

# Recitation 3

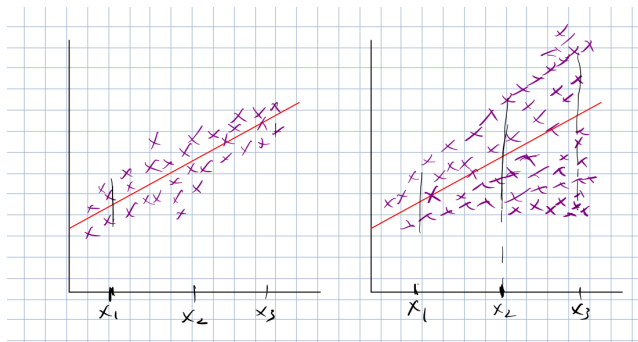
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## Errors may have different distribution across observations

- The assumption that  $\text{var}(u_i)$  is constant may not hold. Thus, be open for heteroskedasticity
- If we stick to homoskedasticity in this case, the standard errors are incorrectly estimated (usually underestimated)



- In such case, standard errors of our estimators must take this into account.

## ...but what does heteroskedasticity change?

```
. regress testscr str
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	420
Model	7794.11919	1	7794.11919	F(1, 418)	=	22.58
Residual	144315.475	418	345.252333	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	152109.594	419	363.030058	R-squared	=	0.0512
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0490
				Root MSE	=	18.581

testscr	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
str	-2.27981	.4798255	-4.75	0.000	-3.222981	-1.336638
_cons	698.933	9.467491	73.82	0.000	680.3232	717.5428

```
. regress testscr str, vce(robust)
```

Linear regression

Number of obs = 420  
F(1, 418) = 19.26  
Prob > F = 0.0000  
R-squared = 0.0512  
Root MSE = 18.581

testscr	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
str	-2.27981	.5194894	-4.39	0.000	-3.300947	-1.258672
_cons	698.933	10.36436	67.44	0.000	678.5602	719.3057

- The variance rises (usually) in the heteroskedastic regression, so we may make a wrong hypothesis test
- The coefficients are unchanged, since estimation of OLS estimates did not rely on homoskedasticity

# Multivariate Regression: Why add more variables to the right?

- Suppose that there are more than one possible independent variable
- The set of models are

$$\text{True: } Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

$$\text{Mistake: } Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i^*$$

$$\text{Sample: } Y_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{u}_i$$

- Suppose you run an OLS regression without  $Z_i$ .  $\hat{\beta}_1$  can be calculated as  $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$ .

Replacing this with the true model gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(\beta_1(X_i - \bar{X}) + \beta_2(Z_i - \bar{Z}) + (u_i - \bar{u}))}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \\ &= \beta_1 + \beta_2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Z_i - \bar{Z})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(u_i - \bar{u})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \end{aligned}$$

# Omitted variable bias: Bias from missing out needy independent variables

- If  $\beta_2 \neq 0$  and  $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Z_i - \bar{Z})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \neq 0$ , then the mean of  $\hat{\beta}_1$  is not guaranteed to be  $\beta_1$ . This leads to the **omitted variable bias** problem
- This happens when both of the following cases hold
  - ▶ Z should explain Y: If the slope coefficient of Z ( $\beta_2$ ) is nonzero, then the Z variable is part of the error term if we forget to include them
  - ▶ Z is correlated with X: If  $\text{cov}(X, Z) \neq 0$  and the regression residual  $\hat{u}$  is correlated with Z, the independent variable is now correlated with  $\hat{u}$ , which leads to violation of the assumption that independent variable and the residual are not correlated.
- We can even determine the direction of the bias
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_1$  is overestimated if  $\beta_2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Z_i - \bar{Z})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} > 0$
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_1$  is underestimated if  $\beta_2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Z_i - \bar{Z})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} < 0$

## Omitted variable bias: What to do about it?

- We can simply include the  $Z$  variable if we have the data for it.
- Another way is to conduct an ideal randomized controlled experiment (or randomized control trial) that randomly assigns value of  $X$  to all students.
- If none of the two are feasible, we should find another variable that can be a proxy to  $Z$  - they have to be related to the  $X$  variable and is uncorrelated with the errors - which is the Instrumental Variable method.

## Multivariate regression: So now what does the coefficients really mean?

- The technicalities involved do not change drastically compared to the univariate regression.
- However, one should interpret the coefficients cautiously. Suppose that the regression is

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- To see the impact of  $X_i$  and  $Y_i$ , one needs to take (partial) derivatives on  $Y_i$  with respect to  $X_i$ . This leads to

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\partial Y_i}{\partial X_i}$$

- In words,  $\beta_1$  captures how much  $Y_i$  changes with respect to  $X_i$  *holding other variables constant* (ceteris paribus).
- If you do not hold other variables ( $Z_i$  in this case) fixed, the change will not exactly be  $\beta_1$  (it could be more or less)

## Sapling distribution of estimates: Just derive this once in your life

- 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

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_2$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_1)(Y_i - \bar{Y}) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_{2i} - \bar{X}_2)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n (X_{2i} - \bar{X}_2)(Y_i - \bar{Y}) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_1)(X_{2i} - \bar{X}_2)}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_1)^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (X_{2i} - \bar{X}_2)^2 - [\sum_{i=1}^n (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_1)(X_{2i} - \bar{X}_2)]^2}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_{2i} - \bar{X}_2)(Y_i - \bar{Y}) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_1)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_1)(Y_i - \bar{Y}) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_1)(X_{2i} - \bar{X}_2)}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_1)^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (X_{2i} - \bar{X}_2)^2 - [\sum_{i=1}^n (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_1)(X_{2i} - \bar{X}_2)]^2}$$

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



## What new problems do we have in multivariate regressions?

- 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**.

## When does perfect multicollinearity happen?

- **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

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i &\iff Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 (1 - X_{1i}) + u_i \\ &\iff Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_2 + (\beta_1 - \beta_2) X_{1i} + u_i \end{aligned}$$

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.**

## Adjusted $R^2$ and why we need this

- Additional complication rises from interpreting the goodness of fit. In addition to  $R^2$ , we now get the **adjusted  $R^2$**  (or  $\bar{R}^2$ ), which is defined as

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{n-1}{n-k-1} \frac{\text{RSS}}{\text{TSS}} \quad (k : \text{number of independent variables})$$

- Since we are assuming that  $k \geq 1$ , 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  $\bar{R}^2$ .  
(There is no such factor in  $R^2$ , so it always increases even with irrelevant variable)
- However, if the new variables are very relevant,  $\frac{\text{RSS}}{\text{TSS}}$  decreases quickly.
- 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.

## 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

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

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

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

- 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 for joint significance

- 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

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = \dots = \beta_k = 0, \quad H_1 : \neg H_0$$

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

## Tricks for deriving $F$ -statistics

- Assuming  $H_0 : \beta_1 = \dots = \beta_q = 0$  hypothesis, we use  $R^2$  from the 'unrestricted' and 'restricted' regressions.

- Assume the following setup

$$\text{Restricted: } Y_i = \beta_0 + 0X_{1,i} + \dots + 0X_{q,i} + \beta_{q+1}X_{q+1,i} + \dots + \beta_kX_{k,i} + u_i$$

$$\text{Unrestricted: } Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_{1,i} + \dots + \beta_qX_{q,i} + \beta_{q+1}X_{q+1,i} + \dots + \beta_kX_{k,i} + u_i$$

- Restricted regression assumes that  $H_0$  is true and then only optimizes with respect to  $\beta_{q+1}, \dots, \beta_k$ .
- Unrestricted regression does not assume that  $H_0$  is true and optimizes with respect to all slope coefficients.

## Tricks for deriving The $F$ -statistic

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

$$\frac{(R^2_{\text{Unrestricted}} - R^2_{\text{Restricted}})/q}{(1 - R^2_{\text{Unrestricted}})/(n - k - 1)}$$

- ▶  $k$ : number of independent variables (not counting intercept)
- ▶  $q$  is the number of restrictions.
- ▶ Since unrestricted models allows roles for  $X_1, \dots, X_q$  variables, they have higher  $R^2$  (Restricted: They should have no role)

- Another: Using  $R^2_{\text{Restricted}} = 1 - \frac{RSS_{\text{Restricted}}}{TSS}$ , we can write

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

## Other tests in multivariate regressions

- 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

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

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