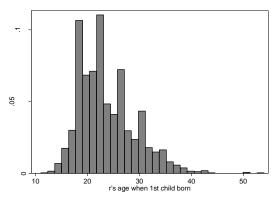
Sociology 7704: Regression Models for Categorical Data Instructor: Natasha Sarkisian

Preliminary Data Screening

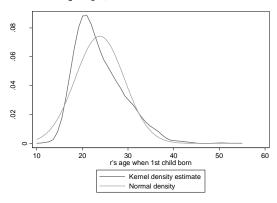
A. Examining Univariate Normality

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:

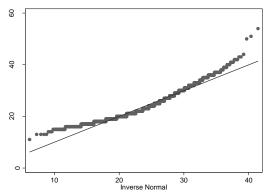
. histogram agekdbrn, normal
(bin=34, start=18, width=2.0882353)



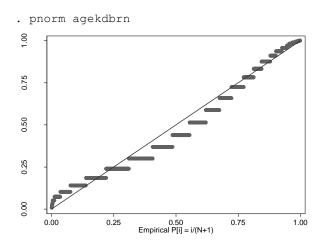
. kdensity age, normal



. 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 closest they are to being on the line, the closer the distribution to being normal. Any large deviations from the straight line indicate problems with normality. Note: this plot has nothing to do with linearity!



This is a standardized normal probability (P-P) plot, it is more sensitive to non-normality in the middle range of data, while quorm 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 sktest:

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 square identity square-root log reciprocal root reciprocal	agekdbrn^3 agekdbrn^2 agekdbrn sqrt(agekdbrn) log(agekdbrn) 1/sqrt(agekdbrn) 1/agekdbrn	32.49 8.57	0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.014 0.001
reciprocal square reciprocal cubic	1/(agekdbrn^2) 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. (But make sure the sample is not too small; keep it around 150-200 observations.)

. ladder age

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

It's not normal and none of the transformations seem to help. If your sample size is large, everything will be significantly different from normal, so you should either rely on graphical examination (gladder) or randomly select a subsample of your dataset and do this type of analysis for that subsample. 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:

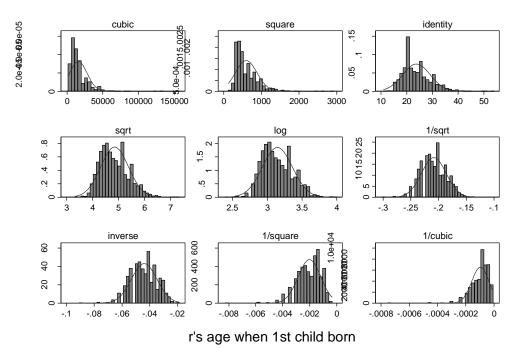
- . preserve
- . sample 5
 (2627 observations deleted)
- . ladder age chi2(2) Transformation formula P(chi2) ______ age^3 40.17 0.000 cubic 40.17 25.53 10.53 6.81 5.99 4.78 8.23 32.80 63.69 0.000 age^2 square square age^2
 identity age
 square-root sqrt(age)
 log log(age)
 reciprocal root 1/sqrt(age)
 reciprocal 1/age 0.005 0.033 0.050 0.091 reciprocal square 1/(age^2)
 reciprocal cubic 1/(age^3) 0.016 0.000 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:

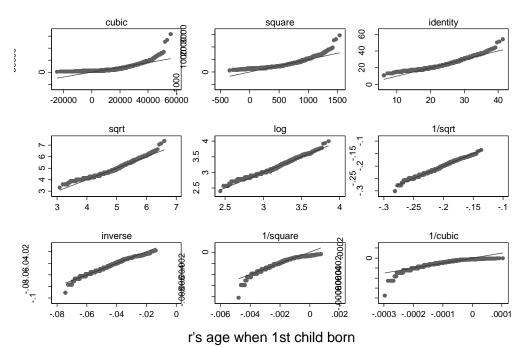
. gladder agekdbrn



Histograms by transformation

Same using quantile-normal plots:

. qladder agekdbrn



Quantile-Normal plots by transformation

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

. gen agekdbrnrr=1/(sqrt(agekdbrn))
(810 missing values generated)

. reg agekdbrn	rr educ born	sex mapres	30 age			
Source	SS	df	MS		Number of obs	= 1089
+					F(5, 1083)	= 54.00
Model	.107910937	5 .021	L582187		Prob > F	= 0.0000
Residual	.432834805	1083 .000	399663		R-squared	= 0.1996
+					Adj R-squared	= 0.1959
Total	.540745743	1088 .000	0497009		Root MSE	= .01999
agekdbrnrr	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	<pre>Interval]</pre>
+						
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.

If a variable contains zero or negative values, you need to add a constant to it before looking for transformations (such that all values of the variable become larger than zero). For example:

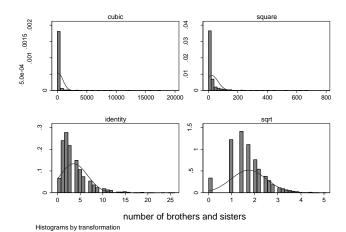
. sum sibs

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
sibs	 2756	3.599419	2.997262	0	26

. ladder sibs

Transformation	formula	chi2(2)	P(chi2)
cubic square identity square root log 1/(square root) inverse 1/square 1/cubic	sibs^3 sibs^2 sibs sqrt(sibs) log(sibs) 1/sqrt(sibs) 1/sibs 1/(sibs^2) 1/(sibs^3)	64.41	0.000

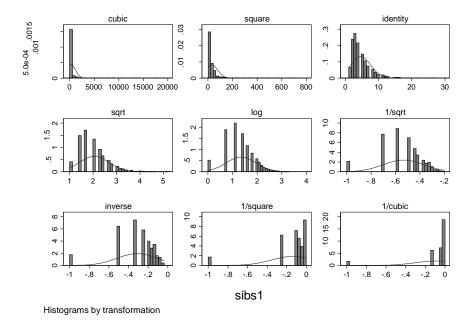
. gladder sibs



- . gen sibs1=sibs+1
 (9 missing values generated)
- . ladder sibs1

Transformation	formula	chi2(2)	P(chi2)
cubic	sibs1^3	•	•
square	sibs1^2	•	
identity	sibs1		0.000
square root	sqrt(sibs1)		0.000
log	log(sibs1)	0.48	0.787
1/(square root)	1/sqrt(sibs1)	•	0.000
inverse	1/sibs1	•	0.000
1/square	1/(sibs1^2)	•	•
1/cubic	1/(sibs1^3)		

. gladder sibs1



If as variable is negatively skewed, you might have an easier time finding a transformation for it after reversing it. For this example, we will generate a scale of happiness that's the reverse of unhappiness scale and examine both distributions:

. tab1 happy7 satjob7 satfam7

-> tabulation of happy7

happy or unhappy on the whole	 Freq.	Percent	Cum.
completely happy very happy fairly happy neither happy nor unhappy fairly unhappy very unhappy completely unhappy	141 510 391 69 32 16	12.16 43.97 33.71 5.95 2.76 1.38 0.09	12.16 56.12 89.83 95.78 98.53 99.91 100.00
Total	1,160	100.00	

-> tabulation of satjob7

job satisfaction in general		Freq.	Percent	Cum.
completely satisfied		127	15.49	15.49
very satisfied fairly satisfied		289 264	35.24 32.20	50.73 82.93
neither satisfied nor dissatisfied		264 53	6.46	89.39
fairly dissatisfied	İ	47	5.73	95.12
very dissatisfied		29	3.54	98.66
completely dissatisfied	 -	11 	1.34	100.00
Total	i	820	100.00	

-> tabulation of satfam7

family satisfaction in general | Freq. Percent Cum.

	+		
completely satisfied	265	23.08	23.08
very satisfied	467	40.68	63.76
fairly satisfied	286	24.91	88.68
neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	1 70	6.10	94.77
fairly dissatisfied	31	2.70	97.47
very dissatisfied	20	1.74	99.22
completely dissatisfied	1 9	0.78	100.00
	+		
Total	1,148	100.00	

. alpha happy7 satjob7 satfam7

Test scale = mean(unstandardized items)

Average interitem covariance: .525359

Number of items in the scale: 3

Scale reliability coefficient: 0.6732

- . egen unhappiness=rowmean(happy7 satjob7 satfam7)
 (1600 missing values generated)
- . sum unhappiness

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
unhappiness	+ 1165	 2 469814	9298462	 1	7

To reverse the scale, we add its maximum and its minimum and subtract the original scale from that:

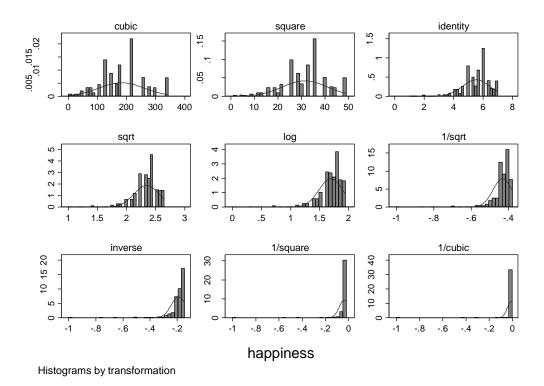
- . gen happiness=r(max)+r(min)-unhappiness
 (1600 missing values generated)
- . sum happiness

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev	. Min	Max
happiness	1165	5.530186	.9298462	1	7

. ladder happiness

Transformation	formula	chi2(2)	P(chi2)
cubic	 happin~s^3	11.17	0.004
square	happin~s^2	15.55	0.000
identity	happin~s		0.000
square root	sqrt(happin~s)		0.000
log	log(happin~s)	•	0.000
1/(square root)	1/sqrt(happin~s)	•	0.000
inverse	1/happin~s	•	
1/square	1/(happin~s^2)		
1/cubic	1/(happin~s^3)		

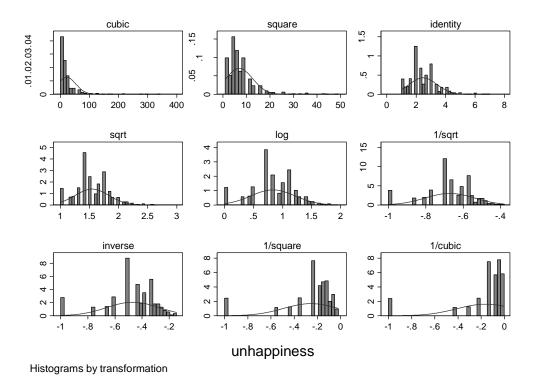
. gladder happiness



. ladder unhappiness

Transformation	formula	chi2(2)	P(chi2)
cubic	unhapp~s^3	•	0.000
square	unhapp~s^2		0.000
identity	unhapp~s		0.000
square root	sqrt(unhapp~s)	27.32	0.000
log	log(unhapp~s)	13.42	0.001
1/(square root)	1/sqrt(unhapp~s)	•	0.000
inverse	1/unhapp~s	•	0.000
1/square	1/(unhapp~s^2)	•	0.000
1/cubic	1/(unhapp~s^3)		0.000

. gladder unhappiness



We might want to use log, but if we want the interpretation to be about happiness, we will reverse it again after transforming:

. gen unhappylog=log(unhappiness) (1600 missing values generated)

. sum unhappylog

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev	. Min	Max
unhappylog	1165	.8345584	.3790659	0	1.94591

. gen unhappylogr=r(max)+r(min)-unhappylog (1600 missing values generated)

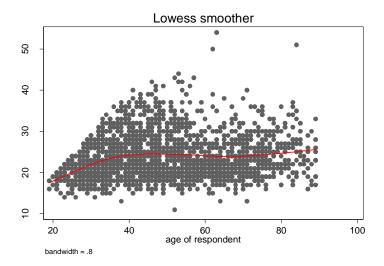
. sum unhappylogr

Variable	0bs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
unhappylogr	+ ı 1165	 1 111352	 3790659	۰	1 94591
amappyrogr	1 1100	1.111332	• 3 / 30 0 3 3	U	1.74371

B. Examining bivariate linearity

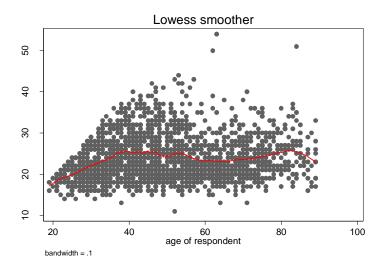
Before you run a regression, it's a good idea to examine your variables one at a time as indicated before, but we should also examine the relationship of each independent variable to the dependent to assess its linearity. A good tool for such an examination is lowess – i.e., a scatterplot with a locally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

. lowess agekdbrn age



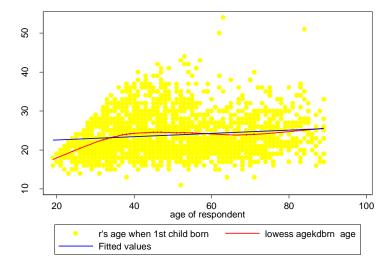
We can change bandwidth to make the curve less smooth (decrease the number) or smoother (increase the number):

. lowess agekdbrn age, 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)

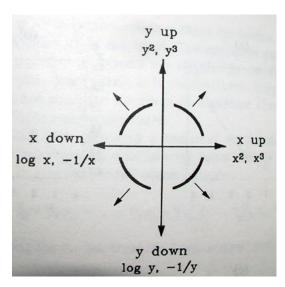


Based on lowess plots, we conclude that the relationship between age and agekdbrn is not linear and we need to address that.

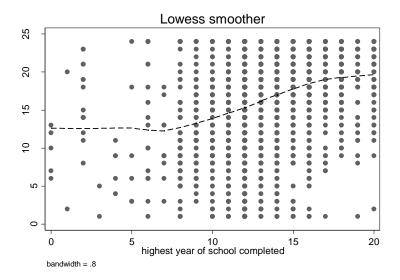
Remedies for nonlinearity problems:

When we find a nonlinear relationship, we usually try to find a transformation to linearize it, although sometimes we may choose to break up the corresponding independent variable into a series of dummies instead.

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



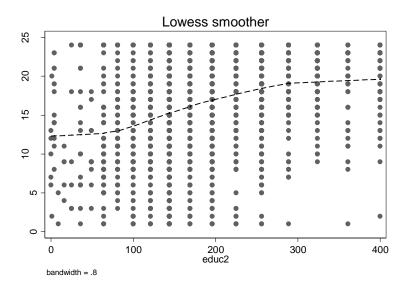
. lowess income98 educ



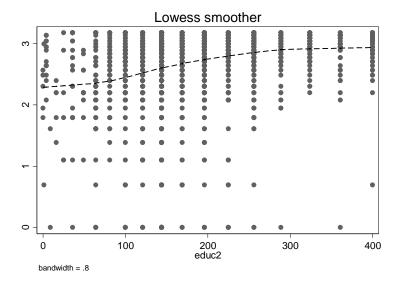
Either a square of X (educ) or a log of Y (income) should fix this.

. gen educ2=educ^2 (12 missing values generated)

. lowess income98 educ2



- . gen income98lg=log(income98)
 (121 missing values generated)
- . lowess income981g educ2



2. Nonmonotone relationship. For non-monotone relationships (e.g. parabola or cubic), use polynomial functions of the variable, e.g. age and age squared, etc. The pictures above for age and agekdbrn relationship would suggest that we might want to add a cubic term for age as well as a squared term. 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. But using age and age squared in the model at the same time will create multicollinearity because the two variables have a strong relationship—to avoid that, we have to mean-center age prior to generating a square and a cube. That is, whenever we plan to use more than a single term for the same variable in our regression model, always mean-center (i.e., if you just plan to use age squared without age, like we did for educ in the example above, then you don't need to mean center, but if we wanted to use both educ and educ2, we'd have to mean-center educ and only then generate educ2).

For example, without mean-centering:

. gen age2=age^2
(14 missing values generated)

. reg agekdbrn educ born sex mapres80 age age2

Source	SS	df	MS		Number of obs F(6, 1082)	
Model Residual	6138.53315 25034.1298		3.08886 1369037		Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared	= 0.0000 $= 0.1969$
Total	31172.663	1088 28.	6513447		Root MSE	= 4.8101
agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
educ born sex mapres80 age age2 _cons	.5678949 1.567736 -2.140989 .0332034 .2808181 0022448 8.92424	.0569661 .5723843 .3028244 .0117896 .055909 .0005551	9.97 2.74 -7.07 2.82 5.02 -4.04 5.43	0.000 0.006 0.000 0.005 0.000 0.000	.4561184 .4446266 -2.735179 .0100704 .1711158 003334 5.698932	.6796713 2.690844 -1.546799 .0563364 .3905203 0011556 12.14955

. reg agekdbi Source	rn educ born s SS	sex mapres80 df) age age2 MS	, beta	Number of obs	
Model Residual	6138.53315 25034.1298				F(6, 1082) Prob > F R-squared Adj R-squared	= 0.0000 = 0.1969
Total	31172.663	1088 28.0	5513447		Root MSE	= 4.8101
agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t		Beta
educ born sex mapres80 age age2 _cons	.5678949 1.567736 -2.140989 .0332034 .2808181 0022448 8.92424	.0569661 .5723843 .3028244 .0117896 .055909 .0005551	9.97 2.74 -7.07 2.82 5.02 -4.04 5.43	0.000 0.006 0.000 0.005 0.000 0.000		.2884756 .0751117 1937892 .080348 .790523 637722

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 the to size of the coefficient itself, it's a reason for a concern about possible multicollinearity. Let's check our suspicion using VIFs (Variance Inflation Factors):

. vif Variable	VIF	1/VIF
age2 age educ mapres80 born sex	33.51 33.37 1.13 1.10 1.01 1.01	0.029845 0.029963 0.886374 0.911906 0.986930 0.987914
Mean VIF	11.86	

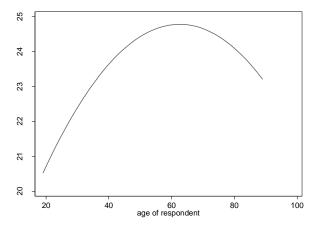
Indeed, high degree of multicollinearity. But luckily, we can avoid it. When including variables that are generated using other variables already in the model (as in this case, or when we want to enter a product of two variables to model an interaction term), we should first mean-center the variable (only if it is continuous; don't mean-center dichotomous variables!). That's how we'd do it in this case:

	Obs						
age . gen agemean= (14 missing va . gen agemean2	2751 =age-r(mean) alues generate	46.282 ed)					
Source	rn educ born s SS	df	MS	_	Number o		
Model Residual	+	6 1082 	1023.08886 23.1369037		F(6, Prob > F R-squared Adj R-sq	d = uared =	0.0000 0.1969 0.1925
	31172.663 Coef.						

```
educ | .5678949 .0569661 9.97 0.000
born | 1.567736 .5723843 2.74 0.006
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
                 1.10 0.911906
  mapres80 |
    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:

. line pred1 age, sort



This doesn't quite replicate what we saw on lowess 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 agekdbri	n educ born s	ex mapres80	agemean	agemean	2 agemean3	
Source	SS	df	MS		Number of obs	= 1089
					F(7, 1081)	= 49.39
Model	7554.31674	7 1079	.18811		Prob > F	= 0.0000
Residual	23618.3463	1081 21.8	486089		R-squared	= 0.2423
					Adj R-squared	= 0.2374
Total	31172.663	1088 28.6	513447		Root MSE	= 4.6742
agekdbrn	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	<pre>Interval]</pre>
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

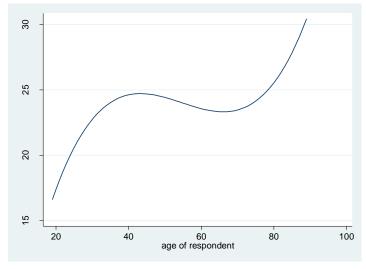
Variables left as is: agemean, agemean2, agemean3

Covariates set to mean: educ = 13.316804, born = 1.0707071, sex = 1.6244261, mapres80 = 39.440771

All | xb ------ | 23.6648

Key: xb = Linear Prediction

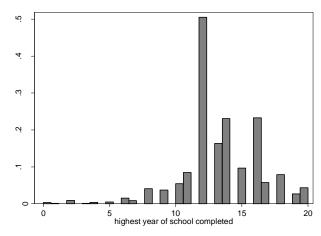
. line pred2 age, sort



C. Screening for Univariate and Bivariate Outliers

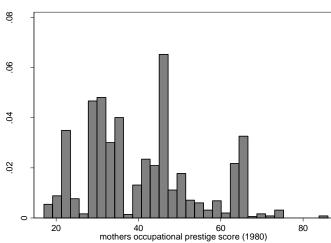
We usually start identifying potential outliers when conducting univariate and bivariate examination of the data. For example, when examining the distribution of educ, we would be concerned about those with very few years of education:

. 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 and we might want to deal with them early on, oftentimes by topcoding or bottomcoding:

. tab educ highest year of school completed	 	Percent	Cum.
0	5	0.18	0.18
1	2	0.07	0.25
2	15	0.54	0.80
3	2	0.07	0.87

4 5 6 7 8 9 10		6 8 25 14 66 60 88 137	0.22 0.29 0.91 0.51 2.40 2.18 3.20 4.98	1.09 1.38 2.29 2.80 5.19 7.37 10.57
13 14 15 16 17 18 19		265 374 157 377 93 128 43 70	9.63 13.59 5.70 13.69 3.38 4.65 1.56 2.54	54.89 68.47 74.17 87.87 91.25 95.90 97.46 100.00
 Total	-+ 	2,753	100.00	

- . gen educb=educ
- (12 missing values generated)
- . drop educb
- . gen educb7=educ
 (12 missing values generated)
- . replace educb7=7 if educ<7
 (63 real changes made)</pre>
- . tab educb7

educb7	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
7	+ 77	2.80	2.80
8	l 66	2.40	5.19
9	60	2.18	7.37
10	88	3.20	10.57
11	137	4.98	15.55
12	818	29.71	45.26
13	265	9.63	54.89
14	374	13.59	68.47
15	157	5.70	74.17
16	377	13.69	87.87
17	93	3.38	91.25
18	128	4.65	95.90
19	43	1.56	97.46
20	70	2.54	100.00
Total	2,753	100.00	

. sum mapres80

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
mapres80	1619	40.96912	13.63189	 17	86

. tab mapres80

mothers |
occupationa |
l prestige |

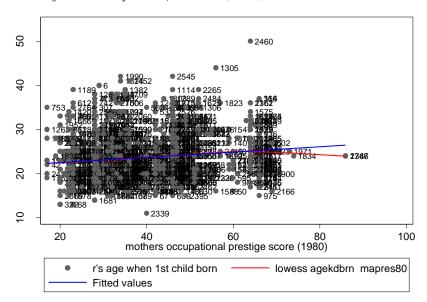
score (1980)	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
17	14	0.86	0.86
19	5	0.31	1.17
20 21	22 9	1.36 0.56	2.53 3.09
22	39	2.41	5.50
23	83	5.13	10.62
24	14	0.86	11.49
25 26	13 3	0.80 0.19	12.29 12.48
26 27	3	0.19	12.46
28	125	7.72	20.38
29	38	2.35	22.73
30	28	1.73	24.46
31 32	53 87	3.27 5.37	27.73 33.11
33	57	3.52	36.63
34	48	2.96	39.59
35	63	3.89	43.48
36 37	77 1	4.76 0.06	48.24 48.30
38	4	0.25	48.55
39	16	0.99	49.54
40	30	1.85	51.39
41 42	5 77	0.31 4.76	51.70 56.45
43	21	1.30	57.75
44	39	2.41	60.16
45	13	0.80	60.96
46 47	160 68	9.88 4.20	70.85 75.05
48	9	0.56	75.60
49	30	1.85	77.46
50	2	0.12	77.58
51	60	3.71	81.28
52 53	19 6	1.17 0.37	82.46 82.83
54	10	0.62	83.45
55	11	0.68	84.13
56	4	0.25	84.37
57 59	7 8	0.43 0.49	84.81 85.30
60	16	0.99	86.29
61	7	0.43	86.72
63	2	0.12	86.84
64 65	74 14	4.57 0.86	91.41 92.28
66	100	6.18	98.46
67	1	0.06	98.52
68	1	0.06	98.58
69 73	6 3	0.37 0.19	98.95 99.14
74	9	0.56	99.69
75	2	0.12	99.81
86	3	0.19	100.00
Total	1,619	100.00	

. gen mapres80t66=mapres80 (1146 missing values generated)

```
. replace mapres80t66=66 if mapres80>66 & mapres80<. (25 real changes made)
```

Bivariate examination can further help us identify potential leverage points and outliers. For example, we can label observations in the lowess plot to pinpoint problematic ones:

. scatter agekdbrn mapres80, mlabel(id) $\mid \mid$ lowess agekdbrn mapres80, lcolor(red) $\mid \mid$ lfit agekdbrn mapres80, lcolor(blue)



What we see standing out here is 2460 which has a high value on agekdbrn as well as two observations that have very high values of mother's prestige score; these are 2366 and 1747:

In this case, we would notice all of these on univariate plots as well, but sometimes, we do detect problematic observations on such plots that go beyond what we see in univariate ones.