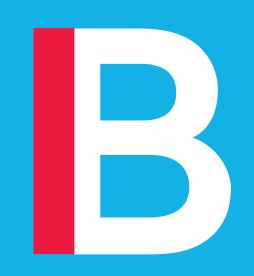


Testing Times -

How to decide when to take an econometric result serious

by Ralf Martin (r.martin@imperial.ac.uk)



Objective for today

Understand the reliability of a regression result...

...assuming there is no bias or mis-specification of the model

We are talking about the known unknowns today



Go to www.menti.com and use the code 13 94 44 4

How would you decide decide if a dice is fair?

Mentimeter

I would throw a dice

Press S to show image

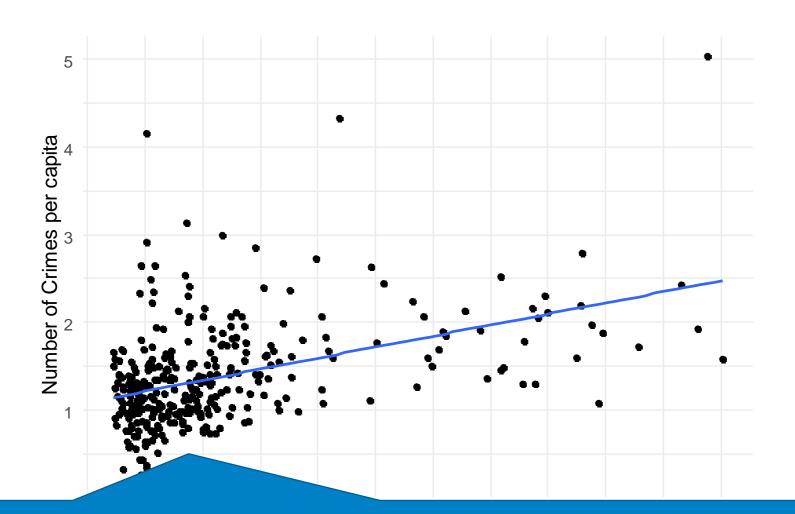


• We can never 100% certain if a dice is fair

• However, if something happens that is very unlikely for a fair dice (e.g. 20 sixes in a row) we will conclude the dice is rigged.

- Hypothesis testing for dice in a nutshell

Hypothesis testing in for econometric models



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

How <u>likely</u> is it to see a slope such as this...

- even if there is no relationship between foreigners and crime
- and there is no endogeneity

The distribution of our estimates

- To work out how likely a particular regression outcome is given a hypothesis we need to know the distribution of the estimates
- For a distribution we need the notion of a random experiment (like throwing a dice)
- In the context of estimating an econometric model the random experiment is taking a random sample of a population



Monte Carlo Experiment

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- Let's make the data ourselves
- E.g. suppose the true model is $Y_i = 2 + 0 \times X_i + \varepsilon_i$
- The following sequence of commands will draw a sample driven by this model in R

```
obs <- 100
x < -0.5 + runif(obs)*2.5
sig=sqrt(5.5)*2
eps <- rnorm(obs,0,sig)
y < -2 + x * 0 + eps
df=data.frame(x,y)
ggplot(df, aes(x, y))+geom point(color="blue") +theme minimal()
```

 $B_1 = 0$

Let's run regression

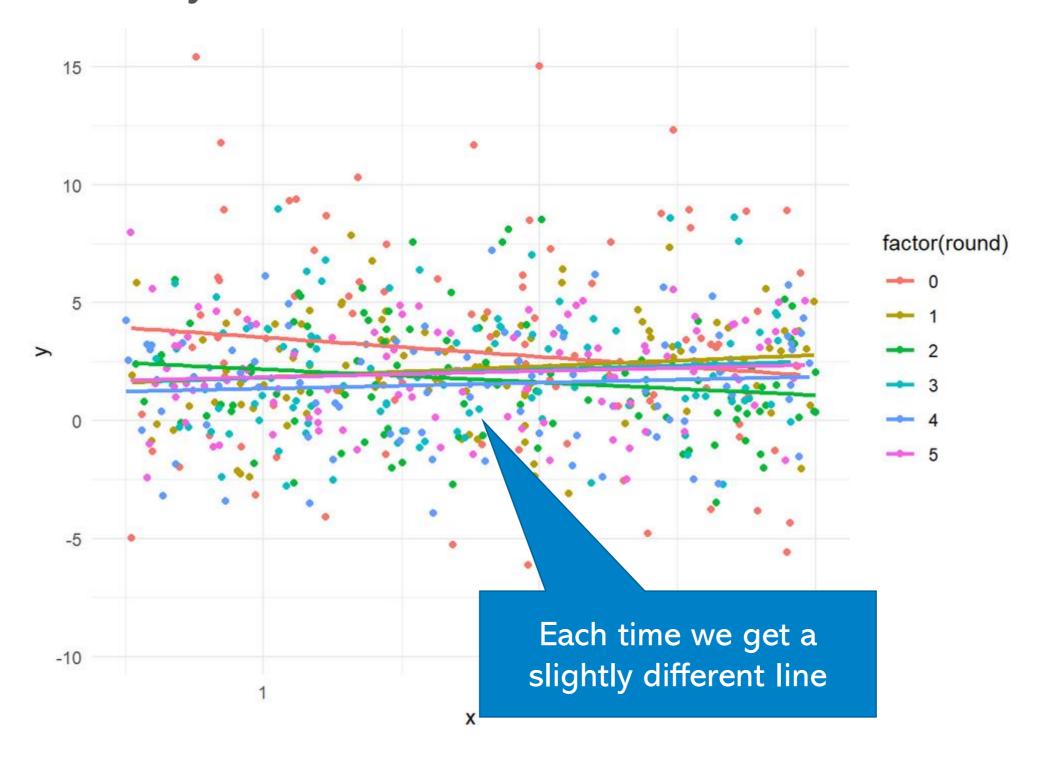
```
monte1 <- lm(y \sim x , data = df)
summary(monte1)
```

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = y \sim x, data = df)
## Residuals:
       Min
                1Q Median
                                         Max
  -11.9561 -2.9585 0.0476 2.6857 12.3041
## Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 4.3535
                          1.3215 3.294 0.00137 **
              -0.8188
## X
                          0.6724 -1.218 0.22623
## Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
## Residual standard error: 4.78, 98 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.01491,
                                Aa ed R-squared: 0.004855
## F-statistic: 1.483 on 1 and 98 DF, p-val 2262
```

How does it compare?

$$Y_i = 2 + 0 \times X_i + \varepsilon_i$$

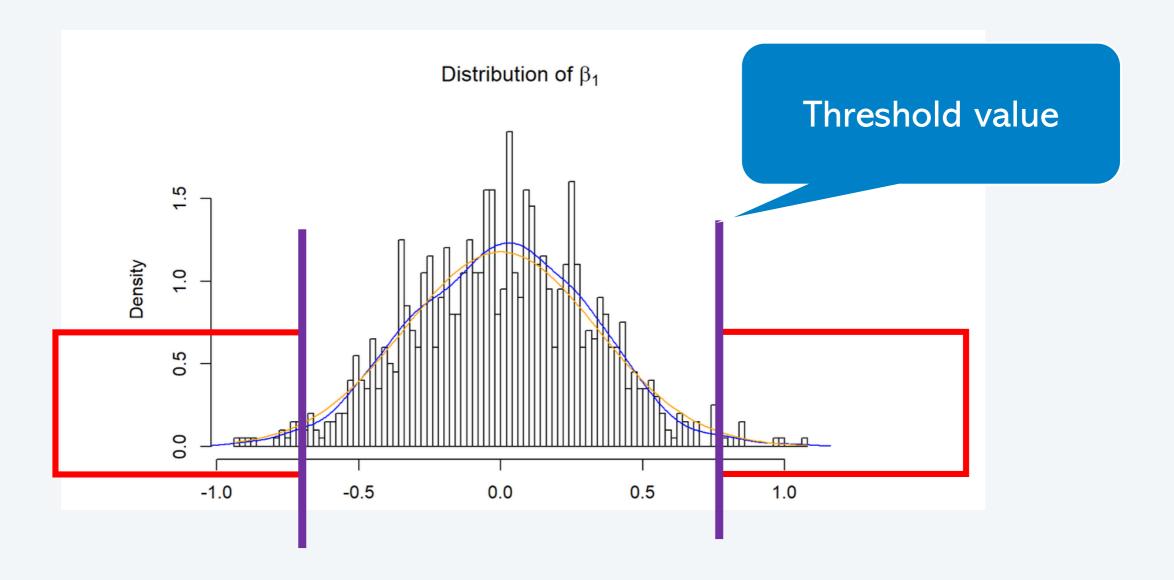
Let's do it many times



Let's look at histogram of β_1 1000 times

Distribution is very close to a normal distribution

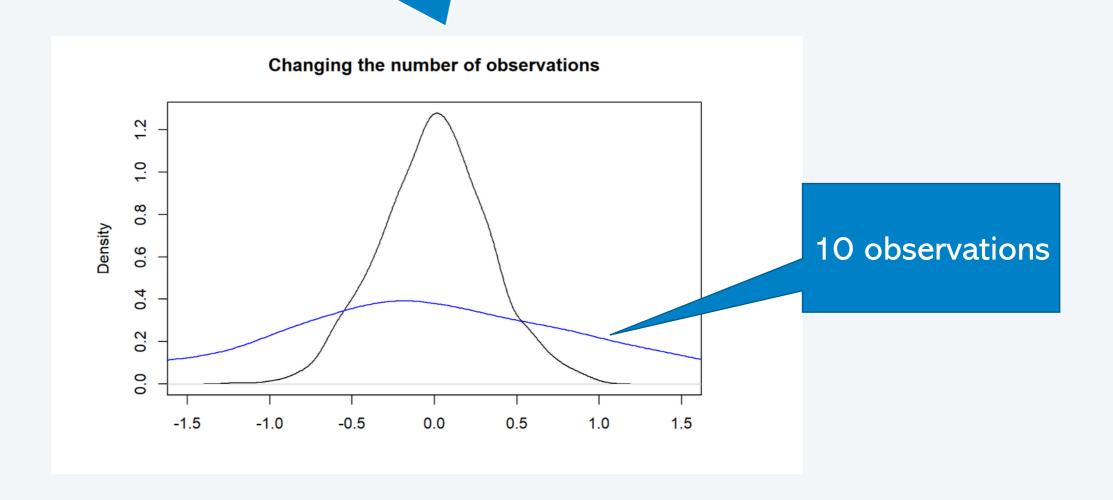
10



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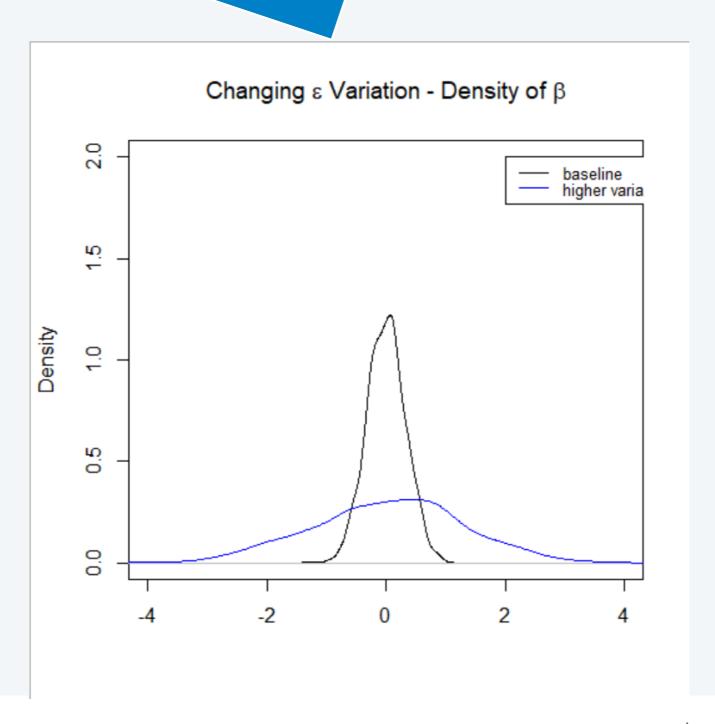
Large vs small sample

The distribution is more dispersed for a sample of 10 (small sample) than for a sample of 100



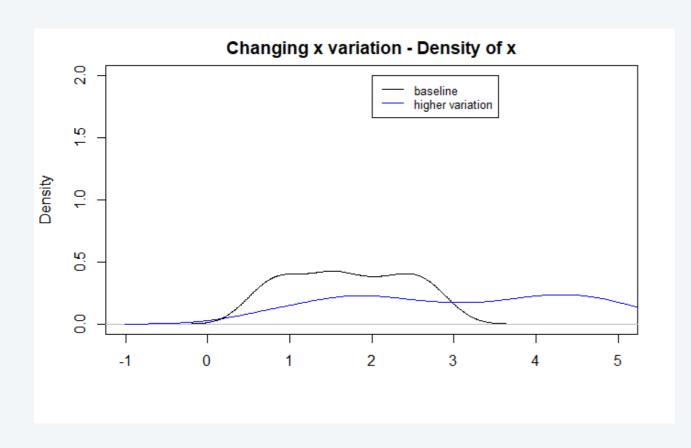
More variation in $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$

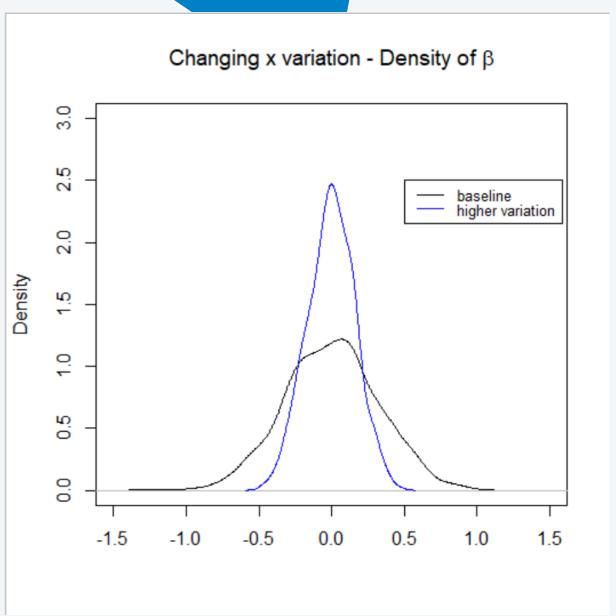
There is a lot we don't know about Y



Dispersed X vs not so dispersed X

If X varies more our estimate of β becomes more precise



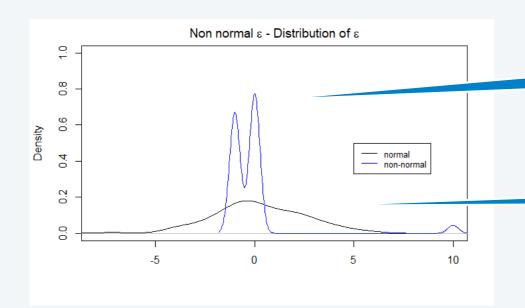


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Non normal ϵ

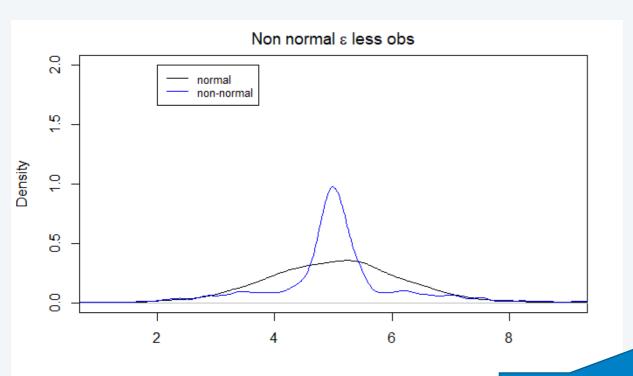
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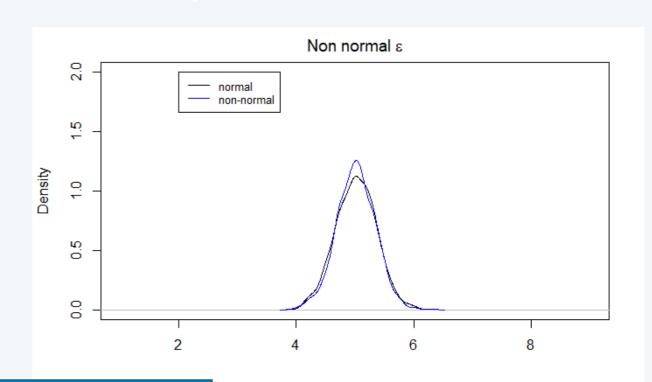
Non normal ϵ with same variance

Normal ϵ

Small sample (10 obs)



Large sample (100 obs)



Central limit theorem

The variance of the estimator

Standard Error of ϵ We can estimate from $\hat{\epsilon}$

Standard Error of estimate $\sigma_{\widehat{\beta}_1}^2 = \frac{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2}{nVAR(X)}$

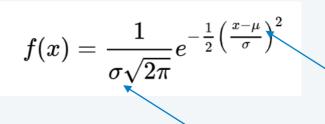
- Hence we also see in the formula that a larger number of observations means a lower variance of the estimated parameter.
- Moreover a larger variance of the of X (relative to the variance of ϵ) will imply a smaller variance of the estimate of β . Intuition: with bigger changes in X it will be easier to detect it's effect on Y.

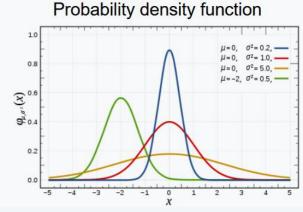
Recap

- Regression estimates are (approximately) normally distributed
- We can work out the variance

Normal distribution is fully characterized by standard error and

mean





- To work out the likelihood of that a value of a particular value arises we can work out the area under the density

 Significance level
- We can define how much risk of being wrong we are willing to accept and the work out a critical threshold

The foreigners cause crime hypothesis

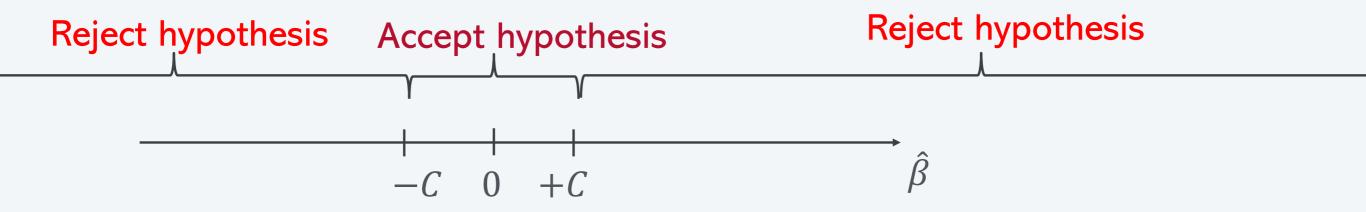
P value: Probability that we have values more extreme than what we estimated

```
df=read_dta("../data/foreigners.dta")
 df['crimesPc']=df$crimes11/df$pop11
 reg1=lm(crimesPc~b_migr11,df)
 summary(reg1)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = crimesPc ~ b migr11, data = df)
##
## Residuals:
##
     Min
              10 Median
                           30
                                 Max
## -1.5886 -0.3789 -0.1038 0.2046 14.0988
##
## Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept) 0.992957 0.079387 12.508 < 2e-16
## ---
```

Small P means we can reject that the coefficient is 0 (with little risk of being wrong)

Significance levels

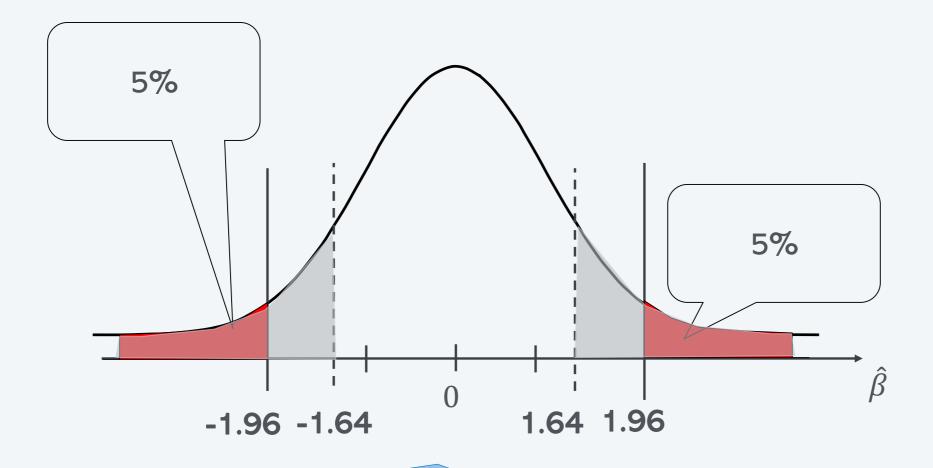
- Define how much risk of being wrong we are willing to accept and Work out a critical threshold value for $\hat{\beta}$ (call it c)
- If we find $\hat{\beta}$ >c or $\hat{\beta}$ < -c we know to reject that it is 0.



Null Hypothesis HO: $\beta = 0$

Alternative Hypthesis H1: $\beta \neq 0$

Finding c: Standard Normal ($\sigma = 1$)



- Say we willing to accept a higher risk
- Would we have a lower or higher threshold than c=1.96?
- E.g. what about 10% Type I risk?

The cumulative density

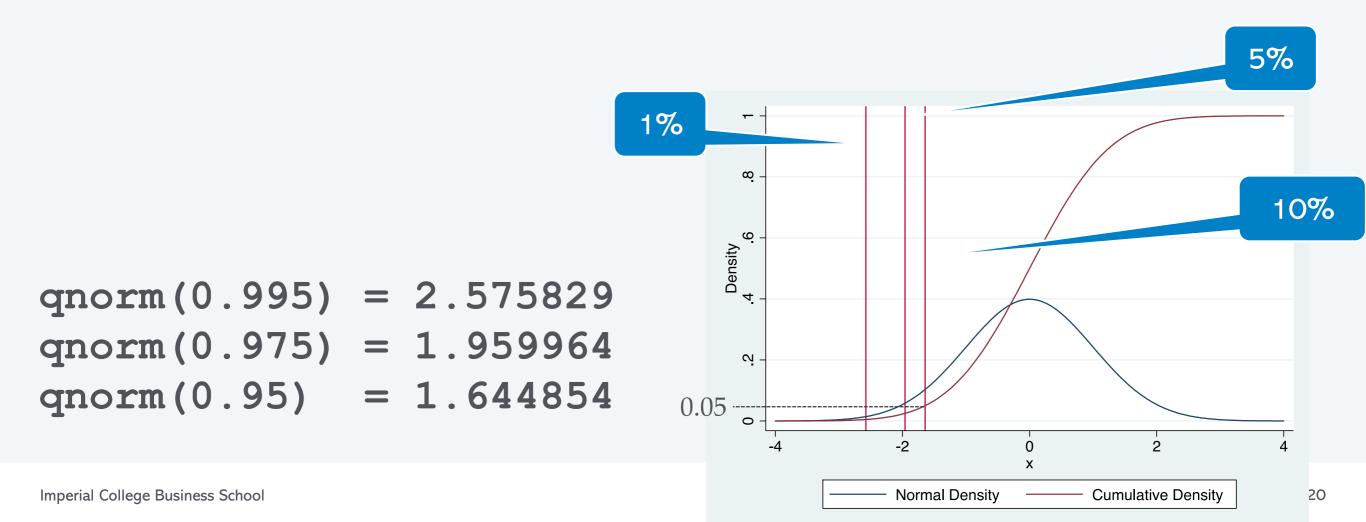
```
qnorm(0.005) = -2.575829

qnorm(0.005) = -2.575829

qnorm(0.025) = -1.959964

qnorm(0.05) = -1.644854
```

- The higher the significance level the smaller the threshold
- Higher significance level means we are less worried about an error of type I (reject even if true)
- Hence we are happy to reject in more cases



What if β is not standard normal (i.e. $\sigma_{\beta} \neq 1$)?

t statistic: ratio between estimate and standard error

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{\hat{\sigma}_{\widehat{\beta}}} \sim N(0,1)$$



The foreigners cause crime hypothesis

```
Standard error = 0.005 \frac{0.037}{0.005} = 7.4 > 1.96
```

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```
df=read_dta("../data/foreigners.dta")
 df['crimesPc']=df$crimes11/df$pop11
 reg1=lm(crimesPc~b_migr11,df)
 summary(reg1)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = crimesPc ~ b migr11, data = df)
##
## Residuals:
##
      Min
               10 Median
                               30
                                      Max
## -1.5886 -0.3789 -0.1038 0.2046 14.0988
##
## Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
                                  12.508 < 2e-16
## (Intercept) 0.992957 0.079387
## b migr11
              0.037630
                         0.005088 7.396 1.23e-12 ***
## ---
```

t-value = Estimate/Standard Error

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More or less significant estimates

- If we have a lower significance level (e.g. 1%) we are less likely to reject a hypothesis
- This is to avoid making the Type I error
- If we still reject the β =0 on the basis of an estimate $\hat{\beta}$ we say that **the estimate is highly significant**
- If we would only reject the hypothesis with a much higher significance level (e.g. 10% instead of 5%) we say that the estimate is only **weakly significant**

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Another example

```
> mod_earn_exp <- lm(EARNINGS ~ EXP , data = eaef)</pre>
> summary(mod_earn_exp)
                                        EXP= years of job experience
Call:
lm(formula = EARNINGS \sim EXP, data = eaef)
Residuals:
   Min
            1Q Median 3Q
                                  Max
-17.140 -8.876 -3.723 3.869 99.986
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 15.5553
                       2.4425 6.369 4.09e-10 ***
EXP
             0.2415
                       0.1398 1.727 0.0847 .
Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 14.39 on 538 degrees of
Multiple R-squared: 0.005515, Adjusted R-sq
```

Your turn: What do you conclude from this regression? (multiple options can be correct)

- (a) EXP coefficient is significantly different from 0 at 1%
- (b) EXP coefficient is significantly different from 0 at 5%
- (c) EXP coefficient is significantly different from 0 at 10%



Extra Slides

More general hypothesis tests

Previously we had HO: $\beta = 0$

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{\hat{\sigma}_{\widehat{\beta}}}$$

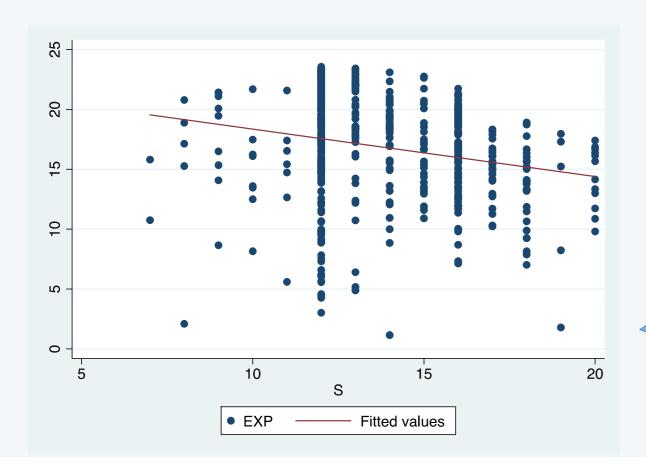
As before we can compare the t statistic with the critical values c for the standard normal distribution

Expected value of estimate under HO

More general tests example

Testing $\beta = 0$ is probably the most common test However, many other could be of interest.

Consider Experience vs Schooling



Possible hypothesis: one year of schooling leads to one year less of experience

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Can we reject this?

How to find out?

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Experience vs schooling

mod earn exp <-lim(EXP ~ S , data = eaef)

Coefficient is negative but smaller than 1. But is it small enough to reject that $\beta = -1$?

Experience vs schooling

```
mod earn exp <-lim(EXP ~ S , data = eaef)
```

 $t = \frac{-0.3961446 - (-1)}{0.0765003} = 7.894 > 1.96$, hence we reject the hypothesis

Note: .

disp qt(0.025,538) -1.9643832

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Experience vs schooling

```
mod earn exp <- lm(EXP ~ S , data = eaef)
```

```
Call:
  lm(formula = EXP \sim S, data = eaef)
  Residuals:
                                                             Linear hypothesis test
                 1Q Median
       Min
                                   30
                                           Max
                                                             Hypothesis:
  -17.0512 -2.3320 0.8564 3.1391
                                        6.3756
                                                             S = -1
                                                             Model 1: restricted model
                                                             Model 2: EXP ∼ S
  Coefficients:
                                                              Res.Df RSS Df Sum of Sq F Pr(>F)
                                                             1 539 11260
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
                                                             2 538 10091 1 1168.7 62.307 1.658e-14 ***
  (Intercept) 22.3165 1.0624 21.006 < 2e-16 ***
                                                             Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
  S
          -0.3961 0.0765 -5.178 3.17e-07 ***
  Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Alternative way to implement this test in R:
library("car")
linear Hypothesis (mod earn exp, c( "S = -1") )
```

A note of caution

An estimate can be significant and biased Or non-significant and non-biased (or vice versa)

- Significance is separate from bias
- We don't necessarily prefer an over another because one is significant.
- We need to ask for underlying reasons why one estimate is significant and the other one not.

Quick test: we have 2 estimates of the same parameter. Which would you prefer?

• Estimate 1 is biased and significant, estimate 2 is not significant but not biased?

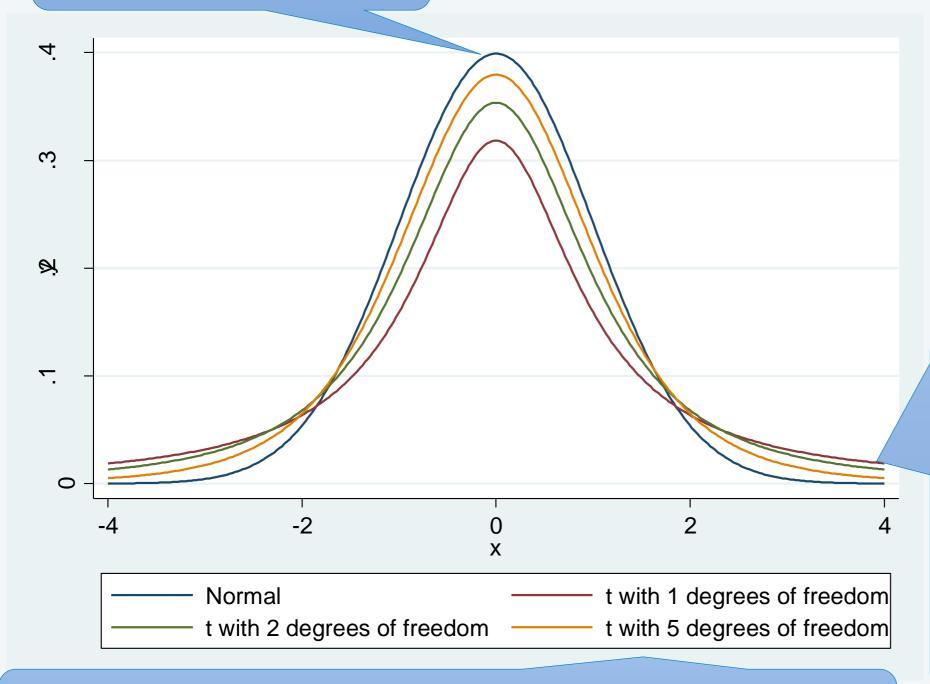
Estimation of $\sigma_{\widehat{oldsymbol{eta}}}$

$$\sigma_{\widehat{\beta}}^2 = \frac{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2}{nVAR(X)}$$
 Estimate using
$$VAR(\hat{\epsilon}^2)$$

$$\widehat{\sigma}_{\widehat{\beta}}^2 = \frac{\widehat{\sigma}_{\epsilon}^2}{nVAR(X)}$$

Student's t-Distribution

Standard normal



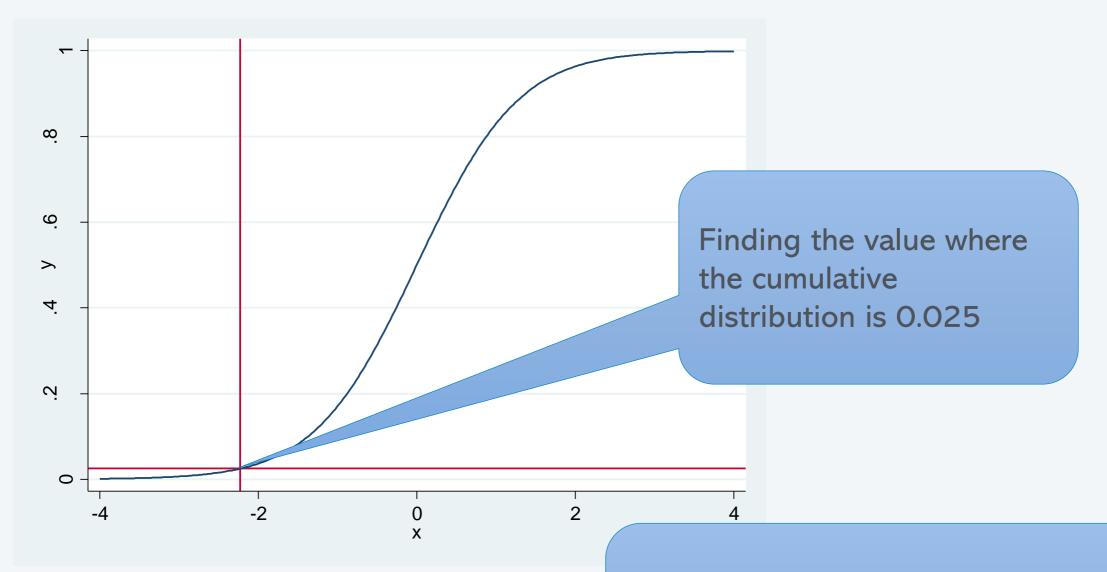
Degrees of Freedom (DoF): observations – parameters we need to estimate before we can estimate ϵ



William Sealy Gosset AKA Student

- t is a bit more dispersed than the normal
- Converges to Normal for large n
- We only need to worry about t for really small samples (<50)

Critical values t distribution



qt(0.025, 10)

-2.228139
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• 2.228>1.96

i.e. to have the same level of risk of making error I we reject fewer values

more probability weight in the tails