

Violating Assumptions

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Required Packages

The following packages are needed for the material presented in the slides

- car
- lmtest
- MASS
- nlme
- orcutt
- prais
- sandwich

Overview

Non-Constant
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Testing for
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Key assumptions underlying the ordinary least square (OLS) model

- ① **Linear in coefficients:** Linear relationship between y and x_1, \dots, x_k
- ② **Zero mean of the error terms:** $E(\epsilon|x_1, \dots, x_k) = 0$ and normally distributed error terms
- ③ **Homoscedasticity:** $Var(\epsilon_i) = \sigma^2$
- ④ **No autocorrelation between error terms:** $Cov(\epsilon_i, \epsilon_j) = 0$ for all $i \neq j$
- ⑤ **Exogeneity of independent variables:** $E(\epsilon_i|x_1, \dots, x_k)$, i.e., independent variables contain no information to predict error terms
- ⑥ **Full rank** (linear independence of all columns) of X (matrix of independent variables): Perfect multicollinearity (i.e., one independent variable being perfectly predicted from a linear combination of one or more other independent variables) leads to a rank deficiency of X

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Non-constant error (ϵ_i) variance, i.e., heteroscedasticity

- Testing for heteroscedasticity using the Goldfeld-Quandt Test (1965) and the Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey Test (1979)
- Correcting for heteroscedasticity by using heteroskedasticity-consistent (robust) standard errors

Multicollinearity

- Detecting multicollinearity with Variance Inflation Factors (VIF)

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Homoscedasticity

$$\text{Var}(\epsilon_i) = \sigma^2$$

Heteroscedasticity

$$\text{Var}(\epsilon_i) = \sigma_i^2$$

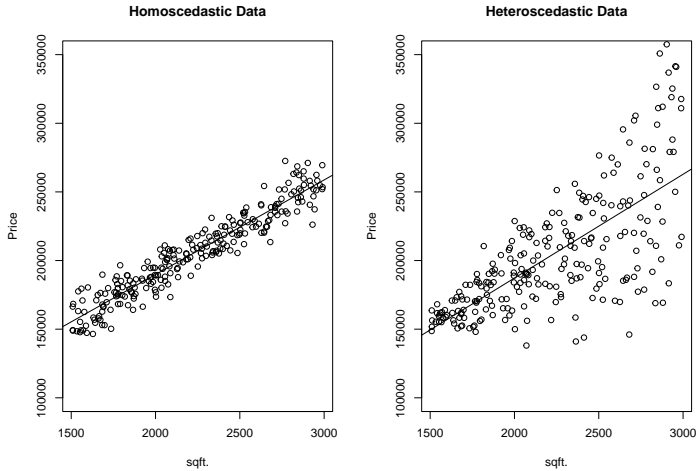
It can be shown that

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \underbrace{\frac{\sigma_i^2}{\sum x_i^2}}_{\text{Hetero.}} \neq \underbrace{\frac{\sigma^2}{\sum x_i^2}}_{\text{Homo.}}$$

Notes

- Coefficient estimates and R^2 are unaffected by heteroscedasticity
- Variance of β_1 is larger

Homoscedastic vs. Heteroscedastic Data



Examples and Effects of Heteroscedasticity I

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Examples

- *Income, savings, and consumption*: People with higher incomes tend to have more variability in their savings and expenditures whereas low-income individuals spend close to their income
- *Firms and dividends*: Companies with larger profits show more variability in dividend payments
- *Education and income*: Wages may be more predictable for lower education levels while higher education degrees introduce greater variability due to differences in occupation, industry, and experience
- *House price and square footage*: Small price variations for smaller homes compared to larger homes

Examples and Effects of Heteroscedasticity II

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Examples

- *Municipal budget variability and city size*: Larger cities experience greater fluctuations in budget expenditures due to the complexity and unpredictability of managing diverse public services
- *Public program effectiveness and demographics*: Policy interventions show more variable outcomes in diverse populations (e.g., in terms of socio-economics) compared to more homogeneous communities, leading to inconsistent program effectiveness

Effects of heteroscedasticity

- Requirement of homoscedasticity for t -test, F -test, and confidence intervals
- F -statistics no longer have the F -distribution
- Bottom line: Hypothesis tests on the β coefficients are no longer valid

Generalized Least Squares (GLS) I

If σ_i^2 was known:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_i + \epsilon_i$$

Dividing both sides by the known variance:

$$\frac{y_i}{\sigma_i} = \beta_0 \cdot \frac{1}{\sigma_i} + \beta_1 \cdot \frac{x_i}{\sigma_i} + \frac{\epsilon_i}{\sigma_i}$$

If $\epsilon_i^* = \epsilon_i / \sigma_i$, then it can be shown that $\text{Var}(\epsilon_i^*) = 1$, i.e., constant.

Generalized Least Squares (GLS) II

Regular OLS

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \epsilon_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_i)^2$$

GLS with $w_i = 1/\sigma_i$

$$\sum_{i=1}^N w_i \cdot \epsilon_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i \cdot (y_i - \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_i)^2$$

GLS: Minimization of the weighted sum of squared residuals

Generalized Least Squares (GLS) III

Implementation of GLS

- 1 Estimate the heteroscedasticity structure, e.g., using a White test or Breusch-Pagan test
- 2 Model the variance function σ_i^2 , e.g., as a function of explanatory variables
- 3 Compute weights $w_i = 1/\hat{\sigma}_i$.
- 4 Transform the dependent and independent variables using those weights
- 5 Perform weighted least squares (WLS) regression on the transformed data

Goldfeld-Quandt Test: Steps

Steps for the Goldfeld-Quandt Test

- 1 Sorting observations in ascending order of an independent variable likely introducing heteroscedasticity
- 2 Choosing c as the number of central observations to drop resulting in sample sizes $n_1 = n_2 = (n - c)/2$
- 3 Running two separate regression equations
- 4 Compute λ with k as the number of coefficients to be estimated including the intercept

$$\lambda = \frac{RSS_2 / (n_2 - k)}{RSS_1 / (n_1 - k)}$$

- 5 λ follows F -distribution and a hypothesis test can be conducted

Goldfeld-Quandt Test: Manual Implementation

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Setup

- Example using `gqdata` with `sqft` being sorted in ascending order,
- $C = 4$

```
gqdata1      = gqdata[1:20,]  
gqdata2      = gqdata[31:50,]  
bhat         = lm(price~sqft,data=gqdata)  
bhat1        = lm(price~sqft,data=gqdata1)  
bhat2        = lm(price~sqft,data=gqdata2)  
sum(bhat2$residuals^2)/sum(bhat1$residuals^2)
```

```
## [1] 2.826607
```

Goldfeld-Quandt Test: R Function

```
gqtest(bhat, fraction=10)
```

```
##
```

```
## Goldfeld-Quandt test
```

```
##
```

```
## data: bhat
```

```
## GQ = 2.8266, df1 = 18, df2 = 18, p-value = 0.01665
```

```
## alternative hypothesis: variance increases from segment 1 to 2
```

Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey Test: Steps

Steps for the Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey Test

① Run a regular OLS model and obtain the residuals

② Calculate

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \epsilon_i^2}{N}$$

③ Construct the variable $p_i = \epsilon_i^2 / \hat{\sigma}^2$

④ Run a regression as follows with x_i as the independent variables from the original regression

$$p = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \cdot x_1 + \alpha_2 \cdot x_2 + \dots$$

⑤ Obtain the explained sum of squares (ESS) and define $\Theta = 0.5 \cdot ESS$. Then $\Theta \sim \chi_{m-1}^2$.

Or simply use `bptest(bhat)` in R

Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey Test: R Function

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```
bptest(bhat)
```

```
##
```

```
## studentized Breusch-Pagan test
```

```
##
```

```
## data: bhat
```

```
## BP = 3.8751, df = 1, p-value = 0.04901
```


Robust Standard Errors: Steps

Robust standard (heteroscedasticity-consistent) errors

- Estimation of a covariance matrix (usually denoted Ω in books)

Steps in R

- 1 Estimation of a regular OLS model
- 2 Estimation of a covariance matrix using `vcovHC()` from the [sandwich](#) package
- 3 Applying the function `coeftest()` from the [nlme](#) package

Simultaneous execution of steps 2 and 3

Robust Standard Errors: Methods

HC0: Default heteroscedasticity-consistent (HC) standard error estimator

- Uses squared residuals without any adjustment
- Suitable for large samples

HC1: Adjusts HC0 for small sample bias by scaling the residuals

- Equivalent to HC0 multiplied by $n/(n - k)$ where k is the number of independent variables

HC2: Corrects for leverage effects in small samples

- Division of squared residuals by $1 - h_i$ where $0 \leq h_i \leq 1$ is the leverage of observation i (i.e., influence of i on regression coefficients)

HC3: Additional adjustment compared to HC2 for small sample size

- Division of squared residuals by $(1 - h_i)^2$

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```
bhat = lm(price~sqft,data=gqdata)
b1    = coeftest(bhat,vcov=vcovHC(bhat,type="HC0"))
b2    = coeftest(bhat,vcov=vcovHC(bhat,type="HC1"))
b3    = coeftest(bhat,vcov=vcovHC(bhat,type="HC2"))
b4    = coeftest(bhat,vcov=vcovHC(bhat,type="HC3"))
```

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[illegible]

Problem with Multicollinearity

From the book Basic Econometrics by Gujarati:

“If multicollinearity is perfect [...], the regression coefficients of the X variables are indeterminate and their standard errors are infinite. If multicollinearity is less than perfect [...], the regression coefficients, although determinate, possess large standard errors (in relation to the coefficients themselves), which means the coefficients cannot be estimated with great precision or accuracy.”

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Perfect multicollinearity with λ_i representing constants that are not all zero simultaneously

$$\lambda_1 \cdot x_1 + \lambda_2 \cdot x_2 + \cdots + \lambda_k \cdot x_k = 0$$

Example

$$x_1 = \{8, 12, 15, 45\}$$

$$x_2 = \{24, 36, 15, 51\}$$

$\lambda_1 = 1$ and $\lambda_2 = -1/3$ are such that $x_1 - 1/3 \cdot x_2 = 0$. Multicollinearity refers to linear relationships and including a squared or cubed term does not represent multicollinearity

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Estimation of energy consumption based on income and home size

- Likely high correlation between income and house size

Estimation of education quality (e.g., test scores, graduation rates) based on public spending (e.g., per-capita education budget, teacher salary, and number of schools)

- Correlation between education budget and teacher salary as well as education budget and number of schools

Estimation of crime based on crime prevention policies and public safety expenditures

- Likely correlation of public safety expenditures and the ability to fund crime prevention policies

Over-determined model

- Number of variables k larger than number of observations n

Indications of Multicollinearity

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Signs of multicollinearity

- High R^2 but few significant variables
- Failure to reject H_0 (i.e., $\beta_i = 0$) based on t -values but rejection of F -test (i.e., all slopes being simultaneously zero)
- High correlation among explanatory variables
- Variation of statistically significant variables between models that include different sets of independent variables

Consequences of multicollinearity

- Increase in variances of coefficients

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Purpose

- Identification of possible correlation among multiple independent variables and not just two as in the case of a correlation coefficient
- Detect inflated variance based on multicollinearity

Theoretical aspects

- Existence of a VIF for each independent variable in the model

Regressing each independent variable on all other independent variables

VIF: Calculation and Interpretation

Calculation

- VIF for variable k

$$VIF_k = \frac{1}{1 - R_k^2}$$

Interpretation

- $VIF = 1$: No relationship between the variable x_k and the remaining independent variables
- $VIF > 1$: Some degree of multicollinearity
- $VIF > 4$: Warrants attention
- $VIF > 10$: Indication of serious problem

The latter two are rules of thumb

Data used: bloodpressure

- Patient ID (*pt*), blood pressure (*bp*), body surface area (*bsa*), and duration of hypertension (*dur*)

Correlation matrix

##		bp	age	weight	bsa	dur	pulse	stress
##	bp	1.00	0.66	0.95	0.87	0.29	0.72	0.16
##	age	0.66	1.00	0.41	0.38	0.34	0.62	0.37
##	weight	0.95	0.41	1.00	0.88	0.20	0.66	0.03
##	bsa	0.87	0.38	0.88	1.00	0.13	0.46	0.02
##	dur	0.29	0.34	0.20	0.13	1.00	0.40	0.31
##	pulse	0.72	0.62	0.66	0.46	0.40	1.00	0.51
##	stress	0.16	0.37	0.03	0.02	0.31	0.51	1.00

Regular OLS Regression Results

```
##
## =====
##                               Dependent variable:
##                               -----
##                               bp
## -----
## age                0.703*** (0.050)
## weight             0.970*** (0.063)
## bsa                 3.776**  (1.580)
## dur                 0.068 (0.048)
## pulse              -0.084 (0.052)
## stress              0.006 (0.003)
## -----
## Observations                20
## R2                          0.996
## F Statistic    560.641*** (df = 6; 13)
## =====
## Note:          *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01
```

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Using the function `vif` from the package `car`:

```
vif(bhat1)
```

```
##          age    weight         bsa         dur      pulse      stress
## 1.762807  8.417035  5.328751  1.237309  4.413575  1.834845
```

VIF: Calculation of VIF for weight

```
##
## =====
##                               Dependent variable:
##                               -----
##                               weight
## -----
## age                -0.145 (0.206)
## bsa                21.422*** (3.465)
## dur                 0.009 (0.205)
## pulse              0.558*** (0.160)
## stress             -0.023 (0.013)
## -----
## Observations                20
## R2                          0.881
## F Statistic    20.768*** (df = 5; 14)
## =====
## Note:          *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01
```

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The results indicate that $R^2 = 0.881$ then

$$VIF = \frac{1}{1 - 0.881} = 8.403361$$

Solution:

- Eliminate BSA because weight is easier to obtain.
- Pulse may be an issue as well.

VIF: Final Regression

[illegible]