# Big Data and Economics

Fixed Effects and Difference-in-differences

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Today's lecture explores

## Software requirements

#### **R** packages

It's important to note that "base" R already provides all of the tools to implement a fixed effects regression, **but** you'll quickly hit walls due to memory caps. Instead, I want to introduce **fixest**, short for Fixed-Effects Estimation, which provides lightning fast fixed effects estimation and make your life much easier.

- New: fixest, wooldridge
- Already used: modelsummary, broom, tidyverse

A convenient way to install (if necessary) and load everything is by running the below code chunk.

```
## Load and install the packages that we'll be using today
if (!require("pacman")) install.packages("pacman")
pacman::p_load(modelsummary, broom, fixest, wooldridge, tidyverse)
"" We have found to a triangle of the second second
```

```
## My preferred ggplot2 plotting theme (optional)
theme_set(theme_minimal())
```

**Note on fixest and feols** I'll be using fixest and feols throughout these notes. The fixest package is a new package that is very fast and has a lot of functionality. It has several bits of functionality like feols() and etable(), which are powerful functions for making regressions and putting the output into tables that work well together. feols() works very much like lm() in base R, but with a few added bonuses.

# **Panel models**

A panel dataset is one in which we view a single unit over multiple periods of time, so a balanced panel has the same number of observations for each unit. For example, we might have data on 100 countries over 10 years, or 50 US states over 20 years. We can then take unit fixed effects, which lets us compare between years within a single unit. Similarly, we can take time fixed effects to compare between units within a given point in time. If our dataset has other dimensions that vary in a way that is not collinear with unit or time, we can also take a fixed effect for that – though again, you want to be careful about throwing in fixed effects.

#### Dataset

Let me introduce the dataset we'll be using, crime4. It comes from Jeffrey Wooldridge's R package – Dr. Wooldridge is one of the most accomplished professors of econometrics on the planet. I was tipped off about his package by Nick Huntington-Klein's own lecture notes. The dataset shows county probability of arrest and county crime rate by year.

```
data(crime4)
crime4 %>%
  dplyr::select(county, year, crmrte, prbarr) %>%
  rename(County = county,
            Year = year,
            CrimeRate = crmrte,
            ProbofArrest = prbarr) %>%
  slice(1:9)
## # A tibble: 630 x 4
```

##	#	Gı	coups	3:	Cour	nty [9	0]	
##		(	Count	cy '	Year	Crime	Rate	ProbofArrest
##			<int< th=""><th>;&gt; &lt;</th><th>int&gt;</th><th>&lt;</th><th>dbl&gt;</th><th><dbl></dbl></th></int<>	;> <	int>	<	dbl>	<dbl></dbl>
##	1	L		1	81	0.	0399	0.290
##	2	2		1	82	0.	0383	0.338
##	3	3		1	83	0.	0303	0.330
##	4	ł		1	84	0.	0347	0.363
##	5	5		1	85	0.	0366	0.325
##	6	5		1	86	0.	0348	0.326
##	7	7		1	87	0.	0356	0.298
##	8	3		3	81	0.	0164	0.203
##	g	)		3	82	0.	0191	0.162
##	10	)		3	83	0.	0151	0.182
##	#	i	620	mor	e rov	IS		

#### Let's visualize it

Below I visualize the data for just a few counties. Note the positive slope when pooling! Is that surprising?

```
crime4 %>%
  filter(county %in% c(1,3,7, 23),
        prbarr < .5) %>%
  group_by(county) %>%
  mutate(label = case_when(
   crmrte == max(crmrte) ~ paste('County', county),
   TRUE ~ NA character
  )) %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = prbarr, y = crmrte, color = factor(county), label = label)) +
  geom_point() +
  geom_text(hjust = -.1, size = 14/.pt) +
  labs(x = 'Probability of Arrest',
       y = 'Crime Rate',
       caption = 'One outlier eliminated in County 7.') +
  #scale_x_continuous(limits = c(.15, 2.5)) +
  guides(color = FALSE, label = FALSE) +
  scale_color_manual(values = c('black', 'blue', 'red', 'purple')) +
  geom_smooth(method = 'lm', aes(color = NULL, label = NULL), se = FALSE)
```

```
## `geom_smooth()` using formula = 'y ~ x'
```



One outlier eliminated in County 7.

#### Let's try the de-meaning approach

We can use group\_by to get means-within-groups and subtract them out.

```
crime4 <- crime4 %>%
  group_by(county) %>%
  mutate(mean_crime = mean(crmrte),
         mean_prob = mean(prbarr)) %>%
  mutate(demeaned_crime = crmrte - mean_crime,
         demeaned_prbarr = prbarr - mean_prob)
```

#### And Regress!

```
orig_data <- feols(crmrte ~ prbarr, data = crime4)</pre>
de_mean <- feols(demeaned_crime ~ demeaned_prbarr, data = crime4)</pre>
msummary(list(orig_data, de_mean))
```

Note the coefficient has flipped!

### Interpreting a Within Relationship

How can we interpret that slope of -0.02? This is all within variation so our interpretation must be within-county. So, "comparing a county in year A where its arrest probability is 1 (100 percentage points) higher than it is in year B, we expect the number of crimes per person to drop by .02." Or if we think we've causally identified it (and want to work on a more realistic scale), "raising the arrest probability by 1 percentage point in a county reduces the number of crimes per person in that county by .0002". We're basically "controlling for county" (and will do that explicitly in a moment). So your interpretation should think of it in that way - holding county constant i.e. comparing two observations with the same value of county i.e. comparing a county to itself at a different point in time.

		(1	)	(2	2)
(Inter	cept)	0.0	43	0.0	00
		(0.0	01)	(0.0	00)
prbar	r	-0.	038		
		(0.0	04)		
deme	aned_prbarr			-0.	002
				(0.0	02)
Num.	Obs.	63	30	63	80
R2		0.1	29	0.0	01
R2 Ac	lj.	0.1	27	-0.	001
AIC		-33	49.3	-45	51.6
BIC		-33	40.4	-45	42.8
RMSI	Ξ	0.0	02	0.0	)1
Std.E	rrors	II	D	III	D
	(	(1)	(2	)	(3)
prbarr	-0	.038			-0.002
	(0.	004)			(0.003)
demeaned_	prbarr		-0.0	)02	
			(0.0	02)	
Num.Obs.	6	30	63	0	630
R2	0.	129	0.0	01	0.871
R2 Adj.	0.	127	-0.0	001	0.849
AIC	-33	349.3	-455	51.6	-4373.6
BIC	-33	340.4	-454	42.8	-3969.1
RMSE	0	.02	0.0	)1	0.01
Std.Errors	Ι	ID	III	)	IID

#### **Concept checks**

- Do you think the model we've presented is sufficient to have a causal interpretation of the effect of arrest probability on crime?
- What assumptions would we need to make to have a causal interpretation?
- What potential confounders are there?
- Why does subtracting the within-individual mean of each variable "control for individual"?
- In a sentence, interpret the slope coefficient in the estimated model  $(Y_{it} \bar{Y}_i) = 2 + 3(X_{it} \bar{X}_i)$  where Y is "blood pressure", X is "stress at work", and i is an individual person, and  $\bar{Y}_i$  means average of  $Y_i$
- Is this relationship causal? If not, what assumptions are required for it to be causal?

#### Can we do that all at once? Yes, with the Least Squares Dummy Variable Approach

De-meaning takes some steps which could get tedious to write out. Another way is to include a dummy or category variable for each county. This is called the Least Squares Dummy Variable approach.

You end up with the same results as if we de-meaned.

```
lsdv <- feols(crmrte ~ prbarr + factor(county), data = crime4)
msummary(list(orig_data, de_mean, lsdv), keep = c('prbarr', 'demeaned_prob'))</pre>
```

Hey look, the coefficient is the same!

# Why LSDV?

- + A benefit of the LSDV approach is that it calculates the fixed effects  $\alpha_i$  for you
- We left those out of the table with the coefs argument of msummary (we rarely want them) but here they are:

#### lsdv

##				
##	Call:			
##	<pre>lm(formula = crmrt</pre>	e ~ prbarr + factor	(county), data = cr	ime4)
##				
##	Coefficients:			
##	(Intercept)	prbarr	factor(county)3	factor(county)5
##	0.0363976	-0.0020232	-0.0211038	-0.0227439
##	factor(county)7	factor(county)9	factor(county)11	factor(county)13
##	-0.0125058	-0.0240486	-0.0183143	-0.0032912
##	factor(county)15	factor(county)17	factor(county)19	factor(county)21
##	-0.0179836	-0.0146255	-0.0185499	0.0035485
##	factor(county)23	factor(county)25	factor(county)27	factor(county)33
##	-0.0073943	-0.0034639	-0.0012558	-0.0198379
##	factor(county)35	factor(county)37	factor(county)39	factor(county)41
##	0.0070240	-0.0143802	-0.0212591	-0.0115589
##	factor(county)45	factor(county)47	factor(county)49	factor(county)51
##	-0.0008915	-0.0053747	-0.0015888	0.0318754
##	factor(county)53	factor(county)55	factor(county)57	factor(county)59
##	-0.0186603	0.0221664	-0.0063204	-0.0178825
##	factor(county)61	factor(county)63	factor(county)65	factor(county)67
##	-0.0149666	0.0381621	0.0198140	0.0214212
##	factor(county)69	factor(county)71	factor(county)77	factor(county)79
##	-0.0211463	0.0228639	0.0022599	-0.0215523
##	factor(county)81	factor(county)83	factor(county)85	factor(county)87
##	0.0205261	-0.0064776	0.0051594	-0.0078661
##	factor(county)89	factor(county)91	factor(county)93	factor(county)97
##	-0.0088413	-0.0040777	-0.0018436	0.0021169
##	factor(county)99	factor(county)101	factor(county)105	factor(county)107
##	-0.0192747	-0.0027612	0.0143055	0.0108018
##	Tactor(county)109	iactor(county)111	Tactor(county)113	Tactor(county)115
##	-0.0170930	-0.018/163	-0.0239391	-0.0301032
## ##		Tactor(county)119	Tactor(county)123	Tactor(county)125
## ##	-0.0109581	0.0520182	-0.0023003	-0.0091250
## ##				
## ##	0.0020419	0.0300400	-0.0179720	0.0090400
## ##	0 0188796			
## ##	0.0100790	0.0220275	(147)	(0.0007109)
##		-0.0071850	0 0166020	
##	(county) 151	factor(county)153	factor(county)155	factor(county)157
##	-0 0114062	-0 0047028	-0 0026681	-0 0058717
##	factor(county)159	factor(county)161	factor(county)163	factor(county)165
##	-0 0043145	-0 0154759	-0 0147833	0 0082355
##	factor(county)167	factor(county) 169	factor(county)171	factor(county)173
##	-0.0128534	-0.0232628	-0.0141934	-0.0242636
##	factor(county)175	factor(county)179	factor(county)181	factor(county)183
##	-0.0175234	-0.0077435	0.0232585	0.0175664
##	factor(county)185	factor(county)187	factor(county)189	factor(county)191
	(00 un 0 j / 100	(00 anoj / 10)	,100	

##	-0.0243118	-0.0078490	-0.0071590	0.0015451
##	<pre>factor(county)193</pre>	<pre>factor(county)195</pre>	<pre>factor(county)197</pre>	
##	-0.0152095	0.0097064	-0.0209701	

The interpretation is exactly the same as with a categorical variable - we have an omitted county, and these show the difference relative to that omitted county

**NOTE: See how I put factor() around county?** That is to ensure it reads county, which is the county fips code as a categorical variable instead of as a numerical variable. If you don't do that, it will read it as a numerical variable and you'll get a different result:

```
feols(crmrte ~ prbarr + county, data = crime4)
## OLS estimation, Dep. Var.: crmrte
## Observations: 630
## Standard-errors: IID
##
               Estimate Std. Error
                                     t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 0.042131
                          0.001829 23.028937 < 2.2e-16 ***
                          0.003944 -9.605290 < 2.2e-16 ***
## prbarr
              -0.037882
               0.000011
## county
                           0.000012 0.940199
                                               0.34748
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
## RMSE: 0.016891
                   Adj. R2: 0.127011
```

This is saying that as FIPS code increases by one, the crime rate increases by 0.000011... that's nonsense. There's an urban legend of an economist who took the log of the NAICS industry classification code for quite some time before realizing they meant to use a categorical variable. Correcting that mistake completely changed their results.

#### Why LSDV?

This also makes clear another element of what's happening! Just like with a categorical var, the line is moving *up and down* to meet the counties. Graphically, de-meaning moves all the points together in the middle to draw a line, while LSDV moves the line up and down to meet the points

```
crime4 small <- crime4 %>%
  filter(county %in% c(1,3,7, 23), # filter down data points
         prbarr < .5) %>%
  ungroup()
# Make lsdv for this small dataframe
lsdv_small <- feols(crmrte ~ prbarr + factor(county),</pre>
  data = crime4_small)
crime4_small %>%
  mutate(pred = predict(lsdv_small)) %>%
  group_by(county) %>%
  mutate(label = case_when(
    crmrte == max(crmrte) ~ paste('County', county),
   TRUE ~ NA character
  )) %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = prbarr, y = crmrte, color = factor(county), label = label)) +
  geom_point() +
  geom_text(hjust = -.1, size = 14/.pt) +
  geom line(aes(y = pred, group = county), color = 'blue') +
  labs(x = 'Probability of Arrest',
       y = 'Crime Rate',
       caption = 'One outlier eliminated in County 7.') +
  #scale_x_continuous(limits = c(.15, 2.5)) +
```

```
guides(color = FALSE, label = FALSE) +
scale_color_manual(values = c('black','blue','red','purple'))
```

0.04 • County 23 • County 23 • County 7 • County 7

## Warning: Removed 23 rows containing missing values (`geom\_text()`).

### The "Pros" don't use LSDV

Most people do not use LSDB – it is computationally expensive. If you get too many fixed effects or too big of data, it just will not wrong. The professionally-written commands use de-meaning, like **fixest**, which is less computationally expensive. See for yourself! Look, we even used the **etable** function.

```
pro <- feols(crmrte ~ prbarr | county, data = crime4)
de_mean <- feols(demeaned_crime ~ demeaned_prbarr, data = crime4)
etable(de_mean, pro)</pre>
```

##			de_mean		pro
##	Dependent Var.:	demear	ned_crime		crmrte
##					
##	Constant	-1.01e-20	(0.0003)		
##	$demeaned_prbarr$	-0.0020	(0.0025)		
##	prbarr			-0.0020	(0.0026)
##	Fixed-Effects:				
##	county		No		Yes
##					
##	S.E. type		IID	by	v: county
##	Observations		630		630
##	R2		0.00106		0.87076
##	Within R2				0.00106

## ---## Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

To explain the **fixest** package, let's dive a bit deeper into the crime data. It has tons of variables we could use. We could account for variation by year for example.

```
crime_county_fe <- feols(crmrte ~ prbarr | county, data = crime4)
crime_year_fe <- feols(crmrte ~ prbarr | year, data = crime4)
crime_county_year_fe <- feols(crmrte ~ prbarr | county+year, data = crime4)</pre>
```

##		County FE	Year FE	County and Yea
##	Dependent Var.:	crmrte	crmrte	crmrte
##				
##	prbarr	-0.0020 (0.0026)	-0.0378** (0.0090)	-0.0011 (0.0026)
##	Fixed-Effects:			
##	county	Yes	No	Yes
##	year	No	Yes	Yes
##				
##	S.E.: Clustered	by: county	by: year	by: county
##	Observations	630	630	630
##	R2	0.87076	0.13347	0.87735
##	Within R2	0.00106	0.12764	0.00034
##				
##	Signif. codes: (	) '***' 0.001 '**'	0.01 '*' 0.05 '.'	0.1 ' ' 1

Pretty neat right? Just sticking something after the | allows you to residualize its fixed effect!

##		County FE	Year FE	County and Yea
##	Dependent Var.:	Crime Rate	Crime Rate	Crime Rate
##				
##	Prob. Arrest	-0.0020 (0.0026)	-0.0378** (0.0090)	-0.0011 (0.0026)
##	Fixed-Effects:			
##	County	Yes	No	Yes
##	Year	No	Yes	Yes
##				
##	S.E.: Clustered	by: County	by: Year	by: County
##	Observations	630	630	630
##	R2	0.87076	0.13347	0.87735

```
## Within R2 0.00106 0.12764 0.00034
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
# I don't want to keep writing in ,dict=dct. So I'll use setFixestDict
# This applies to every etable in the session
setFixest_dict(dict)
```

Visualization Similarly, the fixest::coefplot() function for plotting estimation results: coefplot(list(crime\_county\_fe, crime\_year\_fe, crime\_county\_year\_fe))



# **Effect on Crime Rate**

### Prob. Arrest

coefplot() is especially useful for tracing the evolution of treatment effects over time, as in a difference-indifferences setup (see Examples). However, I realise some people may find it a bit off-putting that it produces base R plots, rather than a **ggplot2** object. We'll get to an automated **ggplot2** coefficient plot solution further below with modelsummary::modelplot(). Nevertheless, let me close this out this section by demonstrating the relative ease with which you can do this "manually". Consider the below example, which leverages the fact that we have saved (or can save) regression models as data frames with broom::tidy(). As I suggested earlier, this makes it simple to construct our own bespoke coefficient plots.

# # library(ggplot2) ## Already loaded

```
## First get tidied output of the ols_hdfe object
coefs_crime_county_fe = tidy(crime_county_fe, conf.int = TRUE)
coefs_crime_year_fe = tidy(crime_year_fe, conf.int = TRUE)
coefs_crime_county_year_fe = tidy(crime_county_year_fe, conf.int = TRUE)
bind_rows(
```

```
coefs_crime_county_fe %>% mutate(reg = "Model 1\nCounty FE"),
coefs_crime_year_fe %>% mutate(reg = "Model 2\nYear FE"),
```

```
coefs_crime_county_year_fe %>% mutate(reg="Model 3\nCounty and Year FE")
) %>%
ggplot(aes(x=reg, y=estimate, ymin=conf.low, ymax=conf.high)) +
geom_pointrange() +
labs(Title = "Marginal effect of probability of arrest on crime rate") +
geom_hline(yintercept = 0, col = "orange") +
labs(
    title = "'Effect' probability of arrest on crime rate",
    caption = "Data: Crime dataset from Wooldridge R package"
    ) +
theme(axis.title.x = element_blank())
```



What if we wanted to change the clustering of the standard errors? Did you notice the S.E. type above? It auto-

What if we wanted to change the clustering of the standard errors? Did you notice the S.E. type above? It autoclustered by the fixed effects – specifically the fixed effect with the most levels. **fixest** does that by default, but maybe you disagree!

Sometimes you want to cluster standard errors a new way. Well that is something you can do with **fixest** and its delightfully well-designed etable() function. You can specify the cluster variable with cluster() or the type of standard errors you want with se() and get different types of standard errors. Below I specify standard errors clustered by state and then an assumption of independent and identically distributed errors. (The most vanilla standard errors you can assume and rarely the ones we believe explain real world phenomena.)

##		C	County FE		Year FE	County a	nd Yea
##	Dependent Var.:	Cr	ime Rate	C	rime Rate	Cr	ime Rate
##							
##	Prob. Arrest	-0.0020	(0.0027)	-0.0378***	(0.0040)	-0.0011	(0.0026)
##	Fixed-Effects:						
##	County		Yes		No		Yes
##	Year		No		Yes		Yes
##							
##	S.E. type		IID		IID		IID
##	Observations		630		630		630
##	R2		0.87076		0.13347		0.87735
##	Within R2		0.00106		0.12764		0.00034
##							
##	Signif. codes: (	) '***' (	.001 '**'	0.01 '*' (	).05 '.' (	).1 ' ' 1	
eta	able(list('County	y FE'=cri	me_county	_fe,			
	'Year H	FE'=crime	_year_fe,				
	'County	y and Yea	r FE'=cri	me_county_y	year_fe),		
	cluster='co	untv!)					

##		County FE	Year FE	County and Yea
## ##	Dependent Var.:	Crime Rate	Crime Rate	Crime Rate
##	Prob. Arrest	-0.0020 (0.0026)	-0.0378*** (0.0103)	-0.0011 (0.0026)
##	Fixed-Effects:			
##	County	Yes	No	Yes
##	Year	No	Yes	Yes
##				
##	S.E.: Clustered	by: County	by: County	by: County
##	Observations	630	630	630
##	R2	0.87076	0.13347	0.87735
##	Within R2	0.00106	0.12764	0.00034
##				
##	Signif, codes: (	) '***' 0.001 '**'	0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' (	).1 ' ' 1

We'd normally expect our standard errors to blow up with clustering and we see something similar here. Why is that?

Yes, I know this is a lot on stuff you've only barely experienced before. But you're going to come across these terms when you read papers and I want you to know how to play with them when you're trying to learn by doing.

Aside on standard errors We've now seen the various options that fixest has for specifying different standard error structures. In short, you invoke either of the se or cluster arguments. Moreover, you can choose to do so either at estimation time, or by adjusting the standard errors for an existing model post-estimation (e.g. with summary.fixest(mod, cluster = ...)). There are two additional points that I want to draw your attention to.

First, if you're coming from another statistical language, adjusting the standard errors post-estimation (rather than always at estimation time) may seem slightly odd. But this behaviour is actually extremely powerful, because it allows us to analyse the effect of different error structures *on-the-fly* without having to rerun the entire model again. **fixest** is already the fastest game in town, but just think about the implied time savings for really large models.<sup>1</sup> I'm a huge fan of the flexibility, safety, and speed that on-the-fly standard error adjustment offers us. I even wrote a whole blog post about it if you'd like to read more.

Second, reconciling standard errors across different software is a much more complicated process than you may realise. There are a number of unresolved theoretical issues to consider — especially when it comes to multiway clustering — and package maintainers have to make a number of arbitrary decisions about the best way to account for these. See here

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>To be clear, adjusting the standard errors via, say, summary.fixest() completes instantaneously.

for a detailed discussion. Luckily, Laurent (the **fixest** package author) has taken the time to write out a detailed vignette about how to replicate standard errors from other methods and software packages.<sup>2</sup>

**Multiple estimations** But won't it get tedious writing out all these variations of fixed effects over and over with the feols() repeated? Sure will. That's where the **fixest** package comes in handy.

**fixest** allows you to do multiple estimations in one command and it does is it fast! Why is it so fast? It leverages the demeaning trick mentioned above. If a fixed effect is used in multiple estimations, it saves the outcome variable de-meaned of that fixed effect to use in all the other estimations. That saves a bunch of time!

This is also a really smart big data technique we'll get into more later in the course. It does a task once instead of multiple times to save time and processing power.

Here's a demo using the stepwise sw0() function, which adds fixed effects – starting with none step-by-step:

```
crime many fes <- feols(crmrte ~ prbarr |</pre>
  sw0(county,year,county+year),
  data=crime4)
etable(crime_many_fes)
##
                     crime_many_fes.1 crime_many_fes.2
                                                          crime many fes.3
                                             Crime Rate
                                                               Crime Rate
## Dependent Var.:
                            Crime Rate
##
                   0.0432*** (0.0014)
## Constant
## Prob. Arrest
                   -0.0379*** (0.0039) -0.0020 (0.0026) -0.0378** (0.0090)
## Fixed-Effects: ------
## County
                                   No
                                                    Yes
                                                                        No
## Year
                                   No
                                                     No
                                                                       Yes
##
## S.E. type
                                   IID
                                             by: County
                                                                  by: Year
## Observations
                                   630
                                                    630
                                                                       630
                                                0.87076
## R2
                               0.12856
                                                                   0.13347
## Within R2
                                                0.00106
                                                                   0.12764
                                    ___
##
##
                   crime_many_fes.4
## Dependent Var.:
                        Crime Rate
##
## Constant
## Prob. Arrest
                  -0.0011 (0.0026)
## Fixed-Effects: ------
## County
                                Yes
## Year
                               Yes
##
  _____
                       by: County
## S.E. type
## Observations
                               630
## R2
                            0.87735
## Within R2
                            0.00034
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

These results are the same as above. Oh and guess what? You can get a lot more complicated than that!

Wouldnt it be nice to have better names of our variables? We can do that uing a dict, which is just a fancy vector with names.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>If you want a deep dive into the theory with even more simulations, then this paper by the authors of the **sandwich** paper is another excellent resource.

Here's the basics of how it works.<sup>3</sup> You can specify:

- 1. One or more rhs variable using c(var1, var2, var3)
- 2. One or more fixed effects using the stepwise functions sw(), sw0(), csw(), and csw0().
- 3. One or more independent variable using the stepwise functions sw(), sw0(), csw(), and csw0().
- 4. Different samples using the split or fsplit option.

And here's multiple estimations used to their "fuller" potential:

```
crime_many_estimations <- feols(c(crmrte,prbconv) ~ csw(prbarr, avgsen, polpc) |
   sw0(county,year,county+year),
   data=crime4,
   fsplit=~urban)</pre>
```

etable(crime\_many\_estimations[lhs='crmrte', sample=1], title='Crime Rate', notes='Note: Estimates from var

## ## ## ##	Sample (urban) Dependent Var.:	crime_many_estim1 Full sample Crime Rate	crime_many_est Full s Crime	im2 cr ample Rate	ime_many_ Ful Cr	estim3 1 sample ime Rate
##	Constant	0.0432*** (0.0014)	0.0406*** (0.	0026) 0	.0397***	(0.0025)
##	Prob. Arrest	-0.0379*** (0.0039)	-0.0381*** (0.	0039) -0	.0478***	(0.0039)
##	Avg. Sentence		0.0003 (0.	0003)	0.0003	(0.0002)
##	polpc				2.089***	(0.2442)
##	Fixed-Effects:					
##	County	No		No		No
##	Year	No		No		No
##						
##	S.E. type	IID		IID		IID
##	Ubservations	630	0	630		630
##	K2	0.12856	0.	13055		0.22159
## ##	WICHIN RZ					
## ##		crime many es 4 cr	ime many es 5	crime ma	nvest 6	
##	Sample (urban)	Full sample	Full sample	Fi	ull sample	
##	Dependent Var.:	Crime Rate	Crime Rate	C	rime Rate	
##	1					
##	Constant					
##	Prob. Arrest	-0.0020 (0.0026) -0	.0019 (0.0027)	-0.0043	(0.0028)	
##	Avg. Sentence	7.1	12e-5 (0.0001)	0.0002*	(0.0001)	
##	polpc			1.735***	(0.3191)	
##	Fixed-Effects:					
##	County	Yes	Yes		Yes	
##	Year	No	No		No	
## ##	C E +mo		hu. Countu			
## ##	Decruations	by: County	by: county	L	by: County	
## ##	R2	0.87076	0.87084		0.89669	
##	Within R2	0.00106	0.00164		0.20150	
##		0.00200	0.00101		0.20200	
##		crime_many_esti7 «	crime_many_esti	8 crim	e_many_es	ti9
##	Sample (urban)	Full sample	Full sam	ple	Full s	ample
##	Dependent Var.:	Crime Rate	Crime R	ate	Crime	Rate
##						

<sup>3</sup>You can find a more in-depth explanation at the Multiple Estimation vignette.

## Constant ## Prob. Arrest -0.0378\*\* (0.0090) -0.0379\*\* (0.0088) -0.0478\*\* (0.0086) 0.0002 (0.0002) 0.0002 (0.0002) ## Avg. Sentence 2.134\* (0.7683) ## polpc ## County No No No ## Year Yes Yes Yes ## \_\_\_\_\_ -\_\_\_\_ -\_\_\_\_ ## S.E. typeby: Yearby: Yearby: Year## Observations630630630## R20.133470.134630.22896 0.12881 ## Within R2 0.12764 0.22377 ## ## crime\_many\_e..10 crime\_many\_e..11 crime\_many\_es..12 ## Sample (urban) Full sample Full sample Full sample Crime Rate ## Dependent Var.: Crime Rate Crime Rate ## ## Constant ## Prob. Arrest -0.0011 (0.0026) -0.0012 (0.0026) -0.0038 (0.0027) -9.4e-5 (0.0001) 5.05e-5 (0.0001) ## Avg. Sentence 1.821\*\*\* (0.3223) ## polpc Yes Yes ## County Yes ## Year Yes Yes Yes ## \_\_\_\_\_ 
 ## S.E. type
 by: County
 by: County
 by: County

 ## Observations
 630
 630
 630

 ## R2
 0.87735
 0.87746
 0.90563
 0.00034 0.00125 0.23086 ## Within R2 ## ---## Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1 etable(crime\_many\_estimations[lhs='prbconv', sample=1], title='Probability of Conviction', notes='Note: Es ## crime\_many\_esti..1 crime\_many\_es..2 crime\_many\_est..3 ## Sample (urban) Full sample Full sample Full sample ## Dependent Var.: Prob. Conviction Prob. Conviction Prob. Conviction ## ## Constant 0.5807\*\*\* (0.1385) 0.5018. (0.2628) 0.3759 (0.2338) 0.3512 (0.3937) 0.3464 (0.3942) -1.029\*\* (0.3662) ## Prob. Arrest 0.0090 (0.0254) 0.0068 (0.0226) ## Avg. Sentence 296.5\*\*\* (22.92) ## polpc ## County No No No ## Year No No No ## \_\_\_\_\_ ----- ----- -----## S.E. type IID IID 630 630 IID 630 ## Observations 0.21216 ## R2 0.00127 0.00146 ## Within R2 ## ## crime\_many\_es..4 crime\_many\_es..5 crime\_many\_es..6 ## Sample (urban) Full sample Full sample Full sample ## Dependent Var.: Prob. Conviction Prob. Conviction Prob. Conviction ##

## Constant ## Prob. Arrest -2.941 (2.064) -2.940 (2.074) -3.394 (2.559) ## Avg. Sentence 0.0008 (0.0342) 0.0301 (0.0299) ## polpc 328.8\* (142.5) ## County Yes Yes Yes No ## Year No No ## \_\_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_ ## S.E. type by: County by: County by: County 630 630 0.33114 630 0.43784 ## Observations 0.33114 ## R2 0.04762 ## Within R2 0.04762 0.19955 ## ## crime\_many\_es..7 crime\_many\_es..8 crime\_many\_es..9 ## Sample (urban) Full sample Full sample Full sample ## Dependent Var.: Prob. Conviction Prob. Conviction Prob. Conviction ## ## Constant ## Prob. Arrest 0.3665 (0.3999) 0.3571 (0.4001) -1.008 (0.7845) 0.0138 (0.0358) 0.0074 (0.0274) ## Avg. Sentence ## polpc 294.5. (125.8) No No No ## County ## Year Yes Yes Yes ## S.E. typeby: Yearby: Yearby: Year## Observations630630630## R20.013550.013980.22043 0.01355 ## Within R2 0.00139 0.00182 0.21082 ## crime\_many\_e..10 crime\_many\_e..11 crime\_many\_e..12 ## ## Sample (urban) Full sample Full sample Full sample ## Dependent Var.: Prob. Conviction Prob. Conviction Prob. Conviction ## ## Constant -2.939 (2.077) -2.931 (2.079) -3.388 (2.552) ## Prob. Arrest ## Avg. Sentence 0.0104 (0.0277) 0.0361 (0.0269) ## polpc 324.6\* (139.9) ## County Yes Yes Yes ## Year Yes Yes Yes ## S.E. typeby: Countyby: Countyby: County## Observations630630630 ## R2 0.34289 0.34305 0.44589 0.04784 0.19709 ## Within R2 0.04807 ## ---## Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1 etable(crime\_many\_estimations[lhs='crmrte', sample=2], title='Crime Rate in Urban Areas', notes='Note: Est crime\_many\_estim..1 crime\_many\_estim..2 crime\_many\_estim..3 ## ## Sample (urban) 0 0 0

##	Dependent	Var.:	Crime	Rate	Crime	Rate	Crime	Rate
##								

## Constant0.0370\*\*\* (0.0012)0.0392\*\*\* (0.0023)0.0385\*\*\* (0.0021)## Prob. Arrest-0.0270\*\*\* (0.0034)-0.0267\*\*\* (0.0034)-0.0356\*\*\* (0.0033) -0.0003 (0.0002) -0.0003 (0.0002) ## Avg. Sentence 1.819\*\*\* (0.2036) ## polpc ## Fixed-Effects: ------## County No No No ## Year No No No 
 IID
 IID

 574
 574

 0.10023
 0.10240
 ## S.E. type TTD ## Observations 574 ## R2 0.21267 ## Within R2 --\_\_\_ ## ## crime\_many\_es..4 crime\_many\_es..5 crime\_many\_est..6 ## Sample (urban) 0 0 0 ## Dependent Var.: Crime Rate Crime Rate Crime Rate ## ## Constant ## Prob. Arrest -0.0017 (0.0026) -0.0017 (0.0026) -0.0041 (0.0027) 1.95e-5 (0.0001) 0.0002. (0.0001) ## Avg. Sentence 1.722\*\*\* (0.3264) ## polpc Yes ## County Yes Yes No ## Year No No 
 ##
 S.E. type
 by: County
 by: County
 by: County

 ##
 Observations
 574
 574
 574

 ##
 R2
 0.80689
 0.80690
 0.84780

 ##
 Within R2
 0.00084
 0.00088
 0.21251
 ## crime\_many\_esti..7 crime\_many\_esti..8 crime\_many\_esti..9 ## 
 ## Sample (urban)
 0
 0
 0

 ## Dependent Var.:
 Crime Rate
 Crime Rate
 Crime Rate
 ## ## Constant ## Prob. Arrest -0.0268\*\* (0.0058) -0.0264\*\* (0.0059) -0.0355\*\* (0.0064) ## Avg. Sentence -0.0004\* (0.0001) -0.0004. (0.0002) ## polpc 1.865\*(0.7238)## County No No No ## Year Yes Yes Yes ## \_\_\_\_\_ 
 ## S.E. type
 by: Year
 by: Year
 by: Year

 ## Observations
 574
 574
 574
 574 0.10988 0.106020.109880.225010.099340.103230.21922 ## R2 ## Within R2 ## ## crime\_many\_e..10 crime\_many\_e..11 crime\_many\_es..12 ## Sample (urban) 0 0 0 ## Dependent Var.: Crime Rate Crime Rate Crime Rate ## ## Constant ## Prob. Arrest -0.0010 (0.0026) -0.0011 (0.0026) -0.0036 (0.0026) -0.0001 (0.0001) 3.91e-5 (0.0001) ## Avg. Sentence

##	polpc	1.805*** (0.3295)				
##	Fixed-Effects:	 Voc				
## ##	Vear	Ves	Ves	Ves		
## ##	Tear	165	165	165		
##	S.E. type	by: County	by: County	by: County		
##	Observations	574	574	574		
##	R2	0.81420	0.81446	0.85886		
##	Within R2	0.00030	0.00168	0.24061		
##						
##	Signif. codes:	) '***' 0.001 '**' 0	.01 '*' 0.05 '.' (	).1 ' ' 1		
et	able(crime many	estimations[lhs='crm	rte',sample=3],tit	le='Crime Rate	in Rural	Areas', notes='Note: E
##		crime_many_estim1	crime_many_estim.	2 crime_many_e	estim3	
##	Sample (urban)	1		1	1	
##	Dependent Var.:	Crime Rate	Crime Ra	ate Cri	me Rate	
##						
##	Constant	0.1055*** (0.0078)	0.0990*** (0.010	)0) 0.0775*** (	0.0138)	
##	Prob. Arrest	-0.1995*** (0.0368)	-0.2033*** (0.036	59) -0.2014*** (	0.0357)	
##	Avg. Sentence		0.0007 (0.000	0.0004 (	0.0007)	
##	polpc			11.94*	(5.472)	
##	Fixed-Effects:			·		
##	County	No		No	No	
##	Year	NO		NO	NO	
##						
##	S.E. type	IID EC	L	E C	IID E6	
## ##	DDServations	0 35260	0.365	50	0 /1000	
## ##	NZ Within BO	0.00209	0.500		0.41909	
##	WICHIH Itz					
##		crime many est. 4 c	rime many est. 5 c	rime many est.	6	
##	Sample (urban)	1	1		1	
##	Dependent Var.:	Crime Rate	Crime Rate	Crime Rat	e	
##	1					
##	Constant					
##	Prob. Arrest	-0.1903. (0.0823) -	0.1871. (0.0801) -	-0.1811* (0.0741	.)	
##	Avg. Sentence		0.0008 (0.0005)	0.0007 (0.0005	5)	
##	polpc			8.647 (6.132	2)	
##	Fixed-Effects:					
##	County	Yes	Yes	Ye	es	
##	Year	No	No	Ν	Io	
##						
##	S.E. type	by: County	by: County	by: Count	у	
##	Ubservations	56	56	5	6	
###	R2	0.88722	0.89616	0.9023	31	
##		0 00000	0.26602	0.3094	6	
## ##	Within R2	0.20282	0.20002			
## ## ##	Within R2	0.20282		0	-+:- C	
## ## ## ##	Within R2	0.20282 crime_many_estim7	crime_many_estim.	8 crime_many_e	estim9	
## ## ## ## ##	Within R2 Sample (urban)	0.20282 crime_many_estim7 1	crime_many_estim.	8 crime_many_e	estim9 1	
## ## ## ## ## ##	Within R2 Sample (urban) Dependent Var.:	0.20282 crime_many_estim7 1 Crime Rate	crime_many_estim. Crime Ra	8 crime_many_e 1 ate Cri	estim9 1 .me Rate	
## ## ## ## ## ##	Within R2 Sample (urban) Dependent Var.:	0.20282 crime_many_estim7 1 Crime Rate	crime_many_estim. Crime Ra	8 crime_many_e 1 ate Cri	estim9 1 .me Rate	
## ## ## ## ## ## ##	Within R2 Sample (urban) Dependent Var.: Constant Prob. Arrest	0.20282 crime_many_estim7 1 Crime Rate	crime_many_estim. Crime Ra	8 crime_many_e 1 ate Cri 75) -0.1982*** (	estim9 1 .me Rate	

##	polpc				13.42** (3	.493)
##	Fixed-Effects:					
##	County	1	lo	No	Nc	
##	Year	Ye	es	Yes	Yes	
##						
##	S.E. type	by: Yea	ar by:	Year	by:	Year
##	Observations	Ę	56	56	56	
##	R2	0.3999	94 0.4	10426	0.46292	
##	Within R2	0.3640	0.3	36861	0.43078	
##						
##		crime_many_es10	crime_many_es1	l crime_ma	ny_es12	
##	Sample (urban)	1	:	L	1	
##	Dependent Var.:	Crime Rate	Crime Rate	e C	rime Rate	
##						
##	Constant					
##	Prob. Arrest	-0.1694. (0.0771)	-0.1723. (0.0733)	0.1709*	(0.0703)	
##	Avg. Sentence		0.0002 (0.0005)	3.84e-5	(0.0006)	
##	polpc			11.2	7 (6.369)	
##	Fixed-Effects:					
##	County	Yes	Yes	5	Yes	
##	Year	Yes	Yes	5	Yes	
##						
##	S.E. type	by: County	by: County	7 b	y: County	
##	Observations	56	56	5	56	
##	R2	0.93501	0.93554	ł	0.94120	
##	Within R2	0.23564	0.24188	3	0.30840	
##						
##	Signif. codes:	0 '***' 0.001 '**'	0.01 '*' 0.05 '.	0.1 ' '	1	

**Concept check** In our second table, the probability of conviction regressed on probability of arrest is almost certainly not causal. It is a pretty bogus regression since both that are heavily affected by government decisions.

Can we say any of the above are causal? What would we need to assume?

# **Difference-in-differences**

One of the most popular uses of fixed effects is to implement difference-in-difference designs we've discussed. Here's a quick visualization. Let's walk through an example that uses the National Supported Work Demonstration dataset that Lalonde (1986) published on.<sup>4</sup>

#### Lalonde (1986)

The neat thing about these data is Lalonde (and a follow-up by Dehejia and Wahba (2022)) compare experimental to nonexperimental data. The experimental data is from a randomized control trial (RCT) of a job training program. The nonexperimental data is a random sample of US households.

#### Earned Income Tax Credit

The Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC) was increased for parents in 1993. The EITC is a tax credit for low-income workers. It is a refundable tax credit, meaning that if the credit exceeds the amount of taxes owed, the excess is returned to the taxpayer. The EITC is designed to supplement wages for low-to-moderate income workers. The amount of the credit depends on income and number of children.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>I take this example from an activity devised by Scott Cunningham and Kyle Butts.

The EITC is also designed to incentivize work. It initially increases as earnings increase, before leveling off and falling once earnings reach a threshold level and the worker transitions out of "low-income."

Effectively at low-income levels, the EITC increases the dollars earned from working – either on the intensive margin (one more hour) or extensive margin (working vs. not working). But does it effect labor supply?

Let's focus on how this affects labor supply of single mothers who are the primary beneficiaries of . This example is borrowed from Nick Huntington-Klein and pulled from work by Bruce Meyer (2002).

We walked through this example in the lecture, but let's do it again.

#### Diff-in-diff with data

Let's load in the data.

We do not have an individual identifier in these data, so we can't add an individual fixed effect. We can add other fixed effects if we believe there is endogenous variation in the treatment between the groups of the fixed effect.

Still, let's work through how to visualize the data to check for no pre-trends and treatment effects change over time. We checked averages for our two groups before – not bad!

```
## `summarise()` has grouped output by 'year', 'treated'. You can override using
## the `.groups` argument.
```

```
## Warning: Using `size` aesthetic for lines was deprecated in ggplot2 3.4.0.
```

```
## i Please use `linewidth` instead.
```

## This warning is displayed once every 8 hours.

```
## Call `lifecycle::last_lifecycle_warnings()` to see where this warning was
## generated.
```



But the lines are a little far apart, so it makes it tricky to visualize the difference. And we don't know the confident interval on the difference between these. Let's try to get that!

**Introducing** the i () function. This handy little guy is a function that creates an interaction term. It's a little tricky to use, but it's worth it. Basically, what you do is you feed it a factor variable, an interacted variable, then a reference value of the factor variable – all coefficients will relative to the level when the factor variable equals the reference value.

```
## OLS estimation, Dep. Var.: work
## Observations: 13,746
## Fixed-effects: year: 6, treated: 2
## Standard-errors: Heteroskedasticity-robust
##
                     Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## year::1991:treated 0.010618
                               0.028518 0.372334 0.7096501
## year::1992:treated 0.000952 0.028960 0.032880 0.9737710
## year::1994:treated 0.006720 0.029484 0.227919 0.8197125
## year::1995:treated 0.067488
                                0.030154 2.238086 0.0252314 *
## year::1996:treated 0.083754
                                0.030552 2.741312 0.0061274 **
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
## RMSE: 0.496477
                     Adj. R2: 0.012584
                   Within R2: 0.001075
##
```

So what does this output mean? Well it tells us the difference between the treated and untreated groups over time! But relative to when? It is all relative to the reference value, when year=1993. That is often called the "omitted" year. I chose the period just before the EITC expansion.

**Challenge**: What regression did we just run? Write it out. We have a year fixed effect and a treated fixed effect. Note the treated fixed effect is defined across individuals because we do not have an individual identifier!

But how do we visualize this? We have a few options. They both work the same way as the examples with coefplot() and ggplot() above though. Note, I introduce a dict to improve the labels.

The plots show that prior to 1994, the labor supply decisions of women with and without children were on a similar trend (though it is a fairly short trend).

coefplot(eitc\_did,dict=c('treated'='EITC Treatment','year'='Year'))

# Effect on work





And then we also have iplot(), which works directly with i(). It works well for quick visualization, but it can be a little clunky to make as beautiful plots as you can with ggplot.

iplot(eitc\_did,dict=c('treated'='EITC Treatment','year'='Year'))

# Effect on work



### **Further resources**

- Ed Rubin has outstanding teaching notes for econometrics with R on his website. This includes both undergradand graduate-level courses. Seriously, check them out.
- Several introductory texts are freely available, including *Introduction to Econometrics with R* (Christoph Hanck *et al.*), *Using R for Introductory Econometrics* (Florian Heiss), and *Modern Dive* (Chester Ismay and Albert Kim).
- Tyler Ransom has a nice cheat sheet for common regression tasks and specifications.
- Itamar Caspi has written a neat unofficial appendix to this lecture, *recipes for Dummies*. The title might be a little inscrutable if you haven't heard of the recipes package before, but basically it handles "tidy" data preprocessing, which is an especially important topic for machine learning methods. We'll get to that later in course, but check out Itamar's post for a good introduction.
- I promised to provide some links to time series analysis. The good news is that R's support for time series is very, very good. The Time Series Analysis task view on CRAN offers an excellent overview of available packages and their functionality.
- Lastly, for more on visualizing regression output, I highly encourage you to look over Chapter 6 of Kieran Healy's *Data Visualization: A Practical Guide*. Not only will learn how to produce beautiful and effective model visualizations, but you'll also pick up a variety of technical tips.