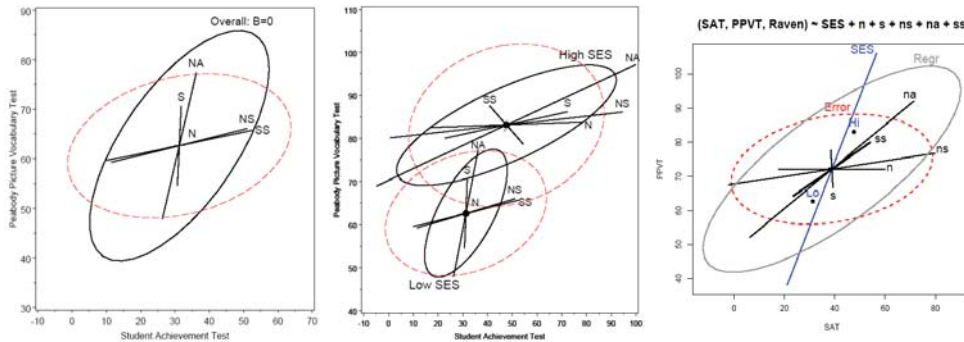


Multivariate multiple regression & visualizing multivariate tests



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Overview: Univariate & Multivariate Linear Models

	Dependent variables	
Independent variables	1 Quantitative $y = X \beta$	2+ Quantitative $Y = X B$
Quantitative	Regression	Multivariate regression
Categorical	ANOVA	MANOVA
Both	Reg. w/ dummy vars ANCOVA Homogeneity of regression	General MLM Homogeneity of regression MANCOVA

Today, just multivariate regression, with questions of homogeneity of regression. Once we learn how to do [multivariate tests](#), extensions to other contexts are easy

Multivariate regression

- When there are several ($p > 1$) criterion variables, we could just fit p separate models

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= X\beta_1 \\ y_2 &= X\beta_2 \\ &\dots \\ y_p &= X\beta_p \end{aligned}$$

```
proc reg;
  model y1-y4 = x1 - x10;
```

```
lm(cbind(y1,y2,y3,y4) ~ x[,1:10])
```

- But this:
 - Does not give [simultaneous tests](#) for all regressions
 - Does not take [correlations](#) among the y 's into account

Why do multivariate tests?

- Avoid [multiplying error rates](#), as in simple ANOVA
 - Overall test for multiple responses-- similar to overall test for many groups: g tests: $\alpha_{all} \approx g \alpha$
- Often, multivariate tests are [more powerful](#), when the responses are correlated
 - Small, positively correlated effects can [pool power](#).
 - If responses are uncorrelated, no need for multivariate tests
 - But this is rarely so
- Multivariate tests provide a way to understand the [structure](#) of relations across separate response measures. In particular:
 - how many "dimensions" of responses are important?
 - how do the predictors contribute to these?

Multivariate regression model

- The **multivariate** regression model is

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 & \dots & y_p \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_q \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 & \dots & \beta_p \end{bmatrix} + \mathbf{E}_{n \times p}$$

cols are coeffs for each **criterion**
rows, for each **predictor**

$$\mathbf{Y}_{n \times p} = \mathbf{X}_{n \times q} \mathbf{B}_{q \times p} + \mathcal{E}_{n \times p}$$

- The LS solution, $\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$ gives **same coefficients** as fitting p models separately.
- (Omitting here: consideration of model selection for each model)

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Example: Rohwer data

- $n=32$ Lo SES kindergarten kids
- $p=3$ response measures of aptitude/achievement: SAT, PPVT, Raven
- $q=5$ predictors: PA tests: n, s, ns, na, ss

SAS:

```
proc reg data=lo_ses;
  model sat ppvt raven = n s ns na ss;
  M1: mtest /* all coeffs = 0 */
```

R:

```
mod1<-lm(cbind(SAT, PPVT, Raven) ~ n+s+ns+na+ss, data=lo_ses)
Manova(mod1)
```

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Rohwer data: univariate regressions

- Separate univariate regressions

R ²	SAT	PPVT	Raven
	0.208	0.511**	0.222
Coefficients:			
	SAT	PPVT	Raven
(Intercept)	4.151	33.006	11.173
n	-0.609	-0.081	0.211
s	-0.050	-0.721	0.065
ns	-1.732	-0.298	0.216
na	0.495	1.470*	-0.037
ss	2.248*	0.324	-0.052

Overall tests for each response: $H_0: \beta_i = 0$

Tests for predictors on each response

Publish or perish? Doesn't look like there is much predictive power here!

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Rohwer data: multivariate regression

- Yet, the multivariate test is highly significant
 - Overall test for the multivariate model: $H_0: \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$
 - Positive correlations among responses have made this test more powerful – **pooling power!**

Multivariate Statistics and F Approximations						
		S=3	M=0.5	N=13.5		
Statistic	Value	F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr > F	
Wilks' Lambda	0.343	2.54	15	80.46	0.0039	
Pillai's Trace	0.825	2.35	15	93	0.0066	
Hotelling-Lawley	1.449	2.72	15	49.77	0.0042	
Roy's Max Root	1.055	6.54	5	31	0.0003	

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Multivariate General Linear Hypothesis (GLH)

- In addition to the overall test, $H_0 : \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$, it is more often desired to test hypotheses about **subsets of predictors** or **linear combinations** of coefficients
- The GLH is a single, general method for **all such tests**

$$H_0 : \mathbf{L}_{r \times q} \mathbf{B}_{q \times p} = \mathbf{0}_{r \times p}$$

where \mathbf{L} specifies r linear combinations of the parameters

```
proc reg data=lo_ses;
  model sat ppvt raven = n s ns na ss;
  M1: mtest; /* all coeffs = 0 */
  M2: mtest n,s,ns; /* n,s,ns = 0 */
run;
```

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Examples of GLH:

$p=2$ responses: y_1, y_2

$q=3$ predictors: $X_1 - X_3$

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{matrix} & y_1 & y_2 \\ \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{01} & \beta_{02} \\ \beta_{11} & \beta_{12} \\ \beta_{21} & \beta_{22} \\ \beta_{31} & \beta_{32} \end{pmatrix} & = & \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0^T \\ \beta_1^T \\ \beta_2^T \\ \beta_3^T \end{pmatrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \text{Intercept} \\ X_1 \\ X_2 \\ X_3 \end{matrix}$$

- (a) No effect of X_2, X_3

$$H_0 : \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \mathbf{0}_{2 \times 1} \Rightarrow \mathbf{L} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{L}\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_2^T \\ \beta_3^T \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

mtest x2, x3;

- (b) Same coef. for X_2, X_3

$$H_0 : \begin{cases} \beta_{21} = \beta_{31} \\ \beta_{22} = \beta_{32} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \mathbf{L} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{L}\mathbf{B} = (\beta_2 - \beta_3) = \mathbf{0}$$

mtest x2-x3;

(Makes sense only if X_2, X_3 are commensurate)

In R, these tests are done with `car::linearHypothesis()`

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Extended GLH

- The GLH can be extended to test **subsets** or **linear combinations of coefficients across the criteria**

$$H_0 : \mathbf{L} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{M}_{p \times t} = \mathbf{0}$$

where the post-factor, \mathbf{M} , specifies t linear combs. across criteria

- Previous slide: special case of $\mathbf{M}_{(p \times p)} = \mathbf{I}$
- Overall test ($\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$): $\mathbf{L}_{(q \times q)} = \mathbf{I}$ and $\mathbf{M}_{(p \times p)} = \mathbf{I}$

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Example: Coeffs for $Y_1 =$ coeffs for Y_2

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I}, \quad \mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{L}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{01} - \beta_{02} \\ \beta_{11} - \beta_{12} \\ \beta_{21} - \beta_{22} \\ \beta_{31} - \beta_{32} \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

mtest y1-y2;

(Again, makes sense only if Y_1 and Y_2 are commensurable)

```
proc reg data=lo_ses;
  model sat ppvt raven = n s ns na ss;
  M3: mtest sat - ppvt; /* SAT=PPVT */
run;
```

Note: In MANOVA designs:

- \mathbf{L} specifies a set of contrasts or tests among 'between-group' effects
- \mathbf{M} specifies contrasts among 'within-subject' effects (e.g., orthogonal polynomials or other within-S comparisons)

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Tests of multivariate hypotheses

- In the general linear model, $Y = X B + \epsilon$, all hypotheses are tested in the same way
- Calculate the $q \times q$ sum of squares and products matrices

$$H \equiv SSP_H = (LB)^T [L(X^T X)^{-1} L^T]^{-1} (LB)$$

$$E \equiv SSP_E = \hat{\epsilon}^T \hat{\epsilon}$$

- Diag elements of H & E are just the univariate SS
- The multivariate analog of the univariate F-test:

$$F = \frac{MS_H}{MS_E} \rightarrow (MS_H - F \times MS_E) = 0 \text{ is } |H - \lambda E| = 0$$

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Pause: ANOVA \rightarrow MANOVA tests

Recall that for a univariate response, the ANOVA table for the test of all predictors, $X_1 - X_p$, $H_0: \beta=0$ looks like the following:

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Regression	SSR(X_1, \dots, X_p)	q	SSR/p	MSR/MSE
Error	SSE	n-q	SSE/n-p	

- The F statistic quantifies how big MSR is relative to MSE as evidence against the null hypothesis.
- It is referred to an F distribution with (q, n-q) df to give p -values
- The same MSE is used in all tests of sub-hypotheses, e.g., $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$

In MANOVA tests, each SS becomes a $p \times p$ SSP matrix, H for the hypothesis, E for error. How big is H relative to E ?

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TABLE 4.7.2. MANOVA Table for Testing $\Gamma = 0$ for Multivariate Regression Model

Source	df	SSP
α_0	1	$\begin{bmatrix} 36,179.7027 \\ 72,484.4865 & 145,219.5676 \\ 15,322.4325 & 30,697.8378 & 6489.1892 \end{bmatrix}$
$\Gamma \alpha_0$	5	$\begin{bmatrix} 3,653.7732 & & \\ 2,159.9966 & 2,883.6759 & \\ 63.3680 & 281.4842 & 76.5286 \end{bmatrix} = Q_h$
Residual	31	Given by (4.7.3)
Total	37	$\begin{bmatrix} 57,363.0 & & 0 \\ 76,175.0 & 150,868.0 & \\ 15,843.0 & 31,193.0 & 6,834.0 \end{bmatrix} = Y'Y$

$$Q_e = Y'[I - X(X'X)^{-1}X']Y$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 13,929.5241 & & \\ 1530.5169 & 2764.7565 & \\ 457.1995 & 213.6780 & 268.2822 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \text{SAT} \\ \text{PPVT} \\ \text{Raven} \end{matrix}$$

$\begin{matrix} \text{SSE}(y_1) & \text{SSE}(y_2) & \text{SSE}(y_3) \end{matrix}$

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Tests of multivariate hypotheses

- All multivariate test statistics are based on latent roots, λ_i of H in the metric of E (or of HE^{-1}), or latent roots θ_i of $H(H+E)^{-1}$
 - These measure the "size" of H relative to E in up to p orthogonal dimensions
 - Various test statistics differ in how the information is combined across dimensions
 - Wilks' Lambda: product
 - Trace criteria: sum
 - Roy's test: maximum
- All ask "How big is H relative to E ?"

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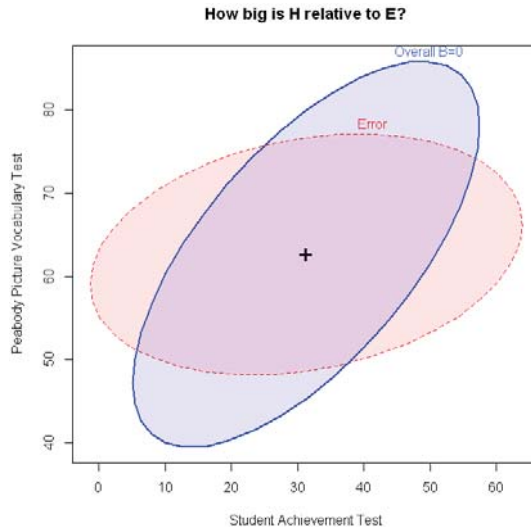
HE plots: Visualizing H & E

HE plots show the H & E matrices as data ellipsoids.

It is difficult to judge naively the size of H relative to E, but the eigenvalues of \mathbf{HE}^{-1} capture the essential information.

Contributions of $s=\min(p, df_h)$ dimensions can be summarized in different kinds of “means.”

As explained later, this plot provides a visual test of significance, based on Roy’s test



Multivariate test statistics: overview

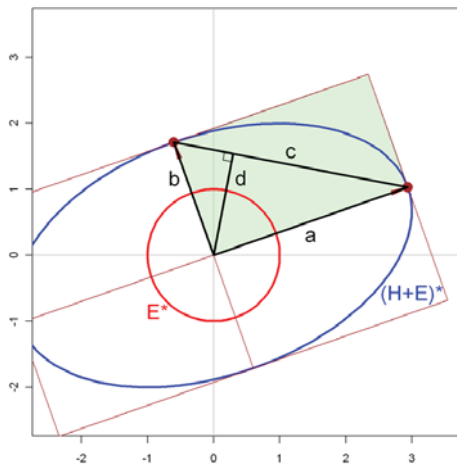
- How big is H relative to E across one or more dimensions?
- All test statistics can be seen as kinds of means of the $s=\min(p, df_h)$ non-zero eigenvalues of \mathbf{HE}^{-1} or of $\mathbf{H(H+E)}^{-1}$

Table 1: Multivariate test statistics as functions of the eigenvalues λ_i solving $\det(\mathbf{H} - \lambda\mathbf{E}) = 0$ or eigenvalues ρ_i solving $\det[\mathbf{H} - \rho(\mathbf{H} + \mathbf{E})] = 0$.

Criterion	Formula	“mean” of ρ	Partial η^2
Wilks’ Λ	$\Lambda = \prod_i^s \frac{1}{1+\lambda_i} = \prod_i^s (1 - \rho_i)$	geometric	$\eta^2 = 1 - \Lambda^{1/s}$
Pillai trace	$V = \sum_i^s \frac{\lambda_i}{1+\lambda_i} = \sum_i^s \rho_i$	arithmetic	$\eta^2 = \frac{V}{s}$
Hotelling-Lawley trace	$H = \sum_i^s \lambda_i = \sum_i^s \frac{\rho_i}{1-\rho_i}$	harmonic	$\eta^2 = \frac{H}{H+s}$
Roy maximum root	$R = \lambda_1 = \frac{\rho_1}{1-\rho_1}$	supremum	$\eta^2 = \frac{\lambda_1}{1+\lambda_1} = \rho_1$

(This table uses ρ instead of θ for eigenvalues of $\mathbf{H(H+E)}^{-1}$)

Multivariate test statistics: geometry



Easiest to see if we transform H & E to “canonical space” where

- $\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{E}^* = \mathbf{I}$ (stdized & uncorrelated)
- $(\mathbf{H+E}) \rightarrow (\mathbf{H+E})^* = \mathbf{E}^{-1/2} (\mathbf{H+E}) \mathbf{E}^{-1/2}$
- Allows to focus on just size of $(\mathbf{H+E})^*$

Then,

- Wilks’ $\Lambda \equiv$ test on area, $\sim (a \times b)^{-1}$
- HLT criterion \sim test on c
- Pillai trace criterion \sim test on d
- Roy’s test \sim test on a alone

Multivariate test statistics: details

- $n_h = df$ for hypothesis = # rows of L
- $n_e = df$ for error
- $s = \min(n_h, p) = \#$ non-zero roots = rank(H)
- $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_s =$ roots of $|\mathbf{H} - \lambda \mathbf{E}| = 0$
- $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_s =$ roots of $|\mathbf{H(H+E)}^{-1} - \lambda \mathbf{I}| = 0$

$$\lambda_i = \frac{\theta_i}{1-\theta_i} \quad \theta_i = \frac{\lambda_i}{1+\lambda_i}$$

Wilks' Lambda: details

- A likelihood-ratio test of $H_0: \mathbf{L B} = \mathbf{0}$

$$\Lambda = \frac{|\mathbf{E}|}{|\mathbf{H} + \mathbf{E}|} = \prod_{i=1}^s \frac{1}{1 + \lambda_i} = \prod_{i=1}^s (1 - \theta_i)$$

- Rao's F approximation (exact if $s \leq 2$)

$$F = \frac{1 - \Lambda^{1/t}}{\Lambda^{1/t}} \times \frac{mt - 2k}{pn_h} \sim F(pn_h, mt - 2k)$$

NB: df not always integers

- Association: $\eta^2 = 1 - \Lambda^{1/s} =$ geometric mean

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Pillai & Hotelling-Lawley trace criteria

- Based on sum (or average) of λ_i or θ_i
- Pillai:

$$V = \text{tr}[\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{H} + \mathbf{E})^{-1}] = \sum_{i=1}^s \theta_i = \sum_{i=1}^s \frac{\lambda_i}{1 + \lambda_i} \quad \eta^2 = V/s$$

$$F = \frac{2n + s + 1}{2m + s + 1} \times \frac{V}{s - V} \sim F[s(2m + s + 1), s(2n + s + 1)]$$

- Hotelling-Lawley:

$$H = \text{tr}[\mathbf{H}\mathbf{E}^{-1}] = \sum_{i=1}^s \lambda_i = \sum_{i=1}^s \frac{\theta_i}{1 - \theta_i} \quad \eta^2 = H/(H + s)$$

$$F = \frac{2(ns + 1)}{s^2(2m + s + 1)} \times H \sim F[s(2m + s + 1), 2(ns + 1)]$$

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Roy's maximum root test

- Most powerful when there is one large dimension of \mathbf{H} relative to \mathbf{E}

- $R = \lambda_1$ $\eta^2 = R/(R+1)$

$$F = \frac{n_e + n_h - s}{s} \sim F(s, n_e + n_h - s) \quad (\text{Exact if } s=1)$$

- Simplicity makes this useful for visual tests of significance in HE plots

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Multivariate tests for individual predictors

- $H_0: \boldsymbol{\beta}_i = \mathbf{0}$ – simultaneous test, for all p responses, of predictor \mathbf{x}_i
 - $\mathbf{L} = (0, 0, \dots, 1, 0, \dots, 0)_{(1 \times q)}$ in GLH
 - $\mathbf{H} = \boldsymbol{\beta}_i^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{\beta}_i$ – a rank 1 matrix ($s=1$)
 - All multivariate tests are exact & have the same p -values
 - More parsimonious than separate univariate tests for each response.

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Example: Rohwer data (SAS)

```
proc reg data=lo_ses;
  model sat ppvt raven = n s ns na ss ;
  Mn: mtest n; /* n=0 for all responses */
  Mna: mtest na; /* na=0 for all responses */
run;
```

Output for NA:

Multivariate Statistics and Exact F Statistics					
S=1 M=0.5 N=13.5					
Statistic	Value	F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr > F
Wilks' Lambda	0.733	3.53	3	29	0.0271
Pillai's Trace	0.267	3.53	3	29	0.0271
Hotelling-Lawley	0.365	3.53	3	29	0.0271
Roy's Max Root	0.365	3.53	3	29	0.0271

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Example: Rohwer data (R)

```
> Manova(mod1)

Type II MANOVA Tests: Pillai test statistic
  Df test stat approx F num Df den Df Pr(>F)
n 1 0.0384 0.3856 3 29 0.76418
s 1 0.1118 1.2167 3 29 0.32130
ns 1 0.2252 2.8100 3 29 0.05696 .
na 1 0.2675 3.5294 3 29 0.02705 *
ss 1 0.1390 1.5601 3 29 0.22030
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

Note: Manova() and Anova() in the car package are identical

They give a compact summary for *all predictors*, for a *given* test statistic
Gory details are available from the summary() method

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Canonical analysis: How many dimensions?

- Sequential tests for the latent roots λ_i of \mathbf{HE}^{-1} indicate the number of dimensions of the \mathbf{y} s predicted by the \mathbf{x} s.
- Canonical correlations: correlation of best linear combination of \mathbf{y} s with best of \mathbf{x} s

$$\lambda_i = \frac{\rho^2}{1 - \rho^2} \quad \rho^2 = \frac{\lambda}{1 + \lambda}$$

```
proc reg data=lo_ses;
  model sat ppvt raven = n s ns na ss;
  M1: mtest / canprint; /* all coeffs = 0 */
run;
```

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Canonical analysis: How many dimensions?

	Canonical Correlation	Adjusted Canonical Correlation	Approximate Standard Error	Squared Canonical Correlation
1	0.716526	0.655198	0.081098	0.513409
2	0.490621	0.414578	0.126549	0.240709
3	0.266778	0.211906	0.154805	0.071170

Eigenvalues of $\text{Inv}(\mathbf{E}) * \mathbf{H} = \text{CanRs} / (1 - \text{CanRs}^2)$

	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion	Cumulative
1	1.0551	0.7381	0.7283	0.7283
2	0.3170	0.2404	0.2188	0.9471
3	0.0766		0.0529	1.0000

Test of H0: The canonical correlations in the current row and all that follow are zero

	Likelihood Ratio	Approximate F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr > F
1	0.34316907	2.54	15	80.458	0.0039
2	0.70525204	1.43	8	60	0.2025
3	0.92882959	0.79	3	31	0.5078

Wilks' Lambda

only 1 signif. dim

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Visualizing multivariate tests: HE plots

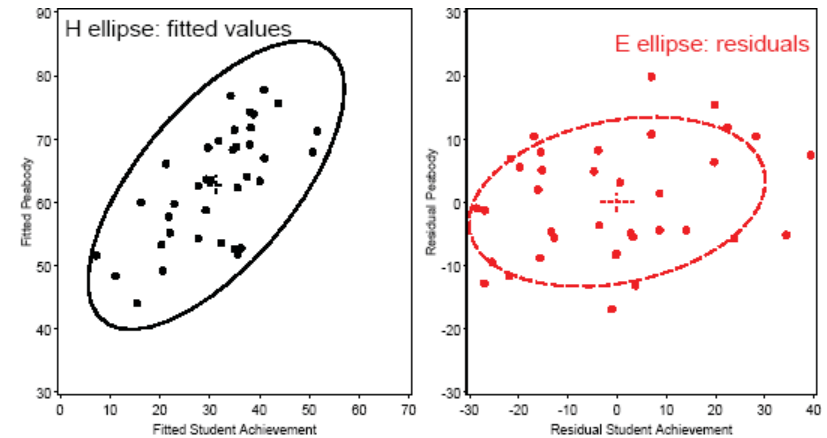
- The **H** and **E** matrices in the GLH summarize the (co)variation of the fitted values and residuals for a given effect

$$\mathbf{H} = \hat{\mathbf{Y}}_{eff}^T \hat{\mathbf{Y}}_{eff} \quad \mathbf{E} = \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^T \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

- For two variables, we can visualize their size & shape with **data ellipses**
- For $p=3$ these display as **ellipsoids**
- For $p>2$ can use an **HE-plot matrix**

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Data ellipses for H & E



How big is H relative to E?
How to make them comparable?

Animation:
<http://www.datavis.ca/gallery/animation/manova/>

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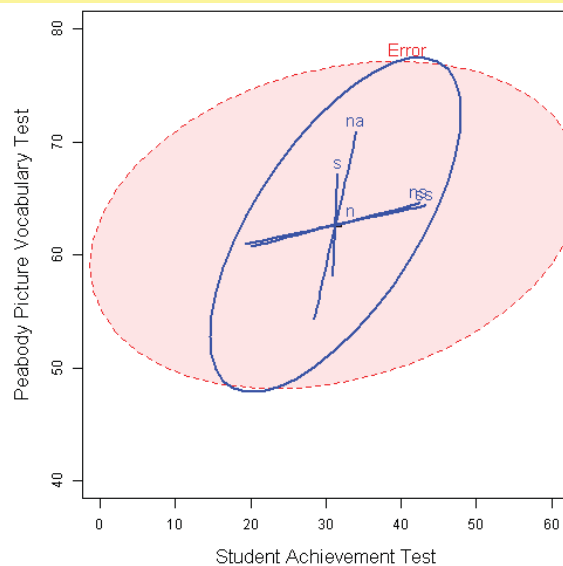
HE plot: effect scaling

- Scale: \mathbf{E}/df_e , \mathbf{H}/df_e
- Center: shift to centroid
- Plot: 68% data ellipses

For each predictor, the data ellipse degenerates to a line (rank \mathbf{H} : $s=1$)

- Orientation**: how x_i contributes to prediction of y_1, y_2

- Length**: relative strength of relation



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HE plot: significance scaling

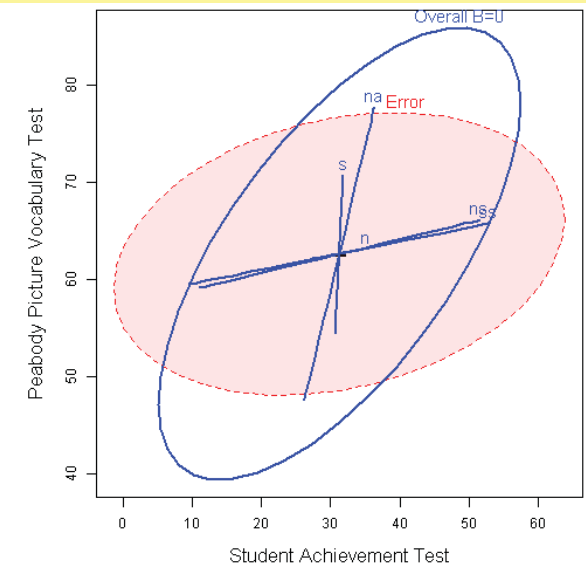
Scale:

- $\mathbf{E}: \mathbf{E}/df_e$
- $\mathbf{H}: \mathbf{H}/df_e \lambda_\alpha$

λ_α = critical value of Roy statistic at level α

→ any H ellipse will protrude beyond E ellipse *iff* effect is significant at level α

Directions of Hs show *how* predictors contribute to responses

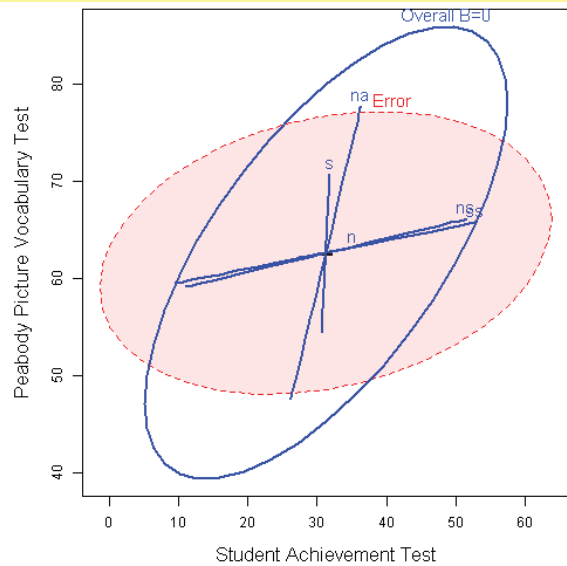


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HE plot: significance scaling

Rohwer data, low SES gp

- Overall test highly significant
- Only NA individually significant (in this view)
- NA & S contribute to predicting PPVT
- NS & SS contribute to SAT
- N doesn't contribute at all



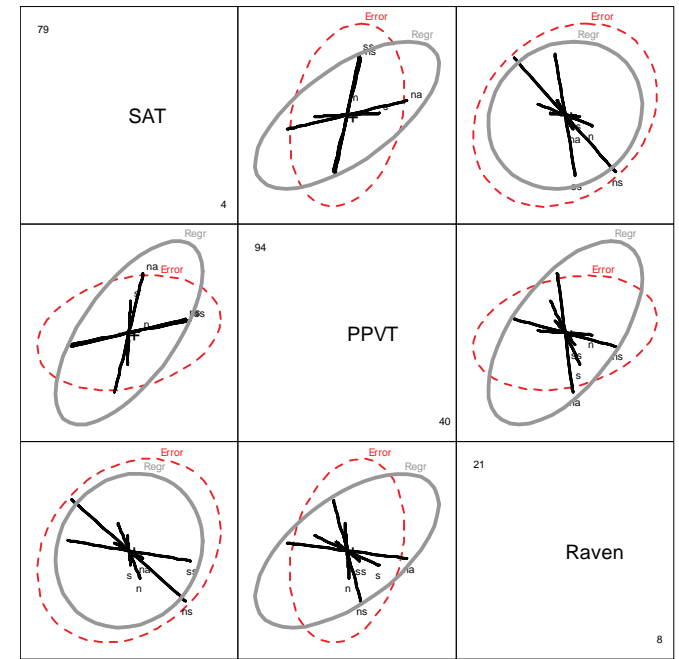
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HE plot matrix

All pairwise views

An effect is significant if **H** projects outside **E** in *any* view

That applies to any rotation, not just the bivariate views shown here.

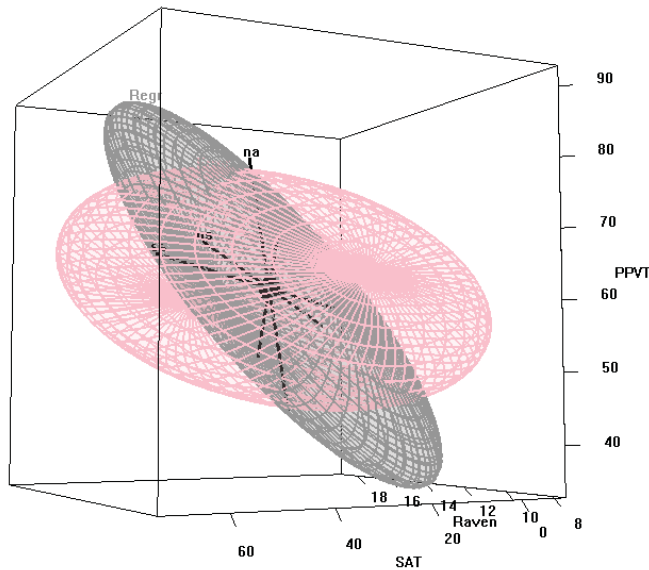


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3D HE plot

In the R version (heplots package), 3D plots can be rotated dynamically

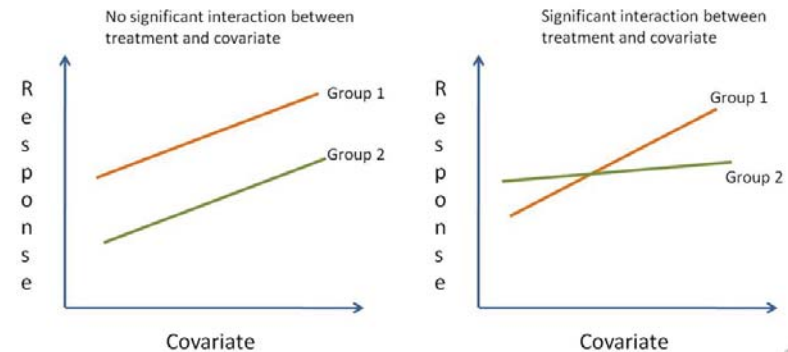
In this view, we see NA poking out beyond the **E** ellipsoid



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Homogeneity of regression: Univariate

- With 2+ groups there are several hypotheses of interest
 - equal slopes: no group * X interaction
 - equal means: no group "main effect"
 - equal slopes and means (same regression lines)
- ANCOVA: Test equal means, **assuming** equal slopes



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Homogeneity of Regression: Multivariate

- When there are several groups, we often want to test hypotheses of “homogeneity”:

- equal slopes for the predictors (interactions)?
- equal intercepts for groups (same means)?
- equal slopes & intercepts (coincident regressions)?

```

*-- test equal slopes, by allowing interactions (separate slopes for each group);
proc glm data=rohwer;
class SES;
model sat ppvt raven = SES|n SES|s SES|ns SES|na SES|ss /ss3 nouni;
manova h=SES*n SES*s SES*ns SES*na SES*ss; test all interactions
run;
    
```

```

*-- MANCOVA model: test intercepts (means), assuming equal slopes;
proc glm data=rohwer;
class SES;
model sat ppvt raven = SES n s ns na ss /ss3 nouni;
manova h=_all_;
run;
    
```

NB: better than reporting separate results and making “eyeball” comparisons

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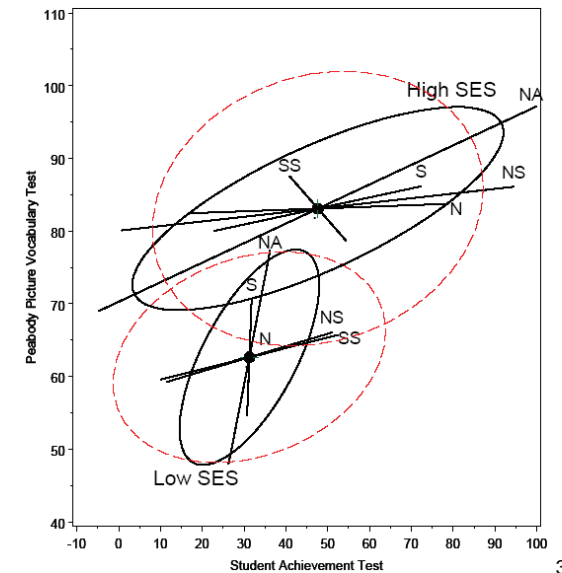
HE plots: Homogeneity of regression

Rohwer data: Lo (n=32) & Hi (n=37) SES groups:

- Fit **separate regressions** for each group
- Are slopes the same?
- Are intercepts the same?
- Are regressions coincident? (equal slopes and intercepts)

Here, slopes for NS are similar; most others seem to differ, but only NA is signif.

Intercepts (means) clearly differ.



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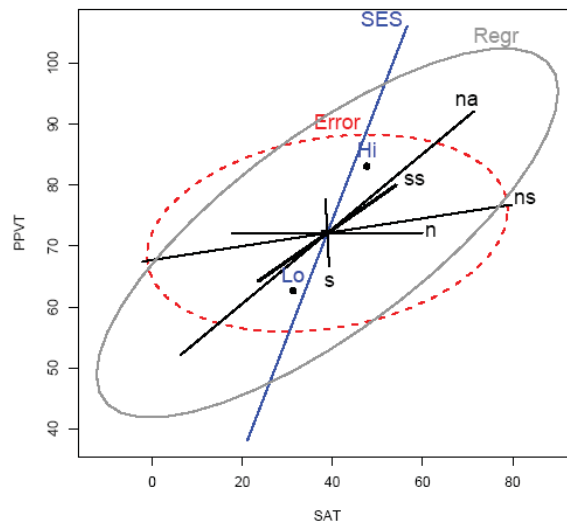
HE plots: MANCOVA model

(SAT, PPVT, Raven) ~ SES + n + s + ns + na + ss

Alternatively, we can fit a model that assumes **equal** slopes for both SES groups, but allows unequal intercepts

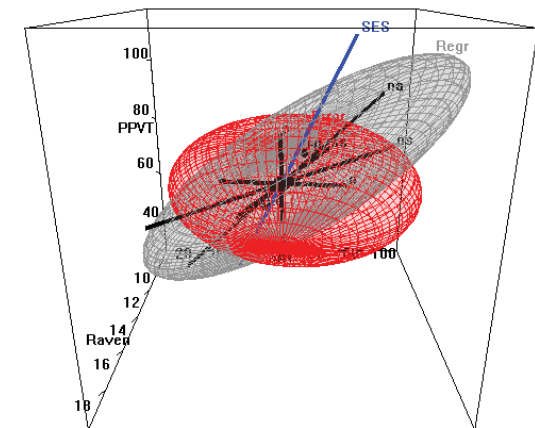
From the ANOVA view, this is equivalent to an **analysis of covariance model**, with group effect and quantitative predictors

If the main interest is in the SES effect, the MANCOVA test relies on the assumption of equal slopes.



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HE plots: MANCOVA model



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Nature vs Nurture: IQ of adopted children

MMReg + Repeated measures

- Data from an observational, longitudinal, study on adopted children (n=62).
- Is child's intelligence related to intelligence of the biological mother and the intelligence of the adoptive mother?
- The child's intelligence was measured at age 2, 4, 8, and 13
- How does intelligence change over time?
- How are these changes related to intelligence of the birth and adoptive mother?

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```
> some(Adopted)
```

	AMED	BMIQ	Age2IQ	Age4IQ	Age8IQ	Age13IQ
3	14	89	126	115	113	90
6	8	64	125	109	96	87
23	6	92	116	121	119	109
30	13	78	108	90	86	80
31	16	87	113	97	101	109
32	15	63	127	121	119	101
40	8	95	140	130	126	118
42	15	65	110	111	114	95
52	13	74	121	132	132	113
58	11	88	112	107	110	103

AMED: Adoptive mother educ. (proxy for IQ)
 BMIQ: Birth mother IQ

Treat as multivariate regression problem:

```
> Adopted.mod <- lm(cbind(Age2IQ, Age4IQ, Age8IQ, Age13IQ) ~ AMED + BMIQ, data=Adopted)
> Adopted.mod

Call:
lm(formula = cbind(Age2IQ, Age4IQ, Age8IQ, Age13IQ) ~ AMED + BMIQ, data = Adopted)

Coefficients:
(Intercept)  Age2IQ  Age4IQ  Age8IQ  Age13IQ
AMED          -0.44136 -0.02073 -0.01216 -0.16063
BMIQ           0.04001  0.22172  0.30961  0.36747
```

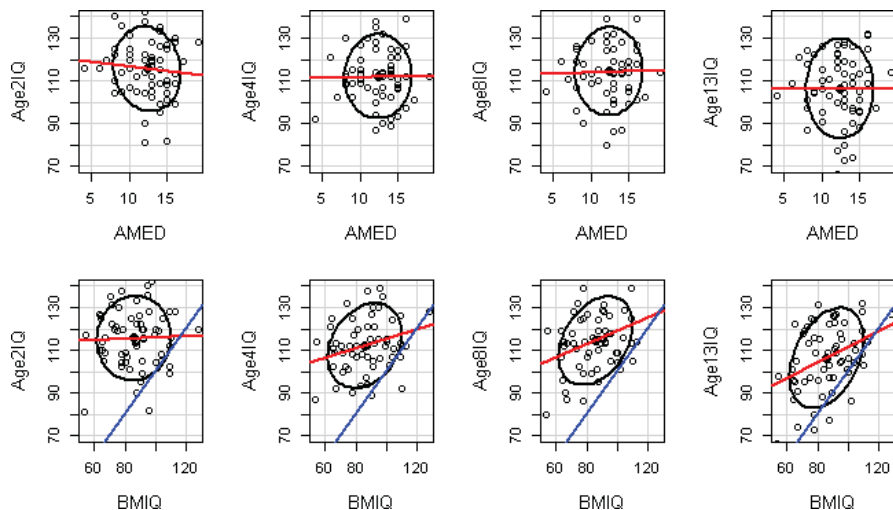
= B (3 x 4)

What can we tell from this?

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Scatterplots of child IQ vs. AMED and BMIQ

- Regression lines (red) show the fitted (univariate) relations
- Data ellipses: visualize strength of relations
- Blue lines: equality of child IQ and BMIQ



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Multivariate tests of each predictor: $\beta_{AMED} = 0$; $\beta_{BMIQ} = 0$

```
> Manova(Adopted.mod)

Type II MANOVA Tests: Pillai test statistic
Df test stat approx F num Df den Df Pr(>F)
AMED 1 0.01722 0.24535 4 56 0.91129
BMIQ 1 0.17759 3.02320 4 56 0.02504 *
```

 Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Conclusions from this:

- Birth mother IQ significantly predicts child IQ at these ages: $\beta_{BMIQ} \neq 0$
- Adoptive mother ED does not: $\beta_{AMED} = 0$

How to understand the nature of these relations?

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Where these tests come from:

```
> linearHypothesis(Adopted.mod, c("BMIQ"))
```

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \beta_{01} & \beta_{02} & \beta_{03} & \beta_{04} \\ \beta_{11} & \beta_{12} & \beta_{13} & \beta_{14} \\ \beta_{21} & \beta_{22} & \beta_{23} & \beta_{24} \end{pmatrix}$$

H Sum of squares and products for the hypothesis:

	Age2IQ	Age4IQ	Age8IQ	Age13IQ
Age2IQ	24.78808	137.3590	191.8035	227.6471
Age4IQ	137.35902	761.1521	1062.8471	1261.4684
Age8IQ	191.80350	1062.8471	1484.1238	1761.4719
Age13IQ	227.64710	1261.4684	1761.4719	2090.6499

E Sum of squares and products for error:

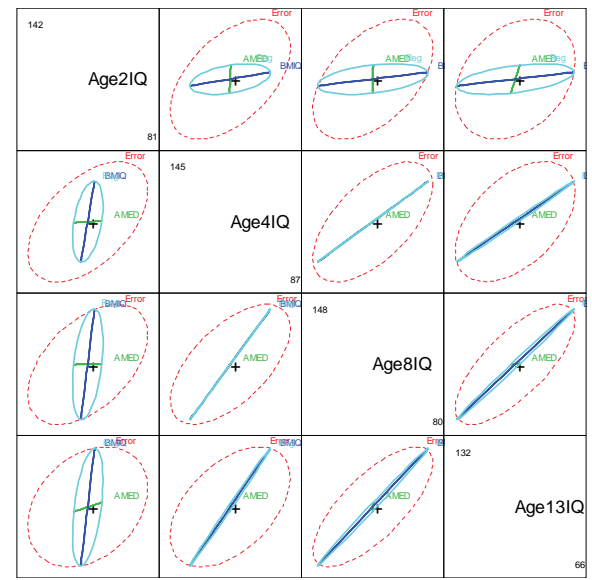
	Age2IQ	Age4IQ	Age8IQ	Age13IQ
Age2IQ	10242.157	5137.843	5000.888	3430.234
Age4IQ	5137.843	9561.649	5929.696	5316.677
Age8IQ	5000.888	5929.696	9875.424	8141.506
Age13IQ	3430.234	5316.677	8141.506	12312.409

Multivariate Tests:

	Df	test stat	approx F	num Df	den Df	Pr(>F)
Pillai	1	0.1775928	3.0231979	4	56	0.025038 *
Wilks	1	0.8224072	3.0231979	4	56	0.025038 *
Hotelling-Lawley	1	0.2159427	3.0231979	4	56	0.025038 *
Roy	1	0.2159427	3.0231979	4	56	0.025038 *

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

```
> pairs(Adopted.mod, hypotheses=list("Reg"=c("AMED", "BMIQ")))
```



Pairwise HE plots showing tests of AMED & BMIQ + overall regression

- Signif. of BMIQ largely from older ages

Repeated measures analysis

- Because Age is a quantitative factor, we can use it in a **multivariate trend analysis**.
- This amounts to analysis of $Y M$, where M comes from

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2^2 & 2^3 \\ 4 & 4^2 & 4^3 \\ 8 & 8^2 & 8^3 \\ 13 & 13^2 & 13^3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- This gives tests of linear, quadratic & cubic trends of IQ in relation to AMED and BMIQ
- Interactions– AMED*Age & BMIQ*Age test for equal slopes over Age

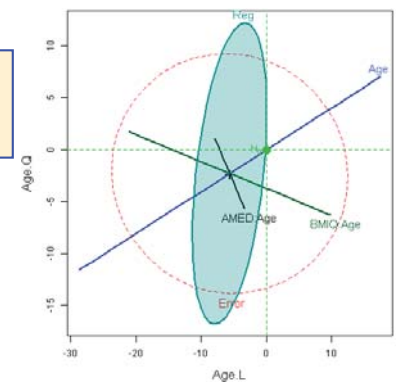
```
> # Treat IQ at different ages as a repeated measure factor
> Age <- data.frame(Age=ordered(c(2,4,8,13)))
> Anova(Adopted.mod, idata=Age, idesign=~Age, test="Roy")
```

Type II Repeated Measures MANOVA Tests: Roy test statistic

	Df	test stat	approx F	num Df	den Df	Pr(>F)
AMED	1	0.0019	0.1131	1	59	0.737878
BMIQ	1	0.1265	7.4612	1	59	0.008302 **
Age	1	0.7120	13.5287	3	57	8.91e-07 ***
AMED:Age	1	0.0143	0.2718	3	57	0.845454
BMIQ:Age	1	0.1217	2.3114	3	57	0.085792 .

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

```
> heplot(Adopted.mod, idata=Age, idesign=~Age, item="Age",
+ hypoth=list("Reg"=c("AMED", "BMIQ")))
> mark.H0()
```



HE plots: software

■ SAS macros

- See: Friendly (2006): *Data ellipses, HE plots ...*, <http://www.jstatsoft.org/v17/i06/>
- heplots, hemreg, hemat: <http://www.math.yorku.ca/SCS/sasmac/>

■ R packages

- See: Fox et al (2007): *Visual hypothesis tests in MLMs...* <http://www.math.yorku.ca/SCS/Papers/dsc-paper.pdf>
- heplots & car packages: <http://www.r-project.org/>

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Summary

- MMRA → multivariate tests for a collection of p responses, each in up to s dimensions
 - Different test statistics combine these in different ways, to say **how big is H vs E**
 - Canonical analysis: **How many dimensions** of Y s are predicted by the X s?
 - **HE plots** → visualize the relations of responses to the predictors
- These methods generalize to all linear models: MANOVA, MANCOVA, etc.

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