Section 1 : Regression Review

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There are two general approaches to regression

- Regression as a model: a data generating process (DGP)
- 2 Regression as an algorithm, i.e as a predictive model

This two approaches are different, and make different assumptions

Regression as a prediction

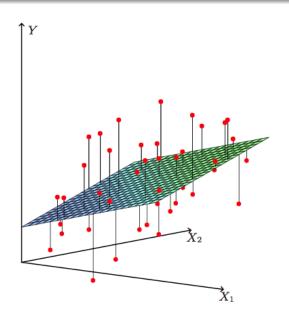
- We have an input vector $X^T = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p)$ with dimensions of $n \times p$ and an output vector Y with dimensions $n \times 1$.
- The linear regression model has the form:

$$f(X) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p X_j \beta_j$$

• We can pick the coefficients $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)^T$ in a variety of ways but OLS is by far the most common, which minimizes the **residual sum of squares** (RSS):

$$RSS(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - f(x_i))^2$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{P} x_{ij} \beta_j)^2$$

Regression as a prediction



Regression as a prediction: Deriving the Algorithm

- Denote \mathbf{X} the $N \times (p+1)$ matrix with each row an input vector (with a 1 in the first position) and \mathbf{y} is the output vector.
- Write the RSS as:

$$RSS(\beta) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}\beta)$$

• Differentiate with respect to β :

$$\frac{\partial RSS}{\partial \beta} = -2\mathbf{X}^{T}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta) \tag{1}$$

 Assume that X is full rank (no perfect collinearity among any of the independent variables) and set first derivative to 0:

$$\mathbf{X}^T(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta) = 0$$

• Solve for β :

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

Regression as a prediction: Deriving the Algorithm

- What happens if X is not full rank? There is an infinite number of ways to invert the matrix X^TX , and the algorithm does not have a unique solution. There are many values of β that satisfy the F.O.C
- ullet The matrix X is also referred as the design matrix

Regression as a prediction: Making a Prediction

• The hat matrix, or projection matrix

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T$$
 with $\mathbf{\tilde{H}} = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}$

• We use the hat matrix to find the fitted values:

$$\mathbf{\hat{Y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y}$$

We can now write

$$e = (I - H)Y$$

- If HY yields part of Y that projects into X, this means that

 HY is the part of Y that does not project into X, which is the
 residual part of Y. Therefore, HY makes the residuals
- e is the part of Y which is not a linear combination of X

Regression as a prediction: Deriving the Algorithm

- Do we make any assumption on the distribution of Y? No!
- Can the dependent variable (the response), \mathbf{Y} , be a binary variable, i.e $Y \in \{0,1\}$? Yes!
- Do we assume that homoskedasticity, i.e that $Var(Y_i) = \sigma^2$, \forall_i ? No!
- Is the residuals, e, correlated with Y? Do we need to make any additional assumption in order for corr(e, X) = 0? No! The OLS algorithm will always yield residuals which are not correlated with the covariates
- The procedure we discussed so far is an algorithm, which solves an optimization problem (minimizing a square loss function). The algorithm requires an assumption of full rank in order to yield a unique solution, however it does not require any assumption on the distribution or the type of the response variable, Y

Regression as a model: From algorithm to model

- Now we make stronger assumptions, most importantly we assume a data generating process (hence DGP), i.e we assume a functional form for the relationship between Y and X
- Is Y a linear function of the covariates? No, it is a linear function of β
- What are the classic assumptions of the regression model?

Regression as a model: The classic assumptions of the regression model

- The dependent variable is linearly related to the coefficients of the model and the model is correctly specified, $Y = X\beta + \epsilon$
- ② The independent variables, X, are fixed, i.e are not random variables (this can be relaxed to $Cov(X, \epsilon) = 0$)
- **1** The conditional mean of the error term is zero, $\mathbb{E}(\epsilon|X)=0$
- **1** Homoscedasticity. The error term has a constant variance, i.e $\mathbb{V}(\epsilon_i) = \sigma^2$
- **5** The error terms are uncorrelated with each other, $Cov(\epsilon_i, \epsilon_i) = 0$
- The design matrix, X, has full rank
- The error term is normally distributed, i.e $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ (the mean and variance follows from (3) and (4))

Discussion of the classic assumptions of the regression model

- The assumption that $\mathbb{E}(\epsilon|X)=0$ will always be satisfied when there is an intercept term in the model, i.e when the design matrix contains a constant term
- When $X \perp \epsilon$ it follows that $Cov(X, \epsilon) = 0$
- \bullet The normality assumption of ϵ_i is required for hypothesis testing on β

The assumption can be relaxed for sufficiently large sample sizes, as by the CLT, $\hat{\beta}_{OLS}$ converges to a normal distribution when $N \to \infty$. What is a sufficiently large sample size?

Properties of the OLS estimators: Unbiased estimator

The OLS estimator of β is,

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$$

$$= (X^T X)^{-1} X^T (X \beta + \epsilon)$$

$$= (X^T X)^{-1} X^T X \beta + (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \epsilon$$

$$= \beta + (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \epsilon$$

We know that $\hat{\beta}$ is unbiased if $E(\hat{\beta}) = \beta$

$$E(\hat{\beta}) = E(\beta + (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \epsilon | X)$$

$$= E(\beta | X) + E((X^T X)^{-1} X^T \epsilon | X)$$

$$= \beta + (X^T X)^{-1} E(\epsilon | X)$$
where $E(\epsilon | X) = E(\epsilon) = 0$

$$E(\hat{\beta}) = \beta$$

Properties of the OLS estimators: Unbiased estimator

• What assumptions are used for the proof that $\hat{\beta}_{OLS}$ is an unbiased estimator?

Assumption (1), the model is correct.

Assumption (2), the covariates are independent of the error term

Properties of the OLS estimators: The variance of $\hat{\beta}_{OLS}$

Recall:

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y
= (X^T X)^{-1} X^T (X\beta + \epsilon)
\Rightarrow \hat{\beta} - \beta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \epsilon$$

Plugging this into the covariance equation:

$$\begin{aligned} cov(\hat{\beta}|X) &= E[(\hat{\beta} - \beta)(\hat{\beta} - \beta)'|X] \\ &= E\big[\big((X^TX)^{-1}X^T\epsilon\big)\big((X^TX)^{-1}X^T\epsilon)'|X\big] \\ &= E\big[(X^TX)^{-1}X^T\epsilon\epsilon^TX(X^TX)^{-1}|X\big] \\ &= (X^TX)^{-1}X^TE(\epsilon\epsilon^T|X)X(X^TX)^{-1} \\ &\quad \text{where } E(\epsilon\epsilon^T|X) = \sigma^2I_{p\times p} \\ &= (X^TX)^{-1}X^T\sigma^2I_{p\times p}X(X^TX)^{-1} \\ &= \sigma^2(X^TX)^{-1}X^TX(X^TX)^{-1} \\ &= \sigma^2(X^TX)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

Estimating σ^2

We estimate σ^2 by dividing the residuals squared by the degrees of freedom because the e_i are generally smaller than the ϵ_i due to the fact that $\hat{\beta}$ was chosen to make the sum of square residuals as small as possible.

$$\hat{\sigma}_{OLS}^2 = \frac{1}{n-p} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$$

Compare the above estimator to the classic variance estimator:

$$\hat{\sigma}_{classic}^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$$

Is one estimator always preferable over the other? If not when each estimator is preferable?

measurment error

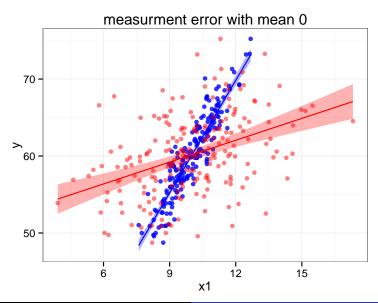
Consider the following DGP (data generating process):

```
n=200
x1 = rnorm(n,mean=10,1)
epsilon = rnorm(n,0,2)
y = 10+5*x1+epsilon

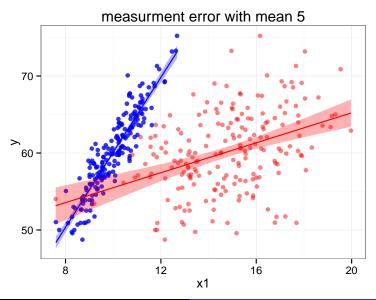
### mesurment error:
noise = rnorm(n,0,2)
x1_noise = x1+noise
```

The true model has x_1 , however we observe only x_1^{noise} . We will investigate the effect of the noise and the distribution of the noise on the OLS estimation of β_1 . The true value of the parameter of interest is, $\beta_1=5$

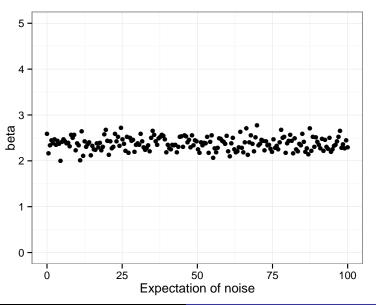
Measurement error: noise $\sim N(\mu = 0, \sigma = 2)$



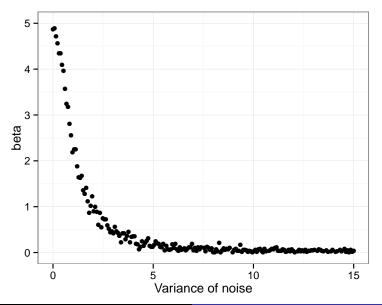
Measurement error: *noise* $\sim N(\mu = 5, \sigma = 2)$



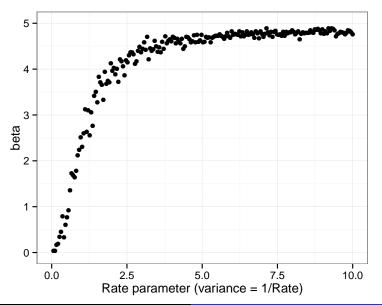
Measurement error: *noise* $\sim N(\mu =?, \sigma = 2)$



Measurement error: noise $\sim N(\mu = 5, \sigma = ?)$



Measurement error: *noise* $\sim exp(\lambda =?)$



Measurement error

- Could we reach the same conclusions as the simulations from analytical derivations? Yes
- As we saw before,

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}_{OLS}) = \frac{Cov(y, x_1^{noise})}{\mathbb{V}(x_1^{noise})} = \frac{Cov(y, x_1 + noise)}{\mathbb{V}(x_1 + noise)}$$
$$= \frac{Cov(y, x_1)}{\mathbb{V}(x_1) + \mathbb{V}(noise)}$$

Therefore as $\mathbb{V}(noise) \to \infty$, the expectation of the OLS estimator of β will converge to zero,

$$\mathbb{V}(\textit{noise}) o \infty \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(\hat{eta}_{\textit{OLS}}) = rac{\textit{Cov}(y, x_1)}{\mathbb{V}(x_1) + \mathbb{V}(\textit{noise})} o 0$$

Measurement error in the dependent variable

- Consider the situation in which y_i is not observed, but y_i^{noise} is observed. There are no measurement error in x_1 .
- The model (DGP) is,

$$y_i = 10 + 5 * x_{1i} + \epsilon_i$$

 $y_i^{noise} = y_i + noise_i$

• Will the OLS estimator of β_1 be unbiased? Yes

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}_{OLS}) = \frac{Cov(y^{noise}, x_1)}{\mathbb{V}(x_1)} = \frac{Cov(y + noise, x_1)}{\mathbb{V}(x_1)}$$
$$= \frac{Cov(y, x_1)}{\mathbb{V}(x_1)} = \beta_1$$

• This model is equivalent to the model, $y_i = 10 + 5 * x_{1i} + (\epsilon_i + noise_i)$, where y_i is observed.

Measurment error in the dependent variable

 Will the OLS estimator be unbiased if the measurement error was multiplicative instead of additive? Formally, if the DGP was:

$$y_i = 10 + 5 * x_{1i} + \epsilon_i$$

 $y_i^{noise} = y_i \cdot noise_i$

Analytic derivations:

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}_{OLS}) = \frac{Cov(y^{noise}, x_1)}{\mathbb{V}(x_1)} = \frac{Cov(y \cdot noise, x_1)}{\mathbb{V}(x_1)}$$

$$Cov(y \cdot noise, x_1) = \mathbb{E}(y \cdot noise \cdot x_1) - \mathbb{E}(y \cdot noise) \cdot \mathbb{E}(x_1)$$

$$= \frac{\mathbb{E}(noise) \cdot Cov(y, x_1)}{\mathbb{V}(x_1)} = \mathbb{E}(noise) \cdot \beta_1$$

Measurment error in the dependent variable

When there is multiplicative noise the bias of $\hat{\beta}$ is influenced by $\mathbb{E}(\text{noise})$, not from $\mathbb{V}(\text{noise})$

Gauss-Markov theorem: BLUE

- The regression estimator is a linear estimator, $\hat{\beta} = Cy$, where $C = (X^TX)^{-1}X^T$. A linear estimator is any $\hat{\beta}_j$ such that $\hat{\beta}_j = c_1y_1 + c_2y_2 + \cdots + c_py_p$
- The Gauss-Markov theorem: If assumptions: (2),(3),(4),(5) hold. The regression estimator is the best linear unbiased estimator (BLUE), in terms of MSE (Mean Squared Error)

Frisch-Waugh-Lovell: Regression Anatomy

• In the simple bivariate case:

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\operatorname{Cov}(Y_i, X_i)}{\operatorname{Var}(X_i)}$$

• In the multivariate case, β_j is:

$$\beta_j = \frac{\operatorname{Cov}(Y_i, \tilde{X}_{ij})}{\operatorname{Var}(\tilde{X}_{ij})}$$

where \tilde{X}_{ij} is the residual from the regression of X_{ij} on all other covariates.

- The multiple regression coefficient $\hat{\beta}_j$ represents the additional contribution of x_j on y, after x_j has been adjusted for $1, x_1, \ldots, x_{j-1}, x_{j+1}, \ldots, x_p$
- What happens when x_j is highly correlated with some of the other x_k 's?

Frisch-Waugh-Lovell: Regression Anatomy

- Claim: $\beta_j = \frac{\operatorname{Cov}(\tilde{Y}_i, \tilde{X}_{ij})}{\operatorname{Var}(\tilde{X}_{ij})}$, i.e $Cov(Y_i, \tilde{X}_{ij}) = Cov(\tilde{Y}_i, \tilde{X}_{ij})$
- Proof: Let \tilde{Y}_i be the residuals of a regression of all the covariates except X_{ji} on Y_i , i.e

$$X_{ji} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_P X_{Pi} + f_i$$

$$Y_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X_{1i} + \alpha_2 X_2 + \dots + \alpha_P X_{Pi} + e_i$$
Then, $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_i = \tilde{Y}_i$, and $\hat{f}_i = \tilde{X}_{ji}$

• It follows from the OLS algorithm that $Cov(x_{ki}, \tilde{X}_{ji}) = 0$, $\forall_{k \neq j}$. As the residuals of a regression are not correlated with any of the covariates

$$Cov(\tilde{Y}_{i}, \tilde{X}_{ij}) = Cov(Y_{i} - \hat{\alpha}_{0} - \hat{\alpha}_{1}X_{1i} - \hat{\alpha}_{2}X_{2} - \dots + \hat{\alpha}_{P}X_{Pi}, \tilde{X}_{ij})$$

$$= Cov(Y_{i}, \tilde{X}_{ij})$$

Asymptotics of OLS

- Is the OLS estimator of β consistent? Yes
- Proof:
- Denote the observed characteristics of observation i by x_i . What is the dimensions of x_i ? $1 \times p$

•
$$x_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ip})$$
 and $x_i^T = \begin{pmatrix} x_{i1} \\ x_{i2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{ip} \end{pmatrix}$

$$\bullet \ x_i^T x_i = \begin{pmatrix} x_{i1}^2 & x_{i1} x_{i2} & \dots & x_{i1} x_{ip} \\ x_{i2} x_{i1} & x_{i2}^2 & \dots & x_{i2} x_{ip} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_{ip} x_{i1} & x_{ip} x_{i2} & \dots & x_{ip}^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Asymptotics of OLS

Verify at home that,

$$X^{T}X = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1}^{2} & \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1}x_{i2} & \dots & \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1}x_{ip} \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i2}x_{i1} & \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i2}^{2} & \dots & \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i2}x_{ip} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ip}x_{i1} & \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ip}x_{i2} & \dots & \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ip}^{2} \end{pmatrix}_{(p \times p)}$$

- Hence, $X^TX = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^T x_i$
- Note (and verify at home),

$$X^{T}y = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i1}y_{i} \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i2}y_{i} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ip}y_{i} \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{T}y_{i}$$

Asymptotics of OLS

- The OLS estimator is, $\beta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$
- Recall $(X \cdot k)^{-1} = k^{-1} \cdot (X)^{-1}$
- Multiplying and dividing by $\frac{1}{n}$ yields,

$$\beta = \left(\frac{1}{n}X^TX\right)^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{n}X^Ty\right) = \left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^Tx_i\right)^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^Ty_i\right)$$

$$\to \mathbb{E}\left(x_i^T x_i\right)^{-1} \cdot \mathbb{E}\left(x_i^T y_i\right) = \mathbb{E}\left(x_i^T x_i\right)^{-1} \cdot \mathbb{E}\left(x_i^T \left(x_i \beta + \epsilon_i\right)\right)$$

The converges follows from the central limit theorem (CLT).

$$= \mathbb{E}\left(x_i^T x_i\right)^{-1} \cdot \mathbb{E}\left(x_i^T x_i\right) \beta + \mathbb{E}\left(x_i^T x_i\right)^{-1} \cdot \mathbb{E}\left(x_i^T \epsilon_i\right) = \beta$$

Regression in Causal Analysis

• Imagine we are analyzing a *randomized* experiment with a regression using the following model:

$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 \cdot T_i + \mathbf{X}_i^T \cdot \beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$

where T_i is an indicator variable for treatment status and \mathbf{X}_i is a vector of *pre-treatment characteristics*

- Under this model, what is random?
- How do we interpret the coefficient β_1 ?