University of Central Florida
College of Business

QMB 6911
Capstone Project in Business Analytics

Solutions: Problem Set #11

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

In this paper I analyze the prices from sales of used tractors. My aim is to investigate two questions. First, I intend to investigate the premium attached to the John Deere brand of tractors. If there is such a premium, how high is it? Also, is such a premium related to particular models, or is there a relationship with the rate of depreciation of these tractors compared to that of other brands? Second, if I were selling a used tractor, should I wait until a particular season to sell it? Does the price change depending on the season?

In the following pages, I will investigate these questions and ultimately fit a model for the price of used tractors, allowing for endogeneity in the choice of the characteristics of tractors produced and sold by each manufacturer. To understand the dynamics of a sample selection model, it is worthwhile to understand the research related to these questions.

1.2 Economic Theory

1.2.1 Market for Lemons

Akerlof's description of the market for lemons is a long-standing contribution to the understanding of asymmetric information.

1.2.2 Characteristic Theory

The paper by Lancaster (1966) is a contribution to economic theory in which he makes the case for a sound theory of consumer choice, in which the consumer's preferences are defined on the characteristics of different goods, rather than the quantities of uniformly-defined goods.

1.2.3 Hedonic Pricing Models

Rosen (1974) builds on the work of Lancaster (1966) by providing an empirical framework for estimating the value of products based on their characteristics.

1.3 Empirical Framework

1.3.1 Tobit Models

Heckman (1979) described sample selection models as a model specification question.

Amemiya (1984) summarized the variaous types of Tobit models and provides a review of research with applications of these models.

Lee and Trost (1978) is a well-known application to housing markets, which incorporates the fact that the residents make a decision to either own or rent a home before buying.

Chapter 2

Data Description

2.1 Data Description

This analysis follows the scripts in the `Code` folder to produce a more accurate model for used tractor prices with the data from `TRACTOR7.csv` in the `Data` folder. The dataset includes the following variables.

$saleprice_i$	=	the price paid for tractor i in dollars
$horsepower_i$	=	the horsepower of tractor i
age_i	=	the number of years since tractor i was manufactured
$enghours_i$	=	the number of hours of use recorded for tractor i
$diesel_i$	=	an indicator of whether tractor i runs on diesel fuel
fwd_i	=	an indicator of whether tractor i has four-wheel drive
$manual_i$	=	an indicator of whether tractor i has a manual transmission
$johndeere_i$	=	an indicator of whether tractor i is manufactured by John Deere
cab_i	=	an indicator of whether tractor i has an enclosed cab
$spring_i$	=	an indicator of whether tractor i was sold in April or May
$summer_i$	=	an indicator of whether tractor i was sold between June and September
$winter_i$	=	an indicator of whether tractor i was sold between December and March

Chapter 3

Analysis of the Dependent Variable

3.1 Introduction

This note summarizes the findings in the script `Tractor_Price_Density.R`, which analyzes the prices of fly reels, the dependent variable in the `TRACTOR7.csv` dataset. The output includes plots of the histogram and kernel-smoothed densities, using a selection of tuning parameters.

3.2 Relative Histogram of Fly Reel Prices

First plot a histogram with the default options.

```
hist(tractor_sales[, 'saleprice'],
    main = 'Relative Histogram of Tractor Prices',
    xlab = 'Price',
    probability = TRUE)
```

Figure 3.1 is a histogram of the tractor prices generated by the code block above. Notice that
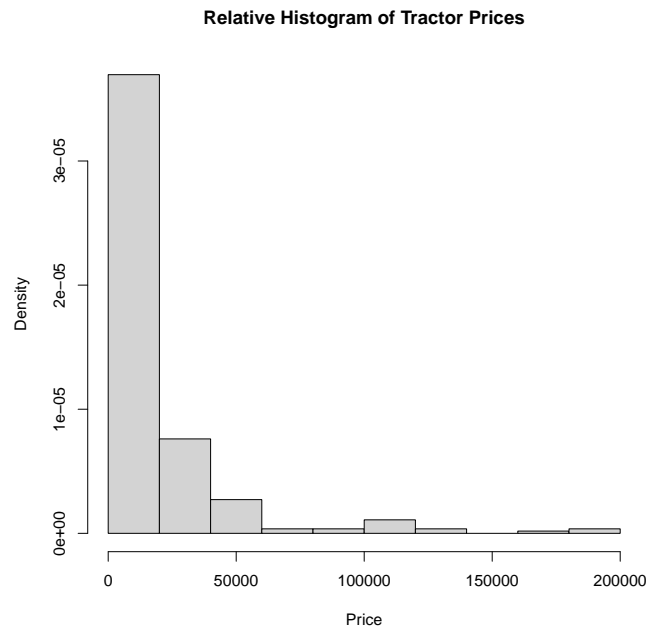

Figure 3.1: Relative Histogram of Tractor Prices

there are some very large values. Consider taking logs to bring outliers closer to the others.

```
# Generate a new variable log_saleprice.
tractor_sales[, 'log_saleprice'] <- log(tractor_sales[, 'saleprice'])
```

Now plot the histogram for log of saleprice, depicted in Figure 3.2.

```
hist(tractor_sales[, 'log_saleprice'],
    main = 'Histogram of the Logarithm of Tractor Prices',
    xlab = 'Logarithm of Price',
    probability = TRUE)
```

With this transformation, the variable appears much better behaved. It looks almost normally distributed.

Now we will consider adjusting the tuning parameter for the number of bars in the chart for the histogram. A low number of breaks may give a smoother plot but it may not be very informative, as in Figure 3.3.

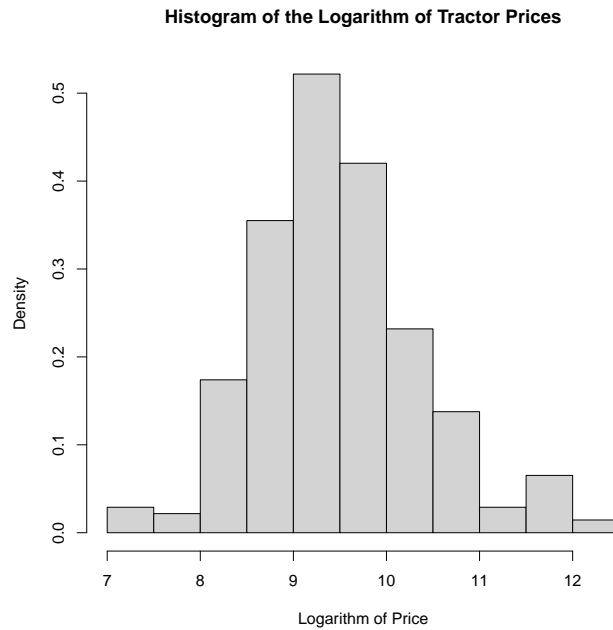**Histogram of the Logarithm of Tractor Prices**

Figure 3.2: Relative Histogram of the Logarithm of Tractor Prices

```
hist(tractor_sales[, 'log_saleprice'], breaks = 5,
     main = c('Histogram of the Logarithm of Tractor Prices',
              'Number of Breaks: 5'),
     xlab = 'Logarithm of Price',
     probability = TRUE)
```

On the other extreme, a high number of breaks gives a sparsely populated and jagged plot. Figure 3.4 shows such an example.

```
hist(tractor_sales[, 'log_saleprice'], breaks = 50,
     main = c('Histogram of the Logarithm of Tractor Prices',
              'Number of Breaks: 5'),
     xlab = 'Logarithm of Price',
     probability = TRUE)
```

Histogram of the Logarithm of Tractor Prices
Number of Breaks: 5

Figure 3.3: Relative Histogram of the Logarithm of Tractor Prices (Breaks: 5)

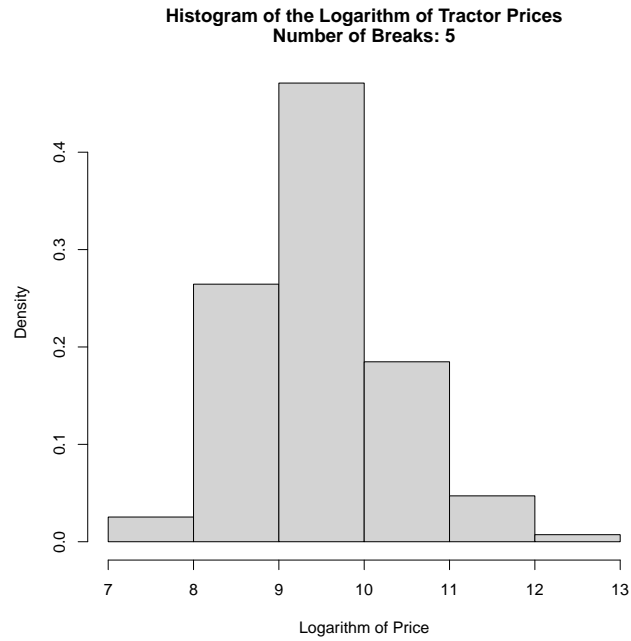**Histogram of the Logarithm of Tractor Prices**
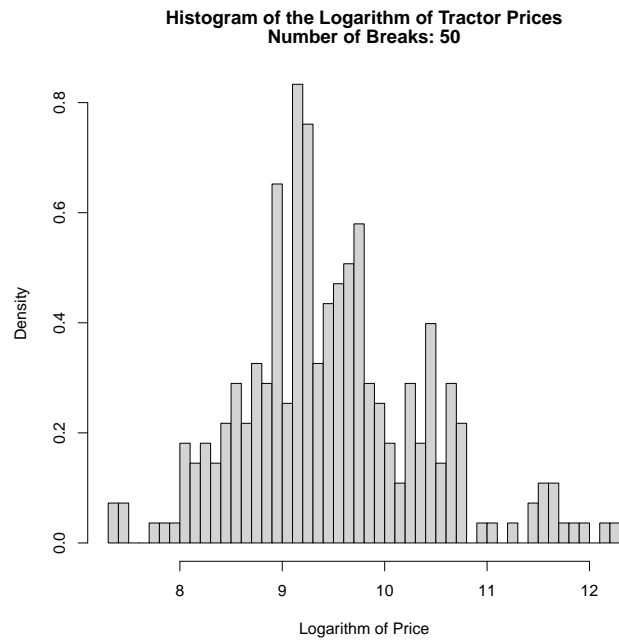**Number of Breaks: 50**

Figure 3.4: Relative Histogram of the Logarithm of Tractor Prices (Breaks: 50)

In the limit, the bars can be very small to the point that each bar is a pixel wide: approximating a continuous function. To smooth it out, the nonparametric technique of kernel smoothing with

produce a continuous function.

3.3 Probability Density Function of Tractor Prices

Kernel-density smoothing is an example of a nonparametric method, that is, a model without parameters, such as the slope coefficients β in a regression model. You may have used nonparametric methods to plot a density. In fact, we have just used a rudimentary form of nonparanetric method when we plotted the histograms above.

Figure 3.5 depicts the kernel-smoothed probability density function of the natural logarithm of price.

```
price_density <- density(tractor_sales[, 'saleprice'])
plot(price_density,
     main = 'Kernel-Smoothed Density of Tractor Prices',
     xlab = 'Price')
```


Figure 3.5: Probability Density Function of Tractor Prices

In the default, the bandwidth is chosen using an algorithm. See the help for density.

```
> attributes(price_density)
$names
[1] "x"           "y"           "bw"          "n"
[5] "call"        "data.name"   "has.na"

$class
[1] "density"

> price_density$bw
[1] 2875.455
>
```

The default algorithm for this variable sets the bandwidth to $2,875. You can choose the bandwidth as a tuning parameter. Try a larger value as in the following code block.

```
price_density <- density(tractor_sales[, 'saleprice'],
                         bw = 10000)
plot(price_density,
     main = c('Kernel-Smoothed Density of Tractor Prices',
              'Bandwidth: 10,000'),
     xlab = 'Price')
```

Figure 3.6 depicts the kernel-smoothed probability density function with a bandwidth of $10,000$.
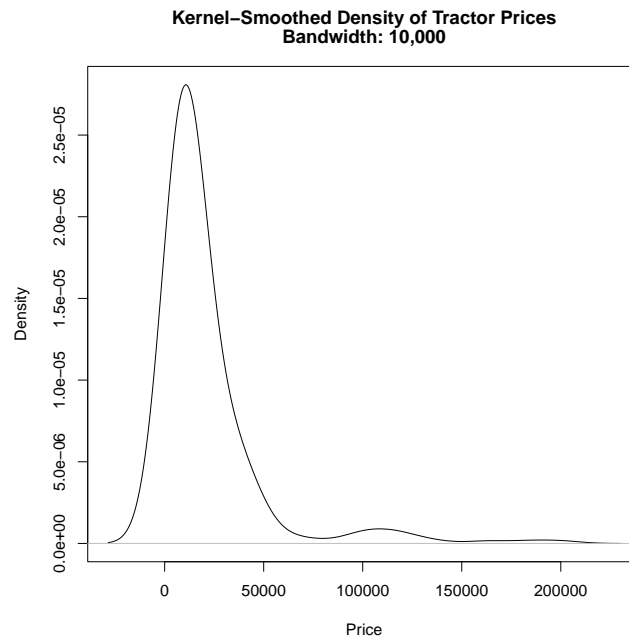
Figure 3.6: Probability Density Function of Tractor Prices (Bandwidth: $10,000$)

A bigger bandwidth gives you a smooth density, but might smooth over the details. A smaller bandwidth might make the density too noisy.

```
price_density <- density(tractor_sales[, 'saleprice'],
                         bw = 1000)
plot(price_density,
     main = c('Kernel-Smoothed Density of Tractor Prices',
              'Bandwidth: 1,000'),
     xlab = 'Price')
```
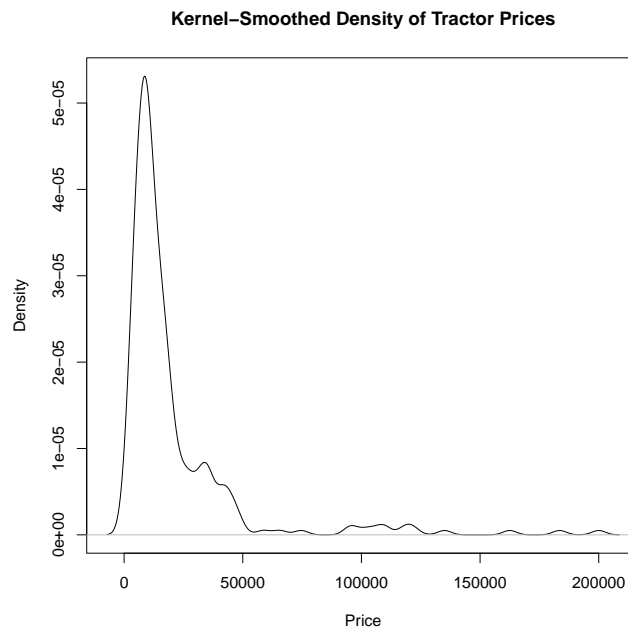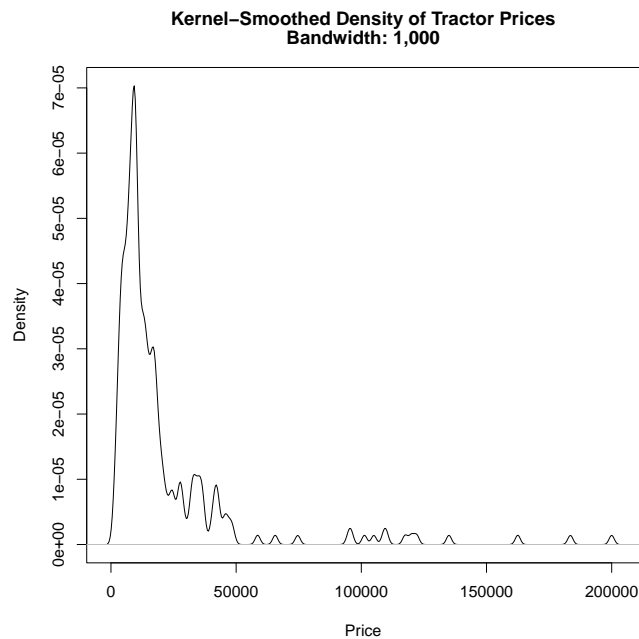

Figure 3.7: Probability Density Function of Tractor Prices (Bandwidth: $10,00$)

In Figure 3.7, we see many jagged changes that are more closely related with the particular values observed than with the population density.

We can do something similar to predict one variable with the others. Before that, we will transform the dependent variable, after analyzing it in greater detail in future problem sets. For now, we can plot the logarithm of the dependent variable, with a bandwidth of 0.20, which is appropriate for the price levels on a log scale..

```
log_price_density <- density(tractor_sales[, 'log_saleprice'],
                        bw = 0.20)
plot(log_price_density,
    main = c('Density of the Logarithm of Tractor Prices',
            'Bandwidth: 0.20'),
    xlab = 'Logarithm of Price')
```
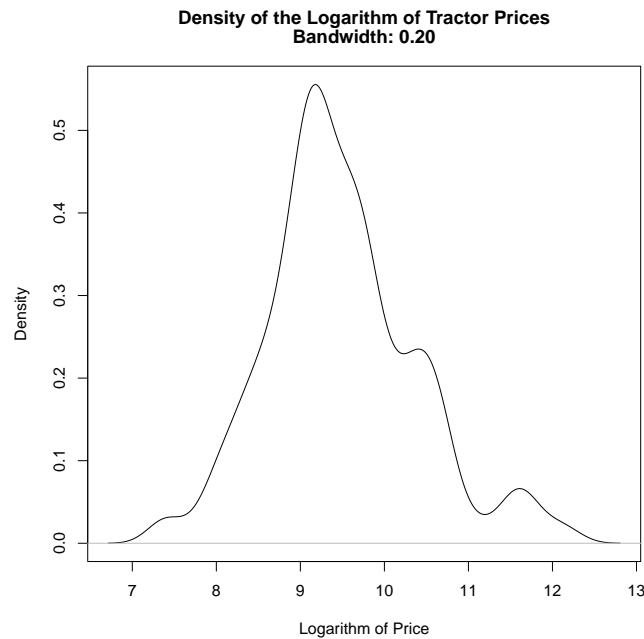

Figure 3.8: Probability Density Function of the Logarithm of Tractor Prices (Bandwidth: 0.20)

The density plot shown in Figure 3.8 is much better behaved and is a good starting point to analyze the data in a regression model.

Chapter 4

Transforming the Dependent Variable

4.1 Probability Density Function of Tractor Prices

Figure 4.1 shows the kernel-smoothed probability density function of tractor prices.
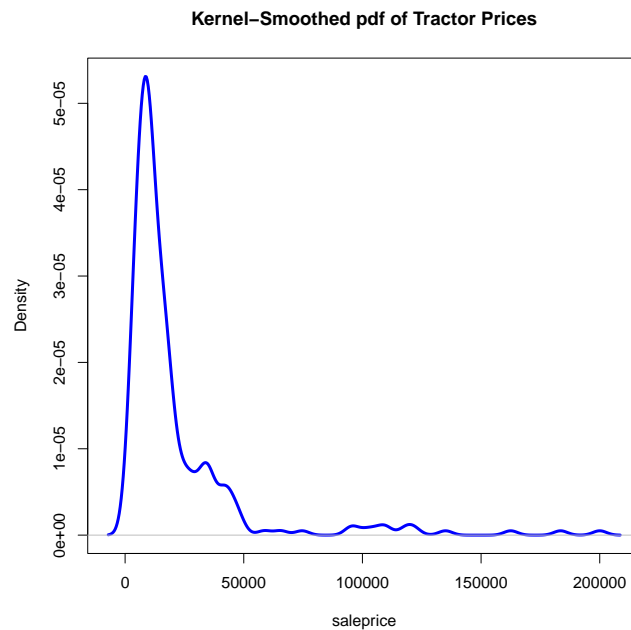
Figure 4.1: Probability Density Function of Tractor Prices

As a comparison, Figure 4.2 shows the kernel-smoothed probability density function of the natural logarithm of price.

Kernel–Smoothed pdf of the Natural Log. of Tractor Prices
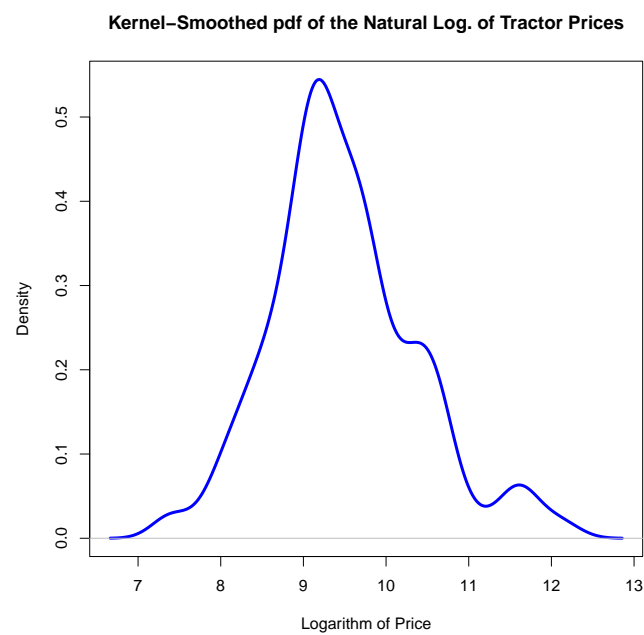
Figure 4.2: Probability Density Function of the Logarithm of Tractor Prices

4.2 Normality of the Original and Transformed Variables

Figure 4.3 shows a pair of Q-Q plots, comparing quantiles of the empirical distribution against the quantiles of the normal distribution. In the left panel, Figure 4.3a shows this comparison for the original level of the tractor prices, without transformation. In the right panel, Figure 4.3b shows this comparison for the logarithmic transformation of tractor prices, without transformation. Consistent with the pair of distributions estimated above, each plot shows a divergence from a normal distribution, suggesting that an optimal transformation might lie somewhere else. The Box-Cox transformation allows for this possibility.

(a) Tractor Prices

(b) Transformed Tractor Prices
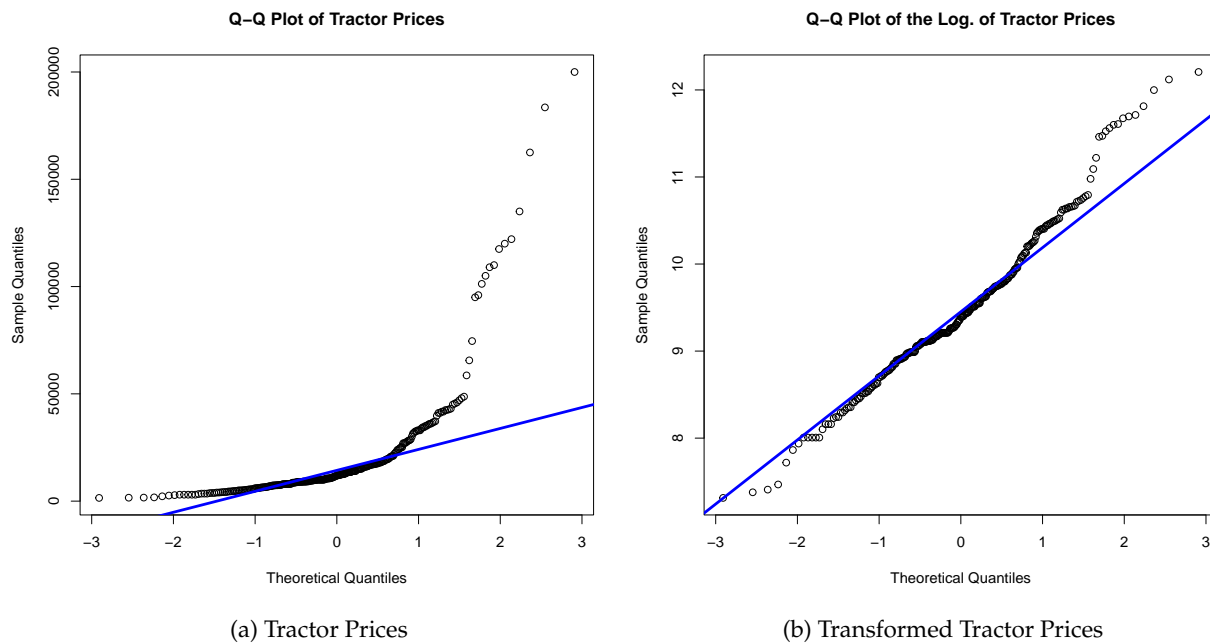
Figure 4.3: Q-QPlots of the Log. and Levels of Tractor Prices

4.3   Box-Cox Transformation of Tractor Prices

Under the Box–Cox transformation of P_n, the price of tractor n is calculated as follows,

$$\Lambda(P_n) \equiv \begin{cases} \frac{P_n^\lambda - 1}{\lambda} & \text{if } \lambda > 0 \\ \log P_n & \text{if } \lambda = 0. \end{cases}$$

The following code block defines a function that performs a Box-Cox transformation.

```
# Box-Cox transformation.
Lambda_Price <- function(price, lambda) {
  if (lambda == 0) {
    return(log(price))
  } else {
    return((price^lambda - 1)/lambda)
  }
}
```

4.3.1 Log-likelihood Function

Under the Box-Cox transformation, the tractor prices can be decomposed into a location parameter μ^0 and an error U, so

$$\Lambda(P_n) = \mu^0(\lambda) + U_n,$$

where the U_ns are independent, mean-zero, constant-variance $\sigma^2(\lambda)$, Gaussian (normal) errors. In the above equation, for clarity, the dependence of μ^0 and $\sigma^2(\lambda)$ on λ is made explicit.

The next code block defines a likelihood function for the normal distribution of the errors as a function of the parameter λ.

```r
log_like_uni <- function(price, lambda) {

  # Calculate maximum likelighood estimates of the parameters.
  n <- length(price)
  lambda_price <- Lambda_Price(price, lambda)
  mu_0_lambda <- mean(lambda_price)
  sigma_2_lambda <- sum((lambda_price - mu_0_lambda)^2)/n

  # Calculate the log-likelihood from the sum of the logarithms
  # of the density of the normal distribution.
  like <- - n/2*log(2*pi*sigma_2_lambda)
  like <- like - 1/2/sigma_2_lambda*sum((lambda_price - mu_0_lambda)^2)
  like <- like + (lambda - 1)*sum(log(price))
  return(like)
}
```

As a first approximation, One can calculate the value of the log-likelihood function on a grid of values to find an optimal value of λ. The plot of this likelihood function is shown in Figure 4.4. The red points represent the values of the log-likelihood at the optimum $\lambda = -0.17$ and at $\lambda = 0$ and $\lambda = 1$.

```
# Calculate values of the log-likelihood function.
lambda_grid <- seq(-1, 2.5, by = 0.001)
like_grid <- 0*lambda_grid
for (lambda_num in 1:length(lambda_grid)) {
  like_grid[lambda_num] <- log_like_uni(price = tractor_sales[, 'saleprice'],
                           lambda = lambda_grid[lambda_num])
}
```
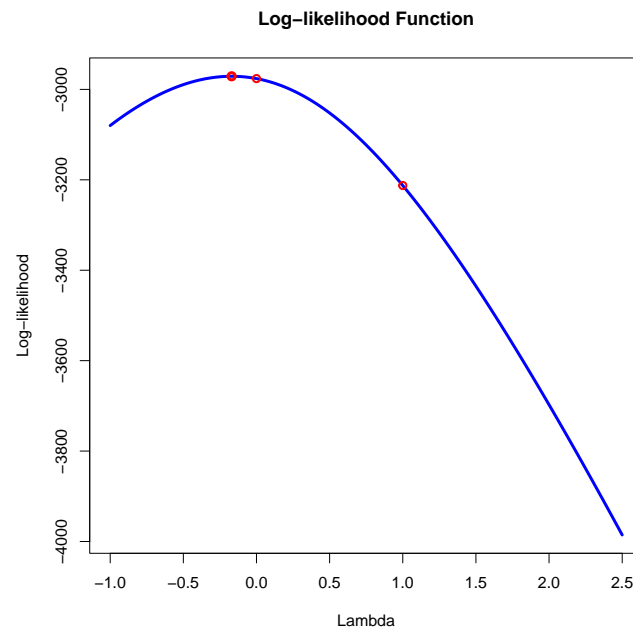

Figure 4.4: Log-likelihood Function for Box-Cox Transformation

4.3.2 Testing for an Appropriate Transformation

Now we consider the statistical properties of these estimates by calculating a likelihood ratio statistic.

```
> # Calculate likelihood ratio statistics.
> LR_stat_0 <- - 2*(like_mu_0 - like_MLE)
> print(LR_stat_0)
[1] 10.26956
> LR_stat_1 <- - 2*(like_mu_1 - like_MLE)
> print(LR_stat_1)
[1] 483.2539
>
>
> # Compare to quantile of chi-squared distribution with 1 degree of freedom.
> LR_cv_5 <- qchisq(p = 0.95, df = 1)
> print(LR_cv_5)
[1] 3.841459
>
> # Calculate p-values for these tests.
> p_value_0 <- 1 - pchisq(q = LR_stat_0, df = 1)
> print(p_value_0)
[1] 0.001352434
> p_value_1 <- 1 - pchisq(q = LR_stat_1, df = 1)
> print(p_value_1)
[1] 0
>
```

Statistically, this is evidence to reject them both. This suggests using the transformation at the MLE. However, one may want to investigate further to find out whether it is worth transforming the data, since the Box-Cox transformation at the MLE offers only a marginal improvement over the log transformation. There exists a trade-of between interpretability and the accuracy of the statistical specification, and, perhaps, the log transformation is close enough for practical purposes.

4.4   R Packages for the Box-Cox Transformation

Using the MASS Package

As an illustration, we calculated the likelihood ourselves. However, there exist other packages to output the estimation results for an optimal Box-Cox transformation.

One option is to use the function from the MASS package. This is an R package that accompanies a well-know statistics textbook and has a great reputation. In the MASS package, the notation is the same as for a linear model.

```
# In the MASS package, the notation is the same as for a linear model.
# i.e., summary(lm(saleprice ~ 1, data = tractor_sales))
bc_grid_MASS <- MASS::boxcox(saleprice ~ 1,
                      data = tractor_sales,
                      lambda = lambda_grid)
```

The output is plotted in Figure 4.5.
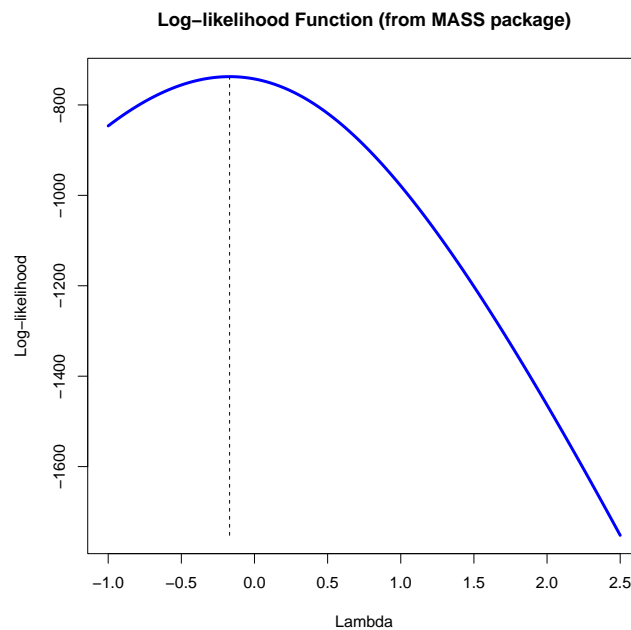
Figure 4.5: Log-likelihood Function for Box-Cox Transformation (MASS package)

Using the `car` Package

The `car` package is another well-known option. With this function, the optimization produces a figure automatically from the code below.

```
bc_grid_car <- car::boxCox(object = lm(data = tractor_sales,
                             formula = saleprice ~ 1),
                   lambda = lambda_grid)
```

The output is plotted in Figure 4.6.
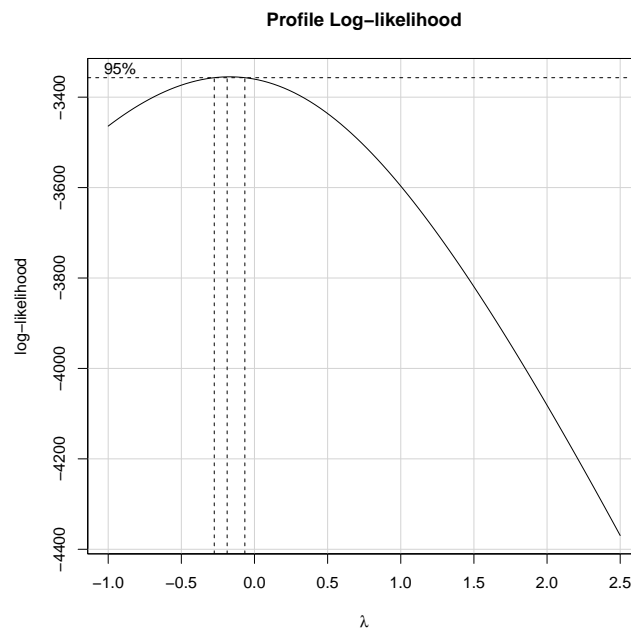
Figure 4.6: Log-likelihood Function for Box-Cox Transformation (`car` package)

Using the `EnvStats` Package

The `EnvStats` package is another option but it is one designed for environmental statistics. That is, it is not a generic package designed for the population of statisticians at large. For that reason, it is missing some of the features that a statistician would expect. The notation and interpretation, however, are similar, except that the straight call to `boxcox` simply does the calculation, unless you specify otherwise.

```
> # Find optimal value of lambda.
> bc_grid_ES_opt <- EnvStats::boxcox(x = tractor_sales[, 'saleprice'],
+                          lambda = range(lambda_grid),
+                          optimize = TRUE,
+                          objective.name = "Log-Likelihood")
>
> bc_grid_ES_opt$lambda
[1] 0.4295551
>
```

The output is plotted in Figure 4.7.
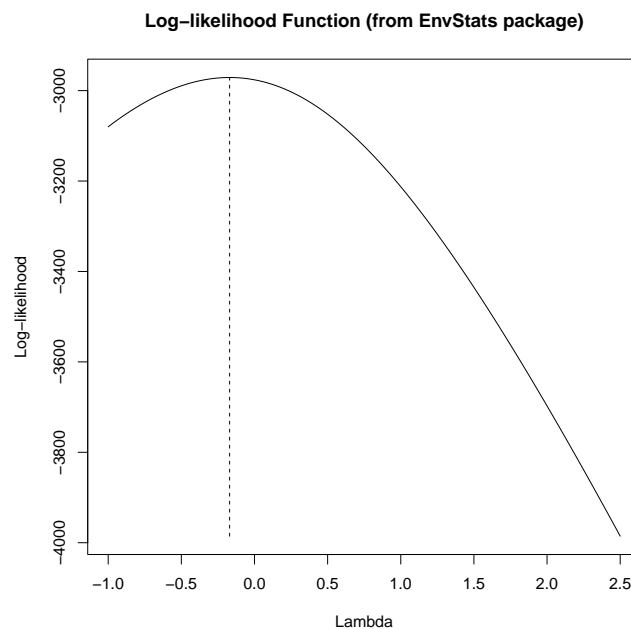
Figure 4.7: Log-likelihood Function for Box-Cox Transformation (`EnvStats` package)

Normality of the Transformed Variable

Now compare the quantiles of the distribution of the transformed variable with the original. We already plotted normal QQ plot for tractor prices when considering the log transformation. Now we can generate a new dependent variable with the results from the estimates above.

```
# Generate new dependent variable with results from estimates above.
tractor_sales[, 'trans_saleprice'] <- Lambda_Price(price = tractor_sales[,
    'saleprice'],
                                   lambda = lambda_hat)
```

Figure 4.8 shows this comparison and the panel on the right, Figure 4.8b, shows that the quantiles of the distribution of the transformed variable nearly overlap with those of the normal distribution. From a purely statistical perspective, this provides evidence that the prices are best modeled with the transformation at the optimal $\lambda = -0.17$. From a practical point of view, however, the added complexity is not warranted when the log transformation is close enough.

(a) Log. of Tractor Prices   (b) Transformed Tractor Prices

Figure 4.8: Q-QPlots of the Transformed Tractor Prices

Chapter 5

Preliminary Graphical Analysis

5.1 Introduction

This note summarizes the findings in the script `Tractor_Data_Vis.R`, which analyzes the prices of used tractors, the dependent variable in the `TRACTOR7.csv` dataset. The output includes several plots of the dependent variable against the explanatory variables.

The primary goal is to determine the relative value of John Deere tractors compared to others. A secondary consideration is to determine the time of year in which to sell a tractor.

5.2 Histogram and Density of Log. Tractor Prices

5.2.1 All Tractors Together

Start with the log of sale prices because that seemed more promising, given that prices were highly skewed.

```
hist(tractor_sales[, 'log_saleprice'],
    main = 'Histogram and Density of Log. Tractor Prices',
    xlab = 'Price', col = 'red',
    probability = TRUE)
rug(tractor_sales[, 'log_saleprice'])
lines(density(tractor_sales[, 'log_saleprice']),
    col = 'blue', lwd = 3)
```

Figure 5.1 is a histogram of the logarithm of tractor prices, along with a rug plot and a kernel density estimate, generated by the code block above. After taking logs, we can see that the
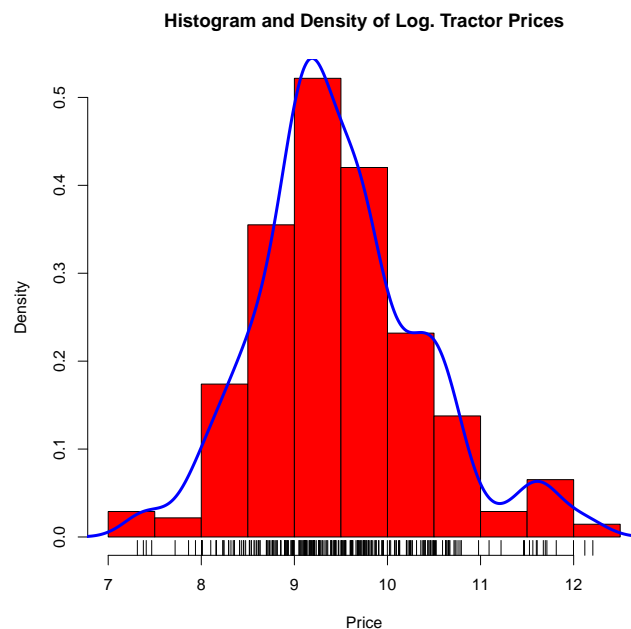
Figure 5.1: Relative Histogram of Tractor Prices

distribution is approximately symmetric, with some bunching in the upper tail.

5.2.2 Comparison By Make

Now we investigate the value of John Deere tractors compared to other brands. Figure 5.2 shows the kernel density estimate of the sale prices of John Deere tractors in green and that of the other brands in red. The distribution of sale prices of John Deere tractors has several modes and is skewed to the right, with the highest mode lower than that for other brands.

```r
library(sm)
sm.density.compare(tractor_sales[, 'log_saleprice'],
                   tractor_sales[, 'johndeere'],
                   xlab = "Log. of Sale Price",
                   lwd = 3,
                   col = c('red','green'))
title(main = "Log. of Sale Price by Brand")
legend('topright', c('Other', 'John Deere'),
       fill = c('red','green'),
       cex = 0.75)
```
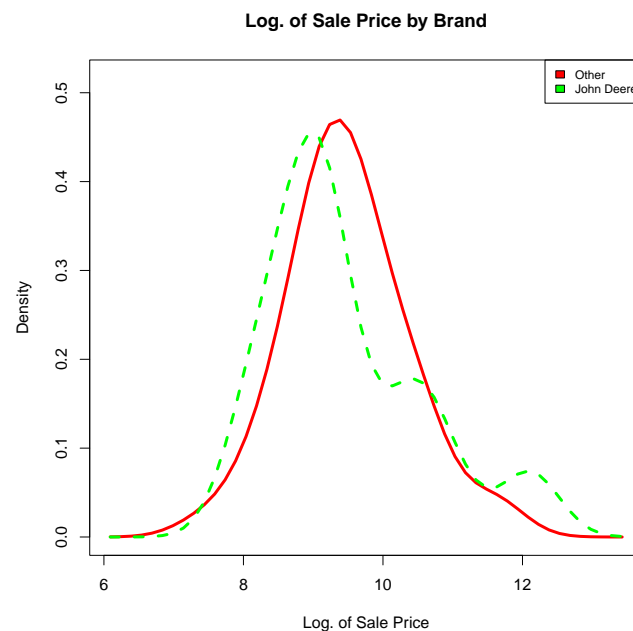

Figure 5.2: Densities of Log. Tractor Prices by Brand

5.2.3 Comparison By Season of Sale

Figure 5.3 shows the densities of the logarithm of sales price, separated by the season of the year in which they were sold. The figure was generated by the following code.

```
plot(density(tractor_sales[tractor_sales[, 'fall'] == 1, 'log_saleprice']),
    col = 'orange',
    lwd = 3,
    xlim = c(min(tractor_sales[, 'log_saleprice']),
          max(tractor_sales[, 'log_saleprice'])),
    main = 'Log. of Sale Price by Season of Sale')
# Plot the rest.
lines(density(tractor_sales[tractor_sales[, 'spring'] == 1, 'log_saleprice']),
    col = 'green',
    lwd = 3)
lines(density(tractor_sales[tractor_sales[, 'summer'] == 1, 'log_saleprice']),
    col = 'yellow',
    lwd = 3)
lines(density(tractor_sales[tractor_sales[, 'winter'] == 1, 'log_saleprice']),
    col = 'blue',
    lwd = 3)
legend('topright',
    c('Spring', 'Summer', 'Fall', 'Winter'),
    fill = c('green', 'yellow', 'orange', 'blue'),
    cex = 0.65)
```

We see that the distribution of sales is similar during summer and fall (yellow and orange, respectively) with some bunching in the upper tail. We also see more variance in the sale price in winter, shown in blue. In the spring, shown in green, the mode of the distribution is higher.

Log. of Sale Price by Season of Sale
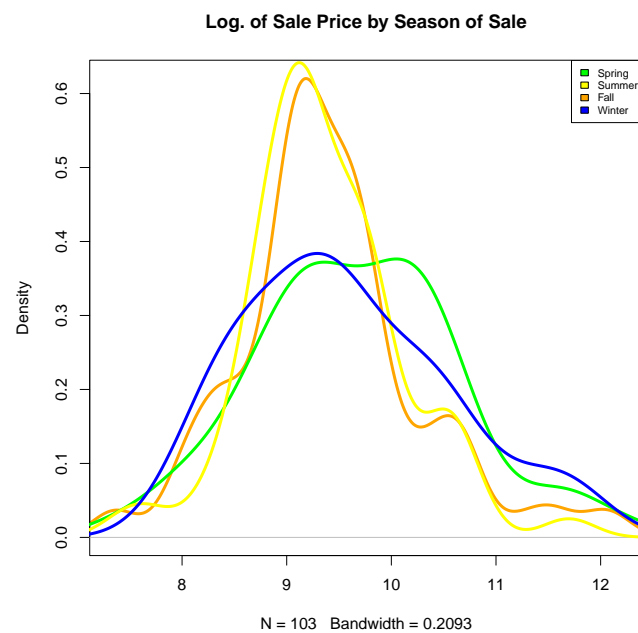
Figure 5.3: Relative Histogram of Tractor Prices

5.3 Sales Volume By Brand and Season of Sale

Figure 5.4 shows a spinogram of the number of sales by brand and the time of year the tractor is sold. It is generated by the following code.

```
# Create a table and plot it in a spinogram.
counts <- table(tractor_sales[, 'season'],
            tractor_sales[, 'JD'])

# Plot the spinogram.
spine(counts,
    main = "Spinogram of Sales by Brand and Season")
```

The code block first tabulates the number of sales by season of sale and whether or not the brand is John Deere. These counts are shown in Table **??**.

	John Deere	Other
Fall	14	89
Spring	9	53
Summer	6	58
Winter	10	37

It appears that sales of John Deere tractors are fairly evenly distributed throughout the year, with more sales of John Deere tractors in the winter months and a fewer sales in the summer.

Spinogram of Sales by Brand and Season
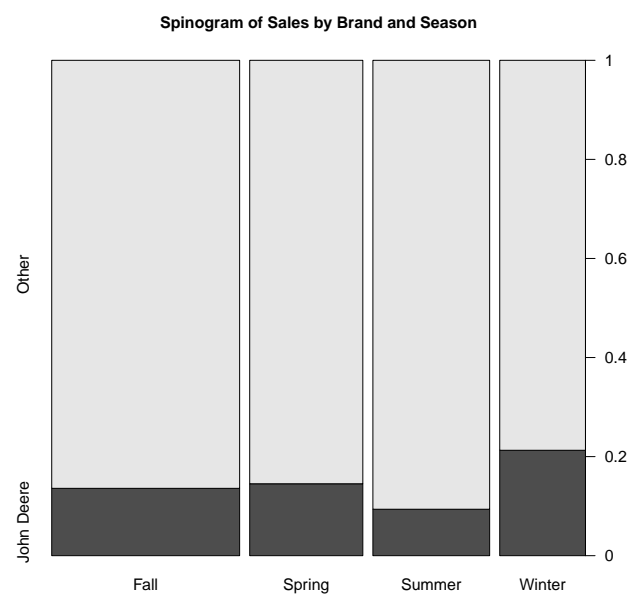
Figure 5.4: Sales Volume of Tractor Prices by Brand and Season of Sale

5.4 Scatterplot Matrix of Numeric Variables

Figure 5.5 shows a scatterplot of the numeric variables in the dataset, which include the age in years, the number of engine hours of use, the number of horsepower produced by the engine, and the logarithm of the tractor prices. The `gclus` package was used to cluster the correlation matrix to color code by strength of correlation. The correlation matrix is shown in Table **??**.

Log. of Price Horsepower Age Engine Hours Log. of Price 1.00000000 0.64850242 -0.44054234 -0.04583549 Horsepower 0.64850242 1.00000000 0.03884978 0.37778287 Age -0.44054234 0.03884978 1.00000000 0.55903832 Engine Hours -0.04583549 0.37778287 0.55903832 1.00000000

The correlation matrix amd the scatterplot matrix were generated by the following code.

```
# Create a covariance matrix and determine
# parameters for scattergraph matrix.
mydata <- tractor_sales[c(13, 2, 3, 4)]
mydata.corr <- abs(cor(mydata))
mycolors <- dmat.color(mydata.corr)
# Order by magnitude of correlation.
myorder <- order.single(mydata.corr)

# Plot the scatterplot matrix.
cpairs(mydata,
    myorder,
    panel.colors = mycolors,
    gap = 0.5,
    main = c('Scatterplot Matrix Colored by Correlation')
)
```

Horsepower and the logarithm of sale price have strong positive correlation, which is shown in red, suggesting that tractors with more horsepower are more valuable. Age and engine hours are also highly correlated as older tractors have likely been used for more hours. We also see a modest negative correlation between prices and age, which makes sense since newer tractors may have new features and may be more reliable. There appears to be little relation between the age of a tractor and the horsepower produced by the engine.
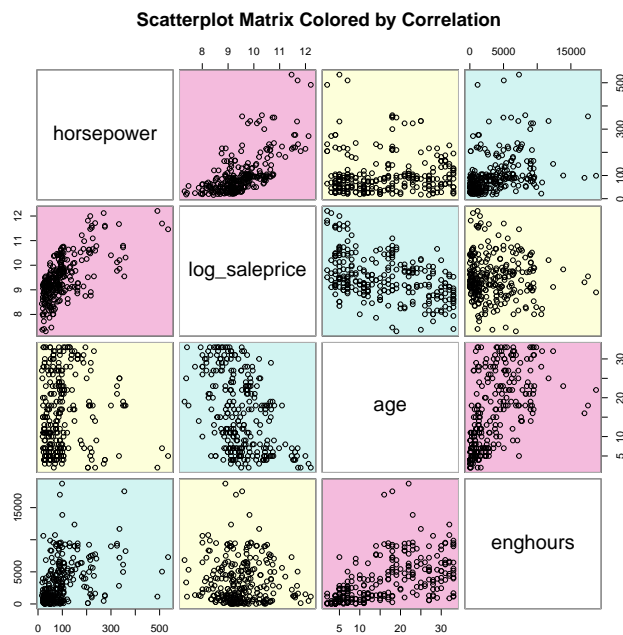
Figure 5.5: Scatterplot Matrix Colored by Strength of Correlation

5.5 Relationship between Prices, Horsepower and Age

Figure 5.6 shows a bubble plot, which is a form of scatterplot in which the size of the dots (the "bubbles") represent another variable. This analysis is based on the above investigation of the numeric variables in the dataset, which include the age in years, the number of engine hours of use, the number of horsepower produced by the engine, and the logarithm of the tractor prices. The logarithm of the tractor prices are shown in the vertical axis, the age of the tractor is on the horizontal axis, and the area of each bubble is proportional to the horsepower of the tractor's engine. The bubbleplot is generated by the following code.

```
# Calculate the radius of the bubbles
# so that the area represents horsepowwer.
r <- sqrt(tractor_sales[, 'horsepower']/pi)

# Plot the bubble plot.
fig_file_name <- 'bubble_plot.pdf'
out_file_name <- sprintf('%s/%s', fig_dir, fig_file_name)
pdf(out_file_name)
symbols(tractor_sales[, 'age'],
        tractor_sales[, 'log_saleprice'],
        r,
        inches=0.30, fg="white", bg="lightblue",
        main = "Bubble Plot with point size proportional to horsepower",
        ylab = "Log. of Sale Price",
        xlab = "Age of Tractor (years)")
```

There appears to be a negative relationship between the age of a tractor and the sale price. Also, many of the largest bubbles are concentrated at the higher end of the price range at each age level. These findings confirm the results found above in the scatterplots and covariance matrix. Together these results indicate that these variables should be included in some form within a regression model.

Bubble Plot with point size proportional to horsepower
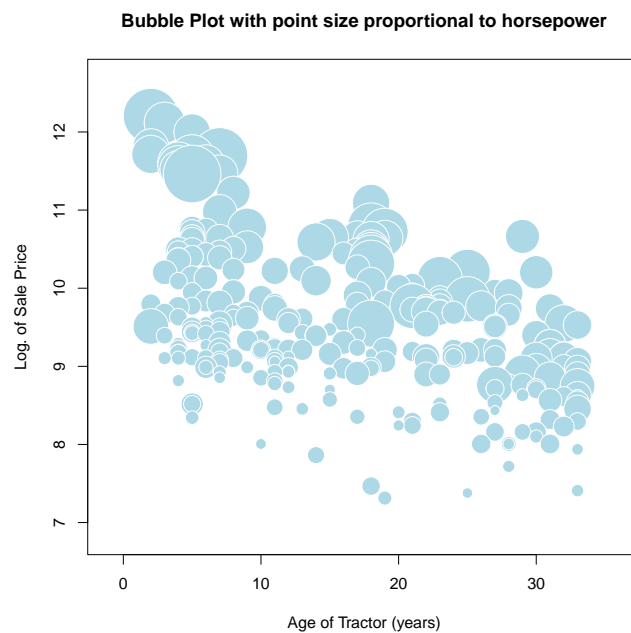
Figure 5.6: Bubble Plot with Point Size Proportional to Horsepower

Chapter 6

Regression Modelling with Hedonic Price Theory

I will first estimate a model with our choices of functional form, and then consider exclusions of insignificant variables from the full model. This approach allows for inclusion of possibly irrelevant variables and avoids excluding any relevant variables.

6.1   Choosing the Dependent Variable

6.1.1   Univariate Analysis

Figure 6.1 shows a histogram of tractor prices. The distribution is highly skewed to the right, with most tractors selling for about \$10,000 or less, and very few tractors priced above \$50,000.
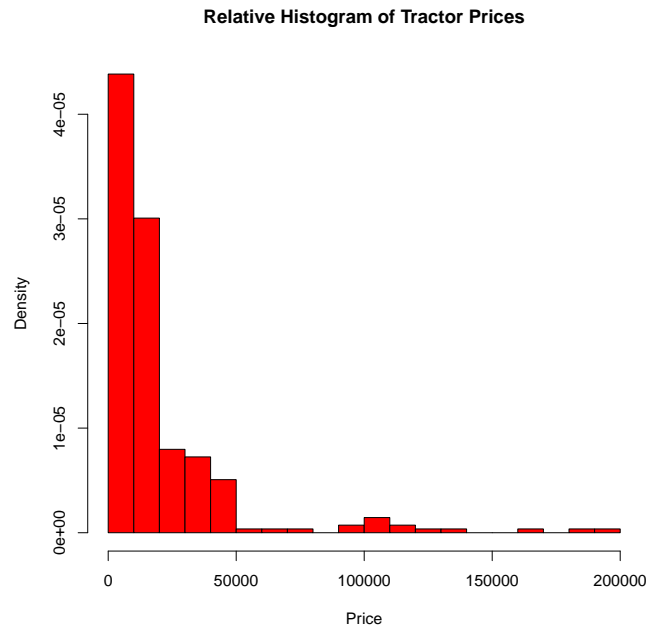
Figure 6.1: Histogram of Tractor Prices

As a comparison, Figure 6.2 shows the histogram of the natural logarithm of price.
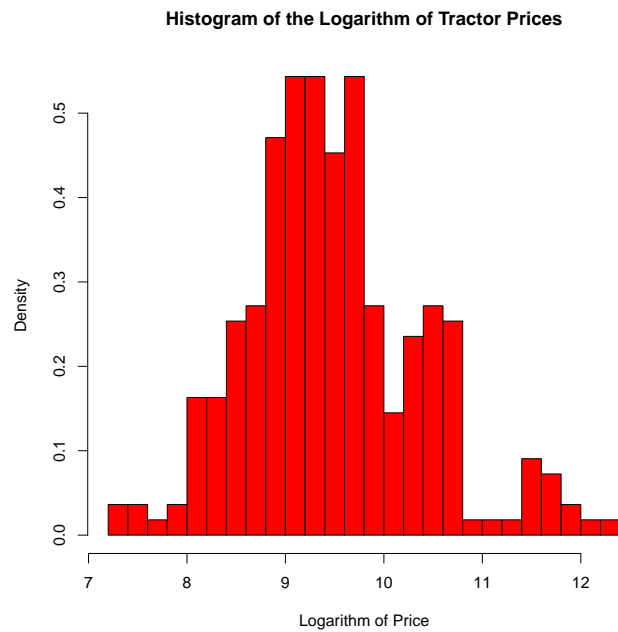
Figure 6.2: Histogram of the Logarithm of Tractor Prices

This is much better behaved. The distribution looks almost normal. So far it looks as if the

logarithm of the sale price is the more promising variable. Another approach to making this decision is to build the model and judge the validity of the results.

	Model 1
(Intercept)	11670.41*
	(4519.29)
horsepower	246.40***
	(13.98)
age	−674.64***
	(149.00)
enghours	−1.76***
	(0.40)
diesel	2731.97
	(3996.05)
fwd	2570.57
	(2427.51)
manual	−3713.28
	(2586.96)
johndeere	12194.23***
	(2979.91)
spring	−1721.01
	(2716.03)
summer	−5569.46*
	(2654.94)
winter	−1541.99
	(2981.31)
R^2	0.65
Adj. R^2	0.63
Num. obs.	276

***$p < 0.001$; **$p < 0.01$; *$p < 0.05$

Table 6.1: Dollar Value of Tractor Prices

6.1.2 Initial Regression Models of Tractor Prices

Predicting Price Levels

First, I will build a model of the price of a used tractor, ignoring the above evidence that the distribution is highly skewed.

The results in Table 6.1 shows the effect of the variables on the dollar price of the used tractors.

From the coefficients in the table, it appears that a John Deere tractor sells for $12,200 more than an equivalent tractor of another brand. This prediction applies equally for tractors all across the spectrum, from the To put a finer point on it, a 16 horsepower lawn tractor that would otherwise sell for $2,000 is expected to command $14,200 if it is a John Deere. Clearly, this is an unreasonable expectation and a quick search on your browser will confirm that the John Deere premium is more modest.

	Model 1
(Intercept)	8.76953***
	(0.13528)
horsepower	0.00654***
	(0.00042)
age	−0.02754***
	(0.00446)
enghours	−0.00002
	(0.00001)
diesel	0.49917***
	(0.11962)
fwd	0.35672***
	(0.07266)
manual	−0.12167
	(0.07744)
johndeere	0.17253
	(0.08920)
spring	−0.03210
	(0.08130)
summer	−0.11876
	(0.07947)
winter	0.04009
	(0.08924)
R^2	0.69709
Adj. R^2	0.68566
Num. obs.	276

$^{***}p < 0.001$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{*}p < 0.05$

Table 6.2: Logarithm of Tractor Prices

Predicting Logarithm of Prices

Next, I will build a model of the logarithm of the price of a used tractor, which is consistent with the univariate analysis we conducted earlier.

The results in Table 6.2 shows the effect of the variables on the logarithm of the dollar price of the used tractors. This specification calculates coefficients that approximately represent percentage changes in tractor prices.

From the coefficients in the table, it appears that a John Deere tractor sells for 17% more than an equivalent tractor of another brand. That is, a tractor worth $1,700 would sell for $2,000 if it is a John Deere, which is clearly more reasonable. This more sensible interpretation supports the strategy of modeling the logarithm of the tractor price.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
(Intercept)	8.7695***	8.7559***	8.7787***
	(0.1353)	(0.1284)	(0.1279)
horsepower	0.0065***	0.0066***	0.0065***
	(0.0004)	(0.0004)	(0.0004)
age	−0.0275***	−0.0278***	−0.0297***
	(0.0045)	(0.0044)	(0.0043)
enghours	−0.0000	−0.0000	−0.0000
	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
diesel	0.4992***	0.4884***	0.4246***
	(0.1196)	(0.1192)	(0.1118)
fwd	0.3567***	0.3492***	0.3416***
	(0.0727)	(0.0721)	(0.0721)
manual	−0.1217	−0.1169	
	(0.0774)	(0.0773)	
johndeere	0.1725	0.1858*	0.1707
	(0.0892)	(0.0888)	(0.0885)
spring	−0.0321		
	(0.0813)		
summer	−0.1188		
	(0.0795)		
winter	0.0401		
	(0.0892)		
R^2	0.6971	0.6934	0.6907
Adj. R^2	0.6857	0.6853	0.6838
Num. obs.	276	276	276

$^{***}p < 0.001$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{*}p < 0.05$

Table 6.3: Models for the Log. of Tractor Prices

6.2 Model Specification

6.2.1 Initial Variable Reduction

Next, I can refine the model by removing some explanatory variables that do not have string predictive value. The first candidates are those with coefficients that are not statistically significant. The results in Table 6.3

The first column of Table 6.3 shows the results from the original model of the logarithm of tractor prices in Table 6.2. The coefficients for seasonal indicators, engine hours and manual transmission are not significant. The John Deere indicator is not significant but since it is a key empirical question, I include it, regardless. The second column shows the model without the seasonal indicators. We see an improvement in significance of some variables with minimal loss of predictive ability. In the last column, I remove the indicator for manual transmission, with a similar effect on the quality of the model. Before making any further changes, I will improve the specification of the model by considering nonlinear specifications.

	Model 1
(Intercept)	8.72792***
	(0.10602)
horsepower	0.01112***
	(0.00107)
squared_horsepower	−0.00001***
	(0.00000)
age	−0.03233***
	(0.00358)
enghours	−0.00004***
	(0.00001)
diesel	0.20350*
	(0.09805)
fwd	0.26539***
	(0.05820)
manual	−0.15015*
	(0.06189)
johndeere	0.31872***
	(0.07186)
cab	0.48345***
	(0.07003)
R^2	0.80591
Adj. R^2	0.79935
Num. obs.	276

$^{***}p < 0.001; ^{**}p < 0.01; ^{*}p < 0.05$

Table 6.4: Quadratic Model for Tractor Prices

6.2.2 Quadratic Specification for Horsepower

Now suppose that a used tractor dealer reports that overpowered used tractors are hard to sell, since they consume more fuel. This implies that tractor prices often increase with horsepower, up to a point, but beyond that they decrease. To incorporate this advice, I created and included a variable for squared horsepower.

If we expect a decreasing relationship for high values of horsepower, this would be characterized by a positive coefficient on the horsepower variable and a negative coefficient on the squared horsepower variable.

The results of this regression specification are shown in Table 9.1.

The squared horsepower variable has a coefficient of $-2.081e-05$, which is nearly ten times as large as the standard error of $2.199e-06$, which is very strong evidence against the null hypothesis of a positive or zero coefficient. I conclude that the log of the sale price does decline for large values of horsepower.

With the squared horsepower variable, the $\bar{R}^2$ has increased substantially to 0.764, indicating that it is a much stronger model. The F-statistic is even larger than before, indicating that it is still a better candidate than the simple average log sale price. The new squared horsepower

variable is statistically significant and the theory behind it is sound, since above a certain point, added horsepower may not improve performance but will cost more to operate. This new model is much improved over the previous models with a linear specification for horsepower.

This improved model affords an opportunity to reconsider other variables in the previous models. Models 2 and 3 both include an indicator that the tractor has an enclosed cab, which is also statistically significant. The seasonal indicators in Model 2 are not statistically significant under this specification neither.

6.2.3 Seasonality with the Quadratic Specification for Horsepower

The seasonal indicators in Model 2 of Table 9.1 are not statistically significant individually. It is possible, however, that jointly, they offer an improvement in prediction. This can be tested with an F-test to test the joint hypothesis that the time of year has no effect on the sale of tractors. The null hypothesis is the joint hypothesis that all coefficients on spring, summer and winter are equal to zero. The alternative hypothesis is that one of these coefficients is nonzero.

From the script `Tractor_Reg_Models.R`, the Residual Sum of Squares from the unconstrained model (the model which includes the seasonal indicators) is 41.78944. The constrained model is the one that excludes seasonal indicators and it has a Residual Sum of Squares of 42.15882.

The F-statistic has a value of

$$\frac{(RSS_M - RSS)/M}{RSS/(N - K - 1)} = \frac{(42.15882 - 41.78944)/3}{RSS/263} = 0.7748937.$$

since $N = 276$ observations, $K = 12$ variables and $M = 3$ restrictions, one for each seasonal indicator excluded. This is a low value compared to the critical value of 2.60 for the F-statistic with 3 degrees of freedom in the numerator and $263(> 120)$ degrees of freedom in the denominator. There is no evidence to reject the null that all seasonal indicators have coefficients of zero and conclude that the seasonal indicators should be left out of the model. The results of the test above indicate that tractor prices do not follow a seasonal pattern.

6.2.4   Interaction Terms

Durability of Engine Types

Finally, I consider another modification to your model. Diesel engines tend to be more durable than gasoline engines. This raises the question of whether an additional hour of use affects the value of a diesel tractor differently than for a gasoline tractor. This is tested in Model 1 of Table 6.5.

This hypothesis is a test of the *interaction* of the diesel indicator and the slope on engine hours. Given the above result, this test should be conducted with the model that excludes the seasonal indicators. The coefficient on `enghours:diesel` is $4.116e-06$ with a standard error of $2.736e-05$, resulting in a t-statistic of 0.150. Since this is a very low value, we cannot reject the null hypothesis that an additional hour of use affects the value of a diesel tractor the same as that for a gasoline tractor. Note that this conclusion does not change if you test a one-sided hypothesis.

Furthermore, the $\bar{R}^2$ statistic decreases with the inclusion of this variable. The F-statistic is high and statistically significant, indicating that this model is better than the simple average but so is the model without this new variable. Finally, the estimates of the other coefficients change very little when this variable is omitted. The theory may be sound but there is nothing else to support the inclusion of this new variable.

Differences in Depreciation by Brand

The remaining columns of Table 6.5 show the results of tests for interactions between the John Deere indicator variable on the effects of age, engine hours and horsepower. There seems to be no evidence for relationships that differ by brand name. In this table, we have investigated several individual types of differences by brand.

To test for many possible differences in models by brand of tractor, Table 9.2 shows the estimates for two separate models by brand of tractor. Model 1 shows the estimates for the full sample, Model 2 shows the estimates from the full model for John Deere tractors and Model 4 represents all other brands. Models 3 and 5 show the estimates from a reduced version of each model, in which all coefficients are statistically significant. The coefficients appear similar across the two subsamples. Notable differences include the statistical significance for the indicators for four-wheel drive, manual transmission and an enclosed cab. These features seem to change the value of other tractors, but perhaps these coefficients are not measured accurately for the small sample of 39 John Deere tractors.

We can also test for all of the differences at the same time by using an F-test. In this case, the full, unrestricted model has $K = 2 \times 9 = 18$ parameters, one for each variable in two models. The test that all of the coefficients are the same has $M = 9-1 = 8$ restrictions. The one restriction fewer accounts for the John Deere indicator in the full model, which allows for two separate intercepts. The F-statistic has a value of

$$\frac{(RSS_M - RSS)/M}{RSS/(N - K - 1)} = \frac{(42.15882 - 41.1432)/3}{41.1432/263} = 0.7929991.$$

This is also a very low value for the F-statistic. There is no evidence to reject the null that all coefficients are equal across both samples and conclude that the John Deere indicator should be the only brand difference left in the model.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
(Intercept)	8.73714***	8.72858***	8.73093***	8.74493***
	(0.12263)	(0.10630)	(0.10718)	(0.10691)
horsepower	0.01111***	0.01111***	0.01113***	0.01100***
	(0.00107)	(0.00107)	(0.00107)	(0.00107)
squared_horsepower	−0.00001***	−0.00001***	−0.00001***	−0.00001***
	(0.00000)	(0.00000)	(0.00000)	(0.00000)
age	−0.03232***	−0.03234***	−0.03257***	−0.03209***
	(0.00359)	(0.00359)	(0.00377)	(0.00358)
enghours	−0.00005	−0.00004***	−0.00004***	−0.00004***
	(0.00003)	(0.00001)	(0.00001)	(0.00001)
diesel	0.19339	0.20462*	0.20203*	0.19327
	(0.11903)	(0.09849)	(0.09847)	(0.09835)
fwd	0.26589***	0.26499***	0.26529***	0.26801***
	(0.05840)	(0.05837)	(0.05831)	(0.05820)
manual	−0.15065*	−0.14954*	−0.14825*	−0.15257*
	(0.06209)	(0.06213)	(0.06267)	(0.06188)
johndeere	0.32106***	0.30641**	0.29296*	0.23158*
	(0.07367)	(0.10705)	(0.14255)	(0.10282)
cab	0.48311***	0.48420***	0.48386***	0.48270***
	(0.07019)	(0.07033)	(0.07018)	(0.06998)
enghours:diesel	0.00000			
	(0.00003)			
enghours:johndeere		0.00000		
		(0.00002)		
age:johndeere			0.00146	
			(0.00695)	
horsepower:johndeere				0.00085
				(0.00072)
R^2	0.80593	0.80593	0.80594	0.80693
Adj. R^2	0.79861	0.79861	0.79862	0.79965
Num. obs.	276	276	276	276

$^{***}p < 0.001$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{*}p < 0.05$

Table 6.5: Regression Models for Tractor Prices

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
(Intercept)	8.72792***	8.86706***	9.03796***	8.77320***	8.90792***
	(0.10602)	(0.22409)	(0.16430)	(0.12450)	(0.08769)
horsepower	0.01112***	0.01502***	0.01580***	0.01032***	0.01057***
	(0.00107)	(0.00250)	(0.00223)	(0.00119)	(0.00119)
squared_horsepower	−0.00001***	−0.00002***	−0.00002***	−0.00001***	−0.00001***
	(0.00000)	(0.00000)	(0.00000)	(0.00000)	(0.00000)
age	−0.03233***	−0.03038**	−0.03295***	−0.03164***	−0.03283***
	(0.00358)	(0.00914)	(0.00738)	(0.00399)	(0.00392)
enghours	−0.00004***	−0.00006*	−0.00006**	−0.00004***	−0.00004***
	(0.00001)	(0.00002)	(0.00002)	(0.00001)	(0.00001)
diesel	0.20350*	0.08485		0.18218	
	(0.09805)	(0.18242)		(0.11984)	
fwd	0.26539***	0.12882		0.29072***	0.30003***
	(0.05820)	(0.15529)		(0.06308)	(0.06296)
manual	−0.15015*	0.06749		−0.17919**	−0.14668*
	(0.06189)	(0.17288)		(0.06743)	(0.06413)
johndeere	0.31872***				
	(0.07186)				
cab	0.48345***	0.32344	0.38517*	0.51732***	0.52756***
	(0.07003)	(0.17555)	(0.16365)	(0.07696)	(0.07688)
R^2	0.80591	0.91993	0.91606	0.77992	0.77769
Adj. R^2	0.79935	0.89858	0.90334	0.77220	0.77090
Num. obs.	276	39	39	237	237

$^{***}p < 0.001$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{*}p < 0.05$

Table 6.6: Separate Models by Brand

Chapter 7

Nonparametric Regression Models

I will revisit the recommended linear model from Problem Set #7, which included a quadratic specification for horsepower. This allowed for an increasing relationship between price and horsepower, for tractors with low horsepower, but a decreasing relationship for the tractors with high horsepower. I will investigate this nonlinear relationship by incorporating a nonparametric specification for the value of horsepower. Similarly, for the other continuous variables engine hours and age, to investigate whether these forms of depreciation are best described with nonlinear forms.

	Model 1
(Intercept)	8.72792***
	(0.10602)
horsepower	0.01112***
	(0.00107)
squared_horsepower	−0.00001***
	(0.00000)
age	−0.03233***
	(0.00358)
enghours	−0.00004***
	(0.00001)
diesel	0.20350*
	(0.09805)
fwd	0.26539***
	(0.05820)
manual	−0.15015*
	(0.06189)
johndeere	0.31872***
	(0.07186)
cab	0.48345***
	(0.07003)
R^2	0.80591
Adj. R^2	0.79935
Num. obs.	276

***$p < 0.001$; **$p < 0.01$; *$p < 0.05$

Table 7.1: Quadratic Model for Tractor Prices

7.1 Linear Regression Model

A natural staring point is the recommended linear model from Problem Set #7.

7.1.1 Quadratic Specification for Horsepower

Last week we considered the advice of a used tractor dealer who reported that overpowered used tractors are hard to sell, since they consume more fuel. This implies that tractor prices often increase with horsepower, up to a point, but beyond that they decrease. To incorporate this advice, I created and included a variable for squared horsepower. A decreasing relationship for high values of horsepower is characterized by a positive coefficient on the horsepower variable and a negative coefficient on the squared horsepower variable.

The results of this regression specification are shown in Table 9.1.

The squared horsepower variable has a coefficient of $-2.081e-05$, which is nearly ten times as large as the standard error of $2.199e-06$, which is very strong evidence against the null hypothesis of a positive or zero coefficient. I conclude that the log of the sale price does decline for large values of horsepower.

With the squared horsepower variable, the $\bar{R}^2$ is 0.764, indicating that it is a much stronger model than the others we considered. The F-statistic is large, indicating that it is a better candidate than the simple average log sale price. The new squared horsepower variable is statistically significant and the theory behind it is sound, since above a certain point, added horsepower may not improve performance but will cost more to operate. This new model is much improved over the previous models with a linear specification for horsepower. Next, I will attempt to improve on this specification.

7.2 Nonlinear Specifications

7.2.1 Nonparametric Specification for Horsepower

The specification in Table 9.1 assumes a quadratic functional form for the relationship between price and horsepower. To consider the horsepower variable alone, while accounting for the effects of other variables, one can fit a nonparametric model to the residuals from a model of tractor prices, after regressing tractor prices on the other variables. This leaves only the variation in tractor prices that is not explained by the other variables. Going one step further, perform the same transformation to the horsepower variable: take the residuals from a model of horsepower, after regressing horsepower on the other variables. This allows a model that would fit exactly the same as if it were estimated within a full model with all variables included.

The models shown in Table 7.2 illustrate this possibility. Model 1 is the original model in Table 9.1. Model 2 is a regression omitting the horsepower variables. Model 3 is a regression to predict horsepower with the other explanatory variables in Model 2. Finally, Model 4 shows the coefficients for horsepower from a regression of the residuals of Model 2 on the residuals from Model 3. Notice that these coefficients match those in Model 1. You might notice a slight difference in the standard errors, however, because these are calculated assuming coefficients for two variables, horsepower and squared horsepower, rather than the full suite of ten parameters. This equivalence of the coefficients can be used to fit nonlinear models between a pair of variables by partialing out the effect of the other variables, using a mathematical result called the Frisch-Waugh-Lovell (FWL) theorem, maned after early statisticians and econometricians who used these methods.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
(Intercept)	8.72792***	9.01091***	27.05189	1269.75517	
	(0.10602)	(0.13785)	(17.13098)	(8102.93510)	
horsepower	0.01112***				
	(0.00107)				
squared_horsepower	−0.00001***				
	(0.00000)				
age	−0.03233***	−0.03609***	−1.27409*	−741.49174**	
	(0.00358)	(0.00473)	(0.58819)	(278.21478)	
enghours	−0.00004***	−0.00000	0.00735***	2.90344***	
	(0.00001)	(0.00001)	(0.00153)	(0.72137)	
diesel	0.20350*	0.32931*	6.21382	−4041.08422	
	(0.09805)	(0.12991)	(16.14428)	(7636.22715)	
fwd	0.26539***	0.34908***	18.48035	8678.65733	
	(0.05820)	(0.07756)	(9.63839)	(4558.94619)	
manual	−0.15015*	−0.08564	15.32259	7543.06505	
	(0.06189)	(0.08268)	(10.27470)	(4859.92047)	
johndeere	0.31872***	0.37245***	13.28577	6697.80712	
	(0.07186)	(0.09618)	(11.95221)	(5653.38319)	
cab	0.48345***	1.03138***	72.82965***	18662.03208***	
	(0.07003)	(0.07637)	(9.49032)	(4488.91194)	
horsepower_resid					0.01112***
					(0.00105)
horsepower_2_resid					−0.00001***
					(0.00000)
R^2	0.80591	0.64790	0.40004	0.22696	0.44877
Adj. R^2	0.79935	0.63871	0.38437	0.20677	0.44474
Num. obs.	276	276	276	276	276

$^{***}p < 0.001; ^{**}p < 0.01; ^{*}p < 0.05$

Table 7.2: Quadratic Model for Tractor Prices: FWL Regressions

To illustrate the fit of the model, Figure 7.1 shows a scatter plot of the residual log prices on horsepower. The observations are shown in blue and the fitted values are shown in red. The variation in the fitted values results from the fact that it is not plotted against the transformed excess horsepower variable used in the regressions. Still, the quadratic pattern is apparent and appears to match the data.

Figure 7.1: Linear-Quadratic Model for Tractor Prices

As a comparison, Figure 7.2 augments the above by showing the plot against the residuals from the regression for horsepower: the "excess horsepower" compared to what would be expected given the other characteristics of a tractor. The quadratic function is more clear from this perspective. This time, the variation in the fitted values results from the two-dimensional nature of the horsepower variable when we consider the quadratic form.

Nonparametric Model for Tractor Prices
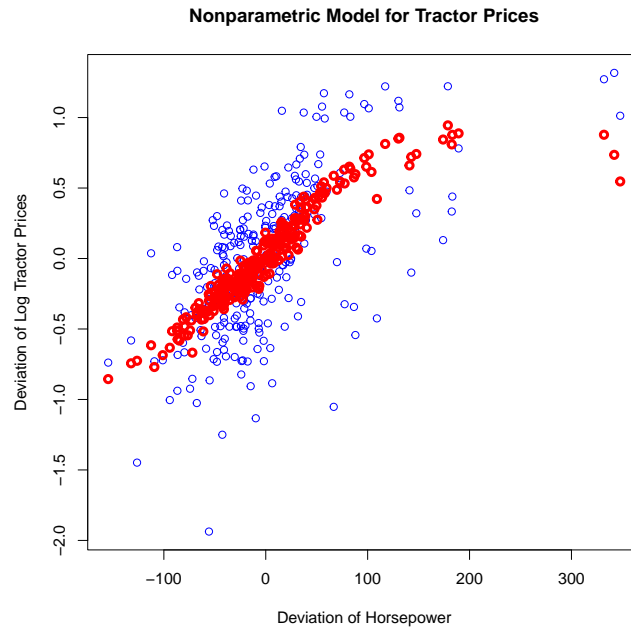
Figure 7.2: Linear-Quadratic Model for Tractor Prices: Excess Horsepower

Now consider a nonparametric specification for the relationship between prices and horse-power. Figure 8.1 overlays the nonparametric estimate (shown in green) with the above in Figure 7.2. The pattern has more variation in slope but closely follows the prediction from the quadratic model. So far, it appears that the quadratic form is close enough.

Nonparametric Model for Tractor Prices
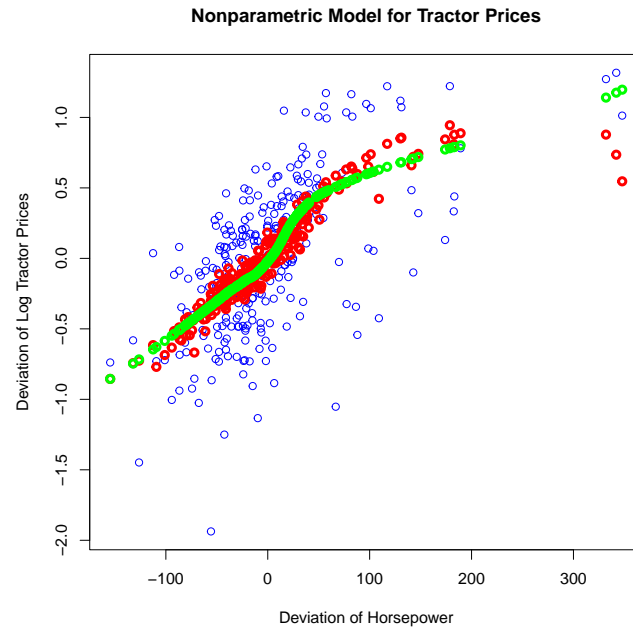
Figure 7.3: Nonparametric Model for Tractor Prices: Excess Horsepower

Finally, consider a set of nonparametric specifications for the relationship between prices and horsepower. Figure 7.4 overlays other nonparametric estimates with the above in Figure 8.1. The points in orange and in magenta represent alternate models with different degrees of smoothing. When we estimated probability densities, we adjusted the bandwidth parameter to fit with different degrees of smoothness. The `loess` method used for the nonparametric method has a span parameter for this function. The default smoother `span` (bandwidth parameter) is 0.75.

In the magenta points, with `span` parameter 0.1, the pattern has more variation in slope but closely follows the prediction from the quadratic model. The smoother curve in orange even more closely represents a quadratic line. Again, it appears that the quadratic form is close enough. Perhaps the result will be different for other continuous variables in the model.
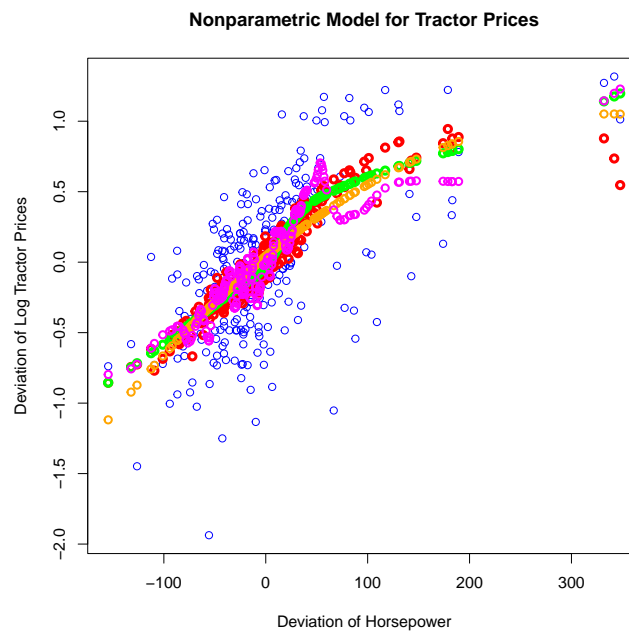
Figure 7.4: Nonparametric Model for Tractor Prices: Excess Horsepower

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
(Intercept)	8.72792***	8.25387***	14.66329***	
	(0.10602)	(0.10509)	(1.57457)	
horsepower	0.01112***	0.01055***	0.01761	
	(0.00107)	(0.00122)	(0.01821)	
squared_horsepower	−0.00001***	−0.00001***	−0.00007	
	(0.00000)	(0.00000)	(0.00004)	
age	−0.03233***			
	(0.00358)			
enghours	−0.00004***	−0.00008***	0.00131***	
	(0.00001)	(0.00001)	(0.00014)	
diesel	0.20350*	0.32816**	−3.85602*	
	(0.09805)	(0.11075)	(1.65943)	
fwd	0.26539***	0.48826***	−6.89389***	
	(0.05820)	(0.06014)	(0.90112)	
manual	−0.15015*	−0.30537***	4.80111***	
	(0.06189)	(0.06784)	(1.01643)	
johndeere	0.31872***	0.30073***	0.55646	
	(0.07186)	(0.08196)	(1.22801)	
cab	0.48345***	0.48403***	−0.01803	
	(0.07003)	(0.07990)	(1.19717)	
age_resid				−0.03233***
				(0.00352)
R^2	0.80591	0.74641	0.51998	0.23464
Adj. R^2	0.79935	0.73881	0.50560	0.23186
Num. obs.	276	276	276	276

$^{***}p < 0.001$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{*}p < 0.05$

Table 7.3: Linear Model for Age: FWL Regressions

7.2.2 Nonparametric Specification for Age

As above, first conduct FWL regressions to reduce the problem to two dimensions. The models shown in Table 7.3 illustrate this possibility. Model 1 is the same original model in Table 9.1. Model 2 is a regression omitting the age variable. Model 3 is a regression to predict age with the other explanatory variables in Model 2. Finally, Model 4 shows the coefficient for age from a regression of the residuals of Model 2 on the residuals from Model 3. Notice that these coefficients match those in Model 1.

To illustrate the fit of the model, Figure 7.5 shows a scatter plot of the residual log prices on age. The observations are shown in blue and the fitted values are shown in red. The variation in the fitted values results from the fact that it is not plotted against the transformed excess age variable used in the regressions. Still, the linear pattern is apparent and appears to match the data.
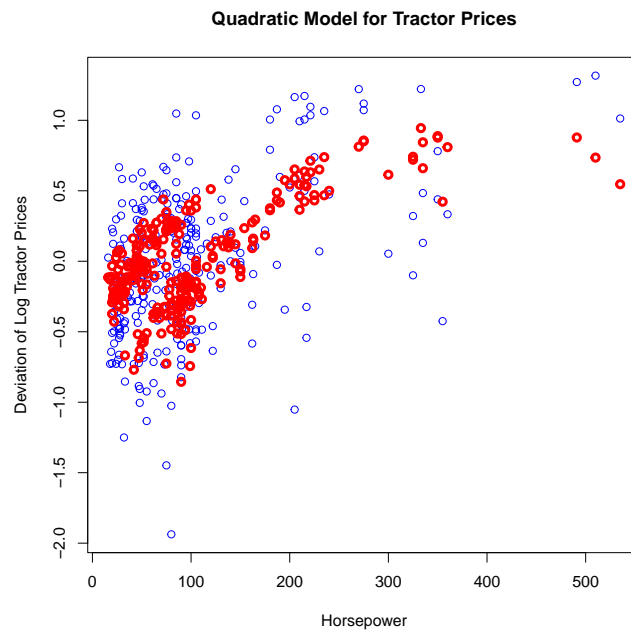

Figure 7.5: Linear-Quadratic Model for Tractor Prices

As a comparison, Figure 7.6 augments the above by showing the plot against the residuals from the regression for age: the "excess age" of a tractor compared to what would be expected given the other characteristics of the tractor. Notice that this time the fit follows a straight line, since we have a single variable with no quadratic transformation.

Nonparametric Model for Tractor Prices
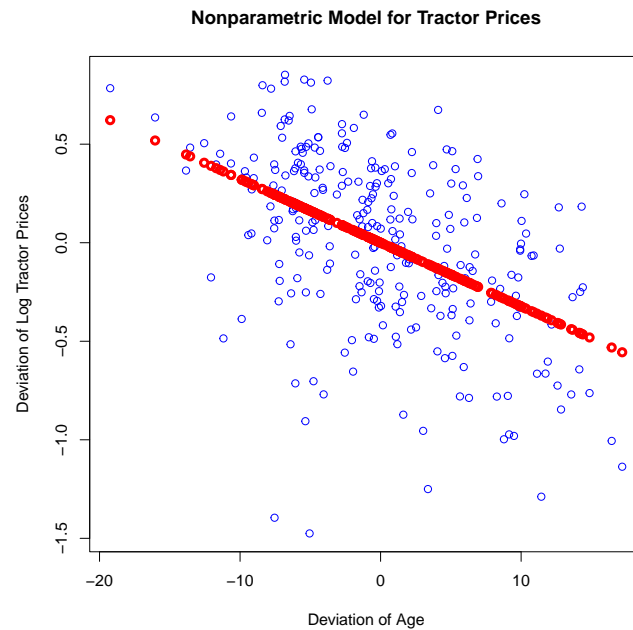
Figure 7.6: Linear-Quadratic Model for Tractor Prices: Excess Age

Now consider a nonparametric specification for the relationship between prices and age. Figure 8.2 overlays the nonparametric estimate (shown in green) with the above in Figure 7.6. The pattern has more variation in slope but closely follows the prediction from the linear model. Although the nonparametric estimate varies around the linear estimate, it appears that the linear form is a close enough approximation without the added complexity. Next, I will explore the remaining continuous variable.

Nonparametric Model for Tractor Prices
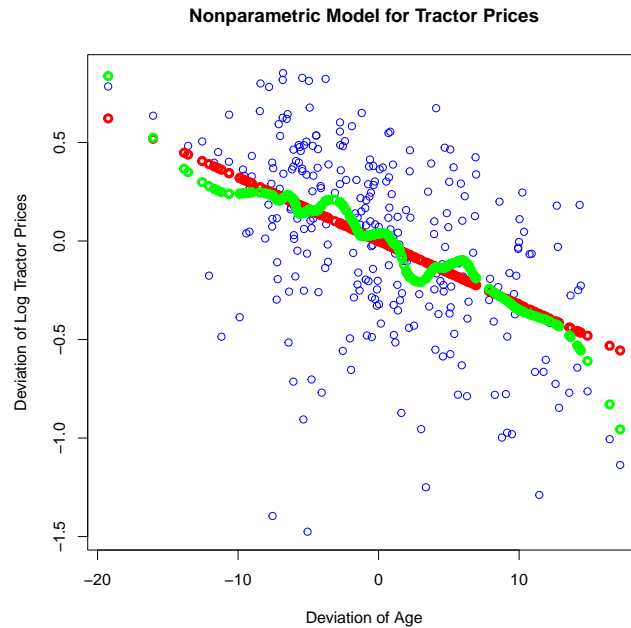
Figure 7.7: Nonparametric Model for Tractor Prices: Excess Age

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
(Intercept)	8.72792***	8.79201***	−1533.86328*	
	(0.10602)	(0.10849)	(671.52168)	
horsepower	0.01112***	0.01030***	19.70996**	
	(0.00107)	(0.00108)	(6.71576)	
squared_horsepower	−0.00001***	−0.00001***	−0.02012	
	(0.00000)	(0.00000)	(0.01437)	
age	−0.03233***	−0.04000***	183.63531***	
	(0.00358)	(0.00322)	(19.94860)	
enghours	−0.00004***			
	(0.00001)			
diesel	0.20350*	0.20799*	−107.43464	
	(0.09805)	(0.10130)	(627.05359)	
fwd	0.26539***	0.25967***	136.84215	
	(0.05820)	(0.06013)	(372.16237)	
manual	−0.15015*	−0.15684*	160.15539	
	(0.06189)	(0.06393)	(395.72599)	
johndeere	0.31872***	0.30410***	349.77262	
	(0.07186)	(0.07417)	(459.11233)	
cab	0.48345***	0.45588***	659.90018	
	(0.07003)	(0.07207)	(446.07457)	
eng_resid				−0.00004***
				(0.00001)
R^2	0.80591	0.79200	0.45819	0.06689
Adj. R^2	0.79935	0.78577	0.44195	0.06350
Num. obs.	276	276	276	276

$^{***}p < 0.001; {}^{**}p < 0.01; {}^{*}p < 0.05$

Table 7.4: Linear Model for Engine Hours: FWL Regressions

7.2.3 Nonparametric Specification for Engine Hours

As above, first conduct FWL regressions to reduce the problem to two dimensions. The models shown in Table 7.4 illustrate this possibility. Model 1 is the same original model in Table 9.1. Model 2 is a regression omitting the age variable. Model 3 is a regression to predict engine hours with the other explanatory variables in Model 2. Finally, Model 4 shows the coefficient for engine hours from a regression of the residuals of Model 2 on the residuals from Model 3. Notice that these coefficients match those in Model 1.

To illustrate the fit of the model, Figure 7.8 shows a scatter plot of the residual log prices on engine hours. The observations are shown in blue and the fitted values are shown in red. The variation in the fitted values results from the fact that it is not plotted against the transformed excess engine hours variable used in the regressions. Still, the linear pattern is apparent and appears to match the data.
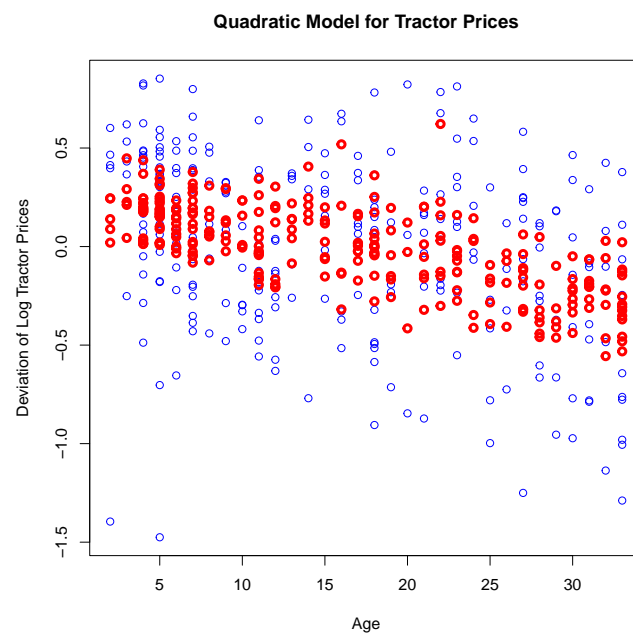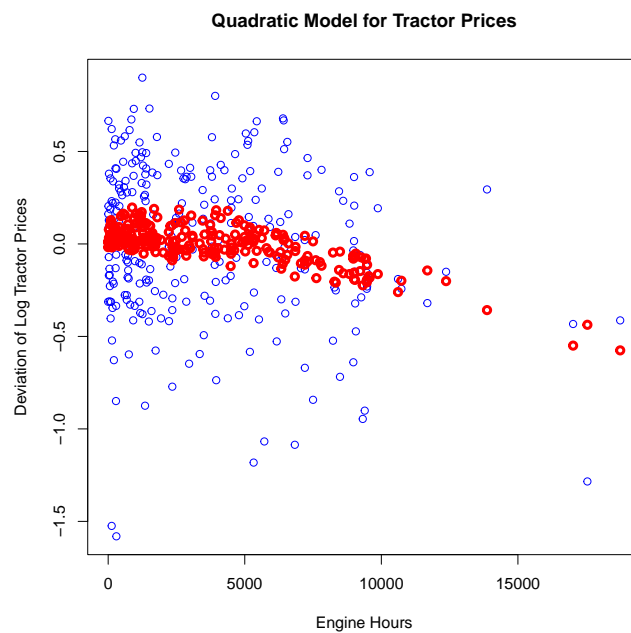

Figure 7.8: Linear-Quadratic Model for Tractor Prices

As a comparison, Figure 8.3 augments the above by showing the plot against the residuals from the regression for engine hours: the "excess engine hours" of a tractor compared to what would be expected given the other characteristics of the tractor. As with age, the fit follows a straight line, since we have a single variable with no quadratic transformation. I move directly to the nonparametric specification for the relationship between prices and engine hours. Figure 8.3 overlays the nonparametric estimate, shown in green. The pattern has more variation in slope but closely follows the prediction from the linear model. Although the nonparametric estimate varies around the linear estimate, it appears that the linear form is also a close enough approximation, just as was found for the age variable.

Nonparametric Model for Tractor Prices
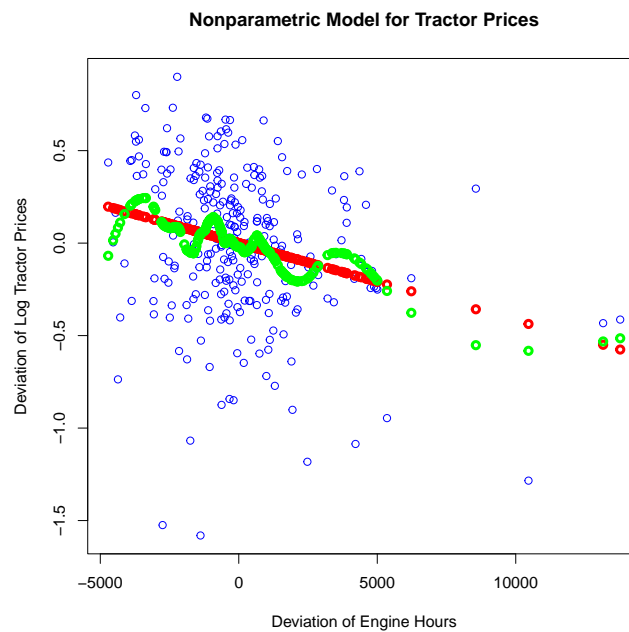
Figure 7.9: Nonparametric Model for Tractor Prices: Excess Engine Hours

7.3   Semiparametric Estimates

As I was building the above nonparametric models, I stored the predictions and will now use them as variables in linear models. Table 8.2 shows the estimates from a set of models. Model 1 is the benchmark linear model in Table 9.1. Model 2 is a semi-parametric model with a nonparametric fit on horsepower substituted in for the horsepower variables. Models 3 and 4 are semi-parametric models with nonparametric fits on age and engine hours, respectively. Model 5 is a maximally semiparametric model, with nonparametric fits for all continuous variables. For each of the single-variable semiparametric models, the coefficients are near one and the fits are similar to the linear model. Even with maximal flexibility, the fit of Model 5 is not much better than the benchmark linear model. Across all models, the adjusted $\bar{R}^2$ values are all hovering around 0.80. All things considered, these are excellent models and the linear model is sufficient.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
(Intercept)	8.72792***	8.97543***	8.26683***	8.79186***	8.28804***
	(0.10602)	(0.10479)	(0.09102)	(0.10295)	(0.08340)
horsepower	0.01112***		0.01087***	0.01020***	
	(0.00107)		(0.00105)	(0.00103)	
squared_horsepower	−0.00001***		−0.00001***	−0.00001***	
	(0.00000)		(0.00000)	(0.00000)	
age	−0.03233***	−0.03813***		−0.04025***	
	(0.00358)	(0.00360)		(0.00306)	
enghours	−0.00004***	0.00000	−0.00009***		
	(0.00001)	(0.00001)	(0.00001)		
diesel	0.20350*	0.31981**	0.31266**	0.22271*	0.49492***
	(0.09805)	(0.09872)	(0.09593)	(0.09617)	(0.09408)
fwd	0.26539***	0.39101***	0.46564***	0.24905***	0.69747***
	(0.05820)	(0.05901)	(0.05214)	(0.05709)	(0.04973)
manual	−0.15015*	−0.06208	−0.29946***	−0.15841**	−0.31240***
	(0.06189)	(0.06285)	(0.05875)	(0.06067)	(0.05689)
johndeere	0.31872***	0.40778***	0.29792***	0.30143***	0.35156***
	(0.07186)	(0.07313)	(0.07098)	(0.07039)	(0.07014)
cab	0.48345***	1.05513***	0.47953***	0.46718***	0.96339***
	(0.07003)	(0.05806)	(0.06920)	(0.06842)	(0.05248)
horsepower_np		0.96671***			0.97150***
		(0.06886)			(0.06845)
age_np			0.98471***		1.50214***
			(0.10383)		(0.11402)
eng_np				1.05037***	1.46063***
				(0.19026)	(0.21432)
R^2	0.80591	0.79743	0.81049	0.81338	0.81228
Adj. R^2	0.79935	0.79136	0.80408	0.80707	0.80665
Num. obs.	276	276	276	276	276

$^{***}p < 0.001$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{*}p < 0.05$

Table 7.5: Semiparametric Models for Tractor Prices

7.4 Generalized Additive Model

7.4.1 Linear Model

As an example of the output from the GAM specification, I first estimated the model with no nonlinear terms, which is essentially a linear regression.

```
Family: gaussian
Link function: identity

Formula:
log_saleprice ~ horsepower + squared_horsepower + age + enghours +
    diesel + fwd + manual + johndeere + cab

Parametric coefficients:
                    Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)         8.728e+00  1.060e-01  82.327  < 2e-16 ***
horsepower          1.112e-02  1.067e-03  10.423  < 2e-16 ***
squared_horsepower -1.404e-05  2.255e-06  -6.223 1.89e-09 ***
age                -3.233e-02  3.580e-03  -9.031  < 2e-16 ***
enghours           -4.178e-05  9.569e-06  -4.367 1.81e-05 ***
diesel              2.035e-01  9.805e-02   2.076   0.0389 *
fwd                 2.654e-01  5.820e-02   4.560 7.82e-06 ***
manual             -1.502e-01  6.189e-02  -2.426   0.0159 *
johndeere           3.187e-01  7.186e-02   4.435 1.35e-05 ***
cab                 4.834e-01  7.003e-02   6.903 3.72e-11 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1


R-sq.(adj) =  0.799   Deviance explained = 80.6%
GCV = 0.16445  Scale est. = 0.15849   n = 276
```

7.4.2 Semiparametric Model

Further investigating the results of the full semiparametric specification in Model 5 of Table 8.2, I estimated the model with all three continuous variables specified as nonparametric functions. The result was that almost all the variables—both linear and nonlinear—were statistically significant. The only exception was a loss in significance of the diesel indicator.

```
Family: gaussian
Link function: identity

Formula:
log_saleprice ~ s(horsepower) + s(age) + s(enghours) + diesel +
    fwd + manual + johndeere + cab

Parametric coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)  9.04516    0.09366  96.575  < 2e-16 ***
diesel       0.13440    0.09499   1.415  0.15830
fwd          0.29899    0.05754   5.196 4.11e-07 ***
manual      -0.16938    0.05965  -2.839  0.00487 **
johndeere    0.33067    0.06890   4.799 2.68e-06 ***
cab          0.40439    0.07151   5.655 4.08e-08 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1

Approximate significance of smooth terms:
                edf Ref.df     F  p-value
s(horsepower) 4.387  5.321 44.89  < 2e-16 ***
s(age)        3.264  4.057 21.59  < 2e-16 ***
s(enghours)   1.000  1.000 23.39 2.64e-06 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1

R-sq.(adj) =  0.819   Deviance explained = 82.8%
GCV = 0.15063  Scale est. = 0.14263   n = 276
```

On the other hand, the adjusted R-squared has not increased very much, from 0.799 to 0.819 under this specification, which may not justify the added complexity of the model. Perhaps more importantly, the coefficients on the linear terms are very similar across models, indicating that the models support similar conclusions relating to any business decision involving the John Deere premium. With this second model, we have even more support for those conclusions and are certain that the conclusions are not coincidental results of the functional form decisions for previous models.

Perhaps as a middle ground, we can estimate a model with a nonparametric specification for the horsepower variable alone, since it seems to have a nonlinear relationship with value in either case. This retains most of the predictive value of the maximally semiparametric model and accommodates the nonlinear relationship with value of horsepower.

```
Family: gaussian
Link function: identity

Formula:
log_saleprice ~ s(horsepower) + age + enghours + diesel + fwd +
    manual + johndeere + cab

Parametric coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)  9.697e+00  1.120e-01  86.607  < 2e-16 ***
age         -3.114e-02  3.539e-03  -8.799  < 2e-16 ***
enghours    -4.354e-05  9.342e-06  -4.660 5.02e-06 ***
diesel       1.372e-01  9.590e-02   1.431  0.15361
fwd          3.134e-01  5.773e-02   5.428 1.29e-07 ***
manual      -1.650e-01  6.041e-02  -2.732  0.00673 **
johndeere    3.189e-01  6.933e-02   4.599 6.59e-06 ***
cab          3.770e-01  7.202e-02   5.235 3.38e-07 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1

Approximate significance of smooth terms:
                edf Ref.df     F p-value
s(horsepower) 4.758  5.751 44.49  <2e-16 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1

R-sq.(adj) =  0.815   Deviance explained = 82.3%
GCV = 0.15323  Scale est. = 0.14615   n = 276
```

Chapter 8

Transforming the Explanatory Variables

I will revisit the recommended linear model from Problem Set #7, which included a quadratic specification for horsepower. This allowed for an increasing relationship between price and horsepower, for tractors with low horsepower, but a decreasing relationship for the tractors with high horsepower. I augmented this model in the demonstration for Problem Set #8 by considering semiparametric specifications within a Generalized Additive Model.

Then I will further investigate this nonlinear relationship by incorporating a nonlinear but parametric specification for the value of horsepower. This parametric analysis will be performed using the Box-Tidwell framework to investigate whether the value of these characteristics are best described with parametric nonlinear forms.

	Model 1
(Intercept)	8.72792***
	(0.10602)
horsepower	0.01112***
	(0.00107)
squared_horsepower	−0.00001***
	(0.00000)
age	−0.03233***
	(0.00358)
enghours	−0.00004***
	(0.00001)
diesel	0.20350*
	(0.09805)
fwd	0.26539***
	(0.05820)
manual	−0.15015*
	(0.06189)
johndeere	0.31872***
	(0.07186)
cab	0.48345***
	(0.07003)
R^2	0.80591
Adj. R^2	0.79935
Num. obs.	276

$^{***}p < 0.001$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{*}p < 0.05$

Table 8.1: Quadratic Model for Tractor Prices

8.1 Linear Regression Model

A natural staring point is the recommended linear model from Problem Set #7.

8.1.1 Quadratic Specification for Horsepower

In the demo for Problem Set #7, we considered the advice of a used tractor dealer who reported that overpowered used tractors are hard to sell, since they consume more fuel. This implies that tractor prices often increase with horsepower, up to a point, but beyond that they decrease. To incorporate this advice, I created and included a variable for squared horsepower. A decreasing relationship for high values of horsepower is characterized by a positive coefficient on the horsepower variable and a negative coefficient on the squared horsepower variable.

The results of this regression specification are shown in Table 9.1. The squared horsepower variable has a coefficient of $-2.081e - 05$, which is nearly ten times as large as the standard error of $2.199e - 06$, which is very strong evidence against the null hypothesis of a positive or zero coefficient. I conclude that the log of the sale price does decline for large values of horsepower.

With the squared horsepower variable, the $\bar{R}^2$ is 0.764, indicating that it is a much stronger

model than the others we considered. The F-statistic is large, indicating that it is a better candidate than the simple average log sale price. The new squared horsepower variable is statistically significant and the theory behind it is sound, since above a certain point, added horsepower may not improve performance but will cost more to operate. This new model is much improved over the previous models with a linear specification for horsepower. Next, I will attempt to improve on this specification, as we did for Problem Set #8.

8.2 Nonlinear Specifications

8.2.1 Nonparametric Specification for Horsepower

The specification in Table 9.1 assumes a quadratic functional form for the relationship between price and horsepower. To consider the horsepower variable alone, while accounting for the effects of other variables, one can fit a nonparametric model to the residuals from a model of tractor prices, after regressing tractor prices on the other variables. This leaves only the variation in tractor prices that is not explained by the other variables. Going one step further, perform the same transformation to the horsepower variable: take the residuals from a model of horsepower, after regressing horsepower on the other variables. This allows a model that would fit exactly the same as if it were estimated within a full model with all variables included.

I first conducted FWL regressions to reduce the problem to two dimensions. The results are not shown here, since the comparison only verifies the conclusion of the FWL theorem.

To illustrate the fit of the model, 7.2 shows a scatter plot of the residual log prices on residuals from the regression for horsepower: the "excess horsepower" compared to what would be expected given the other characteristics of a tractor. The observations are shown in blue and the fitted values are shown in red. The quadratic function is clear from this perspective, except that we observe variation in the fitted values results from the two-dimensional nature of the horsepower variable when we consider the quadratic form.

I next considered a nonparametric specification for the relationship between prices and horsepower. Figure 8.1 overlays the nonparametric estimate (shown in green) compared to the linear model. The pattern has more variation in slope but closely follows the prediction from the quadratic model. So far, it appears that the quadratic form is close enough.
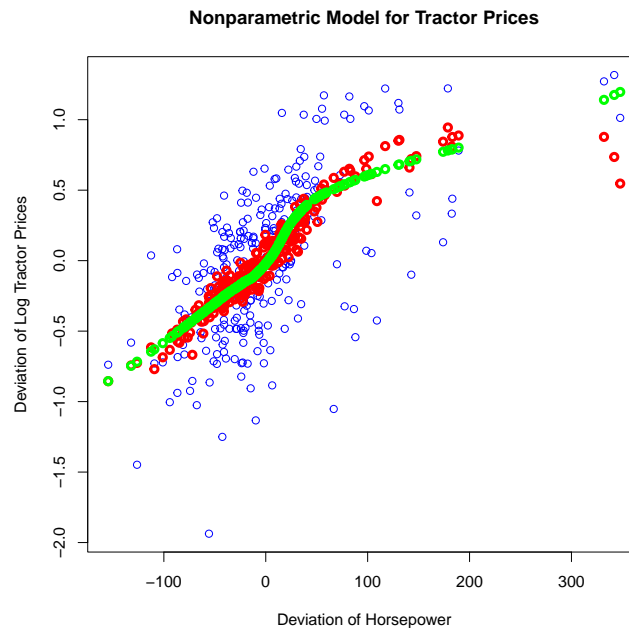
Figure 8.1: Nonparametric Model for Tractor Prices: Excess Horsepower

8.2.2 Nonparametric Specification for Age

As above, first conduct FWL regressions to reduce the problem to two dimensions. To illustrate the fit of the model, Figure 8.2 shows a scatter plot of the residual log prices on the residuals from the regression for age: the "excess age" of a tractor compared to what would be expected given the other characteristics of the tractor. The observations are shown in blue and the fitted values are shown in red.

Next we considered a nonparametric specification for the relationship between prices and age. Figure 8.2 overlays the nonparametric estimate (shown in green) with the linear model. The pattern has more variation in slope but closely follows the prediction from the linear model. Although the nonparametric estimate varies around the linear estimate, it appears that the linear form is a close enough approximation without the added complexity. Next, I will revisit the remaining continuous variable.
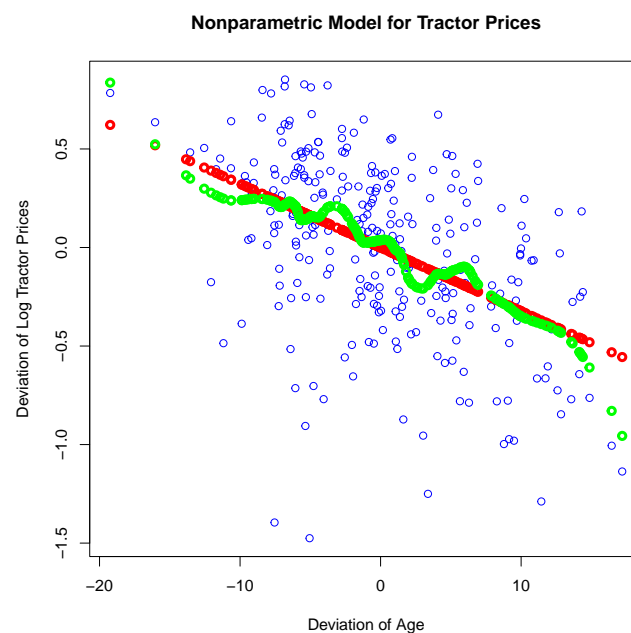
Figure 8.2: Nonparametric Model for Tractor Prices: Excess Age

8.2.3 Nonparametric Specification for Engine Hours

As above, first conduct FWL regressions to reduce the problem to two dimensions. To illustrate the fit of the model, Figure 8.3 shows a scatter plot of the residual log prices on residuals from the regression for engine hours: the "excess engine hours" of a tractor compared to what would be expected given the other characteristics of the tractor. The observations are shown in blue and the fitted values are shown in red. As with age, the linear fit follows a straight line, since we have a single variable with no quadratic transformation. I moved directly to the nonparametric specification for the relationship between prices and engine hours. Figure 8.3 overlays the non-parametric estimate, shown in green. The pattern has more variation in slope but closely follows the prediction from the linear model. Although the nonparametric estimate varies around the linear estimate, it appears that the linear form is also a close enough approximation, just as was found for the age variable.
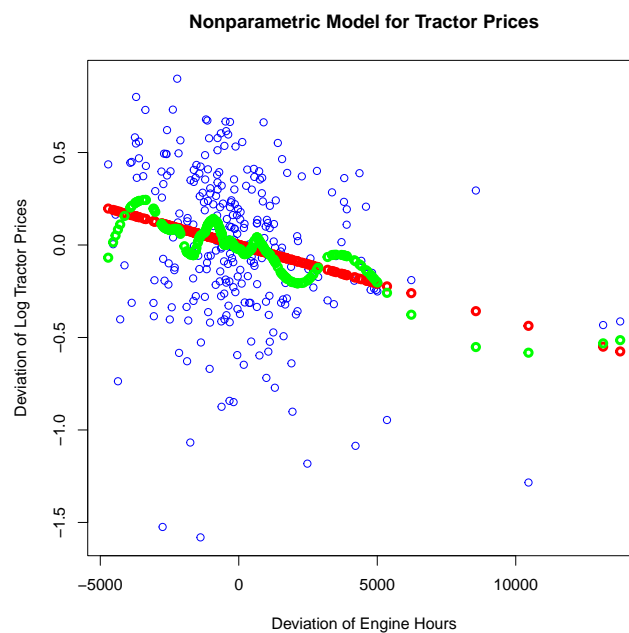
Figure 8.3: Nonparametric Model for Tractor Prices: Excess Engine Hours

8.3 Semiparametric Estimates

As I was building the above nonparametric models, I stored the predictions and will now use them as variables in linear models. Table 8.2 shows the estimates from a set of models. Model 1 is the benchmark linear model in Table 9.1. Model 2 is a semi-parametric model with a nonparametric fit on horsepower substituted in for the horsepower variables. Models 3 and 4 are semi-parametric models with nonparametric fits on age and engine hours, respectively. Model 5 is a maximally semiparametric model, with nonparametric fits for all continuous variables. For each of the single-variable semiparametric models, the coefficients are near one and the fits are similar to the linear model. Even with maximal flexibility, the fit of Model 5 is not much better than the benchmark linear model. Across all models, the adjusted $\bar{R}^2$ values are all hovering around 0.80. All things considered, these are excellent models and the linear model is sufficient.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
(Intercept)	8.72792***	8.97543***	8.26683***	8.79186***	8.28804***
	(0.10602)	(0.10479)	(0.09102)	(0.10295)	(0.08340)
horsepower	0.01112***		0.01087***	0.01020***	
	(0.00107)		(0.00105)	(0.00103)	
squared_horsepower	−0.00001***		−0.00001***	−0.00001***	
	(0.00000)		(0.00000)	(0.00000)	
age	−0.03233***	−0.03813***		−0.04025***	
	(0.00358)	(0.00360)		(0.00306)	
enghours	−0.00004***	0.00000	−0.00009***		
	(0.00001)	(0.00001)	(0.00001)		
diesel	0.20350*	0.31981**	0.31266**	0.22271*	0.49492***
	(0.09805)	(0.09872)	(0.09593)	(0.09617)	(0.09408)
fwd	0.26539***	0.39101***	0.46564***	0.24905***	0.69747***
	(0.05820)	(0.05901)	(0.05214)	(0.05709)	(0.04973)
manual	−0.15015*	−0.06208	−0.29946***	−0.15841**	−0.31240***
	(0.06189)	(0.06285)	(0.05875)	(0.06067)	(0.05689)
johndeere	0.31872***	0.40778***	0.29792***	0.30143***	0.35156***
	(0.07186)	(0.07313)	(0.07098)	(0.07039)	(0.07014)
cab	0.48345***	1.05513***	0.47953***	0.46718***	0.96339***
	(0.07003)	(0.05806)	(0.06920)	(0.06842)	(0.05248)
horsepower_np		0.96671***			0.97150***
		(0.06886)			(0.06845)
age_np			0.98471***		1.50214***
			(0.10383)		(0.11402)
eng_np				1.05037***	1.46063***
				(0.19026)	(0.21432)
R^2	0.80591	0.79743	0.81049	0.81338	0.81228
Adj. R^2	0.79935	0.79136	0.80408	0.80707	0.80665
Num. obs.	276	276	276	276	276

$^{***}p < 0.001$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{*}p < 0.05$

Table 8.2: Semiparametric Models for Tractor Prices

8.4   Generalized Additive Model

8.4.1   Linear Model

As an example of the output from the GAM specification, I first estimated the model with no nonlinear terms, which is essentially a linear regression.

```
Family: gaussian
Link function: identity

Formula:
log_saleprice ~ horsepower + squared_horsepower + age + enghours +
    diesel + fwd + manual + johndeere + cab

Parametric coefficients:
                    Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)         8.728e+00  1.060e-01  82.327  < 2e-16 ***
horsepower          1.112e-02  1.067e-03  10.423  < 2e-16 ***
squared_horsepower -1.404e-05  2.255e-06  -6.223 1.89e-09 ***
age                -3.233e-02  3.580e-03  -9.031  < 2e-16 ***
enghours           -4.178e-05  9.569e-06  -4.367 1.81e-05 ***
diesel              2.035e-01  9.805e-02   2.076   0.0389 *
fwd                 2.654e-01  5.820e-02   4.560 7.82e-06 ***
manual             -1.502e-01  6.189e-02  -2.426   0.0159 *
johndeere           3.187e-01  7.186e-02   4.435 1.35e-05 ***
cab                 4.834e-01  7.003e-02   6.903 3.72e-11 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1


R-sq.(adj) =  0.799   Deviance explained = 80.6%
GCV = 0.16445  Scale est. = 0.15849   n = 276
```

8.4.2 Semiparametric Model

Further investigating the results of the full semiparametric specification in Model 5 of Table 8.2, I estimated the model with all three continuous variables specified as nonparametric functions. The result was that almost all the variables—both linear and nonlinear—were statistically significant. The only exception was a loss in significance of the diesel indicator.

```
Family: gaussian
Link function: identity

Formula:
log_saleprice ~ s(horsepower) + s(age) + s(enghours) + diesel +
    fwd + manual + johndeere + cab

Parametric coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)  9.04516    0.09366  96.575  < 2e-16 ***
diesel       0.13440    0.09499   1.415  0.15830
fwd          0.29899    0.05754   5.196 4.11e-07 ***
manual      -0.16938    0.05965  -2.839  0.00487 **
johndeere    0.33067    0.06890   4.799 2.68e-06 ***
cab          0.40439    0.07151   5.655 4.08e-08 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1

Approximate significance of smooth terms:
                edf Ref.df     F  p-value
s(horsepower) 4.387  5.321 44.89  < 2e-16 ***
s(age)        3.264  4.057 21.59  < 2e-16 ***
s(enghours)   1.000  1.000 23.39 2.64e-06 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1

R-sq.(adj) =  0.819   Deviance explained = 82.8%
GCV = 0.15063  Scale est. = 0.14263   n = 276
```

On the other hand, the adjusted R-squared has not increased very much, from 0.799 to 0.819 under this specification, which may not justify the added complexity of the model. Perhaps more importantly, the coefficients on the linear terms are very similar across models, indicating that the models support similar conclusions relating to any business decision involving the John Deere premium. With this second model, we have even more support for those conclusions and are certain that the conclusions are not coincidental results of the functional form decisions for previous models.

Perhaps as a middle ground, we can estimate a model with a nonparametric specification for the horsepower variable alone, since it seems to have a nonlinear relationship with value in either case. This retains most of the predictive value of the maximally semiparametric model and accommodates the nonlinear relationship with value of horsepower.

```
Family: gaussian
Link function: identity

Formula:
log_saleprice ~ s(horsepower) + age + enghours + diesel + fwd +
    manual + johndeere + cab

Parametric coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)  9.697e+00  1.120e-01  86.607  < 2e-16 ***
age         -3.114e-02  3.539e-03  -8.799  < 2e-16 ***
enghours    -4.354e-05  9.342e-06  -4.660 5.02e-06 ***
diesel       1.372e-01  9.590e-02   1.431  0.15361
fwd          3.134e-01  5.773e-02   5.428 1.29e-07 ***
manual      -1.650e-01  6.041e-02  -2.732  0.00673 **
johndeere    3.189e-01  6.933e-02   4.599 6.59e-06 ***
cab          3.770e-01  7.202e-02   5.235 3.38e-07 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1

Approximate significance of smooth terms:
               edf Ref.df     F p-value
s(horsepower) 4.758  5.751 44.49  <2e-16 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1

R-sq.(adj) =  0.815   Deviance explained = 82.3%
GCV = 0.15323  Scale est. = 0.14615   n = 276
```

8.5   The Box–Tidwell Transformation

The Box–Tidwell function tests for non-linear relationships to the mean of the dependent variable. The nonlinearity is in the form of an exponential transformation in the form of the Box-Cox transformation, except that the transformation is taken on the explanatory variables.

8.5.1   Transformation of Horsepower

Performing the transformation on the horsepower variable produces a modified form of the linear model. This specification allows a single exponential transformation on horsepower, rather than a quadratic form.

```
 MLE of lambda Score Statistic (z)   Pr(>|z|)
      0.11437                 -7.3864 1.509e-13 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1

iterations =   5
```

The R output is the statistics for a test of nonlinearity: that the exponent λ in the Box–Tidwell transformation is zero. The "MLE of lambda" statistic is the optimal exponent on horsepower. Similar to the Box-Cox transformation, with Box-Tidwell, the exponents are on the explanatory variables and are all called lambda, in contrast to the parameter τ in our class notes. The exponent is significantly different from 0, although it is a small positive value, which suggests an increasing relationship for the value of horsepower with a slope that is sharply declining. Next I consider the possibility of a changing relationship for the next continuous variable.

8.5.2   Transformation of Age

```
 MLE of lambda Score Statistic (z) Pr(>|z|)
       0.9815                  0.0421   0.9664

iterations =   3
```

This coefficient is effectively 1, which is more evidence of a purely linear relationship between log_saleprice and age: the percentage depreciation rate is constant. Next, I will consider the possibility of nonlinearity in depreciation from hours of use.

8.5.3   Transformation of Engine Hours

```
 MLE of lambda Score Statistic (z) Pr(>|z|)
       1.3578                 -0.9646   0.3348

iterations =   3
```

Although $\hat{\lambda}$ is not statistically significant, this suggests a moderately increasing relationship between the log of tractor prices and engine hours, which means that tractors with high hours of use depreciate more quickly with each additional hour of use.

Since a nonlinear relationship was detected with horsepower, I will next estimate a model with nonlinearity in all three continuous variables.

8.5.4 Transformation of All Three Continuous Variables

```
            MLE of lambda Score Statistic (z)   Pr(>|z|)
horsepower         0.1153               -7.1510 8.615e-13 ***
age                1.1183               -0.0489    0.9610
enghours           1.1043               -0.5379    0.5907
---
Signif. codes:  0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1

iterations =   6
```

The performance is similar to the other models with forms of nonlinearity for the value of horsepower. Now consider the full set of such models in a table for a final comparison.

8.6 Final Comparison of Candidate Models

I created one more variable `horsepower_bt` by raising horsepower to the optimal exponent $\hat{\lambda} = 0.1143693$. Then, I included this variable in the place of the horsepower variables a the linear regression model. Table 8.3 collects the results of the set of models from the three forms of nonlinearity. Model 1 is the linear regression model with a quadratic form for horsepower. Model 2 is the semiparametric model with a nonparametric form for horsepower. Model 3 has the same specification as the other two, except that the horsepower variable is transformed using the optimal exponent for the Box-Tidwell transformation. The last model has the highest R-squared among the ones we have estimated. Again, the differences are marginal, so the practical recommendation is the model with the quadratic relationship for horsepower, which has a simpler interpretation. In either case, we conclude that John Deere tractors are worth approximately thirty percent more valuable than an equivalent tractor of another brand.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
(Intercept)	8.72792***	8.97543***	3.09024***
	(0.10602)	(0.10479)	(0.39174)
horsepower	0.01112***		
	(0.00107)		
squared_horsepower	-0.00001***		
	(0.00000)		
age	-0.03233***	-0.03813***	-0.02927***
	(0.00358)	(0.00360)	(0.00345)
enghours	-0.00004***	0.00000	-0.00005***
	(0.00001)	(0.00001)	(0.00001)
diesel	0.20350*	0.31981**	0.12070
	(0.09805)	(0.09872)	(0.09500)
fwd	0.26539***	0.39101***	0.32602***
	(0.05820)	(0.05901)	(0.05617)
manual	-0.15015*	-0.06208	-0.20053**
	(0.06189)	(0.06285)	(0.06031)
johndeere	0.31872***	0.40778***	0.33386***
	(0.07186)	(0.07313)	(0.06967)
cab	0.48345***	1.05513***	0.42139***
	(0.07003)	(0.05806)	(0.06768)
horsepower_np		0.96671***	
		(0.06886)	
horsepower_bt			3.99759***
			(0.25577)
R^2	0.80591	0.79743	0.81613
Adj. R^2	0.79935	0.79136	0.81062
Num. obs.	276	276	276

***$p < 0.001$; **$p < 0.01$; *$p < 0.05$

Table 8.3: Alternate Models for Tractor Prices

Chapter 9

Sample Selection Models

This analysis follows the script `Tractor_Sample_Selection.R` to produce a more accurate model for used tractor prices with the data from `TRACTOR7.csv` in the `Data` folder.

I will revisit the recommended linear model from Problem Set #7, which was supported in Problem Sets #8 and #9 by considering other nonlinear specifications within a Generalized Additive Model.

Then I will further investigate this nonlinear relationship by considering the issue of sample selection: John Deere may produce tractors of specific qualities based on their perceived value to typical John Deere customers, in ways that are not represented by the variables in the dataset.

	Model 1
(Intercept)	8.72792***
	(0.10602)
horsepower	0.01112***
	(0.00107)
squared_horsepower	−0.00001***
	(0.00000)
age	−0.03233***
	(0.00358)
enghours	−0.00004***
	(0.00001)
diesel	0.20350*
	(0.09805)
fwd	0.26539***
	(0.05820)
manual	−0.15015*
	(0.06189)
johndeere	0.31872***
	(0.07186)
cab	0.48345***
	(0.07003)
R^2	0.80591
Adj. R^2	0.79935
Num. obs.	276

$^{***}p < 0.001$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{*}p < 0.05$

Table 9.1: Quadratic Model for Tractor Prices

9.1 Linear Regression Model

A natural staring point is the recommended linear model from Problem Set #7.

9.1.1 Quadratic Specification for Horsepower

In the demo for Problem Set #7, we considered the advice of a used tractor dealer who reported that overpowered used tractors are hard to sell, since they consume more fuel. This implies that tractor prices often increase with horsepower, up to a point, but beyond that they decrease. To incorporate this advice, I created and included a variable for squared horsepower. A decreasing relationship for high values of horsepower is characterized by a positive coefficient on the horsepower variable and a negative coefficient on the squared horsepower variable.

The results of this regression specification are shown in Table 9.1. The squared horsepower variable has a coefficient of $-2.081e - 05$, which is nearly ten times as large as the standard error of $2.199e - 06$, which is very strong evidence against the null hypothesis of a positive or zero coefficient. I conclude that the log of the sale price does decline for large values of horsepower.

With the squared horsepower variable, the $\bar{R}^2$ is 0.764, indicating that it is a much stronger

model than the others we considered. The F-statistic is large, indicating that it is a better candidate than the simple average log sale price. The new squared horsepower variable is statistically significant and the theory behind it is sound, since above a certain point, added horsepower may not improve performance but will cost more to operate. This new model is much improved over the previous models with a linear specification for horsepower. Next, I will attempt to improve on this specification, using Tobit models for sample selection.

Separate Models by Brand

To test for many possible differences in models by brand of tractor, Table 9.2 shows the estimates for two separate models by brand of tractor. Model 1 shows the estimates for the full sample, Model 2 shows the estimates from the full model for John Deere tractors and Model 4 represents all other brands. Models 3 and 5 show the estimates from a reduced version of each model, in which all coefficients are statistically significant. The coefficients appear similar across the two subsamples. Notable differences include the statistical significance for the indicators for four-wheel drive, manual transmission and an enclosed cab. These features seem to change the value of other tractors, but perhaps these coefficients are not measured accurately for the small sample of 39 John Deere tractors.

We can also test for all of the differences at the same time by using an F-test. In this case, the full, unrestricted model has $K = 2 \times 9 = 18$ parameters, one for each variable in two models. The test that all of the coefficients are the same has $M = 9 - 1 = 8$ restrictions. The one restriction fewer accounts for the John Deere indicator in the full model, which allows for two separate intercepts. The F-statistic has a value of

$$\frac{(RSS_M - RSS)/M}{RSS/(N - K - 1)} = \frac{(42.15882 - 41.1432)/3}{41.1432/263} = 0.7929991.$$

This is also a very low value for the F-statistic. There is no evidence to reject the null that all coefficients are equal across both samples and conclude that the John Deere indicator should be the only brand difference left in the model.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
(Intercept)	8.72792***	8.86706***	9.03796***	8.77320***	8.90792***
	(0.10602)	(0.22409)	(0.16430)	(0.12450)	(0.08769)
horsepower	0.01112***	0.01502***	0.01580***	0.01032***	0.01057***
	(0.00107)	(0.00250)	(0.00223)	(0.00119)	(0.00119)
squared_horsepower	−0.00001***	−0.00002***	−0.00002***	−0.00001***	−0.00001***
	(0.00000)	(0.00000)	(0.00000)	(0.00000)	(0.00000)
age	−0.03233***	−0.03038**	−0.03295***	−0.03164***	−0.03283***
	(0.00358)	(0.00914)	(0.00738)	(0.00399)	(0.00392)
enghours	−0.00004***	−0.00006*	−0.00006**	−0.00004***	−0.00004***
	(0.00001)	(0.00002)	(0.00002)	(0.00001)	(0.00001)
diesel	0.20350*	0.08485		0.18218	
	(0.09805)	(0.18242)		(0.11984)	
fwd	0.26539***	0.12882		0.29072***	0.30003***
	(0.05820)	(0.15529)		(0.06308)	(0.06296)
manual	−0.15015*	0.06749		−0.17919**	−0.14668*
	(0.06189)	(0.17288)		(0.06743)	(0.06413)
johndeere	0.31872***				
	(0.07186)				
cab	0.48345***	0.32344	0.38517*	0.51732***	0.52756***
	(0.07003)	(0.17555)	(0.16365)	(0.07696)	(0.07688)
R^2	0.80591	0.91993	0.91606	0.77992	0.77769
Adj. R^2	0.79935	0.89858	0.90334	0.77220	0.77090
Num. obs.	276	39	39	237	237

$^{***}p < 0.001$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{*}p < 0.05$

Table 9.2: Separate Models by Brand

	Model 1	Model 2
(Intercept)	-0.77781^*	-0.51461
	(0.38590)	(0.26756)
horsepower	0.00019	
	(0.00434)	
squared_horsepower	0.00000	
	(0.00001)	
age	0.00852	
	(0.01433)	
enghours	0.00003	
	(0.00004)	
diesel	-0.97286^{**}	-1.01766^{**}
	(0.35873)	(0.34206)
fwd	0.16677	
	(0.24458)	
manual	0.63033^*	0.73176^{**}
	(0.29427)	(0.27747)
cab	-0.67541^*	-0.44114^*
	(0.30337)	(0.21490)
AIC	220.18598	214.08158
BIC	252.76958	228.56319
Log Likelihood	-101.09299	-103.04079
Deviance	202.18598	206.08158
Num. obs.	276	276

$^{***}p < 0.001$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^*p < 0.05$

Table 9.3: Probit Models for Brand Selection of Tractors

9.2 Sample Selection

9.2.1 Predicting the Selection into Samples

The specification in Table 9.1 assumes a quadratic functional form for the relationship between price and horsepower, without selecting into samples by brand. To investigate this relationship further, consider the set of variables that are related to whether or not John Deere makes a tractor with the characteristics observed in the dataset.

Table 9.3 shows the estimates for a probit model to predict the selection into samples by brand name. Model 1 in Table 9.3 shows a preliminary probit model to predict the selection indicator, with all the other explanatory variables in the model. John Deere tractors are more likely to be gasoline-powered, have manual transmissions, and less likely to have an enclosed cab. Model 2 shows the result of a variable-reduction exercise to eliminate variables that are not statistically significant. These estimates provide a concise but useful model to indicate the tractor designs that would be favored by John Deere engineers and customers. This model is used to specify the selection equation of the sample selection estimates investigated next.

9.2.2 Estimating a Sample Selection Model

In this section, I will make a valiant attempt to fit a sample selection model to the tractor sales data. This exercise is useful because it illustrates a level of difficulty that is often encountered when conducting maximum likelihood estimation, or any for of estimation that involves numeric optimization with a complex objective function.

In contrast, in the sections above, I applied linear regression to separate samples by brand of tractor. I also fit a probit model to predict the brand of a tractor based on its characteristics. In each of these cases, the estimation run much more smoothly. With linear regression, the parameter estimates are obtained from calculation following a closed-form analytical solution obtained by calculus. This calculation is well-defined, except in very well understood cases that can be identified beforehand. Similarly, in the case of the probit model, the likelihood function is well-behaved, with a convex shape like a smooth hill.

When one fits a much more complex model, such as the Tobit type 5 switching model, the situation is different. Not only are we estimating parameters for three equations at once—one selection equation into two brand groups and two observation equations for those groups—the likelihood function can have multiple optima or, as we will see, will often encounter regions of the parameter space in which the required calculations are undefined.

Sample Selection Model 1: Full Model

For a first model, I use the entire set of variables for both observation equations, for John Deere and other brands. I specify the selection equation with the variables above from the probit model.

```
tobit_5_sel_1 <-
  selection(selection = johndeere ~
            diesel + manual + cab,
        outcome = list(log_price_other ~
                     horsepower +
                     squared_horsepower +
                     age +
                     enghours +
                     diesel +
                     fwd +
                     manual +
                     cab,
                  log_price_JD ~
                     horsepower +
                     squared_horsepower +
                     age +
                     enghours +
                     diesel +
                     fwd +
                     manual +
                     cab),
        iterlim = 20,
        # method = '2step',
        data = tractor_sales)
```

Note that this printed some warning messages:

```
Warning messages:
1: In heckit5fit(selection, as.formula(formula1), as.formula(formula2), :
 Inverse Mills Ratio is virtually multicollinear to the rest of explanatory
 variables in the outcome equation 1
2: In heckit5fit(selection, as.formula(formula1), as.formula(formula2), :
 Inverse Mills Ratio is virtually multicollinear to the rest of explanatory
 variables in the outcome equation 2
```

This suggests much overlap between the two models. This is a risk of starting with too rich a model. Inspecting the model summary gives the following result.

```
R> summary(tobit_5_sel_1)
--------------------------------------------
Tobit 5 model (switching regression model)
Maximum Likelihood estimation
Newton-Raphson maximisation, 12 iterations
Return code 3: Last step could not find a value above the current.
Boundary of parameter space?
Consider switching to a more robust optimisation method temporarily.
Log-Likelihood: -268.2932
276 observations: 237 selection 1 (0) and 39 selection 2 (1)
26 free parameters (df = 250)
Probit selection equation:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -0.4064  Inf     0      1
diesel      -0.9974     Inf      0      1
manual       0.5731     Inf      0      1
cab         -0.5105     Inf      0      1
Outcome equation 1:
                   Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)      8.373e+00    Inf      0      1
horsepower       8.717e-03    Inf      0      1
squared_horsepower -1.024e-05 Inf    0      1
age             -2.403e-02    Inf      0      1
enghours        -2.961e-05    Inf      0      1
diesel           4.411e-01    Inf      0      1
fwd              3.966e-01    Inf      0      1
manual          -3.577e-01    Inf      0      1
cab              6.171e-01    Inf      0      1
Outcome equation 2:
                   Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)      9.245e+00    Inf      0      1
horsepower       1.838e-02    Inf      0      1
squared_horsepower -2.557e-05 Inf    0      1
age             -1.895e-02    Inf      0      1
enghours        -7.279e-05    Inf      0      1
diesel           6.111e-01    Inf      0      1
fwd              3.582e-01    Inf      0      1
manual          -1.247e-01    Inf      0      1
cab              4.143e-01    Inf      0      1
```

```
   Error terms:
       Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
sigma1 0.5428     Inf      0      1
sigma2 0.7614     Inf      0      1
rho1   -0.9598    Inf      0      1
rho2   -0.9999    Inf      0      1
--------------------------------------------
```

The messages surrounding the optimization suggest a problematic search for the parameter values. Also, the standard errors could not be calculated. Furthermore, when I toggled the `method = '2step'` commented line, the situation did not improve, aside from returning the results from separate models as in the analysis above. Again, problems such as these are often encountered when starting with too rich a model. Perhaps a less ambitious model is a better starting point.

Sample Selection Model 2: Reduced Model from Separate Estimation

Instead of starting with a "big-to-small" approach, I reconsider the best models for each tractor brand group that were recommended above. I specify the selection equation with the variables above from the probit model. For this refined model, I use the set of variables for separate observation equations, to match the reduced models from separate linear regressions for John Deere and other tractor brands.

```
tobit_5_sel_2 <-
  selection(selection = johndeere ~
              diesel + manual + cab,
          outcome = list(log_price_other ~
                        horsepower +
                        squared_horsepower +
                        age +
                        enghours +
                        # diesel +
                        fwd +
                        manual +
                        cab,
                      log_price_JD ~
                        horsepower +
                        squared_horsepower +
                        age +
                        enghours +
                        # diesel +
                        # fwd +
                        # manual +
                        cab),
          iterlim = 20,
          # method = '2step',
          data = tractor_sales)
```

Although there were no error messages this time, the results were similarly disappointing. Ideally, this estimation method produces standard errors in the above summary but I can inspect

the results from the separate models for each sample. For instance, from the linear model for other brands, after using the `method = '2step'` argument, I obtain the following.

```
> summary(tobit_5_sel_2$lm1)

Call:
lm(formula = YO1 ~ -1 + XO1)

Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q     Max
-1.65134 -0.20946 0.04333 0.27656 0.70671

Coefficients:
                      Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
XO1(Intercept)       8.973e+00 1.142e-01 78.588 < 2e-16 ***
XO1horsepower        1.046e-02 1.193e-03 8.764 4.38e-16 ***
XO1squared_horsepower -1.311e-05 2.559e-06 -5.122 6.44e-07 ***
XO1age              -3.210e-02 4.004e-03 -8.016 5.66e-14 ***
XO1enghours         -3.861e-05 1.077e-05 -3.586 0.000411 ***
XO1fwd               2.965e-01 6.311e-02 4.699 4.53e-06 ***
XO1manual           -1.107e-01 7.570e-02 -1.462 0.145173
XO1cab               4.843e-01 9.078e-02 5.335 2.30e-07 ***
XO1invMillsRatio    -2.694e-01 3.005e-01 -0.897 0.370771
---
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1

Residual standard error: 0.406 on 228 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.9983, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9982
F-statistic: 1.447e+04 on 9 and 228 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

One should be cautious in interpreting these results, since the standard errors are underestimated, since this linear model does not account for the uncertainty in the switching component of the sample selection model. Still, this suggests that I can remove the `manual` indicator. A similar investigation of the `tobit_5_sel_2$lm2` model object suggests that the `cab` variable can be removed as well.

Sample Selection Model 3: Reduced Model

I estimate a model that is the same as the last in all ways, except that the `manual` variable was removed from the first observation equation (other tractors) and the `cab` variable from the second (John Deere) equation.

```
tobit_5_sel_3 <-
  selection(selection = johndeere ~
            diesel + manual + cab,
         outcome = list(log_price_other ~
                    horsepower +
                    squared_horsepower +
                    age +
                    enghours +
                    # diesel +
```

```
                    fwd +
                    # manual +
                    cab,
                 log_price_JD ~
                    horsepower +
                    squared_horsepower +
                    age # +
                    # enghours # +
                    # diesel +
                    # fwd +
                    # manual +
                    # cab
                 ),
        iterlim = 20,
        method = '2step',
        data = tractor_sales)
```

As above, I retrieve the summary from each model.

```
> summary(tobit_5_sel_3$lm1)

Call:
lm(formula = YO1 ~ -1 + XO1)

Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q     Max
-1.68195 -0.22481 0.05553 0.26875 0.68681

Coefficients:
                    Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
XO1(Intercept)     9.012e+00 1.115e-01 80.855 < 2e-16 ***
XO1horsepower      1.035e-02 1.194e-03  8.667 8.16e-16 ***
XO1squared_horsepower -1.293e-05 2.563e-06 -5.044 9.28e-07 ***
XO1age            -3.283e-02 3.983e-03 -8.243 1.31e-14 ***
XO1enghours       -4.037e-05 1.073e-05 -3.763 0.000213 ***
XO1fwd             2.861e-01 6.286e-02  4.551 8.67e-06 ***
XO1cab             4.367e-01 8.495e-02  5.141 5.86e-07 ***
XO1invMillsRatio  -5.025e-01 2.553e-01 -1.968 0.050239 .
---
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1    1

Residual standard error: 0.407 on 229 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.9982, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9982
F-statistic: 1.619e+04 on 8 and 229 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

> summary(tobit_5_sel_3$lm2)

Call:
lm(formula = YO2 ~ -1 + XO2)

Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q     Max
```

```
-0.84032 -0.25558 -0.01936 0.27142 0.87561

Coefficients:
                   Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
XO2(Intercept)      8.626e+00 3.177e-01 27.154 < 2e-16 ***
XO2horsepower       1.536e-02 2.044e-03 7.516 1.00e-08 ***
XO2squared_horsepower -2.018e-05 4.536e-06 -4.449 8.78e-05 ***
XO2age             -4.599e-02 6.331e-03 -7.264 2.07e-08 ***
XO2invMillsRatio 3.800e-01 2.097e-01 1.812 0.0788 .
---
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1

Residual standard error: 0.3892 on 34 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.9985, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9983
F-statistic: 4670 on 5 and 34 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

This time, all of the explanatory variables appear significant, although, again, I caution the reader that the standard errors are underestimated. The results do not suggest a clear path to a further reduced model. Another model-building strategy is in order.

Sample Selection Model 4: Simple Model

The variable reduction strategy performed above has lead to a dead end. As another alternative, I follow a "small-to-big" strategy by estimating a simple model with only a few variables in each equation. On example is the following model with one variable in the selection equation and only two continuous variables in the observation equations.

```
tobit_5_sel_4 <-
  selection(selection = johndeere ~
            # diesel +
            manual # +
            # cab
          ,
          outcome = list(log_price_other ~
                      horsepower +
                      # squared_horsepower +
                      age # +
                      # enghours +
                      # diesel +
                      # fwd +
                      # manual +
                      # cab

                      ,
                    log_price_JD ~
                      horsepower +
                      # squared_horsepower +
                      age # +
                    # enghours # +
                    # diesel +
                    # fwd +
                    # manual +
```

```
                    # cab
            ),
            iterlim = 20,
            method = '2step',
            data = tractor_sales)
```

Even for such a simple model, however, the estimation was problematic and no standard errors could be calculated. This suggests a fundamental problem with the likelihood function. The likelihood function is very flat over this region of the parameter space, enough that the curvature could not be used to calculate a nonsingular Hessian matrix. Again, I investigate the fit of the individual models.

```
> summary(tobit_5_sel_4$lm1)

Call:
lm(formula = YO1 ~ -1 + XO1)

Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q     Max
-1.58645 -0.34390 0.01728 0.40160 1.16196

Coefficients:
                 Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
XO1(Intercept) 9.5619331 0.2889648 33.090 <2e-16 ***
XO1horsepower  0.0068993 0.0004473 15.425 <2e-16 ***
XO1age        -0.0421246 0.0040024 -10.525 <2e-16 ***
XO1invMillsRatio -0.4595151 1.1962781 -0.384 0.701
---
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1

Residual standard error: 0.543 on 233 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.9968, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9967
F-statistic: 1.817e+04 on 4 and 233 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

> summary(tobit_5_sel_4$lm2)

Call:
lm(formula = YO2 ~ -1 + XO2)

Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q     Max
-0.76425 -0.41769 -0.01199 0.30249 1.05331

Coefficients:
                 Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
XO2(Intercept) 13.7697066 1.8495934 7.445 1.03e-08 ***
XO2horsepower  0.0068541 0.0008473 8.089 1.59e-09 ***
XO2age        -0.0444887 0.0078166 -5.692 1.97e-06 ***
XO2invMillsRatio -2.6490903 1.1416835 -2.320 0.0263 *
---
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1   1
```

```
Residual standard error: 0.4832 on 35 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.9977, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9974
F-statistic: 3784 on 4 and 35 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

Even with inflated standard errors, the above results do not suggest an obvious flaw with the model, however simple. At this point, I concede that the sample selection model has limited potential with this dataset.

9.2.3 Discussion

Although this outcome appears negative to the researcher who has invested valuable time in the estimation, it still conveys some understanding of the data. If a model is not suited to the data, the model will not fit well and the numerical optimization technique may present may difficulties. In these circumstances, one should be careful to make many careful attempts to fit the model, since even a well-specified model often presents numerical challenges. For example, choose different starting values or different optimization methods.

In the end, I did not succeed in finding an optimum in which the estimates were well-defined. Looking back at the model, however, this outcome makes sense, given the nature of the data: in our preliminary analysis, we rejected the possibility of separate models by brand name. We found that the only interaction between brand name and other variables is with the intercept term: John Deere tractors pull in a higher resale value than other tractors. In order for a switching model to make sense, the value of one set of characteristics should be higher for one model in some circumstances and lower in others. In this case, however, the recommended model predicts a uniformly higher value for John Deere tractors.

In order for the switching model to make sense here, the engineers at John Deere would be choosing designs among all conceivable tractor designs and producing those that are most valuable to John Deere customers. According to the investigation from separate models by sample, all tractor designs are more valuable for John Deere tractors and the notion of selection has little to support it. Perhaps the premium for John Deere tractors is derived from some actions not related to the characteristics of the tractors that were recorded in the dataset, such as their quality control practices, their marketing strategy, or simply the reputation from a long history in the business. Such an analysis is outside the scope of the current study.