

STAT 420: Methods of Applied Statistics

Model Diagnostics — Normality

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Course website: <https://sites.google.com/site/teazrq/teaching/STAT420>

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- We talked about how to fit linear models, and how to perform hypothesis testing problems.
- However, there are several key assumptions that we are relying on. It is important to check them when fitting a linear model.
- In the next few weeks, we will talk about checking those conditions.

- Normal i.i.d. errors
- Constant error variance
- Absence of influential cases
- Linear relationship between predictors and outcome variable
- Collinearity

- Throughout our previous derivations of the $\hat{\beta}$ distribution, and hypothesis testings, we assumed that the residuals were normally distributed

$$\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_{n \times n})$$

- What if the data do not satisfy this assumption?
- Severe violations of the normality assumption may cause the confidence intervals to be too narrow or too wide.
- We need approaches to testing this assumption. A first step is creating graphs to evaluate potential deviations from normality such as boxplots or histograms.

Normality of Residuals

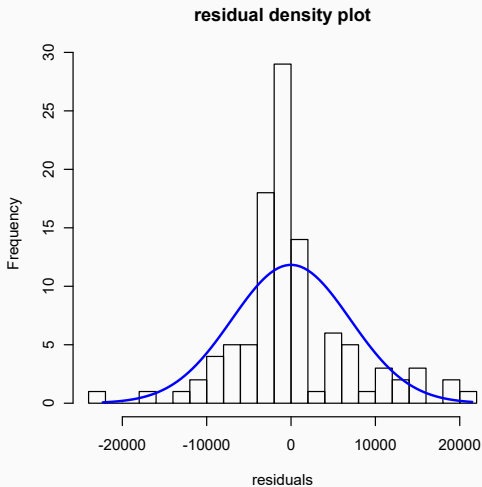
- Lets use the AT&T data (on our course website) as an example.
- A description of the data can be found at <https://ww2.amstat.org/publications/jse/datasets/aptness.txt>
- The aim is to model the number of work hours using the function points as a predictor.
- We fit a simple linear regression and investigate the residuals

Example: investigating residuals

```
1 ATT = read.table("ATT.txt", header = FALSE)
2 colnames(ATT) = c("FPC", "Work", "OS", "DMS", "Lang")
3 fit = lm(Work ~ FPC, data = ATT)
4 res = fit$residuals
5
6 # histogram and density plot
7
8 h = hist(res, main = "residual density plot", xlab = "residuals",
9         , breaks = 20)
9 xgrid <- seq(min(res), max(res), length=100)
10 yden <- dnorm(xgrid, mean=0, sd=7047)
11 yden <- yden*length(res)*diff(h$mids[1:2])
12 lines(xgrid, yden, col="blue", lwd=2)
```

Example: investigating residuals

Is the distribution of the residual normal?



- The residual distribution looks more peaked, and deviates quite a lot from the matched (with mean and sd) normal density.
- There are many approaches for testing normality of a variable
- QQ plot graph e_i against a quantile that assumes e_i is normally distributed.
- **Intuition:** If a certain cut-off value corresponds to the $q \times 100\%$ th percentile of the normal distribution, then we would expect approximately $q \times n$ number of residuals fall below that cut-off.

- Formally, we identify “theoretical values” of the residual at each percentile, and compare that with the correspond observed residual values at the same percentile.
- We first get the percentile $f(e_i)$ corresponding to each e_i :

$$f(e_i) = \frac{\mathbf{rank}(e_i) - 0.5}{n}$$

- Then we match this percentile to the standard normal distribution and get the “theoretical values”:

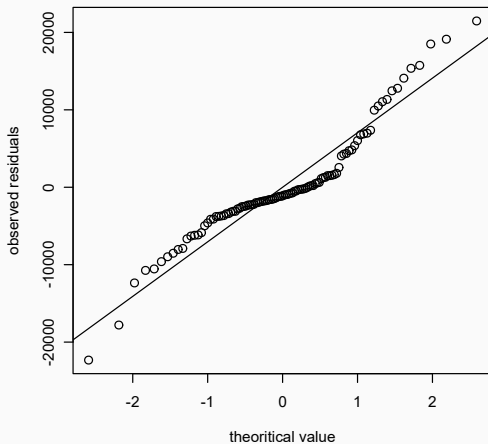
$$\Phi^{-1}(f(e_i))$$

where Φ is the cdf function of the standard normal.

- Plot $\Phi^{-1}(f(e_i))$ against the observed residual values e_i

QQ plot

$\Phi^{-1}(f(e_i))$ against the observed residual values e_i



- In the ideal case, i.e., when e_i 's actually come from a normal distribution, we would expect the dots to line up with the theoretical value
- Lets try a simulation study to see what is a “good looking” QQ plot
- In the previous plot, e_i deviates quite a lot from the theoretical line
- **Note:** how to generate the theoretical line is a bit tricky. There are different ways to do it, see our [R](#) code. The package [car](#) provides a nice function [qqPlot](#)
- Using graphs is nice and intuitive, but we should use more rigorous criteria

Test for normality

- We are going to introduce several tests.
 - Shapiro-Wilk
 - Kolmogorov-Smirnov
 - Anderson-Darling
 - Correlation test
- There is no “best” test theoretically, however, based on a 2011 paper by Razali and Wah, Shapiro-Wilk is the best test, while Anderson-Darling performs almost the same. Kolmogorov-Smirnov is more general, and can be applied to any distribution. Correlation test is conceptually simple.
- We will not derive these test statistics, but only focus on their intuitions.

Shapiro-Wilk test

- The test statistic for the normality of a set of samples $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is given by

$$W = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_{(i)}\right)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2},$$

where $x_{(i)}$ is the i -th order statistics, i.e., the i -th smallest number in the sample, and a_i 's are constants derived from the distribution of the order statistics.

- The Null hypothesis is $H_0 : x \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ vs. $H_1 : H_0$ is false.
- In [R](#), the test can be performed by `shapiro.test`

Shapiro-Wilk test

- Example: Use the Shapiro-Wilk test on the `gala` data.
- Do we reject the normality test?

A : Yes B : No C : Maybe?

- The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test compares the empirical distribution function F_n for a set of n samples $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ with its true distribution (normal), and calculate the largest discrepancy across the entire domain of x :

$$D = \sup_t |F_n(t) - F(t)|$$

where F is the cdf of a normal distribution.

- What is an empirical distribution?
- In [R](#), the test can be performed by [ks.test](#)

- The Anderson-Darling test, instead of looking at the maximum discrepancy, uses the integrated square discrepancies:

$$A = n \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{(F_n(x) - F(x))^2}{F(x)(1 - F(x))} dF(x)$$

where F is again the cdf of a normal distribution.

- In `R`, the test can be performed by `ad.test` in the `nortest` package

Correlation test

- **Intuition:** if the residuals perfectly line up with the theoretical value, we would expect a perfect correlation between the theoretical value and the observed values.
- In this test, Looney & Gulledge (1985) propose to use the theoretical value

$$z_i = \Phi^{-1} \left(\frac{\mathbf{rank}(e_i) - 0.375}{n + 0.25} \right)$$

where Φ is the cdf function of the standard normal. Note that the constants used here are not the ones we used in the QQ plot.

- Hence we are testing whether the values z_i 's and the values e_i 's have a perfect correlation or not.

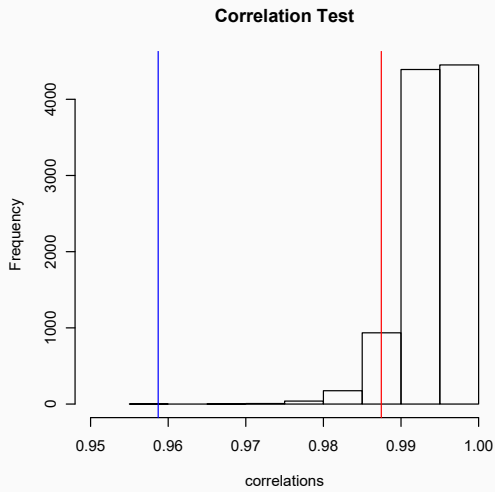
$$H_0 : \text{Corr}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e}) = 1 \quad \text{vs.} \quad H_1 : \text{Corr}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e}) < 1$$

- Let's first estimate the correlation, and use a simulation study to approximate the p -value

```
1 > lg.test <- function(x) {  
2 +   z <- qnorm((rank(x) - 0.375)/(length(x) + 0.25))  
3 +   c(cor(x, z), length(x))  
4 + }  
5 >  
6 > lg.test(res)  
7 [1] 0.9587105 104.0000000
```

Correlation test

```
1 > scores = rep(NA, 10000)
2 >
3 > for (i in 1:10000)
4 + {
5 +   x = rnorm(length(res))
6 +   scores[i] = lg.test(x)[1]
7 + }
8 >
9 > lgcrit = quantile(scores, prob = 0.05)
10 > hist(scores, xlim = c(0.95, 1))
11 > abline(v = lgcrit, col = "red")
12 > abline(v = lg.test(res)[1], col = "blue")
```



Solutions for Non-normal Residuals

- Use bootstrap resampling to perform inferences
- Use a rank transformation of the original data and use the approach proposed by

Conover, W.J. & Iman, R.L. (1981). Rank Transformations as a Bridge Between Parametric and Nonparametric Statistics. *The American Statistician*, 35, 124-129.

- Model the data with a different non-normal distribution
- Employ other nonparametric regression techniques