### REGRESSIONS

Correlations for the Advanced?



#### Erik Kusch

erik.kusch@au.dk

Section for Ecoinformatics & Biodiversity
Center for Biodiversity and Dynamics in a Changing World (BIOCHANGE)
Aarhus University

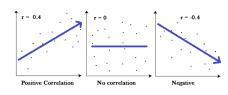
27/01/2021

- 1 The Basics
  - Correlation Tests
  - Regression Models
  - Least Squares vs. Maximum Likelihood
- 2 Methods & Models
  - Single Linear Regression
  - Mixed Effect Models
  - Generalised Linear Models
- 3 Choosing the Right Method

- 1 The Basics
  - Correlation Tests
  - Regression Models
  - Least Squares vs. Maximum Likelihood
- 2 Methods & Models
  - Single Linear Regression
  - Mixed Effect Models
  - Generalised Linear Models
- 3 Choosing the Right Method

### Correlation is **not** necessarily **causation** (spurious correlations).

- - $r \approx 1$  (strong, positive correlation)
  - $r \approx 0$  (no correlation)
  - $r \approx -1$  (strong, negative

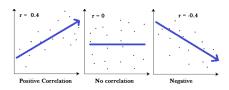


### Correlation is **not** necessarily **causation** (spurious correlations).

### Correlation tests yield two

#### measurements:

- r value (measure of correlation)
  - ightharpoonup r pprox 1 (strong, positive correlation)
  - Arr r pprox 0 (no correlation)
  - $r \approx -1$  (strong, negative correlation)
- p value (measure of statistical significance)



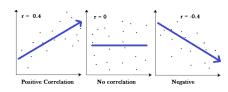
→ Get a feeling for it on Guess The Correlation

### Correlation is **not** necessarily **causation** (spurious correlations).

### Correlation tests yield two

#### measurements:

- r value (measure of correlation)
  - Arr  $r \approx 1$  (strong, positive correlation)
  - Arr r pprox 0 (no correlation)
  - $r \approx -1$  (strong, negative correlation)
- p value (measure of statistical significance)



→ Get a feeling for it on Guess The Correlation.

# Types of Correlations

These approaches are extremely useful in data exploration and for preliminary analyses!

Prominent correlation tests include

- Contingency Coefficien
- Kendall's Tar
- Spearman Correlation
- Pearson Correlation
- Cramer's \
- ANalysis Of VAriance (ANOVA)
- ...

#### When you realize that all frequentist analyses are merely different versions of a correlation



# Types of Correlations

These approaches are extremely useful in data exploration and for preliminary analyses!

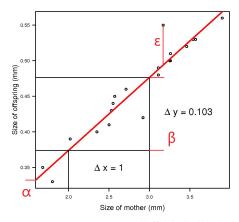
Prominent correlation tests include:

- Contingency Coefficient
- Kendall's Tau
- Spearman Correlation
- Pearson Correlation
- Cramer's V
- ANalysis Of VAriance (ANOVA)
- ...

When you realize that all frequentist analyses are merely different versions of a correlation

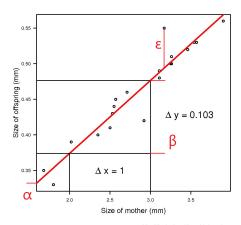


- $\alpha$  The **Intercept**. The value of y when x = 0 (also referred to as  $\beta_0$ ).
- $\beta_i$  The **Correlation Coefficient** The increase in y for a one-unit increase in dependent variable i (usually, x if only one dependent variable).
- $\epsilon$  The **Random Error**. The deviation of data points from the regression line. Usually assumed to follow  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$



Modified after Knut Helge Jensen.

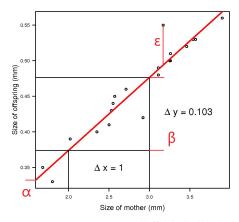
- $\alpha$  The **Intercept**. The value of y when x = 0 (also referred to as  $\beta_0$ ).
- $\beta_i$  The **Correlation Coefficient** The increase in y for a one-unit increase in dependent variable i (usually, x if only one dependent variable).
- $\epsilon$  The **Random Error**. The deviation of data points from the regression line. Usually assumed to follow  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$



Modified after Knut Helge Jensen.

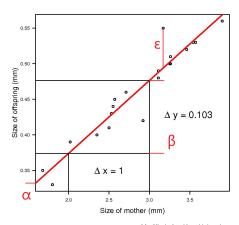
6/36

- $\alpha$  The **Intercept**. The value of y when x = 0 (also referred to as  $\beta_0$ ).
- $eta_i$  The **Correlation Coefficient**. The increase in y for a one-unit increase in dependent variable i (usually, x if only one dependent variable).
- $\epsilon$  The **Random Error**. The deviation of data points from the regression line. Usually assumed to follow  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$



Modified after Knut Helge Jensen.

- $\alpha$  The **Intercept**. The value of y when x = 0 (also referred to as  $\beta_0$ ).
- $\beta_i$  The Correlation Coefficient. The increase in y for a one-unit increase in dependent variable i (usually, x if only one dependent variable).
- $\epsilon$  The **Random Error**. The deviation of data points from the regression line. Usually assumed to follow  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$



Modified after Knut Helge Jensen.

- Linearity Residuals vs. Fitted values

  Non-linear patterns identify a non-linear relationship between dependent and independent variables.
- Normality Normal Q-Q plot
  Non-normal distribution of residuals shows that the assumption of  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$  is violated.
- Homoscedasticity Scale Location Non-constant variance shows that the assumption of homoscedasticity (invoked by least squares fitting) is violated.
- Outliers Residuals vs. Leverage
   A non-zero trend identifies the presence of influential outliers

- Linearity Residuals vs. Fitted values

  Non-linear patterns identify a non-linear relationship between dependent and independent variables.
- Normality Normal Q-Q plot Non-normal distribution of residuals shows that the assumption of  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$  is violated.
- Homoscedasticity Scale Location Non-constant variance shows that the assumption of homoscedasticity (invoked by least squares fitting) is violated.
- Outliers Residuals vs. Leverage
   A non-zero trend identifies the presence of influential outliers.

- Linearity Residuals vs. Fitted values

  Non-linear patterns identify a non-linear relationship between dependent and independent variables.
- Normality Normal Q-Q plot Non-normal distribution of residuals shows that the assumption of  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$  is violated.
- Homoscedasticity Scale Location Non-constant variance shows that the assumption of homoscedasticity (invoked by least squares fitting) is violated.
- Outliers Residuals vs. Leverage
   A non-zero trend identifies the presence of influential outliers.

- Linearity Residuals vs. Fitted values

  Non-linear patterns identify a non-linear relationship between dependent and independent variables.
- Normality Normal Q-Q plot Non-normal distribution of residuals shows that the assumption of  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$  is violated.
- Homoscedasticity Scale Location Non-constant variance shows that the assumption of homoscedasticity (invoked by least squares fitting) is violated.
- Outliers Residuals vs. Leverage
   A non-zero trend identifies the presence of influential outliers

- Linearity Residuals vs. Fitted values

  Non-linear patterns identify a non-linear relationship between dependent and independent variables.
- Normality Normal Q-Q plot Non-normal distribution of residuals shows that the assumption of  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$  is violated.
- Homoscedasticity Scale Location
   Non-constant variance shows that the assumption of homoscedasticity (invoked by least squares fitting) is violated.
- Outliers Residuals vs. Leverage
   A non-zero trend identifies the presence of influential outliers.

### "Linear" does not mean that there is a straight line!

"Linear" models refer to

■ *Additive* effects of predictors (*P*)

$$\beta_1 P_1 + \beta_2 P_2 + \dots + \beta_k P_k = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \beta_i P_i$$

lacktriangle Deterministic combination of predictors (P) to defining response (R)

$$R = \alpha + \epsilon + \sum_{i}^{k} \beta_i P_i$$

### "Linear" does not mean that there is a straight line!

#### "Linear" models refer to:

 $\blacksquare$  Additive effects of predictors (P)

$$\beta_1 P_1 + \beta_2 P_2 + \dots + \beta_k P_k = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \beta_i P_i$$

 $\blacksquare$  *Deterministic* combination of predictors (P) to defining response (R)

$$R = \alpha + \epsilon + \sum_{i}^{k} \beta_i P_i$$

### "Linear" does not mean that there is a straight line!

"Linear" models refer to:

Additive effects of predictors (P)

$$\beta_1 P_1 + \beta_2 P_2 + \dots + \beta_k P_k = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \beta_i P_i$$

lacktriangle Deterministic combination of predictors (P) to defining response (R)

$$R = \alpha + \epsilon + \sum_{i}^{k} \beta_i P_i$$

### "Linear" does not mean that there is a straight line!

"Linear" models refer to:

■ Additive effects of predictors (P)

$$\beta_1 P_1 + \beta_2 P_2 + \dots + \beta_k P_k = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \beta_i P_i$$

 $\blacksquare$  *Deterministic* combination of predictors (P) to defining response (R)

$$R = \alpha + \epsilon + \sum_{i}^{k} \beta_i P_i$$

### "Linear" does not mean that there is a straight line!

"Linear" models refer to:

■ Additive effects of predictors (P)

$$\beta_1 P_1 + \beta_2 P_2 + \dots + \beta_k P_k = \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i P_i$$

lacktriangle Deterministic combination of predictors (P) to defining response (R)

$$R = \alpha + \epsilon + \sum_{i}^{k} \beta_{i} P_{i}$$

#### Normal distributions are common in nature.

Normal/Gaussian distributions are important because

- Easy to do Math with
- Common in nature:
  - Processes which add fluctuations create dampening
  - Dampened fluctuations create Gaussian distributions
- Information reduced to mean and variance
- Underlying process can't be inferred from the distribution

#### Normal distributions are common in nature.

### Normal/Gaussian distributions are important because:

- Easy to do Math with
- Common in nature
  - Processes which add fluctuations create dampening
  - Dampened fluctuations create Gaussian distributions
- Information reduced to mean and variance
- Underlying process can't be inferred from the distribution

#### Normal distributions are common in nature.

### Normal/Gaussian distributions are important because:

- Easy to do Math with
- Common in nature:
  - Processes which add fluctuations create dampening
  - Dampened fluctuations create Gaussian distributions
- Information reduced to mean and variance
- Underlying process can't be inferred from the distribution

#### Normal distributions are common in nature.

Normal/Gaussian distributions are important because:

- Easy to do Math with
- Common in nature:
  - Processes which add fluctuations create dampening
  - Dampened fluctuations create Gaussian distributions
- Information reduced to mean and variance
- Underlying process can't be inferred from the distribution

Models which are mechanisitically wrong can still excell in predictive power

9/36

#### Normal distributions are common in nature.

Normal/Gaussian distributions are important because:

- Easy to do Math with
- Common in nature:
  - Processes which add fluctuations create dampening
  - Dampened fluctuations create Gaussian distributions
- Information reduced to mean and variance
- Underlying process can't be inferred from the distribution

#### Normal distributions are common in nature.

Normal/Gaussian distributions are important because:

- Easy to do Math with
- Common in nature:
  - Processes which add fluctuations create dampening
  - Dampened fluctuations create Gaussian distributions
- Information reduced to mean and variance
- Underlying process can't be inferred from the distribution

#### Normal distributions are common in nature.

Normal/Gaussian distributions are important because:

- Easy to do Math with
- Common in nature:
  - Processes which add fluctuations create dampening
  - Dampened fluctuations create Gaussian distributions
- Information reduced to mean and variance
- Underlying process can't be inferred from the distribution

### Variance contains important information.

Variation is at the heart of biology:

- Abiotic variation governs biological processes and patterns
- Biological variation can alter how ecosystem function and persist

### Variance contains important information.

### Variation is at the heart of biology:

- Abiotic variation governs biological processes and patterns
- Biological variation can alter how ecosystem function and persist

### Variance contains important information.

### Variation is at the heart of biology:

- Abiotic variation governs biological processes and patterns
- Biological variation can alter how ecosystem function and persist

### Variance contains important information.

Variation is at the heart of biology:

- Abiotic variation governs biological processes and patterns
- Biological variation can alter how ecosystem function and persist

### Variance contains important information.

Variation is at the heart of biology:

- Abiotic variation governs biological processes and patterns
- Biological variation can alter how ecosystem function and persist

### **Outliers**

### Unexpected data values can still be valuable.

- Outlier sources
  - Decimal delimiter errors
  - Imprecise recording
  - Noise
  - Extreme events/occurrences/records
  - Surprising findings
- Identify outliers:
  - Studentised residuals  $(|\frac{e_i}{sd_o}|)$
  - Knowledge and Intuition of the biological study system and sampling units

### **Outliers**

### Unexpected data values can still be valuable.

- Outlier sources
  - Decimal delimiter errors
  - Imprecise recording
  - Noise
  - Extreme events/occurrences/records
  - Surprising findings
- Identify outliers:
  - Studentised residuals  $(|\frac{e_i}{sd_o}|)$
  - Knowledge and Intuition of the biological study system and sampling units

#### Unexpected data values can still be valuable.

#### Outlier sources:

- Decimal delimiter errors
- Imprecise recording
- Noise
- Extreme events/occurrences/records
- Surprising findings
- Identify outliers:
  - Studentised residuals  $(|\frac{e_i}{sd_o}|)$
  - Knowledge and Intuition of the biological study system and sampling units

- Outlier sources:
  - Decimal delimiter errors
  - Imprecise recording
  - Noise
  - Extreme events/occurrences/records
  - Surprising findings
- Identify outliers:
  - Studentised residuals  $(|\frac{e_i}{sd_e}|)$
  - Knowledge and Intuition of the biological study system and sampling units

- Outlier sources:
  - Decimal delimiter errors
  - Imprecise recording
  - Noise
  - Extreme events/occurrences/records
  - Surprising findings
- Identify outliers:
  - Studentised residuals  $(|\frac{e_i}{sd_e}|)$
  - Knowledge and Intuition of the biological study system and sampling units

- Outlier sources:
  - Decimal delimiter errors
  - Imprecise recording
  - Noise
  - Extreme events/occurrences/records
  - Surprising findings
- Identify outliers:
  - Studentised residuals  $(|\frac{e_i}{sd_e}|)$
  - Knowledge and Intuition of the biological study system and sampling units

- Outlier sources:
  - Decimal delimiter errors
  - Imprecise recording
  - Noise
  - Extreme events/occurrences/records
  - Surprising findings
- Identify outliers:
  - Studentised residuals  $(|\frac{e_i}{sd_e}|)$
  - Knowledge and Intuition of the biological study system and sampling units

### Assumptions in R

Simply type plot (...) with ... denoting your regression model.

```
You can also target individual plots:

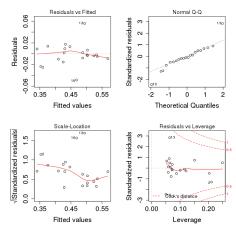
1. plot (..., 1) (Residuals/Fitted)

2. plot (..., 2) (Normal Q-Q plot)

3. plot (..., 3) (Scale Location)

4. plot (..., 4)

(Residuals/Leverage)
```



By Knut Helge Jensen.

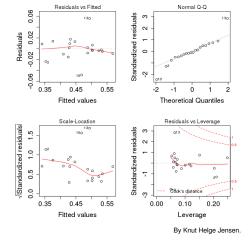
### Assumptions in R

Simply type plot (...) with ... denoting your regression model.

You can also target individual plots:

- 1. plot (..., 1) (Residuals/Fitted)
- 2. plot (..., 2) (Normal Q-Q plot)
- 3. plot (..., 3) (Scale Location)
- 4. plot(..., 4)

(Residuals/Leverage)



### Types of Regressions

Less model variables result in a more interpretable model!

# Prominent regression approaches include the following:

- Single Linear Regression
- Multiple Linear Regression
- Linear Mixed Effect Models
- Generalized Linear Models

- Polynomial Regressions
- Generalized Additive Models
- Regression Splines
- Smoothing Splines
- Local Regressions

### Types of Regressions

Less model variables result in a more interpretable model!

Prominent regression approaches include the following:

- Single Linear Regression
- Multiple Linear Regression
- Linear Mixed Effect Models
- Generalized Linear Models

- Polynomial Regressions
- Generalized Additive Models
- Regression Splines
- Smoothing Splines
- Local Regressions
- . . .

### Types of Regressions

Less model variables result in a more interpretable model!

Prominent regression approaches include the following:

- Single Linear Regression
- Multiple Linear Regression
- Linear Mixed Effect Models
- Generalized Linear Models

- Polynomial Regressions
- Generalized Additive Models
- Regression Splines
- Smoothing Splines
- Local Regressions
- ..

### Least Squares vs. Maximum Likelihood

These methods refer to parameter estimation.

#### Ordinary Least Squares (OSL):

- Used for most basic linear regressions
- obtain coefficient estimates  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  such that the linear model fits the available data well that is, so that  $\hat{y}_i \approx \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$  for i = 1, ..., n.

#### Minimize:

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

with  $\hat{y}_i = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_i^{i=1}$ 

### Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE):

- Used in logistic regressions and generalized linear models
- estimates for  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  such that the predicted probability  $\hat{Pr}(x_j)$  corresponds to the observed response variable status.

#### Maximize:

$$\ell(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i | \theta) \tag{2}$$

- 1 The Basics
  - Correlation Tests
  - Regression Models
  - Least Squares vs. Maximum Likelihood
- 2 Methods & Models
  - Single Linear Regression
  - Mixed Effect Models
  - Generalised Linear Models
- 3 Choosing the Right Method

### Purpose & Assumptions

### Single linear regression

lm() in base R

#### Purpose: Identify whether and how two variables are related.

- Down to *Study-Design*:
  - Response variable is continuous (ratio or interval scale
  - Predictor variable is continuous (ratio or interval scale)
  - Variable values are independent (not paired)
- Need for Post-Hoc Tests
  - Variable values follow homoscedasticity (equal variance across entire data range)
  - Residuals follow normal distribution (normality)
  - Absence of influential outliers
  - Response and Predictor are related in a linear fashion

Assumptions

### Purpose & Assumptions

#### Single linear regression

lm() in base R

Purpose: Identify whether and how two variables are related.

- Down to *Study-Design*:
  - Response variable is continuous (ratio or interval scale)
  - Predictor variable is continuous (ratio or interval scale)
  - Variable values are **independent** (not paired)
- Need for Post-Hoc Tests:
  - Variable values follow homoscedasticity (equal variance across entire data range)
  - Residuals follow normal distribution (normality)
  - Absence of influential outliers
  - Response and Predictor are related in a linear fashion

Assumptions:

### Example - The Data

```
# measures of Diameter (labelled as Girth), Height, and Volume of Timber
data("trees")
head(trees)
## Girth Height Volume
```

```
## 1 8.3 70 10.3

## 2 8.6 65 10.3

## 3 8.8 63 10.2

## 4 10.5 72 16.4

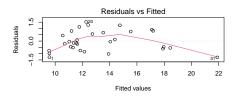
## 5 10.7 81 18.8

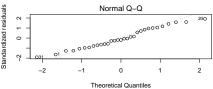
## 6 10.8 83 19.7
```

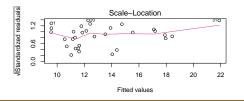
→ Let's see if there is a good regression to be had between *Girth* and *Volume*.

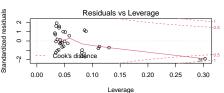
### Example - The Model

```
SingleLin_Mod <- with(trees, lm(Girth ~ Volume))
par(mfrow=c(2,2))
plot(SingleLin_Mod)</pre>
```





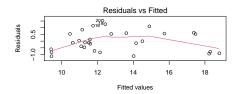


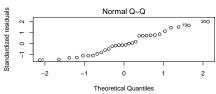


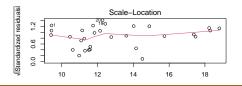
Aarhus University Biostatistics - Why? What? How? 18 / 3

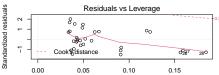
### Example - Refining The Model

```
trees <- trees[-31,] # removing the influential otulier in row 31
SingleLin_Mod <- with(trees, lm(Girth ~ Volume))
par(mfrow=c(2,2))
plot(SingleLin_Mod)</pre>
```









### Example - Model Output

summary (SingleLin\_Mod)

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = Girth ~ Volume)
##
## Residuals:
     Min 10 Median 30 Max
## -1.126 -0.699 -0.109 0.557 1.521
##
## Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 7.4141 0.3217 23.0 <2e-16 ***
## Volume
          0.1954 0.0101 19.3 <2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.772 on 28 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.93, Adjusted R-squared: 0.928
## F-statistic: 374 on 1 and 28 DF, p-value: <2e-16
```

At a Volume of 0, Girth is predicted to be 7.4141 (of course that doesn't make sense, not only is a volume of 0 biological nonsense, height also plays a part here for sure). For a one-unit increase in Volume, Girth is predicted to go up by 0.1954 inches (yes, they recorded in inches). Both estimates are statistically significant.

### Purpose & Assumptions

#### Linear mixed effect model

lme() in base nlme package

#### Purpose: Identify whether and how variables are related.

- Down to *Study-Design*:
  - Response variable is continuous (ratio or interval scale)
  - Predictor variables are continuous (ratio or interval scale) and/or categorical (metric or ordinal scale)
- Need for Post-Hoc Tests
  - Variable values follow homoscedasticity (equal variance across entire data range)
  - Residuals follow normal distribution (normality)
  - Absence of influential outliers
  - Response and Predictor are related in a linear fashion

Assumptions

### Purpose & Assumptions

#### Linear mixed effect model

lme() in base nlme package

Purpose: Identify whether and how variables are related.

- Down to *Study-Design*:
  - Response variable is continuous (ratio or interval scale)
  - Predictor variables are continuous (ratio or interval scale)
     and/or categorical (metric or ordinal scale)
- Need for Post-Hoc Tests:
  - Variable values follow homoscedasticity (equal variance across entire data range)
  - Residuals follow normal distribution (normality)
  - Absence of influential outliers
  - Response and Predictor are related in a linear fashion

Assumptions:

## Fixed effects and random effects are also referred to as fixed effect factors and random effect factors.

#### **Fixed Effects**

- Informative factor levels regarding hypothesis.
- Want to study these levels and their effects.
- Factor levels are deliberate part of the study-design.
- Higher sample size ≠ higher number of levels.

#### Random Effects

- Uninformative factor levels regarding hypothesis.
- Do not want to study these levels and their effects.
- Factor levels are imposed by nature/type of study.
- Usually: higher sample size = higher number of levels.

## Fixed effects and random effects are also referred to as fixed effect factors and random effect factors.

#### **Fixed Effects:**

- Informative factor levels regarding hypothesis.
- Want to study these levels and their effects.
- Factor levels are deliberate part of the study-design.
- Higher sample size ≠ higher number of levels.

#### Random Effects

- regarding hypothesis.
- Do not want to study these levels and their effects.
- Factor levels are imposed by nature/type of study.
- Usually: higher sample size = higher number of levels.

Fixed effects and random effects are also referred to as fixed effect factors and random effect factors.

#### **Fixed Effects:**

- Informative factor levels regarding hypothesis.
- Want to study these levels and their effects.
- Factor levels are deliberate part of the study-design.
- Higher sample size ≠ higher number of levels.

#### Random Effects

- Uninformative factor levels regarding hypothesis.
- Do not want to study these levels and their effects.
- Factor levels are imposed by nature/type of study.
- Usually: higher sample size = higher number of levels.

Fixed effects and random effects are also referred to as fixed effect factors and random effect factors.

#### **Fixed Effects:**

- Informative factor levels regarding hypothesis.
- Want to study these levels and their effects.
- Factor levels are deliberate part of the study-design.
- Higher sample size ≠ higher number of levels

#### Random Effects:

- Uninformative factor levels regarding hypothesis.
- Do not want to study these levels and their effects.
- Factor levels are imposed by nature/type of study.
- Usually: higher sample size = higher number of levels.

Fixed effects and random effects are also referred to as fixed effect factors and random effect factors.

#### **Fixed Effects:**

- Informative factor levels regarding hypothesis.
- Want to study these levels and their effects.
- Factor levels are deliberate part of the study-design.
- Higher sample size ≠ higher number of levels.

#### Random Effects:

- Uninformative factor levels regarding hypothesis.
- Do not want to study these levels and their effects.
- Factor levels are imposed by nature/type of study.
- Usually: higher sample size = higher number of levels.

Fixed effects and random effects are also referred to as fixed effect factors and random effect factors.

#### **Fixed Effects:**

- Informative factor levels regarding hypothesis.
- Want to study these levels and their effects.
- Factor levels are deliberate part of the study-design.
- Higher sample size ≠ higher number of levels.

#### Random Effects:

- Uninformative factor levels regarding hypothesis.
- Do not want to study these levels and their effects.
- Factor levels are imposed by nature/type of study.
- Usually: higher sample size = higher number of levels.

### Example - The Data

## 3 59 4 1

## 5 76 8 1 93

1.0

```
# measures of Weight, Diet, Time, and Chicks
data ("ChickWeight")
head (ChickWeight)
##
    weight Time Chick Diet
## 1
        42
## 2
    51 2 1
```

→ Let's see if there is a good regression to be had between *weight* and *Time* while accounting for random effects belonging to Chick, and fixed effects of Diet.

### Example - The Model

We now have our model. However, we know that time is a component and we likely have repeated samples here. In these cases, we need to account for auto-correlation by defining a correlation structure.

Let's see which model (basic or the one with auto-correlative structure) performs better:

```
## MultiLin_Base MultiLin_Mod) # second model is better

## Model df AIC BIC logLik Test L.Ratio p-value

## MultiLin_Base 1 10 5487 5530 -2734

## MultiLin_Mod 2 11 4487 4505 -2217 1 vs 2 1032 <.0001
```

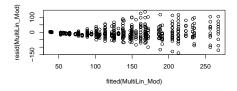
We clearly prefer the more sophisticated, auto-correlative model and want to see which of its parameters are informative:

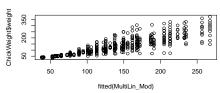
anova (MultiLin Mod) # all parameters should be kept

We keep all parameters. Although the inclusion of Diet is not significant, the interaction of Diet and Time is, therefore, both Time and Diet need to stay irrespective of their significance.

### Example - Assessing the Model

```
par(mfrow=c(2,2))
plot(fitted(MultiLin_Mod), resid(MultiLin_Mod)) # values around 0 -> good
plot(fitted(MultiLin_Mod), ChickWeight$weight) # pattern fuzzy, but linear -> good
qqnorm(resid(MultiLin_Mod)) # residuals are not normal dsitributed -> bad
```







Aarhus University Biostatistics - Why? What? How? 25 /

## Example - Model Output

```
summary (MultiLin Mod)
## Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML
  Data: ChickWeight
   AIC BIC logLik
  4457 4505 -2217
##
## Random effects:
  Formula: ~+1 | Chick
         (Intercept) Residual
## StdDev: 0.006581
                      42.46
##
## Correlation Structure: AR(1)
## Formula: ~1 | Chick
  Parameter estimate(s):
   Phi
## 0.9706
## Fixed effects: weight ~ Time * Diet
##
             Value Std.Error DF t-value p-value
## (Intercept) 40.42 9.487 524
                               4.260 0.0000
## Time
            6.06 0.350 524
                               17.347 0.0000
## Diet2 -0.88 16.430 46 -0.054 0.9575
        -2.19 16.430 46 -0.133 0.8944
## Diet3
        -1.01 16.431 46 -0.062 0.9512
## Diet4
## Time:Diet2 2.21 0.589 524 3.749 0.0002
## Time:Diet3 4.86 0.589 524 8.250 0.0000
## Time:Diet4 3.13 0.592 524 5.297 0.0000
## Correlation:
##
            (Intr) Time Diet2 Diet3 Diet4 Tm:Dt2 Tm:Dt3
```

## Time

\_0 358

### Example - Model Output Explained

Variance between chicks (0.006581) is smaller than residual variance (42.46). This is good!

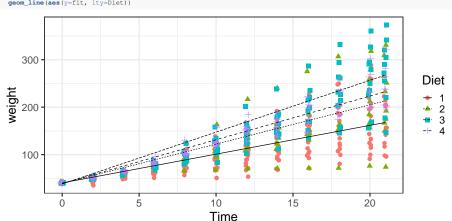
A chick is expected to have a weight of 40.4165 at Time = 0 and Diet = 1. Per time-step, weight is expected to increase by 6.0637.

Mean chick weight is different to (read: "Diet1 weights are smaller by") Diet = 1 by -0.8794, -2.1932, and -1.0109 for Diet = 2, Diet = 3, and Diet = 4 respectively (take note that these differences aren't statistically significant).

For Diet=2, weight of chicks increases, on average, by 2.2077 units more per one-unit increase in time when compared to Diet=1. The same logic applies to Diet=3, and Diet=4.

## Example - Model Output Visualised

```
library(ggplot2)
ChickWeight$fit <- predict(MultiLin_Mod, level=0)
ggplot(ChickWeight, aes(Time, weight)) +
geom_jitter(aes(colour=Diet, shape=Diet), width=0.1, size=3) +
theme_bw(base_size=20) +
geom_line(aes(y=fit, lty=Diet))</pre>
```



### Purpose & Assumptions

#### **Generalized Linear Models**

glm() in base R

Purpose: Identify whether and how variables are related.

- Down to Study-Design:
  - Variable values are **independent** (not paired)
- Assumptions: Need for Post-Hoc Tests
  - Absence of influential outliers
  - Response and Predictor are related in a linear fashion
  - ightarrow Allow for non-normal distributions and heteroscedasticity

### Purpose & Assumptions

#### **Generalized Linear Models**

glm() in base R

Purpose: Identify whether and how variables are related.

- Down to *Study-Design*:
  - Variable values are **independent** (not paired)

- Assumptions:
- Need for Post-Hoc Tests:
  - Absence of influential outliers
  - Response and Predictor are related in a **linear** fashion
- → Allow for non-normal distributions and heteroscedasticity

### Linear Predictor, Link Function, and Variance Function

#### **Components** of a Generalized Linear Model:

- Linear predictor e.g.:  $y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_i$
- Link function  $g(\hat{y_i}) = y_i$ Relationship between predictor value and estimated value.
- **3** Variance function  $var(y_i) = \phi V_i(\overline{x})$ Variance depends on predictor mean, dispersion parameter  $\phi$  is a constant

Error	Link function	Variance function	Typical type of data
normal	identity	1 (constant)	Textbook examples
Poisson	log		Count data
binomial	$logit, log(\overline{x}/(1-\overline{x}))$	$var = \overline{x}(1 - \overline{x})/n$	Binary data

### Linear Predictor, Link Function, and Variance Function

#### **Components** of a Generalized Linear Model:

- **11** Linear predictor e.g.:  $y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_i$
- **Link function**  $g(\hat{y_i}) = y_i$ Relationship between predictor value and estimated value.
- 3 Variance function  $var(y_i) = \phi V_i(\overline{x})$ Variance depends on predictor mean, dispersion parameter  $\phi$  is a constant

#### Which combinations of components do I use?

Error	Link function	Variance function	Typical type of data
normal	identity	1 (constant)	Textbook examples
Poisson	log	$var = \overline{x}$	Count data
binomial	$logit, log(\overline{x}/(1-\overline{x}))$	$var = \overline{x}(1 - \overline{x})/n$	Binary data

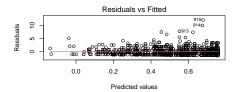
### Example - The Data

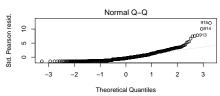
```
library (AER)
data ("PhDPublications")
head (PhDPublications)
##
    articles gender married kids prestige mentor
             male
                                2.52
## 1
                     ves
          0 female
                             2.05
                      no
                             3.75
## 3
          0 female no 0
                     yes 1 1.18
             male
## 5
          0 female
                     no 0 3.75
                                        26
          0 female
                            3.59
## 6
                     yes
```

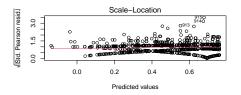
→ Let's see if we can predict number of articles published by a PhD student as a result of their gender, prestige, and number if kids.

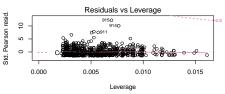
### Example - The Model

```
GeneralLin_Mod <- glm(articles ~ prestige*gender + kids, family = poisson, data = PhDPublications)
par(mfrow=c(2,2))
plot(GeneralLin Mod)</pre>
```









## Example - Model Output

## Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5

```
summary (GeneralLin Mod)
## Call:
## qlm(formula = articles ~ prestige * gender + kids, family = poisson,
     data = PhDPublications)
## Deviance Residuals:
            10 Median 30 Max
     Min
## -2.067 -1.606 -0.396 0.572 7.216
## Coefficients:
                   Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
## (Intercept)
                     0.6228
                               0.1128 5.52 3.4e-08 ***
## prestige
                     0.0295 0.0330 0.90 0.37035
## genderfemale
                   -0.6993 0.1803 -3.88 0.00011 ***
                      ## kids
## prestige:genderfemale 0.1265 0.0536 2.36 0.01828 *
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## (Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)
##
     Null deviance: 1817.4 on 914 degrees of freedom
## Residual deviance: 1766.9 on 910 degrees of freedom
## AIC: 3445
```

### Example - Model Output Explained

According to this model, a male PhD student without kids and 0 prestige produces an estimated amount of 0.6228 papers during their PhD studies.

For an increase in prestige by 1, the number of papers increases by 0.0295 (this is not statistically significant). Unfortunately, being a women brings the average publication number down by -0.6993. Having kids also has an adverse effect of reducing the publication number by -0.1258 per kid. Lastly, an increase in prestige has more beneficial impacts on female PhD students as it increases their publication number per one-increase in prestige by 0.1265 from the baseline.

Do keep in mind that there are some issues that this model hasn't addressed yet. Especially, something we call **zero-inflation** of our response variable data as well as some predictor variable data.

- 1 The Basics
  - Correlation Tests
  - Regression Models
  - Least Squares vs. Maximum Likelihood
- 2 Methods & Models
  - Single Linear Regression
  - Mixed Effect Models
  - Generalised Linear Models
- 3 Choosing the Right Method

### Choices, Choices, Choices...

- Linear Model 1m. When all assumptions are met (i.e.: homoscedasticity, normality, independence).
- Linear Mixed Effect Model lme. When the assumption of independence is violated.
- Generalized Linear Model glm. When the assumptions of homoscedasticity and normality are violated.
- Generalized Linear Mixed Effect Model glmmPQL from MASS, or glmer from lme4. When the assumptions of homoscedasticity, normality, and independence are violated.