## Week 5: Multiple Linear Regression

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

## Outline

- Multiple linear regression estimation
- Algebraic properties, redux
- Matrix form
- Interpretation: "controlling," "adjusting," "taking account" other factors

# Big picture

- We seldom run a regression model with just one predictor but for pedagogical reasons is always easier to understand the basics of regression with only one variable
- When modeling, it's useful to start with just one predictor/covariate of interest and then add variables
- We often want to describe relationships "controlling" for other factors
- Today, we will see different ways of understanding what it means to "control" or "adjust" for other variables and to "hold them constant" or "taking them into account"
- Note, once again, how language can be confusing. All are words to describe the same idea but you can understand that idea in different ways, hence the many terms

. . .

Estimation of parameters is the same as before. We want to minimize SSE:

• 
$$S(\beta_0...\beta_p) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i - ... - \hat{\beta}_p x_{ip})^2$$

$$\frac{\partial SSE}{\partial \beta_p} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ip} (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i - \dots - \beta_p x_{ip}) = 0$$

- Note that the algebraic properties of OLS will hold here too: the sum of the residuals will be zero and every covariate x will be uncorrelated to the residual (remember: in the sample, not the population)
- Whenever you see a system of linear equations that need to be solved you should think about linear algebra
- That's pretty much the *origin* of linear algebra. Liner algebra was developed (invented?) as shortcut to deal with multiple linear equations
- So no surprise here that we could write the regression model as  $Y = X\beta + \epsilon$ , where Y is a nx1 vector and X is an nx(p+1) matrix, also know as the **design matrix**.  $\beta$  is also a vector of p + 1 elements.  $\epsilon$  is also a vector

From your textbook:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}, \ \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{10} & x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ x_{20} & x_{21} & \cdots & x_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_{n0} & x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{np} \end{bmatrix}, \ \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Again, just a way of writing a long set of equations in a very simple way. Minimizing the sum of squares can be written as:
 S(β) = ε'ε = (Y − Xβ)'(Y − Xβ)

• The minimization problem will lead to

(X'X)eta=X'Y (we could write  $\hat{eta}$  here)

- If the inverse of (X'X) exists, then we can left multiply by (X'X)<sup>-1</sup> to get
- $\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y$ , where  $\hat{\beta}$  is a vector of p + 1 coefficients. And that's it. That gives us the OLS solution
- Again: We used linear algebra to more easily solve a complicated set of linear equations but the logic is the same as with simple linear regression
- Before, we were trying to draw the line that passes as close as possible to all points. We are still trying to do so but now the line is a plane in multiple dimensions
- If you know linear algebra well, the intuition behind the solution is that the optimal betas are an orthogonal projection. This means nothing if you don't know linear algebra well

## Inference

- As before, we made no assumptions about the distribution of *ϵ*. We just solved a system of linear equations
- We again do need to assume that the error distributes normal idd N(0, σ<sup>2</sup>) to figure out what is the distribution of the estimated coefficients β
- We will find equivalent results about the distribution of  $\hat{\beta}_j$  and the standard errors  $se(\hat{\beta}_j)$  with the difference that now we have to think about **multivariate normals**
- The vector β̂ has a (p+1)-variate normal distribution with mean vector β and variance-covariance matrix σ<sup>2</sup>(X'X)<sup>-1</sup>. Your textbook defines C = (X'X)<sup>-1</sup> so the variance-covariance matrix is σ<sup>2</sup>C
- If you are confused, please review joint distributions and the multivariate normal. See Wooldridge and https://en.wikipedia. org/wiki/Multivariate\_normal\_distribution

## Inference

- Important: We can still use the intuition from the SLR model because each  $\hat{\beta}_j$  has a marginal distribution that is normal with  $se(\hat{\beta}_j) = \hat{\sigma}\sqrt{c_{jj}}$ , where  $c_{jj}$  is the *j* diagonal element of *C*
- In other words, similar to SLR, we can do Wald test as with the SLR model
- $\blacksquare$  We can do simulations about each  $\beta$  as we did in SLR
- BUT: since the β<sub>j</sub> have a (p+1)-variate normal distribution, they also have a covariance (the off-diagonal elements of σ<sup>2</sup>C)
- If we are going to do simulation about multiple parameters, we do need to take into account their covariance (correlation) when doing simulations

## College grades again

We now add a variable called skipped, which has the average number of lectures missed per week:

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

reg colgpa hsgpa skipped								
Source	L	SS	df	MS	Nur	mber of obs	=	141
	+				- F(2	2, 138)	=	19.77
Model	1	4.32237812	2	2.1611890	6 Pro	ob > F	=	0.0000
Residual	L	15.0837213	138	.10930232	8 R-s	squared	=	0.2227
	+				- Ad	j R-squared	=	0.2115
Total	L	19.4060994	140	.13861499	6 Roo	ot MSE	=	.33061
colgpa	l	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Co	nf.	Interval]
hsgpa	1	.4588039	.0876908	5.23	0.000	.285412	5	.6321952
skipped	1	0774349	.0257646	-3.01	0.003	128379	2	0264905
_cons	L.	1.579167	.3033669	5.21	0.000	.979318	3	2.179015

What is the null of the F(2,138) test? What is the null of the Wald tests?

## Variance-covariance matrix

#### Stata saves the variance-covariance matrix

```
ereturn list
scalars:
                 e(N) = 141
              e(df m) = 2
macros:
           e(cmdline) : "regress colgpa hsgpa skipped"
         e(estat cmd) : "regress estat"
matrices:
                 e(b) : 1 x 3
                 e(V) · 3 x 3
matrix list e(V)
symmetric e(V)[3,3]
                    skipped
             hsgpa
                                     cons
 hsgpa .00768968
skipped .00020257 .00066381
 cons -.02637928 -.00140361
                                0920315
di sqrt(.00768968)
.08769082
* note it matches the SE of hsgpa
```

 The covariance of the coefficient for hsgpa and skipped is .00020257. We typically don't use this information in empirical work but we would need it to make simulations about the betas

## Interpretation

- We can interpret the parameters as before with a slight modification: The average college GPA increases by 0.45 points for one point increase in high school GPA holding the number of classes skipped constant
- The average college GPA decreases 0.08 points for an additional class skipped during the semester holding high school GPA constant
- The average college GPA for a student with a GPA of zero who didn't skip class during the semester is 1.57 (an extrapolation, of course)
- The difficult part is, what exactly do we mean by "holding constant" high school GPA or classes skipped?
- The language comes from **experiments** in which investigators can keep one condition **unchanged** (constant) while changing another

# Holding constant?

One way in which holding constant (*ceteris paribus*) is clear is that the the coefficient of a variable is the **partial change** when the other variables are not changing:

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

- **Total** change:  $\Delta colga = \hat{\beta}_1 \Delta hsgpa + \hat{\beta}_2 \Delta skipped$
- For a small **partial** change:  $\frac{\partial colgpa}{\partial hsgpa} = \hat{\beta}_1$
- (I'm simplifying the notation but what is changing is E[colgpa|X])
- The confusing part is that it sounds like we conducted an experiment is which we were able to study students that, say, skip no classes but have different hsgpa. Another way: we found students who skip two classes but who have different hsgpa...
- With observational data, we can't hold other factors constant in this more literal meaning, but we are trying to replicate that situation with a regression analysis

# Partialling out interpretation (read this slide slowly and carefully)

- Another common way of describing a model is to say that the coefficient of hsgpa is the effect on average colgpa after "adjusting" or "taking into account" the effect of skipping classes
- Our original model is:  $colgpa_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 hsgpa_i + \beta_2 skipped_i + \epsilon_i$

1) Estimate 
$$hsgpa = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 skipped + \mu$$

- This is the effect of skipping classes on high school GPA
- 2) Calculate the residuals of the above regression:

$$\hat{\mu_i} = hsgpa_i - hsgpa_i$$

The residuals are the part of high school GPA that is not explained by skipping classes

3) Estimate the regression  $colgpa = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \hat{\mu_i} + \lambda$ 

In this model, we used the unexplained (by skipped) part of hsgpa to explain colgpa. Or, after we take into account the effect of skipping classes, what is the partial effect of hsgpa on colgpa?

• We will find that  $\hat{\alpha_1} = \hat{\beta_1}$ 

## Convince yourself

#### • We estimated: $colgpa_i = 1.57 + 0.4588hsgpa_i - 0.077skipped_i$

reg hsgpa skipped .... hsgpa | Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| [95% Conf. Interval] skipped | -.0263437 .0248204 -1.06 0.290 -.075418 .0227306 \_cons | 3.43048 .0379318 90.44 0.000 3.355482 3.505478 predict hs\_r, r reg colgpa hs\_r .... colgpa | Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| [95% Conf. Interval] hs\_r | .4588039 .0911463 5.03 0.000 .2785914 .6390164 \_cons | 3.056738 .0289395 105.63 0.000 2.999519 3.113956

# Not the only way of partialling out

■ Your textbook presents another way of understanding partialling out

- We removed the effect of skipped from both colgpa and hsgpa. Then we regressed both unexplained (by skipped) parts. So the effect of hsgres on colres is the effect once skipped has been taken into account
- Note that now the standard error matches the original standard error

# Useful to stop and think about hsgpa and skipped

Let's compare the regressions

- We reject the null that skipped=0. Also, note that the coefficient of hsgpa went down, from 0.48 to 0.46
- Some of the effect of hsgpa is accounted/explained for skipping classes. Look at the regression of hsgpa and skipped above. Students who skip more classes have a lower high school GPA

# When are they going to be the same?

- If skipped and hsgpa were completely uncorrelated, then in the regression, reg hsgpa skipped, the coefficient for skipped would be zero and the variance of the residuals would be the same as the unexplained variance
- So adjusting would not change the coefficient for hsgpa
- This is why in a clinical trial adjusting for other variables doesn't change the estimation of treatment effects. Treatment and other factors are independent
- Remember, if two variables are independent, their correlation/covariance is zero

# Confounder, mediator, or modifier?

- Skipping classes is a *counfounder* of the relationship between high school GPA and college GPA: skipped is related to both
- But we need to know more about the subject matter (mechanism) to figure out if skipping classes is a **mediator**. It's not that hsgpa causes lower colgpa, it's that low hsgpa causes skipping classes which in turns causes lower colgpa (probably not)
- Note that we have implicitly assumed that skipping classes is not a modifier. In our model, the effect of hsgpa on colgpa does not depend on skipping classes
- We can check for it by adding an interaction:  $colgpa_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 hsgpa_i + \beta_2 skipped_i + \beta_3 hsgpa * skipped + \epsilon_i$
- Now  $\frac{\partial colgpa}{\partial hsgpa} = \beta_1 + \beta_3 skipped$
- So now there is not a single effect of hsgpa (nonlinear). Instead, the effect of hsgpa on colgpa depends on class skipped

# Summary

- Most of what we learned in SLR easily extends to MLR
- We interpret coefficients in a different way and in MLR. We need to adjust, control for, hold something constant, take into account... Many ways of saying the same
- Under the assumption of iid errors that distribute normal, the estimated coefficients have a multvariate normal distribution with normal marginal distributions
- The key with MRL is to gain intuition about what it means holding other factors constant or adjusting for other factors
- Next, inference and comparing models using F tests