LECTURE 7: GOODNESS OF FIT AND BIAS

ECON 480 - ECONOMETRICS - FALL 2018

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Actual Model Error



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- Recall OLS estimators are chosen specifically to minimize SSE $(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \hat{\epsilon_i}^2)$



GOODNESS OF FIT: R² Intuition

• Primary measure¹ is regression R^2 , the fraction of variation in Y explained by variation in predicted values

$$R^2 = \frac{\text{variation in } \widehat{Y}_i}{\text{variation in } Y_i}$$



¹Sometimes called the "coefficient of determination"

GOODNESS OF FIT: R² FORMULA

$$R^2 = \frac{ESS}{TSS}$$



²Sometimes called Model Sum of Squares (MSS) or Regression Sum of Squares (RSS)

 $^{^{3}}$ It can be shown that $\overline{\hat{Y}}_{i}=\overline{Y}$

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- Total Sum of Squares (TSS): sum of squared deviations of actual values from their mean³

$$TSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \overline{Y})^2$$



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• Equivalently, the square of the correlation coefficient between *X* and *Y*:

$$R^2 = (r_{X,Y})^2$$



$$\hat{\sigma_{\epsilon}} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{SSE}}{n-2}}$$



⁴Why standard "error" and not standard "deviation"? You'll know by the end of this lecture!

• The Standard Error of the Regression⁴, $\hat{\sigma}$ or $\hat{\sigma_{\epsilon}}$ is an estimator of the standard deviation of ϵ_i

$$\hat{\sigma_{\epsilon}} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{SSE}}{n-2}}$$

• Measures the average size of the residuals (distance between a data point and the line)



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 - Note R tells you it calculates this with a df of n-2

HOOD

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GOODNESS OF FIT: LOOKING AT R

```
summary(school.regression)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = testscr ~ str, data = CASchool)
##
## Residuals:
##
      Min
          10 Median 30 Max
## -47.727 -14.251 0.483 12.822 48.540
##
## Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept) 698.9330 9.4675 73.825 < 2e-16 ***
       -2.2798 0.4798 -4.751 2.78e-06 ***
## str
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 18.58 on 418 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.05124, Adjusted R-squared: 0.04897
```

F-statistic: 22.58 on 1 and 418 DF. p-value: 2.783e-06

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 - Lots of unobserved variables affecting economic outcomes
 - Don't get discouraged! We care about marginal (causal) effects, not R²!



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```
# Save the residuals as a vector called 'res'
CASchool$res <- residuals(school.regression) # use 'res()' function
summary(CASchool$res) # get summary stats of residuals</pre>
```

```
## Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.
## -47.7267 -14.2507 0.4826 0.0000 12.8222 48.5404
```



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```
## Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.
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Save the predicted values of the regression as a vector called 'yhat'
CASchool\$yhat <- predict(school.regression) # use 'predict()' function
summary(CASchool\$yhat) # get summary stats of predictions</pre>

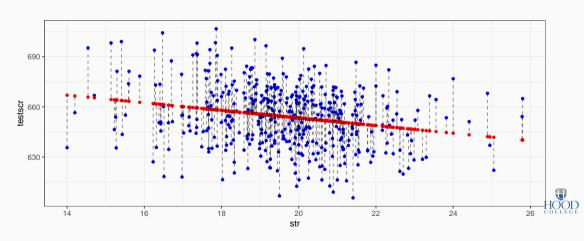
```
## Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.
## 640.1 651.3 654.0 654.2 656.6 667.0
```



```
# Remake the scatterplot and point out the residuals
scatterplot.res<-ggplot(CASchool, aes(x=str, y=testscr))+
   geom_point(color="blue")+ # plot original points blue
   geom_point(aes(y=yhat),color="red")+ # plot predicted yhat in red
   geom_segment(aes(xend=str,yend=yhat),linetype=2, alpha=0.5)
# last line connects predicted (yhat) and actual points with dashed line</pre>
```



scatterplot.res



A vector of all residuals for each observation is stored in the reg object: head(school.regression\$residuals) #look at first 6 obs residuals

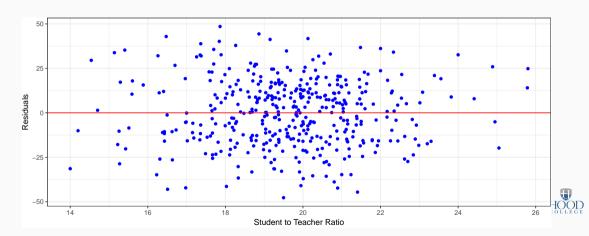
```
## 1 2 3 4 5 6
## 32.65260 11.33917 -12.70689 -11.66198 -15.51593 -44.58076
```



• We often plot the residuals against X in a residual plot

```
# Create a scatterplot with the residuals.
# Same as before, but instead of testscr, we will use residuals (res)
school.resplot<-ggplot(CASchool, aes(str,school.regression$residuals))+
    geom_point(color="blue",fill="blue")+
    xlab("Student to Teacher Ratio")+
    ylab("Residuals")+theme_bw()+
    geom_hline(yintercept=0, color="red") #add horizontal line at y=0 to graph</pre>
```

school.resplot



OLS ESTIMATORS

THE SAMPLING DISTRIBUTIONS OF THE

• We use econometrics to **identify** causal relationships and make **inferences** about them



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 - Taking one sample of a population will yield slightly different information than another sample of the same population



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 - Sampling randomness: different samples will generate different OLS estimators
- \cdot Thus, \hat{eta}_0,\hat{eta}_1 are also random variables, with their own sampling distribution



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- We almost never can directly study the population, so we *model* it with our samples





Example



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Suppose you randomly select 100 people and ask how many hours they spend on the internet each day. You take the mean of your sample, and it comes out to 5.4 hours.

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 - · This is normal, not the result of any error or bias



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 - Each sample comes from the *identical* underlying population distribution



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 - Taking different samples will create different values of \hat{eta}_0,\hat{eta}_1
 - · Therefore, $\hat{\beta}_0$, $\hat{\beta}_1$ have sampling distributions across different samples



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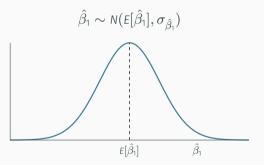


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- If neither of these are true, we have other methods (coming shortly!)
- · One of the most fundamental principles in all of statistics
 - \cdot Allows for virtually all testing of statistical hypotheses o estimating probabilities of values on a normal distribution

The Sampling Distribution of $\hat{eta}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle 1}$

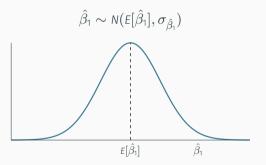
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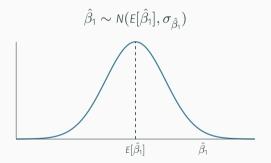
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The Sampling Distribution of \hat{eta}_1

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 - Generally agreed for n > 100
- We care about $\hat{\beta}_1$ (slope) since it has economic meaning, rarely about $\hat{\beta}_0$ (intercept)

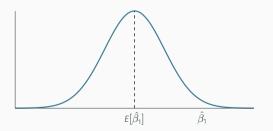




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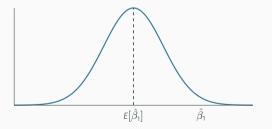




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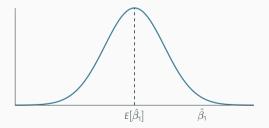




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- · We want to know:
 - $E[\hat{eta}_1]$; what is the center of the distribution?
 - \cdot $\sigma_{\hat{eta}_{\scriptscriptstyle{1}}}$; how precise is our estimate?





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$$var(\epsilon) = \sigma_{\epsilon}^2$$

$$Cov(\epsilon_i, \epsilon_j) = 0 \text{ or } Corr(\epsilon_i, \epsilon_j) = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j$$



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3. Errors are not correlated across observations:

$$Cov(\epsilon_i, \epsilon_j) = 0 \text{ or } Corr(\epsilon_i, \epsilon_j) = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j$$

$$\operatorname{Cov}(\mathbf{X},\epsilon)=\mathbf{0} \ \mathrm{or} \ \operatorname{Corr}(\mathbf{X},\epsilon)=\mathbf{0} \ \mathrm{or} \ \operatorname{E}[\epsilon|\mathbf{X}]=\mathbf{0}$$



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- The first two assumptions simply state that errors are i.i.d., drawn from the same distribution with mean 0 and variance σ^2_ϵ
- The second assumption implies that errors have the same variance across X, "homoskedastic"
 - · Many times, this assumption turns out to be false, when errors are called "heteroskedastic"



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$$E[\epsilon] = 0$$

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- The first two assumptions simply state that errors are i.i.d., drawn from the same distribution with mean 0 and variance σ^2_ϵ
- The second assumption implies that errors have the same variance across X, "homoskedastic"
 - · Many times, this assumption turns out to be false, when errors are called "heteroskedastic"
 - $\cdot\,$ This would be a problem (for inference), but we have a simple fix for this (coming shortly)



$$Cov(\epsilon_i, \epsilon_j) = 0 \text{ or } Corr(\epsilon_i, \epsilon_j) = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j$$



3. Errors are not correlated across observations:

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4. There is no correlation between *X* and the error term:

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- "Does knowing X give me any useful information about ϵ ?"
 - If yes, your model is endogenous, biased and not-causal!



EXOGENEITY AND UNBIASEDNESS

• We want to see if $\hat{\beta}_1$ is <u>unbiased</u>: there is no systematic difference, on average, between sample values of $\hat{\beta}_1$ and the true population β_1 , i.e.

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 - Random errors above and below the true value cancel (so that on average, $\mathit{E}[\hat{\epsilon}|\mathit{X}] = 0$)



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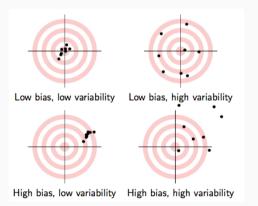
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 - \cdot How about using the first value in our sample: H_1



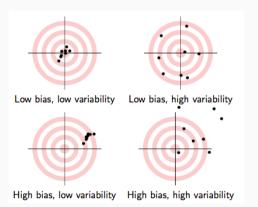
• What makes one estimator (e.g. \overline{H}) better than another (e.g. H_1)?⁵



Rias & Efficiency

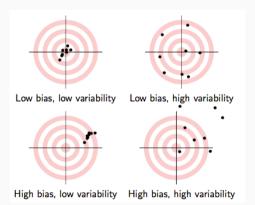


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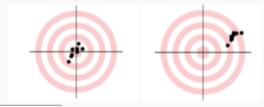
- What makes one estimator (e.g. \overline{H}) better than another (e.g. H_1)?⁵
 - 1. Biasedness: does the estimator give us the correct value on average?
 - 2. **Efficiency** an estimator with a smaller variance is better





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- We can then confidently assert causation: $X \to Y$



 \cdot Nearly all independent variables are <code>endogenous</code>, they are related to the error term ϵ

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$$_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1$$
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$$E[\hat{eta}_1] = eta_1 + corr(X, \epsilon) \frac{\sigma_\epsilon}{\sigma_X}$$



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- The true expected value of $\hat{\beta}_1$ is actually⁷:

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· Takeaways:



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 - \cdot If X is exogenous: $corr({\it X},\epsilon)=$ 0, we're just left with $eta_{\it 1}$



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- Takeaways:
 - · If X is exogenous: $corr(X,\epsilon)=$ 0, we're just left with β_1
 - · The larger $corr({\it X},\epsilon)$ is, larger bias: $\left({\it E}[\hat{eta}_{\it 1}]-eta_{\it 1}
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$$wages_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 education_i + \epsilon$$

· Is this an accurate reflection of educ o wages?



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per capita cigarette consumption =
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 cig tax rate + ϵ

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- · Think about an idealized randomized controlled experiment
- Subjects randomly assigned to treatment or control group
 - Implies knowing whether someone is treated (X) tells us nothing about their personal characteristics (ϵ)
 - · Random assignment makes ϵ independent of X, so

$$corr(X, \epsilon) = 0$$
 and $E[\epsilon|X] = 0$

