

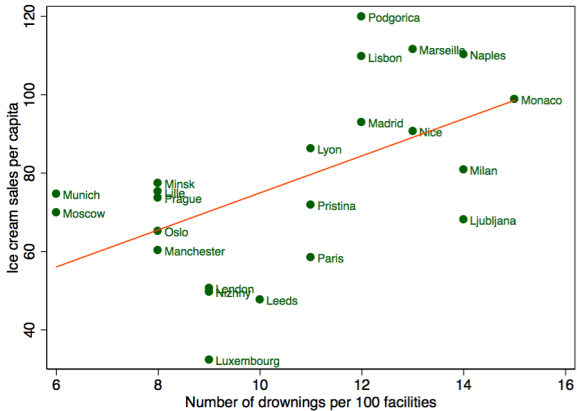
# Multiple regression analysis

## Quantitative Methods

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# Ice creams and drownings (I)



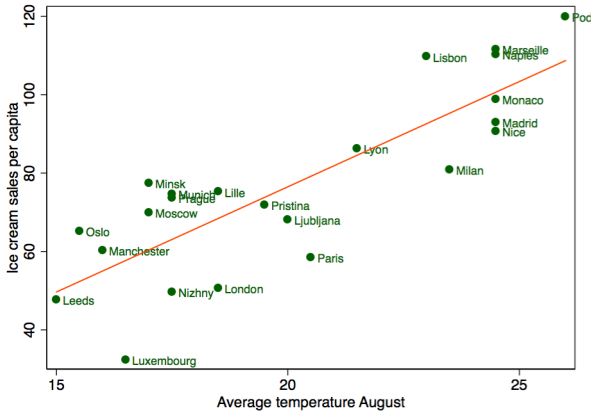
## Ice creams and drownings (II)

Source	SS	df	MS
Model	<b>3471.96059</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3471.96059</b>
Residual	<b>7985.10512</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>380.243101</b>
Total	<b>11457.0657</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>520.775714</b>

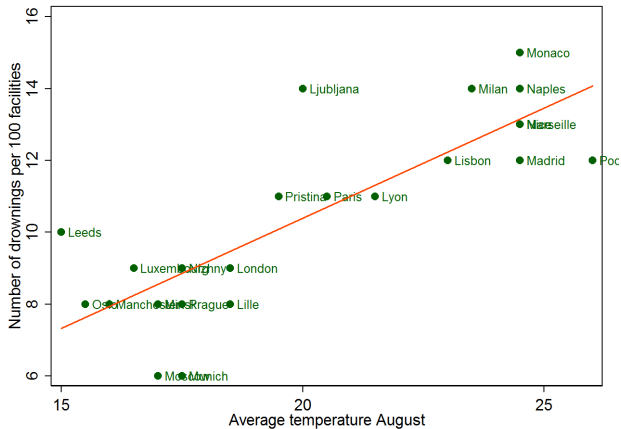
Number of obs = **23**  
F( 1, 21) = **9.13**  
Prob > F = **0.0065**  
R-squared = **0.3030**  
Adj R-squared = **0.2699**  
Root MSE = **19.5**

ice_cream	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
drownings	<b>4.721593</b>	<b>1.562542</b>	<b>3.02</b>	<b>0.006</b>	<b>1.472108</b>	<b>7.971077</b>
_cons	<b>27.72765</b>	<b>16.87005</b>	<b>1.64</b>	<b>0.115</b>	<b>-7.355537</b>	<b>62.81083</b>

# Ice creams and drownings (III)



# Ice creams and drownings (IV)



## Omitted variable bias (I)

- Let  $Y$  be ice cream sales per capita and  $X$  number of drownings per 100 facilities:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

- The variable temperature ( $Z$ ) is implicitly subsumed in the error term ( $\epsilon = \beta_2 Z + \eta$  with  $COV(X, \eta) = 0$ ).
- Therefore, the OLS estimate of  $\beta_1$  is given by:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{COV(X, Y)}{V(X)} = \beta_1 \frac{COV(X, X)}{V(X)} + \frac{COV(X, \epsilon)}{V(X)} = \beta_1 + \frac{COV(X, Z)}{V(X)}$$

- Since the covariance between temperature ( $Z$ ) and number of drownings ( $X$ ) is positive:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 > \beta_1$$

- $\hat{\beta}_1$  is upward biased unless we include temperature in the model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + \eta$$

## Omitted variable bias (II)

Source	SS	df	MS
Model	<b>7943.18113</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3971.59056</b>
Residual	<b>3513.88458</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>175.694229</b>
Total	<b>11457.0657</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>520.775714</b>

Number of obs = **23**  
F( 2, 20) = **22.61**  
Prob > F = **0.0000**  
R-squared = **0.6933**  
Adj R-squared = **0.6626**  
Root MSE = **13.255**

ice_cream	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
drowning	<b>-.4305745</b>	<b>4.3697</b>	<b>-0.10</b>	<b>0.922</b>	<b>-9.54561 8.684461</b>
temp	<b>5.346361</b>	<b>.8277947</b>	<b>6.46</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>3.619611 7.07311</b>
_cons	<b>-30.50554</b>	<b>16.69259</b>	<b>-1.83</b>	<b>0.083</b>	<b>-65.32567 4.314584</b>

## Multivariate regression

- In most applications, it is important to allow for other determinants of the outcome that we want to study, in addition to the variable of interest.
- Example: let the wage depend on education, plus age, family background...
- Let  $y$  and  $x_1, \dots, x_K$  denote  $K + 1$  random variables. A natural generalization of the linear probabilistic model is:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_K x_K + \epsilon$$

- The OLS estimator  $\hat{\beta} = (\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \dots, \hat{\beta}_K)'$  minimizes the sum of squared errors:

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \left( y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} - \hat{\beta}_2 x_{i2} - \dots - \hat{\beta}_K x_{iK} \right)^2$$



## Multivariate regression

- The analytical solution may be computed using matrix algebra.
- For this, let  $y$  be the  $N \times 1$  vector of observations of  $y$ , and let  $X$  be the  $N \times (K + 1)$  matrix, the  $k$ th column of which corresponding to the  $k$ th regressor  $x_{ik}$ . Then:

$$\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1} X'y$$

- The standard error is given by:

$$V(\hat{\beta}) = \hat{\sigma}^2 [(X'X)^{-1}], \quad \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{N - K} (y - X'\hat{\beta})'(y - X'\hat{\beta}).$$

- In the special case where there is one regressor and a constant, the matrix formulas boil down to those we saw previously.

## Tips for reading a regression table

- The typical regression output presents coefficient estimates, together with measures of their uncertainty.
- The main elements are:
  - The magnitude of the  $\beta_1$  estimate, which refers to the increase in  $y$  when  $x$  increases by 1 and the other controls are held constant.
  - The standard errors, which are the measure of uncertainty most often reported (Tip: when reading a regression table, multiply mentally the standard errors by 2 and compare the results to the point estimates).
  - The  $R^2$  refers to the explanatory power of the regressors relative to the error. A large  $R^2$  means that the  $x$ s explain  $y$  very well.

Dep. variable is ice cream sales		
Drownings	4.721***	-0.430
(s.e.)	(1.562)	(4.369)
Temperature		5.346***
(s.e.)		(0.828)
$R^2$	0.303	0.693
Obs.	23	23

## Other functional forms

- Quadratic functions are also used quite often in applied economics to capture decreasing or increasing marginal effects.
- For example, take  $y = \text{wage}$  and  $x = \text{exper}$ :

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + u$$

- The slope of the relationship between  $x$  and  $y$  depends on the value of  $x$ :  
 $\beta + 2\beta x$
- Sometimes, it is natural for the partial effect to depend on the magnitude of yet another explanatory variable. For example:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_1 x_2 + v$$

- The slope of the relationship between  $x_1$  and  $y$  depends on the value of  $x_2$ :  
 $\beta_1 + \beta x_2$

## Other functional forms in practice

- Check in STATA the wage1.dta example.
- The effect of experience on wages is not linear:
- $\log(\text{wage}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{exper} + \beta_2 \text{exper}^2 + v$
- `reg lwage exper expersq`
- `predict lwage_hat`
- `sc lwage_hat exper`
- The effect of education on wages depends on the years of experience:
- $\log(\text{wage}) = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \text{educ} + \gamma_2 (\text{educ} \times \text{exper}) + u$
- `reg lwage educ educ_exper`
- `gen effect = _b[educ] + _b[educ_exper]*exper`
- `sc effect exper`

## Multiple regression with qualitative information

- We are interested in the analysis of a variable ( $Y$ ) that can only take two values, 0 or 1.
- The whole distribution is characterized by only one number, the probability of success ( $p$ ).
- In empirical work, we are usually interested in conditional analysis, i.e., how  $p$  changes with some  $x$ 's.
- Therefore, the object of interest is the distribution of  $Y$  given  $X$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(Y = 1|x) &= p(X) \\ E(Y|X) &= p(X) \\ \text{Var}(Y|X) &= p(X)[1 - p(X)]\end{aligned}$$

- Therefore, we typically run a regression modelling  $Y|X$ :
  - 1 If  $\Pr(Y = 1|X) = X'\beta \Rightarrow$  Linear Probability Model
  - 2 If  $\Pr(Y = 1|X) = \Phi(X'\beta) \Rightarrow$  Probit

## Linear Probability Model

- The linear probability model is the name for the multiple regression model when the dependent variable is binary rather than continuous.
- Coefficient estimates measure the change in the probability that  $Y = 1$  associated with a unit change in the regressor.
- The OLS predicted value  $\hat{Y}$  is the predicted probability that the dependent variable equals one.
- Therefore, predicted probabilities may be unrealistic for some individuals (i.e. larger than 1 or negative).
- The linear probability model provides thus a reasonable direct estimate of the sample average marginal effect on  $\Pr(Y = 1)$  as  $X$  changes, but it is a bad alternative for analyzing individual probabilities.
- Probit is the most common alternative.

# Probit

- Because we model the probability that  $Y = 1$ , it makes sense to adopt a specification that forces the predicted values to be between zero and one (by using the normal CDF).
- This type of models is estimated by maximum likelihood.
- Imagine that we have a sample of *iid* observations of the binary variable  $Y$  with probability of success  $p$ , that is,  $\{y_1, \dots, y_N\}$ .
- The joint probability of this sample is:

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \Pr(Y_1 = y_1, \dots, Y_N = y_N) = \Pr(Y_1 = y_1) \dots \Pr(Y_N = y_N) \\ &= p^{y_1} (1 - p)^{1 - y_1} \dots p^{y_N} (1 - p)^{1 - y_N} = p^{\sum y_i} (1 - p)^{N - \sum y_i} \end{aligned}$$

- $L$  is the likelihood function of the data, and taking logs:

$$\log L = \sum_{i=1}^N y_i \ln p + (N - \sum_{i=1}^N y_i) \ln(1 - p) = \sum_{i=1}^N \{y_i \ln p + (1 - y_i) \ln(1 - p)\}$$

- Given in empirical work we are interested in the analysis of  $Y|X$ , we simply need to write the likelihood as a function of the parameters by substituting  $p$  by  $p(x)$ .

## Marginal effects

- In the case of the probit, the  $\beta$  coefficients only indicate the sign and significance of the relationship.
- Marginal effects must be computed for assessing the magnitude of the effect.

$$\frac{\partial E(y_i|x_i)}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\partial p(x_i)}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\partial \Phi(x_i'\beta)}{\partial x_i} = \beta\phi(x_i'\beta)$$

- Marginal effects indicate us the change in the probability  $\Pr(y_i = 1|x_i)$  when the corresponding regressor increases in one unit.
- You can either evaluate the marginal effects calculated above in the average values of the  $x$ 's, or compute the marginal effects for all the individuals and then take the average.
- The second alternative is the most common and the one reported in STATA (command `mf`).
- Note that in the linear probability model, both options coincide because marginal effects are given by  $\beta$ .



## Probit versus OLS in practice

- Check in STATA the sleep75.dta example.
- The effect of age on having children by OLS:
  - $Pr(yngkid = 1|age) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 age$
  - `reg yngkid age`
  - `predict yols`
- The effect of age on having children by Probit:
  - $Pr(yngkid = 1|age) = \Phi(\gamma_0 + \gamma_1 age)$
  - `probit yngkid age`
  - `mfx`
  - `predict yprobit`
- The predicted probabilities may be misleading but the average effect is similar.