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Supplemental Resource: Brain and Cognitive Sciences
Statistics & Visualization for Data Analysis & Inference
January (IAP) 2009

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Statistics and Visualization for Data Analysis and Inference

Mike Frank & Ed Vul

IAP 2009

Classes

1. **Visualization** – how can I see what my data show?
2. **Resampling** – what parts of my data are due to noise?
3. **Distributions** – how do I summarize what I believe about the world?
4. **The Linear Model** – how can I create a simple model of my data?
5. **Bayesian Modeling** – how can I describe the processes that generated my data?

Classes

1. **Visualization** – how can I see what my data show?
2. **Resampling** – what parts of my data are due to noise?
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4. **The Linear Model** – how can I create a simple model of my data?
5. **Bayesian Modeling** – how can I describe the processes that generated my data?

ALL I EVER WANTED TO KNOW ABOUT

THE LINEAR MODEL

BUT WAS AFRAID TO ASK

Outline

1. Introducing the linear model

- the linear model as a model of data
- what it is, how it works, how it's fit
- inc. r^2 , ANOVA, etc

2. A (very) worked example

- india abacus data
- logistic regression
- multi-level/mixed models

Caveats

- Not necessarily Bayesian
 - Not so many priors and likelihoods
 - Though compatible with this approach
- “Model-driven,” instead
 - making assumptions about where data came from
 - checking those assumptions
 - writing down models that fit data

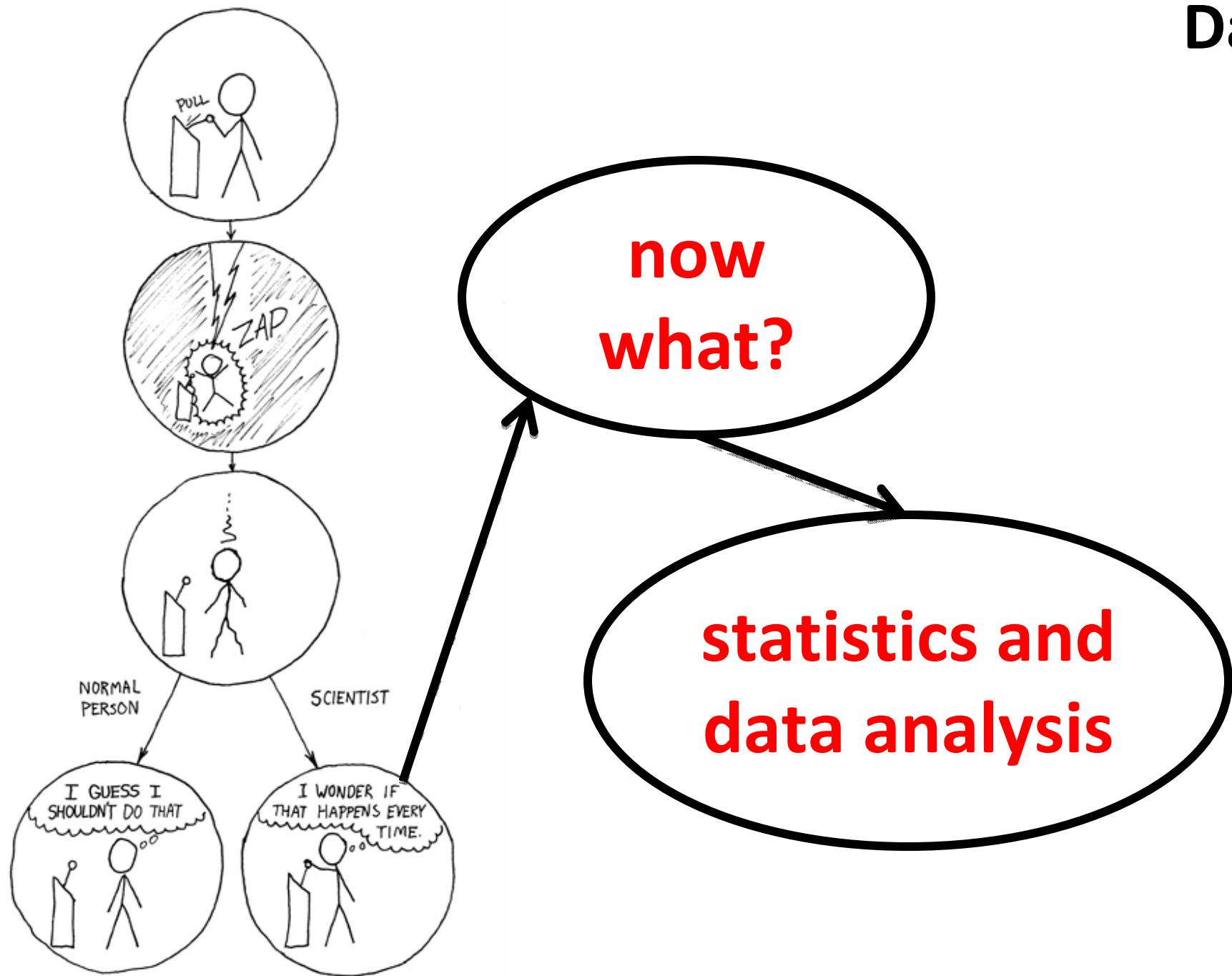
JUST

THE LINEAR MODEL

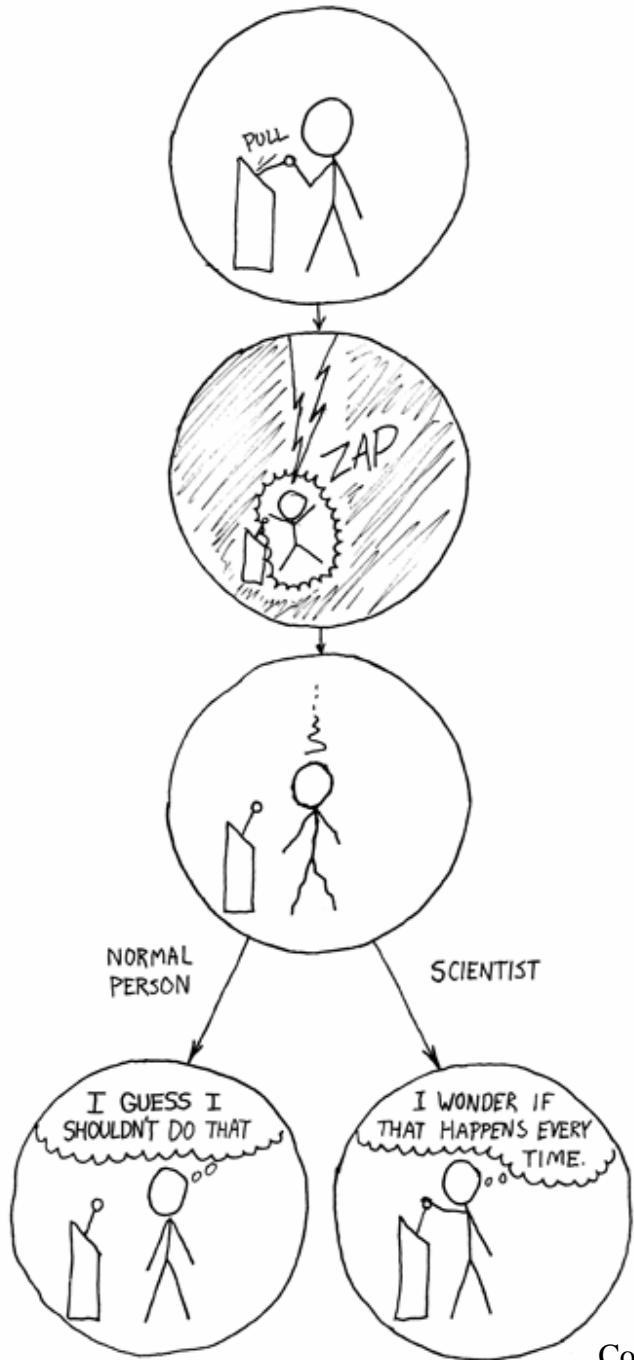
What you will learn

- The linear model is a model of data
 - Consider the interpretation of your model
 - Treat it as a model whose fit should be assessed
- The GLM allows links between linear models and data with a range of distributions
- Multilevel models can be effective tools for fitting data with multiple grains of variation
 - Especially important for subjects/items

Data



Data



with hands

ZAP ZAP ZAP ZAP
ZAP ZAP

with gloves

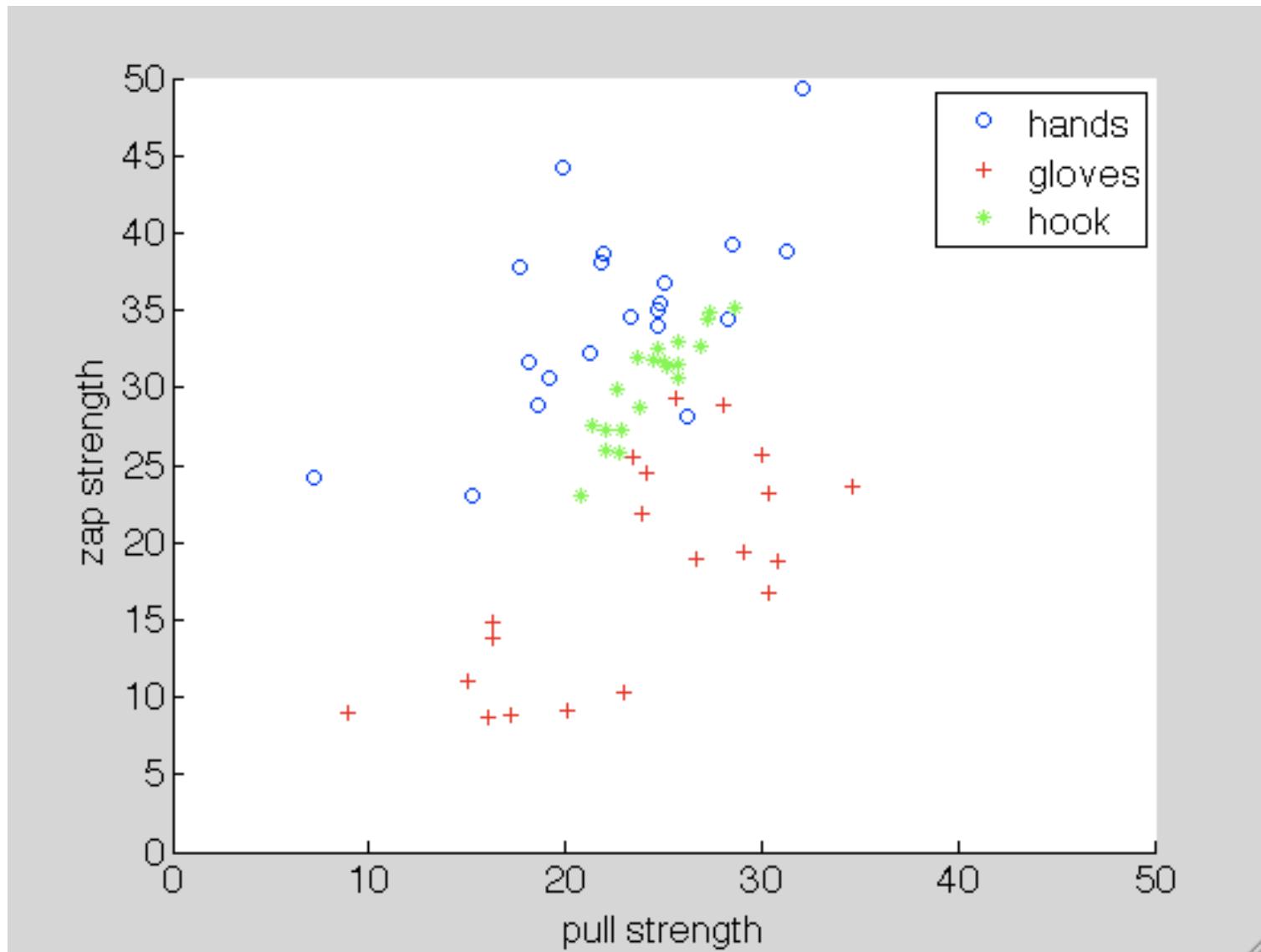
ZAP ZAP ZAP ZAP ZAP
ZAP

with a wooden hook

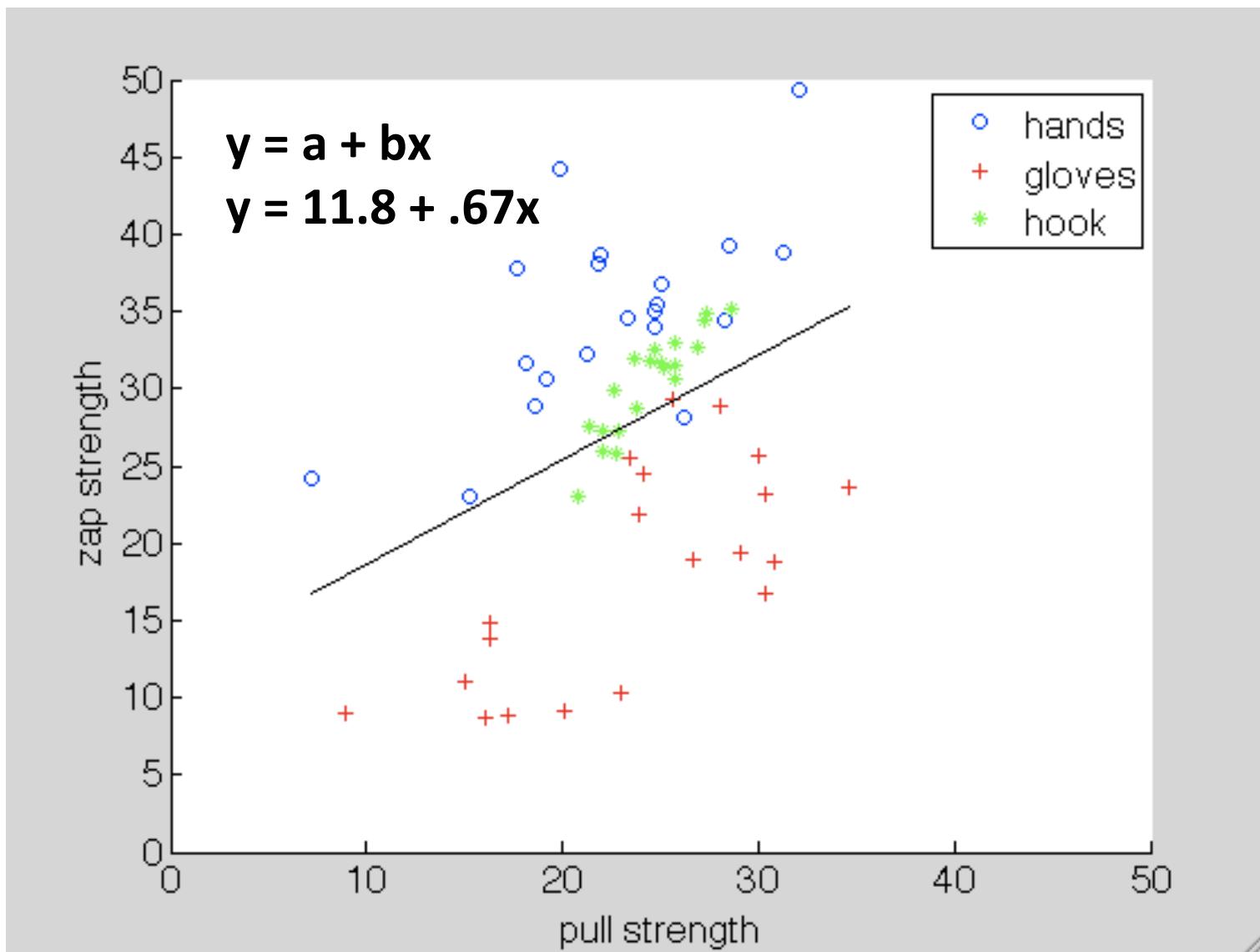
ZAP ZAP ZAP ZAP ZAP

Courtesy of xkcd.org

Plotting the data



Regression, intuitively



Regression, computationally

- Fitting a line to data: $y = a + bx$
- How do we fit it?

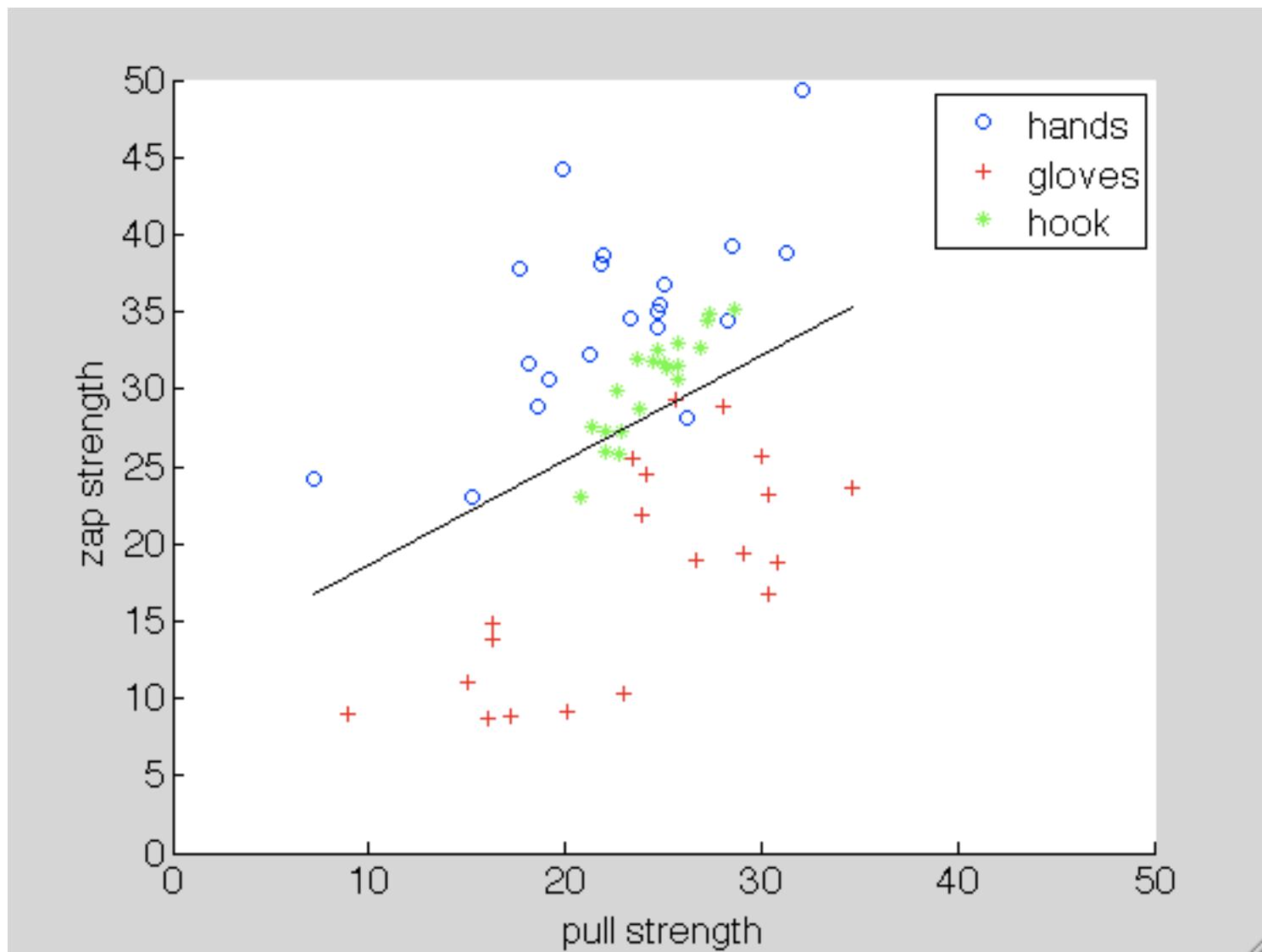
```
all_pulls = [hand_pulls; glove_pulls; hook_pulls];
all_zaps = [hand_zaps; glove_zaps; hook_zaps];

intercept = ones(size(all_pulls));
[b, b_int, r, r_int, stats] = ...
regress(all_zaps,[intercept all_pulls]);

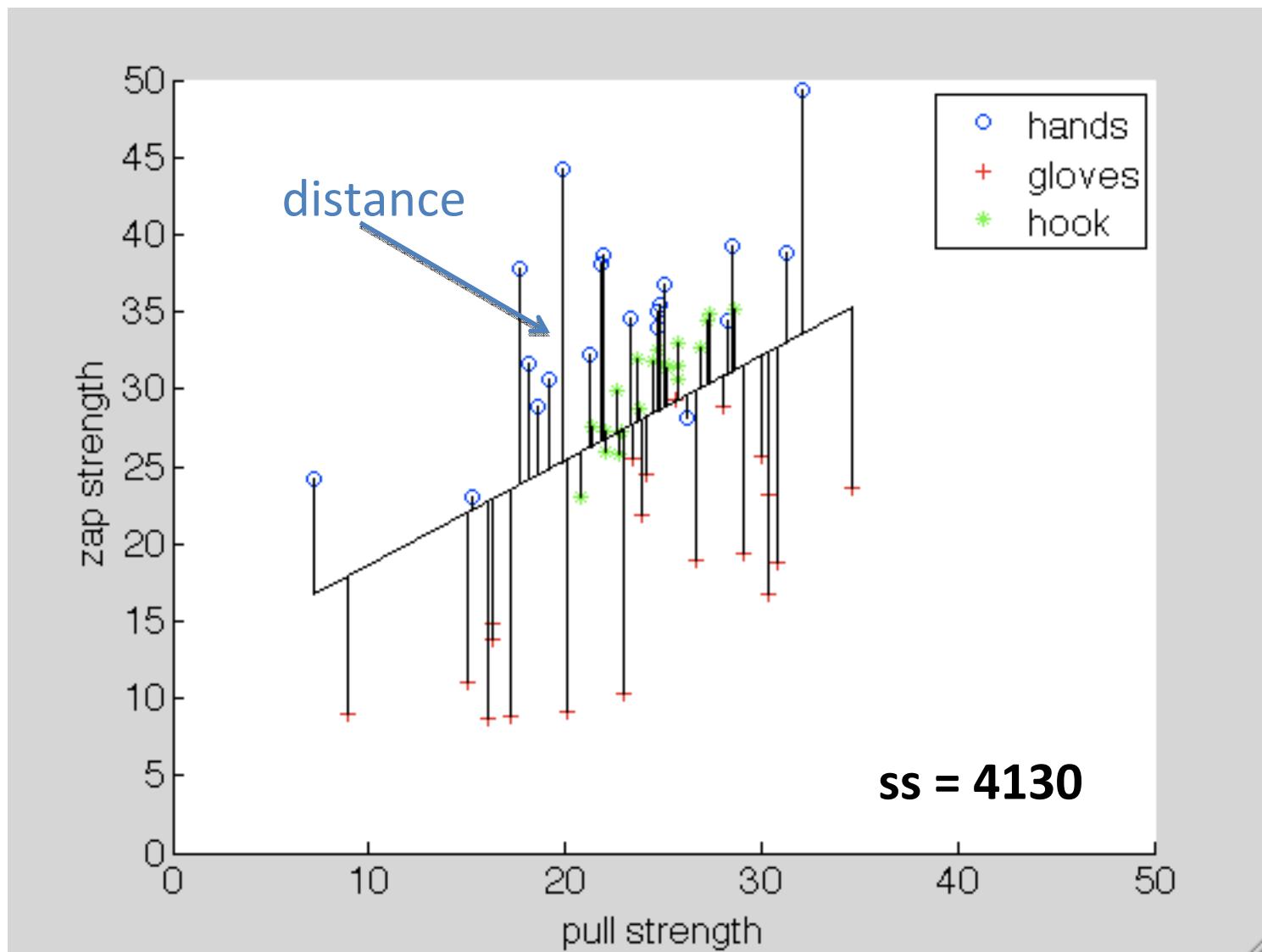
xs = [min(all_pulls) max(all_pulls)];
ys = b(1) + xs*b(2);

line(xs,ys,'Color',[0 0 0])
```

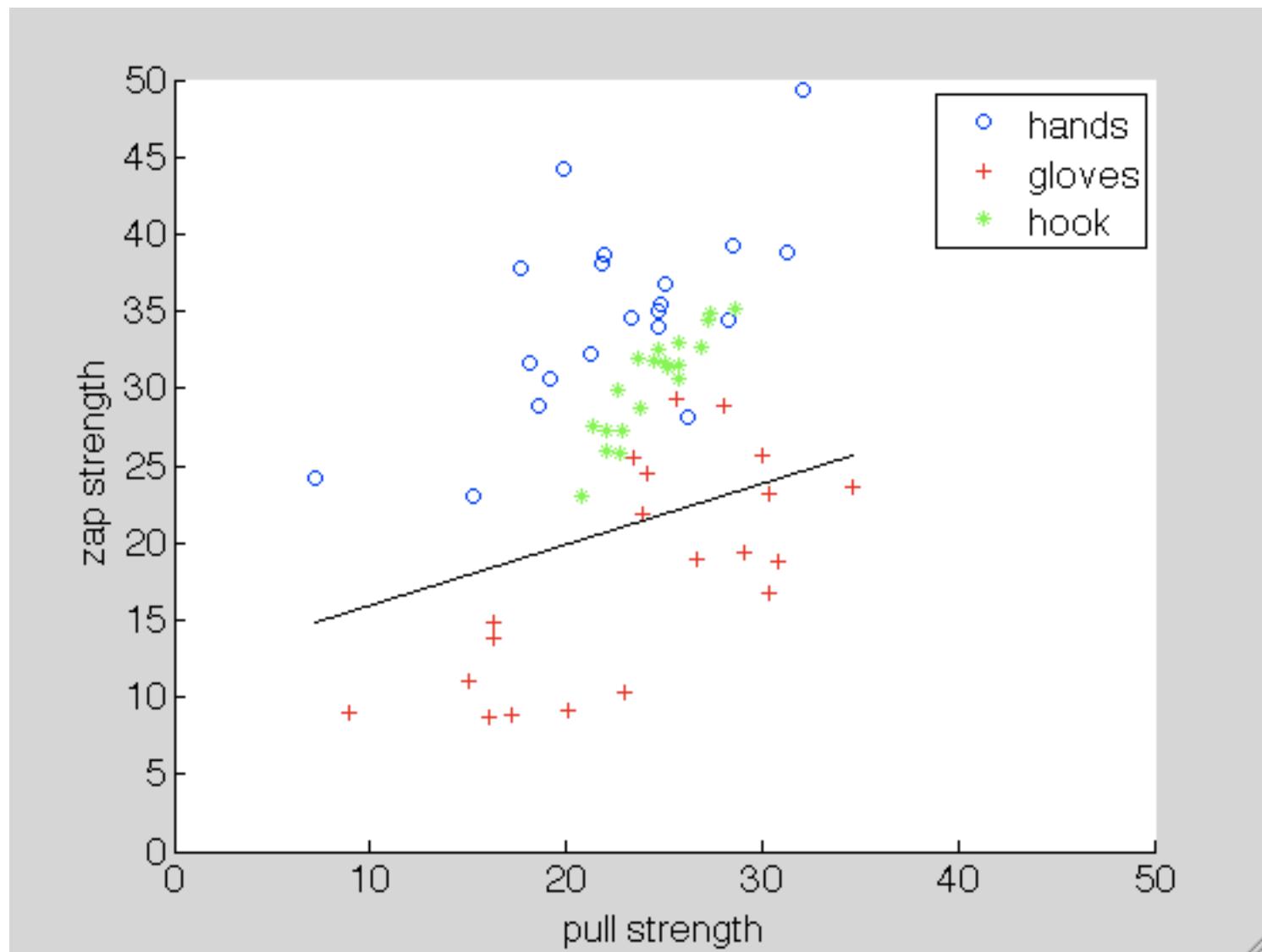
Regression, really



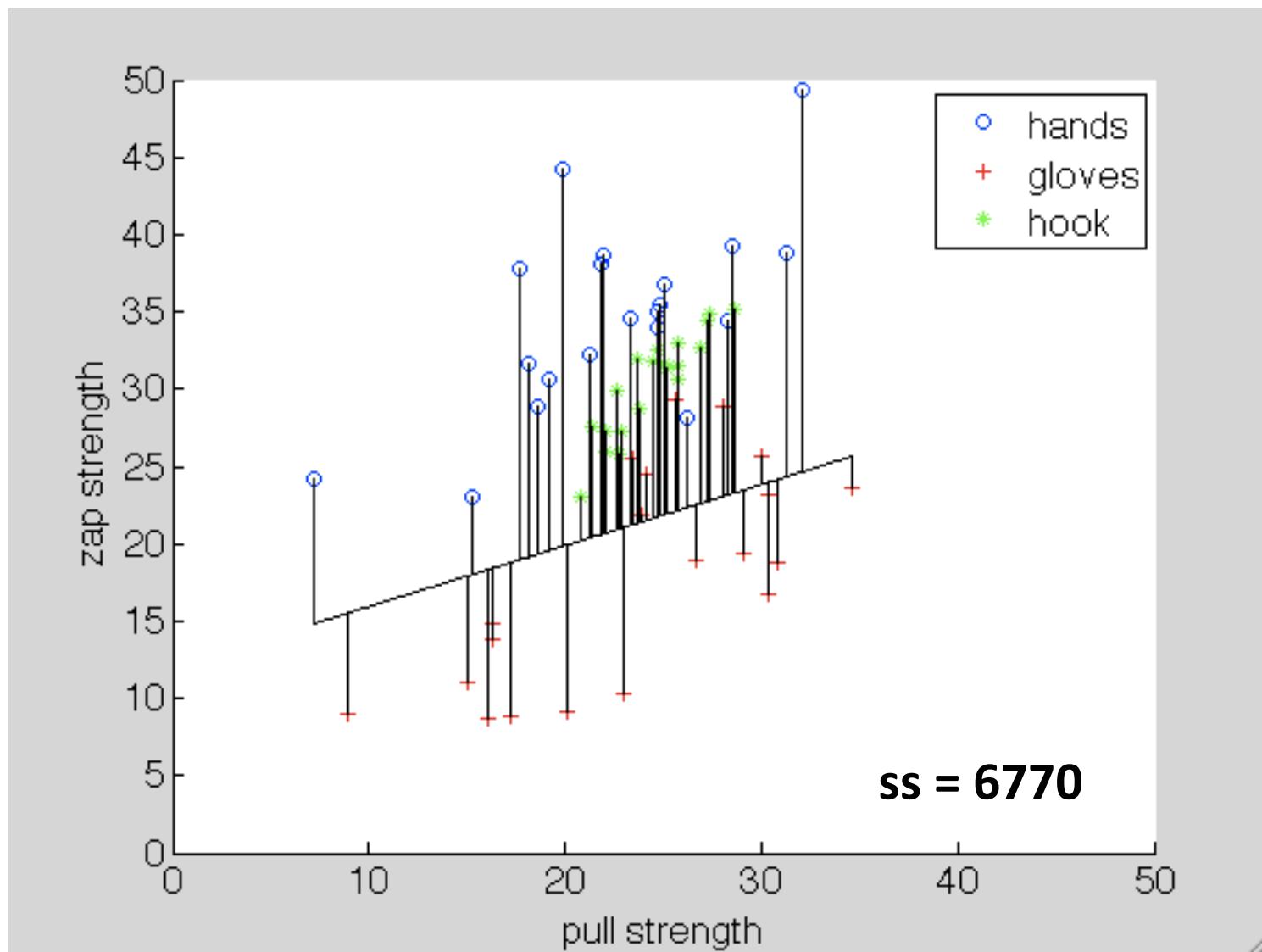
Regression, really



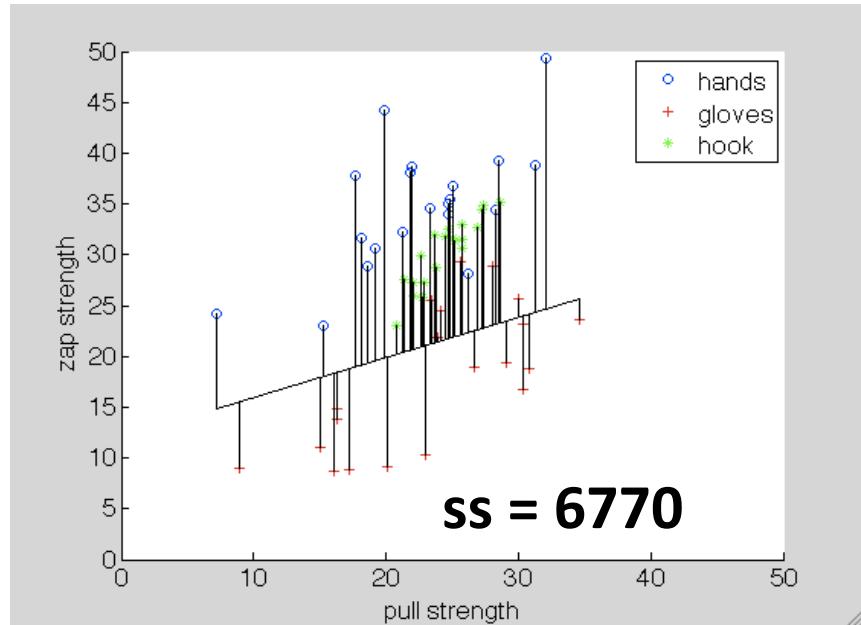
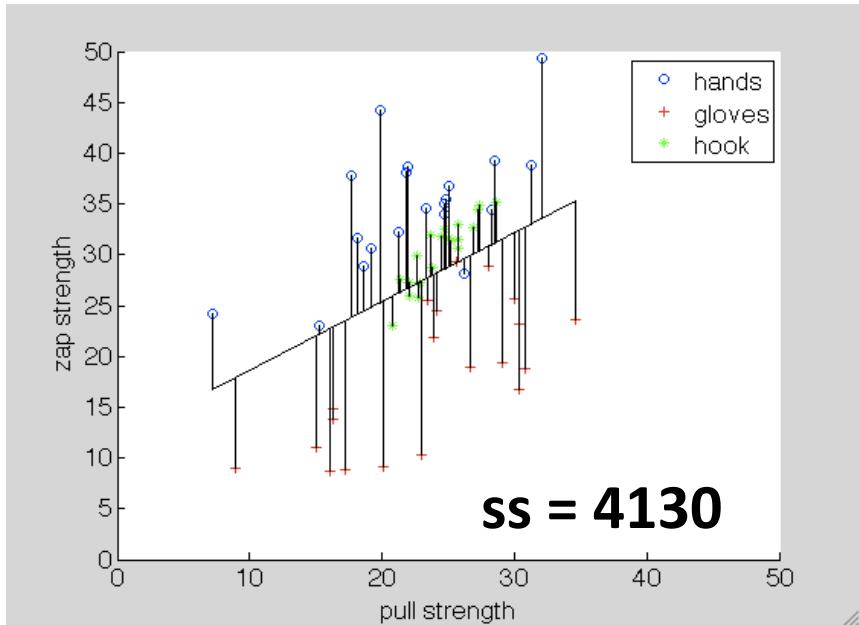
Regression, really



Regression, really



Regression, really

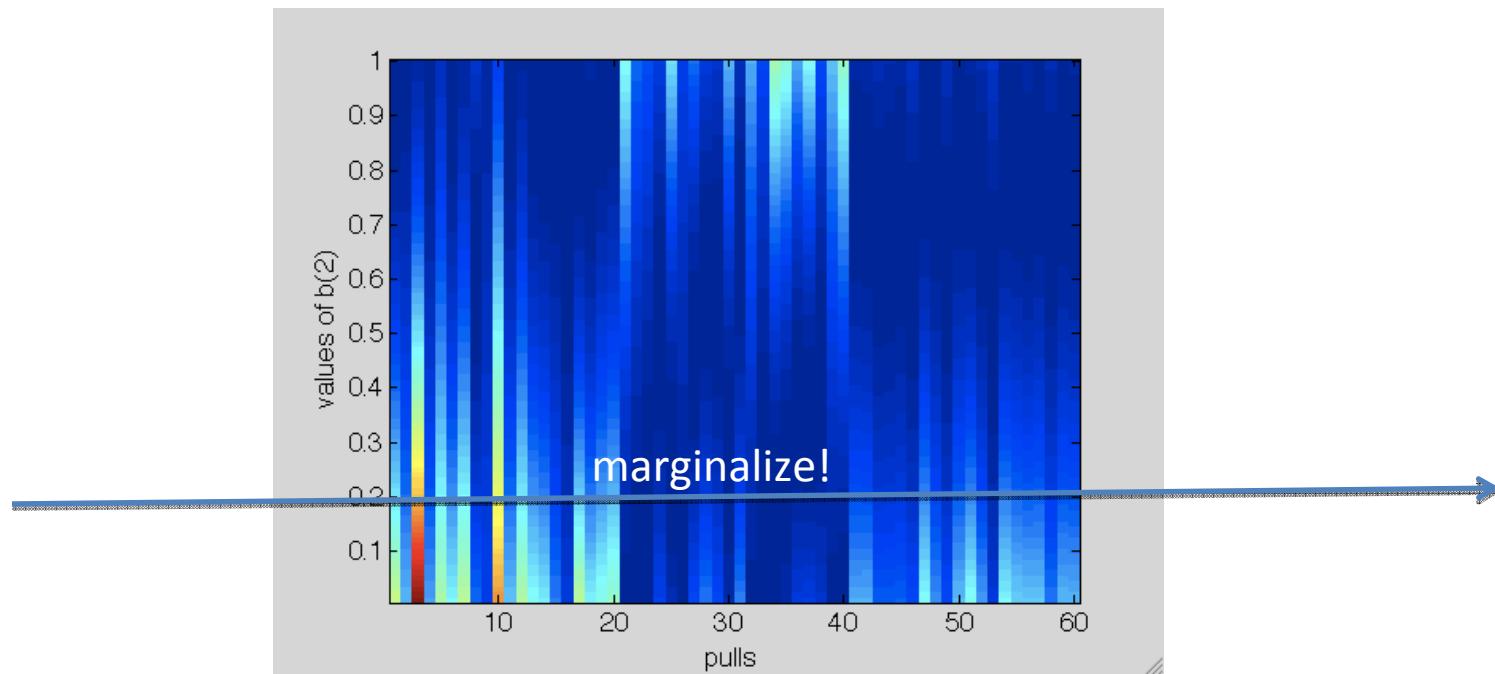


- The principle: minimize summed square error (ss)
- Why ss? We won't get into it.

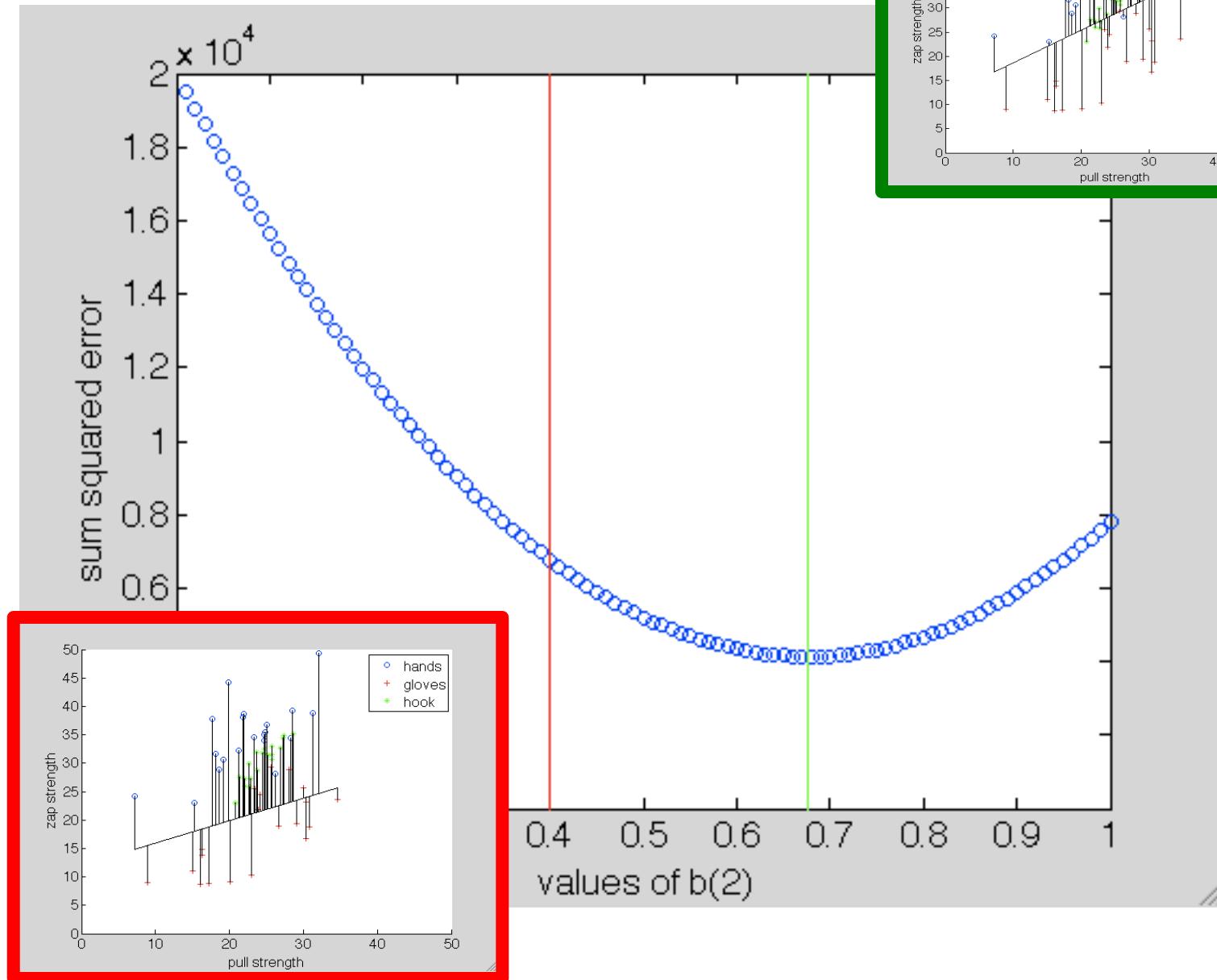
Regression, Ed-style

```
for i = 1:100
    b(i) = i/100;

    for j = 1:length(all_pulls)
        squared_error(i,j) = ...
            (all_zaps(j) - (a +b(i)*all_pulls(j)))^2;
    end
end
```



Regression, Ed-style



You don't actually have to do that

- It turns out to be analytic, so the values of B are given by

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \mathbf{y}$$

- What is sum squared error but a **likelihood function**?
 - Turns out that what we did was “maximum likelihood estimation”

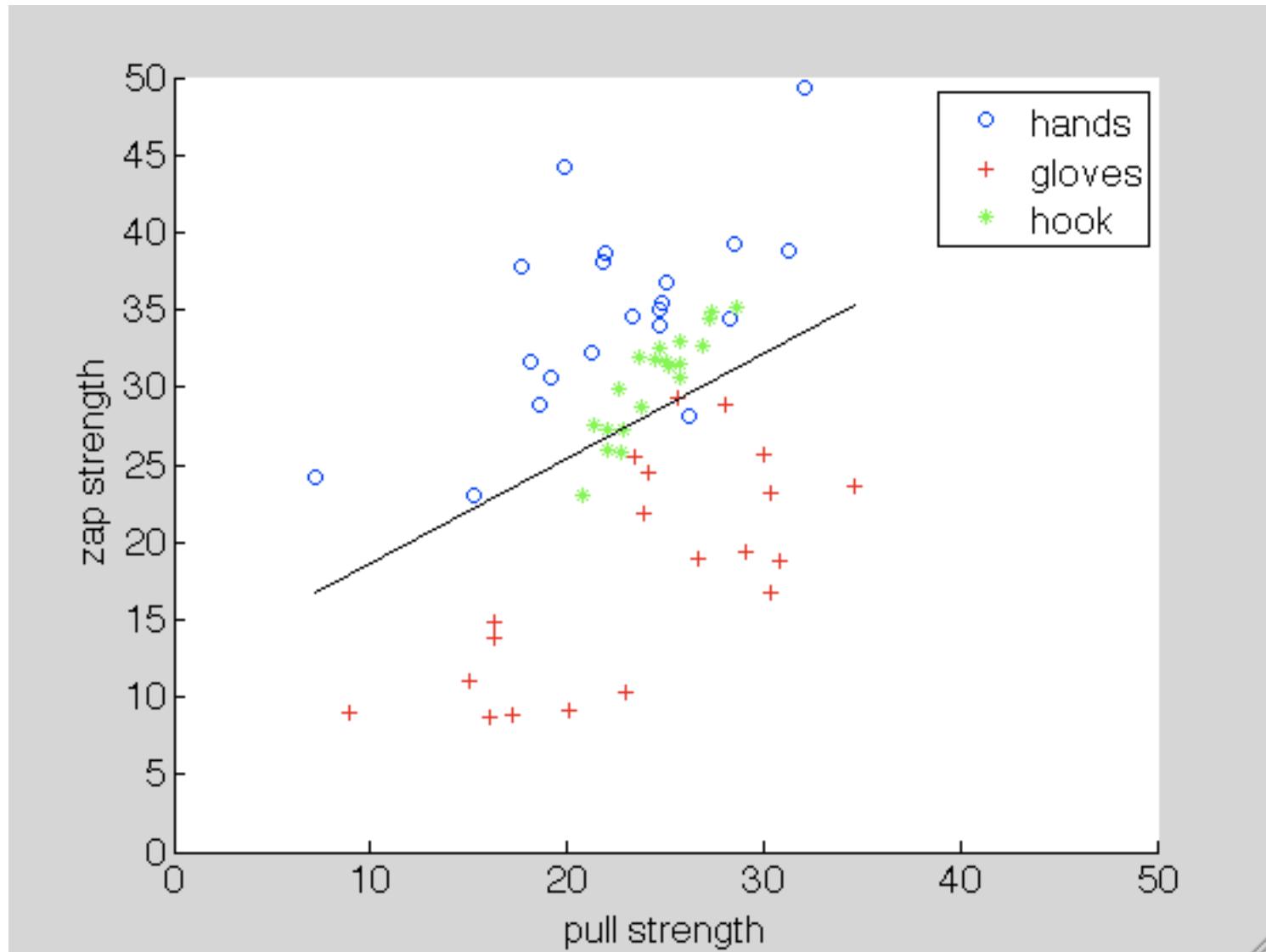
Regression is a model of data

- I've been lying:
 - this error is assumed to be normal
- This is a model of data, in the sense of a **generative process**, a way of generating new data
 - so we can work backwards via Bayes and derive the same likelihood function
 - least squares is (somewhat) Bayesian
 - and we could easily have put a prior on the coefficient if we had wanted to

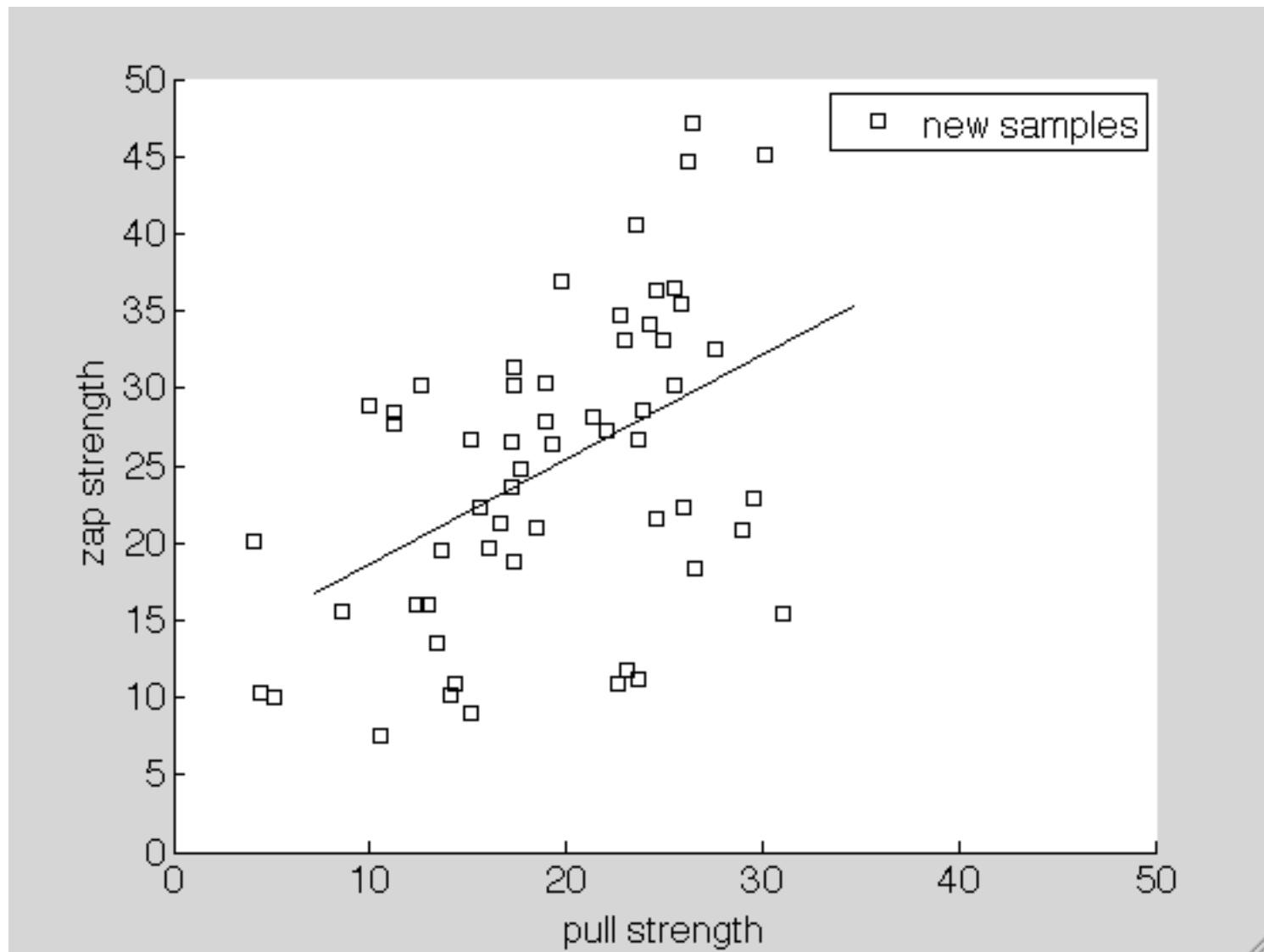
When you have a model...

- Prediction
 - or, in Bayesian language, “forward sampling”
- Interpretation & evaluation
 - interpreting coefficients
 - r^2 (effect size)?
 - residuals
 - coefficient significance
 - ANOVA

Plotting model and data!



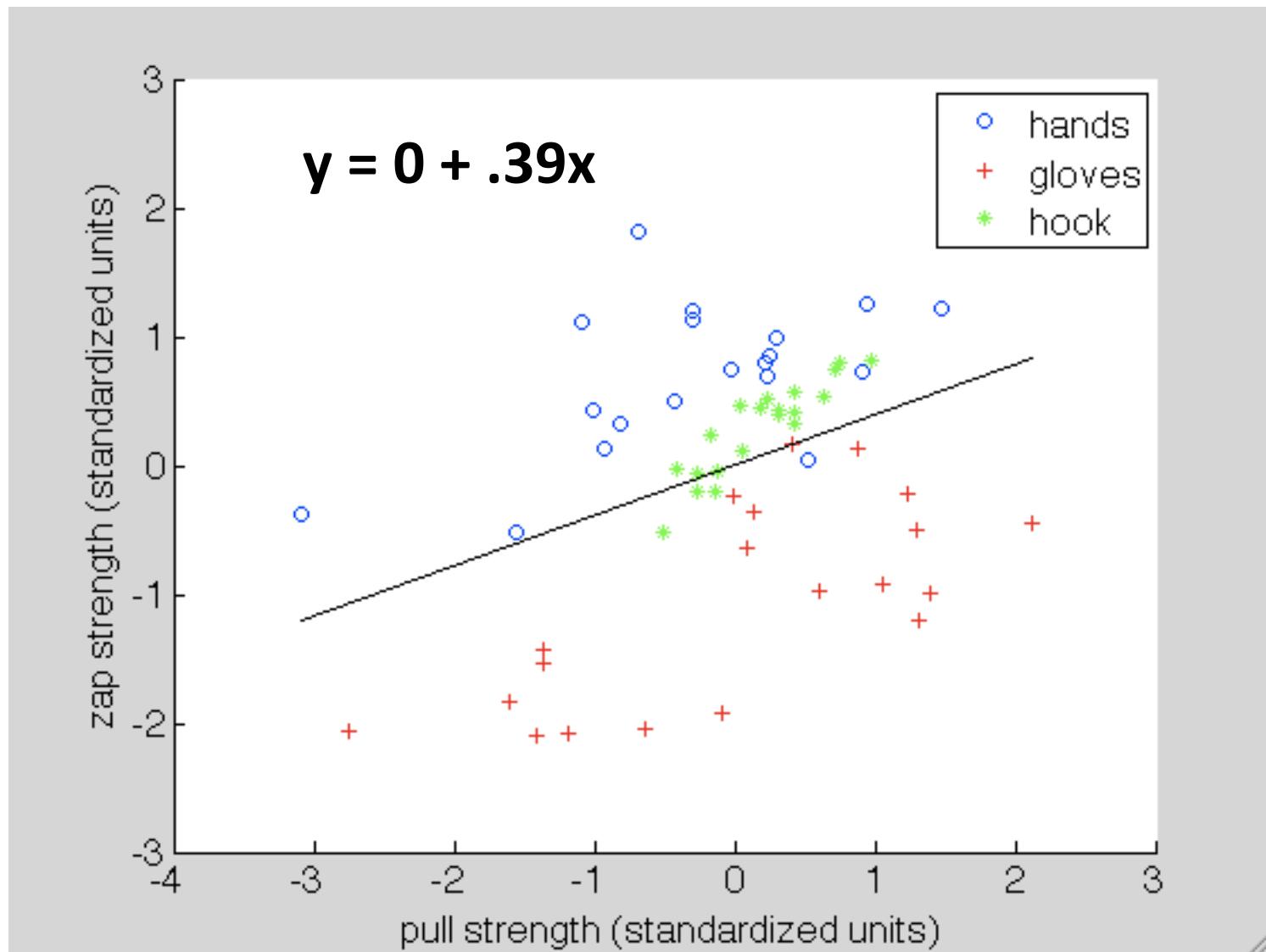
Prediction



Coefficients

- We found:
 - intercept = 11.87
 - So if you didn't pull at all, you'd get a ZAP ?
 - slope = 0.67
 - One unit of pulling strength makes the zap .67pts larger
- Standardizing coefficients
 - It can sometimes be useful to z-score your data so that you can interpret the units of the coefficients
 - z-score: $(X - \text{mean}(X)) / \text{stdev}(X)$

Standardized coefficients



How good is my model?

- In the univariate continuous case, we can compute a correlation coefficient:

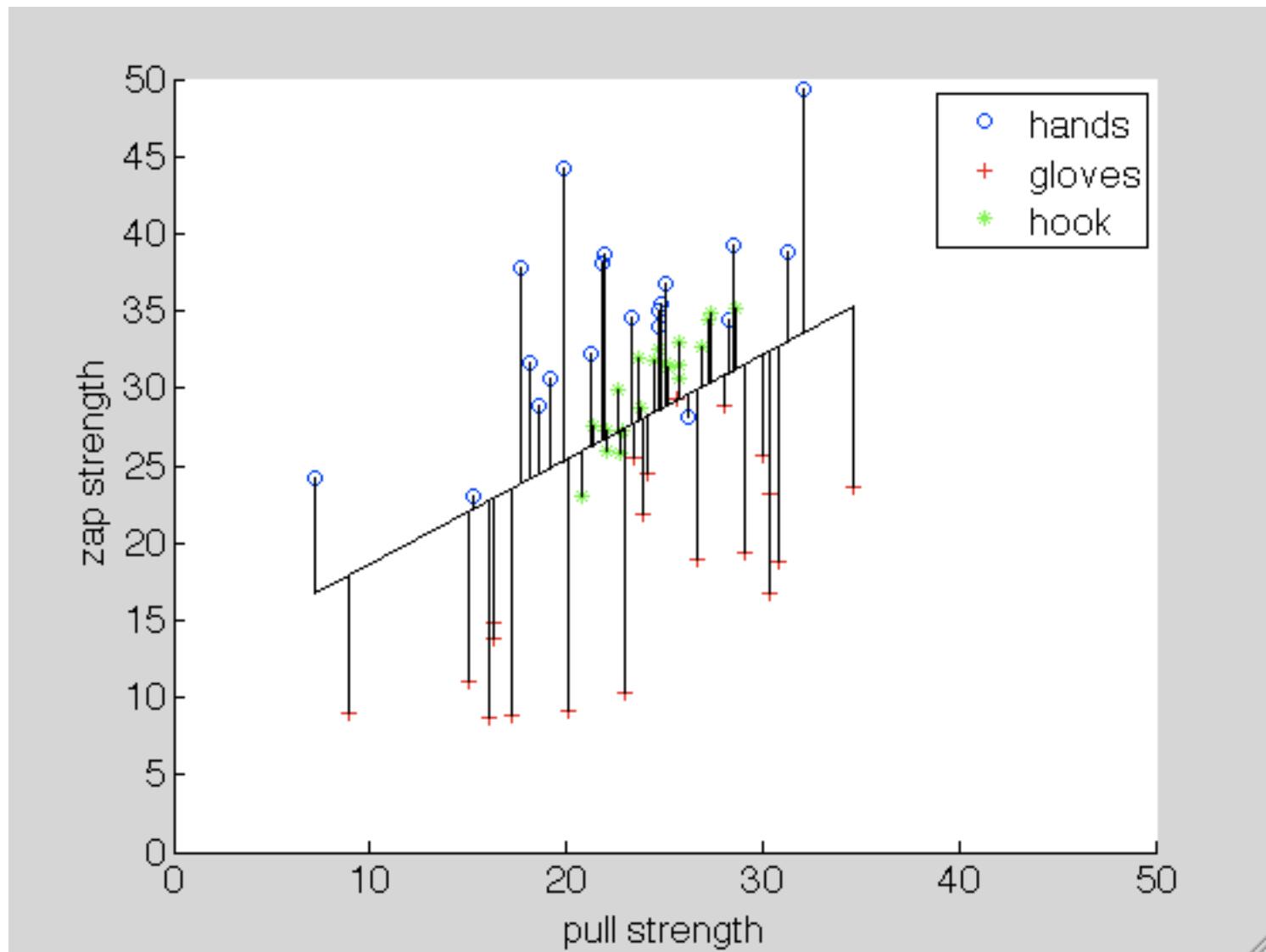
$$\rho_{X,Y} = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{E((X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y))}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y},$$

- And then Pearson's r^2 ("portion of variance explained) is the square of this number
- But more generally:

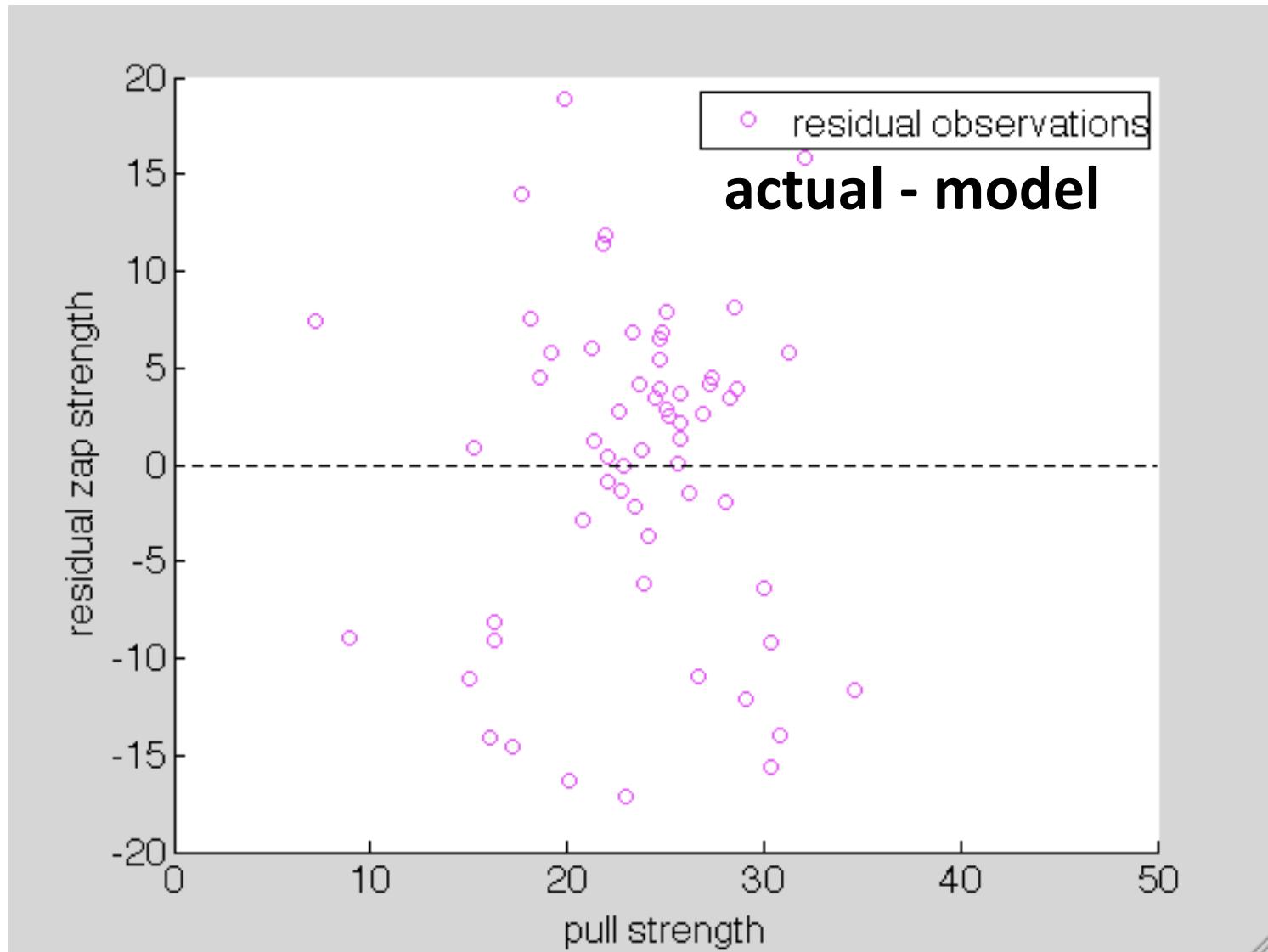
$$R^2 \equiv 1 - \frac{SS_{\text{err}}}{SS_{\text{tot}}}.$$

A diagram illustrating the calculation of R^2 . A large blue triangle represents the total sum of squares (SS_{tot}). Two arrows point from the vertices of this triangle to two smaller triangles below it. One arrow points to the left triangle, which is labeled "sum of squares for the residuals" (SS_{err}). Another arrow points to the right triangle, which is labeled "sum of squares for the data" (SS_{tot}).

Assessing model fit: residuals



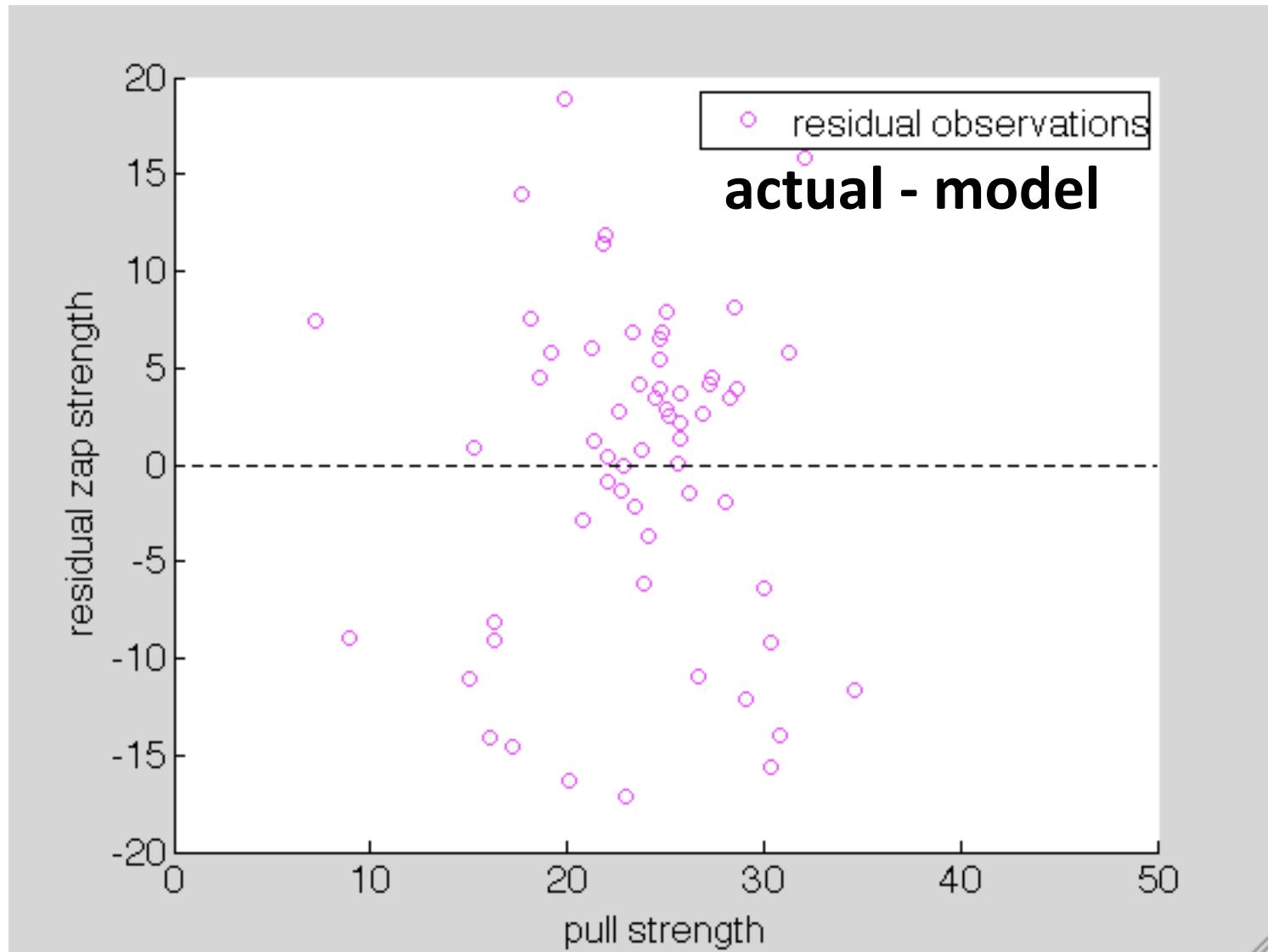
Assessing model fit: residuals



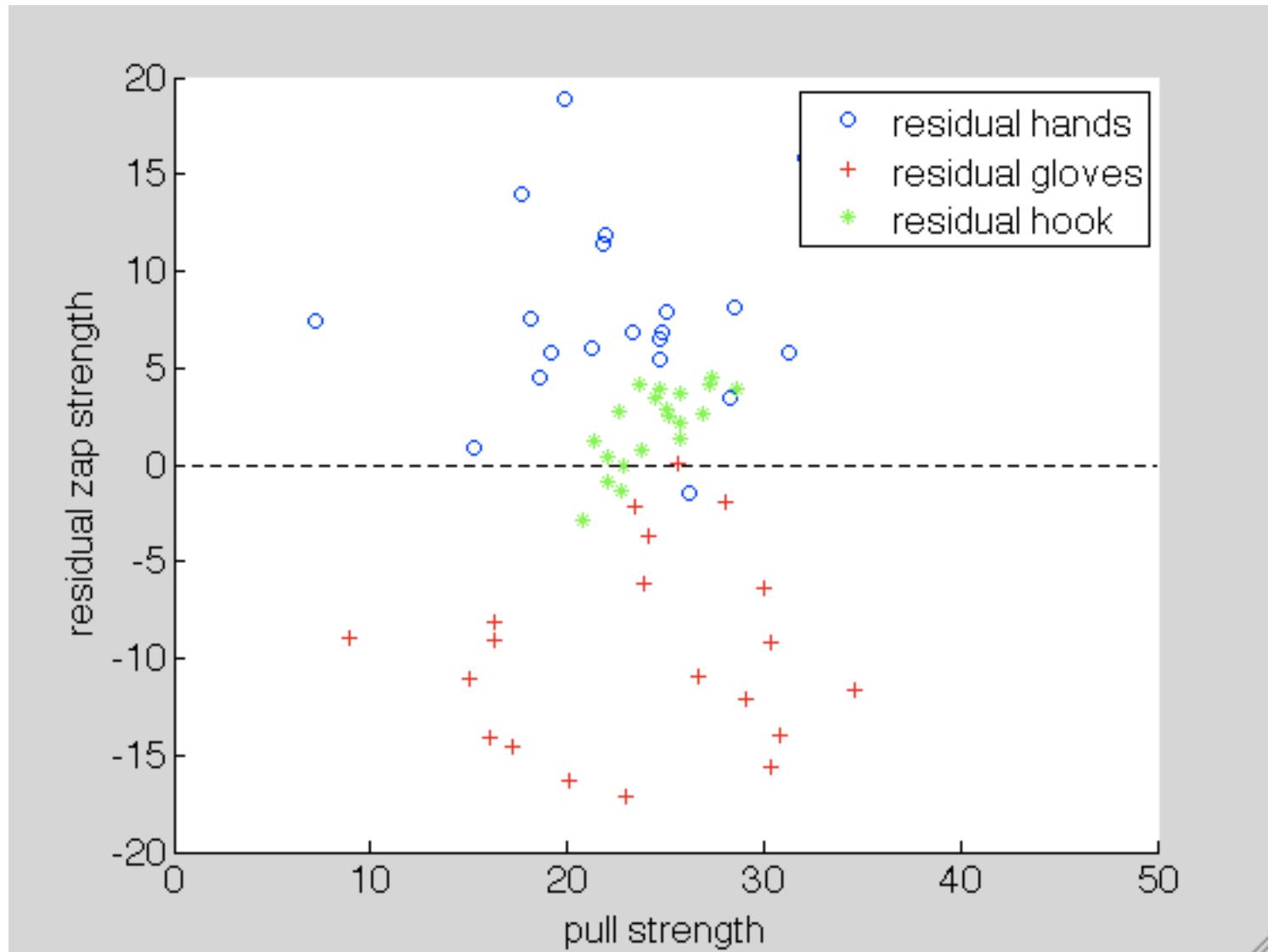
Assessing model fit

- So now we know SS_{err} (and SS_{total} is easy to find)
 - So r^2 is .15, meaning that $r = .39$ (wait...)
- Another way of looking at it
 - How much better would you predict y if you knew x ?
- Why is this important?
 - r^2 is a very easily interpretable measure of **effect size**
 - e.g., proportion of variance that is explained (since SS_{total} is “variance”)

Assessing model fit: residuals



Assessing model fit: residuals



When it's broke...

- Adding another predictor to the model (pull type)
- This is the beauty of the linear model!

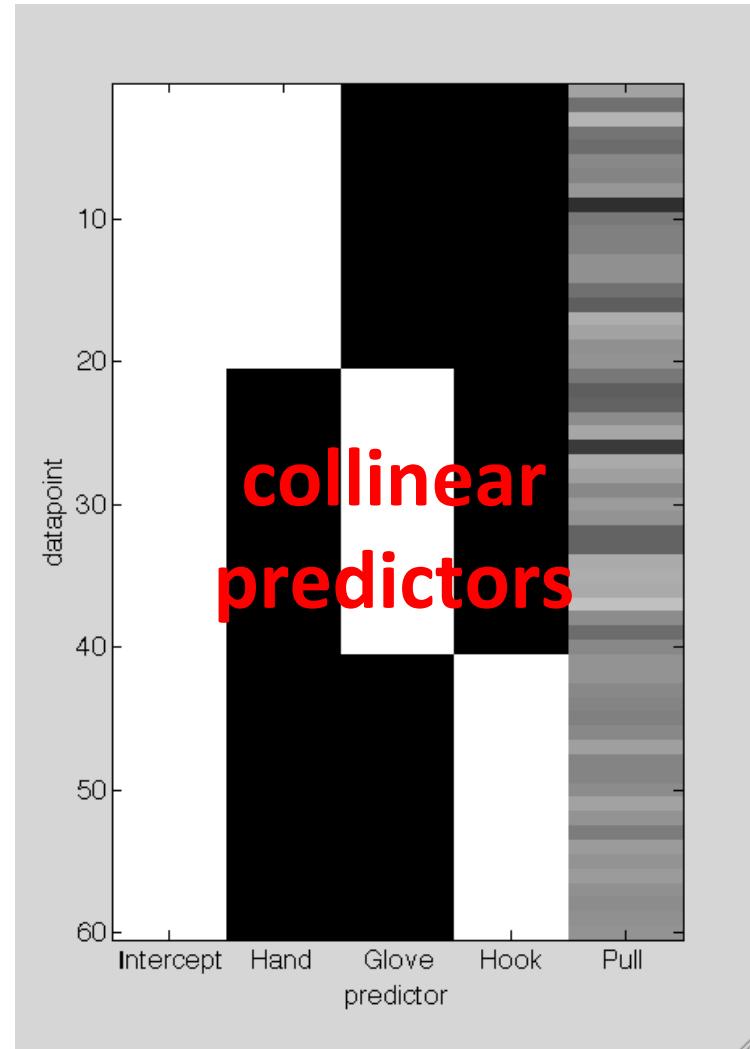
So how do we do it?

```
intercept = ones(size(all_pulls));
all_pulls = [hand_pulls;
glove_pulls; hook_pulls];
all_zaps = ...
    [hand_zaps; glove_zaps; ...
hook_zaps];
pull_type = zeros(60,3);
pull_type(1:20,1) = 1; % hand
pull_type(21:40,2) = 1; % glove
pull_type(41:60,3) = 1; % hook

X1 = [intercept pull_type ...
    all_pulls];
X2 = [pull_type all_pulls];

% bad
[b, b_int, r, r_int, stats] = ...
    regress(all_zaps,X1);

% good
[b, b_int, r, r_int, stats] = ...
    regress(all_zaps,X2);
```



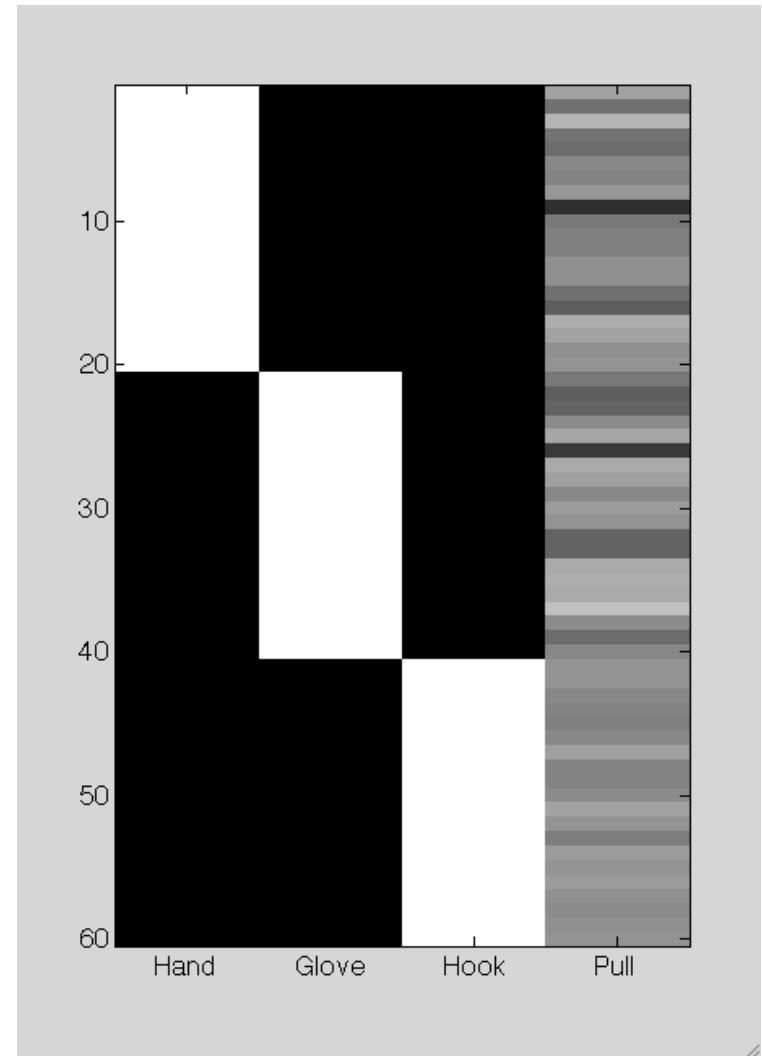
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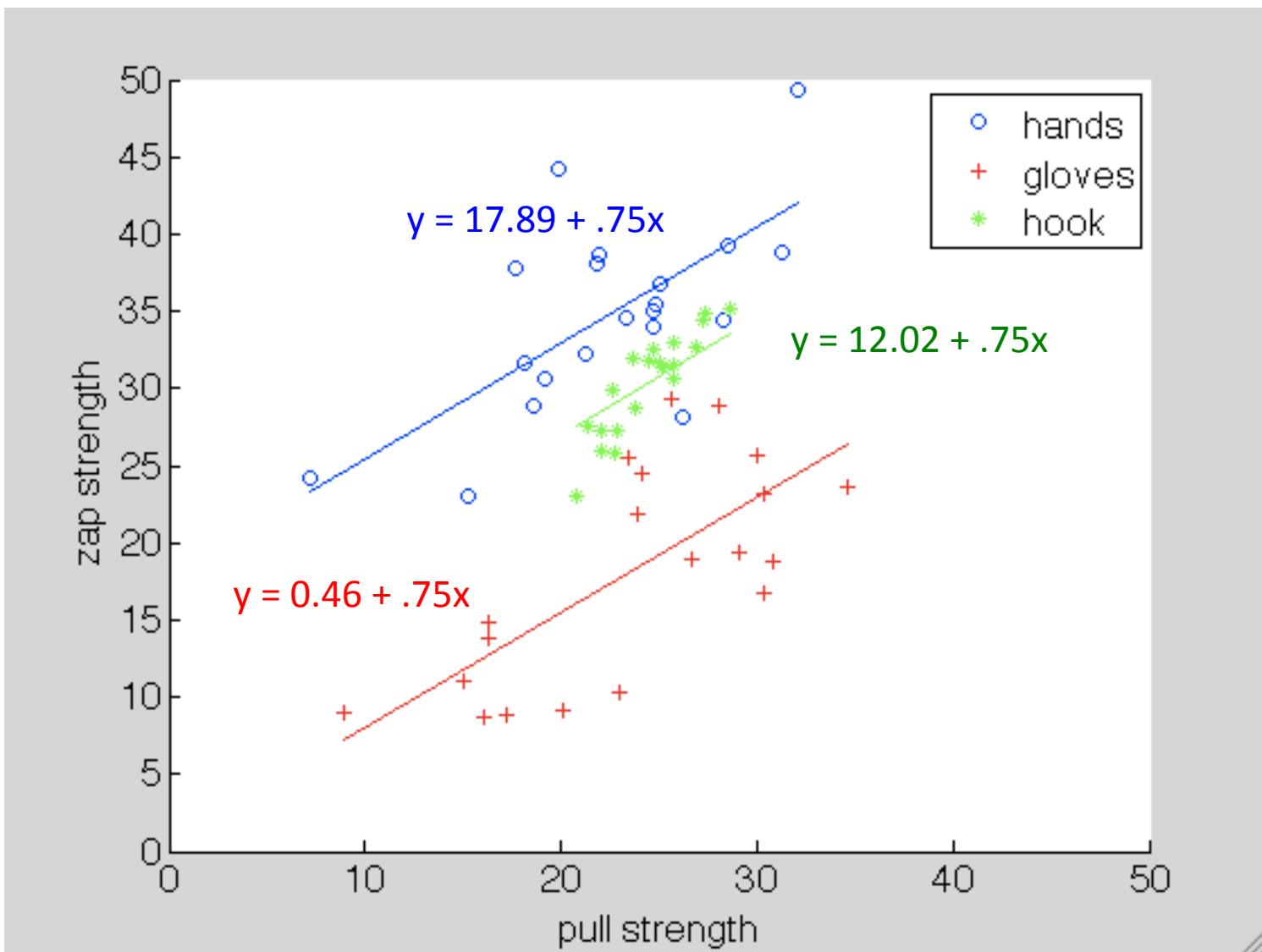
X1 = [intercept pull_type ...
    all_pulls];
X2 = [pull_type all_pulls];

% bad
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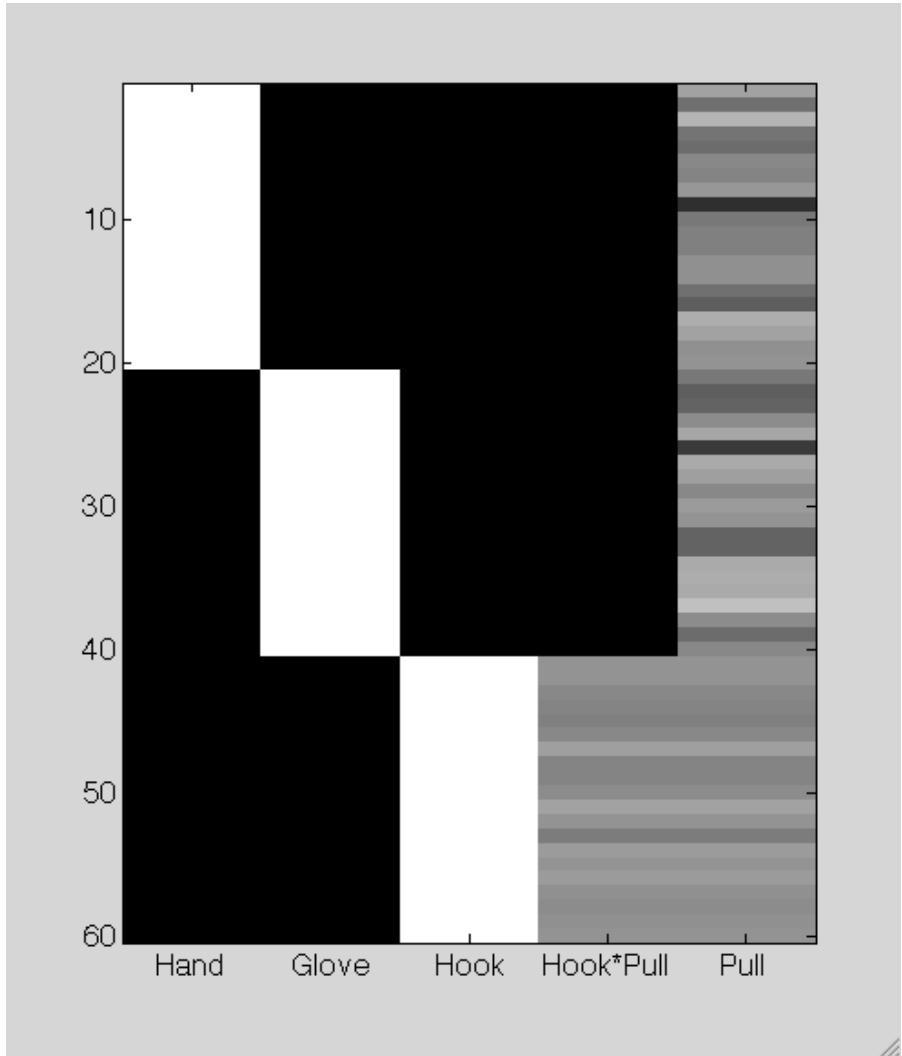
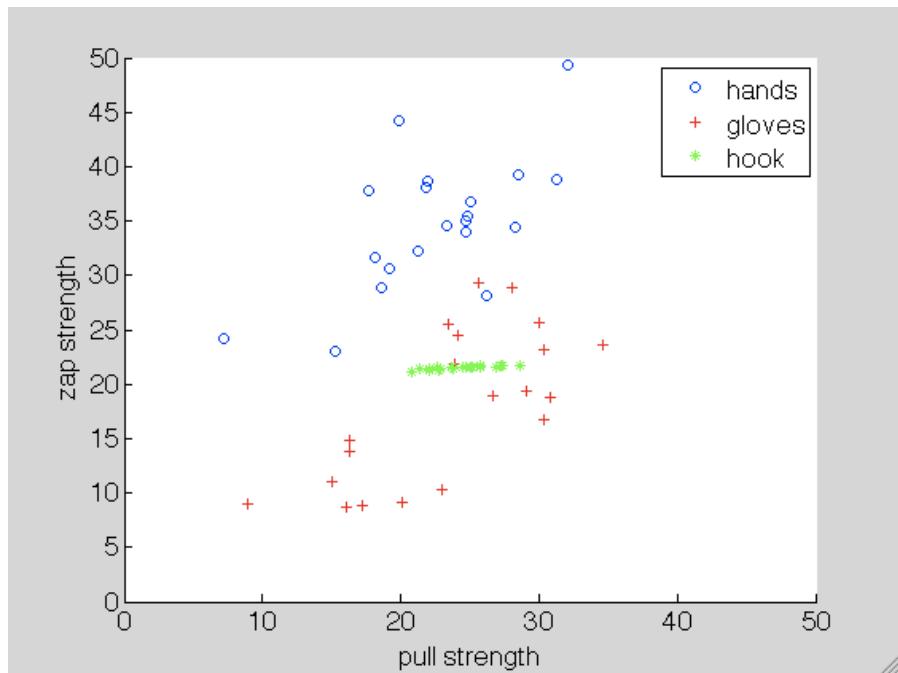
% good
[b, b_int, r, r_int, stats] = ...
    regress(all_zaps,X2);
```



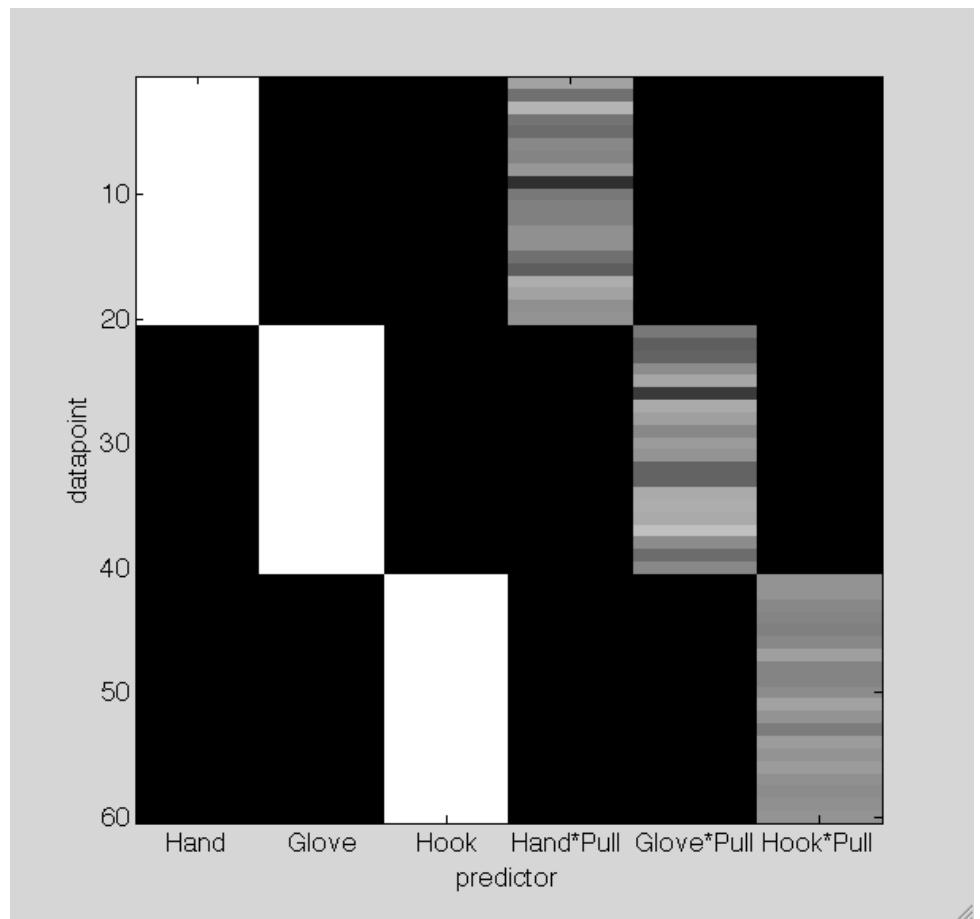
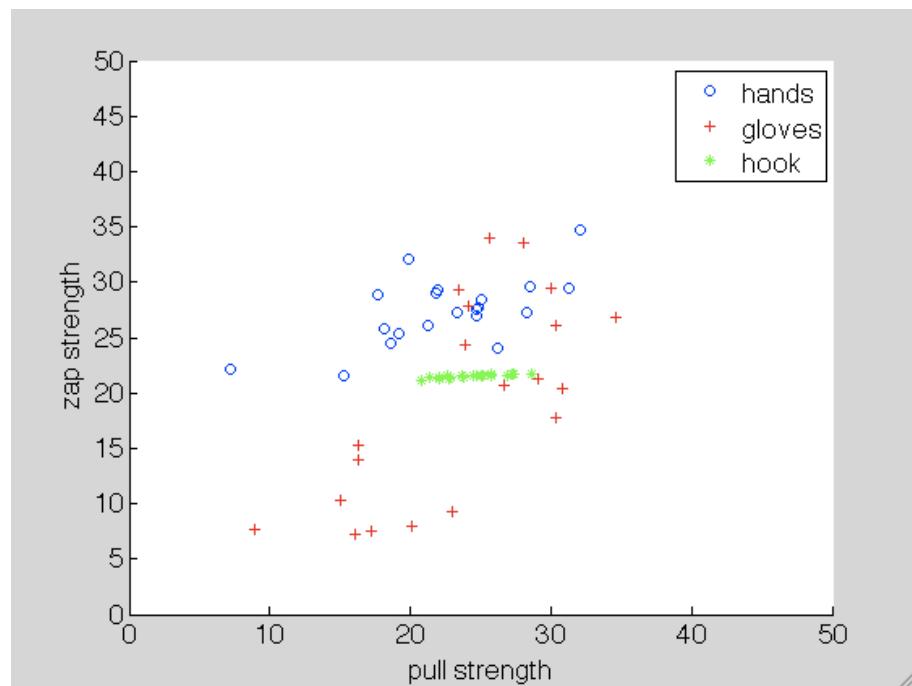
The resulting model



Aside: interactions



Aside: Interactions



Interpretation redux

- What does my model say?
 - each predictor's coefficient is now an intercept value that can be quantified
- How good is my model?
 - r^2 for the whole model is now .79
 - “is it significant”? – not a great question
 - is this coefficient/factor/model related to the data?
 - well, r^2 is really big
 - in a way that didn't happen by chance?

Statistical significance and the LM

- Coefficient significance
 - Easy, general, and useful
- Factor significance
 - ANOVA as a way to pool across different coefficients
 - Only applicable in special cases
- Model significance
 - F-test
- Caveat: I'm not really going to tell you how any of these work, just why they work

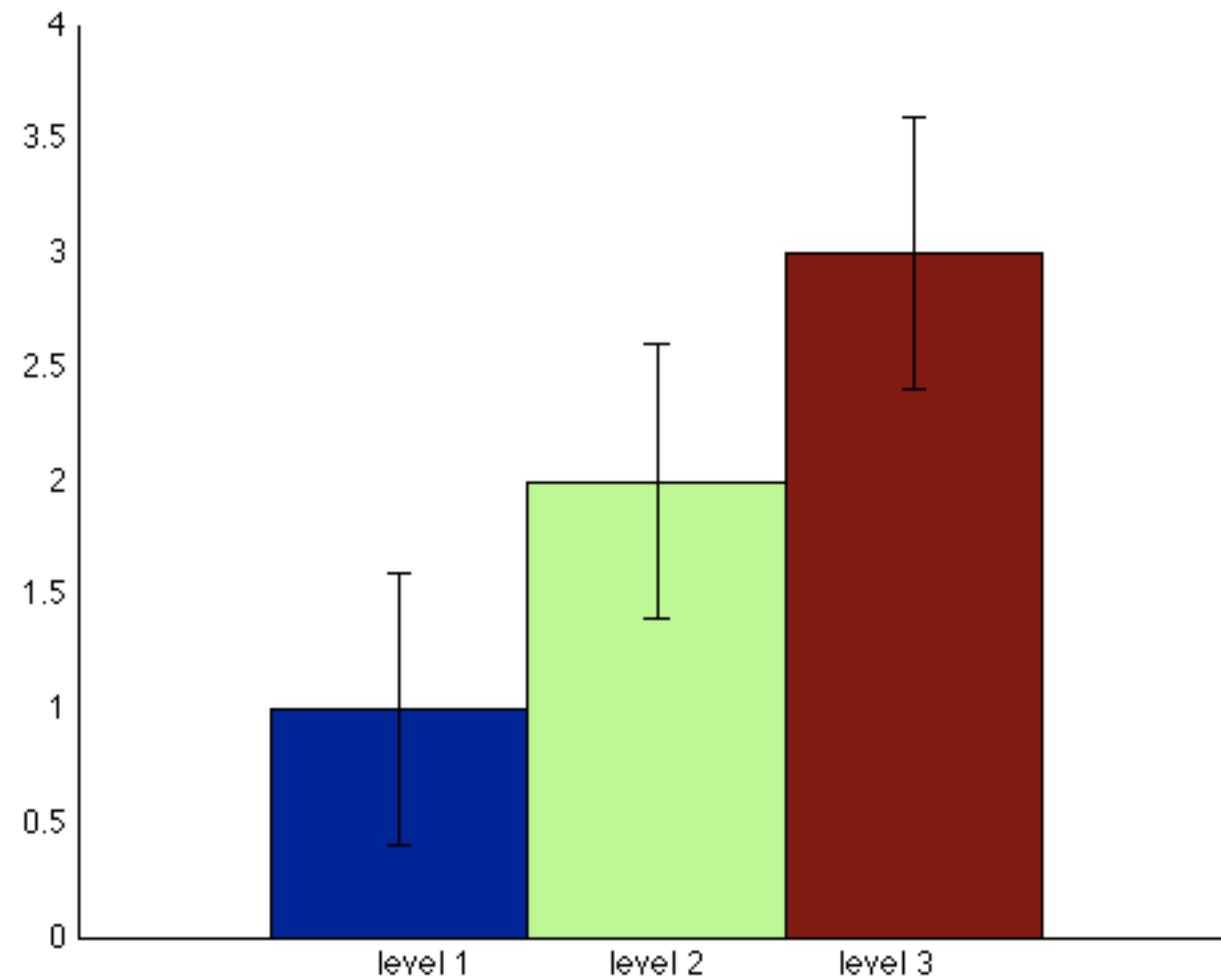
Coefficient significance

- How can I tell if a particular predictor is statistically significant?
- Look at the error in the model fit
 - In the specific case of a simple linear model, it's analytic
 - SE: $\hat{\sigma}_j = \sqrt{\frac{S}{n-p-1} [(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}]_{jj}}$.
 - 95% confidence: $\hat{\beta}_j \pm t_{\frac{\alpha}{2}, n-p-1} \hat{\sigma}_j$.
 - More generally, you can use simulation to get empirical 95% confidence intervals
 - Remember: you can always grid the model parameters and get bounds on estimates

Factor significance

- ANOVA (analysis of variance)
 - A method for partitioning the explanatory power of a variable
 - with multiple categorical variables
 - basically this same old sum of squares trick
- ANOVA often treated as a statistical hypothesis test
 - Not as a way of assessing the fit of the underlying model
- When is it useful?
 - When there are multiple categorical factors
 - e.g. multiple coefficients, each with their own error

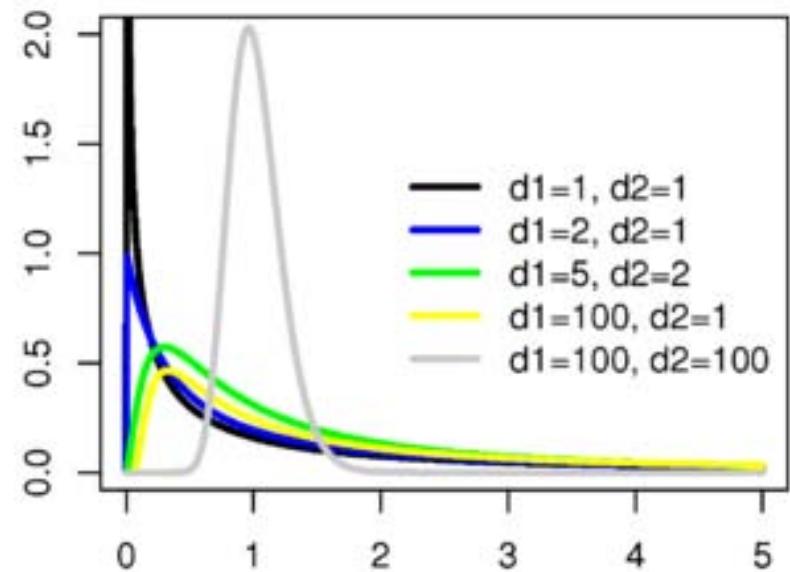
For example



h

ANOVA

$$F^* = \frac{\text{MSTR}}{\text{MSE}}$$
$$\text{MSTR} = \frac{\text{SSTR}}{I - 1}$$
$$\text{MSE} = \frac{\text{SSE}}{n_T - I}$$



where I is the number of treatments, and n_T is the number of cases

$$\text{also, } F = \frac{R^2/(m-1)}{(1-R^2)/(n-m)}$$

Model significance

- Just a question of whether the overall error explained by the model differs from
- Happens also to be an F distribution
- So you can just do the same test with all of the treatments
- Interpretation is “having the whole model makes you know more than you would if you didn’t have any model”

What now?

A (VERY) WORKED EXAMPLE

Worked example outline

- India addition interference
 - Paradigm
 - Dataset and visualization
- Logistic regression
 - Motivation
 - Link function etc.
- Multi-level/mixed models

Addition demo

out of
time!

Addition demo

12

35

43

out of
79

time!
95

11

56

81

Adaptive arithmetic

10 second time limit, staircased number of addends

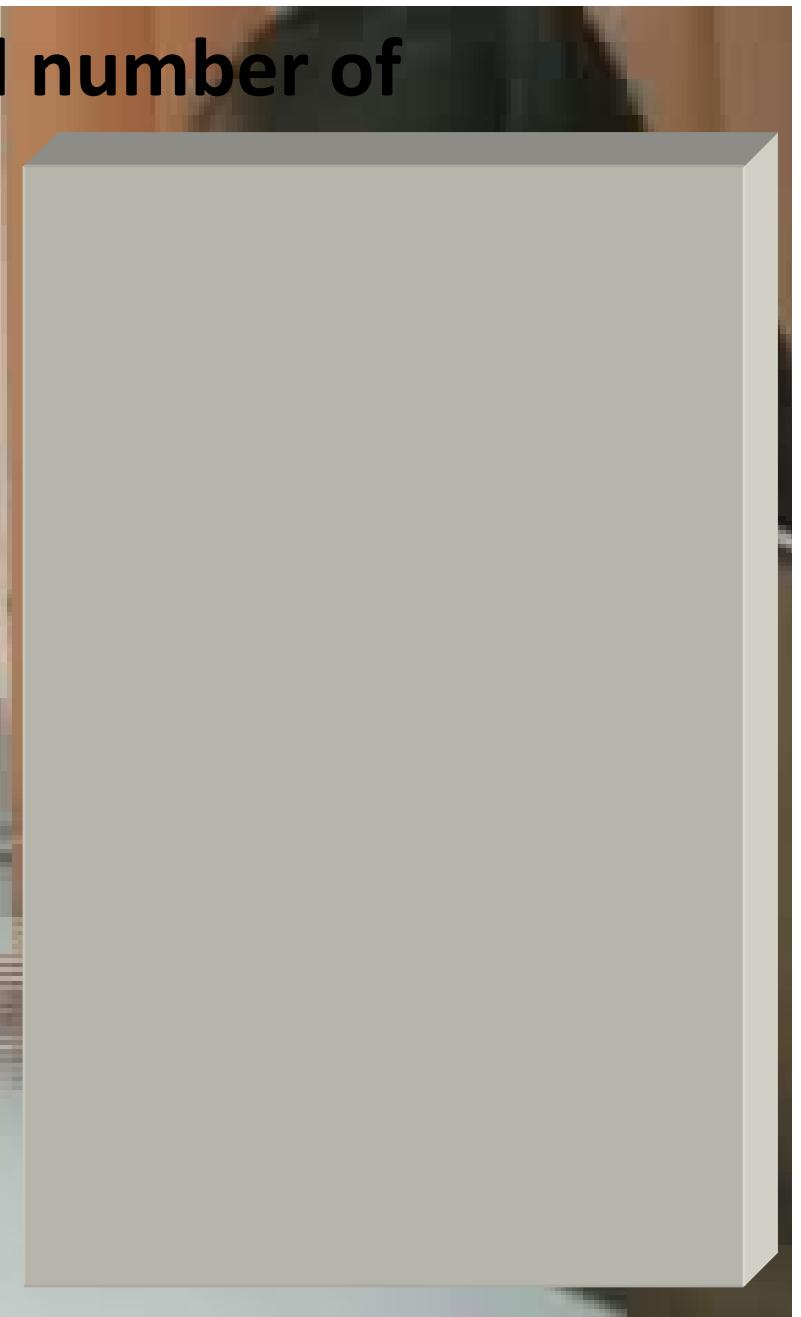
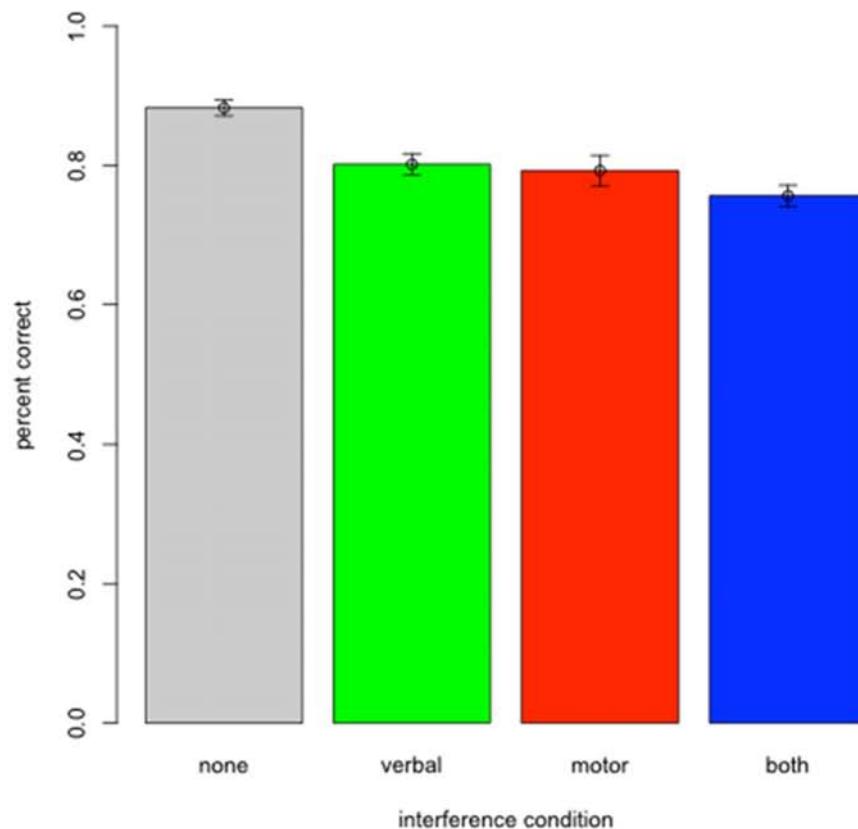
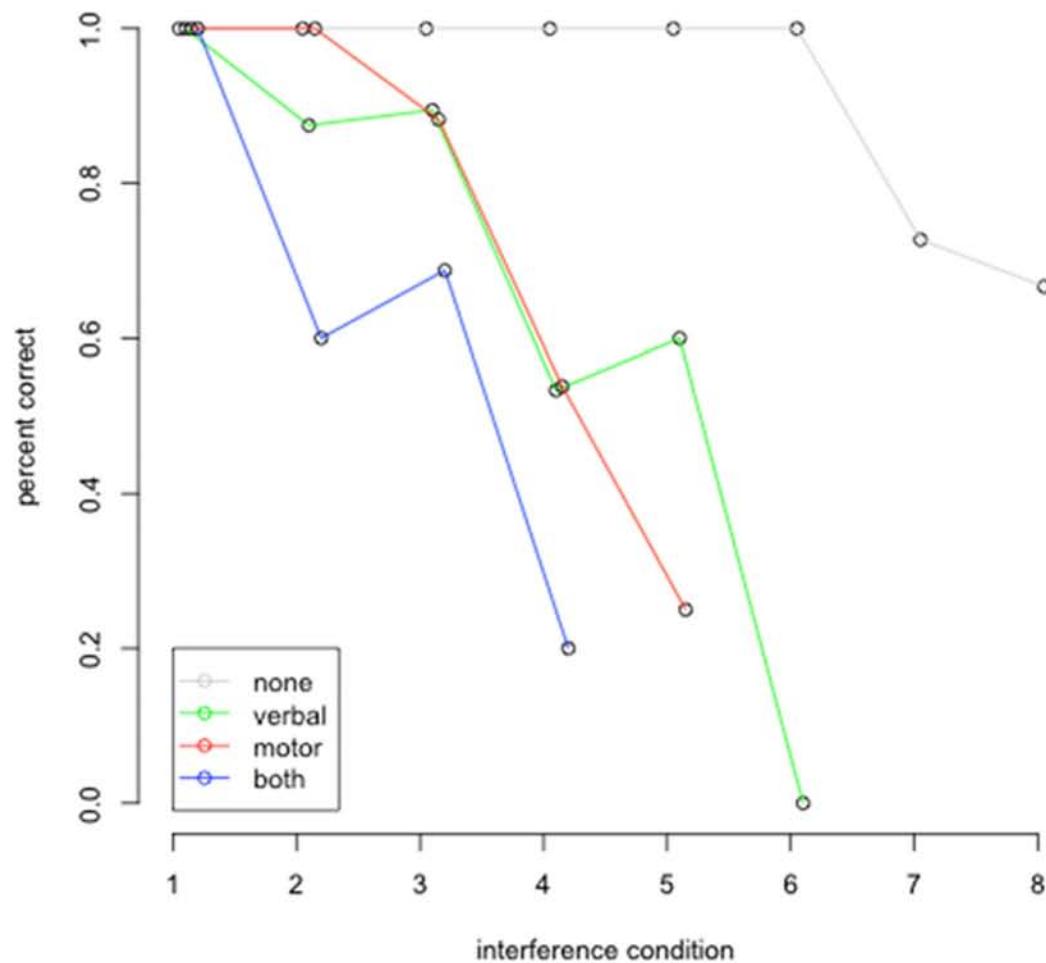


Figure by MIT OpenCourseWare.

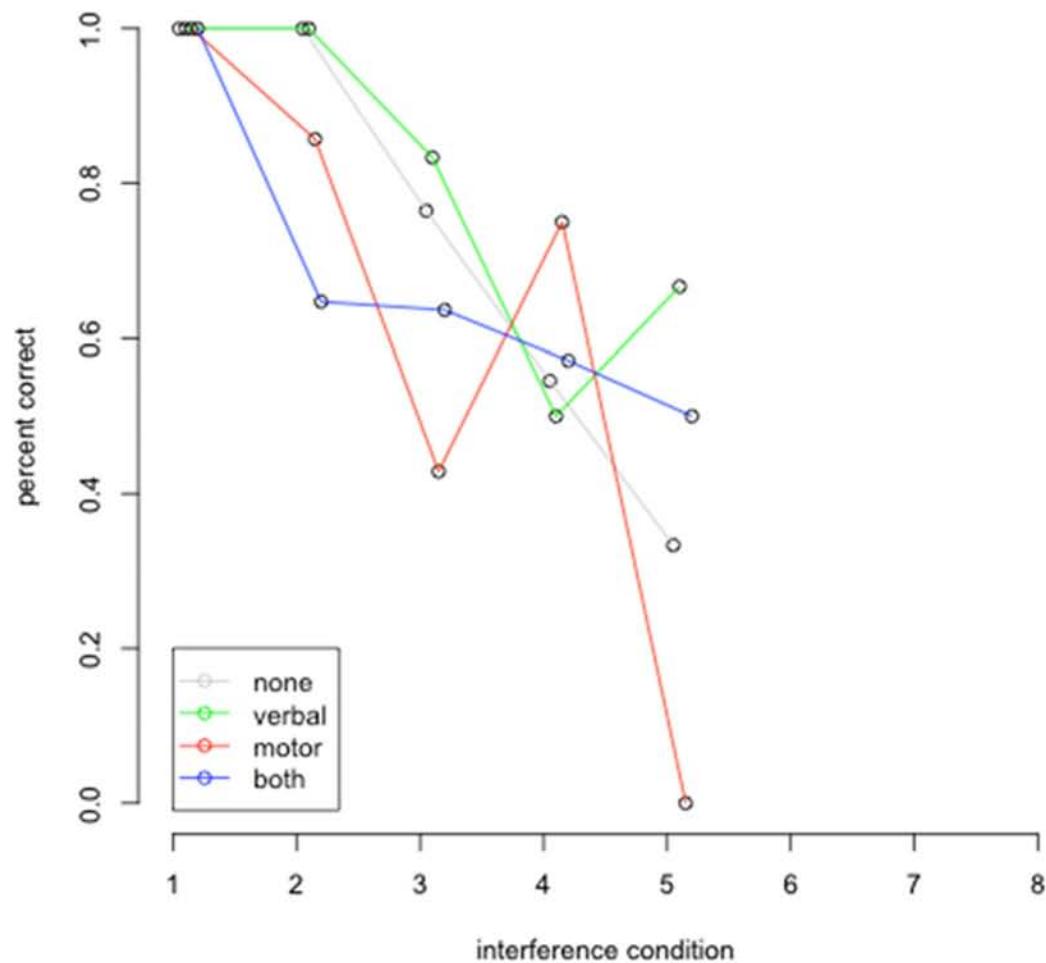
Aggregate data



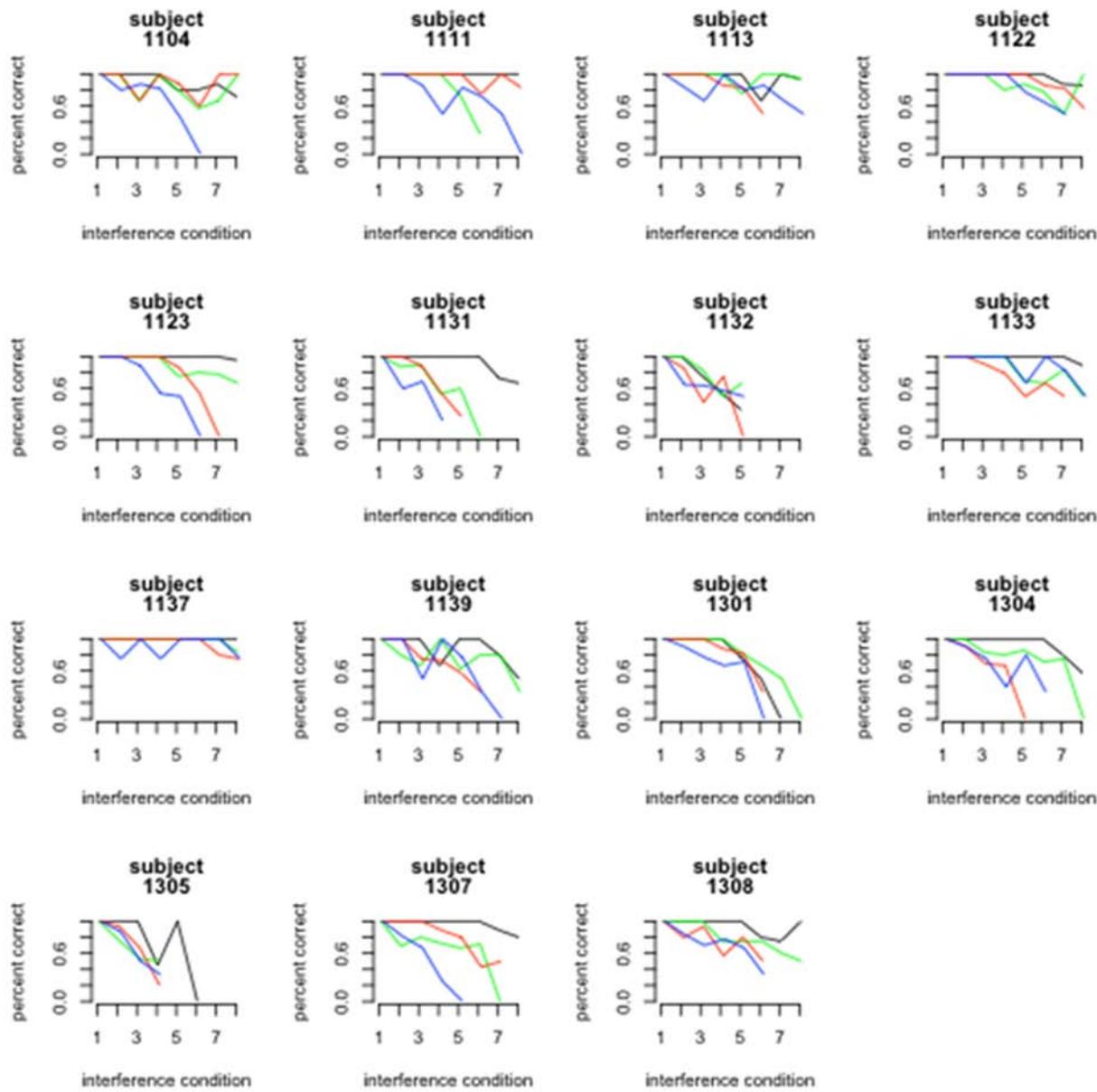
One subject



Another subject



All the subjects



An individual's data

trialnum	corr	addends	cond	
161	1	1	1	none
162	2	1	1	none
163	3	1	2	none
164	4	1	2	none
165	5	1	3	none
166	6	1	3	none
	
294	32	1	5	both
295	33	0	5	both
296	34	0	4	both
297	35	1	3	both

How do we model an individual?

Linear model of their performance looks great,
right?

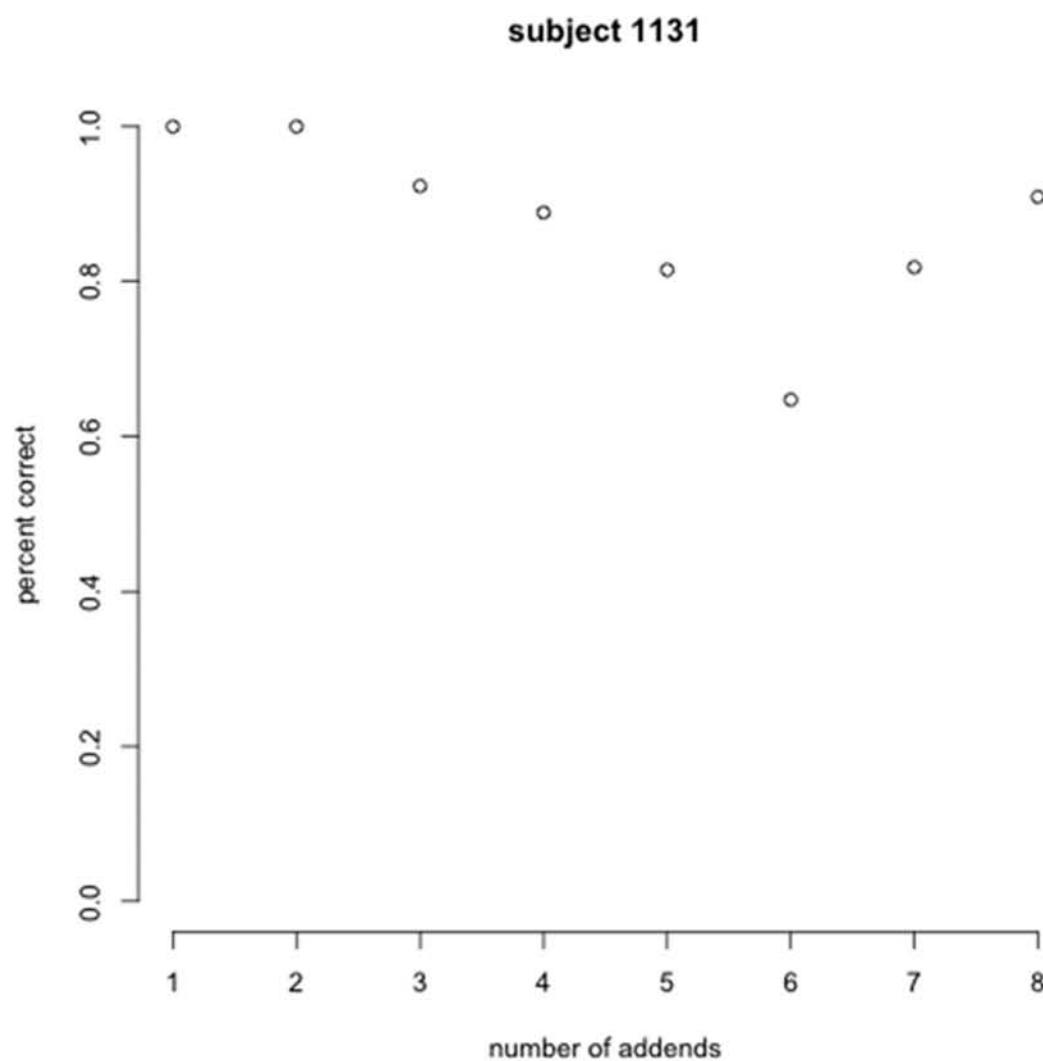
```
lm(formula =corr~ addends)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	0.94788	0.07759	12.217	<2e-16 ***
sub.addends	-0.01654	0.01370	-1.207	0.230

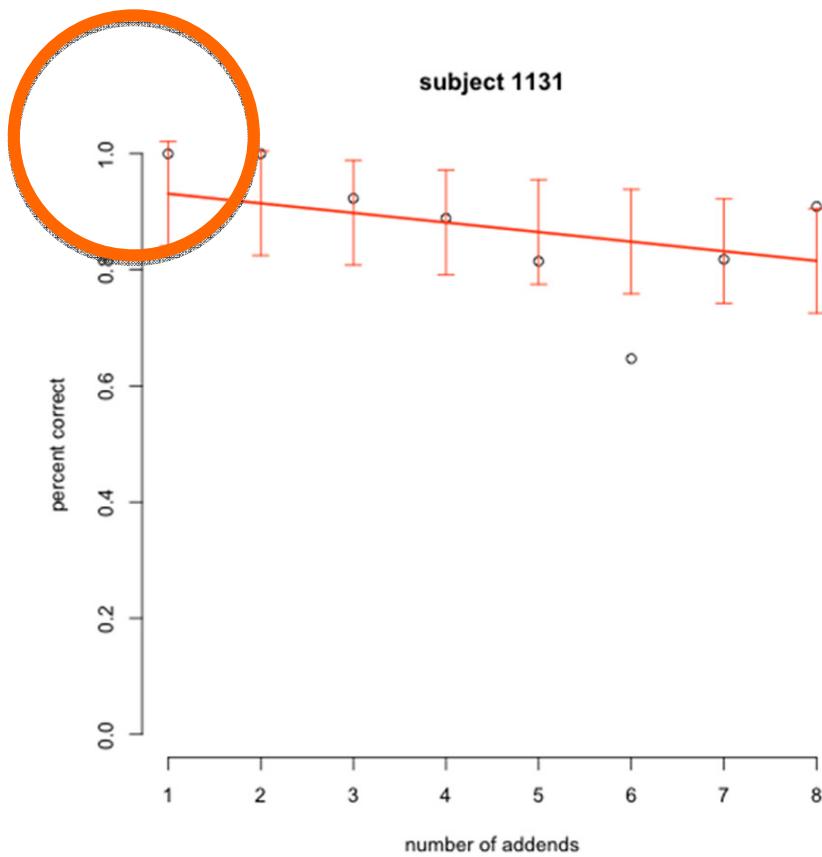
Signif. codes:	0 ‘***’	0.001 ‘**’	0.01 ‘*’	0.05 ‘.’
	0.1			

Oops

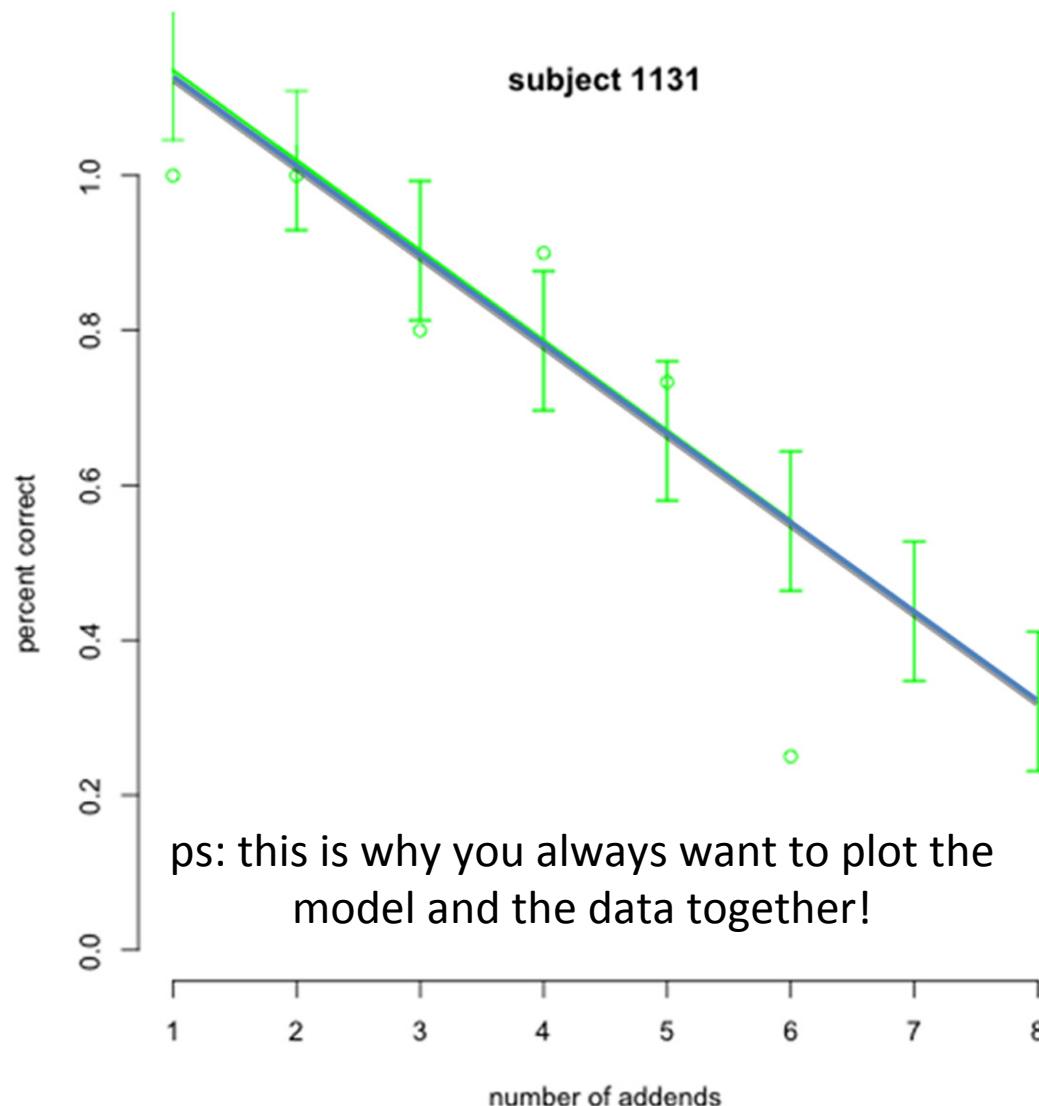


Oops

standard error shouldn't
extend outside the
bounds of the measure!



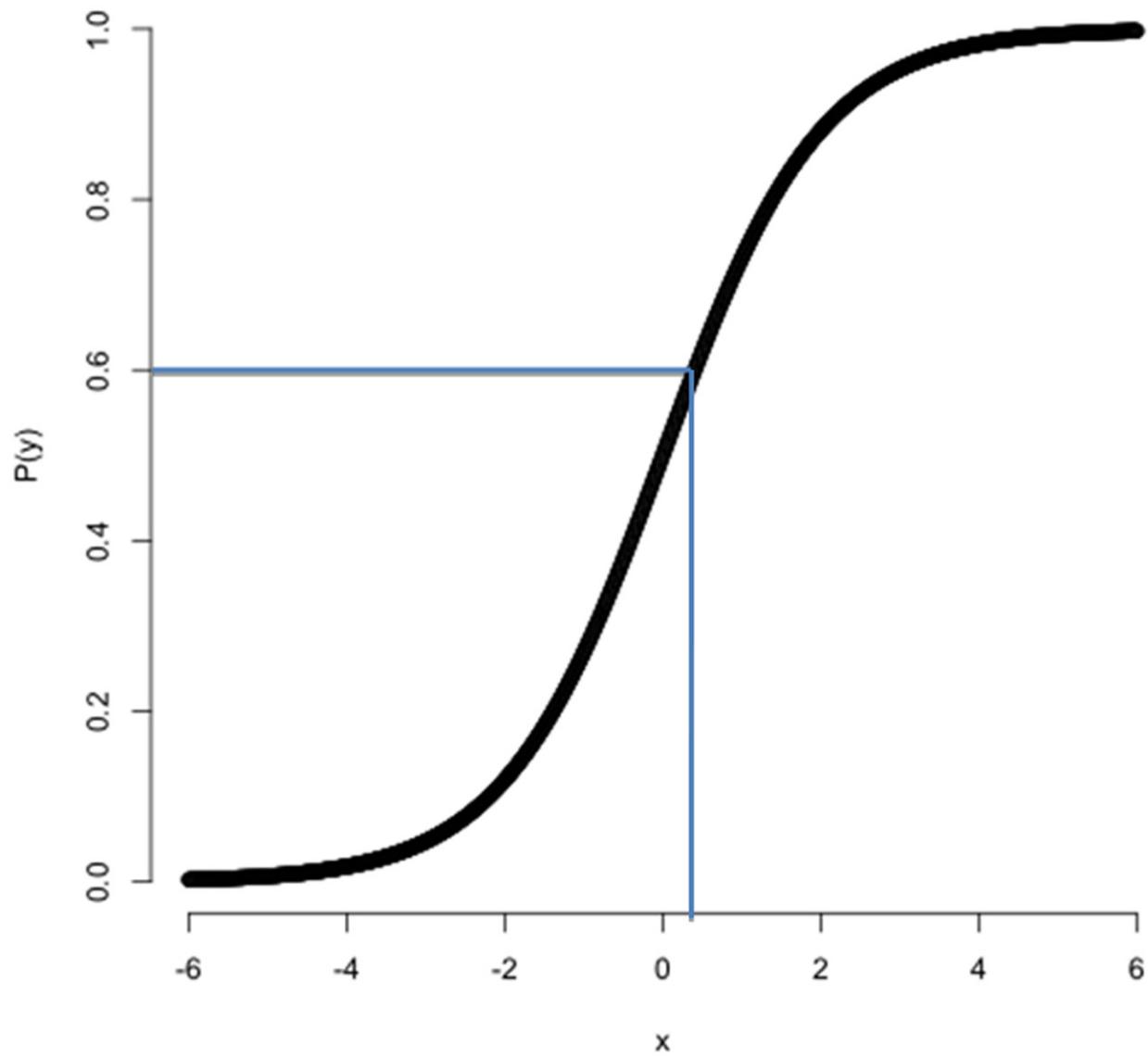
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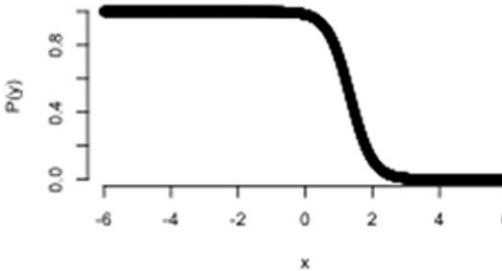
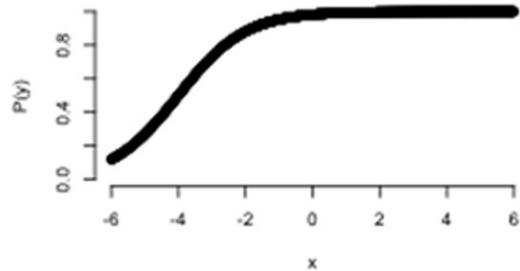
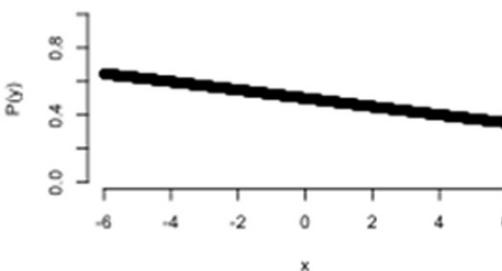
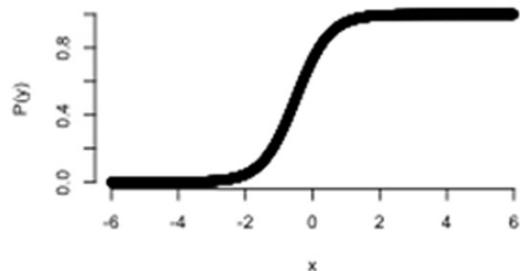
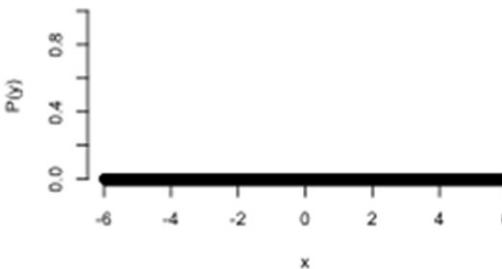
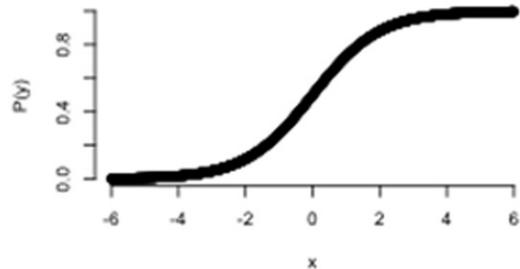
Introducing: logistic regression

- In an ordinary linear model:
 - $y = a + bx$
 - Just add stuff up— y is $(-\text{Inf}, \text{Inf})$
- In a logistic regression:
 - $P(\text{correct}) = \text{logit}^{-1}(bx)$, where $\text{logit}^{-1}(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$
- What does this do?
 - Turns real valued predictors into $[0,1]$ valued probabilities! (our response format)
 - This is what a **generalized linear model** is: a way of linking a linear model to a particular response format

The inverse logit function



The varieties of logit experience



Error rate reduction intuition

- Inverse logistic is curved
 - Difference in y corresponding to difference in x is not constant
 - Steep change happens in the middle of the curve
- From 50% to 60% performance is about as far as 90% to 93%
 - This is why those error bars were not right!
 - And this is why ANOVA/LM over percent correct is a big problem!

Doing it right

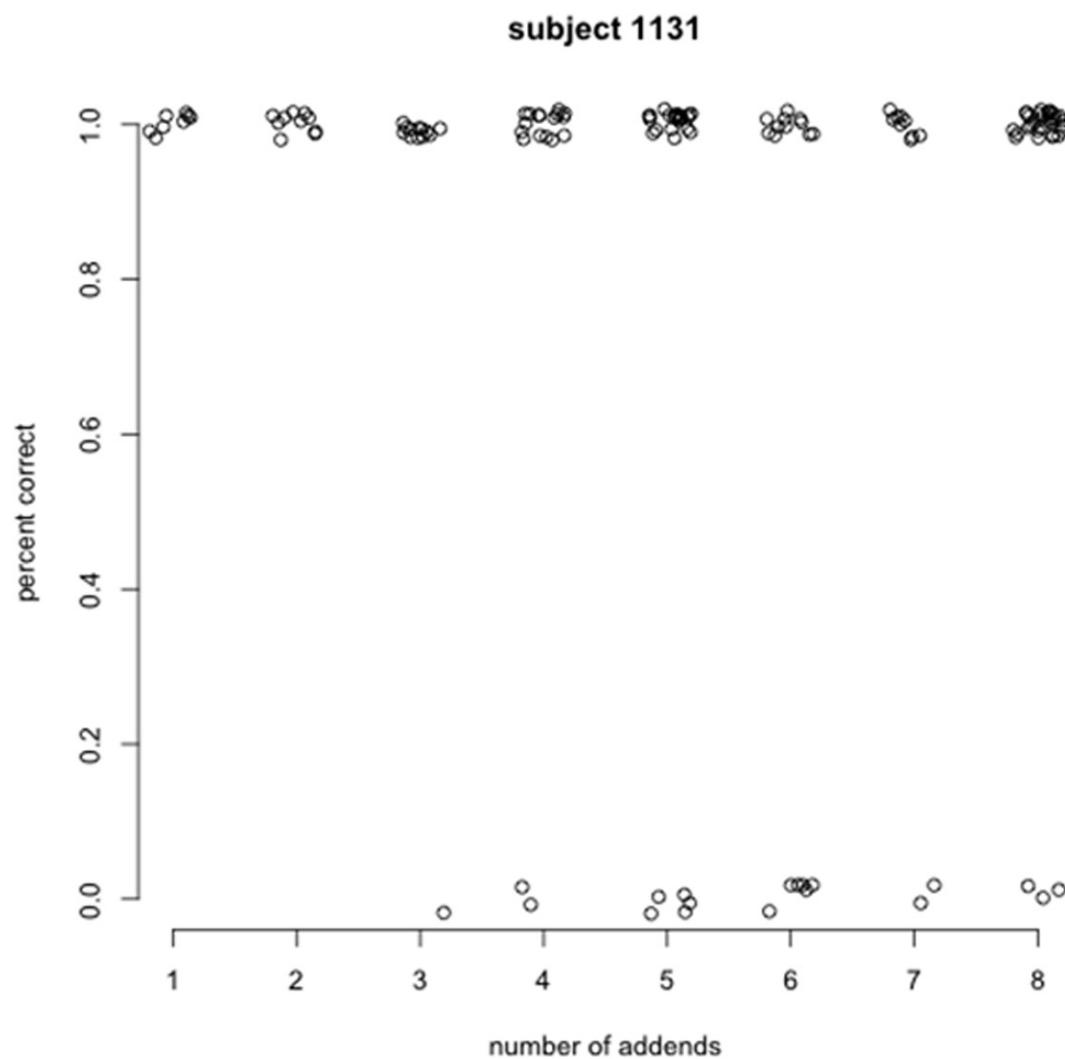
```
glm(formula =corr~ addends, family = "binomial")
```

Coefficients:

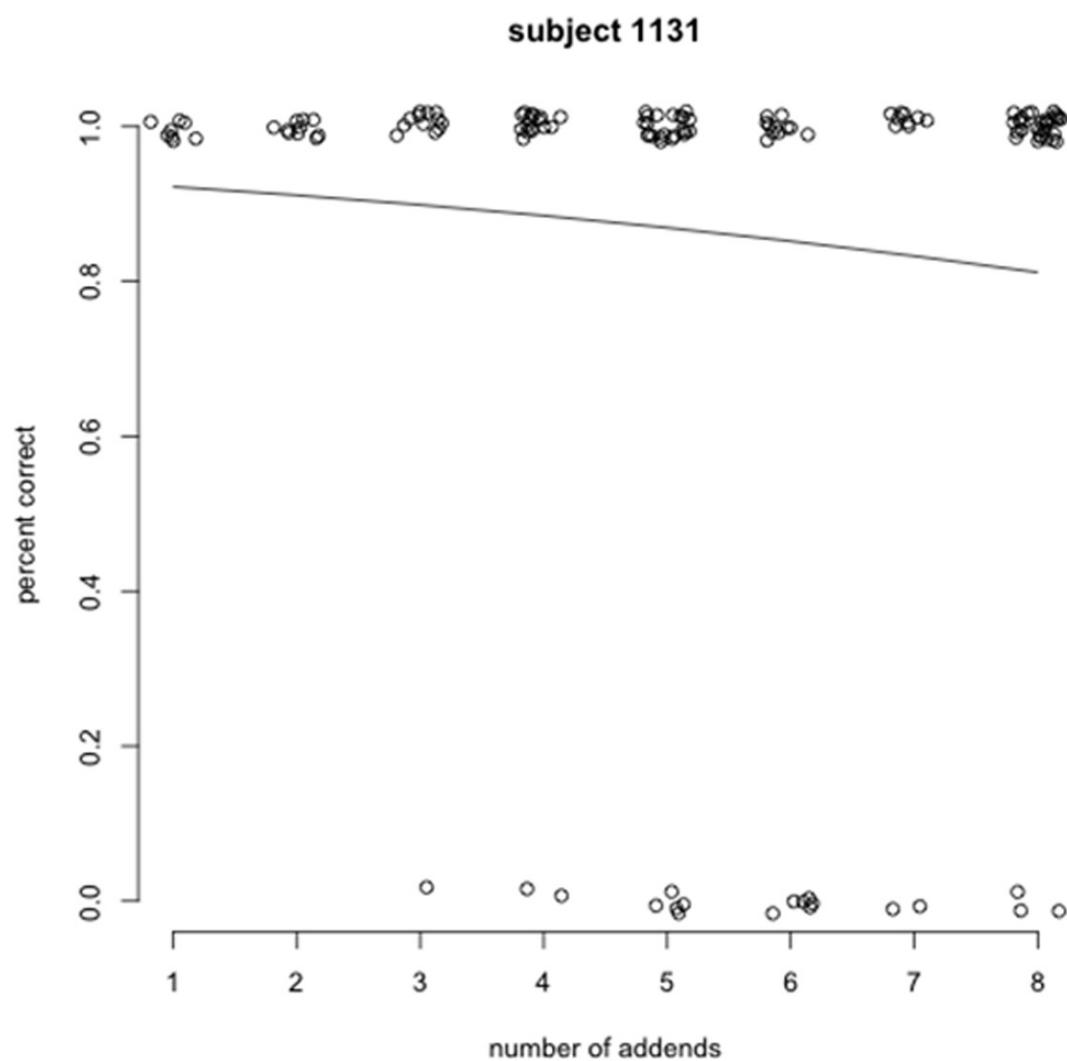
	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)
(Intercept)	2.6188	0.7322	3.577	0.000348 ***
addends	-0.1448	0.1207	-1.200	0.230231

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1

What do the data actually look like?

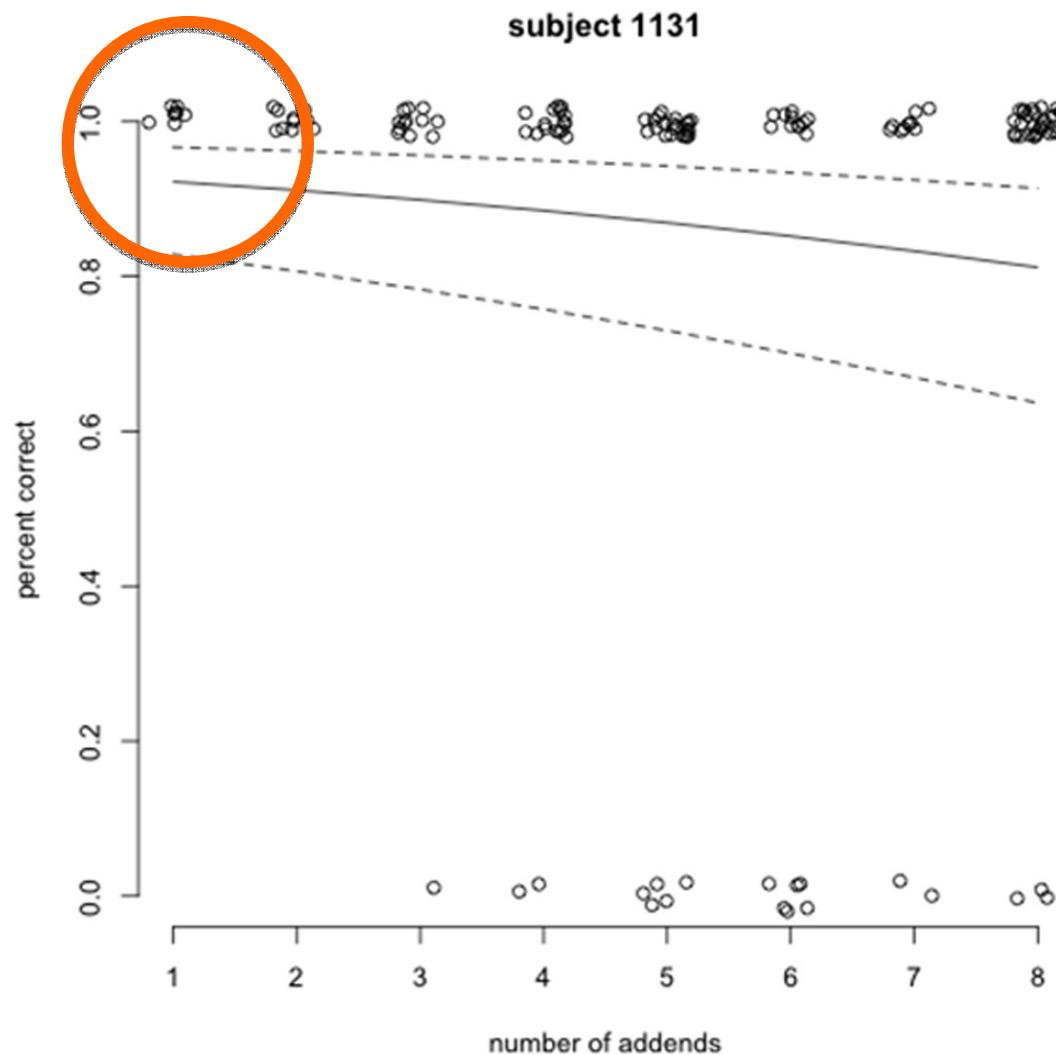


Data + model



Data + model + errors

logit compresses with
the scale



Aside: interpreting logistic coefficients

```
glm(formula =corr~ addends, family = "binomial")
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)
(Intercept)	2.6188	0.7322	3.577	0.000348 ***
addends	-0.1448	0.1207	-1.200	0.230231

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1

- What does an estimate mean?
 - Well, different changes in probability at different points in the scale

Which logistic regression?

```
glm(formula =corr~cond, family = "binomial")
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)
(Intercept)	1.0609	0.3867	2.743	0.00609 **
cond.motor1	2.417	0.7185	1.728	0.08395 .
cond.none	18.5052	1844.2980	0.010	0.99199
cond.verbal	0.3254	0.5728	0.568	0.56998

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1

Which logistic regression?

```
glm(formula = corr ~ cond - 1, family = "binomial")
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)
cond.both	1.0609	0.3867	2.743	0.006087 **
cond.motor	2.3026	0.6055	3.803	0.000143 ***
cond.none	19.5661	1844.2980	0.011	0.991535
cond.verbal	1.3863	0.4226	3.281	0.001036 **

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1

Which logistic regression?

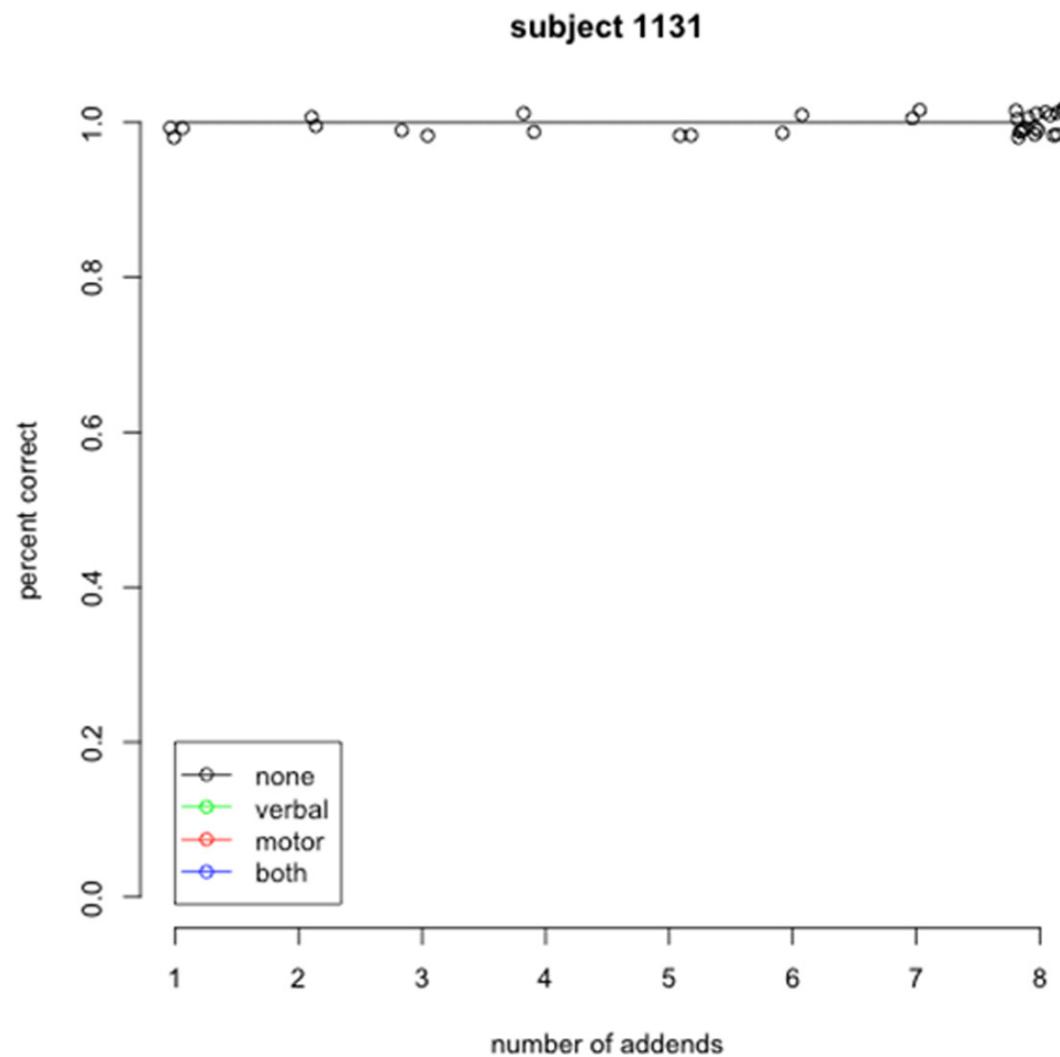
```
glm(formula = sub.corr ~ sub.addends + sub.cond - 1, family = "binomial")
```

Coefficients:

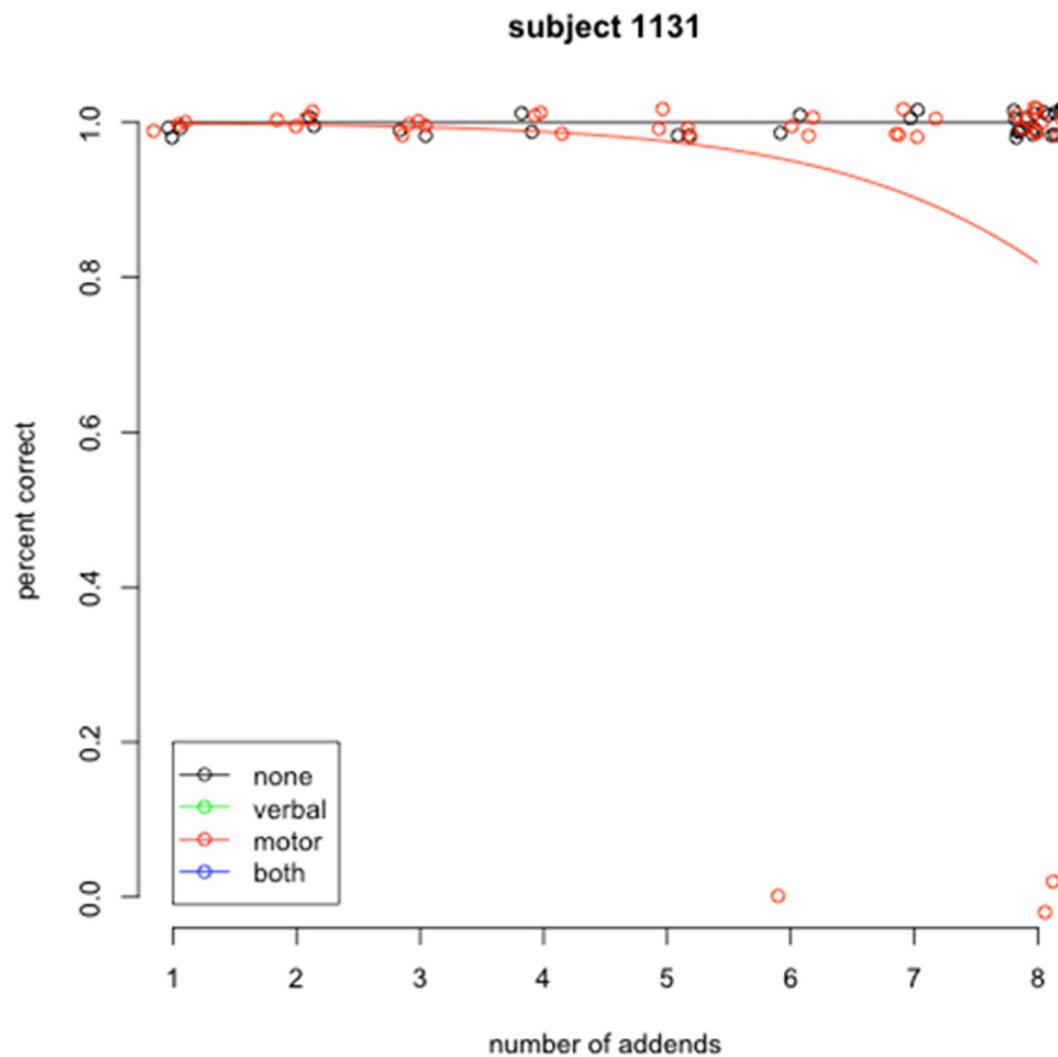
	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)		
addends	-0.7267	0.2435	-2.985	0.002839 **		
cond.both4.6731	1.3872	3.369	0.000755 ***			
cond.motor7.3203	1.9279	3.797	0.000146 ***			
cond.none24.7699	1695.5890	0.015	0.988345			
cond.verbal	4.7366	1.2569	3.768	0.000164 ***		

Signif. codes:	0 ‘***’	0.001 ‘**’	0.01 ‘*’	0.05 ‘.’	0.1 ‘ ’	1

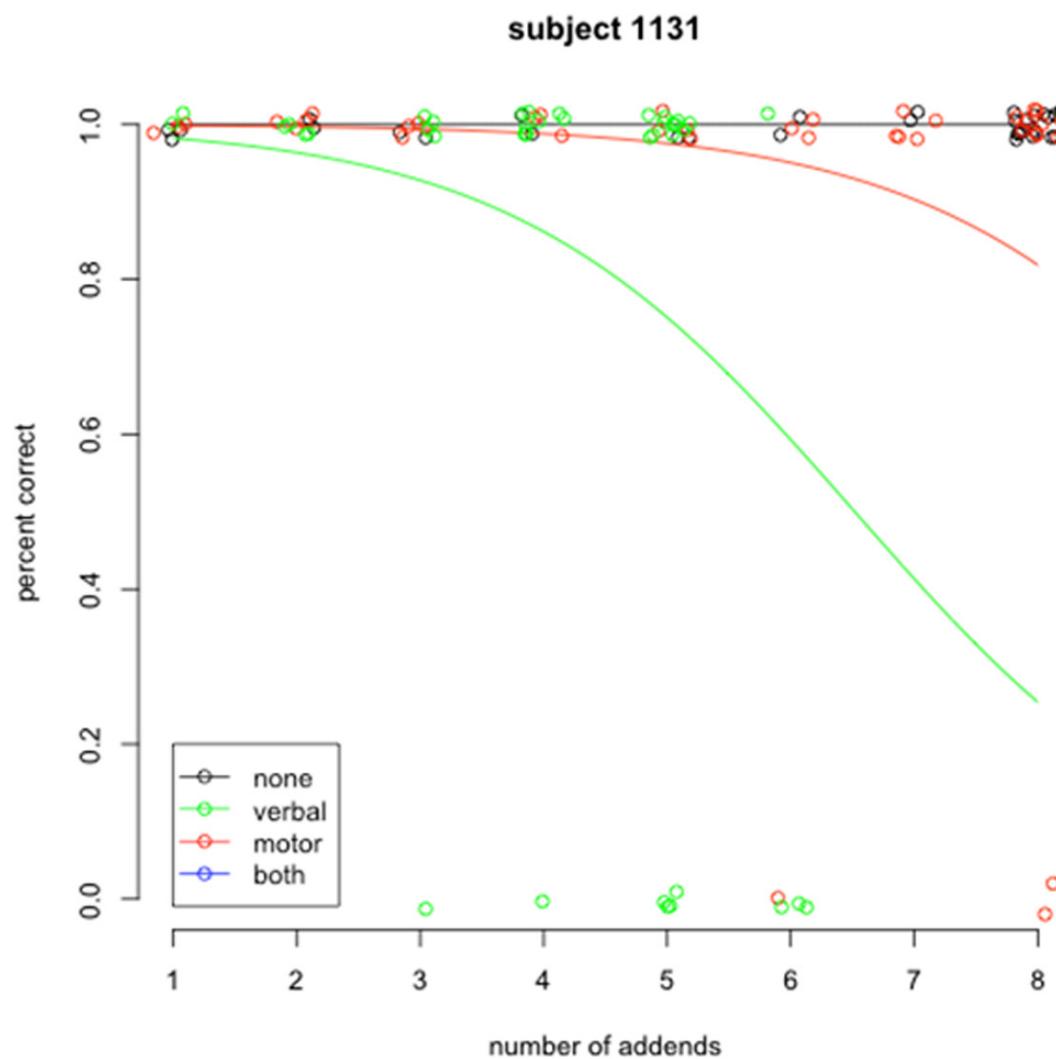
Now plot model + data



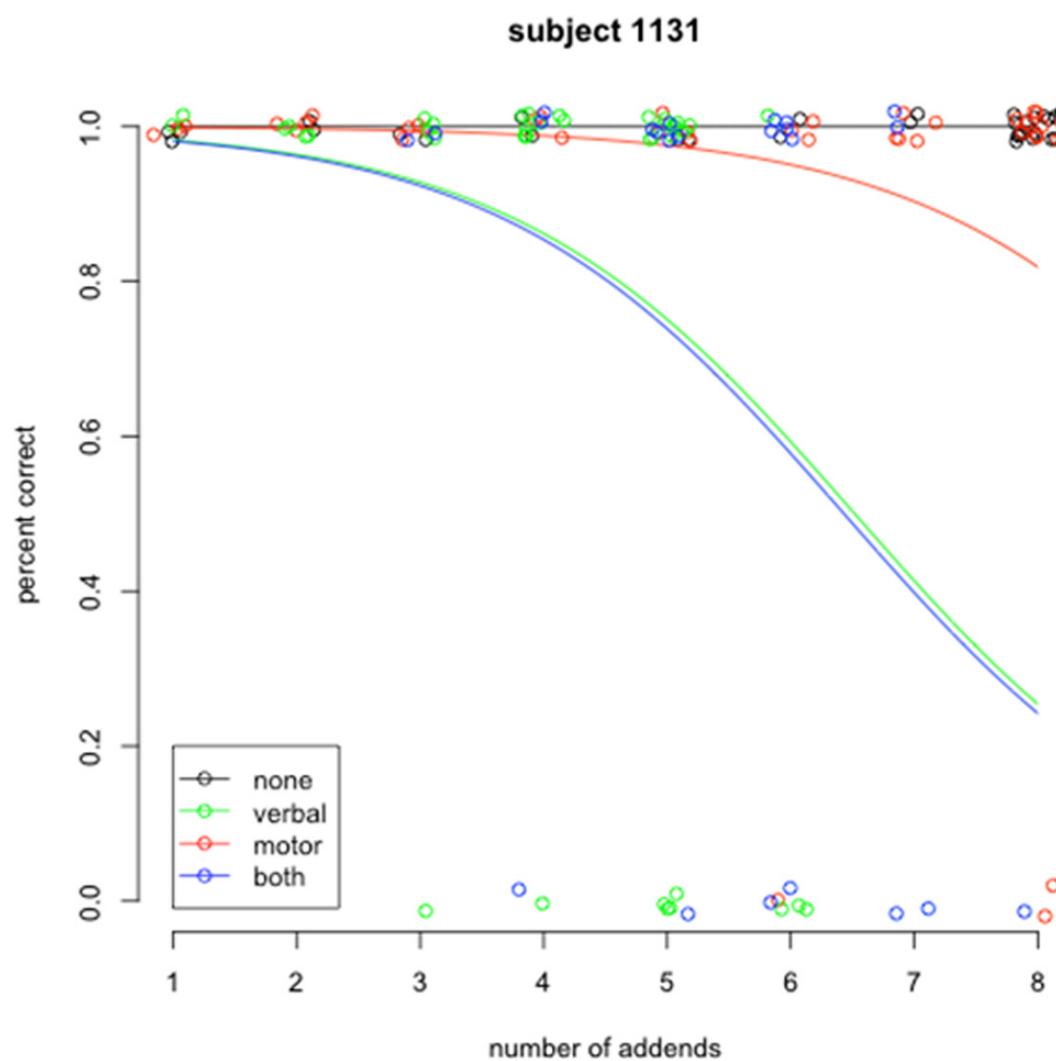
Now plot model + data



Now plot model + data



Now plot model + data



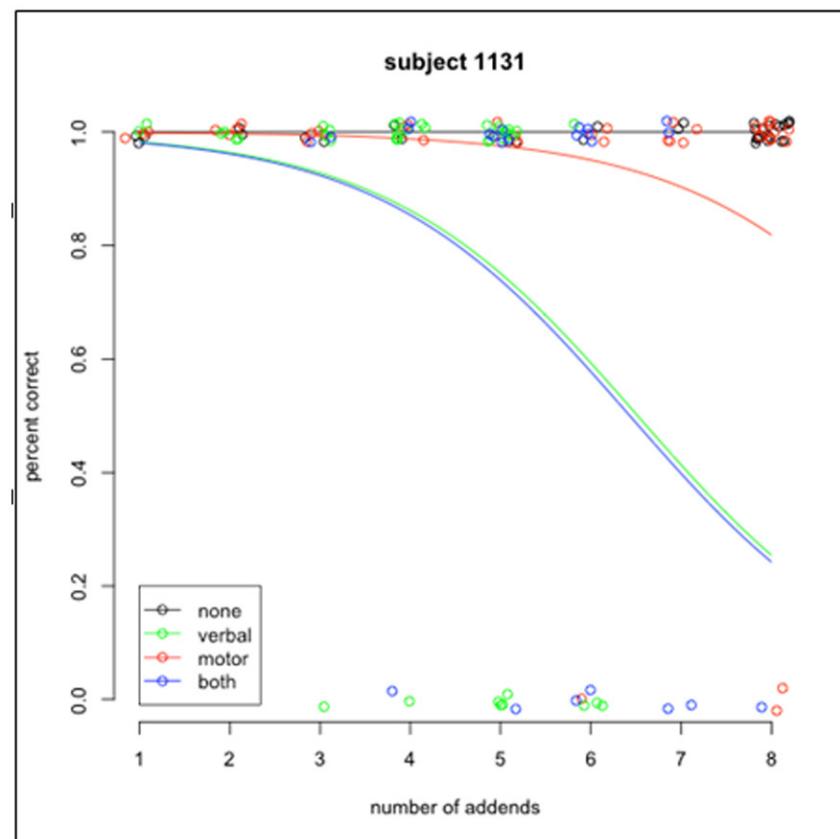
Which logistic regression?

```
glm(formula = sub.corr ~ sub.addends + sub.cond - 1, family = "binomial")
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
addends	-0.7267	0.2435	-2.985	0.002839 **	
cond.both	4.6731	1.3872	3.369	0.000755 ***	
cond.motor	7.3203	1.9279	3.797	0.000146 ***	
cond.none	24.7699	1695.5890	0.015	0.988345	
cond.verbal	4.7366	1.2569	3.768	0.000164 ***	

Signif. codes:	0 ‘***’	0.001 ‘**’	0.01 ‘*’	0.05 ‘.’	0.1 ‘



Analyzing the whole dataset

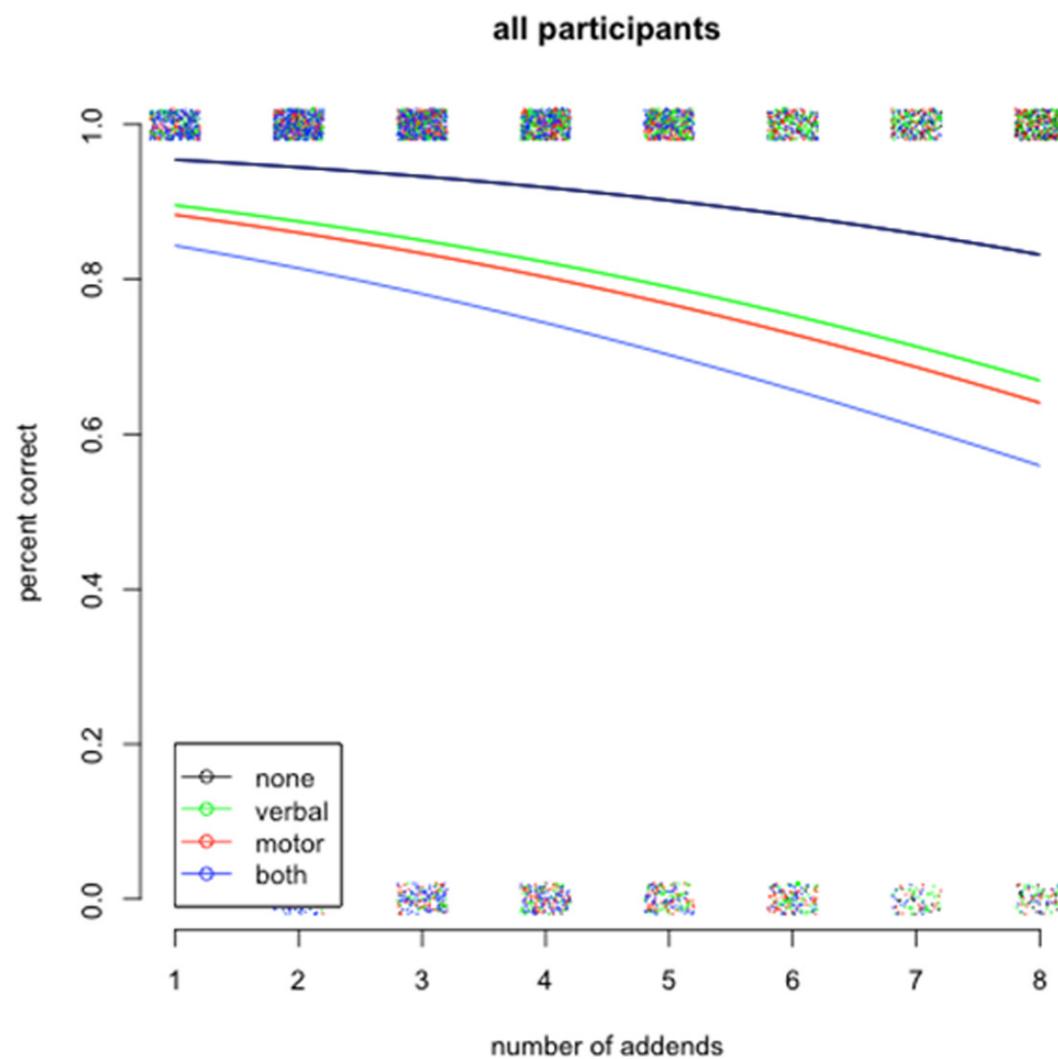
- We can do a logistic model for all the data!
 - Averaging across subjects
 - “Just gets rid of noise”?

```
glm(formula = correct ~ addends + cond - 1)
```

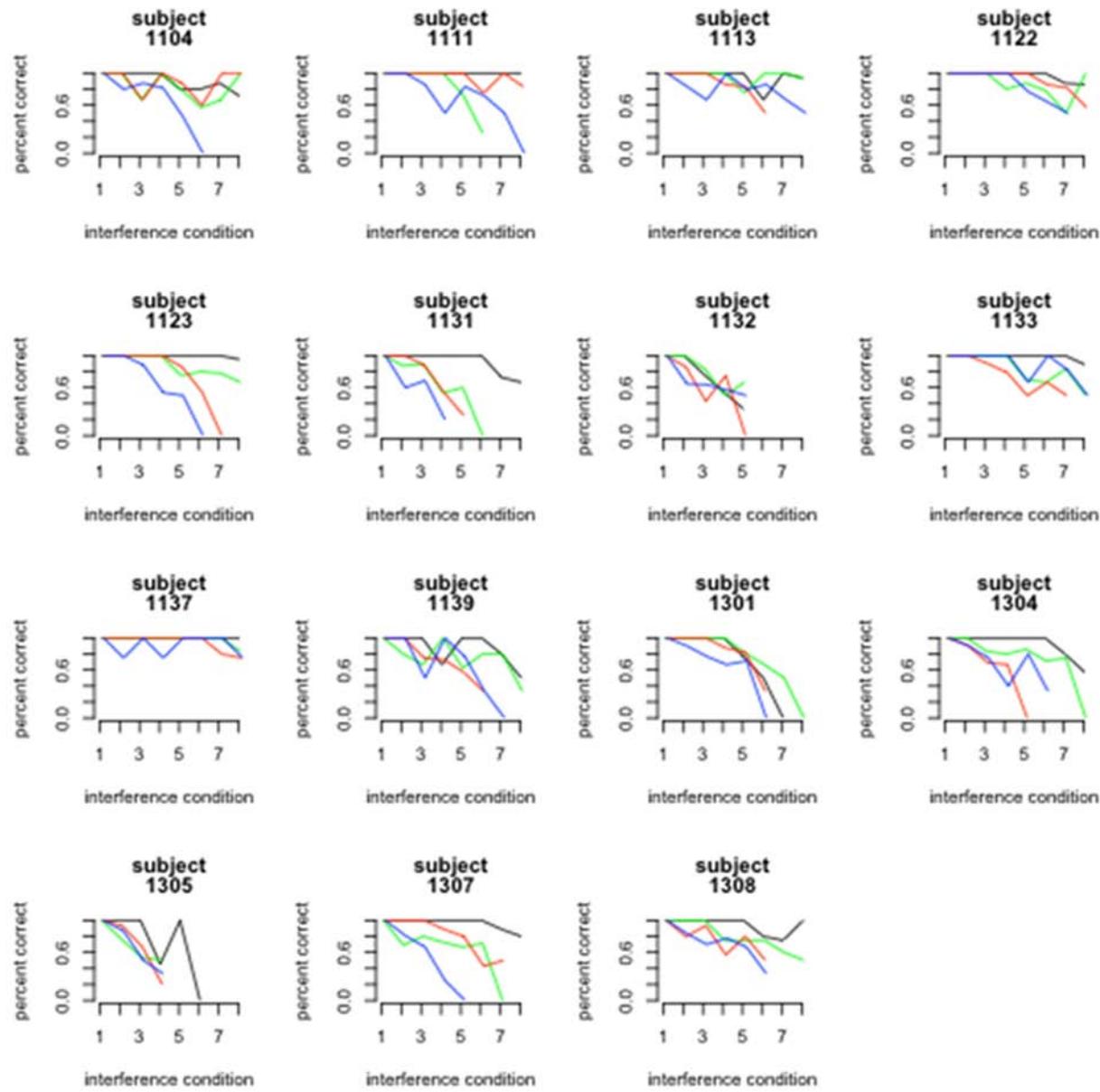
Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
addends	-0.20663	0.02682	-7.706	1.30e-14 ***	
cond.both	1.89223	0.13839	13.673	< 2e-16 ***	
cond.motor	2.23117	0.15908	14.025	< 2e-16 ***	
cond.none	3.25219	0.21618	15.044	< 2e-16 ***	
cond.verbal	2.35800	0.16720	14.103	< 2e-16 ***	

Plotting everything

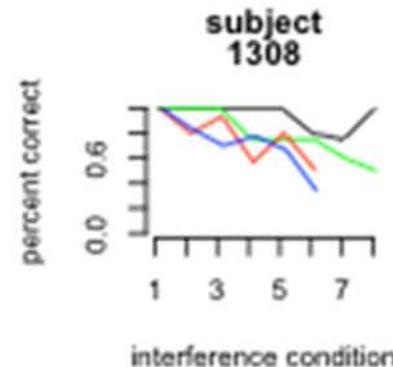
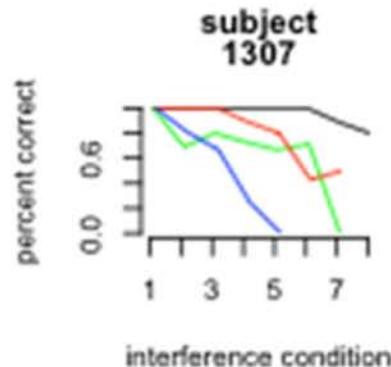
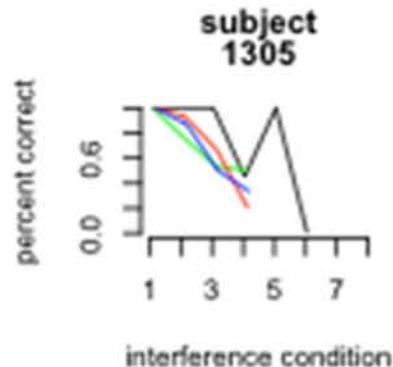


All the subjects



What's going on?

- Every participant didn't do every trial
 - participants only did trials they did (relatively) well on
 - good participants contributed all the trials for the higher numbers of addends



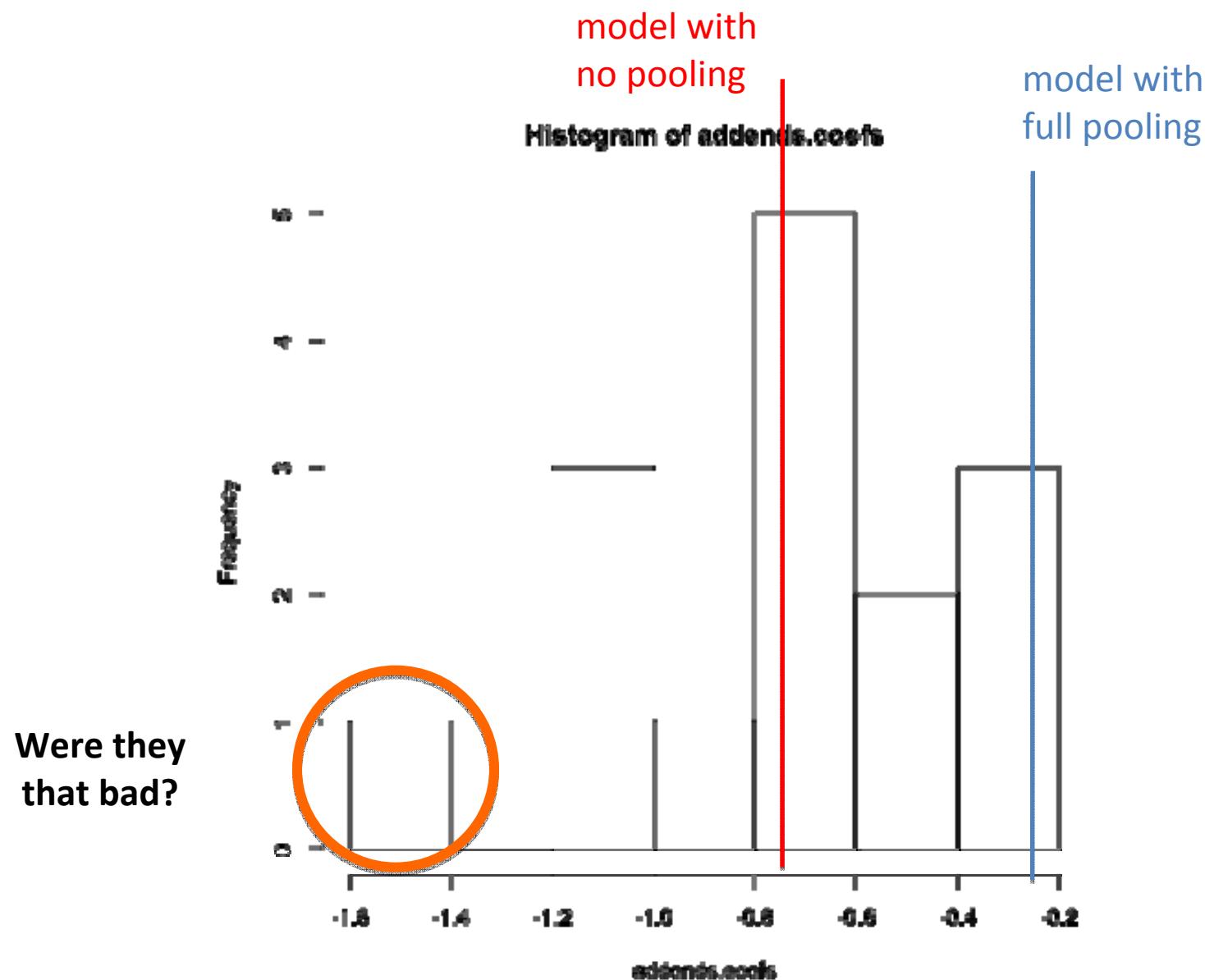
Multilevel linear modeling

- You have data at two levels
 - Group level information about condition
 - Subject level information about identities
- You want to aggregate information
- There are three options
 1. Full pooling: throw out info about identities
 2. No pooling: analyze each subject separately
 3. Partial pooling: try to factor out unique contribution of subject identities

No pooling

- Estimate a separate GLM for each subject
 - Then make inferences about the robustness of coefficients across GLM
 - But if you have sparse or noisy information for a participant, you can't use group data to correct
- “Whereas complete pooling ignores variation between individuals, the no-pooling analysis overstates it. To put it another way, the no-pooling analysis overfits the data within each individual.” (Gelman& Hill, 2006)

Addend coefficients



Multilevel models for partial pooling

- The solution: fit a model which assigns some variation to individual participants and some to group level coefficients
- standard LM: $y = a + bx$
- simple multilevel LM: $y = a_j + bx + \dots$
 - different intercept for each participant
 - but same slope
- more complex model: $y = a_j + b_jx + \dots$
- we won't talk about *how* to fit any of these

Mixed logistic regression

Generalized linear mixed model fit by the Laplace approximation

Formula: **correct ~ addends + cond - 1 + (1 | subnum)**

Random effects:

Groups Name Variance Std.Dev.

subnum (Intercept) 0.62641 0.79146

Number of obs: 2410, groups: subnum, 15

Here's the
varying
intercept term

Fixed effects:

Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)

addends	-0.42775	0.03611	-11.84	<2e-16 ***
condboth	2.84159	0.26983	10.53	<2e-16 ***
condmotor	3.30181	0.28705	11.50	<2e-16 ***
condnone	4.76725	0.34824	13.69	<2e-16 ***
condverbal	3.54185	0.29771	11.90	<2e-16 ***

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1

methods note: this is using R with the lme4 package, also new version of matlab can do this

Mixed logistic regression

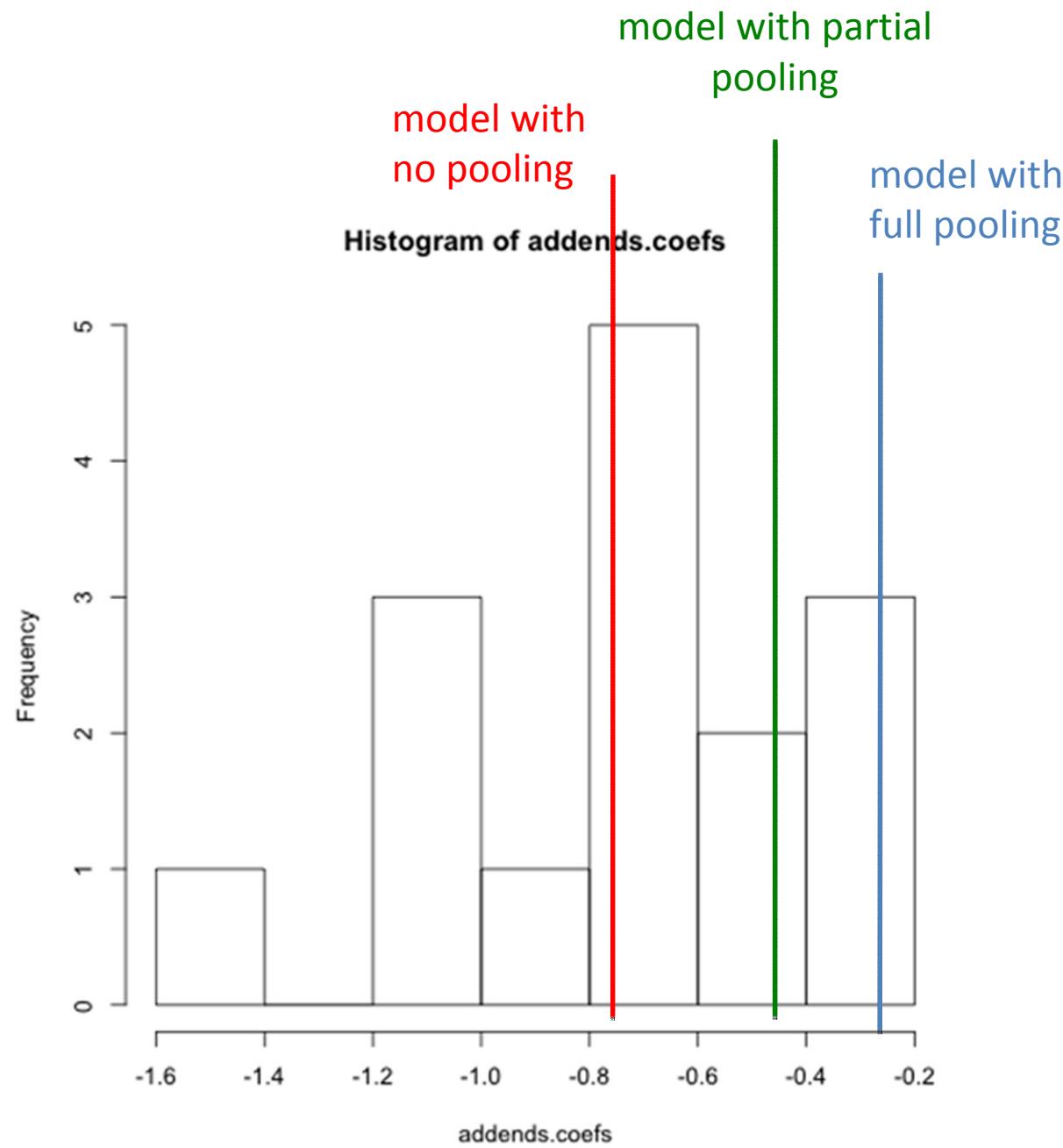
group level predictors

addends	-0.4277491
cond.both	2.8415901
cond.motor	3.3018099
cond.none	4.7672475
cond.verbal	3.5418503

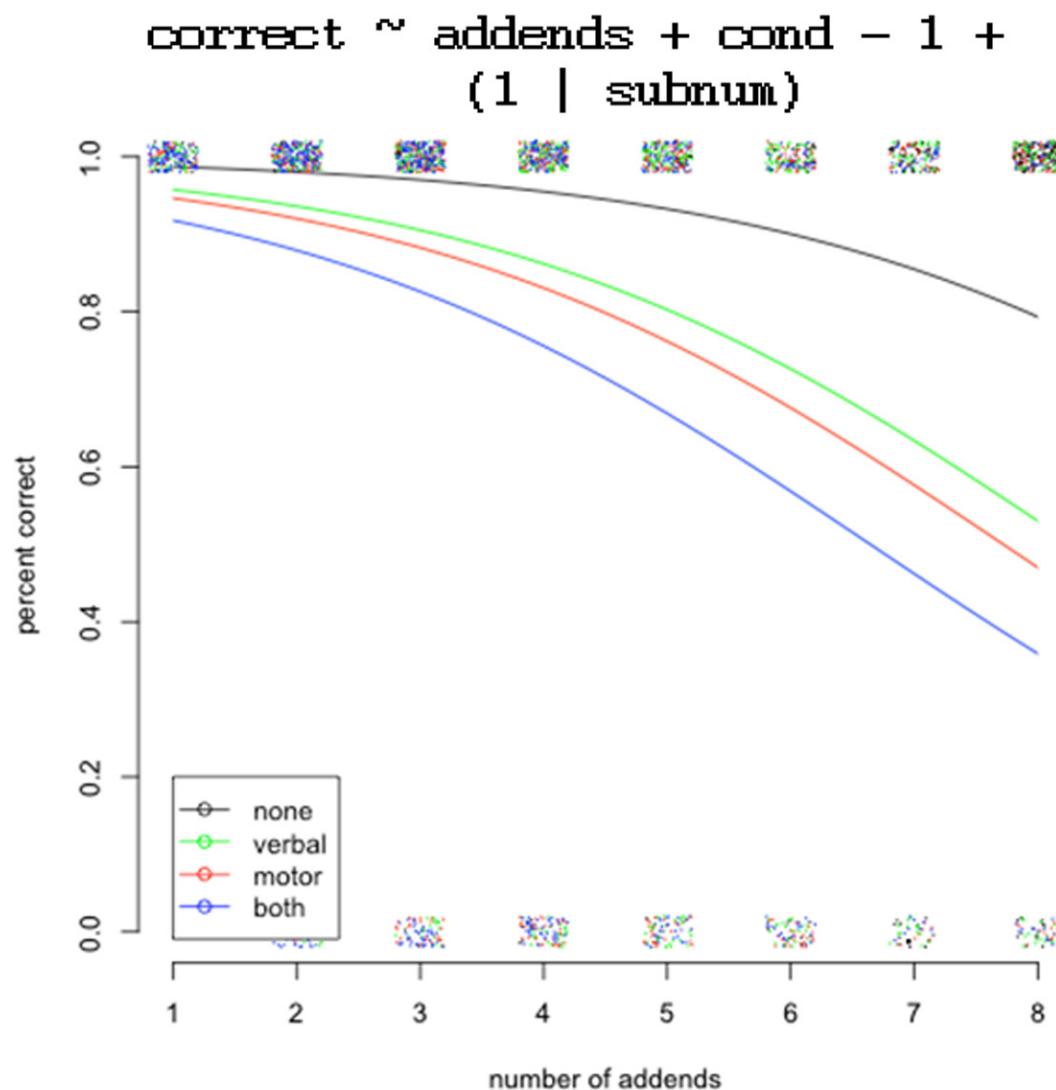
subject-level predictors

1104	0.2716444
1111	0.6886913
1113	0.8022382
1122	0.6276071
1123	0.2784564
1131	-0.8091596
1132	-1.1941759
1133	0.4858048
1137	1.5881314
1139	-0.2907816
1301	-0.3750832
1304	-0.4040512
1305	-1.2366471
1307	-0.4758867
1308	-0.1190724

Addend coefficients

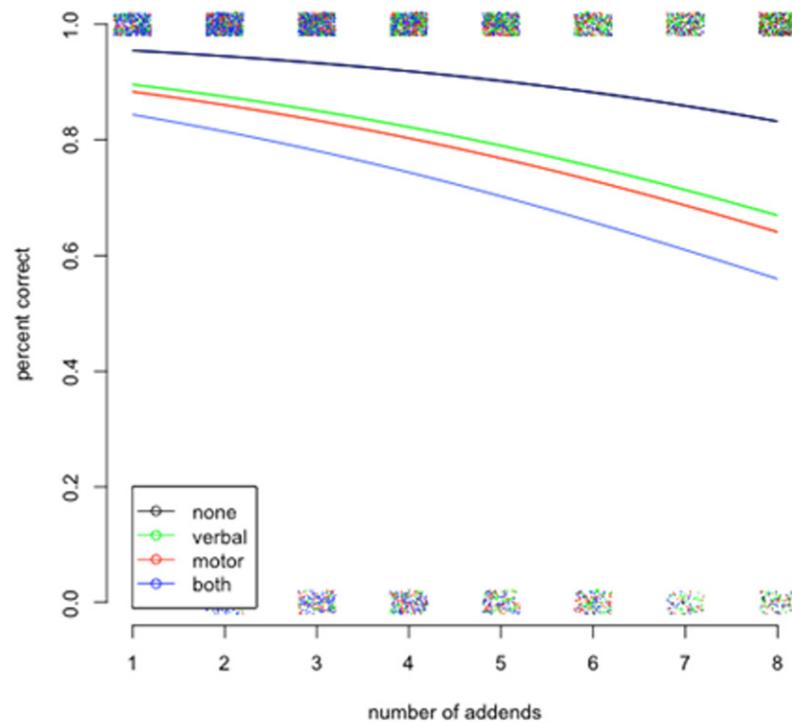


Mixed model

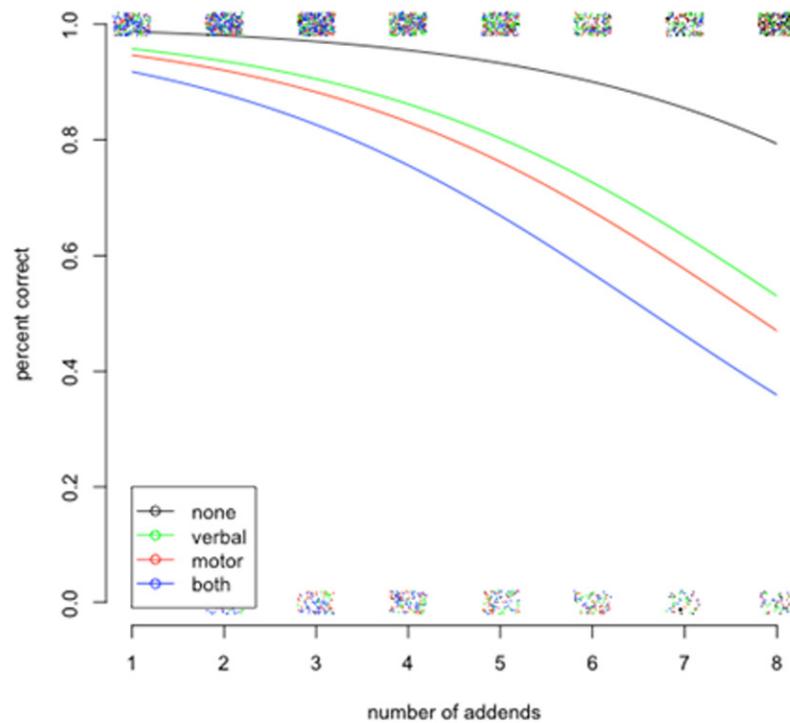


Side by side

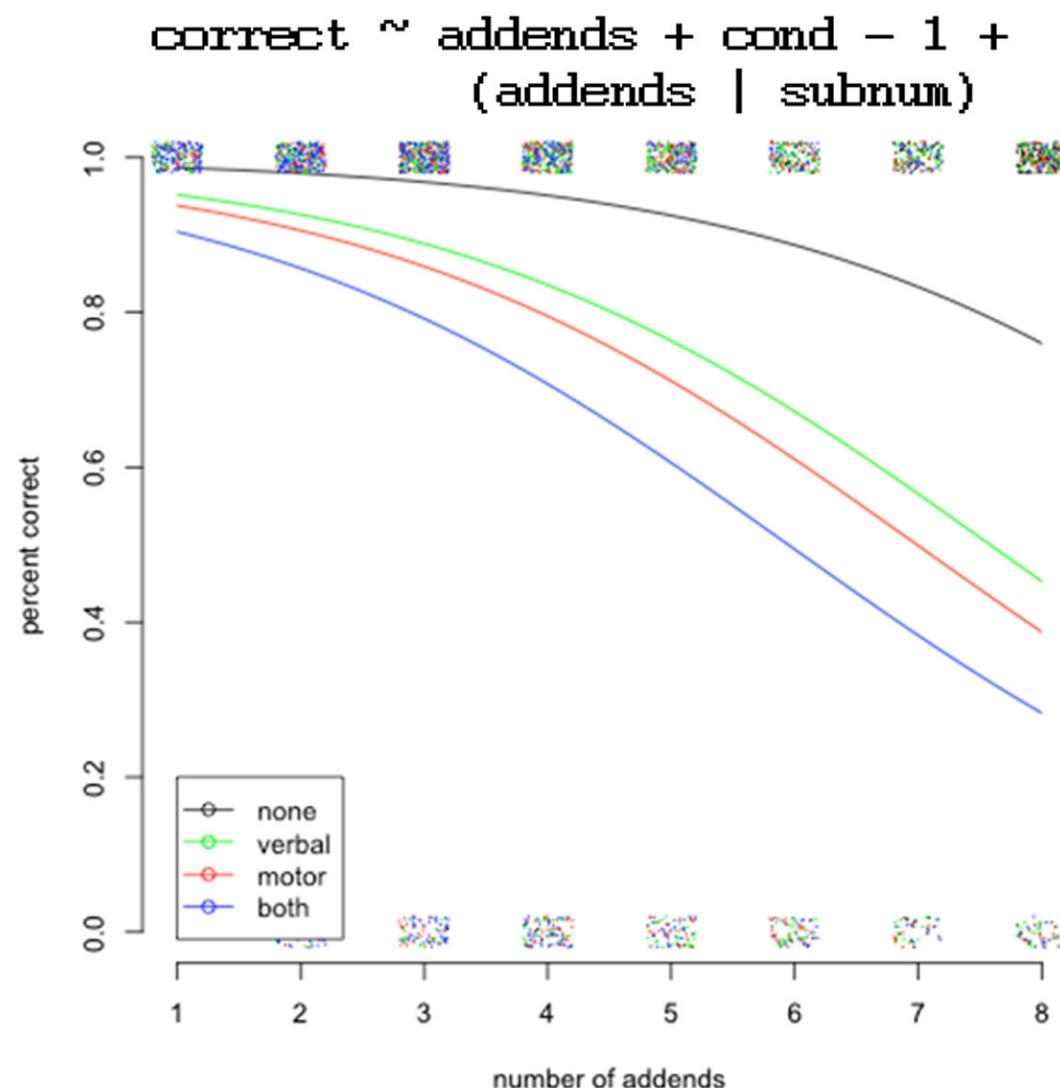
full pooling



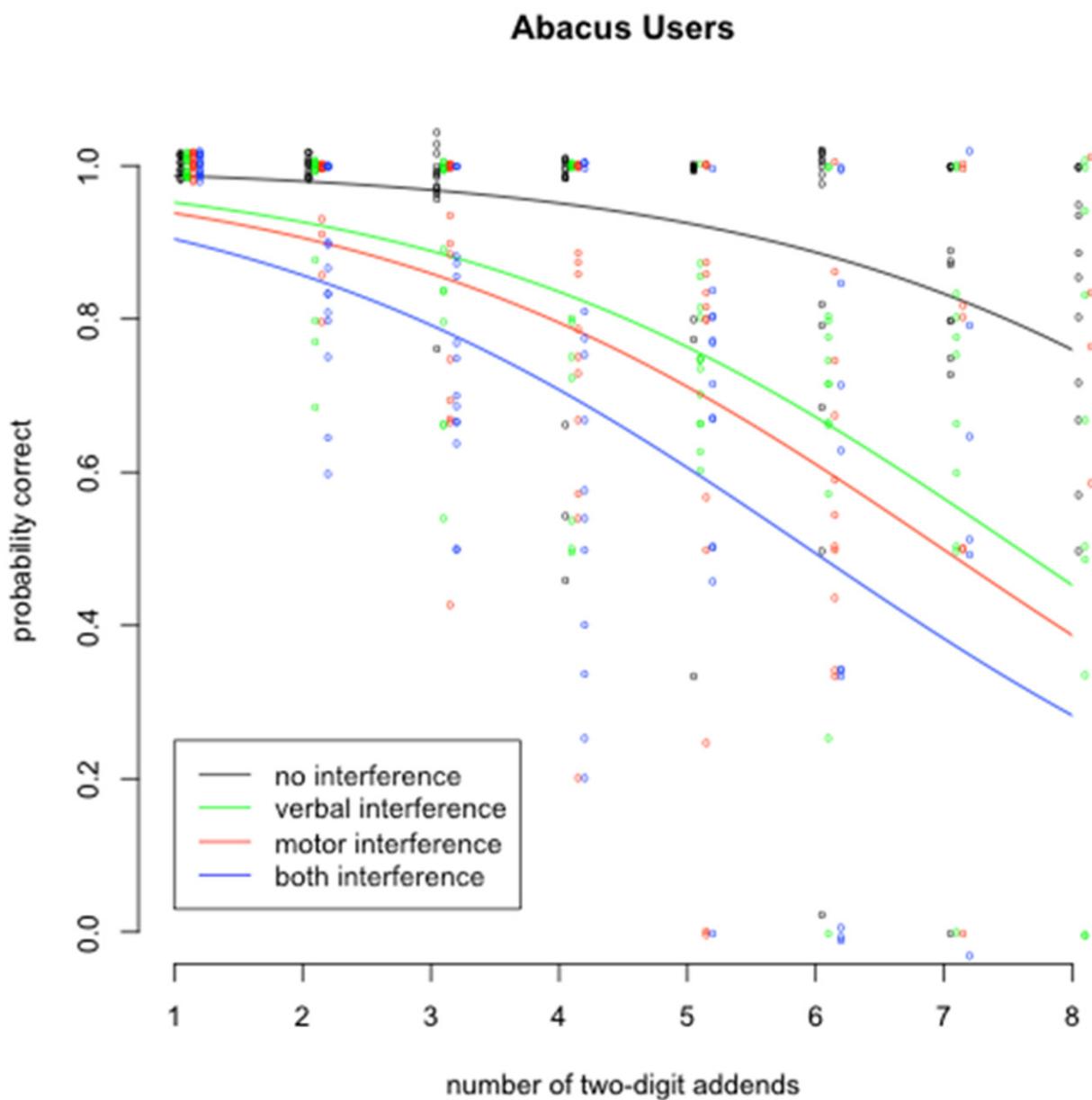
mixed model



Mixed model



The eventual visualization



Generalizing from this example

- Not all studies have this dramatic problem
 - Part of the reason for the big change with the mixed model was the fact that not all subjects did all trials
- When do I choose a mixed model
 - When DON'T you want a mixed model?
 - If you've got logistic data, you don't want to use a regular LM over means
 - std. errors don't work out, e.g.
 - but full pooling is anti-conservative (violates independence)
 - So use the mixed logistic model



CONCLUSIONS

Summary

- The linear model is a model of data
 - Consider the interpretation of your model
 - Treat it as a model whose fit should be assessed
- The GLM allows links between linear models and data with a range of distributions
- Multilevel models can be effective tools for fitting data with multiple grains of variation
 - Especially important for subjects/items

More generally

Statistics as a “bag of tricks”

- Tests and assumptions
 - check assumptions
 - apply test
- Significance testing
 - without looking for meaningfulness

Statistical tools for modeling data

- Modeling
 - fit model
 - check fit
- Meaningful interpretation
 - significance quantifies belief in parameter estimates