#### Week 3: Simple Linear Regression

Marcelo Coca Perraillon

University of Colorado Anschutz Medical Campus

Health Services Research Methods I HSMP 7607 2019

## Outline

- Putting a structure into exploratory data analysis
- Covariance and correlation
- Simple linear regression
- Parameter estimation
- Regression towards the mean

# Big picture

- We did exploratory data analysis of two variables X, Y in the first homework
- Now we are going to provide **structure** to the analysis
- We will assume a relationship (i.e. a **functional form**) and estimate parameters that **summarize** that relationship
- We will then **test** hypotheses about the relationship
- For the time being, we will focus on **two continuous** variables

## Example data

 We will use data from Wooldridge on grades for a sample 141 college students (see today's do file)

| use | GPA1.DTA, clear |     |          |           |     |     |  |  |
|-----|-----------------|-----|----------|-----------|-----|-----|--|--|
| Sum | Variable        | Obs | Mean     | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |  |  |
|     | colgpa          | 141 | 3.056738 | .3723103  | 2.2 | 4   |  |  |
|     | hsgpa           | 141 | 3.402128 | .3199259  | 2.4 | 4   |  |  |



Covariance and correlation

A simple summary of the relationship between two variables is the covariance:

• 
$$COV(X, Y) = E[(X - E(X)(Y - E(Y)))] = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

• 
$$COV(X, Y) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})(x_i - \bar{x})$$

- For each pair *x<sub>i</sub>*, *y<sub>i</sub>* we calculate the product of the deviations of each variable from its mean
- The covariance will be closer to zero if observations are closer to their mean (for one or both variables); it can be positive or negative
- The scale is the product of the scales of X and Y (e.g. age\* age, grades\*age, etc)

## Graphical intuition?



If COV(X, Y) > 0 then positive relationship between x and y
If COV(X, Y) < 0 then negative relationship between x and y</li>

## Correlation

- The sign of the covariance is useful but the magnitude is not because it depends on the unit of measurement
- The correlation (ρ) scales the covariance by the standard deviation of each variable:

• 
$$Cor(X, Y) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(y_i - \bar{y})(x_i - \bar{x})}{S_y S_x}$$

• 
$$Cor(X, Y) = \frac{COV(X,Y)}{S_Y S_X}$$

• 
$$-1 \leq Cor(X, Y) \geq 1$$

■ Closer to 1 or -1, stronger relationship

Grades data:

#### Examples



ρ close to 0 does NOT imply X and Y are not related
 ρ measures the linear relationship between two variables

## Going beyond the correlation coefficient

- We need more flexibility to understand the relationship between X and Y; the correlation is useful but it is limited to a linear relationship and we can't study changes in Y for changes in X using ρ
- A useful place to start is assuming a more specific functional form:

$$\bullet Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

- The above model is the an example of simple linear regression (SLR)
- Confusion alert: it's linear on the parameters  $\beta_i$ ;  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X^2 + \epsilon$  is also a SLR model
- In the college grades example, we have n = 141 observations. We could write the model as
- y<sub>i</sub> = β<sub>0</sub> + β<sub>1</sub>x<sub>i</sub> + ϵ<sub>i</sub>, where i = 1, ..., n. College grades is y and high school grades is x

### The role of $\epsilon$

- $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$ , where i = 1, ..., n
- We are assuming that X and Y are related as described by the above equation plus an error term *e*
- In general, we want the error, or the unexplained part of the model, to be as small as possible
- How do we find the optimal β<sub>j</sub>? One way is to find the values of β<sub>0</sub> and β<sub>1</sub> that are as close as possible to all the points x<sub>i</sub>, y<sub>i</sub>
- These values are  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  the prediction is  $\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x$
- This is equivalent to say that we want to make the e as small as possible
- Obviously, the relationship is not going to be perfect so  $\epsilon_i \neq 0$  for most observations

Some possible lines (guesses)



- I used a graphic editor to draw some possible lines; I wanted to draw the lines as close as possible to most of the points
- The line is affected by the mass of points and extreme values

### A more systematic way



■ The error will be the difference \(\epsilon = (y\_i - \hoty)\_i\)) for each point; we don't want a positive error to cancel out a negative one so we take the square: \(\epsilon\_i^2 = (y\_i - \hoty)\_i\)^2

## The method of ordinary least squares (OLS)

- We want to find  $\hat{\beta}_i$  that minimizes the sum of all errors:  $S(\beta_0, \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i)^2$
- The solution is fairly simply with calculus. We solve the system of equations:

$$\frac{\frac{\partial S(\beta_0,\beta_1)}{\partial \beta_0} = 0}{\frac{\partial S(\beta_0,\beta_1)}{\partial \beta_1} = 0}$$

- The solution is  $\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i \bar{y})(x_i \bar{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i \bar{x})^2}$  and  $\beta_0 = \bar{y} \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}$
- To get predicted values, we use  $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$
- $S(\beta_0, \beta_1)$  is also denoted by SSE, sum of squares for error

#### Deriving the formulas

- We start with:  $\frac{\partial SSE}{\partial \beta_0} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2 = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i) = 0$ • We start within the multiple by  $\frac{1}{2}$  and distribute the summation.
- We can them multiply by  $-\frac{1}{2}$  and distribute the summation:  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i - n\beta_0 - \beta_1 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = 0$
- And almost there. Divide by n and solve for  $\beta_0$ :  $\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} \beta_1 \bar{x}$
- For  $\beta_1$ , more steps but start with the other first order condition and plug in  $\hat{\beta}_0$

$$\frac{\partial SSE}{\partial \beta_1} = -2\sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i) = 0$$

### Interpreting the formulas

• Does the formula for  $\hat{\beta}_1$  look familiar?

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})(x_i - \bar{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

■ We can multiply by  $\frac{1/(n-1)}{1/(n-1)}$  and we get the formulas for the covariance and variance:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{COV(Y,X)}{Var(X)}$$

- Since Var(X) > 0, the sign of  $\hat{\beta}_1$  depends on COV(X, Y)
- If the X and Y are not correlated, then  $\hat{\beta_1} = 0$
- For example, you could test if  $\gamma_1 = 0$  in  $Y = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 X^2$

## Digression

- Not the only target function to minimize. We could also work with the absolute value, as in  $|y_i \hat{y}_i|$ . This is called the least absolute errors regression; more robust to extreme values
- Jargon alert: *robust* means a lot of things in statistics. Whenever you hear that XYZ method is more robust, ask the following question: robust to what? It could be missing values, correlated errors, functional form...
- A very fashionable type of model in prediction and machine learning is the ridge regression (Lasso method, too)
- It minimizes the sum of errors  $(y_i \hat{y}_i)^2$  plus the sum of square betas  $\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{j} \beta_j^2$
- It may look odd but we want to also make the betas as small as possible as a way to select variables in the model

#### Grades example

#### ■ In Stata, we use the reg command:

. reg colgpa hsgpa

| Source           | SS                   | df                   | MS               | Number of obs               | =        | 141                  |
|------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------|-----------------------------|----------|----------------------|
| +-               |                      |                      |                  | F(1, 139)                   | =        | 28.85                |
| Model            | 3.33506006           | 1                    | 3.33506006       | Prob > F                    | =        | 0.0000               |
| Residual         | 16.0710394           | 139                  | .115618988       | R-squared                   | =        | 0.1719               |
| +-               |                      |                      |                  | Adj R-squared               | =        | 0.1659               |
| Total            | 19.4060994           | 140                  | .138614996       | Root MSE                    | =        | .34003               |
| colgpa           | Coef.                | Std. Err.            | t P              | >> t  [95% Co               | onf.     | Interval]            |
| hsgpa  <br>_cons | .4824346<br>1.415434 | .0898258<br>.3069376 | 5.37 0<br>4.61 0 | .000 .30483<br>.000 .808563 | 33<br>35 | .6600362<br>2.022304 |
|                  |                      |                      |                  |                             |          |                      |

• So  $\hat{\beta}_0 = 1.415434$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1 = .4824346$ . A predicted value is  $\hat{y}_i = 1.415434 + .4824346(x_i = a)$ 

#### Grades example II

```
gen gpahat = 1.415434 + .4824346*hsgpa
gen gpahat0 = _b[_cons] + _b[hsgpa]*hsgpa
predict gpahat1
* ereturn list
* help reg
scatter colgpa hsgpa, jitter(2) || line gpahat1 hsgpa, color(red) sort ///
saving(reg1.gph, replace)
```



#### How do observed and predicted values compare?

sum colgpa gpahat1 hist colgpa, percent title("Observed") saving(hisob.gph, replace) xline(3.06) hist gpahat1, percent title("Predicted") saving(hispred.gph, replace) xline(3.06) graph combine hisob.gph hispred.gph, col(1) xcommon

| Variable | Obs | Mean     | Std. Dev. | Min      | Max      |
|----------|-----|----------|-----------|----------|----------|
| +        |     |          |           |          |          |
| colgpa   | 141 | 3.056738 | .3723103  | 2.2      | 4        |
| gpahat1  | 141 | 3.056738 | .1543433  | 2.573277 | 3.345172 |

■ Predictions "regress" towards the mean:



### Regression towards the mean

- Regression towards the mean is an often-misunderstood concept
- In this example, our model is telling us that a student with a high high-school GPA is going to be more like an average college student (i.e. she will regress towards the mean)
- Why is that happening? Look at the data. Is that true in our sample?
- It happens because our prediction is using the information of everybody in the sample to make predictions for those with high high-school GPA
- It may also be because it's a *property* of the particular dataset or problem, like in the homework example

## Confusion alert and iterated expectations

- From OLS, it is not clear that we are modeling the conditional expectation of Y given X: E[Y|X] but WE ARE (!!)
- We are modeling how the mean of Y changes for different values of X
- The mean of the predictions from our model will match the observed mean of Y
- We can use the law of iterated expectations to go from the conditional to unconditional mean of *Y*:

| qui sum hsgpa<br>di 1.415434 + .4824346*r(mean)<br>3.0567381 |      |            |            |       |     |  |  |
|--------------------------------------------------------------|------|------------|------------|-------|-----|--|--|
| .sum colgpa<br>Variable                                      | 1 01 | os Meau    | n Std. Dev | . Min | Max |  |  |
| colgpa                                                       | 14   | 1 3.056738 | .3723103   | 2.2   | 4   |  |  |

## Another way of writing the model

- When we cover Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE), it's going to become super clear that we are indeed modeling a conditional expectation
- For the rest of the semester and your career, it would be useful to write the estimated model as  $E(\hat{y}_i|x) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x$  or  $E(\hat{y}_i) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x$
- Next class we are going to start interpreting parameters. We will see that  $\hat{\beta}_1$  tells you how the expected value/average y changes when x changes
- This is subtle but super important. It's not the change in y, it's the change in the average y
- Seeing it this way will make it easier later (trust me)
- To make it a bit more confusing: of course, we can use the model to make a prediction for one person. Say, a college student with a hs gpa of xx will have a college gpa of yy. But that prediction is based on the average of others

# Big picture

- We started with a graphical approach to study the relationship of two continuous variables
- We then used the correlation coefficient to measure the magnitude and direction of the linear relationship
- We then considered a more flexible approach by assuming a more specific functional form and used the method of least squares to find the best parameters
- We now have a way of **summarizing** the relationship between X, Y
- We didn't make any assumptions about the distribution of Y (or X)
- Don't ever forget that we are modeling the conditional expectation
   (!!)
- Next class we will see other ways of thinking about SLR and causal inference