

## Use and Interpretation of Dummy Variables

Dummy variables – where the variable takes only one of two values – are useful tools in econometrics, since often interested in variables that are *qualitative* rather than *quantitative*

In practice this means interested in variables that split the sample into two distinct groups in the following way

D = 1            if the criterion is satisfied  
 D = 0            if not

Eg. Male/Female; North/South

A simple regression of the log of hourly wages on age gives

```
. reg lhwage age
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	75.4334757	1	75.4334757	Number of obs =	12098	
Residual	3873.61564	12096	.320239388	F( 1, 12096) =	235.55	
Total	3949.04911	12097	.326448633	Prob > F =	0.0000	
				R-squared =	0.0191	
				Adj R-squared =	0.0190	
				Root MSE =	.5659	

lhwage	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
age	.0070548	.0004597	15.348	0.000	.0061538	.0079558
_cons	1.693719	.0186945	90.600	0.000	1.657075	1.730364

Now introduce a male dummy variable (1= male, 0 otherwise) as an **intercept dummy**. This specification says the slope effect (of age) is the same for men and women, but that the intercept (or the **average difference** in pay between men and women) is different

```
. reg lhw age male
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	264.053053	2	132.026526	Number of obs =	12098	
Residual	3684.99606	12095	.304671026	F( 2, 12095) =	433.34	
Total	3949.04911	12097	.326448633	Prob > F =	0.0000	
				R-squared =	0.0669	
				Adj R-squared =	0.0667	
				Root MSE =	.55197	

lhw	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
age	.0066816	.0004486	14.89	0.000	.0058022	.0075609
male	.2498691	.0100423	24.88	0.000	.2301846	.2695537
_cons	1.583852	.0187615	84.42	0.000	1.547077	1.620628

Model is  $\text{LnW} = b_0 + b_1\text{Age} + b_2\text{Male}$

so constant,  $b_0$ , measures the intercept of default group (women) with age set to zero and  $b_0 + b_2$  is the intercept for men

The model assumes these differences are constant at any age so we can interpret the coefficient as the average difference in earnings between men and women

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{average wage difference between men and women} \\ &= (b_0 - (b_0 + b_2)) = b_2 = 25\% \text{ more on average} \end{aligned}$$

Note that if we define a dummy variables as female (1= female, 0 otherwise) then

```
. reg lhwage age female
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	264.053053	2	132.026526	Number of obs =	12098	
Residual	3684.99606	12095	.304671026	F( 2, 12095) =	433.34	
Total	3949.04911	12097	.326448633	Prob > F =	0.0000	
				R-squared =	0.0669	
				Adj R-squared =	0.0667	
				Root MSE =	.55197	

lh wage	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
age	.0066816	.0004486	14.894	0.000	.0058022	.0075609
female	-.2498691	.0100423	-24.882	0.000	-.2695537	-.2301846
_cons	1.833721	.0190829	96.093	0.000	1.796316	1.871127

The coefficient estimate on the dummy variable is the same but the sign of the effect is reversed (now negative). This is because the reference (default) category in this regression is now men

Model is now  $\text{LnW} = b_0 + b_1\text{Age} + b_2\text{female}$

so constant,  $b_0$ , measures average earnings of default group (men) and  $b_0 + b_2$  is average earnings of women

So now

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{average wage difference between men and women} \\ &= (b_0 - (b_0 + b_2)) = b_2 = -25\% \text{ less on average} \end{aligned}$$

Hence it does not matter which way the dummy variable is defined as long as you are clear as to the appropriate reference category.

Now consider an **interaction term** – multiply slope variable (age) by dummy variable.

Model is now  $\text{LnW} = b_0 + b_1\text{Age} + b_2\text{Female*Age}$

This means that slope effect is different for the 2 groups

$$\begin{aligned} d\text{LnW}/d\text{Age} &= b_1 \text{ if female}=0 \\ &= b_1 + b_2 \text{ if female}=1 \end{aligned}$$

```
. g femage=female*age          /* command to create interaction term */

. reg lhwage age femage
Source |           SS          df           MS                Number of obs =   12098
-----+-----
Model |  283.289249           2   141.644625            F(  2, 12095) =  467.35
Residual | 3665.75986 12095     .3030806            Prob > F       =  0.0000
-----+-----
Total | 3949.04911 12097     .326448633           R-squared      =  0.0717
                                           Adj R-squared  =  0.0716
                                           Root MSE     =  .55053

-----+-----
lhwage |           Coef.    Std. Err.      t    P>|t|     [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
age |   .0096943   .0004584    21.148  0.000   .0087958   .0105929
femage |  -.006454   .0002465   -26.188  0.000  -.0069371  -.005971
_cons |   1.715961   .0182066    94.249  0.000   1.680273   1.751649
```

So effect of 1 extra year of age on earnings

$$\begin{aligned} &= .0097 \text{ if male} \\ &= (.0097 - .0065) \text{ if female} \end{aligned}$$

Can include both an intercept and a slope dummy variable in the same regression to decide whether differences were caused by differences in intercepts (and therefore unconnected with the slope variables) or the slope variables

```
. reg lhwage age female femage
Source |           SS          df           MS                Number of obs =   12098
-----+-----
Model |  283.506857           3    94.5022855            F(  3, 12094) =  311.80
Residual | 3665.54226 12094     .303087668            Prob > F       =  0.0000
-----+-----
Total | 3949.04911 12097     .326448633           R-squared      =  0.0718
                                           Adj R-squared  =  0.0716
                                           Root MSE     =  .55053

-----+-----
lhwage |           Coef.    Std. Err.      t    P>|t|     [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
age |   .0100393   .0006131    16.376  0.000   .0088376   .011241
female |   .0308822   .0364465     0.847  0.397  -.0405588   .1023233
femage |  -.0071846   .0008968    -8.012  0.000  -.0089425  -.0054268
_cons |   1.701176   .0252186    67.457  0.000   1.651743   1.750608
```

In this example the average differences in pay between men and women appear to be driven by factors which cause the slopes to differ (ie the rewards to extra years of experience are much lower for women than men)

- Note that this model is equivalent to running separate regressions for men and women – since allowing both intercept and slope to vary

### Example of Dummy Variable Trap

Suppose interested in estimating the effect of (5) different qualifications on pay

A regression of the log of hourly earnings on dummy variables for each of the 5 education categories gives the following output

```
. reg lhwage age postgrad grad highint low none
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	932.600688	5	186.520138	Number of obs =	12098	
Residual	3016.44842	12092	.249458189	F( 5, 12092) =	747.70	
Total	3949.04911	12097	.326448633	Prob > F =	0.0000	
				R-squared =	0.2362	
				Adj R-squared =	0.2358	
				Root MSE =	.49946	

lh wage	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
age	.010341	.0004148	24.931	0.000	.009528	.0111541
postgrad	(dropped)					
grad	-.0924185	.0237212	-3.896	0.000	-.1389159	-.045921
highint	-.4011569	.0225955	-17.754	0.000	-.4454478	-.356866
low	-.6723372	.0209313	-32.121	0.000	-.7133659	-.6313086
none	-.9497773	.0242098	-39.231	0.000	-.9972324	-.9023222
_cons	2.110261	.0259174	81.422	0.000	2.059459	2.161064

Since there are 5 possible education categories

(postgrad, graduate, higher intermediate, low and no qualifications)

5 dummy variables exhaust the set of possible categories and the sum of these 5 dummy variables is always one for each observation in the data set.

Observation	constant	postgrad	graduate	higher	low	noquals	Sum
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1
2	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
3	1	0	0	0	0	1	1

Given the presence of a constant using 5 dummy variables leads to pure multicollinearity, (the sum=1 = value of the constant)

Solution: drop one of the dummy variables. Then sum will no longer equal one for **every** observation in the data set.

Observation	constant	postgrad	graduate	higher	low	Sum of dummies
1	1	1	0	0	0	1
2	1	0	1	0	0	1
3	1	0	0	0	0	0

Doesn't matter which one you drop, though convention says drop the dummy variable corresponding to the most common category. However changing the "default" category

does change the coefficients, since all dummy variables are measured relative to this default reference category

Example: Dropping the postgraduate dummy (which Stata did automatically before when faced with the dummy variable trap) just replicates the above results. All the education dummy variables pay effects are measured relative to the missing postgraduate dummy variable (which effectively is now picked up by the constant term)

```
. reg lhw age grad highint low none
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	932.600688	5	186.520138	Number of obs	=	12098
Residual	3016.44842	12092	.249458189	F( 5, 12092)	=	747.70
-----				Prob > F	=	0.0000
-----				R-squared	=	0.2362
-----				Adj R-squared	=	0.2358
Total	3949.04911	12097	.326448633	Root MSE	=	.49946
-----						
lhw	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
age	.010341	.0004148	24.93	0.000	.009528	.0111541
grad	-.0924185	.0237212	-3.90	0.000	-.1389159	-.045921
highint	-.4011569	.0225955	-17.75	0.000	-.4454478	-.356866
low	-.6723372	.0209313	-32.12	0.000	-.7133659	-.6313086
none	-.9497773	.0242098	-39.23	0.000	-.9972324	-.9023222
_cons	2.110261	.0259174	81.42	0.000	2.059459	2.161064

So coefficients on education dummies are all negative since all categories earn less than the default group of postgraduates

However changing the default category to the no qualifications group gives

```
. reg lhw age postgrad grad highint low
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	932.600688	5	186.520138	Number of obs	=	12098
Residual	3016.44842	12092	.249458189	F( 5, 12092)	=	747.70
-----				Prob > F	=	0.0000
-----				R-squared	=	0.2362
-----				Adj R-squared	=	0.2358
Total	3949.04911	12097	.326448633	Root MSE	=	.49946
-----						
lhw	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
age	.010341	.0004148	24.93	0.000	.009528	.0111541
postgrad	.9497773	.0242098	39.23	0.000	.9023222	.9972324
grad	.8573589	.0189204	45.31	0.000	.8202718	.894446
highint	.5486204	.0174109	31.51	0.000	.5144922	.5827486
low	.2774401	.0151439	18.32	0.000	.2477555	.3071246
_cons	1.160484	.0231247	50.18	0.000	1.115156	1.205812

and now the coefficients are all positive (relative to those with no quals.)

## Dummy Variables and Policy Analysis

One important use of a regression is to try and evaluate the “treatment effect” of a policy intervention.

Usually this means comparing outcomes for those affected by a policy then “event”),

Eg a law on banning cars in central London – creates a “treatment” group, (eg those who drive in London) and those not, (the “control” group).

In principle one could set up a dummy variable to denote membership of the treatment group (or not) and run the following regression

$$\ln W = a + b \cdot \text{Treatment Dummy} + u \quad (1)$$

Problem: a single period regression of the dependent variable on the “treatment” variable as in (1) will **not** give the desired treatment effect.

This is because there may always have been a different value for the treatment group even before the policy intervention took place. If there are systematic differences between treatment and control groups then a simple comparison of the behaviour of the two will give a biased estimate of the “effect of treatment on the treated” – the coefficient  $b$ .

The idea then is to try and purge the regression estimate of all these potential behavioural and environmental differences.

Do this by looking at the **change** in the dependent variable for the two groups, (the “**difference in differences**”) over the period in which the policy intervention took place.

The idea is then to compare the change in  $Y$  for the treatment group who experienced the shock (subset  $t$ ) with the change in  $Y$  of the control group who did not, (subset  $c$ ).

Change for Treatment group

$$[Y_t^2 - Y_t^1] = \text{Effect of Policy} + \text{other influences}$$

Change for control group

$$[Y_c^2 - Y_c^1] = \text{Effect of other influences}$$

So  $[Y_t^2 - Y_t^1] - [Y_c^2 - Y_c^1] = \text{Effect of Policy}$

In practice this estimator can be obtained from cross-section data from 2 periods – one observed before a program was implemented and the other in the period after.

$$\ln W_1 = a_1 + b_1 \text{Treatment Dummy Variable}_1$$

Period Before

$$\ln W_2 = a_2 + b_2 \text{Treatment Dummy Variable}_2$$

Period After

The coefficients  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  give the differential impact of the treatment group on wages in each period. The difference between these two coefficients gives the “difference in difference” estimator – the change in the treatment effect following an intervention.

Note however that there is no standard error associated with this method. This can be obtained by combining (pooling) the data over both years and running the following regression.

$$\ln W = a + a_2 \text{Year}_2 + b_1 \text{Treatment Dummy} + b_2 \text{Year}_2 * \text{Treatment Dummy}$$

Where now  $a$  is the average wage of the control group in the base year,  
 $a_2$ , is the average wage of the control group in the second year,  
 $b_1$  gives the difference on wages between treatment and control group in the base year  
 $b_2$  is the “difference in difference” estimator – the additional change in wages for the treatment group relative to the control in the second period.

If  $\text{Year}_2=0$  and  $\text{Treatment Dummy} = 0$ ,  $\ln W = a$

If  $\text{Year}_2=0$  and  $\text{Treatment Dummy} = 1$ ,  $\ln W = a + b_1$

If  $\text{Year}_2=1$  and  $\text{Treatment Dummy} = 0$ ,  $\ln W = a + a_2$

If  $\text{Year}_2=1$  and  $\text{Treatment Dummy} = 1$ ,  $\ln W = a + a_2 + b_1 + b_2$

So the change in wages for the treatment group is

$$(a + a_2 + b_1 + b_2) - (a + b_1) = a_2 + b_2$$

and the change in wages for the control group is

$$(a + a_2) - (a) = a_2$$

so the “difference in difference” estimator

$$= \text{Change in wages for treatment} - \text{change in wages for control}$$

$$= (a_2 + b_2) - (a_2) = b_2$$

**Example:** In April 2000 the UK government introduced the Working Families Tax Credit aimed at increasing the income in work relative to out of work for groups of traditionally low paid individuals with children. In addition financial help was also given toward child care.

If successful the scheme could have been expected to increase the hours worked of those who benefited most from the scheme- namely single parents. By comparing hours of worked for this group before and after the change with a suitable control group, it should be possible to obtain a difference in difference estimate of the policy effect.

The following example uses other single childless women as a control group.

```
. tab year, g(y)
    /* set up year dummies. Stata will create two dummy variables
       y1=1 if year=1998, = 0 otherwise
       y2=1 if year=2000, = 0 otherwise */

. g lonepy2=lonep*y2                /* create interaction variable */

. reg hours lonep if year==98
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	1159891.90	1	1159891.90	Number of obs =	29026	
Residual	11068703.6	29024	381.363824	F( 1, 29024) =	3041.43	
-----				Prob > F =	0.0000	
-----				R-squared =	0.0949	
-----				Adj R-squared =	0.0948	
Total	12228595.5	29025	421.312507	Root MSE =	19.529	
-----						
hours	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lonep	-13.14152	.2382905	-55.15	0.000	-13.60858	-12.67446
_cons	27.88671	.1436816	194.09	0.000	27.60509	28.16834

```
. reg hours lonep if year==2000
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	969891.29	1	969891.29	Number of obs =	28369	
Residual	9470465.62	28367	333.855029	F( 1, 28367) =	2905.13	
-----				Prob > F =	0.0000	
-----				R-squared =	0.0929	
-----				Adj R-squared =	0.0929	
Total	10440356.9	28368	368.032886	Root MSE =	18.272	
-----						
hours	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lonep	-12.10205	.2245309	-53.90	0.000	-12.54214	-11.66195
_cons	26.56678	.1368139	194.18	0.000	26.29861	26.83494

The coefficient on lone parents gives the difference in average hours worked between lone parents and the control group for the relevant year.

Comparing the lone parent coefficient across periods, lone parents worked 13 hours less than other single women in 1998 before the policy, (27.9-13.1 = 14.8 hours for single parents on average) and 12 hours less than other single women immediately after the introduction of WFTC, (26.6-12.1 = 14.5 hours for lone parents in 2000, on average).



So the change (difference in difference)

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= -13.1 - (-12.1) = 1.0 \\
 &= (\text{Hours}^{\text{LonePar}}_{2000} - \text{Hours}^{\text{LonePar}}_{1998}) - (\text{Hours}^{\text{Single}}_{2000} - \text{Hours}^{\text{Single}}_{1998}) \\
 &= (14.5 - 14.8) - (26.6 - 27.9) = -0.3 - (-0.7) = 1.0
 \end{aligned}$$

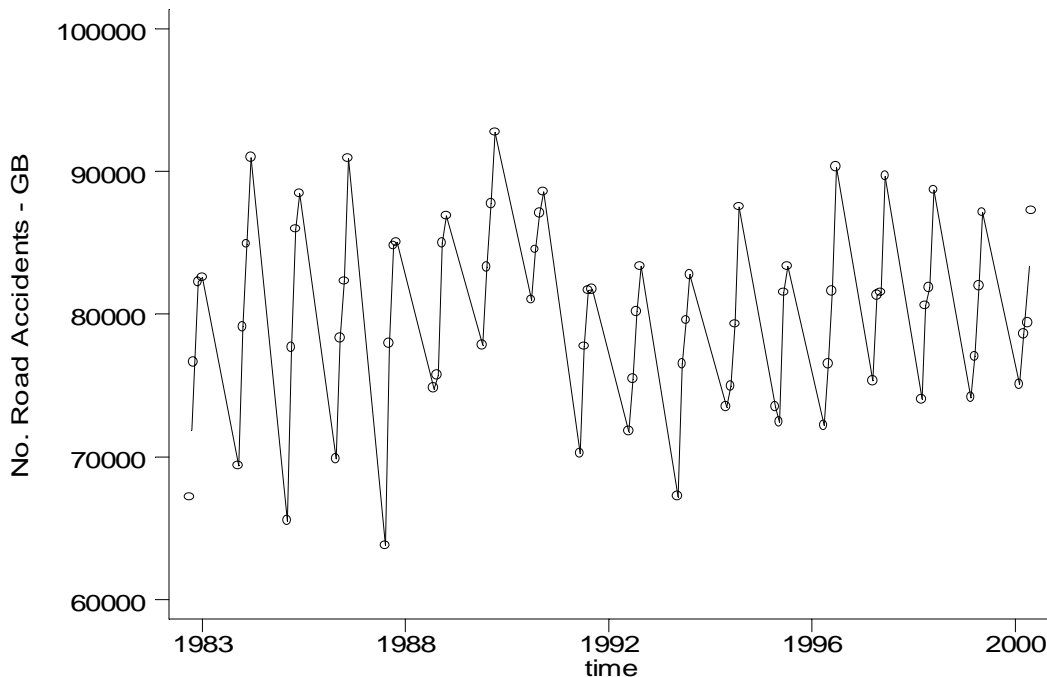
which suggests lone parents worked relatively about 1 hour more as a result of the policy. (Note that hours worked actually fall for both groups, they just fall less for lone parents).

To obtain standard errors, pool the data and estimate the following

```
. reg hours y2 lonep lonepy2
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	2145163.25	3	715054.418	Number of obs = 57395		
Residual	20539169.2	57391	357.881362	F( 3, 57391) = 1998.02		
				Prob > F = 0.0000		
				R-squared = 0.0946		
				Adj R-squared = 0.0945		
				Root MSE = 18.918		
Total hours	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
y2	-1.319938	.1985909	-6.65	0.000	-1.709177	-.9306989
lonep	-13.14152	.2308375	-56.93	0.000	-13.59396	-12.68908
lonepy2	1.039477	.3276099	3.17	0.002	.3973598	1.681594
_cons	27.88671	.1391877	200.35	0.000	27.6139	28.15952

### Using Dummy Variables to capture Seasonality in Data



The data set accidents.dta contains quarterly information on the number of road accidents in the UK from 1983 to 2000

The graph shows that road accidents vary more **within** than **between** years

Can use dummy variables to pick out and control for seasonal variation in data.

Can see seasonal influence from a regression of number of accidents on 3 dummy variables (1 for each quarter minus the default category – which is the 4<sup>th</sup> quarter)

```
list acc year quart q1 q2 q3          /* list data */
      acc      year      quart      q1      q2      q3
1.    67135    1983      Q1         1         0         0
2.    76622    1983      Q2         0         1         0
3.    82277    1983      Q3         0         0         1
4.    82550    1983      Q4         0         0         0
5.    69362    1984      Q1         1         0         0
6.    79124    1984      Q2         0         1         0
```

```
. reg acc q1 q2 q3
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	72
Model	2.2572e+09	3	752388623	F( 3, 68) =	65.77
Residual	777899883	68	11439704.2	Prob > F =	0.0000
Total	3.0351e+09	71	42747405.0	R-squared =	0.7437
				Adj R-squared =	0.7324
				Root MSE =	3382.3

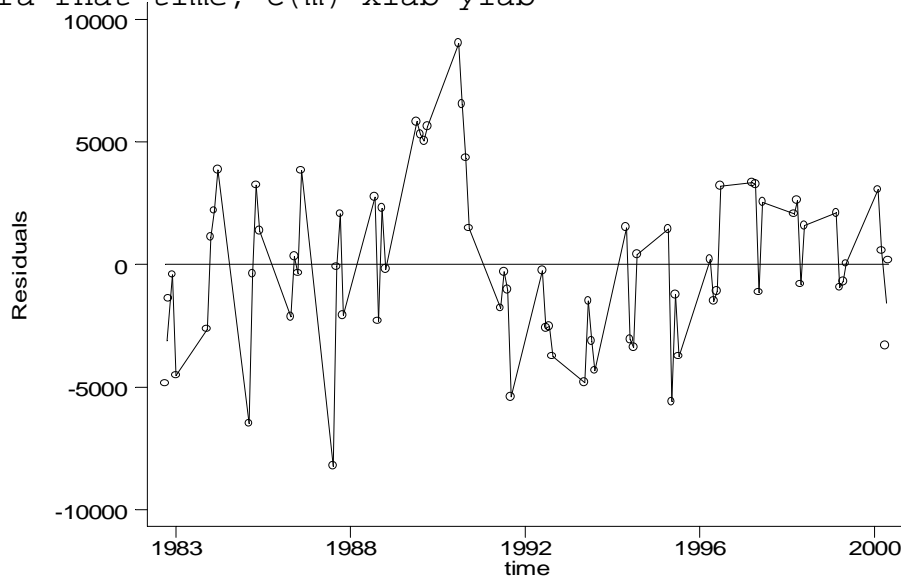
acc	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
q1	-15080.83	1127.421	-13.38	0.000	-17330.57 -12831.1
q2	-9083.889	1127.421	-8.06	0.000	-11333.62 -6834.155
q3	-4386.278	1127.421	-3.89	0.000	-6636.011 -2136.544
_cons	87088.39	797.2071	109.24	0.000	85497.59 88679.19

Regression of accident numbers on quarterly dummies (q4=winter is default given by constant term at 87088 accidents, on average in the 4<sup>th</sup> quarter) shows accidents are significantly less likely to happen outside winter

Saving residual values after netting out the influence of the seasons gives **“seasonally adjusted”** accident data (better guide to underlying trend)

Do this with following command after a regression

```
. predict rhat, resid
/* saves the residuals in a new variable with the name "rhat" */
. gra rhat time, c(m) xlab ylab
```



Graph shows that once seasonality accounted for, there is little evidence in a change in the number of road accidents over time.

Can also use seasonal dummy variables to check whether an apparent association between variables is in fact caused by seasonality in the data

```
. reg acc du
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	236050086	1	236050086	Number of obs =	71	
Residual	2.6325e+09	69	38151620.6	F( 1, 69) =	6.19	
				Prob > F =	0.0153	
				R-squared =	0.0823	
				Adj R-squared =	0.0690	
Total	2.8685e+09	70	40978741.5	Root MSE =	6176.7	

acc	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
du	-4104.777	1650.228	-2.49	0.015	-7396.892	-812.662
_cons	79558.78	768.3058	103.55	0.000	78026.06	81091.51

The regression suggests a negative association between the change in the unemployment rate and the level of accidents  
(a 1 percentage point rise in the unemployment rate leads to a fall in the number of accidents by 4104 if this regression is to be believed)

Might this be in part because seasonal movements in both data series are influencing the results (the unemployment rate also varies seasonally, typically higher in q1 of each year)

```
. reg acc du q2-q4
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	2.1275e+09	4	531865433	Number of obs =	71	
Residual	741050172	66	11228032.9	F( 4, 66) =	47.37	
				Prob > F =	0.0000	
				R-squared =	0.7417	
				Adj R-squared =	0.7260	
Total	2.8685e+09	70	40978741.5	Root MSE =	3350.8	

acc	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
du	-1030.818	1009.324	-1.02	0.311	-3045.999	984.3627
q2	5132.594	1266.59	4.05	0.000	2603.766	7661.422
q3	10093.64	1174.291	8.60	0.000	7749.089	12438.18
q4	14353.92	1212.479	11.84	0.000	11933.13	16774.72
_cons	72488.21	834.607	86.85	0.000	70821.87	74154.56

Can see if add quarterly seasonal dummy variables then apparent effect of unemployment disappears.

