201ab Quantitative methods L.10: Multiple regression

With great illustrations from Julian Parris.

Good news!

No dealing directly with estimation equations/calculations directly. (it's impractical here on out)

Bad news!

From now on, getting an answer from R is much easier than understanding what question to ask (or which answer corresponds to which question).

- What is it? And why do this?
- Multicolinearity & its consequences
- Sums of squares partitioning in multiple regression
- Different hypothesis tests in multiple regression
- Nested model comparison
- Non-nested models

Single predictor regression model









































Partial Regression coefficient

- Slope estimates are "partial regression coefficients": the partial effect of one variable with the others held constant.
 - b1: increase in Y per unit increase in X1, all else constant*
 - E.g., how many inches taller will a daughter be if a mother was 1" taller, while keeping the father the same height.

* "all else constant" is often not plausible

- What is it?
- Why do this?
 - More complete model: better predictions from conjunctions of variables less residual error
 - Assign credit to multiple predictors
 Estimate effect of one variable while "statistically controlling" for others

Uncorrelated predictors





summary(lm(daughter~mom))

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std.	Error	t	value	Pr(t)
(Intercept)	34.17132	6	. 30603		5.419	4.3e-07
mom	0.48826	0	.09636		5.067	1.9e-06

Residual standard error: **3.49** on 98 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: **0.2076**

summary(lm(daughter~dad))

Coefficients	s:				
	Estimate	Std. Error	t	value	Pr(> t
(Intercept)	26.8399	5.9418		4.517	1.75e-
dad	0.5641	0.0853		6.613	1,99e-

Residual standard error: **3.26** on 98 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: **0.3086**,

<pre>summary(lm(daughter~mom+dad))</pre>						
Coefficient	s:					
	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)		
(Intercept)	-0.94594	7.02683	-0.135	0.893		
mom	0.45337	0.07809	5.806	8.09e-08		
dad	0.53768	0.07400	7.266	9.41e-11		
Residual standard error: 2.823 on 97 degrees of freedom						
Multiple R-	squared:	0.4869,				

Mom and dad are uncorrelated, they explain different variability, so we lower our residual sd, increase our R², and get more precise estimates of the coefficients.

More complete model with uncorrelated predictors is a win all around.

Things get trickier when predictors are correlated.

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FROMJULIAN







<pre>summary(lm(daughter~mom))</pre>							
Coefficient	Coefficients:						
(Intercept) mom	Estimate \$ 8,88151 0.86209	Std. Error 4.69354 0.07223	t value 1.892 11.936	Pr(> t) 0.0614 <2e-16	***		
<pre>summary(lm</pre>	(daughter	-dad))					
Coefficient	Coefficients:						
(Intercept) dad	Estimate \$ 10.26150 0.78125	Std. Error 4.82647 0.06901	t value 2.126 11.321	Pr(> t) 0.036 <2e-16	* ***		

<pre>summary(lm(daughter~dad+mom))</pre>						
Coefficients:						
	<mark>Estimate St</mark>	<mark>d. Error t</mark>	value	Pr(> t)		
(Intercept)	3.7872	4.6471	0.815	0.417082		
mom	0.5210	0.1164	4.477	2.06e-05	***	
dad	0.3900	0.1078	3.617	0.000475	***	

Partial regression coefficients change a lot when adding correlated regressors/predictors.

Because "credit" (for the increase in Y) is split among the different predictors.























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dad	0.3900	0.1078	3.617 0.000475 ***		

Partial regression coefficients errors tend to increase when adding correlated predictors.

Because there is ambiguity about how the credit should be split. (Variance inflation factor)

Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity arises in multiple regression when predictors are correlated.

If this happens, we get:

(a) a credit assignment problem (which coefficients get credit for Y?)

(b) inflation of marginal standard errors for coefficients

(c) erratic changes in coefficients from small changes in the model or the data.

Measuring multicolinearity:

- How well you can account for the variance in one predictor from a linear combination of the other predictors.
- In a 2-predictor case, this boils down to their correlation:
 E.g., how well correlated are father and mother heights?
 A correlation of 1 or -1 means perfect multicolinearity.

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SST (SS total, also SSY)



e.g., total variability in daughter's heights

SST (SS total, also SSY)






Some arithmetic implications

- SST = SSR[X1,X2] + SSE[X1,X2]
- $SST = SSR[X_2] + SSR[X_1 | X_2] + SSE[X_1,X_2]$
- $SSR[X_1, X_2] = SSR[X_1] + SSR[X_2 | X_1]$
- $SSR[X_1|X_2] + SSE[X_1,X_2] = SSE[X_2]$
- When we do multiple regression, we have to choose how to partition the sums of squares, to test if the SS allocated to a particular variable is larger than expected by chance.



SST (SS total, also SSY)





Multiple regression agenda

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Significance of predictors.

- Pairwise correlation t-test, coefficient t-test, and variance-partitioning F-tests were the same in single variable regression, they are all different in multivariate.
- This is a cause for confusion what do the different significances mean? Which ones should I care about?
- A more realistic example (less data, more noise), tenuous conclusions.



So: in single-variate regressions both mom and dad are significant predictors of son's height.

ED VUL | UCSD Psychology Also, anova and regression significance are the same.



- (1) Both mom and dad coefficients will decrease (closer to o)
 (because they have same dir. Relationship w/ response , so are sharing credit)
- (2) Both mom and dad coef. std. errors will go up (because of credit assignment ambiguity)
- (3) They may stop being significant!(because t = B1/SE{B1})

summary(lm(son~mom+dad))

Coefficients	s:			
	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	15.0009	13.4355	1.117	0.301
mom	0.4000	0.3004	1.331	0.225
dad	0.4176	0.3124	1.336	0.223

- (1) Both mom and dad coefficients will decrease
 (closer to o because they are sharing credit)
- (2) Both mom and dad coef. std. errors will go up (because of credit assignment ambiguity)
- (3) They may stop being significant!
 (because t = B1/SE{B1})

anova(lm(son~mom+dad))

 Response:
 son

 Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value
 Pr(>F)

 mom
 1 79.523
 79.523
 15.3977
 0.00572 **

 dad
 1 9.225
 9.225
 1.7862
 0.22320

 Residuals
 7 36.152
 5.165
 5.165

But the ANOVA analysis shows mom as significant, and dad as not... huh?

summary(lm(son~mom+dad))

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(t)
(Intercept)	15.0009	13.4355	1.117	0.301
mom	0.4000	0.3004	1.331	0.225
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anova(lm(son~mom+dad))

Response:	SO	son				
	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)	
mom	1	79.523	79.523	15.3977	0.00572	**
dad	1	9.225	9.225	1.7862	0.22320	
Residuals	7	36.152	5.165			

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And if we change their order... coefficients stay the same, but ANOVA results change!

What is going on?

anova(lm(son~dad+mom))

Response:	sor	า				
	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)	
dad	1	79.595	79.595	15.4116	0.005707	**
mom	1	9.153	9.153	1.7723	0.224818	
Residuals	7	36.152	5.165			

Coefficient significance.

summary(1m	(son~dad+	mom))			
<pre>summary(lm(son~mom+dad))</pre>					
Coefficients	s:				
(Intercept)	Lstimate 15,0009	Std. Error t 13.4355	1.117	Pr(>[t]) 0.301	
mom	0.4000	0.3004	1.331	0.225	
dad	0.4176	0.3124	1.336	0.223	

son~mom+dad



Significance of coefficients: t=b1/s{b1}

s{b1} depends on s.d. of residuals (and independent variability of x1)

So: you fit the whole model (here: plane), find the residuals, then see whether the best estimated coefficient for x1 is significantly different from o.

Formally: the partial slope on x1 is the slope of y as a function of residuals(x1~x2)

anova	, 501		iau /)			
Response:	sor	า				
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To sort this out, we have to understand sums of squares and F statistics a bit better.



F distribution



The F-statistic

The ratio of two (identical) sample variances estimated with different degrees of freedom.

Under Ho, MSR (SSR/df_R) is expected to be equal to the variance of the residuals. So numerator and denominator are two estimates of the same error variance, and the Fstatistic will follow F distribution.

So, given random variation, even under Ho, we expect the regression to take up *some* variance, and our question is: does it account for *more* variance than expected by chance?

So, F-test is, like Chi-squared, one tailed (positive tail).



anova(lm(son~mom+dad))				
Response:	son			
	Df Sum Sq <u>Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)</u>			
mom	1 79.523 79.523 15.3977 0.00572 **			
dad	1 9.225 9.225 1.7862 0.22320			
Residuals	7 36.152 5.165			

 $F(df_n, df_d) = \frac{MSR}{MSE}$



anova(lm(son~mom+dad))						
Response:	sc	n				
-	Df	<mark>Sum Sq M</mark>	ean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)	
mom	- 1	79.523	79.523	15.3977	0.00572	**
dad	1	9.225	9.225	1.7862	0.22320	
Residuals	7	36.152	5.165			

 $F(df_n, df_d) = \frac{MSR}{MSE}$

But what are these sums of squares?

SS for mom = SSR[mom] SS for dad = SSR[dad | mom] The SS. Corresponds to the extra sums of squares from adding the second regressor to the first. So if we change the order of regressors, we get different results

anova(lm(son~dad+mom))							
Response:	sor	า					
	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)		
dad	1	79.595	79.595	15.4116	0.005707	**	
mom	1	9.153	9.153	1.7723	0.224818		
Residuals	7	36,152	5,165				

SS for dad = SSR[dad] SS for mom = SSR[mom | dad]

anova(lm(son~mom+dad))	
Response: son Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F) mom 1 79.523 79.523 15.3977 0.00572 ** dad 1 9.225 9.225 1.7862 0.22320 Residuals 7 36.152 5.165	
	anova(lm(son~dad+mom))
	Response: son Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F) dad 1 79.595 79.595 15.4116 0.005707 **
Which is "right"?	mom 1 9.153 9.153 1.7723 0.224818

esiduals

7 36.152

5.165

Neither.

They are asking different questions.

Son~mom+dad asks:

(1) is having mom in the regression better than just the mean?

(2) is adding dad to a regression with mom, worth it?

Son~dad+mom asks:

(1) Is having dad in the regression better than just the mean

(2) Is adding mom to a regression with dad worth it?

What question are you trying to ask?

anova(lm(son~mom+dad))	
Response: son Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F) mom 1 79.523 79.523 15.3977 0.00572 ** dad 1 9.225 9.225 1.7862 0.22320 Residuals 7 36.152 5.165	
	anova(lm(son~dad+mom))
	Response: son Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F) dad 1 79.595 79.595 15.4116 0.005707 ** mom 1 9.153 9.153 1.7723 0.224818

What should I do?

If your goal is to really assess the contribution of one of these predictors, you should clearly explain what the contribution is.

In this case: mom's height predicts son's height, but because it is highly correlated with dad's height, you can't tell what the causal route is. Moreover, adding mom's height to a model that includes dad's height doesn't help: mom's height accounts for the same variance in son's height as dad's height does.

Which of these things is worth emphasizing in your results depends on what your scientific question is; however, you should realize that the whole story involves understanding the full set of relationships among these variables, not just the significance assessed one way or another.

anova(lm(son~mom+dad))			
Response:	son		
	Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)		
mom	1 79.523 79.523 15.3977 0.00572 **		
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anova	(1m(son~dad+mom))
anova	(± (' '

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Residuals	7	36.152	5.165			

What should I do? If your goal is to provide as comprehensible a model of your data as possible, consider recoding your predictors:

<pre>mean.mom.dad = (mom+dad)/2 diff.mom.dad = (mom-dad) summary(lm(son~mean.mom.dad+diff.mom.dad))</pre>
Coefficients:
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(> t)
(Intercept) 15.000883 13.435464 1.117 0.30106
mean.mom.dad 0.817540 0.197538 4.139 0.00436 **
diff.mom.dad -0.008794 0.290149 -0.030 0.97667
Residual standard error: 2.273 on 7 degrees of freedom

Different tests for different questions

There isn't one answer to "is this predictor significant"

• **F-tests:** *"Does adding this predictor to some smaller model account for more variance than expected by chance?"*

– Which "smaller model" we use depends on our question!

- T-tests for partial regression coefficients: *"Does the allocation of credit to all the predictors for variation in Y necessitate that this predictor have non-zero credit?"*
 - If another, colinear predictor *could* take credit, then the answer may well be no, but that might not matter to you
- T-tests for pairwise correlation:

"Is there a linear relationship between these two variables, disregarding relationships with all other variables?"

Often useful to ask, but obscures the full picture.

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- Nested Model: A smaller model that differs only by excluding some parameters of a larger model.
 - A) height ~ mom + dad + protein + exercise + milk
 - B) height ~ mom + dad + protein + exercise
 - C) height ~ dad + protein + exercise
 - D) height ~ mom + dad
 - E) height ~ dad + protein
 - F) height ~ mom + dad + milk
 - G) height ~ exercise + milk + beer
 - H) weight ~ mom + dad + protein + exercise

B in A; C in A, B; D in A, B; E in A, B, C; F in A; A, G, H are not nested in others. ED VUL | UCSD Psychology

F-tests compare nested models

They ask: is a bigger model better than a smaller model?

```
height ~ mom + dad + protein + exercise + milk
(nested)
height ~ mom + dad + protein + exercise
(nested)
height ~ dad + protein + exercise
(nested)
height ~ protein + dad
(nested)
height ~ dad
(nested)
height ~ 1
```



$$F(p_{FULL} - p_{REDUCED}, n - p_{FULL}) = \frac{\left(\frac{SSE_{REDUCED} - SSE_{FULL}}{p_{FULL} - p_{REDUCED}}\right)}{\left(\frac{SSE_{FULL}}{n - p_{FULL}}\right)}$$

- Extra sums of squares of full compared to reduced model is the difference in sums of squares of error.
- Degrees of freedom of the extra sums of squares is the number of parameters added.
- The remaining sums of squares error from the full model is the denominator.
- Degrees of freedom of error are *n* minus the number of parameters in full model.

$$F(p_{FULL} - p_{REDUCED}, n - p_{FULL}) = \frac{\left(\frac{SSE_{REDUCED} - SSE_{FULL}}{p_{FULL} - p_{REDUCED}}\right)}{\left(\frac{SSE_{FULL}}{n - p_{FULL}}\right)}$$

SST (SS total, also SSY)



- SSE reduced is just SST (a 1 parameter regression model considering only the mean of Y: Bo)
- $SSR[X_1] = SST SSE[x_1]$



- $SSX[x_2,x_3|x_1] = SSE[x_1] SSE[x_1,x_2,x_3]$
- # parameters full: 4 (bo, b1, b2, b3)
- # parameters reduced: 2 (bo, b1)



- SSE reduced is SSE[bo]. SSE full is SSE[x1,x2,x3]
- SSR[x2,x3,x1] = SSE[b0] SSE[x1,x2,x3]
- # parameters full: 4 (bo, b1, b2, b3)
- # parameters reduced: 1 (bo)

$$F(p_{FULL} - p_{REDUCED}, n - p_{FULL}) = \frac{\left(\frac{SSE_{REDUCED} - SSE_{FULL}}{p_{FULL} - p_{REDUCED}}\right)}{\left(\frac{SSE_{FULL}}{n - p_{FULL}}\right)}$$



- $SSX[x_2|x_1,x_3] = SSE[x_1,x_3] SSE[x_1,x_2,x_3]$
- # parameters full: 4 (bo, b1, b2, b3)
- # parameters reduced: 3 (bo,b1,b3)





F = (SSX[x2,x3|x1] / (2)) / (SSE[x1,x2,x3] / (n-4))



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- F test allows us to compare *nested models.*
- How do we compare non-nested models?
 - height ~ mom + dad
 - height ~ mom + protein
 - height ~ protein + exercise
 - height ~ ethnicity
 - weight ~ mom + dad

"Model building" comparison: Is it better to add *dad* or *protein* to model that already has *mom*? Is it better to add *mom* or *exercise* to a model that already has *protein*?

I am using these terms to describe different comparisons only for convenience, these are not really technical names for different non-nested model comparisons. In reality, all of them are 'model selection' problems.



- F test allows us to compare *nested models.*
- How do we compare non-nested models?
 - height ~ mom + dad
 - height ~ mom + protein
 - height ~ protein + exercise
 - height ~ ethnicity
 - weight ~ mom + dad

"Model selection" comparison: Is a model with *mom* and *dad* better than a model with *protein* and *exercise*? A model with *ethnicity*?

(These can also be seen as model building problems: would it be better to add these or those regressors to null model)

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$$F(p_{FULL} - p_{REDUCED}, n - p_{FULL}) = \frac{\left(\frac{SSE_{REDUCED} - SSE_{FULL}}{p_{FULL} - p_{REDUCED}}\right)}{\left(\frac{SSE_{FULL}}{n - p_{FULL}}\right)}$$

• F test allows us to compare *nested*

- How do we compare non-nested models?
 - height ~ mom + dad
 - height ~ mom + protein
 - height ~ protein + exercise
 - height ~ ethnicity
 - weight ~ mom + dad

Weird (but sometimes useful) model comparison: Is height more/less predictable by mom and dad (height?) than weight?

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models.
- How do we compare non-nested models?
 - There isn't really a good way to test the null hypothesis that two non-nested models are equally good. Because
 (a) we don't know what 'good' means.
 Bigger models will have better fits, how do we trade off fit with model size
 (b) Even if we define 'good', the difference in goodness of two models doesn't have a definable null hypothesis distribution.

 Consequently, we just define some goodness statistic and compare the numerical difference in goodness.

(Bayesian methods offer ways to attach probability statements to goodness comparisons between non-nested models, but we will not be dealing with this now)

- How do we compare non-nested models? Goodness:
 - R² (no punishment for bigger models: fit is all that counts)
 - Useful for simple model building when number of parameters is constant: which parameter is a better one to add to the model I already have? Which K parameter model better fits these data?

- How do we compare non-nested models?
 - Goodness:
 - R²_a 'Adjusted R squared' (like R², but punished for having more parameters)

$$R_A^2 = \overline{R}^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2) \frac{n - 1}{n - p} = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST} \frac{(n - 1)}{(n - p)}$$

 How do we compare non-nested models? Goodness:

— R²

- R²_a 'Adjusted R squared'
- Lots more available based on likelihood, rather than SS:
 AIC, BIC, WAIC, DIC, etc. (more next term)
- Complicated ones available based on "marginal likelihood" or "model evidence" via Bayesian methods: Bayes Factor
- They all define some trade off between number of parameters and fit to the data.
 - Sometimes they will give you different answers! If so, you should be worried. A clearly better model should do better on all of these metrics. When different metrics give you different answers you should not be confident.

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Regression



 $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2)$

Coefficients:

 Partial slope: dY/dX_j holding other Xs constant.

Multicolinearity:

- Correlation among predictors.
- Credit assignment is uncertain
- Coefficients change; are sensitive to model and noise; have higher marginal errors.

summary(lm(daughter~dad+mom))

Coefficients:									
	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(t)					
(Intercept)	3.7872	4.6471	0.815	0.417082					
mom	0.5210	0.1164	4.477	2.06e-05	*				
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SST (SS total, also SSY)

SSR[X1,X2]





SS: Sum of squares for this term

d.f. of regression term: # parameters of this term

SSE: Sum of squared residuals

d.f. error: n minus # parameters in full model

SSR[X1]

SSR[X2|X1] SSE[X1,X2]

anova(lm(son~mom+dad))							
Response:	sor	า					
	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)		
mom	1	79.523	79.523	15.3977	0.00572	**	
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Residuals	7	36.152	5.165				

SSR[X2]

SSR[X1|X2]

SSE[X1,X2]

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Response:	son						
	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)		
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Significance in regression

- Pairwise correlation t-test.
 - Is there a significant linear relationship between Y and X_j ignoring other predictors?
- Coefficient t-test.
 - Does the partial slope dY/dX_j controlling for all other predictors differ significantly from zero?
- Variance-partitioning F-tests.
 - Is the sums of squares allocated to this term (depends on order, SS type) significantly greater than chance?
- Nested model comparison F-tests.
 - Does the larger model account for significantly more variance than the smaller model?

In some special cases, these end up equivalent.



readr::read_tsv('http://vulstats.ucsd.edu/data/bodyfat.data2.txt')

What variables predict bodyfat percentage?

- We have a bunch of very correlated predictors; how can we make new variables to orthogonalize them?
- What's a good model to predict bodyfat percentage?
- What would we predict is the bodyfat percentage of someone who is:
 - Height: 69 -Thigh: 58
 - Weight: 175 -Knee: 38
 - Neck: 36 -Ankle: 22
 - Chest: 100 -Bicep: 31
 - Abdomen: 90
 - Hip: 99

-Forearm: 28 -Wrist: 17