



Stat 104: Quantitative Methods for Economists

Class 37: Dummy Variables and More Diagnostics

Example: Brick Houses

- We have data on 128 recent sales in Mid City.
- For each sale, the file shows the neighborhood (1, 2, or 3) in which the house is located, the number of offers made on the house, the square footage, whether the house is made primarily of brick, the number of bathrooms, the number of bedrooms, and the selling price.
- Neighborhoods 1 and 2 are more traditional neighborhoods, whereas neighborhood 3 is a newer, more prestigious neighborhood.

Snapshot of Data

| 4 | A | В | C | D | E | F | G | H | 1 | J | K |
|-----|------|------|--------|-------|-------|----------|-----------|--------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 | Home | Nbhd | Offers | Sq Ft | Brick | Bedrooms | Bathrooms | Price | Nbhd1 | Nbhd2 | Nbhd3 |
| 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1790 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 114300 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2030 | 0 | 4 | 2 | 114200 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1740 | 0 | 3 | 2 | 114800 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 5 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 1980 | 0 | 3 | 2 | 94700 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 6 | 5 | 2 | 3 | 2130 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 119800 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 7 | 6 | 1 | 2 | 1780 | 0 | 3 | 2 | 114600 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 | 7 | 3 | 3 | 1830 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 151600 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 9 } | 8 | 3 | 2 | 2160 | 0 | 4 | 2 | 150700 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| LO | 9 | 2 | 3 | 2110 | 0 | 4 | 2 | 119200 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 11 | 10 | 2 | 3 | 1730 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 104000 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 12 | 11 | 2 | 3 | 2030 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 132500 | 0 | 1 | 0 |

Is there a brick premium

■ All else equal, do buyers pay a premium for a brick house?

```
lm(formula = Price ~ Offers + Sq.Ft + Brick + Bedrooms + Bathrooms +
Nbhd2 + Nbhd3, data = foo)
  Residuals:
  Min 10 Median 30 Max
-27337.3 -6549.5 -41.7 5803.4 27359.3

        Coefficients:
        St. Error
        value Pr(>[t])

        (Intercept)
        2159.488
        8877.810
        0.243
        0.80823

        Offers
        9-627.488
        1084.777
        -7.621
        6.478-12
        ***

        Sq.7E
        5.294
        5.734
        9.242
        1.10e-15
        ***

        Bedrooms
        4246.794
        1597.911
        2.558
        0.00834
        ***

        Nbhd2
        -1560.379
        2386.765
        -0.651
        0.51621
        ***

        Nbhd3
        0.0661.037
        3184.994
        -6.561
        3.58e-09
        ***

  Residual standard error: 10020 on 120 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.8686, Adjusted R-squared: 0.861
Festatistic: 113.3 on 7 and 120 DF, psyalue: 6.2.2e=16
```

Is there a Neighborhood 3 Premium?

> fit=lm(Price-Offers+Sq.Ft+Brick+Bedrooms+Bathrooms+Nbhd2+Nbhd3,data=foo)
> summary(fit)

```
Call:
lm(formula = Price ~ Offers + Sq.Ft + Brick + Bedrooms + Bathrooms
Nbhd2 + Nbhd3, data = foo)
Residuals:
Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
-27337.3 -6549.5 -41.7 5803.4 27359.3
Coefficients:
                     Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
Estimate
(Intercept) 2159.498
Offers -8267.488
Sq.Ft 52.994
Brick 17297.350
Bedrooms 4246.794
                                    Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)

8877.810 0.243 0.80823

1084.777 -7.621 6.47e-12 ***

5.734 9.242 1.10e-15 ***

1981.616 8.729 1.78e-14 ***

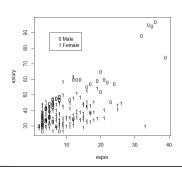
1597.911 2.658 0.00894 **
                                                       8.729 1.78e-14 ***
2.658 0.00894 **
Bathrooms
                    7883.278
                                       2117.035
                                                        3.724 0.00030 ***
                                      2396.765 -0.651 0.51621
3148.954 6.568 1.38e-09 ***
                   20681.037
Signif. codes: 0 \***' 0.001 \**' 0.01 \*' 0.05 \.' 0.1 \' 1
Residual standard error: 10020 on 120 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.8686, Adjusted R-squared: 0.861
F-statistic: 113.3 on 7 and 120 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

Interaction Variables

- Another type of variable used in regression models is an interaction variable.
- This is usually formulated as the product of two variables; for example, $x_3 = x_1x_2$
- With this variable in the model, it means the level of x_2 changes how x_1 affects Y

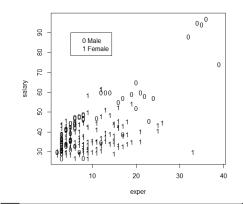
Bank Data Again

■ Examine the graph-do you see two lines with different intercepts and slopes?



To model different slopes you need an interaction term.

Salary Versus Years of Experience



1 female 0 male

At all levels of experience, the male salaries appear higher.

The Interaction Model

With two x variables the model is:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_1 x_2 + e$$

If we factor out x_1 we get:

$$y = \beta_0 + (\beta_1 + \beta_3 x_2)x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + e$$

so each value of x_2 yields a different slope in the relationship between y and x_1

Interaction Involving an Indicator

If one of the two variables is binary, the interaction produces a model with two different slopes.

When
$$x_2 = 0$$

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + e$$

When $x_2 = 1$

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$$y = (\beta_0 + \beta_2) + (\beta_1 + \beta_3)x_1 + e$$

Example: Discrimination (again)

- In the Bank Case, suppose we suspected that the salary difference by gender changed with different levels of experience
- To investigate this, we created a new variable MEXP = EXPER*MALES and added it to the model.

Regression Output

How do we interpret the equation this time?

A Slope Adjuster

To see the interaction effect, once again evaluate the equation for the two groups.

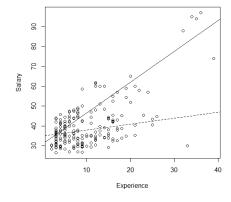
```
FEMALES (MALES = 0)

SALARY = 35 + 0.3 EXPER - 4 MALES + 1.25 MEXP
= 35 + 0.3 EXPER - 4 (0) + 1.25 (EXPER*0)
= 35 + 0.3 EXPER

MALES (MALES = 1)

SALARY = 35 + 0.3 EXPER - 4 MALES + 1.25 MEXP
= 35 + 0.3 EXPER - 4 (1) + 1.25 (EDUCAT*1)
= 35 + 0.3 EXPER - 4 + 1.25 EXPER
= 31 + 1.55 EXPER
```

Lines With Two Different Slopes



Women start out at a higher rate, but men make much more money per year of experience.

Are these results significant? What do we examine in the regression output?

.

What does the following imply?

```
fit=lm(Price~Offers+Sq.Ft+Brick+Bedrooms+Bathrooms+Nbhd2+Nbhd3+inter)
> summary(fit)
lm(formula = Price ~ Offers + Sq.Ft + Brick + Bedrooms + Bathrooms +
Nbhd2 + Nbhd3 + inter)
Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
-26939.1 -5428.7 -213.9 4519.3 26211.4
Coefficients
                  Estimate Std. Error
3009.993 8706.264
-8401.088 1064.370
54.065 5.636
                                                  t value Pr(>|t|)
0.346 0.73016
-7.893 1.62e-12 ***
9.593 < 2e-16 ***
Offers
Sq.Ft
                                                  5.748 7.11e-08 ***
2.991 0.00338 **
3.000 0.00329 **
-0.283 0.77751
Brick
                  13826.465
                                   2405.556
                                   1577.613
2154.264
2376.477
Bathrooms
                                                    5.084 1.39e-06 ***
Nbhd3
                  17241.413
                                   3391.347
inter
                  10181.577
                                   4165.274
                                                   2.444 0.01598 *
Residual standard error: 9817 on 119 degrees of freedom
```

1

A further look at the noise term

We assume

 $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ independent

This is called homoskedastic noise

In contrast you could have

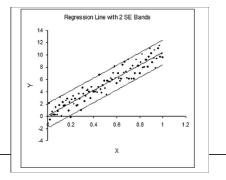
 $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma_i^2)$ independent

This is called heteroskedastic noise

Homoskedasticty Visual

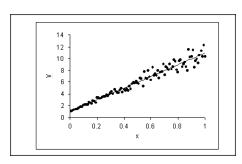
Multiple R-squared: 0.8749, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8665 F-statistic: 104 on 8 and 119 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

■ This is what we assume is happening in regression with our noise:

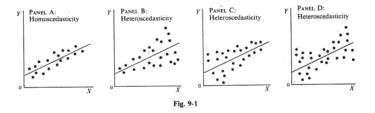


Heteroskedasticity Visual

■ This is (one) example of heteroskedasticity



Many forms of heteroskedasticity

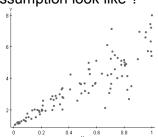


What's the difference?

- If the noise is homoskedastic, there is one term to estimate regarding the noise, σ^2
- If the noise is heteroskedastic, there are n things to estimate regarding the noise, σ_i^2
- Would you rather have to estimate 1 thing, or n things? That's why we assume we have homoskedastic noise. But we could be wrong.

Non-Constant Variance or Heteroskedasticity

Another of our basic assumptions is that the ε_i all have the same distribution and in particular, the same variance. What does a violation of this assumption look like ?

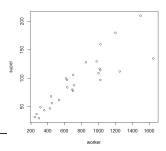


heteroskedasticity means the variance of the errors changes.

our model assumes "homoskedasticity"

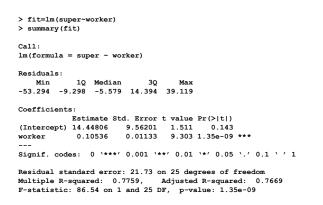
Example:

We have data on manufacturing plants for a Fortune 500 company. The data consists of the number of supervisors (Y) and the associated number of supervised workers (X),

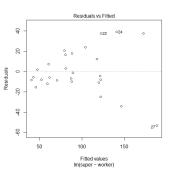


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Regression Output



Residual Diagnostics



If you have heteroskedasaticity, your estimates are ok, but your standard errors are incorrect. That's not good.

Good basic solution for heteroskedasticity

- Essentially there is too much variation in the model. That is, there is excess variation in the Y variable.
- An easy way to reduce the variation in Y is to take the log of it.

The log

- By "logging" your data, you are transforming it to a different scale.
- The log scale squeezes numbers together, so there is less variation. However, the model becomes slightly different to interpret since the scale of the Y variables changes (instead of dollars we are modeling "log dollars"; what exactly are those ?)

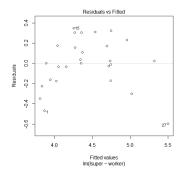
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New Regression Output

WARNING: now can't compare s or R-sq

because it's different units.
earlier was y vs x
now it's log y vs x

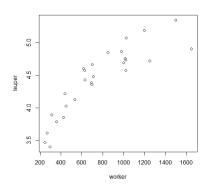
New Residual Plot



Are we done or is there anything else wrong?

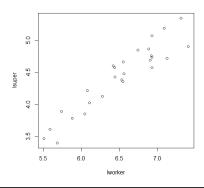
2

What transformation should we try?



Go back to our transformation guide

We will try log(X)

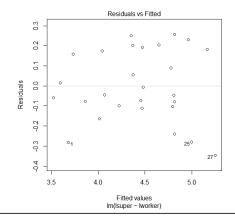


New Output

this we can compare to previous because data is log y in both cases Se went down

R2 adjusted went up

How does the residual plot look?



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Example: Auto Data

■ This (old) data set has information of the price and several explanatory variables of cars from 1978

| variable name | storage type | display format | value label | variable label |
|---------------|-----------------|-------------------|----------------|------------------------|
| make | str18 | %-18s | | Make and Model |
| price | int | %8.0ac | | Price |
| mpq | int | %8.0g | | Mileage (mpg) |
| rep78 | int | %8.0g | | Repair Record 1978 |
| headroom | float | %6.1f | | Headroom (in.) |
| trunk | int | %8.0a | | Trunk space (ću. ft.) |
| weight | int | %8.0gc | | weight (lbs.) |
| length | int | %8.0g | | Length (in.) |
| turn | int | %8.0g | | Turn Circle (ft.) |
| displacement | int | %8.0a | | Displacement (cu. in.) |
| gear_ratio | float | %6.2f | | Gear Ratio |
| foreign | byte | %8.0g | origin | Car type |

The Regression Model

> fit=lm(price~mpg+weight+trunk+foreign)
> summary(fit)

> summary(fit)

Call:
lm(formula = price ~ mpg + weight + trunk + foreign)

Residuals: Min 1Q Median 3Q Max -3289.1 -1239.1 -607.1 1346.6 6433.7

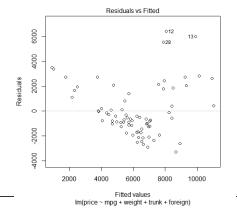
Coefficients:

Estimate Std. Error t (Intercept) -5425.547 3394.248 -1.598 0.115 74.341 0.207 mpg weight 3.761 0.685 5.491 6.23e-07 *** trunk 5.427 8.01e-07 *** foreign 3711.123 683.821

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 2128 on 69 degrees of freedom

(1 observation deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.5082, Adjusted R-squared: 0.4797
F-statistic: 17.82 on 4 and 69 DF, p-value: 4.313e-10

Diagnostic Plot



Testing for Heteroskedasticity

- This is called the Breusch-Pagan test
- Step 1: Run the full regression
- Step 2: Run the following regression

$$e_i^2 = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \hat{Y}_i$$

- Step 3: test if the slope=0 [some finesse to this because of the possible heteroskedasicity]
- This is done with the ncv.Test() in the car package

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Testing for Heteroskedasticity

Ho: It's homoskedastic Ha: It's heteroskedastic p is low, Ho must go

there is non constant variation in the noise, we must fix it

One Fix-log the Y variable

```
> lprice=log(price)
> fiti=lm(lprice=mpg+weight+trunk+foreign)
> summary(fiti)

Call:
lm(formula = lprice ~ mpg + weight + trunk + foreign)

Coefficients:

Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 7.126e+00 4.318e-01 16.502 < 2e-16 ***
mpg -6.239e-04 9.458e-03 -0.066 0.948
weight 4.756e-04 8.714e-05 5.458 7.08e-07 ***
trunk -4.928e-03 1.006e-02 -0.490 0.626
foreign 5.370e-01 8.700e-02 6.173 4.05e-08 ***
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 '' 1

Residual standard error: 0.2707 on 69 degrees of freedom
(1 observation deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.5496, Adjusted R-squared: 0.5235
F-statistic: 21.05 on 4 and 69 DF, p-value: 2.233e-11

> novTest(fit1)
Non-constant Variance Score Test
Variance formula: ~ fitted.values
Chisquare = 0.2462385 Df = 1 p = 0.6197362
```

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Another Fix-Robust Standard Errors

Heteroscedasticity-consistent standard errors

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The topic of heteroscedasticity-consistent (HC) standard errors arises in statistics and econometrics in the context of linear regression and also time series analysis. The alternative names of Huber–White standard errors, Eicker–White or Eicker–Huber–White^[1] are also frequently used in relation to the same ideas.

> vcov(fit)

| (Intercept) | 11520922.475 | -231194.15857 | -1928.3389611 | 30744.61425 | -976986.8084 |
|-----------------|--|-----------------------------|---------------------|--|----------------------------|
| mpg | -231194.159 | 5526.60072 | 34.6012622 | 463.88421 | 8859.3115 |
| weight | -1928.339 | 34.60126 | 0.4691758 | -21.28866 | 227.4872 |
| trunk | -30744.614 | 463.88421 | -21.2886589 | 6248.41732 | -2733.2255 |
| foreign | -976986.808 | 8859.31146 | 227.4871772 | -2733.22550 | 467610.8021 |
| | | | | | |
| > hccm(fit) | | | | | |
| | (Intercept) | mpq | weight | trunk | foreign |
| | | | | | |
| (Intercept) | | -307295.78981 | -3685.55732 1 | 49637.05061 - | 1514207.9977 |
| (Intercept) mpg | | -307295.78981 7197.09176 | | .49637.05061 - -2296.67470 | 1514207.9977 12446.5930 |
| | 15895724.483 | | | | |
| mpg | 15895724.483 -307295.790 | 7197.09176 | 61.29616 | -2296.67470 | 12446.5930 |
| mpg weight | 15895724.483 -307295.790 -3685.557 | 7197.09176 61.29616 | 61.29616 1.06737 | -2296.67470 -64.46125 6679.74624 | 12446.5930 457.8455 |

Another Issue: Multicollinearity

- ☐ For a regression of Y on k explanatory variables X1,....,Xk, it is hoped that the explanatory variables will be highly correlated with the dependent variable. A relation is sought that will explain a large portion of the variation in Y.
- ☐ At the same time, however, it is not desirable for strong relationships to exist **among** the explanatory variables.
- ☐ When explanatory variables are correlated with one another, the problem of multicollinearity is said to exist.

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The presence of a high degree of multicollinearity among the explanatory variables will result in the following problems:

- •The standard deviations of the regression coefficients (s_bi) will be disproportionately large. As a result, the t-ratios will be small. Thus we may think we do not need variables when in fact we do.
- •The regression coefficient estimates will be unstable. Because of the high standard errors, reliable estimates are hard to obtain. Signs of the coefficients may be opposite of what is intuitive reasonable. Dropping one variable from the regression will cause large changes in the estimates of the other variables.

Detecting Multicollinearity

•Compare the pairwise correlations between the explanatory variables. One rule of thumb is that multicollinearity may be a serious problem if any pairwise correlation is larger than 0.5

Example:

For the past 12 months, the manager of Pizza Lean-to has been running a series of ads in the local newspaper. The ads are scheduled and paid for in the month before they appear.

Each of the ads contains a two-for-one coupon, which entitles the bearer to two Pizza Lean-to pizzas while only paying for the more expensive pizza.

The manager has collected the data on the following slide and would like to use it to predict pizza sales.

| Month | Number of ads appearing X1 | Cost of ads appearing X2 | Total Pizza Sales Y |
|-----------|----------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|
| May | 12 | 13.9 | 43.6 |
| June | 11 | 12 | 38 |
| July | 9 | 9.3 | 30.1 |
| August | 7 | 9.7 | 35.3 |
| September | 12 | 12.3 | 46.4 |
| October | 8 | 11.4 | 34.2 |
| Novermber | 6 | 9.3 | 30.2 |
| December | 13 | 14.3 | 40.7 |
| January | 8 | 10.2 | 38.5 |
| February | 6 | 8.4 | 22.6 |
| March | 8 | 11.2 | 37.6 |

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Simple Model 1

■ Regress pi sales on num ads

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Simple Model 2

■ Regress pi sales on cost ads

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The Multiple Regression Model

■ What happened?

Contradiction! Why?

```
> fit3=lm(pisales~numads+costads)
> summary(fit3)
lm(formula = pisales ~ numads + costads)
   Min
            1Q Median
-5.6981 -1.8223 -0.6656 2.4470 6.0123
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 6.5836
                       8.5422 0.771
numads
             0.6247
                        1.1203
                                 0.558
costads
             2.1389
                        1.4701 1.455
                                          0.180
Residual standard error: 3.989 on 9 degrees of freedom
                               Adjusted R-squared:
F-statistic: 9.741 on 2 and 9 DF, p-value: 0.005604
```

What has happened here?

In the simple linear regression, each variable is highly significant, and in the multiple regression, they are collectively very significant, but individually not significant.

This apparent contradiction is explained once we notice that the number of ads is highly correlated with the cost of the ads:

Correlation 0.895 is really high. You don't need both. Throw one out. They're giving the same info.

- ☐ This is a classic case of multicollinearity. In fact, you might wonder why these two variables are not perfectly correlated. This is because the cost of an ad varies slightly, depending on where it appears in the newspaper.
- Since X1 and X2 are closely related to each other, in effect, they explain the same part of the variability in Y.
- ☐ That is why we get R²=.61 in the first simple regression, R²=.67 in the second simple regression, but an R² of only .68 in the multiple regression.
- Adding the number of ads as a second explanatory variable to the cost of ads explains only about 1 percent more of the variation in total sales.

At this point, it is fair to ask

"Which variable is really explaining the variation in total sales in the multiple regression?"

The answer is that both are, but we cannot separate out their individual contributions, because they are so highly correlated with each other.

Dealing with Multicollinearity

- Throw out some explanatory variables
- Get more data
- •Redefine variables (create an index) (X1+X2)/2
- Step-wise regression

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Multicollinearity Again

Variance Inflation Factors (VIF)

- To determine if one X is related to the other X's in the model, we can regress each X on the other X's in the model. That is, let X1,....,Xk be the explanatory variables.
- Perform the regression of Xj on the remaining k-1 explanatory variables and call the coefficient of determination from this model R_i².
- We define the variance inflation factor (VIF) for the variable X_i as

$$VIF_j = \frac{1}{1 - R_j^2}$$

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Interpreting VIF's

- A variance inflation factor can be computed for each X variable in the model. It is a measure of the strength of the relationship between each explanatory variable and all the other explanatory variables in the regression.
- If there is no relationship, R_j²=0 and VIF_j=1. As R_j² increases, VIF_j increases also. For example, if R_j²=.90, then VIF_i=10.
- A rule of thumb says that if VIF_j>10, then multicollinearity may be a problem with X_j.

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Why is it called VIF?

First, consider a multiple regression model with two predictors

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + e$$

Let r_{12} denote the correlation between x_1 and x_2 and S_{x_j} denote the standard deviation of x_i . Then it can be shown that

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{j}) = \frac{1}{1 - r_{12}^{2}} \times \frac{\sigma^{2}}{(n - 1)S_{x_{j}}^{2}} \quad j = 1, 2$$

Notice how the variance of $\hat{\beta}_j$ gets larger as the absolute value of r_{12} increases. Thus, correlation amongst the predictors increases the variance of the estimated regression coefficients. For example, when $r_{12}^2 = 0.99$ the variance of $\hat{\beta}_j$ is

$$\frac{1}{1 - r_{12}^2} = \frac{1}{1 - 0.99^2} = 50.25 \text{ times larger than it would be if } r_{12}^2 = 0 \text{ . The term } \frac{1}{1 - r_{12}^2}$$

is called a variance inflation factor (VIF).

More on VIF

Let R_j^2 denote the value of R^2 obtained from the regression of x_j on the other x's (i.e., the amount of variability explained by this regression). Then it can be shown that

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_{j}) = \frac{1}{1 - R_{j}^{2}} \times \frac{\sigma^{2}}{(n - 1)S_{x_{j}}^{2}} \quad j = 1, ..., p$$

The term $1/(1-R_i^2)$ is called the *j*th variance inflation factor (VIF).

Example: Auto Data (again)

■ Regress Price on Length

Example: Auto Data (again)

■ Regress Price on Weight

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Compare

- What is the sign of the slope coefficient in each model?
- Which model is better?

Full Model

■ What is going here with weight and length?

```
> fit=lm(price~mpg+rep78+headroom+trunk+weight+length+turn)
> summary(fit)
```

Coefficients:

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 16142.479 6467.281 2.488 0.0156 *
mpg -104.452 80.312 -1.301 0.1983
rep78 723.217 324.880 2.226 0.0297 *
headroom -655.962 421.397 -1.557 0.1247
trunk 79.229 105.205 0.753 0.4543
weight 5.286 1.133 4.663 1.74e-05 ***
length -93.325 43.526 -2.144 0.0360 *
turn -196.632 133.241 -1.476 0.1452
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 2215 on 61 degrees of freedom
```

Residual standard error: 2215 on 61 degrees of freedom (6 observations deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.4811, Adjusted R-squared: 0.4216
F-statistic: 8.08 on 7 and 61 DF, p-value: 6.34e-07

Check the VIF's

■ Aha

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