PSY 503: Foundations of Psychological Methods Lecture 16: Linear Regression and the BLP

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Best Linear Predictor (BLP)

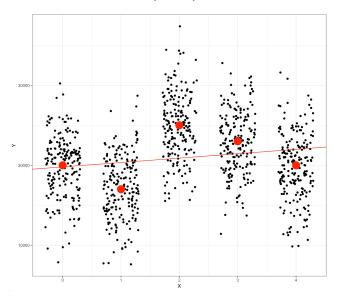
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- ullet Although the CEF is the best predictor of Y given X, it can be extremely complicated
 - Without further assumptions, the function can take any shape!
- What if we defined a new and less complex parameter of the joint distribution?
 - We could ask: among functions of the form: g(X) = a + bX, which function yields the best predictions of Y given X?

The Best Linear Predictor (BLP)



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For random variables X and Y, there exist a best (minimum MSE) linear predictor of Y given X such that $g(X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$

where β_0 is the y-intercept of the BLP and β_1 is its slope

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- Importantly, the BLP is a simple approximation of the CEF that operates on the same principle as the CEF: find the function that minimizes MSE but with the further restriction that the function must be linear

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 - This is why psychologists often see correlation coefficients (which assume linearity too!)
 - BLP as at least "a good first approximation"
 - So when CEF is not linear, you can still decide estimate the BLP if that makes sense! Just don't claim that the BLP is the CEF

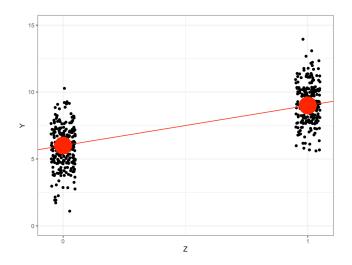
• If the CEF is linear, then...

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- If the CEF is linear, then... the BLP is the CEF
- This is the case EVERY TIME the predictor is BINARY
- This implies that in experiments, the BLP is the CEF

The experimental case

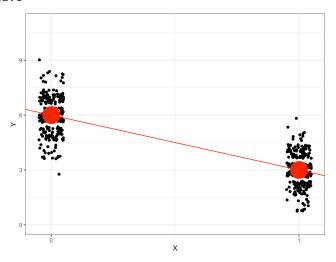


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Linear regression

What is linear regression?

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- Linear regression can be considered a method for estimating the BLP of a joint distribution
- In large enough samples and under some assumptions that we will review, linear regression yields consistent and unbiased estimates $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ of parameters β_0 and β_1 , corresponding to the intercept and the slope of the BLP

Let's open R Studio!

We have

$$\mathbb{E}[Y|X] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$$

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- Notice that the linear functional form imposes a constant slope
- \bullet This matters for non-binary predictors with non-linear CEFs: Change in $\mathbb{E}[Y|X]$ is the same at all values of X

 \bullet Intercept: The average outcome among units with X=0 is β_0

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$$\mathbb{E}[Y|X = x + 1] - \mathbb{E}[Y|X = x] = (\beta_0 + \beta_1(x + 1) - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x))$$

$$= \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_1 - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x$$

$$= \beta_1$$
(1)

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- **1** Intercept: $\beta_0 = \mathbb{E}[Y|Z=0]$
- **2 Slope:** average difference between Z=1 group and Z=0 group:

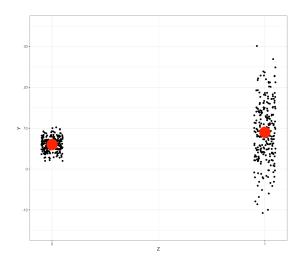
$$\beta_1 = \mathbb{E}[Y|Z=1] - \mathbb{E}[Y|Z=0]$$

- Using Equation 1, it's easy to see that when we regress Y on a binary variable Z, then we have the following:
- **1** Intercept: $\beta_0 = \mathbb{E}[Y|Z=0]$
- **Slope:** average difference between Z=1 group and Z=0 group: $\beta_1=\mathbb{E}[Y|Z=1]-\mathbb{E}[Y|Z=0]$
 - Thus, we can read off the difference in means between two groups as the slope coefficient on a linear regression

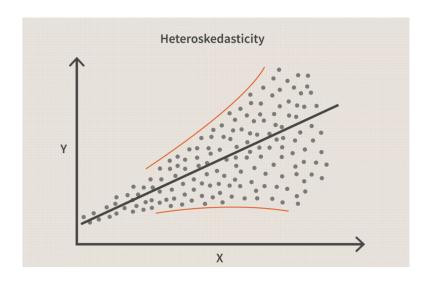
Standard errors in regression outputs

- Standard errors calculated under the assumption that the variance of the errors is homoskedastic!
 - Issue: Very often in our studies, variance of errors is heteroskedastic!
- Let's visualize heteroskedasticity

Heteroskedasticity



Heteroskedasticity



Heteroskedasticity

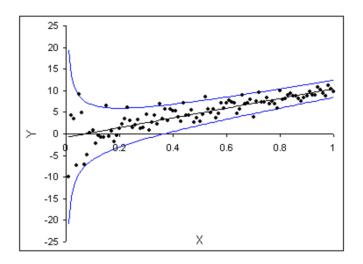


Figure 19.1.3. Another Form of Heteroskedasticity

Heteroskedasticity: Issue and Solution

- Problem: Heteroskedasticity may introduce bias in the standard errors (NOT in the estimate of β)
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- Problem: Heteroskedasticity may introduce bias in the standard errors (NOT in the estimate of β)
 - This is an issue for hypothesis testing (p-values) and confidence interval calculations
- Solution: Use heteroskedasticity robust standard errors (!!)
 - Switching to robust SEs in R is trivial

Robust SEs in R

• Package estimatr was developed just for that!

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- Let's do it together in R!

A Note on "How Robust Standard Errors Expose Methodological Problems They Do Not Fix, and What to Do About It"

Peter M. Aronow* September 8, 2016

Abstract

King and Roberts (2015, KR) claim that a disagreement between robust and classical standard errors exposes model misspecification. We emphasize that KR's claim only generally applies to parametric models: models that assume a restrictive form of the distribution of the outcome. Many common models in use in political science, including the linear model, are not necessarily parametric – rather they may be semiparametric. Common estimators of model parameters such as ordinary least squares have both robust (corresponding to a semiparametric model) and classical (corresponding to a more restrictive model) standard error estimates. Given a properly specified semiparametric model and mild regularity conditions, the classical standard errors are not generally consistent, but the robust standard errors are. To illustrate this point, we consider the case of the regression estimate of a semiparametric linear model with no model misspecification, and show that robust standard errors may nevertheless systematically differ from classical standard errors. We show that a disagreement between robust and classical standard errors is not generally suitable as a diagnostic for regression estimators, and that KR's reanalyses of Neumayer (2003) and Büthe and Milner (2008) are predicated on strong assumptions that the original authors did not invoke nor require.

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- If you'd like to read more:
 - Aronow, P. M. (2016). A Note on" How Robust Standard Errors Expose Methodological Problems They Do Not Fix, and What to Do About It"

P-values in regression outputs

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- Linear regression outputs provide p-values for each estimated coefficient $\hat{\beta}_i$
- Keep in mind that p-values test against the null that $\beta_j=0$. This implies that most often, the p-value associated with β_0 will be very small. That's because the average outcome for control group will rarely be 0.

Combining Linear Regression with Nonparametric Regression to Estimate the non-linear CEF

• For non-linear CEFs, we can combine the kernel method idea of using only local data with linear regression

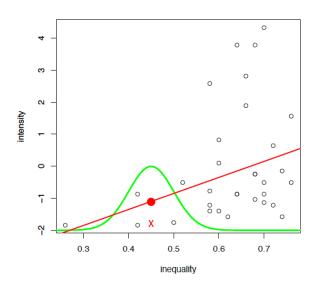
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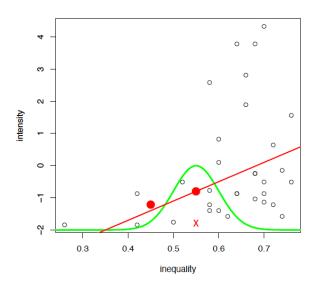
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- Locally weighted scatterplot smoothing (LOWESS or LOESS):

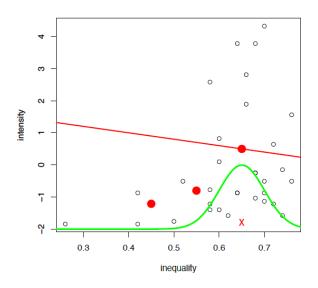
① Pick a subset of the data that falls in the interval [x-h; x+h]

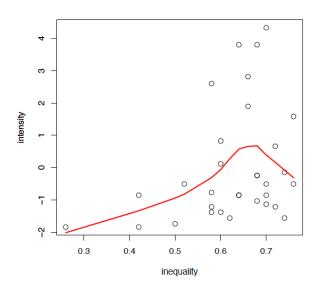
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- ② Fit a line to this subset of the data (= **local linear regression**), weighting the points by their distance to x using a kernel function

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Back up and review

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- The functional form is a line:

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• We need to estimate them using our sample. How?

Simple linear regression model

Let's write our model as:

$$Y_i = r(X_i) + u_i$$

= $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i$

Simple linear regression model

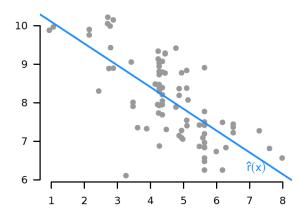
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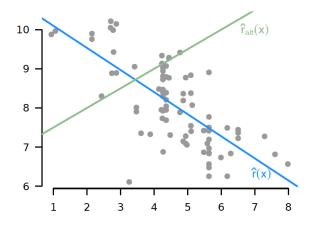
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= $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i$

• Now, suppose we have some estimates of the slope, β_1 and the intercept, β_0 . Then the fitted or sample regression line is:

$$\hat{r}(X) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X$$





Definition: Fitted value

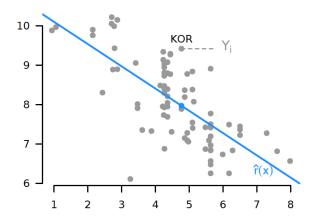
A **fitted value** or **predicted value** is the estimated conditional mean of Y_i for a particular observation with independent variable X_i

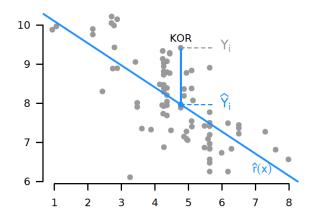
$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{r}(X_i) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

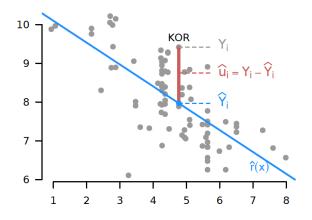
Definition: Residual

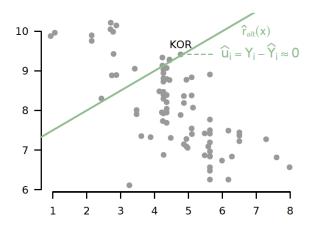
The residual is the difference between the actual value of Y_i and the predicted value, \hat{Y}_i :

$$\hat{u}_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i = Y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$









Least Squares: Minimizing the residuals

- The residuals tell us how well the line fits the data
 - Larger magnitude residuals means that points are very far from the line
 - Residuals close to 0 mean points very close to the line
- \bullet The smaller the magnitude of the residuals, the better we are doing at predicting Y
- Choose the line that minimizes the residuals

Which is better at minimizing residuals?

