

Single Variable Regression: Transformations and Functional Form

EC420 MSU Spring 2021

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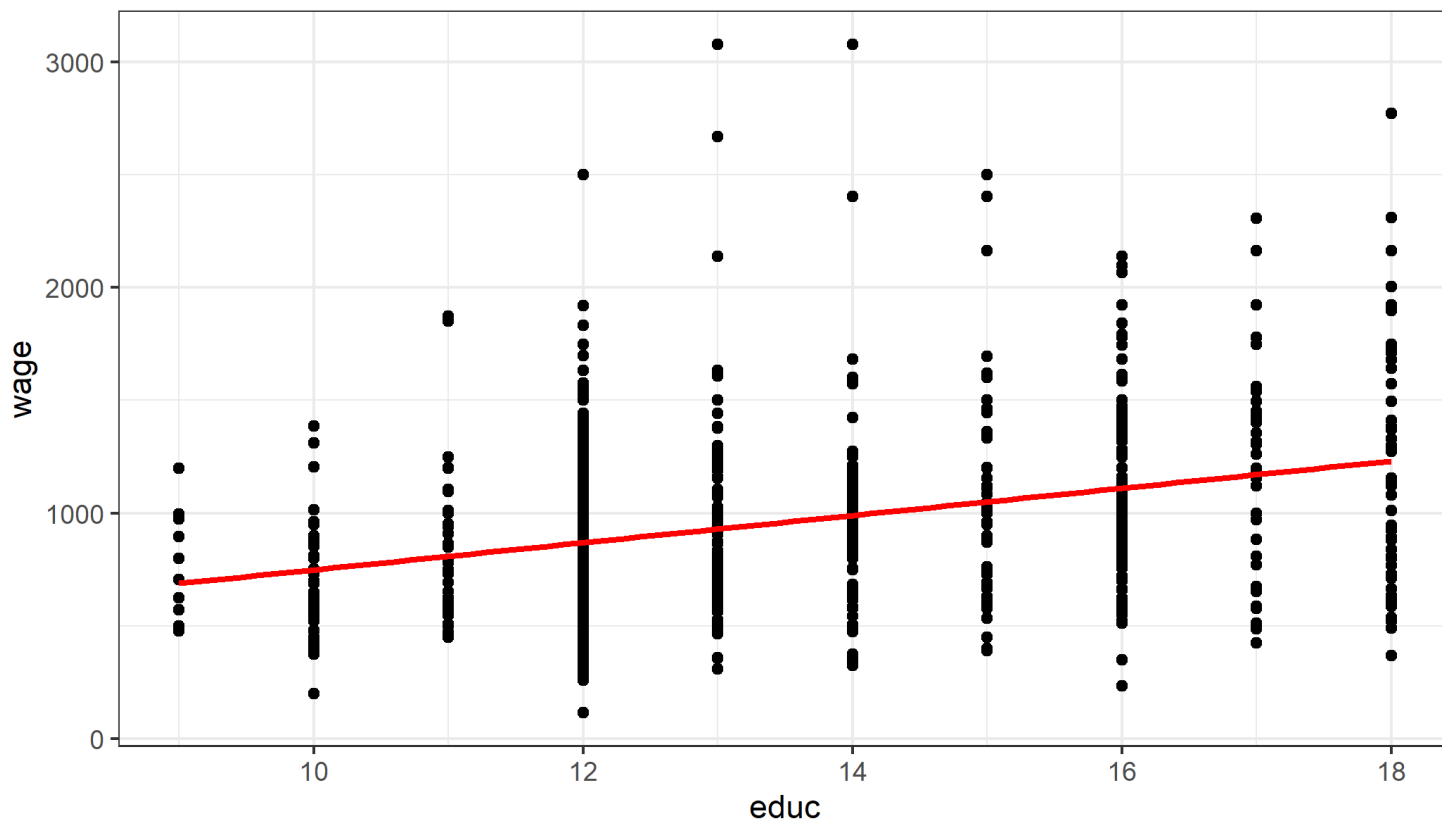
Last updated December 10, 2020

Goal:

1. Interpretation of regression coefficients
2. Re-scaling
3. Re-scaling Y
4. Non-linear functional forms
5. Intuition and uses of non-linear forms in economics
6. Regression in R

Last time, we discussed a single variable regression from Wooldridge `wage2` where Y is *wage* and X is *educ*:

$$wage = \beta_0 + \beta_1 educ + u$$



This resulted in a $\hat{\beta}_1 = 60.21$. How do we interpret this coefficient?

Let's start with our simple linear regression model:

where *wage* and *educ* are random variables

$$wage = \beta_0 + \beta_1 educ + u$$

Our PRF is:

$$E[wage|educ] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 educ$$

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Our PRF is:

$$E[wage|educ] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 educ$$

- "One additional year of education is associated with a 60.21 increase in expected monthly earnings, all else held equal"
- Why "all else held equal"? Because we have assumed that $E[U] = 0$, so our estimate tells us how $E[Y]$ changes as $educ$ and not U changes.
 - U is held at zero

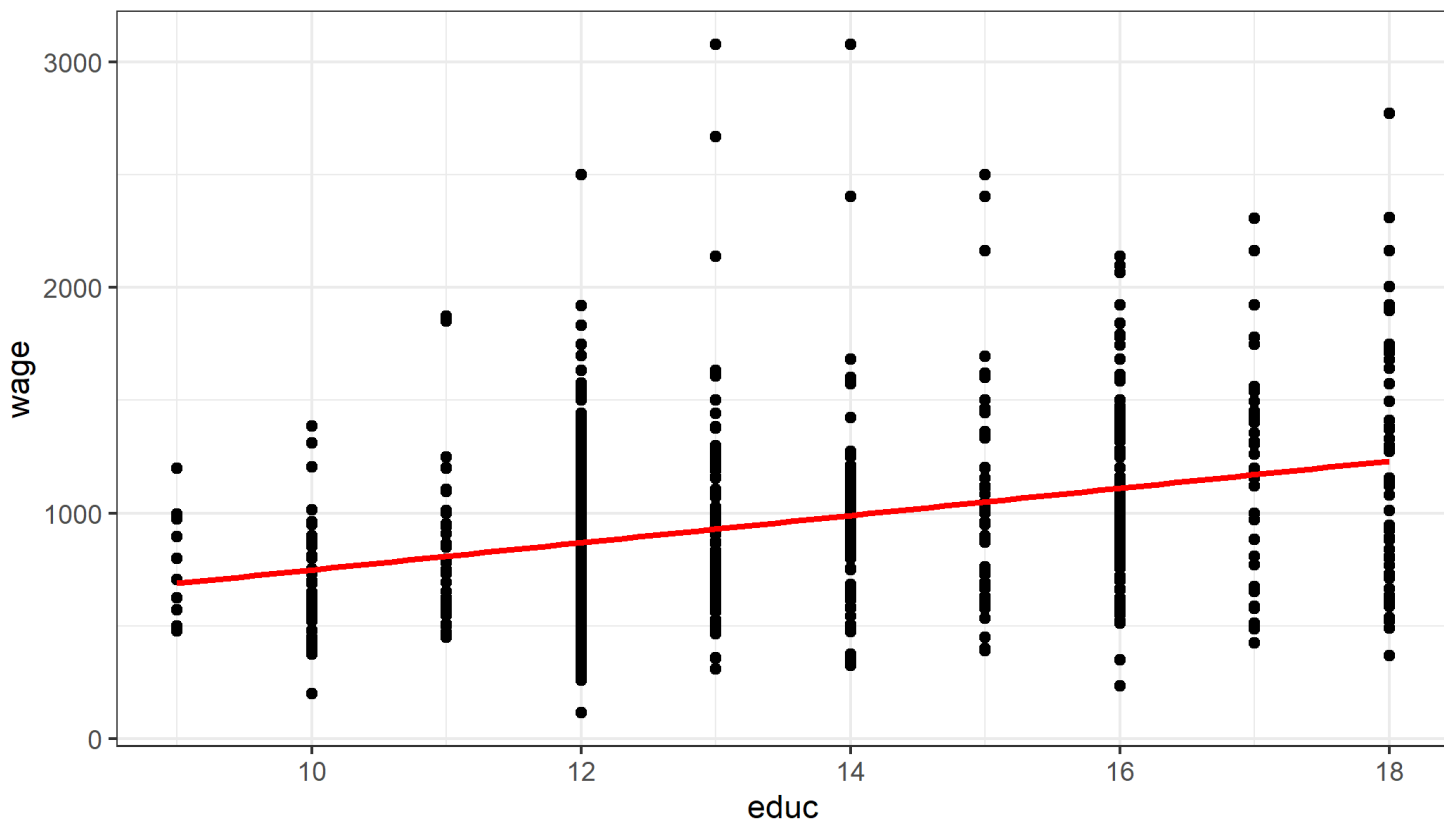
Ceteris Paribus

Latin for "all else held equal"

So $\hat{\beta}_1$ is

"the increase in the expectation of *wage* associated with a 1-unit increase in *educ*, ceteris paribus"

The "all else held equal" part is very important.



- $\hat{\beta}_1$ is $\frac{wage}{educ}$
- $\hat{\beta}_1$ is the slope of the line
 - The line is $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$, the *SRF*

Interpretation

```
myRegression = lm(wage ~ educ, data=wage2)
summary(myRegression)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = wage ~ educ, data = wage2)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-877.38	-268.63	-38.38	207.05	2148.26

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	146.952	77.715	1.891	0.0589 .
educ	60.214	5.695	10.573	<2e-16

Signif. codes: 0 ' ' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 382.3 on 933 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.107, Adjusted R-squared: 0.106

F-statistic: 111.8 on 1 and 933 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

What happens if we re-scale the dependent variable, *wage*?

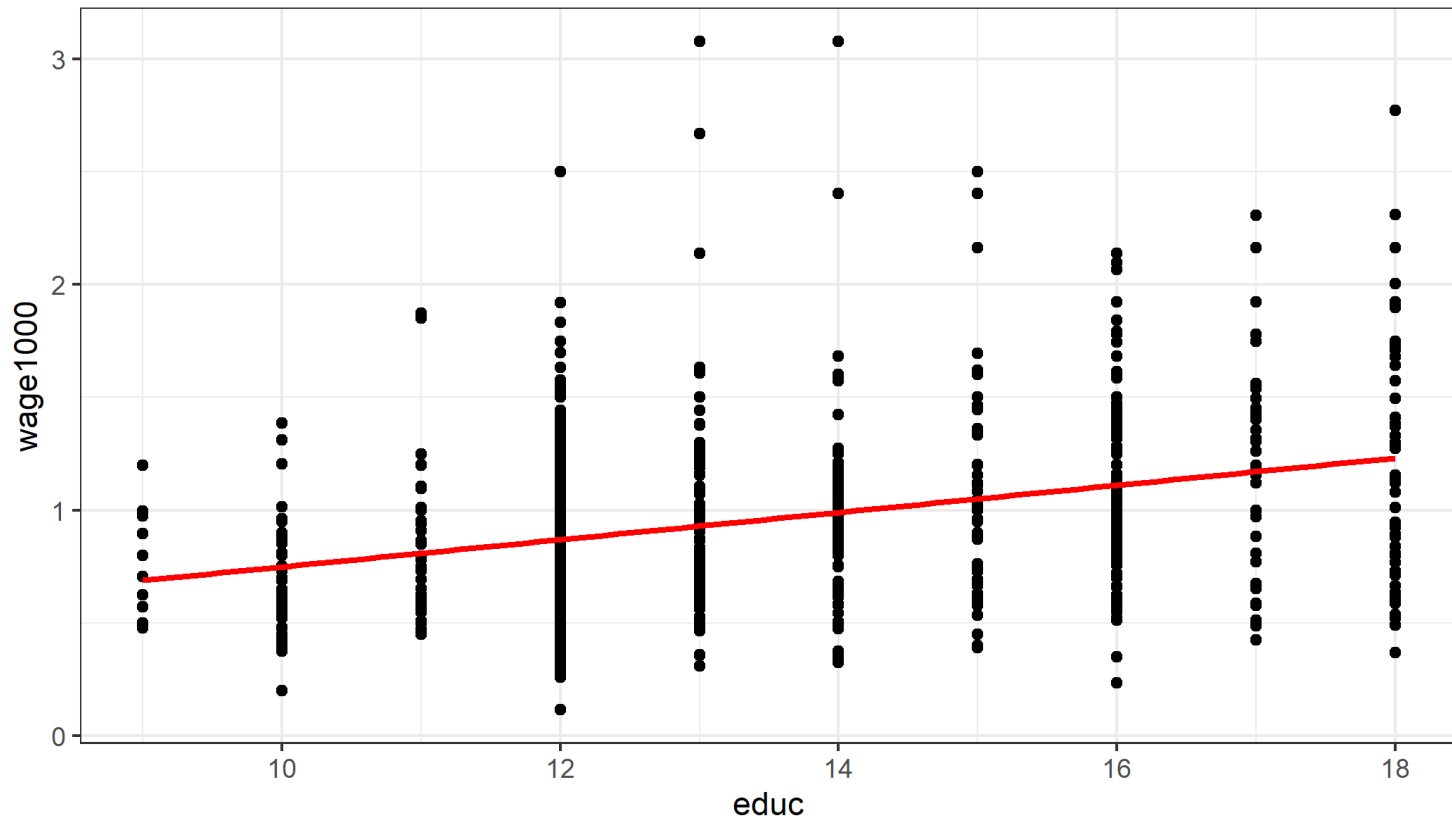
Maybe we have *wage* in dollars, but want it in thousands of dollars

We hope that it still gives us the same relationship

Define $wage1000 = .001 \times wage$

- Any ideas what will happen to our coefficient?

Rescaling Y and X



Looks pretty similar, right? But the y-axis scale is very different.

A regression of:

$$wage1000 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 educ + u$$

Call:

```
lm(formula = wage1000 ~ educ, data = wage2)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-0.87738	-0.26863	-0.03838	0.20705	2.14826

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	0.146952	0.077715	1.891	0.0589 .
educ	0.060214	0.005695	10.573	<2e-16

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$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.06$ when we use *wage1000*

$\hat{\beta}_1 = 60.21$ when we use *wage*.

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$\hat{\beta}_1 = 60.21$ when we use *wage*.

Re-scaling the dependent variable, *wage*, results in an equal rescaling of the coefficient.

The relationship predicted by the *SRF* stays the same.

Now, let's re-scale the *independent* variable

- That's the "right hand side" variable, *educ*.
- Let's do education in months: $educ_onths = educ \times 12$

Now, let's re-scale the *independent* variable

- That's the "right hand side" variable, *educ*.
- Let's do education in months: $educ_onths = educ \times 12$
- Any predictions on what will result?

Call:

```
lm(formula = wage ~ educMonths, data = wage2)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-877.38	-268.63	-38.38	207.05	2148.26

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	146.9524	77.7150	1.891	0.0589 .
educMonths	5.0179	0.4746	10.573	<2e-16

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What was the result?

Re-scaling the independent variable simply rescales the coefficient by the *inverse* amount:

- $12 \times educ \Rightarrow \hat{\beta}_1^{new} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{12}$

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- $\hat{\beta}_1^{new} = \hat{\beta}_1 \times .001$

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Re-scaling the dependent variable simply rescales the coefficient on it by an equal amount:

- $\hat{\beta}_1^{new} = \hat{\beta}_1 \times .001$

The relationship always remains the same

Let's take a look at the R^2 of the original regression:

Call:

```
lm(formula = wage ~ educ, data = wage2)
```

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Now, the re-scaled dependent variable:

Call:

```
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And the re-scaled independent variable:

Call:

```
lm(formula = wage ~ educMonths, data = wage2)
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Heck, let's rescale both and look at the R^2

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The R^2 is the same in every single one!

The "fraction of variance explained by the model" does not change.

Intuitively, you shouldn't be able to explain more variance simply by re-scaling a variable. The relationship that holds for wages and years of education must hold for 12 x years of education as well.

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Since rescaling linearly doesn't matter, we can use a scale that is easiest to interpret and to read.

- *wage1000* in thousands of dollars is a lot easier to look at than the larger number we get using *wage*.
- You often don't want to have very extreme numbers of decimal places (e.g. a coefficient of .00000051 will be a lot easier to talk about if it's in millions: 5.1)

Now that we've seen an example, can we derive this result from the definition of β_1 ?

$$\beta_1 = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{Var(X)}$$

$$\beta_1^{rescaled} = \frac{Cov(aX, Y)}{Var(aX)}$$

Let's do this in class....

Non-linear Functional Forms

What do we mean by "non-linear" function?

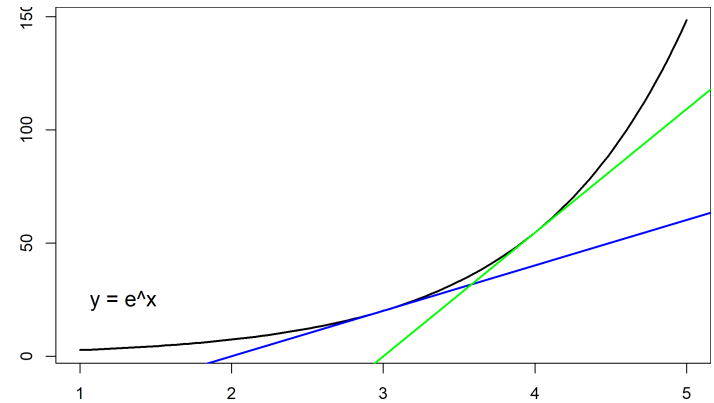
A function here is any mathematical operation or transformation that takes an input (usually called x) and returns an output (usually called y).

A non-linear function is any function where the graph is not a straight line.

- "Affine transformation" is the technical term for $y = ax + b$.
- "Non-affine transformation" is non-linear

Non-linear Another way of thinking about non-linear functions is that $\frac{y}{x}$ depends on the value of x

- The slope of the graph changes as x changes.
- The slope at x_1 (blue) is different than the slope at x_2 (green)



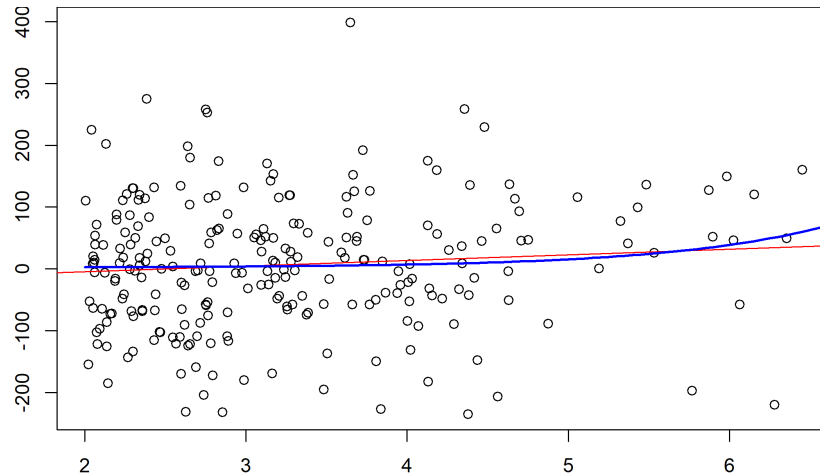
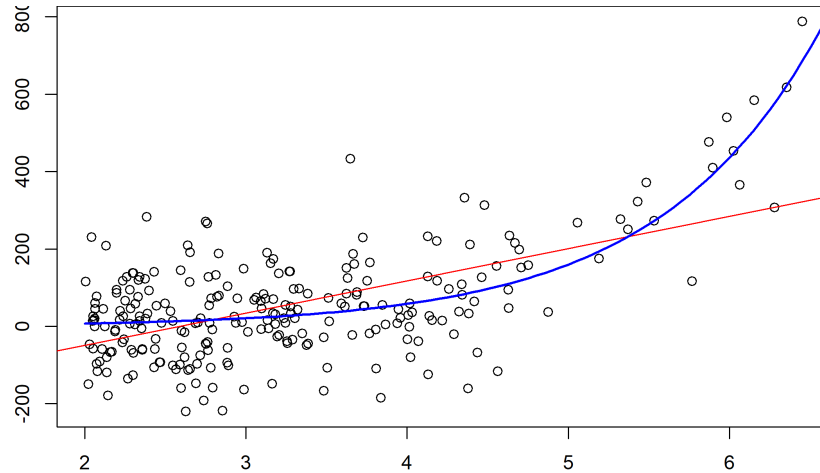
In the previous slide, we saw a non-linear function, the exponential function, e^x . If we wanted a model to use in a regression that includes an exponential function, we could use:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 e^{x_i} + u_i$$

Note that the value of x_i is exponentiated.

- So this model has a non-linear term.
- It lets y respond to changes in x more flexibly

- but imposes that relationship whether it is appropriate (top) or not (bottom).



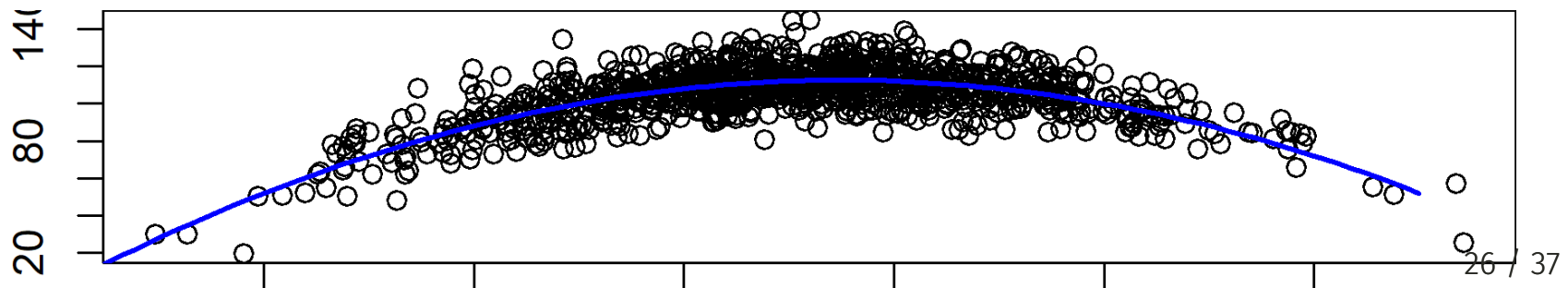
The most common non-linear transformation is the **polynomial**

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \dots + u$$

For instance, plant growth rates over temperatures may be quadratic

- The *marginal effect* of an increase in temperature will be big and positive at lower temperatures.
- The *marginal effect* of an increase in temperature will be negative at very high temperatures.
- And somewhere in the middle, the *marginal effect* will be around zero.

The *marginal effect* is another way of saying "the change in y per change in x ", or $\frac{dy}{dx}$.



If we have a polynomial relationship:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + u$$

Then we can obtain the slope, $\frac{dy}{dx}$ as the derivative of the relationship:

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = \beta_1 + 2\beta_2 x$$

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If we propose a "higher order polynomial" relationship like:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \beta_3 x^3$$

Then we get a more complicated function for the slope at any x :

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = \beta_1 + 2\beta_2 x + 3\beta_3 x^2$$

There are other possible non-linear forms: \bar{x} , the natural log, \log_{10} , the inverse hyperbolic sine...

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Even though these specifications are non-linear transformations, the regression is still **linear-in-parameters**

That is, all of the transformations we have discussed are still in the category of "linear models" because they are linear in the parameters.

So, our *PRF* (population regression function) is still linear, even with one of these transformations.

The quadratic specification, $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2$ is particularly useful anytime you have an effect of x on y that dissipates or declines with increasing values of x .

Quick question: if the *effect* of x on y **declines** as x increases, then is the slope *increasing* or *decreasing* as x gets larger?



An example:

In many cases, the effect of household income on some behavior may change as income increases.

- A low-income person may spend more on food when income increases
- But a high-income person may not spend much more on food when their income increases
 - But of course, the high-income will spend more on food than the low-income person.

We see these declining effects in many economic situations, but we also see increasing effects.

- Installing solar panels
- Others?



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- Others?

The quadratic "specification" can capture these phenomon.

The natural log, $\ln(x)$

The natural log is the most common transformation. It is particularly useful because of the following:

$$\ln(1 + x) \approx x \quad \text{when} \quad x \approx 0$$

Let's say $x^1 = x^0 + x$.

$$\ln(x^1) - \ln(x^0) = \ln \frac{x^1}{x^0} = \ln \frac{x^0 + x}{x^0} = \ln \left(1 + \frac{x}{x^0} \right) \approx \frac{x}{x^0}$$

- This is the percent change in x : $\frac{x}{x^0}$
- $100 \times [\ln(x^1) - \ln(x^0)] \approx \frac{x}{x^0}$

The natural log, $\ln(x)$

Recall the formula for *elasticity*: $-\frac{y}{x} = -\frac{y}{x} \times \frac{x}{y}$

The natural log, $\ln(x)$

Recall the formula for *elasticity*: $-\frac{y}{x} = -\frac{y}{x} \times \frac{x}{y}$

And recall that, in a linear model ($y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$), this elasticity is **not** constant:

$$-\frac{y}{x} \times \frac{x}{y} = \beta_1 \times \frac{x}{y} = \beta_1 \times \frac{x}{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x + u}$$



But, when a model takes the form: $\ln(y) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(x)$

$$\frac{y}{x} \approx \frac{\ln(y^1) - \ln(y^0)}{\ln(x^1) - \ln(x^0)} = \frac{\beta_1 [\ln(x^1) - \ln(x^0)]}{\ln(x^1) - \ln(x^0)} = \beta_1$$

The coefficient on a log-log model is the elasticity

$\ln(y) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(x)$ results in β_1 being the elasticity of y , or "percent change in y from a 1 percent change in x ".

Econometrics is frequently about estimating that elasticity.

First, data

There is a very helpful packages called "wooldridge" that you can install with `install.packages('wooldridge')`. Then, we can use R's built-in "data" function to load `wage2`

```
require(wooldridge)
data(wage2) # creates a wage2 object
print(wage2[1:5,])
```

	wage	hours	IQ	KWW	educ	exper	tenure	age	married	black	south	urban	sibs
1	769	40	93	35	12	11	2	31	1	0	0	1	1
2	808	50	119	41	18	11	16	37	1	0	0	1	1
3	825	40	108	46	14	11	9	33	1	0	0	1	1
4	650	40	96	32	12	13	7	32	1	0	0	1	4
5	562	40	74	27	11	14	5	34	1	0	0	1	10

	brthord	meduc	feduc	lwage
1	2	8	8	6.645091
2	NA	14	14	6.694562
3	2	14	14	6.715384
4	3	12	12	6.476973
5	6	6	11	6.331502

Second, run the regression

We will use the `lm()` function. You will provide the regression formula and the name of the data to use.

The formula will be of the form $y \sim x$. You'll specify the data with `data = wage2`

```
MyRegression = lm(wage ~ educ, data=wage2)
print(MyRegression)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = wage ~ educ, data = wage2)
```

Coefficients:

(Intercept)	educ
146.95	60.21

Finally, we want a little more detail.

`MyRegression` is an R object. We can ask R to summarize it, and R will know to give us information about the regression:

```
summary(MyRegression)
```

Call:

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