Course Summary

Fundamental Techniques in Data Science



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Outline

R Topics

Linear Regression

Assumptions

Moderation

Prediction

Interval Estimates for Prediction

Model Fit

Logistic Regression

Probabilities & Odds Assumptions

Classification

Evaluating Classification Performance



R TOPICS



R Fundamentals

Objects and assignment

```
1:3
[1] 1 2 3

x <- 1:3

x
[1] 1 2 3

x + 4
[1] 5 6 7
```

Data types

- Vectors, Matrices
- Lists, Data frames
- Factors



R Fundamentals

User-defined functions

```
helloWorld <- function() cat("Hello World!")
helloWorld()

Hello World!
add <- function(x, y) x + y
add(2, 3)

[1] 5
add(add(1, 2), 3)

[1] 6</pre>
```

Tidyverse Fundamentals

Working with pipes

```
library(magrittr)
iris %$% table(Species)
Species
    setosa versicolor virginica
        50     50     50
add(1, 2) %>% add(3)
[1] 6
```

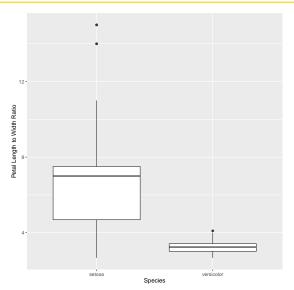
Tidyverse Fundamentals

Working with **dplyr** and **ggplot**

```
library(dplyr)
library(ggplot2)

iris %>%
    filter(Species != "virginica") %>%
    mutate(petal_ratio = Petal.Length / Petal.Width) %>%
    ggplot(aes(Species, petal_ratio)) +
    geom_boxplot() +
    ylab("Petal Length to Width Ratio")
```

Tidyverse Fundamentals



Manipulating Model Objects

```
fit1 <- lm(Petal.Length ~ Sepal.Length + Species, data = iris)
fit2 <- lm(Petal.Length ~ Sepal.Length*Species, data = iris)</pre>
coef(fit1)
      (Intercept)
                       Sepal.Length Speciesversicolor
                                                        Speciesvirginica
       -1.7023422
                          0.6321099
                                             2.2101378
                                                               3.0900021
summary(fit2)$fstatistic
   value
            numdf
                     dendf
1333.265
            5.000 144.000
```

Manipulating Model Objects

```
anova(fit2, fit1)

Analysis of Variance Table

Model 1: Petal.Length ~ Sepal.Length * Species

Model 2: Petal.Length ~ Sepal.Length + Species

Res.Df RSS Df Sum of Sq F Pr(>F)

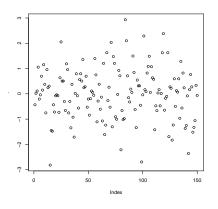
1 144 9.8179

2 146 11.6571 -2 -1.8393 13.489 4.272e-06 ***
---

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

Manipulating Model Objects

fit1 %>% rstudent() %>% plot()





LINEAR REGRESSION

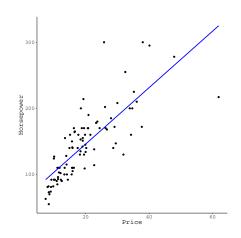


Simple Linear Regression

In linear regression, we want to find the best fit line:

$$\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X$$

• For any X_n , the corresponding \hat{Y}_n represents the model-implied, conditional mean of Y.



Simple Linear Regression

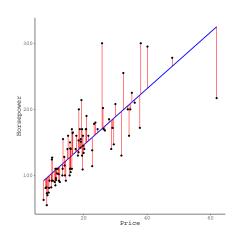
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• For any X_n , the corresponding \hat{Y}_n represents the model-implied, conditional mean of Y.

After accounting for the estimation error, we get the full regression equation:

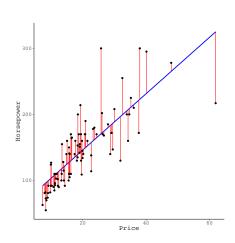
$$Y = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X + \hat{\varepsilon}$$



Residuals as the Basis of Estimation

We use the residuals, $\hat{\varepsilon}_n$, to estimate the model.

$$\begin{aligned} RSS &= \sum_{n=1}^{N} \hat{\varepsilon}_n^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(Y_n - \hat{Y}_n \right)^2 \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(Y_n - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 X_n \right)^2 \end{aligned}$$



Fit a simple linear regression model to some toy data.

```
summary(fit)
Call:
lm(formula = X1 \sim X2)
Residuals:
    Min 10 Median 30
                                      Max
-2.85250 -0.58340 0.00822 0.58493 2.56188
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 0.03099 0.02728 1.136 0.256
X2 0.43143 0.02761 15.626 <2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 0.8626 on 998 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1966, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1958
F-statistic: 244.2 on 1 and 998 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

Calculate the residual variance.

```
## Extract residuals:
res <- resid(fit)
## Compute the residual sum of squares:
ssr <- {res - mean(res)}^2 %>% sum()
## Compute the residual variance:
ssr / fit$df.residual
Γ1] 0.7440214
summary(fit)$sigma^2
[1] 0.7440214
```

Repeat the above analysis many times.

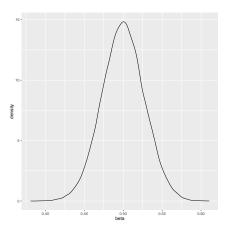
```
set.seed(235711)

nReps <- 50000
betas <- rep(NA, nReps)

for(i in 1:nReps)
   betas[i] <- rmvnorm(n = 1000, mean = c(0, 0), sigma = s) %>%
        data.frame() %$%
        lm(X1 ~ X2) %>%
        coef() %>%
        purrr::pluck(2)
```

Visualize the slope's sampling distribution.

```
ggplot(data.frame(beta = betas), aes(beta)) + geom_density()
```



Estimate the slope's standard error.

```
## The Monte Carlo approximation:
sd(betas)
[1] 0.02735199
## The asymptotic estimate:
summary(fit)$coefficients[2, "Std. Error"]
[1] 0.02761019
```

Example

```
## Read in the 'diabetes' dataset:
diabetes <- readRDS("../data/diabetes.rds")
## Estimate and summarize a regression model:
lm(bp ~ age + ldl + hdl + sex, data = diabetes) %>% partSummary(-1)
Residuals:
   Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
-34.195 -8.734 -1.011 7.945 42.186
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 78.18713 4.29453 18.206 < 2e-16
       0.30043 0.04789 6.273 8.52e-10
age
ldl 0.03887 0.02079 1.870 0.06220
hdl -0.09063 0.05124 -1.769 0.07763
sexmale 4.07606 1.32803 3.069 0.00228
Residual standard error: 12.72 on 437 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.162, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1543
F-statistic: 21.12 on 4 and 437 DF, p-value: 6.163e-16
```

Assumptions

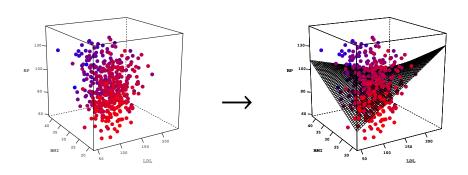
- 1. The model is linear in the parameters.
 - Otherwise: We are not working with linear regression.
- 2. The predictor matrix is full rank.
 - o Otherwise: The model is not estimable.
- 3. The predictors are strictly exogenous.
 - o Otherwise: The estimated regression coefficients will be biased.
- 4. The errors have constant, finite variance.
 - Otherwise: Standard errors will be biased.
- 5. The errors are uncorrelated.
 - o Otherwise: Standard errors will be biased.
- 6. The errors are normally distributed.
 - o Otherwise: Small-sample inferences and some estimates are not justified.

MODERATION



Moderated Regression

The effect of *X* on *Y* varies **as a function** of *Z*.



Interpretation

Given the following equation:

$$Y = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X + \hat{\beta}_2 Z + \hat{\beta}_3 X Z + \hat{\varepsilon}$$

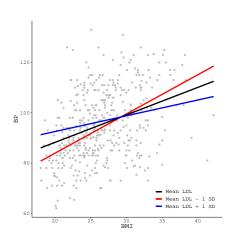
- $\hat{\beta}_3$ quantifies the effect of Z on the focal effect (the $X \to Y$ effect).
 - For a unit change in Z, $\hat{\beta}_3$ is the expected change in the effect of X on Y.
- $\hat{\beta}_1$ and $\hat{\beta}_2$ are conditional effects.
 - Interpreted where the other predictor is zero.
 - For a unit change in X, $\hat{\beta}_1$ is the expected change in Y, when Z = 0.
 - For a unit change in Z, $\hat{\beta}_2$ is the expected change in Y, when X = 0.

Continuous Moderators

```
## Moderated Model:
out2 <- lm(bp ~ bmi * ldl, data = diabetes)
partSummary(out2, -c(1, 2))
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 14.480616 14.291677 1.013 0.311514
bmi
            2.867825 0.541312 5.298 1.86e-07
ldl 0.448771 0.127160 3.529 0.000461
bmi:ldl -0.015352 0.004716 -3.255 0.001221
Residual standard error: 12.54 on 438 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1834, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1778
F-statistic: 32.78 on 3 and 438 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

Visualizing the Interaction

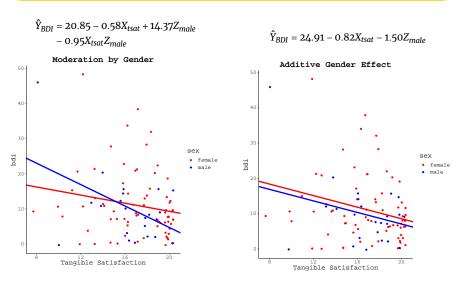
We can get a better idea of the patterns of moderation by plotting the focal effect at conditional values of the moderator.



Categorical Moderators

```
## I.oa.d. d.a.t.a.:
socSup <- readRDS("../data/social_support.rds")</pre>
## Estimate the moderated regression model:
out4 <- lm(bdi ~ tanSat * sex, data = socSup)
partSummary(out4, -c(1, 2))
Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)
              20.8478 6.2114 3.356 0.00115
tanSat
              -0.5772 0.3614 -1.597 0.11372
sexmale 14.3667 12.2054 1.177 0.24223
tanSat:sexmale -0.9482 0.7177 -1.321 0.18978
Residual standard error: 9.267 on 91 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.08955, Adjusted R-squared: 0.05954
F-statistic: 2.984 on 3 and 91 DF, p-value: 0.03537
```

Visualizing Categorical Moderation



PREDICTION



Prediction Example

Let's fit the following model using the *diabetes* data:

$$Y_{LDL} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{BP} + \beta_2 X_{qluc} + \beta_3 X_{BMI} + \varepsilon$$

Training this model on the first N = 400 patients' data produces the following fitted model:

$$\hat{Y}_{LDL} = 22.135 + 0.089 X_{BP} + 0.498 X_{gluc} + 1.48 X_{BMI}$$



Prediction Example

Let's fit the following model using the *diabetes* data:

$$Y_{LDL} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{BP} + \beta_2 X_{gluc} + \beta_3 X_{BMI} + \varepsilon$$

Training this model on the first N = 400 patients' data produces the following fitted model:

$$\hat{Y}_{LDL} = 22.135 + 0.089 X_{BP} + 0.498 X_{gluc} + 1.48 X_{BMI}$$

Suppose a new patient presents with BP = 121, gluc = 89, and BMI = 30.6. We can predict their LDL score by:

$$\hat{Y}_{LDL} = 22.135 + 0.089(121) + 0.498(89) + 1.48(30.6)$$

= 122.463

Interval Estimates Example

Two flavors of interval to quantify prediction uncertainty:

- 1. Confidence intervals
- 2. Prediction intervals

In our example, we get the following 95% interval estimates:

95%
$$CI_{\hat{Y}} = [115.6;129.33]$$

95% $PI = [66.56;178.37]$

- We can be 95% confident that the average *LDL* of patients with Glucose = 89, BP = 121, and BMI = 30.6 will be somewhere between 115.6 and 129.33.
- We can be 95% confident that the *LDL* of a specific patient with *Glucose* = 89, *BP* = 121, and *BMI* = 30.6 will be somewhere between 66.56 and 178.37.

MODEL FIT



Model Fit

We quantify the proportion of the outcome's variance that is explained by our model using the \mathbb{R}^2 statistic:

$$R^2 = \frac{TSS - RSS}{TSS} = 1 - \frac{RSS}{TSS}$$

where

$$TSS = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(Y_n - \bar{Y} \right)^2 = Var(Y) \times (N-1)$$

For the model we estimated in the above prediction example, we get:

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{315383}{361704} \approx 0.13$$



Model Fit for Prediction

We use the mean squared error (MSE) to assess predictive performance.

$$MSE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (Y_n - \hat{Y}_n)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (Y_n - \hat{\beta}_0 - \sum_{p=1}^{P} \hat{\beta}_p X_{np})^2$$

$$= \frac{RSS}{N}$$

For our example problem, we get:

$$MSE = \frac{315383}{400} \approx 788.46$$



Information Criteria

We can use *information criteria* to quickly compare *non-nested* (or nested) models while accounting for model complexity.

Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC)

$$AIC = 2K - 2\hat{\ell}(\theta|X)$$

Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC)

$$BIC = K \ln(N) - 2\hat{\ell}(\theta|X)$$

For our example, we get the following estimates of AIC and BIC:

$$AIC = 2(3) - 2(-1901.59)$$

$$= 3813.18$$

$$BIC = 3 \ln(400) - 2(-1901.59)$$

$$= 3833.14$$



LOGISTIC REGRESSION



Probabilities & Odds

o Y	'es
5 1	47
3 15	40

$$\begin{split} P(C|M) &= \frac{1540}{1540 + 753} = 0.672 & O(C|M) = \frac{1540}{753} = 2.045 \approx \frac{0.672}{1 - 0.672} \\ P(C|F) &= \frac{147}{147 + 95} &= 0.607 & O(C|F) = \frac{147}{95} &= 1.547 \approx \frac{0.607}{1 - 0.607} \end{split}$$

The Generalized Linear Model

Every GLM is built from three components:

- 1. The systematic component, η .
 - A linear function of the predictors, $\{X_p\}$.
 - Describes the association between **X** and **Y**.
- 2. The link function, $q(\mu_Y)$.
 - Transforms μ_Y so that it can take any value on the real line.
- **3**. The random component, $P(Y|g^{-1}(\eta))$
 - The distribution of the observed Y.
 - Quantifies the error variance around η .



The Logistic Regression Model

The logistic regression model can be represented as:

$$Y \sim Bin(\pi, 1)$$

$$\operatorname{logit}(\pi) = \beta_0 + \sum_{p=1}^{P} \beta_p X_p$$

The fitted model can be represented as:

$$\operatorname{logit}(\hat{\pi}) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{p=1}^{p} \hat{\beta}_p X_p$$

To convert fitted values, $\hat{\eta} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{p=1}^P \hat{\beta}_p X_p$, from a logit scale to a probability scale, we apply the *logistic* function:

$$\operatorname{logistic}(\hat{\eta}) = \frac{e^{\hat{\eta}}}{1 + e^{\hat{\eta}}}$$

Logistic Regression Example

```
## Coarsen the blood glucose variable:
diabetes %<>% mutate(highGlu = as.numeric(glu > 90))
## Estimate the model:
out1 <- glm(highGlu ~ age + bmi + bp, data = diabetes, family = binomial())
partSummary(out1, -c(1, 2))
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -6.479104 0.912899 -7.097 1.27e-12
        0.034597 0.008635 4.007 6.16e-05
age
bmi 0.106852 0.026660 4.008 6.12e-05
bp
         0.022691 0.008560 2.651 0.00803
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 610.42 on 441 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 538.18 on 438 degrees of freedom
ATC: 546.18
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

Assumptions

We can state the assumptions of logistic regression as follows:

- 1. The outcome follows a binomial distribution.
- The predictor matrix is full-rank.
- 3. The predictors are linearly related to $logit(\pi)$.
- 4. The observations are independent after accounting for the predictors.

Unlike linear regression, we don't need to assume

- Constant, finite error variance
- Normally distributed errors

For computational reasons, we also need the following:

- Large sample
- Relatively well-balance outcome
- No highly influential cases



CLASSIFICATION



Classification Example

Say we want to classify a new patient into either the "high glucose" group or the "not high glucose" group using the model fit above.

- Assume this patient has the following characteristics:
 - They are 57 years old
 - Their BMI is 28
 - Their average blood pressure is 92

First we plug their predictor data into the fitted model to get their model-implied η :

$$\hat{\eta} = -6.479 + 0.035 \times 57 + 0.107 \times 28 + 0.023 \times 92$$
$$= 0.572$$



Classification Example

Next we convert the predicted η value into a model-implied success probability by applying the logistic function:

$$\hat{\pi} = \text{logistic}(0.572) = \frac{e^{0.572}}{1 + e^{0.572}} = 0.639$$

Finally, to make the classification, assume a threshold of $\hat{\pi}=0.5$ as the decision boundary.

 Because 0.639 > 0.5 we would classify this patient into the "high glucose" group.

Confusion Matrix

	Predicted		
True	Low	High	
Low	123	82	
High	62	175	

Confusion Matrix of Blood Glucose Level

Sensitivity =
$$\frac{175}{175 + 62}$$
 = 0.738

Specificity =
$$\frac{123}{123 + 82}$$
 = 0.6

$$Accuracy = \frac{175 + 123}{175 + 123 + 62 + 82} = 0.674$$

ROC Curve

