

程序代写代做 CS编程辅导

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ECON3206/5206



Review of Linear regression model

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- Suppose we are interested in wages in the United states. Wages vary across workers and can be described using a probability distribution.
- Formally, we view the wage of an individual worker as a random variable *wage* with **probability distribution**

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$$F(u) = \Pr(\text{wage} \leq u)$$

- A person wage is random: do not know the wage before it is measured. Observed wages are realizations from the distribution F
- We usually do not know F : we can learn about the distribution from many realizations of the wage variable.

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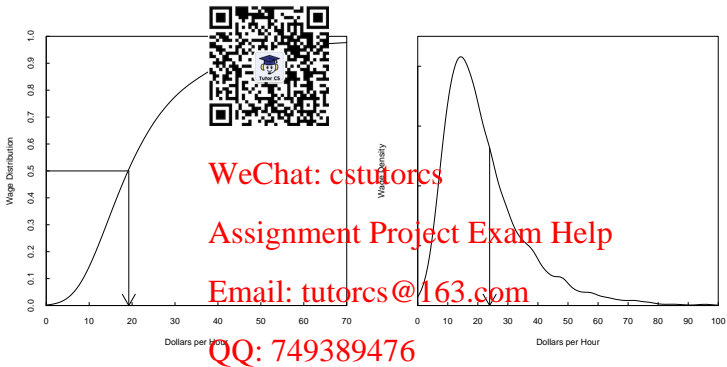


Figure 3.1: Wage Distribution and Density. All full-time U.S. workers

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- Important measures of central tendency are the median and the mean. The median m of a continuous distribution F is the solution to



$$F(m) = \frac{1}{2}$$

The median U.S. wage in 2009 is \$19,230.

- A convenient measure (but not robust) of central tendency is the **mean** or **expectation**.
- The expectation of a random variable with density f is

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We use the single character w to denote the random variable, rather than the more cumbersome label *wage*.

The mean wage in this example is \$23,110. The mean is not robust in the presence of substantial skewness or thick tails, which are both features of the wage distribution.

- In this context it is useful to transform the data by taking natural logarithm.

The mean of the random variable $\log(\text{wage})$ also denoted $\log(y)$ is \$2.95.

- The density of log wages is skewed and fat-tailed than the density of the level of wages, so its mean $E(\log(y))$ is a much better measure of central tendency of the distribution.
- In fact, the geometric mean $E(y) = \$19.11$ is a robust measure of central tendency of y !!

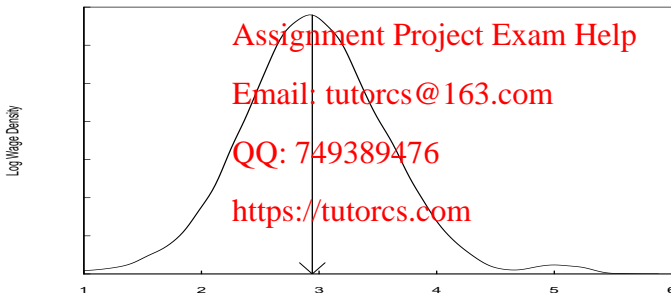
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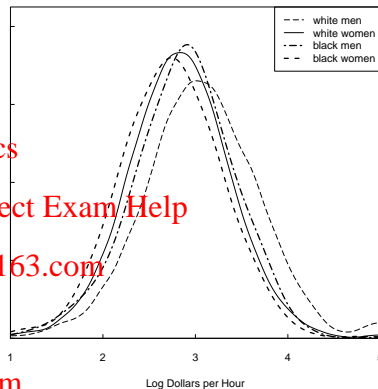
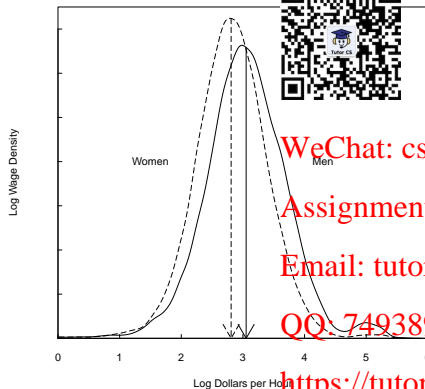
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- Is the wage distribution the same for all workers, or does the wage distribution vary across subpopulations?
- the plots above displays the distribution of log wages in the U.S. men and women with their means (3.05 and 2.81).
- the means displayed are called the **conditional means** (or **conditional expectations**) of log wages given gender:

$$E(\log(wage)|gender = man) = 3.05$$

$$E(\log(wage)|gender = woman) = 2.81$$

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- Here the conditioning variable *gender* is a random variable from the viewpoint of econometric analysis.
- We can use more than one variable in the conditioning of the expectation:

$$E(\log(wage)|gender = man, race = white) = 3.07$$

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- In many cases it is convenient to use $y|x$ notation by writing variables using single characters, typically y , x , and x_i .
- Typically in econometrics it is usual to denote the dependent variable by the letter y and the conditioning variable by the letter x , and multiple conditioning by the subscripted letters x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k .



- Conditional expectation can be written with the generic notation

$$E(y|x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) = m(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$$

- This is called the **conditional expectation function**. For example, the conditional expectation of $y = \log(\text{wage})$ given $(x_1, x_2) = (\text{gender}, \text{race})$ is given by

	men	woman
white	3.07	2.82
black	2.86	2.73
other	3.03	2.86

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- An econometrician has observed a



$(x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$

- If the data are cross-sectional, it is reasonable to assume they are mutually independent
- If the data are randomly gathered, it is reasonable to model each observation as a random draw from the same probability distribution. In this case the data are **independent and identically distributed**, or **iid**.
- To study how the distribution of y_i varies with x_i , we can focus on the conditional density of y_i given x_i and its conditional mean $m(x_i)$.
- The conditional mean function is the regression function.

$$y_i = E[y_i|x_i] + (y_i - E[y_i|x_i]) = E[y_i|x_i] + \mu_i$$

- $E[\mu_i|x_i] = 0$.
- μ is called the conditional expectation function error

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- While the conditional mean $m(\mathbf{x})$ is the best predictor of y among all functions of \mathbf{x} , its functional form is typically
- For empirical implementation, it is typical to replace $m(\mathbf{x})$ with an approximation.
- Most commonly, this approximation is linear in \mathbf{x} .
- It is convenient to augment the regressor vector \mathbf{x} by listing the number 1 as an element. We call this the **constant** or **intercept** term.



$$m(\mathbf{x}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_K x_K = \mathbf{x}'\beta$$

where

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- Boldface letter indicates a column vector. In the case of one regressor x and a constant term: $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1)$ and $\mathbf{x} = (1, x)'$, and $\mathbf{x}'\beta = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$.
(Wisdom: Models should have a constant term unless the theory says they should not.)

Assumption 1 (MLR.1): Linearity

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Assumption

MLR.1 Linearity : The population model is linear in the parameters:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_k x_k + \mu, \quad (1)$$

where β_i , $i = 0, \dots, k$ are the unknown (constants) parameters of interest, x_i 's are the regressors which can be assumed to be either fixed or random, and μ the random error.

If the linearity assumption is violated then the regression model is misspecified. This is known as functional form misspecification (although this is still linear in β 's)

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- The model does not account for some important nonlinearities;

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- Omitting important variables is also model misspecification;

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- Generally functional form misspecification causes biases in the remaining parameter estimators.

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Example

Suppose that the correct specification of the wage equation is:

$$\log(\text{wage}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{educ} + \beta_2 \text{exper} + \beta_3 (\text{exper})^2 + \mu, \quad (2)$$

then the return for an extra year of experience is

$$\frac{\partial \text{wage}}{\partial \text{exper}} = \text{wage} \times [\beta_2 + 2\beta_3 \text{exper}].$$

If the estimated model is instead:

$$\log(\text{wage}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{educ} + \beta_2 \text{exper} + \mu, \quad (3)$$

then use of the biased (upward) OLS estimator of β_2 can be misleading.

If the estimated model is instead:

$$\text{wage} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{educ} + \beta_2 \text{exper} + \beta_3 (\text{exper})^2 + \mu, \quad (4)$$

$$\partial \text{wage} / \partial \text{exper} = \beta_2 + 2\beta_3 \text{exper} \quad (5)$$

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Assumption

MLR2. Random Sampling:

We have a random sample of n observations, $\{(x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ik}, y_i) : i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$, following the population model in Assumption 1.

Nonrandom sampling causes OLS estimator to be biased and inconsistent.

Scenarios where Assumption 2 does not hold include:

- Missing Data
- Nonrandom Samples
- Outliers

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Assumption

MLR3. No Perfect Collinearity:

In the sample and in the population, none of the independent variables is constant, and there are no exact linear relationships among the independent variables.

Scenarios where Assumption 3 is violated include:

- One independent variable is a linear combination of one or more other regressors. It is not a problem to include nonlinear functions of the same variables
 - For example include consumption, investment and income on the right hand side of the regression equation. In national accounts, national income is the sum of consumption and investment
 - Including all seasonal dummies and the constant term in the regression

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Assumption

MLR4. Zero Conditional Mean:

The error term μ has a conditional expected value of zero given any values of the independent variables,

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$$E(\mu | x_1, \dots, x_K) = 0$$

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This assumption fails for many reasons, these include:

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- Misspecification of the functional form
- Omitting important factors correlated with any of the regressors: omitted variables bias.
- Measurement error in the explanatory variables (more later, W. Ch. 15).
- Endogeneity and Simultaneity: some explanatory variables are determined jointly with the dependent variable

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Theorem

Unbiasedness

Under Assumptions MLR1-MLR4, the ordinary least squares (OLS) estimator, $\hat{\beta}_j$, $j = 0, \dots, K$ is unbiased. That is its expected value is equal to the population parameter,

$$E(\hat{\beta}_j) = \beta_j \text{ for } j = 0, \dots, K$$

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- OLS estimator minimizes the sum of squared residuals. For the simple case of one regressor x_1 , $\hat{\beta} = (\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1)$ minimizes,

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$$SSR(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_1)^2$$

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Anatomy of the single regression

Consider the case of multiple regressors

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$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \mu_i$$

(6)

The population regression coefficient

β_1 are defined by solving:

$$\beta_0, \beta_1 \text{ minimize } E[(y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i)^2]$$

The first order conditions,

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$$\frac{\partial E[(y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2]}{\partial \beta_0} = E[-2(y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)] = 0$$

(7)

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$$\frac{\partial E[(y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2]}{\partial \beta_1} = E[-2x_i(y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)] = 0$$

(8)

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Solving for β_0 and β_1 :

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$$\beta_1 = \frac{\text{Cov}(y_i, x_i)}{\text{Var}(x_i)}$$

(9)

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$$\beta_0 = E[y_i] - \beta_1 E[x_i]$$

(10)

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Consider the case of multiple regressors:

$$y_i = x_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_K x_{iK} + \mu_i \quad (11)$$

Matrix notation!

Let $\mathbf{x}_i = (1, x_{i1}, \dots, x_{iK})'$ be the vector of regressors (including the constant term) and $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_K)$, then:

$$y_i = \mathbf{x}_i' \beta + \mu_i \quad (12)$$

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- **Useful representation!** The population regression coefficients are defined by:

$$\beta_k = \frac{\text{Cov}(y_i, \bar{x}_{ki})}{V(\bar{x}_{ki})}, \quad (13)$$

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where \bar{x}_{ki} is the residual from a regression of x_{ki} on all other variables.

- Each coefficient in a multivariate regression is the bivariate slope coefficient for the corresponding regressor, after “**partialling out**” all the other variables in the model.

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Assumption

MLR5. Homoskedasticity

The error term has the same variance given any values of the explanatory variables:

$$\text{Var}(\mu_i | x_{i1}, \dots, x_{iK}) = \sigma^2$$

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- Homoskedasticity : the variance of the error term does not depend on the explanatory variables,
- When is this a bad assumption?

If omitted variables are not correlated with the included variables, but have a different order of magnitude for (groups of) observations.

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Theorem

Gauss Markov

*Under Assumptions MLR1-MLR5, OLS estimator is **BLUE**.*

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- What happens to OLS estimator if one/all of these assumptions does not hold?

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- Suppose the correct model



of variables,

$$X_1\beta_1 + X_2\beta_2 + \epsilon$$

- Compute least squares omitting X_2 . Denote this estimator by $\widetilde{\beta}_1$. Some easily proved results:

- $V(\widetilde{\beta}_1)$ is smaller than $V(\widehat{\beta}_1)$, i.e., you get a smaller variance when you omit X_2 . (One interpretation: Omitting X_2 amounts to using extra information ($\beta_2 = 0$). Even if the information is wrong (see the next result), it reduces the variance. (This is an important result.)

- (No free lunch)

$$E[\widetilde{\beta}_1] = \beta_1 + (X_1'X_1)^{-1}X_1'X_2\beta_2 \neq \beta_1.$$

So, $\widetilde{\beta}_1$ is **biased**.

The bias can be huge. Can reverse the sign of a price coefficient in a “demand equation.”

$\widetilde{\beta}_1$ may be more “precise.” Smaller variance but positive bias. If bias is small, may still favor the short regression.

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- (Free lunch?) Suppose $X_1'X_2 = 0$, the bias goes away. Interpretation, the information is not “right,” it is irrelevant. Same as $\hat{\beta}_1$.
- It can be shown that

$$V(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{SST_1(1 - R_1^2)}$$

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where SST_1 is the total variation in X_1 and R_1 is the R – squared from the regression of X_1 on X_2 . Furthermore,

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$$V(\tilde{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{SST_1}$$

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- when $\beta_2 \neq 0$, $\tilde{\beta}_1$ is biased, and $V(\tilde{\beta}_1) < V(\hat{\beta}_1)$;
- when $\beta_2 = 0$, both $\tilde{\beta}_1$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ are unbiased, and $V(\tilde{\beta}_1) < V(\hat{\beta}_1)$;

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What affects the variance of OLS?

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- The variance of the OLS estimator, conditional on the sample values of the independent variables is



$$= \frac{\sigma^2}{SST_j(1 - R_j^2)} \quad (14)$$

where $SST_j = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_j)^2$ is the total sample variation in X_j and R_j^2 is the R-squared from the regression of X_j on all other independent variables including constant term.

- The larger σ^2 , the larger is the variance of OLS estimator. More noise means difficult to estimate the partial effect of an independent variable.
- The larger the total variation in X_j , the smaller is the variance of $\hat{\beta}_j$. To increase the in sample variation of X_j , one can increase the sample size!

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- The variance of an estimated coefficient will tend to be larger if there are other X 's in the model that can predict X_j . This is reflected by a high R_j^2 in equation 14;
- The standard error of prediction will also tend to be larger if there are unnecessary or redundant X 's in the model.

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This is a variant on linear regression that downplays the influence of outliers

- First performs the original OLS regression
- Drops observations with Cook's distance > 1
- Calculates weights for each observation based on their residuals
- Performs weighted least squares regression using these weights.

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