## OLSISLR Analytics: Estimating Parameters

- The SLR (Simple Linear Regression) Model Setup
- OLS (Ordinary Least Squares) Estimation: FOCs and SOCs
- OLS and Sample Statistics: Interpreting the OLS Coefficients
- ... $\hat{\beta}_{1}$ : A Weighted Average of Slopes
- OLS Predictions, Residuals and SRFs
- ... Properties of OLS/SLR Residuals
- Units Of Measurement and Estimated Coefficients
- Economic Significance (Meaningfulness): Beta Regressions and Elasticities
- Examples in Excel and Stata


## The SLR (Simple Linear Regression) Model Setup

1. You have a dataset consisting of n observations of two variables $(x, y)$ :
$\left\{\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)\right\} \quad i=1,2, \ldots n$.
2. You believe that except for random noise in the data, there is a linear relationship between the x's and the y's: $y_{i} \sim \beta_{0}+\beta_{1} x_{i} \ldots$ and are interested in estimating the unknown parameters $\beta_{0}$ (the $y$ intercept) and $\beta_{1}$ (the slope).
3. If there was no noise in the data, then since $y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} x_{i}$ for all observations, we could easily determine $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1} .{ }^{1}$ But typically, the relationship is not exactly linear in the observed data.
4. Call your parameter estimates $\hat{\beta}_{0}$ and $\hat{\beta}_{1}$, and your predicted $y$ values $\hat{y}_{i}=\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} x_{i}$.
a. I will try to be consistent and always use $\beta$ 's for true parameter values... and $\hat{\beta}^{\prime}$ 's for estimates of the $\beta$ 's.
5. We call the difference between the observed $y_{i}$ and the predicted value $\hat{y}_{i}=\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} x_{i}$ the residual, $\hat{u}_{i}: \hat{u}_{i}=y_{i}-\hat{y}_{i}=y_{i}-\left(\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} x_{i}\right)$.
6. One measure of how well the predicteds fit the actuals will be the SSRs, the Sum of the Squared

## residuals = actuals - predicteds

Residuals: $S S R=\sum \hat{u}_{i}^{2}=\sum\left(y_{i}-\hat{y}_{i}\right)^{2}$.
a. We square the residuals so that positive and negative residuals won't offset one another when we add them up.

[^0]7. Here's an example (negative residuals for \#1 and \#2; positive residuals for \#3 and \#4):

|  |  | intercept | 0.3 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | slope | 1 |  |
|  |  |  |  | SSRs |
|  |  |  |  | 0.0520 |
| id | x | y | pred | residual |
| 1 | 0.19 | 0.44 | 0.49 | (0.05) |
| 2 | 0.29 | 0.41 | 0.59 | (0.18) |
| 3 | 0.41 | 0.81 | 0.71 | 0.10 |
| 4 | 0.54 | 0.92 | 0.84 | 0.08 |


8. In this example, we have:
a. pred(icteds) computed using an intercept $=.03$ and slope $=1 \ldots$ and $\operatorname{SSR}=.0520$
b. In Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regressions, the goal is to find the coefficient values that minimize the sum of the squared residuals, or SSRs... which is why we
OLS = min SSRs call the estimated coefficients least squares estimates.
9. Here are two more examples:
a. pred1: intercept $=-.07$, slope $=2$, and $\operatorname{SSR}=.0386$ (solid line below)
b. pred2: intercept $=.29$, slope $=1$, and $\mathrm{SSR}=.0507$ (dashed line below)
c. Note that both predicted values are above data point \#2 and below data point \#3... and on opposite sides of data points \#1 and \#3.

10. Perhaps we can do better in terms of minimizing SSRs, but at the moment, the pred1 coefficients do the best job of fitting the data, with $\mathrm{SSR}=.0386$; pred2 is second best with SSR $=.0507$, and pred in the first chart provides the poorest fit to the data, with SSR $=.052$.
11. Take Away: The fit of the predicteds to the actuals will vary as we change the intercept and slope coefficients. The goal is to find the coefficient values that provide in some sense the best fit. One way of measuring the fit for each set of coefficients is to look at SSRs the sum of the squared residuals. The OLS coefficients will provide the best fit of predicteds to actuals, in the sense of having the smallest possible SSR. And that's why we call the estimation technique least squares... or more formally, Ordinary Least Squares.

## OLS (Ordinary Least Squares) Estimation: FOCs and SOCs

12. OLS: Minimize Sum (of the) Squared Residuals (SSRs)
a. The challenge in Ordinary Least Squares is to find the slope coefficient ( $b_{1}$ ) and intercept coefficient ( $b_{0}$ ) that together minimize Sum Squared Residuals (SSR), defined by:

$$
S S R=\sum\left(u_{i}\right)^{2}=\sum\left(y_{i}-\left(b_{0}+b_{1} x_{i}\right)\right)^{2} .
$$

b. To do this, and as you saw in Getting Started II, we'll use First Order Conditions (FOCs) to identify least squares coefficient candidates, and Second Order Conditions (SOCs) to ensure that we have indeed minimized SSRs.
c. Before turning to the math, here's an example of SSR contours for different values of b0 and b1. In the Figure, SSRs are minimized when $b 0=0$
 and $b 1=.5$ :
13. OLS I: Working with standardized variables
a. Assume that the x's and y's have been standardized to have mean zero and variance one, so that $\bar{x}=\bar{y}=0, S_{x}=S_{x x}=S_{y}=S_{y y}=1$, and $S_{x y}=\rho_{x y}$.
b. FOCs: Focus on the FOCs for our minimization problem:
minimize $S S R=\sum\left(y_{i}-\left(b_{0}+b_{1} x_{i}\right)\right)^{2}$ with respect to (wrt) $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$.
i. FOC 1: Differentiating wrt $b_{0}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial S S R}{\partial b_{0}}=-2 \sum\left(y_{i}-b_{0}-b_{1} x_{i}\right) \Rightarrow-2 n \bar{y}+2 n b_{0}+2 b_{1} n \bar{x}=0, \text { and so } /(n-1) \\
& \frac{\partial S S R}{\partial b_{0}}=0 \Leftrightarrow b_{0}=\bar{y}-b_{1} \bar{x}
\end{aligned}
$$

1. Checking a SOC: $\frac{\partial^{2} S S R}{\partial b_{0}^{2}}=2 n>0$, so we have a minimum at $b_{0}$.
ii. Since $\bar{x}=\bar{y}=0, b_{0}^{*}=\bar{y}-b_{1} \bar{x}=0$ is our best estimate for the intercept parameter. ${ }^{2}$
iii. And so our minimization problem becomes: minimize $S S R=\sum\left(y_{i}-b_{1} x_{i}\right)^{2}$ wrt $b_{1}$.
iv. FOC 2: Differentiating $\operatorname{SSR}=\sum\left(y_{i}-b_{1} x_{i}\right)^{2}$ wrt $b_{1}$ :
$\frac{d S S R}{d b_{1}}=-2 \sum x_{i}\left(y_{i}-b_{1} x_{i}\right)=0$. So $\sum\left(x_{i} y_{i}\right)=b_{1} \sum x_{i}^{2}$, and $b_{1}=\frac{\sum\left(x_{i} y_{i}\right)}{\sum x_{i}^{2}}$.
2. Checking a SOC: $\frac{d^{2} S S R}{d b_{0}^{2}}=2 \sum x_{i}^{2}>0$, so we do indeed have a minimum at $b_{1}$.
v. Since $x$ and $y$ are standardized, we have several equivalent expressions for the estimated slope coefficient:

$$
b_{1}^{*}=\frac{\sum\left(x_{i} y_{i}\right)}{\sum x_{i}^{2}}=\frac{\left[\sum\left(x_{i} y_{i}\right)\right] /(n-1)}{\left[\sum x_{i}^{2}\right] /(n-1)}=\frac{S_{x y}}{S_{x x}}=\rho_{x y} .
$$

c. Accordingly, the predicted values generated by OLS with standardized variables are defined by: $\hat{y}_{i}=\rho_{x y} x_{i}$. Now you know why it is sometimes said that OLS parameter estimates capture the correlations between variables. And now you perhaps better understand the results in qFlip01!

[^1]14. OLS II: ... more generally ...
a. Now, turn to the more general case in which the x's and y's have not been standardized.
b. Focusing on the FOCs for our minimization problem:
minimize $\operatorname{SSR}=\sum\left(y_{i}-\left(b_{0}+b_{1} x_{i}\right)\right)^{2}$ with respect to (wrt) $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$.
i. FOC 1: Differentiating wrt $b_{0}$ :
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial S S R}{\partial b_{0}}=-2 \sum\left(y_{i}-b_{0}-b_{1} x_{i}\right) \Rightarrow-2 n \bar{y}+2 n b_{0}+2 b_{1} n \bar{x}=0, \text { and so } \\
& \frac{\partial S S R}{\partial b_{0}}=0 \Leftrightarrow b_{0}=\bar{y}-b_{1} \bar{x}
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

1. So as before, the intercept estimate will be equal to the mean of the $y$ 's less the slope estimate times the mean of the $x$ 's. You don't yet know what the intercept and slope estimates are... but you know that for FOC 1 to be satisfied, they ( $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$ ) have to satisfy this relationship.
2. The following Figure is illustrative... and assumes $\bar{y}>0$ and $\bar{x}>0$. FOC 1 implies that the $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$ that minimize SSRs must lie on the straight line defined by $b_{0}=\bar{y}-b_{1} \bar{x}$. To find the exact SSR minimizing values of $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$, we turn to FOC 2.

ii. Since $S S R=\sum\left[y_{i}-\left(b_{0}+b_{1} x_{i}\right)\right]^{2}$ and $b_{0}=\bar{y}-b_{1} \bar{x}$, we now want to minimize

$$
\operatorname{SSR}=\sum\left[y_{i}-\left(\bar{y}-b_{1} \bar{x}+b_{1} x_{i}\right)\right]^{2}=\sum\left[\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)-b_{1}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\right]^{2}, \text { wrt } b_{1} .
$$

iii. FOC 2: Differentiating wrt $b_{1}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d S S R}{d b_{1}}=-2 \sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\left[\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)-b_{1}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\right]=0 . \text { So } \\
& \sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)=b_{1} \sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}, \text { and } b_{1}=\frac{\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)}{\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

c. The SOCs are more complicated and will be skipped, but rest assured that they are satisfied and the FOCs identify the global minimum of the SSRs. For some intuition: the two second derivatives (wrt $b_{0}$ and wrt $b_{1}$ ) are both positive, suggesting that we may indeed have identified a minimum with the FOCs:
i. Differentiating FOC $1: \frac{\partial^{2} S S R}{\partial b_{0}^{2}}=2 n>0$, and
ii. Differentiating FOC 2: $\frac{d^{2} S S R}{d b_{1}^{2}}=-2(-1) \sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}>0$.

## OLS and Sample Statistics : Interpreting the OLS coefficients

15. The OLS estimated coefficients
a. For the given sample, the OLS estimates of the unknown intercept and slope parameters are:

$$
\hat{\beta}_{1}=\frac{\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)}{\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}} \text {, and } \hat{\beta}_{0}=\bar{y}-\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}
$$

As previously mentioned, we use "hats" to denote estimates.
b. Since $\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)=0, \sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)=\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right) y_{i}-\bar{y} \sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)=\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right) y_{i} \ldots$ as discussed in the Sample Statistics section of Getting Started II. Accordingly, we have an alternative expression for the estimated slope coefficient which will prove useful later:

$$
\hat{\beta}_{1}=\frac{\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right) y_{i}}{\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}} .
$$

c. $\quad \hat{\beta}_{0}$ and the sample means
i. Since $\hat{\beta}_{0}=\bar{y}-\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}$, the estimated intercept is the sample mean of the $y$ 's minus $\hat{\beta}_{1}$ times the sample mean of the $x$ 's.
ii. The estimate of the intercept assures that the average predicted value, $\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}$, is the same as the average observed value $\bar{y}$, since $\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}=\left(\bar{y}-\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}\right)+\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}=\bar{y}$.
d. $\hat{\beta}_{1}$ and the sample variances, covariance and correlation
i. If we divide the numerator and denominator of the $\hat{\beta}_{1}$ equation by ( $n-1$ ), then using the sample statistics notation from Getting Started II, we have:

$$
\hat{\beta}_{1}=\frac{\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)}{\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}}=\frac{\left[\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)\right] /(n-1)}{\left[\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}\right] /(n-1)}=\frac{S_{x y}}{S_{x x}} .
$$

ii. Accordingly, the OLS slope estimator is just the ratio of the sample covariance of $x$ 's and $y$ 's and the sample variance of the $x$ 's:

$$
\hat{\beta}_{1}=\frac{\text { Sample Covariance }(x, y)}{\text { Sample Variance }(x)}
$$

iii. Recall that the sample correlation is defined by: $\rho_{x y}=\frac{S_{x y}}{S_{x} S_{y}}$, where $S_{x}$ and $S_{y}$ are the square roots of the respective sample variances.
iv. Since $\rho_{x y}=\frac{S_{x y}}{S_{x} S_{y}}=\frac{S_{x y}}{S_{x x}} \frac{S_{x}}{S_{y}}$, we have: $\hat{\beta}_{1}=\frac{S_{x y}}{S_{x x}}=\rho_{x y} \frac{S_{y}}{S_{x}}$.
e. And so once the slope coefficient is determined, the SSR minimizing intercept coefficient follows from FOC 1:

f. OLS/SLR Slope Estimate ~ Correlation: So the regression slope coefficient is the product of the sample correlation between the $x$ 's and $y$ 's and the ratio of the two estimated standard deviations:

$$
\hat{\beta}_{1}=\operatorname{Sample} \operatorname{Correlation}(x, y) \frac{\text { Sample StdDev }(y)}{\text { Sample StdDev }(x)}
$$

i. If the two sample standard deviations are the same then the estimated slope coefficient will be the estimated correlation between the $x$ 's and $y$ 's. You saw this in the first instance when we considered SLR models with standardized variables, with $S_{x}=S_{y}=1$.
ii. Indeed it is not unusual to think of the OLS slope estimate $\hat{\beta}_{1}$ as reflecting the correlation between the x's and y's. Since $\hat{\beta}_{1}=\rho_{x y} \frac{S_{y}}{S_{x}}$ the sign of the estimated slope coefficient, $\hat{\beta}_{1}$, is the same as the sign of the correlation between x and $\mathrm{y}, \rho_{x y}$
(assuming that the ratio of standard deviations positive, which it always is unless one of the standard deviations is zero).

## $\hat{\beta}_{1}$ : A Weighted Average of Slopes

16. The estimated slope coefficient is a weighted average of slopes of lines joining the various data points to the sample means $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ :
$\hat{\beta}_{1}=\sum_{i} w_{i}\left[\frac{\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)}{\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)}\right]=\sum_{i} w_{i}$ slope $_{i}$.
a. This result holds because

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{\beta}_{1}=\frac{\sum_{i}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)}{(n-1) S_{x x}} \\
& =\sum_{i}\left[\frac{\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}}{(n-1) S_{x x}}\right]\left[\frac{\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)}{\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)}\right] \\
& =\sum_{i} w_{i}\left[\frac{\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)}{\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)}\right]=\sum_{i} w_{i} \text { slope }_{i}, \text { where }
\end{aligned}
$$


slope $_{i}=\frac{\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)}{\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)}$ is the slope of the line connecting $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ to $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$, and $w_{i}=\frac{\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}}{(n-1) S_{x x}}=\frac{\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}}{\sum_{j}\left(x_{j}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}}$.
b. By construction, the $w_{i}$ 's are non-negative weights, which sum to 1 .
c. Accordingly, in the equation for $\hat{\beta}_{1}$, the slopes are weighted proportionally to $\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}$, the square of the various x -distances from the x mean.
d. In this interpretation, note that the data points are not weighted equally (that would be another estimator... but not OLS). Those that are farther away from $\bar{X}$ (in the x dimension) get greater weight, and that weight increases with the square of the $x$-distance from $\bar{X}$.
e. Here's an example: The blue dots are the data points; the horizontal and vertical black lines are at the sample means; the blue lines are the lines connecting the data points to the sample means; and the think black line shows the predicted Brozek values given the slope and intercept estimates.
i. Note that in the weighted averaging of slopes, one data point, $(125.75,1.90)$, gets two thirds of the weight, and when combined with (223, 27.50), those two data points get $95 \%$ of the weight. So even though there are four data points, the slope estimate is being largely driven by just two of the data points.

## OLS Slope Estimate: Weighted Average of slopes

| Means | 184.688 | 19.900 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Case | wgt | Brozek | x-dist | $y$-dist | slope | (x-dist) ${ }^{\wedge} 2$ | wgt | wgt*slope |
| 172 | 125.75 | 1.90 | 58.94 | 18.00 | 0.31 | 3,473.63 | 67\% | 0.2050 |
| 36 | 191.75 | 38.20 | (7.06) | (18.30) | 2.59 | 49.88 | 1\% | 0.0250 |
| 10 | 198.25 | 12.00 | (13.56) | 7.90 | (0.58) | 183.94 | 4\% | (0.0207) |
| 205 | 223 | 27.50 | (38.31) | (7.60) | 0.20 | 1,467.85 | 28\% | 0.0563 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 5,175.30 | 100\% | 0.2655 |



## OLS Predictions, Residuals and SRFs

17. OLS coefficient estimates will generate predicted values, $\hat{y}$ 's, and residuals, $\hat{u}$ 's :
a. Predicted values: For given $x_{i}$, the predicted $y_{i}$ value given the estimated coefficients is: $\hat{y}_{i}=\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} x_{i}$ (recall again that we use "hats" for predicted or estimated values).
b. Sample Regression Function (SRF): The predicted values from the estimated equation, $\hat{y}=\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} x$, comprise the Sample Regression Function.
c. Residuals: And for the given predicted $y_{i}$ value, the residual, $\hat{u}_{i}$, is as above the difference between the actual and predicted values: $\hat{u}_{i}=y_{i}-\hat{y}_{i}=y_{i}-\left(\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} x_{i}\right)$.
18. To illustrate predicteds (from the SRF) and residuals, we turn to the bodyfat dataset and a regression of Brozek on BMI, with an SRF defined by: $\widehat{\text { brozek }}=-20.41+1.55 \mathrm{bmi}$.
a. The following chart on the left illustrates the relationship between the SRF (predicteds) and the actuals (the actual $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ data points).


b. And on the right you see a graph of the residuals from the analysis.
i. You shouldn't be surprised to see the SRF slice through the dataset... since we estimated the coefficients by minimizing SSRs.
ii. And you should not be surprised to see the residuals evenly dispersed above and below 0 , since by construction, and as you'll see below, the residuals will have sample mean 0 .
iii. But what about that rogue residual in the lower right corner of the Figure? Need to check on that!
19. SRFs will depend on the actual sample used to estimate the slope and intercept parameters... different samples will typically lead to different parameter estimates and accordingly, different SRFs. But there are some consistent outcomes with SRFs:
a. The SRF always passes through the sample means, $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$.
i. $\quad \hat{\beta}_{0}=\bar{y}-\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}$ assures that the SRF passes through $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ since as previously discussed, the value of the SRF at $\bar{x}$ is $\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}=\left(\bar{y}-\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}\right)+\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}=\bar{y}$
b. $\quad \rho_{y \hat{y}}=\rho_{y x}$ : SampleCorrelation(predicteds, actuals) = SampleCorrelation(x's, y's)
i. The sample correlation between the actuals and predicted values is the same as the sample correlation between the actuals and the $x$ 's: $\rho_{y \hat{y}}=\rho_{y x}$. Proof below. ${ }^{3}$
... Properties of OLS/SLR Residuals
20. Recall that the residuals are defined by: $\hat{u}_{i}=y_{i}-\hat{y}_{i}=y_{i}-\left(\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} x_{i}\right)$. We have the following properties of residuals:
21. Average residuals: The average residual is zero: $\frac{1}{n} \sum \hat{u}_{i}=\bar{y}-\left(\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}\right)=0$
22. Correlation I: The sample correlation between the $x_{i}{ }^{\prime} s$ and the $\hat{u}_{i}$ 's is zero, since $\sum \hat{u}_{i}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)=0$. Proof below. ${ }^{4}$
23. Correlation II: The sample correlation between the predicted values ( $\hat{y}_{i} \mathrm{~s}$ ) and the residuals ( $\hat{u}_{i} \mathrm{~s}$ ) is zero. Proof below. ${ }^{5}$

## predicteds and residuals are uncorrelated

24. Decomposition: And so OLS essentially decomposes actual $y_{i}$ 's s into two uncorrelated parts, predicteds and residuals: $y_{i}=\hat{y}_{i}+\hat{u}_{i}$ and $\hat{\rho}_{\hat{y} \hat{u}}=0$. This result will prove useful later.

$$
y_{i}=\hat{y}_{i}+\hat{u}_{i} \quad \hat{\rho}_{\hat{y} \hat{u}}=0
$$

${ }^{3}$ Since $\rho_{y \hat{y}}=\frac{S_{y \hat{y}}}{S_{y} S_{\hat{y}}}$, and since $S_{y \hat{y}}=S_{y\left(\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} x\right)}=S_{y \hat{\beta}_{0}}+\hat{\beta}_{1} S_{y x}=\hat{\beta}_{1} S_{y x}$, and since $S_{\hat{y} \hat{y}}=\hat{\beta}_{1}^{2} S_{x x}$, we have: $\rho_{y \hat{y}}=\frac{S_{y \hat{y}}}{S_{y} S_{\hat{y}}}=\frac{\hat{\beta}_{1} S_{y x}}{S_{y} \hat{\beta}_{1} S_{x}}=\frac{S_{y x}}{S_{y} S_{x}}=\rho_{y x}$.
${ }^{4} \sum \hat{u}_{i}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)=\sum\left(y_{i}-\hat{y}_{i}\right)\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)=\sum\left(y_{i}-\left(\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} x_{i}\right)\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\right.$. But since $\hat{\beta}_{0}=\bar{y}-\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}$, the last expression is $\sum\left(y_{i}-\left(\bar{y}-\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}+\hat{\beta}_{1} x_{i}\right)\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)=\sum\left(\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)-\hat{\beta}_{1}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\right)\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\right.$ $=\sum\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)-\hat{\beta}_{1} \sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}=0$ given the definition of $\hat{\beta}_{1}$. ${ }^{5} \sum\left(\hat{u}_{i}-\overline{\hat{u}}\right)\left(\hat{y}_{i}-\overline{\hat{y}}\right)=\sum \hat{u}_{i}\left(\hat{y}_{i}-\bar{y}\right)=\hat{\beta}_{1} \sum\left(y_{i}-\hat{y}_{i}\right)\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)$, which is zero (see previous proof).
25. Since the predicted and residuals have zero covariance, the variance of their sum is the sum of their variance: $S_{y y}=S_{\hat{y} \hat{y}}+S_{\hat{u} \hat{u}}$.
Var(actuals) = Var(predicteds) + Var(residuals)
26. Multiplying through by ( $\mathrm{n}-1$ ), we also have:

$$
\sum\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)^{2}=\sum\left(\hat{y}_{i}-\bar{y}\right)^{2}+\sum \hat{u}_{i}^{2}
$$

since the mean of the predicted y's is the mean of the actuals, $\frac{1}{n} \sum \hat{y}_{i}=\bar{y}$, and since the residuals have mean $0, \frac{1}{n} \sum \hat{u}_{i}=0$. This result will prove especially useful later.

## Units of Measurement and Estimated Coefficients

27. It is of so tempting to see large estimated coefficients and to rejoice in thinking that you've found a large effect... or to see a small estimated coefficient and to fall into the depths of depression thinking that you've found no real effect at all. And in both cases, you would be seriously in error... falling into the the trap of thinking that the magnitudes of the estimated coefficients tell you something meaningful. They do not... as they are sensitive to units of measurement.
28. If you change units of measurement, you will change OLS estimated coefficients... or put differently, you can make the magnitudes of those coefficients as large or small as you want just by changing units of measurement.
29. Here's why:

a. Consider the standard SLR model in which you've regressed $y$ on $x$. You know from above that the estimated OLS slope and intercept coefficients will be defined by:

$$
\hat{\beta}_{1}=\frac{S_{x y}}{S_{x x}}=\rho_{x y} \frac{S_{y}}{S_{x}} \text { and } \hat{\beta}_{0}=\bar{y}-\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x} .
$$

b. Now suppose that you rescale x to create a new variable $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{v}=\lambda_{x} \mathrm{x}$, where $\lambda_{x}>0$ so that you preserve the sign of the variable. For example:


1. Perhaps $x$ was originally height measured in feet... and now $v$ is height measured in inches. Then $\lambda_{x}=12$, and $v=12 x$.
ii. Or maybe $x$ was originally volume measured in gallons... and now $v$ is volume measured in quarts, so that $\lambda_{x}=4$, and $v=4 x$.

You get the idea.
c. This rescaling will impact the sample mean and standard deviation:

$$
\bar{v}=\lambda_{x} \bar{x} \text { and } S_{v}=\lambda_{x} S_{x} .
$$

d. Suppose you also rescale the $y$ 's as well: $w=\lambda_{y} y$. This will similarly impact the mean and standard deviation: $\bar{w}=\lambda_{y} \bar{y}$ and $S_{w}=\lambda_{y} S_{y}$.
e. But recall that rescaling both the $x$ 's and the $y$ 's will not impact the sample correlations, so that: $\rho_{v w}=\rho_{x y}$. This will proves to be an important feature.
f. Now if you regress the rescaled variables on one another (you regress $w$ on $v$ ), the new OLS coefficient estimates will be defined by:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { slope }=\rho_{v w} \frac{S_{w}}{S_{v}}=\rho_{x y} \frac{\lambda_{y} S_{y}}{\lambda_{x} S_{x}}=\frac{\lambda_{y}}{\lambda_{x}} \rho_{x y} \frac{S_{y}}{S_{x}}=\frac{\lambda_{y}}{\lambda_{x}} \hat{\beta}_{1} \text { and } \\
& \text { _cons }=\bar{w}-(\text { slope }) \bar{v}=\lambda_{y} \bar{y}-\left(\frac{\lambda_{y}}{\lambda_{x}} \hat{\beta}_{1}\right) \lambda_{x} \bar{x}=\lambda_{y}\left(\bar{y}-\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}\right)=\lambda_{y} \hat{\beta}_{0}
\end{aligned}
$$

30. Accordingly:
a. Changes in the units of measurement of the RHS $x$ variable will proportionately impact the estimated slope coefficient... and have no impact on the estimated intercept. In a sense, the estimated coefficient will unwind the rescaling of the variable. In the previous examples:
i. feet to inches: x is 12 times larger, slope is $1 / 12^{\text {th }}$ the size.... and slope ${ }^{*} \mathrm{x}$ is unchanged
ii. gallons to quarts: $x$ is 4 times larger, slope is $1 / 4^{\text {th }}$ the size.... and slope ${ }^{*} x$ is unchanged
b. Changes in the units of measurement of the LHS $y$ variable will proportionately impact both the estimated slope and intercept coefficients.
c. And if you rescale both variables, the impacts on the estimated slope and intercept coefficients will be some combination of the above..
31. To repeat: The magnitudes of the estimated coefficients will be dependent on the units of measurement, and in that sense, will typically tell you little about the meaningfulness of the estimated effect. There are exceptions, of course... but they are not the norm.
32. Or put differently: Don’t fall into the trap of thinking that the sizes/magnitudes of estimated coefficients tell you anything useful, as they are driven in part by the units of measurement. In contrast: the sign of slope coefficient (which does not change with rescaling) does tell you the direction of the estimated effect. So pay attention to signs... but not so much to magnitudes... unless you have specific reasons for thinking that the magnitudes are meaningful.
33. But then, how do we assess meaningfulness?

## Economic Significance (Meaningfulness): Beta Regressions and Elasticities

34. Once the unknown parameters have been estimated using OLS, the obvious question is: What do those estimates tell you? Do they suggest that there is a meaningful relationship between changes in the $x$ 's and predicted changes in the $y$ 's? Or maybe not? How do you tell?
35. Later, we will address this question from a statistical perspective, using the tools of statistical inference and the concept of statistical significance. But for now, we focus on a more commonsensical approach to answering the question: How (economically) meaningful is the estimated relationship? Do you want to brag about it to the world? Or will everyone just laugh at you, and tell you that what you've estimated is trivial, and of little consequence?
36. Meaningfulness is definitely in the eye of the beholder. Nonetheless, there are some systematic ways in which researchers tackle the question: Beta Regressions and Elasticities

## Meaningfulness I: Beta Regressions

37. One way around the issue of sensitivity to units of measurement is to first standardize your variables before you run your regression. By subtracting means and dividing by standard deviations, you will transform your variables into variables with mean zero and unit variances and standard deviations. More importantly, your standardized variables will be insensitive to units of measurement... or put differently: changes in units of measurement will have no impact on the standardized variables.
38. More formally:
a. Create the z's by standardizing the x's: $z_{i}=\frac{x_{i}-\bar{x}}{S_{x}}$.
b. Suppose you rescale the x's as above: $v=\lambda_{x} x \ldots$ so $\bar{v}=\lambda_{x} \bar{x}$ and $S_{v}=\lambda_{x} S_{x}$.
c. Then the standardize v's will be defined by: $\frac{v_{i}-\bar{v}}{S_{v}}=\frac{\lambda_{x} x_{i}-\lambda_{x} \bar{x}}{\lambda_{x} S_{x}}=\frac{x_{i}-\bar{x}}{S_{x}}=z_{i}$.
d. Changes in units of measurement will have no impact on the standardized variable... standardization negates the impact of any change in units of measurement.
e. And so regressions run with standardized variables will be unaffected by changes in units of measurement.
39. Beta regressions: With beta regressions, we just regress the standardized y on the standardized x . As you saw earlier in the semester, the OLS estimated intercept will be zero, since both standardized variables have mean zero, and the estimated slope coefficient will just be the sample correlation between the x's and y's (which is unaffected by rescaling).
40. To run these in Stata, just add , beta to your reg command. Here's an example, working with the bodyfat dataset:

41. The reported Coef.'s are the usual OLS coefficients from regressing y on x. The coefficients for the Beta Regression are on the far right of the results table.... and as expected, the estimated intercept is 0 and the estimated slope is just the sample correlation between Brozek and BMI.
42. There are two interpretations of the estimated beta regression slope coefficient:
a. As mentioned above, the beta regression slope coefficient will be the sample correlation between $x$ and $y$, which is invariant with respect to changes in units of measurement.
b. The results above say that a one standard deviation increase in BMI is on average associated with a .73 standard deviation increase in Brozek. So the beta regression slope coefficient captures effects measured in standard deviation units. And those effects will not vary with units of measurement.
43. Since the slope estimates in Beta regressions are correlations, they are bounded between -1 and $+1 \ldots$ and we have a sense of their magnitude: closer to zero, not so meaningful... and closer to -1 or +1 , and we'd say that there was a meaningful relationship. For the . 73 magnitude above, most would say that the estimated relationship was meaningful... and surely no one would laugh at that claim. Though never forget that meaningfulness is in the eye of the beholder.

## Meaningfulness II: Elasticities

44. In economics and mathematics, we typically use derivatives to assess relationships between changes in one variable, say, x, and changes in another, say y. But derivatives are sensitive to units of measurement... and so to circumvent this problem, economists often turn to elasticities, which provide a unit free measure of responsiveness (of the predicted $\hat{y}$ 's to changes in the x's):
elasticity $=\frac{\% \Delta \hat{y}}{\% \Delta x} \ldots$ the elasticity captures the estimated relationship between percentage changes in x and percentage changes in the predicted values.
45. Using the SRF to estimate relationships: $\hat{y}=\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} x$.
a. Derivative: The estimated average marginal relationship between x and $\hat{y}: \frac{d}{d x} \hat{y}=\hat{\beta}_{1}$.

Note that you can read the derivative right off the regression output (it's the estimated slope coefficient, $\hat{\beta}_{1}$ ).
b. (Point) Elasticity: $\frac{x}{\hat{y}} \frac{d}{d x} \hat{y}=\hat{\beta}_{1} \frac{x}{\hat{y}}$ evaluated at $(x, \hat{y})=\left(x, \hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} x\right)$, somewhere along the SRF.... Evaluate where? Your call!
i. Where you evaluate the elasticity on the SRF is often arbitrary... but be sure to evaluate the elasticity at some point on the SRF. You will typically get different elasticities depending on where along the SRF you estimate the elasticity... but maybe they don't change much as you move along the SRF.
ii. We often evaluate the elasticity at the means (which are by definition in the middle of the dataset): $\hat{\beta}_{1} \frac{\bar{x}}{\bar{y}}$

1. Recall that the mean of the predicted values will be $\bar{y} \ldots$ and that the SRF passes through $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})=\left(\bar{x}, \hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}\right)$.
2. You can use the margins command in Stata to generate the elasticities. Let's return to the previous example and regress Brozek on BMI. To generate the elasticity, we first run the regression, and then follow that with the margins command:
. reg Brozek BMI


3. While you can evaluate the elasticity (eyex in the syntax) at different points, the atmeans options will generate the elasticity at the means... which is 2.08 . Most would say that an elasticity of that magnitude (suggesting that a $10 \%$ increase in BMI s associated with a $21 \%$ increase in predicted Brozek) is highly meaningful.
4. While there's no official border separating elasticities for meaningful effects from those that are not so meaningful, I think it's fair to say that everyone agrees that elasticities above 1 (and even .5) in magnitude suggest a meaningful effect, and those below .05 might suggest a not so meaningful estimated relationship. If I had to pick a zone of indifference, I'd say that it might be in the neighborhood of .1 ... but this is clearly a judgement call.
5. Often elasticities are so small or so large, no one needs to worry about picking a dividing line for meaningfulness. But unfortunately, that is not always the case... in which case reasonable people may disagree.

## Beta Regressions v. Elasticities:

50. In our bodyfat example, the beta regression and elasticities approaches both suggest that there is a highly meaningful and positive relationship between BMI and Brozek. I should warn you though that while these two approaches almost always lead to consistent interpretations, that won't always happen.
51. In that case, you can throw your hands in the air... or maybe just fall back on the eyeball and laughability tests. Do your critics laugh at you when you claim to have found a meaningful effect? Or maybe they agree with you, even though no one agrees on exactly how to define meaningfulness.

## Examples in Excel and Stata

## Let's first do this in Excel.

Open the bodyfat dataset in Excel. Generate the x-y scatterplot of Brozek v. wgt, and "add trendline". You should see something like:

| Case | wgt | $\begin{array}{\|r\|} \hline \text { Brozek } \\ \hline 12.6 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | 60 |  |  | Brozek |  |  |  | $y=0.1617 x-9.9952$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 154.25 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 173.25 | 6.9 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 154 | 24.6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | 184.75 | 10.9 | 50 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | 184.25 | 27.8 |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 210.25 | 20.6 | 40 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | 181 | 19 |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8 | 176 | 12.8 | 30 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |
| 9 | 191 | 5.1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 10 | 198.25 | 12 | 20 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11 | 186.25 | 7.5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 12 | 216 | 8.5 | 10 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 13 | 180.5 | 20.5 | 10 |  |  |  | 1 |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |
| 14 | 205.25 | 20.8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 15 | 187.75 | 21.7 |  | 0 | 50 | 100 | 150 | 200 | 250 |  | 300 | 350 | 400 |
| 16 | 162.75 | 20.5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Trendline fits a straight line to the data... and that straight line is in fact generated by the OLS
Excel Trendline = OLS/SLR intercept and slope coefficients!
For Brozek and wgt, compute sample means, variances, standard deviations, as well as the covariance and correlation, and apply the various formulae for the OLS slope and intercept estimates. You should get something like:

|  |  |  | Sample Variances |  | Sample Cov | Sample Corr | Slope estimates |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | 863.72 | 60.08 | 139.67 | 0.6132 | Sxy/Sxx | 0.1617 |
|  |  | StDevs | 29.39 | 7.75 |  |  | corr*(Sy/Sy) | 0.1617 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | Sum S | quares | Sum |  | Interce |  |
| Means | 178.924 | 18.938 | 216,794.40 | 15,079.02 | 35,057.55 |  | Bbar-b1*wbar | (9.9952) |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Case | wgt | Brozek | wgt-wbar | Brozek-Bbar | product |  |  |  |
| 1 | 154.25 | 12.6 | (24.67) | (6.34) | 156.40 |  |  |  |
| 2 | 173.25 | 6.9 | (5.67) | (12.04) | 68.31 |  |  |  |
| 3 | 154 | 24.6 | (24.92) | 5.66 | (141.11) |  |  |  |
| 4 | 184.75 | 10.9 | 5.83 | (8.04) | (46.83) |  |  |  |
| 5 | 184.25 | 27.8 | 5.33 | 8.86 | 47.19 |  |  |  |

So who knew? The Excel Trendline is generated by OLS!

## Running regressions in Excel

You can also run the OLS regression in Excel using Data/Data Analysis/Regression (you may have to load the Data Analysis Tool-Pak (go to Options/Add-Ins):


| SUMMARY OUTPUT |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Regression Statistics |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Multiple R | 0.61316 |  |  |  |  |  |
| R Square | 0.37596 |  |  |  |  |  |
| Adjusted R Square | 0.37346 |  |  |  |  |  |
| Standard Error | 6.13511 |  |  |  |  |  |
| Observations | 252 |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ANOVA |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | df | SS | MS | $F$ | Significance F |  |
| Regression | 1 | 5,669.11 | 5,669.11 | 150.62 | 2.05905E-27 |  |
| Residual | 250 | 9,409.90 | 37.64 |  |  |  |
| Total | 251 | 15,079.02 |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Coefficients | Standard Error | t Stat | $P$-value | Lower 95\% | Upper 95\% |
| Intercept | (9.9952) | 2.3891 | (4.18) | 3.97276E-05 | (14.7004) | (5.2899) |
| wgt | 0.1617 | 0.0132 | 12.27 | 2.05905E-27 | 0.1358 | 0.1877 |

Same OLS slope and intercept!

## Now for Stata.



Sorted by:
. reg Brozek wgt

| Source | SS | df | MS | Number of obs | 252 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | F(1, 250) | 150.62 |
| Model | 5669.11335 | 1 | 5669.11335 | Prob > F | 0.0000 |
| Residual | 9409.90327 | 250 | 37.6396131 | R-squared | 0.3760 |
|  |  |  |  | Adj R-squared | 0.3735 |
| Total | 15079.0166 | 251 | 60.0757635 | Root MSE | 6.1351 |
| Brozek | Coef. | Std. Err. | t P | P>\|t| [95\% Con | Interval] |
| wgt | . 1617088 | . 0131765 | 12.27 | 0.000 .1357578 | . 1876598 |
| _cons | -9.995151 | 2.389056 | -4.18 0 | $0.000-14.70039$ | -5.289908 |

predict bhat
scatter bhat Brozek wgt


Use the summarize, correlation and display commands to generate the OLS slope and intercept estimates:

```
. summ Brozek wgt
```

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Brozek | 252 | 18.93849 | 7.750856 | 0 | 45.1 |
| wgt | 252 | 178.9244 | 29.38916 | 118.5 | 363.15 |

. corr Brozek wgt, covar

|  | Brozek | wgt |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Brozek | 60.0758 |  |
| wgt | 139.672 | 863.723 |

slope coefficient 1: ratio of sample covariance to sample variance

```
. di 139.672 / 863.723
. }1617092
intercept estimate:
. di 18.93849 - .16170925 * 178.9244
-9.9952405
. corr Brozek wgt
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & Brozek & wgt \\
\hline Brozek & 1.0000 & \\
\hline wgt & 0.6132 & 1.0000 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

slope coefficient 2: (sample corr) (ratio of sample standard deviations)

```
. di 0.6132 * 7.750856 / 29.38916
. }1617203
```

Verify that the correlation of Brozek with wgt is the same as the correlation of Brozek with bhat:

```
. corr Brozek bhat wgt
```

|  | Brozek | bhat | wgt |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Brozek | 1.0000 |  |  |
| bhat | 0.6132 | 1.0000 |  |
| wgt | 0.6132 | 1.0000 | 1.0000 |

Capture the residuals and verify that they are uncorrelated with the predicteds (bhats) and as well with the explanatory variable (wgt)

```
. predict resids, res
. corr bhat wgt resids
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & bhat & wgt & resids \\
\hline bhat & 1.0000 & & \\
\hline wgt & 1.0000 & 1.0000 & \\
\hline resids & -0.0000 & -0.0000 & 1.0000 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

Elasticity at the means.
Evaluate the elasticity associated with the estimated OLS coefficients:
. di .1617088*178.9244/ 18.93849
1.5277696

Or just run the margins command right after the reg command

```
. reg Brozek wgt
. margins, eyex(_all) atmeans
Conditional marginal effects Number of obs = 252
Model VCE : OLS
Expression : Linear prediction, predict()
ey/ex w.r.t. : wgt
at : wgt = 178.9244 (mean)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{Delta-method} & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{[95\% Conf. Interval]} \\
\hline wgt & 1.527769 & . 1283313 & 11.90 & 0.000 & 1.275021 & 1.780517 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

And how about a Beta Regression?

| Source | SS | df | MS | Number of obs | = | 252 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | F(1, 250) | = | 150.62 |
| Model | 5669.11335 | 1 | 5669.11335 | Prob > F | = | 0.0000 |
| Residual | 9409.90327 | 250 | 37.6396131 | R -squared | = | 0.3760 |
|  |  |  |  | Adj R-squared | = | 0.3735 |
| Total | 15079.0166 | 251 | 60.0757635 | Root MSE | = | 6.1351 |
| Brozek | Coef. | Std. Err. | t P | $P>\|t\|$ |  | Beta |
| wgt | . 1617088 | . 0131765 | 12.27 | 0.000 |  | . 6131561 |
| _cons | -9.995151 | 2.389056 | -4.18 | 0.000 |  |  |

As you saw before, the beta regression slope coefficient is just the correlation between Brozek and wgt. The following shows that the Beta regression is as advertised... it's what you get when you first standardize your variables before running OLS. You'll see that you can use use egen and the std(.) function to easily standardize your variables:

```
. egen zBrozek=std(Brozek)
. egen zwgt=std(wgt)
. reg zBrozek zwgt
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Source & SS & df & MS & Number of obs & 252 \\
\hline & & & & F(1, 250) & 150.62 \\
\hline Model & 94.3660642 & 1 & 94.3660642 & Prob > F & 0.0000 \\
\hline Residual & 156.633936 & 250 & . 626535743 & R -squared & 0.3760 \\
\hline & & & & Adj R-squared & 0.3735 \\
\hline Total & 251 & 251 & . 999999999 & Root MSE & 79154 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline zBrozek & Coef. & Std. Err. & t & \(\mathrm{P}>|\mathrm{t}|\) & [95\% Conf & Interval] \\
\hline zwgt & . 6131561 & . 0499616 & 12.27 & 0.000 & . 5147569 & . 7115553 \\
\hline _cons & -1.39e-09 & . 0498623 & -0.00 & 1.000 & -. 0982038 & . 0982038 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

Finally: About that sensitivity to scale... Here are some regression results, with height in feet, inches, meters and centimeters (notice the use of eststo and esttab to compile the results).

```
. gen hgt_ft = hgt/12
. gen hgt_cm = hgt_m*100
. reg Brozek hgt_ft
. eststo
. reg Brozek hgt
. eststo
. reg Brozek hgt_m
. eststo
. reg Brozek hgt_cm
. eststo
. esttab
```

|  | (1) <br> Brozek (feet) | $\begin{array}{r} (2) \\ \text { Brozek } \\ \text { (inches) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { (3) } \\ \text { Brozek } \\ \text { (meters) } \end{gathered}$ | (4) <br> Brozek (centimeters) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hgt_ft | $\frac{-2.263}{(-1.41)}$ |  |  |  |
| hgt |  | $\frac{-0.189}{(-1.41)}$ |  |  |
| hgt_m |  |  | $\frac{-7.423}{(-1.41)}$ |  |
| hgt_cm |  |  |  | $\frac{-0.0742}{(-1.41)}$ |
| _cons | $\frac{32.17}{(3.44)}^{* * *}$ | $\frac{32.17}{(3.44)}^{* * *}$ | $\frac{32.17}{(3.44)}^{* * *}$ | $\frac{32.17}{(3.44)}^{* * *}$ |
| N | 252 | 252 | 252 | 252 |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{t} \text { stat } \\ & \text { * } \mathrm{p}<0 . \end{aligned}$ | rentheses <br> 1, *** p<0 |  |  |  |

As expected, the slope coefficients in (1) and (2) differ by a factor of 12, and those in Models (3) and (4) differ by a factor of 100. And the intercepts are unaffected by the changes in scale of the RHS variable.

And if we put the different height variables on the LHS, the slope and intercept coefficients will reflect the differing units.

```
. qui: reg hgt_ft wgt
. eststo
. qui: reg hgt wgt
eststo
qui: reg hgt_m wgt
eststo
. qui: reg hgt_cm wgt
. eststo
. esttab
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \begin{tabular}{l}
(1) \\
hgt_ft (feet)
\end{tabular} & \[
\begin{array}{r}
\text { (2) } \\
\text { hgt } \\
\text { (inches) }
\end{array}
\] & \[
\begin{gathered}
\text { (3) } \\
\text { hgt_m } \\
\text { (meters) }
\end{gathered}
\] &  \\
\hline wgt & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 0.00320 \text { *** } \\
& (5.12)
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 0.0384^{* * *} \\
& (5.12)
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{gathered}
0.0009766^{* *} \\
(5.12)
\end{gathered}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 0.0976 \text { *** } \\
& (5.12)
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline _cons & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 5.273 * * * \\
& (46.54)
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 63.27 \text { *** } \\
& (46.54)
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\mathbf{1 . 6 0 7}_{(46.54)}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 160.7^{* * *} \\
& (46.54)
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline N & 252 & 252 & 252 & 252 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

As expected, the slope and intercept coefficients in (1) and (2) each differ by a factor of 12 , and further, those in Models (3) and (4) each also differ by a factor of 100.

## Appendix: A Simple Derivation of those OLS Coefficients

We want to min SSR $=\sum\left[y_{i}-\left(b_{0}+b_{1} x_{i}\right)\right]^{2}$ wrt $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$.
Define $\delta=\bar{y}-b_{0}-b_{1} \bar{x}$.
Then if we add and subtract $\delta$ inside the square brackets in the SSR expression we have:

$$
S S R=\sum\left[y_{i}-\delta+\delta-\left(b_{0}+b_{1} x_{i}\right)\right]^{2}=\sum\left[\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)+\delta-b_{1}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\right]^{2},
$$

which can be simplified to

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{SSR}=n \delta^{2}+\sum\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)^{2}-2 b_{1} \sum\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)+b_{1}^{2} \sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2} \\
& =(n-1)\left[\frac{n}{n-1} \delta^{2}+S_{y y}-2 b_{1} S_{x y}+b_{1}^{2} S_{x x}\right] \cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

which we want to minimize wrt $\delta$ and $b_{1}$.
Since $\delta^{2} \geq 0$ for any $b_{0}$ and $b_{1}$, we minimize SSRs with $\delta=\bar{y}-b_{0}-b_{1} \bar{x}=0$. So

$$
b_{0}^{*}=\bar{y}-b_{1}^{*} \bar{x} \ldots \text { (which should look very familiar by now!) }
$$

And to minimize the rest of the expression that varies with $b_{1},\left[-2 b_{1} S_{x y}+b_{1}^{2} S_{x x}\right]$, just use a FOC:

$$
\frac{d S S R}{d b_{1}}=(n-1)\left[-2 S_{x y}+2 b_{1} S_{x x}\right]=0, \text { or } b_{1}^{*}=S_{x y} / S_{x x} .
$$

OLS coefficients!


[^0]:    ${ }^{1} \beta_{1}$ is just the slope of the line connecting any two datapoints, and $\beta_{0}=y_{i}-\beta_{1} x_{i}$, for any datapoint.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ The * indicates that the particular coefficient value minimizes SSRs.

