Outline		

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# Exploratory Data Analysis and Modeling with R

# An Analysis of Access and Quality of Healthcare in India

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Data Visualization and Summaries

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# Outline

# Introduction

#### 2 Data Visualization and Summaries

- Exploring univariate data
- Exploring association between variables

#### **3** Fitting Linear Equations

- Formulation and Estimation
- Model Assumptions
- Statistical Inference



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# The Healthcare Sector

Goods and services to treat patients

Treatments: curative, preventive, rehablitative and palliative.

- Consists of Hospitals, Medical / Dental pratitioner and other activities: pathology labs, physiotherapy etc.
- Work force as per WHO<sup>1</sup>: 9.2 million physicians, 1.9 million dentists, 2.6 million pharmacists, 1.3 million community health workers.
- Delivery is usually face to face, but nowadays phone, text message, video etc.

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# The Healthcare Sector in India

- Expected to grow at CAGR of 17% during 2011-2020 to touch US\$ 280 billion.
- Drivers for demand: Rising income levels, ageing population, growing health awareness and changing attitude towards preventive healthcare.
- The private sector's share in healthcare delivery is expected to increase from 66 per cent in 2005 to 81 per cent by 2015
   ....accounts for almost 72 per cent of the country's total healthcare expenditure.

Ref: http://www.ibef.org/industry/healthcare-india.aspx

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# Analytics Broadly

- Data Management: Collect clean and timely data.
- Data Mining and Modeling: Understand data, decipher patterns and associations.
- Drive decision making and practice.

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# Healthcare Analytics

#### **Real Time Analytics:**

Analyze clinical information at the point of care and support health providers as they make prescriptive decisions. Use of patient data to generate case-specific advice.

#### **Batch Analytics:**

Retrospectively evaluate population data (i.e. records of patients in a large medical system, or claims data from an insured population) and supplement disease management or population health management efforts.

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# Learning Objectives

We will learn some useful statistical techniques by using the R software to analyze a real dataset on the Indian health care system.

We obtain data from https://data.gov.in

- 2 We will learn some useful data visualizations.
- **3** We will learn some basic statistical summaries and interpretations.
- 4 We will learn how to model associations among variables.

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# Data Analysis Background

The Government of India's National Health Assurance Mission aims to provide all citizens with free drugs and diagnostic treatment, as well as insurance cover to treat serious ailments, by 2020.

While one aspect about the mission will be to provide easy access, the other aspect must be that of quality care.

We wish to analyze the current state of the Indian health system with respect to these aspects.

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# Our objective

We want to carry out an exploratory analysis to understand some inter-relationship that exist between Quality, Access and Utilization of health care. Our interest is in the following questions...

- Is extent of access to healthcare related at all to quality of health ?
- How does Utilization of the facilities plan in ?
- Is it just access or does it matter what kind of facility one has access to ?

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Can we establish an equation relating these variables?

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# Data

We compiled data from the District Level Household and Facility Survey (DLHS) from the data portal of Government of India.

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- Row identificaton is by name of **State** and **District**.
- Variables indicating **Quality**.
- Variables indicating Access to healthcare.
- Variables indicating **Type of Access** to healthcare.
- Variables indicating **Utilization** of healthcare.

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# A Remark on Survey Data

### Survey Sampling versus Census

Data obtained from this sample survey is collected from a randomly chosen set of households from various districts. Random sampling is a way to ensure that such a chosen set is representative of the entire population of the country. The number of individuals surveyed is planned with the intention of keeping sampling errors within acceptable limits.

While a Census covers entire population, it is not always fasible to conduct under the given time or monetary resource constraints. Even if conducted, difficult to ensure desirable accuracy of collected data. Inaccuracy and cinonsistency of data collection lead to "Non-Sampling Errors" which when aggregated over a large population can give a completely wrong picture of the population.

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# R set up

## Install Libraries

```
#install.packages(dependencies=TRUE, "colorspace")
#install.packages(dependencies=TRUE, "ggplot2")
#install.packages(dependencies=TRUE, "reshape2")
#install.packages(dependencies=TRUE, "gridExtra")
#install.packages(dependencies=TRUE, "data.table")
require(colorspace)
## Warning: package 'colorspace' was built under R version 3.3.3
require(ggplot2)
## Warning: package 'ggplot2' was built under R version 3.3.3
require(reshape2)
## Warning: package 'reshape2' was built under R version 3.3.3
require(data.table)
## Warning: package 'data.table' was built under R version 3.3.1
require(gridExtra)
```

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# Import Data

Set Working Directory

setwd('C:/Users/pc1/Google Drive/EPAPB/RSessions')

Import State Level Data

# Data at State Level
QUAP\_state1<- read.csv("QUAP\_state1.csv")[,-1]</pre>

Import District Level Data

```
# Data at District Level
QUAP_dist1<- read.csv("QUAP_dist1.csv")[,-1]</pre>
```

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# What's in the data ? (ctd..)

Rows are identified by State and District

```
colnames(QUAP_dist1)[1:2]
```

## [1] "state" "district"

Variables (i.e. Columns) indicating Quality of healthcare

```
colnames(QUAP_dist1)[3:8]
## [1] "Q_prevalence_RespDisease" "Q_prevalence_cardiovascDisease"
## [3] "Q_prevalence_TB" "Q_prevalence_AnyInjury"
## [5] "Q_prevalence_AcuteIllness" "Q_prevalence_ChronicIllness"
```

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# What's in the data ? (ctd..)

Variables indicating Access to healthcare

```
colnames(QUAP_dist1)[18:20]
## [1] "A_accesstoSC3km" "A_accessPHC10km"
## [3] "A_facilitiesper10000pop"
```

Variables (i.e. Columns) indicating Type of Access to healthcare

```
colnames(QUAP_dist1)[12:17]
## [1] "TA_SCinGovBuild" "TA_LadyMedOfficer" "TA_PHC4beds"
## [4] "TA_Func24hrs" "TA_newborncare" "TA_operationTh"
```

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# What's in the data? (ctd..)

Variables indicating Utlization of healthcare

```
colnames(QUAP_dist1)[9:11]
## [1] "U_Anenatalcare" "U_pregnancycomplication"
## [3] "U_postdeliverycomplication"
```

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# Exploring univariate data Analysis of Quality

There are many variables in the data indirectly representing quality of health. For our purpose we will consider the following indicator:

Quality= "100 minus percentage of people with chronic illness in the region".

In other words, Quality is the "Non-prevalence" rate of chronic illness.

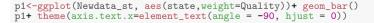
State level Data

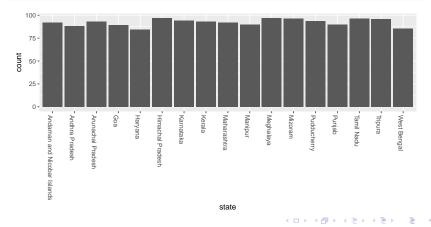
#### District Level Data

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Exploring univariate data Bar Chart



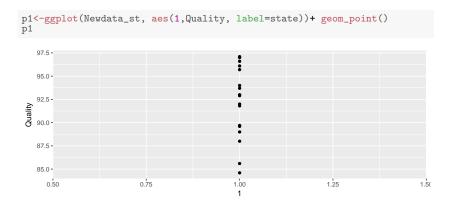


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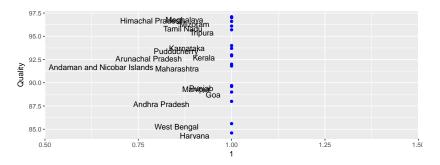
## Exploring univariate data Dot Plot for Quality



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## Exploring univariate data Dot Plot for Quality with Labels

p1<-ggplot(Newdata\_st, aes(1,Quality, label=state))+ geom\_point(color="blue")
p1+geom\_text(size=4, hjust=1.75, vjust=1)</pre>



Good : Meghalaya, Himachal Pradesh, Mizoram

Bad : West Bengal, Haryana

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## Exploring univariate data Mean

# Mean $(\bar{x})$

For data points  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ 

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \ldots + x_n}{n}$$

This is a measure of "Central tendency".

```
mm<-mean(Newdata_st$Quality)
```

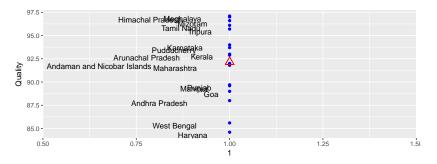
mm

## [1] 92.14118

Mean Quality across states, i.e. Average non-prevalence of chronic illness (in %) is 92.14

Data Visualization and Summaries

# Exploring univariate data Dot Plot + Mean



Avg Quality: Kerala, Maharashtra, Arunachal, Andaman & Nicobar. 🛶 🖕 🖕 😑

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## Exploring univariate data Standard Deviation

Clearly, the average value does not speak to all states. There is much variability in quality across states.

### Standard Deviation (sd)

For data points  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ 

$$sd = s_x = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \{(x_1 - mean)^2 + (x_2 - mean)^2 + \ldots + (x_n - mean)^2\}}$$

This is a measure of "Dispersion" or "Spread".

```
ssd<-sd(Newdata_st$Quality)
ssd
## [1] 3.895841</pre>
```

SD of Quality in our data across states (in %) is 3.9

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# Exploring univariate data Quantiles and Inter Quartile Range

e.g. 75th Quantile = Value below which 75% of the observations lie.

Quantiles (also Percentiles) and IQR
In general, for $0$
$Q_{100p}$ = value below which there are 100 $p$ observations.
$Q_{50}$ = Median, i.e. Half of the value are below this number.
$Q_{25}$ is called First Quartile
$Q_{75}$ is called Third Quartile
Inter Quartile Range $= Q_{75} - Q_{25}$

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## Exploring univariate data Quantile summary from data

summary(Newdata\_st\$Quality)

##	Min.	1st Qu.	Median	Mean	3rd Qu.	Max.
##	84.60	89.60	92.90	92.14	95.70	97.10

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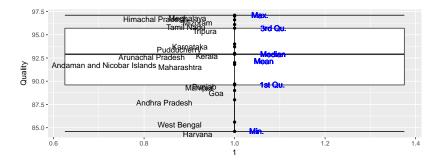
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# Box and Whiskers Plot

Pictorically the Quantile Summary can be shown using a Box Plot

```
p1<-ggplot(Newdata_st, aes(1,Quality, label=state))+
  geom_boxplot() +stat_boxplot(geom='errorbar')
p1<-p1+geom_point()+geom_text(size=4, hjust=1.75, vjust=1)</pre>
```



#### Whiskers

 $Q_{25} - 1.5 \times IQR, Q_{75} + 1.5 \times IQR.$ 

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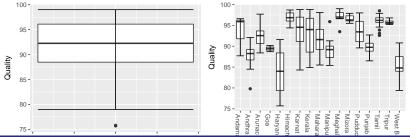
## Exploring univariate data Box Plot within states

So far, we looked at state level aggregate data. More insight on variation can be obtained by looking at district level data.

```
p1<-ggplot(Newdata_dt, aes(substr(state,1,6),Quality))+
  geom_boxplot()+stat_boxplot(geom='errorbar')
p1<-p1+theme(axis.text.x=
      element_text(angle = -90, hjust = 0))</pre>
```

```
p2<-ggplot(Newdata_dt, aes(1,Quality))+
geom_boxplot()+stat_boxplot(geom='errorbar')</pre>
```

```
grid.arrange(p2,p1, ncol=2)
```



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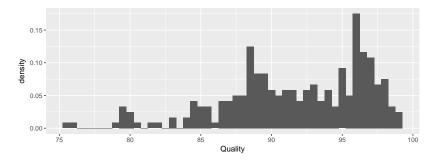
## Exploring univariate data Observations from Box plots

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Exploring univar	iate data		
Histogr	am		

Histogram is a (relative) frequency distribution of the data. Higher bars means data in that range occurs more frequently.

```
p1<-ggplot(Newdata_dt, aes(Quality))
p1<-p1+ geom_histogram(aes(y=..density..), binwidth=.5)
p1</pre>
```



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## Exploring univariate data Some observations from histogram

# Bimodal

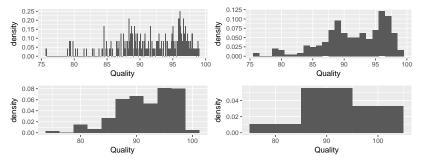
Districts are likely to be around 87% or around 97% non-prevalence rate.

Distribution is Skewed

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## Exploring univariate data Histogram (different bin widths)

Histogram depends on choice of bin width. We don't want the bin to be too large or too small.



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## Exploring univariate data Freedman-Diaconis Bandwidth

Freedman and Diacons proposed optimal bandwidth for the a histogram for data X

$$bw = \frac{2(Q_3 - Q_1)}{(length(X))^{\frac{1}{3}}}$$

```
x<-Newdata_dt$Quality
bw <- (2 * IQR(x) / length(x)^(1/3))
popt<-ggplot(Newdata_dt, aes(Quality))
popt<-popt+ geom_histogram(aes(y=..density..), binwidth=bw)</pre>
```

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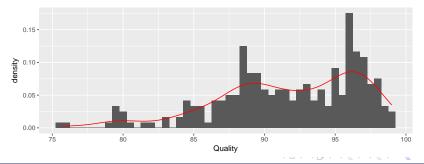
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## Exploring univariate data Kernel Density

## Kernel Density Estimate

Smooth version of a histogram. It can help remove some of the noise in the regular histogram and decipher prominent modes in the data.

```
p1<-ggplot(Newdata_dt, aes(Quality))
p1<-p1+ geom_histogram(aes(y=..density..), binwidth=.5)
p1+stat_density(kernel="gaussian", geom="line", color="red")</pre>
```



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Exploring association between variables Data Variables

For our discussion, we will explore relationships between Quality, Access, Type of Access and Utlization of healthcare, by defining the variables as:

- Quailty = 100-% reporting chronic illness
- Utilization= % using antenatal care
- Access = % facilities per 10000 population
- Type Access=% health care centers open 24 hours

```
Newdata_dt$Utilization=QUAP_dist1$U_postdeliverycomplication
Newdata_dt$Access=QUAP_dist1$A_facilitiesper10000pop
Newdata_dt$Type_Access=QUAP_dist1$TA_Func24hrs
```

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V\_Q<-Newdata\_dt\$Quality\*1

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## Exploring association between variables Summary of the variables

V_U<-Newdata_dt\$Utilization*1 V_A<-Newdata_dt\$Access*1 V_TA<-Newdata_dt\$Type_Access*1 summary(cbind(V_Q, V_U, V_A, V_TA))									
<pre>## V_Q ## Min. :75.70 ## 1st Qu.:88.47 ## Median :92.25 ## Mean :91.64 ## 3rd Qu.:96.10</pre>		V_A Min. :0.6273 1st Qu.:1.2543 Median :1.4060 Mean :1.7353 3rd Qu.:1.8305	V_TA Min. :10.30 1st Qu.:33.55 Median :47.00 Mean :46.51 3rd Qu.:62.55						

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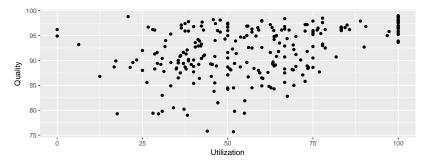
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Exploring association between variables Scatter Plot: Quality vs. Utilization





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#### Exploring association between variables Some observations on scatter plot

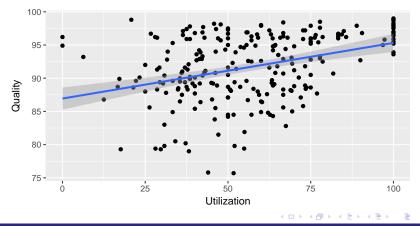
- As expected, Quality and Utilization seem to be positively related
- Variation across districts with higher Quality is lesser than variation in quality across districts with lower quality.

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#### Exploring association between variables

Scatter Plot: Quality vs. Utilization + Line

```
p2<- ggplot(Newdata_dt, aes(y=Quality, x=Utilization))
p2+geom_point()+geom_smooth(method="lm")</pre>
```



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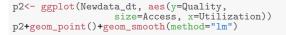
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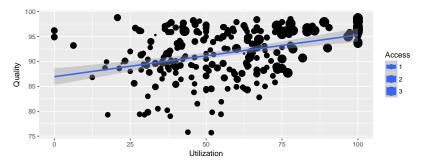
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#### Exploring association between variables

Scatter Plot: Quality vs. Utilization (size=Access)





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Exploring association between variables Some observations

- Higher Quality seems to be associated with Better Access
- More number of smaller sized dots below the line than above.

Some lower quality points at high utilization may be attributable to lower Access levels.

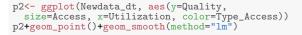
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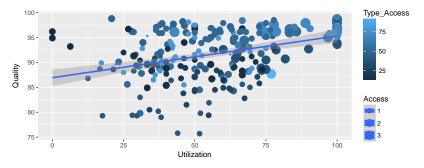
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#### Exploring association between variables

Scatter Plot: Quality vs. Utilization (size=Access, color=Type of Access)





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Exploring association between variables Some observations

 Larger number of light colored smaller dots above the line versus below indicating that type of access matters even if access is limited.

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#### Exploring association between variables Measuring the strength of association

We want to establish a quantitative relationship between two given variables x and y.

#### Correlation

Measures the degree of linear association between two variables x and y.

It is a number between -1 and 1. For perfect positive linear relationship it is 1 and for a perfect negative linear relationship, it is -1. It is =0 if there is "no linear relationship"

$$R = Correlation(y, x) = \frac{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2}} = \frac{s_{xy}}{s_x s_y}$$

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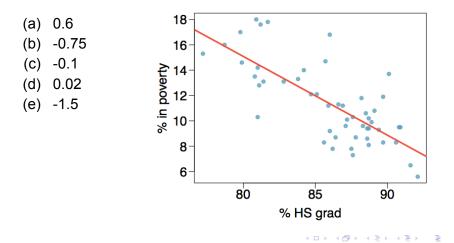
Exploring association between variables

Let us learn a bit about correlation.

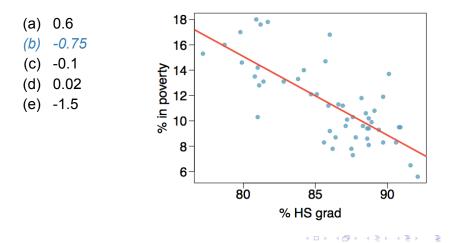
Next few slides are borrowed from www.openintro.org, which is a free and useful online resource for learning statistics.

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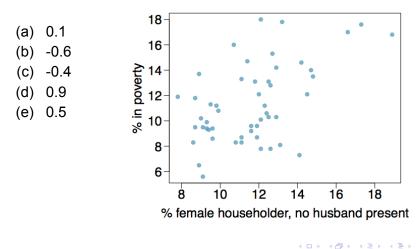
Which of the following is the best guess for the correlation between percent in poverty and percent HS grad?



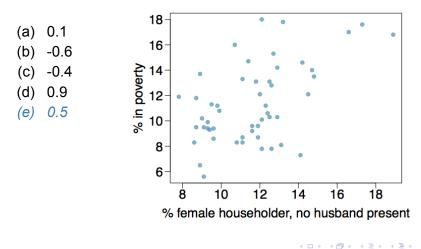
Which of the following is the best guess for the correlation between percent in poverty and percent HS grad?



Which of the following is the best guess for the correlation between percent in poverty and percent female householder?



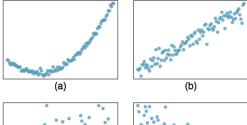
Which of the following is the best guess for the correlation between percent in poverty and percent female householder?



# Assessing the correlation

Which of the following is has the strongest correlation, i.e. correlation coefficient closest to +1 or -1?

(b)  $\rightarrow$  correlation means <u>linear</u> association





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Exploring association between variables

End of general introduction to correlation.

Last few slides were borrowed from www.openintro.org, which is a free and useful online resource for learning statistics.

Let us apply this on our data

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#### Exploring association between variables Correlation between variables in our data

```
V_Q<-Newdata_dt$Quality*1
V_U<-Newdata_dt$Utilization*1
V_A<-Newdata_dt$Type_Access*1
v_TA<-Newdata_dt$Type_Access*1
round(cor(cbind(V_Q, V_U, V_A, V_TA)),2)
## V_Q V_U V_A V_TA
## V_Q 1.00 0.36 0.34 0.30
## V_U 0.36 1.00 0.55 0.18
## V_A 0.34 0.55 1.00 0.07
## V_TA 0.30 0.18 0.07 1.00</pre>
```

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Exploring association between variables Some observations

- Quality has similar correlation with Access, Utilization and Type of access
- None of Access, Type of Access and Utilization are perfectly correlated with each other. Given th eprevious observation, this means they will complement each other in explaining quality.
- Access and Utilization have a slightly higher correlation.

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Exploring association between variables

We now want to derive a relationship by considering all these variables together..

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#### Formulation and Estimation Simple Linear Regresssion

Here, the objective is to build a linear relationship between

(i) "dependent variable" Y (also called Response)

and

(ii) "independent variable" X (also called explanatory variable or predictor).

#### Model Formulation

The model formulation is as follows:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + Error$$

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#### Formulation and Estimation Model Estimation Approach

#### Method of Least Squares

Obtain data on  $Y : y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n$ 

Obtain data on  $X : x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ 

Estimate  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  by minimizing error sum of squares

Error Sum of Squares 
$$= \min_{b_0, b_1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i)^2$$

Estimate of  $\beta_0 = b_0$ Estimate of  $\beta_1 = b_1$ 

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Let us further understand concepts of simple linear regression

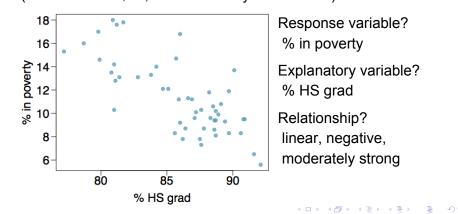
Next few slides are borrowed from www.openintro.org, which is a free and useful online resource for learning statistics.

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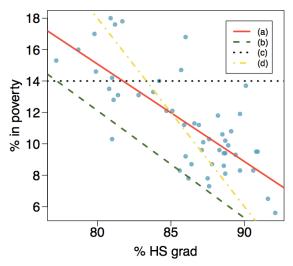
# Poverty vs. HS graduate rate

The scatterplot below shows the relationship between HS graduate rate in all 50 US states and DC and the percent of residents who live below the poverty line (income below \$23,050 for a family of 4 in 2012).



# **Eyeballing the line**

Which of the following appears to be the line that best fits the linear relationship between percent in poverty and percent HS grad? Choose one.

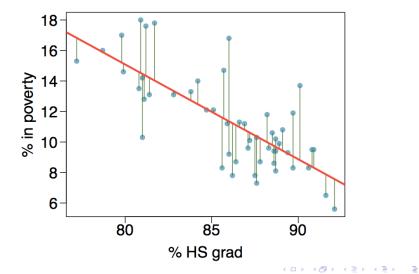


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(a)

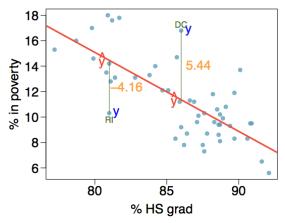
### Residuals

Residuals are the leftovers from the model fit: Data = Fit + Residual



# **Residuals (cont.)**

Residual is the difference between the observed  $(y_i)$  and predicted  $\hat{y}_i$ .  $e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$ 



Percent living in poverty in DC is 5.44% more than predicted.

Percent living in poverty in RI is 4.16% less than predicted.

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# A measure for the best line

#### We want a line that has small residuals

Option 1: Minimize the sum of magnitudes (absolute values) of residuals

 $|e_1| + |e_2| + \dots + |e_n|$ 

Option 2: Minimize the sum of squared residuals -- least squares  $e_1^2 + e_2^2 + ... + e_n^2$ 

#### Why least squares?

- Most commonly used
- Easier to compute by hand and using software
- In many applications, a residual twice as large as another is usually more than twice as bad

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# The least squares line $\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ predicted y slope explanatory variable

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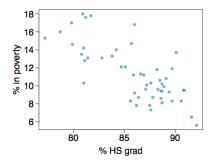
### **Intercept Notation**

- Parameter: β<sub>0</sub>
- Point estimate: b<sub>0</sub>

### **Slope Notation**

- Parameter: β<sub>1</sub>
- Point estimate: b<sub>1</sub>





	% HS grad	% in poverty
	<i>(x)</i>	(y)
mean	$\bar{x} = 86.01$	$\bar{y} = 11.35$
sd	$s_x = 3.73$	$s_y = 3.1$
	correlation	R = -0.75

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### Slope

The slope of the regression can be calculated as

$$b_1 = \frac{s_y}{s_x} R$$

In context...

$$b_1 = \frac{3.1}{3.73} \times -0.75 = -0.62$$

#### Interpretation

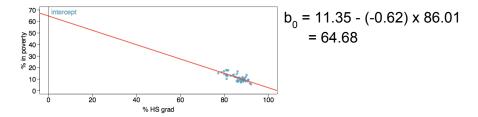
For each additional % point in HS graduate rate, we would expect the % living in poverty to be lower on average by 0.62% points.

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### Intercept

The intercept is where the regression line intersects the yaxis. The calculation of the intercept uses the fact the a regression line always passes through  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ .

$$\mathbf{b}_0 = \bar{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{b}_1 \, \bar{\mathbf{x}}$$



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# Which of the following is the correct interpretation of the intercept?

- (a) For each % point increase in HS graduate rate, % living in poverty is expected to increase on average by 64.68%.
- (b) For each % point decrease in HS graduate rate, % living in poverty is expected to increase on average by 64.68%.
- (c) Having no HS graduates leads to 64.68% of residents living below the poverty line.
- (d) States with no HS graduates are expected on average to have 64.68% of residents living below the poverty line.

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(e) In states with no HS graduates % living in poverty is expected to increase on average by 64.68%.

# Which of the following is the correct interpretation of the intercept?

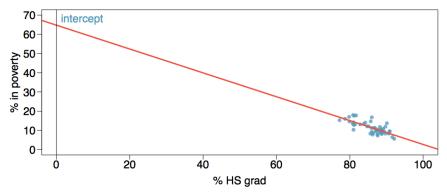
- (a) For each % point increase in HS graduate rate, % living in poverty is expected to increase on average by 64.68%.
- (b) For each % point decrease in HS graduate rate, % living in poverty is expected to increase on average by 64.68%.
- (c) Having no HS graduates leads to 64.68% of residents living below the poverty line.
- (d) States with no HS graduates are expected on average to have 64.68% of residents living below the poverty line.

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(e) In states with no HS graduates % living in poverty is expected to increase on average by 64.68%.

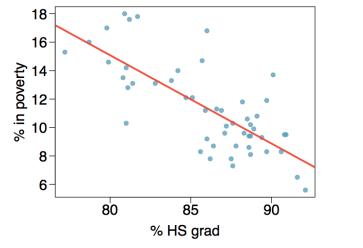
### More on the intercept

Since there are no states in the dataset with no HS graduates, the intercept is of no interest, not very useful, and also not reliable since the predicted value of the intercept is so far from the bulk of the data.



# **Regression line**

$$\% in poverty = 64.68 - 0.62 \% HS grad$$



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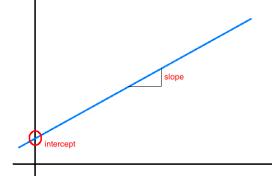
# Interpretation of slope and intercept

### Slope

For each unit in x, y is expected to increase / decrease on average by the slope.

#### Intercept

When x = 0, y is expected to equal the intercept.



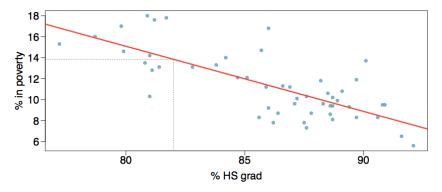
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Note: These statements are not causal, unless the study is a randomized controlled experiment.

# **Prediction**

Using the linear model to predict the value of the response variable for a given value of the explanatory variable is called prediction, simply by plugging in the value of x in the linear model equation.

There will be some uncertainty associated with the predicted value.



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#### Formulation and Estimation

End of general introduction to Estimation in Simple Linear Regression

Last few slides were borrowed from www.openintro.org, which is a free and useful online resource for learning statistics.

Let us apply this on our problem

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#### Formulation and Estimation Model Formulation and Estimation in our problem

We will try to model with

Response=Quality Explanatory variable = Utilization

Model Formulation

Quality =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1$  Utilization + error

```
mod<-lm(Quality Utilization , data=Newdata_dt)
mod
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = Quality ~ Utilization, data = Newdata_dt)
##
## Coefficients:
## (Intercept) Utilization
## 86.9396 0.0838</pre>
```

#### Estimated Model

Quality =86.93+ .0838 Utilization.

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Introduction

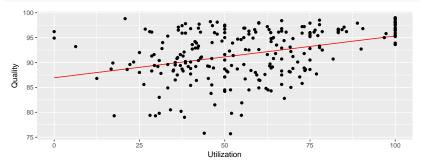
Data Visualization and Summaries

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#### Formulation and Estimation Fitted versus Actual

```
mod<-lm(Quality" Utilization , data=Newdata_dt)
p1<-ggplot(mod, aes(x= Utilization , y=.fitted) )
p1<-p1+geom_line(color="red")
p1<-p1+geom_point(aes(x=Utilization, y=Quality))
p1+ylab("Quality")</pre>
```



#### #%+% fortify(mod, Newdata\_dt)

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- Slope= ? and interpretation = ?
- Intercept= ? and interpretation= ?

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■ What is the expected quality level at a utilization of 75%?

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Is the following statement True or False ? Why?

"When utilization is 100% quality is 95%."

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Is the following statement True or False ? Why?

"When utilization is 100% quality is 95%."

Take Away : The Model is for predicting "Expected (or Mean) Quality" at a given level of utilization. The actual quality for any district can still be different from the Expected value!

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Model Assumption	ons		

So far, we have done a mechanical estimation of the simple linear regression model.

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- We will now delve more into the statistical side of the model.
- It's usefulness is dependent on key statistical assumptions.
- We will next try to understand these assumptions.

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Model Assumptio	ins		

Let us understand the assumptions in linear regression.

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### **Conditions for the least squares line**

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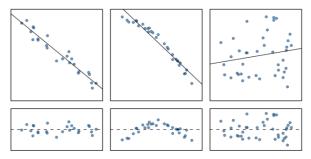
- 1. Linearity
- 2. Nearly normal residuals
- 3. Constant variability

# **Conditions: (1) Linearity**

The relationship between the explanatory and the response variable should be linear.

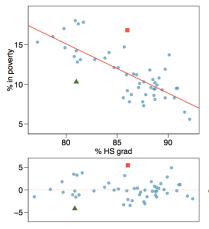
Methods for fitting a model to non-linear relationships exist, but are beyond the scope of this class. If this topic is of interest, an <u>Online</u> <u>Extra is available on openintro.org</u> covering new techniques.

Check using a scatterplot of the data, or a residuals plot.



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### Anatomy of a residuals plot



**A** *RI*:

% HS grad = 81 % in poverty = 10.3 % in poverty = 64.68 - 0.62 \* 81 = 14.46e = % in poverty - % in poverty = 10.3 - 14.46 = -4.16

DC:

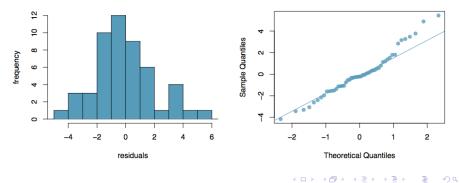
% HS grad = 86 % in poverty = 16.8 % in poverty = 64.68 - 0.62 \* 86 = 11.36 e = % in poverty - % in poverty = 16.8 - 11.36 = 5.44

# Conditions: (2) Nearly normal residuals

The residuals should be nearly normal.

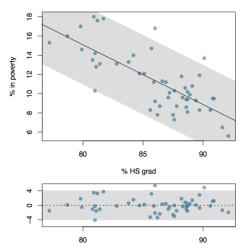
This condition may not be satisfied when there are unusual observations that don't follow the trend of the rest of the data.

Check using a histogram or normal probability plot of residuals.





### **Conditions: (3) Constant variability**



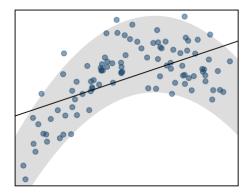
The variability of points around the least squares line should be roughly constant.

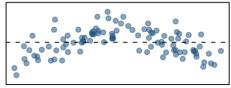
This implies that the variability of residuals around the 0 line should be roughly constant as well.

Also called homoscedasticity.

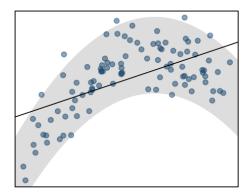
Check using a histogram or normal probability plot of residuals.

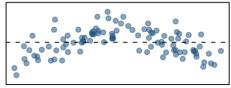
- (a) Constant variability
- (b) Linear relationship
- (c) Normal residuals
- (d) No extreme outliers



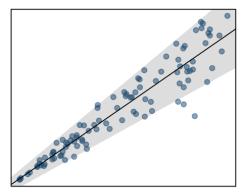


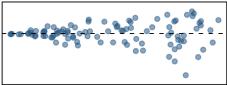
- (a) Constant variability
- (b) Linear relationship
- (c) Normal residuals
- (d) No extreme outliers



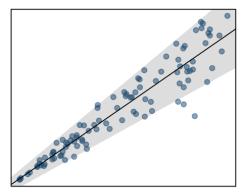


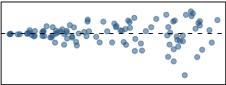
- (a) Constant variability
- (b) Linear relationship
- (c) Normal residuals
- (d) No extreme outliers





- (a) Constant variability
- (b) Linear relationship
- (c) Normal residuals
- (d) No extreme outliers





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Model Assumption	ns		

End of general discussion on assumptions in linear regression.

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Model Assumptions Scatter plot ntroduction

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#### Fitting Linear Equations

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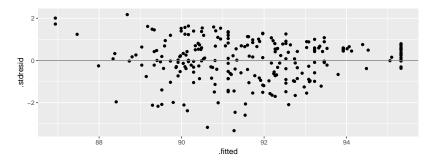
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#### Model Assumptions Residual Plot for our problem

```
mod<-lm(Quality~ Utilization , data=Newdata_dt)
p1<-ggplot(mod, aes(x= .fitted , y=.stdresid) )
p1<-p1+geom_point()
p1+geom_hline(yintercept=0, color="grey50", size=0.5)</pre>
```



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#### Model Assumptions Interpretations

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- Do the points look randomly scattered around zero ?
- Do you see a patteren ?
- Is linearity assumption violated?
- Is constancy of variance assumption violated ?

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#### Model Assumptions Remark on standardized residuals

A technical point is that the residuals used for this analysis need to be standardized. The reason being that purely by the statistical property, the estimated residuals have non-constant variance. To look for non-constancy in variance purely due to model inadequacy, it is better to look at standardized resuals, i.e. residuals normalized by diving standard deviation.

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#### Model Assumptions How to handle violation of assumptions?

Typically,

- nonlinear relationship is handled by transforming x. e.g.  $\log(x)$ ,  $x^2$ ,  $\sqrt{x}$  etc.
- non-constant variances is handled by transforming y, e.g.  $\log(y)$ ,  $y^2$ ,  $\sqrt{y}$  etc.
- A general class of tranformations is the Box Cox tranformation

$$y_{\lambda} = rac{y^{\lambda}-1}{\lambda}, \ \lambda 
eq 0.$$

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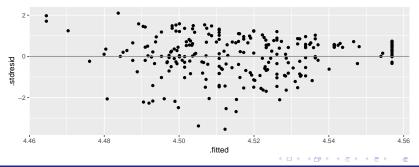
Data Visualization and Summaries

#### Model Assumptions Residual Plot for our problem

Let us try to reformulate our model

 $log(Quality) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times Utilization + Error.$ 

```
mod<-lm(log(Quality)~ Utilization, data=Newdata_dt)
p1<-ggplot(mod, aes(x= .fitted , y=.stdresid) )
p1<-p1+geom_point()
p1+geom_hline(yintercept=0, color="grey50", size=0.5)</pre>
```



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#### Model Assumptions Checking Normality of Residuals

- Check Histogram: Does it resemble the normal distribution ?
- Check QQ plot : A Plot of Quantiles from normal distribution with quantiles of the (standardized) residuals.

....A straight line indicates proximity to normal distribution.

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```
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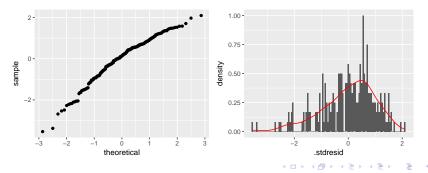
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Data Visualization and Summaries

#### Model Assumptions

### Histogram and QQ Plot Residuals

```
mod<-lm(log(Quality)~ Utilization, data=Newdata_dt)
p1<-ggplot(mod, aes(sample=.stdresid) )
p2<-p1+stat_qq()
p3<-ggplot(mod, aes(.stdresid))
p3<-p3+geom_histogram(aes(y=..density..), binwidth=.05)
p3<-p3+stat_density(kernel="gaussian", geom="line", color="red")
grid.arrange(p2,p3, ncol=2)</pre>
```



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#### Model Assumptions Some remarks

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- The validity of assumptions are important to draw inferences on the model.
- Model building involves much back and forth analysis involving different transformations, variable formulations etc.

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#### Statistical Inference Standard Deviations of Estimates

- The data we used is from a survey. It is not the entire population.
- But the model we are building is to understand or infer the population.
- For this, we have built the model by using a representative sample from the population.
- Understandably the  $b_0$  and  $b_1$  will not be exactly equal to the true parameters  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  that corresponds to the entire population.
- There is uncertainty around  $b_0$  and  $b_1$  in inferring about  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$
- This uncertainty is measured by standard deviations for  $b_0$  and  $b_1$ .

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### Standard Deviations of Intercept and Slope

```
mod<-lm(log(Quality)~ Utilization, data=Newdata_dt)
summary(mod)$coefficients[,1:2]</pre>
```

## Estimate Std. Error
## (Intercept) 4.4645383245 0.0094480539
## Utilization 0.0009233351 0.0001572969

#### Question:

Can we conclude here that the effect of utilization (slope) is close to 0 ?

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Statistical Inference The t-test			

- The answer to the question depends on how certain we are about our estimate.
- If the sd is very large, then the true value of  $\beta_1$  can very well be 0.
- If sd is very small, then it indicates that the effect is positive.
- How small is small ?

#### t Statistic

It is the standardized value of the parameter

$$t=\frac{b_1}{sd(b_1)}$$

If the regression model assumptions hold, then t is approximately distributed as standard normal for large sample sizes.

If the absolute value of t is large, we conclude the parameter is significantly different from 0. One thumb rule for large enough is t > 2 or t < -2. Equivalently one can look at p - value > .05.

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#### Statistical Inference Checking for statistical significance in our model

```
mod<-lm(Quality<sup>~</sup> Utilization, data=Newdata_dt)
summary(mod)$coefficients
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 86.93960843 0.84387657 103.024081 2.019053e-199
## Utilization 0.08380296 0.01404936 5.964894 8.798294e-09
```

We can conclude that the effect of utilization is significantly different from 0 and positive.

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### Statistical Inference Coefficient of Determination $R^2$

#### $R^2$

The percentage of variance in the response that is explained by the model.

Errors : 
$$e_1 = y_1 - b_0 - b_1 x_1$$
,  $e_2 = y_2 - b_0 - b_1 x_2$ , ...,  $e_n = y_n - b_0 - b_1 x_n$ .

Error Sum of Squares (ESS)=  $e_1^2 + e_2^2 + \ldots + e_n^2$ 

Total Sum of Squares (TSS)=  $(y_1 - \bar{y})^2 + (y_2 - \bar{y})^2 + \ldots + (y_n - \bar{y})^2$ .

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{ESS}{TSS}.$$

 $R^2$  being close to 1 is one indication of a good model. In our problem,  $R^2 = .13$ . Hence, model explains 13% of the variation seen in the data.

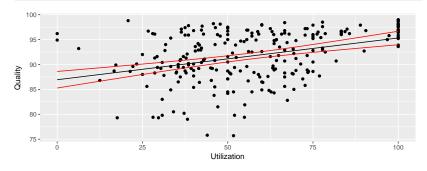
```
Rsq<- 1-var(mod$resid)/var(Newdata_dt$Quality)
Rsq
## [1] 0.1300532</pre>
```

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### Statistical Inference Confidence Interval

#### 95% Confidence Interval for predicted value

This is the interval indicating where the true average value of the response might lie for a given value of the explanatory variable. The 95% indicates the confidence level. If the same survey were to be repeated many times, 95% of the time we would capture the true value.



Interval is shorter for center value on the utilization axis and widens at the extremes

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#### Statistical Inference Confidence Interval (R code)

#### 95% Confidence Interval for predicted value

This is the interval indicating where the true average value of the response might lie for a given value of the explanatory variable. The 95% indicates the confidence level. If the same survey were to be repeated many times, 95% of the time we would capture the true value.

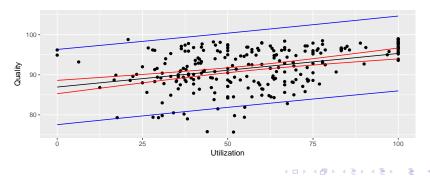
```
mod<-lm(Quality~ Utilization, data=Newdata_dt)
CI<-predict(mod, Newdata_dt, interval="confidence")
fitted<-predict(mod, Newdata_dt)
Newdata_dt1<-data.table(Newdata_dt, CI)
p1<-ggplot(Newdata_dt1, aes(x=Utilization, y=Quality))
p1<-p1+ geom_point()
p1<-p1+ geom_line(aes(y=fit))
p1<-p1+geom_line(aes(y=lwr), color="red")
p1<-p1+geom_line(aes(y=upr), color="red")
p1</pre>
```

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#### Statistical Inference Prediction Interval

#### 95% Prediction Interval for y at a given level of x

This is the uncertainty interval indicating where to expect a new data point to lie for a given value of the explanatory variable. The 95% indicates the degree of confidence. If the survey is repeated many times, we would expect 95% of the data at a given level of the explanatory variable, to lie within this interval.



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#### Statistical Inference Prediction Interval (R code)

```
mod<-lm(Quality~ Utilization, data=Newdata_dt)</pre>
CI<-predict(mod, Newdata_dt, interval="confidence")
PredI<-predict(mod, Newdata dt, interval="predict")
fitted <- predict (mod. Newdata dt)
Newdata dt1<-data.table(Newdata dt. CI)
p1<-ggplot(Newdata dt1, aes(x=Utilization, v=Quality))
p1<-p1+ geom point()
p1<-p1+ geom_line(aes(y=fit))
p1<-p1+geom line(aes(v=lwr), color="red")
p1<-p1+geom_line(aes(y=upr), color="red")
Newdata dt2<-data.table(Newdata dt, PredI)
                                               color="blue")
p1<-p1+geom_line(data=Newdata_dt2, aes(y=lwr),
p1<-p1+geom_line(data=Newdata_dt2, aes(y=upr),
                                               color="blue")
p1
```

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### Statistical Inference

Regression with multiple explanatory variables

### Formulation

 $Quality = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Utilization + \beta_2 Access + \beta_3 TypeAccess + Error$ 

mod<-lm(Quality~ Utilization+ Access + Type\_Access, data=Newdata\_dt)
summary(mod)</pre>

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```
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```

### Statistical Inference

## Regression with multiple explanatory variables

## Formulation

 $Quality = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Utilization + \beta_2 Access + \beta_3 TypeAccess + Error$ 

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = Quality ~ Utilization + Access + Type_Access, data = Newdata_dt
##
## Residuals:
##
        Min
               1Q Median 3Q
                                              Max
## -14.5585 -2.5890 0.1761 3.0349 9.3615
##
## Coefficients:
##
                 Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 83.98511 0.98566 85.207 < 2e-16 ***
## Utilization 0.04562 0.01625 2.806 0.00543 **
## Access 1.36103 0.43208 3.150 0.00184 **</pre>
## Type_Access 0.05877 0.01378 4.266 2.88e-05 ***
## ----
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 4.461 on 236 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.2203, Adjusted R-squared: 0.2104
## F-statistic: 22.23 on 3 and 236 DF, p-value: 1.036e-12
```

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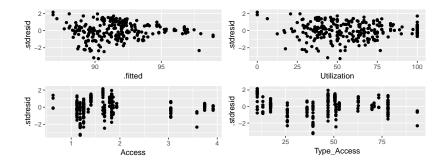
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### Statistical Inference

Regression with multiple explanatory variables - Residual Plots



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Statistical Inference

Regression with multiple explanatory variables - Residual Plots

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Statistical Inference

Regression with multiple explanatory variables - QQ Plot

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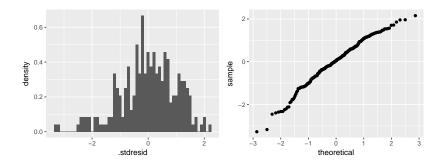
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### Statistical Inference

Regression with multiple explanatory variables - QQ Plot



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## Statistical Inference Improving fit with more variables

### One can introduce more variables

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## Variable Selection

Here, the objective is to choose the best subset of variables that optimizes some measure of goodness of the model.  $R^2$  is not a good measure because it always increases with more variables and does not penalize addition of too many variables. A common useful measure is 'Mallow's Cp'.

For a model with K variables,

$$\Sigma_p = \frac{ESS/(n-k)}{TSS/(n-1)} - n + 2K$$

Lower Cp value means better model.

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## Variable Selection

Cp values for the best model of different sizes

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## Statistical Inference Result based on Best model as per Cp

```
sub<-leaps(X,Y, method="Cp", nbest=1)
best_model_index<-which(sub$Cp==min(sub$Cp))
L<-which(sub$which[best_model_index,]==1)
X1<-X[,L]
mod<-lm(Y~X1[,-5])
summary(mod)</pre>
```

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In conclusion

# Fitting Linear Equations

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- Acess, Type of Access and Utilization seem to matter for Quality of Health.
- In our particular analysis, we could explain up to 50% of variation.
- More data on utilization could be beneficial. Currently available at state level from DLHS 3. Should be procurable at district level for DLHS 4.
- Model Validation is important. One idea is to see if the model stands test of time. e.g. DLHS 3 versus DLHS 4.

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Statistical Inference References			

- 1. Data: https://data.gov.in
- 2. Reference: www.openintro.org
- 3. Reference Book: Author-Hadley Wickham (2009), Title-"ggplot2, Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis", Publisher-Springer.

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## A Glimpse of Other Methods

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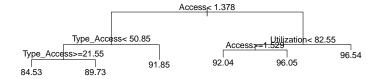
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#### **Fitting Linear Equations**

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## Statistical Inference Classification and Regression Trees



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### **Fitting Linear Equations**

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## Statistical Inference Classification and Regression Trees

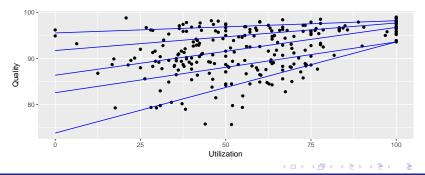
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Quantil	e Regression		

Earlier we modeled the "mean-Line". Instead, one could model quantiles.

e.g. Figure below shows the 10th, 25th, 50th (Median), 75th and 90th quantile lines.

## Warning: package 'quantreg' was built under R version 3.3.2
## Warning: package 'SparseM' was built under R version 3.3.2



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Statistical Informero			

Earlier we modeled the "mean-Line". Instead, one could model quantiles.

e.g. Figure below shows the 10th, 25th, 50th (Median), 75th and 90th quantile lines.

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Quantile Regression