

## **Comparing Effect Sizes**

Two things to keep in mind.

1. Variable's variability

2. Coefficient size

In both cases, you to be cognizant of multi-term variables - interactions, polynomials, factors.

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Determining Relative Importance	Notes
If two explanatory variables are measured in exactly the same units, we can (kind of) asses their relative importance in their effect on $y$ quite simply	Type notes here
<ul><li>The larger the coefficient, the stronger the effect</li><li>This does not, however, take into account the variable's variance.</li></ul>	
A better rule would be:	
<ul> <li>For variables measured in the same units with roughly the same variance, bigger coefficients mean larger effects.</li> </ul>	
Consider the example below.	
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# Same-unit comparisons



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Other Methods of Comparison	Notes	
If explanatory variables are not all measured in the same units, it is difficult to assess relative importance	Type notes here	
<ul> <li>This problem can be overcome for quantitative variables by using standardized variables.</li> <li>For other types of variables, we need a different method.</li> </ul>		
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## Standardized Regression Coefficients

- Standardized coefficients enable us to compare the relative effects of two or more explanatory variables that have different units of measurement
- If this is the un-standardized model

$$y_i = b_0 + b_1 x_{i1} + b_2 x_{i2} + e_i$$

The standardized coefficients are:

- Fully standardized:  $b_j^* = b_j rac{s_{x_j}}{s_y}$ 
  - For every one-standard-deviation change in  $x_j$ , we expect a  $b_j^*$  standard deviation change in y holding all other model covariates constant.
- x-standardized:  $b_j^* = b_j s_{x_j}$ 
  - For every one-standard-deviation change in  $x_j$ , we expect a  $b_j^*$  unit change in y holding constant all other model covariates.

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How Many Standard Deviations?	Notes
Gelman (2008, <i>Statistics in Medicine</i> ) suggests dividing quantitative predictors by two rather than one standard deviations. • Binary variables have a standard deviation of $\sqrt{p(1-p)}$ . • For symmetric binary variables, this is: $\sqrt{.5 \times .5} = 0.5$ • In which case a change from $0 \rightarrow 1$ would be two standard deviations. • If we divide by 1 SD, quantitative variables will have a standard deviation of 1, twice the size of that of binary variables. • Dividing by two standard deviations gives the resulting quantitative variable a standard deviation of 0.5, the same as a symmetric binary variable.	Type notes here
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Standardized Variables in R	Notes
<ul> <li>Unlike some statistical packages, R does not automatically return standardized coefficients</li> </ul>	Type notes here

• A separate model must be fitted to a dataset for which all quantitative variables have been standardized.

• Alternatively, all the quantitative variables can be standardized at the same time by creating a new scaled dataset (from the {DAMisc} package):

scaled.data <- scaleDataFrame(Duncan,</pre> numsd = 2) mod <- lm(prestige - income + education + type, data = scaled.data)

Standardized Variables: Cautions			
It makes little sense to standardized dummy variables:			
<ul> <li>It cannot be increased by a standard deviation so the regular interpretation for standardized coefficients does not apply</li> <li>Moreover, the standard interpretation of the dummy variable showing differences in level between two categories is lost</li> </ul>			
We cannot standardize multi-term variables: interaction effects or polynomials			
<ul> <li>Interactions are dependent on the main effects</li> <li>We can, however, standardize quantitative variables beforehand and construct higher- order terms afterwards.</li> <li>Regardless of this, we cannot determine importance of multi-term variables by looking at any single coefficient.</li> </ul>			
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## Relative Importance of a Set of Predictors (1)

In the standardized variables case, we can easily determine relative importance by the ratio of the two standardized coefficients

• In other words, we assess the ratio of the standard deviations of the two contributions to the linear predictor

Imagine now that we are interested in the relative effects of two sets of variables (e.g., a set of dummy regressors for a single variables versus the effects of another variable)

• Instead of individual standardize variables, we explore the relative contributions that the set of variables make to the dispersion of the fitted values

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## Relative Importance of a Set of Predictors (2)

• Following from Silber et al. (1995) the ratio of variances of the contributions of two sets of variables,  $\omega$ , can be determined by:

$$\omega = \sqrt{rac{eta' \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X} eta}{\gamma' \mathbf{H}' \mathbf{H} \gamma}}$$

Where  $\beta$  is the coefficient vector and **X** is the model matrix for the *set1 predictors*;  $\gamma$  is the coefficient vector and **H** is the model matrix for the *set2 predictors* 

- If  $\omega=1,$  then both sets of predictors contribute the same amount of variation in the outcome variable
- MLE also provides an approximate test of  $H_0:\omega=1$  which refers to the standard normal distribution, yielding the standard confidence intervals, thus making the test generalizable to GLMs

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### The **relimp** Package in R

The relimp package for R implements the  $\omega$  measure of relative importance of Silber et al.

• The variables of interest can be specified in a command line, with each effect given the number corresponding to its column(s) in the model matrix (or row in the regression output). For example:

library(relimp)
relimp(model, set1=1:3, set2=4:5)

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## Relative Importance: An Example (1)

modi<-lm(interlocks ~ log(assets) + sector + nation, data=Ornstei
summary(mod1)\$coefficients</pre>

##		Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
##	(Intercept)	-28.4429670	4.9271875	-5.7726578	2.465024e-08
##	log(assets)	5.9907825	0.6813797	8.7921354	3.235865e-16
##	sectorBNK	17.3227304	5.1846800	3.3411378	9.710771e-04
##	sectorCON	-2.7126874	5.4241073	-0.5001168	6.174628e-01
##	sectorFIN	-1.2744881	3.4121039	-0.3735197	7.090998e-01
##	sectorHLD	-2.2916036	4.6132359	-0.4967454	6.198350e-01
##	sectorMAN	1.2440168	2.3665722	0.5256619	5.996209e-01
##	sectorMER	-0.8801086	3.0346472	-0.2900201	7.720577e-01
##	sectorMIN	1.7566138	2.4447619	0.7185214	4.731527e-01
##	sectorTRN	1.8888418	3.3023169	0.5719747	5.678882e-01
##	sectorWOD	5.1056070	3.0990366	1.6474820	1.008012e-01
##	nationOTH	-3.0533129	3.0872167	-0.9890180	3.236759e-01
##	nationUK	-5.3294006	3.0714272	-1.7351544	8.403005e-02
##	nationUS	-8.4912938	1.7174063	-4.9442544	1.458432e-06

##				
##	Relative importance summa	ry for model		
##	lm(formula = interloc	ks ~ log(asset	s) + sector + n	ation, data =
##				
##	Numerator effects	("set1")	Denominator eff	ects ("set2")
##	1 s	ectorBNK		nation0TH
##	2 s	ectorCON		nationUK
##	3 s	ectorFIN		nationUS
##	4 s	ectorHLD		
##	5 s	ectorMAN		
##	6 s	ectorMER		
##	7 s	ectorMIN		
##	8 s	ectorTRN		
##	9 s	ectorWOD		
##				
##	Ratio of effect standard	deviations: 0.	858	
##	Log(sd ratio):	-0.153	(se 0.314)	
##				
##	Approximate 95% confidence	e interval for	log(sd ratio):	(-0.768,0.46
	Approximate 95% confidenc	e interval for	sd ratio:	(0.464.1.586

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## Plotting "Importance"

Using Silber et. al.'s definition of importance, we could make a plot of not the relative importance, but the absolute importance of variables.



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Importance of Interactions	Notes
We can also use the function above with interactions:	Type notes here
<pre>data(Prestige, package="carData") mdd &lt;- ln(prestige - incomereducation + women + type,</pre>	
## var importance lwr upr ## 1 women 0.06654899 0.005393675 0.1361451 ## 2 type 0.18670933 0.111035433 0.3254353 ## 3 Interaction 0.74674168 0.596982745 0.8498367	
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