Advanced Regression Methods for Independent Data

STAT/BIOST 570, 2020

Practical Aspects of Normal Linear Models

Mauricio Sadinle

Department of Biostatistics

University of Washington

msadinle@uw.edu

Practical Aspects of Normal Linear Models

- Data example
- Functions to fit linear models in R
- Diagnostics for detecting violations of the model's assumptions

Assumptions of the Normal Linear Model

So far, we have derived results to perform inference under the normal linear model:

$$\mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{X} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n).$$

For these inferences to be valid we need the assumptions of the model to hold:

- Homoscedasticity: $var(\mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{X}) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n$
 - The errors (and thus the Y_i 's at each \mathbf{x}_i) have constant variance
- Normality: $\mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{X} \sim N[\mu(\mathbf{X}), \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n]$
 - The errors (and thus the Y_i 's at each \mathbf{x}_i) are normally distributed
- ullet Correct specification of the linear model: $E(\mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{X}) = \mu(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$
 - There is a linear relationship between Y_i and \mathbf{x}_i given by $\mathsf{E}(Y_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{x}_i \boldsymbol{\beta}$

Are these assumptions reasonable given our data?

Assumptions of the Normal Linear Model

Other considerations:

- Are there single points that determine our conclusions? Outliers?
- Did we skip other possible covariates that should be included in the model?
- Are the errors independent? (see 571)

- Goal: to assess the adequacy of assumptions underlying a confirmatory analysis, or to be used for model exploration
- Not to be viewed as a way of avoiding careful initial thought about the model, especially in a confirmatory analysis
- Inference (confirmatory analysis) requires the model to *not* have been chosen on the basis of the current data set, otherwise, inferences are invalid!

• In a frequentist analysis, the operating characteristics seen in this class (e.g. coverage of confidence intervals, error rates of hypothesis tests) are based upon repeated sampling under the same fixed model

- In a frequentist analysis, the operating characteristics seen in this class (e.g. coverage of confidence intervals, error rates of hypothesis tests) are based upon repeated sampling under the same fixed model
- Inferences under a model selected using the data will lead to understatements of variability or overconfidence in your results

- In a frequentist analysis, the operating characteristics seen in this class (e.g. coverage of confidence intervals, error rates of hypothesis tests) are based upon repeated sampling under the same fixed model
- Inferences under a model selected using the data will lead to understatements of variability or overconfidence in your results
- Incidentally, *post-selection* inference is currently a very hot topic (lot's of new work, none of it covered here)

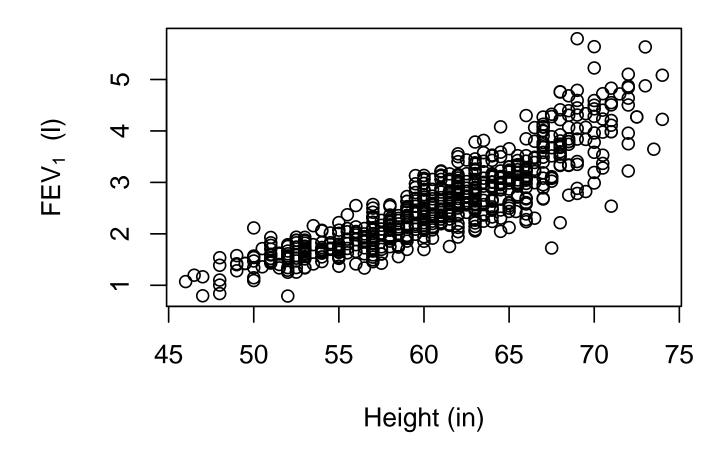
- FEV: forced expiratory volume. FEV1: amount of air you can force from your lungs in one second.
- Data from 654 children and youths ages 3–19 in East Boston, 1980. (Childhood Respiratory Disease Study).
- For more information visit: http://www.statsci.org/data/general/fev.html

```
> url <- "http://www.statsci.org/data/general/fev.txt"
> data <- read.table(file = url, header = T, sep="\t", stringsAsFactors = F)
> data$Sex <- factor(data$Sex, levels=c("Male", "Female"), labels=c(0,1))
> data$Smoker <- factor(data$Smoker, levels=c("Non", "Current"), labels=c(0,1))
> head(data)
```

```
FEV Height Sex Smoker
    ID Age
 301
                  57.0
        9 1.708
                          1
2 451
        8 1.724
                  67.5
                                 0
3 501
        7 1.720
                  54.5
                  53.0
4 642
        9 1.558
                         0
  901
        9 1.895
                  57.0
                         0
6 1701
        8 2.336
                  61.0
```

Let's first consider an exploratory analysis:

Can FEV1 be predicted from something more easily measured, such as height?



```
Let's start assuming E(FEV1 \mid Height) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Height (to illustrate how to detect problems with a model; this model is not going to be the greatest) The R function 1m fits linear models: $> model <- 1m(FEV \sim Height, data=data)$
```

```
Let's start assuming E(FEV1 \mid Height) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Height (to illustrate how to detect problems with a model; this model is not going to be the greatest) The R function 1m fits linear models: 
> model < -1m(FEV \sim Height, data = data)

Exact t-test assuming normal i.i.d. errors 
> coef(summary(model))

Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|) (Intercept) -5.4326788 \ 0.181459887 \ -29.93873 \ 1.453077e - 124 Height 0.1319756 \ 0.002954958 \ 44.66241 \ 1.574556e - 200
```

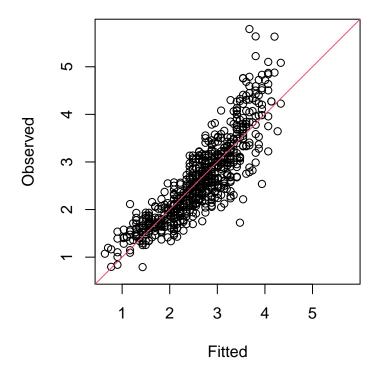
```
Let's start assuming E(FEV1 \mid Height) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Height
(to illustrate how to detect problems with a model; this model is not going to be the greatest)
The R function 1m fits linear models:
> model <- lm(FEV ~ Height, data=data)</pre>
Exact t-test assuming normal i.i.d. errors
> coef(summary(model))
                                                   Pr(>|t|)
              Estimate Std. Error t value
(Intercept) -5.4326788 0.181459887 -29.93873 1.453077e-124
             0.1319756 0.002954958 44.66241 1.574556e-200
Height
Confidence intervals
> confint(model, level = 0.95)
                 2.5 %
                       97.5 %
(Intercept) -5.7889951 -5.076363
```

0.1261732 0.137778

Height

Does the model have a decent fit? An observed vs. fitted plot:

```
> limits <- range(data$FEV, fitted(model))
> plot(fitted(model), data$FEV, xlab="Fitted", ylab="Observed", xlim=limits, ylim=limits)
> abline(a=0, b=1, col=2)
```



We want all points to lie around the diagonal. Not a great model, as expected.

Diagnostics: Residuals

Goal: Identify points that are not well fit by the model

- Raw residuals: $e = (e_1, \dots, e_n)^T$, with $e_i = Y_i \hat{Y}_i = Y_i \mathbf{x}_i \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$
- 'Hat' matrix: $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T$
- Note that we had used **P** before to denote **H**, but the literature on diagnostics prefers **H** for 'hat' matrix, since **H** 'puts a hat' on **Y**:

$$\mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \hat{\mathbf{Y}}$$

Diagnostics: Residuals

Goal: Identify points that are not well fit by the model

- Raw residuals: $e = (e_1, \dots, e_n)^T$, with $e_i = Y_i \hat{Y}_i = Y_i \mathbf{x}_i \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$
- 'Hat' matrix: $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T$
- Note that we had used P before to denote H, but the literature on diagnostics prefers H for 'hat' matrix, since H 'puts a hat' on Y:

$$\mathsf{H}\mathsf{Y}=\mathsf{X}\widehat{\beta}=\widehat{\mathsf{Y}}$$

• Under i.i.d. errors $var(e \mid \mathbf{X}) = var[(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H})$, so letting h_i be the ith diagonal element of \mathbf{H} ,

$$\operatorname{var}(e_i \mid \mathbf{X}) = \sigma^2(1 - h_i)$$
 and $\frac{e_i}{\widehat{\sigma}\sqrt{(1 - h_i)}}$

has mean zero and variance 1 in large samples if the model is correct.

• These residuals are called both 'standardized' (MASS R package, Wakefield) and 'internally studentized' (Seber and Lee).

Diagnostics: Residuals

- The value of $\hat{\sigma}^2$ can be influenced by poorly fit points.
- May prefer to use 'externally studentized' (Seber and Lee) or 'studentized' (MASS R package)
 residuals

$$\frac{e_i}{\widehat{\sigma}_{(i)}\sqrt{(1-h_i)}}$$

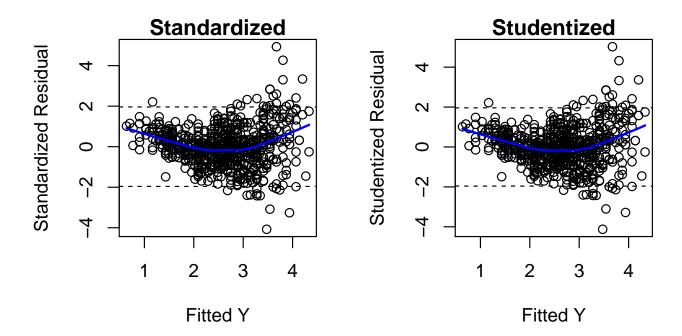
that replace $\hat{\sigma}^2$ with $\hat{\sigma}_{(i)}^2$: the estimate of σ^2 based on all observations but the *i*th (Why is this better?)

• Under normality of \mathbf{Y} , can show that these have a t_{n-k-2} distribution conditional on \mathbf{X} . (Seber and Lee, Chapter 10.)

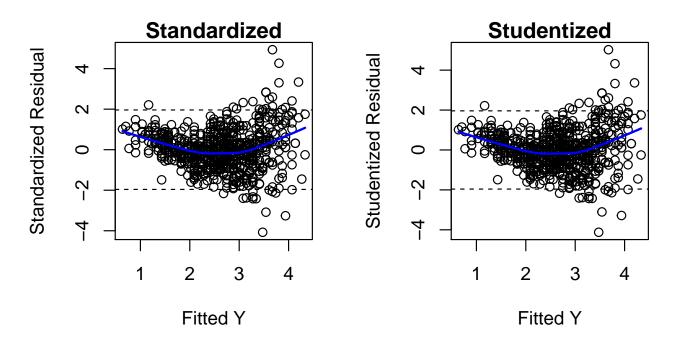
Continuing with our example

```
> library(MASS)
> estd <- stdres(model) # Standardized residuals
> estud <- studres(model) # Studentized residuals
> yhat <- predict(model)

> par(mfrow = c(1,2))
> plot(yhat, estd, ylab = "Standardized Residual", xlab = "Fitted Y")
> lines(lowess(yhat, estd), lwd = 2, col = "blue")
> abline(h = 1.96, lty = 2)
> abline(h = -1.96, lty = 2)
> title(main = "Standardized")
> plot(yhat, estud, ylab = "Studentized Residual", xlab = "Fitted Y")
> lines(lowess(yhat, estud), lwd = 2, col = "blue")
> abline(h = 1.96, lty = 2)
> abline(h = -1.96, lty = 2)
> title(main = "Studentized")
```



Linearity? Constant variance? Outliers?

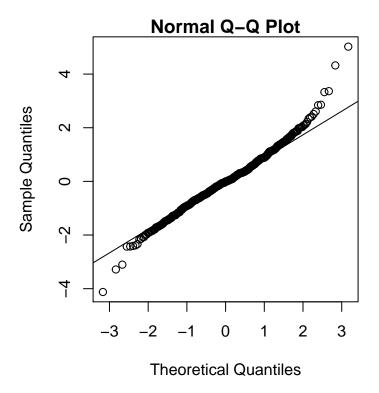


Linearity? Constant variance? Outliers?

- Homoscedasticity assumption is not justified
- Mean model (regression function) is misspecified
- How about normality?

If we still want to check normality of errors, we may check QQ plot of some type of the residuals: this compares the quantiles of a dataset with those of the standard normal.

- > qqnorm(estud)
- > qqline(estud)



In this case we have evidence of heavier tails than under the standard normal.

Also, there are lots of tests of normality available:

- Kolmogorov-Smirnov
- Lilliefors
- Shapiro-Wilk
- Anderson-Darling
- Cramer-von Mises
- D'Agostino
- Anscombe-Glynn
- D'Agostino-Pearson
- Jarque-Bera
- Martinez-Iglewicz

• To measure the influence of the *i*th observation on the coefficient estimates, it can be useful to compute

$$\Delta \beta_{(i)} = \hat{\beta} - \hat{\beta}_{(i)}$$

where $\widehat{\beta}_{(i)}$ is the OLS estimate of $oldsymbol{eta}$ based on all observations but the ith.

- Measures how much higher or lower each element of $\widehat{\beta}$ becomes when the ith observation is added to the data.
- Observations for which this difference is 'large' for an element β_j of β have a high influence on the estimation of β_j .
- These diagnostics are a good practice regardless of whether your inferences are fully parametric.

- Usually only care about $\Delta \beta$'s for coefficients of interest, or linear combinations of them.
- Can identify important data errors, or influential single observations that should be reported.
- Computation:

$$\Delta oldsymbol{eta}_{(i)} = \widehat{oldsymbol{eta}} - \widehat{oldsymbol{eta}}_{(i)} = rac{(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{x}_i^Te_i}{1-h_i}$$

(details in Seber & Lee, Theorem 10.1).

• This is implemented in R as dfbeta

- ullet We can also examine influence on the test statistic or p-value, but this does depend on the assumptions of the model being used
- Easy to compute difference in test statistic if the sample size is not large

$$\Delta t_{j(i)} = \frac{\widehat{\beta}_j}{\operatorname{se}(\widehat{\beta}_j)} - \frac{\widehat{\beta}_{j(i)}}{\operatorname{se}(\widehat{\beta}_{j(i)})}$$

and the associated $\Delta p_{j(i)}$ (the change in p-values)

For homoscedastic linear models

$$\widehat{\operatorname{var}}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{(i)}) = \widehat{\sigma}_{(i)}^2(\mathbf{X}_{(i)}^T\mathbf{X}_{(i)})^{-1},$$

with $\mathbf{X}_{(i)}$ obtained from removing the ith row from \mathbf{X} , and

$$\hat{\sigma}_{(i)}^2 = \frac{1}{n-k-2} \left[(n-k-1)\hat{\sigma}^2 - \frac{e_i^2}{1-h_i} \right]$$

(see SL, p. 268)

• $\operatorname{se}(\widehat{\beta}_{j(i)})$ is the square root of the jth diagonal entry of $\widehat{\operatorname{var}}(\widehat{\beta}_{(i)})$

ullet R implements an approximation of $\Delta t_{j(i)}$ as dfbetas, given by

$$\Delta eta_{j(i)} / \sqrt{\widehat{\sigma}_{(i)}^2 (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})_j^{-1}}$$

with $(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})_j^{-1}$ being the jth diagonal entry of $(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}$

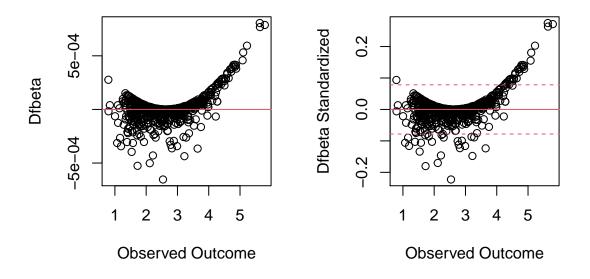
By looking at delta-betas, we can see whether the estimates and inferences are unduly influenced by a single observation.

- If nothing weird, lucky you!
- If yes, examine data points for validity
 - if not valid, omit or correct
 - if valid, make scientific judgement of which $\widehat{\beta}$ is primary and report both.

Continuing with our example

```
> deltabetas <- dfbeta(model)
> deltabetas_st <- dfbetas(model)

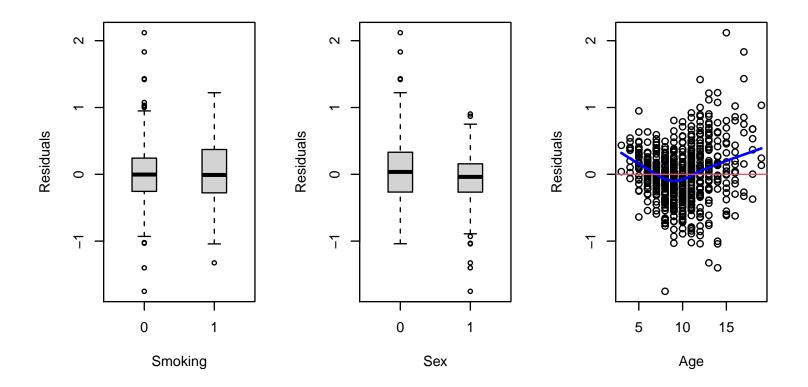
> par(mfrow=c(1,2))
> plot(data$FEV, deltabetas[,2], ylab = "Dfbeta", xlab = "Observed Outcome")
> abline(h=0, col=2)
> plot(data$FEV, deltabetas_st[,2], ylab = "Dfbeta Standardized", xlab = "Observed Outcome")
> abline(h=0, col=2);
> abline(h=2/sqrt(nrow(data)), lty=2, col=2); abline(h=-2/sqrt(nrow(data)), lty=2, col=2)
```



The standardized delta-betas are deemed to be of concern if larger than $2/\sqrt{n}$ in absolute value, but this guidance implicitly relies on the distribution of the test statistics to be approx. normal

How about other variables? Recommended to plot residuals vs. other variables

```
> par(mfrow = c(1,3))
> plot(model$residuals~data$Smoker, xlab = "Smoking", ylab = "Residuals",
+ col = 'lightgray', boxwex = .35)
> plot(model$residuals~data$Sex, xlab = "Sex", ylab = "Residuals",
+ col = 'lightgray', boxwex = .35)
> plot(data$Age, model$residuals, xlab = "Age", ylab = "Residuals",)
> lines(lowess(data$Age, model$residuals), lwd = 2, col = "blue")
> abline(h=0, col=2)
```

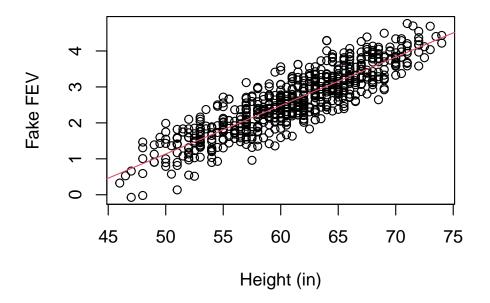


No surprises here, this model is terrible!

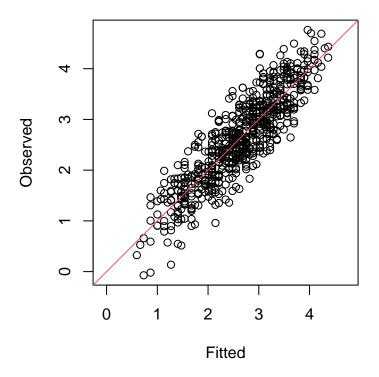
- The assumptions of the normal linear model do not hold in the previous example, but how would the diagnostics look like if the model was correct?
- Since we have a fully parametric model, we can simulate fake data from it!

Fake data generated from the model:

```
> n_samp <- nrow(data)
> sd_error <- summary(model)$sigma # estimate of the error std. dev.
> set.seed(32)
> Y_ideal <- fitted(model) + rnorm(n_samp, 0, sd_error) # fake responses according to fitted model
> model_ideal <- lm(Y_ideal ~ data$Height) # re-fit model using fake response
> plot(Y_ideal ~ data$Height, xlab = "Height (in)", ylab = "Fake FEV")
> abline(coef(model_ideal), col=2)
```



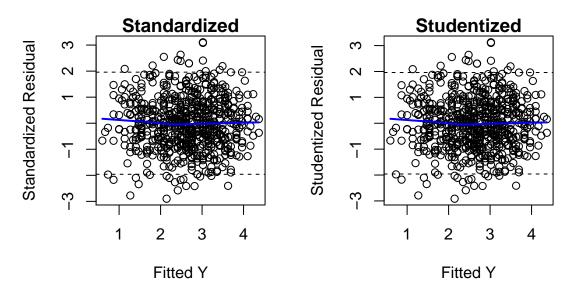
Ideal fitted vs observed plot:



(even if the model is correct, these plots could make you think there's something wrong)

Residual plots:

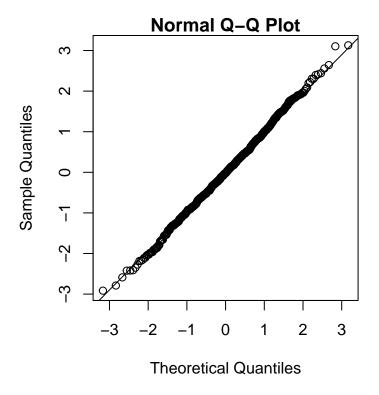
```
> estd_ideal <- stdres(model_ideal); estud_ideal <- studres(model_ideal)
> yhat_ideal <- fitted(model_ideal); par(mfrow = c(1,2))
> plot(yhat_ideal, estd_ideal, ylab = "Standardized Residual", xlab = "Fitted Y")
> lines(lowess(yhat_ideal, estd_ideal), lwd = 2, col = "blue")
> abline(h = 1.96, lty = 2); abline(h = -1.96, lty = 2); title(main = "Standardized")
> plot(yhat_ideal, estud_ideal, ylab = "Studentized Residual", xlab = "Fitted Y")
> lines(lowess(yhat_ideal, estud_ideal), lwd = 2, col = "blue")
> abline(h = 1.96, lty = 2); abline(h = -1.96, lty = 2); title(main = "Studentized")
```



(residuals don't have to all be between -2 and 2, trend line doesn't have to be exactly flat)

Q-Q plot:

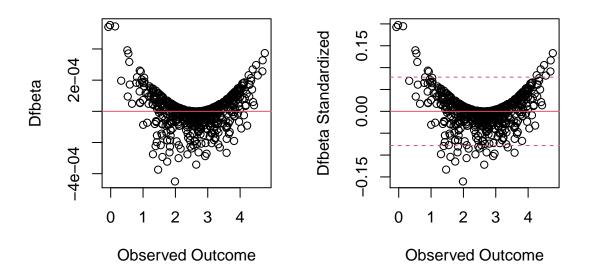
- > qqnorm(estud_ideal)
- > qqline(estud_ideal)



(even if the model is correct, upper/lower quantile pairs are more affected by variability)

Dfbetas:

```
> deltabetas_ideal <- dfbeta(model_ideal); deltabetas_st_ideal <- dfbetas(model_ideal)
> par(mfrow=c(1,2))
> plot(Y_ideal, deltabetas_ideal[,2], ylab = "Dfbeta", xlab = "Observed Outcome")
> abline(h=0, col=2)
> plot(Y_ideal, deltabetas_st_ideal[,2], ylab = "Dfbeta Standardized", xlab = "Observed Outcome")
> abline(h=0, col=2)
> abline(h=2/sqrt(nrow(data)), lty=2, col=2); abline(h=-2/sqrt(nrow(data)), lty=2, col=2)
```



(the threshold $2/\sqrt{n}$ for detecting influential points is simply a rough guide; better to compare dfbetas across observations: is there one that is orders of magnitude larger than the rest?)

Recap on Model Exploration

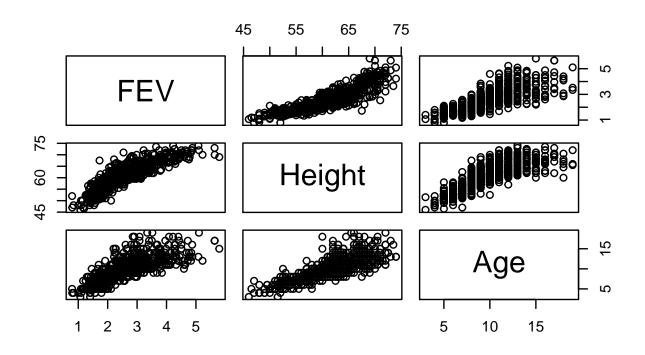
Traditionally, *iterative model building* follows these steps:

- Start with a model, check its assumptions against the data using diagnostics
- If something is off, make adjustments to the model, and check assumptions again
- Repeat until finding a satisfactory fit

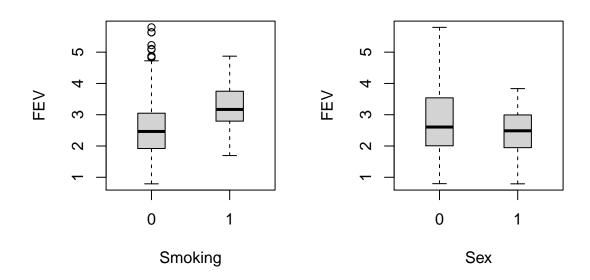
But how to choose the initial model?: Unless there is a strong scientific motivation, simple data exploration can inform the initial model

Model exploration usually starts with simple plots

> pairs(data[,c(3,4,2)])



```
> par(mfrow=c(1,2))
> plot(FEV ~ Smoker, data=data, xlab = "Smoking", ylab = "FEV",
+ col = 'lightgray', boxwex = .35)
> plot(FEV ~ Sex, data=data, xlab = "Sex", ylab = "FEV",
+ col = 'lightgray', boxwex = .35)
```



You may try a simple model first, say:

$$\mathsf{E}(\mathsf{FEV1} \mid \mathbf{X}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathsf{Height} + \beta_2 \mathsf{Height}^2 + \beta_3 \mathsf{Age} + \beta_4 I(\mathsf{Sex} = \mathsf{Female}) + \beta_5 I(\mathsf{Smoker} = \mathsf{Yes})$$

You may try a simple model first, say:

$$E(FEV1 \mid \mathbf{X}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Height + \beta_2 Height^2 + \beta_3 Age + \beta_4 I(Sex=Female) + \beta_5 I(Smoker=Yes)$$

Interpretation of individual parameters:

• β_3 : a child from this population who is one-year older than another one with the same height, sex and smoking status, is expected to have β_3 liters higher FEV (or $-\beta_3$ liters lower FEV).

You may try a simple model first, say:

$$E(FEV1 \mid X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Height + \beta_2 Height^2 + \beta_3 Age + \beta_4 I(Sex=Female) + \beta_5 I(Smoker=Yes)$$

Interpretation of individual parameters:

• β_3 : a child from this population who is one-year older than another one with the same height, sex and smoking status, is expected to have β_3 liters higher FEV (or $-\beta_3$ liters lower FEV).

Question: how about "for every one-year increase in a child's age we expect β_3 liters increase in FEV"?

You may try a simple model first, say:

$$\mathsf{E}(\mathsf{FEV1} \mid \mathbf{X}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathsf{Height} + \beta_2 \mathsf{Height}^2 + \beta_3 \mathsf{Age} + \beta_4 I(\mathsf{Sex} = \mathsf{Female}) + \beta_5 I(\mathsf{Smoker} = \mathsf{Yes})$$

Interpretation of individual parameters:

- β_3 : a child from this population who is one-year older than another one with the same height, sex and smoking status, is expected to have β_3 liters higher FEV (or $-\beta_3$ liters lower FEV). Question: how about "for every one-year increase in a child's age we expect β_3 liters increase in FEV"?
- β_4 : a girl from this population is expected to have β_4 liters higher FEV compared with a boy from this population with the same height, age and smoking status. (or $-\beta_4$ liters lower FEV). Analogous way of interpreting β_5 .

You may try a simple model first, say:

$$\mathsf{E}(\mathsf{FEV1} \mid \mathbf{X}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathsf{Height} + \beta_2 \mathsf{Height}^2 + \beta_3 \mathsf{Age} + \beta_4 I(\mathsf{Sex} = \mathsf{Female}) + \beta_5 I(\mathsf{Smoker} = \mathsf{Yes})$$

Interpretation of individual parameters:

- β_3 : a child from this population who is one-year older than another one with the same height, sex and smoking status, is expected to have β_3 liters higher FEV (or $-\beta_3$ liters lower FEV). Question: how about "for every one-year increase in a child's age we expect β_3 liters increase in FEV"?
- β_4 : a girl from this population is expected to have β_4 liters higher FEV compared with a boy from this population with the same height, age and smoking status. (or $-\beta_4$ liters lower FEV). Analogous way of interpreting β_5 .
- β_0 : nonsensical: expected FEV for a non-smoker boy who is zero years old and zero inches tall. Better approach: instead of Age and Height, use Age $-c_1$ and Height $-c_2$, where c_1 and c_2 are meaningful.

You may try a simple model first, say:

$$\mathsf{E}(\mathsf{FEV1} \mid \mathbf{X}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathsf{Height} + \beta_2 \mathsf{Height}^2 + \beta_3 \mathsf{Age} + \beta_4 I(\mathsf{Sex} = \mathsf{Female}) + \beta_5 I(\mathsf{Smoker} = \mathsf{Yes})$$

Interpretation of individual parameters:

- β_3 : a child from this population who is one-year older than another one with the same height, sex and smoking status, is expected to have β_3 liters higher FEV (or $-\beta_3$ liters lower FEV). Question: how about "for every one-year increase in a child's age we expect β_3 liters increase in FEV"?
- β_4 : a girl from this population is expected to have β_4 liters higher FEV compared with a boy from this population with the same height, age and smoking status. (or $-\beta_4$ liters lower FEV). Analogous way of interpreting β_5 .
- β_0 : nonsensical: expected FEV for a non-smoker boy who is zero years old and zero inches tall. Better approach: instead of Age and Height, use Age $-c_1$ and Height $-c_2$, where c_1 and c_2 are meaningful.
- β_1, β_2 : not as easy, could say " β_1 Height + β_2 Height² adjusts for height"

You may try a simple model first, say:

$$\mathsf{E}(\mathsf{FEV1} \mid \mathbf{X}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathsf{Height} + \beta_2 \mathsf{Height}^2 + \beta_3 \mathsf{Age} + \beta_4 I(\mathsf{Sex} = \mathsf{Female}) + \beta_5 I(\mathsf{Smoker} = \mathsf{Yes})$$

Interpretation of individual parameters:

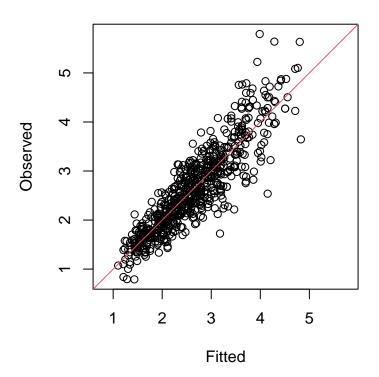
- β_3 : a child from this population who is one-year older than another one with the same height, sex and smoking status, is expected to have β_3 liters higher FEV (or $-\beta_3$ liters lower FEV). Question: how about "for every one-year increase in a child's age we expect β_3 liters increase in FEV"?
- β_4 : a girl from this population is expected to have β_4 liters higher FEV compared with a boy from this population with the same height, age and smoking status. (or $-\beta_4$ liters lower FEV). Analogous way of interpreting β_5 .
- β_0 : nonsensical: expected FEV for a non-smoker boy who is zero years old and zero inches tall. Better approach: instead of Age and Height, use Age $-c_1$ and Height $-c_2$, where c_1 and c_2 are meaningful.
- β_1, β_2 : not as easy, could say " β_1 Height + β_2 Height² adjusts for height"

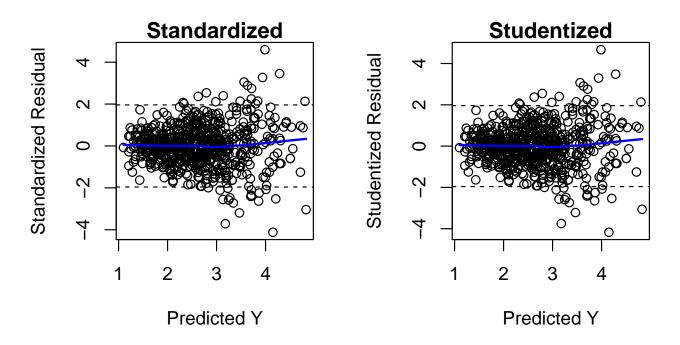
Does this model make scientific sense?

```
> data$HeightC <- data$Height - 60</pre>
> data$AgeC <- data$Age - 10</pre>
> data$HeightCSq <- data$HeightC^2</pre>
> model2 <- lm(FEV ~ HeightC + HeightCSq + Age + Sex + Smoker, data=data)
> round(coef(summary(model2)),2)
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)
                          0.09
                                 20.21
                                           0.00
               1.79
HeightC
               0.10
                          0.00
                                 21.99
                                           0.00
HeightCSq
               0.00
                          0.00 7.65
                                           0.00
                          0.01 7.63
                                           0.00
Age
               0.07
                          0.03
                                 -2.88
                                           0.00
Sex1
              -0.09
Smoker1
              -0.13
                          0.06
                                 -2.33
                                           0.02
```

Does the model have a decent fit?

```
> limits2 <- range(data$FEV, fitted(model2))
> plot(fitted(model2), data$FEV, xlab="Fitted", ylab="Observed", xlim=limits2, ylim=limits2)
> abline(a=0, b=1, col=2)
```





Lack of homoscedasticity seems to be the main issue here, even if we liked the mean model

Smoking

Residuals vs covariates

```
> par(mfrow = c(1,4))
> plot(model2$residuals ~ data$Smoker, xlab = "Smoking", ylab = "Residuals",
+ col = 'lightgray', boxwex = .35)
> plot(model2$residuals ~ data$Sex, xlab = "Sex", ylab = "Residuals",
+ col = 'lightgray', boxwex = .35)
> plot(data$Age, model2$residuals, xlab = "Age", ylab = "Residuals",)
> lines(lowess(data$Age, model2$residuals), lwd = 2, col = "blue")
> abline(h=0, col=2)
> plot(data$Height, model2$residuals, xlab = "Height", ylab = "Residuals",)
> lines(lowess(data$Height, model2$residuals), lwd = 2, col = "blue")
> abline(h=0, col=2)
    1.0
                                                     1.0
                                                                              1.0
                                                     0.5
                                                                              0.5
 Residuals
                          Residuals
                                                   Residuals
                                                                           Residuals
                             0.0
```

-1.5

Sex

-1.5

45 50 55 60 65 70 75

Height

10

Age

15

- We could continue iterating, using these plots and tests to decide if we should include/remove variables, add interactions or higher order terms
- There are model selection methods that automate such strategies, termed stepwise regression
 - Forward selection: start with no variables, at each step test the addition of a new variable,
 end when no variable is worth adding
 - Backward elimination: start with all variables, at each step test the deletion of each variable, end when no further variable can be deleted
 - Bidirectional elimination: a combination of the above, testing at each step for variables to be included or excluded
 - The 'tests' might be done using F-tests, t-tests, adjusted R^2 , AIC, BIC, etc. See the functions add1, drop1, step, stepAIC in R

- We could continue iterating, using these plots and tests to decide if we should include/remove variables, add interactions or higher order terms
- There are model selection methods that automate such strategies, termed stepwise regression
 - Forward selection: start with no variables, at each step test the addition of a new variable,
 end when no variable is worth adding
 - Backward elimination: start with all variables, at each step test the deletion of each variable, end when no further variable can be deleted
 - Bidirectional elimination: a combination of the above, testing at each step for variables to be included or excluded
 - The 'tests' might be done using F-tests, t-tests, adjusted R^2 , AIC, BIC, etc. See the functions add1, drop1, step, stepAIC in R

Criticism

- The tests that you are running are all based on the same data: you are using the same data to test dozens, hundreds of hypothesis
- Leads to lots of 'false discoveries', data-dredging
- Selected models might not be scientifically meaningful

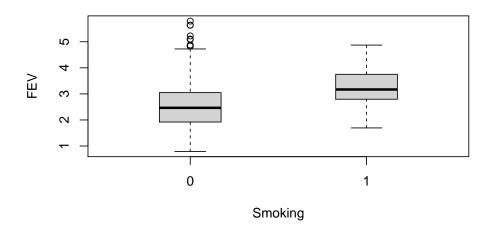
- Someone wants to study a phenomenon/association and has access to some data
- You are aware of the above issues, so you want to avoid them as much as possible (don't torture your data; they'll tell you whatever you want).
- What do you do?
 - Read about the problem
 - Determine which variables would impact the response and should control for
 - Conduct exploratory analyses (plots for associations, summary statistics, etc)
 - Think carefully about the model/assumptions you'll use
 - Specify a model that makes *scientific* sense
 - You make it clear that this is still an exploratory analysis, and might recommend a replication study for a confirmatory analysis
 - Try to avoid fooling yourself!

We previously used the FEV data to illustrate some practical issues of diagnostics and model building.

A more sensible way in which these data could appear is as follows:

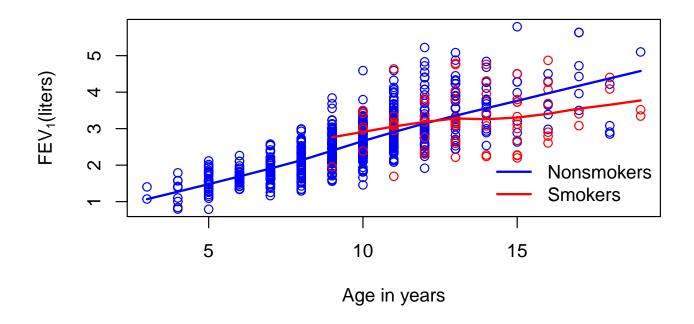
- A researcher approaches you because she is interested in assessing children's pulmonary function in the absence or presence of smoking cigarettes
- A preliminary analysis shows a relationship, but not in the direction we expected!

```
> plot(FEV~Smoker, data=data, xlab = "Smoking", ylab = "FEV",
+ col = 'lightgray', boxwex = .35)
```

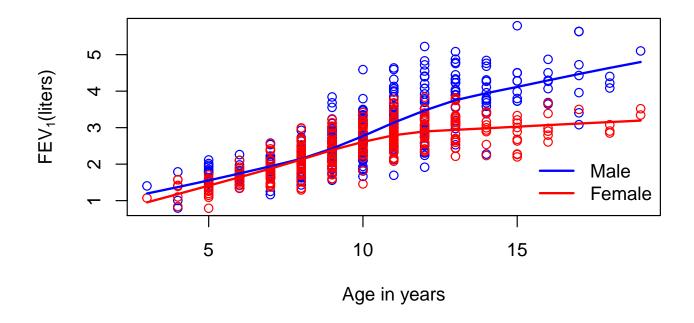


- You think hard about it: what factors could be 'confounding' this relationship and what variables are generally associated with FEV?
 - Men and women have different body-types, so sex should be included
 - Who smokes? Little kids don't, hopefully, so we should account for age
 - Taller people should have higher pulmonary function
 - While age and height should be related with FEV, the relationship might be different depending on smoking status and sex
- You formulate a concrete scientific question: after accounting for other factors, is there still association between smoking status and FEV?
- You do some exploratory analysis (we already did some in this class), formulate a model that helps answer the question

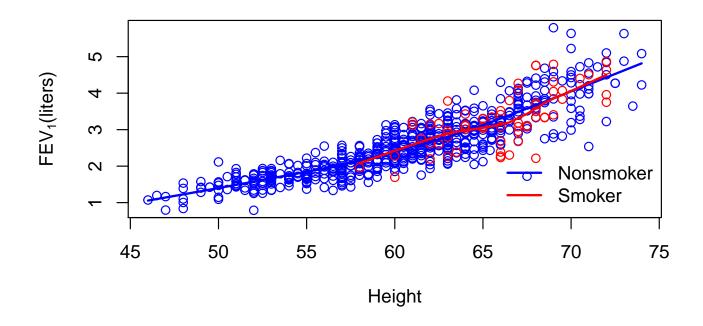
Let's look at the relationship of FEV with age for smokers and non-smokers.



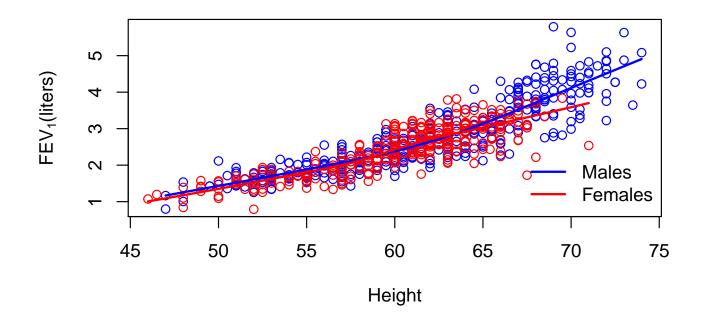
Now the relationship of FEV with age for males and females.



Now, let's look at the relationship of FEV with height for smokers and nonsmokers.



Now, let's look at the relationship of FEV with height for males and females.



Based on the previous exploratory analysis, a model that could make sense would be

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{E}(\mathsf{FEV1} \mid \mathbf{X}) = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathsf{Height} + \beta_2 \mathsf{Height}^2 + \beta_3 \mathsf{Age} + \\ & (\beta_4 + \beta_5 \mathsf{Height} + \beta_6 \mathsf{Height}^2 + \beta_7 \mathsf{Age}) I(\mathsf{Sex=Female}) + \\ & (\beta_8 + \beta_9 \mathsf{Height} + \beta_{10} \mathsf{Height}^2 + \beta_{11} \mathsf{Age})) I(\mathsf{Smoker=Yes}) \end{split}$$

```
> model3 <- lm(
+ FEV ~ (HeightC+HeightCSq+AgeC)*(Sex+Smoker),
+ data=data)</pre>
```

If there is no association between FEV and smoking after accounting for other variables, under this model we would have that

$$\beta_8 = \beta_9 = \beta_{10} = \beta_{11} = 0,$$

which gives us a null hypothesis to test

```
> summary(model3)
Call:
lm(formula = FEV ~ (HeightC + HeightCSq + AgeC) * (Sex + Smoker),
   data = data)
Residuals:
                Median
                            3Q
                                   Max
    Min
            1Q
-1.32240 -0.23285 0.00171 0.24423 1.72654
Coefficients:
                 Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)
                2.4580448 0.0326854 75.203 < 2e-16 ***
HeightC
                0.0966865 0.0063384 15.254 < 2e-16 ***
                HeightCSq
                0.0870387 0.0137570 6.327 4.69e-10 ***
AgeC
               -0.0011669 0.0431706 -0.027
                                          0.9784
Sex1
Smoker1
               -0.0487881 0.1459980
                                   -0.334
                                          0.7384
HeightC:Sex1
               -0.0141184 0.0098161 -1.438
                                           0.1508
HeightC:Smoker1 0.0270083 0.0491119
                                  0.550
                                           0.5826
HeightCSq:Sex1
               HeightCSq:Smoker1 -0.0013206 0.0040106 -0.329 0.7421
                                          0.2770
AgeC:Sex1
               -0.0192941 0.0177341 -1.088
AgeC:Smoker1
               -0.0426888 0.0238088 -1.793
                                          0.0734 .
Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '. 0.1 ' 1
```

Residual standard error: 0.3886 on 642 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.8025, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7991

F-statistic: 237.1 on 11 and 642 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

• Residual standard error: $\hat{\sigma}=0.3886$ computed dividing the RSS by 642 (number of observations minus number of beta parameters)

Residual standard error: 0.3886 on 642 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.8025, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7991 F-statistic: 237.1 on 11 and 642 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

- Residual standard error: $\hat{\sigma} = 0.3886$ computed dividing the RSS by 642 (number of observations minus number of beta parameters)
- Multiple R-squared: $R^2 = 1 (RSS/TSS)$, with $TSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i \bar{Y})^2$ is the total sum of squares

```
> 1 - sum(residuals(model3)^2) / sum((data$FEV - mean(data$FEV))^2)
[1] 0.8024861
```

Residual standard error: 0.3886 on 642 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.8025, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7991 F-statistic: 237.1 on 11 and 642 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

- Residual standard error: $\hat{\sigma} = 0.3886$ computed dividing the RSS by 642 (number of observations minus number of beta parameters)
- Multiple R-squared: $R^2 = 1 (RSS/TSS)$, with $TSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i \bar{Y})^2$ is the total sum of squares

```
> 1 - sum(residuals(model3)^2) / sum((data$FEV - mean(data$FEV))^2)
[1] 0.8024861
```

note that $R^2 = 1 - (RSS/TSS) = 1 - (RSS/n)/(TSS/n)$ which we can see as an estimate of 1-(residual variance/total variance). Unfortunately R^2 has the bad property of always increasing with new variables (HW1).

Residual standard error: 0.3886 on 642 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.8025, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7991 F-statistic: 237.1 on 11 and 642 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

- Residual standard error: $\hat{\sigma} = 0.3886$ computed dividing the RSS by 642 (number of observations minus number of beta parameters)
- Multiple R-squared: $R^2 = 1 (RSS/TSS)$, with $TSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i \bar{Y})^2$ is the total sum of squares
 - > 1 sum(residuals(model3)^2) / sum((data\$FEV mean(data\$FEV))^2)
 [1] 0.8024861

note that $R^2 = 1 - (RSS/TSS) = 1 - (RSS/n)/(TSS/n)$ which we can see as an estimate of 1-(residual variance/total variance). Unfortunately R^2 has the bad property of always increasing with new variables (HW1).

• Adjusted R-squared: instead of using RSS/n for the residual variance use RSS/(n-k-1), and instead of TSS/n use TSS/(n-1). This penalizes for the number of betas in the model

Residual standard error: 0.3886 on 642 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.8025, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7991 F-statistic: 237.1 on 11 and 642 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

- Residual standard error: $\hat{\sigma} = 0.3886$ computed dividing the RSS by 642 (number of observations minus number of beta parameters)
- Multiple R-squared: $R^2 = 1 (RSS/TSS)$, with $TSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i \bar{Y})^2$ is the total sum of squares
 - > 1 sum(residuals(model3)^2) / sum((data\$FEV mean(data\$FEV))^2)
 [1] 0.8024861

note that $R^2 = 1 - (RSS/TSS) = 1 - (RSS/n)/(TSS/n)$ which we can see as an estimate of 1-(residual variance/total variance). Unfortunately R^2 has the bad property of always increasing with new variables (HW1).

- Adjusted R-squared: instead of using RSS/n for the residual variance use RSS/(n-k-1), and instead of TSS/n use TSS/(n-1). This penalizes for the number of betas in the model
- F-statistic: uses the F test seen before in this class for H_0 : $\beta_1 = \cdots = \beta_k = 0$

Is there any association between FEV and smoking after controlling for other variables in this model?

Let's test the hull hypothesis

$$H_0: \beta_8 = \beta_9 = \beta_{10} = \beta_{11} = 0$$

We can do this by comparing model3 with a model that does not include the Smoker variable, say model4:

> model4 <- lm(FEV ~ (HeightC+HeightCSq+AgeC)*Sex, data=data)

We saw how to do this comparison based on an F test:

$$\frac{(RSS_{H_0} - RSS)/q}{RSS/(n-k-1)} \sim F_{q,n-k-1}$$

where q is the number of restrictions of the null hypothesis

In R, the function anova does it for us

```
> anova(model4, model3)
Analysis of Variance Table

Model 1: FEV ~ (HeightC + HeightCSq + AgeC) * Sex
Model 2: FEV ~ (HeightC + HeightCSq + AgeC) * (Sex + Smoker)
  Res.Df  RSS Df Sum of Sq     F Pr(>F)
1  646 97.811
2  642 96.963 4  0.84781 1.4033 0.2313
```

Or we can do the test "by hand"

```
> df_mod4 <- summary(model4)$df[2]
> df_mod3 <- summary(model3)$df[2]
> sd_error_mod4 <- summary(model4)$sigma
> sd_error_mod3 <- summary(model3)$sigma
> RSS_mod4 <- sd_error_mod4^2*df_mod4
> RSS_mod3 <- sd_error_mod3^2*df_mod3
> q <- df_mod4 - df_mod3 # 4, difference in number of params
> (F_obs <- ((RSS_mod4 - RSS_mod3)/q)/sd_error_mod3^2)

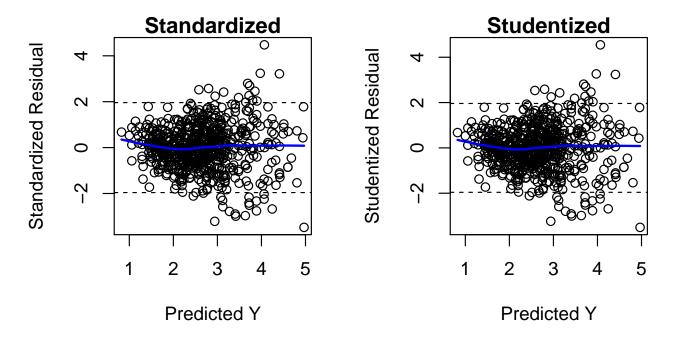
[1] 1.403349

> 1 - pf(F_obs, q, df_mod3)

[1] 0.231275
```

Does the model have a decent fit?

Unfortunately, we still have heteroscedasticity of the errors, so the reliability of these tests is questionable



What about a confirmatory analysis?

- In a serious study there will be a protocol that specifies how the data will be analyzed even before the data are collected:
 - Which model will be used, covariates to control for
 - Which hypothesis will be tested
 - How it will be tested
 - What to do with outliers or missing values

– ...

What about a confirmatory analysis?

- In a serious study there will be a protocol that specifies how the data will be analyzed even before the data are collected:
 - Which model will be used, covariates to control for
 - Which hypothesis will be tested
 - How it will be tested
 - What to do with outliers or missing values
 - **–** ...
- After you receive the data:
 - You will report the results obtained from the pre-specified analysis, and this will be the primary analysis
 - Even then, you will want to check some diagnostics and might discover that not everything went as planned, or some detail was overlooked in the protocol
 - What do you do?: secondary analyses and sensitivity analyses are often reported
 - What if the primary analysis results are not very robust??