

# ECON 640: Multiple Regression Model

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- The real power of regression analysis, however, is that we are able to hold other factors constant when estimating correlations.
- These ceteris paribus comparisons help get us closer to establishing causal relationships.
- For this, we need to expand our model to allow for more than one explanatory variable - which changes quite a bit in how we think about OLS.

## Multiple Regression - Basic framework

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$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \dots + \beta_k X_{ki} + u_i$$

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- The population regression line (the relationship that holds between  $Y$  and the  $X$ 's on average) is given by

$$E(Y_i \mid X_{1i}, \dots, X_{ki}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \dots + \beta_k X_{ki}$$

and the error term  $u_i$  by

$$u_i \equiv Y_i - E(Y_i \mid X_{1i}, \dots, X_{ki})$$



# Multiple Regression

- As in the univariate case,  $\beta_0$  is the intercept and  $\beta_k$  is the slope coefficient of  $X_k$ .
- Multivariate OLS estimates the parameters (the  $\beta$ 's) in the same way as univariate OLS: by minimizing the sum of the squared errors (prediction mistakes)

$$\hat{u}_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$$

where  $\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_{1i} + \dots + \hat{\beta}_k X_{ki}$

- OLS minimizes the sum of the squared errors ( $\sum \hat{u}_i^2$ ), yielding explicit formulas for the estimators  $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \dots, \hat{\beta}_k$
- As before, pending some assumptions, the OLS estimates will be unbiased, consistent, and asymptotically normal.

# The OLS Assumptions - Multivariate

## OLS Assumption 1 Linearity (in parameters)

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \cdots + \beta_k x_k + u \text{ is the DGP}$$

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## OLS Assumption 5 Homoskedasticity

$$\text{Var}(u|x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_k) = \sigma_u^2$$

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  - Example: Hedonic Regression - Regressing the price of a good on its characteristics (e.g. cars, diamonds, houses)
    - How different are horsepower and acceleration?
- This situation, called imperfect multicollinearity, does not pose any problem for the theory of the OLS estimators.
- In fact, a purpose of OLS is to sort out the independent effects of the various regressors when they are potentially correlated.

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- Why? Recall that a coefficient is an estimate of the partial effect of one regressor, holding the other ones constant.

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  - This can make it difficult to obtain precise estimates of the separate effects (at least in small samples).
- Why? Recall that a coefficient is an estimate of the partial effect of one regressor, holding the other ones constant.
  - If the regressors tend to move together, this effect will be hard to estimate precisely.



## Another example

Suppose we add *EXPN\_STU* (the total annual expenditures per pupil in the district in dollars) to our regression

```
. reg testscr str expn_stu el_pct, robust
Regression with robust standard errors
```

					Number of obs =	420
					F( 3, 416) =	147.20
					Prob > F =	0.0000
					R-squared =	0.4366
					Root MSE =	14.353

testscr	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
str	-.2863992	.4820728	-0.59	0.553	-1.234001	.661203
expn_stu	.0038679	.0015807	2.45	0.015	.0007607	.0069751
el_pct	-.6560227	.0317844	-20.64	0.000	-.7185008	-.5935446
_cons	649.5779	15.45834	42.02	0.000	619.1917	679.9641

95% CI for  $\beta_1$  :  $-.29 \pm 1.96 \cdot .48 = (-1.23, .65)$

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95% CI for  $\beta_1$  :  $-.29 \pm 1.96 \cdot .48 = (-1.23, .65)$

90% CI for  $\beta_1$  :  $-.29 \pm 1.645 \cdot .48 = (-1.08, .50)$

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$p$ -value for  $\beta_1 = 2\Phi\left(-\left|\frac{-.29-0}{.48}\right|\right) = 2\Phi(-.6) = .546$

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*p*-value for  $\beta_2 = 2\Phi\left(-\left|\frac{.39-0}{.0016}\right|\right) = 2\Phi(-2.45) = .0143$

## Another example

- This new result

$$\widehat{TS} = 649.6 - .29 STR + .004 EXPN\_STU - .656 EL\_PCT, R^2 = .44$$

(15.5)    (.48)    (.002)    (.032)

is a very different from what we found earlier

$$\widehat{TS} = 698.9 - 2.28 \cdot STR, R^2 = .05$$

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- So what's going on?

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- So what's going on?
- Teacher salaries are a big component of EXPN STU, leading to a large negative correlation between STR and EXPN STU.
- To have more teachers per pupil you need to increase expenditure. If you don't you need to cut other expenses.
- The model is having a hard time separating their effects

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## Goodness of Fit

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- If we use our reasoning from the univariate case,  $R^2 = .44$  means that we are explaining about 44% of the variation in test scores with our regression, up from about 5% with only *STR*.



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  - The standard error of the regression (*SER*)
  - $R^2$
  - *adjusted- $R^2$*

# The Standard Error of the Regression (SER)

- The standard error of the regression (*SER*) estimates the standard deviation of the error term  $u_i$ .
- Thus, the *SER* is a measure of the spread of the distribution of  $Y$  around the regression line. In the multiple regression model with  $k$  regressors,

$$SER = s_{\hat{u}}$$

where

$$s_{\hat{u}}^2 = \frac{1}{n - k - 1} \sum \hat{u}_i^2 = \frac{SSR}{n - k - 1}$$

where

$$SSR = \sum \hat{u}_i^2 = \sum (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$$

The divisor  $(n - k - 1)$  adjusts for the downward bias introduced by estimating the  $k + 1$  coefficients.

- So *SER* is one option, but like the variance of  $Y$ , it depends on the units of  $Y$ , which makes it hard to compare across applications.

- As before, the regression  $R^2$  is the fraction of the sample variance of  $Y_i$  explained by the regressors.

$$R^2 = \frac{\sum (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2} = \frac{ESS}{TSS} = 1 - \frac{SSR}{TSS}$$

- However, in multiple regression, the  $R^2$  increases whenever a regressor is added.
- So an unscrupulous econometrician might be tempted to keep adding regressors to inflate  $R^2$ .



# Adjusted R-squared

- One way to adjust for this is to deflate the  $R^2$  by some factor, which is what the *adjusted- $R^2$*  or  $\bar{R}^2$  does.

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{n-1}{n-k-1} \frac{SSR}{TSS} = 1 - \frac{s_{\hat{u}}^2}{s_Y^2}$$

Notice that:

1.  $\bar{R}^2$  is always less than  $R^2$  :
2. Adding a regressor has two effects on  $\bar{R}^2$ : 1.)  $SSR$  falls, which increases  $\bar{R}^2$ , 2.)  $\frac{n-1}{n-k-1}$  increases. So the total effect on  $\bar{R}^2$  depends on which effect is bigger.
3.  $\bar{R}^2$  can be negative.

# Adjusted R-squared

- To see how  $\overline{R}^2$  works, let's see what happens when we add irrelevant regressors to the Test Scores regression.

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<sup>1</sup>e.g. `gen junk1 = invnorm(uniform())`

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- To see how  $\bar{R}^2$  works, let's see what happens when we add irrelevant regressors to the Test Scores regression.
- Using the *gen* command<sup>1</sup> in Stata, let us created three independent  $N(0, 1)$  variables (junk1-junk3) and then add them to the regression of Test Scores on *STR* and *EL\_PCT*.

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- Let's see what happens in practice.

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Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 420	
Model	64864.3011	2	32432.1506	F( 2, 417) = 155.01	
Residual	87245.2925	417	209.221325	Prob > F = 0.0000	
				R-squared = 0.4264	
				Adj R-squared = 0.4237	
Total	152109.594	419	363.030056	Root MSE = 14.464	
testscr	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
str	-1.101296	.3802783	-2.90	0.004	-1.868797 - .3537946
el_pct	.6497768	.0393425	16.52	0.000	.7271112 .5724423
_cons	686.0322	7.411312	92.57	0.000	671.4641 700.6004
Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 420	
Model	64906.6894	3	21635.5631	F( 3, 416) = 103.21	
Residual	87202.9042	416	209.622366	Prob > F = 0.0000	
				R-squared = 0.4267	
				Adj R-squared = 0.4226	
Total	152109.594	419	363.030056	Root MSE = 14.478	
testscr	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
str	-1.094981	.3809016	-2.87	0.004	-1.863712 - .3462488
el_pct	.6502859	.0393965	16.51	0.000	.7277269 .5728449
junk1	-.335101	.7451975	-0.45	0.653	-1.799923 1.129721
_cons	685.9061	7.423711	92.39	0.000	671.3135 700.4988
Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 420	
Model	65010.6439	4	16252.661	F( 4, 415) = 77.44	
Residual	87098.9497	415	209.876987	Prob > F = 0.0000	
				R-squared = 0.4274	
				Adj R-squared = 0.4219	
Total	152109.594	419	363.030056	Root MSE = 14.487	
testscr	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
str	1.097402	.3811484	2.88	0.004	1.846624 .3481797
el_pct	-.651411	.0394528	-16.51	0.000	-.7289633 -.5738587
junk1	-.3239416	.7458185	-0.43	0.664	-1.789995 1.142111
junk2	.4838163	.6874502	0.70	0.482	-.8675022 1.835135
_cons	685.9658	7.428702	92.34	0.000	671.3632 700.5684
Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 420	
Model	65333.3015	5	13066.6603	F( 5, 414) = 62.34	
Residual	86774.2921	414	209.599739	Prob > F = 0.0000	
				R-squared = 0.4795	
				Adj R-squared = 0.4226	
Total	152109.594	419	363.030056	Root MSE = 14.478	
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el_pct	-.6511835	.0394272	-16.52	0.000	-.7286859 -.5736811
junk1	-.3242784	.7453258	-0.44	0.664	-1.789373 1.140816
junk2	.5627173	.6899149	0.82	0.415	-.7934537 1.91889
junk3	-.856148	.6879098	-1.24	0.214	-.4960834 2.708388
_cons	686.1817	7.425821	92.40	0.000	671.5847 700.7787

# Some Caveats

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4. A high  $R^2$  or  $\bar{R}^2$  does not necessarily mean that you have the most appropriate set of regressors, nor does a low  $R^2$  or  $\bar{R}^2$  necessarily mean that you have a bad set of regressors.

# Hypothesis Testing: Testing Joint Hypotheses

- Recall the example above

```
. reg testscr str expn_stu el_pct, robust
```

Regression with robust standard errors

Number of obs = 420  
F( 3, 416) = 147.20  
Prob > F = 0.0000  
R-squared = 0.4366  
Root MSE = 14.353

testscr	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
str	-.2863992	.4820728	-0.59	0.553	-1.234001	.661203
expn_stu	.0038679	.0015807	2.45	0.015	.0007607	.0069751
el_pct	-.6560227	.0317844	-20.64	0.000	-.7185008	-.5935446
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- Suppose we wanted to test the null hypothesis that *both* the coefficient on *STR* and the coefficient on *EXPN\_STU* are zero.
- This is a **joint** hypothesis since we are imposing two restrictions on the regression model ( $\beta_1 = 0$  and  $\beta_2 = 0$ )

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- Let's see why.

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- What, then, is the probability that you will reject the null hypothesis when the **null is in fact true**?



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- Intuitively, you would like  $\alpha$  to be small and  $\beta$  to be big, but there is a trade-off between them.
- So what is the size ( $\alpha$ ) of the *overall* test when we use the two *t*-ratios?
- We know that the null is *not* rejected only if *both*

$$\left| t_{\hat{\beta}_1} \right| \leq 1.96 \text{ and } \left| t_{\hat{\beta}_2} \right| \leq 1.96$$

# Testing Joint Hypotheses

- Since the  $t$ -ratios are independent here (by assumption)

$$\begin{aligned}P\left(\left|t_{\hat{\beta}_1}\right| < 1.96, \left|t_{\hat{\beta}_2}\right| < 1.96\right) &= P\left(\left|t_{\hat{\beta}_1}\right| < 1.96\right) P\left(\left|t_{\hat{\beta}_2}\right| < 1.96\right) \\&= .95^2 = .9025\end{aligned}$$

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- So the probability of rejecting the null when the null is true is: 9.75%
- The joint test will then have a 9.75% significance level, not 5%
- You will be wrong almost twice as often as you thought!



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- This method, called the Bonferroni test, is rarely used in practice (because it has low power) so we will not cover it in this class.
- Fortunately, there are two other very good options.

# Transforming the Regression

(If we can) we might try to transform the regression in such a way that we can just use a single  $t$ -test

Example

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i \quad (1)$$

Suppose we test

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 \text{ vs. } H_A : \beta_1 \neq \beta_2$$

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How? From (1), add and subtract  $\beta_2 X_{1i}$  and get

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + (\beta_1 - \beta_2) X_{1i} + \beta_2 (X_{1i} + X_{2i}) + u_i$$

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Letting  $\gamma \equiv \beta_1 - \beta_2$ , we can write this as

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \gamma X_{1i} + \beta_2 (X_{1i} + X_{2i}) + u_i \quad (2)$$

Now estimate (2) with OLS and test  $\gamma = 0$



## Transforming the Regression

Another example. Again let

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i \quad (1)$$

But now suppose we test

$$H_0 : \beta_1 + 2\beta_2 = 3 \text{ vs. } H_A : \beta_1 + 2\beta_2 \neq 3$$

From (1), add and subtract  $2\beta_2 X_{1i}$  and get

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + (\beta_1 + 2\beta_2) X_{1i} + \beta_2 (X_{2i} - 2X_{1i}) + u_i$$

Letting  $\delta \equiv \beta_1 + 2\beta_2$

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \delta X_{1i} + \beta_2 (X_{2i} - 2X_{1i}) + u_i \quad (3)$$

Now estimate (3) with OLS and test  $\delta = 3$

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- For these joint restrictions, we need another method: the  $F$ -test.
- Since this new method will work on both the previous (simpler) problems as well as these more complex ones, we rarely use the “clever” transformation type tests in practice.

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# F-statistic

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$$F = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{t_{\hat{\beta}_1}^2 + t_{\hat{\beta}_2}^2 - 2\hat{\rho}_{t_{\hat{\beta}_1} t_{\hat{\beta}_2}} t_{\hat{\beta}_1} t_{\hat{\beta}_2}}{1 - \hat{\rho}_{t_{\hat{\beta}_1} t_{\hat{\beta}_2}}^2} \right)$$

where  $\hat{\rho}_{t_{\hat{\beta}_1} t_{\hat{\beta}_2}}$  is an estimator of the correlation between the two  $t$ -statistics.



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where  $\hat{\rho}_{t_{\hat{\beta}_1} t_{\hat{\beta}_2}}$  is an estimator of the correlation between the two  $t$ -statistics.

- But how is this new test statistic distributed?

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- Recall (from earlier slides) that:
  - $\chi_m^2$  is the sum of  $m$  squared independent standard normals.
  - $F_{n,m} = \frac{\frac{\chi_n^2}{n}}{\frac{\chi_m^2}{m}}$  (where the  $\chi^2$ 's are independent).
  - $F_{m,\infty} = \frac{\chi_m^2}{m}$  (the average of  $m$  squared normals).
- So (in this example)  $F = \frac{1}{2} \left( t_{\hat{\beta}_1}^2 + t_{\hat{\beta}_2}^2 \right) \sim F_{2,\infty}$

- A large value of  $F$  will then lead you to reject the null (since a large value of  $F$  means that  $t_{\hat{\beta}_1}^2$  or  $t_{\hat{\beta}_2}^2$  (or both) are large).

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- In general (for this  $H_0$ ), the above formula adjusts for any correlation between the  $t$ -statistics so that under the null, the  $F$ -statistic will have a  $F_{2,\infty}$  distribution in large samples (regardless of the correlation in the  $t$ -statistics).

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- The general formula for the  $F$ -statistic with  $q$  restrictions is quite complicated, so we will not present it here.
- However, under the null hypothesis, the  $F$ -statistic is distributed  $F_{q,\infty}$  (in large samples).



- Unlike the transformation approach, the  $F$ -statistic can be used to test both complicated hypotheses like

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 \text{ and } \beta_3 = 2\beta_1$$

which has 2 restrictions, as well as simple hypotheses like

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 \text{ vs. } H_0 : \beta_1 \neq \beta_2$$

which has only 1 restriction.

- The  $F$ -statistic is also automatically computed by statistical packages (like Stata) with simple commands.

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  - In such cases, there are alternatives with more power, but they are beyond the scope of this class.

# Using the F-statistic in Practice

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<sup>2</sup>The  $p$ -value is calculated as  $p\text{-value} = \Pr(F_{q,\infty} > F^{act}) = \Pr(\chi_q^2 > q \cdot F^{act})$

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# Using the F-statistic in Practice

1. Count the number of “restrictions” under the null (degrees of freedom), call this  $q$
2. Compute the  $F$ -statistic
3. Check the table for  $F_{q,\infty}$  (or get the  $p$ -value from Stata<sup>2</sup>)

Note: Since

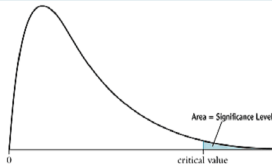
$$F_{q,\infty} = \frac{\chi_q^2}{q} \implies \chi_q^2 = qF_{q,\infty}$$

you can also use the tables for the  $\chi_q^2$  distribution (if you calculate  $qF_{q,\infty}$  or are given  $\chi_q^2$ )

---

<sup>2</sup>The  $p$ -value is calculated as  $p\text{-value} = \Pr(F_{q,\infty} > F^{act}) = \Pr(\chi_q^2 > q \cdot F^{act})$

**TABLE 4** Critical Values for the  $F_{m,n}$  Distribution



Degrees of Freedom	Significance Level		
	10%	5%	1%
1	2.71	3.84	6.63
2	2.30	3.00	4.61
3	2.08	2.60	3.78
4	1.94	2.37	3.32
5	1.85	2.21	3.02
6	1.77	2.10	2.80
7	1.72	2.01	2.64
8	1.67	1.94	2.51
9	1.63	1.88	2.41
10	1.60	1.83	2.32
11	1.57	1.79	2.25
12	1.55	1.75	2.18
13	1.52	1.72	2.13
14	1.50	1.69	2.08
15	1.49	1.67	2.04
16	1.47	1.64	2.00
17	1.46	1.62	1.97
18	1.44	1.60	1.93
19	1.43	1.59	1.90
20	1.42	1.57	1.88
21	1.41	1.56	1.85
22	1.40	1.54	1.83
23	1.39	1.53	1.81
24	1.38	1.52	1.79
25	1.38	1.51	1.77
26	1.37	1.50	1.76
27	1.36	1.49	1.74
28	1.35	1.48	1.72
29	1.35	1.47	1.71
30	1.34	1.46	1.70

This table contains the 90th, 95th, and 99th percentiles of the  $F_{m,n}$  distribution. These serve as critical values for tests with significance levels of 10%, 5%, and 1%.

**TABLE 3** Critical Values for the  $\chi^2$  Distribution

Degrees of Freedom	Significance Level		
	10%	5%	1%
1	2.71	3.84	6.63
2	4.61	5.99	9.21
3	6.25	7.81	11.34
4	7.78	9.49	13.28
5	9.24	11.07	15.09
6	10.64	12.59	16.81
7	12.02	14.07	18.48
8	13.36	15.51	20.09
9	14.68	16.92	21.67
10	15.99	18.31	23.21
11	17.28	19.68	24.72
12	18.55	21.03	26.22
13	19.81	22.36	27.69
14	21.06	23.68	29.14
15	22.31	25.00	30.58
16	23.54	26.30	32.00
17	24.77	27.59	33.41
18	25.99	28.87	34.81
19	27.20	30.14	36.19
20	28.41	31.41	37.57
21	29.62	32.67	38.93
22	30.81	33.92	40.29
23	32.01	35.17	41.64
24	33.20	36.41	42.98
25	34.38	37.65	44.31
26	35.56	38.89	45.64
27	36.74	40.11	46.96
28	37.92	41.34	48.28
29	39.09	42.56	49.59
30	40.26	43.77	50.89

This table contains the 90th, 95th, and 99th percentiles of the  $\chi^2$  distribution. These serve as critical values for tests with significance levels of 10%, 5%, and 1%.

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    - Use the  $p$ -value provided and reject the null if the  $p$ -value is less than the chosen significance level  $\alpha$ .
    - Use the tables in Wooldridge, choosing the appropriate cell.
- Now, let's look at some examples using the Test Score data...

# Examples

```
. reg testscr str expn_stu el_pct, robust
```

Regression with robust standard errors

Number of obs = 420  
F( 3, 416) = 147.20  
Prob > F = 0.0000  
R-squared = 0.4366  
Root MSE = 14.353

testscr	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
str	-.2863992	.4820728	-0.59	0.553	-1.234001	.661203
expn_stu	.0038679	.0015807	2.45	0.015	.0007607	.0069751
el_pct	-.6560227	.0317844	-20.64	0.000	-.7185008	-.5935446
_cons	649.5779	15.45834	42.02	0.000	619.1917	679.9641

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- Let's start by testing  $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2$  and  $\beta_3 = 2\beta_1$
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```
. test (str=expn_stu) (el_pct=2*str)
```

```
( 1) str - expn_stu = 0  
( 2) - 2 str + el_pct = 0
```

```
F( 2, 416) = 219.65  
Prob > F = 0.0000
```

- Note that Stata calculates the  $p$ -value using the  $F_{2,416}$  distribution instead of the  $F_{2,\infty}$  distribution.

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- Just as with the  $p$ -values of the individual coefficients, the results will be essentially the same if the sample is reasonably large.
- However, because  $F_{q,\infty} = \frac{\chi_q^2}{q} \implies \chi_q^2 = qF_{q,\infty}$  you can also calculate the  $\chi^2$  statistic and the associated asymptotic  $p$ -value using the *dis* (display) command

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```
. dis 2*r(F)
439.30201

. dis (1-chi2(2,2*r(F)))
0
```

- Since the  $p$ -value  $\simeq 0$ , we can reject the null at any level of significance.



```
. reg testscr str expn_stu el_pct, robust
```

Regression with robust standard errors

```
Number of obs =    420
F(   3,   416) =  147.20
Prob > F       =  0.0000
R-squared      =  0.4366
Root MSE     =  14.353
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- Let's test a more interesting null hypothesis:  $H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$  and  $\beta_2 = 0$

```
. test str expn_stu
( 1) str = 0.0
( 2) expn_stu = 0.0

F( 2, 416) = 5.43
Prob > F = 0.0047
```

```
. reg testscr str expn_stu e1_pct, robust
```

Regression with robust standard errors

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F( 3, 416)	=	147.20
Prob > F	=	0.0000
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Root MSE	=	14.353

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F( 2, 416) = 5.43
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```

- Again, we can also calculate the  $\chi^2$  statistic and the associated  $p$ -value using the *dis* (display) command

```
. dis 2*r(F)
10.867454

. dis (1-chi2(2,2*r(F)))
.00436679
```

```
. reg testscr str expn_stu el_pct, robust
```

Regression with robust standard errors

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Number of obs =      420
F(   3,   416) =  147.20
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- Let's consider yet another null:  $H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$  and  $\beta_2 = 0$  and  $\beta_3 = 0$

```
. test str expn_stu el_pct
( 1) str = 0.0
( 2) expn_stu = 0.0
( 3) el_pct = 0.0

F( 3, 416) = 147.20
Prob > F = 0.0000

. dis 3*r(F)
441.61113

. dis (1-chi2(3,3*r(F)))
0
```

```
. reg testscr str expn_stu el_pct, robust
```

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F( 3, 416) = 147.20
Prob > F = 0.0000

. dis 3*r(F)
441.61113

. dis (1-chi2(3,3*r(F)))
0
```

- How about a single restriction? Let's test  $H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$

```
. test str
( 1) str = 0.0

F( 1, 416) = 0.35
Prob > F = 0.5528

. dis r(F)
.35295427

. dis (1-chi2(1,r(F)))
.55244553
```

```
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```

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Number of obs =    420
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- Similarly, for  $H_0 : \beta_2 = 0$

```
. test expn_stu
( 1) expn_stu = 0.0
      F( 1,    416) =    5.99
      Prob > F =    0.0148

. dis r(F)
5.9874191

. dis (1-chi2(1,r(F)))
.01440827
```

## F-statistic under homoskedasticity

- Just like we constructed  $H_0$  SEs and  $H_0$   $t$ -statistics, we can construct a homoskedasticity-only  $F$ -statistic.
- Assume A1-A4 and A5 (homoskedasticity)
- Let the model be given by

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \dots + \beta_k X_{ki} + u_i \quad (1)$$

- This is called the “unrestricted” model since we are estimating the coefficients without imposing any restrictions on the coefficients.
- We can easily calculate  $SSR_U (= \sum \hat{u}_i^2)$  and  $R_U^2 = 1 - \frac{SSR_U}{TSS}$



# F-statistic under homoskedasticity

- Suppose we have  $q$  linear restrictions

- For example

$$\beta_1 = 0, \beta_2 = 0, \beta_3 = \beta_4 \implies q = 3$$

- The model then becomes (in this example)

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_3 (X_{3i} + X_{4i}) + \dots + \beta_k X_{ki} + u_i \quad (2)$$

which is the *restricted* model (for this example)

- Since we have incorporated the restriction, we can estimate (2) and calculate  $SSR_R$  and  $R_R^2 = 1 - \frac{SSR_R}{TSS}$
- We know of course that  $SSR_R \geq SSR_U$  and  $R_U^2 \geq R_R^2$
- Rejecting the null requires these differences to be “large”

## F-statistic under homoskedasticity

- With homoskedasticity, the  $F$ -statistic can be written as

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

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- If  $u_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$  it can be shown that

$$(SSR_R - SSR_U) \sim \chi_q^2 \quad \& \quad SSR_U \sim \chi_{n-k-1}^2$$

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- So our test is

$$\frac{\chi_q^2 / q}{\chi_{n-k-1}^2 / (n - k - 1)} = F_{q, n-k-1}$$

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$$\frac{\chi_q^2 / q}{\chi_{n-k-1}^2 / (n - k - 1)} = F_{q, n-k-1}$$

- Let's call this the *Rule of Thumb* ("RT")  $F$ -statistic.

# F-statistic under homoskedasticity

- Using our Test Scores regression

```
. reg testscr str expn_stu el_pct
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	420
Model	66409.8837	3	22136.6279	F( 3, 416) =	107.45
Residual	85699.7099	416	206.008918	Prob > F =	0.0000
				R-squared =	0.4366
				Adj R-squared =	0.4325
Total	152109.594	419	363.030056	Root MSE =	14.353

testscr	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
str	-.2863992	.4805232	-0.60	0.551	-1.230955 .658157
expn_stu	.0038679	.0014121	2.74	0.006	.0010921 .0066437
el_pct	-.6560227	.0391059	-16.78	0.000	-.7328924 -.5791529
_cons	649.5779	15.20572	42.72	0.000	619.6883 679.4676

Now let's construct the "RT"  $F$ -statistic for  $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$

$$F = \frac{(R_U^2 - R_R^2) / q}{(1 - R_U^2) / (n - k - 1)} = \frac{(.4366 - 0) / 3}{(1 - .4366) / 416} = 107.45$$

- Note that this matches what Stata reports automatically in the upper right corner of the output.

# F-statistic under homoskedasticity

- To construct the “RT”  $F$ -statistic for  $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$  we need to run the “restricted” regression explicitly

```
. reg testscr el_pct
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 420		
Model	63109.5688	1	63109.5688	F( 1, 418) = 296.40		
Residual	89000.0248	418	212.91872	Prob > F = 0.0000		
Total	152109.594	419	363.030056	R-squared = 0.4149		
				Adj R-squared = 0.4135		
				Root MSE = 14.592		

testscr	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
el_pct	-.6711562	.0389837	-17.22	0.000	-.7477847	-.5945277
_cons	664.7394	.9406415	706.69	0.000	662.8905	666.5884

# F-statistic under homoskedasticity

- To construct the “RT”  $F$ -statistic for  $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$  we need to run the “restricted” regression explicitly

```
. reg testscr el_pct
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 420		
Model	63109.5688	1	63109.5688	F( 1, 418) = 296.40		
Residual	89000.0248	418	212.91872	Prob > F = 0.0000		
Total	152109.594	419	363.030056	R-squared = 0.4149		
				Adj R-squared = 0.4135		
				Root MSE = 14.592		

testscr	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
el_pct	-.6711562	.0389837	-17.22	0.000	-.7477847	-.5945277
_cons	664.7394	.9406415	706.69	0.000	662.8905	666.5884

- We can then construct the “RT”  $F$ -statistic as

$$F = \frac{(R_U^2 - R_R^2) / q}{(1 - R_U^2) / (n - k - 1)} = \frac{(.4366 - .4149) / 2}{(1 - .4366) / 416} = 8.011$$



## F-statistic under homoskedasticity

- Note that this matches what we would find if we ran the test directly in Stata following the original *unrestricted* regression (i.e. after typing: `reg testscr str expn_stu el_pct`).

# F-statistic under homoskedasticity

- Note that this matches what we would find if we ran the test directly in Stata following the original *unrestricted* regression (i.e. after typing: `reg testscr str expn_stu el_pct`).

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. test str expn_stu
{ 1} str = 0
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      F( 2, 416) =    8.01
      Prob > F =    0.0004
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- Although it's easy to calculate and intuitively appealing, the Rule of Thumb  $F$ -statistic is **not** valid if  $u_i$  is not normal or if the errors are not homoskedastic (both strong assumptions).

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- Although it's easy to calculate and intuitively appealing, the Rule of Thumb  $F$ -statistic is **not** valid if  $u_i$  is not normal or if the errors are not homoskedastic (both strong assumptions).
- Therefore, we will not use this particular version of the  $F$ -statistic very often.