

Chapter 305

Multiple Regression

Introduction

Multiple Regression Analysis refers to a set of techniques for studying the straight-line relationships among two or more variables. Multiple regression estimates the β 's in the equation

$$y_j = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1j} + \beta_2 x_{2j} + \cdots + \beta_p x_{pj} + \varepsilon_j$$

The X 's are the *independent variables* (IV's). Y is the *dependent variable*. The subscript j represents the observation (row) number. The β 's are the unknown *regression coefficients*. Their estimates are represented by b 's. Each β represents the original unknown (population) parameter, while b is an estimate of this β . The ε_j is the error (residual) of observation j .

Although the regression problem may be solved by a number of techniques, the most-used method is least squares. In least squares regression analysis, the b 's are selected so as to minimize the sum of the squared residuals. This set of b 's is not necessarily the set you want, since they may be distorted by *outliers*--points that are not representative of the data. Robust regression, an alternative to least squares, seeks to reduce the influence of outliers.

Multiple regression analysis studies the relationship between a *dependent* (response) *variable* and p *independent variables* (*predictors, regressors, IV's*). The sample multiple regression equation is

$$\hat{y}_j = b_0 + b_1 x_{1j} + b_2 x_{2j} + \cdots + b_p x_{pj}$$

If $p = 1$, the model is called *simple linear regression*.

The intercept, b_0 , is the point at which the regression plane intersects the Y axis. The b_i are the slopes of the regression plane in the direction of x_i . These coefficients are called the *partial-regression coefficients*. Each partial regression coefficient represents the net effect the i^{th} variable has on the dependent variable, holding the remaining X 's in the equation constant.

A large part of a regression analysis consists of analyzing the sample *residuals*, e_j , defined as

$$e_j = y_j - \hat{y}_j$$

Once the β 's have been estimated, various indices are studied to determine the reliability of these estimates. One of the most popular of these reliability indices is the correlation coefficient. The correlation coefficient, or simply the correlation, is an index that ranges from -1 to 1. When the value is near zero, there is no linear relationship. As the correlation gets closer to plus or minus one, the relationship is stronger. A value of one (or negative one) indicates a perfect linear relationship between two variables.

The regression equation is only capable of measuring linear, or straight-line, relationships. If the data form a circle, for example, regression analysis would not detect a relationship. For this reason, it is always advisable to plot each independent variable with the dependent variable, watching for curves, outlying points, changes in the amount of variability, and various other anomalies that may occur.

If the data are a random sample from a larger population and the ε_j are independent and normally distributed, a set of statistical tests may be applied to the b 's and the correlation coefficient. These t -tests and F -tests are valid only if the above assumptions are met.

Regression Models

In order to make good use of multiple regression, you must have a basic understanding of the regression model. The basic regression model is

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_p x_p + \varepsilon$$

This expression represents the relationship between the dependent variable (DV) and the independent variables (IV's) as a weighted average in which the regression coefficients (β 's) are the weights. Unlike the usual weights in a weighted average, it is possible for the regression coefficients to be negative.

A fundamental assumption in this model is that the effect of each IV is additive. Now, no one really believes that the true relationship is actually additive. Rather, they believe that this model is a reasonable first-approximation to the true model. To add validity to this approximation, you might consider this additive model to be a Taylor-series expansion of the true model. However, this appeal to the Taylor-series expansion usually ignores the 'local-neighborhood' assumption.

Another assumption is that the relationship of the DV with each IV is linear (straight-line). Here again, no one really believes that the relationship is a straight-line. However, this is a reasonable first approximation.

In order to obtain better approximations, methods have been developed to allow regression models to approximate curvilinear relationships as well as non-additivity. Although nonlinear regression models can be used in these situations, they add a higher level of complexity to the modeling process. An experienced user of multiple regression knows how to include curvilinear components in a regression model when it is needed.

Another issue is how to add categorical variables into the model. Unlike regular numeric variables, categorical variables may be alphabetic. Examples of categorical variables are gender, producer, and location. In order to effectively use multiple regression, you must know how to include categorical IV's in your regression model.

This section shows how **NCSS** may be used to specify and estimate advanced regression models that include curvilinearity, interaction, and categorical variables.

Representing a Curvilinear Relationship

A curvilinear relationship between a DV and one or more IV's is often modeled by adding new IV's which are created from the original IV by squaring, and occasionally cubing, them. For example, the regression model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2$$

might be expanded to

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1^2 + \beta_4 X_2^2 + \beta_5 X_1 X_2 \\ &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 Z_1 + \beta_2 Z_2 + \beta_3 Z_3 + \beta_4 Z_4 + \beta_5 Z_5 \end{aligned}$$

Note that this model is still additive in terms of the new IV's.

One way to adopt such a new model is to create the new IV's using the transformations of existing variables. However, the same effect can be achieved using the Custom Model statement. The details of writing a Custom Model will be presented later, but we note in passing that the above model would be written as

$$X_1 \quad X_2 \quad X_1 * X_1 \quad X_1 * X_2 \quad X_2 * X_2$$

Representing Categorical Variables

Categorical variables take on only a few unique values. For example, suppose a therapy variable has three possible values: A, B, and C. One question is how to include this variable in the regression model. At first glance, we can convert the letters to numbers by recoding A to 1, B to 2, and C to 3. Now we have numbers.

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Unfortunately, we will obtain completely different results if we recode A to 2, B to 3, and C to 1. Thus, a direct recode of letters to numbers will not work.

To convert a categorical variable to a form usable in regression analysis, we have to create a new set of numeric variables. If a categorical variable has k values, $k - 1$ new variables must be generated.

There are many ways in which these new variables may be generated. You can use the Contrasts data tool in NCSS (Data Window Menu: Data > Create Contrast Variables) to automatically create many types of contrasts and binary indicator variables. We will present a few examples here.

Indicator Variables

Indicator (dummy or binary) variables are a popular type of generated variables. They are created as follows. A *reference value* is selected. Usually, the most common value is selected as the reference value. Next, a variable is generated for each of the values other than the reference value. For example, suppose that C is selected as the reference value. An indicator variable is generated for each of the remaining values: A and B. The value of the indicator variable is one if the value of the original variable is equal to the value of interest, or zero otherwise. Here is how the original variable T and the two new indicator variables TA and TB look in a short example.

<u>T</u>	<u>TA</u>	<u>TB</u>
A	1	0
A	1	0
B	0	1
B	0	1
C	0	0
C	0	0

The generated IV's, TA and TB, would be used in the regression model.

Contrast Variables

Contrast variables are another popular type of generated variables. Several types of contrast variables can be generated. We will present a few here. One method is to contrast each value with the reference value. The value of interest receives a one. The reference value receives a negative one. All other values receive a zero.

Continuing with our example, one set of contrast variables is

<u>T</u>	<u>CA</u>	<u>CB</u>
A	1	0
A	1	0
B	0	1
B	0	1
C	-1	-1
C	-1	-1

The generated IV's, CA and CB, would be used in the regression model.

Another set of contrast variables that is commonly used is to compare each value with those remaining. For this example, we will suppose that T takes on four values: A, B, C, and D. The generate variables are

<u>T</u>	<u>C1</u>	<u>C2</u>	<u>C3</u>
A	-3	0	0
A	-3	0	0
B	1	-2	0
B	1	-2	0
C	1	1	-1
C	1	1	-1
D	1	1	1
D	1	1	1

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Many other methods have been developed to provide meaningful numeric variables that represent categorical variable. We have presented these because they may be generated automatically by NCSS.

Representing Interactions of Numeric Variables

The interaction between two variables is represented in the regression model by creating a new variable that is the product of the variables that are interacting. Suppose you have two variables $X1$ and $X2$ for which an interaction term is necessary. A new variable is generated by multiplying the values of $X1$ and $X2$ together.

<u>X1</u>	<u>X2</u>	<u>Int</u>
1	1	1
2	1	2
3	2	6
2	2	4
0	4	0
5	-2	-10

The new variable, *Int*, is added to the regression equation and treated like any other variable during the analysis. With *Int* in the regression model, the interaction between $X1$ and $X2$ may be investigated.

Representing Interactions of Numeric and Categorical Variables

When the interaction between a numeric IV and a categorical IV is to be included in the model, all proceeds as above, except that an interaction variable must be generated for each categorical variable. This can be accomplished automatically in NCSS using an appropriate Model statement.

In the following example, the interaction between the categorical variable T and the numeric variable X is created.

<u>T</u>	<u>CA</u>	<u>CB</u>	<u>X</u>	<u>XCA</u>	<u>XCB</u>
A	1	0	1.2	1.2	0
A	1	0	1.4	1.4	0
B	0	1	2.3	0	2.3
B	0	1	4.7	0	4.7
C	-1	-1	3.5	-3.5	-3.5
C	-1	-1	1.8	-1.8	-1.8

When the variables XCA and XCB are added to the regression model, they will account for the interaction between T and X .

Representing Interactions Two or More Categorical Variables

When the interaction between two categorical variables is included in the model, an interaction variable must be generated for each combination of the variables generated for each categorical variable. This can be accomplished automatically in NCSS using an appropriate Model statement.

In the following example, the interaction between the categorical variables T and S are generated. Try to determine the reference value used for variable S .

<u>T</u>	<u>CA</u>	<u>CB</u>	<u>S</u>	<u>S1</u>	<u>S2</u>	<u>CAS1</u>	<u>CAS2</u>	<u>CBS1</u>	<u>CBS2</u>
A	1	0	D	1	0	1	0	0	0
A	1	0	E	0	1	0	1	0	0
B	0	1	F	0	0	0	0	0	0
B	0	1	D	1	0	0	0	1	0
C	-1	-1	E	0	1	0	-1	0	-1
C	-1	-1	F	0	0	0	0	0	0

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When the variables, *CAS1*, *CAS2*, *CBS1*, and *CBS2* are added to the regression model, they will account for the interaction between *T* and *S*.

Possible Uses of Regression Analysis

Montgomery (1982) outlines the following five purposes for running a regression analysis.

Description

The analyst is seeking to find an equation that describes or summarizes the relationships in a set of data. This purpose makes the fewest assumptions.

Coefficient Estimation

This is a popular reason for doing regression analysis. The analyst may have a theoretical relationship in mind, and the regression analysis will confirm this theory. Most likely, there is specific interest in the magnitudes and signs of the coefficients. Frequently, this purpose for regression overlaps with others.

Prediction

The prime concern here is to predict some response variable, such as sales, delivery time, efficiency, occupancy rate in a hospital, reaction yield in some chemical process, or strength of some metal. These predictions may be very crucial in planning, monitoring, or evaluating some process or system. There are many assumptions and qualifications that must be made in this case. For instance, you must not extrapolate beyond the range of the data. Also, interval estimates require special, so-called normality, assumptions to hold.

Control

Regression models may be used for monitoring and controlling a system. For example, you might want to calibrate a measurement system or keep a response variable within certain guidelines. When a regression model is used for control purposes, the independent variables must be related to the dependent in a causal way. Furthermore, this functional relationship must continue over time. If it does not, continual modification of the model must occur.

Variable Selection or Screening

In this case, a search is conducted for those independent variables that explain a significant amount of the variation in the dependent variable. In most applications, this is not a one-time process but a continual model-building process. This purpose is manifested in other ways, such as using historical data to identify factors for future experimentation.

Assumptions

The following assumptions must be considered when using multiple regression analysis.

Linearity

Multiple regression models the linear (straight-line) relationship between *Y* and the *X*'s. Any curvilinear relationship is ignored. This is most easily evaluated by scatter plots early on in your analysis. Nonlinear patterns can show up in residual plots.

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Constant Variance

The variance of the ε 's is constant for all values of the X 's. This can be detected by residual plots of e_j versus \hat{y}_j or the X 's. If these residual plots show a rectangular shape, we can assume constant variance. On the other hand, if a residual plot shows an increasing or decreasing wedge or bowtie shape, non-constant variance exists and must be corrected.

Special Causes

We assume that all special causes, outliers due to one-time situations, have been removed from the data. If not, they may cause non-constant variance, non-normality, or other problems with the regression model.

Normality

We assume the ε 's are normally distributed when hypothesis tests and confidence limits are to be used.

Independence

The ε 's are assumed to be uncorrelated with one another, which implies that the Y 's are also uncorrelated. This assumption can be violated in two ways: model misspecification or time-sequenced data.

1. *Model misspecification.* If an important independent variable is omitted or if an incorrect functional form is used, the residuals may not be independent. The solution to this dilemma is to find the proper functional form or to include the proper independent variables.
2. *Time-sequenced data.* Whenever regression analysis is performed on data taken over time (frequently called time series data), the residuals are often correlated. This correlation among residuals is called serial correlation or autocorrelation. Positive autocorrelation means that the residual in time period j tends to have the same sign as the residual in time period $(j-k)$, where k is the lag in time periods. On the other hand, negative autocorrelation means that the residual in time period j tends to have the opposite sign as the residual in time period $(j-k)$.

The presence of autocorrelation among the residuals has several negative impacts:

1. The regression coefficients are unbiased but no longer efficient, i.e., minimum variance estimates.
2. With positive serial correlation, the mean square error may be seriously underestimated. The impact of this is that the standard errors are underestimated, the partial t -tests are inflated (show significance when there is none), and the confidence intervals are shorter than they should be.
3. Any hypothesis tests or confidence limits that required the use of the t or F distribution would be invalid.

You could try to identify these serial correlation patterns informally, with the residual plots versus time. A better analytical way would be to compute the serial or autocorrelation coefficient for different time lags and compare it to a critical value.

Multicollinearity

Collinearity, or multicollinearity, is the existence of near-linear relationships among the set of independent variables. The presence of multicollinearity causes all kinds of problems with regression analysis, so you could say that we assume the data do not exhibit it.

Effects of Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity can create inaccurate estimates of the regression coefficients, inflate the standard errors of the regression coefficients, deflate the partial t -tests for the regression coefficients, give false nonsignificant p -values, and degrade the predictability of the model.

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Sources of Multicollinearity

To deal with collinearity, you must be able to identify its source. The source of the collinearity impacts the analysis, the corrections, and the interpretation of the linear model. There are five sources (see Montgomery [1982] for details):

1. *Data collection.* In this case, the data has been collected from a narrow subspace of the independent variables. The collinearity has been created by the sampling methodology. Obtaining more data on an expanded range would cure this collinearity problem.
2. *Physical constraints* of the linear model or population. This source of collinearity will exist no matter what sampling technique is used. Many manufacturing or service processes have constraints on independent variables (as to their range), either physically, politically, or legally, which will create collinearity.
3. *Over-defined model.* Here, there are more variables than observations. This situation should be avoided.
4. *Model choice or specification.* This source of collinearity comes from using independent variables that are higher powers or interactions of an original set of variables. It should be noted that if sampling subspace of X_j is narrow, then any combination of variables with x_j will increase the collinearity problem even further.
5. *Outliers.* Extreme values or outliers in the X -space can cause collinearity as well as hide it.

Detection of Collinearity

The following steps for detecting collinearity proceed from simple to complex.

1. Begin by studying pairwise scatter plots of pairs of independent variables, looking for near-perfect relationships. Also glance at the correlation matrix for high correlations. Unfortunately, multicollinearity does not always show up when considering the variables two at a time.
2. Next, consider the variance inflation factors (*VIF*). Large *VIF*'s flag collinear variables.
3. Finally, focus on small eigenvalues of the correlation matrix of the independent variables. An eigenvalue of zero or close to zero indicates that an exact linear dependence exists. Instead of looking at the numerical size of the eigenvalue, use the condition number. Large condition numbers indicate collinearity.

Correction of Collinearity

Depending on what the source of collinearity is, the solutions will vary. If the collinearity has been created by the data collection, then collect additional data over a wider X -subspace. If the choice of the linear model has accentuated the collinearity, simplify the model by variable selection techniques. If an observation or two has induced the collinearity, remove those observations and proceed accordingly. Above all, use care in selecting the variables at the outset.

Centering and Scaling Issues in Collinearity

When the variables in regression are centered (by subtracting their mean) and scaled (by dividing by their standard deviation), the resulting $X'X$ matrix is in correlation form. The centering of each independent variable has removed the constant term from the collinearity diagnostics. Scaling and centering permit the computation of the collinearity diagnostics on standardized variables. On the other hand, there are many regression applications where the intercept is a vital part of the linear model. The collinearity diagnostics on the uncentered data may provide a more realistic picture of the collinearity structure in these cases.

Multiple Regression Checklist

This checklist, prepared by a professional statistician, is a flowchart of the steps you should complete to conduct a valid multiple regression analysis. Several of these steps should be performed prior to this phase of the regression analysis, but they are briefly listed here again as a reminder. You should complete these tasks in order.

Step 1 – Data Preparation

Scan your data for anomalies, keypunch errors, typos, and so on. You should have a minimum of five observations for each variable in the analysis, including the dependent variable. This discussion assumes that the pattern of missing values is random. All data preparation should be done prior to the use of one of the variable selection strategies.

Special attention must be paid to categorical IV's to make certain that you have chosen a reasonable method of converting them to numeric values.

Also, you must decide how complicated of a model to use. Do you want to include powers of variables and interactions between terms?

One the best ways to accomplish this data preparation is to run your data through the Data Screening procedure, since it provides reports about missing value patterns, discrete and continuous variables, and so on.

Step 2 – Variable Selection

Variable selection seeks to reduce the number of IV's to a manageable few. There are several variable selection methods in regression: Subset Selection, Stepwise Regression, All Possible Regressions, or Multivariate Variable Selection. Each of these variable selection methods has advantages and disadvantages. We suggest that you begin with the Subset Select procedure since it allows you to look at interactions, powers, and categorical variables.

It is extremely important that you complete Step 1 before beginning this step, since variable selection can be greatly distorted by outliers. Every effort should be taken to find outliers before beginning this step.

Step 3 – Setup and Run the Regression

Introduction

Now comes the fun part: running the program. NCSS is designed to be simple to operate, but it can still seem complicated. When you go to run a procedure such as this for the first time, take a few minutes to read through the chapter again and familiarize yourself with the issues involved.

Enter Variables

The NCSS panels are set with ready-to-run defaults, but you have to select the appropriate variables (columns of data). There should be only one dependent variable and one or more independent variables enumerated. In addition, if a weight variable is available from a previous analysis, it needs to be specified.

Choose Report Options

In multiple linear regression, there is a wide assortment of report options available. As a minimum, you are interested in the coefficients for the regression equation, the analysis of variance report, normality testing, serial correlation (for time-sequenced data), regression diagnostics (looking for outliers), and multicollinearity insights.

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Specify Alpha

Most beginners at statistics forget this important step and let the alpha value default to the standard 0.05. You should make a conscious decision as to what value of alpha is appropriate for your study. The 0.05 default came about during the dark ages when people had to rely on printed probability tables and there were only two values available: 0.05 or 0.01. Now you can set the value to whatever is appropriate.

Select All Plots

As a rule, select all residual plots. They add a great deal to your analysis of the data.

Step 4 – Check Model Adequacy

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Once the regression output is displayed, you will be tempted to go directly to the probability of the F -test from the regression analysis of variance table to see if you have a significant result. However, it is very important that you proceed through the output in an orderly fashion. The main conditions to check for relate to linearity, normality, constant variance, independence, outliers, multicollinearity, and predictability. Return to the statistical sections and plot descriptions for more detailed discussions.

Check 1. Linearity

- Look at the Residual vs. Predicted plot. A curving pattern here indicates nonlinearity.
- Look at the Residual vs. Predictor plots. A curving pattern here indicates nonlinearity.
- Look at the Y versus X plots. For simple linear regression, a linear relationship between Y and X in a scatter plot indicates that the linearity assumption is appropriate. The same holds if the dependent variable is plotted against each independent variable in a scatter plot.
- If linearity does not exist, take the appropriate action and return to Step 2. Appropriate action might be to add power terms (such as $\text{Log}(X)$, X squared, or X cubed) or to use an appropriate nonlinear model.

Check 2. Normality

- Look at the *Normal Probability Plot*. If all of the residuals fall within the confidence bands for the *Normal Probability Plot*, the normality assumption is likely met. One or two residuals outside the confidence bands may be an indicator of outliers, not non-normality.
- Look at the *Normal Assumptions Section*. The formal normal goodness of fit tests are given in the *Normal Assumptions Section*. If the decision is accepted for the *Normality (Omnibus)* test, there is no evidence that the residuals are not normal.
- If normality does not exist, take the appropriate action and return to Step 2. Appropriate action includes removing outliers and/or using the logarithm of the dependent variable.

Check 3. Non-constant Variance

- Look at the Residual vs. Predicted plot. If the Residual vs. Predicted plot shows a rectangular shape instead of an increasing or decreasing wedge or a bowtie, the variance is constant.
- Look at the Residual vs. Predictor plots. If the Residual vs. Predictor plots show a rectangular shape, instead of an increasing or decreasing wedge or a bowtie, the variance is constant.
- If non-constant variance does not exist, take the appropriate action and return to Step 2. Appropriate action includes taking the logarithm of the dependent variable or using weighted regression.

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Check 4. Independence or Serial Correlation

- If you have time series data, look at the Serial-Correlations Section. If none of the serial correlations in the Serial-Correlations Section are greater than the critical value that is provided, independence may be assumed.
- Look at the Residual vs. Row plot. A visualization of what the Serial-Correlations Section shows will be exhibited by adjacent residuals being similar (a roller coaster trend) or dissimilar (a quick oscillation).
- If independence does not exist, use a first difference model and return to Step 2. More complicated choices require time series models.

Check 5. Outliers

- Look at the Regression Diagnostics Section. Any observations with an asterisk by the diagnostics RStudent, Hat Diagonal, DFFITS, or the CovRatio, are potential outliers. Observations with a Cook's D greater than 1.00 are also potentially influential.
- Look at the Dfbetas Section. Any Dfbetas beyond the cutoff of $\pm 2/\sqrt{N}$ indicate influential observations.
- Look at the Rstudent vs. Hat Diagonal plot. This plot will flag an observation that may be jointly influential by both diagnostics.
- If outliers do exist in the model, go to robust regression and run one of the options there to confirm these outliers. If the outliers are to be deleted or down weighted, return to Step 2.

Check 6. Multicollinearity

- Look at the Multicollinearity Section. If any variable has a variance inflation factor greater than 10, collinearity could be a problem.
- Look at the Eigenvalues of Centered Correlations Section. Condition numbers greater than 1000 indicate severe collinearity. Condition numbers between 100 and 1000 imply moderate to strong collinearity.
- Look at the Correlation Matrix Section. Strong pairwise correlation here may give some insight as to the variables causing the collinearity.
- If multicollinearity does exist in the model, it could be due to an outlier (return to Check 5 and then Step 2) or due to strong interdependencies between independent variables. In the latter case, return to Step 2 and try a different variable selection procedure.

Check 7. Predictability

- Look at the PRESS Section. If the Press R^2 is almost as large as the R^2 , you have done as well as could be expected. It is not unusual in practice for the Press R^2 to be half of the R^2 . If R^2 is 0.50, a Press R^2 of 0.25 would be unacceptable.
- Look at the Predicted Values with Confidence Limits for Means and Individuals. If the confidence limits are too wide to be practical, you may need to add new variables or reassess the outlier and collinearity possibilities.
- Look at the Residual Report. Any observation that has percent error grossly deviant from the values of most observations is an indication that this observation may be impacting predictability.
- Any changes in the model due to poor predictability require a return to Step 2.

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Step 5 – Record Your Results

Since multiple regression can be quite involved, it is best make notes of why you did what you did at different steps of the analysis. Jot down what decisions you made and what you have found. Explain what you did, why you did it, what conclusions you reached, which outliers you deleted, areas for further investigation, and so on. Be sure to examine the following sections closely and in the indicated order:

1. Analysis of Variance Section. Check for the overall significance of the model.
2. Regression Equation and Coefficient Sections. Significant individual variables are noted here.

Regression analysis is a complicated statistical tool that frequently demands revisions of the model. Your notes of the analysis process as well as of the interpretation will be worth their weight in gold when you come back to an analysis a few days later!

Multiple Regression Technical Details

This section presents the technical details of least squares regression analysis using a mixture of summation and matrix notation. Because this module also calculates weighted multiple regression, the formulas will include the weights, w_j . When weights are not used, the w_j are set to one.

Define the following vectors and matrices:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_j \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{1j} & \cdots & x_{pj} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{1N} & \cdots & x_{pN} \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{e} = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ \vdots \\ e_j \\ \vdots \\ e_N \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_p \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 & 0 & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & w_j & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & 0 & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & w_N \end{bmatrix}$$

Least Squares

Using this notation, the least squares estimates are found using the equation.

$$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{Y}$$

Note that when the weights are not used, this reduces to

$$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$$

The predicted values of the dependent variable are given by

$$\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{b}'\mathbf{X}$$

The residuals are calculated using

$$\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{Y} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}}$$

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Estimated Variances

An estimate of the variance of the residuals is computed using

$$s^2 = \frac{\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{e}}{N - p - 1}$$

An estimate of the variance of the regression coefficients is calculated using

$$\mathbf{V} \begin{pmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_p \end{pmatrix} = s^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

An estimate of the variance of the predicted mean of Y at a specific value of X , say X_0 , is given by

$$s_{Y_m|X_0}^2 = s^2 (1, X_0) (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ X_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

An estimate of the variance of the predicted value of Y for an individual for a specific value of X , say X_0 , is given by

$$s_{Y_I|X_0}^2 = s^2 + s_{Y_m|X_0}^2$$

Hypothesis Tests of the Intercept and Slopes

Using these variance estimates and assuming the residuals are normally distributed, hypothesis tests may be constructed using the Student's t distribution with $N - p - 1$ degrees of freedom using

$$t_{b_i} = \frac{b_i - B_i}{s_{b_i}}$$

Usually, the hypothesized value of B_i is zero, but this does not have to be the case.

Confidence Intervals of the Intercept and Slope

A $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ confidence interval for the true regression coefficient, β_i , is given by

$$b_i \pm (t_{1-\alpha/2, N-p-1}) s_{b_i}$$

Confidence Interval of Y for Given X

A $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ confidence interval for the mean of Y at a specific value of X , say X_0 , is given by

$$b'X_0 \pm (t_{1-\alpha/2, N-p-1}) s_{Y_m|X_0}$$

A $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ prediction interval for the value of Y for an individual at a specific value of X , say X_0 , is given by

$$b'X_0 \pm (t_{1-\alpha/2, N-p-1}) s_{Y_I|X_0}$$

R^2 (Percent of Variation Explained)

Several measures of the goodness-of-fit of the regression model to the data have been proposed, but by far the most popular is R^2 . R^2 is the square of the correlation coefficient between Y and \hat{Y} . It is the proportion of the

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variation in Y that is accounted by the variation in the independent variables. R^2 varies between zero (no linear relationship) and one (perfect linear relationship).

R^2 , officially known as the *coefficient of determination*, is defined as the sum of squares due to the regression divided by the adjusted total sum of squares of Y . The formula for R^2 is

$$R^2 = 1 - \left(\frac{\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{e}}{\mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{Y} - \frac{(\mathbf{1}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{Y})^2}{\mathbf{1}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{1}}} \right)$$

$$= \frac{SS_{Model}}{SS_{Total}}$$

R^2 is probably the most popular measure of how well a regression model fits the data. R^2 may be defined either as a ratio or a percentage. Since we use the ratio form, its values range from zero to one. A value of R^2 near zero indicates no linear relationship, while a value near one indicates a perfect linear fit. Although popular, R^2 should not be used indiscriminately or interpreted without scatter plot support. Following are some qualifications on its interpretation:

1. *Additional independent variables.* It is possible to increase R^2 by adding more independent variables, but the additional independent variables may actually cause an increase in the mean square error, an unfavorable situation. This usually happens when the sample size is small.
2. *Range of the independent variables.* R^2 is influenced by the range of the independent variables. R^2 increases as the range of the X 's increases and decreases as the range of the X 's decreases.
3. *Slope magnitudes.* R^2 does not measure the magnitude of the slopes.
4. *Linearity.* R^2 does not measure the appropriateness of a linear model. It measures the strength of the linear component of the model. Suppose the relationship between X and Y was a perfect sphere. Although there is a perfect relationship between the variables, the R^2 value would be zero.
5. *Predictability.* A large R^2 does not necessarily mean high predictability, nor does a low R^2 necessarily mean poor predictability.
6. *No-intercept model.* The definition of R^2 assumes that there is an intercept in the regression model. When the intercept is left out of the model, the definition of R^2 changes dramatically. The fact that your R^2 value increases when you remove the intercept from the regression model does not reflect an increase in the goodness of fit. Rather, it reflects a change in the underlying definition of R^2 .
7. *Sample size.* R^2 is highly sensitive to the number of observations. The smaller the sample size, the larger its value.

Rbar² (Adjusted R²)

R^2 varies directly with N , the sample size. In fact, when $N = p$, $R^2 = 1$. Because R^2 is so closely tied to the sample size, an adjusted R^2 value, called \bar{R}^2 , has been developed. \bar{R}^2 was developed to minimize the impact of sample size. The formula for \bar{R}^2 is

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{(N-1)(1-R^2)}{N-p-1}$$

Testing Assumptions Using Residual Diagnostics

Evaluating the amount of departure in your data from each assumption is necessary to see if remedial action is necessary before the fitted results can be used. First, the types of plots and statistical analyses that are used to evaluate each assumption will be given. Second, each of the diagnostic values will be defined.

Notation – Use of (*j*) and *p*

Several of these residual diagnostic statistics are based on the concept of studying what happens to various aspects of the regression analysis when each row is removed from the analysis. In what follows, we use the notation (*j*) to mean that observation *j* has been omitted from the analysis. Thus, $b(j)$ means the value of *b* calculated without using observation *j*.

Some of the formulas depend on whether the intercept is fitted or not. We use *p* to indicate the number of regression parameters. When the intercept is fit, *p* will include the intercept.

1 – No Outliers

Outliers are observations that are poorly fit by the regression model. If outliers are influential, they will cause serious distortions in the regression calculations. Once an observation has been determined to be an outlier, it must be checked to see if it resulted from a mistake. If so, it must be corrected or omitted. However, if no mistake can be found, the outlier should not be discarded just because it is an outlier. Many scientific discoveries have been made because outliers, data points that were different from the norm, were studied more closely. Besides being caused by simple data-entry mistakes, outliers often suggest the presence of an important independent variable that has been ignored.

Outliers are easy to spot on scatter plots of the residuals and RStudent. RStudent is the preferred statistic for finding outliers because each observation is omitted from the calculation making it less likely that the outlier can mask its presence. Scatter plots of the residuals and RStudent against the *X* variables are also helpful because they may show other problems as well.

2 – Linear Regression Function - No Curvature

The relationship between *Y* and each *X* is assumed to be linear (straight-line). No mechanism for curvature is included in the model. Although scatter plots of *Y* versus each *X* can show curvature in the relationship, the best diagnostic tool is the scatter plot of the residual versus each *X*. If curvature is detected, the model must be modified to account for the curvature. This may mean adding a quadratic term, taking logarithms of *Y* or *X*, or some other appropriate transformation.

3 – Constant Variance

The errors are assumed to have constant variance across all values of *X*. If there are a lot of data ($N > 100$), non-constant variance can be detected on the scatter plots of the residuals versus each *X*. However, the most direct diagnostic tool to evaluate this assumption is a scatter plot of the absolute values of the residuals versus each *X*. Often, the assumption is violated because the variance increases with *X*. This will show up as a ‘megaphone’ pattern on the scatter plot.

When non-constant variance is detected, a variance-stabilizing transformation such as the square-root or logarithm may be used. However, the best solution is probably to use weighted regression, with weights inversely proportional to the magnitude of the residuals.

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4 – Independent Errors

The Y 's, and thus the errors, are assumed to be independent. This assumption is usually ignored unless there is a reason to think that it has been violated, such as when the observations were taken across time. An easy way to evaluate this assumption is a scatter plot of the residuals versus their sequence number (assuming that the data are arranged in time sequence order). This plot should show a relative random pattern.

The Durbin-Watson statistic is used as a formal test for the presence of first-order serial correlation. A more comprehensive method of evaluation is to look at the autocorrelations of the residuals at various lags. Large autocorrelations are found by testing each using Fisher's z transformation. Although Fisher's z transformation is only approximate in the case of autocorrelations, it does provide a reasonable measuring stick with which to judge the size of the autocorrelations.

If independence is violated, confidence intervals and hypothesis tests are erroneous. Some remedial method that accounts for the lack of independence must be adopted, such as using first differences or the Cochrane-Orcutt procedure.

Durbin-Watson Test

The Durbin-Watson test is often used to test for positive or negative, first-order, serial correlation. It is calculated as follows

$$DW = \frac{\sum_{j=2}^N (e_j - e_{j-1})^2}{\sum_{j=1}^N e_j^2}$$

The distribution of this test is difficult because it involves the X values. Originally, Durbin-Watson (1950, 1951) gave a pair of bounds to be used. However, there is a large range of 'inclusion' found when using these bounds. Instead of using these bounds, we calculate the exact probability using the beta distribution approximation suggested by Durbin-Watson (1951). This approximation has been shown to be accurate to three decimal places in most cases which is all that are needed for practical work.

5 – Normality of Residuals

The residuals are assumed to follow the normal probability distribution with zero mean and constant variance. This can be evaluated using a normal probability plot of the residuals. Also, normality tests are used to evaluate this assumption. The most popular of the five normality tests provided is the Shapiro-Wilk test.

Unfortunately, a breakdown in any of the other assumptions results in a departure from this assumption as well. Hence, you should investigate the other assumptions first, leaving this assumption until last.

Influential Observations

Part of the evaluation of the assumptions includes an analysis to determine if any of the observations have an extra large influence on the estimated regression coefficients, on the fit of the model, or on the value of Cook's distance. By looking at how much removing an observation changes the results, an observation's influence can be determined.

Five statistics are used to investigate influence. These are Hat diagonal, DFFITS, DFBETAS, Cook's D, and COVARATIO.

Definitions Used in Residual Diagnostics

Residual

The residual is the difference between the actual Y value and the Y value predicted by the estimated regression model. It is also called the *error*, the *deviate*, or the *discrepancy*.

$$e_j = y_j - \hat{y}_j$$

Although the true errors, ε_j , are assumed to be independent, the computed residuals, e_j , are not. Although the lack of independence among the residuals is a concern in developing theoretical tests, it is not a concern on the plots and graphs.

By assumption, the variance of the ε_j is σ^2 . However, the variance of the e_j is not σ^2 . In vector notation, the covariance matrix of \mathbf{e} is given by

$$\begin{aligned} V(\mathbf{e}) &= \sigma^2 \left(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{W}^{\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{W}^{\frac{1}{2}} \right) \\ &= \sigma^2 (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}) \end{aligned}$$

The matrix \mathbf{H} is called the *hat matrix* since it puts the 'hat' on y as is shown in the unweighted case.

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{Y} &= \mathbf{X} \mathbf{b} \\ &= \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{Y} \\ &= \mathbf{H} \mathbf{Y} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the variance of e_j is given by

$$V(e_j) = \sigma^2 (1 - h_{jj})$$

where h_{jj} is the j th diagonal element of \mathbf{H} . This variance is estimated using

$$\hat{V}(e_j) = s^2 (1 - h_{jj})$$

Hat Diagonal

The hat diagonal, h_{jj} , is the j th diagonal element of the hat matrix, \mathbf{H} where

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{W}^{\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{W}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

\mathbf{H} captures an observation's remoteness in the X -space. Some authors refer to the hat diagonal as a measure of *leverage* in the X -space. As a rule of thumb, hat diagonals greater than $4/N$ are considered influential and are called high-leverage observations.

Note that a high-leverage observation is not a bad observation. Rather, high-leverage observations exert extra influence on the final results, so care should be taken to insure that they are correct. You should not delete an observation just because it has a high-influence. However, when you interpret the regression equation, you should bear in mind that the results may be due to a few, high-leverage observations.

Standardized Residual

As shown above, the variance of the observed residuals is not constant. This makes comparisons among the residuals difficult. One solution is to standardize the residuals by dividing by their standard deviations. This will give a set of residuals with constant variance.

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The formula for this residual is

$$r_j = \frac{e_j}{s\sqrt{1-h_{jj}}}$$

s(j) or MSEi

This is the value of the mean squared error calculated without observation j . The formula for $s(j)$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned} s(j)^2 &= \frac{1}{N-p-1} \sum_{i=1, i \neq j}^N w_i (y_i - \mathbf{x}_i' \mathbf{b}(j))^2 \\ &= \frac{(N-p)s^2 - \frac{w_j e_j^2}{1-h_{jj}}}{N-p-1} \end{aligned}$$

RStudent

Rstudent is similar to the studentized residual. The difference is the $s(j)$ is used rather than s in the denominator. The quantity $s(j)$ is calculated using the same formula as s , except that observation j is omitted. The hope is that by excluding this observation, a better estimate of σ^2 will be obtained. Some statisticians refer to these as the *studentized deleted residuals*.

$$t_j = \frac{e_j}{s(j)\sqrt{1-h_{jj}}}$$

If the regression assumptions of normality are valid, a single value of the RStudent has a t distribution with $N-2$ degrees of freedom. It is reasonable to consider $|RStudent| > 2$ as outliers.

DFFITs

DFFITs is the standardized difference between the predicted value with and without that observation. The formula for *DFFITs* is

$$\begin{aligned} DFFITS_j &= \frac{\hat{y}_j - \hat{y}_j(j)}{s(j)\sqrt{h_{jj}}} \\ &= t_j \sqrt{\frac{h_{jj}}{1-h_{jj}}} \end{aligned}$$

The values of $\hat{y}_j(j)$ and $s^2(j)$ are found by removing observation j before the doing the calculations. It represents the number of estimated standard errors that the fitted value changes if the j^{th} observation is omitted from the data set. If $|DFFITs| > 1$, the observation should be considered to be influential with regards to prediction.

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Cook's D

The DFFITS statistic attempts to measure the influence of a single observation on its fitted value. Cook's distance (Cook's D) attempts to measure the influence each observation on all N fitted values. The formula for Cook's D is

$$D_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N w_j [\hat{y}_j - \hat{y}_j(i)]^2}{ps^2}$$

The $\hat{y}_j(i)$ are found by removing observation i before the calculations. Rather than go to all the time of recalculating the regression coefficients N times, we use the following approximation

$$D_j = \frac{w_j e_j^2 h_{jj}}{ps^2 (1 - h_{jj})^2}$$

This approximation is exact when no weight variable is used.

A Cook's D value greater than one indicates an observation that has large influence. Some statisticians have suggested that a better cutoff value is $4 / (N - 2)$.

CovRatio

This diagnostic flags observations that have a major impact on the generalized variance of the regression coefficients. A value exceeding 1.0 implies that the i^{th} observation provides an improvement, i.e., a reduction in the generalized variance of the coefficients. A value of CovRatio less than 1.0 flags an observation that increases the estimated generalized variance. This is not a favorable condition.

The general formula for the CovRatio is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CovRatio}_j &= \frac{\det[s(j)^2 (\mathbf{X}(j)' \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X}(j))^{-1}]}{\det[s^2 (\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1}]} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - h_{jj}} \left[\frac{s(j)^2}{s^2} \right]^p \end{aligned}$$

Belsley, Kuh, and Welsch (1980) give the following guidelines for the CovRatio.

If $\text{CovRatio} > 1 + 3p / N$ then omitting this observation significantly damages the precision of at least some of the regression estimates.

If $\text{CovRatio} < 1 - 3p / N$ then omitting this observation significantly improves the precision of at least some of the regression estimates.

DFBETAS

The *DFBETAS* criterion measures the standardized change in a regression coefficient when an observation is omitted. The formula for this criterion is

$$DFBETAS_{kj} = \frac{b_k - b_k(j)}{s(j) \sqrt{c_{kk}}}$$

where c_{kk} is a diagonal element of the inverse matrix $(\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1}$.

Belsley, Kuh, and Welsch (1980) recommend using a cutoff of $2 / \sqrt{N}$ when N is greater than 100. When N is less than 100, others have suggested using a cutoff of 1.0 or 2.0 for the absolute value of *DFBETAS*.

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Press Value

PRESS is an acronym for prediction sum of squares. It was developed for use in variable selection to validate a regression model. To calculate *PRESS*, each observation is individually omitted. The remaining $N - 1$ observations are used to calculate a regression and estimate the value of the omitted observation. This is done N times, once for each observation. The difference between the actual Y value and the predicted Y with the observation deleted is called the prediction error or *PRESS* residual. The sum of the squared prediction errors is the *PRESS* value. The smaller *PRESS* is, the better the predictability of the model.

The formula for *PRESS* is

$$PRESS = \sum_{j=1}^N w_j [y_j - \hat{y}_j(j)]^2$$

Press R-Squared

The *PRESS* value above can be used to compute an R^2 -like statistic, called *R2Predict*, which reflects the prediction ability of the model. This is a good way to validate the prediction of a regression model without selecting another sample or splitting your data. It is very possible to have a high R^2 and a very low *R2Predict*. When this occurs, it implies that the fitted model is data dependent. This *R2Predict* ranges from below zero to above one. When outside the range of zero to one, it is truncated to stay within this range.

$$R_{predict}^2 = 1 - \frac{PRESS}{SS_{tot}}$$

Sum |Press residuals|

This is the sum of the absolute value of the *PRESS* residuals or prediction errors. If a large value for the *PRESS* is due to one or a few large *PRESS* residuals, this statistic may be a more accurate way to evaluate predictability. This quantity is computed as

$$\sum |PRESS| = \sum_{j=1}^N w_j |y_j - \hat{y}_j(j)|$$

Bootstrapping

Bootstrapping was developed to provide standard errors and confidence intervals for regression coefficients and predicted values in situations in which the standard assumptions are not valid. In these nonstandard situations, bootstrapping is a viable alternative to the corrective action suggested earlier. The method is simple in concept, but it requires extensive computation time.

The bootstrap is simple to describe. You assume that your sample is actually the population and you draw B samples (B is over 1000) of size N from your original sample with replacement. With replacement means that each observation may be selected more than once. For each bootstrap sample, the regression results are computed and stored.

Suppose that you want the standard error and a confidence interval of the slope. The bootstrap sampling process has provided B estimates of the slope. The standard deviation of these B estimates of the slope is the bootstrap estimate of the standard error of the slope. The bootstrap confidence interval is found by arranging the B values in sorted order and selecting the appropriate percentiles from the list. For example, a 90% bootstrap confidence interval for the slope is given by fifth and ninety-fifth percentiles of the bootstrap slope values. The bootstrap method can be applied to many of the statistics that are computed in regression analysis.

The main assumption made when using the bootstrap method is that your sample approximates the population fairly well. Because of this assumption, bootstrapping does not work well for small samples in which there is little

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likelihood that the sample is representative of the population. Bootstrapping should only be used in medium to large samples.

When applied to linear regression, there are two types of bootstrapping that can be used.

Modified Residuals

Davison and Hinkley (1999) page 279 recommend the use of a special rescaling of the residuals when bootstrapping to keep results unbiased. These modified residuals are calculated using

$$e_j^* = \frac{e_j}{\sqrt{\frac{1-h_{jj}}{w_j}}} - \bar{e}^*$$

where

$$\bar{e}^* = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^N w_j e_j^*}{\sum_{j=1}^N w_j}$$

Bootstrap the Observations

The bootstrap samples are selected from the original sample. This method is appropriate for data in which both X and Y have been selected at random. That is, the X values were not predetermined, but came in as measurements just as the Y values.

An example of this situation would be if a population of individuals is sampled and both Y and X are measured on those individuals only after the sample is selected. That is, the value of X was not used in the selection of the sample.

Bootstrap Prediction Intervals

Bootstrap confidence intervals for the mean of Y given X are generated from the bootstrap sample in the usual way. To calculate prediction intervals for the predicted value (not the mean) of Y given X requires a modification to the predicted value of Y to be made to account for the variation of Y about its mean. This modification of the predicted Y values in the bootstrap sample, suggested by Davison and Hinkley, is as follows.

$$\hat{y}_+ = \hat{y} - \sum x_i (b_i^* - b_i) + e_+^*$$

where e_+^* is a randomly selected modified residual. By adding the randomly sample residual we have added an appropriate amount of variation to represent the variance of individual Y 's about their mean value.

Data Structure

The data are entered in two or more columns. An example of data appropriate for this procedure is shown below. These data are from a study of the relationship of several variables with a person's I.Q. Fifteen people were studied. Each person's IQ was recorded along with scores on five different personality tests. The data are contained in the IQ dataset. We suggest that you open this database now so that you can follow along with the example.

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IQ dataset

Test1	Test2	Test3	Test4	Test5	IQ
83	34	65	63	64	106
73	19	73	48	82	92
54	81	82	65	73	102
96	72	91	88	94	121
84	53	72	68	82	102
86	72	63	79	57	105
76	62	64	69	64	97
54	49	43	52	84	92
37	43	92	39	72	94
42	54	96	48	83	112
71	63	52	69	42	130
63	74	74	71	91	115
69	81	82	75	54	98
81	89	64	85	62	96
50	75	72	64	45	103

Missing Values

Rows with missing values in the variables being analyzed are ignored. If data are present on a row for all but the dependent variable, a predicted value and confidence limits are generated for that row.

Procedure Options

This section describes the options available in this procedure.

Variables, Model Tab

This panel specifies the variables and model used in the analysis.

Dependent Variable

Y

This option specifies one or more dependent (Y) variables. If more than one variable is specified, a separate analysis is run for each.

Independent Variables

Numeric X's

Specify numeric independent (also called regressor, explanatory, or predictor) variables here. Numeric variables are those whose values are numeric and are at least ordinal. Nominal variables, even when coded with numbers, should be specified as Categorical Independent Variables. Although you may specify binary (0-1) variables here, they are more appropriately analyzed when you specify them as Categorical X's.

If you want to create powers and cross-products of these variables, specify an appropriate model below in the Regression Model section.

If you want to create predicted values of Y for values of X not in your database, add the X new values as rows to the bottom of the database, with the value of Y blank. These rows will not be used during estimation phase, but predicted values will be generated for them on the reports.

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Categorical X's

Specify categorical (nominal or group) independent variables in this box. By categorical we mean that the variable has only a few unique, numeric or text, values like 1, 2, 3 or Yes, No, Maybe. The values are used to identify categories.

Regression analysis is only defined for numeric variables. Since categorical variables are nominal, they cannot be used directly in regression. Instead, an internal set of numeric variables must be substituted for each categorical variable.

Suppose a categorical variable has G categories. NCSS automatically generates the $G-1$ internal, numeric variables for the analysis. The way these internal variables are created is determined by the Recoding Scheme and, if needed, the Reference Value. These options can be entered separately with each categorical variable, or they can be specified using a default value (see Default Recoding Scheme and Default Reference Value below).

The syntax for specifying a categorical variable is $VarName(CType; RefValue)$ where $VarName$ is the name of the variable, $CType$ is the recoding scheme, and $RefValue$ is the reference value, if needed.

CType

The recoding scheme is entered as a letter. Possible choices are B, P, R, N, S, L, F, A, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or E. The meaning of each of these letters is as follows.

- **B for binary** (the group with the reference value is skipped).

Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories. Category D is the reference value.

```
Z B1 B2 B3
A  1  0  0
B  0  1  0
C  0  0  1
D  0  0  0
```

- **P for Polynomial** of up to 5th order (you cannot use this option with category variables with more than 6 categories).

Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

```
Z P1 P2 P3
1 -3  1 -1
3 -1 -1  3
5  1 -1 -3
7  3  1  1
```

- **R to compare each with the reference value** (the group with the reference value is skipped).

Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories. Category D is the reference value.

```
Z C1 C2 C3
A  1  0  0
B  0  1  0
C  0  0  1
D -1 -1 -1
```

- **N to compare each with the next category.**

Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

```
Z S1 S2 S3
1  1  0  0
3 -1  1  0
5  0 -1  1
7  0  0 -1
```

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- **S** to compare each with the **average of all subsequent** values.
Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	S1	S2	S3
1	-3	0	0
3	1	-2	0
5	1	1	-1
7	1	1	1
- **L** to compare each with the **prior** category.
Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	S1	S2	S3
1	-1	0	0
3	1	-1	0
5	0	1	-1
7	0	0	1
- **F** to compare each with the **average of all prior** categories.
Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	S1	S2	S3
1	1	1	1
3	1	1	-1
5	1	-2	0
7	-3	0	0
- **A** to compare each with the **average of all** categories (the Reference Value is skipped).
Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories. Suppose the reference value is 3.

Z	S1	S2	S3
1	-3	1	1
3	1	1	1
5	1	-3	1
7	1	1	-3
- **1** to compare each with the **first** category after sorting.
Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	C1	C2	C3
A	-1	-1	-1
B	1	0	0
C	0	1	0
D	0	0	1
- **2** to compare each with the **second** category after sorting.
Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	C1	C2	C3
A	1	0	0
B	-1	-1	-1
C	0	1	0
D	0	0	1

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- **3** to compare each with the **third** category after sorting.

Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	C1	C2	C3
A	1	0	0
B	0	1	0
C	-1	-1	-1
D	0	0	1

- **4** to compare each with the **fourth** category after sorting.

Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	C1	C2	C3
A	1	0	0
B	0	1	0
C	0	0	1
D	-1	-1	-1

- **5** to compare each with the **fifth** category after sorting.

Example: Categorical variable Z with 5 categories.

Z	C1	C2	C3	C4
A	1	0	0	0
B	0	1	0	0
C	0	0	1	0
D	0	0	0	1
E	-1	-1	-1	-1

- **E** to compare each with the **last** category after sorting.

Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	C1	C2	C3
A	1	0	0
B	0	1	0
C	0	0	1
D	-1	-1	-1

RefValue

A second, optional argument is the reference value. The reference value is one of the categories. The other categories are compared to it, so it is usually a baseline or control value. If neither a baseline or control value is evident, the reference value is the most frequent value.

For example, suppose you want to include a categorical independent variable, State, which has four values: Texas, California, Florida, and New York. Suppose the recoding scheme is specified as *Compare Each with Reference Value* with the reference value of *California*. You would enter

State(R;California)

Default Recoding Scheme

Select the default type of numeric variable that will be generated when processing categorical independent variables. The values in a categorical variable are not used directly in regression analysis. Instead, a set of numeric variables is automatically created and substituted for them. This option allows you to specify what type of numeric variable will be created. The options are outlined in the sections below.

The contrast type may also be designated within parentheses after the name of each categorical independent variable, in which case the default contrast type is ignored.

If your model includes interactions of categorical variables, this option should be set to 'Contrast with Reference' or Compare with All Subsequent' in order to match GLM results for factor effects.

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- Binary** (the group with the reference value is skipped).
 Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories. Category D is the reference value.

Z	B1	B2	B3
A	1	0	0
B	0	1	0
C	0	0	1
D	0	0	0
- Polynomial** of up to 5th order (you cannot use this option with category variables with more than 6 categories).
 Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	P1	P2	P3
1	-3	1	-1
3	-1	-1	3
5	1	-1	-3
7	3	1	1
- Compare Each with Reference Value** (the group with the reference value is skipped).
 Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories. Category D is the reference value.

Z	C1	C2	C3
A	1	0	0
B	0	1	0
C	0	0	1
D	-1	-1	-1
- Compare Each with Next.**
 Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	S1	S2	S3
1	1	0	0
3	-1	1	0
5	0	-1	1
7	0	0	-1
- Compare Each with All Subsequent.**
 Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	S1	S2	S3
1	-3	0	0
3	1	-2	0
5	1	1	-1
7	1	1	1
- Compare Each with Prior**
 Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	S1	S2	S3
1	-1	0	0
3	1	-1	0
5	0	1	-1
7	0	0	1

Multiple Regression

- **Compare Each with All Prior**

Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	S1	S2	S3
1	1	1	1
3	1	1	-1
5	1	-2	0
7	-3	0	0

- **Compare Each with Average**

Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories. Suppose the reference value is 3.

Z	S1	S2	S3
1	-3	1	1
3	1	1	1
5	1	-3	1
7	1	1	-3

- **Compare Each with First**

Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	C1	C2	C3
A	-1	-1	-1
B	1	0	0
C	0	1	0
D	0	0	1

- **Compare Each with Second**

Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	C1	C2	C3
A	1	0	0
B	-1	-1	-1
C	0	1	0
D	0	0	1

- **Compare Each with Third**

Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	C1	C2	C3
A	1	0	0
B	0	1	0
C	-1	-1	-1
D	0	0	1

- **Compare Each with Fourth**

Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	C1	C2	C3
A	1	0	0
B	0	1	0
C	0	0	1
D	-1	-1	-1

Multiple Regression

- **Compare Each with Fifth**

Example: Categorical variable Z with 5 categories.

Z	C1	C2	C3	C4
A	1	0	0	0
B	0	1	0	0
C	0	0	1	0
D	0	0	0	1
E	-1	-1	-1	-1

- **Compare Each with Last**

Example: Categorical variable Z with 4 categories.

Z	C1	C2	C3
A	1	0	0
B	0	1	0
C	0	0	1
D	-1	-1	-1

Default Reference Value

This option specifies the default reference value to be used when automatically generating indicator variables during the processing of selected categorical independent variables. The reference value is often the baseline, and the other values are compared to it. The choices are

- **First Value after Sorting – Fifth Value after Sorting**

Use the first (through fifth) value in alpha-numeric sorted order as the reference value.

- **Last Value after Sorting**

Use the last value in alpha-numeric sorted order as the reference value.

Weight Variable

Weights

When used, this is the name of a variable containing observation weights for generating a weighted-regression analysis. These weight values should be non-negative.

Regression Model

These options control which terms are included in the regression model.

Terms

This option specifies which terms (terms, powers, cross-products, and interactions) are included in the regression model. For a straight-forward regression model, select *Up to 1-Way*.

The options are

- **Up to 1-Way**

This option generates a model in which each variable is represented by a single model term. No cross-products, interactions, or powers are added. Use this option when you want to use the variables you have specified, but you do not want to generate other terms.

This is the option to select when you want to analyze the independent variables specified without adding any other terms.

Multiple Regression

For example, if you have three independent variables A, B, and C, this would generate the model:

$$A + B + C$$

- **Up to 2-Way**

This option specifies that all individual variables, two-way interactions, and squares of numeric variables are included in the model. For example, if you have three numeric variables A, B, and C, this would generate the model:

$$A + B + C + A*B + A*C + B*C + A*A + B*B + C*C$$

On the other hand, if you have three categorical variables A, B, and C, this would generate the model:

$$A + B + C + A*B + A*C + B*C$$

- **Up to 3-Way**

All individual variables, two-way interactions, three-way interactions, squares of numeric variables, and cubes of numeric variables are included in the model. For example, if you have three numeric, independent variables A, B, and C, this would generate the model:

$$A + B + C + A*B + A*C + B*C + A*B*C + A*A + B*B + C*C + A*A*B + A*A*C + B*B*C + A*C*C + B*C*C$$

On the other hand, if you have three categorical variables A, B, and C, this would generate the model:

$$A + B + C + A*B + A*C + B*C + A*B*C$$

- **Up to 4-Way**

All individual variables, two-way interactions, three-way interactions, and four-way interactions are included in the model. Also included would be squares, cubes, and quartics of numeric variables and their cross-products.

For example, if you have four categorical variables A, B, C, and D, this would generate the model:

$$A + B + C + D + A*B + A*C + A*D + B*C + B*D + C*D + A*B*C + A*B*D + A*C*D + B*C*D + A*B*C*D$$

- **Interaction**

Mainly used for categorical variables. A saturated model (all terms and their interactions) is generated. This requires a dataset with no missing categorical-variable combinations (you can have unequal numbers of observations for each combination of the categorical variables). No squares, cubes, etc. are generated.

For example, if you have three independent variables A, B, and C, this would generate the model:

$$A + B + C + A*B + A*C + B*C + A*B*C$$

Note that the discussion of the Custom Model option discusses the interpretation of this model.

- **Custom Model**

The model specified in the *Custom Model* box is used.

Remove Intercept

Unchecked indicates that the intercept term, β_0 , is to be included in the regression. Checked indicates that the intercept should be omitted from the regression model. Note that deleting the intercept distorts most of the diagnostic statistics (R^2 , etc.). In most situations, you should include the intercept in the model.

Replace Custom Model with Preview Model (button)

When this button is pressed, the Custom Model is cleared and a copy of the Preview model is stored in the Custom Model. You can then edit this Custom Model as desired.

Multiple Regression

Maximum Order of Custom Terms

This option specifies that maximum number of variables that can occur in an interaction (or cross-product) term in a custom model. For example, $A*B*C$ is a third order interaction term and if this option were set to 2, the $A*B*C$ term would not be included in the model.

This option is particularly useful when used with the bar notation of a custom model to allow a simple way to remove unwanted high-order interactions.

Custom

This option specifies a custom model. It is only used when the *Terms* option is set to *Custom*. A custom model specifies the terms (single variables, cross-products, and interactions) that are to be kept in the model.

Interactions

An interaction expresses the combined relationship between two or more variables and the dependent variable by creating a new variable that is the product of the variables. The interaction (cross-product) between two numeric variables is generated by multiplying them. The interaction between two categorical variables is generated by multiplying each pair of internal variables. The interaction between a numeric variable and a categorical variable is created by generating all products between the numeric variable and the generated, numeric variables.

Syntax

A model is written by listing one or more terms. The terms are separated by a blank or plus sign. Terms include variables and interactions. Specify regular variables (main effects) by entering the variable names. Specify interactions by listing each variable in the interaction separated by an asterisk (*), such as $Fruit*Nuts$ or $A*B*C$.

You can use the bar (|) symbol as a shorthand technique for specifying many interactions quickly. When several variables are separated by bars, all of their interactions are generated. For example, $A|B|C$ is interpreted as $A + B + C + A*B + A*C + B*C + A*B*C$.

You can use parentheses. For example, $A*(B+C)$ is interpreted as $A*B + A*C$.

Some examples will help to indicate how the model syntax works:

$$A|B = A + B + A*B$$

$$A|B A*A B*B = A + B + A*B + A*A + B*B$$

Note that you should only repeat numeric variables. That is, $A*A$ is valid for a numeric variable, but not for a categorical variable.

$$A|A|B|B \text{ (Max Term Order=2)} = A + B + A*A + A*B + B*B$$

$$A|B|C = A + B + C + A*B + A*C + B*C + A*B*C$$

$$(A + B)*(C + D) = A*C + A*D + B*C + B*D$$

$$(A + B)|C = (A + B) + C + (A + B)*C = A + B + C + A*C + B*C$$

Reports Tab

The following options control which reports and plots are displayed. Since over 30 reports are available, you may want to spend some time deciding which reports to display on a routine basis and create a template that saves your favorite choices.

Multiple Regression

Select Report / Plot Group

Select a Group of Reports and Plots

This option allows you to specify a group of reports and plots without checking them individually. The checking of individual reports and plots is only useful when this option is set to *Display only those items that are CHECKED BELOW*. Otherwise, the checking of individual reports and plots is ignored.

Report Options

Show All Rows

This option makes it possible to display predicted values for only a few designated rows.

When checked predicted values, residuals, and other row-by-row statistics, will be displayed for all rows used in the analysis.

When not checked, predicted values and other row-by-row statistics will be displayed for only those rows in which the dependent variable's value is missing.

Bootstrap Calculation Options – Sampling

If you check the *Bootstrap CI's* report, additional options will appear at the bottom of the page.

Confidence Levels

These are the confidence coefficients of the bootstrap confidence intervals. They are entered as percentages. All values must be between 50 and 99.99. For example, you might enter *90 95 99*.

You may enter several values, separated by blanks or commas. A separate confidence interval is generated for each value entered.

Samples

This is the number of bootstrap samples used. A general rule of thumb is that you use at least 100 when standard errors are your focus or at least 1000 when confidence intervals are your focus. If computing time is available, it does not hurt to do 4000 or 5000.

We recommend setting this value to at least 3000.

Retries

If the results from a bootstrap sample cannot be calculated, the sample is discarded and a new sample is drawn in its place. This parameter is the number of times that a new sample is drawn before the algorithm is terminated. We recommend setting the parameter to at least 50.

Percentile Type

The method used to create the percentiles when forming bootstrap confidence limits. You can read more about the various types of percentiles in the Descriptive Statistics chapter. We suggest you use the *Ave X(p[n+1])* option.

C.I. Method

This option specifies the method used to calculate the bootstrap confidence intervals. The reflection method is recommended.

- **Percentile**

The confidence limits are the corresponding percentiles of the bootstrap values.

Multiple Regression

- **Reflection**

The confidence limits are formed by reflecting the percentile limits. If XO is the original value of the parameter estimate and XL and XU are the percentile confidence limits, the reflection interval is $(2 XO - XU, 2 XO - XL)$.

Format Tab

These options specify the number of decimal places shown when the indicated value is displayed in a report. The number of decimal places shown in plots is controlled by the Tick Label Settings buttons on the Axes tabs.

Report Options

Precision

This option is used when the number of decimal places is set to *All*. It specifies whether numbers are displayed as single (7-digit) or double (13-digit) precision numbers in the output. All calculations are performed in double precision regardless of the Precision selected here.

Single

Unformatted numbers are displayed with 7-digits

Double

Unformatted numbers are displayed with 13-digits. This option is most often used when the extremely accurate results are needed for further calculation. For example, double precision might be used when you are going to use the Multiple Regression model in a transformation.

Double Precision Format Misalignment

Double precision numbers may require more space than is available in the output columns, causing column alignment problems. The double precision option is for those instances when accuracy is more important than format alignment.

Variable Names

This option lets you select whether to display variable names, variable labels, or both.

Stagger label and output if label length is \geq

When writing a row of information to a report, some variable names/labels may be too long to fit in the space allocated. If the name (or label) contains more characters than specified here, the rest of the output for that line is moved down to the next line. Most reports are designed to hold a label of up to 15 characters.

Enter *1* when you always want each row's output to be printed on two lines.

Enter *100* when you want each row printed on only one line. Note that this may cause some columns to be misaligned.

Decimal Places

Probability ... Mean Square Decimals

Specify the number of digits after the decimal point to display on the output of values of this type. This option in no way influences the accuracy with which the calculations are done.

All

Select *All* to display all digits available. The number of digits displayed by this option is controlled by whether the *Precision* option is *Single* (7) or *Double* (13).

Plots Tab

These options control the inclusion and the settings of each of the plots.

Select Plots

Histogram ... Partial Resid vs X Plot

Indicate whether to display these plots. Click the plot format button to change the plot settings.

Storage Tab

These options let you specify if, and where on the dataset, various statistics are stored.

Warning: Any data already in these variables are replaced by the new data. Be careful not to specify columns that contain important data.

Data Storage Options

Storage Option

This option controls whether the values indicated below are stored on the dataset when the procedure is run.

- **Do not store data**
No data are stored even if they are checked.
- **Store in empty columns only**
The values are stored in empty columns only. Columns containing data are not used for data storage, so no data can be lost.
- **Store in designated columns**
Beginning at the *First Storage Variable*, the values are stored in this column and those to the right. If a column contains data, the data are replaced by the storage values. Care must be used with this option because it cannot be undone.

Store First Item In

The first item is stored in this column. Each additional item that is checked is stored in the columns immediately to the right of this variable.

Leave this value blank if you want the data storage to begin in the first blank column on the right-hand side of the data.

Warning: any existing data in these columns is automatically replaced, so be careful.

Data Storage Options – Select Items to Store

Predicted Y ... VC(Betas) Matrix

Indicate whether to store these row-by-row values, beginning at the column indicated by the *Store First Variable In* option.

Multiple Regression

Example 1 – Multiple Regression (All Reports)

This section presents an example of how to run a multiple regression analysis of the data presented earlier in this chapter. The data are in the IQ dataset. This example will run a regression of *IQ* on *Test1* through *Test5*. This regression program outputs over thirty different reports and plots, many of which contain duplicate information. For the purposes of annotating the output, all output is displayed. Normally, you would only select a few these reports.

You may follow along here by making the appropriate entries or load the completed template **Example 1** by clicking on Open Example Template from the File menu of the Multiple Regression window.

1 Open the IQ dataset.

- From the File menu of the NCSS Data window, select **Open Example Data**.
- Click on the file **IQ.NCSS**.
- Click **Open**.

2 Open the Multiple Regression window.

- Using the Analysis menu or the Procedure Navigator, find and select the **Multiple Regression** procedure.
- On the menus, select **File**, then **New Template**. This will fill the procedure with the default template.

3 Specify the variables.

- On the Multiple Regression window, select the **Variables tab**.
- Set the **Y** box to **IQ**.
- Set the **Numeric X's** box to **Test1-Test5**.

4 Specify the reports.

- Select the **Reports tab**.
- Click **Check All** to select all reports.
- Uncheck **Bootstrap C.I.'s**.

5 Specify the plots.

- Select the **Plots tab**.
- Click **Check All** to select all plots.

6 Run the procedure.

- From the Run menu, select **Run Procedure**. Alternatively, just click the green Run button.

Run Summary Report

Item	Value	Rows	Value
Dependent Variable	IQ	Rows Processed	17
Number Ind. Variables	5	Rows Filtered Out	0
Weight Variable	None	Rows with X's Missing	0
R ²	0.3991	Rows with Weight Missing	0
Adj R ²	0.0652	Rows with Y Missing	2
Coefficient of Variation	0.1021	Rows Used in Estimation	15
Mean Square Error	113.46	Sum of Weights	15.000
Square Root of MSE	10.65		
Ave Abs Pct Error	6.218		
Completion Status	Normal Completion		

This report summarizes the multiple regression results. It presents the variables used, the number of rows used, and the basic results.

Multiple Regression

R^2

R^2 , officially known as the coefficient of determination, is defined as

$$R^2 = \frac{SS_{Model}}{SS_{Total(Adjusted)}}$$

R^2 is probably the most popular statistical measure of how well the regression model fits the data. R^2 may be defined either as a ratio or a percentage. Since we use the ratio form, its values range from zero to one. A value of R^2 near zero indicates no linear relationship between the Y and the X 's, while a value near one indicates a perfect linear fit. Although popular, R^2 should not be used indiscriminately or interpreted without scatter plot support. Following are some qualifications on its interpretation:

1. *Additional independent variables.* It is possible to increase R^2 by adding more independent variables, but the additional independent variables may actually cause an increase in the mean square error, an unfavorable situation. This case happens when your sample size is small.
2. *Range of the independent variables.* R^2 is influenced by the range of each independent variable. R^2 increases as the range of the X 's increases and decreases as the range of the X 's decreases.
3. *Slope magnitudes.* R^2 does not measure the magnitude of the slopes.
4. *Linearity.* R^2 does not measure the appropriateness of a linear model. It measures the strength of the linear component of the model. Suppose the relationship between x and Y was a perfect circle. The R^2 value of this relationship would be zero.
5. *Predictability.* A large R^2 does not necessarily mean high predictability, nor does a low R^2 necessarily mean poor predictability.
6. *No-intercept model.* The definition of R^2 assumes that there is an intercept in the regression model. When the intercept is left out of the model, the definition of R^2 changes dramatically. The fact that your R^2 value increases when you remove the intercept from the regression model does not reflect an increase in the goodness of fit. Rather, it reflects a change in the underlying meaning of R^2 .
7. *Sample size.* R^2 is highly sensitive to the number of observations. The smaller the sample size, the larger its value.

Adjusted R^2

This is an adjusted version of R^2 . The adjustment seeks to remove the distortion due to a small sample size.

Coefficient of Variation

The coefficient of variation is a relative measure of dispersion, computed by dividing root mean square error by the mean of the dependent variable. By itself, it has little value, but it can be useful in comparative studies.

$$CV = \frac{\sqrt{MSE}}{\bar{y}}$$

Ave Abs Pct Error

This is the average of the absolute percent errors. It is another measure of the goodness of fit of the regression model to the data. It is calculated using the formula

$$AAPE = \frac{100 \sum_{j=1}^N \left| \frac{y_j - \hat{y}_j}{y_j} \right|}{N}$$

Note that when the dependent variable is zero, its predicted value is used in the denominator.

Multiple Regression

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Test1	15	67.933	17.392	37	96
Test2	15	61.400	19.397	19	89
Test3	15	72.333	14.734	43	96
Test4	15	65.533	13.953	39	88
Test5	15	69.933	16.153	42	94
IQ	15	104.333	11.017	92	130

For each variable, the count, arithmetic mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum are computed. This report is particularly useful for checking that the correct variables were selected.

Correlation Matrix

	Test1	Test2	Test3	Test4
Test1	1.0000	0.1000	-0.2608	0.7539
Test2	0.1000	1.0000	0.0572	0.7196
Test3	-0.2608	0.0572	1.0000	-0.1409
Test4	0.7539	0.7196	-0.1409	1.0000
Test5	0.0140	-0.2814	0.3473	-0.1729
IQ	0.2256	0.2407	0.0741	0.3714

	Test5	IQ
Test1	0.0140	0.2256
Test2	-0.2814	0.2407
Test3	0.3473	0.0741
Test4	-0.1729	0.3714
Test5	1.0000	-0.0581
IQ	-0.0581	1.0000

Pearson correlations are given for all variables. Outliers, nonnormality, nonconstant variance, and nonlinearities can all impact these correlations. Note that these correlations may differ from pair-wise correlations generated by the correlation matrix program because of the different ways the two programs treat rows with missing values. The method used here is row-wise deletion.

These correlation coefficients show which independent variables are highly correlated with the dependent variable and with each other. Independent variables that are highly correlated with one another may cause collinearity problems.

Regression Coefficients T-Tests

Independent Variable	Regression Coefficient $b(i)$	Standard Error $Sb(i)$	Standardized Coefficient	T-Statistic to Test $H_0: \beta(i)=0$	Prob Level	Reject H_0 at 5%?	Power of Test at 5%
Intercept	85.24038	23.695135	0.0000	3.597	0.0058	Yes	0.8915
Test1	-1.93357	1.029096	-3.0524	-1.879	0.0930	No	0.3896
Test2	-1.65988	0.872896	-2.9224	-1.902	0.0897	No	0.3974
Test3	0.10495	0.219902	0.1404	0.477	0.6445	No	0.0713
Test4	3.77838	1.834497	4.7853	2.060	0.0695	No	0.4522
Test5	-0.04058	0.201221	-0.0595	-0.202	0.8447	No	0.0538

This section reports the values and significance tests of the regression coefficients. Before using this report, check that the assumptions are reasonable. For instance, collinearity can cause the t-tests to give false results and the regression coefficients to be of the wrong magnitude or sign.

Multiple Regression

Independent Variable

The names of the independent variables are listed here. The intercept is the value of the Y intercept.

Note that the name may become very long, especially for interaction terms. These long names may misalign the report. You can force the rest of the items to be printed on the next line by using the Skip Line After option in the Format tab. This should create a better looking report when the names are extra long.

Regression Coefficient

The regression coefficients are the least squares estimates of the parameters. The value indicates how much change in Y occurs for a one-unit change in that particular X when the remaining X 's are held constant. These coefficients are often called partial-regression coefficients since the effect of the other X 's is removed. These coefficients are the values of b_0, b_1, \dots, b_p .

Standard Error

The standard error of the regression coefficient, s_{b_j} , is the standard deviation of the estimate. It is used in hypothesis tests or confidence limits.

Standardized Coefficient

Standardized regression coefficients are the coefficients that would be obtained if you standardized the independent variables and the dependent variable. Here *standardizing* is defined as subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation of a variable. A regression analysis on these standardized variables would yield these standardized coefficients.

When the independent variables have vastly different scales of measurement, this value provides a way of making comparisons among variables. The formula for the standardized regression coefficient is:

$$b_{j, std} = b_j \left(\frac{s_{X_j}}{s_Y} \right)$$

where s_Y and s_{X_j} are the standard deviations for the dependent variable and the j^{th} independent variable.

T-Value to test Ho: B(i)=0

This is the t -test value for testing the hypothesis that $\beta_j = 0$ versus the alternative that $\beta_j \neq 0$ after removing the influence of all other X 's. This t -value has $n-p-1$ degrees of freedom.

To test for a value other than zero, use the formula below. There is an easier way to test hypothesized values using confidence limits. See the discussion below under Confidence Limits. The formula for the t -test is

$$t_j = \frac{b_j - \beta_j^*}{s_{b_j}}$$

Prob Level

This is the p -value for the significance test of the regression coefficient. The p -value is the probability that this t -statistic will take on a value at least as extreme as the actually observed value, assuming that the null hypothesis is true (i.e., the regression estimate is equal to zero). If the p -value is less than alpha, say 0.05, the null hypothesis of equality is rejected. This p -value is for a two-tail test.

Reject H0 at 5%?

This is the conclusion reached about the null hypothesis. It will be either reject H_0 at the 5% level of significance or not.

Note that the level of significance is specified in the Alpha of C.I.'s and Tests box on the Format tab panel.

Multiple Regression

Power (5%)

Power is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis that $\beta_j = 0$ when $\beta_j = \beta_j^* \neq 0$. The power is calculated for the case when $\beta_j^* = b_j$, $\sigma^2 = s^2$, and alpha is as specified in the Alpha of C.I.'s and Tests option.

High power is desirable. High power means that there is a high probability of rejecting the null hypothesis that the regression coefficient is zero when this is false. This is a critical measure of sensitivity in hypothesis testing. This estimate of power is based upon the assumption that the residuals are normally distributed.

Estimated Model

This is the least squares regression line presented in double precision. Besides showing the regression model in long form, it may be used as a transformation by copying and pasting it into the Transformation portion of the spreadsheet.

Note that a transformation must be less than 255 characters. Since these formulas are often greater than 255 characters in length, you must use the FILE(filename) transformation. To do so, copy the formula to a text file using Notepad, Windows Write, or Word to receive the model text. Be sure to save the file as an unformatted text (ASCII) file. The transformation is FILE(filename) where *filename* is the name of the text file, including directory information. When the transformation is executed, it will load the file and use the transformation stored there.

Regression Coefficients Confidence Intervals

Independent Variable	Regression Coefficient b(i)	Standard Error Sb(i)	Lower 95% Conf. Limit of $\beta(i)$	Upper 95% Conf. Limit of $\beta(i)$
Intercept	85.24038	23.695135	31.63827	138.84250
Test1	-1.93357	1.029096	-4.26155	0.39441
Test2	-1.65988	0.872896	-3.63451	0.31475
Test3	0.10495	0.219902	-0.39250	0.60241
Test4	3.77838	1.834497	-0.37154	7.92830
Test5	-0.04058	0.201221	-0.49577	0.41461

Note: The T-Value used to calculate these confidence limits was 2.262.

Independent Variable

The names of the independent variables are listed here. The intercept is the value of the Y intercept.

Note that the name may become very long, especially for interaction terms. These long names may misalign the report. You can force the rest of the items to be printed on the next line by using the Skip Line After option in the Format tab. This should create a better looking report when the names are extra long.

Regression Coefficient

The regression coefficients are the least squares estimates of the parameters. The value indicates how much change in Y occurs for a one-unit change in x when the remaining X's are held constant. These coefficients are often called partial-regression coefficients since the effect of the other X's is removed. These coefficients are the values of b_0, b_1, \dots, b_p .

Standard Error

The standard error of the regression coefficient, s_{b_j} , is the standard deviation of the estimate. It is used in hypothesis tests and confidence limits.

Lower - Upper 95% C.L.

These are the lower and upper values of a $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ interval estimate for β_j based on a t-distribution with $n - p - 1$ degrees of freedom. This interval estimate assumes that the residuals for the regression model are normally distributed.

Multiple Regression

These confidence limits may be used for significance testing values of β_j other than zero. If a specific value is not within this interval, it is significantly different from that value. Note that these confidence limits are set up as if you are interested in each regression coefficient separately.

The formulas for the lower and upper confidence limits are:

$$b_j \pm t_{1-\alpha/2, n-p-1} s_{b_j}$$

Note: The T-Value ...

This is the value of $t_{1-\alpha/2, n-p-1}$ used to construct the confidence limits.

Estimated Equation

```

IQ =
85.2403846967439 - 1.93357123818932 * Test1 - 1.65988116961152 * Test2 + 0.104954325385776 * Test3
+ 3.77837667941384 * Test4 - 0.0405775409260279 * Test5

```

This is the least squares regression line presented in double precision. Besides showing the regression model in long form, it may be used as a transformation by copying and pasting it into the Transformation portion of the spreadsheet.

Analysis of Variance

Source	DF	R ² Lost If Term(s) Removed	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Ratio	Prob Level	Power (5%)
Intercept	1		163281.67	163281.67			
Model	5	0.3991	678.15	135.63	1.195	0.3835	0.2565
Error	9	0.6009	1021.18	113.46			
Total(Adjusted)	14		1699.33	121.38			

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) table summarizes the information related to the variation in data.

Source

This represents a partition of the variation in Y .

DF

The degrees of freedom are the number of dimensions associated with this term. Note that each observation can be interpreted as a dimension in n -dimensional space. The degrees of freedom for the intercept, model, error, and adjusted total are 1, p , $n-p-1$, and $n-1$, respectively.

R² Lost if Term(s) Removed

This is the overall R^2 of this the regression model.

Sum of Squares

These are the sums of squares associated with the corresponding sources of variation. Note that these values are in terms of the dependent variable. The formulas for each are

$$SS_{Intercept} = n\bar{y}^2$$

$$SS_{Model} = \sum (\hat{y}_j - \bar{y})^2$$

Multiple Regression

$$SS_{Error} = \sum (y_j - \hat{y}_j)^2$$

$$SS_{Total} = \sum (y_j - \bar{y})^2$$

Mean Square

The mean square is the sum of squares divided by the degrees of freedom. This mean square is an estimated variance. For example, the mean square error is the estimated variance of the residuals.

F-Ratio

This is the F -statistic for testing the null hypothesis that all $\beta_j = 0$. This F -statistic has p degrees of freedom for the numerator variance and $n-p-1$ degrees of freedom for the denominator variance.

Prob Level

This is the p -value for the above F -test. The p -value is the probability that the test statistic will take on a value at least as extreme as the observed value, assuming that the null hypothesis is true. If the p -value is less than α , say 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected. If the p -value is greater than α , then the null hypothesis is accepted.

Power(5%)

Power is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis that all the regression coefficients are zero when at least one is not.

Analysis of Variance Detail

Source	DF	R ² Lost If Term(s) Removed	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Ratio	Prob Level	Power (5%)
Intercept	1		163281.67	163281.67			
Model	5	0.3991	678.15	135.63	1.195	0.3835	0.2565
Test1	1	0.2357	400.56	400.56	3.530	0.0930	0.3896
Test2	1	0.2414	410.29	410.29	3.616	0.0897	0.3974
Test3	1	0.0152	25.85	25.85	0.228	0.6445	0.0713
Test4	1	0.2832	481.32	481.32	4.242	0.0695	0.4522
Test5	1	0.0027	4.61	4.61	0.041	0.8447	0.0538
Error	9	0.6009	1021.18	113.46			
Total(Adjusted)	14		1699.33	121.38			

This analysis of variance table provides a line for each term in the model. It is especially useful when you have categorical independent variables.

Source

This is the term from the design model.

Note that the name may become very long, especially for interaction terms. These long names may misalign the report. You can force the rest of the items to be printed on the next line by using the Skip Line After option in the Format tab. This should create a better looking report when the names are extra long.

DF

This is the number of degrees of freedom that the model is degrees of freedom is reduced when this term is removed from the model. This is the numerator degrees of freedom of the F -test.

R² Lost if Term(s) Removed

This is the amount that R^2 is reduced when this term is removed from the regression model.

Sum of Squares

This is the amount that the model sum of squares that are reduced when this term is removed from the model.

Multiple Regression

Mean Square

The mean square is the sum of squares divided by the degrees of freedom.

F-Ratio

This is the F -statistic for testing the null hypothesis that all β_j associated with this term are zero. This F -statistic has DF and $n-p-1$ degrees of freedom.

Prob Level

This is the p -value for the above F -test. The p -value is the probability that the test statistic will take on a value at least as extreme as the observed value, assuming that the null hypothesis is true. If the p -value is less than α , say 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected. If the p -value is greater than α , then the null hypothesis is accepted.

Power(5%)

Power is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis that all the regression coefficients associated with this term are zero, assuming that the estimated values of these coefficients are their true values.

PRESS Report

Parameter	From PRESS Residuals	From Regular Residuals
Sum of Squared Residuals	2839.94	1021.18
Sum of Residuals	169.64	99.12
R ²	0.0000	0.3991

This section reports on the PRESS statistics. The regular statistics, computed on all of the data, are provided to the side to make comparison between corresponding values easier.

Sum of Squared Residuals

PRESS is an acronym for prediction sum of squares. It was developed for use in variable selection to validate a regression model. To calculate *PRESS*, each observation is individually omitted. The remaining $N - 1$ observations are used to calculate a regression and estimate the value of the omitted observation. This is done N times, once for each observation. The difference between the actual Y value and the predicted Y with the observation deleted is called the prediction error or *PRESS* residual. The sum of the squared prediction errors is the *PRESS* value. The smaller *PRESS* is, the better the predictability of the model.

$$\sum (y_j - \hat{y}_{j,j})^2$$

Sum of |Press residuals|

This is the sum of the absolute value of the *PRESS* residuals or prediction errors. If a large value for the *PRESS* is due to one or a few large *PRESS* residuals, this statistic may be a more accurate way to evaluate predictability.

$$\sum |y_j - \hat{y}_{j,j}|$$

Press R²

The *PRESS* value above can be used to compute an R^2 -like statistic, called *R2Predict*, which reflects the prediction ability of the model. This is a good way to validate the prediction of a regression model without selecting another sample or splitting your data. It is very possible to have a high R^2 and a very low *R2Predict*. When this occurs, it implies that the fitted model is data dependent. This *R2Predict* ranges from below zero to above one. When outside the range of zero to one, it is truncated to stay within this range.

$$R_{PRESS}^2 = 1 - \frac{PRESS}{SS_{Total}}$$

Multiple Regression

Normality Tests

Normality Tests			
Test Name	Test Statistic to Test H0: Normal	Prob Level	Reject H0 at 20%?
Shapiro Wilk	0.908	0.1243	Yes
Anderson Darling	0.458	0.2639	No
D'Agostino Skewness	2.033	0.0421	Yes
D'Agostino Kurtosis	1.580	0.1141	Yes
D'Agostino Omnibus	6.629	0.0364	Yes

This report gives the results of applying several normality tests to the residuals. The Shapiro-Wilk test is probably the most popular, so it is given first. These tests are discussed in detail in the Normality Test section of the Descriptive Statistics procedure.

Serial-Correlation and Durbin-Watson Test

Serial Correlation of Residuals

Lag	Serial Correlation	Lag	Serial Correlation	Lag	Serial Correlation
1	0.4529	9	-0.2769	17	0.0000
2	-0.2507	10	-0.2287	18	0.0000
3	-0.5518	11	-0.0197	19	0.0000
4	-0.3999	12	0.0669	20	0.0000
5	0.0780	13	0.0000	21	0.0000
6	0.2956	14	0.0000	22	0.0000
7	0.1985	15	0.0000	23	0.0000
8	-0.0016	16	0.0000	24	0.0000

Above serial correlations significant if their absolute values are greater than 0.5164

Durbin-Watson Test for Serial Correlation

Parameter	Test Statistic to Test H0: $\rho(1) = 0$?	Reject H0 at 20%?
Durbin-Watson Value	1.001	
Prob. Level: Positive Serial Correlation	0.0072	Yes
Prob. Level: Negative Serial Correlation	0.9549	No

This section reports the autocorrelation structure of the residuals. Of course, this report is only useful if the data represent a time series.

Lag and Correlation

The lag, k , is the number of periods (rows) back. The correlation here is the sample autocorrelation coefficient of lag k . It is computed as:

$$r_k = \frac{\sum e_{i-k} e_i}{\sum e_i^2} \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots, 24$$

To test the null hypothesis that $\rho_k = 0$ at a 5% level of significance with a large-sample normal approximation, reject when the absolute value of the autocorrelation coefficient, $|r_k|$, is greater than two over the square root of N .

Durbin-Watson Value

The Durbin-Watson test is often used to test for positive or negative, first-order, serial correlation. It is calculated as follows

Multiple Regression

$$r_k = \frac{\sum e_{i-k} e_i}{\sum e_i^2} \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots, 24$$

The distribution of this test is mathematically difficult because it involves the X values. Originally, Durbin-Watson (1950, 1951) gave a pair of bounds to be used. However, there is a large range of indecision that can be found when using these bounds. Instead of using these bounds, *NCSS* calculates the exact probability using the beta distribution approximation suggested by Durbin-Watson (1951). This approximation has been shown to be accurate to three decimal places in most cases.

R² Report

Independent Variable (IV)	Total R ² for this IV and IV's Above	Increase in R ² if this IV Included with IV's Above	Decrease in R ² if this IV was Removed	R ² if this IV was Fit Alone	Partial R ² if Adjusted for All Other IV's
Test1	0.0509	0.0509	0.2357	0.0509	0.2817
Test2	0.0990	0.0480	0.2414	0.0579	0.2866
Test3	0.1131	0.0142	0.0152	0.0055	0.0247
Test4	0.3964	0.2832	0.2832	0.1379	0.3203
Test5	0.3991	0.0027	0.0027	0.0034	0.0045

R^2 reflects the percent of variation in Y explained by the independent variables in the model. A value of R^2 near zero indicates a complete lack of fit between Y and the X s, while a value near one indicates a perfect fit.

In this section, various types of R^2 values are given to provide insight into the variation in the dependent variable explained either by the independent variables added in order (i.e., sequential) or by the independent variables added last. This information is valuable in an analysis of which variables are most important.

Independent Variable

This is the name of the independent variable reported on in this row.

Total R² for This I.V. and Those Above

This is the R^2 value that would result from fitting a regression with this independent variable and those listed above it. The IV's below it are ignored.

R² Increase When This IV Added to Those Above

This is the amount that this IV adds to R^2 when it is added to a regression model that includes those IV's listed above it in the report.

R² Decrease When This IV is Removed

This is the amount that R^2 would be reduced if this IV were removed from the model. Large values here indicate important independent variables, while small values indicate insignificant variables.

One of the main problems in interpreting these values is that each assumes all other variables are already in the equation. This means that if two variables both represent the same underlying information, they will each seem to be insignificant after considering the other. If you remove both, you will lose the information that either one could have brought to the model.

R² When This IV Is Fit Alone

This is the R^2 that would be obtained if the dependent variable were only regressed against this one independent variable. Of course, a large R^2 value here indicates an important independent variable that can stand alone.

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Partial R^2 Adjusted For All Other IV's

The is the square of the partial correlation coefficient. The partial R^2 reflects the percent of variation in the dependent variable explained by one independent variable controlling for the effects of the rest of the independent variables. Large values for this partial R^2 indicate important independent variables.

Variable Omission Report

Independent Variable	R^2 When I.V. Omitted	MSE When I.V. Omitted	Mallow's Cp When I.V. Omitted	H0: $\beta(i)=0$ Prob Level	R^2 of Regress. of This I.V. on Other I.V.'s
Full Model	0.3991	113.4648			
Test1	0.1634	142.1745	7.5303	0.0930	0.9747
Test2	0.1576	143.1472	7.6160	0.0897	0.9717
Test3	0.3839	104.703	4.2278	0.6445	0.2280
Test4	0.1158	150.2507	8.2421	0.0695	0.9876
Test5	0.3964	102.5797	4.0407	0.8447	0.2329

One way of assessing the importance of an independent variable is to examine the impact on various goodness-of-fit statistics of removing it from the model. This section provides this.

Independent Variable

This is the name of the predictor variable reported on in this row. Note that the *Full Model* row gives the statistics when no variables are omitted.

 R^2 When IV Omitted

This is the R^2 for the multiple regression model when this independent variable is omitted and the remaining independent variables are retained. If this R^2 is close to the R^2 for the full model, this variable is not very important. On the other hand, if this R^2 is much smaller than that of the full model, this independent variable is important.

MSE When IV Omitted

This is the mean square error for the multiple regression model when this IV is omitted and the remaining IV's are retained. If this MSE is close to the MSE for the full model, this variable may not be very important. On the other hand, if this MSE is much larger than that of the full model, this IV is important.

Mallow's Cp When IV Omitted

Another criterion for variable selection and importance is Mallow's C_p statistic. The optimum model will have a C_p value close to $p+1$, where p is the number of independent variables. A C_p greater than $(p+1)$ indicates that the regression model is overspecified (contains too many variables and stands a chance of having collinearity problems). On the other hand, a model with a C_p less than $(p+1)$ indicates that the regression model is underspecified (at least one important independent variable has been omitted). The formula for the C_p statistic is as follows, where k is the maximum number of independent variables available

$$C_p = (n - p - 1) \left[\frac{MSE_p}{MSE_k} \right] - [n - 2(p + 1)]$$

H0: B=0 Prob Level

This is the two-tail p -value for testing the significance of the regression coefficient. Most likely, you would deem IV's with small p -values as important. However, you must be careful here. Collinearity can cause extra large p -values, so you must check for its presence.

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R² Of Regress. Of This IV Other X's

This is the R^2 value that would result if this independent variable were regressed on the remaining independent variables. A high value indicates a redundancy between this IV and the other IV's. IV's with a high value here (above 0.90) are candidates for omission from the model.

Sum of Squares and Correlations

Independent Variable	Sequential Sum of Squares	Incremental Sum of Squares	Last Sum of Squares	Simple Correlation	Partial Correlation
Test1	86.5252	86.5252	400.562	0.2256	-0.5308
Test2	168.1614	81.6362	410.2892	0.2407	-0.5354
Test3	192.2748	24.11342	25.8466	0.0741	0.1571
Test4	673.5363	481.2615	481.3241	0.3714	0.5660
Test5	678.1504	4.614109	4.614109	-0.0581	-0.0671

This section provides the sum of squares and correlations equivalent to the R^2 Section.

Independent Variable

This is the name of the IV reported on in this row.

Sequential Sum Squares

This is the sum of squares value that would result from fitting a regression with this independent variable and those above it. The IV's below it are ignored.

Incremental Sum Squares

This is the amount that this predictor adds to the sum of squares value when it is added to a regression model that includes those predictors listed above it.

Last Sum Squares

This is the amount that the model sum of squares would be reduced if this variable were removed from the model.

Simple Correlation

This is the Pearson correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and the specified independent variable.

Partial Correlation

The partial correlation coefficient is a measure of the strength of the linear relationship between Y and X_j after adjusting for the remaining $(p-1)$ variables.

Sequential Models Section

Independent Variable	Included R ²	Included F-Ratio	Included Prob Level	Omitted R ²	Omitted F-Ratio	Omitted Prob Level
Test1	0.0509	0.697	0.4187	0.3482	1.304	0.3390
Test2	0.0990	0.659	0.5351	0.3001	1.498	0.2801
Test3	0.1131	0.468	0.7107	0.2859	2.141	0.1735
Test4	0.3964	1.641	0.2390	0.0027	0.041	0.8447
Test5	0.3991	1.195	0.3835	0.0000		

Notes:

1. INCLUDED variables are those listed from current row up (includes current row).
2. OMITTED variables are those listed below (but not including) this row.

This section examines the step-by-step effect of adding variables to the regression model.

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Independent Variable

This is the name of the predictor variable reported on in this row.

Included R^2

This is the R^2 that would be obtained if only those IV's on this line and above were in the regression model.

Included F-ratio

This is an F -ratio for testing the hypothesis that the regression coefficients (β 's) for the IV's listed on this row and above are zero.

Included Prob Level

This is the p -value for the above F -ratio.

Omitted R^2

This is the R^2 for the full model minus the *Included R^2* . This is the amount of R^2 explained by the independent variables listed below the current row. Large values indicate that there is much more to come with later independent variables. On the other hand, small values indicate that remaining independent variables contribute little to the regression model.

Omitted F-Ratio

This is an F -ratio for testing the hypothesis that the regression coefficients (β 's) for the variables listed below this row are all zero. The alternative is that at least one coefficient is nonzero.

Omitted Prob Level

This is the p -value for the above F -ratio.

Multicollinearity Report

Independent Variable	Variance Inflation Factor	R^2 Versus Other I.V.'s	Tolerance	Diagonal of X'X Inverse
Test1	39.5273	0.9747	0.0253	0.00933363145144107
Test2	35.3734	0.9717	0.0283	0.00671527719536247
Test3	1.2953	0.2280	0.7720	0.000426184099335767
Test4	80.8456	0.9876	0.0124	0.0296601215840256
Test5	1.3035	0.2329	0.7671	0.000356848255025293

This report provides information useful in assessing the amount of multicollinearity in your data.

Variance Inflation Factor

The variance inflation factor (VIF) is a measure of multicollinearity. It is the reciprocal of $1 - R_x^2$, where R_x^2 is the R^2 obtained when this variable is regressed on the remaining IV's. A VIF of 10 or more for large data sets indicates a collinearity problem since the R_x^2 with the remaining IV's is 90 percent. For small data sets, even VIF 's of 5 or more can signify collinearity. Variables with a high VIF are candidates for exclusion from the model.

$$VIF_j = \frac{1}{1 - R_j^2}$$

R^2 Versus Other IV's

R_x^2 is the R^2 obtained when this variable is regressed on the remaining independent variables. A high R_x^2 indicates a lot of overlap in explaining the variation among the remaining independent variables.

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Tolerance

Tolerance is just $1 - R_x^2$, the denominator of the variance inflation factor.

Diagonal of X'X Inverse

The $X'X$ inverse is an important matrix in regression. This is the j^{th} row and j^{th} column element of this matrix.

Eigenvalues of Centered Correlations

No.	Eigenvalue	Incremental Percent	Cumulative Percent	Condition Number
1	2.2150	44.30	44.30	1.00
2	1.2277	24.55	68.85	1.80
3	1.1062	22.12	90.98	2.00
4	0.4446	8.89	99.87	4.98
5	0.0065	0.13	100.00	340.94

Some Condition Numbers greater than 100. Multicollinearity is a MILD problem.

This section gives an eigenvalue analysis of the independent variables when they have been centered and scaled.

Eigenvalue

The eigenvalues of the correlation matrix. The sum of the eigenvalues is equal to the number of IV's. Eigenvalues near zero indicate a high degree of is collinearity in the data.

Incremental Percent

Incremental percent is the percent this eigenvalue is of the total. In an ideal situation, these percentages would be equal. Percents near zero indicate collinearity in the data.

Cumulative Percent

This is the running total of the Incremental Percent.

Condition Number

The condition number is the largest eigenvalue divided by each corresponding eigenvalue. Since the eigenvalues are really variances, the condition number is a ratio of variances. Condition numbers greater than 1000 indicate a severe collinearity problem while condition numbers between 100 and 1000 indicate a mild collinearity problem.

Eigenvector Percent of Regression-Coefficient-Variance using Centered Correlations

No.	Eigenvalue	Test1	Test2	Test3
1	2.2150	0.2705	0.2850	1.8773
2	1.2277	0.0330	0.1208	31.1222
3	1.1062	0.8089	0.8397	7.6430
4	0.4446	0.8059	1.0889	59.3291
5	0.0065	98.0817	97.6657	0.0284

No.	Eigenvalue	Test4	Test5
1	2.2150	0.2331	2.3798
2	1.2277	0.0579	23.6898
3	1.1062	0.0015	14.3442
4	0.4446	0.0002	59.5804
5	0.0065	99.7072	0.0058

This report displays how the eigenvectors associated with each eigenvalue are related to the independent variables.

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No.

The number of the eigenvalue.

Eigenvalue

The eigenvalues of the correlation matrix. The sum of the eigenvalues is equal to the number of independent variables. Eigenvalues near zero mean that there is collinearity in your data.

Values

The rest of this report gives a breakdown of what percentage each eigenvector is of the total variation for the regression coefficient. Hence, the percentages sum to 100 down a column.

A small eigenvalue (large condition number) along with a subset of two or more independent variables having high variance percentages indicates a dependency involving the independent variables in that subset. This dependency has damaged or contaminated the precision of the regression coefficients estimated in the subset. Two or more percentages of at least 50% for an eigenvector or eigenvalue suggest a problem. For certain, when there are two or more variance percentages greater than 90%, there is definitely a collinearity problem.

Again, take the following steps when using this table.

1. Find rows with condition numbers greater than 100 (find these in the *Eigenvalues of Centered Correlations* report).
2. Scan across each row found in step 1 for two or more percentages greater than 50. If two such percentages are found, the corresponding variables are being influenced by collinearity problems. You should remove one and re-run your analysis.

Eigenvalues of Uncentered Correlations Section

No.	Eigenvalue	Incremental Percent	Cumulative Percent	Condition Number
1	5.7963	96.61	96.61	1.00
2	0.1041	1.73	98.34	55.69
3	0.0670	1.12	99.46	86.53
4	0.0214	0.36	99.81	270.83
5	0.0109	0.18	99.99	533.76
6	0.0003	0.01	100.00	17767.04

Some Condition Numbers greater than 1000. Multicollinearity is a SEVERE problem.

This report gives an eigenvalue analysis of the independent variables when they have been scaled but not centered (the intercept is included in the collinearity analysis). The eigenvalues for this situation are generally not the same as those in the previous eigenvalue analysis. Also, the condition numbers are much higher.

Eigenvalue

The eigenvalues of the scaled, but not centered, matrix. The sum of the eigenvalues is equal to the number of independent variables. Eigenvalues near zero mean that there is collinearity in your data.

Incremental Percent

Incremental percent is the percent this eigenvalue is of the total. In an ideal situation, these percentages would be equal. Percents near zero mean that there is collinearity in your data.

Cumulative Percent

This is the running total of the *Incremental Percent*.

Condition Number

The condition number is the largest eigenvalue divided by each corresponding eigenvalue. Since the eigenvalues are really variances, the condition number is a ratio of variances. There has not been any formalization of rules on condition numbers for uncentered matrices. You might use the criteria mentioned earlier for mild collinearity and

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severe collinearity. Since the collinearity will always be worse with the intercept in the model, it is advisable to have more relaxed criteria for mild and severe collinearity, say 500 and 5000, respectively.

Eigenvector Percent of Regression-Coefficient-Variance using Uncentered Correlations

No.	Eigenvalue	Test1	Test2	Test3
1	5.7963	0.0042	0.0068	0.0826
2	0.1041	0.0308	0.8177	3.8156
3	0.0670	1.1375	0.9627	7.4272
4	0.0214	0.2675	0.9263	51.4298
5	0.0109	0.4157	0.0499	37.2046
6	0.0003	98.1444	97.2367	0.0402

No.	Eigenvalue	Test4	Test5	Intercept
1	5.7963	0.0015	0.1033	0.0397
2	0.1041	0.0610	11.8930	0.2599
3	0.0670	0.0261	0.0897	0.0106
4	0.0214	0.0006	79.7835	1.6692
5	0.0109	0.0931	8.1292	97.0221
6	0.0003	99.8177	0.0013	0.9986

This report displays how the eigenvectors associated with each eigenvalue are related to the independent variables.

No.

The number of the eigenvalue.

Eigenvalue

The eigenvalues of the correlation matrix. The sum of the eigenvalues is equal to the number of independent variables. Eigenvalues near zero mean that there is collinearity in your data.

Values

The rest of this report gives a breakdown of what percentage each eigenvector is of the total variation for the regression coefficient. Hence, the percentages sum to 100 down a column.

A small eigenvalue (large condition number) along with a subset of two or more independent variables having high variance percentages indicates a dependency involving the independent variables in that subset. This dependency has damaged or contaminated the precision of the regression coefficients estimated in the subset. Two or more percentages of at least 50% for an eigenvector or eigenvalue suggest a problem. For certain, when there are two or more variance percentages greater than 90%, there is definitely a collinearity problem.

Predicted Values with Confidence Limits of Means

Row	Actual IQ	Predicted IQ	Standard Error Of Predicted	95% Lower Conf. Limit Of Mean	95% Upper Conf. Limit Of Mean
1	106.000	110.581	7.157	94.391	126.770
2	92.000	98.248	7.076	82.242	114.255
3	102.000	97.616	6.223	83.539	111.693
4	121.000	118.340	8.687	98.689	137.990
5	102.000	96.006	6.369	81.597	110.414
6	105.000	102.233	5.433	89.942	114.523
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.

Confidence intervals for the mean response of Y given specific levels for the IV's are provided here. It is important to note that violations of any regression assumptions will invalidate these interval estimates.

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Actual

This is the actual value of Y .

Predicted

The predicted value of Y . It is predicted using the values of the IV's for this row. If the input data had all IV values but no value for Y , the predicted value is still provided.

Standard Error of Predicted

This is the standard error of the mean response for the specified values of the IV's. Note that this value is not constant for all IV's values. In fact, it is a minimum at the average value of each IV.

Lower 95% C.L. of Mean

This is the lower limit of a 95% confidence interval estimate of the mean of Y for this observation.

Upper 95% C.L. of Mean

This is the upper limit of a 95% confidence interval estimate of the mean of Y for this observation. Note that you set the alpha level.

Predicted Values with Prediction Limits of Individuals

Row	Actual IQ	Predicted IQ	Standard Error Of Predicted	95% Lower Pred. Limit Of Individual	95% Upper Pred. Limit Of Individual
1	106.000	110.581	12.833	81.551	139.611
2	92.000	98.248	12.788	69.320	127.177
3	102.000	97.616	12.336	69.709	125.523
4	121.000	118.340	13.745	87.247	149.433
5	102.000	96.006	12.411	67.930	124.081
6	105.000	102.233	11.958	75.183	129.283
.
.
.

A prediction interval for the individual response of Y given specific values of the IV's is provided here for each row.

Actual

This is the actual value of Y .

Predicted

The predicted value of Y . It is predicted using the levels of the IV's for this row. If the input data had all values of the IV's but no value for Y , a predicted value is provided.

Standard Error of Predicted

This is the standard deviation of the mean response for the specified levels of the IV's. Note that this value is not constant for all IV's. In fact, it is a minimum at the average value of each IV.

Lower 95% Pred. Limit of Individual

This is the lower limit of a 95% prediction interval of the individual value of Y for the values of the IV's for this observation.

Upper 95% Pred. Limit of Individual

This is the upper limit of a 95% prediction interval of the individual value of Y for the values of the IV's for this observation. Note that you set the alpha level.

Multiple Regression

Residual Report

Row	Actual IQ	Predicted IQ	Residual	Absolute Percent Error	Sqrt(MSE) Without This Row
1	106.000	110.581	-4.581	4.32	11.08
2	92.000	98.248	-6.248	6.79	10.90
3	102.000	97.616	4.384	4.30	11.14
4	121.000	118.340	2.660	2.20	11.18
5	102.000	96.006	5.994	5.88	10.98
6	105.000	102.233	2.767	2.64	11.24
.
.
.

This section reports on the sample residuals, or e_i 's.

Actual

This is the actual value of Y .

Predicted

The predicted value of Y using the values of the IV's given on this row.

Residual

This is the error in the predicted value. It is equal to the *Actual* minus the *Predicted*.

Absolute Percent Error

This is percentage that the absolute value of the *Residual* is of the *Actual* value. Scrutinize rows with the large percent errors.

Sqrt(MSE) Without This Row

This is the value of the square root of the mean square error that is obtained if this row is deleted. A perusal of this statistic for all observations will highlight observations that have an inflationary impact on mean square error and could be outliers.

Regression Diagnostics Section

Row	Standardized Residual	RStudent	Hat Diagonal	Cook's D	Dffits	CovRatio
1	-0.581	-0.558	0.4514	0.0462	-0.506	2.94
2	-0.785	-0.767	0.4413	0.0811	-0.681	2.37
3	0.507	0.485	0.3413	0.0222	0.349	2.59
4	0.431	0.411	0.6650	0.0616	0.579	5.34
5	0.702	0.681	0.3575	0.0457	0.508	2.25
6	0.302	0.286	0.2601	0.0053	0.170	2.58
.
.
.

This report presents various statistics known as *regression diagnostics*. They let you conduct an influence analysis of the observations. The interpretation of these values is explained in modern regression books. Belsley, Kuh, and Welsch (1980) devote an entire book to the study of regression diagnostics.

These statistics flag observations that exert three types of influence on the regression.

1. *Outliers in the residual space.* The *Studentized Residual*, the *RStudent*, and the *CovRatio* will flag observations that are influential because of large residuals.
2. *Outliers in the X-space.* The *Hat Diagonal* flags observations that are influential because they are outliers in the X-space.

Multiple Regression

3. *Parameter estimates and fit.* The *Dffits* shows the influence on fitted values. It also measures the impact on the regression coefficients. *Cook's D* measures the overall impact that a single observation has on the regression coefficient estimates.

Standardized Residual

The variances of the observed residuals are not equal, making comparisons among the residuals difficult. One solution is to standardize the residuals by dividing by their standard deviations. This will give a set of standardized residuals with constant variance. The formula for this residual is

$$r_j = \frac{e_j}{\sqrt{\text{MSE}(1 - h_{jj})}}$$

RStudent

Rstudent is similar to the standardized residual. The difference is the $\text{MSE}(j)$ is used rather than MSE in the denominator. The quantity $\text{MSE}(j)$ is calculated using the same formula as MSE , except that observation j is omitted. The hope is that by excluding this observation, a better estimate of σ^2 will be obtained. Some statisticians refer to these as the *studentized deleted residuals*.

If the regression assumptions of normality are valid, a single value of the RStudent has a t distribution with $n-p-1$ degrees of freedom.

$$t_j = \frac{e_j}{\sqrt{\text{MSE}(j)(1 - h_{jj})}}$$

Hat Diagonal

The hat diagonal, h_{jj} , captures an observation's remoteness in the X -space. Some authors refer to the hat diagonal as a measure of *leverage* in the X -space. Hat diagonals greater than two times the number of coefficients in the model divided by the number of observations are said to have *high leverage* (i.e., $h_{ii} > 2p/n$).

Cook's D

Cook's distance (Cook's D) attempts to measure the influence each observation on all N fitted values. The approximate formula for Cook's D is

$$D_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N w_j [\hat{y}_j - \hat{y}_j(i)]^2}{ps^2}$$

The $\hat{y}_j(i)$ are found by removing observation i before the calculations. Rather than go to all the time of recalculating the regression coefficients N times, we use the following approximation

$$D_j = \frac{w_j e_j^2 h_{jj}}{ps^2 (1 - h_{jj})^2}$$

This approximation is exact when no weight variable is used.

A Cook's D value greater than one indicates an observation that has large influence. Some statisticians have suggested that a better cutoff value is $4 / (N - 2)$.

Multiple Regression

DFFITS

DFFITS is the standardized difference between the predicted value with and without that observation. The formula for *DFFITS* is

$$D_j = \left(\frac{r_j^2}{p} \right) \left(\frac{h_{jj}}{1 - h_{jj}} \right)$$

The values of $\hat{y}_j(j)$ and $s^2(j)$ are found by removing observation j before the doing the calculations. It represents the number of estimated standard errors that the fitted value changes if the j^{th} observation is omitted from the data set. If $|DFFITS| > 1$, the observation should be considered to be influential with regards to prediction.

CovRatio

This diagnostic flags observations that have a major impact on the generalized variance of the regression coefficients. A value exceeding 1.0 implies that the i^{th} observation provides an improvement, i.e., a reduction in the generalized variance of the coefficients. A value of CovRatio less than 1.0 flags an observation that increases the estimated generalized variance. This is not a favorable condition.

The general formula for the CovRatio is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CovRatio}_j &= \frac{\det \left[s(j)^2 (\mathbf{X}(j)' \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X}(j))^{-1} \right]}{\det \left[s^2 (\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \right]} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - h_{jj}} \left[\frac{s(j)^2}{s^2} \right]^p \end{aligned}$$

Belsley, Kuh, and Welsch (1980) give the following guidelines for the CovRatio.

If $\text{CovRatio} > 1 + 3p / N$ then omitting this observation significantly damages the precision of at least some of the regression estimates.

If $\text{CovRatio} < 1 - 3p / N$ then omitting this observation significantly improves the precision of at least some of the regression estimates.

DFBETAS Section

Row	Test1	Test2	Test3	Test4	Test5
1	0.21597	0.31277	-0.03897	-0.25558	0.17228
2	-0.11231	0.01903	-0.08301	0.08707	0.00449
3	0.18220	0.23698	0.02914	-0.20754	0.06737
4	-0.17921	-0.21571	0.21569	0.23930	0.19635
5	0.39323	0.34425	0.01076	-0.36379	0.12404
6	0.09693	0.08680	-0.01100	-0.08424	-0.05343
.
.
.

DFBETAS

The DFBETAS is an influence diagnostic which gives the number of standard errors that an estimated regression coefficient changes if the j^{th} observation is deleted. If one has N observations and p independent variables, there are Np of these diagnostics. Sometimes, Cook's D may not show any overall influence on the regression coefficients, but this diagnostic gives the analyst more insight into individual coefficients. The criteria of influence for this diagnostic are varied, but Belsley, Kuh, and Welsch (1980) recommend a cutoff of $2 / \sqrt{N}$. Other guidelines are ± 1 or ± 2 . The formula for DFBETAS is

Multiple Regression

$$dfbetas_k = \frac{b_k - b_{k,j}}{\sqrt{MSE_j c_{kk}}}$$

where c_{kk} is the k^{th} row and k^{th} column element of the inverse matrix $(X'X)^{-1}$.

Graphic Residual Analysis

The residuals can be graphically analyzed in numerous ways. Three types of residuals are graphically analyzed here: residuals, rstudent residuals, and partial residuals. For certain, the regression analyst should examine all of the basic residual graphs: the histogram, the density trace, the normal probability plot, the serial correlation plots, the scatter plot of the residuals versus the sequence of the observations, the scatter plot of the residuals versus the predicted value of the dependent variable, and the scatter plot of the residuals versus each of the independent variables.

For the basic scatter plots of residuals versus either the predicted values of Y or the independent variables, Hoaglin (1983) explains that there are several patterns to look for. You should note that these patterns are very difficult, if not impossible, to recognize for small data sets.

Point Cloud

A point cloud, basically in the shape of a rectangle or a horizontal band, would indicate no relationship between the residuals and the variable plotted against them. This is the preferred condition.

Wedge

An increasing or decreasing wedge would be evidence that there is increasing or decreasing (nonconstant) variation. A transformation of Y may correct the problem, or weighted least squares may be needed.

Bowtie

This is similar to the wedge above in that the residual plot shows a decreasing wedge in one direction while simultaneously having an increasing wedge in the other direction. A transformation of Y may correct the problem, or weighted least squares may be needed.

Sloping Band

This kind of residual plot suggests adding a linear version of the independent variable to the model.

Curved Band

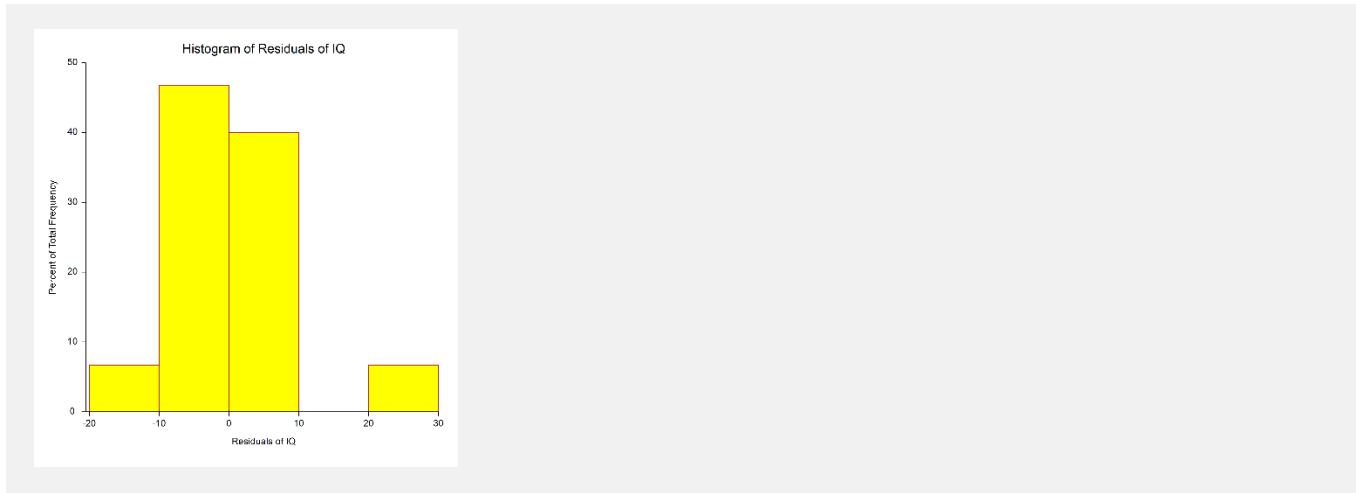
This kind of residual plot may be indicative of a nonlinear relationship between Y and the independent variables that was not accounted for. The solution might be to use a transformation on Y to create a linear relationship with the X 's. Another possibility might be to add quadratic or cubic terms of a particular independent variable.

Curved Band with Increasing or Decreasing Variability

This residual plot is really a combination of the wedge and the curved band. It too must be avoided.

Histogram

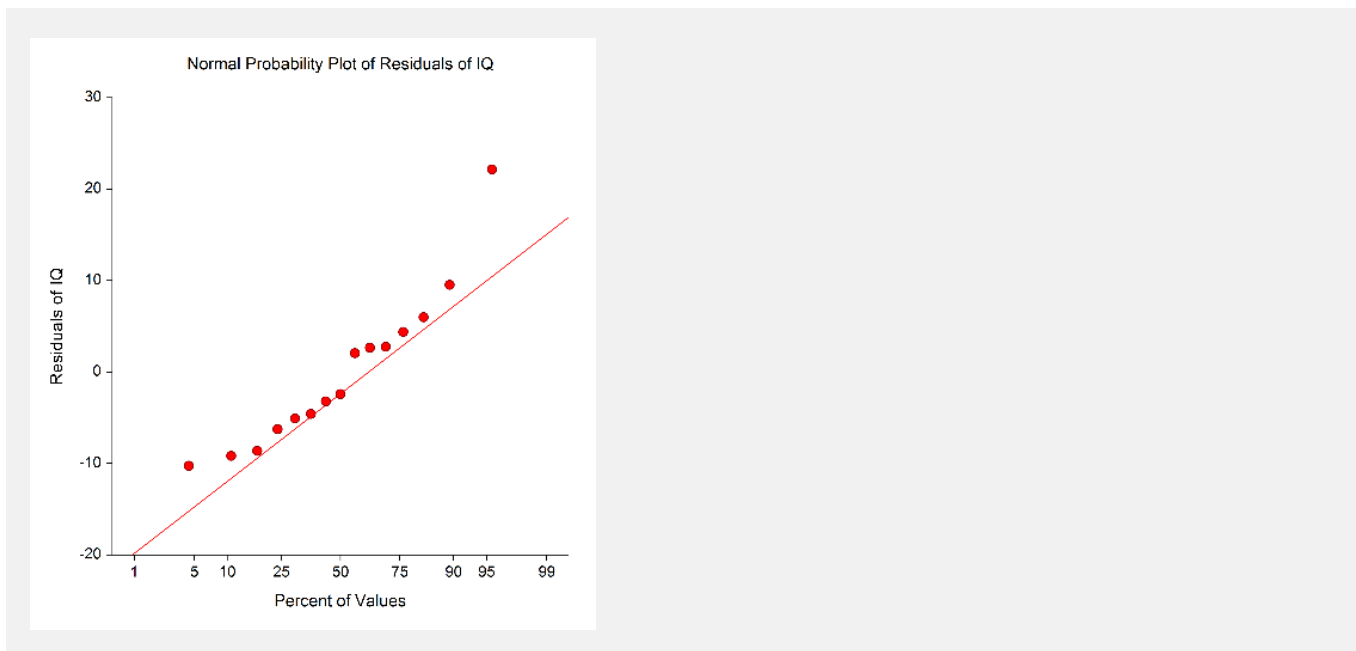
The purpose of the histogram and density trace of the residuals is to evaluate whether they are normally distributed. A dot plot is also given that highlights the distribution of points in each bin of the histogram. Unless you have a large sample size, it is best not to rely on the histogram for visually evaluating normality of the residuals. The better choice would be the normal probability plot.



Probability Plot of Residuals

If the residuals are normally distributed, the data points of the normal probability plot will fall along a straight line through the origin with a slope of 1.0. Major deviations from this ideal picture reflect departures from normality. Stragglers at either end of the normal probability plot indicate outliers, curvature at both ends of the plot indicates long or short distributional tails, convex or concave curvature indicates a lack of symmetry, and gaps or plateaus or segmentation in the normal probability plot may require a closer examination of the data or model. Of course, use of this graphic tool with very small sample sizes is not recommended.

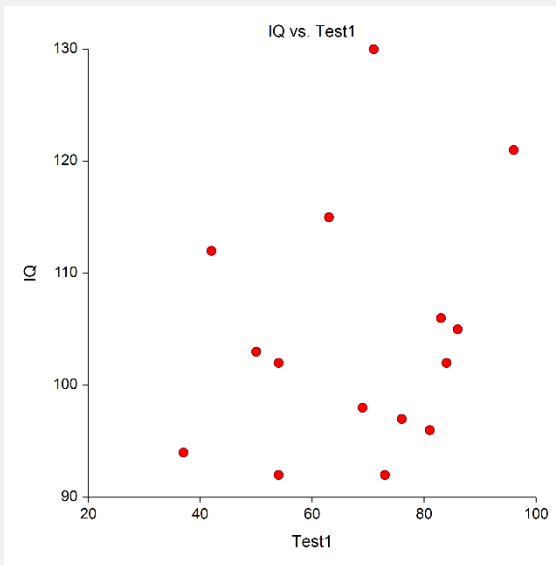
If the residuals are not normally distributed, then the t-tests on regression coefficients, the F-tests, and any interval estimates are not valid. This is a critical assumption to check.



Multiple Regression

Y vs X's Plots

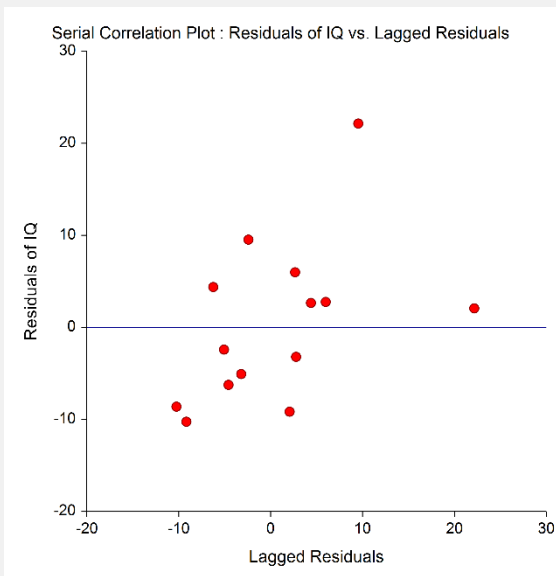
Actually, a regression analysis should always begin with a plot of Y versus each IV . These plots often show outliers, curvilinear relationships, and other anomalies.



Serial Correlation Plot: Residuals vs Lagged Residuals

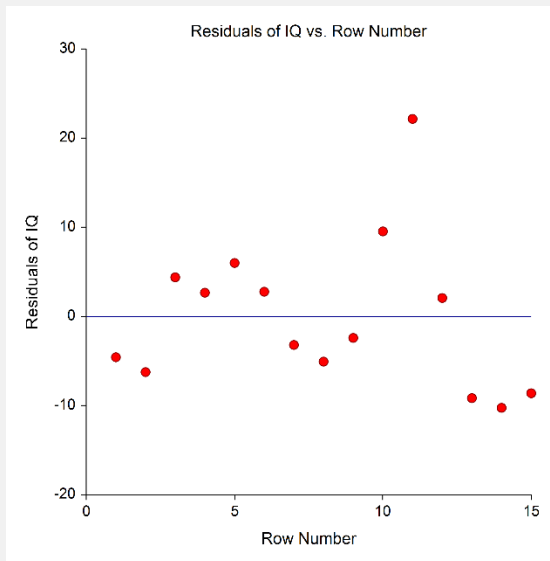
This plot is only useful if your data represent a time series. This is a scatter plot of the j^{th} residual versus the $j^{\text{th}}-1$ residual. The purpose of this plot is to check for first-order autocorrelation.

You would like to see a random pattern of these plotted residuals, i.e., a rectangular or uniform distribution. A strong positive or negative trend would indicate a need to redefine the model with some type of autocorrelation component. Positive autocorrelation or serial correlation means that the residual in time period j tends to have the same sign as the residual in time period $(j-1)$. On the other hand, a strong negative autocorrelation means that the residual in time period j tends to have the opposite sign as the residual in time period $(j-1)$. Be sure to check the Durbin-Watson statistic.



Sequence Plot: Residuals vs Row

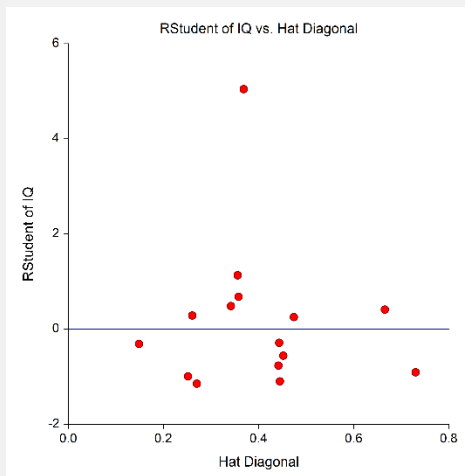
Sequence plots may be useful in finding variables that are not accounted for by the regression equation. They are especially useful if the data were taken over time.



RStudent vs Hat Diagonal Plot

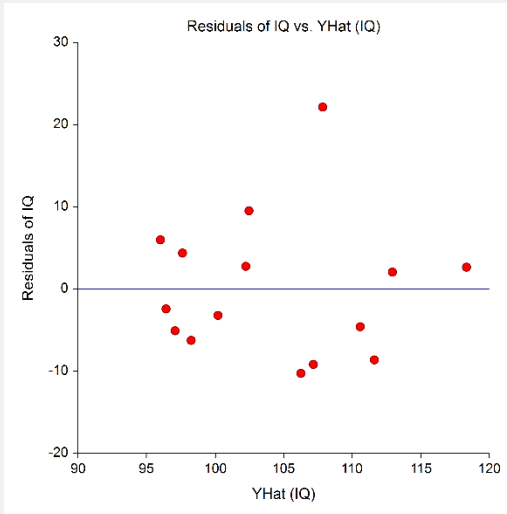
In light of the earlier discussion in the Regression Diagnostics Section, Rstudent is one of the best single-case diagnostics for capturing large residuals, while the hat diagonal flags observations that are remote in the X -space. The purpose of this plot is to give a quick visual spotting of observations that are very different from the norm. It is best to rely on the actual regression diagnostics for any formal conclusions on influence. There are three influential realms you might be concerned with

1. Observations that are extreme along the rstudent (vertical) axis are outliers that need closer attention. They may have a major impact on the predictability of the model.
2. Observations that were extreme to the right (i.e., $h_{ii} > 2p/n$) are outliers in the X -space. These kinds of observations could be data entry errors, so be sure the data is correct before proceeding.
3. Observations that are extreme on both axes are the most influential of all. Double-check these values.



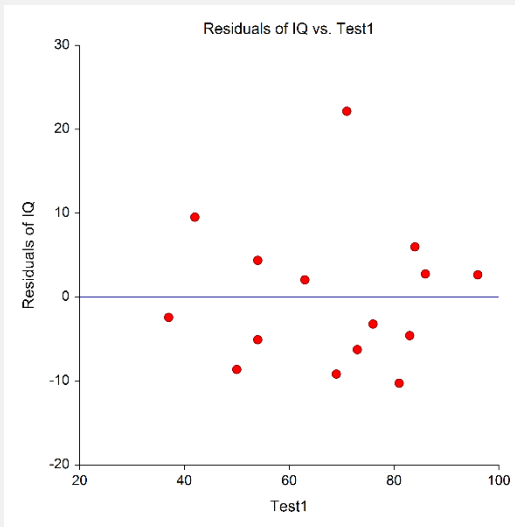
Residuals vs Yhat Plot

This plot should always be examined. The preferred pattern to look for is a point cloud or a horizontal band. A wedge or bowtie pattern is an indicator of nonconstant variance, a violation of a critical regression assumption. The sloping or curved band signifies inadequate specification of the model. The sloping band with increasing or decreasing variability suggests nonconstant variance and inadequate specification of the model.



Residuals vs X's Plots

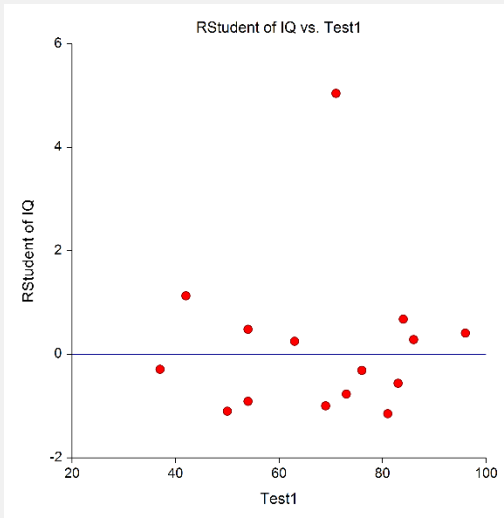
These are the scatter plots of the residuals versus each independent variable. Again, the preferred pattern is a rectangular shape or point cloud. Any other nonrandom pattern may require a redefining of the regression model.



Multiple Regression

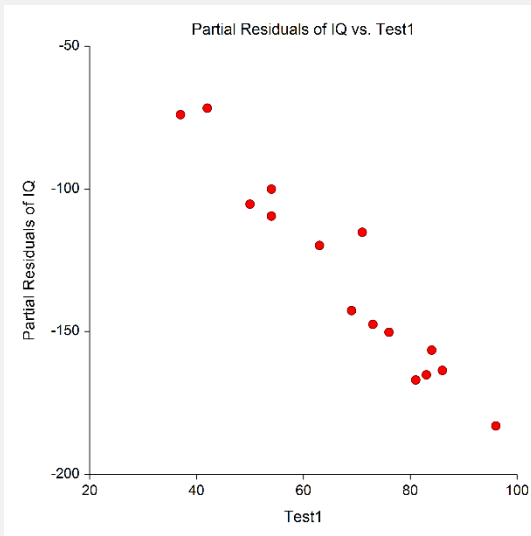
RStudent vs X's Plots

These are the scatter plots of the RStudent residuals versus each independent variable. The preferred pattern is a rectangular shape or point cloud. These plots are very helpful in visually identifying any outliers and nonlinear patterns.



Partial Residuals vs X's Plots

The scatter plot of the partial residuals against each independent variable allows you to examine the relationship between Y and each IV after the effects of the other IV's have been removed. These plots can be used to assess the extent and direction of linearity for each independent variable. In addition, they provide insight as to the correct transformation to apply and information on influential observations. One would like to see a linear pattern between the partial residuals and the independent variable.



Example 2 – Bootstrapping

This section presents an example of how to generate bootstrap confidence intervals with a multiple regression analysis. The tutorial will use the data are in the IQ dataset. This example will run a regression of IQ on Test1, Test2, and Test4.

You may follow along here by making the appropriate entries or load the completed template **Example 2** by clicking on Open Example Template from the File menu of the Multiple Regression window.

1 Open the IQ dataset.

- From the File menu of the NCSS Data window, select **Open Example Data**.
- Click on the file **IQ.NCSS**.
- Click **Open**.

2 Open the Multiple Regression window.

- Using the Analysis menu or the Procedure Navigator, find and select the **Multiple Regression** procedure.
- On the menus, select **File**, then **New Template**. This will fill the procedure with the default template.

3 Specify the variables.

- On the Multiple Regression window, select the **Variables tab**.
- Set the **Y** box to **IQ**.
- Set the **Numeric X's** box to **Test1-Test2, Test4**.

4 Specify the reports.

- Select the **Reports tab**.
- Click **Uncheck All**.
- Check the **Coefficient C.I.'s** box.
- Check the **Bootstrap C.I.'s** box.

5 Run the procedure.

- From the Run menu, select **Run Procedure**. Alternatively, just click the green Run button.

Regression Coefficient Section

Independent Variable	Regression Coefficient $b(i)$	Standard Error $Sb(i)$	Lower 95% Conf. Limit of $\beta(i)$	Upper 95% Conf. Limit of $\beta(i)$
Intercept	90.73267	12.827168	62.50026	118.96508
Test1	-1.96500	0.940631	-4.03532	0.10531
Test2	-1.64851	0.797956	-3.40479	0.10778
Test4	3.78903	1.680081	0.09120	7.48687

Note: The T-Value used to calculate these confidence limits was 2.201.

This report gives the confidence limits calculated under the assumption of normality. We have displayed it so that we can compare these to the bootstrap confidence intervals.

Multiple Regression

Bootstrap Report for Coefficients (values vary slightly from run to run)

--- Estimation Results -----		--- Bootstrap Confidence Limits----		
Parameter	Estimate	Conf. Level	Lower	Upper
Intercept				
Original Value	90.73267	90.00	68.28683	110.53599
Bootstrap Mean	91.92856	95.00	61.70485	115.30939
Bias (BM - OV)	1.19589	99.00	45.47159	128.84638
Bias Corrected	89.53678			
Standard Error	13.63535			
B(Test1)				
Original Value	-1.96500	90.00	-3.03989	-0.06847
Bootstrap Mean	-2.12042	95.00	-3.28073	0.47761
Bias (BM - OV)	-0.15542	99.00	-4.13786	2.07006
Bias Corrected	-1.80958			
Standard Error	0.97991			
B(Test2)				
Original Value	-1.64851	90.00	-2.57266	0.02785
Bootstrap Mean	-1.81380	95.00	-2.76882	0.58125
Bias (BM - OV)	-0.16529	99.00	-3.52113	2.18947
Bias Corrected	-1.48321			
Standard Error	0.86865			
B(Test4)				
Original Value	3.78903	90.00	0.39788	5.74058
Bootstrap Mean	4.09070	95.00	-0.69928	6.27314
Bias (BM - OV)	0.30167	99.00	-3.34367	8.08125
Bias Corrected	3.48736			
Standard Error	1.78253			
--- Estimation Results -----		--- Bootstrap Confidence Limits----		
Parameter	Estimate	Conf. Level	Lower	Upper
Predicted Mean and Confidence Limits of IQ When Row = 16				
Original Value	99.509	90.00	92.994	105.629
Bootstrap Mean	99.753	95.00	90.545	107.253
Bias (BM - OV)	0.244	99.00	85.158	111.221
Bias Corrected	99.265			
Standard Error	4.217			
Predicted Mean and Confidence Limits of IQ When Row = 17				
Original Value	101.264	90.00	96.462	105.789
Bootstrap Mean	101.318	95.00	95.303	106.757
Bias (BM - OV)	0.054	99.00	92.243	109.712
Bias Corrected	101.211			
Standard Error	3.013			
Predicted Value and Prediction Limits of IQ When Row = 16				
Original Value	99.509	90.00	70.226	123.008
Bootstrap Mean	100.731	95.00	62.717	128.058
Bias (BM - OV)	1.222	99.00	47.592	141.259
Bias Corrected	98.287			
Standard Error	16.692			
Predicted Value and Prediction Limits of IQ When Row = 17				
Original Value	101.264	90.00	71.715	124.856
Bootstrap Mean	102.813	95.00	66.059	130.236
Bias (BM - OV)	1.549	99.00	48.732	142.899
Bias Corrected	99.715			
Standard Error	16.696			

This report provides bootstrap intervals of the regression coefficients and predicted values for rows 16 and 17 which did not have an IQ (Y) value. Details of the bootstrap method were presented earlier in this chapter.

It is interesting to compare these confidence intervals with those provided in the Regression Coefficient report. The most striking difference is that the lower limit of the 95% bootstrap confidence interval for B(Test4) is now negative. When the lower limit is negative and the upper limit is positive, we know that a hypothesis test would not find the parameter significantly different from zero. Thus, while the regular confidence interval of B(Test4) indicates statistical significance (since both limits are positive), the bootstrap confidence interval does not.

Note that since these results are based on 3000 random bootstrap samples, they will differ slightly from the results you obtain when you run this report.

Multiple Regression

Original Value

This is the parameter estimate obtained from the complete sample without bootstrapping.

Bootstrap Mean

This is the average of the parameter estimates of the bootstrap samples.

Bias (BM - OV)

This is an estimate of the bias in the original estimate. It is computed by subtracting the original value from the bootstrap mean.

Bias Corrected

This is an estimated of the parameter that has been corrected for its bias. The correction is made by subtracting the estimated bias from the original parameter estimate.

Standard Error

This is the bootstrap method's estimate of the standard error of the parameter estimate. It is simply the standard deviation of the parameter estimate computed from the bootstrap estimates.

Conf. Level

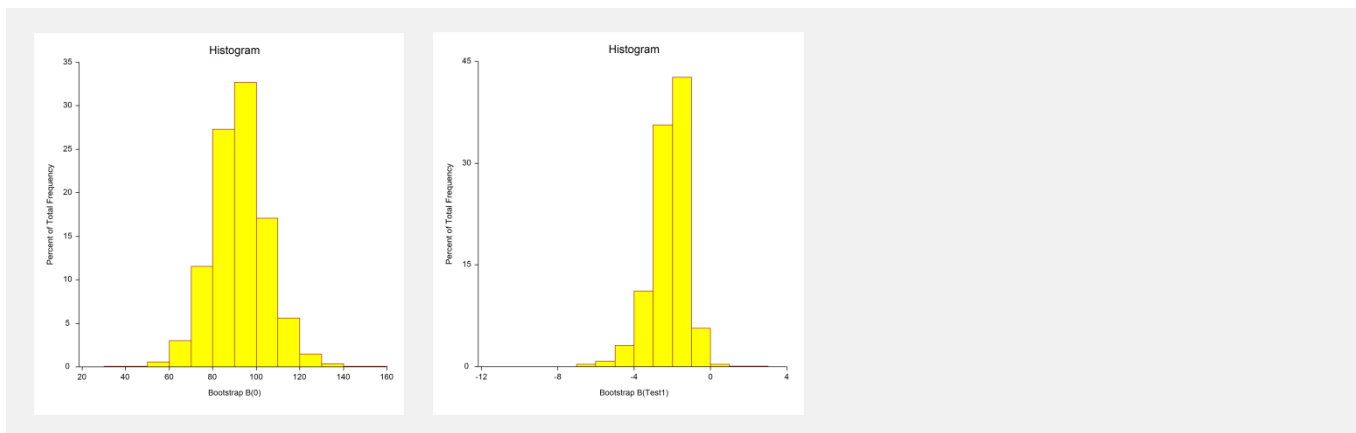
This is the confidence coefficient of the bootstrap confidence interval given to the right.

Bootstrap Confidence Limits - Lower and Upper

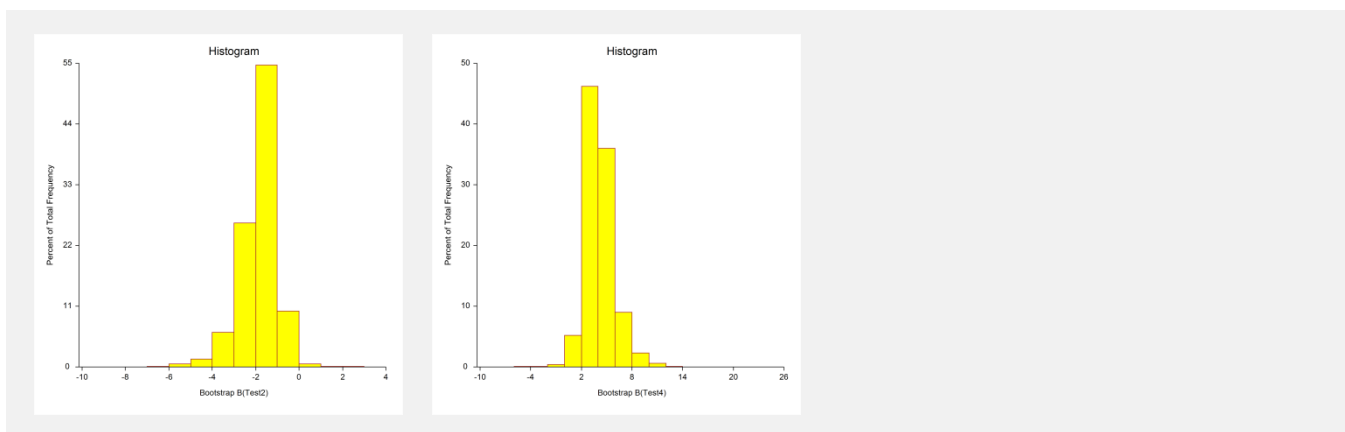
These are the limits of the bootstrap confidence interval with the confidence coefficient given to the left. These limits are computed using the confidence interval method (percentile or reflection) designated on the Bootstrap panel.

Note that to be accurate, these intervals must be based on over a thousand bootstrap samples and the original sample must be representative of the population.

Bootstrap Histograms



Multiple Regression



Each histogram shows the distribution of the corresponding parameter estimate.

Note that the number of decimal places shown in the horizontal axis is controlled by which histogram style file is selected. In this example, we selected Bootstrap2, which was created to provide two decimal places.

Example 3 – Checking the Parallel Slopes Assumption in Analysis of Covariance

An example of how to test the parallel slopes assumption is given in the General Linear Models chapter. Unfortunately, hand calculations and extensive data transformations are required to complete this test. This example will show you how to run this test without either transformations or hand calculations.

The ANCOVA dataset contains three variables: State, Age, and IQ. The researcher wants to test for IQ differences across the three states while controlling for each subjects age. An analysis of covariance should include a preliminary test of the assumption that the slopes between age and IQ are equal across the three states. Without parallel slopes, differences among mean state IQ's depend on age.

It turns out that a test for parallel slopes is a test for an Age by State interaction. All that needs to be done is to include this term in the model and the appropriate test will be generated.

You may follow along here by making the appropriate entries or load the completed template **Example 3** by clicking on Open Example Template from the File menu of the Multiple Regression window.

1 Open the ANCOVA dataset.

- From the File menu of the NCSS Data window, select **Open Example Data**.
- Click on the file **ANCOVA.NCSS**.
- Click **Open**.

2 Open the Multiple Regression window.

- Using the Analysis menu or the Procedure Navigator, find and select the **Multiple Regression** procedure.
- On the menus, select **File**, then **New Template**. This will fill the procedure with the default template.

3 Specify the variables.

- Select the **Variables** tab.
- Set the **Y** box to **IQ**.
- Set the **Numeric X's** box to **Age**.
- Set the **Categorical X's** box to **State**.

4 Specify the model.

- Under Regression Model, set the **Terms** box to **Interaction Model**. This will cause the State by Age interaction to be added to the model.

Multiple Regression

5 Specify the reports.

- Select the **Reports tab**.
- Click **Uncheck All**.
- Check **ANOVA Detail**.

6 Run the procedure.

- From the Run menu, select **Run Procedure**. Alternatively, just click the green Run button.

Analysis of Variance Detail Section

Source	DF	R ²	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Ratio	Prob Level	Power (5%)
Intercept	1		313345.20	313345.20			
Model	5	0.2438	80.16	16.03	1.547	0.2128	0.4472
Age	1	0.0296	9.74	9.74	0.940	0.3419	0.1537
State	2	0.1417	46.57	23.29	2.248	0.1274	0.4123
Age*State	2	0.1178	38.72	19.36	1.869	0.1761	0.3500
Error	24	0.7562	248.64	10.36			
Total(Adjusted)	29	1.0000	328.80	11.34			

The F-Value for the Age*State interaction term is 1.869. This matches the result that was obtained by hand calculations in the General Linear Model example. Since the probability level of 0.1761 is not significant, we cannot reject the assumption that the three slopes are equal.