

Title

svy postestimation — Postestimation tools for svy

Description

The following postestimation commands are available for `svy`:

command	description
<code>estat (svy)</code>	postestimation statistics for survey data
<code>estimates</code>	cataloging estimation results
<code>lincom</code>	point estimates, standard errors, testing, and inference for linear combinations of coefficients
<code>margins</code>	marginal means, predictive margins, marginal effects, and average marginal effects
<code>nlcom</code>	point estimates, standard errors, testing, and inference for nonlinear combinations of coefficients
<code>predict</code>	predictions, residuals, influence statistics, and other diagnostic measures
<code>predictnl</code>	point estimates, standard errors, testing, and inference for generalized predictions
<code>suest</code>	seemingly unrelated estimation
<code>test</code>	Wald tests of simple and composite linear hypotheses
<code>testnl</code>	Wald tests of nonlinear hypotheses

See [SVY] `estat`.

See the corresponding entries in the *Stata Base Reference Manual* for details.

Syntax for predict

The syntax of `predict` (and even if `predict` is allowed) after `svy` depends on the command used with `svy`. Specifically, `predict` is not allowed after `svy: mean`, `svy: proportion`, `svy: ratio`, `svy: tabulate`, or `svy: total`.

Remarks

What follows are some examples of applications of postestimation commands using survey data. The examples are meant only to introduce the commands in a survey context and explore a few of the possibilities for postestimation analysis. See the individual entries for each command in the *Base Reference Manual* for complete syntax and many more examples.

▷ Example 1: Linear and nonlinear combinations

`lincom` will display an estimate of a linear combination of parameters, along with its standard error, a confidence interval, and a test that the linear combination is zero. `nlcom` will do likewise for nonlinear combinations of parameters.

`lincom` is commonly used to compute the differences of two subpopulation means. For example, suppose that we wish to estimate the difference of zinc levels in white males versus black males in the population represented by the NHANES II data (McDowell et al. 1981). Because the survey design characteristics are already `svyset` in `nhanes2.dta`, we only need to generate a variable for identifying the male subpopulation before using `svy: mean`.

```

. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r11/nhanes2
. generate male = (sex == 1)
. svy, subpop(male): mean zinc, over(race)
(running mean on estimation sample)
Survey: Mean estimation
Number of strata =      31      Number of obs   =      9811
Number of PSUs  =      62      Population size = 111127314
                                   Subpop. no. obs   =      4375
                                   Subpop. size      = 50129281
                                   Design df         =        31

White: race = White
Black: race = Black
Other: race = Other

```

Over	Linearized			
	Mean	Std. Err.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
zinc				
White	91.15725	.541625	90.0526	92.2619
Black	88.269	1.208336	85.80458	90.73342
Other	85.54716	2.608974	80.22612	90.8682

Then we run `lincom` to estimate the difference of zinc levels between the two subpopulations.

```

. lincom [zinc]White - [zinc]Black
( 1) [zinc]White - [zinc]Black = 0

```

Mean	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
(1)	2.888249	1.103999	2.62	0.014	.6366288	5.139868

The t statistic and its p -value give a survey analysis equivalent of a two-sample t test.

`lincom` and `nlcom` can be used after any of the estimation commands described in [SVY] **svy estimation**. `lincom` can, for example, display results as odds ratios after `svy: logit` and can be used to compute odds ratios for one covariate group relative to another. `nlcom` can display odds ratios, as well, and allows more general nonlinear combinations of the parameters. See [R] **lincom** and [R] **nlcom** for full details. Also see Eltinge and Sribney (1996) for an earlier implementation of `lincom` for survey data.

Finally, `lincom` and `nlcom` operate on the estimated parameters only. To obtain estimates and inference for functions of the parameters and of the data, such as for an exponentiated linear predictor or a predicted probability of success from a logit model, use `predictnl`; see [R] **predictnl**.

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▷ Example 2: Quadratic terms

From example 2 in [SVY] **svy estimation**, we modeled the incidence of high blood pressure as a function of height, weight, age, and sex (using the `female` indicator variable). Here we also include `c.age#c.age`, a squared term for age.

```
. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r11/nhanes2d, clear
. svy: logistic highbp height weight age c.age#c.age female
(running logistic on estimation sample)
Survey: Logistic regression
Number of strata =      31          Number of obs   =    10351
Number of PSUs  =      62          Population size =  117157513
                                          Design df      =       31
                                          F( 5, 27)      =    108.92
                                          Prob > F       =     0.0000
```

highbp	Linearized		t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.				
height	.967517	.0057521	-5.55	0.000	.9558564	.9793199
weight	1.051088	.0034035	15.39	0.000	1.044169	1.058052
age	1.165921	.0242516	7.38	0.000	1.117494	1.216447
c.age#c.age	.9989282	.0002015	-5.32	0.000	.9985173	.9993392
female	.7091193	.0634648	-3.84	0.001	.590808	.8511227

Because our model includes a quadratic in the age variable, the peak incidence of high blood pressure with respect to age will occur at $-_b[\text{age}]/(2*_b[\text{c.age}\#\text{c.age}])$, which we can estimate, along with its standard error, using `nlcom`.

```
. nlcom peak: -_b[age]/(2*_b[c.age#c.age])
      peak: -_b[age]/(2*_b[c.age#c.age])
```

highbp	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
peak	71.57263	4.022564	17.79	0.000	63.36856	79.77671

Or we can use `testnl` to test that the peak incidence of high blood pressure in the population is 70 years.

```
. testnl -_b[age]/(2*_b[c.age#c.age]) = 70
      (1) -_b[age]/(2*_b[c.age#c.age]) = 70
           F(1, 31) =      0.15
           Prob > F =      0.6985
```

These data do not reject our theory. `testnl` allows multiple hypotheses to be tested jointly and applies the degrees-of-freedom adjustment for survey results; see [R] **testnl**.

▷ Example 3: Predictive margins

Changing our logistic regression for high blood pressure slightly, we add a factor variable for the levels of race. Level 1 of race represents whites, level 2 represents blacks, and level 3 represents others. We also specify that `female` is a factor variable, which does not change its coefficient but does increase its functionality with some postestimation commands.

```
. svy: logistic highbp height weight age c.age#c.age i.female i.race, baselevels
(running logistic on estimation sample)
```

Survey: Logistic regression

```
Number of strata =      31          Number of obs   =    10351
Number of PSUs   =      62          Population size = 117157513
                                   Design df       =       31
                                   F( 7, 25)         =    72.33
                                   Prob > F         =    0.0000
```

highbp	Linearized					
	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
height	.9683005	.0056137	-5.56	0.000	.9569187	.9798177
weight	1.050374	.0033535	15.39	0.000	1.043557	1.057236
age	1.166568	.0242898	7.40	0.000	1.118066	1.217174
c.age#c.age	.9989275	.0002008	-5.34	0.000	.9985182	.9993371
female	(base)					
0	(base)					
1	.7044769	.060717	-4.06	0.000	.5909168	.8398605
race	(base)					
1	(base)					
2	1.413595	.2000043	2.45	0.020	1.059262	1.886454
3	1.162631	.5057044	0.35	0.731	.478819	2.82301

Our point estimates indicate that the odds of females having high blood pressure is about 70% of the odds for men and that the odds of blacks having high blood pressure is about 1.4 times that of whites. The odds ratios give us the relative effects of their covariates, but they do not give us any sense of the absolute size of the effects. The odds ratio comparing blacks with whites is clearly large and statistically significant, but does it represent a sizable change? One way to answer that question is to explore the probabilities of high blood pressure from our fitted model. Let's first look at the predictive margins of the probability of high blood pressure for the three levels of race.

```
. margins race, vce(svy)
```

Predictive margins Number of obs = 10351

Expression : Pr(highbp), predict()

race	Linearized					
	Margin	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
1	.1024922	.0068574	14.95	0.000	.0885065	.1164779
2	.1337316	.0143502	9.32	0.000	.1044642	.162999
3	.1152981	.0380074	3.03	0.005	.0377814	.1928148

Because our response is a probability, these margins are sometimes called predicted marginal proportions or model-adjusted risks. They let us compare the effect of our three racial groups while controlling for the distribution of other covariates in the groups. Computationally, these predictive

margins are the weighted average of the predicted probabilities for each observation in the estimation sample. The marginal probability for whites is the average probability, assuming that everyone in the sample is white; the margin for blacks assumes that everyone is black; and the margin for others assumes that everyone is something other than black or white.

There is a sizable difference in blood pressure between whites and blacks, with the marginal probability of high blood pressure for whites being about 10% and that for blacks being just over 13%. These are the adjusted probability levels. A more direct answer to our question about whether the odds ratios represent a substantial effect requires looking at the differences of these marginal probabilities. Researchers in the health-related sciences call such differences risk differences, whereas researchers in the social sciences usually call them average marginal effects or average partial effects.

Regardless of terminology, we are interested in the difference in the probability of blacks having high blood pressure as compared with whites, while adjusting for all other covariates in the model. We request risk differences by specifying the variables of interest in a `dydx()` option.

```
. margins, vce(svy) dydx(race)
Average marginal effects           Number of obs   =       10351
Expression   : Pr(highbp), predict()
dy/dx w.r.t. : 2.race 3.race
```

	Linearized					
	dy/dx	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
race						
2	.0312395	.0137273	2.28	0.030	.0032424	.0592366
3	.0128059	.0385697	0.33	0.742	-.0658575	.0914693

Note: dy/dx for factor levels is the discrete change from the base level.

Looking in the column labeled `dy/dx`, we see that the risk difference between blacks and whites is about 3.1% (0.0312). That is a sizable as well as significant difference.

Because they are population-weighted averages over the whole sample, these margins are estimates of the population average risk differences. And because we specified the `vce(svy)` option, their standard errors and confidence intervals can be used to make inferences about the population average risk differences. See *Methods and formulas* in [R] **margins** for details.

We can also compute margins or risk differences for subpopulations. To compute risk differences for the four subpopulations that are the regions of the United States—Northeast, Midwest, South, and West—we add the `by(region)` option.

(Continued on next page)

```
. margins, vce(svy) dydx(race) by(region)
Average marginal effects          Number of obs   =       10351
Expression   : Pr(highbp), predict()
dy/dx w.r.t. : 2.race 3.race
By           : region
```

		Linearized		t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
		dy/dx	Std. Err.				
2.race							
	region						
	1	.032436	.014278	2.27	0.030	.0033159	.0615561
	2	.0304643	.0135598	2.25	0.032	.0028088	.0581197
	3	.0325231	.0140719	2.31	0.028	.0038232	.061223
	4	.0298228	.0131634	2.27	0.031	.0029759	.0566697
3.race							
	region						
	1	.0133025	.0400776	0.33	0.742	-.0684363	.0950413
	2	.0124846	.0376194	0.33	0.742	-.0642407	.0892098
	3	.0133421	.0401567	0.33	0.742	-.0685581	.0952422
	4	.0122144	.0367734	0.33	0.742	-.0627855	.0872143

Note: dy/dx for factor levels is the discrete change from the base level.

The differences in the covariate distributions across the regions have little effect on the risk differences between blacks and whites, or between other races and whites.

Rather than explore the probabilities after logistic regression, we might have explored the hazards or mean survival times after fitting a survival model. See [R] **margins** for many more applications of **margins**.

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▶ Example 4: Nonlinear predictions and their standard errors

Continuing with the NHANES II data, we fit a linear regression of log of blood lead level on age, age-squared, gender, race, and region.

```
. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r11/nhanes2d
. svy: regress loglead age c.age#c.age i.female i.race i.region
(running regress on estimation sample)
Survey: Linear regression
Number of strata   =          31          Number of obs       =          4948
Number of PSUs    =          62          Population size      = 56405414
                                                Design df           =           31
                                                F( 8, 24)           = 156.24
                                                Prob > F             = 0.0000
                                                R-squared            = 0.2379
```

loglead	Linearized		t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
	Coef.	Std. Err.				
age	.0158388	.0027352	5.79	0.000	.0102603	.0214173
c.age#c.age	-.0001464	.0000295	-4.96	0.000	-.0002066	-.0000862
1.female	-.3655338	.0116157	-31.47	0.000	-.3892242	-.3418434
race						
2	.178402	.0314173	5.68	0.000	.114326	.242478
3	-.0516952	.0402381	-1.28	0.208	-.1337614	.030371
region						
2	-.02283	.0389823	-0.59	0.562	-.1023349	.0566749
3	-.1685453	.056004	-3.01	0.005	-.2827662	-.0543244
4	-.0362295	.0387508	-0.93	0.357	-.1152623	.0428032
_cons	2.440671	.0627987	38.86	0.000	2.312592	2.568749

Given that we modeled the natural log of the lead measurement, we can use `predictnl` to compute the exponentiated linear prediction (in the original units of the lead variable), along with its standard error.

```
. predictnl leadhat = exp(xb()) if e(sample), se(leadhat_se)
(5403 missing values generated)
. sort lead leadhat
. gen showobs = inrange(_n,1,5) + inrange(_n,2501,2505) + inrange(_n,4945,4948)
```

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```
. list lead leadhat leadhat_se age c.age#c.age if showobs, abbrev(10)
```

	lead	leadhat	leadhat_se	age	c.age# c.age
1.	2	9.419804	.5433255	29	841
2.	3	8.966098	.5301117	23	529
3.	3	9.046788	.5298448	24	576
4.	3	9.046788	.5298448	24	576
5.	3	9.27693	.5347956	27	729
2501.	13	16.88317	.7728783	37	1369
2502.	13	16.90057	2.296082	71	5041
2503.	13	16.90057	2.296082	71	5041
2504.	13	16.90237	1.501056	48	2304
2505.	13	16.90852	2.018708	60	3600
4945.	61	17.18581	2.052034	58	3364
4946.	64	15.08437	.647629	24	576
4947.	66	17.78698	1.641349	56	3136
4948.	80	16.85864	1.333927	42	1764

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▷ Example 5: Multiple-hypothesis testing

Joint-hypothesis tests can be performed after svy commands with the `test` command. Using the results from the regression model fit in the previous example, we can use `test` to test the joint significance of `2.region`, `3.region`, and `4.region`. (`1.region` is the Northeast, `2.region` is the Midwest, `3.region` is the South, and `4.region` is the West.) We test the hypothesis that `2.region = 0`, `3.region = 0`, and `4.region = 0`.

```
. test 2.region 3.region 4.region
Adjusted Wald test
( 1) 2.region = 0
( 2) 3.region = 0
( 3) 4.region = 0
F( 3, 29) = 2.96
Prob > F = 0.0486
```

The `nosvyadjust` option on `test` produces an unadjusted Wald test.

```
. test 2.region 3.region 4.region, nosvyadjust
Unadjusted Wald test
( 1) 2.region = 0
( 2) 3.region = 0
( 3) 4.region = 0
F( 3, 31) = 3.17
Prob > F = 0.0382
```

For one-dimensional tests, the adjusted and unadjusted F statistics are identical, but they differ for higher-dimensional tests. Using the `nosvyadjust` option is not recommended because the unadjusted F statistic can produce extremely anticonservative p -values (i.e., p -values that are too small) when the variance degrees of freedom (equal to the number of sampled PSUs minus the number of strata) is not large relative to the dimension of the test.

Bonferroni-adjusted p -values can also be computed:

```
. test 2.region 3.region 4.region, mtest(bonferroni)
```

```
Adjusted Wald test
```

```
( 1) 2.region = 0
```

```
( 2) 3.region = 0
```

```
( 3) 4.region = 0
```

	F(df,29)	df	p
(1)	0.34	1	1.0000 #
(2)	9.06	1	0.0155 #
(3)	0.87	1	1.0000 #
all	2.96	3	0.0486

```
# Bonferroni adjusted p-values
```

See Korn and Graubard (1990) for a discussion of these three different procedures for conducting joint-hypothesis tests. See Eltinge and Sribney (1996) for an earlier implementation of test for survey data.

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▷ Example 6: Using `suest` with survey data, the `svy` prefix

`suest` can be used to obtain the variance estimates for a series of estimators that used the `svy` prefix. To use `suest` for this purpose, perform the following steps:

1. Be sure to set the survey design characteristics correctly by using `svyset`. Do not use the `vce()` option to change the default variance estimator from the linearized variance estimator. `vce(brr)` and `vce(jackknife)` are not supported by `suest`.
2. Fit the model or models by using the `svy` prefix command, optionally including subpopulation estimation with the `subpop()` option.
3. Store the estimation results with `estimates store name`.

In the following, we illustrate how to use `suest` to compare the parameter estimates between two ordered logistic regression models.

In the NHANES II dataset, we have the variable `health` containing self-reported health status, which takes on the values 1–5, with 1 being “poor” and 5 being “excellent”. Because this is an ordered categorical variable, it makes sense to model it by using `svy: ologit`. We use some basic demographic variables as predictors: `female` (an indicator of female individuals), `black` (an indicator for black individuals), `age` in years, and `c.age#c.age` (age squared).

```
. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r11/nhanes2f, clear
. svyset psuid [pw=finalwgt], strata(stratid)
      pweight: finalwgt
      VCE: linearized
Single unit: missing
Strata 1: stratid
SU 1: psuid
FPC 1: <zero>
```

```
. svy: ologit health female black age c.age#c.age
(running ologit on estimation sample)
```

```
Survey: Ordered logistic regression
```

```
Number of strata = 31          Number of obs = 10335
Number of PSUs  = 62          Population size = 116997257
                                   Design df = 31
                                   F( 4, 28) = 223.27
                                   Prob > F = 0.0000
```

health	Linearized		t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
	Coef.	Std. Err.				
female	-.1615219	.0523678	-3.08	0.004	-.2683267	-.054717
black	-.986568	.0790277	-12.48	0.000	-1.147746	-.8253899
age	-.0119491	.0082974	-1.44	0.160	-.0288717	.0049736
c.age#c.age	-.0003234	.000091	-3.55	0.001	-.000509	-.0001377
/cut1	-4.566229	.1632561	-27.97	0.000	-4.899192	-4.233266
/cut2	-3.057415	.1699944	-17.99	0.000	-3.404121	-2.710709
/cut3	-1.520596	.1714342	-8.87	0.000	-1.870239	-1.170954
/cut4	-.242785	.1703965	-1.42	0.164	-.590311	.104741

The self-reported `health` variable takes five categories. Categories 1 and 2 denote negative categories, whereas categories 4 and 5 denote positive categories. We wonder whether the distinctions between the two positive categories and between the two negative categories are produced in accordance with one latent dimension, which is an assumption of the ordered logistic model. To test one-dimensionality, we will collapse the five-point health measure into a three-point measure, refit the ordered logistic model, and compare the regression coefficients and cutpoints between the two analyses. If the single latent variable assumption is valid, the coefficients and cutpoints should match. This can be seen as a Hausman-style specification test. Estimation of the ordered logistic model parameters for survey data is by maximum pseudolikelihood. Neither estimator is fully efficient, and thus the assumptions for the classic Hausman test and for the `hausman` command are not satisfied. With `suest`, we can obtain an appropriate Hausman test for survey data.

To perform the Hausman test, we are already almost halfway there by following steps 1 and 2 for one of the models. We just need to store the current estimation results before moving on to the next model. Here we store the results with `estimates store` under the name `H5`, indicating that in this analysis, the dependent variable `health` has five categories.

```
. estimates store H5
```

We proceed by generating a new dependent variable `health3`, which maps values 1 and 2 into 2, 3 into 3, and 4 and 5 into 4. This transformation is conveniently accomplished with the `clip()` function. We then fit an `ologit` model with this new dependent variable and store the estimation results under the name `H3`.

```
. gen health3 = clip(health, 2, 4)
(2 missing values generated)
```

```
. svy: ologit health3 female black age c.age#c.age
(running ologit on estimation sample)
```

```
Survey: Ordered logistic regression
```

```
Number of strata = 31          Number of obs = 10335
Number of PSUs   = 62          Population size = 116997257
                                   Design df = 31
                                   F( 4, 28) = 197.08
                                   Prob > F = 0.0000
```

health3	Linearized		t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
	Coef.	Std. Err.				
female	-.1551238	.0563809	-2.75	0.010	-.2701133	-.0401342
black	-1.046316	.0728274	-14.37	0.000	-1.194849	-.8977836
age	-.0365408	.0073653	-4.96	0.000	-.0515624	-.0215192
c.age#c.age	-.00009	.0000791	-1.14	0.264	-.0002512	.0000713
/cut1	-3.655498	.1610211	-22.70	0.000	-3.983903	-3.327093
/cut2	-2.109584	.1597057	-13.21	0.000	-2.435306	-1.783862

```
. estimates store H3
```

We can now obtain the combined estimation results of the two models stored under H5 and H3 with design-based standard errors.

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```
. suest H5 H3
Simultaneous survey results for H5, H3
Number of strata = 31          Number of obs = 10335
Number of PSUs = 62          Population size = 116997257
                          Design df = 31
```

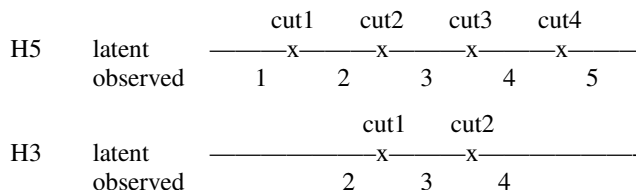
	Linearized		t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
	Coef.	Std. Err.				
H5_health						
female	-.1615219	.0523678	-3.08	0.004	-.2683267	-.054717
black	-.986568	.0790277	-12.48	0.000	-1.147746	-.8253899
age	-.0119491	.0082974	-1.44	0.160	-.0288717	.0049736
c.age#c.age	-.0003234	.000091	-3.55	0.001	-.000509	-.0001377
H5_cut1						
_cons	-4.566229	.1632561	-27.97	0.000	-4.899192	-4.233266
H5_cut2						
_cons	-3.057415	.1699944	-17.99	0.000	-3.404121	-2.710709
H5_cut3						
_cons	-1.520596	.1714342	-8.87	0.000	-1.870239	-1.170954
H5_cut4						
_cons	-.242785	.1703965	-1.42	0.164	-.590311	.104741
H3_health3						
female	-.1551238	.0563809	-2.75	0.010	-.2701133	-.0401342
black	-1.046316	.0728274	-14.37	0.000	-1.194849	-.8977836
age	-.0365408	.0073653	-4.96	0.000	-.0515624	-.0215192
c.age#c.age	-.00009	.0000791	-1.14	0.264	-.0002512	.0000713
H3_cut1						
_cons	-3.655498	.1610211	-22.70	0.000	-3.983903	-3.327093
H3_cut2						
_cons	-2.109584	.1597057	-13.21	0.000	-2.435306	-1.783862

The coefficients of H3 and H5 look rather similar. We now use `test` to perform a formal Hausman-type test for the hypothesis that the regression coefficients are indeed the same, as we would expect if there is indeed a one-dimensional latent dimension for health. Thus we test that the coefficients in the equation `H5_health` are equal to those in `H3_health3`.

```
. test [H5_health=H3_health3]
Adjusted Wald test
( 1) [H5_health]female - [H3_health3]female = 0
( 2) [H5_health]black - [H3_health3]black = 0
( 3) [H5_health]age - [H3_health3]age = 0
( 4) [H5_health]c.age#c.age - [H3_health3]c.age#c.age = 0
F( 4, 28) = 17.13
Prob > F = 0.0000
```

We can reject the null hypothesis, which indicates that the ordered logistic regression model is indeed misspecified. Another specification test can be conducted with respect to the cutpoints. Variable `health3` was constructed from `health` by collapsing the two top categories into value 2 and the two

bottom categories into value 4. This action effectively has removed two cutpoints, but if the model fits the data, it should not affect the other two cutpoints. The comparison is hampered by a difference in the names of the cutpoints between the models, as illustrated in the figure below:



Cutpoint /cut2 of model H5 should be compared with cutpoint /cut1 of H3, and similarly, /cut3 of H5 with /cut2 of H3.

```
. test ([H5_cut2]_cons=[H3_cut1]_cons) ([H5_cut3]_cons=[H3_cut2]_cons)
Adjusted Wald test
( 1) [H5_cut2]_cons - [H3_cut1]_cons = 0
( 2) [H5_cut3]_cons - [H3_cut2]_cons = 0
      F( 2, 30) = 33.49
      Prob > F = 0.0000
```

We conclude that the invariance of the cutpoints under the collapse of categories is not supported by the data, again providing evidence against the reduced specification of the ordered logistic model in this case.

◀

▶ Example 7: Using `suest` with survey data, the `svy` option

Not all estimation commands support the `svy` prefix, but you can use the `svy` option with `suest` to get survey estimation results. If you can use `suest` after a command, you can use `suest`, `svy`. Here are the corresponding Stata commands to perform the analysis in the previous example, using the `svy` option instead of the `svy` prefix.

```
. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r11/nhanes2f, clear
. svyset psuid [pw=finalwgt], strata(stratid)
. ologit health female black age c.age#c.age [iw=finalwgt]
. estimates store H5
. gen health3 = clip(health,2,4)
. ologit health3 female black age c.age#c.age [iw=finalwgt]
. estimates store H3
. suest H5 H3, svy
. test [H5_health=H3_health3]
. test ([H5_cut2]_cons=[H3_cut1]_cons) ([H5_cut3]_cons=[H3_cut2]_cons)
```

The calls to `ologit` now use `iwweights` instead of the `svy` prefix, and the `svy` option was added to `suest`. No other changes are required.

◀

References

- Eltinge, J. L., and W. M. Sribney. 1996. svy5: Estimates of linear combinations and hypothesis tests for survey data. *Stata Technical Bulletin* 31: 31–42. Reprinted in *Stata Technical Bulletin Reprints*, vol. 6, pp. 246–259. College Station, TX: Stata Press.
- Graubard, B. I., and E. L. Korn. 2004. Predictive margins with survey data. *Biometrics* 55: 652–659.
- Korn, E. L., and B. I. Graubard. 1990. Simultaneous testing of regression coefficients with complex survey data: Use of Bonferroni *t* statistics. *American Statistician* 44: 270–276.
- McDowell, A., A. Engel, J. T. Massey, and K. Maurer. 1981. Plan and operation of the Second National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 1976–1980. *Vital and Health Statistics* 1(15): 1–144.

Also see

- [SVY] **svy estimation** — Estimation commands for survey data
- [SVY] **svy brr** — Balanced repeated replication for survey data
- [SVY] **svy jackknife** — Jackknife estimation for survey data
- [SVY] **estat** — Postestimation statistics for survey data
- [U] **13.5 Accessing coefficients and standard errors**
- [U] **20 Estimation and postestimation commands**