Introduction to Linear Regression Labor Economics

Instructor: Haoran LEI

Hunan University

Review

- Supervised Learning:
 - Nearest neighbor, Linear regression
- Tradeoffs:
 - 1. Prediction accuracy versus interpretability.
 - 2. Good fit versus over-fit or under-fit.
 - 3. Parsimony versus black-box

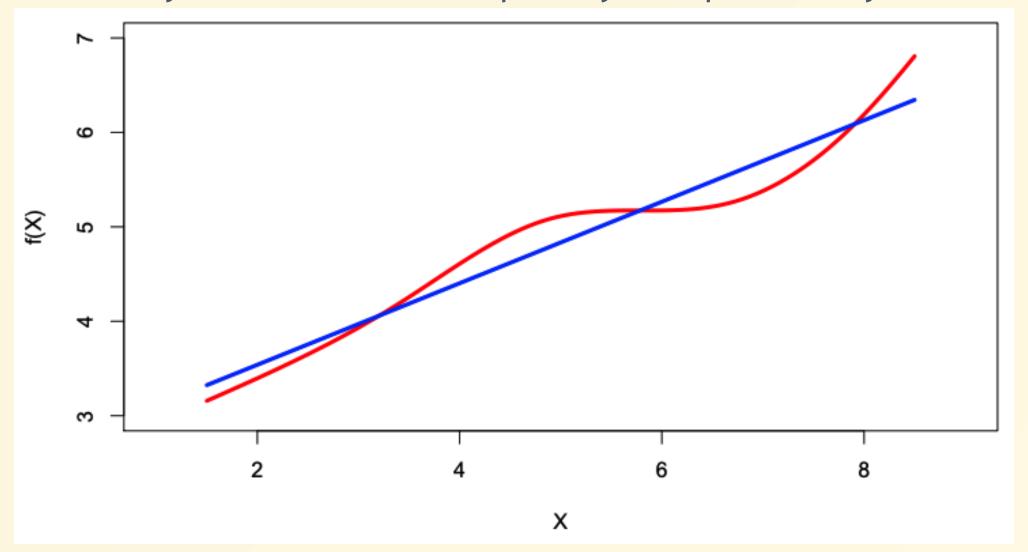
Review: Bias-variance tradeoff

- In (most) models, we can reduce the variance of the parameter estimated across samples by increasing the bias in the estimated parameters.
- Homework: Explain the three plots.

Linear regression

- Linear regression is (perhaps) the simplest approach to supervised learning.
- ullet It assumes that the dependence of Y on X_1,\ldots,X_p are linear.
- True regression functions are (almost) never linear.

Although it may seem overly simplistic, linear regression is extremely useful both conceptually and practically.



Linear regression with a single predictor \boldsymbol{X}

- Model: $Y=eta_0+eta_1X+\epsilon$
- β_0 and β_1 are two unknown constants that represent the intercept and slope.
- Given some estimates \hat{eta}_0 and \hat{eta}_1 , we make the predictions:

$$\hat{y} = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x$$

• where \hat{y} indicates a prediction of Y given X=x. The hat symbol $\hat{\ }$ denotes an **estimated value**.

Least squares

- ullet Let $\hat{y}_i=\hat{eta}_0+\hat{eta}_1x_i$ be the prediction for $Y_i.$
- The i-th residual: $e_i = y_i \hat{y}_i$.
- Define the residual sum of squares (RSS):

$$RSS = (e_1)^2 + \dots + (e_n)^2$$

= $(y_1 - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_1)^2 + \dots + (y_n - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_n)^2$

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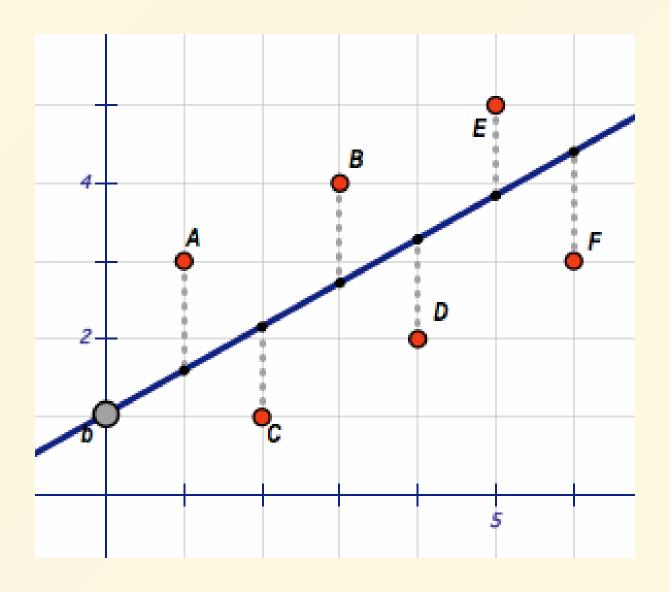
Least squares: choose $\hat{\beta}_0$, $\hat{\beta}_1$ to minimize RSS. (Or minimizing MSE_{Tr} as we've seen in previous lecture slides)

Least squares

The estimated values that minimize RSS are:

$$egin{cases} \hat{eta}_1 = rac{\sum_i (x_i - ar{x})(y_i - ar{y})}{\sum_i (x_i - ar{x})^2} \ \hat{eta}_0 = ar{y} - \hat{eta}_1 ar{x} \end{cases}$$

where $ar{x} = \sum_i x_i/n$ and $ar{y} = \sum_i y_i/n$ are the sample means.



Animation of LS regression line

Example (advertising data)

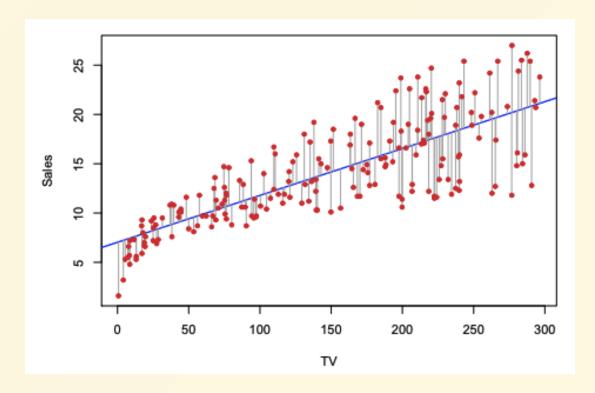


Fig: The least squares fit for the regression of sales onto TV.

• A linear fit captures the essence of the relationship, but it seems somewhat deficient in the left of the plot.

Assessing the Accuracy of the LS Estimates

• The **standard error (SE)** of an estimator reflects how it varies under repeated sampling:

$$SE(\hat{eta}_1)^2 = rac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - ar{x})^2}$$

- Standard error is not the *variance* of the LS estimator. Instead, it measures how **accurate** the LS estimator is. SE depends on:
 - 1. the variance of noise: σ^2
 - 2. how "spread" our datas are: $\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i \bar{x})^2$

Assessing the Accuracy of the LS Estimates

• The **standard error (SE)** of an estimator reflects how it varies under repeated sampling:

$$SE(\hat{eta}_1)^2 = rac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - ar{x})^2}, SE(\hat{eta}_0)^2 = \sigma^2 [rac{1}{n} + rac{ar{x}^2}{\sum_i (x_i - ar{x})^2}]$$

• Note: When σ^2 (variance of ϵ) is unknown, use

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = rac{1}{n-1} \sum_i e_i^2$$

Confidence interval

- A **95% confidence interval** is defined as a range of values such that "with 95% probability, the range will contain the true unknown value of the parameter."
- It has the form:

$$[\hat{eta}_1 - 2 \cdot \operatorname{SE}(\hat{eta}_1), \hat{eta}_1 + 2 \cdot \operatorname{SE}(\hat{eta}_1)]$$

A popular way of describing confidence intervals:

• "I am 95% confident that the interval contains the true value."

- Standard errors can also be used to perform hypothesis testing.
- The most common hypothesis test involves testing the null hypothesis H_0 vs the alternative hypothesis H_A :

 H_0 : There is no relationship between X and Y

 H_A : There is some relationship between X and Y

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$$H_0:eta_1=0,\quad H_A:eta_1
eq 0$$

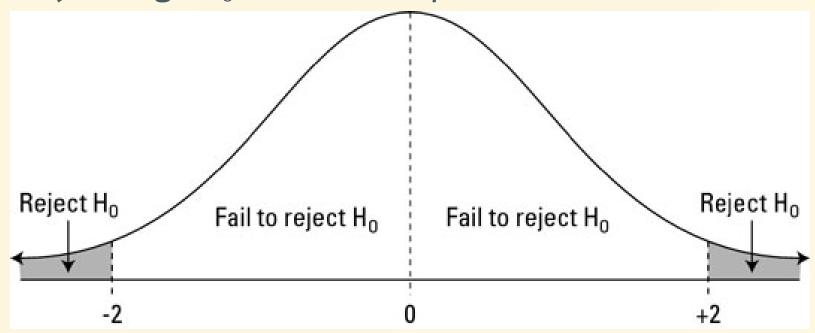
• To test the null hypothesis, we compute a *t-statistic* given by:

$$t=rac{\hat{eta}_1-0}{SE(\hat{eta}_1)}$$

• Assuming $eta_1=0$ (ie, H_0 holds), then $t=rac{\hat{eta}_1-0}{SE(\hat{eta}_1)}$ will follow the t-distribution with n-2 degrees of freedom.

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- Using statistical software, it is easy to compute the probability of observing any value equal or larger than |t|.
 - We call this probability the *p-value*.

• In practice, usually we say that the effects of X is significant (rejecting H_0) when the p-value is less than 0.05.



• You can see from the figure that *p-values* and *confidence* intervals are just two sides of the same coin.

Results for the advertising data

```
Coefficient Std. Error t-statistic p-value
Intercept 7.0325 0.4578 15.36 < 0.1%
TV 0.0475 0.0027 17.67 < 0.1%
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Assessing the Overall Accuracy of the Model

• We compute the **Residual Standard Error (RSE)**:

$$\mathsf{RSE} = \sqrt{rac{1}{n-2}} \mathsf{RSS}$$

RSE is to RSS what standard error is to variance.

Assessing the Overall Accuracy of the Model

• R-squared is the fraction of variance explained:

$$R^2 = rac{TSS - RSS}{TSS} = 1 - rac{RSS}{TSS}$$

• where TSS $=\sum_i e_i^2 = \sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2$ is the total sum of squares.

In the simple linear regression setting with one predictor, $R^2=r^2$ where r is the (linear) correlation between X and Y.

Advertising data results

Quantity	Value
Residual Standard Error	3.26
R^2	0.612

Next: Multiple Linear Regression

We have focused on the simple linear regression model with one predictor.

Now let's move on to Multiple Linear Regression; aka, linear regression with multiple predictors!