

ECON 251 Discussion

Instrumental Variables (IV) & Difference-in-Differences (DD)

Elird Haxhiu

Fall 2022



Jack Meyer
@Jackbmeyer

...

"Just one more episode"



"Just one more page"



"Just one more control"

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \cdots + \beta_p x_p + \varepsilon$$

8:50 AM · Nov 6, 2022 · Twitter for iPhone

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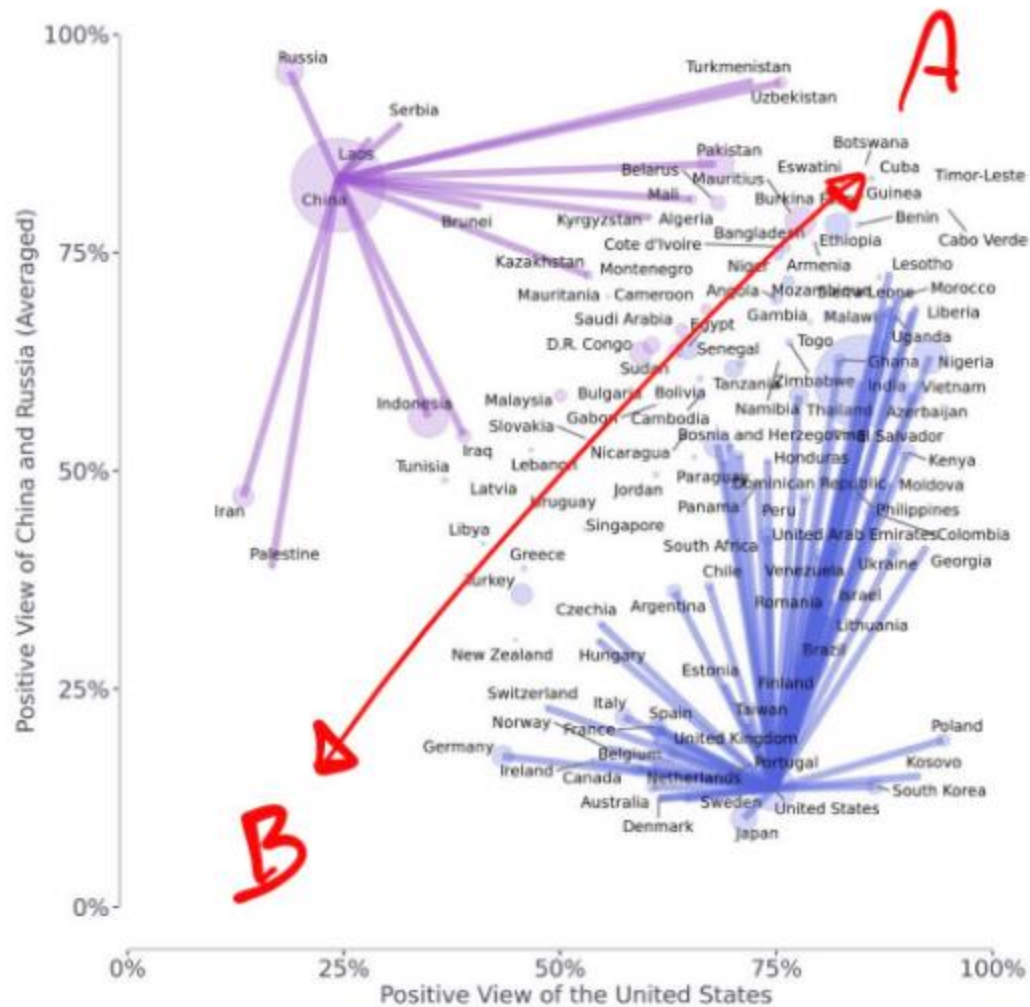


Figure 5: The structure of global allegiances in 2022. Countries with a more than 15 percentage-point lead towards either i) Russia/China or ii) the United States, are indicated by connecting lines. By comparison, the United States enjoys a much larger number of ties to societies that favour America over authoritarian revisionist powers, though, this may in part be due to suppressed favourability towards Russia in the wake of the Ukraine invasion.

»

Jørgen Carling @jorgencarling

This figure shows allegiances to the US 🇺🇸 (blue) and to Russia 🇷🇺/China 🇨🇳 (purple) — few surprises there. But the A-B axis is intriguing! In **A** people are positive to all three superpowers and in **B** they are negative. 🧵 📌

12:07 PM · Nov 10, 2022 · Twitter for iPad

3 Likes

Tweet your reply **Reply**

Jørgen ... @jorg... · Nov 10
Replying to @jorgencarling
What unites the negative countries

Announcements

1. HW3 grades coming soon!
2. New office hours/weekly review: Thursdays @ 6 – 8pm, Angell Hall...
 - Why should you attend?
 - More details at the end of discussion
3. Course feedback via teaching evaluations



Pamela Jakiela

@PJakiela



Good morning [#EconTwitter](#) ! Can you please share links to your favorite papers on student evaluations of teaching (on bias, what they measure, etc)?

Thank you!

6:39 AM · Sep 28, 2021 · Twitter for iPhone

19 Retweets **49** Likes



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GENDER BIAS IN TEACHING EVALUATIONS

Friederike Mengel

University of Essex and Lund University

Jan Sauermann

Swedish Institute for Social Research (SOFI), Stockholm University

Ulf Zölitz

University of Zurich

Abstract

This paper provides new evidence on gender bias in teaching evaluations. We exploit a quasi-experimental dataset of 19,952 student evaluations of university faculty in a context where students are randomly allocated to female or male instructors. Despite the fact that neither students' grades nor self-study hours are affected by the instructor's gender, we find that women receive systematically lower teaching evaluations than their male colleagues. This bias is driven by male students' evaluations, is larger for mathematical courses, and particularly pronounced for junior women. The gender bias in teaching evaluations we document may have direct as well as indirect effects on the career progression of women by affecting junior women's confidence and through the reallocation of instructor resources away from research and toward teaching. (JEL: J16, J71, I23, J45)



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Race and gender biases in student evaluations of teachers[☆]

Carolyn Chisadza, Nicky Nicholls*, Eleni Yitbarek

University of Pretoria, Department of Economics, South Africa



HIGHLIGHTS

- We use an RCT to investigate race and gender bias in student evaluations of teachers.
- We note biases in favor of female lecturers and against black lecturers.
- Of particular concern, black students show bias against black lecturers.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 5 May 2018

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I23

J15

J16

ABSTRACT

Student ratings of teaching (SETs) are vital for academic career trajectories of higher education lecturers. Although student bias against female lecturers is noted in previous studies, mostly in the developed world, the extent to which race affects such ratings has received limited attention. To better understand the role of race and gender bias in SETs, we conduct an experiment in South Africa, where racial bias is highly prevalent. Students are randomly assigned to follow video lectures with identical narrated slides and script but given by lecturers of different race and gender. **We find that black lecturers receive lower ratings than white lecturers, particularly from black students.**

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P.B. Stark and R. Freishtat

An Evaluation of Course Evaluations

An evaluation of course evaluations

Student ratings of teaching have been used, studied, and debated for almost a century. This article examines student ratings of teaching from a statistical perspective. The common practice of relying on averages of student teaching evaluation scores as the primary measure of teaching effectiveness for promotion and tenure decisions should be abandoned for substantive and statistical reasons: There is strong evidence that student responses to questions of “effectiveness” do not measure teaching effectiveness. Response rates and response variability matter. And comparing averages of categorical responses, even if the categories are represented by numbers, makes little sense. **Student ratings of teaching are valuable when they ask the right questions, report response rates and score distributions, and are balanced by a variety of other sources and methods to evaluate teaching.**

Keywords: student course evaluations, teaching evaluations, teaching effectiveness, statistics

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Pamela Jakiela

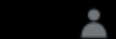
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Followed by some Tweeters you follow

Alice Evans @_alice_evans · Sep 28, 2021

Replying to @PJakiela

As far as I am aware, the consensus is that student evaluations don't tightly track learning outcomes, but student satisfaction, and there is bias in favour of white men.

But idk what the 'best' response is, since students may be less biased than peer evaluators.



1



2



Alice Evans @_alice_evans · Sep 28, 2021

Replying to @_alice_evans and @PJakiela

And the underlying problem persists: students are graduating with strong gender bias.



2



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Outline

1. Review some key concepts
 - OLS assumptions and main results
 - Omitted variable bias (OVB) formula
2. Review instrumental variables (IV)
 - Examples of instruments + method of moments (MM) estimator consistency proof
 - In practice: when doing IV is worse than just doing OLS
3. Special Panel Data method: Differences-in-differences (DD)
 - Basic intuition and assumptions

Usual Assumptions

- MLR1 (linear outcome model)
- MLR2 (random sampling)
- MLR3 (no collinearity)
- MLR4 (independence)
- MLR5 (homoskedasticity)
- MLR6 (normality)

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_k X_{ik} + U_i$$

$\{Y_i, X_{i1}, \dots, X_{ik}\}_{i=1}^N$ is random draw
no X_{ij} linear function of any other X_{il}

$$E[U_i | X_{i1}, \dots, X_{ik}] = 0$$

$$\text{Var}(U_i | X_{i1}, \dots, X_{ik}) = \sigma^2$$

$$U_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow Y_i \sim N(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_k X_{ik}, \sigma^2)$$

Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) Estimator + Results

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_k X_{ik} + U_i$$

$$\min_{\{\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k\}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_{i1} - \cdots - \beta_k X_{ik})^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \hat{\beta}_j^{OLS}$$

- T1 (unbiased) MLR1+2+3+4 $\Rightarrow \quad E \left[\hat{\beta}_j^{OLS} \right] = \beta_j \quad \forall j = \{0, 1, \dots, k\}$
- T2 (efficient) MLR1+2+3+4+5 $\Rightarrow \quad E \left[\hat{\beta}_j^{OLS} \right] = \beta_j \quad \forall j = \{0, 1, \dots, k\}$
(Gauss-Markov) $\text{Var} \left[\hat{\beta}_j^{OLS} \right] \leq \text{Var} \left[\hat{\beta}_j^{\text{other linear}} \right]$

Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) Estimator + Results

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_k X_{ik} + U_i$$

$$\min_{\{\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k\}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_{i1} - \cdots - \beta_k X_{ik})^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \hat{\beta}_j^{OLS}$$

- T3 (efficient) MLR1+2+3+4+5+6 $\Rightarrow \hat{\beta}_j^{OLS} \sim N(\beta_j, \text{Var}[\beta_j]) \quad \forall j = \{0, 1, \dots, k\}$
(Classical)

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_j^{OLS} - \beta_j}{\text{sd}[\beta_j]} \sim N(0, 1) \quad \frac{\hat{\beta}_j^{OLS} - \beta_j}{\text{se}[\beta_j]} \sim t(N - k - 1)$$

Omitted variable bias (OVB)

“True” model	$\log Y_i = \alpha + \beta \cdot S_i + \delta^{X \rightarrow Y} \cdot X_i + U_i$	$\text{Cov}(S_i, U_i) = 0$
Our model	$\log Y_i = a + b \cdot S_i + E_i$	
Auxiliary model	$X_i = c + \gamma^{S \rightarrow X} \cdot S_i + \eta_i$	

In week 5 we proved that naively assuming $\text{Cov}(S_i, E_i) = 0$ in our model implies

$$\begin{aligned} b &= \frac{\text{Cov}(S_i, \log Y_i)}{\text{Var}(S_i)} \\ &= \beta + \gamma^{S \rightarrow X} \cdot \delta^{X \rightarrow Y} \\ &= \text{causal effect} + (\text{var in } S \text{ related to } X) \cdot (\text{var in } X \text{ related to } Y) \end{aligned}$$

What if $\text{Cov}(S_i, U_i) = 0$ is also suspect?

1. Despair \Rightarrow intellectual nihilism, true reality hidden to little humans in the world
2. One answer \Rightarrow sensitivity analysis + new tools in Cinelli and Hazlett (2020)
3. Traditional approaches \Rightarrow find an instrumental variable Z_i which generates some exogenous variation in the treatment S_i but does not affect $\log Y_i$ directly (IV)

find some exogenous policy which affects some units but not others once implemented (DD)

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Instrumental variable (IV) Z_i decompose S_i into S_i^X and S_i^N

- A valid instrument satisfies

1. Relevance
2. Exogeneity
3. Exclusion

$$\text{Cov}(Z_i, S_i) \neq 0$$

$$\text{Cov}(Z_i, U_i) = 0$$

no direct effect of Z_i on outcome Y_i

\Leftrightarrow instrument Z_i does not appear in model of Y_i

- First stage generates predicted values for the treatment $\hat{S}_i := \hat{\pi}_0 + \hat{\pi}_1 Z_i$
- Under IV exogeneity, this is equivalent to exogenous variation S_i^X
- We can then estimate returns β from model $\log Y_i = \alpha + \beta \cdot \hat{S}_i + U_i$

Examples of instruments Z_i for S_i

1. Distance to college when 16 years old
2. Month of birth interacted with compulsory school attendance laws
3. Natural disasters preventing some people from going to school
4. Number of siblings
5. Opportunities to emigrate (Haxhiu, 2022)

Can we compare OLS and IV?

- The instrument you choose implicitly defines a “complier” group = the people moved to change the value of their treatment by the IV
- The estimator relies only on these people to construct an estimate of the β
- Different IVs often lead to different estimates of β if the sub-populations they induce into changing their value of S_i are somehow different
- Contrast with OLS, which relies on everyone to construct an estimate of β
- Therefore, we say OLS (= simple comparison) identifies the ATE
- The estimator under IV identifies a local average treatment effect (LATE)

Derive MM estimator under IV assumptions

Start w/ IV exogeneity $\text{Cov}(Z_i, U_i) = 0$ + substitute Mincer (1974) earnings model

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(Z_i, \log Y_i - \alpha - \beta \cdot S_i) &= 0 \\ \text{Cov}(Z_i, \log Y_i) - \text{Cov}(Z_i, \alpha) - \beta \cdot \text{Cov}(Z_i, S_i) &= 0 \\ \text{Cov}(Z_i, \log Y_i) &= \beta \cdot \text{Cov}(Z_i, S_i) \\ \beta &= \frac{\text{Cov}(Z_i, \log Y_i)}{\text{Cov}(Z_i, S_i)}\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\beta}^{MM} = \frac{\widehat{\text{Cov}}(Z_i, \log Y_i)}{\widehat{\text{Cov}}(Z_i, S_i)} := \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (Z_i - \bar{Z})(\log Y_i - \overline{\log Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^N (Z_i - \bar{Z})(S_i - \bar{S})}$$

Consistency of MM estimator under IV assumptions

- Start from definition of estimator, and compute the probability limit

$$\hat{\beta}^{MM} = \frac{\widehat{\text{Cov}}(Z_i, \log Y_i)}{\widehat{\text{Cov}}(Z_i, S_i)}$$

$$\text{plim}_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\beta}^{MM} = \text{plim}_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\widehat{\text{Cov}}(Z_i, \log Y_i)}{\widehat{\text{Cov}}(Z_i, S_i)} = \frac{\text{plim}_{N \rightarrow \infty} \widehat{\text{Cov}}(Z_i, \log Y_i)}{\text{plim}_{N \rightarrow \infty} \widehat{\text{Cov}}(Z_i, S_i)}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Cov}(Z_i, \log Y_i)}{\text{Cov}(Z_i, S_i)} = \frac{\text{Cov}(Z_i, \alpha + \beta \cdot S_i + U_i)}{\text{Cov}(Z_i, S_i)}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Cov}(Z_i, \alpha) + \beta \cdot \text{Cov}(Z_i, S_i) + \text{Cov}(Z_i, U_i)}{\text{Cov}(Z_i, S_i)} = \beta + \frac{\text{Cov}(Z_i, U_i)}{\text{Cov}(Z_i, S_i)}$$

Doing IV can be worse than OLS

- The OVB formula for OLS implies that it converges to

$$\text{plim}_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\beta}^{OLS} = \beta + \frac{\text{Cov}(S_i, U_i)}{\text{Var}(S_i)}$$

- We have just shown that the MM estimator converges to

$$\text{plim}_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\beta}^{MM} = \beta + \frac{\text{Cov}(Z_i, U_i)}{\text{Cov}(Z_i, S_i)}$$

- What if $\text{Cov}(S_i, U_i) = 0$ or $\text{Cov}(Z_i, U_i) = 0$ are not exactly $= 0$?
- Not clear which is more likely to hold without more context, but...
- If $\text{Cov}(Z_i, S_i) \approx 0$ (weak instrument), then even minor violations of IV exogeneity lead to large asymptotic bias: aka inconsistency!

Some other practical matters

- We can always write estimator $\hat{\beta}^{MM}$ under IV assumptions as the
 1. ratio of two OLS estimators (reduced form \div first stage)
 2. OLS coefficient in regression of outcome on “predicted” treatment
- We can include more than one instrument in the first stage predicting the endogenous variable, and then use any of the estimators above
- Generically called Two-Stage Least Squares (TSLS) estimator
- Potential costs, in addition to benefits, of having more IVs

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Pooled cross-section + Panel data

- New sample from the population of interest over time means we have a pooled cross-section dataset (when new units are sampled each period) and a panel dataset (when we track the same units)
- Two dimensions (units i and time periods t) to consider our research question relating outcome Y_{it} to treatment X_{it}
- Random Effects: OLS on $Y_{it} = \theta_t + \beta \cdot X_{it} + U_{it}$ with dummy variables for time periods (interacting with treatment to assess structural change)
- Fixed Effects: OLS on $Y_{it} = \alpha_i + \theta_t + \beta \cdot X_{it} + U_{it}$ with dummy variables for time periods and individual units (if we have a panel) or exogenously defined groups of units (if we have a pooled cross-section)

Difference-in-differences = compare Y change of units exposed to some policy T with Y change of unexposed

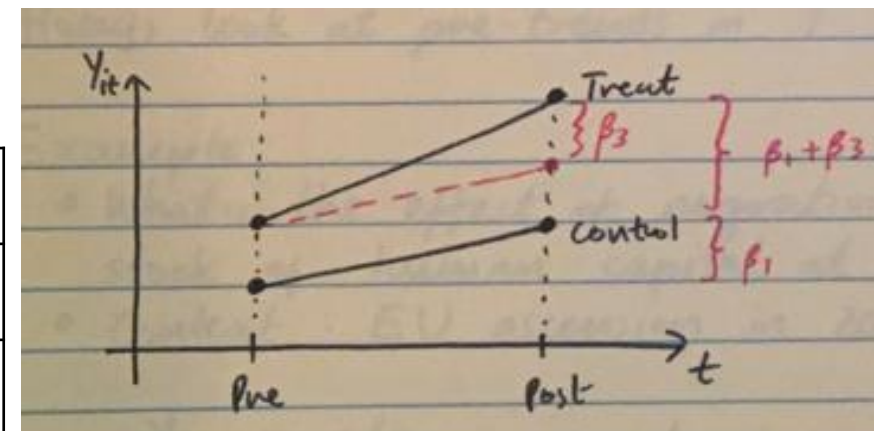
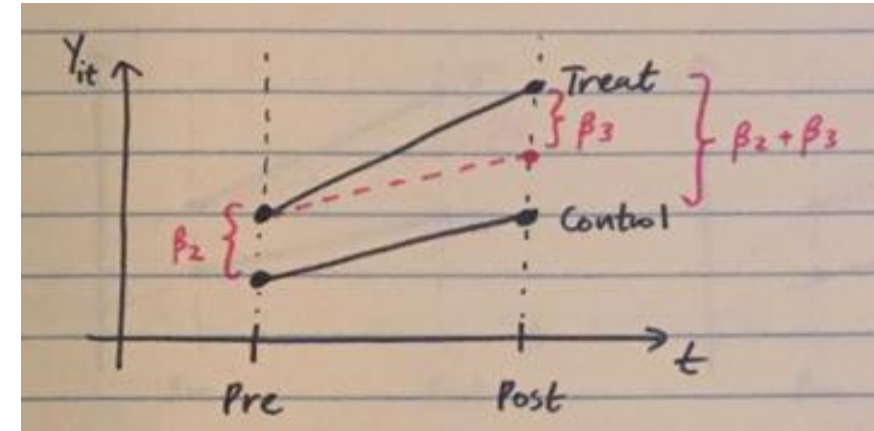
2 periods (before/after) and 2 groups (treated/control)

Y_{it} := outcome of interest

$P_t := 1\{t \text{ is after treatment occurs}\}$

$T_i := 1\{i \text{ is treated/exposed}\}$

$$Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 P_t + \beta_2 T_i + \beta_3 [P_t \cdot T_i] + U_i$$



	Before	After	After – Before
Control	β_0	$\beta_0 + \beta_1$	β_1
Treated	$\beta_0 + \beta_2$	$\beta_0 + \beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3$	$\beta_1 + \beta_3$
Treat – Control	β_2	$\beta_2 + \beta_3$	β_3

Parallel Trends Assumption = exposed units Y without policy T would have changed like unexposed units Y

- PTA is an untestable assumption, just like OLS exogeneity or IV exogeneity
- However, if we have access to more data before policy, we can assess how likely it is to hold in practice... commonly known as “checking for pre-trends”
- One reason why people seem to like DD... visual check of identifying assumption!

