### Regression Stuff EC 607, Set 05

Edward Rubin Spring 2020

# Prologue

#### Last time: Inference and simulation

Let's review using a quote from MHE

We've chosen to start with the **asymptotic approach to inference** because modern empirical work typically leans heavily on the large-sample theory that lies behind robust variance formulas. The **payoff is valid inference under weak assumptions**, in particular, a framework that makes sense for our less-than-literal approach to regression models. On the other hand, the **largesample approach is not without its dangers**...

MHE, p. 48 (emphasis added)

### Schedule

#### Today

Regression and causality Read MHE 3.2

### Upcoming

Assignment #1

Advice Make sure you're taking a few minutes for personal health.<sup>+</sup>

*t health = physical, mental, and spiritual. Also: Do a better job than I do.* 

# Regression talk Saturated models

#### Saturated models

A **saturated model** is a regression model that includes a discrete (indicator) variable for each set of values the explanatory variables can take.

For discrete regressors, saturated models are pretty straightforward.

Example For the relationship between Wages and College Graduation,

 $Wages_i = \alpha + \beta \mathbb{I}\{College Graduate\}_i + \varepsilon_i$ 

#### Saturated models

A **saturated model** is a regression model that includes a discrete (indicator) variable for each set of values the explanatory variables can take.

For multi-valued variables, you need an indicator for each potential value.

Example<sub>2</sub> Regressing Wages on Schooling  $(s_i \in \{0, 1, 2, ..., T\})$ .

$$\operatorname{Wages}_i = lpha + eta_1 \, \mathbb{I}\{s_i = 1\}_i + eta_2 \, \mathbb{I}\{s_i = 2\}_i + \dots + eta_T \, \mathbb{I}\{s_i = T\}_i + arepsilon_i$$

Here,  $s_i=0$  is our reference level;  $eta_j$  is the effect of j years of schooling.

$$E[Wages_i \mid s_i = j] - E[Wages_i \mid s_i = 0] = \alpha + \beta_j - \alpha = \beta_j$$

#### Saturated models

**Q** Why focus on saturated models?

A **Saturated models perfectly fit the CEF** because the CEF is a linear function of the dummy variables—a special case of the linear CEF theorem.

#### Saturated models

If you have multiple explanatory variables, you need interactions.

Example<sub>3</sub> Regressing Wages on College Graduation and Gender.

$$egin{aligned} \operatorname{Wages}_i &= lpha + eta_1 \, \mathbb{I}\{\operatorname{College}\, \operatorname{Graduate}\}_i + eta_2 \, \mathbb{I}\{\operatorname{Female}\}_i \ &+ eta_3 \, \mathbb{I}\{\operatorname{College}\, \operatorname{Graduate}\}_i imes \mathbb{I}\{\operatorname{Female}\}_i + arepsilon_i\}_i \end{aligned}$$

Here, the uninteracted terms  $(\beta_1 \& \beta_2)$  are called **main effects**;  $\beta_3$  gives the effect of the **interaction**.

 $egin{aligned} &E[\mathrm{Wages}_i|\mathrm{College}\ \mathrm{Graduate}_i=0,\ \mathrm{Female}_i=0]=lpha\ &E[\mathrm{Wages}_i|\mathrm{College}\ \mathrm{Graduate}_i=1,\ \mathrm{Female}_i=0]=lpha+eta_1\ &E[\mathrm{Wages}_i|\mathrm{College}\ \mathrm{Graduate}_i=0,\ \mathrm{Female}_i=1]=lpha+eta_2\ &E[\mathrm{Wages}_i|\mathrm{College}\ \mathrm{Graduate}_i=1,\ \mathrm{Female}_i=1]=lpha+eta_1+eta_2+eta_3 \end{aligned}$ 

#### Saturated models

The CEF can take on four possible values,

 $egin{aligned} &E[\mathrm{Wages}_i|\mathrm{College}\ \mathrm{Graduate}_i=0,\ \mathrm{Female}_i=0]=lpha\ &E[\mathrm{Wages}_i|\mathrm{College}\ \mathrm{Graduate}_i=1,\ \mathrm{Female}_i=0]=lpha+eta_1\ &E[\mathrm{Wages}_i|\mathrm{College}\ \mathrm{Graduate}_i=0,\ \mathrm{Female}_i=1]=lpha+eta_2\ &E[\mathrm{Wages}_i|\mathrm{College}\ \mathrm{Graduate}_i=1,\ \mathrm{Female}_i=1]=lpha+eta_1+eta_2+eta_3 \end{aligned}$ 

and the specification of our saturated regression model

 $egin{aligned} \operatorname{Wages}_i &= lpha + eta_1 \, \mathbb{I}\{\operatorname{College \ Graduate}\}_i + eta_2 \, \mathbb{I}\{\operatorname{Female}\}_i \ &+ eta_3 \, \mathbb{I}\{\operatorname{College \ Graduate}\}_i imes \mathbb{I}\{\operatorname{Female}\}_i + arepsilon_i \end{aligned}$ 

does not restrict the CEF at all.

### Model specification

Saturated models sit at one extreme of the model-specification spectrum, with *linear, uninteracted models* occupying the opposite extreme.

#### Saturated models

- Fit CEF (+)
- Complex (-)
  - Many dummies
  - Many interactions

#### Plain, linear models

- Linear approximations (–)
- Simple (+)

Don't forget the there are many options in between—though some make less sense than others (*e.g.*, interactions without main effects).

### Model specification

Note Saturated models perfectly fit the CEF regardless of  $Y_i$ 's distribution.

Continuous, linear probability, logged, non-negative—it works for all.

Now back to causality...

#### The return of causality

We've spent the last few lectures developing properties/understanding of (1) the CEF and (2) least-squares regression.

Let's return to our main goal of the course...

**Q** When can we actually interpret a regression as **causal**?<sup>†</sup>

**A** A regression is causal when the CEF it approximates is causal.

#### The return of causality

Great... thanks.

Q So when is a CEF causal?

**A** First, return to the potential-outcomes framework, describing hypothetical outcomes.

A CEF is causal when it describes **differences in average potential outcomes** for a fixed reference population.

#### MHE, p. 52 (emphasis added)

Let's work through this "definition" of causal CEFs with an example.

#### Causal CEFs

Example The (causal) effect of schooling on income.

The causal effect of schooling for individual i would tell us how i's earnings  $Y_i$  would change if we varied i's level of schooling  $s_i$ .

Previously, we discussed how experiments randomly assign treatment to ensure the variable of interest is independent of potential outcomes.

Now we would like to **extend this framework** to

- 1. variables that take on **more than two values**
- 2. situations that requrire us to **hold many covariates constant** in order to achieve a valid causal interpretation

#### Causal CEFs

The idea of *holding (many) covariates constant* brings us to one of the cornerstones of applied econometrics: the **conditional independence assumption (CIA)** (also called *selection on observables*).

### The conditional independence assumption

Definition(s)

- Conditional on some set of covariates  $X_i$ , selection bias disappears.
- Conditional on X<sub>i</sub>, potential outcomes (Y<sub>0i</sub>, Y<sub>1i</sub>) are independent of treatment status (D<sub>i</sub>).

 $\{\mathbf{Y}_{0i}, \mathbf{Y}_{1i}\} \perp \mathbf{D}_i | \mathbf{X}_i$ 

To see how CIA eliminates selection bias...

Selection bias =  $E[\mathbf{Y}_{0i} \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{D}_i = 1] - E[\mathbf{Y}_{0i} \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{D}_i = 0]$ =  $E[\mathbf{Y}_{0i} \mid \mathbf{X}_i] - E[\mathbf{Y}_{0i} \mid \mathbf{X}_i]$ = 0

### The conditional independence assumption

Another way you'll hear CIA: After controlling for some set of variables  $X_i$ , treatment assignment is **as good as random**.

To see how this assumption<sup>†</sup> buys us a causal interpretation, write out our old difference in means—but now condition on  $X_i$ .

$$\begin{split} E[\mathbf{Y}_i \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \, \mathbf{D}_i = 1] - E[\mathbf{Y}_i \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \, \mathbf{D}_i = 0] \\ = E[\mathbf{Y}_{1i} \mid \mathbf{X}_i] - E[\mathbf{Y}_{0i} \mid \mathbf{X}_i] \\ = E[\mathbf{Y}_{1i} - \mathbf{Y}_{0i} \mid \mathbf{X}_i] \end{split}$$

Even randomized experiments need the CIA—*e.g.*, the STAR experiment's *within-school* randomization.

<sup>+</sup> Another way to think about econometric assumptions is as requirements.

#### The conditional independence assumption

Now let's extend this framework to **multi-valued explanatory variables**.

Example continued Schooling  $(s_i)$  takes on integers  $\in \{0, 1, ..., T\}$ .

We want to know the effect of an individual's schooling on her wages  $(Y_i)$ .

Previously,  $Y_{1i}$  denoted individual *i*'s outcome under treatment.

Now,  $Y_{si}$  denotes individual *i*'s outcome with *s* years of schooling.

Let each individual have her own function between schooling and earnings.

$$\mathrm{Y}_{si} \equiv f_i(s)$$
 .

 $f_i(s)$  answers exactly the type of causal questions that we want to answer.

### The conditional independence assumption

Extending the CIA to this multi-valued setting...

 $\mathrm{Y}_{si} \perp \!\!\! \perp s_i \mid \mathrm{X}_i \;\;$  for all s

If we apply the CIA to  $Y_{si} \equiv f_i(s)$ , we define the *average causal effect* of a one-year increase in schooling as

$$E[f_i(s) - f_i(s-1) \mid \mathrm{X}_i]$$

However, the data only contain one realization of  $f_i(s)$  per *i*—we only see  $f_i(s)$  evaluated at exactly one value of *s* per *i*, *i.e.*,  $Y_i = f_i(s_i)$ .

The CIA to the rescue! Conditional on  $X_i$ ,  $Y_{si}$  and  $s_i$  are independent.

#### The conditional independence assumption

The CIA to the rescue! Conditional on  $X_i$ ,  $Y_{si}$  and  $s_i$  are independent.

$$\begin{split} E[\mathbf{Y}_{i} \mid \mathbf{X}_{i}, \, \boldsymbol{s}_{i} = \boldsymbol{s}] - E[\mathbf{Y}_{i} \mid \mathbf{X}_{i}, \, \boldsymbol{s}_{i} = \boldsymbol{s} - 1] \\ &= E[\mathbf{Y}_{si} \mid \mathbf{X}_{i}, \, \boldsymbol{s}_{i} = \boldsymbol{s}] - E[\mathbf{Y}_{(s-1)i} \mid \mathbf{X}_{i}, \, \boldsymbol{s}_{i} = \boldsymbol{s} - 1] \\ &= E[\mathbf{Y}_{si} \mid \mathbf{X}_{i}] - E[\mathbf{Y}_{(s-1)i} \mid \mathbf{X}_{i}] \\ &= E[\mathbf{Y}_{si} - \mathbf{Y}_{(s-1)i} \mid \mathbf{X}_{i}] \\ &= E[f_{i}(\boldsymbol{s}) - f_{i}(\boldsymbol{s} - 1) \mid \mathbf{X}_{i}] \end{split}$$

With the CIA, a difference in conditional averages allows causal interpretations.

#### The conditional independence assumption

Example The causal effect of high-school graduation is

$$\begin{split} & E[\mathbf{Y}_i \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \, \boldsymbol{s}_i = 12] - E[\mathbf{Y}_i \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \, \boldsymbol{s}_i = 11] \\ &= E[f_i(12) \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \, \boldsymbol{s}_i = 12] - E[f_i(11) \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \, \boldsymbol{s}_i = 11] \\ &= E[f_i(12) \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \, \boldsymbol{s}_i = 12] - E[f_i(11) \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \, \boldsymbol{s}_i = 12] \quad (\text{from CIA}) \\ &= E[f_i(12) - f_i(11) \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \, \boldsymbol{s}_i = 12] \end{split}$$

= The average causal effect of graduation *for graduates* 

 $= E[f_i(12) - f_i(11) \mid \mathbf{X}_i]$  (CIA again)

= The (conditional) average causal effect of graduation at  $X_i$ 

### The conditional independence assumption

**Q** What about the **unconditional** average causal effect of graduation?

A First, remember what we just showed...

$$E[\mathrm{Y}_i \mid \mathrm{X}_i, \, oldsymbol{s}_i = 12] - E[\mathrm{Y}_i \mid \mathrm{X}_i, \, oldsymbol{s}_i = 11] = E[f_i(12) - f_i(11) \mid \mathrm{X}_i]$$

Now take the expected value of both sides and apply the LIE.

$$E\left(E[\mathbf{Y}_i \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \, \mathbf{s}_i = \mathbf{12}] - E[\mathbf{Y}_i \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \, \mathbf{s}_i = \mathbf{11}]\right)$$
$$= E\left(E[f_i(\mathbf{12}) - f_i(\mathbf{11}) \mid \mathbf{X}_i]\right)$$
$$= E[f_i(\mathbf{12}) - f_i(\mathbf{11})] \quad (\text{Iterating expectations})$$

### The conditional independence assumption

Takeaways

- 1. Conditional independence gives our parameters **causal interpretations** (elminating selection bias).
- 2. The interpretation changes slightly—without iterating expectations, we have **conditional average treatment effects**.
- 3. The CIA is challenging—you need to know which set of covariates  $(X_i)$  leads to **as-good-as-random residual variation in your treatment**.
- 4. The idea of conditioning on observables to match *comparable* individuals introduces us to **matching estimators**—comparing groups of individuals with the same covariate values.

#### From the CIA to regression

Conditional independence fits into our regression framework in two ways.

- 1. If we assume  $f_i(s)$  is (A) linear in s and (B) equal across all individuals except for an additive error, linear regression estimates f(s).
- 2. If we allow  $f_i(s)$  to be nonlinear in s and heterogeneous across i, regression provides a weighted average of individual-specific differences  $f_i(s) f_i(s-1)$ .<sup>†</sup>

Let's start with the 'easier' case: a linear, constant-effects (causal) model.

#### From the CIA to regression

Let  $f_i(s)$  be linear in s and equal across i except for an error term, e.g.,

$$f_i(s) = lpha + 
ho s + \eta_i$$
 (A)

Substitute in our observed value of  $s_i$  and the outcome  $\mathbf{Y}_i$ 

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \alpha + \rho \boldsymbol{s_i} + \eta_i \tag{B}$$

While  $\rho$  in (A) is explicitly causal, regression-based estimates of  $\rho$  in (B) need not be causal (selection/OVB for endogenous  $s_i$ ).

#### From the CIA to regression

Continuing with our linear, constant-effect causal model...

$$f_i(s) = \alpha + \rho s + \eta_i \tag{A}$$

Now impose the conditional independence assumption for covariates  $X_i$ .

$$\eta_i = \mathbf{X}'_i \gamma + \nu_i \tag{C}$$

where  $\gamma$  is a vector of population coefficients from regressing  $\eta_i$  on  $\mathbf{X}_i$ .

Note Least-squares regression implies

- 1.  $E[\eta_i \mid \mathbf{X}_i] = \mathbf{X}'_i \boldsymbol{\gamma}$
- 2.  $\mathbf{X}_i$  is uncorrelated with  $\nu_i$ .

#### From the CIA to regression

Now write out the conditional expectation function of  $f_i(s)$  on  $X_i$  and  $s_i$ .

 $egin{aligned} &E[f_i(s) \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \, s_i] \ &= E[f_i(s) \mid \mathbf{X}_i] \quad (\mathsf{CIA}) \ &= E[lpha + 
ho s_i + \eta_i \mid \mathbf{X}_i] \ &= lpha + 
ho s_i + E[\eta_i \mid \mathbf{X}_i] \ &= lpha + 
ho s_i + \mathbf{X}_i' \gamma \quad ( ext{Least-squares regression}) \end{aligned}$ 

The CEF of  $f_i(s_i)$  is linear, which means that the (right<sup>†</sup>) population regression will be the CEF.

 $\dagger$  Here, "right" means conditional on  $\mathbf{X}_i$ .

#### From the CIA to regression

Thus, the linear causal (regression) model is

$$\mathrm{Y}_i = lpha + 
ho oldsymbol{s}_i + \mathrm{X}_i' \gamma + 
u_i$$

The residual  $u_i$  is uncorrelated with

- 1.  $s_i$  (from the CIA)
- 2.  $\mathbf{X}_i$  (from defining  $\gamma$  via the regression of  $\eta$  on  $\mathbf{X}_i$ )

The coefficient  $\rho$  gives the causal effect of  $s_i$  on  $Y_i$ .

#### From the CIA to regression

As Angrist and Pischke note, this **conditional-independence assumption** (*a.k.a.* the selection-on-observables assumption) is the cornerstone of modern empirical work in economics—and many other disciplines.

Nearly any empirical application that wants a causal interpretation involves a (sometimes implicit) argument that **conditional on some set of covariates, treatment is as-good-as random**.

Part of our job: Reasoning through the validity of this assumption.

#### CIA example

Let's continue with the returns to graduation  $(G_i)$ .

Let's imagine

- 1. Women are more likely to graduate.
- 2. Everyone receives the same return to graduation.
- 3. Women receive lower wages across the board.

#### CIA example

First, we need to generate some data.

```
# Set seed
set.seed(12345)
# Set sample size
n ← 1e4
# Generate data
ex_df ← tibble(
   female = rep(c(0, 1), each = n/2),
   grad = runif(n, min = female/3, max = 1) %>% round(0),
   wage = 100 - 25 * female + 5 * grad + rnorm(n, sd = 3)
)
```

#### CIA example

Now we can estimate our naïve regression

$$\mathrm{Wage}_i = \alpha + \beta \mathrm{Grad}_i + \varepsilon_i$$

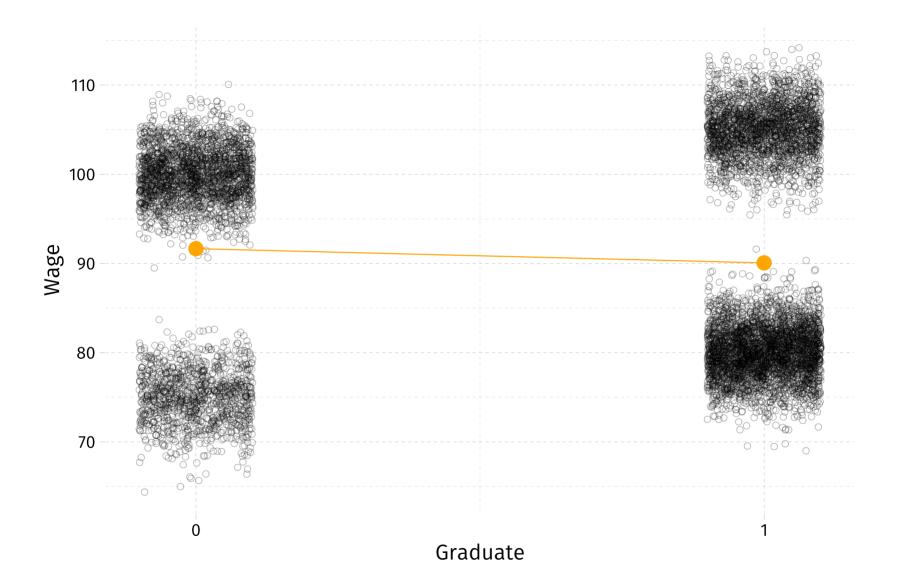
lm(wage ~ grad, data = ex\_df)

#### Coef. S.E. t stat

Intercept 91.65 0.20 447.70

Graduate -1.59 0.26 -6.18

Maybe we should have plotted our data...



We're still missing something...



#### CIA example

Now we can estimate our causal regression

$$\mathrm{Wage}_i = lpha + eta_1 \mathrm{Grad}_i + eta_2 \mathrm{Female}_i + arepsilon_i$$

lm(wage ~ grad + female, data = ex\_df)

	Coef.	S.E.	t stat
Intercept	99.98	0.05	1868.81
Graduate	5.03	0.06	78.23
Female	-25.00	0.06	-402.64

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