

4. Model Diagnostics

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Motivation

In order to be able to make *valid* statistical inference based on an econometric model:

- The model has to be correctly specified (in terms of the variables and the functional form of the model).
- 2. The assumptions of the model need to be satisfied.

We focus in this chapter on **the latter**, assuming that the regression model is *already correctly specified*.





Motivation

Key assumptions of the classical linear regression model that cannot be taken for granted, and thus need to be *verified* and (if necessary) its validity needs to be *ensured*:

- 1. Normality of the disturbances
- 2. Absence of (perfect) multicollinearity
- 3. Homoscedasticity
- 4. Absence of autocorrelation





Motivation



What the assumption means and what are the key consequences if not fulfilled



How to verify (test for) the validity of the assumption



What are the possible solutions in case that the assumption is not fulfilled





4.1 Normality of the disturbances





NORMAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE STOCHASTIC VARIABLE (DISTURBANCES) u

A What the assumption means and what are the key consequences if not fulfilled

Assumption: $u \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$ and $y \sim N(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma_u^2)$







The assumption is essential for statistical inference (tests based on t, F and χ^2 distribution are dependent on it)!

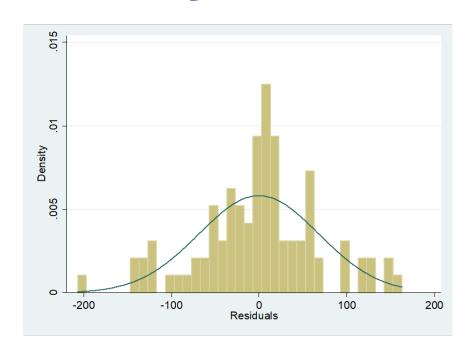




How to verify (test for) the validity of the assumption



Histogram of (standardized) residuals of the sample regression model





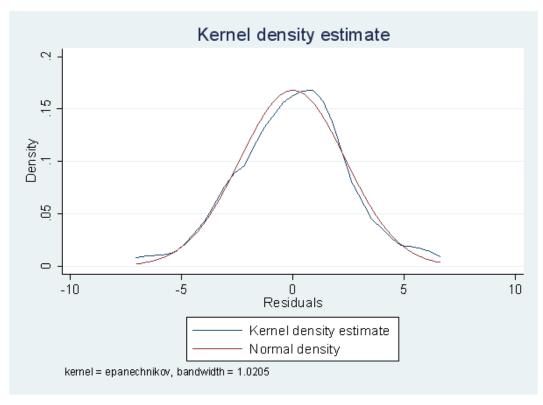








Kernel density plot of the residuals of the sample regression model













Jarque – Bera test (1987)

$$JB = n \left[\frac{S^2}{6} + \frac{(K-3)^2}{24} \right] \sim \chi_{(2)}^2$$

$$S^{2} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum e^{3}\right)^{2}}{\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum e^{2}\right)^{3}} \qquad K = \frac{\frac{1}{n}\sum e^{4}}{\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum e^{2}\right)^{2}}$$





ASSOCIATION ACCREDITED

 H_0 : stochastic variable u is normally distributed

 H_1 : stochastic variable u is **not** normally distributed



Solutions if the assumption is violated

What are the possible solutions in case that the assumption is not fulfilled



Use a robust estimator of regression coefficients, e.g. the method of least absolute deviations.



Transformation of variables, e.g. taking logarithms of the dependent variable y.



Increase sample size, if possible. The validity of this assumption is not crucial for large samples.





4.2 Multicollinearity





Economic background

The term "multicollinearity" was introduced into econometrics by Ragnar Frisch in 1934, as the perfect linear dependence among the explanatory variables of the regression model.

In general, we do not have controlled experiments in economics. It is thus not possible to control the data generating process, and measure the effects of particular phenomenon in isolation, i.e. independently of the other phenomena.





As a consequence, economic phenomena are always related to one another, at least to a certain extent. There always exists a certain amount of *collinearity* among economic variables.

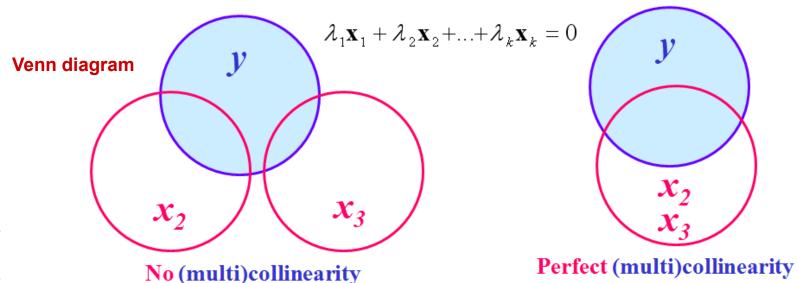




What the assumption means and what are the key consequences if not fulfilled

Assumption:

There is no <u>perfect linear</u> dependence among the explanatory variables of the regression model, i.e. no dependence of the type:





I. Perfect multicollinearity

$$\mathbf{x}_2 - 3\mathbf{x}_3 = 0$$
 perfect "collinearity": $\mathbf{x}_2 = 3\mathbf{x}_3$

$$\mathbf{x}_2 + \mathbf{x}_3 + 2\mathbf{x}_4 = 0$$
 perfect "multicollinearity": $\mathbf{x}_2 = -\mathbf{x}_3 - 2\mathbf{x}_4$



Matrix X^TX is singular, i.e. it is not possible to calculate its inverse matrix.



$$b = (X^{T}X)^{-1} X^{T}y$$
 is not defined.



Multicollinearity relates only to linear dependence among explanatory variables, not non-linear.



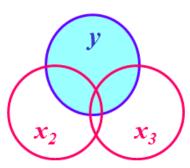
II. Imperfect multicollinearity

$$\lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \lambda_2 \mathbf{x}_2 + \dots + \lambda_k \mathbf{x}_k + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$$

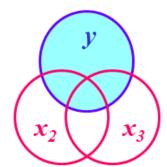
Each of the explanatory variables can be expressed by the other explanatory variables in the following way:

$$\mathbf{x}_{k} = -\frac{\lambda_{1}}{\lambda_{k}} \mathbf{x}_{1} - \frac{\lambda_{2}}{\lambda_{k}} \mathbf{x}_{2} - \dots - \frac{\lambda_{k-1}}{\lambda_{k}} \mathbf{x}_{k-1} - \frac{1}{\lambda_{k}} \mathbf{v}$$

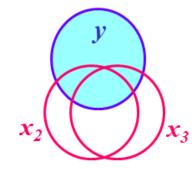
A particular explanatory variable is not a perfect linear combination of the other explanatory variables.



Weak (multi)collinearity



Medium (multi)collinearity



Strong (multi)collinearity









The least squares estimator remains <u>BLUE</u>, irrespective of (imperfect) multicollinearity.



The variance of regression coefficient estimates increases with increasing multicollinearity.



The variance of regression coefficient estimates is directly reflected on the t-statistics. It becomes increasingly difficult to reject H_{θ} .





Regression coefficient estimates and their standard errors become highly sensitive to model specification.







The value of \mathbb{R}^2 is not affected substantially due to multicollinearity. Often we have a high value of \mathbb{R}^2 , but statistically insignificant regression coefficient estimates at the majority of explanatory variables.



The severity of multicollinearity issues is proportional to the level of multicollinearity among the explanatory variables.









В

How to verify (test for) the validity of the assumption



The sign of one or more regression coefficients is in contradiction to the expectations of economic theory.







High value of \mathbb{R}^2 , whereas most of the estimated regression coefficients are statistically insignificant.



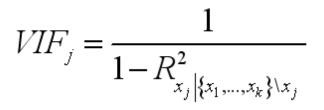


We use "auxilliary regressions":

$$x_{ji} = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \dots + \beta_{j-1} x_{j-1} + \beta_{j+1} x_{j+1} + \dots + \beta_k x_k + v_i$$

$$\Rightarrow R_{x_j | \{x_1, \dots, x_k\} \setminus x_j}^2$$

and calculate Variance Inflation Factors – VIF:







Solutions if the assumption is violated

What are the possible solutions in case that the assumption is not fulfilled

- Often "not doing anything" is a satisfactory choice.
- Drop one or more explanatory variables, causing the highest level of multicollinearity in the model.
- Transformation of variables, e.g. taking first differences or logarithms.
 - Increase sample size, if possible.
 - When sensible and possible, combine time series with cross—sectional data in order to obtain a panel.









4.3 Heteroscedasticity





HOMOSCEDASTICITY

Origin of the word

Homo: Skedasticos Equal: Dispersion Homoscedasticity Hetero: Skedasticos Non-equal: Dispersion Heteroscedasticity



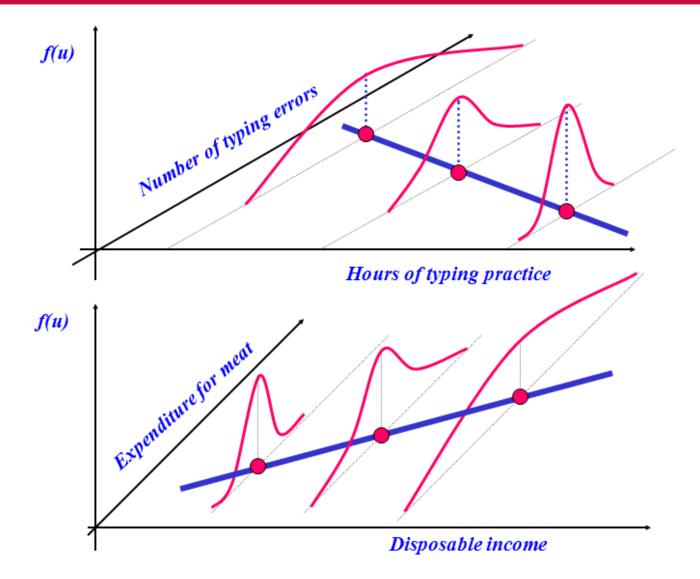
What the assumption means and what are the key consequences if not fulfilled

Assumption:

$$Var(u_i|x_i) = E[(u_i - E(u_i|x_i))^2 | x_i] = E[u_i^2 | x_i] = E(u_i^2) = \sigma^2$$











Causes of heteroscedasticity

- Decision makers learn from their mistakes, i.e. the variability (measured by the variance) decreases with time.
- Many phenomena increase with time in real terms; e.g. more flexible use of incomes (profits) due to economic growth increases the variability (variance) of stochastic effects.
- Variability is often a result of poor organization and data collection.

 One can expect that with time the quality of data increases, and consequently the variance of stochastic effects decreases.
- With analyses based on cross-sectional data, there are various reasons for heteroscedasticity we determine them based on the properties of the analysed phenomenon. Heteroscedasticity occurs frequently when the range of values of a variable is very high.
- Heteroscedasticity is often a consequence of a poor specification of the regression model "spurious heteroscedasticity".









Consequences of heteroscedasticity

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{u}$$

$$E(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{but } E(\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^{T}) = Var - \text{cov}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{W}$$

$$E(\mathbf{b}) = E\left[\left(\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{X}\right)^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{y}\right] = E\left[\left(\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{X}\right)^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\left(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{u}\right)\right] =$$

$$= E\left(\boldsymbol{\beta} + \left(\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{X}\right)^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{u}\right) = \boldsymbol{\beta} + \left(\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{X}\right)^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}E(\mathbf{u}) = \boldsymbol{\beta}$$





The estimator of regression coefficients remains unbiased!



Consequences of heteroscedasticity

$$Var - \operatorname{cov}(\mathbf{b}) = E\left[(\mathbf{b} - \boldsymbol{\beta}) (\mathbf{b} - \boldsymbol{\beta})^{\mathrm{T}} \right] =$$

$$= E\left[(\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \right] =$$

$$= (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} E(\mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}^{\mathrm{T}}) \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X})^{-1} =$$

$$= (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

Homoscedasticity
$$Var - cov(\mathbf{b}) = \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$$









The estimator of regression coefficients is not most efficient any more! OLS is not BLUE any more, it is merely LUE!



Consequences of heteroscedasticity



The variance and covariance estimators of regression coefficients become biased.

Test statistics of regression coefficients are not reliable any more!







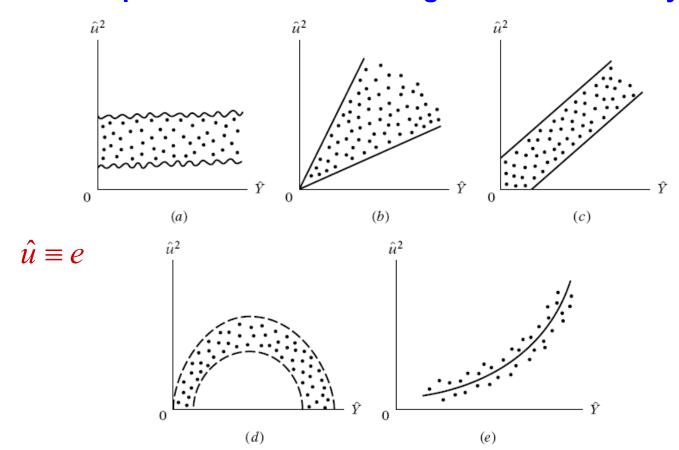
How to verify (test for) the validity of the assumption

- 1. Graphic method of detecting heteroscedasticity.
- 2. Formal statistical tests, the most comprehensive being the White test.



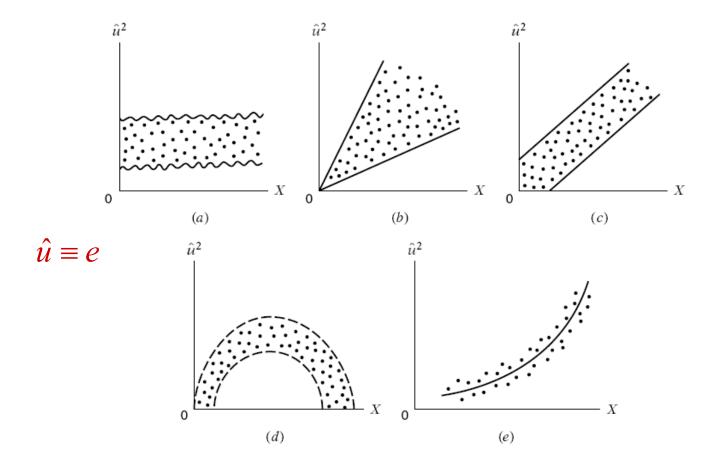


1. Graphic method of detecting heteroscedasticity







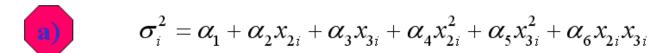






2. White test (1980)

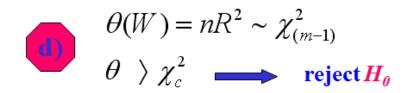
$$y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \beta_3 x_{3i} + u_i$$





$$e_i^2 = a_1 + a_2 x_{2i} + a_3 x_{3i} + a_4 x_{2i}^2 + a_5 x_{3i}^2 + a_6 x_{2i} x_{3i} + v_i$$

H₀: $\alpha_2 = \alpha_3 = ... = \alpha_m = 0$ H₁: At least one α different from 0











Solutions if the assumption is violated



What are the possible solutions in case that the assumption is not fulfilled

Problem	Heteroscedasticity Autocorrelation			
	Improvement of the model specification (eliminates heteroscedasticity and autocorrelation that emerges due to biases)			
	Application of generalized least squares (GLS) estimators:			
Problem management (once detected)	weighted least squares (WLS) estimator	generalized difference equation (GDE) estimator:		
		two-stage procedureiterative procedure (CORC)		
	If the exact form of the problem is established, this approach eliminates all of the above adverse consequences.			









Solutions if the assumption is violated

Problem	Heteroscedasticity	Autocorrelation		
Problem management (once detected)	Robust variance estimators (Huber/White variance estimator)	HAC variance estimators (Newey–West robust variance estimator)		
	$u \sim IID$	$u \sim IID$		
	Estimator loosens the assumption on identical distribution.	Estimator loosens both assumptions (on independence and identical distribution).		
	Approach does not affect the regression coefficient estimates. Standard errors regain unbiasedness. Regression coefficient estimator does not necessarily regain efficiency			
	(standard errors are not necessarily the lowest possible).			
	Transformation of variables	AR(I)MAX methodology		









Robust variance estimator application

Computer printout of estimation of a money demand regression model (Stata)

. regress hm1 ppr rvp rvv czp

ppr |

rvp |

rvv l

czp

_cons |

1.697766

-311.6847

-11.57513

-229.2038

11.50168

·	SS 				Number of obs = $F(4, 91) =$	
Model	11431132.5 492791.936	4 91	2857783.12 5415.296		Prob > F = R-squared = Adj R-squared =	0.0000 0.9587
•	11923924.4				Root MSE =	
•	Coef.	Std.	Err. t	P> t	[95% Conf. Ir	nterval]

3.30

-6.89

-2.17

7.81

-1.83

0.001

0.000

0.033

0.000

0.070

.6769831

-401.5718

-22.16582

8.576535

-477.9248

.513892

5.33166

1.472604

125.2134

45.25178







2.71855

-221.7976

-.98444

14.42683

19.51725



Robust variance estimator application

. whitetst

```
white's general test statistic: 53.83009 Chi-sq(14) P-value = 1.4e-06
```

. regress hm1 ppr rvp rvv czp, robust

Linear regression

```
Number of obs = 96
F( 4, 91) = 1000.25
Prob > F = 0.0000
R-squared = 0.9587
Root MSE = 73.589
```

 hm1 	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	. Interval]
ppr	1.697766	.5633882	3.01	0.003	.5786649	2.816868
rvp	-311.6847	44.33028	-7.03	0.000	-399.7413	-223.6281
rvv	-11.57513	3.532513	-3.28	0.001	-18.59203	-4.558225
czp	11.50168	1.32376	8.69	0.000	8.872196	14.13117
_cons	-229.2038	58.25138	-3.93	0.000	-344.913	-113.4945









Robust variance estimator application

Computer printout of estimation of a money demand regression model (R)

```
> mod = lm(hm1 ~ ppr + rvp + rvv + czp, data = money_demand)
> summary(mod)
call:
lm(formula = hm1 \sim ppr + rvp + rvv + czp, data = money_demand)
Residuals:
Harmonized money aggregate M1
     Min
                   Median
                                3Q
                                       Max
-180.693 -36.611 1.595
                            38.308 152.114
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -229.2038 125.2134 -1.831 0.07045.
              1.6978 0.5139 3.304 0.00137 **
ppr
           -311.6847 45.2518 -6.888 7.14e-10 ***
rvp
            -11.5751 5.3317 -2.171 0.03253 *
rvv
             11.5017
                        1.4726 7.810 9.44e-12 ***
czp
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 73.59 on 91 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.9587, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9569
F-statistic: 527.7 on 4 and 91 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```









Robust variance estimator application

```
> white_lm(mod, interactions=TRUE)
# A tibble: 1 x 5
              p.value parameter method
                                             alternative
  statistic
      <db1>
                 <fdb>>
                          <dbl> <chr>
                                             <chr>
      53.8 0.00000137
                             14 White's Test greater
> mod_robust = lm_robust(hm1 ~ ppr + rvp + rvv + czp, data = money_demand,
  se_tvpe="HC1")
> summary(mod_robust)
call:
lm_robust(formula = hm1 ~ ppr + rvp + rvv + czp, data = money_demand,
    se_{type} = "HC1")
Standard error type: HC1
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|) CI Lower CI Upper DF
(Intercept) -229.204
                       58.2514 -3.935 1.626e-04 -344.9130 -113.495 91
                       0.5634 3.013 3.345e-03
                                                    0.5787
              1.698
                                                              2.817 91
ppr
            -311.685
                       44.3303 -7.031 3.682e-10 -399.7413 -223.628 91
rvp
                        3.5325 -3.277 1.487e-03 -18.5920
            -11.575
                                                             -4.558 91
rvv
                        1.3238 8.689 1.414e-13
             11.502
                                                    8.8722
                                                             14.131 91
czp
Multiple R-squared: 0.9587, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9569
F-statistic: 1000 on 4 and 91 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```









4.4 Autocorrelation







What the assumption means and what are the key consequences if not fulfilled

Assumption

$$Cov(u_i, u_j | x_i, x_j) = 0 \qquad \longleftrightarrow \qquad Cov(u_i, u_j | x_i, x_j) \neq 0$$

$$i \neq j$$

$$i \neq j$$

No autocorrelation

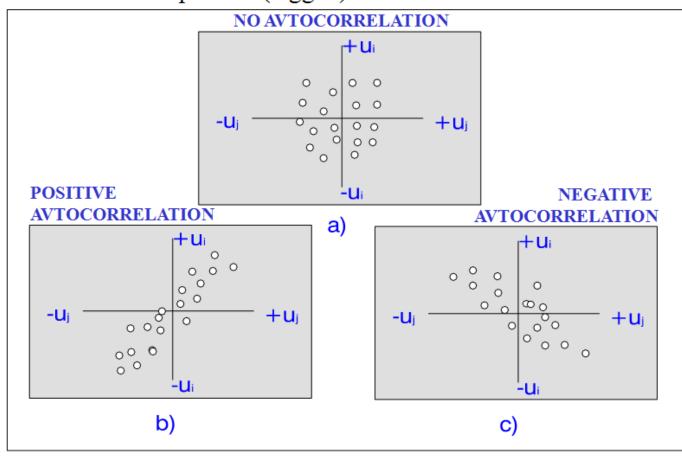
Autocorrelation



We distinguish between *genuine autocorrelation* and *spurious autocorrelation*. The latter is a consequence of a poorly specified regression model.



Scatter plots of (lagged) stochastic variable *u*:









Causes of autocorrelation

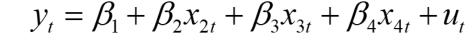


Genuine. In most time series there exists an underlying its development depends on the phenomenon in the previous time pariod(s) This is also the main reason for cyclical developments. Genuine. In most time series there exists an underlying inertia, i.e.





In empirical research, we often proceed from the most general model, where we can "drop" an important explanatory variable. This is called the excluded-variable specification bias and often causes autocorrelation. Here is an example:



Quantity

Price

Income Price of a substitute

or a complement

$$y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2t} + \beta_3 x_{3t} + v_t$$
 $v_t = \beta_4 x_{4t} + u_t$











3 Model specification error due to wrong functional form of the regression model, e.g.:

$$y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \beta_3 x_{2i}^2 + u_i$$

Marginal cost

Product

Product

$$y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2i} + v_i$$
 $v_i = \beta_3 x_{2i}^2 + u_i$









Not taking into account lagged variables, i.e. not including lags of (explanatory) variables.





Use of transformations with time series, e.g. averages, sums, trends and various interpolations.



Non-stationarity of time series, i.e. first and second moments of a time series not being constant in time.

When the dependent and explanatory variable(s) are nonstationary, it is likely that the stochastic variable is nonstationary as well, and the model exhibits autocorrelation.









Types (orders) of autocorrelation



First-order autocorrelation (first-order autoregression scheme)

$$u_{t} = \rho_{1}u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t} \quad \blacksquare \quad \mathbf{AR(1)}$$

$$-1 < \rho_1 < 1$$
 $\rho = \rho_1$ – coefficient of first-order autocorrelation



Second-order autocorrelation

$$u_{t} = \rho_{1}u_{t-1} + \rho_{2}u_{t-2} + \varepsilon_{t}$$
 AR(2)



p–th order autocorrelation

$$u_{t} = \rho_{1}u_{t-1} + \rho_{2}u_{t-2} + \dots + \rho_{p}u_{t-p} + \varepsilon_{t}$$
 AR(p)









Consequences of autocorrelation

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{u}$$

$$E(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{but } E(\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^{T}) = Var - \text{cov}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{W}$$

$$E(\mathbf{b}) = E\left[\left(\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X}\right)^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}\right] = E\left[\left(\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X}\right)^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\left(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{u}\right)\right] =$$

$$= E\left(\boldsymbol{\beta} + \left(\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X}\right)^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{u}\right) = \boldsymbol{\beta} + \left(\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X}\right)^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}E(\mathbf{u}) = \boldsymbol{\beta}$$





The estimator of regression coefficients remains unbiased!



Consequences of autocorrelation

$$Var - \operatorname{cov}(\mathbf{b}) = E\left[(\mathbf{b} - \boldsymbol{\beta}) (\mathbf{b} - \boldsymbol{\beta})^{\mathrm{T}} \right] =$$

$$= E\left[(\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \right] =$$

$$= (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} E(\mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}^{\mathrm{T}}) \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X})^{-1} =$$

$$= (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

No autocorrelation
$$Var - cov(\mathbf{b}) = \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$$









The estimator of regression coefficients is not most efficient any more! OLS is not BLUE any more, it is merely LUE!



Consequences of autocorrelation



The variance and covariance estimators of regression coefficients become biased.

Test statistics of regression coefficients are not reliable any more!







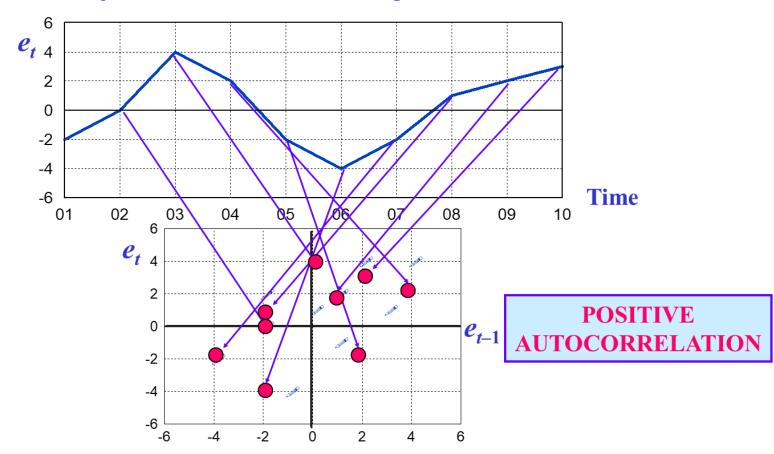
How to verify (test for) the validity of the assumption

- 1. Graphic method of detecting autocorrelation.
- 2. Formal statistical tests, the most comprehensive being the Breusch–Godfrey test.





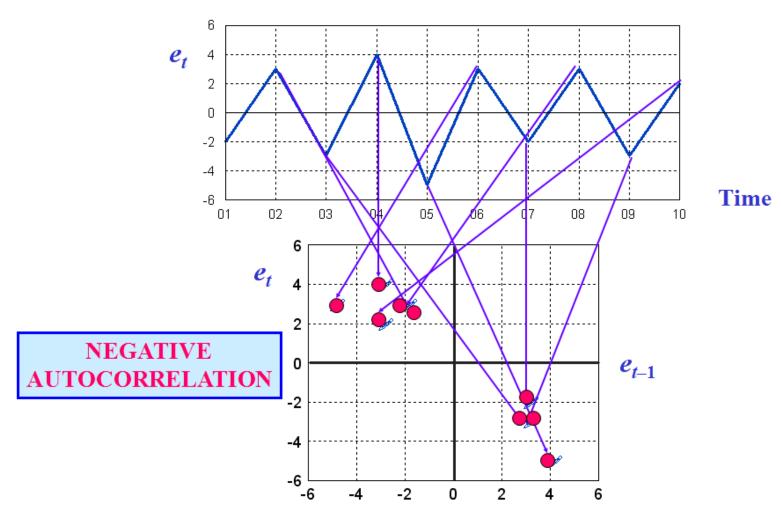
1. Graphic method of detecting autocorrelation



















- 2. Breusch-Godfrey test (1978) (Lagrange multiplier test)
- 1 Assume any order of autocorrelation, e.g. *p*–th order:

$$u_{t} = \rho_{1}u_{t-1} + \rho_{2}u_{t-2} + \dots + \rho_{p}u_{t-p} + \varepsilon_{t}$$

$$H_0: \rho_1 = \rho_2 = \cdots = \rho_p = 0$$

different from 0

Test statistic
Estimate auxilliary regression:

$$\hat{e}_{t} = b_{1} + b_{2}x_{2t} + \dots + b_{k}x_{kt} + \hat{\rho}_{1}e_{t-1} + \dots + \hat{\rho}_{p}e_{t-p}$$

$$LM = (n-p)R^{2} \sim \chi^{2}_{(p)}$$

- Regression model can include lagged dependent variable as a regressor
 - 🚺 Lag order not known in advance
 - O Potential problems wih degrees of freedom









Solutions if the assumption is violated



What are the possible solutions in case that the assumption is not fulfilled

Problem	Heteroscedasticity	Autocorrelation		
	Improvement of the model specification (eliminates heteroscedasticity and autocorrelation that emerges due to biases)			
Problem management (once detected)	Application of generalized least squares (GLS) estimators:			
	weighted least squares (WLS) estimator	generalized difference equation (GDE) estimator:		
		two-stage procedureiterative procedure (CORC)		
	If the exact form of the problem is established, this approach eliminates all of the above adverse consequences.			









Solutions if the assumption is violated

Problem	Heteroscedasticity	Autocorrelation		
	Robust variance estimators (Huber/White variance estimator)	HAC variance estimators (Newey–West robust variance estimator)		
Problem	u ~ IID	$u \sim IID$		
	Estimator loosens the assumption on identical distribution.	Estimator loosens both assumptions (on independence and identical distribution).		
management (once detected)	Approach does not affect the regression coefficient estimates.			
	Standard errors regain unbiasedness.			
	Regression coefficient estimator does not necessarily regain efficiency (standard errors are not necessarily the lowest possible).			
	Transformation of variables	AR(I)MAX methodology		









Computer printout of estimation of a money demand regression model (Stata)

. regress hm1 ppr rvp rvv czp

rvv l

czp |

_cons |

11.50168

125.2134

-229.2038

Model Residual	SS 11431132.5 492791.936 11923924.4	4 285 91 5	57783.12 5415.296		Number of obs F(4, 91) Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared Root MSE	= 527.72 = 0.0000 = 0.9587 = 0.9569
hm1					[95% Conf.	
ppr	1.697766	.513892	3.30	0.001	.6769831 -401.5718	2.71855

-11.57513 5.33166 **-2.17** 0.033 **-22.16582**

-1.83

1.472604 7.81 0.000 8.576535

0.070

-477.9248







-.98444

14,42683



. estat bgodfrey, lags(1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12)

Breusch-Godfrey LM test for autocorrelation

lags(p)	chi2	df	Prob > chi2
1	70.771	1	0.0000
2 i	70.773	2	0.0000
3 i	71.397	3	0.0000
4	71.398	4	0.0000
5 j	71.639	5	0.0000
6	71.641	6	0.0000
7	73.403	7	0.0000
8	73.536	8	0.0000
9	74.066	9	0.0000
10	74.112	10	0.0000
11	74.164	11	0.0000
12	76.742	12	0.0000





HO: no serial correlation



. newey hm1 ppr rvp rvv czp, lag(78)

Regression with Newey-West standard errors maximum lag: 78

Number of obs = 96 F(4, 91) = 859.25Prob > F = 0.0000

hm1	 Coef.	Newey-West Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf	. Interval]
ppr rvp rvv czp	1.697766 -311.6847 -11.57513 11.50168	.3108188 64.70783 6.148327 .672376	5.46 -4.82 -1.88 17.11	0.000 0.000 0.063 0.000	1.080363 -440.2189 -23.78802 10.16609	2.31517 -183.1505 .637769 12.83727
_cons	-229.2038	71.30645	-3.21	0.002	-370.8453	-87.56224









Computer printout of estimation of a money demand regression model (R)

```
> mod = lm(hm1 ~ ppr + rvp + rvv + czp, data = money_demand)
> summary(mod)
call:
lm(formula = hm1 \sim ppr + rvp + rvv + czp, data = money_demand)
Residuals:
Harmonized money aggregate M1
     Min
                   Median
                                3Q
                                       Max
-180.693 -36.611 1.595
                           38.308 152.114
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -229.2038 125.2134 -1.831 0.07045.
              1.6978 0.5139 3.304 0.00137 **
ppr
           -311.6847 45.2518 -6.888 7.14e-10 ***
rvp
            -11.5751 5.3317 -2.171 0.03253 *
rvv
             11.5017 1.4726 7.810 9.44e-12 ***
czp
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 73.59 on 91 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.9587, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9569
F-statistic: 527.7 on 4 and 91 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```









```
> bgtest_tab = as.data.frame(matrix(ncol=4, nrow=12))
> names(bgtest_tab) = c("Order","LM-test","df","p-value")
> for (i in c(1:12)) {
    a = bqtest(mod.order=i)
    bgtest_tab[i,1] = i
    bgtest_tab[i,2] = a$statistic
    bgtest_tab[i,3] = a$parameter
    bgtest_tab[i,4] = round(a$p.value,4)
+ }
> bgtest_tab
   Order LM-test df p-value
1
       1 70.77133
                      0.0000
       2 70.77328 2
                      0.0000
       3 71.39680 3
                      0.0000
                      0.0000
       4 71.39773 4
       5 71.63857
                      0.0000
       6 71.64141
                      0.0000
       7 73.40315
                      0.0000
8
       8 73.53570
                      0.0000
9
       9 74.06588
                      0.0000
10
      10 74.11248 10
                      0.0000
      11 74.16396 11
                      0.0000
11
12
      12 76.74155 12
                      0.0000
```









```
> coeftest(mod, vcov.=NeweyWest(mod, lag=78, adjust=TRUE, prewhite=FALSE))
t test of coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -229.20375
                         71.30645 -3.2143
                                           0.00181 **
                       0.31082 5.4622 4.056e-07 ***
               1.69777
ppr
            -311.68470
                         64.70783 -4.8168 5.793e-06 ***
rvp
             -11.57513
                       6.14833 -1.8826
                                           0.06294 .
rvv
                         0.67238 17.1060 < 2.2e-16 ***
              11.50168
czp
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```







4. Model Diagnostics

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