Multivariate regressions

Lecture 9

Louis SIRUGUE

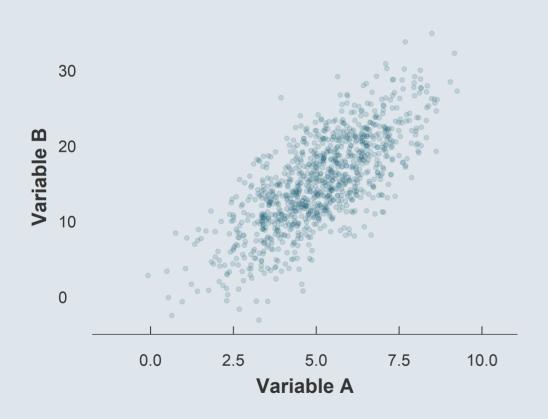
CPES 2 - Fall 2022

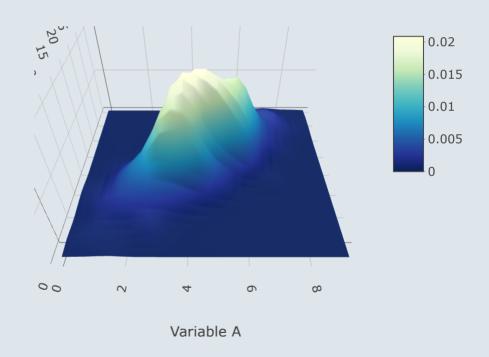




1. Joint distribution

The **joint distribution** shows the possible **values** and associated **frequencies** for **two variables** simultaneously









1. Joint distribution

- → When describing a joint distribution, we're interested in the relationship between the two variables
- The **covariance** quantifies the joint deviation of two variables from their respective mean
 - \circ It can take values from $-\infty$ to ∞ and depends on the unit of the data

$$\mathrm{Cov}(x,y) = rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - ar{x})(y_i - ar{y}).$$

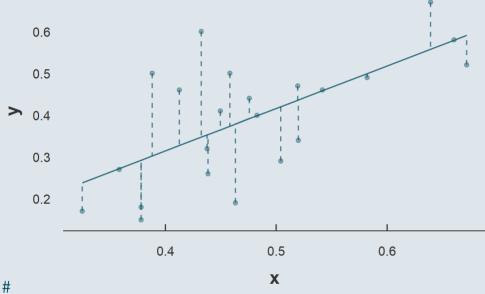
- The **correlation** is the covariance of two variables divided by the product of their standard deviation
 - \circ It can take values from -1 to 1 and is independent from the unit of the data

$$\operatorname{Corr}(x,y) = rac{\operatorname{Cov}(x,y)}{\operatorname{SD}(x) imes \operatorname{SD}(y)}$$



Quick reminder

2. Regression



• This can be expressed with the **regression** equation:

$$y_i = \hat{lpha} + \hat{eta} x_i + \hat{arepsilon}_i$$

• Where $\hat{\alpha}$ is the **intercept** and $\hat{\beta}$ the **slope** of the **line** $\hat{y_i} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x_i$, and $\hat{\varepsilon_i}$ the **distances** between the points and the line

$$\hat{eta} = rac{ ext{Cov}(x_i, y_i)}{ ext{Var}(x_i)}$$

$$\hat{lpha} = ar{y} - \hat{eta} imes ar{x}$$

• \hat{lpha} and \hat{eta} minimize $\hat{arepsilon_i}$

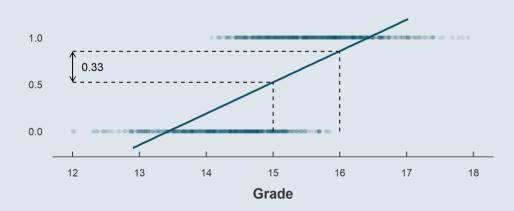
Quick reminder



3. Binary variables

Binary **dependent** variables

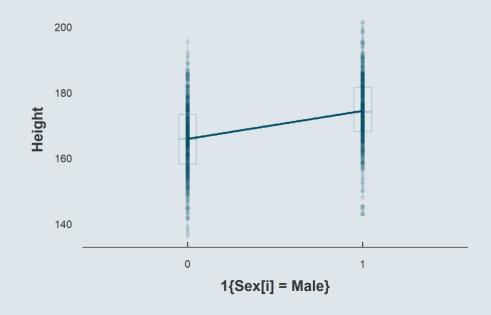
- The **fitted values** can be viewed as **probabilities**
 - \circ \hat{eta} is the expected increase in the probability that y=1 for a one unit increase in x



• We call that a **Linear Probability model**

Binary **independent** variables

- The x variable should be viewed as a **dummy 0/1**
 - $\circ \; \hat{eta}$ is the difference between the average y for the group x=1 and the group x=0



Warm up practice

- 1) Open the asec.csv data containing sex, race, weekly work hours, and annual earnings (\$)
- 2) Regress the earnings variable on the sex variable
- 3) Check that the slope coefficient is equal to the difference between male and female average earnings

You've got 10 minutes!

Solution

1) Open the asec.csv data containing sex, race, weekly work hours, and annual earnings (\$)

```
asec <- read.csv("asec.csv")
```

2) Regress the earnings variable on the sex variable

Solution

3) Check that the slope coefficient is equal to the difference between male and female average earnings

```
asec %>%

# Group the data by sex
group_by(Sex) %>%

# Summarise mean earnings -> 2x2 dataset
summarise(Mean = mean(Earnings)) %>%

# Put means in columns instead of rows -> 1x2 dataset
pivot_wider(names_from = Sex, values_from = Mean) %>%

# Compute the difference in means
mutate(Difference = Male - Female)
```

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 3
## Female Male Difference
## <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 50915. 72527. 21612.
```





- 1.1. Continuous variables
- 1.2. Discrete variables

2. Control variables

- 2.1. Motivation
- 2.2. Discrete controls
- 2.3. Continuous controls

3. Interactions

- 3.1. Motivation
- 3.2. Discrete interactions
- 3.3. Continuous interactions

4. Wrap up!



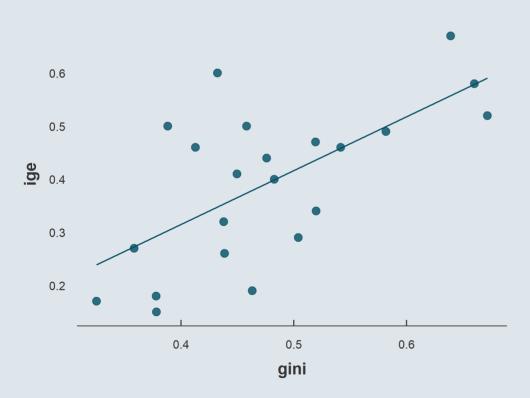


- 1.1. Continuous variables
- 1.2. Discrete variables

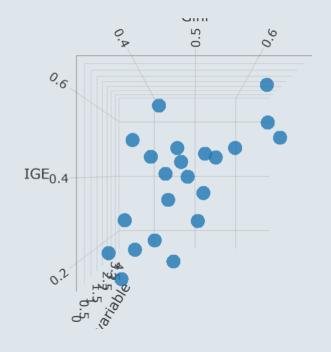


1.1. Continuous variables

• So far we focused on two-variable relationships



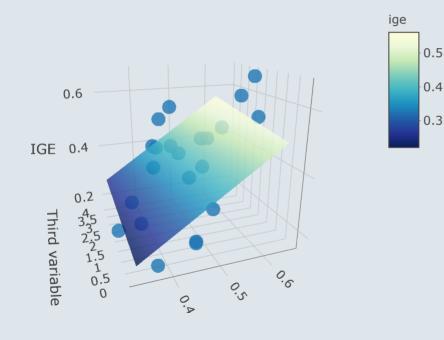
• What about three variable? (pivot the plot)





#

1.1. Continuous variables



- In this case we must fit a **plane**
 - It is characterized by **3 parameters**
 - And can be expressed as:

$$y_i = \hat{lpha} + \hat{eta_1} x_{1,i} + \hat{eta_2} x_{2,i} + \hat{arepsilon_i}$$

- $\hat{\alpha}$ is still the **intercept**
 - $\circ~$ The value of \hat{y} (height) when $x_1=x_2=0$
- And now there are 2 slopes
 - \circ \hat{eta}_1 along the x_1 axis and \hat{eta}_2 along the x_2 axis



1.1. Continuous variables

- The **same** applies with **more than 2** independent variables
 - \circ We would fit a **hyperplane** with as many dimension as x variables
 - \circ We would obtain one intercept and one slope per x variables

$$y_i = \hat{lpha} + \hat{eta_1} x_{1,i} + \hat{eta_2} x_{2,i} + \ldots + \hat{eta_k} x_{k,i} + \hat{arepsilon_i}$$

- We can estimate the parameters of these hyperplanes in **Im()**
 - Additional variables must be introduced after a + sign

```
lm(ige ~ gini + third_variable, ggcurve)
```

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = ige ~ gini + third_variable, data = ggcurve)
##
## Coefficients:
## (Intercept) gini third_variable
## -0.09536 0.98153 0.01122
```



1.2. Discrete variables

- **So far** we've been working with **binary** categorical variables:
 - Accepted vs. Rejected, Male vs. Female
 - But what about discrete variables with **more than two categories?**
- Take for instance the race variable:

```
asec %>%
  group_by(Race) %>%
  tally()
```

```
## # A tibble: 3 x 2
## Race n
## <chr> <int>
## 1 Black 6835
## 2 Other 6950
## 3 White 50551
```

How can we use this variable as an independent variable in our regression framework?



1.2. Discrete variables

- Remember how we converted our **2-category** variable into **1 dummy** variable
 - We can convert an **n-category** variable into **n-1 dummy** variables

| Sex | Male | Race | Black | Other |
|--------|------|-------|-------|-------|
| Female | 0 | White | 0 | 0 |
| Female | 0 | White | 0 | 0 |
| Female | 0 | Black | 1 | 0 |
| Male | 1 | Black | 1 | 0 |
| Male | 1 | Other | 0 | 1 |
| Male | 1 | Other | 0 | 1 |

→ But why do we omit one category every time?

- Because it would be redundant
- We only need 2 dummies for 3 groups:
 - White: Black = 0 & Other = 0
 - **Black:** Black = **1** & Other = **0**
 - **Other:** Black = **0** & Other = **1**

 \hat{lpha} is the expected \hat{y} when $x_k=0\ orall k$

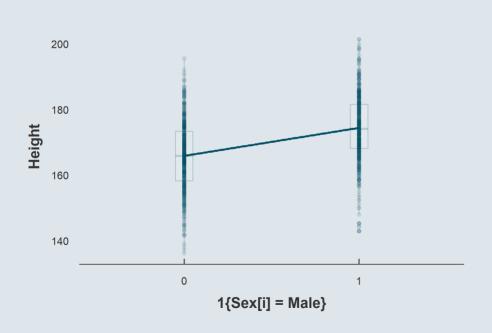
- Thus is does the job for the omitted groups!
- This group is called the **reference group**
- $\circ \; \hat{eta}_k$ are interpreted **relative** to that group



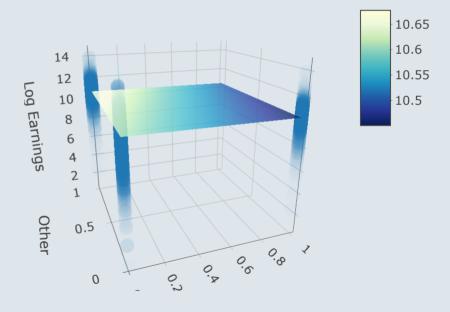
#

1.2. Discrete variables

2-category variable



3-category variable





1.2. Discrete variables

• This **plane** can be expressed as:

$$\operatorname{Earnings}_i = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta_1} 1 \{ \operatorname{Race}_i = \operatorname{Other} \} + \hat{\beta_2} 1 \{ \operatorname{Race}_i = \operatorname{White} \} + \hat{\varepsilon_i}$$

• And the **average** incomes for each group equal:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \circ \  \, {\bf Black:}\, \hat{\alpha} + 0\hat{\beta_1} + 0\hat{\beta_2} = \hat{\alpha} \\ \circ \  \, {\bf Other:}\, \hat{\alpha} + 1\hat{\beta_1} + 0\hat{\beta_2} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta_1} \\ \circ \  \, {\bf White:}\, \hat{\alpha} + 0\hat{\beta_1} + 1\hat{\beta_2} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta_2} \end{array}
```

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = Earnings ~ Race, data = asec)
##
## Coefficients:
## (Intercept) RaceOther RaceWhite
## 50577 17477 12303
```

Average by group Race Mean earnings Black 50577.49 Other 68054.63 White 62880.49



1.2. Discrete variables

- By **default**, lm() sorts categories by **alphabetical** order
 - So every coefficient should be **interpreted relative** to the group which is first alphabetically
- But usually this is **not** the most **intuitive**
 - You may want everything to be relative to the majority group
 - Or to any group that has reasons to be the reference
- The **relevel()** function allows you to **change the reference** category
 - But it works **only on factor** variables

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = Earnings ~ Race_fct, data = asec)
##
## Coefficients:
## (Intercept) Race_fctBlack Race_fctOther
## 62880 -12303 5174
```



1.2. Discrete variables

• What you can also do is **create the dummies yourself:**

→ This might be the **safest** option



1.2. Discrete variables

• But a categorical variable must **not** be introduced **as numeric** in lm()

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = Earnings ~ num_cat, data = asec)
##
## Coefficients:
## (Intercept) num_cat
## 61799.2 774.3
```

→ lm() used our **categorical** variable as a **continuous** variable



1.2. Discrete variables

• Use the **factor** class

```
asec <- asec %>%
  mutate(fac_cat = as.factor(num_cat))

lm(Earnings ~ fac_cat, asec)

##
## Call:
## lm(formula = Earnings ~ fac_cat, data = asec)
##
## Coefficients:
## (Intercept) fac_cat1 fac_cat3
## 62880 -12303 5174
```

→ Converting all your categorical variables into factors is also a safe option

Overview



1. Adding variables ✓

- 1.1. Continuous variables
- 1.2. Discrete variables

2. Control variables

- 2.1. Motivation
- 2.2. Discrete controls
- 2.3. Continuous controls

3. Interactions

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4. Wrap up!

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2. Control variables



2.1. Motivation

- But why would we include additional variables in our regressions?
 - The main reason is to **control** for potential **confounders**
- Consider estimating the **relationship** between **income** and exposure air **pollution** in the Paris region

$$ext{Pollution}_i = \hat{lpha_1} + \hat{eta_1} ext{Income}_i + \hat{arepsilon_i}$$

- ullet You would probably expect that $\hat{eta}_1 < 0$
 - Meaning that **higher income** earners live in **less polluted** areas
 - o But the closer from Paris the higher the rents and the ring-road
 - \circ This phenomenon might counteract this effect and pull \hat{eta}_1 towards 0
- But how to **remove** the **impact** that **distance** from Paris has on the relationship?
 - **Including it** in the regression would make the corresponding coefficient **absorb the confounding effect**
 - In that case we would call distance a *control* variable

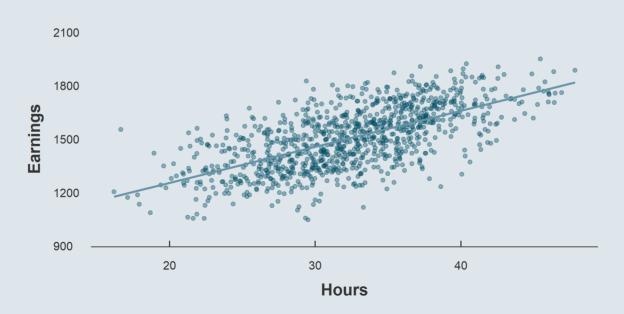
$$\text{Pollution}_i = \hat{lpha_2} + \hat{eta_2} \text{Income}_i + \hat{eta_3} \text{Distance}_i + \hat{\epsilon_i}$$





2. Control variables

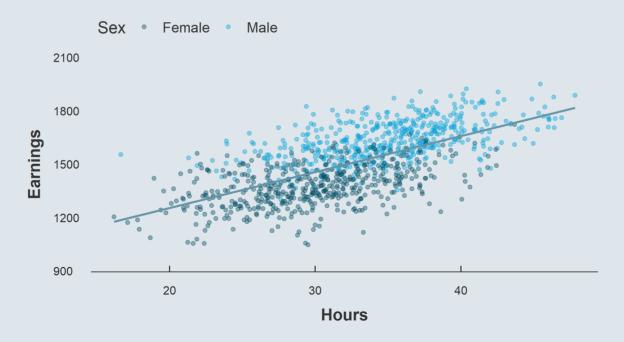
- The most **common control** variable is probably **sex/gender**
 - It may play a role in the **relationship** between **earnings** and **hours worked** for instance
 - The fact that **women** work **part time** more often and **earn less** contribute to the relationship
 - Just like distance did in the previous example







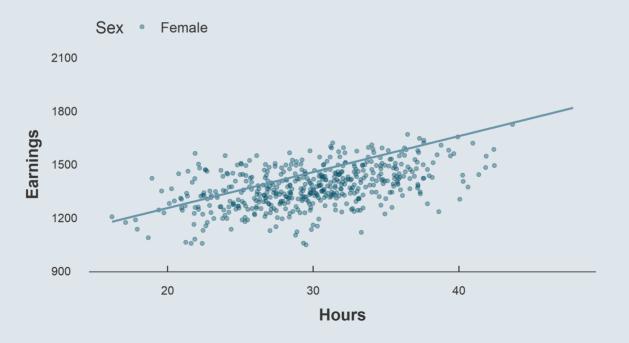
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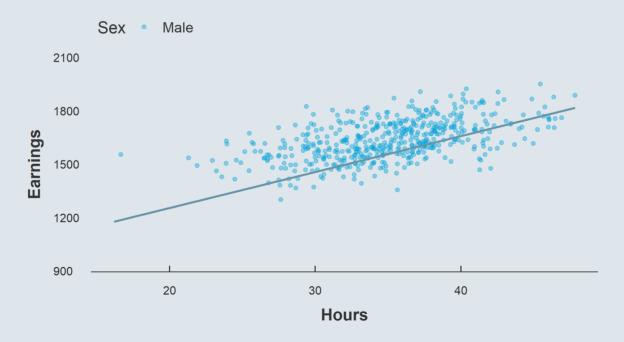
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2. Control variables

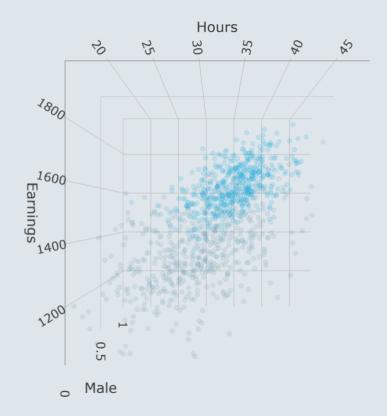
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2. Control variables

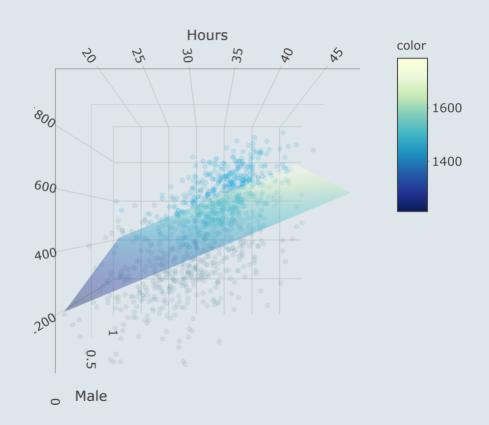
- → The **relationship** is indeed **inflated** by the sex variable
 - Because being a **male** is positively **correlated** with **both** x **and** y
 - **Controlling** for sex would **solve that problem** by absorbing this effect
 - Controlling for a discrete variable amounts to allow one intercept per category
 - Giving **two parallel fitted lines** which are the intersections of the plane and the scatterplots







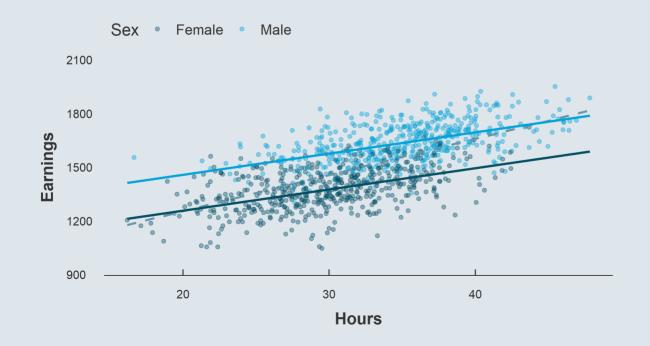
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$$\operatorname{Earnings}_i = \hat{lpha} + \hat{eta}_1 \operatorname{Hours}_i + \hat{eta}_2 \operatorname{1}\{\operatorname{Sex}_i = \operatorname{Male}\} + \hat{arepsilon}_i$$



Graphical counterpart

 \hat{lpha} : Intercept of the reference group

 \hat{eta}_1 : Common slope

 \hat{eta}_2 : Gap between the two lines

 $\hat{lpha}+\hat{eta_2}$: Intercept of the other group

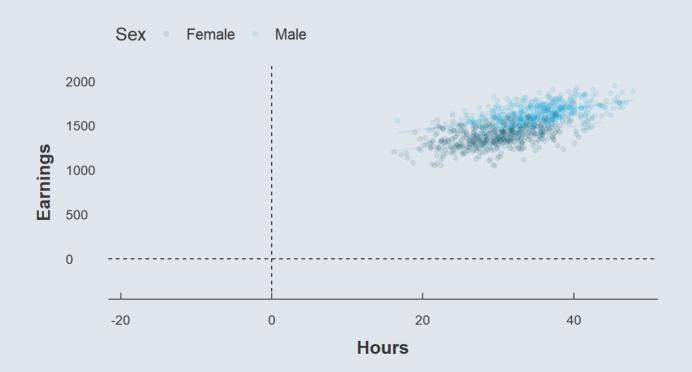




• We can **obtain** this common **slope** by:

2. Control variables

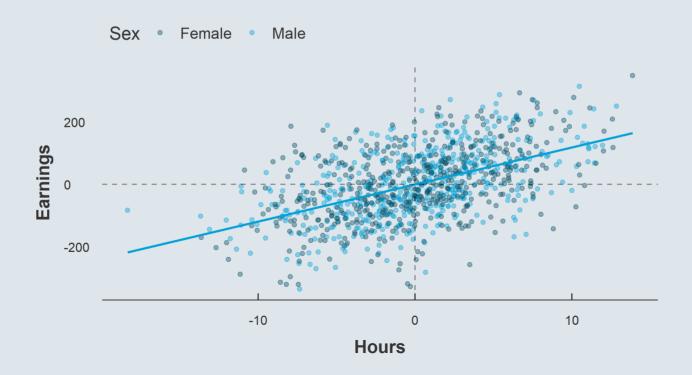
- 1. **Demeaning** earnings and hours by group
- 2. **Regressing** the demeaned earnings on the hours





2. Control variables

- Note that once we **control** for third variable
 - 1. As we move along the x axis, this **third variable remains constant**
 - 2. Here, as the number of hours increases the probability to be a male does not increase anymore

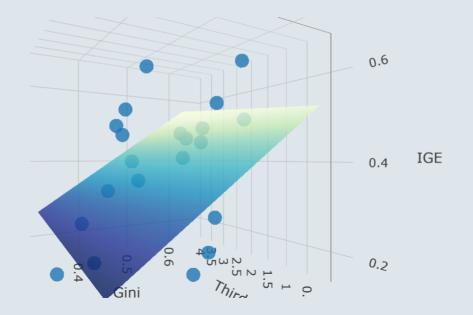


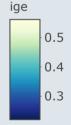




2.3. Continuous

- The **same** idea apply when we control for **continuous** variables
 - Including it in the regression allows to **account for another dimension**
 - \circ Such that when x moves this variable **remains constant**
 - \circ This **nets out** the relationship of x and y from the potential **confounding effect** of this variable
 - This is why we call it **controlling for something**





Practice



1) Using the asec data, regress (yearly) earnings on (weekly) hours worked

2) Regress earnings on hours worked controlling for sex

3) Interpret the difference between the results from 1) and 2)

You've got 5 minutes!

Solution

1) Using the asec data, regress (yearly) earnings on (weekly) hours worked

```
lm(Earnings ~ Hours, asec)$coefficients

## (Intercept) Hours
## -20038.85 2077.79
```

2) Regress earnings on hours worked controlling for sex

```
lm(Earnings ~ Hours + Sex, asec)$coefficients

## (Intercept) Hours SexMale
## -22296.150 1953.829 13794.385
```

Solution

- 3) Interpret the difference between the results from 1) and 2)
 - The **slope** is still positive **less steep**
 - In the first regression as the number of hours increases the probability to be a male does increase as well
 - Because males tend to earn more this contributes to the positive relationship between Hours and Earnings
 - In the second regression, controlling for sex allows to maintain the probability to be a male constant along the hour axis to remove this effect

Overview



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- 1.2. Discrete variables

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3.1. Motivation

- Now we know how to **remove** the **confounding effect** of a third variable by **controlling** for it
 - But what if the main **relationship varies** depending on the value of the **third variable?**
- Let's get back to the previous example

$$\text{Pollution}_i = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{eta}_1 \text{Income}_i + \hat{eta}_2 \text{Distance}_i + \hat{\epsilon}_i$$

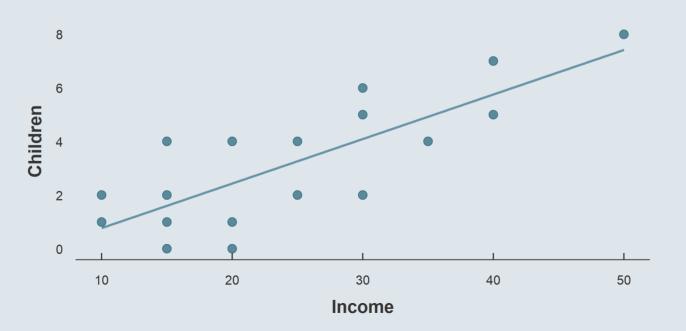
- ullet The **equation imposes** that the **effect** of income on pollution is **constant:** \hat{eta}_2
 - But what if the relationship was actually not the same close to Paris than further away?
 - Maybe that the closer from Paris the larger the effect (higher segregation, ...)
- But how to **capture how the relationship** between income and pollution varies with distance?
 - We should allow for it in the equation!
 - By adding a term that depends both on income and distance
 - What we use is their **product**, and we call that an **interaction**

$$ext{Pollution}_i = \hat{lpha_2} + \hat{eta_3} ext{Income}_i + \hat{eta_4} ext{Distance}_i + \hat{eta_5} ext{(Distance}_i imes ext{Income}_i) + \hat{\epsilon_i}$$



3.2. Discrete

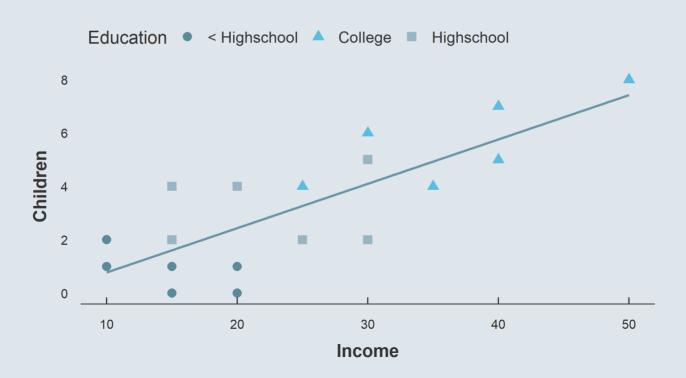
• Take for instance the following relationship between household income and the number of children





3.2. Discrete

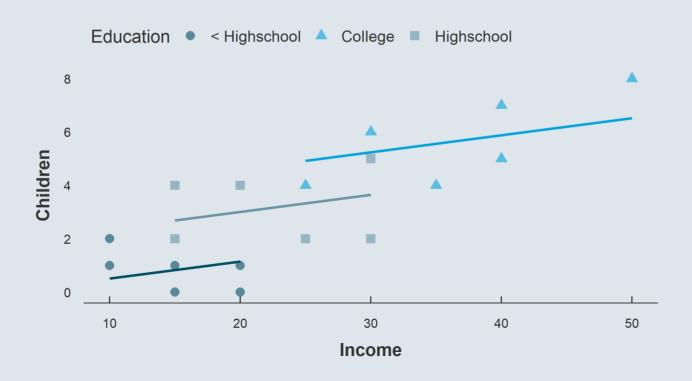
- Take for instance the following **relationship** between **household income** and the **number of children**
 - The level of **education** seems to **play a role** in the relationship





3.2. Discrete

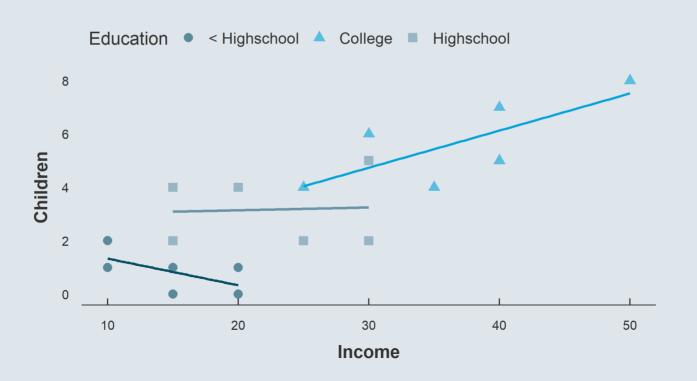
- Take for instance the following relationship between household income and the number of children
 - The level of **education** seems to **play a role** in the relationship
 - But simply **controlling** for education does **not** seem **sufficient**





3.2. Discrete

- This is because the **relationship** between income and children **varies with education**
 - **Interacting** income with education allows to **account for that**
 - Like controlling allows for different intercepts, interacting allows for different slopes







3.2. Discrete

$$\begin{split} \operatorname{Income}_i &= \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta_1} \operatorname{Children}_i + \\ &\qquad \qquad \hat{\beta_2} (< \operatorname{Highschool})_i + \hat{\beta_3} \operatorname{Highschool}_i + \hat{\beta_4} \operatorname{College}_i + \\ &\qquad \qquad \operatorname{Children}_i \times \left[\hat{\beta_5} (< \operatorname{Highschool})_i + \hat{\beta_6} \operatorname{Highschool}_i + \hat{\beta_7} \operatorname{College}_i \right] + \hat{\varepsilon_i} \end{split} \quad \text{Allow for } \neq \text{ intercepts} \end{split}$$



3.2. Discrete

$$\text{Income}_{i} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}_{1} \text{Children}_{i} + \\ \hat{\beta}_{2} \underbrace{\left(<\text{Highschool}\right)_{i}}_{1} + \hat{\beta}_{3} \underbrace{\text{Highschool}}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{4} \underbrace{\text{College}_{i}}_{0} + \\ \text{Children}_{i} \times \left[\hat{\beta}_{5} \underbrace{\left(<\text{Highschool}\right)_{i}}_{1} + \hat{\beta}_{6} \underbrace{\text{Highschool}}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{7} \underbrace{\text{College}_{i}}_{0}\right] + \hat{\varepsilon}_{i} \\ \text{Allow for } \neq \text{ intercepts}$$

< Highschool:
$$\operatorname{Income}_i = (\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta_2}) + (\hat{\beta_1} + \hat{\beta_5})\operatorname{Children}_i + \hat{\varepsilon_i}$$



3.2. Discrete

Highschool: Income_i =
$$(\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta_3}) + (\hat{\beta_1} + \hat{\beta_6})$$
Children_i + $\hat{\varepsilon_i}$



3.2. Discrete

$$\begin{split} &\operatorname{Income}_{i} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}_{1}\operatorname{Children}_{i} + \\ &\hat{\beta}_{2}\underbrace{\left(<\operatorname{Highschool}\right)_{i} + \hat{\beta}_{3}}_{0}\underbrace{\operatorname{Highschool}}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{4}\underbrace{\operatorname{College}}_{i} + \\ &\operatorname{Children}_{i} \times \left[\hat{\beta}_{5}\underbrace{\left(<\operatorname{Highschool}\right)_{i} + \hat{\beta}_{6}}_{0}\underbrace{\operatorname{Highschool}}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{7}\underbrace{\operatorname{College}}_{i}\right] + \hat{\varepsilon}_{i} \end{split} \quad \text{Allow for } \neq \text{ intercepts} \end{split}$$

College:
$$Income_i = (\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta_4}) + (\hat{\beta_1} + \hat{\beta_7})Children_i + \hat{\varepsilon_i}$$





3.2. Discrete

$$\begin{split} \operatorname{Income}_i &= \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta_1} \operatorname{Children}_i + \\ \hat{\beta_2} (< \operatorname{Highschool})_i + \hat{\beta_3} \operatorname{Highschool}_i + \hat{\beta_4} \operatorname{College}_i + \\ \operatorname{Children}_i \times \left[\hat{\beta_5} (< \operatorname{Highschool})_i + \hat{\beta_6} \operatorname{Highschool}_i + \hat{\beta_7} \operatorname{College}_i \right] + \hat{\varepsilon_i} \end{split} \quad \text{Allow for } \neq \text{ intercepts} \end{split}$$

< Highschool: Income_i =
$$(\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}_2) + (\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_5)$$
Children_i + $\hat{\varepsilon_i}$
Highschool: Income_i = $(\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}_3) + (\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_6)$ Children_i + $\hat{\varepsilon_i}$
College: Income_i = $(\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}_4) + (\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_7)$ Children_i + $\hat{\varepsilon_i}$



3.3. Continuous

• The same principle applies to continuous variables:

$$ext{Pollution}_i = \hat{lpha} + \hat{eta}_1 ext{Income}_i + \hat{eta}_2 ext{Distance}_i + \hat{eta}_3 (ext{Distance}_i imes ext{Income}_i) + \hat{\epsilon}_i$$

• What is the **effect of** 1-unit increase in **income here?**

$$\hat{\beta_1} + \hat{\beta_3} \text{Distance}_i$$

- The **coefficient** associated with the **interaction**, $\hat{\beta}_3$, indicates:
 - By how the **effect** of a one unit increase in **income** on pollution **varies with distance**
 - \circ When **distance** = **0** the effect of income is $\hat{\beta}_1$
 - \circ For every **additional unit** of distance, the effect of income on pollution **increases by** \hat{eta}_3

→ Don't omit to include your interaction variable as a control in the regression

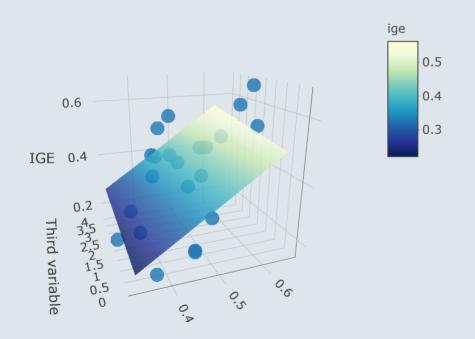




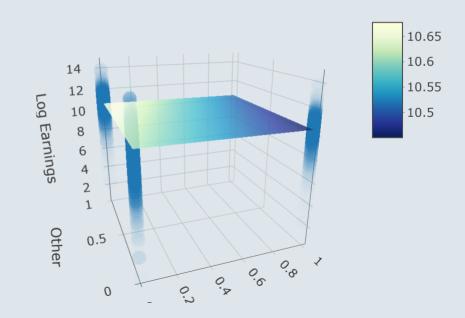
1. Multivariate regressions

- Adding a second independent variable in the regression amounts to fitting a plane instead of a line
 - Adding a third variable would fit an hyperplane of dimension 3 and so on

Adding a continuous variable



Adding a discrete variable



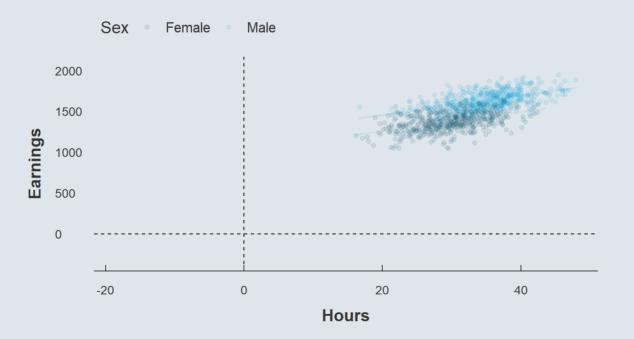


4. Wrap up!

2. Control variables

• Adding a third variable z removes its potential confounding effect from the relationship between x and y \circ As we move along the x axis, the third variable remains constant

$$\hat{y_i} = \hat{lpha} + \hat{eta_1} x + \hat{eta_2} z + \hat{arepsilon_i}$$





4. Wrap up!

3. Interactions

Adding an interaction term with z allows to see how the effect of x on y varies with z
If z is discrete, it amounts to regressing y on x separately for each z group

$$\hat{y_i} = \hat{lpha} + \hat{eta_1} x + \hat{eta_2} z + \hat{eta_3} (x imes z) + \hat{arepsilon_i}$$

