MultipredictorRegMod.Rmd

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```
Outline

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# Multilevel categorical predictors Chap 4 Vittinghoff
# libraries
#
library(tidyverse)
library(emmeans)
library(multcomp)
library(MASS)
library(car)
library(HSAUR2)
```

Exercise and Glucose (4.1 Vittinghoff)

Glucose levels above 125 mg/dL are diagnostic of diabetes, while levels in the range from 100 to 125 mg/dL signal increased risk of progressing to this serious and increasingly widespread condition. So it is of interest to determine whether exercise, a modifiable lifestyle factor, would help people reduce their glucose levels and thus avoid diabetes. The R code shows a simple linear model using a measure of exercise to predict baseline glucose levels among 2,032 participants without diabetes, and boxplot of the data, in the HERS. Women with diabetes are excluded because the research question is whether exercise might help to prevent progression to diabetes among women at risk, and because the causal determinants of glucose may be different in that group.

```
setwd("~/Dropbox/GitHub/Class2020")
# Chapter 4 examples. 4.1
hers <- read_csv("DataRegressBook/Chap3/hersdata.csv")

hers_nodi <- filter(hers, diabetes == "no")
# Simple linear model with HERS data for women without diabetes
ggplot(data = hers_nodi, mapping = aes(x = exercise, y = glucose)) +
    geom_boxplot(na.rm = TRUE) + facet_grid( . ~ diabetes) + geom_jitter(height = 0.15, width = 0.15)
# The simple linear model adjust the exercise like in table 4.1
hers_nodi_Fit <- lm(glucose ~ exercise, data = hers_nodi)
summary(hers_nodi_Fit)</pre>
Call:
lm(formula = glucose ~ exercise, data = hers_nodi)
```

Residuals:

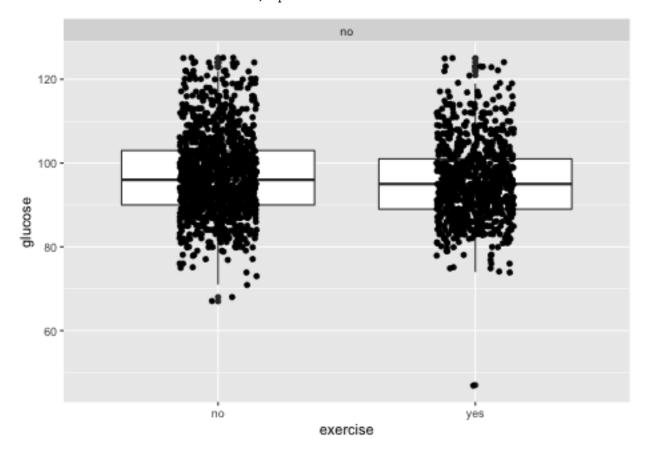
Min 1Q Median 3Q Max -48.668 -6.668 -0.668 5.639 29.332

Coefficients:

Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 97.3610 0.2815 345.848 < 2e-16 ***
exerciseyes -1.6928 0.4376 -3.868 0.000113 ***

Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 9.715 on 2030 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.007318, Adjusted R-squared: 0.006829 F-statistic: 14.97 on 1 and 2030 DF, p-value: 0.000113



The "coefficients" for the variable "exerciseyes" shows that average baseline glucose levels were about 1.7 mg/dL lower among women who exercised at least three times a week than among women who exercised less. This difference is statistically significant (t=-3.87, P<0.000113). However, women who exercise are slightly younger, a little more likely to use alcohol, and in particular have lower average BMI, all factors associated with glucose levels. This implies that the lower average glucose we observe among women who exercise could be due at least in part to differences in these other predictors (independent variables). Under these conditions, it is important that our estimate of the difference in average glucose levels associated with exercise be "adjusted" for the effects of these potential confounders of the unadjusted association. Ideally, adjustment using a multipredictor regression model provides an estimate of the causal effect of exercise on average glucose levels, by holding the other variables constant.

The multiple regression model (4.2)

In the multiple regression model the expected value $E[y \mid x]$ (expected value of the response function y given the vector x) is

$$E[y \mid x] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \dots + \beta_p x_p$$

where x represents the collection of p predictors $x_1, x_2, \dots x_p$ in the model, and the β are the corresponding regression coefficients.

```
# Chap 4 4.2 Multiple linear regresor model
# and to obtain the table 4.2 with multiple linear model
hers_nodi_Fit2 <- lm(glucose ~ exercise + age + drinkany + BMI, data = hers_nodi)
S(hers_nodi_Fit2)
Call: lm(formula = glucose ~ exercise + age + drinkany + BMI, data = hers_nodi)
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 78.96239
                        2.59284
                                30.454
                                          <2e-16 ***
exerciseyes -0.95044
                        0.42873
                                 -2.217
                                          0.0267 *
             0.06355
                        0.03139
                                  2.024
                                          0.0431 *
age
drinkanyyes 0.68026
                        0.42196
                                  1.612
                                          0.1071
                        0.04155
                                11.774
BMI
             0.48924
                                          <2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard deviation: 9.389 on 2023 degrees of freedom
  (4 observations deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.07197
F-statistic: 39.22 on 4 and 2023 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
     AIC
14845.62 14879.31
```

in a multiple regression model that also includes —that is, adjusts for—age, alcohol use (drinkany), and BMI, average glucose is estimated to be only about 1 mg/dL lower among women who exercise, holding the other three factors constant. The multipredictor model also shows that average glucose levels are about 0.7 mg/dL higher among alcohol users than among nonusers. Average levels also increase by about 0.5 mg/dL per unit increase in BMI, and by 0.06 mg/dL for each additional year of age. Each of these associations is statistically significant after adjustment for the other predictors in the model.

Interpretation of Adjusted Regression Coefficients

The coefficient $\beta_j, j = 1, \ldots, p$ gives the change in $E[y \mid x]$ for an increase of one unit in predictor x_j , holding other factors in the model constant; each of the estimates is adjusted for the effects of all the other predictors. As in the simple linear model, the intercept β_0 gives the value of $E[y \mid x]$ when all the predictors are equal to zero.

Generalization of R-squared and r

The coefficient of determination R^2 is the proportion of the total variability of the outcome that can be accounted for by the predictors. And the multiple correlatio coefficient $r = \sqrt{R^2}$ represents the correlation between the outcome y and the fitted values \hat{y} .

Categorical Predictors

Predictors in both simple and multiple predictor regression models can be binary, categorical, or discrete numeric, as well as continuous numeric.

Binary Predictors

Binary predictors, a group with a characteristic and other group with out the characteristic, can be coded with a dummy variable, an indicator or dummy variable that can take value "1" for the group with the characteristic and "0" for the group without the characteristic. With this coding, the regression coefficient corresponding to this variable has a straightforward interpretation as the increase or decrease in average outcome levels in the group with the characteristic, with respect to the reference group. With this coding for binary variables 1 = yes and $0 = \text{no } \beta_0$ is the average of the baseline variable and $\beta_0 + \beta_1$ is related to the value for the "yes" condition ("yes" + average).

Multilevel Categorical Predictors (4.3)

The 2,763 women in the HERS cohort also responded to a question about how physically active they considered themselves compared to other women their age. The five-level response variable "physact" ranged from "much less active" to "much more active," and was coded in order from 1 to 5. This is an example of an ordinal variable. Multilevel categorical variables can also be nominal, in the sense that there is no intrinsic ordering in the categories. Examples include ethnicity, marital status, occupation, and geographic region. With nominal variables, it is even clearer that the numeric codes often used to represent the variable in the database cannot be treated like the values of a numeric variable. Categorical variables are easily accommodated in multipredictor linear and other regression models, using indicator or dummy variables. As with binary variables, where two categories are represented in the model by a single indicator variable, categorical variables with $K \leq 2$ levels are represented by K-1 indicators, one for each of level of the variable except a baseline or reference level.

```
# Chap 4 4.3 Categorical predictors
# we are using the same file hers <- read_csv("DataRegressBook/Chap3/hersdata.csv")
# Multilevel categorical predictors using the linear model for women without diebetes
# IMPORTANT compare with table 4.4 Regression of physical activity on glucose
hers_nodi <- mutate(hers_nodi, physact = factor(physact, levels=c("much less active", "somewhat less act
levels(hers_nodi$physact)
[1] "much less active"
                           "somewhat less active" "about as active"
[4] "somewhat more active" "much more active"
ggplot(data = hers_nodi, mapping = aes(x = physact, y = glucose)) + geom_boxplot(na.rm = TRUE)
glucose fit act <- lm(glucose ~ physact, data = hers nodi)
Anova(glucose fit act, type="II")
Anova Table (Type II tests)
Response: glucose
          Sum Sq
                   Df F value
                               Pr(>F)
physact
            1673
                    4
                        4.431 0.001441 **
Residuals 191345 2027
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
S(glucose_fit_act)
Call: lm(formula = glucose ~ physact, data = hers_nodi)
```

```
Coefficients:
```

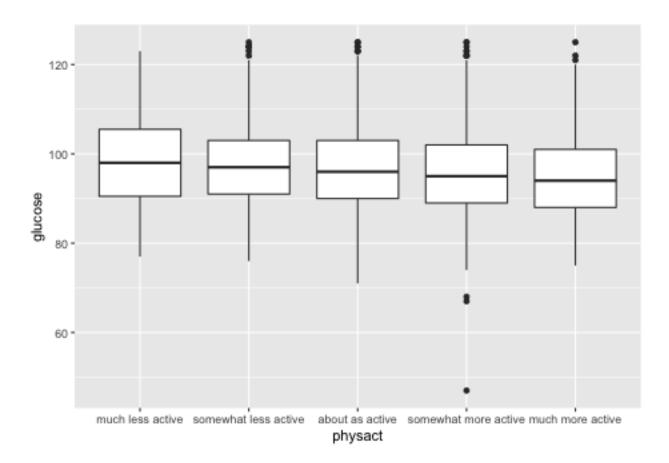
```
(Intercept)
                            98.4206
                                      0.9393 104.784
                                                        <2e-16 ***
physactsomewhat less active -0.8584
                                       1.0842 -0.792
                                                        0.4286
physactabout as active
                       -1.2262
                                       1.0111 -1.213
                                                      0.2254
physactsomewhat more active -2.4339
                                       1.0108 -2.408
                                                        0.0161 *
                                                        0.0035 **
physactmuch more active
                            -3.2777
                                       1.1211 -2.924
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard deviation: 9.716 on 2027 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.008668
F-statistic: 4.431 on 4 and 2027 DF, p-value: 0.001441
    AIC
             BIC
15014.12 15047.82
layout(matrix(1:4, nrow = 2))
plot(glucose_fit_act)
# To compute the estimates marginal means for specified factors or factor combinations in a linear mode
glucose_emmeans <- emmeans(glucose_fit_act, "physact")</pre>
summary(glucose_emmeans)
physact
                              SE
                                    df lower.CL upper.CL
                     emmean
```

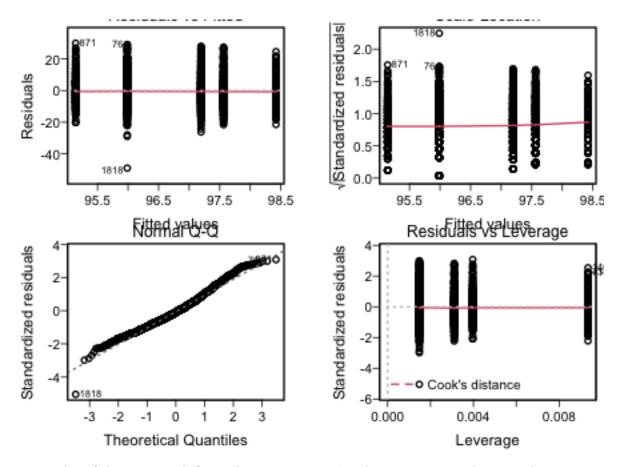
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)

98.4 0.939 2027 96.6 100.3 much less active somewhat less active 97.6 0.541 2027 96.5 98.6 97.2 0.374 2027 96.5 97.9 about as active somewhat more active 96.0 0.373 2027 95.3 96.7 much more active 95.1 0.612 2027 93.9 96.3

Confidence level used: 0.95

#





the corresponding β_i have a straightforward interpretation. For the moment, consider a simple regression model in which the five levels of "physact" are the only predictors:

 $E[glucose \mid x] = \beta_0 + \beta_2 Somewhat Less Active + \beta_3 About As Active + \beta_4 Somewhat More Active + \beta_5 Much More Active$

Without other predictors, or covariates, the model is equivalent to a one-way ANOVA. The parameters of the model can be manipulated to give the estimated mean in any group, or to give the estimated differences between any two groups. Estimated differences are the contrasts.

Multiple Pairwise Comparisons Between Categories

It is frequently of interest to examine multiple pairwise differences between levels of a categorical predictor, especially when the overall F -test is statistically significant, and in some cases even when it is not. For this case, various methods are available for controlling the familywise error rate (FER) for the wider set of comparisons being made. These methods differ in the trade-off made between power and the breadth of the circumstances under which the type-I error rate is protected. One of the most straightforward is Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) procedure, in which the pairwise comparisons are carried out using t -tests at the nominal type-I error rate, but only if the overall F-test is statistically significant. More conservative procedures that protect the FER (FWE) under partial null hypotheses include setting the level of the pairwise tests required to declare statistical significance equal to α/k (Bonferroni) or $1 - (1 - \alpha)^{1/k}$ (Sidak), where α is the desired FER and k is the number of preplanned comparisons to be made. The Sidak correction is slightly more liberal for small values of k, but otherwise equivalent.

```
# Contrasts
# contrasts using the adjusted parameters for a categorical variable with several categories
# or multiple ordinals
# R call categorical variables factors and their categories levels so we have factors with different
# levels in these cases we can estimate contrasts of the adjusted parameters.
```

```
Contrast_Table4.6 <- list(gluc_b0 = c(1, 0, 0, 0, 0),
                         gluc_b2 = c(-1, 1, 0, 0, 0),
                         gluc_b3 = c(-1, 0, 1, 0, 0),
                         gluc_b4 = c(-1, 0, 0, 1, 0),
                         gluc_b5 = c(-1, 0, 0, 0, 1))
# For the Bonferroni correction adjust "bonferroni" this is talbe 4.6
contrast(glucose_emmeans, Contrast_Table4.6, adjust="sidak")
 contrast estimate
                      SE
                           df t.ratio p.value
            98.421 0.939 2027 104.784 <.0001
 gluc_b0
gluc_b2
            -0.858 1.084 2027
                              -0.792 0.9391
gluc_b3
           -1.226 1.011 2027 -1.213 0.7211
            -2.434 1.011 2027 -2.408 0.0781
gluc_b4
gluc_b5
            -3.278 1.121 2027 -2.924 0.0174
P value adjustment: sidak method for 5 tests
contrast(glucose_emmeans, Contrast_Table4.6, adjust="bonferroni")
 contrast estimate
                      SE
                           df t.ratio p.value
gluc_b0
           98.421 0.939 2027 104.784 <.0001
gluc_b2
           -0.858 1.084 2027 -0.792 1.0000
gluc_b3
           -1.226 1.011 2027 -1.213 1.0000
                              -2.408 0.0807
gluc b4
            -2.434 1.011 2027
            -3.278 1.121 2027 -2.924 0.0175
gluc_b5
P value adjustment: bonferroni method for 5 tests
# Same contrasts with multicomp library
```

Testing for Trend Across Categories

The coefficient estimates for the categories of physact from last section, decrease in order, suggesting that mean glucose levels are characterized by a linear trend across the levels of physact. Tests for linear trend are best performed using a contrast in the coefficients corresponding to the various levels of the categorical predictor. Definition: A contrast is a weighted sum of the regression coefficients of the form $a_1\beta_1 + a_2\beta_2 + \cdots + a_p\beta_p$ in which the weights, or contrast coefficients, sum to zero: that is, $a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_p = 0$

```
Contrasts glu <- list(MAvsLA
                                    = c(-1, -1, 0, 1, 1),
                                  = c(-1, 0, 0, 0, 1),
                    MAvsLAforMuch
                    MAvsLAforSome
                                   = c(0, -1, 0,
                    MLAvsC
                                   = c(-1, 0, 1, 0,
                                                      0),
                    SLAvsC
                                   = c(0, -1, 1, 0,
                                                       0),
                                   = c(0, 0, -1, 1,
                    SMAvsC
                                                       0),
                                   = c(0, 0, -1, 0,
                    MMAvsC
                                                      1),
                    LinTrend_phys
                                  = c(-2, -1, 0, 1,
                                                       2))
# compare the results with emmeans adjusted with Sidak, FWE.
contrast(glucose_emmeans, Contrasts_glu, adjust="bonferroni")
```

```
      contrast
      estimate
      SE
      df
      t.ratio
      p.value

      MAvsLA
      -4.853
      1.300
      2027
      -3.734
      0.0016

      MAvsLAforMuch
      -3.278
      1.121
      2027
      -2.924
      0.0280

      MAvsLAforSome
      -1.575
      0.658
      2027
      -2.395
      0.1336
```

```
MLAvsC
               -1.226 1.011 2027 -1.213 1.0000
 SI.AvsC
               -0.368 0.658 2027 -0.559 1.0000
SMAvsC
               -1.208 0.529 2027 -2.284 0.1796
MMAvsC
               -2.052 0.717 2027 -2.860 0.0343
LinTrend_phys -8.131 2.337 2027 -3.480 0.0041
P value adjustment: bonferroni method for 8 tests
contrast(glucose emmeans, Contrasts glu, adjust="sidak")
 contrast
             estimate
                         SE df t.ratio p.value
MAvsT.A
               -4.853 1.300 2027 -3.734 0.0015
MAvsLAforMuch -3.278 1.121 2027 -2.924 0.0276
MAvsLAforSome -1.575 0.658 2027 -2.395 0.1260
MLAvsC
               -1.226 1.011 2027 -1.213 0.8703
               -0.368 0.658 2027 -0.559 0.9990
SLAvsC
SMAvsC
               -1.208 0.529 2027 -2.284 0.1661
MMAvsC
               -2.052 0.717 2027 -2.860 0.0338
LinTrend_phys -8.131 2.337 2027 -3.480 0.0041
P value adjustment: sidak method for 8 tests
# With adjust="none", results will be the same as the aov method.
# for other more general examples
# Using the multcomp library
ContrastGlucExa1 <- ("
Contrast.Name MLA SLA AAA SMA MMA
MAvsLA
                -1 -1
                         0 1
                                1
MAvsLAforMuch -1 0
MAvsLAforSome
                0 -1
                         0 1
MLAvsC
                -1
                    0 1
                            0
                0 -1 1 0 0
SLAvsC
SMAvsC
                0 0 -1 1 0
                0 0 -1
MMAvsC
                            0
                               1
LinearTrending -2 -1
                         0
")
ContrastGlucExa1_Matriz = as.matrix(read.table(textConnection(ContrastGlucExa1), header=TRUE, row.names
ContrastGlucExa1_Matriz
             MLA SLA AAA SMA MMA
MAvsLA
              -1 -1
                       0
                           1
                              1
MAvsLAforMuch
               -1
                   0
                       0
                           0
                              1
                     0
MAvsLAforSome
               0 -1
                           1
                              0
MLAvsC
              -1 0 1 0
                              0
SLAvsC
               0 -1 1 0
                              Λ
SMAvsC
               0
                   0 -1
                          1
                              0
MMAvsC
               0
                           0
                 0 -1
                              1
LinearTrending -2 -1
                               2
# glucose_fit_act came from lm(glucose ~ physact, data = hers_nodi)
Gluc_GenLinHypoth = glht(glucose_fit_act, linfct = mcp(physact = ContrastGlucExa1_Matriz))
```

Gluc_GenLinHypoth\$linfct (Intercept) physactsomewhat less active physactabout as active MAvsLA -1 MAvsLAforMuch 0 0 0 MAvsLAforSome 0 -1 0 MLAvsC 0 0 1 SLAvsC 0 -1 1 SMAvsC 0 0 -1 0 MMAvsC 0 -1 LinearTrending 0 -1 0 physactsomewhat more active physactmuch more active MAvsLA 1 MAvsLAforMuch 0 1 MAvsLAforSome 0 1 MLAvsC 0 0 SLAvsC 0 0 SMAvsC 0 1 0 MMAvsC 1 LinearTrending 1 2 attr(,"type") [1] "User-defined" summary(Gluc_GenLinHypoth, test=adjusted("single-step"))

```
Simultaneous Tests for General Linear Hypotheses
```

Multiple Comparisons of Means: User-defined Contrasts

```
Fit: lm(formula = glucose ~ physact, data = hers_nodi)
```

Linear Hypotheses:

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
MAvsLA == 0
                     -4.8531
                                 1.2998 -3.734 0.00137 **
MAvsLAforMuch == 0
                     -3.2777
                                 1.1211 - 2.924
                                                0.02042 *
MAvsLAforSome == 0
                     -1.5754
                                 0.6577 - 2.395
                                                 0.08767 .
MLAvsC == 0
                     -1.2262
                                 1.0111 -1.213
                                                 0.68330
SLAvsC == 0
                     -0.3677
                                 0.6582 -0.559
                                                 0.97287
SMAvsC == 0
                     -1.2077
                                 0.5287 - 2.284
                                                0.11481
MMAvsC == 0
                                 0.7174 - 2.860
                                                 0.02469 *
                     -2.0515
LinearTrending == 0 -8.1308
                                 2.3366 -3.480 0.00324 **
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Adjusted p values reported -- single-step method)
```

Confounding

The model $lm(glucose \sim exercise, data = hersnodi)$, the unadjusted coefficient for exercise estimates the difference in mean glucose levels between two subgroups of the population of women with heart disease. But this comparison ignores other ways in which those subgroups may differ. In other words, the analysis does not take account of confounding of the association we see. Although the unadjusted coefficient may be useful for describing differences between subgroups, it would be risky to infer any causal connection

between exercise and glucose on this basis. In contrast, the adjusted coefficient for exercise in the model $lm(glucose \sim exercise + age + drinkany + BMI, data = hersnodi)$, takes account of the fact that women who exercise also have lower BMI and are slightly younger and more likely to report alcohol use, all factors which are associated with differences in glucose levels. While this adjusted model is clearly rudimentary, the underlying premise of multipredictor regression analysis of observational data is that with a sufficiently refined model, we can estimate causal effects, free or almost free of confounding. Confounding is when one predictor x_i (independent variable) can depend in some of the same variables that the response function Y.

Adjusted vs. unadjusted

Uncontrolled confounding induces bias in unadjusted estimates of the causal effects that are commonly the focus of our attention. This suggests that unadjusted parameter estimates are always biased and adjusted estimates less so.

Example: BMI and LDL

hers)

We turn to a relatively simple example, again using data from the HERS cohort. BMI and LDL cholesterol are both established heart disease risk factors. It is reasonable to hypothesize that higher BMI leads to higher LDL in some causal sense. An unadjusted model for BMI and LDL is obtained with $lm(LDL \sim BMI, data = hers)$. The unadjusted estimate shows that average LDL increases .42mg/dL per unit increase in BMI.

```
# when one predictor (independent variable) can depend in some of the
# same variables that the response function
# Example 4
# Example of BMI (Body mass index) and LDL (cholesterol) using the HERS cohort data Table 4.12
LDL_fit_bmi <- lm(LDL ~ BMI, data = hers)</pre>
S(LDL fit bmi)
Call: lm(formula = LDL ~ BMI, data = hers)
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 133.1913
                         3.7939
                                 35.107 < 2e-16 ***
              0.4151
                         0.1304
                                  3.184 0.00147 **
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard deviation: 37.75 on 2745 degrees of freedom
  (16 observations deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.00368
F-statistic: 10.14 on 1 and 2745 DF, p-value: 0.001468
     AIC
              BIC
27747.67 27765.43
```

However, age, ethnicity (nonwhite), smoking, and alcohol use (drinkany) may confound this unadjusted association. These covariates may either represent determinants of LDL or be proxies for such determinants, and are correlated with but almost surely not caused by BMI, and so may confound the BMI–LDL relationship.

```
# second half of Table 4.12
# example of LDL modeled with BMI and other factors
LDL_fit_all <- lm(LDL ~ BMI + age + nonwhite + smoking + drinkany, data = hers)
S(LDL_fit_all)
Call: lm(formula = LDL ~ BMI + age + nonwhite + smoking + drinkany, data =</pre>
```

Coefficients:

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 147.3153
                         9.2564
                                 15.915
                                         < 2e-16 ***
BMI
              0.3591
                         0.1341
                                   2.678
                                         0.00746 **
                         0.1131
                                  -1.678
                                         0.09351
             -0.1897
age
nonwhiteyes
              5.2194
                         2.3237
                                   2.246
                                          0.02477 *
smokingyes
              4.7507
                         2.2104
                                   2.149
                                          0.03170 *
drinkanyyes
             -2.7224
                         1.4989
                                 -1.816
                                         0.06944
Signif. codes:
                0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard deviation: 37.65 on 2739 degrees of freedom
  (18 observations deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.01077
F-statistic: 5.966 on 5 and 2739 DF, p-value: 1.7e-05
     AIC
              BIC
27717.03 27758.45
```

After adjustment for these four demographic and lifestyle factors, the estimated increase in average LDL is 0.36mg/dL per unit increase in BMI, an association that remains highly statistically significant. In addition, average LDL is estimated to be 5.2mg/dL higher among nonwhite women, after adjustment for between-group differences in BMI, age, smoking, and alcohol use. The association of smoking with higher LDL is also statistically significant, and there is some evidence for lower LDL among older women and those who use alcohol. In addition, average LDL is estimated to be 5.2mg/dL higher among nonwhite women, after adjustment for between-group differences in BMI, age, smoking, and alcohol use. The association of smoking with higher LDL is also statistically significant, and there is some evidence for lower LDL among older women and those who use alcohol. In this example, smoking is a negative confounder, because women with higher BMI are less likely to smoke, but both are associated with higher LDL.

Mediation

If the predictor is cause of one of the covariates which in turn affects the outcome, this will be an instance of mediation. For the adjusted model for $LDL \sim BMI + age + nonwhite + smoking + drinkany$ we assumed that age, race/ethnicity, smoking, and alcohol use might confound the effect of BMI, because they affect both BMI and LDL levels, or are proxies for factors that do. However, if the primary predictor is a cause of one of the covariates, which in turn affects the outcome, this would be an instance of mediation.

Overall and Direct Effects

If the indirect pathway exists, and confounding has been controlled, then the coefficient for the primary predictor before adjustment for the mediator has a causal interpretation as the *overall effect* of the primary predictor on the outcome. The coefficient adjusted for the mediator is interpretable as the so-called *direct effect* of the primary predictor via other pathways that do not involve the mediator. Finally, the *difference* between overall and direct effects of the primary predictor is interpretable as the *indirect effect*.

Percent Explained

The relative difference between the overall and direct effects is sometimes referred to as the percent explained (PE) and used as an additional summary measure of the indirect effect.

Example: BMI, exercise, and Glucose

We examined the extent to which the effects of BMI on glucose levels might be mediated through its effects on likelihood of exercise. Although exercise may in some cases affect BMI, in HERS exercise was weakly associated (p = 0.06) with a small increase in BMI over the first year of the study. As a result, we would argue that in this population of older women with established heart disease, BMI mainly affects likelihood of exercise, with very little feedback. Thus, mediation of the effects of BMI by exercise makes sense in terms of a hypothesized causal framework. We recognize that our simple models might not completely control confounding of the relationships among BMI, exercise, and glucose, and could be improved with expert input.

```
# second half of Table 4.13
# example of LDL modeled with BMI and other factors
Gluc_fit_BMIall <- lm(glucose ~ BMI + age10 + nonwhite + smoking + drinkany + poorfair, data = hers_nod
summary(Gluc_fit_BMIall)
Call:
lm(formula = glucose ~ BMI + age10 + nonwhite + smoking + drinkany +
   poorfair, data = hers_nodi)
Residuals:
   Min
            1Q Median
                             3Q
                                    Max
-48.025 -6.367 -0.993
                         5.536 31.978
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 77.63278
                       2.68721 28.890
                                          <2e-16 ***
BMI
            0.50256
                        0.04148 12.115
                                          <2e-16 ***
age10
            0.70940
                        0.32596
                                2.176
                                          0.0296 *
nonwhiteyes 0.88015
                        0.76108
                                 1.156
                                         0.2476
smokingyes
           0.18126
                        0.61352
                                 0.295
                                         0.7677
drinkanyyes 0.71373
                        0.43050
                                 1.658
                                         0.0975 .
poorfairyes -0.20525
                        0.53942 -0.381
                                         0.7036
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 9.407 on 2018 degrees of freedom
  (7 observations deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.07042,
                               Adjusted R-squared: 0.06766
F-statistic: 25.48 on 6 and 2018 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
# and the second model
Gluc_fit_BMIexer <- lm(glucose ~ BMI + age10 + nonwhite + smoking + drinkany + poorfair + exercise, dat
summary(Gluc_fit_BMIexer)
Call:
lm(formula = glucose ~ BMI + age10 + nonwhite + smoking + drinkany +
   poorfair + exercise, data = hers_nodi)
Residuals:
   Min
            1Q Median
                             3Q
                                    Max
-47.574 -6.421 -0.879
                         5.515 32.417
Coefficients:
```

Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)

```
(Intercept) 78.86342
                   2.74136 28.768 <2e-16 ***
BMI
          age10
          0.66558
                   0.32624 2.040 0.0415 *
nonwhiteyes 0.83154
                   0.76066 1.093 0.2744
smokingyes -0.06125
                   0.62260 -0.098 0.9216
drinkanyyes 0.69540
                   0.43017 1.617 0.1061
poorfairyes -0.33879
                   0.54225 -0.625 0.5322
exerciseyes -0.97625
                   0.44020 -2.218 0.0267 *
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

Residual standard error: 9.398 on 2017 degrees of freedom (7 observations deleted due to missingness)

Multiple R-squared: 0.07268, Adjusted R-squared: 0.06947 F-statistic: 22.59 on 7 and 2017 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16