

Lecture 1 In-Class Exercise Solutions

1. **Randomized controlled trials.** In a well-known study, Howell and Peterson (2006) evaluated the effects of a private school voucher in NYC from the School Choice Scholarships Foundation (SCSF). This program provided scholarships of up to \$1,400 for 1,300 children from low-income families to attend a private elementary school. There were more applicants to the program than vouchers, so a random lottery was used to award the scholarships. Ultimately, 1,300 families received the voucher and 960 didn't.

- (a) Let $D_i = 1$ if the student was offered a voucher and $D_i = 0$ if not. Suppose we wanted to estimate the simple population regression function below, where Y_i represents student achievement after three years of the program:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_i + u_i$$

Under what conditions does this PRF describe “differences in average potential outcomes for a well-defined population” (our criteria for causal interpretation)? Do those conditions hold here? How would you describe the relevant population? What is our *estimand* of interest (ATE, ATT, ATU, something else)?

In the population, $\beta_1 = E[Y(1)|D_i = 1] - E[Y(0)|D_i = 0]$. If the $D_i = 1$ and $D_i = 0$ groups have the same distribution of potential outcomes (e.g., $(Y_{1i}, Y_{0i}) \perp\!\!\!\perp D_i$) then this simplifies to $\beta_1 = E[Y(1) - Y(0)]$. If the randomization was successful, this condition should hold here—that is, mean potential outcomes for the treated and untreated groups should be the same. The relevant population is low-income families in NYC who applied for a private school voucher. (Note the population of applicants may differ from the general population of low-income families in NYC).

- (b) Read the following dataset from Github which contains a subsample of 521 African-American students who participated in the lottery:

```
use https://github.com/spcorcor18/LP0-8852/raw/main/data/nyvoucher.dta, clear
```

- (c) Use `ttest` and the simple regression model above to estimate the effects of the voucher (*voucher*) on student achievement after three years of the program (*post_ach*). Is the estimated effect statistically significant? Practically significant? (The outcome variable is a composite measure of reading and math achievement, expressed as a national percentile score).

See output below. Students offered the private school voucher scored 4.9 percentile points higher, on average, than students not offered the voucher. (Note the point estimate, standard error, t -statistic and p -value are the same in this case whether one uses a t -test or simple regression.) The difference is statistically significant ($p < 0.004$). To assess practical significance, it is useful to compare the magnitude of the difference (4.9 points) to the overall standard deviation in the outcome (19.2). This is an effect size of 0.255, a rather large effect size in education.

```
. ttest post_ach, by(voucher)
```

Two-sample t test with equal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	230	21.13043	1.198249	18.17234	18.76943	23.49144
1	291	26.02921	1.158	19.754	23.75006	28.30836
combined	521	23.8666	.841557	19.2089	22.21333	25.51987
diff		-4.898775	1.682719		-8.204552	-1.592998
diff = mean(0) - mean(1)				t = -2.9112		
Ho: diff = 0				degrees of freedom = 519		
Ha: diff < 0		Ha: diff != 0		Ha: diff > 0		
Pr(T < t) = 0.0019		Pr(T > t) = 0.0038		Pr(T > t) = 0.9981		

```
. reg post_ach voucher
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	521
Model	3082.89021	1	3082.89021	F(1, 519)	=	8.48
Residual	188787.589	519	363.752579	Prob > F	=	0.0038
Total	191870.479	520	368.98169	R-squared	=	0.0161
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0142
				Root MSE	=	19.072
post_ach	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
voucher	4.898775	1.682719	2.91	0.004	1.592998	8.204552
_cons	21.13043	1.25759	16.80	0.000	18.65984	23.60103

```
. summ post_ach
```

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
post_ach	521	23.8666	19.2089	18.17234	28.30836

```

post_ach |          521      23.8666      19.2089          0          89

. di 4.898775/19.2089
.25502632

```

- (d) Randomization (e.g., via lottery) in theory should prevent omitted variables bias. However, in finite samples, there may be *incidental* (chance) correlation between treatment assignment and other predictors of the outcome. The first step in the analysis of any RCT is to “check for balance” between the treated and untreated group on a host of baseline predictors. The only other variable in this dataset is a measure of baseline achievement, *pre_ach*. How does this measure differ between the treated and untreated group? (You can compare both means and other features of the distribution).

See output below. At *baseline*, students offered the voucher scored 1.17 percentile points higher than students not offered the voucher. The difference is not statistically significant, however ($p = 0.4698$) In larger samples, one would not expect to see a mean difference between these groups. However, in finite samples, there may be chance differences between them. It is good practice to compare more than just the means of the two groups. The code below includes an overlapping kernel densities for the voucher and no voucher groups (figure is not shown).

```
. ttest pre_ach, by(voucher)
```

Two-sample t test with equal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	230	19.51304	1.164686	17.66333	17.21817	21.80791
1	291	20.67869	1.097621	18.72401	18.51838	22.83901
combined	521	20.16411	.799776	18.25523	18.59292	21.7353
diff		-1.165651	1.611368		-4.331257	1.999956

```

diff = mean(0) - mean(1)
Ho: diff = 0
t = -0.7234
degrees of freedom = 519

```

```

Ha: diff < 0
Pr(T < t) = 0.2349
Ha: diff != 0
Pr(|T| > |t|) = 0.4698
Ha: diff > 0
Pr(T > t) = 0.7651

```

```
. twoway (kdensity pre_ach if voucher==1) (kdensity pre_ach if voucher==0)
```

- (e) Add the *pre_ach* measure to the regression function below (as X). What purpose does this serve? How does this additional covariate change your point estimate

for β_1 (if at all)? How does it change the standard error for β_1 (if at all)?

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_i + \beta_2 X_i + u_i$$

See results below. If the randomization was successful, inclusion of *pre_ach* as a covariate should have little effect on the point estimate of *voucher*. However, as noted above, in finite samples there can be incidental correlation between treatment status and the baseline covariates. Controlling for these can help “purge” any chance correlation. Inclusion of baseline covariates should also increase the *precision* of your estimator of the treatment effect. Note that the standard error fell from 1.68 (without covariates) to 1.27 (with the *pre_ach* control).

```
. reg post_ach voucher pre_ach
```

Source		SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	521
Model		84863.1705	2	42431.5852	F(2, 518)	=	205.40
Residual		107007.308	518	206.577815	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total		191870.479	520	368.98169	R-squared	=	0.4423
					Adj R-squared	=	0.4401
					Root MSE	=	14.373

post_ach		Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
voucher		4.097609	1.26873	3.23	0.001	1.60512 6.590097
pre_ach		.6873125	.0345439	19.90	0.000	.619449 .7551759
_cons		7.718877	1.162978	6.64	0.000	5.434143 10.00361

2. **Simulated data 1.** This problem will estimate population regression functions using data from a known population that we define ourselves. Draw a $N = 100$ random sample of three independent $N(0, 1)$ variables: x_1 , x_2 , and u . The relevant command in Stata is `drawnorm`. From these, generate two outcome variables: $y_1 = 10 + x_1 + u$ and $y_2 = 10 + x_1 + 2x_2 + u$. Note: if you want to be able to replicate work done with randomly generated values in Stata, put the `set seed #` command at the beginning of your do-file. You will then get the same set of random numbers every time you run your program.

```
clear
set seed 626
// random draws of x1 x2 u (independent, standard normal variables)
drawnorm x1 x2 u, n(100)
corr
```

```
// DGP for y1 and y2
gen y1 = 10 + x1 + u
gen y2 = 10 + x1 + 2*x2 + u
```

- (a) What is the population mean of y_1 , $E[y_1]$? What is the population variance of y_1 , $\sigma_{y_1}^2$? What is the conditional expectation function $E[y_1|x_1]$? Is it linear? What is the *conditional variance* of y_1 given x_1 ? Note: these questions can be answered without use of the data.

See the handout on Github for a refresher on the rules for expectation, variance, and covariance.

$$E[y_1] = E[10 + x_1 + u] = E[10] + E[x_1] + E[u] = 10 + 0 + 0 = 10$$

$$\sigma_{y_1}^2 = \text{Var}[x_1] + \text{Var}[u] = 2, \text{ since } x_1 \text{ and } u \text{ are independent.}$$

$$E[y_1|x_1] = 10 + x_1, \text{ a linear CEF.}$$

$$\text{Var}[y_1|x_1] = \text{Var}[u] = 1 \text{ (homoskedasticity—variance is unrelated to } x_1)$$

- (b) What is the population mean of y_2 , $E[y_2]$? What is the population variance of y_2 , $\sigma_{y_2}^2$? What is the conditional expectation function $E[y_2|x_1]$? Is it linear? Note: these questions can be answered without use of the data.

See the handout on Github for a refresher on the rules for expectation, variance, and covariance.

$$E[y_2] = E[10 + x_1 + (2 * x_2) + u] = E[10] + E[x_1] + 2 * E[x_2] + E[u] = 10 + 0 + 2 * 0 + 0 = 10$$

$$\sigma_{y_2}^2 = 1^2 \text{Var}[x_1] + 2^2 \text{Var}[x_2] + \text{Var}[u] + 2 * 1 * 2 * \text{Cov}[X1, X2] = 1 + 4 + 1 + 0 = 6, \text{ since } x_1 \text{ and } x_2 \text{ are independent.}$$

$$E[y_1|x_1] = 10 + x_1 + 2x_2, \text{ a linear CEF. Note that this CEF depends on the value of } x_2$$

- (c) Regress y_1 on x_1 (i.e., estimate the model $y_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1$ using OLS). Note the slope coefficient and its standard error. Do the intercept and slope equal the known population intercept and slope? Why or why not?

```
. reg y1 x1
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	100
Model	129.848833	1	129.848833	F(1, 98)	=	126.86
Residual	100.312116	98	1.02359302	Prob > F	=	0.0000
				R-squared	=	0.5642
				Adj R-squared	=	0.5597

Total | 230.16095 99 2.32485808 Root MSE = 1.0117

y1	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
x1	1.139554	.1011765	11.26	0.000	.9387729	1.340336
_cons	10.07918	.101691	99.12	0.000	9.877374	10.28098

Naturally, the estimated intercept and slope $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ differ from the known population values of 10 and 1 since they are estimated from a random sample.

- (d) Regress y_2 on x_1 (i.e., estimate the model $y_2 = \tilde{\gamma}_0 + \tilde{\gamma}_1 x_1$ using OLS). Note the slope coefficient and its standard error. If you are interested in an unbiased estimate of the slope on x_1 in the population regression function for y_1 , will your slope estimator suffer from omitted variables bias? Why or why not?

. reg y2 x1

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	100
Model	127.188444	1	127.188444	F(1, 98)	=	29.41
Residual	423.858659	98	4.32508836	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	551.047103	99	5.56613236	R-squared	=	0.2308
				Adj R-squared	=	0.2230
				Root MSE	=	2.0797

y2	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
x1	1.12782	.2079761	5.42	0.000	.7150983	1.540542
_cons	10.24087	.2090337	48.99	0.000	9.826046	10.65569

We know the population model for y_2 includes x_2 . A condition for omitted variables bias, however, is that $\text{Cov}(x_1, x_2) \neq 0$. In this case, we know these two variables are independent and thus uncorrelated in the population.

- (e) Now regress y_2 on x_1 and x_2 (i.e., estimate the model $y_2 = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 x_1 + \gamma_2 x_2$ using OLS). Why does $\hat{\gamma}_1$ differ from $\hat{\gamma}_1$, even though we know the population correlation between x_1 and x_2 is zero?

. reg y2 x1 x2

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	100
Model	455.239049	2	227.619525	F(2, 97)	=	230.45
				Prob > F	=	0.0000

Residual		95.8080541	97	.987711898	R-squared	=	0.8261
-----+-----					Adj R-squared	=	0.8225
Total		551.047103	99	5.56613236	Root MSE	=	.99384

y2		Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----						
x1		1.138324	.099389	11.45	0.000	.9410639 1.335583
x2		1.790231	.0982322	18.22	0.000	1.595267 1.985195
_cons		10.09614	.100208	100.75	0.000	9.89725 10.29502

The estimated coefficient on x_1 changes a bit when we add x_2 as a covariate. In the population there is no OVB since x_1 and x_2 are uncorrelated. We are working with sample data, however, and there may be chance correlation between x_1 and x_2 in the sample.

- (f) Compare the estimated standard errors on $\hat{\gamma}_1$ from part (d) and $\hat{\gamma}_1$ from part (e). How and why did it change?

The standard error dropped considerably, from 0.208 to 0.099, because we reduced variation in the error term. In part (d), x_2 remains in the error term and contributes to the variation in y_2 .

- (g) Now modify x_2 to purge it of any sample correlation with x_1 . Call this variable x_{2a} . Hint: you are looking for variation in x_2 that is orthogonal to (“not explained” by) x_1 .

```
reg x2 x1
predict x2a, resid
```

By construction, the residuals from a regression of x_2 on x_1 are uncorrelated with x_1 . We know that x_2 and x_1 are not correlated in the population, but there is a small amount of correlation between them in the sample. This step “purges” the tiny amount of correlation between the two.

- (h) Generate a new y_2 (call it y_{2a}) using x_{2a} in place of x_2 . Repeat parts (d) and (e). What changed, and why? Why does the standard error on $\hat{\gamma}_1$ change with the inclusion of x_{2a} , when we know x_{2a} is uncorrelated (by construction) with x_1 ?

```
. gen y2a = 10 + x1 + 2*x2a + u
. reg y2a x1
```

Source		SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	100
-----+-----					F(1, 98)	=	30.02

Model		129.848831	1	129.848831	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual		423.85866	98	4.32508837	R-squared	=	0.2345
-----					Adj R-squared	=	0.2267
Total		553.707491	99	5.59300496	Root MSE	=	2.0797

y2a	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
x1	1.139554	.2079761	5.48	0.000	.7268325	1.552276
_cons	10.07918	.2090337	48.22	0.000	9.664356	10.494

```
. reg y2a x1 x2a
```

Source		SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	100
-----					F(2, 97)	=	231.80
Model		457.899438	2	228.949719	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual		95.8080524	97	.987711881	R-squared	=	0.8270
-----					Adj R-squared	=	0.8234
Total		553.707491	99	5.59300496	Root MSE	=	.99384

y2a	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
x1	1.139554	.0993874	11.47	0.000	.942298	1.336811
x2a	1.790231	.0982322	18.22	0.000	1.595268	1.985195
_cons	10.07918	.0998928	100.90	0.000	9.880917	10.27744

Now the estimated coefficient on x_1 is identical, whether one controls for x_{2a} or not. The reason is that x_1 is now uncorrelated with x_{2a} . The standard error drops, again because we have reduced variation in the error term with the inclusion of x_{2a} .

- (i) Return to part (c). Compare the reported standard error for $\hat{\beta}_1$ to the *population* standard error for $\hat{\beta}_1$. Hint: you know the population σ^2 .

In a simple regression the population standard error for $\hat{\beta}_1$ is:

$$se(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u}{\sqrt{(n-1)\text{Var}(x)}}$$

Where σ_u is the square root of the error variance. The syntax below manually calculates the population standard error of $\hat{\beta}_1$ (0.10000369), which can be compared to the estimated standard error in the regression (0.1011765). These differ, since Stata is estimating σ using residuals. Note I used $\text{Var}(x)$ from the sample data here ($1.005^2 = 1.01$) rather than using the known $\text{Var}(x)$ of 1. This is taking the point of

view that x is fixed from sample to sample and the only random variation is in u . This is how the usual statistical assumptions are stated. An alternative approach would use the known $\text{Var}(x) = 1$.

```
. summ x1
```

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
x1	100	-.1013415	1.005001	-2.380183	2.706876

```
. local varx1 r(Var)
```

```
. local nobs r(N)
```

```
. display sqrt(1/((‘nobs’-1)*(‘varx1’)))
.10000369
```

```
.
. reg y1 x1
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	100
Model	129.848833	1	129.848833	F(1, 98)	=	126.86
Residual	100.312116	98	1.02359302	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	230.16095	99	2.32485808	R-squared	=	0.5642
				Adj R-squared	=	0.5597
				Root MSE	=	1.0117

y1	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
x1	1.139554	.1011765	11.26	0.000	.9387729 1.340336
_cons	10.07918	.101691	99.12	0.000	9.877374 10.28098

```
. display _se[x1]
.10117651
```

- (j) Start with an empty dataset and recreate your random variables x_1 , u , and y_1 , but this time draw a $N = 10,000$ random sample. Repeat part (i). Now how do your reported $\hat{\beta}_1$ and standard error for $\hat{\beta}_1$ compare to the population β_1 and standard error for $\hat{\beta}_1$?

```
. clear
```

```
. drawnorm x1 x2 u, n(10000)
(obs 10,000)
```

```
. gen y1 = 10 + x1 + u
```

```
. sum x1
```

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
x1	10,000	.011974	1.005396	-3.667296	3.615652

```
. local varx1 r(Var)
```

```
. local nobs r(N)
```

```
. display sqrt(1/((‘nobs’-1)*(‘varx1’)))
.00994683
```

```
. reg y x1
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	10,000
Model	10054.2942	1	10054.2942	F(1, 9998)	=	9908.03
Residual	10145.5918	9,998	1.01476214	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	20199.886	9,999	2.02019062	R-squared	=	0.4977
				Adj R-squared	=	0.4977
				Root MSE	=	1.0074

y1	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
x1	.9973795	.01002	99.54	0.000	.9777384 1.017021
_cons	10.00787	.0100743	993.41	0.000	9.988126 10.02762

```
. display _se[x1]
.01001998
```

Proportionally speaking, the estimated standard error is closer to the population standard error with the larger sample size.

3. **Simulated data 2** This problem is similar to #1, but we will assume x_1 and x_2 come from a *bivariate normal* distribution, so that we know x_1 and x_2 are correlated. The relevant command in Stata is `drawnorm`, but we need to specify a correlation matrix for the distribution (call this **C**). $\sigma_{x_1}^2$ and $\sigma_{x_2}^2$ will continue to be 1, but assume they have a correlation of 0.5. Continue to use $N = 100$. Create the outcome variable $y_2 = 10 + x_1 + 2x_2 + u$. See the syntax below for the `drawnorm` command and its correlation matrix.

```
clear
matrix C = (1, .5 , 0 \ .5, 1, 0 \ 0, 0, 1)
drawnorm x1 x2 u, n(100) corr(C)
corr
gen y2 = 10 + x1 + 2*x2 + u
```

- (a) What is the population variance of y_2 ? How does this compare with your answer in question #1 part (b)?

The population variance of y_2 is:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_{y_2}^2 &= 1^2\text{Var}[x_1] + 2^2\text{Var}[x_2] + \text{Var}[u] + (2 * 1 * 2)\text{Cov}[x_1, x_2] \\ &= 1 + 4 + 1 + 4(0.5) \\ &= 8\end{aligned}$$

This uses the fact that $\text{Corr}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(X, Y)/\text{sd}(X)\text{sd}(Y)$, and that we know the correlation between x_1 and x_2 is 0.5 and their respective standard deviations are 1.

- (b) For fun, use the user-written Stata command `tddens` to visualize the bivariate distribution of (x_1, x_2) as a “heat map”.

```
ssc install tddens
tddens x1 x2
```

- (c) Regress y_1 on x_1 . Note the slope coefficient and its standard error. If you are interested in an unbiased estimate of β_1 (the slope coefficient on x_1 in the population), does this regression suffer from omitted variables bias? Why or why not? If so, in what direction is the bias?

The simple regression of y_1 on x_1 is shown below. Unlike in question 1, we now know that x_1 and x_2 are correlated. If our interest is in an unbiased estimate of β_1 in the full model, we have omitted variables bias. We can use the omitted variables bias formula to think about the direction of bias: $\beta_s = \beta_\ell + \pi\gamma$. Here we know $\gamma > 1$ (from the population model) and $\pi > 1$ (since we know x_1 and x_2 are positively

correlated). So the short regression coefficient is biased upward. As expected, including x_2 as a covariate reduces the estimated coefficient on x_1 :

```
. reg y2 x1
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	100
Model	605.877978	1	605.877978	F(1, 98)	=	129.78
Residual	457.521779	98	4.66858958	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	1063.39976	99	10.7414117	R-squared	=	0.5698
				Adj R-squared	=	0.5654
				Root MSE	=	2.1607

y2	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
x1	2.155543	.1892156	11.39	0.000	1.780051	2.531036
_cons	9.898806	.2165912	45.70	0.000	9.468988	10.32862

(d) Now regress y_2 on x_1 and x_2 . What changed, and why?

As expected, including x_2 as a covariate reduces the estimated coefficient on x_1 (see part c):

```
. reg y2 x1 x2
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	100
Model	978.150139	2	489.07507	F(2, 97)	=	556.49
Residual	85.249617	97	.878862031	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	1063.39976	99	10.7414117	R-squared	=	0.9198
				Adj R-squared	=	0.9182
				Root MSE	=	.93748

y2	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
x1	.9126716	.1019149	8.96	0.000	.7103988	1.114944
x2	2.136519	.1038094	20.58	0.000	1.930486	2.342552
_cons	10.06019	.0943007	106.68	0.000	9.873029	10.24735

(e) Apply the “regression anatomy” formula. That is, show that $\hat{\beta}_2$ is equal to the slope coefficient from a simple regression of y_2 on \tilde{x}_2 , where \tilde{x}_2 is the residual from a regression of x_2 on x_1 . Equivalently, $\hat{\beta}_2 = Cov(y_1, \tilde{x}_2)/Var(\tilde{x}_2)$.

The code below shows this calculation. The first step is the “auxiliary” regression of x_2 on x_1 where the residuals are obtained.

```
. reg x2 x1
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	100
				F(1, 98)	=	53.03
Model	44.1276395	1	44.1276395	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual	81.5543213	98	.832186952	R-squared	=	0.3511
				Adj R-squared	=	0.3445
Total	125.681961	99	1.26951476	Root MSE	=	.91224

x2	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
x1	.5817274	.0798867	7.28	0.000	.4231948	.74026
_cons	-.0755356	.0914447	-0.83	0.411	-.2570046	.1059333

```
. predict uhat, resid
```

```
. reg y2 uhat
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	100
				F(1, 98)	=	52.79
Model	372.272159	1	372.272159	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual	691.127597	98	7.05232242	R-squared	=	0.3501
				Adj R-squared	=	0.3434
Total	1063.39976	99	10.7414117	Root MSE	=	2.6556

y2	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
uhat	2.136519	.2940645	7.27	0.000	1.552958	2.720081
_cons	10.07001	.2655621	37.92	0.000	9.543007	10.59701

Alternatively I show the Cov/Var version of this below (you get the same answer):

```
. corr y2 uhat, covar
(obs=100)
```

	y2	uhat
y2	10.7414	
uhat	1.76002	.823781

```
. local covyu 'r(cov_12)'
```

```
. summ uhat
```

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
uhat	100	4.98e-10	.9076238	-2.480034	1.866416

```
. local varu 'r(Var)'

. display 'covyu' / 'varu'
2.1365191
```

- (f) Demonstrate the omitted variables bias formula by showing the coefficient in the “short” regression (part b) is equal to the coefficient on x_1 in the “long” regression (part c) + the product of β_2 (the coefficient on x_2 in the “long” regression) and π (the coefficient from a regression of the omitted on the included).

The code below shows this. Note the scalars `_b[]` are one way of referencing estimated regression coefficients. These are temporary, so we store them as local macros.

```
. reg y2 x1 x2
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	100
				F(2, 97)	=	556.49
Model	978.150139	2	489.07507	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual	85.249617	97	.878862031	R-squared	=	0.9198
				Adj R-squared	=	0.9182
Total	1063.39976	99	10.7414117	Root MSE	=	.93748

y2	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
x1	.9126716	.1019149	8.96	0.000	.7103988 1.114944
x2	2.136519	.1038094	20.58	0.000	1.930486 2.342552
_cons	10.06019	.0943007	106.68	0.000	9.873029 10.24735

```
. local x1long = _b[x1]
```

```
. local x2long = _b[x2]
```

```
. reg y2 x1
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	100
				F(1, 98)	=	129.78
Model	605.877978	1	605.877978	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual	457.521779	98	4.66858958	R-squared	=	0.5698
				Adj R-squared	=	0.5654
Total	1063.39976	99	10.7414117	Root MSE	=	2.1607

y2	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
x1	2.155543	.1892156	11.39	0.000	1.780051 2.531036
_cons	9.898806	.2165912	45.70	0.000	9.468988 10.32862

```
-----
```

```
. local x1short = _b[x1]
```

```
. reg x2 x1
```

Source		SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	100
-----+-----					F(1, 98)	=	53.03
Model		44.1276395	1	44.1276395	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual		81.5543213	98	.832186952	R-squared	=	0.3511
-----+-----					Adj R-squared	=	0.3445
Total		125.681961	99	1.26951476	Root MSE	=	.91224

x2		Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----						
x1		.5817274	.0798867	7.28	0.000	.4231948 .74026
_cons		-.0755356	.0914447	-0.83	0.411	-.2570046 .1059333

```
-----
```

```
. local pi = _b[x1]
```

```
. display 'x1long'
```

```
.91267159
```

```
. display 'x2long'
```

```
2.1365192
```

```
. display 'pi'
```

```
.5817274
```

```
. display 'x1long' + ('x2long'*'pi')
```

```
2.1555433
```

```
. // compare to:
```

```
. display 'x1short'
```

```
2.1555433
```