# Lecture 2: Simple Linear Regression Model

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June 28, 2017

#### Outline

- General Introduction
- 2 Assumptions on the "Theoretical/True" Model (Line)
- 3 The "Fitted" Line: OLS Estimation
- 4 Properties of OLS Estimators

- Starting from Lecture 2, we use lower case y and x to denote the economic variables in the regression models (different from Lecture 1), and  $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$  are realized/sample values of those economic variables;
- The economic variable y that we want to explain (e.g. expenditure) is called "dependent variable" and the economic variable x that we want to use (e.g. income) to explain the "dependent variable" is called "independent" or "explanatory" variable;
- In Econometrics, we want to use the data  $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$  to learn about the relationship between y and x.

General Question to Answer: conditional on x (e.g. income), what is your expectation on y (e.g. expenditure)?

$$\iff$$

$$E[y|x] = ?$$

- Firstly, you should have an assumption on the form of E[y|x] (based on data pattern/model selection techniques/just try different forms and etc). The "hypothesized" form is also called the "theoretical regression model";
- Secondly, you need to use data  $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$  to estimate the "theoretical regression model" to get the "fitted/estimated model";
- **Then**, assess whether each estimated parameter and the fitted model as a whole are good or not.

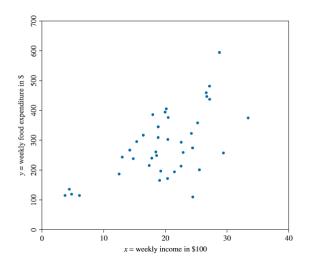


Figure: Data on Food Expenditure and Income

#### Simple Linear Regression Model

$$E[y|x] = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x \tag{1}$$

where  $\beta_1$  is the intercept and  $\beta_2$  is the slope. The model is called "simple linear regression model" because there is only one independent/explanatory variable on the right-hand side and the model is linear in parameters  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$ . The line in equation (1) is the "theoretical/true line".

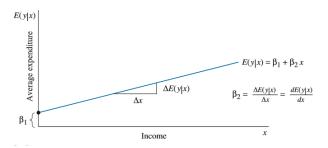


Figure: Linear Relationship between Average Food Expenditure and Income

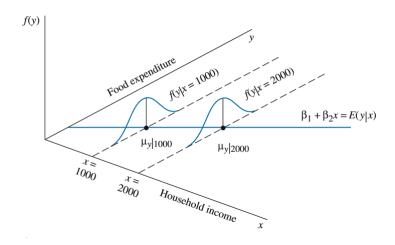


Figure: Conditional pdf's for y at Alternative Levels of Income

#### First version of assumptions on the theoretical/true model:

• A1—Linearity: for each value of x, the mean value of y is given by

$$E[y|x] = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x$$

• **A2—Constant variance**: for each value of x, the variance of distribution of y is constant

$$Var(y|x) = \sigma^2$$

• A3—Uncorrelatedness: the sample values of y are all uncorrelated.

$$Cov(y_i, y_j) = 0$$
 for all  $i \neq j$ 

- A4—Constant x's: x is not random and must take at least two different values (more than one sample points to be used for estimation), y is random.
- A5 (optional)—Normality: conditional on each value of x, y is normally distributed

 $y|x \sim N(\beta_1 + \beta_2 x, \sigma^2)$ 

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Based on original true model, we define the **random error term** e as:

$$e = y - E[y|x] = y - \beta_1 - \beta_2 x$$
 (2)

then by rearranging, we have the "second version" of the true model:

$$y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x + e$$

And by equation (2), it is easy to show that

$$E[e|x] = 0$$

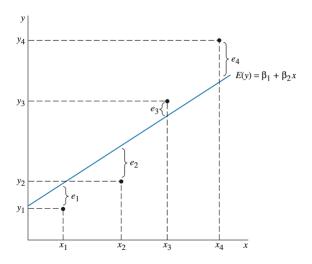


Figure: The Relationship between y, e and the "True" Regression Model

#### Second version of assumptions on the theoretical/true model

• **SR1**: for each value of x, the value of y is

$$y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x + e$$

• SR2: for each value of x,

$$E[e|x] = 0$$

which is stronger than simply assuming E(e) = 0.

• SR3: for each value of x, the conditional variance of the random error is

$$Var(e|x) = \sigma^2 \Longrightarrow Var(y|x) = \sigma^2$$

y and e differ only by a constant due to SR5.

• SR4: the covariance between any pair of random errors,

$$Cov(e_i, e_j) = 0$$
 for all  $i \neq j \Longrightarrow Cov(y_i, y_j) = 0$  for all  $i \neq j$ 

• SR5: x is not random and must take at least two different values (more than one sample points to be used for estimation), y is random. The randomness of y comes from the randomness of e,

#### Second version of assumptions on the theoretical/true model

• SR6(Optional):

$$e \sim N(0, \sigma^2) \Longrightarrow y|x \sim N(\beta_1 + \beta_2 x, \sigma^2)$$

- SR6 can give us normality, which will be useful to characterize the distributions that the statistics/moments associated with estimators follow, and then conduct hypothesis testing.
- If **SR6** does not apply, we are still able to get "normality" through **central** limit theorem if we have large enough sample data.

Notation for "fitted line":

$$\hat{y} = b_1 + b_2 x$$

 $\iff$ 

$$\hat{y}_i = b_1 + b_2 x_i$$
 for any observation  $x_i$ , the estimated  $y$  is  $\hat{y}_i$ 

To measure the "distance" between true observed  $y_i$  and estimated  $\hat{y}_i$ , we define the **residual**:

$$\hat{e}_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i = y_i - b_1 - b_2 x_i$$

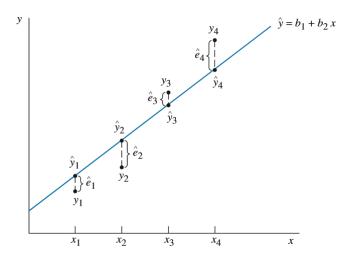


Figure: The Relationship between  $y,\,\hat{e}$  and Fitted Regression Line

How to determine our "fitted/estimated line" is the best one? (as a whole closest to all data points)

We use "sum of squared error" SSE, for one "fitted line", we can calculate residuals  $\hat{e}_i$  for all data points, then calculate SSE as:

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{e}_i^2$$

Suppose now we have two fitted lines:

- Line 1:  $\hat{y}_i^* = b_1^* + b_2^* x_i$ , calculate  $\hat{e}_i^* = y_i \hat{y}_i^*$  and  $SSE_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{e}_i^{*2}$ ;
- Line 2:  $\hat{y}_i^{**} = b_1^{**} + b_2^{**} x_i$ , calculate  $\hat{e}_i^{**} = y_i \hat{y}_i^{**}$  and  $SSE_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{e}_i^{**2}$ .

then Line 1 is better than Line  $2 \iff SSE_1 < SSE_2$ .



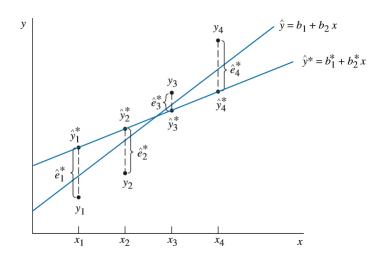


Figure: The Relationship between y,  $\hat{e}$  and Alternative Fitted Regression Line

#### OLS: "Ordinary Least Square" Estimation

Given sample data  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ , choose  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  to minimize the "sum of squares function":

$$S(b_1, b_2) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - b_1 - b_2 x_i)^2$$

The optimal  $(b_1, b_2)$  satisfies the following necessary conditions:

$$\frac{\partial S(b_1, b_2)}{\partial b_1} = -2\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - b_1 - b_2 x_i) = 0$$
(3)

$$\frac{\partial S(b_1, b_2)}{\partial b_2} = -2\sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y_i - b_1 - b_2 x_i) = 0 \tag{4}$$

(3) and  $(4) \Longrightarrow$ 

$$b_2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$
 (5)

$$b_1 = \bar{y} - b_2 \bar{x} \tag{6}$$

where

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n}$$
 and  $\bar{y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i}{n}$ 

For example, y is food expenditure (unit: \$1000) and x is personal income (unit: \$1000/month), and we estimate  $b_2 = 10.2$  and  $b_1 = 83.4$ , how to interpret?

$$\hat{y}_i = 83.4 + 10.2x_i$$



#### Alternative Theoretical Model Form

Alternative form: need transformation of original data

$$ln(y) = \alpha + \beta ln(x) + e \tag{7}$$

$$y = \alpha + \beta \ln(x) + e \tag{8}$$

$$ln(y) = \alpha + \beta x + e \tag{9}$$

#### **Comments:**

- We always firstly take "ln" on original economic data;
- By taking "ln", the coefficient may have more intuitive interpretation. For example, if your model is (7):

$$\beta = \frac{dln(y)}{dln(x)} = \frac{dy/y}{dx/x} = \frac{\triangle y/y}{\triangle x/x} = \frac{\triangle y}{\triangle x} \frac{x}{y} = \eta_{yx}$$
 (10)

so that, if estimator of  $\beta$  is b, how to interpret b?

• Alternatively, if your model is  $y = \alpha + \beta x + e$ , then what if we still want to estimate  $\eta_{yx}$  (elasticity of variable y with respect to x) for different levels of (x, y)? usually we calculate the elasticity at the "point of means"  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ .

#### Alternative Theoretical Model Form

• If your model is (9), then how to interpret  $\beta$ ?

$$\beta = \frac{dln(y)}{dx} = \frac{dy/y}{dx} = \frac{\triangle y/y}{\triangle x}$$

then how to estimate  $\eta_{yx}$  (elasticity of variable y with respect to x) for different levels of x?

For example, y is house price, x is house square feet, the estimated model is:

$$ln(PRICE) = 10.839 + \underbrace{0.00041}_{b} \times SQFT$$

- (1) The estimated **semi-elasticity**: b = 0.00041;
- (2) The estimated elasticity is:

$$\hat{\eta} = b \times SQFT = 0.00041 \times SQFT$$

(3) For a house with 4000 square feet, the estimated elasticity is 1.645.

After obtaining OLS estimator, next is to assess the OLS estimators through the following steps:

- Calculate related "theoretical moments" and characterize "theoretical distributions" of the OLS estimators;
- Use sample data to estimate the "theoretical moments" (if you cannot calculate the theoretical moments directly);
- Provide interval estimation;
- Conduct hypothesis testing, either for each parameter separately or for the whole model, to evaluate whether your fitted model is good or not.

True model and estimated model are:

$$y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x + e \tag{11}$$

$$\hat{y} = b_1 + b_2 x \tag{12}$$

Distribution and Related Moments (expectations, variances, covariances) of  $b_1$  and  $b_2$ :

#### 1. Expectation

•

$$b_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i (y_i - \bar{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i y_i - \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i \bar{y}}_{0} = \beta_2 + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i e_i$$
 (13)

where  $\bar{y} = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \bar{x}$ . Then

$$E(b_2) = \beta_2 \quad \text{by } E(e_i) = 0$$
 (14)

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$$b_1 = \bar{y} - b_2 \bar{x} = \beta_1 + (\beta_2 - b_2)\bar{x}$$
 (15)

then

$$E(b_1) = \beta_1 \tag{16}$$

Both estimators  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  are **unbiased** estimator. **How to understand?** If we take the two averages of estimates  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  from many samples (the number of samples converges to infinity), then the two averages will converge to  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$ .

#### 2. Variance and Covariance

If assumptions SR1 - SR5 are correct, we have

$$Var(b_1) = \sigma^2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{n \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$
 (17)

$$Var(b_2) = \sigma^2 \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$
 (18)

$$Cov(b_1, b_2) = \sigma^2 \frac{-\bar{x}}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$
 (19)

#### Comments:

- the larger the variance term  $\sigma^2$ , the greater the uncertainty in the statistical model, and the larger the variances and covariance of the OLS estimators;
- the larger the sum of squares of variation of the independent variables  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i \bar{x})^2$ , the smaller the variances of the least squares estimators and the more precisely we can estimate the unknown parameters.

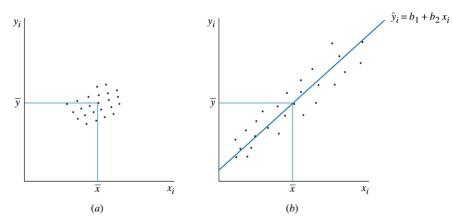


FIGURE 2.11 The influence of variation in the explanatory variable x on precision of estimation: (a) low x variation, low precision: (b) high x variation, high precision.

#### 3. Probability Distribution of the OLS Estimators $b_1$ and $b_2$

• Normality Assumption: if we make the normality assumption (SR6) about the error term  $e \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ , then the OLS estimators are normally distributed:

$$b_1 \sim N\left(\beta_1, \sigma^2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{n \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}\right)$$
 (20)

$$b_2 \sim N\left(\beta_2, \sigma^2 \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}\right)$$
 (21)

• Without Normality Assumption: if assumptions SR1-SR5 hold and the sample size n is sufficiently large, then OLS estimators  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  have distributions that approximate the normal distributions shown in (20) and (21), by Central Limit Theorem.

Why do we want to characterize the probability distributions of  $b_1$  and  $b_2$ ?

Because we want to (1) do hypothesis testing, e.g. if we get estimator  $b_2$ , we want to test whether the corresponding parameter  $\beta_2$  is significantly different from zero; (2) provide interval estimation, i.e. confidence interval of  $\beta_2$ , not only point estimator  $b_2$ .

**Example of hypothesis testing** (if (21) applies and  $Var(b_2) = \sigma^2 \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$  is known):

$$H_0: \beta_2 = 0;$$

 $H_1: \beta_2 \neq 0; \text{ or } \beta_2 > 0; \text{ or } \beta_2 < 0.$ 

# 4. Estimate Theoretical Moments (mainly variances and covariances of OLS estimators)

In last example, we know the value  $\sigma^2$  thus know  $Var(b_2)$ , but usually we don't know. Then what should we do?

• Estimate  $Var(e) = \sigma^2$ : since  $Var(e) = E(e^2) - E(e)^2 = E(e^2)$ , we use residuals  $\hat{e}_i$ ,

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{e}_i^2 \tag{22}$$

and it can be proved  $E[\hat{\sigma}^2] = \sigma^2$ . (22) is for simple regression model, what if we have K parameters to estimate in multiple regression model?

Estimate  $Var(b_1), Var(b_2), Cov(b_1, b_2)$ :

$$\widehat{Var}(b_1) = \hat{\sigma}^2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{n \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$
 (23)

$$\widehat{Var}(b_2) = \hat{\sigma}^2 \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$
 (24)

$$\widehat{Cov}(b_1, b_2) = \hat{\sigma}^2 \frac{-\bar{x}}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$
 (25)

The square roots of the estimated variances are the "standard errors" of  $b_1$ and  $b_2$ :

$$Se(b_1) = \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(b_1)}$$
$$Se(b_2) = \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(b_2)}$$

Estimated Variance-Covariance Matrix

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} \widehat{Var}(b_1) & \widehat{Cov}(b_1, b_2) \\ \widehat{Cov}(b_1, b_2) & \widehat{Var}(b_2) \end{array}\right]$$



But if we replace  $\sigma^2$  with  $\hat{\sigma}^2$ , will "normality" still apply?

• If using  $\sigma^2$ , normality applies:

$$\frac{b_2 - \beta_2}{\sqrt{Var(b_2)}} \sim N(0, 1) \tag{26}$$

• If using  $\hat{\sigma}^2$ , "normality" will no longer apply:

$$\frac{b_2 - \beta_2}{\sqrt{\widehat{Var}(b_1)}} \sim t_{n-2} \tag{27}$$

To evaluate whether OLS estimators are good under some specific cases, we have **Gauss-Markov Theorem**:

Under the assumptions SR1-SR5 of the linear regression model, the OLS estimators  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  are the **Best Linear Unbiased Estimators (BLUE)** for  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$ . That is,  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  have the smallest variance within all linear and unbiased estimators of  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$ .

#### Comments:

- The theorem does not say that  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  are the best of all possible estimators;
- When comparing two linear and unbiased estimators, we always want to
  use the one with the smaller variance, since that estimation rule gives us
  the higher probability of obtaining an estimate that is close to the true
  parameter value;
- Note that Gauss Markov Theorem does not depend on SR6 (normality assumption).

More about nonlinear relationship: the simple linear regression model can be used to account for nonlinear relationship between variables.

1. y and x can be transformations of the basic economic variables, involing logarithms, squares, cubes or reciprocals, and etc.

**Example:** we want to research how house price is correlated/determined by square feet of the house?

• Originally we may assume:

$$PRICE = \beta_1 + \beta_2 SQFT + e \tag{28}$$

But this may not be consistent with the data pattern and also it may be reasonable to assume that larger and more expensive homes have a higher value for an additional square foot of living area than smaller, less expensive homes, that is, the slope  $\beta_2$  may vary from point to point.

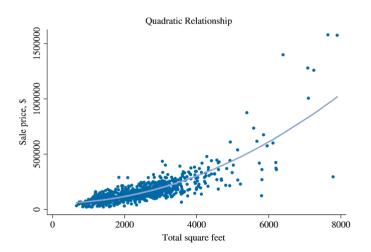


Figure: Quadratic Relationship

We can build this pattern into our model in two ways:

ullet a quadratic equation in which the explanatory variable is  $SQFT^2$ 

$$PRICE = \beta_1 + \beta_2 SQFT^2 + e \tag{29}$$

 $\bullet$  a log-linear equation in which the dependent variable is ln(PRICE)

$$ln(PRICE) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 SQFT + e \tag{30}$$

For (29) and (30), how to interpret  $\beta_2$ , and how to get elasticity of PRICE w.t. SQFT at specific level (SQFT, PRICE)?

If the estimated quadratic equation is:

$$PRICE = 55776.56 + 0.0154SQFT^2 (31)$$

the estimated slope is:

$$\frac{d(PRICE)}{d(SQFT)} = 2 \times 0.0154 \times SQFT \tag{32}$$

the elasticity is:

$$\hat{\eta} = slope \times \frac{SQFT}{PRICE} = 2 \times 0.0154 \times SQFT \times \frac{SQFT}{PRICE}$$
 (33)

Use one data point (SQFT=2000, PRICE=\$117461.77), the elasticity is 1.05, meaning a 1% in house size will increase house price by 1.05%.

Take care of units of economic variables, in this case, unit of PRICE is \$1, but it may also be \$1,000.

# 2. y and/or x can be indicator variables that only take values zero and one.

- Indicator variable is usually used to represent qualitative characteristic, such as gender (male or female), race, or location;
- For example

$$UTOWN = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if house is in University Town} \\ 0 & \text{if house is in Golden Oaks} \end{cases}$$

$$PRICE = \beta_1 + \beta_2 UTOWN + e$$

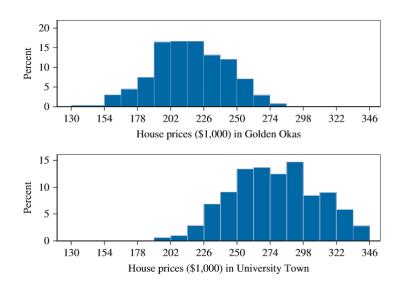


Figure: Distributions of House Prices

When an indicator variable is used in a regression, it is important to firstly
write out the regression function for the different values of the indicator
variable, to help interpret the parameters

$$E[PRICE] = \begin{cases} \beta_1 + \beta_2 & \text{if } UTOWN = 1\\ \beta_1 & \text{if } UTOWN = 0 \end{cases}$$

• The estimated regression is:

$$\begin{split} \widehat{PRICE} &= b_1 + b_2 UTOWN \\ &= 215.733 + 61.51 \times UTOWN \\ &= \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 277.242 & \text{if } UTOWN = 1 \\ 215.733 & \text{if } UTOWN = 0 \end{array} \right. \end{split}$$

• How to interpret  $\beta_2$  and  $b_2$ :

$$\beta_2 = E[PRICE]_{Universitytown} - E[PRICE]_{Goldenoaks}$$
 (34)

$$b_2 = \overline{PRICE}_{Universitytown} - \overline{PRICE}_{Goldenoaks}$$
 (35)