### **Chapter 3** (Chapter 4 from the textbook)

Wooldridge: Introductory Econometrics: A Modern Approach, 5e

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### Multiple Regression Analysis: Inference - Introduction

- Statistical inference in the regression model
  - Construction of confidence intervals for a coefficient
  - Hypothesis tests about population parameters
- Sampling distributions of the OLS estimators
  - The OLS estimators are random variables
  - We already know their expected values and their variances
  - However, for hypothesis tests we need to know their <u>distribution</u>
  - In order to derive their distribution we need <u>additional assumptions</u>
  - Assumption about the distribution of errors: normal distribution

### **Multiple Regression Analysis:** Inference - Introduction

**Examples of test of hypothesis** 

birth weight 
$$bwgth = \beta_0 + \beta_1 cigs + \beta_2 educ + \beta_3 npvis + \beta_4 age + u$$

cigarettes smoked per total number of day while pregnant

prenatal visits

Aae of the mother

Is the partial effect of age relevant after controlling for cigs, education and npvis?

 $H_0: \beta_4 = 0$   $H_1: \beta_4 \neq 0$  Individual statistical significance

Is the effect of smoking 10 cigarettes canceled by the effect of one more prenatal visit?

$$H_0: 10\beta_1 + \beta_3 = 0$$
  $H_1: 10\beta_1 + \beta_3 \neq 0$ 

Single linear combination of the parameters

### Multiple Regression Analysis: Inference - Introduction

**Examples of test of hypothesis:** 

birth weight 
$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 cigs + \beta_2 educ + \beta_3 npvis + \beta_4 age + u$$

cigarettes smoked per day while pregnant

total number of prenatal visits

Age of the mother

Are the partial effect of age, education and npvis jointly irrelevant after controling for the number of cigarretes smoked?

 $H_{0}: \beta_{2} = 0, \ \beta_{3} = 0, \ \beta_{4} = 0$   $H_{1}: \beta_{2} \neq 0 \lor \beta_{3} \neq 0 \lor \beta_{4} \neq 0$  jointly statistical significance

Exclusion restrictions

Is there any variable in the equation relevant to explain the birth weight?  $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \beta_4 = 0 \qquad H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0 \lor \beta_2 \neq 0 \lor \beta_3 \neq 0 \lor \beta_4 \neq 0$ 

Overall significance of the regression

### Assumption MLR.6 (Normality of error terms)

 $u_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$  independently of  $x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \ldots, x_{ik}$ 



- Discussion of the normality assumption
  - The error term is the sum of "many" different unobserved factors
  - Sums of independent factors are normally distributed (CLT)
  - Problems:
    - How many different factors? Number large enough?
    - Possibly very heterogenuous distributions of individual factors
    - How independent are the different factors?
  - The normality of the error term is an empirical question
  - At least the error distribution should be "close" to normal
  - In many cases, normality is questionable or impossible by definition

- Discussion of the normality assumption (cont.)
  - Examples where normality cannot hold:
    - Wages (nonnegative; also: minimum wage)
    - Number of arrests (takes on a small number of integer values)
    - Unemployment (indicator variable, takes on only 1 or 0)
  - In some cases, normality can be achieved through transformations of the dependent variable (e.g. use log(wage) instead of wage)
  - Under normality, <u>OLS is the best (even nonlinear) unbiased estimator</u>
  - <u>Important</u>: For the purposes of statistical inference, the assumption of normality can be replaced by <u>a large sample size</u>

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### Terminology

MLR.1 - MLR.5

"Gauss-Markov assumptions"

 $\underline{MLR.1 - MLR.6}$ 

"Classical linear model (CLM) assumptions"

Theorem 4.1 (Normal sampling distributions)

Under assumptions MLR.1 – MLR.6:

The estimators are normally distributed around the true parameters with the variance that was derived earlier

 $\hat{\beta}_j \sim N(\beta_j, Var(\hat{\beta}_j))$ 

$$rac{\widehat{eta}_j - eta_j}{sd(\widehat{eta}_j)} \sim N(0, 1)$$

The standardized estimators follow a standard normal distribution

Theorem 4.2 (t-distribution for standardized estimators)

Under assumptions MLR.1 – MLR.6:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_j - \beta_j}{se(\hat{\beta}_j)} \sim t_{n-k-1} \checkmark$$

 If the standardization is done using the <u>estimated</u> standard deviation (= standard error), the normal distribution is replaced by a t-distribution

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Note: The t-distribution is close to the standard normal distribution if n-k-1 is large.

### Multiple Regression Analysis: Inference – Confidence Intervals



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Critical value

- Confidence intervals
- Simple manipulation of the result in Theorem 4.2 implies that

$$P\left(\underbrace{\widehat{\beta}_{j} - c_{0.05} \cdot se(\widehat{\beta}_{j})}_{\text{Lower bound of the Confidence interval}} \leq \beta_{j} \leq \underbrace{\widehat{\beta}_{j} + \underbrace{c_{0.05}}_{\text{Lower bound of the Confidence interval}} \otimes \underbrace{\beta_{j} \leq \widehat{\beta}_{j} + \underbrace{c_{0.05}}_{\text{Lower bound of the Confidence interval}} \otimes \underbrace{\beta_{j} \leq \widehat{\beta}_{j} + \underbrace{c_{0.05}}_{\text{Lower bound of the Confidence interval}} \otimes \underbrace{\beta_{j} \leq \widehat{\beta}_{j} + \underbrace{c_{0.05}}_{\text{Lower bound of the Confidence interval}} \otimes \underbrace{\beta_{j} \leq \widehat{\beta}_{j} + \underbrace{c_{0.05}}_{\text{Lower bound of the Confidence interval}} \otimes \underbrace{\beta_{j} \leq \widehat{\beta}_{j} \leq \widehat{\beta}_{j} + \underbrace{c_{0.05}}_{\text{Lower bound of the Confidence interval}} \otimes \underbrace{\beta_{j} \leq \widehat{\beta}_{j} \leq \widehat{\beta}_{j} + \underbrace{c_{0.05}}_{\text{Lower bound of the Confidence interval}} \otimes \underbrace{\beta_{j} \leq \widehat{\beta}_{j} \leq \widehat{\beta}_{j} \leq \widehat{\beta}_{j} + \underbrace{c_{0.05}}_{\text{Lower bound of the Confidence interval}} \otimes \underbrace{\beta_{j} \leq \widehat{\beta}_{j} \leq \widehat{\beta}_{$$

- Interpretation of the confidence interval
  - The bounds of the interval are random
  - In repeated samples, the interval that is constructed in the above way will cover the population regression coefficient in 95% of the cases

### Multiple Regression Analysis: Inference – Confidence Intervals

Confidence intervals for typical confidence levels

$$P\left(\hat{\beta}_{j} - \widehat{c_{0.01}} \cdot se(\hat{\beta}_{j}) \le \beta_{j} \le \hat{\beta}_{j} + c_{0.01} \cdot se(\hat{\beta}_{j})\right) = 0.99$$

$$P\left(\hat{\beta}_{j} - \widehat{c_{0.05}} \cdot se(\hat{\beta}_{j}) \le \beta_{j} \le \hat{\beta}_{j} + c_{0.05} \cdot se(\hat{\beta}_{j})\right) = 0.95$$

$$P\left(\hat{\beta}_{j} - \widehat{c_{0.10}} \cdot se(\hat{\beta}_{j}) \le \beta_{j} \le \hat{\beta}_{j} + c_{0.10} \cdot se(\hat{\beta}_{j})\right) = 0.90$$
If n large use rules of thumb  $c_{0.01} = 2.576, c_{0.05} = 1.96, c_{0.10} = 1.645$ 

Relationship between confidence intervals and hypotheses tests

 $a_j \notin interval \Rightarrow$  reject  $H_0 : \beta_j = a_j$  in favor of  $H_1 : \beta_j \neq a_j$ 

### Example: Wage equation

• Make a 95% confidence interval for the return of education,  $\beta_1$ 



95% confidence → C0.05=1.96

 $\beta_1 \in (0.092 - 0.007 \times 1.96; 0.092 + 0.007 \times 1.96)$  with 95% of confidence

 $\beta_1 \in (0.078; 0.106)$  with 95% of confidence

### Multiple Regression Analysis: Inference – Confidence Intervals

### Example: Model of firms' R&D expenditures



The effect of sales on R&D is relatively precisely estimated as the interval is narrow. Moreover, the effect is significantly different from zero because zero is outside the interval. This effect is imprecisely estimated as the interval is very wide. It is not even statistically significant because zero lies in the interval.

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- Testing hypotheses about a single population parameter
- Theorem 4.2 (t-distribution for standardized estimators)

Under assumptions MLR.1 – MLR.6:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_j - \beta_j}{se(\hat{\beta}_j)} \sim t_{n-k-1}$$

If the standardization is done using the <u>estimated</u> standard deviation (= standard error), the normal distribution is replaced by a t-distribution

Note: The t-distribution is close to the standard normal distribution if n-k-1 is large.

### Null hypothesis (for more general hypotheses, see below)



The population parameter is equal to zero, i.e. after controlling for the other independent variables, there is no effect of  $x_{\rm j}$  on y

### t-statistic (or t-ratio) under H<sub>0</sub>

 $t_{\hat{\beta}_j} = \frac{\beta_j}{se(\hat{\beta}_j)}$ 

The t-statistic will be used to test the above null hypothesis. The farther the estimated coefficient is away from zero, the less likely it is that the null hypothesis holds true. But what does "far" away from zero mean?

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This depends on the variability of the estimated coefficient, i.e. its standard deviation. <u>The t-statistic measures how many estimated</u> <u>standard deviations the estimated coefficient is away from zero.</u>

#### Distribution of the t-statistic if the null hypothesis is true

$$t_{\widehat{\beta}_j} = \widehat{\beta}_j / se(\widehat{\beta}_j) = (\widehat{\beta}_j - \beta_j) / se(\widehat{\beta}_j) \sim t_{n-k-1}$$

 <u>Goal</u>: Define a rejection rule so that, if it is true, H<sub>0</sub> is rejected only with a small probability (= significance level, e.g. 5%)

Testing against one-sided alternatives (greater than zero)



Test  $H_0$ :  $\beta_j = 0$  against  $H_1$ :  $\beta_j > 0$ .

Reject the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative hypothesis if the estimated coefficient is <u>"too large"</u> (i.e. larger than a critical value).

Construct the critical value so that, if the null hypothesis is true, it is rejected in, for example, 5% of the cases.

In the given example, this is the point of the tdistribution with 28 degrees of freedom that is exceeded in 5% of the cases.

! Reject if t-statistic greater than 1.701

### Example: Wage equation

 Test whether, after controlling for education and tenure, higher work experience leads to higher hourly wages

$$\widehat{\log}(wage) = .284 + .092 \ educ + 0041 \ exper + .022 \ tenure$$

$$(.104) \quad (.007) \qquad (.0017) \qquad (.003)$$

$$n = 526, \ R^2 = .316 \qquad \text{Standard errors}$$
Test  $H_0: \beta_{exper} = 0$  against  $H_1: \beta_{exper} > 0.$ 
One would either expect a positive effect of experience on hourly wage or no effect at all.

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 $c_{0.05} = 1.645$  Critical values for the 5% and the 1% significance level (these are conventional significance levels).

The null hypothesis is rejected because the t-statistic exceeds the critical value.

",The effect of experience on hourly wage is statistically greater than zero at the 5% (and even at the 1%) significance level."

 $c_{0,01} = 2.326$ 

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#### Reject the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative hypothesis if the estimated coefficient is "too small" (i.e. smaller than a critical value).

Construct the critical value so that, if the null hypothesis is true, it is rejected in, for example, 5% of the cases.

In the given example, this is the point of the tdistribution with 18 degrees of freedom so that 5% of the cases are below the point.

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! Reject if t-statistic less than -1.734

### **Multiple Regression Analysis:** Inference – Testing hyp. about a single coeff.

Testing against one-sided alternatives (less than zero)



#### Example: Student performance and school size

Test whether smaller school size leads to better student performance



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Example: Student performance and school size (cont.)

 $c_{0.15} = -1.04$ 



The null hypothesis is not rejected because the not smaller than the critical value.

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### One cannot reject the hypothesis that there is no effect of school size on student performance (not even for a lax significance level of 15%).

#### Example: Student performance and school size (cont.)

Alternative specification of functional form:

 $\widehat{math10} = -207.66 + 21.16 \log(totcomp) \\ (48.70) + (4.06) \\ + 3.98 \log(staff) - 1.29 \log(enroll) \\ (4.19) \\ (0.69) \\ n = 408, R^2 = .0654$ 

Test  $H_0$ :  $\beta_{\log(enroll)} = 0$  against  $H_1$ :  $\beta_{\log(enroll)} < 0$ .

#### Example: Student performance and school size (cont.)

$$t_{\log(enroll)} = -1.29/.69 \approx -1.87$$
  $\leftarrow$  t-statistic

 $c_{0.05} = -1.65$  Critical value for the 5% significance level ! reject null hypothesis

The hypothesis that there is no effect of school size on student performance can be rejected in favor of the hypothesis that the effect is negative.



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#### Testing against two-sided alternatives



Test  $H_0$ :  $\beta_j = 0$  against  $H_1$ :  $\beta_j \neq 0$ .

Reject the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative hypothesis if <u>the absolute value</u> of the estimated coefficient is too large.

Construct the critical value so that, if the null hypothesis is true, it is rejected in, for example, 5% of the cases.

 In the given example, these are the points of the t-distribution so that 5% of the cases lie in the two tails.

<u>Provide the statistic is less than -2.06 or greater</u> <u>than 2.06, that is, if absolute value of t-statistic</u> <u>is greater than 2.06</u> **23** 

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**Example: Determinants of college GPA** 

Lectures missed per week

collGPA = 1.39 + .412 hsGPA + .015 ACT - .083 skipped(.33) (.094) (.011) (.026)

$$n = 141, \ R^2 = .234$$
  
For critical values, use standard the second significantly of the second significantly of the second standard st

normal distribution

f hsGPA and skipped are different from zero at the ce level. The effect of ACT antly different from zero, he 10% significance level.

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### "Statistically significant" variables in a regression

- If a regression coefficient is different from zero in a two-sided test, the corresponding variable is said to be <u>"statistically significant"</u>
- If the number of degrees of freedom is large enough so that the normal approximation applies, the following rules of thumb apply:

$$|t - ratio| > 1.645 \longrightarrow$$
 "statistically significant at 10 % level"  
 $|t - ratio| > 1.96 \longrightarrow$  "statistically significant at 5 % level"  
 $|t - ratio| > 2.576 \longrightarrow$  "statistically significant at 1 % level"

### Guidelines for discussing economic and statistical significance

- If a variable is statistically significant, discuss the magnitude of the coefficient to get an idea of its economic or practical importance
- The fact that a coefficient is statistically significant does not necessarily mean it is economically or practically significant!
- If a variable is statistically and economically important but has the "wrong" sign, the regression model might be misspecified
- If a variable is statistically insignificant at the usual levels (10%, 5%, 1%), one may think of dropping it from the regression
- If the sample size is small, effects might be imprecisely estimated so that the case for dropping insignificant variables is less strong

- Testing more general hypotheses about a regression coefficient
- Null hypothesis



### <u>The test works exactly as before, except that the hypothesized</u> value is substracted from the estimate when forming the statistic

#### Example: Campus crime and enrollment

 An interesting hypothesis is whether crime increases by one percent if enrollment is increased by one percent

$$\widehat{\log}(crime) = -6.63 + 1.27 \log(enroll)$$

$$(1.03) + (0.11)$$
Estimate is different from one but is this difference statistically significant?
$$H_0: \beta_{\log(enroll)} = 1, \ H_1: \beta_{\log(enroll)} \neq 1$$

$$t = (1.27 - 1)/.11 \approx 2.45 > 1.96 = c_{0.05}$$
The hypothesis is rejected at the 5% level

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- <u>Computing p-values for t-tests</u>
  - The smallest significance level at which the null hypothesis is still rejected, is called the <u>p-value</u> of the hypothesis test
  - A small p-value is evidence against the null hypothesis because one would reject the null hypothesis even at small significance levels
  - A large p-value is evidence in favor of the null hypothesis
  - P-values <u>are more informative</u> than tests at fixed significance levels

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### How the p-value is computed (here: two-sided test)



The p-value is the significance level at which one is indifferent between rejecting and not rejecting the null hypothesis.

In the two-sided case, the p-value is thus the probability that the t-distributed variable takes on a larger absolute value than the realized value of the test statistic, e.g., suppose that the realized t-ratio is t=-1.85, then,

p - value = 2P(t(n - k - 1) > | -1.85|)

 $p - value = 2P(t(40) > | -1.85 |) = 2 \times 0.0359 = 0.0718$ From this, it is clear that <u>a null hypothesis is</u> rejected if and only if the corresponding p-

value is smaller than the significance level.

For example, for a significance level of 5% the t-statistic would not lie in the rejection region.

- Testing hypotheses about a linear combination of parameters
- Example: Return to education at 2 year vs. at 4 year colleges

Years of education  
at 2 year colleges  
$$Vears of educationat 4 year colleges
$$Vears of educationat 4 year colleges
$$Vears of educationat 4 year colleges$$
$$Vears of educationat 4 year colleges$$
$$Vears of educationat 4 year colleges$$
$$Vears of educationat 4 year colleges$$$$$$

Test  $H_0: \beta_1 - \beta_2 = 0$  against  $H_1: \beta_1 - \beta_2 < 0$ .

A possible test statistic would be:



The difference between the estimates is normalized by the estimated standard deviation of the difference. The null hypothesis would have to be rejected if the statistic is "too negative" to believe that the true difference between the parameters is equal to zero.

Impossible to compute with standard regression output because

$$se(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2) = \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)} = \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1) + \widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_2) - 2\widehat{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)}$$

Alternative method

Usually not available in regression output

Define  $\theta_1 = \beta_1 - \beta_2$  and test  $H_0 : \theta_1 = 0$  against  $H_1 : \theta_1 < 0$ .

$$\log(wage) = \beta_0 + (\theta_1 + \beta_2)jc + \beta_2univ + \beta_3exper + u$$
$$= \beta_0 + \theta_1jc + \beta_2(jc + univ) + \beta_3exper + u$$
Insert into original regression a new regressor (= total years of college

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 $-.0102 \pm 1.96(.0069) = (-.0237, .0003)$ 

#### This method works <u>always</u> for single linear hypotheses

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Testing multiple linear restrictions: The F-test

### Testing exclusion restrictions



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### Estimation of the unrestricted model

$$\log(salary) = 11.19 + .0689 years + .0126 gamesyr$$
  
(0.29) (.0121) (.0026)

None of these variabels is statistically significant when tested individually

$$n = 353, SSR = 183.186, R^2 = .6278$$

Idea: How would the model fit be if these variables were dropped from the regression?

#### Estimation of the restricted model

$$\widehat{\log}(salary) = 11.22 + .0713 years + .0202 gamesyr$$
  
(0.11) (.0125) (.0013)

$$n = 353, SSR = 198.311, R^2 = .5971$$

The sum of squared residuals necessarily increases, but is the increase statistically significant?

The relative increase of the sum of squared residuals when going from  $H_1$  to  $H_0$  follows a F-distribution (if the null hypothesis  $H_0$  is correct)

### Rejection rule (Figure 4.7)



A F-distributed variable only takes on positive values. This corresponds to the fact that the sum of squared residuals can only increase if one moves from  $H_1$  to  $H_0$ .

Choose the critical value so that the null hypothesis is rejected in, for example, 5% of the cases, although it is true.



### Discussion

- The three variables are "jointly significant"
- They were not significant when tested individually
- The likely reason is multicollinearity between them

### Test of overall significance of a regression

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_k x_{ik} + u$$

**Restricted model** 

(regression on constant)

$$H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \ldots = \beta_k = 0$$

 $y = \beta_0 + u \leftarrow$ 

The null hypothesis states that the explanatory variables are not useful at all in explaining the dependent variable

$$F = \frac{(SSR_r - SSR_{ur})/q}{SSR_{ur}/(n-k-1)} = \frac{R^2/k}{(1-R^2)/(n-k-1)} \sim F_{k,n-k-1}$$

 The test of overall significance is reported in most regression packages; the null hypothesis is usually overwhelmingly rejected

- Testing general linear restrictions with the F-test
- Example: Test whether house price assessments are rational



Unrestricted regression

 $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \ldots + \beta_3 x_3 + \beta_4 x_4 + u$ 

- Restricted regression  $y = \beta_0 + x_1 + u \Rightarrow [y - x_1] = \beta_0 + u$ The restricted model is actually a regression of  $[y-x_1]$  on a constant
- Test statistic

$$F = \frac{(SSR_r - SSR_{ur})/q}{SSR_{ur}/(n-k-1)} = \frac{(1.880 - 1.822)/4}{1.822/(88 - 4 - 1)} \approx .661$$

 $F \sim F_{4,83} \Rightarrow c_{0.05} = 2.50 \Rightarrow H_0$  cannot be rejected

Regression output for the unrestricted regression



- The F-test works for general multiple linear hypotheses
- For all tests and confidence intervals, validity of assumptions
   MLR.1 MLR.6 has been assumed. Tests may be invalid otherwise.

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