Lesson 14: MLR Model Diagnostics

Nicky Wakim

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Learning Objectives

- 1. Apply tools from SLR (Lesson 6: SLR Diagnostics) in MLR to evaluate LINE assumptions, including residual plots and QQ-plots
- 2. Apply tools involving standardized residuals, leverage, and Cook's distance from SLR (Lesson 7: SLR Diagnostics 2) in MLR to **flag potentially influential points**
- 3. Use Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and it's general form to detect and correct multicollinearity

Regression analysis process

Model Selection

- Building a model
- Selecting variables
- Prediction vs interpretation
- Comparing potential models

Model Fitting

- Find best fit line
- Using OLS in this class
- Parameter estimation
- Categorical covariates
- Interactions

Model Evaluation

- Evaluation of model fit
- Testing model assumptions
- Residuals
- Transformations
- Influential points
- Multicollinearity

Model Use (Inference)

- Inference for coefficients
- Hypothesis testing for coefficients

- ullet Inference for expected Y given X
- ullet Prediction of new Y given X

Let's remind ourselves of the final model

- Our final model contains
 - Female Literacy Rate FLR
 - CO2 Emissions in quartiles CO2_q
 - Income levels in groups assigned by Gapminder income_levels1
 - World regions four_regions
 - Membership of global and economic groups members_oecd_g77
 - Food Supply FoodSupplykcPPD
 - Clean Water Supply WaterSupplePct

▶ Display regression table for final model

term	estimate	std.error	statistic	p.value
(Intercept)	39.877	4.889	8.157	0.000
FemaleLiteracyRate	-0.073	0.047	-1.555	0.125
CO2_q(0.806,2.54]	1.099	1.914	0.574	0.568
CO2_q(2.54,4.66]	-0.292	2.419	-0.121	0.904
CO2_q(4.66,35.2]	-0.595	2.524	-0.236	0.814
income_levels1Lower middle income	5.441	2.343	2.322	0.024
income_levels1Upper middle income	6.111	2.954	2.069	0.043
income_levels1High income	7.959	3.277	2.429	0.018
four_regionsAmericas	9.003	2.050	4.391	0.000
four_regionsAsia	5.260	1.637	3.213	0.002
four_regionsEurope	6.855	2.871	2.387	0.020
WaterSourcePrct	0.166	0.066	2.496	0.015
FoodSupplykcPPD	0.004	0.002	1.825	0.073
members_oecd_g77oecd	1.119	2.674	0.418	0.677
members_oecd_g77others	1.047	2.511	0.417	0.678

It's a lot to visualize

• Part of the reason why we discussed model diagnostics in SLR was so that we could have accompanying visuals to help us understand

• With 7 variables in out final model, it is hard to visualize outliers and influential points

• I highly encourage you revisit Lesson 6 and 7 (SLR Diagnostics) to help understand these notes

Remember our friend augment ()?

- Run final_model through augment() (final_model is input)
 - So we assigned final_model as the output of the lm() function
- Will give us values about each observation in the context of the fitted regression model
 - cook's distance (\cdot cooksd), fitted value (\cdot fitted, \widehat{Y}_i), leverage (\cdot hat), residual (\cdot residual), standardized residuals (\cdot std resid)

```
1 aug = augment(final model)
 2 head(aug) %>% relocate(.fitted, .resid, .std.resid, .hat, .cooksd, .after = LifeExp
# A tibble: 6 \times 14
 LifeExpectancyYrs .fitted .resid .std.resid .hat .cooksd FemaleLiteracyRate
            <dbl>
                  <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <
                                                                   <dbl>
                                                 <dbl>
             56.7
                  61.5 - 4.78 - 1.43 0.327 0.0663
                                                                   13
             76.7 75.3 1.38 0.387 0.227 0.00293
                                                                   95.7
             60.9 58.6 2.30 0.684 0.320 0.0147
                                                                   58.6
             76.9 74.7 2.21 0.620 0.238 0.00799
                                                                   99.4
             76 76.9 -0.879 -0.233 0.145 0.000614
                                                                   97.9
             73.8 74.6 -0.796
                                   -0.214 0.168 0.000618
                                                                   99.5
 i 7 more variables: CO2_q <fct>, income_levels1 <fct>, four_regions <fct>,
```

RDocumentation on the augment () function.

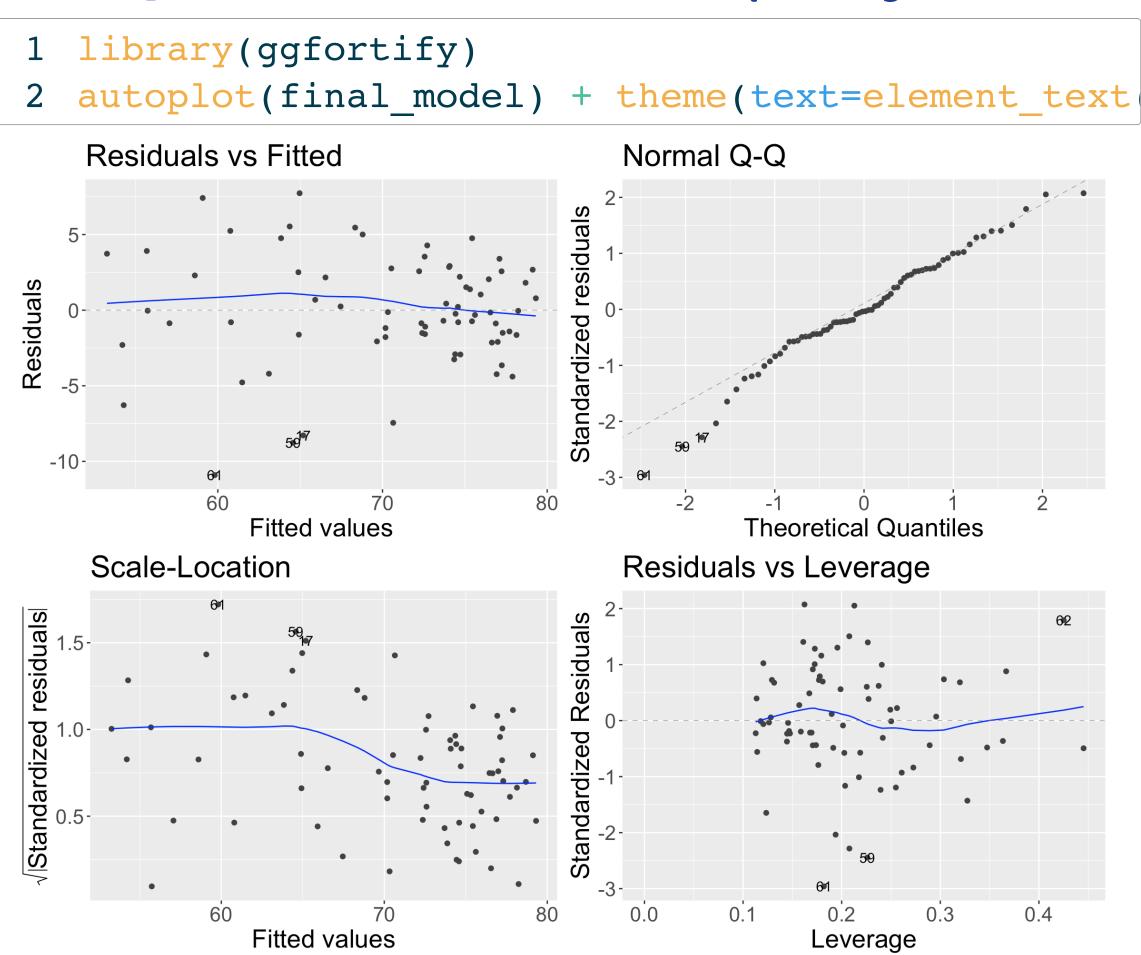
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- 3. Use Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and it's general form to detect and correct multicollinearity

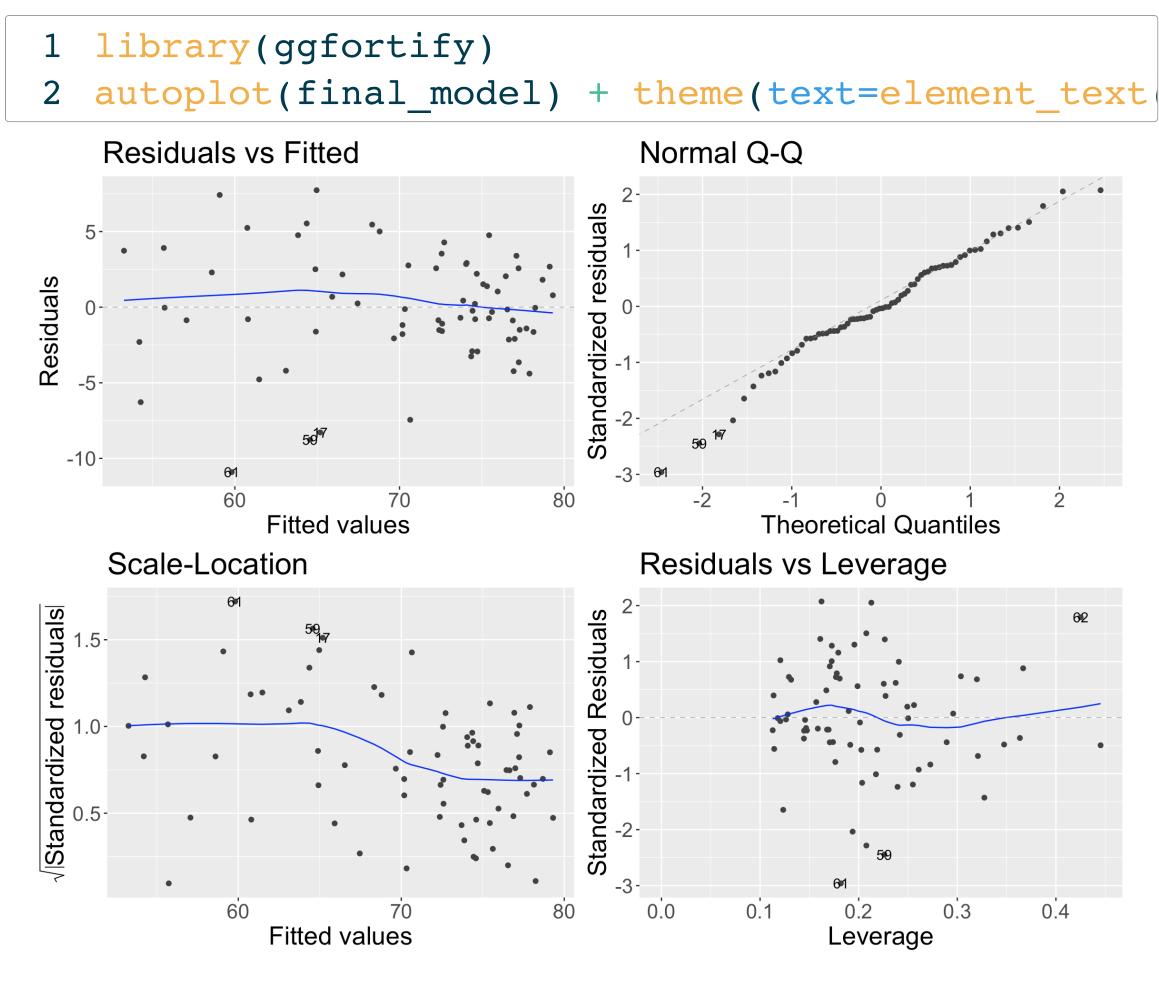
Summary of the assumptions and their diagnostic tool

Assumption	What needs to hold?	Diagnostic tool
Linearity	$ullet$ Relationship between ${f each} X$ and Y is linear	ullet Scatterplot of Y vs. X
Independence	Observations are independent from each other	Study design
Normality	$ullet$ Residuals (and thus $Y X_1,X_2,\ldots,X_p$) are normally distributed	 QQ plot of residuals Distribution of residuals
Equality of variance	• Variance of residuals (and thus $Y X_1,X_2,\dots,X_p$) is same across fitted values (homoscedasticity)	Residual plot

autoplot() to examine equality of variance and Normality



autoplot() to examine equality of variance and Normality



Looks like 3 obs are flagged:

- 17: Cote d'Ivoire
- 59: South Africa
- 61: Kingdom of Eswatini (formerly Swaziland in 2011)

Without them, QQ-plot and residual plot look good

- Points on QQ-plot are close to identity line
- Residuals have pretty consistent spread across fitted values

But don't take them out!!!

 Instead, discuss what may be missing in our regression model that is not capturing the characteristics of these countries

Poll Everywhere Question 1

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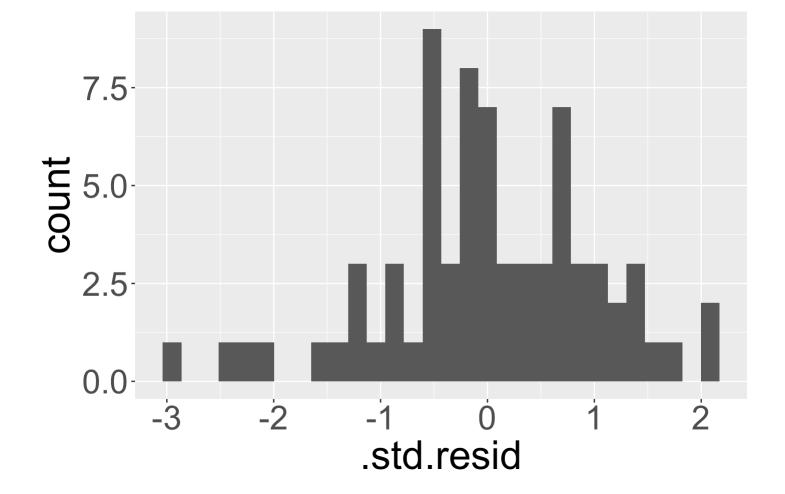
Identifying outliers

Internally standardized residual

$$r_i = rac{\hat{\epsilon}_i}{\sqrt{\widehat{\sigma}^2(1-h_{ii})}}$$

- We flag an observation if the standardized residual is "large"
 - Different sources will define "large" differently
 - lacksquare PennState site uses $|r_i|>3$
 - autoplot() shows the 3 observations with the highest standardized residuals
 - lacksquare Other sources use $|r_i|>2$, which is a little more conservative

```
1 ggplot(data = aug) +
2 geom_histogram(aes(x = .std.resid))
```



Countries that are outliers ($|r_i| > 2$)

We can identify the countries that are outliers

```
1 aug %>% relocate(.std.resid, .after = country) %>%
     filter(abs(.std.resid) > 2) %>% arrange(desc(abs(.std.resid)))
# A tibble: 6 \times 15
 country .std.resid LifeExpectancyYrs FemaleLiteracyRate CO2 q income levels1
 <chr>
          <dbl>
                               <dbl>
                                              <dbl> <fct> <fct>
1 Swaziland -2.96
                               48.9
                                               87.3 (0.8... Lower middle ...
2 South Af... -2.45
                                55.8
                                                92.2 (4.6... Upper middle ...
3 Cote d'I... -2.28
                                             47.6 [0.0... Lower middle ...
                                56.9
4 Cape Ver... 2.07
                                              80.3 (0.8... Lower middle ...
                               72.7
5 Sudan
            2.05
                               66.5 63.2 [0.0... Lower middle ...
               -2.04
                                63.2 81.5 [0.0... Lower middle ...
6 Vanuatu
# i 9 more variables: four regions <fct>, WaterSourcePrct <dbl>,
```

Leverage h_i

- Values of leverage are: $0 \le h_i \le 1$
- We flag an observation if the leverage is "high"
 - Only good for SLR: Some textbooks use $h_i > 4/n$ where n = sample size
 - Only good for SLR: Some people suggest $h_i > 6/n$
 - Works for MLR: $h_i > 3p/n$ where p = number of regression coefficients

```
1 aug = aug %>% relocate(.hat, .after = FemaleLiteracyRate)
 2 aug %>% arrange(desc(.hat))
# A tibble: 72 × 15
                 LifeExpectancyYrs FemaleLiteracyRate .hat CO2 q income levels1
   country
   <chr>
                              <dbl>
                                                 <dbl> <dbl> <fct> <fct>
 1 Mexico
                               75.8
                                                  92.3 0.445 (2.5... Upper middle ...
 2 Tajikistan
                               69.9
                                                  99.6 0.425 [0.0... Lower middle ...
 3 Bosnia and H...
                               76.9
                                                  96.7 0.367 (4.6... Upper middle ...
                                                  99.2 0.363 (2.5... Lower middle ...
 4 Uzbekistan
                               69
                                                  53.4 0.347 [0.0... Lower middle ...
 5 Bangladesh
                               71
                                                  13 0.327 [0.0... Low income
 6 Afghanistan
                               56.7
 7 Zimbabwe
                                                  80.1 0.321 [0.0... Low income
                               51.9
```

Countries with high leverage ($h_i > 3p/n$)

We can look at the countries that have high leverage: there are NONE

```
1 n = nrow(gapm2); p = length(final_model$coefficients) - 1
2 aug %>%
3    filter(.hat > 3*p/n) %>%
4    arrange(desc(.hat))

# A tibble: 0 × 15

# i 15 variables: country <chr>, LifeExpectancyYrs <dbl>,
    FemaleLiteracyRate <dbl>, .hat <dbl>, CO2_q <fct>, income_levels1 <fct>,
# four_regions <fct>, WaterSourcePrct <dbl>, FoodSupplykcPPD <dbl>,
# members_oecd_g77 <chr>, .fitted <dbl>, .resid <dbl>, .sigma <dbl>,
.cooksd <dbl>, .std.resid <dbl>
```

Identifying points with high Cook's distance

The Cook's distance for the i^{th} observation is

$$d_i = rac{h_i}{2(1-h_i)} \cdot r_i^2$$

where h_i is the leverage and r_i is the studentized residual

No countries with high Cook's distance

- Another rule for Cook's distance that is not strict:
 - lacktriangle Investigate observations that have $d_i>1$
- Cook's distance values are already in the augment tibble: _cooksd

```
1 aug = aug %>% relocate(.cooksd, .after = country)
2 aug %>% arrange(desc(.cooksd)) %>% filter(.cooksd > 1)

# A tibble: 0 × 15

# i 15 variables: country <chr>, .cooksd <dbl>, LifeExpectancyYrs <dbl>,

# FemaleLiteracyRate <dbl>, .hat <dbl>, CO2_q <fct>, income_levels1 <fct>,

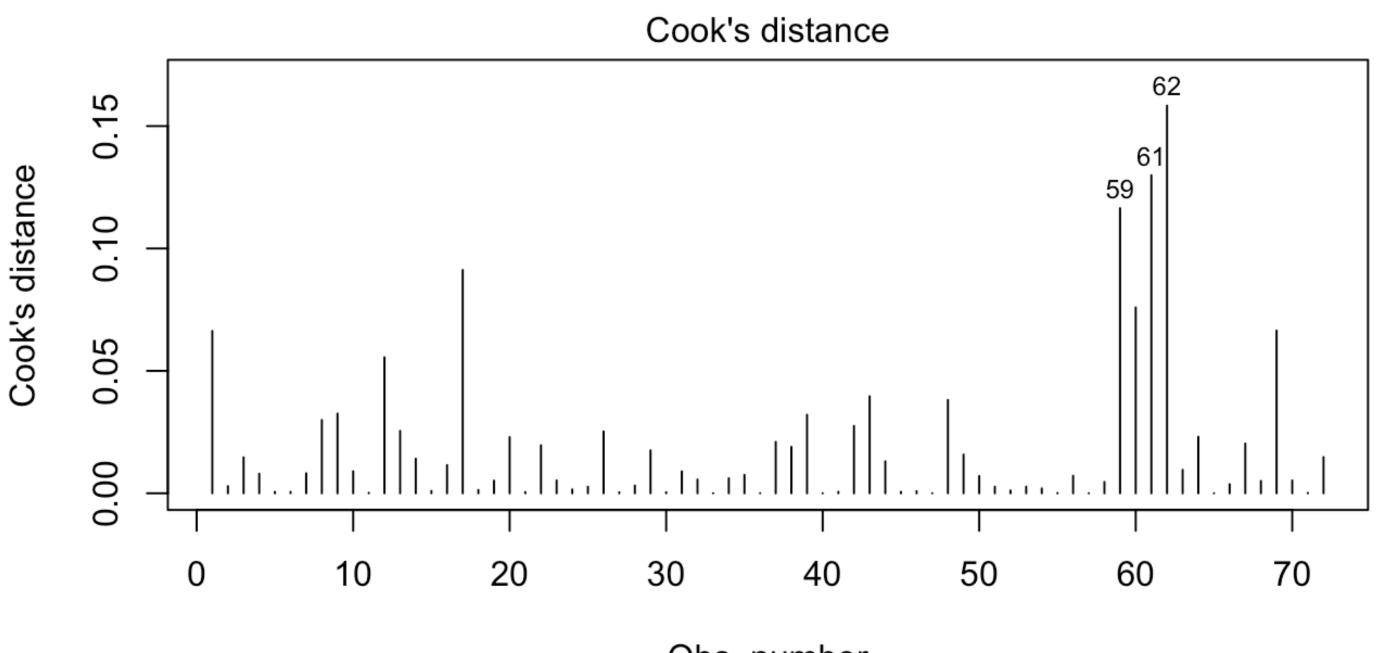
four_regions <fct>, WaterSourcePrct <dbl>, FoodSupplykcPPD <dbl>,

# members_oecd_g77 <chr>, .fitted <dbl>, .resid <dbl>, .sigma <dbl>,

.std.resid <dbl>
```

Plotting Cook's Distance

```
1 # plot(model) shows figures similar to autoplot()
2 # adds on Cook's distance though
3 plot(final_model, which = 4)
```



Obs. number Im(LifeExpectancyYrs ~ FemaleLiteracyRate + CO2_q + income_levels1 + four_r ...

How do we deal with influential points?

- If an observation is influential, we can **check data errors**:
 - Was there a data entry or collection problem?
 - If you have reason to believe that the observation does not hold within the population (or gives you cause to redefine your population)
- If an observation is influential, we can **check our model**:
 - Did you leave out any important predictors?
 - Should you consider adding some interaction terms?
 - Is there any nonlinearity that needs to be modeled?
- Basically, deleting an observation should be justified outside of the numbers!
 - If it's an honest data point, then it's giving us important information!
- Means we will need to discuss the limitations of our model
 - For example: Think about measurements that might help explain life expectancy that are NOT in our model
- A really well thought out explanation from StackExchange

Poll Everywhere Question 2

When we have detected problems in our model...

- We have talked about influential points
- We have talked about identifying issues with our LINE assumptions

What are our options once we have identified issues in our linear regression model?

- Are we missing a crucial measure in our dataset?
- Try a transformation if there is an issue with linearity or normality
 - Addressed in model selection
- Try a weighted least squares approach if unequal variance (oof, not enough time for us to get to)
- Try a robust estimation procedure if we have a lot of outlier issues (outside scope of class)

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3. Use Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and it's general form to detect and correct multicollinearity

What is multicollinearity? (adapted from parts of STAT 501 page)

So far, we've been ignoring something very important: multicollinearity

Multicollinearity

Two or more covariates in a multivariable regression model are highly correlated

- Types of multicollinearity
 - Structural multicollinearity
 - Mathematical artifact caused by creating new covariates from other covariates
 - For example: If we have age, and decide to transform age to include age-squared
 - Then we have age and age-squared in the model: age-squared is perfectly predicted by age!

Data-based multicollinearity

 Result of a poorly designed experiment, reliance on purely observational data, or the inability to manipulate the system on which the data are collected.

Poll Everywhere Question 3

Why is multicollinearity a problem?

In linear regression...

- Estimated regression coefficient of any one variable depends on other predictors included in the model
 - Not necessarily bad, but a big change might be an issue
- Hypothesis tests for any coefficient may yield different conclusions depending on other predictors included in the model
- Marginal contribution of any one predictor variable in reducing the error sum of squares depends on other predictors included in the model

When there is multicollinearity in our model:

- Precision of the estimated regression coefficients or correlated covariates decreases a lot
 - Basically, standard error increases and confidence intervals get wider, which means we're not as confident in our estimate anymore
 - Because highly correlated covariates are not adding much more information, but are constraining our model more

Did you notice anything about all the consequences of multicollinearity?

- All consequences relate to estimating a regression coefficient precisely
 - Recall that precision is linked to analysis goals of association and interpretability
 - See Lesson 12: Model Selection

- Multicollinearity is not really an issue when our goal is prediction
 - Highly correlated covariates/predictors will not hurt our prediction of an outcome

How do we detect multicollinearity?

- Variance inflation factors (VIF): quantifies how much the variance of the estimated coefficient for covariate k increases
 - Increases: from SLR with only covariate k to MLR with all other covariates

- General rule of thumb
 - 4 < VIF < 10: Warrent investigation (but most people aren't investigating this...)
 - VIF > 10: Requires correction
 - Influencing regression coefficient estimates

VIF

$$VIF = rac{1}{1 - R_k^2}$$

 R_k^2 is the R^2 -value obtained by regressing the k^{th} covariate/predictor on the remaining predictors

Let's apply it to our final model

Naive way to calculate this:

```
library(rms)
    rms::vif(final_model)
               FemaleLiteracyRate
                                                   CO2 q(0.806, 2.54)
                         4.863139
                                                             2.979224
                                                    CO2 q(4.66, 35.2)
                 CO2 q(2.54, 4.66)
                         4.758904
                                                             5.180216
income levels1Lower middle income income_levels1Upper middle income
                         5.290718
                                                             8.406927
        income levels1High income
                                                four regionsAmericas
                                                             2.531966
                         7.293148
                 four regionsAsia
                                                  four regionsEurope
                         2.096398
                                                             7.771994
```

- ullet All VIF < 10
- Problem: multi-level covariates (CO2 Emissions and income level) have different VIF's even though they should be considered one variable

Let's apply it to our final model correctly (1/2)

- ullet Calculate the GVIF and, more importantly, the $GVIF^{1/(2\cdot df)}$
- ullet GVIF is the R^2 -value for regressing a covariate's group indicators on the remaining covariates
 - Captures the correlation between covariates better
- ullet $GVIF^{1/(2\cdot df)}$ helps standardize GVIF based on how many levels each categorical covariate has
 - I'll refer to this as df-corrected GVIF or standardized GVIF
 - lacksquare If continuous covariate, $GVIF^{1/(2\cdot df)}=\sqrt{GVIF}$

```
1 library(car)
 2 car::vif(final_model)
                     GVIF Df GVIF<sup>(1/(2*Df))</sup>
FemaleLiteracyRate 4.863139 1
                                  2.205253
          8.223951 3
                                  1.420736
CO2 q
income_levels1 11.045885 3
                                 1.492336
four regions
            13.935918
                                 1.551277
WaterSourcePrct 4.824266
                                 2.196421
                                 1.870628
FoodSupplykcPPD 3.499250
members oecd g77
                                  1.651052
               7.430919 2
```

Let's apply it to our final model correctly (2/2)

- ullet If continuous covariate, $GVIF^{1/(2\cdot df)}=\sqrt{GVIF}$
- ullet So we can square $GVIF^{1/(2\cdot df)}$ and set VIF rules
- ullet OR: we can correct any $GVIF^{1/(2\cdot df)}>\sqrt{10}=3.162$

```
1 car::vif(final model)
                     GVIF Df GVIF<sup>(1/(2*Df))</sup>
FemaleLiteracyRate 4.863139
                                  2.205253
                 8.223951 3
                                 1.420736
C02 q
income levels1 11.045885 3
                                 1.492336
four_regions 13.935918 3
                                 1.551277
WaterSourcePrct 4.824266 1 2.196421
FoodSupplykcPPD 3.499250
                                 1.870628
members oecd g77
               7.430919 2
                                  1.651052
```

• All of these covariates are okay! No multicollinearity to correct in this dataset!

But what if we do need to make corrections for multicollinearity?

- We have been dealing with data-based multicollinearity in our example
- If we had issues with multicollinearity, then what are our options?
 - Remove the variable(s) with large VIF
 - Use expert knowledge in the field to decide
- If one variable has a large VIF, then there is usually another one or more variables with large VIFs
 - Basically, all the covariates that are correlated will have large VIFs
- Example: our two largest GVIFs were for world region and income levels
 - ullet Hypothetical: their $GVIF^{1/(2\cdot df)}>3.162$
 - Remove one of them
 - I'm no expert, but from more of a data equity lens, there's a lot of generalizations made about world regions
 - I think relying on the income level of a country might give us more information as well

What about structural multicollinearity?

- Structural multicollinearity
 - Mathematical artifact caused by creating new covariates from other covariates

- For example: If we have age, and decide to transform age to include age-squared
 - Then we have age and age-squared in the model: age-squared is perfectly predicted by age!
 - By having the untransformed and transformed covariate in the model, they are inherently correlated!

- Best practice to reduce the correlation: center you covariate
 - By centering age, we no longer have a one-to-one connection between age and age-squared
 - If centered at 40yo: a 35 yo and a 45 yo will both have centered age of 5, and age-squared of 25

Check out the Penn State site for a work through of an example with VIFs

Summary of multicollinearity

• Correlated covariates/predictors will hurt our model's precision and interpretations of coefficients

We need to check for multicollinearity by using VIFs or GVIFs

- ullet If VIF>10 or $GVIF^{1/(2\cdot df)}>3.162$, we need to do something about the covariates
 - Data based: remove one the of correlated variables
 - Structural based: centering usually fixes it

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