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Hypothesis testing and OLS Regression

NIPFP

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Overview

Introduction

Assumptions of OLS regression

Gauss-Markov Theorem

Interpreting the coefficients

Some useful numbers

A Monte-Carlo simulation

Model Specification

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The OLS estimator continued

- As we discussed yesterday, the OLS estimator is a means of obtaining good estimates of β_1 and β_2 , for the relationship $Y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_1 + \epsilon$
- Let us now move towards drawing inferences about the true β₁ and β₂, given our estimates β₁ and β₂. This requires making some valid assumptions about X_i and ε. These assumptions also evoke certain useful statistical properties of OLS, as constrasted with the purely numerical properties which we saw yesterday.

Assumption 1: The regression model is linear in the parameters. Y = β₁ + β₂X_i + u_i. This does not mean that Y and X are linear, but rather that β₁ and β₂ are linear.

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- Assumption 2: X values are fixed in repeated sampling.
- Assumption 3: The expectation of the disturbance u_i is zero. Thus, the distribution of u_i given a value of X_i (in the population) is symmetric around its mean. (Show figure).

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 Assumption 4: The variance of u_i is the same for all observations, i.e. in the above distribution, the distribution of u_i given each value of X_i has the same variance. This is an important property called homoskedasticity.

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- Assumption 5: There is no correlation between the u_i (disturbances) of different observations. This is called auto-correlation or serial-correlation. It is seen more in time series analysis than cross-sectional analysis.
- Assumption 6: The covariance between u_i and X_i is zero. Intuitively, since we express Y as a sum of X_i and U_i, if these two are correlated, then we must include a covariance term in the summation. So, by assumption, the covariance = 0.

• Assumption 7: The number of sample observations is greater than the number of parameters to be estimated.

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- Assumption 9: The regression model is correctly specified. There is no **specification error**, there is no **bias**

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- Assumption 9: The regression model is correctly specified. There is no **specification error**, there is no **bias**
- Assumption 10: There is no perfect **multicollinearity**, no two X_i values can be expressed as a perfect linear combination of each other.

Statistical properties that emerge from the assumptions

Theorem (Gauss Markov Theorem)

In a linear model in which the errors have expectation zero and are uncorrelated and have equal variances, a best linear unbiased estimator (BLUE) of the coefficients is given by the least-squares estimator

BLUE estimator

- Linear: It is a linear function of a random variable
- Unbiased: The average or expected value of $\hat{eta}_2=eta_2$
- Efficient: It has minimium variance among all other estimators
- However, not all ten classical assumptions have to hold for the OLS estimator to be B, L or U.

Interpreting an OLS coefficient/hypothesis testing

```
Call:
lm(formula = y ~ x)
Residuals:
    Min
             10 Median 30
                                      Max
-2.77652 -0.77009 0.06778 0.60591 3.44186
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 1.7816 0.2132 8.355 4.41e-13
            3.0457 0.0398 76.531 < 2e-16
x
Residual standard error: 1.087 on 98 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.9835, Adjusted R-squared: 0.98
F-statistic: 5857 on 1 and 98 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

Interpreting an OLS coefficient/hypothesis testing



Algebraic notation of the coefficient/estimator

- The least squares result is obtained by minimising $(y \beta_1 X)'(y \beta_1 X)$
- Expanding, $y'y \beta_1'X'y y'X\beta_1 + \beta_1'X'X\beta_1$
- Differentiating with respect to β_1 , we get $-2X'y + 2X'X\beta_1 = 0$
- Or $X'X\beta_1 = X'y$
- Or $\beta_1 = (XX')^{-1}X'y$

Properties of the estimators

Testing a hypothesis about the estimator

We know that:

$$\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y$$
$$= (X'X)^{-1}X'(X\beta + \epsilon)$$
$$= \beta + (X'X)^{-1}X'\epsilon$$

And now take the expectation:

$$E[\hat{\beta}] = \beta + (X'X)^{-1}X'E[\epsilon]$$
$$= \beta + 0$$
$$= \beta$$

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- So far, we have not used the normality of residual assumption to derive any of our results.
- This assumption, however, is useful to test a hypothesis about an estimator.

• This allows us to test a hypothesis about $\hat{\beta}$.

Theorem
$$\hat{\beta} \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta, \frac{\sigma^2(X'X)^{-1}}{n})$$

Proof.

- Either with the assumption that $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$
- Or asymptotically by TCL

Some useful numbers: R^2

- R², or the coefficient of goodness-of-fit of a regression, measures the extent of overlap between the variables Y and X. (Show Venn diagram). Since it is a ratio variable, it lies between 0 and 1.
- Technically, it can be expressed as:
 - $\sum Y_i \overline{Y}^2 = \beta_2^2 \sum X_i \overline{X}^2 + \sum u_i^2$, or
 - TSS = ESS + RSS
 - $R^2 = ESS/TSS$
- This is a useful number, but it must be kept in mind that it is not the best/only indicator of how "good" the regression is.
- Spurious regression: Two numbers that are statistically, but not causally related.

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• As you add more variables to the regression, the R^2 only increases!

An example with R: Dangers of R^2

```
Call:
lm(formula = x ~ y)
Residuals:
         1Q Median 3Q
   Min
                                 Max
-4.8300 -2.6357 -0.1053 2.7757 5.3684
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 4.6446 0.3189 14.567 <2e-16
       -0.1890 0.3432 -0.551 0.583
y
Residual standard error: 3.024 on 98 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.003084, Adjusted R-squared: -(
F-statistic: 0.3032 on 1 and 98 DF, p-value: 0.5832
```

An example with R: Dangers of R^2

```
Call:
lm(formula = x ~ y + m)
Residuals:
         10 Median 30
   Min
                                Max
-4.8994 -2.7182 -0.2155 2.8353 5.5601
Coefficients:
          Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 4.5328 0.3218 14.084 <2e-16
        -0.1355 0.3409 -0.397 0.6919
y
           -0.5234 0.2976 -1.759 0.0817
m
```

Residual standard error: 2.992 on 97 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.0339, Adjusted R-squared: 0.01 F-statistic: 1.702 on 2 and 97 DF, p-value: 0.1878

An example with R: Dangers of R^2

```
Call:

lm(formula = x ~ y + m + z)

Residuals:

Min 1Q Median 3Q Max

-4.9964 -2.4296 -0.3385 2.6638 5.7291

Coefficients:
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	4.5316	0.3225	14.052	<2e-16
у	-0.1402	0.3417	-0.410	0.683
m	-0.4979	0.2999	-1.660	0.100
Z	-0.2285	0.2904	-0.787	0.433

Residual standard error: 2.998 on 96 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.04009, Adjusted R-squared: 0.0 F-statistic: 1.336 on 3 and 96 DF

Some useful numbers: Adjusted R^2

• This helps reduce the danger of R^2 , as it adjusts the value of R^2 to the number of independent variables in the model.

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$$\overline{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{n-1}{n-k}(1-R^2)$$

But it is still related to R²

Some useful numbers: Akaike Information Criterion

- Another way of measuring goodness of fit, adjusted for the number of variables
- AIC = $e^{2k/n}RSS/n$
- Lower AIC is better, and 2k/n can be interpreted as the "penalty factor".

A Monte-Carlo simulation



Some issues in model specification

• Scaling and units of measurement: Interpreting $\hat{\beta}_1$ and $\hat{\beta}_2$ when X is expressed in different ways

- Standardised coefficients
- Various functional forms: Linear, log-linear, lin-log etc

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Thank you.

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