Qualitative and Limited Dependent Variable Models

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A Single Dummy Independent Variable

Qualitative Information

- Examples: gender, race, industry, region, rating grade, ...
- A way to incorporate qualitative information is to use dummy variables
- They may appear as the dependent or as independent variables

Dummy Variables

- Dummy variable takes on the values of 0 or 1, depending on a qualitative attribute;
- Examples of dummy variables are:

$$Male = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the person is male} \\ 0 & \text{if the person is female} \end{cases}$$
$$Weekend = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the day is on weekend} \\ 0 & \text{if the day is a work day} \end{cases}$$

NewStadium = $\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if the team plays on old stadium} \end{cases}$

Intercept Dummy

- Dummy variable included in a regression alone (not interacted with other variables) is an intercept dummy;
- It changes the intercept for the subset of data defined by a dummy variable condition:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_i + \beta_2 X_i + u_i$$

where

 $D_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the } i\text{-th observation meets a particular condition} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

• We have: (on the board)

Intercept Dummy

• Graphical Illustration



Example

• Estimating the determinant of wages:

$wage_i = -3.89 + 2.156 M_i + 0.603 educ_i + 0.010 exper_i$ (0.270) (0.051) (0.064)

• Interpretation of the dummy variable M: men earn on average \$2.156 per hour more than women, ceteris paribus

A Single Dummy Independent Variable

• Estimated wage equation with intercept shift



 $n = 526, R^2 = .364$

• Does that mean that women are discriminated against?

• Not necessarily. Being female may be correlated with other productivity characteristics that have not been controlled for.

A Single Dummy Independent Variable

• Comparing means of subpopulations described by dummies

$$\widehat{wage} = 7.10 - 2.51 female$$

(.21) (.26)

$$n = 526, R^2 = .116$$

Not holding other factors constant, women earn 2.51\$ per hour less than men, i.e. the difference between the mean wage of men and that of women is 2.51\$.

• Discussion

- It can easily be tested whether difference in means is significant
- The wage difference between men and women is larger if no other things are controlled for;
 i.e. part of the difference is due to differences in education, experience and tenure between men and women

Slope Dummy

- If a dummy variable is interacted with another variable (x), it is a slope dummy;
- It changes the relationship between x and y for a subset of data defined by a dummy variable condition:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 (X_i^* D_i) + u_i$$

where

 $D_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the } i\text{-th observation meets a particular condition} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

• We have: (on the board)

Example

• Estimating the determinant of wages:

$$wage_i = -2.620 + 0.450 \ educ_i + 0.17 \ M_i^* \ educ_i + 0.010 \ exper_i$$

(0.054) (0.021) (0.065)

• Interpretation: men gain on average 17 cents per hour more than women for each additional year of education, ceteris paribus

Multiple categories

- What if a variable defines three or more qualitative attributes?
- Example: level of education elementary school, high school, and college;
- Define and use a set of dummy variables:

$$H = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if high school} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad C = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if college} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Should we include also a third dummy in the regression, which is equal to 1 for people with elementary education?
 - No, unless we exclude the intercept!
 - Using full set of dummies leads to perfect multicollinearity (dummy variable trap)

A Single Dummy Independent Variable

• Dummy variable trap

$$wage = \beta_0 + \gamma_0 male + \delta_0 female + \beta_1 educ + u$$
When using dummy variables, one category always has to be omitted:

$$wage = \beta_0 + \delta_0 female + \beta_1 educ + u \quad \text{The base category are men}$$

$$wage = \beta_0 + \gamma_0 male + \beta_1 educ + u \quad \text{The base category are women}$$
Alternatively, one could omit the intercept:

$$wage = \gamma_0 male + \delta_0 female + \beta_1 educ + u$$

$$\frac{\text{Disadvantages:}}{1 \text{ More difficult to test for differences}}$$

$$wage = \gamma_0 male + \delta_0 female + \beta_1 educ + u$$

$$\frac{\text{Disadvantages:}}{2 \text{ R-squared formula only valid}}$$

if regression contains intercept

Interactions Involving Dummy Variables



A Binary Dependent Variable: The Linear Probability Model

A Binary Dependent Variable: The Linear Probability Model

• Linear regression when the dependent variable is binary

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k + u$$

$$\Rightarrow E(y|\mathbf{x}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k$$

$$E(y|\mathbf{x}) = 1 \cdot P(y = 1|\mathbf{x}) + 0 \cdot P(y = 0|\mathbf{x})$$

$$\Rightarrow P(y = 1|\mathbf{x}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k$$

$$\Rightarrow \beta_j = \partial P(y = 1|\mathbf{x}) / \partial x_j \qquad \text{In the linear probability model, the coefficients describe the effect of the explanatory variables on the probability$$

that y=1 (=the probability of "success")

A Binary Dependent Variable: The Linear Probability Model

• Example: Labor force participation of married women



A Binary Dependent Variable: The Linear Probability Model

Example: Female labor participation of married women (cont.)



Graph for nwifeinc=50, exper=5, age=30, kindslt6=1, kidsge6=0

The maximum level of education in the sample is educ=17. For the given case, this leads to a predicted probability to be in the labor force of about 50%.

Negative predicted probability but no problem because no woman in the sample has educ < 5.

A Binary Dependent Variable: The Linear Probability Model

• Disadvantages of the linear probability model

- Predicted probabilities may be larger than one or smaller than zero
- Marginal probability effects sometimes logically impossible
- The linear probability model is necessarily heteroskedastic

 $Var(y|\mathbf{x}) = P(y = 1|\mathbf{x}) [1 - P(y = 1|\mathbf{x})]^{4}$

Variance of Bernoulli variable

- Heterosceasticity consistent standard errors need to be computed
- Advantanges of the linear probability model
 - Easy estimation and interpretation
 - Estimated effects and predictions often reasonably good in practice

• Disadvantages of the LPM for binary dependent variables

- Predictions sometimes outside the unit interval
- Partial effects of explanatory variables are constant
- Nonlinear models for binary response

variables

• Response probability is a nonlinear function of explanat. variables

$$P(y = 1 | \mathbf{x}) = G(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k) = G(\mathbf{x}\beta)$$
Probability of a
"success" given explanatory A cumulative distribution function $0 < G(z) < 1$. The response vector of explanatory also contains

probability is thus a function of the

explanatory variables x.

Shorthand vector notation: the vector of explanatory variables x also contains the constant of the model.

Choices for the link function

<u>Probit</u>: $G(z) = \Phi(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{z} \phi(v) dv$ (standard normal distribution)

Logit:
$$G(z) = \Lambda(z) = \exp(z) / [1 + \exp(z)]$$
 (logistic function)

• Interpretation of coefficients in Logit and Probit models



• Marginal effects are nonlinear and depend on the level of X !

Marginal effects for the logit model

$$\partial p / \partial \mathbf{x}_j = \Lambda(\mathbf{x}'\beta)[1 - \Lambda(\mathbf{x}'\beta)]\beta_j = \frac{e^{\mathbf{x}'\beta}}{\left(1 + e^{\mathbf{x}'\beta}\right)^2}\beta_j$$

Marginal effects for the probit model

 $\partial p / \partial \mathbf{x}_j = \phi(\mathbf{x}' \beta) \beta_j$

Estimating marginal effects

Marginal effects at the mean

• The marginal effects are estimated for the average person in the sample $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$.

 $\partial p/\partial \mathbf{x}_j = \mathbf{F}'(\mathbf{\bar{x}}'\boldsymbol{\beta})\boldsymbol{\beta}_j$

- Most papers report marginal effects at the mean.
- A problem is that there may not be such a person in the sample.

Average marginal effects

• The marginal effects are estimated as the average of the individual marginal effects.

$$\partial p / \partial \mathbf{x}_j = \frac{\sum \mathbf{F}'(\mathbf{x}'\beta)}{n} \beta_j$$

- This is a better approach of estimating marginal effects, but papers still use the previous approach.
- In practice, the two ways to estimate marginal effects produce almost identical results most of the time.

Partial effects for discrete variables

• Predict the probabilities for the two discrete values of a variable and take the difference: $F(\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 (k+1)) - F(\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 (k))$

Interpretation of marginal effects

- An increase in x increases (decreases) the probability that y=1 by the marginal effect expressed as a percent.
- For dummy independent variables, the marginal effect is expressed in comparison to the base category (x=0).
- For continuous independent variables, the marginal effect is expressed for a one-unit change in x.
- We interpret both the sign and the magnitude of the marginal effects.
- The probit and logit models produce almost identical marginal effects.

- Goodness-of-fit measures for Logit and Probit models
 - Percent correctly predicted

$$\tilde{y}_i = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{1} & \text{if } G(\mathbf{x}_i \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) > .5 \\ \mathbf{0} & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

• Pseudo R-squared

R-squared = $1 - L_{ur}/L_r$

Individual i's outcome is predicted as one if the probability for this event is larger than .5, then percentage of correctly predicted y=1 and y=0 is counted

Compare maximized log-likelihood of the model with that of a model that only contains a constant (and no explanatory variables)

Discussion about binary outcome models

Choice between the logit and probit model

- The choice depends on the data generating process, which is unknown.
- The models produce almost identical results (different coefficients but similar marginal effects).
- The choice is up to you.

Coding of the dependent variable

If we reverse the categories 0 and 1, the signs of the coefficients are reversed (positive become negative and vice versa) but the magnitudes are the same.

• Example: Married women's labor force participation

| TABLE 17.1 LPM, Logit, and Probit Estimates of Labor Force Participation | | | |
|--|-----------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Dependent Variable: inlf | | | |
| Independent Variables | LPM (OLS) | Logit (MLE) | Probit (MLE) |
| nwifeinc | 0034 | 021 | 012 |
| | (.0015) | (.008) | (.005) |
| educ | .038 | .221 | .131 |
| | (.007) | (.043) | (.025) |
| exper | .039 | .206 | .123 |
| | (.006) | (.032) | (.019) |
| exper ² | 00060 | 0032 | 0019 |
| | (.00018) | (.0010) | (.0006) |
| age | 016 | 088 | 053 |
| | (.002) | (.015) | (.008) |
| kidslt6 | 262 | -1.443 | 868 |
| | (.032) | (.204) | (.119) |
| kidsge6 | .013 | .060 | .036 |
| | (.013) | (.075) | (.043) |
| constant | .586 | .425 | .270 |
| | (.151) | (.860) | (.509) |
| Percentage correctly predicted Log-likelihood value Pseudo <i>R</i> -squared | 73.4 | 73.6 -401.77 .220 | 73.4 -401.30 .221 |

The coefficients are not comparable across models

Often, Logit estimated coefficients are 1.6 times Probit estimated because $g_{Logit}(0)/g_{Probit}(0) \approx 1/1.6$

The biggest difference between the LPM and Logit/Probit is that partial effects are nonconstant in Logit/Probit:

 $\hat{P}(working|\bar{x}, kidslt6 = 0) = .707$

 $\hat{P}(working|\bar{x}, kidslt6 = 1) = .373$

 $\hat{P}(working|\bar{x}, kidslt6 = 2) = .117$

(Larger decrease in probability for the first child)

Next Class – 10.04 In the Zoom at 1pm

Regression Analysis with Time Series Data