### Omitted Variables<sup>1</sup> STA442/2101 Fall 2016

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### A Practical Data Analysis Problem

When more explanatory variables are added to a regression model and these additional explanatory variables are correlated with explanatory variables already in the model (as they usually are in an observational study),

- Statistical significance can appear when it was not present originally.
- Statistical significance that was originally present can disappear.
- Even the signs of the  $\hat{\beta}s$  can change, reversing the interpretation of how their variables are related to the response variable.

### An extreme, artificial example To make a point

Suppose that in a certain population, the correlation between age and strength is r = -0.93.



Age and Strength

#### The fixed x regression model

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i,1} + \dots + \beta_k x_{i,p-1} + \epsilon_i, \text{ with } \epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

- If viewed as conditional on X<sub>i</sub> = x<sub>i</sub>, this model implies independence of ε<sub>i</sub> and X<sub>i</sub>, because the conditional distribution of ε<sub>i</sub> given X<sub>i</sub> = x<sub>i</sub> does not depend on x<sub>i</sub>.
- What is  $\epsilon_i$ ? Everything else that affects  $Y_i$ .
- So the usual model says that if the explanatory variables are random, they have zero covariance with all other variables that are related to  $Y_i$ , but are not included in the model.
- For observational data, this assumption is almost always violated.
- Does it matter?

Example The explanatory variables are random.

> Suppose that the variables  $X_2$  and  $X_3$  affect Y and are correlated with  $X_1$ , but they are not part of the data set. The values of the response variable are generated as follows:

$$Y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X_{i,1} + \beta_{2}X_{i,2} + \beta_{2}X_{i,3} + \epsilon_{i},$$

independently for i = 1, ..., n, where  $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ . The explanatory variables are random, with expected value and variance-covariance matrix

$$E\begin{pmatrix}X_{i,1}\\X_{i,2}\\X_{i,3}\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\mu_1\\\mu_2\\\mu_3\end{pmatrix} \text{ and } V\begin{pmatrix}X_{i,1}\\X_{i,2}\\X_{i,3}\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\phi_{11} & \phi_{12} & \phi_{13}\\ & \phi_{22} & \phi_{23}\\ & & \phi_{33}\end{pmatrix},$$

where  $\epsilon_i$  is independent of  $X_{i,1}$ ,  $X_{i,2}$  and  $X_{i,3}$ .

#### Absorb $X_2$ and $X_3$

Since  $X_2$  and  $X_3$  are not observed, they are absorbed by the intercept and error term.

$$Y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X_{i,1} + \beta_{2}X_{i,2} + \beta_{2}X_{i,3} + \epsilon_{i}$$
  
=  $(\beta_{0} + \beta_{2}\mu_{2} + \beta_{3}\mu_{3}) + \beta_{1}X_{i,1} + (\beta_{2}X_{i,2} + \beta_{3}X_{i,3} - \beta_{2}\mu_{2} - \beta_{3}\mu_{3} + \epsilon_{i})$   
=  $\beta_{0}' + \beta_{1}X_{i,1} + \epsilon_{i}'.$ 

And,

$$Cov(X_{i,1},\epsilon'_i) = \beta_2\phi_{12} + \beta_3\phi_{13} \neq 0$$

#### The "True" Model

Almost always closer to the truth than the usual model, for observational data

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i,$$

where  $E(X_i) = \mu_x$ ,  $Var(X_i) = \sigma_x^2$ ,  $E(\epsilon_i) = 0$ ,  $Var(\epsilon_i) = \sigma_\epsilon^2$ , and  $Cov(X_i, \epsilon_i) = c$ .

Under this model,

$$\sigma_{xy} = Cov(X_i, Y_i) = Cov(X_i, \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i) = \beta_1 \sigma_x^2 + c$$

### Estimate $\beta_1$ as usual with least squares

$$\widehat{\beta}_{1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \overline{X})(Y_{i} - \overline{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \overline{X})^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \overline{X})(Y_{i} - \overline{Y})}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \overline{X})^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{\widehat{\sigma}_{xy}}{\widehat{\sigma}_{x}^{2}}$$

$$\stackrel{a.s.}{\rightarrow} \frac{\sigma_{xy}}{\sigma_{x}^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{\beta_{1}\sigma_{x}^{2} + c}{\sigma_{x}^{2}}$$

$$= \beta_{1} + \frac{c}{\sigma_{x}^{2}}$$

 $\widehat{\beta_1} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \beta_1 + \frac{c}{\sigma_x^2}$ It converges to the wrong thing.

- $\widehat{\beta}_1$  is inconsistent.
- For large samples it could be almost anything, depending on the value of c, the covariance between  $X_i$  and  $\epsilon_i$ .
- Small sample estimates could be accurate, but only by chance.
- The only time  $\hat{\beta}_1$  behaves properly is when c = 0.
- Test  $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ : Probability of Type I error goes almost surely to one.

# All this applies to multiple regression Of course

When a regression model fails to include all the explanatory variables that contribute to the response variable, and those omitted explanatory variables have non-zero covariance with variables that are in the model, the regression coefficients are inconsistent. Estimation and inference are almost guaranteed to be misleading, especially for large samples.

### Correlation-Causation

- The problem of omitted variables is the technical version of the correlation-causation issue.
- The omitted variables are "confounding" variables.
- With random assignment and good procedure, x and  $\epsilon$  have zero covariance.
- But random assignment is not always possible.
- Most applications of regression to observational data provide very poor information about the regression coefficients.
- Is bad information better than no information at all?

#### How about another estimation method? Other than ordinary least squares

- Can *any* other method be successful?
- This is a very practical question, because almost all regressions with observational data have the disease.

#### Omitted Variables

## For simplicity, assume normality $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i$

- Assume  $(X_i, \epsilon_i)$  are bivariate normal.
- This makes  $(X_i, Y_i)$  bivariate normal.

• 
$$(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n) \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} N_2(\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{V})$$
, where  
 $\mathbf{m} = \begin{pmatrix} m_1 \\ m_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_x \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mu_x \end{pmatrix}$ 

and

$$\mathbf{V} = \left( \begin{array}{cc} v_{11} & v_{12} \\ & v_{22} \end{array} \right) = \left( \begin{array}{cc} \sigma_x^2 & \beta_1 \sigma_x^2 + c \\ & \beta_1^2 \sigma_x^2 + 2\beta_1 c + \sigma_\epsilon^2 \end{array} \right).$$

- All you can ever learn from the data are the approximate values of **m** and **V**.
- Even if you knew **m** and **V** exactly, could you know  $\beta_1$ ?

#### Five equations in six unknowns

The parameter is  $\theta = (\mu_x, \sigma_x^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2, c, \beta_0, \beta_1)$ . The distribution of the data is determined by

$$\begin{pmatrix} m_1 \\ m_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_x \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mu_x \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} v_{11} & v_{12} \\ & v_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_x^2 & \beta_1 \sigma_x^2 + c \\ & \beta_1^2 \sigma_x^2 + 2\beta_1 c + \sigma_\epsilon^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

• 
$$\mu_x = m_1$$
 and  $\sigma_x^2 = v_{11}$ .

- The remaining 3 equations in 4 unknowns have infinitely many solutions.
- So infinitely many sets of parameter values yield the *same* distribution of the sample data.
- This is serious trouble lack of parameter identifiability.
- *Definition*: If a parameter is a function of the distribution of the observable data, it is said to be *identifiable*.

# Skipping the High School algebra $\theta = (\mu_x, \sigma_x^2, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2, c, \beta_0, \beta_1)$

- For any given m and V, all the points in a one-dimensional subset of the 6-dimensional parameter space yield m and V, and hence the same distribution of the sample data.
- In that subset, values of β₁ range from −∞ to −∞, so m and V could have been produced by any value of β₁.
- There is no way to distinguish between the possible values of β<sub>1</sub> based on sample data.
- The problem is fatal, if all you can observe is a single X and a single Y.

# Details for the record $\theta = (\mu_x, \sigma_x^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2, c, \beta_0, \beta_1)$

For any given  $\mathbf{m}$  and  $\mathbf{V}$ , all the points in a one-dimensional subset of the 6-dimensional parameter space yield  $\mathbf{m}$  and  $\mathbf{V}$ , and hence the same distribution of the sample data.

• 
$$\mu_x = m_1$$
 and  $\sigma_x^2 = v_{11}$  remain fixed.

• 
$$\sigma_{\epsilon}^2 \ge |\mathbf{V}|/v_{11}$$

• When 
$$\sigma_{\epsilon}^2 = |\mathbf{V}|/v_{11}, \, \beta_1 = v_{12}/v_{11}$$

- For  $\sigma_{\epsilon}^2 > |\mathbf{V}|/v_{11}$ , two values of  $\beta_1$  are compatible with  $\mathbf{m}$  and  $\mathbf{V}$ .
- As σ<sup>2</sup><sub>ϵ</sub> increases, the lower β<sub>1</sub> goes to −∞ and the upper β<sub>1</sub> goes to −∞.
- $\beta_0$  and c are linear functions of  $\beta_1$ :

• 
$$\beta_0 = m_2 - \beta_1 m_1$$

• 
$$c = v_{12} - \beta_1 v_{11}$$

• This set of parameter values is geometrically interesting.

#### Instrumental Variables (Wright, 1928) A partial solution

- An instrumental variable is a variable that is correlated with an explanatory variable, but is not correlated with any error terms and has no direct effect on the response variable.
- Usually, the instrumental variable *influences* the explanatory variable.
- An instrumental variable is often not the main focus of attention; it's just a tool.

#### A Simple Example

What is the contribution of income to credit card debt?

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i,$$

where  $E(X_i) = \mu_x$ ,  $Var(X_i) = \sigma_x^2$ ,  $E(\epsilon_i) = 0$ ,  $Var(\epsilon_i) = \sigma_\epsilon^2$ , and  $Cov(X_i, \epsilon_i) = c$ .

#### A path diagram

$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + \epsilon_i,$$
  
where  $E(X_i) = \mu$ ,  $Var(X_i) = \sigma_x^2$ ,  $E(\epsilon_i) = 0$ ,  $Var(\epsilon_i) = \sigma_\epsilon^2$ , and  
 $Cov(X_i, \epsilon_i) = c.$ 



Least squares estimate of  $\beta$  is inconsistent, and so is every other possible estimate. If the data are normal.

## Add an instrumental variable X is income, Y is credit card debt.

Focus the study on real estate agents in many cities. Include median price of resale home  $W_i$ .

$$X_i = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 W_i + \epsilon_{i1}$$
  
$$Y_i = \alpha_2 + \beta_2 X_i + \epsilon_{i2}$$



Main interest is in  $\beta_2$ .

#### Omitted Variables

Instrumental Variables

Base estimation and inference on the covariance matrix of  $(W_i, X_i, Y_i)$ : Call it  $V = [v_{ij}]$ 

Based on  $X_i = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 W_i + \epsilon_{i1}$  and  $Y_i = \alpha_2 + \beta_2 X_i + \epsilon_{i2}$ ,

		W	X	Y	
V =	W	$\sigma_w^2$	$eta_1\sigma_w^2$	$eta_1eta_2\sigma_w^2$	
v —	X		$\beta_1^2\sigma_w^2+\sigma_1^2$	$\beta_1 \beta_2 \sigma_w^2$ $\beta_2 (\beta_1^2 \sigma_w^2 + \sigma_1^2) + c$	
	Y			$\beta_1^2\beta_2^2\sigma_w^2+\beta_2^2\sigma_1^2+2\beta_2c+\sigma_2^2$	
$\beta_2 = \frac{v_{13}}{v_{12}}$					

And all the other parameters are identifiable too.

#### But of course there is measurement error

W is housing prices, T is true income, X is reported income, Y is credit card debt.



Main interest is in  $\beta_3$ .

### Read the model equations from the path diagram



### Covariance matrix W is housing price, X is reported income, Y is credit card debt.

Main interest is in  $\beta_3$ , which links true income to credit card debt.

- β<sub>1</sub> is the link between housing price and true income. It should be positive.
- So we can tell whether  $\beta_3$  is positive, negative or zero.
- $H_0: v_{13} = 0$  is equivalent to  $H_0: \beta_3 = 0$ .
- Confidence interval?

### We can do better W is housing prices, T is true income, X is reported income, Y is credit card debt.

Here's the model again.



- Credit card debt is measured with error.
- True income and credit card debt have other common influences, so their error terms should be correlated.

### A better model W is housing prices, X is reported income, Y is credit card debt.



 $cov(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}) = [\sigma_{ij}]$ . Main interest is in  $\beta_3$ .

#### Covariance matrix of $(W_i, X_i, Y_i)$ W is housing price, X is reported income, Y is credit card debt.

# Main interest is in $\beta_3$ , which links true income to true credit card debt.

	w	x	y
w	$\sigma_w^2$	$eta_1eta_2\sigma_w^2$	$eta_1eta_3eta_4\sigma_w^2$
x		$\begin{array}{l} \beta_{1}^{2}\beta_{2}^{2}\sigma_{w}^{2}+\beta_{2}^{2}\sigma_{11}+\\ 2\beta_{2}\sigma_{14}+\sigma_{44} \end{array}$	$ \beta_1^2 \beta_2 \beta_3 \beta_4 \sigma_w^2 + \beta_2 \beta_3 \beta_4 \sigma_{11} + \beta_2 \beta_4 \sigma_{12} + \\ \beta_3 \beta_4 \sigma_{14} + \beta_2 \sigma_{13} + \beta_4 \sigma_{24} + \sigma_{34} $
y			$ \beta_1^2 \beta_3^2 \beta_4^2 \sigma_w^2 + \beta_3^2 \beta_4^2 \sigma_{11} + 2 \beta_3 \beta_4^2 \sigma_{12} + 2 \beta_3 \beta_4 \sigma_{13} + \beta_4^2 \sigma_{22} + 2 \beta_4 \sigma_{23} + \sigma_{33} $

 $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_4$  should be positive.

#### Comments

- Instrumental variables help with measurement error as well as with omitted variables.
- If there is measurement error, regression coefficients of interest are not identifiable and cannot be estimated consistently, but their signs can.
- Good instrumental variables are not easy to find.
- They will not just happen to be in the data set, except by a miracle.
- They really have to come from another universe, but still have a strong and clear effect.
- Wright's original example was tax policy for cooking oil.
- Time series applications are common.

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