

ECMA31000: Introduction to Empirical Analysis

Hypothesis Testing; Linear Regression I

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Outline

- Last time:
 - Confidence Intervals, Hypothesis Testing.
- Today:
 - Non-testable hypotheses
 - Linear Regression

Hypothesis Testing: Definitions

- The null hypothesis is a subset $\Theta_0 \subset \Theta$ of hypothesised values for θ_0 , written as:

$$H_0 : \theta_0 \in \Theta_0.$$

- If Θ_0 is a singleton, the null hypothesis is called a simple hypothesis. If not, the hypothesis is composite.
- e.g. If $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, 1)$, $H_0 : \mu = 0$ is a simple null, $H_0 : \mu \leq 0$ is a composite null.
- A test of H_0 is therefore a test of whether the data were generated by some F_θ such that $\theta \in \Theta_0$.
- The alternative hypothesis is $\Theta \setminus \Theta_0$.

Hypothesis Testing: Definitions

- A test of H_0 is a function $\phi_n(X_1, \dots, X_n) \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$.
- We reject H_0 at sample size n iff $\phi_n = 1$.
- e.g. If $T_n(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ is a sequence of statistics, and c_n a sequence of real numbers,

$$\phi_n(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \mathbf{1}(T_n > c_n)$$

is a test which rejects H_0 iff $T_n > c_n$.

Two undesirable outcomes

- Suppose $\theta_0 \in \Theta_0$ but $\phi_n = 1$. This is called a Type I Error.
- Suppose $\theta_0 \notin \Theta_0$ but $\phi_n = 0$. This is called a Type II Error.
- It is customary to control the probability of a Type I Error first, and then minimize the probability of a Type II Error subject to this constraint.
- The power function associated with ϕ_n is the function

$$\beta_n(\theta) = P_\theta(\phi_n(X_1, \dots, X_n) = 1),$$

which is the probability that ϕ_n rejects H_0 if the true parameter is θ .

Properties of tests

- Given a significance level α , we select a test ϕ_n such that

$$\beta_n(\theta) \leq \alpha \quad \text{for all } \theta \in \Theta_0,$$

or, alternatively

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \beta_n(\theta) \leq \alpha.$$

- Similarly, given a test ϕ_n , the size of ϕ_n with power function β_n is

$$\alpha := \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \beta_n(\theta).$$

- The probability that ϕ_n rejects when H_0 is true cannot exceed α .

Example: Normal Distribution

- Suppose $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is an iid sample from $\mathcal{N}(\mu, 1)$. We wish to test $H_0 : \mu \leq 0$ vs. $H_1 : \mu > 0$, so

$$\Theta_0 = \{\mu \in (-\infty, 0]; \sigma^2 \text{ known}\}.$$

- Let $c > 0$ and consider the test

$$\phi_n^{norm}(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \mathbf{1}(\bar{X}_n > c).$$

- The power function is

$$\begin{aligned}\beta_n^{norm}(\mu) &= P_\mu(\bar{X}_n > c) \\ &= P_\mu(\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)/\sigma > \sqrt{n}(c - \mu)/\sigma) \\ &= 1 - \Phi(\sqrt{n}(c - \mu)/\sigma).\end{aligned}$$

$$\bar{X}_n > c$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma} > \frac{\sqrt{n}(c - \mu)}{\sigma}$$

$$\sim N(0, 1)$$

Example: Normal Distribution

- The uniformly (in μ) most powerful test of size α takes the form

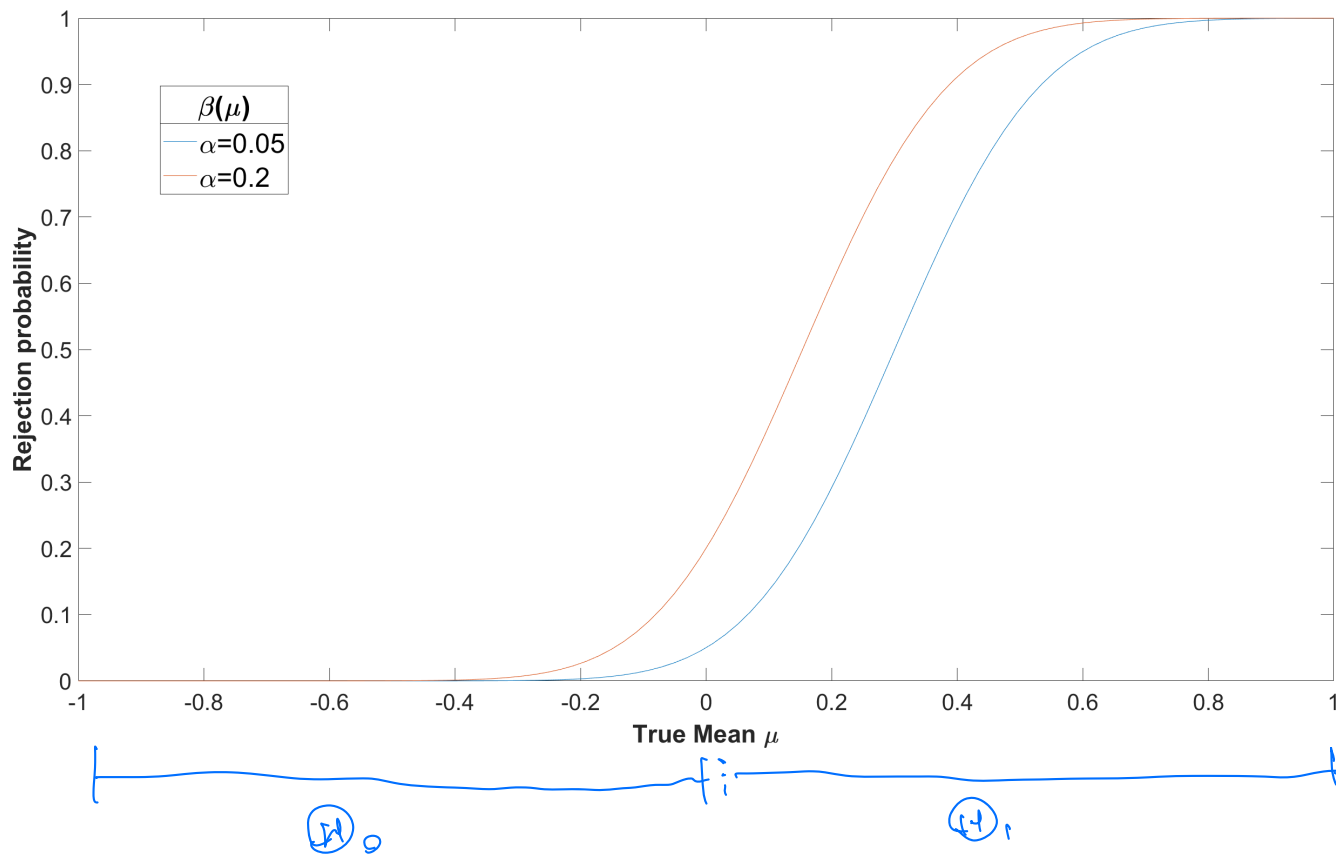
$$\phi_n^{norm}(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \mathbf{1}(\bar{X}_n > c^*(\alpha)),$$

where $c^*(\alpha) = z_{1-\alpha} \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$. Its power function is:

$$\begin{aligned}\beta_n^{norm}(\mu) &= 1 - \Phi(\sqrt{n}(c^* - \mu)/\sigma) \\ &= 1 - \Phi\left(z_{1-\alpha} - \frac{\mu\sqrt{n}}{\sigma}\right).\end{aligned}$$

Example: Normal Distribution

- Probability of rejecting H_0 is known for any true value of μ if, e.g. $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, 1)$. This is the power curve:



Nuisance Parameters

- Suppose $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is an iid sample from $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$. We wish to test $H_0 : \mu \leq 0$ vs. $H_1 : \mu > 0$, so

$$\Theta_0 = \{\mu \in (-\infty, 0]; \sigma^2 > 0\}, \quad \Theta_1 = \{\mu \in (0, \infty); \sigma^2 > 0\}.$$

- σ^2 is unobserved, and is called a nuisance parameter because it isn't of immediate interest but changing it may alter the distribution of our test statistic under the null and alternative hypotheses.
- One solution: Choose a test statistic whose distribution under H_0 controls size by accounting for changing σ^2 (e.g. the t-test).
- Problem: We've now added a restriction to the class of tests, so the most powerful one will be less powerful.

Nuisance Parameters

- Let $c > 0$ and consider the t-test:

$$\phi_n^t(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \mathbf{1} \left(\frac{\sqrt{n} (\bar{X}_n - 0)}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2}} > c \right).$$

- If $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$, $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, $V \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$ and Z is independent of V , then

$$\frac{Z + \mu}{\sqrt{V/(n-1)}} \sim t_{\mu, n-1}$$

has a non-central t -distribution with $n - 1$ degrees of freedom and non-centrality parameter μ , where $t_{\mu, n-1}$ denotes its CDF.

Power of the t-test

- Let

$$T_n = \frac{\sqrt{n} (\bar{X}_n - 0)}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2}} = \frac{\sqrt{n} (\bar{X}_n - 0) / \sigma}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2 / \sigma^2}}.$$

- Therefore:

$$T_n = \frac{\sqrt{n} (\bar{X}_n - \mu) / \sigma + \sqrt{n} \mu / \sigma}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2 / \sigma^2}} \sim t_{\frac{\sqrt{n} \mu}{\sigma}, n-1}.$$

- The power function is

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_n^t(\mu) &= P_{\mu, \sigma}(T_n > c) \\ &= 1 - t_{\frac{\sqrt{n} \mu}{\sigma}, n-1}(c). \end{aligned}$$

$$P(T_n > c)$$

$$= 1 - P(T_n \leq c).$$

Power of the t-test

- When $\alpha \geq 0.5$, the uniformly (in (μ, σ)) most powerful test of size α takes the form

$$\phi_n^t(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \mathbf{1}(T_n > t_{n-1, 1-\alpha}^*),$$

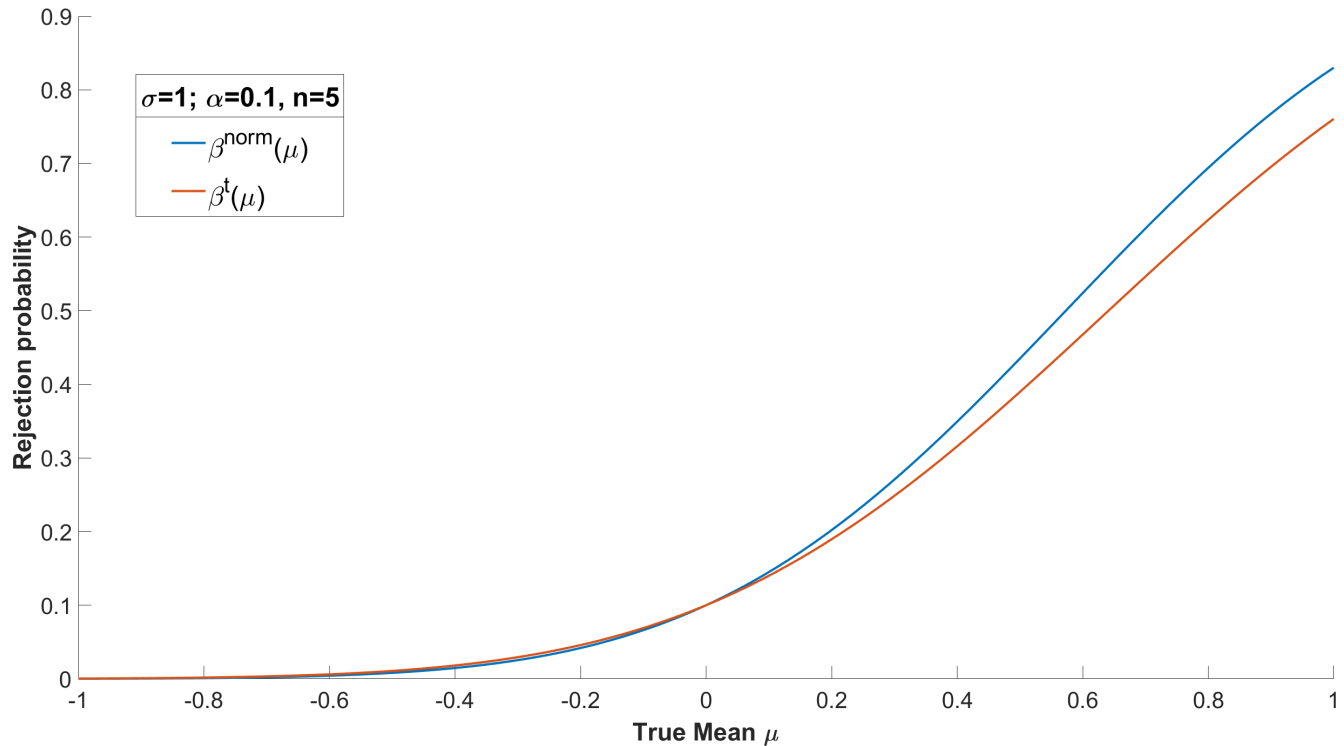
where $t_{n-1, 1-\alpha}^*$ is the $1 - \alpha$ quantile of the (central) t_{n-1} distribution. Its power function is:

$$\beta_n^t(\mu) = 1 - t_{\frac{\sqrt{n}\mu}{\sigma}, n-1}(t_{n-1, 1-\alpha}^*).$$

- (When $\alpha < 0.5$, the most powerful test at the point (μ, σ) varies with (μ, σ) , so there is no UMP test).

Power of the t-test

- Power curves for the t-test and UMP test when it is known that $\sigma = 1$:



Power of the t-test

- Expanding the statistical model to allow $\sigma^2 \neq 1$ made it harder to satisfy

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \beta_n(\theta) \leq \alpha.$$

- The t-test is less powerful than $\phi_n^{norm}(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ when σ is known, but has significance level α for any value of σ when it is unknown.
- Moreover, $\phi_n^{norm}(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ requires us to specify a value $\sigma = \sigma_0$, which, if incorrect, may cause the test to “over-reject” when H_0 is true:

$$\beta_n^{norm}(\mu) = 1 - \Phi \left(z_{1-\alpha} \cdot \frac{\sigma_0}{\sigma} - \frac{\mu\sqrt{n}}{\sigma} \right),$$

which roughly equals 0.5 if $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma_0/\sigma \approx 0$.

Testing the mean in general

- Now suppose we drop the restriction to normal distributions. The statistical model is greatly expanded:

$$\mathcal{F} = \{F \text{ is a CDF and } 0 < \sigma^2(F) < \infty\}.$$

- This is a 'non-parametric' class of distributions.

Theorem

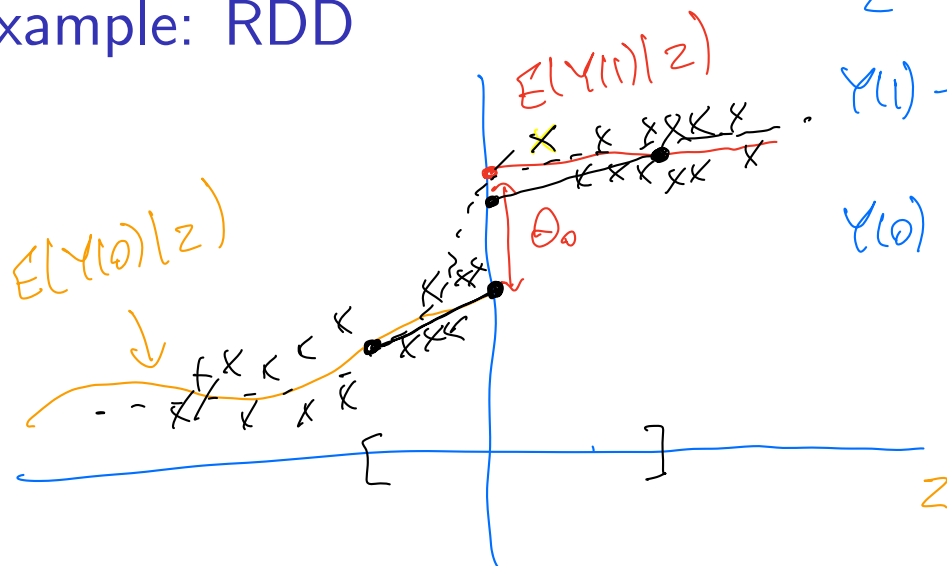
Let $\mathcal{F}_0 = \{F \in \mathcal{F} : \mu(F) = 0\}$ be the null hypothesis. Any test ϕ which has size α has power $\leq \alpha$ for any $F \in \mathcal{F} \setminus \mathcal{F}_0$. Any test which has power β against some alternative $F \in \mathcal{F} \setminus \mathcal{F}_0$ has size $\geq \beta$.

Example: RDD

Z - Standardized test Score

$Y(1)$ - Wage if attend a selective school.

$Y(0)$ - Wage if don't attend a selective school.



$$D = 1(z \geq 0)$$

Suppose ... $E(Y(0)|Z)$

Linear Regression: Definitions

- Let (Y, X, U) be a random vector such that Y and U are scalar random variables and $X \in \mathbb{R}^{k+1}$.
- Assume the first component of X equals 1:

$$X = (X_0, X_1, \dots, X_k),$$

where $X_0 = 1$.

- Let $\beta = (\beta_0, \dots, \beta_k) \in \mathbb{R}^{k+1}$ be a constant vector of unknown parameters such that

$$Y = X'\beta + U.$$

- β_0 is the *intercept* and the remaining β_j are the *slope* parameters.

Interpretations

- Note that given (Y, X) , and any β , we may construct U such that the representation

$$Y = X'\beta + U$$

holds without loss of generality (simply take $U = Y - X'\beta$).

- We now consider additional restrictions on this relationship which lead us to interpret the quantity $X'\beta$ as a “best predictor” of Y , and also (uniquely) determine β .

Linear Conditional Expectation

- Consider

$$Y = X'\beta + U. \quad \text{LSE}$$

- Suppose $E(Y|X) = X'\beta$ and define $U = Y - E(Y|X)$.
- Then $E(U|X) = 0$ and so $E(U) = E(UX) = 0$, which means $\text{Cov}(U, X) = 0$. This model is often written equivalently as

$$Y = X'\beta + U; \quad E(U|X) = 0.$$

- The vector β is a feature of the joint distribution of (Y, X) which represents the conditional expectation.

$$E(U) = E(E(U|X)) = 0. \quad E(XX') \text{ has full rank} \\ \Rightarrow \beta \text{ is unique.}$$

Linear Conditional Expectation: Example I

- This model merely posits that if X_j increases by 1 unit, the best predictor of Y under square loss increases/decreases by β_j units.
- It does NOT claim that an increase in X_j *causes* a change in Y .
- For example, suppose we observe an iid sample of $\{Y_i, D_i\}_{i=1}^n$ where Y_i is the scrap rate of factory i , and

$$D_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if factory } i \text{ receives job training grant,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Linear Conditional Expectation: Example I

$$E(Y|D=0) = \beta_0 \quad E(Y|D=1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1.$$

- Without loss of generality (see problem set 5):

$$E(Y_i|D_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_i.$$

$$\beta_1 = E(Y|D=1) - E(Y|D=0).$$

- Hence, $\beta_0 = E(Y|D=0)$ and $\beta_1 = E(Y|D=1) - E(Y|D=0)$.
- Suppose $\beta_1 < 0$, so the mean scrap rate of factories without a grant is higher than for those with a grant.
- This does NOT imply receiving a grant negatively impacts productivity, especially if grants are first come first served and the less efficient factories applied first.
- We lack a model of how Y is determined as a function of D and other variables (like prior scrap rate).

Linear Conditional Expectation: Example I

- A more complete model would consider *potential outcomes*:

$$Y_i = D_i Y_{i1} + (1 - D_i) Y_{i0},$$

where Y_{i1} is the scrap rate of firm i if they receive the grant and Y_{i0} is their scrap rate without. Note that

$$\begin{aligned}\beta_1 &= E(Y_{i1} | D=1) - E(Y_{i0} | D=0), \\ \beta_1 &= E(Y_1 | D=1) - E(Y_0 | D=0) \\ &= E(Y_1 | D=1) - E(Y_0 | D=1) \} \text{ATT} \\ &\quad + E(Y_0 | D=1) - E(Y_0 | D=0) \} \text{Selection Bias}.\end{aligned}$$

- It may also hold that $\beta_1 = 0$ but offering training grants is highly effective, if the baseline productivity of firms that don't enrol is much higher.

Linear Conditional Expectation: Example II

- If (Y, X) have a multivariate normal distribution, with $Y \in \mathbb{R}, X \in \mathbb{R}^k$, the assumption

$$E(Y|X) = \beta_0 + X'\beta_1 = (1, X')\beta$$

holds for some vector $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1')' \in \mathbb{R}^{k+1}$.

- β is unique if X is non-degenerate (no component of X is a linear function of the others). *X is not perfectly multi-collinear.*
- If X is degenerate, β is not uniquely determined because multiple values of β lead to the same value of $(1, X')\beta$. To see this, suppose for some constants a_1, \dots, a_k that

$$1 = a_1X_1 + \dots + a_kX_k.$$

Linear Conditional Expectation: Example II

- Then:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E(Y|X) &= (1, X') \beta = \beta_0 + X_1 \beta_1 + \dots + X_k \beta_k \\
 &= (a_1 X_1 + \dots + a_k X_k) \beta_0 + \dots + X_k \beta_k \\
 &= X_1 (a_1 \beta_0 + \beta_1) + \dots + X_k (a_k \beta_0 + \beta_k) \\
 &= (1, X') \tilde{\beta},
 \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\tilde{\beta} = (0, a_1 \beta_0 + \beta_1, \dots, a_k \beta_0 + \beta_k).$$

\swarrow j -th component $a_j \beta_0 + \beta_j$

- Therefore, for any $m > 0$, $(1, X') \beta = (1, X') \beta_m^*$, where

$$\beta_m^* = \beta + m (\tilde{\beta} - \beta).$$

$$(1, X') \beta_m^* = (1, X') \beta + m (1, X') (\tilde{\beta} - \beta).$$

Questions?

$$\therefore (1, x') \hat{\beta} = (1, x') \beta.$$

Best Linear approximation to $E(Y|X)$

- In the absence of joint normality, or if X can take more than two values, $E(Y|X)$ is generally non-linear.
- Suppose $E(Y^2) < \infty$ and $E(X_j^2) < \infty$ for each $j = 1, \dots, k$.
- Consider the problem

$$\min_{b \in \mathbb{R}^{k+1}} E(E(Y|X) - X'b)^2.$$

- The solution is the best linear approximation to $E(Y|X)$ under square loss.

Best Linear predictor of Y

- Any solution to this problem is also represents a best linear predictor of Y , since

$$\begin{aligned} E \left[(E(Y|X) - X'b)^2 \right] &= E \left(\overbrace{(E(Y|X) - Y)}^a + \overbrace{(Y - X'b)}^b \right)^2 \\ &= E(Y - E(Y|X))^2 \\ &\quad + E(Y - X'b)^2 \\ &\quad - 2E[(Y - E(Y|X))(Y - X'b)] . \end{aligned}$$

- The law of iterated expectation implies

$$E[(Y - E(Y|X))(Y - X'b)] = E(Y(Y - E(Y|X))) .$$

- Therefore, $E[(Y - E(Y|X))Y] = E[(Y - E(Y|X))X'b]$

$$E \left[(E(Y|X) - X'b)^2 \right] = E(Y - X'b)^2 + \text{Constant} .$$

$$E(X'b E[(Y - E(Y|X))X])$$

Best Linear predictor of Y

$$\begin{aligned} &= E(Y(X)) - E(Y(X)) \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

- Since $E(Y - X'b)^2$ is convex in b , any minimizer b^* is characterized by the FOC

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial b} E(Y - X'b^*)^2 = 2E(XX') b^* - 2E(XY) = 0.$$

- Hence b^* must satisfy

$$E(X(Y - X'b^*)) = 0.$$

- Defining $U = Y - X'b^*$ yields

$$E(XU) = 0.$$

Causal Model

- Suppose we assume that Y is determined by the equation

$$Y = X'\beta + U,$$

where X is observed and U is not.

- The *ceteris paribus* effect of X_j on Y holding the other elements of X and U constant is β_j .
- We may assume $E(U) = 0$ WLOG, by shifting β_0 accordingly, but $E(XU)$, $E(U|X)$ etc. are not necessarily equal to 0.
- The statement $E(UX) = 0$ is therefore an assumption about the joint distribution of (Y, X) . If this assumption uniquely determines β , it implies that the best linear predictor of Y given X also represents the causal effect of X on Y .

Causal Model: Example I revisited

- We observe an iid sample of $\{Y_i, D_i\}$ where Y_i is the scrap rate of factory i , and

$$D_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if factory } i \text{ receives a job training grant,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- The observed outcome Y_i is a function of the potential outcomes Y_{i0}, Y_{i1} and treatment:

$$Y_i = D_i Y_{i1} + (1 - D_i) Y_{i0}.$$

- WLOG we write

$$E(Y_i | D_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_i.$$

Causal Model: Example I revisited

- We derived

$$\beta_1 = \underbrace{E(Y_1|D=1) - E(Y_0|D=1)}_{ATT} + \underbrace{E(Y_0|D=1) - E(Y_0|D=0)}_{\text{Selection Bias}}$$

- Suppose that assignment of grants is now independent of the factory's potential outcomes Y_0, Y_1 . This means that factories are not applying for the grant based on Y_0 . We say assignment to treatment is “randomized”.
- The Selection Bias term vanishes, and

$$\beta_1 = E(Y_1|D=1) - E(Y_0|D=1) = E(Y_1 - Y_0),$$

where the second equality holds by random assignment.

- β_1 now represents the mean effect (often called Average Treatment Effect or ATE) of receiving a grant in the population of firms.

Causal Model: Example I revisited

- It is still not the case that the model

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_i + U_i$$

has a causal interpretation, even though β_1 may be equal to a parameter we are interested in (namely the ATE).

- The reason is that the grants may not impact firms equally, and β_1 represents the average effect.
- If we go one step further, and assume

$$Y_{i0} = \beta_0 + U_i,$$

$$Y_{i1} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 + U_i,$$

then $\beta_1 = Y_{i1} - Y_{i0}$ represents an (homogeneous) additive treatment effect and our model has a causal interpretation.

Linear regression when $E(XU) = 0$

- Let (Y, X, U) be a random vector such that Y and U are scalar random variables and $X \in \mathbb{R}^{k+1}$.
- Assume the first component of X equals 1:

$$X = (X_0, X_1, \dots, X_k),$$

where $X_0 = 1$.

- Let $\beta = (\beta_0, \dots, \beta_k) \in \mathbb{R}^{k+1}$ be a constant vector of unknown parameters such that

$$Y = X'\beta + U.$$

- Suppose $E(XU) = 0$, justified according to how we interpret the model.
- Suppose also that $E(X_j^2) < \infty$ for $j \leq k$, so $E(XX')$ exists.

Linear regression when $E(XU) = 0$

- There is perfect collinearity in X if there exists a constant vector $a \neq 0$ such that

$$P(a'X = 0) = 1.$$

- We assume there is no perfect collinearity in X . This assumption is equivalent to the condition that $E(XX')$ is invertible.
- Since $E(XX')$ is positive semidefinite, it is invertible iff it is positive definite.

Linear regression when $E(XU) = 0$

Lemma

Suppose X is a $(K \times 1)$ random vector and $E(XX')$ exists. Then $E(XX')$ is invertible iff there is no perfect collinearity in X .

Proof.

If there is perfect collinearity X , then there exists a vector $a \neq 0$ such that $P(X'a = 0) = 1$. For this vector,

$$E(XX')a = E(X(X'a)) = E(X \cdot 0) = 0.$$

Therefore, $E(XX')$ is not full column rank and so not invertible. Now suppose there is no perfect collinearity in X . For any vector $c \in \mathbb{R}^{k+1} \setminus \{0\}$,

$$c'E(XX')c = E\left((X'c)^2\right) > 0,$$

since the expectation equals 0 if and only if $P(X'c = 0) = 1$ which is ruled out by assumption. □

Linear regression when $E(XU) = 0$

- Since $E(XU) = E(X(Y - X'\beta)) = 0$, we obtain

$$E(XY) = E(XX')\beta.$$

- Since there is no perfect collinearity in X , $E(XX')$ is invertible, so we can solve for a unique β :

$$\beta = E(XX')^{-1} E(XY).$$

- In this case, β is point identified, since it is uniquely determined by $E(XX')$, $E(XY)$.

Linear regression when $E(XU) = 0$

- If $E(XX')$ is not invertible, there are multiple solutions to

$$E(XY) = E(XX')\beta.$$

- If $\tilde{\beta}$ satisfies $E(XX')\tilde{\beta} = E(XY)$, then $E(XX')(\tilde{\beta} - \beta) = 0$, so

$$(\tilde{\beta} - \beta)' E(XX') (\tilde{\beta} - \beta) = E\left(\left[X'(\tilde{\beta} - \beta)\right]^2\right) = 0,$$

which implies $P(X'\tilde{\beta} = X'\beta) = 1$.

- If we interpret $X'\beta$ as a best linear predictor of Y , this says there are multiple best predictors.
- If the model is interpreted causally, however, different values of β imply different ceteris paribus effects, holding U and the other components of X fixed.

Questions?