

2. Multiple Regression Model

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2.1 Population Regression Model and Sample Regression Model



Models and Variables

MULTIPLE REGRESSION MODEL MULTIVARIATE REGRESSION MODEL

Single equation models

dependent variable
explained variable
regressand
predictand
response variable

explanatory variables $x_j ; j = 1, \dots, k$
unexplained variables
regressors
predictors
control variables

Multiple equation models

endogenous variable(s)

exogenous variables



Notation of Variables

$y_i, (y_t)$

→ odvisna spremenljivka
- value of the dependent variable at i-th (t-th) observation

$x_{ji}, (x_{jt})$

→ neodvisna spremenljivka
- value of the j-th explanatory variable at the i-th (t-th) observation

We distinguish between:

- 1) Time series (t);
- 2) Cross sections (i),
- 3) Panels (it).

$$\begin{aligned} i &= 1, 2, \dots, n & (t &= 1, 2, \dots, T) \\ j &= 1, 2, \dots, k \end{aligned}$$

n (T) – number of observations
k – number of parameters

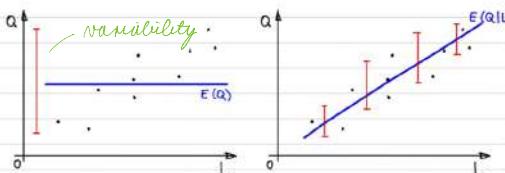
Population Regression Model

new term —

→ You are examining all units in the population
POPULATION REGRESSION MODEL - old term
DATA GENERATING PROCESS (DGP) term
 → mathematical structure of a certain phenomenon
 Example: $PRODUCT = f(LABOUR, CAPITAL)$

Conditioning: let us assume that
 $E(Q|L) = f(L)$.

Slide 4



Conditioning "reduces variability".

$$E(Q|L, K) = f(L, K)$$

Conditional expected value of the dependent variable
 is a function of explanatory variables



Expected value = mathematical expectation = average value of a stochastic variable given an infinite number of measurements or realisations

Population Regression Model

Linear population regression model

(regression model = regression function = regression line = regression)

β - standarized
regression coefficients

$$E(Q_i | L_i, K_i) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 L_i + \beta_3 K_i$$

$$Q_i = E(Q_i | L_i, K_i) + u_i$$

or alternatively

$$u_i = Q_i - E(Q_i | L_i, K_i)$$

these β tell us
how L and K
affect the value
of E

$$Q_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 L_i + \beta_3 K_i + u_i$$

u_i = disturbances (stochastic variable)



Population Regression Model

Reasons for including u_i in the model:

- First, it is a **substitute** for all those **variables that affect the dependent variable, but are *not included among the explanatory variables*** (indicate some for our example!). Often this is caused by an incomplete or insufficient economic theory.
- Even if some variables are recognized as important explanatory variables, they often can not be included in the model specification, as they are **difficult to express numerically or obtain data** (e.g. preferences and habits, or in our case idiosyncratic knowledge).
- When there is a high probability that the **total effect** of omitted explanatory variables is small and insignificant, but most of all **non-systematic**, then these effects can be treated as random and captured in the model by a stochastic variable u .

Population Regression Model

- Even if one could capture all relevant explanatory variables when specifying the regression model, some random elements of the dependent variable would still be left unexplained – *pure stochastic effects or shocks*.
- Even though the classical linear regression model assumes that the values of (dependent and explanatory) *variables are measured without error*, this is often not the case in practice.
- When specifying the regression model, we should stick to the well-known rule, stating that *simpler model should be preferred to a more complicated one*, until proven that it is unsuitable due to its simplicity (Occam's razor principle).



Population Regression Model

**GENERAL POPULATION
REGRESSION MODEL (PRM):**

$$E(y_i | x_{1i}, \dots, x_{ki}) = f(x_{1i}, \dots, x_{ki})$$

or alternatively

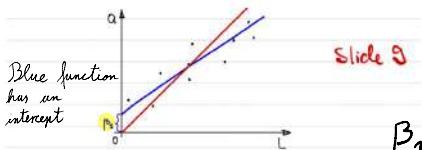
$$y_i = E(y_i | x_{1i}, \dots, x_{ki}) + u_i$$



Population Regression Model

Linear population regression model:

Including a constant term / an intercept:



$$E(y_i | x_{1i}, \dots, x_{ki}) = \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \dots + \beta_k x_{ki}$$

$$E(y_i | x_{1i}, \dots, x_{ki}) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \dots + \beta_k x_{ki}$$

or alternatively

$$y_i = \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \dots + \beta_k x_{ki} + u_i$$

$$y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \dots + \beta_k x_{ki} + u_i$$

the cost of not including an intercept is higher than including it when it is not necessary.



β_j – partial regression coefficient of the j -th explanatory variable
 u_i – disturbances (stochastic variable) at the i -th observation

↗ Regresija na vzorec

Sample Regression Model

LINEAR SAMPLE REGRESSION MODEL (SRM):

estimator is a formula, estimate is the number you get by putting values into the formula.

$$\begin{aligned}y_i &= b_1 + b_2 x_{2i} + \dots + b_k x_{ki} + e_i \\ \hat{y}_i &= b_1 + b_2 x_{2i} + \dots + b_k x_{ki} \\ y_i &= \hat{y}_i + e_i\end{aligned}$$

\hat{y}_i – estimator of the conditional expectation $E(y|x_{1i}, \dots, x_{ki})$

b is an estimator of β

b_1, \dots, b_k – estimators of regression coefficients β_1, \dots, β_k

e_i – residuals of the sample regression model



The term **estimator** is used in statistical literature for sample statistics.

These are formulas that tell us how to calculate the parameters for population, based on (stochastic) sample data.

A given, specific numerical value of a parameter, calculated with the estimator, is then called an **estimate** of a parameter.

Slide 10

PRM	$E(y X)$	β	u
vs.	\hat{y}	b or $\hat{\beta}$	e or \hat{u}
SRM			

Sample Regression Model

Linear sample regression model:

$$\hat{y}_i = b_1 x_{1i} + b_2 x_{2i} + \dots + b_k x_{ki}$$

$$\hat{y}_i = b_1 + b_2 x_{2i} + \dots + b_k x_{ki}$$

Keep in mind an example of a SRM,
such as:

$$Q_i = \underbrace{b_1 + b_2 L_i + b_3 K_i}_{\hat{Q}_i} + e_i$$

Slide 11

or alternatively

$$y_i = b_1 x_{1i} + b_2 x_{2i} + \dots + b_k x_{ki} + e_i$$

$$y_i = b_1 + b_2 x_{2i} + \dots + b_k x_{ki} + e_i$$



2.2 Estimation of the Population Regression Model and the Method of Least Squares



Motivation

“The only way to a position in which our science might give positive advice in a large scale to politicians and business men, leads through quantitative work. For as long as we are unable to put our arguments into figures, the voice of our science, although occasionally it may help to dispel gross errors, will never be heard by practical men. They are, by instinct, econometricians all of them, in their distrust of anything not amenable to exact proof.”

**Joseph A. Schumpeter: “The Common Sense of Econometrics”,
Econometrica, 1, 1933, p. 12.**



Estimation of the PRM

How should the estimator minimise the residuals of the SRM:

- glej
naredijo
stran
- should sum of the residuals be minimal? No
 - should sum of the absolute values of residuals be minimal? No
 - should sum of the squared residuals be minimal? Yes

Least Squares Estimator or Method (OLS, LS)

"Discovered" by the German mathematician C. F. Gauss (at age 16).
First published in 1809 and finalised in 1823.



An estimator of β , i.e. the formula to calculate b , should somehow minimize "e".

$$e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$$

Infinite number of possibilities:

1) $\min_b \sum_i e_i$ \times

2) $\min_b \sum_i |e_i|$ \times

3) $\min_b \sum_i e_i^2$ \checkmark \rightarrow Least squares estimator

etc.

Estimation of the PRM

Carl Friederich Gauss (1777–1855)



Estimation of the PRM

$$y_i = b_1 + b_2 x_{2i} + \dots + b_k x_{ki} + e_i = \hat{y}_i + e_i$$

Residuals of the sample regression model:

$$\begin{aligned} e_i &= y_i - \hat{y}_i = \\ &= y_i - b_1 - b_2 x_{2i} - \dots - b_k x_{ki} \end{aligned}$$

$$\sum e_i^2 = \sum (y_i - b_1 - b_2 x_{2i} - \dots - b_k x_{ki})^2$$

It is obvious that this sum is a function (S) of estimators of regression coefficients:

$$\sum e_i^2 = S(b_1, \dots, b_k)$$

Method of Least Squares

Linear sample regression model (SRM):

$$y_i = b_1 + b_2 x_{2i} + \dots + b_k x_{ki} + e_i$$

*if you have
5000 companies
the model has
5000 lines.*

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{lll} i=1: & y_1 = b_1 + b_2 x_{21} + \dots + b_k x_{k1} + e_1 \\ i=2: & y_2 = b_1 + b_2 x_{22} + \dots + b_k x_{k2} + e_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ i=n: & y_n = b_1 + b_2 x_{2n} + \dots + b_k x_{kn} + e_n \end{array} \right.$$

It is convenient to employ matrix notation:

Slide 17

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} x_{21} \\ x_{22} \\ \vdots \\ x_{2n} \end{bmatrix} \quad \dots \quad x_k = \begin{bmatrix} x_{k1} \\ x_{k2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{kn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$e = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ \vdots \\ e_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_k \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{21} & \dots & x_{k1} \\ 1 & x_{22} & \dots & x_{k2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{2n} & \dots & x_{kn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$x_1 \quad x_2 \quad x_k$

$$y = X \cdot b + e \quad \text{and} \quad e = y - X \cdot b$$

Slide 18

3

Remember that:

Slide 18

$$e^T e = [e_1 \ e_2 \ \dots \ e_n] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ \vdots \\ e_n \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$= e_1^2 + e_2^2 + \dots + e_n^2 = \sum_i e_i^2$$

Method of Least Squares

(Ordinary least squares)

Least squares algebra and derivation of OLS:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{e}$$

$$\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e} = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})$$



Method of Least Squares

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e}}{\partial \mathbf{b}} = -2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + 2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{b} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{b}$$

Least squares estimator of regression coefficients:

$$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$



System of normal equations:

$$(X^T X)^{-1} / X^T y = (X^T X) b \quad \text{Slide 19}$$

$$(X^T X)^{-1} X^T y = \underbrace{(X^T X)^{-1} X^T X}_I b$$

I - identity matrix

$$b = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$

THE LEAST SQUARES ESTIMATOR

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties of Least Squares Estimator

1. $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{0}$
2. $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^T \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{0}$
3. $\bar{\hat{y}} = \bar{y}$
4. $\sum_i e_i = 0$
- } always valid
- } valid only if there is an intercept (constant)
- \hookrightarrow median to $x=0$



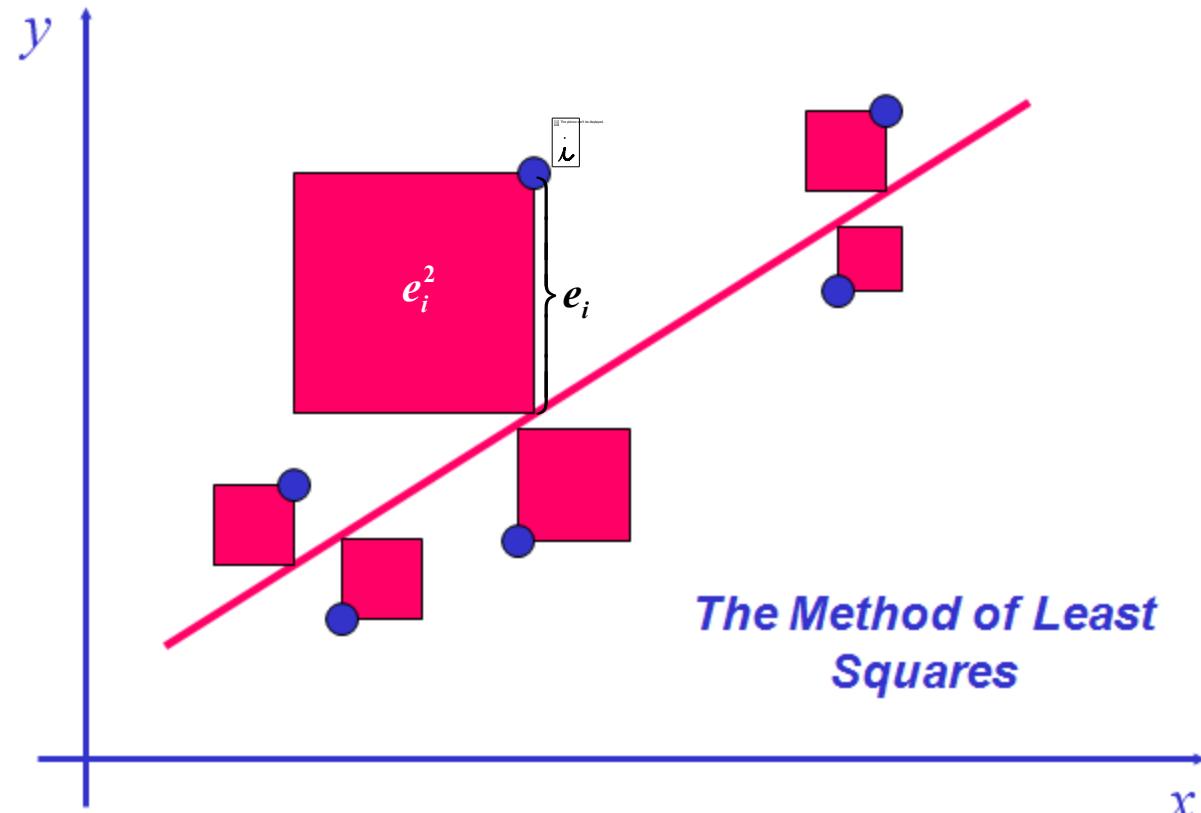
Remember that:

Slide 20

$$X^T e = 0 \iff \sum_i x_{ji} \cdot e_i = 0, \forall j = 1, \dots, k$$

$$\hat{y}^T e = 0 \iff \sum_i \hat{y}_i \cdot e_i = 0$$

Graphic Illustration of OLS



2.3 Assumptions of the Method of Least Squares

✓ if certain assumptions are correct this method gives you satisfactory results (\Leftarrow optimal estimator)



LS is an optimal estimator



Assumption 1

Linearity of regression model:

Assumptions of the LS estimator

Non-linearity:

slide 23

a) In variables:

x and y
can
be linearized

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

↓ linearization

$$x_{2i}^2 = x_{2i}^1$$



b) In parameters:

β cannot
be linearized

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

unknown!



$$y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_i + u_i$$

Assumption 2

Fixed (non-stochastic) values of explanatory variables at sampling (drawing samples from a distribution):

CONDITIONAL REGRESSION ANALYSIS



Fixed explanatory variables:

$$E(X) = X$$

$$E[(X^T X)^{-1} X^T] = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T$$

Assumption 3

Zero conditional mathematical expectation of u_i :

$$E(u_i | x_{2i}, \dots, x_{ki}) = 0 \text{ or in short } E(u_i) = 0;$$

*Sum of all disturbances
is 0 (some are positive, while
others are negative)*

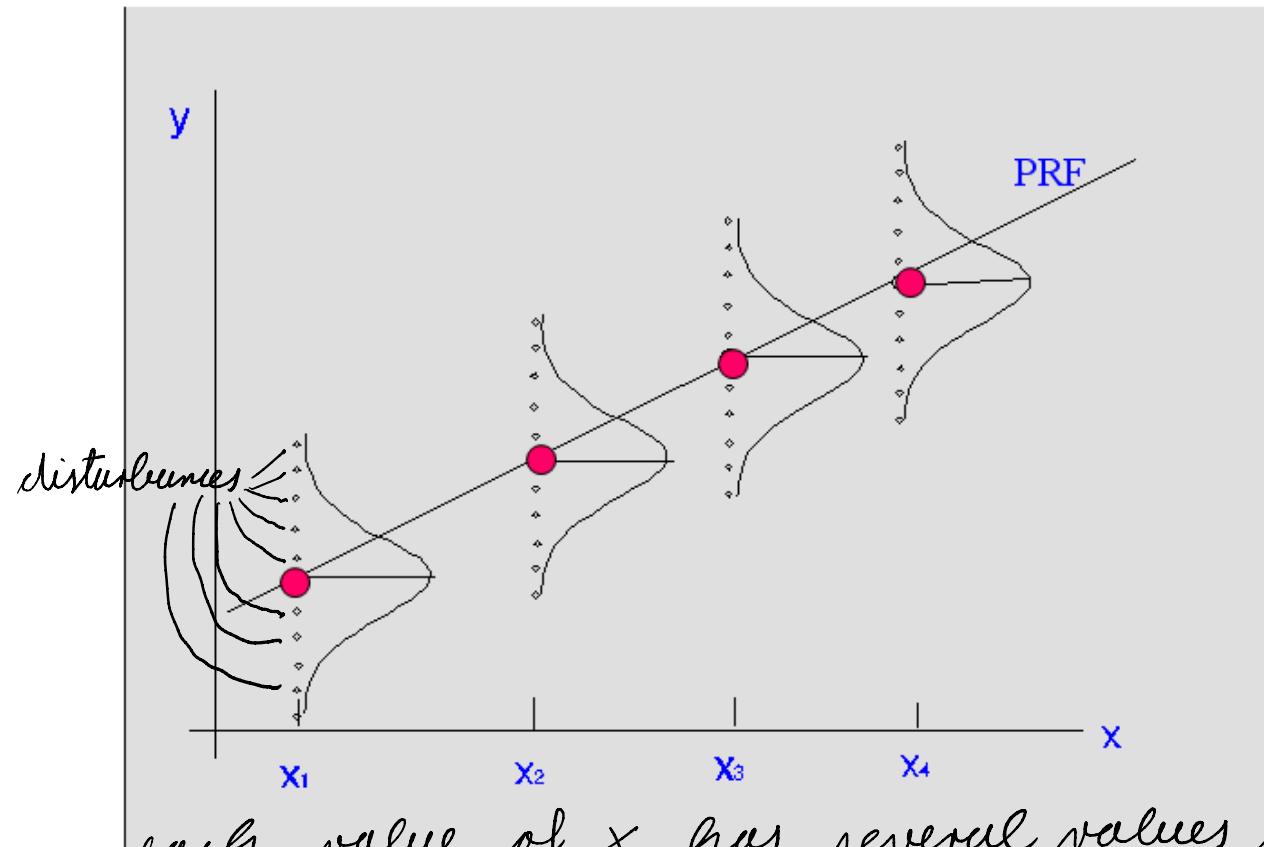
which also means:

$$E(y_i | x_{2i}, \dots, x_{ki}) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \dots + \beta_k x_{ki}.$$



Assumption 3

Distribution of stochastic variables y and u :



each value of x has several values of y .
(for example if 10 students were given 500 € not everyone would spend the same amount of money.)

Assumption 4

→ good assumption

Homoscedasticity:

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

or alternatively:

$$Var(u_i) = E(u_i^2) = \sigma^2$$

→ Good assumption

Heteroscedasticity:

Slide 27

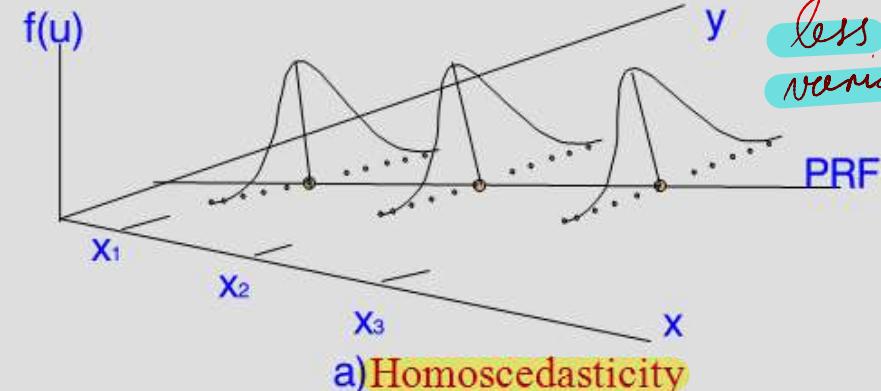
$$Var(u_i) = \sigma_i^2$$

variance depends on an observation

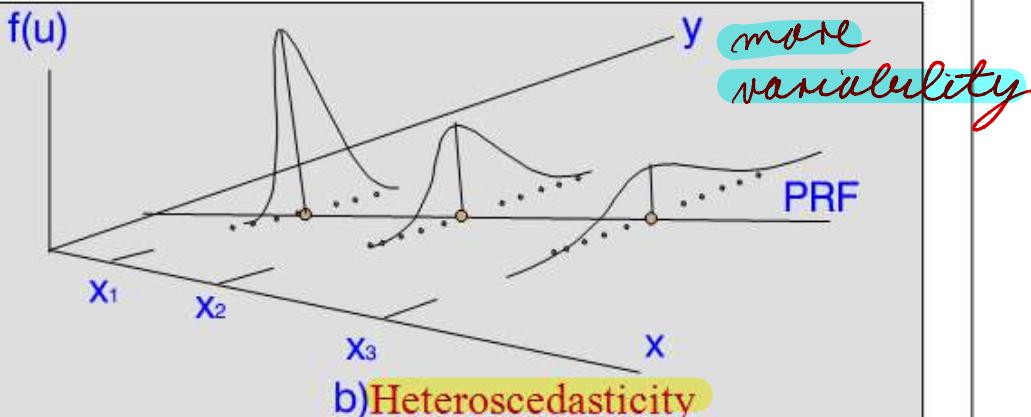
Assumption 4

The distribution is the same for every value of x .

Variability of stochastic variable u :



a) Homoscedasticity



b) Heteroscedasticity

The distribution is not the same for every value of x .

Assumption 5

j is a lag w.r.t. i.

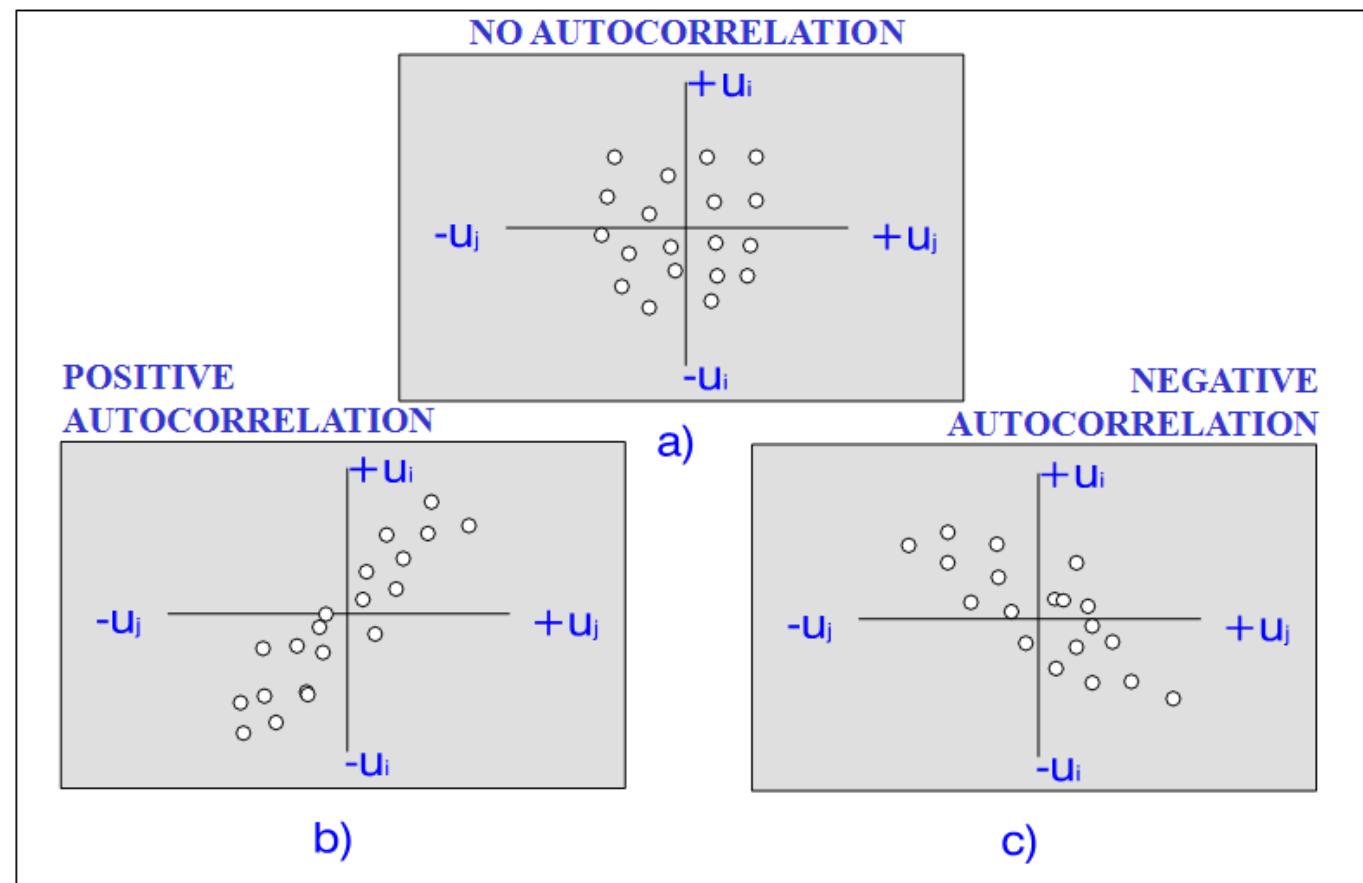
No autocorrelation:

$$\text{Cov}(u_i, u_j | x_i, x_j) = 0; \quad i \neq j$$



Assumption 5

Scatter plots of (lagged) stochastic variable u :



Assumption 6

Assumption number 3 and 5 give this assumption.

No correlation between explanatory variables and the stochastic variable u :

$$\text{Cov}(x_2, u) = \text{Cov}(x_3, u) = \dots = \text{Cov}(x_k, u) = 0$$



Assumption 7

Important assumption for identification of the model.

Number of observations should be greater than the number of estimated parameters (explanatory variables):

$$n > k$$



Assumption 8

We are explaining variability of y with x .

Variability in values of explanatory variables:

var(X) is a positive finite value

Assumption 8, example: **slide 33**

$$y_i = b_1 + b_2 x_{2i} + e_i, \quad \text{var}(x_2) = 0$$

Then $x_{2i} = \bar{x}_2$:

$$b_2 = \frac{\sum_i (x_{2i} - \bar{x}_2)(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_i (x_{2i} - \bar{x}_2)^2}$$

not defined

and

$$b_1 = \bar{y} - b_2 \bar{x}_2$$

not defined.

No b can be calculated
if there is no variability.

Assumption 9

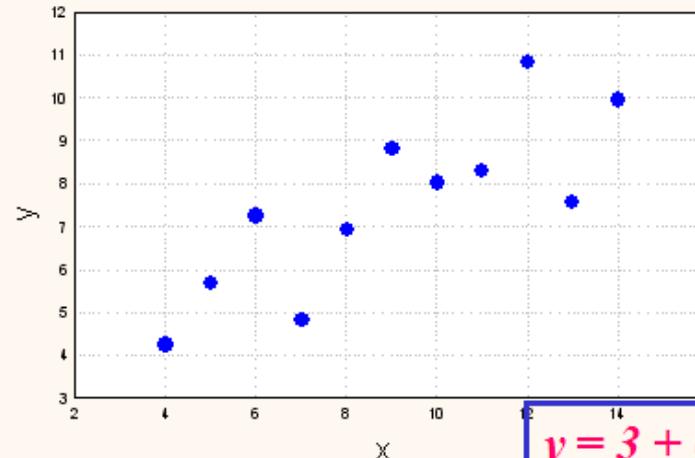
Regression model is correctly specified:

- All relevant explanatory variables are included
- The right functional form of the model is chosen

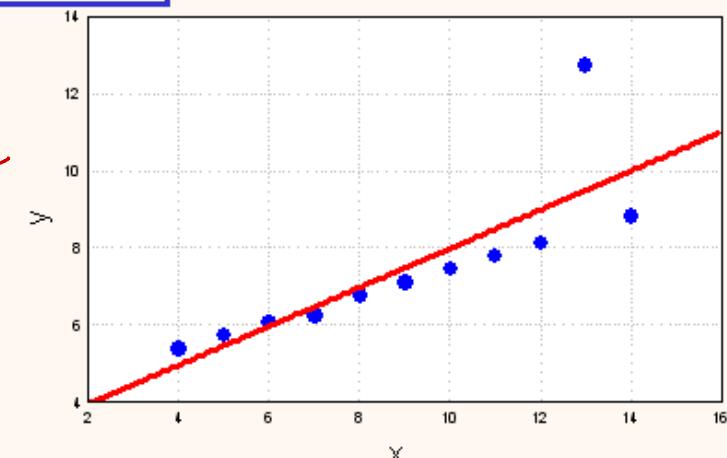
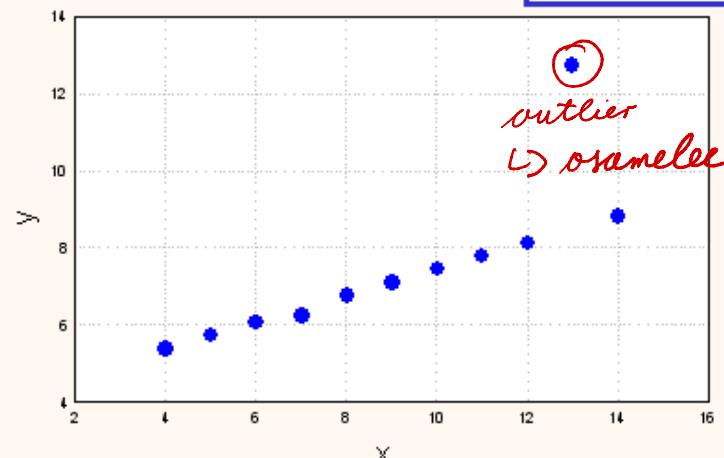
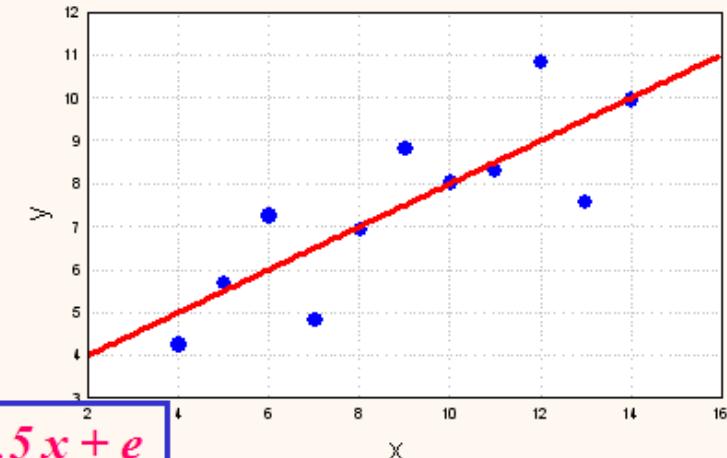


Assumption 9

linear model

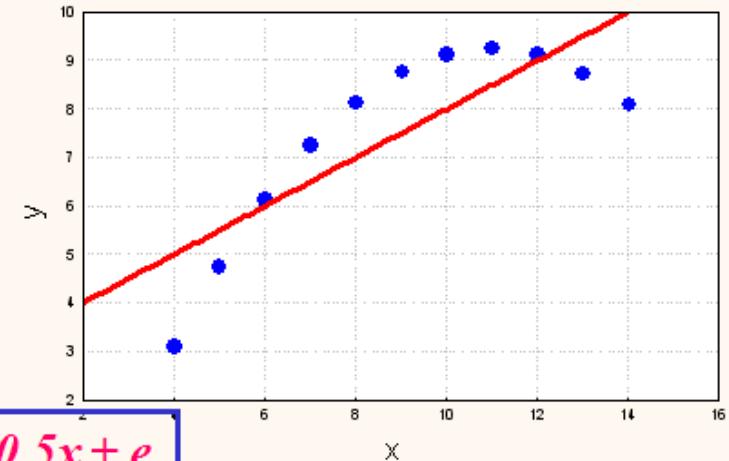
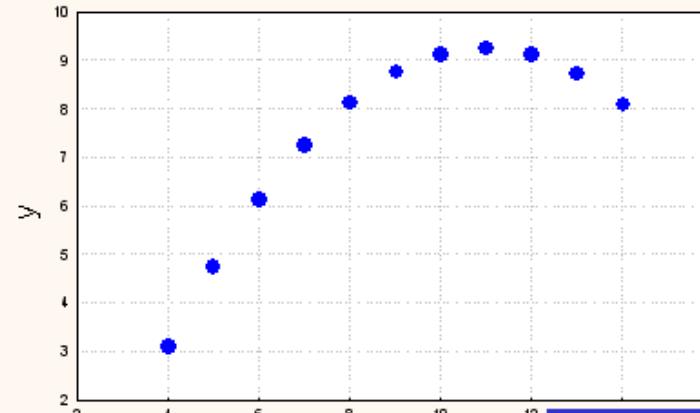


$$y = 3 + 0.5x + e$$



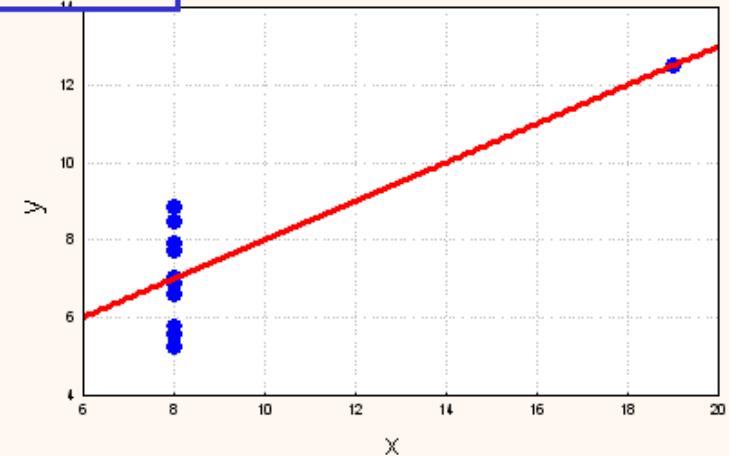
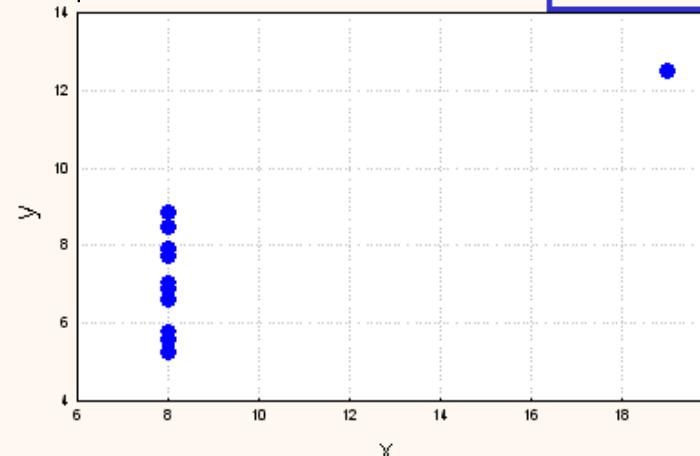
Assumption 9

non-linear model



non-linear model

$$y = 3 + 0.5x + e$$



Assumption 10

Absence of perfect multicollinearity:

There exists no perfect linear relationship among the explanatory variables of the form:

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

Consequences of perfect (multi)collinearity

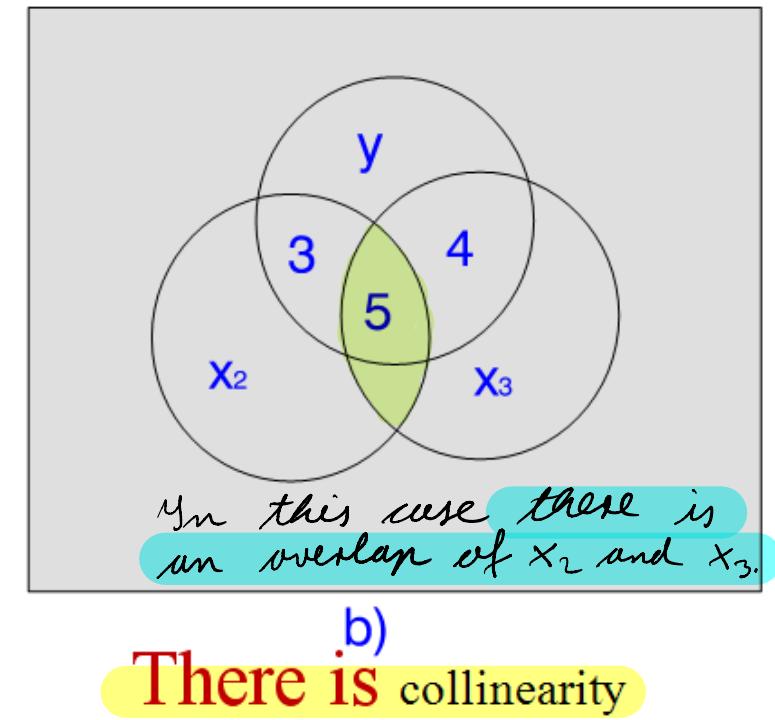
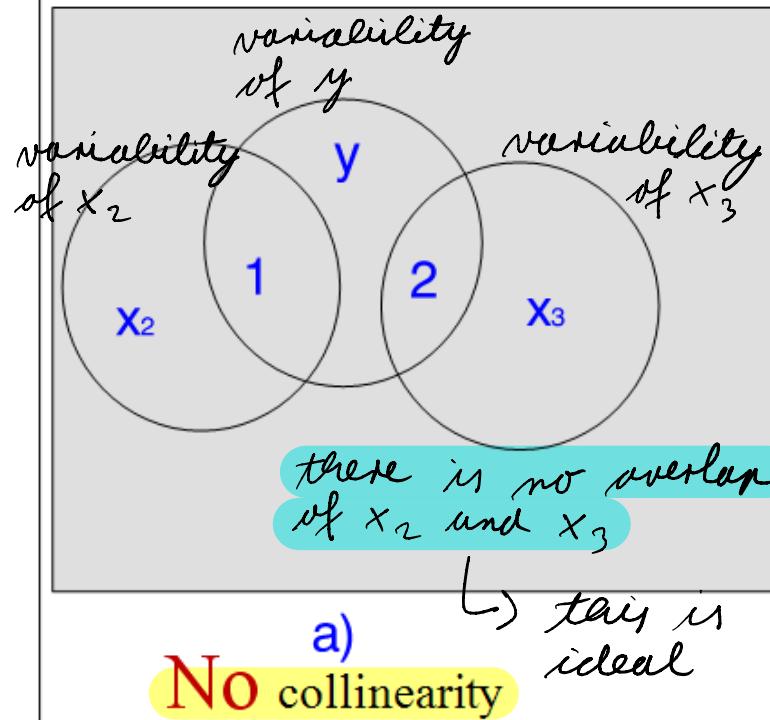
Assumption 10:

Slide 37

- 1) $\det(X^T X) = 0$;
- 2) matrix $X^T X$ is singular and thus non-invertible;
- 3) $b = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$ is not defined.

Assumption 10

Analogy with Venn diagrams:



Operationalisation of the PRM

normalne
potrudele

Stochastic variable u is normally distributed:

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

NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

it has 2 parameters.

- mean

- $\sigma^2 \Rightarrow$ variance

Consequently, the dependent variable y
is also a normally distributed stochastic variable:

$$y_i \sim N(\beta_1 x_{1i} + \dots + \beta_k x_{ki}, \sigma_u^2)$$

explanatory variables are not
stochastic, since they are fixed . 39/82

2.4 Sample Properties of the Method of Least Squares



Motivation

- The estimates of regression coefficients, obtained by the least squares estimator, are *stochastic variables*. How to establish their mean, variance, covariances, and probability distribution?
- The method of least squares is only one of possible estimators of regression coefficients. How *successful is the chosen estimator* compared to other possible estimators?
- What is the *reliability of estimates* of the regression coefficients? How good are the estimates, obtained based on one sample only?



Sample Properties of OLS

PROPERTY A: LINEARITY

$$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$$

Estimates of regression coefficients based on sample data are linear combinations of sample values of the dependent variable y .

PROPERTY B: CONSISTENCY

$$\mathbf{b} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

when you increase
the sample size
tend to be true
estimators of regression coefficients
values of parameters

Estimates of regression coefficients tend to the true values of parameters, when the sample size increases.

very important

Sample Properties of OLS

PROPERTY C: UNBIASEDNESS

$$\begin{aligned} E(\mathbf{b}) &= \beta + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'E(\mathbf{u}) \quad E(b) = \beta \\ &= \beta + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{0} = \beta \end{aligned}$$

Estimates of regression coefficients are unbiased estimates of their population values.

Sample properties of the LS estimator

Unbiasedness:

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$$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'(\mathbf{X}\beta + \mathbf{u})$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \underbrace{(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'}_{\mathbf{I}}\beta + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{u}$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \beta + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{u}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(\mathbf{b}) &= E(\beta) + E[(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{u}] \\ E(\mathbf{b}) &= \beta + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'E(\mathbf{u}) = \beta \end{aligned}$$

To get unbiasedness you need assumption number 3 ($E(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0}$) and assumption number 2 ($E(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{X}$). *\zavodnij*

Sample Properties of OLS

an estimator is efficient if variability is low and accuracy is high.

PROPERTY D: EFFICIENCY

Sample properties of the LS estimator

Unbiasedness: Slide 43

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T (X\beta + u)$$

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \underbrace{X\beta}_{\hat{\beta}} + (X^T X)^{-1} X^T u$$

$$E(\hat{\beta}) = E(\beta) + E[(X^T X)^{-1} X^T u]$$

$$E(\hat{\beta}) = \beta + (X^T X)^{-1} X^T E(u) = \beta$$

Efficiency: Slide 44

$$\hat{\beta} - \beta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T u$$

$$(\hat{\beta} - \beta)^T = u^T X (X^T X)^{-1}$$

$$\text{Var} - \text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}) = E[(\hat{\beta} - \beta)(\hat{\beta} - \beta)^T] = E[(X^T X)^{-1} X^T u \cdot u^T X (X^T X)^{-1}] =$$

$$= (X^T X)^{-1} X^T E(uu^T) X (X^T X)^{-1} =$$

$$= \sigma^2 \cdot (X^T X)^{-1} X^T X (X^T X)^{-1} =$$

$$= \sigma^2 \cdot (X^T X)^{-1}$$

$$\text{Var} - \text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}) =$$

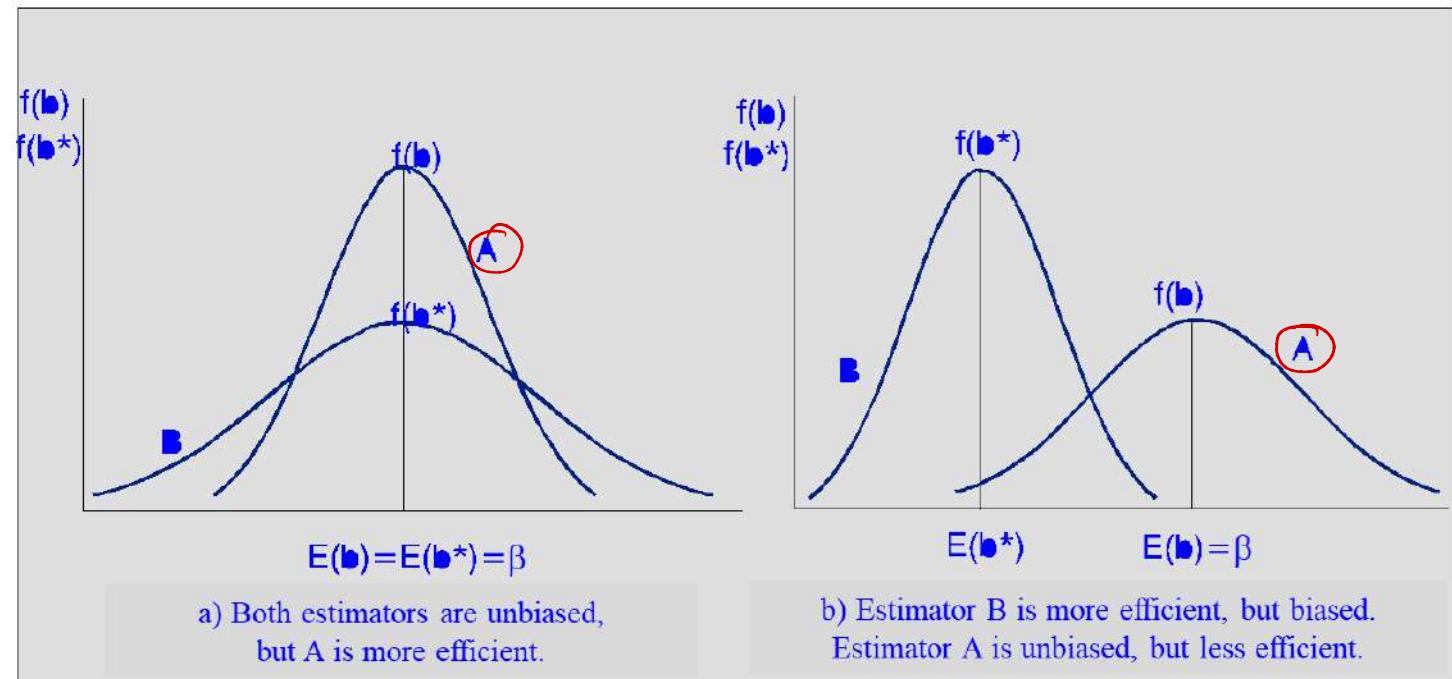
$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{Var}(b_1) & \text{Cov}(b_1, b_2) & \cdots & \text{Cov}(b_1, b_k) \\ \text{Cov}(b_2, b_1) & \text{Var}(b_2) & \cdots & \text{Cov}(b_2, b_k) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{Cov}(b_k, b_1) & \text{Cov}(b_k, b_2) & \cdots & \text{Var}(b_k) \end{bmatrix}$$

This model has the lowest variance of all linear models.

Sample Properties of OLS

Distribution of estimates of regression coefficients based on a large number of repeated samples is normal:

$$\hat{\beta} \sim N\left[\beta, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\right]$$



Unbiasedness > Efficiency > Consistency

Sample Properties of OLS

You need to make sure that these properties apply for the sample



Variance of the regression coefficient estimates:

$$Var(b_2) = \frac{\sigma^2}{nVar(x_2)} \cdot \frac{1}{(1 - r_{x_2x_3}^2)}$$

then you can use the OLS method.

Variance decreases, when:

1

- the sample size (n) increases, i.e. when the calculation of a regression coefficient estimate is based on more observations;

2

- the variability (variance) of an explanatory variable x increases;

3

- the variability (variance) of the stochastic variable u decreases;

4

- the linear dependence among the explanatory variables decreases.

the higher the variability of x_2 , the lower variability of y



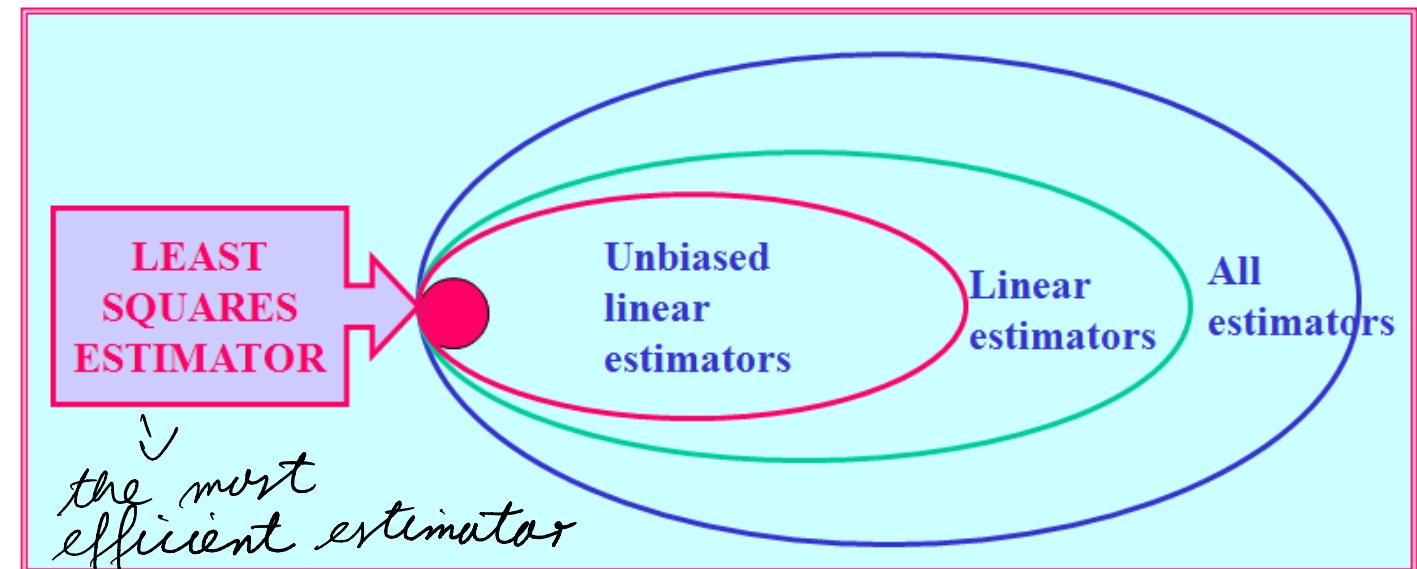
there should be no relationship between the explanatory variables.

Gauss–Markov Theorem

The method of least squares is
Best Linear Unbiased Estimator.

*most /
efficient*

BLUE



Monte Carlo Experiments

In simulation you choose the true values and then you do the sampling.

Monte Carlo experiments (Los Alamos – Manhattan)

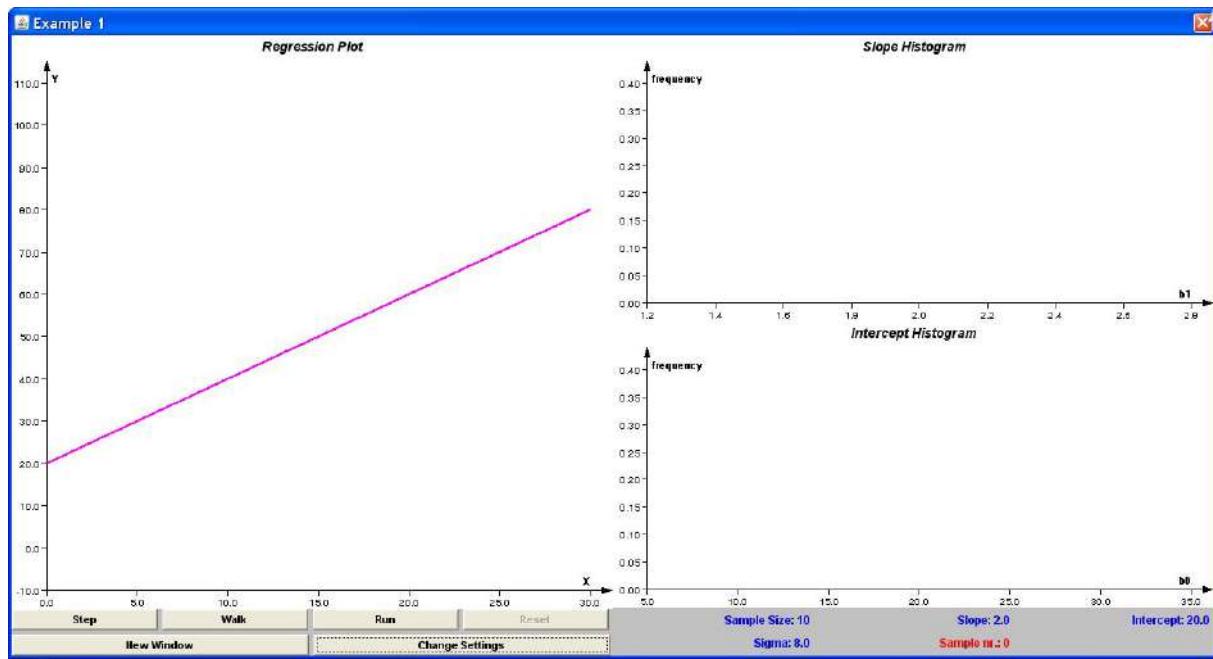
population regression model

- * We define a specific form for the PRM;
- * We set the values of regression coefficients, values of explanatory variables, and calculate the values of the dependent variable;
- * We prepare the “mended” values of the dependent variable for a large number of samples, such that at any given sample we add a random value (drawing from a distribution) of the stochastic variable u ;
- * For each of the prepared samples, we calculate the estimates of regression coefficients by applying OLS;
- * We prepare the distributions of estimates of regression coefficients and we analyze them.

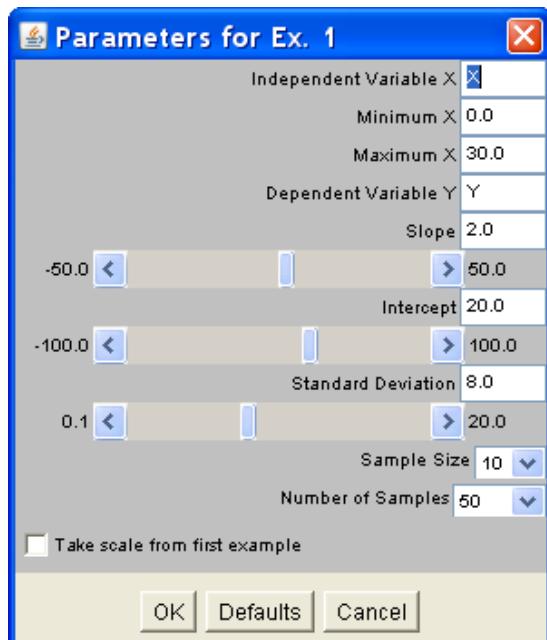
Monte Carlo experiments: <http://lstat.kuleuven.be/newjava/vestac>

Regression: Histograms on simple linear regression

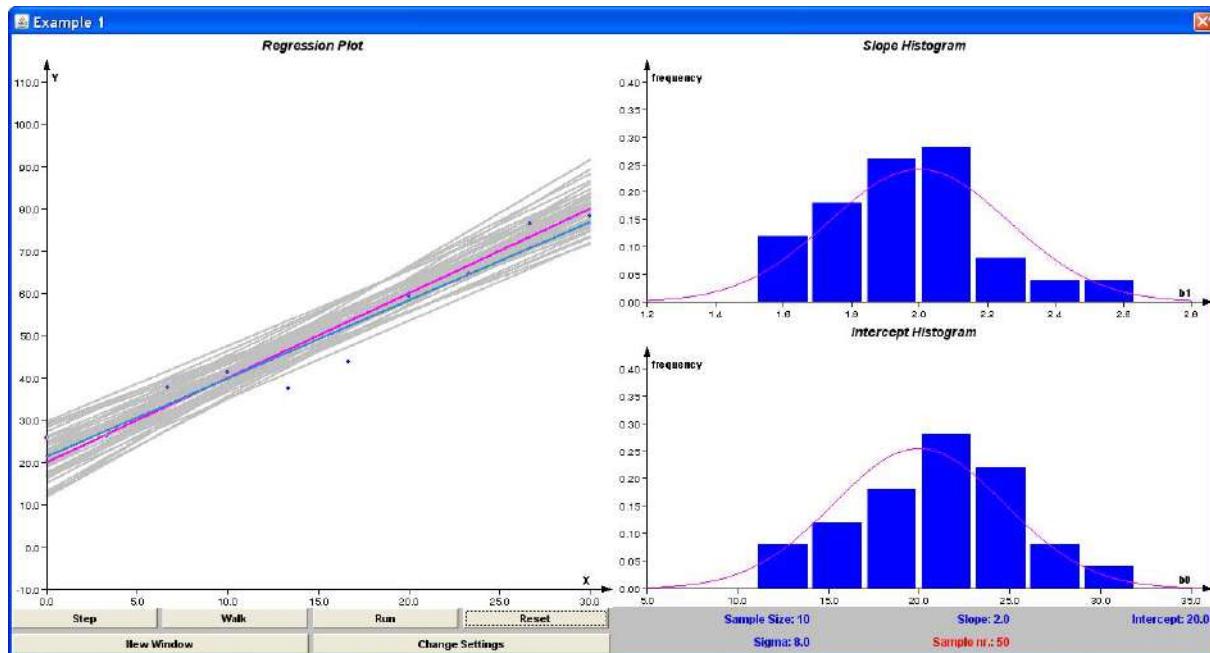
MAIN WINDOW:



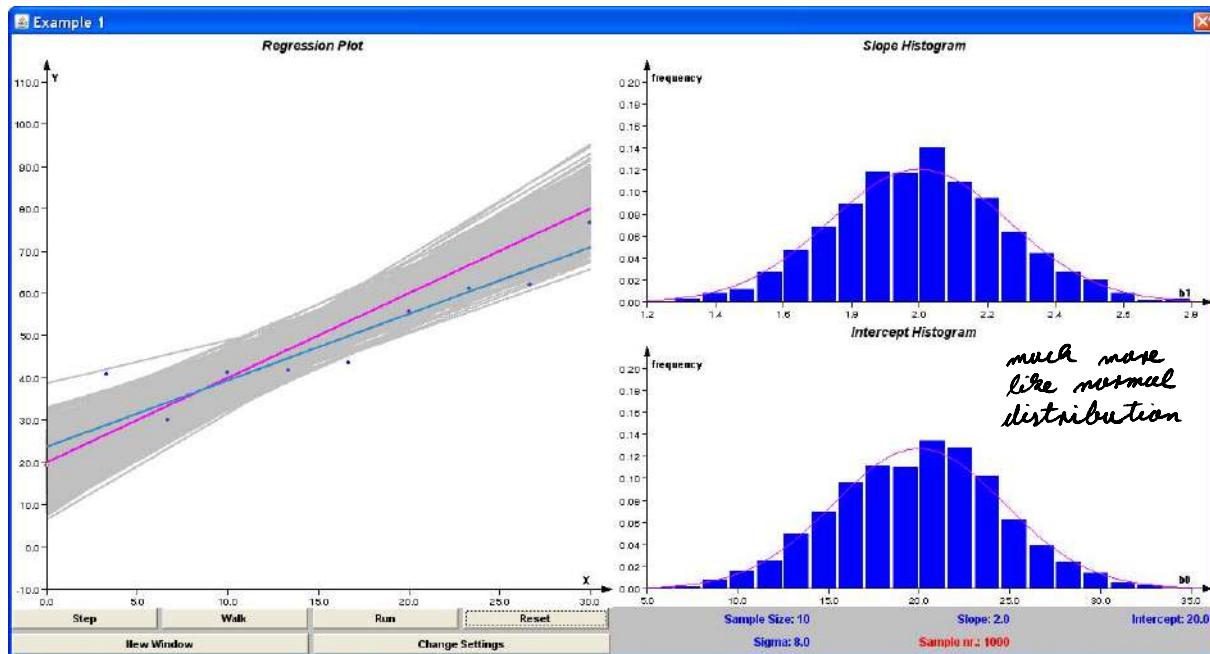
INITIAL SETTINGS:



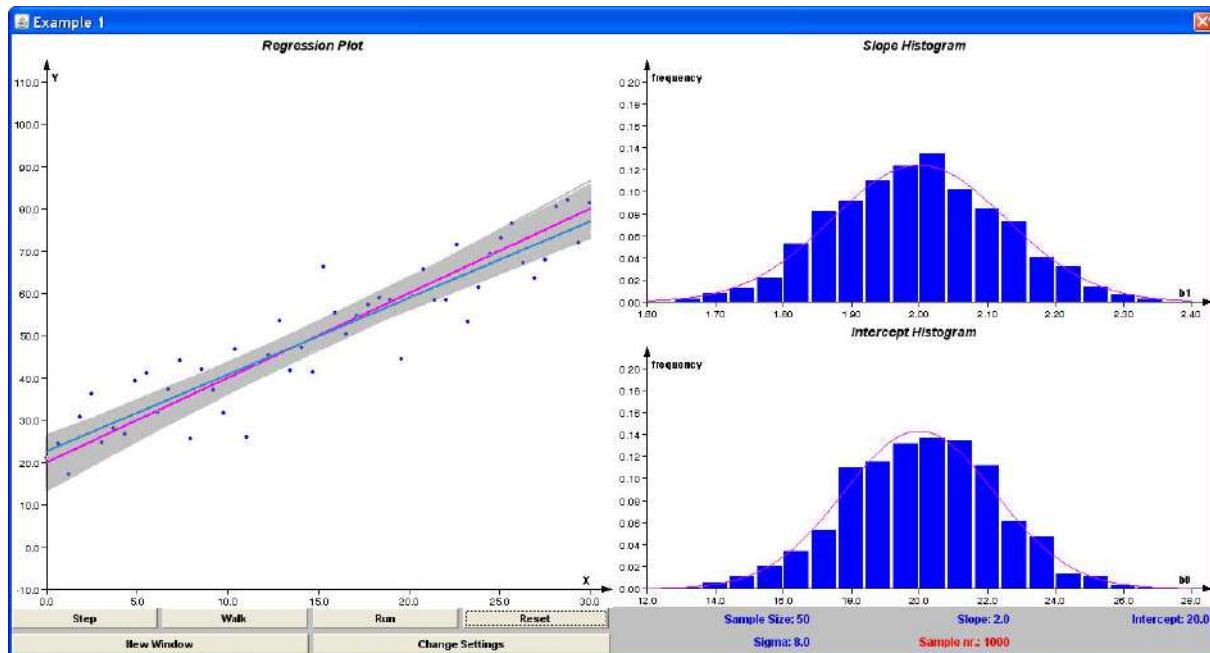
EXPERIMENT 1:



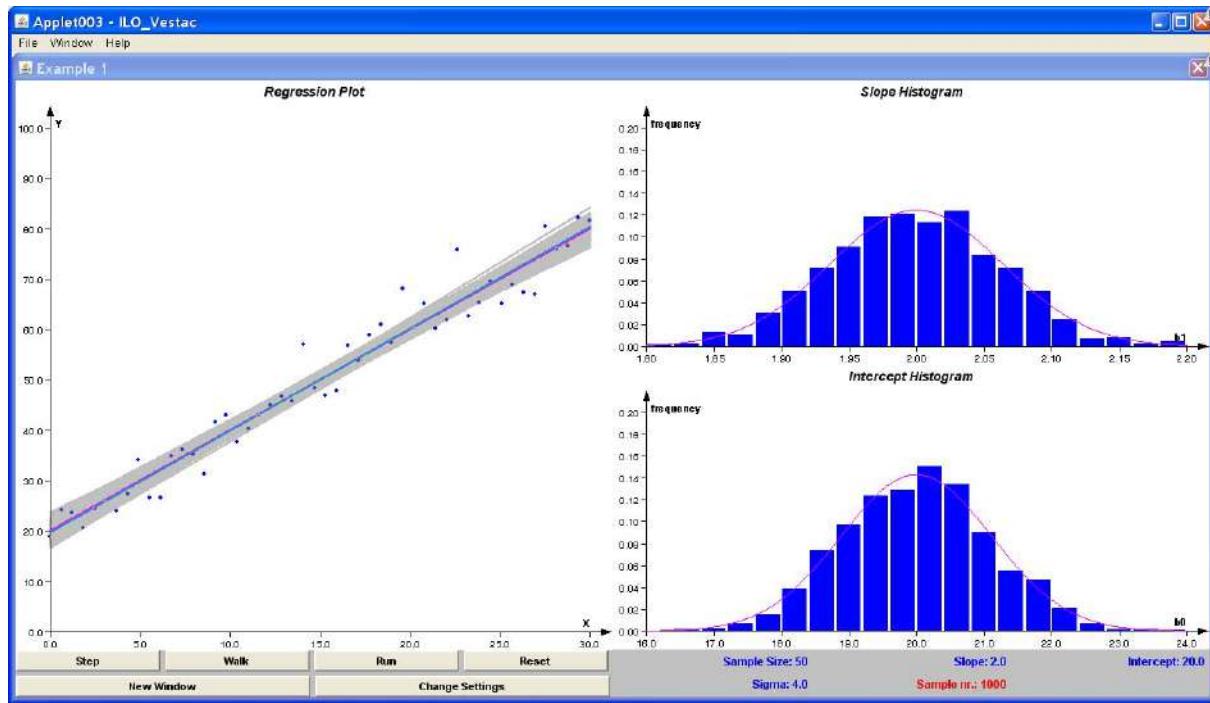
EXPERIMENT 2:



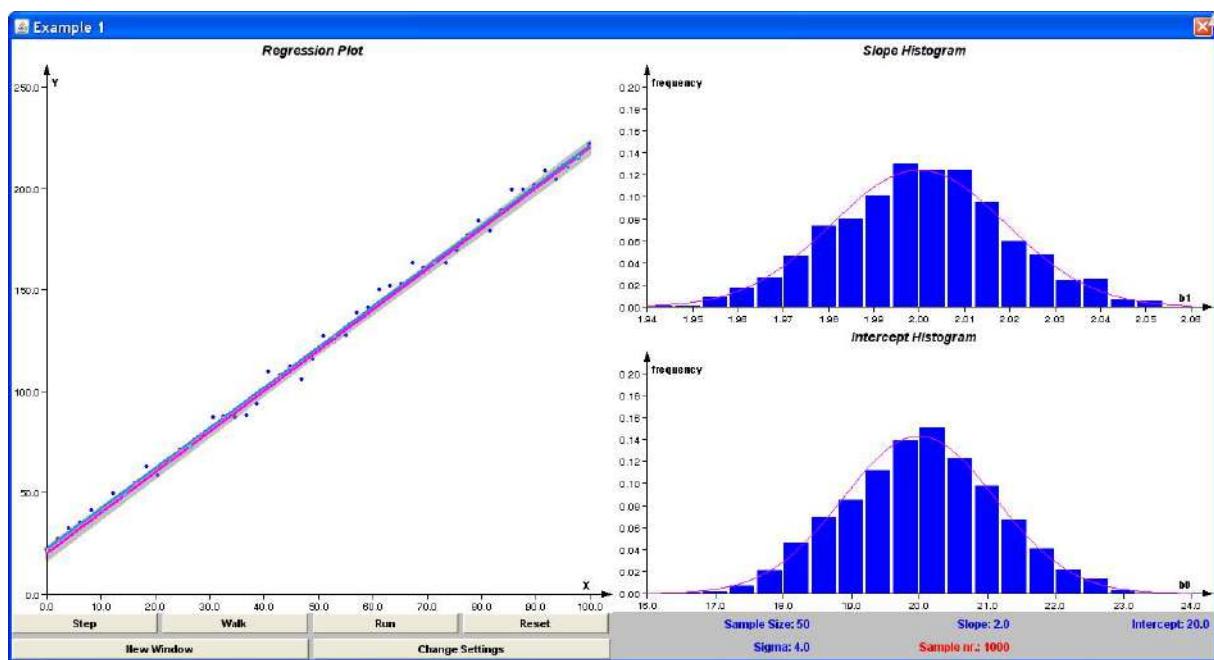
EXPERIMENT 3:



EXPERIMENT 4:



EXPERIMENT 5:



Monte Carlo experiments

PDF

Experiment 1

$$\text{PRM: } y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2i} + u_i$$

$$\text{SRM: } y_i = b_1 + b_2 x_{2i} + e_i$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \beta_1 = 20 \\ \beta_2 = 2 \\ n = 10 \end{array} \right\} E(y_i | x_{2i}) = 20 + 2x_{2i}; 0 \leq x_{2i} \leq 30$$

Monte Carlo replications

We prepare 50 samples, $R=50$:

$$y_i = 20 + 2x_{2i} + u_i; i = 1, \dots, 10$$

the drawing from
the distribution

where $u \sim N(0, 8^2)$, $\sigma_u = 8$ and thus
 $y \sim N(20 + 2x_{2i}, 8^2)$.

We estimate the PRM on $R=50$ samples
and analyze the distribution of estimates.

Experiment 2

$\uparrow R = 1000$, the rest as in E1.

increase

the number of samples \Rightarrow the distribution is much
more closer to the normal
distribution.

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Experiment 3

we eat a meal

$n=50$, the rest as in E2.

↳ we are going to increase efficiency

↳ gray set of lines is narrower \Rightarrow variability is lower

Experiment 4

lower standard deviation \Rightarrow you choose it in the simulation

$G_u = 4$, the rest as in E3.

↳ efficiency is increased \Rightarrow variability is even lower

Experiment 5

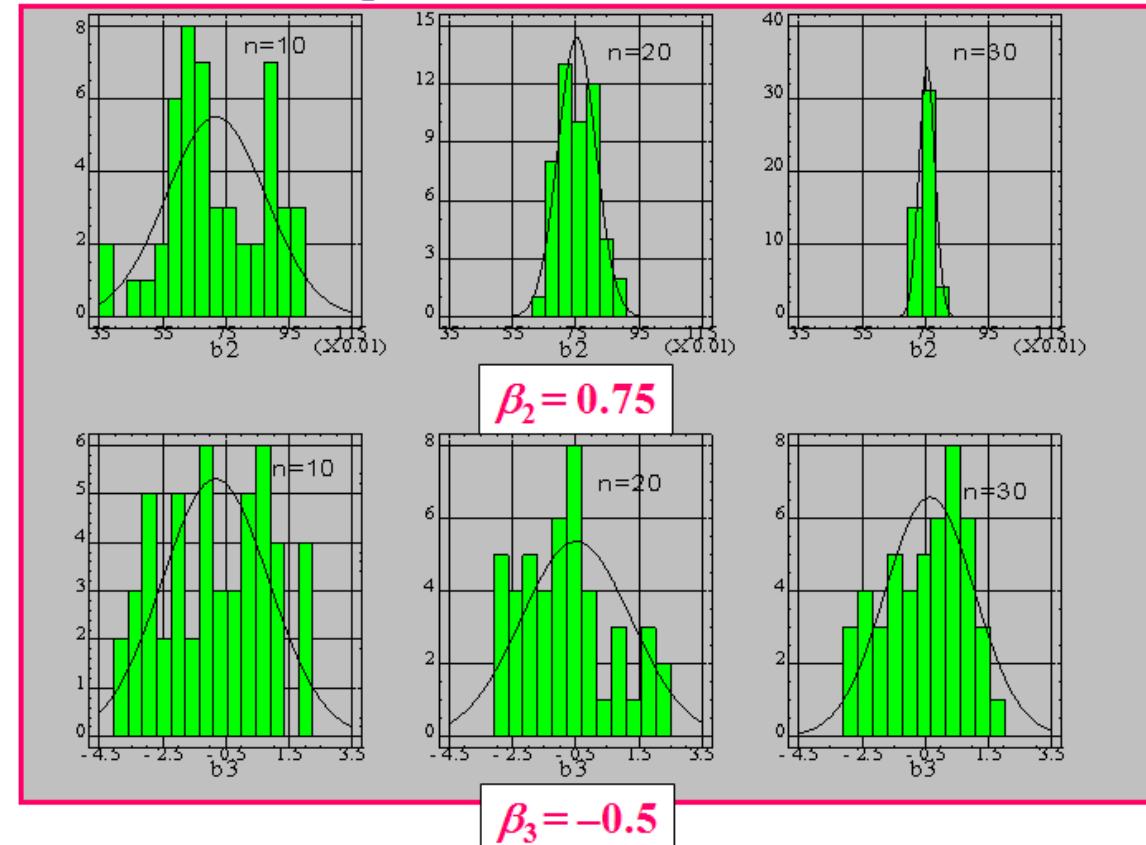
↳ doing this leads to lower variance of b_2

Var(x_2)↑, such that $0 \leq x_{2i} \leq 1000$,
the rest as in E4.

↳ efficiency is increased once again

Monte Carlo Experiments

**Distributions of regression coefficient estimates
(50 sample models; $n = 10, n = 20, n = 30$)**



Variance estimator of disturbances u

Variance estimator of disturbances u , σ_u^2 :

$$s_e^2 = \frac{\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e}}{n - k}$$

degrees of freedom

sample size - number of observations

of parameters

s_e^2 is an unbiased estimator of σ^2



Estimator of the var–cov matrix of b

Estimator of the var–cov matrix of regression coefficient estimates, $\text{Var} - \text{Cov}(b)$:

Variance covariance matrix of the regression coefficient estimates

$$\text{var} - \text{cov}(b) = s_e^2 (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

Estimator of the var–cov matrix of b:

$$\text{Var} - \text{Cov}(b) = s^2 \cdot (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \rightarrow \text{dejanske vrednosti}$$

$$\text{var} - \text{cov}(b) = s_e^2 \cdot (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

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ocene vrednosti

Distribution of regression coef. estimates

$$\mathbf{b} \sim N\left[\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}\right]$$

Testing a regression coefficient:

$H_0: \beta_j = \beta_{j0}$ null hypothesis

$H_1: \beta_j \neq \beta_{j0}$ alternative hypothesis

$n-k$: degrees of freedom

Slide 52-55 $b_j \sim N(\beta_j, Var(b_j))$

$$z = \frac{b_j - \beta_j}{\sqrt{Var(b_j)}} \sim N(0,1)$$

based on $Var(b_j)$
true value

of the sample \Rightarrow must be
replaced with an estimator

Distribution of regression coef. estimates

Calculation of the t -statistic based on sample data

$$t_j = \frac{b_j - \beta_j}{\sqrt{\text{var}(b_j)}} = \frac{b_j - \beta_j}{se(b_j)}$$



$$se(b_j) = \sqrt{\text{var}(b_j)} = \sqrt{s_e^2 \left[(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \right]_{jj}}$$

Distribution of regression coef. estimates

William Sealy Gosset (1876–1937)

*He discovered the
student t' distribution*



Distribution of regression coef. estimates

Student's t -distribution:

$$t_j = \frac{b_j - \beta_j}{se(b_j)} \sim t_{(n-k)}$$



2.5 Measures of Fit of a Regression Model



Standard Error of Regression

Standard error of regression

$$S_e = \sqrt{S_e^2} = \sqrt{\frac{\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e}}{n - k}}$$

Coefficient of variation

$$KV = \frac{S_e}{\bar{y}} \quad \text{or} \quad KV\% = \frac{S_e}{\bar{y}} 100$$

mean of
the dependant
variable



Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Decomposition of sum of squares (SS):

$$\text{total sum of squares} \quad , \text{residual sum of squares}$$

$$TSS = ESS + RSS$$

\ explained sum of squares

$$TSS = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - n\bar{y}^2 = \mathbf{y}'\mathbf{y} - n\bar{y}^2$$

$$ESS = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2 \quad , \text{fitted values}$$

$$ESS = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{y}_i^2 - n\bar{y}^2 = \hat{\mathbf{y}}'\hat{\mathbf{y}} - n\bar{y}^2$$

$$ESS = \mathbf{b}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} - n\bar{y}^2 = \mathbf{y}'\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} - n\bar{y}^2$$

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y}'\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}'\hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

\ value of the
dependent variable



Determination Coefficient

Determination coefficient of multiple regression
Multiple determination coefficient

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

$$R^2 = \frac{\hat{\mathbf{y}}'\hat{\mathbf{y}} - n\bar{y}^2}{\mathbf{y}'\mathbf{y} - n\bar{y}^2} = \frac{\mathbf{b}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} - n\bar{y}^2}{\mathbf{y}'\mathbf{y} - n\bar{y}^2}$$

- if you have the intercept

$$R_*^2 = \frac{\hat{\mathbf{y}}'\hat{\mathbf{y}}}{\mathbf{y}'\mathbf{y}} = \frac{\mathbf{b}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}}{\mathbf{y}'\mathbf{y}}$$

- if you do not have the intercept

Multiple determination coefficient:

$0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$



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$$R^2 = (r_{y\hat{y}})^2 = r_{y\hat{y}}^2$$

Determination Coefficient

Adjusted determination coefficient (H. Theil, 1971)

$$\text{TSS} = \text{ESS} + \text{RSS}$$

$$\text{TSS} = (\text{TSS} - \text{RSS}) + \text{RSS}$$

*adjusted
determination
coefficient*

Degrees of freedom:

$$(n - 1) = ((n - 1) - (n - k)) + (n - k)$$

$$(n - 1) = (k - 1) + (n - k)$$

number of parameters in the system that can change freely
 ↳ it is not limited to statistics

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{\text{RSS}}{\frac{\text{TSS}}{(n-1)}} = 1 - \frac{\text{RSS}}{\text{TSS}} \frac{(n-1)}{(n-k)}$$

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2) \frac{(n-1)}{(n-k)}$$

Example: of negative *slide 60*

$$R^2 = 0.25$$

$$n = 12$$

$$k = 5$$

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{R}^2 &= R_{\text{adj}}^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2) \cdot \frac{n-1}{n-k} = \\ &= 1 - 0.75 \cdot 1.571 = \underline{\underline{-0.179}}\end{aligned}$$

Determination Coefficient

Weaknesses of determination coefficient and adjusted determination coefficient:

- A high value of determination coefficient does not yet mean that the right explanatory variables are included in the model;
- Values of determination coefficient are not comparable among models with differently defined dependant variable;
- Values of determination coefficient are in general higher for time series models than for cross-section based models;
- A low value of determination coefficient does not mean that the model does not include relevant explanatory variables.
 - ↳ it just means that it does not have all of the explanatory variables



Testing the Model as a Whole

Testing for the statistical significance of a regression model as a whole:

R. A. Fisher established in 1922 that the **ratio between explained and residual variance**, taking into account the respective **degrees of freedom**, is distributed according to a specific distribution, named after him the **F-distribution**.

Testing stat. sign. of the model as a whole:

for every

$$H_0: \beta_j = 0, \quad \forall j = 2, \dots, k$$

for at least one

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this tells you if the model
actually explains anything

Testing the Model as a Whole

Ronald Aylmer Fisher (1890–1962)



Testing the Model as a Whole

F-test

explained sum
of squares

residual sum
of squares

$$F = \frac{\frac{ESS}{k-1}}{\frac{RSS}{n-k}} \sim F_{(k-1, n-k)}$$

$$F = \frac{\frac{ESS}{TSS(k-1)}}{\frac{RSS}{TSS(n-k)}} = \frac{R^2 / (k-1)}{(1-R^2) / (n-k)} \sim F_{(k-1, n-k)}$$

Testing the Model as a Whole

$$F = \frac{R^2 / (k - 1)}{(1 - R^2) / (n - k)}$$

$$F > F_c$$

$$R^2 > R^2_c$$

$$R^2_c = \frac{F_c(k - 1)}{F_c(k - 1) + (n - k)}$$



Likelihood Function and Info. Criteria

these models are only used for interpretation



Log-likelihood value of the model:

$$\ln L = -\frac{n}{2} \left[\ln(2\pi) + \ln\left(\frac{\text{RSS}}{n}\right) + 1 \right]$$

↳ a larger value means better fit

Akaike information criterion (AIC):

$$\downarrow AIC = -2 \ln L + 2 k$$

lower value means better fit

Schwarz criterion (SC or BIC):

Bayesian IC

$$\downarrow SC = -2 \ln L + k \ln(n)$$

lower value means better fit

2.6 Interpretation of Regression Coefficients



Representation of Estimation Results

Representation of results of an estimated regression model

$$y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \cdots + \beta_k x_k + u$$

first you need
to write population
regression model

$$\hat{y} = b_1 + b_2 x_2 + \cdots + b_k x_k$$

$$(se(b_1)) (se(b_2))$$

$$(t_1) (t_2)$$

$$(p_1) (p_2)$$

$$(se(b_k))$$

$$\cdots (t_k)$$

$$(p_k)$$

then you need to
write a sample
regression model

either
 $se(b_k), t_k$
you can
choose one
of these values
to write it under
SRM

$$n = \dots R^2 = \dots \bar{R}^2 = \dots$$

$$s_e = \dots (F; DW; h)$$

Model estimation

Example: Production functions PDF
a, b

Theory: $Q = f(L, K)$

product labour capital

Data:

- Q - value added in 1.000 m.u.
- L - average number of employees
- K - sum of tangible and intangible assets
in 1.000 m.u.

you
would

define it as number of working hours

Model 1: Linear production function

$$Q_i = \underbrace{\beta_1 + \beta_2 L_i + \beta_3 K_i}_{E(Q_i | L_i, K_i)} + u_i \quad (\text{PRM})$$

traditional mathematical expectation

$$Q_i = \underbrace{b_1 + b_2 L_i + b_3 K_i}_{\hat{Q}_i} + e_i \quad (\text{SRM})$$

Model 2: Cobb-Douglas production function

$$Q_i = \beta_1 \cdot L_i^{\beta_2} \cdot K_i^{\beta_3} \cdot u_i / \ln \quad (\text{PRM})$$

↓ linearization \Rightarrow with logarithms \hookrightarrow non linear model \Rightarrow take linearisierung der nichtlinearen Funktion

$$\ln Q_i = \ln [\beta_1 \cdot L_i^{\beta_2} \cdot K_i^{\beta_3} \cdot u_i]$$

$$\ln Q_i = \ln \beta_1 + \ln L_i^{\beta_2} + \ln K_i^{\beta_3} + \ln u_i$$

$$\ln Q_i = \underbrace{\ln \beta_1}_{LQ_i} + \underbrace{\beta_2 \ln L_i}_{LL_i} + \underbrace{\beta_3 \ln K_i}_{LK_i} + \underbrace{\ln u_i}_{u_i}$$

$$LQ_i = b_1 + b_2 LL_i + b_3 LK_i + e_i \quad (\text{SRM})$$

$\widehat{LQ_i}$

Linearized Cobb-Douglas production function,
Regression coefficients now represent elasticities.

Stata:

- data exploration;
- logarithmic transformation;
- scatter plots.

PDF, pp. 1-3.

Example: We analyse production functions for 81 manufacturing companies in the computer manufacturing industry for a given year (the data are provided in Stata Data file `production.dta`, while the programming code is given in Stata Do file `production-commands-105.do`). We have cross-section data available for the following variables:

- ◆ value added as a proxy for the product (Q ; in 1,000 monetary units);
 - ◆ average number of employed workers as a proxy for labour (L);
 - ◆ sum of tangible and intangible assets as a proxy for capital (K ; in 1,000 monetary units).
- Explore the data using different Stata commands. By using the scatter plots, examine the relationships of the linear and the Cobb-Douglas production function.
 - Estimate the linear and the Cobb-Douglas production function by the least squares estimator. Interpret the results of both models. Also, calculate the regression coefficients from the computer printouts manually.
 - Study direct, indirect and total effects of explanatory variables on the dependent variable for both production functions. What do the regression coefficients b_j represent?
 - Study the validity of the Frisch-Waugh-Lovell theorem on the case of explanatory variable labour in the model of linear production function.

Computer printout of the results in Stata:

a) Data exploration

```
. describe
```

```
Contains data from production.dta
obs: 81
vars: 4
size: 810
-----
      storage  display   value
variable name  type    format   label       variable label
-----
n          byte   %8.0g
q          long   %8.0g
l          byte   %8.0g
k          long   %8.0g
-----
Sorted by:
```

```
. inspect q l k
```

q: Value added in 1000 monetary units		Number of Observations		
		Total	Integers	Nonintegers
#	Negative	-	-	-
#	Zero	-	-	-
#	Positive	81	81	-
#		-----	-----	-----
#	Total	81	81	-
#	Missing	-		
1514	2312943	81		
(81 unique values)				

```

l: Average number of employed workers      Number of Observations
-----+-----+
| #             Negative      Total    Integers   Nonintegers
| #             Zero          -        -           -
| #             Positive     81       81          -
| #
| #             Total         81       81          -
| #             Missing       -        -           -
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
1               58            81
(22 unique values)

k: Tangible and intangible assets in 1,000      Number of Observations
-----+-----+
| #             Negative      Total    Integers   Nonintegers
| #             Zero          -        -           -
| #             Positive     81       81          -
| #
| #             Total         81       81          -
| #             Missing       -        -           -
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
38            344297        81
(81 unique values)

. sum

      Variable |      Obs      Mean   Std. Dev.      Min      Max
-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
          n |      81       41    23.52658       1      81
          q |      81    180519.3   388072.4    1514  2312943
          l |      81    10.39506   14.81442       1      58
          k |      81   40226.93   71409.35      38   344297

. list q l k

      +-----+
      |      q      l      k |
      +-----+
  1. |  1514     1     43 |
  2. |  2106     1    266 |
  3. |  2758     1    639 |
  4. |  4117     1     38 |
  5. |  4243     1    656 |
  6. |  4553     1   1597 |
  7. |  4649     1    287 |
  8. |  4963     1    560 |
  9. |  5749     1    962 |
 10. |  5807     2   2499 |
  11. |  6267     1    418 |
 12. |  6353     2    855 |

...
 74. |  544607    48   344297 |
 75. |  580309    30    70084 |
  ...
 76. |  798583    40   187301 |
 77. |  864224    25   124547 |
 78. |  965788    51   161713 |
 79. |  1.5e+06   51   117635 |
 80. |  1.7e+06   53   175943 |
  ...
 81. |  2.3e+06   31   313144 |
  +-----+

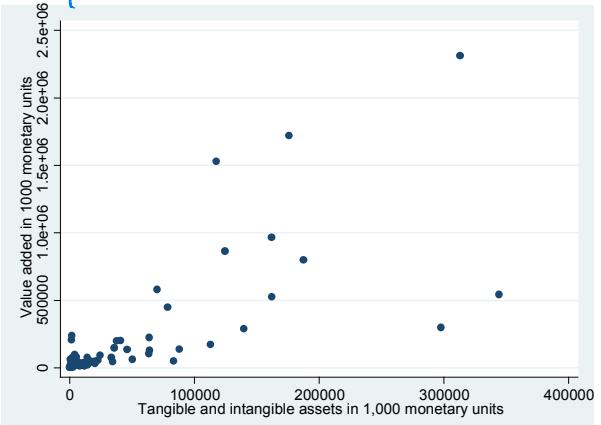
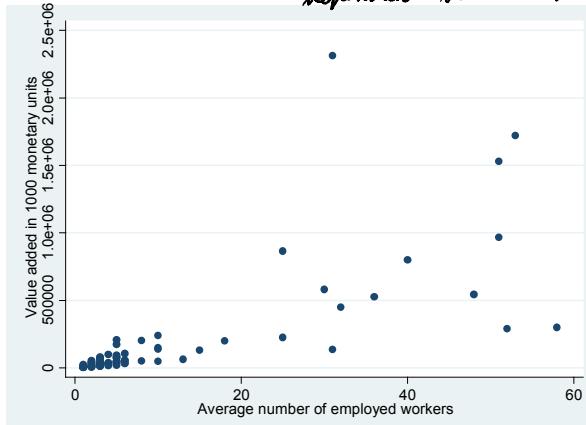
```

. sort q it is the natural logarithm (ln)

. gen lq=log(q)
. gen ll=log(l)
. gen lk=log(k)

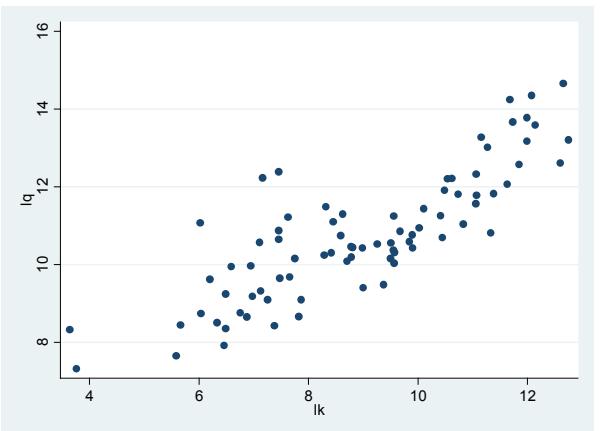
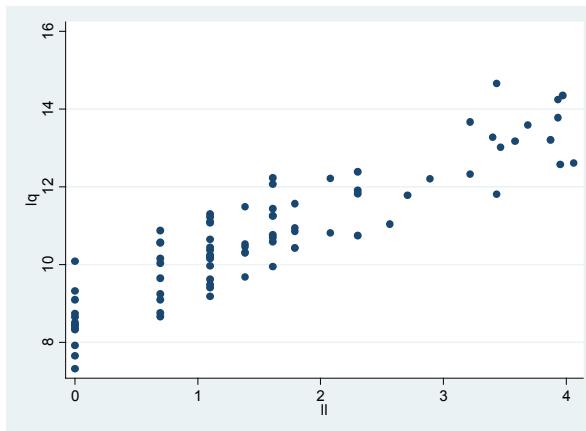
. twoway scatter q l before running the model one
should look at relationship between explanatory variables and dependant variable.

. twoway scatter q k



. twoway scatter lq ll - log of labour

. twoway scatter lq lk - log of capital



b) Estimation of production functions

. regress q l k

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	= 81
Model	6.9350e+12	2	3.4675e+12	F(2, 78)	= 52.90
Residual	5.1130e+12	78	6.5551e+10	Prob > F	= 0.0000
Total	1.2048e+13	80	1.5060e+11	R-squared	= 0.5756

q	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
l	9687.383	3640.852	2.66	0.009	2439.003 16935.76
k	2.27941	.7553228	3.02	0.003	.775678 3.783142
_cons	-11875.29	34865.13	-0.34	0.734	-81286.43 57535.85

. gen cons=1

```

. mkmat cons l k, matrix(xlin)
. matrix list xlin

xlin[81,3]
      cons      l      k
r1      1      1      43
r2      1      1     266
...
r81      1      31    313144

. matrix xxlin=(xlin)'*xlin
. matrix list xxlin

symmetric xxlin[3,3]
      cons      l      k
cons      81
l      842      26310
k      3258381  1.056e+08  5.390e+11

. mkmat q, matrix(ylin)
. matrix list ylin

ylin[81,1]
      q
r1      1514
r2      2106
...
r81    2312943

. matrix xylin=(xlin)'*ylin
. matrix list xylin

xylin[3,1]
      q
cons   14622065
l      4.856e+08
k      2.213e+12

. matrix xxlininv=invsym(xxlin)
. matrix list xxlininv

symmetric xxlininv[3,3]
      cons      l      k
cons   .01854393
l     -.00067176  .00020222
k     1.951e-08  -3.556e-08  8.703e-12

. matrix blin=xxlininv*xylin
. matrix list blin

blin[3,1]
      q
cons  -11875.29
l     9687.3835
k     2.2794101

```

- stata does not show you values above the diagonal because they are the same as below the line

Calculation by using matrix algebra:

$$b = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$

PDF, p.4.

→ model specification

```

. regress lq ll lk

      Source |       SS          df         MS
-----+-----
      Model |  178.261263        2   89.1306313
      Residual |  36.44752        78   .467275898
-----+-----
      Total | 214.708783       80   2.68385978

      Number of obs =      81
      F(  2,    78) = 190.75
      Prob > F     = 0.0000
      R-squared     = 0.8302
      Adj R-squared = 0.8259
      Root MSE      = .68358

-----+
      lq |     Coef.    Std. Err.      t    P>|t|    [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+
      ll |  .9645479   .1199229     8.04   0.000   .7257997   1.203296
      lk |  .1885438   .0673358     2.80   0.006   .0544886   .322599
      _cons |  7.546026   .4617465    16.34   0.000   6.62676   8.465293
-----+

```

```

. mkmat cons ll lk, matrix(xlog)
. matrix list xlog

xlog[81,3]
      cons          ll          lk
r1      1            0  3.7612002
r2      1            0  5.5834961
...
r81      1  3.4339871  12.654418

. matrix xxlog=(xlog)'*xlog
. matrix list xxlog

symmetric xxlog[3,3]
      cons          ll          lk
cons      81
      ll  127.86665  314.02997
      lk  725.93231  1314.3448  6861.7146

. mkmat lq, matrix(ylog)
. matrix list ylog

ylog[81,1]
      lq
r1  7.3225102
r2  7.6525459
...
r81  14.654032

. matrix xylog=(xlog)'*ylog
. matrix list xylog

xylog[3,1]
      lq
cons  871.43169
      ll  1515.5936
      lk  8039.3867

. matrix xxloginv=invsym(xxlog)
. matrix list xxloginv

symmetric xxloginv[3,3]
      cons          ll          lk
cons      .45628254
      ll  .08194953  .03077734
      lk  -.06396946  -.01456514  .00970328

```

Example, c)

PDF, pp. 6-7.

```
. matrix blog=xxloginv*xylog
. matrix list blog
```

```
blog[3,1]
    1q
cons 7.5460264
    11 .96454793
    1k .18854381
```

slide 78

c) Direct, indirect and total effects

```
. regress l k
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	81
Model	12612.2633	1	12612.2633	F(1, 79)	=	201.49
Residual	4945.09471	79	62.5961355	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	17557.358	80	219.466975	R-squared	=	0.7183
				Adj R-squared	=	0.7148
				Root MSE	=	7.9118

l	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
k	.0001758	.0000124	14.19	0.000	.0001512 .0002005
_cons	3.321905	1.010492	3.29	0.002	1.310571 5.333239

```
. predict res1, res
```

```
e
. regress q res1 k
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	81
Model	6.9350e+12	2	3.4675e+12	F(2, 78)	=	52.90
Residual	5.1130e+12	78	6.5551e+10	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	1.2048e+13	80	1.5060e+11	R-squared	=	0.5756
				Adj R-squared	=	0.5647
				Root MSE	=	2.6e+05

q	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
res1	9687.383	3640.852	2.66	0.009	2439.003 16935.76
k	3.982756	.4008578	9.94	0.000	3.18471 4.780803
_cons	20305.28	32700.13	0.62	0.536	-44795.69 85406.25

```
. regress q l k
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	81
Model	6.9350e+12	2	3.4675e+12	F(2, 78)	=	52.90
Residual	5.1130e+12	78	6.5551e+10	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	1.2048e+13	80	1.5060e+11	R-squared	=	0.5756
				Adj R-squared	=	0.5647
				Root MSE	=	2.6e+05

q	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
l	9687.383	3640.852	2.66	0.009	2439.003 16935.76
k	2.27941	.7553228	3.02	0.003	.775678 3.783142
_cons	-11875.29	34865.13	-0.34	0.734	-81286.43 57535.85

```
. regress k 1
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	81
Model	2.9304e+11	1	2.9304e+11	F(1, 79)	=	201.49
Residual	1.1490e+11	79	1.4544e+09	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	4.0794e+11	80	5.0993e+09	R-squared	=	0.7183
				Adj R-squared	=	0.7148
				Root MSE	=	38137

k	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
1	4085.427	287.8158	14.19	0.000	3512.544 4658.31
_cons	-2241.338	5187.195	-0.43	0.667	-12566.19 8083.516

```
. predict resk, res
```

```
. regress q 1 resk
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	81
Model	6.9350e+12	2	3.4675e+12	F(2, 78)	=	52.90
Residual	5.1130e+12	78	6.5551e+10	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	1.2048e+13	80	1.5060e+11	R-squared	=	0.5756
				Adj R-squared	=	0.5647
				Root MSE	=	2.6e+05

q	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
1	18999.75	1932.239	9.83	0.000	15152.95 22846.54
resk	2.27941	.7553228	3.02	0.003	.7756781 3.783142
_cons	-16984.22	34824	-0.49	0.627	-86313.49 52345.05

```
. regress q 1 k
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	81
Model	6.9350e+12	2	3.4675e+12	F(2, 78)	=	52.90
Residual	5.1130e+12	78	6.5551e+10	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	1.2048e+13	80	1.5060e+11	R-squared	=	0.5756
				Adj R-squared	=	0.5647
				Root MSE	=	2.6e+05

q	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
1	9687.383	3640.852	2.66	0.009	2439.003 16935.76
k	2.27941	.7553228	3.02	0.003	.775678 3.783142
_cons	-11875.29	34865.13	-0.34	0.734	-81286.43 57535.85

slide 79

d) Frisch-Waugh-Lovell theorem

```
. regress q 1 k
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	81
Model	6.9350e+12	2	3.4675e+12	F(2, 78)	=	52.90
Residual	5.1130e+12	78	6.5551e+10	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	1.2048e+13	80	1.5060e+11	R-squared	=	0.5756
				Adj R-squared	=	0.5647
				Root MSE	=	2.6e+05

Example, d)

PDF, pp. 7-8.

$$Q_i = b_1 + b_2 L_i + b_3 K_i + e_{1i}$$

$$Q_i = c_1 + c_2 L_i + e_{2i}$$

without the effect
of labour

$$FWL \text{ regression: } e_{Q_i} = g_1 + g_2 e_{K_i} + e_{3i}$$

FWL theorem:

- ① $b_3 = g_2$
- ② $e_{1i} = e_{3i}, V_i$

```

-----+
      q |      Coef.    Std. Err.          t    P>|t|    [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+
      l |  9687.383   3640.852       2.66    0.009    2439.003   16935.76
      k |  2.27941   .7553228       3.02    0.003    .775678   3.783142
_cons | -11875.29  34865.13      -0.34    0.734   -81286.43   57535.85
-----+



. predict resid1, res

. regress q l

      Source |       SS        df        MS
-----+-----+
      Model |  6.3380e+12       1  6.3380e+12
      Residual |  5.7100e+12     79  7.2278e+10
-----+-----+
      Total |  1.2048e+13     80  1.5060e+11

      Number of obs =      81
      F(  1,    79) =    87.69
      Prob > F      =  0.0000
      R-squared      =  0.5261
      Adj R-squared =  0.5201
      Root MSE       =  2.7e+05

-----+
      q |      Coef.    Std. Err.          t    P>|t|    [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+
      l |  18999.75   2028.962       9.36    0.000    14961.2   23038.3
_cons | -16984.22  36567.22      -0.46    0.644   -89769.45   55801.01
-----+



. predict resqfw, res

. regress k l

      Source |       SS        df        MS
-----+-----+
      Model |  2.9304e+11       1  2.9304e+11
      Residual |  1.1490e+11     79  1.4544e+09
-----+-----+
      Total |  4.0794e+11     80  5.0993e+09

      Number of obs =      81
      F(  1,    79) =  201.49
      Prob > F      =  0.0000
      R-squared      =  0.7183
      Adj R-squared =  0.7148
      Root MSE       =  38137

-----+
      k |      Coef.    Std. Err.          t    P>|t|    [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+
      l |  4085.427   287.8158      14.19    0.000    3512.544   4658.31
_cons | -2241.338  5187.195      -0.43    0.667   -12566.19   8083.516
-----+



. predict reskfw, res

. regress resqfw reskfw

      Source |       SS        df        MS
-----+-----+
      Model |  5.9698e+11       1  5.9698e+11
      Residual |  5.1130e+12     79  6.4721e+10
-----+-----+
      Total |  5.7100e+12     80  7.1375e+10

      Number of obs =      81
      F(  1,    79) =    9.22
      Prob > F      =  0.0032
      R-squared      =  0.1046
      Adj R-squared =  0.0932
      Root MSE       =  2.5e+05

-----+
      resqfw |      Coef.    Std. Err.          t    P>|t|    [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+
      reskfw |  2.27941   .750527       3.04    0.003    .7855237   3.773297
      _cons |  .0005777  28267.12      0.00    1.000   -56264.3    56264.3
-----+



. predict resid2, res

```

```
. list resid1 resid2
```

	resid1	resid2
1.	3603.892	3603.892
2.	3687.584	3687.583
3.	3489.364	3489.364
4.	6218.29	6218.289
5.	4935.614	4935.614
6.	3100.689	3100.688
7.	6182.716	6182.716
8.	5874.438	5874.437
9.	5744.114	5744.114
10.	-7388.722	-7388.722
11.	7502.114	7502.113
12.	-3095.372	-3095.372
13.	-4511.34	-4511.34
14.	7905.542	7905.541
15.	-9865.388	-9865.387
16.	1406.51	1406.51
17.	10504.76	10504.76
18.	-23468.89	-23468.89
19.	-30861.5	-30861.5
20.	-3090.771	-3090.77
21.	4126.923	4126.924
22.	-15702.03	-15702.03
...		
73.	-180972.1	-180972.1
74.	-693306.2	-693306.2
75.	141812.6	141812.6
76.	-3972.844	-3972.85
77.	350021	350021
78.	114996.5	114996.5
79.	778072.3	778072.3
80.	816731.7	816731.7
81.	1310726	1310726
Mean	-.0010632	-.0011936

Model 1

Estimation by regress and interpretation

1) Model statistics: PDF, pp. 3-4.

n

F

$p(F)$

} Statistical sign. of
the model as a whole

R^2

\bar{R}^2

$s_e \rightarrow$ ROOT MSE in Stata

2) ANOVA table:

$\rightarrow SS$ in Stata

ESS

df: $k-1$

EMS

mean squares:
 SS/df

RSS

df: $n-k$

RMS = s_e^2

TSS

df: $n-1$

TMS

3) Parameter estimates:

b_j , $s_e(b_j)$, t_j , p_j , 95% conf. interval

$$H_0: \beta_j = 0$$

$$H_1: \beta_j \neq 0$$

"e+05" means ".10⁵", "e-05" means ".10⁻⁵".

$$\bullet b_2 = 9687.4$$

$p(b_2) = 0.009 < \alpha = 0.05$, we reject $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ and conclude that $\beta_2 \neq 0$.

The value is non-random (stat. significant).

Interpretation:

Regression coefficient

!! If x_j increases by 1 unit of measurement, then on average, ceteris paribus, y increases/decreases by b_j units of measurement.

If the average number of employees increases by 1 employee, then on average, ceteris paribus, value added increases (+)
 by 9.7 mill. m.u.
 (it's in 1000 m.u.)

$$\bullet b_3 = 2.279$$

$$p(b_3) = 0.003 < \alpha = 0.05$$

If the sum of tangible and intangible assets increases by 1000 m.u., then on average, ceteris paribus, value added increases by (+)
 2279 m.u.

Computer Printout of the Results

Computer printout of econometric estimation of a linear production function (Stata)

$\ell + 12 \Rightarrow \cdot 10^{12}$

analysis of variance							model dugeportes
Source	ESS	SS	df	degrees of freedom	MS	mean squares	
Model	6.9350e+12	: 2 = 3.4675e+12					Number of obs = 81
Residual	5.1130e+12	: 78 = 6.5551e+10					F(2, 78) = 52.90
	RSS						Prob > F = 0.0000
Total	1.2048e+13		80	1.5060e+11			R-squared = 0.5756
	L>TSS			Degrees of freedom			Adj R-squared = 0.5647
							Root MSE = 2.6e+05
							$\sqrt{6.5551 \cdot 10^{10}} \rightarrow 12\text{PIT}$
q	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]		
1	9687.383	3640.852	2.66	0.009	2439.003	16935.76	
k	2.27941	.7553228	3.02	0.003	.775678	3.783142	
_cons	-11875.29	34865.13	-0.34	0.734	-81286.43	57535.85	

regression coefficient estimates

b_j , $se(b_j)$, t_j , p_j , 95% conf. interval

$$H_0: \beta_j = 0$$

$$H_1: \beta_j \neq 0$$

$$\bullet b_2 = 9687.4$$

$p(b_2) = 0.009 < \alpha = 0.05$, we reject $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ and conclude that $\beta_2 \neq 0$.

The value is non-random / stat. significant.

Interpretation:

Regression coefficient

If x_j increases by 1 unit of measurement, then on average, ceteris paribus, y increases/decreases by b_j units of measurement.

12P1T

If the average number of employees increases by 1 employee, then on average, ceteris paribus, value added increases by 9.4 mill. m.u. (+)
(it's in 1000 m.u.)

Computer Printout of the Results

Computer printout of econometric estimation of a linear production function (R)

```
> mod_lin = lm(q ~ l + k, data = production)
> summary(mod_lin)

call:
lm(formula = q ~ l + k, data = production)

Residuals:
value added in 1000 monetary units
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q     Max 
-928125 -30862   -3095    7945 1310726 

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)    
(Intercept) -1.188e+04  3.487e+04  -0.341  0.73432  
l             9.687e+03  3.641e+03   2.661  0.00946 ** 
k             2.279e+00  7.553e-01   3.018  0.00344 ** 
---
Signif. codes:  0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1
```

Residual standard error: 256000 on 78 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.5756, Adjusted R-squared: 0.5647
F-statistic: 52.9 on 2 and 78 DF, p-value: 3.038e-15



Computer Printout of the Results

```
> summary.aov(mod_lin)
      Df   Sum Sq  Mean Sq F value    Pr(>F)
l           1 6.338e+12 6.338e+12  96.688 2.64e-15 ***
k           1 5.970e+11 5.970e+11   9.107  0.00344 **
Residuals 78 5.113e+12 6.555e+10
---
Signif. codes:  0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1

> sum(anova(mod_lin)[-3,2])
[1] 6.935018e+12

> sum(anova(mod_lin)[,2])
[1] 1.204801e+13

> nobs(mod_lin)
[1] 81

> confint(mod_lin, level=0.95)
              2.5 %    97.5 %
(Intercept) -81286.433705 57535.852836
l            2439.003091 16935.763850
k            0.775678   3.783142
```



Computer Printout of the Results

Computer printout of econometric estimation of a linearized Cobb-Douglas production function (Stata)

. regress lq ll lk

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	81
Model	178.261263	2	89.1306313	F(2, 78)	=	190.75
Residual	36.44752	78	.467275898	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	214.708783	80	2.68385978	R-squared	=	0.8302
				Adj R-squared	=	0.8259
				Root MSE	=	.68358

lq	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
ll	.9645479	.1199229	8.04	0.000	.7257997 1.203296
lk	.1885438	.0673358	2.80	0.006	.0544886 .322599
_cons	7.546026	.4617465	16.34	0.000	6.62676 8.465293

In this case the interpretation of the regression coefficient needs to be interpreted as elasticity

Model 2

PDF, pp.5-6.

Estimation by regress and interpretation

- $b_2 = 0.96$

$$p(b_2) = 0.000 < \alpha = 0.05$$

Interpretation:

Elasticity

If x_j increases by 1 percent, then on average, ceteris paribus, y increases/decreases by b_j percent.

If the average number of employees increases by 1 percent, then on average, ceteris paribus, value added increases by 0.96 percent. (+)

- $b_3 = 0.19$

$$p(b_3) = 0.006 < \alpha = 0.05$$

If the sum of tangible and intangible assets increases by 1 percent, then on average, ceteris paribus, value added increases by 0.19 percent. (+)

Computer Printout of the Results

Computer printout of econometric estimation of a linearized Cobb-Douglas production function (R)

```
> mod_log = lm(lq ~ l1 + lk, data = production)
> summary(mod_log)

call:
lm(formula = lq ~ l1 + lk, data = production)

Residuals:
value added in 1000 monetary units
    Min      1Q   Median      3Q     Max 
-1.22501 -0.46545 -0.08825  0.42991  1.78679 

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)    
(Intercept) 7.54603   0.46175 16.342 < 2e-16 ***
l1          0.96455   0.11992  8.043 7.77e-12 ***
lk          0.18854   0.06734  2.800  0.00644 **  
---
Signif. codes:  0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1
```

Residual standard error: 0.6836 on 78 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.8302, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8259
F-statistic: 190.7 on 2 and 78 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16



Computer Printout of the Results

```
> summary.aov(mod_log)
   Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
11      1 174.60 174.60 373.65 < 2e-16 ***
1k      1  3.66   3.66   7.84 0.00644 **
Residuals 78  36.45    0.47
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

> sum(anova(mod_log)[-3,2])
[1] 178.2613

> sum(anova(mod_log)[,2])
[1] 214.7088

> nobs(mod_log)
[1] 81

> confint(mod_log, level=0.95)
              2.5 % 97.5 %
(Intercept) 6.6267597 8.4652928
11          0.7257997 1.2032961
1k          0.0544886 0.3225991
```



Interpretation of regression coefficients for most common forms of regression models

① Linear regr. model

$$\underline{y_i = b_1 + b_2 x_{2i} + \dots + b_j x_{ji} + \dots + b_k x_{ki} + e_i}$$

error term

partial
regr. coefficient

residual

on average must
be included

↳ If x_j increases by 1 unit of measurement,
then on average, ceteris paribus, y
increases/decreases by b_j units of measurement.

Two relativisations, intercept: 575.

② Log-linear regression model

$$\ln y_i = b_1 + b_2 \ln x_{2i} + \dots + b_j \ln x_{ji} + \dots + b_k \ln x_{ki} + e_i$$

part. elasticity \Rightarrow it relativizes
(approximation) the units of
measurement

If x_j increases by 1 percent, then on
average, ceteris paribus, y increases/
decreases by b_j percent.

3. Log-lin regression model

$$\ln y_i = b_1 + b_2 x_{2i} + \dots + b_j \underline{x_{ji}} + \dots + b_k x_{ki} + e_i$$

↳ the left part. semi elasticity
 side always (approximation)
 may ln

If x_j increases by 1 unit of measurement,
 then on average, ceteris paribus, y increases/
 decreases by $100 \cdot b_j$ percent.

4. Lin-log regression model

most
 widely used

$$y_i = b_1 + b_2 \ln x_{2i} + \dots + b_j \underline{\ln x_{ji}} + \dots + b_k \ln x_{ki} + e_i$$

part. semi elasticity
 (approximation)

If x_j increases by 1 percent, then on
 average, ceteris paribus, y increases/
 decreases by $b_j / 100$ units of measurement.

³, model that doesn't fit any of the 4 groups

5. "Mixed" regression model

EXAMPLE: $\ln y_i = b_1 + b_2 \underline{x_{2i}} + b_3 \ln \underline{x_{3i}} + e_i$

log-linear r.m. log-linear r.m.

Each regression coefficient is interpreted based on the **functional form of the relationship** between " y " and " x_j ".

Indirect effects, S 77-78:

Indirect effect of x_j on y (through x_1):
total effect of x_j on x_1 • direct effect of x_1 on y .

Example, c)

PDF, pp. 6-7.

$$L_i = c_1 + c_2 K_i + e_{Li}$$

$$\hat{Q}_i = d_1 + d_2 \underline{e_{Li}} + d_3 K_i$$

↑ compare

$$\hat{Q}_i = b_1 + b_2 L_i + b_3 K_i$$

$$d_2 = b_2$$

Example, d)

PDF, pp. 7-8.

$$Q_i = b_1 + b_2 L_i + \underline{b_3} K_i + \underline{e_{1i}}$$

$$Q_i = c_1 + c_2 L_i + e_{Qi}$$

$$K_i = d_1 + d_2 L_i + e_{Ki}$$

FWL regression: $e_{Qi} = g_1 + g_2 \underline{e_{Ki}} + e_{zi}$

FWL theorem: ① $b_3 = g_2$

② $e_{1i} = e_{zi}, \forall i$

Definition of a Regression Coefficient

$$E(y|x_2, \dots, x_k) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_k x_k$$

$$\beta_j = \frac{\partial E(y|x_2, \dots, x_k)}{\partial x_j} ; \quad j = 2, 3, \dots, k$$

Multiple regression coefficients

Partial regression coefficients or partial slope coefficients

value of interest

$$\beta_1 = E(y|x_2 = 0, \dots, x_k = 0)$$



Definition of a Regression Coefficient

12P1T

Regression coefficients represent

pure or direct or net effects

\Rightarrow the same expression

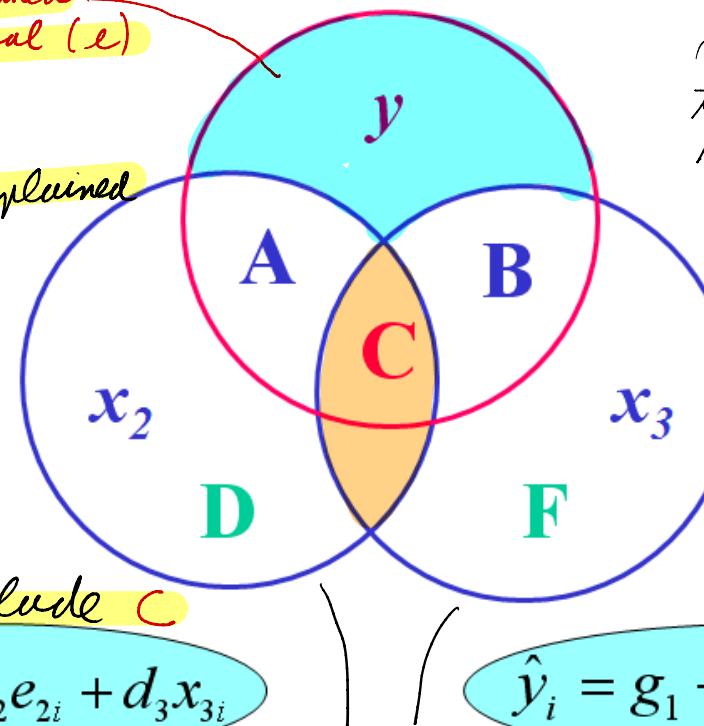
$$\hat{y}_i = b_1 + b_2 x_{2i} + b_3 x_{3i}$$

This is unexplained
It is the residual (e)

A can be explained
by x_2

$$\hat{x}_{2i} = c_1 + c_2 x_{3i}$$

$$e_{2i} = x_{2i} - \hat{x}_{2i}$$



variability of
the dependant
variable

B can be explained
by x_3

$$\hat{x}_{3i} = f_1 + f_2 x_{2i}$$

$$e_{3i} = x_{3i} - \hat{x}_{3i}$$

C is something we
try to avoid \Rightarrow we
want to have no
collinearity between
the explanatory
variables

e_2 doesn't include C

$$\hat{y}_i = d_1 + d_2 e_{2i} + d_3 x_{3i}$$

d_2 is numerically equivalent
to b_2 .

variability
of explanatory variables

in real cases
there is 76/82
always some
collinearity present

?

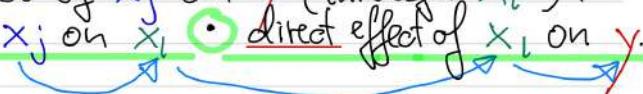
The residual of x_3 is B plus F.

y_3 is the numerical equivalent of b_3 .

x_2 affects y directly and indirectly through $x_3 \Rightarrow$ that is because of collinearity

Indirect effects, S77-78:

Indirect effect of x_j on y (through x_1):
total effect of x_j on x_1 • direct effect of x_1 on y .



Decomposition of the Total Effect

Effects of explanatory variable x_2

Direct effect : $b_2 = d_2$

Indirect effect (effect of x_2 on x_3 and through the latter on y) : $f_2 \cdot b_3$

Total effect : $g_2 = d_2 + f_2 \cdot b_3$

Effects of explanatory variable x_3

Direct effect : $b_3 = g_3$

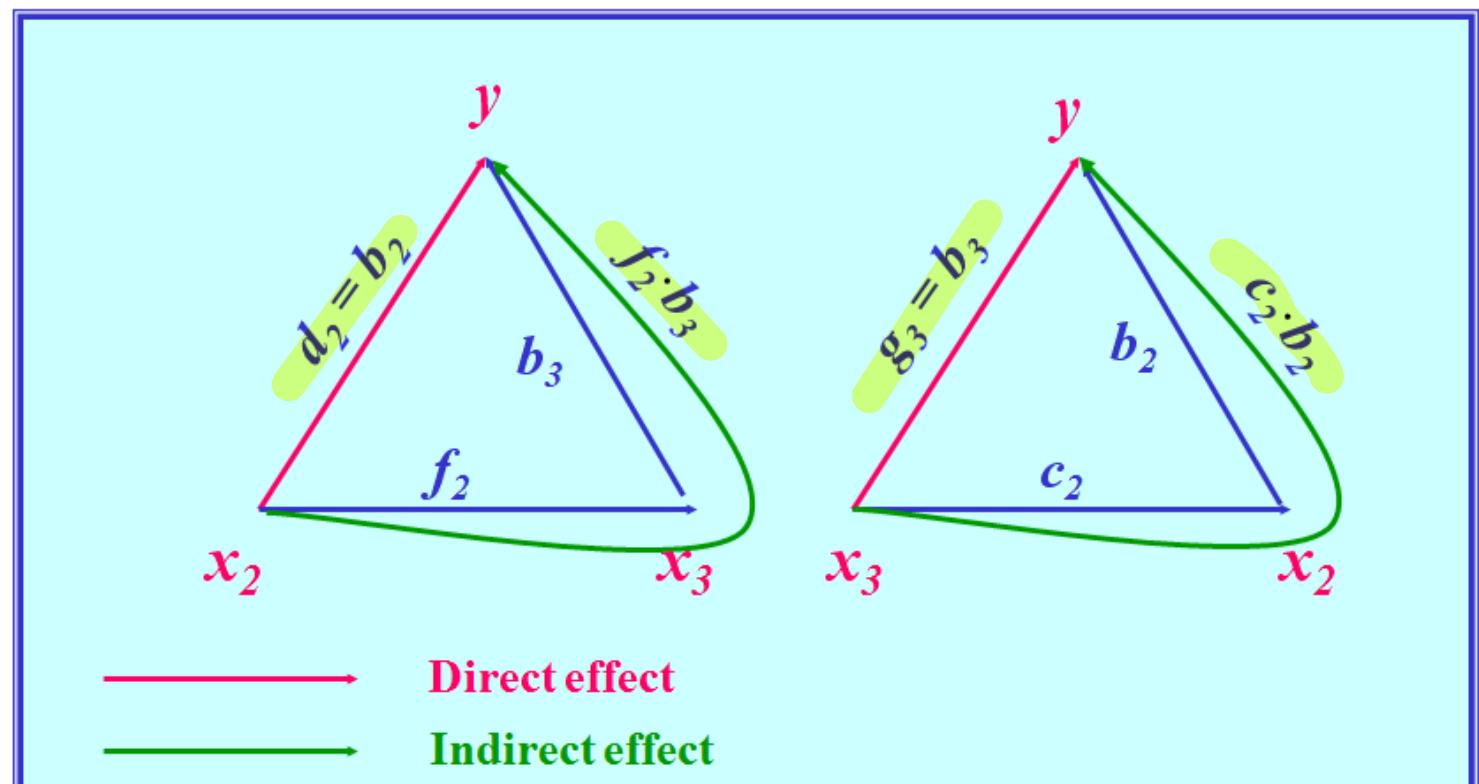
Indirect effect (effect of x_3 on x_2 and through the latter on y) : $c_2 \cdot b_2$

Total effect : $d_3 = g_3 + c_2 \cdot b_2$



Decomposition of the Total Effect

**Graphic illustration of direct and indirect effects
of explanatory variables on the dependent variable**



Frisch–Waugh (–Lovell) Theorem

Frisch–Waugh theorem (Econometrica, 1933)

you can get a certain direct effect and the residuals in 2 ways

- add all variables into the regression
- get rid of the effect of the variables

✓ you can purge the effect of x_2 on y and x_3 .

$$y_i = b_1 + b_2 x_{2i} + b_3 x_{3i} + e_i$$

$$y_i = c_1 + c_2 x_{2i} + e_{y_i} \Rightarrow \tilde{y}_i = e_{y_i} = y_i - \hat{y}_i$$

$$x_{3i} = d_1 + d_2 x_{2i} + e_{x_{3i}} \Rightarrow \tilde{x}_{3i} = e_{x_{3i}} = x_{3i} - \hat{x}_{3i}$$

$$\tilde{y}_i = g_1 + b_3 \tilde{x}_{3i} + e_i$$

this has different value than b_3

FW(L) regression

y without the effect of x_2

x_3 without the effect of x_2 .

Frisch–Waugh (–Lovell) Theorem

AN EXAMPLE OF ITS USE:

Method of individual trend

First step

We purge the “redundant” component from the time series

Second step

We estimate the regression model that is cleaned off
of the effects of “redundant” component



Frisch–Waugh (–Lovell) Theorem

$$y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2t} + \beta_3 x_{3t} + \dots + \beta_k x_{kt} + u_t$$

First step

$$y_t = c_1 + c_2 t + c_3 t^2 + \dots + e_{y_t} ; \quad e_{y_t} = y_t - \hat{y}_t$$

$$x_{2t} = c_{21} + c_{22} t + c_{23} t^2 + \dots + e_{x_{2t}} ; \quad e_{x_{2t}} = x_{2t} - \hat{x}_{2t}$$

...

$$x_{kt} = c_{k1} + c_{k2} t + c_{k3} t^2 + \dots + e_{x_{kt}} ; \quad e_{x_{kt}} = x_{kt} - \hat{x}_{kt}$$

Second step

$$e_{y_t} = b_1 + b_2 e_{x_{2t}} + b_3 e_{x_{3t}} + \dots + b_k e_{x_{kt}} + e_t$$



Frisch–Waugh (–Lovell) Theorem

AN ALTERNATIVE APPROACH:

easier approach

Method of partial time-series regression

$$y_t = d_1 + b_2 x_{2t} + b_3 x_{3t} + \dots + b_k x_{kt} + \underline{d_2 t + d_3 t^2 + \dots + e_t}$$



2. Multiple Regression Model

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