

4 Describing relationships between variables

This chapter provides methods that address a more involved problem of describing relationships between variables and require more computation. We start with relationships between (two) variables and move on to more.

4.1 Fitting a line by least squares

Goal: Notice a relationship between 2 quantitative variables

We would like to use an equation to describe how a dependent (response) variable, y , changes in response to a change in one or more independent (experimental) variable(s), x .

4.1.1 Line review

Recall a linear equation of the form $y = mx + b$

m : slope

b : y-intercept

In statistics, we use the notation $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$ where we assume β_0 and β_1 are unknown parameters and ϵ is some error.

β_0 : intercept

ϵ : error

β_1 : slope

The goal is to find estimates b_0 and b_1 for the parameters. (sometimes $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$)

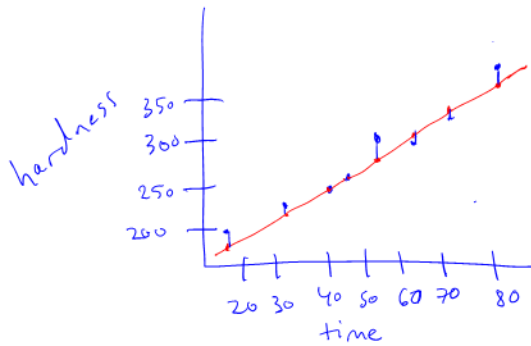
b_0 : intercept

b_1 : slope

Example 4.1 (Plastic hardness). Eight batches of plastic are made. From each batch one test item is molded and its hardness, y , is measured at time x . The following are the 8 measurements and times:

| | | | | | | | | |
|----------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| time | 32 | 72 | 64 | 48 | 16 | 40 | 80 | 56 |
| hardness | 230 | 323 | 298 | 255 | 199 | 248 | 359 | 305 |

Step 1: look at a scatterplot to determine if a linear relationship seems appropriate.



- describe strength, direction, and form:

There is a strong, positive, linear relationship between time and hardness.

How do we find an equation for the line that best fits the data?

A straight line will not pass through every data point, so when we estimate a line, we will have predicted values (\hat{y}) instead of the observed data (y)

The fitted equation is then $\hat{y} = b_0 + b_1 x$

Definition 4.1. A *residual* is the vertical distance between the actual data point and a fitted line, $e = y - \hat{y}$.

$$= y - b_0 - b_1 x$$

We choose the line that has the smallest residuals.

The *principle of least squares* provides a method of choosing a “best” line to describe the data.

Definition 4.2. To apply the *principle of least squares* in the fitting of an equation for y to an n -point data set, values of the equation parameters are chosen to minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

where y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n are the observed responses and $\hat{y}_1, \hat{y}_2, \dots, \hat{y}_n$ are corresponding responses predicted or fitted by the equation.

We want to choose b_0 and b_1 to minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i)^2$$

Take derivatives and set them to zero:

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial b_0} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i)^2 = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i)$$

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i)$$

AND

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial b_1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i)^2 = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i)$$

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i)$$

Solving for b_0 and b_1 , we get

$$b_0 = \bar{y} - b_1 \bar{x}$$

$$b_1 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{\sum x_i y_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i \sum y_i}{\sum x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} (\sum x_i)^2}$$

start here (under the numerator of the first fraction)
easier to remember (under the denominator of the first fraction)
easier to compute (under the denominator of the second fraction)

Example 4.2 (Plastic hardness, cont'd). Compute the least squares line for the data in

Example 4.1.

| x | y | xy | x^2 | y^2 |
|-----|-----|-------|-------|--------|
| 32 | 230 | 7360 | 1024 | 52900 |
| 72 | 323 | 23256 | 5184 | 104329 |
| 64 | 298 | 19072 | 4096 | 88804 |
| 48 | 255 | 12240 | 2304 | 65025 |
| 16 | 199 | 3184 | 256 | 39601 |
| 40 | 248 | 9920 | 1600 | 61504 |
| 80 | 359 | 28720 | 6400 | 128881 |
| 56 | 305 | 17080 | 3136 | 93025 |

sum 408 2217 120832 24000 634069 $n=8$

$$b_1 = \frac{\sum x_i y_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i \sum y_i}{\sum x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} (\sum x_i)^2} = \frac{120832 - \frac{1}{8} (408)(2217)}{24000 - \frac{1}{8} (408)^2} = 2.433$$

$$b_0 = \bar{y} - b_1 \bar{x} = \frac{2217}{8} - 2.433 \frac{408}{8} = 153.06$$

Now we have the fitted line: $\hat{y} = 153.06 + 2.433x$

We can use this to ① get interpretations of estimates and ② compute a predicted/fitted value for a given x :

Q: What is the predicted hardness for time $x=24$?

$$\hat{y} = 153.06 + 2.433(24) = 211.452$$

4.1.2 Interpreting slope and intercept

if $b_1 \geq 0$ /
 $b_1 < 0$

- Slope: For every 1 (unit) increase in (x) we expect a (b_1)
 - increase / decrease in (y)
 - (b_1 positive) (b_1 negative)
- Intercept

When (x) is 0 (units), we expect (y) to be (b_0) .

ALWAYS to put interpretations in context of the problem
⇒ replace everything in parentheses w/ actual problem context.

Interpreting the intercept is nonsense when

1. A value of 0 for x is not practical (i.e. measuring heights of adult humans)
2. Extrapolation would have to be used to get the predicted value of y (i.e. get a negative intercept for any measurement).

Note: this doesn't mean the intercept is wrong! It's just not interpretable.

Example 4.3 (Plastic hardness, cont'd). Interpret the coefficients in the plastic hardness example. Is the interpretation of the intercept reasonable?

Slope: $(b_1 = 2.433)$

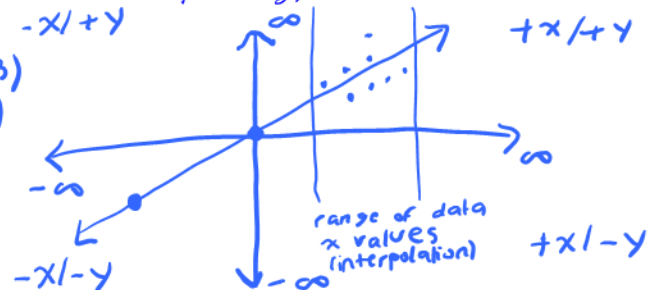
For every 1 hour increase in time, we expect the hardness to increase by 2.433 units.

Intercept: $(b_0 = 153.06)$

At time 0, we expect the hardness to be 153.06 units.

The intercept interpretation is NOT reasonable, because at time 0, the plastic is molten so expecting a hardness of 153.06 units is unrealistic.

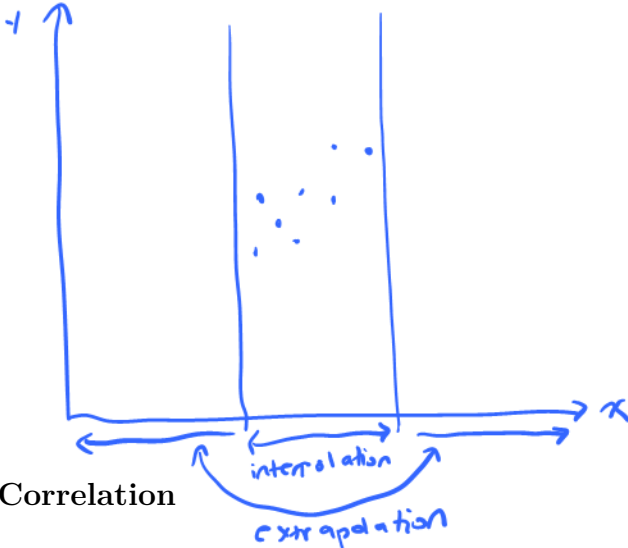
$x = \text{size of house (m}^2\text{)}$
 $y = \text{cost of house (\$)}$



When making predictions, don't *extrapolate*.

Definition 4.3. Extrapolation is when a value of x beyond the range of our actual observations is used to find a predicted value for y . We don't know the behavior of the line beyond our collected data.

Definition 4.4. Interpolation is when a value of x within the range of our observations is used to find a predicted value for y .



4.1.3 Correlation



Visually we can assess if a fitted line does a good job of fitting the data using a scatterplot. However, it is also helpful to have methods of quantifying the quality of that fit.



Definition 4.5. Correlation gives the strength and direction of the linear relationship / association between two variables.

Definition 4.6. The *sample correlation* between x and y in a sample of n data points (x_i, y_i) is

correlation

$$r = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2}} = \frac{\sum x_i y_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i \sum y_i}{\sqrt{\sum x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} (\sum x_i)^2} \sqrt{\sum y_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} (\sum y_i)^2}}$$

| | $\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})$ | contribution to r |
|---|---------------------------------------|---------------------|
| ① | $\sum (+)(+)$ | \oplus |
| ② | $\sum (+)(-)$ | \ominus |
| ③ | $\sum (-)(+)$ | \ominus |
| ④ | $\sum (-)(-)$ | \oplus |

Properties of the sample correlation:



- $-1 \leq r \leq 1$
- $r = -1$ or $r = 1$ if all points lie exactly on the fitted line
- The closer r is to 0, the weaker the linear relationship; the closer it is to 1 or -1 , the stronger the linear relationship.
- Negative r indicates negative linear relationship; Positive r indicates positive linear relationship
(linear slope, b_1)
- Interpretation always need 3 things
 1. Strength (strong, moderate, weak)
 2. Direction (positive or negative)
 3. Form (linear relationship or no linear relationship) \Rightarrow looking at scatterplot & residual plots

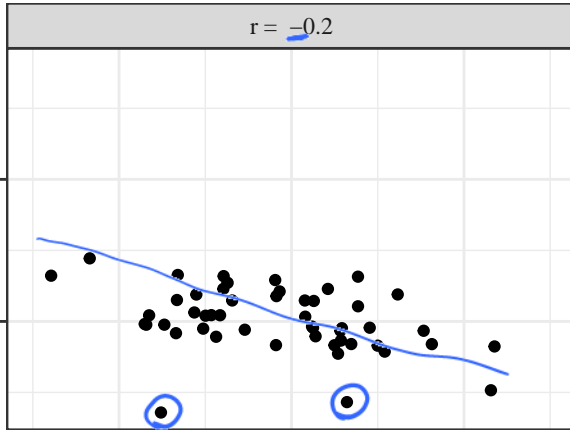
Note:

- ① strong $\equiv 0.7 \leq r \leq 1$ or $-1 \leq r \leq -0.7$
moderate $\equiv 0.3 \leq r < 0.7$ or $-0.7 < r \leq -0.3$
weak $\equiv -0.3 < r < 0.3$

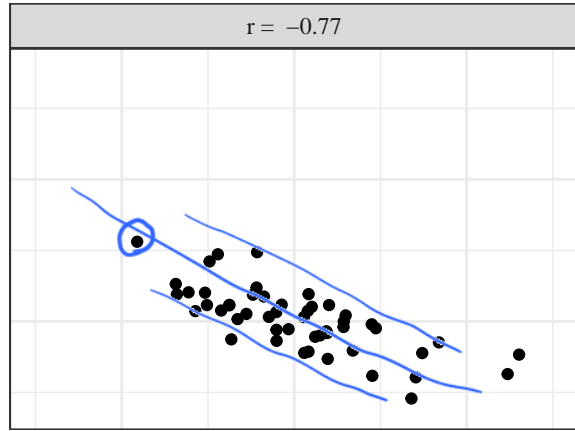
- ② $r = 0 \Rightarrow$ No linear [★] relationship btwn X and Y .
(there could be some other form of relationship btwn X and Y)



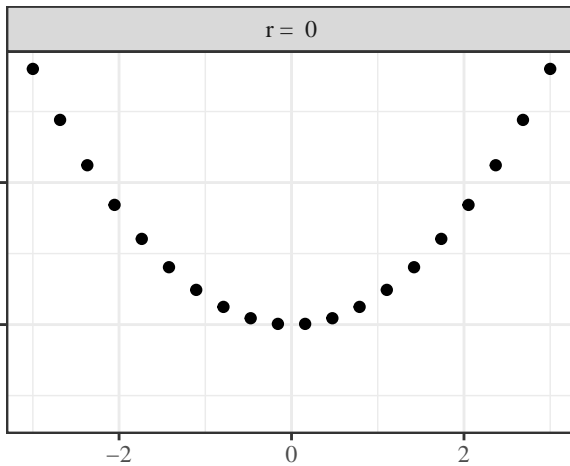
Weak negative linear (possibly 2 outliers)



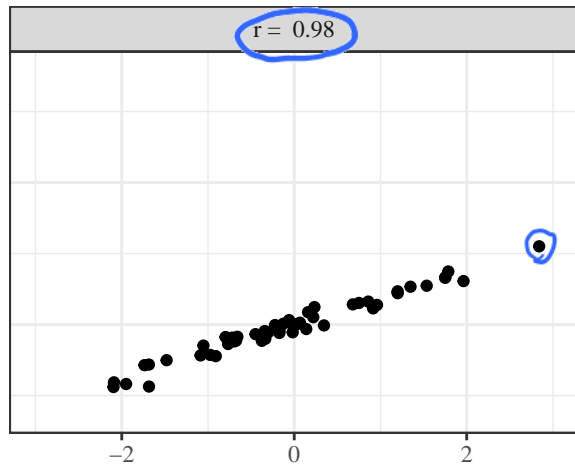
Strong negative linear (probably no outliers)



No linear relationship (no apparent outliers)



Strong positive linear (possibly 1 outlier)



Example 4.4 (Plastic hardness, cont'd). Compute and interpret the sample correlation for the plastic hardness example. Recall, $\sum X$ is a short-cut for $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$

$$\sum x = 408, \sum y = 2217, \sum xy = 120832, \sum x^2 = 24000, \sum y^2 = 634069 \quad n = 8$$

$$r = \frac{\sum x_i y_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i \sum y_i}{\sqrt{\sum x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} (\sum x_i)^2} \sqrt{\sum y_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} (\sum y_i)^2}} = \frac{120,832 - \frac{1}{8} (408 \cdot 2,217)}{\sqrt{(24,000) - \frac{1}{8} (408)^2} \cdot \sqrt{(634,069) - \frac{1}{8} (2,217)^2}}$$

$$= 0.9796$$

There is a ^① strong, ^② positive, ^③ linear relationship b/w time and hardness of plastic.

If linear model is appropriate, y_i 's should look like \hat{y}_i 's except for small fluctuations explainable only as random variation

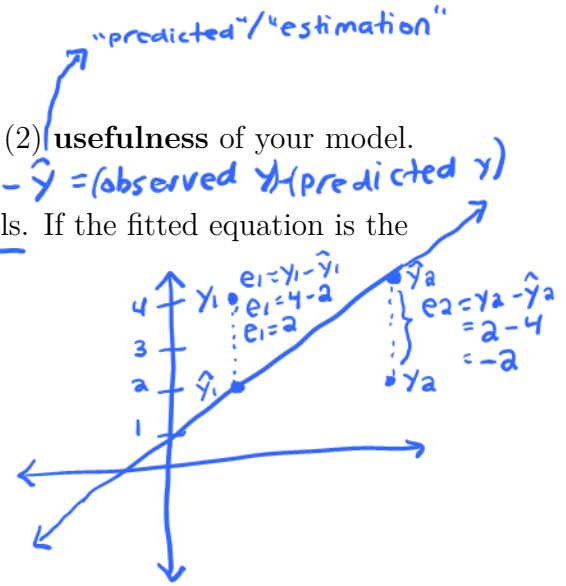
4.1.4 Assessing models

When modeling, it's important to assess the (1) **validity** and (2) **usefulness** of your model.

$$e = y - \hat{y} = (\text{observed } y) - (\text{predicted } \hat{y})$$

To assess the validity of the model, we will look to the residuals. If the fitted equation is the good one, the residuals will be:

1. **patternless** (cloud-like, random scatter)
2. **centered at zero**
3. **Bell shaped**



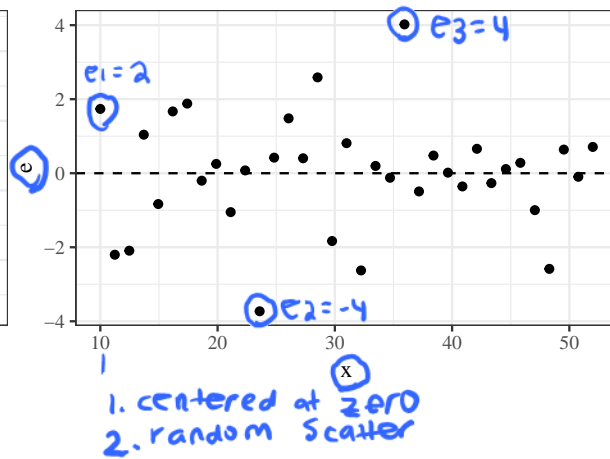
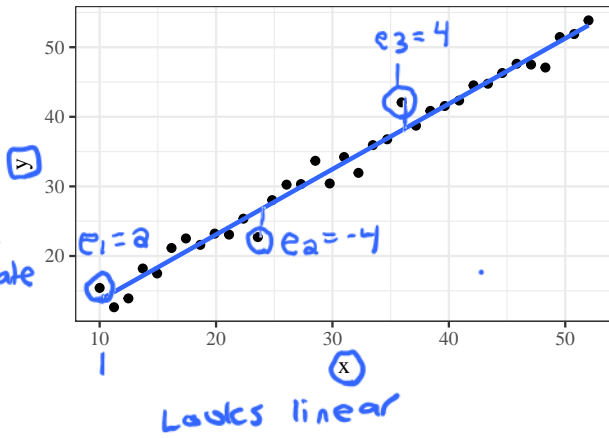
To check if these three things hold, we will use two plotting methods.

Definition 4.7. A residual plot is a plot of the residuals, $e = y - \hat{y}$ vs. x (or \hat{y} in the case of multiple regression, Section 4.2).

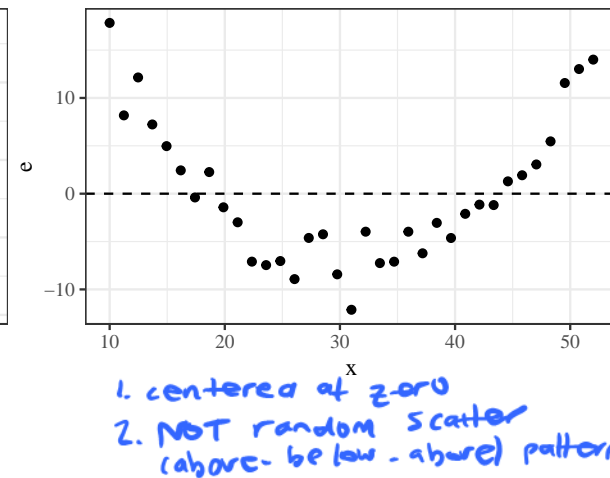
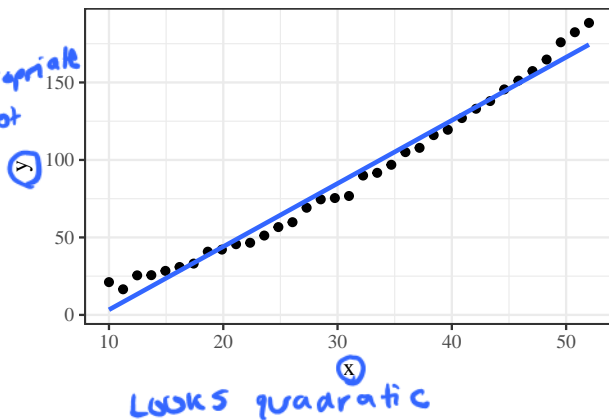
Scatterplot

Residual plots

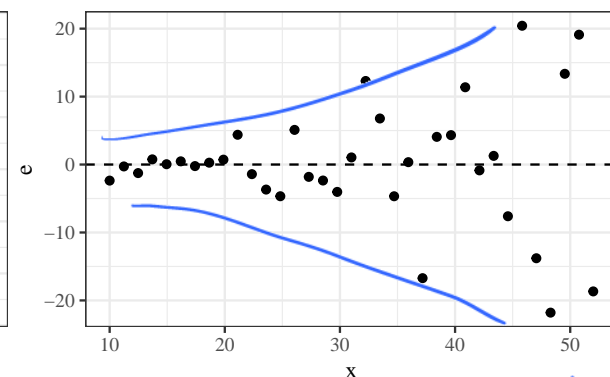
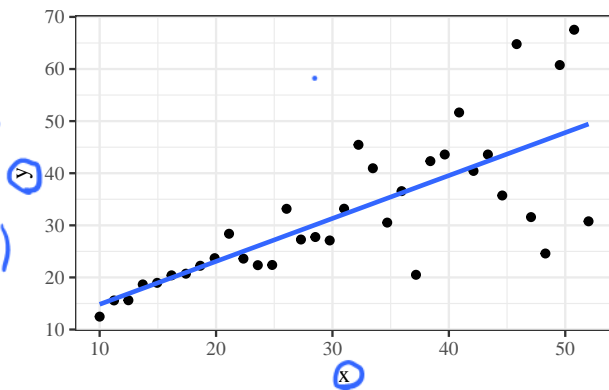
Local scatterplot and its ideal residual plot (linear fit is appropriate as seen in both plots)



Linear fit is not appropriate (residual plot has a pattern)



Residual plot shows a pattern (linear fit is not appropriate)



$$\hat{y} = \alpha x^\beta \Rightarrow \log(\hat{y}) = \log \alpha + \beta \log x$$

non-linear relationship between x and y (rearrangement of Taylor series).

linear relationship between $\log(x)$ and $\log(y)$

variables

constants

So, $\tilde{y} = \hat{\gamma}_0 + \hat{\gamma}_1 \tilde{x}$ where $\tilde{y} = \log(\hat{y})$, $\tilde{x} = \log(x)$, $\hat{\gamma}_0 = \log \alpha$, $\hat{\gamma}_1 = \beta$

$\hat{\gamma}_0$ and $\hat{\gamma}_1$ can be obtained using simple linear regression of $\log(y)$ on $\log(x)$

$\hat{\alpha} = e^{\hat{\gamma}_0}$ and $\hat{\beta} = \hat{\gamma}_1$, $\hat{y} = e^{\hat{\gamma}_0 + \hat{\gamma}_1 \tilde{x}} = e^{\log \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta} \log x} = \hat{\alpha} x^{\hat{\beta}}$

relationship between x and y for a linear relationship between $\log(x)$ and $\log(y)$

Solutions:

- investigate measurement process
- transform the data! (use log transformation)

$$e = y - \hat{y}$$

To check if residuals have a Normal distribution,

Recall from ch 3: Best way to check if data is normal is the Normal Q-Q plot (plot ordered data against theoretical normal quantiles)

↳ plot residuals against theoretical normal quantiles

Look for straight line in Normal QQ plot of residuals
(close to)

To assess the usefulness of the model, we use R^2 , the coefficient of determination.

Definition 4.8. The *coefficient of determination*, R^2 , is the proportion of variation in the response that is explained by the model.

Total amount of variation in the response

$$Var(y) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

sum of squares total (SST)

Sum of squares breakdown:

$$SST = \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

(sum of squares total measures variation of observed y_i values around their observed \bar{y})

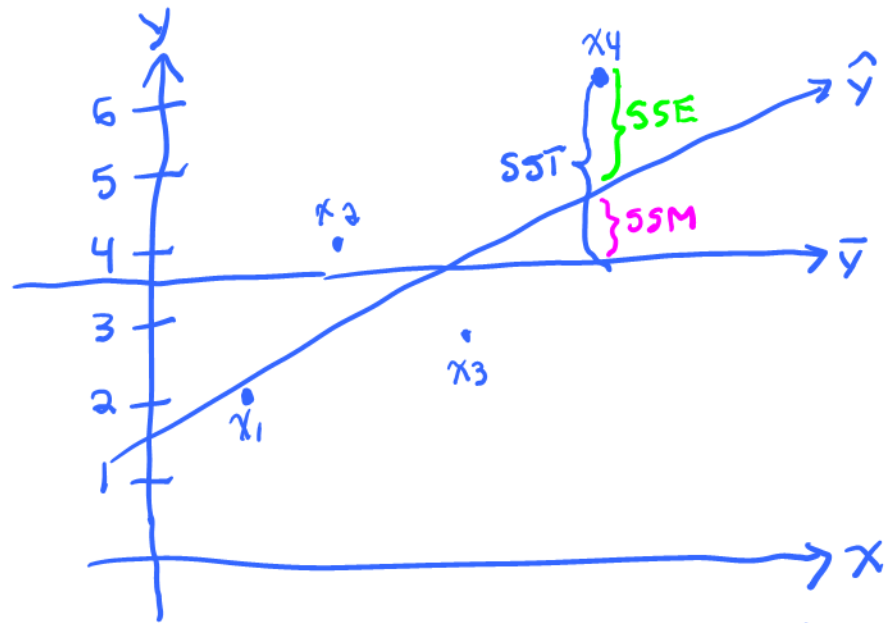
$$SSM = \sum (\hat{y} - \bar{y})^2$$

(sum of squares model measures the relationship btwn x and y)

$$SSE = \sum (y_i - \hat{y})^2$$

(sum of squares error measures factors other than the relationship btwn x and y)

$$SST = SSM + SSE$$



$$(x_1, 2), (x_2, 4), (x_3, 2.8), (x_4, 6)$$

$$\bar{y} = (2 + 4 + 2.8 + 6) / 4 = 3.7$$

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

easier to calculate

Properties of R^2 :

- R^2 is used to assess the fit of other types of relationships as well (not just linear). ^(unlike r)
- Interpretation - fraction of raw variation in y accounted for by the fitted equation. $\Rightarrow R^2 = \frac{SSM}{SST}$
- $0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$
- The closer R^2 is to 1, the better the model.
- For SLR, $R^2 = (r)^2$ (only for simple linear regression - y on x)

Example 4.5 (Plastic hardness, contd). Compute and interpret R^2 for the example of the relationship between plastic hardness and time.

$$R^2 = (r)^2 = (0.9796)^2 = 0.9597 \Rightarrow 95.97\%$$

Interpretation:

95.97% of variation in hardness (y) can be explained by the linear relationship with time (x)

4.1.5 Precautions



Precautions about Simple Linear Regression (SLR)

- r only measures linear relationships
- R^2 and r can be drastically affected by a few unusual data points.
- correlation does not necessarily mean causation

(both have Σ)



4.1.6 Using a computer

You can use JMP (or R) to fit a linear model. See BlackBoard for videos on fitting a model using JMP.

4.2 Fitting curves and surfaces by least squares

The basic ideas in Section 4.1 can be generalized to produce a powerful tool: multiple linear regression. (more than 2 explanatory variables, data appears to have more complicated relationships than lines)

4.2.1 Polynomial regression

In the previous section, a straight line did a reasonable job of describing the relationship between time and plastic hardness. But what to do when there is not a linear relationship between variables?

Fit a more complicated equation.

Example 4.6 (Cylinders, pg. 132). B. Roth studied the compressive strength of concrete-like fly ash cylinders. These were made using various amounts of ammonium phosphate as an additive.

explanatory
↑ variable
response
↑ variable
n = 18

| ammonium.phosphate | strength | ammonium.phosphate | strength |
|--------------------|----------|--------------------|----------|
| 0 | 1221 | 3 | 1609 |
| 0 | 1207 | 3 | 1627 |
| 0 | 1187 | 3 | 1642 |
| 1 | 1555 | 4 | 1451 |
| 1 | 1562 | 4 | 1472 |
| 1 | 1575 | 4 | 1465 |
| 2 | 1827 | 5 | 1321 |
| 2 | 1839 | 5 | 1289 |
| 2 | 1802 | 5 | 1292 |

Table 1: Additive concentrations and compressive strengths for fly ash cylinders.

Step 1: Look at a scatterplot

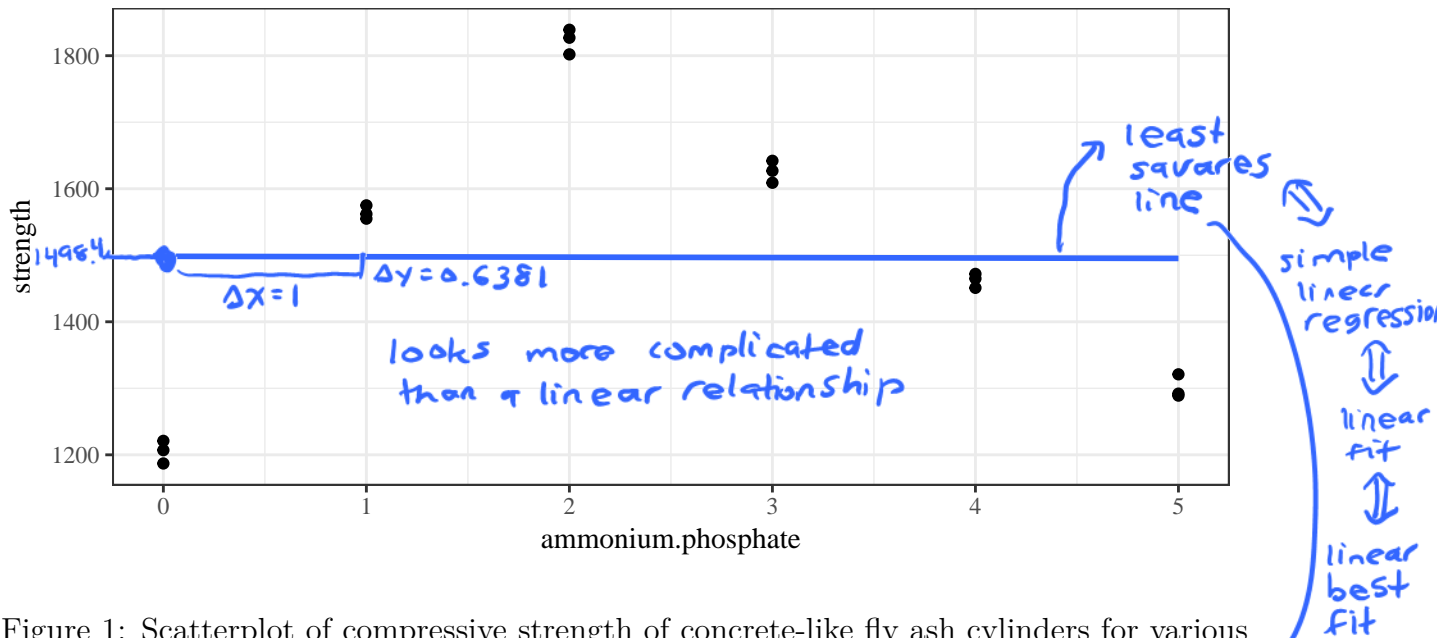


Figure 1: Scatterplot of compressive strength of concrete-like fly ash cylinders for various amounts of ammonium phosphate as an additive with a fitted line.

$$\hat{y} = 1498.4 - 0.6381X$$

$$\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$$

Assess linear model fit:

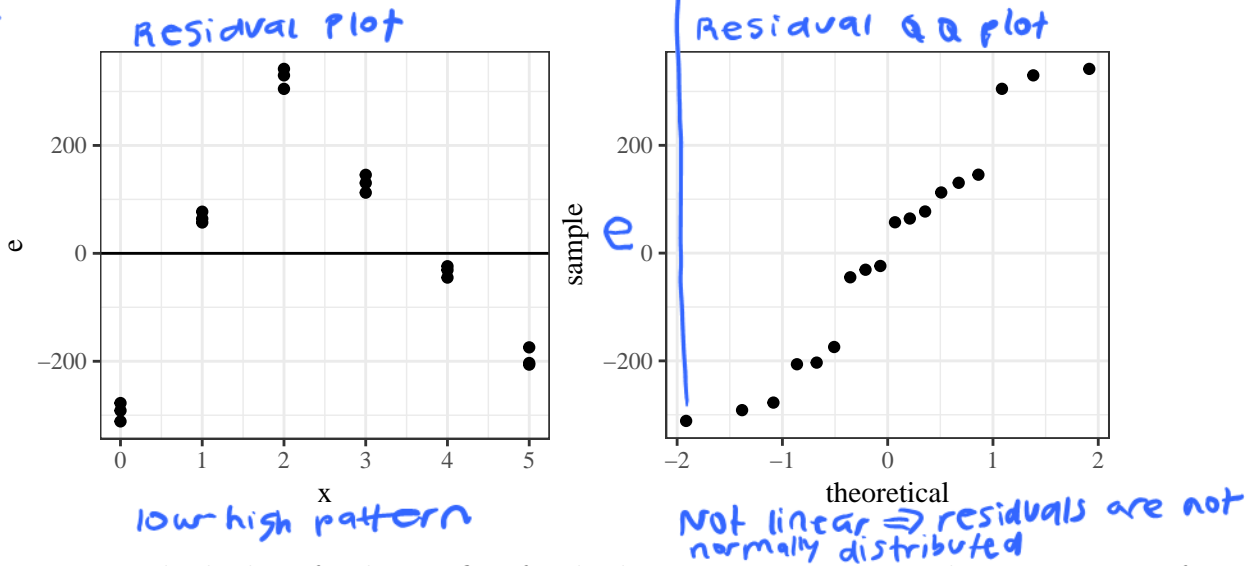


Figure 2: Residual plots for linear fit of cylinder compressive strength on amounts of ammonium phosphate.
 Residual plot shows a pattern (not a random scatter around 0)
 Residual QQ plot has issues with normality
 ⇒ Linear fit is not a good model!

A natural generalization of the linear equation

$$y \approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

is the polynomial equation (curve fitting) one y and one x (plus variants)

$$y \approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x^{p-1}$$

↳ y-intercept
↳ slope parameters

The p coefficients are again estimated using the principle of least squares, where the function

↪ solve β constant parameters

$$S(b_0, \dots, b_{p-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i - \dots - \beta_{p-1} x_i^{p-1})^2$$

must be minimized to find the estimates b_0, \dots, b_{p-1} .

1. set derivatives to 0
 2. solving for b_0, b_1, \dots, b_{p-1}
- } have a computer do this!

Example 4.7 (Cylinders, cont'd). The linear fit for the relationship between ammonium phosphate and compressive strength of cylinders was not great ($R^2 = 2.8147436 \times 10^{-5}$). We can fit a quadratic model.

\Leftrightarrow (type of polynomial model)

$R^2 \approx 0 \Rightarrow$ linear not a useful model

$$y \approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2$$

Call: (user input)

`lm(formula = strength ~ ammonium.phosphate + I(ammonium.phosphate^2),`

`data = cylinders)`

Residuals:

| Min | 1Q | Median | 3Q | Max |
|---------|---------|--------|--------|---------|
| -95.983 | -70.193 | -7.895 | 51.548 | 137.419 |

Coefficients:

| | Estimate | Std. Error | t value | Pr(> t) |
|-----------------------------------|----------|------------|---------|--------------|
| β_0 (Intercept) | 1242.893 | 42.982 | 28.917 | 1.43e-14 *** |
| β_1 ammonium.phosphate | 382.665 | 40.430 | 9.465 | 1.03e-07 *** |
| β_2 I(ammonium.phosphate^2) | -76.661 | 7.762 | -9.877 | 5.88e-08 *** |

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

Residual standard error: 82.14 on 15 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.8667, Adjusted R-squared: 0.849

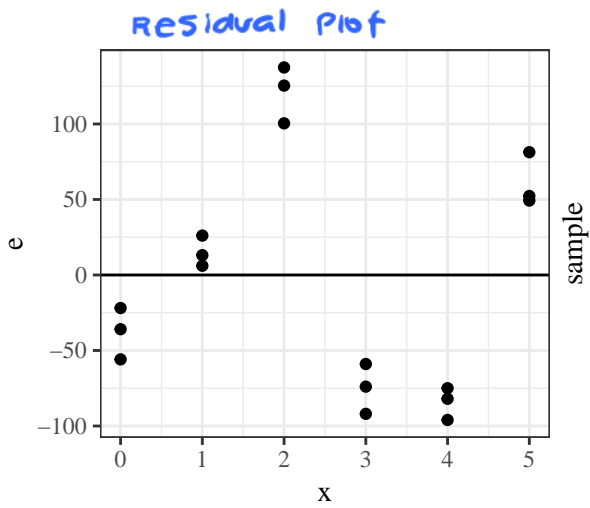
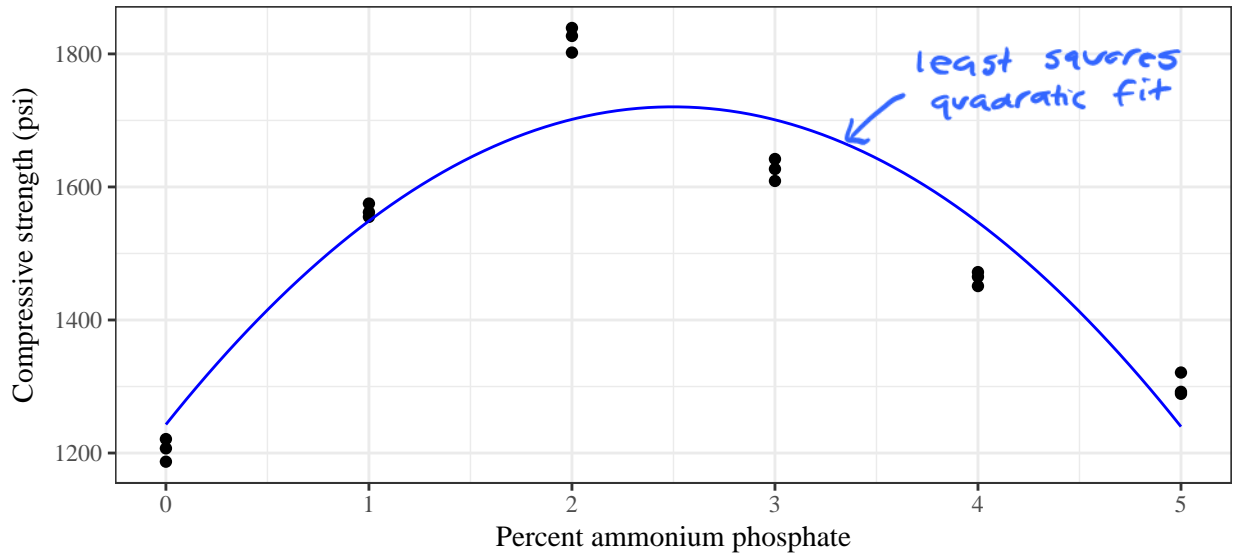
F-statistic: 48.78 on 2 and 15 DF, p-value: 2.725e-07

$$\hat{y} = 1242.893 + 382.665 X - 76.661 X^2$$

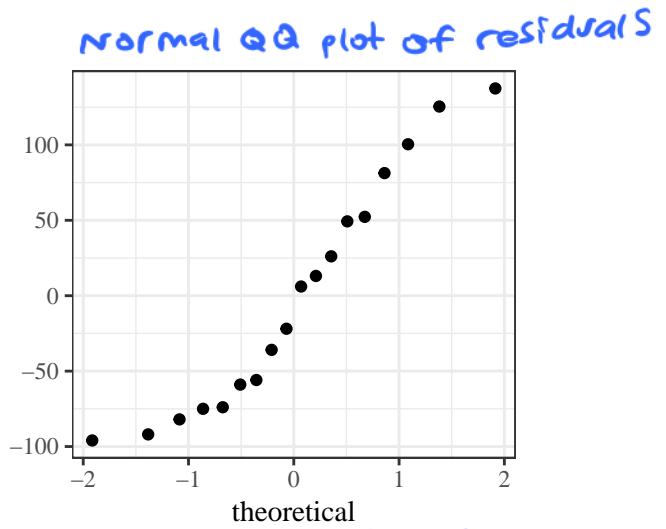
\swarrow w/ ammonium phosphate

$R^2 = 0.8667 \Rightarrow$ The quadratic fit explained 86.67% of the variation in compressive strength.

Note: For polynomial regression, $R^2 \neq r_{xy}^2$ (squared correlation b/w x and y)
 Instead, $R^2 = r_{y\hat{y}}^2$ (square correlation b/w y and \hat{y}), where
 $r_{y\hat{y}} = \frac{\sum (y_i - \bar{y})(\hat{y}_i - \bar{\hat{y}})}{\sqrt{\sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2 \sum (\hat{y}_i - \bar{\hat{y}})^2}}$



Residuals have less of a pattern (than they did for linear fit), but still have up-down pattern



Normal QQ plot looks better than if did for linear fit, but still not so straight

Example 4.8 (Cylinders, cont'd). How about a cubic model.

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \beta_3 x^3$$

Call:

$$\text{lm}(\text{formula} = \text{strength} \sim \text{ammonium.phosphate} + \text{I}(\text{ammonium.phosphate}^2) + \text{I}(\text{ammonium.phosphate}^3), \text{data} = \text{cylinders})$$

Residuals:

| Min | 1Q | Median | 3Q | Max |
|---------|---------|--------|--------|--------|
| -70.677 | -27.353 | -3.874 | 24.579 | 93.545 |

Coefficients:

| | Estimate | Std. Error | t value | Pr(> t) |
|-----------------------------------|----------|------------|---------|--------------|
| β_0 (Intercept) | 1188.050 | 28.786 | 41.272 | 5.03e-16 *** |
| β_1 ammonium.phosphate | 633.113 | 55.913 | 11.323 | 1.96e-08 *** |
| β_2 I(ammonium.phosphate^2) | -213.767 | 27.787 | -7.693 | 2.15e-06 *** |
| β_3 I(ammonium.phosphate^3) | 18.281 | 3.649 | 5.010 | 0.000191 *** |

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

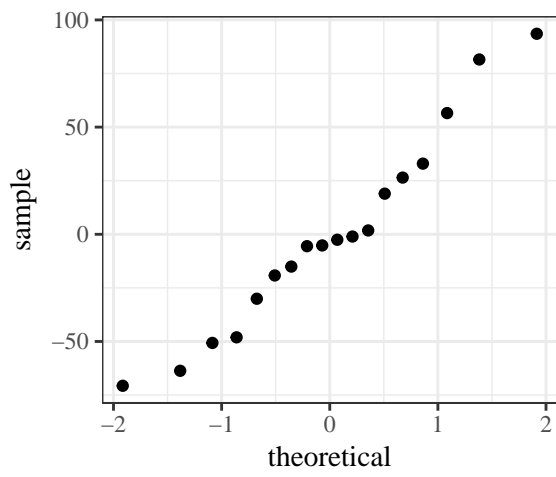
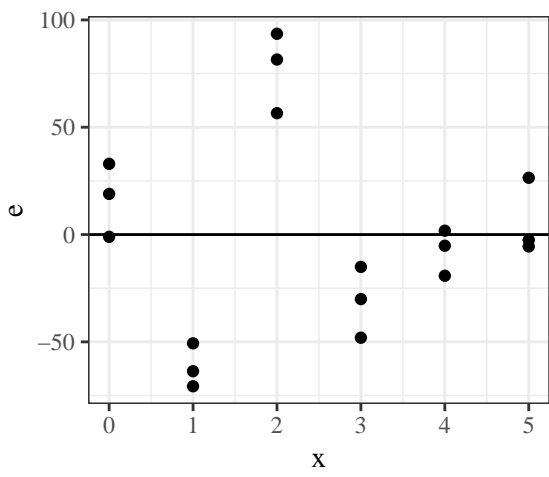
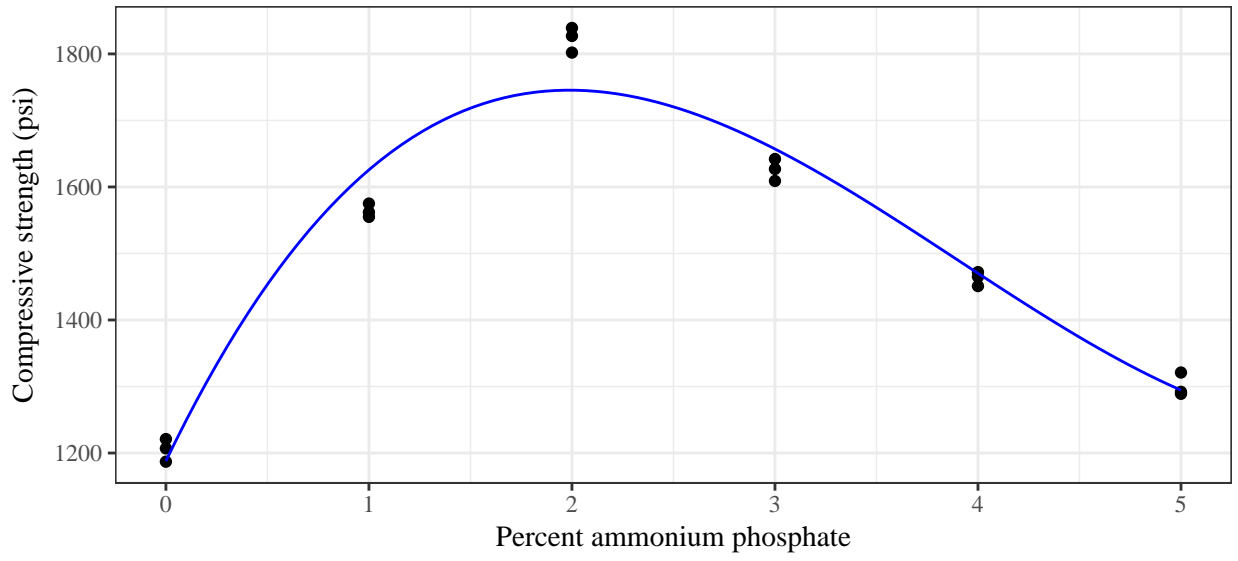
Residual standard error: 50.88 on 14 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.9523, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9421

F-statistic: 93.13 on 3 and 14 DF, p-value: 1.733e-09

$$\hat{y} = 1188.050 + 633.113x - 213.767x^2 + 18.281x^3$$

$R^2 = 0.9523 \Rightarrow$ the cubic fit w/ ammonium phosphate explained 95.23% of the variation in compressive strength.



4.2.2 Multiple regression (surface fitting)

The next generalization from fitting a line or a polynomial curve is to use the same methods to summarize the effects of several different quantitative variables x_1, \dots, x_{p-1} on a response y .

$$y \approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{p-1}$$

Where we estimate $\beta_0, \dots, \beta_{p-1}$ using the *least squares principle*. The function

$$S(b_0, \dots, b_{p-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_{1,i} - \dots - \beta_{p-1} x_{p-1,i})^2$$

must be minimized to find the estimates b_0, \dots, b_{p-1} .

Example 4.9 (New York rivers). Nitrogen content is a measure of river pollution. We have data from 20 New York state rivers concerning their nitrogen content as well as other characteristics. The goal is to find a relationship that explains the variability in nitrogen content for rivers in New York state.

| Variable | Description |
|----------|---|
| Y | Mean nitrogen concentration (mg/liter) based on samples taken at regular intervals during the spring, summer, and fall months |
| X_1 | Agriculture: percentage of land area currently in agricultural use |
| X_2 | Forest: percentage of forest land |
| X_3 | Residential: percentage of land area in residential use |
| X_4 | Commercial/Industrial: percentage of land area in either commercial or industrial use |

Table 2: Variables present in the New York rivers dataset.

We will fit each of

$$\hat{y} = b_0 + b_1x_1$$

$$\hat{y} = b_0 + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_3 + b_4x_4$$

and evaluate fit quality.

Call:

```
lm(formula = Y ~ X1, data = rivers)
```

Residuals:

| Min | 1Q | Median | 3Q | Max |
|---------|---------|---------|--------|--------|
| -0.5165 | -0.2527 | -0.1321 | 0.1325 | 1.0274 |

Coefficients:

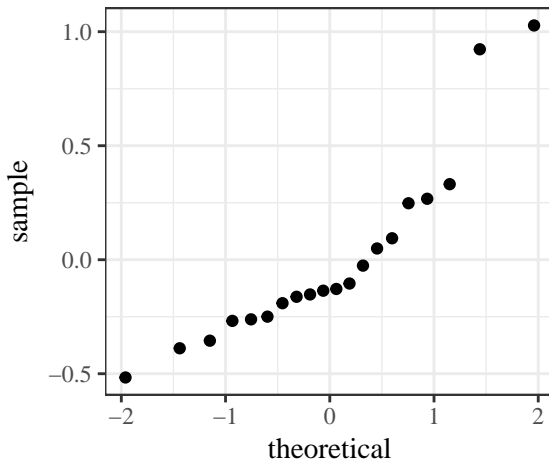
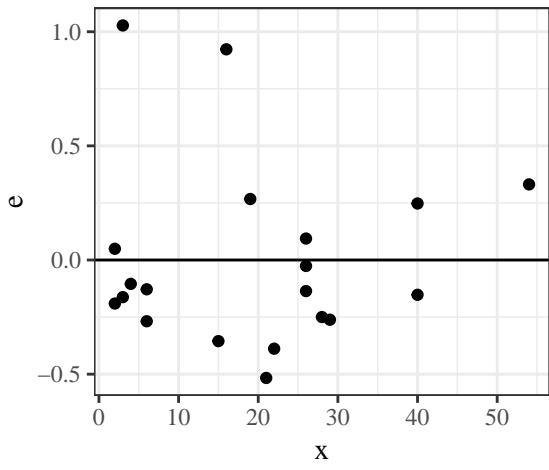
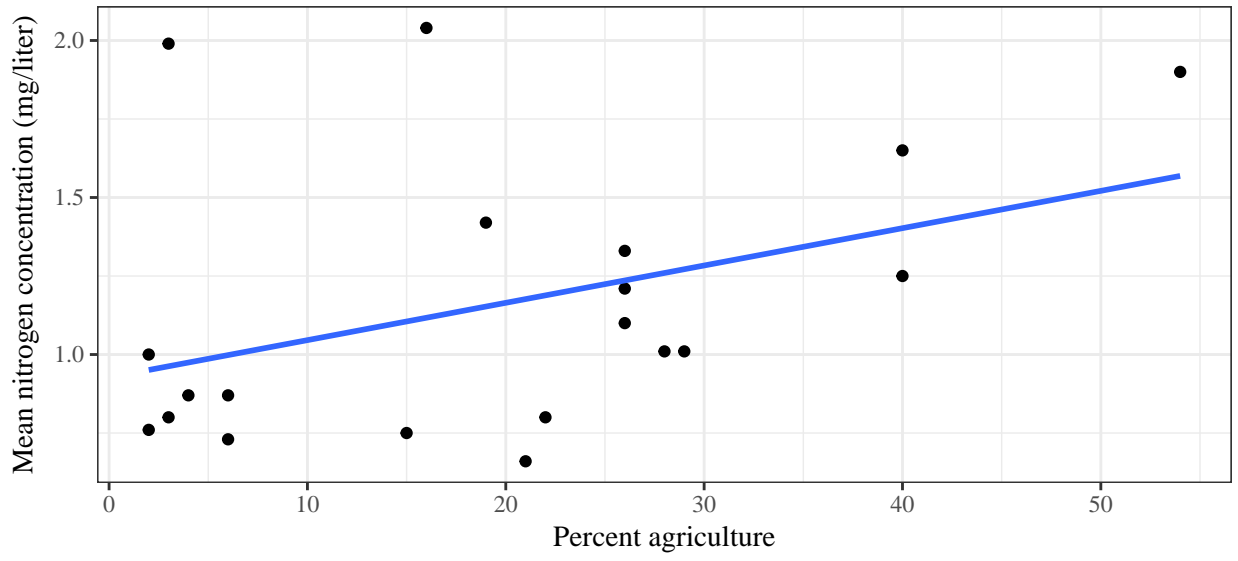
| | Estimate | Std. Error | t value | Pr(> t) | |
|-------------|----------|------------|---------|----------|-----|
| (Intercept) | 0.926929 | 0.154478 | 6.000 | 1.13e-05 | *** |
| X1 | 0.011885 | 0.006401 | 1.857 | 0.0798 | . |

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

Residual standard error: 0.411 on 18 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.1608, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1141

F-statistic: 3.448 on 1 and 18 DF, p-value: 0.07977



Call:

```
lm(formula = Y ~ X1 + X2 + X3 + X4, data = rivers)
```

Residuals:

| | Min | 1Q | Median | 3Q | Max |
|--|----------|----------|---------|---------|---------|
| | -0.49404 | -0.13180 | 0.01951 | 0.08287 | 0.70480 |

Coefficients:

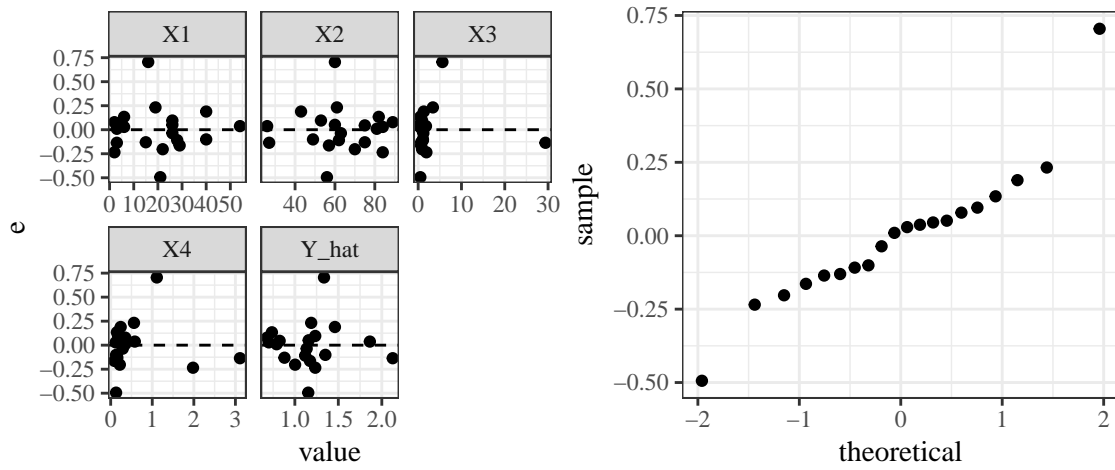
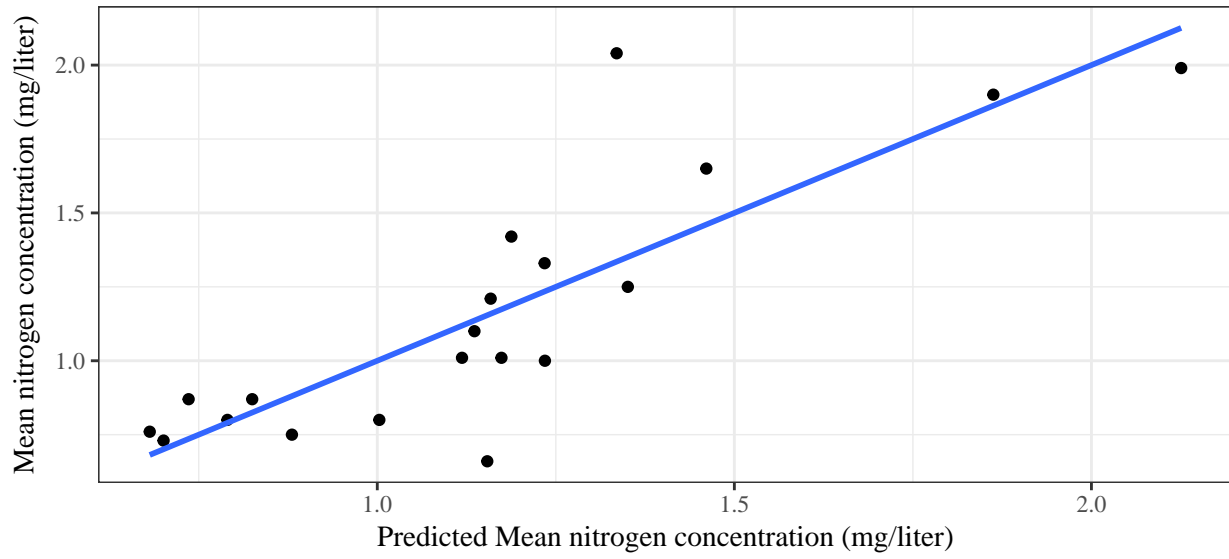
| | Estimate | Std. Error | t value | Pr(> t) |
|-------------|-----------|------------|---------|----------|
| (Intercept) | 1.722214 | 1.234082 | 1.396 | 0.1832 |
| X1 | 0.005809 | 0.015034 | 0.386 | 0.7046 |
| X2 | -0.012968 | 0.013931 | -0.931 | 0.3667 |
| X3 | -0.007227 | 0.033830 | -0.214 | 0.8337 |
| X4 | 0.305028 | 0.163817 | 1.862 | 0.0823 . |

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

Residual standard error: 0.2649 on 15 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.7094, Adjusted R-squared: 0.6319

F-statistic: 9.154 on 4 and 15 DF, p-value: 0.0005963



There are some more residual plots we can look at for multiple regression that are helpful:

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

Bonus model:

Call:

```
lm(formula = Y ~ X1 + X2 + X3 + X4 + I(X4^2), data = rivers)
```

Residuals:

| Min | 1Q | Median | 3Q | Max |
|----------|----------|----------|---------|---------|
| -0.34446 | -0.07579 | -0.00299 | 0.10060 | 0.23920 |

Coefficients:

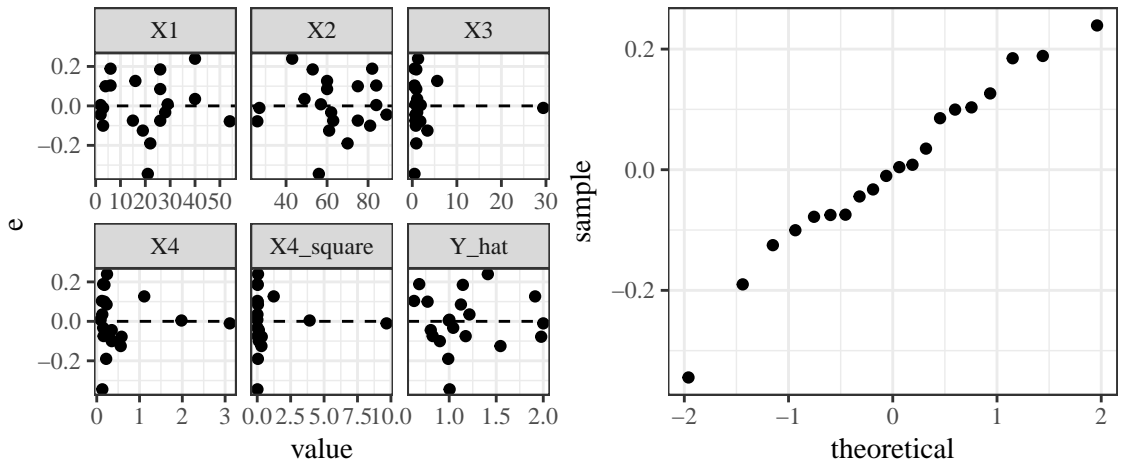
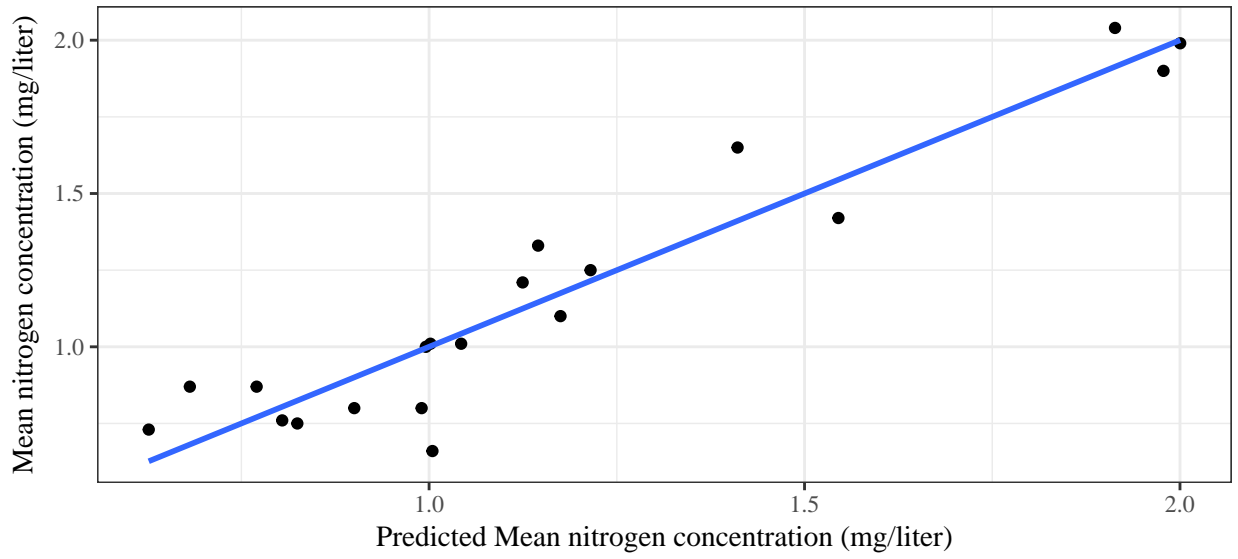
| | Estimate | Std. Error | t value | Pr(> t) |
|-------------|-----------|------------|---------|--------------|
| (Intercept) | 1.294245 | 0.765169 | 1.691 | 0.112880 |
| X1 | 0.004900 | 0.009266 | 0.529 | 0.605206 |
| X2 | -0.010462 | 0.008599 | -1.217 | 0.243847 |
| X3 | 0.073779 | 0.026304 | 2.805 | 0.014045 * |
| X4 | 1.271589 | 0.216387 | 5.876 | 4.03e-05 *** |
| I(X4^2) | -0.532452 | 0.105436 | -5.050 | 0.000177 *** |

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

Residual standard error: 0.1632 on 14 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.897, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8602

F-statistic: 24.39 on 5 and 14 DF, p-value: 1.9e-06



4.2.3 Overfitting

Equation simplicity (*parsimony*) is important for

