Advanced Econometrics - Lecture 1

# The Linear Regression Model: A Review

### Econometrics ...

- ... consists of the application of statistical data and techniques to mathematical formulations of economic theory. It serves to test the hypotheses of economic theory and to estimate the implied interrelationships." (Tinbergen, 1952)
- ... is the interaction of economic theory, observed data and statistical methods. It is the interaction of these three that makes econometrics interesting, challenging, and perhaps, difficult." (Verbeek, 2008)
- ... is a methodological science with the elements
  - economic theory
  - mathematical language
  - statistical methods
  - software

### The Contents

- 1. Review of linear regression and the OLS estimator
- 2. Heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation (MV, Ch.4)
- 3. Endogeneity, instrumental variables and GMM (MV, Ch.5)
- 4. Maximum likelihood estimation and specification tests (MV, Ch.7)
- 5. Univariate time series models (MV, Ch.8)
- 6. Multivariate time series models (MV, Ch.9)

# Advanced Econometrics -Lecture 1

- Regression: a descriptive tool
- Economic models
- OLS estimation
- Properties of OLS estimators
- *t*-test and *F*-test
- Asymptotic properties of OLS estimators
- Multicollinearity
- Model specification and tests

### The Linear Model

Y: explained variable
X: explanatory or regressor variable
The model describes the data-generating process of Y under the condition X

simple linear regression model

$$y = \alpha + \beta r$$

 $\beta$ : coefficient of *X* 

 $\alpha$ : intercept

multiple linear regression model

$$Y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \ldots + \beta_{\kappa} X_{\kappa}$$

### Fitting a Model to Data

Choice of values  $b_1$ ,  $b_2$  for model parameters  $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$  of  $Y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X$ , given the observations ( $y_i$ ,  $x_i$ ), i = 1,...,N

Principle of (Ordinary) Least Squares or OLS:  $b_i = \arg \min_{\beta_1, \beta_2} S(\beta_1, \beta_2), i=1,2$ 

Objective function: sum of the squared deviations  $S(\beta_1, \beta_2) = \sum_i [y_i - (\beta_1 + \beta_2 x_i)]^2 = \sum_i u_i^2$ 

Deviations between observation and fitted values:  $u_i = y_i - (\beta_1 + \beta_2 x_i)$ 

# Observations and Fitted Regression Line

Simple linear regression: Fitted line and observation points (Verbeek, Figure 2.1)



### **OLS-Estimators**

Equating the partial derivatives of  $S(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  to zero: normal equations

$$b_{1} + b_{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_{i}$$
$$b_{1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{i} + b_{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{i}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{i} y_{i}$$

OLS-estimators  $b_1$  und  $b_2$  result in



with mean values x and  $\overline{y}$ and second moments  $s_{xy} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} x_i - \overline{x} (y_i - \overline{y})$  $s_x^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} x_i - \overline{x}^2$ 

# Example: Individual Wages

Sample (US National Longitudinal Survey, 1987): wage rate (per hour), gender, experience and years of schooling; *N* = 3294 individuals (1569 females)

Average wage rate (p.h.): 6.31\$ for males, 5.15\$ for females Model (see eq. (2.39) in Verbeek):

 $wage_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 male_i + \varepsilon_i$ 

*male*<sub>i</sub>: male dummy, has value 1 if individual is male, otherwise value 0

**OLS-estimation gives** 

 $wage_{i} = 5.15 + 1.17^{*}male_{i}$ 

Compare with averages!

### Example: Individ. Wages, cont'd

OLS estimated wage equation (Table 2.1, Verbeek)

Dependent variable: wage				
Variable	Estimate	Standard error		
constant <i>male</i>	5.1469 1.1661	0.0812 0.1122		
s = 3.2174	$R^2 = 0.0317$	F = 107.93		

*wage*<sub>i</sub> = 5.15 + 1.17\**male*<sub>i</sub> male: 6.313, female: 5.150

# OLS-Estimators: The General Case

Model for Y contains K-1 explanatory variables

$$Y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_K X_K = x'\beta$$

with  $x = (1, X_2, ..., X_K)$ ' and  $\beta = (\beta_1, \beta_2, ..., \beta_K)$ '

Observations:  $(y_i, x_i) = (y_i, (1, x_{i2}, ..., x_{iK}))$ , i = 1, ..., N

OLS-estimates  $b = (b_1, b_2, ..., b_K)$ ' are obtained by minimizing

$$S(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - x_i \beta)^2$$

this results in

$$b = \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{i} x_{i}' \sum_{i=1}^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{i} y_{i}$$

### **Best Linear Approximation**

Given the observations:  $(y_i, x_i') = (y_i, (1, x_{i2}, ..., x_{iK})'), i = 1, ..., N$ 

For  $y_i$ , the linear combination or fitted value

$$\hat{y}_i = x'_i \mathcal{Y}$$

is the best linear combination of Y from  $X_2, ..., X_K$  and a constant (the intercept)

Residuals:  $e_i = y_i - x_i$ , i = 1, ..., N

- Minimum value of objective function:  $S(b) = \sum_i e_i^2$
- Orthogonality of  $e = (e_1, ..., e_N)$ , to each  $x_i = (x_{1i}, ..., x_{Ni})$ ;  $e'x_i = 0$
- $\Sigma_i e_i = 0$ : average residual is zero, if the model has an intercept

### Matrix Notation

N observations

$$(y_1, x_1), \ldots, (y_N, x_N)$$

Model: 
$$y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_i + \varepsilon_i$$
,  $i = 1, ..., N$ , or  
 $y = X\beta + \varepsilon$ 

with

$$y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{pmatrix}, \quad X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_N \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \varepsilon = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_N \end{pmatrix}$$

OLS-estimates:

$$b = (XX)^{-1}XY$$

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### **Economic Models**

Describe economic relationships (not only a set of observations), have an economic interpretation

Linear regression model:

$$y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_K x_{iK} + \varepsilon_i = x_i'\beta + \varepsilon_i$$

Variables  $y_i$ ,  $x_{i2}$ , ...,  $x_{iK}$ : observable

Error term ε<sub>i</sub> (disturbance term) contains all influences that are not included explicitly in the model; unobservable; assumption E{ε<sub>i</sub> | x<sub>i</sub>} = 0 gives

 $\mathsf{E}\{y_i \mid x_i\} = x_i^{`}\beta$ 

the model describes the expected value of *y* given *x* 

• Unknown coefficients  $\beta_1, ..., \beta_K$ :  $\beta_k$  measure the change of Y if  $X_k$  changes

### **Regression Coefficients**

Linear regression model:

$$y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_K x_{iK} + \varepsilon_i = x_i'\beta + \varepsilon_i$$

Coefficient  $\beta_k$  measures the change of Y if  $X_k$  changes by one unit and all other X values remain the same (ceteris paribus condition); marginal effect of changing  $X_k$  on Y

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial z} \frac{\mathbf{y}_i | x_i}{\mathbf{x}_i} = \boldsymbol{\beta}_{\mathbf{x}_i}$$

Example

• Wage equation:  $wage_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 male_i + \beta_3 school_i + \beta_4 exper_i + \varepsilon_i$ 

 $\beta_3$  measures the impact of one additional year at school upon a person's wage, keeping gender and years of experience fixed

# Regression Coefficients, cont'd

The marginal effect of a changing regressor may be non-constant Example

• Wage equation:  $wage_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 male_i + \beta_3 age_i + \beta_4 age_i^2 + \varepsilon_i$ the impact of changing age (ceteris paribus) depends on age:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{Z}\{y_i | x_i\}}{\partial \mathcal{I}ge_i} = \beta_s + 2age_i\beta_4$$

### Elasticities

Elasticity: measures the *relative* change in the dependent variable Y due to a *relative* change in  $X_k$ 

For a linear regression, the elasticity of Y with respect to  $X_k$  is

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{Z}\left\{y_{i} \middle| x_{i}\right\} / E\left\{y_{i} \middle| x_{i}\right\}}{\partial \mathcal{Z}_{ik} / \mathcal{X}_{ik}} = \frac{x_{ik}}{x_{i}'\beta} \beta_{\kappa}$$

For a loglinear model log  $y_i = (\log x_i)' \beta + \varepsilon_i$ ,  $(\log x_i)' = (1, \log x_{i2}, ..., \log x_{ik})$ , the elasticities are the coefficients β

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{Z}\left\{y_{i} \middle| x_{i}\right\} / E\left\{y_{i} \middle| x_{i}\right\}}{\partial \mathcal{Z}_{ik} / x_{ik}} \approx \frac{\partial \mathcal{Z}\left\{\log y_{i} \middle| \log x_{i}\right\}}{\partial \log x_{ik}} = \beta_{\kappa}$$

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# Fitting Economic Models to Data

**Observations allow** 

- to estimate parameters
- to assess how well the data-generating process is represented by the model, i.e., how well the model coincides with reality
- to improve the model if necessary

Fitting a linear regression model to data

- Parameter estimates  $b = (b_1, ..., b_K)$ ' for coefficients  $\beta = (\beta_1, ..., \beta_K)$ '
- Standard errors  $se(b_k)$  of the estimates  $b_k$ , k=1,...,K
- *t*-statistics, *F*-statistic, *R*<sup>2</sup>, Durbin Watson test-statistic, etc.

# OLS Estimator and OLS Estimates *b*

OLS estimates *b* are a realization of the OLS estimator

The OLS estimator is a random variable

- Observations are a random sample from the population of all possible samples
- Observations are generated by some random process

Distribution of the OLS estimator

- Actual distribution not known
- Theoretical distribution determined by assumptions on
  - model specification
  - the error term  $\varepsilon_i$  and regressor variables  $x_i$

Quality criteria (bias, accuracy, efficiency) of OLS estimates are determined by the properties of the distribution

### Gauss-Markov Assumptions

Observation  $y_i$  is a linear function

$$y_i = x_i'\beta + \varepsilon_i$$

of observations  $x_{ik}$ , k = 1, ..., K, of the regressor variables and the error term  $\varepsilon_i$ 

for 
$$i = 1, ..., N$$
;  $x_i' = (x_{i1}, ..., x_{iK})$ ;  $X = (x_{ik})$ 

A1	$E{\epsilon_i} = 0$ for all <i>i</i>
A2	all $\varepsilon_i$ are independent of all $x_i$ (exogeneous $x_i$ )
A3	$V{\epsilon_i} = \sigma^2$ for all <i>i</i> (homoskedasticity)
A4	Cov{ $\varepsilon_i$ , $\varepsilon_j$ } = 0 for all <i>i</i> and <i>j</i> with $i \neq j$ (no autocorrelation)

### Systematic Part of the Model

The systematic part  $E\{y_i \mid x_i\}$  of the model  $y_i = x_i'\beta + \varepsilon_i$ , given observations  $x_i$ , is derived under the Gauss-Markov assumptions as follows:

(A2) implies  $E\{\varepsilon \mid X\} = E\{\varepsilon\} = 0$  and  $V\{\varepsilon \mid X\} = V\{\varepsilon\} = \sigma^2 I_N$ 

- Observations  $x_i$  do not affect the properties of  $\varepsilon$
- The systematic part

 $\mathsf{E}\{y_i \mid x_i\} = x_i'\beta$ 

can be interpreted as the conditional expectation of  $y_i$ , given observations  $x_i$ 

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# Is the OLS estimator a good estimator?

- Under the Gauss-Markov assumptions, the OLS estimator has nice properties; see below
- Gauss-Markov assumptions are very strong and often not satisfied
- Relaxations of the Gauss-Markov assumptions and consequences of such relaxations are important topics

### **Properties of OLS Estimators**

1. The OLS estimator *b* is unbiased:  $E\{b\} = \beta$ Needs assumptions (A1) and (A2)

2. The variance of the OLS estimator *b* is given by

 $V{b} = \sigma^2 (\Sigma_i x_i x_i')^{-1}$ 

Needs assumptions (A1), (A2), (A3) and (A4)

3. The OLS estimator b is a BLUE (best linear unbiased estimator) for  $\beta$ 

Needs assumptions (A1), (A2), (A3), and (A4) and requires linearity in parameters

# Standard Errors of OLS Estimators

Variance of the OLS estimators:

 $V{b} = \sigma^2 (\Sigma_i x_i x_i')^{-1}$ 

Standard error of OLS estimate  $b_k$ : The square root of the k<sup>th</sup> diagonal element of V{*b*}

Estimator V{*b*} is proportional to the variance  $\sigma^2$  of the error terms Estimator for  $\sigma^2$ : sampling variance  $s^2$  of the residuals  $e_i$ 

 $s^2 = (N - K)^{-1} \Sigma_i e_i^2$ 

Under assumptions (A1)-(A4),  $s^2$  is unbiased for  $\sigma^2$ 

Estimated variance (covariance matrix) of *b*:

 $s^{2}(\Sigma_{i} x_{i} x_{i}')^{-1}$ 

## Normality of Error Terms

A5  $\varepsilon_i$  normally distributed for all *i* 

Together with assumptions (A1), (A3), and (A4), (A5) implies

 $\varepsilon_i \sim \text{NID}(0, \sigma^2)$  for all *i* 

- i.e., all  $\varepsilon_i$  are
- independent drawings
- from a normal distribution
- with mean 0
- and variance σ<sup>2</sup>

Error terms are "normally and independently distributed"

### **Properties of OLS Estimators**

- 1. The OLS estimator *b* is unbiased:  $E\{b\} = \beta$
- 2. The variance of the OLS estimator is given by

 $V{b} = \sigma^2 (\Sigma_i x_i x_i')^{-1}$ 

- 3. The OLS estimator *b* is a BLUE (best linear unbiased estimator) for  $\beta$
- 4. The OLS estimator *b* is normally distributed with mean  $\beta$  and covariance matrix V{*b*} =  $\sigma^2(\Sigma_i x_i x_i^2)^{-1}$

Needs assumptions (A2) + (A5)

### Example: Individual Wages

 $wage_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 male_i + \varepsilon_i$ 

What do the assumptions mean?

- (A1):  $\beta_1 + \beta_2$  male<sub>i</sub> contains the whole systematic part of the model; no regressors besides gender relevant?
- (A2):  $x_i$  independent of  $\varepsilon_i$  for all *i*: knowledge of a person's gender provides no information about further variables which affect the person's wage; is that realistic?
- (A3) V{ $\epsilon_i$ } =  $\sigma^2$  for all *i*: variance of error terms (and of wages) is the same for males and females; is that realistic?

(A4) Cov{ $\varepsilon_{i,}, \varepsilon_{j}$ } = 0,  $i \neq j$ : implied by random sampling

(A5) Normality of  $\varepsilon_i$ : is that realistic? (Would allow, e.g., for negative wages)

### Example: Individ. Wages, cont'd

OLS estimated wage equation (Table 2.1, Verbeek)

Dependent variable: wage				
Variable	Estimate	Standard error		
constant male	5.1469 1.1661	0.0812 0.1122		
s = 3.2174	$R^2 = 0.0317$	F = 107.93		

 $b_1 = 5.147$ , se( $b_1$ ) = 0.081;  $b_2 = 1.166$ , se( $b_2$ ) = 0.112 95% confidence interval for  $\beta_1$ : 4.988  $\leq \beta_1 \leq 5.306$ 

### Goodness-of-fit

The quality of the linear approximation offered by the model  $y_i = x_i'\beta + \varepsilon_i$  can be measured by  $R^2$ 

•  $R^2$  is the proportion of the variance in *y* that can be explained by the linear combination of the regressors  $x_i$ 

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

- If the model contains an intercept (as usual):  $\hat{v} = \hat{v} = \hat{$
- Alternatively, *R*<sup>2</sup> can be calculated as

$$R^2 = corr^2 \, \vec{y}_i, \hat{y}_i$$

### Properties of $R^2$

- $0 \le R^2 \le 1$ , if the model contains an intercept
- Comparisons of R<sup>2</sup> for two models makes no sense if y is different
- *R*<sup>2</sup> cannot decrease if a variable is added
- adjusted R<sup>2</sup>: compensated for added regressor, penalty for increasing K

$$\overline{R}^{2} = 1 - \frac{1/(N-K)\sum_{i}e_{i}^{2}}{1/(N-1)\sum_{i}(y_{i}-\overline{y})^{2}}$$

Uncentered R<sup>2</sup>

$$1 - \sum_{i} e_{i}^{2} / \sum_{i} y_{i}^{2}$$

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### Testing of a Regression Coefficient: *t*-Test

For testing a restriction wrt a single regression coefficient  $\beta_k$ :

- Null hypothesis  $H_0: \beta_k = q$
- Alternative  $H_A$ :  $\beta_k > q$  (or  $\beta_k < q$  or  $\beta_k \neq q$ )
- Test statistic: (computed from the sample with known distribution under the null hypothesis)

$$t_{k} = \frac{b_{k} - \gamma}{se(b_{k})}$$

 $t_k$  follows the *t*-distribution with *N*-*K* degrees of freedom (d.f.)

- under  $H_0$
- given the Gauss-Markov assumptions and normality of the error terms  $\varepsilon_i$
- Reject H<sub>0</sub>, if the *p*-value P{ $t_{N-K} > t_k \mid H_0$ } is small ( $t_k$ -value is large)

### Example: Individ. Wages, cont'd

OLS estimated wage equation (Table 2.1, Verbeek)

Dependent variable: wage				
Variable	Estimate	Standard error		
constant male	5.1469 1.1661	0.0812 0.1122		
s = 3.2174	$R^2 = 0.0317$	E = 107.93		

Test of null hypothesis  $H_0$ :  $\beta_2 = 0$  (no gender effect on wages) against  $H_A$ :  $\beta_2 > 0$  $t_2 = b_2/se(b_2) = 1.1661/0.1122 = 10.38$ Under  $H_0$ , *t* follows the *t*-distribution with 3294-2 = 3292 d.f. *p*-value = P{ $t_{3292} > 10.38 | H_0$ } = 3.7E-25: reject  $H_0$ !
### Example: Individ. Wages, cont'd

OLS estimated wage equation: Output from GRETL

Modell 1: KQ, benutze die Beobachtungen 1-3294 Abhängige Variable: WAGE								
	Koeffizient	Std. Fehler	t-Quotient	P-Wert				
const	5,14692	0,0812248	63,3664	<0,0000	)1 ***			
MALE	1,1661	0,112242	10,3891	<0,0000	)1 ***			
Mittel d. abh. Var.		5,757585	Stdabw. d. abh.	Stdabw. d. abh. Var.				
Summe d. quad. Res.		34076,92	Stdfehler d. Re	Stdfehler d. Regress.				
R-Quadrat		0,031746	Korrigiertes R-0	Korrigiertes R-Quadrat				
F(1, 3292)		107,9338	P-Wert(F)	P-Wert(F)				
Log-Likelihood		-8522,228	Akaike-Kriteriur	Akaike-Kriterium				
Schwarz-Kriterium		17060,66	Hannan-Quinn-	Hannan-Quinn-Kriterium				

*p*-value for *t*<sub>MALE</sub>-test: < 0,00001 "gender has a significant effect on wages p.h"

# OLS Estimators: Asymptotic Distribution

If the Gauss-Markov (A1) - (A4) assumptions hold but not the normality assumption (A5):

*t*-statistic

$$t_{k} = \frac{b_{k} - \gamma}{se(b_{k})}$$

follows asymptotically (N → ∞) the standard normal distribution
In many situations, the unknown exact properties are substituted by asymptotic results (asymptotic theory)

The *t*-statistic

- follows approximately the *t*-distribution with *N*-*K* d.f.
- follows approximately the standard normal distribution N(0,1)

The approximation error decreases with increasing sample size N

#### Testing Several Regression Coefficients

For testing a restriction wrt more than one, say J with 1 < J < K, regression coefficient:

- Null hypothesis  $H_0$ :  $\beta_k = 0$ ,  $K-J+1 \le k \le K$
- Alternative  $H_A$ : at least one of these  $\beta_k \neq 0$
- *F*-statistic: (computed from the sample, with known distribution under the null hypothesis;  $R_0^2$  ( $R_1^2$ ):  $R^2$  for (un)restricted model)

$$F = \frac{(R_1^2 - R_0^2) / J}{(1 - R_1^2) / (N - K)}$$

*F* follows the *F*-distribution with J and *N*-*K* d.f.

• under  $H_0$ 

 $\Box$  given the Gauss-Markov assumptions and normality of the  $\varepsilon_i$ 

Reject  $H_0$ , if the *p*-value  $P\{F_{J,N-K} > F \mid H_0\}$  is small (*F*-value is large)

#### Example: Individ. Wages, cont'd

A more general model is

 $wage_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 male_i + \beta_3 school_i + \beta_4 exper_i + \varepsilon_i$ 

 $\beta_2$  measures the difference in expected wage between a male and a female, given the other regressors fixed, i.e., with the same schooling and experience: ceteris paribus condition

Have school and exper an explanatory power?

Test of null hypothesis  $H_0$ :  $\beta_3 = \beta_4 = 0$  against  $H_A$ :  $H_0$  not true

- $R_0^2 = 0.0317$  (see p.31)
- R<sub>1</sub><sup>2</sup> = 0.1326 (see p.36)

$$F = \frac{(0.1326 - ).0317)/2}{(1 - ).1326)/(3294 - 4)} = \lfloor 91.35$$

• p-value = P{ $F_{2,3290}$  > 191.35 | H<sub>0</sub>} = 2.43E-79

#### Example: Individ. Wages, cont'd

#### OLS estimated wage equation (Table 2.2, Verbeek)

**Table 2.2**OLS results wage equation

#### Dependent variable: wage

Variable	Estimate	Standard error	<i>t</i> -ratio
constant	-3.3800	0.4650	-7.2692
male	1.3444	0.1077	12.4853
school	0.6388	0.0328	19.4780
exper	0.1248	0.0238	5.2530
s = 3.0462	$R^2 = 0.1326$	$\overline{R}^2 = 0.1318$	F = 167.63

#### Testing Several Regression Coefficients, cont'd

Test again

- $H_0: \beta_k = 0, K-J+1 \le k \le K$
- $H_A$ : at least one of these  $\beta_k \neq 0$

The test statistic *F* can alternatively be calculated as

$$F = \frac{(S_0 - S_1) / J}{S_1 / (N - K)}$$

 $S_0$  ( $S_1$ ): sum of squared residuals for the (un)restricted model

#### Example: Individ. Wages, cont'd

A more general model is

 $wage_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 male_i + \beta_3 school_i + \beta_4 exper_i + \varepsilon_i$ 

 $\beta_2$  measures the difference in expected wage between a male and a female, given the other regressors fixed, i.e., with the same schooling and experience: **ceteris paribus condition** 

Have *school* and *exper* an explanatory power?

Test of null hypothesis  $H_0$ :  $\beta_3 = \beta_4 = 0$  against  $H_A$ :  $H_0$  not true

- S<sub>0</sub> = 34076.92 (see p.32)
- S<sub>1</sub> = 30527.87

F = [(34076.92 - 30527.87)/2]/[30527.87/(3294-4)] = 191.24

Does <u>any</u> regressor contribute to explanation? Overall *F*-test (see Table 2.2 or GRETL-output): *F* = 167.63, *p*-value: 4.0E-101

#### The General Case

Test of  $H_0$ :  $R\beta = q$ 

 $R\beta = q: J \text{ linear restrictions on the coefficients } (R: JxK \text{ matrix, } q: K-vector)$ Example:  $R = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, q = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ 

**Wald test**:  $\xi = (Rb-q)'[RV\{b\}R']^{-1}(Rb-q)$  follows under H<sub>0</sub> approximately the Chi-squared distribution with *J* d.f.

$$F = \xi / J \text{ is algebraically identical to the } F \text{-test with}$$
$$F = \frac{(S_0 - S_1) / J}{S_1 / (N - K)}$$

#### p-value, Size, and Power

**Type I error**: the null hypothesis is rejected, while it is actually true

- **p-value**: the probability to commit the type I error
- In experimental situations, the probability of committing the type I error can be chosen before applying the test; the probability of committing the type I error is denoted the size α of the test
- In model-building situations, not a decision but learning from data is intended; multiple testing is quite usual; use of *p*-value is more appropriate
- **Type II error**: the null hypothesis is not rejected, while it is actually wrong
- The probability to decide in favor of the true alternative, i.e., not making a type II error, is called the **power** of the test; depends of true parameter values

#### p-value, Size, and Power, cont'd

- The smaller the size of the test, the larger is its power (for a given sample size)
- The more H<sub>A</sub> deviates from H<sub>0</sub>, the larger is the power of a test of a given size (given the sample size)
- The larger the sample size, the larger is the power of a test of a given size

Attention! Significance vs relevance

### Advanced Econometrics -Lecture 1

- Regression: a descriptive tool
- Economic models
- OLS estimation
- Properties of OLS estimators
- t-test and F-test
- Asymptotic properties of OLS estimators
- Multicollinearity
- Model specification and tests

#### OLS Estimators: Asymptotic Properties

Gauss-Markov assumptions plus the normality assumptions are in many situations very restrictive

An alternative are properties derived from asymptotic theory

- Asymptotic results hopefully are sufficiently precise approximations for large (but finite) N
- Typically, Monte Carlo simulations are used to assess the quality of asymptotic results

Asymptotic theory: deals with the case where the sample size N goes to infinity:  $N \rightarrow \infty$ 

### **OLS Estimators: Consistency**

Consistency of the OLS estimators *b*:

- For  $N \to \infty$ , the probability that *b* differs from  $\beta$  by a certain amount goes to 0
- The distribution of b collapses in β

The OLS estimators b are consistent,

 $\operatorname{plim}_{N \to \infty} b = \beta$ ,

if (A2) from the Gauss-Markov assumptions and the assumption (A6) is fulfilled:

A6  $1/N \Sigma_{i=1}^{N} x_i x_i$  converges with growing *N* to a finite, nonsingular matrix  $\Sigma_{xx}$ 

## OLS Estimators: Consistency, cont'd

Consistency of the OLS estimators can also be shown to hold under weaker assumptions:

The OLS estimators *b* are consistent,

 $\operatorname{plim}_{N \to \infty} b = \beta$ ,

if the assumptions (A7) and (A6) are fulfilled

A7 The error terms have zero mean and are uncorrelated with each of the regressors:  $E\{x_i \in \mathcal{E}_i\} = 0$ 

Attention:

- (A7) does not imply (A2)
- The conditions for consistency are weaker than that for unbiasedness

## OLS Estimators: Consistency, cont'd

The estimator  $s^2$  for the error term variance  $\sigma^2$  is consistent,

$$\text{plim}_{N \to \infty} s^2 = \sigma^2$$
,

if the assumptions (A3), (A6), and (A7) are fulfilled

# OLS Estimators: Asymptotic Normality

Under the Gauss-Markov assumptions (A1)-(A4) and assumption (A6), the OLS estimators *b* follow approximately the normal distribution

$$N \beta_{s}^{2} \sum_{i} x_{i} x_{i}^{\prime}$$

The approximate distribution does not make use of assumption (A5), i.e., the normality of the error terms!

Tests of hypotheses on coefficients  $\beta_k$ ,

- *t*-test
- F-test

can be perfomed making use of the approximate normal distribution

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#### Multicollinearity

OLS estimators  $b = (XX)^{-1}Xy$  for regression coefficients  $\beta$  require that the *K*x*K* matrix

XX or  $\Sigma_i x_i x_i'$ 

can be inverted

In real situations, regressors may be correlated, such as

- experience and schooling (measured in years)
- age and experience
- inflation rate and nominal interest rate
- common trends of economic time series, e.g., in lag structures

Multicollinearity: between the explanatory variables exists

- an exact linear relationship
- an approximate linear relationship

### Multicollinearity: Consequences

Exact linear relationship between regressors ("exact multicollinearity"):

- Example: Wage equation
  - Regressors male <u>and</u> female in addition to intercept
  - Regressor exper defined as exper = age school 6
- $\Sigma_i x_i x_i$ ' is not invertible
- Econometric software reports ill-defined matrix  $\Sigma_i x_i x_i'$
- GRETL drops regressor

Approximate linear relationship between regressors:

- When correlations are high: hard to identify the *individual* impact of each of the regressors
- Inflated variances: if  $x_k$  can be approximated by the other regressors, variance of  $b_k$  is inflated; reduced power of *t*-test

#### Variance Inflation Factor

Variance of  $b_k$ 

$$V \mathcal{B}_{k} = \frac{\sigma^{2}}{1-R_{k}^{2}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_{ik} - \bar{x}_{k})^{2} -$$

 $R_k^2$ :  $R^2$  of the regression of  $x_k$  on all other regressors

If x<sub>k</sub> can be approximated by the other regressors, R<sub>k</sub><sup>2</sup> is close to
1, the variance inflated

**Variance inflation factor**:  $VIF(b_k) = (1 - R_k^2)^{-1}$ 

Large values for some or all VIFs indicate multicollinearity

Attention! Large values for VIF can also have other causes

- Small value of variance of X<sub>k</sub>
- Small number N of observations

### Multicollinearity: Indicators

Large values for some or all variance inflation factors  $VIF(b_k)$  are an indicator for multicollinearity

Other indicators:

- At least one of the  $R_k^2$ , k = 1, ..., K, has a large value
- Large values of standard errors se(b<sub>k</sub>) (low *t*-statistics), but reasonable or good R<sup>2</sup> and F-statistics
- Effect of adding a regressor on standard errors se(b<sub>k</sub>) of estimates b<sub>k</sub> of regressors already in the model: increasing values of se(b<sub>k</sub>) indicate multicollinearity

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- Regression: a descriptive tool
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## Selection of Regressors

Specification errors:

- Omission of a relevant variable
- Inclusion of a irrelevant variable

Questions:

- What are the consequences?
- How to avoid specification errors?
- How to detect a committed specification error?

# Example: Income and Consumption



PCR: Private Consumption, real, in bn. EUROs PYR: Household's Disposable Income, real, in bn. EUROs 1970:1-2003:4 Basis: 1995 Source: AWM-Database

#### Income and Consumption



March 19, 2010

#### Income and Consumption: Growth Rates



PCR\_D4: Private Consumption, real, growth rate PYR\_D4: Household's Disposable Income, real, growth rate 1970:1-2003:4 Basis: 1995 Source: AWM-Database

#### **Consumption Function**

C: Private Consumption, real, growth rate (PCR\_D4)

Y: Household's Disposable Income, real, growth rate (PYR\_D4) T: Trend ( $T_i = i/1000$ )

 $\hat{C} = 0.011 + 0.761Y, \quad \overline{R}^2 = 0.717$ 

Consumption function with trend  $T_i = i/1000$ :

$$\hat{C} = 0.016 + 0.708 Y - 0.068 T$$
,  $\overline{R}^2 = 0.741$ 

#### Consumption Function, cont'd

#### OLS estimated consumption function: Output from GRETL

Abhängige Variable: PCR_D4							
	Koeffizient	Stdfehler	t-Quotient	P-Wert			
const	0,0162489	0,00187868	8,649	1,76e-014 ***			
PYR_D4	0,707963	0,0424086	16,69	4,94e-034 ***			
T	-0,0682847	0,0188182	-3,629	0,0004 ***			
Mittel d. abh. Var.		0,024911	Stdabw. d. abh. Var.	0,015222			
Summe d. quad. Res.		0,007726	Stdfehler d. Regress.	0,007739			
R-Quadrat		0,745445	Korrigiertes R-Quadra	t 0,741498			
F(2, 129)		188,8830	P-Wert(F)	4,71e-39			
Log-Likelihood		455,9302	Akaike-Kriterium	-905,8603			
Schwarz-Kriterium		-897,2119	Hannan-Quinn-Kriteriu	im -902,3460			
rho		0,701126	Durbin-Watson-Stat	0,601668			

## Selection of Regressors

Specification errors:

- Omission of a relevant variable
- Inclusion of a irrelevant variable

Questions:

- What are the consequences?
- How to avoid specification errors?
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#### Misspecification: Omitted Regressor

Two models:

 $y_{i} = x_{i}'\beta + z_{i}'\gamma + \varepsilon_{i}$ (A)  $y_{i} = x_{i}'\beta + v_{i}$ (B)

OLS estimates  $b_{\rm B}$  of  $\beta$  from (B) can be written with  $y_{\rm i}$  from (A):

$$b_{B} = \beta + \sum_{i} x_{i} x_{i}' \sum_{i}^{-1} \sum_{i} x_{i} z_{i}' \gamma + \sum_{i} x_{i} x_{i}' \sum_{i}^{-1} \sum_{i} x_{i} \varepsilon_{i}$$

If (A) is the true model but (B) is specified, i.e., relevant regressors  $z_i$  are omitted,  $b_B$  is biased by

$$E \sum_{i} x_{i} x_{i}' \sum_{i}^{-1} \sum_{i} x_{i} z_{i}' \gamma$$

#### **Omitted variable bias**

No bias if (a)  $\gamma = 0$  or if (b) variables in  $x_i$  and  $z_i$  are orthogonal

#### Misspecification: Irrelevant Regressor

Two models:

$$y_{i} = x_{i}^{\prime}\beta + z_{i}^{\prime}\gamma + \varepsilon_{i}$$
(A)  
$$y_{i} = x_{i}^{\prime}\beta + v_{i}$$
(B)

If (B) is the true model but (A) is specified, i.e., the model contains irrelevant regressors  $z_i$ 

The OLS estimates b<sub>A</sub>

are unbiased

 have a higher variance than the OLS estimate b<sub>B</sub> obtained from fitting model (B)

### **Specification Search**

#### General-to-specific modeling:

- 1. List all potential regressors
- 2. Specify the most general model: it includes all potential regressors
- 3. Test iteratively which variables have to be dropped
- 4. Stop if no more variables have to be dropped
- The procedure is also known as the LSE (London School of Economics) method

### Specification Search, cont'd

Some remarks

- Alternatively, one can start with a small model and add variables as long as they turn out to contribute to explaining Y
- Stepwise regression
- Adding and deleting can be based on
  - *t*-statistic, *F*-statistic
  - □ Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>
  - Akaike's Information Criterion AIC, Schwarz's Bayesian Information Criterion BIC
- The corresponding probabilities for type I and type II errors can hardly be assessed

Specification search can be subsumed under data mining

#### Comparison of Models

Nested models [cf. p.58: model (B) is nested in model (A)]

- Do the J added regressors contribute to explaining Y
- *F*-test (*t*-test when J = 1) for testing H<sub>0</sub>: coefficients of added regressors are zero

$$F = \frac{(R_1^2 - R_0^2) / J}{(1 - R_1^2) / (N - K)}$$

 $R_0^2$  and  $R_1^2$  are the  $R^2$  of the models without and with the *J* additional regressors, respectively

- Comparison of adjusted  $R^2$ : adj  $R_1^2 > adj R_0^2$  equivalent to F > 1
- Information Criteria: penalty for increasing number of regressors (cf. adjusted R<sup>2</sup>), e.g., Schwarz's Bayesian Information Criterion

$$BIC = \log \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{2}{i} + \frac{K}{N} \log N$$

#### Comparison of Models, cont'd

Non-nested alternative models: A:  $y_i = x_i'\beta + \varepsilon_i$ , B:  $y_i = z_i'\gamma + v_i$ 

 Non-nested or encompassing *F*-test: compares by *F*-tests artificially nested models

 $y_i = x_i'\beta + z_{2i}'\delta_B + \varepsilon_i$  with  $z_{2i}$  not element of  $x_i$ : test of  $\delta_B = 0$ 

J-test: applies an *F*-test to a combined model

 $y_{i} = (1 - \delta) x_{i}^{'}\beta + \delta z_{2i}^{'}\gamma + u_{i}$ 

Choice between linear and loglinear functional form

PE-test

#### **PE-Test**

- Estimate both models
  - $\Box \quad A: y_i = x_i'\beta + \varepsilon_i$
  - $\square \quad \text{B: log } y_i = x_i'\beta + v_i$

and calculate the fitted values  $\hat{y}$  (from model A) and  $\ddot{y}$  (from B)

Rejection both null hypotheses: find a more adequate model
## Testing the Functional Form

Misspecification of  $y_i = x_i^{\beta} + \varepsilon_i^{\beta}$ : violation of linearity in  $x_i^{\beta}$ 

- $E\{y_i|x_i\} = g(x_i, \beta), e.g.,$ 
  - $\Box \quad g(x_i, \beta) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_i^{\beta_3}$
  - $\Box \quad g(x_i, \beta) = \beta_1 x_{i1}^{\beta 2} x_{i2}^{\beta 3}$
- Linear model  $x_i^{\beta}$  does not explain well Y
- RESET (Regression Equation Specification Error Test) test (Ramsey)
  - Alternative model: linear model extended by adding  $\hat{y}_i^2$ ,  $\hat{y}_i^3$ , ... with  $\hat{y}_i$ : fitted values from the linear model
  - Uses *F*-test to decide whether powers of fitted values contribute as additional regressors to explaining *Y*
  - Power Q of fitted values: typical choice is Q = 2 or Q = 3

## Exercise

- In Exercise 2.2 of Verbeek, the sample given in data set "wages" is used to answer the question whether women are systematically underpaid compared with men. Table 2.8, p.48, gives the output of a regression analysis, the model for the log hourly wages being explained besides *male* by *age* and *educ*. Use in this exercise the whole dataset (data file *WAGES1*) and the definition age = school + exper + 6.
- 1. Repeat the analysis for the model (model 1) where the log hourly wages are explained by *male* and *age*.
- 2. Repeat the analysis (model 2) after adding to model 1 four dummy variables for the educational levels 2 through 5 instead of the variable *educ*.

## Exercise, cont'd

- 3. Use an *F*-test, adjusted  $R^2$ , and the BIC to decide whether model 1 or that model 2 is preferable.
- 4. Use the PE-test (see Verbeek, p. 64) to decide whether the Verbeek's model in Table 2.8 (where levels of hourly wages are explained) or the model 1 extended by the variable *educ* is to be preferred.