

LECTURE #12

Econometrics I

REVISION OF KEY CONCEPTS

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In the previous lecture #11

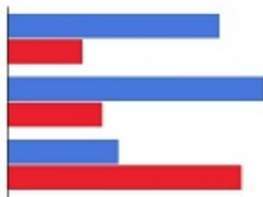
- ▶ We discussed the **functional form misspecification** \Rightarrow MLR.4 assumption violated, OLS biased and inconsistent.
- ▶ We introduced the **RESET test**:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k + \delta_1 \hat{y}^2 + \delta_2 \hat{y}^3 + \varepsilon.$$

- ▶ **Proxy variables** were suggested as a remedy for OVB.
- ▶ Properties of OLS under **measurement error** were studied
 - ▶ in the dependent vs. in the independent variable.
 - ▶ **CEV** assumption: $\text{Cov}(x_1^*, e_1) = 0$ or $\text{Cov}(y_1^*, e_0) = 0$.
- ▶ Potential **violations of random sampling** (MLR.2) were briefly discussed: missing data, nonrandom samples, outliers.
- ▶ Readings for lecture #12:
 - ▶ your favorite book :-) or selected chapters/sections from Wooldridge (2012)

Evaluation: A kind request

Please do not forget to fill in the electronic evaluation of our course Econometrics I (JEB109).



No seminars this week, the **first exam term** next week.

Outline

Population models and OLS estimators

Unbiasedness, consistency, and variance of OLS

Hypothesis testing

Goodness-of-fit measures

Selection of explanatory variables

Heteroskedasticity

Functional form misspecification

Predictions

Qualitative variables

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Population model and related 'lines and functions'

- **Population model** of a **dependent variable** y as a function of k **independent variables** x_j is given as

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k + u,$$

with the intercept parameter β_0 , slope parameters β_j , $j = 1, \dots, k$, and the error term u with $\mathbb{E}(u) = 0$.

- **Population regression function (PRF)** is given as

$$\mathbb{E}(y|x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k.$$

- **OLS regression line** or the **sample regression function (SRF)** is given as

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_k x_k.$$

- **Residual** is defined as

$$\hat{u}_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i = y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_{1i} - \dots - \hat{\beta}_k x_{ki}.$$

- Note the essential differences:

- parameter vs. estimator vs. estimate.
- observations vs. expected values vs. fitted values.
- PRF is fixed for the population but unknown.
- in general, the PRF and SRF differ.
- and for each sample of data, the SRF (OLS regression line) differs as well.

OLS estimators

- For a **simple linear regression model**, the OLS estimator of β_1 is given as

$$\hat{\beta}_1^{OLS} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}.$$

- For a **multiple linear regression model**, the OLS estimator of vector of β_j , $j = 0, 1, \dots, k$, is given as

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y.$$

Various 'sums of squares'

- ▶ Total sum of squares (SST)

$$SST \equiv \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

- ▶ Explained sum of squares (SSE)

$$SSE \equiv \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2$$

- ▶ Residual sum of squares (SSR)

$$SSR \equiv \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2$$

- ▶ It holds that

$$SST = SSE + SSR.$$

Interpretation of the OLS regression equation

- Interpretation of the estimated intercept $\hat{\beta}_0$: the predicted value of y when $x_1 = \dots = x_k = 0$.
- Estimates $\hat{\beta}_1, \dots, \hat{\beta}_k$ have the **partial effect**, or **ceteris paribus**, interpretation.
- From the OLS regression 'line', we have

$$\Delta \hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_1 \Delta x_1 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_k \Delta x_k.$$

- This gives us an interpretation of

$$\hat{\beta}_j = \frac{\Delta \hat{y}}{\Delta x_j}$$

holding all other $x_{\neq j}$ fixed, i.e., after **controlling for** all variables $x_{\neq j}$ when estimating the effect of x_j on y .

- From the perspective of economics, various logarithmic specifications are useful:

Model	Dependent v.	Independent v.	Interpretation of β_1
Level-level	y	x	$\Delta y = \beta_1 \Delta x$
Level-log	y	$\log(x)$	$\Delta y = (\beta_1/100)\% \Delta x$
Log-level	$\log(y)$	x	$\% \Delta y = (100\beta_1) \Delta x$
Log-log	$\log(y)$	$\log(x)$	$\% \Delta y = \beta_1 \% \Delta x$

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Multiple linear regression (MLR) assumptions (CLM)

- ▶ **MLR.1 Linear in parameters:** We have the population model

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_k x_k + u,$$

where β_0 is the population intercept and β_1, \dots, β_k are the population slope parameters. The inclusion of β_0 implies $\mathbb{E}(u) = 0$.

- ▶ **MLR.2 Random sampling:** We have a random sample of size n following the population model.
- ▶ **MLR.3 No perfect collinearity:** In the sample and the population, none of the independent variables is constant, and there are no **exact linear** relationships among the independent variables. Mathematically, the matrix X must have full column rank.
- ▶ **MLR.4 Zero conditional mean:** The error u has an expected value of zero given any values of the independent variables, i.e., $\mathbb{E}(u|x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) = 0$.
- ▶ **MLR.5 Homoskedasticity:** The error u has the same variance given any values of the independent variables, i.e., $\text{Var}(u|x_1, \dots, x_k) = \sigma^2 \mathbb{I}$.
- ▶ **MLR.6 Normality:** The population error u is **independent** of the explanatory variables x_1, \dots, x_k and is **normally** distributed with zero mean and variance σ^2 , i.e., $u \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$.

Unbiasedness and consistency of OLS

- ▶ Assuming MLR.1 through MLR.4, $\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}_j) = \beta_j, j = 0, 1, \dots, k$.
In other words, the OLS estimators are **unbiased** estimators of the population parameters.
- ▶ Assuming MLR.1 through MLR.4, the OLS estimators are **consistent** estimators of the population parameters.
- ▶ In fact, only a weaker version of MLR.4 (**MLR.4' Zero mean and zero correlation**, instead of mean independence) is sufficient for **consistency** of OLS.

Variance of the OLS estimators

Under MLR.1 through MLR.5, conditional on the sample values of the independent variables,

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_j) = \frac{\sigma^2}{SST_j(1 - R_j^2)}$$

for $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$, 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^2 from regressing x_j on all other independent variables (and intercept).

In matrix form, it can be written as

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}) = \sigma^2(X^T X)^{-1}.$$

Estimating the error variance

- ▶ Under MLR.1 through MLR.5, **the unbiased estimator of σ^2** is given as

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n - k - 1} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2.$$

- ▶ $\hat{\sigma}$ is called the **standard error of the regression**.
- ▶ **Standard error of $\hat{\beta}_j$** is then

$$se(\hat{\beta}_j) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{SST_j(1 - R_j^2)}}.$$

In matrix form, it can be written as

$$se(\hat{\beta}_j) = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{(X^T X)^{-1}_{j+1,j+1}}.$$

Gauss-Markov theorem (BLUE) and BUE

- ▶ Under MLR.1 through MLR.5, the OLS estimator is the **best linear unbiased estimator (BLUE)**.
- ▶ Under MLR.1 through MLR.6, the OLS estimator is the **best unbiased estimator (BUE)**.

Asymptotic normality of OLS

Under the Gauss-Markov assumptions MLR.1 through MLR.5:

- ▶ $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta}_j - \beta_j) \stackrel{a}{\sim} N(0, \text{asymptotic Var}_j)$, i.e., $\hat{\beta}_j$ is **asymptotically normally distributed**.
- ▶ $\hat{\sigma}^2$ is a consistent estimator of $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(u)$.
- ▶ For each j ,

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_j - \beta_j}{\text{sd}(\hat{\beta}_j)} \stackrel{a}{\sim} N(0, 1)$$

and

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_j - \beta_j}{\text{se}(\hat{\beta}_j)} \stackrel{a}{\sim} N(0, 1).$$

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t distribution for the standardized estimators

- Under the CLM assumptions MLR.1 through MLR.6,

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_j - \beta_j}{se(\hat{\beta}_j)} \sim t_{n-k-1} = t_{df}, \quad (1)$$

where $k + 1$ is the number of unknown parameters in the population model (including the intercept), and $n - k - 1$ is the df .

- Under $H_0 : \beta_j = a_j$, equation (1) gives us the t **statistic**

$$t_{\hat{\beta}_j} \equiv \frac{\hat{\beta}_j - a_j}{se(\hat{\beta}_j)}.$$

- t ratio** $t_{\hat{\beta}_j} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j}{se(\hat{\beta}_j)}$ identifies the statistically significant independent variables, i.e., the ones whose partial effect is statistically significantly different from zero. It is most commonly used for a **two-tailed** t test under $H_0 : \beta_j = 0$ vs. $H_1 : \beta_j \neq 0$.
- For testing hypotheses about a single linear combination of parameters (e.g., $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2$), we can still use the t statistic, but we need to rewrite the model with the null hypothesis in mind.

Confidence interval

- ▶ Under the CLM assumptions MLR.1 through MLR.6, we can easily construct a **confidence interval (CI)** for the population parameter β_j .
- ▶ Using the distribution of $\hat{\beta}_j$: $\frac{\hat{\beta}_j - \beta_j}{se(\hat{\beta}_j)} \sim t_{n-k-1}$, we compute a $1 - \alpha$ **confidence interval** as

$$\hat{\beta}_j \pm t_{n-k-1, 1-\alpha/2} se(\hat{\beta}_j).$$

- ▶ For $n - k - 1 > 100$, the 'rule of 2 (sigma)' for $\alpha = 5\%$ can be again used for a rough idea.

Testing joint hypotheses

F test:

$$F = \frac{(SSR_R - SSR_U)/q}{SSR_U/(n - k - 1)} = \frac{(R_U^2 - R_R^2)/q}{(1 - R_U^2)/(n - k - 1)} \sim F_{q, n-k-1},$$

where $n - k - 1$ is the degrees of freedom of the original unrestricted model, and q is the number of restrictions.

LM test:

1. H_0 and H_1 are the same as for the respective F test, e.g.:

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = 0, \beta_2 = 0 \quad \text{vs.} \quad H_1 : H_0 \text{ does not hold.}$$

2. Estimate the **restricted model** and save the residuals \tilde{u} ,
3. Run an **auxiliary regression**: regress \tilde{u} on **all independent variables** and obtain R^2 of this regression, i.e., $R_{\tilde{u}}^2$ (intuition: if H_0 is true, $R_{\tilde{u}}^2$ is 'close' to zero).
4. Compute $LM = nR_{\tilde{u}}^2$.
5. Under the null hypothesis, $LM \overset{a}{\sim} \chi_q^2$.
6. If $LM > c$, we reject H_0 at the given significance level α .

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Goodness-of-fit measures

- **Coefficient of determination** R^2 and its adjusted version \bar{R}^2 :

$$R^2 \equiv \frac{SSE}{SST} = 1 - \frac{SSR}{SST} = 1 - \frac{\frac{SSR}{n}}{\frac{SST}{n}},$$
$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{\frac{SSR}{n-k-1}}{\frac{SST}{n-1}}.$$

- Asymptotically, $\bar{R}^2 = R^2$.
- R^2 cannot decrease after adding an independent variable.
- R^2 can be used only for the same number of independent variables.
- \bar{R}^2 can also be used to compare various specifications (e.g., for the logarithmic vs. quadratic form of the explanatory variable) and controlling for too many explanatory variables.

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Four important variable selection criteria

Does an explanatory variable belong to the model?

1. **Theory:** Is including a variable in the equation unambiguous and theoretically sound? Does intuition suggest that it should be included? Also, the modeling purpose is crucial:
 - ▶ prediction/explanation
 - ▶ vs. testing a specific theoretical/empirical relationship
2. **Omitted variable bias reduction:** Do estimated coefficients of other variables change considerably when the variable is added to the model? It is essential to avoid serious OVB.
3. **Adjusted \bar{R}^2 :** Does the overall fit of the equation improve (enough) when the variable is added to the model?
4. **t test and F test:** Is its coefficient statistically significant in the expected direction? F test can help us when considering excluding multiple variables or for step-wise elimination.

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Selection of explanatory variables

Heteroskedasticity

Functional form misspecification

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Qualitative variables

Heteroskedasticity

- ▶ **MLR.5 Homoskedasticity:** Error u has the same variance given any values of the independent variables, i.e.,

$$\text{Var}(u|x_1, \dots, x_k) = \sigma^2 \mathbb{I}.$$

- ▶ Violation of homoskedasticity is called **heteroskedasticity**.

Consequences:

1. OLS remains unbiased and consistent (under MLR.1–4).
 - ▶ estimated coefficients, R^2 , and \bar{R}^2 remain unaffected.
 2. True variance of the $\hat{\beta}^{OLS}$ distribution increases.
 - ▶ because the heteroskedastic error term explains a larger proportion of fluctuations of the dependent variable.
- ⇒ OLS is no longer BLUE, even not asymptotically efficient.

Heteroskedasticity

3. But (!) estimators of $\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_j)$ are biased, usually down.
- ▶ increase of the (true) variance is, however, 'masked' by OLS because it assumes a homoskedastic error.
 - ▶ OLS thus attributes the impact of the heteroskedastic error to the independent variables.
- ⇒ **standard errors tend to be smaller** under heteroskedasticity, and statistical inference becomes unreliable and incorrect:
- ⇒ t statistics, CI s, F statistics, and LM statistics invalid even for large samples!
- ▶ Fortunately, the OLS standard errors can be modified to be asymptotically valid under MLR.1–4, i.e., without MLR.5.

Heteroskedasticity

- ▶ We can use **White robust standard errors**, which are robust to heteroskedasticity of various forms.
- ▶ But the White robust standard errors work **only for large samples**, and even then, they are **only asymptotically valid**; no statements are made about bias, consistency, or efficiency.
- ▶ Testing for heteroskedasticity:
 - ▶ **Breusch-Pagan test:**

$$\hat{u}^2 = \delta_0 + \delta_1 x_1 + \dots + \delta_k x_k + v.$$

- ▶ **White test:**

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{u}^2 &= \delta_0 + \delta_1 x_1 + \delta_2 x_2 + \delta_3 x_1^2 + \delta_4 x_2^2 + \delta_5 x_1 x_2 + v, \\ \hat{u}^2 &= \delta_0 + \delta_1 \hat{y} + \delta_2 \hat{y}^2 + v.\end{aligned}$$

Weighted least squares

- ▶ **Weighted least squares (WLS)** estimation is a historically older method of treating heteroskedasticity compared to White standard errors.
- ▶ If we have a correctly specified form of heteroskedasticity, WLS is **unbiased** and **more efficient** than OLS, and it leads to t -distributed t statistics and F -distributed F statistics only under MLR.1 through MLR.4 (it is, in fact, **BLUE**).

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Qualitative variables

Functional form misspecification

- ▶ **Functional form misspecification** occurs in a situation when we have selected a proper independent variable(s) but not a correct form of the relationship with the dependent one.
- ▶ This violates the MLR.4 assumption, i.e., the OLS procedure is biased and inconsistent:
- ▶ There are two popular tests:
 - ▶ **Ramsey RESET test** (for actual functional misspecification):

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k + \delta_1 \hat{y}^2 + \delta_2 \hat{y}^3 + \varepsilon.$$

- ▶ **Davidson-MacKinnon test** (for selecting between **nonnested models**):

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k + \delta_1 \hat{y} + \varepsilon.$$

Outline

Population models and OLS estimators

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Goodness-of-fit measures

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Heteroskedasticity

Functional form misspecification

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Qualitative variables

Predictions in OLS cross-sectional data framework

- ▶ **Predicting** \hat{y}_{n+1} simply means obtaining the fitted value for $x_{1,n+1}, \dots, x_{k,n+1}$.
- ▶ Prediction uncertainty is represented by the **confidence intervals** for predictions and the **prediction intervals**.
- ▶ We distinguish between two types:
 - ▶ uncertainty about the **mean/average predicted value** of y due to estimation variance (sampling variation).
 - ▶ **additional uncertainty** of the prediction for a **specific unit** such as an individual or a firm due to the error variance.

Outline

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Goodness-of-fit measures

Selection of explanatory variables

Heteroskedasticity

Functional form misspecification

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Qualitative variables

Dummy variables

- ▶ **Dummy** independent variables work the same way, from the technical point of view, as the 'standard' quantitative independent variables.
- ▶ Beware of the **dummy variable trap**.
- ▶ Specific qualitative characteristics can be combined to form new terms.
- ▶ **Base group** (the omitted one) is 'hidden' in the intercept.
- ▶ Dummy variables allow for **different slopes** (as part of an interaction term) and for **different intercepts** (intercept dummy).
- ▶ **Chow test** is frequently used to test the stability/equality of the parameters of the underlying population model for different groups.

Linear probability model

- ▶ In the **linear probability model (LPM)**, the dependent variable y is binary, i.e., only either 1 or 0.
- ▶ Under MLR.1–4, the OLS estimator is still unbiased and consistent.
- ▶ Importantly, as y has the Bernoulli distribution,

$$\boxed{\mathbb{E}(y|X)} = 1 \cdot P(y = 1|X) + 0 \cdot (1 - P(y = 1|X)) = \boxed{P(y = 1|X)},$$

$$P(y = 1|X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k.$$

- ▶ Previous derivations allow for the interpretation of β s as

$$\Delta p(X) = \Delta P(y = 1|X) = \beta_j \Delta x_j,$$

i.e., the change in the **probability of ‘success’** (probability of y being 1) when x_j changes by one small unit. d

- ▶ Shortcomings:
 1. while the observed values are precisely 0 or 1, the estimated/predicted probability is **not bounded by 0 and 1**.
 2. usually **constant marginal effect** Δx_j (often unrealistic).
 3. error term is inherently **heteroskedastic**.
 4. error term is **not normally distributed**.