R Formula Interface

and Model/Design Matrices
DS 6410 | Spring 2024
Rfmla.pdf

```
#-- Required Packages
library(splines)
library(tidyverse)
```

1 Raw input data

The raw input data is often in the form of a data frame (or tibble). For example,

```
#-- Raw Input Data
# cat is categorical with 3 levels: A,B,C
# num is numerical
# y is numerical response variable

Z = tibble(cat=c('A','A','B','B','C','C'), num=1:6, y=rnorm(6))

Z
#> # A tibble: 6 x 3
#> cat num y
#> <chr> <int> <dbl>
#> 1 A 1 -1.01
#> 2 A 2 -0.209
#> 3 B 3 0.262
#> 4 B 4 0.374
#> 5 C 5 -0.666
#> 6 C 6 0.914
```

has three columns, cat is categorical data, num which is numerical data, and y which is the outcome variable.

2 Formula in models

The formula interface in R allows you to make transformations of the input data frame automatically. For example, categorical (or factor) columns will generate the appropriate dummy variables.

The default behavior is to convert categorical data to a factor and drop the first level.

The formula interface is easy to use:

```
#- numerical data only
lm(y~num, data=Z)$coef
#> (Intercept)
#> -0.8908
                  0.2386
#- transformations
lm(y~log(num), data=Z)$coef
#> (Intercept) log(num)
#> -0.8509 0.7254
#- use I() to make custom functions
lm(y\sim I(3*num), data=Z)$coef
#> (Intercept) I(3 * num)
#> -0.89075 0.07954
#- we have already seen poly()
lm(y~poly(num, degree = 3), data=Z)$coef
#> (Intercept) poly(num, degree = 3)1 poly(num, degree = 3)2
#> -0.05555 -0.23329
             -0.05555
                             0.99826 -0.23329
#>
#> poly(num, degree = 3)3
       0.92124
#- how about B-splines
library(splines)
lm(y~bs(num), data=Z)$coef
#> (Intercept) bs(num)1 bs(num)2 bs(num)3
#> -1.1227 3.3290 -0.8128 1.8798
#> -1.1227
#- two predictors
lm(y~cat + num, data=Z)$coef
#> (Intercept) catB catC num
#> -1.8536 -0.7332 -2.5869 0.8299
lm(y~cat + num - 1, data=Z)$coef
#> catA catB catC num
#> -1.8536 -2.5868 -4.4405 0.8299
#- a:b stands for interactions
lm(y~cat + num + cat:num, data=Z)$coef
#> (Intercept) catB catC num catB:num
#> -1.8066 1.7349 -6.7583 0.7986 -0.6873
                                          num catB:num catC:num
                                                                 0.7812
#- use . to represent everything in data
lm(y~., data=Z)$coef
#> (Intercept) catB catC num
#> -1.8536 -0.7332 -2.5869 0.8299
lm(y^{-}. - num, data=Z) $coef # use . to include all, then remove some
#> (Intercept) catB catC
#> -0.6087 0.9266 0.7328
```

2.1 model.matrix()

Behind the scenes, lm() is calling the function model.matrix() to construct the *model matrix* (also known as a *design matrix*). The model matrix is the real valued X matrix used for calculating the coefficients. You have to pass a formula object into model.matrix().

```
fmla = formula(y~num+cat)
model.matrix(fmla, data=Z)
#> (Intercept) num catB catC
```

```
#> 1
     1 1 0
#> 2
          1 2 0
#> 3
          1 3 1
                      0
#> 4
          1 4 1 0
#> 5
          1 5 0 1
#> 6 1 6 0 1
#> attr(, "assign")
#> [1] 0 1 2 2
#> attr(, "contrasts")
#> attr(, "contrasts") $cat
#> [1] "contr.treatment"
fmla = formula(y~num+cat-1) # remove intercept
model.matrix(fmla, data=Z)
#> num catA catB catC
#> 1 1 0 0
#> 2 2 1 0 0
#> 3 3 0 1 0
#> 4 4 0 1 0
#> 5 5 0 0 1
#> 6 6 0 0 1
#> attr(, "assign")
#> [1] 1 2 2 2
#> attr(, "contrasts")
#> attr(, "contrasts") $cat
#> [1] "contr.treatment"
```

Or, if you are good with data manipulation construct the model matrix manually.

Some functions (e.g., glmnet) do not take formulas so you will have to pass in the model matrix X directly. Another word of caution, some functions (again like glmnet) add the intercept automatically so you should not include a columns of ones.

The function lm.fit() fits a linear model from a model matrix:

2.2 Comparison

It is always good to compare the approaches just to make sure there are no mistakes.

```
fmla = formula(y~num+cat + I(num^2) + sqrt(num))
#- lm()
beta.lm = lm(fmla, data=Z)$coef

#- lm.fit()
X = model.matrix(fmla, data=Z)
beta.lmfit = lm.fit(X, Z$y)$coef

#- direct matrix operations
beta.eq = solve(t(X) %*% X) %*% t(X) %*% Z$y
# solve(crossprod(X), crossprod(X, Z$y)) # Alternative
#- output
tibble(beta.lm, beta.lmfit, beta.eq)
```

| beta.lm | beta.lmfit | beta.eq |
|----------|------------|----------|
| -14.1974 | -14.1974 | -14.1974 |
| -10.9976 | -10.9976 | -10.9976 |
| 0.5629 | 0.5629 | 0.5629 |
| -1.2136 | -1.2136 | -1.2136 |
| 0.6875 | 0.6875 | 0.6875 |
| 23.4996 | 23.4996 | 23.4996 |

3 Appendix: tidymodels

Using the recipe package (part of tidymodels), we can create model matrices.

```
library(tidymodels) # load tidymodels (and recipe package)

#: create a `recipe`
rec = recipe(
   y ~ cat + num,  # the formula specifies the variables (outcome and predictor)
   data = Z  # the data object provides the variables types
) %>%
   step_dummy(all_nominal_predictors())
```

Notes:

- 1. The formula specifies the variables (y is the outcome variable, cat and num are the predictor variables).
- 2. The data provides the variable types. The entire data isn't necessary, I could have used head (Z) to limit the amount of data passed around (this is only a concern for large data).
- 3. The step_XX() functions add transformations. In this case, we used step_dummy() to create dummy variables for *all nominal predictor variables*.

The last step requires prep() and bake(). The prep() step determines the number and name of the new dummy columns. The bake() function, which takes new_data will apply the transformations to the data. While this seems a bit verbose for this simple setting, the benefits will be more apparent when we start more complex modeling.