

# Econometrics 1 Lecture 3: Multiple Linear Regression ENSAE 2014/2015

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#### Definition of MLR



Suppose we wish to investigate the relation between

- An outcome variable *y* (the regressand, dependent variable, etc.)
- A set of k variables  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_k$  (the regressors, covariates, etc.)

The Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) model assumes that the following relationship holds in the population

## Linear in parameters

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k + u$$

#### Remarks:

- As in the SLR model,  $\beta_0$  is the constant (or intercept), and  $\beta_1, ..., \beta_k$  are slope parameters.
- The error term *u* captures the combined effect of other variables not included in the model.
- The model is linear in the parameters (not necessarily in the explanatory variables).

## Definition of MLR (cntd)

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- $y, x_1, ..., x_k, u$  are viewed as random variables.
- The model reflects a *population* relationship. A sample from the population will be used to learn (i.e. estimate) something about the parameter values in the population.
- $\beta_0$  is the value of y when all x's and u equal zero.  $\beta_k$  is the causal effect of a unit-change in  $x_k$  on y, i.e., it measures the marginal effect of  $x_k$  on y keeping u and  $x_j$ ,  $j \neq k$ , fixed.

## Advantages of MLR model (compared to SLR):

 MLR models are obviously richer. For instance the following model (exper is years of experience on labor market, tenure measures years of experience with current employer)

$$wage = \beta_0 + \beta_1 educ + \beta_2 exper + \beta_3 tenure + u$$
 (1)

allows the researcher to investigate not just the effect of education (as in the SLR model  $wage = \beta_0 + \beta_1 educ + u$ ), but also of experience and tenure.

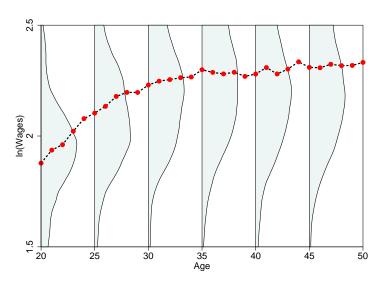
# Definition of MLR (cntd)



- Adding additional explanatory variables leads to a better fit, which is important if one wishes to use the estimations for predictions.
- Adding additional regressors augments the likelihood that the Zero Conditional Mean assumption holds. This increases in turn the likelihood that we identify causal effects. Example: in the SLR model  $wage = \beta_0 + \beta_1 educ + u$ , we need to assume that experience is not correlated with education. In the MLR model (1) experience (and also tenure) are taken out of the error term, so this assumption is no longer necessary.
- MLR models allow for more general specifications. For instance a specific variable may have a non-linear effect on y:  $log(wage) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 age + \beta_2 age^2 + u$ . (note that  $\beta_1$ does not measure the causal effect of age since  $age^2$  cannot be kept fixed when age is changed. Instead  $\triangle log(wage)/\triangle age = \beta_1 + 2\beta_2 age$ .) See next figure.

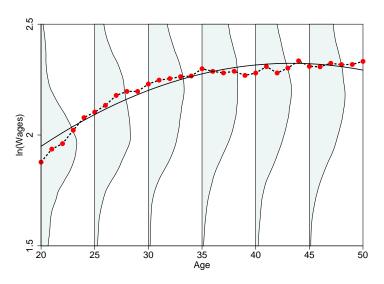
# Age profile wages





# Age profile wages





## Assumptions



- MLR.1 Linear In Parameters:  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k + u$
- MLR.2 Random Sample:  $\{(x_{i1}, ..., x_{ik}, y_i) : i = 1, ..., n\}$ , where  $\{x_{i1}, ..., x_{ik}, y_i\}$  are *i.i.d.*
- MLR.3 Zero Conditional Mean:  $E[u|x_1,...,x_k]=0$
- MLR.4 No perfect collinearity:  $x_j \neq c$  and no exact linear relationships among the  $x_j$  in the sample
- MLR.5 Homoscedasticity:  $Var[u|x_1,...,x_k] = E[u^2|x_1,...,x_k] = \sigma^2$

#### Remarks:

- Straightforward extensions of assumption in SLR model.
- MLR.3 implies that each variable  $x_j$  is uncorrelated with u:  $E[u|x_j] = E[E[u|x_1, \dots, x_k]] = 0$  (first expectation is wrt to all x's given  $x_j$ ).

## Assumptions (cntd)



- If MLR.3 holds we say that the x's are exogenous. Otherwise they are said to be endogenous.
- MLR.4 not only says that each  $x_j$  should vary in the sample, but also that they should not be perfectly linearly related. Example: in the model (man equals 1 if the individual is a man, and 0 otherwise; woman is defined in similar way)

$$wage = \beta_0 + \beta_1 man + \beta_2 woman + u$$

there is a linear relationship between the variables man and woman (man+woman=1).

#### Estimation



As in the SLR model, we can obtain the estimator of  $\beta_0,\beta_2,...,\beta_k$  in two ways. In the first method we use the k+1 moment conditions (that follow from MLR.3)

$$E[u] = E[y - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_1 - \dots - \beta_k x_k] = 0$$
  

$$E[x_j u] = E[x_j (y - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_1 - \dots - \beta_k x_k)] = 0, j = 1, 2, \dots, k$$

and the estimator  $\hat{\beta}_0, \ldots, \hat{\beta}_k$  is obtained by imposing that the corresponding empirical sample means equal zero. In the second method the estimator is obtained by minimizing the sum of squared residuals:

$$Q(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_{i1} - \ldots - \beta_k x_{ik})^2$$

with respect to  $\beta$ . Both approaches lead to exactly the same estimator, and is called the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) estimator of  $\beta_0, \beta_2, ..., \beta_k$ .

## OLS 1st order conditions



$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \beta_0} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} - \dots - \hat{\beta}_k x_{ik}) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \beta_1} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{i1} (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} - \dots - \hat{\beta}_k x_{ik}) = 0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \beta_k} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ik} (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} - \dots - \hat{\beta}_k x_{ik}) = 0$$

Under MLR.4 this system of k+1 equations and k+1 unknowns has a unique solution.

#### Definition of OLS estimator



The solution of the above system of first-order conditions is the OLS estimator.

#### **OLS** Estimator

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \overline{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \overline{x}_1 - \dots - \hat{\beta}_k \overline{x}_k 
\hat{\beta}_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_{ij} y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_{ij}^2}, \qquad j = 1, 2, \dots, k$$

where  $\bar{x}_j = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij}$  and  $\hat{r}_{ij}$  the OLS residuals from a regression of  $x_j$  on the other explanatory variables and a constant.

# Definition of OLS estimator (cntd)



We can rewrite  $\hat{\beta}_j$  as (since the average of residuals equals zero:  $\bar{r}_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \hat{r}_{ij} = 0$ ):

$$\hat{\beta}_{j} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij} y_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij}^{2}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{r}_{ij} - \overline{\hat{r}}_{j}) (y_{i} - \overline{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{r}_{ij} - \overline{\hat{r}}_{j})^{2}}, j = 1, 2, \dots, k$$

So, recalling the definition of the OLS estimator of the slope parameter in the SLR model, we see that  $\hat{\beta}_j$  is in fact the estimator of the slope parameter in a regression of y on a constant and  $\hat{r}_j$ . The estimate  $\hat{\beta}_j$  can thus be seen as the effect of  $x_j$  on y after the other x's are partialled out ( $\hat{r}_{ij}$  can be interpreted as the "part" of  $x_{ij}$  that is left after we take out the variation in  $x_{il}$ ,  $l \neq j$ .)

# OLS - Two explanatory variables

To show that the OLS estimator is unbiased it is helpful to consider first the model with just two explanatory variables (k=2). We thus want to estimate the following MLR

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + u_i$$

We will check that  $\hat{\beta}_1$  is unbiased (the proof is similar for  $\hat{\beta}_2$ ). First estimate the following SLR

$$x_{i1} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_{i2} + r_{i1}$$

and use the OLS estimates  $\hat{\alpha}_0, \hat{\alpha}_1$  to construct the residual:

$$\hat{r}_{i1} = x_{i1} - \hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\alpha}_1 x_{i2}$$

which is the "part" of  $x_{i1}$  not explained by  $x_{i2}$ .

# OLS - Two explanatory variables (cntd)



The residual  $\hat{r}_{i1} = x_{i1} - \hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\alpha}_1 x_{i2}$  has the usual properties (this follows form the first-order conditions)

- sum to zero:  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1} = 0$
- orthogonal to regressors:  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1} x_{i2} = 0$

And it also follows that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1} x_{i1} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1} (x_{i1} - \hat{\alpha}_0 - \hat{\alpha}_1 x_{i2} + \hat{\alpha}_0 + \hat{\alpha}_1 x_{i2})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1} (\hat{r}_{i1} + \hat{\alpha}_0 + \hat{\alpha}_1 x_{i2})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1}^2 + \hat{\alpha}_0 \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1} + \hat{\alpha}_1 \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1} x_{i2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1}^2$$

# OLS - Two explanatory variables (cntd)



The OLS estimator of  $\beta_1$  is the OLS estimator of the slope parameter in the regression of y on a constant and  $\hat{r}_{i1}$ :

$$\hat{\beta}_{1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{r}_{i1} - \overline{\hat{r}}_{1}) y_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{r}_{i1} - \overline{\hat{r}}_{1})^{2}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1} y_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1}^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1} (\beta_{0} + \beta_{1} x_{i1} + \beta_{2} x_{i2} + u_{i})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1}^{2}}$$

$$= \beta_{1} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1} u_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{i1}^{2}}$$

which is an unbiased estimator of  $\beta_1$ :  $E[\hat{\beta}_1|(x_{i1},x_{i2}), \forall i] = \beta_1$ , which implies  $E[\hat{\beta}_1] = \beta_1$ .

#### Unbiasedness



To show that the OLS estimator is unbiased in the general case we proceed in an analogous way:

$$\hat{\beta}_{j} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij} y_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij}^{2}} \stackrel{\textit{MLR.1}}{=} \beta_{j} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij} u_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij}^{2}}$$

since 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij} = 0$$
,  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{il} \hat{r}_{ij} = 0$ ,  $\forall l \neq j$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij} \hat{r}_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij}^{2}$ . Now

$$E[\hat{\beta}_{j}|(x_{1i},\ldots,x_{ki})\forall i] = \beta_{j} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij}E[u_{i}|(x_{i1},\ldots,x_{ik})\forall i]}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij}^{2}}$$

$$\stackrel{MLR.2}{=} \beta_{j} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij}E[u_{i}|x_{i1},\ldots,x_{ik}]}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij}^{2}}$$

$$\stackrel{MLR.3}{=} \beta_{j}$$

# Unbiasedness (cntd)



#### Unbiasedness of OLS

Under assumptions MLR.1 to MLR.4,

$$E[\hat{\beta}_j] = \beta_j, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, k$$

#### Remarks:

- The unbiasedness of  $\hat{\beta}_0$  can be shown as in the SLR model (see slides of last week).
- The results are true for any values of the population parameters  $\beta_j$ . Therefore, including *irrelevant* variables  $(\beta_l = 0)$  does not affect the unbiasedness of the estimator. (It can affect however the variances of the OLS estimators.)

## Unbiasedness (cntd)



- Omitting relevant regressors obviously <u>does</u> in general affect the estimators since this violates assumption MLR.3 if the omitted regressor is correlated with the variables included in the model.
- Unbiasedness does not mean that the OLS estimate obtained using a particular sample necessarily corresponds to the true population parameter. Although the estimate and true value may of course coincide, this will generally not be the case (see simulation study of last week).

## Fitted values, residuals, and Goodness-of-fit



As in the SLR model we can calculate the fitted value

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} + \ldots + \hat{\beta}_k x_{ik}$$

and the residual

$$\hat{u}_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$$

As in the simple regression model the  $R^2$  measures the fraction of the sample variation in y explained by the explanatory variables:

$$R^{2} = \frac{SSE}{SST} = 1 - \frac{SSR}{SST}$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_{i} - \overline{y})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \overline{y})^{2}} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{u}_{i}^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \overline{y})^{2}}$$

#### Remarks:

R<sup>2</sup> never decreases as we add more variables to the regression.
This mechanical increase makes that the R2 as such is NOT a
good way to decide whether we need to add variables to the
model. We can use hypothesis testing (next week) to
determine this.

# Fitted values, residuals, and Goodness-of-fit (cntd)



- Low R2 does not say anything about whether we estimate causal/ceteris paribus effects.
- Low R2 does say that the model is not so useful for prediction.

#### Omitted variable bias

## Suppose true model is



$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + u$$

but that for some reason (for example because  $x_2$  is not recorded in the data set) we regress y only on  $x_1$  and a constant (i.e.,  $x_2$  is not included in the model). Letting  $\widetilde{\beta}_0$  and  $\widetilde{\beta}_1$  be the OLS estimators, and  $\widetilde{y}$  the fitted value of y, the OLS regression line is

$$\tilde{y} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 x_1$$

and

$$\tilde{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1) y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1)^2}$$

we can now replace  $y_i$  with the true model and get

$$\tilde{\beta}_1 = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1) x_{i2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1)^2} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1) u_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1)^2}$$

# Omitted variable bias (contd)



Taking expectations of  $\tilde{eta}_1$ 

$$E[\tilde{\beta}_1|x_{1i},x_{2i},\forall i] = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{i1} - \bar{x}_1)x_{i2}}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{i1} - \bar{x}_1)^2}$$

and we see that we get a biased estimate of  $\beta_1$ . The above fraction (denoted  $\tilde{\delta}_1$ ) is the slope estimate from a regression of  $x_2$  on a constant and  $x_1$ 

$$\mathsf{Bias} = E[\tilde{\beta}_1 - \beta_1 | x_{1i}, x_{2i}, \, \forall i] = \beta_2 \tilde{\delta}_1$$

Bias depends on  $\beta_2$  and correlation between  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ :

	$corr(x_1,x_2)>0$	$corr(x_1,x_2)<0$
$\beta_2 > 0$	positive bias	negative bias
$\beta_2 < 0$	negative bias	positive bias

# Omitted variable bias (contd)



#### Remarks:

- **Sign** of bias depends both on sign  $\beta_2$  and sign  $corr(x_1, x_2)$ .
- If Bias>0 we say that we have an upward bias, if Bias<0 a downward bias.
- Size of bias depends on size of  $\beta_2$  and  $\tilde{\delta}_1$ .
- Although they are unknown, we usually have priors on signs of  $\beta_2$  and  $\tilde{\delta}_1$ . Size is more problematic.
- There is no bias only if  $\beta_2=0$  ( $x_2$  not a relevant variable) and/or  $\tilde{\delta}_1=0$  ( $x_1$  and  $x_2$  uncorrelated).

#### Omitted variable bias: k>2



- In the general case (k > 2), deriving signs on the bias is more complicated because it involves all pairwise correlations and how these correlations are weighted with the  $\beta$ 's.
- Correlation between a single regressor and the error term usually results in all OLS estimators being biased.

## Example: Omitted Variable Bias



Last week we presented an estimation of the attendance/exam model (ENSAE data):

$$exam = \beta_0 + \beta_1 presence + u$$

The question we wish to address: is the estimate of  $\beta_1$  biased by omitted variables ?

One possible missing variable: scholastic aptitude. It is likely that well-performing students get high exam scores (whether they go to exercise classes or not). More able students may also go to exercise class more often.

The data set records the average grade obtained in the first year of ENSAE. This is arguably a good proxy for scholastic aptitude.

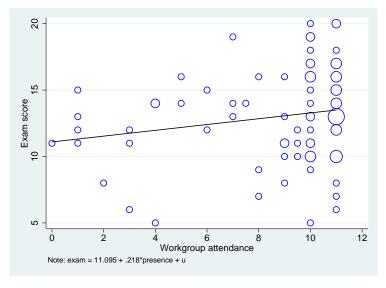
Problem: this variable (moy1a) is not observed for all students (e.g., those who entered ENSAE directly as 2nd-year students).

The sample size is therefore reduced from n = 119 to n = 85.

The following empirical analysis shows that there is indeed evidence that last week's results are biased.

Attendance & performance - students who did 1st year ENSAE







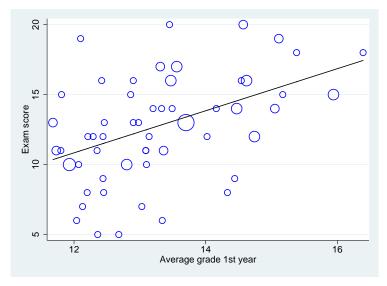
Regression performance on attendance - students who did 1st year  ${\sf ENSAE}$ 

#### . reg exam presence

Source	SS	df		MS		Number of obs		85
+-						, ,		3.13
Model	37.2835482	1	37.2	835482		Prob > F	=	0.0804
Residual	987.704687	83	11.9	000565		R-squared	=	0.0364
+-						Adj R-squared	=	0.0248
Total	1024.98824	84	12.2	022409		Root MSE	=	3.4496
exam	Coef.					[95% Conf.		_
presence	.2183855	.1233	786	1.77	0.080	0270095		4637806
cons				9.68	0.000	8.816455	-	3.37377

Performance and 1st year grade





## Example: Omitted Variable Bias

#### Regression performance on 1st year grades

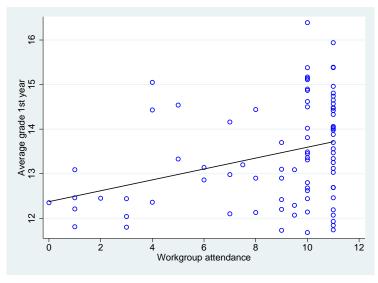


#### . reg exam moy

SS	df	MS		Number of obs =	85
				F( 1, 83) =	27.11
252.390525	1 2	52.390525		Prob > F =	0.0000
772.59771	83 9	.30840615		R-squared =	0.2462
				Adj R-squared =	0.2372
1024.98824	84 1	2.2022409		Root MSE =	3.051
				<b>2</b> · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	nterval]
1.503445	. 288727	8 5.21	0.000	.9291768 2	2.077713
-7.202315	3.89607	6 -1.85	0.068	-14.95145 .	5468225
	252.390525 772.59771 1024.98824 Coef.	252.390525 1 2 772.59771 83 9 1024.98824 84 1 Coef. Std. Er	252.390525	252.390525	F( 1, 83) =  252.390525

1st year grades and attendance





#### Regression 1st year grades on attendance



#### . reg moy presence

	Source	SS	df	ľ	MS		Number of obs	=	85
-	+-						F( 1, 83)	=	9.68
	Model	11.6598981	1	11.659	98981		Prob > F	=	0.0026
	Residual	100.000222	83	1.2048	32195		R-squared	=	0.1044
-	+-						Adj R-squared	=	0.0936
	Total	111.66012	84	1.3292	28714		Root MSE	=	1.0976
_	moy1a	Coef.					[95% Conf.	In	terval]
	presence	.1221273	.0392	579	3.11	0.003	.0440449		2002096
	_cons		.36453		33.94	0.000	11.64828	1	3.09838
_									





Remember

$$\mathsf{Bias} = \beta_2 \tilde{\delta}_1$$

One expects the "effect" of 1st year grades on the exam score to be positive (one of the above above regressions shows that 1st year grade has a positive effect on exam score):

$$\beta_2 > 0$$

We have also seen that 1st year grades and exercise class attendance are positively correlated:

$$\tilde{\delta}_1 \approx 0.122 > 0$$

The bias should therefore be positive and our initial estimate (0.218) too high ...

## Example: Omitted Variable Bias

#### Attendance regression, including 1st year grades



#### . reg exam presence moy

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 85
+-				F(2, 82) = 13.47
Model	253.446064	2	126.723032	Prob > F = 0.0000
Residual	771.542171	82	9.40905087	R-squared = 0.2473
+-				Adj R-squared = 0.2289
Total	1024.98824	84	12.2022409	Root MSE = 3.0674

exam		Std. Err.			[95% Conf.	_
presence   moy1a	.0388285 1.470245 -7.096716	.1159276 .3067414	0.33	0.739 0.000	1917883 .8600386	.2694454 2.080451

#### Variance of OLS estimators



Using assumptions MLR.1 to MLR.4 and the homoscedasticity assumption MLR.5 we can derive the following result:

Sampling Variance of OLS estimators

$$Var(\hat{\beta}_j|X) = \frac{\sigma^2}{SST_j(1-R_j^2)}$$

for  $j=1,2,\ldots,k$ , where  $SST_j=\sum_{i=1}^n(x_{ij}-\bar{x}_j)^2$  and  $R_j^2$  is the R-squared from a regression of  $x_j$  on the other regressors (and an intercept)

# Variance of OLS estimators (cntd)



#### Remarks:

- The variance of the estimator increases with the error variance and decreases with the variance in the regressor.
- Since the total sample variation in x (SST) increases with sample size, the variance of the estimator decreases with the sample size.
- $R_j^2$  is the fraction in the sample variation in  $x_{ij}$  explained by other regressors. If another (possibly irrelevant) variable is added to the model,  $R_j^2$  increases, and  $Var(\hat{\beta}_j|X)$  increases.
- $R_j^2 = 0$  means that all slope coefficients (in the regression of  $x_j$  on a constant and all other regressors) equal zero:  $x_j$  is uncorrelated with every other regressor. The variance of  $\hat{\beta}_j$  is then minimal (occurs very rarely in practice).

# Variance of OLS estimators (cntd)



- $R_j^2 = 1$  means that there is a perfect linear relationship between  $x_j$  and (some of) the other regressors, a case that is excluded by MLR.4.
- In practice,  $0 < R_j^2 < 1$ . When it is close to 1, the variance can get very large. This reflects that  $x_j$  is highly correlated with (some of) the regressors, a problem that is called multicollinearity.
- As in SLR analysis, the variances of OLS estimators depend on  $\sigma$  which is generally unknown. But it can be estimated using the data.

#### Derivation: Variance OLS estimator

From above we have

$$\hat{\beta}_{j} = \beta_{j} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij} u_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ii}^{2}}$$

And we derive the variance as follows

$$Var(\hat{\beta}_{j}|(x_{1i},...,x_{ki})\forall i) = Var((\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij}^{2})^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij}u_{i}|(x_{1i},...,x_{ki})\forall i)$$

$$= (\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij}^{2})^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij}^{2} Var(u_{i}|(x_{1i},...,x_{ki})\forall i)$$

$$\stackrel{MLR.2-5}{=} \sigma^{2}/\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij}^{2} = \sigma^{2}/(SST_{j}(1-R_{j}^{2}))$$

since  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{r}_{ij}^2 = SST_j(1 - R_i^2)$ :

$$R_j^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_{ij}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{i:} - \overline{x}_i)^2} \equiv 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_{ij}^2}{55T_i}$$

## Estimating error variance



#### Error Variance

Under assumptions MLR.1 to MLR.5 we have that

$$E[\hat{\sigma}^2|x_1,\ldots,x_k] = \sigma^2$$

where

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n - k - 1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{u}_i^2$$

Proof of this result is omitted.

$$(n - k - 1) = \text{\#obs} - \text{\#parameters} = \text{degrees of freedom}$$

### OLS in matrix form



First write the regression model

$$y = X\beta + u$$

where

$$y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}; \quad X = \begin{pmatrix} x_{10} & \cdots & x_{1k} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{n0} & \cdots & x_{nk} \end{pmatrix}; \quad u_{n \times 1} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{pmatrix};$$

$$\beta_{(k+1)\times 1} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_k \end{pmatrix}$$

and  $x_{i0} = 1 \forall i$  if the model includes a constant.

#### OLS in matrix form



We can, as before, obtain the OLS estimator in two ways. Either we impose that the empirical moment condition X'(y-Xb)=0 and find the value of b that solves the k+1 equalities, or we can write the sum of squares

$$SSR(b) = (y - Xb)'(y - Xb) = y'y - 2b'X'y + b'X'Xb$$

and solve the 1st order conditions

$$\frac{\partial SSR(b)}{\partial b} = -2X'y + 2X'Xb = 0$$

doing so gives

$$X'(y - X\hat{\beta}) = 0$$

$$X'X\hat{\beta} = X'y$$

$$\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'y$$

#### OLS in matrix form



Unbiasedness follows from

$$E[\hat{\beta}|X] = E[(X'X)^{-1}X'(X\beta + u)|X] = \beta + (X'X)^{-1}X'E[u|X] = \beta$$

Note that we use the linear in parameters assumption in the first equality, and the zero conditional mean assumption in the last one. We also need that X'X is invertible which is a rank condition on X (it follows from MLR.4).

The variance can also be derived

$$Var(\hat{\beta}|X) = E[(\hat{\beta} - \beta)(\hat{\beta} - \beta)'|X]$$

$$= E[(X'X)^{-1}X'uu'X(X'X)^{-1}|X]$$

$$= (X'X)^{-1}X'E[uu'|X]X(X'X)^{-1}$$

$$= (X'X)^{-1}X'\sigma^{2}IX(X'X)^{-1}$$

$$= \sigma^{2}(X'X)^{-1}$$

## **BLUE**



#### Gauss-Markov Theorem

Under assumption MLR.1 through MLR.5  $\hat{\beta}_j$  is the best linear unbiased estimator (BLUE) of  $\beta_j \ \forall j=0,1,\ldots,k$ .

- Best = smallest variance
- Linear (in  $y_i$ ):  $\hat{\beta}_j = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i y_i$
- Unbiased:  $E[\hat{\beta}_j] = \beta_j$
- Estimator:  $\hat{\beta}_j = function(data)$

# OLS in matrix form: $\hat{\beta}$ is BLUE



Consider an alternative linear estimator

$$\tilde{\beta} = A'y$$

which has the following conditional expectation

$$E[\tilde{\beta}|X] = E[A'y|X] = E[A'(X\beta + u)|X]$$
  
=  $A'X\beta + A'E[u|X] = A'X\beta$ 

For  $\tilde{\beta}$  to be unbiased it must be true that

$$A'X = I$$

The variance

$$var(\tilde{\beta}|X) = A'var(u|X)A = \sigma^2 A'A$$

# OLS in matrix form: $\hat{\beta}$ is BLUE (cntd)



$$\begin{aligned} var(\tilde{\beta}|X) - var(\hat{\beta}|X) &= \sigma^{2}[A'A - (X'X)^{-1}] \\ &= \sigma^{2}[A'A - A'X(X'X)^{-1}X'A] \\ &= \sigma^{2}A'[I - X(X'X)^{-1}X']A \equiv \sigma^{2}A'MA \ge 0 \end{aligned}$$

where  $M = I - X(X'X)^{-1}X'$ . The last inequality follows because A'MA is positive semi-definite since

- M = M' (symmetric)
- M'M = M (idempotent)

This result carries over to any linear combination of OLS estimators since (c is a k by 1 vector):

$$var(c'\tilde{\beta}|X) - var(c'\hat{\beta}|X) = c'[var(\tilde{\beta}|X) - var(\hat{\beta}|X)]c \ge 0$$

## I understand/can apply..



- MLR/OLS estimators:
  - · hold many factors fixed
  - allows us to use more general functional forms
  - better prediction
  - unbiased under assumptions MLR.1-4
  - BLUE under MLR.1-5
- Partial out variables using auxiliary regression
- Omitted variable bias
- Irrelevant variables decrease the precision of OLS estimators, but do not result in bias
- $R^2$  measures fit. Do not pay too much attention to it (unless you are interested in prediction)