Uncertainty, 2

Frank Edwards

We can describe the relationship between a predictor variable *X* and an outcome variable *Y* with the line:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i$$

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \varepsilon$$

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 β_0 : The value of y when x is equal to zero

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 ε : The distance between the line $y=\beta_0+\beta_1 X$ and the actual observed values of y. Allows us to estimate the line, even when x and y do not fall exactly on a line.

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 ε : The distance between the line $y=\beta_0+\beta_1 X$ and the actual observed values of y. Allows us to estimate the line, even when x and y do not fall exactly on a line.

The line $E(y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$ provides a prediction for the values of y_i based on the values of x_i .

3

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A regression line predicts values of Y, by estimating \hat{Y} with the equation:

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta_0} + \hat{\beta_1} X$$

4

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A regression line predicts values of Y, by estimating \hat{Y} with the equation:

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta_0} + \hat{\beta_1} X$$

and the residual, or prediction error is the difference between the observed and predicted values of Y

$$\varepsilon = \mathbf{Y} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}}$$

7

Understanding the regression line

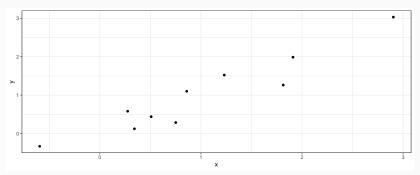
```
## # A tibble: 10 x 2
## cdbl> dbl>
## 10 .342 0.123
## 2 0.508 0.439
## 3 1.23 1.52
## 4 1.91 1.99
## 5 1.81 1.26
## 6 0.859 1.10
## 7 -0.596 -0.333
## 8 0.275 0.580
## 9 2.90 3.03
## 10 0.751 0.286
```

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = 0.05, \hat{\beta}_1 = 0.95$$

- Estimate Ŷ. Recall that $\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta_0} + \hat{\beta_1}X$
- Estimate ε . Recall that $\varepsilon = \mathbf{Y} \hat{\mathbf{Y}}$

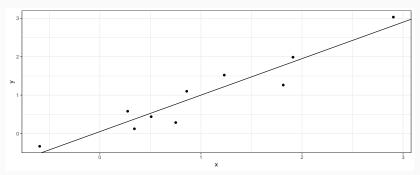
Understanding the regression line





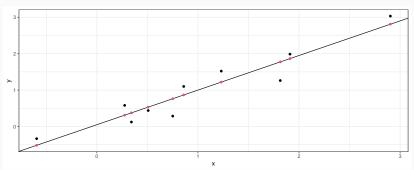
Understanding the regression line: adding the fit





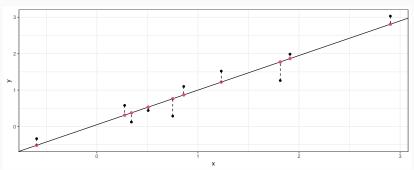
Understanding the regression line: adding \hat{y}





Understanding the regression line: adding ε





Goal of linear regression

1. Estimate causal relationships between some predictor variable \boldsymbol{x} and outcome variable \boldsymbol{y}

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- Estimate causal relationships between some predictor variable x and outcome variable y
- 2. Predict changes in some outcome variable *y* for changes in a system of predictors *X*

For estimates of β to be unbiased and consistent, the following assumptions must be met:

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- 4. Constant error variance (Homoskedasticity): $V(\varepsilon|X) = V(\varepsilon)$

Assumptions of a linear regression model (for prediction)

For predictions $\hat{y} = \beta X$ to be unbiased and consistent, the following assumptions must be met

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Guidance

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- 1. When you cannot meet the exogeneity assumption (unmeasured confounding, no randomization) or the linear independence assumption, you cannot interpret β as a causal estimate.
- 2. When you cannot meet the assumption of a linear model or constant error variance, you cannot make valid predictions

Ways to express an OLS model

As linear with Normal errors:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \cdots \varepsilon$$
$$\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

Ways to express an OLS model

As linear with Normal errors:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \cdots \varepsilon$$
$$\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

As Normal, with linear vector of means:

$$y \sim N(\beta X, \sigma^2)$$

Example: OLS for estimating causal effects

The Mark of a Criminal Record

```
### read and format Pager data
cr<-read_csv("https://raw.githubusercontent.com/f-edwards/intro_stats/master/data/criminalrecord.csv")</pre>
cr<-cr %>%
  mutate(
   race = case when(
      black==0 ~ "White",
      black==1 ~ "Black"),
    crimrec = as.logical(crimrec)) %>%
  select(callback, race, crimrec)
head(cr)
## # A tibble: 6 x 3
   callback race crimrec
        <dbl> <chr> <lgl>
##
           1 White TRUE
## 1
       0 White FALSE
## 2
          1 White FALSE
## 3
           1 White FALSE
## 4
           0 White TRUE
## 5
## 6
      0 White TRUF
```

The sample average treatment effect and its standard error

```
treatment<-cr %>%
  filter(crimrec==T) %>%
  group by(race) %>%
  summarise(xbar = sum(callback)/n().
            se = sd(callback)/sgrt(n()))
control<-cr %>%
  filter(crimrec==F) %>%
  group by(race) %>%
  summarise(xbar = sum(callback)/n(),
            se = sd(callback)/sgrt(n()))
SATE<-treatment %>%
  mutate(SATE = xbar - control$xbar,
         SATE se = sart(se^2 + control$se^2))
SATE
## # A tibble: 2 x 5
```

```
## # A tibble: 2 x 5
## race xbar se SATE SATE_se
## <chr> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <293
## 1 Black 0.0508 0.0157 -0.0899 0.0293
## 2 White 0.167 0.0305 -0.173 0.0494
```

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- 4. Constant error variance (Homoskedasticity): $V(\varepsilon|X) = V(\varepsilon)$ We can generally check this after estimation, but will be violated with binary outcome

Standard errors of β

If we assume that the errors are Normally distributed with constant variance: $\varepsilon \sim N(0,\sigma^2)$, then we can treat the standard error of β as the standard deviation of its sampling distribution.

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In other words: $\beta \sim \mathit{N}(\hat{\beta},\mathit{SE}^2_{\beta})$

The standard error of β is calculated as:

$$SE_{\beta} = \sqrt{\frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \varepsilon_{i}^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}}}$$

Using the central limit theorem to calculate confidence intervals, compute p-values

If the sampling distribution for β is defined as:

$$\beta \sim \mathit{N}(\hat{\beta},\mathit{SE}^{2}_{\beta})$$

Using the central limit theorem to calculate confidence intervals, compute p-values

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Then we can construct a CI for β with a critical value of α as:

$$\hat{\beta} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \times SE_{\beta}$$

Using the central limit theorem to calculate confidence intervals, compute p-values

If the sampling distribution for β is defined as:

$$\beta \sim \mathit{N}(\hat{\beta},\mathit{SE}^2_\beta)$$

Then we can construct a CI for β with a critical value of α as:

$$\hat{\beta} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \times SE_{\beta}$$

And conduct a z test for β by comparing against the null hypothesis:

$$H_0: \beta \sim N(0, SE_\beta^2)$$

Using OLS to estimate the SATE

```
cr ols<-lm(callback ~
            race*crimrec,
          data = cr)
summary(cr ols)
##
## Call ·
## lm(formula = callback ~ race * crimrec, data = cr)
##
## Residuals:
##
       Min
               10 Median
                                  30
                                         Max
## -0.34000 -0.16667 -0.14070 -0.05076 0.94924
##
## Coefficients:
##
                       Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)
                      0.14070 0.02529 5.565 3.76e-08 ***
## raceWhite
                      0.19930 0.03857 5.167 3.11e-07 ***
## crimrecTRUE -0.08994 0.03585 -2.509 0.0123 *
## raceWhite:crimrecTRUE -0.08339 0.05460 -1.527 0.1272
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.3567 on 692 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.07638, Adjusted R-squared: 0.07238
## F-statistic: 19.08 on 3 and 692 DF, p-value: 6.781e-12
```

Predicting outcomes from our OLS model

```
## # A tibble: 4 x 2
## race crimrec
## <chr> chr> <lg>
## 1 Black FALSE
## 2 Black TRUE
## 3 White FALSE
## 4 White TRUE
```

Predicting outcomes from our OLS model

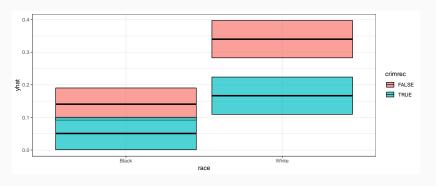
```
### generate predictions
vhat<-predict(cr ols,</pre>
              newdata = pred dat,
              interval = "confidence")
cr ols yhat <- as.data.frame(predict(cr ols,
                     newdata = pred_dat,
                     interval = "confidence"))
head(cr_ols_yhat)
##
            fit
                        lwr
                                    upr
## 1 0.14070352 0.0910575899 0.1903494
## 2 0.05076142 0.0008641203 0.1006587
## 3 0.34000000 0.2828173156 0.3971827
## 4 0.16666667 0.1094839823 0.2238494
### append these predictions to the prediction data
pred dat<-pred dat %>%
  mutate(yhat = cr ols yhat$fit,
         yhat_lwr = cr_ols_yhat$lwr,
        vhat upr = cr ols vhat$upr)
```

Check results

```
(pred dat)
## # A tibble: 4 x 5
##
   race crimrec
                 yhat yhat_lwr yhat_upr
## <chr> <lgl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 Black FALSE 0.141 0.0911 0.190
## 2 Black TRUE 0.0508 0.000864 0.101
## 3 White FALSE 0.340 0.283
                                0.397
## 4 White TRUE 0.167 0.109
                                  0.224
(treatment)
## # A tibble: 2 x 3
## race xbar se
## <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 Black 0.0508 0.0157
## 2 White 0.167 0.0305
(control)
## # A tibble: 2 x 3
   race xbar
  <chr> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 Black 0.141 0.0247
## 2 White 0.34 0.0388
```

Visualize results - with 95 percent confidence interval

```
ggplot(pred_dat,
    aes(x = race, y = yhat,
        ymin=yhat_lwr, ymax=yhat_upr,
    fill = crimrec)) +
geom_crossbar(alpha = 0.7)
```



1. Randomized controlled trial

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- "Natural experiments": Difference in differences, other matched-group methods (propensity scores, etc)
- 3. Instrumental variables
- 4. Regression discontinuity

OLS for prediction and description

Police and municipal budgets

 $budgets < -read.csv("https://raw.githubusercontent.com/f-edwards/intro_stats/master/data/police_spending.csv") \\ glimpse(budgets)$

Develop a theoretical model to predict police department budgets

Spending on police per capita = f(Property taxes + Crime + Segregation)

Develop a theoretical model to predict police department budgets

Spending on police per capita = f(Property taxes + Crime + Segregation)

Using an OLS model:

$$y \sim N(\beta X, \sigma^2)$$

Where:

$$\beta X = \hat{y}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{taxes}_i + \beta_2 \text{crime}_i + \beta_3 \text{segregation}_i$$

Estimate this model in R

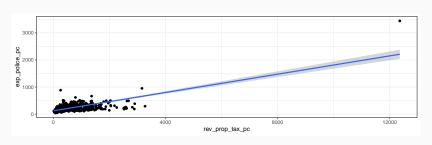
```
## # A tibble: 4 x 5
##
    term
                          estimate std.error statistic p.value
##
    <chr>
                            <dbl>
                                  <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 (Intercept)
                          116.
                                  10.6
                                             11.0 2.17e-25
                            0.168 0.00744 22.6 3.20e-78
## 2 rev_prop_tax_pc
## 3 violent.crime.highTRUE
                                        0.598 5.50e- 1
                            6.60
                                  11.0
## 4 segregation.bw.highTRUE
                            6.85
                                  11.2
                                              0.613 5.40e- 1
```

Check the model assumptions

 A linear model is a reasonable approximation of the data generating process

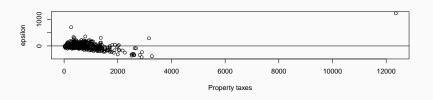
Q: Is police spending a linear function of property taxes?

```
ggplot(budgets,
    aes(x = rev_prop_tax_pc,
    y = exp_police_pc)) +
geom_point() +
geom_smooth(method = "lm")
```



Check the model assumptions

2. Constant error variance (Homoskedasticity): $V(\varepsilon|X) = V(\varepsilon)$



Revise the model!

Model assumptions

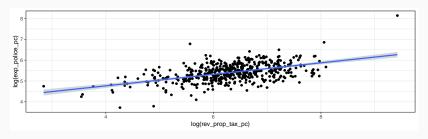
1. A linear model is a reasonable approximation of the data generating process. Not really! Let's try a logarithm of these rate per capita variables

Model assumptions

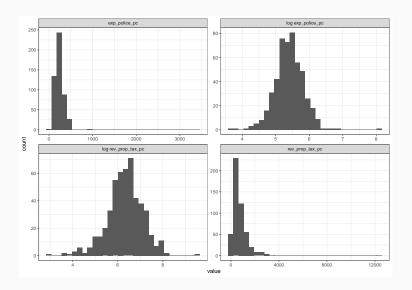
 A linear model is a reasonable approximation of the data generating process. Not really! Let's try a logarithm of these rate per capita variables

Q: Is police spending a linear function of property taxes after log transformation?

```
ggplot(budgets,
    aes(x = log(rev_prop_tax_pc),
    y = log(exp_police_pc))) +
geom_point() +
geom_smooth(method = "lm")
```



Log transformations



Fit a new model

term

<chr>

1 (Intercept)

2 log(rev_prop_tax_pc)

3 violent.crime.highTRUE

4 segregation.bw.highTRUE

estimate std.error statistic p.value

0.0187 0.0334 0.559 5.76e- 1

<dbl>

0.134 27.3 4.89e-101

<fdb>>

3.87e- 32

1.96 5.07e- 2

<dbl>

0.270 0.0213 12.7

0.0337

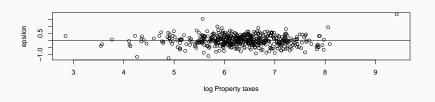
<dbl>

0.0661

3.66

Check the model assumptions

2. Constant error variance (Homoskedasticity): $V(\varepsilon|X) = V(\varepsilon)$



Interpreting the model (descriptive)

```
tidy(budgets_m2)
```

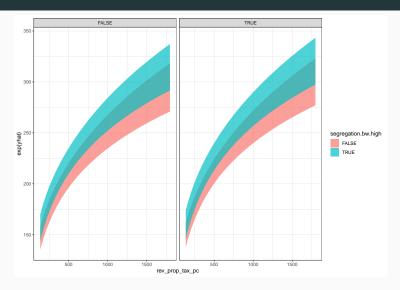
```
## # A tibble: 4 x 5
                          estimate std.error statistic p.value
##
    term
##
    <chr>>
                            < fdh1 >
                                     < dh1 >
                                                < fdh>>
                                                         <fdh>>
## 1 (Intercept)
                                     0.134
                                              27.3 4.89e-101
                            3.66
                                                     3.87e- 32
## 2 log(rev_prop_tax_pc) 0.270 0.0213 12.7
                            0.0187 0.0334 0.559 5.76e- 1
## 3 violent.crime.highTRUE
## 4 segregation.bw.highTRUE
                            0.0661
                                     0.0337
                                               1.96 5.07e- 2
```

We predict that for counties in this sample with similar levels of property taxes, high segregation counties generally spend more on police than do low segregation counties: 95% CI: $e^{\hat{\beta}\pm z_{\alpha/2}\times SE_{\beta}}=[0, 0.14]$

Interpreting the model using prediction (simulation)

```
## create possible values for prediction
rev_prop_tax_pc<-seq(from = quantile(budgets$rev_prop_tax_pc, 0.05),
              to = quantile(budgets$rev_prop_tax_pc, 0.95),
              length.out = 1000)
violent.crime.high<-c(T,F)
segregation.bw.high<-c(T,F)
## make all combinations possible
new_dat<-expand_grid(rev_prop_tax_pc, violent.crime.high, segregation.bw.high)</pre>
## calculate predictions
preds<-as.data.frame(predict(budgets m2.
                             newdata = new dat,
                             interval = "confidence"))
new_dat<-new_dat %>%
  mutate(yhat = preds$fit, yhat lwr = preds$lwr, yhat upr = preds$upr)
```

Interpreting the model using prediction (simulation). Police spending by property tax revenue, segregation, and violent crime levels (high = T,F)



 These results are not the causal effect of segregation or of property taxes! We've made no effort to address unmeasured confounders of property taxes, segregation, and police spending (there are many!)

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- In these cases, higher property taxes tend to mean higher police spending. Levels of spending tend to be higher in segregated counties.

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- Don't over-interpret β : focus on direction (+/-), magnitude (big, little), precision (noisy, consistent)

- Confidence intervals provide us with information about the precision of the estimated relationship
- Don't over-interpret β : focus on direction (+/-), magnitude (big, little), precision (noisy, consistent)
- Think about how predictors move together in the real data to constrain your predictions and make them more reasonable.
 Predictors are correlated!

Homework

- HW 11 is in the mother-wage-penalty folder, along with the data you need for the exercise
- · Please complete the course eval if you haven't