

Basics of regression analysis and OLS properties

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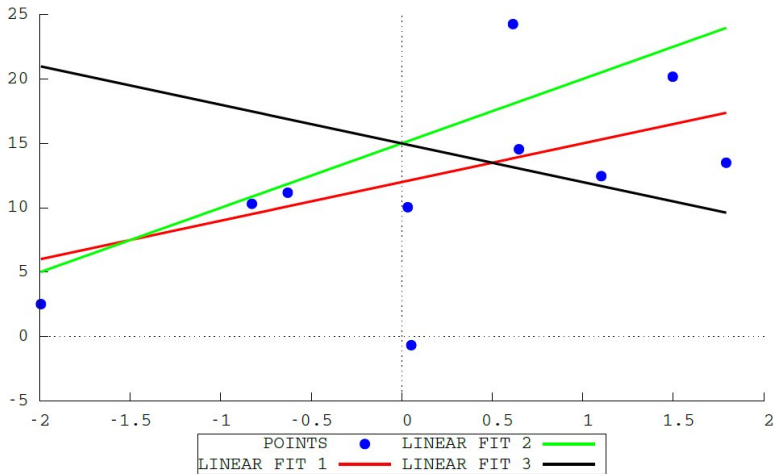
- Assume we have a collection of data on two economic quantities x and y for n individuals or unit of analysis, that is:

$$\{(x_i, y_i; i = 1, \dots, n)\}$$

- Suppose further that we would like to describe the relation between Y and X through the linear relation: $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$

⇒ How do we get the values of the parameters ?

Linear Fit Problem

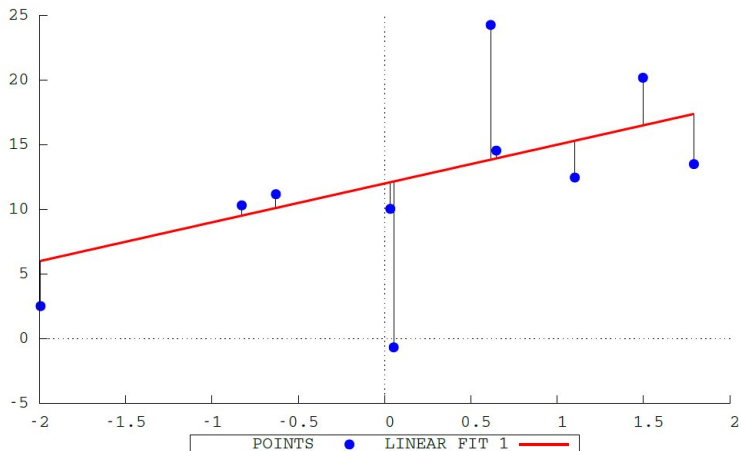


Linear Fit Problem

- Each line corresponds to a different slope and a different intercept
 - Linear Fit 1: $\hat{y} = 6 + 3 \times x$
 - Linear Fit 2: $\hat{y} = 5 + 5 \times x$
 - Linear Fit 3: $\hat{y} = 21 - 5 \times x$
- We need a way to assess which line is best description of the data
- A possible criterion to decide the best one is to start from the error we make by using each line instead of the data points.

$$u_i = \hat{y}_i - y_i \quad (1)$$

Linear Fit Problem



Black segments represent the error we make by substituting y_i with \hat{y}_i , that is $error_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i = y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i$. In this example is $y_i - 6 - 3x_i$.

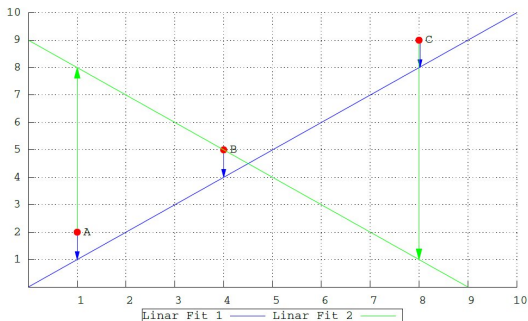
Linear Fit Problem

- For each pair (x_i, y_i) you have an error u_i , so we can compute an *overall* error just by summing, that is $\sum_i u_i$
- We could think about the line that minimizes this sum as the “best” choice

⇒ Is it ok ?

Linear Fit Problem

Consider an example with 2 possible linear fits for a set of 3 data points



- ✓ Linear Fit 1: errors are (1,1,1), so Sum of errors=3
- ✓ Linear Fit 2: errors are (-6,0,8), so Sum of errors=2

⇒ Sum is smaller when we actually make larger errors for 2 out of 3 points !!!

- To balance-out the effect of cancellations between positive and negative errors, we define the Sum of Squared Residuals

$$SSR = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

- We take this as the overall size of the mistake made when using each linear fit
- ⇒ A natural criterion to estimate the parameter is to find values of β_0 and β_1 that minimize the SSR: this is called Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method

The OLS criterion for Linear Fitting

Formally the problem is

$$\text{MIN}_{\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1} \sum_i (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i)^2$$

The two necessary conditions to identify the solution read

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial \sum_i (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i)^2}{\partial \hat{\beta}_0} = 0 \\ \frac{\partial \sum_i (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i)^2}{\partial \hat{\beta}_1} = 0 \end{array} \right. \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} -2 \sum_i (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i) = 0 \\ -2 \sum_i (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i) x_i = 0 \end{array} \right.$$

with solutions

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X} \\ \hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{COV(x, y)}{VAR(x)} \end{array} \right. .$$

The OLS criterion for Linear Fitting

- Once we have the numbers $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ for a given data set, we write the OLS fitted line as a function of x :

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

- The OLS fitted line allows us to predict y for any (sensible) value of x .
- The intercept, $\hat{\beta}_0$, is the predicted y when $x = 0$. (The prediction is usually meaningless if $x = 0$ is not possible.)
- The slope, $\hat{\beta}_1$, allows us to predict changes in y for any (reasonable) change in x :

$$\Delta \hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_1 \Delta x$$

- If $\Delta x = 1$, so that x increases by one unit, then $\Delta \hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_1$.

Algebraic properties of OLS

$$\text{MIN}_{\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1} \sum_i (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i)^2$$

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$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sum_i \hat{u}_i = 0 \\ \sum_i \hat{u}_i x_i = 0 \end{array} \right. \quad \begin{array}{l} \boxed{\text{AP1. OLS residuals always add up to 0}} \\ \boxed{\text{AP2. Sample covariance between residuals } \hat{u}_i \text{ and } x_i \text{ is 0.}} \end{array}$$

Why we like OLS ?

- Suppose to have observations on a population of individuals (even if most often we work with samples)
- We have data (Y_i, X_i) , where this time X is a set of characteristics (not just one variable)
- We are interested in understanding to what extent knowledge of X s helps to characterize Y , or – said differently – in explaining or predicting Y on the basis of the X s.
- That is, we are interested in some function of Y conditional on the X s

⇒ We spend next slides to see in which sense OLS are “good” in achieving this aim

- Y is the dependent variable
- The X s are called covariates (aka regressors or explanatory variables)

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Theorem (CEF decomposition properties)

$$Y_i = E[y_i|X_i] + \epsilon_i ,$$

where

- $E[\epsilon_i|X_i] = 0$;
- ϵ_i is uncorrelated with any function of X_i .

⇒ Any variable y_i can be decomposed into two pieces:

- A piece which is orthogonal to any function of the Xs
 - A piece that is explained by the Xs, captured by the CEF
- $E[Y_i | X_i] = \int dt t f_y(t | X_i = x)$, with f_y a conditional density, is called the Conditional Expectation Function (CEF)

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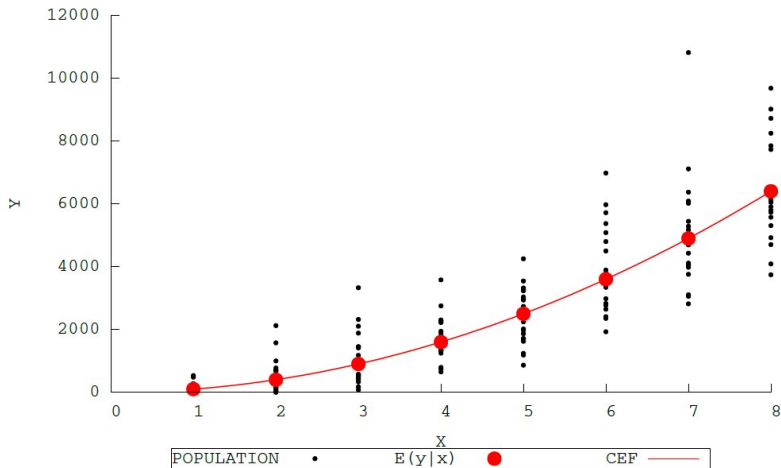
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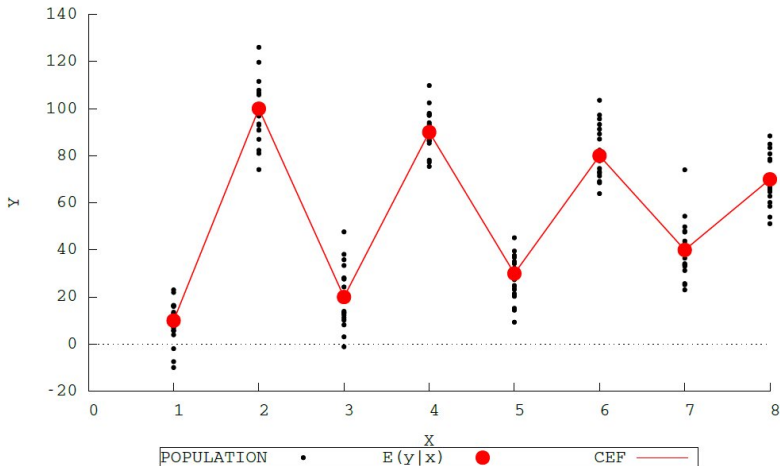
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CEF example 1



CEF example 2



Why we like OLS ?

Theorem (CEF prediction property)

Let $m(X_i)$ be any function of X_i . Then

$$E[y_i|X_i] = \underset{m(X_i)}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} E [(y_i - m(X_i))^2]$$

so the CEF is the MMSE predictor of y_i given X_i .

- ⇒ The CEF is the best predictor (in MSE terms) of Y given the X s, among *all possible* functions of the X s
- ✓ The CEF represents a “precise” way to characterize the relationship between Y and the X s, if we ask “how can we explain or predict Y , based on info about the X s ?”

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Why we like OLS ? The CEF-OLS link

Theorem (the regression-CEF theorem)

The function $X_i' \beta$ provides the MMSE linear approximation to $E[y_i|X_i]$, that is

$$\beta = \arg \min_b E \{ (E[y_i|X_i] - X_i' b)^2 \} . \quad (2)$$

Proof.

Write

$$\begin{aligned} (y_i - X_i' b)^2 &= (y_i - E[y_i|X_i])^2 + (E[y_i|X_i] - X_i' b)^2 \\ &\quad + 2(y_i - E[y_i|X_i])(E[y_i|X_i] - X_i' b) . \end{aligned}$$

The first term does not involve b and the last one has expectation zero by the CEF-decomposition property.

⇒ Problem (2) has same solution as $\text{MIN}_b E [(Y_i - X_i' b)^2]$, which is exactly what we do in OLS !!!

- ✓ The linear regression function $X' b$ that we get from OLS is a quite good (best in MSE terms) approximation of the CEF

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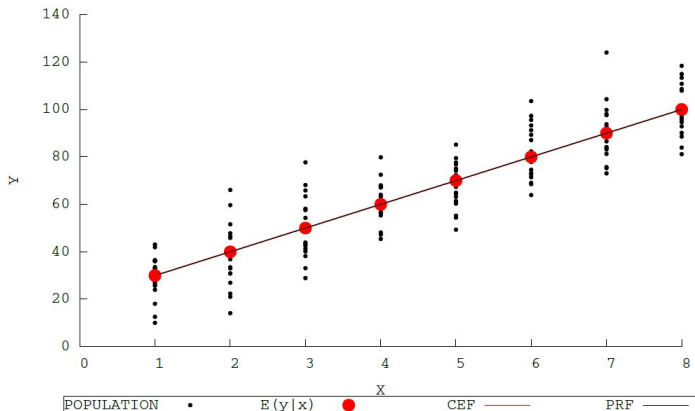
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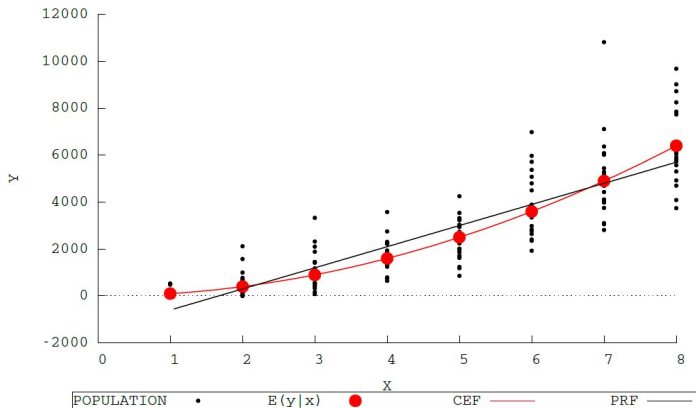
How good is the OLS-Population Regression Function ?

If the CEF is linear, then the (linear) Population Regression Function is exactly the CEF



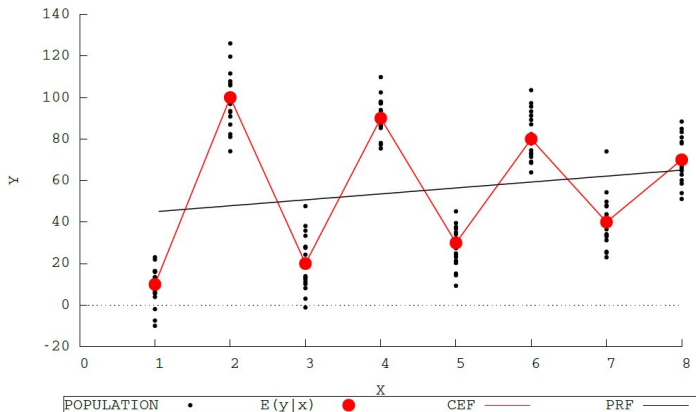
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OLS Regression recap and properties

- We have learnt that each y_i can be expressed as

$$y_i = E(y|x_i) + u_i ,$$

where the error term u_i captures how much we are distant from the CEF

- What is in the error term ?
 - omitted factors, due to a wrong idea or theory about what we should consider as predictors (or determinants) of y
 - omitted factors due to lacking data on some X s that we would like to include
 - wrong functional form

OLS Regression recap and properties

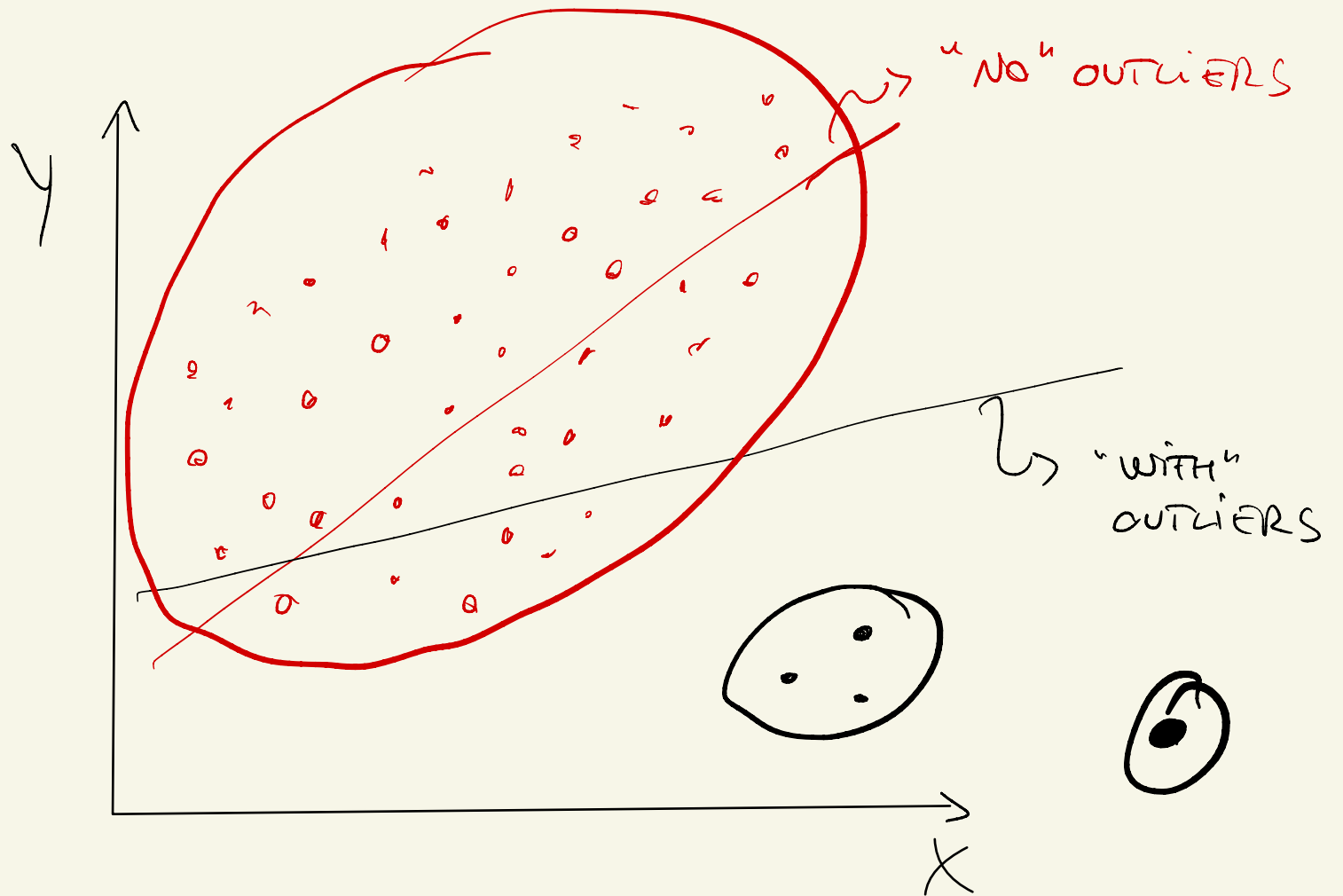
- Crucial property is the Zero Conditional Mean (ZCM) property:

ZCM. The average, or expected, value of u , conditional on x , is zero. Formally, $E(u|x) = 0$,

- ZCM is crucial (with some other assumptions) to show that the OLS estimates are unbiased
- ZCM is crucial to show consistency of OLS estimates: $\hat{\beta}$ converges in prob to β

OLS Regression recap and properties

- Do not forget that OLS confine the attention to the expected value of the conditional distribution of y give X
 - In general, one may be interested into other features of the same distribution, so we would need different techniques in that case
 - The conditional expected value might be particularly meaningless if y has a very skewed distribution, since in that case the mean of y says little
- Do not forget that the OLS weights a lot large errors (taking squares of the distance from linear fit line)
 - This means that few outliers can dramatically influence the estimates of the parameters
 - Often you either drop the outliers (if they are just few data-points) or look for different techniques that are less influenced by outliers



- ⇒
- Se pochi, una buona descrizione della relazione media può "farne a meno"
 - Altrimenti \exists tecniche \neq da OLS

OLS Regression recap and properties

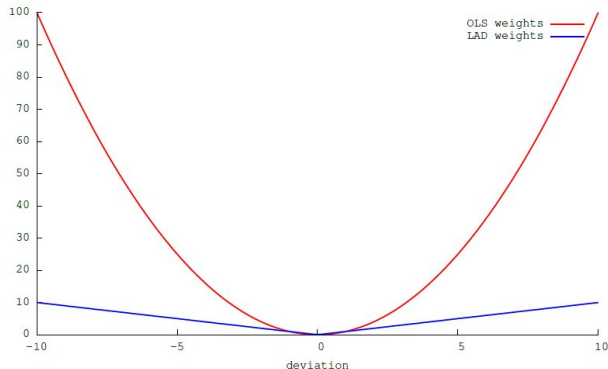
- One popular and easy correction for outliers is Least Absolute Deviation (LAD)

$$\text{MIN}_{\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1} \sum_i (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i)^2$$

OLS estimation

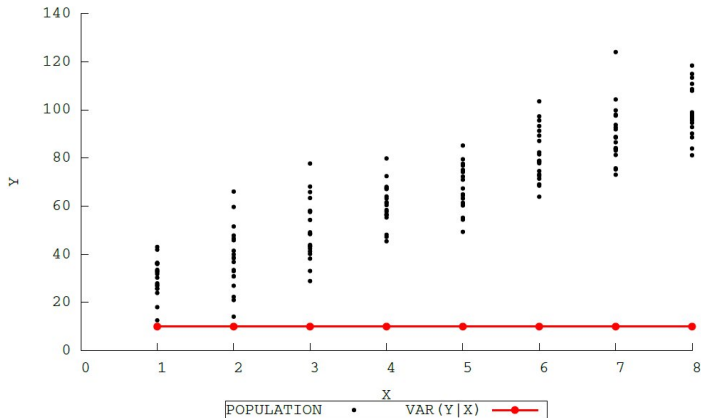
$$\text{MIN}_{\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1} \sum_i |y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i|$$

LAD estimation



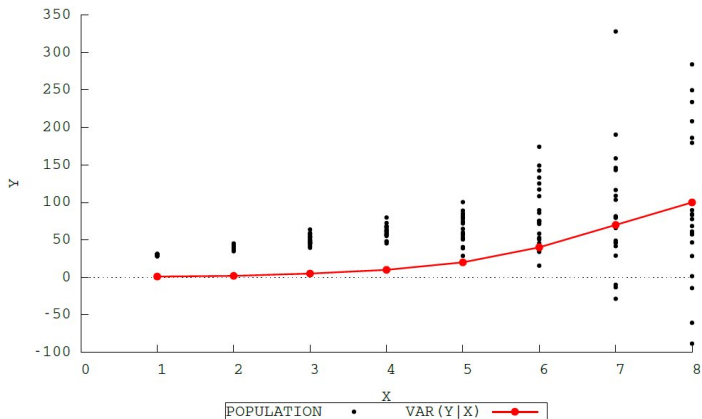
OLS Errors' variance

- Another property worth noticing is **HOMOSKEDASTICITY**, meaning that the variance of the error (and thus of the part of Y not captured by the regression) is the same for every value of x :
$$\text{VAR}(u | x) = \sigma^2 > 0, \forall x$$



OLS Errors' variance

- HETEROSKEDASTICITY, instead, means that the variance of u (or of the part of Y not captured by the regression line) varies with the values of x



Regression analysis: final remarks

- This was a highly simplified presentation of OLS: many other problems remain in practical work
- The practice of econometrics is mostly to deal with real-world situation where OLS assumptions (and the ZCM assumption in particular) are difficult to maintain.
- In this course we will see how different estimation methods (Maximum-likelihood, Instrumental Variables, GMM, panel techniques, . . .) help in practical situations where OLS do not apply.
- Nevertheless, OLS represent a useful benchmark: economists like to frame their research questions as “Is there an impact of a certain variable X on the value of an outcome value Y , and if so how strong is it ?”