Third lab

Linear and non-linear regression functions

Fixed effects regression

AKM regression

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Multivariate linear regression in **STATA**

All regressors enter as a linear function of the dependent variable

 $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \cdots + e$

 β_1 : Predicted increase of Y for a unit increase of X, holding steady the value of the other regressors.

If we insert a group of mutually exclusive dummies (e.g., one dummy for each year) one of these dummies is excluded to avoid multicollinearity.

I n this case $\beta_{anno=2000}$ is the predicted increase in Y in 2000 with respect to the year category omitted from the regression (1999 in this case), holding steady the value of the other regressors.

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Non-linear relations between Y (dependent var.) and X (independent var.)

If the relationship between Y and X is nonlinear:

- The effect on Y of a change in X depends on the value of X that is, the marginal effect of X is not constant.
- A linear regression is not a correct specification of the relationship between Y and X - the functional form is wrong!

The estimator of the effect of X on Y is biased.

The solution is to estimate a regression function that is nonlinear in X: $Y = f(X_1, X_2, \ldots X_n) + e$

The Expected Effect on Y of a Change in X_1 in the Nonlinear Regression Model (6.3)

The expected change in Y, ΔY , associated with the change in X_1 , ΔX_1 , holding X_2, \ldots, X_k constant, is the difference between the value of the population regression function before and after changing X_1 , holding X_2, \ldots, X_k constant. That is, the expected change in Y is the difference:

> $\Delta Y = f(X_1 + \Delta X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k) - f(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k).$ (6.5)

The estimator of this unknown population difference is the difference between the predicted values for these two cases. Let $f(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k)$ be the predicted value of Y based on the estimator \hat{f} of the population regression function. Then the predicted change in Y is

$$
\Delta \hat{Y} = \hat{f}(X_1 + \Delta X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k) - \hat{f}(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k).
$$
 (6.6)

How to interpret the marginal effect?

Nonlinear functions of one independent variable

- There are two main approaches:
- 1. *Polynomials in X*
- The population regression function is approximated by a quadratic, cubic, or higher-order polynomial
- 2. *Log transformations*
- We transform either Y, X, or both using the natural logarithm
- Logarithmic specifications allow estimation of percentage relationships of interest (elasticity)

Polynomials in X

La funzione di regressione della popolazione è approssimata da un polinomio:

$$
Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 X_i^2 + \ldots + \beta_r X_i^r + u_i
$$

 \bullet E' un modello di regressione con regressori multipli in cui i regressori sono potenze di $X!$

specificare il reddito come funzione cubica dell'età

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Cubic polynomial

The joint significance test on β_{eta2} e β_{eta3} tells us that – with a 1% significance level - we cannot reject the assumption that the correct specification is quadratic or cubic

The effect of unit age increase on income depends on age. We can calculate the average of the predicted values of Y at given ages (which we denote by \hat{Y}) and compute the difference:

 \hat{Y} (età = x1) – \hat{Y} (età = x2)

To quantify and test the significance of the effect of a unit increase in age from 39 to 40:

reg retrib03 c.eta##c.eta##c.eta tempo d occ manuale uomo n dipendenti i.settore i.anno margins, over(eta) post di b[40.eta]- b[39.eta] test $b[40.eta] == b[39.eta]$

. *verifica l'ipotesi nulla di linearita` contro l'ipotesi alternativa . ∗che la regressione della popolazione sia quadratica o cubica

```
. test eta2 eta3
```

```
eta2 = 0(1)(2)eta3 = 0
```
 $F(2,515402) = 771.00$ 0.0000

Logarithmic functions of Y or X

- \bullet ln(X) = logaritmo naturale di X
- Le trasformazioni logaritmiche consentono di modellare le relazioni tra variabili in termini "percentuali" (elasticità)

$$
Ecco\,\text{perché}: \quad \ln(x+\Delta x) - \ln(x) = \ln\left(1+\frac{\Delta x}{x}\right) \approx \frac{\Delta x}{x}
$$

(quando $\frac{\Delta x}{x}$ è piccolo) (analisi: $\frac{d \ln(x)}{dx} = \frac{1}{x}$)

Numericamente: $x = 100$ $\Delta x = 1$ $\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = 0.01 = 1\%$ $\ln(x+\Delta x) - \ln(x) = 0,00995$ $x = 100$ $\Delta x = 5$ $\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = 0.05 = 5\%$ $ln(x+\Delta x) - ln(x) = 0,04897$

Logarithmic functions

Tre casi:

- L'interpretazione di β_1 è diversa nei tre casi
- · Applicando la regola "prima e dopo" è agevole interpretare il significato di β_1 nei tre casi

The lin-log case

$$
Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(X) + u_i
$$

con ΔX piccolo,

$$
\beta_{\rm l} \approx \, \frac{\Delta Y}{\Delta X \, / \, X}
$$

 $100 \times \frac{\Delta X}{X}$ = variazione percentuale in X, quindi un aumento dell'1% in X è associato ad una variazione in Y pari a $0,01\beta_1$

The log-lin case

 β_1

$$
\ln(Y) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + u
$$

con ΔX piccolo,

$$
\approx \frac{\Delta Y/Y}{\Delta X}
$$

• $100 \times \frac{\Delta Y}{Y}$ = variazione percentuale in Y, segue che un aumento unitario di X è associato ad una variazione in Y pari a $100\beta_1\%$

The log-log case

$$
\ln(Y) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(X) + u
$$

con ΔX piccolo,

 $\beta_1 \approx \frac{\Delta Y/Y}{\Delta X/X}$
100× $\frac{\Delta Y}{Y}$ = variazione percentuale in *Y*, e 100× $\frac{\Delta X}{X}$ = variazione percentuale in X , quindi un aumento dell'1% in X è associato ad una variazione in Y pari a $\beta_1\%$ Nella specificazione log-log, β_1 è interpretabile come elasticità

Interactions between independent variables

-It is possible that the effect of an independent variable X on Y depends on the value of a second independent variable Z. For example:

• --The effect of being in a manual occupation on wages is different between men and women

• --The effect of being in a larger firm is different between men and women.

--To estimate these heterogeneities in the effect of independent variables, interactions are used.

-Interactions are products of two (or more) independent variables. They are themselves independent variables that are entered into the regression in addition to the basic independents.

With interactions, a classic regression model with two independent variables

 $Y=a + b1 X + b2 Z + residual$

becomes

 $Y=a + b1 X + b2 Z + b3 (X^*Z) + residual$

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Interpretation of interactions

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Fixed effects regression (I)

The classic regression model in which individual *i* is observed several times over time (*t*) can be written:

 $Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{it} + e_{it}$

 β_0 and β_1 have a causal interpretation if $E(e_{it} | X_{ij})=0 \forall j, t$, that is, if there are no unobservables that influence both X_{ij} and Y_{it}

 $E(e_{it} | X_{ij})=0$ can be difficult to defend. For example, working in non-manual occupations is correlated with education, and education has an independent effect on income, but is not observable in the data.

Fixed effects regression (II)

Education and skill are fairly constant over time for workers. We can divide the individual error term into time-constant elements (a_i) and idiosyncratic elements (u_{it}) :

$$
Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{it} + a_i + u_{it}
$$

By including individual fixed effects among the independent variables in the regression, I am able to control for a_i .

These fixed effects control for all unobservable individual characteristics that have influence on Y_{it} , as long as these characteristics are constant over time.

The underlying assumption of the model becomes $E(u_{it} | X_{it})=0$, which is less demanding than the assumption $E(e_{it} = a_i + u_{it} | X_{it})=0$

Fixed effects regression (III)

 $Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{it} + a_i + u_{it}$

The interpretation of β_1 does not change when using the fixed effects regression.

Variables in X_{it} that are constant over time cannot be included because they are collinear with individual fixed effects.

The spread of so-called linked employer-employee data (LEED) has allowed labor economists to develop also *high-dimensional* fixed effects models…

(Bruno Contini from Univ. Torino has been one of the very first ever developing and analysing LEED since the 1980s)

AKM regression

 $Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{it} + a_i + f_{i(i,t)} + u_{it}$

 $f_{i(i,t)}$ is a firm fixed effect, which measures firms' wage policy conditional on their employment composition

 $f_{I(i,t)}$ can have a causal interpretation if: $E(u_{ij} | X_{it}, a_i, f_{I(i,t)}) = 0 \forall j, t$

This implies that temporary shocks in wages can't be a systematic reason driving worker mobility toward high or low-wage firms...

• The name AKM comes from Abowd, Kramarz and Margolis (1999 Econometrica) first using this method

Card, Heining and Kline (2013) use a variance decomposition method (see do file of the lecture) based on the AKM regression. They show that higher dispersion in firm fixed effects can explain a relatively large portion of the growth in wage inequality occurred in West-Germany from the 1980s to the early 2000s.

It's a very influential paper that has given rise to a large literature trying to estimate firm wage policies and to use them for several purposes (see papers provided in the lecture material)…

AKM-based variance decomposition

 $var(Y_{it}) = var(\beta_1 X_{it} + a_i) + var(f_{i(t,t)}) + 2 * cov(\beta X_{it} + a_i, f_{i(t,t)}) + var(u_{it})$

This type of decomposition has been highly debated and attracted a lot of interest. If firms' heterogeneity explains a great proportion of inequalities and of their growth, non-competitive mechanisms and the underlying models of the labor market could be more credible than competitive ones.

The academic debate around this decomposition is highly technical, as there are some known sources of bias in this decomposition…

- The measurement error of $f_{j(i,t)}$ is negatively correlated with the measurement error of a_i . This induces an underestimation of cov($f_{J(i,t)}$, α_i). The problem is particularly relevant whenever the mobility of workers across firms is low, which increases the measurement error of $f_{J(i,t)}$
- The recent literature has developed methods for correcting the bias in the estimates of var($f_{J(i,t)}$) and $cov(f_{J(i,t)}, a_i)$. See in particular the papers by Bonhomme et al 2023 and Kline et al. 2020.