#### Week 9: Modeling

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Updated notes are here: https://clas.ucdenver.edu/marcelo-perraillon/ teaching/health-services-research-methods-i-hsmp-7607

#### Outline

- A collection of modeling techniques and tricks
- Big picture: We transform variables mostly for two reasons:
  - 1 Making the assumptions of models more plausible (typically involving the outcome variable)
  - 2 Presentation and interpretation (typically involving the explanatory variables)
- The most important part is that you understand that some transformation of variables imply that parameters are interpreted in a different way
- And by now you should recall that if the parameters have a different meaning, so does the the null of the Wald test

- We have seen several times that the meaning of the intercept is not that useful
- In the college GPA model:

 $colgpa_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 hsgpa_i + \beta_2 act_i + \epsilon_i$ 

- The intercept is an extrapolation: average college GPA for those with a high school GPA of zero and ACT score of zero
- We can make the intercept more useful by centering the predictors at some value, usually the average (but it could be any value)
- For example, the average HS GPA is 3.4 and the average ACT score is 24

#### We create two new variables:

reg colgpa hsgpa act

colgpa	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
hsgpa	.4534559	.0958129	4.73	0.000	.2640047	.6429071
act	.009426	.0107772	0.87	0.383	0118838	.0307358
_cons	1.286328	.3408221	3.77	0.000	.612419	1.960237
* Create new	vars					

```
gen hsgpa_c = hsgpa - 3.4
gen act_c = act - 24
```

■ The model becomes:

 $colgpa_i = \gamma_0 + \beta_1(hsgpa - 3.4)_i + \beta_2(act - 24)_i + \epsilon_i$ 

 Now γ<sub>0</sub> has a different meaning: it is the average college GPA for those of average HS GPA and average ACT scores

- Nothing else has changed in the model colgpa<sub>i</sub> = γ<sub>0</sub> + β<sub>1</sub>(hsgpa − 3.4)<sub>i</sub> + β<sub>2</sub>(act − 24)<sub>i</sub> + ε<sub>i</sub>
- You can rewrite as  $colgpa_i = (\gamma_0 - \beta_1 3.4 - \beta_2 24) + \beta_1 hsgpa_i + \beta_2 act_i + \epsilon_i$
- In other words, the interpretation of the coefficients (other than intercept) for *hsgpa* and *act* is the same

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	s =	141
+				F(2, 138)	=	14.78
Model	3.42365514	2	1.71182757	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual	15.9824443	138	.115814814	R-squared	=	0.1764
+				Adj R-squared	i =	0.1645
Total	19.4060994	140	.138614996	Root MSE	=	.34032
colgpa	Coef.	Std. Err.	t 1	P> t  [95% (	Conf.	Interval]
hsepa c	.4534559	.0958129	4.73 (	0.000 .26400	 )47	.6429071
act c	.009426	.0107772	0.87	0.38301188	338	.0307358
_cons	3.054302	.0287056	106.40	0.000 2.9975	542	3.111062

reg colgpa hsgpa\_c act\_c

- By the way, we also know that 3.05 is the unconditional expectation of colgpa (why?)
- Centering is also helpful presenting interactions of continuous variables:

 $colgpa_i = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 hsgpa_c + \gamma_2 act_c + \gamma_3 hsgpa_c * act_c + \epsilon_i$ 

- Remember, with continuous variables, interactions are not so easy to interpret; easier with indicator variables, but that's what centering is doing in a sense
- Now, for example, γ<sub>1</sub> is the change in average college GPA for a small change in HS GPA for students with *average ACT scores*. Similar interpretation for γ<sub>2</sub>

Note how main effects change and intercept change (but not interaction)

* Centered reg colgpa c.hs	sgpa	_c##c.act_	c										
colg	gpa	Coe	f.	Std.	Err.		t	P> t		[95% C	onf.	Interv	ral]
hsgpa	a_c t_c	.43306	86 53	.096	7374 7684	4 0	.48 .96	0.000	) 3 –	.2417	77 84	.6243 .0316	3603 3491
c.hsgpa_c#c.act	t_c	.04852	97	.036	1728	1	.34	0.182	2 -	.02299	95	.1200	588
_co	ons	3.0390	22	.030	8056	98	.65	0.000	)	2.9781	06	3.099	938
* Uncentered reg colgpa c.hs	sgpa	##c.act											
colgpa	 	Coef.	Std.	Err		t	P>	t	[95%	Conf.	Inte	erval]	
hsgpa	-	731644	.888	34938		0.82	0.4	12	-2.48	 8579	1.0	)25291	
act	 	. 1546457	. 12	2766	-:	.26	0.2	10	397	4069	.08	81156	
c.hsgpa#c.act	i. I	0485297	.036	61728	:	.34	0.1	82	022	9995	.12	200588	
_cons	8	5.278084	2.99	4696	:	.76	0.0	80	643	7207	11.	19989	
		-		-									

. di \_b[hsgpa] + \_b[c.hsgpa#c.act]\*24

.43306863

- Not sure why centering is not used more often
- If you have interactions of continuous variables, centering should be your first thought
- Be careful making predictions with a centered model
- For example, if you want to predict college GPA for those with HS GPA of 3, you need to plug in -0.4, not 3
- Not a big deal. Make predictions using the uncentered model. Centering is done for presentation and interpretation
- Next semester, when you cover regression discontinuity, you will see that centering is useful because you want to interpret a parameter at one particular point (the cut-off point), so you center at that point

### Changing scales

- We can of course change the scale of variables and we should expect that statistical inference will remain the same; parameter interpretation will change
- For example, we saw that age increases income in the GSS dataset:
- $realrinc_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 age_i + \epsilon$
- We interpret β<sub>1</sub> as the change in average real income for a one year increase in age
- But that's not the most useful way to measure age. A one year increase is not that meaningful. A ten year increase would be perhaps more useful
- In this simple model, we could just calculate the increase for 10 years.
   It's 10 \* β<sub>1</sub>; or we could recode age in decades

#### Rescaling

 Recoding age in decades; nothing other than the coefficient for age changes

qui reg realrinc age est sto m1 gen aged = age/10qui reg realrinc aged est sto m2 est table m1 m2, star stats(N r2 ll F) Variable | m1 m2 \_\_\_\_\_ age | 454.82891\*\* aged | 4548.2891\*\* \_cons | 12852.508 12852.508 1186 NI 1186 r2 | .00674942 .00674942 11 | -15009.357 -15009.357 F | 8.0456147 8.0456145 legend: \* p<0.05; \*\* p<0.01; \*\*\* p<0.001

#### Rescaling

#### • What about if the model is number of children on income?

reg children realrinc

Source	SS	df	MS	Numb	er of obs	=	1,189
+-				- F(1,	1187)	=	0.96
Model	2.24240941	1	2.24240941	l Prob	> F	=	0.3268
Residual	2765.37071	1,187	2.32971416	6 R-sc	uared	=	0.0008
+-				- Adj	R-squared	=	-0.0000
Total	2767.61312	1,188	2.32964067	7 Root	MSE	=	1.5263
children	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% C	onf.	Interval]
realrinc	5.71e-07	5.82e-07 0481168	0.98	0.327	-5.71e-0	07 22	1.71e-06
_0015 1	1.000020	.0401100		0.000	1.0142		1.100020

- Not a great way of seeing the effect of income on the number of children. The coefficient of realinc is close to zero
- Don't ever do this. It takes less than 10 seconds to recode a variable and you risk making a reviewer angry

#### Rescaling

- Better, but still not great. At three decimals, the coefficient is 0.000; you could sill make it better by expressing the change by 10K or 5K increments (as we did for age)
- Again, this is purely to help with presentation

```
gen incthou = realrinc/1000
```

reg children incthou

Source	SS	df	MS	Numb	er of ob:	s = =	1,189
Model   Residual	2.24240939 2765.37071	1 1,187	2.2424093 2.3297141	16 R-sq	> F uared	=	0.3268
Total	2767.61312	1,188	2.3296406	Adj 57 Root	MSE	1 =	-0.0000 1.5263
children	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% (	Conf.	Interval]
incthou   _cons	.0005713 1.668625	.0005823 .0481168	0.98 34.68	0.327 0.000	00057 1.5742	712 222	.0017137 1.763029

#### Consider adding education to the model

. reg children incthou educ

Source	SS	df	MS	Numbe	r of obs	=	1,189
+-				- F(2,	1186)	=	21.14
Model	95.277586	2	47.638793	3 Prob	> F	=	0.0000
Residual	2672.33553	1,186	2.25323401	1 R-squ	ared	=	0.0344
+-				- Adj R	-squared	=	0.0328
Total	2767.61312	1,188	2.32964067	7 Root	MSE	=	1.5011
children	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Co	onf.	Interval]
+-							
incthou	.0014315	.0005881	2.43	0.015	.000277	77	.0025853
educ	0997509	.0155237	-6.43	0.000	13020	8	0692939
_cons	3.020157	.2155896	14.01	0.000	2.59717	78	3.443137

- We can't compare the magnitude of the coefficients to determine how important they are in explaining the outcome; after all, we just saw that we can change the size of the coefficients by changing the scale
- One trick is to express the coefficients in the same scale

- We have seen before that we can standardize a variable by subtracting its mean and dividing by the standard deviation z<sub>i</sub> = x<sub>i</sub>-x̄/σ
- Then z will have a mean of zero and standard deviation of 1
- The idea behind a regression with so-called beta coefficients (yes, not the best name) is to standardize all variables
- The main advantage is that the size of the coefficients tell you how important a variable is in terms of it effect on the outcome because
- Now all of them are measured in the same scale and a small change is a 1 standard deviation. If linear, a 1 standard deviation change

# Example: hedonic pricing. What is the effect of pollution on housing prices?

\* Get Wooldridge data bcuse hprice2

reg price nox crime rooms dist stratio

Source	SS	df	MS	Number	of obs =	= 506
+				F(5, 5	= (00	= 174.47
Model	2.7223e+10	5	5.4445e+09	Prob >	F =	= 0.0000
Residual	1.5603e+10	500	31205611.6	R-squa	red =	0.6357
+				Adj R-	squared =	= 0.6320
Total	4.2826e+10	505	84803032	Root M	SE =	= 5586.2
	Coof	C+d Emm	+	D>1+1	FOEV Comf	Tn+onwoll
price (		Stu. EII.			[35% CONT.	. incervarj
nox	-2706.433	354.0869	-7.64	0.000	-3402.114	-2010.751
crime	-153.601	32,92883	-4.66	0.000	-218.2969	-88,90504
rooms	6735.498	393.6037	17.11	0.000	5962.177	7508.819
dist	-1026.806	188.1079	-5.46	0.000	-1396.386	-657.227
stratio	-1149.204	127.4287	-9.02	0.000	-1399.566	-898.8422
_cons	20871.13	5054.599	4.13	0.000	10940.26	30802

• nox is a measure of nitrogen oxide in the air over each community

■ We can standardize variables "by hand" or use the egen command

```
* Hand (i.e. the hand of Stata)
qui sum price
gen zprice = (price - r(mean))/r(sd)
* Easier, use the egen function std() for all variables
foreach var of varlist price nox crime rooms dist stratio {
  egen z'var'=std('var')
}
* Regress
reg zprice znox zcrime zrooms zdist zstratio
            Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| [95% Conf. Interval]
     zprice |
_____
      z_{nox} - 340446 .0445411 -7.64 0.000 - 4279568 - 2529352
     zcrime | - 1432828 0307168
                                -4.66 0.000 - 2036327
                                                            - 0829328
     zrooms | .5138878 .0300302
                                 17.11
                                          0.000
                                                    454887
                                                            5728887
      zdist | -.2348385
                       .0430217
                                -5.46
                                         0.000 -.3193642 -.1503129
   zstratio | -.2702799
                       .0299698
                                          0.000 -.3291622
                                 -9.02
                                                            -.2113976
               6.61e-09
                                    0.00 1.000
                                                  - 0529829
      cons
                       0269672
                                                             0529829
```

Now we can compare the size of the coefficients. And: a one st dv increase in nox decreases price by 0.34 st dvs

- Note that the intercept is zero
- We also standardized price; otherwise changes would be in the price scale
- Stata has a **beta** option for regress

reg price nox crime rooms dist stratio, beta

Source	L	SS	df	MS	Number of ob	s =	506
	+-				- F(5, 500)	=	174.47
Model	1	2.7223e+10	5	5.4445e+09	9 Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual	1	1.5603e+10	500	31205611.6	6 R-squared	=	0.6357
	+-				<ul> <li>Adj R-square</li> </ul>	d =	0.6320
Total	I.	4.2826e+10	505	84803032	2 Root MSE	=	5586.2
price	L	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t		Beta
	+-						
nox	1	-2706.433	354.0869	-7.64	0.000		340446
crime	1	-153.601	32.92883	-4.66	0.000		1432828
rooms	1	6735.498	393.6037	17.11	0.000		.5138878
dist	I.	-1026.806	188.1079	-5.46	0.000		2348385
stratio	I.	-1149.204	127.4287	-9.02	0.000		2702799
_cons	L	20871.13	5054.599	4.13	0.000		

Replaces CIs for Beta coefficients

#### Could also leave price in the original scale

```
qui reg price nox crime rooms dist stratio
est sto ori
qui reg zprice znox zcrime zrooms zdist zstratio
est sto m1
qui reg price znox zcrime zrooms zdist zstratio
est sto m2
est table ori m1 m2, stats(N r2)
_____
   Variable | ori
                       m 1
                                    m2
______
       nox | -2706.4326
     crime | -153.60097
     rooms | 6735,4983
      dist | -1026.8063
    stratio | -1149 2038
      znox I
                     -.34044602 -3135.1184
                     -.14328275 -1319.4702
    zcrime |
    zrooms |
                     .51388784 4732.3191
                     -.23483854 -2162.5943
     zdist
                     -.27027989 -2488.9686
   zstratio |
     _cons | 20871.127
                     6.608e-09
                               22511.51
             506
                       506
        NI
                                      506
             .6356658 .63566579
       r2 |
                               .63566579
```

#### Related but a digression

- Here we standardized so we can compare the contribution of some variables
- But we could standardize any of them so the parameter can be interpreted as change in 1 standard deviation
- Sometimes the measurement units do not mean much so it's helpful to think about the relevant units
- For example, if a predictor is a depression scale, what does it mean a unit change? Would 10 points be better?

#### Beta coefficients; back to those children

reg children incthou educ, beta

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	1,189
+				- F(2, 1186)	=	21.14
Model	95.277586	2	47.638793	8 Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual	2672.33553	1,186	2.25323401	R-squared	=	0.0344
+				- Adj R-squared	=	0.0328
Total	2767.61312	1,188	2.32964067	' Root MSE	=	1.5011
children	Coef.	Std Err	+	P> +		Beta
		Dout Dit.	0	1 2 1 0 1		2004
+						
+ incthou	.0014315	.0005881	2.43	0.015		.0713254
+ incthou   educ	.0014315 0997509	.0005881	2.43 -6.43	0.015 0.000		.0713254
+ incthou   educ   _cons	.0014315 0997509 3.020157	.0005881 .0155237 .2155896	2.43 -6.43 14.01	0.015 0.000 0.000		.0713254 .1882889

- Education is more important than income but in the original scale .0997509/.0014315 = 69.68. We know this is meaningless
- Instead: .1882889/ .0713254 = 2.64
- A linear model is not the best here; the number of children is not normally distributed (Poisson or negative binomial would be better)

- Linear relationships are easy to estimate and easy to interpret
- Splines are a way to divide relationships that are non-linear into linear pieces connected by "knots"
- They are fairly useful to a) accommodate non-linearities
- And b) great for testing changes in trends; used more commonly in longitudinal data
- WARNING: The coding of splines can be utterly confusing and there is more than one way of doing it (so careful if you google)



#### Example data from Stata on income vs age

```
* Get data
webuse mksp1
* See trend with lowess
lowess income age, gen(linc)
scatter income age || line linc age, color(red) sort
* Estimate separate models for before and after 40
scatter income age || lfit linc age if age <=40 || ///
lfit linc age if age > 40
```

- What about if we wanted to test that the slope before 40 is the same as the slope after 40?
- If we estimated two models (just like in the graph above) we get an estimate of before and after 40, but not a statistical test

#### Seeing trends



Note that the two linear pieces are not connected

### Splines

- We will use splines to model two lines joined by a knot at 40 income = β<sub>0</sub> + β<sub>1</sub>age + β<sub>2</sub>(age - k)<sub>+</sub> + ϵ
- The (x)<sub>+</sub> is called a truncated line function and is defined as being equal to x if x is positive and zero otherwise. k is the knot. In this example, k = 40 and x = age 40
- It's similar to centering but we now make  $(age k)_+ = 0$  when age  $\leq 40$
- Again: (age k)<sub>+</sub> will be equal to age (centered) if older than 40 and zero if less than 40
- The only difficult part about splines is to get the coding right, the rest is (relatively) easy

#### Splines

```
* Create truncated function
gen aget = age - 40
replace aget = 0 if age <= 40
```

\* Estimate model reg income age aget predict inchat

Source	SS	df	MS	Number (	of obs =	100
+				F(2, 97)	) =	15.69
Model	7.1445e+09	2	3.5722e+09	Prob > 1	7 =	0.0000
Residual	2.2078e+10	97	227605048	R-square	ed =	0.2445
+				Adj R-so	quared =	0.2289
Total	2.9222e+10	99	295173333	Root MSI	E =	15087
income	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
+						
age	805.6953	210.8633	3.82	0.000	387.19	1224.201
aget	-559.8229	340.9786	-1.64	0.104 -	1236.571	116.9253
_cons	14208.38	6680.308	2.13	0.036	949.8135	27466.94

\* Plot

scatter income age || line inchat age, color(red) sort ///
legend(off) saving(spli.gph, replace)
graph export sli.png, replace

### Splines



- The two linear pieces are now connected
- Important digression: Is the model right? Probably not. We should compare it to others. We just made it so because we ASSUMED a break at forty

#### Understanding the model

- We estimated the model:  $income = \beta_0 + \beta_1 age + \beta_2 (age 40)_+$
- If age  $\leq$  40 the model is A) : *income* =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 age$
- If age > 40 the model is:  $income = \beta_0 + \beta_1 age + \beta_2 (age 40)$
- Same as centering, so if age > 40 the model is B): income = (β<sub>0</sub> − β<sub>2</sub> \* 40) + (β<sub>1</sub> + β<sub>2</sub>)age
- Compare A) and B). When are they going to be the same?
- If  $\beta_2 = 0$ , then the slope before and after is the same
- Note that  $\beta_2$  is the *incremental* change in slope
- The trick of using the truncated function is that it allowed us the possibility of a different slope after 40

#### Testing if slope is the same before and after 40

- From the comparison of A) and B) it's clear that if we test the null  $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$  we are testing whether the slopes are the same before and after 40
- If we reject the null, then there is a change, which can be positive or negative
- From the output above, we do not reject the null: *p* = 0.104 so there is not enough evidence to suggest that there is a change in slope after 40
- See Stata's **mkspline** command for more ways of using splines;
- You can make cubic splines, assuming two or more non-linear lines with a knot

#### Paper example

From: Incidence and Mortality of Hip Fractures in the United States

JAMA. 2009;302(14):1573-1579. doi:10.1001/jama.2009.1462



#### Figure Legend:

Data are based on a 20% sample of Medicare claims; error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. P < .001 for a change in trend in 1995. Regions of y-axes that are in blue indicate incidence rate of 0 to 500 per 100 000 population.

- Sample sizes were huge so not a lot of need of a test but...
- Very useful and flexible to test changes in trends, including a before and after policy change (with the caveat that the causal inference could be complicated)

### Suggestions

- 1) Always verify that you coded splines correctly. Plot predicted values (this is generic example. Always plot predicted values to verify you code things correctly)
- 2) Write down the model for before and after the knot (remember the truncated function changes at the knot)
- 3) You can of course combine splines with interactions (homework)

### Summary

- We will see more modeling issues next class
- This is important and the key is to understand the meaning of the parameters
- Once you get the meaning, hypothesis testing and modeling is easier
- More next class...