

Session 3: Further regression

Formula

Formula for multiple regression

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 \dots + \beta_k X_k + e$$

$$e \sim N(0, \sigma)$$

- Interpretation of β_j

- How much \hat{Y} changes for a 1-unit in X_j holding all other values constant
- The estimated effect on Y of a 1-unit change in X_j , "controlling for" or "taking account" of all the other X s

Residuals

$$\hat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 \dots + \beta_k X_k$$

$$Y = \hat{Y} + e$$

$$e \sim N(0, \sigma)$$

- Mean of zero
- Standard deviation of σ (RMSE)
- Normally distributed
- Should have no structured relationship to X variables

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R^2

R^2

- R^2 : coefficient of multiple determination
- TSS = sum of squared deviation from the mean = $\sum(Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$
- RSS = sum of squared deviation from the regression prediction = $\sum(Y_i - \hat{Y})^2$
- $R^2 = \frac{TSS - RSS}{TSS}$
- Range: 0 (no relationship) to 1 (perfect linear relationship)
- PRE: Proportional Reduction in Error

R^2 and correlation

- In bivariate regression, R^2 is the square of the correlation coefficient between Y and X
- In multiple regression, it is the square of the correlation between Y and \hat{Y}
- (In bivariate regression the correlation between X and \hat{Y} is 1)

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Indicator variables

Multicategory explanatory variables -> Indicator variables

- We often use "indicator coding" or "dummy coding"
- For 2-category variables, set one category to 0, the other to 1: interpret as the effect of being in the second category (e.g., female) compared with the first.

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	F(2, 996)	P>=F	Prob > F	N
Model 1	33922983.9	2	16961492		46.72			
Residual	356470636	996	370994.389					
Total	388593620	998	406630.083					

income	Coefficient	S.E. of coeff.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]
age	-3.144945	.083998	-2.90	0.004	-6.271087 -1.018838
sex					
female	+82.678	39.51326	+2.03	0.000	+63.02208 -275.1353
_cons	1035.878	54.58935	18.98	0.000	928.7494 1143.007

More than two categories

With more than two categories we create a set of binary variables, "indicator variables" or "dummy variables":

	d1	d2	d3	d4
a	1	0	0	0
b	0	1	0	0
c	0	0	1	0
d	0	0	0	1

For m categories, $m-1$ dummy variables are sufficient.

We interpret the parameter as the estimated effect of being in that category relative to the omitted or "reference" category.

Stata handles this automatically with the `i.` prefix.



Example: education

reg income age i.sex i.qual						
Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	959
Model	8586064.5	5	17192120.9	F(5, 953)	=	54.14
Residual	302633015	953	317858.283	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	388593620	958	405630.083	R-squared	=	0.2212
				Adj R-squared	=	0.2171
				Root MSE	=	563.52

income	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]
age	-.3897295	1.04777	-0.37	0.710	-2.445983 1.666474
sex					
female	-336.9623	36.76947	-9.17	0.000	-409.1011 -264.8234
qual					
A-level, other sub-d...	-459.9208	78.54185	-5.86	0.000	-614.0554 -305.7782
B-level, commercial...	-701.695	77.18016	-9.09	0.000	-853.1195 -550.2716
Sub-U-level, no qual	-864.9695	76.41768	-11.32	0.000	-1014.0936 -715.0032
_cons	1563.508	81.83797	19.10	0.000	1402.904 1724.111

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Example

reg income age i.sex						
Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	959
Model	33922983.9	2	169614.92	F(2, 956)	=	45.72
Residual	354670636	956	370994.369	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	388593620	958	405630.083	R-squared	=	0.0873
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0854
				Root MSE	=	609.09

income	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]
age	-3.144945	1.083398	-2.90	0.004	-5.271057 -1.018833
sex					
female	-352.678	39.51326	-8.93	0.000	-430.2208 -275.1363
_cons	1035.878	54.58935	18.98	0.000	928.7494 1143.007

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delta-F example: group of indicator variables

```
. qui reg income age i.sex
. est store base
. qui reg income age i.sex i.qual
. ftest base
Assumption: base nested in .
F( 3,    953) =      54.62
prob > F =     0.0000
```

Note: ftest is an add-on command. Do ssc install ftest to install

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Hypothesis testing

Hypothesis testing: one parameter at a time

- t-test: $abs(\hat{\beta}_j/se_j) > t$
- Interpretation:
 - Null: population value of β is 0; this variable has no influence once the other variables are taken account of

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Hypothesis testing: all parameters together

- F-test:
 - $\beta_1 = \beta_2 \dots = \beta_k = 0$
- Null hypothesis: no X variable has an effect once the others are taken care of.
- A "global" test: the null is that there is no relevant variable in the model
- Calculation based on TSS and RSS, but also number of cases and number of parameters estimated
- Uses F distribution (two df parameters: k and n-k-1, k is number of parameters, n the number of cases)

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Hypothesis testing: additional parameters

- Delta F-test compares "nested" models
 - Model 1: $\hat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 \dots + \beta_g X_g$
 - Model 1: $\hat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 \dots + \beta_g X_g + \beta_h X_h \dots + \beta_k X_k$
- Null hypothesis: $\beta_h = \dots = \beta_k = 0$
- That is, given the variables already in the model, the additional variables contribute no explanatory power.
- Useful when adding multi-category variables, or related groups of variables

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Multicollinearity

- Multicollinearity arises where variable that individually "work" share too much of their explanatory power
- When both are in the model, they may both be insignificant
- Not simply correlation, but that they share too much of their correlation with Y
- Often arises when the 2 variables both measure the same phenomenon
- Usually a small sample problem
- Don't worry unless you see variables inexplicably becoming insignificant

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Multicollinearity

Bodyfat correlations

```
. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r14/bodyfat
(Body Fat)
. corr *
(obs=20)

triceps    thigh    midarm   bodyfat
triceps    1.0000
thigh      0.9238  1.0000
midarm     0.4578  0.0847  1.0000
bodyfat    0.0433  0.8781  0.1424  1.0000
```

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Triceps predicting bodyfat

```
. reg bodyfat tricep
Source | SS       df      MS      Number of obs = 20
       | F(1, 18) = 44.30
Model  | 352.269824 1  352.269824 Prob > F = 0.0000
Residual | 143.119689 18  7.95109386 R-squared = 0.7111
Total   | 495.389513 19  26.0731323 Adj R-squared = 0.6950
                                         Root MSE = 2.8198

bodyfat | Coefficient Std. err.      t      P>|t| [95% conf. interval]
triceps | .8571866  .1287808  6.66  0.000  .5866021  1.127745
_cons   | -1.496107 3.319235  -0.45  0.658  -8.46956  5.477347
```

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Thigh predicting bodyfat

```
. reg bodyfat thigh
Source | SS       df      MS      Number of obs = 20
       | F(1, 18) = 60.62
Model  | 381.965845 1  381.965845 Prob > F = 0.0000
Residual | 113.423669 18  6.30131492 R-squared = 0.7710
Total   | 495.389513 19  26.0731323 Adj R-squared = 0.7583
                                         Root MSE = 2.5102

bodyfat | Coefficient Std. err.      t      P>|t| [95% conf. interval]
thigh   | .8565467  .1100156  7.79  0.000  .6264124  1.087681
_cons  | -23.63449 5.657414  -4.18  0.001  -35.82028 -11.74871
```

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Midarm predicting bodyfat

```
. reg bodyfat midarm
Source | SS       df      MS      Number of obs = 20
       | F(1, 18) = 0.37
Model  | 10.0516092 1  10.0516092 Prob > F = 0.5491
Residual | 485.337904 18  26.9632169 R-squared = 0.0203
Total   | 495.389513 19  26.0731323 Adj R-squared = -0.0341
                                         Root MSE = 5.1926

bodyfat | Coefficient Std. err.      t      P>|t| [95% conf. interval]
midarm  | -.1994287 -.3266297  0.61  0.549  -.4867949  .8856523
_cons   | 14.68678  9.095926  1.61  0.124  -4.4230562 33.79661
```

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Omnibus model: none significant

```
. reg bodyfat tricep thigh midarm
Source | SS       df      MS      Number of obs = 20
       | F(3, 16) = 21.52
Model  | 396.984607 3  132.328202 Prob > F = 0.0000
Residual | 98.4049068 16  6.15030667 R-squared = 0.8014
Total   | 495.389513 19  26.0731323 Adj R-squared = 0.7641
                                         Root MSE = 2.48

bodyfat | Coefficient Std. err.      t      P>|t| [95% conf. interval]
triceps | 4.334085  3.015511  1.44  0.170  -.2058512  10.72668
thigh   | -2.856842  2.682015  -1.11  0.285  -.8.320468  2.616785
midarm  | -2.198056  1.598499  -1.37  0.190  -5.563362  1.19625
_cons   | 117.0844  99.78238  1.17  0.258  -94.44474  328.6136
```

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VIF for the model

```
. estat vif
Variable | VIF      1/VIF
triceps  | 708.84  0.001411
thigh    | 564.34  0.001772
midarm   | 104.61  0.009560
Mean VIF | 459.26
```

Drop triceps

```
. reg bodyfat thigh midarm
Source | SS       df      MS      Number of obs = 20
       | F(2, 17) = 29.40
Model  | 384.279748 2  192.139874 Prob > F = 0.0000
Residual | 111.109765 17  6.53586854 R-squared = 0.7757
Total   | 495.389513 19  26.0731323 Adj R-squared = 0.7493
                                         Root MSE = 2.5565

bodyfat | Coefficient Std. err.      t      P>|t| [95% conf. interval]
thigh   | .8508818  .1124482  7.57  0.000  .6136367  1.088127
midarm  | .0960295  .1613927  0.60  0.560  -.2444792  .4365383
_cons   | -25.99696  6.99732  -3.72  0.002  -40.76001  -11.2339
```

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New VIF

```
. estat vif
Variable | VIF      1/VIF
midarm   | 1.01  0.992831
thigh    | 1.01  0.992831
Mean VIF | 1.01
```

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Residuals

Residuals

$$Y = b_0 + b_1 X_1 + \dots + b_k X_k + e$$

$$e \sim N(0, \sigma)$$

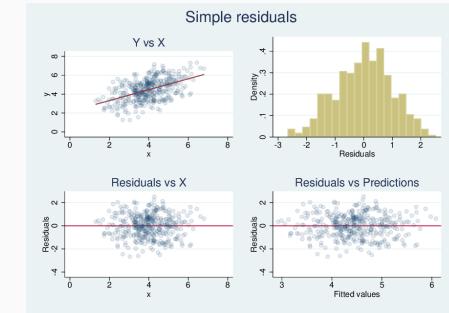
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Characteristics

- Residuals will
 - have mean 0
 - be as small as possible
 - have no linear relationship to X variables
- Residuals should
 - be approximately normally distributed (symmetric is often enough)
 - not have a non-linear relationship to any X variable
 - have a constant spread, that is not related to X or Y values
- If correlated with variables not in the model, perhaps those variables should be included

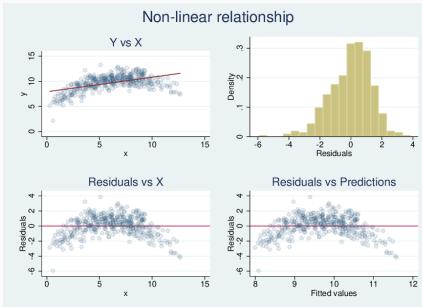
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Examining residuals: ideal

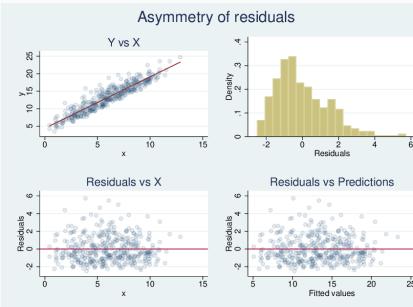


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Examining residuals: Non-linear

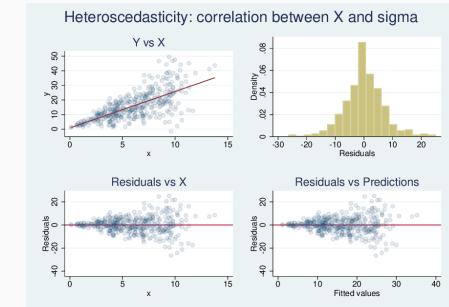


Examining residuals: asymmetric



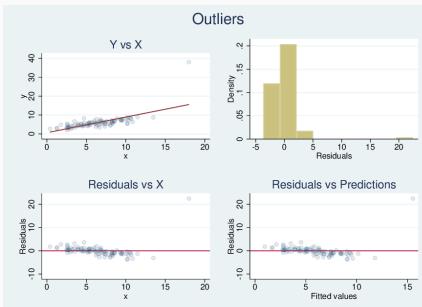
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Examining residuals: heteroscedasticity

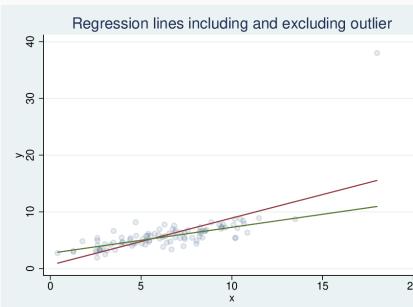


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Examining residuals: Spotting outliers



Examining residuals: Influence of outliers



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Influence

Outliers may have undue influence

- dfbeta
- Cook's distance

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Outlier interactive app

<http://teaching.sociology.ul.ie:3838/influence/>

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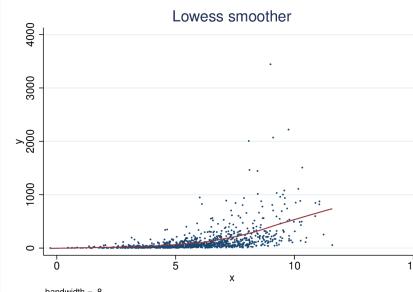
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Multiplicative relationship

- Where the underlying relationship is multiplicative, linear regression doesn't work well
- Implies an additive increase where a multiplicative one is better
- If we take the log of the dependent variable:
 - better estimates
 - often cures heteroscedasticity

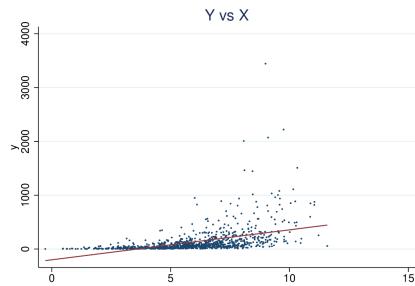
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Simulation: Y increases 65% for X +1



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Predictions



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Log(Y)

. gen ly = log(y)						
. reg ly x						
Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	1,000
Model	956.12638	1	956.12638	F(1, 998)	=	1032.66
Residual	924.030142	998	.925881905	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	1880.15652	999	1.88203756	R-squared	=	0.5085
				Adj R-squared	=	0.5080
				Root MSE	=	.66223
ly	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
x	.4933914	.0153537	32.14	0.000	.4632622	.5235205
_cons	1.062305	.0057568	11.09	0.000	.8743872	1.250213

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Log regression

Linear regression

reg y x						
Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	1,000
Model	12181477.5	1	12181477.5	F(1, 998)	=	274.71
Residual	44253675.2	998	44342.3599	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	56435152.7	999	56491.6443	R-squared	=	0.2158
				Adj R-squared	=	0.2151
				Root MSE	=	210.68
y	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
x	55.69088	3.360033	16.57	0.000	49.09734	62.28442
_cons	-200.7041	20.95566	-9.58	0.000	-241.8263	-159.5819

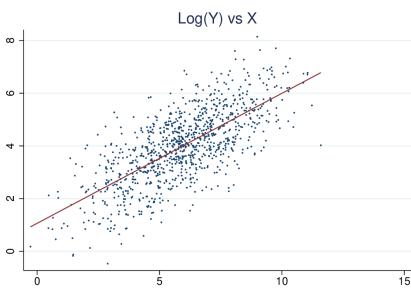
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Interpretation

- For a 1 unit change in X, $\log(\hat{Y})$ rises by 0.4933914
- Thus for a 1 unit change in X, Y rises by $e^{0.4933914} = 1.638$
- $e^{0.4933914}$ is the antilog of 0.4933914

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Predictions



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Predicted values

- Where the dependent variable is logged the prediction of the Y value is not simply the anti-log of the predicted log(Y)
- When we take the anti-log we must take account of the fact that residuals above the line expand by more than residuals below the line
- Thus a small correction

$$\hat{Y} = e^{\log(\hat{Y})} * e^{RMSE^2/2}$$

- where RMSE is the standard deviation of the regression

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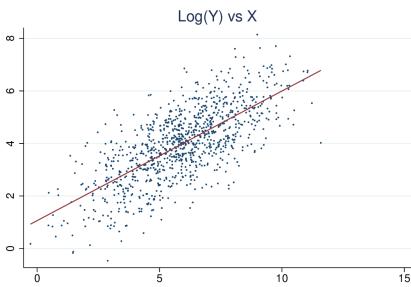
Calculations

```
gen ly = log(y)
reg ly x

predict lyhat
gen elyh = exp(lyhat)
gen elyh2 = elyh * exp(rmse^2/2)
```

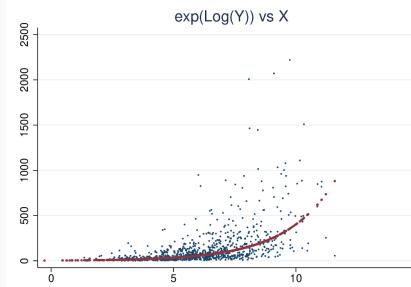
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Predictions: predict log(Y) on log scale



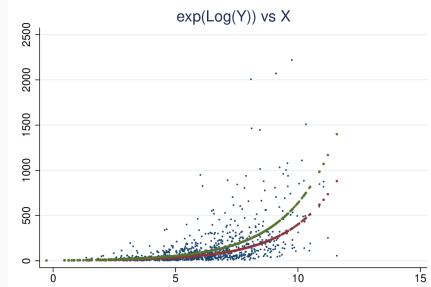
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Predictions: only $e^{\log(\hat{Y})}$



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Predictions: with correction



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Predicting COVID-19

- We can apply log regression to the COVID-19 data
- A straight line on a log scale means a constant proportional increase.
- We can estimate this increase, regressing log(cases) on date.
- The slope, b, is the amount by which log cases rises per day
- e^b is then the multiplier by which cases rises per day

reg lcases date

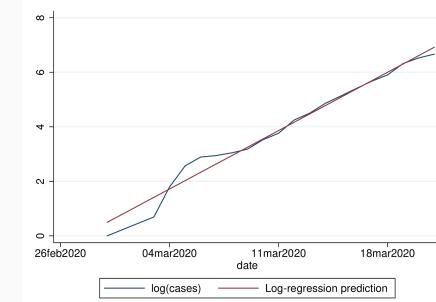
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Stata output

. reg lc date						
Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	20
Model	66.1088015	1	66.1088015	F(1, 18)	=	746.82
Residual	1.59338573	18	.088520318	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Totals	67.7021673	19	3.56327196	R-squared	=	0.9765
				Adj R-squared	=	0.9752
				Root MSE	=	.29752
lc	Coeff.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
date	.3058309	.0111911	27.33	0.000	.2823193 .3293426	
_cons	-6719.833	246.0411	-27.31	0.000	-7236.746 -6202.92	

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Logs with log regression



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Steady increase

The log of cases rises by 0.3058 per day

This means cases rises by a factor of $e^{0.3058} = 1.358$

The increase is $1.358 - 1 = 0.358$, or almost 36% per day

Implies a doubling about every 2.6 days

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But exponential increase is temporary

Exponential increase cannot go on indefinitely

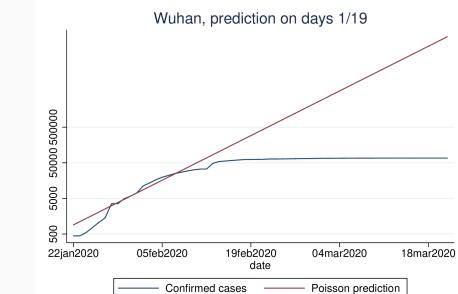
Even if nothing is done, the rate of increase will decline as fewer people are left unexposed

And interventions (isolation, tracing) will reduce the rate

See China, for example

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Wuhan, with prediction based on 1st 19 days



Summary

If there is a constant rate of increase, logs give us straight lines

Graph the log, or use a log scale on the Y-axis

Log regression allows us to estimate the rate

Exponential increase isn't forever, but modelling the exponential helps us see where the rate starts to drop

Code available here: <http://teaching.sociology.ul.ie/so5032/irecovid.do>

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