

Scaling, Centering,
and Collinearity

Read in the *Prestige.csv* data

Pineo-Porter
occupational
prestige score

Is the occupation a
blue-collar
profession?

	occupation	prestige	education	blue_collar	income
1	government administrators	68.8	13.11	0	12351
2	general managers	69.1	12.26	0	25879
3	accountants	63.4	12.77	0	9271
4	purchasing officers	56.8	11.42	0	8865
5	chemists	73.5	14.62	0	8403
6	physicists	77.6	15.64	0	11030

Average education
of occupational
incumbents

Average
income, in
dollars,

These data are Canadian Census data from 1971, and are available as part of the **car** package.
Canada (1971) *Census of Canada*. Vol. 3, Part 6. Statistics Canada [pp. 19-1–19-21].

$$\text{Prestige} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{Income}) + \beta_2(\text{Education}) + \beta_3(\text{Income})(\text{Education}) + \epsilon$$

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	-2.243231e+01	6.557889e+00	-3.42066	0.00092597	***
income	3.739037e-03	1.003440e-03	3.72622	0.00033170	***
education	5.475932e+00	5.682087e-01	9.63718	1.0855e-15	***
income:education	-1.876822e-04	7.369712e-05	-2.54667	0.01250027	*

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 7.243593 on 94 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.8260074, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8204545

F-statistic: 148.751 on 3 and 94 DF, p-value: < 2.2204e-16

$$\hat{\text{Prestige}} = -22.4 + 0.004(\text{Income}) + 5.5(\text{Education}) - 0.0002(\text{Income})(\text{Education})$$

Scaling Predictors

We can scale any continuous predictors by multiplying or dividing by any value we want. This can alleviate really small or really large coefficients. The key is to get all of the predictors close to the same scale of magnitude.

	occupation	prestige	education	type	income
1	government administrators	68.8	13.11	prof	12351
2	general managers	69.1	12.26	prof	25879
3	accountants	63.4	12.77	prof	9271
4	purchasing officers	56.8	11.42	prof	8865
5	chemists	73.5	14.62	prof	8403
6	physicists	77.6	15.64	prof	11030

Divide income
by 1000

$$\text{Prestige} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{Income}/1000) + \beta_2(\text{Education}) + \beta_3(\text{Income}/1000)(\text{Education}) + \epsilon$$

```
> lm.2 = lm(prestige ~ I(income/1000) + education +
  education:I(income/1000), data = Prestige)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	-22.43230970	6.55788913	-3.42066	0.00092597	***
I(income/1000)	3.73903723	1.00343976	3.72622	0.00033170	***
education	5.47593167	0.56820872	9.63718	1.0855e-15	***
I(income/1000):education	-0.18768224	0.07369712	-2.54667	0.01250027	*

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

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$$\hat{\text{Prestige}} = -22.4 + 3.7(\text{Income}/1000) + 5.5(\text{Education}) + -0.2(\text{Income}/1000)(\text{Education})$$

Scaling changes the size of the estimate and SE, but the t -values and p -values stay the same. Also, the model summaries are all identical.

Standardizing

One method of scaling that guarantees that all predictors will be on the same scale is standardizing. Standardizing a predictor means to divide it by its standard deviation.

```
> Prestige$income.std = Prestige$income / sd(Prestige$income)
> Prestige$education.std = Prestige$education / sd(Prestige$education)

> head(Prestige)
```

	occupation	prestige	education	type	income	income.std	education.std
1	government administrators	68.8	13.11	prof	12351	2.921147785	4.769117021
2	general managers	69.1	12.26	prof	25879	6.120669058	4.459906535
3	accountants	63.4	12.77	prof	9271	2.192693799	4.645432827
4	purchasing officers	56.8	11.42	prof	8865	2.096670319	4.154333820
5	chemists	73.5	14.62	prof	8403	1.987402222	5.318420355
6	physicists	77.6	15.64	prof	11030	2.608716709	5.689472938

The income of government administrators, \$12,351 Canadian Dollars, is 2.92 times larger than the standard deviation of \$4228.

```
> lm.3 = lm(prestige ~ income.std + education.std +  
  education.std:income.std, data = Prestige)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	-22.4323097	6.5578891	-3.42066	0.00092597	***
income.std	15.8091450	4.2426763	3.72622	0.00033170	***
education.std	15.0529886	1.5619697	9.63718	1.0855e-15	***
income.std:education.std	-2.1814059	0.8565719	-2.54667	0.01250027	*

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 7.243593 on 94 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.8260074, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8204545

F-statistic: 148.751 on 3 and 94 DF, p-value: < 2.2204e-16

Scaling changes the size of the estimate and SE, but the t -values and p -values stay the same. Also, the model summaries are all identical.

The coefficients now are interpreted as a one-standard deviation difference in X_1 is associated with a $\hat{\beta}_1$ -unit difference in Y , controlling for X_2, X_3, \dots

Centering

We can *center* any continuous predictors by subtracting or adding any value we want.

Say poverty was defined by a \$5000 income or below, and a low-level of education was the 8th grade.

$$\text{Centered Income} = \text{Income} - 5000$$

$$\text{Centered Education} = \text{Education} - 8$$

A centered income value of zero would indicate an occupation at the poverty line (a raw income of \$5000).

A centered education value of zero would indicate an occupation with a low-level of education (a raw education of 8).


```
> lm.4 = lm(prestige ~ I(income - 5000) + I(education - 8) +
  I(education - 8):I(income - 5000), data = Prestige)
```

Centered
model

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	3.256304e+01	1.061757e+00	30.66902	< 2.22e-16	***
I(income - 5000)	2.237579e-03	4.450897e-04	5.02726	2.3723e-06	***
I(education - 8)	4.537520e+00	3.406764e-01	13.31915	< 2.22e-16	***
I(income - 5000):I(education - 8)	-1.876822e-04	7.369712e-05	-2.54667	0.0125	*

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 7.243593 on 94 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.8260074, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8204545

F-statistic: 148.751 on 3 and 94 DF, p-value: < 2.2204e-16

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	-2.243231e+01	6.557889e+00	-3.42066	0.00092597	***
income	3.739037e-03	1.003440e-03	3.72622	0.00033170	***
education	5.475932e+00	5.682087e-01	9.63718	1.0855e-15	***
income:education	-1.876822e-04	7.369712e-05	-2.54667	0.01250027	*

Raw
model

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 7.243593 on 94 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.8260074, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8204545

F-statistic: 148.751 on 3 and 94 DF, p-value: < 2.2204e-16

Centering with Only One Predictor

```
> lm.5 = lm(prestige ~ income, data = Prestige)
> lm.6 = lm(prestige ~ I(income - 5000), data = Prestige)
```

```
> summary(lm.5)$coefficients
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	27.596394991598	2.3803130069062	11.593599208	5.921240409e-20
income	0.002843574327	0.0002933466716	9.693562607	6.772967896e-16

```
> summary(lm.6)$coefficients
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	41.814266625633	1.3587320151706	30.774476614	1.585609536e-51
I(income - 5000)	0.002843574327	0.0002933466716	9.693562607	6.772967896e-16

With only one predictor, only the intercept changes. The effect of income (raw or centered) remains the same...centering has no effect on the effect! A one-unit difference in the raw variable is the same as a one-unit difference on the centered variable.

Mean Centering

Applied researchers often use mean centering.

$$X_{\text{Mean Centered}} = X - \bar{X}$$

A value of zero on a mean centered variable would indicate that observation is at the mean.

A negative value would indicate that observation was below the mean. And, a positive value would indicate the observation was above the mean.

```

> lm.7 = lm(prestige ~ I(income - mean(income)), data = Prestige)
> summary(lm.7)

Coefficients:
                Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)    4.732755e+01 1.233964e+00 38.35407 < 2.22e-16 ***
I(income - mean(income)) 2.843574e-03 2.933467e-04  9.69356  6.773e-16 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 12.21562 on 96 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared:  0.4946442,    Adjusted R-squared:  0.48938
F-statistic: 93.96516 on 1 and 96 DF,  p-value: 6.772968e-16

```

The average estimated prestige *for an occupation of average income* is 47.3.

A one-dollar difference in income is positively associated with a 0.003-unit difference in prestige, on average.

Centering with Multiple Predictors

```
> lm.8 = lm(prestige ~ income + education, data = Prestige)
> lm.9 = lm(prestige ~ I(income - mean(income)) + I(education - mean(education)),
  data = Prestige)
```

```
> summary(lm.8)$coefficients
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	-7.621035238457	3.1162308846861	-2.445593899	1.630283433e-02
income	0.001241536839	0.0002184936174	5.682256779	1.451954490e-07
education	4.292107598661	0.3360644972585	12.771678156	2.453044661e-22

```
> summary(lm.9)$coefficients
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	47.327551020408	0.7525423402781	62.890216918	3.190258860e-79
I(income - mean(income))	0.001241536839	0.0002184936174	5.682256779	1.451954490e-07
I(education - mean(education))	4.292107598661	0.3360644972585	12.771678156	2.453044661e-22

With main-effects models, centering only affects the intercept—just like in a single predictor model. All other effects in the model (partial effects) are the same as they would be if we used the non-centered variables.

Now consider the fitted interaction model...

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1(X_1) + \hat{\beta}_2(X_2) + \hat{\beta}_3(X_1)(X_2)$$

$\hat{\beta}_1$ is the expected difference in Y for a one-unit difference on X_1 , holding all of the other terms constant.

This is a problem for the interaction term, since if X_1 varies (differs by one) so will $\hat{\beta}_3(X_1)(X_2)$

The only solution to this (holding the interaction constant) is to set X_2 (or conversely X_1 if you want to study the partial effect of X_2) to 0. Thus the interpretation of $\hat{\beta}_1$ is conditional on X_2 being 0.

This means the values and interpretation of the effects of $\hat{\beta}_1$ will change depending on where $X_2 = 0$ is located.

```
> Prestige$income.z = (Prestige$income - mean(Prestige$income)) / sd(Prestige$income)
```

```
> Prestige$education.z = (Prestige$education - mean(Prestige$education)) /  
  sd(Prestige$education)
```

```
> head(Prestige)
```

	occupation	prestige	education	type	income	income.std	education.std
1	government administrators	68.8	13.11	prof	12351	2.921147785	4.769117021
2	general managers	69.1	12.26	prof	25879	6.120669058	4.459906535
3	accountants	63.4	12.77	prof	9271	2.192693799	4.645432827
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5	chemists	73.5	14.62	prof	8403	1.987402222	5.318420355
6	physicists	77.6	15.64	prof	11030	2.608716709	5.689472938

	incomeM	income.z	education.z
1	5412.142857	1.2800315051	0.8421067322
2	18940.142857	4.4795527777	0.5328962465
3	2332.142857	0.5515775194	0.7184225379
4	1926.142857	0.4555540394	0.2273235312
5	1464.142857	0.3462859416	1.3914100657
6	4091.142857	0.9676004288	1.7624626486

```
> lm.10 = lm(prestige ~ income.z + education.z + income.z:education.z, data = Prestige)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	48.5671126	0.8788165	55.26422	< 2.22e-16	***
income.z	7.2427416	1.1914372	6.07900	2.5734e-08	***
education.z	11.4730479	0.9073084	12.64515	< 2.22e-16	***
income.z:education.z	-2.1814059	0.8565719	-2.54667	0.0125	*

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

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Multiple R-squared: 0.8260074, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8204545

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The average estimated prestige *for an occupation of average income and average education-level* is 48.6.

The effect of income on prestige *depends on the effect of education (or vice-versa)*.

Collinearity

Multicollinearity, or collinearity, occurs when a regression model includes two or more *highly related* predictors. Sometimes this is obvious. For example, including predictors of peer smoking *and* perceptions of school smoking norms, is likely to produce collinearity because these two predictors are highly correlated.

Other times, it isn't as obvious. For example, a weighted combination of several predictors might be related to another predictor. This would also produce collinearity issues, but isn't as detectable as just looking at the correlations matrix.

Collinearity produces unstable parameter estimates and inflated standard errors. What often happens is that predictors which are otherwise important predictors fail to be statistically reliable when included with other collinear predictors in the same model.

Go back to the initial model using the raw variables of income and education

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	-22.432310	6.557889	-3.420660	0.000926
income	0.003739	0.001003	3.726220	0.000332
education	5.475932	0.568209	9.637183	0.000000
income:education	-0.000188	0.000074	-2.546670	0.012500

```
> cor(Prestige[c("prestige", "income", "education")])  
           prestige      income      education  
prestige  1.0000000000  0.7033094378  0.8664797685  
income    0.7033094378  1.0000000000  0.5740978939  
education 0.8664797685  0.5740978939  1.0000000000
```

Income and education are fairly highly correlated with each other. This might suggest that including both might produce misleading regression results...

Variance Inflation Factors

To examine how much of a problem collinearity might be, we examine the variance inflation factor for each predictor. This informs us how much larger the variance (SE^2) is in the particular model relative to a model in which all of the predictors are independent.

```
> library(car)
> vif(lm.1)
      income      education income:education
33.276947976  4.510336048  47.051136899
```

The variance for the interaction effect is 47 times larger than would be expected in a model where income, education and the interaction were all unrelated.

Another way to consider this is to convert the variance inflation to the standard error inflation by computing the square root of each VIF

```
> sqrt(vif(lm.1))  
      income      education income:education  
5.768617510 2.123755176 6.859383128
```

The SE for the interaction effect is 7 times larger than would be expected in a model where income, education and the interaction were all unrelated.

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{\text{SE}_{\hat{\beta}}}$$

A larger SE, all things being equal, would result in a lower t -value....which means a larger p -value.

$$\hat{\beta} \pm 2(\text{SE}_{\hat{\beta}})$$

A larger SE, all things being equal, would also result in a larger margin of error (wider CIs) for the estimates.

Possible Solution for Interaction Models

For interaction models, the easiest potential solution is two center any predictors that make up an interaction term...and to create the interaction term using those centered predictors.

```
Prestige$income.c = Prestige$income - mean(Prestige$income)
Prestige$education.c = Prestige$education - mean(Prestige$education)

lm.11 = lm(prestige ~ income.c + education.c + income.c:education.c, data = Prestige)

vif(lm.11)
```

income.c	education.c	income.c:education.c
2.624254796	1.521855942	1.950390018

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	Raw model
(Intercept)	-22.432310	6.557889	-3.420660	0.000926	
income	0.003739	0.001003	3.726220	0.000332	
education	5.475932	0.568209	9.637183	0.000000	
income:education	-0.000188	0.000074	-2.546670	0.012500	

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	Centered model
(Intercept)	48.567113	0.878817	55.264222	0.0000	
income.c	0.001713	0.000282	6.078996	0.0000	
education.c	4.173631	0.330058	12.645147	0.0000	
income.c:education.c	-0.000188	0.000074	-2.546670	0.0125	

The information related to the interaction term does not change, but that for the main-effects does, alleviating our collinearity problems.