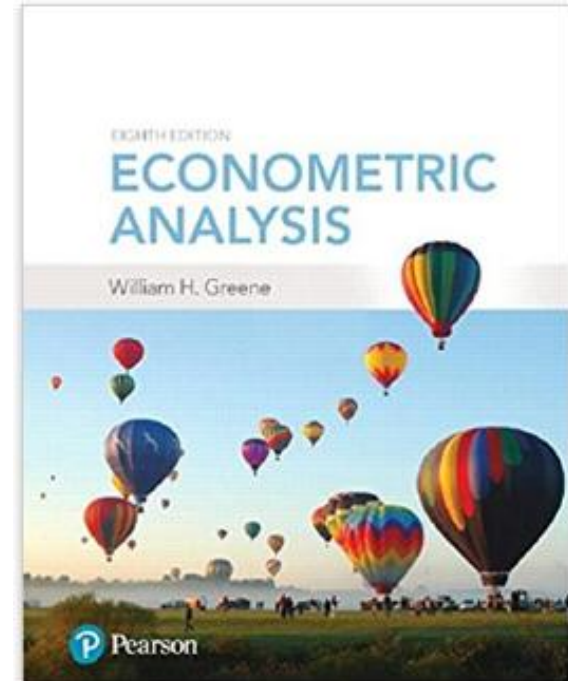


Econometrics I

Professor William Greene
Stern School of Business
Department of Economics



Econometrics I

Part 5 – Regression Algebra and Fit; Restricted Least Squares

Minimizing $\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e}$

\mathbf{b} minimizes $\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e} = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Xb})'(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Xb})$.

Any other coefficient vector has a larger sum of squared residuals.

Proof:

\mathbf{d} = the vector, not equal to \mathbf{b} ; $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{Xd}$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{u} &= \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Xd} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Xb} + \mathbf{Xb} - \mathbf{Xd} \\ &= \mathbf{e} - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{b}).\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Then, } \mathbf{u}'\mathbf{u} &= (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Xd})'(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Xd}) = \text{sum of squares using } \mathbf{d} \\ &= [(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Xb}) - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{b})]'[(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Xb}) - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{b})] \\ &= [\mathbf{e} - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{b})]'[\mathbf{e} - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{b})]\end{aligned}$$

Expand to find $\mathbf{u}'\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e} + (\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{b})'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{b})$

$$\begin{aligned}(\text{The cross product term is } 2\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{0} \text{ as } \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{0}.) \\ = \mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e} + \mathbf{v}'\mathbf{v} \geq \mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e}\end{aligned}$$

Dropping a Variable

An important special case. Suppose

$$\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{z}} = [\mathbf{b}, c]$$

= the regression coefficients in a regression of \mathbf{y} on $[\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{z}]$

$$\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{X}} = [\mathbf{d}, 0]$$

= is the same, but computed to force the coefficient on \mathbf{z} to equal 0. This removes \mathbf{z} from the regression.

We are comparing the results that we get with and without the variable \mathbf{z} in the equation. Results which we can show:

- **Dropping a variable(s)** cannot improve the fit - that is, it cannot reduce the sum of squared residuals.
- **Adding a variable(s)** cannot degrade the fit - that is, it cannot increase the sum of squared residuals.

Adding a Variable Never Increases the Sum of Squares

Theorem 3.5 on text page 40.

\mathbf{u} = the residual in the regression of \mathbf{y} on $[\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{z}]$

\mathbf{e} = the residual in the regression of \mathbf{y} on \mathbf{X} alone,

$$\mathbf{u}'\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e} - c^2(\mathbf{z}^*\mathbf{z}^*) \leq \mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e}$$

where $\mathbf{z}^* = \mathbf{M}_X\mathbf{z}$ and c is the coefficient on \mathbf{z} in the regression of \mathbf{y} on $[\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{z}]$.

The Fit of the Regression

- **“Variation:”** In the context of the “model” we speak of covariation of a variable as movement of the variable, usually associated with (not necessarily caused by) movement of another variable.
- **Total variation** = $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \mathbf{y}'\mathbf{M}^0\mathbf{y}$.
- $\mathbf{M}^0 = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{i}(\mathbf{i}'\mathbf{i})^{-1}\mathbf{i}'$
= the \mathbf{M} matrix for
 \mathbf{X} = a column of ones.

Decomposing the Variation

$$y_i = \mathbf{x}_i' \mathbf{b} + e_i$$

$$\begin{aligned} y_i - \bar{y} &= \mathbf{x}_i' \mathbf{b} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}' \mathbf{b} + e_i \\ &= (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})' \mathbf{b} + e_i \end{aligned}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n [(\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})' \mathbf{b}]^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$$

(Sum of cross products is zero.)

Total variation = regression variation + residual variation

Recall the decomposition:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Var}[\mathbf{y}] &= \mathbf{Var} [\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x}]] + \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{Var} [\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x}]] \\ &= \text{Variation of the conditional mean around the overall mean} \\ &\quad + \text{Variation around the conditional mean function.} \end{aligned}$$

Decomposing the Variation of Vector \mathbf{y}

Decomposition: (This all assumes the model contains a constant term.
one of the columns in \mathbf{X} is \mathbf{i} .)

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{e} \quad \text{so}$$

$$\mathbf{M}^0\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{M}^0\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{M}^0\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{M}^0\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{e}.$$

(Deviations from means.)

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{y}'\mathbf{M}^0\mathbf{y} &= \mathbf{b}'(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{M}^0)(\mathbf{M}^0\mathbf{X})\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e} \\ &= \mathbf{b}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{M}^0\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e}.\end{aligned}$$

(\mathbf{M}^0 is idempotent and $\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{M}^0\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{e}'\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{0}$.)

Total sum of squares = **Regression Sum of Squares (SSR)**+
Residual Sum of Squares (SSE)

A Fit Measure

$$\begin{aligned} R^2 &= \mathbf{b}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{M}^0\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}/\mathbf{y}'\mathbf{M}^0\mathbf{y} \\ &= 1 - \frac{\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e}}{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2} = \frac{\text{Regression Variation}}{\text{Total Variation}} \end{aligned}$$

(Very Important Result.) R^2 is bounded by zero and one only if:

- (a) There is a constant term in X and***
- (b) The line is computed by linear least squares.***

Adding Variables

- R^2 never falls when a variable \mathbf{z} is added to the regression.
- **A useful general result for adding a variable**

$R_{\mathbf{Xz}}^2$ with both \mathbf{X} and variable \mathbf{z} equals

$R_{\mathbf{X}}^2$ with only \mathbf{X} plus the increase in fit due to \mathbf{z}

after \mathbf{X} is accounted for:

$$R_{\mathbf{Xz}}^2 = R_{\mathbf{X}}^2 + (1 - R_{\mathbf{X}}^2) r_{yz|\mathbf{X}}^{*2}$$

- **Useful practical wisdom:** It is not possible meaningfully to accumulate R^2 by adding variables in sequence. The incremental fit added by each variable depends on the order. The increase in R^2 that occurs from x_3 in $(x_1$ then x_2 then $x_3)$ is different from that in $(x_1$ then x_3 then $x_2)$.

Adding Variables to a Model

What is the effect of adding PN, PD, PS?

```

Ordinary least squares regression
LHS=G
-----
Mean = 226.09444
Standard deviation = 50.59182
No. of observations = 36
DegFreedom 3
Mean square 29446.30141
Regression Sum of Squares = 88338.9
Residual Sum of Squares = 1244.71
Total Sum of Squares = 89583.6
Standard error of e = 6.23677
Root MSE 5.88009
R-squared = .98611
R-bar squared .98480
Fit with PN, PD, PS added to the regression
Fit R-squared = .99259
R-bar squared .99106
Model test F[ 3, 32] = 757.02619
Prob F > F* .00000
Model was estimated on Jul 21, 2012 at 08:40:19 AM
Effects of additional variables on the regression below:

```

Variable	Coefficient	New R-sqrd	Chg.R-sqrd	Partial-Rsq	Partial F
PN	-24.7246	.9882	.0021	.1515	5.534
PD	-19.8131	.9868	.0006	.0465	1.511
PS	-18.3479	.9907	.0046	.3310	15.340

G	Coefficient	Standard Error	t	Prob. t >T*	95% Confidence Interval
Constant	4154.60**	1748.656	2.38	.0237	727.29 7581.90
YEAR	-2.19582**	.90680	-2.42	.0213	-3.97311 -.41853
PG	-11.9827***	2.18235	-5.49	.0000	-16.2600 -7.7053
Y	.04782***	.00467	10.25	.0000	.03867 .05696

Note: ***, **, * ==> Significance at 1%, 5%, 10% level.

A Useful Result

Squared partial correlation of an x in \mathbf{X} with y is

$$\frac{\text{squared } t\text{-ratio}}{\text{squared } t\text{-ratio} + \text{degrees of freedom}}$$

We will define the 't-ratio' and 'degrees of freedom' later. Note how it enters:

$$R_{xz}^2 = R_x^2 + (1 - R_x^2)r_{yz}^{*2} \Rightarrow r_{yz}^{2*} = (R_{xz}^2 - R_x^2) / (1 - R_x^2)$$

Partial Correlation

Partial correlation is a difference in R²s.
For PS in the example above,

G	Coefficient	Standard Error	t	Prob. t >T*	95% Confidence Interval	
Constant	-8520.85**	3547.533	-2.40	.0225	-15473.89	-1567.81
YEAR	4.34824**	1.83288	2.37	.0241	.75586	7.94062
PG	-14.0226***	1.88682	-7.43	.0000	-17.7207	-10.3245
Y	.02429***	.00715	3.40	.0019	.01028	.03830
PS	-18.3478***	4.68454	-3.92	.0005	-27.5294	-9.1663

R² without PS = .9861, R² with PS = .9907

$$(.9907 - .9861) / (1 - .9861) = .331$$

$$3.92^2 / (3.92^2 + (36-5)) = .331$$

Comparing fits of regressions

Make sure the denominator in R^2 is the same - i.e., same left hand side variable. Example, linear vs. loglinear. Loglinear will almost always appear to fit better because taking logs reduces variation.

```
|-> regr:lhs=g;rhs=x$
```

```
-----  
Ordinary least squares regression .....  
LHS=G Mean = 226.09444  
Standard deviation = 50.59182  
Fit R-squared = .98611 R-bar squared .98480  
Model test F[ 3, 32] = 757.02619 Prob F > F* .00000  
-----
```

G	Coefficient	Standard Error	t	Prob. t >T*	95% Confidence Interval	
Constant	4154.60**	1748.656	2.38	.0237	727.29	7581.90
YEAR	-2.19582**	.90680	-2.42	.0213	-3.97311	-.41853
PG	-11.9827***	2.18235	-5.49	.0000	-16.2600	-7.7053
Y	.04782***	.00467	10.25	.0000	.03867	.05696

Note: ***, **, * ==> Significance at 1%, 5%, 10% level.

```
|-> regr:lhs=log(g);rhs=one.year.log(pg).log(y)$
```

```
-----  
Ordinary least squares regression .....  
LHS=logG Mean = 5.39299  
Standard deviation = .24878  
Fit R-squared = .98754 R-bar squared .98637  
Model test F[ 3, 32] = 845.23602 Prob F > F* .00000  
-----
```

logG	Coefficient	Standard Error	t	Prob. t >T*	95% Confidence Interval	
Constant	6.60154	4.18578	1.58	.1246	-1.60244	14.80551
YEAR	-.00967***	.00255	-3.78	.0006	-.01467	-.00466
logPG	-.11268***	.02228	-5.06	.0000	-.15634	-.06902
logY	1.97383***	.11248	17.55	.0000	1.75337	2.19428

Note: ***, **, * ==> Significance at 1%, 5%, 10% level.

(Linearly) Transformed Data

- How does linear transformation affect the results of least squares? $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{XP}$ for $K \times K$ nonsingular \mathbf{P}
- Based on \mathbf{X} , $\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$.
- Based on \mathbf{Z} , $\mathbf{c} = (\mathbf{Z}'\mathbf{Z})^{-1}\mathbf{Z}'\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{P}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{XP})^{-1}\mathbf{P}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$
$$= \mathbf{P}^{-1}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{P}'^{-1}\mathbf{P}'\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$
 - “Fitted value” is $\mathbf{Zc} = (\mathbf{XP})(\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{Xb}$. The same!!
- Residuals from using \mathbf{Z} are $\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Zc} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Xb}$ (we just proved this.). The same!!
 - Sum of squared residuals must be identical, as $\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Xb} = \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Zc}$.
 - R^2 must also be identical, as $R^2 = 1 - \mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e}/\mathbf{y}'\mathbf{M}^0\mathbf{y}$ (!!).

Linear Transformation

What are the practical implications of this result?

- (1) Transformation *does not* affect the fit of a model to a body of data.
- (2) Transformation *does* affect the “estimates.” If \mathbf{b} is an estimate of something (β), then \mathbf{c} cannot be an estimate of β - it must be an estimate of $\mathbf{P}^{-1}\beta$, which might have no meaning at all.

\mathbf{Xb} is the projection of \mathbf{y} into the column space of \mathbf{X} . **\mathbf{Zc}** is the projection of \mathbf{y} into the column space of \mathbf{Z} . But, since the columns of \mathbf{Z} are just linear combinations of those of \mathbf{X} , the column space of \mathbf{Z} must be identical to that of \mathbf{X} . Therefore, the projection of \mathbf{y} into the former must be the same as the latter, which now produces the other results.)

Principal Components

- **$Z = XC$**
 - Fewer columns than **X**
 - Includes as much 'variation' of **X** as possible
 - Columns of **Z** are orthogonal
- Why do we do this?
 - Collinearity
 - Combine variables of ambiguous identity such as test scores as measures of 'ability'

What is a Principal Component?

- \mathbf{X} = a data matrix (deviations from means)
- $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{p}$ = a linear combination of the columns of \mathbf{X} .
- Choose \mathbf{p} to maximize the variation of \mathbf{z} .

How? \mathbf{p} = *eigenvector* that corresponds to the largest *eigenvalue* of $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$. (Notes 7:41-44.)

MarketingDaily

Movies' Online Buzz Indicative Of Box Office Success

by Aaron Baar, February 19, 2015, 3:47 PM

Comment Recommend (1)



As much as anything else, a big film's online buzz has a direct correlation to how successful that film will be on its opening weekend.

According to a new study from two NYU Stern School of Business professors and a

business co-author, the amount of chatter a film is getting three weeks prior to its release on film-specific websites (such as Fandango and TrailerAddict), is a decent indicator of the film's opening weekend grosses. Conversely, the study found that star power and MPAA rating had less to do with the opening weekend revenues.

18
SHARES

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```

+-----+
| Movie Regression. Opening Week Box for 62 Films |
| Ordinary least squares regression |
| LHS=LOGBOX Mean = 16.47993 |
| Standard deviation = .9429722 |
| Number of observs. = 62 |
| Residuals Sum of squares = 20.54972 |
| Standard error of e = .6475971 |
| Fit R-squared = .6211405 |
| Adjusted R-squared = .5283586 |
+-----+

```



Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-ratio	P[T >t]	Mean of X
Constant	12.5388***	.98766	12.695	.0000	
LOGBUDGT	.23193	.18346	1.264	.2122	3.71468
STARPOWR	.00175	.01303	.135	.8935	18.0316
SEQUEL	.43480	.29668	1.466	.1492	.14516
MPRATING	-.26265*	.14179	-1.852	.0700	2.96774
ACTION	-.83091***	.29297	-2.836	.0066	.22581
COMEDY	-.03344	.23626	-.142	.8880	.32258
ANIMATED	-.82655**	.38407	-2.152	.0363	.09677
HORROR	.33094	.36318	.911	.3666	.09677
4 INTERNET BUZZ VARIABLES					
LOGADCT	.29451**	.13146	2.240	.0296	8.16947
LOGCMSON	.05950	.12633	.471	.6397	3.60648
LOGFNDGO	.02322	.11460	.203	.8403	5.95764
CNTWAIT3	2.59489***	.90981	2.852	.0063	.48242

The fit goes down when the 4 buzz variables are reduced to a single linear combination of the 4.

```

+-----+
| Ordinary least squares regression |
| LHS=LOGBOX   Mean                = 16.47993 |
|              Standard deviation   = .9429722 |
|              Number of observs.   =      62 |
| Residuals   Sum of squares        = 25.36721 |
|              Standard error of e   = .6984489 |
| Fit         R-squared              = .5323241 |
|              Adjusted R-squared     = .4513802 |
+-----+

```

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ p_{21} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ p_{31} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ p_{41} & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-ratio	P[T >t]	Mean of X
Constant	11.9602***	.91818	13.026	.0000	
LOGBUDGT	.38159**	.18711	2.039	.0465	3.71468
STARPOWR	.01303	.01315	.991	.3263	18.0316
SEQUEL	.33147	.28492	1.163	.2500	.14516
MPRATING	-.21185	.13975	-1.516	.1356	2.96774
ACTION	-.81404**	.30760	-2.646	.0107	.22581
COMEDY	.04048	.25367	.160	.8738	.32258
ANIMATED	-.80183*	.40776	-1.966	.0546	.09677
HORROR	.47454	.38629	1.228	.2248	.09677
PCBUZZ	.39704***	.08575	4.630	.0000	9.19362

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RESEARCH HIGHLIGHTS

New Research Shows Online Movie Buzz is a Good Predictor of Box Office Success

— February 19, 2015

Professors C. Samuel Craig and William Greene of NYU Stern, and Anthony Versaci of AIG, encourage studio execs to monitor “e-buzz” prior to a film’s release to inform marketing efforts.



Table 2
Predicting First Weekend Box Office
(Log of Total Box Office)

Variable	Model	
	I Coefficient (Standard Error)	II Coefficient (Standard Error)
Constant	14.06 ^a (.940)	12.86 ^a (.899)
Log of Film Budget	.70 ^a (.204)	.26 (.178)
Star Power	.007 (.015)	.001 (.013)
Sequel	.65 ^c (.326)	.25 (.265)
MPAA Rating	-.13 (.163)	-.18 (.129)
Genre		
Action	-.30 (.337)	-.90 ^b (.286)
Comedy	.003 (.298)	-.016 (.236)
Animation	-.74 (.479)	-.74 (.379)
Horror	1.03 ^c (.432)	.41 (.359)
Internet Buzz (Awareness)	--	.23 ^c (.097)
Internet Buzz (Intention)	--	2.74 ^b (.881)
R ²	.34	.61
Adjusted R ²	.24	.53
F (8, 53)	3.4 ^b	
F (10, 51)		7.8 ^a

^ap< .001, ^bp< .01, ^cp< .05

Adjusted R Squared

- Adjusted R^2 (adjusted for degrees of freedom)

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - \left(\frac{n-1}{n-K} \right) (1 - R^2)$$

- Degrees of freedom” adjustment.

- \bar{R}^2 includes a penalty for variables that don't add much fit. Can fall when a variable is added to the equation.

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RESEARCH HIGHLIGHTS

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$$.24 = 1 - \left(\frac{62 - 1}{62 - 9} \right) (1 - .34)$$

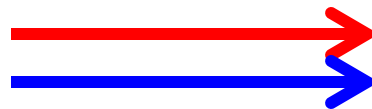


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^ap < .001, ^bp < .01, ^cp < .05

Adjusted R²

What is being adjusted?

The penalty for using up degrees of freedom.

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - [\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e}/(n - K)]/[\mathbf{y}'\mathbf{M}^0\mathbf{y}/(n-1)]$$

$$= 1 - [(n-1)/(n-K)(1 - R^2)]$$

Will \bar{R}^2 rise when a variable is added to the regression?

\bar{R}^2 is higher with z than without z if and only if the t ratio on z is in the regression when it is added is larger than one in absolute value. (See p. 46 in text.)

Full Regression (Without PD)

```

-----
Ordinary least squares regression .....
LHS=G      Mean                =      226.09444
           Standard deviation =      50.59182
           Number of observs. =         36
Model size Parameters         =         9
           Degrees of freedom =         27
Residuals Sum of squares      =      596.68995
           Standard error of e =      4.70102
Fit        R-squared          =      .99334 <*****
           Adjusted R-squared =      .99137 <*****
Info criter. LogAmemiya Prd. Cr. =      3.31870 <*****
           Akaike Info. Crater. =      3.30788 <*****
Model test F[ 8, 27] (prob) = 503.3(.0000)

```

```

-----+-----
Variable| Coefficient      Standard Error  t-ratio  P[|T|>t]  Mean of X
-----+-----
Constant| -8220.38**       3629.309      -2.265   .0317
      PG| -26.8313***      5.76403       -4.655   .0001      2.31661
      Y|  .02214***       .00711        3.116   .0043      9232.86
      PNC| 36.2027          21.54563       1.680   .1044      1.67078
      PUC| -6.23235         5.01098       -1.244   .2243      2.34364
      PPT| 9.35681          8.94549       1.046   .3048      2.74486
      PN| 53.5879*         30.61384       1.750   .0914      2.08511
      PS| -65.4897***      23.58819       -2.776   .0099      2.36898
      YEAR| 4.18510**        1.87283        2.235   .0339      1977.50
-----+-----

```

PD added to the model. R^2 rises, Adjusted R^2 falls

```

-----
Ordinary least squares regression .....
LHS=G      Mean                =      226.09444
           Standard deviation =      50.59182
           Number of observs. =          36
Model size Parameters         =          10
           Degrees of freedom =          26
Residuals Sum of squares      =      594.54206
           Standard error of e =      4.78195
Fit        R-squared          =      .99336   Was 0.99334
           Adjusted R-squared =      .99107   Was 0.99137
-----

```

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-ratio	P[T >t]	Mean of X
Constant	-7916.51**	3822.602	-2.071	.0484	
PG	-26.8077***	5.86376	-4.572	.0001	2.31661
Y	.02231***	.00725	3.077	.0049	9232.86
PNC	30.0618	29.69543	1.012	.3207	1.67078
PUC	-7.44699	6.45668	-1.153	.2592	2.34364
PPT	9.05542	9.15246	.989	.3316	2.74486
PD	11.8023	38.50913	.306	.7617	1.65056 (NOTE LOW t ratio)
PN	47.3306	37.23680	1.271	.2150	2.08511
PS	-60.6202**	28.77798	-2.106	.0450	2.36898
YEAR	4.02861*	1.97231	2.043	.0514	1977.50

Linear Least Squares Subject to Restrictions

Restrictions: Theory imposes certain restrictions on parameters.

Some common applications

- Dropping variables from the equation = certain coefficients in \mathbf{b} forced to equal 0. (Probably the most common testing situation. “Is a certain variable significant?”)
- Adding up conditions: Sums of certain coefficients must equal fixed values. Adding up conditions in demand systems. Constant returns to scale in production functions.
- Equality restrictions: Certain coefficients must equal other coefficients. Using real vs. nominal variables in equations.

General formulation for linear restrictions:

Minimize the sum of squares, $\mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e}$, subject to the linear constraint
 $\mathbf{Rb} = \mathbf{q}$.

Restricted Least Squares

In practice, restrictions can usually be imposed by solving them out.

1. **Force a coefficient to equal zero.** Drop the variable from the equation

Problem: Minimize for $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_1 x_{i1} - \beta_2 x_{i2} - \beta_3 x_{i3})^2$ subject to $\beta_3 = 0$

Solution: Minimize for β_1, β_2 $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_1 x_{i1} - \beta_2 x_{i2})^2$

2. **Adding up restriction.** Impose $\beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3 = 1$. Strategy: $\beta_3 = 1 - \beta_1 - \beta_2$.

Solution: Minimize for β_1, β_2 $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_1 x_{i1} - \beta_2 x_{i2} - (1 - \beta_1 - \beta_2) x_{i3})^2$
 $= \sum_{i=1}^n [(y_i - x_{i3}) - \beta_1 (x_{i1} - x_{i3}) - \beta_2 (x_{i2} - x_{i3})]^2$

3. **Equality restriction.** Impose $\beta_3 = \beta_2$

Minimize for $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_1 x_{i1} - \beta_2 x_{i2} - \beta_3 x_{i3})^2$ subject to $\beta_3 = \beta_2$

Solution: Minimize for β_1, β_2 $\sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - \beta_1 x_{i1} - \beta_2 (x_{i2} + x_{i3})]^2$

In each case, least squares using transformations of the data.

Restricted Least Squares Solution

- General Approach: Programming Problem

Minimize for β $L = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)'(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)$

subject to $\mathbf{R}\beta = \mathbf{q}$

Each row of \mathbf{R} is the K coefficients in a restriction.

There are J restrictions: J rows

- $\beta_3 = 0$: $\mathbf{R} = [0, 0, 1, 0, \dots]$ $\mathbf{q} = (0)$. $J=1$
- $\beta_2 = \beta_3$: $\mathbf{R} = [0, 1, -1, 0, \dots]$ $\mathbf{q} = (0)$. $J=1$
- $\beta_2 = 0, \beta_3 = 0$: $\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 0, 1, 0, 0, \dots \\ 0, 0, 1, 0, \dots \end{bmatrix}$ $\mathbf{q} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $J=2$

Solution Strategy

- Quadratic program: Minimize quadratic criterion subject to linear restrictions
- All restrictions are binding
- Solve using Lagrangean formulation
- Minimize over (β, λ)

$$L^* = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)'(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta) + 2\lambda'(\mathbf{R}\beta - \mathbf{q})$$

(The 2 is for convenience – see below.)

Restricted LS Solution

Necessary Conditions

$$\frac{\partial L^*}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} = -2\mathbf{X}'(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) + 2\mathbf{R}'\boldsymbol{\lambda} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\frac{\partial L^*}{\partial \boldsymbol{\lambda}} = 2(\mathbf{R}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{q}) = \mathbf{0}$$

Divide everything by 2. Collect in a matrix form

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} & \mathbf{R}' \\ \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta} \\ \boldsymbol{\lambda} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{q} \end{pmatrix} \text{ or } \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\theta} = \mathbf{w}. \text{ Solution } \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{w}$$

Does not rely on full rank of \mathbf{X} .

Relies on column rank of $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{K} + \mathbf{J}$.

Restricted Least Squares

If \mathbf{X} has full rank, there is a partitioned solution for β^* and λ^*

$$\beta^* = \mathbf{b} - (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{R}'[\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{R}'](\mathbf{R}\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{q})$$

$$\lambda^* = [\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{R}'](\mathbf{R}\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{q})$$

where \mathbf{b} = the simple least squares coefficients, $\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$.

Note $\beta^* = \mathbf{b}$ and $\lambda^* = \mathbf{0}$ if $\mathbf{R}\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0}$.

Aspects of Restricted LS

- 1. $\mathbf{b}^* = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{C}\mathbf{m}$ where**
 \mathbf{m} = the “discrepancy vector” **$\mathbf{R}\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{q}$** .
Note what happens if **$\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{0}$** .
What does **$\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{0}$** mean?
- 2. $\boldsymbol{\lambda} = [\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{R}']^{-1}(\mathbf{R}\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{q}) = [\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{R}']^{-1}\mathbf{m}$.**
When does **$\boldsymbol{\lambda} = \mathbf{0}$** . What does this mean?
- 3. Combining results: $\mathbf{b}^* = \mathbf{b} - (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{R}'\boldsymbol{\lambda}$.**
How could **$\mathbf{b}^* = \mathbf{b}$** ?

Restrictions and the Criterion Function

Assume full rank \mathbf{X} case. (The usual case.)

$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$ uniquely minimizes $(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})'(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$.

$(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})'(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}) < (\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}^*)'(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}^*)$ for any $\mathbf{b}^* \neq \mathbf{b}$.

Imposing restrictions cannot improve the criterion value.

It follows that $R^{2*} < R^2$. Restrictions must degrade the fit.