Lecture 13: Regression Interpretations

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Agenda

- 1 Midterm 1 recap
- 2 Hypothesis testing recap
- 3 Units and regression interpretation
- 4 Functional form and regression interpretation
- 5 (Time permitting) interaction terms

Midterm 1 recap

- Mean 37/50, median 39.25 good work!
- Approximate curve posted on bcourses; similar to how I will curve overall final grade
- Solutions posted; regrade requests close on Sunday
- Challenging questions:
 - Interpreting $\hat{\beta}$ s with logs: $gradrate_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 lsalary_i + \beta_2 lnchprg_i + v_i$
 - Using formula for MLR SE (typo in solutions) to think about changes in SE: $SE(\hat{\beta}_2) = \frac{SSR}{(n-k-1)SST_{Inchprg}(1-R_{Inchprg}^2)}$
 - Hypothesis testing: setting up H0 and H1, calculating test statistic, finding critical value, interpreting test and concluding about null
- Midterm 2 is Tuesday November 1

Hypothesis testing recap

- Simple hypothesis test: $H_0: \beta_j = \beta_{j0}; \ t = \frac{\hat{\beta_j} \beta_{j0}}{SE(\hat{\beta_j})} \sim t_{n-k-1}$
 - lacksquare Same for other parameter estimates: just replace eta_j with the parameter
 - Exception is binary variables/proportions: they are computed the same but are $z \sim N(0,1)$ because the mean under the null tells us the SD so we don't need to estimate the SE
- Confidence intervals: don't specify β_{j0} , estimate

$$\left[\hat{\beta}_{j}-c_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}*SE(\hat{\beta}_{j}),\hat{\beta}_{j}+c_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}*SE(\hat{\beta}_{j})\right]$$

- Linear combinations: $H_0: \beta_1-\beta_2=b; \ t=\frac{(\hat{\beta_1}-\hat{\beta_2})-b}{SE(\hat{\beta_1}-\hat{\beta_2})}\sim t_{n-k-1}$
 - Tricky part is the SE of the linear combination: solve by defining a parameter $\hat{\theta} = \hat{\beta}_1 \hat{\beta}_2$ and doing simple hypothesis test
 - \blacksquare For regression parameter estimates, use substitution to rewrite model to estimate $\hat{\theta}$

Joint hypothesis tests

- Want to test multiple restrictions, e.g., $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ and $\beta_2 = 0$
 - Are these variables jointly significant?
- Consider two models:
 - Unrestricted $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \cdots + u$
 - Restricted $y = \beta_0 + \beta_3 x_3 + \cdots + u$
- Construct test statistic based on model fit:

$$F = \frac{(SSR_r - SSR_u)/q}{SSR_u/(n-k-1)} = \frac{(R_u^2 - R_r^2)/q}{(1-R_u^2)/(n-k-1)}$$

- $F \sim F(q, n-k-1)$
- Reject H₀ if F is larger than critical value
- Extreme case: overall F-statistic: do any of the variables have explanatory power?
 - \blacksquare $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ and $\beta_2 = 0$ and ... and $\beta_k = 0$
 - $Arr R_r^2 = 0$, compare to R_u^2 via F stat

Practice: match questions to approach and write H_0

Suppose we model

bwght_i =
$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 cigs_i + \beta_2 parity_i + \beta_3 faminc_i + \beta_4 motheduc_i + \beta_5 fatheduc_i + u_i$$

Questions

- I What range of values is β_1 likely to take with 95% probability?
- 2 Do socioeconomic characteristics matter for birthweight, holding cigarette smoking and birth order constant?
- 3 Which is worse for birth weight holding other variables constant: smoking an additional cigarette per day or decreasing annual family income by \$10,000?
- Does being born after siblings (parity) significantly increase birth weight?

Approach

- A Simple hypothesis test
- B Confidence interval
- C Linear combination hypothesis test
- Joint hypothesis test

Units and regression interpretation

- Units matter: every interpretation of a $\hat{\beta}_j$ must specify the units of both the dependent and independent variables
- Why do they matter? Suppose we estimate

$$CO_2/pop = 0.75 + 0.24GDP/pop$$

- Economic significance changes a lot if *GDP* / *pop* is in dollars vs. thousands of dollars (it is in 1000s of 2005 PPP USD)
- Economic significance similarly changes a lot if CO_2/pop is in kilograms vs. tons (it is in tons)
- What happens to coefficient estimates when we manipulate units in a regression model?

Units in dependent variable: example

$$bwght_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 cigs_i + \beta_2 parity_i + u_i$$
 (1)

- The mother consuming one more cigarette per day during pregnancy is associated with a change of β_1 ounces at birth, holding birth order constant.
- What if our dependent variable was pounds at birth?
- $bwghtlbs_i = bwght_i/16$

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Units in dependent variable: mathematically

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_k x_k + u$$
 (2)

$$\alpha y = \alpha \beta_0 + \alpha \beta_1 x_1 + \alpha \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \alpha \beta_k x_k + \alpha u \tag{3}$$

- All $\hat{\beta}_i$ scale by the same α is the dependent variable.
- Our test statistics do not change. Why not?
- We also still draw exactly the same conclusions about statistical significance.

Units in independent variables: example

$$bwght_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 cigs_i + \beta_2 parity_i + u_i$$

- What if we were interested in the effect of packs of cigarettes per day?
- $packs_i = cigs_i/20$

To Jupyter!

Units in independent variable: mathematically

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 ... + \beta_k x_k + u$$
 (4)

$$y = \beta_0 + (\frac{\beta_1}{\alpha})\alpha x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_k x_k + u$$
 (5)

- Once again, changing the units only scales $\hat{\beta}$ estimates.
- Changing units for one x_j only affects $\hat{\beta}_j$, no other $\hat{\beta}$ s
- No changes to test statistics, or conclusions.
- Sometimes changing units may lead to easier interpretations: e.x.
 CO₂ and GDP
 - $CO_2/pop = 0.75 + 0.24GDP/pop$
 - Useful to rescale units if $\hat{\beta}$ is a small decimal, for example, or if range of a variable is very wide so small marginal changes are not as interesting

Standardizing variables

- Units will often be difficult to compare across variables, and sometimes may not have a clear interpretation.
 - E.g., test scores when grade inflation is different across contexts
- When we want to compare effects of variables with different units or have variables with units that are hard to interpret, can be helpful to standardize variables.
 - Standardizing: $\tilde{x} = (x \bar{x})/\sigma_x$
 - \tilde{x} now measured in units of standard deviations, with magnitude indicating distance away from the mean.
 - This is how we construct t and z statistics.

Example: Pollution and hedonic pricing

- Suppose we want to know how badly pollution reduces welfare. How to estimate this?
- Could ask people how much they would pay to reduce pollution: contingent valuation.
 - But how reliable are these stated preferences?
- An alternative approach uses revealed preferences: *hedonic pricing*.
 - Common in environmental economics to assume that housing prices reflect how much people are willing to pay for a bundle of amenities.
 - Differences in house prices with different levels of an amenity reveal willingness to pay for that amenity
- An issue with hedonic pricing: amenities that can affect house prices have very different units (e.g., rooms in a house, distance from elementary school in miles, etc.): how to compare relative importance of these amenities?
 - Use standardized variables.

Example: Pollution and hedonic pricing

- We have data on house prices and amenities for communities in the Boston area (decades ago):
 - Median house price in \$
 - Nitrogen oxide concentration in parts per 100m
 - Crimes committed per capita in a year
 - Average number of rooms
 - Weighted distance to 5 nearest employment centers, miles
- We first estimate

$$price = \beta_0 + \beta_1 nox + \beta_2 crime + \beta_3 rooms + \beta_4 dist + u$$
 (6)

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Comparing *crime* and *nox*

- How to compare an increase of 1 crime per capita in a year to an increase of 1 part per 100m of nox?
 - $\beta_{nox} = -2381.2, \beta_{crime} = -213.5$
 - $|\beta_{nox}| > |\beta_{crime}|$: is nox more important for housing prices? Can't tell. What to do?
- Standardize the data.

$$\begin{split} y &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k + u \\ \bar{y} &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{x_1} + \ldots + \beta_k \bar{x_k} \\ (y - \bar{y}) &= \beta_1 (x_1 - \bar{x_1}) + \ldots + \beta_k (x_k - \bar{x_k}) + u \\ \frac{y - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y} &= \frac{\beta_1}{\sigma_y} (x_1 - \bar{x_1}) + \ldots + \frac{\beta_k}{\sigma_y} (x_k - \bar{x_k}) + \frac{u}{\sigma_y} \\ \frac{y - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y} &= \beta_1 \frac{\sigma_{x_1}}{\sigma_y} \frac{x_1 - \bar{x_1}}{\sigma_x} + \ldots + \beta_k \frac{\sigma_{x_k}}{\sigma_y} \frac{x_k - \bar{x_k}}{\sigma_{x_k}} + \frac{u}{\sigma_y} \end{split}$$

Standardized variables

$$\frac{y-\bar{y}}{\sigma_y} = \beta_1 \frac{\sigma_{x_1}}{\sigma_y} \frac{x_1 - \bar{x_1}}{\sigma_x} + \dots + \beta_k \frac{\sigma_{x_k}}{\sigma_y} \frac{x_k - \bar{x_k}}{\sigma_{x_k}} + \frac{u}{\sigma_y}$$
(7)

- \blacksquare If we run this regression, we estimate $\frac{\widehat{\beta_j \sigma_{\mathbf{x}_j}}}{\sigma_{\mathbf{y}}}$
- Interpretation: effect of a one standard deviation increase in x_j on standard deviations of y, holding all else constant.
- Allows comparability between variables.
- Estimated coefficients when fully standardizing the model are called "Standardized effects" or (unfortunately) "Beta coefficients".
- Now what can we say about the relative effects of crime and nox?

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Functional form choices and interpretation

- We have seen how changing units can affect regression interpretation.
- But changing units does not change statistical significance/inference.
- Changing functional form can affect inference.
- Common functional forms include:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + u \qquad linear \tag{8}$$

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log(x) + u \qquad \log \tag{9}$$

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + u \qquad quadratic \tag{10}$$

 Many variations of these combining different logs and polynomials, some less common transformations, and (next time) interaction terms.

Functional form differences

- Changes in functional form *affect* interpretations of β estimates.
 - Linear: one unit increase in x increases y by β_1 units.
 - Level-Log: one percent increase in x increases y by $\beta_1/100$ units.
 - **Q**uadratic: one unit increase in x increases y by $\beta_1 + 2\beta_2 x$ units.
- In quadratic models, when $\hat{\beta_1}$ and $\hat{\beta_2}$ have different signs there wll be a turning point.
 - Turning point is $x = -\frac{\beta_1}{2\beta_2}$.
 - $\beta_1 > 0$ and $\beta_2 < 0$: y increases with x until $-\frac{\beta_1}{2\beta_2}$ and decreases after.
- These are big changes.
- Each model will find the best fit for that shape.
 - Linear model finds the best line to fit the data.
 - Log model finds the best logarithm shape to fit the data.
 - Quadratic model finds the best parabola to fit the data.

Functional form differences: example

- Consider an example using our familiar data wages (per hour) and experience (years of work):
 - $log(wage) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 exper + u$
 - $log(wage) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 log(exper) + u$
 - $log(wage) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 exper + \beta_2 exper^2 + u$

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How to test significance with quadratic functional form?

$$log(wage_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 exper_i + \beta_2 exper_i^2 + u_i$$
 (11)

How do you test if there is a relationship between wages and experience?

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- How do you test if there is a relationship between wages and experience?
- Does $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ or $H_0: \beta_3 = 0$ deliver the right test?
- Need an F test: H_0 : $\beta_2 = 0$ and $\beta_3 = 0$
 - This is a really common use for F tests.

Comparing model fit: R^2

- We've talked about using R^2 to compare between models. Here it is highest for the quadratic model.
- One concern: the R^2 will be mechanically higher when we control for more variables.
 - Can't help you determine whether you should include more variables in your specification.
 - The quadratic model has an extra variable!
 - How to compare models with different numbers of variables?

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 - The quadratic model has an extra variable!
 - How to compare models with different numbers of variables?
- Another concern: R^2 is a biased estimator of ρ^2 , what we're really trying to get at: share of the population variance of y that the model explains.

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{SSR}{SST} = 1 - \frac{\frac{SSR}{n}}{\frac{SST}{n}} \tag{12}$$

$$\rho^2 = 1 - \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sigma_v^2} \tag{13}$$

■ What then should we look at to compare models?

Adjusted- R^2

■ Unlike R^2 , the Adjusted- R^2 ($\bar{R^2}$) is an unbiased estimator of ρ^2 .

$$\bar{R^2} = 1 - \frac{\frac{SSR}{n-k-1}}{\frac{SST}{n-1}} = 1 - \frac{\hat{\sigma_u^2}}{\hat{\sigma_y^2}}$$
 (14)

$$E[\bar{R^2}] = \rho^2 \tag{15}$$

- Adjusted- R^2 penalizes for additional regressors (since k goes up).
 - Allows you to compare models with different numbers of variables.
 - Does an additional variable increase your statistical power?
- In fact, Adjusted- R^2 can be <0:

$$\bar{R^2} = 1 - \frac{\frac{SSR}{n-k-1}}{\frac{SST}{n-1}} = 1 - (\frac{SSR}{SST})(\frac{n-1}{n-k-1}) = 1 - \frac{n-1}{n-k-1}(1-R^2)$$
(16)

Selecting functional forms

How to choose which functional form to use?

- **1** Which interpretations are a priori resonable?
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- Which interpretations are a priori resonable?
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- **2** Which form fits the data best? Adjusted- R^2 is one indicator.
 - A way to test across non-nested models.
 - Lowest for simple linear; highest for quadratic.
 - But, does it make sense for effect of experience to turn negative after 25 years? Could be an omitted variable or a problem with the quadratic form requiring a sign change.

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 - But, does it make sense for effect of experience to turn negative after 25 years? Could be an omitted variable or a problem with the quadratic form requiring a sign change.
- 3 What does X look like in terms of density and support?
 - Logs place low weight on differences between large values and high weight on changes at low values; this may or may not be desirable.
 - log(0) is undefined. If X has a lot of zeros sometimes log(1+x) is used.

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- Often used for variables with a long range (e.g., things measured in \$s)
- Quadratic (and higher polynomial) forms
 - Quadratic forms estimate effects with a u or inverted-u shape.
 - Sometimes desirable and sometimes not.
 - Interpretations can be challenging.

Interaction terms

Let's go back to the idea of hedonic pricing.

$$price = \beta_0 + \beta_1 sqrft + \beta_2 bdrms + u \tag{17}$$

- What if relationship between bedrooms and price is different depending on square footage?
 - Why might we think this?
- To estimate this, we use an *interaction term*:

$$price = \beta_0 + \beta_1 sqrft + \beta_2 bdrms + \beta_3 sqrft * bdrms + u$$
 (18)

What then is the effect of an increase in the number of bedrooms? Partial derivative:

$$\Delta price = (\beta_2 + \beta_3 sqrft) \Delta bdrms \tag{19}$$

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Interprations with interactions

$$\widehat{price} = 181.69 + 0.033 sqrft - 35.96 bdrms + 0.023 sqrft * bdrms$$
 (20)

- $\hat{\beta_2} < 0$, but $\hat{\beta_2}$ is the relationship between a bedroom and price in a 0 square foot house.
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- Interpretation: adding a bedroom adds value when you have space for it.
 - Becomes positive at around 1560 square feet
- How to summarize effect of bedrooms? Interpret at the mean for square feet.
 - Mean house is about 2000 square feet (in these data).
 - Average effect of a bedroom is $\hat{\beta}_2 + 2000 * \hat{\beta}_3 = -35.96 + 0.023 * 2000 = 10.04$
 - Close to what we find in the simple linear regression.