

Collinearity

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Under the Hood of **X**

OLS (and regression methods more generally) requires:

- **X** is full column rank.
- $N > K$.
- “Sufficient” variability in **X**.

“Perfect” Multicollinearity

First a formal definition:

There cannot be any set of λ s such that:

$$\lambda_0 \mathbf{1} + \lambda_1 \mathbf{X}_1 + \dots + \lambda_K \mathbf{X}_K = \mathbf{0}$$

A Toy Model

Let's see if there is a relationship between gas milage and car performance.

```
> data("mtcars")  
> model1 <- lm(qsec ~ mpg, mtcars)  
> summary(model1)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = qsec ~ mpg, data = mtcars)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-2.8161	-1.0287	0.0954	0.8623	4.7149

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	15.35477	1.02978	14.911	2.05e-15 ***
mpg	0.12414	0.04916	2.525	0.0171 *

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 1.65 on 30 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.1753, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1478

F-statistic: 6.377 on 1 and 30 DF, p-value: 0.01708

A Toy Model

Now let's redo that using Kilograms/Liter instead of Miles/Gallon, but accidentally include both measures as predictor variables. What happens?

```
> mtcars$kgL <- mtcars$mpg * .425
> model2 <- lm(qsec ~ mpg + kgL, mtcars)
> summary(model2)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = qsec ~ mpg + kgL, data = mtcars)
```

Residuals:

	Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
	-2.8161	-1.0287	0.0954	0.8623	4.7149

Coefficients: (1 not defined because of singularities)

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	15.35477	1.02978	14.911	2.05e-15 ***
mpg	0.12414	0.04916	2.525	0.0171 *
kgL	NA	NA	NA	NA

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 1.65 on 30 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.1753, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1478

F-statistic: 6.377 on 1 and 30 DF, p-value: 0.01708

What Does This Tell Us?

1. Perfect Multicollinearity is a very big problem
(Theoretically)
2. Prefect Multicollinearity is NOT a problem at all
(In Practice)

$$N > K$$

- Statistically, if $N < K$, then:
 - We lack sufficient degrees of freedom to identify $\hat{\beta}$.*
 - $\hat{\beta}$ is “overdetermined.”
- Conceptually, $N < K$ means that:
 - Our number of variables $>$ Cases
 - Which means there can be no unique conclusion about explanatory / causal factors.

*Note: “identification” is used in statistics and econometrics to mean several different things, I am using it here in the most basic sense to mean that the parameters (here the $\hat{\beta}$ s) cannot be determined from the variables

Another Toy Model

Let's subset the mtcars data to only look at lightweight cars and add some more predictor variables:

```
> rm(list=ls())  
> data("mtcars")  
> lightweight <- subset(mtcars, wt<2)  
> model3 <- with(lightweight, lm(qsec ~ mpg + disp + hp))  
> summary(model3)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = qsec ~ mpg + disp + hp)
```

Residuals:

ALL 4 residuals are 0: no residual degrees of freedom!

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	39.54944	NaN	NaN	NaN
mpg	-0.14716	NaN	NaN	NaN
disp	-0.25649	NaN	NaN	NaN
hp	0.05502	NaN	NaN	NaN

Residual standard error: NaN on 0 degrees of freedom

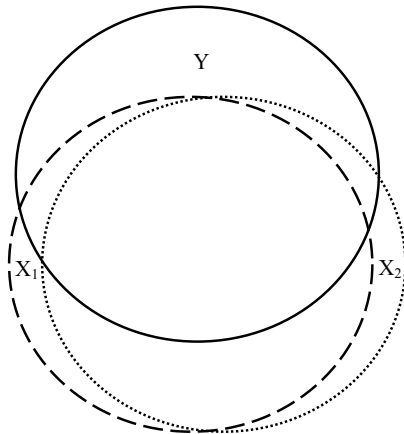
Multiple R-squared: 1, Adjusted R-squared: NaN

F-statistic: NaN on 3 and 0 DF, p-value: NA

What Does This Tell Us?

As with “perfect” multicollinearity, having $N > K$ will result in a model specification that is impossible to estimate. Thus, you cannot violate this assumption in practice

Intuition



High (Non-Perfect) Multicollinearity

Recall that

$$\widehat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\beta}) = \hat{\sigma}^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

We can write the k th diagonal element of $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$ as:

$$\frac{1}{(\mathbf{X}'_k \mathbf{X}_k)(1 - \hat{R}_k^2)}$$

where \hat{R}_k^2 is the R^2 from the regression of \mathbf{X}_k on all the other variables in \mathbf{X} .

High (Non-Perfect) Multicollinearity

Things to understand:

1. Multicollinearity is a *sample problem*.
2. Multicollinearity is a matter of *degree*.

(Near-Perfect) Multicollinearity: Detection

1. *High R^2 , but nonsignificant coefficients.*
2. *High pairwise correlations among independent variables.*
3. *High partial correlations among the \mathbf{X} s.*
4. *VIF and Tolerance.*

VIF / Tolerance

If $\hat{R}_k^2 = 0$, then

$$\widehat{\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_k)} = \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{\mathbf{X}_k' \mathbf{X}_k};$$

So:

$$\text{VIF}_k = \frac{1}{1 - \hat{R}_k^2}$$

$$\text{Tolerance} = \frac{1}{\text{VIF}_k}$$

Rule of Thumb: $\text{VIF} > 10$ is a problem.

What To Do?

Don't:

- **Blindly drop covariates!!!**
- Restrict β s...

Do:

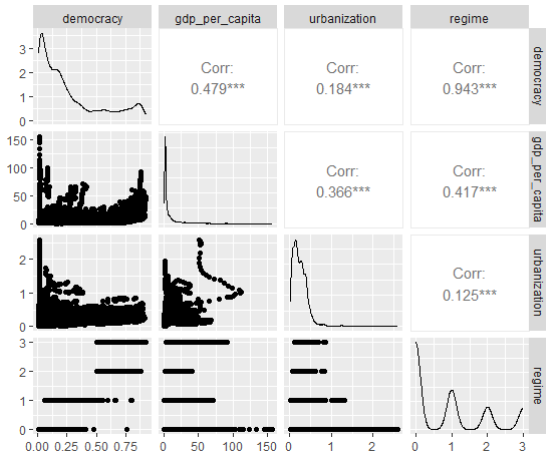
- **Add data.**
- **Transform the covariates**
 - Data reduction
 - First differences
 - Orthogonalize
- **Shrinkage / Regularization Methods**

Toy Model

Dependent variable:		
	US sample (1)	Full sample (2)
gdp_per_capita	0.008 (0.001) t = 15.551 p = 0.000***	0.002 (0.0001) t = 18.264 p = 0.000***
urbanization	0.399 (0.158) t = 2.521 p = 0.014**	-0.016 (0.004) t = -3.716 p = 0.0003***
regime	0.090 (0.009) t = 9.675 p = 0.000***	0.228 (0.001) t = 234.418 p = 0.000***
Constant	0.161 (0.040) t = 4.027 p = 0.0002***	0.099 (0.002) t = 58.892 p = 0.000***
Observations	101	10,810
R2	0.972	0.877
Adjusted R2	0.971	0.877
Residual Std. Error	0.027 (df = 97)	0.095 (df = 10806)
F Statistic	1,128.081*** (df = 3; 97)	25,701.890*** (df = 3; 10806)
Note:		
*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01		

Correlation Matrix

```
# Correlation matrix ----  
my_data |>  
  select(democracy, gdp_per_capita, urbanization, regime) |>  
  ggpairs()
```



Correlation

```
# Correlation basics ----

# cor() computes the correlation coefficient
# cor.test() test for association/correlation between paired samples.
# It returns both the correlation coefficient and the significance level
# (or p-value) of the correlation.

# cor.test(x, y, method=c("pearson", "kendall", "spearman"))

# Pearson - normal distribution, continuous
# Spearman - non-parametric, ordinal variables
# Kendall - non-parametric, continuous

# The nice thing about the Spearman correlation is that relies on nearly all
# the same assumptions as the pearson correlation, but it doesn't rely on
# normality, and your data can be ordinal as well.

# The Kendall correlation is similar to the spearman correlation in that it is
# non-parametric. It can be used with ordinal or continuous data.
cor.test(my_data$democracy, my_data$regime,
  use = "complete.obs",
  method = c("pearson"))
```

Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)

```
> # Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) ----  
> # VIF value starts from 1  
> # A value of 1 indicates there is no correlation  
> # A value between 1 and 5 indicates moderate correlation  
> # A value greater than 5 indicates potentially severe correlation  
> vif(us_model)  
gdp_per_capita    urbanization      regime  
      5.023951         1.633371      6.213308  
> vif(my_model)  
gdp_per_capita    urbanization      regime  
      1.446900         1.131696      1.297502
```

First differences I

```
# Taking the first difference ----  
us_data$diff_regime <- us_data$regime - lag(us_data$regime, n = 1)  
  
# OR in tidy language  
us_data <- us_data |>  
  mutate(diff_regime = regime - lag(regime, n = 1))
```

First differences II

Dependent variable:		
	US Sample (1)	democracy US Sample - First difference (2)
gdp_per_capita	0.008 (0.001) p = 0.000 t = 15.551***	0.012 (0.0003) p = 0.000 t = 37.626***
urbanization	0.399 (0.158) p = 0.014 t = 2.521**	1.351 (0.185) p = 0.000 t = 7.313***
regime	0.090 (0.009) p = 0.000 t = 9.675***	
diff_regime		0.007 (0.027) p = 0.810 t = 0.242
Constant	0.161 (0.040) p = 0.0002 t = 4.027***	-0.017 (0.053) p = 0.749 t = -0.322
Observations	101	100
R2	0.972	0.945
Adjusted R2	0.971	0.943
Residual Std. Error	0.027 (df = 97)	0.038 (df = 96)
F Statistic	1,128.081*** (df = 3; 97)	545.046*** (df = 3; 96)
Note: *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01		

First differences II

```
> vif(us_model)
gdp_per_capita urbanization regime
5.023951 1.633371 6.213308
> vif(us_model2)
gdp_per_capita urbanization diff_regime
1.038942 1.038071 1.001096
```