

Regression Analysis

Chapter 4: Interpretation

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Interpreting Parameter Estimates

Suppose that the estimated model is

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2.$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y}(x_1 = a) &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 a + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2, \\ \hat{y}(x_1 = a + 1) &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 (a + 1) + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2.\end{aligned}$$

We usually interpret $\hat{\beta}_j$, $j \neq 0$, as one unit increase in x_j results in an expected change of $\hat{\beta}_j$ in y , **with all the other terms in the model held fixed**.

An Example

```
summary(lm(Fuel ~ Tax + Dlic + Income + log2(Miles), data=fuel2001))

##
## Call:
## lm(formula = Fuel ~ Tax + Dlic + Income + log2(Miles), data = fuel2001)
##
## Residuals:
##      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
## -163.145  -33.039   5.895   31.989  183.499
##
## Coefficients:
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)  154.1928   194.9062   0.791  0.432938
## Tax           -4.2280     2.0301  -2.083  0.042873 *
## Dlic           0.4719     0.1285   3.672  0.000626 ***
## Income        -6.1353     2.1936  -2.797  0.007508 **
## log2(Miles)   18.5453     6.4722   2.865  0.006259 **
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
```

Interpreting Parameter Estimates

Is it always possible to have “with all the other terms in the model held fixed”?

Yes/No?

Consider the examples

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2,$$

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2 + \hat{\beta}_3 x_1^2.$$

Can we interpret β_3 as an one-unit increase in x_1 corresponds to a change of β_1 in y , holding the other terms fixed?

Berkeley Guidance Study

```
data("BGSgirls", package = "alr4") # Load data
head(BGSgirls)
```

##	WT2	HT2	WT9	HT9	LG9	ST9	WT18	HT18	LG18	ST18	BMI18	Soma
## 67	13.6	87.7	32.5	133.4	28.4	74	56.9	158.9	34.6	143	22.5	5.0
## 68	11.3	90.0	27.8	134.8	26.9	65	49.9	166.0	33.8	117	18.1	4.0
## 69	17.0	89.6	44.4	141.5	31.9	104	55.3	162.2	35.1	143	21.0	5.5
## 70	13.2	90.3	40.5	137.1	31.8	79	65.9	167.8	39.3	148	23.4	5.5
## 71	13.3	89.4	29.9	136.1	27.7	83	62.3	170.9	36.3	152	21.3	4.5
## 72	11.3	85.5	22.8	130.6	23.4	60	47.4	164.9	31.8	126	17.4	3.0

Data from the Berkeley guidance study of children born in 1928-29 in Berkeley, CA.

- ① BMI18: Body Mass Index at age 18
- ② WT2: Age 2 weight (kg)
- ③ WT9: Age 9 weight (kg)
- ④ WT18: Age 18 weight (kg)

Berkeley Guidance Study

Even models with only linear terms can cause issues. Heavier girls at age 2 tend to have a lower BMI18.

```
summary(lm(BMI18 ~ WT2 + WT9 + WT18, data = BGSgirls))

##
## Call:
## lm(formula = BMI18 ~ WT2 + WT9 + WT18, data = BGSgirls)
##
## Residuals:
##      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
## -3.1037 -0.7432 -0.1240  0.8320  4.3485
##
## Coefficients:
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)  8.30978    1.65517   5.020 4.16e-06 ***
## WT2         -0.38663    0.15145  -2.553  0.013 *
## WT9          0.03141    0.04937   0.636  0.527
## WT18         0.28745    0.02603  11.044 < 2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 1.333 on 66 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared:  0.7772, Adjusted R-squared:  0.767
## F-statistic: 76.73 on 3 and 66 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

Berkeley Guidance Study: New Model

Now we define new variables and fit a new model using the new variables as regressors.

```
## Define new variables  
BGSgirls$DW9 <- BGSgirls$WT9 - BGSgirls$WT2  
BGSgirls$DW18 <- BGSgirls$WT18 - BGSgirls$WT9  
summary(lm(BMI18 ~ WT2 + DW9 + DW18, data = BGSgirls))
```

Berkeley Guidance Study: New Model

These two models have the same R^2 , etc, but different estimated coefficients and WT2 becomes not significant,

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = BMI18 ~ WT2 + DW9 + DW18, data = BGSgirls)
##
## Residuals:
##      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
## -3.1037 -0.7432 -0.1240  0.8320  4.3485
##
## Coefficients:
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)   8.30978     1.65517   5.020 4.16e-06 ***
## WT2          -0.06778     0.12751  -0.532   0.597
## DW9           0.31886     0.03855   8.271 8.68e-12 ***
## DW18          0.28745     0.02603  11.044 < 2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 1.333 on 66 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared:  0.7772, Adjusted R-squared:  0.767
## F-statistic: 76.73 on 3 and 66 DF,  p-value: < 2.2e-16
```


Linear Combinations of Variables

Suppose that we have regressed y on \mathbf{x} and obtained the OLS estimator

$$\hat{\beta}_X = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}.$$

Say that we regress y on \mathbf{z} , where $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{x}$ for a known matrix \mathbf{C} that is invertible. The OLS estimator is

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}_Z &= (\mathbf{Z}^T \mathbf{Z})^{-1} \mathbf{Z}^T \mathbf{y} \\ &= (\mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{C})^{-1} \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} \\ &= \mathbf{C}^{-1} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}.\end{aligned}$$

Hence, the estimated coefficients are equivalent, but as long as predictors are correlated, interpretation of the effect of a predictor depends not only on the other predictors in a model but also upon which linear transformation of those variables is used.

Transformation

Besides the linear transformation, logarithms are commonly used both for the response and for regressors.

- If a linear model does not work well, we may take logarithm of the response.

If we take the log of the response variable, the model becomes

$$\text{E} [\log (Y) \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] = \mathbf{x}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

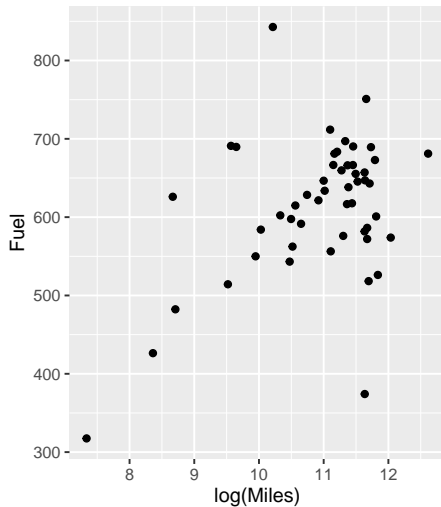
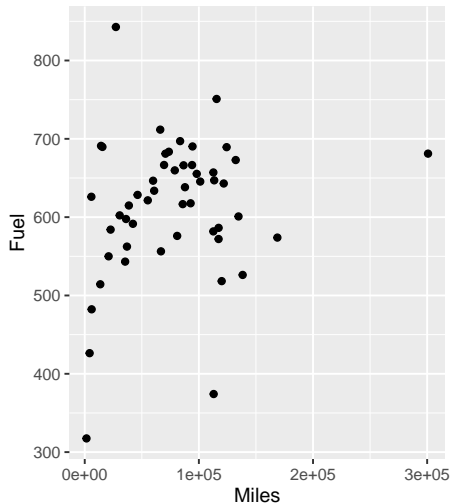
However,

$$\text{E} [\log (Y) \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] \neq \log [\text{E} (Y \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})],$$

even though the book suggests that

$$\text{E} [\log (Y) \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] \approx \log [\text{E} (Y \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})].$$

Illustration: Fuel Consumption



Example: Water Usage in Minnesota

We have a data set on yearly water consumption in Minnesota from 1988-2011. The variables are

- 1 muniUse: total municipal water consumption, statewide, in billions of gallons
- 2 year: year number
- 3 muniPrecip: average May to September precipitation (inches)
- 4 muniPop: urban population

```
data("MinnWater", package = "alr4")
```

Water Usage in Minnesota: Model 1

```
summary(lm(log(muniUse) ~ year, data = MinnWater))

##
## Call:
## lm(formula = log(muniUse) ~ year, data = MinnWater)
##
## Residuals:
##      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
## -0.117381 -0.033371  0.004126  0.044729  0.089021
##
## Coefficients:
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) -20.048043   3.745726  -5.352 2.25e-05 ***
## year         0.012432   0.001873   6.636 1.13e-06 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.06353 on 22 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared:  0.6669, Adjusted R-squared:  0.6517
## F-statistic: 44.04 on 1 and 22 DF,  p-value: 1.132e-06
```

Water Usage in Minnesota: Model 2

Adding muniPrecip does not change the estimated slope for year much.

```
summary(lm(log(muniUse) ~ year + muniPrecip, data = MinnWater))

##
## Call:
## lm(formula = log(muniUse) ~ year + muniPrecip, data = MinnWater)
##
## Residuals:
##      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
## -0.10852 -0.03747  0.01067  0.03028  0.07094
##
## Coefficients:
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) -20.158353    2.726451  -7.394 2.85e-07 ***
## year         0.012586    0.001364   9.228 7.77e-09 ***
## muniPrecip   -0.009932    0.002192  -4.531 0.000183 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.04624 on 21 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared:  0.8315, Adjusted R-squared:  0.8155
## F-statistic: 51.83 on 2 and 21 DF,  p-value: 7.557e-09
```

Water Usage in Minnesota: Model 3

However, adding also $\log(\text{muniPop})$ greatly change the results.

```
summary(lm(log(muniUse) ~ year + muniPrecip + log(muniPop), data = MinnWater))
```

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = log(muniUse) ~ year + muniPrecip + log(muniPop),
##     data = MinnWater)
##
## Residuals:
```

	Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
	-0.087690	-0.032781	0.000155	0.034694	0.080204

```
##
## Coefficients:
```

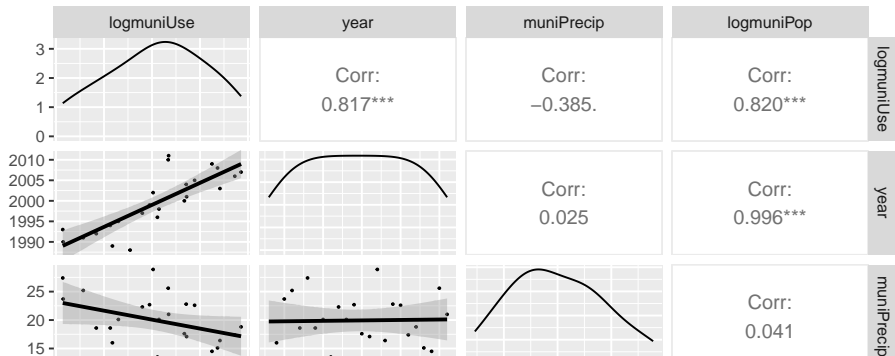
	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	-1.278394	11.508965	-0.111	0.913
year	-0.011132	0.014141	-0.787	0.440
muniPrecip	-0.010559	0.002135	-4.946	7.78e-05 ***
log(muniPop)	1.917355	1.138236	1.684	0.108

```
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.04434 on 20 degrees of freedom
```

Water Usage in Minnesota

The correlation between year and $\log(\text{muniPop})$ is large, and relation is very linear.

```
## Registered S3 method overwritten by 'GGally':
##   method from
##   +.gg      ggplot2
```



Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity exists when some regressors are highly correlated. For example,

- ① the correlation between two regressors is too large.
- ② there exists a vector of constants \mathbf{c} such that $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{c} \approx \mathbf{0}$.

When it exists,

- ① the estimated regression coefficients may change dramatically,
- ② we may not even get the estimates.

Non-Existence of OLS Estimator

For simplicity, suppose that

- ① the response has a zero sample mean, i.e., $\bar{y} = 0$,
- ② all regressors are demeaned, i.e., $\bar{x}_j = 0$ for all j ,
- ③ the intercept is not included in the model.

Then, $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} / n$ is the sample covariance matrix of the regressors and $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} / n$ is the sample covariance between \mathbf{x} and Y . If multicollinearity exists, say a column in \mathbf{X} is a linear combination of other columns, then $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$ is not of full rank and $(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$ does not exist.

Dropping Regressors

Consider the model

$$E(Y \mid X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2.$$

Now we instead consider the model

$$E(Y \mid X_1 = x_1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1.$$

We can show that

$$E(Y \mid X_1 = x_1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 E(X_2 \mid X_1 = x_1).$$

If $E(X_2 \mid X_1 = x_1) = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 x_1$, then

$$E(Y \mid X_1 = x_1) = (\beta_0 + \beta_2 \gamma_0) + (\beta_1 + \beta_2 \gamma_1) x_1.$$

We are estimating $\beta_0 + \beta_2 \gamma_0$ and $\beta_1 + \beta_2 \gamma_1$.

An Example

```
data(usair , package = "gamlss.data")
LR0 <- lm(y ~ x1 + x2, data = usair)
LR1 <- lm(y ~ x1, data = usair)
LR2 <- lm(x2 ~ x1, data = usair)
coef(LR1)

## (Intercept)          x1
## 108.571058    -1.408133

c(coef(LR0)[1] + coef(LR0)[3] * coef(LR2)[1] ,
  coef(LR0)[2] + coef(LR0)[3] * coef(LR2)[2])

## (Intercept)          x1
## 108.571058    -1.408133
```

Role of Independence

$$E(Y | X_1 = x_1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 E(X_2 | X_1 = x_1).$$

- ① If $\beta_2 = 0$, we are still estimating β_0 and β_1 .
- ② If X_1 and X_2 are independent, then $E(X_2 | x_1) = E(X_2)$ that does not depend on X_1 . Hence,

$$E(Y | X_1 = x_1) = [\beta_0 + \beta_2 E(X_2)] + \beta_1 x_1.$$

We are still estimating β_1 , but not β_0 .

Omitted Variable

Suppose that the truth is

$$Y = \mathbf{x}_1^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_2 + e,$$

where $E(\mathbf{x}_1) = \mathbf{0}$ and $E(\mathbf{x}_2) = \mathbf{0}$.

However, we assume $E(Y | \mathbf{x}_1) = \mathbf{x}_1^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_1$. The OLS estimator satisfies

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 &= (\mathbf{X}_1^T \mathbf{X}_1)^{-1} \mathbf{X}_1^T \mathbf{y} \\ &= (\mathbf{X}_1^T \mathbf{X}_1)^{-1} \mathbf{X}_1^T (\mathbf{X}_1 \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 + \mathbf{X}_2 \boldsymbol{\beta}_2 + \mathbf{e}) \\ &= \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 + (\mathbf{X}_1^T \mathbf{X}_1)^{-1} \mathbf{X}_1^T \mathbf{X}_2 \boldsymbol{\beta}_2 + (\mathbf{X}_1^T \mathbf{X}_1)^{-1} \mathbf{X}_1^T \mathbf{e}.\end{aligned}$$

Omitted Variable Bias

If $E(\mathbf{e} \mid \mathbf{X}_1) = \mathbf{0}$, then

$$E(\hat{\beta}_1 \mid \mathbf{X}_1) = \beta_1 + \left(\frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X}_1^T \mathbf{X}_1 \right)^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X}_1^T E(\mathbf{X}_2 \mid \mathbf{X}_1) \right] \beta_2.$$

Hence, the OLS estimator of β_1 is biased if

- ❶ $\beta_2 \neq 0$,
- ❷ or \mathbf{x}_1 and \mathbf{x}_2 are correlated.