

Week 10

Event Counts I

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- To date, we have looked at models that share a common motivation—there is a latent continuous variable of theoretical interest, y^* , that underlies an observable variable y .
- While the observable variables are discrete, they are manifestations of a continuous variable.
- Now we turn to a different group of models motivated by a number of types of political phenomena...

Examples of count data

- Terrorist attacks in Iraq during 2006
- Jobs created in the month of September
- Homicides in New Orleans last year
- Militarized interstate disputes globally this year
- Number of articles an academic published in a given year
- Chocolate bars I ate last year
- Beers consumed by students after an MLE class

- What do we do if the discrete variable that we have is also conceptually discrete?
- We can also motivate models of event counts as latent variable models, although in a slightly different way.
- We can think of the latent process of interest as producing event counts at some underlying *rate*.

Counts in political science

- Annual number of Supreme Court appointments (King 1987)
- Number of coups d'états in African states (Johnson et al. 1984)
- Number of terrorist incidents (Burgoon 2006)
- Alliances and number of states at war (King 1989)

- Event count data have two important characteristics:
- They are non-negative—since we cannot have negative events, all values are zero or greater.
- They are discrete—you cannot have 20.5 terrorist attacks in a month.

- Like any model, we are modeling the expected mean (μ) as a function of some independent variables, \mathbf{X} , with their estimated effect $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ on that mean.
- Since counts are non-negative, the exponential function is a natural candidate for a link function.

- This means that $e^{\beta X}$ will never produce a negative value, which is a good thing because we can never have a negative expected number of events.

$$\lambda = E(Y) = e^{\beta x_i}$$

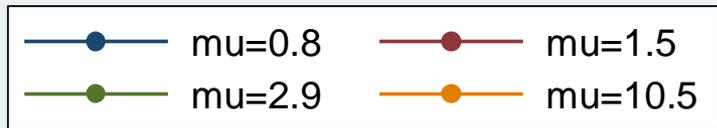
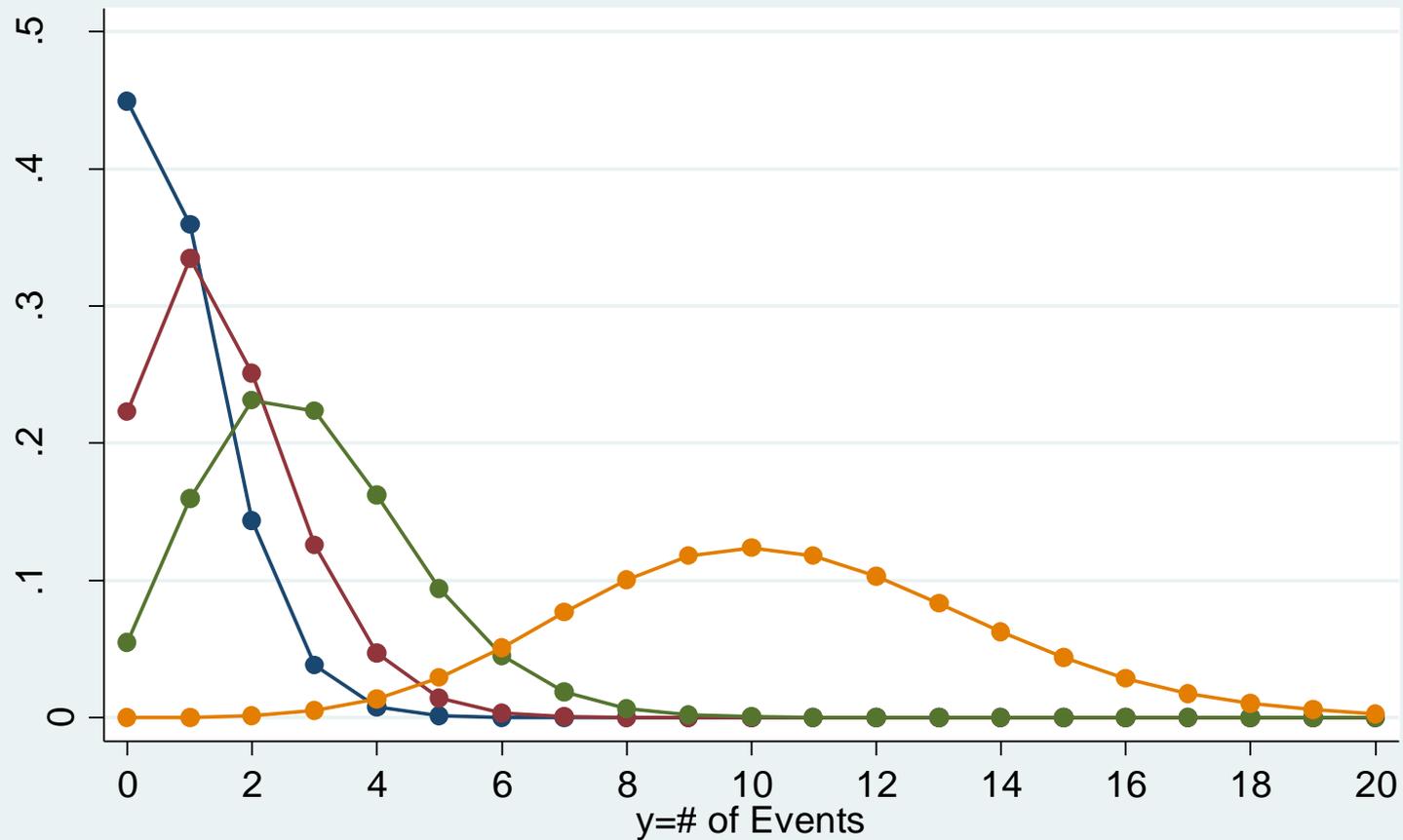
- This is about as simple of a formula as we are going to get.

Poisson distribution function

$$P(y_i = y) = \frac{e^{(-\lambda)} \mu^y}{y!}$$

for $y = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

- As you can see the Poisson distribution only has one parameter λ where $\lambda > 0$.



```
clear
set obs 25
gen ya = .8
poisson ya, nolog
prcounts pya, plot max(20)
gen yb = 1.5
poisson yb, nolog
prcounts pyb, plot max(20)
gen yc = 2.9
poisson yc, nolog
prcounts pyc, plot max(20)
gen yd = 10.5
poisson yd, nolog
prcounts pyd, plot max(20)
label var pyapreq "mu=0.8"
label var pybpreq "mu=1.5"
label var pycpreq "mu=2.9"
label var pydpreq "mu=10.5"
label var pyaval "y=# of Events"
graph twoway connected pyapreq pybpreq pycpreq pydpreq pyaval, ///
    ytitle("Probability") ylabel(0(.1).5) xlabel(0(2)20)
graph export 08poisson.emf, replace
```

This graph shows four important characteristics of count models (Long 1997: 218-219).

- μ is the mean of the distribution. As the mean increases the bulk of the distribution shifts to the right.

- The variance equals the mean (also known as equidispersion):

$$\text{Var}(Y) = E(Y) = \mu$$

- As μ increases, the probability of 0's decreases.
- As μ increases, the Poisson distribution approximates the normal distribution.

Important accompanying assumptions

- The observations are independent.
 - Observing one terrorist attack does not increase the probability of observing another one (!).
- There is no over-dispersion (or under-dispersion).
 - The conditional variance is not larger than the conditional mean.
 - Conditional means conditional on the values of the X s.
- There are no more 0's than would be predicted by the Poisson distribution.

- Once you estimate your model, you can figure out your expected baseline number of events by multiplying your coefficients by your independent variables at their means or modes.
- To estimate the ML model you want to first figure out the joint probability of your observed data.

$$P(\lambda | Y) = \prod_{i=1}^n F(Y | \lambda)$$

Then the log-likelihood is:

$$\ln L(\lambda | Y) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln\left(\frac{e^{(-\lambda)} \mu^y}{y!}\right)$$

Put another way

$$L(\beta | Y, X) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(y_i | \mu_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{e^{(-\lambda)} \mu^y}{y!}$$

Which we log to ease numerical maximization

$$\ln L(\beta | Y, X) = -n\lambda + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \ln \lambda - \sum_{i=1}^n \ln(y_i!)$$

- Like the ordered probit and logit the Poisson's assumptions are often restrictive given what we know about our political phenomena.
- This leads us to different models that relax these assumptions.
- More on those later...

Let's play with some actual data

- Long (1997) and Long and Freese (2006) use an example that is close to our hearts as academics—publication.
- These data from Long (1990) look at the number of publications produced by PhD biochemists.

Summary information

```
. sysuse couart2, clear
(Academic Biochemists / S Long)
```

```
. describe
```

```
Contains data from ./couart2.dta
```

```
  obs:          915          Academic Biochemists / S Long
 vars:           6          30 Jan 2001 10:49
 size:        11,895 (99.9% of memory free)  (_dta has notes)
```

variable name	storage type	display format	value label	variable label
art	byte	%9.0g		Articles in last 3 yrs of PhD
fem	byte	%9.0g	sexlbl	Gender: 1=female 0=male
mar	byte	%9.0g	marlbl	Married: 1=yes 0=no
kid5	byte	%9.0g		Number of children < 6
phd	float	%9.0g		PhD prestige
ment	byte	%9.0g		Article by mentor in last 3 yrs

```
Sorted by:  art
```

```
. summarize
```

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
art	915	1.692896	1.926069	0	19
fem	915	.4601093	.4986788	0	1
mar	915	.6622951	.473186	0	1
kid5	915	.495082	.76488	0	3
phd	915	3.103109	.9842491	.755	4.62

ment	915	8.767213	9.483916	0	77
------	-----	----------	----------	---	----

- Let's start by just estimating the model parameter:

$$\mu = e^{\beta_0}$$

```
. poisson art, nolog
```

```
Poisson regression
```

```
Number of obs = 915
```

```
LR chi2(0) = 0.00
```

```
Prob > chi2 = .
```

```
Pseudo R2 = 0.0000
```

```
Log likelihood = -1742.5735
```

```
-----
```

art	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----					
_cons	.5264408	.0254082	20.72	0.000	.4766416 .57624

```
-----
```

- Therefore the $\hat{\mu} = e^{(.5264408)} = 1.6929$

```

. prcounts psn, plot max(9)

. label var psnobeq "Observed Proportion"

. label var psnpreq "Poisson Prediction"

. label var psnval "# of Articles"

. list psnval psnobeq psnpreq in 1/10

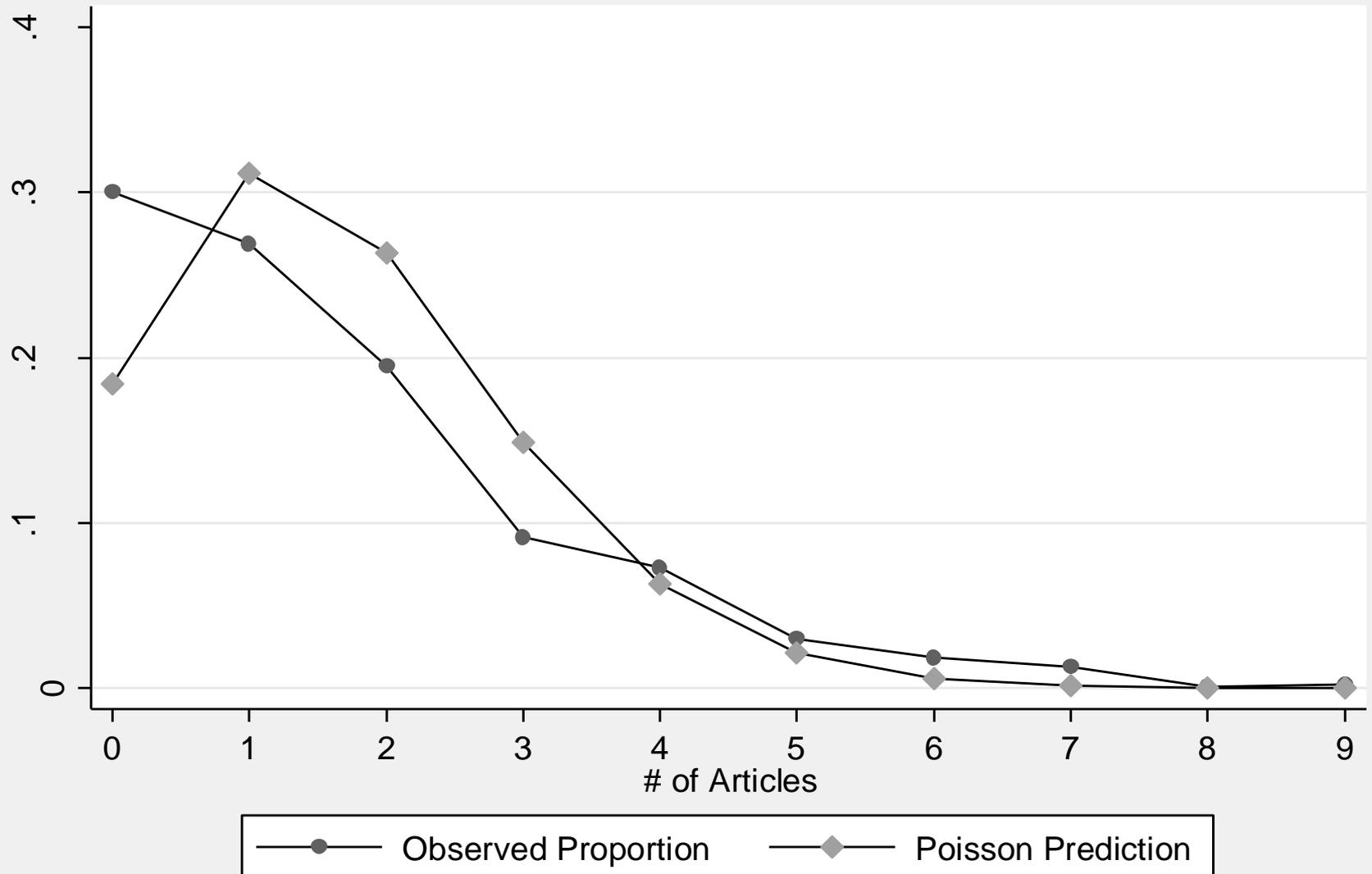
```

```

+-----+
| psnval   psnobeq   psnpreq |
+-----+
1. |      0   .3005464   .1839859 |
2. |      1   .2688525   .311469  |
3. |      2   .1945355   .2636423 |
4. |      3   .0918033   .148773  |
5. |      4   .073224   .0629643 |
+-----+
6. |      5   .0295082   .0213184 |
7. |      6   .0185792   .006015  |
8. |      7   .0131148   .0014547 |
9. |      8   .0010929   .0003078 |
10. |     9   .0021858   .0000579 |
+-----+

```

Comparing observed and predicted



Stata Commands:

```
graph twoway connected psnobeq psnpreq psnval, ///  
    ytitle("Probability") ylabel(0(.1).4) ///  
    xlabel(0(1)9) ysize(2.7051) xsize(4.0421)  
graph export 08psnpred.emf, replace
```

- As you can see the Poisson model under-predicts 0's and over-predicts 1-3.
- More on this later...

A basic Poisson model

```
. sysuse couart2, clear  
(Academic Biochemists / S Long)
```

```
. poisson art fem mar kid5 phd ment, nolog
```

```
Poisson regression                               Number of obs   =           915  
                                                LR chi2(5)      =          183.03  
                                                Prob > chi2     =           0.0000  
Log likelihood = -1651.0563                    Pseudo R2      =           0.0525
```

art	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
fem	-.2245942	.0546138	-4.11	0.000	-.3316352	-.1175532
mar	.1552434	.0613747	2.53	0.011	.0349512	.2755356
kid5	-.1848827	.0401272	-4.61	0.000	-.2635305	-.1062349
phd	.0128226	.0263972	0.49	0.627	-.038915	.0645601
ment	.0255427	.0020061	12.73	0.000	.0216109	.0294746
_cons	.3046168	.1029822	2.96	0.003	.1027755	.5064581

- You interpret the results depending on if you are interested in the expected value of y or the distribution of y .
- Interpretation is much more straightforward than multinomial logit.

$$\mu = E(y|x) = e^{\beta X}$$

I'm often partial to percent change

```
. * percent change  
. listcoef fem ment, percent help
```

poisson (N=915): Percentage Change in Expected Count

Observed SD: 1.926069

art	b	z	P> z	%	%StdX	SDofX
fem	-0.22459	-4.112	0.000	-20.1	-10.6	0.4987
ment	0.02554	12.733	0.000	2.6	27.4	9.4839

b = raw coefficient

z = z-score for test of b=0

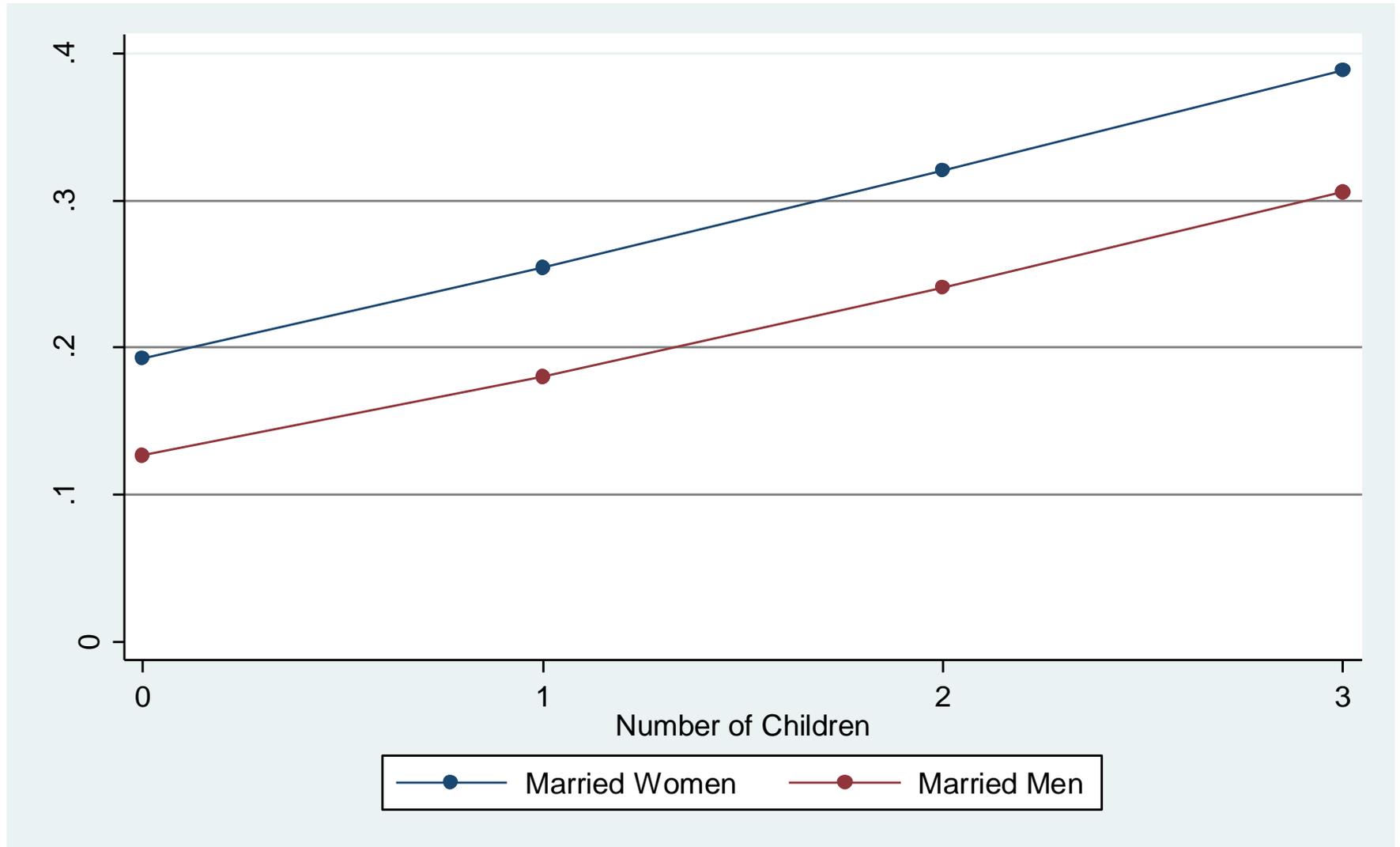
P>|z| = p-value for z-test

% = percent change in expected count for unit increase in X

%StdX = percent change in expected count for SD increase in X

SDofX = standard deviation of X

Using predicted probabilities



```

. * prgen
. prgen kid5, x(fem=1 mar=1) rest(mean) from(0) to(3) gen(fprm) n(4)

poisson: Predicted values as kid5 varies from 0 to 3.

          fem          mar          kid5          phd          ment
x=         1           1  .49508197  3.1031093  8.7672131

. prgen kid5, x(fem=0 mar=1) rest(mean) from(0) to(3) gen(mprm) n(4)

poisson: Predicted values as kid5 varies from 0 to 3.

          fem          mar          kid5          phd          ment
x=         0           1  .49508197  3.1031093  8.7672131

. label var fprmp0 "Married Women"

. label var mprmp0 "Married Men"

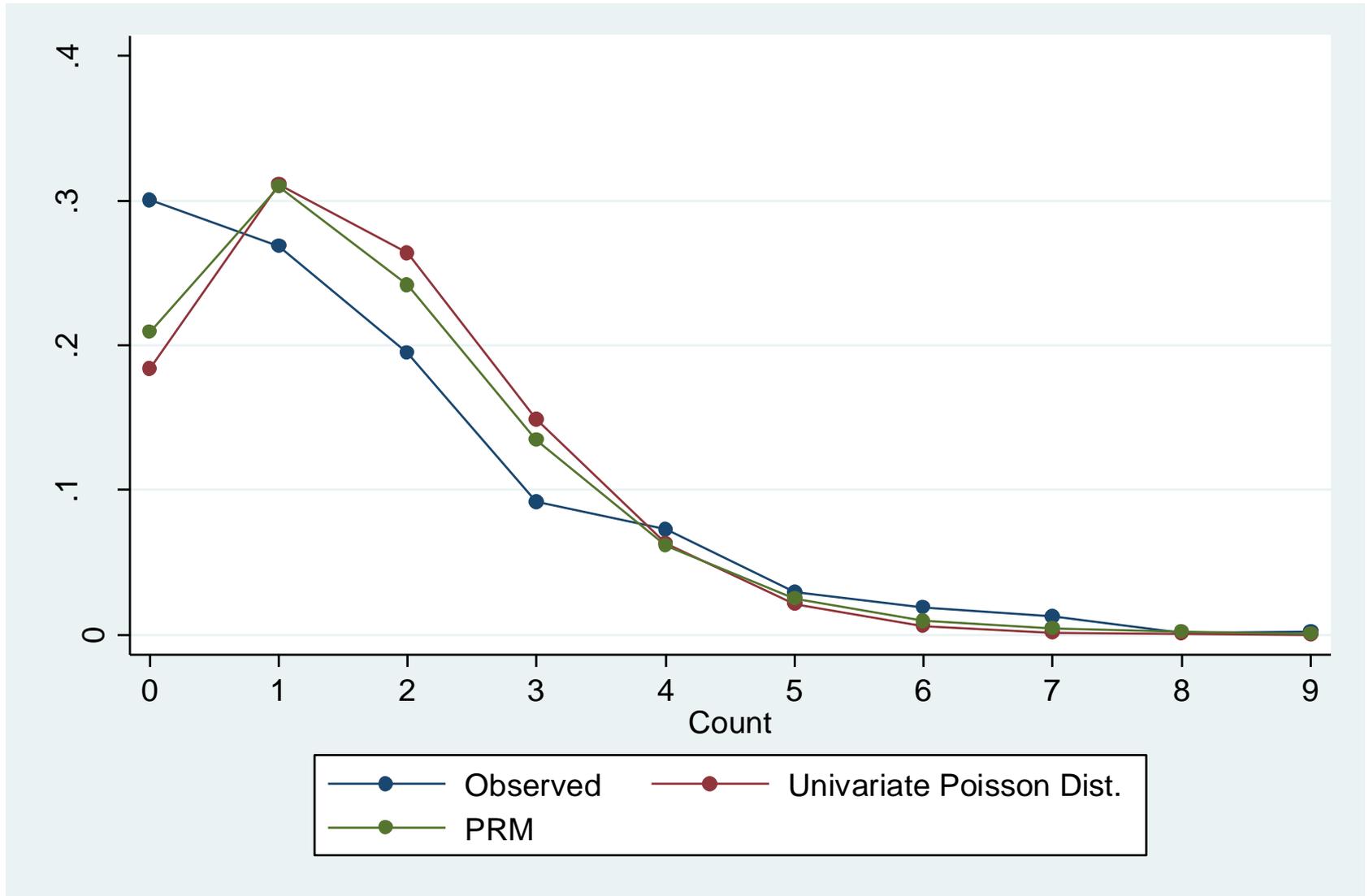
. label var mprmx  "Number of Children"

.

. * graph predictions
. graph twoway connected fprmp0 mprmp0 mprmx, ///
>   ylabel(0(.1).4) yline(.1 .2 .3) xlabel(0(1)3) ///
>   ytitle("Probability of No Articles") ///
>   ysize(2.5051) xsize(4.0421)

```

Difference between significant and important predictors



```
. prcounts prm, plot max(9)

. label var prmpreq "PRM"

. label var prmobeq "Observed"

. graph twoway connected prmobeq psnpreq prmpreq
prmval, ///
>     ytitle("Probability of Count") ylabel(0(.1).4)
///
>     xlabel(0(1)9) ysize(2.7051) xsize(4.0413)
```

- As you can see the output and the interpretation of Poisson models are straightforward and similar to what we have done previously.
- However, in practice most scholars are not able to use Poisson because their data violate the rather restrictive assumptions of the Poisson model.
- The most frequently violated assumption is that of equidispersion.

- What do we do if we have overdispersion?
- We turn to the negative binomial regression model (NBRM or NB).
- The NB model estimates an additional parameter, α , that reflects *unobserved* heterogeneity among observations.

- The NB model adds an error, ε , that is assumed to be uncorrelated with the X 's.
- We then estimate a random variable $\tilde{\mu}$:

$$\tilde{\mu}_i = e^{(\beta x_i + \varepsilon_i)} = \mu_i e^{\varepsilon_i} = \mu_i \delta_i$$

Where $\delta_i = e^{\varepsilon_i}$

- In order to be able to identify our model (like we do with the logit/probit, and multinomial) we assume a value for the mean of the error term.

- The most convenient assumption is that $E(\delta_i) = 1$.
- This lets us have the same expected count as the Poisson despite allowing a new source of variation.

$$E(\tilde{\mu}_i) = E(\mu_i \delta_i) = \mu_i E(\delta_i) = \mu_i$$

- To compute $P(Y | X, \delta)$ rather than $P(Y | X)$ we need to specify a distribution for δ in addition to the distribution for Y .
- The most common distribution for δ is the gamma function (which is part of the normal distribution used in the probit).

$$g(\delta_i) = \frac{v_i^{v_i}}{\Gamma(v_i)} \delta_i^{v_i-1} e^{(-\delta_i v_i)} \text{ for } v_i > 0$$

As v_i gets bigger the distribution becomes more bell shaped centered on 1.

- The negative binomial distribution is given by the formula in Long (1997: 232).
- The expected value of Y in the NB distribution is the same as the Poisson:

$$E(y|x) = \mu_i$$

- But the variance is different and given by:

$$\text{Var}(y|x) = \mu_i \left(1 + \frac{\mu_i}{v_i} \right) = e^{\beta x_i} \left(1 + \frac{e^{\beta x_i}}{v_i} \right)$$

- As you might be able to guess, the Poisson is nested within the NB when $\alpha = 0$.
- Again, to estimate we assume that ν is the same for all individuals.
- Long (1997: 234-5) plots sample data and shows the difference in errors between the Poisson and the NB.

What causes the unobserved heterogeneity?

- Contagion?
- Unobserved heterogeneity via omitted variables?

- The ML log-likelihood equation is in Long (1997: 236).
- Let's get back to the article publishing example.

```
. nbreg art fem mar kid5 phd ment, nolog
```

Negative binomial regression

Number of obs = 915

LR chi2(5) = 97.96

Dispersion = mean

Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

Log likelihood = -1560.9583

Pseudo R2 = 0.0304

art	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
fem	-.2164184	.0726724	-2.98	0.003	-.3588537	-.0739832
mar	.1504895	.0821063	1.83	0.067	-.0104359	.3114148
kid5	-.1764152	.0530598	-3.32	0.001	-.2804105	-.07242
phd	.0152712	.0360396	0.42	0.672	-.0553652	.0859075
ment	.0290823	.0034701	8.38	0.000	.0222811	.0358836
_cons	.256144	.1385604	1.85	0.065	-.0154294	.5277174
/lnalpha	-.8173044	.1199372			-1.052377	-.5822318
alpha	.4416205	.0529667			.3491069	.5586502

Likelihood-ratio test of alpha=0: $\chi^2(01) = 180.20$ Prob>= $\chi^2 = 0.000$

- See the estimate of the $\ln(\alpha)$ and α ?
- $\ln(\alpha)$ is used to force α estimates to be positive. The estimated α is given on the next line.
- How do the estimates differ between Poisson and NB?

Variable	PRM	NBRM
Gender: 1=female 0=male	-0.225	-0.216
	-4.11	-2.98
Married: 1=yes 0=no	0.155	0.150
	2.53	1.83
Number of children < 6	-0.185	-0.176
	-4.61	-3.32
PhD prestige	0.013	0.015
	0.49	0.42
Article by mentor in last 3 yrs	0.026	0.029
	12.73	8.38
Constant	0.305	0.256
	2.96	1.85
alpha		0.442
N	915	915

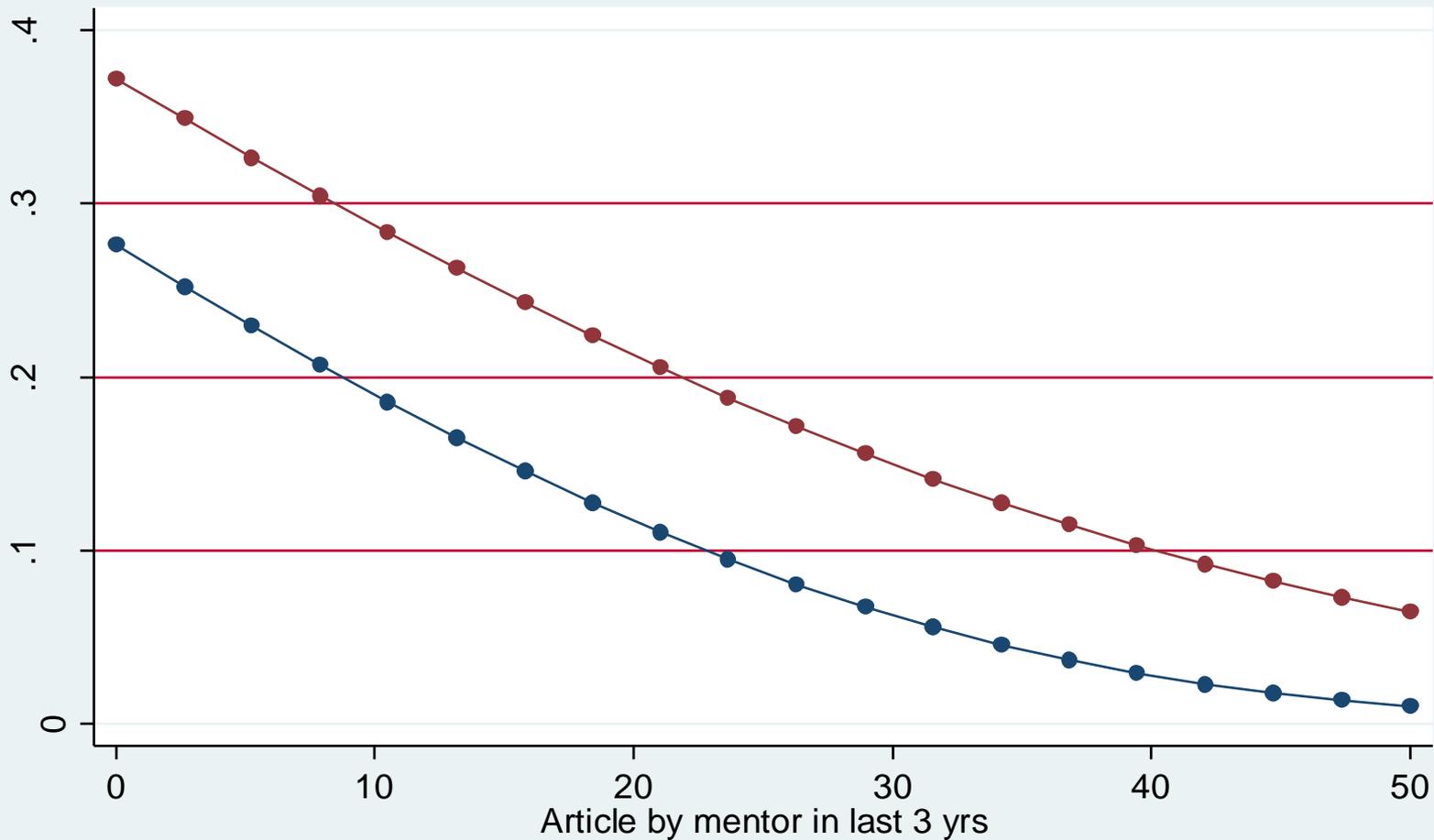
legend: b/t

- Notice that the z -values for the NB are substantially smaller than those for the Poisson.
- To test $H_0: \alpha = 0$ Stata does a likelihood ratio test:
$$G^2 = 2(\ln L_{NB} - \ln L_{Poisson})$$

Where G^2 is distributed chi-squared.

- The results in the last slide therefore suggest that there is significant evidence of overdispersion. This means that the NB is preferred over the Poisson.

- Interpretation of the NB is the same as for the Poisson, except that the predicted probability formula is not just $e^{\beta X}$ but by a much more complicated formula (formula 8.17 in Long 1997: 237).



- This helps explain why we might better prefer the NB to the Poisson.
- Remember that the Poisson under-predicted the 0's in the initial analysis.
- The NB better matches predictions to the actual data.

- However, the sheer number of zeros raises some other concerns that we will deal with in more detail next week.

```
. tab art
```

Articles in last 3 yrs of PhD	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
0	275	30.05	30.05
1	246	26.89	56.94
2	178	19.45	76.39
3	84	9.18	85.57
4	67	7.32	92.90
5	27	2.95	95.85
6	17	1.86	97.70
7	12	1.31	99.02
8	1	0.11	99.13
9	2	0.22	99.34
10	1	0.11	99.45
11	1	0.11	99.56
12	2	0.22	99.78
16	1	0.11	99.89
19	1	0.11	100.00
Total	915	100.00	

- Now, let's turn to the King articles and Gowa (1998) to look at these models in the wild as well as how they were introduced to the field.