

# ECON3150/4150 Spring 2016

## Lecture 5

### Multiple regression model

Siv-Elisabeth Skjelbred

University of Oslo

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# Outline

- Continue from slide 34 on lecture 4.
- Regressions when  $X$  is a binary variable
- Omitted variable bias
- Introduction to multiple linear regression model and OLS

# Reminder

## Interpretation and prediction:

```
1 . reg ahe age
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	23005.7375	1	23005.7375	Number of obs =	7711	
Residual	769645.718	7709	99.8372964	F( 1, 7709) =	230.43	
				Prob > F =	0.0000	
				R-squared =	0.0290	
				Adj R-squared =	0.0289	
				Root MSE =	9.9919	
Total	792651.456	7710	102.80823			

  

ahe	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
age	.6049863	.0398542	15.18	0.000	.5268613	.6831113
_cons	1.082275	1.184255	0.91	0.361	-1.239187	3.403737

The regression result gives:

$$\hat{Y} = 1.08 + 0.60age$$

Predictions:

- A 26 year old worker is predicted to have an average hourly wage of: \$ 16.68 ( $1.08+0.6*26$ ).
- For each year of education you are predicted to earn \$ 0.6 more.

## Regression when $X$ is a binary variable

- A lot of information relevant for econometric analysis is qualitative.
- This information can be summarized with one or multiple binary variables.
- In econometrics binary variables are typically called dummy variables.
- In defining a dummy variable we must decide which event is assigned the value one and which is assigned the value 0.
- The name typically indicates the event with value one.
  - Female (1=female, 0=male)
  - Higher\_educ (1=college or more, 0=less than college)
  - Public\_transport (1=use public transport to work, 0=do not use public transport)
  - Drug (1=received the drug, 0= received placebo)

## Regression when $X$ is a binary variable

The population regression model with the binary variable  $D_i$  ( $D=1$  if female,  $D=0$  if male) is:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_i + u_i$$

when  $i$  is a male ( $D=0$ ) we get:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + u_i \rightarrow E(Y_i|D = 0) = \beta_0$$

while if  $i$  is a female ( $D=1$ ) we get:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 + u_i \rightarrow E(Y_i|D = 1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1$$

Thus  $\beta_1 = E(Y_i|Female) - E(Y_i|male)$

# Dummy variables

- The group with an indicator of 0 is the base group, the group against which comparisons are made.
- It does not matter how we choose the base group, but it is important to keep track of which group is the base group.
- If the two groups do not differ then  $\beta_1$  is zero.

# Example

## Data from additional E4.1

- Data from on average hourly earnings from a sample of full-time workers.
- Female = 1 the person is female, female = 0 the person is male.

```
1 . reg ahe female
```

Source	SS	df	MS
Model	13091.0876	1	13091.0876
Residual	779560.368	7709	101.12341
Total	792651.456	7710	102.80823

```
Number of obs =      7711
F( 1, 7709) =    129.46
Prob > F      =    0.0000
R-squared     =    0.0165
Adj R-squared =    0.0164
Root MSE     =    10.056
```

ahe	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
female	-2.629912	.2311422	-11.38	0.000	-3.083013 -2.17681
_cons	20.11387	.1520326	132.30	0.000	19.81584 20.41189

# Proportions and percentages as dependent variables

- The **proportional change** is the change in a variable relative to its initial value, mathematically, the change divided by the initial value.
- The **percentage change** is the proportional change in a variable, multiplied by 100.
- The **percentage point change** is the difference between two percentages.



## Proportions and percentages as dependent variables

In a dataset on CEO's where  $y$  is annual salary in thousands of dollars and  $X$  is the average return on equity (roe) the following OLS regression line can be obtained:

$$\text{salary} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{roe} + u$$

- ROE is defined in terms of net income as a percentage of common equity, thus if  $\text{roe}=10$ , the average return on equity is 10%.
- The slope parameter  $\beta_1$  measures the change in annual salary, in thousands of dollars, when return on equity increase by one percentage point.

# Homoskedasticity

The dummy variable example can shed light on what is meant by homoskedasticity:

- The definition of homoskedasticity requires the error term to be independent of  $X$ , i.e it must not depend on female in our example.
- For women the error term ( $u_i$ ) is the deviation of the  $i^{th}$  woman's earning from the population mean earnings for women.
- For men the error term ( $u_i$ ) is the deviation of the  $i^{th}$  man's earning from the population mean earnings for men.
- Thus the variance of earnings must be the same for men as it is for women.

# The ideal analysis

- The aim of regression is often to identify causality.
- In an ideal randomized controlled experiment the only difference between the “treatment” and “control” group is the variable you study.
- In observational data there may be a systematic difference the “treatment” group and the “control group” in one or more variables.
- If those variables are not included in the regression we have omitted variables.

## Omitted variable bias -ZCM assumption

- In the last lecture you saw that  $E(u|X) = 0$  is important in order for the OLS estimator to be unbiased.
- The omitted variable is thus important if the omission leads to a violation of the ZCM assumption.
- The bias that arise from such an omission is called omitted variable bias.

# Omitted variable bias

## Omitted variable bias

For omitted variable bias to occur, the omitted variable "Z" must satisfy two conditions:

- The omitted variable is correlated with the included regressor (i.e.  $\text{corr}(Z, X) \neq 0$ )
- The omitted variable is a determinant of the dependent variable (i.e. Z is part of  $u$ )

## OVB example

We estimate:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + u$$

while the true model is:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + v$$

The exclusion of  $Z$  leads to a bias in  $\beta_1$  whenever  $Z$  is a determinant of  $Y$  and correlated with  $X$ .

Example:  $\text{Corr}(Z, X) \neq 0$

The omitted variable ( $Z$ ) is correlated with  $X$ , example

$$\text{wages} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{educ} + \underbrace{u_i}_{\delta_1 \text{pinc} + v_i}$$

- Parents income is likely to be correlated with education, college is expensive and the alternative funding is loan or scholarship which is harder to acquire.

## Example: $Z$ is a determinant of $Y$

The omitted variable is a determinant of the dependent variable,

$$\text{wages} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{educ} + \underbrace{u_i}_{\delta_2 MS + v_i}$$

- Market situation is likely to determine wages, workers in firms that are doing well are likely to have higher wages.



## Example: Omitted variable bias

The omitted variable is both determinant of the dependent variable, i.e.  $\text{corr}(X_2, Y) \neq 0$  and correlated with the included regressor

$$\text{wages} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{educ} + \underbrace{u_i}_{\delta_3 \text{ability} + v_i}$$

- Ability - the higher your ability the "easier" education is for you and the more likely you are to have high education.
- Ability - the higher your ability the better you are at your job and the higher wages you get.

# How to overcome omitted variable bias

- 1 Run a ideal randomized controlled experiment
- 2 Do cross tabulation
- 3 Include the omitted variable in the regression

## Cross tabulation

One can address omitted variable bias by splitting the data into subgroups.  
For example:

	College graduates	High school graduates
High family income	$\bar{Y}_{HFI,C}$	$\bar{Y}_{HFI,H}$
Medium family income	$\bar{Y}_{MFI,C}$	$\bar{Y}_{MFI,H}$
Low family income	$\bar{Y}_{LFI,C}$	$\bar{Y}_{LFI,H}$

# Cross tabulation

- Cross tabulation only provides a difference of means analysis, but it does not provide a useful estimate of the ceteris paribus effect.
- To quantify the partial effect on  $Y_i$  on the change in one variable ( $X_{1i}$ ) holding the other independent variables constant we need to include the variables we want to hold constant in the model.
- When dealing with multiple independent variables we need the multiple linear regression model.

## Multiple linear regression model

# Multiple linear regression model

- Multiple linear regression models contain more than one independent variable.
- Multiple variables is necessary if:
  - You are interested in the ceteris paribus effect of multiple parameters.
  - Y is a polynomial function of X (more in chapter 8)
  - You fear violation omitted variable bias.

Y	X	Other variables
Wages	Education	Experience, Ability
Crop Yield	Fertilizer	Soil quality, location (sun etc)
Test score	STR	Average family income

## Multiple linear regression model

The general multiple linear regression model for the population can be written in the as:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \dots + \beta_k X_{ki} + u_i$$

- Where the subscript  $i$  indicates the  $i^{\text{th}}$  of the  $n$  observations in the sample.
- The first subscript,  $1, 2, \dots, k$ , denotes the independent variable number.
- The intercept  $\beta_0$  is the expected value of  $Y$  when all the  $X$ 's equal zero.
- The intercept can be thought of as the coefficient on a regressor,  $X_{0i}$ , that equals one for all  $i$ .
- The coefficient  $\beta_1$  is the coefficient of  $X_{1i}$ ,  $\beta_2$  the coefficient on  $X_{2i}$  etc.

## Multiple linear regression model

The average relationship between the  $k$  independent variables and the dependent variable is given by:

$$E(Y_i | X_{1i} = x_1, X_{2i} = x_2, \dots, X_{ki} = x_k) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_k x_k$$

- $\beta_1$  is thus the effect on  $Y$  of a unit change in  $X_1$  holding all other independent variables constant.
- The error term includes all other factors than the  $X$ 's that influence  $Y$ .



## Example

To make it more tractable consider a model with two independent variables. Then the population model is:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u$$

Example:

$$wage_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 educ_i + \beta_2 exp_i + u_i$$

$$wage_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 exp_i + \beta_2 IQ_i^2 + u_i$$

## Interpretation of the coefficient

In the two variable case the predicted value is given by:

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 X_2$$

Thus the predicted change in  $y$  given the changes in  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are given by:

$$\Delta \hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_1 \Delta X_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \Delta X_2$$

Thus if  $x_2$  is held fixed then:

$$\Delta \hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_1 \Delta X_1$$

# Interpretation of the coefficient

Using data on 526 observations on wage, education and experience the following output was obtained:

```
1 . reg wage educ exper
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	1612.2545	2	806.127251	Number of obs =	526	
Residual	5548.15979	523	10.6083361	F( 2, 523) =	75.99	
Total	7160.41429	525	13.6388844	Prob > F =	0.0000	
				R-squared =	0.2252	
				Adj R-squared =	0.2222	
				Root MSE =	3.257	

  

wage	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
educ	.6442721	.0538061	11.97	0.000	.5385695	.7499747
exper	.0700954	.0109776	6.39	0.000	.0485297	.0916611
_cons	-3.390539	.7665661	-4.42	0.000	-4.896466	-1.884613

Holding experience fixed another year of education is predicted to increase your wage by 0.64 dollars.

## Interpretation of the coefficient

If we want to change more than one independent variable we simply add the two effects.

Example:

$$\widehat{wage} = -3.39 + 0.64educ + 0.07exp$$

If you increase education by one year and decrease experience by one year the predicted increase in wage is 0.57 dollars.  $(0.64-0.07)$

## Example: Smoking and birthweight

Using the data set `birthweight_smoking.dta` you can estimate the following regression:

$$\widehat{\text{birthweight}} = 3432.06 - 253.2\text{Smoker}$$

If we include the number of prenatal visits:

$$\widehat{\text{birthweight}} = 3050.5 - 218.8\text{Smoker} + 34.1\text{previst}$$

## Example education

The relationship between years of education of male workers and the years of education of the parents.

```
8 . reg educ meduc feduc, robust
```

Linear regression

```
Number of obs =      1129
F( 2, 1126) =     159.83
Prob > F      =     0.0000
R-squared     =     0.2689
Root MSE     =     2.2595
```

educ	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
meduc	.1844065	.0223369	8.26	0.000	.1405798	.2282332
feduc	.2208784	.0259207	8.52	0.000	.1700201	.2717368
_cons	8.860898	.2352065	37.67	0.000	8.399405	9.32239

- Interpret the coefficient on mother's education.
- What is the predicted difference in education for a person where both parents have 12 years of education and a person where both parents have 16 years of education?

# Example education

From stata:

```
. display _cons+_b[meduc]*12+_b[feduc]*12
5.8634189

. display _cons+_b[meduc]*16+_b[feduc]*16
7.4845585

.
. display 7.484-5.863
1.621

.
. *or
.
. display _b[meduc]*4+_b[feduc]*4
1.6211396
```

Or by hand:

$$0.1844 * (16 - 12) + 0.2209 * (16 - 12) = 1.6212$$

# Multiple linear regression model

Advantages of the MLRM over the SLRM:

- By adding more independent variables (control variables) we can explicitly control for other factors affecting  $y$ .
- More likely that the zero conditional mean assumption holds and thus more likely to have an unbiased estimator.
- By controlling for more factors, we can explain more of the variation in  $y$ , thus better predictions.
- Can incorporate more general functional forms.



# Assumptions of the MLRM

- 1 (The model is linear in parameters)
- 2 Random sampling
- 3 Large outliers are unlikely
- 4 Zero conditional mean, i.e the error  $u$  has an expected value of zero given any value of the independent variables

$$E(u|X_1, x_2, \dots, X_k) = 0$$

- 5 (There is sampling variation in  $X$ ) **and there are no exact linear relationships among the independent variables.**

Under these assumptions the OLS estimators are unbiased estimators of the population parameters. In addition there is the homoskedasticity assumption which is necessary for OLS to be BLUE.

# No exact linear relationships

## Perfect collinearity

A situation in which one of the regressors is an exact linear function of the other regressors.

- This is required to be able to compute the estimators.
- The variables can be correlated, but not perfectly correlated.
- Typically perfect collinearity arise because of specification mistakes.
  - Mistakenly put in the same variable measured in different units
  - The dummy variable trap: Including the intercept plus a binary variable for each group.
  - Sample size is too small compared to parameters (need at least  $k+1$  observations to estimate  $k+1$  parameters)

## No perfect collinearity

Solving the three 1oc for the model with two independent variables gives:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_{X_2}^2 \hat{\sigma}_{Y, X_1} - \hat{\sigma}_{Y, X_2} \hat{\sigma}_{X_1, X_2}}{\hat{\sigma}_{X_1}^2 \hat{\sigma}_{X_2}^2 - \hat{\sigma}_{X_1, X_2}^2}$$

where  $\hat{\sigma}_{X_j}^2$  ( $j = 1, 2$ ),  $\hat{\sigma}_{Y, X_j}^2$  and  $\hat{\sigma}_{X_1, X_2}^2$  are empirical variances and covariances. Thus we require that:

$$\hat{\sigma}_{X_1}^2 \hat{\sigma}_{X_2}^2 - \hat{\sigma}_{X_1, X_2}^2 = \hat{\sigma}_{X_1}^2 \hat{\sigma}_{X_2}^2 (1 - r_{X_1, X_2}^2) \neq 0$$

Thus must have that  $\hat{\sigma}_{X_1}^2 > 0$ ,  $\hat{\sigma}_{X_2}^2 > 0$  and  $r_{X_1, X_2}^2 \neq 1$ . Thus the sample correlation coefficient between  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  cannot be one or minus one.

## Imperfect collinearity

- Occurs when two or more of the regressors are highly correlated (but not perfectly correlated).
- High correlation makes it hard to estimate the effect of the one variable holding the other constant.
- For the model with two independent variables and homoskedastic errors:

$$\sigma_{\hat{\beta}_1}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \left( \frac{1}{1 - \rho_{X_1, X_2}^2} \right) \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sigma_{X_1}^2}$$

- The two variable case illustrates that the higher the correlation between  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  the higher the variance of  $\hat{\beta}_1$ .
- Thus, when multiple regressors are imperfectly collinear, the coefficients on one or more of these regressors will be imprecisely estimated.

## Omitted variable bias

The direction of bias is illustrated in the the following formula:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \xrightarrow{p} \beta_1 + \rho_{Xu} \frac{\sigma_u}{\sigma_X} \quad (1)$$

where  $\rho_{Xu} = \text{corr}(X_i, u_i)$ . The formula indicates that:

- Omitted variable bias exist even when  $n$  is large.
- The larger the correlation between  $X$  and the error term the larger the bias.
- The direction of the bias depends on whether  $X$  and  $u$  are negatively or positively correlated.

## Example bias

Comparing estimates from simple and multiple regression. What is the return to education? Simple regression:

```
1 . reg wage educ, robust
```

```
Linear regression
```

```
Number of obs =      935  
F( 1, 933) =      95.65  
Prob > F      =      0.0000  
R-squared     =      0.1070  
Root MSE     =      382.32
```

	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
wage						
educ	<b>60.21428</b>	<b>6.156956</b>	<b>9.78</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>48.1312</b>	<b>72.29737</b>
_cons	<b>146.9524</b>	<b>80.26953</b>	<b>1.83</b>	<b>0.067</b>	<b>-10.57731</b>	<b>304.4822</b>

Can we give this regression a causal interpretation? What happens if we include IQ in the regression?

▶ forth

## Example bias - two independent variables

Call the simple regression of  $Y$  on  $X_1$  (think of regressing wage on education)

$$\tilde{Y} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 X_1 + v$$

while the true population model is:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + u_i$$

The relationship between  $\tilde{\beta}_1$  and  $\beta_1$  is:

$$\tilde{\beta}_1 = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \tilde{\delta}_1$$

where  $\tilde{\delta}_1$  comes from the regression  $\hat{X}_2 = \tilde{\delta}_0 + \tilde{\delta}_1 X_1$

## Example bias - two independent variables

Thus the bias that arise from the omitted variable (in the model with two independent variables) is given by  $\beta_2 \tilde{\delta}_1$  and the direction of the bias can be summarized by the following table:

	$\text{corr}(x_1, x_2) > 0$	$\text{corr}(x_1, x_2) < 0$
$\beta_2 > 0$	Positive bias	Negative bias
$\beta_2 < 0$	Negative bias	Positive bias



# Comparing estimates from simple and multiple regression

wage	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
educ	<b>42.05762</b>	<b>6.810074</b>	<b>6.18</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>28.69276</b>	<b>55.42247</b>
IQ	<b>5.137958</b>	<b>.9266458</b>	<b>5.54</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>3.319404</b>	<b>6.956512</b>
_cons	<b>-128.8899</b>	<b>93.09396</b>	<b>-1.38</b>	<b>0.167</b>	<b>-311.5879</b>	<b>53.80818</b>

IQ	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
educ	<b>3.533829</b>	<b>.1839282</b>	<b>19.21</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>3.172868</b>	<b>3.89479</b>
_cons	<b>53.68715</b>	<b>2.545285</b>	<b>21.09</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>48.69201</b>	<b>58.6823</b>

$$\tilde{\beta}_1 = 60.214 \approx 42.047 + 3.533 * 5.137$$

## Bias - multiple independent variables

- Deriving the sign of omitted variable bias when there are more than two independent variables in the model is more difficult.
- Note that correlation between a single explanatory variable and the error generally results in all OLS estimators being biased.
- Suppose the true population model is:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + u$$

- But we estimate

$$\tilde{Y} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 X_1 + \tilde{\beta}_2 X_2$$

- If  $\text{Corr}(X_1, X_3) \neq 0$  while  $\text{Corr}(X_2, X_3) = 0$   $\tilde{\beta}_2$  will also be biased unless  $\text{corr}(X_1, X_2) = 0$ .

## Bias - multiple independent variables

$$wage = \beta_0 + \beta_1 educ + \beta_2 exper + \beta_3 abil + u$$

- People with higher ability tend to have higher education
- People with higher education tend to have less experience
- Even if we assume that ability and experience are uncorrelated  $\beta_2$  is biased.
- We cannot conclude the direction of bias without further assumptions

# Causation

- Regression analysis can refute a causal relationship, since correlation is necessary for causation..
- ..but cannot confirm or discover a causal relationship by statistical analysis alone.
- The true population parameter measures the ceteris paribus effect which holds all other (relevant) factors equal.
- However, it is rarely possible to literally hold all else equal:
  - "natural experiments" or "quasi-experiments".
  - Use instrument on unobserved factors.