

# Week 6: Linear Regression with Two Regressors

Brandon Stewart<sup>1</sup>

Princeton

October 15, 17, 2018

---

<sup>1</sup>These slides are heavily influenced by Matt Blackwell, Adam Glynn, Jens Hainmueller and Erin Hartman.

# Where We've Been and Where We're Going...

# Where We've Been and Where We're Going...

- Last Week
  - ▶ mechanics of OLS with one variable
  - ▶ properties of OLS

# Where We've Been and Where We're Going...

- Last Week
  - ▶ mechanics of OLS with one variable
  - ▶ properties of OLS
- This Week
  - ▶ Monday:
    - ★ adding a second variable
    - ★ new mechanics
  - ▶ Wednesday:
    - ★ omitted variable bias
    - ★ multicollinearity
    - ★ interactions

# Where We've Been and Where We're Going...

- Last Week
  - ▶ mechanics of OLS with one variable
  - ▶ properties of OLS
- This Week
  - ▶ Monday:
    - ★ adding a second variable
    - ★ new mechanics
  - ▶ Wednesday:
    - ★ omitted variable bias
    - ★ multicollinearity
    - ★ interactions
- Next Week
  - ▶ multiple regression
- Long Run
  - ▶ probability → inference → regression → causal inference

Questions?

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

# Why Do We Want More Than One Predictor?



# Why Do We Want More Than One Predictor?

- Summarize more information for descriptive inference

# Why Do We Want More Than One Predictor?

- Summarize more information for descriptive inference
- Improve the fit and predictive power of our model

# Why Do We Want More Than One Predictor?

- Summarize more information for descriptive inference
- Improve the fit and predictive power of our model
- Control for confounding factors for causal inference

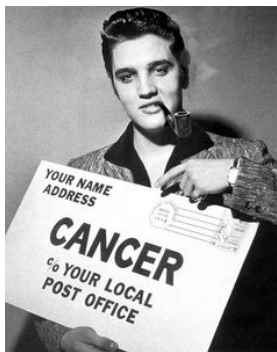
# Why Do We Want More Than One Predictor?

- Summarize more information for descriptive inference
- Improve the fit and predictive power of our model
- Control for confounding factors for causal inference
- Model non-linearities (e.g.  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2$ )

# Why Do We Want More Than One Predictor?

- Summarize more information for descriptive inference
- Improve the fit and predictive power of our model
- Control for confounding factors for causal inference
- Model non-linearities (e.g.  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2$ )
- Model interactive effects (e.g.  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 X_2$ )

## Example 1: Cigarette Smokers and Pipe Smokers



# Example 1: Cigarette Smokers and Pipe Smokers

## Example 1: Cigarette Smokers and Pipe Smokers

Consider the following example from Cochran (1968). We have a random sample of 20,000 smokers and run a regression using:

- $Y$ : Deaths per 1,000 Person-Years.



## Example 1: Cigarette Smokers and Pipe Smokers

Consider the following example from Cochran (1968). We have a random sample of 20,000 smokers and run a regression using:

- $Y$ : Deaths per 1,000 Person-Years.
- $X_1$ : 0 if person is pipe smoker; 1 if person is cigarette smoker

## Example 1: Cigarette Smokers and Pipe Smokers

Consider the following example from Cochran (1968). We have a random sample of 20,000 smokers and run a regression using:

- $Y$ : Deaths per 1,000 Person-Years.
- $X_1$ : 0 if person is pipe smoker; 1 if person is cigarette smoker

We fit the regression and find:

$$\widehat{\text{Death Rate}} = 17 - 4 \text{ Cigarette Smoker}$$

## Example 1: Cigarette Smokers and Pipe Smokers

Consider the following example from Cochran (1968). We have a random sample of 20,000 smokers and run a regression using:

- $Y$ : Deaths per 1,000 Person-Years.
- $X_1$ : 0 if person is pipe smoker; 1 if person is cigarette smoker

We fit the regression and find:

$$\widehat{\text{Death Rate}} = 17 - 4 \text{ Cigarette Smoker}$$

What do we conclude?

## Example 1: Cigarette Smokers and Pipe Smokers

Consider the following example from Cochran (1968). We have a random sample of 20,000 smokers and run a regression using:

- $Y$ : Deaths per 1,000 Person-Years.
- $X_1$ : 0 if person is pipe smoker; 1 if person is cigarette smoker

We fit the regression and find:

$$\widehat{\text{Death Rate}} = 17 - 4 \text{ Cigarette Smoker}$$

What do we conclude?

- The average death rate is 17 deaths per 1,000 person-years for pipe smokers and 13 ( $17 - 4$ ) for cigarette smokers.

## Example 1: Cigarette Smokers and Pipe Smokers

Consider the following example from Cochran (1968). We have a random sample of 20,000 smokers and run a regression using:

- $Y$ : Deaths per 1,000 Person-Years.
- $X_1$ : 0 if person is pipe smoker; 1 if person is cigarette smoker

We fit the regression and find:

$$\widehat{\text{Death Rate}} = 17 - 4 \text{ Cigarette Smoker}$$

What do we conclude?

- The average death rate is 17 deaths per 1,000 person-years for pipe smokers and 13 ( $17 - 4$ ) for cigarette smokers.
- So cigarette smoking appears to lower the death rate by 4 deaths per 1,000 person years (relative to pipe smoking).

## Example 1: Cigarette Smokers and Pipe Smokers

Consider the following example from Cochran (1968). We have a random sample of 20,000 smokers and run a regression using:

- $Y$ : Deaths per 1,000 Person-Years.
- $X_1$ : 0 if person is pipe smoker; 1 if person is cigarette smoker

We fit the regression and find:

$$\widehat{\text{Death Rate}} = 17 - 4 \text{ Cigarette Smoker}$$

What do we conclude?

- The average death rate is 17 deaths per 1,000 person-years for pipe smokers and 13 ( $17 - 4$ ) for cigarette smokers.
- So cigarette smoking appears to lower the death rate by 4 deaths per 1,000 person years (relative to pipe smoking).

When we “control” for age (in years) we find:

## Example 1: Cigarette Smokers and Pipe Smokers

Consider the following example from Cochran (1968). We have a random sample of 20,000 smokers and run a regression using:

- $Y$ : Deaths per 1,000 Person-Years.
- $X_1$ : 0 if person is pipe smoker; 1 if person is cigarette smoker

We fit the regression and find:

$$\widehat{\text{Death Rate}} = 17 - 4 \text{ Cigarette Smoker}$$

What do we conclude?

- The average death rate is 17 deaths per 1,000 person-years for pipe smokers and 13 ( $17 - 4$ ) for cigarette smokers.
- So cigarette smoking appears to lower the death rate by 4 deaths per 1,000 person years (relative to pipe smoking).

When we “control” for age (in years) we find:

$$\widehat{\text{Death Rate}} = 14 + 4 \text{ Cigarette Smoker} + 10 \text{ Age}$$

## Example 1: Cigarette Smokers and Pipe Smokers

Consider the following example from Cochran (1968). We have a random sample of 20,000 smokers and run a regression using:

- $Y$ : Deaths per 1,000 Person-Years.
- $X_1$ : 0 if person is pipe smoker; 1 if person is cigarette smoker

We fit the regression and find:

$$\widehat{\text{Death Rate}} = 17 - 4 \text{ Cigarette Smoker}$$

What do we conclude?

- The average death rate is 17 deaths per 1,000 person-years for pipe smokers and 13 ( $17 - 4$ ) for cigarette smokers.
- So cigarette smoking appears to lower the death rate by 4 deaths per 1,000 person years (relative to pipe smoking).

When we “control” for age (in years) we find:

$$\widehat{\text{Death Rate}} = 14 + 4 \text{ Cigarette Smoker} + 10 \text{ Age}$$

Why did the sign switch?



## Example 1: Cigarette Smokers and Pipe Smokers

Consider the following example from Cochran (1968). We have a random sample of 20,000 smokers and run a regression using:

- $Y$ : Deaths per 1,000 Person-Years.
- $X_1$ : 0 if person is pipe smoker; 1 if person is cigarette smoker

We fit the regression and find:

$$\widehat{\text{Death Rate}} = 17 - 4 \text{ Cigarette Smoker}$$

What do we conclude?

- The average death rate is 17 deaths per 1,000 person-years for pipe smokers and 13 ( $17 - 4$ ) for cigarette smokers.
- So cigarette smoking appears to lower the death rate by 4 deaths per 1,000 person years (relative to pipe smoking).

When we “control” for age (in years) we find:

$$\widehat{\text{Death Rate}} = 14 + 4 \text{ Cigarette Smoker} + 10 \text{ Age}$$

Why did the sign switch? Which estimate is more useful?

## Example 2: Berkeley Graduate Admissions



## Example 2: Berkeley Graduate Admissions

## Example 2: Berkeley Graduate Admissions

- Graduate admissions data from Berkeley, 1973

## Example 2: Berkeley Graduate Admissions

- Graduate admissions data from Berkeley, 1973
- Acceptance rates:

## Example 2: Berkeley Graduate Admissions

- Graduate admissions data from Berkeley, 1973
- Acceptance rates:
  - ▶ Men: 8442 applicants, 44% admission rate

## Example 2: Berkeley Graduate Admissions

- Graduate admissions data from Berkeley, 1973
- Acceptance rates:
  - ▶ Men: 8442 applicants, 44% admission rate
  - ▶ Women: 4321 applicants, 35% admission rate

## Example 2: Berkeley Graduate Admissions

- Graduate admissions data from Berkeley, 1973
- Acceptance rates:
  - ▶ Men: 8442 applicants, 44% admission rate
  - ▶ Women: 4321 applicants, 35% admission rate
- Evidence of discrimination toward women in admissions?



## Example 2: Berkeley Graduate Admissions

- Graduate admissions data from Berkeley, 1973
- Acceptance rates:
  - ▶ Men: 8442 applicants, 44% admission rate
  - ▶ Women: 4321 applicants, 35% admission rate
- Evidence of discrimination toward women in admissions?
- This is a **marginal relationship**

## Example 2: Berkeley Graduate Admissions

- Graduate admissions data from Berkeley, 1973
- Acceptance rates:
  - ▶ Men: 8442 applicants, 44% admission rate
  - ▶ Women: 4321 applicants, 35% admission rate
- Evidence of discrimination toward women in admissions?
- This is a **marginal relationship**
- What about the **conditional relationship** within departments?

# Berkeley gender bias?

- Within departments:

Dept	Men		Women	
	Applied	Admitted	Applied	Admitted
A	825	62%	108	82%

# Berkeley gender bias?

- Within departments:

Dept	Men		Women	
	Applied	Admitted	Applied	Admitted
A	825	62%	108	82%

# Berkeley gender bias?

- Within departments:

Dept	Men		Women	
	Applied	Admitted	Applied	Admitted
A	825	62%	108	82%
B	560	63%	25	68%

# Berkeley gender bias?

- Within departments:

Dept	Men		Women	
	Applied	Admitted	Applied	Admitted
A	825	62%	108	82%
B	560	63%	25	68%
C	325	37%	593	34%

# Berkeley gender bias?

- Within departments:

Dept	Men		Women	
	Applied	Admitted	Applied	Admitted
A	825	62%	108	82%
B	560	63%	25	68%
C	325	37%	593	34%
D	417	33%	375	35%
E	191	28%	393	24%
F	373	6%	341	7%

## Berkeley gender bias?

- Within departments:

Dept	Men		Women	
	Applied	Admitted	Applied	Admitted
A	825	62%	108	82%
B	560	63%	25	68%
C	325	37%	593	34%
D	417	33%	375	35%
E	191	28%	393	24%
F	373	6%	341	7%

- Within departments, women do somewhat better than men!



## Berkeley gender bias?

- Within departments:

Dept	Men		Women	
	Applied	Admitted	Applied	Admitted
A	825	62%	108	82%
B	560	63%	25	68%
C	325	37%	593	34%
D	417	33%	375	35%
E	191	28%	393	24%
F	373	6%	341	7%

- Within departments, women do somewhat better than men!
- How? Overall admission rates are lower for the departments women apply to.

## Berkeley gender bias?

- Within departments:

Dept	Men		Women	
	Applied	Admitted	Applied	Admitted
A	825	62%	108	82%
B	560	63%	25	68%
C	325	37%	593	34%
D	417	33%	375	35%
E	191	28%	393	24%
F	373	6%	341	7%

- Within departments, women do somewhat better than men!
- How? Overall admission rates are lower for the departments women apply to.
- Marginal relationships (admissions and gender)  $\neq$  conditional relationship given third variable (department)

## Sex Bias in Graduate Admissions: Data from Berkeley

Measuring bias is harder than is usually assumed,  
and the evidence is sometimes contrary to expectation.

P. J. Bickel, E. A. Hammel, J. W. O'Connell

Determining whether discrimination because of sex or ethnic identity is being practiced against persons seeking passage from one social status or locus to another is an important problem in our society today. It is legally important and morally important. It is also often quite difficult. This article is an exploration of some of the issues of measurement and assessment involved in one example of the general problem, by means of which we hope to shed some light on the difficulties. We

deceision to admit or to deny admission. The question we wish to pursue is whether the decision to admit or to deny was influenced by the sex of the applicant. We cannot know with any certainty the influences on the evaluators in the Graduate Admissions Office, or on the faculty reviewing committees, or on any other administrative personnel participating in the chain of actions that led to a decision on an individual application. We can, however, say that if the admissions decision and the sex

by using a familiar statistic, chi-square. As already noted, we are aware of the pitfalls ahead in this naive approach, but we intend to stumble into every one of them for didactic reasons.

We must first make clear two assumptions that underlie consideration of the data in this contingency table approach. Assumption 1 is that in any given discipline male and female applicants do not differ in respect of their intelligence, skill, qualifications, promise, or other attribute deemed legitimately pertinent to their acceptance as students. It is precisely this assumption that makes the study of "sex bias" meaningful, for if we did not hold it any differences in acceptance of applicants by sex could be attributed to differences in their qualifications, promise as scholars, and so on. Theoretically one could test the assumption, for example, by examining presumably unbiased estimators of academic qualification such as Graduate Record Examination scores, undergraduate grade point averages, and so on. There are, however, enormous practical difficulties in this. We therefore predicate our discussion on the validity of assumption 1.

Bickel, Peter J., Eugene A. Hammel, and J. William O'Connell. "Sex bias in graduate admissions: Data from Berkeley." *Science* 187, no. 4175 (1975): 398-404.

# Berkeley gender bias?

## Berkeley gender bias?

*'If prejudicial treatment is to be minimized, it must first be located accurately.'*

## Berkeley gender bias?

*'If prejudicial treatment is to be minimized, it must first be **located accurately**. We have shown that it is not characteristic of the graduate admissions process here examined. . .*

## Berkeley gender bias?

*'If prejudicial treatment is to be minimized, it must first be located accurately. We have shown that it is not characteristic of the graduate admissions process here examined. . . The bias in the aggregated data stems not from any pattern of discrimination on the part of admissions committees, which seem quite fair on the whole,*

## Berkeley gender bias?

*'If prejudicial treatment is to be minimized, it must first be **located accurately**. We have shown that it is not characteristic of the graduate admissions process here examined. . . The bias in the aggregated data stems **not from any pattern of discrimination on the part of admissions committees**, which seem quite fair on the whole, but apparently from **prior screening** at earlier levels of the educational system.*



## Berkeley gender bias?

*'If prejudicial treatment is to be minimized, it must first be located accurately. We have shown that it is not characteristic of the graduate admissions process here examined. . . The bias in the aggregated data stems not from any pattern of discrimination on the part of admissions committees, which seem quite fair on the whole, but apparently from prior screening at earlier levels of the educational system. Women are shunted by their socialization and education toward fields of graduate study that are generally more crowded, less productive of completed degrees, and less well funded, and that frequently offer poorer professional employment prospects.'* (Bickel et al 1975, 403, emphasis mine)

## Berkeley gender bias?

*'If prejudicial treatment is to be minimized, it must first be **located accurately**. We have shown that it is not characteristic of the graduate admissions process here examined. . . The bias in the aggregated data stems **not from any pattern of discrimination on the part of admissions committees**, which seem quite fair on the whole, but apparently from **prior screening** at earlier levels of the educational system. Women are shunted by their socialization and education toward fields of graduate study that are generally more crowded, less productive of completed degrees, and less well funded, and that frequently offer poorer professional employment prospects.'* (Bickel et al 1975, 403, emphasis mine)



## Berkeley gender bias? (a short digression)

## Berkeley gender bias? (a short digression)

- Today we are covering the mechanics of how we get these results, but there is an important leap to their **meaning** for a particular policy argument.

## Berkeley gender bias? (a short digression)

- Today we are covering the mechanics of how we get these results, but there is an important leap to their **meaning** for a particular policy argument.
- Bickel et al conclude that there is **no evidence of gender bias** at the admissions committee level.

## Berkeley gender bias? (a short digression)

- Today we are covering the mechanics of how we get these results, but there is an important leap to their **meaning** for a particular policy argument.
- Bickel et al conclude that there is **no evidence of gender bias** at the admissions committee level.
- Key assumption: admits are **equally qualified**.

## Berkeley gender bias? (a short digression)

- Today we are covering the mechanics of how we get these results, but there is an important leap to their **meaning** for a particular policy argument.
- Bickel et al conclude that there is **no evidence of gender bias** at the admissions committee level.
- Key assumption: admits are **equally qualified**.
- If the women are **stronger** admits (because e.g. a pattern of sexist behavior imposes a high barrier for women to even consider graduate school), we should expect them to be admitted at **better than equal** rates as men in a discrimination-free environment.

## Berkeley gender bias? (a short digression)

- Today we are covering the mechanics of how we get these results, but there is an important leap to their **meaning** for a particular policy argument.
- Bickel et al conclude that there is **no evidence of gender bias** at the admissions committee level.
- Key assumption: admits are **equally qualified**.
- If the women are **stronger** admits (because e.g. a pattern of sexist behavior imposes a high barrier for women to even consider graduate school), we should expect them to be admitted at **better than equal** rates as men in a discrimination-free environment.
- Two general takeaways:



## Berkeley gender bias? (a short digression)

- Today we are covering the mechanics of how we get these results, but there is an important leap to their **meaning** for a particular policy argument.
- Bickel et al conclude that there is **no evidence of gender bias** at the admissions committee level.
- Key assumption: admits are **equally qualified**.
- If the women are **stronger** admits (because e.g. a pattern of sexist behavior imposes a high barrier for women to even consider graduate school), we should expect them to be admitted at **better than equal** rates as men in a discrimination-free environment.
- Two general takeaways:
  - ① interpreting results requires **assumptions** about the world

## Berkeley gender bias? (a short digression)

- Today we are covering the mechanics of how we get these results, but there is an important leap to their **meaning** for a particular policy argument.
- Bickel et al conclude that there is **no evidence of gender bias** at the admissions committee level.
- Key assumption: admits are **equally qualified**.
- If the women are **stronger** admits (because e.g. a pattern of sexist behavior imposes a high barrier for women to even consider graduate school), we should expect them to be admitted at **better than equal** rates as men in a discrimination-free environment.
- Two general takeaways:
  - ① interpreting results requires **assumptions** about the world
  - ② the story of how people **select** into the group we are studying is important.

## Berkeley gender bias? (a short digression)

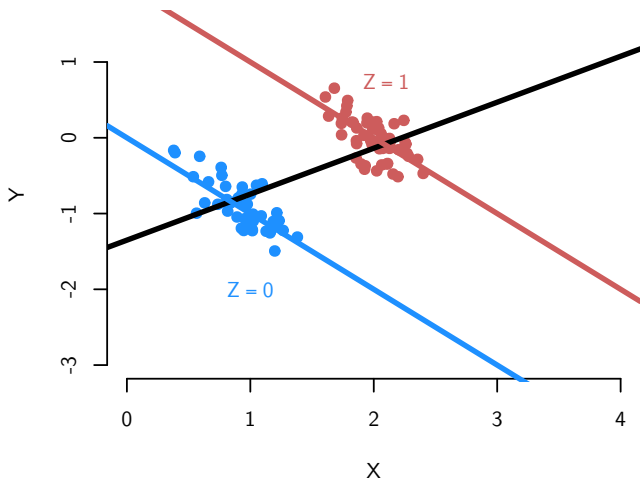
- Today we are covering the mechanics of how we get these results, but there is an important leap to their **meaning** for a particular policy argument.
- Bickel et al conclude that there is **no evidence of gender bias** at the admissions committee level.
- Key assumption: admits are **equally qualified**.
- If the women are **stronger** admits (because e.g. a pattern of sexist behavior imposes a high barrier for women to even consider graduate school), we should expect them to be admitted at **better than equal** rates as men in a discrimination-free environment.
- Two general takeaways:
  - ① interpreting results requires **assumptions** about the world
  - ② the story of how people **select** into the group we are studying is important.
- This general pattern repeats in **many** debates, often because of the limits of data collection.

## Simpson's paradox

The smoking and gender bias patterns are instances of **Simpson's Paradox**.

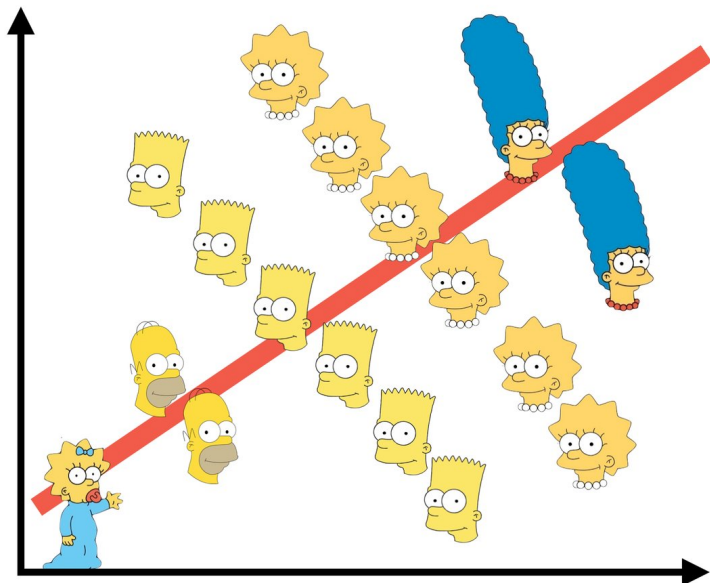
## Simpson's paradox

The smoking and gender bias patterns are instances of **Simpson's Paradox**.



Core idea: a relationship in one direction between  $Y_i$  and  $X_i$  but the opposite relationship within strata defined by  $Z_i$ .

# Simpson's paradox



# Simpson's paradox

# Simpson's paradox

- Simpson's paradox arises in many contexts- particularly where there is **selection** on ability



# Simpson's paradox

- Simpson's paradox arises in many contexts- particularly where there is **selection** on ability
- It is a particular problem in medical or demographic contexts, e.g. kidney stones, low-birth weight paradox.

# Simpson's paradox

- Simpson's paradox arises in many contexts- particularly where there is **selection** on ability
- It is a particular problem in medical or demographic contexts, e.g. kidney stones, low-birth weight paradox.
- It isn't clear that one version (the marginal or conditional) is necessarily the **right** way to examine the data. They just have different **meanings**.

# Simpson's paradox

- Simpson's paradox arises in many contexts- particularly where there is **selection** on ability
- It is a particular problem in medical or demographic contexts, e.g. kidney stones, low-birth weight paradox.
- It isn't clear that one version (the marginal or conditional) is necessarily the **right** way to examine the data. They just have different **meanings**.
- In my opinion, this is often an issue of not being clear what we want.

# Simpson's paradox

- Simpson's paradox arises in many contexts- particularly where there is **selection** on ability
- It is a particular problem in medical or demographic contexts, e.g. kidney stones, low-birth weight paradox.
- It isn't clear that one version (the marginal or conditional) is necessarily the **right** way to examine the data. They just have different **meanings**.
- In my opinion, this is often an issue of not being clear what we want.

Instance of a more general problem called the **ecological inference fallacy**

# Basic idea of Two Variable Regressions

- Old goal: estimate the mean of  $Y$  as a function of one independent variable,  $X$ :

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_i|X_i]$$

## Basic idea of Two Variable Regressions

- Old goal: estimate the mean of  $Y$  as a function of one independent variable,  $X$ :

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_i|X_i]$$

- For continuous  $X$ 's, we modeled the CEF/regression function with a line:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i$$

## Basic idea of Two Variable Regressions

- Old goal: estimate the mean of  $Y$  as a function of one independent variable,  $X$ :

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_i|X_i]$$

- For continuous  $X$ 's, we modeled the CEF/regression function with a line:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i$$

- New goal: estimate the relationship of two variables,  $Y_i$  and  $X_i$ , conditional on a third variable,  $Z_i$ :

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

## Basic idea of Two Variable Regressions

- Old goal: estimate the mean of  $Y$  as a function of one independent variable,  $X$ :

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_i|X_i]$$

- For continuous  $X$ 's, we modeled the CEF/regression function with a line:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i$$

- New goal: estimate the relationship of two variables,  $Y_i$  and  $X_i$ , conditional on a third variable,  $Z_i$ :

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- $\beta$ 's are the population parameters we want to estimate



# Why control for another variable

- Descriptive

# Why control for another variable

- Descriptive
  - ▶ get a sense for the relationships in the data.

# Why control for another variable

- Descriptive
  - ▶ get a sense for the relationships in the data.
  - ▶ describe more precisely our quantity of interest

# Why control for another variable

- Descriptive
  - ▶ get a sense for the relationships in the data.
  - ▶ describe more precisely our quantity of interest
- Predictive

# Why control for another variable

- Descriptive
  - ▶ get a sense for the relationships in the data.
  - ▶ describe more precisely our quantity of interest
- Predictive
  - ▶ We can usually make better predictions about the dependent variable with more information on independent variables.

# Why control for another variable

- Descriptive
  - ▶ get a sense for the relationships in the data.
  - ▶ describe more precisely our quantity of interest
- Predictive
  - ▶ We can usually make better predictions about the dependent variable with more information on independent variables.
- Causal

# Why control for another variable

- Descriptive
  - ▶ get a sense for the relationships in the data.
  - ▶ describe more precisely our quantity of interest
- Predictive
  - ▶ We can usually make better predictions about the dependent variable with more information on independent variables.
- Causal
  - ▶ Block potential **confounding**, which is when  $X$  doesn't cause  $Y$ , but only appears to because a third variable  $Z$  causally affects both of them.

# Why control for another variable

- Descriptive

- ▶ get a sense for the relationships in the data.
- ▶ describe more precisely our quantity of interest

- Predictive

- ▶ We can usually make better predictions about the dependent variable with more information on independent variables.

- Causal

- ▶ Block potential **confounding**, which is when  $X$  doesn't cause  $Y$ , but only appears to because a third variable  $Z$  causally affects both of them.
- ▶  $X_i$ : ice cream sales on day  $i$



# Why control for another variable

- Descriptive

- ▶ get a sense for the relationships in the data.
- ▶ describe more precisely our quantity of interest

- Predictive

- ▶ We can usually make better predictions about the dependent variable with more information on independent variables.

- Causal

- ▶ Block potential **confounding**, which is when  $X$  doesn't cause  $Y$ , but only appears to because a third variable  $Z$  causally affects both of them.
- ▶  $X_i$ : ice cream sales on day  $i$
- ▶  $Y_i$ : drowning deaths on day  $i$

# Why control for another variable

- Descriptive

- ▶ get a sense for the relationships in the data.
- ▶ describe more precisely our quantity of interest

- Predictive

- ▶ We can usually make better predictions about the dependent variable with more information on independent variables.

- Causal

- ▶ Block potential **confounding**, which is when  $X$  doesn't cause  $Y$ , but only appears to because a third variable  $Z$  causally affects both of them.
- ▶  $X_i$ : ice cream sales on day  $i$
- ▶  $Y_i$ : drowning deaths on day  $i$
- ▶  $Z_i$ : ??

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable**
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

## Regression with Two Explanatory Variables

Example: data from Fish (2002) “Islam and Authoritarianism.” *World Politics*. 55: 4-37. Data from 157 countries.

## Regression with Two Explanatory Variables

Example: data from Fish (2002) “Islam and Authoritarianism.” *World Politics*. 55: 4-37. Data from 157 countries.

- Variables of interest:
  - ▶ Y: Level of democracy, measured as the 10-year average of Freedom House ratings

## Regression with Two Explanatory Variables

Example: data from Fish (2002) “Islam and Authoritarianism.” *World Politics*. 55: 4-37. Data from 157 countries.

- Variables of interest:
  - ▶  $Y$ : Level of democracy, measured as the 10-year average of Freedom House ratings
  - ▶  $X_1$ : Country income, measured as  $\log(\text{GDP per capita in } \$1000\text{s})$

## Regression with Two Explanatory Variables

Example: data from Fish (2002) “Islam and Authoritarianism.” *World Politics*. 55: 4-37. Data from 157 countries.

- Variables of interest:
  - ▶  $Y$ : Level of democracy, measured as the 10-year average of Freedom House ratings
  - ▶  $X_1$ : Country income, measured as  $\log(\text{GDP per capita in } \$1000\text{s})$
  - ▶  $X_2$ : Ethnic heterogeneity (continuous) or British colonial heritage (binary)



## Regression with Two Explanatory Variables

Example: data from Fish (2002) “Islam and Authoritarianism.” *World Politics*. 55: 4-37. Data from 157 countries.

- Variables of interest:
  - ▶  $Y$ : Level of democracy, measured as the 10-year average of Freedom House ratings
  - ▶  $X_1$ : Country income, measured as  $\log(\text{GDP per capita in } \$1000\text{s})$
  - ▶  $X_2$ : Ethnic heterogeneity (continuous) or British colonial heritage (binary)
- With one predictor we ask: Does income ( $X_1$ ) predict or explain the level of democracy ( $Y$ )?

## Regression with Two Explanatory Variables

Example: data from Fish (2002) “Islam and Authoritarianism.” *World Politics*. 55: 4-37. Data from 157 countries.

- Variables of interest:
  - ▶  $Y$ : Level of democracy, measured as the 10-year average of Freedom House ratings
  - ▶  $X_1$ : Country income, measured as  $\log(\text{GDP per capita in } \$1000\text{s})$
  - ▶  $X_2$ : Ethnic heterogeneity (continuous) or British colonial heritage (binary)
- With one predictor we ask: Does income ( $X_1$ ) predict or explain the level of democracy ( $Y$ )?

## Regression with Two Explanatory Variables

Example: data from Fish (2002) “Islam and Authoritarianism.” *World Politics*. 55: 4-37. Data from 157 countries.

- Variables of interest:
  - ▶  $Y$ : Level of democracy, measured as the 10-year average of Freedom House ratings
  - ▶  $X_1$ : Country income, measured as  $\log(\text{GDP per capita in } \$1000\text{s})$
  - ▶  $X_2$ : Ethnic heterogeneity (continuous) or British colonial heritage (binary)
- With one predictor we ask: Does income ( $X_1$ ) predict or explain the level of democracy ( $Y$ )?
- With two predictors we ask questions like: Does income ( $X_1$ ) predict or explain the level of democracy ( $Y$ ), once we “control” for ethnic heterogeneity or British colonial heritage ( $X_2$ )?

## Regression with Two Explanatory Variables

Example: data from Fish (2002) “Islam and Authoritarianism.” *World Politics*. 55: 4-37. Data from 157 countries.

- Variables of interest:
  - ▶  $Y$ : Level of democracy, measured as the 10-year average of Freedom House ratings
  - ▶  $X_1$ : Country income, measured as  $\log(\text{GDP per capita in } \$1000\text{s})$
  - ▶  $X_2$ : Ethnic heterogeneity (continuous) or British colonial heritage (binary)
- With one predictor we ask: Does income ( $X_1$ ) predict or explain the level of democracy ( $Y$ )?
- With two predictors we ask questions like: Does income ( $X_1$ ) predict or explain the level of democracy ( $Y$ ), once we “control” for ethnic heterogeneity or British colonial heritage ( $X_2$ )?
- The rest of this lecture is designed to explain what is meant by “controlling for another variable” with linear regression.

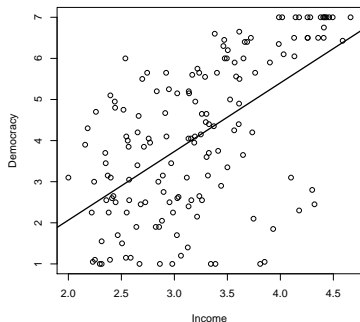
# Simple Regression of Democracy on Income

# Simple Regression of Democracy on Income

- Let's look at the bivariate regression of Democracy on Income:

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$$

$$\widehat{Demo} = -1.26 + 1.6 \text{Log}(GDP)$$

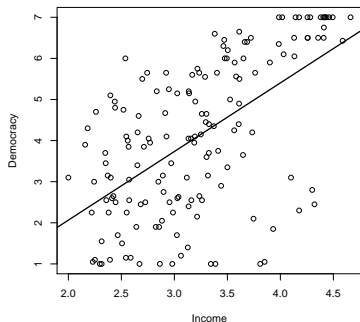


# Simple Regression of Democracy on Income

- Let's look at the bivariate regression of Democracy on Income:

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$$

$$\widehat{Demo} = -1.26 + 1.6 \text{Log}(GDP)$$



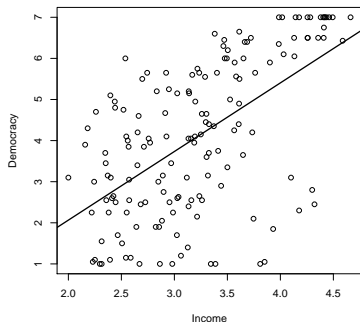
Interpretation:

# Simple Regression of Democracy on Income

- Let's look at the bivariate regression of Democracy on Income:

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$$

$$\widehat{Demo} = -1.26 + 1.6 \text{Log}(GDP)$$

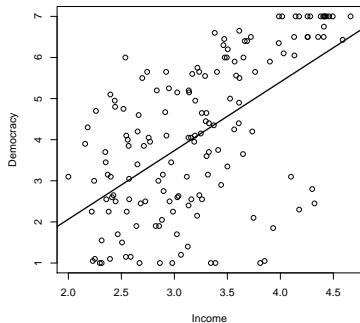


Interpretation: A one percent increase in GDP increases our prediction of democracy by .016.



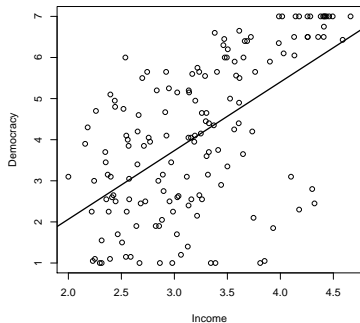
# Simple Regression of Democracy on Income

- But we can use more information in our prediction equation.



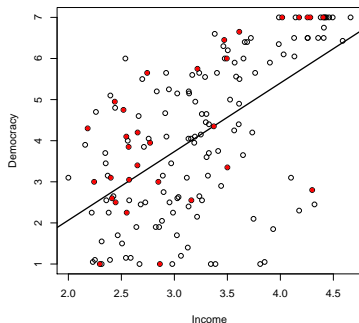
# Simple Regression of Democracy on Income

- But we can use more information in our prediction equation.
- For example, some countries were originally British colonies and others were not:



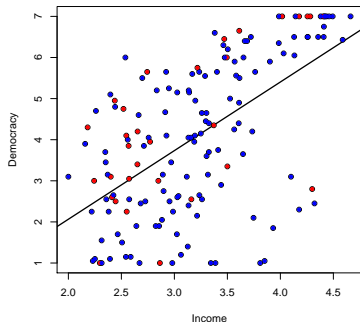
# Simple Regression of Democracy on Income

- But we can use more information in our prediction equation.
- For example, some countries were originally British colonies and others were not:
  - ▶ Former British colonies tend to have higher levels of democracy



# Simple Regression of Democracy on Income

- But we can use more information in our prediction equation.
- For example, some countries were originally British colonies and others were not:
  - ▶ Former British colonies tend to have higher levels of democracy
  - ▶ Non-colony countries tend to have lower levels of democracy



# Adding a Covariate

## Adding a Covariate

How do we do this? We can generalize the prediction equation:

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 x_{2i}$$

This implies that we want to predict  $y$  using the information we have about  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , and we are assuming a linear functional form.

## Adding a Covariate

How do we do this? We can generalize the prediction equation:

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 x_{2i}$$

This implies that we want to predict  $y$  using the information we have about  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , and we are assuming a linear functional form.

Notice that now we write  $X_{ji}$  where:

- $j = 1, \dots, k$  is the index for the explanatory variables

## Adding a Covariate

How do we do this? We can generalize the prediction equation:

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 x_{2i}$$

This implies that we want to predict  $y$  using the information we have about  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , and we are assuming a linear functional form.

Notice that now we write  $X_{ji}$  where:

- $j = 1, \dots, k$  is the index for the explanatory variables
- $i = 1, \dots, n$  is the index for the observation



## Adding a Covariate

How do we do this? We can generalize the prediction equation:

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 x_{2i}$$

This implies that we want to predict  $y$  using the information we have about  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , and we are assuming a linear functional form.

Notice that now we write  $X_{ji}$  where:

- $j = 1, \dots, k$  is the index for the explanatory variables
- $i = 1, \dots, n$  is the index for the observation
- we often omit  $i$  to avoid clutter

## Adding a Covariate

How do we do this? We can generalize the prediction equation:

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 x_{2i}$$

This implies that we want to predict  $y$  using the information we have about  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , and we are assuming a linear functional form.

Notice that now we write  $X_{ji}$  where:

- $j = 1, \dots, k$  is the index for the explanatory variables
- $i = 1, \dots, n$  is the index for the observation
- we often omit  $i$  to avoid clutter

In words:

$$\widehat{Democracy} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \text{Log}(GDP) + \hat{\beta}_2 \text{Colony}$$

# Interpreting a Binary Covariate

## Interpreting a Binary Covariate

Assume  $X_{2i}$  indicates whether country  $i$  used to be a British colony.

When  $X_2 = 0$ , the model becomes:

## Interpreting a Binary Covariate

Assume  $X_{2i}$  indicates whether country  $i$  used to be a British colony.

When  $X_2 = 0$ , the model becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y} &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 0 \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1\end{aligned}$$

## Interpreting a Binary Covariate

Assume  $X_{2i}$  indicates whether country  $i$  used to be a British colony.

When  $X_2 = 0$ , the model becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y} &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 0 \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1\end{aligned}$$

When  $X_2 = 1$ , the model becomes:

## Interpreting a Binary Covariate

Assume  $X_{2i}$  indicates whether country  $i$  used to be a British colony.

When  $X_2 = 0$ , the model becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y} &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 0 \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1\end{aligned}$$

When  $X_2 = 1$ , the model becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y} &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 1 \\ &= (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2) + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1\end{aligned}$$

What does this mean?

## Interpreting a Binary Covariate

Assume  $X_{2i}$  indicates whether country  $i$  used to be a British colony.

When  $X_2 = 0$ , the model becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y} &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 0 \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1\end{aligned}$$

When  $X_2 = 1$ , the model becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y} &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 1 \\ &= (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2) + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1\end{aligned}$$

What does this mean? We are fitting two lines with the **same slope** but **different intercepts**.



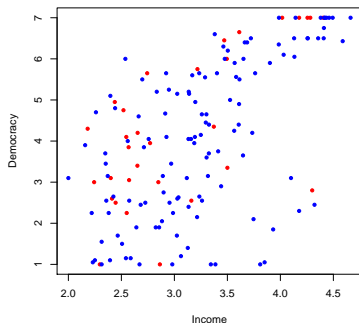
# Regression of Democracy on Income

From R, we obtain estimates

$\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2$ :

Coefficients:

	Estimate
(Intercept)	-1.5060
GDP90LGN	1.7059
BRITCOL	0.5881



# Regression of Democracy on Income

From R, we obtain estimates

$\hat{\beta}_0$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_1$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_2$ :

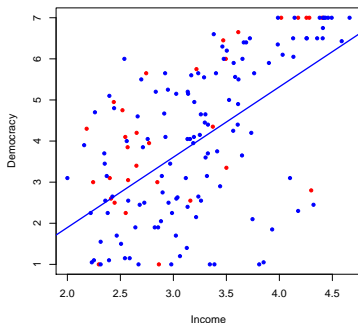
Coefficients:

	Estimate
(Intercept)	-1.5060
GDP90LGN	1.7059
BRITCOL	0.5881

- Non-British colonies:

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1$$

$$\hat{y} = -1.5 + 1.7 x_1$$



# Regression of Democracy on Income

From R, we obtain estimates

$\hat{\beta}_0$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_1$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_2$ :

Coefficients:

	Estimate
(Intercept)	-1.5060
GDP90LGN	1.7059
BRITCOL	0.5881

- Non-British colonies:

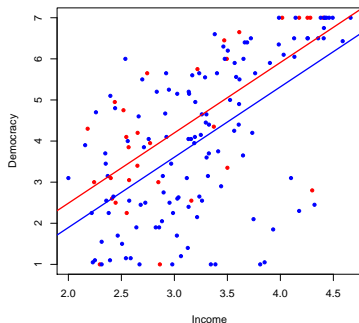
$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1$$

$$\hat{y} = -1.5 + 1.7 x_1$$

- Former British colonies:

$$\hat{y} = (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2) + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1$$

$$\hat{y} = -.92 + 1.7 x_1$$

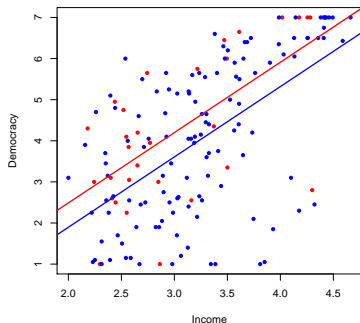


# Regression of Democracy on Income

Our prediction equation is:

$$\hat{y} = -1.5 + 1.7x_1 + .58x_2$$

Where do these quantities appear on the graph?



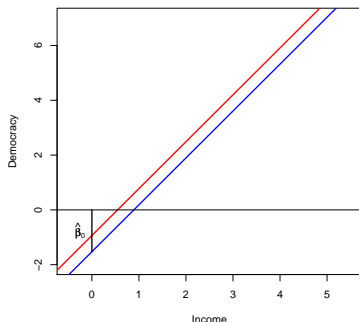
# Regression of Democracy on Income

Our prediction equation is:

$$\hat{y} = -1.5 + 1.7x_1 + .58x_2$$

Where do these quantities appear on the graph?

- $\hat{\beta}_0 = -1.5$  is the intercept for the prediction line for non-British colonies.



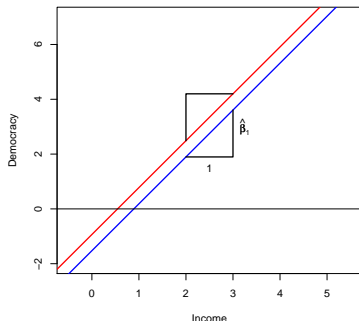
# Regression of Democracy on Income

Our prediction equation is:

$$\hat{y} = -1.5 + 1.7x_1 + .58x_2$$

Where do these quantities appear on the graph?

- $\hat{\beta}_0 = -1.5$  is the intercept for the prediction line for non-British colonies.
- $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.7$  is the slope for both lines.



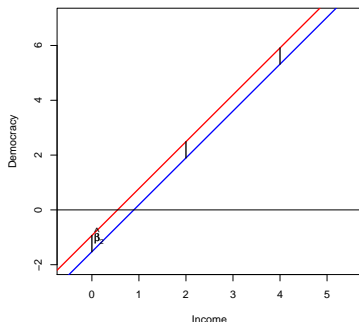
# Regression of Democracy on Income

Our prediction equation is:

$$\hat{y} = -1.5 + 1.7x_1 + .58x_2$$

Where do these quantities appear on the graph?

- $\hat{\beta}_0 = -1.5$  is the intercept for the prediction line for non-British colonies.
- $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.7$  is the slope for both lines.
- $\hat{\beta}_2 = .58$  is the vertical distance between the two lines for Ex-British colonies and non-colonies respectively



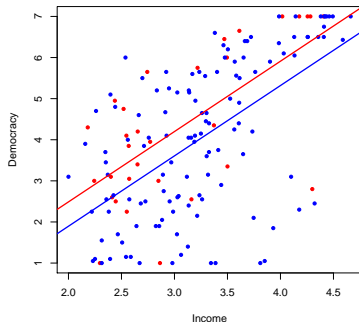
- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions



- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate**
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

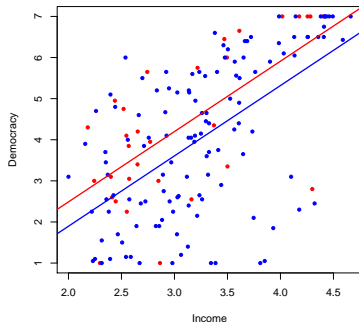
# Fitting a regression plane

- We have considered an example of multiple regression with one **continuous** explanatory variable and one **binary** explanatory variable.



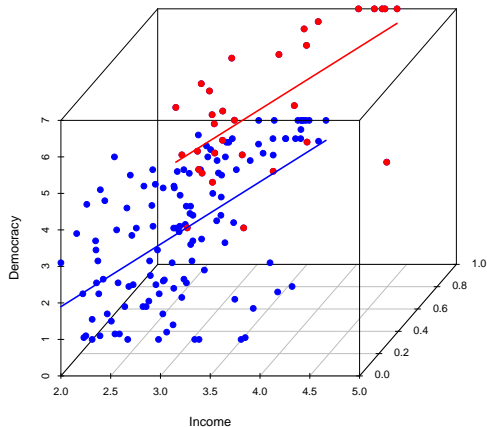
# Fitting a regression plane

- We have considered an example of multiple regression with one **continuous** explanatory variable and one **binary** explanatory variable.
- This is easy to represent graphically in **two dimensions** because we can use colors to distinguish the two groups in the data.



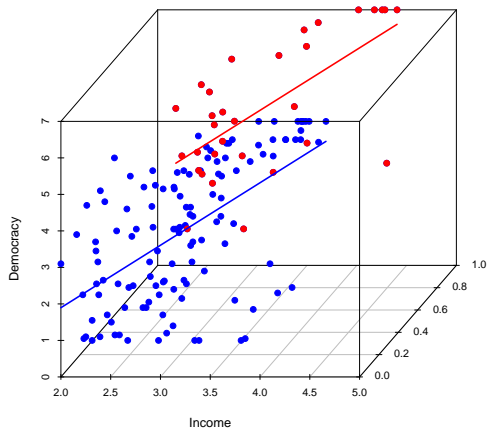
# Regression of Democracy on Income

- These observations are actually located in a **three-dimensional** space.



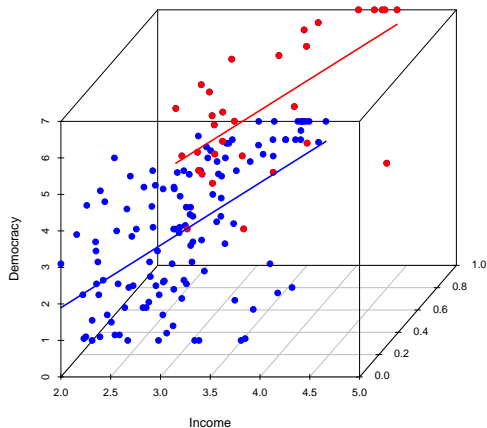
# Regression of Democracy on Income

- These observations are actually located in a **three-dimensional** space.
- We can try to represent this using a **3D scatterplot**.



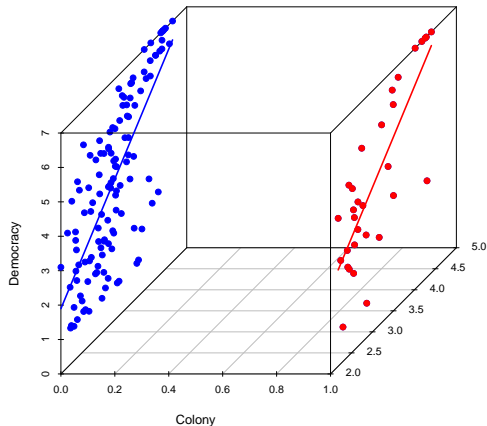
# Regression of Democracy on Income

- These observations are actually located in a **three-dimensional** space.
- We can try to represent this using a **3D scatterplot**.
- In this view, we are looking at the data from the **Income side**; the two regression lines are drawn in the appropriate locations.



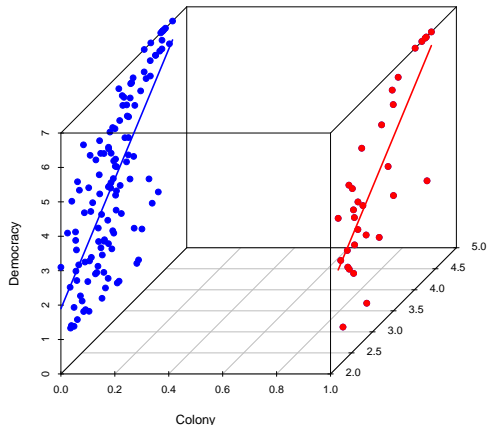
# Regression of Democracy on Income

- We can also look at the 3D scatterplot from the **British colony side**.



# Regression of Democracy on Income

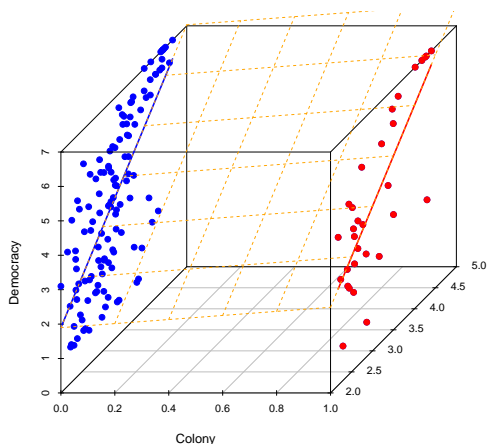
- We can also look at the 3D scatterplot from the **British colony side**.
- While the British colonial status variable is either 0 or 1, there is nothing in the prediction equation that requires this to be the case.





# Regression of Democracy on Income

- We can also look at the 3D scatterplot from the **British colony side**.
- While the British colonial status variable is either 0 or 1, there is nothing in the prediction equation that requires this to be the case.
- In fact, the prediction equation defines a **regression plane** that connects the lines when  $x_2 = 0$  and  $x_2 = 1$ .



## Regression with two continuous variables

- Since we fit a regression plane to the data whenever we have two explanatory variables, it is easy to move to a case with **two continuous** explanatory variables.

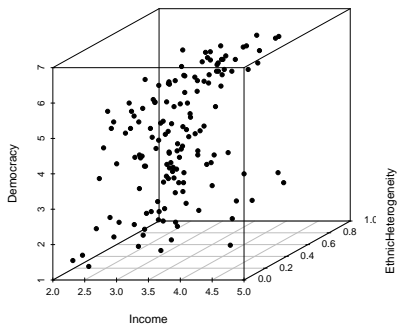
## Regression with two continuous variables

- Since we fit a regression plane to the data whenever we have two explanatory variables, it is easy to move to a case with **two continuous** explanatory variables.
- For example, we might want to use:
  - ▶  $X_1$  Income and  $X_2$  Ethnic Heterogeneity
  - ▶  $Y$  Democracy

$$\widehat{\text{Democracy}} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \text{Income} + \hat{\beta}_2 \text{Ethnic Heterogeneity}$$

# Regression of Democracy on Income

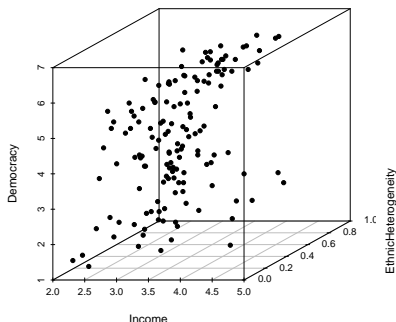
- We can plot the points in a 3D scatterplot.



# Regression of Democracy on Income

- We can plot the points in a 3D scatterplot.
- R returns:
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_0 = -.71$
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.6$  for Income
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_2 = -.6$  for Ethnic Heterogeneity

How does this look graphically?

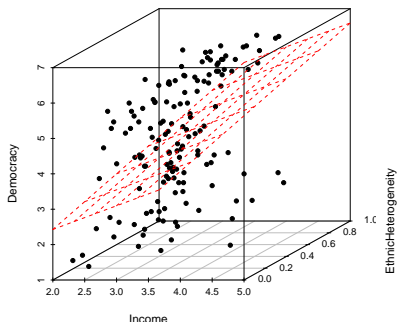


# Regression of Democracy on Income

- We can plot the points in a 3D scatterplot.
- R returns:
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_0 = -.71$
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.6$  for Income
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_2 = -.6$  for Ethnic Heterogeneity

How does this look graphically?

- These estimates define a **regression plane** through the data.

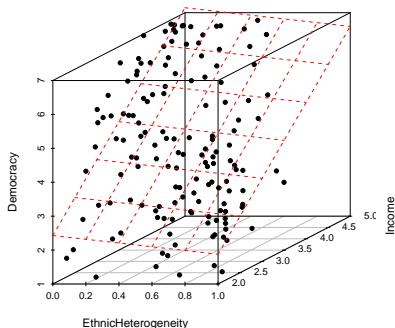


# Regression of Democracy on Income

- We can plot the points in a 3D scatterplot.
- R returns:
  - ▶  $\widehat{\beta}_0 = -.71$
  - ▶  $\widehat{\beta}_1 = 1.6$  for Income
  - ▶  $\widehat{\beta}_2 = -.6$  for Ethnic Heterogeneity

How does this look graphically?

- These estimates define a **regression plane** through the data.



## Interpreting a Continuous Covariate

- The coefficient estimates have a similar interpretation in this case as they did in the Income-British Colony example.



## Interpreting a Continuous Covariate

- The coefficient estimates have a similar interpretation in this case as they did in the Income-British Colony example.
- For example,  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.6$  represents our prediction of the difference in Democracy between two observations that differ by one unit of Income **but have the same value of Ethnic Heterogeneity**.

## Interpreting a Continuous Covariate

- The coefficient estimates have a similar interpretation in this case as they did in the Income-British Colony example.
- For example,  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.6$  represents our prediction of the difference in Democracy between two observations that differ by one unit of Income **but have the same value of Ethnic Heterogeneity**.
- The slope estimates have **partial effect** or **ceteris paribus** interpretations:

$$\frac{\partial(y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2)}{\partial X_1} =$$

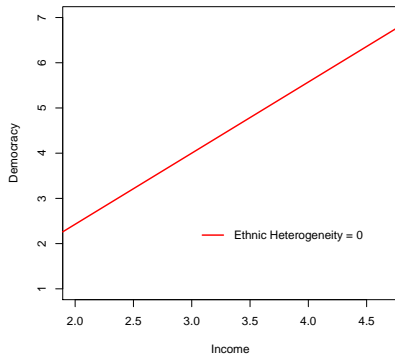
## Interpreting a Continuous Covariate

- The coefficient estimates have a similar interpretation in this case as they did in the Income-British Colony example.
- For example,  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.6$  represents our prediction of the difference in Democracy between two observations that differ by one unit of Income **but have the same value of Ethnic Heterogeneity**.
- The slope estimates have **partial effect** or **ceteris paribus** interpretations:

$$\frac{\partial(y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2)}{\partial X_1} = \beta_1$$

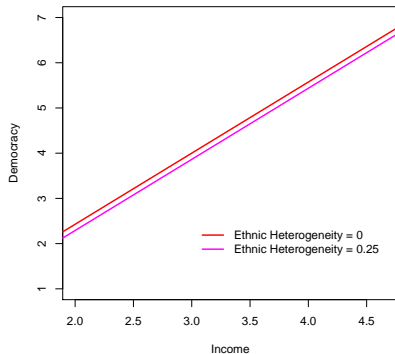
# Interpreting a Continuous Covariate

- Again, we can think of this as defining a regression line for the relationship between Democracy and Income at every level of Ethnic Heterogeneity.



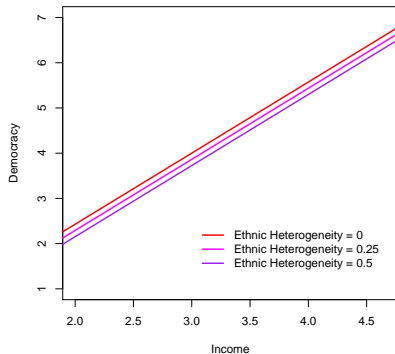
# Interpreting a Continuous Covariate

- Again, we can think of this as defining a regression line for the relationship between Democracy and Income at every level of Ethnic Heterogeneity.
- All of these lines are parallel since they have the slope  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.6$



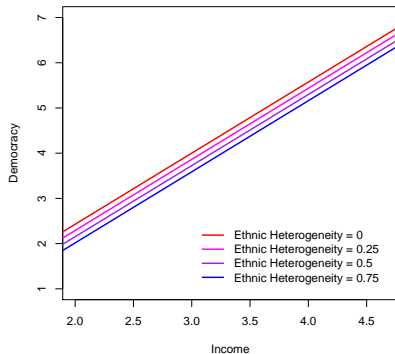
# Interpreting a Continuous Covariate

- Again, we can think of this as defining a regression line for the relationship between Democracy and Income at every level of Ethnic Heterogeneity.
- All of these lines are parallel since they have the slope  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.6$
- The lines shift up or down based on the value of Ethnic Heterogeneity.



# Interpreting a Continuous Covariate

- Again, we can think of this as defining a regression line for the relationship between Democracy and Income at every level of Ethnic Heterogeneity.
- All of these lines are parallel since they have the slope  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.6$
- The lines shift up or down based on the value of Ethnic Heterogeneity.



## More Complex Predictions

- We can also use the coefficient estimates for more complex predictions that involve changing multiple variables simultaneously.



## More Complex Predictions

- We can also use the coefficient estimates for more complex predictions that involve changing multiple variables simultaneously.
- Consider our results for the regression of democracy on  $X_1$  income and  $X_2$  ethnic heterogeneity:
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_0 = -.71$
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.6$
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_2 = -.6$

## More Complex Predictions

- We can also use the coefficient estimates for more complex predictions that involve changing multiple variables simultaneously.
- Consider our results for the regression of democracy on  $X_1$  income and  $X_2$  ethnic heterogeneity:
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_0 = -.71$
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.6$
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_2 = -.6$
- What is the predicted difference in democracy between
  - ▶ **Chile** with  $X_1 = 3.5$  and  $X_2 = .06$ ?
  - ▶ **China** with  $X_1 = 2.5$  and  $X_2 = .5$ ?

## More Complex Predictions

- We can also use the coefficient estimates for more complex predictions that involve changing multiple variables simultaneously.
- Consider our results for the regression of democracy on  $X_1$  income and  $X_2$  ethnic heterogeneity:
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_0 = -.71$
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.6$
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_2 = -.6$
- What is the predicted difference in democracy between
  - ▶ **Chile** with  $X_1 = 3.5$  and  $X_2 = .06$ ?
  - ▶ **China** with  $X_1 = 2.5$  and  $X_2 = .5$ ?
- Predicted democracy is
  - ▶  $-.71 + 1.6 \cdot 3.5 - .6 \cdot .06 = 4.8$  for **Chile**

## More Complex Predictions

- We can also use the coefficient estimates for more complex predictions that involve changing multiple variables simultaneously.
- Consider our results for the regression of democracy on  $X_1$  income and  $X_2$  ethnic heterogeneity:
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_0 = -.71$
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.6$
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_2 = -.6$
- What is the predicted difference in democracy between
  - ▶ **Chile** with  $X_1 = 3.5$  and  $X_2 = .06$ ?
  - ▶ **China** with  $X_1 = 2.5$  and  $X_2 = .5$ ?
- Predicted democracy is
  - ▶  $-.71 + 1.6 \cdot 3.5 - .6 \cdot .06 = 4.8$  for **Chile**
  - ▶  $-.71 + 1.6 \cdot 2.5 - .6 \cdot 0.5 = 3$  for **China**.

## More Complex Predictions

- We can also use the coefficient estimates for more complex predictions that involve changing multiple variables simultaneously.
- Consider our results for the regression of democracy on  $X_1$  income and  $X_2$  ethnic heterogeneity:
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_0 = -.71$
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.6$
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_2 = -.6$
- What is the predicted difference in democracy between
  - ▶ **Chile** with  $X_1 = 3.5$  and  $X_2 = .06$ ?
  - ▶ **China** with  $X_1 = 2.5$  and  $X_2 = .5$ ?
- Predicted democracy is
  - ▶  $-.71 + 1.6 \cdot 3.5 - .6 \cdot .06 = 4.8$  for **Chile**
  - ▶  $-.71 + 1.6 \cdot 2.5 - .6 \cdot 0.5 = 3$  for **China**.

Predicted difference is thus: 1.8 or  $(3.5 - 2.5)\hat{\beta}_1 + (.06 - .5)\hat{\beta}_2$

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling**
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

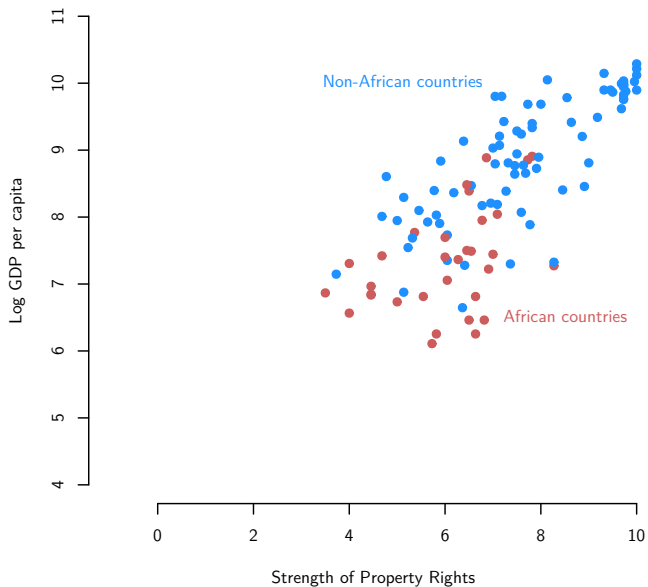
### The Colonial Origins of Comparative Development: An Empirical Investigation

*By* DARON ACEMOGLU, SIMON JOHNSON, AND JAMES A. ROBINSON\*

<http://www.jstor.org/stable/2677930>



# AJR Example



# Basics

# Basics

- Ye olde model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

# Basics

- Ye olde model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

- $Z_i = 1$  to indicate that  $i$  is an African country

# Basics

- Ye olde model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

- $Z_i = 1$  to indicate that  $i$  is an African country
- $Z_i = 0$  to indicate that  $i$  is an non-African country

# Basics

- Ye olde model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

- $Z_i = 1$  to indicate that  $i$  is an African country
- $Z_i = 0$  to indicate that  $i$  is a non-African country
- Concern: AJR might be picking up an “African effect”:

# Basics

- Ye olde model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

- $Z_i = 1$  to indicate that  $i$  is an African country
- $Z_i = 0$  to indicate that  $i$  is a non-African country
- Concern: AJR might be picking up an “African effect”:
  - ▶ African countries have low incomes and weak property rights

# Basics

- Ye olde model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

- $Z_i = 1$  to indicate that  $i$  is an African country
- $Z_i = 0$  to indicate that  $i$  is a non-African country
- Concern: AJR might be picking up an “African effect”:
  - ▶ African countries have low incomes and weak property rights
  - ▶ “Control for” country being in Africa or not to remove this



# Basics

- Ye olde model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

- $Z_i = 1$  to indicate that  $i$  is an African country
- $Z_i = 0$  to indicate that  $i$  is a non-African country
- Concern: AJR might be picking up an “African effect”:
  - ▶ African countries have low incomes and weak property rights
  - ▶ “Control for” country being in Africa or not to remove this
  - ▶ Effects are now within Africa or within non-Africa, not between

# Basics

- Ye olde model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

- $Z_i = 1$  to indicate that  $i$  is an African country
- $Z_i = 0$  to indicate that  $i$  is a non-African country
- Concern: AJR might be picking up an “African effect”:
  - ▶ African countries have low incomes and weak property rights
  - ▶ “Control for” country being in Africa or not to remove this
  - ▶ Effects are now within Africa or within non-Africa, not between
- New model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$

## AJR model

```
##  
## Coefficients:  
##           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)  
## (Intercept)  5.65556    0.31344  18.043 < 2e-16 ***  
## avexpr       0.42416    0.03971  10.681 < 2e-16 ***  
## africa      -0.87844    0.14707  -5.973 3.03e-08 ***  
## ---  
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1  
##  
## Residual standard error: 0.6253 on 108 degrees of freedom  
## (52 observations deleted due to missingness)  
## Multiple R-squared:  0.7078, Adjusted R-squared:  0.7024  
## F-statistic: 130.8 on 2 and 108 DF,  p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

## Two lines in one regression

- How can we interpret this model?

## Two lines in one regression

- How can we interpret this model?
- Plug in two possible values for  $Z_i$  and rearrange

## Two lines in one regression

- How can we interpret this model?
- Plug in two possible values for  $Z_i$  and rearrange
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$

## Two lines in one regression

- How can we interpret this model?
- Plug in two possible values for  $Z_i$  and rearrange
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$

## Two lines in one regression

- How can we interpret this model?
- Plug in two possible values for  $Z_i$  and rearrange
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{Y}_i &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 0\end{aligned}$$



## Two lines in one regression

- How can we interpret this model?
- Plug in two possible values for  $Z_i$  and rearrange
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{Y}_i &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 0 \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i\end{aligned}$$

## Two lines in one regression

- How can we interpret this model?
- Plug in two possible values for  $Z_i$  and rearrange
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{Y}_i &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 0 \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i\end{aligned}$$

- When  $Z_i = 1$ :

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$

## Two lines in one regression

- How can we interpret this model?
- Plug in two possible values for  $Z_i$  and rearrange
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{Y}_i &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 0 \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i\end{aligned}$$

- When  $Z_i = 1$ :

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$

## Two lines in one regression

- How can we interpret this model?
- Plug in two possible values for  $Z_i$  and rearrange
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{Y}_i &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 Z_i \\ &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 \times 0 \\ &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i\end{aligned}$$

- When  $Z_i = 1$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{Y}_i &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 Z_i \\ &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 \times 1\end{aligned}$$

## Two lines in one regression

- How can we interpret this model?
- Plug in two possible values for  $Z_i$  and rearrange
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{Y}_i &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 Z_i \\ &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 \times 0 \\ &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i\end{aligned}$$

- When  $Z_i = 1$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{Y}_i &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 Z_i \\ &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 \times 1 \\ &= (\widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_2) + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i\end{aligned}$$

## Two lines in one regression

- How can we interpret this model?
- Plug in two possible values for  $Z_i$  and rearrange
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{Y}_i &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 Z_i \\ &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 \times 0 \\ &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i\end{aligned}$$

- When  $Z_i = 1$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{Y}_i &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 Z_i \\ &= \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 \times 1 \\ &= (\widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_2) + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i\end{aligned}$$

- Two different intercepts, same slope

## Example interpretation of the coefficients

- Let's review what we've seen so far:

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
Non-African country ( $Z_i = 0$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
African country ( $Z_i = 1$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

## Example interpretation of the coefficients

- Let's review what we've seen so far:

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
Non-African country ( $Z_i = 0$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
African country ( $Z_i = 1$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

- In this example, we have:

$$\hat{Y}_i = 5.656 + 0.424 \times X_i - 0.878 \times Z_i$$



## Example interpretation of the coefficients

- Let's review what we've seen so far:

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
Non-African country ( $Z_i = 0$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
African country ( $Z_i = 1$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

- In this example, we have:

$$\hat{Y}_i = 5.656 + 0.424 \times X_i - 0.878 \times Z_i$$

- We can read these as:

## Example interpretation of the coefficients

- Let's review what we've seen so far:

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
Non-African country ( $Z_i = 0$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
African country ( $Z_i = 1$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

- In this example, we have:

$$\hat{Y}_i = 5.656 + 0.424 \times X_i - 0.878 \times Z_i$$

- We can read these as:

- $\hat{\beta}_0$ : average log income for non-African country ( $Z_i = 0$ ) with property rights measured at 0 is 5.656

## Example interpretation of the coefficients

- Let's review what we've seen so far:

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
Non-African country ( $Z_i = 0$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
African country ( $Z_i = 1$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

- In this example, we have:

$$\hat{Y}_i = 5.656 + 0.424 \times X_i - 0.878 \times Z_i$$

- We can read these as:

- ▶  $\hat{\beta}_0$ : average log income for non-African country ( $Z_i = 0$ ) with property rights measured at 0 is 5.656
- ▶  $\hat{\beta}_1$ : A one-unit increase in property rights is associated with a 0.424 increase in average log incomes for two African countries (or for two non-African countries)

## Example interpretation of the coefficients

- Let's review what we've seen so far:

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
Non-African country ( $Z_i = 0$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
African country ( $Z_i = 1$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

- In this example, we have:

$$\hat{Y}_i = 5.656 + 0.424 \times X_i - 0.878 \times Z_i$$

- We can read these as:

- $\hat{\beta}_0$ : average log income for non-African country ( $Z_i = 0$ ) with property rights measured at 0 is 5.656
- $\hat{\beta}_1$ : A one-unit increase in property rights is associated with a 0.424 increase in average log incomes for two African countries (or for two non-African countries)
- $\hat{\beta}_2$ : there is a **-0.878** average difference in log income per capita between African and non-African counties **conditional on** property rights

## General interpretation of the coefficients

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$

## General interpretation of the coefficients

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$

- $\hat{\beta}_0$ : average value of  $Y_i$  when both  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  are equal to 0

## General interpretation of the coefficients

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$

- $\hat{\beta}_0$ : average value of  $Y_i$  when both  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  are equal to 0
- $\hat{\beta}_1$ : A one-unit change in  $X_i$  produces a  $\hat{\beta}_1$ -unit change in our prediction of  $Y_i$  **conditional on**  $Z_i$

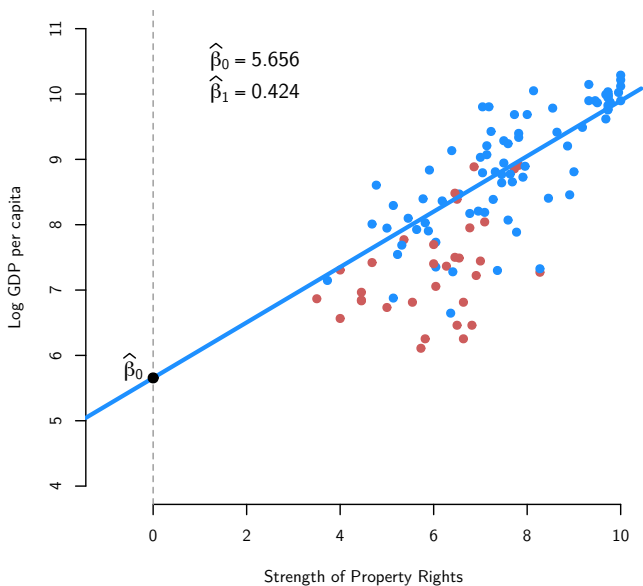
## General interpretation of the coefficients

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$

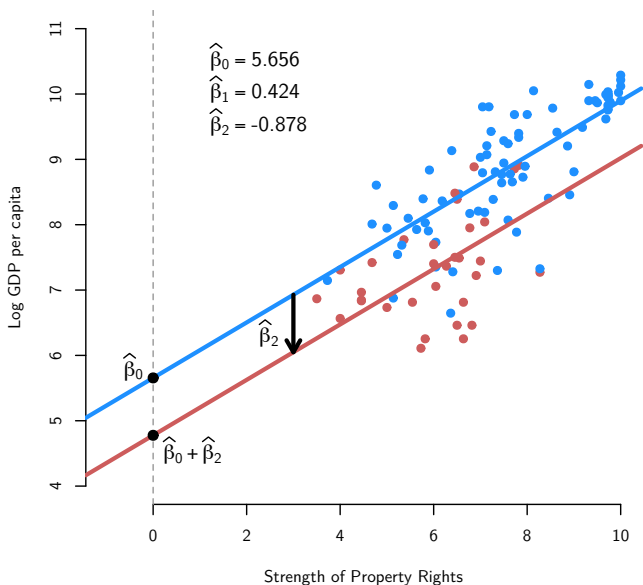
- $\hat{\beta}_0$ : average value of  $Y_i$  when both  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  are equal to 0
- $\hat{\beta}_1$ : A one-unit change in  $X_i$  produces a  $\hat{\beta}_1$ -unit change in our prediction of  $Y_i$  **conditional on**  $Z_i$
- $\hat{\beta}_2$ : average difference in  $Y_i$  between  $Z_i = 1$  group and  $Z_i = 0$  group **conditional on**  $X_i$



## Adding a binary variable, visually



## Adding a binary variable, visually



## Adding a continuous variable

- Ye olde model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

## Adding a continuous variable

- Ye olde model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

- $Z_i$ : mean temperature in country  $i$  (continuous)

## Adding a continuous variable

- Ye olde model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

- $Z_i$ : mean temperature in country  $i$  (continuous)
- Concern: geography is confounding the effect

## Adding a continuous variable

- Ye olde model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

- $Z_i$ : mean temperature in country  $i$  (continuous)
- Concern: geography is confounding the effect
  - ▶ geography might affect political institutions

## Adding a continuous variable

- Ye olde model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

- $Z_i$ : mean temperature in country  $i$  (continuous)
- Concern: geography is confounding the effect
  - ▶ geography might affect political institutions
  - ▶ geography might affect average incomes (through diseases like malaria)

## Adding a continuous variable

- Ye olde model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

- $Z_i$ : mean temperature in country  $i$  (continuous)
- Concern: geography is confounding the effect
  - ▶ geography might affect political institutions
  - ▶ geography might affect average incomes (through diseases like malaria)
- New model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$



## AJR model, revisited

```
##
## Coefficients:
##           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)  6.80627    0.75184   9.053 1.27e-12 ***
## avexpr       0.40568    0.06397   6.342 3.94e-08 ***
## meantemp    -0.06025    0.01940  -3.105 0.00296 **
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.6435 on 57 degrees of freedom
## (103 observations deleted due to missingness)
## Multiple R-squared:  0.6155, Adjusted R-squared:  0.602
## F-statistic: 45.62 on 2 and 57 DF,  p-value: 1.481e-12
```

## Interpretation with a continuous $Z$

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
$Z_i = 0^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

## Interpretation with a continuous $Z$

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
$Z_i = 0^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 21^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 21$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

## Interpretation with a continuous $Z$

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
$Z_i = 0^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 21^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 21$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 24^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 24$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

## Interpretation with a continuous $Z$

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
$Z_i = 0^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 21^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 21$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 24^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 24$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 26^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 26$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

## Interpretation with a continuous $Z$

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
$Z_i = 0^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 21^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 21$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 24^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 24$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 26^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 26$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

## Interpretation with a continuous $Z$

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
$Z_i = 0^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 21^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 21$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 24^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 24$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 26^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 26$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

- In this example we have:

$$\hat{Y}_i = 6.806 + 0.406 \times X_i + -0.06 \times Z_i$$

## Interpretation with a continuous $Z$

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
$Z_i = 0^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 21^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 21$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 24^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 24$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 26^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 26$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

- In this example we have:

$$\hat{Y}_i = 6.806 + 0.406 \times X_i + -0.06 \times Z_i$$

- $\hat{\beta}_0$ : average log income for a country with property rights measured at 0 and a mean temperature of 0 is 6.806



## Interpretation with a continuous $Z$

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
$Z_i = 0^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 21^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 21$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 24^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 24$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 26^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 26$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

- In this example we have:

$$\hat{Y}_i = 6.806 + 0.406 \times X_i + -0.06 \times Z_i$$

- $\hat{\beta}_0$ : average log income for a country with property rights measured at 0 and a mean temperature of 0 is 6.806
- $\hat{\beta}_1$ : A one-unit change in property rights is associated with a 0.406 change in average log incomes conditional on a country's mean temperature

## Interpretation with a continuous Z

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
$Z_i = 0^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 21^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 21$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 24^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 24$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 26^\circ\text{C}$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 26$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

- In this example we have:

$$\hat{Y}_i = 6.806 + 0.406 \times X_i + -0.06 \times Z_i$$

- $\hat{\beta}_0$ : average log income for a country with property rights measured at 0 and a mean temperature of 0 is 6.806
- $\hat{\beta}_1$ : A one-unit change in property rights is associated with a 0.406 change in average log incomes conditional on a country's mean temperature
- $\hat{\beta}_2$ : A one-degree increase in mean temperature is associated with a -0.06 change in average log incomes conditional on strength of property rights

## General interpretation

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$

- The coefficient  $\hat{\beta}_1$  measures how the predicted outcome varies in  $X_i$  for a fixed value of  $Z_i$ .

## General interpretation

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$

- The coefficient  $\hat{\beta}_1$  measures how the predicted outcome varies in  $X_i$  for a fixed value of  $Z_i$ .
- The coefficient  $\hat{\beta}_2$  measures how the predicted outcome varies in  $Z_i$  for a fixed value of  $X_i$ .

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out**
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

# Fitted values and residuals

- Where do we get our hats?

# Fitted values and residuals

- Where do we get our hats?



## Fitted values and residuals

- Where do we get our hats?  $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2$

## Fitted values and residuals

- Where do we get our hats?  $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2$
- To answer this, we first need to redefine some terms from simple linear regression.

## Fitted values and residuals

- Where do we get our hats?  $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2$
- To answer this, we first need to redefine some terms from simple linear regression.
- Fitted values for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ :

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$

## Fitted values and residuals

- Where do we get our hats?  $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2$
- To answer this, we first need to redefine some terms from simple linear regression.
- Fitted values for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ :

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$

- Residuals for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ :

$$\hat{u}_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$$

## Least squares is still least squares

- How do we estimate  $\hat{\beta}_0$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_1$ , and  $\hat{\beta}_2$ ?

## Least squares is still least squares

- How do we estimate  $\hat{\beta}_0$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_1$ , and  $\hat{\beta}_2$ ?
- Minimize the sum of the squared residuals, just like before:

$$(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) = \arg \min_{b_0, b_1, b_2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i - b_2 Z_i)^2$$

## Least squares is still least squares

- How do we estimate  $\hat{\beta}_0$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_1$ , and  $\hat{\beta}_2$ ?
- Minimize the sum of the squared residuals, just like before:

$$(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) = \arg \min_{b_0, b_1, b_2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i - b_2 Z_i)^2$$

- The calculus is the same as last week, with 3 partial derivatives instead of 2

## Least squares is still least squares

- How do we estimate  $\hat{\beta}_0$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_1$ , and  $\hat{\beta}_2$ ?
- Minimize the sum of the squared residuals, just like before:

$$(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) = \arg \min_{b_0, b_1, b_2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i - b_2 Z_i)^2$$

- The calculus is the same as last week, with 3 partial derivatives instead of 2
- Let's start with a simple recipe and then rigorously show that it holds



## OLS estimator recipe using two steps

- “Partialling out” OLS recipe:

## OLS estimator recipe using two steps

- “Partialling out” OLS recipe:
  - 1 Run regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$ :

$$\hat{X}_i = \hat{\delta}_0 + \hat{\delta}_1 Z_i$$

# OLS estimator recipe using two steps

- “Partialling out” OLS recipe:
  - 1 Run regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$ :

$$\hat{X}_i = \hat{\delta}_0 + \hat{\delta}_1 Z_i$$

- 2 Calculate residuals from this regression:

$$\hat{r}_{xz,i} = X_i - \hat{X}_i$$

## OLS estimator recipe using two steps

- “Partialling out” OLS recipe:
  - 1 Run regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$ :

$$\widehat{X}_i = \widehat{\delta}_0 + \widehat{\delta}_1 Z_i$$

- 2 Calculate residuals from this regression:

$$\widehat{r}_{xz,i} = X_i - \widehat{X}_i$$

- 3 Run a simple regression of  $Y_i$  on residuals,  $\widehat{r}_{xz,i}$ :

$$\widehat{Y}_i = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 \widehat{r}_{xz,i}$$

## OLS estimator recipe using two steps

- “Partialling out” OLS recipe:

- 1 Run regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$ :

$$\widehat{X}_i = \widehat{\delta}_0 + \widehat{\delta}_1 Z_i$$

- 2 Calculate residuals from this regression:

$$\widehat{r}_{xz,i} = X_i - \widehat{X}_i$$

- 3 Run a simple regression of  $Y_i$  on residuals,  $\widehat{r}_{xz,i}$ :

$$\widehat{Y}_i = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 \widehat{r}_{xz,i}$$

- Estimate of  $\widehat{\beta}_1$  will be the same as running:

$$\widehat{Y}_i = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 Z_i$$

## Regression property rights on mean temperature

```
##  
## Coefficients:  
##           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)  
## (Intercept)  9.95678    0.82015  12.140 < 2e-16 ***  
## meantemp    -0.14900    0.03469  -4.295 6.73e-05 ***  
## ---  
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1  
##  
## Residual standard error: 1.321 on 58 degrees of freedom  
## (103 observations deleted due to missingness)  
## Multiple R-squared:  0.2413, Adjusted R-squared:  0.2282  
## F-statistic: 18.45 on 1 and 58 DF,  p-value: 6.733e-05
```

## Regression of log income on the residuals

```
## (Intercept)  avexpr.res  
##    8.0542783    0.4056757
```

```
## (Intercept)      avexpr    meantemp  
##    6.80627375    0.40567575  -0.06024937
```

# Residual/partial regression plot

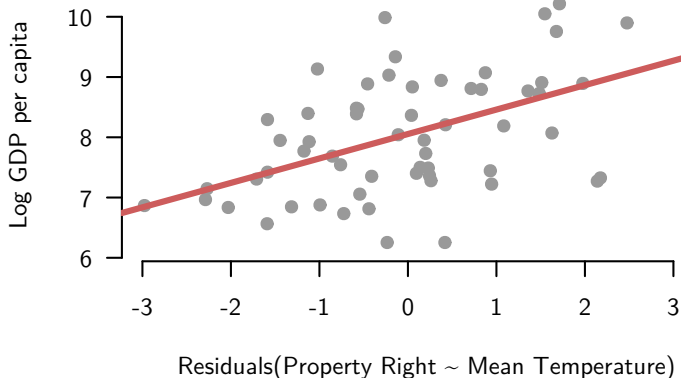


## Residual/partial regression plot

Useful for plotting the **conditional relationship** between property rights and income given temperature:

## Residual/partial regression plot

Useful for plotting the **conditional relationship** between property rights and income given temperature:



# Deriving the Linear Least Squares Estimator

- In simple regression, we chose  $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1)$  to minimize the sum of the squared residuals

# Deriving the Linear Least Squares Estimator

- In simple regression, we chose  $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1)$  to minimize the sum of the squared residuals
- We use the same principle for picking  $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)$  for regression with two regressors ( $x_i$  and  $z_i$ ):

$$\begin{aligned}(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) &= \underset{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2 = \underset{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \\ &= \underset{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \tilde{\beta}_0 - x_i \tilde{\beta}_1 - z_i \tilde{\beta}_2)^2\end{aligned}$$

## Deriving the Linear Least Squares Estimator

- In simple regression, we chose  $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1)$  to minimize the sum of the squared residuals
- We use the same principle for picking  $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)$  for regression with two regressors ( $x_i$  and  $z_i$ ):

$$\begin{aligned}(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) &= \underset{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2 = \underset{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \\ &= \underset{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \tilde{\beta}_0 - x_i \tilde{\beta}_1 - z_i \tilde{\beta}_2)^2\end{aligned}$$

- (The same works more generally for  $k$  regressors, but this is done more easily with matrices as we will see next week)

## Deriving the Linear Least Squares Estimator

We want to minimize the following quantity with respect to  $(\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2)$ :

$$S(\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \tilde{\beta}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1 x_i - \tilde{\beta}_2 z_i)^2$$

Plan is conceptually the same as before

# Deriving the Linear Least Squares Estimator

We want to minimize the following quantity with respect to  $(\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2)$ :

$$S(\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \tilde{\beta}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1 x_i - \tilde{\beta}_2 z_i)^2$$

Plan is conceptually the same as before

- 1 Take the partial derivatives of  $S$  with respect to  $\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1$  and  $\tilde{\beta}_2$ .

# Deriving the Linear Least Squares Estimator

We want to minimize the following quantity with respect to  $(\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2)$ :

$$S(\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \tilde{\beta}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1 x_i - \tilde{\beta}_2 z_i)^2$$

Plan is conceptually the same as before

- 1 Take the partial derivatives of  $S$  with respect to  $\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1$  and  $\tilde{\beta}_2$ .
- 2 Set each of the partial derivatives to 0 to obtain the **first order conditions**.



# Deriving the Linear Least Squares Estimator

We want to minimize the following quantity with respect to  $(\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2)$ :

$$S(\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \tilde{\beta}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1 x_i - \tilde{\beta}_2 z_i)^2$$

Plan is conceptually the same as before

- 1 Take the partial derivatives of  $S$  with respect to  $\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1$  and  $\tilde{\beta}_2$ .
- 2 Set each of the partial derivatives to 0 to obtain the **first order conditions**.
- 3 Substitute  $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2$  for  $\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\beta}_2$  and solve for  $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2$  to obtain the OLS estimator.

## First Order Conditions

Setting the partial derivatives equal to zero leads to a system of 3 linear equations in 3 unknowns:  $\hat{\beta}_0$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_2$

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \tilde{\beta}_0} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i - \hat{\beta}_2 z_i) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \tilde{\beta}_1} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i - \hat{\beta}_2 z_i) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \tilde{\beta}_2} = \sum_{i=1}^n z_i (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i - \hat{\beta}_2 z_i) = 0$$

When will this linear system have a unique solution?

## First Order Conditions

Setting the partial derivatives equal to zero leads to a system of 3 linear equations in 3 unknowns:  $\hat{\beta}_0$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_2$

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \tilde{\beta}_0} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i - \hat{\beta}_2 z_i) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \tilde{\beta}_1} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i - \hat{\beta}_2 z_i) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \tilde{\beta}_2} = \sum_{i=1}^n z_i (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i - \hat{\beta}_2 z_i) = 0$$

When will this linear system have a unique solution?

- More observations than predictors (i.e.  $n > 2$ )
- $x$  and  $z$  are **linearly independent**, i.e.,
  - ▶ neither  $x$  nor  $z$  is a constant
  - ▶  $x$  is not a linear function of  $z$  (or vice versa)
- Wooldridge calls this assumption **no perfect collinearity**

# The OLS Estimator

The OLS estimator for  $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)$  can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}_0 &= \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x} - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{z} \\ \hat{\beta}_1 &= \frac{\text{Cov}(x, y) \text{Var}(z) - \text{Cov}(z, y) \text{Cov}(x, z)}{\text{Var}(x) \text{Var}(z) - \text{Cov}(x, z)^2} \\ \hat{\beta}_2 &= \frac{\text{Cov}(z, y) \text{Var}(x) - \text{Cov}(x, y) \text{Cov}(z, x)}{\text{Var}(x) \text{Var}(z) - \text{Cov}(x, z)^2}\end{aligned}$$

# The OLS Estimator

The OLS estimator for  $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)$  can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}_0 &= \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x} - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{z} \\ \hat{\beta}_1 &= \frac{\text{Cov}(x, y) \text{Var}(z) - \text{Cov}(z, y) \text{Cov}(x, z)}{\text{Var}(x) \text{Var}(z) - \text{Cov}(x, z)^2} \\ \hat{\beta}_2 &= \frac{\text{Cov}(z, y) \text{Var}(x) - \text{Cov}(x, y) \text{Cov}(z, x)}{\text{Var}(x) \text{Var}(z) - \text{Cov}(x, z)^2}\end{aligned}$$

For  $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)$  to be well-defined we need:

$$\text{Var}(x) \text{Var}(z) \neq \text{Cov}(x, z)^2$$

Condition fails if:

# The OLS Estimator

The OLS estimator for  $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)$  can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}_0 &= \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x} - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{z} \\ \hat{\beta}_1 &= \frac{\text{Cov}(x, y) \text{Var}(z) - \text{Cov}(z, y) \text{Cov}(x, z)}{\text{Var}(x) \text{Var}(z) - \text{Cov}(x, z)^2} \\ \hat{\beta}_2 &= \frac{\text{Cov}(z, y) \text{Var}(x) - \text{Cov}(x, y) \text{Cov}(z, x)}{\text{Var}(x) \text{Var}(z) - \text{Cov}(x, z)^2}\end{aligned}$$

For  $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)$  to be well-defined we need:

$$\text{Var}(x) \text{Var}(z) \neq \text{Cov}(x, z)^2$$

Condition fails if:

- 1 If  $x$  or  $z$  is a constant ( $\Rightarrow \text{Var}(x) \text{Var}(z) = \text{Cov}(x, z) = 0$ )

# The OLS Estimator

The OLS estimator for  $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)$  can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}_0 &= \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x} - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{z} \\ \hat{\beta}_1 &= \frac{\text{Cov}(x, y) \text{Var}(z) - \text{Cov}(z, y) \text{Cov}(x, z)}{\text{Var}(x) \text{Var}(z) - \text{Cov}(x, z)^2} \\ \hat{\beta}_2 &= \frac{\text{Cov}(z, y) \text{Var}(x) - \text{Cov}(x, y) \text{Cov}(z, x)}{\text{Var}(x) \text{Var}(z) - \text{Cov}(x, z)^2}\end{aligned}$$

For  $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)$  to be well-defined we need:

$$\text{Var}(x) \text{Var}(z) \neq \text{Cov}(x, z)^2$$

Condition fails if:

- 1 If  $x$  or  $z$  is a constant ( $\Rightarrow \text{Var}(x) \text{Var}(z) = \text{Cov}(x, z) = 0$ )
- 2 One explanatory variable is an exact linear function of another ( $\Rightarrow \text{Cor}(x, z) = 1 \Rightarrow \text{Var}(x) \text{Var}(z) = \text{Cov}(x, z)^2$ )

## “Partialling Out” Interpretation of the OLS Estimator

Assume  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + u$ . Another way to write the OLS estimator is:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} y_i}{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2}$$

where  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X$  on  $Z$ :

$$X = \lambda + \delta Z + r_{xz}$$



## “Partialling Out” Interpretation of the OLS Estimator

Assume  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + u$ . Another way to write the OLS estimator is:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} y_i}{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2}$$

where  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X$  on  $Z$ :

$$X = \lambda + \delta Z + r_{xz}$$

In other words, both of these regressions yield identical estimates  $\hat{\beta}_1$ :

$$y = \hat{\gamma}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \hat{r}_{xz} \quad \text{and} \quad y = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x + \hat{\beta}_2 z$$

## “Partialling Out” Interpretation of the OLS Estimator

Assume  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + u$ . Another way to write the OLS estimator is:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} y_i}{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2}$$

where  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X$  on  $Z$ :

$$X = \lambda + \delta Z + r_{xz}$$

In other words, both of these regressions yield identical estimates  $\hat{\beta}_1$ :

$$y = \hat{\gamma}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \hat{r}_{xz} \quad \text{and} \quad y = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x + \hat{\beta}_2 z$$

- $\delta$  is correlation between  $X$  and  $Z$ .

## “Partialling Out” Interpretation of the OLS Estimator

Assume  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + u$ . Another way to write the OLS estimator is:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} y_i}{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2}$$

where  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X$  on  $Z$ :

$$X = \lambda + \delta Z + r_{xz}$$

In other words, both of these regressions yield identical estimates  $\hat{\beta}_1$ :

$$y = \hat{\gamma}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \hat{r}_{xz} \quad \text{and} \quad y = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x + \hat{\beta}_2 z$$

- $\delta$  is correlation between  $X$  and  $Z$ . What is our estimator  $\hat{\beta}_1$  if  $\delta = 0$ ?

$$r_{xz} = x - \hat{\lambda} = x_i - \bar{x} \quad \text{so} \quad \hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} y_i}{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2} =$$

## “Partialling Out” Interpretation of the OLS Estimator

Assume  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + u$ . Another way to write the OLS estimator is:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} y_i}{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2}$$

where  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X$  on  $Z$ :

$$X = \lambda + \delta Z + r_{xz}$$

In other words, both of these regressions yield identical estimates  $\hat{\beta}_1$ :

$$y = \hat{\gamma}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \hat{r}_{xz} \quad \text{and} \quad y = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x + \hat{\beta}_2 z$$

- $\delta$  is correlation between  $X$  and  $Z$ . What is our estimator  $\hat{\beta}_1$  if  $\delta = 0$ ?

$$r_{xz} = x - \hat{\lambda} = x_i - \bar{x} \quad \text{so} \quad \hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} y_i}{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2} = \frac{\sum_i^n (x_i - \bar{x}) y_i}{\sum_i^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

- That is, same as the simple regresson of  $Y$  on  $X$  alone.

## Origin of the Partial Out Recipe

Assume  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + u$ . Another way to write the OLS estimator is:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} y_i}{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2}$$

where  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X$  on  $Z$ :

$$X = \lambda + \delta Z + r_{xz}$$

In other words, both of these regressions yield identical estimates  $\hat{\beta}_1$ :

$$y = \hat{\gamma}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \hat{r}_{xz} \quad \text{and} \quad y = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x + \hat{\beta}_2 z$$

## Origin of the Partial Out Recipe

Assume  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + u$ . Another way to write the OLS estimator is:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} y_i}{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2}$$

where  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X$  on  $Z$ :

$$X = \lambda + \delta Z + r_{xz}$$

In other words, both of these regressions yield identical estimates  $\hat{\beta}_1$ :

$$y = \hat{\gamma}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \hat{r}_{xz} \quad \text{and} \quad y = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x + \hat{\beta}_2 z$$

- $\delta$  measures the correlation between  $X$  and  $Z$ .

## Origin of the Partial Out Recipe

Assume  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + u$ . Another way to write the OLS estimator is:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} y_i}{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2}$$

where  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X$  on  $Z$ :

$$X = \lambda + \delta Z + r_{xz}$$

In other words, both of these regressions yield identical estimates  $\hat{\beta}_1$ :

$$y = \hat{\gamma}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \hat{r}_{xz} \quad \text{and} \quad y = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x + \hat{\beta}_2 z$$

- $\delta$  measures the correlation between  $X$  and  $Z$ .
- Residuals  $\hat{r}_{xz}$  are the part of  $X$  that is uncorrelated with  $Z$ . Put differently,  $\hat{r}_{xz}$  is  $X$ , after the effect of  $Z$  on  $X$  has been **partialled out** or netted out.

## Origin of the Partial Out Recipe

Assume  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + u$ . Another way to write the OLS estimator is:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} y_i}{\sum_i^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2}$$

where  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X$  on  $Z$ :

$$X = \lambda + \delta Z + r_{xz}$$

In other words, both of these regressions yield identical estimates  $\hat{\beta}_1$ :

$$y = \hat{\gamma}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \hat{r}_{xz} \quad \text{and} \quad y = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x + \hat{\beta}_2 z$$

- $\delta$  measures the correlation between  $X$  and  $Z$ .
- Residuals  $\hat{r}_{xz}$  are the part of  $X$  that is uncorrelated with  $Z$ . Put differently,  $\hat{r}_{xz}$  is  $X$ , after the effect of  $Z$  on  $X$  has been **partialled out** or netted out.
- Can use same equation with  $k$  explanatory variables;  $\hat{r}_{xz}$  will then come from a regression of  $X$  on all the other explanatory variables.



# OLS assumptions for unbiasedness

## OLS assumptions for unbiasedness

- When we have more than one independent variable, we need the following assumptions in order for OLS to be unbiased:

# OLS assumptions for unbiasedness

- When we have more than one independent variable, we need the following assumptions in order for OLS to be unbiased:
- ① Linearity

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

# OLS assumptions for unbiasedness

- When we have more than one independent variable, we need the following assumptions in order for OLS to be unbiased:

- 1 Linearity

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- 2 Random/iid sample

# OLS assumptions for unbiasedness

- When we have more than one independent variable, we need the following assumptions in order for OLS to be unbiased:

- 1 Linearity

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- 2 Random/iid sample

- 3 No perfect collinearity

# OLS assumptions for unbiasedness

- When we have more than one independent variable, we need the following assumptions in order for OLS to be unbiased:

- 1 Linearity

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- 2 Random/iid sample

- 3 **No perfect collinearity**

- 4 Zero conditional mean error

$$\mathbb{E}[u_i | X_i, Z_i] = 0$$

## New assumption

### Assumption 3: No perfect collinearity

(1) No explanatory variable is constant in the sample and (2) there are no exactly linear relationships among the explanatory variables.

- Two components

# New assumption

## Assumption 3: No perfect collinearity

(1) No explanatory variable is constant in the sample and (2) there are no exactly linear relationships among the explanatory variables.

- Two components
  - ① Both  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  have to vary.



# New assumption

## Assumption 3: No perfect collinearity

(1) No explanatory variable is constant in the sample and (2) there are no exactly linear relationships among the explanatory variables.

- Two components
  - 1 Both  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  have to vary.
  - 2  $Z_i$  cannot be a deterministic, linear function of  $X_i$ .

## New assumption

### Assumption 3: No perfect collinearity

(1) No explanatory variable is constant in the sample and (2) there are no exactly linear relationships among the explanatory variables.

- Two components
  - 1 Both  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  have to vary.
  - 2  $Z_i$  cannot be a deterministic, linear function of  $X_i$ .
- Part 2 rules out anything of the form:

$$Z_i = a + bX_i$$

## New assumption

### Assumption 3: No perfect collinearity

(1) No explanatory variable is constant in the sample and (2) there are no exactly linear relationships among the explanatory variables.

- Two components
  - ① Both  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  have to vary.
  - ②  $Z_i$  cannot be a deterministic, linear function of  $X_i$ .
- Part 2 rules out anything of the form:

$$Z_i = a + bX_i$$

- Notice how this is linear (equation of a line) and there is no error, so it is deterministic.

## New assumption

### Assumption 3: No perfect collinearity

(1) No explanatory variable is constant in the sample and (2) there are no exactly linear relationships among the explanatory variables.

- Two components
  - ① Both  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  have to vary.
  - ②  $Z_i$  cannot be a deterministic, linear function of  $X_i$ .
- Part 2 rules out anything of the form:

$$Z_i = a + bX_i$$

- Notice how this is linear (equation of a line) and there is no error, so it is deterministic.
- What's the correlation between  $Z_i$  and  $X_i$ ? 1!

## Perfect collinearity example (I)

- Simple example:

## Perfect collinearity example (I)

- Simple example:
  - ▶  $X_i = 1$  if a country is **not** in Africa and 0 otherwise.

# Perfect collinearity example (I)

- Simple example:

- ▶  $X_i = 1$  if a country is **not** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
- ▶  $Z_i = 1$  if a country **is** in Africa and 0 otherwise.

## Perfect collinearity example (I)

- Simple example:
  - ▶  $X_i = 1$  if a country is **not** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
  - ▶  $Z_i = 1$  if a country **is** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
- But, clearly we have the following:

$$Z_i = 1 - X_i$$



## Perfect collinearity example (I)

- Simple example:
  - ▶  $X_i = 1$  if a country is **not** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
  - ▶  $Z_i = 1$  if a country **is** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
- But, clearly we have the following:

$$Z_i = 1 - X_i$$

- These two variables are perfectly collinear.

## Perfect collinearity example (I)

- Simple example:
  - ▶  $X_i = 1$  if a country is **not** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
  - ▶  $Z_i = 1$  if a country **is** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
- But, clearly we have the following:

$$Z_i = 1 - X_i$$

- These two variables are perfectly collinear.
- What about the following:

## Perfect collinearity example (I)

- Simple example:
  - ▶  $X_i = 1$  if a country is **not** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
  - ▶  $Z_i = 1$  if a country **is** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
- But, clearly we have the following:

$$Z_i = 1 - X_i$$

- These two variables are perfectly collinear.
- What about the following:
  - ▶  $X_i = \text{income}$

## Perfect collinearity example (I)

- Simple example:
  - ▶  $X_i = 1$  if a country is **not** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
  - ▶  $Z_i = 1$  if a country is **is** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
- But, clearly we have the following:

$$Z_i = 1 - X_i$$

- These two variables are perfectly collinear.
- What about the following:
  - ▶  $X_i = \text{income}$
  - ▶  $Z_i = X_i^2$

## Perfect collinearity example (I)

- Simple example:
  - ▶  $X_i = 1$  if a country is **not** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
  - ▶  $Z_i = 1$  if a country is **is** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
- But, clearly we have the following:

$$Z_i = 1 - X_i$$

- These two variables are perfectly collinear.
- What about the following:
  - ▶  $X_i = \text{income}$
  - ▶  $Z_i = X_i^2$
- Do we have to worry about collinearity here?

## Perfect collinearity example (I)

- Simple example:
  - ▶  $X_i = 1$  if a country is **not** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
  - ▶  $Z_i = 1$  if a country is **is** in Africa and 0 otherwise.
- But, clearly we have the following:

$$Z_i = 1 - X_i$$

- These two variables are perfectly collinear.
- What about the following:
  - ▶  $X_i = \text{income}$
  - ▶  $Z_i = X_i^2$
- Do we have to worry about collinearity here?
- No! Because while  $Z_i$  is a deterministic function of  $X_i$ , it is not a linear function of  $X_i$ .

## R and perfect collinearity

- R, and all other packages, will drop one of the variables if there is perfect collinearity:

## R and perfect collinearity

- R, and all other packages, will drop one of the variables if there is perfect collinearity:



## R and perfect collinearity

- R, and all other packages, will drop one of the variables if there is perfect collinearity:

```
##
## Coefficients: (1 not defined because of singularities)
##           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)  8.71638    0.08991  96.941 < 2e-16 ***
## africa      -1.36119    0.16306  -8.348 4.87e-14 ***
## nonafrica           NA           NA      NA      NA
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.9125 on 146 degrees of freedom
## (15 observations deleted due to missingness)
## Multiple R-squared:  0.3231, Adjusted R-squared:  0.3184
## F-statistic: 69.68 on 1 and 146 DF, p-value: 4.87e-14
```

## Perfect collinearity example (II)

- Another example:

## Perfect collinearity example (II)

- Another example:
  - ▶  $X_i = \text{mean temperature in Celsius}$

## Perfect collinearity example (II)

- Another example:

- ▶  $X_i$  = mean temperature in Celsius
- ▶  $Z_i = 1.8X_i + 32$  (mean temperature in Fahrenheit)

## Perfect collinearity example (II)

- Another example:

- ▶  $X_i$  = mean temperature in Celsius
- ▶  $Z_i = 1.8X_i + 32$  (mean temperature in Fahrenheit)

## Perfect collinearity example (II)

- Another example:

- ▶  $X_i$  = mean temperature in Celsius
- ▶  $Z_i = 1.8X_i + 32$  (mean temperature in Fahrenheit)

```
## (Intercept)      meantemp  meantemp.f
## 10.8454999    -0.1206948           NA
```

# OLS assumptions for large-sample inference

## OLS assumptions for large-sample inference

For large-sample inference and calculating SEs, we need the two-variable version of the Gauss-Markov assumptions:



# OLS assumptions for large-sample inference

For large-sample inference and calculating SEs, we need the two-variable version of the Gauss-Markov assumptions:

① Linearity

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

② Random/iid sample

③ No perfect collinearity

④ Zero conditional mean error

$$\mathbb{E}[u_i | X_i, Z_i] = 0$$

# OLS assumptions for large-sample inference

For large-sample inference and calculating SEs, we need the two-variable version of the Gauss-Markov assumptions:

- 1 Linearity

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- 2 Random/iid sample
- 3 No perfect collinearity
- 4 Zero conditional mean error

$$\mathbb{E}[u_i | X_i, Z_i] = 0$$

- 5 Homoskedasticity

$$\text{var}[u_i | X_i, Z_i] = \sigma_u^2$$

## Inference with two independent variables in large samples

- We have our OLS estimate  $\hat{\beta}_1$

## Inference with two independent variables in large samples

- We have our OLS estimate  $\hat{\beta}_1$
- We have an estimate of the standard error for that coefficient,  $\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_1]$ .

## Inference with two independent variables in large samples

- We have our OLS estimate  $\hat{\beta}_1$
- We have an estimate of the standard error for that coefficient,  $\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_1]$ .
- Under assumption 1-5, in large samples, we'll have the following:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_1]} \sim N(0, 1)$$

## Inference with two independent variables in large samples

- We have our OLS estimate  $\hat{\beta}_1$
- We have an estimate of the standard error for that coefficient,  $\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_1]$ .
- Under assumption 1-5, in large samples, we'll have the following:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_1]} \sim N(0, 1)$$

- The same holds for the other coefficient:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta_2}{\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_2]} \sim N(0, 1)$$

## Inference with two independent variables in large samples

- We have our OLS estimate  $\hat{\beta}_1$
- We have an estimate of the standard error for that coefficient,  $\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_1]$ .
- Under assumption 1-5, in large samples, we'll have the following:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_1]} \sim N(0, 1)$$

- The same holds for the other coefficient:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta_2}{\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_2]} \sim N(0, 1)$$

- Inference is exactly the same in large samples!

## Inference with two independent variables in large samples

- We have our OLS estimate  $\hat{\beta}_1$
- We have an estimate of the standard error for that coefficient,  $\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_1]$ .
- Under assumption 1-5, in large samples, we'll have the following:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_1]} \sim N(0, 1)$$

- The same holds for the other coefficient:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta_2}{\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_2]} \sim N(0, 1)$$

- Inference is exactly the same in large samples!
- Hypothesis tests and CIs are good to go



## Inference with two independent variables in large samples

- We have our OLS estimate  $\hat{\beta}_1$
- We have an estimate of the standard error for that coefficient,  $\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_1]$ .
- Under assumption 1-5, in large samples, we'll have the following:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_1]} \sim N(0, 1)$$

- The same holds for the other coefficient:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta_2}{\widehat{SE}[\hat{\beta}_2]} \sim N(0, 1)$$

- Inference is exactly the same in large samples!
- Hypothesis tests and CIs are good to go
- The SE's will change, though

# OLS assumptions for small-sample inference

## OLS assumptions for small-sample inference

For small-sample inference, we need the Gauss-Markov plus Normal errors:

# OLS assumptions for small-sample inference

For small-sample inference, we need the Gauss-Markov plus Normal errors:

- 1 Linearity

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- 2 Random/iid sample
- 3 No perfect collinearity
- 4 Zero conditional mean error

$$\mathbb{E}[u_i | X_i, Z_i] = 0$$

- 5 Homoskedasticity

$$\text{var}[u_i | X_i, Z_i] = \sigma_u^2$$

# OLS assumptions for small-sample inference

For small-sample inference, we need the Gauss-Markov plus Normal errors:

- 1 Linearity

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- 2 Random/iid sample
- 3 No perfect collinearity
- 4 Zero conditional mean error

$$\mathbb{E}[u_i | X_i, Z_i] = 0$$

- 5 Homoskedasticity

$$\text{var}[u_i | X_i, Z_i] = \sigma_u^2$$

- 6 Normal conditional errors

$$u_i \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$$

## Inference with two independent variables in small samples

- Under assumptions 1-6, we have the following small change to our small- $n$  sampling distribution:

$$\frac{\widehat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\widehat{SE}[\widehat{\beta}_1]} \sim t_{n-3}$$

## Inference with two independent variables in small samples

- Under assumptions 1-6, we have the following small change to our small- $n$  sampling distribution:

$$\frac{\widehat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\widehat{SE}[\widehat{\beta}_1]} \sim t_{n-3}$$

- The same is true for the other coefficient:

$$\frac{\widehat{\beta}_2 - \beta_2}{\widehat{SE}[\widehat{\beta}_2]} \sim t_{n-3}$$

## Inference with two independent variables in small samples

- Under assumptions 1-6, we have the following small change to our small- $n$  sampling distribution:

$$\frac{\widehat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\widehat{SE}[\widehat{\beta}_1]} \sim t_{n-3}$$

- The same is true for the other coefficient:

$$\frac{\widehat{\beta}_2 - \beta_2}{\widehat{SE}[\widehat{\beta}_2]} \sim t_{n-3}$$

- Why  $n - 3$ ?



## Inference with two independent variables in small samples

- Under assumptions 1-6, we have the following small change to our small- $n$  sampling distribution:

$$\frac{\widehat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\widehat{SE}[\widehat{\beta}_1]} \sim t_{n-3}$$

- The same is true for the other coefficient:

$$\frac{\widehat{\beta}_2 - \beta_2}{\widehat{SE}[\widehat{\beta}_2]} \sim t_{n-3}$$

- Why  $n - 3$ ?
  - ▶ We've estimated another parameter, so we need to take off another degree of freedom.

## Inference with two independent variables in small samples

- Under assumptions 1-6, we have the following small change to our small- $n$  sampling distribution:

$$\frac{\widehat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\widehat{SE}[\widehat{\beta}_1]} \sim t_{n-3}$$

- The same is true for the other coefficient:

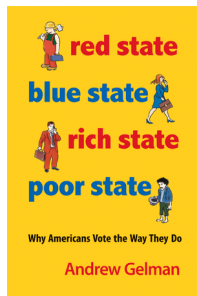
$$\frac{\widehat{\beta}_2 - \beta_2}{\widehat{SE}[\widehat{\beta}_2]} \sim t_{n-3}$$

- Why  $n - 3$ ?
  - ▶ We've estimated another parameter, so we need to take off another degree of freedom.
- $\rightsquigarrow$  small adjustments to the critical values and the t-values for our hypothesis tests and confidence intervals.

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

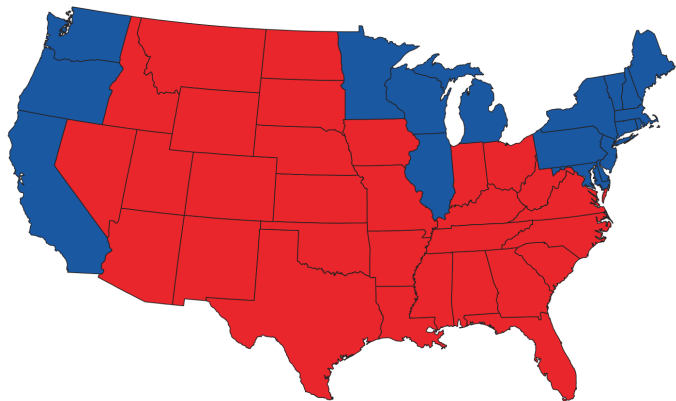
- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue**
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

# Red State Blue State

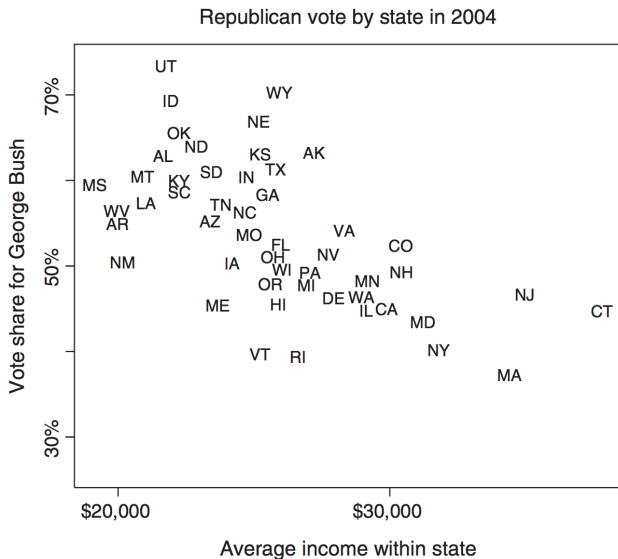


# Red and Blue States

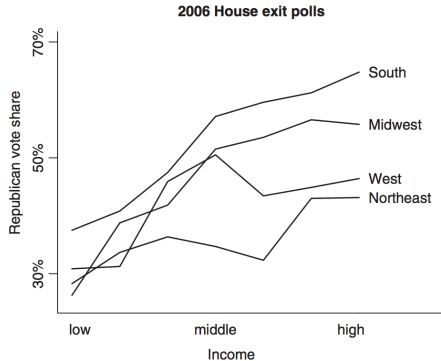
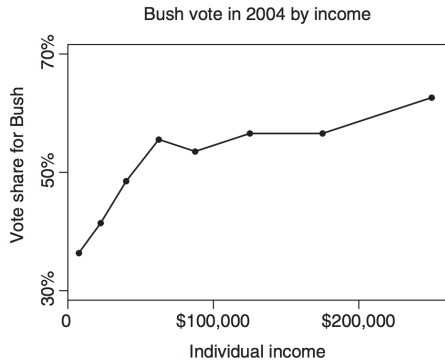
2004 election



# Rich States are More Democratic

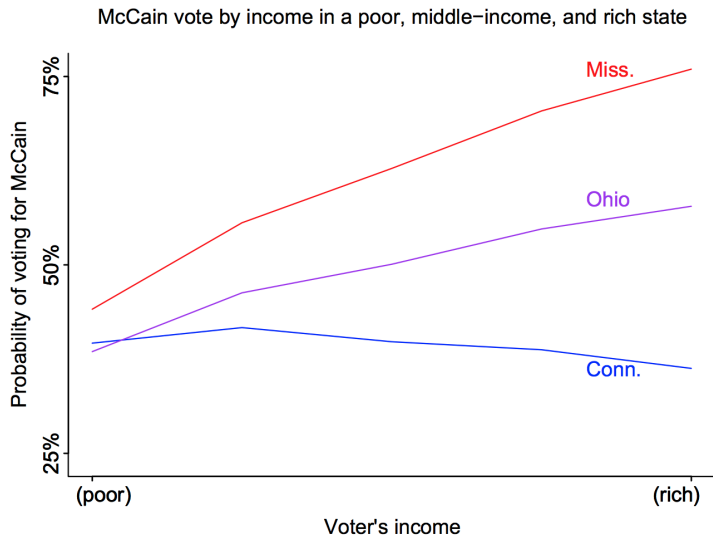


# But Rich People are More Republican



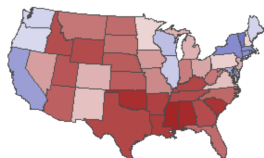


# Paradox Resolved

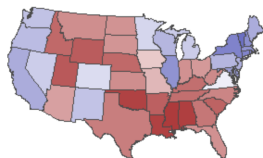


# If Only Rich People Voted, it Would Be a Landslide

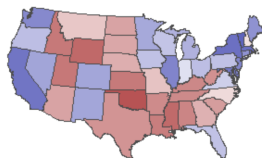
State winners in 2008  
(incomes over \$150,000)



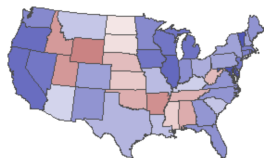
State winners in 2008  
(incomes \$75-150,000)



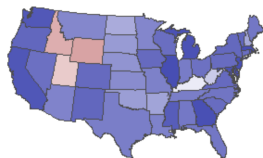
State winners in 2008  
(incomes \$40-75,000)



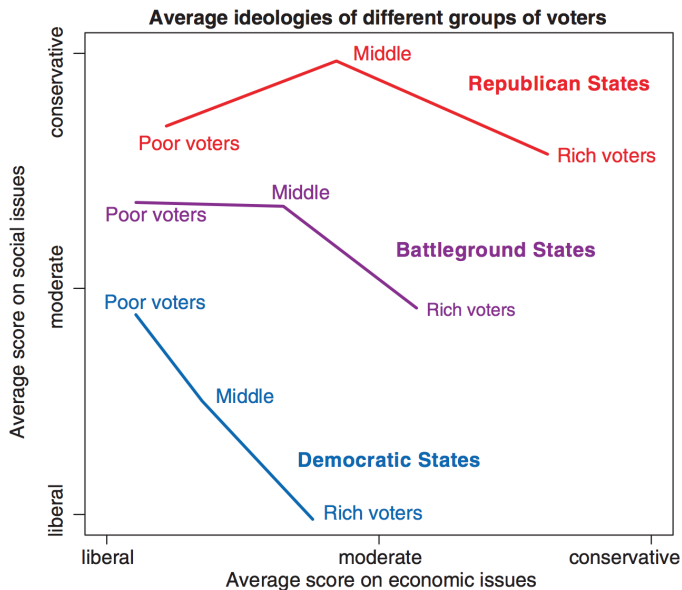
State winners in 2008  
(incomes \$20-40,000)



State winners in 2008  
(incomes under \$20,000)



# A Possible Explanation



## References

- Acemoglu, Daron, Simon Johnson, and James A. Robinson. "The colonial origins of comparative development: An empirical investigation." *American Economic Review*. 91(5). 2001: 1369-1401.
- Fish, M. Steven. "Islam and authoritarianism." *World politics* 55(01). 2002: 4-37.
- Gelman, Andrew. *Red state, blue state, rich state, poor state: why Americans vote the way they do*. Princeton University Press, 2009.

# Where We've Been and Where We're Going...

# Where We've Been and Where We're Going...

- Last Week
  - ▶ mechanics of OLS with one variable
  - ▶ properties of OLS
- This Week
  - ▶ Monday:
    - ★ adding a second variable
    - ★ new mechanics
  - ▶ Wednesday:
    - ★ omitted variable bias
    - ★ multicollinearity
    - ★ interactions
- Next Week
  - ▶ multiple regression
- Long Run
  - ▶ probability → inference → regression → causal inference

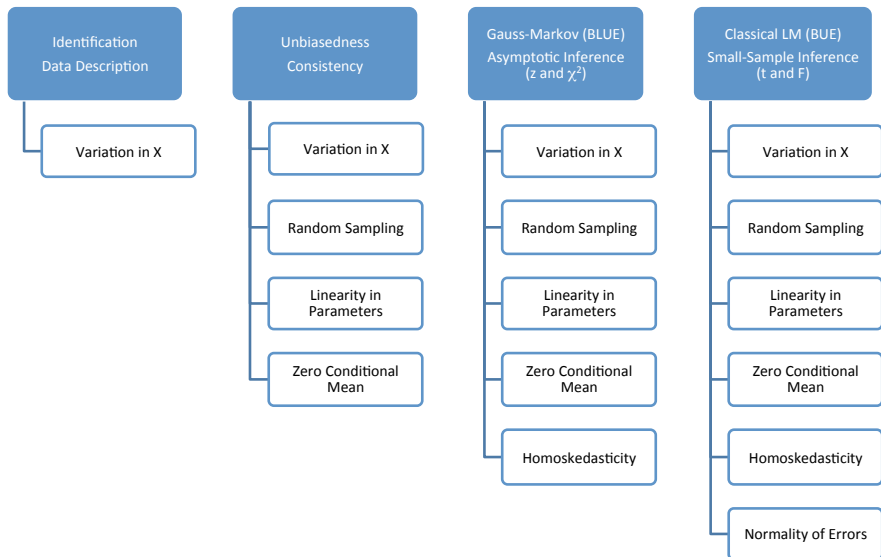
Questions?

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables**
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions



# Remember This?



# Unbiasedness revisited

- True model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

## Unbiasedness revisited

- True model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- Assumptions 1-4  $\Rightarrow$  we get unbiased estimates of the coefficients

## Unbiasedness revisited

- True model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- Assumptions 1-4  $\Rightarrow$  we get unbiased estimates of the coefficients
- What happens if we ignore the  $Z_i$  and just run the simple linear regression with just  $X_i$ ?

## Unbiasedness revisited

- True model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- Assumptions 1-4  $\Rightarrow$  we get unbiased estimates of the coefficients
- What happens if we ignore the  $Z_i$  and just run the simple linear regression with just  $X_i$ ?
- Misspecified model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i^* \quad u_i^* = \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

## Unbiasedness revisited

- True model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- Assumptions 1-4  $\Rightarrow$  we get unbiased estimates of the coefficients
- What happens if we ignore the  $Z_i$  and just run the simple linear regression with just  $X_i$ ?
- Misspecified model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i^* \quad u_i^* = \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- $\tilde{\beta}_1$  is the alternative estimator for  $\beta_1$  when we control only for  $X_i$ .

## Unbiasedness revisited

- True model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- Assumptions 1-4  $\Rightarrow$  we get unbiased estimates of the coefficients
- What happens if we ignore the  $Z_i$  and just run the simple linear regression with just  $X_i$ ?
- Misspecified model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i^* \quad u_i^* = \beta_2 Z_i + u_i$$

- $\tilde{\beta}_1$  is the alternative estimator for  $\beta_1$  when we control only for  $X_i$ .
- OLS estimates from the misspecified model:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 X_i$$

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$\text{Voted Republican} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Watch Fox News} + \beta_2 \text{Strong Republican} + u$$



## Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$\text{Voted Republican} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Watch Fox News} + \beta_2 \text{Strong Republican} + u$$

Underspecified Model that we use:

$$\widehat{\text{Voted Republican}} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 \text{Watch Fox News}$$

## Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$\text{Voted Republican} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Watch Fox News} + \beta_2 \text{Strong Republican} + u$$

Underspecified Model that we use:

$$\widehat{\text{Voted Republican}} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 \text{Watch Fox News}$$

Q: Which statement is correct?

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$\text{Voted Republican} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Watch Fox News} + \beta_2 \text{Strong Republican} + u$$

Underspecified Model that we use:

$$\widehat{\text{Voted Republican}} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 \text{Watch Fox News}$$

Q: Which statement is correct?

- 1  $\beta_1 > E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$\text{Voted Republican} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Watch Fox News} + \beta_2 \text{Strong Republican} + u$$

Underspecified Model that we use:

$$\widehat{\text{Voted Republican}} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 \text{Watch Fox News}$$

Q: Which statement is correct?

- ①  $\beta_1 > E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- ②  $\beta_1 < E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$\text{Voted Republican} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Watch Fox News} + \beta_2 \text{Strong Republican} + u$$

Underspecified Model that we use:

$$\widehat{\text{Voted Republican}} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 \text{Watch Fox News}$$

Q: Which statement is correct?

- 1  $\beta_1 > E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- 2  $\beta_1 < E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- 3  $\beta_1 = E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$\text{Voted Republican} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Watch Fox News} + \beta_2 \text{Strong Republican} + u$$

Underspecified Model that we use:

$$\widehat{\text{Voted Republican}} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 \text{Watch Fox News}$$

Q: Which statement is correct?

- 1  $\beta_1 > E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- 2  $\beta_1 < E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- 3  $\beta_1 = E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- 4 Can't tell

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$\text{Voted Republican} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Watch Fox News} + \beta_2 \text{Strong Republican} + u$$

Underspecified Model that we use:

$$\widehat{\text{Voted Republican}} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 \text{Watch Fox News}$$

Q: Which statement is correct?

- ①  $\beta_1 > E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- ②  $\beta_1 < E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- ③  $\beta_1 = E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- ④ Can't tell

Answer:  $\tilde{\beta}_1$  is upward biased since being a strong republican is positively correlated with both watching fox news and voting republican. We have  $\beta_1 < E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$ .

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case



# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$\text{Survival} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Hospitalized} + \beta_2 \text{Health} + u$$

## Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$\text{Survival} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Hospitalized} + \beta_2 \text{Health} + u$$

Under-specified Model that we use:

$$\widehat{\text{Survival}} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 \text{Hospitalized}$$

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$\text{Survival} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Hospitalized} + \beta_2 \text{Health} + u$$

Under-specified Model that we use:

$$\widehat{\text{Survival}} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 \text{Hospitalized}$$

Q: Which statement is correct?

- ①  $\beta_1 > E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- ②  $\beta_1 < E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- ③  $\beta_1 = E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- ④ Can't tell

## Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$\text{Survival} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Hospitalized} + \beta_2 \text{Health} + u$$

Under-specified Model that we use:

$$\widehat{\text{Survival}} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 \text{Hospitalized}$$

Q: Which statement is correct?

- ①  $\beta_1 > E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- ②  $\beta_1 < E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- ③  $\beta_1 = E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- ④ Can't tell

Answer: The negative coefficient  $\tilde{\beta}_1$  is downward biased compared to the true  $\beta_1$  so  $\beta_1 > E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$ . Being hospitalized is negatively correlated with health, and health is positively correlated with survival.

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + u$$

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + u$$

Underspecified Model that we use:

$$\tilde{y} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 x_1$$

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + u$$

Underspecified Model that we use:

$$\tilde{y} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 x_1$$

We can show that for the same sample, the relationship between  $\tilde{\beta}_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  is:

$$\tilde{\beta}_1 = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta}$$

where:

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + u$$

Underspecified Model that we use:

$$\tilde{y} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 x_1$$

We can show that for the same sample, the relationship between  $\tilde{\beta}_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  is:

$$\tilde{\beta}_1 = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta}$$

where:

- $\tilde{\delta}$  is the slope of a regression of  $x_2$  on  $x_1$ . If  $\tilde{\delta} > 0$  then  $\text{cor}(x_1, x_2) > 0$  and if  $\tilde{\delta} < 0$  then  $\text{cor}(x_1, x_2) < 0$ .



# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + u$$

Underspecified Model that we use:

$$\tilde{y} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 x_1$$

We can show that for the same sample, the relationship between  $\tilde{\beta}_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  is:

$$\tilde{\beta}_1 = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta}$$

where:

- $\tilde{\delta}$  is the slope of a regression of  $x_2$  on  $x_1$ . If  $\tilde{\delta} > 0$  then  $\text{cor}(x_1, x_2) > 0$  and if  $\tilde{\delta} < 0$  then  $\text{cor}(x_1, x_2) < 0$ .
- $\hat{\beta}_2$  is from the true regression and measures the relationship between  $x_2$  and  $y$ , conditional on  $x_1$ .

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + u$$

Underspecified Model that we use:

$$\tilde{y} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 x_1$$

We can show that for the same sample, the relationship between  $\tilde{\beta}_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  is:

$$\tilde{\beta}_1 = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta}$$

where:

- $\tilde{\delta}$  is the slope of a regression of  $x_2$  on  $x_1$ . If  $\tilde{\delta} > 0$  then  $\text{cor}(x_1, x_2) > 0$  and if  $\tilde{\delta} < 0$  then  $\text{cor}(x_1, x_2) < 0$ .
- $\hat{\beta}_2$  is from the true regression and measures the relationship between  $x_2$  and  $y$ , conditional on  $x_1$ .

Q. When will  $\tilde{\beta}_1 = \hat{\beta}_1$ ?

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + u$$

Underspecified Model that we use:

$$\tilde{y} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 x_1$$

We can show that for the same sample, the relationship between  $\tilde{\beta}_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  is:

$$\tilde{\beta}_1 = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta}$$

where:

- $\tilde{\delta}$  is the slope of a regression of  $x_2$  on  $x_1$ . If  $\tilde{\delta} > 0$  then  $\text{cor}(x_1, x_2) > 0$  and if  $\tilde{\delta} < 0$  then  $\text{cor}(x_1, x_2) < 0$ .
- $\hat{\beta}_2$  is from the true regression and measures the relationship between  $x_2$  and  $y$ , conditional on  $x_1$ .

Q. When will  $\tilde{\beta}_1 = \hat{\beta}_1$ ?

A. If  $\tilde{\delta} = 0$  or  $\hat{\beta}_2 = 0$ .

## Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

We take expectations to see what the bias will be:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\beta}_1 &= \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta} \\ E[\tilde{\beta}_1 | X] &= \end{aligned}$$

## Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

We take expectations to see what the bias will be:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\beta}_1 &= \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta} \\ E[\tilde{\beta}_1 | X] &= E[\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta} | X] \\ &= \end{aligned}$$

## Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

We take expectations to see what the bias will be:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\beta}_1 &= \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta} \\ E[\tilde{\beta}_1 | X] &= E[\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta} | X] \\ &= E[\hat{\beta}_1 | X] + E[\hat{\beta}_2 | X] \cdot \tilde{\delta} \quad (\tilde{\delta} \text{ nonrandom given } x) \\ &= \end{aligned}$$

## Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

We take expectations to see what the bias will be:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\beta}_1 &= \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta} \\ E[\tilde{\beta}_1 | X] &= E[\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta} | X] \\ &= E[\hat{\beta}_1 | X] + E[\hat{\beta}_2 | X] \cdot \tilde{\delta} \quad (\tilde{\delta} \text{ nonrandom given } x) \\ &= \beta_1 + \beta_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta} \quad (\text{given assumptions 1-4})\end{aligned}$$

## Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

We take expectations to see what the bias will be:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\beta}_1 &= \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta} \\ E[\tilde{\beta}_1 | X] &= E[\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta} | X] \\ &= E[\hat{\beta}_1 | X] + E[\hat{\beta}_2 | X] \cdot \tilde{\delta} \quad (\tilde{\delta} \text{ nonrandom given } x) \\ &= \beta_1 + \beta_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta} \quad (\text{given assumptions 1-4})\end{aligned}$$

So

$$\text{Bias}[\tilde{\beta}_1 | X] = E[\tilde{\beta}_1 | X] - \beta_1 = \beta_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta}$$



## Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

We take expectations to see what the bias will be:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\beta}_1 &= \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta} \\ E[\tilde{\beta}_1 | X] &= E[\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta} | X] \\ &= E[\hat{\beta}_1 | X] + E[\hat{\beta}_2 | X] \cdot \tilde{\delta} \quad (\tilde{\delta} \text{ nonrandom given } x) \\ &= \beta_1 + \beta_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta} \quad (\text{given assumptions 1-4})\end{aligned}$$

So

$$\text{Bias}[\tilde{\beta}_1 | X] = E[\tilde{\beta}_1 | X] - \beta_1 = \beta_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta}$$

So the bias depends on the relationship between  $x_2$  and  $x_1$ , our  $\tilde{\delta}$ , and the relationship between  $x_2$  and  $y$ , our  $\beta_2$ .

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

Formula:

$$\text{Bias}[\tilde{\beta}_1 | \mathbf{X}] = \beta_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta}$$

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

Formula:

$$\text{Bias}[\tilde{\beta}_1 | X] = \beta_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta}$$

Cinelli and Hazlett (2018) describe this as:

**impact** times its **imbalance**

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

Formula:

$$\text{Bias}[\tilde{\beta}_1 | \mathcal{X}] = \beta_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta}$$

Cinelli and Hazlett (2018) describe this as:

**impact** times its **imbalance**

- **impact** is how looking at different subgroups of the unobserved confounder  $x_2$  'impacts' our best linear prediction of the outcome.

# Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

Formula:

$$\text{Bias}[\tilde{\beta}_1 | \mathbf{X}] = \beta_2 \cdot \tilde{\delta}$$

Cinelli and Hazlett (2018) describe this as:

**impact** times its **imbalance**

- **impact** is how looking at different subgroups of the unobserved confounder  $x_2$  'impacts' our best linear prediction of the outcome.
- **imbalance** is how the expectation of the unobserved confounder  $x_2$  varies across levels of  $x_1$ .

## Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

Direction of the bias of  $\tilde{\beta}_1$  compared to  $\beta_1$  is given by:

	$\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) > 0$	$\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) < 0$	$\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) = 0$
$\beta_2 > 0$	Positive bias	Negative Bias	No bias
$\beta_2 < 0$	Negative bias	Positive Bias	No bias
$\beta_2 = 0$	No bias	No bias	No bias

## Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

Direction of the bias of  $\tilde{\beta}_1$  compared to  $\beta_1$  is given by:

	$\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) > 0$	$\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) < 0$	$\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) = 0$
$\beta_2 > 0$	Positive bias	Negative Bias	No bias
$\beta_2 < 0$	Negative bias	Positive Bias	No bias
$\beta_2 = 0$	No bias	No bias	No bias

Further points:

- Magnitude of the bias matters too

## Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

Direction of the bias of  $\tilde{\beta}_1$  compared to  $\beta_1$  is given by:

	$\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) > 0$	$\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) < 0$	$\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) = 0$
$\beta_2 > 0$	Positive bias	Negative Bias	No bias
$\beta_2 < 0$	Negative bias	Positive Bias	No bias
$\beta_2 = 0$	No bias	No bias	No bias

Further points:

- Magnitude of the bias matters too
- If you miss an important confounder, your estimates are **biased** and **inconsistent**.



## Omitted Variable Bias: Simple Case

Direction of the bias of  $\tilde{\beta}_1$  compared to  $\beta_1$  is given by:

	$\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) > 0$	$\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) < 0$	$\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) = 0$
$\beta_2 > 0$	Positive bias	Negative Bias	No bias
$\beta_2 < 0$	Negative bias	Positive Bias	No bias
$\beta_2 = 0$	No bias	No bias	No bias

Further points:

- Magnitude of the bias matters too
- If you miss an important confounder, your estimates are **biased** and **inconsistent**.
- In the more general case with more than two covariates the bias is more difficult to discern. It depends on all the pairwise correlations.

# Including an Irrelevant Variable: Simple Case

## Including an Irrelevant Variable: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + u \quad \text{where} \quad \beta_2 = 0$$

and Assumptions I–IV hold.

# Including an Irrelevant Variable: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + u \quad \text{where} \quad \beta_2 = 0$$

and Assumptions I–IV hold.

Overspecified Model that we use:

$$\tilde{y} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 x_1 + \tilde{\beta}_2 x_2$$

## Including an Irrelevant Variable: Simple Case

True Population Model:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + u \quad \text{where} \quad \beta_2 = 0$$

and Assumptions I–IV hold.

Overspecified Model that we use:

$$\tilde{y} = \tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 x_1 + \tilde{\beta}_2 x_2$$

Q: Which statement is correct?

- 1  $\beta_1 > E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- 2  $\beta_1 < E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- 3  $\beta_1 = E[\tilde{\beta}_1]$
- 4 Can't tell

# Including an Irrelevant Variable: Simple Case

## Including an Irrelevant Variable: Simple Case

Recall: Given Assumptions I–IV, we have:

$$E[\tilde{\beta}_j] = \beta_j$$

## Including an Irrelevant Variable: Simple Case

Recall: Given Assumptions I–IV, we have:

$$E[\tilde{\beta}_j] = \beta_j$$

for **all** values of  $\beta_j$ . So, if  $\beta_2 = 0$ , we get

$$E[\tilde{\beta}_0] = \beta_0, E[\tilde{\beta}_1] = \beta_1, E[\tilde{\beta}_2] = 0$$



## Including an Irrelevant Variable: Simple Case

Recall: Given Assumptions I–IV, we have:

$$E[\tilde{\beta}_j] = \beta_j$$

for **all** values of  $\beta_j$ . So, if  $\beta_2 = 0$ , we get

$$E[\tilde{\beta}_0] = \beta_0, E[\tilde{\beta}_1] = \beta_1, E[\tilde{\beta}_2] = 0$$

and thus including the irrelevant variable does not generally affect the unbiasedness. The sampling distribution of  $\tilde{\beta}_2$  will be centered about zero.

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity**
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

## Sampling variance for simple linear regression

- Under simple linear regression, we found that the distribution of the slope was the following:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

## Sampling variance for simple linear regression

- Under simple linear regression, we found that the distribution of the slope was the following:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

- Factors affecting the standard errors (the square root of these sampling variances):

## Sampling variance for simple linear regression

- Under simple linear regression, we found that the distribution of the slope was the following:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

- Factors affecting the standard errors (the square root of these sampling variances):
  - ▶ **The error variance**  $\sigma_u^2$  (higher conditional variance of  $Y_i$  leads to bigger SEs)

## Sampling variance for simple linear regression

- Under simple linear regression, we found that the distribution of the slope was the following:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

- Factors affecting the standard errors (the square root of these sampling variances):
  - ▶ The error variance  $\sigma_u^2$  (higher conditional variance of  $Y_i$  leads to bigger SEs)
  - ▶ The **total variation in  $X_i$** :  $\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$  (lower variation in  $X_i$  leads to bigger SEs)

## Sampling variation for linear regression with two covariates

- Regression with an additional independent variable:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{(1 - R_1^2) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$



## Sampling variation for linear regression with two covariates

- Regression with an additional independent variable:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{(1 - R_1^2) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

- Here,  $R_1^2$  is the  $R^2$  from the regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$ :

$$\hat{X}_i = \hat{\delta}_0 + \hat{\delta}_1 Z_i$$

## Sampling variation for linear regression with two covariates

- Regression with an additional independent variable:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{(1 - R_1^2) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

- Here,  $R_1^2$  is the  $R^2$  from the regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$ :

$$\hat{X}_i = \hat{\delta}_0 + \hat{\delta}_1 Z_i$$

- Factors now affecting the standard errors:

## Sampling variation for linear regression with two covariates

- Regression with an additional independent variable:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{(1 - R_1^2) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

- Here,  $R_1^2$  is the  $R^2$  from the regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$ :

$$\hat{X}_i = \hat{\delta}_0 + \hat{\delta}_1 Z_i$$

- Factors now affecting the standard errors:
  - ▶ The **error variance** (higher conditional variance of  $Y_i$  leads to bigger SEs)

## Sampling variation for linear regression with two covariates

- Regression with an additional independent variable:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{(1 - R_1^2) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

- Here,  $R_1^2$  is the  $R^2$  from the regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$ :

$$\hat{X}_i = \hat{\delta}_0 + \hat{\delta}_1 Z_i$$

- Factors now affecting the standard errors:
  - ▶ The error variance (higher conditional variance of  $Y_i$  leads to bigger SEs)
  - ▶ The **total variation of  $X_i$**  (lower variation in  $X_i$  leads to bigger SEs)

## Sampling variation for linear regression with two covariates

- Regression with an additional independent variable:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{(1 - R_1^2) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

- Here,  $R_1^2$  is the  $R^2$  from the regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$ :

$$\hat{X}_i = \hat{\delta}_0 + \hat{\delta}_1 Z_i$$

- Factors now affecting the standard errors:
  - ▶ The error variance (higher conditional variance of  $Y_i$  leads to bigger SEs)
  - ▶ The total variation of  $X_i$  (lower variation in  $X_i$  leads to bigger SEs)
  - ▶ The **strength of the relationship** between  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  (stronger relationships mean higher  $R_1^2$  and thus bigger SEs)

## Sampling variation for linear regression with two covariates

- Regression with an additional independent variable:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{(1 - R_1^2) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

- Here,  $R_1^2$  is the  $R^2$  from the regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$ :

$$\hat{X}_i = \hat{\delta}_0 + \hat{\delta}_1 Z_i$$

- Factors now affecting the standard errors:
  - ▶ The error variance (higher conditional variance of  $Y_i$  leads to bigger SEs)
  - ▶ The total variation of  $X_i$  (lower variation in  $X_i$  leads to bigger SEs)
  - ▶ The strength of the relationship between  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  (stronger relationships mean higher  $R_1^2$  and thus bigger SEs)
- What happens with perfect collinearity?  $R_1^2 = 1$  and the variances are infinite.

# Multicollinearity

# Multicollinearity

## Definition

Multicollinearity is defined to be high, but not perfect, correlation between two independent variables in a regression.



# Multicollinearity

## Definition

Multicollinearity is defined to be high, but not perfect, correlation between two independent variables in a regression.

- With multicollinearity, we'll have  $R_1^2 \approx 1$ , but not exactly.

# Multicollinearity

## Definition

Multicollinearity is defined to be high, but not perfect, correlation between two independent variables in a regression.

- With multicollinearity, we'll have  $R_1^2 \approx 1$ , but not exactly.
- The stronger the relationship between  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$ , the closer the  $R_1^2$  will be to 1, and the higher the SEs will be:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{(1 - R_1^2) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

# Multicollinearity

## Definition

Multicollinearity is defined to be high, but not perfect, correlation between two independent variables in a regression.

- With multicollinearity, we'll have  $R_1^2 \approx 1$ , but not exactly.
- The stronger the relationship between  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$ , the closer the  $R_1^2$  will be to 1, and the higher the SEs will be:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{(1 - R_1^2) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

- Given the symmetry, it will also increase  $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2)$  as well.

# Intuition for multicollinearity

- Remember the OLS recipe:

# Intuition for multicollinearity

- Remember the OLS recipe:
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_1$  from regression of  $Y_i$  on  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$

# Intuition for multicollinearity

- Remember the OLS recipe:
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_1$  from regression of  $Y_i$  on  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$
  - ▶  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$

# Intuition for multicollinearity

- Remember the OLS recipe:
  - ▶  $\hat{\beta}_1$  from regression of  $Y_i$  on  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$
  - ▶  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$
- Estimated coefficient:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2}$$

# Intuition for multicollinearity

- Remember the OLS recipe:
  - $\hat{\beta}_1$  from regression of  $Y_i$  on  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$
  - $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$

- Estimated coefficient:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2}$$

- When  $Z_i$  and  $X_i$  have a strong relationship, then the residuals will have low variation



# Intuition for multicollinearity

- Remember the OLS recipe:
  - $\hat{\beta}_1$  from regression of  $Y_i$  on  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$
  - $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$
- Estimated coefficient:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2}$$

- When  $Z_i$  and  $X_i$  have a strong relationship, then the residuals will have low variation
- We explain away a lot of the variation in  $X_i$  through  $Z_i$ .

# Intuition for multicollinearity

- Remember the OLS recipe:
  - $\hat{\beta}_1$  from regression of  $Y_i$  on  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$
  - $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$
- Estimated coefficient:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2}$$

- When  $Z_i$  and  $X_i$  have a strong relationship, then the residuals will have low variation
- We explain away a lot of the variation in  $X_i$  through  $Z_i$ .
- Low variation in an independent variable (here,  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$ )  $\rightsquigarrow$  high SEs

# Intuition for multicollinearity

- Remember the OLS recipe:
  - $\hat{\beta}_1$  from regression of  $Y_i$  on  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$
  - $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$  are the residuals from the regression of  $X_i$  on  $Z_i$
- Estimated coefficient:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_{xz,i} Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_{xz,i}^2}$$

- When  $Z_i$  and  $X_i$  have a strong relationship, then the residuals will have low variation
- We explain away a lot of the variation in  $X_i$  through  $Z_i$ .
- Low variation in an independent variable (here,  $\hat{r}_{xz,i}$ )  $\rightsquigarrow$  high SEs
- Basically, there is less residual variation left in  $X_i$  after “partialling out” the effect of  $Z_i$

## Effects of multicollinearity

- No effect on the bias of OLS.

## Effects of multicollinearity

- No effect on the bias of OLS.
- Only increases the standard errors.

## Effects of multicollinearity

- No effect on the bias of OLS.
- Only increases the standard errors.
- Really just a sample size problem:

## Effects of multicollinearity

- No effect on the bias of OLS.
- Only increases the standard errors.
- Really just a sample size problem:
  - ▶ If  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  are extremely highly correlated, you're going to need a much bigger sample to accurately differentiate between their effects.

## Effects of multicollinearity

- No effect on the bias of OLS.
- Only increases the standard errors.
- Really just a sample size problem:
  - ▶ If  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  are extremely highly correlated, you're going to need a much bigger sample to accurately differentiate between their effects.



## Effects of multicollinearity

- No effect on the bias of OLS.
- Only increases the standard errors.
- Really just a sample size problem:
  - ▶ If  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  are extremely highly correlated, you're going to need a much bigger sample to accurately differentiate between their effects.



## How Do We Detect Multicollinearity?

- The best practice is to directly compute  $\text{Cor}(X_1, X_2)$  before running your regression.

## How Do We Detect Multicollinearity?

- The best practice is to directly compute  $\text{Cor}(X_1, X_2)$  before running your regression.
- But you might (and probably will) forget to do so. Even then, you can detect multicollinearity from your regression result:

## How Do We Detect Multicollinearity?

- The best practice is to directly compute  $\text{Cor}(X_1, X_2)$  before running your regression.
- But you might (and probably will) forget to do so. Even then, you can detect multicollinearity from your regression result:
  - ▶ Large changes in the estimated regression coefficients when a predictor variable is added or deleted

## How Do We Detect Multicollinearity?

- The best practice is to directly compute  $\text{Cor}(X_1, X_2)$  before running your regression.
- But you might (and probably will) forget to do so. Even then, you can detect multicollinearity from your regression result:
  - ▶ Large changes in the estimated regression coefficients when a predictor variable is added or deleted
  - ▶ Lack of statistical significance despite high  $R^2$

## How Do We Detect Multicollinearity?

- The best practice is to directly compute  $\text{Cor}(X_1, X_2)$  before running your regression.
- But you might (and probably will) forget to do so. Even then, you can detect multicollinearity from your regression result:
  - ▶ Large changes in the estimated regression coefficients when a predictor variable is added or deleted
  - ▶ Lack of statistical significance despite high  $R^2$
  - ▶ Estimated regression coefficients have an opposite sign from predicted

## How Do We Detect Multicollinearity?

- The best practice is to directly compute  $\text{Cor}(X_1, X_2)$  before running your regression.
- But you might (and probably will) forget to do so. Even then, you can detect multicollinearity from your regression result:
  - ▶ Large changes in the estimated regression coefficients when a predictor variable is added or deleted
  - ▶ Lack of statistical significance despite high  $R^2$
  - ▶ Estimated regression coefficients have an opposite sign from predicted
- A more formal indicator is the **variance inflation factor (VIF)**:

$$VIF(\beta_j) = \frac{1}{1 - R_j^2}$$

which measures how much  $V[\hat{\beta}_j | X]$  is inflated compared to a (hypothetical) uncorrelated data. (where  $R_j^2$  is the coefficient of determination from the partialing out equation)

## How Do We Detect Multicollinearity?

- The best practice is to directly compute  $\text{Cor}(X_1, X_2)$  before running your regression.
- But you might (and probably will) forget to do so. Even then, you can detect multicollinearity from your regression result:
  - ▶ Large changes in the estimated regression coefficients when a predictor variable is added or deleted
  - ▶ Lack of statistical significance despite high  $R^2$
  - ▶ Estimated regression coefficients have an opposite sign from predicted
- A more formal indicator is the **variance inflation factor (VIF)**:

$$VIF(\beta_j) = \frac{1}{1 - R_j^2}$$

which measures how much  $V[\hat{\beta}_j | X]$  is inflated compared to a (hypothetical) uncorrelated data. (where  $R_j^2$  is the coefficient of determination from the partialing out equation)

In R, `vif()` in the `car` package.



## So How Should I Think about Multicollinearity?

- Multicollinearity does NOT lead to bias; estimates will be unbiased and consistent.

## So How Should I Think about Multicollinearity?

- Multicollinearity does NOT lead to bias; estimates will be unbiased and consistent.
- Multicollinearity should in fact be seen as a problem of **micronumerosity**, or “too little data.” You can’t ask the OLS estimator to distinguish the partial effects of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  if they are essentially the same.

## So How Should I Think about Multicollinearity?

- Multicollinearity does NOT lead to bias; estimates will be unbiased and consistent.
- Multicollinearity should in fact be seen as a problem of **micronumerosity**, or “too little data.” You can’t ask the OLS estimator to distinguish the partial effects of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  if they are essentially the same.
- If  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are almost the same, why would you want a unique  $\beta_1$  and a unique  $\beta_2$ ? Think about how you would interpret that?

## So How Should I Think about Multicollinearity?

- Multicollinearity does NOT lead to bias; estimates will be unbiased and consistent.
- Multicollinearity should in fact be seen as a problem of **micronumerosity**, or “too little data.” You can’t ask the OLS estimator to distinguish the partial effects of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  if they are essentially the same.
- If  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are almost the same, why would you want a unique  $\beta_1$  and a unique  $\beta_2$ ? Think about how you would interpret that?
- Relax, you got way more important things to worry about!
- If possible, get more data
- Drop one of the variables, or combine them
- Or maybe linear regression is not the right tool

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables**
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

# Why Dummy Variables?

- A **dummy variable** (a.k.a. indicator variable, binary variable, etc.) is a variable that is coded 1 or 0 only.

# Why Dummy Variables?

- A **dummy variable** (a.k.a. indicator variable, binary variable, etc.) is a variable that is coded 1 or 0 only.
- We use dummy variables in regression to represent qualitative information through **categorical variables** such as different subgroups of the sample (e.g. regions, old and young respondents, etc.)



# Why Dummy Variables?

- A **dummy variable** (a.k.a. indicator variable, binary variable, etc.) is a variable that is coded 1 or 0 only.
- We use dummy variables in regression to represent qualitative information through **categorical variables** such as different subgroups of the sample (e.g. regions, old and young respondents, etc.)
- By including dummy variables into our regression function, we can easily obtain the **conditional mean of the outcome variable for each category**.

# Why Dummy Variables?

- A **dummy variable** (a.k.a. indicator variable, binary variable, etc.) is a variable that is coded 1 or 0 only.
- We use dummy variables in regression to represent qualitative information through **categorical variables** such as different subgroups of the sample (e.g. regions, old and young respondents, etc.)
- By including dummy variables into our regression function, we can easily obtain the **conditional mean of the outcome variable for each category**.
  - ▶ E.g. does average income vary by region? Are Republicans smarter than Democrats?

# Why Dummy Variables?

- A **dummy variable** (a.k.a. indicator variable, binary variable, etc.) is a variable that is coded 1 or 0 only.
- We use dummy variables in regression to represent qualitative information through **categorical variables** such as different subgroups of the sample (e.g. regions, old and young respondents, etc.)
- By including dummy variables into our regression function, we can easily obtain the **conditional mean of the outcome variable for each category**.
  - ▶ E.g. does average income vary by region? Are Republicans smarter than Democrats?
- Dummy variables are also used to examine conditional hypothesis via **interaction terms**

# Why Dummy Variables?

- A **dummy variable** (a.k.a. indicator variable, binary variable, etc.) is a variable that is coded 1 or 0 only.
- We use dummy variables in regression to represent qualitative information through **categorical variables** such as different subgroups of the sample (e.g. regions, old and young respondents, etc.)
- By including dummy variables into our regression function, we can easily obtain the **conditional mean of the outcome variable for each category**.
  - ▶ E.g. does average income vary by region? Are Republicans smarter than Democrats?
- Dummy variables are also used to examine conditional hypothesis via **interaction terms**
  - ▶ E.g. does the effect of education differ by gender?

## How Can I Use a Dummy Variable?

- Consider the easiest case with two categories. The type of electoral system of country  $i$  is given by:

$$X_i \in \{Proportional, Majoritarian\}$$

## How Can I Use a Dummy Variable?

- Consider the easiest case with two categories. The type of electoral system of country  $i$  is given by:

$$X_i \in \{Proportional, Majoritarian\}$$

- For this we use a single dummy variable which is coded like:

$$D_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if country } i \text{ has a Majoritarian Electoral System} \\ 0 & \text{if country } i \text{ has a Proportional Electoral System} \end{cases}$$

## How Can I Use a Dummy Variable?

- Consider the easiest case with two categories. The type of electoral system of country  $i$  is given by:

$$X_i \in \{Proportional, Majoritarian\}$$

- For this we use a single dummy variable which is coded like:

$$D_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if country } i \text{ has a Majoritarian Electoral System} \\ 0 & \text{if country } i \text{ has a Proportional Electoral System} \end{cases}$$

- Let's regress GDP on this dummy variable and a constant:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D + u$$

## Example: GDP per capita on Electoral System

R Code

```
> summary(lm(REALGDPCAP ~ MAJORITARIAN, data = D))
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = REALGDPCAP ~ MAJORITARIAN, data = D)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-5982	-4592	-2112	4293	13685

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	7097.7	763.2	9.30	1.64e-14 ***
MAJORITARIAN	-1053.8	1224.9	-0.86	0.392

---

Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 5504 on 83 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.008838, Adjusted R-squared: -0.003104

F-statistic: 0.7401 on 1 and 83 DF, p-value: 0.3921



## Example: GDP per capita on Electoral System

R Code

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	7097.7	763.2	9.30	1.64e-14	***
MAJORITARIAN	-1053.8	1224.9	-0.86	0.392	

R Code

```
> gdp.pro <- D$REALGDPCAP[D$MAJORITARIAN == 0]
> summary(gdp.pro)
  Min. 1st Qu.  Median    Mean 3rd Qu.    Max.
 1116   2709   5102   7098  10670  20780

> gdp.maj <- D$REALGDPCAP[D$MAJORITARIAN == 1]
> summary(gdp.maj)
  Min. 1st Qu.  Median    Mean 3rd Qu.    Max.
 530.2 1431.0  3404.0  6044.0 11770.0 18840.0
```

So this is just like a difference in means two sample t-test!

## Example: GDP per capita on Electoral System

R Code

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	7097.7	763.2	9.30	1.64e-14	***
MAJORITARIAN	-1053.8	1224.9	-0.86	0.392	

R Code

```
> gdp.pro <- D$REALGDPCAP[D$MAJORITARIAN == 0]
> summary(gdp.pro)
  Min. 1st Qu.  Median    Mean 3rd Qu.  Max.
 1116   2709   5102   7098  10670  20780

> gdp.maj <- D$REALGDPCAP[D$MAJORITARIAN == 1]
> summary(gdp.maj)
  Min. 1st Qu.  Median    Mean 3rd Qu.  Max.
 530.2 1431.0  3404.0 6044.0 11770.0 18840.0
```

So this is just like a difference in means two sample t-test!

## Example: GDP per capita on Electoral System

R Code

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )	
(Intercept)	7097.7	763.2	9.30	1.64e-14	***
MAJORITARIAN	-1053.8	1224.9	-0.86	0.392	

R Code

```
> gdp.pro <- D$REALGDPCAP[D$MAJORITARIAN == 0]
> summary(gdp.pro)
  Min. 1st Qu.  Median    Mean 3rd Qu.    Max.
 1116   2709   5102   7098  10670  20780

> gdp.maj <- D$REALGDPCAP[D$MAJORITARIAN == 1]
> summary(gdp.maj)
  Min. 1st Qu.  Median    Mean 3rd Qu.    Max.
 530.2 1431.0  3404.0 6044.0 11770.0 18840.0
```

So this is just like a difference in means two sample t-test!

## Dummy Variables for Multiple Categories

- More generally, let's say  $X$  measures which of  $m$  categories each unit  $i$  belongs to. E.g. the type of electoral system or region of country  $i$  is given by:
  - ▶  $X_i \in \{Proportional, Majoritarian\}$  so  $m = 2$
  - ▶  $X_i \in \{Asia, Africa, LatinAmerica, OECD, Transition\}$  so  $m = 5$

## Dummy Variables for Multiple Categories

- More generally, let's say  $X$  measures which of  $m$  categories each unit  $i$  belongs to. E.g. the type of electoral system or region of country  $i$  is given by:
  - ▶  $X_i \in \{Proportional, Majoritarian\}$  so  $m = 2$
  - ▶  $X_i \in \{Asia, Africa, LatinAmerica, OECD, Transition\}$  so  $m = 5$
- To incorporate this information into our regression function we usually create  $m - 1$  dummy variables, one for each of the  $m - 1$  categories.

## Dummy Variables for Multiple Categories

- More generally, let's say  $X$  measures which of  $m$  categories each unit  $i$  belongs to. E.g. the type of electoral system or region of country  $i$  is given by:
  - ▶  $X_i \in \{Proportional, Majoritarian\}$  so  $m = 2$
  - ▶  $X_i \in \{Asia, Africa, LatinAmerica, OECD, Transition\}$  so  $m = 5$
- To incorporate this information into our regression function we usually create  $m - 1$  dummy variables, one for each of the  $m - 1$  categories.
- Why not all  $m$ ?

## Dummy Variables for Multiple Categories

- More generally, let's say  $X$  measures which of  $m$  categories each unit  $i$  belongs to. E.g. the type of electoral system or region of country  $i$  is given by:
  - ▶  $X_i \in \{Proportional, Majoritarian\}$  so  $m = 2$
  - ▶  $X_i \in \{Asia, Africa, LatinAmerica, OECD, Transition\}$  so  $m = 5$
- To incorporate this information into our regression function we usually create  $m - 1$  dummy variables, one for each of the  $m - 1$  categories.
- Why not all  $m$ ? Including all  $m$  category indicators as dummies would violate the no perfect collinearity assumption:

$$D_m = 1 - (D_1 + \dots + D_{m-1})$$

## Dummy Variables for Multiple Categories

- More generally, let's say  $X$  measures which of  $m$  categories each unit  $i$  belongs to. E.g. the type of electoral system or region of country  $i$  is given by:
  - ▶  $X_i \in \{Proportional, Majoritarian\}$  so  $m = 2$
  - ▶  $X_i \in \{Asia, Africa, LatinAmerica, OECD, Transition\}$  so  $m = 5$
- To incorporate this information into our regression function we usually create  $m - 1$  dummy variables, one for each of the  $m - 1$  categories.
- Why not all  $m$ ? Including all  $m$  category indicators as dummies would violate the no perfect collinearity assumption:

$$D_m = 1 - (D_1 + \dots + D_{m-1})$$

- The omitted category is our **baseline case** (also called a **reference category**) against which we compare the conditional means of  $Y$  for the other  $m - 1$  categories.



## Example: Regions of the World

- Consider the case of our “polytomous” variable world region with  $m = 5$ :  
 $X_i \in \{Asia, Africa, LatinAmerica, OECD, Transition\}$

## Example: Regions of the World

- Consider the case of our “polytomous” variable world region with  $m = 5$ :  
 $X_i \in \{Asia, Africa, LatinAmerica, OECD, Transition\}$
- This five-category classification can be represented in the regression equation by introducing  $m - 1 = 4$  dummy regressors:

Category	$D_1$	$D_2$	$D_3$	$D_4$
Asia	1	0	0	0
Africa	0	1	0	0
LatinAmerica	0	0	1	0
OECD	0	0	0	1
Transition	0	0	0	0

## Example: Regions of the World

- Consider the case of our “polytomous” variable world region with  $m = 5$ :  
 $X_i \in \{Asia, Africa, LatinAmerica, OECD, Transition\}$
- This five-category classification can be represented in the regression equation by introducing  $m - 1 = 4$  dummy regressors:

Category	$D_1$	$D_2$	$D_3$	$D_4$
Asia	1	0	0	0
Africa	0	1	0	0
LatinAmerica	0	0	1	0
OECD	0	0	0	1
Transition	0	0	0	0

Our regression equation is:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_1 + \beta_2 D_2 + \beta_3 D_3 + \beta_4 D_4 + u$$

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms**
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

# Why Interaction Terms?

- Interaction terms will allow you to let the **slope** on one variable vary as a function of another variable

# Why Interaction Terms?

- Interaction terms will allow you to let the **slope** on one variable vary as a function of another variable
- Interaction terms are central in regression analysis to:
  - ▶ Model and test conditional hypothesis (do the returns to education vary by gender?)

# Why Interaction Terms?

- Interaction terms will allow you to let the **slope** on one variable vary as a function of another variable
- Interaction terms are central in regression analysis to:
  - ▶ Model and test conditional hypothesis (do the returns to education vary by gender?)
  - ▶ Make model of the conditional expectation function more realistic by letting coefficients vary across subgroups



# Why Interaction Terms?

- Interaction terms will allow you to let the **slope** on one variable vary as a function of another variable
- Interaction terms are central in regression analysis to:
  - ▶ Model and test conditional hypothesis (do the returns to education vary by gender?)
  - ▶ Make model of the conditional expectation function more realistic by letting coefficients vary across subgroups
- We can interact:
  - ▶ two or more dummy variables

# Why Interaction Terms?

- Interaction terms will allow you to let the **slope** on one variable vary as a function of another variable
- Interaction terms are central in regression analysis to:
  - ▶ Model and test conditional hypothesis (do the returns to education vary by gender?)
  - ▶ Make model of the conditional expectation function more realistic by letting coefficients vary across subgroups
- We can interact:
  - ▶ two or more dummy variables
  - ▶ dummy variables and continuous variables

# Why Interaction Terms?

- Interaction terms will allow you to let the **slope** on one variable vary as a function of another variable
- Interaction terms are central in regression analysis to:
  - ▶ Model and test conditional hypothesis (do the returns to education vary by gender?)
  - ▶ Make model of the conditional expectation function more realistic by letting coefficients vary across subgroups
- We can interact:
  - ▶ two or more dummy variables
  - ▶ dummy variables and continuous variables
  - ▶ two or more continuous variables

# Why Interaction Terms?

- Interaction terms will allow you to let the **slope** on one variable vary as a function of another variable
- Interaction terms are central in regression analysis to:
  - ▶ Model and test conditional hypothesis (do the returns to education vary by gender?)
  - ▶ Make model of the conditional expectation function more realistic by letting coefficients vary across subgroups
- We can interact:
  - ▶ two or more dummy variables
  - ▶ dummy variables and continuous variables
  - ▶ two or more continuous variables
- Interactions often confuses researchers and mistakes in use and interpretation occur frequently (even in top journals)

## Return to the Fish Example

- Data comes from Fish (2002), “Islam and Authoritarianism.”

## Return to the Fish Example

- Data comes from Fish (2002), “Islam and Authoritarianism.”
- Basic relationship: does more economic development lead to more democracy?

## Return to the Fish Example

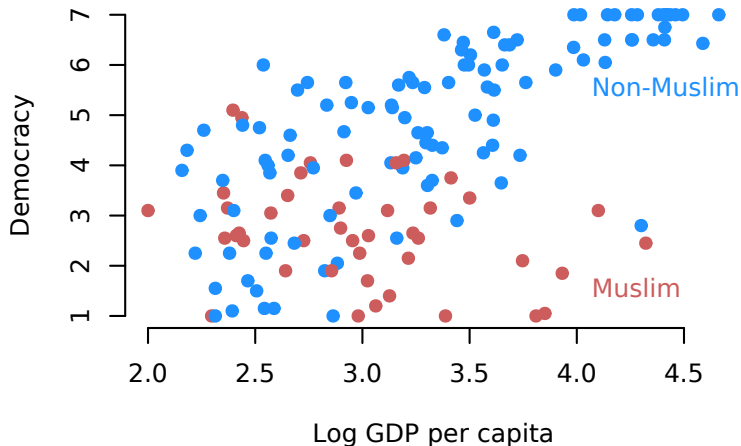
- Data comes from Fish (2002), “Islam and Authoritarianism.”
- Basic relationship: does more economic development lead to more democracy?
- We measure economic development with log GDP per capita

## Return to the Fish Example

- Data comes from Fish (2002), “Islam and Authoritarianism.”
- Basic relationship: does more economic development lead to more democracy?
- We measure economic development with log GDP per capita
- We measure democracy with a Freedom House score, 1 (less free) to 7 (more free)

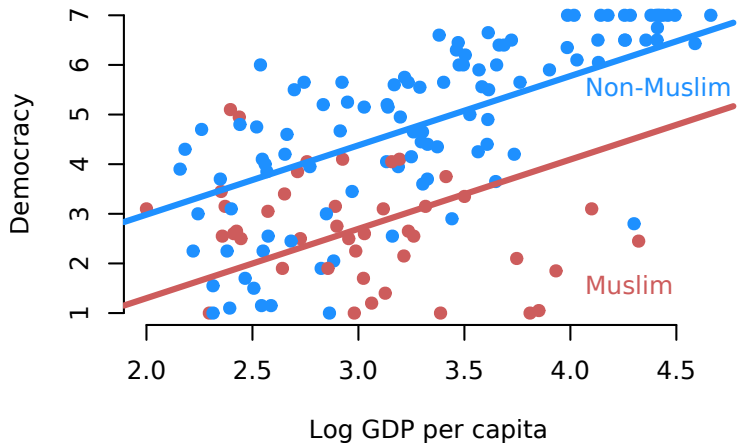


## Let's see the data

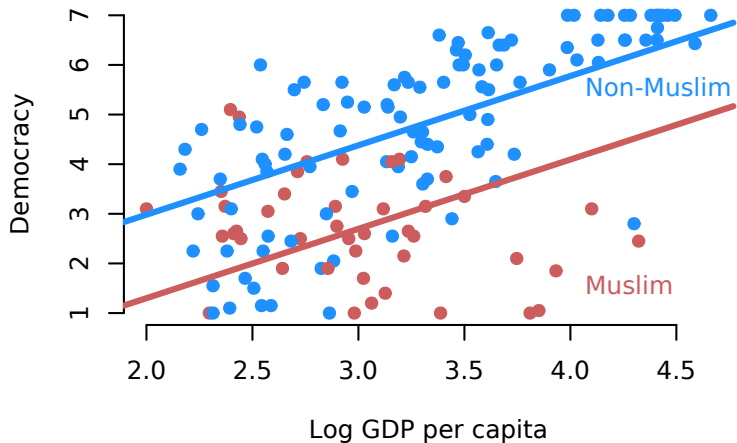


Fish argues that Muslim countries are less likely to be democratic no matter their economic development

## Controlling for Religion Additively

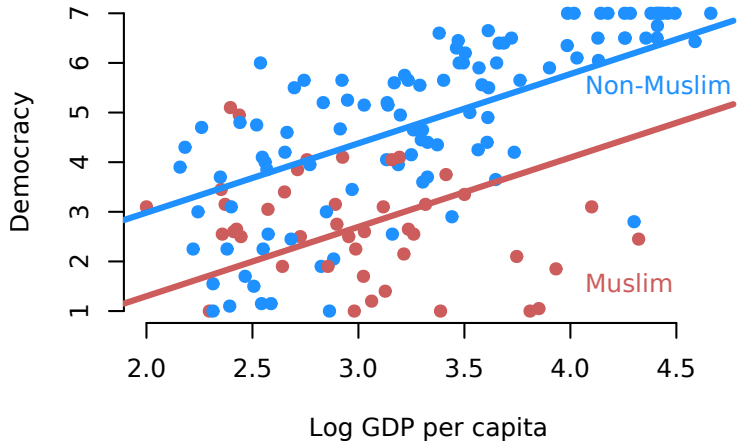


## Controlling for Religion Additively



But the regression is a poor fit for Muslim countries

## Controlling for Religion Additively



But the regression is a poor fit for Muslim countries

Can we allow for different slopes for each group?

# Interactions with a binary variable

## Interactions with a binary variable

- Let  $Z_i$  be binary

## Interactions with a binary variable

- Let  $Z_i$  be binary
- In this case,  $Z_i = 1$  for the country being Muslim

## Interactions with a binary variable

- Let  $Z_i$  be binary
- In this case,  $Z_i = 1$  for the country being Muslim
- We can add another covariate to the baseline model that allows the effect of income to vary by Muslim status.



## Interactions with a binary variable

- Let  $Z_i$  be binary
- In this case,  $Z_i = 1$  for the country being Muslim
- We can add another covariate to the baseline model that allows the effect of income to vary by Muslim status.
- This covariate is called an interaction term and it is the product of the two **marginal** variables of interest:  $income_i \times muslim_i$

## Interactions with a binary variable

- Let  $Z_i$  be binary
- In this case,  $Z_i = 1$  for the country being Muslim
- We can add another covariate to the baseline model that allows the effect of income to vary by Muslim status.
- This covariate is called an interaction term and it is the product of the two **marginal** variables of interest:  $income_i \times muslim_i$
- Here is the model with the interaction term:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

## Two lines in one regression

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

## Two lines in one regression

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

- How can we interpret this model?

## Two lines in one regression

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

- How can we interpret this model?
- We can plug in the two possible values of  $Z_i$

## Two lines in one regression

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

- How can we interpret this model?
- We can plug in the two possible values of  $Z_i$
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

## Two lines in one regression

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

- How can we interpret this model?
- We can plug in the two possible values of  $Z_i$
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

## Two lines in one regression

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

- How can we interpret this model?
- We can plug in the two possible values of  $Z_i$
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{Y}_i &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 0 + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i \times 0\end{aligned}$$



## Two lines in one regression

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

- How can we interpret this model?
- We can plug in the two possible values of  $Z_i$
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{Y}_i &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 0 + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i \times 0 \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i\end{aligned}$$

## Two lines in one regression

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

- How can we interpret this model?
- We can plug in the two possible values of  $Z_i$
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{Y}_i &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 0 + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i \times 0 \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i\end{aligned}$$

- When  $Z_i = 1$ :

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

## Two lines in one regression

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

- How can we interpret this model?
- We can plug in the two possible values of  $Z_i$
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{Y}_i &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 0 + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i \times 0 \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i\end{aligned}$$

- When  $Z_i = 1$ :

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

## Two lines in one regression

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

- How can we interpret this model?
- We can plug in the two possible values of  $Z_i$
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{Y}_i &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 0 + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i \times 0 \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i\end{aligned}$$

- When  $Z_i = 1$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{Y}_i &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 1 + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i \times 1\end{aligned}$$

## Two lines in one regression

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

- How can we interpret this model?
- We can plug in the two possible values of  $Z_i$
- When  $Z_i = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{Y}_i &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 0 + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i \times 0 \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i\end{aligned}$$

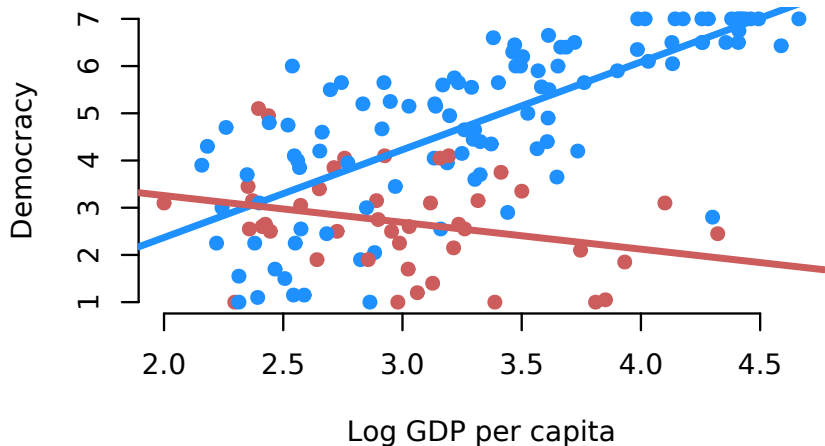
- When  $Z_i = 1$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{Y}_i &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i \\ &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 1 + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i \times 1 \\ &= (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2) + (\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_3) X_i\end{aligned}$$

# Example interpretation of the coefficients

## Example interpretation of the coefficients

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
Non-Muslim country ( $Z_i = 0$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
Muslim country ( $Z_i = 1$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2$	$\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_3$



## General interpretation of the coefficients

- $\hat{\beta}_0$ : average value of  $Y_i$  when both  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  are equal to 0



## General interpretation of the coefficients

- $\hat{\beta}_0$ : average value of  $Y_i$  when both  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  are equal to 0
- $\hat{\beta}_1$ : a one-unit change in  $X_i$  is associated with a  $\hat{\beta}_1$ -unit change in  $Y_i$  when  $Z_i = 0$

## General interpretation of the coefficients

- $\hat{\beta}_0$ : average value of  $Y_i$  when both  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  are equal to 0
- $\hat{\beta}_1$ : a one-unit change in  $X_i$  is associated with a  $\hat{\beta}_1$ -unit change in  $Y_i$  when  $Z_i = 0$
- $\hat{\beta}_2$ : average difference in  $Y_i$  between  $Z_i = 1$  group and  $Z_i = 0$  group when  $X_i = 0$

## General interpretation of the coefficients

- $\hat{\beta}_0$ : average value of  $Y_i$  when both  $X_i$  and  $Z_i$  are equal to 0
- $\hat{\beta}_1$ : a one-unit change in  $X_i$  is associated with a  $\hat{\beta}_1$ -unit change in  $Y_i$  when  $Z_i = 0$
- $\hat{\beta}_2$ : average difference in  $Y_i$  between  $Z_i = 1$  group and  $Z_i = 0$  group when  $X_i = 0$
- $\hat{\beta}_3$ : change in the effect of  $X_i$  on  $Y_i$  between  $Z_i = 1$  group and  $Z_i = 0$

# Lower order terms

## Lower order terms

- Principle of Marginality: Always include the **marginal effects** (sometimes called the **lower order terms**)

## Lower order terms

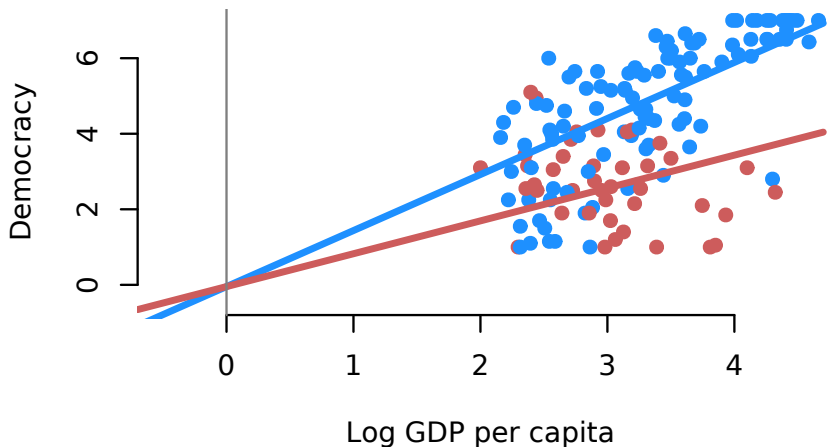
- Principle of Marginality: Always include the **marginal effects** (sometimes called the **lower order terms**)
- Imagine we omitted the lower order term for `muslim`:

## Lower order terms

- Principle of Marginality: Always include the **marginal effects** (sometimes called the **lower order terms**)
- Imagine we omitted the lower order term for `muslim`:

## Lower order terms

- Principle of Marginality: Always include the **marginal effects** (sometimes called the **lower order terms**)
- Imagine we omitted the lower order term for muslim:





# Omitting lower order terms

## Omitting lower order terms

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + 0 \times Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
Non-Muslim country ( $Z_i = 0$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
Muslim country ( $Z_i = 1$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0 + 0$	$\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_3$

## Omitting lower order terms

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + 0 \times Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
Non-Muslim country ( $Z_i = 0$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
Muslim country ( $Z_i = 1$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0 + 0$	$\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_3$

- Implication: no difference between Muslims and non-Muslims when income is 0

## Omitting lower order terms

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + 0 \times Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
Non-Muslim country ( $Z_i = 0$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
Muslim country ( $Z_i = 1$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0 + 0$	$\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_3$

- Implication: no difference between Muslims and non-Muslims when income is 0
- Distorts slope estimates.

## Omitting lower order terms

$$\widehat{Y}_i = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + 0 \times Z_i + \widehat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
Non-Muslim country ( $Z_i = 0$ )	$\widehat{\beta}_0$	$\widehat{\beta}_1$
Muslim country ( $Z_i = 1$ )	$\widehat{\beta}_0 + 0$	$\widehat{\beta}_1 + \widehat{\beta}_3$

- Implication: no difference between Muslims and non-Muslims when income is 0
- Distorts slope estimates.
- Very rarely justified.

## Omitting lower order terms

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + 0 \times Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
Non-Muslim country ( $Z_i = 0$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
Muslim country ( $Z_i = 1$ )	$\hat{\beta}_0 + 0$	$\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_3$

- Implication: no difference between Muslims and non-Muslims when income is 0
- Distorts slope estimates.
- Very rarely justified.
- Yet, for some reason, people keep doing it.

## Interactions with two continuous variables

- Now let  $Z_i$  be continuous

## Interactions with two continuous variables

- Now let  $Z_i$  be continuous
- $Z_i$  is the percent growth in GDP per capita from 1975 to 1998



## Interactions with two continuous variables

- Now let  $Z_i$  be continuous
- $Z_i$  is the percent growth in GDP per capita from 1975 to 1998
- Is the effect of economic development for rapidly developing countries higher or lower than for stagnant economies?

## Interactions with two continuous variables

- Now let  $Z_i$  be continuous
- $Z_i$  is the percent growth in GDP per capita from 1975 to 1998
- Is the effect of economic development for rapidly developing countries higher or lower than for stagnant economies?
- We can still define the interaction:

$$income_i \times growth_i$$

## Interactions with two continuous variables

- Now let  $Z_i$  be continuous
- $Z_i$  is the percent growth in GDP per capita from 1975 to 1998
- Is the effect of economic development for rapidly developing countries higher or lower than for stagnant economies?
- We can still define the interaction:

$$income_i \times growth_i$$

- And include it in the regression:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

# Interpretation

- With a continuous  $Z_i$ , we can have more than two values that it can take on:

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
$Z_i = 0$	$\widehat{\beta}_0$	$\widehat{\beta}_1$

# Interpretation

- With a continuous  $Z_i$ , we can have more than two values that it can take on:

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
$Z_i = 0$	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$

# Interpretation

- With a continuous  $Z_i$ , we can have more than two values that it can take on:

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
$Z_i = 0$	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 0.5$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 0.5$	$\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_3 \times 0.5$

# Interpretation

- With a continuous  $Z_i$ , we can have more than two values that it can take on:

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
$Z_i = 0$	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 0.5$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 0.5$	$\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_3 \times 0.5$
$Z_i = 1$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 1$	$\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_3 \times 1$

# Interpretation

- With a continuous  $Z_i$ , we can have more than two values that it can take on:

	Intercept for $X_i$	Slope for $X_i$
$Z_i = 0$	$\hat{\beta}_0$	$\hat{\beta}_1$
$Z_i = 0.5$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 0.5$	$\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_3 \times 0.5$
$Z_i = 1$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 1$	$\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_3 \times 1$
$Z_i = 5$	$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 \times 5$	$\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_3 \times 5$



## General interpretation

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

- The coefficient  $\hat{\beta}_1$  measures how the predicted outcome varies in  $X_i$  when  $Z_i = 0$ .

## General interpretation

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i + \hat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \hat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

- The coefficient  $\hat{\beta}_1$  measures how the predicted outcome varies in  $X_i$  when  $Z_i = 0$ .
- The coefficient  $\hat{\beta}_2$  measures how the predicted outcome varies in  $Z_i$  when  $X_i = 0$

## General interpretation

$$\widehat{Y}_i = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \widehat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

- The coefficient  $\widehat{\beta}_1$  measures how the predicted outcome varies in  $X_i$  when  $Z_i = 0$ .
- The coefficient  $\widehat{\beta}_2$  measures how the predicted outcome varies in  $Z_i$  when  $X_i = 0$
- The coefficient  $\widehat{\beta}_3$  is the change in the effect of  $X_i$  given a one-unit change in  $Z_i$ :

$$\frac{\partial E[Y_i | X_i, Z_i]}{\partial X_i} = \beta_1 + \beta_3 Z_i$$

## General interpretation

$$\widehat{Y}_i = \widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 X_i + \widehat{\beta}_2 Z_i + \widehat{\beta}_3 X_i Z_i$$

- The coefficient  $\widehat{\beta}_1$  measures how the predicted outcome varies in  $X_i$  when  $Z_i = 0$ .
- The coefficient  $\widehat{\beta}_2$  measures how the predicted outcome varies in  $Z_i$  when  $X_i = 0$ .
- The coefficient  $\widehat{\beta}_3$  is the change in the effect of  $X_i$  given a one-unit change in  $Z_i$ :

$$\frac{\partial E[Y_i | X_i, Z_i]}{\partial X_i} = \beta_1 + \beta_3 Z_i$$

- The coefficient  $\widehat{\beta}_3$  is the change in the effect of  $Z_i$  given a one-unit change in  $X_i$ :

$$\frac{\partial E[Y_i | X_i, Z_i]}{\partial Z_i} = \beta_2 + \beta_3 X_i$$

# Additional Assumptions

## Additional Assumptions

Interaction effects are particularly susceptible to model dependence. We are making two assumptions for the estimated effects to be meaningful:

## Additional Assumptions

Interaction effects are particularly susceptible to model dependence. We are making two assumptions for the estimated effects to be meaningful:

- 1 Linearity of the interaction effect

## Additional Assumptions

Interaction effects are particularly susceptible to model dependence. We are making two assumptions for the estimated effects to be meaningful:

- 1 Linearity of the interaction effect
- 2 Common support (variation in  $X$  throughout the range of  $Z$ )



# Additional Assumptions

Interaction effects are particularly susceptible to model dependence. We are making two assumptions for the estimated effects to be meaningful:

- 1 Linearity of the interaction effect
- 2 Common support (variation in  $X$  throughout the range of  $Z$ )

We will talk about checking these assumptions in a few weeks.

## How Much Should We Trust Estimates from Multiplicative Interaction Models? Simple Tools to Improve Empirical Practice

Jens Hainmueller Jonathan Mummolo Yiqing Xu\*

April 20, 2018

(*Political Analysis*, forthcoming)

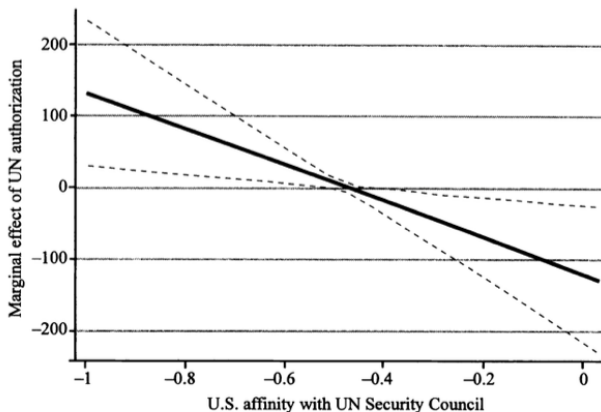
### Abstract

Multiplicative interaction models are widely used in social science to examine whether the relationship between an outcome and an independent variable changes with a moderating variable. Current empirical practice tends to overlook two important problems. First, these models assume a linear interaction effect that changes at a constant rate with the moderator. Second, estimates of the conditional effects of the independent variable can be misleading if there is a lack of common support of the moderator. Replicating 46 interaction effects from 22 recent publications in five top political science journals, we find that these core assumptions often fail in practice, suggesting that a large portion of findings across all political science subfields based on interaction models are modeling artifacts or are at best highly model dependent. We propose a checklist of simple diagnostics to assess the validity of these assumptions and offer flexible estimation strategies that allow for nonlinear interaction effects and safeguard against excessive extrapolation. These statistical routines are available in both R and STATA.

## Example: Common Support

Chapman 2009 analysis

example and reanalysis from Hainmueller, Mummolo, Xu 2016

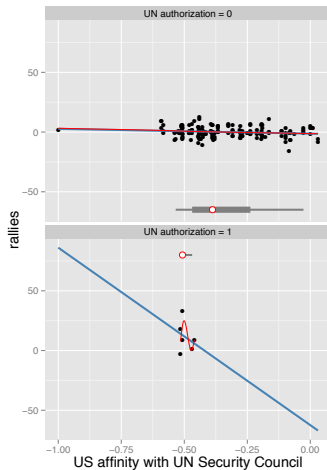


Note: Dashed lines give 95 percent confidence interval.

# Example: Common Support

Chapman 2009 analysis

example and reanalysis from Hainmueller, Mummolo, Xu 2016



# Summary for Interactions

## Summary for Interactions

- Do not omit lower order terms (unless you have a strong theory that tells you so) because this usually imposes unrealistic restrictions.

## Summary for Interactions

- Do not omit lower order terms (unless you have a strong theory that tells you so) because this usually imposes unrealistic restrictions.
- Do not interpret the coefficients on the lower terms as marginal effects (they give the marginal effect only for the case where the other variable is equal to zero)

## Summary for Interactions

- Do not omit lower order terms (unless you have a strong theory that tells you so) because this usually imposes unrealistic restrictions.
- Do not interpret the coefficients on the lower terms as marginal effects (they give the marginal effect only for the case where the other variable is equal to zero)
- Produce tables or figures that summarize the conditional marginal effects of the variable of interest at plausible different levels of the other variable; use correct formula to compute variance for these conditional effects (sum of coefficients)

## Summary for Interactions

- Do not omit lower order terms (unless you have a strong theory that tells you so) because this usually imposes unrealistic restrictions.
- Do not interpret the coefficients on the lower terms as marginal effects (they give the marginal effect only for the case where the other variable is equal to zero)
- Produce tables or figures that summarize the conditional marginal effects of the variable of interest at plausible different levels of the other variable; use correct formula to compute variance for these conditional effects (sum of coefficients)
- In simple cases the p-value on the interaction term can be used as a test against the null of no interaction, but significant tests for the lower order terms rarely make sense.



## Summary for Interactions

- Do not omit lower order terms (unless you have a strong theory that tells you so) because this usually imposes unrealistic restrictions.
- Do not interpret the coefficients on the lower terms as marginal effects (they give the marginal effect only for the case where the other variable is equal to zero)
- Produce tables or figures that summarize the conditional marginal effects of the variable of interest at plausible different levels of the other variable; use correct formula to compute variance for these conditional effects (sum of coefficients)
- In simple cases the p-value on the interaction term can be used as a test against the null of no interaction, but significant tests for the lower order terms rarely make sense.

Further Reading: Brambor, Clark, and Golder. 2006. Understanding Interaction Models: Improving Empirical Analyses. *Political Analysis* 14 (1): 63-82.

Hainmueller, Mummolo, Xu. 2016. How Much Should We Trust Estimates from Multiplicative Interaction Models? Simple Tools to Improve Empirical Practice. *Working Paper*

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials**
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

# Polynomial terms

# Polynomial terms

- Polynomial terms are a special case of the continuous variable interactions.

## Polynomial terms

- Polynomial terms are a special case of the continuous variable interactions.
- For example, when  $X_1 = X_2$  in the previous interaction model, we get a quadratic:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 X_2 + u$$

$$Y = \beta_0 + (\beta_1 + \beta_2) X_1 + \beta_3 X_1 X_1 + u$$

$$Y = \beta_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 X_1 + \tilde{\beta}_2 X_1^2 + u$$

- This is called a **second order polynomial** in  $X_1$

## Polynomial terms

- Polynomial terms are a special case of the continuous variable interactions.
- For example, when  $X_1 = X_2$  in the previous interaction model, we get a quadratic:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 X_2 + u$$

$$Y = \beta_0 + (\beta_1 + \beta_2) X_1 + \beta_3 X_1 X_1 + u$$

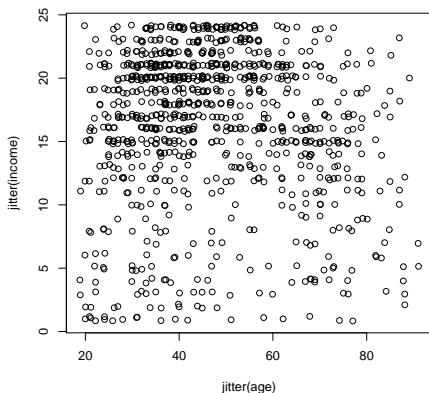
$$Y = \beta_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 X_1 + \tilde{\beta}_2 X_1^2 + u$$

- This is called a **second order polynomial** in  $X_1$
- A **third order polynomial** is given by:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_1^2 + \beta_3 X_1^3 + u$$

# Polynomial Example: Income and Age

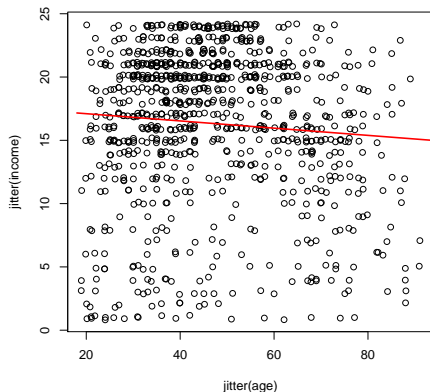
- Let's look at data from the U.S. and examine the relationship between **Y: income** and **X: age**





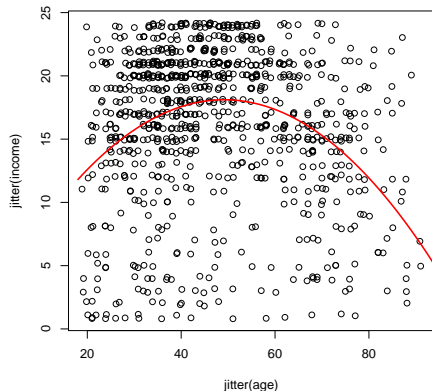
# Polynomial Example: Income and Age

- Let's look at data from the U.S. and examine the relationship between **Y: income** and **X: age**
- We see that a simple linear specification does not fit the data very well:  
$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + u$$



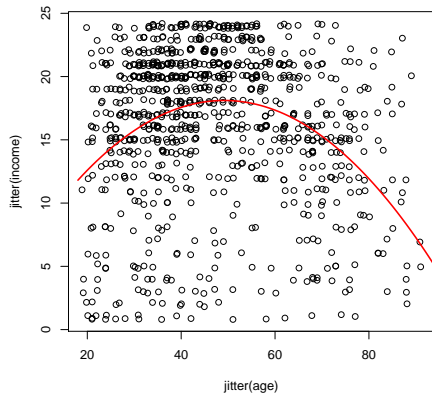
# Polynomial Example: Income and Age

- Let's look at data from the U.S. and examine the relationship between **Y: income** and **X: age**
- We see that a simple linear specification does not fit the data very well:  
$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + u$$
- A second order polynomial in age fits the data a lot better:  
$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_1^2 + u$$



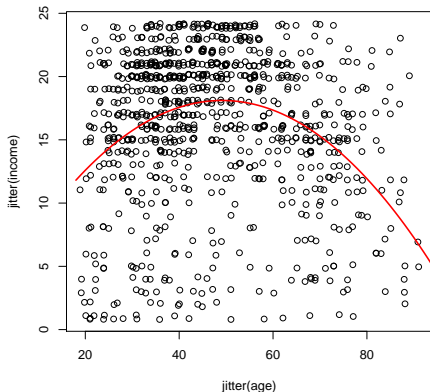
# Polynomial Example: Income and Age

- $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_1^2 + u$



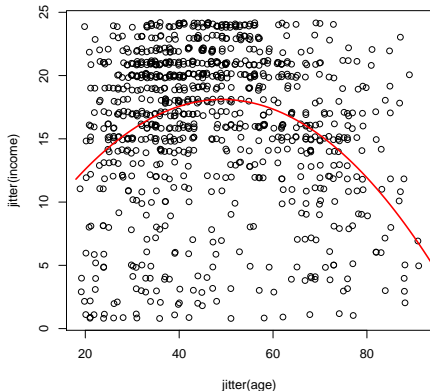
# Polynomial Example: Income and Age

- $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_1^2 + u$
- Is  $\beta_1$  the marginal effect of age on income?



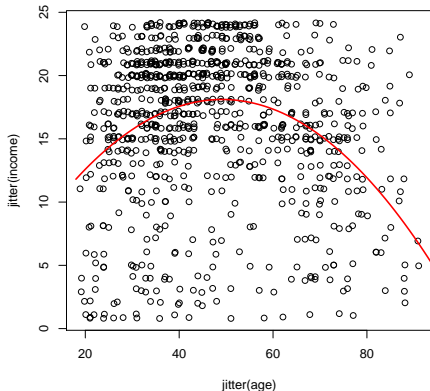
## Polynomial Example: Income and Age

- $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_1^2 + u$
- Is  $\beta_1$  the marginal effect of age on income?
- No! The marginal effect of age depends on the level of age:  
$$\frac{\partial Y}{\partial X_1} = \hat{\beta}_1 + 2\hat{\beta}_2 X_1$$
Here the effect of age changes monotonically from positive to negative with income.



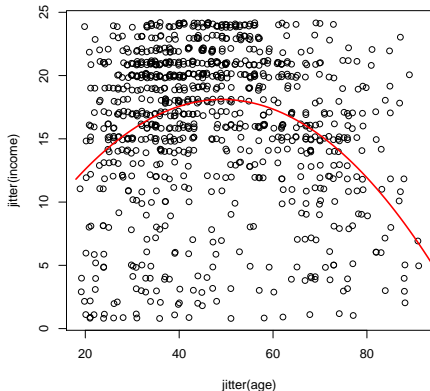
## Polynomial Example: Income and Age

- $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_1^2 + u$
- Is  $\beta_1$  the marginal effect of age on income?
- No! The marginal effect of age depends on the level of age:  
$$\frac{\partial Y}{\partial X_1} = \hat{\beta}_1 + 2\hat{\beta}_2 X_1$$
Here the effect of age changes monotonically from positive to negative with income.
- If  $\beta_2 > 0$  we get a U-shape, and if  $\beta_2 < 0$  we get an inverted U-shape.

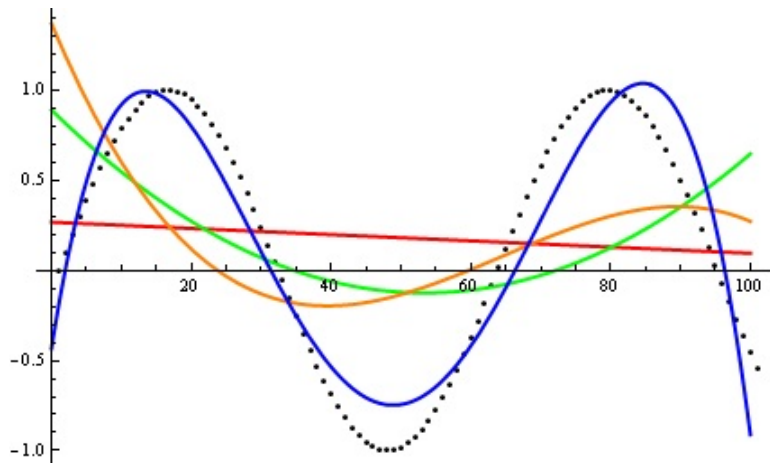


## Polynomial Example: Income and Age

- $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_1^2 + u$
- Is  $\beta_1$  the marginal effect of age on income?
- No! The marginal effect of age depends on the level of age:  
$$\frac{\partial Y}{\partial X_1} = \hat{\beta}_1 + 2\hat{\beta}_2 X_1$$
Here the effect of age changes monotonically from positive to negative with income.
- If  $\beta_2 > 0$  we get a U-shape, and if  $\beta_2 < 0$  we get an inverted U-shape.
- Maximum/Minimum occurs at  $|\frac{\beta_1}{2\beta_2}|$ . Here turning point is at  $X_1 = 50$ .



## Higher Order Polynomials



Approximating data generated with a sine function. Red line is a first degree polynomial, green line is second degree, orange line is third degree and blue is fourth degree



# Conclusion

In this brave new world with 2 independent variables:

# Conclusion

In this brave new world with 2 independent variables:

- 1  $\beta$ 's have slightly different interpretations

# Conclusion

In this brave new world with 2 independent variables:

- 1  $\beta$ 's have slightly different interpretations
- 2 OLS still minimizing the sum of the squared residuals

# Conclusion

In this brave new world with 2 independent variables:

- 1  $\beta$ 's have slightly different interpretations
- 2 OLS still minimizing the sum of the squared residuals
- 3 Small adjustments to OLS assumptions and inference

# Conclusion

In this brave new world with 2 independent variables:

- 1  $\beta$ 's have slightly different interpretations
- 2 OLS still minimizing the sum of the squared residuals
- 3 Small adjustments to OLS assumptions and inference
- 4 Adding or omitting variables in a regression can affect the bias and the variance of OLS

# Conclusion

In this brave new world with 2 independent variables:

- 1  $\beta$ 's have slightly different interpretations
- 2 OLS still minimizing the sum of the squared residuals
- 3 Small adjustments to OLS assumptions and inference
- 4 Adding or omitting variables in a regression can affect the bias and the variance of OLS
- 5 We can optionally consider interactions, but must take care to interpret them correctly

## Next Week

## Next Week

- OLS in its full glory



## Next Week

- OLS in its full glory
- Reading:
  - ▶ Practice up on matrices - **we won't** spend time reviewing matrix multiplication and inverses.
  - ▶ Aronow and Miller 4.1.3 Regression with Matrix Algebra
  - ▶ Optional: Fox Chapter 9.1-9.4 (skip 9.1.1-9.1.2) Linear Models in Matrix Form
  - ▶ Optional: Fox Chapter 10 Geometry of Regression
  - ▶ Optional: Imai Chapter 4.3-4.3.3
  - ▶ Optional: Angrist and Pischke Chapter 3.1 Regression Fundamentals

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions

- 1 Two Examples
- 2 Adding a Binary Variable
- 3 Adding a Continuous Covariate
- 4 Once More With Feeling
- 5 OLS Mechanics and Partialing Out
- 6 Fun With Red and Blue
- 7 Omitted Variables
- 8 Multicollinearity
- 9 Dummy Variables
- 10 Interaction Terms
- 11 Polynomials
- 12 Conclusion
- 13 Fun With Interactions**

# Fun With Interactions

# Fun With Interactions

Remember that time I mentioned people doing strange things with interactions?

# Fun With Interactions

Remember that time I mentioned people doing strange things with interactions?

Brooks and Manza (2006). "Social Policy Responsiveness in Developed Democracies." *American Sociological Review*.

## Fun With Interactions

Remember that time I mentioned people doing strange things with interactions?

Brooks and Manza (2006). "Social Policy Responsiveness in Developed Democracies." *American Sociological Review*.

Breznau (2015) "The Missing Main Effect of Welfare State Regimes: A Replication of 'Social Policy Responsiveness in Developed Democracies.'" *Sociological Science*.

# Original Argument

- Public preferences shape welfare state trajectories over the long term



# Original Argument

- Public preferences shape welfare state trajectories over the long term
- Democracy empowers the masses, and that empowerment helps define social outcomes

# Original Argument

- Public preferences shape welfare state trajectories over the long term
- Democracy empowers the masses, and that empowerment helps define social outcomes
- Key model is interaction between liberal/non-liberal and public preferences on social spending

# Original Argument

- Public preferences shape welfare state trajectories over the long term
- Democracy empowers the masses, and that empowerment helps define social outcomes
- Key model is interaction between liberal/non-liberal and public preferences on social spending
- but. . . they leave out a main effect.

# Omitted Term

- They omit the marginal term for liberal/non-liberal

# Omitted Term

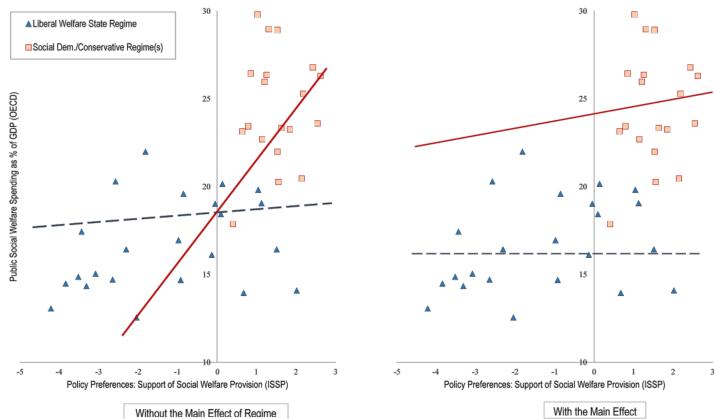
- They omit the marginal term for liberal/non-liberal
- This forces the two regression lines to intersect at public preferences = 0.

## Omitted Term

- They omit the marginal term for liberal/non-liberal
- This forces the two regression lines to intersect at public preferences = 0.
- They mean center so the 0 represents the average over the entire sample

# What Happens?

# What Happens?



**Figure 1:** Predicted Regression Lines for the Effect of Policy Preferences on Social Welfare Spending, without and with the Main Effect of Regime



# Moral of the Story

# Moral of the Story

Seriously

# Moral of the Story

Seriously, don't

# Moral of the Story

Seriously, don't omit

## Moral of the Story

Seriously, don't omit lower order terms.

## Moral of the Story

Seriously, don't omit lower order terms.

<PLEASE>

## References

- Acemoglu, Daron, Simon Johnson, and James A. Robinson. "The colonial origins of comparative development: An empirical investigation." *American Economic Review*. 91(5). 2001: 1369-1401.
- Fish, M. Steven. "Islam and authoritarianism." *World politics* 55(01). 2002: 4-37.
- Gelman, Andrew. *Red state, blue state, rich state, poor state: why Americans vote the way they do*. Princeton University Press, 2009.