Title

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orthog — Orthogonalize variables and compute orthogonal polynomials

Description

`orthog` orthogonalizes a set of variables, creating a new set of orthogonal variables (all of type `double`), using a modified Gram–Schmidt procedure (Golub and Van Loan 2013). The order of the variables determines the orthogonalization; hence, the "most important" variables should be listed first.

Execution time is proportional to the square of the number of variables. With many (>10) variables, `orthog` will be fairly slow.

`orthpoly` computes orthogonal polynomials for one variable.

Quick start

Generate `ox1`, `ox2`, and `ox3` containing orthogonalized versions of `x1`, `x2`, and `x3`

```
orthog x1 x2 x3, generate(ox1 ox2 ox3)
```

Same as above

```
orthog x1 x2 x3, generate(ox*)
```

Generate `op1`, `op2`, and `op3` containing degree 1, 2, and 3 orthogonal polynomials for `x1`

```
orthpoly x1, generate(op1 op2 op3) degree(3)
```

Same as above

```
orthpoly x1, generate(op1-op3) degree(3)
```

Same as above, and generate matrix `op` containing coefficients of the orthogonal polynomials

```
orthpoly x1, generate(op1-op3) degree(3) poly(op)
```

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Syntax

Orthogonalize variables

```
orthog [varlist] [if] [in] [weight] , generate(newvarlist) [matrix(matname)]
```

Compute orthogonal polynomial

```
orthpoly varname [if] [in] [weight] ,
    { generate(newvarlist) | poly(matname) } [degree(#)]
```

`orthpoly` requires that `generate(`*newvarlist*`)` or `poly(`*matname*`)`, or both, be specified.
varlist may contain time-series operators; see **[U] 11.4.4 Time-series varlists**.
`iweights`, `aweights`, `fweights`, and `pweights` are allowed, see **[U] 11.1.6 weight**.

Options for orthog

Main

`generate(`*newvarlist*`)` is required. `generate()` creates new orthogonal variables of type `double`. For `orthog`, *newvarlist* will contain the orthogonalized *varlist*. If *varlist* contains d variables, then so will *newvarlist*. *newvarlist* can be specified by giving a list of exactly d new variable names, or it can be abbreviated using the styles *newvar*`1-`*newvard* or *newvar*`*`. For these two styles of abbreviation, new variables *newvar*`1`, *newvar*`2`, ..., *newvard* are generated.

`matrix(`*matname*`)` creates a $(d+1) \times (d+1)$ matrix containing the matrix R defined by $X = QR$, where X is the $N \times (d+1)$ matrix representation of *varlist* plus a column of ones and Q is the $N \times (d+1)$ matrix representation of *newvarlist* plus a column of ones (d = number of variables in *varlist*, and N = number of observations).

Options for orthpoly

Main

`generate(`*newvarlist*`)` or `poly()`, or both, must be specified. `generate()` creates new orthogonal variables of type `double`. *newvarlist* will contain orthogonal polynomials of degree 1, 2, ..., d evaluated at *varname*, where d is as specified by `degree(`d`)`. *newvarlist* can be specified by giving a list of exactly d new variable names, or it can be abbreviated using the styles *newvar*`1-`*newvard* or *newvar*`*`. For these two styles of abbreviation, new variables *newvar*`1`, *newvar*`2`, ..., *newvard* are generated.

`poly(`*matname*`)` creates a $(d+1) \times (d+1)$ matrix called *matname* containing the coefficients of the orthogonal polynomials. The orthogonal polynomial of degree $i \leq d$ is

matname`[`i`, `$d+1$`] + `*matname*`[`i`, 1]*`*varname* `+` *matname*`[`i`, 2]*`*varname*^{2}
`+` $\cdots$ `+` *matname*`[`i`, `i`]*`*varname*^{i}

The coefficients corresponding to the constant term are placed in the last column of the matrix. The last row of the matrix is all zeros, except for the last column, which corresponds to the constant term.

`degree(#)` specifies the highest-degree polynomial to include. Orthogonal polynomials of degree 1, 2, ..., d = # are computed. The default is $d = 1$.

Remarks and examples

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Orthogonal variables are useful for two reasons. The first is numerical accuracy for highly collinear variables. Stata's `regress` and other estimation commands can face much collinearity and still produce accurate results. But, at some point, these commands will drop variables because of collinearity. If you know with certainty that the variables are not perfectly collinear, you may want to retain all their effects in the model. If you use `orthog` or `orthpoly` to produce a set of orthogonal variables, all variables will be present in the estimation results.

Users are more likely to find orthogonal variables useful for the second reason: ease of interpreting results. `orthog` and `orthpoly` create a set of variables such that the "effects" of all the preceding variables have been removed from each variable. For example, if we issue the command

```
. orthog x1 x2 x3, generate(q1 q2 q3)
```

the effect of the constant is removed from `x1` to produce `q1`; the constant and `x1` are removed from `x2` to produce `q2`; and finally the constant, `x1`, and `x2` are removed from `x3` to produce `q3`. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}\texttt{q1} &= r_{01} + r_{11}\,\texttt{x1}\\ \texttt{q2} &= r_{02} + r_{12}\,\texttt{x1} + r_{22}\,\texttt{x2}\\ \texttt{q3} &= r_{03} + r_{13}\,\texttt{x1} + r_{23}\,\texttt{x2} + r_{33}\,\texttt{x3}\end{aligned}$$

This effect can be generalized and written in matrix notation as

$$X = QR$$

where X is the $N \times (d+1)$ matrix representation of *varlist* plus a column of ones, and Q is the $N \times (d+1)$ matrix representation of *newvarlist* plus a column of ones (d = number of variables in *varlist* and N = number of observations). The $(d+1) \times (d+1)$ matrix R is a permuted upper-triangular matrix, that is, R would be upper triangular if the constant were first, but the constant is last, so the first row/column has been permuted with the last row/column. Because Stata's estimation commands list the constant term last, this allows R, obtained via the `matrix()` option, to be used to transform estimation results.

▷ Example 1: orthog

Consider Stata's `auto.dta` dataset. Suppose that we postulate a model in which `price` depends on the car's `length`, `weight`, `headroom`, and trunk size (`trunk`). These predictors are collinear, but not extremely so—the correlations are not that close to 1:

```
. use https://www.stata-press.com/data/r18/auto
(1978 automobile data)
. correlate length weight headroom trunk
(obs=74)
```

	length	weight	headroom	trunk
length	1.0000			
weight	0.9460	1.0000		
headroom	0.5163	0.4835	1.0000	
trunk	0.7266	0.6722	0.6620	1.0000

`regress` certainly has no trouble fitting this model:

```
. regress price length weight headroom trunk
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	74
				F(4, 69)	=	10.20
Model	236016580	4	59004145	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual	399048816	69	5783316.17	R-squared	=	0.3716
				Adj R-squared	=	0.3352
Total	635065396	73	8699525.97	Root MSE	=	2404.9

price	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P>|t|	[95% conf.	interval]
length	-101.7092	42.12534	-2.41	0.018	-185.747	-17.67147
weight	4.753066	1.120054	4.24	0.000	2.518619	6.987512
headroom	-711.5679	445.0204	-1.60	0.114	-1599.359	176.2236
trunk	114.0859	109.9488	1.04	0.303	-105.2559	333.4277
_cons	11488.47	4543.902	2.53	0.014	2423.638	20553.31

However, we may believe a priori that `length` is the most important predictor, followed by `weight`, `headroom`, and `trunk`. We would like to remove the "effect" of `length` from all the other predictors, remove `weight` from `headroom` and `trunk`, and remove `headroom` from `trunk`. We can do this by running `orthog`, and then we fit the model again using the orthogonal variables:

```
. orthog length weight headroom trunk, gen(olength oweight oheadroom otrunk)
> matrix(R)
. regress price olength oweight oheadroom otrunk
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	74
				F(4, 69)	=	10.20
Model	236016580	4	59004145	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Residual	399048816	69	5783316.17	R-squared	=	0.3716
				Adj R-squared	=	0.3352
Total	635065396	73	8699525.97	Root MSE	=	2404.9

price	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P>|t|	[95% conf.	interval]
olength	1265.049	279.5584	4.53	0.000	707.3454	1822.753
oweight	1175.765	279.5584	4.21	0.000	618.0617	1733.469
oheadroom	-349.9916	279.5584	-1.25	0.215	-907.6955	207.7122
otrunk	290.0776	279.5584	1.04	0.303	-267.6262	847.7815
_cons	6165.257	279.5584	22.05	0.000	5607.553	6722.961

Using the matrix `R`, we can transform the results obtained using the orthogonal predictors back to the metric of original predictors:

```
. matrix b = e(b)*inv(R)'
. matrix list b
b[1,5]
        length      weight    headroom       trunk       _cons
y1  -101.70924   4.7530659  -711.56789   114.08591   11488.475
```

◁

❑ Technical note

The matrix R obtained using the `matrix()` option with `orthog` can also be used to recover X (the original *varlist*) from Q (the orthogonalized *newvarlist*), one variable at a time. Continuing with the previous example, we illustrate how to recover the `trunk` variable:

```
. matrix C = R[1...,"trunk"]'
. matrix score double rtrunk = C
. compare rtrunk trunk
```

	Count	Difference		
		Minimum	Average	Maximum
rtrunk>trunk	74	8.88e-15	1.91e-14	3.55e-14
Jointly defined	74	8.88e-15	1.91e-14	3.55e-14
Total	74			

Here the recovered variable `rtrunk` is almost exactly the same as the original `trunk` variable. When you are orthogonalizing many variables, this procedure can be performed to check the numerical soundness of the orthogonalization. Because of the ordering of the orthogonalization procedure, the last variable and the variables near the end of the *varlist* are the most important ones to check.

❑

The `orthpoly` command effectively does for polynomial terms what the `orthog` command does for an arbitrary set of variables.

▷ Example 2: orthpoly

Again consider the `auto.dta` dataset. Suppose that we wish to fit the model

$$\texttt{mpg} = \beta_0 + \beta_1\,\texttt{weight} + \beta_2\,\texttt{weight}^2 + \beta_3\,\texttt{weight}^3 + \beta_4\,\texttt{weight}^4 + \epsilon$$

We will first compute the regression with natural polynomials:

```
. generate double w1 = weight
. generate double w2 = w1*w1
. generate double w3 = w2*w1
. generate double w4 = w3*w1
. correlate w1-w4
(obs=74)
```

	w1	w2	w3	w4
w1	1.0000			
w2	0.9915	1.0000		
w3	0.9665	0.9916	1.0000	
w4	0.9279	0.9679	0.9922	1.0000

```
. regress mpg w1-w4
```

Source	SS	df	MS		
				Number of obs	= 74
				F(4, 69)	= 36.06
Model	1652.73666	4	413.184164	Prob > F	= 0.0000
Residual	790.722803	69	11.4597508	R-squared	= 0.6764
				Adj R-squared	= 0.6576
Total	2443.45946	73	33.4720474	Root MSE	= 3.3852

mpg	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P>|t|	[95% conf.	interval]
w1	.0289302	.1161939	0.25	0.804	-.2028704	.2607307
w2	-.0000229	.0000566	-0.40	0.687	-.0001359	.0000901
w3	5.74e-09	1.19e-08	0.48	0.631	-1.80e-08	2.95e-08
w4	-4.86e-13	9.14e-13	-0.53	0.596	-2.31e-12	1.34e-12
_cons	23.94421	86.60667	0.28	0.783	-148.8314	196.7198

Some of the correlations among the powers of `weight` are very large, but this does not create any problems for `regress`. However, we may wish to look at the quadratic trend with the constant removed, the cubic trend with the quadratic and constant removed, etc. `orthpoly` will generate polynomial terms with this property:

```
. orthpoly weight, generate(pw*) deg(4) poly(P)
. regress mpg pw1-pw4
```

Source	SS	df	MS		
				Number of obs	= 74
				F(4, 69)	= 36.06
Model	1652.73666	4	413.184164	Prob > F	= 0.0000
Residual	790.722803	69	11.4597508	R-squared	= 0.6764
				Adj R-squared	= 0.6576
Total	2443.45946	73	33.4720474	Root MSE	= 3.3852

mpg	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P>|t|	[95% conf.	interval]
pw1	-4.638252	.3935245	-11.79	0.000	-5.423312	-3.853192
pw2	.8263545	.3935245	2.10	0.039	.0412947	1.611414
pw3	-.3068616	.3935245	-0.78	0.438	-1.091921	.4781982
pw4	-.209457	.3935245	-0.53	0.596	-.9945168	.5756028
_cons	21.2973	.3935245	54.12	0.000	20.51224	22.08236

Compare the p-values of the terms in the natural polynomial regression with those in the orthogonal polynomial regression. With orthogonal polynomials, it is easy to see that the pure cubic and quartic trends are not significant and that the constant, linear, and quadratic terms each have $p < 0.05$.

The matrix `P` obtained with the `poly()` option can be used to transform coefficients for orthogonal polynomials to coefficients for natural polynomials:

```
. orthpoly weight, poly(P) deg(4)
. matrix b = e(b)*P
. matrix list b
b[1,5]
          deg1        deg2        deg3        deg4       _cons
y1   .02893016  -.00002291   5.745e-09  -4.862e-13   23.944212
```

◁

Methods and formulas

`orthog`'s orthogonalization can be written in matrix notation as

$$X = QR$$

where X is the $N \times (d+1)$ matrix representation of *varlist* plus a column of ones and Q is the $N \times (d+1)$ matrix representation of *newvarlist* plus a column of ones (d = number of variables in *varlist*, and N = number of observations). The $(d+1) \times (d+1)$ matrix R is a permuted upper-triangular matrix; that is, R would be upper triangular if the constant were first, but the constant is last, so the first row/column has been permuted with the last row/column.

Q and R are obtained using a modified Gram–Schmidt procedure; see Golub and Van Loan (2013, 254–255) for details. The traditional Gram–Schmidt procedure is notoriously unsound, but the modified procedure is good. `orthog` performs two passes of this procedure.

`orthpoly` uses the Christoffel–Darboux recurrence formula (Abramowitz and Stegun 1964).

Both `orthog` and `orthpoly` normalize the orthogonal variables such that

$$Q'WQ = MI$$

where $W = \text{diag}(w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_N)$ with weights $w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_N$ (all 1 if weights are not specified), and M is the sum of the weights (the number of observations if weights are not specified).

References

Abramowitz, M., and I. A. Stegun, ed. 1964. *Handbook of Mathematical Functions with Formulas, Graphs, and Mathematical Tables*. Washington, DC: National Bureau of Standards.

Golub, G. H., and C. F. Van Loan. 2013. *Matrix Computations*. 4th ed. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Also see

[R] **regress** — Linear regression