

# Regression Analysis

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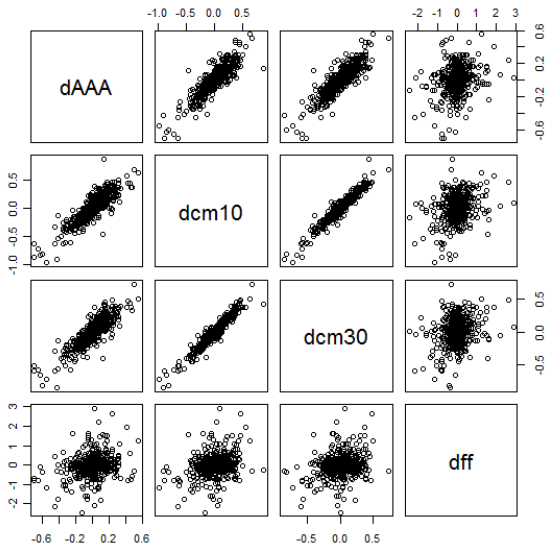
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# AAA corporate bond yield

- How is the change in AAA corporate bond yield related to changes in 10-year treasury rate, 30-year treasury rate, overnight federal funds rate, etc.?
- Weekly changes in interest rates from 2/16/1977 to 12/29/1993: dAAA (weekly change in AAA corporate bond yield), dcm10 (weekly change in 10-year treasury rate), dcm30 (weekly change in 30-year treasury rate), dff (weekly change in overnight federal funds rate)

```
> data=read.csv("InterestRates.csv",header=T)
> dAAA=diff(data$aaa)
> dcm10=diff(data$cm10)
> dcm30=diff(data$cm30)
> dff=diff(data$ff)
> pairs(cbind(dAAA,dcm10,dcm30,dff))
```

# Scatterplot matrix



- From the scatterplot matrix, it seems that there is some linear relationship between change in AAA corporate bond yield and changes in 10-year and 30-year treasure rates
- Observing changes in 10-year and 30-year treasure rates, how much can we say about the change in AAA corporate bond yield
- Regression analysis studies how a **dependent variable** (dAAA) is related to some **explanatory variables/regressors** (dcm10, dcm30)

# 1. Linear regression model: assumptions

Ruppert 2011, §12.1; Hayashi 2000, §1.1

# Linearity assumption

- Suppose there are  $K$  regressors. For  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , denote

$Y_i$  : the  $i$ th observation of the dependent variable

$X_{ik}$  : the  $i$ th observation of the  $k$ th regressor,  $1 \leq k \leq K$

- We assume the following **linear regression model**

$$Y_i = \beta_1 X_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_K X_{iK} + \epsilon_i, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n$$

A constant term can be included by letting  $X_{i1} \equiv 1$

- **Regression coefficient**  $\beta_k$ : the amount of change in the dependent variable when the  $k$ th regressor changes by 1 unit
- $\epsilon_i$ : the  $i$ th error term; the part of the dependent variable left unexplained by the regressors

- How restrictive is the linearity assumption?
- Suppose the relationship between the dependent variable  $Y$  and explanatory variable  $W$  is

$$Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 W_i^2 + \epsilon_i$$

- Define  $X_i := W_i^2$ , we return to the linear regression model
- Power, logarithm, exponential functions are commonly used transformations

- Matrix form useful for clarity
- In matrix form,  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$

$$\mathbf{X}_i = \begin{bmatrix} X_{i1} \\ \vdots \\ X_{iK} \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}_1^\top \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{X}_n^\top \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & \cdots & X_{1K} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ X_{n1} & \cdots & X_{nK} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}, \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_K \end{bmatrix}, \boldsymbol{\epsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\mathbf{X}_i$  is the  $i$ th observation of the regressors



# Zero mean assumption

- The error term has **zero conditional mean**

$$\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i|\mathbf{X}] := \mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i|\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n] = 0, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n$$

- By iterated conditioning, the error term has **zero unconditional mean**

$$\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i|\mathbf{X}]] = 0$$

- The regressors are **orthogonal** to the error term:  $\forall 1 \leq k \leq K, 1 \leq i, j \leq n,$

$$\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i X_{jk}] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i X_{jk}|\mathbf{X}]] = \mathbb{E}[X_{jk} \mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i|\mathbf{X}]] = 0$$

- The regressors are **uncorrelated** with the error term:

$$\text{cov}(\epsilon_i, X_{jk}) = \mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i X_{jk}] - \mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i] \mathbb{E}[X_{jk}] = 0$$

# No multicollinearity assumption

- We assume no **multicollinearity**: the rank of the  $n \times K$  matrix  $\mathbf{X}$  is  $K$  ( $n \geq K$  then must hold)
- $\mathbf{X}$  has  $K$  columns, with  $k$ th column containing the  $n$  observations of the  $k$ th regressor
- No **multicollinearity** requires that the  $K$  columns be linearly independent: otherwise, some  $k$ th column can be expressed as a linear combination of the other columns;  $k$ th regressor is **redundant**
- For example, in the following model, the 2nd and 3rd regressors are identical; one is redundant

$$Y_i = \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \beta_3 X_{i2} + \epsilon_i$$

# Homoskedasticity and zero correlation assumption

- We assume conditional **homoskedasticity**

$$\text{var}(\epsilon_i|\mathbf{X}) = \mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i^2|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 > 0, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n$$

and **zero conditional correlation** in the error term:

$$\text{cov}(\epsilon_i, \epsilon_j|\mathbf{X}) = \mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i\epsilon_j|\mathbf{X}] = 0, \quad 1 \leq i \neq j \leq n$$

- The above is equivalent to

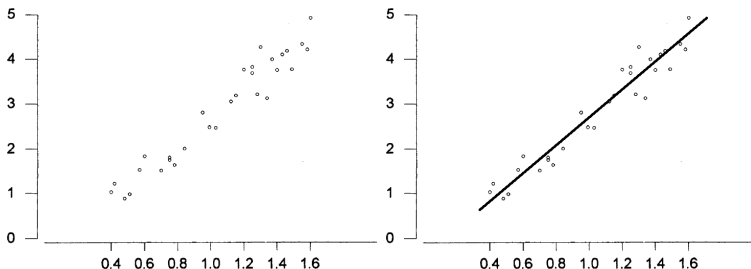
$$\mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{\epsilon}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^\top|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 I_n$$

where  $I_n$  is a  $n \times n$  identity matrix

## 2. Simple regression model: estimation

Ruppert 2011, §12.2; Hayashi 2000, §1.2

- Suppose  $Y$  is the dependent variable,  $X$  is an explanatory variable.  $n$  pairs are observed:  $(X_i, Y_i)$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . A scatter plot shows



- Data suggest that the dependent variable is a linear function of the regressor, plus a random deviation

- **Simple regression** model:

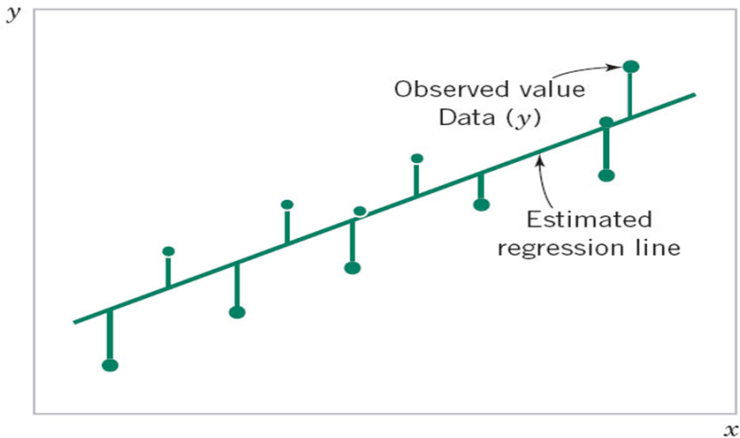
$$Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_i + \epsilon_i, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n$$

- Assumptions for the simple regression model:

- (1)  $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i | X_1, \dots, X_n] = 0$ ;
- (2)  $X_i$ 's are not constant;
- (3)  $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i^2 | X_1, \dots, X_n] = \sigma^2 > 0$ ;
- (4)  $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i \epsilon_j | X_1, \dots, X_n] = 0, 1 \leq i \neq j \leq n$

# The regression line

- Determine the regression line  $y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x$  by minimizing the distance between the observations and the fitted line



- Distance between  $Y_i$  and  $\beta_1 + \beta_2 X_i$

$$Y_i - \beta_1 - \beta_2 X_i$$

- Ordinary least squares estimation: minimize

$$L(\beta_1, \beta_2) = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \beta_1 - \beta_2 X_i)^2$$



- From calculus,

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_2} = 0 \Rightarrow \beta_2 \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 + \beta_1 \sum_{i=1}^n X_i = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_1} = 0 \Rightarrow \beta_1 + \beta_2 \bar{X}_n = \bar{Y}_n$$

where  $\bar{X}_n, \bar{Y}_n$  are sample means

- **Ordinary least squares estimators**

$$\hat{\beta}_2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)(Y_i - \bar{Y}_n)}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2}, \quad \hat{\beta}_1 = \bar{Y}_n - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_n$$

- Denote

$$S_{XX} = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2$$

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

Then

$$\hat{\beta}_2 = \frac{S_{XY}}{S_{XX}}, \quad \hat{\beta}_1 = \bar{Y}_n - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_n$$

- *i*th **fitted value**

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 X_i$$

Part of the dependent variable explained by the regressors

- *i*th OLS **residual**

$$\hat{\epsilon}_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i = Y_i - \hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2 X_i$$

Part of the dependent variable not explained by the regressors

- Residuals can be used to estimate  $\sigma^2$

- Note that sample mean of  $\hat{\epsilon}_i$ 's is zero

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i = \bar{Y}_n - \hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_n = 0$$

- OLS estimator for  $\sigma^2$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$$

$\hat{\sigma}^2$  is an **unbiased** estimator of  $\sigma^2$ ;  $n - 2$  is the **degrees of freedom**

- Estimating the unknown variance  $\sigma^2$  of a distribution with known mean  $\mu$  and random sample  $X_1, \dots, X_n$

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

is unbiased; each term in the summation represents independent information; degrees of freedom is  $n$

- To see unbiasedness,

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 \right] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[(X_i - \mathbb{E}[X_i])^2] = \sigma^2$$

- Estimating the variance of a distribution with unknown mean and random sample  $X_1, \dots, X_n$

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

is unbiased; only  $n - 1$  terms in the summation represent independent information; degrees of freedom is  $n - 1$

- The last term  $X_n - \bar{X}_n$  is a linear combination of the previous  $n - 1$  terms since

$$X_1 - \bar{X}_n + \dots + X_{n-1} - \bar{X}_n + X_n - \bar{X}_n = 0$$

- For the OLS estimator for  $\sigma^2$ ,

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2 X_i)^2$$

only  $n - 2$  terms in the following summation represent independent information; degrees of freedom is  $n - 2$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2 X_i) = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2 X_i) X_i = 0$$

(Recall how OLS estimators were obtained)

### 3. Simple regression model: analysis

Ruppert 2011, §12.2; Hayashi 2000, §1.3



- OLS estimator  $\hat{\beta}_2$  is unbiased with  $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta}_2] = \beta_2$  since

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta}_2|\mathbf{X}] &= \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)(Y_i - \bar{Y}_n)}{S_{XX}} \middle| \mathbf{X}\right] \\&= \frac{1}{S_{XX}} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n) \mathbb{E}[(Y_i - \bar{Y}_n)|\mathbf{X}] \\&= \frac{1}{S_{XX}} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n) (\beta_1 + \beta_2 X_i - (\beta_1 + \beta_2 \bar{X}_n)) \\&= \beta_2\end{aligned}$$

- $\hat{\beta}_1$  is unbiased with  $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta}_1] = \beta_1$  since

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta}_1|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbb{E}[\bar{Y}_n - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_n|\mathbf{X}] = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \bar{X}_n - \beta_2 \bar{X}_n = \beta_1$$

- Note that

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}_2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{X_i - \bar{X}_n}{S_{XX}} Y_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{X_i - \bar{X}_n}{S_{XX}} (\beta_1 + \beta_2 X_i + \epsilon_i)\end{aligned}$$

- Recall the zero conditional correlation assumption:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2|\mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{S_{XX}^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2 \text{var}(\epsilon_i|\mathbf{X}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{S_{XX}}$$

- Estimated standard error:  $se(\hat{\beta}_2|\mathbf{X}) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{S_{XX}}}$

# Standard error for $\hat{\beta}_1$

- Recall that  $\hat{\beta}_1 = \bar{Y}_n - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_n$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{cov}(\bar{Y}_n, \hat{\beta}_2 | \mathbf{X}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{X_i - \bar{X}_n}{S_{XX}} \text{cov}(\bar{Y}_n, Y_i | \mathbf{X}) \\ &= \frac{\sigma^2}{n S_{XX}} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n) = 0\end{aligned}$$

- Variance and estimated standard error of  $\hat{\beta}_1$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1 | \mathbf{X}) = \text{var}(\bar{Y}_n | \mathbf{X}) + \bar{X}_n^2 \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2 | \mathbf{X}) = \sigma^2 \left( \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}_n^2}{S_{XX}} \right)$$

$$\text{se}(\hat{\beta}_1 | \mathbf{X}) = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}_n^2}{S_{XX}}}$$

# AAA Bond yield and 30-year treasure rate

```
> fit=lm(dAAA~dcm30)
> summary(fit)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = dAAA ~ dcm30)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-0.34351	-0.03247	-0.00156	0.02961	0.40110

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	-0.0001208	0.0022570	-0.054	0.957
dcm30	0.6853163	0.0137830	49.722	<2e-16 ***

---

Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.06695 on 878 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.7379, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7376

F-statistic: 2472 on 1 and 878 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

- Let  $Y$  be change in AAA corporate bond yield,  $X$  be change in 30-year treasury rate. Fit a simple regression model

$$Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_i + \epsilon_i$$

- R outputs:  $\hat{\beta}_1 = -0.0001$ ;  $\hat{\beta}_2 = 0.6853$ ;  $\hat{\sigma} = 0.06695$ ; number of observations  $n = 880$ ; number of regressors  $K = 2$  (including a constant regressor); degrees of freedom for estimating  $\sigma^2$ :  $n - K = 878$
- How well does the model fit the data

- The dependent variable  $Y$  varies: does it vary because the (non-constant) regressor  $X$  vary?
- If there is no linear relationship between  $Y$  and  $X$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_2 \approx 0$ :  $\sigma^2$  will be close to the variance of  $Y$
- If there is a perfect linear relationship between  $Y$  and  $X$ , variation in  $Y$  completely explained by variation in  $X$ :  $\sigma^2 = 0$
- How much variation in the dependent variable can be explained by variation in the regressors?
- A model is better if most of the variation in the dependent variable can be explained by regressors

# Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

- Variation in the dependent variable: "total sum of squares"

$$SST = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y}_n)^2$$

- Variation explained by the regression model: regression sum of squares

$$SSR = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}_n)^2 \quad \left( \text{note that } \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{Y}_i = \bar{Y}_n \right)$$

- Variation due to the noise: error sum of squares (or residual sum of squares)

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2 \quad \left( \text{note that } \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i = 0 \right)$$

- Decomposition of variation:  $SST = SSR + SSE$

$$\begin{aligned} SST &= \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i + \hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}_n)^2 \\ &= SSE + SSR + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)(\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}_n) \end{aligned}$$

- Recall  $\hat{\beta}_1 = \bar{Y}_n - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_n \Rightarrow \hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 X_i = \bar{Y}_n + \hat{\beta}_2 (X_i - \bar{X}_n)$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)(\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}_n) &= \hat{\beta}_2 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y}_n - \hat{\beta}_2 (X_i - \bar{X}_n))(X_i - \bar{X}_n) \\ &= \hat{\beta}_2 (S_{XY} - \hat{\beta}_2 S_{XX}) = 0 \end{aligned}$$



- $R^2$  (coefficient of determination) measures the proportion of variation in  $Y$  that is explained by the regression

$$R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}$$

- $R^2$  close to 1 indicates a good fitting
- $R$  = sample correlation in the simple regression model

$$\begin{aligned}\rho^2 &= \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)(Y_i - \bar{Y}_n))^2}{(\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2)(\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y}_n)^2)} = \frac{S_{XY}^2}{S_{XX}SST} \\ &= \frac{\hat{\beta}_2^2 S_{XX}}{SST} = \frac{SSR}{SST} = R^2, \left( \text{Recall } \hat{Y}_i = \bar{Y}_n + \hat{\beta}_2(X_i - \bar{X}_n) \right)\end{aligned}$$

- When dAAA is regressed on dff

sample correlation: 25.0%

$R^2$  : 6.254%

sample standard deviation of  $Y$  : 0.1307

$\hat{\sigma}$  : 0.1266

- When dAAA is regressed on dcm30

sample correlation: 85.9%

$R^2$  : 73.79%

sample standard deviation of  $Y$  : 0.1307

$\hat{\sigma}$  : 0.06695

- Degrees of freedom for each sum of squares: the number of independent pieces of information
- For SST, the  $n$  terms are  $Y_1 - \bar{Y}_n, \dots, Y_n - \bar{Y}_n$ ; there are  $n - 1$  **degrees of freedom** since

$$(Y_1 - \bar{Y}_n) + \dots + (Y_n - \bar{Y}_n) = 0$$

- For SSR, the  $n$  terms are  $\{\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}_n = \hat{\beta}_2(X_i - \bar{X}_n), 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ ; there is **1 degree of freedom**
- For SSE, recall that  $SSE = (n - 2)\hat{\sigma}^2$ , there are  $n - 2$  **degrees of freedom**

## 4. Simple regression model: inference

Ruppert 2011, §12.2; Hayashi 2000, §1.4

- Hypothesis testing: e.g., is  $\beta_2 = 0$ ?
- Confidence interval: construct a 95% CI for  $\beta_2$
- How can you predict  $Y$  from the value of  $X$  by constructing a prediction interval
- Need to specify the distribution for  $\epsilon_i$ 's
- In this part: we assume that  $\epsilon|\mathbf{X} \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I_n)$  (this implies that  $\epsilon$  is independent of  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I_n)$ )

- Since  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon$  and  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I_n)$

$$\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\beta, \sigma^2 I_n)$$

Each  $Y_i|\mathbf{X} \sim N(\beta_1 + \beta_2 X_i, \sigma^2)$ , and  $(Y_1, \dots, Y_n)^\top|\mathbf{X}$  is multivariate normal

- Note that

$$\hat{\beta}_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{X_i - \bar{X}_n}{S_{XX}} Y_i, \quad \hat{\beta}_1 = \bar{Y}_n - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_n$$

- $\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2$  as linear combinations of  $Y_i$ 's are also normal conditional on  $\mathbf{X}$

- Recall that

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2|\mathbf{X}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{S_{XX}}$$

and  $\hat{\beta}_2$  is unbiased estimator of  $\beta_2$ . Therefore,

$$\hat{\beta}_2|\mathbf{X} \sim N(\beta_2, \frac{\sigma^2}{S_{XX}})$$

- By standardization

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta_2}{\sigma/\sqrt{S_{XX}}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

- Replace  $\sigma$  by its OLS estimator  $\hat{\sigma}$ ,  $\frac{\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta_2}{\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{S_{XX}}} \sim t_{n-2}$

- Is there strong enough evidence that  $\beta_2 \neq 0$ ?
- Reject the null  $H_0 : \beta_2 = 0$  in support of  $H_1 : \beta_2 \neq 0$  at significance level  $\alpha$  if  $t_0 = \hat{\beta}_2 / (\hat{\sigma} / \sqrt{S_{XX}})$  satisfies

$$|t_0| > t_{\alpha/2, n-2}$$

where  $-t_{\alpha/2, n-2}$  is the  $\alpha/2$  quantile of  $t_{n-2}$

- Equivalently, reject  $H_0$  if p-value is less than  $\alpha$

$$\text{p-value} = \mathbb{P}(|T| > |t_0|), T \sim t_{n-2}$$

- Equivalently, reject  $H_0$  if 0 is not in the  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $\beta_2$ :  $\hat{\beta}_2 \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \hat{\sigma} / \sqrt{S_{XX}}$
- Testing whether  $\beta_2 = \beta_2^*$  for arbitrary  $\beta_2^*$  can be done similarly



## Example: dAAA and dcm30

- When dAAA is regressed on dcm30, there is strong evidence that  $\beta_2 \neq 0$ , with p-value  $2e - 16$

```
> fit=lm(dAAA~dcm30)
> summary(fit)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = dAAA ~ dcm30)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-0.34351	-0.03247	-0.00156	0.02961	0.40110

Coefficients:

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```
> confint(fit, 'dcm30', level=0.95)
```

	2.5 %	97.5 %
dcm30	0.6582648	0.7123677

- $\hat{\beta}_1|\mathbf{X}$  is normal with mean  $\beta_1$  and variance

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1|\mathbf{X}) = \sigma^2 \left( \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}_n^2}{S_{XX}} \right)$$

- By standardization,

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\sigma \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}_n^2}{S_{XX}}}} \sim N(0, 1), \quad \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}_n^2}{S_{XX}}}} \sim t_{n-2}$$

- Testing whether  $\beta_1 = 0$  (or any  $\beta_1^*$ ) can be done similarly

- For new observation  $X = X^*$ , one gets a prediction

$$\hat{Y}^* = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 X^*$$

- True value is  $Y^* = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X^* + \epsilon^*$ . Let  $\mathbf{X}^* = \{\mathbf{X}, X^*\}$ . Then  $(Y^* - \hat{Y}^*)|\mathbf{X}^*$  is normal with mean 0 and variance

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}(Y^* - \hat{Y}^*|\mathbf{X}^*) &= \text{var}(\epsilon^* - \hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2 X^*|\mathbf{X}^*) \\ &= \sigma^2 + \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1|\mathbf{X}) + (X^*)^2 \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2|\mathbf{X}) \\ &\quad + 2X^* \text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2|\mathbf{X}) \\ &= \sigma^2 + \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1|\mathbf{X}) + ((X^*)^2 - 2X^* \bar{X}_n) \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2|\mathbf{X}) \\ &= \sigma^2 \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(\bar{X}_n - X^*)^2}{S_{XX}} \right)\end{aligned}$$

For  $\text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2|\mathbf{X})$ , use  $\hat{\beta}_1 = \bar{Y}_n - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_n$  and  $\text{cov}(\bar{Y}_n, \hat{\beta}_2|\mathbf{X}) = 0$

- When replacing  $\sigma$  by  $\hat{\sigma}$ , we have

$$\frac{Y^* - \hat{Y}^*}{\hat{\sigma} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(\bar{X}_n - X^*)^2}{S_{XX}}}} \sim t_{n-2}$$

- Prediction interval around  $\hat{Y}^*$  that contains  $Y^*$  with probability  $1 - \alpha$

$$Y^* \in \hat{Y}^* \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \cdot \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(\bar{X}_n - X^*)^2}{S_{XX}}}$$

# Predicting dAAA using dcm30

- Regress dAAA on dcm30 using the first 879 observations, use the 880th observation for dcm30 to predict dAAA

```
> Y=dAAA[1:879]
> X=dcm30[1:879]
> fit=lm(Y~X)
> newdata=data.frame(X=dcm30[880])
> predict(fit,newdata,interval="predict")
           fit           lwr           upr
1 -0.03441676 -0.1659662  0.09713264
> dAAA[880]
[1] -0.01
```

- Recall that  $SST = SSR + SSE$ ,  $SSE = (n - 2)\hat{\sigma}^2$ ,  
 $SSR = \hat{\beta}_2^2 S_{XX}$
- Define

$$F = \frac{SSR}{SSE/(n - 2)} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_2^2 S_{XX}}{\hat{\sigma}^2} = \left( \frac{\hat{\beta}_2}{\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{S_{XX}}} \right)^2$$

Recall that

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta_2}{\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{S_{XX}}} \sim t_{n-2}$$

- Under  $H_0 : \beta_2 = 0$ ,  $F$  has the same distribution as the square of  $t_{n-2}$ :  $F \sim F_{1,n-2}$ ; Reject  $H_0$  when p-value  $\mathbb{P}(F_{1,n-2} > F)$  is less than  $\alpha$

- ANOVA table

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean square	F
Regression	$SSR$	1	$MSR = \frac{SSR}{1}$	$F = \frac{MSR}{MSE}$
Error	$SSE$	$n - 2$	$MSE = \frac{SSE}{n-2}$	
Total	$SST$	$n - 1$		

- ANOVA when dAAA is regressed on dcm30

```
> fit=lm(dAAA~dcm30)
> anova(fit)
Analysis of Variance Table

Response: dAAA
          Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value    Pr(>F)
dcm30       1 11.0818  11.0818   2472.3 < 2.2e-16 ***
Residuals 878   3.9356   0.0045
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

- Verify the degrees of freedom
- In simple regression models, the F-test is the same as the t-test for  $H_0 : \beta_2 = 0$ ;  $H_1 : \beta_2 \neq 0$
- $SST = 15.02$ , of which SSR is of a significant portion, indicating a reasonable fit



## 5. Multiple regression model

Hayashi 2000, §1.2, §1.3, §1.4;  
Ruppert 2011, §12.3, §12.4, §12.5

- Can dcm10 and dcm30 together better explain dAAA?
- Multiple linear regression

$$Y_i = \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \cdots + \beta_K X_{iK} + \epsilon_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$$

Assume that the first regressor is constant with  $X_{i1} \equiv 1$

- In matrix notation,  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$
- Recall the assumptions: (1)  $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i|\mathbf{X}] = 0$ ; (2) no multicollinearity; (3)  $\mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{\epsilon}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^\top|\mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 I_n$

# Ordinary least squares estimator

- Minimize

$$\begin{aligned}L(\boldsymbol{\beta}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \beta_1 X_{i1} - \beta_2 X_{i2} - \cdots - \beta_K X_{iK})^2 \\&= (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^\top (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) \\&= \mathbf{Y}^\top \mathbf{Y} - 2\mathbf{Y}^\top \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\beta}^\top \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\end{aligned}$$

Normal equations

$$\frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} = -2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{Y} + 2\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{Y}$$

- With no multicollinearity,  $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}$  is invertible
- Ordinary least squares estimator:  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{Y}$

- Fitted values using matrix notation

$$\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{Y}$$

Recall the derivation for OLS estimator  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_{i1}(Y_i - \hat{Y}_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i) = 0 \Rightarrow \bar{\hat{Y}}_n := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{Y}_i = \bar{Y}_n$$

- $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top$  is called the **projection matrix**,  
 $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top$  is called the **annihilator matrix**. They are symmetric and idempotent

$$\mathbf{P}^\top = \mathbf{P}, \quad \mathbf{P}^2 = \mathbf{P}, \quad \mathbf{P}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}$$

$$\mathbf{M}^\top = \mathbf{M}, \quad \mathbf{M}^2 = \mathbf{M}, \quad \mathbf{M}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{0}$$

- Residuals using matrix notation

$$\hat{\epsilon} = \mathbf{Y} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}} = (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P})\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{Y}$$

- Error sum of squares

$$SSE = \hat{\epsilon}^\top \hat{\epsilon} = \mathbf{Y}^\top \mathbf{M} \mathbf{Y} = \epsilon^\top \mathbf{M} \epsilon$$

with  $n - K$  degrees of freedom. It can be shown that  $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon^\top \mathbf{M} \epsilon | \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2(n - K)$

- The following OLS estimator for  $\sigma^2$  is unbiased

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{SSE}{n - K}$$

- Proof of unbiasedness using matrix notation

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta}|\mathbf{X}] &= \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X}] \\ &= (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon | \mathbf{X}] \\ &= (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \beta \\ &= \beta\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta}] = \beta$

- Computing the variance of  $\hat{\beta}$  using the matrix notation

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}(\hat{\beta}|\mathbf{X}) &= \text{var}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}), \quad \mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \\ &= \mathbf{A} \text{var}(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{A}^\top \\ &= \mathbf{A} \sigma^2 I_n \mathbf{A}^\top \\ &= \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

- $SST = SSR + SSE$

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y}_n)^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i + \hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}_n)^2 \\&= SSE + SSR + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)(\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}_n) \\&= SSE + SSR + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i) \hat{Y}_i \\&= SSE + SSR + 2(\mathbf{Y} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}})^\top \hat{\mathbf{Y}} \\&= SSE + SSR + 2\mathbf{Y}^\top \mathbf{P} \mathbf{Y} - 2\mathbf{Y}^\top \mathbf{P}^\top \mathbf{P} \mathbf{Y} \\&= SSE + SSR\end{aligned}$$



- $SST$  has  $n - 1$  degrees of freedom

$$SST = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y}_n)^2$$

- $SSE$  has  $n - K$  degrees of freedom

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

Recall the derivation for OLS estimator  $\hat{\beta}$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_{ik}(Y_i - \hat{Y}_i) = 0, \quad k = 1, \dots, K$$

- $SSR$  has  $K - 1$  degrees of freedom

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

Recall that

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 X_{i2} + \cdots + \hat{\beta}_K X_{iK}$$

$$\bar{Y}_n = \bar{\hat{Y}}_n = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_{.2} + \cdots + \hat{\beta}_K \bar{X}_{.K}, \quad \bar{X}_{.k} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ik}$$

$$\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y}_n = \sum_{k=2}^K \hat{\beta}_k (X_{ik} - \bar{X}_{.k})$$

- Goodness of fit measured by  $R^2$

$$R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}$$

- SSE will not increase when  $K$  increases (recall how least squares estimates are obtained);  $R^2$  will not decrease when  $K$  increases
- $R^2$  favors models with more predictors

- Adjusted  $R^2$  takes the number of parameters into account

$$R_{adj}^2 = 1 - \frac{MSE}{MST} = 1 - \frac{(n - K)^{-1}SSE}{(n - 1)^{-1}SST}$$

- Decrease in SSE by increasing  $K$  is accompanied by increase in  $(n - K)^{-1}$
- Introducing an extra predictor is beneficial only if there is sufficient reduction in SSE

- For statistical inference on  $\beta$ : assume that  $\epsilon|\mathbf{X} \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I_n)$
- Note that  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon$

$$\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\beta, \sigma^2 I_n)$$

- Recall that  $\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{Y}$  with mean  $\beta$  and covariance matrix  $\sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1}$  (conditional on  $\mathbf{X}$ )

$$\hat{\beta}|\mathbf{X} \sim N(\beta, \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1})$$

- For inference on  $\beta_k$ :

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k}{\sigma \sqrt{(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})_{kk}^{-1}}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

where  $(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})_{kk}^{-1}$  is the  $k$ th row and  $k$ th column entry of the matrix  $(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1}$

- Replacing  $\sigma^2$  by its OLS estimator  $\hat{\sigma}^2 = SSE/(n - K)$

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k}{\hat{\sigma} \sqrt{(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})_{kk}^{-1}}} = \frac{\frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta_k}{\sigma \sqrt{(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})_{kk}^{-1}}}}{\sqrt{\frac{SSE}{\sigma^2(n-K)}}} \sim t_{n-K}$$

The numerator  $\sim N(0, 1)$ ,  $SSE/\sigma^2 | \mathbf{X} \sim \chi_{n-K}^2$ , and they are independent (conditional on  $\mathbf{X}$ )

- Testing  $H_0 : \beta_k = 0; H_1 : \beta_k \neq 0$  can be done by
  - computing confidence interval for  $\beta_k$  and checking whether it contains 0
  - computing

$$t_{0k} := \frac{\hat{\beta}_k - 0}{\hat{\sigma} \sqrt{(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})_{kk}^{-1}}}$$

and comparing it with  $\pm t_{\alpha/2, n-K}$

- computing p-value

$$\mathbb{P}(|t_{n-K}| > |t_{0k}|)$$

and comparing it with  $\alpha$

- More general tests on the coefficients
  - $K = 4$  and  $H_0 : \beta_2 = \beta_3, \beta_4 = 0$  (the 2nd and 3rd regressors have the same effect and the 4th regressor is not useful for explaining the dependent variable)

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{r} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- $H_0 : \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_K = 0$  (none of the regressors is useful for explaining the dependent variable)

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{r} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{K-1}$$



- Distribution of  $\mathbf{R}\hat{\beta}$

$$\mathbf{R}\hat{\beta}|\mathbf{X} \sim N(\mathbf{R}\beta, \sigma^2 \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{R}^\top)$$

- For any  $d$ -dimensional random vector  $X \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$ ,

$$(X - \mu)^\top \Sigma^{-1} (X - \mu) \sim \chi_d^2$$

- Consequently,

$$(\mathbf{R}\hat{\beta} - \mathbf{R}\beta)^\top (\sigma^2 \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{R}^\top)^{-1} (\mathbf{R}\hat{\beta} - \mathbf{R}\beta) \sim \chi_{dim(\mathbf{r})}^2$$

where  $dim(\mathbf{r})$  is the dimension of  $\mathbf{r}$

- Consider  $H_0 : \mathbf{R}\beta = \mathbf{r}$ ;  $H_1 : \mathbf{R}\beta \neq \mathbf{r}$ . Under the null hypothesis  $H_0$ , the following has an  $F$  distribution

$$\frac{\frac{1}{\dim(\mathbf{r})}(\mathbf{R}\hat{\beta} - \mathbf{r})^\top (\sigma^2 \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{R}^\top)^{-1} (\mathbf{R}\hat{\beta} - \mathbf{r})}{\frac{SSE}{\sigma^2(n-K)}} \sim F_{\dim(\mathbf{r}), n-K}$$

Numerator  $\sim \chi^2_{\dim(\mathbf{r})} / \dim(\mathbf{r})$ ; denominator  $\sim \chi^2_{n-K} / (n-K)$ ; they are independent (conditional on  $\mathbf{X}$ )

- Reject  $H_0$  if the above value is larger than  $F_{\alpha, \dim(\mathbf{r}), n-K}$

## Testing $H_0 : \beta_2 = \cdots = \beta_K = 0$

- In the simple linear regression model ( $K = 2$ ), under  $H_0 : \beta_2 = 0$ , the test statistic on the previous slide becomes  $MSR/MSE \sim F_{1,n-2}$ ; reject  $H_0$  if this value is above  $F_{\alpha,1,n-2}$
- In the multiple linear regression model, under  $H_0 : \beta_2 = \cdots = \beta_K = 0$ , the test statistic becomes

$$\frac{MSR}{MSE} = \frac{SSR/(K-1)}{SSE/(n-K)} \sim F_{K-1,n-K}$$

Reject  $H_0$  if the above value is larger than  $F_{\alpha,K-1,n-K}$

- If  $H_0 : \beta_2 = \cdots = \beta_K = 0$  were rejected, at least one of the regressors is useful in explaining the dependent variable

- ANOVA table

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean square	F
Regression	$SSR$	$K - 1$	$MSR = \frac{SSR}{K-1}$	$F = \frac{MSR}{MSE}$
Error	$SSE$	$n - K$	$MSE = \frac{SSE}{n-K}$	
Total	$SST$	$n - 1$		

```
> summary(lm(dAAA~dcm30))
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = dAAA ~ dcm30)
```

Residuals:

	Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
	-0.34351	-0.03247	-0.00156	0.02961	0.40110

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	-0.0001208	0.0022570	-0.054	0.957
dcm30	0.6853163	0.0137830	49.722	<2e-16 ***

---

Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.06695 on 878 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.7379, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7376

F-statistic: 2472 on 1 and 878 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

# dAAA on dcm10, dcm30 and dff

```
> summary(lm(dAAA~dcm30+dcm10+dff))
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = dAAA ~ dcm30 + dcm10 + dff)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-0.33484	-0.03115	-0.00059	0.03062	0.39986

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	-9.069e-05	2.179e-03	-0.042	0.967
dcm30	3.002e-01	5.003e-02	6.000	2.88e-09 ***
dcm10	3.545e-01	4.512e-02	7.858	1.14e-14 ***
dff	4.122e-03	5.282e-03	0.780	0.435

---

Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.06463 on 876 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.7563, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7555

F-statistic: 906.2 on 3 and 876 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

# dAAA on dcm10 and dcm30

```
> summary(lm(dAAA~dcm30+dcm10))
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = dAAA ~ dcm30 + dcm10)
```

Residuals:

	Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
	-0.33450	-0.03139	-0.00049	0.03032	0.40748

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	-9.376e-05	2.178e-03	-0.043	0.966
dcm30	2.968e-01	4.983e-02	5.956	3.73e-09 ***
dcm10	3.602e-01	4.452e-02	8.092	1.96e-15 ***

---

Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.06462 on 877 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.7561, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7556

F-statistic: 1360 on 2 and 877 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

- Regress dAAA on dcm30, dcm10 and dff: p-value for the F-test on  $H_0 : \beta_{dcm30} = \beta_{dcm10} = \beta_{dff} = 0$  is less than  $2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ ;  $H_0$  is rejected; some of the regressors are useful in explaining dAAA
- dff may not be useful in explaining dAAA when dcm30 and dcm10 are present: p-value for the t-test on  $H_0 : \beta_{dff} = 0$  is 0.435; fail to reject  $H_0 : \beta_{dff} = 0$
- Regress dAAA on dcm10 and dcm30:  $R^2_{adj}$  chooses this model with a value of 0.7556
- $R^2$  always favors models with more regressors and is not suitable for model selection



- dAAA regressed on dcm30:  $R^2 = 0.7379$
- dAAA regressed on dcm30 and dcm10:  $R^2 = 0.7561$
- $R^2$  not increasing significantly doesn't mean dcm10 is less useful in explaining dAAA
- dAAA regressed on dcm10:  $R^2 = 0.7463$
- dcm10 and dcm30 are highly correlated (correlation coefficient 96.4%); adding dcm10 to a model with regressor dcm30 is useful but improvement is limited

- dAAA regressed on dcm30, dcm10 and dff: p-value for  $H_0 : \beta_{dff} = 0$  is 0.435;  $H_0$  rejected
- dAAA regressed on dff: p-value for  $H_0 : \beta_{dff} = 0$  is  $5.2 \times 10^{-14}$ ;  $H_0$  not rejected
- If dff is the only regressor, it provides useful info; when dcm30 and dcm10 are present, it is redundant
- A small p-value for testing  $H_0 : \beta_k = 0$  doesn't exclude nonlinear relation between  $k$ th regressor and the dependent variable; similarly for a large p-value
- Graphical analysis is useful (e.g., scatter plots)

## 6. Regression diagnostics

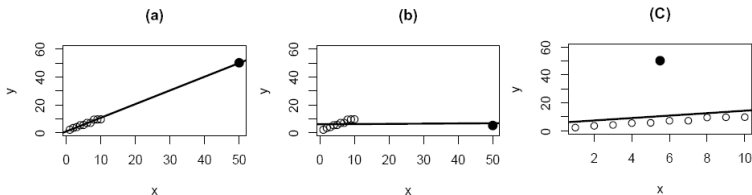
Ruppert 2011, Chapter 13

# What can go wrong

- Data entered incorrectly
- Data used are not what one thinks
- Assumptions of linear regression violated
  - Linearity
  - $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon|\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{0}$
  - No multicollinearity and  $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}$  is non-singular
  - $E[\epsilon\epsilon^\top | \mathbf{X}] = \sigma^2 I_n$
  - Normality:  $\epsilon|\mathbf{X} \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I_n)$

# Leverage points and residual outliers

- Problems with data may lead to unusual observations
- Unusual observations may significantly affect the outcome and should be treated carefully
- Consider  $Y_i = 1 + X_i + \epsilon_i$ , where  $0 \leq X_i \leq 10$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq 10$ ,  $X_{11} = 50$



- (a): the 11th observation is a leverage point; not causing problem; (b):  $Y_{11}$  recorded mistakenly; a leverage point; significant bias in  $\hat{\beta}_2$ ; (c):  $X_{11}$  recorded mistakenly; a residual outlier; bias in  $\hat{\beta}_1$

- Leverage points could be identified by computing their leverages or using graphics; residual outliers can be identified from residual plots
- They may distort the fitting and are worth further investigation
- Should be eliminated from the data if they were included by mistake
- **Example:** a simple linear regression model is used to study the relation between the coupon rate of a bond and its price. Data can be found on <http://www.stat.tamu.edu/sheather/book/docs/datasets/bonds.txt>

```
> bonds <- read.table("bonds.txt",header=TRUE)
> slg <- lm(bonds$BidPrice~bonds$CouponRate)
> summary(slg)
```

# Direct simple linear regression fitting

Call:

```
lm(formula = bonds$BidPrice ~ bonds$CouponRate)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-8.249	-2.470	-0.838	2.550	10.515

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	74.7866	2.8267	26.458	< 2e-16 ***
bonds\$CouponRate	3.0661	0.3068	9.994	1.64e-11 ***

---

Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 4.175 on 33 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.7516, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7441

F-statistic: 99.87 on 1 and 33 DF, p-value: 1.645e-11

- Coupon rate seems useful in explaining bond price: p-value for testing  $H_0 : \beta_2 = 0$  is 1.64e-11;  $R_{adj}^2 = 0.74$

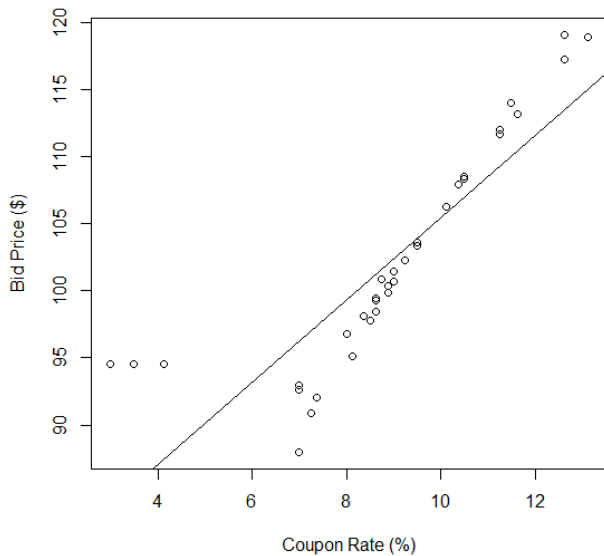
$$\text{Bond price} = 74.79 + 3.07\text{Coupon rate} + \epsilon$$

- A scatter plot reveals that something might be wrong

```
> plot(bonds$CouponRate,bonds$BidPrice,xlab="Coupon Rate (%)", ylab="Bid Price ($)")  
> abline(lsfitted(bonds$CouponRate,bonds$BidPrice))
```

- The three data points on the left seem to affect the fitting significantly by dragging the regression line towards themselves





- Further investigation reveals that the 4th, 13th and 35th observations correspond to bonds with tax advantages (thus more expensive) and shouldn't have been included for studying regular bonds
- Eliminating the 4th, 13th and 35th observations
- Newly fitted model:  
Bond price =  $57.29 + 4.83 \text{Coupon rate} + \epsilon$ .  $R_{adj}^2 = 98.47\%$

```
> slg1 <- update(slg, subset=(1:35)[-c(4,13,35)])
> plot(bonds$CouponRate[-c(4,13,35)],bonds$BidPrice[-c(4,13,35)])
> abline(slg1)
> summary(slg1)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = bonds$BidPrice ~ bonds$CouponRate, subset = (1:35)[-c(4,
  13, 35)])
```

Residuals:

	Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
	-3.1301	-0.3789	0.2240	0.4576	1.8099

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	57.2932	1.0358	55.31	<2e-16 ***
bonds\$CouponRate	4.8338	0.1082	44.67	<2e-16 ***

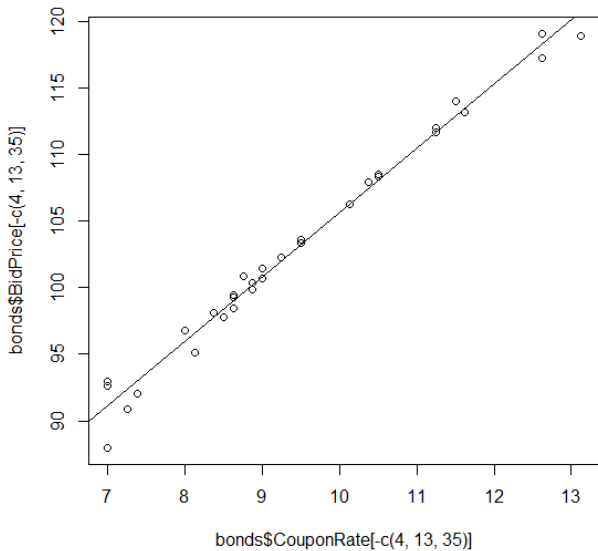
---

Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 1.024 on 30 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.9852, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9847

F-statistic: 1996 on 1 and 30 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16



- **Residual plots** visualize whether the assumptions are violated

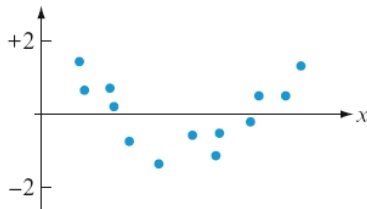
$$\hat{\epsilon}_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$$

- Studentized residuals usually used to eliminate potential impact of leverage points and residual outliers
- Roughly speaking,
  - Residuals should randomly scatter around 0
  - **nonlinear pattern** in residuals indicates nonlinear terms might be needed
  - if residuals exhibit **larger (or smaller) variability for larger  $x$ 's**, the constant variance assumption might have been violated
  - if **normal plot** of residuals does not exhibit a straight line, normality might have been violated

# Checking linearity assumption

- Scatterplot matrix may identify possible nonlinearity
- Plot residuals against fitted values and regressors
- If the model were true: residuals are randomly scattered around 0
- Nonlinear patterns indicate the necessity for nonlinear terms

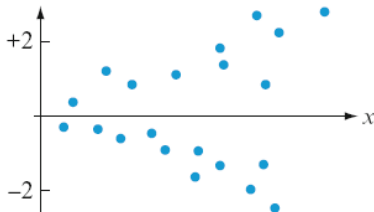
- The following residual plot illustrates that a quadratic term  $X^2$  might be needed in the model



- When linearity is violated, transform the data (e.g., consider polynomial regression)

# Checking constant variance assumption

- Plot residuals against fitted values and regressors: if the constant variance assumption were true, residuals have no trend of increasing/decreasing
- The following residual plot illustrates that  $\sigma^2$  is an increasing function of the regressor



- When constant variance assumption is violated, consider transformation of data or weighted least squares

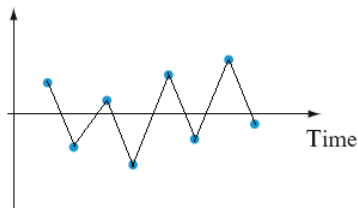


# Checking normality assumption

- Assumption:  $\epsilon_i | \mathbf{X} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$
- Construct a normal probability plot of residuals: if the assumption were true, expect a straight line
- If normality is violated, consider transformation of data
- Or use more realistic distributions and maximum likelihood for parameter estimation

# Checking correlation assumption

- Assumption:  $\epsilon_i | \mathbf{X}$  are uncorrelated
- When data are collected over time, serial correlation is likely
- Compute sample ACF of residuals; plot residuals against time
- The following residual plot illustrates that there is negative serial correlation



- Consider regression with time series data