Regression analysis

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- Highly **incomplete and fragmented** introduction to regression analysis.
- Have **data** on y and x (x is high dimensional vector) and would like to:
 - Study correlation between y and elements of x.
 - Use x to forecast, predict or impute y.
 - Understand how much of **variation** in y is "explained" by x.
 - Estimate **causal impact** of *x* on *y* after controlling for confounding factors

Introduction (2)

- Elements of X.
 - Can be continuous or discrete.
 - May be measured with error (this causes problems).
- Elements of Y.
 - Can be continuous.
 - Can be discrete.
 - Usually requires a **non-linear** model.
 - However, researchers often use the linear probability model.
 - It is much better to use a discrete outcome model.
 - May be measured with error (this is less of a problem).
 - May be censored or truncated.
 - Usually requires use of non-linear model.

Main methods

Parametric methods

- Ordinary least squares
- Ø Maximum likelihood
- Method of moments
- Quantile regression
- Bayesian methods

Semi- and Non-parametric methods

- Allow "parameters" to be infinite dimensional.
- Estimate E[Y|X] = f(X) to be an unknown function instead of a known one like $x\beta$.
- Estimate probability density function of x rather than estimate mean and variance.

- **Data** on (y_i, x_i) for i = 1, ..., N where $y_i \in \mathbf{R}$ and $x_i \in \mathbf{R}^k$.
- Let Y = (y₁, ..., y_N)^T be a (N × 1) vector of outcomes and let X be an (N × K) matrix of regressors. That is,

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(1) & \cdots & x_1(K) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_N(1) & \cdots & x_N(K) \end{bmatrix}$$

• Let $\varepsilon = (\varepsilon_1, ..., \varepsilon_N)$ be an $(N \times 1)$ vector of **errors** or **unobserved** variables.

• The linear model is

$$Y = X\beta + \varepsilon$$

where β is a $(K \times 1)$ vector of **parameters** to be estimated.

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- Usually the model includes a constant so that $x_i(1) = 1$ for all *i*.
- Key restriction is that the model is linear in β (can allow for example x and x^2 or $\log\left(x\right).)$
- X may include "dummy" variables that indicate membership in a group. For, example x_i (2) = 1 if i is female and x_i (2) = 0 otherwise.

• Goals:

- **Unbiased** or **consistent** estimates of β .
- Prediction of Y.
- Analysis of variance of Y.
- Test of hypotheses about β.

Mis-specification. Suppose the correct model is not linear?

- Non-linear models or discrete outcomes.
- Q Censoring or truncation of of outcomes
- **Endogeneity.** What if X is correlated with ε?
 - Omitted variables.
 - Ø Measurement error.
 - Ioint causation.
- Solution I data. What can one do if K is large?
- Objective to reduce influence of outliers in data?
- Sorrelation in errors. How do you correct for correlation in errors?
- Son Non-random sample. How does one weight the data?

• Ordinary least squares. Choose β to solve the least squares problem

$$\min_{\{\beta\}} \left\{ 0.5 \left(Y - X\beta \right)^T \left(Y - X\beta \right) \right\}$$

• First order conditions are

$$X^T X \beta - X^T Y = 0.$$

• Estimator of β is

$$\widehat{eta} = \left(X^T X
ight)^{-1} X^T Y$$

• Requires that
$$X^T X$$
 has rank K.

Properties of estimator (unbiased)

• Assume that

$$E[\varepsilon|X]=0.$$

• Then

$$E\left[\widehat{\beta} | X\right] = E\left[\left(X^{T}X\right)^{-1}X^{T}Y | X\right]$$
$$= E\left[\left(X^{T}X\right)^{-1}X^{T}\left(X\beta + \varepsilon\right) | X\right]$$
$$= E\left[\left(X^{T}X\right)^{-1}\left(X^{T}X\right) | X\right]\beta + E\left[\varepsilon | X\right]$$
$$= \beta.$$

Asymptotic normality

• Further, assume that

$$V\left(\varepsilon \left|X\right.\right) = \sigma^{2}I.$$

Then

$$V\left(\widehat{\beta}\right) = \widehat{\sigma}^2 \left(X^T X\right)^{-1}$$

where

$$\widehat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \widehat{e}^T \widehat{e}$$

is estimate of variance of error.and where

$$\widehat{e} = Y - X\widehat{\beta}.$$

• In a large sample, (under very general conditions), the central limit theorem can be used to show that

$$\sqrt{N}\left(\widehat{\beta}-\beta\right) \xrightarrow{A} N\left(0,\widehat{\Sigma}\right).$$

- These results can be used to construct confidence intervals for β and to conduct hypothesis tests.
- When β is a scalar, a **95% confidence interval** for β is

 $\widehat{\beta} \pm 1.96 \widehat{\sigma}_{\beta}.$

• Test the hypothesis that $\beta_1 + \beta_2 = 0.$

Let s = β₁ + β₂.
 Then ŝ = β̂₁ + β̂₂ converges in distribution to a normal random variable with mean s = β₁ + β₂ and variance σ²_s = σ₁₁ + σ₂₂ + 2σ₁₂.
 Reject the hypothesis if ^ŝ/_{σ_c} ≥ 1.96.

• Best predictor of Y is

$$E[Y|X] = X\widehat{\beta}.$$

• Minimises the sum of squared prediction errors.

Goodness of fit

• **Coefficient of determination** or **R**² measures the fraction of variance of the outcome that is explained by the model. It is

$$\mathbf{R}^{2} = 1 - \frac{e^{T} e}{\left(y - \overline{y}\right)^{T} \left(y - \overline{y}\right)}$$

- A measure of "Goodness-of-fit".
- When \mathbf{R}^2 is near zero, then most of variance is explained by errors.
- When near one, most of variance is explained by model.
- \bullet When variables are added to model, ${\bf R}^2$ increases. So, researchers often used "adjusted ${\bf R}^2$

$$\overline{\mathbf{R}}^2 = 1 - \left(1 - \mathbf{R}^2\right) rac{n-1}{n-k-2}$$

which adjusts \mathbf{R}^2 for the number of variables in the model.

Maximum likelihood estimation.

- Linear models.
- Nonlinear models.
- Discrete outcomes.
- Instrumental variables methods.
- Systems of equations.
- Penalized methods.