

Residual Analysis

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SCI 2000-Introduction to Data Science

Lecture Objectives

- Recognize the relative importance of regression assumptions.
- Interpret residual plots to determine whether the assumptions are likely to be met.

Motivation

- In the previous lecture, we talked about how to fit a linear regression model in **R**, and how it relates to common statistical procedures (e.g. t-test and ANOVA).
- But we haven't talked about assumptions yet!
 - I'll introduce them in the next slides.
- **Residual analysis** allows us to assess whether the assumptions are met and whether we should change our model.
 - We will focus on a *graphical* approach. In other courses, you may see different approaches.

Multiple Linear Regression

- Recall: Y is an outcome variable, X_1, \dots, X_p are covariates.
- The linear regression equation is

$$E(Y \mid X_1, \dots, X_p) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p.$$

- Some authors also write the following equation:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p + \epsilon.$$

- Here, ϵ is a random variable with mean 0 and variance σ^2 .
 - You can use either equation; I prefer the first one.

Fitted values and residuals i

- After we have estimated the regression coefficients $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p$, we can compute **fitted values** and **residuals**.
- We will use the hat notation to indicate that a parameter has been estimated:
 - β_0 is the (population) parameter.
 - $\hat{\beta}_0$ is the estimate from linear regression.
- Now assume we have our estimates $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \dots, \hat{\beta}_p$. For a given observation in our dataset, we also have a set of covariate values X_{i1}, \dots, X_{ip} .

Fitted values and residuals ii

- We get the i -th **fitted value** by plugging all these values in the regression equation:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_{i1} + \cdots + \hat{\beta}_p X_{ip}.$$

- We get the i -th **residual** by taking the difference between the observed value Y_i and the fitted value \hat{Y}_i :

$$\hat{e}_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i.$$

The fitted values and residuals can help us understand the fit of our regression model.

Assumptions of Linear Regression

Gelman, Hill and Vehtari (2020) list the assumptions of linear regression **in decreasing order of importance**:

1. Validity (with respect to the research question).
2. Representativeness (of the data with respect to the population).
3. Additivity and linearity.
4. Independence of **errors**.
5. Equal variance of **errors**.
6. Normality of **errors**.

Additivity and linearity

- Main mathematical assumption:

$$E(Y | X_1, \dots, X_p) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p.$$

- Or in English:
 - Changes in the conditional mean of Y should be additive and linear.
- **Note:** Conditional mean = on average
 - Life is probably nonlinear and non-additive...
 - But it can still be a good approximation of the average

Diagnostic plots

A powerful way of detecting violations of the assumptions is using **diagnostic plots**.

1. For **simple** linear regression (i.e. only one covariate), plot outcome against covariate.
2. Plot outcome against fitted values.
3. Plot residuals against fitted values and/or covariates.

Note: It is not recommended to plot outcome against residuals.

Example i

- Dataset `ironslag` from the `DAAG` package contains 53 observations of iron measurements, obtained via two methods: `chemical` and `magnetic`.

```
library(DAAG)
library(tidyverse)

# Fit model
fit <- lm(magnetic ~ chemical, data = ironslag)
confint(fit)
```

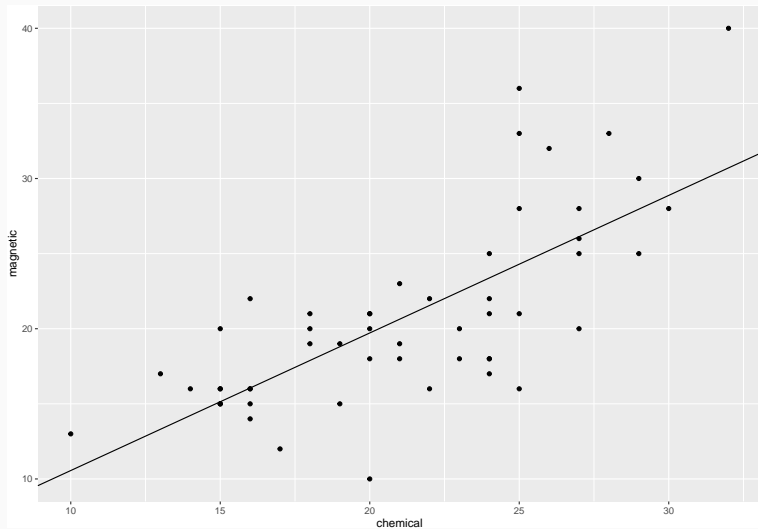
Example ii

```
##                2.5 %    97.5 %  
## (Intercept) -3.7856893 6.590884  
## chemical    0.6768355 1.154704
```

```
# Plot fitted linear trend
```

```
ggplot(ironslag, aes(x = chemical,  
                     y = magnetic)) +  
  geom_point() +  
  geom_abline(intercept = coef(fit)[1],  
             slope = coef(fit)[2])
```

Example iii



Example iv

```
library(broom)

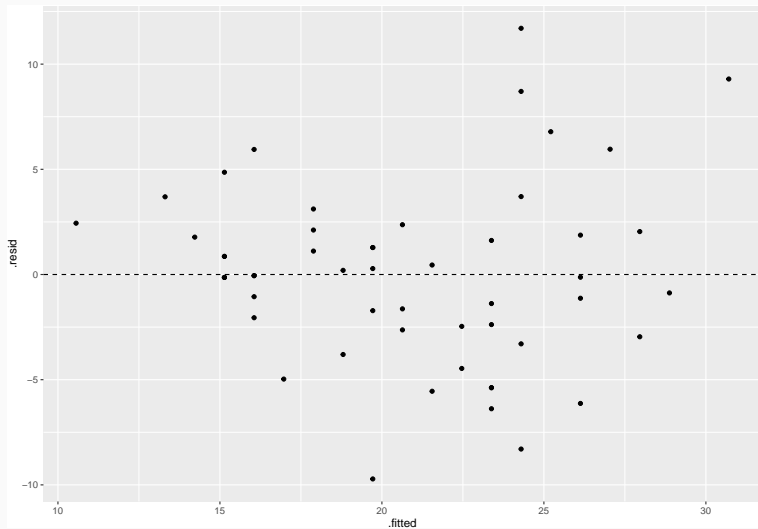
# Augment adds fitted values and residuals
# to the original data
names(augment(fit))

## [1] "magnetic" "chemical" ".fitted" ".resid"
".hat"
## [6] ".sigma" ".cooksd" ".std.resid"
```

Example v

```
# Fitted against residuals
augment(fit) %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = .fitted,
             y = .resid)) +
  geom_point() +
  geom_hline(yintercept = 0,
            linetype = "dashed")
```

Example vi



Example vii

- The residual plot shows evidence of heteroscedasticity and violation of additivity/linearity.
- **Conclusion:** Some assumptions of the linear model are likely violated.

Exercise

Use the dataset `mammals` from the package `MASS`. Create a new variable `log_body` by using a log transformation on the body size measurement. Fit a linear model of `brain` by `log_body`. Investigate whether the assumptions hold.

Solution i

- Dataset contains body and brain size measurements for 62 mammals.

```
library(MASS)
library(tidyverse)

dataset <- mutate(mammals,
                  log_body = log(body))

# Fit model
fit <- lm(brain ~ log_body, data = dataset)
```

Solution ii

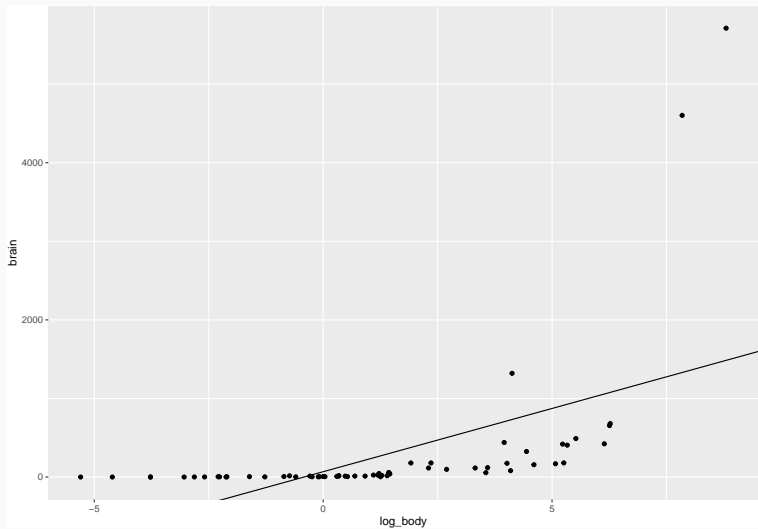
```
confint(fit)
```

```
##                2.5 %    97.5 %  
## (Intercept) -150.57636 286.1659  
## log_body      96.27998 225.7135
```

```
# Plot fitted linear trend
```

```
ggplot(dataset, aes(x = log_body,  
                    y = brain)) +  
  geom_point() +  
  geom_abline(intercept = coef(fit)[1],  
              slope = coef(fit)[2])
```

Solution iii



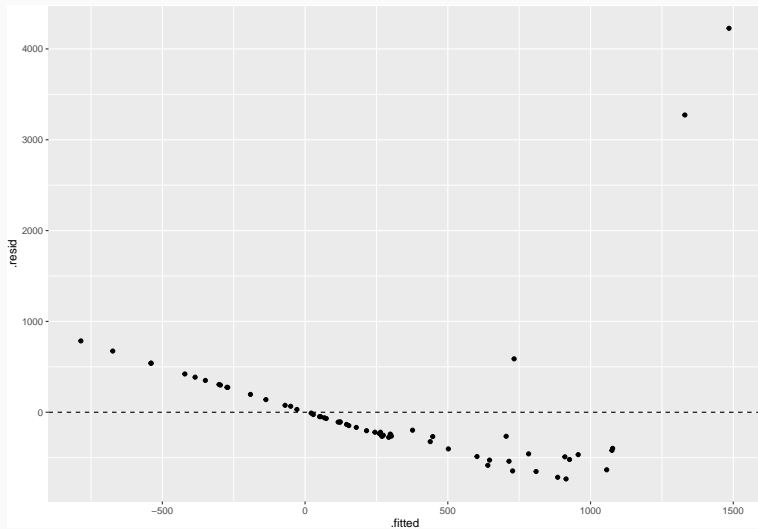
```
names(augment(fit))
```

```
## [1] ".rownames" "brain" "log_body" ".fitted"  
".resid"
```

```
## [6] ".hat" ".sigma" ".cooks" ".std.resid"
```

```
# Fitted against residuals
augment(fit) %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = .fitted,
             y = .resid)) +
  geom_point() +
  geom_hline(yintercept = 0,
            linetype = "dashed")
```

Solution vi



- There is clearly something wrong with our model...

Transforming variables i

- In the previous example, the relationship between `log_body` and `brain` started almost flat and then quickly jump up.
 - This looked like an exponential relationship...
- If we log-transform the outcome, the relationship should look more linear.

```
dataset <- mutate(mammals,  
                  log_body = log(body),  
                  log_brain = log(brain))  
  
# Fit model  
fit2 <- lm(log_brain ~ log_body, data = dataset)
```

Transforming variables ii

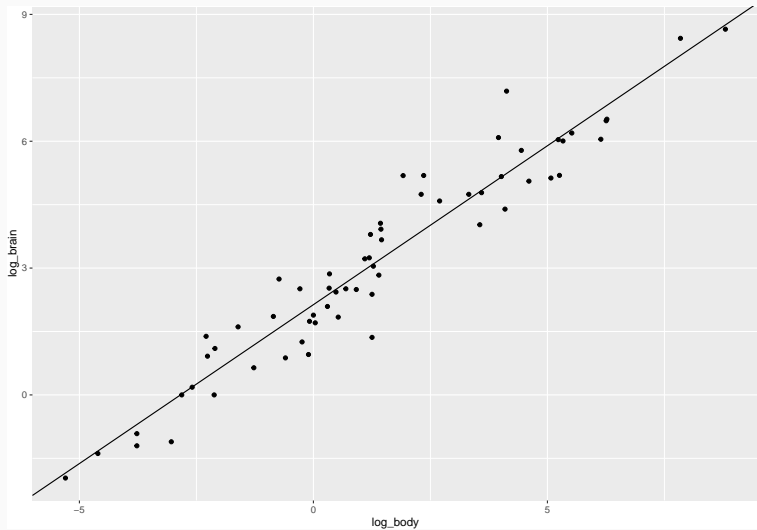
```
confint(fit2)
```

```
##                2.5 %    97.5 %  
## (Intercept) 1.9426733 2.3269041  
## log_body    0.6947503 0.8086215
```

```
# Plot fitted linear trend
```

```
ggplot(dataset, aes(x = log_body,  
                    y = log_brain)) +  
  geom_point() +  
  geom_abline(intercept = coef(fit2)[1],  
             slope = coef(fit2)[2])
```

Transforming variables iii



```
names(augment(fit2))
```

```
## [1] ".rownames" "log_brain" "log_body"
```

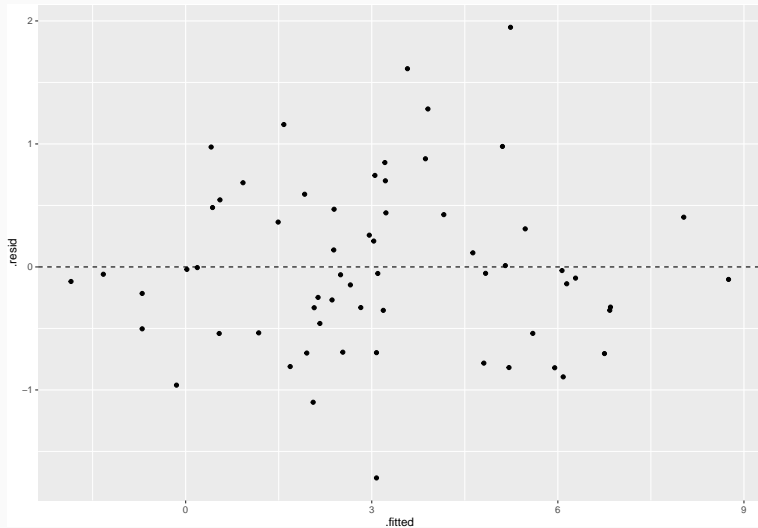
```
".fitted" ".resid"
```

```
## [6] ".hat" ".sigma" ".cooks" ".std.resid"
```

Transforming variables v

```
# Fitted against residuals
augment(fit2) %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = .fitted,
             y = .resid)) +
  geom_point() +
  geom_hline(yintercept = 0,
            linetype = "dashed")
```

Transforming variables vi



- The residual plot shows little evidence of heteroscedasticity or any model violation.
- **Conclusion:** The assumptions of the linear model likely hold.

Lifecycle of a regression model

1. Model building (i.e. choosing the variables in your model)
2. Model fitting
3. **Understanding the fit** (e.g. residual analysis)
4. Criticism

Important: This is typically an iterative process.

Equal variance of errors i

- Equal variance (aka homoscedasticity) is actually a fairly unimportant assumption.
 - If the goal of the model is prediction, accounting for unequal variance will improve accuracy.
- Unequal variance (aka heteroscedasticity) does not affect the validity of the confidence intervals.
- However, accounting for unequal variance can lead to more efficient inference (i.e. lower variance, narrower CIs).

Equal variance of errors ii

- **When is it not met?** Unequal variance could simply be a feature of the data, and it is common to have the variance depend on covariates (e.g. higher income patients have more variability in their diet).
- **How to fix this?** Weighted linear regression (beyond the scope of this course) or Eicker–Huber–White standard errors (see below).
 - These can also help address dependent errors.

Example i

- Let's go back to our first example:

```
library(DAAG)
library(tidyverse)

# Fit model
fit <- lm(magnetic ~ chemical, data = ironslag)
confint(fit)
```

```
##                2.5 %    97.5 %
## (Intercept) -3.7856893  6.590884
## chemical      0.6768355  1.154704
```

Example ii

- The Eicker–Huber–White standard errors replace the usual standard errors used to construct the confidence intervals.
 - But it doesn't affect the estimates themselves!

```
library(lmtest)
library(sandwich)
coefci(fit, vcov. = vcovHC(fit))

##                2.5 %    97.5 %
## (Intercept) -3.6068737  6.412069
## chemical    0.6546812  1.176859
```

Exercise

Compute robust confidence intervals for the regression model of `log_brain` vs `log_body`. Compare with the usual confidence intervals.

Solution i

```
dataset <- mutate(mammals,  
                  log_body = log(body),  
                  log_brain = log(brain))  
  
# Fit model  
fit2 <- lm(log_brain ~ log_body, data = dataset)  
  
confint(fit2)
```

Solution ii

```
##                2.5 %    97.5 %  
## (Intercept) 1.9426733 2.3269041  
## log_body    0.6947503 0.8086215
```

```
coefci(fit2, vcov. = vcovHC(fit2))
```

```
##                2.5 %    97.5 %  
## (Intercept) 1.9542558 2.315322  
## log_body    0.7062298 0.797142
```

Summary

- Residual analysis allows us to evaluate the fit of our model.
 - How well does the model explain our dataset?
- The most important statistical assumption is **additivity and linearity**, i.e. that the regression equation holds.
- If it doesn't seem to hold, it means we need to change the regression model.
 - Transform variables.
 - Add more covariates.
- Equal variance is not as important.
- Non-normality of the errors is rarely a problem.