

## A Comparative Analysis of Pandas vs. Academics

Pandas are a species of animals whose survival depends on conservation efforts by government agencies. Similarly, Academics are a sub-species with debatable value to society. Here now is an analytic comparison of the two endangered animals:

	<u>Pandas</u>	<u>Academics</u>
Moves slowly:	✓	✓
Sleeps during daytime:	✓	✓
Has permanent dark shadows under their eyes:	✓	✓
Generally avoids reproduction:	✓	✓
Society keeps them around because they're:	Very cute	Somewhat astute

EDUC 7610

## Chapter 4

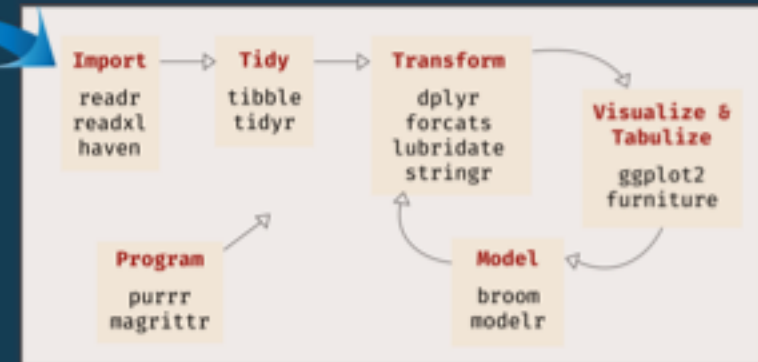
# Statistical Inference

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Select sample  
Run experiment (optional)  
Obtain Data



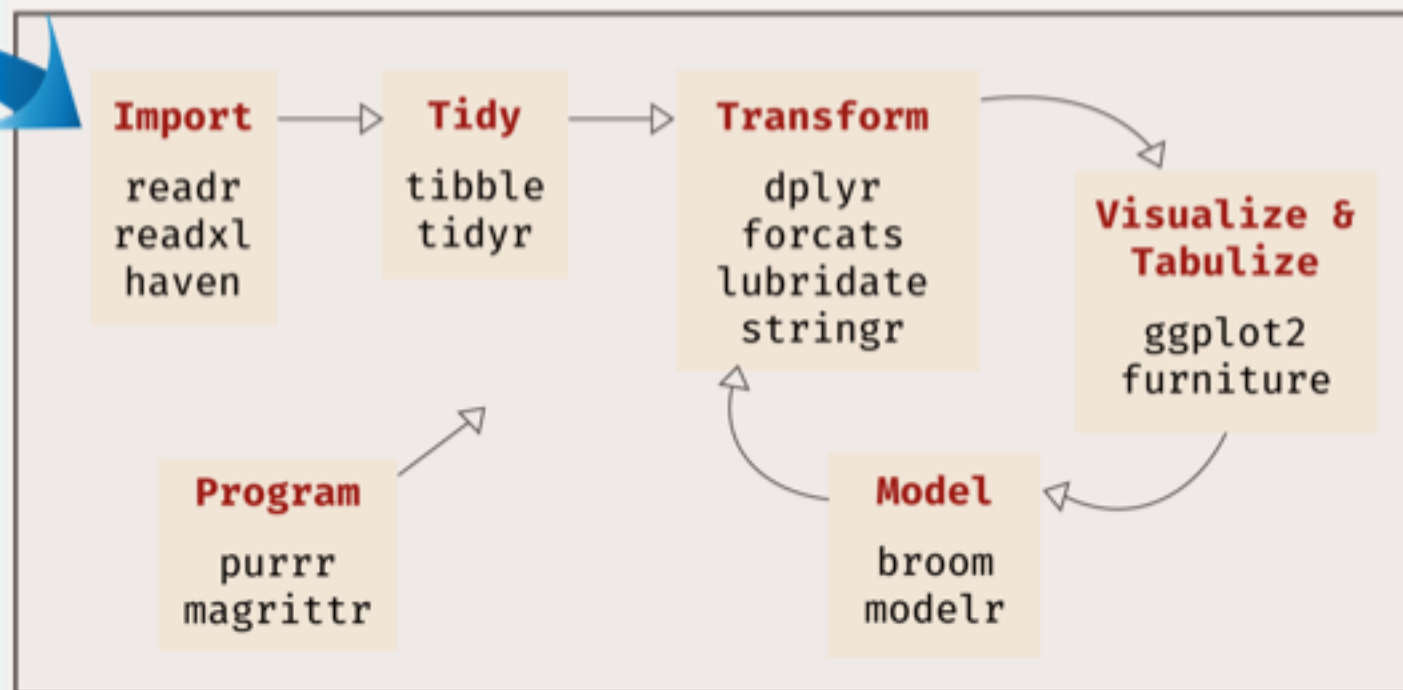
Work with  
Understand the Data  
Communicate

# The Whole Idea

All can be done in R



Select sample  
Run experiment (optional)  
Obtain Data



Work with  
Understand the Data  
Communicate

# Why Statistical Inference?

So far, we've used regression just to describe our sample

But our goal is to understand the population, not just our sample

There is a “true” value out there in the population

- *But we don't have access to it (unless we use a census)*



So we estimate it using our sample



# Why Statistical Inference?

Is our sample going to be exactly identical to the population we pulled it from?



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## Sampling Variance (Error)

Causes uncertainty in our estimates

# To infer about the population, we need to make some **assumptions**

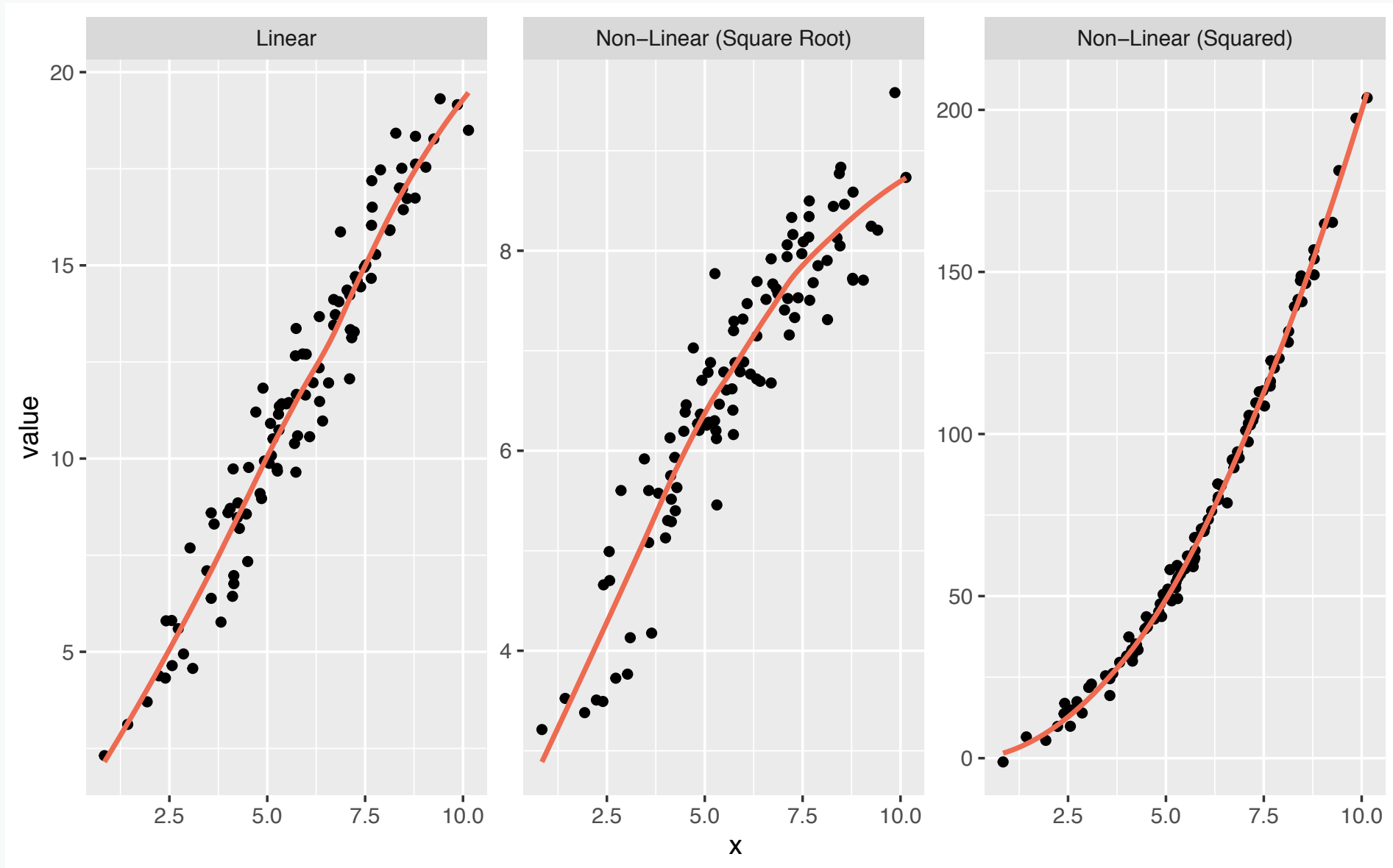
**1** **Linearity** – the relationship between outcome and predictors is approx. linear

**2** **Homoscedasticity** – the conditional distributions of  $Y$  have equal variances

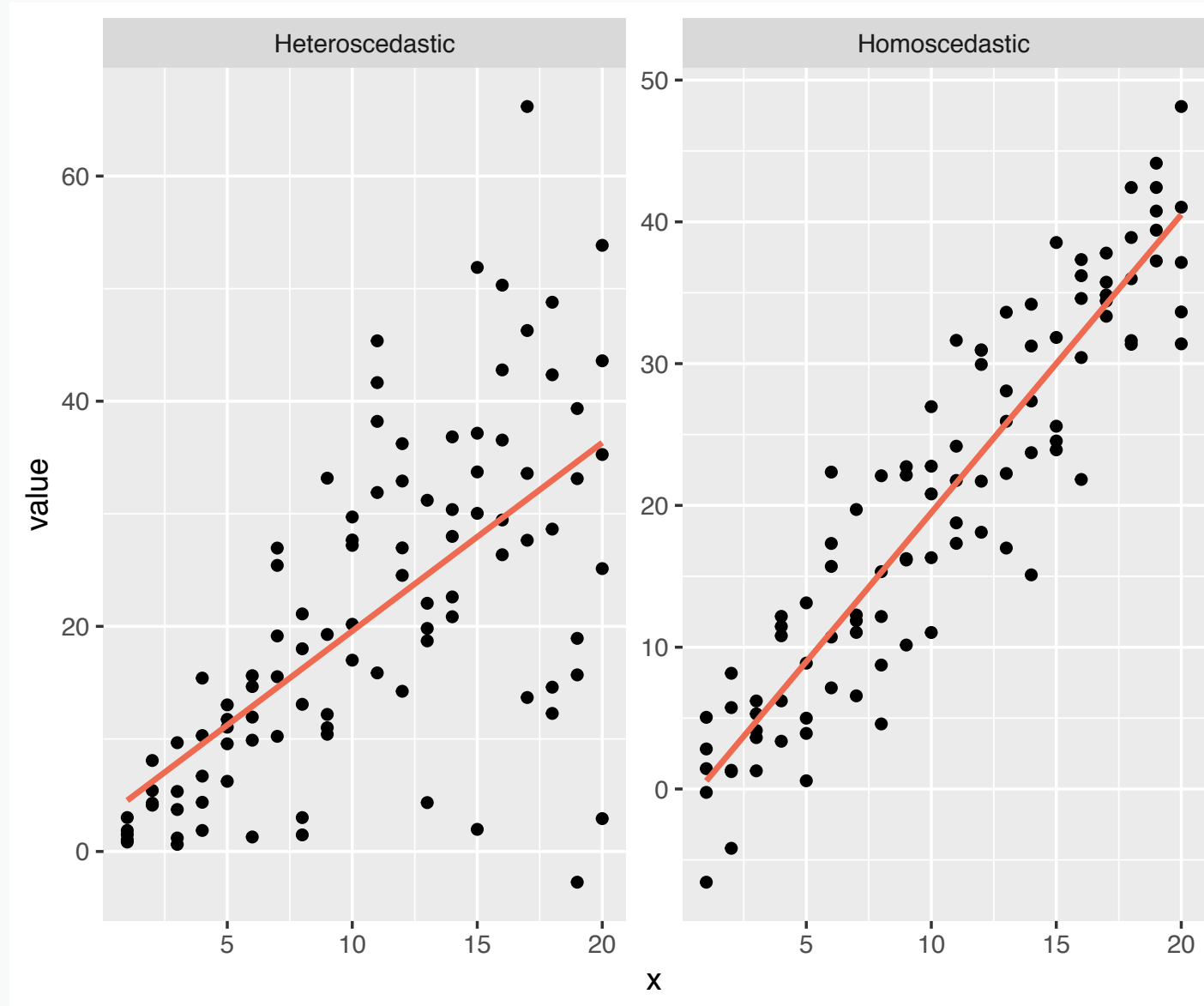
**3** **Conditional Distribution of  $Y$**  – is normally distributed

**4** **Independent Sampling** – each member of our sample is independent of the other members

# Linearity



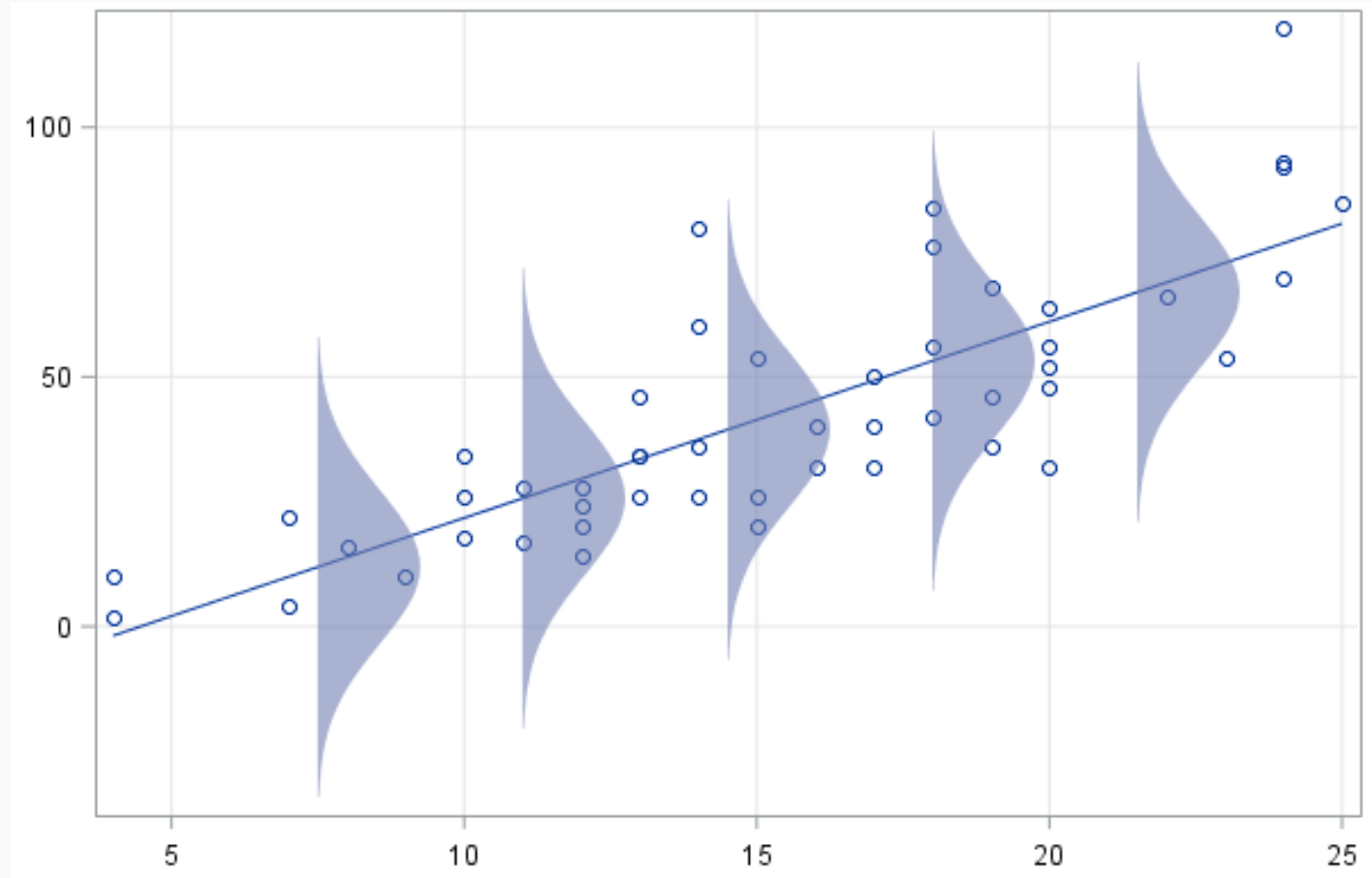
# Homoscedasticity



# Conditional Distribution of Y

At each point of  $x$ , there is an assumed **normal distribution** around the line

**Central Limit Theorem** helps us here (samples above 30 don't rely on this assumption as much)





# Independent Sampling

Each member of our sample (e.g., person, class, animal) must be independent of the others

- No influence from one member to another

Name some situations where this would be violated

*When this is violated, we can use multilevel modeling techniques*

# What about **violations** of these assumptions?

**1** **Linearity** – if this is violated we can try different specifications (e.g., square or square root of a predictor); otherwise, violating this is disastrous

**2** **Homoscedasticity** – can mess with your standard errors; can use special estimators (sandwich estimator, robust SEs)

**3** **Conditional Distribution of Y** – often not too bad in larger samples

**4** **Independent Sampling** – can sometimes really mess up your results (simpson's paradox); use multilevel modeling to fix

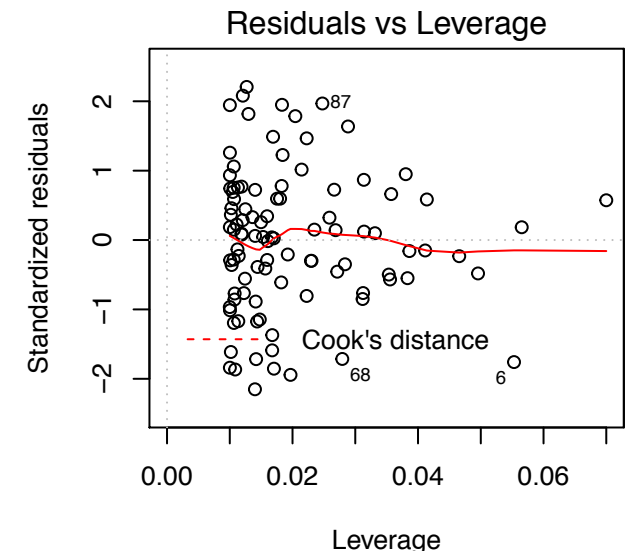
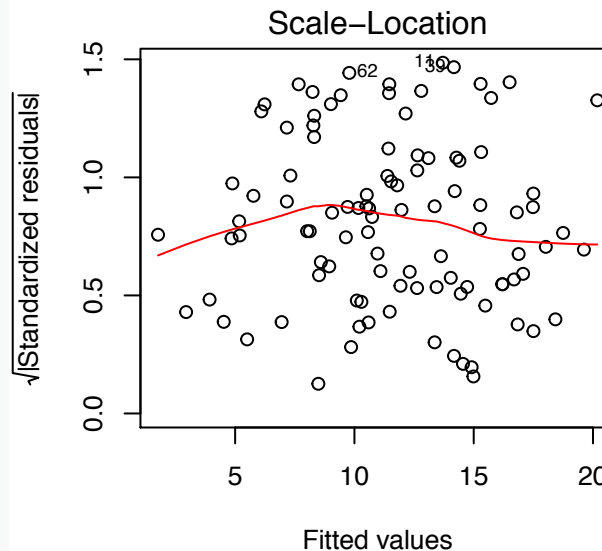
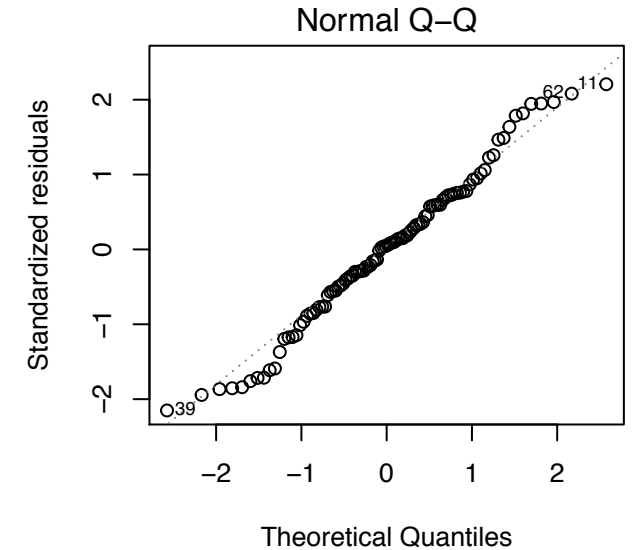
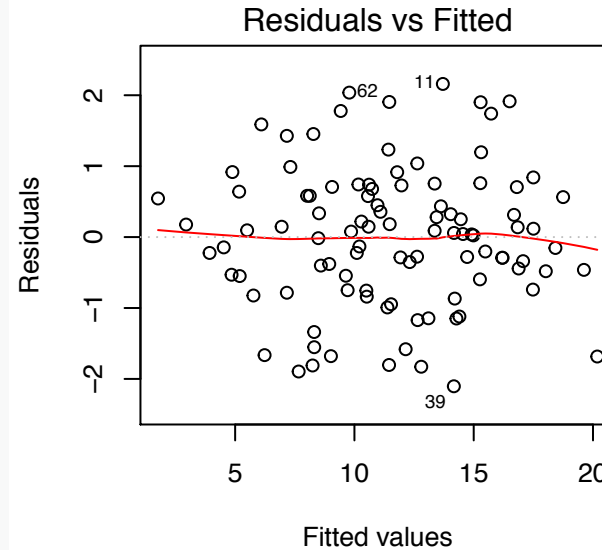


# Assumptions and Residuals

All of the assumptions can be framed in terms of the residuals

Residuals are normal, homoscedastic, have a mean of zero at all points of  $x$ , and are uncorrelated

*= i.i.d. (independently and identically distributed)*



# Quick Aside about Vocab and Notation

## Expected Value

If we did something a thousand times,  
what value do we expect?

$$E(Y)$$

$$E(b_j)$$

$$E(Y)$$

## Unbiased Estimation

An estimate that arrives at the  
expected value

$$E(Y_i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum Y_i$$

# Quick Aside about Vocab and Notation

Is the following unbiased?

$$E(Y_i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum Y_i + 1$$

No. If we did this many, many times,  
on average we'd be off by 1

Regression is an  
**UNBIASED** estimator  
of the population  
value

We could show this mathematically



# Ordinary Least Squares Regression is B.L.U.E.

It is the most precise  
(the smallest accurate  
standard errors)

**Best** →

**Linear** →

It is a linear model

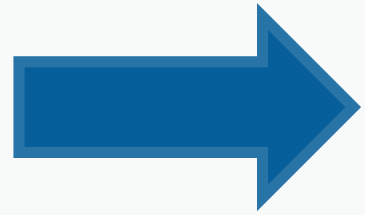
**Unbiased**

It is unbiased (it  
estimates the  
population value)

**Estimator** ←

Everything we are  
doing with regression  
is an estimate

# So what does all this mean?



*Regression provides us with the “best” linear, accurate way to understand a population using a sample*

# Regression Results in ANOVA form

Regression results often are lead by an ANOVA table or information from an ANOVA table

Remember that ANOVA is just a special case of regression?

Source	$SS$	$df$	$MS$	$F$
Regression	$\sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2$	$k$	$SS_{regression} / k$	$MS_{regression} / MS_{residual}$
Residual	$\sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$	$N - k - 1$	$SS_{residual} / (N - k - 1)$	
Total	$\sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$	$N - 1$		

# What do we want to be able to infer?

**1**

**Multiple R (or  $R^2$ )**

**2**

**Regression Coefficients**

**3**

**(Partial) Correlation**

# Inference: Multiple R

This tests the entire model

- Do the predictor(s) together have a relationship with the outcome?
- *Common to discuss the model as a whole before discussing the individual predictors*

Statistic of Interest	Test Statistic	Significance	Example
$R^2$ (or adjusted $R^2$ )	F-statistic $F = \frac{MS_{reg}}{MS_{res}}$	$P < .05$ suggests there is a relationship among the predictor(s) and outcome	The model that included SES explained 30% more of the variance in the outcome and was significantly better ( $p < .001$ )



# Inference: Multiple R

**The Null Hypothesis:** Model is no better than comparison model  
(*either a null model or another "nested" model*)

**The Alternative:** Model is better than comparison

Statistic of Interest	Test Statistic	Significance	Another Example
$R^2$ (or adjusted $R^2$ )	F-statistic $F = \frac{MS_{reg}}{MS_{res}}$	$P < .05$ suggests there is a relationship among the predictor(s) and outcome	The model explained 45% of the variation in the outcome and is significantly better than the null model ( $p = .002$ ).

# Inference: Regression Coefficients

This testing each individual predictor

- Do each predictor have a relationship with the outcome?
- *Most common way of interpreting regression*

Statistic of Interest	Test Statistic	Significance	Example
$b_j$ or $\beta_j$	T-statistic	$P < .05$ suggests there is a relationship among this predictor and the outcome	Controlling for the covariates, for a one unit increase in SES, there is an associated decrease of $b_1$ in the outcome ( $p = .03$ ).

# Inference: Regression Coefficients

This testing each individual predictor

- Do each predictor have a relationship with the outcome?
- *Most common way of interpreting regression*

We do the same tests for the standardized coefficients as well (just with standardized variables instead of the raw ones)

# Inference: Regression Coefficients

This testing each individual predictor

- Do each predictor have a relationship with the outcome?
- *Most common way of interpreting regression*

Statistic of Interest	Test Statistic	Significance	Example
$b_j$ or $\beta_j$	T-statistic	$P < .05$ suggests there is a relationship among this predictor and the outcome	Controlling for the covariates, for a one SD increase in SES, there is an associated decrease of $b_1$ SDs in the outcome ( $p = .03$ ).

# Inference: Regression Coefficients

## Important Pieces of the Coefficients

- *The Estimate*
- *The Standard Error of the Estimate*
  - *Testing the null hypothesis*
  - *Confidence Intervals*

# Inference: Regression Coefficients

## The Estimate

Simple

$$b_j = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{Var(X)}$$

Multiple

$$\text{all } b_j\text{'s} = (X'X)^{-1} X'Y$$

# Inference: Regression Coefficients

## The Standard Error

$$SE(b_j) = \sqrt{\frac{MS_{residual}}{(N) Var(X_j) (1 - R_j^2)}}$$

estimate of variance of the residuals

Sample size used in analysis

Variance of that predictor





$R_j^2$  here is the  $R^2$  from the model with all variables but  $j$   
this is called the *tolerance*

# Inference: Regression Coefficients

## The Standard Error

$$SE(b_j) = \sqrt{\frac{MS_{residual}}{(N) Var(X_j) (1 - R_j^2)}}$$

What increases the SE?

	$MS_{residual}$		$Var(X_j)$
	$N$		$(1 - R_j^2)$



# Inference: Regression Coefficients

$$(1 - R_j^2)$$

= The Tolerance of  $X_j$

A measure of the *independence* of  $X_j$  from the other predictors (i.e., measures the *collinearity*)

- When  $\text{Tol} = 0$ , there is perfect collinearity
- When  $1 > \text{Tol} > 0$ , there is some correlation between predictors
- When  $\text{Tol} = 1$ , there is no correlation at all between predictors

# Inference: Regression Coefficients

$$(1 - R_j^2)$$

= The Tolerance of  $X_j$

A measure of the *independence* of  $X_j$  from the other predictors (i.e., measures the *collinearity*)

$$\text{Variance Inflation Factor}_j = \frac{1}{1 - R_j^2}$$

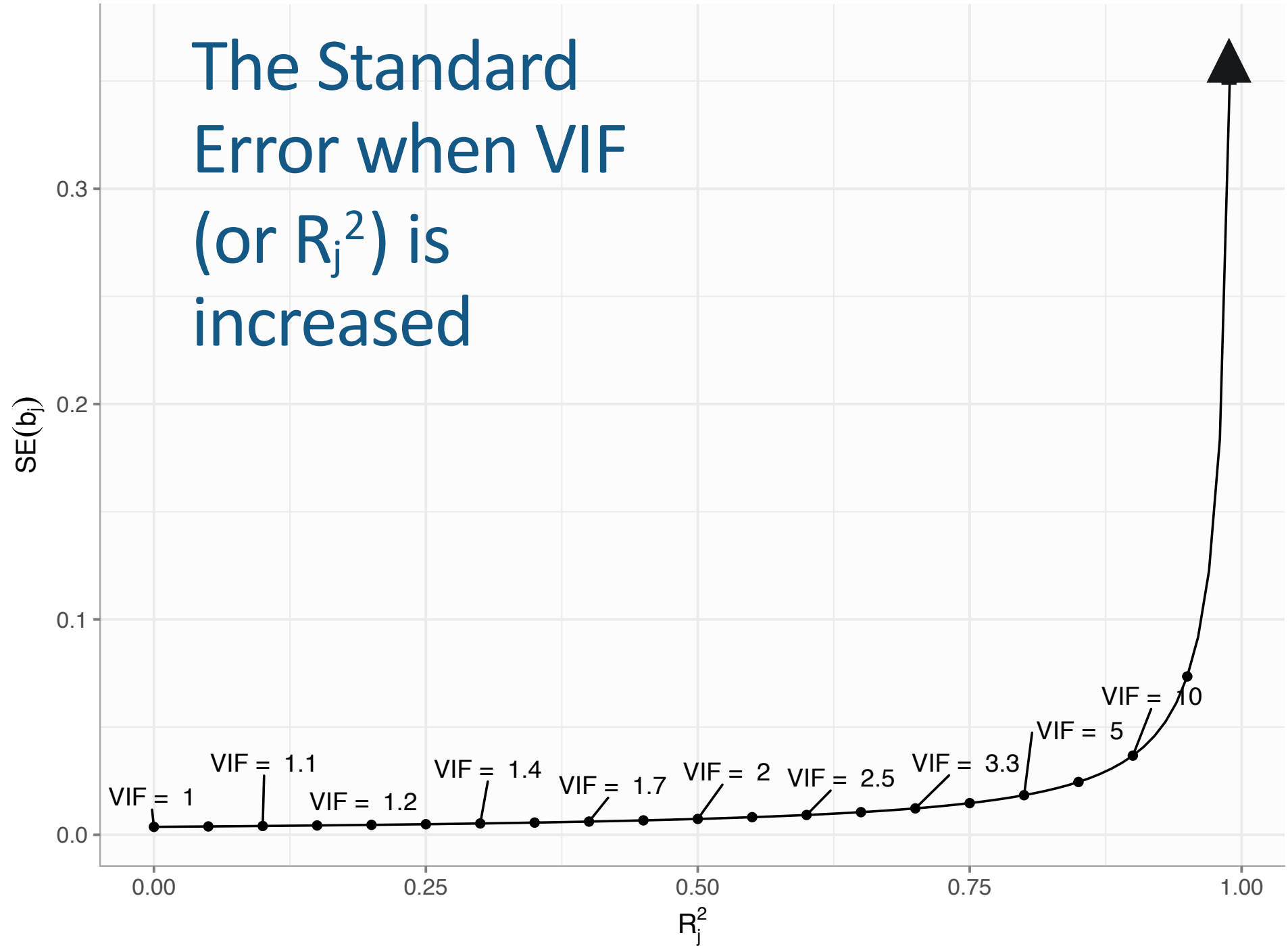
# Inference: Regression Coefficients

## The Standard Error

$$SE(b_j) = \sqrt{\frac{MS_{residual}}{(N) Var(X_j) (1 - R_j^2)}}$$

$$SE(b_j) = \sqrt{VIF_j} * \sqrt{\frac{MS_{residual}}{(N) Var(X_j)}}$$

The Standard Error when VIF (or  $R_j^2$ ) is increased



# Inference: Regression Coefficients

Using the Standard Error we can now do two important things

Null Hypothesis Test

$$t = \frac{b_j - \text{null value of } b_j}{SE(b_j)}$$

Confidence Interval

$$CI = b_j \pm t_{\alpha/2} * SE(b_j)$$

*Using either we can test the null hypothesis and make inferences about the population*

# Inference: Partial Correlation

This testing each individual predictor

- Do each predictor have a relationship with the outcome?
- *Less common but still used*
- Directly tied to the t for  $b_j$ 
  - *Just in different units (or in this case, no units)*
- Less **robust** if not testing if  $H_0 = 0$  (requires bivariate normality)



The ability for a method to give accurate results  
even when assumptions don't hold

# Inference: Partial Correlation

This testing each individual predictor

- Do each predictor have a relationship with the outcome?
- *Less common but still used*

Statistic of Interest	Test Statistic	Significance	Example
$r_{partial}$	T-statistic	P < .05 suggests there is a correlation among this predictor and the outcome	Controlling for the covariates, the correlation between SES and the outcome is $r_{partial}$ .

# Inference: Partial Correlation

**Confidence intervals** are tougher here

- *Since there are bounds (i.e., can't be below 0 or above 1)*

See Page 115 for the steps to obtain this



# Inference: Conditional Means

First thing, let's talk about **centering**

**Centering** a variable means subtracting a centering-value from it

- We can *mean* center
- We can *median* center
- We can center on *any value* we choose

When we do this, it changes the interpretation of the **intercept**

# Inference: Conditional Means

To obtain  $SE(\hat{Y}_G)$  where  $G$  is a specific set of points



Center each variable at that specific set of points

For example, we may want to know the language ability of a child and obtain the confidence interval of that estimate for a someone that is 8 years old and whose mother has 15 years of schooling (some college)

# Some Miscellaneous Issues

1. Collinearity – how bad is it?
2. Contradicting Inferences – is regression lying?
3. Sample size and non-significance – should we remove non-significant predictors?



