#### Introduction to R Programming

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#### Outline

Regression with pooled cross-sections
 Basics
 DD estimator using Pooled CS

#### Pooled cross section: overview I

- Data obtained by pooling cross sections (PCS) are very useful for establishing trends and conducting policy analysis.
- A pooled cross section is available whenever a survey is repeated over time with new random samples obtained in each time period.
- Examples include the Current Population Survey (CPS) in USA and Household Labor Survey (Hanehalkı İşgücü Anketi) in Turkey.
- With a PCS, often a goal is to see how the mean value of a variable (fertility) has changed over time in ways that cannot be explained by observable variables (education).
- Ex.: Has the fertility rate changed in ways that cannot be explained by education?

#### Pooled cross section: overview II

- From a policy perspective, PCSs are at the foundation of *difference-in-differences* estimation.
- The typical DD setup is that data can be collected both before and after an intervention (or "treatment"), and there is (at least) one "control group" and (at least) one "treatment" group.
- Often the intervention is of a yes/no form. But other nonbinary treatments (such as class size) can be handled, too.

#### Application I

- IS the Change in women's fertility in the USA (1972-1984) can be explained by rise in education levels of women?
- How much of the fall in average fertility cannot be explained by changes in observed factors, including education? Here we require a PCS and look at coefficients on year dummies.
- How much of the overall fall in average fertility be explained by increases in average education?
- Before a full regression model let us go step by step and try to understand the underlying patterns. What is the trend for average number of kids over years?

#### Application II

```
f_url = "https://github.com/obakis/econ_data/raw/master/fertil1.rds"
download.file(url = f_url, destfile = "fertil1.rds", mode="wb")
dat = readRDS("fertil1.rds")
#with(dat, tapply(kids, year, FUN=summary))
aggregate(kids ~ vear. FUN=mean. data=dat)
##
     vear kids
## 1
      72 3.03
## 2
     74 3.21
## 3
     76 2.80
## 4 78 2.80
      80 2.82
## 5
## 6
     82 2,40
      84 2.24
## 7
```

• The average fertility rate fell by about 0.79, -0.79 = 2.24 - 3.03.

#### **Application III**

The same could be done through a regression as well.

```
reg1 = lm(kids ~year, data=dat) # this is probably not what we want
coeftest(reg1) # or maybe it is???
## Error in coeftest(reg1): could not find function "coeftest"
dat$year_f = factor(dat$year)
reg2 = lm(kids ~ year_f, data=dat) # this is probably a better way
coeftest(reg2) # You see a trend over time?
## Error in coeftest(reg2): could not find function "coeftest"
```

- Again we can say that the average fertility rate fell by about 0.79. But more importantly we have an idea about its significance. This is the benefit of regression compared to simple comparison of means!
- Education is an important determinant of fertility. Let us see how it changes over years

```
aggregate(educ ~ year, FUN=mean, data=dat)
```

### Application IV

```
##
     year educ
## 1
       72 12.2
## 2
       74 12.3
## 3
       76 12.2
## 4
       78 12.6
## 5
       80 12.9
## 6
       82 13.2
## 7
       84 13.3
reg3 = lm(educ ~ year_f, data=dat) # this is probably OK
coef(summary(reg3)) # You see a trend over time?
```

### Application V

```
##
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)
              12,1538
                           0.209 58.164 0.000000
## vear f74
             0.1467
                          0.288 0.509 0.610709
               0.0764
                          0.297 0.257 0.797296
## year f76
               0.4895
                          0.302 1.620 0.105495
## vear f78
## year f80
               0.7264
                          0.303 2.400 0.016566
## year f82
             1.0720
                           0.283 3.783 0.000163
## year f84
               1.1117
                           0.287
                                  3.879 0.000111
```

 Overall the increase in mean eduaction is 1.11 years. To see the effect of this increase on fertility we need to know the partial effect of education on fertility. For this we run the following regression

```
dat$year_f = factor(dat$year)
reg4 <- lm(kids~educ+age+agesq+black+east+northcen+west+year_f, data=dat)
coef(summary(reg4))</pre>
```

#### Application VI

```
##
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) -7.95228
                          3.05004 -2.607 9.25e-03
                       0.01803 -6.806 1.64e-11
## educ
              -0.12269
## age
               0.53904
                        0.13837 3.896 1.04e-04
## agesq
              -0.00588
                        0.00156 -3.762 1.78e-04
## black
               1.09095
                          0.17311
                                 6.302 4.22e-10
## east
               0.25290
                          0.12685 1.994 4.64e-02
## northcen
                          0.11853 3.250 1.19e-03
               0.38523
## west
               0.23257
                          0.16532 1.407 1.60e-01
## year_f74
           0.25608
                          0.17265 1.483 1.38e-01
## vear f76
              -0.10630
                          0.17857 -0.595 5.52e-01
## vear f78
              -0.07050
                          0.18136
                                   -0.389 6.98e-01
## year_f80
            -0.07855
                          0.18261
                                 -0.430 6.67e-01
## vear f82
           -0.53255
                          0.17230 -3.091 2.05e-03
## vear f84
              -0.54226
                          0.17436 -3.110 1.92e-03
```

#### Application VII

- Each additional year of education is estimated to reduce the number of children by about 0.123, on average.
- Compared to 1972, fertility fell by about 0.55 children in 1984. This is the drop that cannot be explained by the explanatory variables.
- Of the overall drop of about 0.79 children, the increase in education (1.11 years on average) accounts for about  $0.14 \approx 1.11 \times 0.123$  of that, or about 18%.
- In the previous estimation with the fertility data, we assumed the effect of education (and all other variables) was the same over time.
- We can easily allow the slopes to change over time by forming interactions and adding them to the model.

#### **Application VIII**

```
reg5 = lm(kids~educ+age+agesq+black+east+northcen+west+
           year_f+year_f:educ, data=dat)
coef(summary(reg5))
##
                Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)
                -8.61295
                            3.12654 -2.755 5.97e-03
                          0.05357 -0.458 6.47e-01
## educ
                -0.02456
## age
                          0.13894 3.706 2.21e-04
                0.51493
                          0.00157 -3.573 3.67e-04
## agesq
                -0.00561
## black
                 1.09031
                            0.17333 6.290 4.55e-10
## east
                 0.24805
                            0.12711 1.952 5.12e-02
## northcen
                 0.37446
                            0.11869
                                    3.155 1.65e-03
                 0.21657
                            0.16582
                                    1.306 1.92e-01
## west
## year f74
                 0.82860
                            0.90059
                                    0.920 3.58e-01
                            0.87799
                                    1.016 3.10e-01
## year f76
                 0.89183
## year_f78
                 1.71434
                           0.94992
                                    1.805 7.14e-02
## year f80
                            0.89447
                                    1.095 2.74e-01
                 0.97952
```

#### Application IX

#### Let us test year and education interaction terms:

#### library(car)

```
## Loading required package: carData
##
## Attaching package: 'car'
## The following object is masked from 'package:dplyr':
##
## recode
```

### Application X

```
linearHypothesis(reg5, matchCoefs(reg5, "educ:year"), vcov=hccm(reg5))
## Linear hypothesis test
##
## Hypothesis:
## educ:vear f74 = 0
## educ:vear f76 = 0
## educ:year_f78 = 0
## educ:year_f80 = 0
## educ:vear f82 = 0
## educ:vear f84 = 0
##
## Model 1: restricted model
## Model 2: kids ~ educ + age + agesq + black + east + northcen + west +
       year_f + year_f:educ
##
##
## Note: Coefficient covariance matrix supplied.
```

### Application XI

```
##
## Res.Df Df F Pr(>F)
## 1 1115
## 2 1109 6 1.02 0.41
```

Jointly insignificant, even though educ:year\_f84 and educ:year\_f82 are individually significant.

- Coefficient on, say, year\_f84 is the difference in fertility between 1984 and 1972 at educ = 0; not interesting.
- Effect of schooling in base year very close to zero.
- The joint test for all interactions with educ gives p-value = 0.41, so we cannot reject the null that the effect of education has been constant. But it seems fertility has become more sensitive to education in the last couple of years of the data (1982, 1984).

# Application XII

### DD with 2 groups and 2 time periods I

- Useful to study the data coming from a natural experiment (or a quasi-experiement). This is called natural experiment because
   ⇒ an exogenous event (usually a change in government policy) changes the conditions under which individuals / firms etc. operate.
  - ⇒ There are at least one control group (not affected by policy change) and one treatment group (affected by policy change).
- DD methodology is used widely to evaluate the consequences of natural experiments (or quasi-experiments). There are two key elements in natural experiments:

### DD with 2 groups and 2 time periods II

- Outcomes are observed for two groups over two time periods. One of the groups is exposed to a "treatment" (or intervention) in the second period but not in the first period. The second group is not exposed to the treatment during either period.
- In the textbook version where we have 2 groups and 2 time periods. As a result, treating one of groups and time periods as reference, we need at least two dummy variables: 1 for the other group and 1 for the other time period.
- Let A be the control group and B the treatment group. Let dT = 1 for a unit in B, and dT = 0 for a unit in A in both periods. Similarly, let d2 = 1 for a unit in the second time period and d2 = 0 for a unit in the first period for both states.

### DD with 2 groups and 2 time periods III

- Ex.: Remember the famous minimum wage example: Card and Krueger (1994) studied the increase in the minimum wage in New Jersey from 4.25 USD to 5.05 USD. This change took effect on April 1, 1992. The minimum wage in Pennsylvania remained at 4.25 USD throughout this period.
- Card and Krueger collected data on employment at fast food restaurants in New Jersey and Pennsylvania (the neighboring state) in February (before) and in November (after).
- Here New Jersey is the "treatment state" (B) and Pennsylvania is the "control state" (A). Without data from Pensylvania, we cannot control for aggregate changes over time that affect employment in both states.

#### DD with 2 groups and 2 time periods IV

A typical model would be:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 dT + \delta_0 d2 + \delta_1 d2 \cdot dT + u \tag{1}$$

where y is the outcome of interest. What was missing in previous regression is the specifity of the second period for treatment group!

	Before (1)	After (2)	After – Before
Control (A)	$eta_0$	$\beta_0 + \delta_0$	$\delta_0$
Treatment (B)	$\beta_0 + \beta_1$	$\beta_0 + \delta_0 + \beta_1 + \delta_1$	$\delta_0 + \delta_1$
Treatment – Control	$eta_1$	$\beta_1 + \delta_1$	$\delta_1$

We could, in principle, use the averages directly:

### DD with 2 groups and 2 time periods V

$$\begin{split} \hat{\delta}_{DD} &= \hat{\delta}_1 = (\bar{y}_{B,2} - \bar{y}_{B,1}) - (\bar{y}_{A,2} - \bar{y}_{A,1}) \\ &= (\bar{y}_{B,2} - \bar{y}_{A,2}) - (\bar{y}_{B,1} - \bar{y}_{A,1}) \end{split}$$

Explain why the following models are not useful for a DD analysis?

• Use only "after" data and estimate

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 dT + u \tag{2}$$

#### DD with 2 groups and 2 time periods VI

•  $\beta_1$  can be interpreted as the effect of minimum wage increase. BUT: Remember that  $\beta_1$  has a *ceteris paribus* / causal interpretation only when it is possible to keep other factors fixed so that  $\Delta u = 0$ . For this we need the **zero conditional mean** assumption

$$Cor(dT, u) = 0 \Rightarrow E(u|dT) = 0$$

All unobserved factors should be similar for NJ and PA, which is not likely.

Use only New Jersey data and estimate

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 d2 + u \tag{3}$$

#### DD with 2 groups and 2 time periods VII

•  $\beta_1$  can be interpreted as the effect of minimum wage increase. BUT: the **zero conditional mean** assumption in this case:

$$Cor(d2, u) = 0 \Rightarrow E(u|d2) = 0$$

For above to be a good estimate we need that nothing changes over time except the treatment / minimum wage increase. Any other change should not affect the employment level in NJ, again, which is not likely. In real life, many things are changing over time.

Use only both states and both periods and estimate

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 dT + \delta_0 d2 + u \tag{4}$$

## DD with 2 groups and 2 time periods VIII

- This regression allows us to know wheter B is different from A (in which period?) and wheter d2 is different from d1 (for which state?). What is missing?
- What is missing is "common (or parallel) trends assumption". We may
  assume that anything that is changing over time is common to both
  (control and treatment) states. Then only we can decompose total effect
  into "treatment effect" and "all other effects".
- We need to decompose the treatment and time effects!

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 dT + \delta_0 d2 + \delta_1 d2 \cdot dT + u \tag{5}$$

 While powerful, the basic DD approach can suffer from several problems.

### DD with 2 groups and 2 time periods IX

- First, there may be compositional effects. For example, when studying the
  effects of the intervention to reduce class size, it may be the case that the
  students in the two years are not comparable. Perhaps the smaller class
  sizes attracts new students to that district. This is the problem of
  compositional changes.
  - ⇒ Can control for changes in composition to some extent by including observed regressors as controls.

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 dT + \delta_0 d2 + \delta_1 d2 \cdot dT + \mathbf{x}\gamma + u$$

### DD with 2 groups and 2 time periods X

- Second, a potential problem with using only two periods is that the
  control and treatment groups may be trending at different rates having
  nothing to do with the intervention. There is a large literature on dealing
  with violation of parallel trends assumption.
  - ⇒ Only way to solve this problem is get another control group or more years of data.

#### Application I

#### Effect of a Garbage Incinerator's Location on Housing Prices

- the effect that a new garbage incinerator had on housing values in North Andover, Massachusetts. The rumor that a new incinerator would be built in North Andover began after 1978, and construction began in 1981.
- The incinerator was expected to be in operation soon after the start of construction. We will use data on prices of houses that sold in 1978 and another sample on those that sold in 1981.
- Year dummy is *y*81 it takes the value of 1 for year 1981 and 0 for ear 1978. We also define *nearinc* = 1 if a house is near the incinerator, more concertely if it is within three miles.

#### Application II

```
f_url = "https://github.com/obakis/econ_data/raw/master/kielmc.rds"
download.file(url = f_url, destfile = "kielmc.rds", mode="wb")
dat = readRDS("kielmc.rds")
xtabs(~vear.dat)
## year
## 1978 1981
## 179 142
aggregate(rprice~year, FUN=mean, data=dat)
    vear rprice
##
## 1 1978 76628
## 2 1981 92663
```

#### **Application III**

 We measure all housing prices in 1978 dollars, using the Boston housing price index. Let *rprice* denote the house price in real terms. A naive analyst would use only the 1981 data and estimate a very simple model:

$$rprice = \delta_0 + \delta_1 nearinc + u$$

#### **Application IV**

- Since this is a simple regression on a single dummy variable, the
  intercept is the average selling price for homes not near the incinerator,
  and the coefficient on nearinc is the difference in the average selling
  price between homes near the incinerator and those that are not. The
  estimate shows that the average selling price for the former group was
  30688 USD less than for the latter group.
- Unfortunately, the SRM above does not imply that the siting of the incinerator is causing the lower housing values. In fact, if we run the same regression for 1978 (before the incinerator was even rumored), we obtain

```
reg2 = lm(rprice ~ nearinc, data=subset(dat, year==1978))
coef(summary(reg2))
```

### Application V

```
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 82517 2654 31.09 1.24e-73
## nearing -18824 4745 -3.97 1.05e-04
```

- Therefore, even before there was any talk of an incinerator, the average value of a home near the site was 18824 USD less than the average value of a home not near the site. This is consistent with the view that the incinerator was built in an area with lower housing values.
- If so, we would expect a negative relationship found in the simple regression even if the new incinerator had no effect on housing prices.

### Application VI

• How, then, can we tell whether building a new incinerator depresses housing values? The key is to look at how the coefficient on *nearinc* changed between 1978 and 1981. The difference in average housing value was much larger in 1981 than in 1978 (30688 vs 18824), even as a percentage of the average value of homes not near the incinerator site. The difference in the two coefficients on nearinc is

$$\hat{\delta}_1 = 30688 - 18824 = 11864$$

#### Application VII

• This is our estimate of the effect of the incinerator on values of homes near the incinerator site. In empirical economics,  $\hat{\delta}_1$  has become known as the difference-in-differences estimator because it can be expressed as

$$\hat{\delta}_1 = (rp\bar{r}ice_{81,nr} - rp\bar{r}ice_{81,fr}) - (rp\bar{r}ice_{78,nr} - rp\bar{r}ice_{78,fr})$$

where *fr* means "farther away from the incinerator site" and *nr* means "near the incinerator site".

• An important question is whether this estimate is different from zero? For this, we need std. error of it. How can we compute a std. error for  $\hat{\delta}_1$ ?

#### **Application VIII**

Actually this can be obtained through the following model

$$rprice = \beta_0 + \delta_0 y81 + \beta_1 nearinc + \delta_1 nearinc \cdot y81 + u$$

Let us look at the meaning of all coefficients:

- The intercept,  $\beta_0$ , is the average price of a home not near the incinerator in 1978.
- The parameter  $\delta_0$  captures changes in all housing values in North Andover from 1978 to 1981.
- The coefficient on nearinc,  $\beta_1$ , measures the location effect that is not due to the presence of the incinerator: even in 1978, homes near the incinerator site sold for less than homes farther away from the site.

#### Application IX

• The parameter of interest is,  $\delta_1$ , the coefficient on the interaction term  $y81 \cdot nearinc$ . This measures the decline in housing values due to the new incinerator, provided we assume that houses both near and far from the site did not appreciate at different rates for other reasons.

```
#did <- lm(rprice ~ y81 + nearinc + nearinc:y81, data=kielmc)</pre>
did <- lm(rprice ~ nearinc*y81, data=dat)</pre>
coef(summary(did))
               Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept)
                                      30.26 1.71e-95
                  82517
                               2727
## nearing
                 -18824
                              4875 -3.86 1.37e-04
                  18790
                              4050 4.64 5.12e-06
## v81
## nearinc:y81
                 -11864
                               7457 -1.59 1.13e-01
```

## Application X

If desired, one can add other control variables in the same way as we
would for regular multiple regression model. The benefit in adding
more control variables is that this may control for the change in
average house attributes (quality, space etc.). Even if this does not
change that much, including house characteristics can greatly reduce
the error variance, which can then shrink the standard error of the
parameter of interest.

### Application XI

```
##
               Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)
               7.65e+00
                          4.16e-01 18.399 1.29e-51
## nearing
               3.22e-02
                          4.75e-02 0.679 4.98e-01
## v81
               1.62e-01
                          2.85e-02 5.687 2.99e-08
## age
              -8.36e-03
                          1.41e-03 -5.924 8.37e-09
## I(age^2)
               3.76e-05
                          8.67e-06 4.342 1.92e-05
## log(intst)
              -6.14e-02
                          3.15e-02 -1.950 5.21e-02
## log(land)
              9.98e-02
                          2.45e-02
                                    4.077 5.81e-05
## log(area)
             3.51e-01
                          5.15e-02
                                    6.813 4.98e-11
## rooms
               4.73e-02
                          1.73e-02
                                    2.732 6.66e-03
## baths
               9.43e-02
                          2.77e-02
                                    3,400 7,61e-04
## nearinc:v81 -1.32e-01
                          5.20e-02 -2.531 1.19e-02
```

#### Comparing both:

# Application XII

	Dependent variable:		
	rprice	log(rprice)	
	(1)	(2)	
nearinc	-18,824.000*** (4,875.000)	0.032 (0.047)	
y81	18,790.000*** (4,050.000)	0.162*** (0.028)	
age		-0.008*** (0.001)	
I(age^2)		0.00004*** (0.00001)	
log(intst)		-0.061* (0.032)	
log(land)		0.100*** (0.024)	
log(area)		0.351*** (0.051)	
rooms		0.047*** (0.017)	
baths		0.094*** (0.028)	
nearinc:y81	-11,864.000 (7,457.000)	-0.132** (0.052)	
Constant	82,517.000*** (2,727.000)	7.650*** (0.416)	
Observations	321	321	
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.166	0.724	

# Application XIII