Multiple Regression Analysis

Chapter 2 (chapter 3 of the book reference)

Reference: Wooldridge: Introductory Econometrics: A Modern Approach, 5e

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Definition of the multiple linear regression model

"Explains variable y in terms of variables x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_k "



Motivation for multiple regression

- Incorporate more explanatory factors into the model
- Explicitly hold fixed other factors that otherwise would be in $\,u\,$
- Allow for more flexible functional forms

Example: Wage equation



Example: Average test scores and per student spending



- Per student spending is likely to be correlated with average family income at a given high school because of school financing
- Omitting average family income in regression would lead to biased estimate of the effect of spending on average test scores
- In a simple regression model, effect of per student spending would partly include the effect of family income on test scores

Example: Family income and family consumption



- Model has two explanatory variables: inome and income squared
- Consumption is explained as a quadratic function of income
- One has to be very careful when interpreting the coefficients:



Example: CEO salary, sales and CEO tenure



- Model assumes a constant elasticity relationship between CEO salary and the sales of his or her firm
- Model assumes a quadratic relationship between CEO salary and his or her tenure with the firm

Meaning of "linear" regression

• The model has to be linear **in the parameters** (not in the variables)

- OLS Estimation of the multiple regression model
- Random sample

 $\{(x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ik}, y_i) : i = 1, \dots n\}$

 $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_k x_{ik} + u_i$

• **Fitted values:** suppose estimates $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, ..., \hat{\beta}_k$

 $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \hat{\beta}_k x_{ik}$

Regression residuals

$$\widehat{u}_i = y_i - \widehat{\beta}_0 - \widehat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} - \widehat{\beta}_2 x_{i2} - \ldots - \widehat{\beta}_k x_{ik}$$

Minimize sum of squared residuals

$$\min \sum_{i=1}^{n} \widehat{u}_{i}^{2} \rightarrow \widehat{\beta}_{0}, \widehat{\beta}_{1}, \widehat{\beta}_{2}, \dots, \widehat{\beta}_{k}$$

Minimization will be carried out by compute



Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) for the Simple Regression Model

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + u_i$$

$$\hat{\beta}_{1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})(y_{i} - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}, \quad \hat{\beta}_{0} = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_{1}\bar{x}$$

 Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) for the Multiple Regression Model with matrix notation

$$y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_{k}x_{ik} + u_{i} \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$
$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{\beta} + \mathbf{u}$$
$$\mathbf{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$$

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Properties of OLS on any sample of data

Fitted values and residuals

$$\hat{y}_{i} = \hat{\beta}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{1}x_{i1} + \hat{\beta}_{2}x_{i2} + \ldots + \hat{\beta}_{k}x_{ik} \qquad \hat{u}_{i} = y_{i} - \hat{y}_{i}$$
Fitted or predicted values Residuals

Algebraic properties of OLS regression

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{u}_{i} = 0 \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij} \hat{u}_{i} = 0 \qquad \bar{y} = \hat{\beta}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{1} \bar{x}_{1} + \ldots + \hat{\beta}_{k} \bar{x}_{k} \Leftrightarrow \bar{\hat{y}} = \bar{y}$$
Deviations from regression
line sum up to zero
Correlations between deviations
and regressors are zero
Sample averages of y and of the
regressors lie on regression line

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Interpretation of the multiple regression model



By how much does the dependent variable change if the j-th independent variable is increased by one unit, <u>holding all</u> <u>other independent variables and the error term constant</u>

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- The multiple linear regression model manages to hold the values of other explanatory variables fixed even if, in reality, they are correlated with the explanatory variable under consideration
- "Ceteris paribus"-interpretation
- It has still to be assumed that unobserved factors do not change if the explanatory variables are changed

• Interpretation of $\hat{\beta}_{j}$

 $\hat{\beta}_{j} = \Delta \hat{y}$ if $\Delta x_{j} = 1$ ceteris paribus Δx_{i} ceteris paribus $\Rightarrow \Delta \hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_{i} \Delta x_{i}$

Total variation of y

$$\Delta \hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_1 \Delta x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \Delta x_2 + \ldots + \hat{\beta}_k \Delta x_k$$

Example: variables in Levels (LEVEL – LEVEL)

 $w \hat{a} g e = -3.39 + 0.64 educ + 0.07 exper$

- Interpret the coefficients
- Estimate the variation on wage of a person with 1 more year of education and 2 more years of experience
- Estimate the wage of a person with 15 years of education and 3 years of experience
- Suppose that the observed wage of a person with 15 years of education and 3 years of experience is 7\$/h. Calculate the residual and interprett.
- How much does the experience need to vary in order that the wage increases 0.63\$/h?
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Example: Determinants of college GPA



Interpretation

- <u>Holding ACT fixed</u>, another point on high school grade point average is associated with another .453 points college grade point average
- Or: If we compare two students with the same ACT, but the hsGPA of student A is one point higher, we predict student A to have a colGPA that is .453 higher than that of student B
- <u>Holding high school grade point average fixed</u>, another 10 points on ACT are associated with less than one point on college GPA

- Incorporating nonlinearities: Log-logarithmic form (LOG LOG)
- CEO salary and firm sales

$$\log(salary) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log(sales) + u$$

Natural logarithm of CEO salary

Natural logarithm of his/her firm's sales

This changes the interpretation of the regression coefficient:



The Simple Regression Model

- Incorporating nonlinearities: Log-logarithmic form (LOG LOG)
- CEO salary and firm sales

$$\widehat{\log}(salary) = 4.822 + 0.257 \log(sales)$$

+ 1 % sales + 0.257 % salary

The log-log form postulates a <u>constant elasticity</u> model

- Incorporating nonlinearities: Semi-logarithmic form) (LOG LEVEL)
- Regression of log wages on years of eduction

$$\log(wage) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 educ + u$$

Natural logarithm of wage

• This changes the interpretation of the regression coefficient:

$$\beta_{1} = \frac{\partial \log(wage)}{\partial educ} = \frac{1}{wage} \cdot \frac{\partial wage}{\partial educ} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial wage}{wage}}_{\substack{wage}} \leftarrow \texttt{\$100} \text{ is the percentage change} \\ \text{of wage} \\ \dots \text{ if years of education} \\ \text{are increased by one year} \\ \boxed{\% \Delta wage} = \beta_{1} \times 100\%$$

- Incorporating nonlinearities: Semi-logarithmic form (LOG LEVEL)
- Regression of log wages on years of eduction

 $\widehat{\log}(wage) = 0.584 + 0.083 \ educ$

The wage increases by 8.3 % for every additional year of education (= return to education)

The growth rate of wage is 8.3 % per year of education

the semi-log form assumes a semi-elasticity model

- Incorporating nonlinearities: Semi-logarithmic form (LEVEL-LOG)
- Regression of salary on logarithm of sales

$$salary = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log(sales) + u$$

CEO salary in thousands of \$

This changes the interpretation of the regression coefficient:



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- Incorporating nonlinearities: Semi-logarithmic form (LEVEL-LOG)
- Regression of salary on logarithm of sales

$$salary = -898.9 + 262.9 \log(sales)$$

CEO salary in thousands of \$

If sales increase by 1% then the CEO salary increases by 2.629 thousands of \$

- Partialling out" interpretation of multiple regression
- One can show that the estimated coefficient of an explanatory variable in a multiple regression can be obtained in two steps:
 - 1) Regress the explanatory variable on all other explanatory variables
 - 2) Regress *y* on the residuals from this regression
- Why does this procedure work?
 - The residuals from the first regression is the part of the explanatory variable that is uncorrelated with the other explanatory variables
 - The slope coefficient of the second regression therefore represents the isolated effect of the explanatory variable on the dep. variable

- Goodness-of-Fit
- Decomposition of total variation

SST = SSE + SSR

R-squared

Notice that R-squared can only increase if another explanatory variable is added to the regression

$$R^2 = SSE/SST = 1 - SSR/SST$$

Alternative expression for R-squared

$$R^{2} = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \bar{y})(\hat{y}_{i} - \bar{\hat{y}})\right)^{2}}{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}\right)\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_{i} - \bar{\hat{y}})^{2}\right)}$$

R-squared is equal to the squared correlation coefficient between the actual and the predicted value of the dependent variable

Example: Explaining arrest records



Interpretation:

- Proportion prior arrests: $\triangle = 0.5 \rightarrow \triangle y = -.075$ or -7.5 arrests per 100 men
- Months in prison: $\triangle = 12 \rightarrow \triangle y = -.034(12) = -0.408$ arrests for given man
- Quarters employed: $\triangle = 1 \rightarrow \triangle y = -.104$ or -10.4 arrests per 100 men

Example: Explaining arrest records (cont.)

An additional explanatory variable is added:

narr86 = .707 - .151 pcnv + .0074 avgsen - .037 ptime 86 - .103 qemp 86

$$n = 2,725, R^2 = .0422$$

Average sentence in prior convictions

R-squared increases only slightly

Interpretation:

- Average prior sentence increases number of arrests (?)
- Limited additional explanatory power as R-squared increases by little

General remark on R-squared

 Even if R-squared is small (as in the given example), regression may still provide good estimates of ceteris paribus effects

- Standard assumptions for the multiple regression model
- Assumption MLR.1 (Linear in parameters)

 $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k + u_k$

In the population, the relationship between y and the coefficients is linear

The model includes an unobserved error term

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Assumption MLR.2 (Random sampling)

 $\{(x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ik}, y_i) : i = 1, \dots n\}$ The data is a random sample drawn from the population

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_k x_{ik} + u_i$$

Each data point therefore follows the population equation

Standard assumptions for the multiple regression model (cont.)

Assumption MLR.3 (No perfect collinearity)

"In the sample (and therefore in the population), none of the independent variables is constant and there are no exact relationships among the independent variables"

Remarks on MLR.3

- The assumption only rules out <u>perfect</u> collinearity/correlation between explanatory variables; imperfect correlation is allowed
- If an explanatory variable is a perfect linear combination of other explanatory variables it is superfluous and may be eliminated
- Constant variables are also ruled out (collinear with intercept)

Example for perfect collinearity: small sample

$avgscore = \beta_0 + \beta_1 expend + \beta_2 avginc + u$

In a small sample, avginc may accidentally be an exact multiple of expend; it will not be possible to disentangle their separate effects because there is exact covariation

Example for perfect collinearity: relationships between regressors

$$voteA = \beta_0 + \beta_1 shareA + \beta_2 shareB + u$$

Either shareA or shareB will have to be dropped from the regression because there is an exact linear relationship between them: shareA + shareB = 1

- Standard assumptions for the multiple regression model (cont.)
- Assumption MLR.4 (Zero conditional mean)

 $E(u_i|x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \ldots, x_{ik}) = 0 \longleftarrow$

The value of the explanatory variables must contain no information about the mean of the unobserved factors

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- In a multiple regression model, the zero conditional mean assumption is much more likely to hold because fewer things end up in the error
- Example: Average test scores

 $avgscore = \beta_0 + \beta_1 expend + \beta_2 avginc + u \prec$

If avginc was not included in the regression, it would end up in the error term; it would then be hard to defend that expend is uncorrelated with the error

Discussion of the zero mean conditional assumption

- Explanatory variables that are correlated with the error term are called endogenous; endogeneity is a violation of assumption MLR.4
- Explanatory variables that are uncorrelated with the error term are called <u>exogenous</u>; MLR.4 holds if all explanat. var. are exogenous
- Exogeneity is the key assumption for a causal interpretation of the regression, and for unbiasedness of the OLS estimators

Theorem 3.1 (Unbiasedness of OLS)

 $MLR.1-MLR.4 \Rightarrow E(\hat{\beta}_j) = \beta_j, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, k$

 Unbiasedness is an average property in repeated samples; in a given sample, the estimates may still be far away from the true values

- Standard assumptions for the multiple regression model (cont.)
- Assumption MLR.5 (Homoscedasticity)

 $Var(u_i|x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ik}) = \sigma^2 \longleftarrow$

The value of the explanatory variables must contain no information about the variance of the unobserved factors

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Example: Wage equation
 Var(u_i|educ_i, exper_i, tenure_i) = σ²
 This assumption may also be hard to justify in many cases

 Short hand notation
 All explanatory variables are collected in a random vector

 $Var(u_i|\mathbf{x}_i) = \sigma^2$ with $\mathbf{x}_i \stackrel{\checkmark}{=} (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ik})$

<u>Theorem 3.2 (Sampling variances of OLS slope estimators)</u>

Under assumptions MLR.1 – MLR.5:



- Components of OLS Variances:
- **1)** The error variance
 - A high error variance increases the sampling variance because there is more "noise" in the equation
 - A large error variance necessarily makes estimates imprecise
 - The error variance does not decrease with sample size
- 2) The total sample variation in the explanatory variable
 - More sample variation leads to more precise estimates
 - Total sample variation automatically increases with the sample size
 - Increasing the sample size is thus a way to get more precise estimates

3) Linear relationships among the independent variables

Regress x_j on all other independent variables (including a constant)

The R-squared of this regression will be the higher the better x_j can be linearly explained by the other independent variables

- Sampling variance of $\hat{\beta}_j$ will be the higher the better explanatory variable x_j can be linearly explained by other independent variables
- The problem of almost linearly dependent explanatory variables is called <u>multicollinearity</u> (i.e. $R_j \rightarrow 1$ for some j)

Discussion of the multicollinearity problem

- In the above example, it would probably be better to lump all expenditure categories together because effects cannot be disentangled
- In other cases, dropping some independent variables may reduce multicollinearity (but this may lead to omitted variable bias)
- Only the sampling variance of the variables involved in multicollinearity will be inflated; the estimates of other effects may be very precise
- Note that multicollinearity is not a violation of MLR.3 in the strict sense
- Multicollinearity may be detected through "variance inflation factors"

$$VIF_j = 1/(1-R_j^2)$$

As an (arbitrary) rule of thumb, the variance inflation factor should not be larger than 10

An example for multicollinearity



The different expenditure categories will be strongly correlated because if a school has a lot of resources it will spend a lot on everything.

It will be hard to estimate the differential effects of different expenditure categories because all expenditures are either high or low. For precise estimates of the differential effects, one would need information about situations where expenditure categories change differentially.

As a consequence, sampling variance of the estimated effects will be large.

<u>Theorem 3.4 (Gauss-Markov Theorem)</u>

 Under assumptions MLR.1 - MLR.5, the OLS estimators are the best linear unbiased estimators (BLUEs) of the regression coefficients, i.e.

$$Var(\hat{\beta}_j) \leq Var(\tilde{\beta}_j) \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, k$$

for all
$$\tilde{\beta}_j = \sum_{i=1}^n w_{ij} y_i$$
 for which $E(\tilde{\beta}_j) = \beta_j, j = 0, \dots, k$.

 OLS is only the best estimator if MLR.1 – MLR.5 hold; if there is heteroscedasticity for example, there are better estimators.

Efficiency of OLS: The Gauss-Markov Theorem

- Under assumptions MLR.1 MLR.5, OLS is unbiased
- However, under these assumptions there may be many other estimators that are unbiased
- Which one is the unbiased estimator with the <u>smallest variance</u>?
- In order to answer this question one usually limits oneself to linear estimators, i.e. estimators linear in the dependent variable

$$\tilde{\beta}_j = \sum_{i=1}^n w_{ij} y_i$$

May be an arbitrary function of the sample values of all the explanatory variables; the OLS estimator can be shown to be of this form

Estimating the error variance

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2\right) / [n-k-1]$$

An unbiased estimate of the error variance can be obtained by substracting the number of estimated regression coefficients from the number of observations. The number of observations minus the number of estimated parameters is also called the <u>degrees of freedom</u>. The n estimated squared residuals in the sum are not completely independent but related through the k+1 equations that define the first order conditions of the minimization problem.

Theorem 3.3 (Unbiased estimator of the error variance)

$MLR.1 - MLR.5 \Rightarrow E(\hat{\sigma}^2) = \sigma^2$

Estimation of the sampling variances of the OLS estimators



 Note that these formulas are only valid under assumptions MLR.1-MLR.5 (in particular, there has to be homoscedasticity)

Including irrelevant variables in a regression model

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + u$$

No problem because $E(\hat{\beta}_3) = \beta_3 = 0$. = 0 in the population

However, including irrelevant variables may increase sampling variance.

Omitting relevant variables: the simple case

 $y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_1 + w$ Estimated model (x₂ is omitted)

Omitted variable bias

 $x_2 = \delta_0 + \delta_1 x_1 + v$

 If x₁ and x₂ are correlated, assume a linear regression relationship between them

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$$\Rightarrow \quad y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 (\delta_0 + \delta_1 x_1 + v) + u$$



<u>Conclusion</u>: All estimated coefficients will be biased

Omitted variable bias: more general cases

 $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + u$
True model (contains x₁, x₂ and x₃)

 $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + w$ \leftarrow Estimated model (x₃ is omitted)

- No general statements possible about direction of bias
- Analysis as in simple case if one regressor uncorrelated with others
- Example: Omitting ability in a wage equation

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

If exper is approximately uncorrelated with educ and abil, then the direction of the omitted variable bias can be as analyzed in the simple two variable case.

Example: Omitting ability in a wage equation

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

$$abil = \delta_0 + \delta_1 educ + v$$

$$wage = (\beta_0 + \beta_2 \delta_0) + (\beta_1 + \beta_2 \delta_1) educ + (\beta_2 v + u)$$

The return to education β_1 will be <u>overestimated</u> because $\beta_2 \delta_1 > 0$. It will look as if people with many years of education earn very high wages, but this is partly due to the fact that people with more education are also more able on average.

When is there no omitted variable bias?

If the omitted variable is irrelevant or uncorrelated

- More on goodness-of-fit and selection of regressors
- General remarks on R-squared
 - A high R-squared does not imply that there is a causal interpretation
 - A low R-squared does not preclude precise estimation of partial effects
- Adjusted R-squared
 - What is the ordinary R-squared supposed to measure?

$$R^{2} = 1 - \frac{SSR}{SST} = 1 - \frac{SSR / (n-1)}{SST / (n-1)}$$
 is an estimate for $1 - \frac{\sigma_{u}^{2}}{\sigma_{y}^{2}}$
Population R-squared

Adjusted R-squared (cont.)

Correct degrees of freedom of nominator and denominator

• A better estimate taking into account degrees of freedom would be

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{(SSR/(n-k-1))}{(SST/(n-1))} = adjusted \ R^2$$

- The adjusted R-squared imposes a penalty for adding new regressors
- The adjusted R-squared increases if, and only if, the ratio between the coef. estimate and the standard error of a newly added regressor is greater than one in absolute value
- Relationship between R-squared and adjusted R-squared

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2)(n - 1)/(n - k - 1)$$

The adjusted R-squared may even get negative

Using adjusted R-squared to choose between nonnested models

Models are nonnested if neither model is a special case of the other

$$rdintens = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log(sales) + u \leftarrow R^2 = .061, \bar{R}^2 = .030$$
$$rdintens = \beta_0 + \beta_1 sales + \beta_2 sales^2 + u \leftarrow R^2 = .148, \bar{R}^2 = .090$$

- A comparison between the R-squared of both models would be unfair to the first model because the first model contains fewer parameters
- In the given example, even after adjusting for the difference in degrees of freedom, the quadratic model is preferred

Comparing models with different dependent variables

 R-squared or adjusted R-squared must not be used to compare models which differ in their definition of the dependent variable

Example: CEO compensation and firm performance

There is much less variation (in log(salary) that needs to be explained than in salary

 $salary = 223.90 + .0089 \ sales + 19.63 \ roe (223.63) (.0163) (11.08)$ $n = 209, R^2 = .029, \bar{R}^2 = .020, TSS = 391, 732, 982$ $lsalary = 4.36 + .275 \ lsales + .0179 \ roe (0.29) (.033) (.0040)$ $n = 209, R^2 = .282, \bar{R}^2 = .275, TSS = 66.72$ 45

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