

# Econ 103: Introduction to Simple Linear Regression

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## The Basic Model

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Suppose we have two variables,  $Y$  and  $X$ . We are interested in using data to learning about the relationship between  $Y$  and  $X$ .

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- How are unemployment and inflation related?

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### Examples:

- How are education and wages related?
- How are unemployment and inflation related?
- What is the relationship between receiving a treatment and a health outcome?

One way to model the relationship between  $Y$  and  $X$  would be to try to find the **line of best fit** between the two variables.

By the **line of best fit** we mean finding the line, characterized by a slope and an intercept, that minimizes the distance between  $Y$  and  $\tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 \cdot X$ .



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Formally, we are interested in the parameters  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  that solve

$$\begin{aligned}\beta_0, \beta_1 &= \arg \min_{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( Y - (\tilde{\beta}_0 + \tilde{\beta}_1 \cdot X) \right)^2 \right] \\ &= \arg \min_{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( Y - \tilde{\beta}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1 \cdot X \right)^2 \right]\end{aligned}$$

## Linear Regression as Line of Best Fit

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- 
- By arg min we just mean we are interested in the **arguments**  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  that minimize

$$\mathbb{E}[(Y - \tilde{\beta}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1 \cdot X)^2]$$

rather than the value  $\mathbb{E}[(Y - \beta_0 - \beta_1 \cdot X)^2]$  itself.

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- 
- Another way of saying this is that

$$\mathbb{E}[(Y - \beta_0 - \beta_1 \cdot X)^2] < \mathbb{E}[(Y - \tilde{\beta}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1 \cdot X)^2]$$

for any  $(\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1) \neq (\beta_0, \beta_1)$ .

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$$\beta_0, \beta_1 = \arg \min_{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( Y - \tilde{\beta}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1 \cdot X \right)^2 \right]$$

Why do we care about these parameters?

- Knowing the line of best fit will help us predict  $Y$  using  $X$ 
  - Will provide the **best linear prediction** of  $Y$  using  $X$ .
  - Even though a linear model may seem to simple, ends up being tremendously useful in practice.

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  - What is the average value of  $Y$  when  $X$  is zero?  $\iff$  What is  $\beta_0$ ?
  - To a first order degree because  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  describe the line of best fit rather than the “true” relationship.
    - No need to worry about this difference for now though.

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Let's solve for  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  by taking first order conditions:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{\beta}_0} : \mathbb{E} [Y - \beta_0 - \beta_1 \cdot X] = 0$$

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We will return to these first order conditions shortly. For now, after rearranging we get that

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\mathbb{E}[YX] - \mathbb{E}[Y]\mathbb{E}[X]}{\mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[X]} = \frac{\text{Cov}(Y, X)}{\text{Var}(X)}$$

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$$\beta_0 = \mathbb{E}[Y] - \beta_1 \mathbb{E}[X]$$

Exercise: Show this rearrangement.

Let's define the random variable

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon &= Y - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot X) \\ &= Y - \beta_0 - \beta_1 \cdot X\end{aligned}$$

We can then write

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot X + \epsilon.$$

which is the linear regression equation you may have seen before. The random variable  $\epsilon$  will be important later on as we try to do inference.

## Linear Regression: The Error Term

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Let's define the random variable

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We call  $\epsilon$  the **linear regression error** variable.

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We call  $\epsilon$  the **linear regression error** variable.

Recall that from the first order conditions for  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  we have that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}\left[\underbrace{Y - \beta_0 - \beta_1 \cdot X}_{=\epsilon}\right] &= 0 \\ \mathbb{E}\left[\underbrace{(Y - \beta_0 - \beta_1 \cdot X) \cdot X}_{=\epsilon X}\right] &= 0\end{aligned}$$

These give us the properties that

$$\mathbb{E}[\epsilon] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E}[\epsilon X] = 0.$$



In total our **line of best fit** parameters

$$\beta_0, \beta_1 = \arg \min_{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( Y - \tilde{\beta}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1 \cdot X \right)^2 \right]$$

generate a model between  $Y$  and  $X$  that can be written as

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot X + \epsilon \tag{1}$$

where

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where

$$\mathbb{E}[\epsilon] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E}[\epsilon X] = 0.$$

- It is often convenient to work directly with this representation or make assumptions about  $\epsilon$ .
- You may have seen this representation before, the prior slides go over where this model comes from

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are useful for

- Making predictions about  $Y$  using  $X$ .
  - Predict  $Y$  when  $X = x$  with  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x$

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are useful for

- Making predictions about  $Y$  using  $X$ .
  - Predict  $Y$  when  $X = x$  with  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x$
- Learning about the relationship between  $Y$  and  $X$ .
  - Interpret the signs and magnitudes of  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$

Questions?

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As we went over in the last section we are interested in the line of best fit parameters

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**Problem:** We do not know the joint distribution of  $(Y, X)$ , so we cannot solve for  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  by evaluating the expectation above.

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**Intuition:**

- Suppose we have access to  $n$  randomly collected samples  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^n$
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- We estimate the line of best fit between  $Y$  and  $X$  in the population using the line of best fit between  $Y_i$  and  $X_i$  in our sample:

$$\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1 = \arg \min_{b_0, b_1} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 \cdot X_i)^2$$

- Same idea as using  $\bar{X}$  to estimate  $\mathbb{E}[X]$ , etc.

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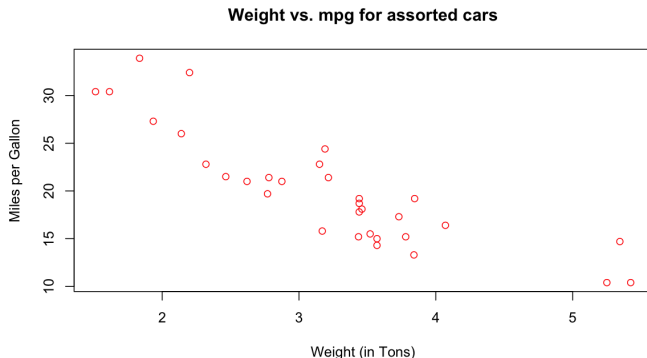
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## Linear Regression: The Estimator

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Let's see how this looks like in practice. Suppose we are interested in the relationship between  $X$ , a car's weight, and  $Y$  a car's miles per gallon (mpg).

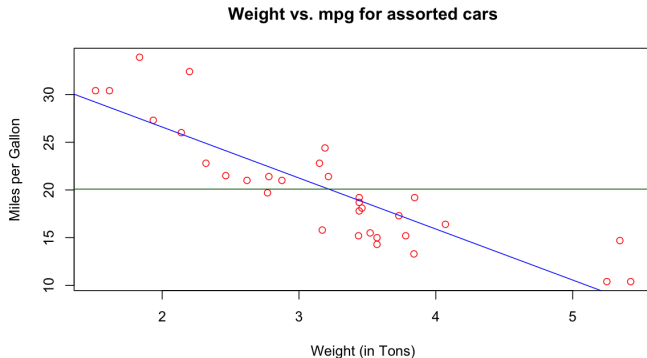
We collect some data  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^n$  where each  $(Y_i, X_i)$  pair represents the miles per gallon and weight of a particular vehicle in our dataset. We can represent our data using a scatterplot



## Linear Regression: The Estimator

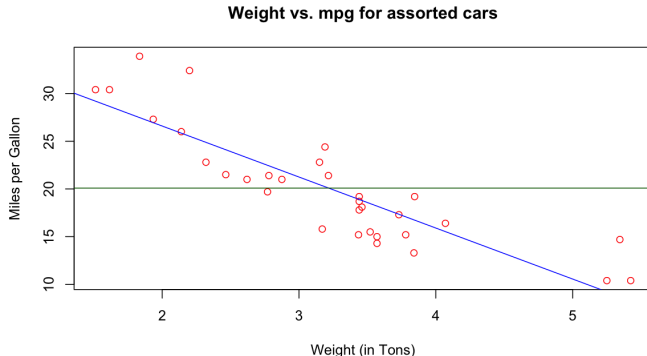
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Now to estimate  $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1$  we simply find the line of best fit between the  $Y_i$  and  $X_i$  's in our data.



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The **blue** line represents the line of best fit whereas the **green** line represents a straight line through  $\bar{Y}$ . We can see that the **blue** line is much closer to the data than the **green** line.



In this case we have that  $\hat{\beta}_0 = 37.2851$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1 = -5.3445$ .

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- $\hat{\beta}_0 = 37.2851$ : We estimate that the average value of  $Y$  when  $X = 0$  is 37.2851
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  - In context: we estimate that the average mpg for a car that weights 0 tons is 37.2851 miles per gallon
- $\hat{\beta}_1 = -5.3445$ : We estimate that, on average, a one unit increase in  $X$  is associated with a 5.3445 unit **decrease** in  $Y$ .
  - In context: we estimate that, on average, a one ton increase in car weight is associated with a 5.3445 unit decrease in miles per gallon.

In this case we have that  $\hat{\beta}_0 = 37.2851$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1 = -5.3445$ .

How can we use these estimates for prediction?

- Suppose we have a car that weighs 3.5 tons. Based on our estimates, what would we predict its miles per gallon to be?

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$$\text{Predicted MPG} = 37.2851 - 5.3445 \cdot \text{Weight in Tons.}$$

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- Using this line and plugging in we get that

$$\text{Predicted MPG} = 37.2851 - 5.3445 \cdot 3.5 = 18.5793.$$

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- We denote this predicted MPG as  $\hat{MPG}$  and in general will denote our predictions as  $\hat{Y}$  so that our estimated regression line can be written

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \cdot X.$$

Notice a couple things in the above interpretations

- The intercept is often uninterpretable (What car would weigh 0 tons?). For this reason we often focus our analysis on the slope coefficient.
- The interpretation is deliberately not causal. We use “associated with a decrease...” as opposed to “leads to a decrease...”



Now that we've gotten some intuition for what linear regression is doing and how to use our sample to estimate the parameters of interest, let's derive explicit formulas for  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$ .

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Taking first order conditions gives us that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial b_0} : \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 \cdot X_i) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial b_1} : \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 \cdot X_i) \cdot X_i = 0$$

Rearranging the first equality gives us

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\beta}_0 - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\beta}_1 \cdot X_i = 0$$

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$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\beta}_0 - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\beta}_1 \cdot X_i &= 0 \\ \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i &= 0\end{aligned}$$

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$$\bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i = 0$$

$$\bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X} = 0$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}$$

So that what remains is to solve for  $\hat{\beta}_1$ .

Rearranging the second equality gives us

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i X_i - \hat{\beta}_0 \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \hat{\beta}_1 \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 = 0$$

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Using the prior result that  $\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}$  gives:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i X_i - (\bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}) \bar{X} - \hat{\beta}_1 \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 &= 0 \\ \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i X_i - \bar{Y} \bar{X} \right) + \hat{\beta}_1 \left( (\bar{X})^2 - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 \right) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$



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So, finally

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i X_i - \bar{Y} \bar{X}}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - (\bar{X})^2}.$$

Let's make use of the following equalities to represent  $\hat{\beta}_1$

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

## Linear Regression: Formulas

---

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Then:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\overbrace{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})(X_i - \bar{X})}^{\text{Sample Covariance between } Y \text{ and } X}}{\underbrace{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}_{\text{Sample Variance of } X}}$$

## Linear Regression: Formulas

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This ties in nicely as, if we recall from earlier, we found that

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\text{Cov}(Y, X)}{\text{Var}(X)} = \frac{\mathbb{E}[(Y - \mu_Y)(X - \mu_X)]}{\mathbb{E}[(X - \mu_X)^2]}.$$

We have now gone over how use data to obtain estimates  $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1$  of our parameters of interest  $\beta_0, \beta_1$ .

$$\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1 = \arg \min_{b_0, b_1} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - b_0 - b_1 \cdot X_i)^2$$
$$\beta_0, \beta_1 = \arg \min_{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( Y - \tilde{\beta}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1 \cdot X \right)^2 \right]$$

Notice that, while the parameters of interest  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  are fixed quantities, the estimators  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  are functions of the data; they depend on the specific sample of data collected.

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### Some Questions to Consider:

1. What would happen to our estimates  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  if we were to collect a different sample of data?

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### Some Questions to Consider:

1. What would happen to our estimates  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  if we were to collect a different sample of data?
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### Some Questions to Consider:

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2. How can we model the distribution of our estimates  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$ ?
3. What happens to this distribution as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ?



## Linear Regression: Randomness

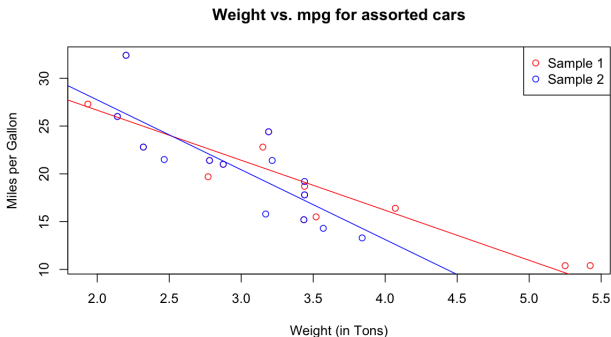
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## Linear Regression: Randomness

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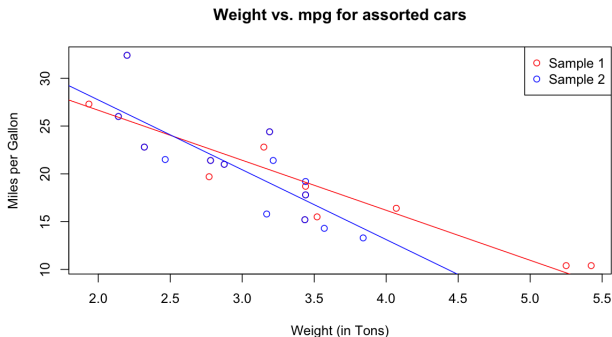
Let's return to the cars data and see how our regression lines look when we consider two different (random) samples.



## Linear Regression: Randomness

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Let's return to the cars data and see how our regression lines look when we consider two different (random) samples.



- **Sample 1:**  $\hat{\beta}_0 = 37.1285$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1 = -5.2341$ .
- **Sample 2:**  $\hat{\beta}_0 = 42.352$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1 = -7.307$ .

**Key Concept:** Because the estimators  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  are functions of the random sample  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^n$  they are themselves random variables.

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}_0 &= \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X} \\ \hat{\beta}_1 &= \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})(X_i - \bar{X})}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}\end{aligned}$$

**Problem:** How do we connect  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  to the population parameters  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ ?

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**Problem:** How do we connect  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  to the population parameters  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ ?

**Fundamental Question:** Given estimates  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  what can we say about the underlying parameters of interest  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ ?

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The Basic Model

Estimation

Asymptotic Distribution

Hypothesis Testing and Confidence Intervals

Suppose we are interested in the association between years of education and income. We collect a random sample of size  $n = 100$ ,  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^{100}$  and run a simple linear regression of  $Y = INC$  against  $X = EDU$ .

Suppose we are interested in the association between years of education and income. We collect a random sample of size  $n = 100$ ,  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^{100}$  and run a simple linear regression of  $Y = INC$  against  $X = EDU$ .

That is, we are interested in the parameters  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  that dictate the line of best fit between income and education in the population

$$\beta_0, \beta_1 = \arg \min_{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1} \mathbb{E} \left[ (INC - \tilde{\beta}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1 \cdot EDU)^2 \right].$$

or equivalently the parameters from the linear model

$$INC = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot EDU + \epsilon.$$

where  $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon \cdot EDU] = 0$ .



Using our data  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^n$  we find that  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.5$ .

$$\hat{\beta}_0 \hat{\beta}_1 = \arg \min_{b_0, b_1} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \{Y_i - b_0 - b_1 \cdot X_i\}^2.$$

Our friend, Prince Harry Estranged of England, however claims that there is no association between education and income, that is that  $\beta_1 = 0$ .

## Linear Regression: Motivating Idea

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**Question:** How can we tell if he is right?

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**Answer:** One way would be to find the probability that we would obtain  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.5$  (or something more extreme) if the true value of  $\beta_1$  was 0.

$$\Pr(|\hat{\beta}_1| \geq 0.5 | \beta_1 = 0).$$

If this probability is sufficiently low, we can reject Former Prince Harry's claim. Otherwise he may be right.

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To calculate this probability we will need to know something about the (approximate) distribution of  $\hat{\beta}_1$  and how that is related to the true parameter  $\beta_1$ .

In order to connect the estimates  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  to the population parameters, we will need to make some (light) assumptions about the underlying distribution of  $(Y, X)$  from which our sample  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^n$  is drawn.

In order to connect the estimates  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  to the population parameters, we will need to make some (light) assumptions about the underlying distribution of  $(Y, X)$  from which our sample  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^n$  is drawn.

It will be helpful to recall the following definitions here

$$\beta_0, \beta_1 = \arg \min_{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1} \mathbb{E} \left[ (Y - \tilde{\beta}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1)^2 \right]$$
$$\epsilon = Y - \beta_0 - \beta_1 \cdot X$$

And see that  $\epsilon$  is itself a random variable.

Make the following assumptions

1. **Random Sampling:** Assume that  $\{Y_i, X_i\}$  are independently and identically distributed;  $(Y_i, X_i) \stackrel{\text{i.i.d}}{\sim} (Y, X)$ 
  - Essentially this means that our random sample is “representative of the population”
  - Would be violated if say, we only sampled cars made in Los Angeles and we were trying to make inferences about all cars produced in the US

## Linear Regression: Assumptions

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Make the following assumptions

1. **Random Sampling:** Assume that  $\{Y_i, X_i\}$  are independently and identically distributed;  $(Y_i, X_i) \stackrel{\text{i.i.d}}{\sim} (Y, X)$
2. **Homoskedasticity:** Assume that  $\text{Var}(\epsilon \mid X = x) = \sigma_\epsilon^2$  for all possible values of  $x$ .
  - This means that  $Y$  is equally spread around the regression line for all values of  $X$ .
  - This is a fairly strong assumption to make and we will relax it later on, but it is helpful for now to provide insight.
  - Conditional variance is similar to the conditional expectation that we went over in our Econ 41 review

$$\text{Var}(\epsilon \mid X = x) = \mathbb{E}[\epsilon^2 \mid X = x] - (\mathbb{E}[\epsilon \mid X = x])^2.$$

- An important implication of this is that

$$\text{Var}(\epsilon(X - \mu_X)) = \text{Var}(\epsilon) \text{Var}(X) = \sigma_\epsilon^2 \sigma_X^2.$$

Questions?



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3. **Rank Condition:** There must be at least two distinct values of  $X$  that appear in the population.
  - Need at least two distinct points to make a line.
  - If there is only one distinct point then our minimization problem is undefined.

Make the following assumptions

1. **Random Sampling:** Assume that  $\{Y_i, X_i\}$  are independently and identically distributed;  $(Y_i, X_i) \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} (Y, X)$
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And that's it!

Given these assumptions (Random Sampling, Homoskedasticity, Rank Condition) let's try and figure out what the approximate distribution is of  $\hat{\beta}_1$ .

Recall that

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})(X_i - \bar{X})}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

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By definition of  $\epsilon = Y - \beta_0 - \beta_1 \cdot X$ :

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot X;$$

and that by the first order conditions of  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ :

$$\mathbb{E}[\epsilon] = 0$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\epsilon \cdot X] = 0$$

We will also make use of the following results from our probability review. If  $Z$  is a random variables and we have i.i.d observations  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n$ :

The **Law of Large Numbers** states that as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ :

$$\bar{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[Z]$$

or, equivalently,  $\bar{Z} \approx \mathbb{E}[Z]$  for  $n$  large.

The **Central Limit Theorem** states that as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , approximately,

$$\sqrt{n} (\bar{Z} - \mathbb{E}[Z]) \sim N(0, \text{Var}(Z))$$

or, equivalently,  $\bar{Z} \sim N(\mathbb{E}[Z], \text{Var}(Z)/n)$ .

Starting with:

$$\sqrt{n}\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sqrt{n} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})(X_i - \bar{X})}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}.$$

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Expand  $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i$  and  $\bar{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{X} + \bar{\epsilon}$ , where  $\bar{\epsilon} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i$ :

$$\sqrt{n}\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n (\beta_1(X_i - \bar{X}) + (\epsilon_i - \bar{\epsilon})) (X_i - \bar{X})}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}.$$

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Distribute to get:

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So we have that:

$$\sqrt{n} \left( \hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1 \right) = \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n (\epsilon_i - \bar{\epsilon})(X_i - \bar{X})}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}.$$

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Using **Law of Large Numbers** replace  $\bar{\epsilon} \approx \mathbb{E}[\epsilon] = 0$ ,  $\bar{X} \approx \mu_X$ , and  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \approx \sigma_X^2$ :

$$\sqrt{n} \left( \hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1 \right) \approx \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i (X_i - \mu_X)}{\sigma_X^2}.$$

Finally, note that by **Central Limit Theorem**, since

$$\mathbb{E}[\epsilon(X_i - \mu_X)] = \mathbb{E}[\epsilon X_i] - \mathbb{E}[\epsilon]\mu_X = 0.$$

we have that (approximately for large  $n$ ):

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where in the last equality we use the fact that  $\text{Var}(aZ) = a^2 \text{Var}(Z)$ .

Putting this all together, we have that, approximately for  $n$  large;

$$\sqrt{n} \left( \hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1 \right) \sim \frac{N(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2 \sigma_X^2)}{\sigma_X^2} = N\left(0, \underbrace{\sigma_\epsilon^2 / \sigma_X^2}_{:= \sigma_{\beta_1}^2}\right).$$

where in the last equality we use the fact that  $a \text{Var}(Z) = \text{Var}(a^2 Z)$ . Other ways of putting this are, approximately for  $n$  large:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \sim N\left(\beta_1, \sigma_{\beta_1}^2 / n\right)$$
$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\sigma_{\beta_1} / \sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

where as a reminder  $\sigma_{\beta_1} = \sigma_\epsilon / \sigma_X$ . This last form is what we will use the most.

Following similar steps we can derive the approximate distribution of  $\hat{\beta}_0$  as well as the covariance between  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{n} \left( \hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1 \right) &\sim N \left( 0, \frac{\sigma_\epsilon^2}{\sigma_X^2} \right) \\ \sqrt{n} \left( \hat{\beta}_0 - \beta_0 \right) &\sim N \left( 0, \sigma_\epsilon^2 \frac{\mathbb{E}[X^2]}{\sigma_X^2} \right) \\ \text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_0) &= -\sigma_\epsilon^2 \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{n \cdot \sigma_X^2}\end{aligned}$$



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Important to remember these! The above is just providing intuition on how we get these results.

For large  $n$  we have that

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_\epsilon^2}{n \cdot \sigma_X^2}, \quad \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_0) = \sigma_\epsilon^2 \frac{\mathbb{E}[X^2]}{n \cdot \sigma_X^2}, \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_0) = -\sigma_\epsilon^2 \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{n \cdot \sigma_X^2}.$$

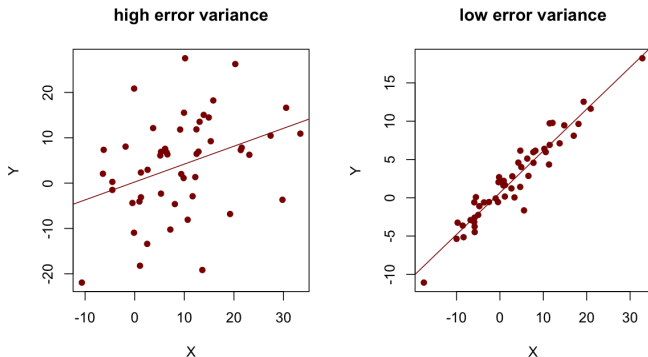
First notice that these variances are increasing with  $\sigma_\epsilon^2$ .

## Linear Regression: Asymptotic Variances

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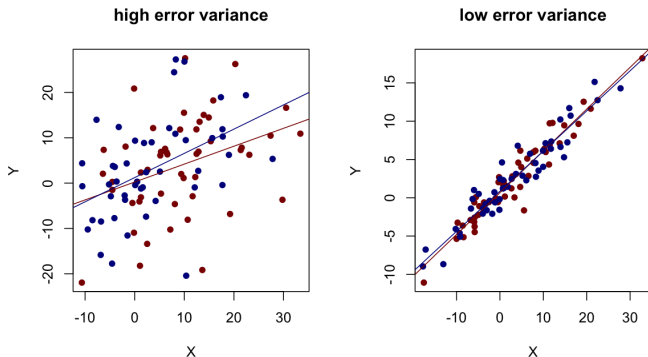


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**Intuition:** If points are more tightly distributed around the regression line it is easier to tell what the regression line is.

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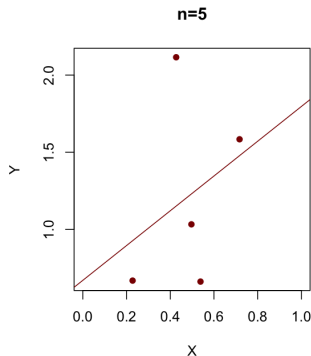
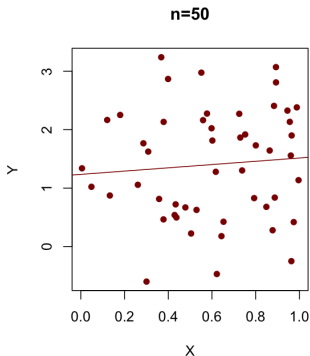
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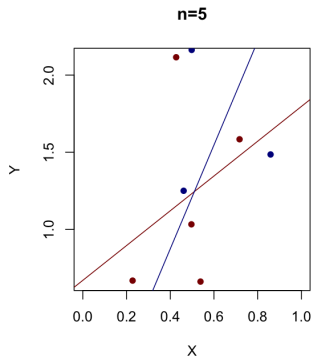
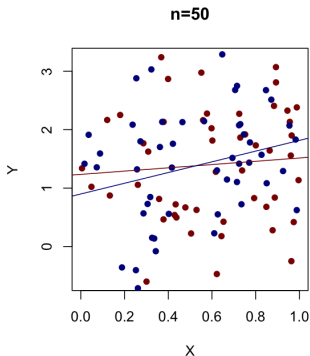


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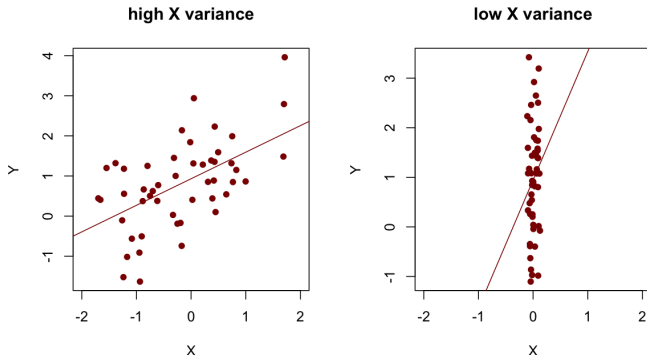
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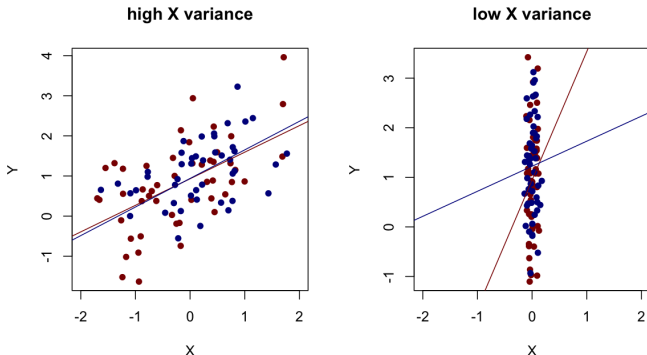


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Questions?

**Positive Result:** Under homoskedasticity, for  $n$  large, we have (approximately)

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\sigma_{\beta_1}/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1).$$

where

$$\sigma_{\beta_1} = \frac{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2}{\sigma_X^2}.$$

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- By LLN we know how to estimate  $\text{Var}(X)$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \approx \text{Var}(X).$$

- But what about  $\text{Var}(\epsilon) = \sigma_{\epsilon}^2$ ?



To estimate  $\text{Var}(\epsilon)$  we first construct estimated residuals  $\hat{\epsilon}_i$  via

$$\hat{\epsilon}_i = Y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 \cdot X_i.$$

Because  $\hat{\beta}_1 \rightarrow \beta_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_0 \rightarrow \beta_0$  we can say that  $\hat{\epsilon}_i \approx \epsilon_i = Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_i$  (for  $n$  large).

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Also by the first order conditions for  $\hat{\beta}_0$  we have that

$$-\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{(Y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 \cdot X_i)}_{=\hat{\epsilon}_i} = 0.$$

so that

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i = \bar{\hat{\epsilon}}_i = 0.$$

## Linear Regression: Variance Estimation

---

Putting this together we can estimate  $\text{Var}(\epsilon) = \sigma_\epsilon^2$  by calculating the sample variance of  $\hat{\epsilon}_i$ :

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By  $\hat{\beta}_1 \rightarrow \beta_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_0 \rightarrow \beta_0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ;

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By **Law of Large Numbers**;

$$\approx \mathbb{E}[\epsilon^2]$$

By  $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon] = 0$ ;

$$= \text{Var}(\epsilon) = \sigma_\epsilon^2$$

Putting all of this together, we can estimate  $\sigma_{\beta_1}^2 = \frac{\sigma_X^2}{\sigma_X^2}$  via;

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1}^2 = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_\epsilon^2}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \approx \sigma_{\beta_1}^2.$$

since for large  $n$

$$\hat{\sigma}_\epsilon^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i^2 \approx \sigma_\epsilon^2$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \approx \sigma_X^2.$$

Now, since we have that (approximately, for large  $n$ ):

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\sigma_{\beta_1}/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1).$$

And since, as we have established above,  $\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1} \approx \sigma_{\beta_1}$ , for large  $n$  we can say that (approximately)

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1}/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1).$$



The quantity  $\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1} / \sqrt{n}$  is often referred to as the **standard error** of  $\hat{\beta}_1$ .

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In general, if we have a parameter  $\theta$  that we estimate with  $\hat{\theta}$ , the quantity  $\hat{\sigma}_{\theta}/\sqrt{n}$  will be referred to as the **standard error** of  $\hat{\theta}$  where

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\theta} = \sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})}.$$

Questions?

Let's return to our example and see why this characterization is useful. Recall that in our example we are interested in the regression parameters from regression  $Y = INC$  (income in thousands of dollars) against  $X = EDU$  (years of education).

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After collecting a sample size of 100,  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^{100}$  we find that:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.5$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^2 = 25$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = 16$$

Our friend His Majesty Prince Harry claims there is no relationship between education and income,  $\beta_1 = 0$ . We claim that observing the magnitude of  $|\hat{\beta}_1| = 0.5$  is evidence against this claim. Who is right?



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Want to use the (asymptotic) distribution of  $\hat{\beta}_1$  to answer this question.

- First need to estimate  $\sigma_{\beta_1}$ .

Using  $\hat{\sigma}_\epsilon^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^2 = 25$ , and  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = 16$ ) we calculate

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1}^2 &= \frac{\hat{\sigma}_\epsilon^2}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \\ &= \frac{25}{16}\end{aligned}$$

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Using this, we find that  $\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1} = \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1}^2} = \frac{5}{4}$ .

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If the true value of  $\beta_1 = 0$  this means that

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{5/40} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{0.125} \sim N(0, 1).$$



## Linear Regression: Why Asymptotic Distribution?

---

Given that if  $\beta_0 = 0$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_1/0.125 \sim N(0, 1)$ , what is the probability of us observing  $|\hat{\beta}_1| \geq 0.5$ ?

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$$\approx 0.00006$$

Using the asymptotic distribution result

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1}/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1),$$

we have found that if  $\beta_1 = 0$ , then  $\Pr(|\hat{\beta}_1| \geq 0.5) \approx 0.0006$ .

Using the asymptotic distribution result

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we have found that if  $\beta_1 = 0$ , then  $\Pr(|\hat{\beta}_1| \geq 0.5) \approx 0.0006$ .

So, given that we observed  $\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.5$ , it seems very unlikely that  $\beta_1 = 0$ . We can conclude against Prince Harry's claim.

Questions?



# Table of Contents

---

The Basic Model

Estimation

Asymptotic Distribution

Hypothesis Testing and Confidence Intervals

The last exercise where we tested whether Prince Harry's claim made sense was an example of a **hypothesis test**.

In this section we will formally discuss hypothesis testing.

## Linear Regression: What is a Hypothesis Test?

---

Often in linear regression analysis, we are interested in using parameter estimates,  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$ , to test some baseline or null hypothesis about the population against an opposite or alternative hypothesis.

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  - Alternative Hypothesis:  $\beta_1 \neq 0 \iff |\beta_1| > 0$
- Smoking has a negative effect on life expectancy
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  - Alternative Hypothesis:  $\beta_1 \neq 0 \iff |\beta_1| > 0$
- Smoking has a negative effect on life expectancy
  - Null Hypothesis:  $\beta_1 \leq 0$
  - Alternative Hypothesis:  $\beta_1 > 0$
- There is a positive association between the miles per gallon of a car and its final sales price
  - Null Hypothesis:  $\beta_1 \geq 0$
  - Alternative Hypothesis:  $\beta_1 < 0$

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If  $H_1$  contains a “ $\neq$ ” sign, we call this a “two-sided” alternative.

**Example:** There is no association between years of education and income

- $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$
- $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$

If  $H_1$  contains a “ $\neq$ ” sign, we call this a “two-sided” alternative.

**Example:** There is no association between years of education and income

- $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$
- $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$

If  $H_1$  contains a “ $>$ ” or a “ $<$ ” sign, we call this a “one-sided” alternative.

**Example:** Cups of coffee drank has a negative association with hours of sleep

- $H_0: \beta_1 \leq 0$
- $H_1: \beta_1 > 0$

## Linear Regression: How to Hypothesis Test

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So, how do we use our data and parameter estimates  $\hat{\beta}_1$  and  $\hat{\beta}_0$  to test hypotheses? Given a null hypothesis  $H_0$  and an alternative hypothesis, we have two options.

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  - The value  $\alpha$  is called the “level” or “significance level” of the test.
  - It is also the probability of a “Type 1” error, the probability that we will reject the null hypothesis when the null hypothesis is true.
- We can **fail to reject** the null hypothesis.
  - Do this when the probability of obtaining our observed value of  $\hat{\beta}$  (or something even further from the null hypothesis) under the null hypothesis is larger than a pre-specified value  $\alpha$ .



How do we calculate the probability, given that our null hypothesis is true, of observing our value of  $\hat{\beta}$  or something even further from the null hypothesis?

Recall that, approximately for large  $n$

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1}/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\hat{\beta}_0 - \beta_0}{\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_0}/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1).$$

where  $\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1}^2 = \hat{\sigma}_\epsilon^2 / \hat{\sigma}_X^2$  and  $\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_0}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 \cdot \hat{\sigma}_\epsilon^2 / \hat{\sigma}_X^2$ .

Let  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ . Using the distributions above, if we are testing  $H_0 : \beta_1 = b$  against  $H_1 : \beta_1 \neq b$  we can compute the probability (under the null hypothesis) that we observe our value of  $\hat{\beta}_1$  or something even further from the null hypothesis by computing

$$\Pr \left( |Z| > \left| \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - b}{\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1} / \sqrt{n}} \right| \right).$$

This probability is called the **p-value** and we reject our null hypothesis if the **p-value**,  $p$ , is less than  $\alpha$ .

If we are testing  $H_0 : \beta_1 \geq b$  against  $H_1 : \beta_1 < b$  we can compute the probability (under the null hypothesis) that we observe our value of  $\hat{\beta}_1$  or something even further from the null hypothesis by computing

$$\Pr \left( Z < \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - b}{\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1} / \sqrt{n}} \right).$$

This probability is called the **p-value** and we reject our null hypothesis if the **p-value**,  $p$ , is less than  $\alpha$ .

If we are testing  $H_0 : \beta_1 \leq b$  against  $H_1 : \beta_1 > b$  we can compute the probability (under the null hypothesis) that we observe our value of  $\hat{\beta}_1$  or something even further from the null hypothesis by computing

$$\Pr \left( Z > \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - b}{\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1} / \sqrt{n}} \right).$$

This probability is called the **p-value** and we reject our null hypothesis if the **p-value**,  $p$ , is less than  $\alpha$ .

In summary, the test above can be conducted as follows. Suppose  $H_0 : \beta \leq b$ ,  $H_0 : \beta \geq b$ , or  $H_0 : \beta = b$

1. Compute the test statistic

$$t^* = \frac{\hat{\beta} - b}{\hat{\sigma}_{\beta} / \sqrt{n}}.$$

In summary, the test above can be conducted as follows. Suppose  $H_0 : \beta \leq b$ ,  $H_0 : \beta \geq b$ , or  $H_0 : \beta = b$

2. Compute the p-value, the probability that we would obtain our observed value of  $\hat{\beta}$ , or something even further from the null hypothesis, if the null hypothesis was correct

- If  $H_0 : \beta = b$  and  $H_1 : \beta \neq b$  compute

$$p = \Pr(|Z| > |t^*|) = 2 \Pr(Z > |t^*|).$$

- If  $H_0 : \beta \leq b$  and  $H_1 : \beta > b$  compute

$$p = \Pr(Z > t^*).$$

- If  $H_0 : \beta \geq b$  and  $H_1 : \beta < b$  compute

$$p = \Pr(Z < t^*).$$

In summary, the test above can be conducted as follows. Suppose  $H_0 : \beta \leq b$ ,  $H_0 : \beta \geq b$ , or  $H_0 : \beta = b$

3. **Reject** the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative hypothesis if  $p > \alpha$ .  
Otherwise **fail to reject** the null hypothesis.

## Linear Regression: Hypothesis Testing Example

---

Let's see this work in practice. Our close personal friend Jason Derulo claims that there is a negative association between a car's miles per gallon,  $X$ , and its sales price in thousands of dollars,  $Y$ .



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We want to use data to test this claim. We collect a random (i.i.d) sample of size 64,  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^{64}$  of cars and find

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})(X_i - \bar{X}) = 4$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = 16$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i^2 = 36$$

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$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i^2 = 36$$

We will use this data to test Derulo's claim,  $H_0 : \beta_1 \leq 0$ , against an alternate hypothesis,  $H_1 : \beta_1 > 0$ .

## Linear Regression: Hypothesis Testing Example

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In order to test this null hypothesis (against it's alternative) we need to calculate the test statistic  $t^* = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - 0}{\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1} / \sqrt{n}}$ .

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$$\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1} = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i^2}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} = \frac{36}{16}$$

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Using this, we compute the test statistic

$$t^* = \frac{0.25}{\sqrt{36/16}/\sqrt{64}} \approx 1.333.$$

Using this test statistic,  $t^* \approx 1.333$ , let's conduct the following test at level  $\alpha = 0.1$

$$H_0 : \beta_1 \leq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad H_1 : \beta_1 > 0.$$

Using this test statistic,  $t^* \approx 1.333$ , let's conduct the following test at level  $\alpha = 0.1$

$$H_0 : \beta_1 \leq 0 \text{ and } H_1 : \beta_1 > 0.$$

Compute the p-value

$$p = \Pr(Z > 1.333) = 1 - \Pr(Z \leq 1.333) = 1 - 0.908 = 0.092.$$

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$$p = \Pr(Z > 1.333) = 1 - \Pr(Z \leq 1.333) = 1 - 0.908 = 0.092.$$

Because the  $p$ -value, 0.092 is less than  $\alpha = 0.1$ , we **reject** the null hypothesis that there is a negative association between miles per gallon and sales price in favor of the alternative that there is a positive relationship between the two.



Now given  $t^* \approx 1.333$ , suppose that we wanted to conduct a two sided test at level  $\alpha = 0.1$ . That is, suppose we wanted to test

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad H_1 : \beta_1 \neq 0.$$

Now given  $t^* \approx 1.333$ , suppose that we wanted to conduct a two sided test at level  $\alpha = 0.1$ . That is, suppose we wanted to test

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Compute the  $p$  value for a two-sided test

$$p = \Pr(|Z| > |t^*|) = 2 \Pr(Z > |t^*|) = 2(1 - \Pr(X \leq 1.333)) = 2 \cdot 0.092 \approx 0.194.$$

Now given  $t^* \approx 1.333$ , suppose that we wanted to conduct a two sided test at level  $\alpha = 0.1$ . That is, suppose we wanted to test

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$$p = \Pr(|Z| > |t^*|) = 2 \Pr(Z > |t^*|) = 2(1 - \Pr(X \leq 1.333)) = 2 \cdot 0.092 \approx 0.194.$$

Given that  $p = 0.194 > 0.1$  we **fail to reject** the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between miles per gallon and sales price.

Notice that the p-value for a two-sided test was twice the p-value for the one-sided test! The reverse is not necessarily true however.

Why?

- Suppose  $t^* = 1.64$  so that the p-value for a two sided test is

$$\Pr(|Z| > 1.64) = 2 \Pr(Z > 1.64) = 0.1.$$

- What is the p-value for the test  $H_0 : \beta_1 \leq 0$  against  $H_1 : \beta_1 > 0$ ?
- What is the p-value for the test  $H_0 : \beta_1 \geq 0$  against  $H_1 : \beta_1 < 0$ ?

Questions?

Conducting the test above can also follow another standard procedure. Suppose  $H_0 : \beta \leq b$ ,  $H_0 : \beta \geq b$ , or  $H_0 : \beta = b$

1. Compute the test statistic or “t-statistic”

$$t^* = \frac{\hat{\beta} - b}{\hat{\sigma}_{\beta} / \sqrt{n}}.$$

Conducting the test above can also follow another standard procedure. Suppose  $H_0 : \beta \leq b$ ,  $H_0 : \beta \geq b$ , or  $H_0 : \beta = b$

2. For a given level  $\alpha$  compute  $z_{1-\alpha}$  for a one sided alternative or  $z_{1-\alpha/2}$  for a 2 sided alternative, where  $z_{1-\alpha}$  and  $z_{1-\alpha/2}$  are such that

$$\Pr(Z > z_{1-\alpha}) = \alpha \quad \text{and} \quad \Pr(Z > z_{1-\alpha/2}) = \frac{\alpha}{2}.$$

These are called the  $1 - \alpha$  and  $1 - \alpha/2$  **quantiles** of the standard normal distribution, respectively.

- $z_{0.9} \approx 1.28$
- $z_{0.95} \approx 1.64$
- $z_{0.975} \approx 1.96$
- $z_{0.99} \approx 2.32$
- $z_{0.995} \approx 2.57$

Conducting the test above can also follow another standard procedure. Suppose  $H_0 : \beta \leq b$ ,  $H_0 : \beta \geq b$ , or  $H_0 : \beta = b$

3. Compare the test statistic  $t^*$  to the quantile  $z_{1-\alpha}$  or  $z_{1-\alpha/2}$ .

- If  $H_0 : \beta = b$  and  $H_1 : \beta \neq b$ , **reject** if  $|t^*| > z_{1-\alpha/2}$
- If  $H_0 : \beta \geq b$  and  $H_1 : \beta < b$ , **reject** if  $t^* < -z_{1-\alpha}$
- If  $H_0 : \beta \leq b$  and  $H_1 : \beta > b$ , **reject** if  $t^* > z_{1-\alpha}$

Otherwise, **fail to reject** the null hypothesis.



Let's return to the hypothesis testing example from earlier to verify that this procedure gives the same results as comparing p-values.

Recall that in this example our friend Jason Derulo has claimed that there is a negative association between miles per gallon of a car and sales price of a car. That is we want to test at level  $\alpha = 0.1$

$$H_0 : \beta_1 \leq 0 \text{ vs. } H_1 : \beta_1 > 0.$$

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$$H_0 : \beta_1 \leq 0 \text{ vs. } H_1 : \beta_1 > 0.$$

After collecting data, we find that  $t^* \approx 1.333$ . To test this hypothesis, we will compare this value to  $z_{1-0.1} = z_{0.9} = 1.28$ . We are conducting a one sided alternative ( $>$  sign) so we look to see if  $t^* > z_{0.9}$ .

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Since  $t^* \approx 1.3333 > z_{0.9} = 1.28$  we **reject** the null hypothesis that there is a negative association between miles per gallon of a car and sales price of a car in favor of the alternative hypothesis that there is a positive relationship.

- Same result as when using the p-value

Now let's use this procedure to test at level  $\alpha = 0.1$

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = 0 \text{ vs. } H_1 : \beta_1 \neq 0.$$

Because we are dealing with a two sided alternative ( $\neq$  sign) we have to compare  $|t^*|$  to  $z_{1-\alpha/2} = z_{1-0.1/2} = z_{0.95}$ .

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$$H_0 : \beta_1 = 0 \text{ vs. } H_1 : \beta_1 \neq 0.$$

Because we are dealing with a two sided alternative ( $\neq$  sign) we have to compare  $|t^*|$  to  $z_{1-\alpha/2} = z_{1-0.1/2} = z_{0.95}$ .

Since  $t^* \approx 1.333 < z_{0.95} = 1.64$  we **fail to reject** the null hypothesis against a two-sided.

Questions?

Given our data  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^n$  we now know how to construct estimates,  $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1$  of the linear model parameters  $\beta_0, \beta_1$  where

$$\beta_0, \beta_1 = \arg \min_{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( Y - \tilde{\beta}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1 \cdot X \right)^2 \right].$$

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As a reminder, these parameters  $\beta_0, \beta_1$  can equivalently be described as coming from a linear model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot X + \epsilon.$$

where  $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon] = \mathbb{E}[\epsilon X] = 0$ . The term  $\epsilon$  is called the “linear regression error”.



Also given our data  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^n$  we know how to test hypothesis about the linear regression parameters  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  such as

$$H_0 : \beta_1 \geq 6 \text{ vs. } H_1 : \beta_1 < 6.$$

or

$$H_0 : \beta_0 = 0 \text{ vs. } H_1 : \beta_0 \neq 0.$$

Now, given our data  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^n$  we want to do is construct a range of values that we are “confident” that the true parameter,  $\beta_0$  or  $\beta_1$  lies in.

Now, given our data  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^n$  we want to do is construct a range of values that we are “confident” that the true parameter,  $\beta_0$  or  $\beta_1$  lies in.

We call this range of values a  $100 \cdot (1 - \alpha)\%$  **Confidence Interval**.

- e.g if  $\alpha = 0.05$  we would want to construct a 95% confidence interval.

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What values should we include in a  $100 \cdot (1 - \alpha)\%$  Confidence Interval?

- Any value  $b$  for which we would not reject  $H_0 : \beta = b$  against a two sided alternative  $H_1 : \beta \neq b$  at level  $\alpha$ .

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Recall that we reject  $H_0 : \beta = b$  in favor of  $H_1 : \beta \neq b$  if

$$|t^*| = \left| \frac{\hat{\beta} - b}{\hat{\sigma}_\beta / \sqrt{n}} \right| > z_{1-\alpha/2}.$$

What values should we include in a  $100 \cdot (1 - \alpha)\%$  Confidence Interval?

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$$|t^*| = \left| \frac{\hat{\beta} - b}{\hat{\sigma}_\beta / \sqrt{n}} \right| > z_{1-\alpha/2}.$$

We fail to reject  $H_0 : \beta = b$  in favor of  $H_1 : \beta \neq b$  if

$$\left| \frac{\hat{\beta} - b}{\hat{\sigma}_\beta / \sqrt{n}} \right| \leq z_{1-\alpha/2}.$$

Equivalently we can say that we fail to reject  $H_0 : \beta = b$  in favor of  $H_1 : \beta \neq b$  if

$$\hat{\beta} - z_{1-\alpha/2} \cdot \left( \hat{\sigma}_{\beta} / \sqrt{n} \right) \leq b \leq \hat{\beta} + z_{1-\alpha/2} \cdot \left( \hat{\sigma}_{\beta} / \sqrt{n} \right).$$



Equivalently we can say that we fail to reject  $H_0 : \beta = b$  in favor of  $H_1 : \beta \neq b$  if

$$\hat{\beta} - z_{1-\alpha/2} \cdot (\hat{\sigma}_\beta / \sqrt{n}) \leq b \leq \hat{\beta} + z_{1-\alpha/2} \cdot (\hat{\sigma}_\beta / \sqrt{n}).$$

Thus our  $100 \cdot (1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence interval is given

$$\left[ \hat{\beta} - z_{1-\alpha/2} \cdot (\hat{\sigma}_\beta / \sqrt{n}), \hat{\beta} + z_{1-\alpha/2} \cdot (\hat{\sigma}_\beta / \sqrt{n}) \right].$$

Equivalently we can say that we fail to reject  $H_0 : \beta = b$  in favor of  $H_1 : \beta \neq b$  if

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$$\left[ \hat{\beta} - z_{1-\alpha/2} \cdot (\hat{\sigma}_\beta / \sqrt{n}), \hat{\beta} + z_{1-\alpha/2} \cdot (\hat{\sigma}_\beta / \sqrt{n}) \right].$$

This is interpreted as: we are  $100 \cdot (1 - \alpha)\%$  confident that the true value of  $\beta$  lies in the interval

$$\left[ \hat{\beta} - z_{1-\alpha/2} \cdot (\hat{\sigma}_\beta / \sqrt{n}), \hat{\beta} + z_{1-\alpha/2} \cdot (\hat{\sigma}_\beta / \sqrt{n}) \right].$$

## Linear Regression: Confidence Interval Example

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Our data then looks like  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^{100}$  where  $Y_i \in \{0, 1\}$  denotes a person's vaccination status and  $X_i \in [0, 100]$  denotes the cash incentive offered to people. We want to preform construct a confidence interval for the parameter  $\beta_1$  from the linear model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot X_i + \epsilon_i, \quad \mathbb{E}[\epsilon] = \mathbb{E}[\epsilon X] = 0.$$

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- As a reminder we can think of this model as generated by the line of best fit parameters

$$\beta_0, \beta_1 = \arg \min_{\tilde{\beta}_0, \tilde{\beta}_1} \mathbb{E} \left[ (Y - \tilde{\beta}_0 - \tilde{\beta}_1 X)^2 \right].$$

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- Important for the government, when considering a policy, to not only have a point estimate of the effect but also a measure of how confident we are in the point estimate.

After collecting our data  $\{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^{100}$  we find that

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 = 6$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = 4$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i^2 = 0.25$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})(X_i - \bar{X}) = 0.1$$



Using this data we compute

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})(X_i - \bar{X})}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} = \frac{0.1}{4} = 0.025$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1}^2 = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_\epsilon^2}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} = \frac{0.25}{4} = 0.0625$$

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**Question:** Given that  $Y \in \{0, 1\}$ , how do we interpret  $\hat{\beta}_1$  in this context? How would we interpret  $\hat{\beta}_0$  in this context?

## Linear Regression: Confidence Interval Example

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Now let's construct a 95% confidence interval for  $\beta_1$ .

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$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm z_{1-\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{\hat{\sigma}_{\beta_1}}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

Now let's construct a 95% confidence interval for  $\beta_1$ . Recall that a  $100 \cdot (1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $\beta_1$  is given by

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In this case  $\alpha = 0.05$ . From above we have that  $z_{0.975} \approx 1.96$ . Plugging in our values from above the 95% confidence interval for  $\beta_1$  is given

$$0.025 \pm 1.96 \cdot \frac{\sqrt{0.0625}}{\sqrt{100}} = 0.025 \pm 1.96 \cdot \frac{0.25}{10}.$$