# SNU - PSIR Regression in R, with Hands-On Exercises

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### Summarize Data

- Among others, we tend to use:
  - Average or mean
  - Median
  - Variance and standard deviation
  - Covariance and correlation

```
> ## Uploading data
>
> require(UsingR)
> attach(MLBattend) ## attach data so tha we can use variable names
> head(MLBattend) ## look at first several entries of data
  franchise league division year attendance runs.scored
        BAT.
                AL
                        EAST
                               69
                                      1062069
                                                       779
1
2
        BOS
                AL
                        EAST
                               69
                                      1833246
                                                       743
3
        CLE
                AL
                        EAST
                                                       573
                               69
                                       619970
4
        DET
                AL
                        EAST
                                      1577481
                               69
                                                       701
5
        NYA
                ΑL
                        EAST
                               69
                                      1067996
                                                       562
        WAS
                AL
                        EAST
                               69
                                       918106
                                                       694
  runs.allowed wins losses games.behind
1
           517
                109
                         53
                                     0.0
2
           736
                  87
                         75
                                     22.0
3
           717
                 62
                         99
                                     46.5
4
                         72
           601
                 90
                                     19.0
5
           587
                  80
                         81
                                     28.5
6
           644
                  86
                         76
                                     23.0
> stl.win <- wins[franchise == "STL"]
> stl.off <- runs.scored[franchise == "STL"]
> stl.def <- runs.allowed[franchise == "STL"]
```

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3 / 47

```
> ## Mean and median
>
> MLB.win <- cbind(mean(wins), mean(stl.win),
                   median(wins), median(stl.win))
+
> MLB.off <- cbind(mean(runs.scored), mean(stl.off),
+
                   median(runs.scored), median(stl.off))
> MLB.def <- cbind(mean(runs.allowed), mean(stl.def),
+
                   median(runs.allowed), median(stl.def))
> MLB.record <- rbind(MLB.win, MLB.off, MLB.def)
> rownames(MLB.record) <- c("win", "offense", "defense")</pre>
> colnames(MLB.record) <- c("MLB-mean", "STL-mean".</pre>
                            "MLB-median", "STL-median")
>
> print(MLB.record)
         MLB-mean STL-mean MLB-median STL-median
        78.84964 80.15625
                                  79.0
                                              82.5
win
offense 694.94033 674.68750
                              691.5
                                            669.5
defense 694.89141 663.00000
                                693.0
                                            664.5
```

```
> ## Variance and standard deviation
>
> MLB.win.spread <- cbind(var(wins), var(stl.win),
                          sd(wins), sd(stl.win))
+
> MLB.off.spread <- cbind(var(runs.scored), var(stl.off),
+
                          sd(runs.scored), sd(stl.off))
> MLB.def.spread <- cbind(var(runs.allowed), var(stl.def),
                          sd(runs.allowed), sd(stl.def))
+
> MLB.spread <- rbind(MLB.win.spread, MLB.off.spread, MLB.def.spread)
> rownames(MLB.spread) <- rownames(MLB.record)</pre>
> colnames(MLB.spread) <- c("MLB-var", "STL-var", "MLB-sd", "STL-sd")</pre>
>
> print(MLB.spread)
           MLB-var STL-var MLB-sd
                                         STL-sd
win
          160.6130 110.2006 12.67332 10.49765
offense 11061.4875 8532.2863 105.17361 92.37038
defense 11135,3920 6172,2581 105,52437 78,56372
```

```
> ## Covarianze and Correlation
>
> head(kid.weights) # another data: kid's weight and height
 age weight height gender
1 58
         38
               38
                      М
2 103
      87
            43
                      М
3 87
      50
            48
                      М
      98
4 138
            61
5 82
      47
            47
                       F
6 52
      30
            24
>
> cov(kid.weights$weight, kid.weights$height)
Γ11 218.7377
>
> cor(kid.weights$weight, kid.weights$height)
[1] 0.8237564
```

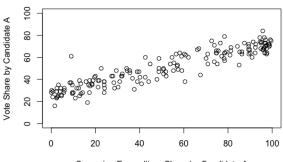
## Non-Technical Introduction to Regression (1)

- Example: Consider the role of money in election.
  - Predicted variable = vote share by candidate A
  - Predictor variable = campaign expenditure share by candidate A

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#### Money in Election



Campaign Expenditure Share by Candidate A

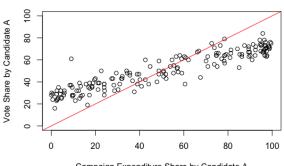
# Non-Technical Introduction to Regression (2)

• Can we think of a trend line?

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#### Money in Election

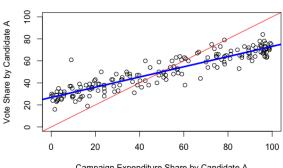


Campaign Expenditure Share by Candidate A

# Non-Technical Introduction to Regression (3)

• What about this?

#### Money in Election



Campaign Expenditure Share by Candidate A

# Non-Technical Introduction to Regression (4)

- What are we doing here?
  - **1** Come up with one **linear** line.
  - Move the line so that it best fits the trend.

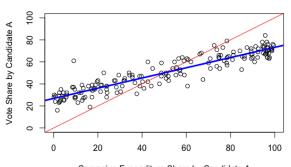
# Non-Technical Introduction to Regression (4)

- What are we doing here?
  - 1 Come up with one linear line.
  - 2 Move the line so that it best fits the trend.
- If we may use (harmless) math...
  - **1** Consider the equation  $Y = \alpha + \beta X$ .
  - **2** Start with  $\alpha = 0, \beta = 1$ .
  - **3** Adjust the values for  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .
  - **4** Come up with  $\alpha = 26.81, \beta = 0.46$ .

## Non-Technical Introduction to Regression (5)

$$Y = 26.81 + 0.46X$$

#### Money in Election



Campaign Expenditure Share by Candidate A

- > require(foreign)
- > vote1 <- read.dta("http://fmwww.bc.edu/ec-p/data/wooldridge/vote1.dta")</pre>
- > head(vote1)

	state	${\tt district}$	${\tt democA}$	voteA	expendA	expendB	prtystrA	lexpendA
1	NA	7	1	68	328.299988	8.7399998	41	5.7939162
2	NA	1	0	62	626.380005	402.4800110	60	6.4399519
3	NA	2	1	73	99.610001	3.0699999	55 -	4.6012330
4	NA	3	0	69	319.690002	26.2800007	64	5.7673521
5	NA	3	0	75	159.220001	60.0499992	66	5.0702929
6	NA	4	1	69	570.159973	21.3899994	46	6.3459082

lexpendB shareA

- 1 2.1675670 97.410004
- 2 5.9976382 60.880001
- 3 1.1200480 97.010002
- 4 3.2688460 92.400002
- 5 4.0952439 72.610001
- 6 3.0630641 96.379997

```
> m1 <- lm(voteA ~ shareA, data=vote1)</pre>
> print(m1)
Call:
lm(formula = voteA ~ shareA, data = vote1)
Coefficients:
(Intercept)
               shareA
   26.81254 0.46382
> plot(vote1$voteA ~ vote1$shareA,
       xlim=c(0,100), ylim=c(0,100),
      main="Money in Election",
       xlab="Campaign Expenditure Share by Candidate A",
+
       ylab="Vote Share by Candidate A")
> abline(m1, col=4, lwd=3)
```

## Interpretation of Regression

• What can we say from the regression result?

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- Y = 26.81 + 0.46X
  - When we change X value from 0 to 1,
  - $\bullet$  Y changes from 26.81 to 26.81 + 0.46

## Interpretation of Regression

- What can we say from the regression result?
- Y = 26.81 + 0.46X
  - When we change X value from 0 to 1,
  - Y changes from 26.81 to 26.81 + 0.46
- In other words,
  - One unit increase in X results in 0.46 unit increase in Y.
  - Or, when a candidate spend money for 10 percentage point more, he/she receives votes for 4.6 percentage point more.

```
> summary(m1)
Call:
lm(formula = voteA ~ shareA, data = vote1)
Residuals:
    Min 10 Median 30
                                      Max
-16.8924 -4.0649 -0.1697 3.4972 29.9759
Coefficients:
  Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 26.81254   0.88719   30.22   <2e-16 ***
shareA 0.46382 0.01454 31.90 <2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1
Residual standard error: 6.385 on 171 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.8561, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8553
```

F-statistic: 1018 on 1 and 171 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

## Multiple Regression

- Multiple regression model allows us to explicitly control for many other factors that simultaneously affect y.
- Consider  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \epsilon$ . Then, we have:

$$\Delta y = \beta_1 \Delta x_1 + \beta_2 \Delta x_2$$

•  $\beta_1$  measures the change in y with respect to  $x_1$ , holding other factors fixed (i.e.  $\Delta x_2 = 0$ ). Similarly,  $\beta_2$  measures the change in y with respect to  $x_2$ , holding other factors fixed (i.e.  $\Delta x_1 = 0$ ).

### Functional Form: Quadratics

 Quadratic functions are used to capture decreasing or increasing effects of independent variables.

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \epsilon$$

- $\beta_1$  does not measure the change in y with respect to x: it doesn't make sense to hold  $x^2$  fixed while changing x.
- Rather, we have  $\frac{\Delta \hat{y}}{\Delta x} = \hat{\beta}_1 + 2\hat{\beta}_2 x$ : the slope of the relationship between x and y depends on the value of x.

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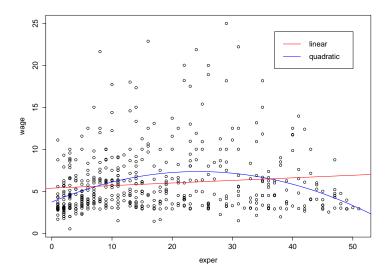
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- Interpretation
  - What if  $\beta_1 > 0$  and  $\beta_2 < 0$ ?
  - What if  $\beta_1 < 0$  and  $\beta_2 > 0$ ?
- The turning point is achieved at  $x = -\frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{2\hat{\beta}_2}$ .

```
> ## Quadratics
> wage1 <- read.dta("http://fmwww.bc.edu/ec-p/data/wooldridge/wage1.dta")</pre>
> wage.mod3 <- lm(wage ~ exper + I(exper^2), data=wage1)</pre>
> summary(wage.mod3)
Call:
lm(formula = wage ~ exper + I(exper^2), data = wage1)
Residuals:
    Min
            10 Median 30
                                    Max
-5.5916 -2.1440 -0.8603 1.1801 17.7649
Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 3.7254058 0.3459392 10.769 < 2e-16 ***
exper
         0.2981001 0.0409655 7.277 1.26e-12 ***
I(exper^2) -0.0061299 0.0009025 -6.792 3.02e-11 ***
___
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1
Residual standard error: 3.524 on 523 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.09277, Adjusted R-squared: 0.0893
```

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```
> peak.mod3 <- - coef(wage.mod3)[2]/(2*coef(wage.mod3)[3])
> print(peak.mod3)
    exper
24.3153
> plot(wage ~ exper, data=wage1)
> abline(lm(wage ~ exper, data=wage1), col=2)
> x <- seq(0, 55, 0.001)
> y <- predict(wage.mod3, newdata=data.frame(exper=x))
> lines(y ~ x, col=4)
> legend(37, 24, c("linear", "quadratic"), col=c(2, 4), lty=1)
```



# **Dummy Variables**

- We sometimes have binary information.
  - This zero-one variable is called **dummy variable**.
  - And, we can just add it as an IV:

$$y = \beta_0 + \gamma_0 z + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$$

where z is dummy.

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- Then, we have  $\gamma_0 = E(y|z=1,x) E(y|z=0,x)$ .
  - Can be understood as an **intercept shift** between z = 0 and z = 1.
- The use of dummies
  - Make sure to use one dummy for two mutually exclusive groups
     → perfect collinearity if one dummy for each group.
  - z=0 becomes "control" group and z=1 is "experiment" group  $\rightarrow$  very useful for policy analysis and program evaluation.

- We can use a set of dummy variables for multiple categories.
  - For example, we have four (4) groups: married men, married women, single men, and single women
  - Select a base group: single men
  - Define three (3) dummies for the other groups
- The estimate on the three dummy variables measure the proportionate difference in y relative to single men.

- We can use a set of dummy variables for multiple categories.
  - For example, we have four (4) groups: married men, married women, single men, and single women
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- The estimate on the three dummy variables measure the proportionate difference in y relative to single men.
- What about ordinal variable?
  - One alternative is to use it as "continuous."
  - However, the dummy would be a better choice if the difference between 1 and 2 is not the same as the difference between 2 and 3.

```
> ## Dummv
> wage.mod5 <- lm(log(wage) ~ educ + exper + female, data=wage1)</pre>
> summary(wage.mod5)
Call:
lm(formula = log(wage) ~ educ + exper + female, data = wage1)
Residuals:
              10 Median
    Min
                               30
                                       Max
-1.89584 -0.26362 -0.03871 0.26765 1.28241
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 0.480836 0.105016 4.579 5.86e-06 ***
educ
           0.091290 0.007123 12.816 < 2e-16 ***
exper 0.009414 0.001449 6.496 1.93e-10 ***
female
           -0.343597 0.037667 -9.122 < 2e-16 ***
___
Signif. codes: 0 *** 0.001 ** 0.01 * 0.05 . 0.1
Residual standard error: 0.4289 on 522 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.3526, Adjusted R-squared: 0.3488
```

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What if the x-y relationship is NOT linear?

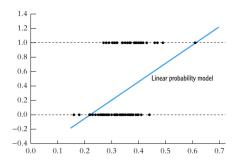
Will Come Back After SHORT Break

## Binary Response Models

- There are naturally binary social outcomes:
  - A citizen votes or does not
  - A cabinet forms or does not
  - A child is born or not
  - A refrigerator is bought or not

# Binary Response Models

- There are naturally binary social outcomes:
  - A citizen votes or does not
  - A cabinet forms or does not
  - A child is born or not
  - A refrigerator is bought or not
- How to characterize binary outcomes via OLS?



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# Logit and Probit Models

• Instead, we take an alternative approach:

$$y_i \sim \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 1 & \mathsf{Pr} = \pi_i \ 0 & \mathsf{Pr} = 1 - \pi_i \end{array} 
ight.$$

where  $\pi_i = f(\beta, x_i)$ 

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- But,  $\pi_i$  represents a *probability* so it must be bounded by [0,1].
  - So,  $\pi_i = x_i \beta$  is a bad idea since this linear function is unbounded and so might well fall outside the [0,1] interval.

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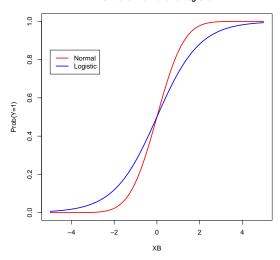
where  $\pi_i = f(\beta, x_i)$ 

- But,  $\pi_i$  represents a *probability* so it must be bounded by [0,1].
  - So,  $\pi_i = x_i \beta$  is a bad idea since this linear function is unbounded and so might well fall outside the [0,1] interval.
- Actually, we can take any probability distribution function, but...
  - CDF of normal and logistic

$$\pi_i = f(\beta, x_i) = CDF$$
 of normal or logistic

#### **CDFs for Normal and Logistic**

- Very little difference between the two
- When considering heteroskedasticity probit becomes more tractable
- When extended to multiple outcomes logit becomes more tractable



```
> library(car)
> head(Mroz) ## We are using Mroz (1987) data
  lfp k5 k618 age wc hc lwg inc
1 yes 1 0 32 no no 1.2101647 10.910
2 yes 0 2 30 no no 0.3285041 19.500
3 yes 1 3 35 no no 1.5141279 12.040
4 yes 0 3 34 no no 0.0921151 6.800
5 yes 1 2 31 yes no 1.5242802 20.100 6 yes 0 0 54 no no 1.5564855 9.859
>
> (n <- nrow(Mroz))
[1] 753
> ?Mroz
starting httpd help server ... done
```

#### U.S. Women's Labor-Force Participation

#### Description

The Mroz data frame has 753 rows and 8 columns. The observations, from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID), are married women.

:

lfp

labor-force participation; a factor with levels: no; yes.

k5

number of children 5 years old or younger.

k618

number of children 6 to 18 years old.

age

in years.

wc
wife's college attendance; a factor with levels: no; yes.

hc
husband's college attendance; a factor with levels: no; yes.

lwg
log expected wage rate; for women in the labor force, the actual wage rate;
for women not in the labor force, an imputed value based on the regression
of lwg on the other variables.

inc

family income exclusive of wife's income.

WC wife's college attendance; a factor with levels: no; yes. hс husband's college attendance; a factor with levels: no; yes. lwg log expected wage rate; for women in the labor force, the actual wage rate; for women not in the labor force, an imputed value based on the regression of lwg on the other variables. inc family income exclusive of wife's income. > mroz.probit < glm(lfp  $\sim$  k5 + k618 + age + wc + hc + lwg + inc. family = binomial(link=probit), data=Mroz) > mroz.logit <- glm(lfp  $\sim$  k5 + k618 + age + wc + hc + lwg + inc, family = binomial(link=logit), data=Mroz)

+

```
> summary(mroz.probit)
Call:
qlm(formula = lfp \sim k5 + k618 + age + wc + hc + lwg + inc, family = binomial(link = probit),
   data = Mroz)
Deviance Residuals:
            10 Median
   Min
                             30
                                    Max
-2.1358 -1.1024 0.5967
                         0.9746 2.2236
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) 1.918418
                    0.382356
                               5.017 5.24e-07 ***
k5
          -0.874712
                    0.114423 -7.645 2.10e-14 ***
k618
          -0.038595 0.040950 -0.942 0.345942
         -0.037824 0.007605 -4.973 6.58e-07 ***
age
         0.488310 0.136731 3.571 0.000355 ***
wcves
hcves
        0.057172 0.124207 0.460 0.645306
          lwa
          -0.020525 0.004852 -4.230 2.34e-05 ***
inc
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' '1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 1029.75 on 752 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 905.39 on 745 degrees of freedom
AIC: 921.39
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

```
> summary(mroz.logit)
Call:
alm(formula = lfp \sim k5 + k618 + aae + wc + hc + lwa + inc. family = binomial(link = logit).
   data = Mroz)
Deviance Residuals:
   Min
            10 Median
                             30
                                    Max
-2.1062 -1.0900 0.5978 0.9709
                                2.1893
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) 3.182140 0.644375 4.938 7.88e-07 ***
k5
          -1.462913 0.197001 -7.426 1.12e-13 ***
k618
          -0.064571 0.068001 -0.950 0.342337
aae
         -0.062871 0.012783 -4.918 8.73e-07 ***
         0.807274 0.229980 3.510 0.000448 ***
wcyes
         0.111734 0.206040 0.542 0.587618
hcves
          lwa
          -0.034446 0.008208 -4.196 2.71e-05 ***
inc
Signif, codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
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## Plot of Predicted Probabilities

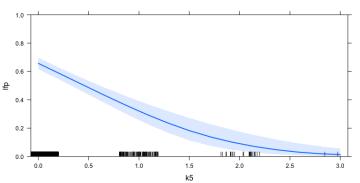
• How to interpret the size of coefficients?

## Plot of Predicted Probabilities

- How to interpret the size of coefficients?
- Consider "potential" predicted probabilities based on a set of hypothetical (but theoretically interesting) X values.
  - Pick ONE independent variable of interest. Make it vary from its observed minimum to its observed maximum.
  - Choose "average" values for all the other independent variables.
  - Then, see how the predicted probability changes as our IV of interest moves from min to max.
- Visualizing this process is the most popular way

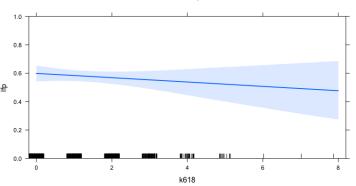
```
> require(effects)
> mroz.eff <- allEffects(mroz.probit)
> plot(mroz.eff, 'k5',
+ rescale.axis=FALSE, ylim=c(0,1))
```

#### k5 effect plot



> plot(mroz.eff, 'k618',
+ rescale.axis=FALSE, ylim=c(0,1))

#### k618 effect plot



## **Event Count Responses**

- Suppose the social system produces events over time:
  - Coup d'etat
  - Collapse of cabinet government
  - Outbreak of war
  - Veto exercised by the president

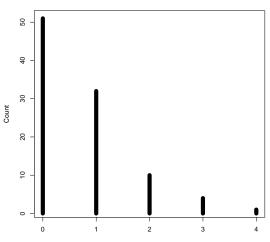
## **Event Count Responses**

- Suppose the social system produces events over time:
  - Coup d'etat
  - Collapse of cabinet government
  - Outbreak of war
  - Veto exercised by the president
- Simeon-Denis Poisson, 1837: Poisson distribution
  - Describes the probability that a random event occurs in a time or space interval when the probability of the event occurring is very small, but the number of trials is very large.

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  - Describes the probability that a random event occurs in a time or space interval when the probability of the event occurring is very small, but the number of trials is very large.
  - Example: Bortkiewicz (1898) The Law of Small Numbers.
     the number of members of 14 prussian cavalry units killed by being kicked by a horse from 1875-1894.





Pooled Prussian Calvalry Deaths

## The Poisson Model

 If the process generates events independently and at a fixed rate within time periods, then the result is a Poisson process:

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

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- $\lambda_i = e^{X_i \beta}$ , which gives us  $f(y_i | \lambda) = \frac{e^{-e^{X_i \beta}} (e^{X_i \beta})^{y_i}}{y_i!}$

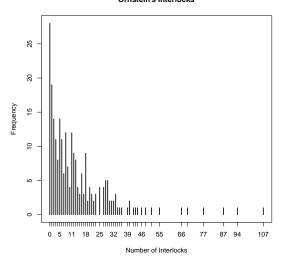
```
> head(Ornstein) ## from car package
> nrow(Ornstein)
> ?Ornstein
Interlocking Directorates Among Major Canadian Firms
Description
The Ornstein data frame has 248 rows and 4 columns. The observations are the 248 largest Canadian firms
with publicly available information in the mid-1970s.
assets
Assets in millions of dollars.
sector
Industrial sector, A factor with levels: AGR, agriculture, food, light industry: BNK, banking:
CON, construction; FIN, other financial; HLD, holding companies; MAN, heavy manufacturing;
MER, merchandizing; MIN, mining, metals, etc.; TRN, transport; WOD, wood and paper.
nation
Nation of control. A factor with levels: CAN, Canada; OTH, other foreign; UK, Britain; US, United States.
interlocks
```

> ## Data

Number of interlocking director and executive positions shared with other major firms.

```
> ## See the event count response
>
> tab <- xtabs(~ interlocks, data=Ornstein)</pre>
> tab2 <- table(Ornstein$interlocks) ## alternative way
> print(tab)
interlocks
             4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
28 19 14 11 8 14 11 6 12 7 4 12 9 8 4 3
19 20 21
         22
             23 25 27
                       28
                          29 30 31 32
                                       33 34 35 36 39 40 42
2 4 3 2 3 4 4
                      5
                         5 2 2
                                   2 3 1
                                             1
                                                           1
43 44 46 48 51 55 66 69 77 87 94 107
   1
     1
         1 1
               1
                   1
                      1 1 1
                                1
> plot(tab, type="h", main="Ornstein's Interlocks",
     xlab="Number of Interlocks", ylab="Frequency")
```

#### Ornstein's Interlocks



```
> ## Poisson
> mod.ornstein <- glm(interlocks ~ log2(assets) + nation + sector,
                  family=poisson, data=Ornstein)
+
> summarv(mod.ornstein)
Call:
glm(formula = interlocks ~ log2(assets) + nation + sector, family = poisson,
data = Ornstein)
Deviance Residuals:
Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
-6.7111 -2.3159 -0.4595 1.2824 6.2849
Coefficients:
Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
log2(assets) 0.31292 0.01177 26.585 < 2e-16 ***
nationOTH -0.10699 0.07438 -1.438 0.150301
nationUK -0.38722 0.08951 -4.326 1.52e-05 ***
nationUS -0.77239 0.04963 -15.562 < 2e-16 ***
sectorBNK -0.16651 0.09575 -1.739 0.082036 .
sectorCON -0.48928 0.21320 -2.295 0.021736 *
```

```
sectorFIN -0.11161
                   0.07571 -1.474 0.140457
sectorBNK -0.16651
                   0.09575 -1.739 0.082036 .
sectorCON -0.48928 0.21320 -2.295 0.021736 *
sectorFIN -0.11161
                   0.07571 -1.474 0.140457
sectorHLD -0.01491 0.11924 -0.125 0.900508
sectorMAN 0.12187 0.07614 1.600 0.109489
sectorMER
          0.06157
                   0.08670 0.710 0.477601
sectorMIN
          0.15181 0.07893 1.923 0.054453 .
sectorTRN
sectorWOD
          0.49825 0.07560 6.590 4.39e-11 ***
```

Signif. codes: 0 \*\*\* 0.001 \*\* 0.01 \* 0.05 . 0.1

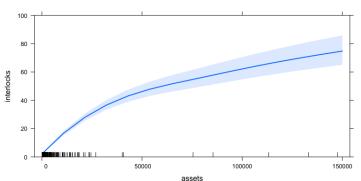
(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 3737.0 on 247 degrees of freedom Residual deviance: 1547.1 on 234 degrees of freedom AIC: 2473.1

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5

- > ornstein.eff <- allEffects(mod.ornstein)</pre>

#### assets effect plot



## Other Options for Count Responses

- What if the fixed rate  $(=\lambda_i)$  cannot be fully explained by  $X_i\beta$ ?
  - → Negative binomial model

```
> nb.ornstein <- glm.nb(interlocks ~ log2(assets) + nation + sector,
+ data=Ornstein)</pre>
```

> summary(nb.ornstein)

SNU (Park) Intro to R 45 / 47

## Other Options for Count Responses

- What if the fixed rate  $(=\lambda_i)$  cannot be fully explained by  $X_i\beta$ ?
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- What if there are too many zeros?
  - $\rightarrow$  Zero-inflated model

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- Time-series data?
- Panel data?

You are now INDEED an R expert!!!

Make sure you practice it again at home

Questions? - hmpark1@uwm.edu