Ch 4: An introduction to regression

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Why regression is **EXTREMELY** important

- The subject underpins nearly all mathematical applied statistics
- Subject also underpins the subject of econometrics and financial econometrics
- Rigorous statistical techniques are often an integral part of MSc dissertations
- (High-level) financial research is inherently quantitative
 - This is not to deny that finance is inherently subjective
- But even calculating subjective benchmarks is inherently quantitative

- Finance is also about much more than just applied mathematics

• High-level research in the social sciences is increasingly quantitative in nature

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• Math is not easy...

- often easier than it first looks
- often the questions asked are deceptively simple

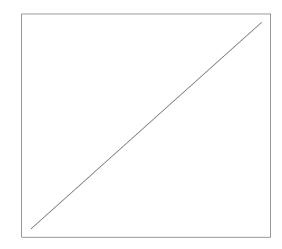
Basic question in regression

- What happens to Y as X increases?
 - increases?
 - decreases?
 - nothing?
- In this way regression can be seen as a more advanced version of high-school maths

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Positive gradient

• As X increases Y increases

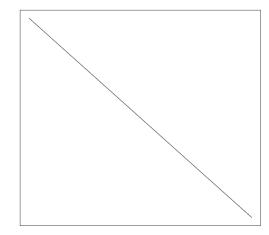


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Negative gradient

• As X increases Y decreases





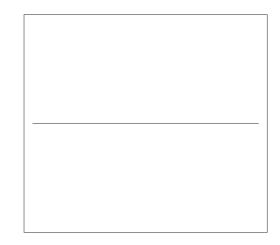
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Zero gradient

• Changes in X do not affect Y





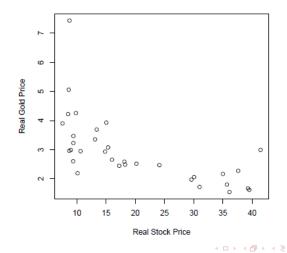
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Real data example - more imperfect

- Need to remember that a real data set will be more imperfect
- But the same basic idea applies



- Regression problems can look a lot harder than they really are
 - Basic question remains what happens to Y as X increases?
- Beware of jargon. Gujarati and Porter (2009) distinguish between
 - Two variable regression model
 - Multiple regression model
- Despite this apparent difference the mathematical methodology and the regression-fitting commands in R for both models are essentially the same

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Beware of cosmetic differences in notation and jargon

- Some authors use different terminology and notation for essentially the same thing
- Remember that math is usually a lot simpler than you first imagine...
- Two-variable regression model (Gujarati and Porter, 2009)

$$Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_{2,i} + u_i$$

• Three-variable regression model (Gujarati and Porter, 2009)

$$Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_{2,i} + \beta_3 X_{3,i} + u_i$$

• Multiple regression model (Gujarati and Porter, 2009)

$$Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_{2,i} + \beta_3 X_{3,i} + \ldots + \beta_p X_{p,i} + u_i$$

• In terms of mathematical methodology and R commands etc. all these are special cases of the multiple linear regression model

Outline of the lecture: Solving four basic regression problems

- 1. Plotting variables in R
 - cross-check formal statistical results with graphical analyses
 - deceptively important in practical research work
- 2. R^2 measures the proportion of variability in the data explained by the model
 - the higher the better
 - anything 0.3 or higher is potentially worthwhile
- 3. *t*-test
 - test the significance of individual parameters
- 4. F-test
 - test the significance of multiple parameters
- 5. Additional multiple regression example

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1.1 Plotting variables

• Interested in the relationship between real (inflation-adjusted) stock prices and gold prices

- Want to plot the two variables together
 - Cross-check the results of a formal statistical analysis

- Very important in real project work

- We do the statistical analysis so we are not restricted to simply looking at the graph and guessing

Financial context

• Some suggestion that as the stock price falls there is a flight to quality and people buy gold, the increased demand may, in turn, increase gold prices

• The reverse may also be true – people leave gold to play the market when the stock price rises.

• Suggests that (inflation adjusted) stock prices and gold prices may be negatively correlated

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- Data is in the file L3eg1data.txt available on Canvas
- Save to your USB stick then read in the data using the read.table command

```
data1<-read.table(''E:L3eg1data.txt")</pre>
```

- The dataset contains two columns containing the real gold price (left column) and the real stock price (right column)
- In R assign variables linking the real gold price to the first column and the real stock price to the second column. (Note that this has to match the name data1 given in the above sequence of commands)

```
realgoldprice<-data1[,1]
realstockprice<-data1[,2]</pre>
```

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• The basic plotting command in R is plot. But you have to variously specify

- axes titles, plotting style (line or dots; dots often simplest so is the default option), scaling (using the commands xlim=c(lower, upper), ylim=c(lower, upper))

- Usually best to stick with the simplest default options and then change these only if you need to.

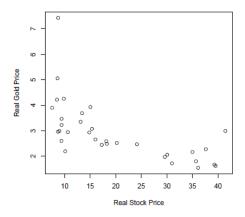
• The plot command is applied to the X-variable first and then the Y-variable. For our simple lecture example

plot(realstockprice, realgoldprice, xlab=``Real
Stock Price", ylab=``Real Gold Price")

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1.4 The graph – revisited

- Suggests that the two variables are indeed negatively correlated
- Still need to cross-check with the results of a formal statistical regression analysis
- But the same basic idea applies



Figure[.]

• As part of this module you will need to demonstrate an ability to understand and interpret computer-generated model output

- R^2 is often one of the quickest and easiest things to make sense of
- \bullet When running a regression R generates R^2 values automatically

• The R^2 statistic gives you the proportion of the variability in the data explained by the regression model – the higher the better!

• Important caveat. R^2 automatically increases as additional X variables are added to a regression model. An **Adjusted** R^2 can be constructed that tries to take account of this although this statistic does not appear to be widely used.

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2.2 Some observations about R^2

- R^2 lies between 0 and 1
 - $R^2 = 0$ models explains nothing
 - $R^2 = 1$ model explains everything
 - Generally the higher the value of R^2 the better the model
 - Textbook examples often have high R^2 values e.g. 0.7 or

higher

• There is no hard and fast rule about the interpretation of R^2 . Usually an R^2 value of say 0.3 or higher is enough to say that there is a nontrivial amount of variation in the data explained by the model. In our example there is an R^2 value of 0.395325 showing us that the stock price clearly affects the price of gold. However, it is clear that other also factors affect the price of gold

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• Consider the following ANOVA table for a regression model (we will return to the ANOVA table later!)

• The ANOVA table shows that

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

Source	df	S. S.	M.S.	F
Regression	p - 1	SSR	$MSR = \frac{SSR}{p-1}$	$F = \frac{MSR}{MSE}$
Error	n – p	SSE	$MSE = \frac{SSE}{n-p}$	
Total	n-1	SST	$MST = \frac{SST}{n-1}$	

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$$R^{2} = \frac{\text{Variation explained by the model}}{\text{Total variation in the data}}$$
$$= \frac{SSR}{SST} = \frac{SST - SSE}{SST}$$
$$= 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}$$

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- The basic command used is 1m for linear model
- You specify the Y variable and then the X variables with a \sim sign between the X and Y variables (mathematically this means "related to") + sign between the different X variables
- The best way to do this is to
 - 1. Run the regression analysis and store the results
 - 2. Get R to summarise the results for you in a second command
- For our simple lecture example

a.lm<-lm(realgoldprice~realstockprice) summary(a.lm)

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- Running the regression in either R produces a wealth of results we only need a small portion of the results actually generated
- \bullet Interesting and useful bits of the results produced by R
 - 1. R-squared 0.395325
 - 2. t-Statistic for the variable REALSTOCKPRICE -4.502
 - 3. F-statistic 20.27

• The rest of the lecture discusses what these *t* and *F* statistics really mean

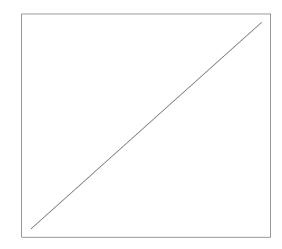
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- Basic question is always what happens to Y as X increases?
 - Increases?
 - Decreases?
 - Nothing?
- As promised these are all very simple concepts and easy to visualise pictorally

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3.2 Positive gradient

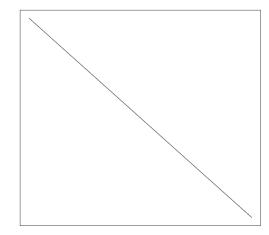
• As X increases Y increases



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3.3 Negative gradient

• As X increases Y decreases



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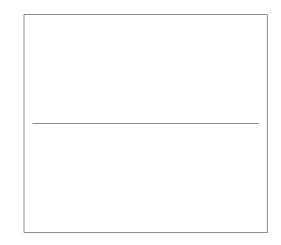
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3.4 Zero gradient

• Changes in X do not affect Y



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- \bullet I am afraid that some mathematics and some equations are unavoidable \ldots
- Consider the two-variable linear regression model

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

• Want to see if X affects Y

• It is a slightly strange way of thinking but the easiest way to do this is by testing the hypothesis

$$\begin{array}{ll} H_0: & \beta_2 = 0 \\ H_1 & \beta_2 \neq 0 \end{array}$$

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Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	<i>t</i> -value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	4.21285	0.32351	13.022	4.14e-14***
realstockprice	-0.06409	0.01424	-4.502	8.90e-05***

- Usually always fit a constant term so the first row of the table is not really informative
- The second row of the table (and downwards if a larger model) is THE INFORMATIVE part of the table
- \bullet The asterisks denote statistical significance. 8.90e-05 may look weird but means $8.90{\times}10^{-5}$

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• Construction and interpretation of the *t*-test follows the example in Lecture 2 but this time with n - p degrees of freedom

$$t = \frac{\mathsf{Estimate} - \mathsf{Hypothesised Value}}{\mathsf{e.s.e}}$$

• Because it is extremely common to test the hypothesis $\beta_2 = 0$ the usual form of the *t*-statistic becomes

$$t = \frac{\text{Estimate} - 0}{\text{e.s.e}}$$

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• The *t*-statistic computed in R can be constructed as

$$t = \frac{\text{Estimate} - 0}{\text{e.s.e}}$$

= $\frac{-0.064086}{0.014235} = -4.502 \text{ 3 d.p.}$

- R calculates the *p*-value to be 8.90×10^{-5} (Slide 3.6).
- We can't calculate the exact *p*-value by hand but we can produce a bound for the *p*-value using tables.
- The increased accuracy hints at how worthwhile computers are!

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3.9 Reconstructing what R does ...

• R calculates the *p*-value to be 8.90×10^{-5} (Slide 3.6).

$$n =$$
 No. of data points = 33
 $p =$ No. of variables in the model = 2
 $df = n - p = 33 - 2 = 31$

•
$$t_{31}(0.025) = 2.040$$

$$|t| = 4.502 > t_{31}(0.025) = 2.040$$
, therefore $p < 0.05$

Interpretation

- Some evidence (p < 0.05) that stock prices affect gold prices
- As the coefficient is negative (and statistically significant) as stock prices increase gold prices decrease and vice versa.

- We want some way of systematically testing the overall fit of the model
- It is possible to perform a sequence of *t*-tests in order to do this although for statistical reasons this is not really desirable
- The *F*-test performed automatically by R is only one possibility amongst many and may only have limited value in itself
- We will see in the next lecture that *F*-tests and the extra sum of squares principle can be applied much more generally

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4.2 F-test for the overall fit of the model

• The *F*-test produced automatically by R tests the overall fit of the model

- "Does at least one of the X-variables in the model have a statistically significant affect on Y?"

Formal hypothesis testing

• Multiple linear regression model

$$Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_{2,i} + \beta_3 X_{3,i} + \ldots + \beta_p X_{p,i} + u_i$$

$$H_0 : \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \ldots = \beta_p = 0$$

- H_1 : At least one of the β s is non-zero
- Two-variable regression model

$$Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_{2,i} + u_i$$
$$H_0 : \beta_2 = 0$$

 H_1 : $\beta_2 \neq 0$

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- The output produced by R states
- F-statistic: 20.27 on 1 and 31 DF, p-value:
- 8.904e-05
- This would be best interpreted as

"We have strong evidence (p = 0.000) that the real stock price affects the real gold price"

• We will see in the next lecture example that the interpretation of the *F*-statistic changes slightly when we have more than one *X*-variable in the regression model (in addition to the constant term).

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4.4 Reconstructing calculation of the F-statistic in R

• Want to show where the numbers produced by R come from and give some additional practice of using the *F*-tables

• In general terms for the multiple linear regression model

$$Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_{2,i} + \beta_3 X_{3,i} + \ldots + \beta_p X_{p,i} + u_i$$

• Want to test the hypothesis

$$H_0 : \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \ldots = \beta_p = 0$$

- H_1 : At least one of the β s is non-zero
- Construct the F-statistic as

$$F = \frac{\frac{\text{Difference in SS}}{\text{Difference in d.f.}}}{\frac{\text{Residual SS (big model)}}{\text{Residual d.f.}}} = \frac{\frac{(R^2)TSS}{p-1}}{\frac{(1-R^2)TSS}{n-p}}$$
$$F = \frac{\frac{R^2}{p-1}}{\frac{1-R^2}{n-p}} \sim F_{p-1,n-p}$$

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4.5 Two-variable regression example revisited ...

- The R output states Multiple R-squared: 0.3953
- Construct the F-statistic as

$$F = \frac{\frac{R^2}{p-1}}{\frac{1-R^2}{n-p}} = \frac{(n-p)R^2}{(p-1)(1-R^2)} = \frac{31(0.395325)}{1(0.604675)} = 20.267 \text{ (3 d.p.)}$$

• This needs to be compared to the value for $F_{1,31}$. From tables $F_{1,30}=4.17,\ F_{1,40}=4.08$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 31 & = & 0.9(30) + 0.1(40), \\ F_{1,31} & = & 0.9F_{1,30} + 0.1F_{1,40}, \\ F_{1,31} & = & 0.9(4.17) + 0.1(4.08) = 4.161 \end{array}$$

• $F > F_{1,31}$ so evidence (p < 0.05) that the real stock price affects the real gold price

- To show you how to interpret the results from a multiple linear regression model use an example from the classical Longley dataset
 Overall aim is to explain the number of employed people in the US in terms of
 - 1. X₂, GNP
 - 2. X_3 the number of unemployed
 - 3. X_4 the unemployment rate
 - 4. X_5 the "non-institutionalised" population over the age of 14
 - 5. X_6 the yearly trend

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```
Data in the file longley.txt
longley<-read.table(''E:longley.txt")</li>
x2<-longley[,1]</li>
x3<-longley[,2]</li>
x4<-longley[,3]</li>
x5<-longley[,4]</li>
x6<-longley[,5]</li>
y<-longley[,6]</li>
```

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- Fit the model in the usual way using
- $a.lm < -lm(y \sim x2 + x3 + x4 + x5 + x6)$
- $\texttt{summary}(\texttt{a.lm}) \bullet \textbf{R} \text{ will produce a lot of irrelevant} \\ \textbf{information. The obvious things to look at are} \\$
 - 1. The R^2 statistic
 - 2. The individual *t*-statistics
 - 3. The F-statistic to assess overall fit

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- R produces a lot of information
 - Not all of it will be relevant
- **1.** The R^2 statistic

R states Multiple R-squared: 0.9955

- R^2 is very high which suggests we might have quite a good model
- $R^2 = 0.9955$ which means that the model explains around 99.6% of the variability in the data
- Whilst this R^2 value is very high there is a chance that this is potentially too high to be true (see later)

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- R produces a lot of information
 - Not all of it will be relevant
- 2. The *t* statistic

- For this course we need to look at the variables for which $\rho < 0.05$

- In project work, like dissertations, sometimes the interpretation might be different and a *p*-value satisfying 0.1 might give weak evidence of an effect

- Need to analyse the results carefully
- Results given by R suggest that not all of the variables are statistically significant

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Coefficients: Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|) (Intercept) -3.450e+03 8.282e+02 -4.165 0.001932 ** x2 -3.196e-02 2.420e-02 -1.321 0.216073 x3 -1.972e-02 3.861e-03 -5.108 0.000459 *** x4 -1.020e-02 1.908e-03 -5.345 0.000326 *** x5 -7.754e-02 1.616e-01 -0.480 0.641607 x6 1.814e+00 4.253e-01 4.266 0.001648 **

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- 1. *t*-statistics show that not all the variables are statistically significant
- 2. Since the convention is to usually include a constant term in the model anyway the *t*-statistic for the constant term is not usually very informative
- 3. *p*-values suggest that the variables X2 and X5 are not statistically significant (p > 0.05)

- the sign is irrelevant there is no formal statistical evidence of an effect

4. The coefficient of X3 is negative and statistically significant (p < 0.05)

- As the number of unemployed people increases the number of employed people decreases

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5. The coefficient of X4 is negative and statistically significant (p < 0.05)

- As the unemployment rate increases the number employed decreases decrease

6. The coefficient of X_6 is positive and statistically significant (p < 0.05)

- As X_6 is the time trend, this suggests that the number employed is generally increasing every year over the period in question.

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- According to R F-statistic: 438.8 on 5 and 10 DF, p-value: 2.242e-11
- This presents evidence ($p = 2.242 \times 10^{-11} < 0.05$) that at least one of the X-variables in the study affects Y
- However, for example, do we need to include both the unemployment rate and the number of unemployed people in the same model?

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