

# 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  $\theta_0$ , written as:

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

- If  $\Theta_0$  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  $F_\theta$  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  $\phi_n$  is the function

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

which is the probability that  $\phi_n$  rejects  $H_0$  if the true parameter is  $\theta$ .

# Properties of tests

- Given a significance level  $\alpha$ , we select a test  $\phi_n$  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  $\phi_n$ , the size of  $\phi_n$  with power function  $\beta_n$  is

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

- The probability that  $\phi_n$  rejects when  $H_0$  is true cannot exceed  $\alpha$ .

## 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
- $$\phi_n^{norm}(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \mathbf{1}(\bar{X}_n > c).$$
- $\bar{X}_n > c$   
 $\Leftrightarrow \sqrt{n} \frac{(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma} > \sqrt{n} \frac{(c - \mu)}{\sigma}$
- $\sim N(0, 1)$

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

## Example: Normal Distribution

- The uniformly (in  $\mu$ ) most powerful test of size  $\alpha$  takes the form

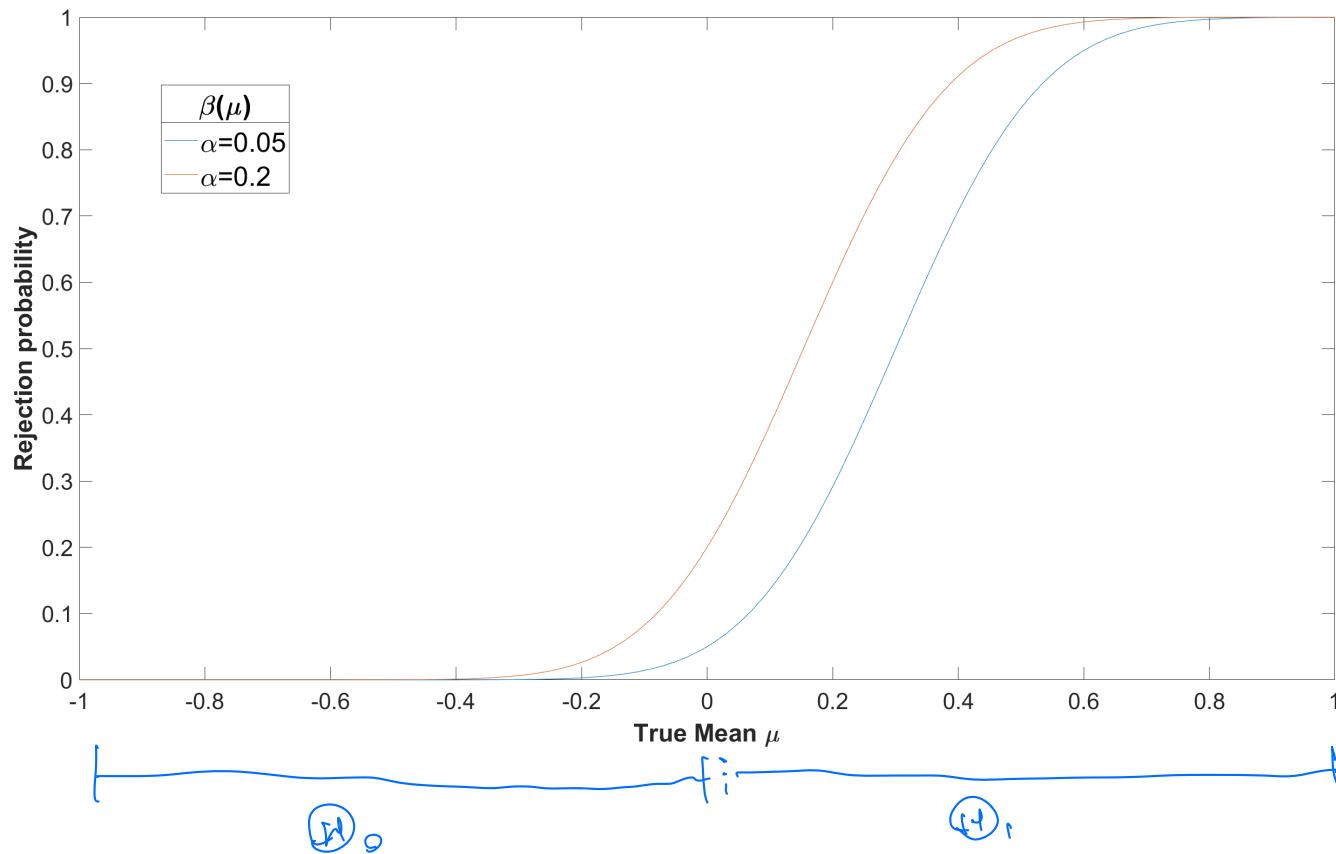
$$\phi_n^{norm}(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \mathbf{1}(\bar{X}_n > c^*(\alpha)),$$

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

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

## Example: Normal Distribution

- Probability of rejecting  $H_0$  is known for any true value of  $\mu$  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

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

- $\sigma^2$  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  $\sigma^2$  (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  $\mu$ , 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  $(\mu, \sigma)$ ) most powerful test of size  $\alpha$  takes the form

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

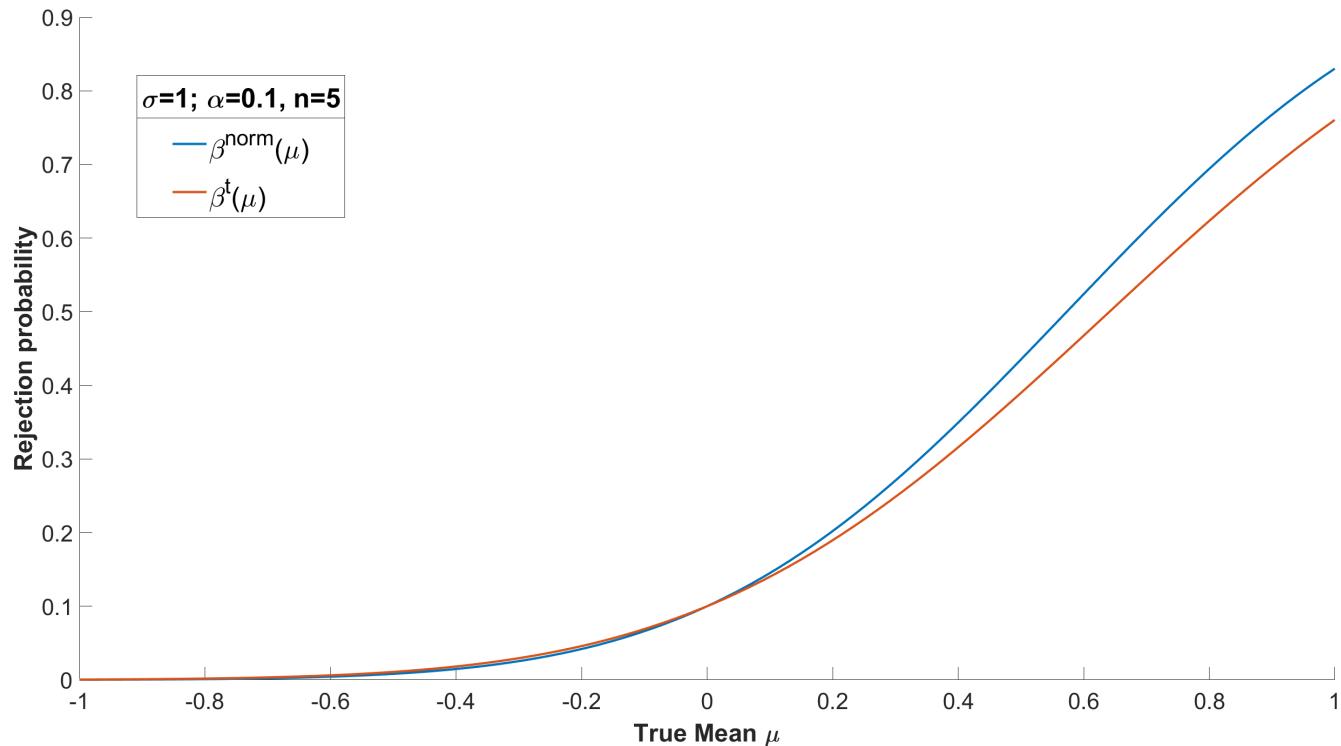
where  $t_{n-1, 1-\alpha}^*$  is the  $1 - \alpha$  quantile of the (central)  $t_{n-1}$  distribution. Its power function is:

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

- (When  $\alpha < 0.5$ , the most powerful test at the point  $(\mu, \sigma)$  varies with  $(\mu, \sigma)$ , 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  $\sigma$  is known, but has significance level  $\alpha$  for any value of  $\sigma$  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:

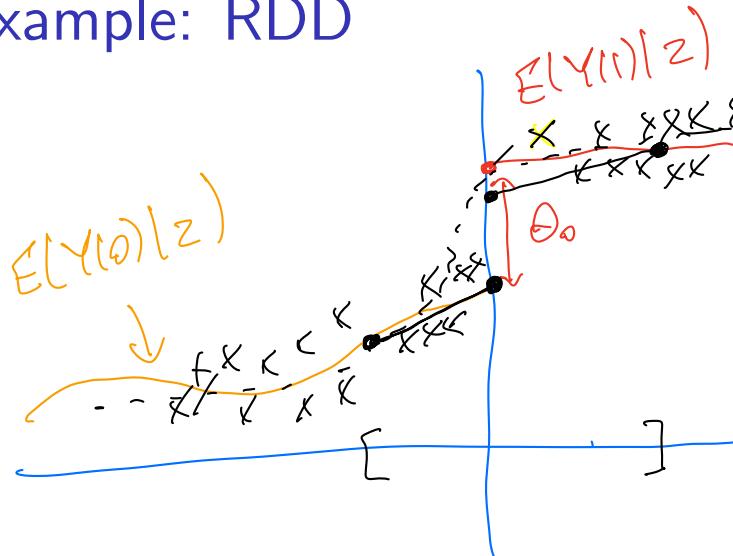
$$\mathcal{F} = \{F \text{ is a CDF and } 0 < \sigma^2(F) < \infty\}.$$

- 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  $\phi$  which has size  $\alpha$  has power  $\leq \alpha$  for any  $F \in \mathcal{F} \setminus \mathcal{F}_0$ . Any test which has power  $\beta$  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.

$$D = \mathbb{1}(Z \geq \theta_0)$$

Suppose  $\cdots \cdots E[Y(0)|z]$

# 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

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

- $\beta_0$  is the *intercept* and the remaining  $\beta_j$  are the *slope* parameters.

## Interpretations

- Note that given  $(Y, X)$ , and any  $\beta$ , 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  $\beta$ .

# Linear Conditional Expectation

- Consider

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

- 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  $\beta$  is a feature of the joint distribution of  $(Y, X)$  which represents the conditional expectation.

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

## 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  $\beta_j$  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):

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

$$\begin{aligned}\beta_1 &= E(Y|D=1) \\ &\quad - E(Y|D=0)\end{aligned}$$

- 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

$$\beta_1 = E(Y_{i1}|D=1) - E(Y_{i0}|D=0).$$

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

- 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  $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta'_1)' \in \mathbb{R}^{k+1}$ .

- $\beta$  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,  $\beta$  is not uniquely determined because multiple values of  $\beta$  lead to the same value of  $(1, X')\beta$ . To see this, suppose for some constants  $a_1, \dots, a_k$  that

$$1 = a_1 X_1 + \cdots + a_k X_k.$$

## Linear Conditional Expectation: Example II

- Then:

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

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

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

- 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?

$$\therefore (1/x) \widehat{\beta} = (1/x) \beta.$$

## 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

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

- The law of iterated expectation implies

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

- Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} E[(Y - E(Y|X))Y] &- E[(Y - E(Y|X))X'b] \\ E[(E(Y|X) - X'b)^2] &= E(Y \underbrace{(X'b)}_{\text{Constant.}}^2 + Constant. \\ &\quad E(X'b \in ((Y - E(Y|X))X)) \end{aligned}$$

## 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  $\beta_j$ .
- We may assume  $E(U) = 0$  WLOG, by shifting  $\beta_0$  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  $\beta$ , 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

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

## 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.

- $\beta_1$  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  $\beta_1$  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  $\beta_1$  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  $c \in \mathbb{R}^{k+1} \setminus \{0\}$ ,

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

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  $\beta$ :

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

- In this case,  $\beta$  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  $\beta$  imply different ceteris paribus effects, holding  $U$  and the other components of  $X$  fixed.

# Questions?