

## Transformations

Typical  
transformations

## Outliers

When are outliers  
dangerous?

## Goodness of fit ( $R^2$ )

The coefficient of  
determination ( $R^2$ )

Example:  $R^2$  after  
transformation

Example: Polynomial  
regression

But  $R^2$  has  
important limitations

## Takeaways

Key takeaways

# ECONOMETRICS I

## Lecture 3

### Transformations, outliers and fit

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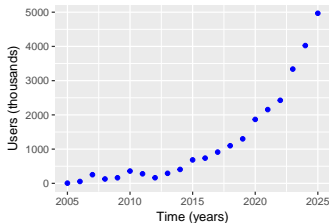
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## Raw Nonlinear Relationships

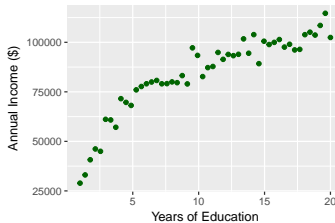
Tech Adoption: Exponential Growth

$$y \sim \exp(x)$$



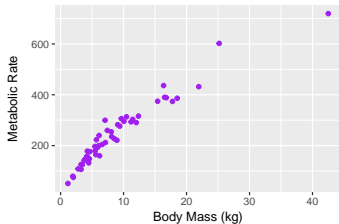
Education Returns: Logarithmic

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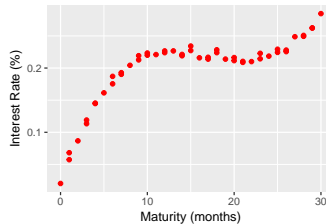
Metabolic Scaling: Power Law

$$y \sim x^k$$



Yield Curve: Cubic Polynomial

$$y \sim x + x^2 + x^3$$



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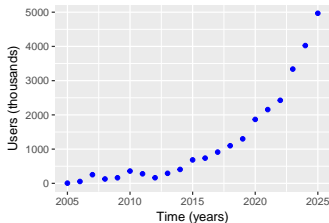
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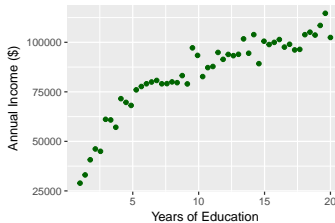
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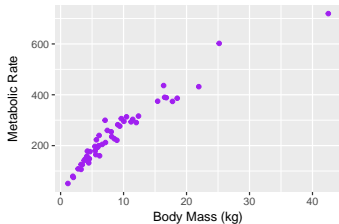
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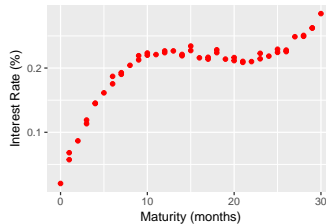
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| Name        | Specification                                       | Total Differential  | Interpretation   |
|-------------|---|---|--|
| Level-Level | $\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x$         | $\Delta \hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_2 \Delta x$                                 | A one-unit increase in $x$ increases $\hat{y}$ by $\hat{\beta}_2$ units.         |
| Log-Log     | $\ln \hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \ln x$ | $\frac{\Delta \hat{y}}{\hat{y}} \approx \hat{\beta}_2 \frac{\Delta x}{x}$ | A 1% increase in $x$ increases $\hat{y}$ by $\hat{\beta}_2\%$ .                  |
| Level-Log   | $\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \ln x$     | $\Delta \hat{y} \approx \hat{\beta}_2 \frac{\Delta x}{x}$                 | A 1% increase in $x$ increases $\hat{y}$ by $\hat{\beta}_2/100$ units.           |
| Log-Level   | $\ln \hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x$     | $\frac{\Delta \hat{y}}{\hat{y}} \approx \hat{\beta}_2 \Delta x$           | A one-unit increase in $x$ increases $\hat{y}$ by $100 \times \hat{\beta}_2\%$ . |

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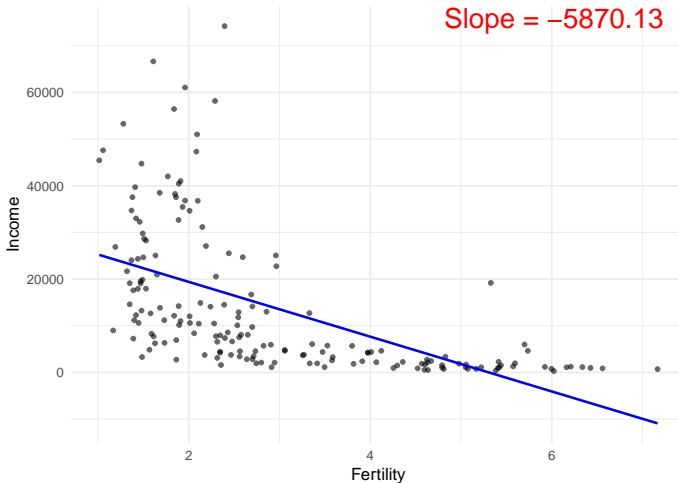
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Level–Level: Income ~ Fertility



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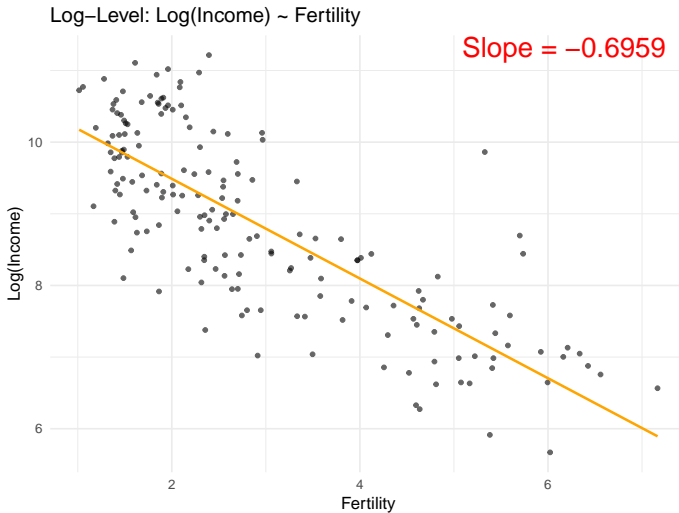
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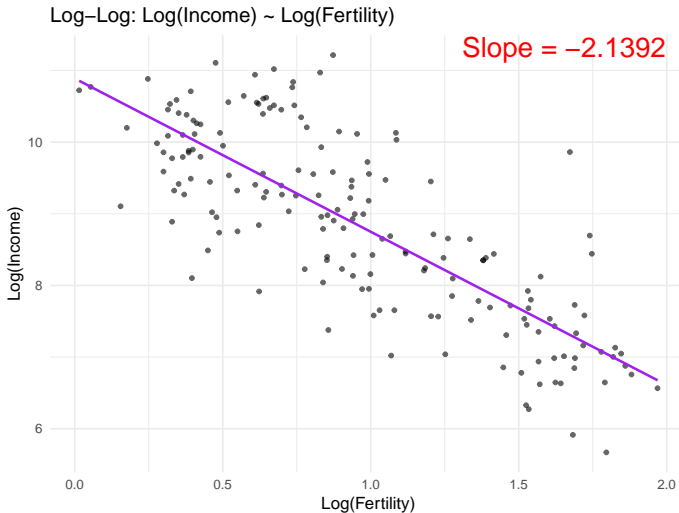
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- Outlier = an observation that does not fit the data's overall pattern
- Possible causes:
  - A typo or error in the data
  - A particularly interesting and informative data point
- Should an outlier be removed or included?

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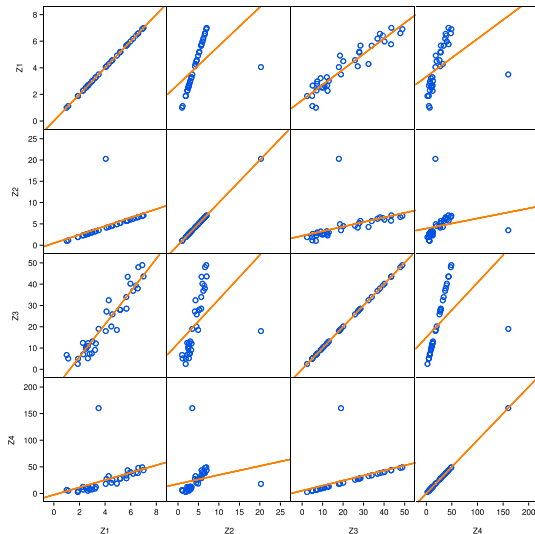
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- Note that outliers are particularly dangerous when far from the mean in terms of  $x$  only.
- $y$ -outliers not dangerous.
- Evaluate if typo/error or needs to be kept in the regression.

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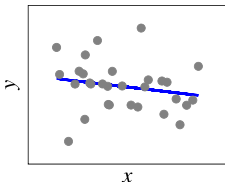
Key takeaways

# GOODNESS OF FIT ( $R^2$ )

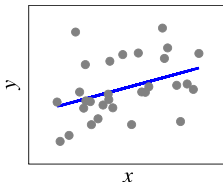
# The coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ )

The  $R^2$  tries to capture the goodness of fit in one number between 0 and 1.

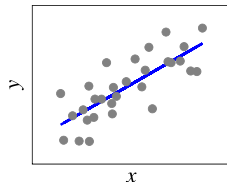
(a)  $R^2 = 0.04$



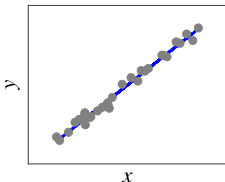
(b)  $R^2 = 0.15$



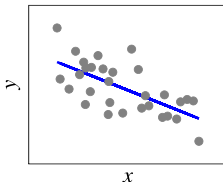
(c)  $R^2 = 0.61$



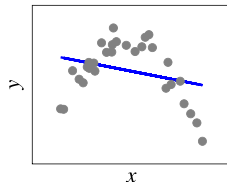
(d)  $R^2 = 0.99$



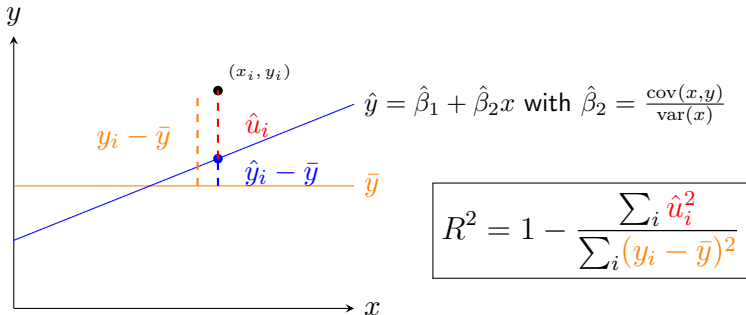
(e)  $R^2 = 0.43$



(f)  $R^2 = 0.08$



# The coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ )



Note that the distance  $y_i - \bar{y}$  can be decomposed as

$$\hat{y}_i - \bar{y} + \hat{u}_i.$$

- **Perfect fit:** All points fall exactly on  $\hat{y}$ ; hence  $\hat{u}_i = 0$  and

$$y_i - \bar{y} = \hat{y}_i - \bar{y} \text{ for all } i \implies \boxed{R^2 = 1}$$

- **Worst-possible fit:** Zero covariance; hence  $\hat{\beta}_2 = 0$  and

$$y_i - \bar{y} = \hat{u}_i \implies \boxed{R^2 = 0}.$$



# The coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ )

In terms of the **residual** sum of squares ( $RSS = \sum_i \hat{u}_i^2$ ):

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_i \hat{u}_i^2}{\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2} = 1 - \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_i (\hat{u}_i - 0)^2}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2} = 1 - \frac{\text{var}(\hat{u})}{\text{var}(y)}$$

In terms of the **explained** sum of squares ( $ESS = \sum_i (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2$ ):

$$R^2 = \frac{\sum_i (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2}{\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2} = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_i (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2} = \frac{\text{var}(\hat{y})}{\text{var}(y)}$$

## Interpretation

- $R^2$  = fraction of explained variance (the ESS) over the total variance (the TSS =  $\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2$ ).
- $R^2$  = how much of  $y$ 's variance fitted by the model ( $\hat{y}$ ).
- $R^2 = 1$ : Perfect fit;  $R^2 = 0$ : No explanatory power

# Example: $R^2$ after transformation

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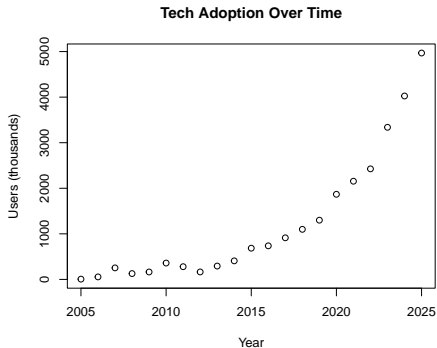
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Example: Polynomial regression

But  $R^2$  has important limitations

Takeaways

Key takeaways



```
# Run linear regression
model_linear <- lm(Users ~ Year, data = tech)

# Run log-linear model
model_log <- lm(log(Users) ~ Year, data = tech)
```

# Example: $R^2$ after transformation

## Tech Adoption: Linear vs Log-Linear Models

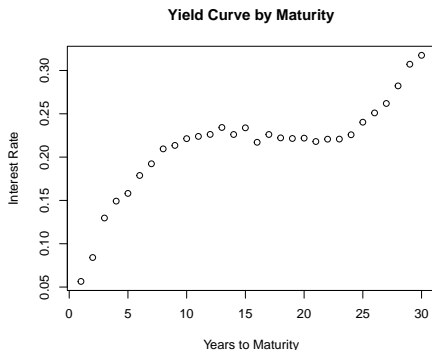
|              | Dependent variable:             |                                 |
|--------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
|              | Users<br>Linear<br>(1)          | log(Users)<br>Log-Linear<br>(2) |
| Year         | 200.094***<br>(25.205)          | 0.241***<br>(0.022)             |
| Constant     | -401,968.400***<br>(50,787.630) | -479.229***<br>(44.104)         |
| Observations | 21                              | 21                              |
| R2           | 0.768                           | 0.864                           |

Note: \*p<0.1; \*\*p<0.05; \*\*\*p<0.01

Notice difference in  $R^2$ . (Interpretation of slope in (2)? → Users increase by 24% each year!)

# Example: Polynomial regression

Cannot be transformed with logs, etc.:



Then estimate polynomial regression:

$$\text{yield}_i = \hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \text{maturity}_i + \hat{\beta}_3 \text{maturity}_i^2 + \hat{\beta}_4 \text{maturity}_i^3 + \hat{u}_i$$

# Example: Polynomial regression

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## Polynomial regression:

```
# Linear model for yield
model_linear_yield <- lm(Yield ~ Maturity, data = yield)

# Cubic polynomial model
model_poly <- lm(Yield ~ Maturity + I(Maturity^2) + I(
  Maturity^3), data = yield)
```

## Comparing linear and polynomial models:

```
stargazer(yield_lm_linear, yield_lm,
  type = "text",
  title = "Yield Curve: Linear vs Polynomial Models",
  column.labels = c("Linear", "Cubic"),
  dep.var.labels = c("Yield", "Yield"))
```

# Example: Polynomial regression

| =====        |                           |           |
|--------------|---------------------------|-----------|
|              | Dependent variable: Yield |           |
|              | -----                     |           |
|              | Linear                    | Cubic     |
| -----        |                           |           |
| Maturity     | 0.005***                  | 0.041***  |
|              | (0.001)                   | (0.001)   |
| I(Maturity2) |                           | -0.003*** |
|              |                           | (0.0001)  |
| I(Maturity3) |                           | 0.0001*** |
|              |                           | (0.00000) |
| Constant     | 0.131***                  | 0.018***  |
|              | (0.011)                   | (0.004)   |
| -----        |                           |           |
| Observations | 30                        | 30        |
| R2           | 0.715                     | 0.993     |
| =====        |                           |           |

Note:

\*p<0.1; \*\*p<0.05; \*\*\*p<0.01

Notice difference in  $R^2$ : 71.5% vs. 99.3%.

# But $R^2$ has important limitations

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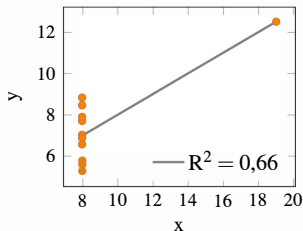
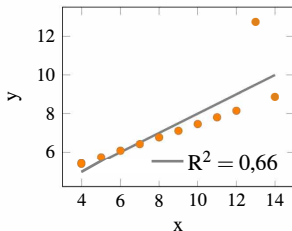
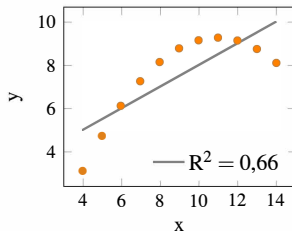
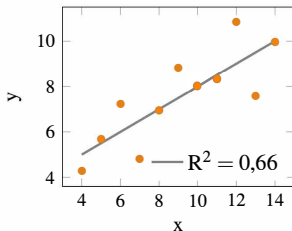
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Most importantly: **Correlation  $\neq$  Causality !!**

- 1 Direct causality  $\rightarrow$  **x** causes **y**.
- 2 Reverse causality  $\rightarrow$  **y** causes **x**.
- 3 Simultaneous causality  $\rightarrow$  **x** causes **y** and **y** causes **x**.
- 4 Spurious correlation  $\rightarrow$  Either by pure chance (when samples are small) or when both **x** and **y** are caused by a common factor **z** (called 'confounder').



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## You should now know:

- Nonlinear relationships  $\rightarrow$  transformations or polynomial regression
- Interpretation of coefficients with logs: % change
- Outliers: especially dangerous when far from  $\bar{x}$ .
- $R^2$ : fraction of  $y$ 's variance fitted
- But correlation  $\neq$  causality