

# Environmental Econometrics

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- This is an introductory econometrics course which
  - assumes no prior knowledge on econometrics;
  - focuses on both theoretical results and practical uses of econometrics in (environmental) economic problems;
  - teaches a statistical software, STATA, in tutorial classes.
- Lecture and tutorial timetables
  - Lectures: every Monday (starting from Oct. 6 and ending on Dec. 8) , 9~11 am, B03 (Drayton House).
  - Tutorials: every Tuesday (starting from Oct. 7 and ending on Dec. 9), 9~11 am, B17 (computer room).
  - The tutorial classes will be given by TA, Jelmer Ypma (j.ypma@ucl.ac.uk).
  - Office hour: Monday, 3~4 pm and by appointment.

- Main Textbook
  - J. Wooldridge (2008), *Introductory Econometrics: A Modern Approach*, 4th Ed., South-Western.
- Course materials
  - Lecture notes and exercises are available in my teaching webpage, <http://www.homepages.ucl.ac.uk/~uctpsc0/Teaching.html>.
  - Sample data for STATA exercises are also available.
  - The final exam and its answer keys from previous years are available.

## 1 Linear regression models - *Wooldridge Ch. 2~5 and 7*

- simple regression to multiple regression, ordinary least squares (OLS) estimation and goodness of fit.
- hypothesis testing and large sample properties of OLS

## 2 Heteroskedasticity and Autocorrelation - *Wooldridge Ch. 8, 10 and 12*

- consequences of heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation
- testing for heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation
- generalized least squares (GLS) estimation

## 3 IV estimation and simultaneous equations models - *Wooldridge Ch. 15 and 16*

- endogeneity, instrumental variables (IV) estimation and two-stage least squares
- simultaneity bias, identification and estimation of simultaneous equations models

## 4 Limited dependent variable models - *Wooldridge Ch 17*

- problems of using OLS for binary response models
- maximum likelihood estimation, logit and probit models
- ordered probit model, poisson regression model
- censored dependent variables and Tobit models

## 5 Some simple panel data analysis - *Wooldridge Ch 13*

## 6 Time series analysis - *Wooldridge Ch. 12 and 18*

- stationarity and nonstationarity; AR and MA processes; unit root
- VAR; Granger causality

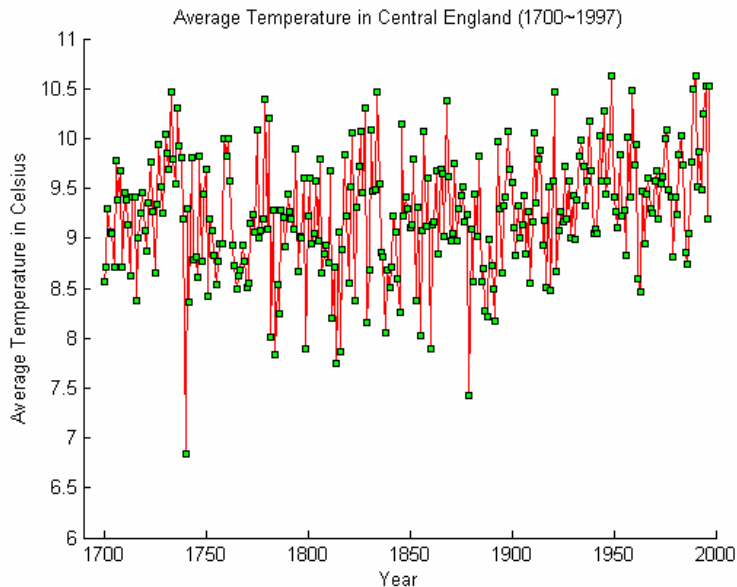
# What is Econometrics?

- Statistical tools applied to economic problems
  - estimate economic relationships;
  - test economic theories modeling the causality of social and economic phenomena;
  - evaluate the impact and effectiveness of a given policy;
  - forecast the impact of future policies.
- It aims at providing not only a *qualitative* but also a *quantitative* answer.

# Example 1: Global Warming

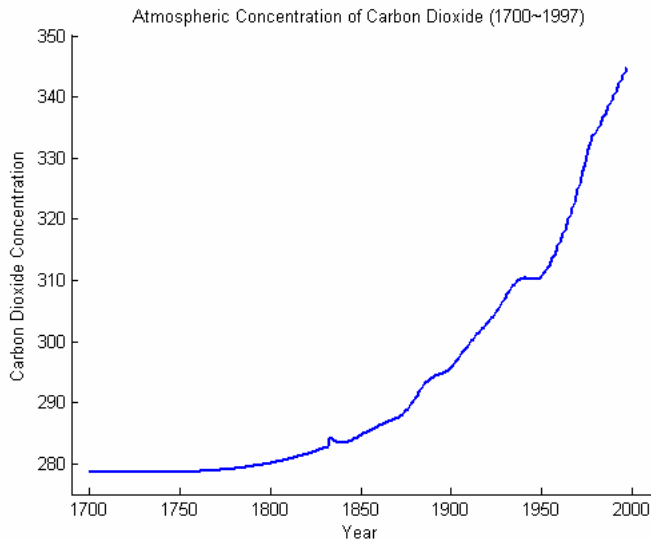
- Measuring the extent of global warming
  - When did it start? How large is the effect?
  - Has it increased more in the last 50 years?
- What are the causes of global warming?
  - Does carbon dioxide cause global warming?
  - Are there any other determinants?
- What would be average temperature if carbon dioxide concentration is reduced by 10%?

# Average Temperature in Central England (1700~1997)





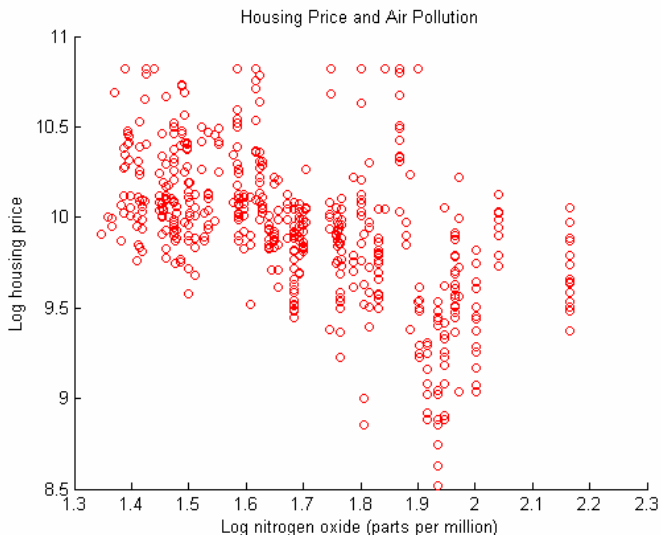
# Atmospheric Concentration of Carbon Dioxide (1700~1997)



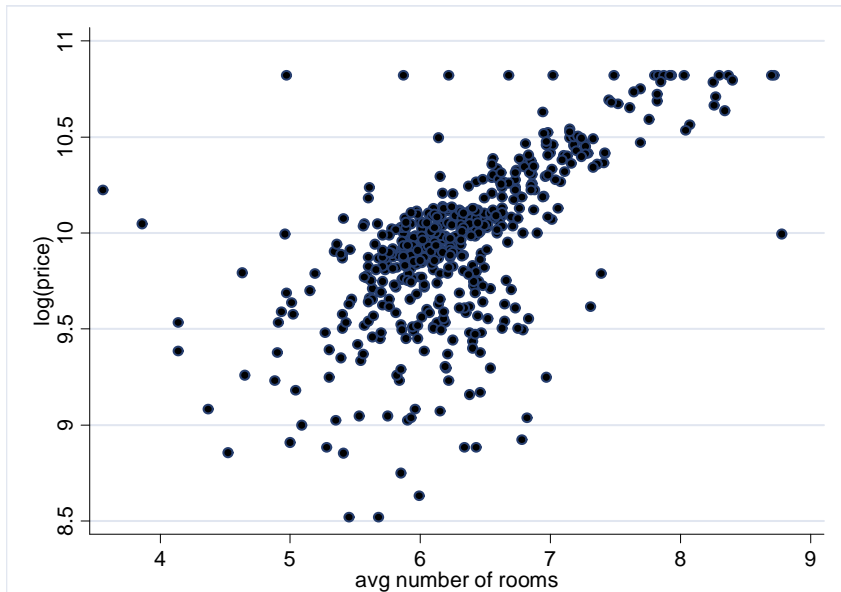
## Example 2: Housing Prices and Air Pollution

- Measuring the effect of air pollution on housing prices
  - Does air pollution matter in determining housing prices?
  - If so, how much?
- Are there other determinants?
  - physical features of houses (e.g., number of rooms)
  - distance from workplaces
  - the quality of education in community

# Median Housing Prices and Nitrogen Oxide (A sample of 506 communities in the Boston Area)



# Median Housing Prices and Room Numbers



- We often observe that two variables are *correlated*.
  - Higher education leads higher income.
  - Individual smoking is related to peer smoking.
- If  $Y$  is *causally related* to  $X$ , then changing  $X$  will lead to a change in  $Y$ .
- Correlation may not be due to causal relationships.
  - Some common factor may affect both variables.

# Causality and Ceteris Paribus

- The notion of *ceteris paribus* (holding other variables constant) plays an important role in *causal analysis*.
  - Holding innate ability constant, how much does an increase in education increase in income?
  - Holding the individual taste of smoking, how much does an increase in peer smoking increase in individual smoking?
- This course will introduce how to deal with the issue of causality and ways of doing causal analysis.

# The Simple Regression Model

- The simplest form in the regression model is the *two variable linear regression* model, called the *Simple Linear Regression Model*.

$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i,$$

- $Y_i$ : dependent variable (explained variable; regressand)
  - $X_i$ : independent variable (explanatory variable; regressor)
  - $u_i$ : error term
  - $i = 1, \dots, N$ : the number of observation
- The error term or disturbance,  $u$ , represents all other factors affecting  $Y$  other than  $X$ .

$$Temp_i = \alpha + \beta Year_i + u_i,$$

$$Hprice_i = \alpha + \beta Nox_i + u_i.$$

- $X$  has a linear effect on  $Y$  if all other factors are held constant.

$$\Delta Y = \beta \Delta X \quad \text{if } \Delta u = 0.$$

- The linearity implies that a one-unit change in  $X$  has the *same* effect on  $Y$ , *regardless of the initial value of  $X$* .
- The slope parameter in the relationship between  $Y$  and  $X$  is meant to capture the effect of  $X$  on  $Y$ .
- In order to interpret so, we need to make an assumption regarding how  $u$  and  $X$  are **UNrelated**.



# Assumption 1

- Assumption (Zero Conditional Mean)

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  - Assume that  $u$  only reflects innate ability.

$$E(u|\text{years of education}) = 0$$

- The zero-conditional-mean assumption requires that the average level of ability is the same regardless of years of education. Is it reasonable?

# An Implication of Zero Conditional Mean Assumption

- The zero conditional mean assumption implies that the population regression function,  $E(Y|X)$ , is a linear function of  $X$ .

$$E(Y|X) = \alpha + \beta X$$

- For any given value of  $X$ , the distribution of  $Y$  is centered around  $E(Y|X)$ . (figure)

# Regression Problem - Least Squares

- Consider a set of data  $\{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$  and we want to obtain estimates of the intercept and slope.
- The most popular method in econometrics is the *least squares estimation*.
  - choose  $\hat{\alpha}$  and  $\hat{\beta}$  to minimize the sum of squared residuals

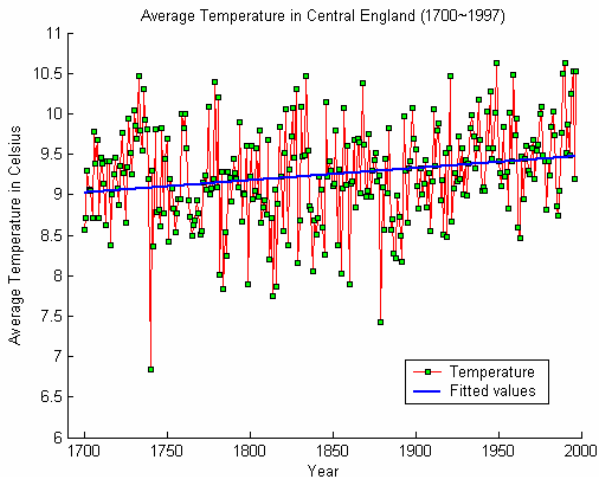
$$\sum_{i=1}^N \hat{u}_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}X_i)^2.$$

- The estimates given from this minimization problem is called the *ordinary least squares* (OLS).
- Using the OLS estimation, we have the estimated regression line for the unknown population regression function (figure).

# An Example: Global Warming

- The OLS estimated regression line is given by

$$Temp_i = 6.45 + 0.0015 \times Year_i.$$





# Model Specification

- Linear model

$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$$

- When  $X$  goes up by 1 unit,  $Y$  goes by  $\beta$  units.

- Log-log model (constant elasticity model)

$$\ln Y_i = \alpha + \beta \ln X_i + u_i$$

- When  $X$  goes up by 1%,  $Y$  goes up by  $\beta\%$ .

- Log-linear model

$$\ln Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$$

- When  $X$  goes up by 1 unit,  $Y$  goes up by  $100\beta\%$ .

# Example 1: Housing Prices and Air Pollution

- The estimated regression line is given

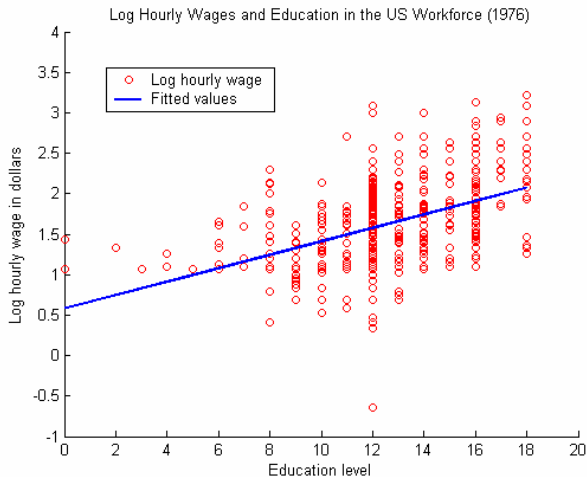
$$\ln Hprice_i = 11.71 - 1.04 \times \ln Nox_i.$$



## Example 2: Wage Equation

- The estimated regression line is given

$$\ln Wage_i = 0.58 + 0.0083 \times Educ_i.$$



# The Structure of Data

- Times Series Data
  - Data on variables observed time. Examples include stock prices, consumer price index, annual homicide rates, GDP, and temperature changes cross time.
- Cross Section Data
  - Data at a given point in time on individuals, households or firms. Examples are data on expenditures, income and employment (say, in 1999).
- Panel or Longitudinal Data
  - Data on a time series for each cross-sectional member.

# Type of Variables

- Continuous
  - temperature; wage; housing prices.
- Categorical/Qualitative
  - ordered
    - years of schooling; survey answers such that small/medium/large.
  - unordered
    - decisions such as Yes/No; gender(male/female).
- The course will explain later how to deal with qualitative dependent variables.

# Properties of OLS

# First-order Conditions

- The least squares problem, as a reminder, is

$$\min_{\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{u}_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \left( Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta} X_i \right)^2,$$

- The first-order conditions (FOC) are given by

$$\frac{\partial \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{u}_i^2}{\partial \hat{\alpha}} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^N \left( Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta} X_i \right) = 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{u}_i^2}{\partial \hat{\beta}} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^N \left( Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta} X_i \right) X_i = 0.$$

# The OLS Estimator

- Solving the two FOC equations, we have the OLS estimators for the intercept and the slope parameters:

$$\hat{\alpha} = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}\bar{X},$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2},$$

where  $\bar{Z} = \sum_{i=1}^N Z_i / N$ . We need a condition that  $\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2 > 0$ .

- The estimate of the slope coefficient is simply the sample covariance between  $X$  and  $Y$  divided by the sample variance of  $X$ .
- (Digression) An *estimator* is a random variable and an *estimate* is a realization of an estimator.



# Algebraic Properties

- Property 1: The sum of OLS residuals is zero.

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \hat{u}_i = \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}X_i) = 0.$$

- Property 2: The sample covariance between the independent variable  $X$  and the OLS residual  $\hat{u}$  is zero.

$$\sum_{i=1}^N X_i \hat{u}_i = \sum_{i=1}^N X_i (Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta}X_i) = 0.$$

- Property 3: The OLS estimates decompose each  $Y_i$  into a fitted value  $\hat{Y}_i$  and a residual  $\hat{u}_i$ .

$$Y_i = \hat{Y}_i + \hat{u}_i \implies \bar{Y} = \bar{\hat{Y}}.$$

# Goodness of Fit I

- We want to measure how well the model fits the data.
- The *R-squared* of the regression is defined as the ratio of the explained sum of squares to the total sum of squares.
  - Total sum of squares (TSS):  $TSS = \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$ .
  - Explained sum of squares (ESS)

$$ESS = \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N [\hat{\beta} (X_i - \bar{X})]^2.$$

- Residual sum of squares (RSS):  $RSS = \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{u}_i^2$ .
- The R-squared of the regression is

$$R^2 = \frac{ESS}{TSS} = 1 - \frac{RSS}{TSS}.$$

## Goodness of Fit II

- The R-squared is a measure of how much of the variance of  $Y$  is explained by the regressor  $X$ .
- The value of R-squared is always between 0 and 1. If R-squared is equal to 1, then OLS provides a perfect fit to the data.
- A low R-squared is not necessarily an indication that the model is wrong. It is simply that the regressor has low explanatory power.

# An Example: Housing Prices and Air Pollution

Variable	Coefficient
$\ln \text{Nox}$	-1.043
constant	11.71
Model sum of squares	22.29
Residual sum of squares	62.29
Total sum of Squares	84.58
R-squared	0.26
Number of observation	506

# Statistical Properties of OLS

- Given a specific sample of data  $\{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ ,  $\hat{\alpha}$  and  $\hat{\beta}$  are realized values of the OLS estimator in the simple linear regression model.
- It means that if we have a different sample from the same population, then we may have different values of the slope and intercept estimates.
- We want the estimators to have desirable properties:
  - **Unbiasedness**
  - **Efficiency**

# Assumptions on the Simple Linear Regression Model

- Assumption 1: Zero Conditional Mean

$$E(u_i|X) = 0.$$

- Assumption 2: Homoskedasticity

$$\text{Var}(u_i|X) = E[u_i - E(u_i|X)|X]^2 = \sigma^2.$$

- Assumption 3: No correlation among error terms

$$\text{Cov}(u_i, u_j|X) = 0, \forall i \neq j.$$

- Assumption 4: Sufficient variation in  $X$

$$\text{Var}(X) > 0.$$

- Definition: Estimators  $\hat{\alpha}$  and  $\hat{\beta}$  are unbiased if

$$E(\hat{\alpha}) = \alpha \text{ and } E(\hat{\beta}) = \beta.$$

- Unbiasedness does **NOT** mean that the estimate we get with a particular sample is equal to the true value.
- If we could *indefinitely* draw random samples of the same size  $N$  from the population, compute an estimate each time, and then average these estimates over all random samples, we would obtain the true value.

# An Example

- Suppose the true model is

$$Y_i = 1 + 2X_i + u_i, \quad u_i \sim iid N(0, 1).$$

- We generate a set of random samples, each of which contains 14 observations.

	$\hat{\alpha}$	$\hat{\beta}$
Random Sample 1	1.2185099	1.5841877
Random Sample 2	0.8250200	2.5563998
Random Sample 3	1.3752522	1.3256603
Random Sample 4	0.9216356	2.1068873
Random Sample 5	1.0566855	2.1198698
Random Sample 6	1.0482750	1.8185249
Random Sample 7	0.9140797	1.6573014
Random Sample 8	0.7885023	2.9571939
Random Sample 9	0.6581880	2.2935987
Random Sample 10	1.0852489	2.3455551
Average across 10 random samples	0.9891397	2.0765179
Average across 500 random samples	0.9899374	2.0049863



# Unbiasedness of OLS Estimator

- Recall that the OLS estimators of the intercept and the slope are

$$\hat{\alpha} = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}\bar{X}$$

and

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2}.$$

- First note that within a sample

$$\bar{Y} = \alpha + \beta\bar{X} + \bar{u}.$$

Hence, for any  $i = 1, \dots, N$ ,

$$Y_i - \bar{Y} = \beta(X_i - \bar{X}) + u_i - \bar{u}.$$

- Substitute this in the expression for  $\hat{\beta}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta} &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \left[ \beta (X_i - \bar{X})^2 + (X_i - \bar{X}) (u_i - \bar{u}) \right]}{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \\ &= \beta + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X}) (u_i - \bar{u})}{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2}.\end{aligned}$$

The second part of the right-hand side is called the sampling error. If the estimator is unbiased, then this error will have expected value zero.

- 

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{E}(\hat{\beta}|X) &= \beta + \mathbf{E} \left[ \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X}) (u_i - \bar{u})}{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \middle| X \right] \\ &= \beta + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X}) \mathbf{E}[(u_i - \bar{u}) | X]}{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \\ &= \beta, \quad \text{using which assumption?}\end{aligned}$$

- Now,

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\alpha} &= \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}\bar{X} \\ &= \alpha + (\beta - \hat{\beta})\bar{X} + \bar{u}.\end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{E}(\hat{\alpha}|X) &= \alpha + \mathbf{E}[(\beta - \hat{\beta}) | X] \bar{X} + \mathbf{E}(\bar{u}|X) \\ &= \alpha.\end{aligned}$$

# Variances of the OLS Estimators

- We have shown that the OLS estimator is unbiased under the assumptions.
- But how sensitive are the results to random changes to our sample? The variance of the estimators is a measure for this question.
- The definition of the variance is

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}|X) = \mathbf{E} \left[ \left( \hat{\beta} - \mathbf{E}(\hat{\beta}) \right)^2 | X \right].$$

- Recall that

$$\mathbf{E}(\hat{\beta}) = \beta$$

and

$$\hat{\beta} - \beta = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})(u_i - \bar{u})}{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2}.$$

- Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}|X) &= \mathbf{E} \left[ \left( \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})(u_i - \bar{u})}{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \right)^2 \middle| X \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{\left[ \sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \right]^2} \\
 &\quad \times \left[ \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})(X_j - \bar{X}) \right. \\
 &\quad \left. \times \mathbf{E} \left[ (u_i - \bar{u})(u_j - \bar{u}) \middle| X \right] \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

- From Assumption 2 (homoskedasticity) and Assumption 3 (no autocorrelation),

$$\mathbf{E} \left[ (u_i - \bar{u})^2 \middle| X \right] = \sigma^2$$

and

$$\mathbf{E} \left[ ((u_i - \bar{u})(u_j - \bar{u})) \middle| X \right] = 0, \quad \forall i \neq j.$$

- Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}|X) &= \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \frac{\sigma^2}{\widehat{\text{Var}}(X)}. \end{aligned}$$

- Properties of the variance of  $\hat{\beta}$ 
  - The variance increases with the variance of the error term,  $\sigma^2$ .
  - The variance decreases with the variance of  $X$ ,  $\widehat{\text{Var}}(X)$ .
  - The variance decreases with the sample size,  $N$ .
  - The standard error is the square root of the variance:

$$SE(\hat{\beta}|X) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}|X)}.$$

- In practice, we do not know the variance of the error term,  $\sigma^2$ , which needs to be estimated. Using the residuals,  $\hat{u}_i$ , we have an unbiased estimator of  $\sigma^2$ :

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \hat{u}_i^2}{N - 2} = \frac{RSS}{N - 2}.$$

# An Example: Housing Prices and Air Pollution

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Err.
log <i>Nox</i>	-1.043	0.078
constant	11.71	0.132
R-squared		0.26
Number of observation		



# Efficiency

- An estimator is *efficient* if given the assumptions we make, its variance is the smallest possible in the class of estimators we consider.
- We consider the class of linear unbiased estimators. An estimator is *linear* if and only if it can be expressed as a linear function of the data on the dependent variable.
- Note that the OLS estimator is a *linear* estimator:

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X}) Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X}) \bar{Y}}{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

- Consider another linear estimator of the slope. Define  $Z_i = X_i^2$  and a slope estimator as

$$\tilde{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (Z_i - \bar{Z}) (Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^N (Z_i - \bar{Z}) (X_i - \bar{X})}$$

Then,

$$\mathbf{E} [\tilde{\beta}|X] = \beta. \text{ (why?)}$$

- It can be also shown that

$$\text{Var} (\hat{\beta}|X) \leq \text{Var} (\tilde{\beta}|X).$$

- In fact, the OLS estimator has the smallest variance among the class of linear unbiased estimators, under the assumptions we made.

# The Gauss Markov Theorem

- Given the assumptions we made, the OLS estimator is a **Best Linear Unbiased Estimator (BLUE)**.
- This means that the OLS estimator is the most *efficient* (*least variance*) estimator in the class of *linear unbiased* estimator.