

Applied Regression

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1/1

Today's goals

- Review regression as modeling conditional expectations
- Understand multiple regression and control variables
- Learn how to model conditional relationships (interactions)
- Present results effectively with `modelsummary`

2/1

Roadmap

3/1

Regression Review

4/1

What question does regression answer?

- “What is the average value of Y for different values of X ?”
- This is the **conditional expectation function** (CEF)
- Written as: $E[Y|X]$
- Regression approximates this function

5/1

The regression model

The most common tool in social science:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \varepsilon$$

- Y : outcome we want to explain
- X : explanatory variable(s)
- β : coefficients (what we estimate)
- ε : error term (what we can't explain)

6/1

Linear regression as approximation

- The true CEF might be complicated
- Linear regression fits the **best linear approximation**
- Even if the true relationship is non-linear
- The linear fit is still the best predictor among linear functions
- Why linear? Simple, interpretable, often good enough

7/1

Interpreting the slope coefficient

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \varepsilon$$

- β_1 represents:
 - The difference in average Y
 - Between groups that differ by 1 unit in X
- This is a **comparison**, not necessarily a causal effect

8/1

Descriptive vs. Causal interpretation

- **Descriptive:** How do units with different X values compare?
 - “People with more education earn more, on average”
- **Causal:** What happens if we change X for a given unit?
 - “If we give someone more education, they will earn more”
- Same coefficient, very different claims!

9/1

Running a regression in R

- The basic function: `lm(y ~ x, data = df)`
- Getting tidy output:
 - `broom::tidy(model)` — coefficients as a data frame
 - `broom::glance(model)` — model-level statistics (R^2 , etc.)
- These are much easier to work with than `summary()`

10/1

Roadmap

11/1

Multiple Regression

12/1

Adding predictors

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

- β_1 now represents:
 - The difference in average Y
 - Between groups that differ by 1 in X_1
 - **Holding X_2 constant**
- This is the “controlled” effect of X_1

13/1

How controlling works

- OLS with multiple variables “partials out” the controls
- Technically: we look at variation in X_1 that is unrelated to X_2
- This isolates the unique contribution of X_1

14/1

Omitted variable bias

- If we omit a confounder, our estimate will be biased
- The bias formula:

$$\text{Bias} = \beta_{\text{confounder}} \times \delta_{X, \text{confounder}}$$

- Depends on:
 - How strongly the confounder affects Y
 - How strongly the confounder relates to X

15/1

What makes a good control?

Good controls are variables that:

- Affect both the treatment and the outcome
- Are determined **before** the treatment
- Are not affected by the treatment

Pre-treatment confounders are the key!

16/1

Bad controls: Post-treatment variables

- Never control for variables caused by the treatment
- Example: Studying effect of job training on wages
 - Don't control for job type (affected by training)
 - Do control for education (determined before training)
- Controlling for post-treatment variables can *introduce* bias

17/1

Bad controls: Colliders

- A **collider** is caused by both X and Y
- Controlling for it creates a spurious association
- Example: NBA players
 - Height and skill both affect being in NBA
 - Among NBA players, height and skill are negatively correlated
 - But not in the general population!

18/1

Categorical predictors

- What if X is a category (region, party, gender)?
- R automatically creates **dummy variables**
 - One indicator (0/1) for each category
 - One category is the **reference** (omitted)
- Coefficients represent the difference from the reference
- Example: `lm(income ~ factor(region), data = df)`
 - If reference is “North”, the “South” coefficient means: average income in South minus average income in North

19/1

Roadmap

20/1

Interaction Effects

21/1

When effects depend on context

- Sometimes, the effect of X on Y depends on another variable Z
- Examples:
 - Effect of education on income may differ by gender
 - Effect of campaign spending may differ by incumbency status
 - Effect of democracy on growth may depend on economic development
- We model this with **interaction terms**

22/1

The interaction model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + \beta_3 (X \times Z) + \varepsilon$$

- β_1 : effect of X when $Z = 0$
- β_2 : effect of Z when $X = 0$
- β_3 : how the effect of X changes as Z increases

23/1

The marginal effect of X

$$\frac{\partial Y}{\partial X} = \beta_1 + \beta_3 Z$$

- The effect of X is no longer a single number
- It's a **function** of Z
- Need to report effects at meaningful values of Z

24/1

Continuous \times categorical interactions

- When Z is categorical (e.g., gender, regime type)
- The interaction gives a **different slope** for each group
- Example: `lm(income ~ education * gender, data = df)`
 - One slope for men, a different slope for women
- Equivalent to fitting separate regressions by group
- But estimated jointly (shares the error variance)

25/1

Continuous \times continuous interactions

- When both X and Z are continuous
- The slope of X varies smoothly with Z (and vice versa)
- Harder to interpret from coefficients alone
- Best communicated through plots:
 - Predicted values at different combinations of X and Z
 - Marginal effect of X across values of Z

26/1

Common mistakes with interactions

- **Mistake 1:** Interpreting β_1 as “the effect of X ”
 - It’s only the effect when $Z = 0$
 - May not even be meaningful!
- **Mistake 2:** Omitting constitutive terms
 - Always include X and Z separately, not just $X \times Z$
- **Mistake 3:** Not showing how the effect varies
 - Plot the marginal effect across values of Z

27/1

Visualizing interactions

- Tables of coefficients are hard to interpret
- Better approach:
 - Plot predicted values of Y for different combinations of X and Z
 - Plot the marginal effect of X across values of Z
 - Include confidence intervals
- In R: `marginaleffects::plot_predictions()`

28/1

Roadmap

29/1

Presenting Results

30/1

Why presentation matters

- A regression table is not the end of the analysis
- Readers need to understand the **substance** of your findings
- Good presentation:
 - Shows what the results **mean**, not just what they are
 - Communicates **uncertainty** honestly
 - Helps readers evaluate the **size** of effects

31/1

The modelsummary package

- Creates publication-quality tables from model objects
- Basic usage:
 - `modelsummary(model)`
 - `modelsummary(list(m1, m2, m3))`
- Output formats: LaTeX, HTML, Word, markdown
- Highly customizable: statistics, labels, notes

32/1

Coefficient plots

- A visual alternative to tables
- `modelsummary::modelplot(model)`
 - Each coefficient as a point with confidence interval
 - Easy to compare multiple models
- Often more effective than tables for communicating results
- Readers immediately see which effects are large vs. small

33/1

Building sequential models

- Common strategy: show how results change as you add variables
- Step 1: Bivariate model (just X and Y)
- Step 2: Add control variables
- Step 3: Add interactions
- Present all three in one table:
 - `modelsummary(list(m1, m2, m3))`
- Shows robustness and what adding controls does to the estimate

34/1

Example workflow in R

```
m1 <- lm(y ~ x, data = df)
m2 <- lm(y ~ x + z1 + z2, data = df)
m3 <- lm(y ~ x * z1 + z2, data = df)
modelsummary(list(m1, m2, m3))
modelplot(list(m1, m2, m3))
plot_predictions(m3, condition = c("x", "z1"))
```

35/1

Summary: Key takeaways

- Regression estimates conditional expectations
- Multiple regression: “holding constant” interpretation
- Control variables help only if chosen correctly
- Interactions model conditional relationships
- Present results clearly: tables, coefficient plots, marginal effects

36/1

For next week

- Read Urdinez & Cruz (2020), chapter 8
- Read Gelman et al., chapters 13–14
- Complete Assignment 2
- Next session: Binary outcomes
 - Linear probability model vs. logistic regression
 - Interpreting logit results
 - Predicted probabilities and marginal effects

37/1

Questions?

38/1