FLS 6441 - Methods III: Explanation and Causation Week 1 - Review of Regression

Jonathan Phillips

March 2020

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Course Website

1. Review of Regression (5th March)

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- 2. A Framework for Explanation (12th March)

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- 4. Survey and Lab Experiments (26th March)
- 5. Randomized Natural Experiments (2nd April, Semana Santa)

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- 9. Controlling for Confounding (7th May)
- 10. Matching (14th May)
- 11. Comparative Cases and Process Tracing (21st May)

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- 12. Generalizability, Reproducibility and Mechanisms (28th May)

Course Schedule

Wednesday 18h - Submit Replication Task

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- Wednesday 18h Submit Replication Task
- Thursday 14h-16h Room 105

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- Thursday 14h-16h Room 105
- ► Thursday 16.15-18.00 Lab 122

▶ Replication Tasks - 40%

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Short Research Paper

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- Max 15 pages, English or Portuguese

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- Submit paper and code by email to me by 24th July 2020

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- ► *Tip:* Pick a simple *causal* question and dataset

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- 6. Ask me

Today's Objectives

- 1. What Does Regression Actually Do?
- 2. Guide to 'Smart' Regression
- 3. What Does Regression NOT Do?

Section 1

What Does Regression Actually Do?

Data

We work with variables, which VARY!



Data

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Variable_1	Variable_2
-0.44	0.63
0.06	0.68
-0.21	-0.02
0.44	-0.25
1.29	0.46
-0.38	-0.81
-1.04	0.24
-0.16	1.84
1.29	0.06
-0.10	-0.18



Data

► We work with variables, which VARY!

Variable_1	Variable_2
-0.86	-0.69
-0.35	-0.44
1.27	0.42
-0.35	-0.22
-0.43	-0.56
0.05	-0.04
0.69	0.70
1.27	1.07
0.22	-0.00
-0.28	-0.13



 What Does Regression Actually Do?
 Guide to 'Smart' Regression
 What Does Regression Actually Do?

What Does Regression Actually Do?

- 1. Regression as Least Squares
- 2. Regression as Conditional Expectation
- 3. Regression as (Partial) Correlation

- 1. Regression as Least Squares
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Ignoring the dummy control variable, the slope coefficient is 1

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But the data points really represent two very different groups, blues and reds

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$$\blacktriangleright y_{ij} = \alpha + \beta_1 D_{ij} + \beta_2 X_j + \epsilon_i$$



What if we ran the regression for each group *separately*?

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Dummy control variables remove the average Y differences between blues and reds

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The new regression line for the full data now has a slope of zero

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Equivalently, dummy control variables restrict comparisons to **within the same group**:

- 1. How much does *D* affect *Y* within the blue group? 0
- 2. How much does *D* affect *Y* within the red group? 0
- What's the average of (1) and
 (2) (weighted by the number of units in each group)? 0

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The coefficient β_1 is 1.024 Real effect = 1

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- So regression uses linearity to fill in the gaps

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$$E(y) = \alpha + \beta_1 D$$

Conditional on a specific value of D, what is our expectation (mean value) of y?

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Conditional on a specific value of D, what is our expectation (mean value) of y?

 $y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 D_i + \epsilon_i$ Attitude_i = $\alpha + \beta_1 Income_i + N(0, \sigma^2)$ Attitude_i = 2.235 - 0.000818 * Income_i + N(0, 2.38)

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E(Attitude|Income = 3000) = -0.22

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 - When income is 6000, the average attitude is -2.67

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- ► E(Attitude|Income)
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 - When income is 6000, the average attitude is -2.67
 - When income is -1000, the average attitude is 3.05

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- ► *E*(*Attitude*|Income, Age, Gender, Municipality)













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- Correlation is 0.781
- Regression Results:

	term	estimate
1	(Intercept)	0.006
2	х	1.008

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 - Regression with two variables is very similar to calculating correlation:

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- Correlation is 0.781
- ► It's identical if we standardize both variables first (^(x_i-x̄)/_{σ_x})
- Standardized Regression Results:

	term	estimate
1	(Intercept)	0.000
2	х	0.781
		

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 - Just a small difference in the denominator (how we standardize the measure)

$$\beta_{x_1} = \frac{r_{yx_1} - r_{yx_2}r_{x_1x_2}}{1 - r_{x_1x_2}^2}$$
$$r_{yx_1|x_2} = \frac{r_{yx_1} - r_{yx_2}r_{x_1x_2}}{\sqrt{(1 - r_{yx_2}^2)(1 - r_{x_1x_2}^2)}}$$

There is no magic in regression, it's just 'extra' correlation

Section 2

Guide to 'Smart' Regression

1. We will use regression throughout this course

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- 2. But in a very **precise** way for each methodology
- 3. There are fundamental best practices that apply to all the methodologies

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- 7. **Interpret the Coefficients:** To match the type/scale of the explanatory variable, outcome variable and model
- 8. **Predict Meaningful Comparisons:** To communicate your findings

1. Variables and Measures

For the research question "Does income affect attitudes to redistribution?" 1. Variables and Measures

- For the research question "Does income affect attitudes to redistribution?"
- What measure of income should we use?

1. Variables and Measures

- For the research question "Does income affect attitudes to redistribution?"
- What measure of income should we use?
 - Pre-tax, post-tax, after government benefits?
- It depends on the theory we are testing

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- For the research question "Does income affect attitudes to redistribution?"
- ► We are conducting a within-country analysis
- But everyone in our data from Qatar earns exactly \$1m no variation in income!
- We may as well throw the Qatar data away

- Continuous -> Ordinary Least Squares
 - "Pick a precise number that reflects your attitude to redistribution"

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 - "Pick a precise number that reflects your attitude to redistribution"
- Binary -> Logit
 - "Do you support redistribution, yes or no?"
- Unordered categories -> Multinomial logit
 - "Do you think redistribution is a western, oriental or african concept?"
- Ordered categories -> Ordered logit
 - "Do you want a lot more, more, the same, less, or a lot less redistribution?"

- Continuous -> Ordinary Least Squares
 - "Pick a precise number that reflects your attitude to redistribution"
- Binary -> Logit
 - "Do you support redistribution, yes or no?"
- Unordered categories -> Multinomial logit
 - "Do you think redistribution is a western, oriental or african concept?"
- Ordered categories -> Ordered logit
 - "Do you want a lot more, more, the same, less, or a lot less redistribution?"
- ► Count -> Poisson
 - "In the past year, how many times have you complained about redistribution?"

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- Control for gender if we want to compare men with men, women with women
- Only include controls where there is theory or evidence that this variable could be an **omitted variable**
- Controlling for post-treatment variables can make your estimate worse

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- Data are usually hierarchical: countries, states, municipalities, neighbourhoods, families, individuals
- A fixed effect for countries means we only compare people within the same country
- ► Removing *ALL* the variation between countries
 - If rich countries have stronger attitudes to redistribution, we control for this
 - ► So we can ask whether richer *people* have stronger attitudes
- Our question becomes: How do variations within income in the same country affect attitudes to redistribution?

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- So we don't really have 2 observations, we have closer to 1 'independent' observation
- So the standard errors for our β's are over-confident (too small)
- We need to adjust for these dependencies with clustered standard errors
 - Created by the underlying structure of the data
 - Or by our data sampling process

6. Errors Structure



 The distribution of our estimated betas suggests we're pretty confident β is close to -0.0008175

6. Errors Structure



 With clustered SEs, the wider distribution of our betas suggests we're *less* confident β is close to -0.0008175

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• Basic OLS: $y_i = \alpha + \beta D_i + \epsilon$

 A 1 [unit of D] change in the explanatory variable is associated with a β [unit of y] change in the outcome, holding other variables constant

Difficult! It depends on:

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- 2. The scale of the outcome
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► Basic OLS with log outcome: $log(y_i) = \alpha + \beta D_i + \epsilon$

► A 1 [unit of D] change in the explanatory variable is associated with a 100 * $(e^{\beta} - 1)$ % change in the outcome, holding other variables constant

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► Basic OLS with log treatment: $y_i = \alpha + \beta log(D_i) + \epsilon$

• A 1% change in the explanatory variable is associated with a $\beta * log(\frac{101}{100})$ change in the outcome, holding other variables constant

Difficult! It depends on:

- 1. The scale of the explanatory variable
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► Logit:
$$log(\frac{Pr(y_i=1)}{Pr(y_i=0)}) = \alpha + \beta D_i + \epsilon$$

A 1 [unit of D] change in the explanatory variable is associated with a β change in the log-odds of y_i = 1, holding other variables constant

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$$log(\frac{Pr(y_i=1)}{Pr(y_i=0)}) = \alpha + \beta D_i + \epsilon$$

► A 1 [unit of *D*] change in the explanatory variable is associated with a 100 * $(e^{\beta} - 1)$ % change in the odds (relative probability, $\frac{p}{1-p}$) of $y_i = 1$, holding other variables constant

Difficult! It depends on:

- 1. The scale of the explanatory variable
- 2. The scale of the outcome
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• Multinomial:
$$log(\frac{Pr(y_i=C)}{Pr(y_i=B)}) = \alpha + \beta D_i + \epsilon$$

► A 1 [unit of *D*] change in the explanatory variable is associated with a 100 * $(e^{\beta c} - 1)$ % change in the odds (relative probability, $\frac{p}{1-p}$) of moving from the baseline category *B* to the outcome category *C*, holding other variables constant

Difficult! It depends on:

- 1. The scale of the explanatory variable
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► Ordered Multinomial: $log(\frac{Pr(y_i=C)}{Pr(y_i=C-1)}) = \alpha + \beta D_i + \epsilon$

► A 1 [unit of *D*] change in the explanatory variable is associated with a 100 * $(e^{\beta} - 1)$ % change in the odds (relative probability, $\frac{p}{1-p}$) of moving up one unit on the outcome scale, holding other variables constant

Difficult! It depends on:

- 1. The scale of the explanatory variable
- 2. The scale of the outcome
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▶ **OLS with Interaction:** $y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 D_i + \beta_2 X_i + \beta_3 D_i * X_i + \epsilon$

- $\blacktriangleright \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial D} = \beta_1 + \beta_3 X$
- β_1 is the effect of *D* when X = 0 : May not make sense!
- ► Insert values for *X* and see how the marginal effect changes

OLS with Interaction:

 $Redist_i = \alpha + \beta_1 Gender_i + \beta_2 Income_i$

+ $\beta_3 Gender_i * Income_i + \epsilon_i$

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OLS with Interaction:

 $Redist_i = \alpha + \beta_1 Gender_i + \beta_2 Income_i$

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 $\frac{\partial Redist}{\partial Gender} = \beta_1 + \beta_3 * Income$ $\frac{\partial Redist}{\partial Income} = \beta_2 + \beta_3 * Gender$

	Dependent variable:
·	redist
gender1	-2.942614*** (0.700510)
income	0.079980*** (0.000110)
gender1:income	0.000986*** (0.000152)
Constant	0.112903 (0.454926)
Observations	1,000

7. Interpreting Regression Results

OLS with Interaction:

 $Redist_i = \alpha + \beta_1 Gender_i + \beta_2 Income_i$

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OLS with Interaction:

Marginal Effect Attitudes $Redist_i = \alpha + \beta_1 Gender_i + \beta_2 Income_i$ 2.5 Gende 0.0 + β_3 Gender_i * Income_i + ϵ_i ٩ n -2.5 ∂Redist $= \beta_1 + \beta_3 * Income$ ∂Gender 0 ∂Redist $= \beta_2 + \beta_3 * Gender$ aIncome 0.0812 0.0808

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- The coefficient on the regression of income on attitude to redistribution is -0.000818
 - ► So??? What do we learn from this?
 - Coefficients are hard to interpret, and depend on how we measure each variable
 - And p-values are arbitrary (0.049 vs. 0.051)
- Better to make specific *predictions* of how changes in D produce changes in Y

8. Predictions from Regressions

Attitude_i = $\alpha + \beta_1$ Income_i + ϵ_i

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Attitude_i = $\alpha + \beta_1$ Income_i + ϵ_i

Attitude_i = 2.235 – 0.000818 Income_i + N(0, 2.378) If Income is **3000**:

 $Attitude_i = 2.235 - 0.000818 * 3000 + N(0, 2.378)$

$$Attitude_i = -0.219 + N(0, 2.378)$$

8. Predictions from Regressions

Attitude_i = $\alpha + \beta_1$ Income_i + ϵ_i

Attitude_i = 2.235 – 0.000818 Income_i + N(0, 2.378) If Income is 6000:

 $Attitude_i = 2.235 - 0.000818 * 6000 + N(0, 2.378)$

$$Attitude_i = -2.673 + N(0, 2.378)$$

Attitude_i = $\alpha + \beta_1$ Income_i + ϵ_i

 $Attitude_i = 2.235 - 0.000818$ Income_i + N(0, 2.378)

Increasing Income from 3000 to 6000:

 $\Delta Attitude_i = (2.235 - 0.000818 * 6000) - (2.235 - 0.000818 * 300)$

$$\Delta Attitude_i = -2.673 - (-0.219)$$

 $\Delta Attitude_i = -2.454$


Predicted Values:



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- Consider a binary outcome: $Gender_i = \alpha + \beta Income_i + \epsilon_i$
- Compare the OLS and Logit regression tables:

	Dependent variable:
	gender
income	0.0003*** (0.00001)
Constant	-0.696*** (0.066)
Observations	1,000
Note:	*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

	Dependent variable:
	gender
income	0.001*** (0.0001)
Constant	-6.360*** (0.457)
Observations	1,000
Note:	*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

- 8. Predictions from Regressions
 - The regression model matters because the wrong model makes non-sensical predictions
 - Consider a binary outcome: $Gender_i = \alpha + \beta Income_i + \epsilon_i$
 - Compare the OLS and Logit **predictions** of gender for an income of R\$3000:



Section 3

What Does Regression NOT Do?

Remember, regression is just fancy correlation

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- ► Even after following all this guidance, Regression does NOT:
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 - 4. Make it clear what comparisons you are making

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- Even after following all this guidance, Regression does NOT:
 - 1. Explain anything
 - 2. Make bad data better
 - 3. Tell you which theory is 'correct'
 - 4. Make it clear what comparisons you are making
- These all require research design, theory and assumptions

Correlation is not causation

If we look hard enough we can always find correlations

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More data will not help

The problem is the *content* of data; it does not allow us to answer the causal question What Does Regression Actually Do?

Guide to 'Smart' Regression

What Does Regre



Divorce rate in Maine correlates with

Per capita consumption of margarine



Worldwide non-commercial space launches

Sociology doctorates awarded (US)



US crude oil imports from Norway correlates with Drivers killed in collision with railway train



Letters in Winning Word of Scripps National Spelling Bee correlates with Number of people killed by venomous spiders



What Does Regression NOT Do?

Why is correlation (regression) not causation?

- 1. Omitted Variable Bias
- 2. Reverse Causation

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- 3. Selection Bias

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 - 5. Lack of Overlap, Model Dependence









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	Dependent variable:
	redist
income	-0.011 (0.029)
gender1	-1.201*** (0.058)
Constant	0.589*** (0.038)
Observations	1,000
Note:	*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

	Dependent variable:
	income
redist	-0.013 (0.034)
gender1	0.993*** (0.069)
Constant	-0.487*** (0.043)
Observations	1,000
Note	* n<0 1 · * * n<0 05 · * * * n<0 01
	p=0.1, p=0.05, p=0.01

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 - It minimizes the prediction errors for Y
- But that doesn't mean it identifies the direction of causation!

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- Higher income may lead to higher tax payments and therefore cause more negative attitudes to redistribution
- But negative attitudes to redistribution might also make you more likely to work in the private sector and cause you to receive a higher salary
- Both would look the same in a regression
- ► We cannot *explain* the relationship with a regression

3. Selection Bias

 Imagine we do not see 'rich' units with high income (above R\$4000)



3. Selection Bias

 Imagine we do not see 'rich' units with high income (above R\$4000)

> Poor Rich

> > 95/110



► There are four selection risks:

- 1. Selection into existence
- 2. Selection into survival
- 3. Selection into the dataset
- 4. Selection into treatment

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- 1. Selection into existence
- 2. Selection into survival
- 3. Selection into the dataset
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- In each case, we don't see the *full* relationship between D and Y
- So our regression estimates are biased

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Where do units (eg. political parties) come from?

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- Probably only parties that have a chance of success are formed

► There are four selection risks:

1. Selection into existence:

- Where do units (eg. political parties) come from?
- Probably only parties that have a chance of success are formed
- Does forming a party cause electoral success? Not for most people!

- 3. Selection Bias
- There are four selection risks:
 2 Selection into survival:

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 - Certain types of units disappear, so the units we see don't tell the full story

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Where would additional armour protect bombers?

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- Returned bombers got hit

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 - Certain types of units disappear, so the units we see don't tell the full story



- Where would additional armour protect bombers?
- Returned bombers got hit

But we do not know where bombers that did not return got hit

There are four selection risks: 3 Selection into the dataset:

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3 Selection into the dataset:

Our dataset may not be representative

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Selection into the dataset:

- Our dataset may not be representative
- Only units with particular values of D and Y enter the dataset
- Eg. If survey respondents who refuse are different from those who respond
- The anti-redistribution poor may dislike answering surveys
- The rich refuse to answer surveys for fear of paying taxes

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Selection into treatment:

All units are in our dataset, but they *choose* their treatment value

Who chooses treatment? Those with the most to benefit, i.e. depending on Y!

Applying treatment to the others would probably have a very different effect

What happens if we measure our variables wrongly?

Very likely!

Effects of Measurement Error

	Measured with Bias	Measured with Random Noise
Outcome Variable	Coefficient biased	No bias but wider stan- dard errors
Treatment Variable	Coefficient biased	Effect biased towards zero

What happens if we measure our variables wrongly?

Accurate Data:



	Dependent variable:	
	redist	
income	-0.818*** (0.078)	
Constant	2.235*** (0.361)	
Observations	1,000	
Note:	*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01	

What happens if we measure our variables wrongly?

Noise in the **outcome variable**:



	Dependent variable:	
	redist	
income	-0.831*** (0.144)	
Constant	2.272*** (0.665)	
Observations	1,000	
Note:	*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01	

What happens if we measure our variables wrongly?

Noise in the **explanatory** variable:



	Dependent variable:	
	redist	
income	-0.187*** (0.037)	
Constant	-0.620*** (0.183)	
Observations	1,000	
Note:	*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01	

5. Lack of Overlap

Regression normally helps us pick appropriate comparisons

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- How? Using the functional form of the regression
- A linear regression interpolates/extrapolates *linearly* to 'create' comparison cases

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- But what if there are no women with high income?
- Regression creates comparisons for us
- How? Using the functional form of the regression
- A linear regression interpolates/extrapolates *linearly* to 'create' comparison cases
- Lack of overlap probably means we *cannot* explain outcomes with this data

5. Lack of Overlap



5. Lack of Overlap



 What Does Regression Actually Do?
 Guide to 'Smart' Regression
 What Does Regression Actually Do?

5. Lack of Overlap



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- And we need some that are low-income and some that are high-income

With more than a few variables, lack of overlap is guaranteed

6 variables with 10 categories each = $10^6 = 1,000,000$ possibilities

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- And of **model dependence** our results depend on the functional form (linear, quadratic etc.) in our regression model

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Explanation depends on research design, data selection, assumptions and qualitative evidence