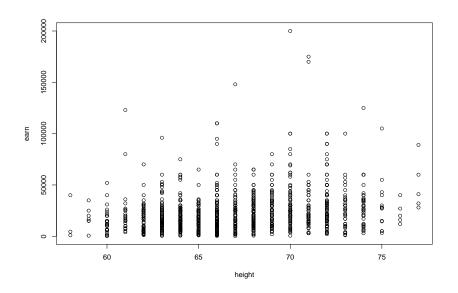
Transformations

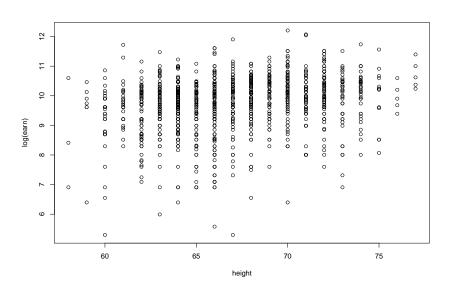
BIOE 498/598 PJ

Spring 2021

Earnings vs. height?



log(Earnings) vs height?



Logarithmic transformation of the response

```
lm(log(earn) ~ height, earnings) %>% coefs()

## (Intercept) height
## 5.78 0.06
```

Logarithmic transformation of the response

```
lm(log(earn) ~ height, earnings) %>% coefs()
```

```
## (Intercept) height
## 5.78 0.06
```

This changes from an additive model to a multiplicative one:

$$\log(y) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \epsilon$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$y = B_0 \cdot B_1 e^{x_1} \cdots E$$

What is the best response transformation?

A general family of nonlinear transformations are described by the Box-Cox transformation:

$$T(y) = \begin{cases} (y^{\lambda} - 1)/\lambda, & \lambda \neq 0 \\ \log(y), & \lambda = 0 \end{cases}$$

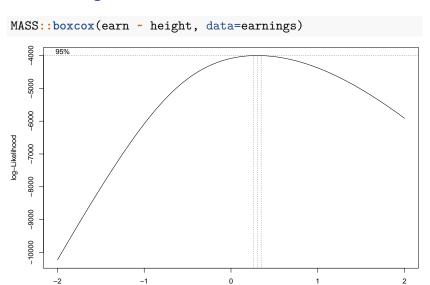
What is the best response transformation?

A general family of nonlinear transformations are described by the Box-Cox transformation:

$$T(y) = \begin{cases} (y^{\lambda} - 1)/\lambda, & \lambda \neq 0 \\ \log(y), & \lambda = 0 \end{cases}$$

- $\lambda = 2$ suggests $y \rightarrow y^2$
- $ightharpoonup \lambda = 1$ suggests no transformation
- $\lambda = 1/2$ suggests $y \to \sqrt{y}$
- $\lambda = -1$ suggests $y \to 1/y$

Where do we get λ ?



Shouldn't we always transform the response?

- Transforming the response will often improve the predictive power of the model.
- ▶ Models with transformed responses are more difficult to interpret.

Shouldn't we always transform the response?

- Transforming the response will often improve the predictive power of the model.
- Models with transformed responses are more difficult to interpret.
- In general, there is always a tradeoff between prediction and interpretation.
- ▶ Recommendation: perform the Box-Cox analysis, but only transform if
 - you only want the model for prediction, or
 - the Box-Cox suggests a common transformation (log, square root, inverse, square, etc.).

Linear Transformations: Scaling Predictor Variables

```
\begin{split} \log(\mathrm{earnings}[\$]) &= 5.78 + 0.06 \cdot \mathrm{height[in]} + \mathrm{error} \\ \log(\mathrm{earnings}[\$]) &= 5.78 + 0.72 \cdot \mathrm{height[ft]} + \mathrm{error} \\ \log(\mathrm{earnings}[\$]) &= 5.78 + 0.00234 \cdot \mathrm{height[mm]} + \mathrm{error} \end{split}
```

Linear Transformations: Scaling Predictor Variables

$$\begin{split} &\log(\mathrm{earnings}[\$]) = 5.78 + 0.06 \cdot \mathrm{height[in]} + \mathrm{error} \\ &\log(\mathrm{earnings}[\$]) = 5.78 + 0.72 \cdot \mathrm{height[ft]} + \mathrm{error} \\ &\log(\mathrm{earnings}[\$]) = 5.78 + 0.00234 \cdot \mathrm{height[mm]} + \mathrm{error} \end{split}$$

Scaling in General:

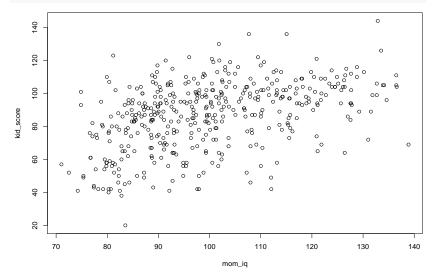
$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1(kx) + \epsilon$$

$$\updownarrow$$

$$y = \beta_0 + (k\beta_1)x + \epsilon$$

Are childhood exams influenced by maternal IQ?

```
child <- foreign::read.dta("kidiq.dta")
with(child, plot(mom_iq, kid_score))</pre>
```



Are childhood exams influenced by maternal IQ?

model <- lm(kid_score ~ mom_iq, data=child)</pre> summary(model) ## ## Call: ## lm(formula = kid score ~ mom iq, data = child) ## ## Residuals: Min 1Q Median 3Q ## Max ## -56.75 -12.07 2.22 11.71 47.69 ## ## Coefficients: Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|) ## ## (Intercept) 25.7998 5.9174 4.36 1.6e-05 *** ## mom_iq 0.6100 0.0585 10.42 < 2e-16 *** ## ---## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' ##

Residual standard error: 18 on 432 degrees of freedom ## Multiple R-squared: 0.201, Adjusted R-squared: 0.199 ## F-statistic: 109 on 1 and 432 DF, p-value: <2e-16

Mean Centering

Our linear model is

$$kid_score = \beta_0 + \beta_1 mom_iq$$

The effect size β_1 is the change in child score for every unit increase in mother IQ. The intercept β_0 is uninterpretable (the score of a child with a mother of IQ=0).

Mean Centering

Our linear model is

$$kid_score = \beta_0 + \beta_1 mom_iq$$

The effect size β_1 is the change in child score for every unit increase in mother IQ. **The intercept** β_0 **is uninterpretable** (the score of a child with a mother of IQ=0).

Let's *mean center* the variable mom_iq:

$$c_mom_iq = mom_iq - mean[mom_iq]$$

Mean Centering (continued)

Our new model is

$$kid_score = \beta_0 + \beta_1 c_mom_iq$$

Now both coefficients are interpretable:

- \triangleright β_1 remains the increase in child score given a unit increase in mother's IQ.
- $ightharpoonup eta_0$ is the predicted child score for a child with mother of average IQ.

Standardization by Z-score

We can also center mom_iq and rescale it by the standard deviation:

$$z_mom_iq = \frac{mom_iq - mean[mom_iq]}{stdev[mom_iq]}$$

Standardization by Z-score

We can also center mom_iq and rescale it by the standard deviation:

$$z_mom_iq = \frac{mom_iq - mean[mom_iq]}{stdev[mom_iq]}$$

In the model

$$kid_score = \beta_0 + \beta_1 z_mom_iq$$

the interpretation of β_0 is the same (predicted score for child with average mom_iq), but β_1 is the change in child score based on an increase of **one standard devation** in mother's IQ.

Why rescale by the standard deviation?

Let's add a second factor: if the mother completed high school.

No scaling:

```
lm(kid_score ~ mom_hs + c_mom_iq, child) %>% coefs()
## (Intercept) mom_hs c_mom_iq
## 82.12 5.95 0.56
```

Why rescale by the standard deviation?

Let's add a second factor: if the mother completed high school.

No scaling:

```
lm(kid_score ~ mom_hs + c_mom_iq, child) %>% coefs()

## (Intercept) mom_hs c_mom_iq
## 82.12 5.95 0.56

Z-scoring (1 stdev):
lm(kid_score ~ z_mom_hs + z_mom_iq, child) %>% coefs()

## (Intercept) z_mom_hs z_mom_iq
## 86.8 2.4 8.5
```

What is the best scaling factor?

```
lm(kid_score ~ mom_hs + c_mom_iq, child) %>% coefs()

## (Intercept) mom_hs c_mom_iq

## 82.12 5.95 0.56

Z-scoring (1 stdev):

lm(kid_score ~ z_mom_hs + z_mom_iq, child) %>% coefs()

## (Intercept) z_mom_hs z_mom_iq

## 86.8 2.4 8.5
```

What is the best scaling factor?

```
lm(kid score ~ mom hs + c mom iq, child) %>% coefs()
## (Intercept) mom_hs c_mom_iq
        82.12
                               0.56
##
                    5.95
Z-scoring (1 stdev):
lm(kid_score ~ z_mom_hs + z_mom_iq, child) %>% coefs()
## (Intercept) z_mom_hs z_mom_iq
         86.8
                     2.4
                                8.5
##
Scaling by 2 stdev:
lm(kid_score ~ z2_mom_hs + z2_mom_iq, child) %>% coefs()
## (Intercept) z2_mom_hs z2_mom_iq
##
         86.8
                     4.9
                               16.9
```

Why two standard deviations?

Assume a binary factor takes the value 1 with probability p. Then the standard deviation of this factor is

$$\sqrt{p(1-p)}$$

Why two standard deviations?

Assume a binary factor takes the value 1 with probability p. Then the standard deviation of this factor is

$$\sqrt{p(1-p)}$$

Without any additional knowledge, we assume that p=0.5. Then the standard deviation of the factor is $\sqrt{0.5^2}=0.5$.

Why two standard deviations?

Assume a binary factor takes the value 1 with probability p. Then the standard deviation of this factor is

$$\sqrt{p(1-p)}$$

Without any additional knowledge, we assume that p=0.5. Then the standard deviation of the factor is $\sqrt{0.5^2}=0.5$.

When this binary factor switches from 0 to 1, it is moving two standard deviations. To keep things on the same scale, the continuous variables should be rescaled so a unit change also corresponds to two standard deviations.

Our recommendations

- Leave binary factors unscaled.
- Mean center and scale continuous factors by 1 stdev. unless the intercept is more interpretable when all factors are zero (e.g. drug dosing).
- Alternatively, use coded factors for continuous variables that are set at only at a few discrete values.
- If your model contains both binary and continuous factors that must be compared:
 - Center and scale continuous factors by 2 stdev, except if the variable uses a scale widely accepted by your audience.
 - You can always build a rescaled model behind-the-scenes and present the conclusions with unscaled factors.