

Verifying key assumptions: normality, collinearity and functional form. Goodness-of-fit.

Jakub Mućk
SGH Warsaw School of Economics

Least squares estimator

- **Least squares estimator :**

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_K x_K + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

where

- ▶ y is the (outcome) dependent variable;
 - ▶ x_1, x_2, \dots, x_K is the set of independent variables;
 - ▶ ε is the error term.
- The dependent variable is explained with the components that vary with the **the dependent variable** and **the error term**.
 - β_0 is the intercept.
 - $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_K$ are the coefficients (slopes) on x_1, x_2, \dots, x_K .

■ Least squares estimator :

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_K x_K + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

where

- ▶ y is the (outcome) dependent variable;
 - ▶ x_1, x_2, \dots, x_K is the set of independent variables;
 - ▶ ε is the error term.
- The dependent variable is explained with the components that vary with the **the dependent variable** and **the error term**.
- β_0 is the intercept.
- $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_K$ are the coefficients (slopes) on x_1, x_2, \dots, x_K .

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_K$ measure the effect of change in x_1, x_2, \dots, x_K upon the expected value of y (*ceteris paribus*).

- **Assumption #1:** true DGP (data generating process):

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \varepsilon. \quad (2)$$

- **Assumption #2:** the expected value of the error term is zero:

$$\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon) = 0, \quad (3)$$

and this implies that $\mathbb{E}(y) = \mathbf{X}\beta$.

- **Assumption #3:** Spherical variance-covariance error matrix.

$$\text{var}(\varepsilon) = \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon\varepsilon') = I\sigma^2 \quad (4)$$

. In particular:

- ▶ the variance of the error term equals σ :

$$\text{var}(\varepsilon) = \sigma^2 = \text{var}(y). \quad (5)$$

- ▶ the covariance between any pair of ε_i and ε_j is zero"

$$\text{cov}(\varepsilon_i, \varepsilon_j) = 0. \quad (6)$$

- **Assumption #4: Exogeneity.** The independent variable are **not random** and therefore they are not correlated with the error term.

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{X}\varepsilon) = 0. \quad (7)$$

- **Assumption #5:** the full rank of matrix of explanatory variables (there is no so-called collinearity):

$$\text{rank}(\mathbf{X}) = K + 1 \leq N. \quad (8)$$

- **Assumption #6 (optional):** the normally distributed error term:

$$\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2). \quad (9)$$

Assumptions of the least squares estimators

Under the assumptions A#1-A#5 of the multiple linear regression model, the least squares estimator $\hat{\beta}^{OLS}$ has the smallest variance of all linear and unbiased estimators of β .

$\hat{\beta}^{OLS}$ is the Best Linear Unbiased Estimators (BLUE) of β .

- The least squares estimator

$$\hat{\beta}^{OLS} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}. \quad (10)$$

- The variance of the least square estimator

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}^{OLS}) = \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \quad (11)$$

- If the (optional) assumption about normal distribution of the error term is satisfied then

$$\beta \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{\beta}^{OLS}, \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}^{OLS})). \quad (12)$$

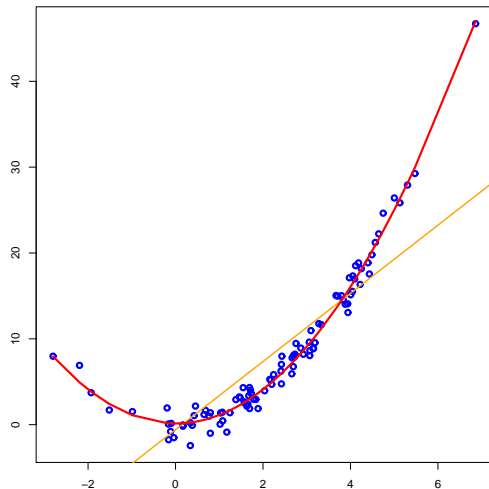
Estimating non-linear relationship

- Economic variables are not always related by straight-line relationships. They display **curvilinear forms**.
- [Example] Wages (w) and experience ($exper$):

$$w = \beta_0 + \beta_1 exper + \beta_2 exper^2 + \varepsilon. \quad (13)$$

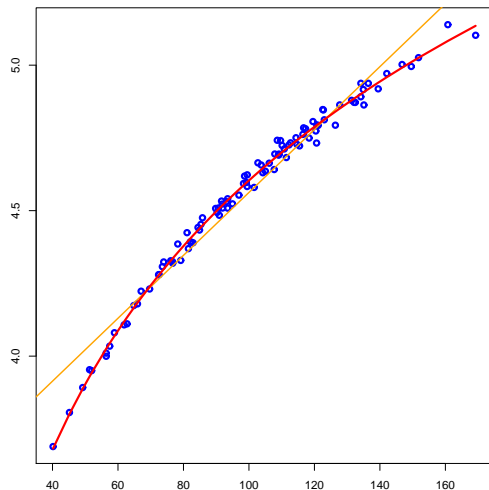
In the above model, the quadratic relationship is assumed. Why?

- In general, the choice of function form is related to:
 1. economic theory,
 2. empirical pattern,
 3. properties of residuals.
- The most popular nonlinear functions:
 - ▶ quadratic and cubic relationship,
 - ▶ polynomial equations,
 - ▶ logs of the dependent and/or independent variable.



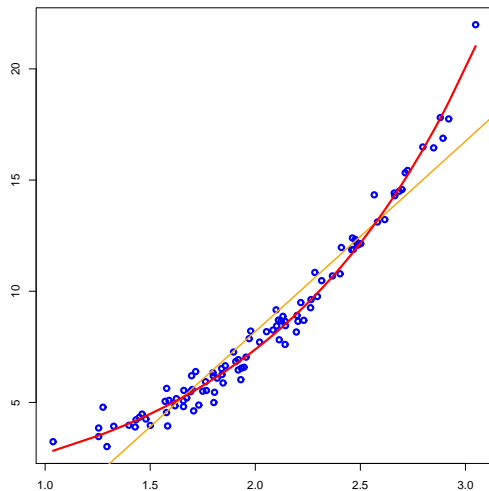
Orange line :
 $y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x$

Red line :
 $y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x^2$



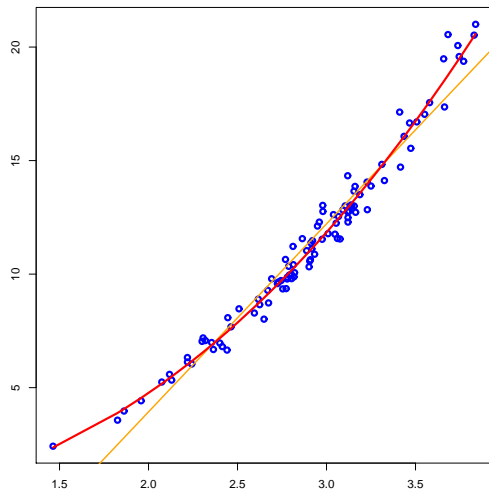
Orange line :
 $y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x$

Red line :
 $y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \ln x$



Orange line :
 $y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x$

Red line :
 $\ln y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x$



Orange line :
 $y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x$

Red line :
 $\ln y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \ln x$

- **Marginal effects** measures expected instantaneous change in the dependent variable (y) in a reaction to change in explanatory variable (x):

$$\text{Marginal effect} = \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}(y)}{\partial x} \quad (14)$$

In other words, the marginal effects is the slope of the tangent to the curve at a particular point.

- **Elasticity** measures the percentage change in y in a reaction to percentage change in x :

$$\text{Elasticity} = \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}(y)}{\partial x} \frac{x}{y}. \quad (15)$$

- **Semi-elasticity** measures the percentage change in y in a reaction to a change in x

$$\text{Semi-Elasticity} = \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}(y)}{\partial x} \frac{1}{y}. \quad (16)$$

Name	Function	Slope (marginal effects)	Elasticity
Linear	$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$	β_1	$\beta_1 \frac{x}{y}$
Quadratic	$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x^2$	$2\beta_1 x$	$2\beta_1 x \frac{x}{y}$
Quadratic (II)	$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2$	$\beta_1 + 2\beta_2 x$	$(\beta_1 + 2\beta_2 x) \frac{x}{y}$
Cubic	$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x^3$	$3\beta_1 x^2$	$3\beta_1 x^2 \frac{x}{y}$
Log-Log	$\ln(y) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(x)$	$\beta_1 \frac{y}{x}$	β_1
Log-Linear	$\ln(y) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$	$\beta_1 y$	$\beta_1 x$
a 1 unit change in x leads to (approximately) a 100 β_1 % change in y			
Linear-Log	$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(x)$	$\beta_1 \frac{1}{x}$	$\beta_1 \frac{1}{y}$
a 1 % change in x leads to (approximately) a $\beta_1/100$ unit change in y			

- **Interaction variable** is the product of (at least) two variable involved in regression and accounts for simultaneous effects of two variables.
- [Example] Wages (w), experience ($exper$) and education ($educ$):

$$w = \beta_0 + \beta_1 exper + \beta_2 exper^2 + \beta_3 educ + \beta_4 exper \times educ + \varepsilon. \quad (17)$$

- In this case:

$$\text{Marginal effect of education} = \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}(w)}{\partial educ} = \beta_3 + \beta_4 exper,$$

$$\text{Marginal effect of experience} = \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}(w)}{\partial exper} = \beta_2 + 2\beta_3 exper + \beta_4 educ.$$

Model Specification

A model could be misspecified when

- important explanatory variables are omitted,
- irrelevant explanatory variables are included,
- a wrong functional form is chosen,
- the assumptions of the multiple regression model are not satisfied

- Omission of a relevant variable (defined as one whose coefficient is nonzero) might lead to an estimator that is biased. This bias is known as **omitted-variable bias**.
- Let's assume true DGP (data generating process):

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \varepsilon. \quad (18)$$

- Consider the case when we do not have data on x_2 . Equivalently, we impose the restriction that $\beta_2 = 0$. According to our true DGP this restriction is invalid.
- Then the expected value of the least squares estimator of β_1 :

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}_1^{LS}) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \frac{\text{cov}(x_1, x_2)}{\text{var}(x_2)}, \quad (19)$$

and the omitted variable bias:

$$\text{bias}(\hat{\beta}_1^{LS}) = \mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}_1^{LS}) - \beta_1 = \beta_2 \frac{\text{cov}(x_1, x_2)}{\text{var}(x_2)}. \quad (20)$$

- The omitted bias is larger if:
 - ▶ the true slope on omitted variable β_2 is higher,
 - ▶ the omitted variable (x_2) is more correlated with the included variable (x_1).
- However, there is no bias when the omitted variable is not correlated with the explanatory variables.

- Due to omitted-variable bias one might follow strategy to include as many variable as possible.
- However, doing so may also inflate the variance of estimate.
- The inclusion of **irrelevant variables** may reduce the precision of the estimated coefficients for other variables in the equation

- **RESET (REgression Specification Error Test)** is designed to detect omitted variables and incorrect functional form.
- Consider the multiple linear regression:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k + \varepsilon. \quad (21)$$

- **[Step #1]**. Obtain the least square estimates and calculate the fitted values:

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0^{LS} + \hat{\beta}_1^{LS} x_1 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_k^{LS} x_k \quad (22)$$

- **[Step #2]**. Consider the following auxiliary regressions:

$$\text{Model 1 :} \quad y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k + \gamma_1 \hat{y}^2 + \varepsilon.$$

$$\text{Model 2 :} \quad y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k + \gamma_1 \hat{y}^2 + \gamma_2 \hat{y}^3 + \varepsilon.$$

Obtain the least squares estimators of γ_1 in Model 1 and/or γ_1 and γ_2 in Model 2.

- **[Step #3]**. Consider the following null:

$$\text{Model 1 :} \quad \mathcal{H}_0 : \gamma_1 = 0,$$

$$\text{Model 2 :} \quad \mathcal{H}_0 : \gamma_1 = \gamma_2 = 0,$$

In both cases the null hypothesis is about **misspecification**.

- The RESET test is very general test allowing for testing functional form. However, if we reject the null we do not know what is the source of misspecification.
- If a number of observations is large one might replace squared and cubic fitted values of outcome variable by squared and cubic of explanatory variables.

Collinearity

- When data are the result of an uncontrolled experiment, many of the economic variables may move together in systematic ways.
- This problem is labeled **collinearity** and explanatory variable are said to be **collinear**.
- Example: multiple regression with two explanatory variable

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \varepsilon. \quad (23)$$

The variance of the least squares estimator for β_2 :

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2^{LS}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{(1 - r_{12}^2) \sum_{i=1}^N (x_{i2} - \bar{x}_2)^2}, \quad (24)$$

where r_{12} is the correlation between x_1 and x_2 .

- Extreme case: $r_{23} = 1$ then the x_1 and x_2 are perfectly collinear. In this case the least squares estimator is not defined and we cannot obtain the least squares estimates.
- If r_{12}^2 is large then:
 - ▶ the standards errors are large \implies small (in modulus) t statistics. Typically, it leads to the conclusion that parameter estimates are not significantly different from zero,
 - ▶ estimates may be very sensitive to the inclusion or exclusion of a few observations,
 - ▶ estimates may be very sensitive to the exclusion of insignificant variables.

■ Detecting collinearity:

- ▶ pairwise correlation between explanatory variables,
- ▶ variance inflation factor (VIF) which is calculated for each explanatory variable. The VIF is a function of R^2 from auxiliary regression of the selected explanatory variable on the remaining explanatory variables:

$$VIF_i = \frac{1}{1 - R_i^2}. \quad (25)$$

The values above 10 suggests collinearity.

■ Dealing with collinearity:

- ▶ Obtaining more information.
- ▶ Using non-sample information, i.e., restrictions on parameters.

Normality of the error term

- The assumption of the error term is crucial to test the hypothesis. However, the error term is random variable and , therefore, is not unobservable.
- The normality of the error term can be justified on the basis of the residuals properties.
- The assessment of this assumption bases on:
 - ▶ the residuals histogram,
 - ▶ results of the Jarque-Berra test.
- But if the sample is *sufficiently* large then, according to a central limit theorem, the distribution of least squares estimator can be approximated by normal distribution.

- In general, **the Jarque-Berra test** allows to investigate whether sample data have the skewness and kurtosis that match to normal distribution.
- The skewness (\mathcal{S}) and kurtosis (\mathcal{K}) of residuals (\hat{e}_i)

$$\mathcal{S} = \frac{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{e}_i - \hat{\bar{e}})^3}{\left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{e}_i - \hat{\bar{e}})^2 \right)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{K} = \frac{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (e_i - \bar{e})^4}{\left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{e}_i - \hat{\bar{e}})^2 \right)^2} - 3$$

- The test statistics:

$$\mathcal{JB} = \frac{N}{6} \left(\mathcal{S}^2 + \frac{1}{4}(\mathcal{K} - 3)^2 \right) \sim \chi_{(2)}^2. \quad (26)$$

Goodness-of-fit

- The observed values (y_i) of dependent variable can be decomposed into the fitted values (\hat{y}_i) and the residuals (\hat{e}_i):

$$y_i = \hat{y}_i + \hat{e}_i, \quad (27)$$

- subtracting the sample mean (\bar{y}) from both sides:

$$y_i - \bar{y} = \hat{y}_i - \bar{y} + \hat{e}_i. \quad (28)$$

- Squaring and summing both sides of above equation:

$$\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{e}_i^2, \quad (29)$$

In the above expression we use assumption that $\sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y}) \hat{e}_i = 0$ since the x_1, \dots, x_K are not random.

- The decomposition of total variation in dependent variable:

$$SST = SSR + SSE, \quad (30)$$

where

- ▶ SST is the sum of squares and $SST = \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \bar{y})^2$,

- ▶ SSR is the sum of squares due to regression and $SSR = \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2$,
- ▶ SSE is the sum of squares due to regression and $SSE = \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{e}_i^2$.

- **Coefficient of determination** R^2 is the proportion of variation that can be explained by independent variables:

$$R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}, \quad (31)$$

$$R^2 \in \langle 0, 1 \rangle.$$

- The correlation coefficient ρ_{xy} between x and y is defined by:

$$\rho_{xy} = \frac{\text{cov}(x, y)}{\sqrt{\text{var}(x)}\sqrt{\text{var}(y)}} = \frac{\sigma_{xy}}{\sigma_x\sigma_y}, \quad (32)$$

and the sample correlation coefficient

$$r_{xy} = \frac{s_{xy}}{s_x s_y}, \quad (33)$$

takes the values between -1 and 1 .

- **In simple linear regression:** the relationship between R^2 and r_{xy} is as follows:

$$R^2 = r_{xy}^2, \quad (34)$$

and, therefore, the R^2 can also be computed as the square of the sample correlation coefficient between y_i and $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$.

- The coefficient of determination R^2 is always higher if we include additional explanatory variable even if the added variable is not justified/ relevant.
- **The adjusted coefficient of determination \bar{R}^2 :**

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST} \frac{(N - 1)}{(N - K)}, \quad (35)$$

where SSE is the sum of squared errors and SST is the sum of squares.

- With the adjusted coefficient of determination we account for a decrease in degree of freedoms: $(N - 1)/(N - K)$.
- However, it has no convenient interpretation.

- Information criteria are alternative measures of goodness-of-fit. They have no interpretation but, like adjusted R^2 , account for a decrease in degrees of freedom.
- **The Akaike information criterion (AIC):**

$$AIC = \ln \left(\frac{SSE}{N} \right) + \frac{2K}{N}. \quad (36)$$

- **The Bayesian information criterion (SIC):**

$$SIC = \ln \left(\frac{SSE}{N} \right) + \frac{K \ln(K)}{N}. \quad (37)$$

- Using the above criteria, the lower values of AIC/BIC signals better fit to data.