### **Recitation 5**

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### Sampling distribution

• The estimates for the  $\hat{\beta}_j$ , can be obtained in a similar way in which we have obtained the OLS estimates for the single variable version.

$$\min_{\{\beta_0,\beta_1,\beta_2\}} \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_{1i} - \beta_2 X_{2i}]^2$$

 After some more amount of algebra (than the single variable case), the result we get is the following

$$\begin{array}{ll} \hat{\beta}_{0} = & \bar{Y} - \hat{\bar{\beta}}_{1} \bar{X}_{1} - \hat{\beta}_{2} \bar{X}_{2} \\ \hat{\beta}_{1} = & \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_{1})(Y_{i} - \bar{Y}) \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{2i} - \bar{X}_{2})^{2} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{2i} - \bar{X}_{2})(Y_{i} - \bar{Y}) \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_{1})(X_{2i} - \bar{X}_{2})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_{1})^{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{2i} - \bar{X}_{2})^{2} - [\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_{1})(X_{2i} - \bar{X}_{2})]^{2}} \\ \hat{\beta}_{2} = & \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{2i} - \bar{X}_{2})(Y_{i} - \bar{Y}) \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_{1})^{2} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_{1})(Y_{i} - \bar{Y}) \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_{1})(X_{2i} - \bar{X}_{2})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_{1})^{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{2i} - \bar{X}_{2})^{2} - [\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_{1})(X_{2i} - \bar{X}_{2})]^{2}} \end{array}$$

• What matters at this point is how we should **interpret** these coefficients.

#### Multicollinearity

- We are quite likely to end up including independent variables that are highly correlated with each other. There are two
- We say two variables  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are **perfectly multicollinear** if  $X_1$  is in an exact linear relationship of some sort with  $X_2$ .
- Any multicollinearities that are not in exact linear relationship is referred to as imperfect multicollinearity.

#### Multicollinearity

- Assume that  $X_2 = cX_1$  for some constant c: Then we have  $(X_{2i} \bar{X}_2) = c(X_{1i} \bar{X}_1)$ . Then  $\hat{\beta}_1$  changes to  $\frac{0}{0}$
- **Dummy variable trap**: Say that you have the dummy variable for females and males. Let each of them be  $X_{1i}$  and  $X_{2i}$  with  $X_{2i} = 1 X_{1i}$ . Then the regression can be written as

$$Y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X_{1i} + \beta_{2}X_{2i} + u_{i} \iff Y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X_{1i} + \beta_{2}(1 - X_{1i}) + u_{i}$$
  
$$\iff Y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{2} + (\beta_{1} - \beta_{2})X_{1i} + u_{i}$$

Therefore, by including both  $X_{1i}$  and  $X_{2i}$  in the same regression, the  $X_{2i}$  vanishes from the equation. This is why when you have dummy variables for all categories in the observation, **one of them must be left out.** 

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Joint hypothesis tests (Why it is not straightforward)

• Suppose that you are running a two-sided test with 5 independent variables and significance level  $\alpha=5\%$  under the null hypothesis

$$H_0: \beta_1 = ...\beta_5 = 0$$

- You reject the null hypothesis when  $|t_i| \ge 1.96$  with probability 0.05.
- Now assume that each test statics are independent. Then the probability of incorrectly rejecting the null hypothesis using this approach is

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(|t_1| > 1.96 \cup ... \cup |t_5| > 1.96) &= 1 - \Pr(|t_1| \le 1.96 \cap ... \cap |t_1| \le 1.96) \\ \text{($\because$ Independence of $t_i$'s)} &= 1 - \Pr(|t_1| \le 1.96) \times ... \times \Pr(|t_5| \le 1.96) \\ &= 1 - (0.95)^5 \\ &= 0.2262 \end{aligned}$$

• This means that the rejection rate under the null is not 5% but 22% percent - we end up rejecting the null hypothesis more than we have to.

#### F-test

- This is a test where all parts of the joint hypothesis can be tested at once. It also has mechanism for correcting the correlation between the t-test statistics.
- It ultimately allows us to correctly set the significance level even for the multiple testing case.
- The usual joint hypothesis test for the regression with k variables (not including the constant term) is

$$H_0: \beta_1 = ... = \beta_k = 0, \ H_1: \neg H_0$$

where  $H_1$  refers to the case where there is a nonzero element in any one of  $\beta_1$  to  $\beta_k$ .

Note that the default F-test null hypothesis for STATA is as above

#### Other tests

- Suppose that instead of  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  being zero, we are just interested in whether they are equal.
- The F-test can also be used for testing this hypothesis. The setup of the hypothesis would be

$$H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 H_1: \beta_1 \neq \beta_2$$

• With this, you can answer various types of tests (e.g. is  $\beta_1 + \beta_2 = 100$ ?)

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#### Interpreting the results

 Below are the results of a sample regression on multiple variables. I regress birthweight on smoker, alcohol, Nprevist (number of prenatal visits to doctor).

. regress birt	thweight smoke	r alcohol	nprevist				
Source	SS	df	MS	Nun	ber of obs	=	3,000
-				- F(3	, 2996)	=	78.47
Model	76610831.2	3	25536943.7	7 Pro	b > F	=	0.0000
Residual	975009173	2,996	325436.974	1 R-s	quared	=	0.0729
				– Adj	R-squared	=	0.0719
Total	1.0516e+09	2,999	350656.887	7 Roc	t MSE	=	570.47
birthweight	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Co	nf.	Interval]
smoker	-217.5801	26.6796	-8.16	0.000	-269.892	3	-165.2679
alcohol	-30.49129	76.23405	-0.40	0.689	-179.967	7	118.9851
nprevist	34.06991	2.854994	11.93	0.000	28.4719	7	39.66786
_cons	3051.249	34.01596	89.70	0.000	2984.55	2	3117.946

 You can see that running multivariate regression is similar in terms of the techniques involved.

#### Interpreting the results

 Additional complication rises from interpreting the goodness of fit. In addition to R<sup>2</sup>, we now get the adjusted R<sup>2</sup>, which is defined as

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{n-1}{n-k-1} \frac{\text{RSS}}{\text{TSS}}$$

- Since we are assuming that  $k \ge 1$ , adjusted  $R^2$  is smaller than the  $R^2$ .
- As we include more variables, the  $\frac{n-1}{n-k-1}$  increases, leading to further decrease in adjusted  $R^2$ .
- $\bullet$  However, if the new variables are very relevent,  $\frac{RSS}{TSS}$  decreases.
- This reduces the gap between  $R^2$  and the adjusted  $R^2$ . If the adjusted  $R^2$  do not decrease drastically, it is a sign that we are adding a relevant variable.

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### Deriving The *F*-statistic

One uses t-statistics from individual hypotheses. This is calculated as

$$\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{t_1^2 + t_2^2 - 2\hat{\rho}_{t_1, t_2} t_1 t_2}{1 - \hat{\rho}_{t_1, t_2}^2} \right)$$

- Another, which is useful for calculating  $H_0: \beta_1 = ... = \beta_q = 0$  hypothesis, uses  $R^2$  from the 'unrestricted' and 'restricted' regressions.
  - Assume the following setup

Restricted: 
$$Y_i = \beta_0 + 0X_{1,i} + ... + 0X_{q,i} + \beta_{q+1}X_{q+1,i} + ... + \beta_k X_{k,i} + u_i$$
  
Unrestricted:  $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1,i} + ... + \beta_q X_{q,i} + \beta_{q+1} X_{q+1,i} + ... + \beta_k X_{k,i} + u_i$ 

- Restricted regression assumes that  $H_0$  is true and then only optimizes with respect to  $\beta_{a+1}, ..., \beta_k$ .
- Unrestricted regression does not assume that H<sub>0</sub> is true and optimizes with respect to all slope coefficients.

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### Deriving The F-statistic

• We use  $R^2$  from these two regressions.

$$\frac{(R_{\rm Unrestricted}^2 - R_{\rm Restricted}^2)/q}{(1 - R_{\rm Unrestricted}^2)/(n - k - 1)}$$

- k: number of independent variables (not counting intercept)
- q is the number of restrictions.
- Since unrestricted models allows roles for X<sub>1</sub>, ..., X<sub>q</sub> variables, they have higher R<sup>2</sup> (Restricted: They should have no role)
- $\bullet$  Another: Using  $\textit{R}^{2}_{\text{Restricted}} = 1 \frac{\textit{RSS}_{\text{Restricted}}}{\textit{TSS}},$  we can write

$$\frac{(RSS_{\text{Restricted}} - RSS_{\text{Unrestricted}})/q}{(RSS_{\text{Unrestricted}})/(n-k-1)}$$

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#### Control variables and conditional mean independence

Assume that

True: 
$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$
  
Mistake:  $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i^*$   
Sample:  $Y_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{u}_i$ 

• If we end up with an omitted variable bias by not including  $Z_i$ , Then, we have a problem.

$$E[u_i^*|X_i] = E[\beta_2 Z_i + u_i|X_i]$$
  
=  $\beta_2 Z_i + E[u_i|X_i] \neq 0$ 

• Assumption 2 from the classical linear regression model (refer to Recitation 3), fails and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  without inclusion of  $Z_i$  is biased

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#### Control variables and conditional mean independence

- We can find  $W_i$  variable correlated with  $Z_i$  and put it in the regression
- By doing so, we achieve three things
  - The  $u_i$  term is no longer correlated with  $X_i$  ( $cov(X_i, u_i) = 0$ )
  - For given value of W<sub>i</sub>, then the variable of interest X<sub>i</sub> is no longer correlated with the omitted determinant of Y<sub>i</sub>
  - For given  $W_i$ ,  $X_i$  acts as if they are randomly assigned
- Variable W<sub>i</sub> that achieves this is called an effective control variable.
- In this case, we say that the conditional mean independence hold,

$$E[u_i|X_i,W_i]=E[u_i|W_i]$$

• Note that  $W_i$  itself does not need to have causal relationship with  $Y_i$ 

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#### Nonlinear regressions

- Not everything in world is linearly related
- For correlations like this, nonlinear regressors are necessary
- When incorporating such regressors, the interpretation of each coefficient becomes trickier.
- Quadratic relations: Think about wage and age wages increase with age, but (usually) at a decreasing pace

$$W = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2 + u$$

The marginal effect of X on W can be written as

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial X} = \beta_1 + 2\beta_2 X$$

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### Nonlinear regressions

In a linear regressor only format, the marginal effect is

$$W = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + u$$
$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial X} = \beta_1$$

- The difference is that with quadratic terms, we can express cases where marginal changes to W with respect to X is not a constant, but depends on some value of X
  - In the above case, if  $\beta_2 > 0$ , marginal increase in W increases with X (and vice versa)

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