

# Precept 4 - More GLMs: Models of Binary and Lognormal Outcomes

## Soc 504: Advanced Social Statistics

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<sup>1</sup>These slides owe an enormous debt to generations of TFs in Gov 2001 at Harvard. Many slides are directly adapted from those by Brandon Stewart and Stephen Pettigrew.

# Outline

- 1 GLMs
  - General Structure of GLMs
  - Procedure for Running a GLM
- 2 Complementary log-log
- 3 Quantities of Interest

# Replication Paper

Any thoughts or issues to discuss?

# Generalized Linear Models

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Three elements of a GLM:

- A distribution for  $Y$  (stochastic component)
- A linear predictor  $X\beta$  (systematic component)
- A link function that relates the linear predictor to a parameter of the distribution. (systematic component)

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$$X\beta = \beta_0 + x_1\beta_1 + x_2\beta_2 + \cdots + x_k\beta_k$$

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This is the systematic component that we've been talking about all along.



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- Link:  $\ln(\lambda) = X\beta$

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Use `optim` to estimate the parameters just like we have all along.

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- ③ Draw from distribution of  $Y$  for predicted values.

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We will use data from the Fragile Families and Child Wellbeing Study to study the cumulative risk of eviction over child for children born in large American cities.





# Research question and data

What is the probability of eviction in a given year for a child with a given set of covariates?

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`ffEviction.csv` is the data that we use.

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## What's in the data?

```
> head(d)
```

```
  idnum income married cmiethrace ev
1  0001   1.5       0   Hispanic  0
2  0002   1.6       0     Black  0
3  0003   2.7       0     White  0
4  0004   1.0       0   Hispanic  0
5  0006   0.2       0     Black  0
6  0007   1.3       0   Hispanic  0
```

```
> summary(d)
```

idnum	income	married	cmiethrace	ev
Length:12298	Min. :0.000	Min. :0.0000	White :2709	Min. :0.00000
Class :character	1st Qu.:0.500	1st Qu.:0.0000	Black :5911	1st Qu.:0.00000
Mode :character	Median :1.200	Median :0.0000	Hispanic:3225	Median :0.00000
	Mean :1.666	Mean :0.2502	Other : 453	Mean :0.02301
	3rd Qu.:2.400	3rd Qu.:1.0000		3rd Qu.:0.00000
	Max. :5.000	Max. :1.0000		Max. :1.00000

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What's the first question we should ask ourselves when we start to model this dependent variable?



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# Coding our log likelihood function

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cloglog.loglik <- function(par, X, y) {
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cloglog.loglik <- function(par, X, y) {  
  
  beta <- par
```

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```
cloglog.loglik <- function(par, X, y) {  
  
  beta <- par  
  
  log.lik <- sum(y * log(1 - exp(-exp(X %*% beta))) -  
                (1 - y) * exp(X %*% beta))  
}
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  return(log.lik)  
}
```

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```

### Point estimate of the MLE:

```
opt$par
[1] -2.704 -1.211 -0.526 -0.620 -0.272 -0.348
```

# Standard errors of the MLE

---

<sup>2</sup>Credit to Stephen Pettigrew for including this figure in slides.

# Standard errors of the MLE

Recall that the standard errors are defined as the diagonal of:

$$\sqrt{-\left[\frac{\partial^2 \ell}{\partial \beta^2}\right]^{-1}}$$

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## Variance-covariance matrix:

```
-solve(opt$hessian)
```

	[,1]	[,2]	[,3]	[,4]	[,5]	[,6]
[1,]	0.026	-0.002	-0.021	-0.021	-0.019	-0.006
[2,]	-0.002	0.063	0.004	0.002	-0.001	-0.004
[3,]	-0.021	0.004	0.026	0.019	0.018	0.002
[4,]	-0.021	0.002	0.019	0.033	0.018	0.002
[5,]	-0.019	-0.001	0.018	0.018	0.128	0.002
[6,]	-0.006	-0.004	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.004

# Standard errors of the MLE

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```
      [,1]  [,2]  [,3]  [,4]  [,5]  [,6]
[1,]  0.026 -0.002 -0.021 -0.021 -0.019 -0.006
[2,] -0.002  0.063  0.004  0.002 -0.001 -0.004
[3,] -0.021  0.004  0.026  0.019  0.018  0.002
[4,] -0.021  0.002  0.019  0.033  0.018  0.002
[5,] -0.019 -0.001  0.018  0.018  0.128  0.002
[6,] -0.006 -0.004  0.002  0.002  0.002  0.004
```

## Standard errors:

```
sqrt(diag(-solve(opt$hessian)))
```

```
[1] 0.162 0.252 0.160 0.183 0.358 0.064
```

# Outline

- 1 GLMs
  - General Structure of GLMs
  - Procedure for Running a GLM
- 2 Complementary log-log
- 3 Quantities of Interest

# Interpreting c-loglog coefficients

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Here's a nicely formatted table with your regression results from our model:

Variable	Coefficient	SE
Intercept	-2.70	0.16
Married	-1.21	0.25
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All else constant, children of married parents have -1.21 points lower log rate of eviction.

And what are log rates? Nobody thinks in terms of log odds, or probit coefficients, or exponential rates.

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We'll spend the rest of today looking at how to do that.



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- ⑧ Use the results to make fancy graphs and informative tables

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We hope that the  $\hat{\beta}$ s we estimated are good estimates of the true  $\beta$ s, but we know that they aren't exactly perfect because of estimation uncertainty.

So we account for this uncertainty by simulating  $\beta$ s from the multivariate normal distribution defined above

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Simulate one draw from  $\text{mvnorm}(\hat{\beta}, \hat{V}(\hat{\beta}))$

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Simulate one draw from  $\text{mvn}(\hat{\beta}, \hat{V}(\hat{\beta}))$   
Install the mvtnorm package if you need to

```
install.packages("mvtnorm")
require(mvtnorm)

sim.betas <- rmvnorm(n = 1,
                    mean = opt$par,
                    sigma = -solve(opt$hessian))

sim.betas
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6]
[1,] -2.825 -1.424 -0.478 -0.358 -0.123 -0.237
```



Untransform  $X\beta$

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Now we need to choose some values of the covariates that we want predictions about.

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Let's make predictions for one white child born to married parents with family income at the poverty line Recall that our predictors (in order) are:

```
> colnames(X)
[1] "(Intercept)"      "married"           "cm1ethraceBlack"  "cm1ethraceH
[5] "cm1ethraceOther" "income"
```

We can set the values of  $X$  as:

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We can set the values of  $X$  as:

```
setX <- c(1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1)
```

Untransform  $X\beta$

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Now we multiply our covariates of interest by our simulated parameters:

```
setX %*% t(sim.betas)
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If we stopped right here we'd be making two mistakes.

- ① -4.486287 is not the predicted probability (obviously - it's negative!), it's the predicted log rate
- ② We haven't done a very good job of accounting for the uncertainty in the model

Untransform  $X\beta$

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```
> sim.p <- 1 - exp(-exp(setX %*% t(sim.betas)))  
> sim.p  
      [,1]  
[1,] 0.0111992
```

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> mean(draws)
[1] 0.0117
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Is 0.0117 our best guess at the predicted probability of eviction?



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Is 0.0117 our best guess at the predicted probability of eviction?  
Nope

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To do this we'd need to loop over all the steps I just went through and get the full distribution of predicted probabilities for this case.

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Or, instead of using a loop, let's just vectorize our code:

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```
head(sim.betas)
```

```
      [,1]  [,2]  [,3]  [,4]  [,5]  [,6]  
[1,] -2.800 -0.955 -0.545 -0.531 -0.217 -0.319  
[2,] -2.410 -0.879 -0.772 -0.896 -0.301 -0.485  
[3,] -2.715 -1.672 -0.483 -0.741 -0.365 -0.333  
[4,] -2.718 -0.993 -0.588 -0.545 -0.094 -0.389  
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```

```
dim(sim.betas)
```

```
[1] 10000      6
```

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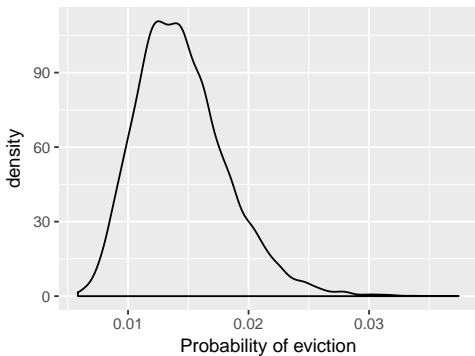
And untransform them

```
> pred.prob <- 1 - exp(-exp(pred.xb))  
> pred.prob[,1:5]  
[1] 0.016858874 0.022674923 0.008876607 0.016426627 0.017223131
```

# Look at Our Results in Tabular Form



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```
> mean(pred.prob)
[1] 0.01446521
> quantile(pred.prob, prob = c(.025, .975))
      2.5%      97.5%
0.00844883 0.02295435

> mean(pred.prob > .02)
[1] 0.0828
```

# Different QOI

---

<sup>3</sup>Note: We assume independence between eviction in each year, and a constant risk over time. This corresponds to an Exponential survival model.

# Different QOI

What if our QOI was the chance of any eviction from birth to age 9?

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## Different QOI

What if our QOI was the chance of any eviction from birth to age 9?

$$\begin{aligned}P(\text{Ever evicted}) &= 1 - P(\text{Never evicted}) \\ &= 1 - \prod_{i=1}^9 (1 - P(\text{Evicted at age } i)) \\ &= 1 - (1 - p)^9\end{aligned}$$

All that will change is the very last step<sup>3</sup>

---

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## Different QOI

We already estimated the sampling distribution of  $p$  and stored samples from this distribution in the vector `predprob`. Now we can just transform them!

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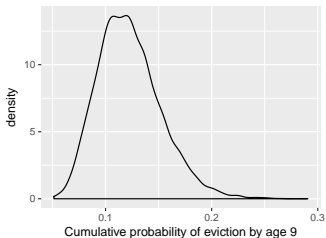
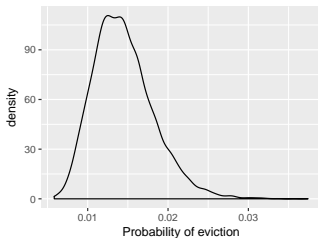
```
> cum.prob <- 1 - (1 - pred.prob) ^ 9  
> mean(cum.prob)  
[1] 0.1224441
```

12%! The probability of eviction looks much higher than we had thought!



# Look at Our Results For Both QOIs

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Quantities of interest matter in continuous cases as well

Example: Modeling log income

# Modeling log income

We want to model the effect of college ( $D$ ) on earnings ( $Y$ ), net of age ( $X$ ).

Let's get some data! <http://cps.ipums.org>

# Causal identification

We state an **ignorability assumption**:

# Causal identification

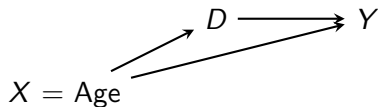
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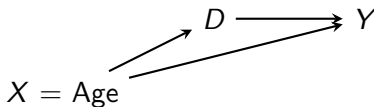
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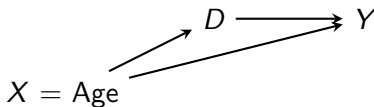
This is our **identification strategy**



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This is our **identification strategy**  
but it says nothing about **estimation**.

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$$\log(\mu) = X\beta$$

4. Estimate parameters via maximum likelihood
5. Simulate quantities of interest

# Likelihood

$$\begin{aligned}L(\beta, \sigma^2 \mid Y) &\propto f(Y \mid \beta, \sigma^2) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n f(Y_i \mid \beta, \sigma^2) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{Y_i \sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\ln(Y_i) - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)\end{aligned}$$

# Log likelihood

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# Coding our log likelihood function

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                ((log(y) - X %*% beta) ^ 2) /  
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                ((log(y) - X %*% beta) ^ 2) /  
                (2*sigma2))  
  
  return(log.lik)  
}
```

# Finding the MLE

```
X <- model.matrix(~ college + age,
                  data = d)
y <- d$incwage

opt <- optim(par = rep(0, ncol(X) + 1),
            fn = logNormal.log.lik,
            y = y,
            X = X,
            control = list(fnscale = -1),
            method = "BFGS",
            hessian = TRUE)
```



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[1] 8.84550213 0.72904517 0.03270657 -0.03216774
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```

Why is that last term negative? Because it's the **log** of  $\sigma^2$ !

# See how $\sigma^2$ matches

```
> summary(lm.fit)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = log(incwage) ~ college + age, data = d)
```

```
.....other output.....
```

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Residual standard error: 0.9841 on 68932 degrees of freedom
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We estimated  $\sigma^2 = e^\gamma = e^{-0.03216774}$

```
> exp(opt$par[4])
```

```
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It matches!

# Variance-covariance matrix matches

We know how to calculate the variance-covariance matrix - the inverse of the negative Hessian!

```
> vcov.optim <- -solve(opt$hessian)
```

```
> vcov.optim
```

```
      [,1]      [,2]      [,3]      [,4]  
[1,] 1.938105e-04 -6.974235e-06 -4.762674e-06 1.171351e-13  
[2,] -6.974235e-06 6.311970e-05 -4.031325e-07 1.714362e-14  
[3,] -4.762674e-06 -4.031325e-07 1.316824e-07 2.028694e-14  
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And we can compare that to the canned version...

```
> vcov(lm.fit)
```

	(Intercept)	collegeTRUE	age
(Intercept)	1.938189e-04	-6.974537e-06	-4.762880e-06
collegeTRUE	-6.974537e-06	6.312244e-05	-4.031500e-07
age	-4.762880e-06	-4.031500e-07	1.316881e-07

....which matches!

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Using the naive approach of exponentiating things, we would find an effect of college on earnings of **\$25,181.27**.

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Why the discrepancy? (Draw on the board).

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**No!** Effect sizes depend on the values chosen for the rest of the covariates.



## Different effect sizes for different groups!

	Effect	2.5%	97.5%
20-year-olds	23,276.88	19,466.92	27,494.30
50-year-olds	62,319.15	51,498.74	73,129.50

Since 50-year-olds have higher predicted earnings to begin with, multiplying by a factor of 2.208 increases their earnings by more dollars.

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Which of those goes away as the sample size grows?

# Estimation uncertainty disappears in large samples

Each row section below shows the difference in earnings (college - noncollege), for 50 year olds.

\$'N = 100'

	2.5%	97.5%
Difference in any two 50-year-olds	-186146.3	890301.0
Average difference	53387.9	249905.7

\$'N = 1,000'

	2.5%	97.5%
Difference in any two 50-year-olds	-169635.63	479623.19
Average difference	51505.21	85801.36

\$'N = 50,000'

	2.5%	97.5%
Difference in any two 50-year-olds	-177369.77	459907.68
Average difference	52190.08	73289.31

The expected difference is more precisely estimated with larger sample sizes, but fundamental uncertainty makes it always difficult to make precise predictions about the difference between any two actual individuals.

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