



Faculty of Health Sciences



# Day 7: Multiple linear regression, confounding, interaction

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# Outline

## The multiple linear model

ILO: to outline what the multiple linear model is about

ILO: to list important methods that are special cases of the model

ILO: to describe the connection with the t-test

## Why multiple regression?

ILO: to exemplify when a multiple regression can be better than a univariate analysis

ILO: to describe the connection with ANOVA

## ANCOVA and model checking

ILO: to use the ANCOVA and interpret the results

ILO: to evaluate some modeling assumption

## Digression: Table-I and the statistical analysis plan (SAP)

ILO: to repeat widely recommended practices in statistics

## Interaction and subgroup analysis

ILO: to interpret models with interaction and exemplify their usefulness

ILO: to contrast the use of these models and subgroup analyses



# Case: vitamin D data

Data,  $n=412$ :

country	vitd	age	bmi	vitdintake
1	22.4	11.888	19.254	7.188
1	37.0	12.441	17.567	1.186
1	12.9	13.025	17.700	1.480
1	13.6	13.501	16.953	1.612
1	9.1	12.474	20.806	3.940
1	13.4	12.973	18.242	8.152



(also data on sun exposure: sunexp)

**Outcome:** vitamin D measured in morning blood samples, after an overnight fast (nmol/l).

## Reference:

- ▶ Andersen and Skovgaard. *Regression with linear predictors*. Springer, 2010.
- ▶ Andersen et al., Eur. J. Clin. Nutr. (2005)

**Note:** the slides of today borrow many examples and explanations presented in more details in the above textbook reference.

# Remarks on the case study and log-transformation

- ▶ It is **common, and often sensible**, to study the log of a concentration, instead of the **concentration** itself, when using linear regression. This is because:
  - ▶ **concentration cannot be negative.**
  - ▶ the **variability** between observations is **often higher for higher concentrations.**
- ▶ We will log-transform in our case study:

$$\text{outcome} = \log_{10}(\text{vitamin D concentration}) .$$



# Remarks on the case study and log-transformation

- ▶ It is **common, and often sensible**, to study the log of a concentration, instead of the **concentration** itself, when using linear regression. This is because:
  - ▶ **concentration cannot be negative.**
  - ▶ the **variability** between observations is **often higher for higher concentrations.**
- ▶ We will log-transform in our case study:

$$\text{outcome} = \log_{10}(\text{vitamin D concentration}) .$$

- ▶ **But, it is not always needed and important to log-transform!**

**DO NOT SYSTEMATICALLY LOG-TRANSFORM  
WITHOUT A GOOD REASON!**

- ▶ It is **best to pre-specify** the choice of log-transforming or not based on background knowledge (i.e. your experience of that of others reported in the literature).<sup>1</sup>
- ▶ Sometimes, but not always, it is interesting to present and interpret the results on the **original scale**, using the back-transformation ( $\exp$ ).



# The multiple linear model

The  $i$ -th observation (e.g. from subject  $i$ ) of the outcome  $Y$  is described as:

$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 z_i + \cdots + \varepsilon_i$$

- ▶  $x_i, z_i, \dots$  are the predictor (i.e. explanatory) variables / covariates.
- ▶ the linear predictor  $\alpha + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 z_i + \dots$  is the **mean outcome for any subject  $i$  having covariate values  $x_i, z_i, \dots$**
- ▶  $\varepsilon_i$ 's are individual '**error**' terms ("random/unexplained deviation from the mean") assumed normally distributed with **zero mean** and the **same** variance  $\sigma_\varepsilon^2$  regardless of the values  $x_i, z_i, \dots$

**Model assumptions** (1-2 important, 3 not always):

1. Individual observations are independent.
2. The variance of 'error' terms is the same for all groups (**homogeneity**).
3. 'Error' terms are normally distributed.



# The multiple model generalizes simpler models

Many simple settings can be thought as a **special case** of the multiple linear model.

## Which and why?

- ▶ **t-test** (Lecture 2)
  - ▶ one binary predictor variable
- ▶ **univariate linear model** (Lecture 3)
  - ▶ one quantitative predictor variable
- ▶ **ANOVA** (Lecture 4)
  - ▶ one categorical predictor variable (one-way ANOVA)
  - ▶ two categorical predictor variables (two-way ANOVA)
- ▶ **ANCOVA** (today's Lecture)
  - ▶ **one categorical** and **one quantitative** predictor variable

**Note:** this holds when using t-test and ANOVA that assume the same standard deviation for all groups (which is not the default/recommended choice for the t-test)



## Case: one binary variable

- ▶ **Research question:** is the mean log vitamin D different between elderly women ( $> 69$ ) having a “normal” weight and those being “overweight”?
- ▶ **Predictor variable(s):** body mass index “normal” (18.5-25) or “overweight” ( $>25$ ).
- ▶ **Data example:** Irish women,  $n = 42$  ( $16 + 25$ ).
- ▶ **Linear model:**

$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta z_i + \varepsilon_i$$

with

$$z_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{ is "overweight"} \\ 0 & \text{if } i \text{ has a "normal" weight} \end{cases}$$

- ▶  $\alpha$ : **mean** for “normal” weight
- ▶  $\alpha + \beta$ : **mean** for “overweight”
- ▶  $\beta$ : **difference in mean** between “overweight” and “normal”





# R code & default output

## R code:

```
vitaminD$bmigroup <- factor(as.numeric(vitaminD$bmi > 25))  
lm1 <- lm(log10(vitd)~bmigroup,data=irlwomen)  
summary(lm1)
```

## Output:

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	1.71987	0.04554	37.765	<2e-16 ***
bmigroup1	-0.12682	0.05832	-2.175	0.0358 *



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## R code:

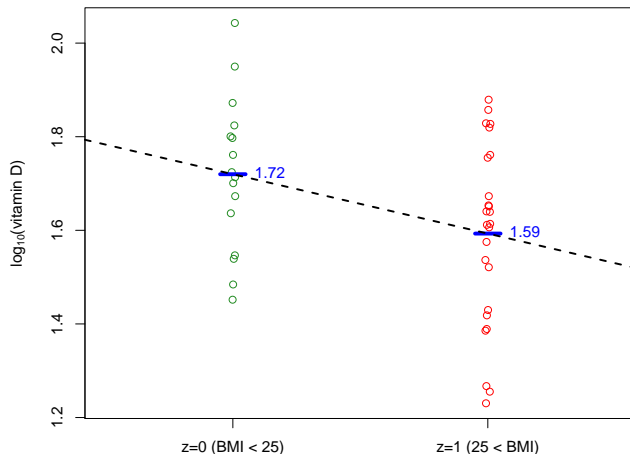
```
tapply(log10(irlwomen$vitd), irlwomen$bmigroup, mean)  
diff(tapply(log10(irlwomen$vitd), irlwomen$bmigroup, mean))
```

## Output:

```
1.719873 1.593053  
-0.1268206
```



# Visualizing the raw data & results



The regression line passes through the sample means, i.e. the two **estimated means** corresponds to the **sample means** in each group.



# Formatted results and comparison to that of `t.test()`

## R code:

```
FormatResLm <- function(fit){
  cbind.data.frame(round(cbind(Est=fit$coef, confint(fit)), 2),
    'p-value'=format.pval(summary(fit)$coefficients[, "Pr(>|t|)"],
      digits=3)))}

FormatResLm(lm1)
```

## Output:

```
              Est 2.5 % 97.5 % p-value
(Intercept)  1.72  1.63   1.81  <2e-16
bmigroup1    -0.13 -0.24  -0.01  0.0358
```

## R code:

```
t.test(log10(irlwomen$vitd) ~ irlwomen$bmigroup, var.equal=TRUE)
```

## Output:

Two Sample t-test

```
data:  log10(irlwomen$vitd) by irlwomen$bmigroup
t = 2.1745, df = 39, p-value = 0.0358
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
 0.008853898 0.244787253
sample estimates:
mean in group 0 mean in group 1
10 / 61      1.719873      1.593053
```



# Conclusions with only one binary variable

- ▶ Model **estimates match the observed** means in each group.
- ▶ The estimated regression coefficient (slope) is **identical** to the difference between the sample means.
- ▶ The p-values computed by the linear model and the **t-test**, **when assuming equal variances in the two groups**, are **identical**.
- ▶ The confidence interval for the regression coefficient (slope) is **identical** to that computed along the **t-test** to complement the p-value, **when assuming equal variances in the two groups are identical**.

**Furthermore:** similar remarks about identical results for the **ANOVA** case. That is why we were already using the `lm()` function of R in the ANOVA case (although R and other software have also specific function for ANOVA analyses).



# Digression: median and back-transformation (1/2)

## R code:

```
rbind(Mean=tapply(X=log10(irlwomen$vitd), INDEX=irlwomen$bmggroup, FUN=mean),
      Median=tapply(X=log10(irlwomen$vitd), INDEX=irlwomen$bmggroup, FUN=median))
```

## Output:

```
           0          1
Mean  1.719873 1.593053
Median 1.718883 1.613842
```

Here, because the “model” for the **mean** is a good model for the **median** ( $M$ ), because **median**( $\log(Y)$ )= $\log$ (**median**( $Y$ ))) and:

$$\log_{10}(\widehat{M}_1) - \log_{10}(\widehat{M}_0) = \log_{10} \left( \frac{\widehat{M}_1}{\widehat{M}_0} \right) = -0.12682$$

then  $\widehat{M}_1/\widehat{M}_0 = 10^{-0.12682} = 0.75$ ; hence we can conclude that we estimate that overweight women have a 25% lower **median** vitamin D concentration compared to the normal weight women.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>12/61</sup> <sup>2</sup>See similar remarks in Lecture 3.



## Digression: median and back-transformation (2/2)

We do not model the **means** in each group on the **original scale** via the parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  only. Only the **median** in each group on the original scale depend on parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  only. Unlike the medians, the means also depend on  $\sigma_\varepsilon$ . However, the ratio of the means is modeled solely via  $\beta$ , as  $10^\beta$  (because we used  $\log_{10}$  here<sup>3</sup>).

Hence, we can also conclude that we estimate that overweight women have a 25% lower **mean** vitamin D concentration than that of normal weight women.

**Take-home message:** using linear regression we always model means and difference of means. But, when used together with a log-transformation, linear regression additionally models ratios of means on the original scale.

**Details:** this is because according to our model and the mathematical properties of the log-normal distribution, we model the two mean vitamin D concentrations in each group as  $10^{\alpha+\sigma_\varepsilon^2/2}$  and  $10^{\alpha+\beta+\sigma_\varepsilon^2/2}$ .



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## Why multiple regression?

ILO: to exemplify when a multiple regression can be better than a univariate analysis

ILO: to describe the connection with ANOVA

## ANCOVA and model checking

ILO: to use the ANCOVA and interpret the results

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## Digression: Table-I and the statistical analysis plan (SAP)

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# Why multiple regression?

- ▶ better **adjusting** / explaining (main focus in this course)
- ▶ better **predict or gain power** (more advanced topic, touched upon in lecture 4)

Same reasons as for why logistic regression can be more useful than simpler 2x2 tables analyses.

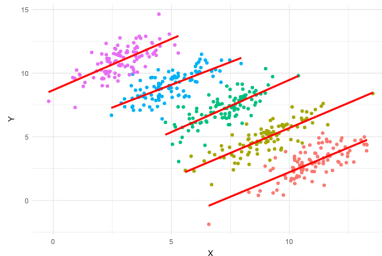
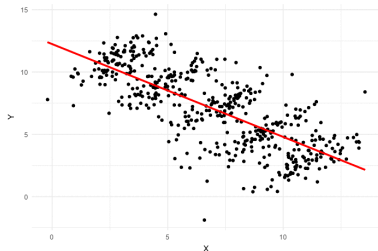
- ▶ Useful when we want to make **comparisons** with respect to one factor/variable (e.g. treatment or exposure) **among individuals otherwise similar with respect to other variables** that we adjust for (e.g. age, sex, comorbidity...).
- ▶ Multiple regression is a tool to deal with **confounding and unbalanced designs**.
- ▶ Multiple regression offers an **alternative to stratification** (i.e. **subgroup** analysis) when the data are not very large or/and we can assume that some differences are “similar” within different subgroups ( $\rightarrow$ ).



# Multiple regression to limit confounding

We often compare two groups with the aim to get a “tentative” causal interpretation of the statistical association that we can show. To do so, we adjust on some variables to make a comparison among subjects as similar as possible with respect to some relevant variables.

Extreme hypothetical example of confounding:



## Case: comparing countries

**Step 1: Initial research question:** *"Is the average log-vitamin D different in the Irish and Polish population of elderly women?"*

**Step 2:** Quick look at the collected data via a typical "Table 1":

		Ireland (n=41)	Poland (n=65)
Age	median [iqr]	72[70.8, 73.3]	71.7[70.4, 72.6]
<b>BMI</b>	18.5-25	16(39%)	12(19%)
	> 25	25(61%)	53(81%)
Sun exposure	avoid	16(39%)	26(40%)
	sometimes	21(51%)	34(52%)
	prefer	4(10%)	5(8%)
Vitamin D intake	median [iqr]	5.5[3.2, 12.1]	5.2[3.0, 11.9]

**Step 3: Updated research question:** *"Is there a difference in average log-vitamin D between Irish and Polish elderly women having the same BMI group?"*<sup>4</sup>



## Case: comparing countries while “adjusting” for BMI group

- ▶ **Research question:** is there a difference in average log-vitamin D between Irish and Polish elderly women having the **same BMI group**?
- ▶ **Predictor variable(s):**
  - ▶ BMI “normal” (18.5-25) / “overweight” (>25).
  - ▶ Country Ireland / Poland
- ▶ **Data example:** Irish and Poland women,  $n = 106$  (41 + 65).
- ▶ **Linear model:**  $Y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 z_i + \varepsilon_i$

$$x_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{ is Polish} \\ 0 & \text{if } i \text{ is Irish} \end{cases} \quad z_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{ is "overweight"} \\ 0 & \text{if } i \text{ has a "normal" weight} \end{cases}$$

This is a two-way ANOVA model! (without interaction)



# Parameters interpretation

According to the model, the means of log-vitamin D are:

BMI \ Country	Ireland	Poland
"Normal"	$\alpha$	$\alpha + \beta_1$
"Overweight"	$\alpha + \beta_2$	$\alpha + \beta_1 + \beta_2$

- ▶  $\alpha$ : mean outcome for Irish with "normal" BMI (reference group).
- ▶  $\beta_1$ : difference in mean outcome between Irish and Polish among women of the same BMI group (whatever it is).
- ▶  $\beta_2$ : difference in mean outcome between women with "overweight" and those having a "normal" BMI, among women of the same country (whatever it is).



# R code & default output

## R code:

```
lm2 <- lm(log10(vitd) ~ Country + bmigroup, data = irlpolwomen)
summary(lm2)
```

## Output:

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	1.72854	0.04016	43.040	< 2e-16	***
CountryPoland	-0.14164	0.03947	-3.589	0.000511	***
bmigroup1	-0.14103	0.04360	-3.235	0.001638	**

## Conclusions?



# Results with 95% CIs

## R code:

```
FormatResLm(lm2)
```

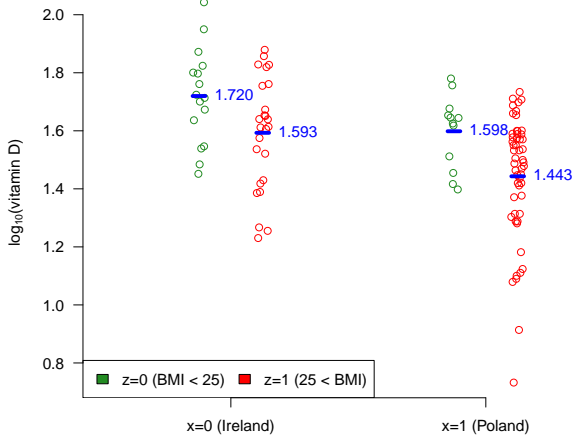
## Output:

	Est	2.5 %	97.5 %	p-value
(Intercept)	1.73	1.65	1.81	< 2e-16
CountryPoland	-0.14	-0.22	-0.06	0.000511
bmigroup1	-0.14	-0.23	-0.05	0.001638

## Conclusions?



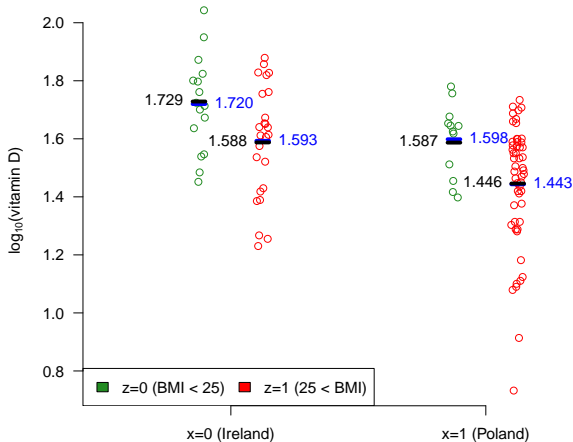
# Visualizing the raw data



► Observed (sample) means: blue



# Visualizing the raw data & results



- ▶ Observed (sample) means: blue
- ▶ Estimated means (from the model): black



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## Digression: Table-I and the statistical analysis plan (SAP)

- ILO: to repeat widely recommended practices in statistics

## Interaction and subgroup analysis

- ILO: to interpret models with interaction and exemplify their usefulness
- ILO: to contrast the use of these models and subgroup analyses



## Case: comparing countries while “adjusting” for BMI

- ▶ **Research question:** is there a difference in mean log-vitamin D between Irish and Polish elderly women having the **same BMI**?
- ▶ **Predictor variable(s):**
  - ▶ BMI as a **quantitative** (continuous) variable
  - ▶ Country Ireland / Poland
- ▶ **Data example:** Irish and Poland women,  $n = 106$  ( $41 + 65$ ).
- ▶ **Linear model:**  $Y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 z_i + \varepsilon_i$

$$x_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{ is Polish} \\ 0 & \text{if } i \text{ is Irish} \end{cases} \quad z_i = \text{BMI of subject } i.$$

This is called an **ANCOVA** model (ANalysis of COVariance), because we “adjust” with a quantitative/continuous covariate.



- ▶  $\alpha$ : mean outcome for Irish ( $x=0$ ) with BMI=0 ( $z=0$ ) (meaningless!)
- ▶  $\beta_1$ : difference in mean outcome between Polish and Irish among women having the same BMI (whatever it is).
- ▶  $\beta_2$ : difference in mean outcome between two women, one having a BMI one unit higher than the other ( $z+1$  versus  $z$ ), among women of the same country (whatever it is).

**Note:** this holds whatever the two BMI values being compared, as long as there is a one unit difference between the two. This is the so called “linearity assumption”.



## R code:

```
irlpolwomen$bmi5 <- irlpolwomen$bmi/5  
lm3 <- lm(log10(vitd) ~ bmi5 + Country, data = irlpolwomen)  
summary(lm3)
```

## Output:

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	2.04273	0.12291	16.620	< 2e-16	***
bmi5	-0.07593	0.02262	-3.357	0.00110	**
CountryPoland	-0.13135	0.04005	-3.280	0.00142	**



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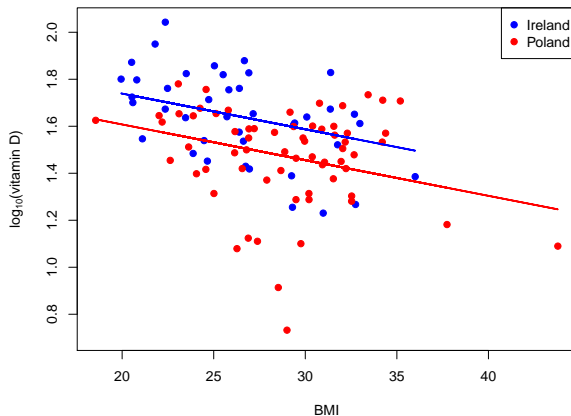
```
FormatResLm(lm3)
```

## Output:

	Est	2.5 %	97.5 %	p-value
(Intercept)	2.04	1.80	2.29	< 2e-16
bmi5	-0.08	-0.12	-0.03	0.00110
CountryPoland	-0.13	-0.21	-0.05	0.00142



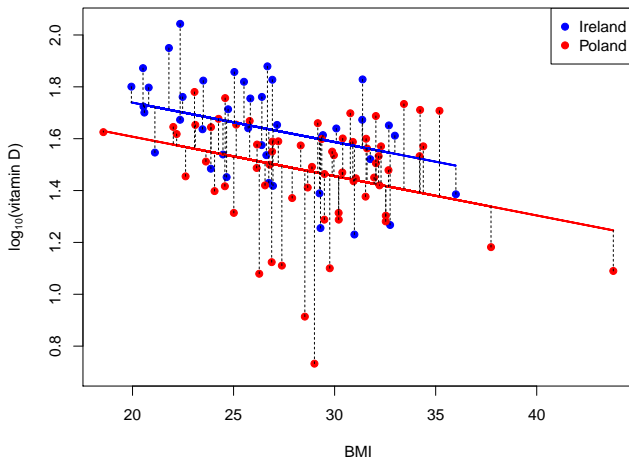
# Visualizing the raw data & results



**Note:** an ANCOVA model is simply a regression model for **parallel regression lines**.

- ▶  $\beta_2$ : is the common slope of the two lines.
- ▶  $\beta_1$ : is the size of the vertical distance between the two lines.

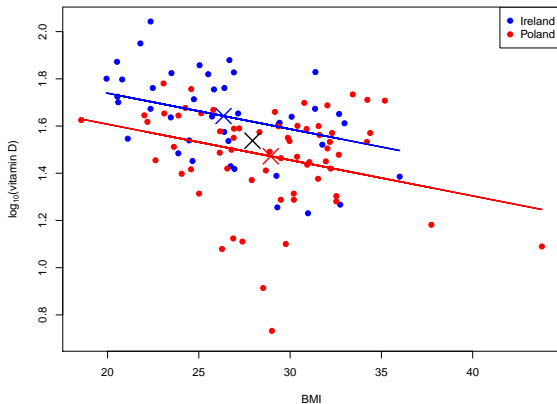
# Estimate of $\sigma_{\varepsilon}$ (standard deviation of the 'error' terms)



In the output of the `summary()`, “Residual standard error: 0.1921” is the estimate of  $\sigma_{\varepsilon}$ . It is computed “nearly” as the **standard deviation** of the **residuals** represented by the horizontal black dashed bars. It quantifies the **vertical “spread”** of the individual observations below/above the corresponding regression lines.

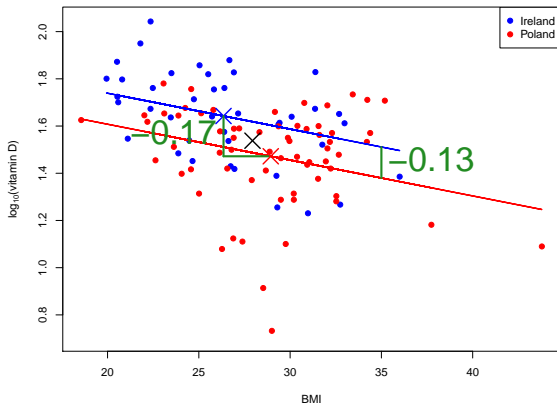


# Comparing adjusted and unadjusted results



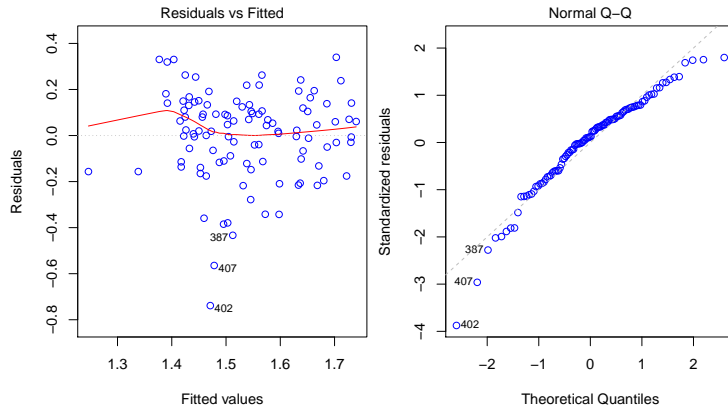
- crosses represent the mean of BMI (x-axis) and outcome (y-axis) of the entire sample (black) and for each country.

# Comparing adjusted and unadjusted results



- crosses represent the mean of BMI (x-axis) and outcome (y-axis) of the entire sample (black) and for each country.
- Because the mean BMI is not the same in the two countries and because BMI is associated to the level of vitamin D, the adjusted and non-adjusted results are different.
- unadjusted difference between countries is -0.17, adjusted is -0.13.

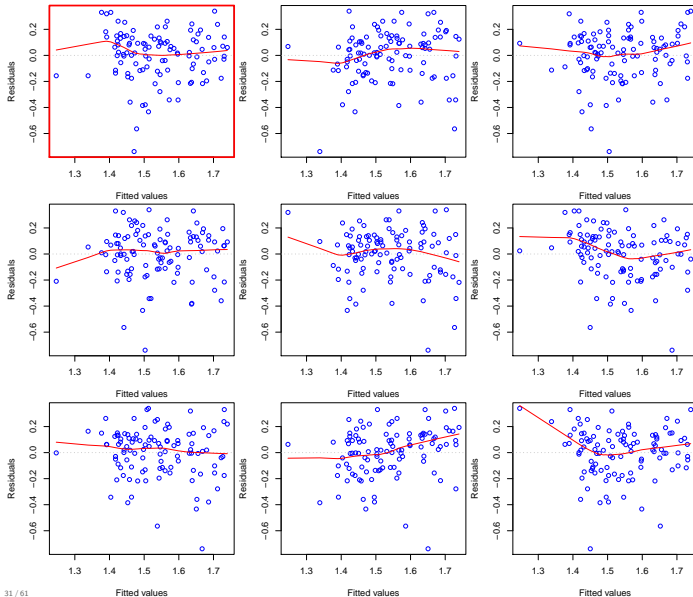
# Model checking (default) plots



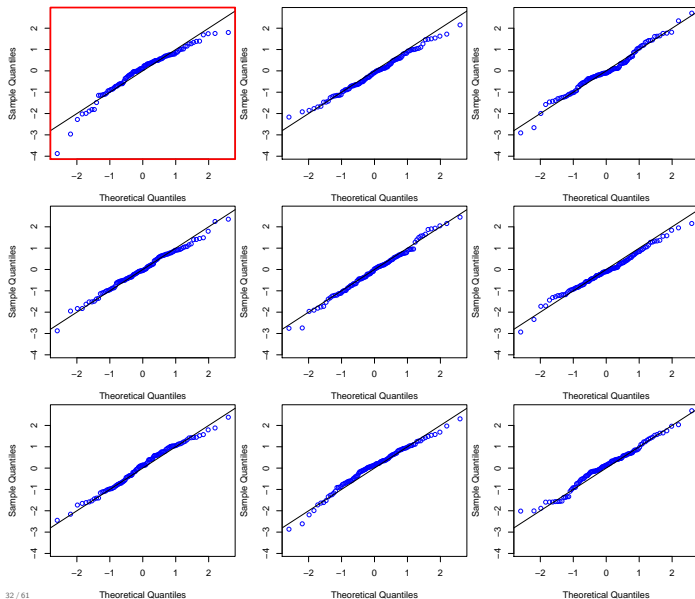
- ▶ Residual plot: always “important”.
- ▶ QQplot: mostly for small samples and when computing **prediction intervals**.
- ▶ Similar importance, for similar reasons, as in univariate linear regression (Lecture 3) and ANOVA model (Lecture 4).



# Wally residual plot



# Wally QQplot



# ANCOVA with more than two categories

- ▶ **Research question:** is there a difference in mean log-vitamin D between **Danish, Finnish, Irish and Polish** elderly women having the **same BMI**?
- ▶ **Predictor variable(s):**
  - ▶ BMI as a **quantitative** (continuous) variable
  - ▶ Country Denmark / Finland / Ireland / Poland
- ▶ **Data example:** all elderly women,  $n = 213$  ( $53 + 54 + 41 + 65$ ).
- ▶ **Linear model:**  $Y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 z_i + \beta_3 v_i + \beta_4 w_i + \varepsilon_i$

$$x_i = \text{BMI of subject } i \quad z_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{ is Finnish} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$v_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{ is Irish} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad w_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{ is Polish} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Note:  $z_i = v_i = w_i = 0$  for Danish women (reference group).



- ▶  $\beta_2$ : difference in mean outcome between Finnish and Danish among women having the same BMI (whatever it is).
- ▶  $\beta_3$  &  $\beta_4$ : same but between Irish and Danish & Polish and Danish.



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- ▶  $\beta_3$  &  $\beta_4$ : same but between Irish and Danish & Polish and Danish.

As in the simpler ANOVA context, we can test the global null hypothesis

*" $H_0$ : there is no difference in mean log-vitamin level between women of the four countries, when comparing women of the same BMI",*

that is

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

Similarly as in the (simpler) ANOVA context, we can use either:

- ▶ F-test
- ▶ min-P method

Pros and cons are similar to those in the ANOVA context (Lecture 4).





# R code & default output

## R code:

```
lm4 <- lm(log10(vitd) ~ bmi5 + Country, data = dwomen)
summary(lm4)
```

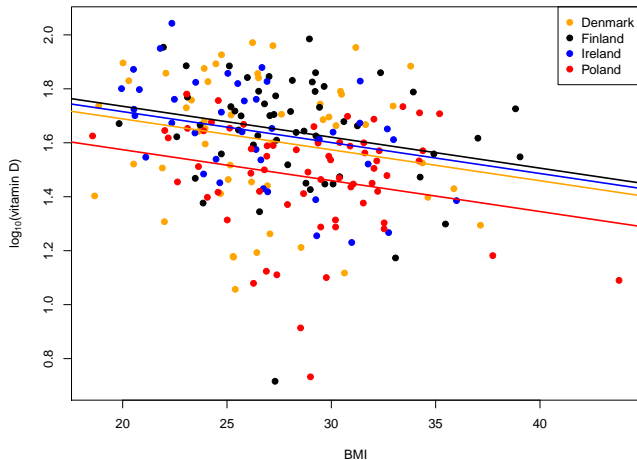
## Output:

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(Intercept)	1.91780	0.09710	19.750	< 2e-16	***
bmi5	-0.05732	0.01746	-3.282	0.00121	**
CountryFinland	0.04674	0.04128	1.132	0.25891	
CountryIreland	0.02683	0.04390	0.611	0.54170	
CountryPoland	-0.11415	0.03995	-2.857	0.00471	**



# Visualizing the raw data & results



## R code:

```
anova(lm(log10(vitd) ~ bmi5, data = dwomen),
      lm(log10(vitd) ~ bmi5 + Country, data = dwomen))
```

## Output:

Analysis of Variance Table

Model 1: log10(vitd) ~ bmi5

Model 2: log10(vitd) ~ bmi5 + Country

	Res.Df	RSS	Df	Sum of Sq	F	Pr(>F)
1	211	10.1690				
2	208	9.2635	3	0.9055	6.7773	0.0002212 ***

## Comments:

- ▶ **F-test** p-value=0.0002212 is significant: there is a difference between countries, for the average outcome, when comparing women of the same BMI. **But which differences?**
- ▶ To **avoid coding mistakes and misunderstandings** of R output do compare the two models: do not use “anova(lm4)”.



# Recommended analysis (see R-demo for code)

## Statistical methods:

Comparisons between countries were made with a multiple linear model to adjust on BMI (ANCOVA). P-values and 95% confidence intervals were adjusted for multiple testing using the min-P method (aka max-t test) as implemented in the multcomp-package [ref.<sup>5</sup>] of the statistical software R [ref.<sup>6</sup>] and described in [ref.<sup>7</sup>].

**Results** (adjusted for multiple testing):

Comparison	Est. Diff	95% CI	p-value
Finland - Denmark	0.05	[-0.06; 0.15]	0.6695
Ireland - Denmark	0.03	[-0.09; 0.14]	0.9282
Poland - Denmark	-0.11	[-0.22;-0.01]	0.0239
Ireland - Finland	-0.02	[-0.13; 0.09]	0.9695
Poland - Finland	-0.16	[-0.26;-0.06]	<b>0.0003</b>
Poland - Ireland	-0.14	[-0.25;-0.03]	0.0069

## Note:

- ▶ Significant **association** between countries and log vitamin D after adjusting on BMI, p-value= **0.0003** (i.e. the **minimum**). And we also know where the differences are!
- ▶ Similarly, we can use the method for the **“many-to-one”** setting (as in Lecture 4).
- ▶ This method **works with any linear model**, not just an ANCOVA (and so does the F-test).

<sup>5</sup> Hothorn, Bretz & Westfall (2008). Simultaneous Inference in General Parametric Models. Biometrical Journal 50(3), 346–363.

<sup>6</sup> R Core Team (2022). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL <https://www.R-project.org/>.

<sup>7</sup> Bretz, Hothorn, & Westfall (2016). Multiple comparisons using R. CRC Press.



# Outline

## The multiple linear model

- ILO: to outline what the multiple linear model is about
- ILO: to list important methods that are special cases of the model
- ILO: to describe the connection with the t-test

## Why multiple regression?

- ILO: to exemplify when a multiple regression can be better than a univariate analysis
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## ANCOVA and model checking

- ILO: to use the ANCOVA and interpret the results
- ILO: to evaluate some modeling assumption

## Digression: Table-I and the statistical analysis plan (SAP)

- ILO: to repeat widely recommended practices in statistics

## Interaction and subgroup analysis

- ILO: to interpret models with interaction and exemplify their usefulness
- ILO: to contrast the use of these models and subgroup analyses



# Digression: How to adjust?

There is **usually no unique “best” way** to choose the variables **to adjust** on, but several interesting options, all with pros and cons. But, the choice should be **supported** by:

- ▶ **Research question**
  - ▶ Which groups do we want to compare? In which population? Among subjects similar with respect to what?
- ▶ **Background knowledge**
  - ▶ Why these groups? Why these population and comparisons among these “similar” subjects?
- ▶ **Available data** (variables & sample size)
  - ▶ What is the best compromise between what we ideally want to do and what we can do?

**Note:** several models may be needed when there are several research questions.<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>8</sup> See e.g. Westreich & Greenland (2013). The table 2 fallacy: presenting and interpreting confounder and modifier coefficients. *American journal of epidemiology*, 177(4), 292-298.



# Digression: Table 1

- ▶ Using a simple descriptive “Table 1” to informally compare the distribution of all variables (except the outcome) between the groups we want to compare often helps to choose how we should adjust.
- ▶ It is often useful to adjust on age, gender, baseline comorbidities etc or any variable which is not equally distributed between the groups<sup>9</sup>.
- ▶ This is fine and not “cheating” (i.e. not “data snooping” or “p-hacking”) as long we do not look at any association between the outcome and any variable before we make the choice on how to adjust. Of course, full pre-specification is even better, if possible<sup>10</sup>.
- ▶ The aim of this descriptive “Table 1” is often only to describe the population of each group, hence it usually makes sense and is recommended that it does not include p-values.<sup>11</sup>

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<sup>9</sup>and which is not a consequence of the treatments or exposures being studied

<sup>10</sup>e.g. for clinical trials, often we can and we should fully prespecify.

<sup>11</sup>See e.g. STROBE or CONSORT statements endorsed by most medical journals.



# Digression: efficient “Table 1” making in R (“Publish” R package)

## R code:

```
Tab1ex <- univariateTable(Country~age+Q(bmi)+Q(vitdintake)+sunexp,
                           data=IrFinPo,
                           compare.groups = FALSE,
                           show.totals = FALSE)
```

Tab1ex

## Output:

Variable	Level	Denmark (n=78)	Finland (n=88)	Ireland (n=54)
age	mean (sd)	52.7 (27.7)	49.1 (29)	57.8 (25.9)
bmi	median [iqr]	24.9 [20.9, 27.5]	25.5 [20.8, 28.8]	24.9 [22.4, 28.9]
vitdintake	median [iqr]	6.1 [ 2.7, 11.6]	7.9 [ 5.0, 15.2]	5.3 [ 2.9, 10.5]
sunexp	avoid	14 (17.9)	15 (17.0)	18 (33.3)
	sometimes	43 (55.1)	42 (47.7)	25 (46.3)
	prefer	21 (26.9)	31 (35.2)	11 (20.4)

**Note:** remember, a “common task” is rarely time-consuming to R users. Packages and specific functions are continuously created to help with common needs. Spend a few minutes to search appropriate packages!





# Digression: statistical analysis plan (SAP)

- ▶ It is **strongly recommended** to **make a statistical analysis plan (SAP)** **before** starting any analysis on the outcome data. This is a must for confirmatory research (e.g. randomized clinical trials).
- ▶ It consists of a **list of research questions and corresponding analyses**, ideally with a few comments to explain their rationale.

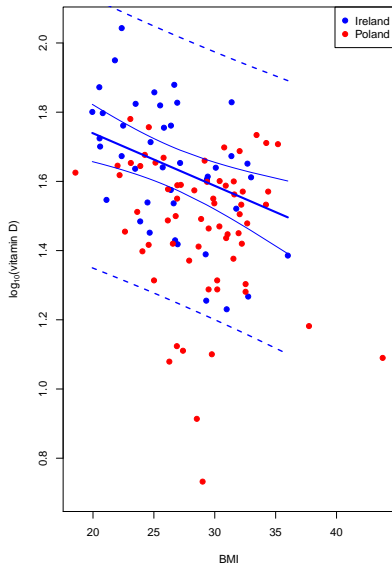
**It helps** to:

- ▶ better discuss with your collaborators and supervisors.
- ▶ anticipate challenges (and prevent many stressful situations...)
- ▶ rigorously **prespecify** your analyses and therefore increase the trust that you and your readers can have in your results.
- ▶ *"In fact, a lot of questionable research practices can be avoided with a study protocol and statistical analysis plan."*<sup>12</sup>

It is completely **fine to make revisions** to the statistical plan and perform post hoc analyses **as long as conclusions** based on these additional analyses **are suitably calibrated**.



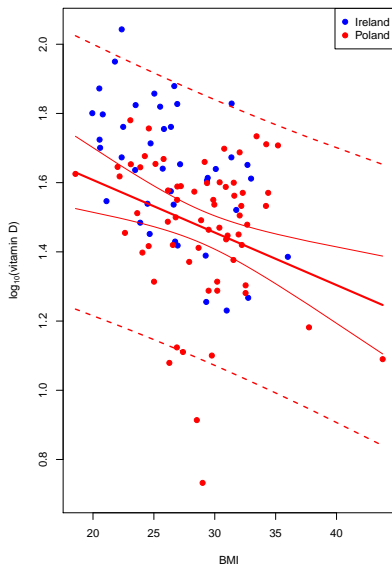
# Prediction interval vs confidence intervals



- **Confidence interval** (of the estimated mean value): it quantifies the **uncertainty in the estimation** of the population mean. It tells us where we are “confident” that the population mean is (plain lines).
- **Prediction interval**: it tells us the **range of values** that include most (95%) of the observations in the **entire population** (dashed lines). Its width essentially depends on the estimated standard error of the “error term”  $\sigma_{\epsilon}$ . It relies **strongly** on the normal distribution assumption of the “error term”.



# Prediction interval vs confidence intervals



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# Case: a (first) model with an interaction

## ► Research questions:

- Is BMI associated with log-vitamin D in **both** Irish and Polish elderly women?
- Is there a **different association** between log-vitamin D and BMI in Irish and Polish elderly women?

## ► Predictor variable(s):

- BMI as a quantitative (continuous) variable
- Country Ireland / Poland

## ► Data example: Irish and Poland women, $n = 106$ ( $41 + 65$ ).

## ► Linear model: $Y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 z_i + \beta_3 x_i \cdot z_i + \varepsilon_i$

$$x_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{ is Polish} \\ 0 & \text{if } i \text{ is Irish} \end{cases} \quad z_i = \text{BMI of subject } i.$$

The term  $\beta_3 x_i \cdot z_i$  models an **interaction** between  $x$  and  $z$ .



# R code & default output

## R code:

```
lm5 <- lm(log10(vitd) ~ Country * bmi5, data = irlpolwomen)
summary(irlpolwomen)
```

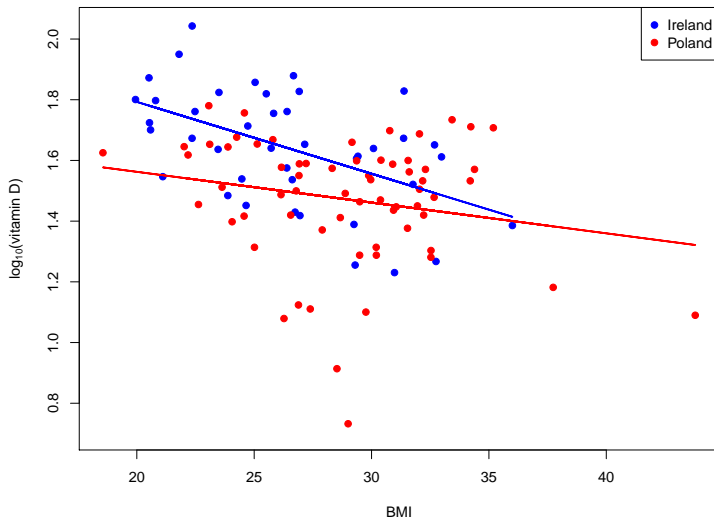
## Output:

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	2.26626	0.19630	11.545	< 2e-16	***
CountryPoland	-0.50113	0.25719	-1.948	0.05410	.
bmi5	-0.11834	0.03681	-3.215	0.00175	**
CountryPoland:bmi5	0.06768	0.04650	1.455	0.14865	

Conclusions?





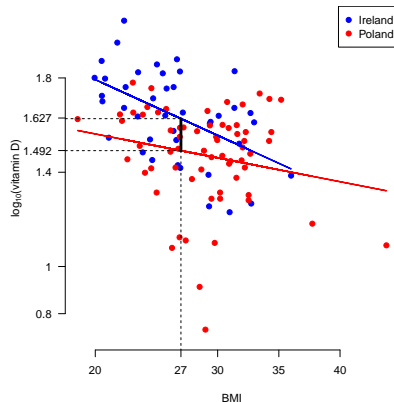
- ▶ Blue slope (Ireland)  $\hat{\beta}_2 = -0.11834/5 \approx -0.12/5$
- ▶ Red slope (Poland)  $\hat{\beta}_2 + \hat{\beta}_3 = (-0.11834 + 0.06768)/5 \approx -0.05/5$
- ▶ Difference in slope (Poland - Ireland)  $\hat{\beta}_3 = 0.06768/5 \approx 0.07/5$

# Trick: re-parametrization for a nicer interpretation of all estimates

We refit the same model after subtracting 27 to the BMI variable.

## R code:

```
irlpolwomen$bmi5b <- (irlpolwomen$bmi-27)/5
lm5b <- lm(log10(vitd) ~ Country * bmi5b,
           data = irlpolwomen)
summary(lm5b)
```



## Output:

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	1.62722	0.03021	53.862	< 2e-16 ***
CountryPoland	-0.13567	0.03995	-3.396	0.000975 ***
bmi5b	-0.11834	0.03681	-3.215	0.001749 **
CountryPoland:bmi5b	0.06768	0.04650	1.455	0.148649





- ▶ **(Intercept) 1.62722**: estimated mean log vitamin D for an elderly **Irish** woman having a BMI of 27 (i.e. the “reference” woman here). This is an estimated **mean**.
- ▶ **CountryPoland -0.13567**: we estimate that, in average, the log vitamin D of a **Polish** elderly woman having a BMI of 27 is 0.13567 lower than that of an **Irish** elderly woman also having a BMI of 27. This is an estimated **difference in means**.
- ▶ **bmi5b -0.11834**: we estimate that, in average, the log vitamin D of any elderly **Irish** woman is 0.11834 lower than that of another elderly **Irish** woman having a 5-unit lower BMI. This is an estimated **difference in means**.
- ▶ **CountryPoland:bmi5b 0.06768**: we estimate that, in average, the difference in log vitamin D between two elderly **Irish** women, one having a 5-unit lower BMI than the other, is 0.06768 larger than the same difference among **Polish** elderly women. This is an estimated **difference in differences in means**.

We further estimate that, in average, the log vitamin D of any elderly **Polish** woman is  $0.11834 - 0.06768 \approx 0.05$  lower than that of an elderly **Polish** woman having a 5-unit lower BMI.

**Note:** be careful when writing conclusion sentences: are you comparing “A to B” or “B to A” in the sentence? Is it the same in the output of the software?



# Trick: changing the reference level (for the slope in the other group)

## R code:

```
irlpolwomen$Country2 <- relevel(irlpolwomen$Country,ref="Poland")  
lm5c <- lm(log10(vitd) ~ Country2 * bmi5b, data = irlpolwomen)  
FormatResLm(lm5c)
```

## Output:

	Est	2.5 %	97.5 %	p-value
(Intercept)	1.49	1.44	1.54	< 2e-16
Country2Ireland	0.14	0.06	0.21	0.000975
bmi5b	-0.05	-0.11	0.01	0.077570
Country2Ireland:bmi5b	-0.07	-0.16	0.02	0.148649

**Note:** the effect of BMI on log-vitamin D is not significant among Polish elderly women (p-value=0.078). This **could not be read from previous R output**, although this is interesting for our **research question**!



# Two-way ANOVA with interaction

- ▶ **Research question:** is there a difference in average log-vitamin D between Irish and Polish elderly women having the **same BMI group**?
- ▶ **Predictor variable(s):**
  - ▶ BMI "normal" (18.5-25) / "overweight" (>25).
  - ▶ Country Ireland / Poland
- ▶ **Data example:** Irish and Poland women,  $n = 106$  (41 + 65).
- ▶ **Linear model:** 
$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 z_i + \beta_3 x_i \cdot z_i + \varepsilon_i$$

$$x_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{ is Polish} \\ 0 & \text{if } i \text{ is Irish} \end{cases} \quad z_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{ is "overweight"} \\ 0 & \text{if } i \text{ has a "normal" weight} \end{cases}$$

This is a **two-way ANOVA model with interaction**.



# Parameters interpretation

According to the model, the means of log-vitamin D are:

BMI \ Country	Ireland	Poland
"Normal"	$\alpha$	$\alpha + \beta_1$
"Overweight"	$\alpha + \beta_2$	$\alpha + \beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3$

- ▶  $\alpha$ : **mean** outcome for Irish with "normal" BMI (**reference group**).
- ▶  $\beta_1$ : **difference in mean** outcome between Irish and Polish among women with "normal" BMI.
- ▶  $\beta_2$ : **difference in mean** outcome between women with "overweight" and those having a "normal" BMI, among Irish women.
- ▶  $\beta_1 + \beta_3$ : **difference in mean** outcome between Irish and Polish among women with "overweight".
- ▶  $\beta_2 + \beta_3$ : **difference in mean** outcome between women with "overweight" and those having a "normal" BMI, among Polish women.
- ▶  $\beta_3$ : **difference in differences in means**....



## R code:

```
lm6 <- lm(log10(vitd) ~ Country * bmigroup, data = irlpolwomen)
summary(lm6)
```

## Output:

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	1.71987	0.04840	35.538	<2e-16	***
CountryPoland	-0.12142	0.07393	-1.643	0.1036	
bmigroup1	-0.12682	0.06198	-2.046	0.0433	*
CountryPoland:bmigroup1	-0.02838	0.08758	-0.324	0.7466	

Conclusions? Does this output answer our research question?



## R code:

```
lm6 <- lm(log10(vitd) ~ Country * bmggroup, data = irlpolwomen)
summary(lm6)
```

## Output:

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	1.71987	0.04840	35.538	<2e-16	***
CountryPoland	-0.12142	0.07393	-1.643	0.1036	
bmggroup1	-0.12682	0.06198	-2.046	0.0433	*
CountryPoland:bmggroup1	-0.02838	0.08758	-0.324	0.7466	

Conclusions? Does this output answer our research question?

In part yes, but not fully. We see both the estimated difference and the p-value for the difference between the countries, for women with “normal” BMI only. We do not see these results (no p-value) for those with “high” BMI. <sup>13</sup>

<sup>13</sup>Of course, we would like to also see the 95%-CIs, for complete reporting of the results. This will able us to distinguish between the “statistical” and “clinical” importance of the difference we observe.



We re-fit the model after changing the reference group for the BMI group variable.

## R code:

```
irlpolwomen$bmigroup2 <- relevel(irlpolwomen$bmigroup,ref="1")
lm6b <- lm(log10(vitd) ~ Country * bmigroup2, data = irlpolwomen)
summary(lm6b)
```

## Output:

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	1.59305	0.03872	41.147	< 2e-16	***
CountryPoland	-0.14981	0.04697	-3.190	0.00189	**
bmigroup20	0.12682	0.06198	2.046	0.04330	*
CountryPoland:bmigroup20	0.02838	0.08758	0.324	0.74656	

## Conclusions?



# 95%-CI and conclusion sentences

## R code:

```
round(confint(lm6b),2)
```

## Output:

	2.5 %	97.5 %
(Intercept)	1.52	1.67
CountryPoland	-0.24	-0.06
bmigroup20	0.00	0.25
CountryPoland:bmigroup20	-0.15	0.20

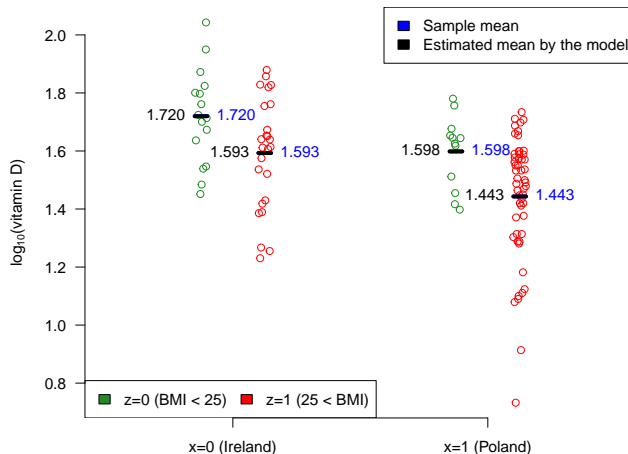
- ▶ We estimate that, on average, Polish “overweight” women have a value of  $\log_{10}$  vitamin D concentrations 0.15 lower than Irish “overweight” women (95%-CI=[0.06,0.24],  $p=0.002$ ).
- ▶ We did not find evidence that that, on average, Polish “normal weight” women have a value of  $\log_{10}$  vitamin D concentrations different to that of Irish “normal weight” women (Mean Difference= -0.12, 95%-CI=[-0.27,0.03],  $p=0.104$ ).<sup>14</sup>
- ▶ Note: we computed two p-values, thus adjusting for multiple testing might be needed.<sup>15</sup>

<sup>14</sup> One needs to run `round(confint(lm6),2)` to read the confidence interval for this “normal weight” BMI group.

<sup>15</sup> e.g. typically needed in the context of confirmatory research, if this is the main analysis. Typically not needed when this is a posthoc / supplementary / exploratory analysis.







- ▶ Here the **estimated means are equal to the sample means**. We say that the model for the mean is **saturated** (because we have 4 parameters to estimate 4 means).
- ▶ We note the smaller sample size for “normal weight” women. We can hypothesize that the non-significant result in that group is due to lack of power.



# Interaction versus subgroup analysis

- ▶ In the two previous examples, the only **difference in the model assumptions** between using a **model with an interaction** and performing a **subgroup analysis** (one per country) is the way we model the **standard deviation of the error term**  $\sigma_\varepsilon$ : we would model two different values with the subgroup analysis, whereas only one with the interaction model.
- ▶ If we had adjusted on more variables, then the difference would be more important, because the subgroup analysis would implicitly also model interactions with all these other variables.



# Case: stratifying vs adjusting with interaction

Comparing estimated parameters:

	Statistical analysis choice			
	Adjust + inter		Subgroup	
	Poland	Ireland	Poland	Ireland
BMI (by 5)	-0.126	-0.050	-0.103	-0.047
Sun: sometimes vs avoid	0.020	0.020	-0.068	0.073
Sun: prefer vs avoid	0.054	0.054	-0.117	0.159

From the three models:

1. `lm(log10(vitd) ~ Country * bmi5b + sunexp, data = irlpolwomen)`
2. `lm(log10(vitd) ~ bmi5b + sunexp, data = poland)`
3. `lm(log10(vitd) ~ bmi5b + sunexp, data = ireland)`

**Note:** in model 1 (adjust + interaction), we assume that the “effect” of sun exposure is similar in Poland and Ireland, which is not the case with the subgroup analysis.



# Final words on modeling

Many topics discussed today and on day 6 are important beyond the linear and logistic model.

Most of the reasoning about modeling choices, including:

- ▶ which variables to include?
- ▶ how? (with or without interaction, categorized version or not...)
- ▶ why does it matter?

This applies for more complicated model that you may encounter/need during your research career.



# When, why, where to seek statistical help?

**When?** if you are not sure about how to...

- ▶ plan your experiment or clinical trial
- ▶ analyze your data
- ▶ answer reviewers or collaborators concerns

(this might be more complicated than it appears)

**Why?**

- ▶ you might get quick help and simple advice that make a big difference.
- ▶ to minimize the risk of “wasting” your precious research time and work by inappropriately analysis of your data.
- ▶ why not? it can sometimes be free of charge :-)

**Where?**

- ▶ Section of Biostatistics (<https://publichealth.ku.dk/about-the-department/biostat/>)
  - ▶ by phone (quick & simple questions): **free of charge**
  - ▶ short meeting (20 mins): **free of charge**
  - ▶ new collaborations: sometimes free, but usually not.
- ▶ private companies also exist.

