# Topic 5: Simple Linear Regression-Inference

- We have estimated  $\hat{\beta}_1$ , which is the OLS estimator of the slope coefficient.
- Now we are going to see how we can use the estimated results from a sample to draw inferences about the population parameters  $\beta_1$ .
- $\triangleright$  I.e., how do we do hypothesis testing and construct confidence interval for the true parameter  $\beta_1$ ?

Recall our example

$$TestScore = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot STR + U$$

We estimated

$$\widehat{TestScore} = 698.9 - 2.28 \cdot STR$$

➤ When we run this in Stata, we get more than just the coefficients. We also get R², SER, and standard error of the coefficient etc.

In our example, suppose we want to test if

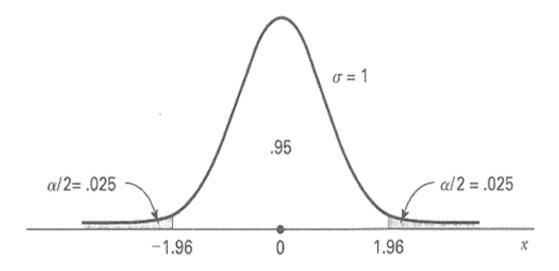
$$H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$$

- $\triangleright$  I.e., does class size affect student performance? If  $\beta_1 = 0$  then no. If  $\beta_1 \neq 0$ , then yes.
- In our Topic 3 on Statistics, we could test if  $\mu_Y = 0$  by setting up the hypothesis test:

$$H_0: \mu_Y = 0$$
  $t = \frac{\bar{Y} - \mu^*}{s/\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\bar{Y}}{s/\sqrt{n}}$   
 $H_1: \mu_Y \neq 0$   $\geq 1.96 \text{ or } \leq -1.96$ 

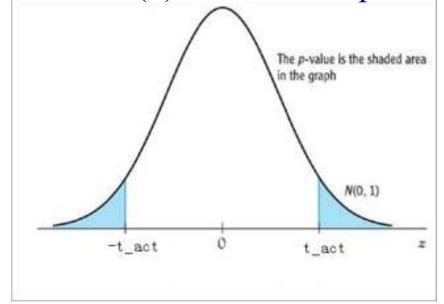
- $\triangleright$  We do the same thing for regression estimators  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$
- $\triangleright$  Let's focus on  $\hat{\beta}_1$ 
  - (1) set up Hypothesis  $H_0$  :  $\beta_1 = \beta_1^*$  v.s.  $H_1$  :  $\beta_1 \neq \beta_1^*$
  - (2) Calculate the t-stat  $t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 \beta_1^*}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)}$
  - (3) Choose a pre-specified significance level  $\alpha$ =0.05, 0.01, 0.1
  - (4) Again, there are at least 3 ways to test the hypothesis in (1): (i)critical value (ii)p-values (iii)confidence interval

- > (i) critical value way:
- rightharpoonup compare the t-stat in (2) from the standard normal distribution  $Z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}$  (= ±1.96 for  $\alpha = 0.05$ )
- $\triangleright$  Reject H<sub>0</sub> if t $\ge$ 1.96 or t $\le$ -1.96



- > (ii) p-value way:
- Find the p-value, which the probability of observing a  $\hat{\beta}_1$  different from  $\beta_1$  due to sampling variation given the actual estimate  $\hat{\beta}_1^{act}$

Calculate t-stat in (2) and find the probability:



➤ If p-value is "large", we don't reject H<sub>0</sub>.

- > (iii) confidence interval way
- $\triangleright$  Calculate the  $(1-\alpha)$  confidence interval for  $\beta_1$

$$\left[\hat{\beta}_1 - Z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \cdot SE(\hat{\beta}_1), \quad \hat{\beta}_1 + Z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \cdot SE(\hat{\beta}_1)\right]$$

- $\triangleright$  If  $\beta_1^*$  falls within the interval, then we cannot reject H<sub>0</sub>.
- $\triangleright$  If  $\beta_1^*$  is outside the interval, then we reject H<sub>0</sub>.

- $\triangleright$  All this hinges on  $\hat{\beta}_1$  and  $SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$ .
- >  $SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$  is an estimator of the standard deviation of the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}_1$
- Recall  $\hat{\beta}_{1} \sim N(\beta_{1}, var(\hat{\beta}_{1})),$ where  $var(\hat{\beta}_{1}) = \frac{1}{n} \frac{var[(X_{i} \mu_{X}) \cdot u_{i}]}{[var(X_{i})]^{2}}$
- $\triangleright$  An estimator of  $var(\hat{\beta}_1)$  is

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\beta}_{1}}^{2} = \frac{1}{n} \frac{\frac{1}{n-2} \sum \left[ (X_{i} - \bar{X})^{2} \cdot \hat{u}_{i}^{2} \right]}{\left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum (X_{i} - \bar{X})^{2} \right]^{2}}$$

> Thus,

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_1) = \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\beta}_1}^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}} \frac{\frac{1}{n-2} \sum \left[ (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \cdot \hat{u}_i^2 \right]}{\left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \right]^2}$$

This is called heteroskedasticity-robust standard error

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This is also called White standard error named after Halbert White from a landmark econometrics paper:

H. White: "A Heteroskedasticity-Consistent Covariance Matrix Estimator and a Direct Test for Heteroskedasticity," *Econometrica*, 48, 817-838 (1980) (most cited paper in the economics literature over the last 35 years)



- Recall  $SE(\overline{Y}) = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ . Same idea for  $SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$ , but more complicated.
- >  $SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$  estimates how accurate or tight the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\beta}_1$ .
- > Example:

 $\triangleright$  Let's test to see if  $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = 0$  v.s.  $H_1$ :  $\beta_1 \neq 0$ 

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1^*}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} = \frac{-2.28 - 0}{0.52} = -4.38 < -1.96$$

➤ Reject at 5% significance level.

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$$\widehat{TestScore} = 698.9 - 2.28 \cdot STR$$

 $\triangleright$  Let's test to see if  $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = -2$  v.s.  $H_1$ :  $\beta_1 \neq -2$ 

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1^*}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} = \frac{-2.28 - (-2)}{0.52} = -0.53 > -1.96$$

- Fail to reject at 5% significance level.
- ightharpoonup P-value=2\*Pr(Z<-0.53)=2\*0.298=0.596>0.05: fail to reject
- Confidence interval: fail to reject

$$\left[ \hat{\beta}_1 - Z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \cdot SE(\hat{\beta}_1), \quad \hat{\beta}_1 + Z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \cdot SE(\hat{\beta}_1) \right]$$

$$= [-2.28 - 1.96 \cdot 0.52, \quad -2.28 + 1.96 \cdot 0.52]$$

$$= [-3.30, \quad -1.26]$$

- ➤ What about beta0?
- > Usually we don't care about the intercept.
- ➤ But we could do everything as we just did for beta1.
- The formula of the standard error of beta0 is different. Stata will do it for us.

#### 2) Confidence interval

- ➤ We just saw that a confidence interval can help us with hypothesis testing, but can also use it to get an idea of what beta1 looks like.
- We want to know about beta1 (the effect of X on Y), but we only have beta1\_hat (based on a sample).
- We can use information about beta1\_hat to create an interval that will contain beta1 in  $(1 \alpha)*100\%$  of repeated sample.
- For the student-teacher-ratio example, the 95% confidence interval is [-3.30, -1.26].

- Sometimes our X variable takes a discrete value that is not a number.
- ➤ Year of education is a number and is "continuous": 1,2,3,...etc
- ➤ But what about male or female? This is discrete. Suppose we are interested in the impact of gender on wages.

$$Wage_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot Gender_i + u_i$$

> Let define

$$D_i = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if a condition holds} \\ 0 \text{ if not} \end{cases}$$
 e.g.  $D_i = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } i^{th} \text{ person is male} \\ 0 \text{ if } i^{th} \text{ person is female} \end{cases}$ 

## 3) Binary variable

- $\triangleright$  Wage<sub>i</sub> =  $\beta_0$  +  $\beta_1$  Gender<sub>i</sub> +  $u_i$
- > OLS results:

$$\widehat{Wage}_{i} = 39565 + 29936 \cdot D_{i}$$

- ➤ If a male, expected or predicted wage=39565+29936\*1=69501
- ➤ If female, expected or predicted wage=39565+29936\*0=39565
- $\triangleright$  The coefficient  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 29936 = \text{Wage for Male-Wage for Female}$
- So when we do hypothesis test on beta1=0, we are testing whether mean male wage=mean female wage
- Here, e.g.  $t = \frac{29936 0}{3746} = 8 > 1.96$ : there is statistically significant difference between men&women income.

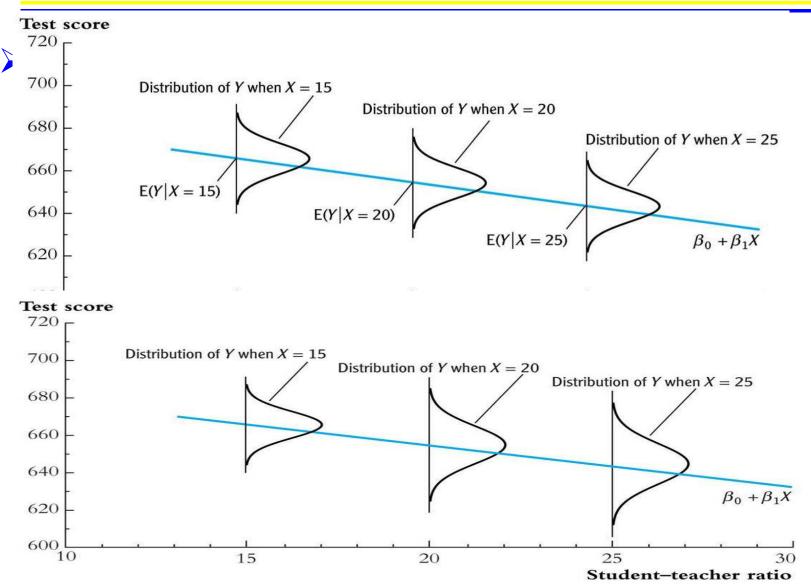
- ➤ So far, our OLS regression assumptions from last chapters are (1) E(ui|Xi)=0; (2) iid; (3) outlier unlikely.
- So far, we allow that the conditional variance given Xi can depend on Xi
- $\triangleright$  Homoskedasticity: the conditional variance  $var(u_i|X_i)$  does not depend on on Xi. I.e.

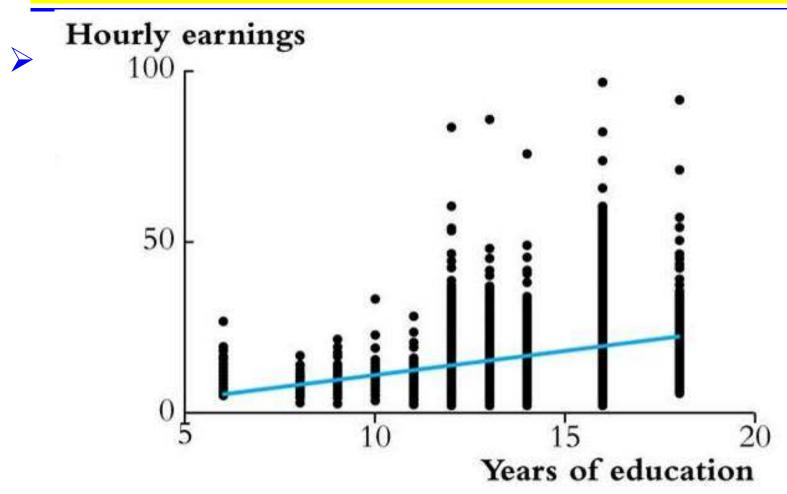
$$var(u_i|X_i) = constant = \sigma^2$$

 $\triangleright$  Heteroskedasticity: the conditional variance  $var(u_i|X_i)$  can change as Xi changes. E.g.,

$$var(u_i|X_i) = X_i^2$$

We can show that  $var(Y_i|X_i) = var(u_i|X_i)$ 





Heteroskedastic or homoskedastic?

- ➤ Why do we need to care about if it is heteroskedasticity or homoskedasticity?
- As long as the three OLS assumptions are satisfied, then OLS estimators are unbiased, consistent and asymptotically normally distributed. We can do hypothesis testing and construct confidence interval without any problem.
- > There are two main reasons:
  - First, when we have homoskedasticity, the standard error of OLS estimators can be simplified.
  - Second, to show OLS estimators are efficient, we need homoskedasticity.
    - This implies that if heteroskedasticity, we can design more efficient estimators.

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- ➤ Under homoskedasiticty, we can simplify the standard error.
- > Recall that under heteroskedasticity:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \sim N(\beta_1, var(\hat{\beta}_1)), \text{ where } var(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{1}{n} \frac{var[(X_i - \mu_X) \cdot u_i]}{[var(X_i)]^2}$$

White standard error: 
$$SE(\hat{\beta}_1) = \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\beta}_1}^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}} \frac{\frac{1}{n-2} \sum \left[ (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \cdot \hat{u}_i^2 \right]}{\left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \right]^2}$$

Under homoskedasticity:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \sim N(\beta_1, var(\hat{\beta}_1)), \text{ where } var(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{1}{n} \frac{var(u_i)}{var(X_i)}$$

Homoskedasticity-only standard error:

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_1) = \sqrt{\frac{\frac{1}{n-2} \sum \hat{u}_i^2}{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2}}$$

- ➤ How do we know if we have homoskedasticity?
- In many case, you don't know, so just use White (heteroskedasticity-robust) standard error
- ➤ You can visually inspect the graph by plotting the residuals against Xi and look at the spread
- ➤ You can do a formal statistical test, for example conducting a White test.
- ➤ It is always safe to use White standard error. If you use White standard error, everything is fine whether homoskedasticity or heteroskedasticity
- ➤ If we use homoskedasticity-only standard error, everything is fine, except that your statistical test will be wrong if errors are heteroskedasticity.

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- > You need to tell Stata which standard errors you are using.
- > reg testscr str

#### . reg testscr str

Source	នន	df		MS		Number of obs		420
Model Residual	7794.11004 144315.484	1 418		. 11004 252353		F( 1, 418) Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared	<b>=</b> =	22.58 0.0000 0.0512 0.0490
Total	152109.594	419	363.	030056		Root MSE	=	18.581
testscr	Coef.	Std.	Err.	t	P≻ t	[95% Conf.	In	terval]
str _cons	-2.279808 698.933	.4798 9.467		-4.75 73.82	0.000 0.000	-3.22298 680.3231		336637 17.5428

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- > You need to tell Stata which standard errors you are using.
- reg testscr str, r
- . reg testscr str,r

Linear regression

Number of obs = 420 F( 1, 418) = 19.26 Prob > F = 0.0000 R-squared = 0.0512 Root MSE = 18.581

testscr	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P≻ t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
str	-2.279808	.5194892	-4.39	0.000	-3.300945	-1.258671
_cons	698.933	10.36436	67.44	0.000	678.5602	719.3057

- > Given our assumption:
  - $\succ$  (i)  $E(u_i|X_i)=0$
  - ➤ (ii) (Xi, Yi) are iid
  - ➤ (iii) outliers are unlikely

If we further assume (iv) var  $(u_i|X_i) = \sigma^2$  (homoskedasticity)

Then OLS estimaors has the least variance (most efficient, best) among all other possible linear estimators

- > OLS is BLUE under (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv).
- ➤ If however, we don't have (iv), i.e., the errors are heteroskedasticity, then OLS is not most efficient. And we can use more efficient estimators (GLS: generalized least square)