Sociology 7704: Regression Models for Categorical Data Instructor: Natasha Sarkisian

OLS Regression Assumptions

- A1. All independent variables are quantitative or dichotomous, and the dependent variable is quantitative, continuous, and unbounded. All variables are measured without error.
- A2. All independent variables have some variation in value (non-zero variance).
- A3. There is no exact linear relationship between two or more independent variables (no perfect multicollinearity).
- A4. At each set of values of the independent variables, the mean of the error term is zero.
- A5. Each independent variable is uncorrelated with the error term.
- A6. At each set of values of the independent variables, the variance of the error term is the same (homoscedasticity).
- A7. For any two observations, their error terms are not correlated (lack of autocorrelation).
- A8. At each set of values of the independent variables, error term is normally distributed.
- A9. The change in the expected value of the dependent variable associated with a unit increase in an independent variable is the same regardless of the specific values of other independent variables (additivity assumption).
- A10. The change in the expected value of the dependent variable associated with a unit increase in an independent variable is the same regardless of the specific values of this independent variable (linearity assumption).
- A1-A7: Gauss-Markov assumptions: If these assumptions hold, the resulting regression estimates are BLUE (Best Linear Unbiased Estimates).

Unbiased: if we were to calculate that estimate over many samples, the mean of these estimates would be equal to the mean of the population (i.e., on average we are on target).

Best (also known as efficient): the standard deviation of the estimate is the smallest possible (i.e., not only are we on target on average, but we don't deviate too far from it).

If A8-A10 also hold, the results can be used appropriately for statistical inference (i.e., significance tests, confidence intervals).

OLS Regression diagnostics and remedies

1. Multivariate Normality

OLS is not very sensitive to non-normally distributed errors but the efficiency of estimators decreases as the distribution substantially deviates from normal (especially if there are heavy tails). Further, heavily skewed distributions are problematic as they question the validity of the mean as a measure for central tendency and OLS relies on means. Therefore, we usually test for nonnormality of residuals' distribution and if it's found, attempt to use transformations to remedy the problem.

To test normality of error terms distribution, first, we generate a variable containing residuals:

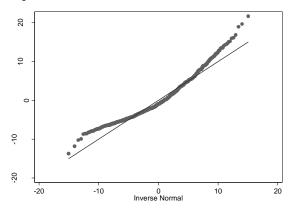
. reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 age

Source	l SS	df	MS		Number of obs		1089
Model Residual	5760.17098 25412.492		1152.0342		F(5, 1083) Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared	= (49.10 0.0000 0.1848 0.1810
Total	31172.663	1088 2	8.6513447		Root MSE		4.8441
agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Er	r. t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Inte	erval]
educ born sex mapres80 age _cons	.6158833 1.679078 -2.217823 .0331945 .0582643 13.27142	.056109 .575759 .304362 .011872 .009920	2.92 2.5 -7.29 8 2.80 12 5.87	0.004 0.000 0.005 0.000	.5057869 .5493468 -2.81503 .0098982 .0387993 10.81422	2.8 -1.6 .05	259797 808809 620616 564909 777293

. predict resid1, resid
(1676 missing values generated)

Next, we can use any of the tools we used above to evaluate the normality of distribution for this variable. For example, we can construct the quorm plot:

. qnorm resid1

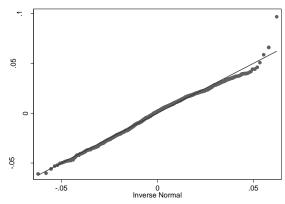


In this case, residuals deviate from normal quite substantially. We could check whether transforming the dependent variable using the transformation we identified above would help us:

- . quietly reg agekdbrnrr educ born sex mapres80 age
- . predict resid2, resid

(1676 missing values generated)

. qnorm resid2



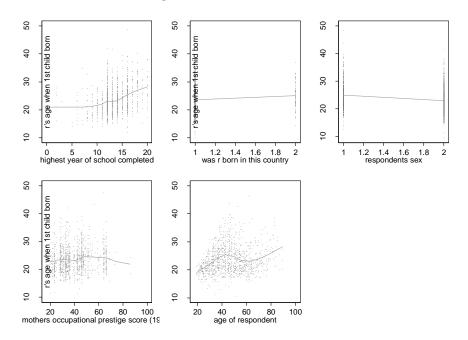
Looks much better – the residuals are essentially normally distributed although it looks like there are a few outliers in the tails. We could further examine the outliers and influential observations; we'll discuss that later

2. Linearity

We looked at bivariate plots to assess linearity during the screening phase, but bivariate plots do not tell the whole story - we are interested in partial relationships, controlling for all other regressors. We can try plots for such relationship using mrunning command. Let's download that first:

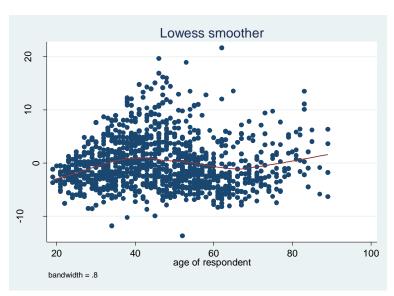
Click on gr0017 to install the program. Now we can use it:

```
. mrunning agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 age 1089 observations, R-sq=0.2768
```

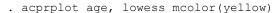


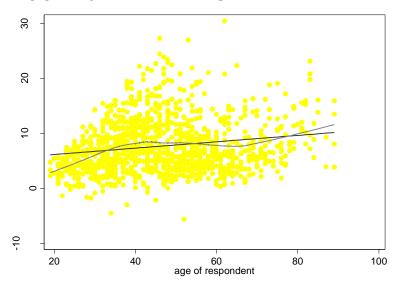
We can clearly see some substantial nonlinearity for educ and age; mapres80 doesn't look quite linear either. We can also run our regression model and examine the residuals. One way to do so would be to plot residuals against each continuous independent variable:

```
.lowess resid1 age
```



We can detect some nonlinearity in this graph. A more effective tool for detecting nonlinearity in such multivariate context is so-called augmented component plus residual plots, usually with lowess curve:





In addition to these graphical tools, there are also a few tests we can run. One way to diagnose nonlinearities is so-called omitted variables test. It searches for a pattern in residuals that could suggest that a power transformation of one of the variables in the model is omitted. To find such factors, it uses either the powers of the fitted values (which means, in essence, powers of the linear combination of all regressors) or the powers of individual regressors in predicting Y. If it finds a significant relationship, this suggests that we probably overlooked some nonlinear relationship.

```
. ovtest Ramsey RESET test using powers of the fitted values of agekdbrn Ho: model has no omitted variables F(3\text{, }1080) = 2.74 \\ Prob > F = 0.0423
```

Looks like we might be missing some nonlinear relationships. We will, however, also explicitly check for linearity for each independent variable. We can do so using Box-Tidwell test. First, we need to download it:

We select this first one, sg112_1, and install it. Now use it:

```
. boxtid reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 age
Iteration 0: Deviance = 6483.522
Iteration 1: Deviance = 6470.107 (change = -13.41466)
Iteration 2: Deviance = 6469.55 (change = -.5577601)
Iteration 3: Deviance = 6468.783 (change = -.7663782)
Iteration 4: Deviance = 6468.6 (change = -.1832873)
Iteration 5: Deviance = 6468.496 (change = -.103788)
Iteration 6: Deviance = 6468.456 (change = -.0399491)
Iteration 7: Deviance = 6468.438 (change = -.0177698)
Iteration 8: Deviance = 6468.43 (change = -.0082658)
Iteration 9: Deviance = 6468.427 (change = -.0035944)
Iteration 10: Deviance = 6468.425 (change = -.0018104)
Iteration 11: Deviance = 6468.424 (change = -.0008303)
-> gen double Ieduc__1 = X^2.6408-2.579607814 if e(sample)
-> gen double Ieduc 2 = X^2.6408*ln(X) - .9256893949 if e(sample)
   (where: X = (educ+1)/10)
-> gen double Imapr__1 = X^0.4799-1.931881531 if e(sample)
-> gen double Imapr__2 = X^0.4799*ln(X)-2.650956804 if e(sample)
   (where: X = mapres80/10)
-> gen double Iage__1 = X^-3.2902-.0065387933 if e(sample)

-> gen double Iage__2 = X^-3.2902*ln(X)-.009996425 if e(sample)
   (where: X = age/10)
-> gen double Iborn_1 = born-1 if e(sample)
-> gen double Isex_1 = sex-1 if e(sample)
[Total iterations: 33]
Box-Tidwell regression model
      Source | SS df MS
                                                               Number of obs =
                                                              F(8, 1080) = 38.76
      Model | 6953.00253 8 869.125317
                                                               Prob > F = 0.0000

R-squared = 0.2230
   Residual | 24219.6605 1080 22.4256115
                                                                Adj R-squared = 0.2173
```

Total	31172.663	1088 28.	6513447		Root MSE	= 4.7356
agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	. t	P> t	[95% Conf	. Interval]
Ieduc_1 Ieduc_p1 Imapr_1 Imapr_p1 Iage_1 Iage_p1 Iborn_1 Isex_1cons	-67.26803 4932163 1.380925 -2.017794	.7083273 .8606987 9.01628 2.600166 42.28364 53.49507 .5659349 .298963 .2955639	1.72 0.00 0.13 0.04 -1.59 -0.01 2.44 -6.75 85.08	0.086 0.997 0.898 0.972 0.112 0.993 0.015 0.000	174215 -1.685091 -16.53757 -5.009163 -150.2354 -105.4593 .2704681 -2.604408 24.56717	2.605492 1.692571 18.84525 5.194736 15.69937 104.4728 2.491381 -1.43118 25.72706
educ p1		05549 27411	10.116 3.758	Nonlin.	dev. 11.972	(P = 0.001)
± .		15436 28955	2.926 0.372	Nonlin.	dev. 0.126	(P = 0.724)
		98828 46904 	5.405 -4.089	Nonlin.	dev. 39.646	(P = 0.000)

Deviance: 6468.424.

Here, we interpret the last three portions of output, and more specifically the P values there. P=0.001 for educ and P=0.000 for age suggests that there is some nonlinearity with regard to these two variables. Mapres80 appears to be fine. With regard to remedies, the process here is the same as we discussed earlier when talking about bivariate linearity. Once remedies are applied, it is a good idea to retest using these multivariate screening tools.

3. Outliers, Leverage Points, and Influential Observations

A single observation that is substantially different from other observations can make a large difference in the results of regression analysis. For this reason, unusual observations (or small groups of unusual observations) should be identified and examined. There are three ways that an observation can be unusual:

<u>Outliers</u>: In univariate context, people often refer to observations with extreme values (unusually high or low) as outliers. But in regression models, an outlier is an observation that has unusual value of the dependent variable given its values of the independent variables – that is, the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent ones is different for an outlier than for the other data points. Graphically, an outlier is far from the pattern defined by other data points. Typically, in a regression model, an outlier has a large residual.

<u>Leverage points</u>: An observation with an extreme value (either very high or very low) on a single predictor variable or on a combination of predictors is called a point with high leverage. Leverage is a measure of how far a value of an independent variable deviates from the mean of that variable. In the multivariate context, leverage is a measure of each observation's distance from the multidimensional centroid in the space formed by all the predictors. These leverage points can have an effect on the estimates of regression coefficients.

<u>Influential Observations</u>: A combination of the previous two characteristics produces influential observations. An observation is considered influential if removing the observation substantially

changes the estimates of coefficients. Observations that have just one of these two characteristics (either an outlier or a high leverage point but not both) do not tend to be influential.

Thus, we want to identify outliers and leverage points, and especially those observations that are both, to assess and possibly minimize their impact on our regression model. Furthermore, outliers, even when they are not influential in terms of coefficient estimates, can unduly inflate the error variance. Their presence may also signal that our model failed to capture some important factors (i.e., indicate potential model specification problem).

In the multivariate context, to identify outliers, we want to find observations with high residuals; and to identify observations with high leverage, we can use the so-called hat-values -- these measure each observation's distance from the multidimensional centroid in the space formed by all the regressors. We can also use various influence statistics that help us identify influential observations by combining information on outlierness and leverage.

To obtain these various statistics in Stata, we use predict command. Here are some values we can obtain using predict, with the rule-of-thumb cutoff values for statistics used in outlier diagnostics:

Predict option	Result	Cutoff value (n=sample size, k=parameters)
xb	<pre>xb, fitted values (linear prediction); the default</pre>	-
stdp	standard error of linear prediction	
residuals	residuals	
stdr	standard error of the residual	
rstandard	standardized residuals (residuals divided by	
	standard error)	
rstudent	studentized (jackknifed) residuals, recommended for outlier diagnostics (for each observation,	rstudent > 2
	the residual is divided by the standard error obtained from a model that includes a dummy	
lev (hat)	variable for that specific observation) hat values, measures of leverage (diagonal	Hat $> (2k+2)/n$
iev (nac)	elements of hat matrix)	nac > (2K+2)/n
*dfits	DFITS, influence statistic based on studentized residuals and hat values	DFits >2*sqrt(k/n)
*welsch	Welsch Distance, a variation on dfits	WelschD >3*sqrt(k)
cooksd	Cook's distance, an influence statistic based	CooksD >4/n
	on dfits and indicating the distance between	
	coefficient vectors when the jth observation is	
	omitted	
*covratio	COVRATIO, a measure of the influence of the jth observation on the variance-covariance matrix	CovRatio-1 >3k/n
d 161 ()	of the estimates	
*dfbeta(varname)	DFBETA, a measure of the influence of the jth observation on each coefficient (the difference	DFBeta > 2/sqrt(n)
	between the regression coefficient when the jth	
	observation is included and when it is	
	excluded, divided by the estimated standard	
	error of the coefficient)	
	tistics are only available for the estimation samp	
	ilable both in and out of sample; type predict	if e(sample)
if you want them of	nly for the estimation sample.	

So we could obtain and individually examine various outlier and leverage statistics, e.g.,

```
.predict hats, lev
.predict resid, resid
.predict rstudent, rstudent
```

For instance, we can then find the observations with the highest leverage values:

. sum hats if e(sample), det

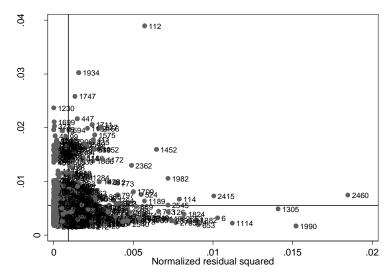
		Leverage		
	Percentiles	Smallest		
1%	.00176	.0015777		
5%	.0021025	.0016196		
10%	.0023401	.00162	Obs	1089
25%	.0030041	.0016511	Sum of Wgt.	1089
50%	.0041908		Mean	.0055096
		Largest	Std. Dev.	.004043
75%	.006332	.0236406		
90%	.010143	.0258473	Variance	.0000163
95%	.0155289	.0302377	Skewness	2.466179
99%	.0198167	.038942	Kurtosis	11.40481

. list id hats if hats>.023 & hats~=. & e(sample)

	+		+
	id	hats	
3.	1934	.0302377	l
10.	112	.038942	l
17.	1230	.0236406	
2447.	1747	.0258473	
	+		_

But the best way to graphically examine both leverage values and residuals at the same time is the leverage versus the residuals squared plot (L-R plot) (you can replicate it by creating a scatterplot of hat values and residuals squared):

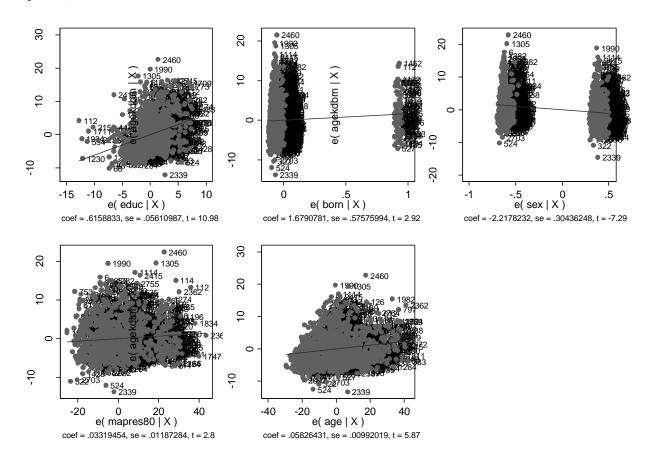
.lvr2plot, mlabel(id)



There are many observations with high leverage and residuals; we would be especially concerned about 112, 1934, 2460, 1452 etc.

Added variable plots (avplots) is another tool we can use to identify outliers and leverage points — in this case, we can see them in relationship to the slopes. Note that you can also obtain these plots one by one using avplot command, e.g. avplot educ, mlabel(id)

.avplots, mlabel(id)



Observation #2460 is the first one that looks especially suspicious - that's an outlier, a high residual observation; same thing with 1305. Looks like these are people who had their first child very late in life. As for high leverage observations, not too many stand out on this graph, although #112 might be one – looks like that might be a foreign born individual with very little education who had their first child relatively late in life.

To supplement these graphs, we can use a number of influence statistics that combine information on outlier status and leverage -- DFITS, Welsch's D, Cook's D, COVRATIO, and DFBETAs. It is usually a good idea to obtain a range of those to decide which cases are really problematic.

It makes sense to list the values of your dependent and independent variables for those observations that have values of these measures above the suggested cutoffs. E.g., we get Cook's D (based on hat values and standardized residuals):

. predict cooksd if e(sample), cooksd

Don't forget to specify "if e(sample)" here – Cook's D is available out of sample as well!

NOTE: if you already generated a variable with this name (e.g. cooksd) but want to reuse the name, just use the drop command first: e.g., drop cooksd

Now we list those observations with high Cook's distance. The cutoff is 4/n so in this case, it's 4/1089 = .00367309.

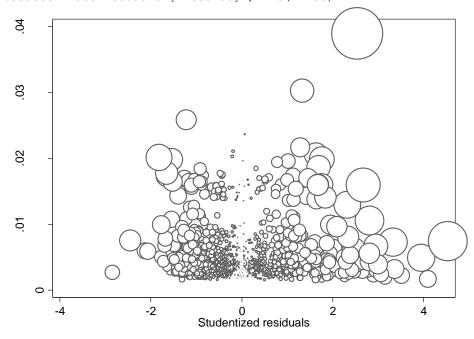
- . sort cooksd
- . list id agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 age cooksd if cooksd>=4/1089 & cooksd~=.

	id	agekdbrn	educ	born	sex	mapres80	age	cooksd
1031.	 1394	30	15	no	female	28	33	.0036766
1032.	63	19	19	yes	female	34	64	.003683
1033.	2484	37	17	yes	female	52	56	.0037003
1034.	1906	29	10	no	male	23	39	.0037224
1035.	994	38	15	yes	female	33	41	.003788
1036.	 22	19	12	no	male	44	23	.0038182
1037.	1402	37	12	yes	male	33	42	.0038667
1038.	742	36	13	yes	male	28	39	.0038726
1039.	366	37	17	yes	male	66	44	.0041899
1040.	2265	39	17	yes	male	52	55	.004212
1041.	 2703	 16	16	yes	male	23	45	.004219
1042.	1284	17	12	yes	female	64	76	.0043403
L043.	2764	35	12	yes	male	23	75	.0044005
1044.	1114	39	12	yes	female	46	46	.0044603
1045.	2653	38	12	yes	male	32	43	.0044713
1046.	 322	13	16	yes	female	20	38	.0044766
1047.	352	16	9	no	female	44	49	.0045471
L048.	1382	39	12	yes	male	35	45	.0045595
L049.	1990	42	13	yes	female	34	46	.0046982
.050.	514	16	11	no	female	40	42	.0047655
1051.	 1186	30	12	no	female	30	44	.0049131
1052.	669	37	18	yes	female	32	49	.005042
1053.	1428	17	20	yes	female	32	28	.0052439
L054.	753	35	13	yes	female	17	51	.0053052
055.	797	34	12	yes	female	35	83	.0054951
1056.	 126	38	15	yes	female	28	65	.0056446
L057.	1824	41	16	yes	male	34	49	.0058367
058.	6	40	12	yes	male	29	47	.0059349
059.	447	26	6	no	female	23	55	.0060603
1060.	1549	32	14	no	female	66	34	.0061423
1061.	 1066	32	13	no	female	47	40	.0062896
1062.	612	36	18	yes	female	23	73	.0063017
L063.	508	18	14	no	female	64	40	.0064009
1064.	1747	24	17	no	male	86	36	.0065845
1065.	1189	39	16	yes	male	23	62	.0066001
1066.	 773	37	20	yes	female	28	54	.0070942
1067.	2545	42	18	yes	male	46	54	.0072636
1068.	1709	38	20	yes	female	35	47	.0073801
1069.	541	35	18	no	female	46	37	.0075467
1070.	524	16	19	yes	male	42	34	.0075767
1071.	 430	35	18	no	female	44	38	.0075794
10/1.								

1073.	435	19	12	no	male	36	67	.0079604
1074.	1172	33	14	no	female	32	39	.0080491
1075.	411	21	18	no	male	51	30	.0082472
1076. 1077. 1078. 1079. 1080.	1952 1575 1934 1711 114	31 34 25 27 37	12 12 0 2	no no yes yes yes	female male male male female	20 64 23 36 66	40 34 89 69 47	.0083125 .0090088 .009117 .0093139 .0096068
1081.	2156	25	2	yes	male	20	33	.0104581
1082.	527	22	20	no	male	44	43	.0112643
1083.	2362	36	12	yes	female	64	83	.0117106
1084.	1305	44	12	yes	male	56	53	.0125958
1085.	2415	35	7	yes	female	42	48	.0133718
1086. 1087. 1088. 1089.	 1982 1452 2460 112	37 41 50 32	8 16 16 2	yes no yes no	male male male male	30 36 64 63	83 47 62 38	.0139673 .0191272 .0251248 .0434919

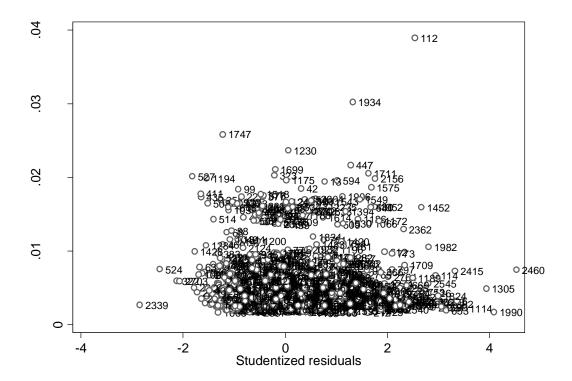
That's quite a few; the largest Cook's D belong to observations 112, 2460, and 1452. All of those stood out in graphs as well, so we want to investigate those, but first we might want to examine other indices (e.g. DFITS, COVRATIO, etc.) as well. In the end, we want to identify and further investigate those observations that are consistently problematic across a range of diagnostic tools.

E.g., we can combine the information on high leverage, high studentized residual, and Cook's D: .scatter hats rstudent [w=cooksd] , mfc(white)



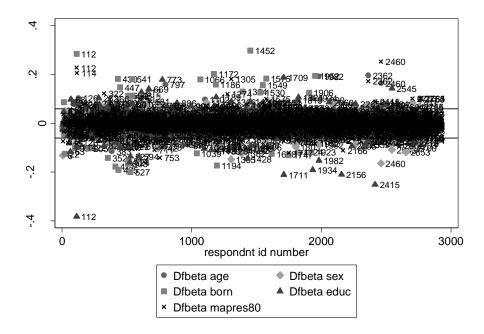
To identify problematic observations, let's replace circles with ID numbers:

. scatter hats student [w=cooksd] , mlabel(id)



Another set of index measures of influence, DFBETAs, focuses on one regression coefficient at a time. It is a normalized measure of the effect of each specific observation on a regression coefficient, estimated by omitting each observation and comparing the resulting coefficient to the coefficient with that observation included in the data. Positive DFBETA value indicates that an observation increases the value of the coefficient; negative value indicates a decrease in the coefficient due to that observation.

```
. dfbeta
(1676 missing values generated)
                           DFeduc:
                                    DFbeta (educ)
(1676 missing values generated)
                           DFborn:
                                    DFbeta(born)
(1676 missing values generated)
                            DFsex:
                                    DFbeta(sex)
(1676 missing values generated)
                      DFmapres80:
                                    DFbeta(mapres80)
(1676 missing values generated)
                            DFage:
                                    DFbeta(age)
. di 2/sqrt(1089)
.06060606
. scatter DFage DFsex DFborn DFeduc DFmapres80 id, yline(.06 -.06) mlabel(id id id id
id)
```



Observations 112 and 2460 seem to have influence on a number of coefficients; others seem to have effects on specific coefficients, so we need to look into those that have particularly large effects.

Remedies:

Once you detected influential data points, you need to decide what to do with them. Typically, non-influential outliers and leverage points do not concern us much, although outliers do increase error variance. We also want to watch out for clusters of outliers, which may suggest an omitted variable. But influential points can have dramatic effects, and we definitely want to investigate those. Once we find them, there is no one clear-cut solution. They should not be ignored, but neither should they be automatically deleted. Typically, the presence of an influential point can mean one of the following:

A. Our model is correct, the influential point can be attributed to some kind of measurement error B. The value of the influential point is observed correctly, but our model is not correct in that it cannot model the influential point well. Possible reasons for that: (a) The relationship between the dependent and the independent variable is not linear in the interval of values that includes the influential point; (b) There is another explanatory variable that can help account for that influential point; (c) The model has heteroskedasticity problems. Unfortunately, often it is not possible to determine which one is the case. But here's what you can do:

1. You have to investigate what makes these data points unusual — make sure that you examine their values on all of the variables you use. This will help identify potential data entry errors or might provide other clues as to why these data points are unusual. E.g., we could check #112:

•	list	_	educ born		-	_			
		•	n educ						
	10.	32	2 2	nc	male		63 	38	

Let's also get averages for all variables to compare:

Variable	obs	sex mapressu Mean	std. Dev.	e) Min 	Max
agekdbrn	1089	23.66483	5.352695	11	50
educ	1089	13.3168	2.719027	0	20
born	1089	1.070707	.2564527	1	2
sex	1089	1.624426	.4844932	1	2
mapres80	1089	39.44077	12.95284	17	86
age	1089	46.1258	15.06822	19	89

2. If you are considering omitting unusual data, you should investigate whether omitting these data points changes the results of your regression model. Try omitting them one by one and compare the coefficients with and without them: are there large changes? Let's check what happens if we omit #112:

. reg agekdbrn Source			age, beta MS	ì	Number of obs = 1089 F(5, 1083) = 49.10
Model Residual		5 115 1083 23.4			Prob > F = 0.0000 R-squared = 0.1848 Adj R-squared = 0.1810
Total		1088 28.6	513447		Root MSE = 4.8441
agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	Beta
educ born sex mapres80 age cons		.0561099 .5757599 .3043625 .0118728 .0099202 1.252294	10.98 2.92 -7.29 2.80 5.87 10.60	0.000 0.004 0.000 0.005 0.000	.3128524 .0804462 2007438 .0803266 .1640182
	educ born se	x mapres80	_	l~=112,	Number of obs = 1088
. reg agekdbrn	SS 5841.74787	df 5 1168	MS .34957	 l~=112,	Number of obs = 1088 F(5, 1082) = 50.04 Prob > F = 0.0000 R-squared = 0.1878
. reg agekdbrn Source Model	SS 5841.74787 25261.3762	df 5 1168 1082 23.3	MS .34957 469281	 l~=112,	Number of obs = 1088 F(5, 1082) = 50.04 Prob > F = 0.0000
. reg agekdbrn Source Model Residual	SS 	df 	MS .34957 469281 137296		Number of obs = 1088 F(5, 1082) = 50.04 Prob > F = 0.0000 R-squared = 0.1878 Adj R-squared = 0.1841

The actual effect of that observation on the coefficients of educ, mapres 80, and born are rather pretty small; for each, beta changes by about 0.01.

Also, try omitting the most persistent influential points as a group and examine the effects. If there are large changes in coefficients, you might use that to justify omitting a few (but only very few) observations from the model – but you will also have to explain what is so special about these cases.

- 3. To reduce the incidence of high leverage points, consider transforming skewed variables and/or topcoding/bottomcoding variables to bring univariate outliers closer to the rest of the distribution (e.g. coding incomes of >\$100,000 to \$100,000 so that these high values do not stand out), like we did when we discussed data screening (and if that was done at that stage, it reduces the chances that problems emerge in multivariate context).
- 4. If unusual data come in clusters, you may have to introduce another variable to control for their unusualness, or you might want to deal with them in a separate regression model.
- 5. Robust regression is another option when one observes substantial problems with influential data. The Stata rreg command performs a robust regression using iteratively reweighted least squares, i.e., assigning a weight to each observation with higher weights given to better behaved observations, while extremely unusual data can have their weights set to zero so that they are not included in the analysis at all.

. rreg agekdk Robust regres			sex mapres80	age, gei	n(wt)	Number of obs F(5, 1083) Prob > F	
agekdbrn		Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
educ born sex mapres80 age _cons	 	.6518023 1.792079 -2.012778 .0275798 .0522715 12.34444	.0539119 .5532063 .29244 .0114078 .0095316 1.203239	12.09 3.24 -6.88 2.42 5.48 10.26	0.000 0.001 0.000 0.016 0.000 0.000	.5460186 .7066014 -2.586591 .005196 .033569 9.983493	.7575859 2.877556 -1.438965 .0499637 .070974 14.70538

. Sum wt, de		sum	wt,	det
--------------	--	-----	-----	-----

	110	Dabe Regression	i weight	
	Percentiles	Smallest		
1%	.2138941	0		
5%	.5965052	.0007363		
10%	.7419349	.0035576	Obs	1089
25%	.8782627	.0726816	Sum of Wgt.	1089
50%	.9564363	Largest	Mean Std. Dev.	.9001565 .1513337
75%	.988214	.9999998		
90%	.9983087	.9999999	Variance	.0229019
95%	.9996306	1	Skewness	-2.926814
99%	.9999847	1	Kurtosis	12.98754

Robust Regression Weight

Comparing the robust regression results with the OLS results on the previous page, we see that even though there are a few small differences, the coefficients, standard errors, and p-values are quite similar. Despite the minor problems with influential data that we observed while doing our diagnostics, the robust regression analysis yielded quite similar results, suggesting that these problems are indeed minor. If the results of OLS and robust regression were substantially different, we would need to further investigate what problems in our OLS model caused the difference. If it is impossible to resolve such problems, then the robust regression results should be viewed as more trustworthy.

4. Additivity.

First and foremost, we should always use our theory insights to consider the need for interactions. We can have interactions between dummies (or sets of dummies), a dummy (or a set of dummies) and a continuous variable, or two continuous variables. To avoid multicollinearity problems, you should code your dummies 0/1 and mean-center those continuous variables that are involved in interaction terms.

```
. gen sexd=sex-1
. gen bornd=born-1
(6 missing values generated)
. for var age educ mapres80: sum X \ gen Xmean=X-r(mean)
-> sum age
           Obs Mean Std. Dev. Min Max
  Variable |
______
     age | 2751 46.28281 17.37049 18 89
-> gen agemean=age-r(mean)
(14 missing values generated)
-> sum educ
  Variable | Obs Mean Std. Dev. Min Max
_____
    educ | 2753 13.36397 2.973924
                                     0 20
-> gen educmean=educ-r(mean)
(12 missing values generated)
-> sum mapres80
Variable | Obs Mean Std. Dev.
                                     Min
                                             Max
  mapres80 | 1619 40.96912 13.63189
-> gen mapres80mean=mapres80-r(mean)
(1146 missing values generated)
```

A user-written program "fitint" helps find statistically significant two-way interactions, so it can be used as a diagnostic tool.

. net search fitint

Click on: fitint from http://fmwww.bc.edu/RePEc/bocode/f

agemean educmea	n mapres80me	an) factor(bornd sex	xd)		
Source	SS	df	MS		Number of obs	= 1089
					F(15, 1073)	= 17.65
Model	6169.67284	15 411.	311523		Prob > F	= 0.0000
Residual	25002.9902	1073 23.	301948		R-squared	= 0.1979
+-					Adj R-squared	= 0.1867
Total	31172.663	1088 28.6	513447		Root MSE	= 4.8272
agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Thornd 1	1.710533	.9779923	1.75	0.081	2084614	3.629527
_Ibornd_1						
_Isexd_1	-2.21852	.3179507	-6.98	0.000	-2.842395	-1.594644
agemean	.0587138	.0171439	3.42	0.001	.0250744	.0923532
educmean	.4551926	.0888308	5.12	0.000	.2808908	.6294943
mapres80mean	.033156	.0203674	1.63	0.104	0068085	.0731205
_Ibornd_1	(dropped)					
Isexd_1	(dropped)					
IborXsex~1	.1211157	1.271076	0.10	0.924	-2.372961	2.615193

. fitint reg agekdbrn bornd sexd agemean educmean mapres80mean, twoway(bornd sexd

_Ibornd_1	(dropped)					
agemean	(dropped)					
IborXagem~1	.0048469	.0568729	0.09	0.932	1067477	.1164415
Ibornd_1	(dropped)					
educmean	(dropped)					
_IborXeduc~1	2922046	.210566	-1.39	0.166	7053724	.1209631
Ibornd_1	(dropped)					
mapres80mean	(dropped)					
_IborXmapr~1	.0046759	.0414082	0.11	0.910	0765743	.0859261
Isexd 1	(dropped)					
_IsexXagem~1	0031427	.0207363	-0.15	0.880	043831	.0375455
Isexd_1	(dropped)					
IsexXeduc~1	.391932	.1146716	3.42	0.001	.1669259	.6169381
Isexd_1	(dropped)					
IsexXmapr~1	0005186	.024932	-0.02	0.983	0494397	.0484024
13 6	0038885	.0038209	-1.02	0.309	0113858	.0036088
14 6	.0004487	.0008266	0.54	0.587	0011732	.0020706
15 6	.0033919	.0044236	0.77	0.443	005288	.0120717
_cons	24.98069	.2579745	96.83	0.000	24.4745	25.48688

Fitting and testing any interactions and any main effects not included in interaction terms using the ratio of the mean square error of each term and the residual mean square error to obtain an F ratio statistic

Model summary

Number of observations used in estimation: 1089

Regression command: regress
Dependent variable: agekdbrn
Residual MSE: 23.30
degrees of freedom: 1073

Term	Mean square	F ratio	df1	df2	P>F
i.bornd*i.sexd i.bornd*agemean i.bornd*educmean	0.21 0.17 44.87	0.01 0.01 1.93	1 1 1	1073 1073 1073	0.9241 0.9321 0.1655
<pre>i.bornd*mapres80mean i.sexd*agemean </pre>	0.30 0.54	0.01	1 1	1073 1073	0.9101 0.8796
<pre>i.sexd*educmean i.sexd*mapres80mean </pre>	272.21 0.01	11.68	1 1	1073 1073	0.0007 0.9834
agemean*educmean agemean*mapres80mean educmean*mapres80mean	24.13 6.87 13.70	1.04 0.29 0.59	1 1 1	1073 1073 1073	0.3091 0.5874 0.4434

It appears that when all twoway interactions are tested simultaneously, the only one that is statistically significant is sex by education. We could also check each two-way interaction separately to make sure we did not miss anything by testing all simultaneously:

. for X in var bornd sexd agemean educmean mapres 80 mean: for Y in var bornd sexd agemean educmean mapres 80 mean: fitint reg agekdbrn bornd sexd agemean educmean mapres 80 mean, twoway (Y X) factor (bornd sexd) [output omitted]

Note that you should always include main effect variables in addition to the interaction, because the interaction term can only be interpreted together with that main effect. Further, if you want to explore three-way interactions, the model should also include all possible two-way interactions in addition to main terms. For example:

[.] gen bornsex=bornd*sexd
(6 missing values generated)

- . gen borneduc=bornd*educmean
- (13 missing values generated)
- . gen educsex=educmean*sexd
- (12 missing values generated)
- . gen educsexborn=educmean*sexd*bornd
- (13 missing values generated)
- . xi: reg agekdbrn bornd sexd agemean educmean mapres80mean bornsex borneduc educsex educsexborn

Source		SS	df		MS		Number of obs F(9, 1079)		
Model Residual		6152.90509 25019.7579			3.656121 .1879128		Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared	=	0.0000 0.1974 0.1907
Total	 	31172.663	1088	28.	.6513447		Root MSE	=	4.8154
agekdbrn		Coef.	Std.	Err.	. t	P> t	[95% Conf.	In	terval]
bornd		1.779615	.9740	461	1.83	0.068	131624	3	.690854
sexd		-2.220267	.3134	215	-7.08	0.000	-2.835252	-1	.605282
agemean		.0594442	.0098	793	6.02	0.000	.0400593		.078829
educmean		.4461687	.0831	105	5.37	0.000	.2830922		6092451
mapres80mean		.0324834	.0118	427	2.74	0.006	.0092461		0557208
bornsex		.0946345	1.204	318	0.08	0.937	-2.268437	2	.457706
borneduc		4745646	.2819	971	-1.68	0.093	-1.027889		0787601
educsex		.3621368	.1124	932	3.22	0.001	.1414065		5828671
educsexborn		.4750623	.3902	632	1.22	0.224	2906985	1	.240823
_cons	1	25.00961	.2479	526	100.86	0.000	24.52309	2	5.49614

But we'll focus on two-way interactions for now, and in order to explore how to interpret them, we'll review 4 examples: (1) an interaction of two dichotomous variables; (2) an interaction of a dummy variable and a continuous variable; (3) an interaction of a set of dummy variables and a continuous variable; (4) an interaction of two continuous variables.

Example 1: Two dichotomous variables

. reg agekdbr: Source		-	s80 age MS		Number of obs F(6, 1082)	
Residual	5764.17997 25408.483	1082 23.4	828863		Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared	= 0.0000 = 0.1849
Total					Root MSE	
agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
•	.6165377 1.358118 -2.251548	.0561537 .9670434 .3152298	10.98 1.40 -7.14	0.000 0.160 0.000	.5063552 5393752 -2.870079	.7267202 3.25561 -1.633017
bornd#sexd 1 1	.4964787	1.201596	0.41	0.680	-1.861244	2.854201
mapres80 age _cons	.0333659 .0584314 12.73045	.0118846 .0099322 .9671152	2.81 5.88 13.16	0.005 0.000 0.000	.0100464 .0389428 10.83281	

The interaction is not statistically significant, but let's suppose it would be. Then we can first interpret the two main effects: the foreign born men have children 1.4 years later than the native born men, and the native born women have children 2.3 years earlier than the native born men.

To interpret the interaction term, we need to focus on one variable as our main variable and the other will be used as a moderator. We can do it both ways.

Nativity status as the main variable:

The effect of being foreign born is 1.4 for men (i.e., the foreign born men have children 1.4 years later than the native born men), but for women, it is 1.4+0.5=1.9 (that is, the foreign born women have children 1.9 years later than the native born women).

Gender as the main variable:

The effect of gender is -2.3 for the native born (i.e., the native born women have children 2.3 years earlier than the native born men), but for the foreign born, it is -2.3 +.5=-1.8 (that is, the foreign born women have children 1.8 years earlier than the foreign born men).

The only time when we would use both main effects and an interaction is when we wanted to compare across gender and nativity status at the same time: that is, the foreign born women have children 0.4 of a year earlier than the native born men: 1.4-2.3+0.5=-0.4

Although it doesn't make sense to examine an interaction of two dummy variables graphically, we can use "adjust" command to help us interpret this interaction:

These are the predicted values of agekdbrn given average values of education, age, and mother's occupational prestige.

Example 2: A dummy variable and a continuous variable

. reg agekdbrn	bornd##c.ed	ucmean s	sexd mapre	s80 age			
Source	SS	df	MS		Number o	of obs =	1089
					F(6,	1082) =	41.17
Model	5793.5421	6 9	965.590349		Prob > E	· =	0.0000
Residual	25379.1209	1082 2	23.4557494		R-square	ed =	0.1859
					Adj R-sc	quared =	0.1813
Total	31172.663	1088 2	28.6513447		Root MSE	=	4.8431
agekdbr		f. Sto	d. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	. Interval]
	+						
1.born			764944		0.003	.585162	2.847509
educmea	n .63524	86 .(058401	10.88	0.000 .	.5206565	.7498407
bornd#c.educmea	n						

1		2323323	.194782	-1.19	0.233	6145255	.1498609
sexd		-2.229199	.3044525	-7.32	0.000	-2.826583	-1.631814
mapres80		.0334778	.0118729	2.82	0.005	.0101813	.0567743
age		.0587405	.0099263	5.92	0.000	.0392636	.0782175
_cons	1	20.93833	.7498733	27.92	0.000	19.46696	22.4097

Again, no significant interaction, but for practice, we'll interpret the results.

Education as the main variable, nativity status as the moderator:

Among the native born individuals, a one year increase in education is associated with a 0.6 of a year increase in the age of having kids. Among the foreign born individuals, a one year increase in education is associated with a (.63-.23)=0.4 of a year increase in the age of having kids.

Nativity status as the main variable, education as the moderator:

Among those with average education (13.4 years), the foreign born have kids 1.7 years later than the native born. Among those with education one unit above average (14.4 years), the foreign born have kids 1.5 years later than the native born (1.7+1*(-0.2)). Among those with education one unit below average (12.4 years), the foreign born have kids 1.9 years later than the native born (1.7 + (-1*(-0.2))). We could also look at those whose education is 4 years below average (9.4 years); for them, the foreign born have kids 2.5 years later than the native born (1.7 + (-4*(-0.2))).

We could estimate this model in a different way to see separately the effects of education in the native born and the foreign born groups; that will also allow us to see if the effect is significant in each of the groups:

```
. gen educfb=educmean*bornd
(13 missing values generated)
. gen educnb=educmean
(12 missing values generated)
. replace educnb=0 if bornd==1
(256 real changes made)
```

. reg agekdbrn Source	bornd educfb	educnb se	xd mapres80 MS	age	Number of obs	
Model Residual 	5793.5421 25379.1209 31172.663	1082 23.	4557494		F(6, 1082) Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared Root MSE	= 0.0000 = 0.1859
agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.		 P> t	[95% Conf.	
bornd educfb educnb sexd mapres80 age _cons	1.716336 .4029163 .6352486 -2.229199 .0334778 .0587405 20.93833	.5764944 .1871522 .058401 .3044525 .0118729 .0099263 .7498733	2.15 10.88 -7.32 2.82 5.92	0.003 0.032 0.000 0.000 0.005 0.000	.585162 .0356939 .5206565 -2.826583 .0101813 .0392636 19.46696	2.847509 .7701387 .7498407 -1.631814 .0567743 .0782175 22.4097

This way we can see that the effect of education is significant in both groups. Finally, we can again examine this interaction graphically.

. adjust sexd mapres80 age if e(sample), gen(pred1)

```
Dependent variable: agekdbrn
                                  Command: regress
       Created variable: pred1
   Variables left as is: bornd, educfb, educnb
Covariates set to mean: sexd = .62442607, mapres80 = 39.440773, age = 46.125805
                    хb
     All I
         23.6648
     Key: xb = Linear Prediction
. twoway (line pred1 educ if bornd==0, sort color(red) legend(label(1 "native born")))
(line pred1 educ if bornd==1, sort color(blue) legend(label(2 "foreign born"))
ytitle("Respondent's Age When 1st Child Was Born"))
  25
  20
                 10
highest year of school completed
                                               20
```

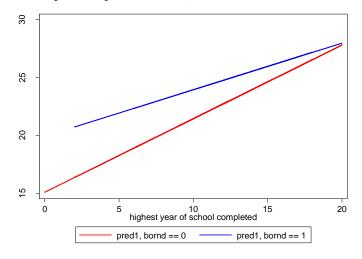
Alternatively, we could split pred1 into two variables (or if needed more): .separate pred1, by (bornd)

foreign born

This would generate two variables, pred10 and pred11, which we can graph:

.line pred10 pred11 educ, lcolor(red blue) sort

native born



Example 3: A set of dummy variables and a continuous variable

. reg agekdbrn bornd marital##c.educmean sexd mapres80 age

Source		SS df	MS			of obs = 1075) = 2	
Model Residual		0.34346 13 32.3195 1075	503.103343 22.9137856		Prob > R-squa	$\begin{array}{ccc} F & = & 0. \\ \text{red} & = & 0. \end{array}$	
Total	311	172.663 1088	28.6513447		Root M	-	7868
ageko	dbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
bo	ornd	1.536577	.5729824	2.68	0.007	.4122865	2.660868
mar							
widor	wed	8946254	.626208	-1.43	0.153	-2.123354	.3341031
divor	ced	9166076	.3889825	-2.36	0.019	-1.679859	1533567
separat	ted	-1.944692	.7095625	-2.74	0.006	-3.336977	5524077
never marr:	ied	-2.55648	.5380556	-4.75	0.000	-3.612238	-1.500722
educr	mean	.6467199	.0727279	8.89	0.000	.504015	.7894247
marital#c.educ	mean						
widor	wed	3294696	.167311	-1.97	0.049	6577629	0011764
divor	ced	.0213546	.151949	0.14	0.888	2767956	.3195049
separat	ted	0935184	.2455722	-0.38	0.703	5753736	.3883368
never marr	ied	527267	.2268917	-2.32	0.020	9724677	0820662
\$	sexd	-2.028997	.3066702	-6.62	0.000	-2.630737	-1.427257
mapre	es80	.0292701		2.48	0.013	.0061121	.0524282
	age	.0435388	.0117499	3.71	0.000	.0204835	.0665942
	cons	22.24782	.8245124	26.98	0.000	20.62999	23.86566

To test whether the set of interactions is jointly significant:

```
. mat list e(b)
```

```
e(b)[1,16]
                                    2.
                       1b.
                                                                  marital
         bornd
                   marital
                              marital
                                          marital
                                                     marital
     1.5365772
                             -.8946254
                                        -.91660762
                                                    -1.9446921
                                                                -2.5564798
                1b.marital#
                            2.marital#
                                        3.marital#
                                                   4.marital# 5.marital#
      educmean co.educmean c.educmean c.educmean
                                                   c.educmean c.educmean
                   0 -.32946962
                                        .02135465
                                                   -.09351841 -.52726698
     .64671988
у1
                  mapres80
          sexd
                                  age
                                             cons
    -2.0289968
                 .02927015
                             .04353882
                                         22.247823
```

. test 2.marital#c.educmean 3.marital#c.educmean 4.marital#c.educmean 5.marital#c.educmean

```
( 1) 2.marital#c.educmean = 0
( 2) 3.marital#c.educmean = 0
( 3) 4.marital#c.educmean = 0
( 4) 5.marital#c.educmean = 0
```

F(4, 1075) = 2.22Prob > F = 0.0653

We cannot reject the null hypothesis, so we conclude that jointly these interaction effects are not statistically significant (they do not add significantly to the amount of variance explained by the

model; although it is possible that with fewer groups, the overall significance test would change). If we were to explore these interaction terms, however, we would want to get the estimates of separate slopes of education by marital status:

. tab marital,	_)			
status	Freq. 				
married	1,269	45.90	45.90		
widowed	247	8.93	54.83		
	445				
separated never married	96	3.47	74.39		
Total	+ 2 , 765				
. for num 1/5: -> gen educma: (12 missing va> gen educma: (12 missing va. (12 missing va.	r1=educmean*m lues generate r2=educmean*m lues generate r3=educmean*m lues generate r4=educmean*m lues generate r5=educmean*m lues generate	ardummy1 d) ardummy2 d) ardummy3 d) ardummy4 d) ardummy5 d)			
	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = F(13, 1075) =	
•				Prob > F =	
Residual	24632.3195	1075 22.91	.37856	R-squared =	
+				Adj R-squared =	0.2003

Model Residual 	24632.3195	13 503.10 1075 22.913 1088 28.653	37856	P: R- Ac	-squared = dj R-squared =	0.0000 0.2098
agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
bornd	1.536577	.5729824	2.68	0.007	.4122865	2.660868
marital widowed divorced separated never married	8946254 9166076 -1.944692 -2.55648		-1.43 -2.36 -2.74 -4.75	0.153 0.019 0.006 0.000	-2.123354 -1.679859 -3.336977 -3.612238	.3341031 1533567 5524077 -1.500722
educmar1 educmar2 educmar3 educmar4 educmar5 sexd mapres80 age _cons	.5532015 .1194529 -2.028997 .0292701 .0435388	.1522423 .1348759 .2360602 .2155296 .3066702 .0118022 .0117499	8.89 2.08 4.95 2.34 0.55 -6.62 2.48 3.71 26.98	0.000 0.037 0.000 0.019 0.580 0.000 0.013 0.000	.504015 .0185245 .4034246 .0900105 3034536 -2.630737 .0061121 .0204835 20.62999	.7894247 .615976 .9327244 1.016392 .5423594 -1.427257 .0524282 .0665942 23.86566

It appears that education has a statistically significant effect on age of parenthood in all groups except for the never married.

Example 4: Two continuous variables

Both variables should be mean centered:

. reg agekdbı			_	sexd mapre		6)	1000	
Source	SS .	df	MS			of obs =		
M - d - 1	+		0.66 000046			1082) =		
Model			966.928846		Prob > E		0.0000	
Residual	25371.089	9 1082	23.4483271		R-square		0.1861	
	+					1	0.1816	
Total	31172.66	3 1088 	28.6513447 		Root MSE	E =	4.8423	
aq	gekdbrn 	Coef.	Std. Err	. t	P> t	[95% C	onf. Interva	al]
	bornd	1.679599	.5755567	2.92	0.004	.55026	51 2.8089	932
ec	ducmean	.6362385	.0581443	10.94	0.000	.52215	03 .75032	268
ć	agemean	.054804	.0102529	5.35	0.000	.03468	62 .07492	219
c.educmean#c.a	agemean - 	.0045353	.0034131	-1.33	0.184	01123	24 .00216	518
	sexd -	2.232587	.3044578	-7.33	0.000	-2.8299	82 -1.6351	193
ma	apres80	.0335181	.0118711	2.82	0.005	.0102	25 .05681	111
	_cons	23.64786	.52946	44.66	0.000	22.608	97 24.686	574

The interaction term is not significant. But if it were, to interpret it, we would pick one variable that's primary and the other one will serve as the moderator variable. E.g. if education is primary: For agemean=0 (age at its mean, 46 y.o.), the effect of education is educated coefficient, .6362385

For agemean=20 (age is at mean+20, i.e. 66 y.o.), the effect of education is

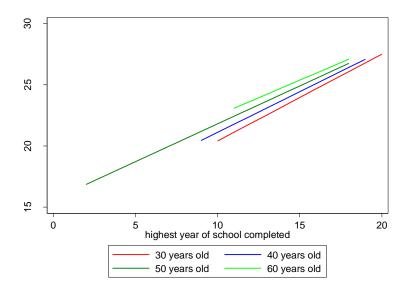
- . di .6362385 + 20*-.0045353
- .5455325

For agemean=-20 (age=26 y.o.), the effect of education is

- . di .6362385 20*-.0045353
- .7269445

We can do the same thing graphically -- focus on one of the continuous variables and then graph it at various levels of the other one. E.g., we'll see how the effect of education varies by age:

- . gen educage=educmean*agemean
 (24 missing values generated)
- . qui reg agekdbrn bornd educmean agemean eudcage sexd mapres80
- . qui adjust bornd sexd mapres80 if e(sample), gen(pred2)
- . twoway (line pred2 educ if age==30, sort color(red) legend(label(1 "30 years old"))) (line pred2 educ if age==40, sort color(blue) legend(label(2 "40 years old"))) (line pred2 educ if age==50, sort color(green) legend(label(3 "50 years old"))) (line pred2 educ if age==60, sort color(lime) legend(label(4 "60 years old")) ytitle("Respondent's Age When 1st Child Was Born"))



Here we can see that the higher one's age, the later they had their first child, but the effect of education becomes a little bit smaller with age (e.g. with age, the intercept becomes larger but the slope of education becomes smaller). We could have done it other way around – graph how agekdbrn is related to age for educational levels of, say, educ=10, 12, 14, 16, and 20. There is also a user-written command that allows to automatically generate such a graph for three values – mean, mean+sd, mean-sd:

```
. net search sslope
Click on: sslope from http://fmwww.bc.edu/RePEc/bocode/s
. sslope agekdbrn bornd educmean sexd mapres80 agemean educage, i(educmean agemean
educage) graph
                      SS
                                df
                                                              Number of obs =
     Source |
                                          MS
                                                            F(6, 1082) =
                                                                                 41.24
                                                                           = 0.0000
      Model | 5801.57308 6 966.928846
                                                            Prob > F
    Residual | 25371.0899 1082 23.4483271
                                                                             = 0.1861
                                                            R-squared
  -----
                                                             Adj R-squared = 0.1816
       Total | 31172.663 1088 28.6513447
                                                             Root MSE
                                                                             = 4.8423
______
    agekdbrn | Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| [95% Conf. Interval]

    bornd |
    1.679599
    .5755567
    2.92
    0.004
    .5502651
    2.808932

    ucmean |
    .6362385
    .0581443
    10.94
    0.000
    .5221503
    .7503268

    sexd |
    -2.232587
    .3044578
    -7.33
    0.000
    -2.829982
    -1.635193

    pres80 |
    .0335181
    .0118711
    2.82
    0.005
    .010225
    .0568111

    gemean |
    .054804
    .0102529
    5.35
    0.000
    .0346862
    .0749219

    educmean | .6362385 .0581443

sexd | -2.232587 .3044578

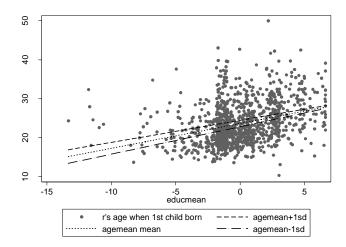
mapres80 | .0335181 .0118711

agemean | .054804 .0102529

educage | -.0045353 .0034131
                                            -1.33
                                                    0.184
                                                               -.0112324
                                                                               .0021618
      cons | 23.64786 .52946 44.66 0.000
                                                              22.60897
                                                                               24.68674
       Simple slope of agekdbrn on educmean at agemean +/- 1sd
 _____
    agemean | Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t|
______
      High | .5678996 .066709 8.51 0.000

Mean | .6362385 .0581443 10.94 0.000

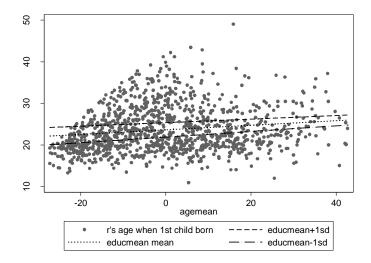
Low | .7045775 .0871861 8.08 0.000
```



Note that this gives us significance tests for the slope estimates at three levels of the moderator variable. If we reverse how we list the two main effect variables in the i() option of this command, we get:

. sslope agekdbrn bornd educmean sexd mapres 80 agemean educage, i(agemean) educmean educage) graph

Simpl	e slope of age	ekdbrn on ageme	ean at ec	lucmean	+/- 1sd
educmean	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	
High Mean		.0154784	2.74 5.35	0.006	
Low	.0671357	.0119546	5.62	0.000	



Finally, let's consider a more complicated case when we have a curvilinear relationship of age with agekdbrn and an interaction between age and education; we will right away create interaction terms to be able to use adjust command for graphs:

```
. gen agemean2=agemean^2
```

⁽¹⁴ missing values generated)

[.] gen agemean3=agemean^3

⁽¹⁴ missing values generated)

[.] gen educage2=educmean*agemean2

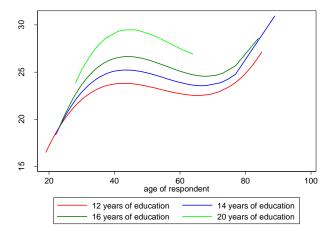
⁽²⁴ missing values generated)

- . gen educage3=educmean*agemean3
 (24 missing values generated)
- . reg agekdbrn bornd sexd mapres80 educmean agemean agemean2 agemean3 educage educage2 educage3

Model 7731.43912 10 773.143912 Prob > F = 0.0000	educage3 Sourc	:e	SS	df		MS		Number of obs		
Total 31172.663								Prob > F R-squared	=	0.0000
bornd 1.278985	Tota	1	31172.663	1088	28.6	513447		-		
sexd -2.113086 .2941837 -7.18 0.000 -2.690323 -1.535848 mapres80 .0355671 .0114369 3.11 0.002 .0131259 .0580082 educmean .7185734 .0759774 9.46 0.000 .569493 .8676538 agemean 0445573 .0182216 -2.45 0.015 080311 0088036 agemean2 0064784 .0007326 -8.84 0.000 0079158 005041 agemean3 .0002514 .0000327 7.69 0.000 .0001873 .0003155 educage 0001007 .005545 -0.02 0.986 010981 .0107796 educage2 0008988 .0003225 -2.79 0.005 0015315 0002661 educage3 .0000198 9.75e-06 2.03 0.042 6.87e-07 .000039	agekdbr	n	Coef.	Std.	Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	In	terval]
	sex mapres8 educmea agemea agemean agemean educage educage	d 10 10 10 11 12 13 14 15 15 15 15 15 15 15	-2.113086 .0355671 .7185734 0445573 0064784 .0002514 0001007 0008988 .0000198	.2941 .0114 .0759 .0182 .0007 .0000 .005	837 369 774 216 326 327 545 225 -06	-7.18 3.11 9.46 -2.45 -8.84 7.69 -0.02 -2.79 2.03	0.000 0.002 0.000 0.015 0.000 0.000 0.986 0.005 0.042	-2.690323 .0131259 .569493 080311 0079158 .0001873 010981 0015315 6.87e-07	-1 .: : :	.535848 0580082 8676538 0088036 .005041 0003155 0107796 0002661 .000039

Indeed, significant interactions with the squared term and the cubed term.

- . qui adjust bornd sexd mapres80 if e(sample), gen(pred3)
- . twoway (line pred3 age if educ==12, sort color(red) legend(label(1 "12 years of education"))) (line pred3 age if educ==14, sort color(blue) legend(label(2 "14 years of education"))) (line pred3 age if educ==16, sort color(green) legend(label(3 "16 years of education"))) (line pred3 age if educ==20, sort color(lime) legend(label(4 "20 years of education")) ytitle("Respondent's Age When 1st Child Was Born"))



5. Multicollinearity

Our real life concern about the multicollinearity is that independent variables are highly (but not perfectly) correlated. Need to distinguish from perfect multicollinearity -- two or more independent variables are linearly related – in practice, this usually happens only if we make a mistake in including the variables; Stata will resolve this by omitting one of those variables and will tell you it did it. It can also happen when the number of variables exceeds the number of observations.

Perfect multicollinearity violates regression assumptions -- no unique solution for regression coefficients.

High, but not perfect, multicollinearity is what we most commonly deal with. High multicollinearity does not explicitly violate the regression assumptions - it is not a problem if we use regression only for prediction (and therefore are only interested in predicted values of Y our model generates). But it is a problem when we want to use regression for explanation (which is typically the case in social sciences) – in this case, we are interested in values and significance levels of regression coefficients. High degree of multicollinearity results in imprecise estimates of the unique effects of independent variables.

First, we can inspect the correlations among the variables; it allows us to see whether there are any high correlations, but does not provide a direct indication of multicollinearity:

Variance Inflation Factors are a better tool to diagnose multicollinearity problems. These indicate how much the variance of a given coefficient estimate increases because of correlations of a certain variable with the other variables in the model. E.g. VIF of 4 means that the variance is 4 times higher than it could be, and the standard error is twice as high as it could be.

	2 2		sex mapr			Number of obs	
_	Model	4954.03533 26251.1232		.172305		F(4, 1086) Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared	= 0.0000 = 0.1588
_	Total	31205.1586				Root MSE	
_	agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
	born sex mapres80	1.360161 -2.37973 .0243138	.5816506 .3075642 .0119552	2.34 -7.74 2.03	0.020 0.000 0.042	.5005426 .218875 -2.983218 .0008558 14.79748	2.501447 -1.776243 .0477718
•	vif Variable	VIF	1/VIF				
_	educ	1.08 1.08 1.00 1.00	0.926562 0.998366				
	Mean VIF	1.04					

Different researchers advocate for different cutoff points for VIF. Some say that if any one of VIF values is larger than 4, there are some multicollinearity problems associated with that variable.

Others use cutoffs of 5 or even 10. In the example above, there are no problems with multicollinearity regardless of the cutoff we pick.

In addition, the following symptoms may indicate a multicollinearity problem:

- large changes in coefficients when adding or deleting variables
- non-significant coefficients for variables that you know are theoretically important
- coefficients with signs opposite of those you expected based on theory or previous results
- large standard errors in comparison to the coefficient size
- two (or more) large coefficients with opposite signs, possibly non-significant
- all or most coefficients are not significant even though the F-test indicates the entire regression model is significant

Solutions for multicollinearity problems:

1. See if you could create a meaningful scale from the variables that are highly correlated, and use that scale instead of the individual variables (i.e. several variables are reconceptualized as indicators of one underlying construct).

```
. sum mapres80 papres80 Variable | Obs Mean Std. Dev. Min Max

mapres80 | 1619 40.96912 13.63189 17 86
papres80 | 2165 43.47206 12.40479 17 86
```

The variables have the same scales so we can add them:

```
. gen prestige=mapres80+papres80
(1519 missing values generated)
```

If the scales were different, we would first standardize each of them:

- . egen papres80std = std(papres80)
 (600 missing values generated)
 . egen mapres80std = std(mapres80)
 (1146 missing values generated)
- . sum mapres80std papres80std

Variable		Obs	Mean	Std.	Dev.	Min	Max
mapres80std papres80std		1619 2165	4.12e-09 -8.26e-11			-1.758312 -2.134019	

- . gen prestige2=mapres80std+papres80std
 (1519 missing values generated)
- . pwcorr prestige prestige2

We can now use prestige variable in subsequent OLS regressions. We might want to report a Chronbach's alpha – it indicates the reliability of the scale. It varies between 0 and 1, with 1 being perfect. Typically, alphas above .7 are considered acceptable, although some argue that those above .5 are ok.

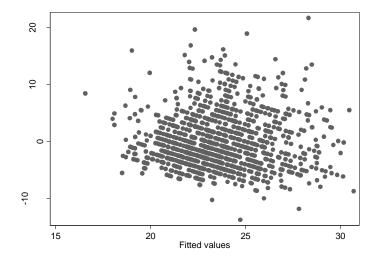
```
. alpha mapres80 papres80
Test scale = mean(unstandardized items)
Average interitem covariance: 56.39064
Number of items in the scale: 2
Scale reliability coefficient: 0.5036
```

- 2. Consider if all variables are necessary. Try to primarily use theoretical considerations -- automated procedures such as backward or forward stepwise regression methods (available via "sw regress" command) are potentially misleading; they capitalize on minor differences among regressors and do not result in an optimal set of regressors. If not too many variables, examine all possible subsets.
- 3. If using highly correlated variables is absolutely necessary for correct model specification, you can use biased estimates. The idea here is that we add a small amount of bias but increase the efficiency of the estimates for those highly correlated variables. The most common method of this type is ridge regression (see http://members.iquest.net/~softrx/ for the Stata module).

6. Heteroscedasticity

The problem of heteroscedasticity commonly refers to non-constant error variance (that's opposite of homoscedasticity). We can examine this graphically as well as using formal tests. First, let's see if error variance changes across fitted values of our dependent variable:

```
. qui reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 age .rvfplot
```



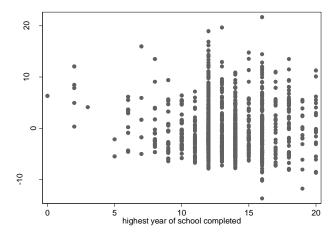
Can examine the same using a formal test:

. hettest
Breusch-Pagan / Cook-Weisberg test for heteroskedasticity
 Ho: Constant variance
 Variables: fitted values of agekdbrn
 chi2(1) = 21.44
 Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

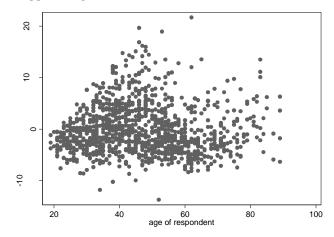
Since p<.05, we reject the null hypothesis of constant variance - the errors are heteroscedastic. Both the graph and the test indicate that the error variance is nonconsant (note the megaphone pattern).

Now let's search if there is any systematic relationship between error variance and individual regressors. First, graphical examination:

. rvpplot educ

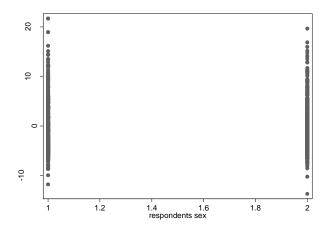


.rvpplot age



We can see the heteroscedasticity in both graphs, but it is much more severe for age. For a dummy variable, it is more difficult to examine it graphically:

. rvpplot sex



Now, let's use a formal test to examine the patterns of error variance across individual regressors:

. hettest, rhs mtest

 ${\tt Breusch-Pagan} \ / \ {\tt Cook-Weisberg} \ {\tt test} \ {\tt for} \ {\tt heteroskedasticity}$

Ho: Constant variance

Variable		chi2	df	р
educ born sex mapres80 age	 	5.87 0.00 9.19 1.45 10.26	1 1 1 1 1	0.0154 # 0.9810 # 0.0024 # 0.2279 # 0.0014 #
simultaneous		25.78	5 	0.0001

unadjusted p-values

It looks like a number of regressors are responsible for our problems.

Remedies:

1. Transformations might help – it is especially important to consider the distribution of the dependent variable. As we discussed above, it is typically desirable, and can help avoid heteroscedasticity as well as non-normality problems, if the dependent variable is normally distributed. Let's examine whether the transformation we identified – reciprocal square root – would solve our heteroscedasticity problem.

```
. gen agekdbrnrr=1/(sqrt(agekdbrn))
(810 missing values generated)
```

. reg agekdbı	rnrr educ born	sex ma	apres80 age	<u> </u>			
Source	l SS	df	MS		Number of obs	=	1089
	+			-	F(6, 1082)	=	48.07
Model	.11381105	6	.018968508	}	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual	.426934693	1082	.000394579)	R-squared	=	0.2105
	+			=	Adj R-squared	=	0.2061
Total	.540745743	1088	.000497009)	Root MSE	=	.01986
agekdbrnrr	 Coef.				[95% Conf.	In	terval]
educ born sex	0024213 0070982 .0095887	.00023	353 -10.2 638 -3.0	0.000	0028829 0117363 .0071349		0019597 0024602 0120425

```
      mapres80 | -.0001494
      .0000487
      -3.07
      0.002
      -.000245
      -.0000539

      agemean | -.0003115
      .0000434
      -7.18
      0.000
      -.0003967
      -.0002264

      agemean2 | 8.86e-06
      2.29e-06
      3.87
      0.000
      4.37e-06
      .0000134

      _cons | .2373519
      .0046505
      51.04
      0.000
      .228227
      .2464769
```

. hettest

Breusch-Pagan / Cook-Weisberg test for heteroskedasticity Ho: Constant variance Variables: fitted values of agekdbrnrr

 $\begin{array}{rcl} \text{chi2}(1) & = & 0.35 \\ \text{Prob} > \text{chi2} & = & 0.5566 \\ \text{. hettest, rhs mtest} \end{array}$

Breusch-Pagan / Cook-Weisberg test for heteroskedasticity
Ho: Constant variance

Variable		chi2	df	р
educ born sex mapres80 age	 	0.63 0.26 0.29 0.73 1.71	1 1 1 1 1	0.4262 # 0.6111 # 0.5932 # 0.3939 # 0.1911 #
simultaneous		3.06	5 	0.6900

unadjusted p-values

The heteroscedasticity problem has been solved. As I mentioned earlier, however, it is important to check that we did not introduce any nonlinearities by this transformation, and overall, transformations should be used sparsely - always consider ease of model interpretation as well. Also, sometimes when searching for a transformation to remedy heteroscedasticity, Box-Cox transformations can be very helpful, including the "transform both sides" (TBS) approach (see boxcox command).

- 2. Sometimes, dealing with outliers, influential observations, and nonlinearities might also help resolve heteroscedasticity problems. That is why I recommend testing with heteroscedasticity only after you've dealt with other problem.
- 3. Heteroscedasticity can also be a sign that some important factor is omitted, so you might want to rethink your model specification.
- 4. If nothing else works, we can obtain robust variance estimates using robust option in regress command (note that this is different from robust regression estimated by rreg!). These variance estimates do not rely on distributional assumptions and are therefore not sensitive to heteroscedasticity:

agekdbrn	 Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
educ	.6158833	.0640298	9.62	0.000	.4902467	.7415199
born	1.679078	.5756992	2.92	0.004	.5494661	2.80869
sex	-2.217823	.3143631	-7.05	0.000	-2.834653	-1.600993
mapres80	.0331945	.0122934	2.70	0.007	.009073	.0573161
age	.0582643	.0088246	6.60	0.000	.0409491	.0755795
_cons	13.27142	1.239779	10.70	0.000	10.83877	15.70406