

Outline

1. A Single Dummy in a Regression
2. Multiple Dummies for a Single Dimension in a Regression
3. Hypothesis Testing for Unidimensional Dummies
4. Example: *'Looking Good on Course Evaluations' part 2*
5. Review of Poisson Probability Distribution & Poisson Regression
6. Example: *Economic Model of Crime*

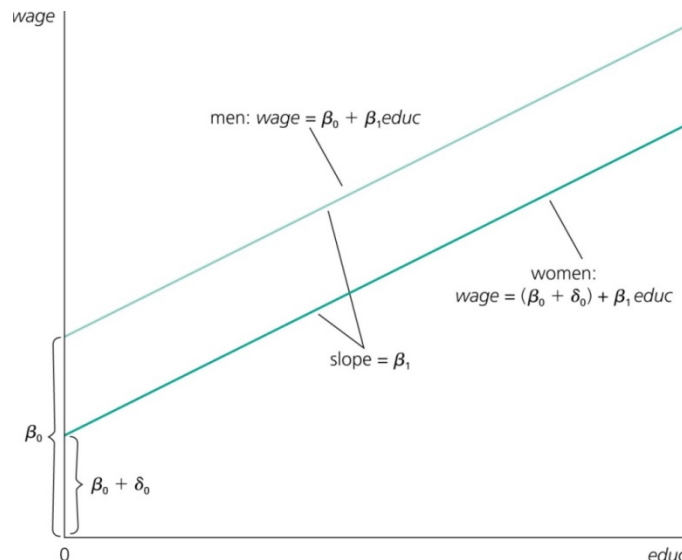
1. A Single Dummy in a Regression

Combined model: $wage = \beta_0 + \delta_0 \cdot female + \beta_1 educ + u$

men only: $wage = \beta_0 + \beta_1 educ + u$

women only: $wage = (\beta_0 + \delta_0) + \beta_1 educ + u$

Intercept shift interpretation: $E(wage \mid female=1, educ = 0) = \beta_0 + \delta_0$
 $E(wage \mid female=0, educ = 0) = \beta_0$



1. A Single Dummy in a Regression

Combined model: $wage = \beta_0 + \delta_0 \cdot female + \beta_1 educ + u$

men only: $wage = \beta_0 + \beta_1 educ + u$

women only: $wage = (\beta_0 + \delta_0) + \beta_1 educ + u$

Treatment effect interpretation: $\delta_0 = E(wage \mid female=1, educ) - E(wage \mid female=0, educ)$

1. A Single Dummy in a Regression

Example: *Gender and Wages* (Wooldridge Example 7.1; use **WAGE1.DTA**)

Practical effect of adding control variables:

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{wage} &= 7.10 - 2.51 \textit{female} \\ &\quad (.21) \quad (.30) \qquad \qquad \qquad [7.5] \\ n &= 526, R^2 = .116.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{wage} &= -1.57 - 1.81 \textit{female} + .572 \textit{educ} + 0.25 \textit{exper} + .141 \textit{tenure} \\ &\quad (.72) \quad (.26) \qquad \quad (.049) \qquad \quad (.012) \qquad \quad (.021) \qquad \qquad [7.4] \\ n &= 526, R^2 = .364.\end{aligned}$$

Adding education, experience and tenure helps avoid omitted variable bias – if women have lower values of these variables than men, on average. (Look back at equations for OVB; if *female* is negatively correlated to *educ*, *exper*, *tenure*, then ...)

Adding education, experience and tenure improves model fit and reduces standard errors, even after accounting for how correlation among indep. variables inflates standard errors.

1. A Single Dummy in a Regression – some comments

Note 1: 👍 regression analysis replaces ANOVA and ANCOVA for modeling control group versus experimental/treatment group(s)

Note 2: 🖐️ changing base/benchmark group (sign of t reverses)

Note 3: 🖐️ a ‘dummy’ variable with no theoretical meaning... e.g., American ‘exceptionalism’

Note 4: ☠️ Caution about endogenous treatment selection... e.g., challenger ‘quality’

2. Multiple Dummies for a Single Dimension in a Regression

Consider an *ordinal* explanatory variable...

e.g., cities' and local governments' credit ratings (0 = worst, ..., 4 = best) [p. 237–238, 5th ed.]

Option A. regress municipal bond ratings on a single variable ($CR \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$)...

$$MBR = \beta_0 + \beta_1 CR + \text{other factors}$$

... but this assumes the ratings equal-interval property is satisfied.

Option B. regress municipal bond ratings on four dummies:

$$MBR = \beta_0 + \delta_1 CR_1 + \delta_2 CR_2 + \delta_3 CR_3 + \delta_4 CR_4 + \text{other factors}.$$

If there were data available, then one could use an F test to compare model fit with 1 variable with k values (Option A) vs. $k-1$ dummies (Option B); refer back to Lecture on 'ANOVA for Regression Specifications'

2. Multiple Dummies for a Single Dimension in a Regression

Consider an *ordinal* explanatory variable...

e.g., how law students' starting salaries depending on rankings [Example 7.8, 239–40]:

$$\widehat{\log(\text{salary})} = 9.17 + .700 \text{ top10} + .594 \text{ r11_25} + .375 \text{ r26_40} \\
\begin{matrix} (.41) & (.053) & & (.039) & & (.034) \\ + .263 \text{ r41_60} + .132 \text{ r61_100} + .0057 \text{ LSAT} \\ (.028) & & (.021) & & (.0031) \end{matrix} \quad n = 136, R^2 = .911,$$

Use dataset [lawsch85.dta](#) and see R script: [Lecture 23A law students](#)

Use an F test to compare fit using 1 variable with 6 values vs. 5 dummies

$$df_r = 133 = 136 - 3 \quad (\text{constant, LSAT, one ordinal variable})$$

$$df_u = 129 = 136 - 7 \quad (\text{constant, LSAT, five binary variables})$$

$$q = df_r - df_u = 4$$

$$F = \frac{(R_u^2 - R_r^2) / 4}{(1 - R_u^2) / 129}$$

Don't forget the rule for interpreting marginal effects in a log-linear model: the *percentage* change in salary for group j , relative to baseline group, = $100 \cdot (e^{\delta_j} - 1)$

3. Hypothesis Testing for Unidimensional Dummies – Review [4.2]

Null hypothesis: $H_{0j} : \beta_j = 0$

Alternative hypothesis: $H_{1j} : \beta_j \neq 0$

Test statistic:
$$t = \frac{\widehat{\beta}_j}{se(\widehat{\beta}_j)}$$

The t statistic answers the question: How many **standard errors** separate the estimated coefficient ($\widehat{\beta}_j$) from the null hypothesis (0) for the coefficient?

Values of the t statistic sufficiently far from 0 result in a rejection of H_{0j} ;

our **rejection rule** is to reject H_{0j} if and only if $\left| t_{\widehat{\beta}_j} \right| > c$;

by convention, c is chosen to make areas above $+c$ and below $-c$ sum to .05

If H_{0j} is rejected at the 5% level, then we conventionally say “ x_j is statistically significant.”

3. Hypothesis Testing for Unidimensional Dummies – Review [4.2]

Null hypothesis: $H_{0j} : \beta_j = a_j$

Alternative hypothesis: $H_{1j} : \beta_j \neq a_j$

Test statistic:
$$t = \frac{(\text{estimate} - \text{hypothesized value})}{\text{standard error of estimate}} = \frac{(\widehat{\beta}_j - a_j)}{se(\widehat{\beta}_j)}$$

The t statistic answers the question: How many **standard errors** separate the estimated coefficient ($\widehat{\beta}_j$) from the null hypothesis (a_j) for the coefficient?

Values of the t statistic sufficiently far from 0 result in a rejection of H_{0j} ;

our **rejection rule** is to reject H_{0j} if and only if $|t_{\widehat{\beta}_j}| > c$;

by convention, c is chosen to make areas above $+c$ and below $-c$ sum to .05

If H_{0j} is rejected at the 5% level, then we conventionally say “ x_j is statistically significant.”

3. Hypothesis Testing for Unidimensional Dummies [4.4]

Null hypothesis: $H_0 : \beta_1 - \beta_2 = 0$ (equivalent to $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2$)

Alternative hypothesis: $H_1 : \beta_1 - \beta_2 \neq 0$ (equivalent to $H_1 : \beta_1 \neq \beta_2$)

Test statistic is
$$t = \frac{\text{difference of coefficients}}{\text{standard error of difference ...}} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2}{se(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)}$$

where $se(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2) = \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)} = \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1) + \widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_2) - 2\widehat{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)}$

$$= \sqrt{[\widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1) - \widehat{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)] + [\widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_2) - \widehat{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)]}$$

4. Example: 'Looking Good on Course Evaluations' part 2

<http://chance.amstat.org/2013/04/looking-good/>

Data: `eval.csv`

Script: `Lecture 23A evaluations.R`

Dependent variable is average evaluation of professor, `prof_eval` (0 – 5 scale; mean = 4.175)

Explanatory variable is average attractiveness `bty_avg` (range = 1.667 – 8.167; mean = 4.418)

“Level one” control variables:

- `age` (quantitative)
- `gender` (binary; *female* or *male*)
- `language` (binary; *English* or *non-English*)
- `ethnicity` (binary; *minority* or *not minority*)
- `rank` (qualitative; *teaching* and *tenure track* and *tenured*)

“Level two” variables:

- six different raters (three male, three female)
- thirty classes (`class1`, ..., `class30`)
- `cls_level` (binary; *lower* division or *upper* division)

4. Example: 'Looking Good on Course Evaluations' part 2

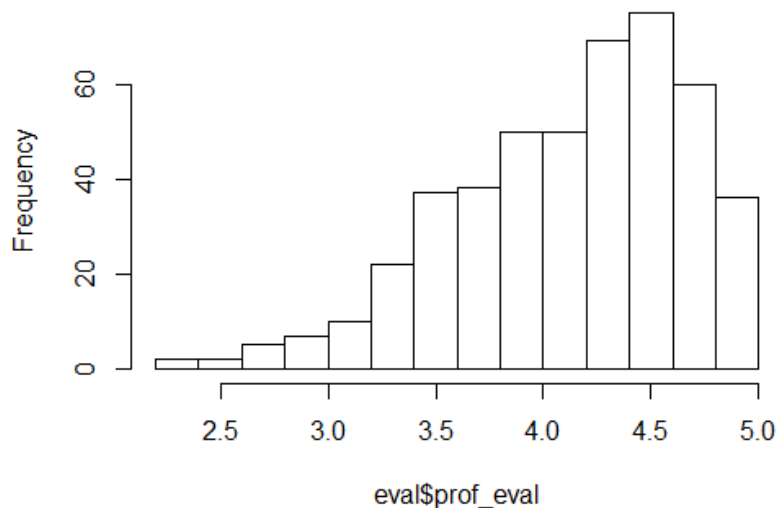
<http://chance.amstat.org/2013/04/looking-good/>

Data: **eval.csv**

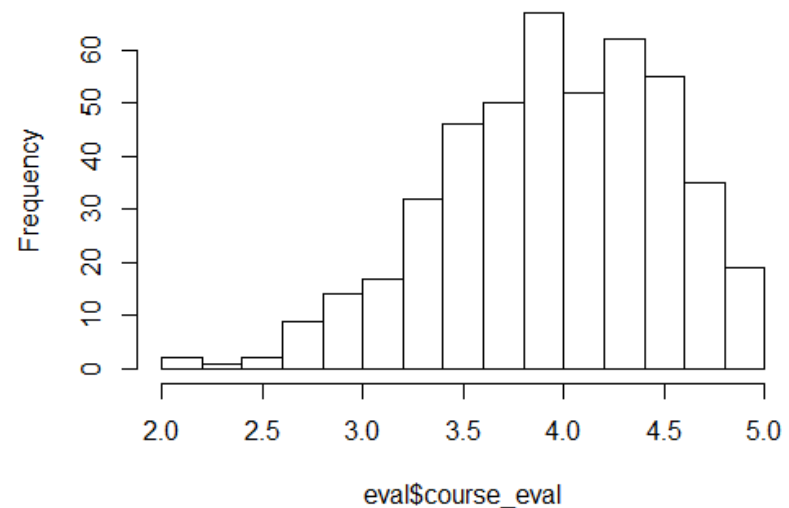
Script: **Lecture 23A evaluations.R**

Dependent variable is average evaluation of professor (0 – 5 scale; mean = 4.175)
[average evaluation of course (0 – 5 scale; mean = 3.998)]

Histogram of eval\$prof_eval



Histogram of eval\$course_eval



4. Example: 'Looking Good on Course Evaluations' part 2

Consider the effects of rank ("teaching" and "tenure track" and "tenured")

Dependent variable is average evaluation of professor (0 – 5 scale; mean = 4.175)

Without control for attractiveness ($R^2 = .0116$):

$$\widehat{prof_eval} = 4.2843 - .1452 \textit{tenured} - .1297 \textit{tenure track} \\ (.0537) \quad (.0636) \quad (.0748)$$

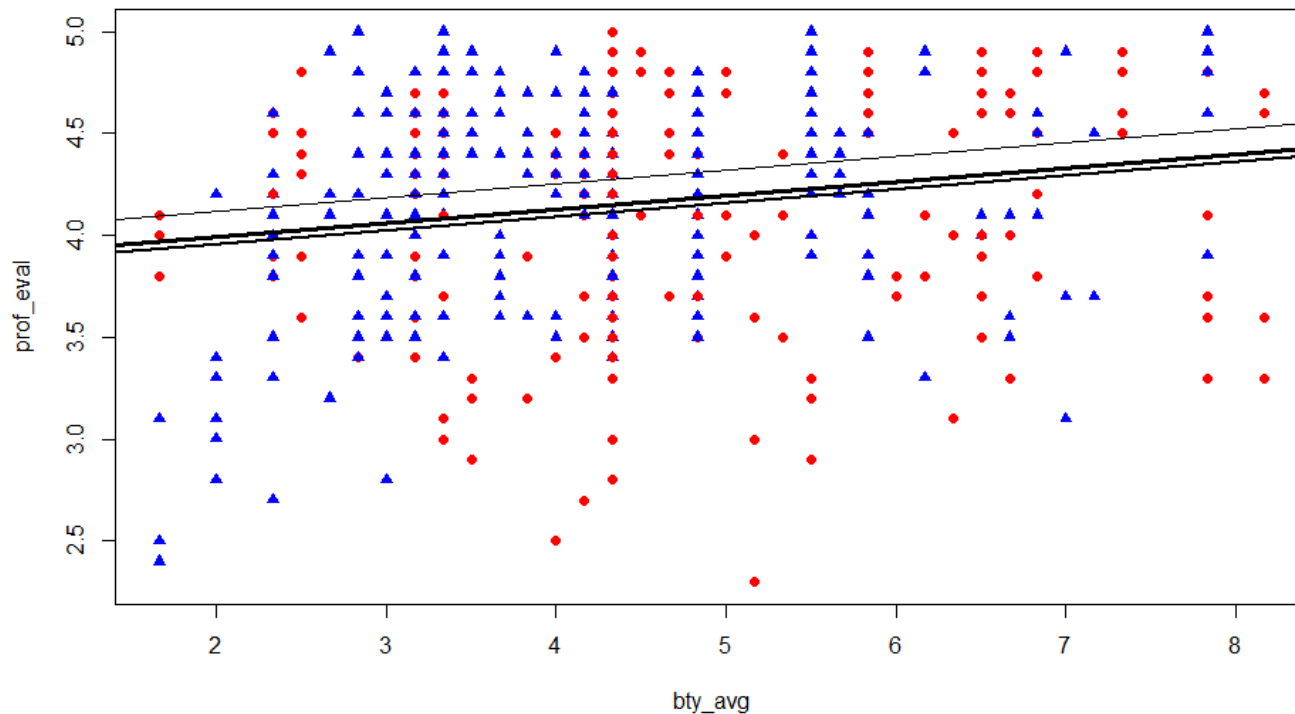
With a control for attractiveness ($R^2 = .0465$):

$$\widehat{prof_eval} = 3.9816 - .1262 \textit{tenured} - .1607 \textit{tenure track} + .0678 \textit{bty_avg} \\ (.0908) \quad (.0627) \quad (.0740) \quad (.0166)$$

4. Example: 'Looking Good on Course Evaluations' part 2

Consider the effects of rank ("teaching" and "tenure track" and "tenured")

Dependent variable is average evaluation of professor (0 – 5 scale; mean = 4.175)



4. Example: 'Looking Good on Course Evaluations' part 2

Consider the effects of rank (“teaching” and “tenure track” and “tenured”)

Null hypotheses: $H_{0A} : \beta_1 = 0;$ $H_{0B} : \beta_2 = 0$

Alternative hypotheses: $H_{1A} : \beta_1 \neq 0;$ $H_{1B} : \beta_2 \neq 0$

Test statistics are $t_A = \frac{\widehat{\beta}_1 - 0}{se(\widehat{\beta}_1)};$ $t_B = \frac{\widehat{\beta}_2 - 0}{se(\widehat{\beta}_2)}$

Estimated $\widehat{prof_eval} = 3.9816 - .1262 \text{ tenured} - .1607 \text{ tenure track} + .0678 \text{ bty_avg}$
(.0908) (.0627) (.0740) (.0166)

t statistics: $t_{tenured} = \frac{.1262}{.0627} = 2.013$ $t_{tenure\ track} = \frac{.1607}{.0740} = 2.172$

Test statistic for difference between *tenured* and *tenure track*: $t = \frac{\widehat{\beta}_1 - \widehat{\beta}_2}{se(\widehat{\beta}_1 - \widehat{\beta}_2)}$

Numerator: $\widehat{\beta}_1 - \widehat{\beta}_2 = (-.1262) - (-.1607) = .0345$

Denominator: $se(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2) = \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)} = \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1) + \widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_2) - 2\widehat{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)}$

	track	tenure
track	0.00547	0.00275
tenure	0.00275	0.00393

standard error equals $\sqrt{.0039} = .06245$; t statistic equals $\pm .552$; F statistic = .3048

Retain null hypothesis of no difference.

5A. Review of Poisson Probability Distribution

$$P(y = h) = e^{-\mu} \frac{\mu^h}{h!}, h = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Flying bomb attacks during Second World War; London divided into squares,
each .5 km. wide and .5 km. tall

Bombs	Observed Squares	Predicted Squares
0	229	
1	211	
2	93	
3	35	
4	7	
5	1	

Make predictions based on $\mu = 0.9288 = 535 \text{ bombs} \div 576 \text{ squares}$

Code for frequencies: `576*dpois(c(0:5), .9288)`

Code for cumulative frequencies: `576*ppois(c(0:4), .9288, lower.tail = TRUE)`

R.D. Clark (1946) "An Application of the Poisson Process" Journal of the Institute of Actuaries 72: 481–

5B. Review of Poisson Regression

$$P(y = h) = e^{-\mu} \frac{\mu^h}{h!}, h = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Model μ as: $\mu(x) = \exp(x\hat{\beta}) = e^{\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2 + \dots}$

Combine:
$$P(y = h) = e^{-\exp(x\hat{\beta})} \frac{\exp(x\hat{\beta})^h}{h!}$$

Predict: set fixed values of x_1, x_2, \dots , and then change them one at a time

Interpret $\hat{\beta}_j$: $100 \cdot [\exp(\hat{\beta}_j \Delta x_j) - 1]$ tells you the percent or proportional change in $\mu(x)$ from a Δx_j -unit change in x_j

5C. Review of Poisson Regression

Application: *Traffic Accidents at Intersections*

Let y_i denote the number of incidents in an intersection in a given year

Let $x_{1i} \in \{25, 30, 35, \dots\}$ denote the average speed on nearby streets, in mph

Let $x_{2i} \in \{0, 1\}$ denote whether intersection has a traffic signal

Suppose : $\widehat{\beta}_0 = 2.8, \widehat{\beta}_1 = 0.012, \widehat{\beta}_2 = -0.20$

Model μ as : $\mu(x) = \exp(x\widehat{\beta}) = e^{\widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \widehat{\beta}_2 x_2} = e^{2.8 + .012x_1 - .2x_2}$

Combine : $P(y = h) = e^{-\exp(x\widehat{\beta})} \frac{\exp(x\widehat{\beta})^h}{h!}$

Predict : set $x_1 = 25$, set $x_2 = 0$ and predict, then reset $x_1 = 35$ and/or reset $x_2 = 1$

R code: `mu.25.0 = exp(2.8 + .012*25); round(dpois(c(17:26), mu.25.0), digits = 2)`

`mu.25.1 = exp(2.6 + .012*25); round(dpois(c(17:26), mu.25.1), digits=2)`

`mu.35.0 = exp(2.8 + .012*35); round(dpois(c(17:26), mu.35.0), digits=3)`

`mu.35.1 = exp(2.6 + .012*35); round(dpois(c(17:26), mu.35.1), digits=3)`

5C. Review of Poisson Regression

Application: *Traffic Accidents at Intersections*

Let y_i denote the number of incidents in an intersection in a given year

Let $x_{1i} \in \{25, 30, 35, \dots\}$ denote the average speed on nearby streets, in mph

Let $x_{2i} \in \{0, 1\}$ denote whether intersection has a traffic signal

Suppose : $\widehat{\beta}_0 = 2.8, \widehat{\beta}_1 = 0.012, \widehat{\beta}_2 = -0.20$

Model μ as : $\mu(x) = \exp(x\widehat{\beta}) = e^{\widehat{\beta}_0 + \widehat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \widehat{\beta}_2 x_2} = e^{2.8 + .012x_1 - .2x_2}$

Combine : $P(y = h) = e^{-\exp(x\widehat{\beta})} \frac{\exp(x\widehat{\beta})^h}{h!}$

Predict : set $x_1 = 25$, set $x_2 = 0$ and predict, then reset $x_1 = 35$ and/or reset $x_2 = 1$

Interpret $\widehat{\beta}_1$: $100 \cdot [\exp(\widehat{\beta}_1 \cdot 10) - 1]$ tells you the percent or proportional change in $\mu(x)$ from increasing x_1 by 10 mph.

R code: `(mu.25.1/mu.25.0)-1; (mu.35.1/mu.35.0)-1`

Interpret $\widehat{\beta}_2$: $100 \cdot [\exp(\widehat{\beta}_2) - 1]$ tells you the percent or proportional change in $\mu(x)$ from adding a traffic signal.

R code: `(mu.35.0/mu.25.0)-1; (mu.35.1/mu.25.1)-1`

6. Example: *Economic Model of Crime*

Dataset is **crime1.RData**; Wooldridge uses in examples 7.12, 8.3, 9.1, and 17.3

Population is 'young men in California born in 1960 or 1961 who have at least one arrest prior to 1986'; sample is 2,725 individuals

Dependent variable: ***narr86*** (number of arrests in 1986; 27.7% arrested $\geq 1x$ in 1986, however only 7.2% were arrested $> 1x$)

Explanatory variables: ***pcnv*** (proportion of prior arrests leading to a conviction)*
avgsen (average sentence served from prior convictions, in months)*
tottime (time spent in prison since age 18 up to 1985, in months)
ptime86 (time spent in prison during 1986, in months)*
qemp86 (quarters employed during 1986, 0 – 4)
inc86 (legal income, in hundreds of \$)*
black (dummy variable)
hispanic (dummy variable)
born60 (dummy variable)

* squared terms added to specification in various examples

6. Example: *Economic Model of Crime*

Dataset is [crime1.RData](#); Wooldridge uses in examples 7.12, 8.3, 9.1, and 17.3

TABLE 17.5 Determinants of Number of Arrests for Young Men		
Dependent Variable: <i>narr86</i>		
Independent Variables	Linear (OLS)	Exponential (Poisson QMLE)
<i>pcnv</i>	−.132 (.040)	−.402 (.085)
<i>avgsen</i>	−.011 (.012)	−.024 (.020)
<i>tottime</i>	.012 (.009)	.024 (.015)
<i>ptime86</i>	−.041 (.009)	−.099 (.021)
<i>qemp86</i>	−.051 (.014)	−.038 (.029)
<i>inc86</i>	−.0015 (.0003)	−.0081 (.0010)
<i>black</i>	.327 (.045)	.661 (.074)
<i>hispan</i>	.194 (.040)	.500 (.074)
<i>born60</i>	−.022 (.033)	−.051 (.064)
<i>constant</i>	.577 (.038)	−.600 (.067)

6. Example: *Economic Model of Crime*

see R script: [Lecture 23B crime.R](#)

Example:

```
load("C:/crime1.RData"); attach(data)
pois.D <- glm(narr86 ~ pcnv + ptime86 + qemp86 + black + hispan, poisson)
reg.D <- lm(narr86 ~ pcnv + ptime86 + qemp86 + black + hispan)
```

Compare:

```
stargazer(reg.D, pois.D, type="text", single.row=FALSE, omit.stat=c("f", "ser"))
```

Interpret: for each quarter that man is employed, arrests decrease by 20% *proportionately*
black men are arrested 103% more often than white men
hispanic men are arrested 70% more often than white men

6. Example: *Economic Model of Crime*

Recall from earlier : $P(y = h) = e^{-\exp(x\hat{\beta})} \frac{\exp(x\hat{\beta})^h}{h!}$

where : $\exp(x\hat{\beta}) = e^{\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2 + \dots}$

Use $\hat{\beta}_0 = -.578$, $\hat{\beta}_{pcnv} = -.379$, $\hat{\beta}_{ptime86} = -.096$, $\hat{\beta}_{qemp86} = -.226$, $\hat{\beta}_{black} = .710$, $\hat{\beta}_{hispan} = .533$

Suppose a male has no convictions ($pcnv = 0$), spent no time in prison in 1986 ($ptime86 = 0$), and was employed for 2 quarters in 1986 ($qemp86 = 2$).

If that man is white ($black = 0$, $hispan = 0$), then: $x\beta = -1.030$; $\exp(x\beta) = .357$

If that man is black ($black = 1$, $hispan = 0$), then: $x\beta = -0.320$; $\exp(x\beta) = .726$

If that man is hispanic ($black = 0$, $hispan = 1$), then: $x\beta = -0.498$; $\exp(x\beta) = .608$

Probabilities of no arrests ($h = 0$): white: 70.0 %
black: 48.4 %
hispanic: 54.4 %

Probabilities of one arrest ($h = 1$): white: 25.0 %
black: 35.1 %
hispanic: 33.1 %

6. Example: *Economic Model of Crime*

see R script: [Lecture 23B crime.R](#)

Example:

```
load("C:/crime1.RData"); attach(data)
pois.D <- glm(narr86 ~ pcnv + inc86 + black + hispan, poisson)
```

Dependent variable (*narr86*) is number of arrests in 1986

Model with controls for prior convictions and for income in 1986 ($R^2 = .069$):

$$\widehat{narr86} = -.676 - .433 pcnv - .009 inc86 + .471 hispan + .644 black$$

(.057)	(.085)	(.001)	(.074)	(.073)
--------	--------	--------	--------	--------

A one-unit (\$100) increase in *inc86* changes expected number of arrests by -0.9%

Interpret $\hat{\beta}_{inc86}$: $100 \cdot [\exp(\hat{\beta}_{inc86} \cdot 1) - 1]$ tells you the percent or proportional change in $\mu(x)$ from increasing *inc86* by \$100

6. Example: *Economic Model of Crime*

see R script: [Lecture 23B crime.R](#)

Example:

```
load("C:/crime1.RData"); attach(data)
pois.D <- glm(narr86 ~ pcnv + inc86 + black + hispan, poisson)
```

Dependent variable (*narr86*) is number of arrests in 1986

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$$\widehat{narr86} = -.676 - .433 pcnv - .009 inc86 + .471 hispan + .644 black$$

(.057) (.085) (.001) (.074) (.073)

A one-unit 'increase' in *hispan* changes expected number of arrests by +60%

Interpret $\hat{\beta}_{hispan}$: $100 \cdot [\exp(\hat{\beta}_{hispan} \cdot 1) - 1]$ tells you the percent or proportional change in $\mu(x)$ from changing *hispan* from 0 to 1

6. Example: *Economic Model of Crime*

see R script: [Lecture 23B crime.R](#)

Example:

```
load("C:/crime1.RData"); attach(data)
pois.D <- glm(narr86 ~ pcnv + inc86 + black + hispan, poisson)
```

Dependent variable (*narr86*) is number of arrests in 1986

Model with controls for prior convictions and for income in 1986 ($R^2 = .069$):

$$\widehat{narr86} = -.676 - .433 pcnv - .009 inc86 + .471 hispan + .644 black$$

(.057)	(.085)	(.001)	(.074)	(.073)
--------	--------	--------	--------	--------

A one-unit 'increase' in *black* changes expected number of arrests by +90%

Interpret $\hat{\beta}_{black}$: $100 \cdot [\exp(\hat{\beta}_{black} \cdot 1) - 1]$ tells you the percent or proportional change in $\mu(x)$ from changing *black* from 0 to 1

6. Example: *Economic Model of Crime*

Recall from earlier : $P(y = h) = e^{-\exp(x\hat{\beta})} \frac{\exp(x\hat{\beta})^h}{h!}$

where : $\exp(x\hat{\beta}) = e^{\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2 + \dots}$

Use $\hat{\beta}_0 = -.676$, $\hat{\beta}_{pcnv} = -.433$, $\hat{\beta}_{inc86} = -.009$, $\hat{\beta}_{hispan} = .471$, $\hat{\beta}_{black} = .644$

Suppose a man has no convictions ($pcnv = 0$) and earned \$5,500 income in 1986 ($inc86 = 55$)

			Probabilities of:		
r/e:	$x\hat{\beta}$	$\exp(x\hat{\beta})$	no arrests ($h = 0$):	one arrest ($h = 1$):	two arrests ($h = 2$)
white	-1.152	= .316	72.9 %	23.0 %	3.6 %
Hispanic	-0.681	= .506	60.3 %	30.5 %	7.7 %
black	-0.508	= .602	54.8 %	33.0%	9.9 %

6. Example: *Economic Model of Crime*

Consider the effects of race/ethnicity (white vs. Hispanic, white vs. black)

Dependent variable (*narr86*) is number of arrests in 1986

Model with controls for prior convictions and for income in 1986 ($R^2 = .069$):

$$\widehat{narr86} = -.676 - .433 pcnv - .009 inc86 + .471 hispan + .644 black$$

Std. errors: (.057) (.085) (.001) (.074) (.073)

Robust std. errors: (.074) (.103) (.001) (.094) (.099)

Initial tests of hypothesis:

$$H_{0h} : \hat{\beta}_{hispan} = 0 \quad z = \frac{.471}{.074} = 6.403 > 1.96 \quad z = \frac{.471}{.094} = 5.041 > 1.96$$

$$H_{0b} : \hat{\beta}_{black} = 0 \quad z = \frac{.644}{.073} = 8.777 > 1.96 \quad z = \frac{.644}{.099} = 6.499 > 1.96$$

6. Example: *Economic Model of Crime*

Consider the effects of race/ethnicity (Hispanic vs. black)

The null hypothesis is: $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2$

The test statistic is:
$$z = \frac{\widehat{\beta}_1 - \widehat{\beta}_2}{se(\widehat{\beta}_1 - \widehat{\beta}_2)} = \frac{\text{difference of coefficients}}{\text{standard error of difference of coefficients}}$$

where $se(\widehat{\beta}_1 - \widehat{\beta}_2) = \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\widehat{\beta}_1 - \widehat{\beta}_2)} = \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\widehat{\beta}_1) + \widehat{Var}(\widehat{\beta}_2) - 2\widehat{Cov}(\widehat{\beta}_1, \widehat{\beta}_2)}$

Numerator: $\widehat{\beta}_{black} - \widehat{\beta}_{hispanic} = .644 - .471 = .173$

For standard error, we need variance-covariance matrix of estimators:

	black	hispanic
black	0.005383	0.001989
hispanic	0.001989	0.005422

Denominator: $\sqrt{.005383 + .005422 - 2 \cdot .001989} = \sqrt{.006828} = .0826$

z statistic equals $2.087 > 1.96$

6. Example: *Economic Model of Crime*

Consider the effects of race/ethnicity (Hispanic vs. black)

The null hypothesis is: $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2$

The test statistic is:
$$z = \frac{\widehat{\beta}_1 - \widehat{\beta}_2}{se(\widehat{\beta}_1 - \widehat{\beta}_2)} = \frac{\text{difference of coefficients}}{\text{standard error of difference of coefficients}}$$

where $se(\widehat{\beta}_1 - \widehat{\beta}_2) = \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\widehat{\beta}_1 - \widehat{\beta}_2)} = \sqrt{\widehat{Var}(\widehat{\beta}_1) + \widehat{Var}(\widehat{\beta}_2) - 2\widehat{Cov}(\widehat{\beta}_1, \widehat{\beta}_2)}$

Numerator: $\widehat{\beta}_{black} - \widehat{\beta}_{hispanic} = .644 - .471 = .173$

For robust standard errors, we need new variance-covariance matrix of estimators:

	black	hispanic
black	0.009816	0.003243
hispanic	0.003243	0.008746

Denominator: $\sqrt{.009816 + .008746 - 2 \cdot .003243} = \sqrt{.006828} = .1099$

z statistic equals $1.5695 < 1.96$