

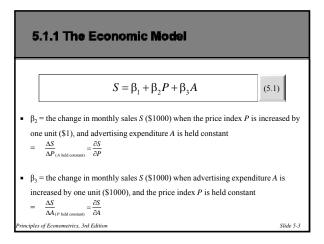
Chapter 5: The Multiple Regression Model

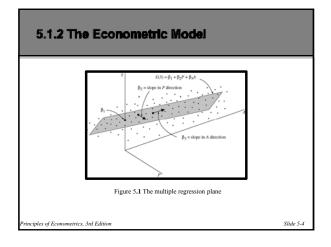
- 5.1 Model Specification and Data
- 5.2 Estimating the Parameters of the Multiple Regression Model
- 5.3 Sampling Properties of the Least Squares Estimator
- 5.4 Interval Estimation
- 5.5 Hypothesis Testing for a Single Coefficient

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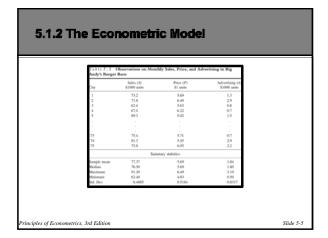
• 5.6 Measuring Goodness-of-Fit

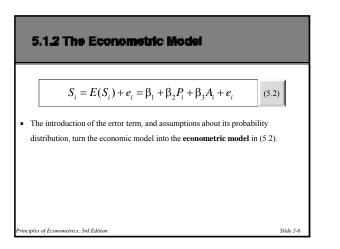
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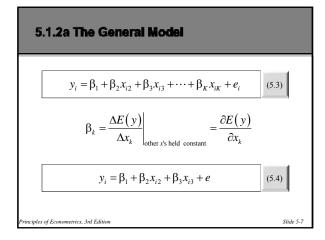














1. $E(e_i) = 0$

 Each random error has a probability distribution with zero mean. Some errors will be positive, some will be negative; over a large number of observations they will average out to zero.

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5.1.2b The Assumptions of the Model

^{2.} $\operatorname{var}(e_i) = \sigma^2$

Each random error has a probability distribution with variance σ². The variance σ² is an unknown parameter and it measures the uncertainty in the statistical model. It is the same for each observation, so that for no observations will the model uncertainty be more, or less, nor is it directly related to any economic variable. Errors with this property are said to be homoskedastic.

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3. $cov(e_i, e_j) = 0$

The covariance between the two random errors corresponding to any two different
observations is zero. The size of an error for one observation has no bearing on the
likely size of an error for another observation. Thus, any pair of errors is
uncorrelated.

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5.1.2b The Assumptions of the Model

- 4. $e_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$
- We will sometimes further assume that the random errors have normal probability distributions.

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5.1.2b The Assumptions of the Model

The statistical properties of y_i follow from the properties of e_i .

- 1. $E(y_i) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 x_{i3}$
- The expected (average) value of y_i depends on the values of the explanatory variables and the unknown parameters. It is equivalent to $E(e_i) = 0$. This assumption says that the average value of y_i changes for each observation and is given by the **regression function** $E(y_i) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{i_2} + \beta_3 x_{i_3}$.

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² var $(y_i) = var(e_i) = \sigma^2$

 The variance of the probability distribution of y_i does not change with each observation. Some observations on y_i are not more likely to be further from the regression function than others.

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5.1.2b The Assumptions of the Model

- 3. $\operatorname{cov}(y_i, y_j) = \operatorname{cov}(e_i, e_j) = 0$
- Any two observations on the dependent variable are uncorrelated. For example, if one observation is above *E*(*y_i*), a subsequent observation is not more or less likely to be above *E*(*y_i*).

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5.1.2b The Assumptions of the Model

4. $y_i \sim N \Big[(\beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 x_{i3}), \sigma^2 \Big]$

We sometimes will assume that the values of y_i are normally distributed about their mean. This is equivalent to assuming that e_i ~ N(0, σ²).

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Assumptions of the Multiple Regression Model

- MR1. $y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_K x_{iK} + e_i, \ i = 1, \dots, N$
- MR2. $E(y_i) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_K x_{iK} \Leftrightarrow E(e_i) = 0$
- MR3. $\operatorname{var}(y_i) = \operatorname{var}(e_i) = \sigma^2$
- MR4. $\operatorname{cov}(y_i, y_j) = \operatorname{cov}(e_i, e_j) = 0$
- MR5. The values of each x_{tk} are not random and are not exact linear functions of the other explanatory variables
- MR6. $y_i \sim N[(\beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_K x_{iK}), \sigma^2] \Leftrightarrow e_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

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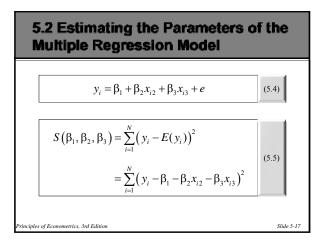
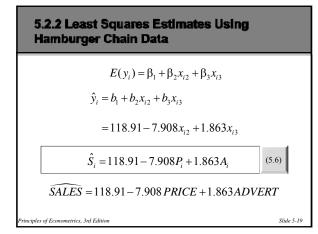


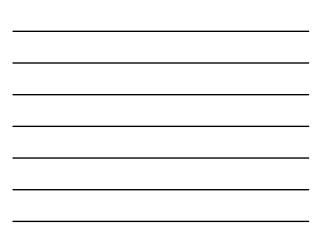
Table 5.2	Least Squares Estin	nates for Sales Eq	uation for Big Andy	² 8
Burger Barn		nates for ours Eq.	auton for Dig finay	
	Coefficient	Std. Error	r-Statistic	Prob
Variable	countrien	Dear Rates	r-Statistic	
Variable C	118.9136	6.3516	18.7217	Prob 0.000
Variable	118.9136 -7.9079	Dear Rates	18.7217 -7.2152	0.000
Variable C	118.9136	6.3516	18.7217	

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5.2.2 Least Squares Estimates Using Hamburger Chain Data

Suppose we are interested in predicting sales revenue for a price of \$5.50 and an advertising expenditure of \$1,200. This prediction is given by

 $\hat{S} = 118.91 - 7.908 \, PRICE + 1.863 ADVERT$

 $=118.914 - 7.9079 \times 5.5 + 1.8626 \times 1.2$

= 77.656

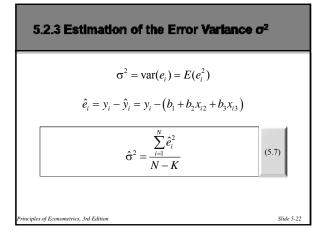
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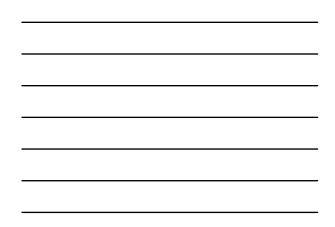
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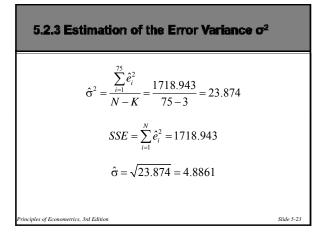
5.2.2 Least Squares Estimates Using Hamburger Chain Data

Remark: Estimated regression models describe the relationship between the economic variables for values *similar* to those found in the sample data. Extrapolating the results to extreme values is generally not a good idea. Predicting the value of the dependent variable for values of the explanatory variables far from the sample values invites disaster.

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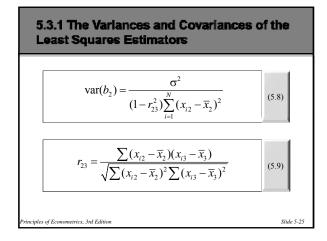


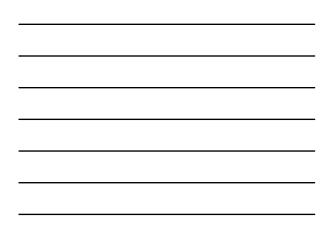


5.3 Sampling Properties of the Least Squares Estimator

The Gauss-Markov Theorem: For the multiple regression model, if assumptions MR1-MR5 listed at the beginning of the Chapter hold, then the least squares estimators are the Best Linear Unbiased Estimators (BLUE) of the parameters.

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5.3.1 The Variances and Covariances of the Least Squares Estimators

- 1. Larger error variances σ^2 lead to larger variances of the least squares estimators.
- 2. Larger sample sizes *N* imply smaller variances of the least squares estimators.
- 3. More variation in an explanatory variable around its mean, leads to a smaller variance of the least squares estimator.
- A larger correlation between x₂ and x₃ leads to a larger variance of b₂.

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5.3.1 The Variances and Covariances of the Least Squares Estimators

The	covariance	matrix	for	K=3 is
The	covariance	mauix	101	A-2 IS

$$\operatorname{cov}(b_{1}, b_{2}, b_{3}) = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{var}(b_{1}) & \operatorname{cov}(b_{1}, b_{2}) & \operatorname{cov}(b_{1}, b_{3}) \\ \operatorname{cov}(b_{1}, b_{2}) & \operatorname{var}(b_{2}) & \operatorname{cov}(b_{2}, b_{3}) \\ \operatorname{cov}(b_{1}, b_{3}) & \operatorname{cov}(b_{2}, b_{3}) & \operatorname{var}(b_{3}) \end{bmatrix}$$

• The estimated variances and covariances in the example are

$\overline{\operatorname{cov}(b_1, b_2, b_3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 40 \\ -6 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}$	343 -6.795 795 1.201 4840197	7484 0197 .4668	(5.10)	
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5.3.1 The Variances a Least Squares Estimation		he
• Therefore, we have		
$\widehat{\operatorname{var}(b_1)} = 40.343$ $\widehat{\operatorname{var}(b_2)} = 1.201$ $\widehat{\operatorname{var}(b_3)} = .4668$	$\widehat{\operatorname{cov}(b_1, b_2)} = -6.795$ $\widehat{\operatorname{cov}(b_1, b_3)} =7484$ $\widehat{\operatorname{cov}(b_2, b_3)} =0197$	
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Table 5.3	Covariance Matrix for	Coefficient Estimates	
	С	Р	A
с	40.3433	-6.7951	-0.748
Р	-6.7951	1.2012	-0.019
A	-0.7484	-0.0197	0.466

5.3.1 The Variances and Covariances of the Least Squares Estimators

• The standard errors are

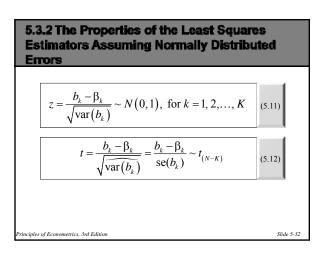
$$se(b_1) = var(b_1) = \sqrt{40.343} = 6.352$$

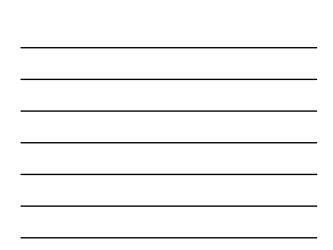
 $se(b_2) = var(b_2) = \sqrt{1.201} = 1.096$

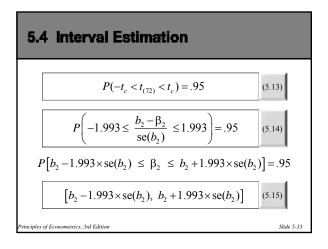
$$se(b_3) = \widehat{var(b_3)} = \sqrt{.4668} = .6832$$

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5.3.2 The Properties of the Least Squares Estimators Assuming Normally Distributed Errors $y_{i} = \beta_{1} + \beta_{2}x_{i2} + \beta_{3}x_{i3} + \dots + \beta_{K}x_{iK} + e_{i}$ $y_{i} \sim N \Big[(\beta_{1} + \beta_{2}x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_{K}x_{iK}), \sigma^{2} \Big] \Leftrightarrow e_{i} \sim N(0, \sigma^{2})$ $b_{k} \sim N \Big[\beta_{k}, \operatorname{var}(b_{k}) \Big]$ Principles of Econometrics, 3rd Edition Slide 5-31









5.4 Interval Estimation

- A 95% interval estimate for β_2 based on our sample is given by $(-10.092,\,-5.724)$

 A 95% interval estimate for β₃ based on our sample is given by (1.8626-1.993×.6832, 1.8626+1.993×.6832) = (.501, 3.224)

• The general expression for a $100(1-\alpha)\%$ confidence interval is $[b_k - t_{(1-\alpha/2, N-K)} \times \operatorname{se}(b_k), b_k + t_{(1-\alpha/2, N-K)} \times \operatorname{se}(b_k)$

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5.5 Hypothesis Testing for a Single Coefficient

STEP-BY-STEP PROCEDURE FOR TESTING HYPOTHESES

- 1. Determine the null and alternative hypotheses.
- 2. Specify the test statistic and its distribution if the null hypothesis is true.
- 3. Select α and determine the rejection region.
- Calculate the sample value of the test statistic and, if desired, the *p*-value.
- 5. State your conclusion.

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5.5.1 Testing the Significance of a Single Coefficient

$$H_0: \beta_k = 0$$
$$H_1: \beta_k \neq 0$$
$$t = \frac{b_k}{\operatorname{se}(b_k)} \sim t_{(N-K)}$$

• For a test with level of significance $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$

$$t_c = t_{(1-\alpha/2, N-K)}$$
 and $-t_c = t_{(\alpha/2, N-K)}$

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5.5.1 Testing the Significance of a Single Coefficient

- Big Andy's Burger Barn example
- The null and alternative hypotheses are: $H_0:\beta_2 = 0$ and $H_1:\beta_2 \neq 0$
- 2. The test statistic, if the null hypothesis is true, is $t = b_2/\text{se}(b_2) \sim t_{(N-K)}$
- Using a 5% significance level (α =.05), and 72 degrees of freedom, the critical values that lead to a probability of 0.025 in each tail of the distribution are $P(t_{(21)} > 7.215) + P(t_{(22)} < -7.215) = 2 \times (2.2 \times 10^{-10}) = .000$

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5.5.1 Testing the Significance of a Single Coefficient

- 4. The computed value of the *t*-statistic is $t = \frac{-7.908}{1.096} = -7.215$ the *p*-value in this case can be found as $P(t_{(72)} > 7.215) + P(t_{(72)} < -7.215) = 2 \times (2.2 \times 10^{-10}) = .000$
- Since -7.215 < -1.993, we reject H₀:β₂ = 0 and conclude that there is evidence from the data to suggest sales revenue depends on price. Using the *p*-value to perform the test, we reject H₀ because .000 < .05.

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5.5.1 Testing the Significance of a Single Coefficient

• Testing whether sales revenue is related to advertising expenditure

- 1. $H_0: \beta_3 = 0 \text{ and } H_1: \beta_3 \neq 0$
- 2. The test statistic, if the null hypothesis is true, is $t = b_3/\text{se}(b_3) \sim t_{(N-K)}$
- 3. Using a 5% significance level, we reject the null hypothesis if $t \ge 1.993$ or $t \le -1.993$. In terms of the *p*-value, we reject H_0 if $p \le .05$.

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5.5.1 Testing the Significance of a Single Coefficient

- Testing whether sales revenue is related to advertising expenditure
- 4. The value of the test statistic is $t = \frac{1.8626}{.6832} = 2.726$; the *p*-value in given by $P(t_{(72)} > 2.726) + P(t_{(72)} < -2.726) = 2 \times .004 = .008$
- 5. Because 2.726 > 1.993, we reject the null hypothesis; the data support the conjecture that revenue is related to advertising expenditure. Using the *p*-value we reject H_0 because .008 < .05.

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5.5.2 One-Tailed Hypothesis Testing for a Single Coefficient

• 5.5.2a Testing for elastic demand

We wish to know if

- $\beta_2 \ge 0$: a decrease in price leads to a decrease in sales revenue (demand is price inelastic), or
- β₂ < 0: a decrease in price leads to an increase in sales revenue (demand is price elastic)

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5.5.2 One-Tailed Hypothesis Testing for a Single Coefficient

- 1. $H_0: \beta_2 \ge 0$ (demand is unit elastic or inelastic) $H_1: \beta_2 < 0$ (demand is elastic)
- 2. To create a test statistic we assume that H_0 : $\beta_2 = 0$ is true and use $t = b_2/se(b_2) \sim t_{(N-K)}$
- 3. At a 5% significance level, we reject H_0 if $t \le -1.666$ or if the p-value < .05

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5.5.2 One-Talled Hypothesis Testing for a Single Coefficient

4. The value of the test statistic is $t = \frac{b_2}{\sec(b_2)} = \frac{-7.908}{1.096} = -7.215$

The corresponding *p*-value is $P(t_{(72)} < -7.215) = .000$

5. Since -7.215 < -1.666 we reject $H_0: \beta_2 \ge 0$. Since .000 < .05, the same conclusion is reached using the *p*-value.

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5.5.2 One-Tailed Hypothesis Testing for a Single Coefficient

5.5.2b Testing Advertising Effectiveness

- 1. $H_0: \beta_3 \le 1 \text{ and } H_1: \beta_3 > 1$
- 2. To create a test statistic we assume that $H_0: \beta_3 = 1$ is true and use $t = \frac{b_3 1}{se(b_1)} \sim t_{(N-K)}$
- 3. At a 5% significance level, we reject H_0 if $t \ge -1.666$ or if the p-value $\le .05$

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5.5.2 One-Tailed Hypothesis Testing for a Single Coefficient

5.5.2b Testing Advertising Effectiveness

1. The value of the test statistic is $t = \frac{b_3 - \beta_3}{se(b_3)} = \frac{1.8626 - 1}{.6832} = 1.263$

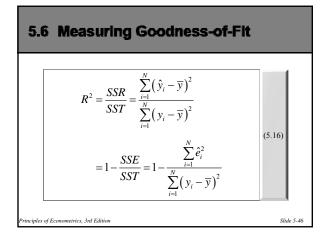
The corresponding *p*-value is $P(t_{(72)} > 1.263) = .105$

5. Since 1.263<1.666 we do not reject H_0 . Since .105>.05, the same conclusion is reached using the *p*-value.

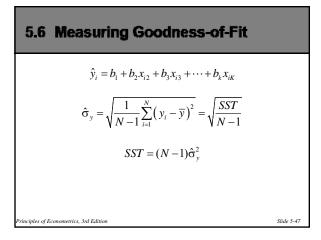
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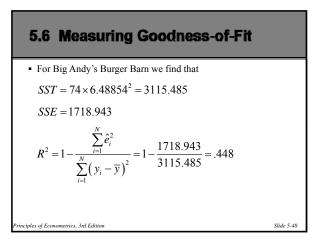
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5.6 Measuring Goodness-of-Fit

• An alternative measure of goodness-of-fit called the adjusted-*R*², is usually reported by regression programs and it is computed as

$$\overline{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{SSE / (N - K)}{SST / (N - 1)}$$

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5.6 Measuring Goodness-of-Fit

If the model does not contain an intercept parameter, then the measure R² given in (5.16) is no longer appropriate. The reason it is no longer appropriate is that, without an intercept term in the model,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \overline{y})^2 \neq \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\hat{y}_i - \overline{y})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{e}_i^2$$
$$SST \neq SSR + SSE$$

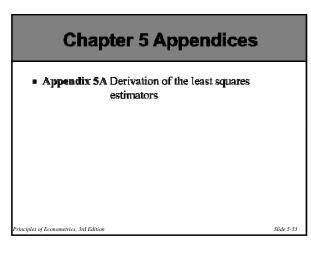
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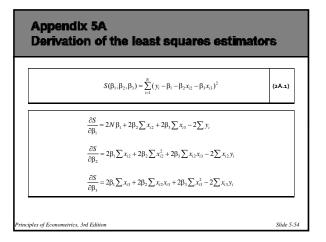
5.6.1 Reporting the Regression Results $\widehat{SALES} = 118.9 - 7.908 PRICE + 1.8626 ADVERT R^2 = .448 (5.17)$ (se) (6.35) (1.096) (.6832) (5.17) From this summary we can read off the estimated effects of changes in the explanatory variables on the dependent variable and we can predict values of the dependent variable for given values of the explanatory variables. For the construction of an interval estimate we need the least squares estimate, its standard error, and a critical value from the *t*-distribution.

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	Keywords	
 critical value error variance estimate error variance estimator goodness of fit interval estimate least squares estimates 	estimation least squares estimators multiple regression model one-tailed test <i>p</i> -value regression coefficients standard errors sum of squared errors sum of squares of regression testing significance	 total sum of squares two-tailed test
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$Nb_1 + \sum x_{i2}b_2 + \sum x_{i3}b_3 = \sum y_i$	
$\sum x_{i2}b_1 + \sum x_{i2}^2b_2 + \sum x_{i2}x_{i3}b_3 = \sum x_{i2}y_i$	(5A.1)
$\sum x_{i3}b_1 + \sum x_{i2}x_{i3}b_2 + \sum x_{i3}^2b_3 = \sum x_{i3}y_i$	
let $y_i^* = y_i - \overline{y}$, $x_{i2}^* = x_{i2} - \overline{x}_2$, $x_{i3}^* = x_{i3} - \overline{x}_3$	

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