



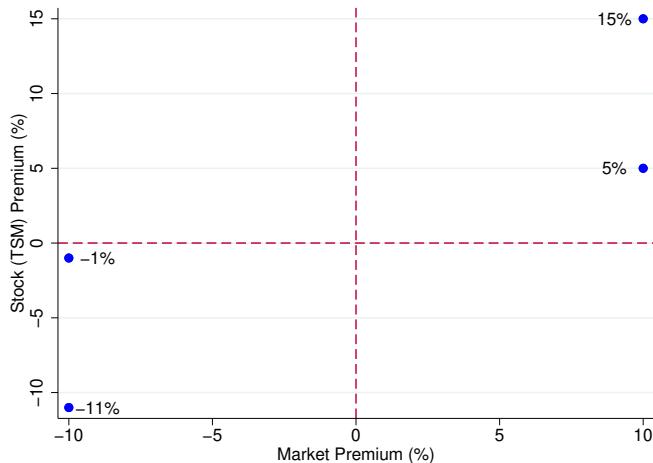
Financial Econometrics

Basic Regression

Tim C.C. Hung 洪志清

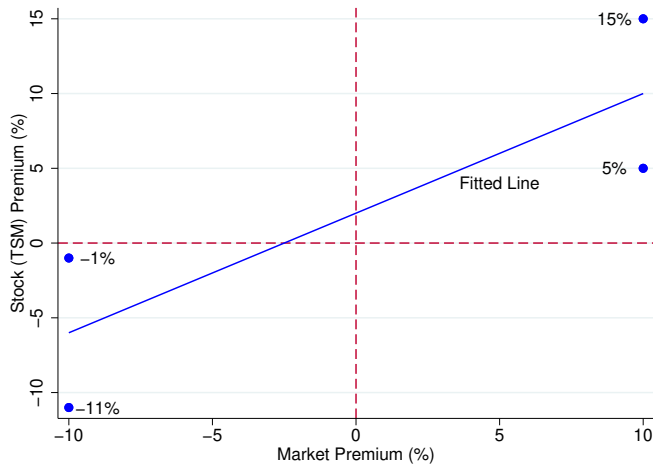
February 21st, 2022

Example: Naive CAPM



- What is the relationship between TSM premium and market premium?

Example: Naive CAPM



- A fitted line that describes their relationship.



- A simple (univariate) linear regression model (of the population) can be stated as the following:

$$r(x) = E[Y|X = x] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

- This **partially** describes the data generating process in the population. (We will talk more about the DGP in multivariate regressions.)
- Y = dependent variable
- X = independent variable
- β_0, β_1 = population intercept and population slope
Things we are interested! What we want to estimate!

Sample Linear Regression Function



- The **estimated** or sample regression function is:

$$\hat{r}(X_i) = \hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$$

- $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ are the estimated intercept and slope.
- \hat{Y}_i is the fitted/predicted value.
- We also have the residuals, \hat{u}_i , which are the differences between the true Y and the predicted ones: $\hat{u}_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$.
- You can think of the residuals as the prediction errors of our estimates.

Things to Catch Up!



- How to run and read regressions?
- Mechanics: How to estimate the intercept and slope?
- Properties: How good are these estimates?
- Statistic inference: How do we test the estimates and how do we interpret them?

Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)

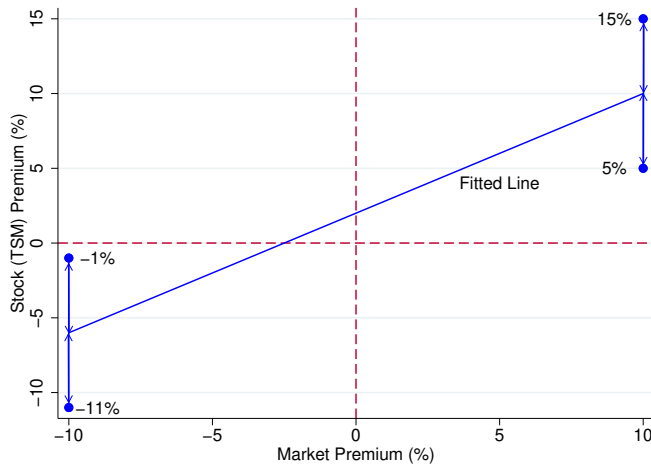


- An estimator of the regression line.
- It is derived by **minimizing the squared prediction errors** of the regression:

$$(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1) = \arg \min_{b_0, b_1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i)^2$$

- Alternatively, the OLS estimates are the intercept and slope that minimize the **sum of the squared residuals**.

Example: Naive CAPM



- Minimizing the **sum of squares** of the arrowed lines.

Derive the OLS estimators



- Let's think about n pairs of sample observations:
 $(Y_1, X_1), (Y_2, X_2), (Y_3, X_3), \dots, (Y_n, X_n)$
- Let $\{b_0, b_1\}$ be possible value for $\{\beta_0, \beta_1\}$.
- Define the least square objective function:

$$S(b_0, b_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i)^2$$

- How do we derive the LS estimators for β_0 and β_1 ? We want to minimize this function, which is actually a very well-defined calculus problem.
 - 1 Take partial derivative of S with respect to b_0 and b_1 .
 - 2 Set each of the partial derivatives to 0.
 - 3 Solve for $\{b_0, b_1\}$.

Take Partial Derivatives



$$\begin{aligned} S(b_0, b_1) &= \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i)^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i^2 + b_0^2 + b_1^2 X_i^2 - 2Y_i b_0 - 2Y_i b_1 X_i + 2b_0 b_1 X_i) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial S(b_0, b_1)}{\partial b_0} &= \sum_{i=1}^n (-2Y_i + 2b_0 + 2b_1 X_i) \\ &= -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial S(b_0, b_1)}{\partial b_1} &= \sum_{i=1}^n (-2Y_i X_i + 2b_0 X_i + 2b_1 X_i^2) \\ &= -2 \sum_{i=1}^n X_i (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i) \end{aligned}$$

Solve for the Intercept



$$\frac{\partial S(b_0, b_1)}{\partial b_0} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i)$$

$$0 = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i)$$

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i)$$

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i - \sum_{i=1}^n b_0 - \sum_{i=1}^n b_1 X_i$$

$$b_0 * n = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \right) - b_1 \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right)$$

$$b_0 = \bar{Y} - b_1 \bar{X}$$



- Lemmas are like helper results that are often invoked repeatedly.

Lemma (Deviations from the Mean Sum to 0)

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i) - n\bar{X} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i) - n * \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i/n) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i) - \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i) \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

Solve for the Slope



$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= -2 \sum_{i=1}^n X_i(Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n X_i(Y_i - b_0 - b_1 X_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n X_i(Y_i - (\bar{Y} - b_1 \bar{X}) - b_1 X_i) \quad (\text{sub in } b_0) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n X_i(Y_i - \bar{Y} - b_1(X_i - \bar{X})) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n X_i(Y_i - \bar{Y}) - b_1 \sum_{i=1}^n X_i(X_i - \bar{X}) \\ b_1 \sum_{i=1}^n X_i(X_i - \bar{X}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n X_i(Y_i - \bar{Y}) - \bar{X} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y}) \quad (\text{add 0}) \end{aligned}$$

Solve for the Slope



$$\begin{aligned} b_1 \sum_{i=1}^n X_i(X_i - \bar{X}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n X_i(Y_i - \bar{Y}) - \bar{X} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n X_i(Y_i - \bar{Y}) - \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{X}(Y_i - \bar{Y}) \end{aligned}$$

$$b_1 \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i(X_i - \bar{X}) - \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{X}(X_i - \bar{X}) \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y}) \text{ (add 0)}$$

$$b_1 \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(X_i - \bar{X}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})$$

$$b_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$



- We're Done! Here are the OLS estimators:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$
$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}$$

- Can you calculate $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ in our CAPM example by hand?



- The intercept equation tells us that the regression line goes through the point (\bar{Y}, \bar{X}) : $\bar{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}$
- The slope for the regression line can be written as the following:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} = \frac{(\text{Sample}) \text{Cov}(X, Y)}{(\text{Sample}) \text{Var}(X)}$$

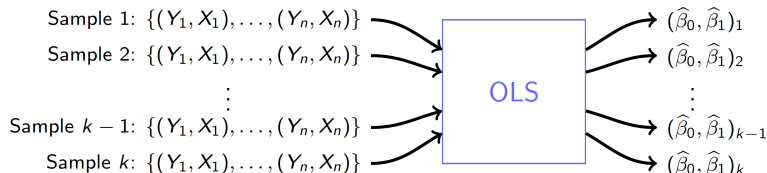
- The higher the covariance between X and Y , the higher the slope.
- What if X_i does not vary? \rightarrow undefined fraction \rightarrow non-identifiable.
- What if Y_i does not vary? Flat line!



- The sample mean of the residual is zero: $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i = 0$
- The residuals will be uncorrelated with the predictor: $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \hat{u}_i = 0$
 $\rightarrow \widehat{Cov}(X_i, \hat{u}_i) = 0$
- The residuals will be uncorrelated with the fitted values: $\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{Y}_i \hat{u}_i = 0$
 $\rightarrow \widehat{Cov}(\hat{Y}_i, \hat{u}_i) = 0$
- You should be able to derive the above results from the PDs.
- We can rewrite $\hat{\beta}_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n W_i Y_i$, where $W_i = \frac{(X_i - \bar{X})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$
This is why OLS is a linear estimator.



- Remember, OLS is an estimator -
it's a machine that we plug samples to get our estimates.



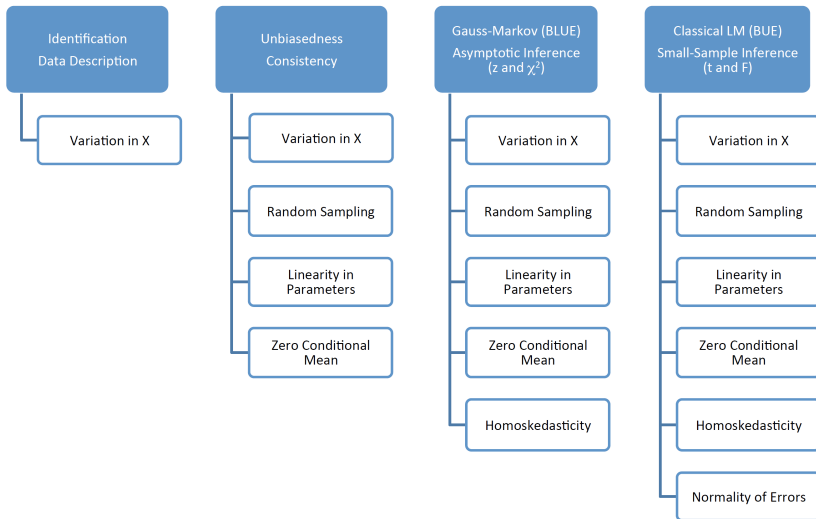
- Just like the sample mean or the sample variance, it has a sampling distribution, with a sampling variance/standard error.
- Now, what is the sampling distribution of the OLS slope? $\hat{\beta}_1 \sim (?, ?)$

Classic Linear Regression Model (CLRM) Assumptions



- 1 **Linearity in Parameters:** The population model is linear in its parameters and correctly specified.
- 2 **Random Sampling:** The observed data represent a random sample from the population described by the model.
- 3 **Variation in X :** There is variation in the explanatory variable.
- 4 **Zero conditional mean:** Expected value of the error term is zero conditional on all values of the explanatory variable.
- 5 **Homoskedasticity:** The error term has the same variance conditional on all values of the explanatory variable.
- 6 **Normality:** The error term is independent of the explanatory variables and normally distributed.

Hierarchy of OLS Assumptions





- **Assumption 1. Linearity in Parameters:**

The population regression model is linear in its parameters and correctly specified as:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i$$

- Note that it can be nonlinear in variables

- ▶ OK: $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i$ or
 $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i^2 + u_i$ or
 $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log(X_i) + u_i$
- ▶ Not OK: $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1^2 X_i + u_i$ or
 $Y_i = \beta_0 + \exp(\beta_1) X_i + u_i$

- β_0, β_1 : Population parameters: fixed and unknown.

- u_i : Unobserved random variable with $E[u_i] = 0$

Usually called the **error term** or the **innovation term**.

Captures all other factors influencing Y_i other than X_i

VERY IMPORTANT: $u_i \neq \hat{u}_i$, the error term is not the residual!!



- **Assumption II. Random Sampling:**

The observed data: (Y_i, X_i) for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ represent an *i.i.d.* random sample of size n following the population model.

- **Assumption III. Variation in X :**

The observed data: X_i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ are not all the same value.

- Why do we need this? $\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$



- **Assumption IV. Zero Conditional Mean Error:**

The expected value of the error term is zero conditional on any value of the explanatory variable: $E[u_i|X_i = x] = 0$ for all x .

- $E[u_i|X] = 0$ implies a slightly weaker condition $Cov(X, u) = 0$
- Given random sampling, $E[u|X] = 0$ also implies $E[u_i|X_i] = 0$ for all i .

OLS Unbiasedness



- With CLRM assumptions 1-4, $E[\hat{\beta}_1] = \beta_1$!

- Let's prove it!

- Again, with $W_i = \frac{(X_i - \bar{X})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$, we can show that $\sum_{i=1}^n W_i X_i = 1$

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n W_i X_i &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{X_i (X_i - \bar{X})}{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2} \\&= \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i (X_i - \bar{X}) \\&= \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i (X_i - \bar{X}) - \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{X} (X_i - \bar{X}) \right] \\&= \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = 1\end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}_1 &= \sum_{i=1}^n W_i Y_i \\&= \sum_{i=1}^n W_i (\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i) \\&= \beta_0 \left(\sum_{i=1}^n W_i \right) + \beta_1 \left(\sum_{i=1}^n W_i X_i \right) + \sum_{i=1}^n W_i u_i \\&= (0) + \beta_1 * (1) + \sum_{i=1}^n W_i u_i \\&= \beta_1 + \sum_{i=1}^n W_i u_i\end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned} E[\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1 | X] &= E\left[\sum_{i=1}^n W_i u_i | X\right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n E[W_i u_i | X] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n W_i E[u_i | X] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n W_i 0 \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$



- Recall that $\hat{\beta}_1 = \beta_1 + \sum_{i=1}^n W_i u_i$

- Under iid sampling, we have:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n W_i u_i = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}) u_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \xrightarrow{p} \frac{Cov(X_i, u_i)}{Var(X_i)}$$

- Under A4 (zero conditional mean error), we have the slightly weaker property $Cov(X_i, u_i) = 0$ as long as $Var(X_i) > 0$. We then have $\hat{\beta}_1 \xrightarrow{p} \beta_1$
- Filling the blank: $\hat{\beta}_1 \sim ?(\beta_1, ?)$

OLS Assumption 5

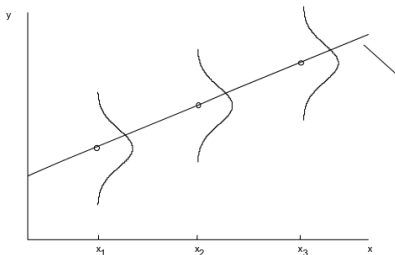


- To derive $Var(\hat{\beta}_0)$ and $Var(\hat{\beta}_1)$, let's make the following assumption.

- **Assumption V. Homoskedasticity:**

The conditional variance of the error term is constant and does not vary as a function of the explanatory variable: $Var(u|X) = \sigma_u^2$

- All errors have an identical error variance, $\sigma_{u_i}^2 = \sigma_u^2$ for all i .





- Together, Assumptions 1-5 imply:

$$E[Y|X] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$$

$$\text{Var}[Y|X] = \sigma_u^2$$

- Violation: $\text{Var}[u|X = x_1] \neq \text{Var}[u|X = x_2]$ is called **heteroskedasticity**.
- Assumption 1-5 are collectively known as the Gauss-Markov assumptions.

Derive Sampling Variance



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1|X) &= \text{Var}(\beta_1 + \sum_{i=1}^n W_i u_i | X) \\ &= \text{Var}(\sum_{i=1}^n W_i u_i | X) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n W_i^2 \text{Var}(u_i | X) \quad (\text{A2: i.i.d.}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n W_i^2 \sigma_u^2 \quad (\text{A5: homoskedasticity}) \\ &= \sigma_u^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{X_i - \bar{X}}{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2} \right)^2 \\ &= \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \end{aligned}$$

Derive Sampling Variance



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_0|X) &= \text{Var}(\bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}|X) \\ &= \text{Var}(\bar{Y}|X) + \bar{X}^2 \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1|X) - 2\bar{X} \text{Cov}(\bar{Y}, \hat{\beta}_1|X) \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i|X\right) + \frac{\bar{X}^2 \sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} - 0 \\ &= \frac{\sigma_u^2}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}^2 \sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \end{aligned}$$

- Why do we have 0 for $\text{Cov}(\bar{Y}, \hat{\beta}_1|X)$?

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(\bar{Y}, \hat{\beta}_1|X) &= \text{Cov}\left\{\frac{1}{n} \sum Y_i, \frac{\sum (X_j - \bar{X}) Y_j}{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2} | X\right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{n \sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \text{Cov}\left\{\sum Y_i, \sum (X_j - \bar{X}) Y_j | X\right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{n \sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \sum (X_j - \bar{X}) \sum \text{Cov}\{Y_i, Y_j | X\} = 0 \end{aligned}$$



From Gauss-Markov Theorem:

- $Var(\hat{\beta}_1|X) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$
- $Var(\hat{\beta}_0|X) = \sigma_u^2 \left\{ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \right\}$

where $Var(u|X) = \sigma_u^2$ (the error term variance)

- What drives $Var(\hat{\beta}_1|X)$?
 - ▶ $\sigma_u^2 \nearrow \Rightarrow Var(Y_i|X_i) \nearrow \Rightarrow Var(\hat{\beta}_1|X) \nearrow$
 - ▶ $n \nearrow \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \nearrow \Rightarrow Var(\hat{\beta}_1|X) \searrow$



- How do we estimate $Var(u|X) = \sigma_u^2$?
- One could try to infer from the **residual**. $\hat{u}_i = Y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 X_i$
- Reminder: The **error terms** u_i are NOT the same as the residuals \hat{u}_i .
- Intuitively, the scatter of the residuals around the fitted regression line should reflect the unseen scatter of the true population regression line.
- We can *first* measure the mean squared deviation of the residual:

$$MSD(\hat{u}) \equiv \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{u}_i - \bar{\hat{u}})^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2$$



- We will later on (in the multivariate regression session) see that under the univariate regression specification,

$$E[MSD(\hat{u})] = \frac{n-2}{n} \sigma_u^2$$

- The 2 in the numerator $n - 2$ is the *degree of freedom* in our univariate regression model.
- As a consequence, an *unbiased* estimator for the error variance is:

$$\hat{\sigma}_u^2 = s^2 = \frac{n}{n-2} MSD(\hat{u}) = \frac{n}{n-2} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2$$

OLS is BLUE :(



- Now, under CLRM assumptions 1-5, $\hat{\beta}_1 \sim ?(\beta_1, \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2})$

- Gauss-Markov Theorem:**

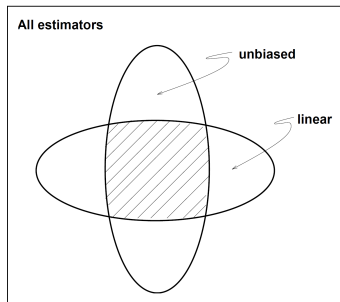
Given CLRM assumptions 1-5, OLS is **BLUE**

B est: Lowest variance in class

L inear: Among linear estimators

U nbiased: Among linear unbiased estimators

E stimator





- According to Central Limit Theorem:
The sums and means of random variables tend to be *normally* distributed in large samples.
- Therefore, in large sample, $\frac{\widehat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{SE(\widehat{\beta}_1)} \sim N(0, 1)$
- Now we know $\widehat{\beta}_1 \sim ?(\beta_1, \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2})$ and $\hat{\sigma}_u^2 = s^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2$,
can you calculate $SE(\widehat{\beta}_1)$ in our CAPM example by hand?
Do we have a large sample here?



- What if we don't have large sample?
- **Assumption VI. Normality:**
The population error term is independent of the explanatory variable, $u \perp X$, and is normally distributed with mean zero and variance σ_u^2
 $u \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$ also implies that $Y|X \sim N(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X, \sigma_u^2)$
- *Note: This also implies homoskedasticity and zero conditional mean.*
- The CLRM 1-6 assumptions imply that OLS is **BUE**
(minimum variance among all linear and non-linear unbiased estimators)
- Non-normality of the errors is a serious concern in small samples. We can partially check this assumption by looking at the residuals.
- *Something nice to know:*
Hansen, B. (2022). A Modern Gauss-Markov Theorem. *Econometrica*, forthcoming. finds that A1-A5 \Rightarrow OLS is BUE!



- If we have Y_i given X_i is distributed $N(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i, \sigma_u^2)$, then we have the following at any sample size:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} \sim N(0, 1)$$

- Furthermore, if we replace the true standard error with the estimated standard error, then we get the following:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} \sim t_{n-2}$$

- The standardized coefficient follows a t distribution $n - 2$ degrees of freedom. We take off an extra degree of freedom because we had to estimate one more parameter than just the sample mean.



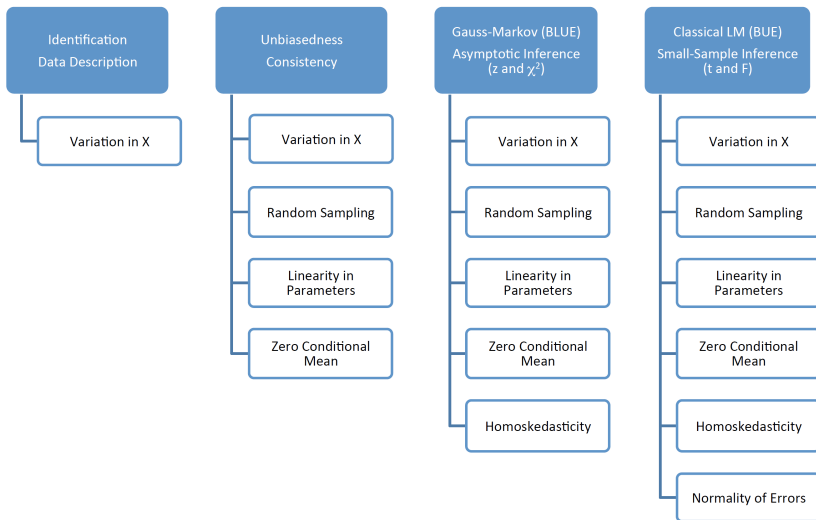
- Under Assumptions 1-5 and in large samples, we know that

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \sim N\left(\beta_1, \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}\right)$$

- Under Assumptions 1-6 and in any sample, we know that

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} \sim t_{n-2}$$

Quick Summary





- **Regression as parametric modeling:**

Let's summarize the parametric view we have taken thus far.

- Gauss-Markov assumptions:

- ▶ (A1) linearity, (A2) i.i.d. sample, (A3) variation in X , (A4) zero conditional mean error, (A5) homoskedasticity.
- ▶ basically, assume **the model is right**.

- \Rightarrow OLS is BLUE,

plus (A6) normal errors and we get small sample SEs and BUE.

- What is the basic approach here?

- ▶ A1 defines a linear model for the outcome:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i$$

- ▶ A2 and A4 let us write the CEF as function of X_i alone.

$$E[Y_i | X_i] = \mu_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i$$

- ▶ A3 guarantees that the β s are identifiable.

- ▶ A5-A6 define a probabilistic model for the conditional distribution:

$$Y_i | X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_u^2)$$



- **Agnostic views on regression**
- These assumptions assume we know a lot about how Y_i is **generated**.
- Justifications for using OLS (like BLUE/BUE) often invoke these assumptions which are unlikely to hold exactly.
- Alternative: take an agnostic view on regression.
 - ▶ Use OLS without believing these assumptions.
 - ▶ Lean on two things: **A2 i.i.d. sample, asymptotics (large-sample properties)**
- Lose the distributional assumptions and focus on approximating the best linear predictor.
- If the true CEF happens to be linear, the best linear predictor is it.



- **Unbiasedness**

- One of the results most people know is that OLS is unbiased, but unbiased for what?
- It is unbiased for the CEF under the assumption that the model is correctly specified.
- However, this could be a quite poor approximation to the true CEF if there is a great deal of non-linearity.
- We will often use OLS as a means to approximate the CEF, but don't forget that it is just an approximation!
- We will come back and revisit some of the assumptions when we get to the multivariate regression session.

Inference: Test Statistic



- Under the null of $H_0: \beta_1 = c$, we can use the following test statistic:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - c}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)}$$

- Under the null hypothesis:
 - ▶ large samples: $T \sim N(0, 1)$
 - ▶ any size sample with normal errors: $T \sim t_{n-2}$
 - ▶ conservative to use t_{n-2} anyways since t_{n-2} is approximately normal in large samples.
- Under the null, we know the distribution of T and can use that to formulate a rejection region and calculate p -values.
- Choose a level of the test, α , and find rejection regions that correspond to that value under the null distribution:

$$Pr(-t_{\alpha/2, n-2} < T < t_{\alpha/2, n-2}) = 1 - \alpha/2$$



- The interpretation of the p -value is the same:
the probability of seeing a test statistic at least this extreme if the null hypothesis were true.

- Mathematically:

$$Pr(|\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - c}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)}| \geq |T_{obs}|)$$

- If the p -value is less than α we would reject the null at the $1 - \alpha$ confidence level.
- Confidence Intervals: $\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} * SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$

Goodness of Fit (R^2)



- How do we judge how well a line fits the data?
- One way is to find out how much better we do at predicting Y once we include X into the regression model.
- Prediction errors without X : best prediction is the mean, so our squared errors, or the total sum of squares (SS_{tot}) would be:

$$SS_{\text{tot}} = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$$

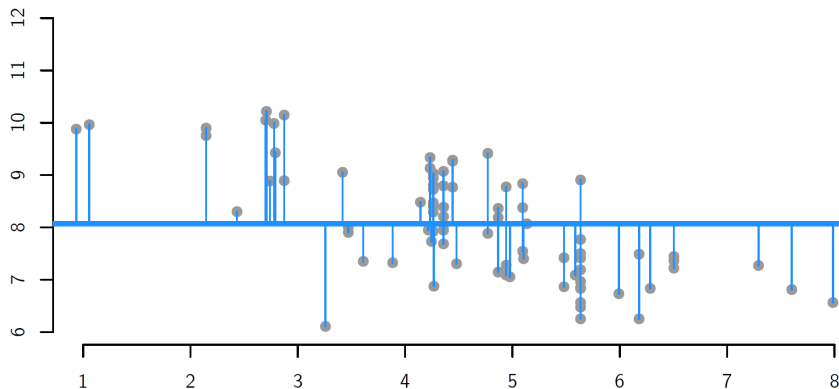
- Once we have estimated our model, we have new prediction errors, which are just the sum of the squared residuals or SS_{res} :

$$SS_{\text{res}} = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$$

Goodness of Fit (R^2)



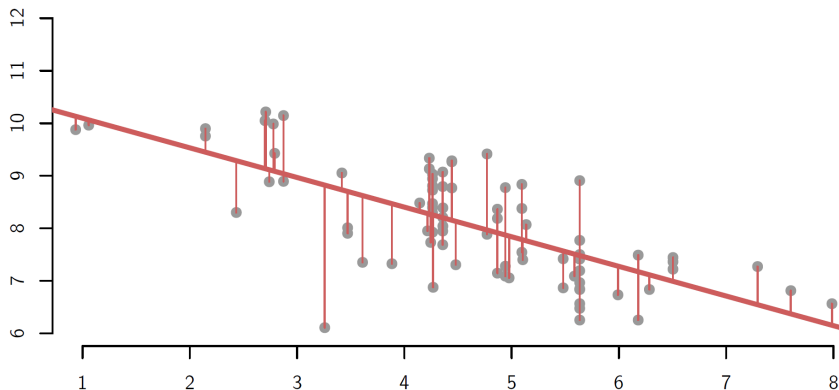
- Total Sum of Squares



Goodness of Fit (R^2)



- Residual Sum of Squares





- By definition, the residuals have to be smaller than the deviations from the mean, so we might ask the following: how much lower is the SS_{res} compared to the SS_{tot} ?

- We quantify this question with the coefficient of determination or R^2 .

$$R^2 = \frac{SS_{tot} - SS_{res}}{SS_{tot}} = 1 - \frac{SS_{res}}{SS_{tot}}$$

- This is the fraction of the total prediction error eliminated by providing information on X .
- Alternatively, this is the fraction of the variation in Y is explained by X .
- $R^2 = 0$: no relationship.
- $R^2 = 1$: perfect linearity (**Démon de Laplace**)



- Some more interesting derivations.

- ▶ Define $SS_{tot} = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$ (Total Sum of Squares)
- ▶ Define $SS_{res} = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$ (Residual Sum of Squares)
- ▶ Define $SS_{exp} = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2$ (Explained Sum of Squares)

- Quick takeaway:

$$SS_{tot} = SS_{res} + SS_{exp}$$

and

$$R^2 = \frac{SS_{tot} - SS_{res}}{SS_{tot}} = \frac{SS_{exp}}{SS_{tot}}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
 SS_{tot} &= \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n [(Y_i - \hat{Y}_i) + (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})]^2 \\
 &= SS_{res} + SS_{exp} + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)(\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)(\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i(\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_i - \bar{Y}) \\
 &= (\hat{\beta}_0 - \bar{Y}) \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i + \hat{\beta}_1 \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i X_i \\
 &= \underbrace{(0)}_{\sum \hat{u}_i = 0} + \underbrace{(0)}_{\sum X_i \hat{u}_i = 0} = 0
 \end{aligned}$$



- Lastly, $R^2 = \sigma_{XY}^2 = \sigma_{\hat{Y}Y}^2$
- Why? First: $\bar{\hat{Y}} \equiv \frac{1}{n} \sum \hat{Y}_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum \hat{\beta}_0 + \frac{1}{n} \sum \hat{\beta}_1 X_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X} = \bar{Y}$
- So, we can rewrite
$$SS_{exp} = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{\hat{Y}})^2 = (n-1)Var(\hat{Y})$$
- $$R^2 = \frac{SS_{exp}}{SS_{tot}} = \frac{(n-1)Var(\hat{Y})}{(n-1)Var(Y)} = \frac{Var(\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X)}{Var(Y)} = \hat{\beta}_1^2 \frac{Var(X)}{Var(Y)}$$
$$= \left(\frac{Cov(X,Y)}{Var(X)} \right)^2 \frac{Var(X)}{Var(Y)} = \frac{Cov(X,Y)^2}{Var(X)Var(Y)} = \left(\frac{Cov(X,Y)}{\sqrt{Var(X)}\sqrt{Var(Y)}} \right)^2 = \sigma_{XY}^2$$
- This result is very useful when we are dealing with non-linear regressions (e.g. *Probit* or *Logit*) that do not have R^2 .
→ We can instead calculate $\sigma_{\hat{Y}Y}^2$. This statistic is called **Pseudo- R^2** .



- There are a few things we have not covered in univariate regression.
 - ▶ The general form of OLS.
 - ▶ Prove of BLUE and BUE of OLS under Gauss-Markov.
 - ▶ Why $\frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i^2$ is an unbiased estimator for σ_u^2
 - ▶ How to deal with heteroskedasticity when we do not have A5.
 - ▶ Why sample mean is also a least square estimator.
 - ▶ Relationship between multiple independent (explanatory) variables.
 - ▶ Hypothesis testing of multiple coefficient estimates (and the entire model).
- We will first review for some matrix properties and show you the general multivariate regression derivations.