# Violations of Linear Regression Classic Assumptions and Their Remedies

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# Today's plan

- Reviewing the Gauss-Markov Assumptions (Classic OLS assumptions)
- OLS diagnostics
- Omitted variable problem
- Serial correlation vs. auto correlation
- Clustering and robust standard errors
- Does Multicollinearity violate the classic assumptions?

# The Gauss-Markov Assumptions

- **1.** Linearity assumption:  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$
- 2. X is a full rank matrix.
- **3.**  $E(\epsilon | X) = 0$
- **4.**  $E(\epsilon \epsilon' | X) = \sigma^2 I$
- **5.** X and  $\epsilon$  are orthogonal  $X \perp \epsilon$
- **6.**  $\epsilon | X \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I)$

Th assumption 6 is not actually required for the Gauss-Markov Theorem. However, we often assume it to make hypothesis testing easier.

Therefore, if assumptions 1-5 are violated, they mess up OLS *BLUEness*:

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y = \beta + (X^T X)^{-1} X \epsilon \tag{1}$$

# **OLS** diagnostics

- ► How can we test if our estimated model does not violate the OLS assumptions?
- $ightharpoonup \mathcal{R}$  offer nice visualization tools to check the possibility of OLS assumptions violations.

# Let's get back to our Acemoglu et al. (2001) example:

```
## MODEL INFO:
## Observations: 57
## Dependent Variable: logpgp95
## Type: OLS linear regression
##
## MODEL FIT:
## F(1,55) = 72.32, p = 0.00
\#\# R^2 = 0.57
## Adj. R^2 = 0.56
##
  Standard errors: OLS
##
##
                      Est. S.E. t val.
                4.89 0.38 12.79 0.00
## (Intercept)
## avexpr
                      0.49 0.06 8.50 0.00
```

#### Fitted values and residuals

- We need fitted values and residuals values of our estimated model to diagnose possible issues:  $e = y \hat{y}$ .
- There are different methods to do this; here I use broom package.

```
library(broom)

OLS1_diag_metrics <- augment(OLS1_results)</pre>
```

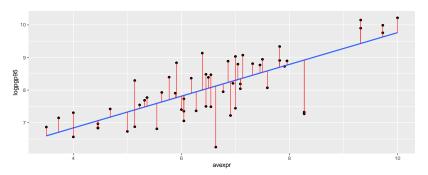
## Diagonstics metrics

#### head(OLS1\_diag\_metrics)

```
## # A tibble: 6 x 10
   .rownames logpgp95 avexpr .fitted .se.fit .resid .hat .sigma .cooksd
##
   <chr>
                <dbl> <dbl>
                              <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 372
                 6.87
                       3.5
                               6.60 0.193 0.270 0.0882 0.653 0.00916
## 2 219
                 7.15
                      3.73
                               6.71
                                    0.181 0.439 0.0780 0.652 0.0210
## 3 271
                 6.57
                               6.84 0.168 -0.276 0.0667 0.653 0.00691
                               6.84 0.168 0.466 0.0667 0.651 0.0197
## 4 323
                 7.31
## 5 141
                 6.85
                      4.45
                               7.06 0.146 -0.216 0.0505 0.654 0.00311
## 6 264
                 6.84
                       4.45
                               7.06 0.146 -0.227 0.0505 0.654 0.00343
## # with 1 more variable: std resid <dbl>
```

# Marking errors in your scatter-fit plot

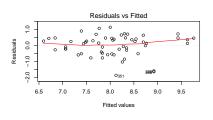
```
library(ggplot2)
ggplot(0LS1_diag_metrics, aes(avexpr, logpgp95)) +
geom_point() +
stat_smooth(method = lm, se = FALSE) +
geom_segment(aes(xend = avexpr, yend = .fitted), color = "red", size = 0.3)
```

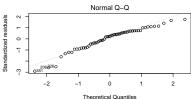


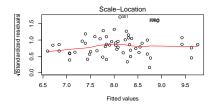
If you switch to a multivariate regression model, then the above plot would be a little bit different because OLS should fit the data across more than two variables!

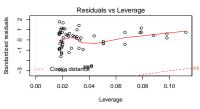
### Regression diagnostics plots

par(mfrow = c(2, 2))
plot(OLS1 results)







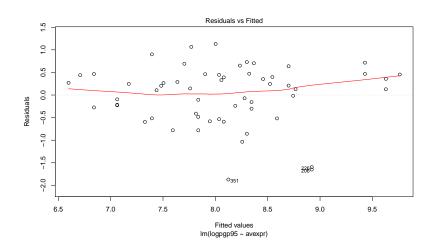


# Regression diagnostics plots (2)

- **1. Residuals vs Fitted:** Checking the linear relationship assumptions. The trend line should be close to a horizontal line to show a linear relationship.
- **2.Normal Q-Q:** Checking if the residuals are normally distributed. The trend of residuals points around the 45°(dashed) line is a good sign.
- **3.Scale-Location (or Spread-Location):** Checking the homogeneity of variance of the residuals (homoscedasticity). Equal spread of the points aroudn a horizontal line is a good indication of homoscedasticity. In our example, there is a small sign of heteroskedasticity.
- **4.Residuals vs Leverage:** Checkig if there are extreme values (outliers) that might influence the regression results.

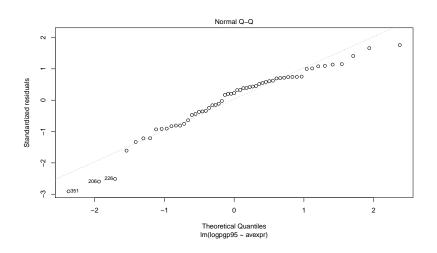
# Regression diagnostics individual plots

plot(OLS1\_results, 1)



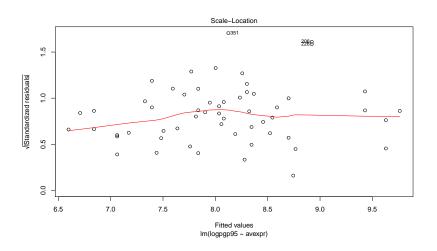
# Regression diagnostics individual plots

plot(OLS1\_results, 2)



# Regression diagnostics individual plots

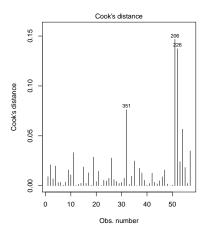
plot(OLS1\_results, 3)

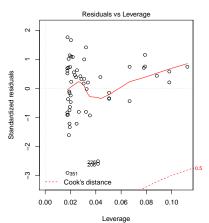


Identifying outliers/influencial variables

There variables are called influencial because adding or removing to the sample can change the results substantially. To measure the influence of observations, we can use the Cook's distance.

```
par(mfrow = c(1, 2))
plot(OLS1_results, 4)
plot(OLS1_results, 5)
```



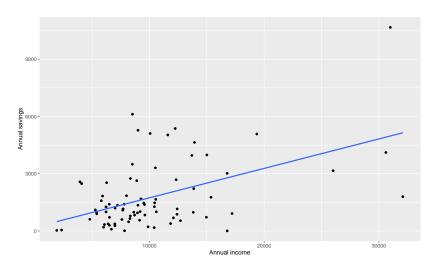


#### Robust and clustered standard errors

- heteroskedasticity does not lead to a biased coefficient, but it can lead to a biased estimation of the variance-covariance matrix.
- This can lead to incorrect t-statitics and confidence intervals. That is rejecting null hypothesis and finding support for our theory incorrectly.
- ▶ We learned how to identify this issue using Scale-Location (or Spread-Location), but how can we solve the problem?
- Serial correlation and auto correlation are among the main causes of heterogenous.
- ► Often, estimating robust and clustered standard errors can help to ease this problem.

# A new example: the association between income and saving

$$Saving_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_i \tag{2}$$

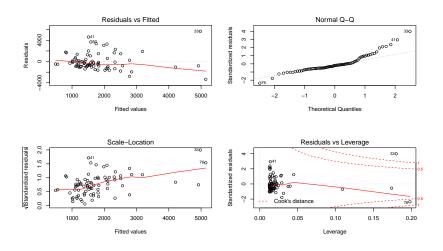


#### Estimation: non-robust

```
model1 <- lm(sav ~ inc, data = saving)
summary(model1)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = sav ~ inc, data = saving)
##
## Residuals:
## Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
## -3345 -900 -323 457 5690
##
## Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept) 195.1883 366.6416 0.53
                                              0.6
## inc
               0.1543
                          0.0312 4.95 0.0000042 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 1580 on 77 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.242, Adjusted R-squared: 0.232
## F-statistic: 24.5 on 1 and 77 DF, p-value: 0.00000424
```

# diagnostics plots par(mfrow = c(2, 2))

```
plot(model1)
```



# Estimation: robust

##

As always there are different ways to cluster standard errors; I here use lmtest and sandwich package.

```
library(lmtest)
library(sandwich)
coeftest(model1, vcov = sandwich)
```

```
## t test of coefficients:
##
```

## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|) ## (Intercept) 195.1883 524.2427 0.37 0.7107 ## inc

```
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.3
```

coeftest(model1, vcov = vcovHC(model1, type = "HCO")) ##

#### Cluster standard errors

Again different ways possible; I here use multiwayvcov package.

```
# FE regression with SE clustered by firm
library(multiwayvcov)
model2<-miceadds::lm.cluster(sav ~ inc, data = saving,
                            cluster="size")
model2
## $1m res
##
## Call:
## stats::lm(formula = formula, data = data, weights = wgt__)
##
## Coefficients:
## (Intercept)
                      inc
##
      195 188
                     0.154
##
##
## $vcov
               (Intercept)
                               inc
## (Intercept) 96074.7 -12.37845
                  -12.4 0.00207
## inc
##
## attr(,"class")
## [1] "lm.cluster"
```

# Omitted variable problem

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon \tag{3}$$

- ▶ When we estimate a regression model, how do we know that what variables should be included in the model?
- And, what is the potential problem caused by omitting an important variable?
- ▶ Let's check our Acemoglu et al. (2001) example again:

#### Model 1:

$$logGDP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Expropriation + \epsilon \tag{4}$$

#### Model 2:

$$logGDP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Expropriation + \beta_2 Democracy 1900 + \epsilon$$
 (5)

#### Results of Model 1

```
library(jtools)
# OLS model
OLS1_results <- lm(logpgp95~avexpr, data=myData)
summ(OLS1_results)
## MODEL INFO:
## Observations: 57
## Dependent Variable: logpgp95
## Type: OLS linear regression
##
## MODEL FIT:
## F(1,55) = 72.32, p = 0.00
## R^2 = 0.57
## Adj. R^2 = 0.56
##
## Standard errors: OLS
## -----
                  Est. S.E. t val.
## (Intercept) 4.89 0.38 12.79 0.00
## avexpr
               0.49 0.06 8.50 0.00
```

#### Results of Model 2

```
## MODEL INFO:
## Observations: 57
## Dependent Variable: logpgp95
## Type: OLS linear regression
##
## MODEL FIT:
## F(2,54) = 44.65, p = 0.00
## R^2 = 0.62
## Adj. R^2 = 0.61
##
## Standard errors: OLS
                 Est. S.E. t val.
## ------
## (Intercept) 5.33 0.39 13.58 0.00
               0.40 0.06 6.37 0.00
## avexpr
## democ00a 0.09 0.03 2.81 0.01
```

# Confounding effect

- A situation in which the effect or association between an independent variable and outcome is distorted by the presence of another variable.
- Assume that we estimated  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ . There is a variable z that is argued to be added to this model. Not including z in the model can cause a problem, only this *omitted variable* causes a confounding bias.
- An omitted variable problem can lead to a confounding bias if:
- 1. x is correlated with the omitted variable z.
- 2. The omitted variable has a causal association with the dependent variable Y.

# Confounding effect and biased estimation

- ▶ If z is correlated with y, but not included in the model, its effect will show up as part of the residuals. Therefore, residuals will be associated with x (because z is correlated with x).
- This is a violation of  $3^{rd}$  classic assumption:  $E(\epsilon|X) = 0$ , leading to a biased estimation.

# Solutions to omitted variable problem

- ▶ This is one of the most challenging problems to address
- Depends on whether the omitted variable is time-variant or invariant
- Adding the lag of dependent variable
- Adding fixed-effects and time effects