

# **GV300 - Quantitative Political Analysis**

University of Essex - Department of Government

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Lorenzo Crippa

Week 18 – 27 January, 2020

# What are we doing today?

Today's session:

1. Robust estimation and Generalized Least Squares (GLS)
2. Non-parametric tests

# **Robust estimation and Generalized Least Squares (GLS)**

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## The importance of constant variance for OLS

Remember vcov matrix, OLS estimates of parameters and S.E.:

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$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\hat{\mathbf{u}}'\hat{\mathbf{u}}}{N - K - 1}$$

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What if we have heteroscedasticity and/or serial correlation or autocorrelation?

## Some matrix algebra

Let's work on the vcov matrix:

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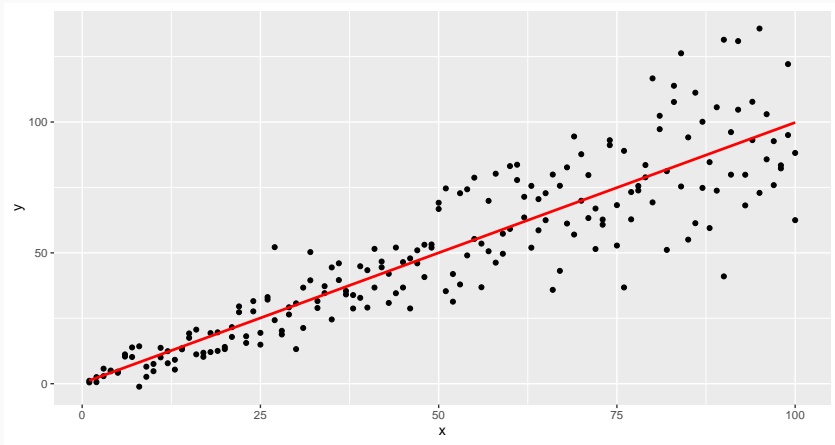
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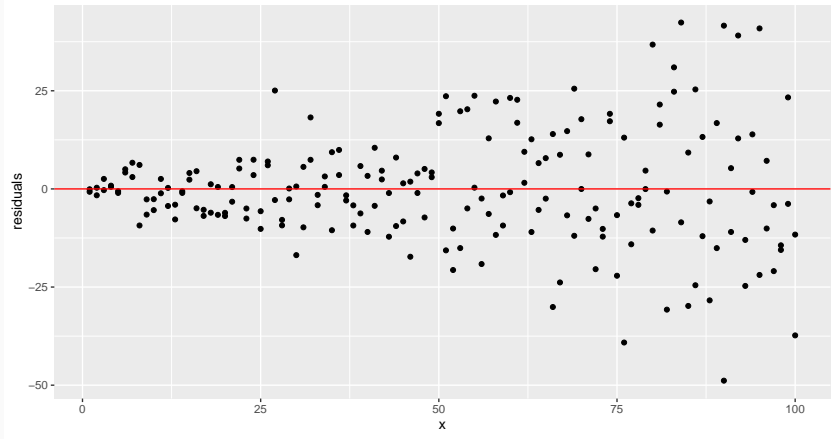
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Problem with heteroscedasticity: no constant error variance!

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- We can use **robust standard errors** to allow for such violation (while still assuming **no** serial correlation/autocorrelation)
- We **estimate** the covariance matrix  $\Sigma = E(\hat{\mathbf{u}}\hat{\mathbf{u}}'|\mathbf{X})$  using  $\hat{\Sigma}$

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{u}^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \hat{u}^2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \hat{u}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$



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- Your statistical software will multiply the squared residuals of each  $i$  by  $n/df = n/(n - k - 1)$  as a degree of freedom correction to have unbiased estimates
- The estimate of the variance of the OLS estimator becomes

$$\widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{n}{df}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\hat{\Sigma}\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

- This robust variance estimator is called **Sandwich estimator** giving us **White-Huber standard errors**

Using R today we will:

1. Compute OLS and estimates of the S.E. using `lm()` and matrix algebra
2. Represent heteroscedasticity
3. Compute White-robust estimators for S.E. using `vcovHC()`, matrix algebra and `lm_robust()`
4. Perform a Breusch-Pagan test on heteroscedasticity

## Robust estimation in R

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We are not doing it in Stata today, cause matrix algebra is definitely less handy. . . Equivalent commands exist, yet:

- To estimate robust standard errors: `reg ..., robust`
- To perform a Breusch-Pagan test: `estat hettest`
- To visualise heteroscedasticity after a regression: `rvfplot`

## Serial correlation (time, space, both)

Now, serial correlation:

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- With  $i \neq j$ ,

$$E[u_{(i)g}, u_{(j)g'}] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } g = g' \\ \sigma_{(ij)g} & \text{if } g \neq g' \end{cases}$$

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$$\text{Var}(\mathbf{b}|\mathbf{X}) = E [(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\Sigma\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}]$$

- with  $\Sigma$  given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{(11)1}^2 & \dots & \sigma_{(1N_1)1}^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_{(N_11)1}^2 & \dots & \sigma_{(N_1N_1)1}^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \sigma_{(11)2}^2 & \dots & \sigma_{(1N_2)2}^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \sigma_{(N_21)2}^2 & \dots & \sigma_{(N_2N_2)1}^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \sigma_{(11)G}^2 & \dots & \sigma_{(1N_G)G}^2 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \sigma_{(N_G1)G}^2 & \dots & \sigma_{(N_GN_G)G}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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What to do? We need an estimator for the variance that accounts for clustering:

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or  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_g' \hat{\mathbf{u}}_g / N_g$  where the numerator is SSR for all observations within each cluster.



We can do even better:

- **Robust standard errors** use a robust covariance matrix.  
Keep the coefficient estimate but adjust **standard errors** to account for the violation of the assumption of i.i.d. → we get a conservative estimate!
- **Generalized least squares** proceed in two stages. First estimate the covariance matrix (stage 1) and then adjust coefficients (stage 2) → GLS may be more efficient

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- One common choice is to use the inverse of the OLS residuals (stage 1) as  $\mathbf{W}$  for WLS (stage 2). In this case we have Feasible Last Squares (FGLS)
- See an example in R

## Take away points

1. **Always use robust standard errors!!!**
2. Consider whether your observations are clustered in a meaningful way, if yes, use clustered standard errors
3. Consider GLS as further robustness check on your estimation but (1) and (2) are mostly good enough.
4. R and Stata feature plenty of ways to implement robust and clustered standard errors; know how they work.

# Non-parametric tests

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- There are alternatives to the t-test and F-test
- Choose your test based on your problem, and not the other way around
- Do not stick to parametric tests if your problem requires you to do otherwise

## Pick an appropriate (non-parametric) test

1. Intro to non-parametric tests
2. Success probability: binomial test
3. Tests of differences between groups – paired from one-sample and independent from two-sample
  - Fisher sign test and Wilcoxon sign-rank test
  - Comparing success probabilities: Fisher's exact test

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- Have test statistics that are distributed normally when  $N$  is large

## When are non-parametric tests advantageous

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- We can often derive the exact distribution of the test statistic

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- Mostly no estimates of variance
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- Need more observations to draw a conclusion with same certainty i.e., less powerful as parametric alternative when assumptions for parametric tests are met
- **Yet** often differences are small, and parametric alternatives perform vastly worse when assumptions are not met

## Binomial test: Basics

- Observing outcome  $B$  of  $n$  independent repeated Bernoulli trials, can I say that success probability for each trial  $p = p_0$ ?  
 $P(p_0|B, n)$ ?



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- Assumptions:
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- $H_0 : p = p_0$
- Other tests/statistics below relate to the basic binomial test of significance
- Under assumptions 1-3, it is a distribution-free test of  $H_0$  because the probability distribution of  $B$  is determined without further assumptions on the distribution of the underlying population

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- Where  $b_{\alpha_2}$  is the upper  $\alpha_2$  percentile point and  $b_{\alpha_1}$  is the lower  $\alpha_1$  percentile point with  $\alpha = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$



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  - leaves 2.5% of the observations to the left of 1
  - leaves 2.5% of the observations to the right of 6
- We reject  $H_0 : p = .4$  if 6 or more successes are observed as well as if 1 or less successes are observed

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  - paired differences come from same continuous distribution
- Use when **direction** of difference between two measurements on same unit can be determined



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- Calculate the binomial coefficient  $B = \binom{N}{n^+}$ .  $B/2^N$  is the probability of getting **exactly** the amount of  $n^+$  and  $n^-$  under the null.
- To get a p-value, sum all binomial coefficients that are  $\leq B$  and divide by  $2^N$

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	+-----+
	income08 income12 D_i
	-----
1.	3 19 -16
2.	4 9 -5
3.	17 20 -3
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- Thus we have that the probability of getting exactly 7 positive differences is  $B/2^N = 6435/2^{15} = 0.19$
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- Statistical packages will then compute these for you

## Sign test: Small sample issues

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- Information taken from signs in difference between paired observations (pre- vs post-treatment)
- When actual difference pre- vs post-treatment is greater than 0, tendency to larger proportion of positive differences

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- Order **absolute values** of differences from smallest to largest
- Let  $S_i$  denote the rank of  $D_i$  in the joint ordering (assign average rank to ties)
- “Wilcoxon signed rank statistic”,  $W^+$ , is sum of positive signed ranks
- Under  $H_0 : \theta = 0$ ,  $W^+$  is distributed according to the distribution derived by Wilcoxon (1954)
- Reject  $H_0$  if  $W^+ \geq w_{\alpha/2}$  or  $W^+ \leq \frac{N(N+2)}{2} - w_{\alpha/2}$
- distribution of  $W$  is based on permutations of all possible rankings

## Wilcoxon sign-rank test: Example

$N = 15$

	income08	income12	D_i	absD_i	rank
1.	22	22	0	0	1
2.	20	21	-1	1	2.5
3.	20	21	-1	1	2.5
4.	14	16	-2	2	4.5
5.	15	17	-2	2	4.5
6.	16	13	3	3	6.5
7.	17	20	-3	3	6.5
8.	21	17	4	4	8.5
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- What is the smallest significance level at which these data lead to rejection of  $H_0$ ?
- Consulting statistical tables of  $W^+$  distribution, for our example we have  $N = 14$  and  $W^+ = 74.5$

# Critical values of $W^+$ for $N = 14$ . Hollander/Wolfe, p.576

.117	$n = 14$	66	.213	93
.102		67	.196	94
.088		68	.179	95
.076		69	.163	96
.065		70	.148	97
.055		71	.134	98
.046		72	.121	99
.039		73	.108	100
.032		74	.097	101
.026		75	.086	102
.021		76	.077	103
.017		77	.068	104
.013		78	.059	105
.010		79	.052	106
.008		80	.045	107
.006		81	.039	108
.005		82	.034	109
.003		83	.029	110
.002		84	.025	111
.002		85	.021	112
.001		86	.018	113
.001		87	.015	114
<.0005		88	.012	$n = 16$ 93
.207		89	.010	94
.188		90	.008	95
.170		91	.007	96
.153		92	.005	97
.137		93	.004	98
.122		94	.003	99
.108		95	.003	100
.095		96	.002	101
.084		97	.002	102
.073		98	.001	103
.064		99	.001	104
.055		100	.001	105
.047		101	<.0005	106
				107

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  - With  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $W^+ \sim N(0, 1)$
  - Adjustments for ties are needed
- Your statistical package will perform this test for you, but this is what happens under the surface

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When do we use it?

1. When we have two independent samples arranged in a contingency table
2. When in each sample we measure the frequency of success vs failure (Bernoulli)
3. When expected frequency of any success or failure is below 5. Otherwise use  $\chi^2$  test

## Fisher's exact test – Three cases

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3. Both row totals and column totals are fixed
  - The hypothesis tested is independence

## Fisher's exact test – Basics

1. indicate as  $O_{1S}$  the Successful outcome you observe from sample 1 (similarly you have  $O_{1F}$ ,  $O_{2S}$ ,  $O_{2F}$ ).
2. Indicate as  $n_1$ . ( $n_2$ .) the independent repeated Bernoulli trials from sample 1 (2), each one with success probability  $p_1$  ( $p_2$ )

We will have:

	Successes	Failures	Totals
Sample 1	$O_{1S}$	$O_{1F}$	$n_1$ .
Sample 2	$O_{2S}$	$O_{2F}$	$n_2$ .
Totals	$n_{.S}$	$n_{.F}$	$n$

$$H_0 : p_1 = p_2 = p$$

$$H_1 : p_1 \neq p_2$$

## Fisher's exact test – Procedure

- In effect the test asks “what is the probability of having a table as extreme as the one we observe, if the null hypothesis is true”?
- Hypergeometric distribution:
$$Prob(O_{1S} = x | n_{1.}, n_{2.}, n_{.S}, n_{.F}) = \frac{n_{1.}! n_{2.}! n_{.S}! n_{.F}!}{n! x! O_{1F}! O_{2S}! O_{2F}!}$$
- Fisher's exact test rejects  $H_0 : p_1 = p_2$  if your observed  $O_{1S} \geq q_\alpha$
- Where  $q_\alpha$  is chosen from the conditional distribution described above so that  $Prob(O_{1S} = q_\alpha | n_{1.}, n_{2.}, n_{.S}, n_{.F}) = \alpha$  where  $\alpha$  is our desired level of significance

## Fisher's exact test – Examples

Suppose you are curing two independent samples of patients, one gets an innovative drug and the other gets the traditional one. You measure success as cure, failure as not cure

	S (cured)	F (not cured)	Totals
S1 (new drug)	5	4	9
S2 (old drug)	4	2	6
Totals	9	6	15

- Assume horizontal and vertical totals are fixed
- $H_0 : p_1 < p_2$
- Under the null-hypothesis, what are the probabilities of the tables that would give us a value as small as or smaller than the observed value of  $O_{15} = 5$ ?

## Fisher's exact test – Example

Sample 1	3	6	4	5	5	4	6	3	7	2	8	1	9	0
Sample 2	6	0	5	1	4	2	3	3	2	4	1	5	0	6
p	.017		.151		.378		.336		.108		.011		.000	

- $H_0 : p_1 < p_2$
- Under the null-hypothesis, what are the probabilities of the tables that would give us a value as small as or smaller than the observed value of  $O_{15} = 5$ ?
- It will be  $p = .017 + .151 + .378 = .546$

## Fisher's exact test – Example

If (with the same horizontal and vertical totals) what we observe were:

	S (cured)	F (not cured)	Totals
S1 (new drug)	8	1	9
S2 (old drug)	1	5	6
Totals	9	6	15

The probability of having a table as extreme (or more) as the one you observe would be:  $p = 0.0107 + 0.0002 = 0.0109$  !

All clear? Questions?  
Thanks and see you next week!