

ScPoEconometrics

Regression Inference

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SciencesPo Paris
2021-11-10

Quick "Quiz" on Last Week's Material

1. From your *computer* ↗ connect to www.wooclap.com/SCPOCIHT

OR

2. From your *phone* ↗ flash QR code below



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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reg_star = lm(math ~ small, star_df)
reg_star

##
## 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
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- 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 1,000 regressions and obtain 1,000 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.



Standard Error of b_{small}

- From the table, we get $\hat{\text{SE}}(b_{\text{small}}) = 1.68$
 - 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.
- Let's simulate the sampling distribution of b_{small} to see where it comes from.



Task 1

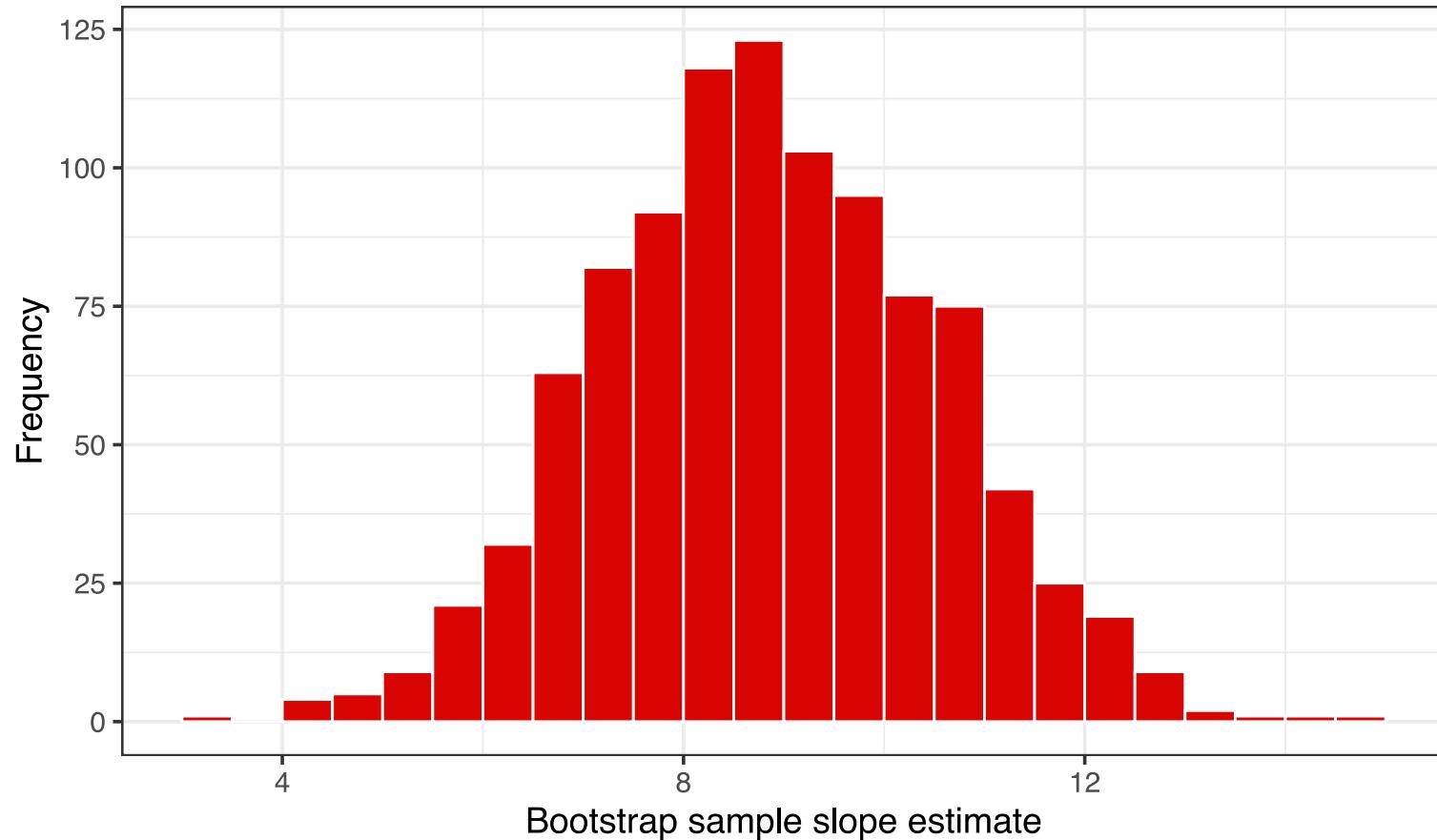
10 : 00

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

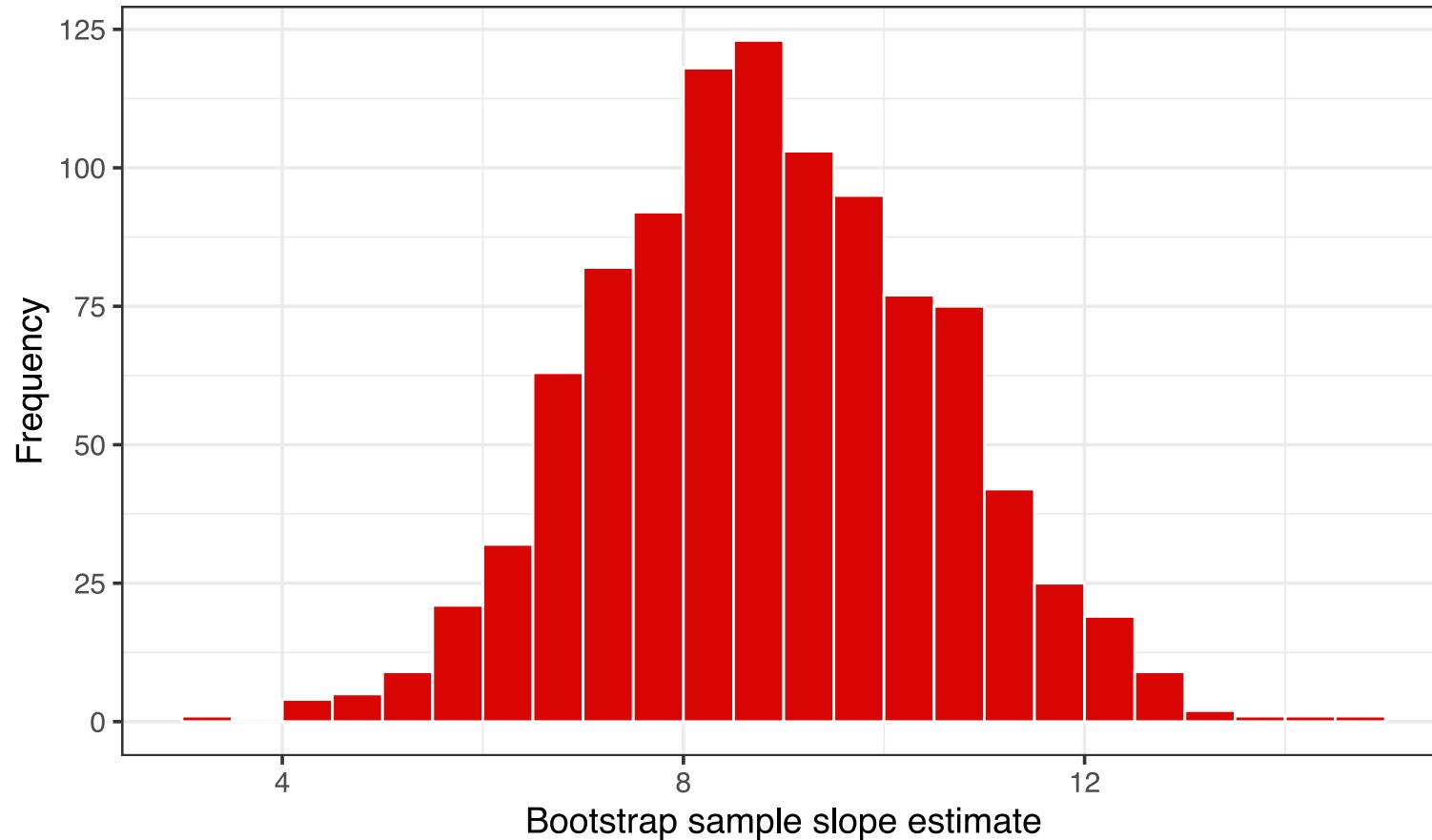
1. Copy the loading and cleaning code from slide 3 and run it.
2. Generate the bootstrap distribution of b_{small} based on 1,000 samples drawn from `star_df`.
Hint 1: use the appropriate functions and arguments from the `infer` package so use the help pages.
Hint 2: in `calculate` set `stat` to `slope` and `order` to `c("TRUE", "FALSE")`.
3. Plot this simulated sampling distribution and compute the mean and standard error of b_{small} .



Bootstrap Distribution



Bootstrap Distribution



standard error: 1.66 → very close to the one in the table (1.68)!



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

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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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 - Why not just b ? We'll come back and explain this formula later.



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round(observed_stat,2)
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## smallTRUE
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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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Testing $\beta_{\text{small}} = 0$ vs $\beta_{\text{small}} \neq 0$

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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.



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- Let's generate 1,000 permuted samples and compute b_{small} for each.

```
null_distribution <- star_df %>%
  mutate(small=as.numeric(small)) %>%
  specify(formula = math ~ small) %>%
  hypothesize(null = "independence") %>%
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- Let's generate 1,000 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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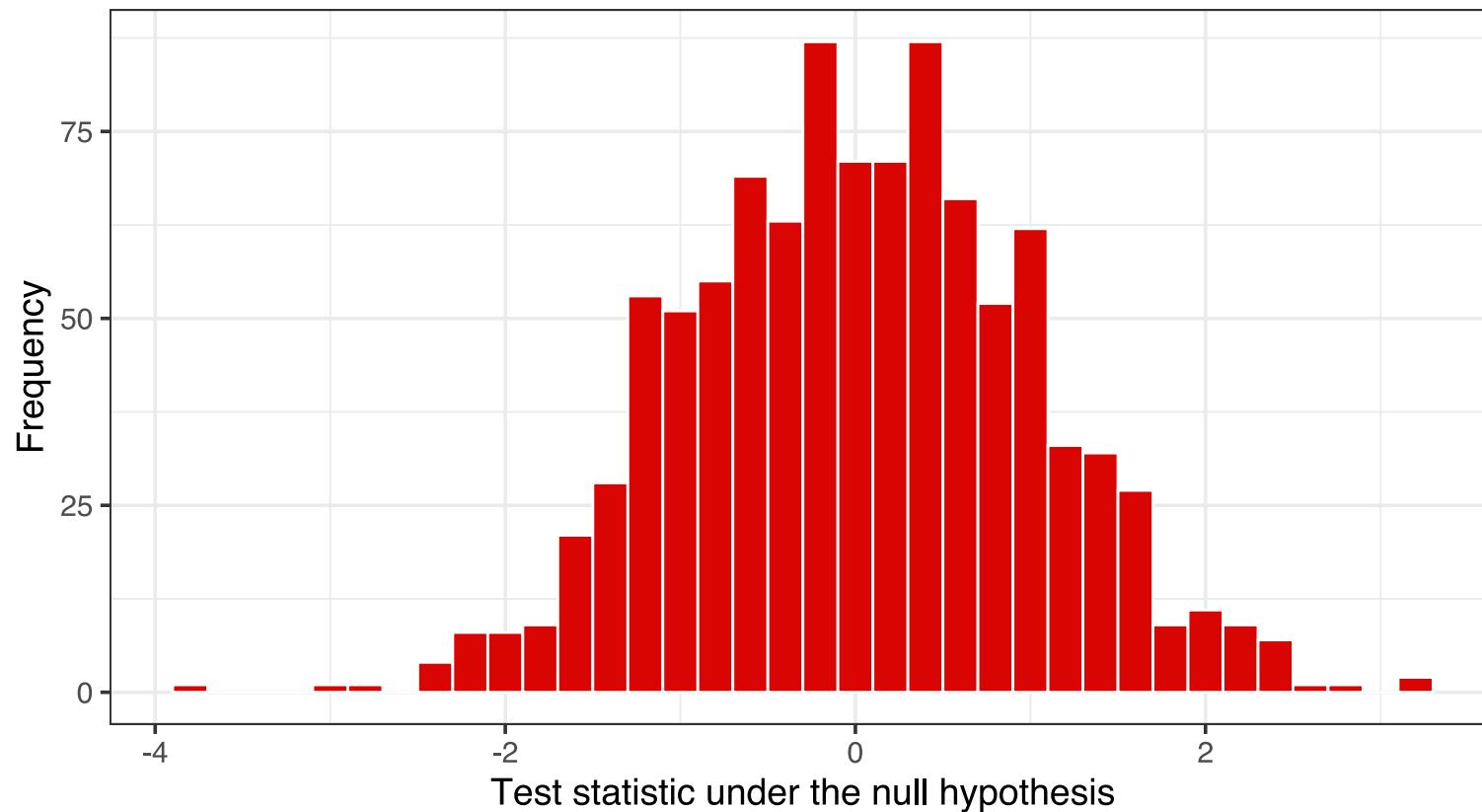
```
null_distribution <- null_distribution %>%
  mutate(test_stat = stat/sd(bootstrap_distrib$stat))
```

- Remember we got $\hat{SE}(b_{\text{small}}) = 1.66$ from our bootstrap distribution.



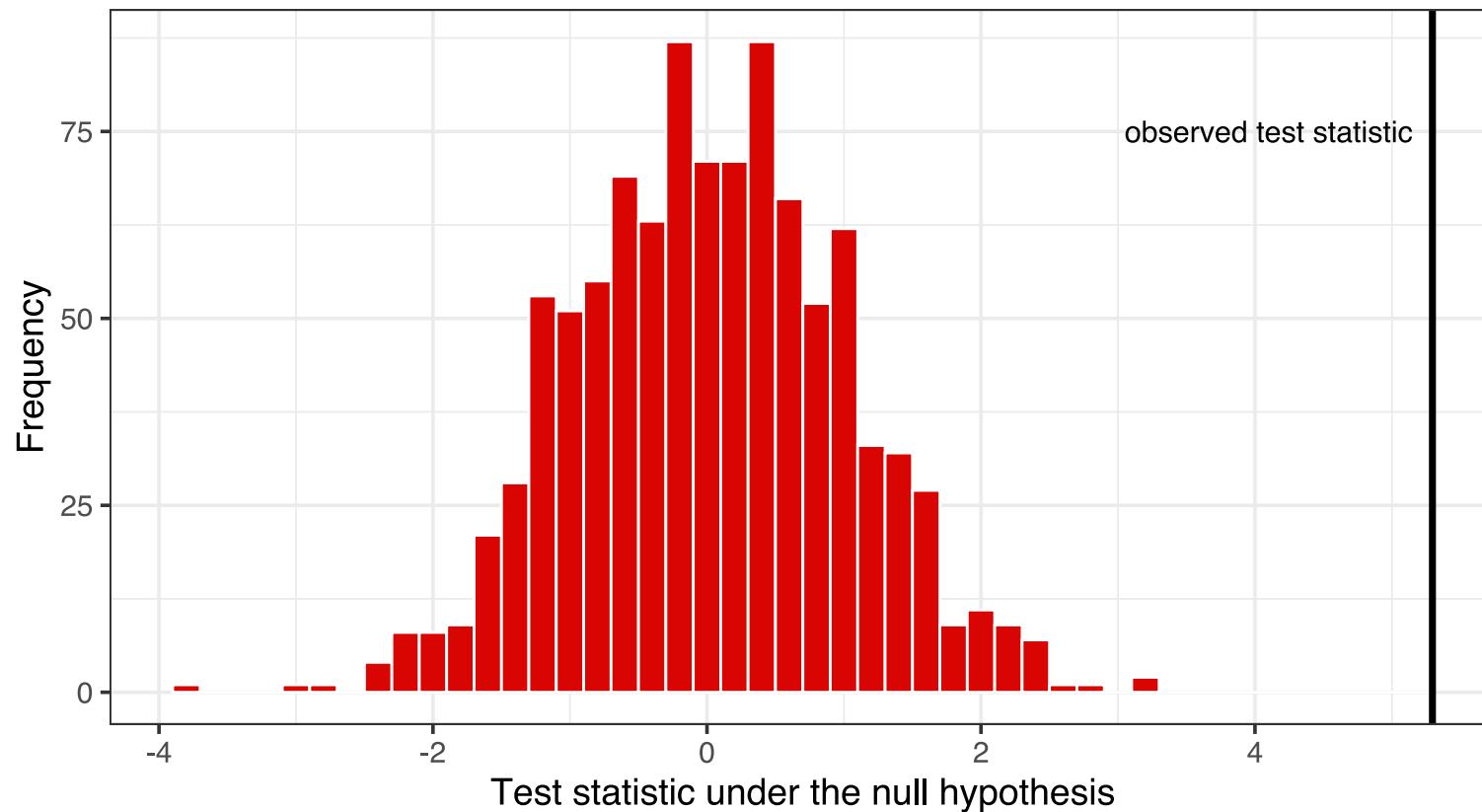
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Simulation-Based Null Distribution



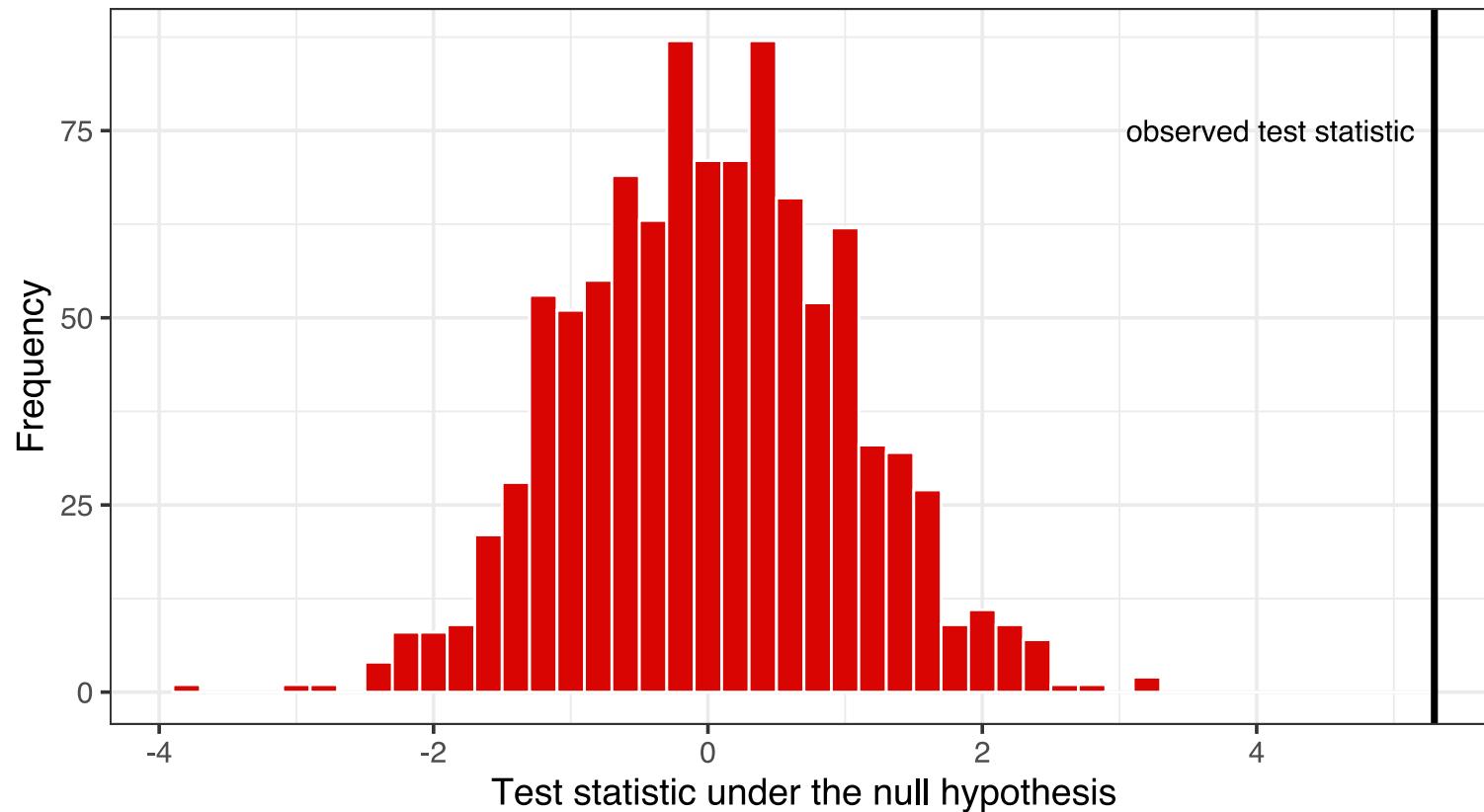
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Very unlikely to obtain $b_{\text{small}} = 8.8951932$ when H_0 is true.

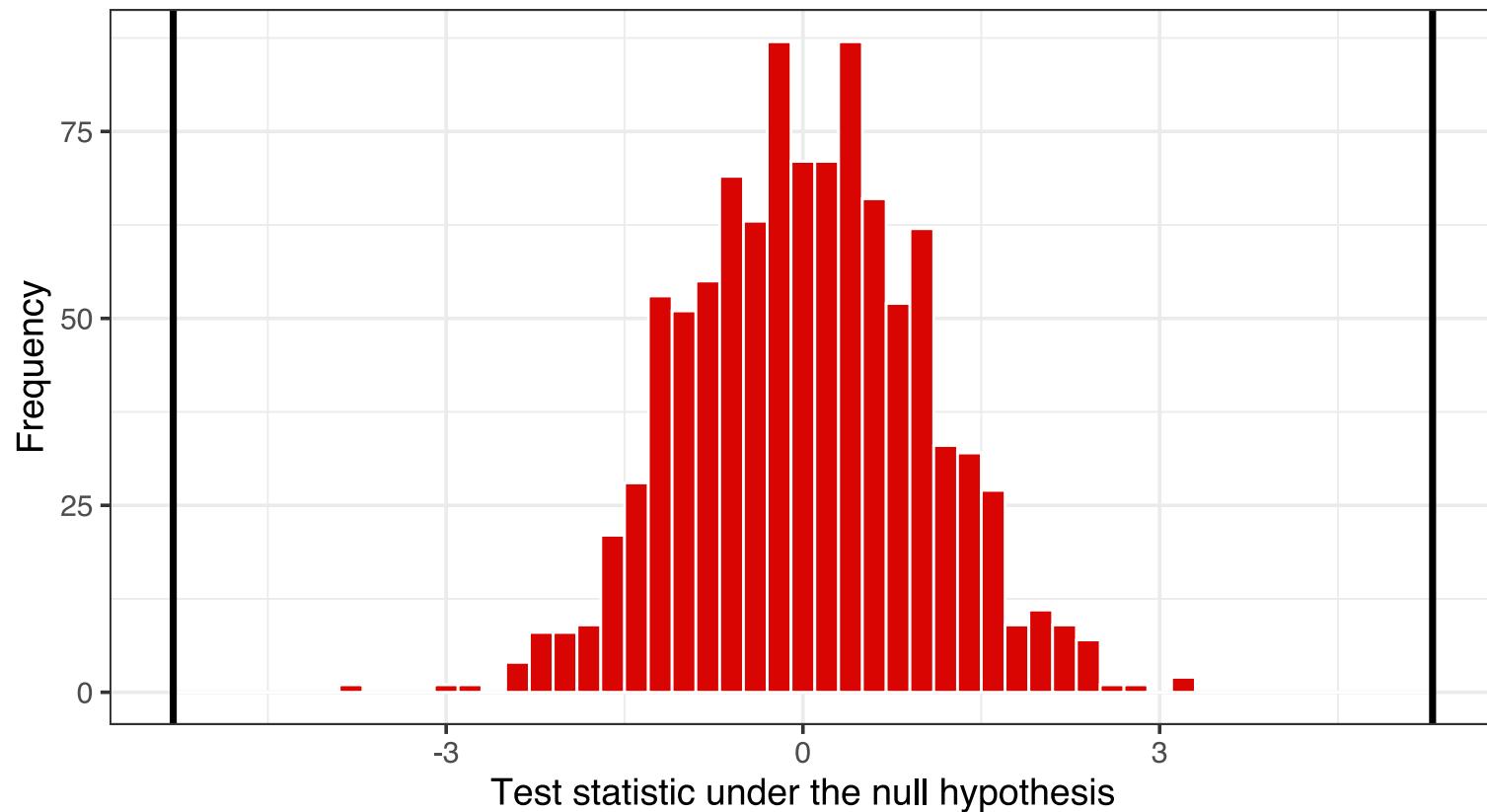
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- To decide if we reject H_0 , recall we are considering a **two-sided test** here: *more extreme* means inferior to -5.351 **or** superior to 5.351.



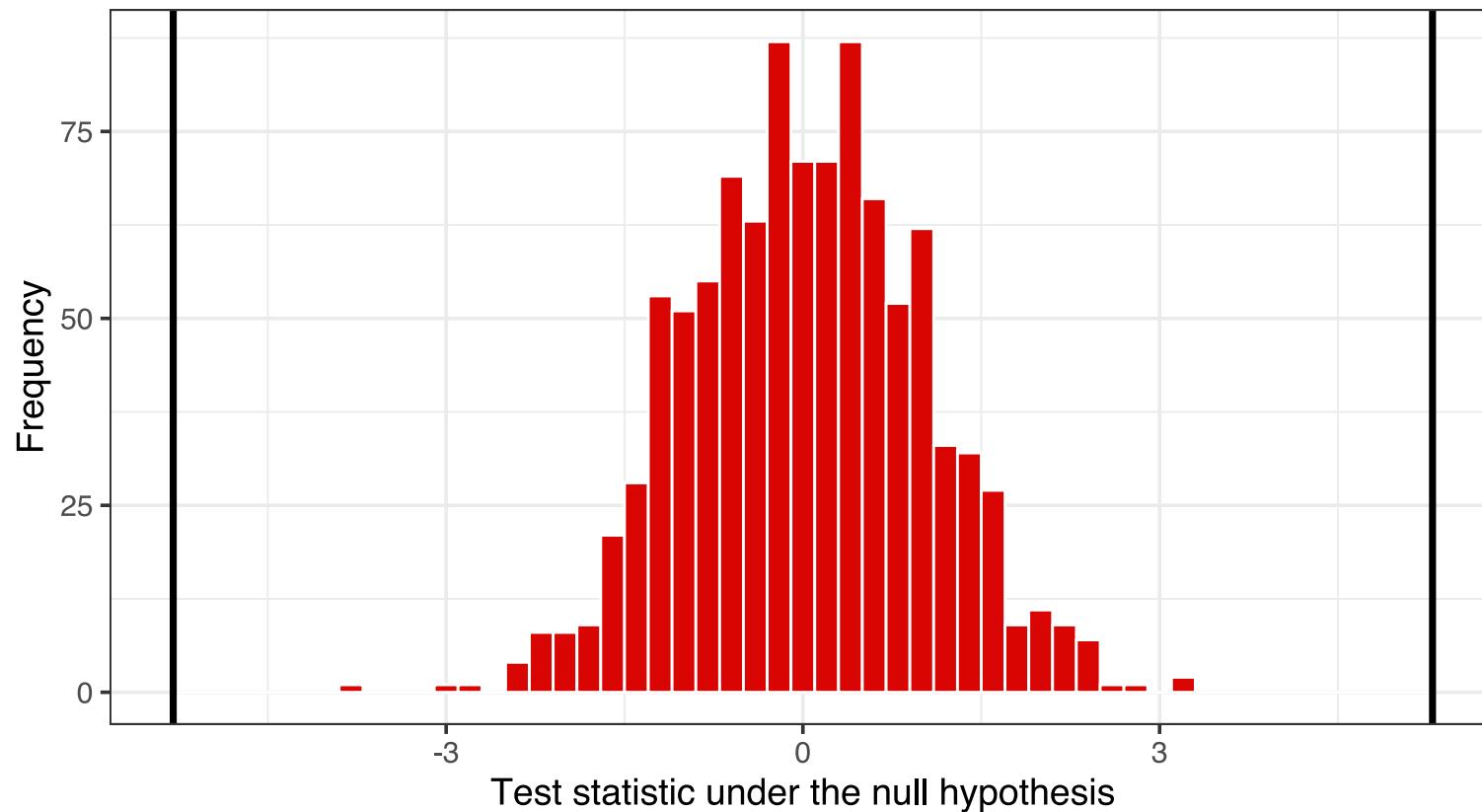
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What does the p-value correspond to?

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- Computing the *p-value* we get:

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p_value
## [1] 0
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- **Question:** Can we reject the null hypothesis at the 5% level?



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- This is the same value as in the regression table.
- **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 → ***Central Limit Theorem***



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- 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 → **Central Limit Theorem**
- 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 .
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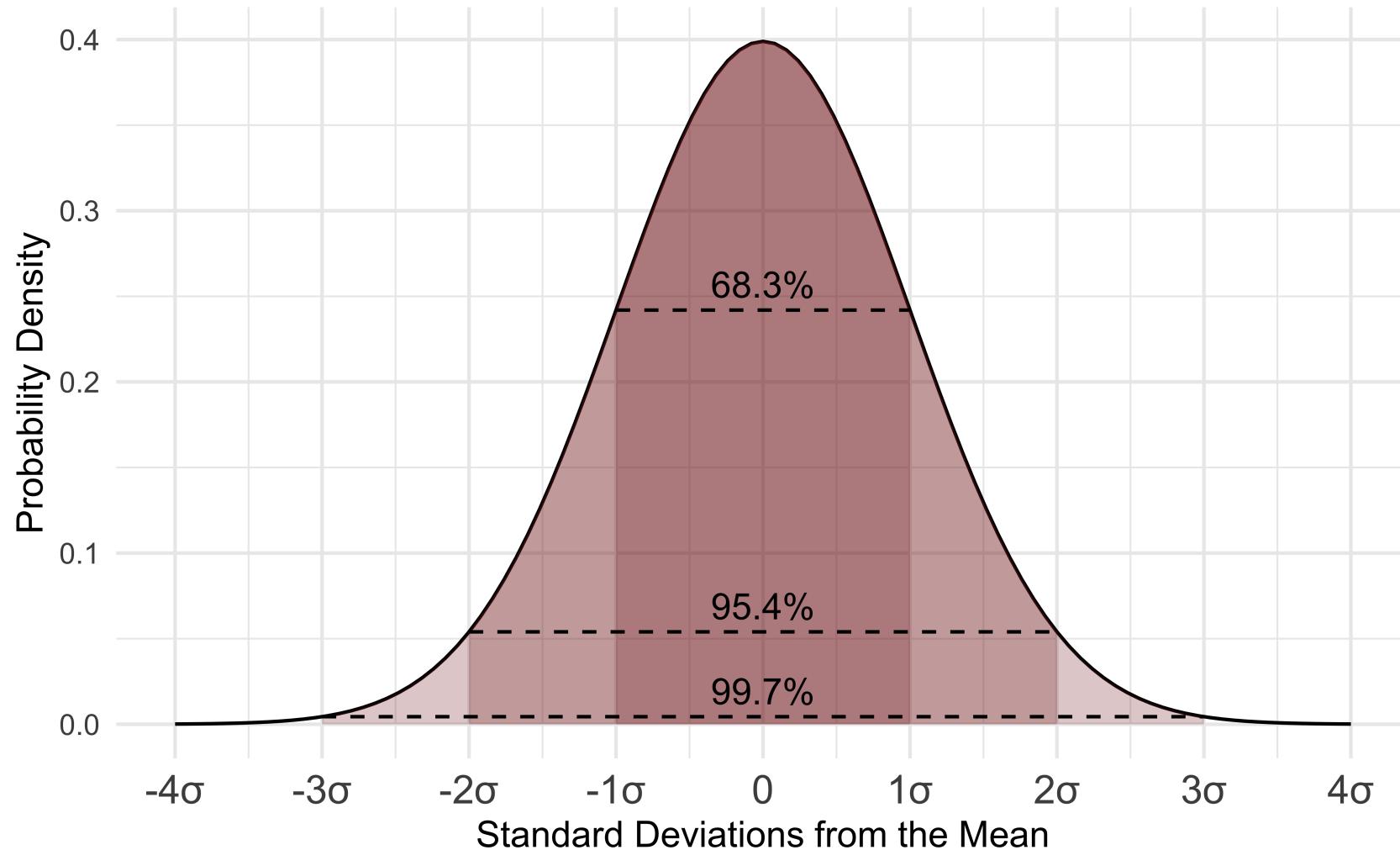


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 - It is also obtained through a theoretical formula (which you can find in the **book!**) but we'll leave it aside.
- A **standard normal distribution** is a *normal distribution* with *mean* 0 and *standard deviation* 1.
- We don't need to simulate 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 Distribution: A Refresher



Theory-Based Inference: Confidence Interval

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  filter(term == "smallTRUE") %>%
  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

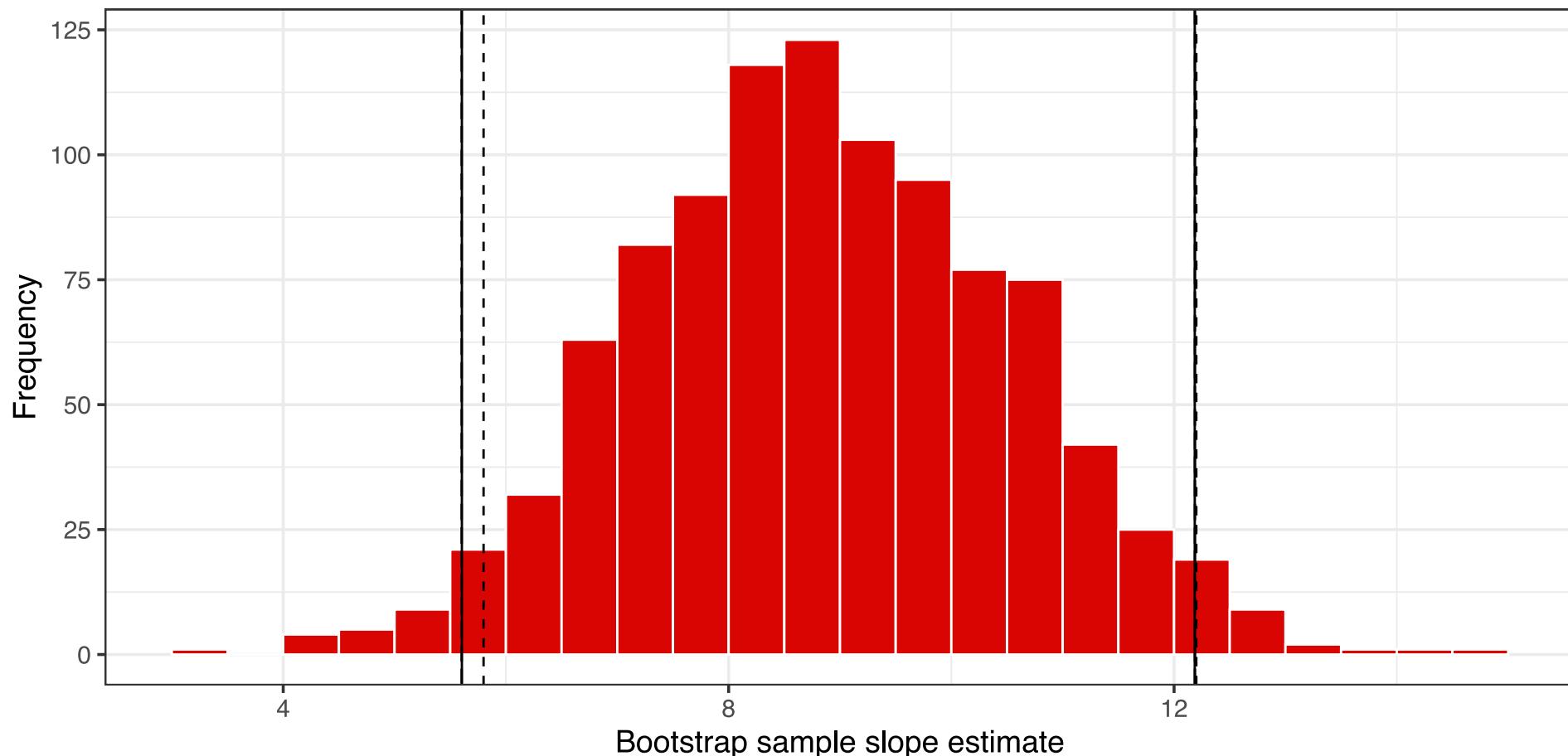
05 : 00

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?



Confidence Intervals: Visually

95% confidence interval computed with different methods
percentile (dashed), standard error (longdashed) and theory (solid)



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- 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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- The classical regression model applies to **correctly specified linear regressions**: the model needs to be linear in parameters, include all relevant variables, and variables cannot be collinear.

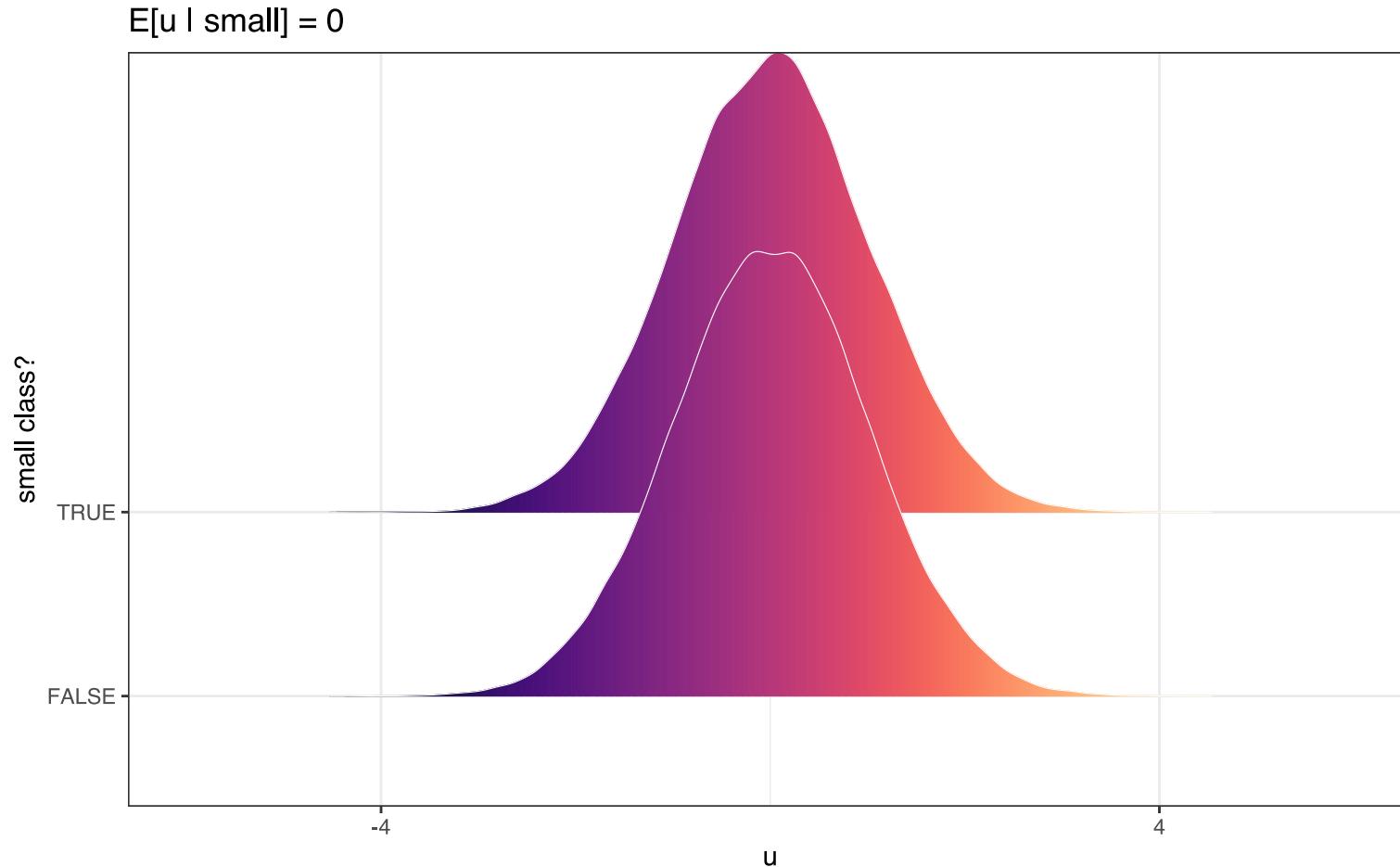
CRM Assumptions

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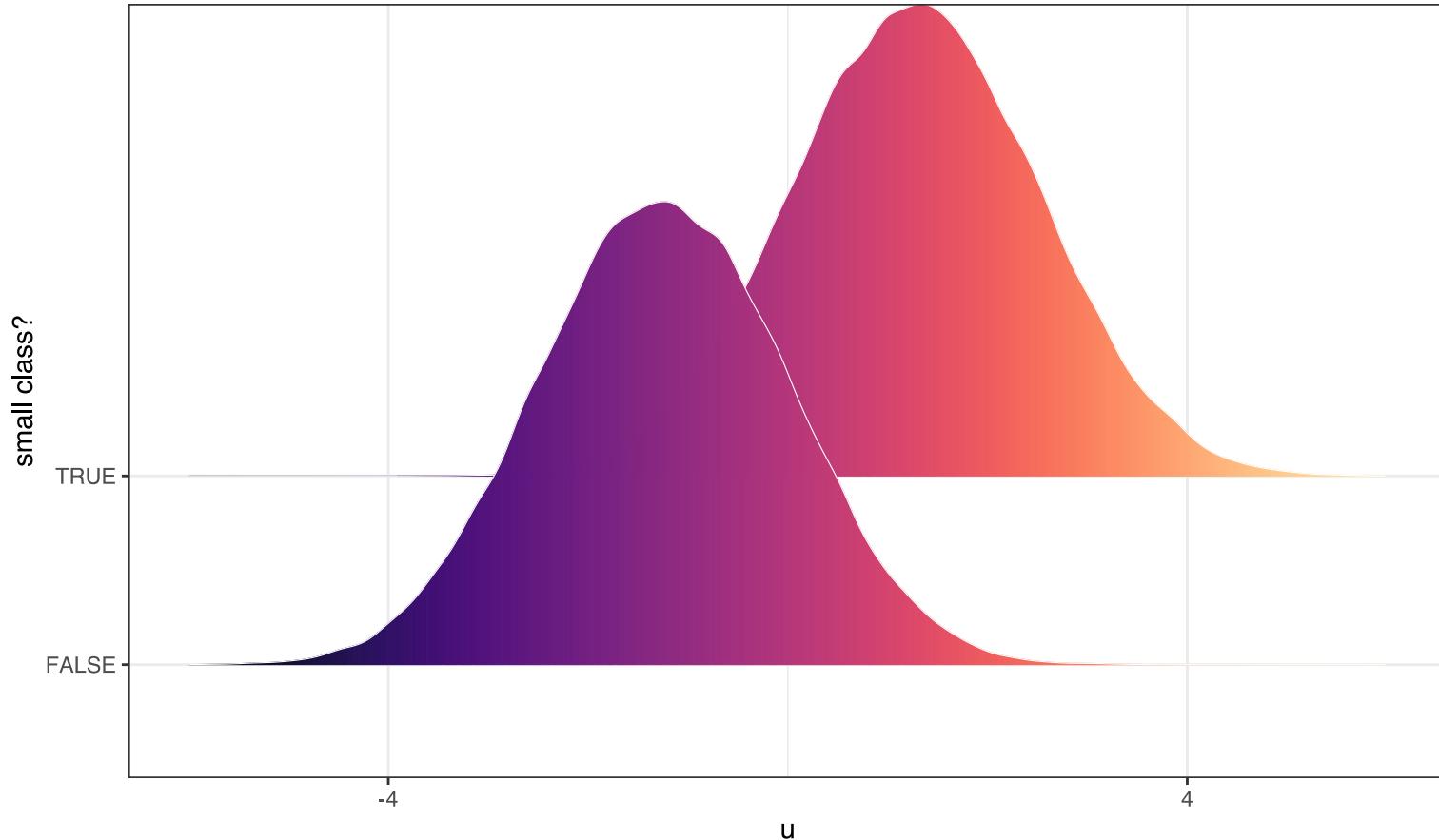
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$$E[u | \text{small}] \neq E[u | \text{not small}] \neq 0$$



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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.

Exogeneity Assumption

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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.

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- Violating this assumption would make your sample less representative of the underlying population. It will lead to **biased** estimates of β_k .

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☞ Takeaway: **if assumptions violated, inference is invalid!**

Task 3.1

10 : 00

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 : 00

1. Produce a scatterplot of the relationship between the log wage and the level of education.
2. Add the *regression line* with `geom_smooth`. 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)
```

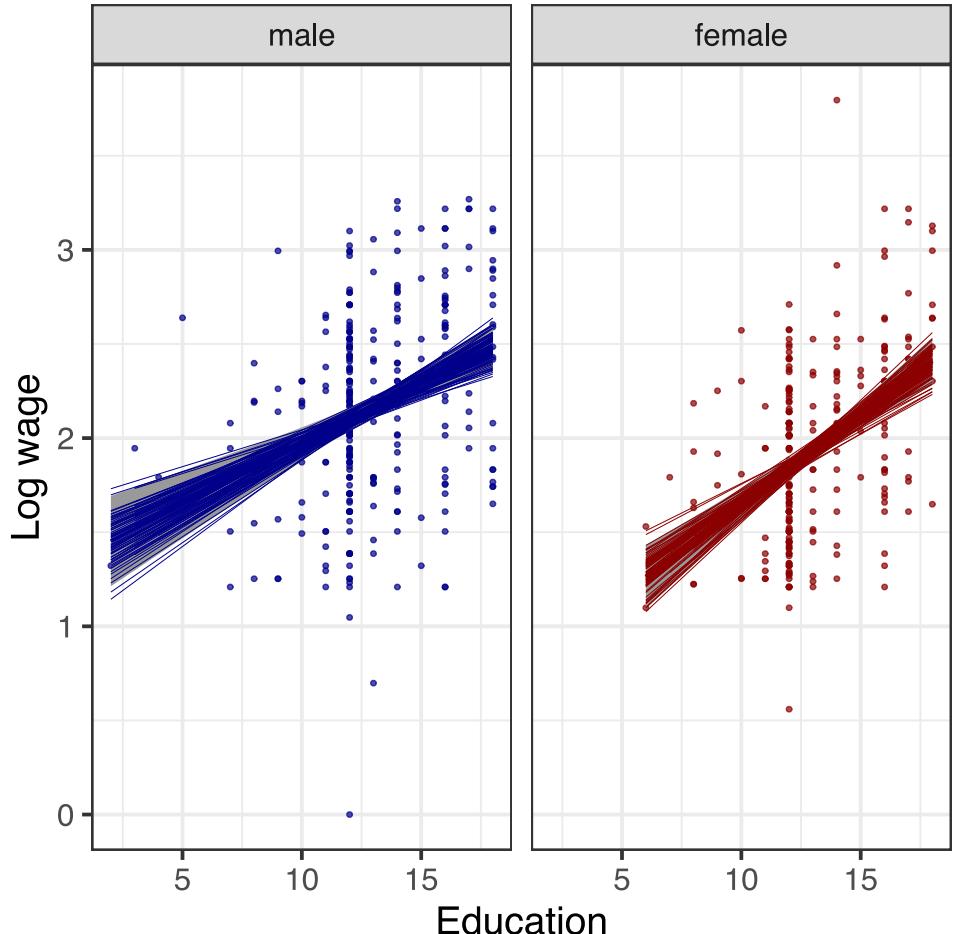
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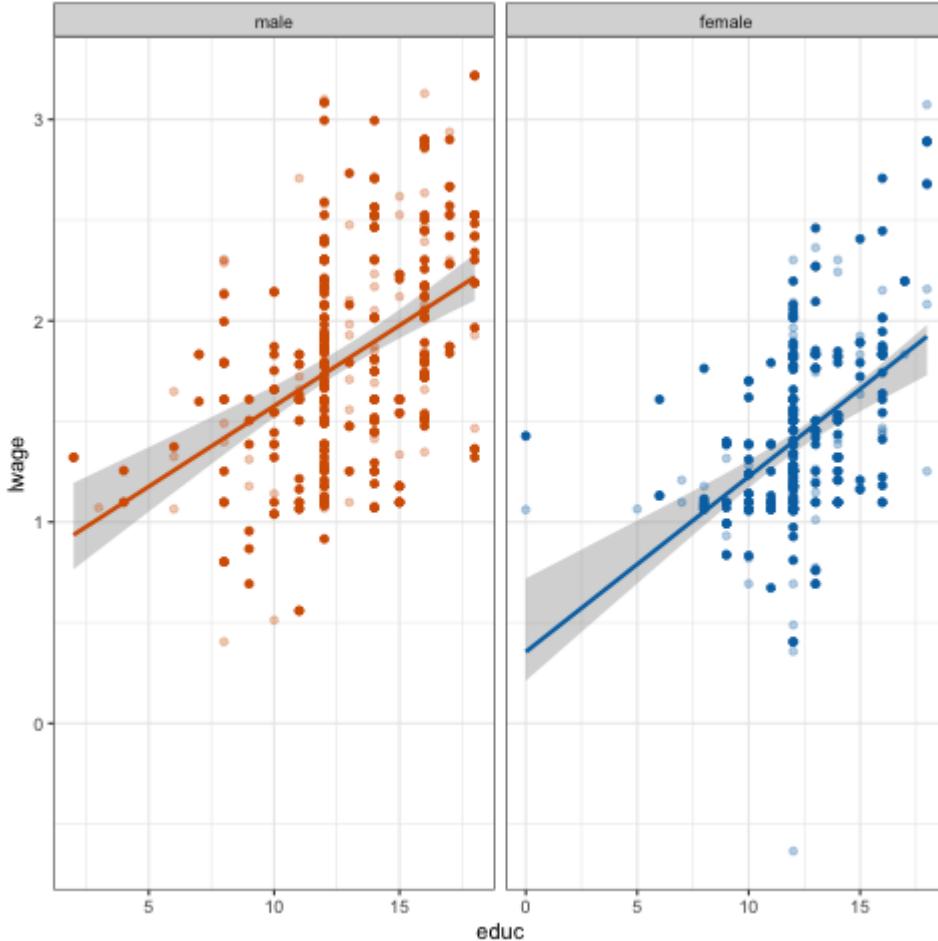
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Illustrating Uncertainty



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!

THANKS

To the amazing **moderndive** team!

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

SEE YOU NEXT WEEK!

 florian.oswald@sciencespo.fr

 Slides

 Book

 @ScPoEcon

 @ScPoEcon
