

Lecture Note 5

Intro to Multivariate Regression

1 Matchmaker, Matchmaker

We're often interested in the causal effect of one variable, X_{1i} , on an outcome variable, Y_i , in a scenario where the correlation between Y_i and X_{1i} at least partly reflects the fact that X_{1i} is correlated with another variable, X_{2i} , that also predicts Y_i .

- The strong correlation between health (Y_i) and health insurance (X_{1i}) in the NHIS might be explained by the higher schooling (X_{2i}) of the insured
- Econometricians use *multivariate regression* to control for such confounding factors
- Well-applied regression moves us along the path to *ceteris paribus* comparisons, mitigating and perhaps even eliminating selection bias.

Regression mitigates selection bias by conditioning on a set of possibly confounding variables so as to hold them constant. To keep things simple, suppose that X_{1i} is Bernoulli. "Holding things constant" in this case means replacing the unconditional comparison,

$$E[Y_i | X_{1i} = 1] - E[Y_i | X_{1i} = 0],$$

with conditional comparisons,

$$E[Y_i | X_{1i} = 1, X_{2i} = x] - E[Y_i | X_{1i} = 0, X_{2i} = x]. \quad (1)$$

In other words, we look at the CEF of Y given X_{1i} , *conditional on* $X_{2i} = x$. In Pset 1, for example, you're asked to compare the health of the insured and uninsured conditional on college graduation status.

- In terms of the potential outcomes notation introduced in LN4, we might be prepared to assume that X_{1i} is independent of potential $Y_i(0)$ conditional on X_{2i} :

$$E[Y_i(0) | X_{1i} = 1, X_{2i} = x] = E[Y_i(0) | X_{1i} = 0, X_{2i} = x],$$

where observed Y_i is determined by potentials according to $Y_i = (1 - X_{1i})Y_i(0) + X_{1i}Y_i(1)$. When this holds, the conditional comparison is causal

- Conditional comparisons of this sort are often said to be *effects* of X_{1i} computed while *matching* on values of X_{2i} .
 - Matching on X_{2i} ensures that all who contribute to the comparison of averages across values of X_{1i} have the same value of X_{2i} (at least)
 - Matching needn't yield 100% *ceteris paribus* comparisons to be useful and interesting
 - Even when the effect of X_{1i} is unlikely to be causal, as for the wage differences by ethnicity discussed below, the fact that conditioning on X_{2i} changes the size of the X_{1i} effect contributes to our understanding of it

- Define the conditional comparison:

$$\delta(X_{2i}) \equiv E[Y_i \mid X_{1i} = 1, X_{2i}] - E[Y_i \mid X_{1i} = 0, X_{2i}].$$

Note that $\delta(X_{2i})$ is a function of X_{2i} and therefore has a distribution determined by the distribution of X_{2i}

1.1 Multivariate Regression Makes Me a Match

- Controls, X_{2i} , may take on many values (because there are many things to be controlled and/or because the individual controls take on many values, like SAT scores in the public-private college comparisons discussed below and in *MM* Chapter 2)
 - This threatens to overwhelm us with a multitude of conditional comparisons
- Regression solves this problem by fitting a linear model with a single conditional effect, while also generating the standard errors needed to do statistical inference for this effect

Regression is a many-splendored thing. We introduce it by assuming the CEF of Y_i given X_{1i} and X_{2i} is linear:

$$E[Y_i \mid X_{1i}, X_{2i}] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} \quad (2)$$

Defining $\varepsilon_i = Y_i - E[Y_i \mid X_{1i}, X_{2i}]$, we have:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \varepsilon_i,$$

where

$$E[\varepsilon_i \mid X_{1i}, X_{2i}] = 0.$$

By definition (as a CEF residual), ε_i is mean-zero and uncorrelated with regressors, X_{1i} and X_{2i} :

$$E[\varepsilon_i] = E[Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_{1i} - \beta_2 X_{2i}] = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$E[\varepsilon_i X_{1i}] = E[(Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_{1i} - \beta_2 X_{2i}) X_{1i}] = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$E[\varepsilon_i X_{2i}] = E[(Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_{1i} - \beta_2 X_{2i}) X_{2i}] = 0 \quad (5)$$

Distributing expectations and re-arranging terms gives 3 linear equations in 3 unknowns:

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 E[X_{1i}] + \beta_2 E[X_{2i}] = E[Y_i] \quad (6)$$

$$\beta_0 E[X_{1i}] + \beta_1 E[X_{1i}^2] + \beta_2 E[X_{2i} X_{1i}] = E[Y_i X_{1i}] \quad (7)$$

$$\beta_0 E[X_{2i}] + \beta_1 E[X_{1i} X_{2i}] + \beta_2 E[X_{2i}^2] = E[Y_i X_{2i}] \quad (8)$$

The values of $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$ that solve this system define the *multivariate regression* of Y_i on X_{1i} and X_{2i} .

- Regression residuals are surely uncorrelated with the regressors that made them (why?)
- What if the CEF is nonlinear?
 - As explained in the appendix to *MM* Chpt 2 (and detailed in *MHE* Chpt 3), multivariate regression gives a best-in-class linear *approximation* to any CEF
 - An important consequence of this awesome approximation property is that regression is an *automatic matchmaker* (we “prove” this by computer below)

- With one independent variable, X_{1i} , we can write a linear CEF as $E[Y_i | X_{1i}] = \alpha + \beta X_{1i}$. In this case, the solution to equations (3)-(4) can be shown to be:

$$\begin{aligned}\beta &= C(Y_i, X_{1i})/V(X_{1i}) \\ \alpha &= E[Y_i] - \beta E[X_{1i}]\end{aligned}$$

We use these *bivariate regression* formulas to understand *multivariate regression* (be sure you can derive this important special case).

2 Regression Talk

- Regression casts random variables in one of three roles
 - a variable to be explained, the *dependent variable*, denoted here by Y_i
 - * In many of our examples, wages, grades, health, and test scores are the dependent variables
 - * Dependent variables are sometimes called *outcome variables*, especially when the regressor of interest is a treatment dummy
 - *independent variables*, also known as *regressors*, of which, there are typically two types
 - * *the regressor of interest*, like a treatment dummy in an experiment, a dummy for health insurance, years of education, or college characteristics
 - * *control variables* that help us interpret the coefficient on the regressor of interest, making it more likely that this is a causal effect
 - * sometimes regression talk references *covariates* - this can be a synonym for all regressors, but may also (depending on context) refer only to those included as *controls*
- Sometimes we lump all regressors together, labeling them with generic symbol X_i , which most often denotes a set or vector of regressors
- We often use notation that distinguishes the regressor of interest from control variables. We might, for example, use D_i for treatment status, with controls denoted by W_i . The vector X_i then contains both the focal regressor, D_i , and the controls, W_i . Formally, $X_i = [D_i \ W_i']'$ (all vectors are column vectors).

3 Ordinary Least Squares

We *estimate* regression parameters with sample analogs. For example, bivariate regression estimators are given by:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\alpha} &= \bar{Y} - \bar{X}_1 \hat{\beta} \\ \hat{\beta} &= s_{X_1 Y} / s_{X_1}^2\end{aligned}$$

These *Ordinary Least Squares* (OLS) estimators of α and β seem natural and have good statistical properties.

- Traditional 'metrics texts derive OLS as the solution to a sample least squares problem (hence the name). The traditional story in a nutshell:
 - Using observations on a pair of random variables: $\{(Y_i, X_{1i}); i = 1, \dots, n\}$, you'd like to model Y_i as a linear function of X_{1i}

- How should you pick the slope and intercept? Minimizing the sample sum of squared errors,

$$SSE_{Y|X_1}(a, b) = \sum_i (Y_i - a - bX_{1i})^2,$$

generates $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$, above (be sure you can show this)

- OLS estimators, like sample means, are random and subject to sampling variance. This sampling variance is quantified by:
 1. standard errors, t-statistics, and confidence intervals
 2. F-statistics for joint tests
- Details TBD in LN7, but the ideas behind 1 are already familiar, so we'll start using these tools today.

4 Regression for Dummies

When the independent variable is a dummy, say D_i , then $E[Y_i | D_i]$ is linear:

$$E[Y_i | D_i] = \underbrace{E[Y_i | D_i = 0]}_{\alpha} + \underbrace{(E[Y_i | D_i = 1] - E[Y_i | D_i = 0])}_{\beta} D_i$$

The bivariate regression slope and intercept must therefore be:

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= E[Y_i | D_i = 0] = E[Y_i] - E[D_i]\beta \\ \beta &= E[Y_i | D_i = 1] - E[Y_i | D_i = 0] = C(D_i, Y_i)/V(D_i) \end{aligned}$$

(Show this in Pset 2)

- *Regression estimates differences in means.* No surprise: we've repeatedly seen regression used to estimate differences in means in comparisons of treatment and control groups using data from experiments like ALO (2009) and CGW (2017).
- When regressors are discrete and our regression model includes dummies for all of the possible values they might assume, the regression model is said to be *saturated*. The regression function and CEF coincide for saturated models (why?)

Matchmaker Reprise

- We introduced regression by assuming the CEF is linear, in which case the regression function is it. Otherwise, regression approximates a nonlinear CEF. That leaves an open ticket on my claim that regression is an automatic matchmaker, that is, a simple strategy to make *ceteris paribus* comparisons across values of D_i , while holding control variables, W_i , fixed.
- Here's the formal result behind this claim: Consider coefficient δ in the regression of Y_i on dummy D_i and a vector of saturated dummy controls, W_i , including constant:

$$Y_i = W_i' \gamma + \delta D_i + \varepsilon_i, \tag{9}$$

- Note that (9) has a single treatment effect. As noted above, however, the conditional difference in means with D_i switched on and off is a function of W_i . That is,

$$\delta(W_i) = E[Y_i | D_i = 1, W_i] - E[Y_i | D_i = 0, W_i]$$

- The regression coefficient δ in (9) can be shown to be a weighted average of $\delta(W_i)$. In particular:

$$\delta = \frac{E[\delta(W_i)\sigma_D^2(W_i)]}{E[\sigma_D^2(W_i)]}, \quad (10)$$

where $\sigma_D^2(W_i)$ is the conditional variance function for D_i given W_i . MHE Section 3.3 proves this. We show this below by computer.

5 Asians and Whites Under Control

- In a sample of prime age male high school grads in the 2016 American Community Survey, Asians (75% of whom are foreign-born) earn more than (non-Asian) Whites

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. summarize

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Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
agep	57,822	44.63239	2.835719	40	49
wagp	57,822	85133.18	88524.26	0	714000
wkhp	57,822	45.16629	10.01506	1	99
racasn	57,822	.0985092	.2980045	0	1
racpi	57,822	.0031476	.0560155	0	1
racwht	57,822	.9063505	.291343	0	1
uhe	57,050	34.79542	29.36205	0	201.5789
loguhe	53,874	3.360682	.7238038	-6.437752	5.306181
immig	57,822	.1754868	.3803863	0	1
yearsEd	57,822	14.53499	2.428069	12	21
hsgrad	57,822	1	0	1	1
somecol	57,822	.5345024	.4988125	0	1
colgrad	57,822	.442029	.4966323	0	1
asianpac	57,822	.1009304	.3012392	0	1
white	57,822	.8990696	.3012392	0	1

```

. bys asianpac: summarize loguhe yearsEd colgrad immig

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```

-> asianpac = 0

```

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
loguhe	48,397	3.345498	.7155838	-6.437752	5.306181
yearsEd	51,986	14.40621	2.377636	12	21
colgrad	51,986	.4188435	.4933744	0	1
immig	51,986	.1102605	.3132171	0	1

```

-> asianpac = 1

```

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
loguhe	5,477	3.494851	.7800729	-3.912023	5.30231
yearsEd	5,836	15.68215	2.567458	12	21
colgrad	5,836	.6485607	.4774608	0	1
immig	5,836	.7565113	.4292243	0	1

- Is the Asian wage effect causal? (Ponder potential outcomes)
- Either way, an ethnicity gap in college graduation rates might explain it

. reg loguhe asianpac

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	53,874
Model	109.751403	1	109.751403	F(1, 53872)	=	210.31
Residual	28113.8826	53,872	.521864468	Prob > F	=	0.0000
				R-squared	=	0.0039
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0039
Total	28223.634	53,873	.523892005	Root MSE	=	.7224

loguhe	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]
asianpac	.149353	.0102988	14.50	0.000	.1291672 .1695388
_cons	3.345498	.0032837	1018.81	0.000	3.339062 3.351934

. reg loguhe asianpac colgrad

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	53,874
Model	4867.00805	2	2433.50402	F(2, 53871)	=	5612.77
Residual	23356.626	53,871	.433565851	Prob > F	=	0.0000
				R-squared	=	0.1724
				Adj R-squared	=	0.1724
Total	28223.634	53,873	.523892005	Root MSE	=	.65846

loguhe	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]
asianpac	.0094287	.0094818	0.99	0.320	-.0091556 .0280131
colgrad	.6041877	.0057679	104.75	0.000	.5928825 .615493
_cons	3.091823	.0038501	803.05	0.000	3.084277 3.09937

. reg loguhe asianpac yearsEd

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	53,874
Model	5327.2321	2	2663.61605	F(2, 53871)	=	6267.00
Residual	22896.4019	53,871	.425022775	Prob > F	=	0.0000
				R-squared	=	0.1888
				Adj R-squared	=	0.1887
Total	28223.634	53,873	.523892005	Root MSE	=	.65194

loguhe	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]
asianpac	-.0170668	.0094149	-1.81	0.070	-.03552 .0013864
yearsEd	.1300443	.0011737	110.80	0.000	.1277437 .1323448
_cons	1.471337	.017173	85.68	0.000	1.437678 1.504996

. bys colgrad: reg loguhe asianpac

-> colgrad = 0

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	29,986
Model	11.0183369	1	11.0183369	F(1, 29984)	=	28.38
Residual	11639.6575	29,984	.388195619	Prob > F	=	0.0000
				R-squared	=	0.0009
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0009
Total	11650.6758	29,985	.388550135	Root MSE	=	.62305

loguhe	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]
asianpac	-.0785125	.0147369	-5.33	0.000	-.1073975 -.0496276
_cons	3.097422	.0037183	833.01	0.000	3.090134 3.10471

-> colgrad = 1

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	23,888
Model	11.3753421	1	11.3753421	F(1, 23886)	=	23.23
Residual	11695.0036	23,886	.489617498	Prob > F	=	0.0000
				R-squared	=	0.0010
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0009
Total	11706.3789	23,887	.490073216	Root MSE	=	.69973

loguhe	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]
asianpac	.0612206	.0127012	4.82	0.000	.0363255 .0861158
_cons	3.688275	.0049087	751.37	0.000	3.678654 3.697897

- Compare the college-controlled regression estimate of 0.009 (above) to the average conditional-on-college Asian effect:

$$-.0785(.558) + .0612(.442) \simeq -.017$$

Both are close to zero

- Regression makes me a match! (on college graduation status)

6 Regression Fission

Every regression splits the dependent variable into two parts: residuals and fitted values. Consider a regression equation with two regressors:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \varepsilon_i. \quad (11)$$

This can be written:

$$Y_i = \hat{Y}_i^* + \varepsilon_i,$$

where:

$$\hat{Y}_i^* \equiv \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i}$$

are the regression *fitted values* and the residual, ε_i , is the part left over. Note that fitted values are a linear combination of regressors.

- We'll have more to say about residuals and fitted values in LN8. For now, it's enough to note that residuals are mean-zero and uncorrelated with fitted values. That is,

$$E[\varepsilon_i] = 0$$

$$E[\hat{Y}_i^* \varepsilon_i] = 0$$

Look back at the equations that define regression parameters (3-5) to see why this must be so.

- Stata's `predict` command computes residuals and fitted values *in your data*. Sample fitted values and residuals are defined as:

$$Y_i = \hat{Y}_i + e_i,$$

where:

$$\hat{Y}_i \equiv \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 X_{2i},$$

and hats on the right-hand side denote OLS estimates. Sample residuals and fits satisfy:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n e_i = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{Y}_i e_i = 0$$

in the sample that made them.

7 Regression Anatomy

System (3) doesn't immediately reveal how multivariate regression works its matching magic. Let's look inside the system of equations that defines regression.

- Start with a regression equation with two regressors:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \varepsilon_i \quad (12)$$

- Add the following two *auxiliary regressions*:

$$\begin{aligned} X_{1i} &= \delta_{10} + \delta_{12} X_{2i} + \tilde{x}_{1i} \\ X_{2i} &= \delta_{20} + \delta_{21} X_{1i} + \tilde{x}_{2i} \end{aligned}$$

where the δ 's are bivariate regression coefficients [e.g., $\delta_{12} = COV(X_{1i}, X_{2i})/V(X_{2i})$], while \tilde{x}_{1i} is the residual from a regression of X_{1i} on X_{2i} and \tilde{x}_{2i} is the residual from a regression of X_{2i} on X_{1i}

The following theoretical result is key to our understanding of multivariate regression models:

The Regression-Anatomy Theorem.

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_1 &= COV(Y_i, \tilde{x}_{1i})/V(\tilde{x}_{1i}) \\ \beta_2 &= COV(Y_i, \tilde{x}_{2i})/V(\tilde{x}_{2i}) \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Substitute for Y_i using $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \varepsilon_i$, and use the properties of regression residuals and fitted values highlighted above.

- Multivariate β_1 captures the effect of \tilde{x}_{1i} , that is, the part of X_{1i} that is not explained (in a regression sense) by X_{2i}
- Multivariate β_2 captures the effect of \tilde{x}_{2i} , that is, the part of X_{2i} that is not explained (in a regression sense) by X_{1i}


```
. ***regression anatomy***
```

```
. reg loguhe asianpac yearsEd age
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	53,874
Model	5361.33436	3	1787.11145	F(3, 53870)	=	4210.94
Residual	22862.2996	53,870	.424397617	Prob > F	=	0.0000
				R-squared	=	0.1900
				Adj R-squared	=	0.1899
Total	28223.634	53,873	.523892005	Root MSE	=	.65146

loguhe	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
asianpac	-.0142974	.009413	-1.52	0.129	-.032747	.0041521
yearsEd	.1301485	.0011729	110.96	0.000	.1278496	.1324475
agep	.0088739	.0009899	8.96	0.000	.0069336	.0108142
_cons	1.073621	.0475708	22.57	0.000	.9803819	1.16686

```
. **step 1
```

```
. reg asianpac age yearsEd if e(sample)==1
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	53,874
Model	130.397429	2	65.1987147	F(2, 53871)	=	733.29
Residual	4789.79355	53,871	.088912282	Prob > F	=	0.0000
				R-squared	=	0.0265
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0265
Total	4920.19098	53,873	.091329441	Root MSE	=	.29818

asianpac	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
agep	-.0034517	.0004529	-7.62	0.000	-.0043393	-.002564
yearsEd	.0198273	.00053	37.41	0.000	.0187885	.0208662
_cons	-.0326626	.0217734	-1.50	0.134	-.0753386	.0100134

```
. predict ap_resid, residuals
```

```
. **step 2
```

```
. reg loguhe ap_resid
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	53,874
Model	.97911525	1	.97911525	F(1, 53872)	=	1.87
Residual	28222.6549	53,872	.523883555	Prob > F	=	0.1716
				R-squared	=	0.0000
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0000
Total	28223.634	53,873	.523892005	Root MSE	=	.7238

loguhe	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
ap_resid	-.0142974	.0104582	-1.37	0.172	-.0347957	.0062008
_cons	3.360682	.0031184	1077.70	0.000	3.35457	3.366794

- It works! Phew!

8 Regression Checks for Balance

RCT research studies typically begin with evidence of *covariate balance* - the covariates here are random variables that describe the sample. We first encountered covariate balance in the intro slides, showing that treatment and control groups in the CGW2017 laptop experiment look similar. We also checked for balance in LN2, in the context of the pay-for-grades RCT discussed in ALO2009.

- An easy way to check for balance is to regress covariates on a treatment dummy, including any needed *stratification controls*
- Regression on dummy variables estimates differences in means
- The Angrist, Oreopoulos, and Williams (2014; AOW2014) RCT is stratified and therefore reports regression estimates of treatment-control differences *controlling for strata*.
 - An RCT is stratified when treatment is randomly assigned within covariate-defined subgroups called strata (a simple RCT randomizes unconditionally).
 - The AOW2014 section describing experimental design notes: *Treatment assignment was stratified by year (first and second) and sex, with 100 in each group. Within sex-year cells, assignment was stratified by high school GPA quartile, with 25 in each group. (The analysis below controls for strata.)*
- Pset 4 asks you to replicate the AOW2014 balance estimates; balance looks good within strata, as we'd expect given the RCT research design
- Pset 4 also asks you to check for balance without strata controls. This needn't work out well (though it might).