Getting fit for the Midterm!

Econ 140, Section 4

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- 1. Recap
- 2. Interaction terms (Q6)
- 3. Logs (Q4)
- 4. Topics we've glossed over so far

Any questions?

... Some comments on the evaluations asked for more space to answer left-over questions from the lecture: Now is the time!

Recap

We can summarize everything of OVB in three equations. Let *Y_i* be the outcome variable, *X_i* our regressor of interest, and *Z_i* the "omitted" variable.

[Long regression] $Y_i = c_1 + \beta_L X_i + \delta Z_i + e_i$ [Short regression] $Y_i = c_2 + \beta_S X_i + u_i$ [Auxiliary regression] $Z_i = c_3 + \gamma X_i + v_i$

Then, the Omitted variable bias formula states that:



We call $\delta\gamma$ the **omitted variable bias**. We can appraise the direction of the bias by multiplying our guesses for the signs of δ and γ . If either $\delta = 0$ or $\gamma = 0$, then OVB is zero!

Recap: Understanding bias in OLS regressions

• We can use the OLS formula to understand how bias works in OLS regression

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\operatorname{Cov}(X_i, Y_i)}{\operatorname{Var}(X_i)}$$

- For **OVB**: We know the true Y_i and plug it in
- For measurement error: We know what X_i and plug it in
- Simplify using the following rules: Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) + 2 Cov(X, Y) Var(X - Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) - 2 Cov(X, Y) Cov(aX + bY, Z) = a Cov(X, Z) + b Cov(Y, Z) Cov(X, X) = Var(X) $Var(aX) = a^2 Var(X)$ Cov(X, Y) = 0, if X and Y are independent. $Var(X) \ge 0$.

Recap: Making OLS more interesting

• We saw that we can extend the simple OLS framework

 $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + e_i$

to something richer:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 X_i^2 + e_i$$

- We will get to know many more versions of this today
- All questions of the type "how is Y_i expected to change if we change X_i" can be solved with partial derivatives – in this case:

$$\frac{\partial Y_i}{\partial X_i} =$$

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$$\frac{\partial Y_i}{\partial X_i} = \beta_1 + 2 \cdot \beta_2 \cdot X_i$$

Interaction terms (Q6)

Interaction terms: Making OLS more interesting (Q6)

Let us consider the model

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + e_i$$

where Y_i is a country's GDP per capita, X_{1i} the value of its natural resources, and X_{2i} a measure of how democratic it is.

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Keeping democracy fixed, increasing the value of a country's natural resources by one unit is associated with β_1 higher GDP per capita.

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Keeping democracy fixed, increasing the value of a country's natural resources by one unit is associated with β_1 higher GDP per capita.

2. How do we interpret β_2 ?

Keeping natural resources fixed, increasing a country's democracy score by one unit is associated with β_2 higher GDP per capita.

Now, let us extend the model to:

$$Y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X_{1i} + \beta_{2}X_{2i} + \beta_{3}X_{1i}X_{2i} + e_{i}$$

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- 2. How do we interpret β_1 ? The effect of an additional unit of X_{1i} , if X_{2i} is equal to 0.

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- 4. How do we interpret $\beta_1 + \beta_3$?

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- 3. How do we interpret β_2 ? The effect of an additional unit of X_{2i} , if X_{1i} is equal to 0.
- 4. How do we interpret $\beta_1 + \beta_3$? The effect of an additional unit of X_{1i} , if X_{2i} is equal to 1.

Rule of thumb: Always use partial derivatives to make sure that you are right!

Practice exam question: 1a)

The Ministry of Truth is interested in a rumour that **air pollution** could impact mental health. One of the most harmful pollutants is fine particulate matter PM2.5, which comes from operations that involve the burning of fuels such as wood, oil, coal, etc. A research team is sent to investigate the rumour. The team randomly selects and surveys 19,920 people across 71 districts of the country. The key variable, Exposure E_i, is a **dummy variable** equal to 1 if the individual *i* is exposed to a large amount of PM2.5 in the last 24 hours, and 0 otherwise. The team also conducts a standardised guestionnaire to record **depressive symptoms** in the last month, called the Kessler Psychological Distress scale (K6). The questionnaire results in a score, Depression, that ranges from 0 to 24; and the higher the score. the more severe the depressive symptoms for individual *i*. The variable has a sample average of 2.96. Running regressions with Depression D_i as the dependent variable, you obtain the following results:

Dependent variable: Depression ;

Regressor	(1)	(2)	(3)
Exposure _i	0.834	0.614	0.554
	(0.032)	(0.045)	(0.042)
Exposure $_i \times$ Female $_i$		0.065	
		(0.024)	
Female ;		-0.739	-0.825
		(0.036)	(0.066)
Agei			0.452
			(0.132)
Age ²			0.524
			(0.121)

Notes: All estimations contain a constant term. Robust standard errors are in the parentheses. Age_i is the age (years old) of individual *i*, and Age_i² is the square of Age_i.

a) Interpreting the coefficient in Column (1), a journalist, Katherine, claims: "Since participants are randomly selected, we can infer that exposure to a large amount of PM2.5 does cause depression."

i. Explain carefully why Katherine is wrong, specifying the direction of bias(es) if there is any. Which assumption(s) would she need to impose for the causality claim to hold?
ii. What is the correct interpretation from Column (1) that Katherine should have made?

(Detailed) Suggested Answer: 1a)

i. Random selection is not the same thing as random assignment to treatment! Survey respondents may be systematically different from each other in ways that are correlated with depression and pollution exposure. Therefore, the results from a regression can not be interpreted causally (and are biased). A priori, it is unclear in which direction the bias would go, but we could imagine that (Only one explanation needed for exam): On rainy days, pollution is lower (-) and people may be reporting more depression symptoms (+), leading to downward bias. More wealthy people choose to live in less polluted areas (-) and they may have less depression (e.g., better access to mental health resources) (-), leading to upward bias. For the regression causality claim to hold, we need to assume that: People exposed to pollution and those not exposed to pollution would have, on average, the same depression level, had they been exposed to the same level of pollution. In other words: Both groups would have to have the same potential depression outcomes.

ii. On average, people that were exposed to pollution had a 0.8 points higher score on the depression scale. The difference between the two groups is significant at the 5% level.

b) Interpret column (2) of the regression table
i. A colleague notes the the coefficient on Female_i is significant, and states: "The effect of being female on depression is significantly different from zero". Do you agree with the statement? Why or why not?

ii. How is pollution exposure related to depression, for men? And how for women? i. It is difficult to make such interpretations when interaction terms are involved. Taking partial derivatives, the "effect" of being female is:

 $\frac{\partial \text{Depression}_i}{\partial \text{Female}_i} = -0.739 + 0.065 \cdot \text{Exposure}_i$

We can do inference (and test significance) at $Exposure_i = 0$ (just looking at the coefficient for female, -0.739 is significant). We can also do it for any other level of exposure, but for that we also need to take the other coefficient into account and cannot just use the table.

Comment 1: Less relevant for the exam, but important to be aware of! Comment 2: We can always do inference on the interaction term, which is significant here!

ii. Taking partial derivatives, the "effect" of pollution exposure is:

 $\frac{\partial \text{Depression}_i}{\partial \text{Exposure}_i} = 0.614 + 0.065 \cdot \text{Female}_i$

Hence, the "effect" for Males is 0.614 and the "effect" for Females is larger (0.614 + 0.065 = 0.779). The effect of pollution is also **signficantly** larger than for men, because the coefficient on the interaction term is significantly different from zero.

Logs (Q4)

- We can take logs of whole equations to get linear models (problem set)
- We can also take logs of specific variables, especially when they have long tails (wealth in the US, GDP per capita, etc.)
- We can get to the right interpretation of log-specifications with just math

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- We can also take logs of specific variables, especially when they have long tails (wealth in the US, GDP per capita, etc.)
- We can get to the right interpretation of log-specifications with just math
- But I will make your life easier with a cheat sheet.

Summary of Functional Forms Involving Logarithms

LHS	RHS	Interpretation of $oldsymbol{eta}_1$
У	Х	$\Delta y = \beta_1 \Delta x$
У	$\log(x)$	$\Delta y = (\beta_1/100) \% \Delta x$
$\log(y)$	Х	$\Delta y = (100 \beta_1) \Delta x$
$\log(y)$	$\log(x)$	$\Delta y = \beta_1 \Delta x$
	LHS y y log(y) log(y)	LHSRHS y x y $\log(x)$ $\log(y)$ x $\log(y)$ $\log(x)$

Table taken from Wooldridge (2011)

Model	LHS	RHS	A change in x by	is associated with a change in y by
Level-Level	У	Х	1 unit	β_1 units
Level-Log	У	$\log(x)$	1%	$eta_1/100$ units
Log-Level	$\log(y)$	Х	1 unit	100 <i>β</i> 1%
Log-Log	$\log(y)$	log(X)	1%	β_1 %

If you want to get a bonus star from me, write "approximately" in log-interpretations.

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Any questions?

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Bad controls

- Not all controls are good controls
- Some controls are called "bad controls". These are:
 - 1. Variables that are themselves outcomes of a treatment: What happens if you control for the change in English test scores in the regression below?

	Treatment	Control
Change in Math Scores	2	1
Change in English Scores	2	1

- 2. Variables that moderate the treatment effect, e.g. controlling for occupation choice in gender wage gap regression ...
- Rule of Thumb: Good controls are either pre-determined or immutable characteristics.
- Another way to think about it: Controls help us make "apples to apples" comparisons. Which apples matter?

Let's run the regression

 $\mathsf{Defaulted}_i = \alpha + \beta \mathsf{Credit Score}_i + e_i$

where Defaulted_i is equal to 1 if individual *i* has ever defaulted on a loan (mortgage, credit card, auto loan, etc.), and Credit Score_i is *i*'s credit score, **minus the average credit score in the sample** (Note: US credit scores range from 300 to 850 points).

- 1. You run a regression and get $\hat{\alpha}$ =0.1. How do you interpret this? Does this number make sense here?
- 2. Your estimate for β is $\hat{\beta} = 0.001$. Interpret.

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- 2. Your estimate for β is $\hat{\beta} = 0.001$. Interpret.

With a dummy dependent variable, changing X_i by one unit increases the probability of $Y_i = 1$ by $\hat{\beta} \cdot 100$ percentage points.

The variance of the OLS estimator is $Var(\hat{\beta}_1^{OLS}) = \frac{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2}{N \cdot Var(X_i)}$. We expect to get more precise estimates if

- The variance of X_i increases
- The variance of the error term ϵ_i decreases
- The sample size N increases

$\left|\frac{\hat{\beta}}{\mathsf{SE}(\hat{\beta})}\right| \ge 1.96$ \Leftrightarrow |t-stat| \geq 1.96 \Leftrightarrow p-value < 0.05

If you are testing the null hypothesis H_0 : $\beta = 0$, then all of these are equivalent, and you can use any of these.