## Linear Regression

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## Returning to the Road Map

Most policy research involves deceptively simple steps:
(1) Define the question you would like answered.
(2) State hypotheses about the answer to the question.
(3) Collect data that can answer the question (convenience samples, random samples, stratified or multistage samples).
(9) Calculate measures to test hypotheses put forward about the relationship of interest (measures of central tendency, measures of spread, test statistics).
(5) Organize and report results (graphs, tables, interpretations of measures).

## Focusing on Steps 2 and 4: Hypothesis Testing

(1) State the null and alternative hypotheses and $\alpha$ level of significance

- Null is a status quo assumption about the world you are testing with your sample of data. Stated as $H_{0}: \mu=X$ where $X$ is an assumption about the true value of $\mu$
- 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 $H_{1}: \mu<X$.
- $\alpha$ 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
- $t=\frac{(\bar{X}-\mu)}{\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}}$ using the mean, standard deviation, and n from your sample and plugging in your null hypothesis for $\mu$
(3) Use the absolute value of t to find the p -value.
(9) Compare the p -value to $\alpha$; if $p<\alpha$, reject the null hypothesis.


## Reminders

- Hypothesis testing is always about whether a statistic (e.g, $\bar{X}, \bar{X}_{1}-\bar{X}_{2}$ ) accurately reflects a parameter of interest (e.g., $\left.\mu, \mu_{1}-\mu_{2}\right)$.
- 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?


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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.


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- Mathematically expressed: $\mu_{y}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} x$
- We also want to know if $\beta_{x}$, the relationship observed, is statistically significant (i.e., not attributable to chance or sampling error).


## Statistical Model for Linear Regression

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- The sample can then be used to fit the simple model:

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$y_{i}=\left(\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} x\right)+\varepsilon_{i}$,
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## Estimating parameters

In the underlying regression model in the population, $\mu_{y}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} x$, the intercept $\left(\beta_{0}\right)$, the slope $\left(\beta_{1}\right)$, and the standard deviation of $\mathrm{y}\left(\sigma_{y}\right)$ are all the unknown parameters that we would like to estimate. We rely on the random sample data and least-squares regression to provide unbiased estimates of these parameters (just like with means and two sample tests!).

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- $\hat{y}$ unbiased estimate for mean population response $\mu_{y}$
- $b_{0}$ unbiased estimate for intercept $\beta_{0}$
- $b_{1}$ unbiased estimate for slope $\beta_{1}$


## Estimating parameters

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta_{1}=\frac{\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{X}\right)\left(y_{i}-\bar{Y}\right)}{\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{X}\right)^{2}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta_{0}=\bar{Y}-\beta_{1} \bar{X} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Regression Standard Errors

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- Of course, we don't observe this, but we can use our sample data to compute an estimate of the regression standard error, $s$, for a sample sized $n$ using the residuals $\left(y_{i}-\widehat{y}_{i}\right)$ :

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\begin{equation*}
s_{r e g}=\sqrt{\frac{\sum r^{2}-i^{2} u a l^{2}}{n-2}}=\sqrt{\frac{\sum\left(y_{i}-\widehat{y}_{i}\right)^{2}}{n-2}} \tag{3}
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s_{r e g}=\sqrt{\frac{\sum \text { residual }}{}{ }^{2}} \frac{n-2}{\frac{\sum\left(y_{i}-\widehat{y}_{i}\right)^{2}}{n-2}} \tag{3}
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- $s$ provides an unbiased estimate of the regression standard deviation $\sigma$, which we can use for inference about the mean population response $\mu_{y}$.


## Regression Standard Errors, continued

The formula is similar for the standard error of the slope $\left(\beta_{1}\right)$, only the regression standard error ( $s_{\text {reg }}$ ) is divided by the square root of the squared residuals of X :

$$
\begin{equation*}
S E_{b 1}=\frac{s_{r e g}}{\sqrt{\sum\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{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 $+t^{*}$.


## Significance test for the slope

- Once we have calculated the standard error of the least-squares regression line, the process for testing whether the relationship between $x$ and $y$ is statistically significant is analogous to the process for hypothesis testing for a single sample estimate. Here, $b_{1}$, or the slope of the least-squares line, is the estimate we use to test a hypothesis about $\beta_{1}$.


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- As usual, we start with the null hypothesis. Here, since we want to know if our observed relationship between x and y in our sample is significant, we use the null hypothesis that there is no relationship. Formally, $H_{0}: \beta_{1}=0$. We can test using a 1 - or 2 -sided alternative hypothesis.


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- We then use the $t$ distribution of $t(n-2)$ degrees of freedom to find the p -value.
- Finally, as before, we compare the p-value to our $\alpha$ threshold and infer whether $\beta_{1}$ is significantly different from 0 given our sample. $\bar{\equiv}$


## Significance test for the slope

Visually:

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


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

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


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$\widehat{y} \pm t *_{n-2} S E_{\widehat{y}}$
- The prediction interval represents mainly the error from the normal distribution of the residuals $\left(\varepsilon_{i}\right)$. Graphically:



## Confidence Intervals for Mean Response ( $\mu_{y}$ )

- The confidence interval for $\mu_{y}$ contains, with level C\% confidence, the population mean $\mu_{y}$ at a particular level of $x$.
- The prediction interval contained $\mathrm{C} \%$ of all the individual values taken by $y$ at a particular value of $x$.
Graphically:


95\% prediction interval for $\widehat{y}$ in green $95 \%$ confidence interval for $\mu_{y}$ in blue

## Coefficient of Determination $\left(R^{2}\right)$

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- More formally:

$$
\begin{equation*}
R^{2}=\frac{\sum\left(\widehat{y}_{i}-\bar{y}\right)^{2}}{\sum\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}_{i}\right)^{2}}=\frac{S S M}{S S T} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

