The Limits of Inference Without Theory

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"Fuller utilization of the concepts and hypotheses of economic theory ... as a part of the practices of observation and measurement promises to be a shorter road, perhaps even the only road, to an understanding of cyclical fluctuations." Tjalling C. Koopmans, "Measurement Without Theory," Cowles Commission Papers, No. 15, 1947

(italics in original)

"Fuller utilization of the concepts and hypotheses of economic theory ... as a part of the practices of observation, measurement and inference promises to be a shorter road, perhaps even the only road, to an understanding of (fill in the blank)."

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That the disagreement entails a choice between "structural" and "reduced form" approaches is a *false* characterization.

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Much empirical research eschews the use of theory as a way of justifying empirical specifications and interpreting results.

In that approach, statistical model parameters and auxiliary variables that serve as "controls" are not explicitly related to theory.

This approach is predominant in many economics journals.

For example, in the maiden issue (January 2009) of the new AEA journal, *Applied Economics*, not a single paper includes an explicit economic model of the behavior that was being studied.

Why does it matter?

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Let me give you three quite different examples where it does matter - the issue is, however, more general than the examples.

The first example illustrates the importance of using theory in econometric specification and is relevant to dozens of papers spanning over 30 years of empirical research on unemployment duration.

This empirical literature was spawned by the development of search-theoretic models of unemployment - McCall (1970), Mortensen (1970).

The second example illustrates the connection between theory and the recent econometrics literature on IV estimation with heterogeneous treatment response.

Heckman and Robb (1985), Bjorklund and Moffitt (1987), Imbens and Angrist (2005), Heckman (1997), Rosenzweig and Wolpin (2000), Heckman and Vytlacil (2005).

The third example illustrates the importance of theory in addressing questions of interpretation and of external validity in an experimental setting.

Heckman and Smith (1995), Todd and Wolpin (2003), Deaton (2010), Heckman and Urzua (2010), Imbens (2009).

There are many possible examples in the literature. I've chosen these for several reasons.

1. Their literatures are large.

2. The theory necessary for the illustrations is simple and easily described.

3. The examples are discussed in my papers.

Example 1 – Estimating the Effect of UI Benefits on Unemployment Duration

A great deal of effort has been expended on estimating the impact of the level of UI benefits on the duration of unemployment.

Usually, that empirical research appeals to the standard job search model.

Consider a standard infinite horizon search model. The reservation wage solves:

$$w^* = b + \frac{\lambda}{r} \int_{w^*}^{\infty} (x - w^*) dF(x)$$

$$= w^*(b, \frac{\lambda}{r}, F)$$

Thus, the reservation wage is a function of the *level of unemployment benefits*, the *ratio of the job offer arrival rate to the interest rate* and the *distribution of wage offers*.

This discussion is taken from Wolpin, *Empirical Methods for the Study of Labor Force Dynamics* (1995)

The hazard function of unemployment duration is given by

$$h(t_u) = \lambda(1 - F(w^*))$$

which implies that it is a function of

$$b, \lambda, r, F$$

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It is in fact hard to find a paper that does not include either the replacement rate or the wage on the job prior to the unemployment spell.

However, neither the replacement rate nor w_{-1} itself appears in the hazard function derived from the search model.

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In that case, the dynamic optimization problem, as well as the interpretation of the effect of UI benefits on search outcomes, will be considerably more complex. The agent must take into account the effect of accepting a wage in the given unemployment spell on the search problem in future unemployment spells (Ferrall, 1997).

2. The researcher believes that w_{-1} serves as a proxy for some omitted variable, for example, for some moment, such as the mean, of the wage offer distribution.

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The use of the proxy cannot be analyzed as a classical measurement error problem.

The reason is that the observed wage on the previous job is the outcome, that is, the accepted wage, of the prior search.

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The estimate of the UI effect in the presence of the proxy is therefore *biased* and the sign of the bias depends on which factors are unobserved.

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A corollary is that "control" variables should be explicitly justified by the theory.

Perhaps the single most frequently estimated parameter in economics is that of years of schooling in an earnings regression.

The main objective of that literature is to obtain an estimate that is free of ability bias.

Example 2 – The Effect of Schooling on Earnings

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AK exploit laws governing the ages at which children can enter and leave school that induce variation in completed schooling with respect to birth date. What is the interpretation we should give to the schooling effect estimated using the variation that AK exploit?

A reasonable strategy is to design a schooling decision model that captures that variation as closely as possible.

A Simple Model of Schooling Choice¹

Assume:

1. that everyone works full-time for the same number of periods after leaving school so that actual work experience is the same as potential work experience.

1. This discussion is taken from Rosenzweig and Wolpin, "Natural 'Natural Experiments' in Economics," (JEL, 2000).

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3. Assume that there is a direct cost of attending school in that decision period.

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Let the wage function be separable in schooling and other determinants of skill (work experience, x), but not in ability, $\mu~$:

$$\log y = f(S,\mu) + g(x,\mu)$$

A Simple Model of Schooling Choice The present value of lifetime earnings for each schooling alternative is given by

$$V(s_1 = 1|S_0) = \exp[f(S_0 + 1, \mu)] \sum_{x=0}^X \beta^{x+1} \exp[g(x, \mu)] - c$$

$$V(s_1 = 0|S_0) = \exp[f(S_0, \mu)] \sum_{x=0}^X \beta^x \exp[g(x, \mu)]$$

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The school attendance decision is:

$$s_1 = 1$$
 if $f(S_0 + 1, \mu) - f(S_0, \mu) \ge r + \log \left\lfloor \frac{c}{V(s_1 = 0|S_0)} + 1 \right\rfloor$

= 0 otherwise

where $\beta = 1/(1+r)$.

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1. If c = 0, then we obtain the usual condition that attendance depends on whether the marginal return exceeds the interest rate: $\frac{\Delta \log y}{\Delta s} \ge r$.

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2. If $\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} [f(S_0 + 1, \mu) - f(S_0, \mu)] > 0$, then there exists a μ^* such that $s_1 = 1$ if $\mu \ge \mu^*$

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The bias in the estimated schooling effect due to omitted (unobserved) ability is

$$E\left(\frac{\Delta \log y}{\Delta s}\right) = E_{\mu}\left[f(S_{0}+1,\mu)|\mu \ge \mu^{*}\right] - E_{\mu}\left[f(S_{0},\mu)|\mu < \mu^{*}\right]$$
$$> E_{\mu}\left[f(S_{0}+1,\mu) - f(S_{0},\mu)\right]$$

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Suppose the optimal level of schooling for type 1's is $S_0 + 1$ and that of type 2's S_0 .

Compare two sets of children, those who just make the school entry date of birth deadline (older children) and those who just miss the deadline (younger children) – they differ in age, say, by only 1 day.

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Example 2 – The Effect of Schooling on Earnings Compare two sets of children, those who just make the school entry date of birth deadline (older children) and those who just miss the deadline (younger children) – they differ in age, say, by only 1day.

The type 1 children complete $S_0 + 1$ years regardless of their date of birth because it's optimal for them.

The older type 2 children complete S_0 years because that is optimal for them.

But, the younger type 2 children are forced to remain in school an extra year because they reach the school leaving age only after spending $S_0 + 1$ years in school.

Example 2 – The Effect of Schooling on Earnings To get the Wald estimate of the schooling effect, note that:

Mean earnings for younger type 1's = $f(S_0 + 1, \mu_1)$

Mean earnings for younger type 2's = $f(S_0 + 1, \mu_2)$

Mean earnings for older type 1's = $f(S_0 + 1, \mu_1)$

Mean earnings for older type 2's $= f(S_0, \mu_2)$

Mean earnings of younger children

$$= \pi_1 f(S_{\mathbf{0}} + 1, \mu_1) + (1 - \pi_1) f(S_{\mathbf{0}} + 1, \mu_2)$$

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$$= (1 - \pi_1)[f(S_0 + 1, \mu_2) - f(S_0, \mu_2)]$$

and the change in the population mean schooling is

$$\pi_1 0 + (1 - \pi_1) 1$$

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$$\frac{\Delta E(Y)}{\Delta E(S)} = f(S_0 + 1, \mu_2) - f(S_0, \mu_2).$$

This is the marginal effect of schooling on earnings for the *less able* only.

When would the Wald estimate equal the marginal effect for the population (not just for the less able)?

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$$f(S,\mu) = f_1(S) + f_2(\mu)$$

i.e., if the marginal effect of schooling is independent of ability.

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The use of the simple schooling model provides a set of underlying assumptions under which the AK and BC interpretations of their IV estimators are valid.

Example 3 – The Effect of Class Size on Student Performance¹

Assume that we have a randomized field experiment.

1. This discussion is taken from Todd and Wolpin, "On the Specification and Estimation the Production Function for Cognitive Achievement," (EJ, 2003)

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The experiment is used to estimate the relationship between class size and cognitive achievement either in current or later grades.

Consider a regression of a measure of cognitive achievement in grade g, T_g , on class size, $C_{g'}$, where $g \ge g'$,

$$T_g = \alpha C_{g'} + u,$$

and where α is the effect of class size in grade g' on measured achievement in grade g.

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How do we assess which of these is true and why would we care?

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One reasonable way to interpret the regression is as a production function in which the achievement measure is the output and class size is the input. Then, what's in u are all the other inputs that determine achievement (as well as invariant endowments, all possibly interacting with class size).

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For example, if parents thought that a larger class size would adversely impact their child's achievement, they might work more themselves with the child or hire a private tutor. Or, teachers might use different teaching methods for larger class sizes.

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For example, if parents thought that a larger class size would adversely impact their child's achievement, they might work more themselves with the child or hire a private tutor. Or, teachers might use different teaching methods for larger class sizes.

The class size effect reflects all of these adjustments and cannot itself be interpreted as a production function parameter.

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But, suppose one argues that all we had wanted to identify was this effect of class size on achievement, that is, the *policy impact*.

Theory implies that the change in other inputs induced by differences in class size will depend on the circumstances of the families in the experiment.

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Without understanding how the response of those inputs to the change in class size differs among families, we cannot generalize the estimated class size effect to other settings.

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The best field experiments are those that have also collected auxiliary information that can be used to help extrapolate beyond the setting of the experiment (e.g., as in the Mexican Progresa program).

Conclusion

"But *the decision* not to use theories of man's economic behavior, even hypothetically, *limits the value to economic science and to the makers of policies*, of the results obtained or obtainable by the methods developed."

Tjalling C. Koopmans (Measurement Without Theory, Cowles Commission Papers, No. 15, 1947)

(italics added).