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Linear Regression

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Returning to the Road Map

Most policy research involves deceptively simple steps:

- Obefine the question you would like answered.
- State hypotheses about the answer to the question.
- Collect data that can answer the question (convenience samples, random samples, stratified or multistage samples).
- Calculate measures to test hypotheses put forward about the relationship of interest (measures of central tendency, measures of spread, test statistics).
- Organize and report results (graphs, tables, interpretations of measures).

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Focusing on Steps 2 and 4: Hypothesis Testing

- $\textbf{ 0 State the null and alternative hypotheses and } \alpha \text{ level of significance}$
 - Null is a *status quo* assumption about the world you are testing with your sample of data. Stated as $H_o: \mu = X$ where X is an assumption about the true value of μ
 - Alternative is *your* assumption about the world you are testing with your sample of data. Generally, the alternative hypothesis takes the form of $H_1: \mu \neq X$, $H_1: \mu > X$, or $H_1: \mu < X$.
 - α is a probability, from 0 to 1, that represents the maximum threshold of a p-value you will accept for rejecting the null. Conventionally, social scientists use $\alpha = 0.05$.
- ② Calculate t-statistic to test the null hypothesis

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$$t = \frac{(X - \mu)}{\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}}$$
 using the mean, standard deviation, and n from your sample and plugging in your null hypothesis for μ

- Use the absolute value of t to find the p-value.
- **③** Compare the p-value to α ; if $p < \alpha$, reject the null hypothesis.

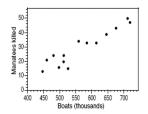
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Reminders		

- Hypothesis testing is always about whether a *statistic* (e.g, $\overline{X}, \overline{X}_1 \overline{X}_2$) accurately reflects a *parameter of interest* (e.g., $\mu, \mu_1 \mu_2$).
- A *parameter* can be the value of a single variable in a typical observation in a population OR the typical relationship between two variables in a typical observation in a population.
- The logic of hypothesis testing for a relationship between two variables is very similar to the logic of testing a statistic from a sample how confident are we that our estimate of the relationship is not due to random chance?

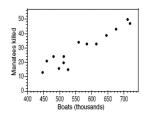


• Linear regression continues our effort at the same goal we've had in previous weeks: using a sample to estimate a population parameter (thus far, μ) and test hypotheses about the population parameter.





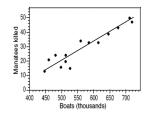
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• Now we move to a parameter that captures a relationship between two variables in a population, similar to two-sample hypothesis testing. We've seen scatterplots of x and y before. They also come from random samples and change across samples.

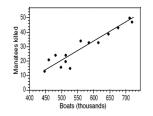


 In our brave new world, we are still interested in an underlying population parameter, in this case the average outcome Y or μ_v.





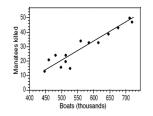
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• Linear regressions, as the name implies, expresses the relationship of x and y as a linear relationship. The goal is to use the line that fits the relationship observed in the data to learn about the population mean response μ_{y} as a function of our explanatory variable X.



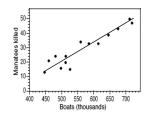
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- Mathematically expressed: $\mu_y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$
- We also want to know if β_x , the relationship observed, is statistically significant (i.e., not attributable to chance or sampling error).

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- The sample can then be used to fit the simple model: Data = fit + residual $y_i = (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x) + \varepsilon_i$,

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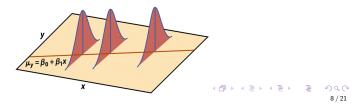
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 - b₁ unbiased estimate for slope β₁

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Calculating the best fit line ourselves would involve first calculating the slope:

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \overline{X})(y_i - \overline{Y})}{\sum (x_i - \overline{X})^2}$$
(1)

...and then using the basic form of a line to calculate the intercept:

$$\beta_0 = \overline{Y} - \beta_1 \overline{X} \tag{2}$$

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	Statistical Inference
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• *s* provides an unbiased estimate of the regression standard deviation σ , which we can use for inference about the mean population response μ_y .

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Regression Standard Errors, continued

The formula is similar for the standard error of the slope (β_1) , only the regression standard error (s_{reg}) is divided by the square root of the squared residuals of X:

$$SE_{b1} = \frac{s_{reg}}{\sqrt{\sum (x_i - \overline{x})^2}} \tag{4}$$

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• Note that t^* is the t-critical value for the t(n-2) distribution with area C between $-t^*$ and $+t^*$.

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- Finally, as before, we compare the p-value to our α threshold and infer whether β_1 is significantly different from θ given our sample.

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Significance test for the slope

Visually:

$$H_{a}: \beta_{1} > 0 \text{ is } P(T \ge t)$$

$$H_{a}: \beta_{1} < 0 \text{ is } P(T \le t)$$

$$H_{a}: \beta_{1} \neq 0 \text{ is } 2P(T \ge |t|)$$

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Inference	e for Prediction		

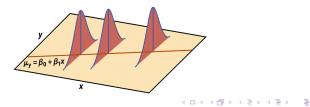
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	Statistical Inference

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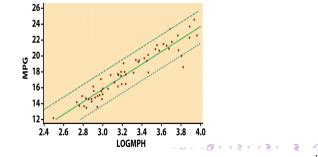
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Graphically:

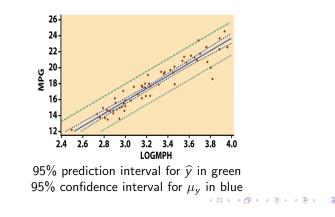


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Confidence Intervals for Mean Response (μ_{ν})

- The confidence interval for μ_y contains, with level C% confidence, the population mean μ_y at a particular level of x.
- The prediction interval contained C% of all the individual values taken by y at a particular value of x.

Graphically:





• The coefficient of determination, generally referred to as R^2 or the square of the correlation coefficient, measures the percentage of the variance in y (vertical scatter from the regression line) that can be explained by changes in x.

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- R² = variation in y caused by x (the regression line) total variation in observed y values around the mean
 More formally:

$$R^{2} = \frac{\sum (\widehat{y}_{i} - \overline{y})^{2}}{\sum (y_{i} - \overline{y}_{i})^{2}} = \frac{SSM}{SST}$$
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