



# Transformation of outcome variable in linear regression – why and how

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## Overview

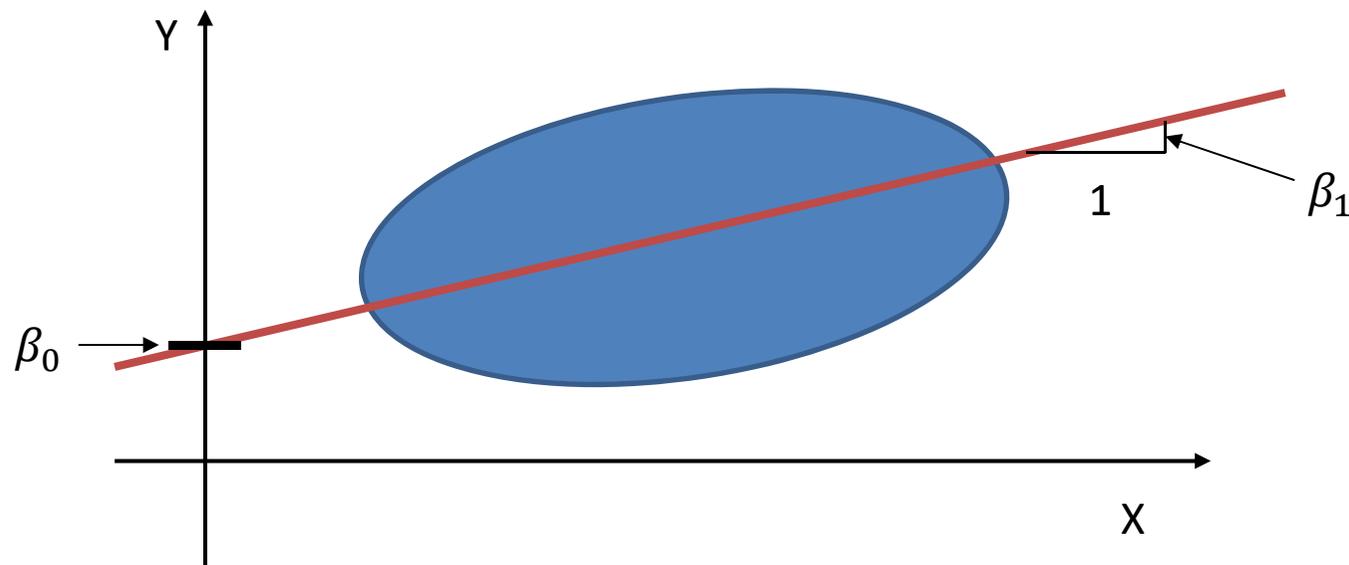
- Why do we need to transform?
- Spotting the need for a transformation
- Interpretation of regression coefficients with log-transformed outcome

## Linear regression – normality assumption

- Model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \varepsilon$$
$$\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

- here  $\sigma^2$  is the variance (= Standard Deviation squared)

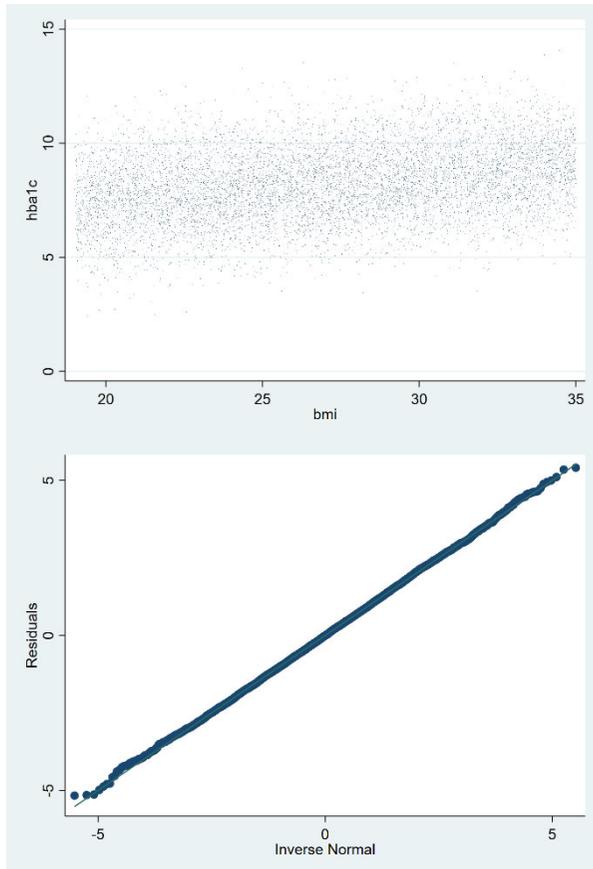


## Statistical theory (and rule-of-thumb experience)

- If residual variation (distribution of  $\varepsilon$ ) is not normal:
  - Standard errors are biased
  - Confidence intervals do not maintain their nominal coverage
    - Less or more than 95% of all 95% CIs will actually contain the true value
- HOWEVER: All analyses based on linear normal models (t-test, linear regression, ANOVA, ANCOVA) are considered to be rather robust to misspecification of model for residual variation

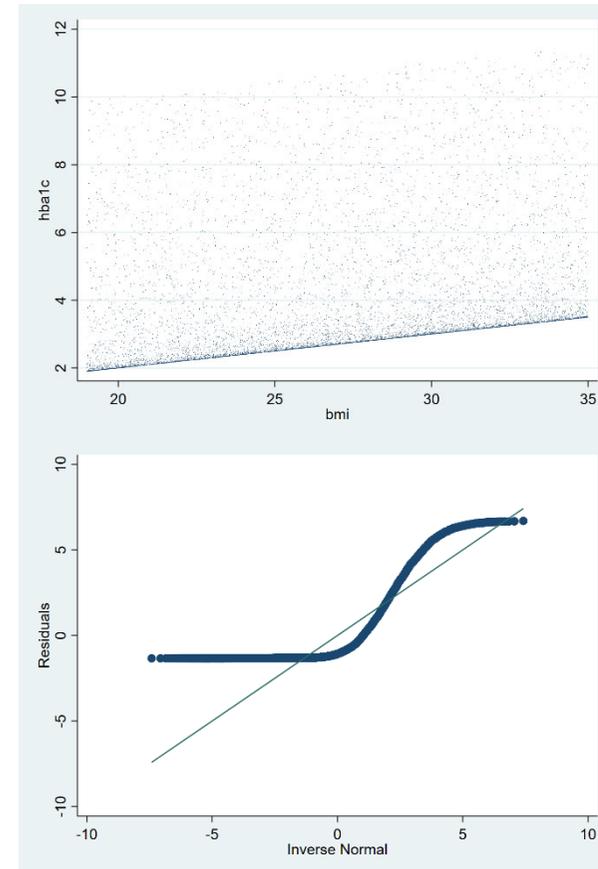
# Simulation example

- Linear regression where residual variation is either
  - Normal
  - Uniform<sup>5</sup> (highly skewed)



Scatter plot  
Y vs X

QQ-plot of  
residuals



## Simulation setup

- Small datasets:  $n=10$
- 10,000 repetitions
- For each data use linear regression to estimate slope (true value = 0.1 increase in Hba1c per BMI unit)
- Check if estimated confidence interval contains true value

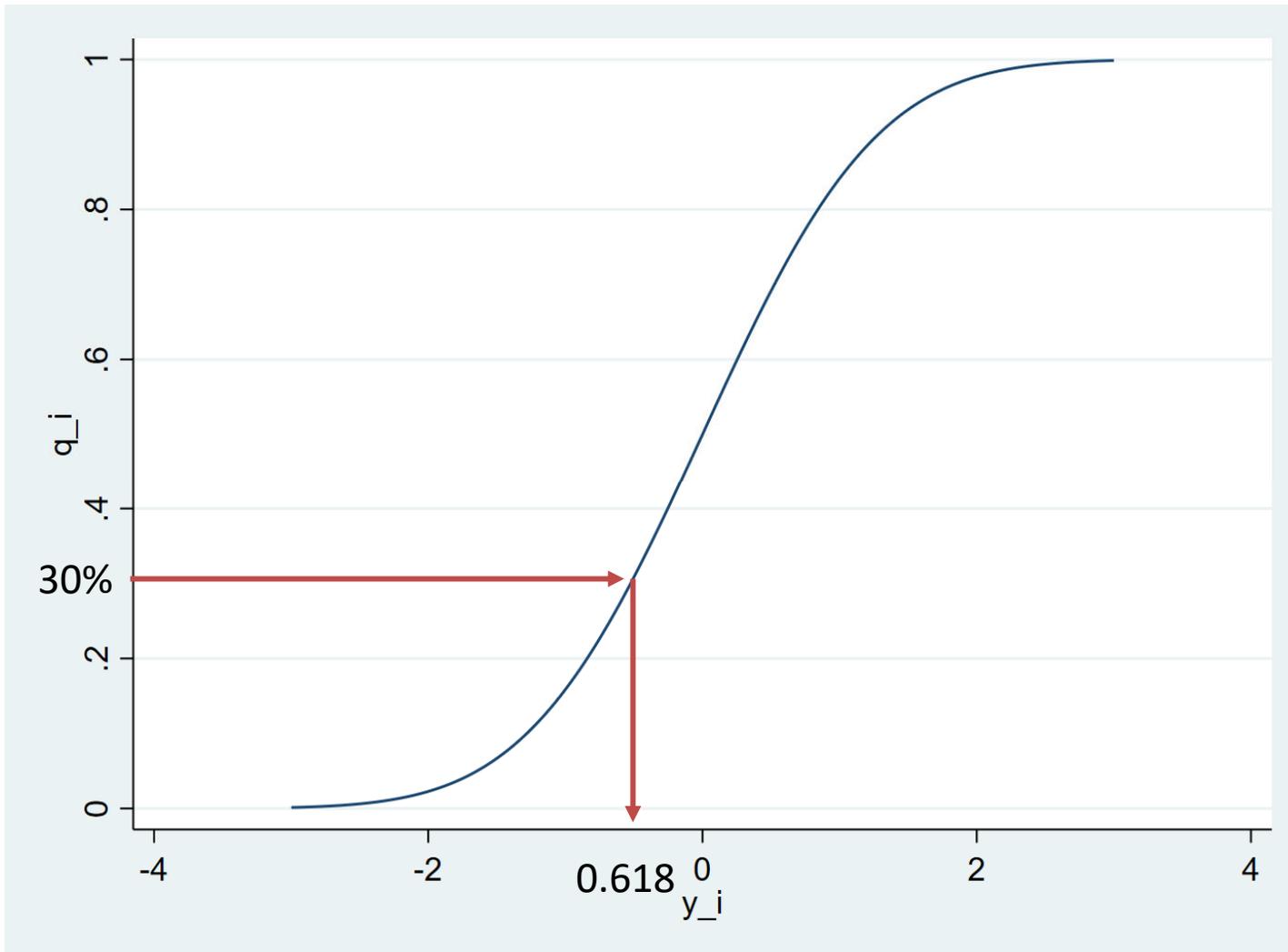
## Simulation results

- With **normally** distributed residual variation
  - Bias (w/ 95% CI):  
-0.0010 (-0.0033; 0.0012)
  - Coverage probability of 95% CI:  
95.1% (94.7%; 95.5%)
- With **non-normally** distributed residual variation
  - Bias (w/95% CI):  
0.0009 (-0.0021; 0.0040)
  - Coverage probability of 95% CI:  
95.7% (95.3%; 96.1%)

## How do we spot a non-normal distribution

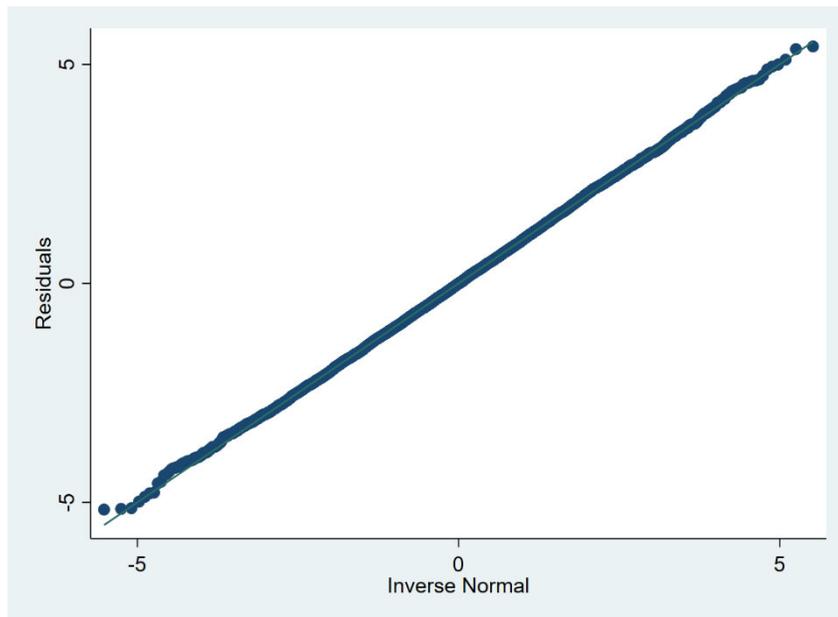
- Q-Q-plot
- Algorithm
  - Order data in ascending order  $x_{[1]} < x_{[2]} < \dots < x_{[n]}$
  - $r_i$  is rank, ie 1, 2, 3, ...,  $n$
  - Compute  $q_i = \frac{r_i}{n}$ , i.e. the cumulative proportion of data points below or equal to data point  $i$
  - Compute the quantile in a standard normal distribution for each  $q_i$  to obtain  $y_i$
  - Plot  $x_{[i]}$  vs  $y_i$

# Normal quantiles

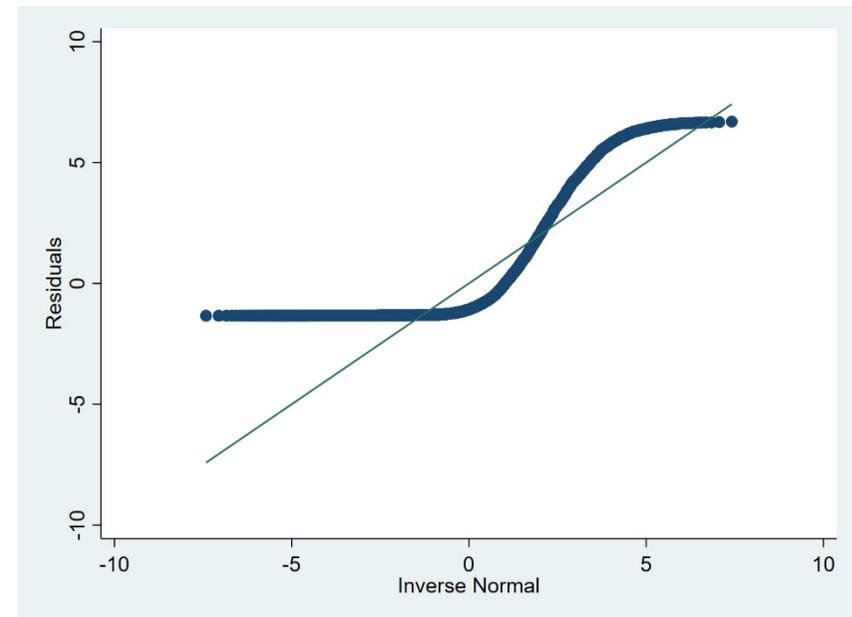


## Q-Q-plot

- Rationale is to create a linear function if data are normally distributed



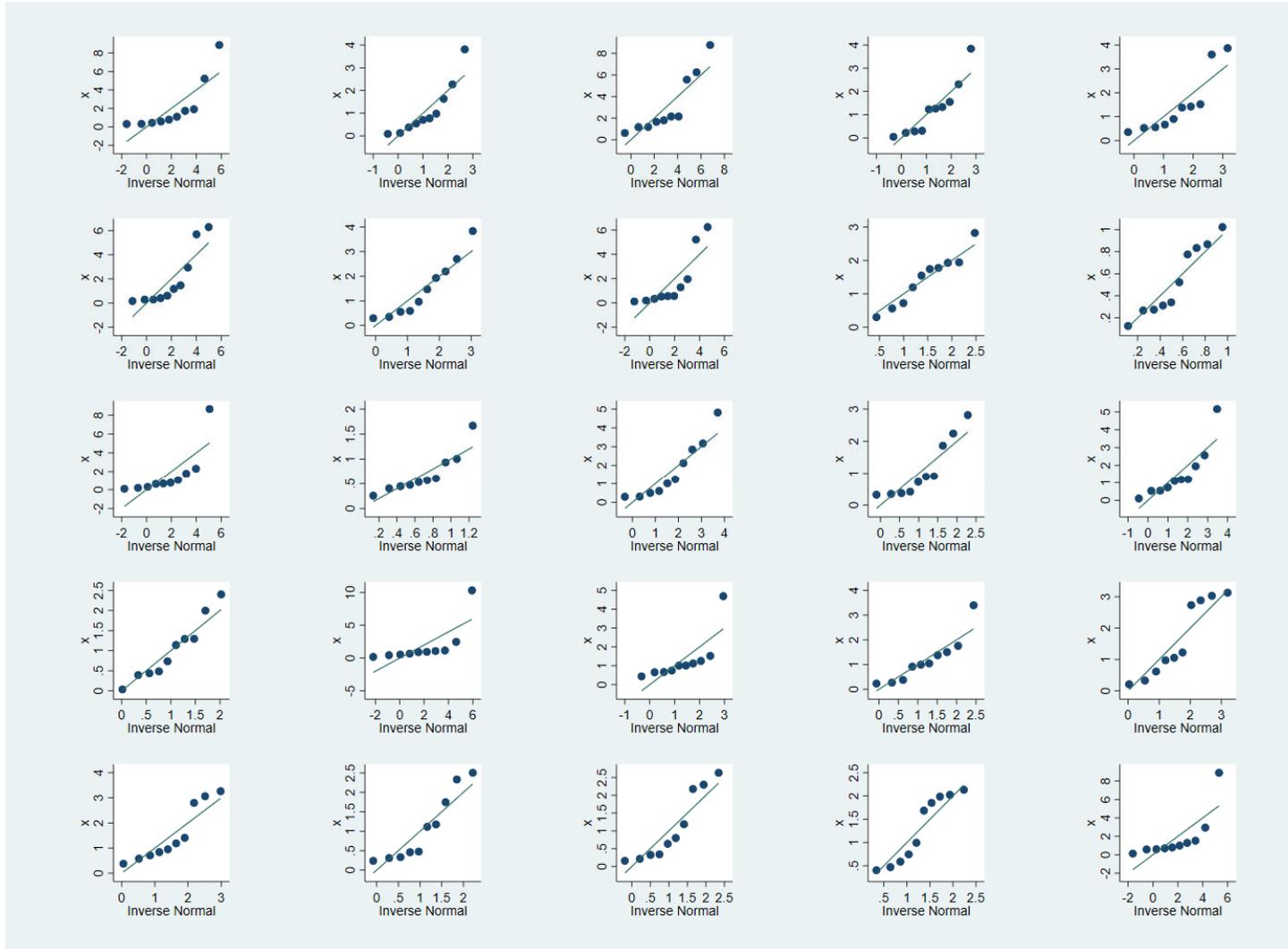
**GOOD!**



**BAD!**

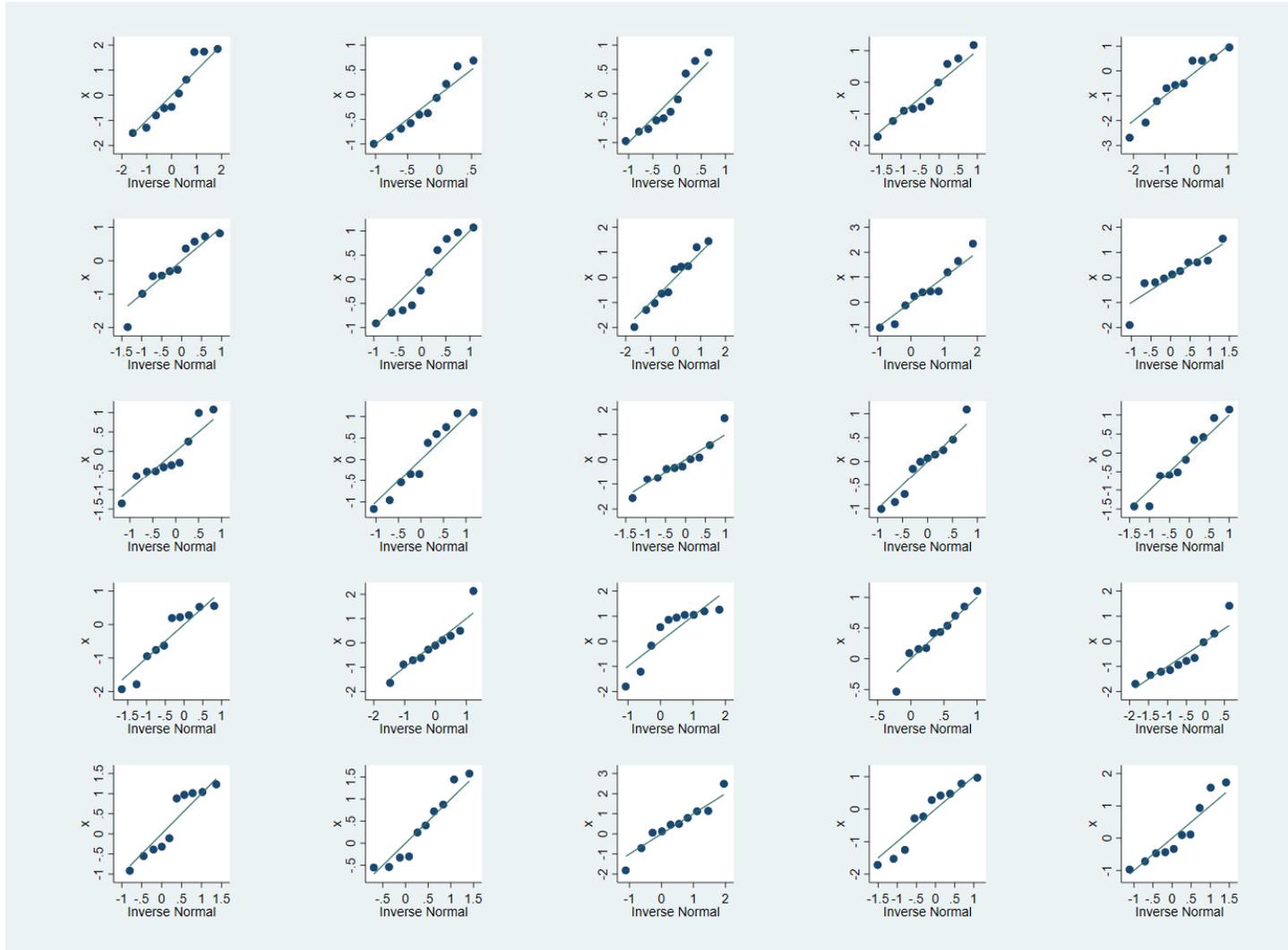
# Evaluating Q-Q-plots (I)

- Normal?



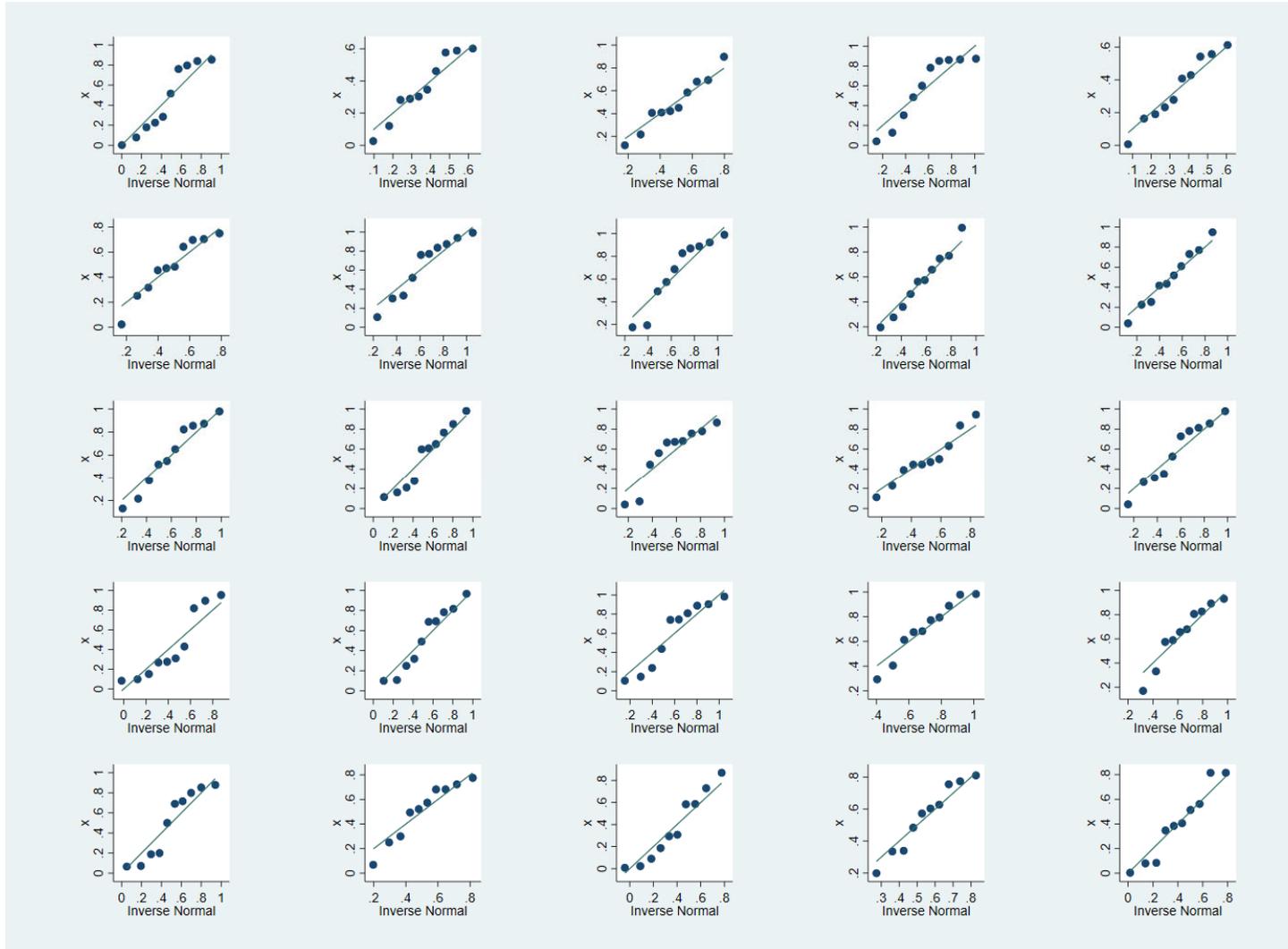
# Evaluating Q-Q-plots (II)

- Normal?



# Evaluating Q-Q-plots (III)

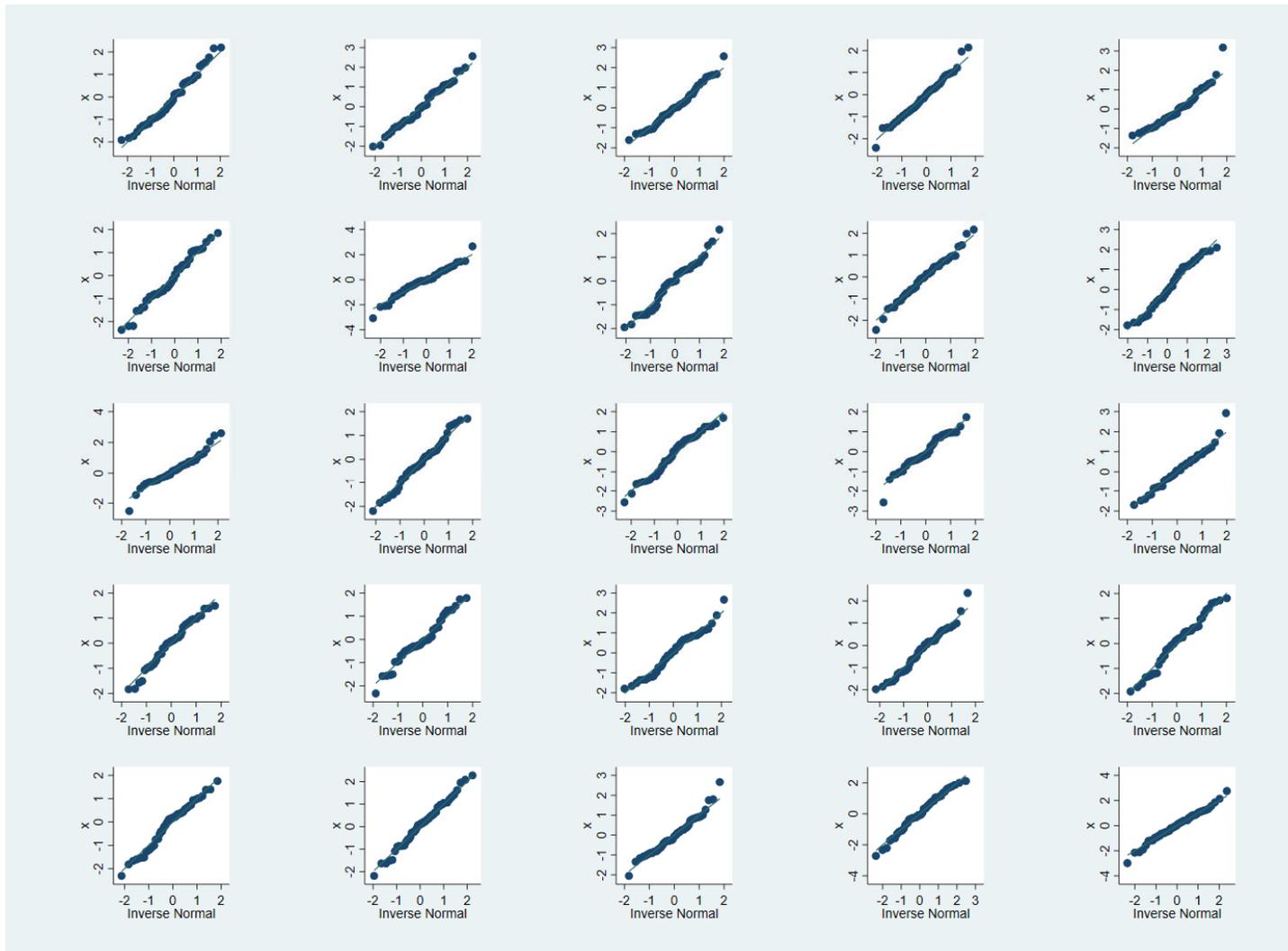
- Normal?



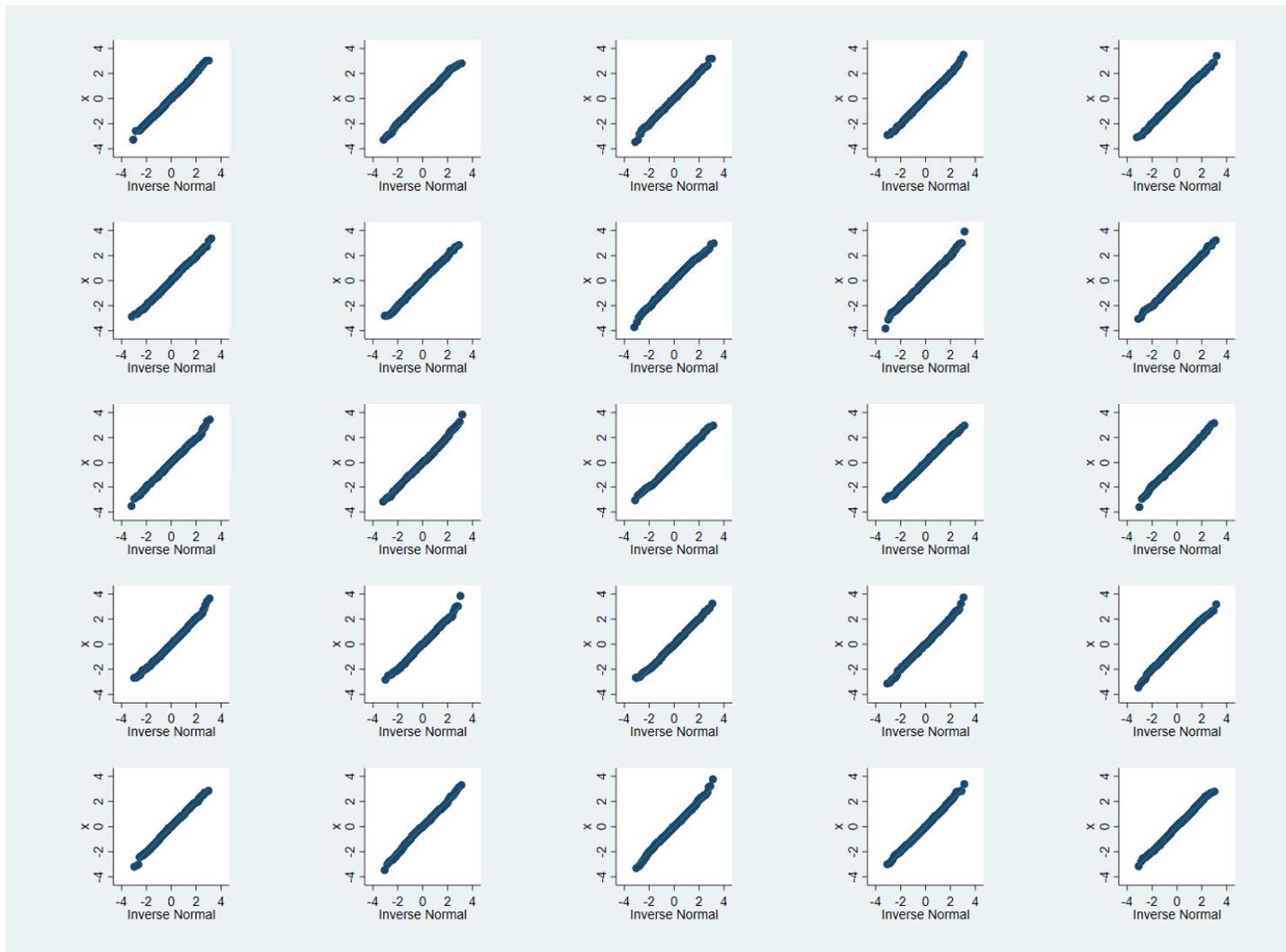
## Some guidance

- Look for systematic deviations from linearity
- OK with single points deviating at the tails
- OK with criss-crossing over the line in the middle part
- S or L shapes typically indicates non-normality
- Log-normal is common and resembles an L lying down with the short edge pointing up
- Very difficult in small samples to determine that data are not following a normal distribution

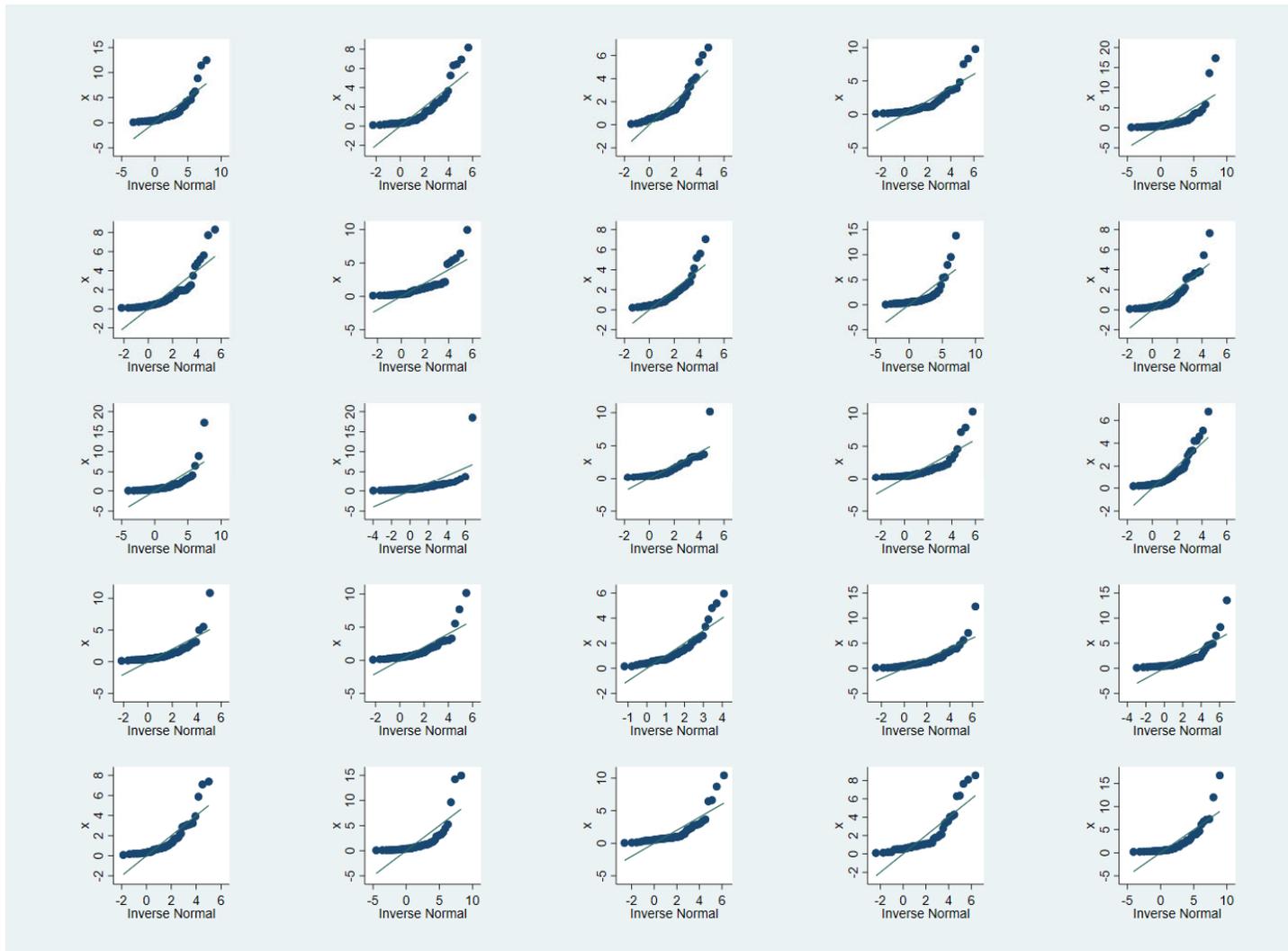
# Q-Q-plots for normally distributed data, $n = 50$



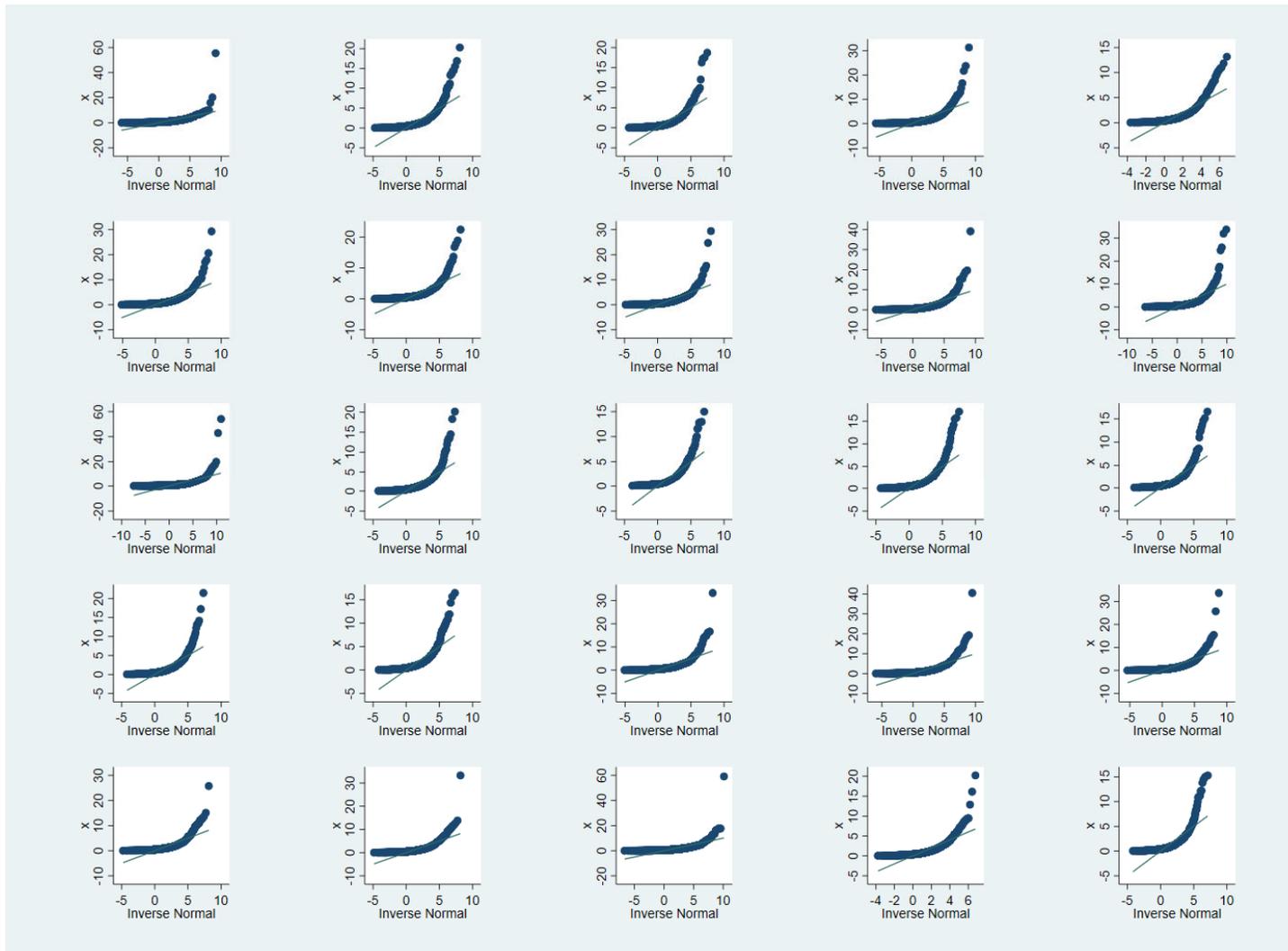
# Q-Q-plots for normally distributed data, $n = 1,000$



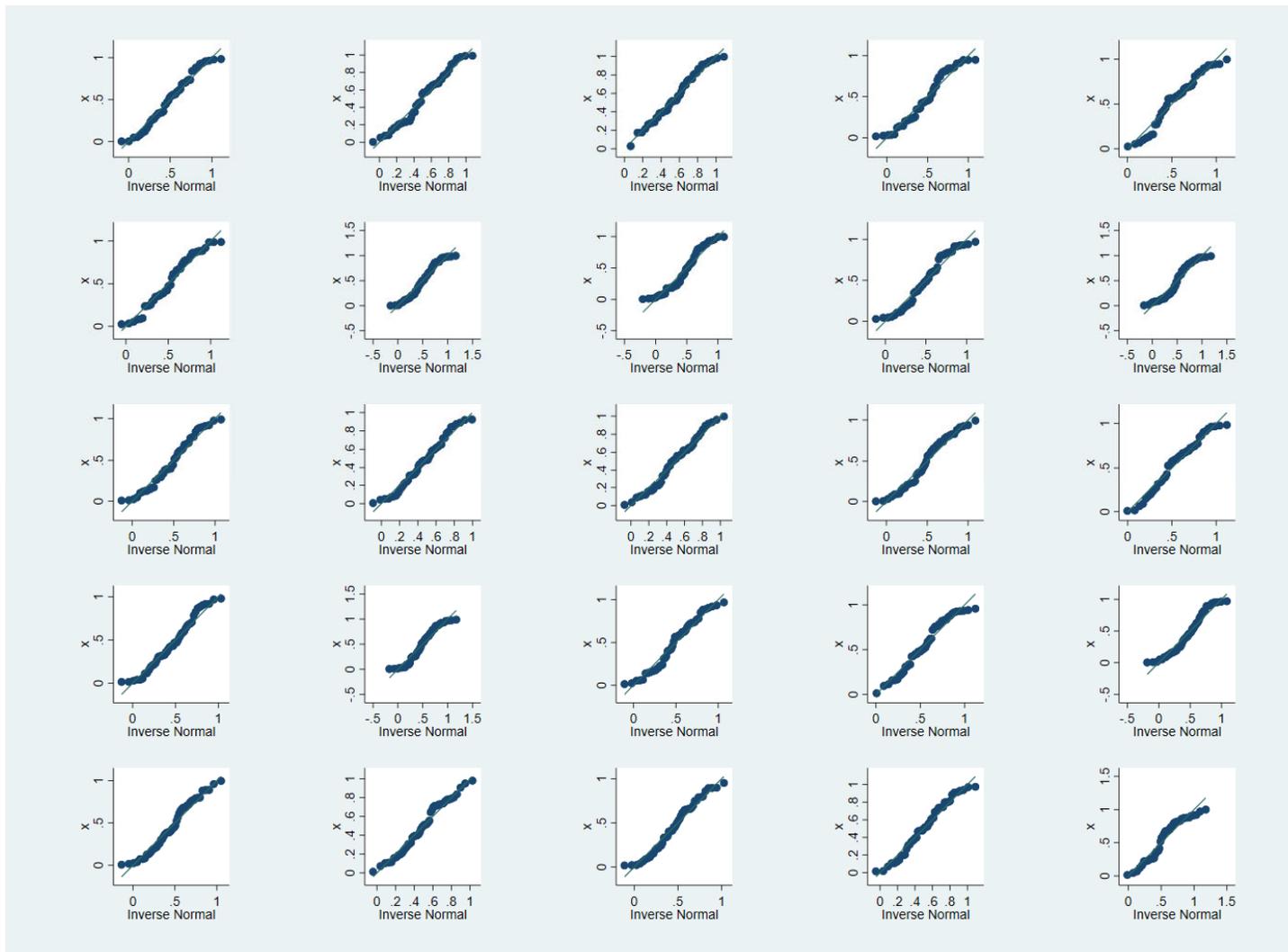
# Q-Q-plots for log-normally distributed data, $n = 50$



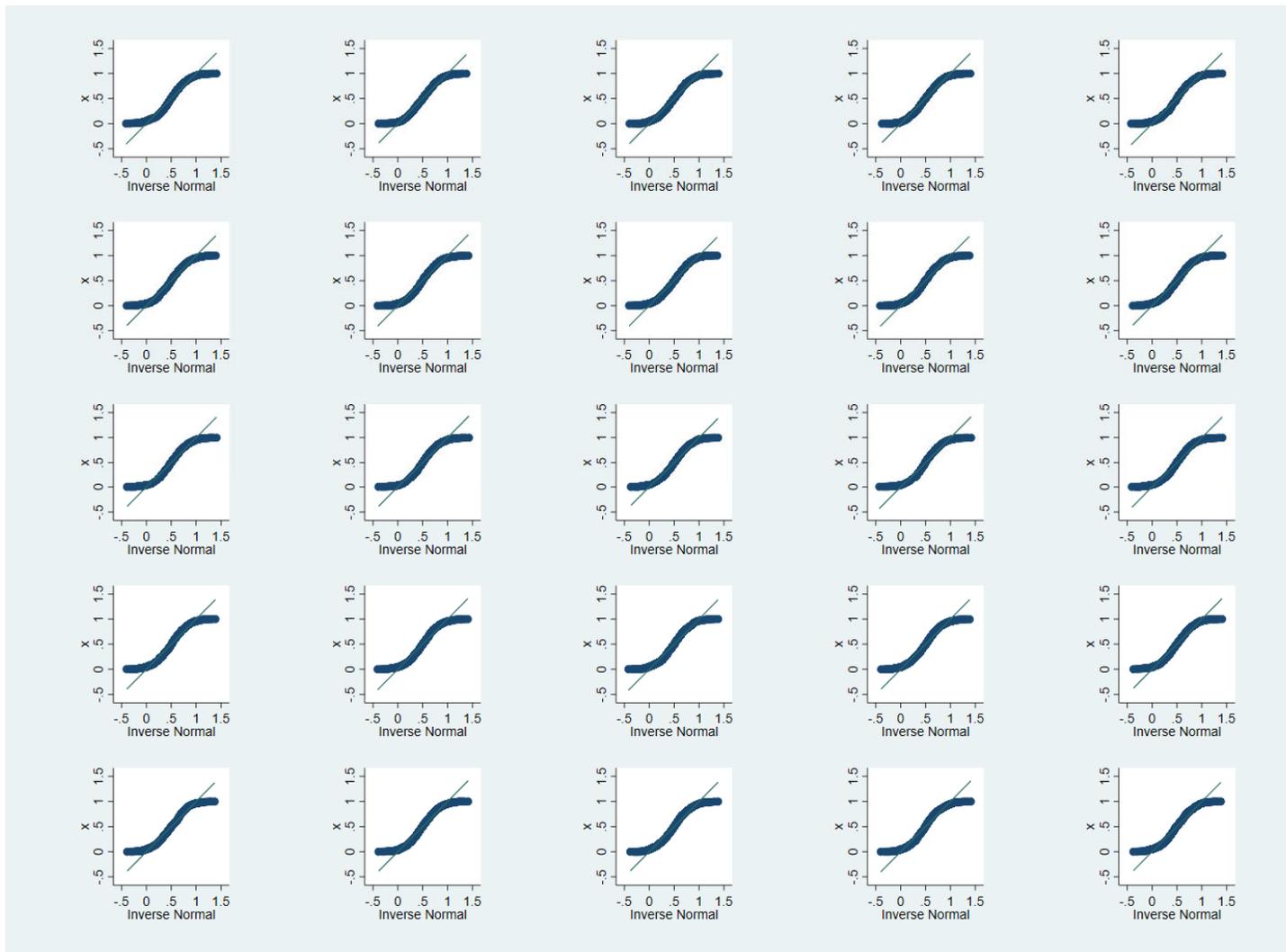
# Q-Q-plots, log-normally distributed data, $n = 1,000$



# Q-Q-plots for uniformly distributed data, $n = 50$

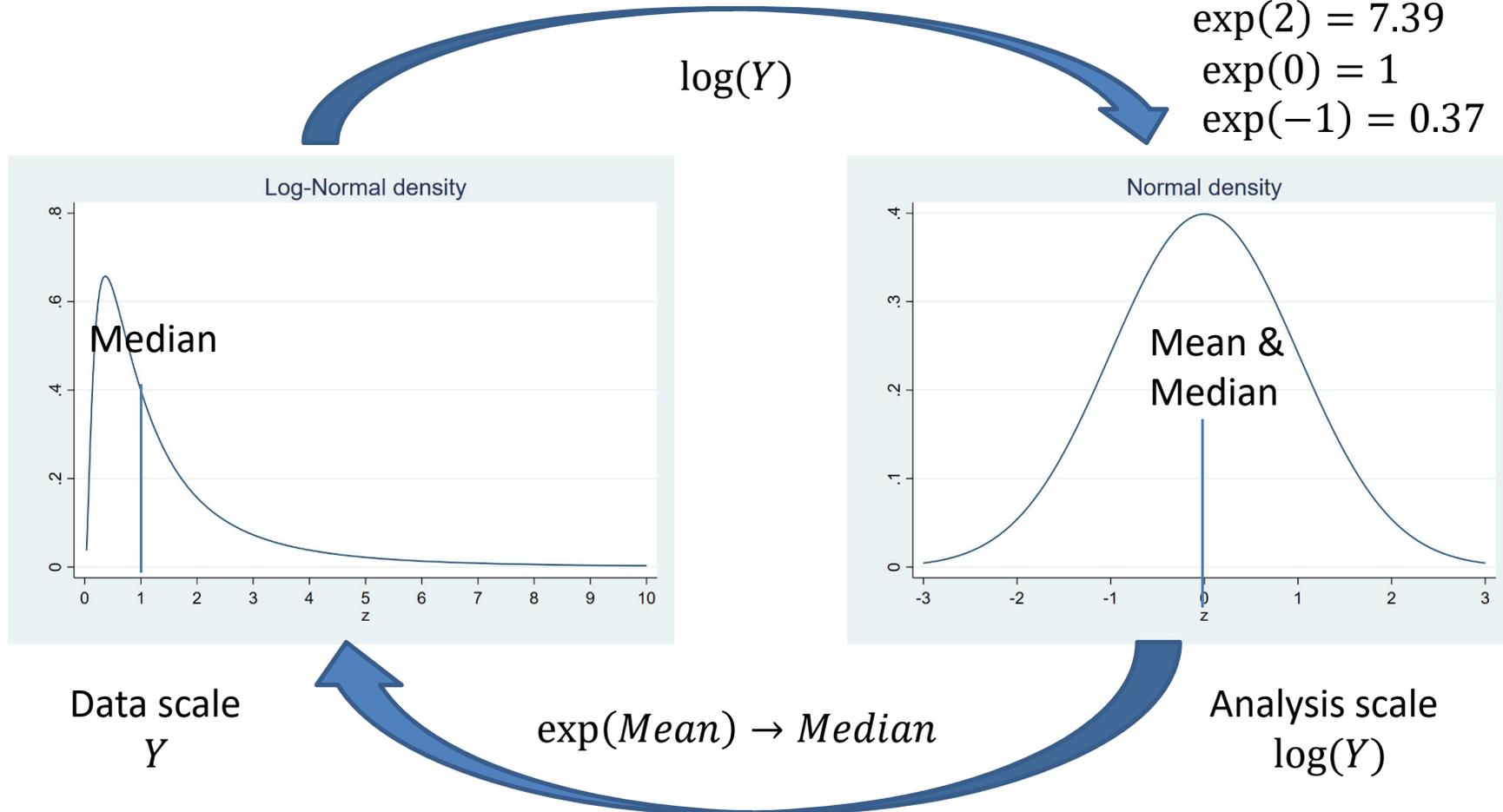


# Q-Q-plots, uniformly distributed data, $n = 1,000$



# Relation between Log-normal and normal distribution

Examples:  
 $\exp(2) = 7.39$   
 $\exp(0) = 1$   
 $\exp(-1) = 0.37$



## Interpretation of linear regression with $\log(Y)$ outcome

- Assume we have transformed  $Y$  to estimate the following

$$\log(Y) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_1 + \varepsilon, \quad \varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

- Using highschool math with exponential on both sides:

$$Y = \exp \beta_0 \cdot \exp(\beta_1)^x \cdot \exp \varepsilon$$

- In other words, the model is **multiplicative**

## Interpretation of coefficients

- Intercept:  
 $\exp(\beta_0)$  : Median of outcome for reference person
- Slope:  
 $\exp(\beta_1)$  : Factor for increase in median of  
outcome per unit in explanatory variable
- Note: Non-linear model on original scale

# Example output (log-scale)

```
. regress ln_hb1c b0.group bmi
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	342
Model	38.1824433	2	19.0912216	F(2, 339)	=	472.07
Residual	13.7098077	339	.04044191	Prob > F	=	0.0000
				R-squared	=	0.7358
				Adj R-squared	=	0.7342
Total	51.8922509	341	.152176689	Root MSE	=	.2011

ln_hb1c	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
1.group	-.2193906	.0217735	-10.08	0.000	-.2622187	-.1765625
bmi20	.0700393	.0024052	29.12	0.000	.0653084	.0747702
_cons	1.108013	.022921	48.34	0.000	1.062928	1.153098

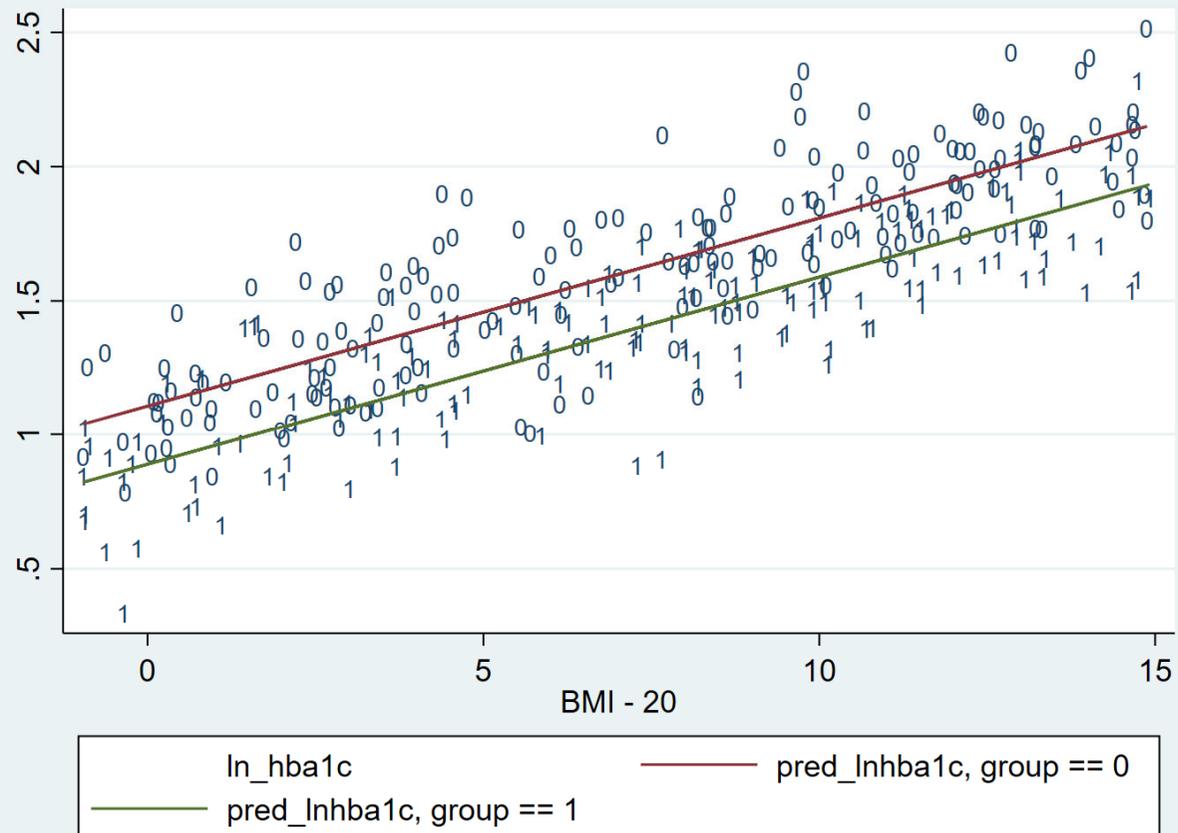
# Example output (log-scale)

```
. regress ln_hba1c b0.group b
```

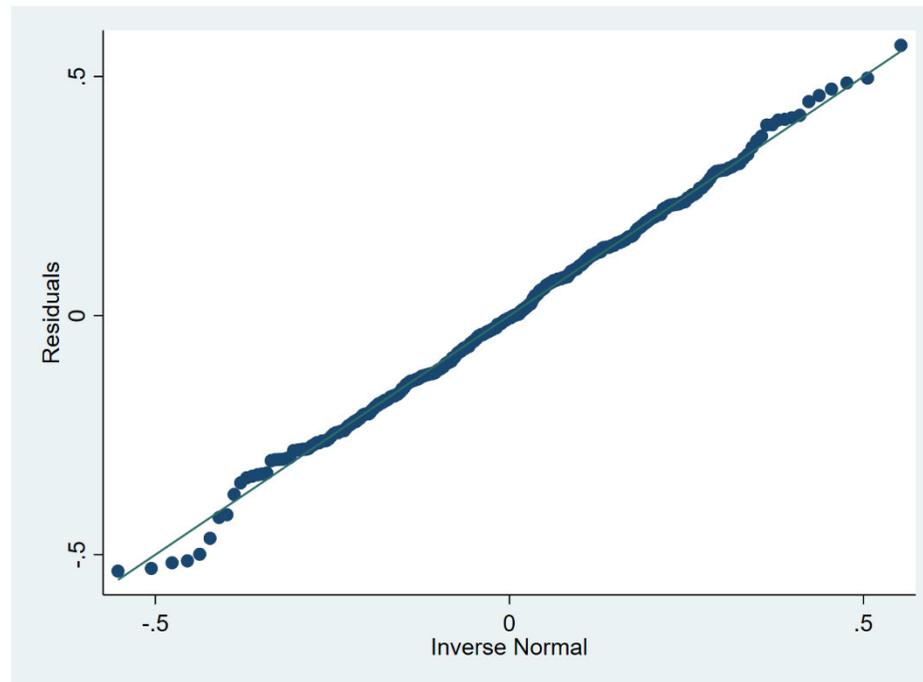
Source	SS
Model	38.1824433
Residual	13.7098077
Total	51.8922509

ln_hba1c	Coefficient	Std. Error
1.group	-.2193906	.
bmi20	.0700393	.
_cons	1.108013	.



# Normality check (log-scale)



# Example output (original scale)

```
. regress ln_hb1c b0.group bmi, eform("MedRat")
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	342
Model	38.1824433	2	19.0912216	F(2, 339)	=	472.07
Residual	13.7098077	339	.04044191	Prob > F	=	0.0000
				R-squared	=	0.7358
				Adj R-squared	=	0.7342
Total	51.8922509	341	.152176689	Root MSE	=	.2011

ln_hb1c	MedRat	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
1.group	.803008	.0174843	-10.08	0.000	.7693428	.8381464
bmi20	1.07255	.0025797	29.12	0.000	1.067488	1.077637
_cons	3.028335	.0694126	48.34	0.000	2.894833	3.167993

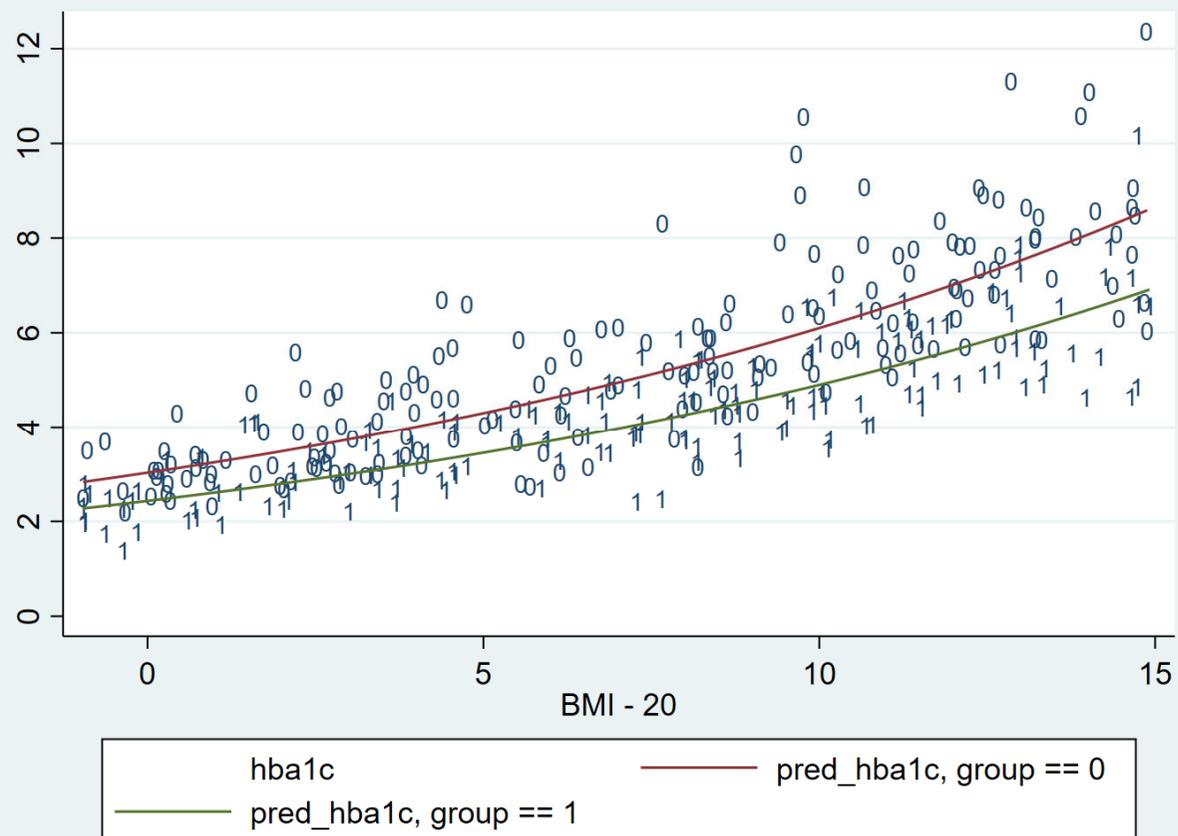
# Example output (original scale)

```
. regress ln_hba1c bmi20 group b0.group b1.group
```

Source	SS
Model	38.1824433
Residual	13.7098077
Total	51.8922509

ln_hba1c	MedRat	S
1.group	.803008	.
bmi20	1.07255	.
_cons	3.028335	.



Thanks for your attention – questions welcome!



(Djursland, July 2015 – H Støvring)