

Econometrics

Geometric Interpretation of OLS, Non-linearities and Omitted Variable Bias

April 4, 2017

Today's plan

- Introduction to non-linearities
- Omitted Variable Bias (OVB) and Multiple Regression

Non-linearities. Motivation

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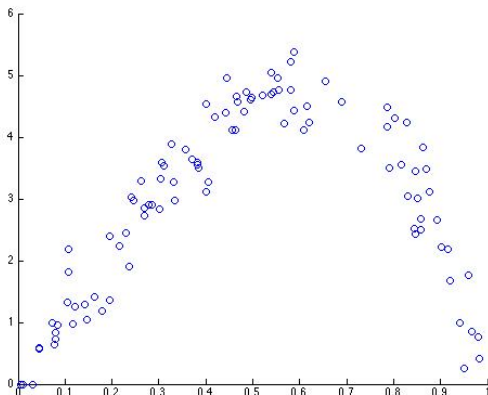
- Linear estimation is easy and handy, but not always the best option.
- Suppose that you want to estimate the effect of the tax rate on tax revenue.
- Is a linear estimation as the one following a good starting point? why, why not?

$$REV_c = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TAXRATE_c + u_c$$

note: subscript c stands for country

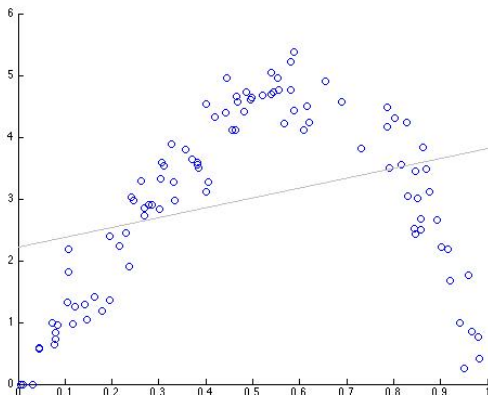
Laffer Curve (note: simulated data)

x-axis: tax rate per country. y-axis: Invented Revenue in billions of USD

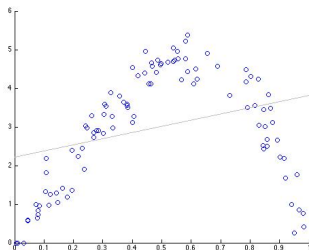


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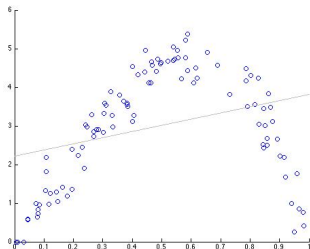
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$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.59$$

95% confidence interval = [0.62, 2.55]

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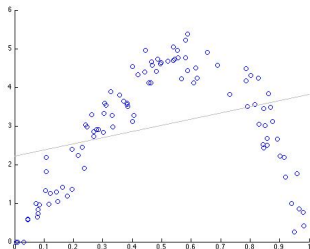


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Interpretation?

Laffer Curve (note: simulated data)



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Interpretation? Increasing tax rate increases revenue. *At all levels.*

- Common sense (and lots of data) tells us that cannot be true.
- True model is

$$REV_c = \beta_0 + f(TAXRATE_c) + u_c$$

- where the shape of f is to be estimated
- How can we estimate f ?

Semi-parametric estimation

- One option: semiparametric estimation. Very roughly speaking, divide the sample into N blocks, and run OLS for each of those N blocks.

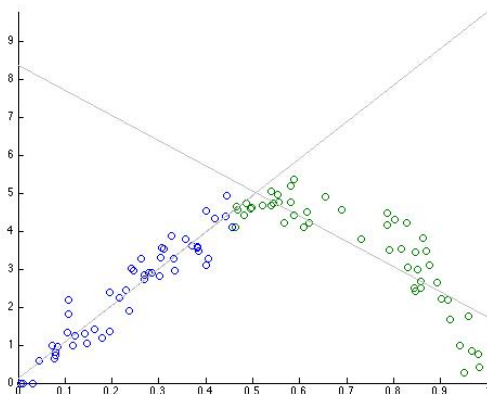
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- Next slide shows the case for 2 subsamples.
- Problem? By dividing sample you lose power. Parameters estimation becomes less precise (as $N \rightarrow \infty$).

Laffer Curve again



Semi-parametric estimation

- The previous regression does not look bad.
- Problem: The kink in the neighbourhood of 0.5 may lead to suboptimal policy recommendations around that point
- Increasing the number of subsamples yields a smoother plot.
- But as we see we lose power.

Semi-parametric estimation

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Semi-parametric estimation

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- Instead of splitting sample, one assigns different weights to different values
- (More on weights later on at the end of this course)
- Let's see what other alternative possibilities we have

Non-linear estimation

- Polynomials
- Logarithmic transformations

Non-linear estimation

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- Logarithmic transformations

Let's take one step back before we get into them

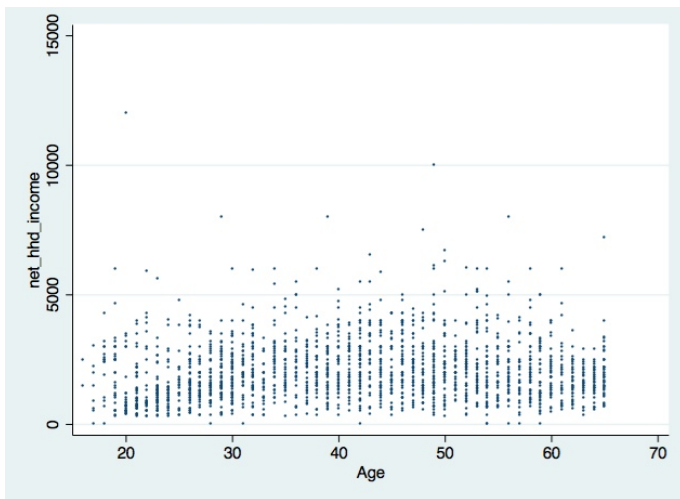
Multiple Regression

- Let's take a look at the effect of Age on Wage
- Data: Germany, 2009, GLES (German Longitudinal Election Study)
- For simplicity, we will use wage as a dependent variable (not $\log(\text{wage})$ as we see it is normally done)
- $N=1,847$

Multiple Regression

$$\omega_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times age_i + u_i$$

the Wage Regression. Germany, 2009. N=1,847



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OLS results

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OLS results

$$\omega_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{age}_i + u_i$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = 1,778 \quad \hat{\beta}_1 = 6.48$$

Can you interpret these?

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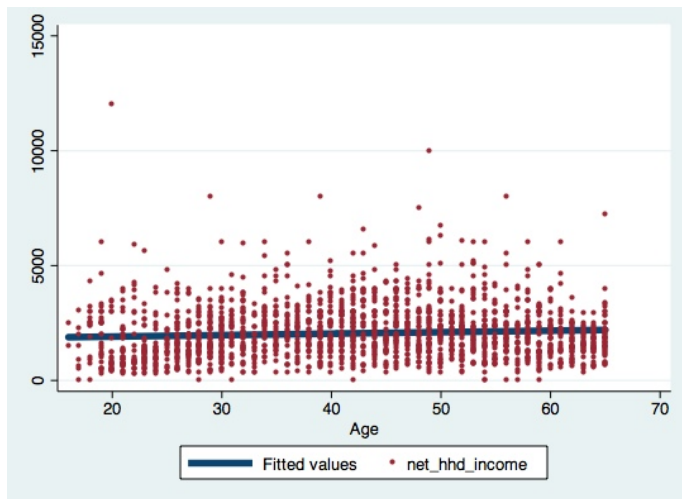
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95% Confidence intervals:

$$\hat{\beta}_0 \in [1601, 1955] \quad \hat{\beta}_1 \in [2.49, 10.47]$$

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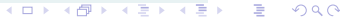
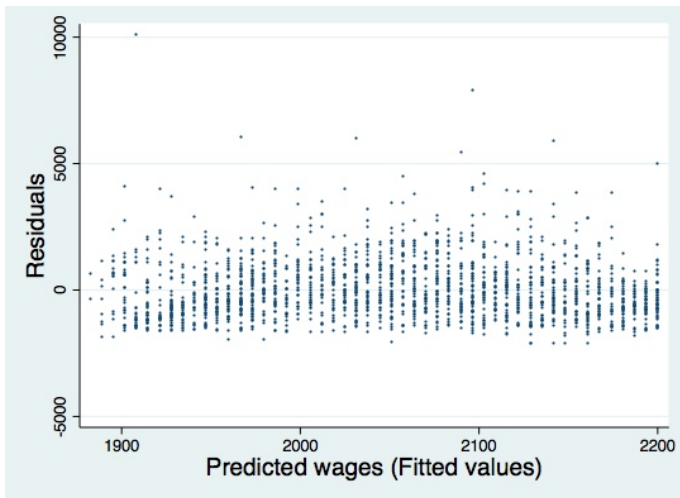
A good visual and quick way is to plot residuals vs. fitted values.

Fitted values: $\hat{\omega}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 age_i$

Residuals: $\hat{u}_i = \omega_i - \hat{\omega}_i$

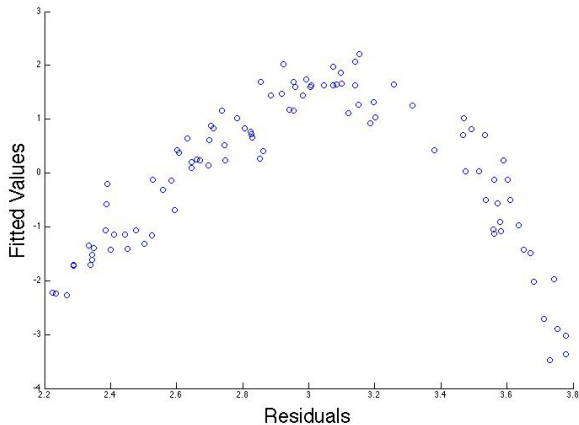
Recall from previous lessons: this must look as the *most boring* scatterplot ever

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Compare this to the residuals of the Laffer Curve seen above



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- However, can we explain wages only based on age?

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```
. reg net_hhd_income age if age<66
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	14034424.5	1	14034424.5	Number of obs =	1862	
Residual	2.5761e+09	1860	1384973.12	F(1, 1860) =	10.13	
Total	2.5901e+09	1861	1391770.24	Prob > F =	0.0015	
				R-squared =	0.0054	
				Adj R-squared =	0.0049	
				Root MSE =	1176.8	

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_cons	1778.883	90.25982	19.71	0.000	1601.862	1955.905

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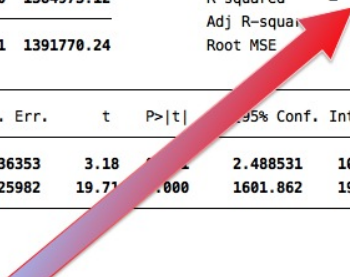
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- However, can we explain wages only based on age?
- We cannot even explain 1% of the variability!
- What else may be explaining wage?
- Ability, experience, years of studying, connections, parents' education, discount factor, height, physical appearance, school attended,...
- (these have all been proven in one way or another to affect wages. You saw most of the papers in PoE)

the Wage Regression. Germany, 2009. N=1,847

$$\omega_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{age}_i + \beta_2 \times \text{educ}_i + u_i$$

where $\text{educ}_i = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, 1=lowest degree and 5=highest degree

For simplicity, you can think of educ as number of years in education.

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$$\omega_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{age}_i + \beta_2 \times \text{educ}_i + u_i$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = 728.03 \quad \hat{\beta}_1 = 11.53 \quad \hat{\beta}_2 = 280.12$$

95% Confidence intervals:

$$\hat{\beta}_0 \in [467, 990] \quad \hat{\beta}_1 \in [7.51, 15.67] \quad \hat{\beta}_2 \in [228.2, 332]$$

$$R^2 = 0.07$$

What's going on?

the Wage Regression. Germany, 2009. N=1,847

```
. reg net_hhd_income age education if age<66
```

Source	SS	df	MS	
Model	160278172	2	80139085.8	Number of obs = 1847
Residual	2.4077e+09	1844	1305675.43	F(2, 1844) = 61.38
Total	2.5679e+09	1846	1391085.41	Prob > F = 0.0000
				R-squared = 0.0624
				Adj R-squared = 0.0614
				Root MSE = 1142.7

net_hhd_inve	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
age	11.53778	2.055819	5.61	0.000	7.505799 15.56976
education	280.1277	26.45242	10.59	0.000	228.2479 332.0076
_cons	728.0315	133.2504	5.46	0.000	466.6941 989.369

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- Education *changes* the value of the coefficient for Age.
- The latter is what we refer to as OVB - Omitted Variable Bias

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- The latter is what we refer to as OVB - Omitted Variable Bias
- Once we control for Education, the impact of age on wage doubles.

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- Wage difference *on average* between old and young people is small, not because age does not matter, but because younger have more education
- Need to compare equally educated young and old people \Rightarrow that's what controlling for other variables

Table of average monthly wages in euros per household. Sample:
18 - 60 years old.

“Young” = 18-39 years old

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	YOUNG	OLD
Whole sample	1,900 $N = 794$	2,250 $N = 844$

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	YOUNG	OLD
Whole sample	1,900 <i>N</i> = 794	2,250 <i>N</i> = 844
High Educ.	1,996 <i>N</i> = 199	3,470 <i>N</i> = 88
Mid. Educ.	2,087 <i>N</i> = 31	2,928 <i>N</i> = 33
Low Educ.	1,861 <i>N</i> = 564	2,073 <i>N</i> = 723

Omitted Variable Bias

- Once we control for education, we see that age really matters
- It was significant before, but with a downward bias.

Omitted Variable Bias

- If we forget to include a variable that is correlated to a variable we are including, we will get bias
- See algebraic proof (below)
- See geometric interpretation - alt. set of slides

Omitted Variable Bias. Need to Show

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \beta_1 + \frac{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x}) u_i}{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

and then use this to show that

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \xrightarrow{p} \beta_1 + \rho_{xu} \frac{\sigma_u}{\sigma_x}$$

R^2

- It gives a measure of how well we can explain the data using our model
- $\frac{\text{'what we can explain'}}{\text{'what we can explain' + 'what we cannot'}}$

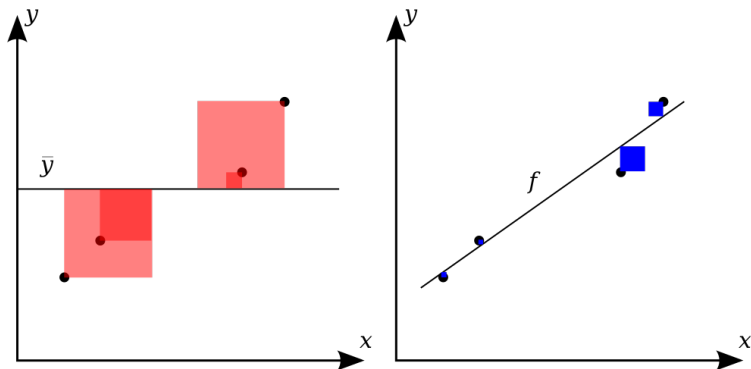
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$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2} = 1 - \frac{RSS}{TSS}$$



"Coefficient of Determination" by Orzetto - Own work. Licensed under CC BY-SA 3.0 via Wikimedia Commons, wiki page R^2

R^2

- Why can it only increase when we include regressors?
- Algebraic and Geometric Interpretation
- Adjusted- R^2
- To think about:
 - Is a high R^2 necessarily good or imperative?
 - How is it possible that we *may* get a negative value?
 - How can you guarantee that R^2 is equal to 1?

R^2

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R^2

- Why can it only increase when we include regressors?
- (i) $\text{Min} \sum_i (y_i - \alpha - \beta_1 x_{1i})^2$
- (ii) $\text{Min} \sum_i (y_i - \alpha - \beta_1 x_{1i} - \beta_2 x_{2i})^2$

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- By construction, $\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2$ are such that (ii) is minimized
- If x_2 cannot help reduce the Sum of Squared Errors, then $\beta_2 \rightarrow 0$
- Geometric interpretation: you are increasing the projection space by one dimension. At worst, you can stay exactly where you are. And in most cases, you get actually closer to the N-dimensional vector y

Adjusted R^2

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- In other words, prevents R^2 from increasing mechanically by including *any* variable.

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k is number of regressors other than the constant.

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$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial R^2_{adj}}{\partial k} &= -\frac{RSS}{TSS} (n-1)(-1)(n-1-k)^{-2}(-1) = \\ &= -\frac{RSS}{TSS} (n-1) \frac{1}{(n-1-k)^2} < 0 \end{aligned}$$

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In cases where negative values arise, the mean of the data provides a better fit to the outcomes than do the fitted function values.

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum (y_i - \bar{y}_i)^2} = 1 - \frac{RSS}{TSS}$$

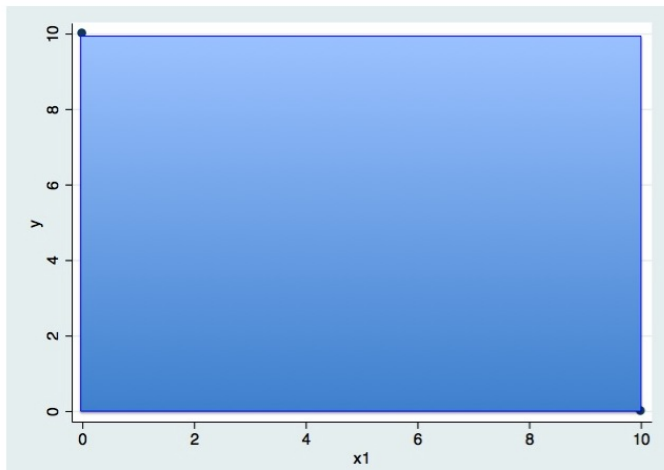
$$y = \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} x_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix}$$

```
reg y x1, noc
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	0	1	0	Number of obs =	2	
Residual	100	1	100	F(1, 1) =	0.00	
Total	100	2	50	Prob > F =	1.0000	
				R-squared =	0.0000	
				Adj R-squared =	-1.0000	
				Root MSE =	10	

	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
x1	0	1	0.00	1.000	-12.7062	12.7062

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