

Example 2: General Linear Models with One Quantitative or Binary Predictor (complete data, syntax, and output in R available online)

These example data were selected from the High School and Beyond 1980 dataset (in the `candisc` R package). The current example will use general linear models (estimated within the base R `lm` function) to examine associations of math with writing and binary gender. It will also introduce how to obtain linear combinations of fixed effects to create predicted outcomes using the `glht` function from the `multcomp` R package.

R Syntax for Importing and Preparing Data for Analysis (after loading packages `TeachingDemos`, `readxl`, `psych`, `multcomp`, `lm.beta`, `Hmisc`, and `supernova`):

```
# Set working directory (to import and export files to)
# Paste in the folder address where your data file is saved in quotes
# Note the slashes are backwards relative to Windows file paths
setwd("C:/Dropbox/26_EDF9770/Example2/")

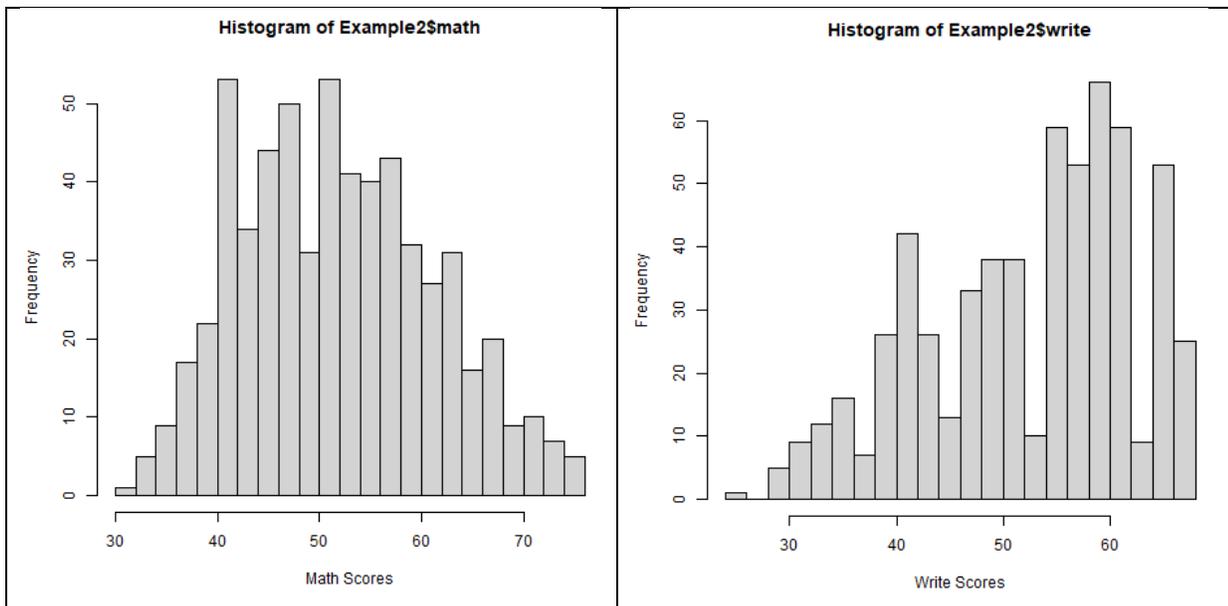
# Import "HSB_Example.xlsx" from sheet "Sheet1" with first row as variable names
Example2 = read_excel(path="HSB_Example.xlsx", sheet="Sheet1", col_names=TRUE)
# Convert to data frame to use for analysis
Example2 = as.data.frame(Example2)

# Load R functions for this class from R file in working directory
source("EDF9770_Functions.R")
```

R Descriptive Statistics:

```
# to save a plot: open a file, create the plot, then close the file
png(file="Math Histogram Plot.png") # open file
hist(x=Example2$math, freq=TRUE, breaks=20, ylab="Frequency", xlab="Math Scores")
dev.off() # close file

# to save a plot: open a file, create the plot, then close the file
png(file="Write Histogram Plot.png") # open file
hist(x=Example2$write, freq=TRUE, breaks=20, ylab="Frequency", xlab="Write Scores")
dev.off() # close file
```



```
# describe prints sample descriptive statistics for quantitative variables
# List variables to be included in separate quotes within c concatenate function
# Wrapped a print command around to get more than two significant digits

print("Descriptive Statistics for Quantitative or Binary Variables")
print(psych::describe(x=Example2[, c("math","write","gender")], fast=TRUE), digits=3)
```

	vars	n	mean	sd	median	min	max	range	skew	kurtosis	se
math	1	600	51.849	9.415	51.3	31.8	75.5	43.7	0.263	-0.653	0.384
write	2	600	52.385	9.726	54.1	25.5	67.1	41.6	-0.470	-0.714	0.397
gender	3	600	1.545	0.498	2.0	1.0	2.0	1.0	-0.180	-1.971	0.020

```
print("Get variances too (on diagonal of output covariance matrix)")
var(x=Example2[, c("math","write","gender")])
```

	math	write	gender
math	88.6373	57.935	-0.2262
write	57.9345	94.604	1.1844
gender	-0.2262	1.184	0.2484

In this "variance-covariance" matrix:

Diagonal has **variances**: $var(y_i) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \bar{y})^2}{N-1}$

Off-diagonals have **covariances**: $cov(x_i, y_i) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N [(x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})]}{N-1}$

Because **covariances are pretty much impossible to interpret** (other than their sign), we usually summarize bivariate associations using **correlations** instead (such as the Pearson correlations given below).

```
print("Pearson Correlation Matrix with p-values using rcorr from Hmisc package")
print("Must convert data frame to matrix to use rcorr")
Hmisc::rcorr(x=as.matrix(Example2[, c("math","write","gender")]), type="pearson")
```

	math	write	gender
math	1.00	0.63	-0.05
write	0.63	1.00	0.24
gender	-0.05	0.24	1.00

n= 600

P

	math	write	gender
math		0.0000	0.2383
write	0.0000		0.0000
gender	0.2383	0.0000	

In this "correlation" matrix:

Diagonal has **variances of standardized variables = 1**

Off-diagonals have **correlations** (the variables' covariance divided by their standard deviations): $r = \frac{cov(x_i, y_i)}{s_x s_y}$

These are the corresponding *p*-values for significance tests of each correlation against $H_0 = 0$, in which .0000 would be reported as < .0001 instead (i.e., *p*-values are never 0).

Empty General Linear Model (no predictors):

$$math_i = \beta_0 + e_i$$

The empty model is our starting point—the most naive prediction of $y_i = math$ in which everyone is predicted to have the mean math: $\hat{y}_i = \beta_0$. Thus, the variance of the e_i residuals will be ALL the y_i variance, as given above by 88.637 and in as given below in the first "Sums of Squares Table".

```
print("Empty GLM Predicting Math -- save as Math_Empty")
print("1 represents fixed intercept")
Math_Empty = lm(data=Example2, formula=math~1)
obj=LMSummary(Math_Empty, explain=TRUE) # Full custom output with explanations
```

Sums of Squares Table					
	SS	DF	MS	F	p R2
Model					
Error					
Total	53093.718	599			88.637

Explanation:

SS = Sum of Squares, MS = Mean Square, DF = Degrees of Freedom,
F = F test-statistic, p = two-sided *p*-value, R2 = R-square

The "Fixed Effects Table" below provides full results for each fixed effect—just the β_0 intercept so far.

```
Fixed Effects Table
      Est   SE      t      p    LCI    UCI
Intercept 51.849 0.384 134.899 <0.001 51.094 52.604
```

Explanation:
 Est = Estimate, SE = Standard Error, t = t test-statistic,
 p = p-value, LCI = Lower Confidence Interval,
 UCI = Upper Confidence Interval

Now let's see if writing can predict math by giving writing a fixed linear slope!

Because writing has a lower bound of 25.5 (with a mean = 52.385), we first need to center it so that 0 will be a meaningful value for the β_0 fixed intercept. I picked 50 because it is a round number on the middle (but any value within the range of the write predictor would be fine).

$$\text{math}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{write}_i - 50) + e_i$$

```
# Center quantitative write variable to be used as a predictor
Example2$write50 = Example2$write-50 # write50: Writing Score (0=50)

print("GLM Predicting Math from Centered Write 0=50 -- save as MathWrite50")
Math_Write50 = lm(data=Example2, formula=math~1+write50)
```

```
summary(Math_Write50) # Default output
```

```
Residuals:
    Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-20.968  -4.861  -0.288   5.007  21.701

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)  50.3886    0.3067    164   <2e-16
write50       0.6124    0.0307     20   <2e-16
```

Here is what is given by the default summary function for lm. The residual variance is not given, but the residual SD is (misabeled as residual SE). In practice, the residual variance should be reported in results sections for each model.

```
Residual standard error: 7.3 on 598 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared:  0.4, Adjusted R-squared:  0.399
F-statistic: 399 on 1 and 598 DF, p-value: <2e-16
```

And here is what is returned with my LMsummary function instead:

```
obj=LMsummary(Math_Write50, explain=TRUE) # Full custom output with explanations
```

```
Sums of Squares Table
      SS DF      MS      F      p      R2
Model 21251.652  1 21251.652 399.110 <0.001 0.400
Error 31842.066 598   53.248
Total 53093.718 599   88.637
```

Explanation:
 SS = Sum of Squares, MS = Mean Square, DF = Degrees of Freedom,
 F = F test-statistic, p = two-sided p-value, R2 = R-square

```
Fixed Effects Table
      Est   SE      t      p    LCI    UCI
Intercept 50.389 0.307 164.271 <0.001 49.786 50.991
write50    0.612 0.031  19.978 <0.001  0.552  0.673
```

Explanation:
 Est = Estimate, SE = Standard Error, t = t test-statistic,
 p = p-value, LCI = Lower Confidence Interval,
 UCI = Upper Confidence Interval

Interpret β_0 = intercept:

Interpret β_1 = slope of write50:

How much math variance is leftover after considering writing (i.e., what is σ_e^2)?

Generating predicted outcomes for illustrative purposes:

$$\mathit{math}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\mathit{write}_i - 50) + e_i$$

Pred math for write=40: $\widehat{\mathit{math}} = 50.389(1) + 0.612(40 - 50) = 44.265$

Pred math for write=50: $\widehat{\mathit{math}} = 50.389(1) + 0.612(50 - 50) = 50.389$

Pred math for write=60: $\widehat{\mathit{math}} = 50.389(1) + 0.612(60 - 50) = 56.512$

```
print("Get predicted outcomes -- save as Pred_Math_Write50")
print("In number lists below, the values are multipliers for each fixed effect in order")
Pred_Math_Write50 = multcomp::glht(model=Math_Write50, linfct=rbind(
  "Pred math for write=40 (write50=-10)" = c(1, -10), # beta0(1) + beta1*(-10)
  "Pred math for write=50 (write50= 0)" = c(1, 0), # beta0(1) + beta1*( 0)
  "Pred math for write=60 (write50= 10)" = c(1, 10)) # beta0(1) + beta1*( 10)
obj=glhtSummary(glhtObject=Pred_Math_Write50, explain=TRUE) # Custom output + explanations
```

Linear Combinations Table

	Est	SE	t	p	LCI	UCI
Pred Math for write=40 (write50=-10)	44.265	0.483	91.727	<0.001	43.317	45.212
Pred Math for write=50 (write50= 0)	50.389	0.307	164.271	<0.001	49.786	50.991
Pred Math for write=60 (write50= 10)	56.512	0.378	149.320	<0.001	55.769	57.256

Explanation:

Est = Estimate, SE = Standard Error, t = t test-statistic,

p = p-value, LCI = Lower Confidence Interval,

UCI = Upper Confidence Interval

Generating one measure of effect size—a standardized slope:

```
print("Standardized fixed effect solution using lm.beta package")
lm.beta(Math_Write50)
```

```
Standardized Coefficients::
(Intercept)      write50
           NA           0.632666
```

Because there is only one predictor, the standardized slope (i.e., between z-scored versions of the variables, in which mean = 0 and SD = 1) is the same as the Pearson correlation between math and write. This provides an effect size to describe the size of the relation between math and writing in absolute terms.

Now let's see if there are gender differences in math by giving gender a fixed linear slope!

Because gender was coded as 1 = male and 2 = female, we first need to recode it (i.e., center it) so that 0 will be a meaningful value for the β_0 fixed intercept as one of the groups. I tend to name binary variables with the letters in order of the 0 and 1 groups, as shown below. Alternatively, it is common to name them after the group coded 1 (i.e., a name of "female" instead here).

$$\text{math}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{genderMF}_i) + e_i$$

```
# Recode gender predictor so that 0 is meaningful (as male)
Example2$genderMF=NA # Create new empty variable
Example2$genderMF[which(Example2$gender==1)]=0 # genderMF=0 if gender=1 (male)
Example2$genderMF[which(Example2$gender==2)]=1 # genderMF=1 if gender=2 (female)
# genderMF: 0=male, 1=female # Label as a comment only

print("GLM Predicting Math from Gender (0=Male, 1=Female) -- save as Math_GenderMF")
Math_GenderMF = lm(data=Example2, formula=math~1+genderMF)
obj=LMSummary(Math_GenderMF, effectsizes=TRUE) # Custom output with effect sizes
```

```
Sums of Squares Table
      SS DF      MS      F      p      R2
Model 123.443  1 123.443 1.394 0.238 0.002
Error 52970.275 598  88.579
Total 53093.718 599  88.637
```

The residual variance is now $\sigma_e^2 = 88.579$.
What do you think that means about how well gender predicts math?

```
Fixed Effects Table
      Est SE      t      p      LCI      UCI
Intercept 52.345 0.570 91.896 <0.001 51.227 53.464
genderMF -0.911 0.772 -1.181 0.238 -2.426 0.604
```

Interpret β_0 = intercept:

Interpret β_1 = slope of genderMF:

How much math variance is leftover after considering writing (i.e., what is σ_e^2)?

What would the slope be if gender was coded 0 = females and 1 = males instead?

To get a Cohen's d effect size for the mean math difference between males and females, we can calculate d from the t test-statistic: $d = \frac{2t}{\sqrt{DF_{den}}} = \frac{2 \times -1.181}{\sqrt{598}} = -0.097 \rightarrow$ mean difference is -0.097 standard deviations lower for females than males.

```
Effect Sizes for Fixed Effects Table
      Est p      d      pr      sR2
genderMF -0.911 0.238 -0.097 -0.048 0.002
```

Explanation:
 Est = Estimate, p = two-sided p-value, d = Cohen's d ,
 pr = Partial r, sR2 = Semi-Partial R-square

`effectsizes=TRUE` creates this table, which repeats Est and p for convenience and adds three effect sizes.

In this model with only one predictor (i.e., a bivariate model), the partial correlation given here is the same as Pearson correlation given earlier.

Generating predicted outcomes for illustrative purposes:

$$\mathit{math}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\mathit{genderMF}_i) + e_i$$

Pred math for males=0: $\widehat{\mathit{math}} = 52.345(1) - 0.911(40 - 50) = 52.345$

Pred math for females=1: $\widehat{\mathit{math}} = 52.345(1) - 0.911(50 - 50) = 51.435$

```
print("Get predicted outcomes -- save as Pred_Math_GenderMF")
print("In number lists below, values are multiplier for each fixed effect in order")
Pred_Math_GenderMF = multcomp:glht(model=Math_GenderMF, linfct=rbind(
  "Pred math for genderMF=0" = c(1,0), # beta0(1) + beta1*(0)
  "Pred math for genderMF=1" = c(1,1)) # beta0(1) + beta1*(1)
obj=glhtSummary(glhtObject=Pred_Math_GenderMF) # Brief custom output
```

Linear Combinations Table

	Est	SE	t	p	LCI	UCI
Pred Math for GenderMF=0	52.345	0.570	91.896	<0.001	51.227	53.464
Pred Math for GenderMF=1	51.435	0.520	98.824	<0.001	50.412	52.457

Example Results Section

(although it's more verbose than would be typical for the sake of completeness here):

The extent to which math could be predicted from writing and binary gender was examined in separate general linear models (i.e., simple linear regressions). All analyses were conducted using the `lm` function in R v. 4.5.2. Predicted outcomes were generated using the `glht` function within the `multcomp` package v. 1.4-29.

To create a meaningful model intercept, writing was centered such that 0 = 50 (near its mean). Writing was found to be a significant predictor of math: Relative to the reference expected math for a person with writing = 50 provided by the model intercept of 50.39 (SE = 0.31), for every additional unit of writing, math was expected to be higher by 0.61 (SE = 0.03, $p < .001$), resulting in a standardized slope = 0.63 (i.e., the Pearson correlation between math and writing). For example, persons with writing = 40 had predicted math = 44.27 (SE = 0.48), whereas persons with writing = 60 had predicted math = 56.51 (SE = 0.38).

We then examined prediction of annual income by binary gender. To create a meaningful model intercept, gender was recoded so that 0 = males and 1 = females. Gender was not a significant predictor of math: Relative to the reference expected math for male students provided by the model intercept of 52.35 (SE = 0.57), female students were expected to have nonsignificantly lower math by 0.91 (SE = 0.77, $p = .238$), resulting in a predicted math for female students of 51.44 (SE = 0.52) and a standardized mean difference of Cohen's $d = -0.10$.

Note: because a GLM with a single binary predictor is also known as a "two-sample t-test" here is what the results would look like written from that angle... A two-sample t -test (i.e., assuming homogeneous variance across groups) was used to examine mean differences between male and female students in math scores. A nonsignificant mean difference was found, $t(598) = -1.18$, $p = .238$, such that math for female students ($M = 51.44$, SE = 0.52) was nonsignificantly lower on average than math for male students ($M = 52.35$, SE = 0.57).

Challenges:

1. Write syntax to predict science from locus of control, in which 0.5 is the reference. What do you conclude?
2. Write syntax to predict science from school type (1=public, 2= private), in which private is the reference. What do you conclude?