Lecture 8 - Beyond basics of OLS.pdf

Thursday, October 8, 2020 3:59 PM



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Error structure

Statistical power

Beyond the basic of OLS

A few things that don't get enough attention

Error structure

Statistical power

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A few things that don't get enough attention	
How to interpret coefficients/regression table	
Leverage	
The perils of p-hacking	
What if your outcome is a dummy?	
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Interpreting a regression output

- Great, you ran a regression
- Let's assume it has a causal interpretation (big if)
- How do you interpret the results?

Warning!

- Be careful not to confuse percent with percentage point
- A change from 10% to 13% is a rise of 3 (13-10) percentage points
- This is not equal to a 3% change; rather, it's a $30\% = 100\frac{13-10}{10}$ increase

Level-level Regression	
• If you have a level-level regression $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + u_i$ • If you increase x by one, we expect y to change b β_1	UNIDADES = UNIDADES Y UNIDADES X

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An example

- A regression of wages on: Age (in years), race (black=1) and IQ percentile (0-100)
- For every year, we expect wages to change by $\widehat{\beta_{\rm age}}~{\rm USD}$
- On average, we expect wages to higher/lower for blacks by $\widehat{\beta_{max}}$ USD than for non-blacks
- For every percentage point increase in IQ, we expect wages to change by $\widehat{\beta_{IQ}}$ USD

Simulations!		
ieviev=im (vag summary(levie stargazer(lev out cov dig dep coli	zzer) entile=quantile(wage251Q, seq(0, 1, 0, 1)) * IQ_Percentile + age+ black, data = wage2)	
		g
	<pre>call: lm(formula = wage ~ IQ_Percentile + age + black, data = wage2) Residuals: Min IQ Median 3Q Max -803.60 -271.87 -62.62 212.27 2174.38 Coefficients: Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>[t]) (Intercept) 332.4888 150.2711 2.213 0.0272 * IQ_Percentile 0.1320 0.5615 0.253 0.614*** age 119.4666 4.1241 4.720 2.72e-06 *** black -248.0806 38.2995 -6.477 1.514=10 ****</pre>	
	 Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1 Residual standard error: 391.2 on 931 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.06681, Adjusted R-squared: 0.0658 F-statistic: 22.22 on 3 and 931 DF, p-value: 6.712-14	

Y= BO IQ+ EDAD BEI + NEGO BU+ & + E Level-Level Wage IQ (percentile) 0.13 (0.56) 19.47*** Age (4.12) Black(=1)-248.08*** 10=0, Yere= 5, (38.30) SALANO 332.49* Constant (150.27)Observations 935 Note: *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01 11

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Log-level Regression

- If you have a log-level regression
- $\begin{array}{c} \mathcal{B}_{1} \\ -0.1 & \mathcal{B}_{1} \\ -0.1 & \mathcal{B}_{1} \\ \mathcal{C}_{2} \\ \mathcal{C}_{3} \\ \mathcal$ $\ln(y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1$ • If you increase x by one, we expect lange by $100\beta_1$ percent • Technically, $\% \Delta y = 100(e^{eta_1}-1)$
- But $\%\Delta y = 100(e^{eta_1}-1)pprox 100eta_1$ for values $-0.1 < eta_1 < 0.1$
- You can only include observations for which $y_i > 0$
- Only do it if this doesn't introduce bias into your sample
 - In general, only do it if $y_i > 0$ for almost all i• Adding 1 or 0.1, or 100 is not a valid fix

An example

Simulations!

- A regression of ln(wages) on: Age (in years), race (black=1) and IQ percentile (0-100)
- For every year, we expect wages to change by $100\widehat{eta_{age}}$ percent
- On average, we expect *wages* to be higher/lower for blacks by 100 from percent blacks by 100 from percent
- For every percentage point increase in IQ, we expect wages to change by $100\widehat{\beta_{IQ}}$ percent

 $\label{eq:loglev} \mbox{loglev} = \mbox{lm(log(wage) ~ IQ_Percentile + age + black, data = wage2)}$

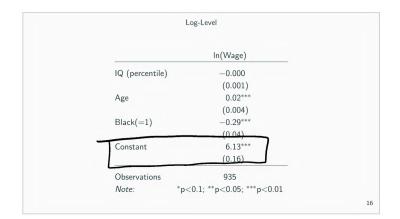
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dep.var.capion.m."dep.var.labelscurve(Wage)",
column.sep.width="0pt",headereF,
omit.stat=c("adj.rsq","rsq","f","ser"))

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mula = lwage ~ IQ_Percentile + age + black, data = wage2) tesiduals: Min 1Q Median 3Q Max 1.98581 -0.25765 0.01094 0.27996 1.30084 pefficients: Estimate 6.128e+00 -1.153e-05 2.083e-02 -2.852e-01 1.556e 5.814e 4.271e 3.966e ot) ntile al standard error: 0.4052 on 931 degrees of freedom de R-squared: 0.07746, Adjusted R-squared: 0.07449 distic: 26.06 on 3 and 931 DF, p-value: 3.438e-16



Level-log Regression

- If you have a tregression

$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(x_i) + u_i$

• If you increase x by one percent (NOT BY ONE PERCENTAGE POINT!), we expect y to change by $\frac{\beta_1}{100}$ units of y

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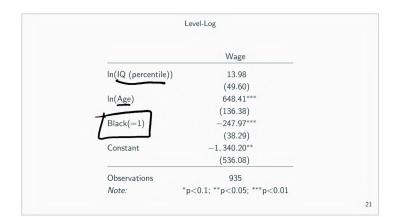
- You can only include observations for which $x_i > 0$
- Only do it if this doesn't introduce bias into your sample
 - In general, only do it if $x_i > 0$ for almost all i
 - Adding 1 or 0.1, or 100 is not a valid fix

An example

- A regression of wages on: ln(Age), race (black=1) and ln(IQ) (IQ is the percentile)
- For an increase in 1 percent in age, we expect wages to change by $\frac{\widehat{\beta_{age}}}{100}$ USD
- On average, we expect *wages* to be higher/lower for blacks by USD than for non-blacks
- $\bullet\,$ For an increase in 1 percent in the IQ percentile (that is, a percent change in percentage points), we expect wages to change by $\frac{\widehat{\beta_{IQ}}}{100}$ USD



Residuals: Min 10 M	edian	3Q Max			
-803.07 -271.50 -	60.65 210.	88 2180.13			
Coefficients:					
	Estimate S				
	-1340.20			0.0126 *	
log(IQ_Percentile)	13.98	49.60	0.282	0.7782	
log(age) black	048.41	136.38	4.754	2.30e-06 *** L.51e-10 ***	
JIACK	-247.97	38.29	-0.4// .	L.510-10 ***	
Signif. codes: 0	·***' 0.001	'**' 0.0	·*' 0.0	5 '.' 0.1 ' '	1
Residual standard					
Multiple R-squared					
-statistic: 22.33	on 3 and 9	31 DF, p	value: 5	.731e-14	



log-log Regression

• If you have a log-level regression

 $\ln(y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(x_i) + u_i$

- If you increase x by one percent (NOT BY ONE PERCENTAGE POINT!), we expect y to change by β_1 percent
- You can only include observations for which $x_i > 0$ and $y_i > 0$
- $\bullet\,$ Only do it if this doesn't introduce bias into your sample
 - In general, only do it if $x_i > 0$ and $y_i > 0$ for almost all i
 - Adding 1 or 0.1, or 100 is not a valid fix

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An example

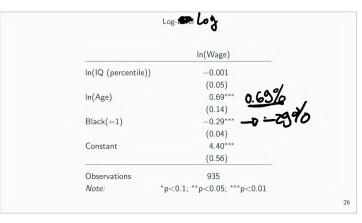
- A regression of *In(wages)* on: In(*Age*), race (black=1) and In(*IQ*) (IQ is the percentile)
- For an increase in one percent in age, we expect wages to change by $\widehat{\beta_{age}}$ percent
- On average, we expect wages to be higher/lower for blacks by β_{conce} percent than for non-blacks **BicK**,
- For an increase in one percent in the IQ percentile (that is, a percent change in percentage points), we expect wages to change by $\widehat{\beta_{IQ}}$ percent

Simulations!

iogiog=im(iog(wage) * log(iQ_Percentile) + log(age) + black. data = wage2)
sugmany(logiog)
trspace(logiog.itile="log-level", align=TRUE,
 type="latex", omit.table.layout="la",
 out="locutes(tables(logi,tex",
 covariate.labels=e("ln(iQ(percentile))","ln(Age)", "Black(=1)"),
 digits=d, digits.extral_no.papeceT.cohams=ft,
 dep.var.caption="", dep.var.labels=e("lowage",
 colam.sep.vat=0dt=0dt=0dt=0dt=0dt=0dt
 out.stat=("add.rsq","rsq","ft","ser"))

call: Im(formula = log(wage) ~ log(IQ_Percentile) + log(age) + black, data = wage2) Residuals: Min 1Q Median 3Q Max -1.98259 -0.25865 0.011.21 0.28098 1.30397 Coefficients: Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>lt|) (Intercept) 4.3985406 0.3551443 7.923 6.58e-15 *** log(GQP coefficient) -0.0009475 0.051359 -0.018 0.3855 log(age) 0.6829047 0.1412305 4.906 1.10e-06 *** black -0.285404 0.0396476 -7.189 1.33e-12 *** --signif. codes: 0 **** 0.001 *** 0.01 ** 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' 1 Residual standard error: 0.4051 on 931 degrees of freedom Wultiple R=squared: 0.0777 F-statistic: 26.16 on 3 and 931 DF, p-value: 2.994e-16

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Beyond the basic of OLS

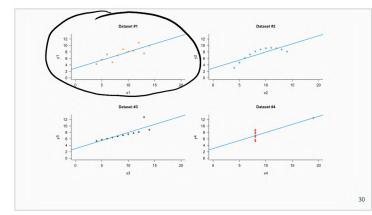
How to interpret coefficients/regression table	
Leverage	
The perils of p-hacking	
What if your outcome is a dummy?	
Ordinal/Categorical data	
Heteroskedasticity	
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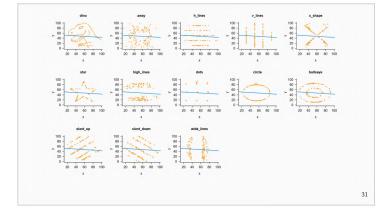
Leverage • Remember that Ĝ $\frac{cov(x,y)}{v(x)}$ $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i}-\overline{x})(y_{i}-\overline{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i}-\overline{x})^{2}}$ • We can rewrite as: $\sum_{i=2}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})$ $\sum_{i=2}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2$ $(y_1 - \overline{y})$ 50 $\widehat{\beta}$ (X1 $\frac{-\overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})}{(x_i - \overline{x})^2}$ • If $\underline{x} = \overline{x}$, the • The first observation affect the outcome 28

Leverage: Big Picture

- That was an extreme case $(x_i = \overline{x})$ but generally speaking:
- The farther an observation is from $\overline{x},$ the more it affects the OLS estimator
- This is called "leverage"

• See a recent discussion on Twitter of economist arguing about this https://twitter.com/arindube/status/1279919438419165184?s=20







The perils of p-hacking

https://xkcd.com/882/	t Op	A
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Beyond the basic of OLS		

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What if your outcome is a dummy?	
• All we have talked about still holds	
• Logit/Probit have very strong assumptions (the shape of the error term)	
Regression is more robust in general	
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An example

- A regression of *employment* (=1 for employed, =0 for unemployed)) on: *Age*, gender (female=1) and *IQ* (percentile)
- For an increase in 1 year of age, we expect the probability of employment to change by $100\beta_{age}$ percentage points
- On average, we expect the probability of employment to be higher for females by $100 \overline{\beta_{female}} ~ {\bf percentage ~ points}$ than for males

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- For an increase in 1 percentage point in IQ , we expect the probability of employment to change by $100\beta_{Q}$ percentage points

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What if your outcome is a dummy?	DORDINAL
Ordinal/Categorical data	
Error structure	([
Heteroskedasticity	-17 GENETZO -17 TLAZA
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• Distance between Y = 1 and Y = 2 is the same as Y = 2andY = 3

What if your outcome is Ordinal/Categorical?

• Then you cannot do OLS

• OLS assumes a metric

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Beyond the basic of OLS

Error structure

Variance of OLS estimators

The correct variance estimation procedure is given by the structure of the data

• It is very unlikely that all observations in a dataset are unrelated, but drawn from identical distributions (homoskedasticity)

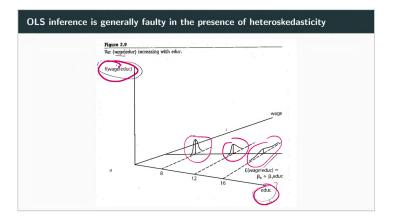


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- For instance, the variance of income is often greater in families belonging to top deciles than among poorer families (heteroskedasticity)
- Some phenomena do not affect observations individually, but they do affect groups of observations uniformly within each group (clustered data)

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Heteroskedasticity

• Assume

$$Var(u_i|x_i)=\sigma_i^2$$

- Fortunately, OLS is still useful ($\hat{\beta}$ still consistent/unbiased)
- Note that errors are still independent from each other
- The variance of our estimator, $\widehat{\beta_1}$ equals:

$$Var(\hat{\beta}_{1}) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2} \sigma_{i}^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}} = (X'X)^{-1}X'V(u_{i}|X)X(X'X)^{-1}$$

• When $\sigma_i^2=\sigma^2$ for all i, this formula reduces to the usual form, $\frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n(x_i-\overline{x})^2}=\sigma^2(X'X)^{-1}$

Robust standard errors

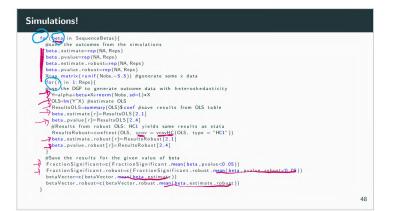
- A valid estimator of ${\rm Var}(\widehat{\beta_1})$ for heteroskedasticity of any form (including homoskedasticity) is

$$Var(\widehat{\beta_1}) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2 \widehat{u_i}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2} = (X'X)^{-1} X'(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i x_i' \widehat{u_i}^2) X(X'X)^{-1}$$

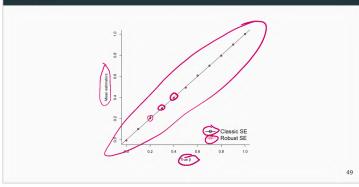
which is easily computed from the data after the OLS regression

• As a rule, you should always use "robust standard errors"





No bias)



Power Curve – Incorrect type-I error from classic OLS, correct from robust SE) Proportion of times we reject the null at $\alpha = 0.05$ (OR VA TE PODER = 0.2 13 N=10 -0lassic SE obust SE 15% 140 0.8 0.6 50 True B 30 2 10 20 Beyond the basic of OLS w things that don't get eno Error structure

Error structure Heteroskedasticity Cluster standard errors Statistical power Randomizing at the Unit of Analysis

Clustered data

- But what if errors are not independent?
- Maybe observations between units in a group are related to each other
 - Imagine you randomly assing a treatment at the school level (e.g., extra resources)

-Istados -(oloma

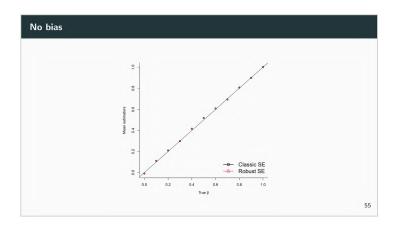
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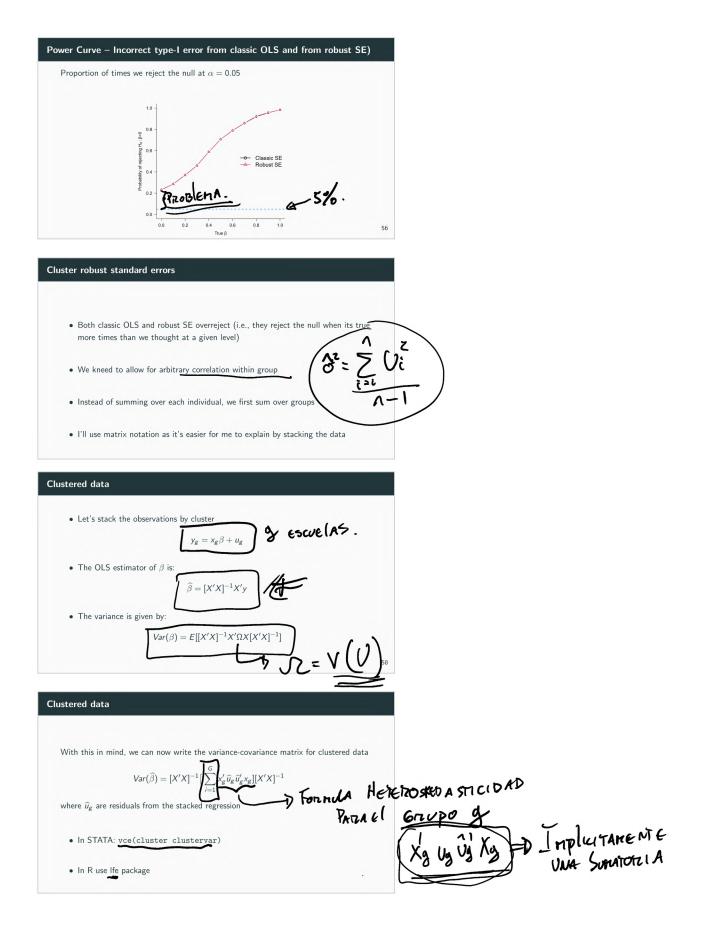
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- The unobservables of kids belonging to the same school are correlated (e.g., teacher quality, recess routines)
- The unobservables of kids in different school are unlikely to be correlated
- Then independence of errors across observations is violated
- But maybe independence holds across schools, just not within schools



) #Save the results for the given value of beta FractionSignificant-coUstac(FractionSignificant.mean(Usta_pvalue<0.05)) FractionSignificant-coUstac(FractionSignificant.robust.mean(Usta_pvalue.robust<0.05)) betaVector-cUstac(DetaVector.robust.mean(beta_estimate.robust))



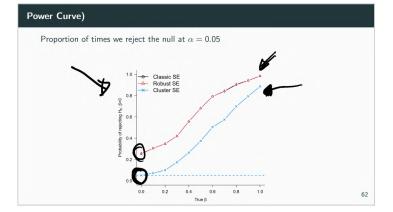


Simulations!

ibrary(ife) Classes=09 mumber of classes or schools StudentaPerclass.Finumber of obs per schools Repeating GaugenceBetasseage(10.0.1) #irry different betas (treatment effects) appage GaugenceBetasseage in the school of th

Simulations!





The importance of knowing your data

- In real world you should never go with the "independent and identically distributed" (i.e., homoskedasticity) case. Life is not that simple.
- You need to know your data in order to choose the correct error structure and then infer the required SE calculation
- At a minimum, use robust standard errors
- If you have aggregate variables, like class size, you need to consinder clustering at that level

- Case 1: If sampling follows a two stage process where in the first stage, a subset of clusters were sampled randomly from a population of clusters, and in the second stage, units were sampled randomly from the sampled clusters
- Case 2: When clusters of units, rather than units, are assigned to a treatment

When to cluster? • The results on cluster SF $\int var(\hat{\beta}) = [\chi'\chi]^{-1} [\int_{i=1}^{G} v'_g \hat{u}'_g \hat{u}'_g \chi_g] [\chi'\chi]^{-1}$ relies on "asymptotic results" based on the number of clusters (G) — not on the total sample size N • Can only use cluster SE if number of clusters is "large" (usually over ~ 40 – 50) • If number of clusters is small consider: • Collapsing the data at the "cluster" level • Wild bootstrap • Randomization inference (if you have an experiment) • When to cluster?

• Two good reads on clustering:

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• Cameron, A.C. and Miller, D.L., 2015. A practitioner's guide to cluster-robust inference. Journal of human resources. http://jhr.uwpress.org/content/50/2/317.refs

Abadie, A., Athey, S., Imbens, G.W. and Wooldridge, J., 2017. When should you adjust standard errors for clustering? (No. w24003). National Bureau of Economic Research. https://www.nber.org/papers/w24003

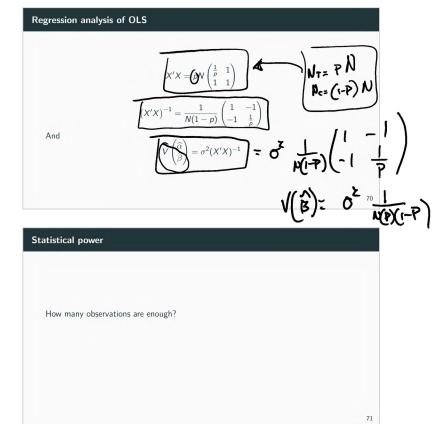


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Introduction

- In a simple experiment the average treatment effect is the difference in sample means between the treatment and the control group
- This is the OLS coefficient of β in the regression

$$Y_i = \alpha + \underline{\beta} T_i + \varepsilon_i$$



How many observations are enough?

Definition The power of the design is the probability that, for a given effect size and a given statistical significance level, we will be able to reject the hypothesis of zero effect

P(Rechlazar Ho | B=Bo)

Statistical power

• Is the unit of treatment the same as the unit of analysis? Or, is the treatment to be administered to a 'cluster' of units?

Statistical power

- Is the unit of treatment the same as the unit of analysis? Or, is the treatment to be administered to a 'cluster' of units?
- Examples of individual randomizations:
 - Individuals who are given mobile phones to induce them to use an m-banking platform
 - Farmers individually provided with improved agricultural inputs
 - Students admitted to an elite school by a lottery process

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Randomizing at the Unit of Analysis

- The estimate of treatment effect is $\widehat{\beta}$ in the regression

 $Y_i = \alpha + \beta T_i + \varepsilon_i$

- The mean of \widehat{eta} is eta (the true effect)
- The variance of $\widehat{\beta}$ is $V(\widehat{\beta}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{p(1-p)N}$
- σ^2 is the variance of the outcome (Y_i)
- p is the proportion of treated units
- \underline{N} is the number of observations

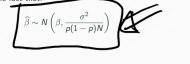
Randomizing at the Unit of Analysis

- We are generally interested in testing the null hypothesis (H₀) that the effect of the program is equal to zero against the alternative that it is not
- The significance level, or size, of a test represents the probability of a type I error, i.e., the probability we reject the hypothesis when it is in fact true
- The power of the test the probability that we reject \mathcal{H}_0 when it is in fact false

Randomizing at the Unit of Analysis

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We will constantly use the fact that:



Randomizing at the Unit of Analysis

- We are generally interested in testing the null hypothesis (H₀) that the effect of the program is equal to zero against the alternative that it is not
- The significance level, or size, of a test represents the probability of a type I error, i.e., the probability we reject the hypothesis when it is in fact true
- The **power of the test** the probability that we reject H_0 when it is in fact false

We will constantly use the fact that:

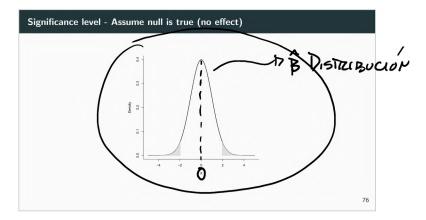
$$\widehat{\beta} \sim N\left(\beta, \frac{\sigma^2}{p(1-p)N}\right)$$

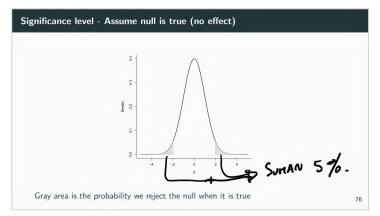
We often normalize the outcome and present results in terms of SD (so $\sigma^2=1$).

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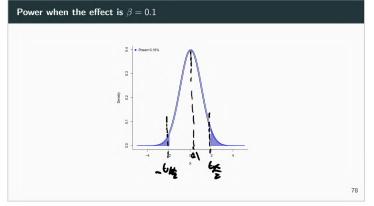
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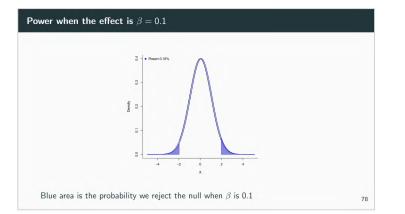


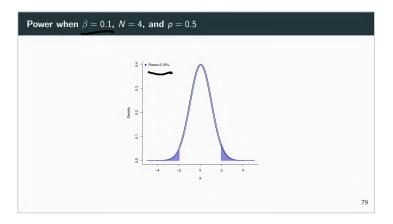


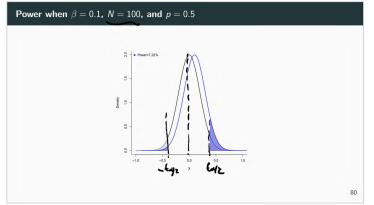
Power when the effect is β_1

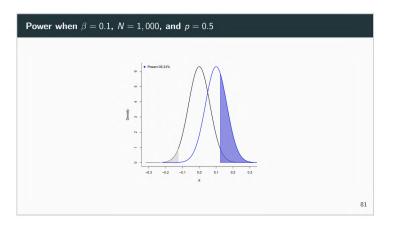
For a true effect size β this is the fraction of the area under this curve that falls to the right of the critical value $t_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}$

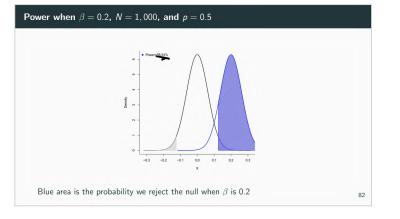


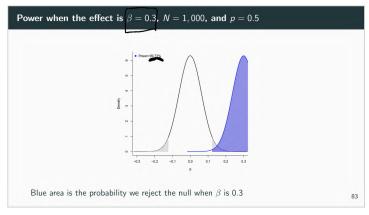


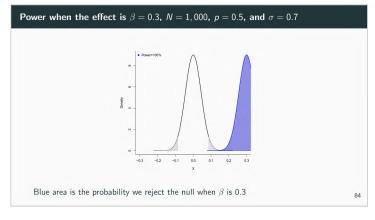


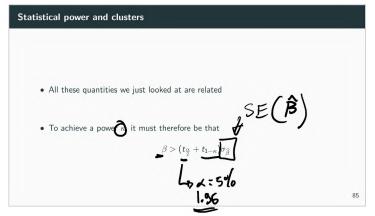












Minimum detectable effect

x= 0.1% -180% =K. • The minimum detectable effect size for a given power (κ), significance level (α), sample size (N), and portion of subjects allocated to treatment group (p) is given by $MDE = (t_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} + t_{1-\kappa}) \sqrt{\frac{1}{p(1-\kappa)}}$ 86

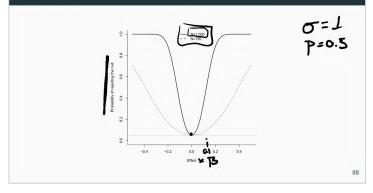
Randomizing at the Unit of Analysis

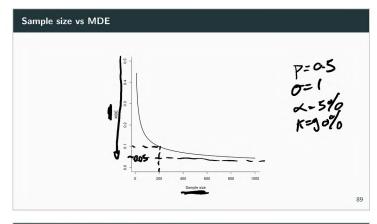
- The standard is to set $\kappa = 0.8$ or $\kappa = 0.9$
- The standard is to set $\alpha = 0.05$ or $\alpha = 0.1$
- The variance of outcomes σ^2 is typically the raw variance of the dependent variable you intend to use
- The sample size \underbrace{N}_{i} is the number of observations in the study (you can change this)

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• The fraction of the sample treated is p (you can change this)

Effect vs Power





How should you think about the MDE?

 $\sum F\left(\frac{p}{P}\right) = \frac{\sigma^{2}}{N^{T}N^{c}} \qquad N = NT + Nc$ $\sum \frac{N^{2}}{N^{T}N^{c}} \qquad N^{T}N^{c} \qquad N^{T} \qquad N^{$

• What is the treatment effect below which it is pointless to implement the program

- What is the treatment effect below which it is pointless to implement the program and/or study its effect?
- If sample size is too small, you're likely to end up with an insignificant result for something that actually matters

Beyond the basic of OLS

Randomizing at the Unit of Analysis	91
Statistical power	
Heteroskedasticity	
What if your outcome is a dummy?	
The perils of p-hacking	
How to interpret coefficients/regression table	
A few things that don't get enough attention	

Cluster Randomized Experiments

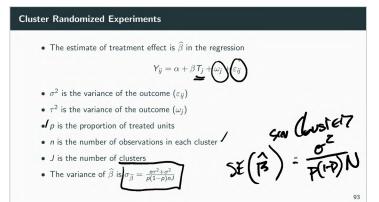
• Is the unit of treatment the same as the unit of analysis? Or, is the treatment to be administered to a 'cluster' of units?

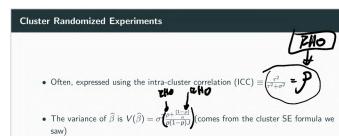
Cluster Randomized Experiments

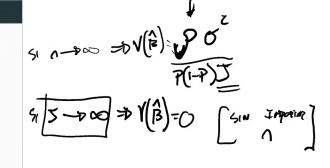
- Is the unit of treatment the same as the unit of analysis? Or, is the treatment to be administered to a 'cluster' of units?
- Examples of clustered randomizations:
 - Changing the business practices at a firm level and studying the impact on individual employees
 - Providing schools with new textbooks and studying the effect on individual student performance
 - Offering a new financial service to all residents in a village and studying the impact on micro enterprise outcomes
- In a clustered randomization the power of the study is coming partly from the number of individuals in the study, and partly from the number of clusters in the study

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92

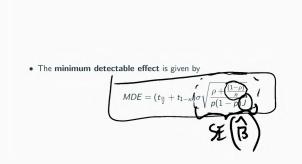


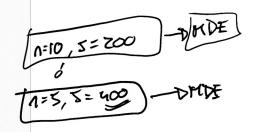




eho

• The ICC can be obtained using *loneway* in stata





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Power Calculations Rules of Thumb

Minimum detectable effect

- For an individual-level experiment, 200-300 observations will typically be sufficient to detect a reasonable effect size
- For a clustered experiment, a low ICC (0.1) would need 50-100 clusters and >5 observations per cluster to detect a moderate effect. As the ICC gets larger, the number of **clusters** has to go up
- For very complicated research designs, you can always use simulations to get the power of the design