

L14

# Basic Statistics for Economists

Spring 2020

Department of Statistics



Stockholm  
University

# Summary from last time

- A parameter or the difference between two parameters
  - e.g.  $\mu$  or  $P$       e.g.  $\mu_A - \mu_B$  or  $P_A - P_B$
- Two opposite claims, hypotheses :  $H_0$  and  $H_1$
- Start with what is given and what has to be assumed
  - e.g. normal distribution, known variance, sample size, indep.
- Identify the correct test variable,  $Z$  or  $t_{n-1}$
- If not given, decide significance level  $\alpha$
- Find the critical values
  - $z_\alpha$  or  $-z_\alpha$  (1-sided) or  $\pm z_{\alpha/2}$  (2-sided); or the equivalent  $t$ -test
- Calculate and make decision: reject or not reject. **Interpret!**

# One parameter: $\mu_x$

- When should we use  $z$  and when should we use  $t$ ?

Sample size $n$	Distribution	Variance $\sigma_x^2$	
		known	unknown, use $s_x^2$
<b>large, <math>\geq 30</math></b>	normal	$z$	$\text{approx} \Rightarrow z$
	not normal	$\text{CLT} \Rightarrow z$	$\text{CLT + approx} \Rightarrow z$
<b>small, <math>&lt; 30</math></b>	normal	$z$	$t$
	not normal	<b>not included</b>	<b>not included</b>

- In the cases marker blue above, where the sample is large and the variance unknown, one could argue that  $t$  should be used instead of  $z$ . This would give more conservative results, i.e. slightly smaller risk  $\alpha$ ; using  $t$  adjusts for the slightly larger uncertainty that follows from estimating of the variance.

# Two parameters: $\mu_x - \mu_y$

- When should we use  $z$  and when should we use  $t$ ?

Sample sizes $n_x, n_y$	Distribution	Variances $\sigma_x^2$ and $\sigma_y^2$	
		known	unknown: $s_x^2, s_y^2$
<b>large, <math>\geq 30</math></b>	normal	$Z$	approx $\Rightarrow Z$
	not normal	CLT $\Rightarrow Z$	CLT + approx $\Rightarrow Z$
<b>small, <math>&lt; 30</math></b>	normal	$Z$	$\sigma_x^2 = \sigma_y^2:$ $t$
	not normal	not included	not included

- In the cases marked blue above, where the sample is large and the variances unknown, one could argue that  $t$  should be used instead of  $z$ . This would give more conservative results, i.e. slightly smaller risk  $\alpha$ ; using  $t$  adjusts for the slightly larger uncertainty that follows from estimating of the variances.

# Significance and power, error types

<b>Consequence &amp; probability</b>	Actual situation	
Decision	$H_0$ true	$H_0$ false
Acceptera $H_0$	Correct decision $(1-\alpha)$	Type II error $(\beta)$
Reject $H_0$	Type I error $(\alpha)$	Correct decision $(1-\beta)$

- Probability  $\alpha = \text{significance level}$  (cf. *p*-value)
- Probability  $1-\beta = \text{power}$  (sv. *testets styrka*)



# Using *p*-values

If the ***p*-value** is **small**, e.g. < 5%

⇒ the null hypothesis is **rejected** on 5% significance level

If the ***p*-value** is **large**, e.g. > 5%

⇒ the null hypothesis **cannot be rejected** on the 5% level

## Significance level

- “**statistically significant**” (sv. “*statistiskt säkerställt*”), is synonymous with a **low *p*-value**, typically less than 5%.

# Compare $\mu_0$ against a confidence interval

- Suppose you are going to test a null hypothesis against a **double-sided** alternative at significance level  $\alpha = 0,05$

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0 \quad \text{vs.} \quad H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$$

- Your friend has already calculated a  $100(1 - \alpha) = 95\%$  CI for  $\mu$  based on the same data that you are going to use.

If your  $\mu_0$  lies **outside the interval**

⇒ **reject** the null hypothesis

If your  $\mu_0$  lies **within the interval**

⇒ **do not reject** null hypothesis

# Proportions are an exception!

- When we test  $H_0: P = P_0$  we get (according to CLT):

Test variable for  $P$ :  $Z = \frac{\hat{P} - P_0}{\sqrt{\frac{P_0(1 - P_0)}{n}}} \rightarrow N(0, 1)$

**standard error  
under  $H_0$**

- But when we estimate a CI of  $P$ :

100(1 –  $\alpha$ ) % KI for  $P$ :  $\hat{P} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{P}(1 - \hat{P})}{n}}$

**estimated standard  
error**

- Since we calculate SE differently, based on  $P_0$  in the test case, or based on  $\hat{P}$  in the CI case, the results may differ!

# DIY Example

Sample with  $n = 30$  and  $\hat{p} = 0.10$ , test if  $P = 0.25$

- 5% test  $H_0: P = 0.25$  v.  $H_0: P \neq 0.25$ , reject  $H_0$  if  $|z_{obs}| > 1.96$

$$|z_{obs}| = \left| \frac{\hat{p} - P_0}{\sqrt{P_0(1-P_0)/n}} \right| = \left| \frac{0.1 - 0.25}{\sqrt{0.25 \cdot 0.75 / 30}} \right| = 1.6444 < 1.96 \Rightarrow \text{do not reject } H_0$$

- 95% CI for  $P$ :

$$\hat{p} \pm 1.96 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}} = 0.10 \pm 1.96 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{0.1 \cdot 0.9}{30}} \Rightarrow (0.0037, 0.2363)$$

Since  $P = 0.25$  is not covered by the CI we might wrongly conclude that  $H_0$  should be rejected

# Today

## Introduction to **Linear Regression** (sections **11.1 – 11.3 in NCT**)

- Intro
- The model
- Estimation of the model parameters
- Predictions
- Residuals and residual variance

# What are regression models?

Example:

- Children are born. Can we predict  $Y = \text{body length}$  as an adult?
  - Empirical rule
  - $Y \sim N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$ ; prediction  $\mu_Y \pm 2\sigma_Y$  captures ca 95 %
- The body length at birth varies between children. Could length at birth “explain” the variation in adult body lengths?
- Can other factors affect (explain) body length as an adult?
  - $Y = \text{function(BLNewborn, Sex, MomLng, DadLng, ... )}$

**Regression modell!**

# A normal distributed variable $Y$

- Suppose that  $Y$  is a normal distributed random variable:

$$Y \sim N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$$

- This **model** can also be written like this:

$$Y = \mu_Y + \delta$$

where

$$\delta \sim N(0, \sigma_\delta^2)$$

NOTE!  $\mu_Y$  is a **constant**

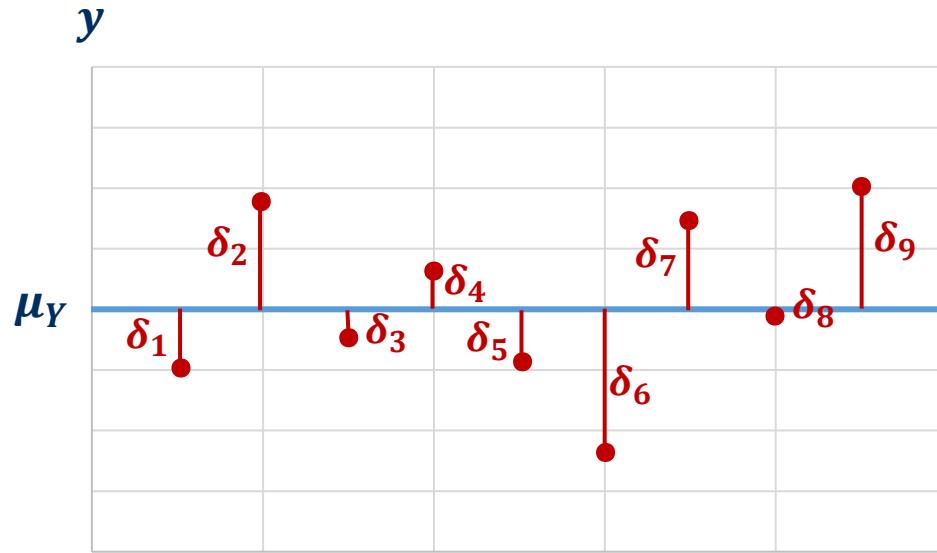
- The random variable  $\delta$  is the random distance to  $\mu_Y$  or the **deviation** or **error term** (sv. *felterm*; Greek delta  $\delta$ )

Expectation:  $E(Y) = E(\mu_Y + \delta) = \mu_Y + E(\delta) = \mu_Y$  (E(\delta) = 0)

Variance:  $Var(Y) = Var(\mu_Y + \delta) = Var(\delta) = \sigma_\delta^2 = \sigma_Y^2$

# Illustration

- Each red dot represents an observed  $Y$  value

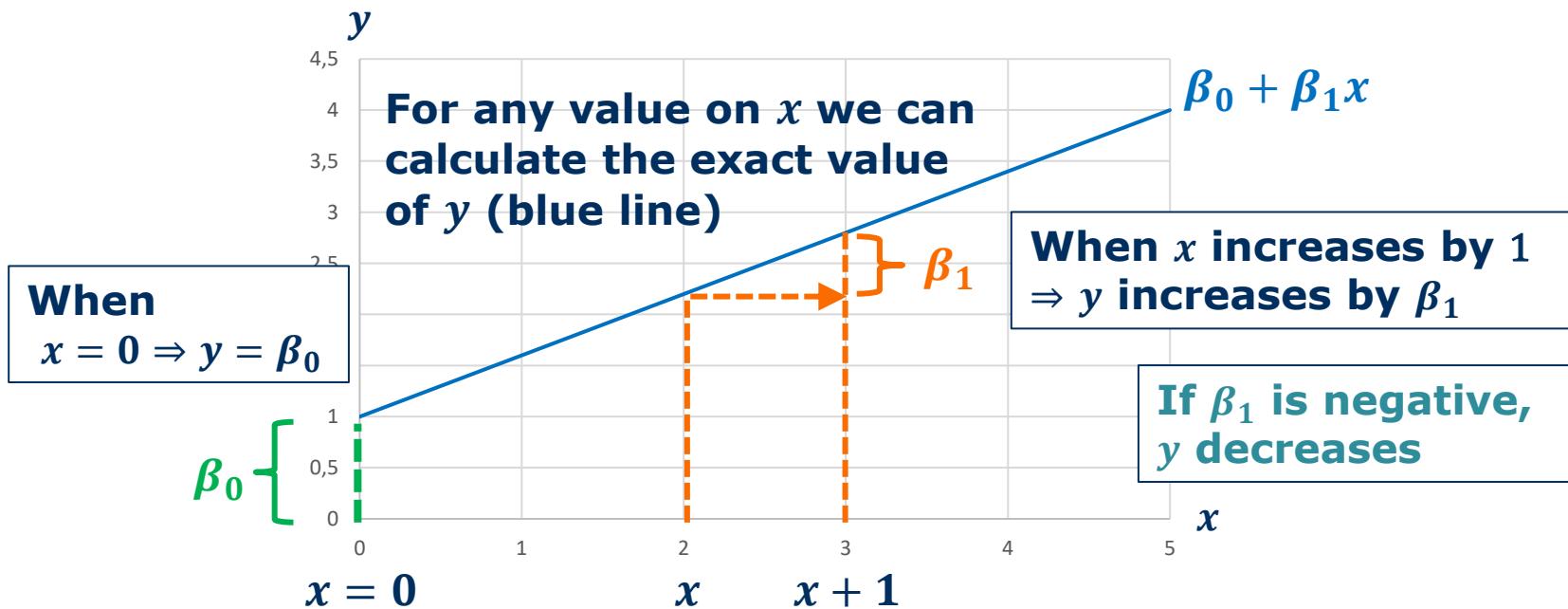


$\delta_i = \text{distance from the different } Y \text{ values to } \mu_Y$

$$\sigma_{\delta}^2 = \sigma_Y^2$$

# Linear function

- $y = f(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ , the graph of  $f(x)$  is a straight line



# Linear function - stochastic version

- $(Y|X = x) = f(x) + \varepsilon = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$  where  $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$   


- **Conditioning** on the event  $X = x \Rightarrow \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$  is a **constant**

Expectation:  $\mu_{Y|X=x} = E(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon) = \boxed{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x} + E(\varepsilon) (= 0)$

Different conditional expected values of  $Y$ , depends on  $x$

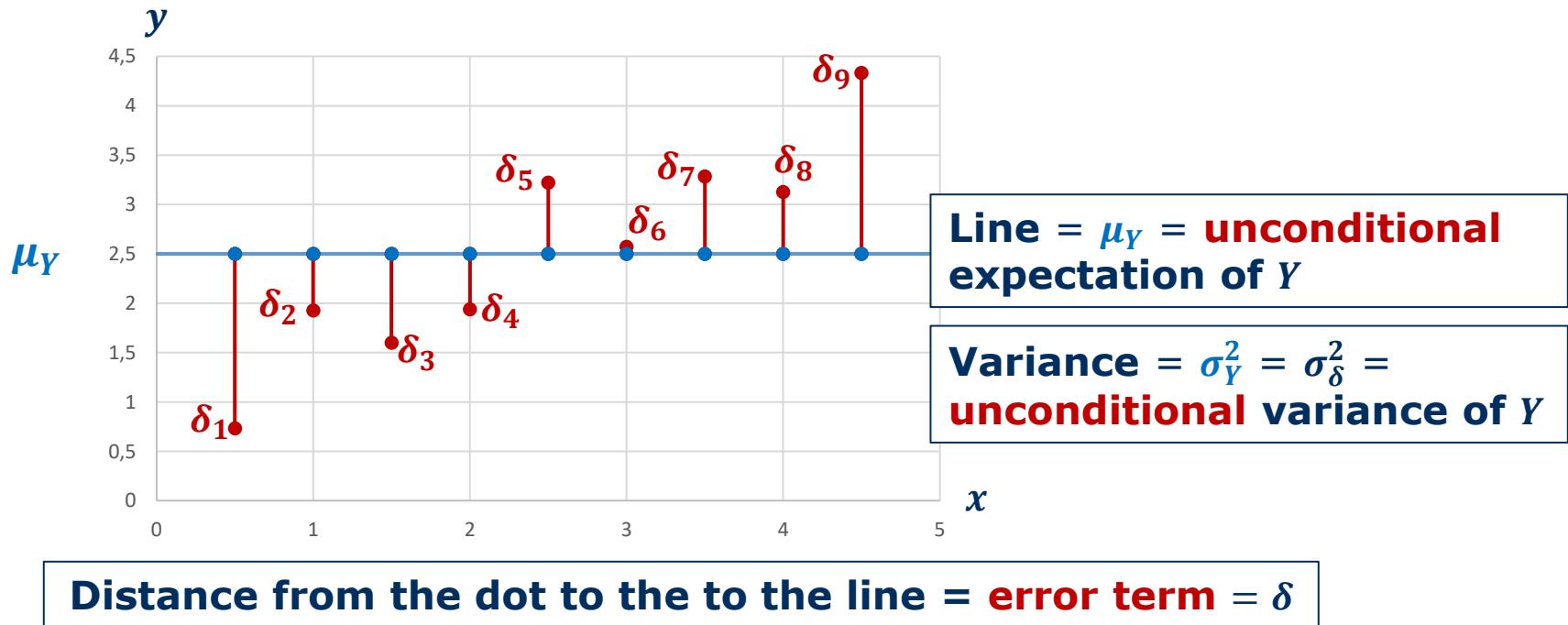
Variance:  $\sigma_{Y|X=x}^2 = Var(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon) = Var(\varepsilon) = \boxed{\sigma_\varepsilon^2 \neq \sigma_Y^2}$

Same conditional variance of  $Y$  regardless of the value of  $x$

# No linear function, unconditional on $x$

- The simple model  $Y = \mu_Y + \delta$  where  $\delta \sim N(0, \sigma_\delta^2)$

$$\sigma_\delta^2 = \sigma_Y^2$$



# Linear function - stochastic version, cont.

- $(Y|X = x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \varepsilon$  where  $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$

$$\sigma_\varepsilon^2 \neq \sigma_Y^2$$



Line =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x = \mu_{Y|X=x} =$   
conditional expected  
value of  $Y$  given  $X = x$

Variance =  $\sigma_\varepsilon^2 =$   
conditional variance of  $Y$   
given  $X = x$

Distance from the dot to the line = error term =  $\varepsilon$

# Why do we do this?

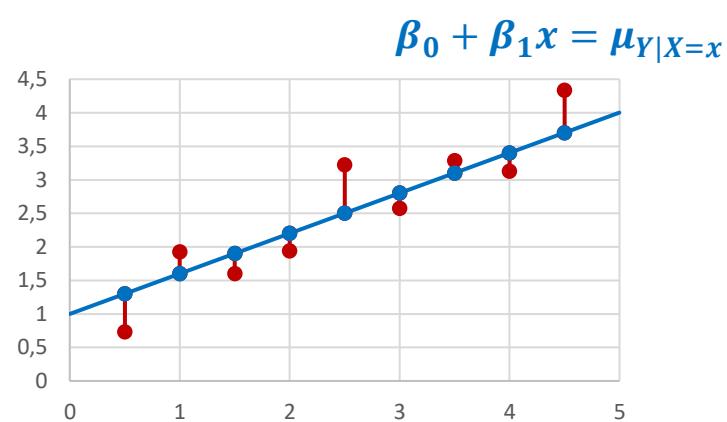
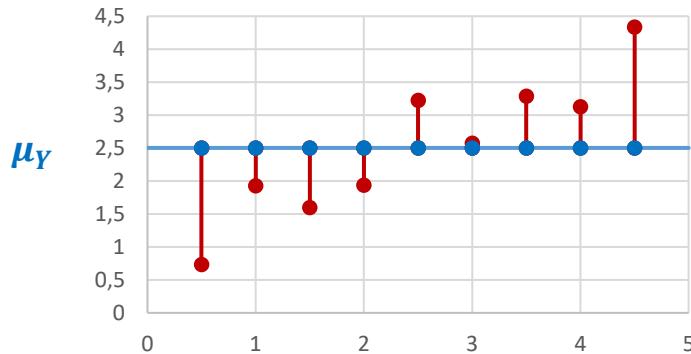
- **Analysis of relationships**, study how  $X$  and  $Y$  vary together
- In general (from L1):
  - Descriptive ("*this is the observed relationship between  $X$  and  $Y$* ")
  - Explanatory, causality ("*the value of  $Y$  is this because  $X$  is this*")
  - Predictions ("*what happens with  $Y$  if  $X$  takes this value*")
  - Normative, prescriptive ("*do this to get this result*")

By using information about a variable  $X$  and how it co-varies with another variable  $Y$  we can, by conditioning on a particular value  $X = x$ , make a better guess about the value of  $Y$ .

- **Better guess = increased precision = less variance**

# Gain in terms of decreased variance

- Var. of error terms, **unconditional** vs. **conditional** on  $X = x$ :



$$\sigma_Y^2 > \sigma_{Y|X=x}^2 = \sigma_\varepsilon^2$$

- Variance decreases = better precision = better predictions

# Interpretation of parameters

- $\beta_0$  = **intercept**, where the regression line cuts the  $y$  axis
  - the **average** value of  $Y$  when  $X = 0$
  - estimated with  $b_0$
- $\beta_1$  = the **slope** of the line, **the regression coefficient**
  - the **average increase** of  $Y$  when  $X$  increases 1 unit
  - estimated with  $b_1$
- $\mu_{Y|X=x}$  = **conditional expectation** of  $Y$ , conditional on  $X = x$ 
  - the **average** value of  $Y$  when  $X = x$
  - according to the model  $\mu_{Y|X=x} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$
  - estimated with  $\hat{\mu}_{Y|X=x} = b_0 + b_1 x$

# Interpretation of parameters, cont.

- $\varepsilon = \text{error}$ , the distance from  $Y$  to the line  $\mu_{Y|X=x} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ 
  - the difference between the actual value of  $Y$  and the conditional expected value of  $Y$
  - $\varepsilon = Y - \mu_{Y|X=x} = Y - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x$
  - since we typically don't know the values of  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  we will never know the real values of the errors
- $\sigma_\varepsilon^2 = \text{Var}(\varepsilon) = \text{the error variance}$ 
  - the conditional variance of  $Y$  given  $X = x$
  - compare  $\sigma_\varepsilon^2$  to  $\sigma_Y^2$ , the unconditional variance of  $Y$
  - we hope that  $\sigma_\varepsilon^2 < \sigma_Y^2$
  - estimated with  $s_e^2$

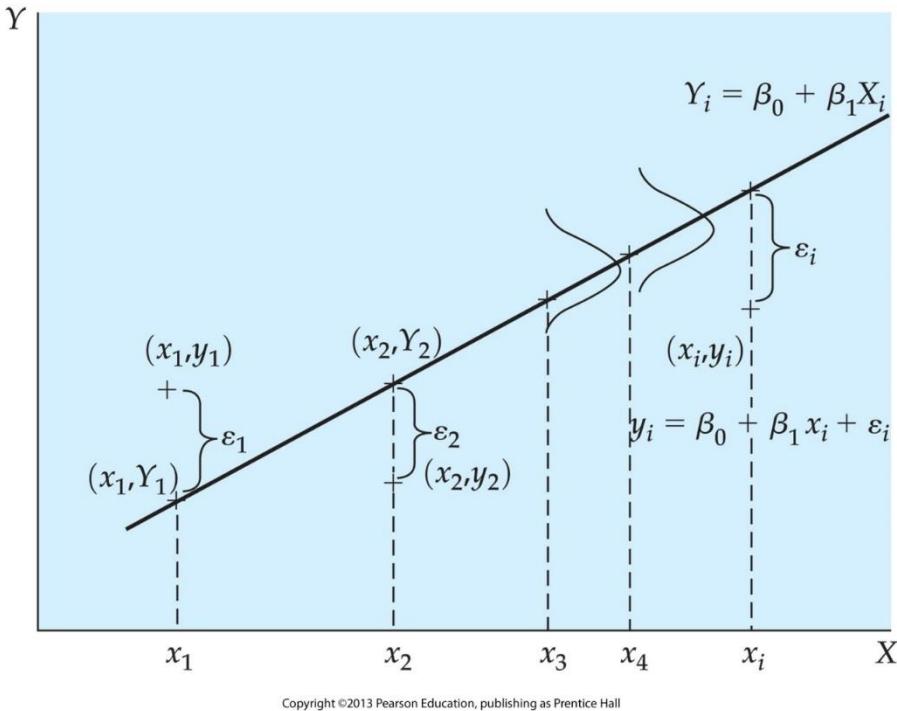
# Assumptions for linear regression model

1.  $Y$  is a **linear** function of  $x$  plus an error term  $\varepsilon$

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i$$

2. The  $x_i$ -values are either constant (pre-determined) or they are realizations of a r.v.  $X$  that are **independent** of the errors  $\varepsilon_i$
3. The error terms  $\varepsilon_i$  are **independent** of each other
4. The error terms  $\varepsilon_i$  are **normal distributed** r.v.'s  $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$   
expectation  $E(\varepsilon_i) = 0$  and **constant variance**  $\sigma_\varepsilon^2$ 
  - variance of  $Y$  is the same regardless of  $x$ , this is called **homoscedasticity**

# The conditional expectation – illustration



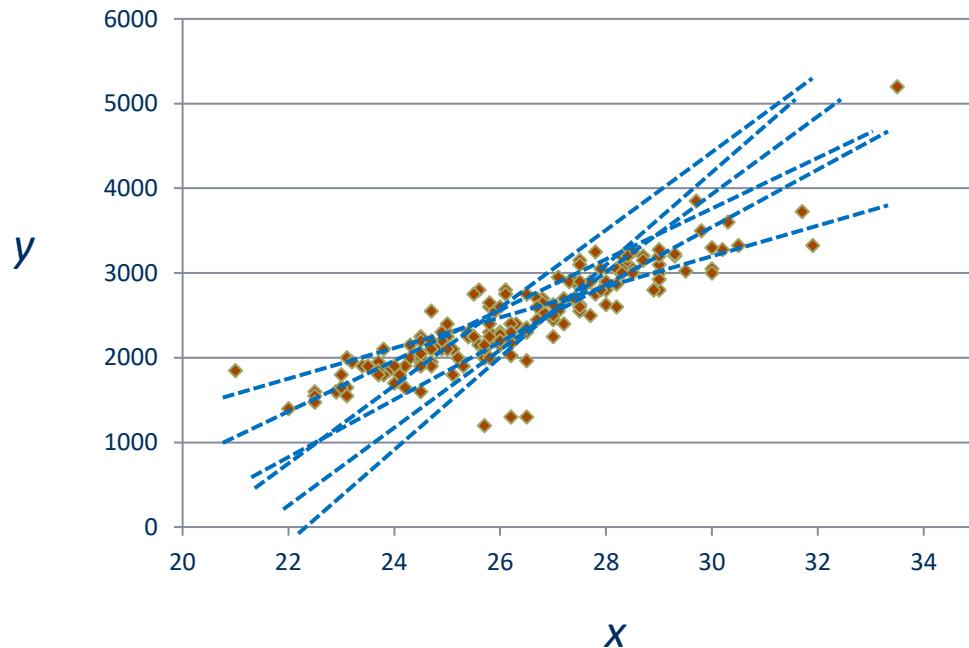
- Condition on  $X = x$   
fix the value of  $x$  and study  
the behavior of  $Y$  at that  
particular  $x$  value
- $Y$  can be above, below, or on  
the line  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$
- The distance  $\epsilon$  is a random  
variable,  $\epsilon \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$

$$Y|X = x \sim N(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x; \sigma_\epsilon^2)$$



# Scatterplots – real data

- Assume two numerical, continuous variables:  $x$  and  $y$
- Every pair  $(x_i, y_i)$  is represented by a dot

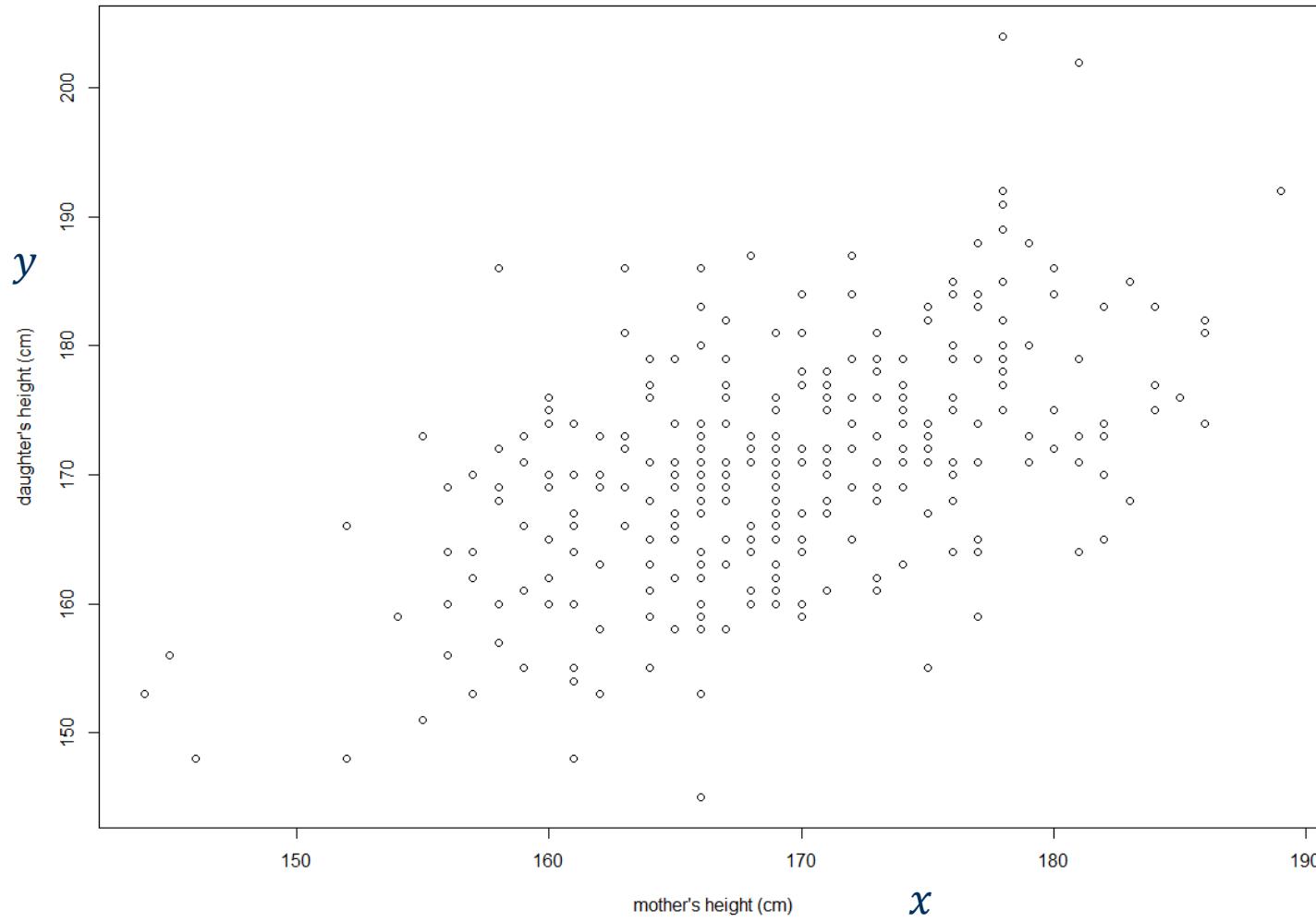


Which line  $y = b_0 + b_1x$  has the best fit to the points?

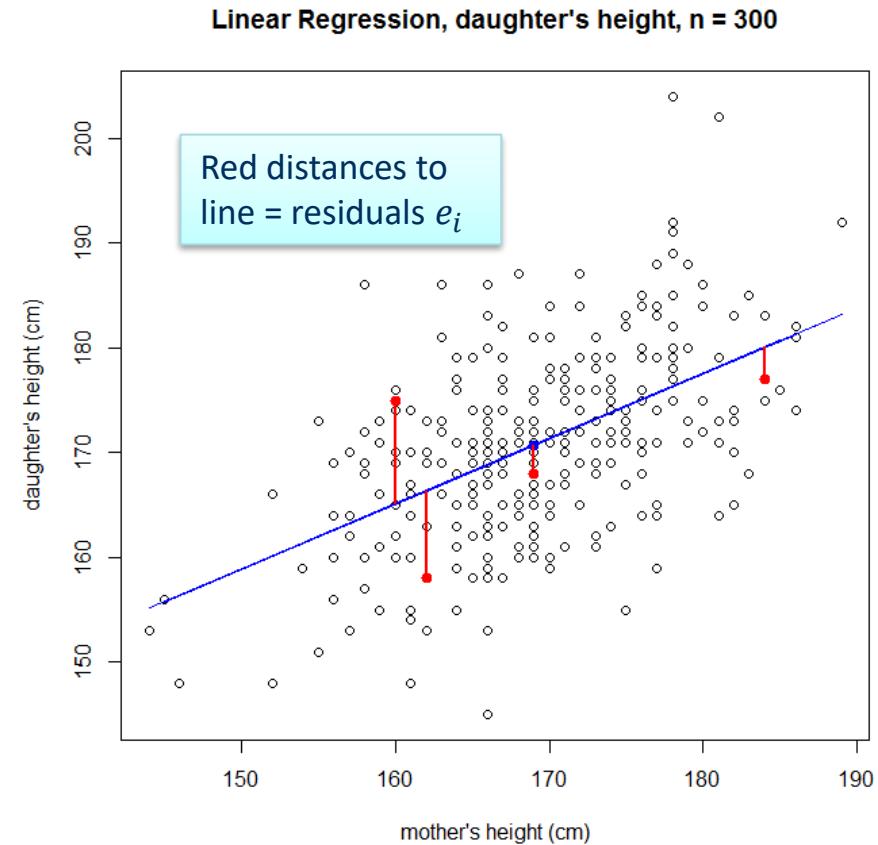
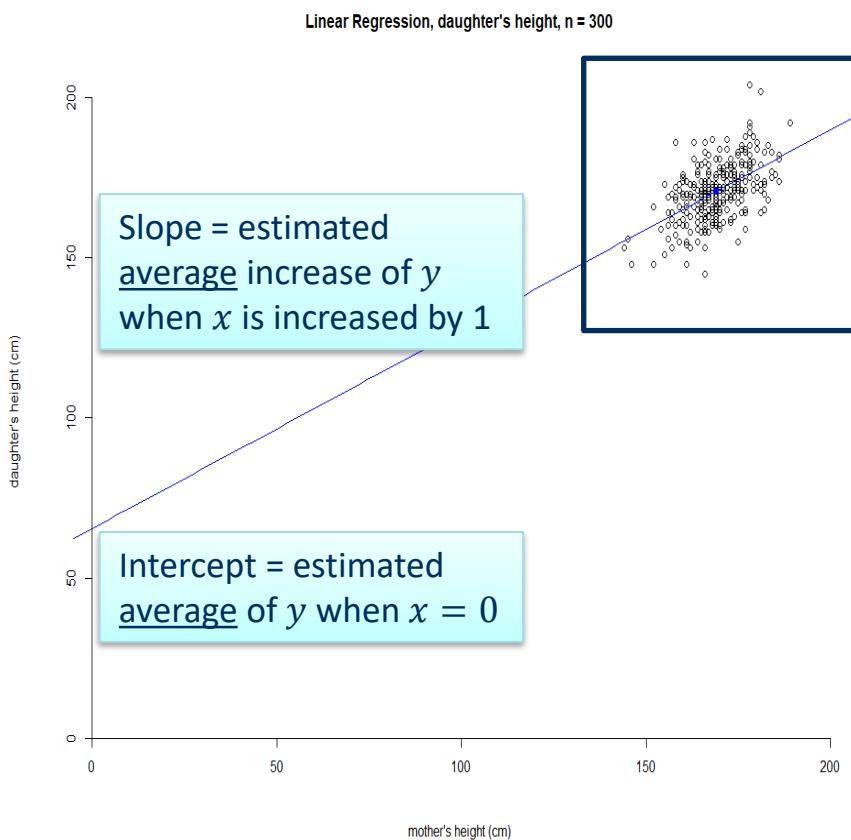
And how do we define best fit?

# Example: Height of female adults

Heights, mother-daughter pairs, n = 300



# Ex. cont. Daughter's height explained by mother's height: $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot X_i + \varepsilon_i$



# Exercise

- Suppose that we have a sample of  $n = 6$  pairwise values of two random variables  $x$  and  $y$ :

$i$	$x_i$	$y_i$
1	1	2
2	2	3
3	10	8
4	8	6
5	5	7
6	4	8
Sum	30	34

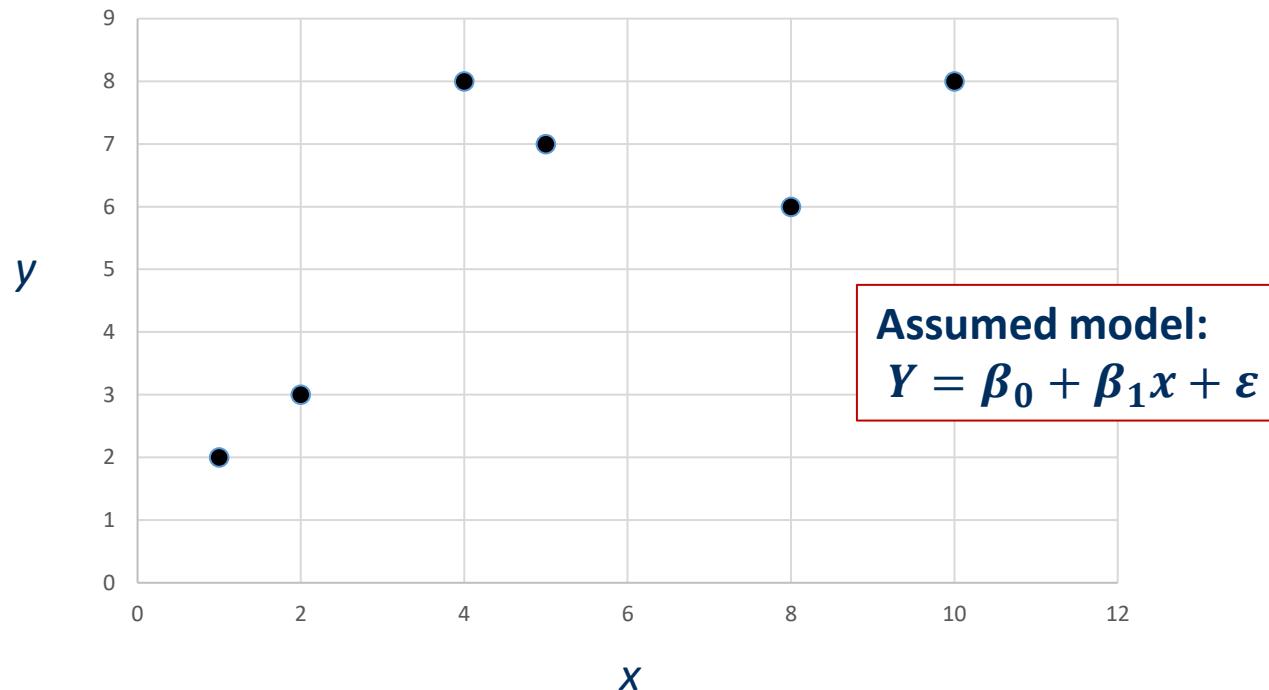
- We wish to "explain"  $Y$  using  $X$  by means of a linear regression model

# Exercise, cont.

- Plot the observations
- Estimate the model parameters:  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ , and  $\sigma_\varepsilon^2$
- Draw the line in the diagram
- Interpret the estimates of the regression parameters
- Make a **prediction** of  $y$  when  $x = 2$
- Estimate the conditional expectation of  $y$  when  $x = 3$

## Exercise, cont.

- Plot: looks like a positive linear relationship (almost linear?)



# OLS estimation of the model parameters

- Sample (iid) of  $n$  pairs  $(x_i, y_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$
- $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ , and  $\sigma_\varepsilon^2$  are estimated with the method of **ordinary least squares, OLS**

Set  $b_0$  and  $b_1$  of the line  $\hat{y} = b_0 + b_1 x$  such that the sum of the squared distances  $e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$  is as small as possible.

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$$

Solved mathematically by taking the derivative of the sum with respect to  $b_0$  and  $b_1$ , set the derivatives equal to zero, and then solve for  $b_0$  and  $b_1$ .

# Derived formulas

1. First calculate the estimate of  $\beta_1$ , one of several ways:

$$\begin{aligned}
 b_1 &= r_{xy} \cdot \frac{s_y}{s_x} = \frac{\text{Cov}(x, y)}{s_x^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) / (n - 1)}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 / (n - 1)} \\
 &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - n \bar{x} \bar{y}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - n \bar{x}^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

2. Then calculate the estimate of  $\beta_0$ :  $b_0 = \bar{y} - b_1 \bar{x}$

- To calculate the estimate of the error variance  $\sigma_\varepsilon^2$  we first have to calculate the residuals.



# Exercise, the estimates

$i$	$x_i$	$y_i$	$x_i^2$	$y_i^2$	$x_i y_i$
1	1	2	1	4	2
2	2	3	4	9	6
3	10	8	100	64	80
4	8	6	64	36	48
5	5	7	25	49	35
6	4	8	16	64	32
Sum	30	34	210	226	203

$$\bar{x} = \frac{30}{6} = 5$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{34}{6} = 5,6667$$

$$b_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - n \bar{x} \bar{y}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - n \bar{x}^2} = \frac{203 - 6 \cdot 5 \cdot 5,6667}{210 - 6 \cdot 5^2} = 0,55$$

$$b_0 = \bar{y} - b_1 \bar{x} = 5,6667 - 0,55 \cdot 5 = 2,91667$$

Estimated model:  
 $\hat{y} = 2,92 + 0,55x$



# Predictions and Residuals

- Once the parameters have been estimated, we calculate the ***predictions***  $\hat{y}_i$  for each pair  $(x_i, y_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$

$$\hat{y}_i = b_0 + b_1 x_i = \hat{\mu}_{Y|X=x_i}$$

The predictions  $y\text{-hat}$  are equal to the estimates of the conditional expected values.

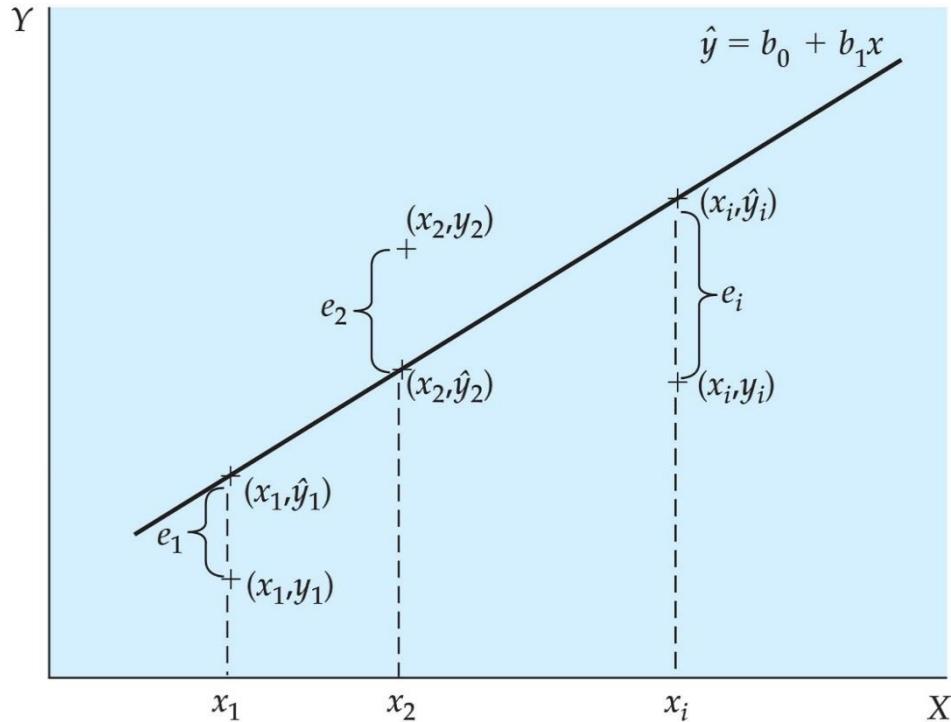
- The **residuals**  $e_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$  are calculated as

$$e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$$

The true parameters  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  are unknown and hence we cannot observe the true errors  $\varepsilon_i$ , but we can use  $e_i$  as proxies.

# Illustration

- Observations  $(x_i, y_i)$ , predictions  $\hat{y}_i$  and residuals  $e_i$ :



Copyright ©2013 Pearson Education, publishing as Prentice Hall

Observe that the predictions  $\hat{y}_i$  all lie on the regression line.

They must lie on the line since

$$\hat{y}_i = b_0 + b_1 x_i$$

# Residual variance

**NOTE!** The sum of the residuals are always zero! Use this to check your work:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n e_i = 0 \Rightarrow \bar{e} = 0$$

- Then calculate the square of each residual,  $e_i^2$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$

$$s_e^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (e_i - \bar{e})^2}{n - 2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{n - 2}$$

- Two parameters ( $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ ) have to be estimated. This causes the loss of two degrees of freedom; we divide by  $n - 2$
- The residual variance  $s_e^2$  is an estimate of the error variance  $\sigma_\varepsilon^2$

# Exercise, predictions and residuals

$i$	$x_i$	$y_i$	$\hat{y}_i$	$e_i$	$e_i^2$
1	1	2	3.4667	-1.4667	2.1511
2	2	3	4.0167	-1.0167	1.0336
3	10	8	8.4167	-0.4167	0.1736
4	8	6	7.3167	-1.3167	1.7336
5	5	7	5.6667	1.3333	1.7778
6	4	8	5.1167	2.8833	8.3136
Sum	30	34	34.0000	0.0000	<b>15.1833</b>

$$s_e^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{n - 2} = \frac{15.1833}{6 - 2} = 3.7958 \quad s_e = \sqrt{s_e^2} = 1,9483$$

Compare:  $s_e^2 < s_y^2 = 6.6667$        $s_e < s_y = 2.5820$



# Exercise using Excel – interpret output

SUMMARY OUTPUT					
Regression Statistics					
Multiple R	0,737902433				
R Square	0,5445				
Adjusted R Square	0,430625				
Standard Error	1,948289848				
Observations	6				
ANOVA					
	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	18,15	18,15	4,781558727	0,094040288
Residual	4	15,183333333	3,795833		
Total	5	33,333333333			
Coefficients					
Intercept	2,916666667	Standard			Upper 95%
X	0,55	1,488			7,048102917
		0,251			1,248340185

$$\sqrt{s_e^2} = s_e$$

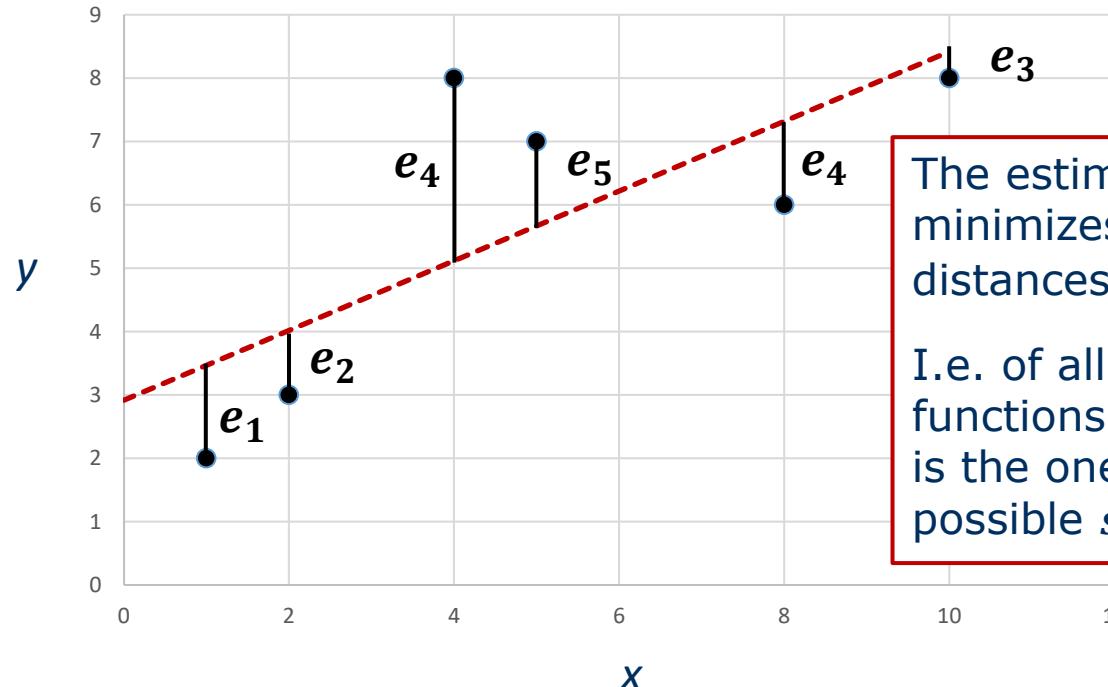
Note! "Standard error" is a bit misleading; rather, it should be called "Residual standard deviation"

## Exercise, cont.

To draw the regression line:

- Select two suitable values  $x_a$  and  $x_b$
- Calculate  $\hat{y}_a$  and  $\hat{y}_b$
- Draw a line between the points  $(x_a, \hat{y}_a)$  and  $(x_b, \hat{y}_b)$

- Scatter plot with estimated regression line



The estimated line is the line that minimizes the sum of the squared distances  $e_i$ .

I.e. of all the possible linear functions, the line  $\hat{y} = 2,92 + 0,55x$  is the one that yields the smallest possible  $s_e^2$ .

## Exercise, cont.

Interpretation:

- $b_0$  = the intercept = the **estimated average** (expected value) of  $Y$  when  $x = 0$
- $b_1$  = regression coefficient or slope = the **estimated average** (expected) increase of  $Y$  as  $x$  increases by 1

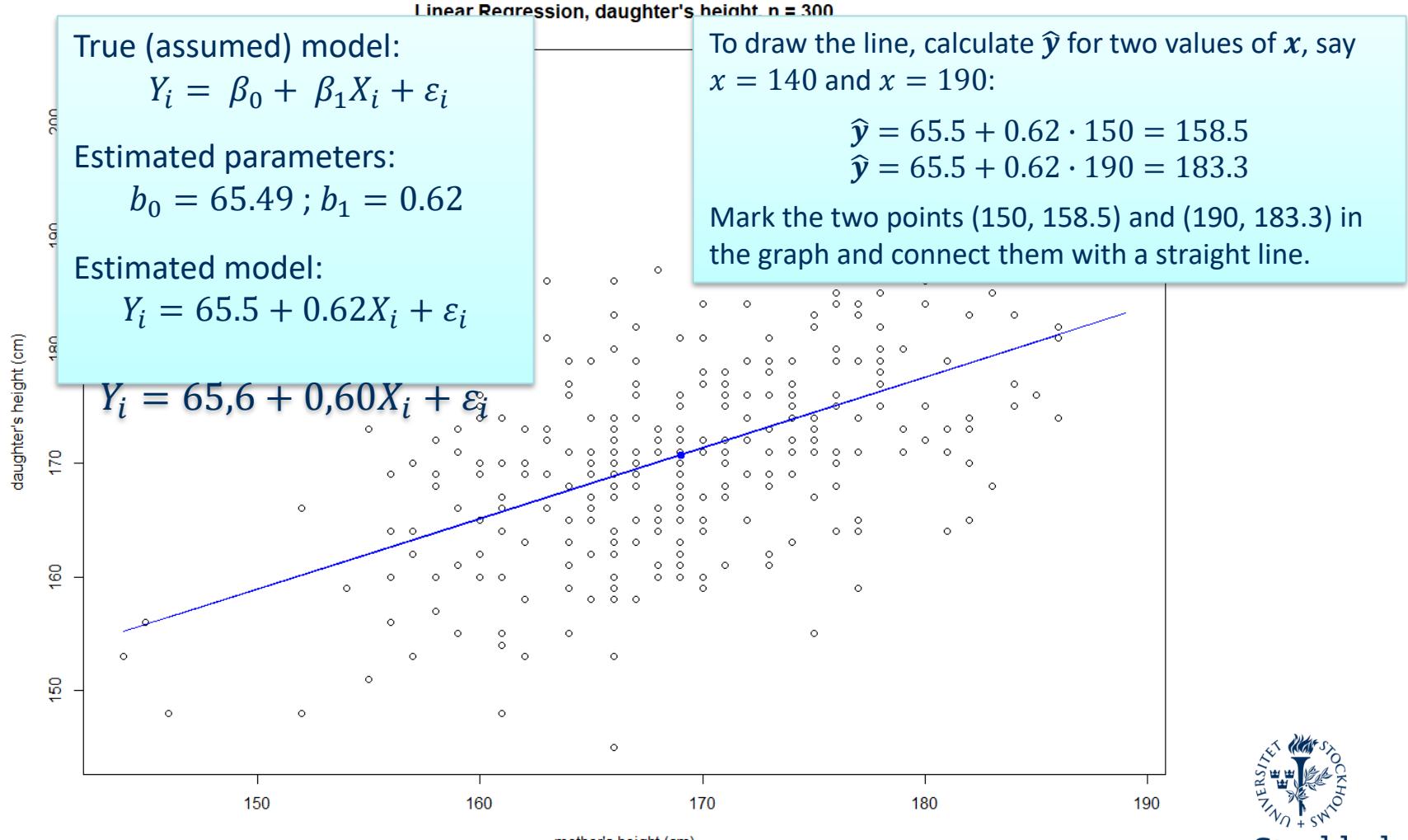
Prediction of  $Y$  when  $x_{n+1} = 2$ :

$$\hat{y}_{n+1} = 2,9167 + 0,55 \cdot 2 = 4,0167$$

Estimate of conditional mean of  $Y$  when  $x_{n+1} = 3$ :

$$\hat{\mu}_{Y|x_{n+1}} = 2,9167 + 0,55 \cdot 3 = 4,5667$$

# Ex. cont. Daughter's height with mother's height as independent variable



# Next time

Sections **11.4 – 11.6 NCT**

- ANOVA and coefficient of determination  $R^2$  and adjusted  $R^2$
- Inference for  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$
- Inference for  $\mu_{Y|x}$  conditional on a value  $x$
- Prediction of  $y_{n+1}$  given some (new) value  $x$
- Brief discussion of regression and correlation
- A little more on graphic representation, what to look for
  - model assumptions