

REGRESSION AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

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Motivation

- Objective: Investigate associations between two or more variables
- What tools do you already have?
 - T-test
 - Comparison of means in two populations
- What will we cover in this module?
 - Linear Regression
 - Association of a continuous outcome with one or more predictors (categorical or continuous)
 - Analysis of Variance
 - Comparison of a continuous outcome over a fixed number of groups



REGRESSION MODELS

SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION

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Outline: Simple Linear Regression

- Motivation
- The equation of a straight line
- Least Squares Estimation
- Inference
 - About regression coefficients
 - About predictions
- Model Checking
 - Residual analysis
 - Outliers versus Influential observations



Data: Factors affecting serum total cholesterol

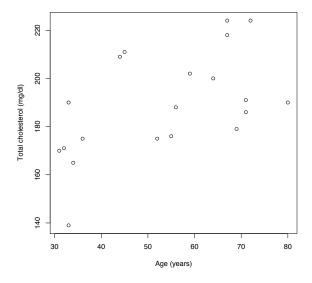
	sex	age	chol	BMI	TG	APOE	rs174548	rs4775401	
1	1	74	215	26.2	367	4	1	2	
2	1	51	204	24.7	150	4	2	1	
3	0	64	205	24.2	213	4	0	1	
4	0	34	182	23.8	111	1	1	1	
5	1	52	175	34.1	328	1	0	0	
6	1	39	176	22.7	53	4	0	2	
l									

- Our goal:
 - Investigate the relationship between cholesterol (mg/dl) and age in adults

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Motivation: Cholesterol Example





- Is serum cholesterol associated with age?
 - You could dichotomize age and compare the mean cholesterol between two groups: t-test



Motivation: Cholesterol Example

Is cholesterol associated with age?

You could dichotomize age and compare the mean systolic between

200

```
two groups: t-test
```

```
180
> group = 1*(age > 55)
> t.test(chol ~ group)
          Welch Two Sample t-test
data: chol by group
t = -3.637, df = 393.477, p-value = 0.0003125
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to \boldsymbol{0}
95 percent confidence interval:
 -12.200209 -3.638487
sample estimates:
mean in group 0 mean in group 1
179.9751 187.8945
                          187.8945
```



• Question: What does this plot and t-test tell us about the relationship between age and cholesterol?

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```
> group = 1*(age > 55)
> t.test(chol ~ group)

Welch Two Sample t-test

data: chol by group

t = -3.637, df = 393.477, p-value = 0.0003125

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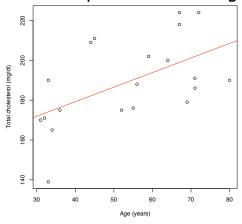


Motivation: Cholesterol Example

- Using t-test:
 - There is a statistical association between cholesterol and age
 - There appears to be a positive association between cholesterol and age
 - Is there any way we could estimate the magnitude of this association without breaking the "continuous" measure of age into subgroups?



Can we find the equation for a straight line



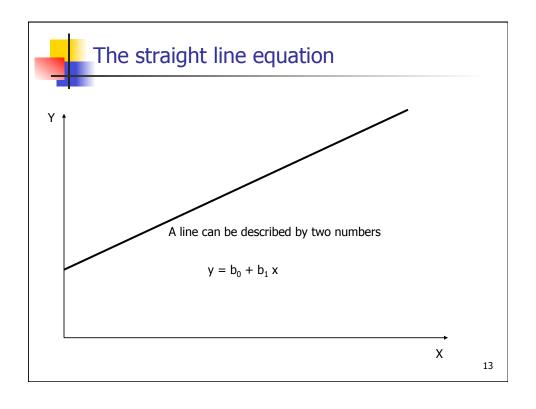
that best fits these data?

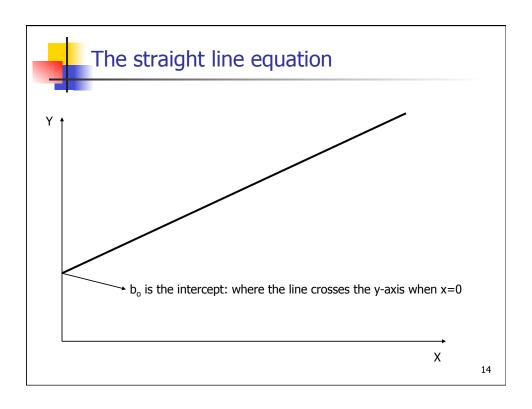
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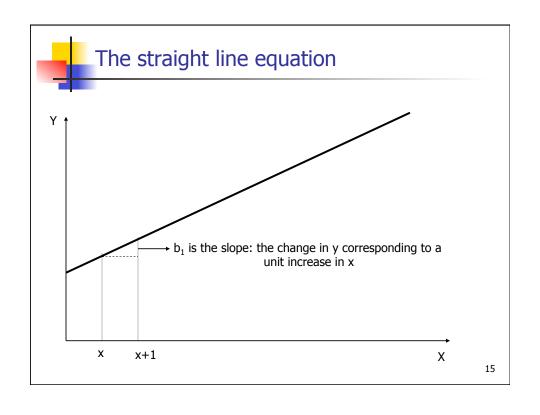


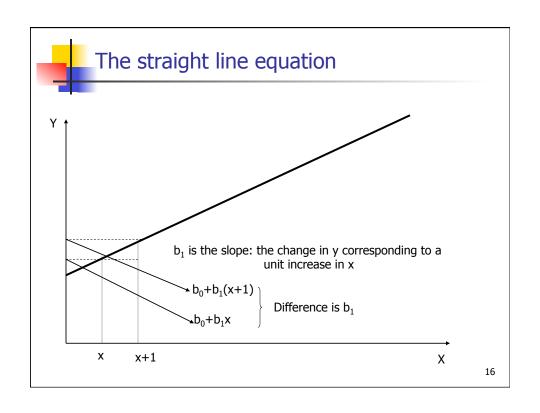
Linear Regression

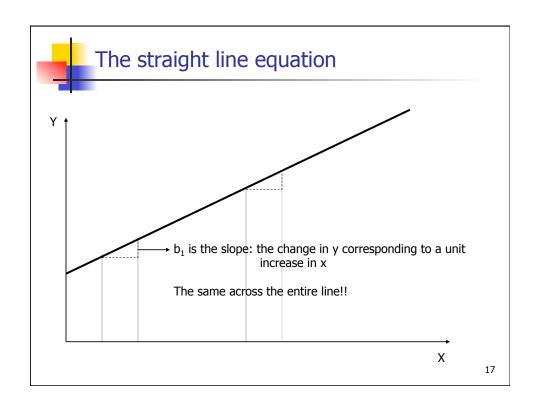
- Statistical method for modeling the relationship between a continuous variable [response/outcome/dependent] and other variables [predictors/exposure/independent]
 - Most commonly used statistical model
 - Flexible
 - Well-developed and understood properties
 - Easy interpretation
 - Building block for more general models
- Goals of analysis:
 - Study the association between response and predictors or.
 - Predict response values given the values of the predictors.
- We will start our discussion studying the relationship between a response and <u>a single predictor</u>
 - Simple linear regression model

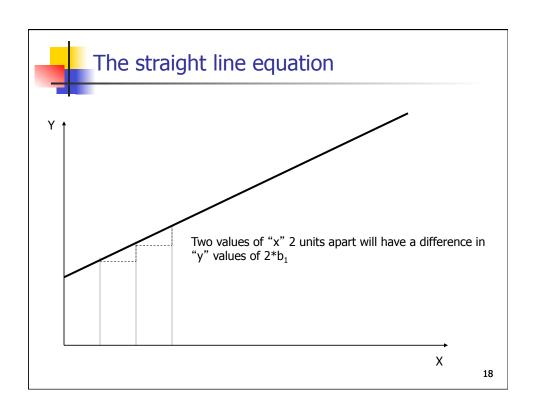








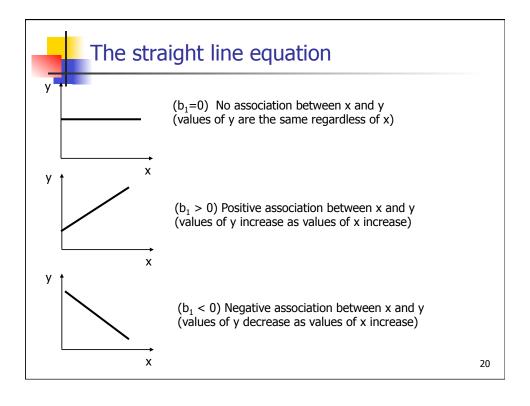






The straight line equation

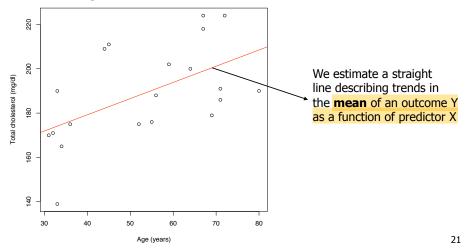
- Slope b₁ is the change in y corresponding to a unit increase in x
- Slope gives information about magnitude and direction of the association between x and y





Simple Linear Regression

 Dealing with situations where points don't fit exactly to the straight line





Simple Linear Regression

- In regression:
 - X is used to predict or explain outcome Y.
- Response or dependent variable (Y):
 - variable we want to predict or explain
- Explanatory or independent variable (X):
 - attempts to explain the response
- Simple Linear Regression Model:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon, \quad \varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$



Simple Linear Regression

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$$
, $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

Model consists of two components:

Systematic component:

$$E[Y \mid X = x] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

Mean population value of Y at X=x

β₁: slope β_0 :intercept

Random component:

$$Var[Y \mid X = x] = \sigma^2$$

Variance does not depend on x

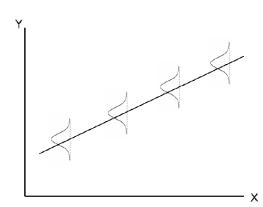
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Simple Linear Regression: Assumptions

MODEL: $E[Y | X = x] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ $Var[Y | X = x] = \sigma^2$

Distribution of Y at different x values:



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Simple Linear Regression: Interpreting model coefficients

- Model: $E[Y|x] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ $Var[Y|x] = \sigma^2$
- Question: How do you interpret β_0 ?
- Answer:
 - $\beta_0 = E[Y|x=0]$, that is, the mean response when x=0

Your turn: interpret β_1 !

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Simple Linear Regression: Interpreting model coefficients

- Model: $E[Y|x] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ $Var[Y|x] = \sigma^2$
- Question: How do you interpret β_1 ?
- Answer:

$$E[Y|X] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$$

 $E[Y|X+1] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (X+1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_1$

 $E[Y|x+1] - E[Y|x] = \beta_1$ independent of x (linearity)

i.e. β_1 is the difference in the mean response associated with a one unit positive difference in x



Example: Cholesterol and age

- Recall: Our motivating example was to determine if there is an association between age (a continuous predictor) and cholesterol (a continuous outcome)
- Suppose: We believe they are associated via the linear relationship $E[Y|x] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$
- Question: How would you interpret β_1 ?
- Answer:

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Example: Cholesterol and age

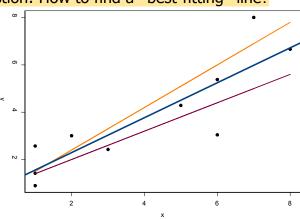
- Recall: Our motivating example was to determine if there is an association between age (a continuous predictor) and cholesterol (a continuous outcome)
- Suppose: We believe they are associated via the linear relationship $E[Y|x] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$
- Question: How do you interpret β_1 ?
- Answer:

 β_1 is the difference in mean serum cholesterol associated with a one year increase in age



Least Squares Estimation

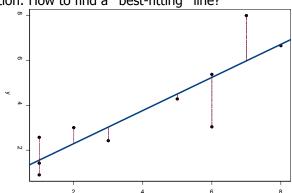
• Question: How to find a "best-fitting" line?



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Least Squares Estimation

• Question: How to find a "best-fitting" line?



- Method: Least Squares Estimation
 - Idea: minimizes the sum of squares of the vertical distances from the observed points to the least squares regression line.



Least Squares Estimation

The least squares regression line is given by

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x$$

 So the (squared) distance between the data (y) and the least squares regression line is

$$D = \sum_{i} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

• We estimate β_0 and β_1 by finding the values that minimize D

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Least Squares Estimation

These values are:

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \overline{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \overline{x}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})}{\sum (x_i - \overline{x})^2}$$

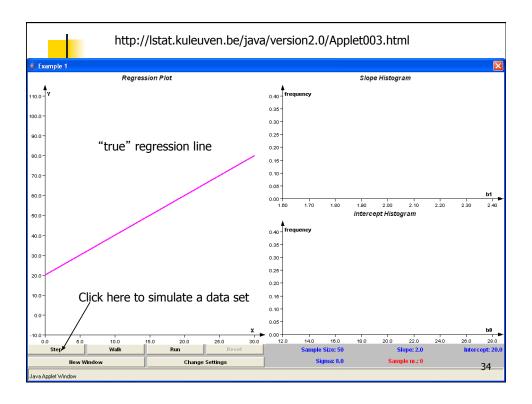
We estimate the variance as

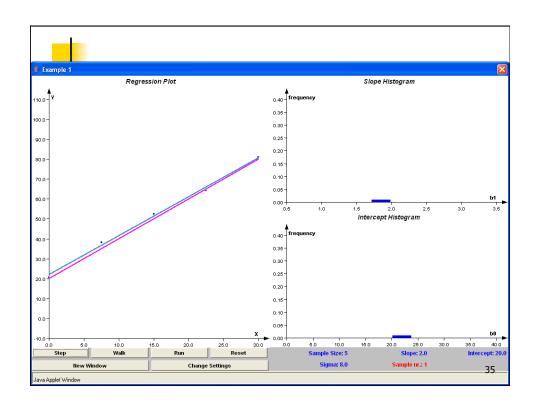
$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n r_i^2}{n-2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{n-2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i)^2}{n-2}$$

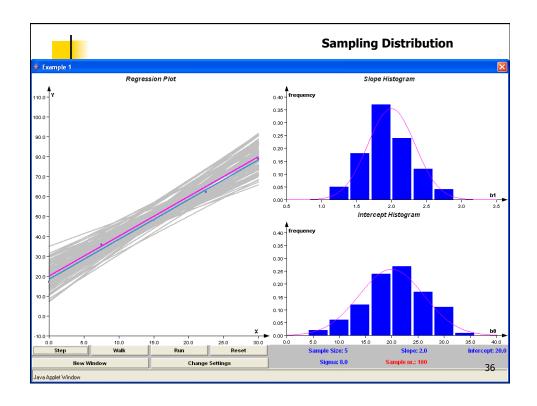


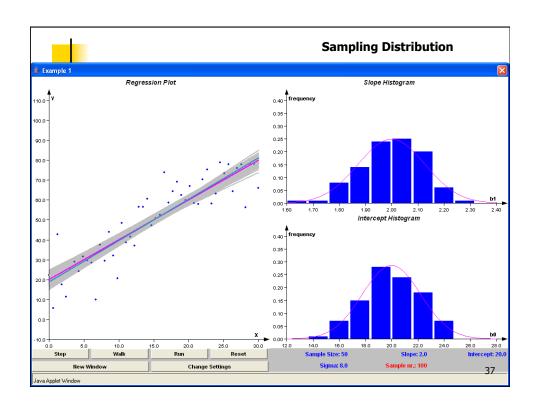
Estimated Standard Errors

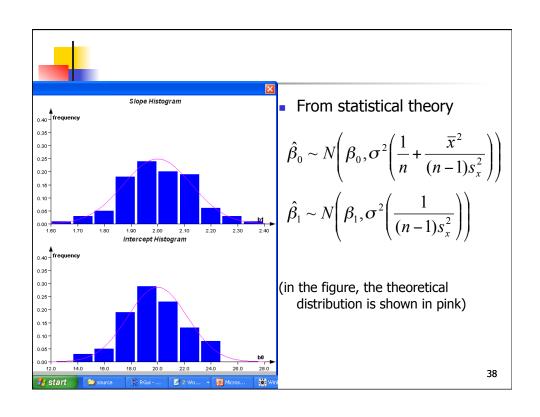
- Recall that when estimating parameters, sampling variability exists in our estimates
- Same is true for regression parameter estimates
- Looking at the formulas for $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$, we can see that these are just complicated means
- In repeated sampling we would get different estimates
- Knowledge of sampling distribution of parameter estimates can help us make inference about the line













Estimated Standard Errors

Estimate the variability of \hat{eta}_0 , \hat{eta}_1 in repeated sampling

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_0) = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^2}{(n-1)s_x^2}}$$

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_1) = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{1}{(n-1)s_x^2}}$$

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Inference

- About regression model parameters
 - Hypothesis testing: H₀: β_i=0

 - Test Statistic: est Statistic: $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{j} - (null \ hyp) \\ se(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{j}) \sim N(0,1)$
 - Small Samples: $\frac{\hat{\beta}_j (null \ hyp)}{se(\hat{\beta}_i)} \sim T_{n-2}$
 - Confidence Intervals:

$$\hat{\beta}_j \pm (critical\ value) \times se(\hat{\beta}_j)$$

[Don't worry about these formulae: we will use R to fit the model!]



Inference: Hypothesis Testing

P-Value

Null Hypothesis: $\beta_j = 0$

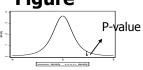
Alternative

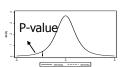
$$\beta_j > 0$$
 $P(T_{n-2} > T)$

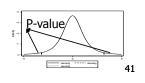
$$\beta_j < 0$$
 $P(T_{n-2} < T)$

$$\beta_j \neq 0$$
 $2P(T_{n-2} > |T|)$

Figure







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Inference: Confidence Intervals

100 (1- α)% Confidence Interval for β_i (j=0,1)

$$\hat{\beta}_{j} \pm t_{n-2,\frac{\alpha}{2}} SE(\hat{\beta}_{j})$$

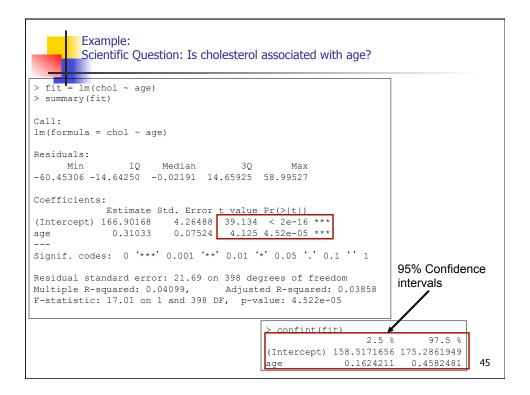
Gives intervals that (1- α)100% of the time will cover the true parameter value (β_0 or β_1).

We say we are "(1- α)100% confident" the interval covers β_{j} .

Example: Scientific Question: Is cholesterol associated with age?

```
> confint(fit)
2.5 % 97.5 %
(Intercept) 158.5171656 175.2861949
age 0.1624211 0.4582481
```

```
Scientific Question: Is cholesterol associated with age?
> fit = lm(chol ~ age)
> summary(fit)
Call:
lm(formula = chol ~ age)
                                                     Estimates of the model
                                                     parameters and standard
Residuals:
                                                     errors
Min 1Q Median 3Q -60.45306 -14.64250 -0.02191 14.65925 58
                                                      \hat{\beta}_0 = 166.90; se(\hat{\beta}_0) = 4.26
                                                      \hat{\beta}_1 = 0.31; se(\hat{\beta}_1) = 0.08
Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error value Pr(>|t|)
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 '' 1
Residual standard error: 21.69 on 398 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.04099,
                                 Adjusted R-squared: 0.03858
F-statistic: 17.01 on 1 and 398 DF, p-value: 4.522e-05
                                          > confint(fit)
                                                                       97.5 %
                                                            2.5 %
                                          (Intercept) 158.5171656 175.2861949
                                                     0.1624211 0.4582481
```





Example:

Scientific Question: Is cholesterol associated with age?

- What do these models results mean in terms of our scientific question?
 - Parameter estimates and confidence intervals:

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = 166.90$$
 95% CI: (158.5, 175.3)

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.31$$
 95% CI: (0.16, 0.46)

- Answer: $\hat{\beta}_0$: The estimated average serum cholesterol for someone of age = 0 is 166.9
- Your turn: What about $\hat{\beta}_1$?

Example:

Scientific Question: Is cholesterol associated with age?

- What do these models results mean in terms of our scientific question?
 - Parameter estimates and confidence intervals:

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = 166.90$$
 95% CI: (158.5, 175.3)
 $\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.31$ 95% CI: (0.16, 0.46)

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.31$$
 95% CI: (0.16, 0.46)

- Answer: $\hat{\beta}_1$: mean cholesterol is estimated to differ by 0.31 mg/dl for each one year difference in age.
- Question: What about the confidence intervals?

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Scientific Question: Is cholesterol associated with age?

- What do these models results mean in terms of our scientific question?
 - Parameter estimates and confidence intervals:

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = 166.90$$
 95% CI: (158.5, 175.3)

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.31$$
 95% CI: (0.16, 0.46)

- Answer: 95% CIs give us a range of values that will cover the true intercept and slope 95% of the time
 - For instance, we can be 95% confident that the true difference in mean cholesterol associated with a one year difference in age lies between 0.16 and 0.46 mg/dl



Example:

Scientific Question: Is cholesterol associated with age?

- Presentation of the results?
 - The mean serum total cholesterol is significantly higher in older individuals (p < 0.001). For each additional year of age, we estimate that the mean total cholesterol differs by approximately 0.31 mg/dl (95% CI: 0.16, 0.46).
 - Note:
 - Emphasis on slope parameter (sign and magnitude)
 - Confidence interval
 - Units for predictor and response

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Inference for predictions

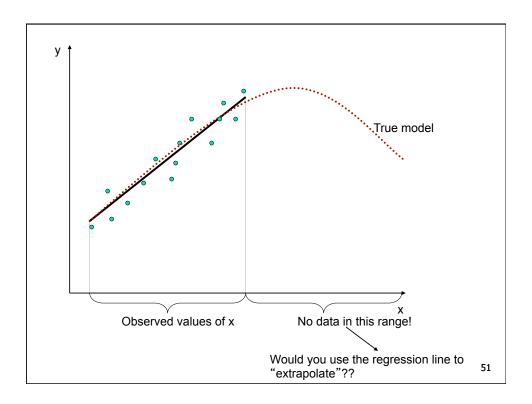
Given estimates $\hat{\beta}_0$, $\hat{\beta}_1$ we can find the **predicted** value, \hat{y}_i for any value of x_i as

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$$

- Interpretation of \hat{y}_i :
 - Estimated mean value of Y at $X = x_i$.

Be Cautious: It assumes the model is true.

- May be a reasonable assumption within the range of your data.
- It may not be true outside the range of your data!!



Prediction

- Prediction of the mean $\underline{E[Y|X=x]}$: Point Estimate: $\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x$

 - Standard Error: $se(\hat{y}) = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x \overline{x})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i \overline{x})^2}}$

Note that as x diverges from \overline{x} , variance increases!

■ 100 (1- α)% confidence interval for E[Y|X=x]: $\hat{y} \pm t_{n-2,1-\alpha/2} se(\hat{y})$



Prediction

• Prediction of a <u>new future observation</u>, y*, at X=x: • Point Estimate: $\hat{y}^* = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x$

- Standard Error: $se(\hat{y}^*) = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x \overline{x})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i \overline{x})^2}}$
- 100 (1-α)% prediction interval for a new future observation: $\hat{y}^* \pm t_{n-2,1-\alpha/2} se(\hat{y}^*)$

Standard error for the prediction of a future observation is bigger: It depends not only on the precision of the estimated mean, but also on the amount of variability in Y around the line.

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Cholesterol Example: Prediction

Prediction of the mean

```
> predict.lm(fit, newdata=data.frame(age=c(46,47,48)), interval="confidence")
fit lwr upr
1 181.1771 178.6776 183.6765
2 181.4874 179.0619 183.9129
3 181.7977 179.4392 184.1563
 predict.lm(fit, newdata=data.frame(age=c(46,47,48)), interval="prediction")
1 181.1771 138.4687 223.8854
2 181.4874 138.7833 224.1915
3 181.7977 139.0974 224.4981
```

Prediction of a new observation

Example: Scientific Ques

Scientific Question: Is cholesterol associated with age?

- Let's interpret these predictions
 - For x = 46

$$\hat{y} = 181.2$$
 95% CI: (178.7, 183.7)

$$\hat{v}^* = 181.2$$
 95% CI: (138.5, 223.9)

• Question: How do our interpretations for \hat{y} and \hat{y}^* differ?

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Example:

Scientific Question: Is cholesterol associated with age?

- Let's interpret these predictions
 - For x = 46

$$\hat{y} = 181.2$$
 95% CI: (178.7, 183.7)

$$\hat{y}^* = 181.2$$
 95% CI: (138.5, 223.9)

- Question: How do our interpretations for \hat{y} and \hat{y}^* differ?
- Answer: The point estimates represent our predictions for the mean serum cholesterol for individuals age 46 (\hat{y}) and for a single new individual of age 46 (\hat{y}^*)

Example: Scientific Ques

Scientific Question: Is cholesterol associated with age?

- Let's interpret these predictions
 - For x = 46

$$\hat{y} = 181.2$$
 95% CI: (178.7, 183.7)

$$\hat{y}^* = 181.2$$
 95% CI: (138.5, 223.9)

• Question: Why are the confidence intervals for \hat{y} and \hat{y}^* of differing widths?

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Example:

Scientific Question: Is cholesterol associated with age?

- Let's interpret these predictions
 - For x = 46

$$\hat{y} = 181.2$$
 95% CI: (178.7, 183.7)

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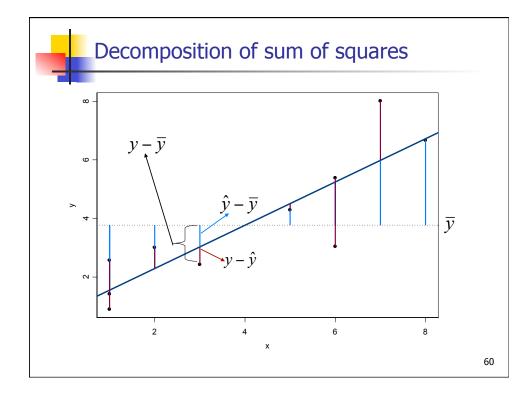
- Question: Why are the confidence intervals for \hat{y} and \hat{y}^* of differing widths?
- Answer: The interval is broader when we make a prediction for a single individual because it must incorporate random variability around the mean.



Simple Linear Regression: R²

- Given no linear association:
 - We could simply use the sample mean to predict E(Y).
 The variability using this simple prediction is given by SST.
- Given a linear association:
 - The use of X permits a potentially better prediction of Y by using E(Y|X).
 - **Question:** What did we gain by using X?

Let's examine this question with the following figure





Decomposition of sum of squares

It is always true that:

$$y_i - \overline{y} = (y_i - \hat{y}_i) + (\hat{y}_i - \overline{y})$$

It can be shown that:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2$$

$$SST = SSE + SSR$$

SST: describes the total variation of the Y_i .

SSE: describes the variation of the Y_i around the regression line.

SSR: describes the structural variation; how much of the variation is due to the regression relationship.

This decomposition allows a characterization of the usefulness of the covariate *X* in predicting the response variable *Y*.

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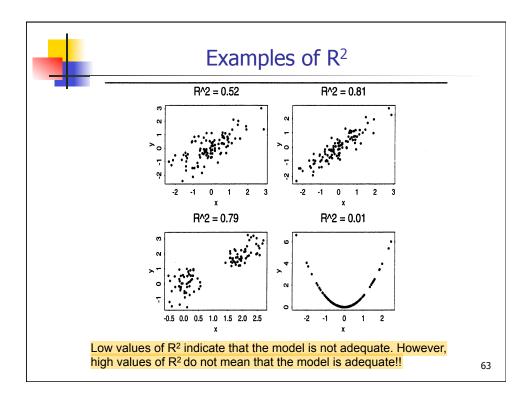


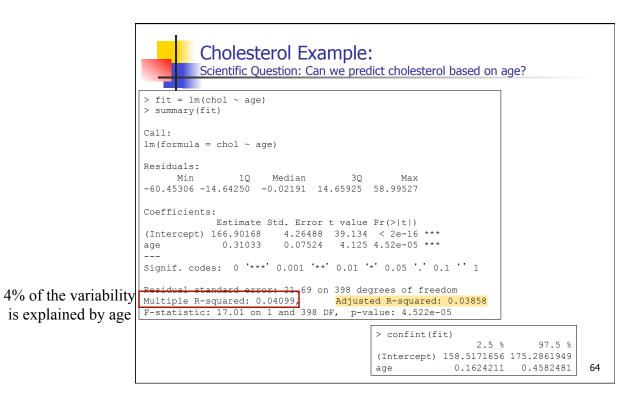
Simple Linear Regression: R²

- Given no linear association:
 - We could simply use the sample mean to predict E(Y). The variability between the data and this simple prediction is given as SST
- Given a linear association:
 - The use of X permits a potentially better prediction of Y by using E(Y|X).
 - **Question:** What did we gain by using X?
 - Answer: We can answer this by computing the proportion of the total variation that can be explained by the regression on X

$$R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} = \frac{SST - SSE}{SST} = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}$$

This R^2 is, in fact, the correlation coefficient squared.







Cholesterol Example:

Scientific Question: Can we predict cholesterol based on age?

- $R^2 = 0.04$
- What does R² tell us about our model for cholesterol?

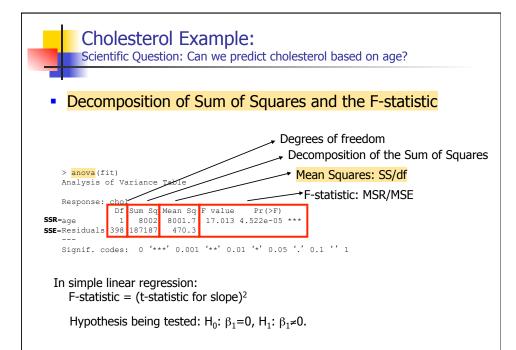
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Cholesterol Example:

Scientific Question: Can we predict cholesterol based on age?

- $R^2 = 0.04$
- What does R² tell us about our model for cholesterol?
- Answer: 4% of the variability in cholesterol is explained by age. Although mean cholesterol increases with age, there is much more variability in cholesterol than age alone can explain





Simple Linear Regression: Assumptions

- 1. E[Y|x] is related linearly to x
- 2. Y's are independent of each other
- 3. Distribution of [Y|x] is normal
- 4. Var[Y|x] does not depend on x

Linearity
Independence
Normality
Equal variance

Can we assess if these assumptions are valid?

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Model Checking: Residuals

 (Raw or unstandardized) Residual: difference (r_i) between the observed response and the predicted response, that is,

$$r_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$$

= $y_i - (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i)$

The residual captures the component of the measurement y_i that cannot be "explained" by x_i .

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Model Checking: Residuals

- Residuals can be used to
 - Identify poorly fit data points
 - Identify unequal variance (heteroscedasticity)
 - Identify nonlinear relationships
 - Identify additional variables
 - Examine normality assumption



Model Checking: Residuals

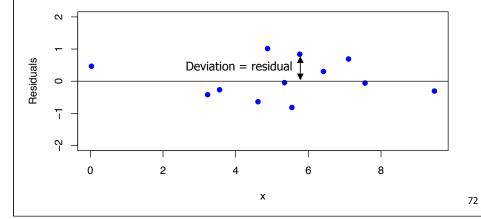
Linearity	Residual vs X or vs Ŷ we don't want sys	temic
	Q: Is there any trend? trend of residu	al
Independence		
	Q: Any scientific concerns?	
Normality	Residual histogram or qq-plot	
	Q: Symmetric? Normal? plot the resid	ual histogram
Equal variance	Residual vs X	
	Q: Is there any pattern?	

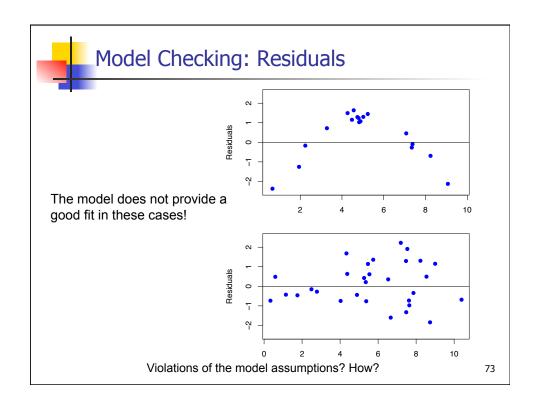
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Model Checking: Residuals

 If the linear model is appropriate we should see an unstructured horizontal band of points centered at zero as seen in the figure below



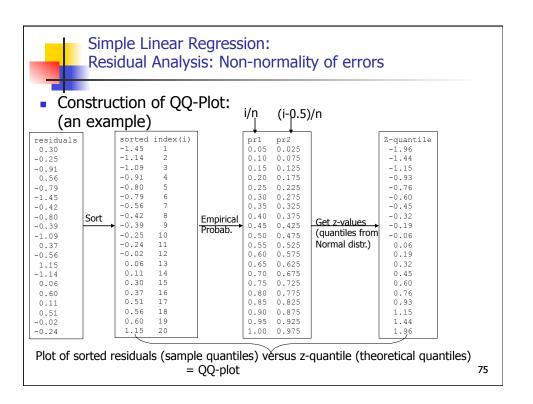


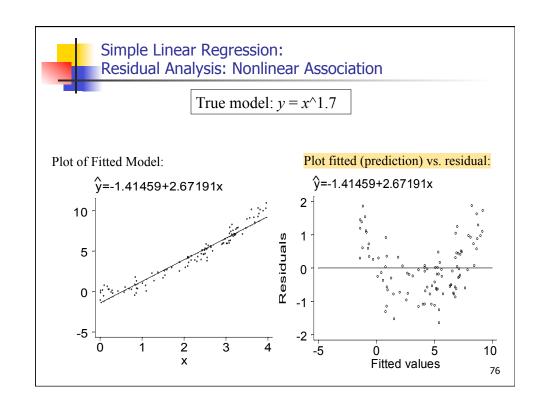


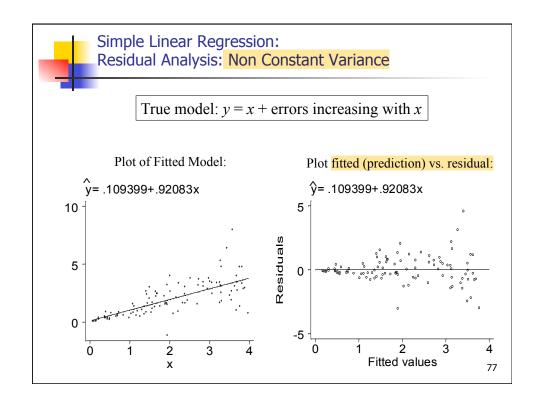
Simple Linear Regression:

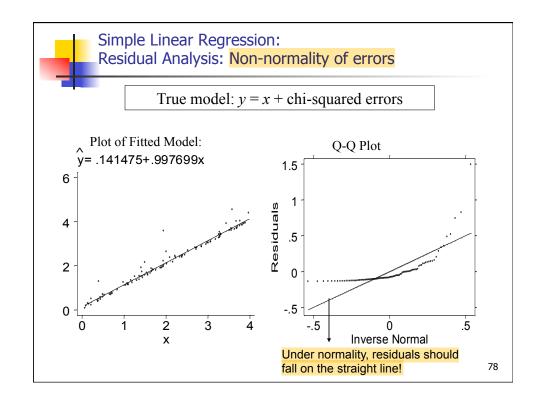
Residual Analysis: Non-normality of errors

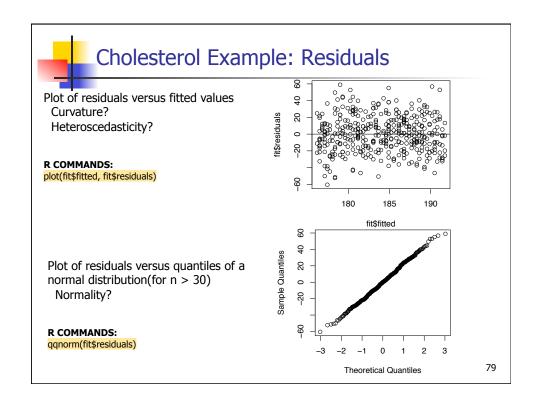
- QQ-plot
 - Graphical technique that allows us to assess whether or not a data set follows a given distribution (such as the normal distribution)
 - The data are plotted against a given theoretical distribution
 - Points should approximately fall in a straight line
 - Departures from the straight line indicate departures from the specified distribution.













Non-constant variance

- Sometimes variance of y is not constant across the range of x (heteroscedasticity)
- Little effect on point estimates but variance estimates will be incorrect
- This affects confidence intervals and p-values
- To account for heteroscedasticity we can
 - Use robust standard errors
 - Transform the data
 - Fit a model that does not assume constant variance (GLM)



Robust standard errors

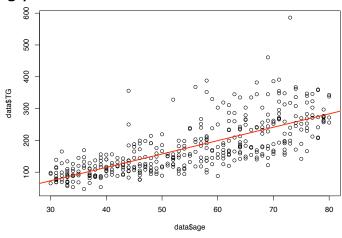
- Robust standard errors correctly estimate variability of parameter estimates even under nonconstant variance
- Regression point estimates will be unchanged
- Robust or empirical standard errors will give correct confidence intervals and p-values

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Cholesterol example: Robust standard errors

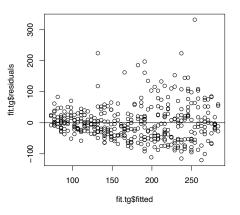
 Linear regression for association between age and triglycerides





Cholesterol example: Robust standard errors

- Residuals analysis suggests meanvariance relationship
- Use robust standard errors to get correct variance estimates



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Cholesterol example: Robust standard errors

Linear regression results:

Results incorporating robust SEs:



Cholesterol example: Robust standard errors

Linear regression results:

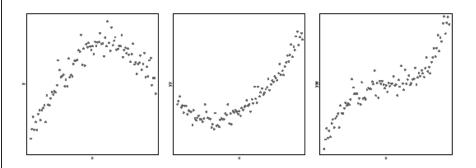
Results incorporating robust SEs:

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Transformations

Sometimes the relationship between Y and X is not linear



To model "curvilinear relationships" one can look at transformations in X or Y [or both]



Transformations

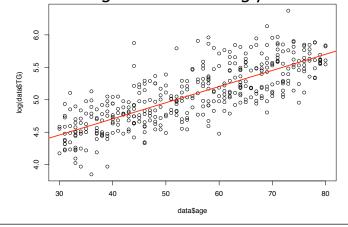
- Some reasons for using data transformations
 - Original data suggest nonlinearity
 - Equal variance assumption violated
 - Normality assumption violated
- Transformations may be applied to the response, predictor or both
 - Be careful with the interpretation of the results

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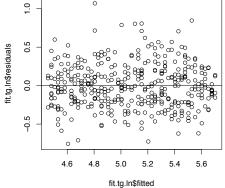
Cholesterol example: Transformations

- We have seen that triglycerides are associated with age but display non-constant variance
- What about log transformed triglycerides?





Cholesterol example: Transformations



- Heteroscedasticity is corrected
- But interpretation of model is more complicated

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Transformations

- Rarely do we know which transformation of the predictor provides best "linear" fit
 - As always, there is a danger in using the data to estimate the best transformation to use
 - If there is no association of any kind between the response and the predictor, a "linear" fit (with a zero slope) is the correct one
 - Trying to detect a transformation is thus an informal test for an association
 Multiple testing procedures inflate the type I error
- It is best to choose the transformation of the predictor on scientific grounds
 - However, sometimes it doesn't matter it is often the case that many functions are well approximated by a straight line over a small range of the data



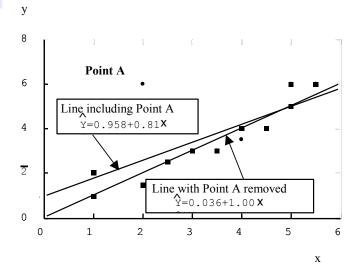
Model Checking: Outlier vs Influential observations

- Outlier: an observation with a residual that is unusually large (positive or negative) as compared to the other residuals.
- Influential point: an observation that has a great deal of influence in determining the regression equation.
 - Removing such a point would markedly change the position of the regression line.
 - Observations that are somewhat extreme for the value of x are often influential.

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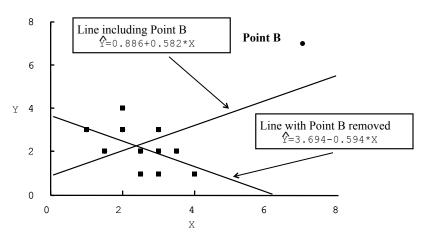
Outlier vs Influential observations



Point A is an outlier, but is not influential.



Outlier vs Influential observations



Point B is influential, but not an outlier.

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Model Checking: Deletion diagnostics

$$\Deltaoldsymbol{eta}_{(i)} = \hat{eta} - \hat{eta}_{(-i)}$$
 :delta-beta

 $\frac{\Delta eta_{(i)}}{se(\hat{eta})}$:Standardized delta-beta

Delta-beta : tells how much the regression coefficient changed by

including the ith observation

Standardized delta-beta : approximates how much the t-statistic for a coefficient

changed by adding the ith observation



Cholesterol Example: Deletion diagnostics

No evidence of influential points. The largest (in absolute value) delta beta is 0.015 compared to 0.31 for the regression coefficient.

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Model Checking: Deletion diagnostics

- What to do if you find an influential observation:
 - Check it for accuracy
 - Decide (based on scientific judgment) whether it is best to keep it or omit it
 - If you think it is representative, and likely would have appeared in a larger sample, keep it
 - If you think it is very unusual and unlikely to occur again in a larger sample, omit it
 - Report its existence [whether or not it is omitted].

Simple Linear Regression: Impact of Violations to Model Assumptions						
	Non Linearity	Non Normality	Unequal Variances	Dependence		
Estimates	Rubbish	Minimal for most departures. Outliers can be a disaster.	Minimal impact.	Often the estimates are unbiased.		
Tests/CIs	Rubbish	Minimal for most departures. CIs for correlation are sensitive.	Variance estimates are wrong, but the effect is usually not dramatic.	Variance estimates are wrong (overestimate the precision and inflate test)		
Correction	Transform or Choose a nonlinear model.	Delete outliers (if warranted) or Use robust regression	Transform or Use robust standard error.	Regression for dependent data.		



UW School of Public Health and Community Medicine
Department of
Biostatistics



REGRESSION MODELS

MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION



Outline: Multiple Linear Regression

- Motivation
- Model and Interpretation
- Estimation and Inference
- Interaction

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Motivation

- The response or dependent variable, Y, may depend on several predictors not just one!
- Multiple regression is an attempt to consider the <u>simultaneous</u> influence of several variables on the response
- It may reveal relationships that are completely hidden in univariate regression models



Motivation

- Why not fit multiple separate simple linear regressions?
 - A confounder can make the observed association between the predictor of interest and the response variable look
 - stronger than the true association,
 - weaker than the true association, or
 - even the reverse of the true association
- What could we do?
 - We can adjust for the effects of the confounder by adding a corresponding term to our linear regression! (more details later)

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Motivation: Cholesterol Example

Data

$\overline{}$								
l	sex	age	chol	BMI	TG	APOE	rs174548	rs4775401
1	1	74	215	26.2	367	4	1	2
2	1	51	204	24.7	150	4	2	1
3	0	64	205	24.2	213	4	0	1
4	0	34	182	23.8	111	1	1	1
5	1	52	175	34.1	328	1	0	0
6	1	39	176	22.7	53	4	0	2
l								

- Our goal:
 - Investigate the relationship between age (years), BMI (kg/m²) and serum total cholesterol (mg/dl)



Motivation

In general, the multiple regression equation can be written as follows:

$$E[Y | X_1, X_2, ..., X_n] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + ... + \beta_n X_n$$

- Prediction: we use multiple variables if we think more than one variable will be useful in predicting future outcomes accurately
- Association: we use multiple variables when:
 - The variable is categorical with more than two groups
 - We need polynomials, splines or other functions to model the shape of the relationship(s) accurately
 - We want to adjust for confounding by other variables
 - We want to allow the association to differ for different values of other variables (interaction)

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Model and Interpretation

 $\text{Model:} \quad Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_p x_p + \varepsilon$

where we assume $\stackrel{iid}{arepsilon} N(0,\sigma^2)$

Extension of simple linear regression!

Systematic component:

$$E[Y|x_1,...,x_p] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + ... + \beta_p x_p$$

Random component:

$$Var[Y \mid x_1, ..., x_p] = \sigma^2$$



Model and Interpretation

 For example, let us assume that there are two predictors in the model and so

$$E[Y|X_1, X_2] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2$$

Consider two observations with the same value for x_2 , but one observation has x_1 one unit higher, that is,

Obs 1:
$$E[Y|x_1=k+1, x_2=c] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (k+1) + \beta_2 c$$

Obs 2: $E[Y|x_1=k, x_2=c] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (k) + \beta_2 c$

Thus,
$$E[Y|x_1=k+1, x_2=c] - E[Y|x_1=k, x_2=c] = \beta_1$$

That is, β_1 is the expected mean change in y per unit change in x_1 if x_2 is held constant (adjusted/controlling for x_2)!

Similar interpretation applies to β_2 !

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Model and Interpretation

- To facilitate our discussion let's assume we have two predictors with binary values
- Model:

$$E[Y \mid x_1, x_2] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2$$

mean	X ₂ =0	X ₂ =1
X ₁ =0	β_0	$\beta_0 + \beta_2$
X ₁ =1	$\beta_0 + \beta_1$	$\beta_0 + \beta_1 + \beta_2$

$$\begin{split} & E[Y|x_1=1, \ x_2=0] - E[Y|x_1=0, x_2=0] = \beta_1 \\ & E[Y|x_1=1, \ x_2=1] - E[Y|x_1=0, x_2=1] = \beta_1 \\ & E[Y|x_1=0, \ x_2=1] - E[Y|x_1=0, x_2=0] = \beta_2 \\ & E[Y|x_1=1, \ x_2=1] - E[Y|x_1=1, x_2=0] = \beta_2 \end{split}$$

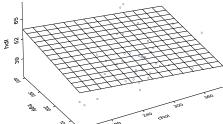


Estimation

- Least Squares Estimation:
 - minimizes the residual sum of squares

$$\sum_{i} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

Computation more difficult, but statistical software (R) will do that for you!



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Estimation and Inference

- Inference
 - About regression model parameters
 - Hypothesis Testing H_0 : $\beta_i=0$

<u>Interpretation:</u> Is there a statistically significant relationship between the response y and x_j after adjusting for all other factors (predictors) in the model?

Test Statistic:
$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_j - (null \ hyp)}{se(\hat{\beta}_j)} \sim T_{n-p-1}$$

Note: The square of the t-statistic gives the F-statistic and the test is known as the **partial F-Test**

Confidence Intervals

$$\hat{\beta}_j \pm (critical\ value) \times se(\hat{\beta}_j)$$



Estimation and Inference

- About the full model
 - Hypotheses

H₀:
$$\beta_1 = \beta_2 = ... = \beta_p = 0$$
 vs. H₁: At least one β_j is not null

Analysis of variance table

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Regression	р	$SSR = \sum (\hat{y}_i - \overline{y})^2$	MSR=	MSR/
		_	SSR/p	MSE
Residual	n-p-1	$SSE = \sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$	MSE=	
		_	SSE/n-p-1	
Total	n-1	$SST = \sum (y_i - \overline{y})^2$		
		_		109



Estimation and Inference

- The F-value is tested against a F-distribution with p, n-p-1 degrees of freedom
 - If we reject the null hypothesis, then the predictors do aid in predicting Y [in this analysis we do not know which ones are important!]
 - Failing to reject the null-hypothesis does not mean that none of the covariates are important, since the effect of one or more covariates may be "masked" by others. The hard part is choosing which covariates to include or exclude.
- This is known as the global (multiple) F-test

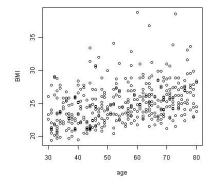


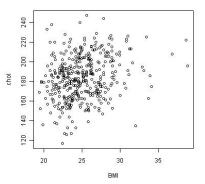
- We have seen that there is a significant relationship between age and cholesterol
- Can we better understand variability in cholesterol by incorporating additional covariates?

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Scientific example: Modeling cholesterol using age and BMI







- It appears that BMI increases with age
- And cholesterol increases with BMI
- What if we want to estimate the association between age and cholesterol while holding BMI constant?
- Multiple regression!

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Scientific example: Modeling cholesterol using age and BMI



- Our estimated regression equation is $\hat{y} = 137.16 + 0.20 Age + 1.43 BMI$
- Question: How do we interpret the age coefficient?

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Scientific example: Modeling cholesterol using age and BMI

- Our estimated regression equation is $\hat{y} = 137.16 + 0.20 Age + 1.43 BMI$
- Question: How do we interpret the age coefficient?
- Answer: This is the estimated average difference in cholesterol associated with a one year difference in age for two subjects with the same BMI.



- Our estimated regression equation is $\hat{y} = 137.16 + 0.20 Age + 1.43 BMI$
- The age coefficient from our simple linear regression model was 0.31.
- Question: Why do the estimates from the two models differ?

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Scientific example: Modeling cholesterol using age and BMI

- Our estimated regression equation is $\hat{y} = 137.16 + 0.20 Age + 1.43 BMI$
- The age coefficient from our simple linear regression model was 0.31.
- Question: Why do the estimates from the two models differ?
- Answer: We are now conditioning on or controlling for BMI so our estimate of the age association is among subjects with the same BMI.



Cholesterol Example:

Did adding BMI improve our model?

```
> anova(fit,fit2) partical F-test
Analysis of Variance Table

Model 1: chol ~ age
Model 2: chol ~ age + BMI
Res.Df RSS     Df     Sum of Sq     F     Pr(>F)
1 398     187187
2 397 1 80842 1     6345.8     13.931     0.0002174 ***
--- Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

How does this model compare to a model that contains only the mean?

```
> anova(fit0, fit2)
Analysis of Variance Table global f-test?

Model 1: chol ~ 1
Model 2: chol ~ age + BMI
Res.Df RSS Df Sum of Sq F Pr(>F)
1 399 195189
2 397 180842 2 14347 15.748 2.62e-07 ***
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 '' 1
```

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Interaction and Linear Regression

- Statistical interaction (aka effect modification) occurs when the relationship between an outcome variable and one predictor is different depending on the levels of a second predictor
- Interactions are usually investigated because of a priori assumptions/hypotheses on the part of the researchers
- Linear regression models allow for the inclusion of interactions with cross-product terms



Discriminating between different classifications

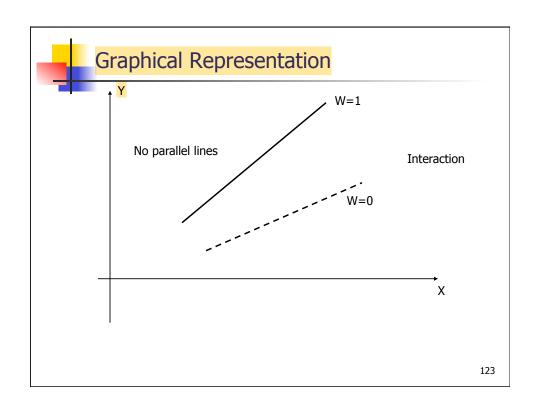
- It is often very difficult to decide whether a new variable should be treated as a confounding or effect modification variable
- Data and scientific assessments help discriminate between confounding and effect modifying variables:
 - Confounder: Associated with predictor and response;
 Association between response and predictor constant across strata of the new variable
 - Effect modifier/interaction: Association between response and the predictor vary across strata of the new variable

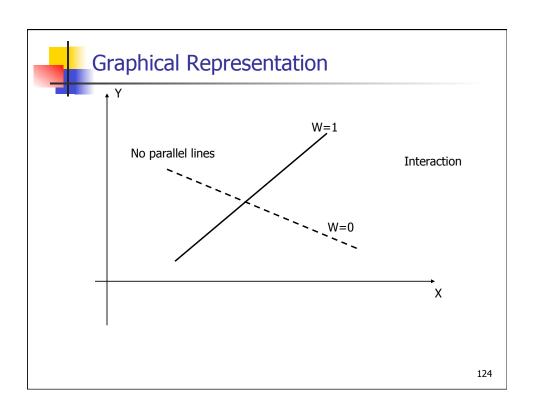
121

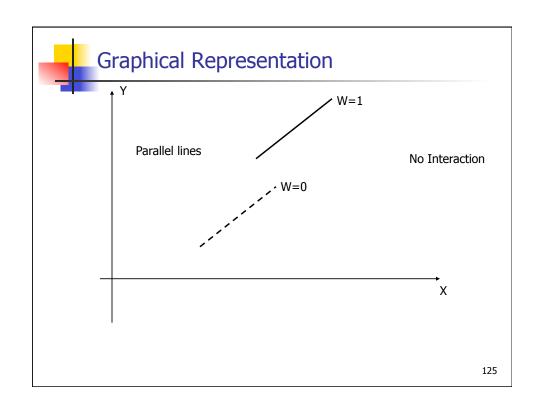


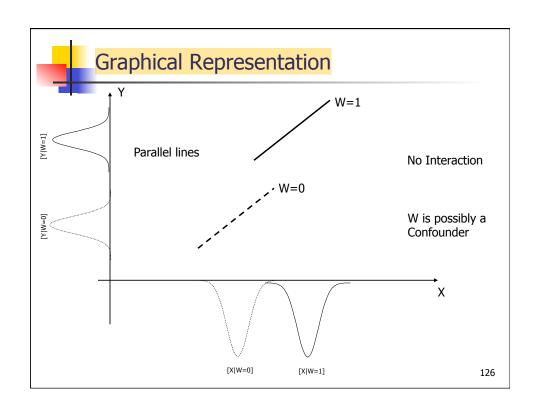
Confounding vs. Interaction/Effect Modification

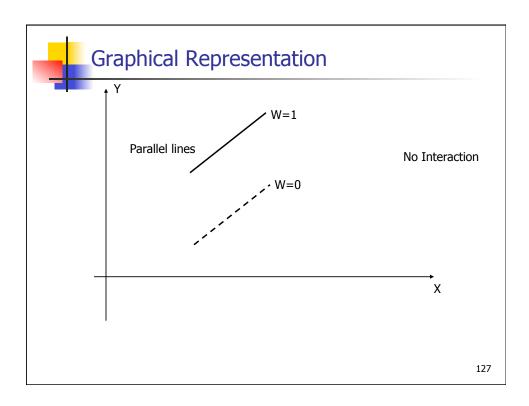
- Estimates of association from unadjusted analysis are markedly different from estimates of association from adjusted analysis
 - Association within each stratum is similar, but different from the association in the combined data (ignoring the strata)
 - In linear regression, these symptoms are diagnostic of confounding
- Effect modification would show differences between adjusted analysis and unadjusted analysis, but would also show different associations in the different strata











4

Model and Interpretation: interaction

Assume that there are two predictors in the model

$$E[Y|X_1, X_2] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 X_2$$

Consider two observations with the same value for $\mathbf{x_2}$, but one observation has $\mathbf{x_1}$ one unit higher

Obs 1:
$$E[Y|x_1=k+1, x_2=c] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (k+1) + \beta_2 c + \beta_3 (k+1)c$$

Obs 2:
$$E[Y|x_1=k, x_2=c] = \beta_0 + \beta_1(k) + \beta_2 c + \beta_3 kc$$

Thus,
$$E[Y|x_1=k+1, x_2=c] - E[Y|x_1=k, x_2=c] = \beta_1 + \beta_3 c$$

That is, the difference in means depends now on the value of x_2 !



Model and Interpretation: interaction

- Model: $E[Y|x_1, x_2] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_1 x_2$
- Difference in Means:

$$E[Y|x_1=k+1, x_2=c] - E[Y|x_1=k, x_2=c] = \beta_1 + \beta_3 c$$

The difference in means depends now on the value of x_2 !

- The difference in means is β_1 if c=0.
- The difference in means is $\beta_1 + \beta_3$ if c=1
- The difference in means changes by β_3 for each unit difference in c (that is, in x_2) [that is, β_3 is the difference of differences!]

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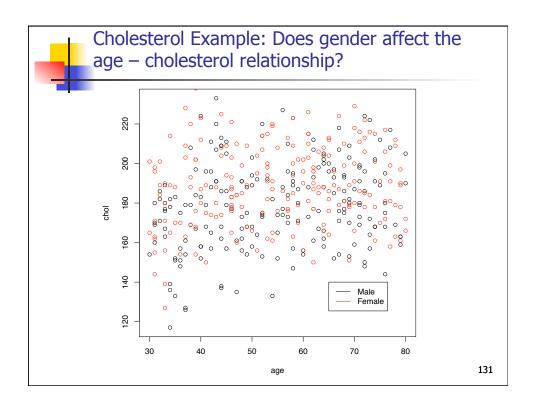
Model and Interpretation: interaction

- Model: $E[Y|x_1, x_2] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_1 x_2$
- Another way to look at this
- Factor terms involving x₁:

$$E[Y|X_1, X_2] = \beta_0 + (\beta_1 + \beta_3 X_2)X_1 + \beta_2 X_2$$

Slope of x_1 changes with $x_2 =$

Difference in means for each unit difference in x_1 changes with x_2 (for each one unit difference in x_2 , the difference in means changes by β_3)



We first fit the model with age and sex terms only

```
> fit2 = lm(chol ~ age+sex)
> summary(fit2)
lm(formula = chol ~ age + sex)
Residuals:
             1Q Median
                           3Q
-55.662 -14.482 -1.411 14.682 57.876
Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
                                                               do we need to change ref
(Intercept) 162.35445 4.24184 38.275 < 2e-16 ***
age 0.29697 0.07313 4.061 5.89e-05 ***
sex 10.50728 2.10794 4.985 9.29e-07 ***
                                                               to male/female to test age
                                                                  effect significance?
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 '' 1
Residual standard error: 21.06 on 397 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.09748, Adjusted R-squared: 0.09293
F-statistic: 21.44 on 2 and 397 DF, p-value: 1.440e-09
```



- This model indicates that, after controlling for the effect of sex, the average cholesterol differs by 0.30 for each additional year of age
- The age effect in this model is very similar to the effect from our simple linear regression (0.31)
- However, this does not mean that the age/ cholesterol relationship is the same in males and females
- To answer this question we must add the interaction term

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Cholesterol Example: Does gender affect the age – cholesterol relationship?

Model with age and sex main effects, plus interaction effect



Mean cholesterol for males at age 0

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Cholesterol Example: Does gender affect the age – cholesterol relationship?

```
Call:
lm(formula = chol ~ age * sex)
Residuals:
Min 1Q Median 3Q
-56.474 -14.377 -1.215 14.764 58.301
Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 160.31151 5.86268 27.344 < 2e-16 ***
age
sex
              0.33460
                          0.10442 3.204 0.00146 **
                          8.29802
             -0.07399 0.14642 -0.505 0.61361
age:sex
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 '' 1
Residual standard error: 21.08 on 396 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.09806, Adjusted R-squared: 0.09123
F-statistic: 14.35 on 3 and 396 DF, p-value: 6.795e-09
```

Difference in mean cholesterol between males and females at age 0



Difference in mean cholesterol associated with each one year change in age for males

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Cholesterol Example: Does gender affect the age – cholesterol relationship?

Multiple R-squared: 0.09806, Adjusted R-squared: 0.09123 F-statistic: 14.35 on 3 and 396 DF, p-value: 6.795e-09 Difference in change in mean cholesterol associated with each one year change in age for females compared to males



- Interpretation?
 - Estimated model:

```
160.3 + 0.33 \text{ Age} + 14.56 \text{ Sex} - 0.07 \text{ Age} \times \text{Sex}
```

```
Subject 1: Age = a+1, sex = b

Subject 2: Age = a, sex = b

Difference in the estimated cholesterol:

[160.3 + 0.33(a+1) + 14.56(b) - 0.07 (a+1)(b)] - [160.3 + 0.33(a) + 14.56 (b) - 0.07 (a)(b)] = 0.33-0.07b
```

 Sex exerts a small (not statistically significant) effect on the age/cholesterol relationship

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Cholesterol Example: Does gender affect the age – cholesterol relationship?

 We can also test the significance of interaction terms using an F-test

```
> anova(fit2,fit3)
Analysis of Variance Table

Model 1: chol ~ age + sex
Model 2: chol ~ age * sex
Res.Df RSS Df Sum of Sq F Pr(>F)
1 397 176162
2 396 176049 1 113.52 0.2554 0.6136
```

 Adding the interaction term did not significantly improve model fit

