Intro to Linear Models and OLS

UIUC Department of Political Science Math Camp 2021

Miles D. Williams

milesdw2@illinois.edu

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- 3. How do we make inferences with them?
- 4. How do we extend them?
- 5. How do we know our models are good?

It's time for some *real talk*...

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 - **Estimators** are a rule for solving the parameters of a model.
- ▶ Be careful when using terms like "dependent" and "independent" variable.
 - ▶ Sometimes it's better to say *response* or *outcome*
 - Or predictor or explanatory variable

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It's a statistical model of the relationship between a set of explanatory variables and an outcome.

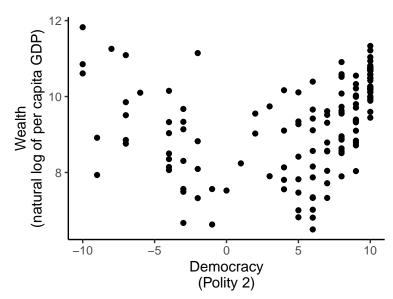
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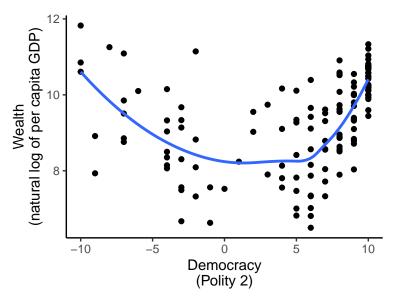
- It's a statistical model of the relationship between a set of explanatory variables and an outcome.
- ▶ It models this relationship as an *additive linear equation*.

QUESTION: What is the relationship between democracy and wealth?

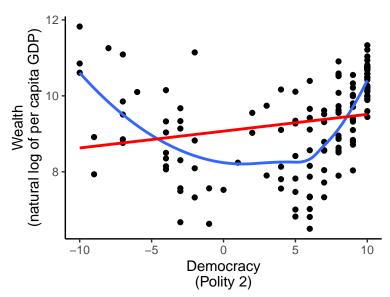
We have some data on democracy and wealth:



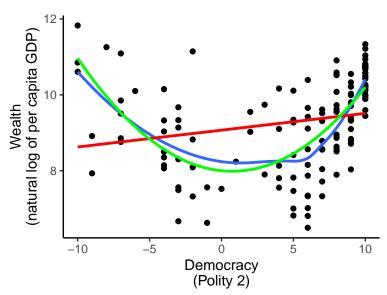
Do we model it like this?



Or like this?



Or like this?!?!



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democracy_i + ϵ_i

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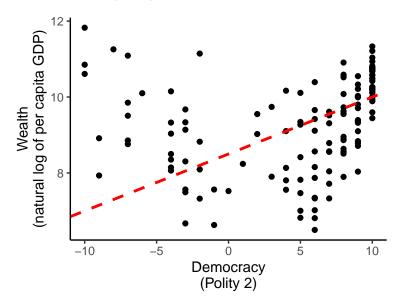
- ▶ We can model the relationship as a linear equation.
- β_0 is average wealth when polity 2 is zero.
- \triangleright β_1 is the rate of change in wealth as polity 2 increase.
- $ightharpoonup \epsilon_i$ is unexplained variation in wealth.

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- We observe wealth and democracy...
- ▶ ... but not β_0 , β_1 , and ϵ_i .
- ▶ We need a way to select values of each.

My best guess (MBG): $\beta_0 = 8.5$ and $\beta_1 = 0.15$



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- But you may have chosen differently.
- This solution is really subjective.

Enter ordinary least squares

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- ▶ OLS is a *rule* or *criterion* for selecting values of the unknown parameters.
- ▶ What is this rule?

OLS finds the β s that minimize the **sum of the squared residuals** (SSR):

$$\mathsf{SSR} = \sum_{i} \hat{\epsilon}_{i}^{2}$$

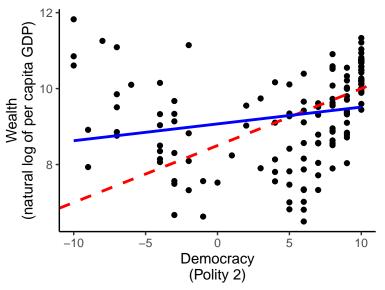
The residuals are just the observed difference between our **prediction** for the response and the **observed** value of the response.

$$\hat{\epsilon}_i = \text{wealth}_i - \widehat{\text{wealth}}_i$$

$$\widehat{\text{wealth}}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \text{democracy}_i$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \text{the selected value for the intercept.}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \text{the selected value for the slope.}$$



 $\hat{eta}_0 = 9.07 \; ext{and} \; \hat{eta}_1 = 0.044$

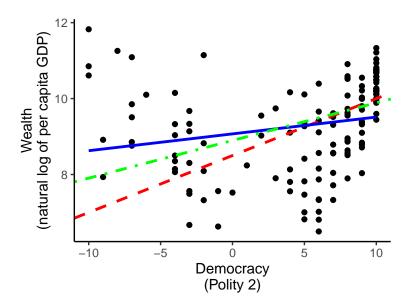




One alternative is *least absolute deviations* (LAD).

LAD finds the β s that minimize the *sum of the absolute values* of the residuals (SAVR).

$$\mathsf{SAVR} = \sum_{i} |\hat{\epsilon}_{i}|$$



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- ▶ We can't find its solution with an equation. . .

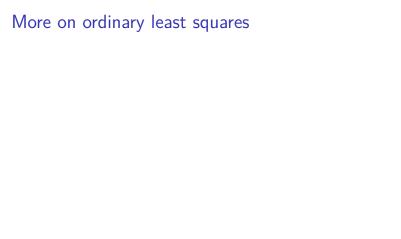
- We don't often use LAD
- It's robust to outliers
- But it doesn't always have a unique solution
- ▶ We can't find its solution with an equation...
- ... which we can do with OLS.

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- 1. What are linear models?
- ▶ Answer: They are *statistical models* of the relationship between a set of explanatory variables and an outcome. They model this relationship as a *linear additive equation*.
- 2. How do we estimate them?
- ➤ **Answer**: We use *estimators*, which are rules or criteria for selecting the values of unknown model parameters. Most often, we use an estimator called *ordinary least squares* (OLS).



wealth_i =
$$\beta_0 + \beta_1$$
democracy_i + ϵ_i

$$\overbrace{\text{wealth}_i}^{\textit{Outcome}} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{democracy}_i + \epsilon_i$$

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OLS finds the values of $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ that minimize $\sum_i \hat{\epsilon}_i^2$.

Calculus to the rescue!!!

$$\begin{split} \hat{\beta}_1 &= \frac{cov(\mathsf{democracy}_i, \ \mathsf{wealth}_i)}{var(\mathsf{democracy}_i)} \\ &= \frac{\sum_i (\mathsf{democracy}_i - \mathit{mean}[\mathsf{democracy}_i])(\mathsf{wealth}_i - \mathit{mean}[\mathsf{wealth}_i])}{\sum_i (\mathsf{democracy}_i - \mathit{mean}[\mathsf{democracy}_i])^2} \end{split}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = mean[wealth_i] - \hat{\beta}_1 mean[democracy_i].$$

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- mean[wealth_i| democracy_i].
- ▶ More generally, we express this as $E(y_i|x_{ik})$.
- ▶ That is, the *expected value* some response given the values of a set of predictors.

wealth_i =
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$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathsf{wealth_1} \\ \vdots \\ \mathsf{wealth_n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathsf{democracy_1} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \mathsf{democracy_n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathsf{y} = \mathsf{X}eta + \epsilon$$

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$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{1n} & \cdots & x_{nk} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_k \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

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What do we need to ensure OLS estimates are consistent?

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- 1. The data-generating process underlying the observed data is additive and linear.
- If an additive linear equation is not the best way to characterize our data, our model is *misspecified*, and OLS estimates will not be reliable.
- 2. The explanatory variables are exogenous.
- If if there is some unobserved confounding variable that influences both the response and the predictors, OLS estimates may be biased.

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- But, we can compare models to assess which is a better fit for the data.
- And, we can rely on theory to make reasonable judgments about whether *endogeneity* (the opposite of exogeneity) is a problem.

So, now we have a linear model of wealth, and we know how to estimate it with OLS...

... we're done right?

WRONG!!!!!

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- As scientists we're interested in testing hypotheses.
- So, we're usually interested, not only in estimating linear models.
- We're also interested in making inferences about the estimated parameters of these models.

Does democracy predict greater wealth?

How do we know?

Enter standard errors!

While we use $\hat{\beta}$ s to make predictions, we rely on $var(\hat{\beta})$ s to know how **precisely** our $\hat{\beta}$ s have been estimated.

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- ▶ Confidence intervals: $\hat{\beta} \pm 1.96 \times se(\hat{\beta})$
- p-values: $p = \Pr(|t| \ge t^*)$

So how do we calculate standard errors?



The equation for classical OLS standard errors is pretty simple.

$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{vmatrix} var(\hat{\beta}_0) & \cdots & cov(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_k) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ cov(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_k) & \cdots & var(\hat{\beta}_k) \end{vmatrix} = \hat{\sigma}^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \frac{\hat{\epsilon}'\hat{\epsilon}}{n-k}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

$$\left[se(\hat{eta}_0) \quad \cdots \quad se(\hat{eta}_k) \right] = \sqrt{\mathsf{diag}[\mathbf{V}]}$$

$$var(\hat{\beta}_0) = \frac{\sum_i \hat{\epsilon}_i}{n-k} \times \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{mean(\text{democracy}_i)}{n \times var(\text{democracy}_i)} \right]$$

$$var(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sum_i \hat{\epsilon}_i}{n-k} \times \left[\frac{1}{n \times var(\text{democracy}_i)} \right]$$

Simple enough, *right*?

But we have a problem...



This solution for standard errors makes some \boldsymbol{strong} assumptions. Namely. . .

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- We can calculate *robust* standard errors to avoid the identically distributed assumption.
- And we can *cluster* our standard errors if we think some observations are depedent.

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- To deal with heteroskedasticity, we calculate a heteroskedasticity consistent (HC) variance-variance covariance matrix.

The solution for the HC0 variance-covariance matrix (the White estimator) is:

$$\Sigma = I \cdot \hat{\epsilon} \hat{\epsilon}'$$
 $HC_0 = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\Sigma\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$

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- ▶ Which is great!
- ► The reason is that it allows for individual-level variation in the residuals when computing parameter variances.

BUT

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- ► For this reason, in practice we use a degrees of freedom multiplier to get us *HC1 errors*.

This solution is just:

$$\mathsf{HC}_1 = \frac{n}{n-k} \times \mathsf{HC}_0$$

What about clustering?

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- The key difference is that the X'ΣX part of the equation is set up by groups or clusters in the data, rather than by individual observations.
- ▶ Like with HC0 errors, we need to use a degrees of freedom multiplier to account for finite sample bias.
- We often need to account for clustering if observations occur within groups (like a classroom) or have repeated measures over time (like a panel time-series).

Let's get back to polity and wealth....

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- ► For our model of wealth, we'll use HC1 errors.

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- ▶ And for the estimated coefficient on democracy, $se(\hat{\beta}_1) = 0.02$

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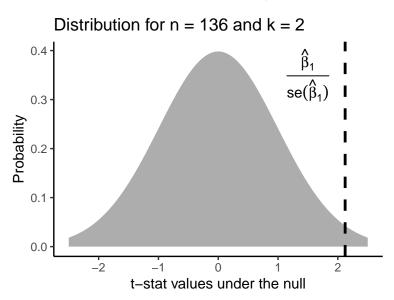
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- Note that this means that the greater our precision in estimating $\hat{\beta}$, the larger our *t*-value will be.

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- ▶ We judge our *t* relative to the null to compute a *p*-value.
- This p-value tells us how surprised we should be to observe the t we calculated if the true linear relationship between a predictor and and outcome is zero.

Here's what this distribution looks like for $\hat{\beta}_1$...



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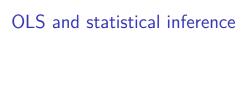
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- ▶ The most common α -level we select is $\alpha = 0.05$.
- ▶ For democracy, our p-value is p = 0.036.
- ▶ That's less than our α -level, so we can reject the null hypothesis that the slope for democracy is zero.



We usually summarize all of this analysis with a $\it regression\ table$.

Table 1: OLS Estimates with Robust S.E.s

	Model of Wealth
Constant	9.07 (0.16)***
Democracy (Polity 2)	0.04 (0.02)*
Num. obs.	136
RMSE	1.19

^{***}p < 0.001; **p < 0.01; *p < 0.05

▶ We've covered a lot of ground.

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- ► Don't worry

- We've covered a lot of ground.
- ▶ Don't worry
- ► You'll have plenty of time get all of this straight



But, before we wrap up I want to walk through a few more things.

► The first is that linear models can accommodate *nonlinear* relationships.

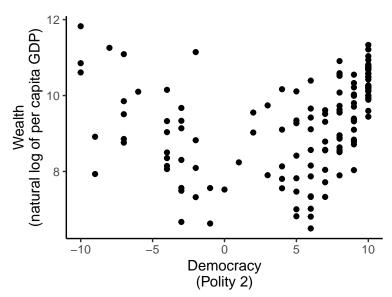
- ► The first is that linear models can accommodate *nonlinear relationships*.
- ► Take our model of wealth.

$$\mathsf{wealth}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathsf{democracy}_i + \epsilon_i$$

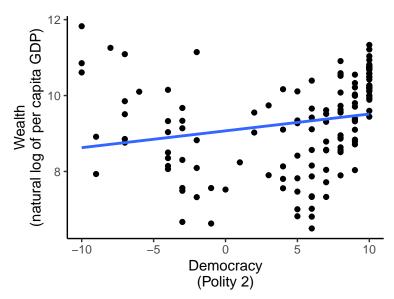
$$\text{wealth}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{democracy}_i + \beta_2 \text{democracy}_i^2 + \epsilon_i$$

$$\mathsf{wealth}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathsf{democracy}_i + \beta_2 \underbrace{\mathsf{democracy}_i^2}_{\mathit{Quadratic Term}} + \epsilon_i$$

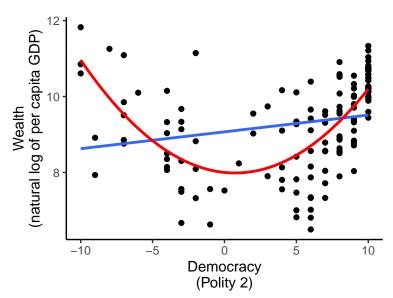
Take our data on democracy and wealth:



We can model this relationship as a linear function....



Or, we can model it as a quadratic function!



Another extension of the basic linear model is a multiple regression model.

- Another extension of the basic linear model is a multiple regression model.
- ► These are models with multiple predictor variables on the right-hand side of the equation.

wealth_i =
$$\beta_0 + \beta_1$$
democracy_i + β_2 human capital_i + ϵ_i .

Our OLS estimate for β_1 will now reflect the **residual linear relationship** between democracy and wealth, **after** subtracting out variation in each explained as a linear function of **human capital**.

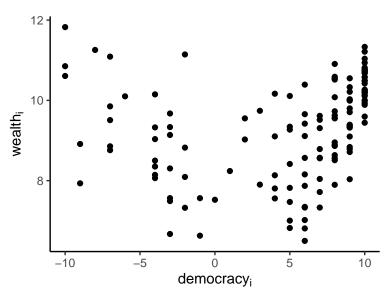
• wealth_i =
$$\eta_0 + \eta_1$$
human capital_i + v_i

- wealth_i = $\eta_0 + \eta_1$ human capital_i + v_i
- democracy_i = $\gamma_0 + \gamma_1$ human capital_i + ε_i

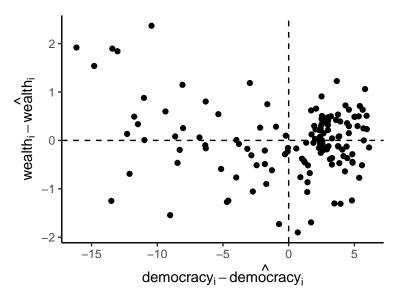
- wealth_i = $\eta_0 + \eta_1$ human capital_i + υ_i
- democracy_i = $\gamma_0 + \gamma_1$ human capital_i + ε_i
- $\hat{v}_i = \text{wealth}_i \hat{\text{wealth}}_i$ and $\hat{\varepsilon}_i = \text{democracy}_i \hat{\text{democracy}}_i$

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- $\hat{v}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \hat{\varepsilon}_i + \epsilon_i$

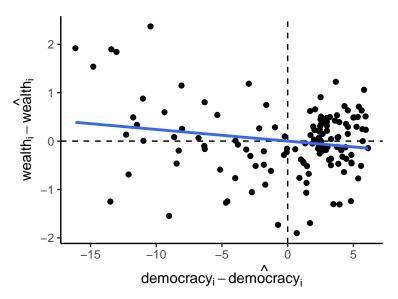
Here's our *raw* data:



Here's what the *residualized* data looks like:



And this is now our estimated slope for democracy:



$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathsf{wealth_1} \\ \vdots \\ \mathsf{wealth_n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathsf{democracy_1} & \mathsf{human} \; \mathsf{capital_1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & \mathsf{democracy_n} & \mathsf{human} \; \mathsf{capital_n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix},$$

Multiple regression models

$$\mathsf{y} = \mathsf{X}eta + \epsilon$$

Multiple regression models

$$egin{bmatrix} \hat{eta}_0 \ \hat{eta}_1 \ \hat{eta}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{oldsymbol{eta}} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$$

Multiple regression models

Table 2: OLS Estimates with Robust S.E.s

Model of Wealth
5.50 (0.21)***
-0.02(0.02)
1.47 (0.09)***
136
0.70

^{***}p < 0.001; **p < 0.01; *p < 0.05

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- Goodness of Fit (GOF)

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- These are metrics that tell us how good a fit a model is for the data.
- Does the estimated model explain more variation in the response than we would expect it to by mere random chance?
- $Is y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i \dots$
- better than $y_i = \beta_0 + \epsilon_i$?

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- ► $SST = \sum_{i} (y_i \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i} (y_i \hat{\beta}_0)$
- ► The proportion variance explained in the response

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- $F = \frac{SST SSR}{k-1} / \frac{SSR}{n-k}$
- ► This tells us how different our *full model* is from our *reduced model*.
- It is proportional to the difference in the error between the two models.
- The larger this value, the better the full model does at reducing the unexplained variation in the response than the reduced model.

For our model of wealth:

$$\mathsf{wealth}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathsf{democracy}_i + \beta_2 \mathsf{human\ rights}_i + \epsilon_i$$

Our F-statistic lets us run an F-test:

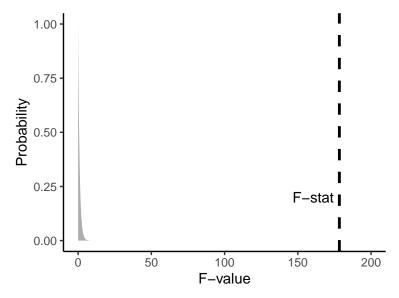
$$H_0: \beta_1+\beta_2=0,$$

$$\mathsf{H}_{A}:\beta_{1}+\beta_{2}\neq0.$$

► *F*-values, like *t*-values, have a known distribution under the *null hypothesis*.

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- ▶ This means we can compute a *p*-value for the *F*-test.
- As with the *t*-test, we use an α -level of $\alpha = 0.05$ as our threshold for rejecting the null hypothesis.



So our model does pretty well.

BUT, is it the best?



We can use GOF to pick the best model!

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- Note that I said "best" model.
- ▶ I did NOT say the "right" model.
- There is no way to prove that a model has been specified correctly.
- We can only judge whether it is a better fit for the data compared to an alternative.

- (1) wealth_i = $\beta_0 + \beta_1$ democracy_i + ϵ_i ,
- (2) wealth_i = $\beta_0 + \beta_1$ democracy_i + β_2 human capital_i + ϵ_i ,
- (3) wealth_i = $\beta_0 + \beta_1$ democracy_i + β_2 democracy_i² + ϵ_i ,
- (4) wealth_i = $\beta_0 + \beta_1$ democracy_i + β_2 democracy_i² + β_3 human capital_i + ϵ_i .

▶ Which of these is the best model of wealth?

- ▶ Which of these is the best model of wealth?
- ▶ We can use our GOF metrics to provide an informed answer to this question.

Table 3: OLS Estimates for Different Models of Wealth

	Madal 1	Madal 2	Madal 2	Madal 1
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Contant	9.07***	5.50***	8.00***	5.61***
	(0.16)	(0.21)	(0.18)	(0.19)
Democracy (Polity 2)	0.04*	-0.02	-0.04	-0.05**
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)
Democracy ²			0.03***	0.01***
			(0.00)	(0.00)
Human Capital (HCI)		1.47***		1.20***
		(0.09)		(80.0)
Adj. R ²	0.04	0.67	0.41	0.74
Num. obs.	136	136	136	136
F statistic	4.50	178.37	48.15	154.24

^{***} p < 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05

Table 4: Adjusted- R^2 for Different Models of Wealth

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Adj. R ²	0.04	0.67	0.41	0.74
Num. obs.	136	136	136	136

Table 5: Difference in Sum of Sq.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Model 1	•	124.83*	74.79*	140.05*
Model 2	•	•	-50.04	15.22*
Model 3			•	65.26*
Model 4	•	•	•	٠

One the basis of these GOF metrics, it looks like the **best** fitting model of wealth models it as a quadratic function of polity and a linear function of human capital.

So, in summary...

▶ We've answered a number of questions:

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- 1. What are linear models?

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- 1. What are linear models?
- ▶ They are **statistical models** of the relationship between a set of **explanatory variables** an an **outcome variable**.

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- Specifically, we most often use a method called ordinary least squares (OLS).

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- 3. How do we make inferences with them?
- ▶ We can perform statistical inference with OLS estimates by calculating the variance of our model parameters.
- ► These capture the *precision* with which OLS has selected parameter values.
- ▶ With these we calculate standard errors, *t*-values, and *p*-values.
- ▶ We can also compute confidence intervals...but we'll save these for another time.

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- Linear models can accommodate more complex relationships in data than linear relationships.
- As long as the relationship can be expressed in additive terms with respect to model parameters, we can specify the model as a linear regression and estimate it with OLS.

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- ➤ To judge the goodness of our models, we use goodness of fit metrics.
- These cannot prove whether our models are correct.
- But they can help us make an informed decision about whether a model is better than some alternative(s).
- ► We typically use the adjusted-R² and the F-value of a regression model to make this judgment.

Now for some exercises!