

BOSTON COLLEGE
Department of Economics
EC 228 01 Econometric Methods
Fall 2008, Prof. Baum, Ms. Phillips (tutor), Mr. Dmitriev (grader)
Problem Set 2
Due at classtime, Thursday 2 Oct 2008

2.4

(i) (5 marks) When $cigs = 0$, predicted birth weight is 119.77 ounces. When $cigs = 20$, $.bwght = 109.49$. This is about an 8.6 percent drop.

(ii) (5 marks) Not necessarily. There are many other factors that can affect birth weight, particularly overall health of the mother and quality of prenatal care. These could be correlated with cigarette smoking during birth. Also, something such as caffeine consumption can affect birth weight, and might also be correlated with cigarette smoking.

(iii) (10 marks) If we want a predicted $bwght$ of 125, then $cigs = (125 - 119.77) / (.524) \approx 10.18$, or about 10 cigarettes! This is nonsense, of course, and it shows what happens when we are trying to predict something as complicated as birth weight with only a single explanatory variable. The largest predicted birth weight is necessarily 119.77. Yet almost 700 of the births in the sample had a birth weight higher than 119.77.

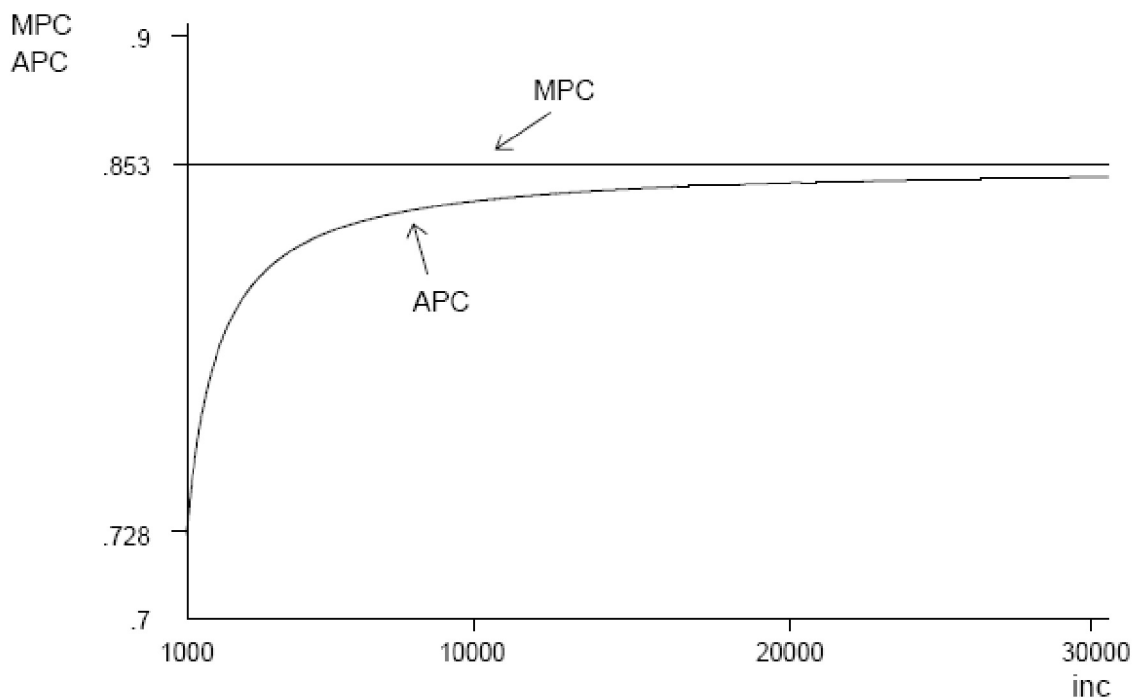
(iv) (5 marks) 1,176 out of 1,388 women did not smoke while pregnant, or about 84.7 percent. Because we are using only $cigs$ to explain birth weight, we have only one predicted birth weight at $cigs = 0$. The predicted birth weight is necessarily roughly in the middle of the observed birth weights at $cigs = 0$, and so we will under predict high birth rates.

2.5

(i) (10 marks) The intercept implies that when $inc = 0$, $cons$ is predicted to be negative 124.84 dollars. This, of course, cannot be true, and reflects that fact that this consumption function might be a poor predictor of consumption at very low-income levels. On the other hand, on an annual basis, 124.84 dollars is not so far from zero.

(ii) (5 marks) Just plug 30,000 into the equation: $= 124.84 + .853(30,000) = 25,465.16$ dollars. $.cons$

(iii)(5 marks) The MPC and the APC are shown in the following graph. Even though the intercept is negative, the smallest APC in the sample is positive. The graph starts at an annual income level of 1,000 (in 1970 dollars).



2.6

(i)(5 marks) Yes. If living closer to an incinerator depresses housing prices, then being farther away increases housing prices.

(ii)(5 marks) If the city chose to locate the incinerator in an area away from more expensive neighborhoods, then $\log(dist)$ is positively correlated with housing quality. This would violate SLR.4, and OLS estimation is biased.

(iii)(5 marks) Size of the house, number of bathrooms, size of the lot, age of the home, and quality of the neighborhood (including school quality), are just a handful of factors. As mentioned in part (ii), these could certainly be correlated with $dist$ [and $\log(dist)$].

3.1

(i)(5 marks) $hsperc$ is defined so that the smaller it is, the lower the students standing in high school. Everything else equal, the worse the students standing in high school, the lower is his/her expected college GPA.

(ii) (5 marks) Just plug these values into the equation: $\widehat{colgpa} = 1.392 - .0135(20) + .00148(1050) = 2.676$.

(iii)(5 marks) The difference between A and B is simply 140 times the coefficient on sat , because $hsperc$ is the same for both students. So A is predicted to have a score $.00148(140) \approx .207$ higher.

(iv) (10 marks) With $hsperc$ fixed, $\Delta\widehat{colgpa} = .00148\Delta sat$. Now, we want to find Δsat such that $\Delta\widehat{colgpa} = .5$, so $.5 = .00148(\Delta sat)$ or $\Delta sat = .5/.00148 = 338$. Perhaps not surprisingly, a large ceteris paribus difference in SAT score almost two and one-half standard deviations is needed to obtain a predicted difference in college GPA of a half a point.

3.3

(i)(5 marks) If adults trade off sleep for work, more work implies less sleep (other things equal), so $\beta_1 < 0$.

(ii)(5 marks) The signs of β_2 and β_3 are not obvious. One could argue that more educated people like to get more out of life, and so, other things equal, they sleep less ($\beta_2 < 0$). The relationship between sleeping and age is more complicated than this model suggests, and economists are not in the best position to judge such things.

(iii)(5 marks) Since $totwrk$ is in minutes, we must convert five hours into minutes: $\Delta totwrk = 5(60) = 300$. Then sleep is predicted to fall by $.148(300) = 44.4$ minutes. For a week, 45 minutes less sleep is not an overwhelming change.

(iv)(5 marks) More education implies less predicted time sleeping, but the effect is quite small. If we assume the difference between college and high school is four years, the college graduate sleeps about 45 minutes less per week, other things equal.

(v)(10 marks) Not surprisingly, the three explanatory variables explain only about 11.3 percent of the variation in $sleep$. One important factor in the error term is general health. Another is marital status, and whether the person has children. Health (however we measure that), marital status, and number and ages of children would generally be correlated with $totwrk$. (For example, less healthy people would tend to work less.)

3.4

(i)(5 marks) A larger rank for a law school means that the school has less prestige; this lowers starting salaries. For example, a rank of 100 means there are 99 schools thought to be better.

(ii)(10 marks) $\beta_1 > 0$, $\beta_2 > 0$. Both LSAT and GPA are measures of the quality of the entering class. No matter where better students attend law school, we expect them to earn more, on average. $\beta_3 > 0$, $\beta_4 > 0$. The number of volumes in the law library and the tuition cost are both measures of the school quality. (Cost is less obvious than library volumes, but should reflect quality of the faculty, physical plant, and so on.)

(iii) (5 marks) This is just the coefficient on GPA, multiplied by 100: 24.8 percent.

(iv)(5 marks) This is an elasticity: a one percent increase in library volumes implies a .095 percent increase in predicted median starting salary, other things equal. (v) It is definitely better to attend a law school with a lower rank. If law school A has a ranking 20 less than law school B, the predicted difference in starting salary is $100(.0033)(20) = 6.6$ percent higher for law school A.

C2.1

(i) (5 marks)

The average participation rate is 86.88214, the average match rate is .7510169.
`. summ prate`

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
prate	767	86.88214	16.96393	20.1	100

`. summ mrate`

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
mrate	767	.7510169	.7829485	.02	4.91

(ii) (marks)

`. regress prate mrate`

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 767		
Model	19731.386	1	19731.386	F(1, 765)	=	75.21
Residual	200704.26	765	262.35851	Prob > F	=	0.0000
				R-squared	=	0.0895
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0883
Total	220435.646	766	287.774995	Root MSE	=	16.197

prate	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
mrate	6.482331	.7474807	8.67	0.000	5.014974	7.949688
_cons	82.0138	.8106757	101.17	0.000	80.42238	83.60521

Answer: so $\widehat{prate} = 82.0138 + 6.482331mrate$. Sample size is 767, and R^2 is 0.0895.

(iii) (10 marks) if $mrate = 0$, the predicted participation rate is 82.0138 percent. Coefficient in $mrate$ implies that a one dollar increase in the match rate, fairly large increase is estimated to increase $prate$ by 6.482331 percentage points. This assumes, of course, that this change $prate$ is possible (if, say, $prate$ is already at 98, this interpretation makes no sense).

(iv) (5 marks) If we plug 3.5 in the equation, we get $prate = 82.0138 + 3.5 * 6.482331 = 104.702$. This is impossible, as we can have at most a 100 percent participation rate. This illustrates that, especially when dependent variables are bounded, a simple regression model can give strange predictions for extreme values of the independent variable. (In the sample of 765 firms, only 15 have $mrate > 3.5$.)

(v) (5 marks) $mrate$ explains 8.95 percent of the variation. This is not much, and many other factors may affect participation rate.

C2.4

(i) (5 marks)

. summ IQ wage

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max

IQ	935	101.2824	15.05264	50	145
wage	935	957.9455	404.3608	115	3078

Answer: Average salary is about 957.95 dollars and average IQ is about 101.28. The sample standard deviation of IQ is about 15.05, which is pretty close to the population value of 15.

(ii) (10 marks)

. regress wage IQ

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 935		
-----+						
Model	14589782.6	1	14589782.6	F(1, 933) =	98.55	
Residual	138126386	933	148045.429	Prob > F =	0.0000	
-----+						
Total	152716168	934	163507.675	R-squared =	0.0955	
-----+						
				Adj R-squared =	0.0946	
				Root MSE =	384.77	

wage	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
-----+						
IQ	8.303064	.8363951	9.93	0.000	6.661631	9.944498
_cons	116.9916	85.64153	1.37	0.172	-51.08078	285.0639

Answer: $\widehat{wage} = 116.99 + 8.30IQ$, $n=935$, $R^2 = 0.096$. An increase in IQ of 15 increases predicted monthly salary by $8.30(15) = 124.50$ (in 1980 dollars). IQ score does not even explain 10 percent of the variation in wage.

(iii) (10 marks)

. regress lwage IQ

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 935		
-----+						
Model	16.4150981	1	16.4150981	F(1, 933) =	102.62	
Residual	149.241196	933	.15995841	Prob > F =	0.0000	
-----+						
Total	165.656294	934	.177362199	R-squared =	0.0991	
-----+						
				Adj R-squared =	0.0981	
				Root MSE =	.39995	

lwage	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
IQ	.0088072	.0008694	10.13	0.000	.007101	.0105134
_cons	5.886994	.0890206	66.13	0.000	5.71229	6.061698

Answer: $\log(\widehat{wage}) = 5.89 + 0.0088IQ$, $n=935$, $R^2 = 99$. If $\Delta IQ = 15$ then $\Delta \log(\widehat{wage}) = 0.0088(15) = 0.132$, which is (approximate) proportionate change in predicted wage. The percentage increase is therefore approximately 13.2.

C3.1

(i) (5 marks) Probably $\beta_2 > 0$, as more income typically means better nutrition for the mother and better prenatal care.

(ii) (10 marks) On the one hand, an increase in income generally increases the consumption of a good, and *cigs* and *famcin* could be positively correlated. On the other hand, family incomes are also higher for families with more education, and more education and cigarette smoking tend to be negatively correlated. The sample correlation between *cigs* and *faminc* is about -0.173, indicating a negative correlation.

(iii) (10 marks)

. regress bwght cigs

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 694		
Model	10394.4794	1	10394.4794	F(1, 692) =	25.33	
Residual	283941.338	692	410.319852	Prob > F =	0.0000	
-----				R-squared =	0.0353	
Total	294335.817	693	424.727009	Adj R-squared =	0.0339	
-----				Root MSE =	20.256	

bwght	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
cigs	-.601789	.119565	-5.03	0.000	-.8365427	-.3670353

_cons		120.3839	.821228	146.59	0.000	118.7715	121.9963
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. regress bwght cigs faminc

Source		SS	df	MS		Number of obs =	694
Model		11626.062	2	5813.03102		F(2, 691) =	14.21
Residual		282709.755	691	409.131339		Prob > F =	0.0000
						R-squared =	0.0395
						Adj R-squared =	0.0367
Total		294335.817	693	424.727009		Root MSE =	20.227

		Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
bwght							
cigs		-.5632265	.1214429	-4.64	0.000	-.801668	-.3247851
faminc		.073165	.0421699	1.74	0.083	-.0096316	.1559616
_cons		118.1664	1.518518	77.82	0.000	115.185	121.1479

$\widehat{bwght} = 120.3839 - .601789cigs$, $n=694$, $R^2 = 0.0353$, another equation with $faminc$ $\widehat{bwght} = 118.1664 - .5632265cigs + .073165faminc$, $n=694$, $R^2 = 0.0395$ The effect of cigarette smoking is slightly smaller when $faminc$ is added to the regression, but the difference is not great. This is due to the fact that $cigs$ and $faminc$ are not very correlated, and the coefficient on $faminc$ is practically small. (The variable $faminc$ is measured in thousands, so 10000 more dollars in 1988 income increases predicted weight by only 0.93 ounces.)