

STAT 420: Methods of Applied Statistics

Model Diagnostics — Transformation

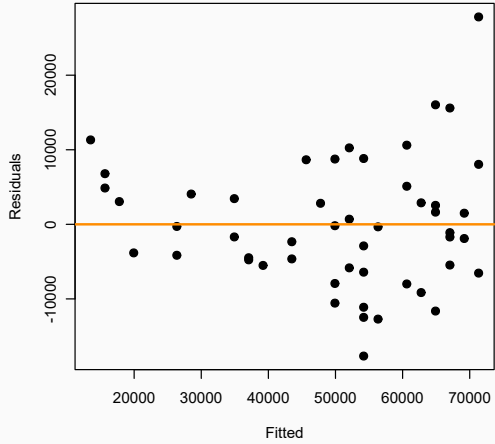
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Course website: <https://sites.google.com/site/teazrq/teaching/STAT420>

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- We discussed three model diagnostics: Normality, Constant variance and Outliers.
- In the next stage, we will discuss
 - Linear relationship between predictors and dependent variables
 - Highly correlated predictors

- Recall that when we used the BP test or the white test, the purpose was to test whether the variance are constant.
- In many real data examples, the variance increases (or decreases) as the fitted value changes.
- Load the [initech](#) data and fit linear regression



Variance stabilizing transformations

- The constant variance reassumption requires that

$$\text{Var}[Y|X = x] = \sigma^2$$

regardless of the value of x .

- However, in the [initech](#) data, we see that the variance is a function of the mean

$$\text{Var}[Y|X = x] = h(\mu)$$

- It looks like h is some increasing function here. In order to correct for this, we would like to find some function of Y , namely $g(Y)$, such that

$$\text{Var}[g(Y)|X = x] = c$$

- Usually when the outcome y are all positive, the log transformation can help to stabilize the variance
- In **R**, the function `log()` is the natural log by default, and I will also use this instead of `ln()`.
- Consider the new model:

$$\begin{aligned}\log(Y_i) &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i \\ \implies Y_i &= \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i) \cdot \exp(\epsilon_i)\end{aligned}$$

- Hence the scale of Y is larger when the mean is larger
- **Note:** when the outcomes contains 0 or negative values, we could add a constant to all subjects and force them to be positive. Usually we add 1 if the minimum of y 's is 0.

```
1 > logfit = lm(log(salary) ~ years, data = initech)
2 > summary(logfit)
3
4 Call:
5 lm(formula = log(salary) ~ years, data = initech)
6
7 Coefficients:
8             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
9 (Intercept)  9.841325   0.056355  174.63  <2e-16 ***
10 years        0.049978   0.002868   17.43  <2e-16 ***
11 ———
12 Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
13
14 Residual standard error: 0.1541 on 48 degrees of freedom
15 Multiple R-squared:  0.8635, Adjusted R-squared:  0.8607
16 F-statistic: 303.6 on 1 and 48 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

Interpretation of Coefficients after In Transformation

- After the transformation, the β parameters have different meaning.
- Consider one unit change in X , we have

$$\begin{aligned} Y^* &= \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1(X_i + 1)) \cdot \exp(\epsilon_i) \\ &= \exp(\beta_1) \cdot \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i) \cdot \exp(\epsilon_i) \\ &= \exp(\beta_1) Y \end{aligned}$$

- So $\exp(\beta_1)$ represents the factor by which Y increases for 1 unit increase in X .

Box-Cox Transformation

- Choosing the transformation can be subjective. Box and Cox (1964) proposed a method for finding the appropriate y transformation:

$$g_{\lambda}(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{y^{\lambda}-1}{\lambda} & \text{if } \lambda \neq 0 \\ \log(y) & \text{if } \lambda = 0 \end{cases}$$

- We want to choose λ to maximize the log-likelihood:

$$L(\lambda) = -\frac{n}{2} \log(\sigma_{\lambda}^2) + (\lambda - 1) \sum_i \log(y_i)$$

where σ_{λ}^2 is the MSE if the transformation g_{λ} is used.

- The second term is derived from the Jacobian of the transformation so that the log-likelihood is comparable to the original scale.

Calculating the Box-Cox yourself

```
1 > # box-cox transformation
2 > library(MASS)
3 > bc = boxcox(fit , plotit = T)
4 > # calculate your own box-cox transformation
5 > y = initech$salary; x = initech$years; n = nrow(initech)
6
7 > y = y/exp(mean(log(y))) # this is for numerical stability
8
9 > lambda = 0.38383838 # The 60th lambda value in the boxcox
    output
10 > gy = (y^lambda - 1) / lambda # the transformation
11
12 > # the second term is not needed since now sum(log(y)) = 0
13 > LL = -n/2*log(sum(lm(gy ~ x)$residuals^2))
14 > LL
15 [1] -4.570907
16 > # compare this to the boxcox function
17 > bc$y[60]
18 [1] -4.570908
```

- Compare the log-likelihood of λ at 0.5 and -0.5, which one is better?

A : $\lambda = 0.5$ B : $\lambda = -0.5$ C : They are the same.

Transforming the X variables

- Transforming the X variables is even more common, and it also deals with the issue that some observations are too influential due to extreme X values (recall the Cook's distance)
- In a lot of situations, the \log transformation is used because it effectively takes care of the extreme values.
- For example, the ATT data. See the [R](#) code.
- The \log transformation explicitly requires the original variable to be positive. Sometimes a constant is added to the original scale to force them to be positive. This applies to both X and Y .

Transforming the X variables

- In some other situations, transforming the X variables (or including higher order terms) will allow us to model non-linear relationships and interactions.
- For example we would like to fit this model to the `marketing` dataset

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2 + \epsilon$$

which will describe the decreasing effect of advertisement on the sales.

- See `R` code. Some useful functions: `poly` , `polym`
- Be careful that using high order polynomial may overfit the data.