Functional Form in the Linear Model

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1 Introduction

Despite its name, the classical linear regression model, is not limited to a linear relationship between the dependent and the explanatory variables.

Consider a vector $x_i' = (x_{i1} \ x_{i2} \ ... \ x_{iK})$ of $K$ variables for each observation $i$. The $L$ functions $f_1(x_i), f_2(x_i), ..., f_L(x_i)$ map the $K$-dimensional vector $x_i$ into $L$ scalars $z_{i1}, z_{i2}, ..., z_{iL}$. The function $g(y_i)$ is a univariate function of the dependent variable. The non-linear econometric model

$$g(y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 f_1(x_i) + \beta_2 f_2(x_i) + \cdots + \beta_L f_L(x_i) + u_i$$

can therefore be written as

$$g(y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 z_{i1} + \beta_2 z_{i2} + \cdots + \beta_L z_{iL} + u_i$$

$$= z_i' \beta + u_i.$$

The latter is the usual multiple linear regression model with $L + 1$ regressors as long as all necessary assumptions about the error term and the $L$ transformed explanatory variables $z_{i1}, z_{i2}, ..., z_{iL}$ are satisfied. All properties of OLS are therefore preserved.

Note: While the original model is potentially non-linear in the variables $x_{ik}$, it is linear in the parameters $\beta$. Also note that the error term $u_i$ is additive.
2 Examples

2.1 Polynomial

Functional form (3rd order):

\[ y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2 + \beta_3 x_i^3 + u_i \]

Expected value under OLS3c:

\[ E[y_i|x_i] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2 + \beta_3 x_i^3 \]

Marginal effect on the expected dependent variable:

\[ \frac{\partial E[y_i|x_i]}{\partial x_i} = \beta_1 + 2\beta_2 x_i + 3\beta_3 x_i^2. \]

Marginal effect on an individual given its error term \( u_i \):

\[ \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_i} = \beta_1 + 2\beta_2 x_i + 3\beta_3 x_i^2. \]

Note that the marginal effect depends on the value of the explanatory variable \( x_i \). The individual parameters \( \beta_1, \beta_2 \) and \( \beta_3 \) often have no direct interpretation.
2.2 Inverse

Functional form:

\[ y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \frac{1}{x_i} + u_i. \]

Expected value under OLS3c:

\[ E[y_i|x_i] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \frac{1}{x_i} \]

Marginal effect:

\[ \frac{\partial E[y_i|x_i]}{\partial x_i} = -\frac{\beta_1}{x_i^2} \]

and

\[ \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_i} = -\frac{\beta_1}{x_i^2}. \]

Note that a positive sign of \( \beta_1 \) means a negative relationship and vice-versa.
2.3 Explanatory Variable in Logs (linear-log)

Functional form:
\[ y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(x_i) + u_i. \]

Expected value under \( OLS3c \):
\[ E[y_i|x_i] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(x_i) \]

Marginal effect:
\[ \frac{\partial E[y_i|x_i]}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\beta_1}{x_i}, \quad \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\beta_1}{x_i}. \]

The coefficient \( \beta_1 \) is approximately the effect of a 100% change in the explanatory variable \( x_i \) on the dependent variable \( y_i \)
\[ \beta_1 \approx \frac{\Delta E[y_i|x_i]}{\Delta x_i/x_i}, \quad \beta_1 \approx \frac{\Delta y_i}{\Delta x_i/x_i} \]

where \( \Delta \) is a small discrete change. Hence \( \beta_1 \) divided by 100 is approximately the effect of a 1% change in \( x_i \). \( \beta_1 \) is also called a semi-elasticity. For example, \( \beta_1 = 56 \) means that an increase in \( x_i \) by 1% leads to an increase in the dependent variable \( y_i \) by (approximately) 0.56 units[1].

[1] The exact effect of a discrete change of the explanatory variable by \( \Delta x_i \) is
\[ \Delta E[y_i|x_i] = \beta_1 \cdot \ln \left( 1 + \frac{\Delta x_i}{x_i} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta y_i = \beta_1 \cdot \ln \left( 1 + \frac{\Delta x_i}{x_i} \right). \]

For example, \( \beta_1 = 56 \) means that an increase in \( x_i \) by 0.01 = 1% leads to an increase in the dependent variable \( y_i \) by exactly \( 56 \cdot \ln(1 + 0.01) = 56 \cdot 0.00995 = 0.557 \) units.
2.4 Dependent Variable in Logs (log-linear)

Functional form:

\[ \ln(y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + u_i. \]

Expected value:

\[ E[y_i | x_i] = e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i} \cdot \alpha_i. \]

where \( \alpha_i = E[e^{u_i} | x_i] > 1. \) If the error is independent of the explanatory variables (OLS3b), \( \alpha_i = \alpha \) is constant. If the error is normally distributed with homoscedastic error \( V[u_i | x_i] = \sigma^2 \) (OLS3a, OLS4a), \( \alpha_i = \alpha = e^{\sigma^2/2}. \)

\[ \beta_0 = 1, \beta_1 = 1, \sigma = 1 \]
\[ \beta_0 = 1, \beta_1 = -1, \sigma = 1 \]

Marginal effect:

\[ \frac{\partial E[y_i | x_i]}{\partial x_i} = E[y_i | x_i] \cdot \beta_1, \quad \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_i} = y_i \cdot \beta_1. \]

The coefficient \( \beta_1 \cdot 100\% \) is approximately the percentage effect on the dependent variable \( y_i \) of a change in the variable \( x_i \) by one unit

\[ \beta_1 \approx \frac{\Delta E[y_i | x_i]}{E[y_i | x_i]} \cdot \Delta x_i, \quad \beta_1 \approx \frac{\Delta y_i}{y_i} \cdot \Delta x_i \]

where \( \Delta \) is a small discrete change. \( \beta_1 \) is also called a semi-elasticity. For example, \( \beta_1 = 0.06 \) means that an increase in \( x_i \) by one unit leads to an increase in the dependent variable \( y_i \) by (approximately) 6\%\(^2\)

\[ \frac{\Delta E[y_i | x_i]}{E[y_i | x_i]} = e^{\beta_1 \Delta x_i} - 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\Delta y_i}{y_i} = e^{\beta_1 \Delta x_i} - 1. \]

For example, \( \beta_1 = 0.06 \) means that an increase in \( x_i \) by one unit leads to an increase in the dependent variable \( y_i \) by exactly \( \exp(0.06) - 1 = 0.0618 = 6.18\% \).
2.5 Dependent and Explanatory Variables in Logs (log-log)

Functional form:
\[ \ln(y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(x_i) + u_i. \]

Expected value:
\[ E[y_i|x_i] = e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(x_i)} \cdot \alpha_i. \]

where \( \alpha_i = E[e^{u_i}|x_i] > 1 \). Assuming that the error is independent of the explanatory variables (\( OLS3b \)), \( \alpha_i = \alpha \) is a constant. Assuming that the error is normally distributed with homoscedastic error \( V[u_i|x_i] = \sigma^2 \) (\( OLS3a \) and \( OLS4a \)), \( \alpha_i = \alpha = e^{\sigma^2/2} \). For \( \sigma = 1 \), hence \( \alpha = 1.65 \):

\[ \beta_0 = 1, \beta_1 = 0.5 \quad \beta_0 = 1, \beta_1 = 1 \quad \beta_0 = 1, \beta_1 = 2 \quad \beta_0 = 1, \beta_1 = -2 \]

Marginal effect:
\[ \frac{\partial E[y_i|x_i]}{\partial x_i} = E[y_i|x_i] \cdot \frac{\beta_1}{x_i}, \quad \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_i} = y_i \cdot \frac{\beta_1}{x_i}. \]

The coefficient \( \beta_1 \) is approximately the percentage effect on the dependent variable \( y_i \) of a 1% change in the explanatory variable \( x_i \)

\[ \beta_1 \approx \frac{\Delta E[y_i|x_i]}{E[y_i|x_i]} \cdot \frac{x_i}{\Delta x_i}, \quad \beta_1 \approx \frac{\Delta y_i}{y_i} \cdot \frac{x_i}{\Delta x_i}, \]

where \( \Delta \) is a small discrete change. \( \beta_1 \) is also called an elasticity. For example, \( \beta_1 = 0.8 \) means that an increase in \( x_i \) by 1% leads to an increase in the dependent variable \( y_i \) by (approximately) 0.8%.

\[ ^3 \text{The exact effect of a discrete change of the explanatory variable by } \Delta x_i \text{ is} \]
\[ \frac{\Delta E[y_i|x_i]}{E[y_i|x_i]} = e^{\beta_1 \ln(1+\frac{\Delta x_i}{x_i})} - 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\Delta y_i}{y_i} = e^{\beta_1 \ln(1+\frac{\Delta x_i}{x_i})} - 1. \]

For example, \( \beta_1 = 0.8 \) means that an increase in \( x_i \) by 0.01 = 1% leads to an increase in the dependent variable \( y_i \) by exactly \( \exp(0.8 \cdot \ln(1+0.01)) - 1 = 0.00799 = 0.799\% \).
2.6 Dummy Variables

Functional form:

\[ y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 d_i + u_i \]

where \( d_i \in \{0, 1\} \) is a dummy variable that either takes value 0 or 1.

Expected value under OLS3c:

\[
E[y_i|d_i] = \begin{cases} 
\beta_0 & \text{if } d_i = 0 \\
\beta_0 + \beta_1 & \text{if } d_i = 1
\end{cases}
\]

Marginal effect:

\[
\frac{\partial E[y_i|d_i]}{\partial d_i} = \beta_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial d_i} = \beta_1.
\]

Note that the notion of a marginal, i.e. infinitesimally small change, is not useful for a dummy variable \( d_i \) which can only increase by exactly one unit. The coefficient \( \beta_1 \) is better interpreted as the difference in the means of the (treatment) group with \( d_i = 1 \) and the (control) group with \( d_i = 0 \)

\[ \beta_1 = E[y_i|d_i = 1] - E[y_i|d_i = 0] \]

which constitutes the average treatment effect (ATE).

Note that the model

\[ y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{treat}_i + \beta_2 \text{control}_i + u_i \]

where the dummy variable \( \text{treat}_i \) takes value 1 for the treatment group and 0 for the control group while the dummy variable \( \text{control}_i \) takes the opposite values violates \( OLS5 \) and the parameters \( \beta_0, \beta_1 \) and \( \beta_2 \) cannot be separately identified. This is called the dummy variable trap.
2.7 Interaction Terms

Functional form:

\[ y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 (x_{i1} \cdot x_{i2}) + u_i \]

Expected value under OLS3c:

\[ E[y_i | x_{i1}, x_{i2}] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 (x_{i1} \cdot x_{i2}) \]

\[ \beta_0 = 2, \beta_1 = -1, \beta_2 = -0.7, \beta_3 = 1 \]

Marginal effects:

\[ \frac{\partial E[y_i | x_{i1}, x_{i2}]}{\partial x_{i1}} = \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_{i1}} = \beta_1 + \beta_3 x_{i2} \]

\[ \frac{\partial E[y_i | x_{i1}, x_{i2}]}{\partial x_{i2}} = \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_{i2}} = \beta_2 + \beta_3 x_{i1} \]
2.8 Interactions with Dummy Variables

Functional form:

\[ y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 d_i + \beta_3 (x_i \cdot d_i) + u_i \]

where \( d_i \in \{0, 1\} \) is a dummy variable that either takes value 0 or 1 and \( x_i \) is a continuous explanatory variable.

Expected value under OLS3c:

\[
E[y_i| x_i, d_i] = \begin{cases} 
\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i & \text{if } d_i = 0 \\
(\beta_0 + \beta_2) + (\beta_1 + \beta_3)x_i & \text{if } d_i = 1 
\end{cases}
\]

Marginal effect:

\[
\frac{\partial E[y_i| x_i, d_i]}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_i} = \begin{cases} 
\beta_1 & \text{if } d_i = 0 \\
\beta_1 + \beta_3 & \text{if } d_i = 1 
\end{cases}
\]

Note that the interaction of all variables (here constant and one explanatory variable \( x_i \)) with the dummy variable \( d_i \) estimates separate linear relationships for the two groups defined by \( d_i \). This yields identical estimates as two separate regressions for both groups. The standard errors may differ between the interacted joint estimation and the separate regressions unless robust standard errors are computed.
2.9 Spline Functions

Functional form:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 d_{i1}(x_i - s_1) + \beta_3 d_{i2}(x_i - s_2) + u_i$$

where $d_{i1} = 1$ if $x_i \geq s_1$ and $d_{i2} = 1$ if $x_i \geq s_2$. $s_1$ and $s_2$ are known thresholds.

Expected value under $OLS3c$:

$$E[y_i|x_i] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 d_{i1}(x_i - s_1) + \beta_3 d_{i2}(x_i - s_2)$$

Marginal effect:

$$\frac{\partial E[y_i|x_i]}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_i} = \begin{cases} 
\beta_1 & \text{if } x_i < s_1 \\
\beta_1 + \beta_2 & \text{if } s_1 \leq x_i < s_2 \\
\beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3 & \text{if } x_i \geq s_2 
\end{cases}$$
3 Implementation in Stata 14.0

Non-linear Functional forms can be estimated with OLS by generating the transformed variables. For example,

```stata
webuse auto7.dta
generate mpg2 = mpg^2
reg price mpg mpg2
```
estimates a second order polynomial.

Dummy variables are easily created from categorical variables with the `xi` command. For example,

```stata
xi i.manufacturer
reg price _Imanufactu_*
```
creates 23 dummy variables for the 24 categories in the variable `manufacturer` (excluding the first one for use as reference category) and regresses `price` on all 23 dummy variables plus a constant. This can also be done in one step,

```stata
xi: reg price i.manufacturer
```
Interactions with dummy variables are also directly created with the `xi` command. For example,

```stata
xi: reg price i.foreign*mpg
```
estimates separate slopes and intercepts for foreign and domestic cars. As of version 11, dummy variables and interactions can also be formed as “factor variables”. The above example is then

```stata
reg price i.foreign##c.mpg
```
The variables used for spline functions are conveniently created with the `mkspline` command. For example,

```stata
mkspline mpg_1 20 mpg_2 25 mpg_3 = mpg
reg price mpg_*
```
regresses `price` on `mpg` using a piecewise linear function. Also consider the option `marginal`. 

4 Implementation in R

Non-linear Functional forms can be estimated with OLS by specifying the Functional form in the estimated model. For example,

```r
> data(mtcars)
> lm(mpg~wt+I(wt^2), data=mtcars)
```

estimates a second order polynomial for the variable `wt`. Note that most mathematical functions need to be wrapped within the `I()` function.

Categorical variables are automatically included as a set of dummy variables if they are defined as factor variables. For example,

```r
> mtcars$carbf <- factor(carb)
> lm(mpg~wt+carbf, data=mtcars)
```

regresses `mpg` on `wt` and on 5 dummy variables for 5 categories in `carbf` (excluding the first category for use as reference group) plus a constant.

Interactions with dummy variables from categorical variables can be directly estimated when the categorical variable is defined as factor variable. For example,

```r
> mtcars$amf <- factor(mtcars$am, labels=c("automatic", "manual"))
> lm(mpg~amf+wt:amf, data=mtcars)
```

estimates separate slopes of `wt` and intercepts for cars with automatic and manual transmission. Alternatively,

```r
> summary(lm(mpg~amf+wt/amf, data=mtcars))
```

reports the difference between the two slopes. This is equivalent to

```r
> lm(mpg~am+wt+wt:am, data=mtcars)
```

which does not use factor variables.

Linear (and polynomial) spline functions are implemented in the `splines` package. See the help for details,

```r
> library("splines")
> ?splines
```
References


