### BS2280 - Econometrics 1

Lecture 3 - Part 2: Bias, Efficiency and Interpreting Coefficients

by Dr Yichen Zhu

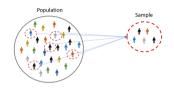
### **Outline**

- Review: 6 OLS assumptions
- Unbiasedness and Efficiency
- Interpretation
- Prediction (post-lecture video)
- Goodness of Fit (post-lecture video, very important)

## Intended Learning Outcomes

- Interpreting coefficients of regressions
- Deriving and understanding R<sup>2</sup>

## Review: Simple Linear Regression Model - Population vs. Sample



# PopulationSample $Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_i + u_i$ <br/>parameters $\beta_1$ and $\beta_2$ <br/> $u_i$ disturbance term $Y_i = \hat{Y}_i + \hat{u}_i = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 X_i + \hat{u}_i$ <br/>coefficients $\hat{\beta}_1$ and $\hat{\beta}_2$ <br/> $\hat{u}_i$ residual

OLS estimates  $\hat{\beta}_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_2$  have certain desirable properties, but these properties rely on a set of assumptions we need to make!!!

## Model is linear in parameters and correctly specified

Which one describes Assumption 1?

A) 
$$Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_i + u_i$$

$$\mathsf{B)} \ \ Y_i = \beta_1 X_i^{\beta_2} + u_i$$

#### There is some variation in the X variable

Which one describes Assumption 2?

- A) X can be constant
- B) X cannot be constant

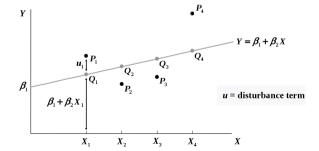
Review: 6 OLS assumptions

00000000

#### Disturbance term has zero expectation

Which one describes Assumption 3?

- A)  $E(u_i) = 0$  for all *i* or  $E(u_i|X_1, X_2, ..., X_n) = 0$  for all *i*
- B)  $E(u_i) \neq 0$  for all i or  $E(u_i|X_1, X_2, ...., X_n) \neq 0$  for all i

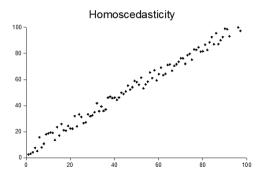


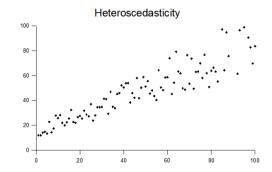
#### The disturbance term is homoscedastic

Which one describes Assumption 4?

- A) We assume that the error term has a constant variance,  $E(u_i^2) = \sigma_u^2$  for all i
- B) We assume that the error term has a non-constant variance,  $E(u_i^2) \neq \sigma_u^2$  for all i

#### The disturbance term is homoscedastic



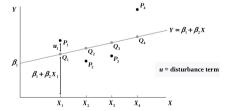


Review: 6 OLS assumptions

#### Values of disturbance term have independent distributions

Which one describes Assumption 5?

- A) We assume that the error terms are absolutely **independent** of each other.  $u_i$  is independently distributed from  $u_i$  for all  $i \neq j$
- B) We assume that the error terms are absolutely **dependent** of each other.  $u_i$  is dependently distributed from  $u_j$  for all  $i \neq j$



#### The disturbance term has a normal distribution

Which one describes Assumption 6?

- A) We assume the error terms come from a **normal** distribution
- B) We assume the error terms come from a **T** distribution

# Check the 'quality' of OLS estimated $\hat{\beta}_1$ and $\hat{\beta}_2$

- Unbiasedness
- Consistency
- Efficiency / Precision
- If all our OLS assumptions hold, we get Best (most efficient) Linear Unbiased Estimators (BLUE)  $\hat{\beta}_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_2$

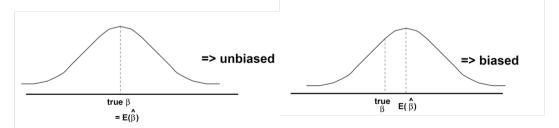
## Unbiasedness

Review: 6 OLS assumptions

#### Unbiasedness

An estimator is unbiased when expected value equals population value. E.g. for  $\hat{\beta}_2$ :  $E(\hat{\beta}_2) = \beta_2$ , otherwise, the estimator is said to be biased

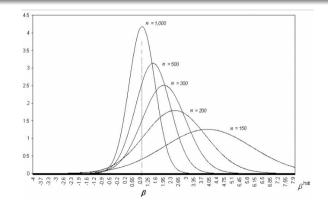
- This will be the case for OLS because we have Assumptions 1,2 and 3  $E(u_i)=0$
- See Dougherty chapter 2 for mathematical prove



## Consistency

#### Consistency

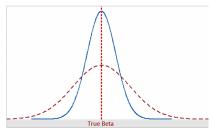
The larger the sample the closer our estimators  $(\hat{\beta}_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_2)$  should be to the population value  $(\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2)$ 



#### Efficiency / Precision

For the OLS estimator to be best (most efficient) it needs to have a lower variance than all the other estimators within the class.

- Recall that our interest lies in knowing if  $\hat{\beta}_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_2$  are close estimates of true but unknown  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$
- An estimator has higher precision if its variance is small compared to one with a larger variance



- Variances of  $\hat{\beta}_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_2$ , i.e.  $\sigma^2_{\hat{\beta}_1}$  and  $\sigma^2_{\hat{\beta}_2}$
- Lower variance  $\sigma^2_{\hat{\beta}_1}$ , our estimates are more efficient / precise
- What factors will affect the value of variance:  $\sigma_{\hat{\beta}_1}^2$  and  $\sigma_{\hat{\beta}_2}^2$ ?
- ullet We will use  $\sigma_{\hat{eta}_2}^2$  to explain, but same intuition works for  $\sigma_{\hat{eta}_1}^2$

• Variance of  $\beta_2$  is:

$$\sigma_{\hat{\beta}_2}^2 = \frac{\sigma_{u_i}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} = \frac{\sigma_{u_i}^2}{n_{\bar{n}}^1 \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

• we define MSD(X) as:

$$MSD(X) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

Therefore

$$\sigma_{\hat{eta}_2}^2 = rac{\sigma_{u_i}^2}{nMSD(X)}$$

$$\sigma_{\hat{\beta}_2}^2 = \frac{\sigma_{u_i}^2}{nMSD(X)}$$

Efficiency will depend on three factors:

- $\sigma_{u_i}^2$ : Larger residuals' variance reduce the precision of estimates (see earlier example above)
- n: Larger the number of observations (n), the smaller  $\sigma_{\hat{\beta}_2}^2$
- MSD(X): Larger MSD(X) leads to smaller  $\sigma_{\hat{\beta}_2}^2$ 
  - Regression analysis understand how variations in  $X_i$  explain variations in  $Y_i$ . Variations in  $u_i$  pick up the rest
  - Low variations in MSD(X) means low variations in  $X_i \longrightarrow$  more variations from  $u_i \longrightarrow$  higher variance (lower precision) in  $\hat{\beta}_2$

```
> summary(earnfit)
Call:
lm(formula = EARNINGS ~ S, data = EAWE21.simple)
Residuals:
Min
        10 Median 30
                              Max
-20.079 -6.726 -2.203 3.451 79.037
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 0.7647
                       2.8038 0.273 0.785
                       0.1855 6.824 2.58e-11 ***
S
             1.2657
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 '' 1
Residual standard error: 11.36 on 498 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.08551, Adjusted R-squared: 0.08368
F-statistic: 46.57 on 1 and 498 DF, p-value: 2.579e-11
```

- If all our 6 assumptions mentioned above hold, then our OLS estimator is BLUE
- Best Linear Unbiased Estimator
- The Best property is particular of interest: the Gauss-Markov Theorem states
  that provided the assumptions hold, OLS estimators will have the lowest
  variance amongst all possible estimators
  (proof of this in Dougherty textbook Appendix 2.1)
- An estimator with low variance means it comes from a sampling distribution where most of the values are concentrated around the true but unknown population value of the characteristic it is estimating

- If all our 6 assumptions mentioned above hold, then our OLS estimator is BLUE
- Best Linear Unbiased Estimator
- The Best property is particular of interest: the Gauss-Markov Theorem states that provided the assumptions hold, OLS estimators will have the lowest variance amongst all possible estimators (proof of this in Dougherty textbook Appendix 2.1)
- An estimator with low variance means it comes from a sampling distribution where most of the values are concentrated around the true but unknown population value of the characteristic it is estimating

- If all our 6 assumptions mentioned above hold, then our OLS estimator is BLUE
- Best Linear Unbiased Estimator
- The Best property is particular of interest: the Gauss-Markov Theorem states that provided the assumptions hold, OLS estimators will have the lowest variance amongst all possible estimators (proof of this in Dougherty textbook Appendix 2.1)
- An estimator with low variance means it comes from a sampling distribution where most of the values are concentrated around the true but unknown population value of the characteristic it is estimating

- If all our 6 assumptions mentioned above hold, then our OLS estimator is BLUE
- Best Linear Unbiased Estimator
- The Best property is particular of interest: the Gauss-Markov Theorem states that provided the assumptions hold, OLS estimators will have the lowest variance amongst all possible estimators (proof of this in Dougherty textbook Appendix 2.1)
- An estimator with low variance means it comes from a sampling distribution where most of the values are concentrated around the true but unknown population value of the characteristic it is estimating

Last week we analysed the relationship between education and income.

0000000

• We used OLS regression to estimate  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$ 

```
> earnfit <- lm(EARNINGS~S, data=EAWE21.simple)</pre>
> earnfit
Call:
lm(formula = EARNINGS ~ S. data = EAWE21.simple)
Coefficients:
(Intercept)
0.7647
            1.2657
```

#### Regression equation:

$$\widehat{EARNINGS}_i = 0.765 + 1.266S_i$$

$$\widehat{EARNINGS}_i = 0.765 + 1.266S_i$$

- What do results actually mean?
- Interpretation depends on units of variables!
- To interpret  $\beta_2$  we think at the margin: A one unit change in X leads to a  $\beta_2$  unit change in Y.
- In our example:
   Increasing education by 1 year will increase hourly earnings by \$1.27
   Increasing education by 3 years will increase hourly earnings by 3×\$1.27

$$\widehat{EARNINGS}_i = 0.765 + 1.266S_i$$

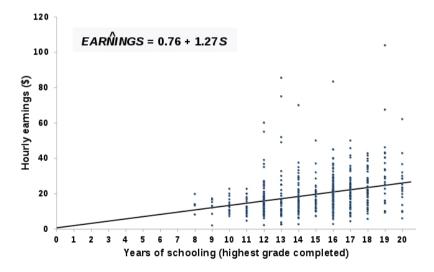
- What do results actually mean?
- Interpretation depends on units of variables!
- To interpret  $\beta_2$  we think at the margin: A one unit change in X leads to a  $\beta_2$  unit change in Y.
- In our example: Increasing education by 1 year will increase hourly earnings by \$1.27
   Increasing education by 3 years will increase hourly earnings by 3×\$1.27

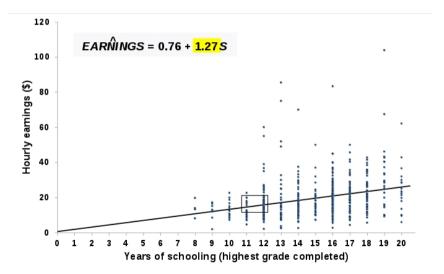
$$\widehat{EARNINGS}_i = 0.765 + 1.266S_i$$

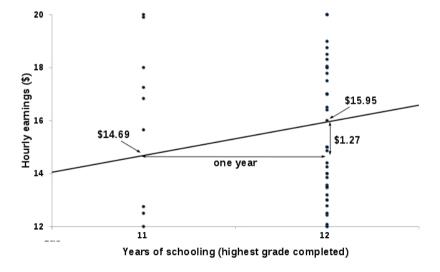
- What do results actually mean?
- Interpretation depends on units of variables!
- To interpret  $\beta_2$  we think at the margin: A one unit change in X leads to a  $\beta_2$  unit change in Y.
- In our example:
   Increasing education by 1 year will increase hourly earnings by \$1.27
   Increasing education by 3 years will increase hourly earnings by 3×\$1.27

$$\widehat{EARNINGS}_i = 0.765 + 1.266S_i$$

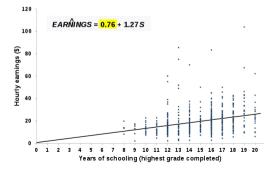
- What do results actually mean?
- Interpretation depends on units of variables!
- To interpret  $\beta_2$  we think at the margin: A one unit change in X leads to a  $\beta_2$  unit change in Y.
- In our example:
   Increasing education by 1 year will increase hourly earnings by \$1.27
   Increasing education by 3 years will increase hourly earnings by 3×\$1.27



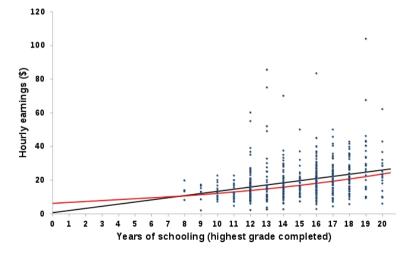




- $\beta_1$ : intercept, it shows value of Y when X = 0.
- A person with no education would have an hourly salary of \$0.76.
- Is such a low wage realistic? No!
- Statistically, it makes sense. But, economically, it does not make sense.
- Solution: Limit interpretation to a specific range



• Alternative solution: use non-linear specification. More on that later...



- We estimate the impact of temperature on ice cream sales over a period of 21 davs.
- Temperature is measures in degree Celsius and ice cream sales in thousand **GBP**
- The results are:  $Sales_t = -0.184 + 0.111 Temp_t$
- Interpret carefully the sign and the size of both the  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  coefficients.

## Prediction

- We can use our regression line for predictions!
- Our model predicts the average hourly wages for different levels of education.
- For example, what is the predict level of average wages?

Person	<b>Education Years</b>	Predicted Earnings
Person 1	$S_1 = 0$	$\widehat{EARNINGS}_1 = 0.76 + 1.27 \times 0 = \$0.76$
Person 3	$S_3 = 5$	$\widehat{EARNINGS}_3 = 0.76 + 1.27 \times 5 = \$7.11$
Person 7	$S_7 = 10$	$\widehat{EARNINGS}_7 = 0.76 + 1.27 \times 10 = \$13.46$

 If we are only interested in the accuracy of the prediction, rather than the unbiasedness and efficiency of the estimates, we can relax our OLS assumptions.

## Prediction

- We can use our regression line for predictions!
- Our model predicts the average hourly wages for different levels of education.
- For example, what is the predict level of average wages?

Person	<b>Education Years</b>	Predicted Earnings
Person 1	$S_1 = 0$	$\widehat{EARNINGS}_1 = 0.76 + 1.27 \times 0 = \$0.76$
Person 3	$S_3 = 5$	$\widehat{EARNINGS}_3 = 0.76 + 1.27 \times 5 = \$7.11$
Person 7	$S_7 = 10$	$\widehat{EARNINGS}_7 = 0.76 + 1.27 \times 10 = \$13.46$

 If we are only interested in the accuracy of the prediction, rather than the unbiasedness and efficiency of the estimates, we can relax our OLS assumptions.

## Prediction

- We can use our regression line for predictions!
- Our model predicts the average hourly wages for different levels of education.
- For example, what is the predict level of average wages?

Person	<b>Education Years</b>	Predicted Earnings
Person 1	$S_1 = 0$	$\widehat{EARNINGS}_1 = 0.76 + 1.27 \times 0 = \$0.76$
Person 3	$S_3 = 5$	$\widehat{EARNINGS}_3 = 0.76 + 1.27 \times 5 = \$7.11$
Person 7	$S_7 = 10$	$\widehat{EARNINGS}_7 = 0.76 + 1.27 \times 10 = \$13.46$

If we are only interested in the accuracy of the prediction, rather than the

Review: 6 OLS assumptions

- We can use our regression line for predictions!
- Our model predicts the average hourly wages for different levels of education.
- For example, what is the predict level of average wages?

Person	<b>Education Years</b>	Predicted Earnings
Person 1	$S_1 = 0$	$\widehat{EARNINGS}_1 = 0.76 + 1.27 \times 0 = \$0.76$
Person 3	$S_3 = 5$	$\widehat{EARNINGS}_3 = 0.76 + 1.27 \times 5 = \$7.11$
Person 7	$S_7 = 10$	$\widehat{EARNINGS}_7 = 0.76 + 1.27 \times 10 = \$13.46$

 If we are only interested in the accuracy of the prediction, rather than the unbiasedness and efficiency of the estimates, we can relax our OLS assumptions.

- Referring back to our ice-cream sale example
- The results were:  $Sales_t = -0.184 + 0.111 Temp_t$
- What are the predicted ice-cream sales when the temperature is 20 °C o 35 °C?

- Referring back to our ice-cream sale example
- The results were:  $\widehat{Sales}_t = -0.184 + 0.111 Temp_t$
- What are the predicted ice-cream sales when the temperature is 20 °C o 35 °C?

- Referring back to our ice-cream sale example
- The results were:  $\widehat{Sales}_t = -0.184 + 0.111 Temp_t$
- What are the predicted ice-cream sales when the temperature is 20 °C or 35 °C?

Review: 6 OLS assumptions

 Regression analysis aims to understand whether observed variations in Y can be explained by observed variations in X.

Prediction (post-lecture video)

- Variance of a variable is a measure of its dispersion, i.e. how far away the
- Dispersion in the Y variable is given by the sum of squared deviation from the

$$TSS = \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$$

Review: 6 OLS assumptions

 Regression analysis aims to understand whether observed variations in Y can be explained by observed variations in X.

Prediction (post-lecture video)

- Variance of a variable is a measure of its dispersion, i.e. how far away the observations are from their mean value
- Dispersion in the Y variable is given by the sum of squared deviation from the

$$TSS = \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$$

Review: 6 OLS assumptions

 Regression analysis aims to understand whether observed variations in Y can be explained by observed variations in X.

Prediction (post-lecture video)

- Variance of a variable is a measure of its dispersion, i.e. how far away the observations are from their mean value
- Dispersion in the Y variable is given by the sum of squared deviation from the mean (Total Sum of Squares, TSS)

$$TSS = \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$$

Review: 6 OLS assumptions

 Regression analysis aims to understand whether observed variations in Y can be explained by observed variations in X.

Prediction (post-lecture video)

- Variance of a variable is a measure of its dispersion, i.e. how far away the observations are from their mean value
- Dispersion in the Y variable is given by the sum of squared deviation from the mean (Total Sum of Squares, TSS)

$$TSS = \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$$

$$Y_{i} = \beta_{1} + \beta_{2}$$
Total variations, variations in  $Y$ 
Total Sum of Squares, TSS
$$TSS = \sum (Y_{i} - \bar{Y})^{2}$$
Explained variations, variations in  $X$ 
Explained sum of squares, ESS
$$ESS = \sum (\hat{Y}_{i} - \bar{Y})^{2}$$
Explained sum of squares, ESS
$$ESS = \sum (\hat{Y}_{i} - \bar{Y})^{2}$$

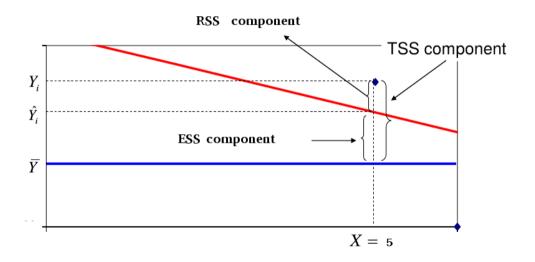
$$ESS = \sum (\hat{Y}_{i} - \hat{Y}_{i})^{2} = \sum u_{i}^{2}$$

$$(1)$$

Total variation in Y can be decomposed into variations arising from the X variable and variations arising from the residuals u<sub>i</sub>

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$$

$$TSS = ESS + RSS$$



 Create a measure of the proportion of ESS in TSS: the R<sup>2</sup> - the coefficient of determination

$$R^2 = \frac{\textit{Explained Varations in X}}{\textit{Total Varations in Y}} = \frac{\textit{ESS}}{\textit{TSS}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}$$

- $0 \le R^2 \le 1$ : The  $R^2$  is bound between 0 and 1
- $R^2 = 0$ : variations in X cannot explain any variations in Y
- $R^2 = 1$ : variations in X can fully explain variations in Y
- A high  $R^2$  means that the independent variable X is good at predicting Y
- **Example**:  $R^2 = 0.75$ , it means that 75% of the variations in Y can be explained by variations in the X variable.
- Remaining 25% comes from unobservables through the residual term

Review: 6 OLS assumptions

• Create a measure of the proportion of ESS in TSS: the R<sup>2</sup> - the coefficient of determination

$$R^2 = \frac{\textit{Explained Varations in X}}{\textit{Total Varations in Y}} = \frac{\textit{ESS}}{\textit{TSS}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}$$

- $0 < R^2 < 1$ : The  $R^2$  is bound between 0 and 1
- $R^2 = 0$ : variations in X cannot explain any variations in Y
- $R^2 = 1$ : variations in X can fully explain variations in Y
- A high  $R^2$  means that the independent variable X is good at predicting Y
- Example:  $R^2 = 0.75$ , it means that 75% of the variations in Y can be

Review: 6 OLS assumptions

• Create a measure of the proportion of ESS in TSS: the R<sup>2</sup> - the coefficient of determination

Prediction (post-lecture video)

$$R^2 = \frac{\textit{Explained Varations in X}}{\textit{Total Varations in Y}} = \frac{\textit{ESS}}{\textit{TSS}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}$$

- $0 < R^2 < 1$ : The  $R^2$  is bound between 0 and 1
- $R^2 = 0$ : variations in X cannot explain any variations in Y
- $R^2 = 1$ : variations in X can fully explain variations in Y
- A high  $R^2$  means that the independent variable X is good at predicting Y
- Example:  $R^2 = 0.75$ , it means that 75% of the variations in Y can be

• Create a measure of the proportion of ESS in TSS: the R<sup>2</sup> - the coefficient of determination

$$R^2 = \frac{\textit{Explained Varations in X}}{\textit{Total Varations in Y}} = \frac{\textit{ESS}}{\textit{TSS}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}$$

- $0 < R^2 < 1$ : The  $R^2$  is bound between 0 and 1
- $R^2 = 0$ : variations in X cannot explain any variations in Y
- $R^2 = 1$ : variations in X can fully explain variations in Y
- A high  $R^2$  means that the independent variable X is good at predicting Y
- Example:  $R^2 = 0.75$ , it means that 75% of the variations in Y can be

 Create a measure of the proportion of ESS in TSS: the R<sup>2</sup> - the coefficient of determination

$$R^2 = \frac{\textit{Explained Varations in X}}{\textit{Total Varations in Y}} = \frac{\textit{ESS}}{\textit{TSS}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}$$

- $0 \le R^2 \le 1$ : The  $R^2$  is bound between 0 and 1
- $R^2 = 0$ : variations in X cannot explain any variations in Y
- $R^2 = 1$ : variations in X can fully explain variations in Y
- A high  $\mathbb{R}^2$  means that the independent variable X is good at predicting Y
- **Example**:  $R^2 = 0.75$ , it means that 75% of the variations in Y can be explained by variations in the X variable.
- Remaining 25% comes from unobservables through the residual term

Review: 6 OLS assumptions

## Calculating R<sup>2</sup>

 Create a measure of the proportion of ESS in TSS: the R<sup>2</sup> - the coefficient of determination

$$R^2 = \frac{Explained \ Variations \ in \ X}{Total \ Variations \ in \ Y} = \frac{ESS}{TSS} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}$$

- $0 \le R^2 \le 1$ : The  $R^2$  is bound between 0 and 1
- $R^2 = 0$ : variations in X cannot explain any variations in Y
- $R^2 = 1$ : variations in X can fully explain variations in Y
- A high  $\mathbb{R}^2$  means that the independent variable X is good at predicting Y
- **Example**:  $R^2 = 0.75$ , it means that 75% of the variations in Y can be explained by variations in the X variable.
- Remaining 25% comes from unobservables through the residual term

Review: 6 OLS assumptions

 Create a measure of the proportion of ESS in TSS: the R<sup>2</sup> - the coefficient of determination

$$R^2 = \frac{\textit{Explained Varations in X}}{\textit{Total Varations in Y}} = \frac{\textit{ESS}}{\textit{TSS}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}$$

Prediction (post-lecture video)

- $0 < R^2 < 1$ : The  $R^2$  is bound between 0 and 1
- $R^2 = 0$ : variations in X cannot explain any variations in Y
- $R^2 = 1$ : variations in X can fully explain variations in Y
- A high  $R^2$  means that the independent variable X is good at predicting Y
- **Example**:  $R^2 = 0.75$ , it means that 75% of the variations in Y can be explained by variations in the X variable.
- Remaining 25% comes from unobservables through the residual term

```
> summary(earnfit)
Call:
lm(formula = EARNINGS ~ S, data = EAWE21.simple)
Residuals:
   Min 10 Median 30 Max
-20.079 -6.726 -2.203 3.451 79.037
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 0.7647 2.8038 0.273 0.785
          1.2657 0.1855 6.824 2.58e-11 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 '' 1
Residual standard error: 11.36 on 498 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.08551, Adjusted R-squared: 0.08368
F-statistic: 46.57 on 1 and 498 DF, p-value: 2.579e-11
```

 $R^2 = 0.0855$ , only 8.55% of the variations in earnings can be explained by variations in schooling, 91.45% of the variations in earnings is left unexplained.

#### • The anova command allows us to identify ESS and RSS:

```
> anova(earnfit) # use regression output as argument
Analysis of Variance Table
Response: EARNINGS
          Df Sum Sg Mean Sg F value Pr(>F)
          1 6014 6014.0 46.568 2.579e-11 ***
Residuals 498 64315 129.1
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 '' 1
```

- ESS = 6014
- $\bullet$  RSS = 64315
- so TSS = ESS + BSS = 70329

$$R^2 = \frac{ESS}{TSS} = \frac{6014}{70329} = 0.0855$$

 Using the simplified R output below, interpret the coefficients and comment on the overall fit of the model.

Goodness of Fit (post-lecture video, very important)

```
Call:
lm(formula = lexp ~ gnppc, data = lifeexp)
Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 69.44836458 0.54798213 126.735 < 2e-16 ***
            0.00032342 0.00004012 8.061 3.45e-11 ***
gnppc
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.? 0.1 '' 1
Residual standard error: 3.36 on 61 degrees of freedom
(5 observations deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.5158, Adjusted R-squared: 0.5079
F-statistic: 64.98 on 1 and 61 DF, p-value: 3.452e-11
```

• where *lexp* is the life expectancy at birth in years and *gnppc* the gross national product per capita measured in USD.

Review: 6 OLS assumptions

 Using the Anova output below, calculate R<sup>2</sup> and explain how well the weight (wt, Weight in 1000lbs) of a car can explain the fuel consumption (mpg) of a car.

#### What to do next:

- Attempt homework 3
- Revise basic R commands from R Workshop 1
- Read chapter 2.1 2.7 of Dougherty