# Lecture 2: Statistical Review and Couterfactual Framework

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## Today

- ► Statistical Review
- Counterfactual Framework
- ► Randomized Controlled Trials

Random Variable

- ► Random variable: one that takes on numerical values and has an outcome that is determined by and experiment
- ► Experiment: any procedure that can have, at least, in theory be infinitely repeated and has a well-defined sets of outcomes
- ▶ What characterizes a random variable is its probability distribution
- E.g. flip a coin

#### Expectation

- ▶ The expectation of a random variable Y:  $\mu_Y = E(Y)$
- ► Let the population size = *N*

$$E(Y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{J} y_i \cdot f(y_j)$$

- ightharpoonup Expectations is weighted average of all possible values that the variable  $Y_i$  can take on, with weights given by the probability these values appear in the population.
- Expectation (and other probability attributes) is a parameter

Sample Mean

- Use sample mean,  $\bar{Y}$ , to estimate the expectation
- For a given population, there is only one E(Y), while there are many  $\overline{Y}$ , depending on how we choose n and just who ends up in our sample

Unbiasedness

- Given a random sample,  $\bar{Y}$  is an unbiased for E(Y)
- $\triangleright$   $E(\bar{Y}) = E(Y)$
- In other words, if we were to draw infinitely many random samples, the average of the resulting  $\bar{Y}$  across draws would be the underlying population mean.

Consistency/Law of Large Number (LLN)

- ▶ Given a random sample,  $\bar{Y}$  is a consistent estimator for E(Y)
- ► The LLN tells us that in large samples, the sample average is likely to be very close to the corresponding population mean.

Variance and Standard Deviation

- ▶ In addition to expectations, we're interested in variability.
- ▶ Population variance:  $V(Y) = \sigma_Y^2 = E[(Y E[Y])^2]$
- ▶ Use sample variance to estimate population variance
- $S(Y)^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y \bar{Y})^2$
- ▶ Standard deviation,  $\sigma_Y$ , is the square root of  $\sigma_Y^2$

Sampling Variance

- $V(\bar{Y}) = \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n}$
- Variance of Y measures how much Y varies from person to person, while variance of  $\bar{Y}$  measures how much Y varies from one sample of size n to the next
- ► Having a low variance is a good property of an estimator (statistic)
- ▶ What if  $V(\bar{Y}) = 0$ ? You would always get the right answer

#### Standard Error

- ► The standard deviation of a sample statistic like sample mean is called its standard error
- ▶ The standard error of the sample mean:  $SE(\bar{Y}) = \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sqrt{n}}$
- **E**stimated standard error:  $\hat{SE}(\bar{Y}) = \frac{S(Y)}{\sqrt{n}}$
- ► Every estimate discussed in this class (sample mean, diff. in means, OLS, IV, RD, DD, etc.) has an associated standard error.

t Statistic

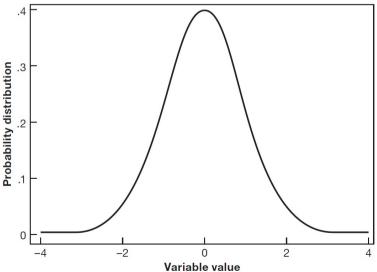
- $\blacktriangleright$  Suppose we believe the population mean,  $\textit{E}(\textit{\textbf{Y}})$ , takes on a particular value,  $\mu$
- ► This value constitutes a working hypothesis, a reference point that is often called the null hypothesis.
- A *t*-statistic for the sample mean under the working hypothesis that  $E[Y] = \mu$ :

$$t = \frac{\bar{Y} - \mu}{\hat{SE}(\bar{Y})}$$

As long as the sample is large enough, the sampling distribution of t is approximately a standard normal distribution

#### A Standard Normal Distribution

FIGURE 1.1
A standard normal distribution



Central Limit Theorem

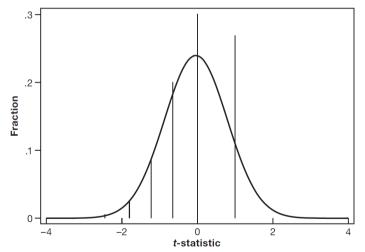
- ► This property, which applies regardless of whether *Y* itself is normally distributed, is called the Central Limit Theorem (CLT).
- ▶ It implies that the (large-sample) distribution of a *t*-statistic is independent of the distribution of the underlying data used to calculate it.

#### Central Limit Theorem

- ➤ Suppose we measure health status with a dummy variable distinguishing healthy people from sick and that 20% of the population is sick.
- ➤ The distribution of this dummy variable has two spikes, one of height 0.8 at the value 1 and one of height 0.2 at the value 0.
- ➤ The CLT tells us that with enough data, the distribution of the *t*-statistic is smooth and bell-shaped even though the distribution of the underlying data has only two values.

Central Limit Theorem

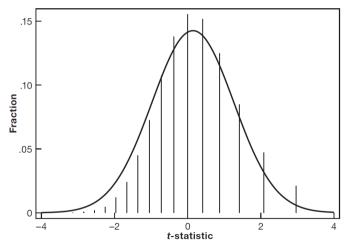
Figure 1.2 The distribution of the t-statistic for the mean in a sample of size 10



*Note*: This figure shows the distribution of the sample mean of a dummy variable that equals 1 with probability .8.

Central Limit Theorem

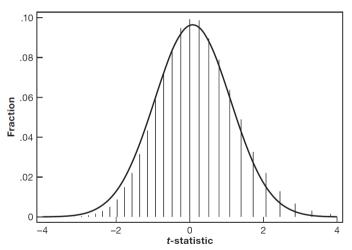
Figure 1.3 The distribution of the t-statistic for the mean in a sample of size 40



*Note:* This figure shows the distribution of the sample mean of a dummy variable that equals 1 with probability .8.

Central Limit Theorem

Figure 1.4 The distribution of the t-statistic for the mean in a sample of size 100



*Note:* This figure shows the distribution of the sample mean of a dummy variable that equals 1 with probability .8.

Hypothesis Testing

- lacktriangle With any standard normal variable, values larger than  $\pm 2$  are highly unlikely.
- ▶ In fact, realizations larger than 2 in absolute value appear only about 5% of the time.
- ▶ With a large sample, it's customary to judge any t-statistic larger than about 2 (in absolute value) as too unlikely to be consistent with the null hypothesis used to construct it.
- When the *t*-statistic exceeds 2 in absolute value, we say the sample mean is significantly different from  $\mu$  and we reject the null.

#### Confidence Interval

- Instead of checking whether the sample is consistent with a specific value of  $\mu$ , we can construct the set of all values of  $\mu$  that are consistent with the data.
- ▶ The set of such values is called a confidence interval for E[Y]
- ▶ When calculated in repeated samples, the following interval should contain E[Y] about 95% of the time.

$$[\bar{Y} - 2\hat{SE}(\bar{Y}), \bar{Y} + 2\hat{SE}(\bar{Y})]$$

- ▶ This interval is therefore said to be a 95% confidence interval for the population mean.
- ▶ If the realization of the interval does not contain  $\mu$ , we reject the null

Extensions to Multiple Variables

- ▶ Up to this point, we have only worked with one random variable at a time
- ► In econometrics, we'll be interested in the relationship among many variables

#### Extensions to Multiple Variables

▶ Joint density function:

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$$

Marginal density function:

$$f_X(x) = P(X = x) = \sum_{y=-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x,y)$$

Conditional density function:

$$f_{X|Y}(y|x) = \frac{f_{X,Y}(x,y)}{f_{X}(x)}$$

▶ Independence: independence means that two variables do not move together

$$X \coprod Y \text{ iff } f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x) \cdot f_Y(y)$$

#### Extensions to Multiple Variables

► Covariance: a measure of how two variables move together

$$Cov(X, Y) = E[(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))]$$

 Correlation: a scale-independent measure of how two variables move together

$$Corr(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{s.d.(X) \cdot s.d.(Y)}$$

► Covariance and correlation measure linear dependence

Extensions to Multiple Variables

Conditional Expectation:

$$E(Y|X) = \sum_{y=-\infty}^{\infty} y \cdot f(y|x)$$

- e.g. "How do wages for the college educated compare to the wages for the high school educated?" is a question about conditional means
- ▶ If X and Y are independent, E(Y|X) = E(Y)
- $\blacktriangleright \ E[f(X)|X] = f(X)$

Pairing Off

- ► Suppose you are interested in the earning difference between college graduates and high-school graduates
- Let  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_0$  represent the earning for college graduates and high-school graduates
- ightharpoonup You randomly draw  $n_1$  college graduates and  $n_0$  high-school graduates
- Estimate the earning difference using sample counterpart:

$$\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_0$$

Pairing Off

► Sampling variance:

$$\begin{split} \textit{Var}(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_0) &= \textit{Var}(\bar{Y}_1) + \textit{Var}(\bar{Y}_0) \\ &= \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{\textit{n}_1} + \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{\textit{n}_0} \\ &= \sigma_Y^2 [\frac{1}{\textit{n}_1} + \frac{1}{\textit{n}_0}] \end{split}$$

Standard error:

$$SE(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_0) = \sigma_Y \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_0}}$$

Estimated standard error:

$$SE(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_0) = S(Y)\sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_0}}$$

Pairing Off

t-statistic for the difference in means:

$$t = \frac{\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_0 - 0}{SE(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_0)}$$

- ▶ When the *t*-statistic is large enough to reject a difference of zero, we say the estimated difference is statistically significant.
- ► The confidence interval for a difference in means is the difference in sample means plus or minus two standard errors.

Pairing Off

- ▶ Bear in mind that *t*-statistics and confidence intervals have little to say about whether findings are substantively large or small.
- ➤ The fact that an estimated difference is not significantly different from zero need not imply that the relationship under investigation is small or unimportant.
- ► Lack of statistical significance often reflects lack of statistical precision, that is, high sampling variance.

- Suppose we are interested in the effects of college attendance (binary D) on earnings Y.
- ▶  $Y_0$ : earnings if D = 0,  $Y_1$ : earnings if D = 1
- $\triangleright$  Everyone in population has values  $\{D, Y_0, Y_1\}$
- ▶ Everyone has at least one of these missing (either  $Y_0$  or  $Y_1$ , but not both).

- ▶ Treatment effect for unit  $i = Y_{i1} Y_{i0}$
- ▶ Average treatment effect =  $E(Y_{i1} Y_{i0})$
- Average treatment effect on the treated  $= E(Y_{i1} Y_{i0}|D=1)$
- Average treatment effect on the untreated =  $E(Y_{i1} Y_{i0}|D=0)$

- $ATE = ATT \cdot P(D = 1) + ATUT \cdot P(D = 0)$
- ▶ Observed earnings,  $Y_i = Y_{i1} \cdot D_i + Y_{i0} \cdot (1 D_i)$
- ▶ OLS estimate for the slope of linear regression of *Y* on *D* converge to?

 OLS slope estimate converges to expected difference in observed outcomes

$$E(Y|D=1) - E(Y|D=0)$$

$$=E(Y_1|D=1) - E(Y_0|D=0)$$

$$=E(Y_1 - Y_0|D=1) + E(Y_0|D=1) - E(Y_0|D=0)$$

$$=E(Y_1 - Y_0|D=0) + E(Y_1|D=1) - E(Y_1|D=0)$$

Treatment Effect:

$$E(Y_1 - Y_0|D = 1)$$
 and  $E(Y_1 - Y_0|D = 0)$ 

Selection Bias:

$$E(Y_0|D=1) - E(Y_0|D=0)$$
 and  $E(Y_1|D=1) - E(Y_1|D=0)$ 



▶ Observed difference in outcomes is a combination of treatment effect and a selection bias.

#### Solutions

- ► Random Assignment
- Regression and Matching
- Instrumental Variables
- ► Regression Discontinuity
- ▶ Panel data, Difference-in-Differences, and Synthetic Control

#### Randomized Controlled Trials

- ▶ If individuals are randomly assigned into treatment, then  $D \coprod \{Y_0, Y_1\}$
- ▶ Random assignment eliminates selection bias:

$$E(Y_0|D=1) - E(Y_0|D=0) = E(Y_1|D=1) - E(Y_1|D=0) = 0$$

 $\blacktriangleright$  When the treatment is randomly assigned, ATT = ATUT = ATE.