

ScPoEconometrics

Regression Inference

Florian Oswald, Gustave Kenedi and Pierre Villedieu
SciencesPo Paris
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Recap from last week

- **Confidence interval**: a plausible range of values for the population parameter.
- **Hypothesis testing**: null hypothesis (H_0) vs alternative hypothesis (H_A), (observed) test statistic, null distribution.
- **p-value**: probability of observing a test statistic as or more extreme than the observed test statistic assuming the null hypothesis is true.



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Today: Statistical inference in the regression framework

- Fully understand a regression table
- Compare theory-based and simulation-based inference
- **Classical Regression Model** assumptions
- Empirical applications:
 - Class size and student performance
 - Returns to education by gender



Back to class size and student performance

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 - *small* and *regular* classes,
 - *Kindergarten* grade.



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star_df = star_df[complete.cases(star_df), ]
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lm(math ~ small, star_df)

##
## Call:
## lm(formula = math ~ small, data = star_df)
##
## Coefficients:
## (Intercept)    smallTRUE
##           484.446      8.895
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- What if we drew another random sample of schools from Tennessee and redid the experiment, would we find a different value for b_1 ?
- We know the answer is yes, but how different is this estimate likely to be?



Regression Inference: b_k vs β_k

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... is an **estimate** about an unknown, **true population line**
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- You will often find $\hat{\beta}_k$ rather than b_k , both refer to sample estimate of β_k .
- Let's bring what we know about **confidence intervals**, **hypothesis testing** and **standard errors** to bear on those $\hat{\beta}_k$!



Understanding Regression Tables

Here is our `tidy` regression:

```
library(broom)
tidy(lm(math ~ small, star_df))

## # A tibble: 2 x 5
##   term      estimate std.error statistic    p.value
##   <chr>     <dbl>     <dbl>     <dbl>      <dbl>
## 1 (Intercept) 484.      1.15     421.     0
## 2 smallTRUE    8.90     1.68      5.30 0.000000123
```

- There are 3 new columns here: `std.error`, `statistic`, `p.value`.



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<code>std. error</code>	Standard error of b_k
<code>statistic</code>	Observed test statistic associated to $H_0 : \beta_k = 0, H_A : \beta_k \neq 0$
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- Let's focus on the `small` coefficient and make sense of each entry.



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- We'd run 1000 regressions and would get 1000 estimates of β_k , b_k .
- The standard error of b_k quantifies how much variation in b_k one would expect across (*an infinity of*) samples.



Standard Error of b_{small}

- From the table, we get $\hat{SE}(b_{\text{small}}) = 1.68$
 - Notice that we write \hat{SE} and not SE because 1.68 is an estimate of the real standard error of b_{small} we get from our sample.



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 - Notice that we write $\hat{\text{SE}}$ and not SE because 1.68 is an estimate of the real standard error of b_{small} we get from our sample.
- R obtains this estimated standard error from *theory* which we will see in a few slides.
- Let's simulate the bootstrap distribution of b_{small} to see how close the simulated value is to the theoretical value.



Task 1 (10 min)

As we did for the bootstrap distribution of the proportion of *green pasta*, we want to generate the bootstrap distribution of b_{small} .

1. Copy the loading and cleaning code from slide 3 and run it.
2. Generate the bootstrap distribution of b_{small} based on 1000 samples drawn from `star_df`.

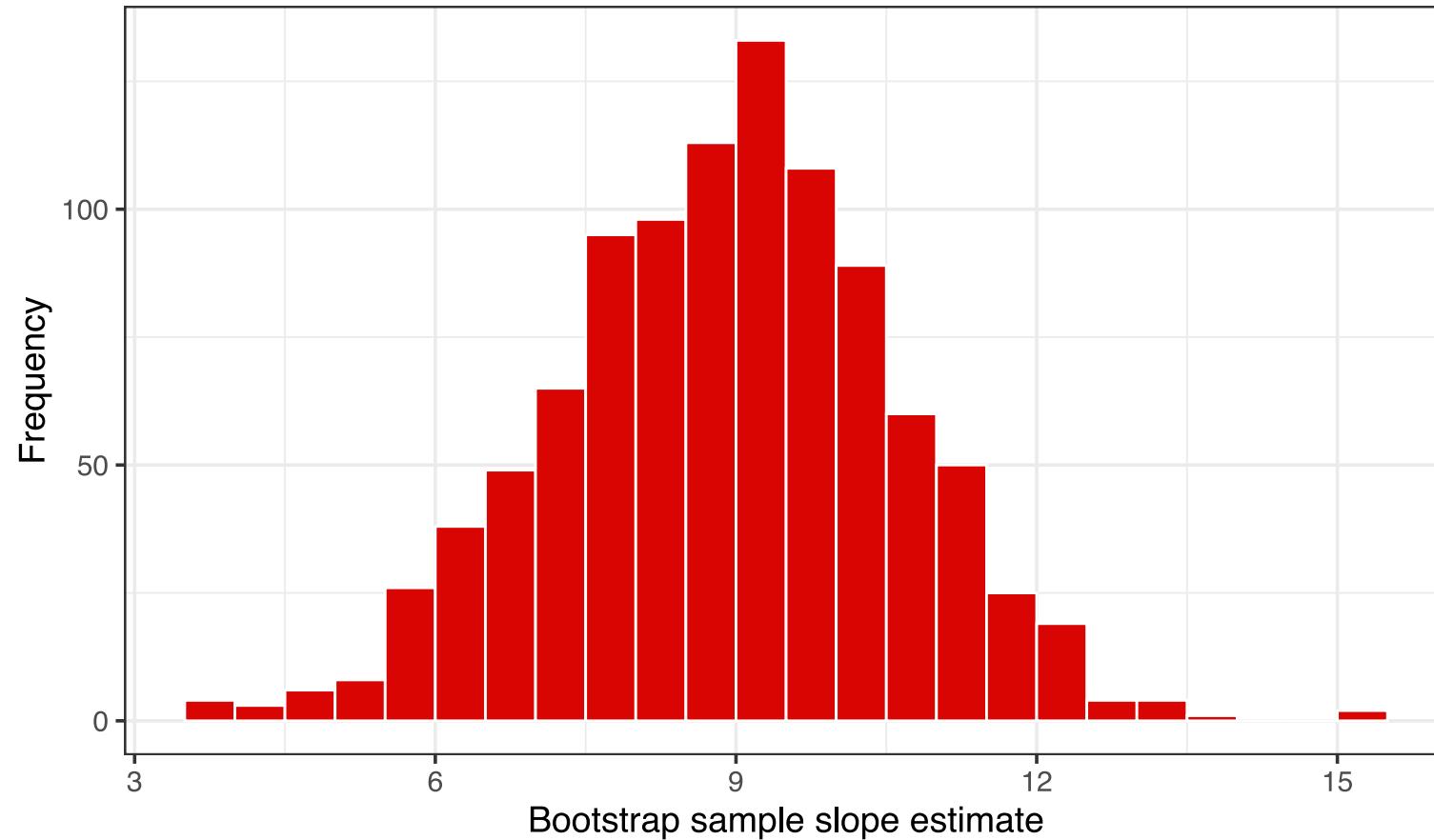
Hints:

- `specify()`: use the `explanatory` and `response` arguments and set them equal to the relevant variable.
- `generate()`: 1000 replicates of type bootstrap.
- `calculate()`: set the `stat` argument to `slope` and add the following argument: `order = c("TRUE", "FALSE")`.

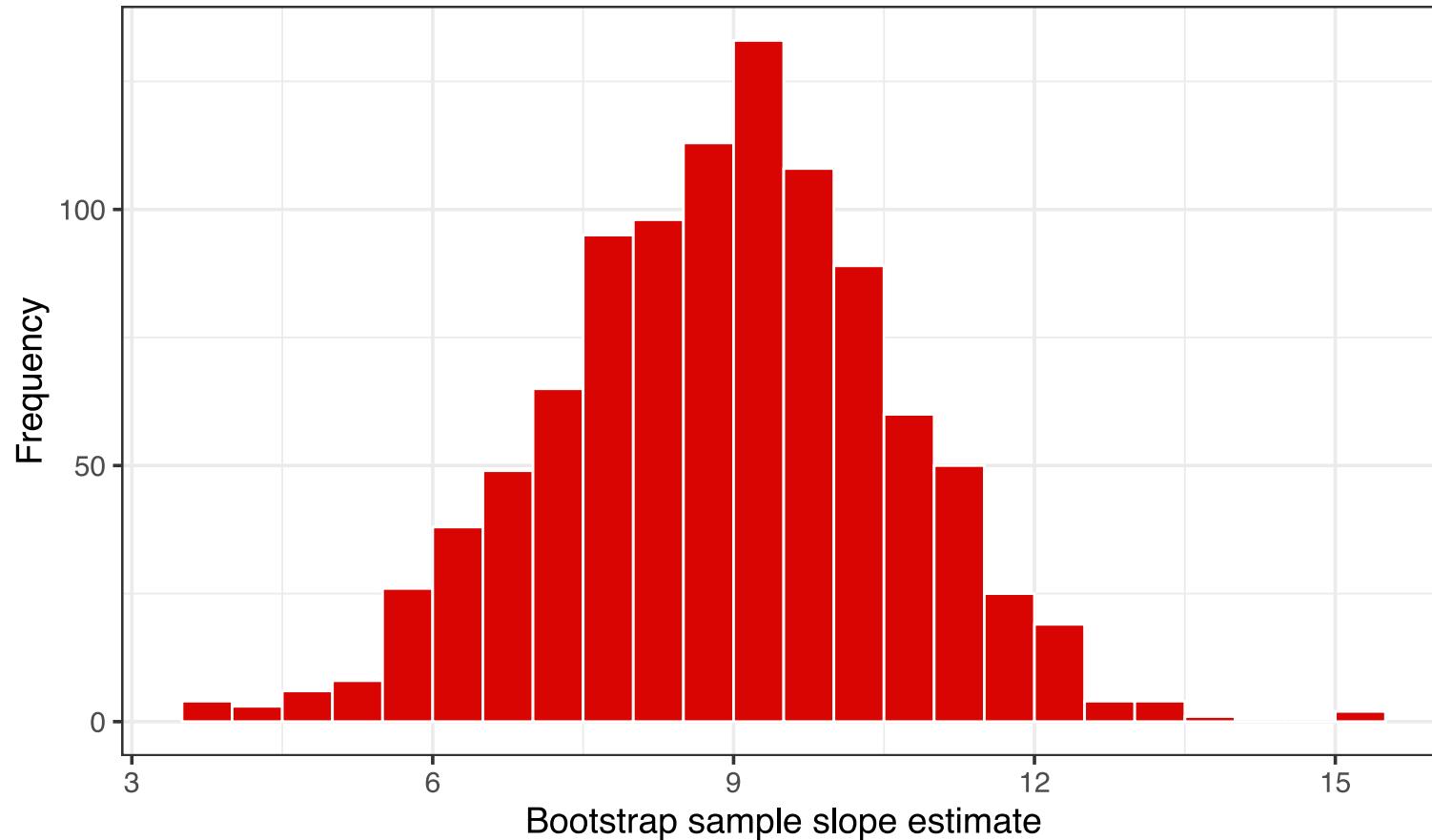
3. Plot this bootstrap distribution and compute the mean and the standard error of b_{small} .



Bootstrap Distribution



Bootstrap Distribution



standard error: 1.69 → very close to the one in the table (1.68)!



Testing $\beta_k = 0$ vs $\beta_k \neq 0$

By default, the regression output provides the results associated with the following hypothesis test:

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- If H_0 is false, then there **is** a true relationship.
- **Important:** This is a **two-sided** test!



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- Our *observed test statistic* (**statistic**) equals $\frac{b}{\hat{SE}(b)}$.
 - Why not just b ? We'll come back and explain this formula later.



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observed_stat = reg_star$coefficients[2]/sd(bootstrap)
round(observed_stat, 2)
```

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## smallTRUE
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```



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- The **p-value** measures the area outside of \pm *observed test statistic* under the *null distribution*.
- Finally, we check if we can reject H_0 at the usual **significance levels**: $\alpha = 0.1, 0.05, 0.01$.

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- We will approximate the null distribution of $\frac{b_{\text{small}}}{\hat{SE}(b_{\text{small}})}$ through a simulation exercise.



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- Let's generate 1000 permuted samples and compute b_{small} for each.

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null_distribution <- star_df %>%
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- If there is no relationship between math score and class size, i.e. H_0 is true, then *reshuffling / permuting* the values of `small` across students should play no role.
- Let's generate 1000 permuted samples and compute b_{small} for each.
- We can compute the distribution of our test statistic $\frac{b_{\text{small}}}{\hat{SE}(b_{\text{small}})}$ under the null:

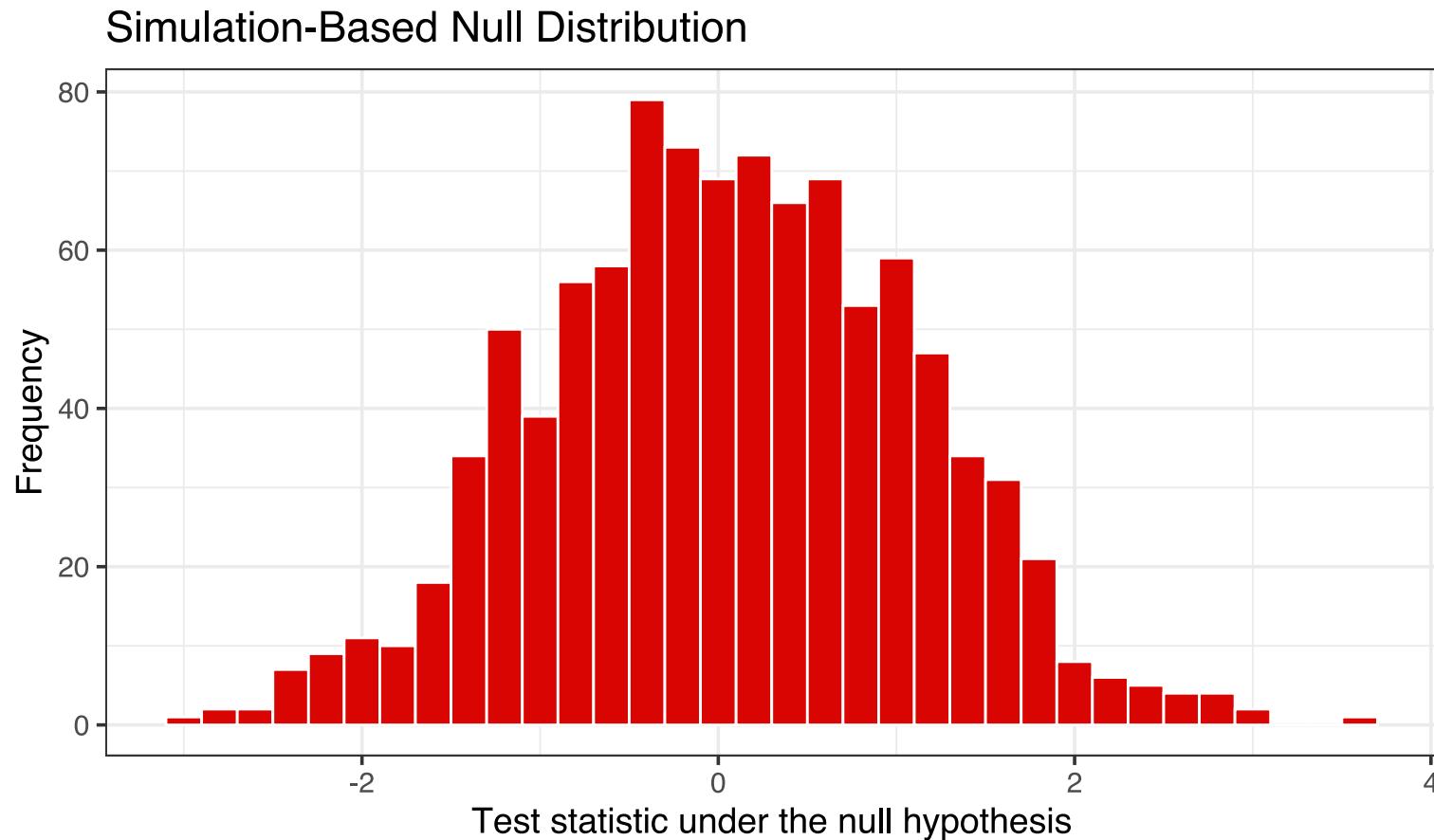
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```
null_distribution <- null_distribution %>%
  mutate(test_stat = stat/sd(bootstrap_distrib$stat))
```

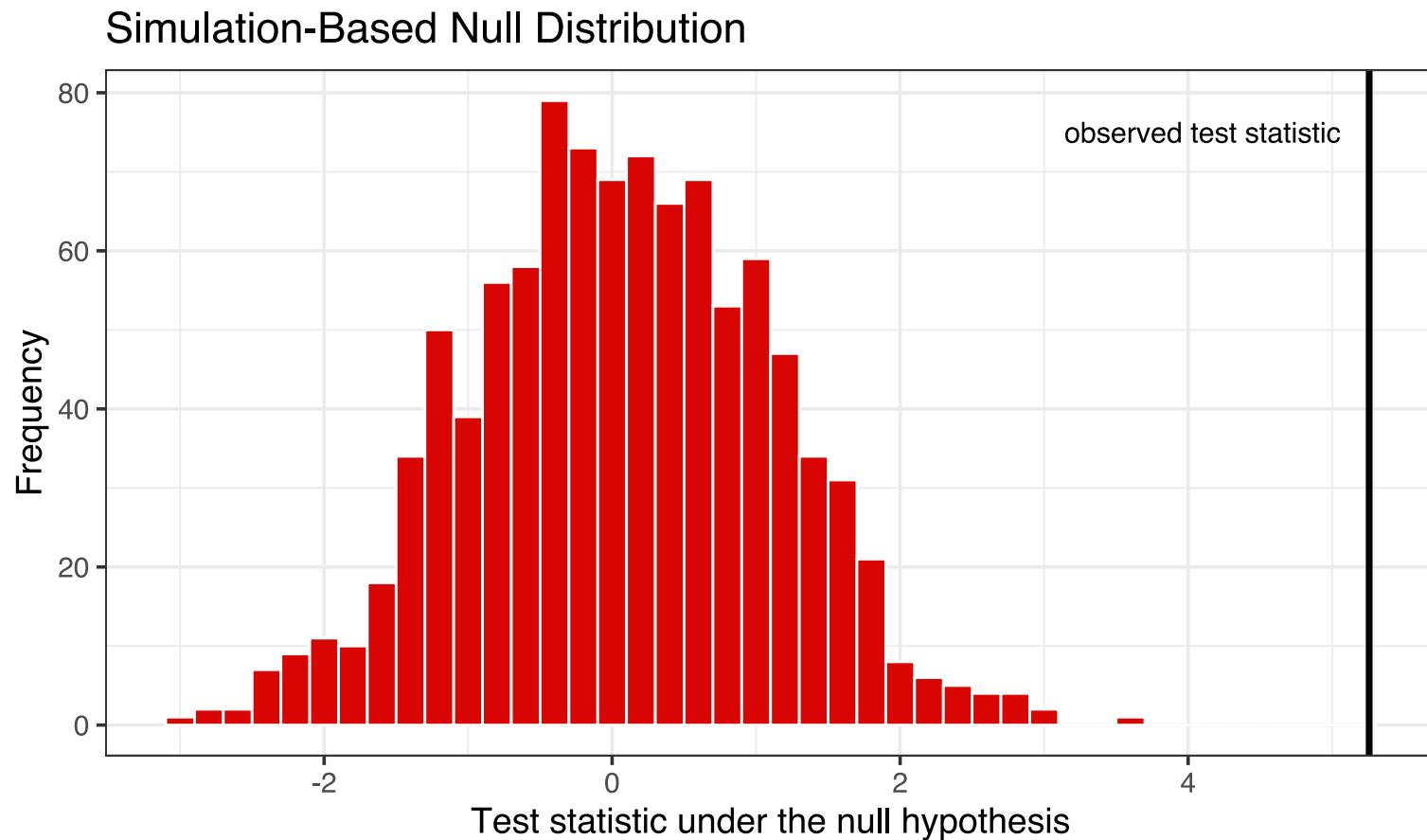
- Remember we got $\hat{SE}(b_{\text{small}}) = 1.69$ from our bootstrap distribution.



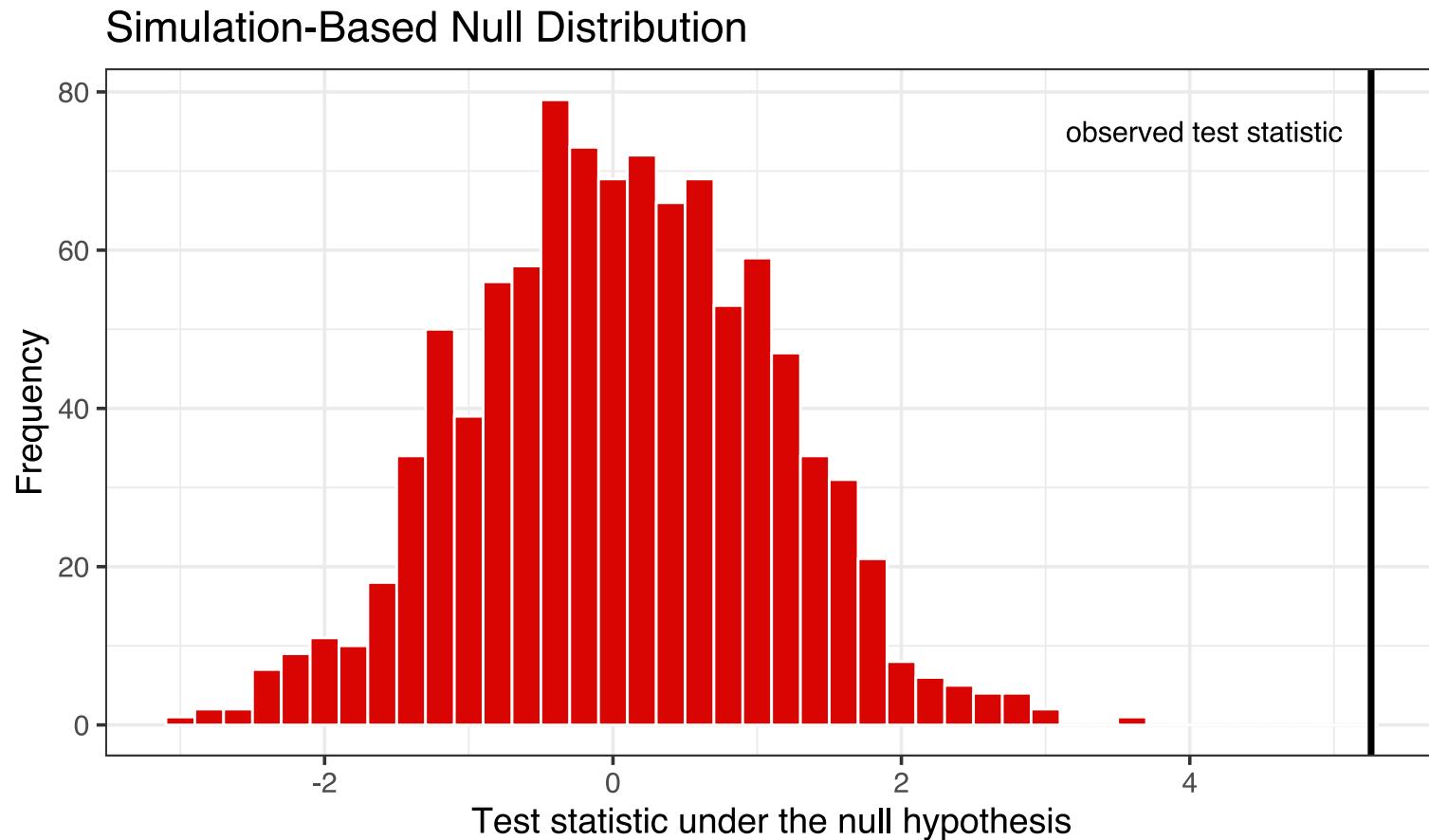
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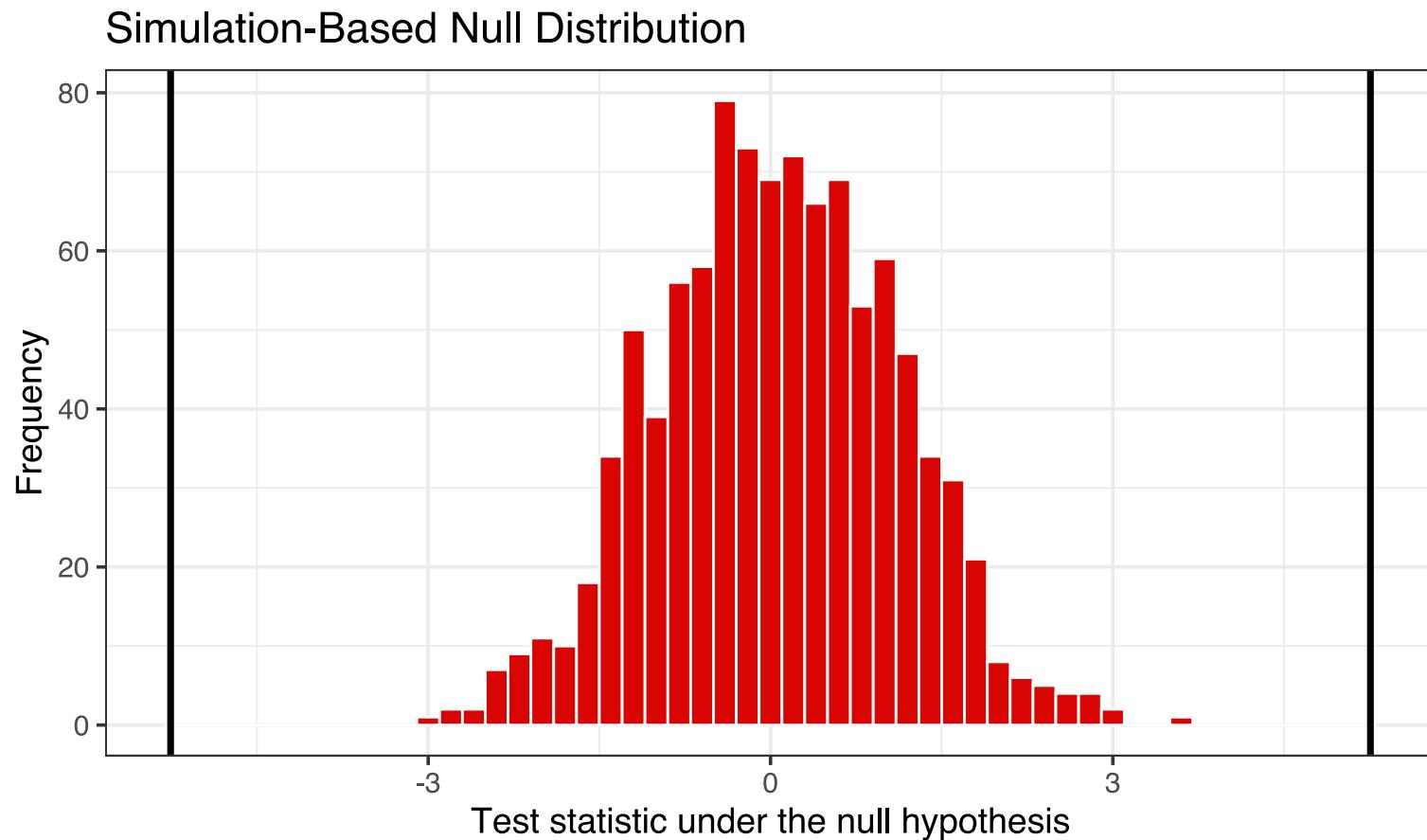
Very unlikely to obtain $b_{\text{small}} = 8.9$ when H_0 is true.

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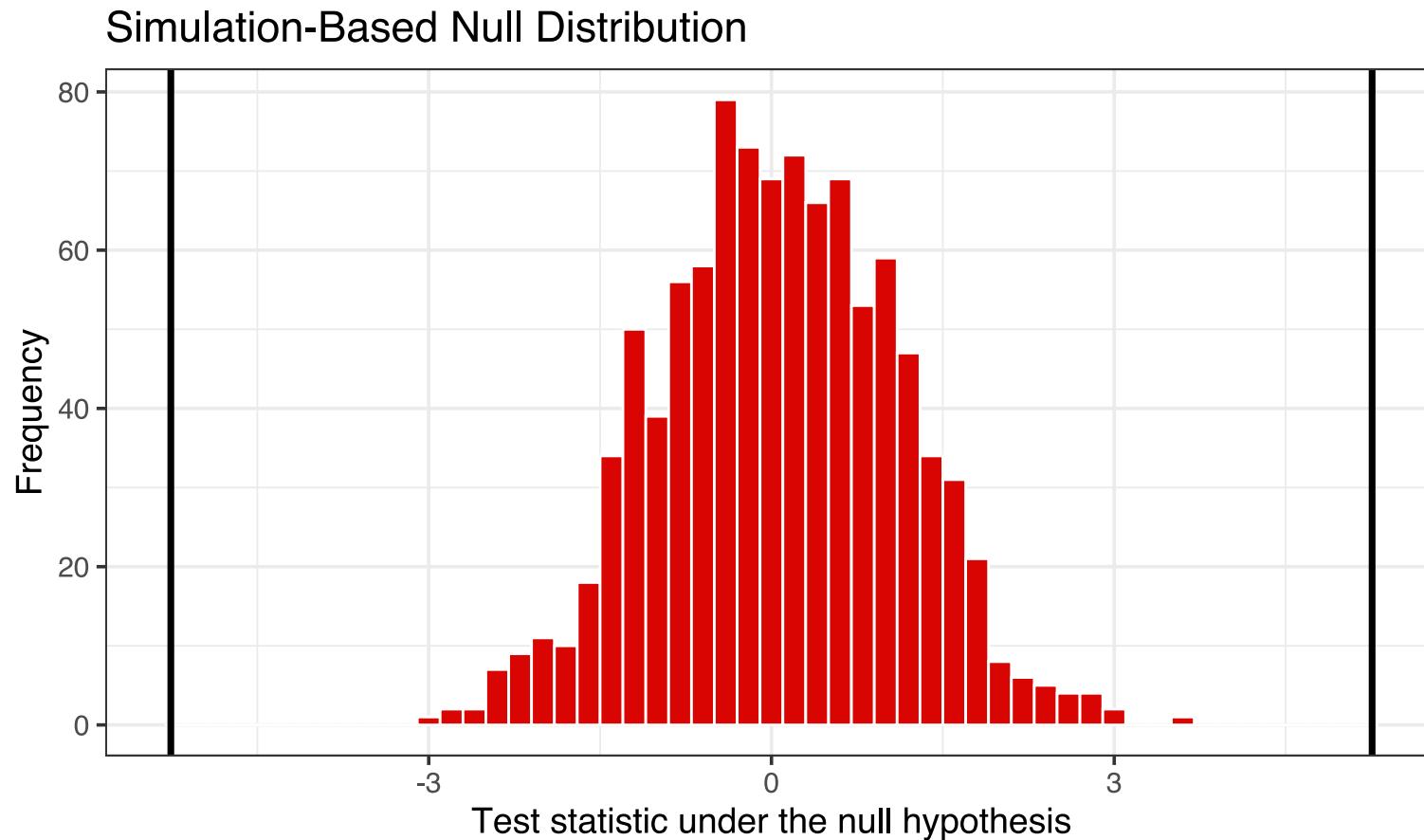
- To decide if we reject H_0 , recall we are considering a **two-sided test** here: *more extreme* means inferior to -5.257 **or** superior to 5.257.



Testing $\beta_{\text{small}} = 0$ vs $\beta_{\text{small}} \neq 0$



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What does the p-value correspond to?

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- Computing the *p-value* we get:

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p_value = mean(abs(null_distribution$test_stat) >= observed_stat)
p_value
## [1] 0
```



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- **Question:** Can we reject the null hypothesis at the 5% level?



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- **Answer:**
 - Since the *p-value* is equal to 0 it means that we would reject H_0 at any significance level: the p-value would always be inferior to α .
 - In other words, we can say that b_{small} is **statistically different from 0** at any significance level.
 - We also say that b_{small} is *statistically significant* (at any significance level).



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 - One can show that sampling distributions *converge* to suitable distributions.



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- Up to now we presented simulation-based inference.
- The values reported by statistical packages in R are instead obtained from theory.
- Theoretical inference is based on **large sample approximations**.
 - One can show that sampling distributions *converge* to suitable distributions.
- Let's briefly look into the theory-based approach.



Regression Inference: Theory

- Theory-based approach uses one fundamental result: the sampling distribution of the sample statistic $\frac{b - \beta}{\hat{\text{SE}}(b)}$ converges to a **standard normal distribution** as the sample size gets larger and larger.
 - $\hat{\text{SE}}(b)$ is the sample estimate of the standard deviation of b .
 - It is also obtained through a theoretical formula (which you can find in the **book!**) but we'll leave it aside.



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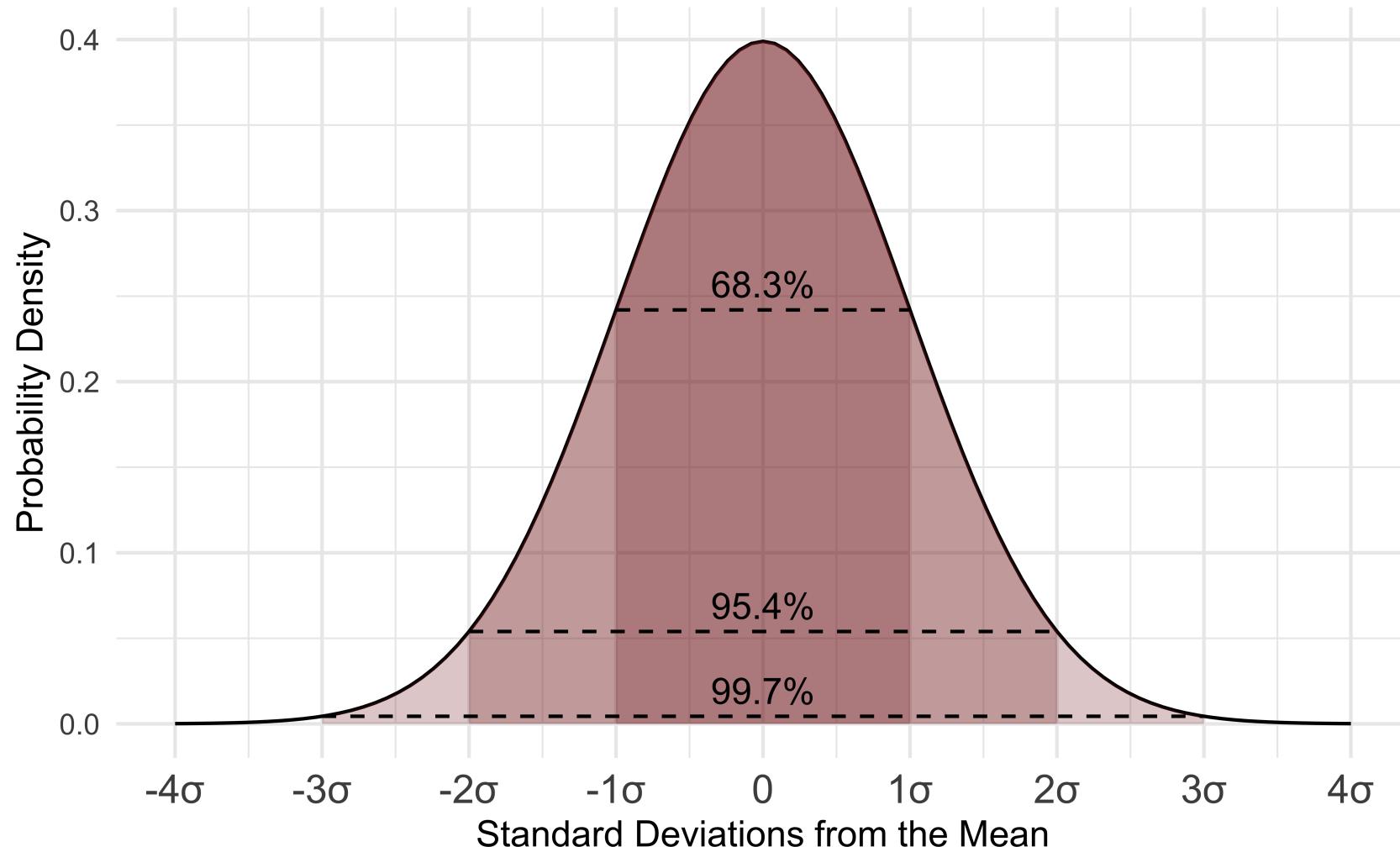


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- A **standard normal distribution** is a *normal distribution* with *mean* 0 and *standard deviation* 1.
- We don't need to simulate any sampling distribution here, we derive it from theory and use it to construct confidence intervals or to conduct hypothesis tests.
- Note that if $\frac{b-\beta}{\hat{SE}(b)}$ converges to a **standard normal distribution**, then b converges to a **normal distribution** with mean β and standard deviation $SE(b)$.



Normal Distributions: A Refresher



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tidy(lm(math ~ small, star_df),
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  select(term, conf.low, conf.high)

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- This can easily be generalized to any confidence level by taking the appropriate quantile of the normal distribution.



Task 2 (5 min)

1. Using the bootstrap distribution you generated in Task 1, compute the 95% confidence interval using the *percentile method*.
2. How similar is it to the confidence intervals obtained in the previous slide?



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- As such we can directly compare the observed test statistic $\frac{b}{\hat{\text{SE}}(b)}$ to the *standard normal distribution* which is the **null distribution** of our test statistic.
- The **p-value** associated to our test is then equal to the area of the *standard normal distribution* outside \pm the observed value of $\frac{b}{\hat{\text{SE}}(b)}$.
- Common rule of thumb: if the *estimate* is **twice the size of the standard error**, then it is significant at the 5% level. Why?



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 - We already mentioned the distinction between the sample estimate b_k (or $\hat{\beta}_k$) and the population parameter β_k .
 - In the same way, we distinguish e , the sample error, from ε the error term from the true population model:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1,i} + \dots + \beta_k x_{k,i} + \varepsilon_i$$

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$$Var(\varepsilon|x) = \sigma^2.$$
5. **Normally distributed errors:** the error term is normally distributed, i.e. $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$
 - This last assumption allows avoiding large sample approximations, but it is never used in practice since samples are sufficiently large ($n \geq 30$).

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- For example, imagine you are interested in the effect of education on wage

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- Under the exogeneity assumption β_1 denotes the causal effect of education in the population.
- Suppose there is *unobserved* ability a_i .
 - High ability means higher wage.
 - It *also* means school is easier, and so i selects into more schooling.

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- Thus, we have:

$$\mathbb{E}(b_1) = \beta_1 + OVB > \beta_1$$

- *Interpretation*: taking repeated sample from the population and computing b_1 each time, we would **systematically overestimate** the effect of education on wage.

Breaking the other assumptions

- You can find examples associated to the other assumptions in our **book!**
- Takeaway: if assumptions violated, inference is invalid!

Task 3.1 (10 min)

Let's go back to our question of returns to education and gender.

1. Load the data `CPS1985` from the `AER` package and look back at the `help` to get the definition of each variable: `?CPS1985`
2. Create the `log_wage` variable equal to the log of `wage`.
3. Regress `log_wage` on `gender` and `education`, and save it as `reg1`.
 - Interpret each coefficient.
 - Are the coefficients statistically significant? At which significance level?
4. Regress the `log_wage` on `gender`, `education` and their interaction `gender*education`, save it as `reg2`.
 - How do you interpret the coefficient associated to *female * education*?
 - Can we reject the nullity of this coefficient at the 5% level? At 10%?

Task 3.2 (10 min)

1. Produce a scatterplot of the relationship between the log wage and the level of education, by gender (`color`).
2. Add a *linear regression line* to the plot using the `geom_smooth` layer. What does this line represents?
3. Let's illustrate what the shaded area stands for.
 1. Draw one bootstrap sample from our `cps` data.
 2. Regress the `log_wage` on `gender`, `education` and their interaction `gender*education`, save it as `reg_bootstrap`.
 3. From `reg_bootstrap` extract and save the value of the intercept for men as `intercept_men_bootstrap` and the value of the slope for men as `slope_men_bootstrap`. Do the same for women.
 4. Add both predicted lines from this bootstrap sample to the previous plot (*Hint*: use `geom_abline (x2)`)

Illustrating Uncertainty

Let's repeat the procedure you just made
100 times!

```
library(AER)
data("CPS1985")
cps = CPS1985 %>% mutate(log_wage = log(wage))

set.seed(1)
bootstrap_sample = cps %>%
  rep_sample_n(size = nrow(cps), reps = 100, replace = TRUE)

ggplot(data=cps,aes(y = log_wage, x = education, colour = gender))
  geom_point(size = 1, alpha = 0.7) +
  geom_smooth(method = "lm", alpha = 2) +
  geom_smooth(data=bootstrap_sample,
              size = 0.2,
              aes(y = log_wage, x = education, group = rep),
              method = "lm", se = FALSE) +
  facet_wrap(~gender) +
  scale_colour_manual(values = c("darkblue", "darkred"))
  labs(x = "Education", y = "Log wage") +
  guides(colour=FALSE) +
  theme_bw(base_size = 20)
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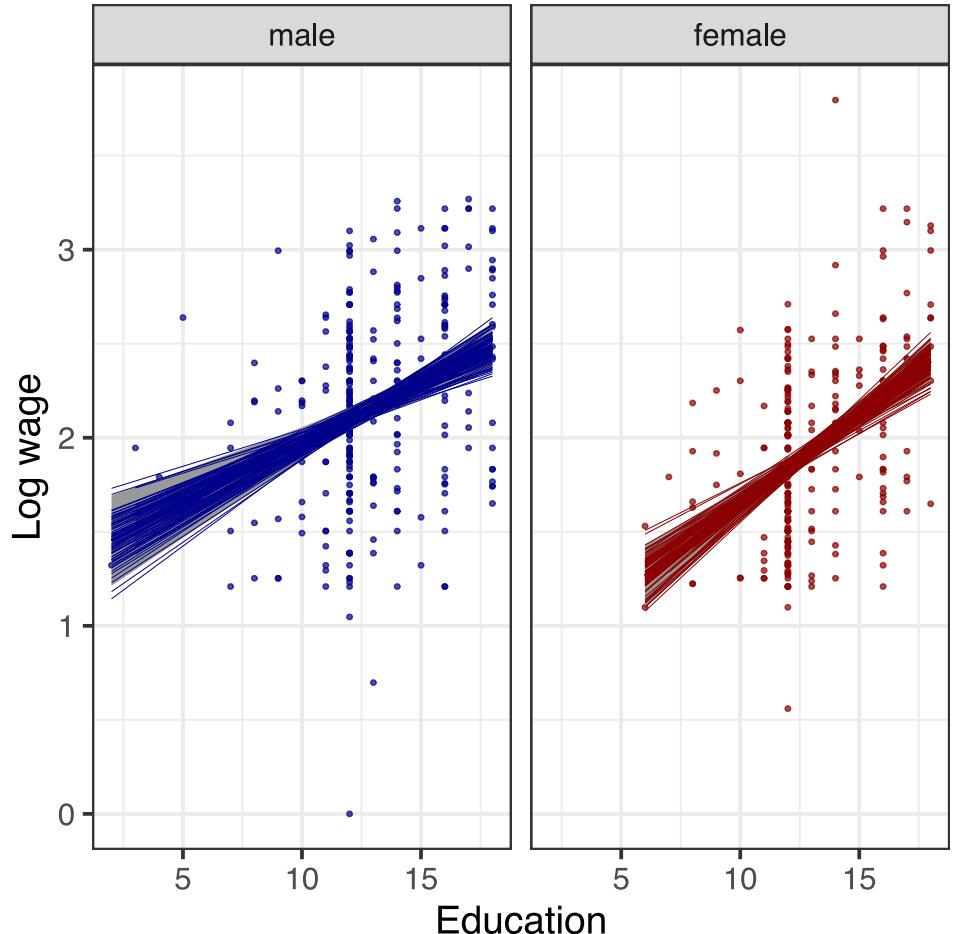
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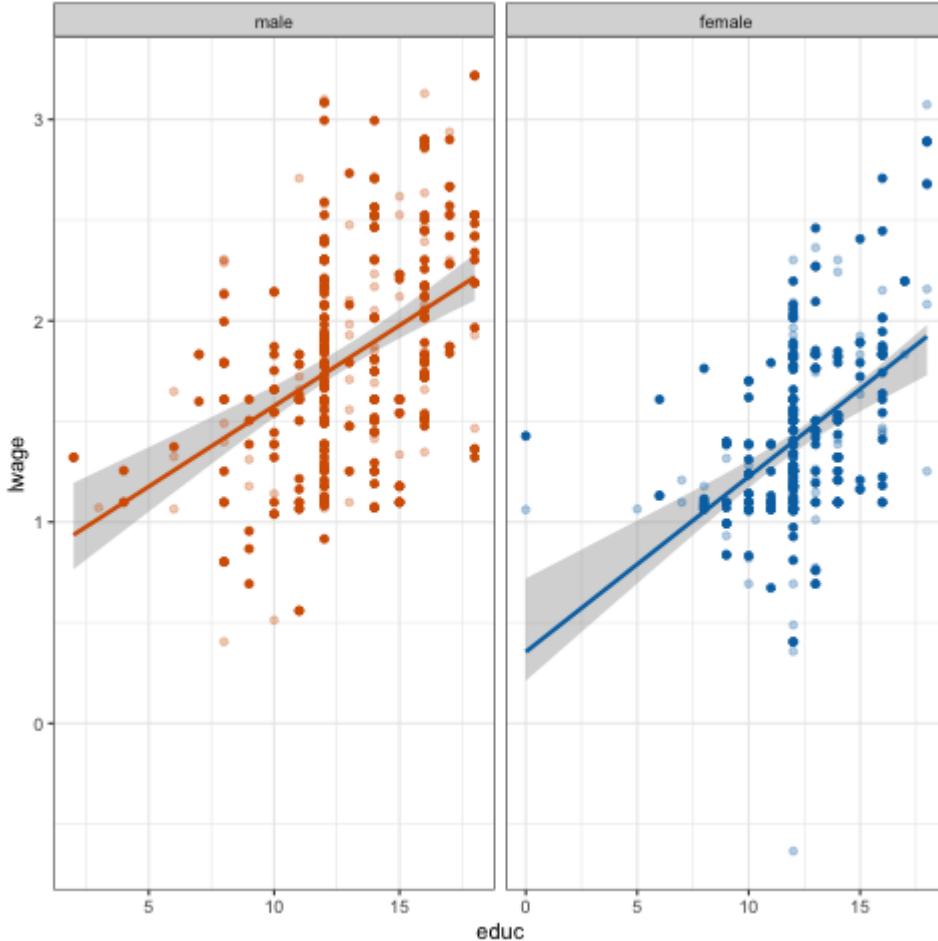
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Illustrating Uncertainty



Even better : `ungeviz` and `ganimate` bring you moving lines!

- We took 20 bootstrap samples from our data
- You can see how different data points are included in each bootstrap sample.
- Those different points imply different regression lines.
- On average, 95% of these lines should fall into the shaded area.
- You should remember those moving lines when looking at the shaded area!

Teaser for next session (the last one 😢)

- Methods for program evaluation!

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Which do you prefer?

THANKS

To the amazing **moderndive** team!

Big Thanks  to **ungeviz** and  **ganimate** for their awesome packages!

SEE YOU NEXT WEEK!

 florian.oswald@sciencespo.fr

 Slides

 Book

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