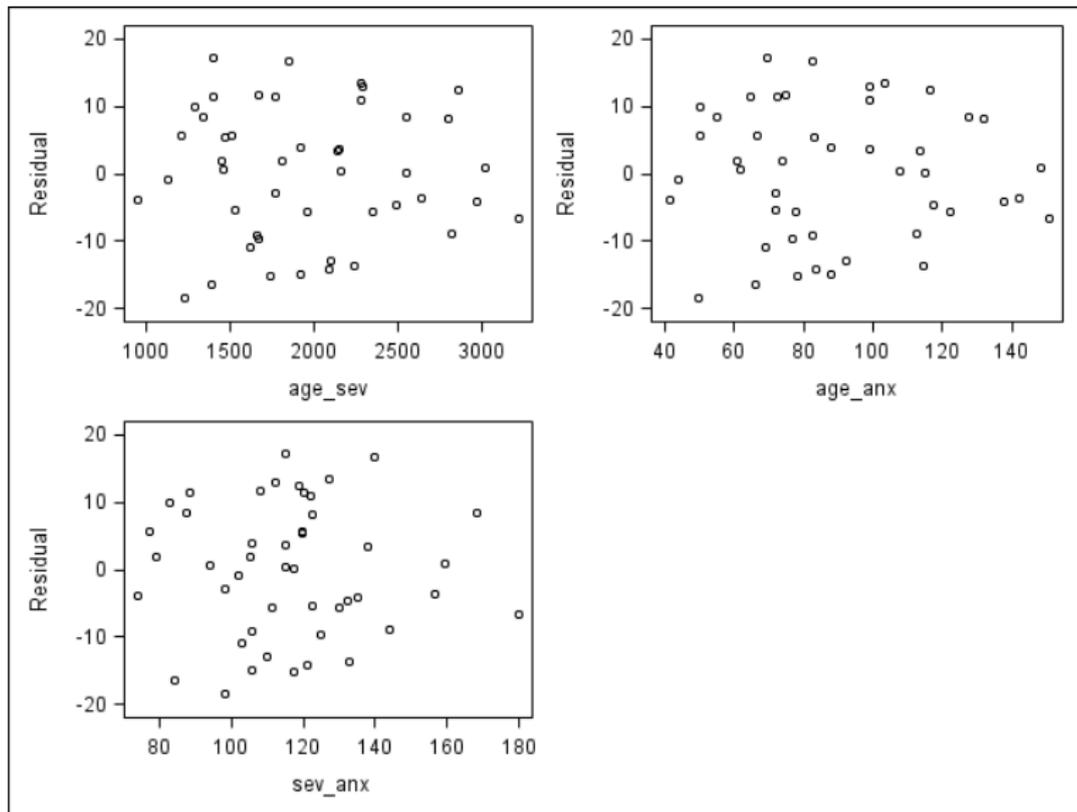
Diagnostics



Residuals vs. predictors



Residuals vs. interactions



Some answers to textbook problems...

- 6.15(c) $\widehat{\text{sat}} = 158.5 - 1.14\text{age} - 0.442\text{sev} - 13.5\text{anx}$.
 $b_2 = -0.442$; for every unit increase in the illness severity index, mean satisfaction is reduced by 0.442 units.
- 6.15(e) There is a slight increase in variability for e_i vs. \hat{Y}_i , but overall it looks okay. The normal probability plot of the residuals looks fine (relatively straight). The plots of the residuals vs. each predictor and each two-way interaction all look appropriately “random.”
- 6.15(g) The Breusch-Pagan test gives $p = 0.46$, no evidence of non-constant variance.

```
proc model data=sat;  
  parms beta0 beta1 beta2 beta3;  
  sat=beta0+age*beta1+sev*beta2+anx*beta3;  
  fit sat / breusch=(1 age sev anx);
```

		Heteroscedasticity Test			
Equation	Test	Statistic	DF	Pr > ChiSq	Variables
sat	Breusch-Pagan	2.56	3	0.4648	1, age, sev, anx

Some answers to textbook problems...

- 6.16(a) We reject $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$ at the 1% level ($p < 0.0001$ from the ANOVA table). One or more regressors are important in the model.
- 6.16(c) $R^2 = 0.68$ so 68% of the variability is explained by the regression surface.
- 6.17(a,b) I added “ . 35 45 2.2” to the data and changed the model statement to `model sat=age sev anx / clm cli alpha=0.1`; obtaining

	Dependent Variable	Predicted Value	Std Error Mean	90% CL Mean	90% CL Predict
Obs 1	.	69.0103	2.6646	64.5285 73.4920	51.5097 86.5109

We are 90% confident that the true mean satisfaction is between 64.5 and 73.5 units for 35 year-olds with severity 45 and anxiety 2.2. We would predict a new patient from this population to have a satisfaction in the range 51.5 to 86.5.