Residuals and model diagnostics

Patrick Breheny

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Cox-Snell residuals Martingale residuals Deviance residuals

Introduction

- Many assumptions go into regression models, and the Cox proportional hazards model, despite making no assumptions about the baseline hazard, is no exception
- Diagnostic methods are useful in all types of regression models to investigate the validity of those assumptions and identify ways in which they might be violated
- Residuals play a big role in regression method diagnostics
- To build model diagnostics for Cox regression, we first need to discuss methods for extending residuals to the case of censored data

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Cumulative hazard transformation

- We begin with the following useful theorem:
- **Theorem:** Suppose T is a continuous nonnegative random variable with cumulative hazard function Λ . Then the random variable $Y = \Lambda(T)$ follows an exponential distribution with rate $\lambda = 1$.
- Thus, one way of checking the validity of a model is by comparing the model's estimates $\{\hat{\Lambda}_i(t_i)\}$ against the standard exponential distribution

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Cox-Snell residuals

In the context of the proportional hazards model, we have

$$\hat{e}_i = \hat{\Lambda}_0(t_i) \exp(\mathbf{x}_i^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}),$$

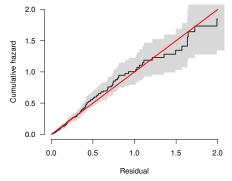
although the idea is very general and can be applied to any kind of model

• The terms $\{\hat{e}_i\}$ are called the *Cox-Snell residuals*, although "residual" is perhaps a misnomer, in that it's more of a transformation than a residual

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Diagnostic plot of Cox-Snell residuals: PBC data

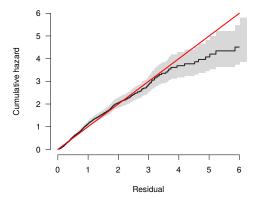
- Diagnostics based on Cox-Snell residuals are based on fitting a Kaplan-Meier (or Nelson-Aalen) curve to {ê_i} and comparing it to that of the standard exponential
- For the PBC data with trt, stage, hepato, and bili included in the Cox model, we have



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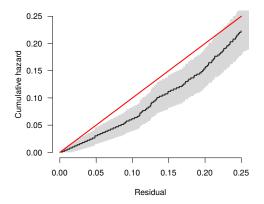
Simulated example: Lack of fit

To illustrate the utility of the plot, let's simulate some data from a lognormal AFT model and fit a Cox model (note that the PH assumption is violated here):



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One shortcoming of this plot is that violations at small e values tend to be hidden:

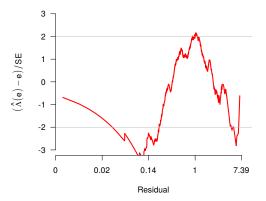


Zooming in

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Plotting the standardized difference

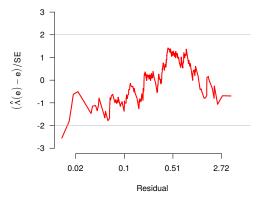
Alternatively, one may consider plotting the standardized difference between the fitted cumulative hazard and the standard exponential, which reveals the lack of fit much more clearly:



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Standardized differences: PBC data

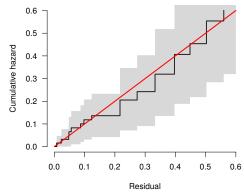
Here is what the standardized plot looks like for the PBC data:



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GVHD data

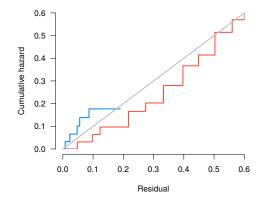
- Stratification of the residuals according to one of the variables in the model can also help to discover model violations
- For example, in the GVHD data, here is what the overall plot looks like:



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GVHD data: Stratifying by treatment

And here is the plot stratifying by treatment:



We will discuss stratification in more detail in the next lecture

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Shortcomings of the Cox-Snell residual

- One drawback to the Cox-Snell residuals is that they don't provide much insight into *why* the model's assumptions are violated
- It would be more appealing if each residual took on a positive or negative value indicating whether they patient survived longer, as opposed to shorter, that the model predicts, and by how much

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Martingale residuals

• Consider, then, the following residual:

$$\hat{m}_i = d_i - \hat{\Lambda}_i(t_i) = d_i - \hat{e}_i;$$

we have essentially seen this quantity before (recall the score functions for exponential and Cox regression)

- This represents the discrepancy between the observed value of a subject's failure indicator and its expected value, integrated over the time for which that patient was at risk
- Positive values mean that the patient died sooner than expected (according to the model); negative values mean that the patient lived longer than expected (or were censored)

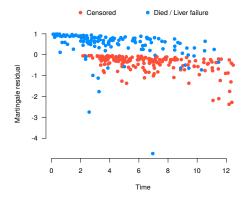
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Martingales

- A stochastic process M(t) that satisfies (i) $\mathbb{E}M(t) = 0$ for all t and (ii) $\mathbb{E}\{M(t)|M(s)\} = M(s)$ for all s < t is known in statistics as a *martingale*
- The stochastic process $N(t) \int_0^t Y(t) d\Lambda(t)$, where N(t) is the counting process that records whether the subject has failed by time t or not, satisfies these two properties
- For this reason, the residuals $\{\hat{m}_i\}$ defined on the previous slide are known as martingale residuals

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Martingale residuals for the PBC model



The large outlier is a patient with stage 4 cirrhosis and a bilirubin concentration of 14.4 (96th percentile), yet survived 7 years

Patrick Breheny

University of Iowa Survival Data Analysis (BIOS 7210)

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residuals

- Martingale residuals can be obtained from the survival package by calling residuals(fit), where fit is a fitted coxph model (resid(fit) also works as a shortcut)
- The martingale residuals are returned by default, although seven other options are available and can be requested by specifying the type option
- It may be noted that type='coxsnell' is *not* one of the options, although you can easily calculate the Cox-Snell residuals from the martingale residuals



Comments

- Martingale residuals are very useful and can be used for many of the usual purposes that we use residuals for in other models (identifying outliers, choosing a functional form for the covariate, etc.)
- However, the primary drawback to the martingale residual is its clear asymmetry (its upper bound is 1, but it has no lower bound)
- For this reason, I'll hold off on these plots until we discuss a more symmetric, normally distributed residual

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Deviance residuals: Motivation

- A technique for creating symmetric, normalized residuals that is widely used in generalized linear modeling is to construct a "deviance residual"
- The idea behind the deviance residual is to examine the difference between the log-likelihood for subject i under a given model and the maximum possible log-likelihood $\tilde{\ell}_i$ for that subject:

$$2(\tilde{\ell}_i - \ell_i),$$

in a sense, constructing a miniature likelihood ratio test for individual \boldsymbol{i}

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Deviance residuals: Definition

- As it is essentially a likelihood ratio test, the quantity on the previous slide should approximately follow a χ^2_1 distribution
- To turn it into a quantity that approximately follows a normal distribution, we can use

$$\hat{d}_i = \operatorname{sign}(\hat{m}_i) \sqrt{2(\tilde{\ell}_i - \ell_i)};$$

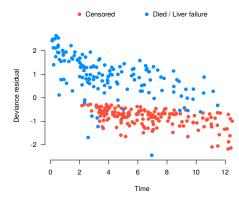
this is known as the *deviance residual*

- I am leaving the details of deriving $\tilde{\ell}_i$ and working out a simple expression for the deviance residual as homework
- In R: residuals(fit, type='deviance')

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Deviance residuals for the PBC data

The deviance residuals are much more symmetric:



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Outliers

- Deviance residuals have several uses that we will now illustrate
- One is identifying outliers
- For the PBC data, there are no extreme outliers; the largest residuals are only 2.5 SDs away from zero
- Note that the skewness of the martingale residual makes one subject look like an extreme outlier; according to the deviance residuals, however, that subject is only the 5th largest outlier by absolute value

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Outliers (cont'd)

The five largest negative residuals:

| time | status | trt | stage | hepato | bili | \hat{d} |
|-------|--------|-----|-------|--------|-------|-----------|
| 6.95 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 14.40 | -2.44 |
| 12.19 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 1 | 2.10 | -2.18 |
| 12.38 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 1 | 1.80 | -2.14 |
| 11.09 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 1.30 | -2.09 |
| 11.49 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 1 | 1.20 | -2.05 |

And the five largest positive residuals:

| time | status | trt | stage | hepato | bili | \hat{d} |
|------|--------|-----|-------|--------|-------|-----------|
| 0.38 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 2.40 | 2.64 |
| 0.54 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 1.10 | 2.54 |
| 0.30 | 1 | 0 | 4 | 1 | 2.50 | 2.51 |
| 0.14 | 1 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 12.60 | 2.49 |
| 0.11 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 17.90 | 2.43 |

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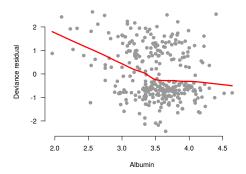
Residuals vs. covariates

- The other main use of residuals is to plot them against covariates to assess the relationship between a covariate and unexplained variation
- This can be done using covariates that are already in the model as well as new covariates that one is considering adding to the model; we will consider examples of both

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Residuals vs. albumin

Albumin is a protein synthesized by the liver and often used as a marker of liver disease:



Albumin Bilirubin Stage

Assessing functional forms

- As the previous figure shows, deviance residuals are helpful not only for checking whether new variables should be added to a model, but also for assessing whether the relationship between the predictor and the (log) hazard is linear
- In the case of albumin, the exploratory plot, as well as biological insight (the normal range of serum albumin is 3.4-5.4 g/dL) suggest a piecewise linear model with a change point (sometimes called a "knot") at 3.4

Albumin Bilirubin Stage

Implementation details

• This can be implemented in various ways; here is one:

f <- function(x) {pmin(x, 3.5)}
fit <- coxph(S ~ ... + f(albumin), PBC)</pre>

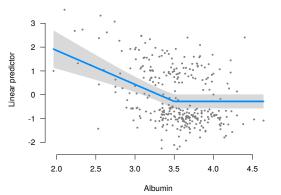
- For nonlinear functional forms, it is typically helpful to plot the modeled relationship between a covariate and the outcome
- Again, this can be done in various ways, but the visreg package is useful here:

```
visreg(fit, 'albumin')
```

Albumin Bilirubin Stage

Changepoint model for albumin: Illustration

The dots here are the partial deviance residuals, $\eta_i + \hat{d}_i$



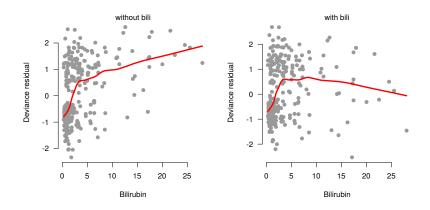
Albumin Bilirubin Stage

Albumin summary

- The AIC values for four possible models:
 - No albumin: 1352.3
 Linear: 1334.9
 Changepoint, no effect in normal range: 1332.2
 Changepoint, linear effect in normal: 1333.8
- The changepoint model that assumes a flat line after 3.5 is the reasonably clear choice based on AIC, as well as being a
 - very reasonable model from a biological perspective

Albumin Bilirubin Stage

Residuals for bilirubin: In and out of the model

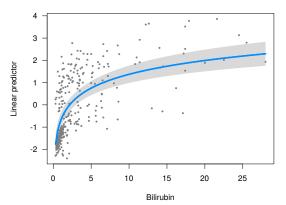


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log(Bilirubin)

The residual plots on the previous page suggest log(bili) as a functional form:

Bilirubin



More on logs

• One advantage of the log scale as a functional form is that it has a convenient interpretation in proportional hazards models

Bilirubin

• Consider comparing two individuals, one with double the bilirubin concentration of the other, but all other covariates equal; the hazard ratio comparing the two is:

$$\mathrm{HR} = 2^{\widehat{\beta}_j}$$

• For log(bili), $\hat{\beta}_j = 0.895$; thus, doubling the bilirubin concentration increases the hazard by 86% ($2^{0.895} = 1.86$)

Splines

- *Splines* are also an attractive option for incorporating nonlinear functional forms
- The basic idea of splines is similar to our albumin model from earlier: fit a piecewise polynomial model, with restrictions that make the resulting functional form smooth and continuous

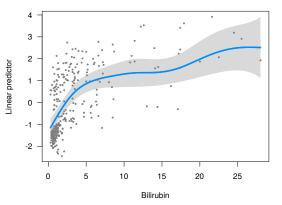
Bilirubin

- The details of this are very interesting, but unfortunately we don't have time to get into them in this course
- Still, it is worth knowing that the survival package has a nice utility built in for fitting Cox models with spline terms:

```
fit <- coxph(S ~ ... + pspline(bili), PBC)</pre>
```

Albumin Bilirubin Stage

Spline illustration



Albumin Bilirubin Stage

Bilirubin: Summary

| • | The <i>i</i> | AIC | values | for | four | possible | models: |
|---|--------------|-----|--------|-----|------|----------|---------|
|---|--------------|-----|--------|-----|------|----------|---------|

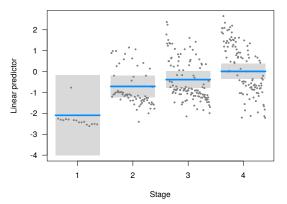
| No bilirubin: | 1383.9 |
|------------------------------------|--------|
| • Linear: | 1332.2 |
| Log(bilirubin) | 1301.0 |
| • Splines: | 1303.9 |

• The log model seems to be a good choice here



Before moving on, let's quickly revisit the effect of stage:

Stage



Remarks

• The effect of stage seems to be very linear among stages 2, 3, and 4

Stage

- Stage 1 patients, however, seem to be at substantially lower risk
- Still, it is difficult to tell from the data alone whether this phenomenon is real, since we have few stage 1 patients in the study (just 16 out of 312 patients), which explains why AIC and the likelihood ratio test prefer the simpler model

Influence

- One final issue on the topic of regression diagnostics is the assessment of *influence*
- An influential measurement is one that has a large effect on the model fit; this can be measured in a variety of ways, both absolute and relative
- A variety of residuals (score residuals, Schoenfeld residuals, delta-beta residuals) have been proposed as ways of quantifying and assessing influence; we'll focus on delta-beta residuals

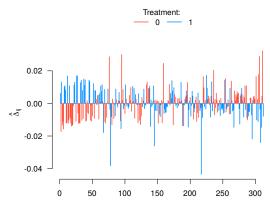
Delta-beta plots

- The idea behind delta-beta residuals is very simple: let $\hat{\beta}_j^{(i)}$ denote the estimate of $\hat{\beta}_j$ obtained if we leave subject i out of the model
- The delta-beta residual for coefficient j, subject i is therefore defined as

$$\hat{\Delta}_{ij} = \hat{\beta}_j - \hat{\beta}_j^{(i)}$$

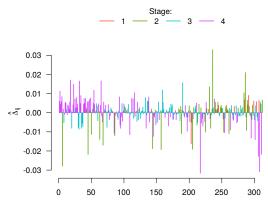
- This might seem computer intensive, but there are various computational tricks that allow one to fairly quickly refit models leaving individual observations out
- In R: resid(fit, type='dfbeta') returns a *matrix* of delta-beta residuals

Treatment



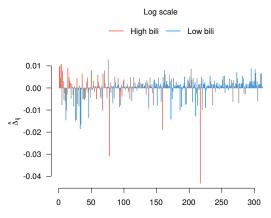
Index (ordered by time on study)





Index (ordered by time on study)

Bilirubin



Index (ordered by time on study)

Remarks

- Delta-beta plots are always interesting to look at and offer a great deal of insight into the inner mechanics of complicated models
- Furthermore, they can indicate whether the estimation of a coefficient is dominated by just a few individuals, which would be clear cause for concern
- What action to take in the presence of influential observations is often a complicated decision; my advice, however, is to strongly prefer modifying the model to fit the data as opposed to manipulating the data to fit the model (i.e., by removing outliers)