lab 4

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Roadmap

- Compute se, t-stat, and confidence interval
- Heteroskedasticity
- Regression Diagnostics
- Non-linearity
 - Logged transformation regression
 - Bivariate quadratic equation

Assumptions of OLS

Assumption 1: The Error Term has Conditional Mean of Zero

Assumption 2: Independently and Identically Distributed Data

Assumption 3: Large Outliers are Unlikely

The Sampling Distribution of the OLS Estimator

- As $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ are computed from a sample, estimators themselves are random variables with a probability distribution the so-called sampling distribution of the estimators which describes the values they could take on over different samples.
- Sampling distribution can be complicated when the sample size is small and generally changes with the number of observations, n
- When Sample is sufficiently large, by the central limit theorem the *joint* sampling distribution of the estimators is well approximated by the bivariate normal distribution

$$E(\hat{\beta}_0) = \beta_0$$
 and $E(\hat{\beta}_1) = \beta_1$,

Hypothesis Tests

- Testing Hypotheses regarding regression coefficients
- Confidence intervals for regression coefficients

A general t-statistic has the form

$$t = \frac{\text{estimated value} - \text{hypothesized value}}{\text{standard error of the estimator}}.$$

For testing the hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_{1,0}$, we need to perform the following steps:

1. Compute the standard error of $\hat{\beta}_1$, $sigma(\hat{\beta}_1)$

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\beta}_1} = \sqrt{\frac{\frac{1}{n-2}\sum_{i=1}^n(Y_i - \overline{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n(X_i - \overline{X})^2}}$$

2. Compute the t-statistic

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_{1,0}}{\sigma(\hat{\beta}_1)} \sim t_{n-k-1}.$$

where k is the number of paramter, n is the number of observation.

For bivariate regression, n - k - 1 = n - 2.

3. Given a two sided alternative $(H_1: \beta_1 \neq \beta_{1,0})$ we reject at the 5% level if $|t^{act}| > 1.96$ or, equivalently, if the *p*-value is less than 0.05.

Recall the definition of the p-value:

$$p\text{-value} = \Pr_{H_0} \left[\left| \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_{1,0}}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} \right| > \left| \frac{\hat{\beta}_1^{act} - \beta_{1,0}}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} \right| \right]$$
$$= \Pr_{H_0}(|t| > |t^{act}|)$$
$$\approx 2 \cdot \Phi(-|t^{act}|)$$

The last transformation is due to the normal approximation for large samples.

Example: Returns to Sales Performance

Compute T-statistic:

```
# y as dependent variable
y <- ceo$salary

# x as independent variable
x <- ceo$sales
n <- length(ceo$salary)

# beta1
beta1 = sum((y - mean(y)) * (x - mean(x))) / sum (((x - mean(x))^2))
beta1

## [1] 0.03669374

# beta0
beta0 <- mean(y) - beta1 * mean(x)
beta0

## [1] 736.3552

# predicted Y
y_hat <- beta1 * x + beta0
head(y_hat)

## [1] 963.8564 746.7395 742.5565 776.7183 749.2347 1433.5362</pre>
```

```
# predicted u
u_hat = y - y_hat
# signma beta 1
denom = 1/(n-2) * sum(u_hat^2)
num = sum((x-mean(x))^2)
sigma_beta1 = sqrt(denom/num)
# t statistic
t_test = (beta1 - 0)/sigma_beta1
t_test
## [1] 5.438338
Compute P-value:
# pt() is the distribution function of t distribution
2*pt(-abs(t_test), df = n-2)
## [1] 1.788196e-07
Double-check with build-in function:
# estimate the model
m1 <- lm(salary ~ sales, data = ceo)
# summary of regression
sum = summary(m1)
sum
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = salary ~ sales, data = ceo)
## Residuals:
             1Q Median
     Min
                            3Q
                                 Max
## -735.4 -340.2 -125.7 236.5 4474.6
##
## Coefficients:
               Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 7.364e+02 4.738e+01 15.540 < 2e-16 ***
## sales
             3.669e-02 6.747e-03 5.438 1.79e-07 ***
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
## Residual standard error: 545 on 175 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.1446, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1397
## F-statistic: 29.58 on 1 and 175 DF, p-value: 1.788e-07
# Estimate, SE, t value, and P value of coefficients
options(xtable.comment = FALSE)
xtable(sum$coefficients)
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	$\Pr(> t)$
(Intercept)	736.36	47.38	15.54	0.00
sales	0.04	0.01	5.44	0.00

Confidence Intervals

The interval has a probability of 95% to contain the true value of β_i . So in 95% of all samples that could be drawn, the confidence interval will cover the true value of β_i .

$$CI_{\beta 1} = (\bar{\beta}_1 - t^* * \hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1}, \bar{X} + t^* * \hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1})$$

```
dof = n-2
critical_t <- qt(0.05/2, dof)

beta1 - critical_t*sigma_beta1

## [1] 0.05001016
beta1 + critical_t*sigma_beta1

## [1] 0.02337731

# coefficient
confint(m1)

## 2.5 % 97.5 %

## (Intercept) 642.83695765 829.87346434

## sales 0.02337731 0.05001016</pre>
```

Heteroskedasticity and Homoskedasticity

All inference made in the previous discussion relies on the assumption that the error variance does not vary as regressor values change. But this will often not be the case in empirical applications.

• The error term of our regression model is homoskedastic if the variance of the conditional distribution of u_i given X_i , $Var(u_i|X_i=x)$, is constant for all observations in our sample:

$$Var(u_i|X_i=x) = \sigma^2 \ \forall \ i=1,\ldots,n.$$

• If instead there is dependence of the conditional variance of u_i on X_i , the error term is said to be heteroskedastic. We then write

$$Var(u_i|X_i=x) = \sigma_i^2 \ \forall \ i=1,\ldots,n.$$

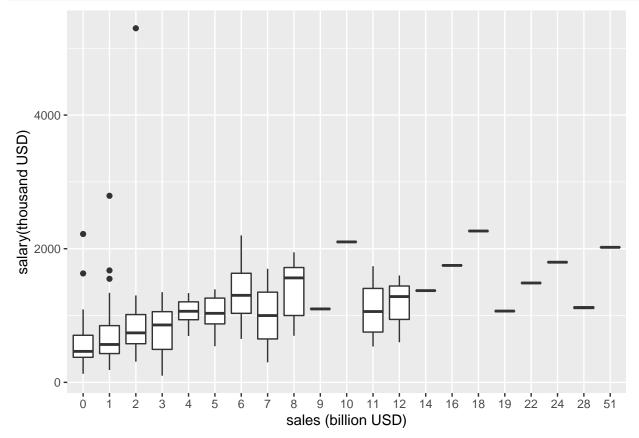
• Homoskedasticity is a *special case* of heteroskedasticity.

A better understanding of heteroskedasticity

$$salary_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot sales_i + u_i.$$

- On average, CEO with higher sales earn more than their peers with lower sales -> an upward sloping regression line.
- It seems plausible that earnings of CEO with lower sales have a higher dispersion than those of CEO with higher sales.
- Some other factors matter for salary (relations with the board, Charisma, control of debt, etc.)

```
ceo %>%
  mutate(sales_scale = round(sales/1000) %>% as.factor()) %>%
# plot observations and add the regression line
  ggplot(.) +
  geom_boxplot( aes(x = sales_scale , y = salary )) +
  xlab("sales (billion USD)") +
  ylab("salary(thousand USD)")
```



Residual Analaysis

1. Residuals vs Fitted: shows if residuals have non-linear patterns.

The first plots the residuals versus the fitted values.

We are looking to see whether the residuals are spread uniformly across the line y = 0. If there is a U-shape, then that is evidence that there may be a variable "lurking" that we have not taken into account. It could be a variable that is related to the data that we did not collect, or it could be that our model should include a quadratic term.

2. Normal Q-Q: shows if residuals are normally distributed.

Ideally, the points would fall more or less along the line given in the plot. It takes some experience to know what is a reasonable departure from the line and what would indicate a problem.

3. Scale-Location: shows if residuals are spread equally along with the ranges of predictors.

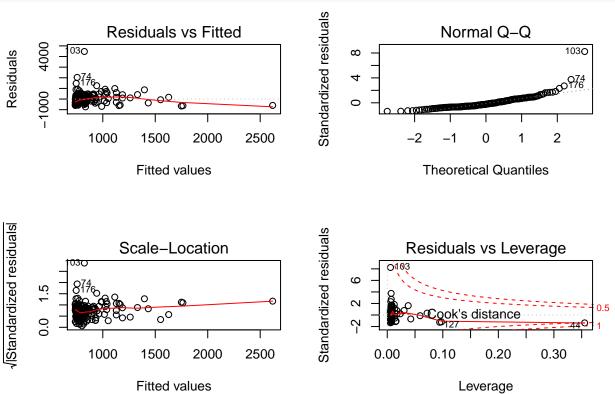
This is a plot that helps us to see whether the variance is constant across the fitted values. Many times, the variance will increase with the fitted value, in which case we would see an upward trend in this plot. We are

looking to see that the line is more or less flat.

4. Residuals vs Leverage: helps us to find outliers.

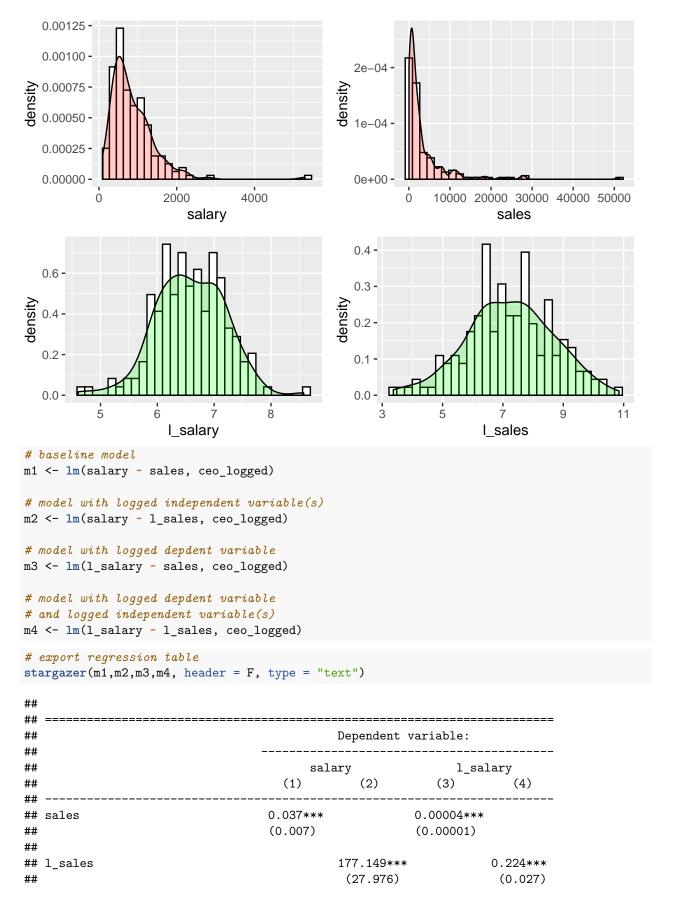
Outliers are points that fit the model worse than the rest of the data. Outliers with x-coordinates in the middle of the data tend to have less of an impact on the final model than outliers toward the edge of the x-coordinates. Data that falls outside the red dashed lines are high-leverage outliers, meaning that they (may) have a large effect on the final model. You should consider removing the data and re-running in order to see how big the effect is. Or you could use robust methods (We may discuss this later this semster).

```
par(mfrow=c(2,2))
plot(m1, ask=F)
```

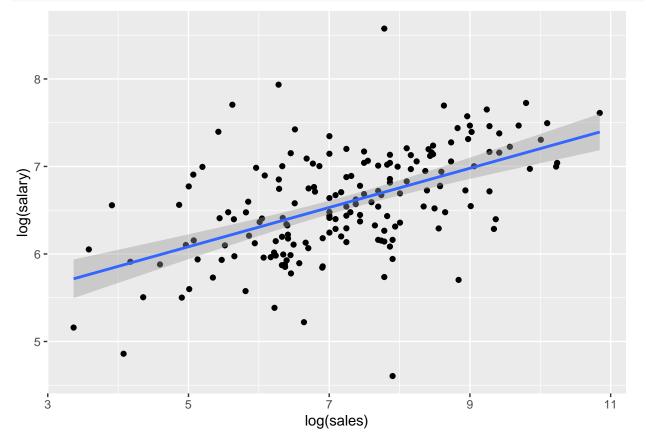


Log Transformation

```
level-level, y = \beta_1 x + \beta_0, a 1 unit change in x results in a \beta_1 unit change in y level-log, y = \beta_1 ln(x) + \beta_0, a 1% change in x results in a \beta_1/100 unit change in y log-level, ln(y) = \beta_1 x + \beta_0, a 1 unit change in x results in a \beta_1 * 100 unit change in y log-log, ln(y) = \beta_1 ln(x) + \beta_0, a 1% change in x results in a \beta_1% change in y "## `stat_bin()` using `bins = 30`. Pick better value with `binwidth`. ## `stat_bin()` using `bins = 30`. Pick better value with `binwidth`. ## `stat_bin()` using `bins = 30`. Pick better value with `binwidth`. ## `stat_bin()` using `bins = 30`. Pick better value with `binwidth`.
```



```
##
                                  736.355*** -415.105** 6.439*** 4.961***
## Constant
                                  (47.384) (206.204)
##
                                                         (0.048)
##
                                     177
                                                177
                                                           177
                                                                      177
## Observations
## R2
                                    0.145
                                               0.186
                                                          0.168
                                                                     0.281
## Adjusted R2
                                    0.140
                                                                     0.277
                                              0.182
                                                          0.163
## Residual Std. Error (df = 175) 545.009
                                             531.513
                                                          0.554
                                                                     0.515
## F Statistic (df = 1; 175)
                                  29.576*** 40.096*** 35.327*** 68.345***
## Note:
                                                 *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01
# plot observations and add the regression line
ggplot(ceo, aes(x = log(sales), y = log(salary))) +
  geom_point() +
  stat_smooth(method = "lm", formula = y ~ x )
```



Quadratic Regression

$$salary_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot sales_i + \beta_2 \cdot sales_i^2 + u_i.$$

```
q_ceo <- ceo %>%
mutate(
    # transform to billion USD
    sales = sales/1000,
    sales_2 = sales^2)
```

```
# fit a quadratic regression
q_m <- lm(salary ~ sales_2 + sales, q_ceo )</pre>
# summary of regression
summary(q_m)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = salary ~ sales_2 + sales, data = q_ceo)
##
## Residuals:
     Min
              1Q Median
## -795.7 -305.1 -103.2 234.9 4467.9
## Coefficients:
               Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 674.1354
                           52.9038 12.743 < 2e-16 ***
                            0.3829 -2.501 0.0133 *
## sales 2
               -0.9577
                67.7043
                                    4.812 3.23e-06 ***
## sales
                           14.0697
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
## Residual standard error: 537 on 174 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.1743, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1648
## F-statistic: 18.36 on 2 and 174 DF, p-value: 5.831e-08
# coefficients
coef(q_m)
                   sales_2
## (Intercept)
                                  sales
## 674.1354494 -0.9576503 67.7042527
# predicted value of y
# by hand
y_{predict_byhand} \leftarrow coef(q_m)[1] + coef(q_m)[2] * q_ceo$sales_2 + coef(q_m)[3] * q_ceo$sales
# use predict()
y_predict <- predict(q_m)</pre>
# double check two outputs
data.frame(y_predict_byhand, y_predict) %>% head()
    y_predict_byhand y_predict
## 1
          1057.0897 1057.0897
## 2
             693.2191 693.2191
## 3
             685.5501 685.5501
## 4
             747.4514 747.4514
## 5
            697.7817 697.7817
## 6
            1614.8045 1614.8045
                       salary_i = 674.14 + 67.70 \cdot sales_i - 0.96 \cdot sales_i^2 + u_i.
ggplot(q_ceo, aes(x = sales, y = salary)) +
geom_point() +
```

```
stat_smooth(method = "lm", formula = y ~ x + I(x^2), size = 1) +
xlab("sales (billion USD)")
```

