

Regression

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08/27/2021

Summation

$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$, where n is a positive integer.

- ▶ X is a random variable, i.e. flip of a coin
- ▶ x_i is a realized outcome

- ▶ Say, flip a coin; *head* = \$1 and *tail* = -1.
 - ▶ $n = 5$
 - ▶ $x_1 = h, x_2 = t, x_3 = h, x_4 = t, x_5 = h$

Then, $\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i = 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + 1 = 1$

Some laws about summation

- ▶ $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \neq (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^2$
- ▶ given that a and b are constants
- ▶ $\sum_{i=1}^n (ax_i + bx_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n ax_i + \sum_{i=1}^n bx_i$
- ▶ $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i} \neq \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i}{y_i}$
- ▶ $\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}$; (sample) average
- ▶ $\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2$

Average height of 10 people

```
set.seed = 1  
height = rnorm(10, 5.7, 0.5)  
print(round(height, 2))
```

```
## [1] 5.68 5.73 6.44 5.69 6.01 6.04 5.54 6.32 6.28 5.99
```

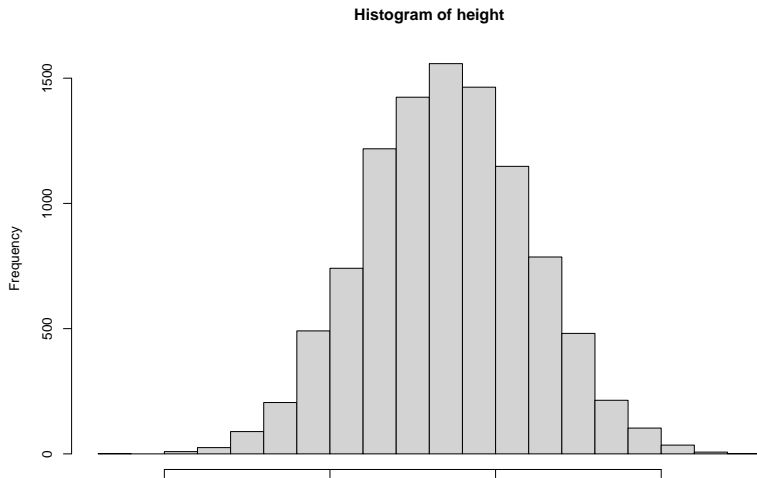
- ▶ check the average height of the sample
- ▶ is it close to 5.7?
- ▶ Why is it not exactly 5.7?

```
mean(height)
```

```
## [1] 5.97194
```

Large n

```
set.seed = 1  
height = rnorm(10000, 5.7, 0.5)  
hist(height)
```



Large n

```
mean(height) #for a large n
```

```
## [1] 5.703207
```

Expected value

$$E(X) = p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 + p_3x_3 \dots + p_nx_n$$

where, p_i is probability associated with outcome x_i .

- ▶ say, get \$1 if head and -\$1 if tail. What is the expected payoff?

Population vs Sample

- ▶ Population: entire group
 - ▶ population of this university student body: **all students**
 - ▶ you'd fall in it
- ▶ Sample: a subset of the population
 - ▶ you could either be or not be in the sample
- ▶ expectation, $E()$ is a population concept

Additional properties of the expectation operator

Consider two random variables W and H

- ▶ $E(aW + b) = aE(W) + b$
- ▶ $E(W + H) = E(W) + E(H)$; linear operator
- ▶ $E(W - E(W)) = E(W) - E(E(W)) = 0$

- ▶ $\text{Variance}(W) = \sigma^2 = E(W - E(W))^2$: population concept
- ▶ $E[(W^2) - (E(W))^2]$: population concept

- ▶ $\hat{S}^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$; sample variance
- ▶ $\hat{S} = \frac{1}{n-1} [\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2]^{1/2}$; sample standard deviation

How two variables move ..

Very often we are concerned with how variables are related to one another

- ▶ Temperature and crime.
- ▶ GPA and earnings.
- ▶ Mobility and COVID19 cases.

Covariance and correlation describes how variables are *linearly* related to one another.

Covariance

Consider random variables X and Y

- ▶ $Cov(X, Y)$
 - ▶ $= E[(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))]$
 - ▶ $= E(X)E(Y) - E(XY)$
- ▶ 0 covariance does not necessarily mean that X and Y are independent
- ▶ But if X and Y are independent, $Cov(X, Y) = 0$.
 - ▶ if X and Y are independent, $E(X)E(Y) = E(XY)$
- ▶ $\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \bar{x}_i)(y_i - \bar{y}_i)}{(n-1)}$; sample covariance
 - ▶ $(n - 1)$ is used in the denominator for unbiasedness of the estimator when $E()$ is unknown.

Correlation

- ▶ magnitude of covariance difficult to interpret
- ▶ instead use correlation
- ▶ consider: $W = \frac{X - E(X)}{V(X)}$ and $Z = \frac{Z - E(Z)}{V(Z)}$, normalized to $mean = 0$ and $sd = 1$
- ▶ $Corr(W, Z) = Corr(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sqrt{(Var(X)Var(y))}}$
 - ▶ note that $Cov(a)$, if a is a constant, is zero
 - ▶ $E(a) = a$, so $E(a - E(a)) = 0$
- ▶ correlation coefficient bounded between -1 and 1
- ▶ **Note: Just because two variables lead to a covariance of zero it does not mean that the two variables are independent. These variables can still be related non-linearly. So in this regard, correlation is really a linear concept. This may not be suitable for non-linear analysis.**

Covariance

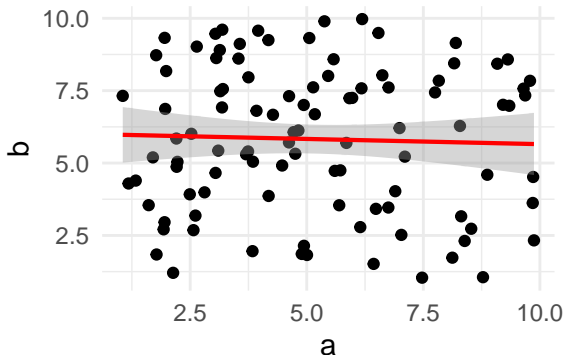
Lets look at some simulations

```
#uniform distribution  
set.seed(14825) # allows replicability  
a <- runif(100, min = 1, max = 10)  
b <- runif(100, min = 1, max = 10)  
unrelated <- data.frame(a,b)
```

Covariance

```
library(ggplot2)  
ggplot(unrelated, aes(x= a, y=b)) + geom_point() + theme_m...
```

```
## 'geom_smooth()' using formula 'y ~ x'
```



Covariance

```
cov(a, b)
```

```
## [1] -0.226395
```

```
cor(a,b)
```

```
## [1] -0.03612904
```

► *correlation pretty close to zero!*

Regression

Let's start with a population model

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + u_i$$

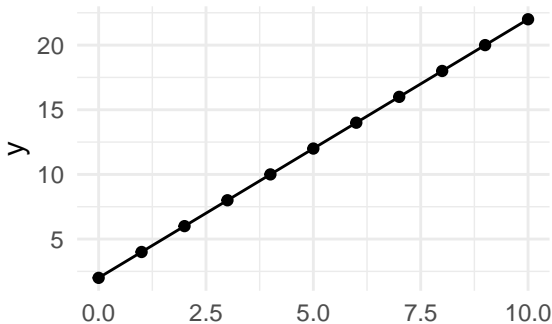
where,

- ▶ subscript i is the unit (person, state)
- ▶ y is the dependent variable, x is independent variable
- ▶ β_0 is the y-intercept
- ▶ β_1 is the coefficient (of interest)
- ▶ u is the error term; random element

Let's compare with

$$y = mx + c$$

```
x <- seq(0,10)
c <- 2
m <- 2
y <- m*x + c
eqline <- data.frame(x, y)
ggplot(eqline, aes(x = x, y = y)) + geom_point() + geom_line()
```



Let's compare with

- ▶ No random element – given a value of x , if you know m and c you can perfectly figure out the value of y

Regression

- ▶ In the regression specification u introduces randomness
- ▶ This means that there are other factors than x which influences y

Note that: $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + u_i$

defines a population concept. We now want to empirically estimate β_0 and β_1

- ▶ By construction, all other factors that determine y except x are thrown into u
 - ▶ think of u as a trash can

Assumptions for estimation

► We need some assumptions:

1) $E(u) = 0$; having β_0 (intercept) in the specification allows this

2) $E(u|x) = E(u)$ (Mean Independence)

► implies that $E(ux) = 0$

► think of $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$

What does 2) imply?

Mean independence

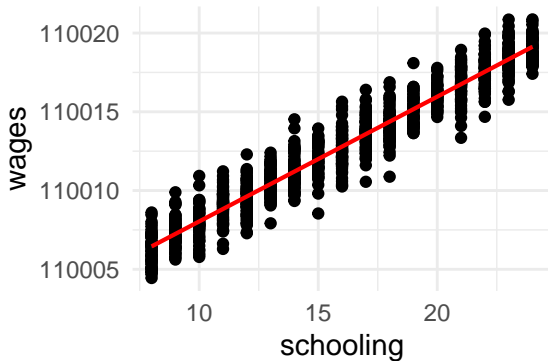
- think of relationship between schooling and wages

```
schooling = seq(8, 24, 1)
#get 1000 observations from the pot with replacement
schooling = sample(schooling, 1000, replace = T)
error <- rnorm(1000, mean = 0, sd = 1)
wages = 110000 + 0.8*schooling + error
schooling <- data.frame(schooling, wages)
```

Mean independence

```
ggplot(schooling, aes(x=schooling, y=wages)) + geom_point()
```

```
## 'geom_smooth()' using formula 'y ~ x'
```



Mean independence

- ▶ $E(u|x) = E(u)$ means that at every slice of schooling expectation of the error term is the same
- ▶ *ability* falls under u
 - ▶ So, $E(\text{ability}|\text{schooling} = 10) = E(\text{ability}|\text{schooling} = 16) = E(\text{ability}|\text{schooling} = 20)$
- ▶ But if people choose schooling based on their ability, the assumption that $E(u|x) = E(u)$ may be violated
 - ▶ Related to concept: **Correlation is not causality**
 - ▶ A point which will be addressed in later lectures

Use two assumptions

► To find the estimates of β_0 and β_1 , use two assumptions:

1) $E(y - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x) = 0$

2) $E[x(y - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x)] = 0$

There are two equations and two unknowns (β_0 and β_1). First setup sample counterparts:

a) $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i) = 0$

b) $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i) = 0$

Use two assumptions for Ordinary Least Square

Solve for β_0 from equation a)

- ▶ $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\beta}_0 - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\beta}_1 x_i) = 0$
- ▶ $\bar{y}_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}_i = 0$
- ▶ $\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}$

Replace $\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}$ in equation b)

- ▶ $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y_i - (\bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}) - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i) = 0$
- ▶ $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y_i - \bar{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (\hat{\beta}_1 x_i - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x})$
- ▶ $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y}) = \hat{\beta}_1 \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})$
- ▶ $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})(x_i - \bar{x}) = \hat{\beta}_1 \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$
- ▶ $\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})(x_i - \bar{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$
- ▶ $\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\text{Sample Cov}(X, Y)}{\text{Sample Var}(X, Y)}$
- ▶ OLS estimator

Next

- ▶ replace $\hat{\beta}_1$ in $\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}$ to find $\hat{\beta}_0$
- ▶ The fitted value is given as $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_1 x_i + \hat{\beta}_0$
- ▶ The residual is written as $\hat{u}_i = y_i - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i - \hat{\beta}_0$
- ▶ Sum of the squares of residuals (SSR)
$$\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i - \hat{\beta}_0)^2$$

Our goal is to obtain estimates of β_0 and β_1 such that it minimizes SSR. Will yield same result as before.

Consider a short simulation

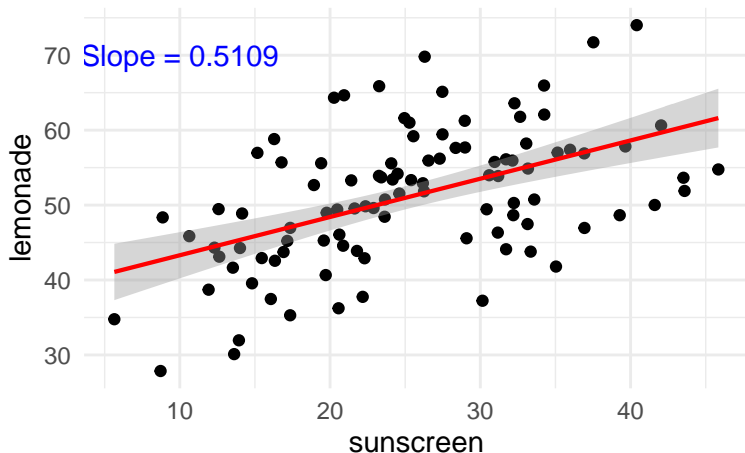
```
set.seed(1)
#simulate quantity demanded of lemonades
lemonade = rnorm(100, 50, 10)
error = rnorm(100, 0, 1)
sunscreen = 1/2*lemonade + 8*error #quantity demanded for s
data <- data.frame(cbind(lemonade, sunscreen))
reg1 <- lm(sunscreen ~ lemonade, data)
reg2 <- lm(lemonade ~ sunscreen, data)
```

- lm is linear regression model; sunscreen ~ lemonade is formula, and data is the dataframe

Sunscreen and lemonade

```
library(ggplot2)
ggplot(data, aes(x=sunscreen, y = lemonade)) + geom_point()
```

```
## 'geom_smooth()' using formula 'y ~ x'
```



Sunscreen and lemonade

```
reg2
```

```
##  
## Call:  
## lm(formula = lemonade ~ sunscreen, data = data)  
##  
## Coefficients:  
## (Intercept)      sunscreen  
##      38.1930      0.5109
```

```
coef(summary(reg2))
```

```
##              Estimate Std. Error  t value    Pr(>|t|)  
## (Intercept) 38.1930197  2.3589577 16.190633 1.886954e-29  
## sunscreen   0.5108893  0.0882082  5.791858 8.421458e-08
```

Next

- ▶ Correlation does not mean causality.