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#### Week 6: Event Count Model POLI803

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Week 6, 2024

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### **Outline**

Event count models

**•** General statistical model: A revisit

- **e** Event count models
	- A new probability distribution (actually two distributions)
	- Poisson Model
	- Quasi-poisson Model
	- Negative Binomial Model
	- Zero-Inflated Models

## <span id="page-2-0"></span>Review: probability distribution

• What is a probability distribution?



# Review: probability distribution

- What is a probability distribution?
- Probability distribution  $=$  list of probabilities assigned to all possible outcomes
- How do we describe a probability distribution?
- Examples of probability distributions:
	- **Bernoulli distribution**
	- Normal distribution
	- **t** distribution
	- Uniform distribution
	- ...

## <span id="page-4-0"></span>Review: probability distribution

The shape of a probability distribution is determined by parameters.

- Normal distribution (two parameters): mean  $(\mu)$  and SD  $(\sigma)$
- Bernoulli distribution (one parameter): probability  $(p)$
- Uniform distribution (two parameters): upper and lower bounds

## **Notations**

• When a variable X follows a Normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and SD  $\sigma$ , we write

$$
X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)
$$

$$
\bullet \hspace{0.2cm} e.g., \hspace{0.2cm} X \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1), \hspace{0.2cm} Y \sim \mathcal{N}(0,2), \hspace{0.2cm} Z \sim \mathcal{N}(2,2)
$$

• When a variable X follows a Bernoulli distribution with  $p$ , we write

 $X \sim$  Bernoulli(p)

• When a variable  $X$  follows a uniform distribution with lower bound  $I$ and the upper bound  $u$ , we write

$$
X \sim \mathcal{U}(I, u)
$$

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## General statistical model

What do probability distributions mean for regression models?

Linear regression model can be represented as

$$
Y = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}
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Linear regression model can be represented as

$$
Y = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}
$$

Or we can write

$$
\hat{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}
$$

We can also write

$$
Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma) \tag{1}
$$

$$
\mu = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} \tag{2}
$$

- (1) is called the stochastic component
- (2) is called the **systematic component**

# Logistic regression model

Representation 1 (latent variable)

 $Y^* = X\beta$  $\hat{P} = \Lambda(Y^*)$ 

Representation 2 (random utility)

 $Y^* = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$  $Y = 1$  if  $Y^* > 0$  $Y = 0$  if  $Y^* \leq 0$ 

Representation 3 (Stochastic-Systemic)

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 $Y \sim$  Bernoulli(p)  $p = \Lambda(X\beta)$ 

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#### General statistical model

- Stochastic component: what kind of probability distribution governs the distribution of Y
	- $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$
	- $Y \sim$  Bernoulli(p)
	- $\bullet$  Y  $\sim$  Multinomial( $p_1, p_2, ..., p_k$ )
- Systematic component: connect the linear predictor with  $X$  using a link function
	- Linear link:  $\mu = X\beta$

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• Logit link:  $p = \Lambda(X\beta)$ 

#### Linear regression model (Normal-linear)

$$
Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)
$$

$$
\mu = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}
$$

Logistic regression model (Bernoulli-logistic)

 $Y \sim$  Bernoulli(p)  $p = \Lambda(X\beta)$ 

Probit regression Model (Bernoulli-probit)

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 $Y \sim$  Bernoulli(p)  $p = \Phi(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$ 

Ordered logistic regression model (with three categories)  $\rightarrow$ Multinomial-logistic

$$
Y \sim Multinomial(p_1, p_2, p_3)
$$
  
\n
$$
p_1 = \Lambda(cut_1 - \mathbf{X}\beta)
$$
  
\n
$$
p_2 = \Lambda(cut_2 - \mathbf{X}\beta) - \Lambda(cut_1 - \mathbf{X}\beta)
$$
  
\n
$$
p_3 = \Lambda(\mathbf{X}\beta - cut_2)
$$

Multinomial logistic regression model (with three categories)  $\rightarrow$ Multinomial-exp.

$$
\begin{aligned} \mathsf{Y}&\sim \textit{Multinomial}(p_1,p_2,p_3) \\ p_1&=\frac{\exp(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_1)}{\exp(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_1)+\exp(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_2)+\exp(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_3)} \\ p_2&=\frac{\exp(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_2)}{\exp(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_1)+\exp(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_2)+\exp(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_3)} \\ p_3&=\frac{\exp(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_3)}{\exp(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_1)+\exp(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_2)+\exp(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_3)}^{\text{POLIBO3}+\text{ Week }6}\end{aligned}
$$

#### **Generalized Linear Models**

The approach: allow dependent variable to follow a different distribution



#### Event count models

<span id="page-14-0"></span>Let's say we are interested in  $Y =$  the number of times some event happens (0, 1, 2, 3, ...)

- Normal distribution not appropriate
- **•** Bernoulli distribution not appropriate, either

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• We can use **Poisson distribution** to describe such process

 $Y \sim Poisson(\lambda)$ 

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#### Poisson distribution



When we set  $\lambda = 1$  (e.g., average one attack per year), then the prob. of seeing 4 attacks is 0.01 and 5 attackes is 0.

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#### Poisson distribution



When we set  $\lambda = 1$  (e.g., average one attack per year), then the prob. of seeing 4 attacks is 0.1 and 5 attackes is 0.05.

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## Poisson distribution



# Poisson distribution



• The stochastic component: Poisson distribution

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- The stochastic component: Poisson distribution
- The systematic component: connect  $\lambda$  with  $X$

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• Recall that some parameters have restricted range (e.g.,  $0 \le p \le 1$ )

- The stochastic component: Poisson distribution
- The systematic component: connect  $\lambda$  with X
- Recall that some parameters have restricted range (e.g.,  $0 \le p \le 1$ )
- The parameter of a Poisson distribution,  $\lambda$ , must be positive

 $Y \sim Poisson(\lambda)$  $\lambda = \exp(\mathbf{X}\beta)$ 

where  $\lambda$  is the mean and the variance

# The Problem of Overdispersion

- This one-to-one relationship ( $\lambda$  is the mean and the variance) often fails in real-world data
- Often the variance of the residuals is larger than the mean

Poission Assumption:  $E[Y] = var(Y)$ Over-dispersion:  $E[Y] < var(Y)$ Under-dispersion:  $E[Y] > var(Y)$ 

R can generate the test of over-dispersion

# Quasipoisson regression

- Over-dispersion gives biased coefficient estimates and standard errors
- Need a strategy to disentangle the mean and variance
- $\bullet$  We estimate a dispersion parameter  $\phi$  from the residuals

$$
\hat{\phi} = \frac{1}{N-k} \sum \left( \frac{(y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\hat{y}_i} \right)
$$

var  $=$   $\phi$ mean

• So what differs between the poisson and the quasi-poission model?

# Quasipoisson regression

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# Quasipoisson regression

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- So what differs between the poisson and the quasi-poission model?  $\rightarrow$  the s.e. differs but the mean remains unchanged
- Quasi-poission will have a larger s.e., but the MLE model is the same

# Negative binomial regression

- A different solution is to use a even more flexible **model** with two parameters ( $\lambda$  and  $\theta$ )
- In practice, negative binomial model is more frequently used

 $Y \sim$  negbin $(\lambda, \theta)$  $\lambda = \exp(\mathbf{X}\beta)$ 

where  $\lambda$  is the mean and  $\theta$  captures the variance

When  $\theta = 1$ , the model reduces to Poisson

#### **Estimation**

• To fit a poisson regression in R:

 $g1m(Y \sim X1 + X2 + X3...$ , data = data, family = poisson)

• To fit a negative binomial regression in R:

library(MASS)  $g1m.nb(Y ∼ X1 + X2 + X3...$ , data = data)

- Note: AIC scores are not comparable across these two models
	- A statistically significant estimate of  $\theta \rightsquigarrow$  negative binomial is appropriate (potentially due to an excess of zeros)
	- $\theta$  is usually interpreted as a measure of overdispersion in the Negative Binomial distribution

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#### <span id="page-29-0"></span>Example: domestic terrorist attacks

Piazza (2006), JPR

 $\bullet$  Y: number of domestic terrorist attacks a country experiences per year

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Unit of observation: country-year (172 countries, 1970–2006)

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#### Domestic terrorist attacks: DV

**Number of Terrorist Attacks, 1970−2006**



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## Domestic terrorist attacks: DV



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# Domestic terrorist attacks: DV



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# Domestic terrorist attacks: DV



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# Domestic terrorist attacks: DV



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# Domestic terrorist attacks: DV



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# Domestic terrorist attacks: effects

**Effect of Economic Discrimination**





#### Domestic terrorist attacks: effects

**Effect of Executive Constraint**



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#### A New Problem: Too many zeros



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## Zero-inflation

One reason why you might see overdispersion is that there are too many zeroes in the count data.

Empirical reason: by separately accounting for the zeroes, we can do a **better job with standard errors**.  $\rightarrow$  more precision



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- Theoretical reason: but there is a substantively important reason why we might want to model the extra zeroes. It may be the case that the zeroes come from a different data generating process than the nonzeroes.



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Two groups of observations:

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#### Two groups of observations:

- $\bigodot$  Always-zeros: the group that must have a count of  $0 (=$  immune from the event), or
- 2 Maybe-zeros: the group that can have a count of 0, but might have a nonzero count.

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These two groups are only partially observed.





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#### Zero-inflation

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 $\bullet$  If the count is nonzero  $\rightsquigarrow$  we know that the observation is in the second group



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- **•** If the count is nonzero  $\rightsquigarrow$  we **know** that the observation is in the second group
- If the count is zero  $\rightarrow \infty$  we can only **estimate** which group it comes from



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We model two things at the same time:

- $\bullet$  the probability that each observation could have been in each group, and
- 2 the expected count for observations in the nonzero-count group.



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This model leads to zero-inflated Poisson and to zero-inflated negative binomial.



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Let  $group A$  be the group that must always be 0. Let  $group B$  be the group with potentially nonzero counts.



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Let  $group A$  be the group that must always be 0. Let  $group B$  be the group with potentially nonzero counts.

For group A, the count must be zero, so the PMF (Prob. mass function, for discrete variables) is:

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f_A(y_i=0)=1, f_A(y_i>0)=0.
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$$
f_B(y_i|\lambda_i) = \frac{\lambda_i^y}{y_i!}e^{-\lambda_i}
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$$

Suppose an observation belongs to group A with probability  $\pi_i$  and group B with probability  $1 - \pi_i$ .

Then any observation has the average of these two distributions:

$$
f(y_i|\pi_i, \lambda_i) = \pi_i f_A(y_1 = 0) + (1 - \pi_i) f_B(y_i|\lambda_i)
$$

$$
= \pi_i + (1 - \pi_i) \frac{\lambda_i^y}{y_i!} e^{-\lambda_i}
$$

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$$
\left(\overline{\text{Example}}\right)
$$

$$
f(y_i|\pi_i,\lambda_i)=\pi_i+(1-\pi_i)\frac{\lambda_i^{y_i}}{y_i!}e^{-\lambda_i}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{c|c}\n\text{POLI803} & \text{Week 6} \\
\hline\n\end{array}\n\quad 27 / 30
$$

$$
\fbox{(Example)}
$$

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$$
f(y_i|\pi_i,\lambda_i)=\pi_i+(1-\pi_i)\frac{\lambda_i^{y_i}}{y_i!}e^{-\lambda_i}
$$

If  $y_i = 0$ , then this PMF becomes

$$
f(y_i = 0 | \pi_i, \lambda_i) = \pi_i + (1 - \pi_i) \frac{\lambda^0}{0!} e^{-\lambda_i}
$$

$$
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$$

$$
= \pi_i + (1 - \pi_i) e^{-\lambda_i}
$$

If  $y_i > 0$ , then this PMF becomes

$$
f(y_i > 0 | \pi_i, \lambda_i) = (1 - \pi_i) \frac{\lambda_i^{y_i}}{y_i!} e^{-\lambda_i}
$$

$$
\left(\overline{\mathsf{Example}}\right)
$$

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$$
f(y_i|\pi_i,\lambda_i)=\pi_i+(1-\pi_i)\frac{\lambda_i^{y_i}}{y_i!}e^{-\lambda_i}
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$$
f(y_i > 0 | \pi_i, \lambda_i) = (1 - \pi_i) \frac{\lambda_i^{y_i}}{y_i!} e^{-\lambda_i}
$$

Define a dummy variable  $I_{0i}$  to indicate whether  $y_i = 0$ , then the whole stochastic component is

$$
f(y_i|\pi_i,\lambda_i) = \left(\frac{\pi_i + (1-\pi_i)e^{-\lambda_i}}{\text{Bernoulli}}\right)^{I_{0i}} \left(\underbrace{(1-\pi_i)\frac{\lambda_i^{y_i}}{y_i!}e^{-\lambda_i}}_{\text{Count POL1803}|\text{ Week 6}}\right)^{1-I_{0i}}
$$



We are going to fit both  $\pi_i$  and  $\lambda_i$  with linear aggregators, so that we can predict which observations have a count, and the count for those that do.

> $y_{i\lambda}^* = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 x_{1i}$  $y_{i\pi}^* = \alpha_2 + \beta_2 x_{2i}$



We are going to fit both  $\pi_i$  and  $\lambda_i$  with linear aggregators, so that we can predict which observations have a count, and the count for those that do.

> $y_{i\lambda}^* = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 x_{1i}$  $y_{i\pi}^* = \alpha_2 + \beta_2 x_{2i}$

and two link functions

$$
\lambda_i = e^{y_{i\lambda}^*}
$$

$$
\pi_i = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-y_{i\pi}^*}}
$$

Note: we have different coefficients and we can have different  $x$ variables for each part.



#### Quantities of interest:

• Probability of not being "at risk" (immune to events):

 $\pi_i$ 



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Average count, conditional on having a count at all:

 $\lambda_i$ 





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Average count:

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# Zero-inflated Poisson

#### Quantities of interest:

• Probability of not being "at risk" (immune to events):

 $\pi_i$ 

Average count, conditional on having a count at all:

 $\lambda_i$ 

• Average count:

 $(1 - \pi_i)\lambda_i$ 

Note: when a particular  $x_k$  appears both in the  $y^*_{\pi}$  equation and in the  $y^*_\lambda$  equation, the sign of  $\beta_k$  can be really misleading. Interpret them carefully.



# Estimation: pscl package

<span id="page-65-0"></span>To fit a zero-inflated poisson regression in R:

library(pscl) zeroinfl(Y  $\sim$  X1 + X2 + X3... | Z1 + Z2 + Z3 ..., data = data,  $dist = "poisson")$ 

To fit a zero-inflated negative binomial regression in R:

library(pscl) zeroinfl(Y ~ X1 + X2 + X3... | Z1 + Z2 + Z3 ..., data = data,  $dist = "negbin")$