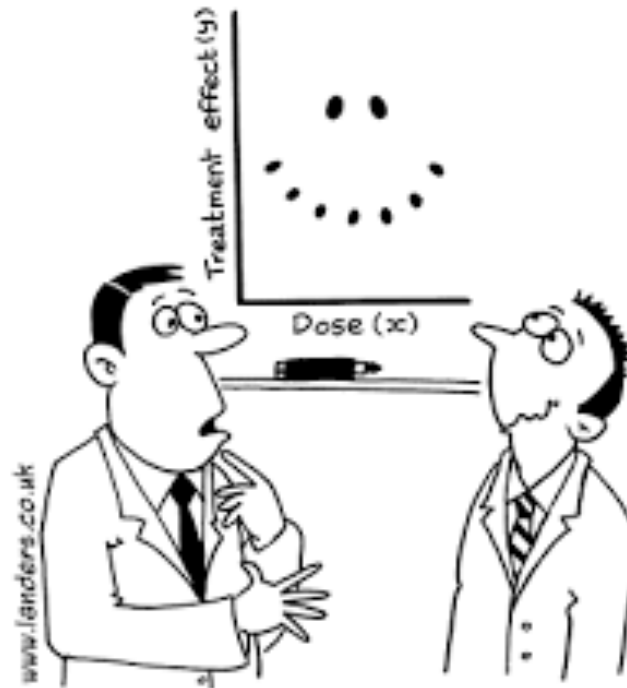


# BST 210

## Applied Regression Analysis



"It's a non-linear pattern with outliers.....but for some reason I'm very happy with the data."

# Lecture 10

## Plan for Today

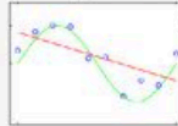
1. Everyone please attend class next Tuesday (10/8)
2. Lab this week: quick scan prior to lab--Gaynor et al, 2015
3. (continued) Multivariable Model Selection
  - a. Criteria for model selection
  - b. Data reduction; collinearity
4. Multivariable hypothesis testing
  1. t-test
  2. F-test
  3. Nested models (including additive models)
  4. When LINE breaks down

# Main Points of Model Selection?

(one demonstration of process)

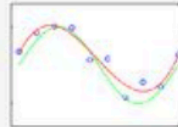
## 1. Define models

**Simple Model** = Dog preference is predicted well by height.



$$\text{Model (S)} = m \cdot x + c$$

**Augmented Model** = Dog preference is predicted better by height and age



$$\text{Model (A)} = m \cdot x + n \cdot x^2 + c$$

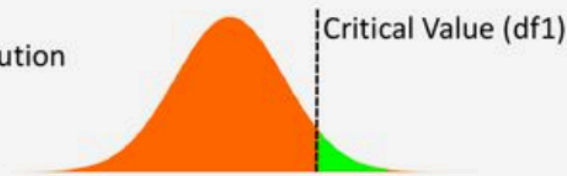
## 2. Comparing Error reductions

$$F = \frac{(\text{SSE} - \text{SSE}) / (P - P)}{\text{SSE} / n - P}$$

**SSE**: the sum of squared error;  
**P**: the number of parameters  
**n**: the number of observations

## 3. Significance test

F distribution



# Criteria for Model Selection?

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- Adjusted  $R^2$
- F-test
- t-test
- AIC
- BIC
- Root MSE
- P-values

# Akaike's Information Criteria (AIC)

---

- Pronounced 'ah-kai-ee-kay'

$$AIC = \{2 \times (\# \text{ of parameters}) - 2 \log(L)\}$$

- where  $L$  is the maximized likelihood from the data
- Given a set of candidate models, the preferred model could be the one with the *minimum* AIC value
- Models don't need to be nested; don't need to have same covariates, but must have same outcome
- Dataset and number of observations must be the same
- (Same holds for adjusted R-squared)

# Akaike's Information Criteria (AIC)

---

- Here  $Y_i \sim N(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_{i1} + \beta_2 \cdot x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_p \cdot x_{ip}, \sigma^2)$   
or  $Y_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma^2)$

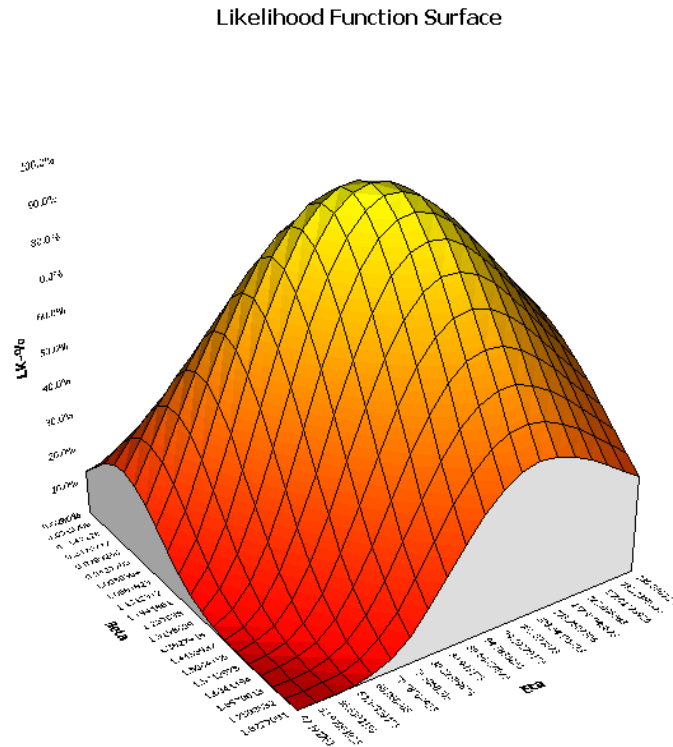
- The likelihood function is given by

$$L(\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^n \exp(-(y_i - \mu_i)^2 / 2\sigma^2) / \sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}$$

- The  $\beta$  vector (MLE) that maximizes this likelihood is also the least squares estimator (LSE) of  $\beta$

# Akaike's Information Criteria (AIC)

---



$AIC = \{2 \times (\text{\# of parameters}) - 2 \log(L)\}$  where  $L$  is the maximized likelihood (MLE) from the data

# Akaike's Information Criteria (AIC)

---

- A general rule of thumb is that models that differ by more than 2 AIC units are generally considered to “differ”.
- AIC is based on information theory, dealing with the trade-off between the goodness of fit of the model and the complexity of the model, but tells us nothing about the quality of the model in an absolute sense



# Akaike's Information Criteria (AIC)

---

- AIC is more useful in predictions of fitted values for future observations rather than estimation of  $\beta$  coefficients
- Usually more generous in allowing covariates than hypothesis testing (which recall is based on  $p$ -values)

# Bayesian Information Criteria (BIC)

---

- (Schwartz) Bayesian information criterion is given by
$$\text{BIC} = \log(N) \times (\# \text{ of parameters}) - 2 \log(L)$$
- Here  $L$  is the maximized likelihood from the data and  $N$  is the sample size
- Chooses model that maximizes the ‘posterior likelihood of the data, given the model’ (Bayes)
- As  $\log(N)$  gets bigger than 2 (most often), BIC becomes more restrictive in allowing covariates into model

# Bayesian Information Criteria (BIC)

---

- Given a set of candidate models, the preferred model could be the one with the *minimum* BIC value
- Is more restrictive than AIC in including covariates, though again more useful in predicting fitted values for future observations

# Bayesian Information Criteria (BIC)

---

- BIC:

$$\log(N) \times (\# \text{ of parameters}) - 2 \log(L)$$

Versus

- AIC:

$$2 \times (\# \text{ of parameters}) - 2 \log(L)$$

```
. regress pdi minutes vsd
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	142
Model	2266.77325	2	1133.38662	F(2, 139)	=	5.02
Residual	31391.8465	139	225.840622	Prob > F	=	0.0079
				R-squared	=	0.0673
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0539
Total	33658.6197	141	238.713615	Root MSE	=	15.028

pdi	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
minutes	-1351676	.0587281	-2.30	0.023	-.2512836 -.0190516
vsd	-5.245585	3.112904	-1.69	0.094	-11.40035 .9091801
_cons	101.0308	2.413607	41.86	0.000	96.25865 105.8029

```
. estat ic
```

Akaike's information criterion and Bayesian information criterion

Model	Obs	ll(null)	ll(model)	df	AIC	BIC
.	142	-589.7313	-584.7811	3	1175.562	1184.43

Note: N=Obs used in calculating BIC; see [R] BIC note.

```
. regress pdi dhca vsd
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	142
Model	2584.88318	2	1292.44159	F(2, 139)	=	5.78
Residual	31073.7365	139	223.552061	Prob > F	=	0.0039
				R-squared	=	0.0768
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0635
Total	33658.6197	141	238.713615	Root MSE	=	14.952

pdi	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
dhca	-6.534115	2.510433	-2.60	0.010	-11.49769 -1.570544
vsd	-6.629234	3.037331	-2.18	0.031	-12.63458 -.6238895
_cons	99.90491	1.917255	52.11	0.000	96.11415 103.6957

```
. estat ic
```

Akaike's information criterion and Bayesian information criterion

Model	Obs	ll(null)	ll(model)	df	AIC	BIC
.	142	-589.7313	-584.0579	3	1174.116	1182.983

Note: N=Obs used in calculating BIC; see [R] BIC note.

```
. regress pdi minutes vsd birthwt
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	142
Model	<del>3893.19946</del>	3	1297.73315	<del>F(3, 138)</del>	=	6.02
Residual	<del>29765.4203</del>	138	215.691451	<del>Prob &gt; F</del>	=	0.0007
				R-squared	=	0.1157
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0964
Total	<del>33658.6197</del>	141	238.713615	Root MSE	=	14.686

<del>pdi</del>	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
minutes	<del>1471749</del>	.0575597	-2.56	0.012	<del>-.2609878</del> <del>-.0333619</del>
<del>vsd</del>	<del>-4.71444</del>	3.048297	-1.55	0.124	<del>-10.74185</del> <del>1.312968</del>
<del>birthwt</del>	<del>.0081227</del>	.002958	2.75	0.007	<del>.0022738</del> <del>.0139715</del>
_cons	72.63161	10.60759	6.85	0.000	51.65719 93.60603

```
. estat ic
```

Akaike's information criterion and Bayesian information criterion

Model	Obs	ll(null)	ll(model)	df	AIC	BIC
.	142	-589.7313	-581.0038	4	1170.008	1181.831

Note: N=Obs used in calculating BIC; see [R] BIC note.

```
. regress pdi dhca vsd birthwt
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	142
Model	<del>4190.84279</del>	3	1396.9476	<del>F(3, 138)</del>	=	6.54
Residual	<del>29467.7769</del>	138	213.534615	<del>Prob &gt; F</del>	=	0.0004
				R-squared	=	0.1245
				Adj R-squared	=	0.1055
Total	<del>33658.6197</del>	141	238.713615	Root MSE	=	14.613

<del>pdi</del>	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
<del>dhca</del>	<del>-6.952038</del>	2.458269	-2.83	0.005	<del>-11.81278</del> <del>-2.091293</del>
<del>vsd</del>	<del>-6.224385</del>	2.972168	-2.09	0.038	<del>-12.10126</del> <del>-.3475067</del>
<del>birthwt</del>	<del>.0080636</del>	.0029403	2.74	0.007	<del>.0022497</del> <del>.0138775</del>
_cons	71.53173	10.51437	6.80	0.000	50.74162 92.32183

```
. estat ic
```

Akaike's information criterion and Bayesian information criterion

Model	Obs	ll(null)	ll(model)	df	AIC	BIC
.	142	-589.7313	-580.2903	4	1168.581	1180.404

Note: N=Obs used in calculating BIC; see [R] BIC note.

# Comparisons of AIC and BIC

---

- AIC is relatively liberal, allowing for the inclusion of simple continuous or binary predictors
- In contrast, BIC imposes progressively more restrictive constraints as  $N$  increases, leading to a more parsimonious model (e.g.,  $p < 0.05$  in samples of about 50,  $p < 0.01$  in samples of about 500, and  $p < 0.009$  in samples of about size 1000)

# Comparisons of AIC and BIC

---

- Because both depend on the number of parameters, they set the bar higher for multi-parameter situations, e.g., the inclusion of age categories (rather than continuous age) and the inclusion of restricted cubic splines (using multiple parameters to adjust for the covariate)



# Bootstrapping Stepwise Selection

---

- Bootstrapping is based on random sampling with replacement from your original dataset, to make other samples (provided original sample is large enough)
- Stata allows bootstrapping of stepwise selection models to assess how often a covariate will be included (say 50% of the time)

```
ssc install swboot
```

```
swboot y x1 x2 x3, reps(1000)
```

- May be challenging to use with correlated covariates; SAS and R can do this similarly

# Validation

---

- Comparing fits with an external validation dataset (try to replicate results in a comparable study)
- Breaking your dataset into test and validation datasets; fit model on test dataset and validate it on the validation dataset (need big enough N)
- Cross-validation (e.g., delete one methods; or break up data into ten groups, fit data on nine groups and validate on the tenth, repeat ten times)

# Collinearity

---

- Highly correlated predictor variables can lead to inflated standard errors of regression coefficients or large  $p$ -values and competing similar covariates when making a model selection
- Collinearity can make it difficult to estimate and interpret a particular regression coefficient (as the effect on  $Y$  of one unit increase in  $x_i$  when  $x_i$  is highly correlated with other covariates)
- May not reach model convergence. Software isn't going to tell you what you're doing wrong.

# Collinearity

---

- VIF: Some people assess variance inflation factors (VIF) which works with 'sets' of potentially collinear variables coming into the model, though VIF is not always informative (some prefer pre-model decisions versus calculation during modeling).
- VIF describes “the amount of an ‘X’ that is described by other ‘Xs’ in the model.” .....sound familiar?

$$\text{VIF} = 1/(1-R_j^2)$$

where  $R_j^2$  is the unadjusted coefficient of variation between variable  $j$  and the other variables.

# Collinearity

---

- $VIF > 2$  raises concern;  $VIF > 10$  prompts action
- Usually you know more about your covariates in advance and can plan for possible collinearity by data reduction methods (include some function of FEV and FVC; perhaps the avg of both parents' education level; BMI, etc)
- No reason why you should not know about collinearity well in advance of building your model (based on scatterplots, correlation coefficients, etc.)

# Collinearity

## Analysis of Variance

Source	DF	Seq SS	Seq MS	F-Value	P-Value
Regression	6	557.844	92.974	560.64	0.000
Age	1	243.266	243.266	1466.91	0.000
Weight	1	311.910	311.910	1880.84	0.000
BSA	1	1.768	1.768	10.66	0.006
Dur	1	0.335	0.335	2.02	0.179
Pulse	1	0.123	0.123	0.74	0.405
Stress	1	0.442	0.442	2.67	0.126
Error	13	2.156	0.166		
Total	19	560.000			

## Model Summary

S	R-sq	R-sq(adj)	R-sq(pred)
0.407229	99.62%	99.44%	99.08%

## Coefficients

Term	Coef	SE Coef	T-Value	P-Value	VIF
Constant	-12.87	2.56	-5.03	0.000	
Age	0.7033	0.0496	14.18	0.000	1.76
Weight	0.9699	0.0631	15.37	0.000	8.42
BSA	3.78	1.58	2.39	0.033	5.33
Dur	0.0684	0.0484	1.41	0.182	1.24
Pulse	-0.0845	0.0516	-1.64	0.126	4.41
Stress	0.00557	0.00341	1.63	0.126	1.83

# Data Reduction Methods

---

- Using some, but not all, of your covariates, based on subject matter knowledge (more off the start is not necessarily better)
- Eliminate some variables because of narrow distributions (ie only 5 'training time' in N=488) or large numbers of missing values (careful here...)
- Averaging certain correlated covariates (perhaps after scaling) Ex: FEV, FVC type measures, or BMI

# Data Reduction Methods

---

- Use principal components (PCA), which are weighted averages of your original data values in an attempt to summarize them with fewer components
- PCA utilizes eigenvalues and eigenvectors (and concept of orthogonality), thus breaking down the collinearity
- Typically only use the first 2-3 principal components
- Could be very difficult to interpret
- Common in data mining techniques



# Summary

---

- Both a pro and con of various model selection techniques = 'you're not over-thinking it'
- Make sure you're giving input, putting a lot of thought into the process, not handing entirely over to software (force lower order terms into model, awareness of collinearity, model makes clinical sense, etc)

# Next

---

- Hypothesis testing and Confidence intervals for multiple coefficients (aka 'multiple coefficient testing')
- More examples!

# Recall: Multiple Linear Regression

---

- Model:  $E(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_{i1} + \beta_2 \cdot x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_p \cdot x_{ip}$ 
  - $E(Y_i)$  = expected value of  $Y$  for a given set of covariates,  $x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ip}$
  - $\beta_0$  = intercept, or constant term, corresponding to the mean value of  $Y$  when all covariates = 0
  - $\beta_j$  = slope, or the change in  $Y$  corresponding to a 1 unit increase in the  $j^{\text{th}}$  covariate,  $x_j$ , holding all the other covariates constant

# Recall: Hypothesis Testing for a Single $\beta$ Coefficient

---

- To test  $H_0: \beta_i = 0$  vs.  $H_A: \beta_i \neq 0$  we usually use the (Wald) test statistic

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_i - 0}{s.e.(\hat{\beta}_i)}$$

using  $n - (p + 1)$  degrees of freedom

- This test is *exact* if the LINE assumptions hold
- For large  $n$ , an approximate test could use 1.96 as the cutoff value

# Recall: Hypothesis Testing for a Single $\beta$ Coefficient

---

- To test  $H_0: \beta_i = 10$  vs.  $H_A: \beta_i \neq 10$  we use the test statistic

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_i - 10}{s.e.(\hat{\beta}_i)}$$

using  $n - (p + 1)$  degrees of freedom

# Recall: Confidence Interval for a Single $\beta$ Coefficient

---

- A  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $\beta_i$  is given by

$$\hat{\beta}_i \pm t_{n-(p+1), 1-\alpha/2} s.e.(\hat{\beta}_i)$$

- This confidence interval is *exact* if the LINE assumptions hold
- For large  $n$ , an *approximate* 95% confidence interval could use 1.96 as the cutoff value

# New: Hypothesis Testing for Multiple $\beta$ Coefficients

---

- To test  $H_0: \beta_i = \beta_j$  or  $H_0: \beta_i - \beta_j = 0$  vs.  $H_A: \beta_i - \beta_j \neq 0$
- We use the test statistic

$$t = \frac{(\hat{\beta}_i - \hat{\beta}_j) - 0}{s.e.(\hat{\beta}_i - \hat{\beta}_j)}$$

using  $n - (p + 1)$  degrees of freedom

- But, what is the denominator?

# Hypothesis Testing for Multiple $\beta$ Coefficients

---

- By definition,

$$\begin{aligned} Var(\hat{\beta}_i - \hat{\beta}_j) = & Var(\hat{\beta}_i) + Var(\hat{\beta}_j) \\ & - 2Cov(\hat{\beta}_i, \hat{\beta}_j) \end{aligned}$$

- We need to get the variance/covariance matrix of the  $\beta$  coefficients in order to calculate this



# Hypothesis Testing for Multiple $\beta$ Coefficients

---

- Also,

$$s.e.(\hat{\beta}_i - \hat{\beta}_j) = \sqrt{Var(\hat{\beta}_i - \hat{\beta}_j)}$$

- From this one can calculate the test statistic by hand, although usually a computer package is used

# Hypothesis Testing for Multiple $\beta$ Coefficients (Nested Models)

---

- To test  $H_0: \beta_i = 0, \beta_j = 0, \beta_k = 0$  vs.  $H_A$ : At least one of  $\beta_i, \beta_j$ , and  $\beta_k$  are  $\neq 0$
- Use an  $F$  test statistic, based on comparing the residual sums of square of the models including and excluding these coefficients

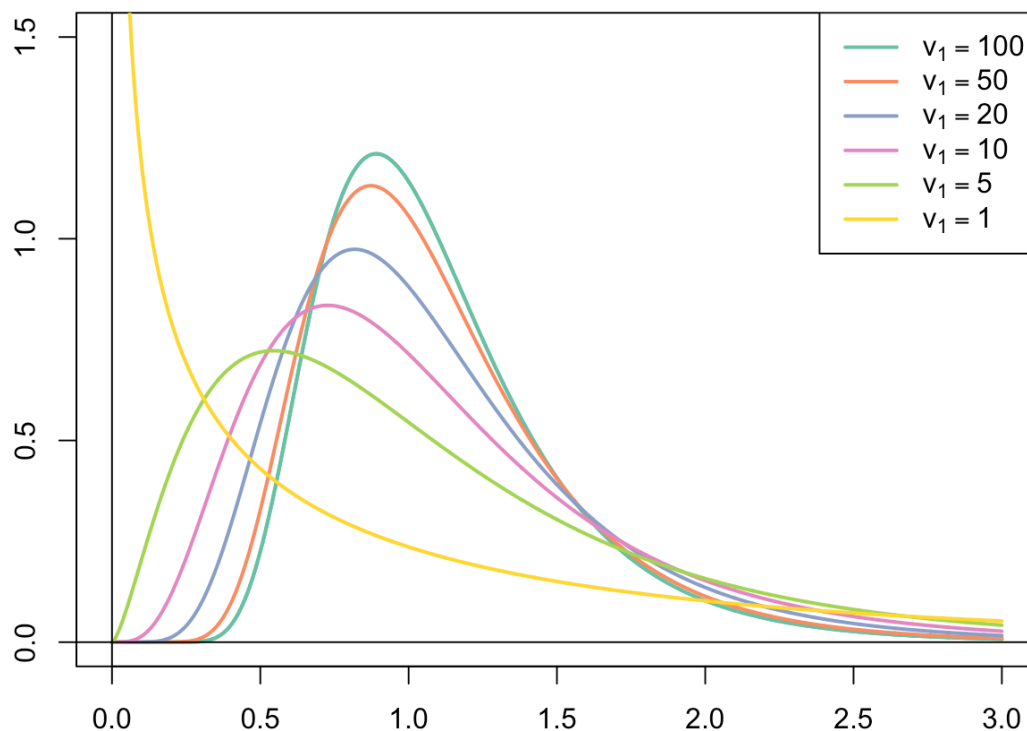
$$F = \frac{(RSS_{reduced} - RSS_{full})/3}{RSS_{full}/(n - (p + 1))}$$

using 3 numerator and  $n - (p + 1)$  denominator degrees of freedom

# Quick review of F-distribution

$$F = \frac{Y_1/v_1}{Y_2/v_2}$$

Densities of F-distribution with  $v_1 = 1, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100$  and  $v_2 = 20$



# Hypothesis Testing for Multiple $\beta$ Coefficients (Nested Models)

---

- In general, if we have a full model with  $p$  covariates and a reduced model with  $q$  covariates that is nested within the more complex full model, then

$$F = \frac{(RSS_{reduced} - RSS_{full}) / (p - q)}{RSS_{full} / (n - (p + 1))}$$

using  $p - q$  numerator and  $n - (p + 1)$  denominator degrees of freedom

# Hypothesis Testing for Multiple $\beta$ Coefficients (Nested Models)

---

- Caveat: You need to make sure that the samples used in both regression models is the same (so the sample sizes used in both models should be the same)
- This could be a problem if you have some missing covariates
- This can be ameliorated by limiting the regressions to exactly the same sample

# Hypothesis Testing for Multiple $\beta$ Coefficients (Full Model)

- As a special case, most software packages perform a test of whether or not all of the  $p$  (non-intercept) covariates are equal to zero or not using a  $F$  test with  $p$  numerator and  $n - (p + 1)$  denominator df

```
. regress pdi minutes vsd
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	142
Model	2266.77325	2	1133.38662	F(2, 139)	=	5.02
Residual	31391.8465	139	225.840622	Prob > F	=	0.0079
Total	33658.6197	141	238.713615	R-squared	=	0.0673
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0539
				Root MSE	=	15.028

	<u>pdi</u>	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
minutes		-.1351676	.0587281	-2.30	0.023	-.2512836    -.0190516
<u>vsd</u>		-5.245585	3.112904	-1.69	0.094	-11.40035    .9091801
_cons		101.0308	2.413607	41.86	0.000	96.25865    105.8029

# Hypothesis Testing for Multiple $\beta$ Coefficients (Nested Models)

---

Example:

Model 9:  $E[Y] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$

Model 10:  $E[Y] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \text{Spline}(x)/\text{GAM}(x)$

Write out the model!

```
mod11=lm(y~x)
mod12=lm(y~x+bSpline(x, df=6, degree = 3))
## or use GAM mod10=gam(y~x+s(x,4))
anova(mod11,mod12)
```

# Hypothesis Testing for Multiple $\beta$ Coefficients (Nested Models)

---

Example continued:

```
## Analysis of Variance Table
##
## Model 1: y ~ x
## Model 2: y ~ x + bSpline(x, df = 6, degree = 3)
##   Res.Df    RSS Df Sum of Sq    F    Pr(>F)
## 1      98 6036003
## 2      93  80004  5   5955999 1384.7 < 2.2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

Interpretation?

Highly significant F test, suggesting nonlinear effect of x on y.



# Hypothesis Testing for Multiple $\beta$ Coefficients (Nested Models)

---

Example: What does the model represent?

$$E[Y] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \beta_3 x^3 + \beta_4 (x - a)_+^3 + \beta_5 (x - b)_+^3 + \beta_6 (x - c)_+^3$$

What does this hypothesis test do?

$$H_0 : \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \beta_4 = \beta_5 = \beta_6 = 0$$

$H_A$ : At least one is not equal to zero

Why does the F statistic have  $df(5, 93)$ ?

# Hypothesis Testing for Multiple $\beta$ Coefficients (Nested Models)

---

Example: What does the following model test?

```
mod13=lm(y~x+x^2)
mod14=gam(y~x+x^2+s(x))
anova(mod13,mod14)
```

```
## Analysis of Variance Table
##
## Model 1: y ~ x + x^2
## Model 2: y ~ x + x^2 + s(x)
##   Res.Df    RSS      Df Sum of Sq      F    Pr(>F)
## 1      98 6036003
## 2      94  192375 3.9998   5843628 713.88 < 2.2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

## (for reference from Lecture 7)

# Piecewise Cubic Splines

---

- For knot points at  $a < b < c$  for a continuous covariate  $x$ , the cubic spline function is given by

$$\begin{aligned} E(Y) = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \beta_3 x^3 \\ & + \beta_4 (x - a)_+^3 + \beta_5 (x - b)_+^3 \\ & + \beta_6 (x - c)_+^3 \end{aligned}$$

- Thus,  $k$  knot points would lead to a model with  $k + 4$  parameters (including the intercept)

# Linear Regression Assumptions and Extensions

---

- What if LINE assumptions are not exactly satisfied for linear regression modeling?
- Some extensions of linear regression

# Multiple Linear Regression

---

- Model:  $E(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_{i1} + \beta_2 \cdot x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_p \cdot x_{ip}$ 
  - $E(Y_i)$  = expected value of  $Y$  for a given set of covariates,  $x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ip}$
  - $\beta_0$  = intercept, or constant term, corresponding to the mean value of  $Y$  when all covariates = 0
  - $\beta_j$  = slope, or the change in  $Y$  corresponding to a 1 unit increase in the  $j^{\text{th}}$  covariate,  $x_j$ , holding all the other covariates constant

# Multiple Linear Regression

---

- LINE for  $E(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_{i1} + \beta_2 \cdot x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_p \cdot x_{ip}$ 
  - The mean of  $Y$  is a linear function of the covariates (quadratic terms, regression spline, etc. are okay)
  - All responses are independent
  - The residuals are normally distributed
  - The residuals have equal variance (homoscedasticity)

# What if LINE Not Satisfied?

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- L: Specification of the model for  $E(Y)$  needs to be correct – otherwise all bets are off and there is no reason to get consistency of estimates of  $\beta$ , even for large samples, for an incorrect specification of the regression model

# What if LINE Not Satisfied?

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- I: Independence is required in order for standard errors to be estimated appropriately – methods need to be extended if you have correlated or longitudinal responses
- However, generalized estimating equations (GEEs) for correlated responses with working independence would give the same  $\beta$  estimates (but need to “fix” the s.e. estimates so they are appropriate)



# What if LINE Not Satisfied?

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- N and E: Here is where we can relax the assumptions a bit. In fact, provided that the residuals have mean zero and finite variance, we don't have to have that they are normally distributed or have equal variance.
- Well, the residuals will have mean zero with an intercept in the model, one can show

# What if LINE Not Satisfied?

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- N and E: The scope is for inference class, but one can show that  $E(\hat{\beta}) = \beta$  for the least squares estimator if the residuals have mean 0, and even when the residuals are not normal or homoscedastic
- Great for estimating  $\beta$ , but what about s.e. estimates, p-values, etc.? Surely the inferences are affected by the nonnormality

# What if LINE Not Satisfied?

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- N and E: Because N and E aren't satisfied, we need to “adjust” the usual s.e. estimates of the  $\beta$  coefficients
- These are called robust standard errors, or Huber-White standard errors, or sandwich standard errors, or GEE standard errors (with independent responses)
- Given these, one can calculate CI's and P-values

# What if LINE Not Satisfied?

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- N and E: These standard errors can be calculated easily in most packages
- And, since these s.e. estimates will get smaller as the sample size gets larger, we will still get consistency of the  $\beta$  estimates

# What if LINE Not Satisfied?

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- Some might recommend using the robust s.e. estimates all the time (rather than the usual s.e. estimates), but:
  - these don't lead to exact  $t$  tests or  $F$  tests
  - they are asymptotic (large sample) s.e.'s, not “exact” for small samples, as the  $t$ -based CIs are for normal, homoscedastic errors
  - there are no  $\hat{\sigma}^2$ , adjusted  $R^2$ , MSE, AIC, BIC, leverages, studentized residuals, Cook's distances, etc.

# Alternate Approaches

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- *Weighted least squares* could be used when the residuals are normally distributed but have unequal variance
- But, you need to develop a way of setting  $Var(Y_i)$  as a function of covariates

# Alternate Approaches

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- Various *robust regression methods* have been proposed that down-weight high residual observations, so as to give them less effect on the estimation of  $\beta$

# Bottom Line

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- If you can verify the LINE assumptions through model assessment (histograms of residuals, QQ plots, etc.), then would usually prefer to stick with “ordinary” least squares and multiple linear regression analysis
- But, it can be useful to use these robust methods when the N and E assumptions are not exactly satisfied, or to compare them at the end to your usual s.e. estimates



# Many Extensions

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- *Nonlinear least squares*, when the model for the mean is a nonlinear function of the  $\beta$  coefficients, perhaps still with normally distributed errors

# Many Extensions: Longitudinal

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- *Random or mixed effects models*, which allow some  $\beta$  coefficients to vary by subject when you have repeated measures on subjects
- *Generalized estimating equations* for adjusting the s.e. estimates, even if the model for the covariances are incorrect
- *Conditional models, time series models*, etc.
- (Focus of BST 226)

# Coming Up

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- Start of logistic regression! – odds ratios, logits, interpretation of logistic regression coefficients