GV300 - Quantitative Political Analysis

University of Essex - Department of Government

Lorenzo Crippa Week 11 – 9 December, 2019

1. (15 marks) Reviewing regression analysis basics: normal, t, χ^2 and F distributions. You will use your preferred statistical software for this exercise.

(a) (3 marks) generate a dataset with 2000 observations and create three variables each with values drawn from a standard normal distribution.

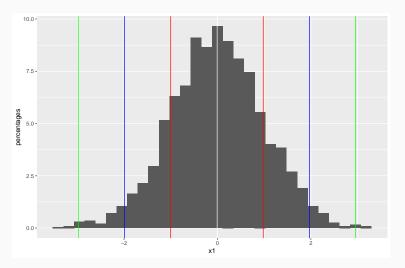
(a) (3 marks) generate a dataset with 2000 observations and create three variables each with values drawn from a standard normal distribution. For each variable show that roughly 68% of the observations are within 1 standard deviation of 0, 95% within two standard deviations of 0, and 99% are within 3 standard deviations of zero.

(a) (3 marks) generate a dataset with 2000 observations and create three variables each with values drawn from a standard normal distribution. For each variable show that roughly 68% of the observations are within 1 standard deviation of 0, 95% within two standard deviations of 0, and 99% are within 3 standard deviations of zero.

Show that roughly 68% of **your** observations are within 1 standard deviation of the mean, 95% within two standard deviations of the mean, and 99% are within 3 standard deviations.

(a) First determine (or represent) your three intervals.

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(a) Then use a percentile function.

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In Stata:

```
1 centile x1, centile(.5 2.5 16 84 97.5 99)
```

(a) Then use a percentile function. In R:

In Stata:

```
centile x1, centile(.5 2.5 16 84 97.5 99)
```

Output:

```
1 0.5% 2.5% 16% 84%

2 -2.7398407 -1.9486126 -0.9676747 0.9748144

3 97.5% 99%

5 1.8915366 2.2497764
```

(a) Then use a percentile function. In R:

```
quantile(df$x1, probs = c(.005, .025, .16, .84, .975, .99))
```

In Stata:

```
centile x1, centile(.5 2.5 16 84 97.5 99)
```

Output:

```
1 0.5% 2.5% 16% 84%

2 -2.7398407 -1.9486126 -0.9676747 0.9748144

3 97.5% 99%

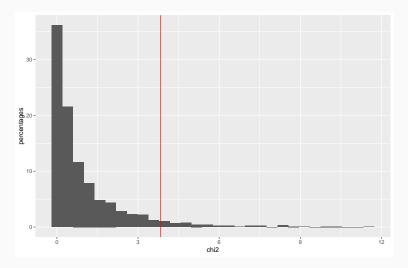
5 1.8915366 2.2497764
```

Repeat the same procedure for all variables

(b) (3 marks) Show that 95% of the observations of a $\chi^2[1]$ -distributed variable that you create are below the value that is associated with the 95th percentile of the $\chi^2[1]$ -distribution.

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(b) Distribution of a $\chi^2[1]$ -distributed variable:



(b) From tables we know that 95th percentile of a $\chi^2[1]$ distribution is 3.84

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In R:

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In R:

```
quantile(df$chi2, probs = .95)
```

(b) From tables we know that $95^{\rm th}$ percentile of a $\chi^2[1]$ distribution is 3.84 Again, we use a percentile function.

In R:

```
quantile(df$chi2, probs = .95)
```

In Stata:

```
1 centile chi2, centile (95)
```

(b) From tables we know that 95^{th} percentile of a $\chi^2[1]$ distribution is 3.84 Again, we use a percentile function.

In R:

```
quantile(df$chi2, probs = .95)
```

In Stata:

```
centile chi2, centile(95)
```

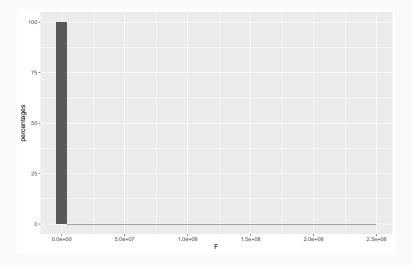
Output:

```
1 95%
```

2 3.764813

(c) (3 marks) Now, show that 95% of the observations of a F[1,1] distributed variable that you create are below the value that is associated with the .95-percentile of the F[1,1]-distribution.

(c) Distribution of an F[1,1]-distributed variable:



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In R:

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In R:

```
quantile(df$F, probs = .95)
```

(c) From tables we know that 95^{th} percentile of a F[1,1] distribution is 161.4 Again, we use a percentile function.

```
In R:
```

```
quantile(df$F, probs = .95)
```

In Stata:

```
centile F, centile (95)
```

(c) From tables we know that 95^{th} percentile of a F[1,1] distribution is 161.4 Again, we use a percentile function.

```
In R:
```

```
quantile(df$F, probs = .95)
```

In Stata:

```
centile F, centile (95)
```

Output:

```
1 95%
```

2 168.6171

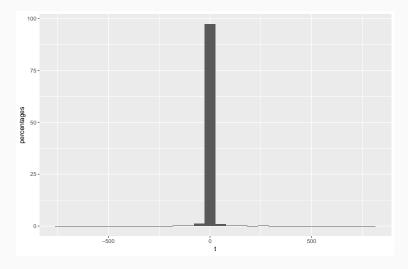
(d) (3 marks) Take one of the variables with a standard normal distribution from (a) and divide it by the square root of the $\chi^2[1]$ -distributed variable you created in (b).

(d) (3 marks) Take one of the variables with a standard normal distribution from (a) and divide it by the square root of the χ^2 [1]-distributed variable you created in (b). Show that 95% of the observations of that new variable are below the value that is associated with the .95-percentile of the t-distribution.

(d) (3 marks) Take one of the variables with a standard normal distribution from (a) and divide it by the square root of the χ^2 [1]-distributed variable you created in (b). Show that 95% of the observations of that new variable are below the value that is associated with the .95-percentile of the t-distribution. For what purpose do we usually compute a t-statistic in regression analysis and how is it computed?

(d) (3 marks) Take one of the variables with a standard normal distribution from (a) and divide it by the square root of the χ^2 [1]-distributed variable you created in (b). Show that 95% of the observations of that new variable are below the value that is associated with the .95-percentile of the t-distribution. For what purpose do we usually compute a t-statistic in regression analysis and how is it computed? How does the computation of the t-statistic in regression analysis link to how you computed the new variable here in exercise (d)?

(d) Distribution of a t[1]-distributed variable:



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In R:

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In R:

```
quantile(df$t, probs = .95)
```

(d) From tables we know that 95^{th} percentile of a t[1] distribution is 6.314 Again, we use a percentile function.

In R:

```
quantile(df$t, probs = .95)
```

In Stata:

```
centile t, centile (95)
```

(d) From tables we know that $95^{\rm th}$ percentile of a t[1] distribution is 6.314 Again, we use a percentile function.

In R:

```
quantile(df$t, probs = .95)
```

In Stata:

```
centile t, centile (95)
```

Output:

```
95%
```

2 7.136391

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We compute the t-statistic to conduct a hypothesis test about the size of the coefficient estimate.

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We compute the t-statistic to conduct a hypothesis test about the size of the coefficient estimate.

The t-statistic is computed from the ratio of coefficient estimate minus reference value (most often zero, regression outputs report a zero reference value by default) and standard error of the estimate.

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The t-statistic is computed from the ratio of coefficient estimate minus reference value (most often zero, regression outputs report a zero reference value by default) and standard error of the estimate.

The t-statistic is the ratio between OLS estimates (which have a standard normal distribution) and standard errors (squared roots of the variance, which has a χ^2 distribution)

(e) (3 marks) Plot all variables you created so far, that is, three variables with a standard normal distribution, one variable distributed $\chi^2[1]$, one variable distributed F[1,1], and one variable following the t-distribution.

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See previous graphs (histograms, but also densities ...)

 (24 marks) Linking conditional expectation function and linear regression function. Load the dataset baseball.csv. It gives you information on a series of MLB players on their height in inches (variable heightinches) and weight (weightpounds).

(a) Generate the expected value of height for each value of weight.

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In Stata:

```
1 tabstat heightinches, by(weightpounds)
```

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In Stata:

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1 tabstat heightinches, by(weightpounds)
```

Output:

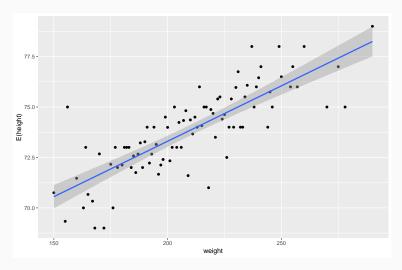
```
1 Group.1 x
2 1 150 70.75000
3 2 155 69.33333
4 3 156 75.00000
5 4 160 71.46667
6 5 163 70.00000
7 ... ...
```

(b) (3 marks) Regress expected height on weight and record coefficient and standard error of that coefficient associated with the weight-variable. Interpret the outcome of this regression in words.

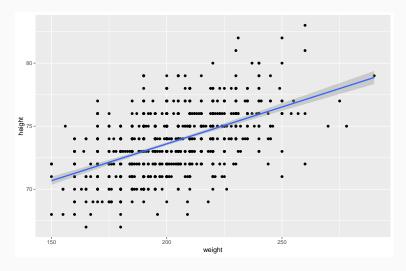
- (b) (3 marks) Regress expected height on weight and record coefficient and standard error of that coefficient associated with the weight-variable. Interpret the outcome of this regression in words.
- (c) (3 marks) Regress height on weight and record coefficient and standard error of that coefficient associated with the weight-variable. Interpret the outcome of this regression in words.

- (b) (3 marks) Regress expected height on weight and record coefficient and standard error of that coefficient associated with the weight-variable. Interpret the outcome of this regression in words.
- (c) (3 marks) Regress height on weight and record coefficient and standard error of that coefficient associated with the weight-variable. Interpret the outcome of this regression in words.
- (d) (3 marks) Compare coefficients and standard errors in (b) and (c). What do you see?

(b) Represent:



(c) Represent:



(b), (c), (d)

```
(b), (c), (d) In R:

1 mod1 <- lm(data = df, expected.height ~ weightpounds)
2 mod2 <- lm(data = data, heightinches ~ weightpounds)

3 stargazer(mod1, mod2,keep.stat = c("n", "adj.rsq", "f"
          ), type = "text")</pre>
```

```
(b), (c), (d) In R:

1 mod1 <- lm(data = df, expected.height ~ weightpounds)
2 mod2 <- lm(data = data, heightinches ~ weightpounds)

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          ), type = "text")</pre>
```

In Stata:

(b), (c), (d) Results:

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| | Dependent variable: | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|
| | E(height) | height |
| | (1) | (2) |
| weight | 0.055*** | 0.058*** |
| | (0.004) | (0.003) |
| Constant | 62.315*** | 61.913*** |
| | (0.918) | (0.588) |
| Observations | 89 | 1,033 |
| Adjusted R ² | 0.645 | 0.282 |
| F Statistic | 161.183*** (df = 1; 87) | 406.740*** (df = 1; 1031) |
| Note: | * | p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01 |

(e) (3 marks) Using the estimates of the regression of height on weight, what is the predicted height of someone who weights 225 pounds? If you do not know how to get a prediction out of your preferred statistical software, just compute by hand.

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 $height = 61.913 + 0.058weight = 61.913 + 0.058 \times 225 = 74.963$

(f) 3 marks) Using the estimates of the regression of height on weight, what is the predicted height of someone who weighs 270 pounds?

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$$E(height) = 62.315 + 0.055 weight = 62.315 + 0.055 \times 270 = 77.165$$

(g) (3 marks) Using the estimates of the regression of height on weight and if you know that So Taguchi put on 30 pounds over the winter, how much do you predict his height changed?

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It's a *ceteris paribus* question. Simply multiply the coefficient on weight by 30 to have the *marginal* change in height.

(g) (3 marks) Using the estimates of the regression of height on weight and if you know that So Taguchi put on 30 pounds over the winter, how much do you predict his height changed?

It's a *ceteris paribus* question. Simply multiply the coefficient on weight by 30 to have the *marginal* change in height. He should have grown by 1.74 inches.

(h) (3 marks) What do your answers to (e), (f), and (g) tell you about the interpretation of regression coefficients in general?

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It gives us a correlation, the direction of the effect is up to interpretation and not just the numbers.

3. (24 marks) Now, let's learn how to interpret all of the regression output more thoroughly. Input the data on campaign spending in a US Senatorial election below into your preferred statistical software:

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| District | Incumbent | Money | Vote Share |
|----------|---------------|-------|------------|
| 1 | Matt Salmon | 362 | 65 |
| 2 | Ed Pastor | 418 | 68 |
| 3 | Jim Kolbe | 712 | 52 |
| 4 | Bob Stump | 346 | 65 |
| 5 | John Shadegg | 426 | 69 |
| 6 | J.D. Hayworth | 1839 | 53 |
| | | | |

(a) (3 marks) Let's define the correlation between variablesMoney and Vote Share as

$$cor(M, V) = \frac{cov(M, V)}{\sigma_M \sigma_V}$$

where the covariance of M and V is given by $cov(M, V) = 1/n \sum_{i=1}^{n} (m_i - \overline{m})(v_i - \overline{v})$. Compute cor(M, V) by hand and show your computations. Interpret the result of

your computation. Are you surprised by the result? Why?

$$\overline{M} = 683.83 \ \overline{V} = 62$$

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$$cov(M, V) = \frac{1}{6}(((362 - \overline{M})(65 - \overline{V}) + (418 - \overline{M})(68 - \overline{V}) + (712 - \overline{M})(52 - \overline{V}) + (346 - \overline{M})(65 - \overline{V}) + (426 - \overline{M})(69 - \overline{V}) + (1839 - \overline{M})(53 - \overline{V})) = -2676.17$$

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$$\rho_{M,V} = \frac{-2676.17}{(581.39)(7.54)} = -0.61$$

There is a negative correlation between money and vote share in this senatorial election! That's interesting. Shouldn't we expect to see candidates who spend more money on their campaign get more votes?

(b) (8 marks) Using your preferred statistical software, run a linear regression of V on M.

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In R:

```
1 mod <- lm(data = data, vote.share ~ money)
2 summary(mod)</pre>
```

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In R:

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mod <- lm(data = data, vote.share ~ money)
summary(mod)</pre>
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In Stata:

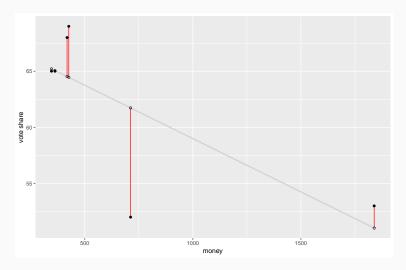
```
reg vote_share money
```

(b) Results:

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| | Dependent variable: | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|--|
| | vote.share | |
| money | -0.010* | |
| | (0.004) | |
| Constant | 68.497*** | |
| | (3.817) | |
| Observations | 6 | |
| | · · | |
| Adjusted R ² | 0.421 | |
| F Statistic | 4.642* (df = 1; 4) | |
| Note: | *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01 | |

(b) Plot:



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Both statistics are negative, that is, the indicate a negative relationship between M and V.

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You should be surprised, again, we would have expected that candidates who spend more money generate higher vote shares.

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You should be surprised, again, we would have expected that candidates who spend more money generate higher vote shares.

Those candidates who won in close races (vote share closer to 50) have to spend more on their campaign because a close race means a strong challenger they had to beat (and outspend).

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Those candidates who won in close races (vote share closer to 50) have to spend more on their campaign because a close race means a strong challenger they had to beat (and outspend). Expectations can thus reverse causality! Moreover, the sample might be very selected (6 observations)

(c) (3 marks) Can we reject the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between V and M?

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The p-value is .0975.

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The critical values of the t-distribution for $\alpha=.05$ for a two-sided test with 4 degrees of freedom are ± 2.78 .

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The p-value is .0975.

The critical values of the t-distribution for $\alpha=.05$ for a two-sided test with 4 degrees of freedom are ± 2.78 .

The computed t statistic in our sample is not larger than that critical value.

(d) (4 marks) Now, run a regression of V on the intercept only. Show your results. What does the coefficient estimate represent?

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 - Generate a new variable "m.low" which takes on value 1 if M < 500 and 0 otherwise. Run a regression of V on m.low.

(d) (4 marks) Now, run a regression of V on the intercept only. Show your results. What does the coefficient estimate represent?

Generate a new variable "m.low" which takes on value 1 if M < 500 and 0 otherwise. Run a regression of V on m.low. Compute the group-wise means of V of incumbents with low campaign spending vs those with high campaign spending from the regression results.

(d) (4 marks) Now, run a regression of V on the intercept only. Show your results. What does the coefficient estimate represent?

Generate a new variable "m.low" which takes on value 1 if M < 500 and 0 otherwise. Run a regression of V on m.low. Compute the group-wise means of V of incumbents with low campaign spending vs those with high campaign spending from the regression results. Show your computation.

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In R:

```
1 mod2 <- lm(data = data, vote.share ~ vote.share)
2 summary(mod2)
3 mean(data$vote.share)</pre>
```

(d) The coefficient simply represents the mean.

In R:

```
1 mod2 <- lm(data = data, vote.share ~ vote.share)
2 summary(mod2)
3 mean(data$vote.share)</pre>
```

In Stata:

```
1 reg vote_share
2 sum vote_share
```

(d) Ordinal variable.

(d) Ordinal variable.

In R:

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(d) Ordinal variable.

In Stata:

```
* ordinal variable
gen m_low = 1 * (money < 500)

* model
reg vote_share m_low

* group-wise mean
tabstat vote_share, by(m_low)</pre>
```

(e) (6 marks) Compute, by hand, the sum of squared residuals (SSR), the explained sum of squares (ESS), the total sum of squares (TSS), and R^2 for the regression of V on M.

$$TSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \overline{y})^2$$

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 $TSS = 284, \ ESS = 152.56, \ \text{and} \ SSR = 131.44.$

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 $TSS = 284, \; ESS = 152.56, \; \text{and} \; SSR = 131.44.$ $R^2 = \frac{ESS}{TSS} = \frac{152.56}{284} = .5372 \; (\text{or} \; 1 - SSR/TSS), \; \text{gives the explained variance.}$

- 4. (20 marks) Review how the ordinary least squares estimator is derived
 - (a) (10 marks) Derive the ordinary least squares estimator β_1 and its sampling distribution for the population model

$$y = b_0 + b_1 x + e.$$

Show every step of your derivation.

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(b) (10 marks) At which steps in your derivation did you make use of the six assumptions discussed in class (week 9 slides) and the text book? Clearly indicate where you made an assumption and explain in your own words what each assumption implies.

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On the whiteboard

- 5. (17 marks) Finally, let's see why it is hard to get a causal claim out of regression analysis:
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- 5. (17 marks) Finally, let's see why it is hard to get a causal claim out of regression analysis:
 - (a) (5 marks) Generate a 2000 observation dataset. Generate a variable "university" that equals 0 for the first 1000 observations and 1 for the second 1000 observations. This will represent half of the sample attending university. Generate a variable "income" which represents peoples' incomes. Let income = 15,000 + 5,000*university + 1,000*noise where "noise" is distributed standard normal.

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Regress income on university and show the regression output.

Obtaining variables and model

Obtaining variables and model In R:

Obtaining variables and model

Obtaining variables and model In Stata:

```
clear
clear
set obs 2000

gen university = 0 if _n <= 1000
replace university = 1 if _n > 1000

gen noise = rnormal()
gen income = 15000 + 5000 * university + 1000 * noise

reg income university
```

Results:

| | Dependent variable: |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| | income |
| university | 4,979.440*** |
| | (44.989) |
| Constant | 15,013.000*** |
| | (31.812) |
| Observations | 2,000 |
| | 2,000 |
| Adjusted R ² | 0.860 |
| F Statistic | 12,250.400*** (df = 1; 1998) |
| Note: | *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01 |

(a) What is the coefficient estimate on university?

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The effect of +1 university on income is +5000 because is what we start from in defining income itself. It is a causal effect because the 0-conditional mean assumption is met.

(b) (5 marks) We now further assume that education has **no** effect on earnings, but that smart people tend to both go to university and earn more money.

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Clear your dataset and generate a new 2000 observation dataset. Generate 2 variables with uniform distributions between 0 and 1, called "intelligence" and "luck." Generate a variable "university" which equals 1 if intelligence+luck>1 and 0 otherwise.

(b) (5 marks) We now further assume that education has no effect on earnings, but that smart people tend to both go to university and earn more money.

Clear your dataset and generate a new 2000 observation dataset. Generate 2 variables with uniform distributions between 0 and 1, called "intelligence" and "luck." Generate a variable "university" which equals 1 if intelligence+luck>1 and 0 otherwise.

Let income = 15,000 + 10,000*Intelligence + 1,000*noise where "noise" is distributed standard normal.

- (b) (5 marks) We now further assume that education has **no** effect on earnings, but that smart people tend to both go to university and earn more money.
 - Clear your dataset and generate a new 2000 observation dataset. Generate 2 variables with uniform distributions between 0 and 1, called "intelligence" and "luck." Generate a variable "university" which equals 1 if intelligence+luck>1 and 0 otherwise.
 - Let income = 15,000 + 10,000*Intelligence + 1,000*noise where "noise" is distributed standard normal.
 - Regress income on university. Show your the regression output. What's your coefficient estimate on university?

Obtaining variables and model

Obtaining variables and model In R:

```
1 df <- data.frame(
    intelligence = runif(2000),
 luck = runif(2000),
3
noise = rnorm(2000)
5)
6
7 df$university <- ifelse(df$intelligence+df$luck>1, 1,
      0)
8 df$income <- 15000 + 10000*df$intelligence + 1000*df$</pre>
     noise
9
10 mod <- lm(data = df, income ~ university)</pre>
11 summary (mod)
```

Obtaining variables and model

Obtaining variables and model In Stata:

```
clear
2 set obs 2000
3
4 gen intelligence = runiform()
5 gen luck = runiform()
6 gen noise = rnormal()
8 gen university = 1 * (intelligence + luck > 1)
9
10 gen income = 15000 + 10000 * intelligence + 1000 *
     noise
12 reg income university
```

Results:

| | Dependent variable: |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| | income |
| university | 3,391.231*** |
| | (117.015) |
| Constant | 18,331.420*** |
| | (82.990) |
| Observations | 2,000 |
| | 2,000 |
| Adjusted R ² | 0.296 |
| F Statistic | 839.902*** (df = 1; 1998) |
| Note: | *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01 |

(c) (7 marks) Are the two regressions above different conceptually (that is with respect to how the regression enables us to learn something about the world)? Are the two regressions above different mechanically (that is with respect to how we try to get at an unbiased estimate of the true effect of university on income)?

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- The second has university confounded by intelligence and luck. OVB because luck affects our estimate of the effect of university on wage through the error term. In this case, we do not know the DGP

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- The second has university confounded by intelligence and luck. OVB because luck affects our estimate of the effect of university on wage through the error term. In this case, we do not know the DGP
- 3. We should have modelled wages as function of intelligence and luck.
- Mechanically, in the second case we are trying to estimate a coefficient on university which is a compound of the effect of intelligence and luck.

Conclusion

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