

Interactions as Products of Independent Variables

Categorical by Quantitative

An interaction between a quantitative variable and a categorical variable means that differences in $E[Y]$ between categories depend on the value of the quantitative variable, or (equivalently) that the slope of the lines relating x to $E[Y]$ are different, depending on category membership. Such an interaction is represented by **products** of the quantitative variable and the dummy variables for the categorical variable.

For example, consider the metric cars data (mcars.dat). It has length, weight, origin and fuel efficiency in kilometers per litre, for a sample of cars. The three origins are US, Japanese and Other. Presumably these refer to the location of the head office, not to where the car was manufactured.

Let's use indicator dummy variable coding for origin, with an intercept. In an Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA), we'd test country of origin controlling, say, for weight. Letting x represent weight and c_1 and c_2 the dummy variables for country of origin, the model would be

$$E[Y] = b_0 + b_1x + b_2c_1 + b_3c_2.$$

This model assumes no interaction between country and weight. The following model includes product terms for the interaction, and would allow you to test it.

$$E[Y] = \beta_0 + \beta_1x + \beta_2c_1 + \beta_3c_2 + \beta_4c_1x + \beta_5c_2x$$

Country	c_1	c_2	Expected KPL (let $x = \text{weight}$)
U. S.	1	0	$(\beta_0 + \beta_2) + (\beta_1 + \beta_4)x$
Japan	0	0	$\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$
European	0	1	$(\beta_0 + \beta_3) + (\beta_1 + \beta_5)x$

It's clear that the slopes are parallel if and only if $\beta_4 = \beta_5 = 0$, and that in this case the relationship of fuel efficiency to country would not depend on weight of the car.

As the program below shows, interaction terms are created by literally multiplying independent variables, and using products as additional independent variables in the regression equation.

```
/****** mcars.sas *****/
options linesize=79 pagesize=100 noovp formdlim='-';
title 'Metric Cars Data: Dummy Vars and Interactions';

proc format; /* Used to label values of the categorical variables */
    value carfmt      1 = 'US'
                    2 = 'Japanese'
                    3 = 'European' ;

data auto;
    infile 'mcars.dat';
    input id country kpl weight length;
/* Indicator dummy vars: Ref category is Japanese */
    if country = 1 then c1=1; else c1=0;
    if country = 3 then c2=1; else c2=0;
/* Interaction Terms */
    cw1 = c1*weight; cw2 = c2*weight;
    label country = 'Country of Origin'
           kpl = 'Kilometers per Litre';
    format country carfmt.;

proc means;
    class country;
    var weight kpl;

proc glm;
    title 'One-way ANOVA';
    class country;
    model kpl = country;
    means country / tukey;

proc reg;
    title 'ANCOVA';
    model kpl = weight c1 c2;
    country: test c1 = c2 = 0;

proc reg;
    title 'Test parallel slopes (Interaction)';
    model kpl = weight c1 c2 cw1 cw2;
    interac: test cw1 = cw2 = 0;
    useuro: test cw1=cw2;
    country: test c1 = c2 = 0;
    eqreg: test c1=c2=cw1=cw2=0;

proc iml; /* Critical value for Scheffe tests */
    critval = finv(.95,4,94) ; print critval;
```

```
/* Could do most of it with proc glm: ANCOVA, then test interaction */
```

```
proc glm;
  class country;
  model kpl = weight country;
  lsmeans country;
```

```
proc glm;
  class country;
  model kpl = weight country weight*country;
```

Let's take a look at the output. First, proc means indicates that the US cars get lower gas mileage, and that weight is a potential confounding variable.

COUNTRY	N Obs	Variable	Label	N	Mean
US	73	WEIGHT		73	1540.23
		KPL	Kilometers per Litre	73	8.1583562
Japanese	13	WEIGHT		13	1060.27
		KPL	Kilometers per Litre	13	9.8215385
European	14	WEIGHT		14	1080.32
		KPL	Kilometers per Litre	14	11.1600000

COUNTRY	N Obs	Variable	Label	Std Dev	Minimum
US	73	WEIGHT		327.7785402	949.5000000
		KPL	Kilometers per Litre	1.9760813	5.0400000
Japanese	13	WEIGHT		104.8370989	891.0000000
		KPL	Kilometers per Litre	2.3976719	7.5600000
European	14	WEIGHT		240.9106607	823.5000000
		KPL	Kilometers per Litre	4.2440764	5.8800000

COUNTRY	N Obs	Variable	Label	Maximum
US	73	WEIGHT		2178.00
		KPL	Kilometers per Litre	12.6000000
Japanese	13	WEIGHT		1237.50
		KPL	Kilometers per Litre	14.7000000
European	14	WEIGHT		1539.00
		KPL	Kilometers per Litre	17.2200000

The one-way ANOVA indicates that fuel efficiency is significantly related to country of origin; country explains 17% of the variation in fuel efficiency.

General Linear Models Procedure

Dependent Variable: KPL		Kilometers per Litre			
Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	121.59232403	60.79616201	10.09	0.0001
Error	97	584.29697197	6.02368012		
Corrected Total	99	705.88929600			
	R-Square	C.V.	Root MSE	KPL Mean	
	0.172254	27.90648	2.4543187	8.7948000	

The Tukey follow-ups are not shown, but they indicate that only the US-European difference is significant. Maybe the US cars are less efficient because they are big and heavy. So let's do the same test, controlling for weight of car. Here's the SAS code. Note this is a standard Analysis of Covariance, and we're *assuming* no interaction.

```
proc reg;
  title 'ANCOVA';
  model kpl = weight c1 c2;
  country: test c1 = c2 = 0;
```

Dependent Variable: KPL		Kilometers per Litre			
Analysis of Variance					
Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Prob>F
Model	3	436.21151	145.40384	51.761	0.0001
Error	96	269.67779	2.80914		
C Total	99	705.88930			
	Root MSE	1.67605	R-square	0.6180	
	Dep Mean	8.79480	Adj R-sq	0.6060	
	C.V.	19.05728			

The *direction* of the results has changed because we controlled for weight. This can happen.

Also, may seem strange that the tests for β_2 and β_3 are each significant individually, but the simultaneous test for both of them is not. But this the simultaneous test implicitly includes a comparison between U.S. and European cars, and they are very close, once you control for weight.

The best way to summarize these results would be to calculate \hat{Y} for each country of origin, with weight set equal to its mean value in the sample. Instead of doing that, though, let's first test the interaction, which this analysis is *assuming* to be absent.

```
proc reg;
  title 'Test parallel slopes (Interaction)';
  model kpl = weight c1 c2 cw1 cw2;
  interac: test cw1 = cw2 = 0;
  useuro: test cw1=cw2;
  country: test c1 = c2 = 0;
  eqreg: test c1=c2=cw1=cw2=0;
```

Dependent Variable: KPL Kilometers per Litre

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Prob>F
Model	5	489.27223	97.85445	42.463	0.0001
Error	94	216.61706	2.30444		
C Total	99	705.88930			
Root MSE	1.51804	R-square	0.6931		
Dep Mean	8.79480	Adj R-sq	0.6768		
C.V.	17.26062				

Parameter Estimates

Variable	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	T for H0: Parameter=0	Prob > T
INTERCEP	1	29.194817	4.45188417	6.558	0.0001
WEIGHT	1	-0.018272	0.00418000	-4.371	0.0001
C1	1	-12.973668	4.53404398	-2.861	0.0052
C2	1	-4.891978	4.85268101	-1.008	0.3160
CW1	1	0.013037	0.00421549	3.093	0.0026
CW2	1	0.006106	0.00453064	1.348	0.1810

Dependent Variable: KPL
 Test: INTERAC Numerator: 26.5304 DF: 2 F value: 11.5127
 Denominator: 2.304437 DF: 94 Prob>F: 0.0001

Dependent Variable: KPL
 Test: USEURO Numerator: 33.0228 DF: 1 F value: 14.3301
 Denominator: 2.304437 DF: 94 Prob>F: 0.0003

Dependent Variable: KPL
 Test: COUNTRY Numerator: 24.4819 DF: 2 F value: 10.6238
 Denominator: 2.304437 DF: 94 Prob>F: 0.0001

Dependent Variable: KPL
 Test: EQREG Numerator: 17.5736 DF: 4 F value: 7.6260
 Denominator: 2.304437 DF: 94 Prob>F: 0.0001

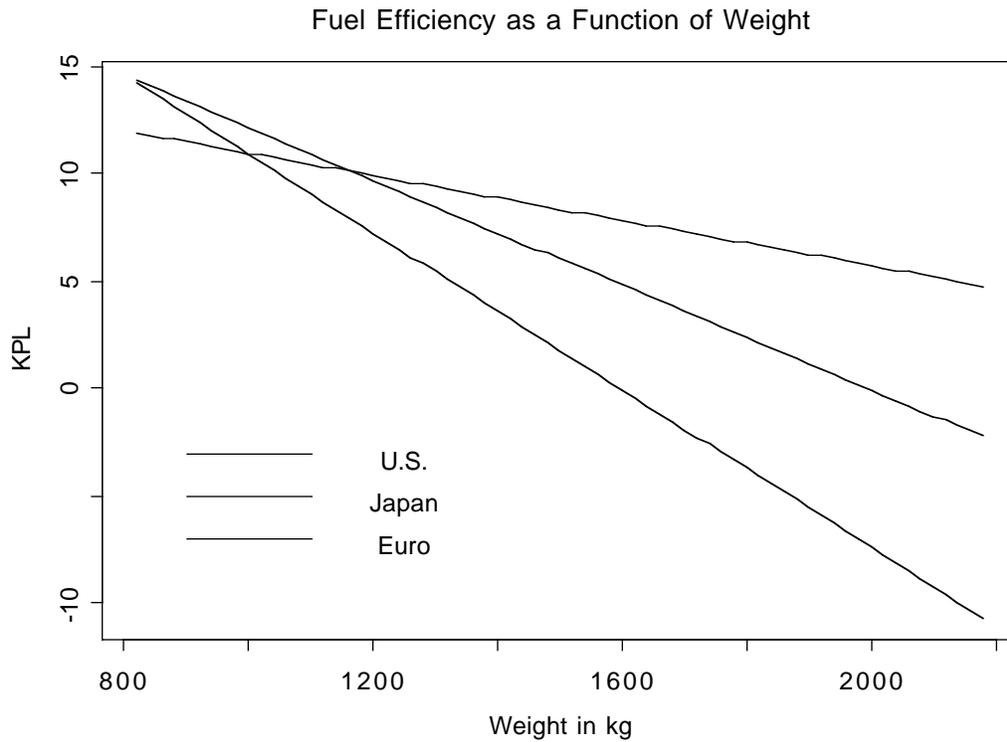
Now the coefficients for the dummy variables are both negative, and the coefficients for the interaction terms are positive. To see what's going on, we need a table *and* a picture -- of \hat{Y} .

$$\hat{Y} = b_0 + b_1x + b_2c_1 + b_3c_2 + b_4c_1x + b_5c_2x$$

$$= 29.194817 - 0.018272x - 12.973668c_1 - 4.891978c_2 + 0.013037c_1x + 0.006106c_2x$$

Country	c1	c2	Predicted KPL (let x = weight)
U. S.	1	0	$(b_0 + b_2) + (b_1 + b_4)x = 16.22 - 0.005235 x$
Japan	0	0	$b_0 + b_1 x = 29.19 - 0.018272 x$
European	0	1	$(b_0 + b_3) + (b_1 + b_5)x = 24.30 - 0.012166 x$

From the proc means output, we find that the lightest car was 823.5kg, while the heaviest was 2178kg. So we will let the graph range from 820 to 2180.



When there were no interaction terms, b2 and b3 represented a main effect for country. What do they represent now?

From the picture, it is clear that the most interesting thing is that the slope of the line relating weight to fuel efficiency is least steep for the U.S. Is it significant? $0.05/3 = 0.0167$.

Repeating earlier material, ...

Parameter Estimates

Variable	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	T for H0: Parameter=0	Prob > T
INTERCEP	1	29.194817	4.45188417	6.558	0.0001
WEIGHT	1	-0.018272	0.00418000	-4.371	0.0001
C1	1	-12.973668	4.53404398	-2.861	0.0052
C2	1	-4.891978	4.85268101	-1.008	0.3160
CW1	1	0.013037	0.00421549	3.093	0.0026
CW2	1	0.006106	0.00453064	1.348	0.1810

```
useuro: test cw1=cw2;
```

Dependent Variable: KPL

```
Test: USEURO  Numerator:    33.0228  DF:    1  F value:  14.3301
                Denominator:  2.304437  DF:   94  Prob>F:   0.0003
```

The conclusion is that with a Bonferroni correction, the slope is less (less steep) for US than for either Japanese or European, but Japanese and European are not significantly different from each other.

Another interesting follow-up would be to use Scheffé tests to compare the heights of the regression lines at many values of weight; infinitely many comparisons would be protected simultaneously. This is not a proper follow-up to the interaction. What is the initial test?

Quantitative by Quantitative

An interaction of two quantitative variables is literally represented by their product. For example, consider the model

$$E[Y] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_1 x_2$$

Hold x_2 fixed at some particular value, and re-arrange the terms. This yields

$$E[Y] = (\beta_0 + \beta_2 x_2) + (\beta_1 + \beta_3 x_2) x_1.$$

so that there is a linear relationship between x_1 and $E[Y]$, with both the slope and the intercept depending on the value of x_2 . Similarly, for a fixed value of x_1 ,

$$E[Y] = (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1) + (\beta_2 + \beta_3 x_1) x_2,$$

and the (linear) relationship of x_2 to $E[Y]$ depends on the value of x_1 . We always have this kind of symmetry.

Three-way interactions are represented by 3-way products, etc. Its interpretation would be "the 2-way interaction depends ..."

Product terms represent interactions ONLY when all the variables involved and all lower order interactions involving those variables are also included in the model!

Categorical by Categorical

It is no surprise that interactions between categorical independent variables are represented by products. If A and B are categorical variables, IVs representing the A by B interaction are obtained by multiplying each dummy variable for A by each dummy variable for B. If there is a third IV cleverly named C and you want the 3-way interaction, multiply each of the dummy variables for C by each of the products representing the A by B interaction. This rule extends to interactions of any order.

Up till now, we have represented categorical independent variables with indicator dummy variables, coded 0 or 1. If interactions between categorical IVs are to be represented, it is much better to use "effect coding," so that the regression coefficients for the dummy variables correspond to main effects. (In a 2-way design, products of indicator dummy variables still correspond to interaction terms, but if an interaction is present, the interpretation of the coefficients for the indicator dummy variables is not what you might guess.)

Effect coding. There is an intercept. As usual, a categorical independent variable with k categories is represented by k-1 dummy variables. The rule is

Dummy var 1: First value of the IV gets a 1, last gets a minus 1, all others get zero.

Dummy var 2: Second value of the IV gets a 1, last gets a minus 1, all others get zero.

...

Dummy var k-1: k-1st value of the IV gets a 1, last gets a minus 1, all others get zero.

Here is a table showing effect coding for Plant from the Greenhouse data.

Country	p1	p2	$E[Y] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 p_1 + \beta_2 p_2$
GP159	1	0	$\mu_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1$
Hanna	0	1	$\mu_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_2$
Westar	-1	-1	$\mu_3 = \beta_0 - \beta_1 - \beta_2$

It is clear that $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$ if and only if $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$, so it's a valid dummy variable coding scheme even though it looks strange.

Country	p1	p2	$E[Y] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 p_1 + \beta_2 p_2$
GP159	1	0	$\mu_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1$
Hanna	0	1	$\mu_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_2$
Westar	-1	-1	$\mu_3 = \beta_0 - \beta_1 - \beta_2$

Effect coding has these properties, which extend to any number of categories.

- $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$ if and only if $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$.
- The average population mean (grand mean) is $(\mu_1 + \mu_2 + \mu_3)/3 = \beta_0$.
- β_1 , β_2 and $-(\beta_1 + \beta_2)$ are deviations from the grand mean.

The real advantage of effect coding is that the dummy variables behave nicely when multiplied together, so that main effects correspond to collections of dummy variables, and interactions correspond to their products -- in a simple way. This is illustrated for Plant by MCG analysis, using the full greenhouse data set).

```
data nasty;
  set yucky;
  /* Two dummy variables for plant */
  if plant=. then p1=.;
  else if plant=1 then p1=1;
  else if plant=3 then p1=-1;
  else p1=0;
  if plant=. then p2=.;
  else if plant=2 then p2=1;
  else if plant=3 then p2=-1;
  else p2=0;
```

```

/* Five dummy variables for mcg */
  if mcg=. then f1=.;
    else if mcg=1 then f1=1;
    else if mcg=9 then f1=-1;
    else f1=0;
  if mcg=. then f2=.;
    else if mcg=2 then f2=1;
    else if mcg=9 then f2=-1;
    else f2=0;
  if mcg=. then f3=.;
    else if mcg=3 then f3=1;
    else if mcg=9 then f3=-1;
    else f3=0;
  if mcg=. then f4=.;
    else if mcg=7 then f4=1;
    else if mcg=9 then f4=-1;
    else f4=0;
  if mcg=. then f5=.;
    else if mcg=8 then f5=1;
    else if mcg=9 then f5=-1;
    else f5=0;
/* Product terms for the interaction */
  p1f1 = p1*f1; p1f2=p1*f2 ; p1f3=p1*f3 ; p1f4=p1*f4; p1f5=p1*f5;
  p2f1 = p2*f1; p2f2=p2*f2 ; p2f3=p2*f3 ; p2f4=p2*f4; p2f5=p2*f5;

proc reg;
  model meanlng = p1 -- p2f5;
  plant: test p1=p2=0;
  mcg: test f1=f2=f3=f4=f5=0;
  p_by_f: test p1f1=p1f2=p1f3=p1f4=p1f5=p2f1=p2f2=p2f3=p2f4=p2f5 = 0;

```

Here is the output from the test statement. For comparison, it is followed by `proc glm` output from `model meanlng = plant|mcg`.

```
Dependent Variable: MEANLNG
Test: PLANT      Numerator: 110847.5637  DF:    2   F value: 113.9032
                  Denominator:  973.1736  DF:   90   Prob>F:   0.0001
```

```
Dependent Variable: MEANLNG
Test: MCG       Numerator: 11748.0529  DF:    5   F value:  12.0719
                  Denominator:  973.1736  DF:   90   Prob>F:   0.0001
```

```
Dependent Variable: MEANLNG
Test: P_BY_F    Numerator:  4758.1481  DF:   10   F value:   4.8893
                  Denominator:  973.1736  DF:   90   Prob>F:   0.0001
```

Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
PLANT	2	221695.12747	110847.56373	113.90	0.0001
MCG	5	58740.26456	11748.05291	12.07	0.0001
PLANT*MCG	10	47581.48147	4758.14815	4.89	0.0001

It worked.

Effect coding works as expected in conjunction with quantitative independent variables. In particular, products of quantitative and indicator variables still represent interactions. In fact, the big advantage of effect coding is that you can use it to test categorical independent variables, and interactions between categorical independent variables -- in a bigger multiple regression context.