Frontier Topics in Empirical Economics: Week 11 Standard Error Issues

Zibin Huang ¹

¹College of Business, Shanghai University of Finance and Economics

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- Inference is important in practice: Data ⇒ Target distribution
- How accurate is our estimate? How confident are we on our results?
- In traditional inference of econometrics, we have two assumptions
 - a. Uncertainty comes from random-sampling, asymptotics when $n \to \infty$ i.i.d. sample, no correlations
- What if these two assumptions are violated?

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- In this lecture, we consider two cases
- **\blacksquare** First, when *n* is naturally limited (e.g. number of provinces)
- Another type of uncertainty becomes important: Design-based uncertainty
- Second, when i.i.d. fails and errors are clustered
- We have to incorporate this structure in inference
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- Each time you draw a new sample, it gives you a new estimate from your estimation process
- When sample changes, your estimation result changes
- Uncertainty comes from sampling process
- Thus, you have a standard error for your estimation
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- It is the uncertainty coming from the treatment assignmently
- \blacksquare Treatment X_i is no longer considered fixed
- In some cases, person 1 is treated; in other cases, person 1 is not treated
- The potential outcome you observed is different when treatment is randomly changed
- We show that this helps you to understand uncertainty of estimation when you have non-negligible sample size

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- To visually explain the difference between traditional sampling-based uncertainty and design-based uncertainty
- Let's take a look at two tables from Abadie et al. (2020)
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Sampling-based uncertainty

TABLE I SAMPLING-BASED UNCERTAINTY (\checkmark IS OBSERVED, ? IS MISSING)

Unit	Actual Sample			Alternative Sample I			Alternative Sample II			
	Y_i	Z_i	R_i	Y_i	Z_i	R_i	Y_i	Z_i	R_i	
1	√	√	1	?	?	0	?	?	0	
2	?	?	0	?	?	0	?	?	0	
3	?	?	0	✓	\checkmark	1	\checkmark	✓	1	
4	?	?	0	\checkmark	\checkmark	1	?	?	0	
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	
		•	•							• • • •
n	✓	✓	1	?	?	0	?	?	0	

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2	?	?	0	?	?	0	?	?	0	
3	?	?	0	√	√	1	√	✓	1	
4	?	?	0	\checkmark	\checkmark	1	?	?	0	
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	
	•	•	:							• • • •
n	✓	✓	1	?	?	0	?	?	0	

Unit	Actual Sample			Alternative Sample I			Alternative Sample II			
	$Y_i^*(1)$	$Y_i^*(0)$	X_i	$Y_i^*(1)$	$Y_{i}^{*}(0)$	X_i	$Y_{i}^{*}(1)$	$Y_i^*(0)$	X_i	
1	√	?	1	✓	?	1	?	✓	0	
2	?	✓	0	?	✓	0	?	✓	0	
3	?	✓	0	✓	?	1	✓	?	1	
4	?	\checkmark	0	?	\checkmark	0	\checkmark	?	1	
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3	?	✓	0	✓	?	1	✓	?	1	
4	?	✓	0	?	✓	0	✓	?	1	
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	
•	•		:		•			• •		• • • •
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- We randomly sample N from n
- $lacksquare R_i \in \{0,1\}$ as an indicator of whether i is sampled or no
- There is a random binary treatment regressor X_i
- \mathbf{n}_1 , N_1 are treated, n_0 , N_0 are not treated
- We have observed and potential outcome as

$$Y_i = Y_i^*(X_i) = \begin{cases} Y_i^*(1) & \text{if } X_i = 1\\ Y_i^*(0) & \text{if } X_i = 0 \end{cases}$$

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- We use bold letters to represent vector of the whole sample $(\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Y}_i^*(1), \mathbf{Y}_i^*(0), \mathbf{R})$
- We define three estimands as our proposed targets
- a Descriptive estimand: free of R and potential outcome (population mean difference $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$
 - $V^{--} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \gamma_i \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 \lambda_i) \gamma_i$
 - - $\theta = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} R_i(Y_i(1) Y_i(0))$
 - $g^{cover} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i^*(1) Y_i^*(0))$
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- \bullet θ^{causal} is the average causal effect of the whole population

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 - Descriptive estimand: free of **R** and potential outcome (population mean difference) $\theta^{descr} = \frac{1}{n_1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i Y_i \frac{1}{n_0} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 X_i) Y_i$
 - Causal estimand: parameter depending on potential outcome $\mathbf{Y}_{i}^{*}(1), \mathbf{Y}_{i}^{*}(0)$ $\theta^{causal,sample} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{n} R_{i}(Y_{i}^{*}(1) Y_{i}^{*}(0))$ $\theta^{causal} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_{i}^{*}(1) Y_{i}^{*}(0))$
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 - Descriptive estimand: free of **R** and potential outcome (population mean difference) $\theta^{descr} = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i Y_i \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 X_i) Y_i$
 - Causal estimand: parameter depending on potential outcome $\mathbf{Y}_{i}^{*}(1), \mathbf{Y}_{i}^{*}(0)$ $\theta^{causal,sample} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{n} R_{i}(Y_{i}^{*}(1) Y_{i}^{*}(0))$ $\theta^{causal} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_{i}^{*}(1) Y_{i}^{*}(0))$
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$$\begin{split} \Xi[\hat{\theta}|\mathbf{X}, N_1, N_0] &= \theta^{descr} \\ E[\hat{\theta}|\mathbf{R}, N_1, N_0] &= \theta^{causal, sample} \\ E[\hat{\theta}|N_1, N_0] &= \theta^{causal} \end{split}$$

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■ We define the population variances as follows

$$S_{x}^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(Y_{i}^{*}(x) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} Y_{j}^{*}(x) \right)^{2}, \text{ for } x = 0, 1$$

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Based on the defined population variance, we can derive three variances

$$V^{total}(N_{1}, N_{0}, n_{1}, n_{0}) = var(\hat{\theta}|N_{1}, N_{0}) = \frac{S_{1}^{2}}{N_{1}} + \frac{S_{0}^{2}}{N_{0}} - \frac{S_{\theta}^{2}}{n_{0} + n_{1}}$$

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- V^{total} is the total variance, considering both sampling-based and design-based uncertainty: $var(\hat{\theta}|N_1, N_0)$
- It is the variance we want to capture in inference for causal estimator.
- V^{sampling} is the variance from only sampling-based uncertainty, by conditioning on treatment assignment: $E[var(\hat{\theta}|\mathbf{X}, N_1, N_0)|N_1, N_0]$
- It is the variance in inference for descriptive estimator
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■ 1. Generally, $V^{sampling}$ and V^{design} cannot be ranked, depending on the sampling rates $\frac{N}{n}$. A very large sampling rate means a very small $V^{sampling}$.

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If the population is infinite, then design-based uncertainty is ignorable and traditional inference for causal estimand (without considering design-based uncertainty) is fine

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■ 3. Consider estimating θ^{descr} or θ^{causal}

When population is finite, V^{total} and $V^{sampling}$ are overstated if we think it is infinite

$$V^{total}(N_1, N_0, \infty, \infty) - V^{total}(N_1, N_0, n_1, n_0) = \frac{S_{\theta}^2}{n_0 + n_1} \ge 0$$

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When population is finite, V^{total} and $V^{sampling}$ are overstated if we think it is infinite $V^{total}(N_1, N_0, \infty, \infty) - V^{total}(N_1, N_0, n_1, n_0) = \frac{S_\theta^2}{n_0 + n_1} \ge 0$,

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■ 4. Consider estimating $\theta^{causal,sample}$

When population is finite, V^{aesign} is fine even if we think it is infinite

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Relative sample size does not affect variance conditional on current sample

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- It is calculated without considering design-based uncertainty

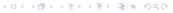
$$\hat{V}^{w} = \frac{\hat{S}_{1}^{2}}{N_{1}} + \frac{\hat{S}_{0}^{2}}{N_{0}}, \text{ where } \hat{S}_{1}^{2} = \frac{1}{N_{1} - 1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} R_{i} X_{i} \left(Y_{i} - \frac{1}{N_{1}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} R_{i} X_{i} Y_{i} \right)^{2}$$

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- It is fine if we have a small sample compared with a massive population
- Like you have a CFPS dataset to represent all families in China
- But the positive bias will become large if we have a large sample size compared with a limited population
- Like you have a province-level regression
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- The derivation of this estimator is technical
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Clustered Standard Errors: Motivating Example

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- Let's go on with the STAR experiment
- \blacksquare Consider the following regression for student i in class g:

$$y_{ig} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_g + e_{ig}$$

- \mathbf{w} y_{ig} test score; x_g class size (randomly assigned); e_{ig} error term
- This is a special case when x is fixed at g level (same treatment for the whole class)
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 \blacksquare Thus, we give up i.i.d. assumption and assume that for student i and j.

$$E[e_{ig}e_{jg}] = \rho_e \sigma_e^2 > 0$$

- \mathbf{m} ρ_e is the error intraclass correlation, σ_e^2 is the error variance
- Assume that we can decompose error into

$$e_{ig} = \nu_g + \eta_{ig}, \quad \nu_g \perp \!\!\! \perp \eta_{ig}$$

- lacktriangle We assume that $u_{lacktriangle}$ captures all within class correlations $(\eta_{ig} \perp \!\!\! \perp \eta_{jg})$
- lacktriangle Also assume homoskedasticity for both u_{g} and η_{ig}
- Then we can prove that

$$\rho_e = \frac{\sigma_\nu^2}{\sigma_\nu^2 + \sigma_\nu^2} \tag{1}$$

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- \blacksquare Assume we have classes with equal size n, then

$$\frac{V(\hat{\beta}_1)}{V_c(\hat{\beta}_1)} = 1 + (n-1)\rho_e$$

- We call this Moulton factor
- \blacksquare $n, \rho_e \uparrow \Rightarrow$ Bias of conventional variance 1
- Larger n means fewer groups \Rightarrow less information
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- What will happen if $\rho_e = 1?$ ⇒ variance is biased by 1/n
- Students in the same class do not provide additional information

- Let $V_c(\hat{\beta}_1)$ be the conventional OLS variance, $V(\hat{\beta}_1)$ be the correct variance
- \blacksquare Assume we have classes with equal size n, then

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- Let's see Moulton factor in a more general case when x_{ig} can vary across i in the same group

$$\frac{V(\hat{\beta}_1)}{V_c(\hat{\beta}_1)} = 1 + \left[\frac{V(\eta_g)}{\bar{n}} + \bar{n} - 1\right] \rho_x \rho_e \tag{2}$$

 $ar{n}$ is average group size; $V(n_g)$ is variance of group sizes; ρ_x is intraclass correlation of $x_{i\sigma}$

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- The need for clustering hinges on the presence of a correlation between residuals
- No. The essence is the clustering or sampling or treatment assignment.
 Even if students' scores are correlated within classroom, there is no need to clustered when sampling and treatment are totally random.
- 2. No harm in using clustered std err when they are not required
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 - (2) Randomly select 100 households/firms in each sampled
- It gives you a natural stratified data set
- Just cluster at city level (in general, first sampling stage level)
- Case 2: (Treatment cluster) STAR assigns treatment at class leve
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