14.32 Recitation – Interpreting Multivariate Regression

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In lecture, we've been spending some time interpreting regression estimates. This is important and somewhat fun, so we'll do a bit more of it today.

1 Performance Pay and Wages

We're going to look at some results from Lemieux, MacLeod, and Parent (2009) "Performance Pay and Wage Inequality."

Background Over the past 30 years in the U.S. wage inequality has increased. Roughly speaking, during the 80s both low tail inequality (for example, the gap between the median wage and the 10%-tile wage) and high tail inequality (e.g. the gap between the median and the 90%-tile wage) increased. During the 90s and continuing to the present, low-tail inequality has been roughly constant, but high tail inequality has continued to increase. From the late 90s until today very high tail inequality (the gap between the 95%-tile and 80%-tile) has increased. Additionally, the gap between wages among various education levels has increased. However, even conditional on education, inequality has grown.

A number of explanations for the rise in inequality have been proposed and studied. These include the fall in the real minimum wage, declining unionization, immigration, and out-sourcing. However, the leading explanation is skill-biased technological change. The idea is that something about production has changed that has made the relationship between productivity and skills far steeper. In a competitive labor market, wages equal marginal productivity, so wages are now more tightly linked to skills and have become more unequal.

The real world is not quite so simple, and wages do not necessarily equal productivity. The problem is that productivity is generally unobserved. Firms can link wages to measures of output that are correlated with productivity. However, firms might not want to because monitoring output is costly, and if part of output is random and workers are risk averse, then the firm will have to pay the worker a higher expected wage to compensate for risk. Nonetheless, performance pay has become increasingly common. This might be because skill biased technological change has made it more important for firms to attract and reward skill workers, or it could be because technological improvements have made it easier to monitor output.

1.1 Theory

Motivated by the increase in performance pay, Lemieux, MacLeod, and Parent (2009) ask whether we should expect greater performance pay to lead to an increase in inequality. They begin by working out a simple model of performance contracts and worker sorting. To test the predictions of the model they are going to estimate wage regressions of the form:¹

$$w_i^p = a^p + x_i b^p + z_j c_t^p + \epsilon_{ij}^p$$

¹I've simplified somewhat leaving out things that we have not yet covered.

where i indices workers, j jobs, and t time. The p superscript is for performance pay jobs. x_i are worker characteristics like education and experience, z_j are job characteristics like industry, and ϵ_{ij}^p is an error term. Similarly, for non-performance pay jobs,

$$w_i^n = a^n + x_i b^n + z_j c_t^n + \epsilon_{ij}^n$$

The predictions of the model are:

- 1. Higher skilled workers should sort into performance pay jobs, and so the average wages should be higher in performance pay jobs.
- 2. The wage intercept is lower in performance-pay than in non-performance-pay jobs: $a^p < a^n$
- 3. The return to observable worker characteristics, x_i , is larger in performance-pay jobs than in nonperformance- pay jobs: $b^p > b^n$.
- 4. The return to observable job characteristics, z_i , is smaller in performance-pay jobs than in nonperformance-pay jobs: $c^p < c^n$
- 5. The return to unobservable ability is larger in performance-pay jobs than in non-performance-pay jobs. (Fixed effects have a greater effect in performace-pay jobs).²

1.2Results

Table I shows some summary statistics. Table II shows the increase in performance pay jobs. There are some difficulties in measuring performance pay. The many numbers in table II show that no matter how you define a job as having performance pay, they became more common.

PERFORMANCE PAY	CHANGES IN THE INCIDENCE OF PERFORMANCE PAY BETWEEN 1976–1979 AND 1990–1993: ROBUSTNESS TO DIFFERENT DEFINITIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS OF VARIOUS FACTORS										
TABLE I Summary Statistics: Panel Study of Income Dynamics 1976–1998				Minimum frequency of actual payments of performance pay			Bonus				
	Non-performance-pay	Performance-pay		Any (1)	1/5 (2)	1/2 (3)	PP this year (4)				
	jobs (1)	jobs (2)	Incidence in 1976–1979	37.56	20.79	9.41	11.95	30.24			
			Change be	tween 19	76–1979 a	and 1990–19	93				
Average hourly earnings (\$79)	8.38	10.86	Unadjusted change	12.92	6.78	1.51	4.45	12.36			
Education	12.52	13.39	Adjusted for the number of	7.06	5.74	3.52	4.63	6.31			
Potential experience	19.74	19.61	times a job match is								
Employer tenure	7.62	9.25	observed								
Married	0.72	0.77	Row (3) plus adjustments for	4.57	3.93	3.00	3.70	4.79			
Unionized	0.28	0.14	characteristics in rows								
Nonwhite	0.13	0.09	(5)-(9)								
Paid by the hour	0.66	0.31	Contribution of changes in characteristics								
Paid a salary	0.32	0.51	(other than the number of times the job match is observed)								
Annual hours worked	2,122	2,286	Total (row (3) minus row (4))	2.49	1.80	0.52	0.93	1.52			
Number of workers (total: 3,053)	2,616	1,271	Unions	1.44	0.83	0.18	0.37	1.28			
Number of job matches (total: 7,442)	5,657	1,785	Occupation	0.70	0.64	0.34	0.37	0.60			
Number of observations (total: 26,146)	16,466	9,680	Industry	0.53	0.72	0.42	0.44	0.10			
			Other factors	-0.18	-0.40	-0.42	-0.25	-0.45			

io job mere measured in years. Potential experience is defined as age minus education minus o service of the worker's total compensation includes a variable pay jobs are employment relationships in which part of the worker's total compensation includes a variable pay component houns, commission, piece rate). Any worker who reports overtime pay is considered to be in a non-performance-pay job. Workers are considered unionized if they are covered by a collective bargaining

²This is something we haven't talked about.

ability models with a full set of dumnies for periods (1976–1979, 1980–1984, 1985–1989, 1990–1993, and 1994–1998) and the number of times a job match is observed (1 to 22), as well as dumnies for industry, occu-pation, marital status, race, union status, a cubic function in potential experience, and a quadratic function in job tenure. A total of 26,146 observations are used in all columns.

TABLE II

TABLE III
REGRESSION ESTIMATES OF THE EFFECT OF PERFORMANCE PAY ON LOG AVERAGE
HOURLY EARNINGS

	Estimation method						
	0	LS	F	1			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)		
Performance-pay job	0.0873 (0.0152)	0.0597 (0.0166)	0.0400 (0.0117)	0.0225 (0.0120)	_		
Performance-pay received in current year	_	0.0794 (0.0167)	_	0.0380 (0.0084)	0.0462 (0.0059)		
Worker fixed effect Job-match fixed effect	No No	No No	Yes No	Yes No	Yes Yes		

Notes. A total of 26,146 observations were made. Standard errors (in parentheses) are adjusted for clus-tering at the job-match level. All specifications also include a full set of industry (10), occupation (8), and year (22) dummies, a cubic in potential experience, a quadratic in job tenure, years of completed schooling, alendar year average of the unemployment rate in the country of residence, and dummies for being married, for being nonwhite, and for union status. The "performance-pay job dummy" indicates if either a bonus or provide the second commission/piece rate earnings were received at any time during the employment relationship; the "perfor-mance pay received in current year" dummy indicates if a bonus or commission/piece rates earnings were received in the current year.

Table III shows the estimated coefficient on an indicator for performance pay in a regression of log wages on performance pay and the other covariates (whose coefficients are not shown).

- What is the percentage difference in wages between performance pay jobs and normal jobs?
- Does this result agree with or contradict any of the theoretical predictions above?

SKILLS-RELATED WAGE DIFFERENTIALS AND PERFORMANCE-PAY (PP) JOBS								
	Sample							
	PP jobs	Non-PP jobs	All jobs					
Estimation method	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3)	FE (4)	OLS	FE (6)		
Estimation method	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)		
Performance-pay job dummy	_	_	-0.4526	-0.2061	-0.2406	0.1414		
			(0.1019)	(0.0723)	(0.1251)	(0.0998)		
Years of education	0.0929	0.0665	0.0637	0.0167	0.0584	0.0040		
	(0.0071)	(0.0039)	(0.0040)	(0.0091)	(0.0047)	(0.0096)		
Education × performance-pay job	_	_	0.0365	0.0169	0.0217	-0.0079		
			(0.0071)	(0.0048)	(0.0092)	(0.0071)		
Education \times 1990–1993	_	_	_	_	0.0161	0.0222		
					(0.0085)	(0.0056)		
Education × performance-pay job	_	_	_	_	0.0190	0.0280		
× 1990–1993					(0.0137)	(0.0089)		
Potential experience (effect at 20	0.4259	0.2882	0.3010	0.4545	0.3002	0.4231		
years)	(0.0535)	(0.0288)	(0.0294)	(0.1258)	(0.0294)	(0.1256)		
Experience × performance-pay job	_	_	0.1162	0.0149	0.1018	-0.0278		
			(0.0584)	(0.0501)	(0.0581)	(0.0509)		
Tenure (effect at ten years)	0.1670	0.2197	0.2262	0.1158	0.2271	0.1191		
•	(0.0268)	(0.0154)	(0.0154)	(0.0129)	(0.0154)	(0.0129)		
Tenure × performance-pay job	_	_	-0.0666	0.0278	-0.0677	0.0196		
			(0.0301)	(0.0237)	(0.0303)	(0.0239)		
Number of observations	9,680	16,466	26,146	26,146	26,146	26,146		

TABLE IV

Notes. Standard errors (in parentheses) are adjusted for clustering at the job-match level. All specifications also include a full set of industry (10), occupation (8), and year (22) dummies, a cubic in potential experience, a quadratic in job tenure, years of completed schooling, calendar year average of the unemployment rate in the county of residence, and dummies for being married, for race, and for union status. The reported effects of potential experience (at 20 years) and tenure (at 10 years) are the predicted levels computed using the estimated polynomial models. The models in clumos states for teported threads interpreter at polynomial education, a cubic in polared test compared taking quadratic in tenure. The models in columns (5) and (6) include a full set of interactions between the performance-pay dummy and education, a cubic in polared test compared taking and the performance-pay job dummy, but only the estimates for 1990–1993 are reported. The acronym FE refers to the fixed-effect method (worker fixed-effect).

Table IV estimates the wage equations of interest given above. The dependent variable is log average wage. Note that in addition to the reported coefficients, the regression include: experience, experience squared, and experience cubed; tenure and tenure squared; industry, occupation, and year dummies; county unemployment; and married, race, and union status.

- We have seen many regressions of log wages on years of education. How do the coefficients on education in these results compare to previous ones? Focus on columns (1) and (2). These regressions include far more explanatory variables than the ones we have looked at earlier. Can you explain the change in the coefficient on education in terms of omitted variables bias?
- The table reports the effect of tenure at ten years. Why does it do this instead of the coefficients on tenure and tenure squared? How is the effect of tenus at ten years computed? How is its standard error calculated?
- One of the predictions of the model is that the intercept should be lower in column (1) than in (2). Sadly, the table does not report the intercepts. Fortunately it reports something that should be very close to the difference in intercepts. What is it? Does it have the sign predicted by theory?
- Another prediction of the theory is that the return to worker characteristics should be higher at performance pay jobs. What variables in the table are worker characteristics? Do the results match the theoretical prediction?
- Should tenure count as a job or worker characteristic? What do you think a-priori? Assuming the theory above is correct, what do the results in Table IV suggest tenure should be considered?
- One of the basic facts mentioned as background above is that the return to education has increased. Column (5) includes interactions between education and dummies for 1980-1984, 1985-1989, 1990-1993, and 1994-1998. The omitted category is 1976-1979. What was the return to education in the late seventies at non-performance pay jobs? What about performance-pay jobs? How about in the nineties? What is the difference in the return to education in the early nineties and the late seventies for performance and non-performance pay jobs?

Table VII shows the contribution of performance pay to the increase in wage dispersion. It is sort of outside the scope of this class. I will talk about it if there is time, or you can read the paper.

TABLE VII

	1976–1979			1990–1993			
	Actual variance (1)	Variance w/o PP jobs (2)	PP jobs effect (3)	Actual variance (4)	Variance w/o PP jobs (5)	PP jobs effect (6)	
Within-gr	oup varianc	e due to observal	bles				
1. Var(XB PP Jobs=1)	0.1280	0.1034	0.0246	0.2037	0.1507	0.052	
2. Var(XB PP jobs=0)	0.0922	0.0922	0.0000	0.1420	0.1420	0.000	
3. Total variance							
$(\%(PP jobs) \times row (1) + (1 - \%(PP jobs)) \times row (2))$	0.1057	0.0964	0.0093	0.1706	0.1460	0.024	
Within-grou	ip variance	due to unobserv	ables				
4. Var(e PP jobs=1)	0.1220	0.1085	0.0135	0.1773	0.1583	0.018	
5. Var(e PP jobs=0)	0.1139	0.1139	0.0000	0.1690	0.1690	0.000	
6. Total variance							
$(\%(PP jobs) \times row (4) + (1-\%(PP jobs)) \times row (5))$	0.1170	0.1119	0.0051	0.1728	0.1640	0.008	
Between-g	roup varian	ice (wage gap eff	èct)				
7. %(PP jobs) × $(1 - \%(PP jobs)) \times \Delta^2$	0.0062	0.0009	0.0054	0.0217	0.0062	0.015	
O	verall variar	nce of wages					
8. $Var(XB + e)$: (row (3) + row (6) + row (7))	0.2290	0.2091	0.0198	0.3650	0.3163	0.048	
Fraction of performance-pay jobs (%(PP jobs))		0.3783			0.4632		
Change in overall variance (col. $(4) - col. (1)$)	0.1361						
Change in performance-pay job effect (col. $(6) - col. (3)$)	0.0290						
Share of performance-pay job effect	21.28%						

THE CONTRIBUTION OF PERFORMANCE-PAY (PP) JOBS TO THE VARIANCE OF LOG HOURLY EARNINGS

Notes. Computations for the counterfactual variances (columns (2) and (5)) done by reweighting to produce a counterfactual distribution for performance-pay workers. Δ is the difference in mean wages between performance-pay and non-performance-pay workers. The samples for 1976–1979 and 1990–1993 are also adjusted by reweighting so that the distribution of the number of job matches observed is the same as in 1982–1990. The wage regression estimated to divide wages into an explained (XB) and an unexplained (α) moment uses a more flexible specification in the explanatory variables listed in the notes to Tables III and IV. Relative to these specifications, we add a set of four education dummies that we also interact with potential experience (linear term), union status, and the race dummy. We also add a cubic in tenure, a dummy for full-time/full-year workers, and an interaction between potential experience and the race dummy. The probit used for reweighting also uses the same specification. See the text for more detail.