## STA302/1001: Methods of Data Analysis

Instructor: Fang Yao

Chapter 9: Outliers and Influence

### **Outliers**

- quote from textbook: "cases that do not follow the same model as the rest of the data are called outliers"
- note: outliers are defined with respect to a model
- not all outliers are bad
- e.g., a geologist searching for oil deposits may be looking for outliers

### **Models for Outliers**

- two main types: (i) mean shift and (ii) inflated variance
- we will use mean shift outlier model
- non-outlier:  $E(Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{x}_i'\beta$ outlier:  $E(Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{x}_i'\beta + \delta$ test  $NH: \delta = 0$  (the *i*th observation is not an outlier)
- the variance function assumption  $Var(Y|\mathbf{X}) = \sigma^2$  stays the same
- inflated variance model: change the model assumption on Var(Y|X) but keep  $E(Y|X = x_i)$  the same

### **An Outlier Test**

 $\blacksquare$  suppose the *i*th case is suspected to be an outlier

- define a dummy variable  $U: \left\{ egin{array}{l} u_j = 0 \ \mbox{for} \ j 
  eq i \ \ u_i = 1 \end{array} 
  ight.$
- then we fit the model using least squares

$$E(Y|X) = X\beta + \delta U$$

- $m{\hat{\delta}}$  is the estimated mean shift
- do a two-sided *t*-test: NH:  $\delta = 0$ , AH:  $\delta \neq 0$ .
- $\bullet$  what is df of this t-statistic under NH?

## **An Alternative Approach**

- this leads to the same test as before, but from a different angle
- and there is a good reason to use it
- suppose again that the ith case is suspected to be an outlier
- Step 1: delete the ith case from the data (so n-1 data points left)
- Step 2: with the reduced dataset, estimate  $\beta$  and  $\sigma^2$ . Denote the resulting estimates as  $\hat{\beta}_{(i)}$  and  $\hat{\sigma}^2_{(i)}$ . Note that df for  $\hat{\sigma}^2_{(i)}$  is n-p'-1.

## An Alternative Approach -cont

Step 3: compute the fitted value for the deleted case:

$$\hat{y}_{i(i)} = \mathbf{x}_i' \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{(i)}$$

Since  $y_i$  and  $\hat{y}_{i(i)}$  are independent (why?),

$$Var(y_i - \hat{y}_{i(i)}) = Var(y_i) + Var(\hat{y}_{i(i)})$$
$$= \sigma^2 + \sigma^2 \mathbf{x}'_i (\mathbf{X}'_{(i)} \mathbf{X}_{(i)})^{-1} \mathbf{x}_i$$

where  $X_{(i)}$  is the matrix X with the ith row deleted

## An Alternative Approach -cont

Step 4: under the mean shift model, we have

$$E(y_i) = \mathbf{x}_i' \boldsymbol{\beta} + \delta, \quad E(\hat{y}_{i(i)}) = E(\mathbf{x}_i' \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{(i)}) = \mathbf{x}_i' \boldsymbol{\beta}$$
  

$$\Rightarrow E(y_i - \hat{y}_{i(i)}) = \delta$$

and the *t*-statistic for  $\delta = 0$  is:

$$t_i = \frac{y_i - \hat{y}_{i(i)}}{\hat{\sigma}_{(i)} \sqrt{1 + \mathbf{x}_i'(\mathbf{X}_{(i)}'\mathbf{X}_{(i)})^{-1}\mathbf{x}_i}}$$

- use  $\hat{\sigma}_{(i)}$  to replace  $\sigma$
- with  $\hat{\sigma}_{(i)}$ , the df is n-p'-1, and it is identical to the previous t-test we discussed

Relating MLR with/without

the ith case

$$X = (x') \cdot \text{nxp} \quad X_{(i)} \cdot \text{nxp} \quad X_{($$

Deleted residuals
$$e_{i(i)} = Y_{i} - Y_{i(i)} = Y_{i} - \chi_{i}' \beta_{(i)} = Y_{i} - \chi_{i}' (\beta - \frac{(\chi \chi)^{-1} \chi_{i} \beta_{i}}{1 - h_{ii}})$$

$$= Y_{i} - \chi_{i} \beta + \frac{(\chi_{i}' (\chi' \chi)^{-1} \chi_{i}) \beta_{i}}{1 - h_{ii}}$$

$$= \beta_{i}^{2} + \frac{h_{ii}}{1 - h_{ii}} \beta_{i}^{2} = \frac{\beta_{i}}{1 - h_{ii}}$$

(1). 
$$t_i = \frac{\hat{e}_i}{\hat{o}_n \sqrt{l - h_{ii}}}$$
 i.e.  $l + \chi_i' (\chi_{(i)} \chi_{(i)})^{-1} \chi_i = \frac{1}{1 - h_{ii}}$ 
(2).  $(n - p' - l) \frac{a}{\sigma(r)} = (n - p' - r_i^2) \hat{\sigma}^2$ 

$$t_i = r_i \sqrt{\frac{n - p' - l}{n - p' + r_i^2}}$$
So we can derive studentized residual from the standardized residual.

## Why do we prefer the second approach?

- ullet there is a nice formula for  $t_i$
- first define standardized residual

$$r_i = \frac{\hat{e}_i}{\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{1 - h_{ii}}}$$

- $\blacksquare$  try to make all  $r_i$ 's to have the same variance
- (so it may be better to plot  $r_i$ 's instead of  $\hat{e}_i$ 's)
- then from Appendix A.12, we have

$$t_i = \frac{\hat{q}_{ii}}{\hat{\sigma}_{(i)}\sqrt{1 - h_{ii}}} = r_i \left(\frac{n - p' - 1}{n - p' - r_i^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

## Why do we prefer the second approach? -con't

- so what is the good thing about this?
- suppose we want to perform outlier tests for 100 cases, then we do not need to fit 100 regressions by removing one case each time
- we only need to fit the regression using full data once, then compute all  $t_i$ 's for cases to be tested using

$$t_i = r_i \left( \frac{n - p' - 1}{n - p' - r_i^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

- $\bullet$   $t_i$  is also called the studentized residual
- another useful formula:  $\hat{e}_{i(i)} = \hat{e}_i/(1 h_{ii})$  called predicted residual or PRESS residual

## Significance levels for outlier test

- two situations:
  - 1. <u>before</u> even looking at the data, you suspect in advance that the *i*th case is an outlier
  - 2. you <u>first</u> look at the scatterplot or fit the regression and examine residual plots, <u>then</u> suspect the case with the largest residual is an outlier
- what is the problem? if  $r_1, \dots, r_n \overset{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} N(0,1)$  case 1 is like:  $P(|r_i| > 2)$  for an arbitrary fixed i (is it possible to choose i before you check the data?) case 2 is like:  $P(\max\{|r_i|: i=1,\dots,n\}>2)$  (this probability is surely large with sufficient n)

## **Bonferroni Adjustment**

- ullet so we need to do adjustment decrease lpha
- idea: if we have n data points, we apply the above t-test to all cases and adjust the overall significance level to be  $\alpha$
- we will use Bonferroni adjustment
- if we will perform n tests, change the significance level for each individual test to  $\frac{\alpha}{n}$
- then the overall significance level for all tests will not be bigger than  $\alpha$
- ullet we could also multiply the p-value by n

## An Example

Forbe's data: case 12 was suspected to be an outlier

$$\hat{e}_{12} = 1.36, \hat{\sigma} = 0.379, h_{12,12} = 0.0639$$

$$\implies r_{12} = \frac{1.36}{0.379\sqrt{1 - 0.0639}} = 3.7078$$

$$\implies t_{12} = 3.7078 \left(\frac{17 - 2 - 1}{17 - 2 - 3.7078^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 12.40$$

- the p-value is  $6.13 \times 10^{-9}$  (from t with df=14) p-value from Single test
- multiply by n=17:  $1.04\times 10^{-7} << 0.05$  multiply by sample
- so it supports that case 12 is an outlier
- similarly, we can examine other cases under suspicion and draw conclusions simultaneously
- what do we do then? find the cause if possible

## **Influence Analysis**

- general idea: to study changes in an analysis when the data are slightly perturbed
- the most useful and important method is to remove one data point at a time and re-do the analysis
- using similar notation as before, we want to compare

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{(i)} = (\mathbf{X}'_{(i)}\mathbf{X}_{(i)})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'_{(i)}\mathbf{Y}_{(i)}$$

for different values of i

- ullet how the estimate of eta is affected by each case
- let's look at an example

# Plots of $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}_{(i)}$

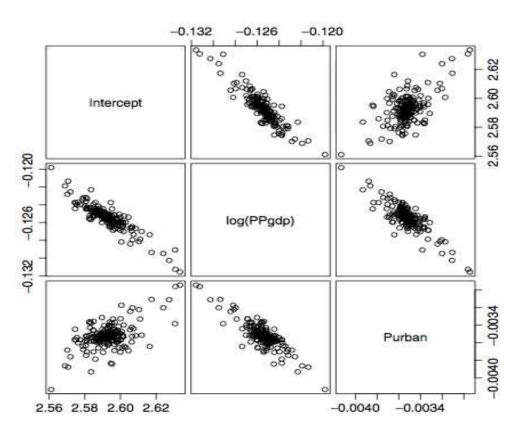


FIG. 9.1 Estimates of parameters in the UN data obtained by deleting one case at a time.

## Plotting is not always possible

- this is good, but not always possible, especially for large data set with many predictors
- we need a one-number numerical summary that can be calculated easily and quickly

## Cook's distance

definition:
$$D_{i} = \frac{(\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{(i)} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})'(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{(i)} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})}{\frac{1 - h_{ii}}{p'\hat{\sigma}^{2}}} = \frac{(\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{(i)} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})'(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{(i)} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})}{\frac{p'\hat{\sigma}^{2}}{p'\hat{\sigma}^{2}}} = \frac{(\hat{\mathbf{Y}}_{(i)} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}})'(\hat{\mathbf{Y}}_{(i)} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}})}{\frac{p'\hat{\sigma}^{2}}{p'\hat{\sigma}^{2}}} = \frac{1}{p'}r_{i}^{2}\frac{h_{ii}}{1 - h_{ii}} \quad \text{(easy to compute)}$$

- a normalized distance between  $\hat{\beta}_{(i)}$  and  $\hat{\beta}$ a scaled Euclidean distance between  $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}_{(i)}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$
- large  $D_i o$  potential problem
- how larger is large? cross-compare (as compare  $h_{ii}$ 's)

### Rat Data

- X terms: BodyWt, LiverWt, Dose (injected to 19 rats)
- response: dose in liver

#### TABLE 9.1 Regression Summary for the Rat Data

```
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 0.265922
                      0.194585 1.367
                                        0.1919
BodyWt
           -0.021246 0.007974 -2.664 0.0177
LiverWt
            0.014298 0.017217 0.830 0.4193
                      1.522625 2.744
Dose
            4.178111
                                        0.0151
Residual standard error: 0.07729 on 15 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-Squared: 0.3639
F-statistic: 2.86 on 3 and 15 DF, p-value: 0.07197
```

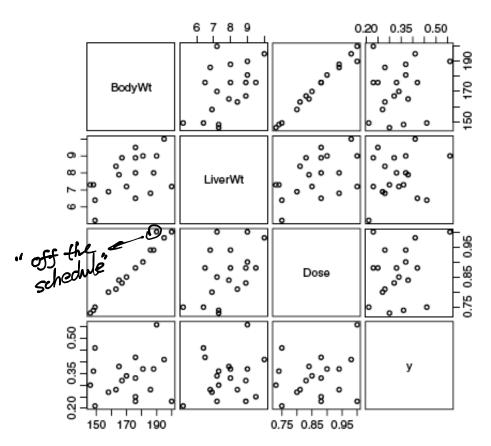


FIG. 9.2 Scatterplot matrix for the rat data.

- BodyWt and Dose are almost perfectly correlated → they measure the same thing!
- $m y \sim {\sf BodyWt + LiverWt + Dose}$  BodyWt and Dose are significant
- same conclusion if LiverWt is removed
- but  $y \sim \text{BodyWt}$  does not show any relationship, nor  $y \sim \text{Dose}$
- however, jointly they are useful separately, not
- what do you think from the scatterplot plot?
- seems a paradox, let's have a closer look

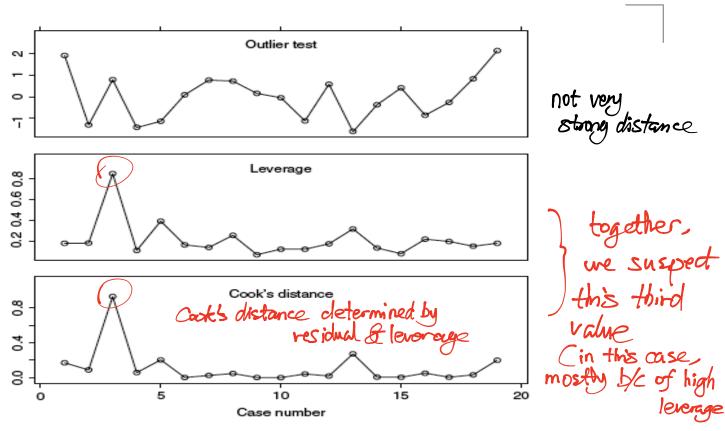


FIG. 9.3 Diagnostic statistics for the rat data.

- case 3 is problematic: though not an outlier, but has a large leverage and Cook's distance
  - remove this case and re-do the analysis

TABLE 9.2 Regression Summary for the Rat Data with Case 3 Deleted

```
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
                                1.518
                                        0.151
(Intercept)
           0.311427
                      0.205094
BodyWt
          -0.007783 0.018717 -0.416
                                        0.684
LiverWt 0.008989 0.018659 0.482
                                        0.637
Dose
        1.484877 3.713064 0.400
                                        0.695
Residual standard error: 0.07825 on 14 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-Squared: 0.02106
F-statistic: 0.1004 on 3 and 14 DF, p-value: 0.9585
```

- case 3: incorrect amount of dose was injected
- added-variable plots also help detect influential cases
- x-axis: residuals from  $E(X_j | others)$

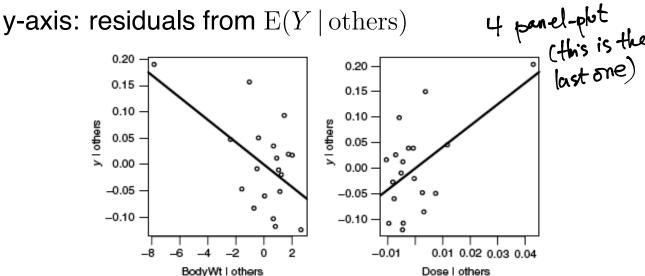


FIG. 9.4 Added-variable plots for BodyWt and Dose.

## **Normal Probability Plots**

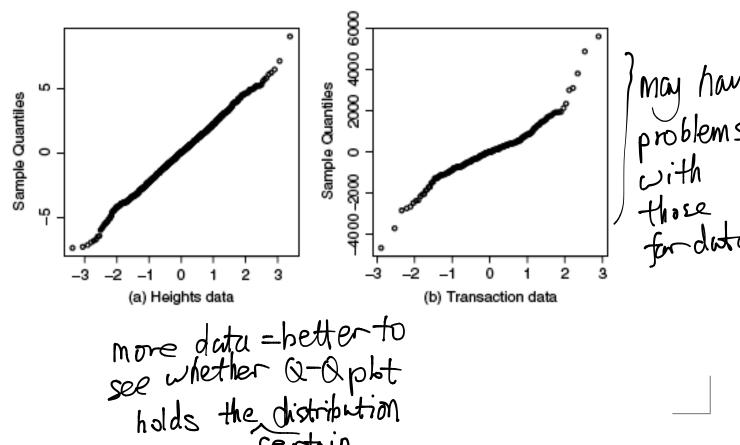
- lacktriangle aim: check for normality of  $e_i$
- **Q-Q** plot: we have i.i.d. random numbers  $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ 
  - (i) (sort  $x_{(1)} \leq \ldots \leq x_{(n)}$ , the sample order statistic
  - (ii) find the expected order statistic  $u_{(1)} \leq \ldots \leq u_{(n)}$  from N(0,1),  $u_{(i)}$  is actually the 100i/nth percentile,

$$P(Z \leq \mathbf{u}_{(i)}) = \frac{i}{n}, \quad Z \sim N(0,1)$$
 (you can alway standardize it) so (iii) if  $x_i \sim N(\mu,\sigma^2)$ , then  $E(x_{(i)}) = \mu + \sigma u_{(i)}$ .

this suggests the Q-Q plot, also referred to as "sample quantile v.s. population quantile"

## Normal Probability Plots - con't

 if the residuals are (approximately) normal, we should see a (approximately) straight line



STA302/1001 Lectures - p. 24/24