

# Linear Regression

Measurement & Evaluation of HCC Systems

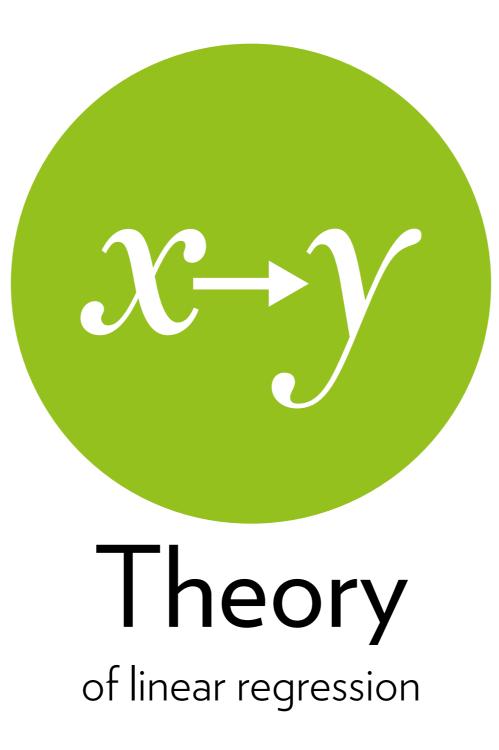


Today's goal:

Evaluate the effect of multiple variables on an outcome variable (regression)

Outline:

- Basic theory
- Simple regression in R
- Extending this to multiple regression
- Multiple regression in R

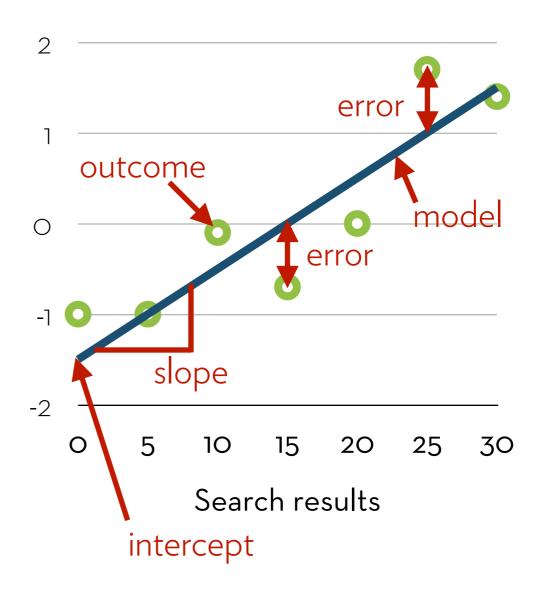




- Any type of model: outcome; = model + error;
- Linear regression:
  - The model is a line with an intercept (a) and a slope (b)

$$Y_i = a + bX_i + e_i$$

### **User satisfaction**





 $Y_i = a + bX_i + e_i$ 

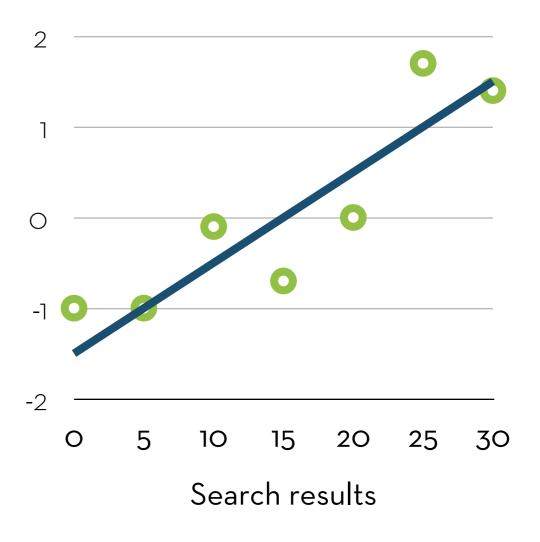
a and b are chosen so that the deviations (residuals) are minimized

We know this! General:

deviation =  $\Sigma(\text{observation}_i - \text{model})^2$ 

Goal: minimize sum of squared errors (SSr)

### User satisfaction





How good is the model? We can use deviation for this as well!

Compare against the deviation of the simplest model

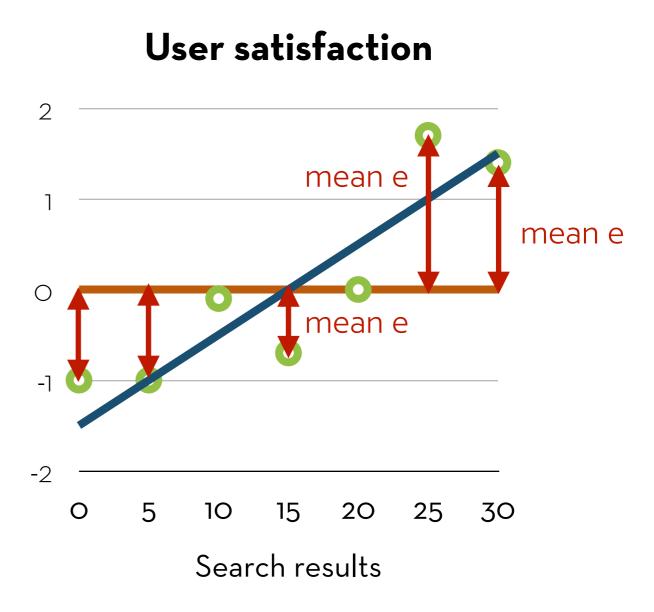
In this case: the mean

#### **User satisfaction**



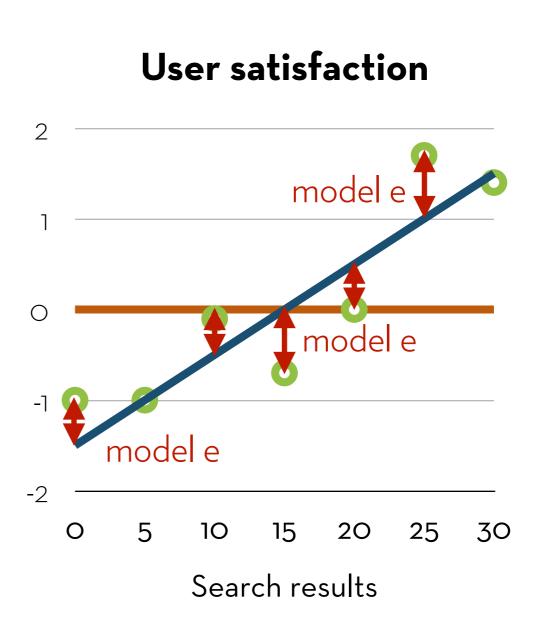


## Total sum of squares (SSt) Squared e from the mean



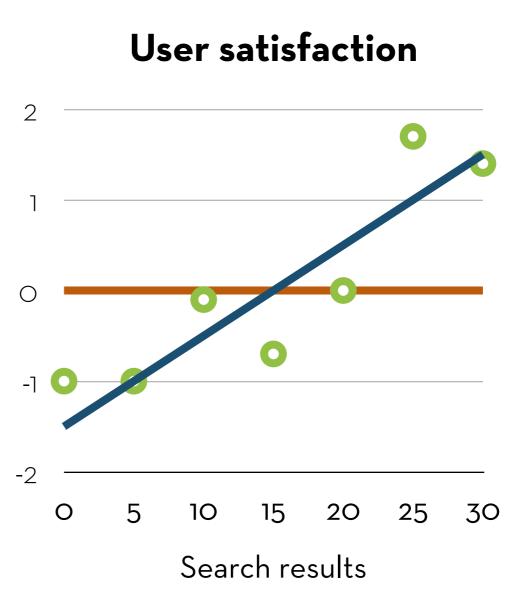


Total sum of squares (SSt) Squared e from the mean Residual sum of sq. (SSr) Squared e from the model





Total sum of squares (SSt) Squared e from the mean Residual sum of sq. (SSr) Squared e from the model Model sum of squares (SSm) SSt – SSr

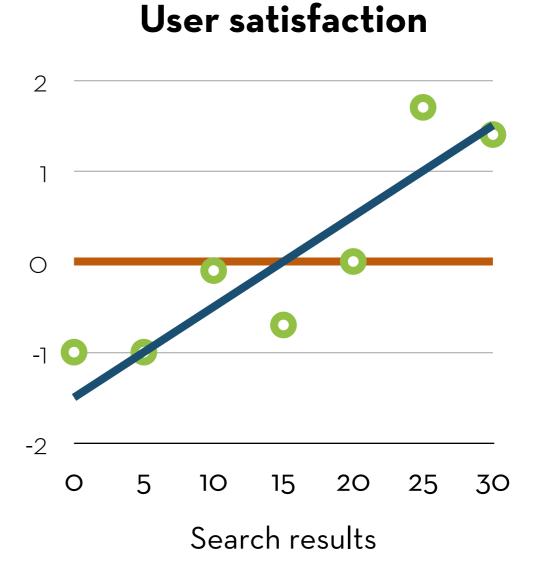




# Goodness of fit

R-square model fit R<sup>2</sup> = SSm / SSt Amount of variation in Y explained by the model

- F-ratio (and p-value)
  - F = MSm/MSr
  - How much did the model improve, compared to the error?



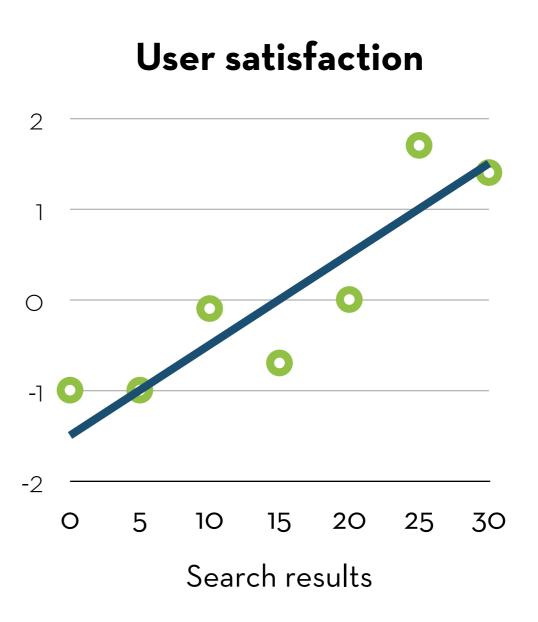


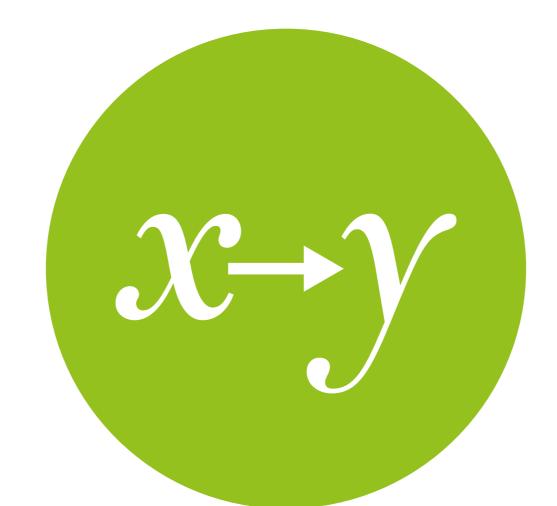
If a predictor is bad, its slope (b) will be almost zero (like the mean)

A good predictor has a slope that is significantly different from zero

Compare slope (b) against variability of slope (SEb):

t = b/SEb with df = N - p - 1





## Regression in R look mom! no formulas!



Let's start simple:

- File: Album Sales 2.dat, set Name to album2
- Dataset: album sales by promotion method

Variables:

adverts: \$1000s spent on advertisement sales: 1000s of copies sold airplay: plays on the radio the week before release attract: attractiveness of the band



Scatterplot of sales and adverts, with regression line and mean:

ggplot(album2,aes(y=sales,x=adverts))+geom\_point() +geom\_smooth(method="lm",color="red",se=F) +geom\_line(aes(y=mean(album2\$sales)),color="blue")

Result:

- A positive relationship
- Regression line is noticeably different from the mean



Write the regression model: salesModel <- Im(sales ~ adverts, data = album2) Get the results:

summary(salesModel)



Call:  $lm(formula = sales \sim adverts, data = album2)$ Residuals: 10 Median 30 Min Max -152.949 -43.796 -0.393 37.040 211.866 Coefficients: Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|) (Intercept) 1.341e+02 7.537e+00 17.799 <2e-16 \*\*\* 9.612e-02 9.632e-03 9.979 <2e-16 \*\*\* adverts Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1 Residual standard error: 65.99 on 198 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.3346, Adjusted R-squared: 0.3313 F-statistic: 99.59 on 1 and 198 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16



The "Multiple R-squared" tells us the percentage of variance in sales explained by advert

Seems to be 33.46%

Can turn this into a correlation coefficient:  $\sqrt{.3346} = .5784$ 

"F-statistic" gives us MSm/MSr, and a p-value

Seems to be significant

The model makes significantly a better prediction than the mean



 $Y_i = a + bX_i + e_i$ 

a: the estimate for "(Intercept)"

Is equal to the average sales with zero dollars spent on advertising (X=0) —>  $Y_i = a + e_i$ 

b: the estimate for "adverts"

The change in the outcome associated with a 1 unit change in predictor

For an +\$1000 difference in advertising, the model predicts 96 extra album sales



b is significant if it is large relative to its standard error t = b/SEb, with df = N - p - 1 Here, t = 9.979, and p < .001

The advertising budget makes a significant contribution to predicting album sales

Wait... where did I see that t-value before?



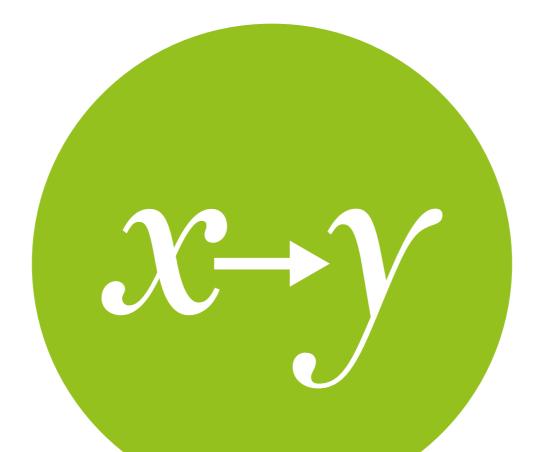
album sales = 134.14 + 0.096\*advertising budget

How many albums am I likely to sell with a \$100,000 advertisement budget?

134.14 + 0.096\*100 = 143.74 -> around 143,740 albums

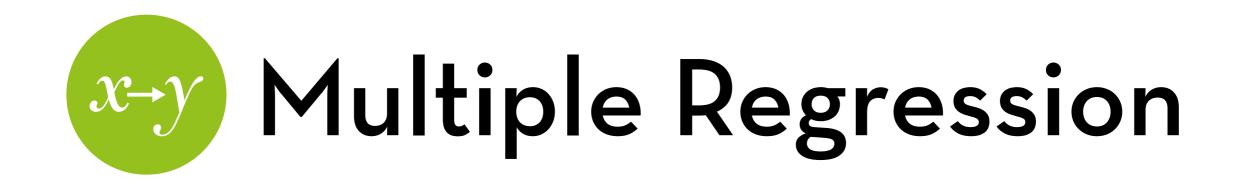
What is the predicted effect of spending \$50,000 extra on advertising?

0.096\*50 = 4.8 -> you will likely sell 4,800 more albums



## Multiple Regression

regression with more than one predictor



outcome<sub>i</sub> = model + error<sub>i</sub>

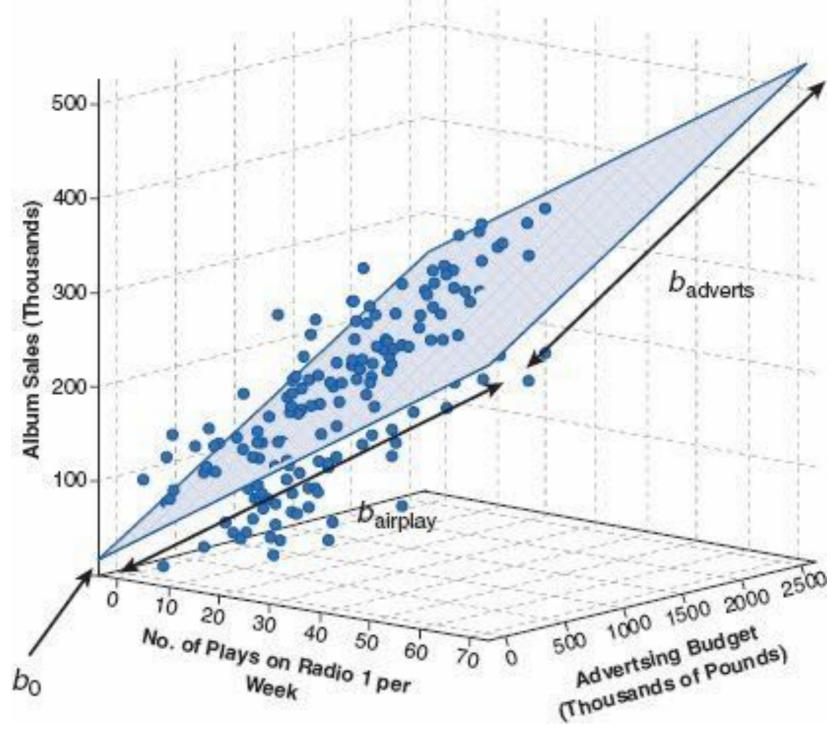
Multiple regression:

The model is a line with an intercept (a) and several slopes  $(b_1...b_n)$ 

$$Y_i = a + b_1 X_{1i} + b_2 X_{2i} + ... + b_n X_{ni} + e_i$$

This means you can predict album sales using advertising **and** airplay







### R<sup>2</sup> = SSm / SSt

- Same as before, but  $R^2$  is now called the "multiple  $R^2$ "
- Combined effect of all predictors
- Total variance in Y explained by all Xes in the model
- R<sup>2</sup> always gets larger when more predictors are used More predictors -> better fit



Compare models using the F-ratio:

 $F(k, df_{new}) = (N-k-1)R^{2}_{change} / k(1-R^{2}_{new})$ 

k = # of additional parameters,  $R^2_{change}$  is the increase in  $R^2$ ,  $R^2_{new}$  is the  $R^2$  of the new model

This only works for nested models

- The new model has the same parameters and data as the old model, plus more
- Otherwise, compare AIC or BIC (but makes sure the models use the same data!)



Decide on your outcome variable (Y)

Decide which Xes you definitely want to test

Which other variables should you include?

- Correlated with X but not Y? No, reduce model power
- Correlated with Y but not X? Yes, increases precision
- Correlated with both X and Y? Yes, may change the effect (think back to partial correlation!)

Use this rule also when you're designing your experiment!



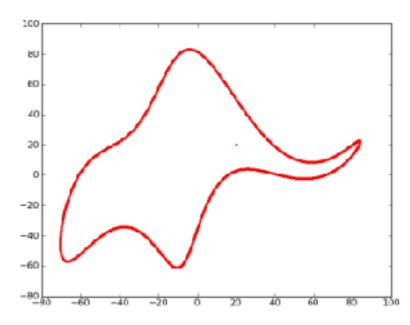
Use a combination of the following methods:

- Hierarchical regression (start with most important vars, add more step-by-step)
- Forced entry (run with all vars at once)
- Stepwise (start with all, remove the worst-fitting variables one by one until only significant variables are left)\*
- \* be careful with this method! Better to do it by hand... Theory is a far better quideline than the data itself



John von Neumann famously said:

With four parameters I can fit an elephant, and with five I can make him wiggle his trunk.



"Drawing an elephant with four complex parameters" by Jurgen Mayer, Khaled Khairy, and Jonathon Howard, Am. J. Phys. 78, 648 (2010)

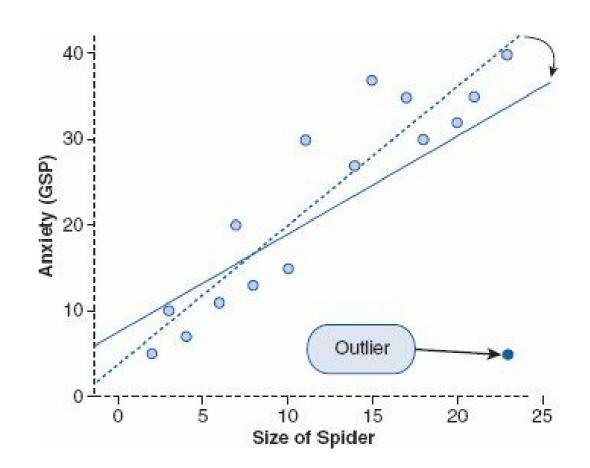


An outlier is a data point that differs substantially from the model

They have a very large residual (error)

Outliers can bias your regression coefficients

How can we detect them?





Residual method:

- Take the residual (error) of each data point
- Divide it by the standard deviation (this creates a z-score)

### Assess the situation:

- Any cases z > 3.29: clear outliers
- If >1% of the cases z > 2.58: model is a very poor fit for some cases
- If > 5% of the cases z > 1.96: model is a rather poor fit for many cases



Influencer method 1: How does each data point influence the predicted outcomes?

Cook's distance: overall influence of the data point on the model

>1 is cause for concern

Hat values (leverage): the influence of the data point on the predicted values

Average influence is (k+1)/n, anything twice (or trice) that is cause for concern



Influencer method 2: How does each data point influence the model parameters?

DFBeta: run the model with and without the data point, observe the difference in each parameter

You get one for each parameter, unstandardized

Covariance ratio: convenient summary of the influence of a data point on the variances of the model parameters

Should be <1+(3(k+1)/n) and >1-(3(k+1)/n)

Note: influential cases are worse than merely outlying cases!



Outcome should be quantitative, continuous, and unbounded

Predictors should not be too highly correlated (see next slide)

No variables correlated with both X and Y should be left out

Homoscedasticity and independence

Linearity (although we can test for some non-linear effects)



Both  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are predictors of Y, but highly correlated with each other

 $Correlation \ of \ X_1 \ with \ Y \ is \ .4 \ but \ controlling \ for \ X_2 \ it \ is \ .2 \ Correlation \ of \ X_2 \ with \ Y \ is \ .4, \ but \ controlling \ for \ X_1 \ it \ is \ .2$ 

Two possibilities:

 $X_1$  has a high b (e.g.  $b_1 = .6$ ) and  $X_2$  has a low b (e.g.  $b_2 = .3$ )  $X_1$  has a low b (e.g.  $b_1 = .3$ ) and  $X_2$  has a high b (e.g.  $b_2 = .6$ )

Which one is correct?



The wizard is having a hard time deciding on  $b_1$  and  $b_2$ !

### Consequences:

- b<sub>1</sub> and b<sub>2</sub> are untrustworthy, so it is hard to tell which X is most important
- the benefit of having them both is small: with either X<sub>1</sub> or X<sub>2</sub>,  $R^2$  = .40, with both,  $R^2$  = .45



Tests for multicollinearity:

- High correlation between Xes
- Variance inflation factor (VIF), should be lower than 10 (or
   5)



How can we make sure the model would work the same on the population? (or on a different sample?)

Use the adjusted  $\mathsf{R}^2$ 

Use data splitting

Build your model on half the data, test it on the other half





Run a linear model predicting album sales by adverts, airplay, and attractiveness:

- salesModel2 <- Im(sales ~ adverts + airplay + attract, data = album2)
- summary (salesModel2)
- $\mathsf{R}^2$  has increased from .335 to .665
  - Airplay and attractiveness account for an additional 33% of variance in sales



Model: sales<sub>i</sub> = -26.61 + 0.085<sup>\*</sup>advert<sub>i</sub> + 3.37<sup>\*</sup>airplay<sub>i</sub> + 11.09<sup>\*</sup>attract<sub>i</sub> + e<sub>i</sub>

A \$1000 difference spent on ads is associated with a predicted 85 extra albums sold, keeping attractiveness and airplay constant

Two bands with the same level of advertising and attractiveness but a 1-airplay difference are expected to differ 3367 in album sales



Model: sales<sub>i</sub> = -26.61 + 0.085<sup>\*</sup>advert<sub>i</sub> + 3.37<sup>\*</sup>airplay<sub>i</sub> +  $11.09^*$ attract<sub>i</sub> + e<sub>i</sub>

A band rated one unit higher in attractiveness is expected to sell 11,086 more albums than a band with a one unit lower attractiveness but the same airplay and advertising



What does the parameter for "a" (-26.61) mean?

With zero advertisement, zero airplay, and zero attractiveness, the album is expected to sell -26610 copies

- That's nonsense!
- Also, zero attractiveness is impossible (ranges for 1 to 10)
- But even with attract = 1, the result is negative

This is why your outcome variables should ideally be unbounded!



How can we compare the effect of adverts ( $b_1 = 0.085$ ) with the effect of airplay ( $b_2 = 3.37$ )?

Difficult; they are not measured on the same scale!

Solution: standardize them! —> Beta

Load package: QuantPsyc

Im.beta(salesModel2)

Interpretation: a 1 SD difference in advertisement is related to a 0.51 SD difference in sales



Confidence intervals are easy to obtain:

confint(salesModel2)

This gives us an idea of how certain we can be of our model parameters

If you want to be more certain, collect more data!



Since the models are nested, we can conduct the F-ratio test:

```
anova(salesModel, salesModel2)
```

Fit is significantly improved F(2, 196) = 96.447, p < .001



### First model:

- R-square, F-test
- b-parameters and their significance

#### Subsequent models:

- R-square increase, F-test comparison with previous model
- b-parameters and their significance



Standardized residuals:

album2\$rstand <- rstandard(salesModel2)

Large standardized residuals are > 1.96 album2\$rstand.large < - (album2\$rstand > 1.96 | album2\$rstand < -1.96)

Show them!

album2[album2\$rstand.large,c("adverts", "sales", "airplay", "attract", "rstand")]



Cook's distances, hat values (leverage), and covariance ratios album2\$cook <- cooks.distance(salesModel2) album2\$leverage <- hatvalues(salesModel2) album2\$covratio <- covratio(salesModel2)

Check them out (for data points with large residual): album2[album2\$rstand.large,c("cook", "leverage", "covratio")]

Only covariance ratio of case 169 is a problem, but still okay given the Cook's distance << 1



Check the Variance Inflation Factor:

- load the *car* package, if you haven't already vif(salesModel2)
  - well below 10 (and even 5)

If we find problems, we may need to remove some Xes



Run the plots of the model:

plot(salesModel2)

First plot: residuals by estimated value of Y (fitted value) This should look random

If it fans out: heteroscedasticity! If it curves: non-linearity!

Second plot: Q-Q plot to test deviations from normality Straight line: residuals are normal

Can check the latter also with a histogram of rstud



What if we have problems? (e.g. heteroscedasticity, nonnormality, outliers, non-linearity)

Try transforming your outcome variable and/or predictors

What if that doesn't work?

Use bootstrapping!



Write a bootstrap function: bootReg <- function(samples, i){ fit <-Im(sales~adverts+airplay+attract, data=samples[i,]) return(coef(fit)) }

Run a bootstrap sample:

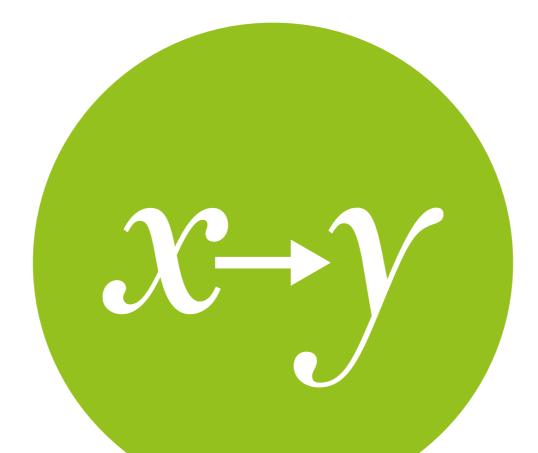
```
bootResults <- boot(album2, bootReg, 2000)
bootResults
```



Get confidence intervals:

boot.ci(bootResults, type="bca", index = 1)
boot.ci(bootResults, type="bca", index = 2)
boot.ci(bootResults, type="bca", index = 3)
boot.ci(bootResults, type="bca", index = 4)

Compare to confint(salesModel2)



# Categorical predictors

A look forward to the t-test and ANOVA



What if X is binary, e.g. Male/female?

- Simply include in the regression, coded 0-1
- b = the difference between the two groups

What if X is k groups, e.g. religion, city, ...?

- Designate one group as the **baseline**
- Create k-1 dummy variables for the other groups, and put them in the regression
- bs = the difference between each group and the baseline



$$Y = a + bX + e$$

- male: X = 0; female: X = 1
- Y = a (for male)
- Y = a + b (for female)
- b = difference between male and female



Read the data

- File: GlastonburyFestivalRegression.dat, set Name to gfr
- Dataset: festival-goer hygiene (repeated measures)

Variables:

- ticknumb: participant id
- music: music affiliation—crusty, indy, metaller, or NMA
- day1, day2, day3: hygiene level at days 1-3 (0-4 scale)
- change: change in hygiene levels from day 1 to day 3



Let's take "No Musical Affiliation" as a baseline

Create contrast for the rest: crusty\_v\_NMA<-c(1,0,0,0) indie\_v\_NMA<-c(0,1,0,0) metal\_v\_NMA<-c(0,0,1,0) contrasts(gfr\$music)<-cbind(crusty\_v\_NMA, indie\_v\_NMA, metal\_v\_NMA)



Model: change<sub>i</sub> = a +  $b_1$ \*crusty\_v\_NMA<sub>i</sub> +  $b_2$ \*indie\_v\_NMA<sub>i</sub> +  $b_3$ \*metal\_v\_NMA<sub>i</sub> +  $e_i$ 

Interpret the results

- a shows the mean change of people with NMA
- bs show differences between each music type and NMA
- What is the level of Y in a certain group? Simple: a + b
- What about other differences? And overall effects? That's ANOVA!

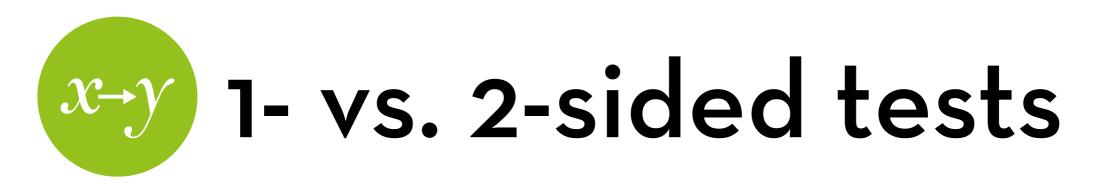


Run the regression:

dummyModel <- lm(change ~ music, data=gfr) summary(dummyModel)

Interpret the results

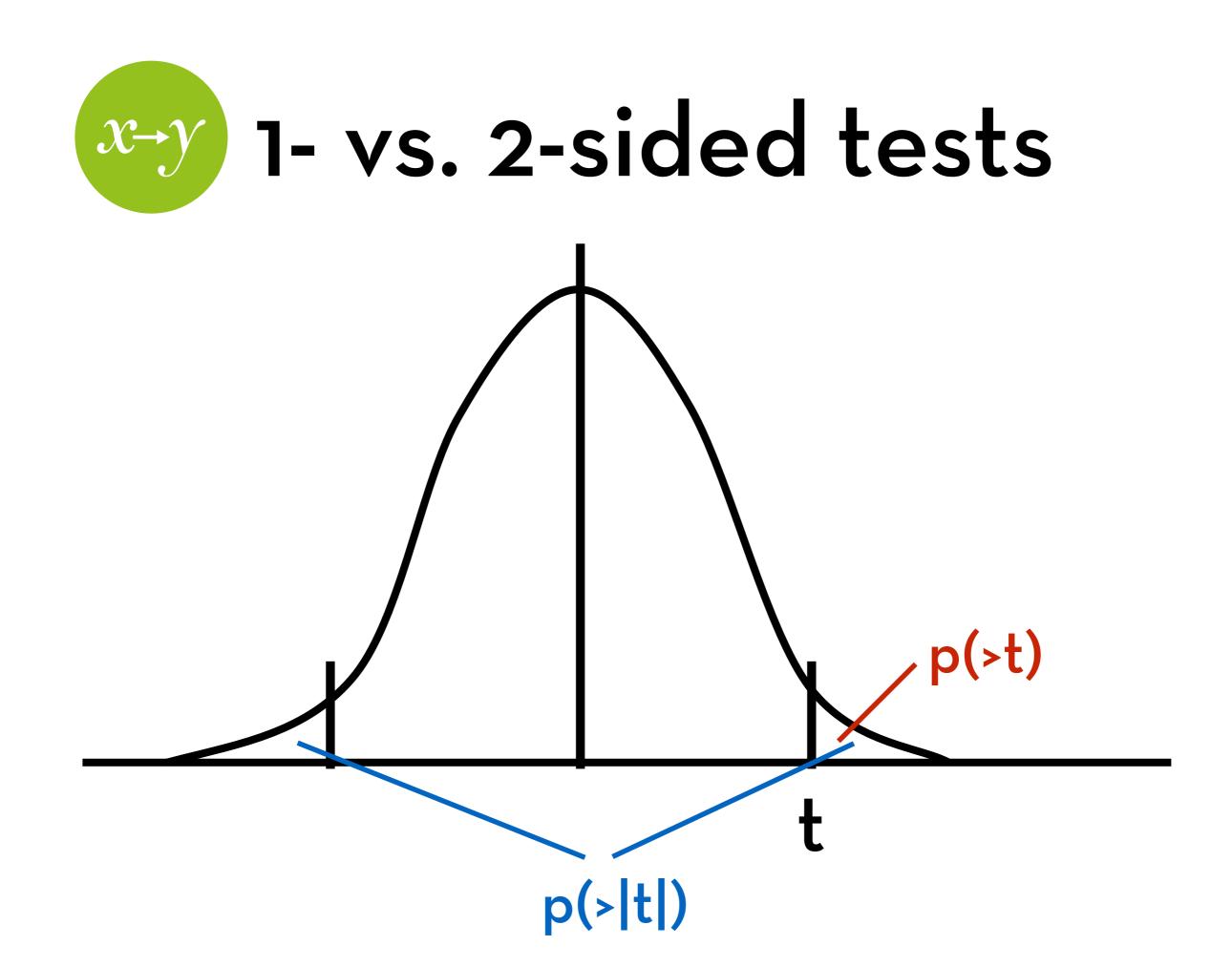
- What is the mean change for NMA?
- What is the difference between indie and NMA? Is it significant?
- What is the level of change for indie?



Lets say you test the satisfaction between a red background color and a blue background color...What is your hypothesis?

- M<sub>red</sub> > M<sub>blue</sub>?
- M<sub>red</sub> < M<sub>blue</sub>?
- M<sub>red</sub> ≠ M<sub>blue</sub>?
- If you don't know, your test should be 2-sided (default) You test p(|t|)

If you have an idea, your test should be 1-sided You test p( > t) or p( < -t), which is  $1/2^*p(>|t|)$ 



## "It is the mark of a truly intelligent person to be moved by statistics."

# 

George Bernard Shaw