

## Algebra of Least Squares

### Geometry of least squares

Recall that our data is like a table  $[\mathbf{Y} \ \mathbf{X}]$  where  $\mathbf{Y}$  collects  $n$  observations on the dependent variable and  $\mathbf{X}$  collects  $n$  observations on the  $k$ -dimensional independent variable:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X}'_1 \\ \mathbf{X}'_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{X}'_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{1,1} & X_{1,2} & \cdots & X_{1,k} \\ X_{2,1} & X_{2,2} & \cdots & X_{2,k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ X_{n,1} & X_{n,k} & \cdots & X_{n,k} \end{bmatrix}_{n \times k} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}_{n \times 1}.$$

We can think of  $\mathbf{Y}$  and the columns of  $\mathbf{X}$  as members of the  $n$ -dimensional Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . One can define a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  called the *column space* of a  $n \times k$  matrix  $\mathbf{X}$ , that is a collection of all vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that can be written as linear combinations of the columns of  $\mathbf{X}$ :

$$\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{X}) = \left\{ \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{b} = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_k)' \in \mathbb{R}^k \right\}.$$

For two vectors  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the distance between  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  is given by the Euclidean norm<sup>1</sup> of their difference  $\|\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}\| = \sqrt{(\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b})'(\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b})}$ . Thus, the least squares problem, minimization of the sum-of-squared errors  $(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})'(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})$ , is to find, out of all elements of  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{X})$ , the one closest to  $\mathbf{Y}$ :

$$\min_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbf{X})} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{y}\|^2.$$

The closest point is found by "dropping a perpendicular". That is, a solution to the least squares problem,  $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$  must be chosen so that the residual vector  $\hat{\mathbf{e}} = \mathbf{Y} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}}$  is orthogonal (perpendicular) to each column of  $\mathbf{X}$ :

$$\hat{\mathbf{e}}' \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{0}.$$

As a result,  $\hat{\mathbf{e}}$  is orthogonal to every element of  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{X})$ . Indeed, if  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbf{X})$ , then there exists  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  such that  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mathbf{e}}' \mathbf{z} &= \hat{\mathbf{e}}' \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

The collection of the elements of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  orthogonal to  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{X})$  is called the *orthogonal complement* of  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{X})$ :

$$\mathcal{S}^\perp(\mathbf{X}) = \{ \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{z}' \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{0} \}.$$

Every element of  $\mathcal{S}^\perp(\mathbf{X})$  is orthogonal to every element in  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{X})$ .

<sup>1</sup>For a vector  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)'$ , its Euclidean norm is defined as  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x}} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$ .

The solution to the least squares problem is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{Y} &= \mathbf{X}\widehat{\beta} \\ &= \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} \\ &= \mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y},\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'$$

is called the *orthogonal projection matrix*. For any vector  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X}\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbf{X}).$$

Furthermore, the residual vector will be in  $\mathcal{S}^\perp(\mathbf{X})$ :

$$\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X}\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{S}^\perp(\mathbf{X}). \quad (1)$$

To show (1), first note, that, since the columns of  $\mathbf{X}$  are in  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{X})$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X} &= \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} \\ &= \mathbf{X},\end{aligned}$$

and, since  $\mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X}$  is a symmetric matrix,

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}'.$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{X}'(\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X}\mathbf{z}) &= \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X}\mathbf{z} \\ &= \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{z} \\ &= \mathbf{0}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus, by the definition, the residuals  $\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X}\mathbf{z}$  belongs to  $\mathcal{S}^\perp(\mathbf{X})$ . The residuals can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{\mathbf{e}} &= \mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y} \\ &= (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X})\mathbf{Y} \\ &= \mathbf{M}_\mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y},\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{M}_\mathbf{X} &= \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X} \\ &= \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}',\end{aligned}$$

is a projection matrix onto  $\mathcal{S}^\perp(\mathbf{X})$ .

The projection matrices  $\mathbf{P}_\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathbf{M}_\mathbf{X}$  have the following properties:

- $P_X + M_X = I_n$ . This implies, that for any  $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$z = P_X z + M_X z.$$

- Symmetric:

$$\begin{aligned} P_X' &= P_X, \\ M_X' &= M_X. \end{aligned}$$

- Idempotent:  $P_X P_X = P_X$ , and  $M_X M_X = M_X$ .

$$\begin{aligned} P_X P_X &= X (X' X)^{-1} X' X (X' X)^{-1} X' \\ &= X (X' X)^{-1} X' \\ &= P_X \\ M_X M_X &= (I_n - P_X) (I_n - P_X) \\ &= I_n - 2P_X + P_X P_X \\ &= I_n - P_X \\ &= M_X. \end{aligned}$$

- Orthogonal:

$$\begin{aligned} P_X M_X &= P_X (I_n - P_X) \\ &= P_X - P_X P_X \\ &= P_X - P_X \\ &= \mathbf{0}. \end{aligned}$$

This property implies that  $M_X X = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned} M_X X &= (I_n - P_X) X \\ &= X - P_X X \\ &= X - X \\ &= \mathbf{0}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that, in the above discussion, none of “statistical assumptions” (such as  $\mathbb{E}(e_i | \mathbf{X}_i) = 0$ ) have been used. Given data,  $\mathbf{Y}$  and  $\mathbf{X}$ , one can always perform least squares, regardless of what data generating process stands behind the data. However, one needs a model to discuss the statistical properties of an estimator (such as unbiasedness and etc).

## Partitioned regression

We can partition the matrix of regressors  $\mathbf{X}$  as follows:

$$\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{X}_1 \ \mathbf{X}_2],$$

and write the model as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}_1\boldsymbol{\beta}_1 + \mathbf{X}_2\boldsymbol{\beta}_2 + \mathbf{e},$$

where  $\mathbf{X}_1$  is a  $n \times k_1$  matrix,  $\mathbf{X}_2$  is  $n \times k_2$ ,  $k_1 + k_2 = k$ , and

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{\beta}_2 \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $\boldsymbol{\beta}_1$  and  $\boldsymbol{\beta}_2$  are  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ -vectors respectively. Such a decomposition allows one to focus on a group of variables and their corresponding parameters, say  $\mathbf{X}_1$  and  $\boldsymbol{\beta}_1$ . If

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \begin{pmatrix} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 \\ \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_2 \end{pmatrix},$$

then one can write the following version of the normal equations (first-order conditions of the least square):

$$(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$$

as

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X}'_1\mathbf{X}_1 & \mathbf{X}'_1\mathbf{X}_2 \\ \mathbf{X}'_2\mathbf{X}_1 & \mathbf{X}'_2\mathbf{X}_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 \\ \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X}'_1\mathbf{Y} \\ \mathbf{X}'_2\mathbf{Y} \end{pmatrix}.$$

One can obtain the expressions for  $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1$  and  $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_2$  by inverting the partitioned matrix on the left-hand side of the equation above.

Alternatively, let's define  $\mathbf{M}_2$  to be the projection matrix on the space orthogonal to the space  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{X}_2)$ :

$$\mathbf{M}_2 = \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{X}_2(\mathbf{X}'_2\mathbf{X}_2)^{-1}\mathbf{X}'_2.$$

Then,

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 = (\mathbf{X}'_1\mathbf{M}_2\mathbf{X}_1)^{-1}\mathbf{X}'_1\mathbf{M}_2\mathbf{Y}. \quad (2)$$

In order to show that, first write

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}_1\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 + \mathbf{X}_2\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_2 + \widehat{\mathbf{e}}. \quad (3)$$

Note that by the construction,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{M}_2\widehat{\mathbf{e}} &= \widehat{\mathbf{e}} \quad (\widehat{\mathbf{e}} \text{ is orthogonal to } \mathbf{X}_2), \\ \mathbf{M}_2\mathbf{X}_2 &= \mathbf{0}, \\ \mathbf{X}'_1\widehat{\mathbf{e}} &= \mathbf{0}, \\ \mathbf{X}'_2\widehat{\mathbf{e}} &= \mathbf{0}. \end{aligned}$$

Substitute equation (3) into the right-hand side of equation (2):

$$\begin{aligned}
& (\mathbf{X}'_1 \mathbf{M}_2 \mathbf{X}_1)^{-1} \mathbf{X}'_1 \mathbf{M}_2 \mathbf{Y} \\
&= (\mathbf{X}'_1 \mathbf{M}_2 \mathbf{X}_1)^{-1} \mathbf{X}'_1 \mathbf{M}_2 (\mathbf{X}_1 \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 + \mathbf{X}_2 \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_2 + \hat{\mathbf{e}}) \\
&= (\mathbf{X}'_1 \mathbf{M}_2 \mathbf{X}_1)^{-1} \mathbf{X}'_1 \mathbf{M}_2 \mathbf{X}_1 \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 \\
&+ (\mathbf{X}'_1 \mathbf{M}_2 \mathbf{X}_1)^{-1} \mathbf{X}'_1 \hat{\mathbf{e}} \quad (\mathbf{M}_2 \mathbf{X}_2 = \mathbf{0} \text{ and } \mathbf{M}_2 \hat{\mathbf{e}} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}) \\
&= \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1.
\end{aligned}$$

Since  $\mathbf{M}_2$  is symmetric and idempotent, one can write

$$\begin{aligned}
\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 &= ((\mathbf{M}_2 \mathbf{X}_1)' (\mathbf{M}_2 \mathbf{X}_1))^{-1} (\mathbf{M}_2 \mathbf{X}_1)' (\mathbf{M}_2 \mathbf{Y}) \\
&= (\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_1' \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_1)^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_1' \tilde{\mathbf{Y}},
\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_1 &= \mathbf{M}_2 \mathbf{X}_1 \\
&= \mathbf{X}_1 - \mathbf{X}_2 (\mathbf{X}'_2 \mathbf{X}_2)^{-1} \mathbf{X}'_2 \mathbf{X}_1 \text{ residuals from the regression of columns of } \mathbf{X}_1 \text{ on } \mathbf{X}_2, \\
\tilde{\mathbf{Y}} &= \mathbf{M}_2 \mathbf{Y} \\
&= \mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}_2 (\mathbf{X}'_2 \mathbf{X}_2)^{-1} \mathbf{X}'_2 \mathbf{Y} \text{ residuals from the regression of } \mathbf{Y} \text{ on } \mathbf{X}_2.
\end{aligned}$$

Thus, to obtain coefficients for the first  $k_1$  regressors, instead of running the full regression with  $k_1 + k_2$  regressors, one can regress  $\mathbf{Y}$  on  $\mathbf{X}_2$  to obtain the residuals  $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}$ , regress  $\mathbf{X}_1$  on  $\mathbf{X}_2$  to obtain the residuals  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_1$ , and then regress  $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}$  on  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_1$  to obtain  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1$ . In other words,  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1$  shows the effect of  $\mathbf{X}_1$  *after controlling* for  $\mathbf{X}_2$ .

Similarly to  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1$ , one can write:

$$\begin{aligned}
\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_2 &= (\mathbf{X}'_2 \mathbf{M}_1 \mathbf{X}_2)^{-1} \mathbf{X}'_2 \mathbf{M}_1 \mathbf{Y}, \text{ where} \\
\mathbf{M}_1 &= \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{X}_1 (\mathbf{X}'_1 \mathbf{X}_1)^{-1} \mathbf{X}'_1.
\end{aligned}$$

For example, consider a simple regression

$$Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_i + e_i,$$

for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

Let's define a  $n$ -vector of ones:

$$\mathbf{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_{n \times 1}.$$

In this case, the matrix of regressors is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & X_1 \\ 1 & X_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & X_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{X} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Consider

$$\mathbf{M}_1 = \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{1}(\mathbf{1}'\mathbf{1})^{-1}\mathbf{1}',$$

and

$$\hat{\beta}_2 = \frac{\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{Y}}{\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{X}}.$$

Now,  $\mathbf{1}'\mathbf{1} = n$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{M}_1 &= \mathbf{I}_n - \frac{1}{n}\mathbf{1}\mathbf{1}', \text{ and} \\ \mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{X} &= \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{1}\frac{\mathbf{1}'\mathbf{X}}{n} \\ &= \mathbf{X} - \bar{X}\mathbf{1} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} X_1 - \bar{X} \\ X_2 - \bar{X} \\ \vdots \\ X_n - \bar{X} \end{pmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\bar{X}$  is the sample average:

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{X} &= \frac{\mathbf{1}'\mathbf{X}}{n} \\ &= n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the matrix  $\mathbf{M}_1$  transforms the vector  $\mathbf{X}$  into the vector of deviations from the average. We can write

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\beta}_2 &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}) Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \\ &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}) (Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}. \end{aligned}$$

## Goodness of fit

Write

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Y} &= \mathbf{P}_X\mathbf{Y} + \mathbf{M}_X\mathbf{Y} \\ &= \hat{\mathbf{Y}} + \hat{\mathbf{e}}, \end{aligned}$$

where, by the construction,

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}'\widehat{\mathbf{e}} &= (\mathbf{P}_X\mathbf{Y})'(M_X\mathbf{Y}) \\ &= \mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{P}_X M_X\mathbf{Y} \\ &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

Suppose that the model contains an intercept, i.e. the first column of  $\mathbf{X}$  is the vector of ones  $\mathbf{1}$ . The *total variation* in  $\mathbf{Y}$  is

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 &= \mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{Y} \\ &= (\widehat{\mathbf{Y}} + \widehat{\mathbf{e}})'\mathbf{M}_1(\widehat{\mathbf{Y}} + \widehat{\mathbf{e}}) \\ &= \widehat{\mathbf{Y}}'\mathbf{M}_1\widehat{\mathbf{Y}} + \widehat{\mathbf{Y}}'\mathbf{M}_1\widehat{\mathbf{e}} + 2\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}'\mathbf{M}_1\widehat{\mathbf{e}}.\end{aligned}$$

Since the model contains an intercept,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{1}'\widehat{\mathbf{e}} &= 0, \text{ and} \\ \mathbf{M}_1\widehat{\mathbf{e}} &= \widehat{\mathbf{e}}.\end{aligned}$$

However,  $\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}'\widehat{\mathbf{e}} = 0$ , and, therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{Y} &= \widehat{\mathbf{Y}}'\mathbf{M}_1\widehat{\mathbf{Y}} + \widehat{\mathbf{e}}'\widehat{\mathbf{e}}, \text{ or} \\ \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (\widehat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{e}_i^2.\end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{Y} &= \frac{\mathbf{1}'\mathbf{Y}}{n} \\ &= \frac{\mathbf{1}'\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}}{n} + \frac{\mathbf{1}'\widehat{\mathbf{e}}}{n} \\ &= \frac{\mathbf{1}'\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}}{n} \\ &= \overline{\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}}.\end{aligned}$$

Hence, the averages of  $\mathbf{Y}$  and its predicted values  $\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}$  are equal, and we can write:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (\widehat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{e}_i^2, \text{ or} \\ TSS &= ESS + RSS,\end{aligned}\tag{4}$$

where

$$TSS = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \text{ total sum-of-squares,}$$

$$ESS = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2 \text{ explained sum-of-squares,}$$

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{e}_i^2 \text{ residual sum-of-squares.}$$

The ratio of the  $ESS$  to the  $TSS$  is called the *coefficient of determination* or  $R^2$ :

$$\begin{aligned} R^2 &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2} \\ &= 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{e}_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2} \\ &= 1 - \frac{\hat{\mathbf{e}}' \hat{\mathbf{e}}}{\mathbf{Y}' \mathbf{M}_1 \mathbf{Y}}. \end{aligned}$$

Properties of  $R^2$ :

- Bounded between 0 and 1 as implied by decomposition (4). This property does not hold if the model does not have an intercept, and one should not use the above definition of  $R^2$  in this case. If  $R^2 = 1$  then  $\hat{\mathbf{e}}' \hat{\mathbf{e}} = 0$ , which can happen only if  $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbf{X})$ , i.e.  $\mathbf{Y}$  is *exactly* a linear combination of the columns of  $\mathbf{X}$ .
- $R^2$  increases by adding more regressors. Suppose we have  $n$  observations on regressors  $(Z_1, \dots, Z_k)$  and  $(W_1, \dots, W_m)$  and dependent variable  $Y$ . Consider two regressions: the “long” regression with all regressors and the “short” regression with only  $(Z_1, \dots, Z_k)$ . It can be shown that the  $R^2$  of the long regression must be smaller or equal to the  $R^2$  of the short regression.
- $R^2$  shows how much of the *sample* variation in  $\mathbf{Y}$  was explained by  $\mathbf{X}$ . However, our objective is to estimate *population* relationships and not to explain the *sample* variation. High  $R^2$  is not necessary an indicator of the good regression model, and a low  $R^2$  is not an evidence against it.
- Since  $R^2$  increases with inclusion of additional regressors, instead researchers often report the *adjusted coefficient of determination*  $\bar{R}^2$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{R}^2 &= 1 - \frac{n-1}{n-k} (1 - R^2) \\ &= 1 - \frac{\hat{\mathbf{e}}' \hat{\mathbf{e}} / (n-k)}{\mathbf{Y}' \mathbf{M}_1 \mathbf{Y} / (n-1)}. \end{aligned}$$

The adjusted coefficient of determination discounts the fit when the number of the regressors  $k$  is large relative to the number of observations  $n$ .  $\bar{R}^2$  may decrease with  $k$ . However, there is no strong argument for using such an adjustment.