#### Week 6: Event Count Model POLI803

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# Outline

#### Event count models

• General statistical model: A revisit

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

# 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
  - ...

### 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

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# Notations

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

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

• e.g., 
$$X \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$$
,  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(0,2)$ ,  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(2,2)$ 

• 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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Example

#### General statistical model

What do probability distributions mean for regression models?

Linear regression model can be represented as

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# General statistical model

What do probability distributions mean for regression models?

Linear regression model can be represented as

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

Or we can write

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

We can also write

.

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

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

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

# Logistic regression model

Representation 1 (latent variable)

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

Representation 2 (random utility)

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

Representation 3 (Stochastic-Systemic)

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 $Y \sim Bernoulli(p)$  $p = \Lambda(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{eta})$ 

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# General statistical model

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

#### General statistical model

Linear regression model (Normal-linear)

$$egin{aligned} Y &\sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma) \ \mu &= oldsymbol{X}oldsymbol{eta} \end{aligned}$$

Logistic regression model (Bernoulli-logistic)

 $Y \sim Bernoulli(p)$  $p = \Lambda(\boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{eta})$ 

Probit regression Model (Bernoulli-probit)

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

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# General statistical model

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

$$\begin{aligned} Y &\sim \textit{Multinomial}(p_1, p_2, p_3) \\ p_1 &= \Lambda(\textit{cut}_1 - \pmb{X}\beta) \\ p_2 &= \Lambda(\textit{cut}_2 - \pmb{X}\beta) - \Lambda(\textit{cut}_1 - \pmb{X}\beta) \\ p_3 &= \Lambda(\pmb{X}\beta - \textit{cut}_2) \end{aligned}$$

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

$$Y \sim Multinomial(p_1, p_2, p_3)$$

$$p_1 = \frac{\exp(\mathbf{X}\beta_1)}{\exp(\mathbf{X}\beta_1) + \exp(\mathbf{X}\beta_2) + \exp(\mathbf{X}\beta_3)}$$

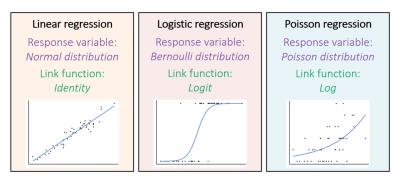
$$p_2 = \frac{\exp(\mathbf{X}\beta_2)}{\exp(\mathbf{X}\beta_1) + \exp(\mathbf{X}\beta_2) + \exp(\mathbf{X}\beta_3)}$$

$$p_3 = \frac{\exp(\mathbf{X}\beta_3)}{\exp(\mathbf{X}\beta_1) + \exp(\mathbf{X}\beta_2) + \exp(\mathbf{X}\beta_3)}$$
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#### General statistical model

#### **Generalized Linear Models**

The approach: allow dependent variable to follow a different distribution



#### Event count models

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

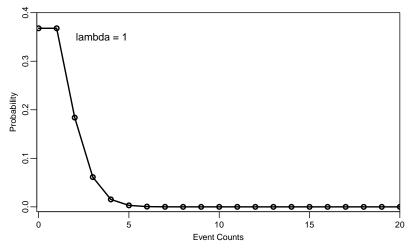
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• We can use **Poisson distribution** to describe such process

 $Y \sim Poisson(\lambda)$ 

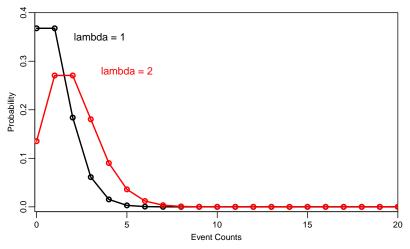
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#### **Poisson distribution**



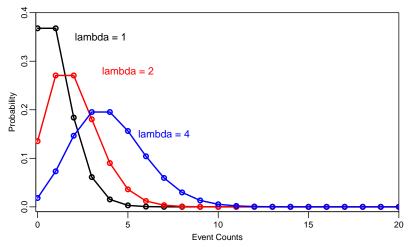
When we set  $\lambda = 1$  (e.g., average one attack per year), then the prob. of seeing 4 attacks is 0.01 and 5 attackes is 0.

#### **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.

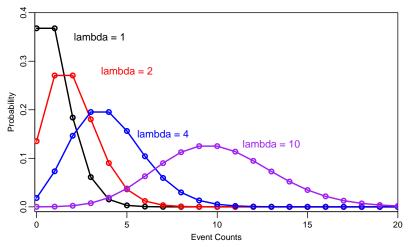
# **Poisson distribution**



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# **Poisson distribution**



# Poisson regression model

• The stochastic component: Poisson distribution

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- The systematic component: connect  $\lambda$  with X

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

# Poisson regression model

- 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

 $Y \sim Poisson(\lambda)$  $\lambda = \exp(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{eta})$ 

where  $\lambda$  is the mean and the variance

# The Problem of Overdispersion

- This one-to-one relationship (λ 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
- We estimate a dispersion parameter  $\phi$  from the residuals

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

 $\mathsf{var} = \phi\mathsf{mean}$ 

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

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

 $Y \sim negbin(\lambda, heta)$  $\lambda = \exp(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{eta})$ 

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:

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

• To fit a negative binomial regression in R:

library(MASS)  $glm.nb(Y \sim X1 + X2 + X3..., data = data)$ 

- 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



#### Example: domestic terrorist attacks

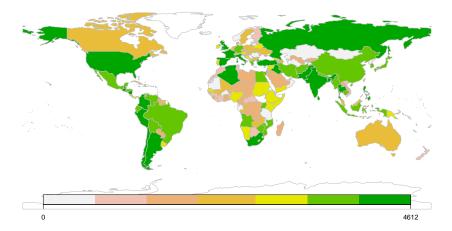
Piazza (2006), JPR

- Y: number of domestic terrorist attacks a country experiences per year
- Unit of observation: country-year (172 countries, 1970-2006)

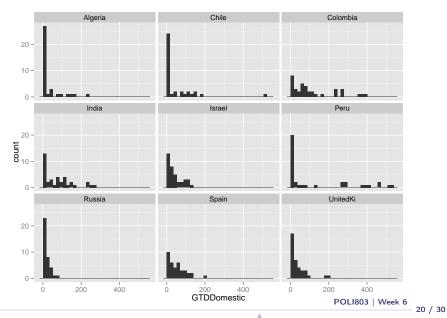
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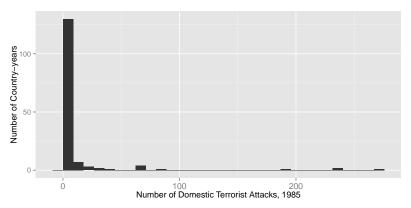
Number of Terrorist Attacks, 1970-2006



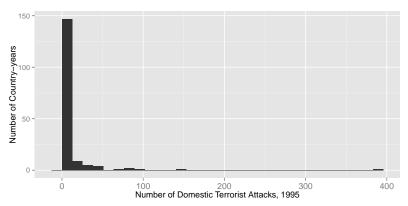










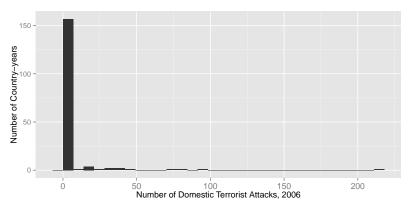


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#### Domestic terrorist attacks: DV

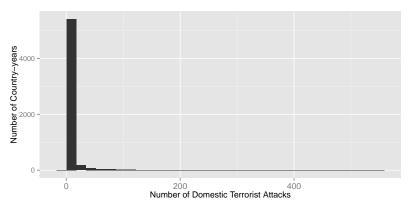


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# Domestic terrorist attacks: DV



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Review

Review	Event Count Models		
	Poisson	Negative Binomial	
ECDIS	1.217*** (0.020)	1.457*** (0.102)	
Population	0.704 <sup>***</sup> (0.007)	1.082 <sup>***</sup> (0.046)	
Area	-0.318*** (0.006)	-0.348*** (0.036)	
Durable	-0.003*** (0.0002)	-0.009*** (0.002)	
GNI	0.209 <sup>***</sup> (0.006)	0.215 <sup>***</sup> (0.040)	
GINI	0.038 <sup>***</sup> (0.001)	0.049 <sup>***</sup> (0.006)	
Partic	-0.222*** (0.008)	-0.299 <sup>***</sup> (0.049)	
Executive	-0.138 <sup>***</sup> (0.004)	-0.159 <sup>***</sup> (0.032)	
Constant	1.288*** (0.077)	0.276 (0.555)	
Observations Log Likelihood $\theta$ Akaike Inf. Crit.	2,964 39,985.850 79,989.700	2,964 -5,626.221 0.185*** (0.007) 11,270.440	-
Note:		p<0.05; ***p<0.01	POLI803   W

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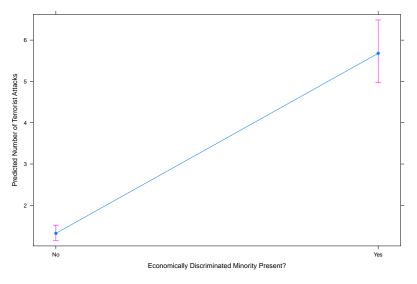
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(Example)



## Domestic terrorist attacks: effects

Effect of Economic Discrimination

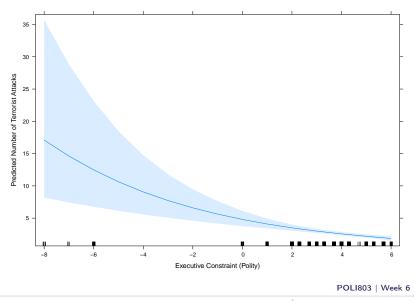


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## Domestic terrorist attacks: effects

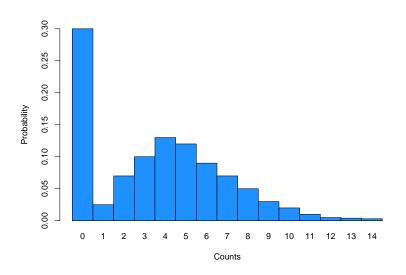
Effect of Executive Constraint



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# A New Problem: Too many zeros



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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**. → 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:

- Always-zeros: the group that must have a count of 0 (= immune from the event), or
- 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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We model two things at the same time:

- 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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We model two things at the same time:

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

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. 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:

$$f_A(y_i = 0) = 1, \ f_A(y_i > 0) = 0.$$

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$$f_B(y_i|\lambda_i) = rac{\lambda_i^y}{y_i!}e^{-\lambda_i}$$



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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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Review

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

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

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

$$f(y_i|\pi_i,\lambda_i) = \left(\underbrace{\pi_i + (1-\pi_i)e^{-\lambda_i}}_{\text{Bernoulli}}\right)^{I_{0i}} \left(\underbrace{(1-\pi_i)\frac{\lambda_i^{y_i}}{y_i!}e^{-\lambda_i}}_{\text{Count POLI863 | Week 6}}\right)^{1-I_{0i}}_{\text{Count POLI863 | Week 6}}$$

#### Example

# Zero-inflated Poisson

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.

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

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#### Example

# Zero-inflated Poisson

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

and two link functions

$$\lambda_i = e^{y_{i\lambda}^*}$$
 $\pi_i = rac{1}{1 + e^{-y_{i\pi}^*}}$ 

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

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# **Zero-inflated Poisson**

#### Quantities of interest:

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

 $\pi_i$ 

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# Zero-inflated Poisson

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• 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

• 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  $\sim$  X1 + X2 + X3... | Z1 + Z2 + Z3 ..., data = data, dist = "negbin")