

Sociology 704: Topics in Multivariate Statistics

Instructor: Natasha Sarkisian

OLS Regression in Stata

To run an OLS regression:

```
. reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	4954.03533	4	1238.50883	Number of obs =	1091	
Residual	26251.1232	1086	24.172305	F(4, 1086) =	51.24	
				Prob > F =	0.0000	
				R-squared =	0.1588	
				Adj R-squared =	0.1557	
Total	31205.1586	1090	28.6285858	Root MSE =	4.9165	

agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
educ	.6122718	.0569422	10.75	0.000	.5005426	.724001
born	1.360161	.5816506	2.34	0.020	.218875	2.501447
sex	-2.37973	.3075642	-7.74	0.000	-2.983218	-1.776243
mapres80	.0243138	.0119552	2.03	0.042	.0008558	.0477718
_cons	16.95808	1.101139	15.40	0.000	14.79748	19.11868

Note that regression coefficients are partial slope coefficients; they indicate the change in the expected value of the dependent variable associated with one unit increase in the independent variable, when all other independent variables are held constant. These coefficients can potentially have two types of interpretation: cross-sectional and over time. Strictly speaking, all analyses we will do in this course are based on cross-sectional data.

To interpret the results, let's see how born and sex are coded:

```
. codebook born sex
```

```
born                                was r born in this country
```

```

      type: numeric (byte)
      label: born

      range: [1,2]
unique values: 2                                units: 1
                                                missing : 6/2765
```

```

tabulation:  Freq.   Numeric  Label
              2503         1  yes
              256         2  no
              6           .
```

```
sex                                respondents sex
```

```

      type: numeric (byte)
      label: sex

      range: [1,2]
unique values: 2                                units: 1
                                                missing : 0/2765
```

```

tabulation:  Freq.   Numeric  Label
              1228         1  male
              1537         2  female
```

To get standardized regression coefficients, we can use beta option:

```
. reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80, beta
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 1091	
Model	4954.03533	4	1238.50883	F(4, 1086) =	51.24
Residual	26251.1232	1086	24.172305	Prob > F =	0.0000
-----				R-squared =	0.1588
Total	31205.1586	1090	28.6285858	Adj R-squared =	0.1557
-----				Root MSE =	4.9165

agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	Beta
educ	.6122718	.0569422	10.75	0.000	.3108984
born	1.360161	.5816506	2.34	0.020	.0651372
sex	-2.37973	.3075642	-7.74	0.000	-.2154051
mapres80	.0243138	.0119552	2.03	0.042	.0588174
_cons	16.95808	1.101139	15.40	0.000	.

These coefficients indicate the number of standard deviations that agekdbrn increases per each one standard deviation increase in an independent variable.

In order to get your regression output to look nice, you can use estimates table. For example, for our regression model, we can run:

```
. est table, star b(%8.3f) label stats(N) varwidth(40)
```

Variable	active
highest year of school completed	0.612***
was r born in this country	1.360*
respondents sex	-2.380***
mothers occupational prestige sc	0.024*
Constant	16.958***

N	1091.000
---	----------

legend: * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001

This way you don't need to retype anything - it's closer to the journal format table. To find out more details and options, see help est_table.

Note on missing data - Stata estimation commands (e.g. regress, logit etc) automatically drop from the analysis all cases that miss data points on at least one of the variables used in the analyses (this is called listwise deletion). This can be very problematic when there is a lot of missing data and when the patterns of missing data are systematic (which is often the case).

If you are using nominal variables with more than just 2 categories or ordinal independent variables, you should not enter these variables in the model the same way you would use a continuous variable. For a nominal variable, that will result in nonsensical coefficients, because the categories are not really placed in any order so one unit increase is meaningless. For an ordinal variable, it's a stretch to use it in that fashion, because we assume equal distances among all categories. Before assuming that, we should test that assumption by introducing categories as separate variables. Here's how that's done in Stata.

```
. codebook marital
```

```
-----
marital                                                    marital status
-----
```

```
type: numeric (byte)
      label: marital
```

```
      range: [1,5]
unique values: 5
units: 1
missing .: 0/2765
```

```
tabulation: Freq.  Numeric  Label
             1269      1  married
             247      2  widowed
             445      3  divorced
              96      4  separated
             708      5  never married
```

```
. xi: reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 i.marital
```

```
i.marital      _Imarital_1-5      (naturally coded; _Imarital_1 omitted)
-----+-----
Source |      SS      df      MS      Number of obs = 1091
-----+-----
Model | 5991.99195      8  748.998994      F( 8, 1082) = 32.14
Residual | 25213.1666  1082  23.3023721      Prob > F = 0.0000
-----+-----
Total | 31205.1586  1090  28.6285858      R-squared = 0.1920
                                           Adj R-squared = 0.1860
                                           Root MSE = 4.8273
```

```
-----+-----
agekdbrn |      Coef.      Std. Err.      t      P>|t|      [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
educ |      .5662673      .0570585      9.92      0.000      .4543094      .6782251
born |      1.317066      .5740325      2.29      0.022      .1907232      2.443409
sex |     -2.187909      .306421      -7.14      0.000     -2.789156     -1.586662
mapres80 |      .0232956      .0117729      1.98      0.048      .0001953      .0463958
_Imarital_2 |      .331999      .5584542      0.59      0.552     -.7637768      1.427775
_Imarital_3 |     -.8996868      .3914891     -2.30      0.022     -1.667851     -.1315229
_Imarital_4 |     -2.101723      .7018116     -2.99      0.003     -3.478789     -.7246572
_Imarital_5 |     -2.76481      .4698441     -5.88      0.000     -3.686719     -1.842901
_cons |     17.93003      1.111328     16.13      0.000     15.74943     20.11063
-----+-----
```

```
Alternatively:
```

```
. tab marital, gen(marital)
```

```
marital
status |      Freq.      Percent      Cum.
-----+-----
married |      1,269      45.90      45.90
widowed |      247      8.93      54.83
divorced |      445      16.09      70.92
separated |      96      3.47      74.39
never married |      708      25.61      100.00
-----+-----
Total |      2,765      100.00
```

```
. des marital*
```

```
storage display value
variable name type format label variable label
-----
```

```

marital      byte   %8.0g      marital      marital status
marital1    byte   %8.0g      marital==married
marital2    byte   %8.0g      marital==widowed
marital3    byte   %8.0g      marital==divorced
marital4    byte   %8.0g      marital==separated
marital5    byte   %8.0g      marital==never married

```

```

. reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 marital2 marital3 marital4 marital5
-----+-----
Source |           SS          df           MS      Number of obs =   1091
-----+-----
Model  |   5991.99195         8   748.998994      F( 8, 1082) =   32.14
Residual |  25213.1666     1082   23.3023721      Prob > F      =   0.0000
-----+-----
Total  |  31205.1586     1090   28.6285858      R-squared     =   0.1920
                                           Adj R-squared =   0.1860
                                           Root MSE     =   4.8273
-----+-----
agekdbrn |           Coef.      Std. Err.      t    P>|t|      [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
educ     |   .5662673         .0570585      9.92  0.000      .4543094      .6782251
born     |   1.317066         .5740325      2.29  0.022      .1907232      2.443409
sex      |  -2.187909         .306421      -7.14  0.000     -2.789156     -1.586662
mapres80 |   .0232956         .0117729      1.98  0.048      .0001953      .0463958
marital2 |   .331999          .5584542      0.59  0.552     -.7637768      1.427775
marital3 |  -.8996868         .3914891     -2.30  0.022     -1.667851     -.1315229
marital4 |  -2.101723         .7018116     -2.99  0.003     -3.478789     -.7246572
marital5 |  -2.76481          .4698441     -5.88  0.000     -3.686719     -1.842901
_cons    |  17.93003          1.111328     16.13  0.000     15.74943      20.11063
-----+-----

```

*For an ordinal variable, this allows us to evaluate whether each one unit increase produces the same change in the dependent variable:

```
. codebook degree
```

```
-----+-----
degree                                     rs highest degree
-----+-----
```

```

type: numeric (byte)
label: degree

range: [0,4]          units: 1
unique values: 5      missing .: 5/2765

```

```

tabulation:  Freq.   Numeric  Label
              400       0    lt high school
              1485       1    high school
              202       2    junior college
              443       3    bachelor
              230       4    graduate
              5         .

```

```

. xi: reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 i.degree
i.degree      _Idegree_0-4      (naturally coded; _Idegree_0 omitted)
-----+-----
Source |           SS          df           MS      Number of obs =   1091
-----+-----
Model  |   6111.91384         8   763.98923      F( 8, 1082) =   32.94
Residual |  25093.2447     1082   23.1915386      Prob > F      =   0.0000
-----+-----
Total  |  31205.1586     1090   28.6285858      R-squared     =   0.1959
                                           Adj R-squared =   0.1899
                                           Root MSE     =   4.8158
-----+-----

```

agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
educ	.0506574	.1089486	0.46	0.642	-.163117	.2644317
born	1.267439	.570358	2.22	0.026	.1483064	2.386572
sex	-2.192157	.3025278	-7.25	0.000	-2.785764	-1.598549
mapres80	.0225168	.0118318	1.90	0.057	-.0006991	.0457326
_Idegree_1	1.934153	.6048514	3.20	0.001	.7473387	3.120968
_Idegree_2	2.201938	.8713455	2.53	0.012	.4922196	3.911656
_Idegree_3	4.446438	.9701565	4.58	0.000	2.542837	6.350039
_Idegree_4	7.624749	1.215111	6.27	0.000	5.240509	10.00899
_cons	21.78773	1.329524	16.39	0.000	19.17899	24.39647

The increases are 1.93, 0.27, 2.24, 3.18, i.e. unequal, so it is not appropriate to use this variable as if it were continuous - have to use a set of dummies like we just did.

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. 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:

```
. corr educ born sex mapres80
(obs=1615)
```

	educ	born	sex	mapres80
educ	1.0000			
born	0.0182	1.0000		
sex	0.0066	0.0205	1.0000	
mapres80	0.2861	0.0169	-0.0423	1.0000

Next, we can evaluate the matrix of correlations among the regression coefficients, it allows us to see whether there are any high correlations, but does not provide a direct indication of multicollinearity:

```
. reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	1091
Model	4954.03533	4	1238.50883	F(4, 1086) =	51.24
Residual	26251.1232	1086	24.172305	Prob > F =	0.0000
				R-squared =	0.1588
				Adj R-squared =	0.1557
Total	31205.1586	1090	28.6285858	Root MSE =	4.9165

agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
educ	.6122718	.0569422	10.75	0.000	.5005426 .724001
born	1.360161	.5816506	2.34	0.020	.218875 2.501447
sex	-2.37973	.3075642	-7.74	0.000	-2.983218 -1.776243
mapres80	.0243138	.0119552	2.03	0.042	.0008558 .0477718
_cons	16.95808	1.101139	15.40	0.000	14.79748 19.11868

```
. corr educ born sex mapres80, _coef
      |      educ      born      sex mapres80      _cons
-----+-----
      educ |      1.0000
      born |     -0.0125      1.0000
      sex  |     -0.0184     -0.0134      1.0000
 mapres80 |     -0.2696     -0.0312      0.0014      1.0000
      _cons |     -0.5578     -0.5375     -0.4342     -0.2256      1.0000
```

*Variance Inflation Factors are a better tool to diagnose multicollinearity problems. These indicate how much the variance of 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.

```
. vif
      Variable |      VIF      1/VIF
-----+-----
 mapres80 |      1.08      0.926124
      educ |      1.08      0.926562
      born |      1.00      0.998366
      sex  |      1.00      0.999456
-----+-----
 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.

*Solutions to consider when your model has a high degree of multicollinearity:

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). Some useful commands in Stata here include factor, which provides a factor analysis of the selected variables:

```
. corr mapres80 papres80
(obs=1246)
      | mapres80 papres80
-----+-----
 mapres80 |      1.0000
 papres80 |      0.3245      1.0000
```

```
. factor mapres80 papres80
(obs=1246)
      (principal factors; 1 factor retained)
      Factor      Eigenvalue      Difference      Proportion      Cumulative
-----+-----
      1          0.42981          0.64901          2.0408          2.0408
      2          -0.21920          .              -1.0408          1.0000

      Factor Loadings
      Variable |      1      Uniqueness
-----+-----
```

```

mapres80 | 0.46358 0.78510
papres80 | 0.46358 0.78510

```

```

. predict prestige
(regression scoring assumed)
Scoring coefficients (method = regression)

```

```

-----+-----
Variable | Factor1
-----+-----
mapres80 | 0.35000
papres80 | 0.35000
-----+-----

```

```

. sum prestige
Variable | Obs Mean Std. Dev. Min Max
-----+-----
prestige | 1246 -2.63e-10 .569652 -1.168373 1.99678

```

*We can now use prestige variable in subsequent OLS regressions. We might want to report 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).

2. Normality

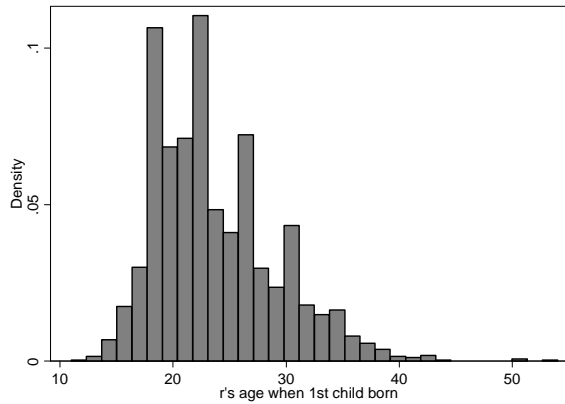
A. Examining Univariate Normality

Normality of each of the variables used in your model is not required, but it can often help us prevent further problems (especially heteroscedasticity and multivariate normality violations). Normality of the dependent variable is especially influential. We can examine the distribution graphically:

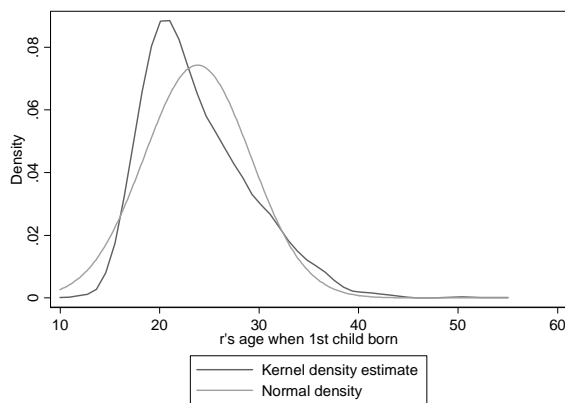
```

. histogram agekdbrn, normal
(bin=34, start=18, width=2.0882353)

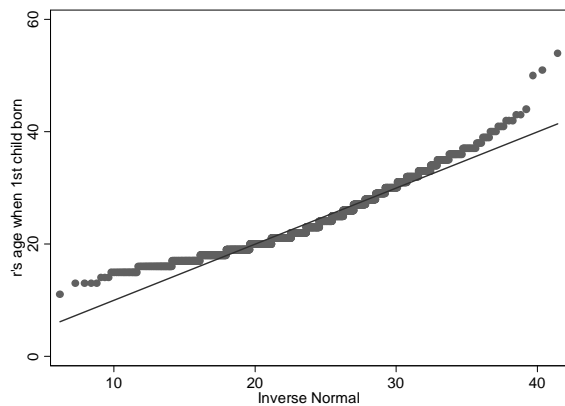
```

```
. kdensity age, normal
```

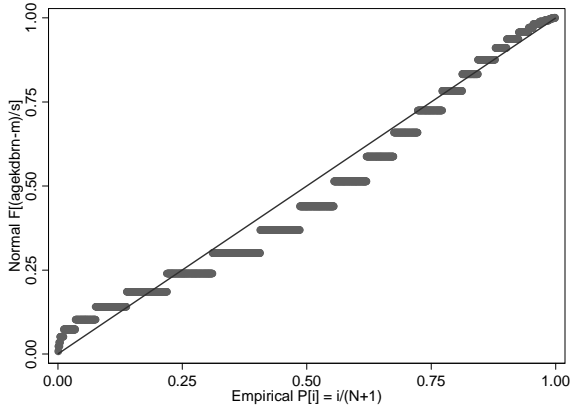


```
. qnorm agekdbrn
```



This is a quantile-normal (Q-Q) plot. It plots the quantiles of a variable against the quantiles of a normal distribution. In a perfectly normal distribution, all observations would be on the line, so the closer they are to being on the line, the closer the distribution is to being normal. Any large deviations from the straight line indicate problems with normality. Note: this plot has nothing to do with linearity!

```
. pnorm agekdbrn
```



This is a standardized normal probability (P-P) plot, it is more sensitive to non-normality in the middle range of data, while qnorm is sensitive to non-normality near the tails.

We can also formally evaluate the distribution of a variable -- i.e., test the hypothesis of normality (with separate tests for skewness and kurtosis) using skstest:

```
. skstest age
```

Skewness/Kurtosis tests for Normality				
Variable	Pr(Skewness)	Pr(Kurtosis)	adj chi2(2)	joint Prob>chi2
age	0.000	0.000	.	0.0000

Here, the dot instead of chi-square value indicates that it's a very large number. This test is very sensitive to sample size, however - with large sample sizes, even small deviations from normality can be identified as statistically significant. But in this case, the graphs also confirmed this conclusion. Next, we'll consider transformations to bring this variable closer to normal.

To search for transformations, we can use ladder command:

```
. ladder agekdbrn
```

Transformation	formula	chi2(2)	P(chi2)
cubic	agekdbrn^3	.	0.000
square	agekdbrn^2	.	0.000
raw	agekdbrn	.	0.000
square-root	sqrt(agekdbrn)	.	0.000
log	log(agekdbrn)	32.49	0.000
reciprocal root	1/sqrt(agekdbrn)	8.57	0.014
reciprocal	1/agekdbrn	14.84	0.001
reciprocal square	1/(agekdbrn^2)	.	0.000
reciprocal cubic	1/(agekdbrn^3)	.	0.000

Ladder allows you to search for normalizing transformation - the larger the P value, the closer to normal. Typically, square roots, log, and inverse (1/x) transformations normalize right (positive) skew. Inverse (reciprocal) transforms are "stronger" than logarithmic, which are "stronger" than square roots. For negative skews, we can use square or cubic transformation.

In this output, again, dots instead of chi2 indicate very large numbers. If there is a dot instead of P as well, it means that this specific transformation is not possible because of zeros or negative values. If zeros or negative values preclude a transformation that you think might help, the typical practice is to first add a constant that would get rid of such values (e.g., if you only have zeros but no negative values, you can add 1), and then perform a transformation. In this case, it appears that 1/square root brings the distribution closer to normal.

Note that just as `sktest`, in large samples the ladder command tests are rather sensitive to non-normalities - often it can be useful to take a random subsample and run ladder command on them to identify the best transformation.

```
. ladder age
```

Transformation	formula	chi2(2)	P(chi2)
cubic	age^3	.	0.000
square	age^2	.	0.000
raw	age	.	0.000
square-root	sqrt(age)	.	0.000
log	log(age)	.	0.000
reciprocal root	1/sqrt(age)	.	0.000
reciprocal	1/age	.	0.000
reciprocal square	1/(age^2)	.	0.000
reciprocal cubic	1/(age^3)	.	0.000

It's not normal and none of the transformations seem to help. We can use `sample` command to take a 5% random sample from the data. We first "preserve" the dataset so that we can bring the rest of observations back after we are done with ladder, and then sample:

```
. preserve
. sample 5
(2627 observations deleted)
. ladder age
```

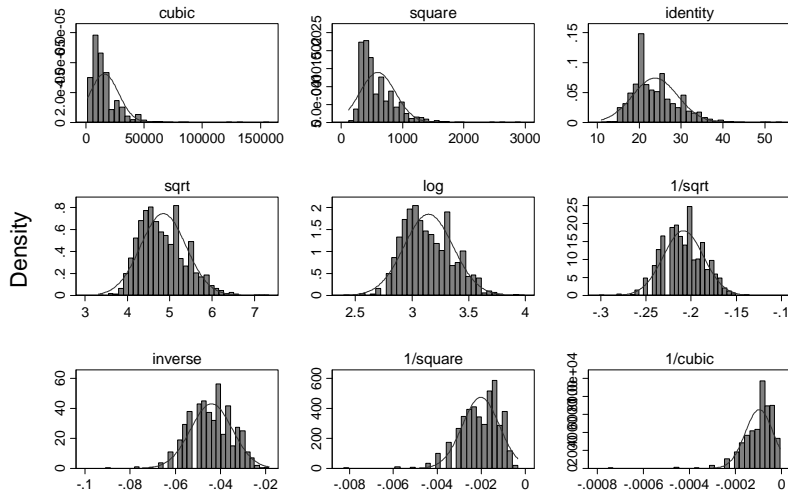
Transformation	formula	chi2(2)	P(chi2)
cubic	age^3	40.17	0.000
square	age^2	25.53	0.000
raw	age	10.53	0.005
square-root	sqrt(age)	6.81	0.033
log	log(age)	5.99	0.050
reciprocal root	1/sqrt(age)	4.78	0.091
reciprocal	1/age	8.23	0.016
reciprocal square	1/(age^2)	32.80	0.000
reciprocal cubic	1/(age^3)	63.69	0.000

Note that now it's much more clear which transformations bring this variable the closest to normal.

```
. restore
```

Restore command restores our original dataset (as it was when we ran `preserve`). Let's examine transformations for `agekdbrn` graphically as well:

```
. gladder agekdbnr
```

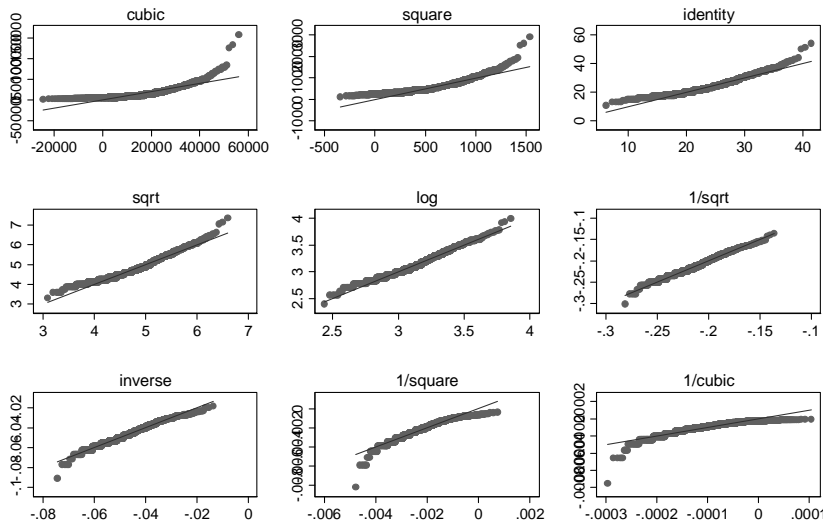


r's age when 1st child born

Histograms by transformation

Same using quantile-normal plots:

```
. gladder agekdbnr
```



r's age when 1st child born

Quantile-Normal plots by transformation

Let's attempt to use this transformation in our regression model:

```
. gen agekdbnrnr=1/(sqrt(agekdbnr))
(810 missing values generated)
. reg agekdbnrnr educ born sex mapres80 age
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	1089
Model	.107910937	5	.021582187	F(5, 1083) =	54.00
Residual	.432834805	1083	.000399663	Prob > F =	0.0000
-----				R-squared =	0.1996
Total	.540745743	1088	.000497009	Adj R-squared =	0.1959
-----				Root MSE =	.01999

agekdbnrnr	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]

educ	-.0026108	.0002316	-11.27	0.000	-.0030652	-.0021564
born	-.0075379	.0023762	-3.17	0.002	-.0122004	-.0028755
sex	.0098921	.0012561	7.88	0.000	.0074274	.0123568
mapres80	-.0001494	.000049	-3.05	0.002	-.0002455	-.0000533
age	-.0002532	.0000409	-6.19	0.000	-.0003336	-.0001729
_cons	.2535923	.0051683	49.07	0.000	.2434514	.2637332

Overall, transformations should be used sparsely - always consider ease of model interpretation as well. Here, our transformation made interpretation more complicated. It is also important to check that we did not introduce any nonlinearities by this transformation - we'll deal with that issue soon.

B. Examining Multivariate Normality

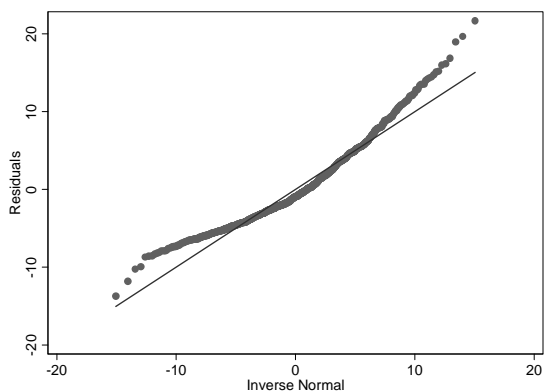
OLS is not very sensitive to non-normally distributed errors but the efficiency of estimators decreases as the distribution substantially deviates from normal (especially if there are heavy tails). Further, heavily skewed distributions are problematic as they question the validity of the mean as a measure 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:

```
. predict residual, 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 qnorm plot:

```
. qnorm resid
```



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:

```
. reg agekdbrnrr educ born sex mapres80 age
```

Source	SS	df	MS			
Model	.107910937	5	.021582187	Number of obs =	1089	
Residual	.432834805	1083	.000399663	F(5, 1083) =	54.00	
Total	.540745743	1088	.000497009	Prob > F =	0.0000	
				R-squared =	0.1996	
				Adj R-squared =	0.1959	
				Root MSE =	.01999	

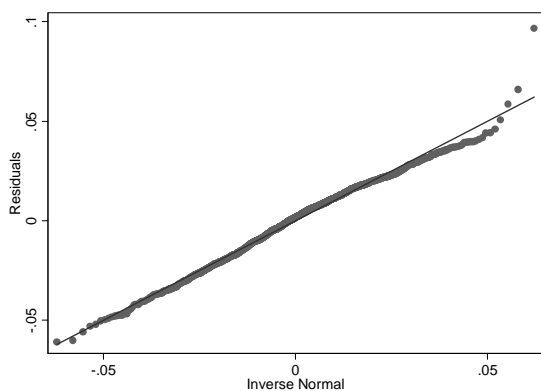
agekdbrnrr	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]

educ	-.0026108	.0002316	-11.27	0.000	-.0030652	-.0021564
born	-.0075379	.0023762	-3.17	0.002	-.0122004	-.0028755
sex	.0098921	.0012561	7.88	0.000	.0074274	.0123568
mapres80	-.0001494	.000049	-3.05	0.002	-.0002455	-.0000533
age	-.0002532	.0000409	-6.19	0.000	-.0003336	-.0001729
_cons	.2535923	.0051683	49.07	0.000	.2434514	.2637332

```

. predict resid2, resid
(1676 missing values generated)
. qnorm resid2

```



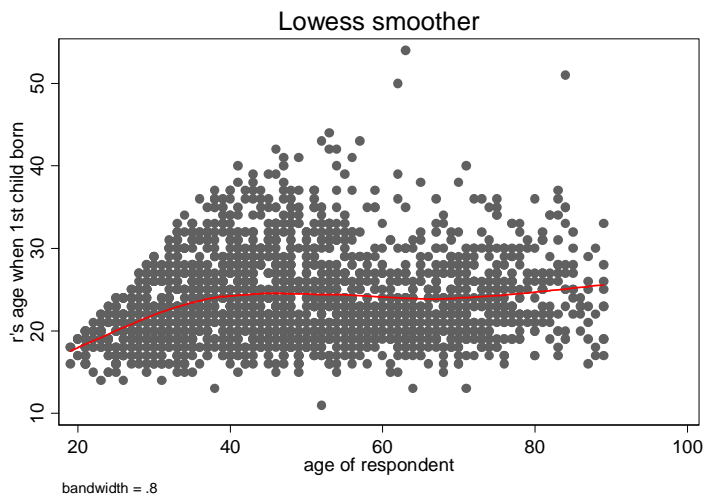
Looks much better - the residuals are essentially normally distributed although it looks like there are a few outliers in the tails. We could further examine the outliers and influential observations; we'll discuss that later.

3. Linearity.

A. Examining linearity in bivariate context

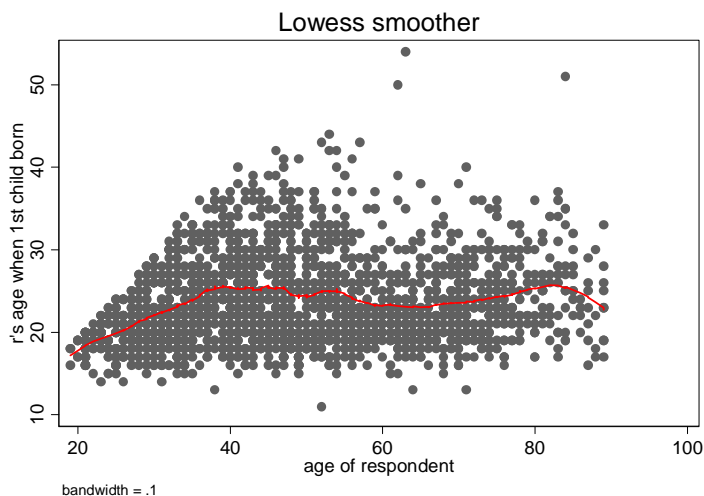
Before you run a regression, it's a good idea to examine your variables one at a time as indicated before, but we should also examine the relationship of each independent variable to the dependent to assess its linearity. A good tool for such an examination is `lowess` - i.e. a scatterplot with locally weighted regression line (here based in means, but can also do median) going through it (`lowess` is the command, options are used to specify line color):

```
. lowess agekdbrn age, lcolor(red)
```



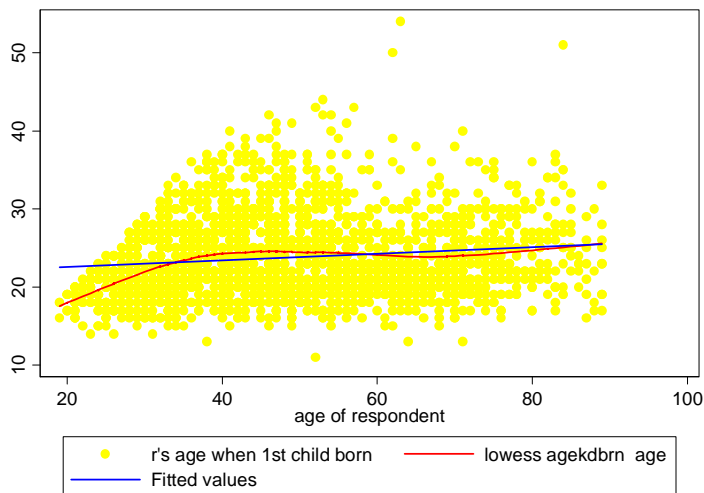
We can change bandwidth to make the curve less smooth (decrease the number) or smoother (increase the number):

```
. lowess agekdbrn age, lcolor(red) bwidth(.1)
```



We can also add a regression line to see the difference better:

```
. scatter agekdbrn age, mcolor(yellow) || lowess agekdbrn age, lcolor(red) ||  
lfit agekdbrn age, lcolor(blue)
```



Based on lowess plots, we conclude that the relationship between age and agekdbrn is not linear and we need to address that. But before we do, let's consider further diagnostic tools.

B. Examining linearity in multivariate models.

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:

```
. search mrunning
```

Keyword search

Keywords: mrunning

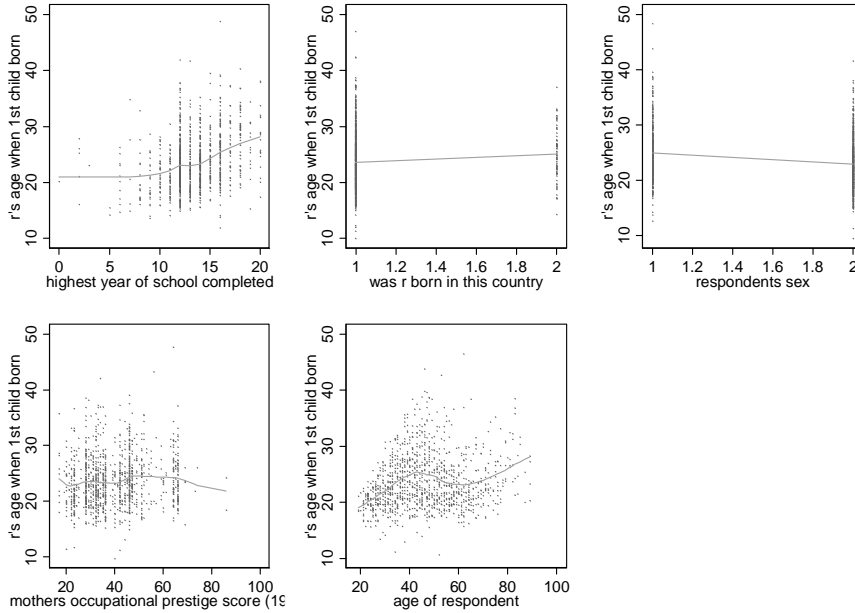
Search: (1) Official help files, FAQs, Examples, SJs, and STBs

Search of official help files, FAQs, Examples, SJs, and STBs

SJ-5-3 gr0017 A multivariable scatterplot smoother
(help mrunning, running if installed) P. Royston and N. J. Cox
Q3/05 SJ 5(3):405--412
presents an extension to running for use in a
multivariable context

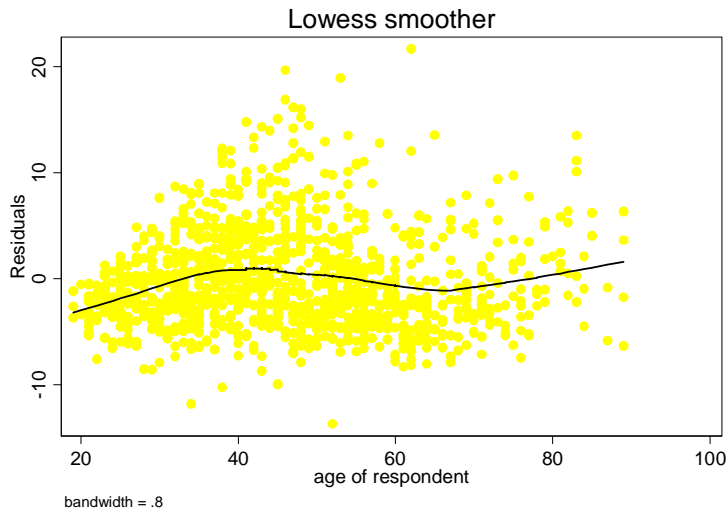
Click on gr0017 to install the program. Now we can use it:

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



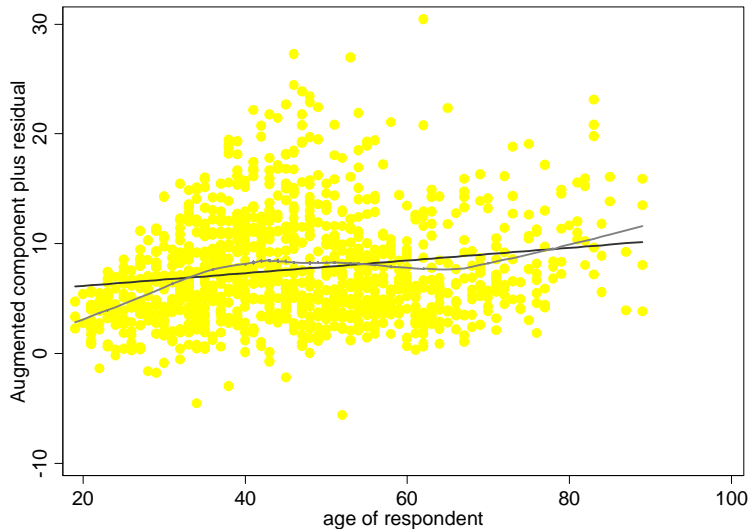
We can clearly see some substantial nonlinearity for educ and age; mapres80 doesn't look quite linear either. We can also run our regression model and examine the residuals. One way to do so would be to plot residuals against each continuous independent variable:

```
.lowess resid age, mcolor(yellow)
```



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:

```
. acprplot age, lowess mcolor(yellow)
```



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, 1080) =      2.74
      Prob > F =      0.0423
```

```
. ovtest, rhs
```

```
(note: born dropped due to collinearity)
(note: sex dropped due to collinearity)
(note: born^3 dropped due to collinearity)
(note: born^4 dropped due to collinearity)
(note: sex^3 dropped due to collinearity)
(note: sex^4 dropped due to collinearity)
```

```
Ramsey RESET test using powers of the independent variables
```

```
Ho: model has no omitted variables
      F(11, 1074) =     14.84
      Prob > F =      0.0000
```

*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:

```
. net search boxtid
(contacting http://www.stata.com)
```

```
2 packages found (Stata Journal and STB listed first)
```

```
-----
sg112_1 from http://www.stata.com/stb/stb50
  STB-50 sg112_1. Nonlin. reg. models with power or exp. func. of covar. /
  STB insert by / Patrick Royston, Imperial College School of Medicine, UK;
  / Gareth Ambler, Imperial College School of Medicine, UK. / Support:
  proyston@rpms.ac.uk and gambler@rpms.ac.uk / After installation, see
```

```
sg112 from http://www.stata.com/stb/stb49
  STB-49 sg112. Nonlin. reg. models with power or exp. functs of covars. /
  STB insert by Patrick Royston, Imperial College School of Medicine, UK; /
  Gareth Ambler, Imperial College School of Medicine, UK. / Support:
  proyston@rpms.ac.uk and gambler@rpms.ac.uk / After installation, see
```

```
We select the first one 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 = 1089		
Model	6953.00253	8	869.125317	F(8, 1080) =	38.76	
Residual	24219.6605	1080	22.4256115	Prob > F	= 0.0000	
-----				R-squared	= 0.2230	
Total	31172.663	1088	28.6513447	Adj R-squared	= 0.2173	
-----				Root MSE	= 4.7356	

agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Ieduc__1	1.215639	.7083273	1.72	0.086	-.174215	2.605492
Ieduc_p1	.00374	.8606987	0.00	0.997	-1.685091	1.692571
Imapr__1	1.153845	9.01628	0.13	0.898	-16.53757	18.84525

Imapr_p1		.0927861	2.600166	0.04	0.972	-5.009163	5.194736
Iage__1		-67.26803	42.28364	-1.59	0.112	-150.2354	15.69937
Iage_p1		-.4932163	53.49507	-0.01	0.993	-105.4593	104.4728
Iborn__1		1.380925	.5659349	2.44	0.015	.2704681	2.491381
Isex__1		-2.017794	.298963	-6.75	0.000	-2.604408	-1.43118
_cons		25.14711	.2955639	85.08	0.000	24.56717	25.72706

educ		.5613397	.05549	10.116	Nonlin. dev.	11.972	(P = 0.001)
p1		2.64077	.7027411	3.758			

mapres80		.0337813	.0115436	2.926	Nonlin. dev.	0.126	(P = 0.724)
p1		.4798773	1.28955	0.372			

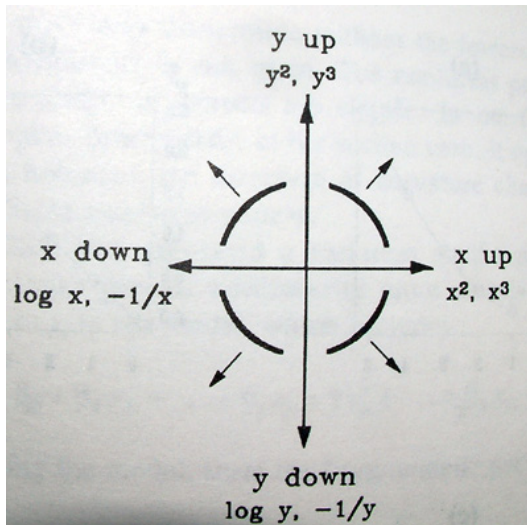
age		.0534185	.0098828	5.405	Nonlin. dev.	39.646	(P = 0.000)
p1		-3.290191	.8046904	-4.089			

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.

C. Remedies for nonlinearity problems.

Power transformations can be used to linearize relationships if strong nonlinearities are found. The following chart gives suggestions for transformations when the curve looks a certain way.



For nonmonotone relationship (e.g. parabola), use polynomial functions of the variable, e.g. age and age squared, etc. The pictures above for age would suggest that we might want to add a cubic term as well. It is important, however, to attempt to maintain simplicity and interpretability of the results when doing transformations. So let's try squared term. We want to enter both age and age squared into our regression model. We already generated age squared earlier, but using age and age squared in the model at the same time will create multicollinearity because the two variables have a strong relationship:

```
. reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 age age2
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 1089		
Model	6138.53315	6	1023.08886	F(6, 1082) = 44.22		
Residual	25034.1298	1082	23.1369037	Prob > F = 0.0000		
-----				R-squared = 0.1969		
Total	31172.663	1088	28.6513447	Adj R-squared = 0.1925		
-----				Root MSE = 4.8101		
agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
educ	.5678949	.0569661	9.97	0.000	.4561184	.6796713
born	1.567736	.5723843	2.74	0.006	.4446266	2.690844
sex	-2.140989	.3028244	-7.07	0.000	-2.735179	-1.546799
mapres80	.0332034	.0117896	2.82	0.005	.0100704	.0563364
age	.2808181	.055909	5.02	0.000	.1711158	.3905203
age2	-.0022448	.0005551	-4.04	0.000	-.003334	-.0011556
_cons	8.92424	1.643755	5.43	0.000	5.698932	12.14955

. reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 age age2, beta

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 1089		
Model	6138.53315	6	1023.08886	F(6, 1082) = 44.22		
Residual	25034.1298	1082	23.1369037	Prob > F = 0.0000		
-----				R-squared = 0.1969		
Total	31172.663	1088	28.6513447	Adj R-squared = 0.1925		
-----				Root MSE = 4.8101		
agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	Beta	
educ	.5678949	.0569661	9.97	0.000	.2884756	
born	1.567736	.5723843	2.74	0.006	.0751117	
sex	-2.140989	.3028244	-7.07	0.000	-.1937892	
mapres80	.0332034	.0117896	2.82	0.005	.080348	
age	.2808181	.055909	5.02	0.000	.790523	
age2	-.0022448	.0005551	-4.04	0.000	-.637722	
_cons	8.92424	1.643755	5.43	0.000	.	

Note that age and age2 have high betas with opposite signs -- that's one indication of multicollinearity. Often when high degree of multicollinearity is present, we would also observe high standard errors. In fact, when reading published research using OLS, pay attention to standard errors -- if they are high relative to the size of the coefficient itself, it's a reason for a concern about possible multicollinearity. Let's check our suspicion using VIFs:

. vif

Variable	VIF	1/VIF
age2	33.51	0.029845
age	33.37	0.029963
educ	1.13	0.886374
mapres80	1.10	0.911906
born	1.01	0.986930
sex	1.01	0.987914

Mean VIF	11.86	

Indeed, high degree of multicollinearity. But luckily, we can avoid it. When including variables that are generated using other variables already in the model (as in this case, or when we want to enter a product of two variables to

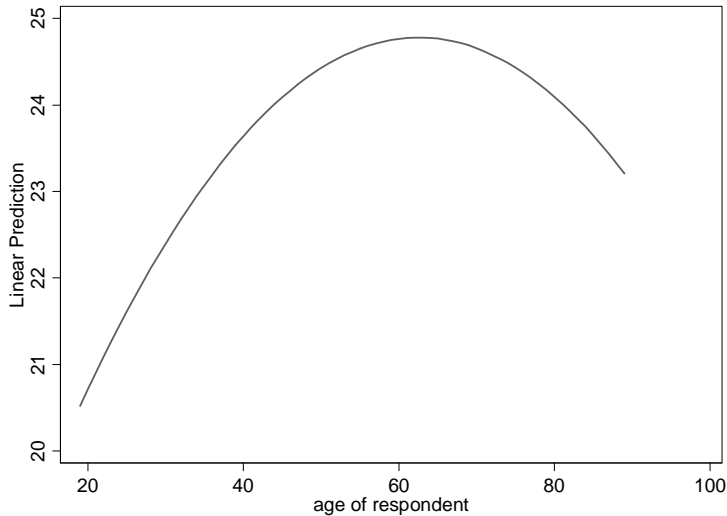
model an interaction term), we should first mean-center the variable (only if it is continuous; don't mean-center dichotomous variables!). That's how we'd do it in this case:

```
. sum age
      Variable |          Obs          Mean    Std. Dev.        Min        Max
-----+-----
      age |          2751         46.28281    17.37049         18         89
. gen agemean=age-r(mean)
(14 missing values generated)
. gen agemean2=agemean^2
(14 missing values generated)
. reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 agemean agemean2, beta
      Source |          SS          df          MS              Number of obs =      1089
-----+-----
      Model | 6138.53316           6    1023.08886              F( 6, 1082) =      44.22
      Residual | 25034.1298        1082    23.1369037              Prob > F      =      0.0000
-----+-----
      Total | 31172.6663        1088    28.6513447              R-squared     =      0.1969
                                          Adj R-squared =      0.1925
                                          Root MSE     =      4.8101
-----+-----
      agekdbrn |          Coef.    Std. Err.      t    P>|t|              Beta
-----+-----
      educ |    .5678949    .0569661     9.97   0.000              .2884756
      born |    1.567736    .5723843     2.74   0.006              .0751117
      sex |   -2.140989    .3028244    -7.07   0.000             -.1937892
      mapres80 |    .0332034    .0117896     2.82   0.005              .080348
      agemean |    .0730284    .0105054     6.95   0.000              .2055801
      agemean2 |   -.0022448    .0005551    -4.04   0.000             -.1209343
      _cons |    17.11274    1.126117    15.20   0.000              .
-----+-----
. vif
      Variable |          VIF          1/VIF
-----+-----
      agemean2 |          1.20    0.829918
      agemean |          1.18    0.848643
      educ |          1.13    0.886374
      mapres80 |          1.10    0.911906
      born |          1.01    0.986930
      sex |          1.01    0.987914
-----+-----
      Mean VIF |          1.11
```

We can see that the multicollinearity problem has been solved. We also note that the squared term is significant. To better understand what this means substantively, we'll generate a graph:

```
. adjust educ born sex mapres80 if e(sample), gen(pred1)
-----+-----
      Dependent variable: agekdbrn      Command: regress
      Created variable: pred1
      Variables left as is: age, age2
      Covariates set to mean: educ = 13.316804, born = 1.0707071, sex = 1.6244261,
      mapres80 = 39.440773
-----+-----
      All |          xb
-----+-----
      |          23.6648
-----+-----
      Key:  xb = Linear Prediction
```

```
. line pred1 age, sort
```



This doesn't quite replicate what we saw on lowest plot, so the relationship of age and agekdbrn is likely still misspecified. Let's try cube:

```
. gen agemean3=agemean^3
```

```
(14 missing values generated)
```

```
. reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 agemean agemean2 agemean3
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 1089		
Model	7554.31674	7	1079.18811	F(7, 1081)	=	49.39
Residual	23618.3463	1081	21.8486089	Prob > F	=	0.0000
				R-squared	=	0.2423
				Adj R-squared	=	0.2374
Total	31172.663	1088	28.6513447	Root MSE	=	4.6742

agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
educ	.581195	.055382	10.49	0.000	.4725265	.6898634
born	1.292907	.5572673	2.32	0.021	.1994591	2.386355
sex	-2.117214	.2942876	-7.19	0.000	-2.694654	-1.539774
mapres80	.0349051	.0114586	3.05	0.002	.0124215	.0573887
agemean	-.0424837	.0176105	-2.41	0.016	-.0770384	-.007929
agemean2	-.0059131	.0007061	-8.37	0.000	-.0072987	-.0045275
agemean3	.0002359	.0000293	8.05	0.000	.0001784	.0002934
_cons	17.58535	1.09589	16.05	0.000	15.43504	19.73566

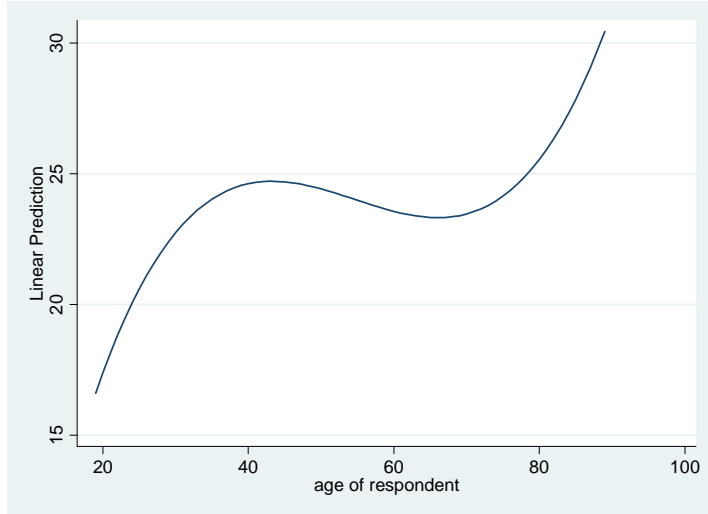
```
. adjust educ born sex mapres80 if e(sample), gen(pred2)
```

```
-----
Dependent variable: agekdbrn      Command: regress
Created variable: pred2
Variables left as is: agemean, agemean2, agemean3
Covariates set to mean: educ = 13.316804, born = 1.0707071, sex = 1.6244261,
mapres80 = 39.440771
-----
```

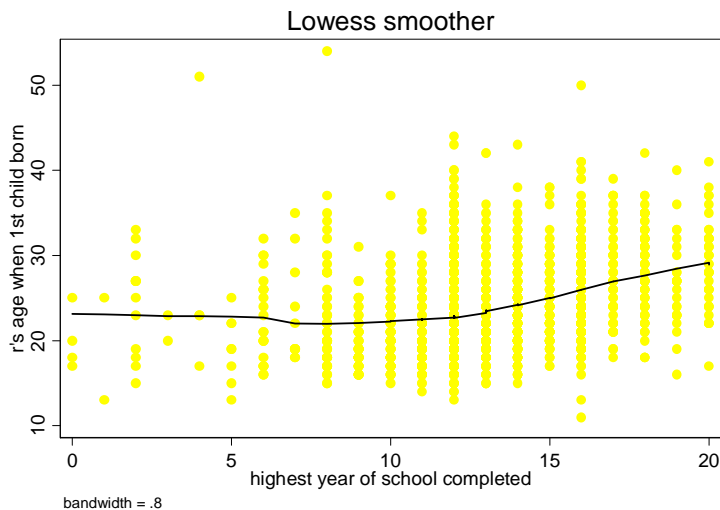
```
All |      xb
-----+-----
      |      23.6648
-----+-----
```

```
Key: xb = Linear Prediction
```

```
. line pred2 age, sort
```



This looks much better. Note that at other times, after looking at a lowess plot, we might prefer to represent the variable as a series of dummies. E.g., after we look at the lowess plot of education, we might prefer representing education as a series of dummy variables corresponding to respondent's level of education (less than high school, high school, some college etc):



4. 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:

Outliers: 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 regression an outlier has a large residual.

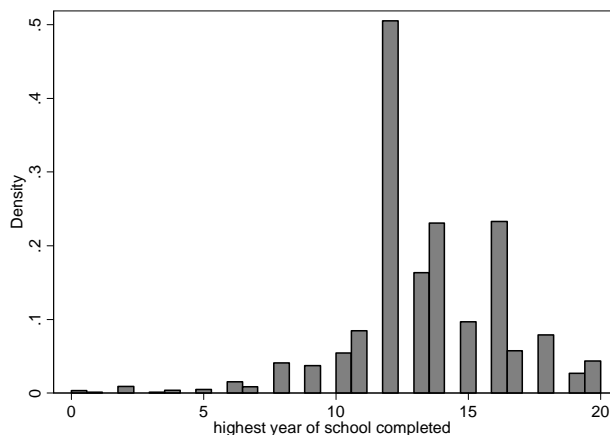
Leverage points: An observation with an extreme value (either very high or very low) on a single predictor variable or on a combination of predictors is called a point with high leverage. Leverage is a measure of how far a value of an independent variable deviates from the mean of that variable. In the 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 estimate of regression coefficients.

Influential Observations: 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 high leverage points or high leverage points 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).

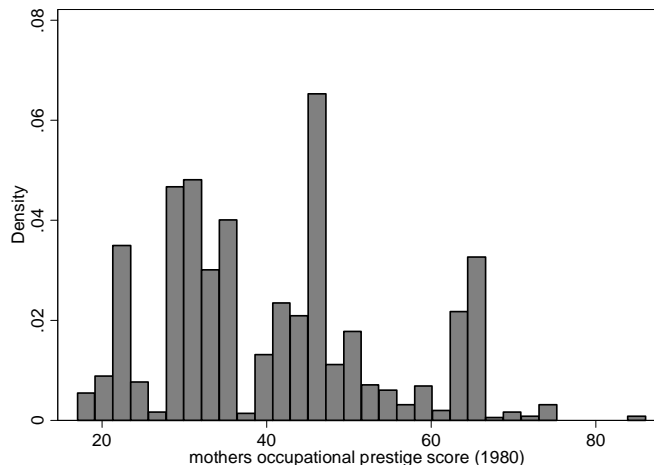
We usually start identifying potential outliers and leverage points when conducting univariate and bivariate examination of the data. E.g. when examining the distribution of educ, we would be concerned about those with very few years of education:

```
. histogram educ
```



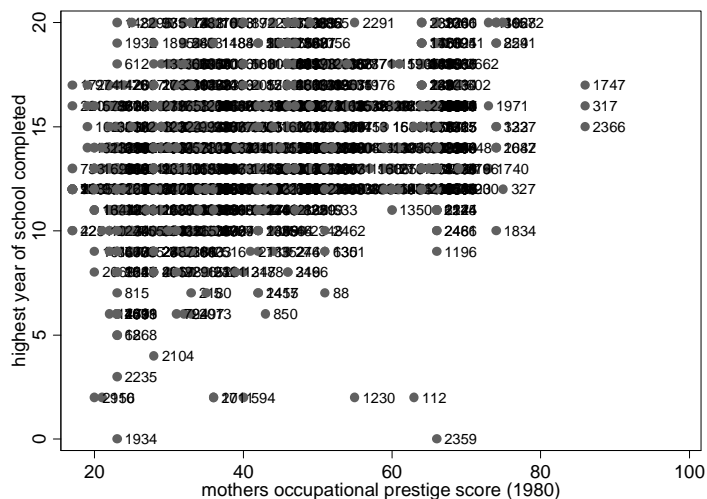
When examining the distribution of mother's prestige, we'd be concerned about those with very high values:

```
. histogram mapres80
```

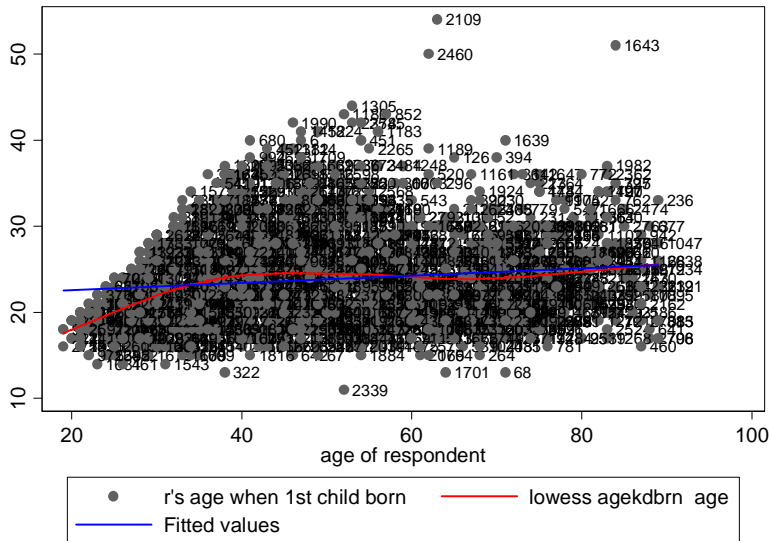
Such observations are likely high leverage points. We might check their ID numbers to be aware of this. E.g., let's get a scatterplot of both of these predictors with observation ID labels:

```
. scatter educ mapres80, mlabel(id)
```



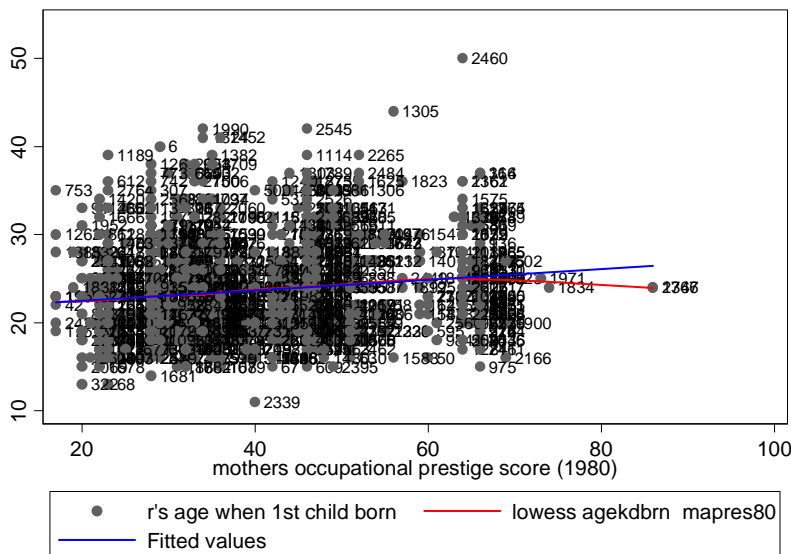
While univariate examination allows us to identify potential leverage points, bivariate examination will help identify both potential leverage points and outliers. E.g., we can label observations in the lowest plot to see what potential outliers and leverage points we find:

```
. scatter agekdbrn age, mlabel(id) || lowess agekdbrn age, lcolor(red) || lfit agekdbrn age, lcolor(blue)
```



2109, 2460, and 1643 are outliers with respect to this bivariate relationship, but they are not high leverage because these are not extreme values on age variable. We do not see any high leverage points or influential observations here.

```
. scatter agekdbrn mapres80, mlabel(id) || lowess agekdbrn mapres80,
lcolor(red) || lfit agekdbrn mapres80, lcolor(blue)
```



Here we see 2460 as an outlier and we also see two leverage points that have very high values of mother's prestige score, these are 2366 and 1747:

```
. list id mapres80 if mapres80>80 & mapres80!=. & agekdbrn!=.
```

	id	mapres80
1896.	2366	86
2447.	1747	86

It does not appear that these points are also outliers in terms of their dependent variable value, however, so most likely these do not have high level of influence.

Next, we can continue our search for outliers, leverage points, and influential observations 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 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	xb, fitted values (linear prediction); the default	
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, the residual is divided by the standard error obtained from a model that includes a dummy variable for that specific observation)	rstudent > 2
lev (hat)	hat values, measures of leverage (diagonal elements of hat matrix)	Hat > (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 on dfits and indicating the distance between coefficient vectors when the jth observation is omitted	CooksD > 4/n
*covratio	COVRATIO, a measure of the influence of the jth observation on the variance- covariance matrix of the estimates	CovRatio-1 > 3k/n
*dfbeta(varname)	DFBETA, a measure of the influence of the jth observation on each coefficient (the difference between the regression coefficient when the jth observation is included and when it is excluded, divided by the estimated standard error of the coefficient)	DFBeta > 2/sqrt(n)

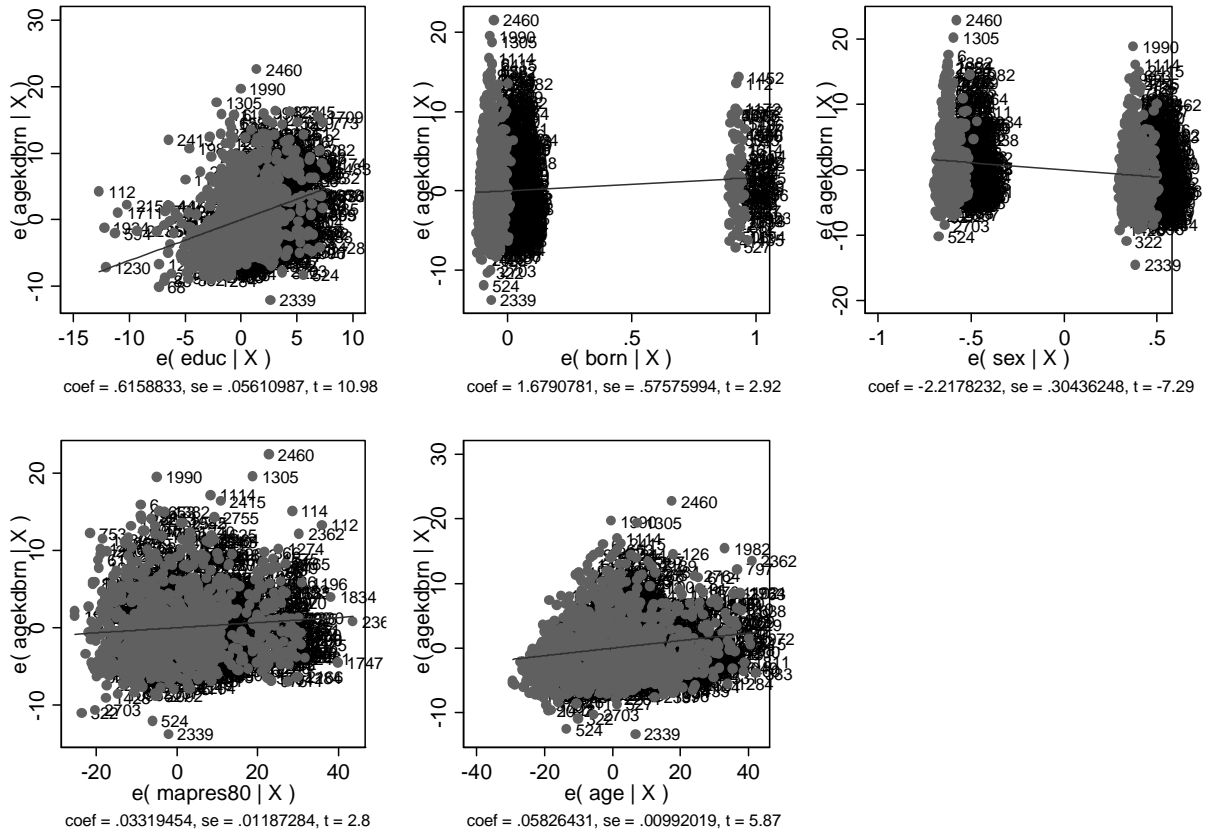
*Note: Starred statistics are only available for the estimation sample; unstarred statistics are available both in and out of sample; type predict ... if e(sample) ... if wanted only for the estimation sample.

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

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


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. cooks) but want to reuse the name, just use the drop command first: e.g., drop cooks
 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~=.

```

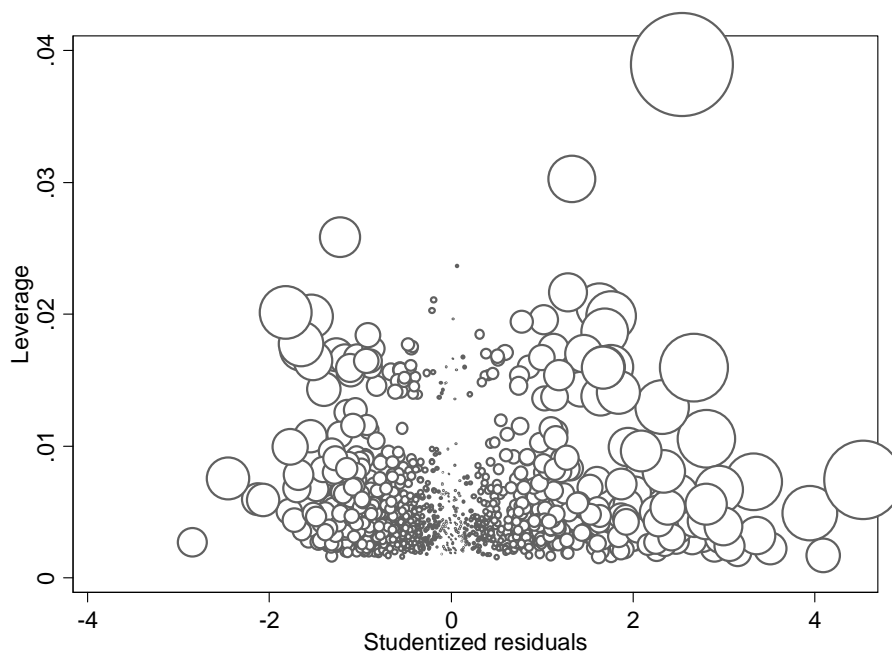
	id	agekdbrn	educ	born	sex	mapres80	age	cooks
1031.	1394	30	15	no	female	28	33	.0036766
1032.	63	19	19	yes	female	34	64	.003683
1033.	2484	37	17	yes	female	52	56	.0037003
1034.	1906	29	10	no	male	23	39	.0037224
1035.	994	38	15	yes	female	33	41	.003788
1036.	22	19	12	no	male	44	23	.0038182
1037.	1402	37	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
1043.	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
1048.	1382	39	12	yes	male	35	45	.0045595
1049.	1990	42	13	yes	female	34	46	.0046982
1050.	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
1054.	753	35	13	yes	female	17	51	.0053052
1055.	797	34	12	yes	female	35	83	.0054951
1056.	126	38	15	yes	female	28	65	.0056446
1057.	1824	41	16	yes	male	34	49	.0058367
1058.	6	40	12	yes	male	29	47	.0059349
1059.	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
1063.	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
1072.	1194	21	17	no	female	66	60	.0079331
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.	1952	31	12	no	female	20	40	.0083125
1077.	1575	34	12	no	male	64	34	.0090088
1078.	1934	25	0	yes	male	23	89	.0091117
1079.	1711	27	2	yes	male	36	69	.0093139
1080.	114	37	12	yes	female	66	47	.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.	1982	37	8	yes	male	30	83	.0139673
1087.	1452	41	16	no	male	36	47	.0191272
1088.	2460	50	16	yes	male	64	62	.0251248
1089.	112	32	2	no	male	63	38	.0434919

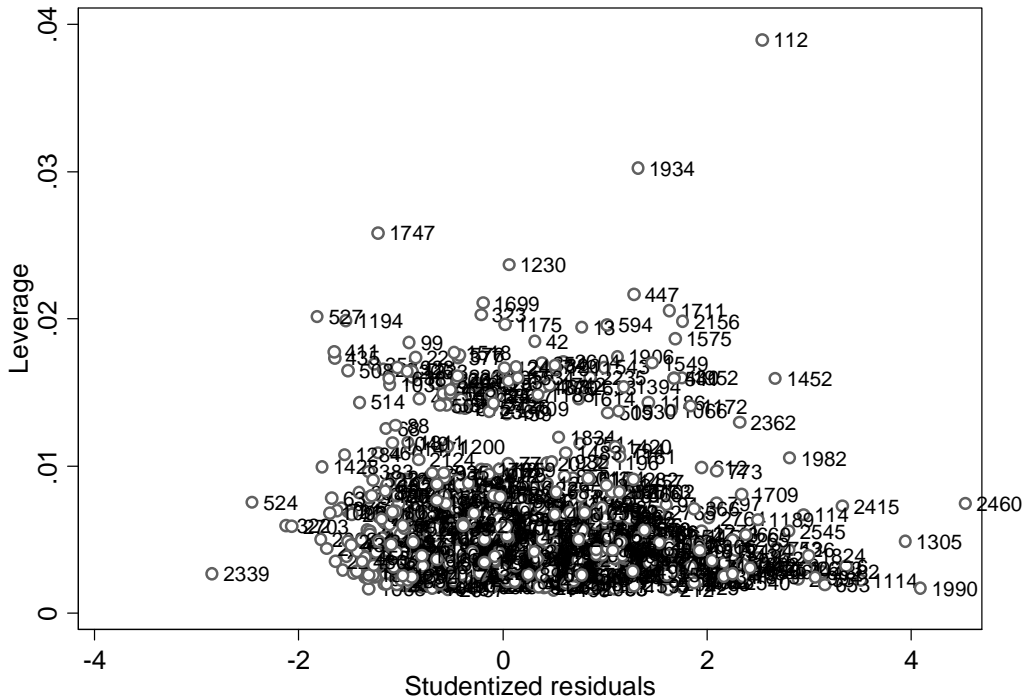
That's quite a few, the largest Cook's D belong to observations 112, 2460, and 1452. All of those stood out in graphs as well, so we want to investigate those, but first we might want to examine other indices (e.g. DFITS, COVRATIO, etc) as well. In the end, we want to identify and further investigate 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 student [w=cooksD] , mfc(white)
```



To identify problematic observations, let's replace circles with ID numbers:
`. scatter hats student [w=cooks] , mlabel(id)`

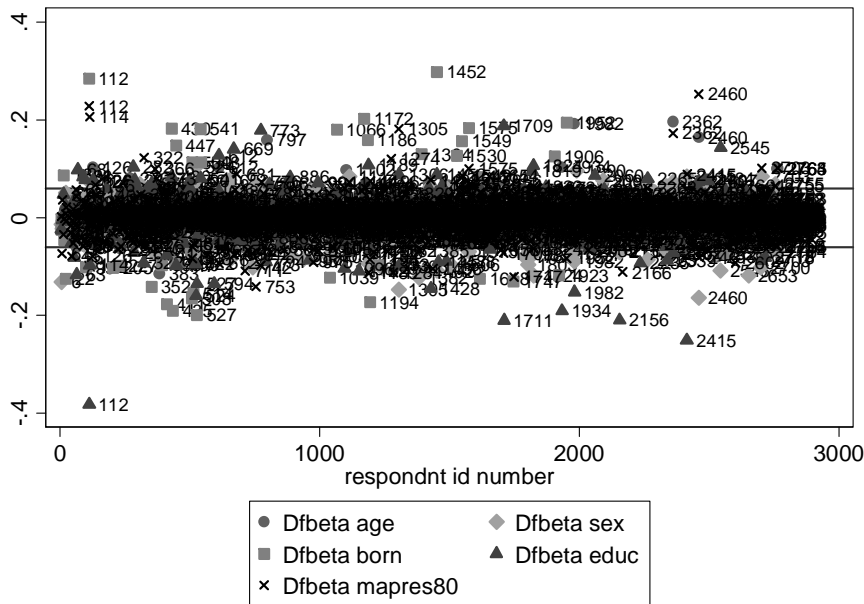


Another set of index measures of influence, DFBETAs, focuses on one regression coefficient at a time. It is a normalized measure of the effect of each specific observation on a regression coefficient, estimated by omitting each observation and comparing the resulting coefficient to the coefficient with 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 need to look into those which have particularly large effects.

Remedies:

Once you detected influential data points, you need to decide what to do with them. Typically, a 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 agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 age if id==112
```

	agekdbrn	educ	born	sex	mapres80	age
10.	32	2	no	male	63	38

```

+-----+
Let's also get averages for all variables to compare:
. sum agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 age if e(sample)

```

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	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 educ born sex mapres80 age, beta

```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	1089
Model	5760.17098	5	1152.0342	F(5, 1083) =	49.10
Residual	25412.492	1083	23.4649049	Prob > F =	0.0000
				R-squared =	0.1848
				Adj R-squared =	0.1810
Total	31172.663	1088	28.6513447	Root MSE =	4.8441

agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	Beta
educ	.6158833	.0561099	10.98	0.000	.3128524
born	1.679078	.5757599	2.92	0.004	.0804462
sex	-2.217823	.3043625	-7.29	0.000	-.2007438
mapres80	.0331945	.0118728	2.80	0.005	.0803266
age	.0582643	.0099202	5.87	0.000	.1640182
_cons	13.27142	1.252294	10.60	0.000	.

```

. reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 age if id~=112, beta

```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	1088
Model	5841.74787	5	1168.34957	F(5, 1082) =	50.04
Residual	25261.3762	1082	23.3469281	Prob > F =	0.0000
				R-squared =	0.1878
				Adj R-squared =	0.1841
Total	31103.1241	1087	28.6137296	Root MSE =	4.8319

agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	Beta
educ	.63726	.0565958	11.26	0.000	.3214802
born	1.515919	.5778803	2.62	0.009	.0722698
sex	-2.187693	.3038273	-7.20	0.000	-.1980863
mapres80	.030491	.0118905	2.56	0.010	.0737543
age	.0583569	.0098953	5.90	0.000	.1644404
_cons	13.20334	1.249428	10.57	0.000	.

The actual effect of that observation on the coefficients of educ, mapres80, 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).

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 agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 age, gen(wt)
Robust regression                               Number of obs =   1089
                                                F( 5, 1083) =   52.34
                                                Prob > F      =   0.0000
```

agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
educ	.6518023	.0539119	12.09	0.000	.5460186	.7575859
born	1.792079	.5532063	3.24	0.001	.7066014	2.877556
sex	-2.012778	.29244	-6.88	0.000	-2.586591	-1.438965
mapres80	.0275798	.0114078	2.42	0.016	.005196	.0499637
age	.0522715	.0095316	5.48	0.000	.033569	.070974
_cons	12.34444	1.203239	10.26	0.000	9.983493	14.70538

```
. sum wt, det
```

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

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.

5. Additivity.

While there are no explicit tests for additivity (with the exception of the broad "linktest" command mentioned above), 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
  Variable |      Obs      Mean   Std. Dev.   Min   Max
-----+-----
    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    17   86
-> gen mapres80mean=mapres80-r(mean)
(1146 missing values generated)
```

A user-written program "fitint" helps find statistically significant two-way interactions.

```
. net search fitint
```

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

```
. fitint reg agekdbrn bornd sexd agemean educmean mapres80mean, twoway(bornd
sexd agemean educmean mapres80mean) factor(bornd sexd)
-----+-----
Source |      SS      df      MS              Number of obs =    1089
-----+-----
Model |  6169.67284    15   411.311523          F( 15, 1073) =    17.65
Residual | 25002.9902  1073    23.301948          Prob > F      =    0.0000
-----+-----
Total | 31172.663   1088   28.6513447          R-squared     =    0.1979
                                           Adj R-squared =    0.1867
                                           Root MSE    =    4.8272
-----+-----
agekdbrn |      Coef.   Std. Err.      t    P>|t|     [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
  _Ibornd_1 |  1.710533   .9779923     1.75   0.081   - .2084614   3.629527
  _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
_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	0.21	0.01	1	1073	0.9241
i.bornd*agemean	0.17	0.01	1	1073	0.9321
i.bornd*educmean	44.87	1.93	1	1073	0.1655
i.bornd*mapres80mean	0.30	0.01	1	1073	0.9101
i.sexd*agemean	0.54	0.02	1	1073	0.8796
i.sexd*educmean	272.21	11.68	1	1073	0.0007
i.sexd*mapres80mean	0.01	0.00	1	1073	0.9834
agemean*educmean	24.13	1.04	1	1073	0.3091
agemean*mapres80mean	6.87	0.29	1	1073	0.5874
educmean*mapres80mean	13.70	0.59	1	1073	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 mapres80mean: for Y in var bornd
sexd agemean educmean mapres80mean: fitint reg agekdbrn bornd sexd agemean
educmean mapres80mean, 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 = 1089		
Model	6152.90509	9	683.656121	F(9, 1079)	=	29.48
Residual	25019.7579	1079	23.1879128	Prob > F	=	0.0000
-----				R-squared	=	0.1974
Total	31172.663	1088	28.6513447	Adj R-squared	=	0.1907
-----				Root MSE	=	4.8154
agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
bornd	1.779615	.9740461	1.83	0.068	-.131624	3.690854
sexd	-2.220267	.3134215	-7.08	0.000	-2.835252	-1.605282
agemean	.0594442	.0098793	6.02	0.000	.0400593	.078829
educmean	.4461687	.0831105	5.37	0.000	.2830922	.6092451
mapres80mean	.0324834	.0118427	2.74	0.006	.0092461	.0557208
bornsex	.0946345	1.204318	0.08	0.937	-2.268437	2.457706
borneduc	-.4745646	.2819971	-1.68	0.093	-1.027889	.0787601
educsex	.3621368	.1124932	3.22	0.001	.1414065	.5828671
educsexborn	.4750623	.3902632	1.22	0.224	-.2906985	1.240823
_cons	25.00961	.2479526	100.86	0.000	24.52309	25.49614

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

```
. xi: reg agekdbrn educ i.bornd*sexd mapres80 age
i.bornd      _Ibornd_0-1      (naturally coded; _Ibornd_0 omitted)
i.bornd*sexd  _IborXsexd_#    (coded as above)
. xi: reg agekdbrn educ i.bornd*sexd mapres80 age
Source |      SS      df      MS      Number of obs = 1089
-----+-----
Model | 5764.17997    6    960.696662    F( 6, 1082) = 40.91
Residual | 25408.483   1082    23.4828863    Prob > F = 0.0000
-----+-----
Total | 31172.663   1088    28.6513447    R-squared = 0.1849
                                           Adj R-squared = 0.1804
                                           Root MSE = 4.8459
-----+-----
agekdbrn |      Coef.    Std. Err.      t    P>|t|    [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
educ | .6165377    .0561537    10.98    0.000    .5063552    .7267202
_Ibornd_1 | 1.358118    .9670434     1.40    0.160   - .5393752    3.25561
```

sexd	-2.251548	.3152298	-7.14	0.000	-2.870079	-1.633017
_IborXsexd_1	.4964787	1.201596	0.41	0.680	-1.861244	2.854201
mapres80	.0333659	.0118846	2.81	0.005	.0100464	.0566855
age	.0584314	.0099322	5.88	0.000	.0389428	.07792
_cons	12.73045	.9671152	13.16	0.000	10.83281	14.62808

The interaction is not statistically significant, but let's suppose it would be. Then we can interpret the three coefficients to conclude that foreign born men have children 1.4 years later than native born men, native born women have children 2.3 years earlier than native born men, and foreign born women have children 0.4 of a year earlier than native born men: $(1.4 - 2.3 + .5) = -.4$

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:
`. adjust educ mapres80 age if e(sample), by(sexd bornd)`

Dependent variable: agekdbrn Command: regress
 Variables left as is: _Ibornd_1, _IborXsexd_1
 Covariates set to mean: educ = 13.316804, mapres80 = 39.440773, age = 46.125805

sexd	bornd	
	0	1
0	24.9519	26.31
1	22.7004	24.555

Key: Linear Prediction

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

```
. xi: reg agekdbrn i.bornd*educmean sexd mapres80 age
i.bornd          _Ibornd_0-1          (naturally coded; _Ibornd_0 omitted)
i.bornd*educm~n  _IborXeducm_#       (coded as above)
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 1089		
Model	5793.5421	6	965.590349	F(6, 1082) =	41.17	
Residual	25379.1209	1082	23.4557494	Prob > F =	0.0000	
				R-squared =	0.1859	
				Adj R-squared =	0.1813	
Total	31172.663	1088	28.6513447	Root MSE =	4.8431	

agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
_Ibornd_1	1.716336	.5764944	2.98	0.003	.585162	2.847509
educmean	.6352486	.058401	10.88	0.000	.5206565	.7498407
_IborXeduc~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	20.93833	.7498733	27.92	0.000	19.46696	22.4097

Again, no significant interaction, but for practice, we'll interpret the results. Among those with average education (13.4 years), foreign born have

kids 1.7 years later than native born. Among native born individuals, one year increase in education is associated with 0.6 of a year increase in the age of having kids. Finally, among foreign born individuals, one year increase in education is associated with $(.63-.23)=.4$ of a year increase in the age of having kids.

We could specify this another way to see separately the effects of education in the native born and foreign born 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 bornd educfb educnb sexd mapres80 age
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 1089		
Model	5793.5421	6	965.590349	F(6, 1082)	=	41.17
Residual	25379.1209	1082	23.4557494	Prob > F	=	0.0000
-----				R-squared	=	0.1859
Total	31172.663	1088	28.6513447	Adj R-squared	=	0.1813
-----				Root MSE	=	4.8431

agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
bornd	1.716336	.5764944	2.98	0.003	.585162	2.847509
educfb	.4029163	.1871522	2.15	0.032	.0356939	.7701387
educnb	.6352486	.058401	10.88	0.000	.5206565	.7498407
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	20.93833	.7498733	27.92	0.000	19.46696	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.

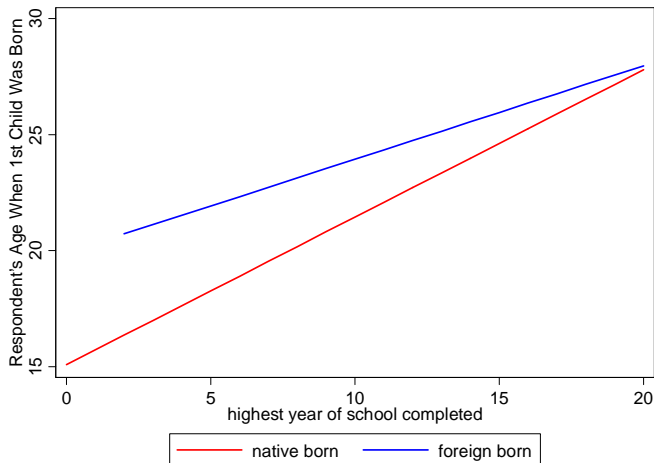
```
. adjust sexd mapres80 age if e(sample), gen(pred1)
```

```
--- 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
```

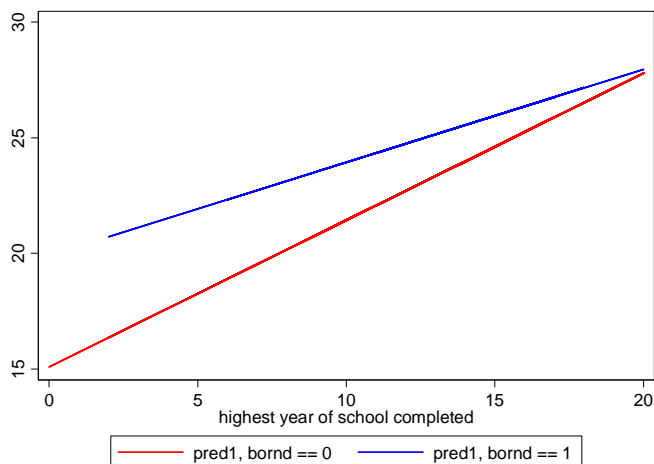
```
-----
All | xb
-----
| 23.6648
-----
```

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")
```

Alternatively, we could split pred1 into two variables (or if needed more):
`.separate pred1, by(bornd)`
 This would generate two variables, pred10 and pred11, which we can graph:
`.line pred10 pred11 educ, lcolor(red blue) sort`



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

```
. xi: reg agekdbrn bornd i.marital*educmean sexd mapres80 age
i.marital      _Imarital_1-5      (naturally coded; _Imarital_1 omitted)
i.mari~l*educ~n  _ImarXeducm_#    (coded as above)
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	1089
Model	6540.34346	13	503.103343	F(13, 1075) =	21.96
Residual	24632.3195	1075	22.9137856	Prob > F =	0.0000
-----				R-squared =	0.2098
-----				Adj R-squared =	0.2003
Total	31172.663	1088	28.6513447	Root MSE =	4.7868

agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
bornd	1.536577	.5729824	2.68	0.007	.4122865 2.660868
_Imarital_2	-.8946254	.626208	-1.43	0.153	-2.123354 .3341031
_Imarital_3	-.9166076	.3889825	-2.36	0.019	-1.679859 -.1533567
_Imarital_4	-1.944692	.7095625	-2.74	0.006	-3.336977 -.5524077
_Imarital_5	-2.55648	.5380556	-4.75	0.000	-3.612238 -1.500722

educmean		.6467199	.0727279	8.89	0.000	.504015	.7894247
_ImarXeduc~2		-.3294696	.167311	-1.97	0.049	-.6577629	-.0011764
_ImarXeduc~3		.0213546	.151949	0.14	0.888	-.2767956	.3195049
_ImarXeduc~4		-.0935184	.2455722	-0.38	0.703	-.5753736	.3883368
_ImarXeduc~5		-.527267	.2268917	-2.32	0.020	-.9724677	-.0820662
sexd		-2.028997	.3066702	-6.62	0.000	-2.630737	-1.427257
mapres80		.0292701	.0118022	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:

```
. test _ImarXeducm_2 _ImarXeducm_3 _ImarXeducm_4 _ImarXeducm_5
```

- (1) _ImarXeducm_2 = 0
- (2) _ImarXeducm_3 = 0
- (3) _ImarXeducm_4 = 0
- (4) _ImarXeducm_5 = 0

```
F( 4, 1075) = 2.22
Prob > 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).

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, gen(mardummy)
```

marital status	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
married	1,269	45.90	45.90
widowed	247	8.93	54.83
divorced	445	16.09	70.92
separated	96	3.47	74.39
never married	708	25.61	100.00
Total	2,765	100.00	

```
. for num 1/5: gen educmarX=educmean*mardummyX
```

```
-> gen educmar1=educmean*mardummy1
(12 missing values generated)
-> gen educmar2=educmean*mardummy2
(12 missing values generated)
-> gen educmar3=educmean*mardummy3
(12 missing values generated)
-> gen educmar4=educmean*mardummy4
(12 missing values generated)
-> gen educmar5=educmean*mardummy5
(12 missing values generated)
```

```
. xi: reg agekdbrn bornd i.marital educmar1-educmar5 sexd mapres80 age
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	1089
Model	6540.34346	13	503.103343	F(13, 1075) =	21.96
Residual	24632.3195	1075	22.9137856	Prob > F =	0.0000
Total	31172.663	1088	28.6513447	R-squared =	0.2098
				Adj R-squared =	0.2003
				Root MSE =	4.7868

agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
bornd	1.536577	.5729824	2.68	0.007	.4122865	2.660868
_Imarital_2	-.8946254	.626208	-1.43	0.153	-2.123354	.3341031
_Imarital_3	-.9166076	.3889825	-2.36	0.019	-1.679859	-.1533567
_Imarital_4	-1.944692	.7095625	-2.74	0.006	-3.336977	-.5524077
_Imarital_5	-2.55648	.5380556	-4.75	0.000	-3.612238	-1.500722
educmar1	.6467199	.0727279	8.89	0.000	.504015	.7894247
educmar2	.3172503	.1522423	2.08	0.037	.0185245	.615976
educmar3	.6680745	.1348759	4.95	0.000	.4034246	.9327244
educmar4	.5532015	.2360602	2.34	0.019	.0900105	1.016392
educmar5	.1194529	.2155296	0.55	0.580	-.3034536	.5423594
sexd	-2.028997	.3066702	-6.62	0.000	-2.630737	-1.427257
mapres80	.0292701	.0118022	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

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, and then we need to generate a product:

```
. gen educage=educmean*agemean
(24 missing values generated)
```

```
. reg agekdbrn bornd educmean sexd mapres80 agemean educage
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	1089
Model	5801.57311	6	966.928852	F(6, 1082) =	41.24
Residual	25371.0899	1082	23.4483271	Prob > F =	0.0000
				R-squared =	0.1861
				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
educmean	.6362385	.0581443	10.94	0.000	.5221503	.7503268
sexd	-2.232587	.3044578	-7.33	0.000	-2.829982	-1.635193
mapres80	.0335181	.0118711	2.82	0.005	.010225	.0568111
agemean	.054804	.0102529	5.35	0.000	.0346862	.0749219
educage	-.0045353	.0034131	-1.33	0.184	-.0112324	.0021618
_cons	23.64786	.52946	44.66	0.000	22.60898	24.68675

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 educmean coefficient, .6362385

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

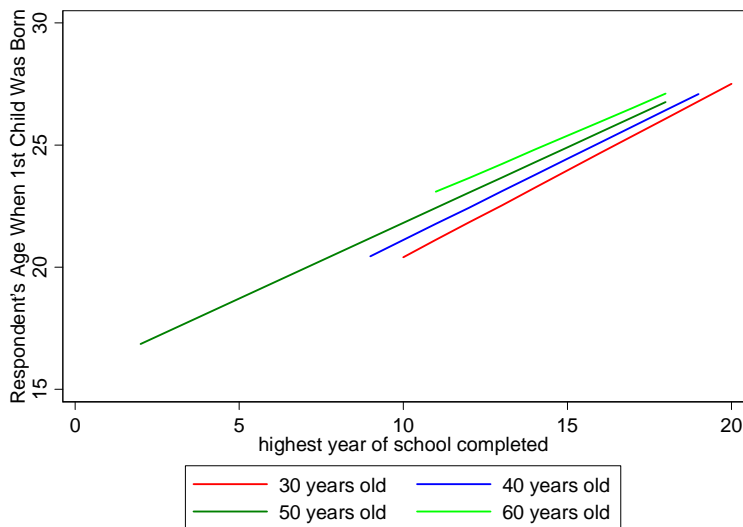
```
. di .6362385 + 20*-.0045353
.5455325
```

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:

```
. 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")))
ytile("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 agekdbn 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
```

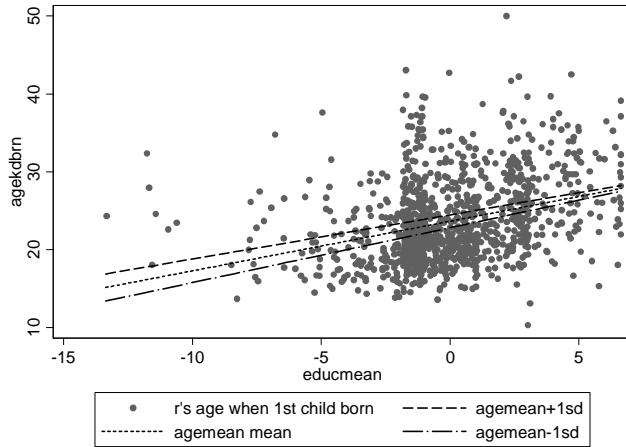
Click on: [sslope](http://fmwww.bc.edu/RePEc/bocode/s) from <http://fmwww.bc.edu/RePEc/bocode/s>

```
. sslope agekdbn bornd educmean sexd mapres80 agemean educage, i(educmean agemean educage) graph
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 1089		
Model	5801.57308	6	966.928846	F(6, 1082)	=	41.24
Residual	25371.0899	1082	23.4483271	Prob > F	=	0.0000
-----				R-squared	=	0.1861
Total	31172.663	1088	28.6513447	Adj R-squared	=	0.1816
-----				Root MSE	=	4.8423
agekdbn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
bornd	1.679599	.5755567	2.92	0.004	.5502651	2.808932
educmean	.6362385	.0581443	10.94	0.000	.5221503	.7503268
sexd	-2.232587	.3044578	-7.33	0.000	-2.829982	-1.635193
mapres80	.0335181	.0118711	2.82	0.005	.010225	.0568111
agemean	.054804	.0102529	5.35	0.000	.0346862	.0749219
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

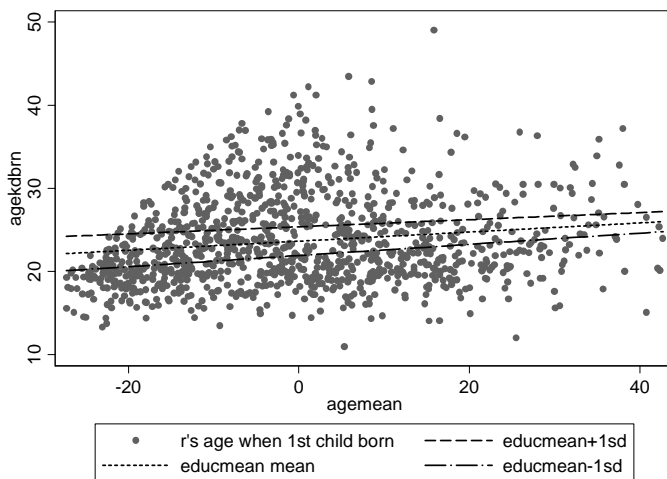


Note that this gives us significance tests for the slope estimates at three levels of the moderator variable. If we reverse how we list the two main effect variables in the i() option of this command, we get:

```
. sslope agekdbrn bornd educmean sexd mapres80 agemean educage, i(agemean educmean educage) graph
```

Simple slope of agekdbrn on agemean at educmean +/- 1sd

educmean	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t
High	.0424724	.0154784	2.74	0.006
Mean	.054804	.0102529	5.35	0.000
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:

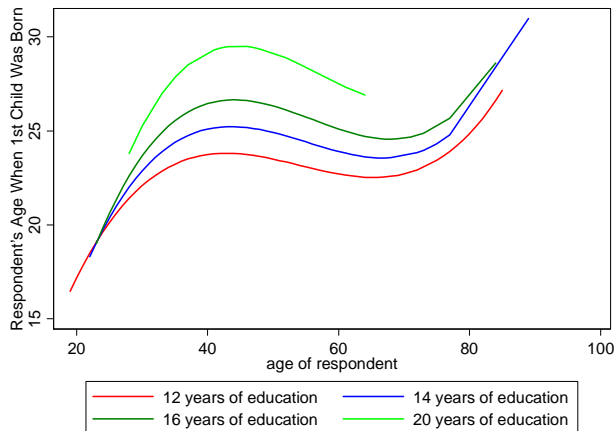
```
. gen agemean2=agemean^2
(14 missing values generated)
. gen agemean3=agemean^3
(14 missing values generated)
. gen educage2=educmean*agemean2
(24 missing values generated)
. gen educage3=educmean*agemean3
(24 missing values generated)
. reg agekdbrn bornd sexd mapres80 educmean agemean agemean2 agemean3 educage2 educage3
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 1089		
Model	7731.43912	10	773.143912	F(10, 1078)	=	35.55
Residual	23441.2239	1078	21.7451056	Prob > F	=	0.0000
-----				R-squared	=	0.2480
Total	31172.663	1088	28.6513447	Adj R-squared	=	0.2410
-----				Root MSE	=	4.6632

agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
bornd	1.278985	.556004	2.30	0.022	.1880122	2.369958
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
educage2	-.0001007	.005545	-0.02	0.986	-.010981	.0107796
educage3	-.0008988	.0003225	-2.79	0.005	-.0015315	-.0002661
educage3	.0000198	9.75e-06	2.03	0.042	6.87e-07	.000039
_cons	24.53094	.5244201	46.78	0.000	23.50194	25.55994

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

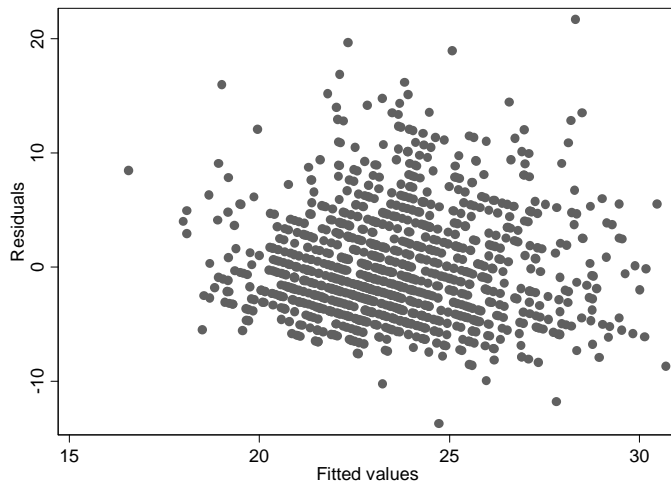
```
. qui adjust bornd sexd mapres80 if e(sample), gen(pred3)
. twoway (line pred3 age if educ==12, sort color(red) legend(label(1 "12 years of education")))
(line pred3 age if educ==14, sort color(blue) legend(label(2 "14 years of education")))
(line pred3 age if educ==16, sort color(green) legend(label(3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



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:

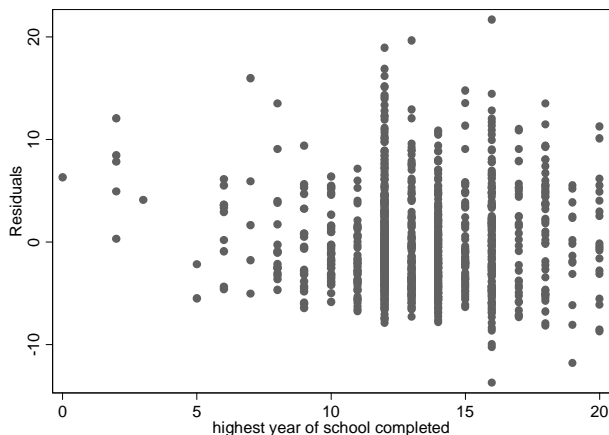
```
. hettest  
Breusch-Pagan / Cook-Weisberg test for heteroskedasticity  
Ho: Constant variance  
Variables: fitted values of agekdbrn  
chi2(1) = 21.44  
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
```

*Since $p < .05$, we reject the null hypothesis of constant variance - the errors are heteroscedastic

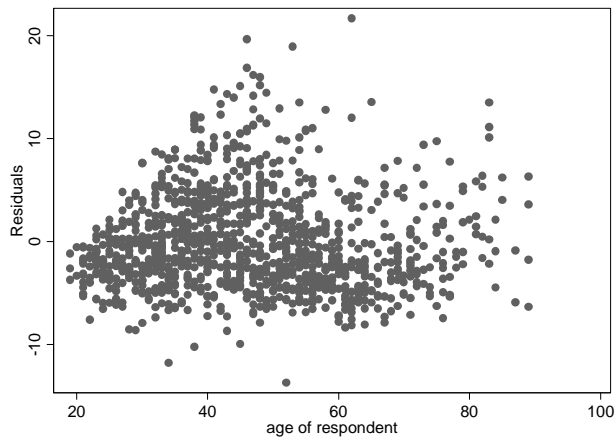
*Both the graph and the test indicate that the error variance is nonconstant (note the megaphone pattern).

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

```
. rvfplot educ
```

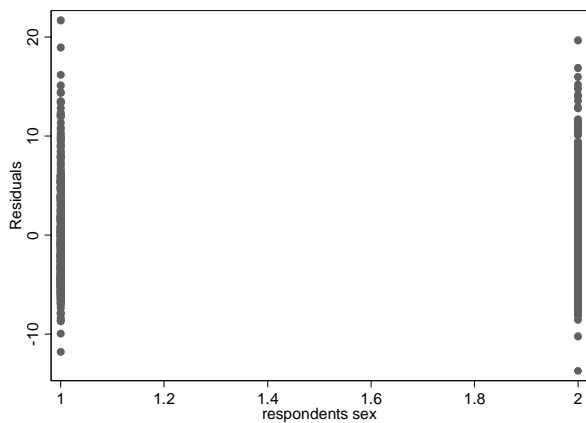


```
.rvpplot age
```



* Can see heteroscedasticity in both graphs, but it is much more severe for age
 For a dummy variable, it is more difficult to examine it graphically. E.g. :

```
.rvpplot sex
```



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

```
. hettest, rhs mtest
```

Breusch-Pagan / Cook-Weisberg test for heteroskedasticity

Ho: Constant variance

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

unadjusted p-values

*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 agekdbnrnr=1/(sqrt(agekdbnr))
(810 missing values generated)
```

```
. reg agekdbnrnr educ born sex mapres80 age
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 1089		
Model	.11381105	6	.018968508	F(6, 1082)	=	48.07
Residual	.426934693	1082	.000394579	Prob > F	=	0.0000
-----				R-squared	=	0.2105
Total	.540745743	1088	.000497009	Adj R-squared	=	0.2061
-----				Root MSE	=	.01986

agekdbnrnr	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
educ	-.0024213	.0002353	-10.29	0.000	-.0028829	-.0019597
born	-.0070982	.0023638	-3.00	0.003	-.0117363	-.0024602
sex	.0095887	.0012506	7.67	0.000	.0071349	.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 agekdbnrnr

chi2(1) = 0.35
Prob > chi2 = 0.5566
. hettest, rhs mttest
```

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

Variable	chi2	df	p
educ	0.63	1	0.4262 #
born	0.26	1	0.6111 #
sex	0.29	1	0.5932 #
mapres80	0.73	1	0.3939 #
age	1.71	1	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:

```
. reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 age, robust
```

```
Linear regression                               Number of obs =    1089
                                                F( 5, 1083) =    47.74
                                                Prob > F      =    0.0000
                                                R-squared    =    0.1848
                                                Root MSE    =    4.8441
```

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

OLS article example:

Kenworthy, Lane, and Melissa Malami. 1999. "Gender Inequality in Political Representation: A Worldwide Comparative Analysis." *Social Forces*, 78: 235-268.

Questions to answer about the article:

1. What are the dependent and the independent variables in this analysis?
2. What type of variables are these (continuous, categorical, dichotomous)?
3. Have the authors applied transformations to any of the variables?
4. Which diagnostics did the authors report conducting and what were the results?
5. What diagnostics and potential problems did the authors not address?
6. How did the authors handle the missing data?
7. How did the authors choose to present their results? What else could they have been presented?