

Solutions To Homework Assignment 4

General Comments:

- The solutions given below are (quite a bit) more extensive than would have been necessary to get full credit. I use the answer key as an opportunity to make important points, or mention commonly made mistakes. Nonetheless, the answer key should give you an idea of the type of solutions I would like to receive.
- I have included the graphics in a separate file since they don't import super easily into my mathematical word processing program.

Warmup Problems

(1) Poisson and Negative Binomial Regression Basics:

(a) In Poisson regression the outcome, Y is assumed to be a count variable with a Poisson distribution with a mean number of events of μ (or more generally this can be stated as a mean rate of events per unit of measurement in which case it may be denoted λ rather than μ .) The link function is the natural logarithm and the systematic component is our usual linear combination of the X variables, $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \cdots + \beta_m X_m$. For negative binomial regression everything is the same except that we assume that the count variable, Y has a negative binomial distribution. This distribution can be thought of as the number of independent trials, each with success probability p , which occur before the first failure (e.g. number of times you flip a coin and get heads (success) before the first tails (failure)). The mean of this distribution is $p/(1-p)$. We specifically model the mean as the log of a linear combination of the X variables but of course you can also transform this to get estimates of the success probability for the individual trials if conceptually your Y variable fits this framework. The negative binomial is often used as an alternative to the Poisson distribution if the variance in the observed data is larger than what would be true for a Poisson (which has variance = mean). This can be done without really believing that the values arose from a sequence of success/failure trials.

(b) Extending some of our earlier homework problems, a Poisson model could be used for the number of ear infections an infant has per year, with the rate of infections depending on factors like gender, age, whether or not the child is breast-fed, general health and so forth. The actual number of infections will be relatively small, implying a skewed distribution, so a normal approximation model or a square-root transformation would not be appropriate. (Note that if the mean is large a Poisson distribution is approximately normal while if the mean is moderate a square-root transformation will often normalize it. In both cases this allows us to use ordinary least squares regression. However, if the mean is small, OLS will work rather badly and in particular may produce negative predictions for some X values.) A negative binomial regression model can be used in most situations where one would apply a Poisson model if there is concern about over-dispersion (see part (c)). Conceptually, an example where the negative binomial framework would make sense could be modeling the number of treatment sessions or doses of a medication that are needed before a patient responds to the intervention. The mean number of sessions/doses could depend on factors like age, gender, illness severity, type of treatment, dose, etc.

(c) The term **overdispersion** refers to the situation when the observed variance of a variable is greater than what would be expected for the assumed distribution. You can also have under-dispersion if there is

less than the expected variability but this is a lot rarer. For example, for a Poisson distributed random variable the mean and the variance are assumed equal. However it is often the case in Poisson regression settings that the observed variance is substantially larger than the mean. The phenomenon can occur with other distributions as well (e.g. binomial, negative binomial, etc.) but is not an issue in OLS regression because for the normal distribution the variance does not depend on the mean and we estimate it separately (the standard deviation, σ , is estimated by RMSE.) Over-dispersion can occur for a variety of reasons in Poisson and negative binomial regression including heterogeneity of the observed subjects/failure to include important predictors in the model, cluster sampling, because the events being measured tend to occur in bunches or because the distribution of events is really a mixture of people who will never have the event (and hence always will have $Y=0$) and people whose number of events do follow the specified distribution. The term **zero-inflation** refers to this last situation. We will see examples below where it would not be surprising to have over-dispersion, zero-inflation, or both.

Over-dispersion can be tested for and if it is present one can either use a distribution for Y with a larger variance (e.g. using negative binomial instead of Poisson regression) or if one doesn't have a good idea of the ideal distribution one can estimate the degree of over-dispersion and try to adjust the standard error estimates of the parameters directly. In a Poisson regression, if there is no over-dispersion the Pearson chi-squared goodness of fit statistic should have an expected value of roughly $n-m$ where n is the number of data points and m is the number of parameters in the regression model. However if there is over-dispersion then the goodness of fit statistic (which essentially looks at the squared difference between the data points and their predicted values—i.e. it's a variance estimate!) will be much bigger. Dividing the Pearson statistic by $n-m$ thus provides an estimate of the variance inflation. One of the biggest problems with over-dispersion is that the estimated standard errors of the regression coefficients are too small (they are based on the fact that the Poisson variance is the same as the mean) and thus the significance of effects is over-stated. Multiplying the standard error of the parameter estimates by the square-root of the variance inflation factor provides a rough adjustment to correct for this problem with over-dispersion.

To adjust for zero-inflation one fits a two part model in which one first assesses whether the subject would ever have an event (specifically it models the probability of being a “certain zero”) using a logistic model and then one models the **number** events for the people who could have them using Poisson, negative binomial or some other regression count model. One can interpret the two pieces of the model separately in the standard way. Most computer packages have implementations of both **zip** (zero inflated Poisson) and **zinb** (zero-inflated negative binomial) models.

(2) Munching (Computer) Chips:

(a) The printouts for the simple Poisson regression with treatment process as the predictor are shown below. The p-value for the Wald test of the treatment effect is .001 and the p-value for the likelihood ratio chi-squared test for the significance of the model is .0007. (Since this is a simple model with one predictor we get the likelihood ratio chi-squared statistic and p-value directly. We could also have obtained it by fitting the model with no predictors and taking -2 times the difference in log likelihoods.) From either of these we conclude that treatment is a significant predictor of the number of imperfections in the computer chips. Since treatment is an indicator variable we interpret this as meaning there is a significant difference in the mean number of imperfections between the groups. Since the coefficient of the treatment variable is positive we know that the number of imperfections is higher for the treatment = 1 process than the treatment = 0 process.

IN STATA:

```
. poisson imperfections treatment
```

| | | | |
|--------------------|---------------|---|-------|
| Poisson regression | Number of obs | = | 20 |
| | LR chi2(1) | = | 11.59 |

| imperfecti~s | Coef. | Std. Err. | z | P> z | [95% Conf. Interval] | |
|--------------|----------|-----------|-------|-------|----------------------|----------|
| treatment | .5877867 | .1763834 | 3.33 | 0.001 | .2420815 | .9334918 |
| _cons | 1.609438 | .1414214 | 11.38 | 0.000 | 1.332257 | 1.886619 |

```
IN SAS:
proc genmod data = tmp1.hw5;
model imperfections = treatment/dist = poisson link = log type3;
run;
```

Model Information

| | | |
|--------------------|---------------|---------------|
| Data Set | TMP1.HW5 | |
| Distribution | Poisson | |
| Link Function | Log | |
| Dependent Variable | imperfections | imperfections |

| Criterion | DF | Value | Value/DF |
|--------------------|----|----------|----------|
| Deviance | 18 | 16.2676 | 0.9038 |
| Scaled Deviance | 18 | 16.2676 | 0.9038 |
| Pearson Chi-Square | 18 | 16.0444 | 0.8914 |
| Scaled Pearson X2 | 18 | 16.0444 | 0.8914 |
| Log Likelihood | | 138.2221 | |

| Parameter | DF | Estimate | Standard Error | Wald 95% Confidence Limits | Chi-Square | Pr > ChiSq |
|-----------|----|----------|----------------|----------------------------|------------|------------|
| Intercept | 1 | 1.6094 | 0.1414 | 1.3323 1.8866 | 129.51 | <.0001 |
| treatment | 1 | 0.5878 | 0.1764 | 0.2421 0.9335 | 11.11 | 0.0009 |
| Scale | 0 | 1.0000 | 0.0000 | 1.0000 1.0000 | | |

LR Statistics For Type 3 Analysis

| Source | DF | Chi-Square | Pr > ChiSq |
|-----------|----|------------|------------|
| treatment | 1 | 11.59 | 0.0007 |

3

the reference treatment process we get $\ln(\mu) = \beta_0$. Thus β_0 represents the log mean number of imperfections for the reference treatment process which here is 1.61. The corresponding confidence interval for the log mean number of imperfections is 1.33 to 1.89. These numbers are hard to interpret numerically although they are all positive which means that the average number of imperfections is above 1. (The log of 1 is 0; log values above 0 correspond to raw values above 1.) If we exponentiate we get that the mean number of imperfections for the treatment 0 process is $e^{1.61} = 5.00$ or 5 imperfections per chip. The corresponding confidence interval is $[e^{1.33}, e^{1.89}] = [3.78, 6.62]$. We are 95% sure that the average number of imperfections per chip for treatment process 0 is between 3.78 and 6.62. The coefficient for the treatment variable gives the difference in log mean number of imperfections between treatment process 1 and treatment process 0:

$$\ln(\mu_1) - \ln(\mu_0) = \beta_0 + \beta_1(1) - (\beta_0 + \beta_1(0)) = \beta_1$$

Here we see that the the log mean for the treatment 1 process is .588 units higher than the log mean for the treatment 0 process. The corresponding confidence interval says that the difference in log means could be anywhere from .242 to .933 units. When we exponentiate the difference in the log mean scale turns into a multiplicative factor on the mean scale:

$$\beta_1 = \ln(\mu_1) - \ln(\mu_0) = \ln\left(\frac{\mu_1}{\mu_0}\right)$$

so we have

$$e^{\beta_1} = \frac{\mu_1}{\mu_0}$$

Here the estimated ratio of the means is $e^{.588} = 1.80$, which suggests that the mean number of imperfections using treatment process 1 is 1.8 times as high as for treatment process 0. Since we know the estimated mean for treatment process 0 was 5 imperfections, the implication is that the mean number of imperfections using treatment process 1 is $5 * 1.8 = 9$ imperfections per chip. Of course we could have gotten this directly as $e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1(1)} \approx e^{1.61 + .588} = 9$. Exponentiating the confidence interval for β_1 yields $[e^{.242}, e^{.933}] = [1.27, 2.54]$. We are 95% sure that the rate of imperfections using process 1 is between 27% and 154% higher or between 1.27 to 2.54 times higher than with process 0. Note that in this particular case since we only have the single indicator variable it would have been just as easy to calculate the sample group means directly! The printout is

```
. bysort treatment: summarize imperfections
```

```
-----
-> treatment = 0
```

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|--------------|-----|------|-----------|-----|-----|
| imperfecti~s | 10 | 5 | 2.054805 | 2 | 8 |

```
-----
-> treatment = 1
```

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|--------------|-----|------|-----------|-----|-----|
| imperfecti~s | 10 | 9 | 2.905933 | 5 | 14 |

One interesting thing to note here: If we square the standard deviations within the two strata to obtain the sample variances we get 4.22 and 8.47 which are very close to (and in fact slightly below) the sample means.

We do not have any indication of overdispersion in these data.

(c) The printouts with thickness added are shown below. We can check whether the model is significantly improved by either performing a Wald test for the thickness variable (which is insignificant with p-value .177) or by performing a likelihood ratio chi-squared test. We could do this manually by looking at -2 times the difference in log likelihoods but I got STATA to save the results of the simple Poisson model and the expanded model and used the lrtest command. The resulting p-value for the likelihood ratio chi-squared test is .176, also not close to significance. It doesn't appear that the thickness of the chips adds any information about the mean number of imperfections beyond what was explained by the treatment process. It doesn't really make sense to interpret the coefficient when it isn't significant, but for the sake of illustration I'll say what the interpretation would have been. Basically we coded thickness=1 for the thicker chips and 0 for the thinner chips. The negative coefficient on the thickness variable means that all else equal (i.e. if the treatment process is the same) the log mean number of imperfections is lower by .23 units for thicker chips than for thinner chips which seems reasonable—the thicker chips might be more durable. Exponentiating gives $e^{-.23} = .795$ meaning that all else equal we would expect only 80% as many imperfections per chip on thicker chips as on thinner chips. Note that because we do not have an interaction we are assuming that thickening the chips leads to the same reduction in the rate of imperfections regardless of which treatment process we are using.

IN STATA:

```
. poisson imperfections treatment thickness
```

```
Poisson regression              Number of obs   =          20
                                LR chi2(2)         =          13.42
                                Prob > chi2        =          0.0012
Log likelihood = -44.258266      Pseudo R2       =          0.1317
```

```
-----+-----
imperfecti~s |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|     [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
    treatment |   .5877867   .1763834     3.33   0.001     .2420815     .9334918
    thickness |  -.2295744   .1701457    -1.35   0.177    - .5630538     .1039049
         _cons |   1.717651   .1602425    10.72   0.000     1.403582     2.031721
-----+-----
```

```
. estimates store txthick
```

```
. lrtest tx txthick
```

```
Likelihood-ratio test              LR chi2(1)   =          1.83
(Assumption: tx nested in txthick) Prob > chi2   =          0.1758
```

```
*****
```

IN SAS:

```
proc genmod data = tmp1.hw5;
model imperfections = treatment thickness/dist = poisson link = log type3;
run;
```

The GENMOD Procedure

Model Information

| | | |
|--------------------|---------------|---------------|
| Data Set | TMP1.HW5 | |
| Distribution | Poisson | |
| Link Function | Log | |
| Dependent Variable | imperfections | imperfections |

Criteria For Assessing Goodness Of Fit

| Criterion | DF | Value | Value/DF |
|--------------------|----|----------|----------|
| Deviance | 17 | 14.4351 | 0.8491 |
| Scaled Deviance | 17 | 14.4351 | 0.8491 |
| Pearson Chi-Square | 17 | 14.6871 | 0.8639 |
| Scaled Pearson X2 | 17 | 14.6871 | 0.8639 |
| Log Likelihood | | 139.1384 | |

Analysis Of Parameter Estimates

| Parameter | DF | Estimate | Standard Error | Wald | 95% Confidence Limits | Chi-Square | Pr > ChiSq |
|-----------|----|----------|----------------|---------|-----------------------|------------|------------|
| Intercept | 1 | 1.7177 | 0.1602 | 1.4036 | 2.0317 | 114.90 | <.0001 |
| treatment | 1 | 0.5878 | 0.1764 | 0.2421 | 0.9335 | 11.11 | 0.0009 |
| thickness | 1 | -0.2296 | 0.1701 | -0.5631 | 0.1039 | 1.82 | 0.1772 |
| Scale | 0 | 1.0000 | 0.0000 | 1.0000 | 1.0000 | | |

NOTE: The scale parameter was held fixed.

LR Statistics For Type 3 Analysis

| Source | DF | Chi-Square | Pr > ChiSq |
|-----------|----|------------|------------|
| treatment | 1 | 11.59 | 0.0007 |
| thickness | 1 | 1.83 | 0.1758 |

(3) More Sports Fanatics:

(a) The Poisson model fitting the number of arrests with no predictors except attendance as an offset variable is shown below. In STATA there are two choices of how to deal with an offset variable—using the **offset** option or the **exposure** option. If you use **offset** then STATA includes the offset variable as a predictor in its raw units with a coefficient constrained to 1. This is not really what we usually want since if we are thinking of the offset as the “time” or other “per unit” component of the Poisson rate since our model is really $\log(\mu/t) = X\beta$ or $\log(\mu) = \log(t) + X\beta$, meaning we want the offset in the model on the log scale with a coefficient constrained to 1. Thus to use offset we have to first take the log of our “units” variable. STATA’s **exposure** option includes the variable in the model on the log scale with the coefficient constrained to 1 which is usually what we want. If we use this option we don’t have to transform the offset variable first. I fit the model both ways below, having first used the **generate** command to create a log attendance variable. Reassuringly I get the same answer either way! Similar cautions apply in SAS where the offset variable needs to be on the log scale.

It was important to use an offset variable here because the numbers of fans at the different games were very

different. Having 110 people get arrested when 321,000 fans were present (Middlesbro) is far less impressive (or unimpressive depending on your point of view!) than having 101 fans get arrested when 189,000 were present (Birmingham). Using the offset gives us a rate of arrests per 1000 fans which makes the different games comparable.

Since there are no predictors other than the adjustment for attendance, our only parameter is the intercept which just gives us the log of the overall rate of arrests. In other words, we are assuming that the **rate** of arrests is constant across all the games. If we exponentiate the intercept we get the rate per unit attendance. here $e^{-.91} = .40$ meaning approximately .4 people get arrested per 1000 fans in attendance or, more meaningfully, that we expect 4 people to get arrested per 10,000 fans attending the match.

IN STATA:

```
. poisson arrests, offset(logatt)
```

```
Poisson regression              Number of obs   =          23
                                LR chi2(0)         =          0.00
                                Prob > chi2         =          .
Log likelihood = -405.30989      Pseudo R2        =          0.0000
```

```
-----+-----
arrests |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|     [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
   _cons |   -.9102802   .0216371   -42.07   0.000    -1.9526882    -.8678722
  logatt |             (offset)
-----+-----
```

```
. poisson arrests, exposure(attendance)
```

```
Poisson regression              Number of obs   =          23
                                LR chi2(0)         =          0.00
                                Prob > chi2         =          .
Log likelihood = -405.30985      Pseudo R2        =          0.0000
```

```
-----+-----
arrests |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|     [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
   _cons |   -.9102802   .0216371   -42.07   0.000    -1.9526882    -.8678722
attendance |             (exposure)
-----+-----
```

(b) In the accompanying graphics file I show a plot of arrests—both actual and predicted by the model—as a function of attendance. Naturally the predicted numbers of arrests follow a straight line since we have a constant rate of arrests per thousand people. There is one match where the number of arrests seems rather high for the number attending, namely the Aston Villa match where there were 308 arrests with an attendance of 404,000. (The prediction was for only 163 arrests.) There is also one match with a surprisingly small number of arrests, namely Manchester City with only 35 arrests and 429,000 people attending (predicted number of arrests 173). Of course since the variance gets larger as the mean gets larger and both of these observations occurred when the attendance was very high) these results may not be as surprising as they first look. (Here

even though the *rate* is fixed the mean number of events, and therefore the variance in number of events, grows as the attendance grows.) I also created a plot of Pearson residuals (actual minus predicted number of arrests divided by the square root of the predicted number of arrests) vs attendance. On this plot the two games cited previously do have the largest residuals but they no longer stand out nearly as much from the other points, indicating that they may not really be outliers. The commands I used to create the plots and modified variables are shown below.

```
. predict myarrests
(option n assumed; predicted number of events)

. scatter arrests myarrests attendance

. gen resids = (arrests-myarrests)/sqrt(myarrests)

. scatter resids attendance
```

(4) Camping Data:

(a) The printout for the basic Poisson regression is shown below.

```
. poisson numfish camper persons children

Poisson regression              Number of obs   =          250
                               LR chi2(3)        =       1621.29
                               Prob > chi2        =          0.0000
Log likelihood = -837.07248      Pseudo R2       =          0.4920
```

| numfish | Coef. | Std. Err. | z | P> z | [95% Conf. Interval] |
|----------|-----------|-----------|--------|-------|----------------------|
| camper | .9309359 | .0890869 | 10.45 | 0.000 | .7563289 1.105543 |
| persons | 1.091262 | .0392553 | 27.80 | 0.000 | 1.014323 1.168201 |
| children | -1.689957 | .0809922 | -20.87 | 0.000 | -1.848699 -1.531215 |
| _cons | -1.981827 | .152263 | -13.02 | 0.000 | -2.280257 -1.683397 |

(b) Based on their Wald test p-values all three of the predictors, number of people in the group, number of children in the group and whether or not the group was camping, appear to be significant predictors of the number of fish caught. On the log scale we see that all else equal, groups that camped had an estimated .93 higher log mean number of fish caught than groups that didn't camp, with the confidence interval showing the increase could have been anywhere from .76 to 1.11. Exponentiating we get that the groups who camped caught an estimated $e^{.93} = 2.52$ times as many fish on average as the groups who didn't camp (possible range 2.13 to 3.03 times as many fish caught). For the other two variables we are looking at the effect on number of fish caught per additional person or child present. The log mean number of fish caught goes up 1.09 per additional person in the group (confidence interval of 1.01 to 1.17 increase in log mean per person). It makes sense that the more people there are in the group, the more fish they might catch. Exponentiating ($e^{1.09} = 2.97$) we get that the mean number of fish caught goes up by a factor of almost three for each additional person in the party. This seems a little surprising if we imagine that each person catches the

same number of fish...apparently there is some sort of synergistic effect or else groups that are bigger are likely to contain a larger *proportion* rather than just a larger *number* of fishers. The confidence interval tells us that the number of fish caught could be anywhere from 2.75 to 3.25 times as high per additional person in the party. For children the effect goes in the other direction—hardly a surprise since (a) the children are less likely to fish and (b) may make a lot of noise and scare the fish whether they are fishing themselves or not. We see that our best estimate is that the log mean number of fish caught goes down 1.69 per child (range anywhere from 1.53 to 1.85 decrease.). Exponentiating, $e^{-1.69} = .18$ tells us that our best estimate is that there is an 80% reduction in the number of fish caught for each additional child in the group. There is something important to remember here which is that the children are also people in the group so these two variables are correlated and their effects may be cancelling each other out. This is perhaps part of the reason that the gain in catch per person appears so high and the reduction per child appears so big.

(c) The plot of residuals versus fitted values is shown in the accompanying graphics file. There are two points with very big Pearson residuals. The largest, which has a Pearson residual of 37, corresponds to group that was predicted to catch .67 of a fish. They weren't camping, had a child, and had 3 people total so wouldn't be expected to catch much but actually caught 31 fish! Note that the small predicted value in the denominator helps to inflate the residual. The second point, with a residual of 23, corresponds to a group that was predicted to catch 27 fish. They were camping, had 4 people and no kids so it seems reasonable they would catch a lot—but they caught more than a lot—they caught 149 fish, by far the most in the sample! Either they were really good fishers, they stayed for a really long time, or they got really lucky! These two points shrink the scale of the rest of the plot so I regraphed the data without them. Even on the Pearson scale there seems to be a bit of fanning, suggesting that we may have some over-dispersion. The deviance and Pearson goodness of fit tests for this model are shown below. They are probably fairly appropriate here since there are a limited number of possible combinations of the predictor variables. The tests are hugely significant, meaning that a standard Poisson model is probably not appropriate for these data.

```
. predict fishpred
(option n assumed; predicted number of events)

gen fishresids = (numfish - fishpred)/sqrt(fishpred)

. scatter fishresids fishpred

scatter fishresids fishpred if fishresids < 20
*****
. estat gof

        Goodness-of-fit chi2  =   1337.08
        Prob > chi2(246)      =    0.0000
*****
. estat gof, pearson

        Goodness-of-fit chi2  =   2910.627
        Prob > chi2(246)      =    0.0000
```

(d) There are several possible reasons for over-dispersion in this data set. One is that there are probably some people visiting the state park who don't try to fish at all and so are certain zeros—in other words we have zero-inflation because we will have a lot of zeros—and then a lot of high values for people who actually fish and these will be mixed together in calculating one overall rate. We may also have real heterogeneity in our groups in other ways—how long they stayed, whether they were good fishers, what the weather was

like, how much time they spent actually fishing, and so on. If we don't include these variables in the model we may again be trying to calculate our means by merging together groups of subjects who are really very different. Finally, it may well be that fish are caught in batches—they swim in schools, get hungry at the same time, are attracted by a particular kind of lure, and so on—which may mean that a Poisson distribution which assumes events happen evenly at a fixed rate—may not be correct. Below I illustrate a number of methods for checking for over-dispersion.

(1) One method is to look at the mean and variance for different subgroups of the data. If the variance is much bigger than the mean then we may have over-dispersion. Here natural ways to group the data are by camping status, number of people and number of children. I give the printouts for those below. To be really thorough and match what our model is doing we'd need to look at all camping/people/children combinations. There are a total of 32 combinations—2 (camping yes/no) x 4 (persons 1,2,3,4) x 4 (children 0,1,2,3). I give the complete printout below for illustrative purposes. Note that although this matches our model it is probably overkill since some of these subgroups have very few observations. It is probably enough just to subdivide by camping status and children for instance. In basically all of these (except the subsets where no one caught any fish so the mean and sd are both 0) we see that the mean is much smaller than the variance (what is shown is the standard deviation—when the sd is over 1 then this is even less than the variance; for the ones where the sd is less than 1 you can tell by squaring.) Thus we have a strong suggestion of overdispersion.

```
. bysort camper person children: summarize numfish
```

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|----------|-----|----------|-----------|-----|-----|
| numfish | 22 | .4545455 | .9116846 | 0 | 3 |
| numfish | 17 | 1.294118 | 2.229482 | 0 | 9 |
| numfish | 12 | .3333333 | .6513389 | 0 | 2 |
| numfish | 8 | 4.25 | 5.284749 | 0 | 15 |
| numfish | 8 | 4 | 10.91526 | 0 | 31 |
| numfish | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| numfish | 6 | 8.166667 | 10.34247 | 2 | 29 |

| | | | | | | | |
|----------|--|-----|----------|-----------|-----|-----|--------------------------------|
| numfish | | 10 | .6 | 1.074968 | 0 | 3 | |
| | | | | | | | -----> camper = 0, persons = 0 |
| Variable | | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max | |
| | | | | | | | -----+ |
| numfish | | 11 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| | | | | | | | -----> camper = 0, persons = 0 |
| Variable | | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max | |
| | | | | | | | -----+ |
| numfish | | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| | | | | | | | -----> camper = 1, persons = 0 |
| Variable | | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max | |
| | | | | | | | -----+ |
| numfish | | 35 | .9142857 | 1.578745 | 0 | 7 | |
| | | | | | | | -----> camper = 1, persons = 1 |
| Variable | | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max | |
| | | | | | | | -----+ |
| numfish | | 18 | 3.388889 | 6.509169 | 0 | 21 | |
| | | | | | | | -----> camper = 1, persons = 1 |
| Variable | | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max | |
| | | | | | | | -----+ |
| numfish | | 23 | .6956522 | 1.362977 | 0 | 5 | |
| | | | | | | | -----> camper = 1, persons = 1 |
| Variable | | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max | |
| | | | | | | | -----+ |
| numfish | | 13 | 7 | 8.041559 | 0 | 30 | |
| | | | | | | | -----> camper = 1, persons = 1 |
| Variable | | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max | |
| | | | | | | | -----+ |
| numfish | | 11 | .8181818 | 1.401298 | 0 | 4 | |
| | | | | | | | -----> camper = 1, persons = 1 |
| Variable | | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max | |
| | | | | | | | -----+ |
| numfish | | 12 | .0833333 | .2886751 | 0 | 1 | |
| | | | | | | | -----> camper = 1, persons = 1 |
| Variable | | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max | |
| | | | | | | | -----+ |
| numfish | | 13 | 29.69231 | 40.17956 | 1 | 149 | |
| | | | | | | | -----> camper = 1, persons = 1 |
| Variable | | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max | |
| | | | | | | | -----+ |
| numfish | | 11 | 5.909091 | 5.088311 | 0 | 16 | |
| | | | | | | | -----> camper = 1, persons = 1 |
| Variable | | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max | |
| | | | | | | | -----+ |
| numfish | | 5 | 1.2 | 2.167948 | 0 | 5 | |
| | | | | | | | -----> camper = 1, persons = 1 |
| Variable | | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max | |
| | | | | | | | -----+ |
| numfish | | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| | | | | | | | ----- |

(2) From part (c) we obtained the Pearson goodness of fit statistic which was $\chi^2(246) = 2910.627$. When

we divide the value by the degrees of freedom we get $2910.627/246 = 11.83$. This value is supposed to be 1 if there is no over-dispersion! It seems clear we've got a big problem....In fact, if we wanted to use this to adjust our standard errors we see that we would need to multiply them by $\sqrt{11.83} = 3.44$ or more than triple them! Incidentally, the Pearson and deviance goodness of fit tests were in and of themselves an indication of possible over-dispersion since they suggested that the model wasn't well calibrated. However there are many ways to be badly calibrated, not just over-dispersion. The Pearson goodness of fit test because of the way it standardizes does correspond to a test of whether there is more variance than there should be but we have to look at the individual points to tell if there are just a few combinations of X values that are over-dispersed (e.g. some outliers or a particular area of bad fit) or whether it occurs across the board. Here by calculating the means and SDs for all the possible X values we can see that the problem occurs across the board.

(3) Our residual plot from (c) should look like it has equal spread if the model is well calibrated and we would also hope that most of the residuals would be small and even about 0. From the graphics in part (c) there is still a suggesting of fanning out (residuals getting bigger with fitted values) even after removing the most extreme outliers and lots of the residuals are rather large (we're used to 2 or 3 being a big value; here we have many over 5 though we can't exactly use a normal distribution to guide us unless we further adjust the residuals by their leverage values) and there are more big positive ones than negative ones. All of this also suggests an overdispersion problem.

(e) The printout for the negative binomial model is shown below. The likelihood ratio test for the over-dispersion parameter, alpha, is highly significant (p-value 0) meaning that the negative binomial model is a significant improvement over the standard Poisson model. This suggests that over-dispersion was a significant problem in the original model as we had already seen many other ways.

```
. nbreg numfish camper persons children
```

```
Fitting Poisson model:
```

```
Fitting constant-only model:
```

```
Fitting full model:
```

| | | | |
|------------------------------|---------------|---|--------|
| Negative binomial regression | Number of obs | = | 250 |
| | LR chi2(3) | = | 118.43 |
| Dispersion = mean | Prob > chi2 | = | 0.0000 |
| Log likelihood = -405.222 | Pseudo R2 | = | 0.1275 |

| numfish | Coef. | Std. Err. | z | P> z | [95% Conf. Interval] | |
|----------|----------|-----------|-------|-------|----------------------|-----------|
| camper | .6211286 | .2358072 | 2.63 | 0.008 | .158955 | 1.083302 |
| persons | 1.0608 | .1174733 | 9.03 | 0.000 | .8305564 | 1.291043 |
| children | -1.78052 | .1920379 | -9.27 | 0.000 | -2.156907 | -1.404132 |
| _cons | -1.62499 | .3294006 | -4.93 | 0.000 | -2.270603 | -.9793765 |
| /lnalpha | .7688868 | .1538497 | | | .4673469 | 1.070427 |
| alpha | 2.157363 | .3319098 | | | 1.595755 | 2.916624 |

```
Likelihood-ratio test of alpha=0:  chibar2(01) = 863.70 Prob>=chibar2 = 0.000
```

(f) The coefficients are easiest to interpret on the mean scale (after exponentiating) rather than on the log scale. For the camping variable we have $e^{.62} = 1.86$ meaning people who are camping are expected to

catch 86% more or 1.86 times as many fish as people who do not camp. For the persons variable we have $e^{1.06} = 2.89$ which means the group is predicted to catch 2.89 times more fish for each additional person in the party. For the children variable we have $e^{-1.62} = .168$ meaning there is an 83.2% reduction in the mean number of fish caught for each additional child in the party. The effects are all (not surprisingly) in the same direction as before. Larger groups who camp catch more; people who bring children catch less. The magnitudes of the effects are fairly similar to those in the Poisson model—the effect of camping is a bit smaller, the effect of additional people is about the same as before, and the effect of children is a bit bigger. The variables are still all highly significant but in fact the Z statistics have gotten a lot smaller. This is hardly a surprise—in our Poisson model we know our standard error estimates were a lot smaller than they should have been so the resulting Z scores were larger than they should have been and the p-values smaller than they should have been. It is only because in both models the variables are so significant that most of the p-values in the negative binomial model are still at .000.

(g) As noted above, zero-inflation happens when we get more 0's than we would expect from our basic model and is one factor that can lead to over-dispersion. Here zero-inflation means that we get more people who catch no fish than would be expected from a Poisson or negative binomial model. This could occur because there are some people who are simply not fishing. It seems that people who are not camping (i.e. are just staying for the day) or who have brought children are more likely not to be fishing so these are the variables that I would intuitively expect to be important for the inflation factor part of the model that predicts which observations are “certain zeros.” However if you consider that any given person is equally likely to be a fisher then groups with fewer people would be more likely to have no fishers in them than large groups and thus could also be more likely to be certain 0's. We won't really be able to tell until we experiment with the models. In fact the ATS web site which demos this data set ends up using the “person” variable as the predictor for the inflation part of the model and the camping and children variables as the predictors of the actual catch size. You can make an argument that you don't want the person and children variables in the same part of the model since they are likely to be related and cause multicollinearity problems.

(h) We could get the actual number of zeros for each of the 32 subgroups considered in part (d) but that would end up being many pages of printouts. I picked out a few of the largest groups to include here to illustrate the point. For instance, the biggest category is single people (no children) camping. There are 35 such groups. 21 of these groups caught no fish. Another large group is campers with 1 parent and 1 child. There are 23 such groups and 16 of them caught no fish. There were also several subsets with 2 or 3 children in which none of the groups caught any fish. Our model predicts that single campers should catch about 1 fish on average.

$$\mu = e^{-1.62+.62(1)+1.06(1)-1.78(0)} = e^{.06} = 1.06$$

Using the Poisson probability formula the chance such group catches no fish should be

$$(1.06)^0 e^{-1.06} / 0! = .35$$

Thus we expect just over a third of such groups to catch 0 fish. Instead 21/35 or nearly 2/3rds of these groups caught no fish—this is definitely more than we would have expected. The calculation is pretty much the same if we use the actual mean for this subgroup rather than the model predicted mean but the latter makes more sense since we are trying to see if the model doesn't adequately account for the 0's. Similar calculations can be done for the other groups. They all suggest a lot of zero inflation. In fact, if we look at the data set overall, 142 or 56.8% of the 250 groups caught no fish. The mean number of fish caught was 3.3 (see below). With this mean we would expect the fraction of 0's to be only

$$(3.30)^0 e^{-3.30} / 0! = .037$$

or under 4%!! We clearly have many more 0's than that and it is not completely accounted for by adjusting for the number of children, people and camping status in our Poisson model. A pure Poisson distribution just doesn't make sense here.

```
. table numfish if camper==1 & person==1
```

| numfish | Freq. |
|---------|-------|
| 0 | 21 |
| 1 | 7 |
| 2 | 2 |
| 3 | 2 |
| 4 | 2 |
| 7 | 1 |

```
. table numfish if camper==1 & person==2 & children==1
```

| numfish | Freq. |
|---------|-------|
| 0 | 16 |
| 1 | 3 |
| 2 | 2 |
| 4 | 1 |
| 5 | 1 |

```
. table numfish
```

| numfish | Freq. |
|---------|-------|
| 0 | 142 |
| 1 | 31 |
| 2 | 20 |
| 3 | 12 |
| 4 | 6 |
| 5 | 10 |
| 6 | 4 |
| 7 | 3 |
| 8 | 2 |
| 9 | 2 |
| 10 | 1 |
| 11 | 1 |
| 13 | 1 |
| 14 | 1 |
| 15 | 2 |
| 16 | 1 |
| 21 | 2 |
| 22 | 1 |
| 29 | 1 |
| 30 | 1 |

```

      31 |          1
      32 |          2
      38 |          1
      65 |          1
     149 |          1
-----
. summarize numfish

      Variable |      Obs      Mean   Std. Dev.      Min      Max
-----+-----
      numfish |      250     3.296   11.63503         0     149

```

(i) The printout for the zero-inflated Poisson model is shown below. Consistent with our earlier summary statistics, it suggests that zero-inflation may be a significant issue in this data set. The log likelihood is a lot higher than in the plain Poisson model, suggesting the zero inflated model fits better (although as we discussed in class, there are some technical issues associated with this comparison so we shouldn't view this as a formal test.) Moreover, all the terms in the inflation component of the model are highly significant which again suggests that the zero-inflated Poisson model is doing something useful and in particular the predictors are giving us some extra leverage on who is likely to catch no fish. (Note that the ZIP model fitting better might not solely reflect zero-inflation/be the "right" model; there could be other things like general overdispersion that make it a better "match" to the data/underlying distribution. However, it certainly seems like a better choice than the plain Poisson, regardless of the reason.)

```

. zip numfish camper persons children, inflate(camper persons children)

Fitting constant-only model:
Fitting full model:
Zero-inflated Poisson regression              Number of obs   =      250
                                              Nonzero obs      =      108
                                              Zero obs         =      142

Inflation model = logit                      LR chi2(3)       =      658.63
Log likelihood = -752.7315                   Prob > chi2      =      0.0000
-----
      |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|      [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
numfish |
   camper |   .7242542   .093144    7.78  0.000    .5416953   .906813
  persons |   .8290424   .0439535   18.86  0.000    .742895   .9151897
 children |  -1.13666    .092988   -12.22  0.000   -1.318913  -.9544065
   _cons |  -.7982616   .1708072   -4.67  0.000   -1.133038  -.4634856
-----+-----
inflate |
   camper |  -.8336283   .3526521   -2.36  0.018   -1.524814  -.1424428
  persons |  -.9227879   .199216    -4.63  0.000   -1.313244  -.5323317
 children |   1.904574   .326105    5.84  0.000    1.26542   2.543728
   _cons |   1.663579   .5155314    3.23  0.001    .6531564   2.674002
-----

```

(j) We can interpret the coefficients for the first part of the model (in the box labeled "numfish") as if they

are coefficients for a Poisson model, restricted to the people who are fishing/could ever catch fish. As usual the interpretations are easier if we exponentiate. We see that among people who are fishing, camping is associated with a factor of $e^{.72} = 2.05$ increase in the average number of fish caught all else equal. Similarly, for each additional person in the group the number of fish caught goes up by a factor of $e^{.83} = 2.29$ and for each additional child the multiplicative factor is $e^{-1.13} = .32$, corresponding to a 67.7% reduction in the number of fish, all else equal. All three variables are significant in this component of the model.

The coefficients for the “inflation” portion of the model correspond to a logistic model for whether or not the group would ever catch fish. Specifically, it models the probability of being a “certain 0.” We see that camping and having more people are associated with a lower probability of being a certain 0 (negative coefficients) while having more children is associated with a higher probability of being a certain 0 (positive coefficient.) This is exactly what we would expect and indeed all three variables are significant in this portion of the model. To interpret the coefficients more precisely it helps to exponentiate them to obtain odds ratios. The odds ratio for the camper variable is $e^{-.83} = .436$. This means that all else equal a group that is camping has 56.4% lower odds of being a “certain 0 fish” group than a group that does not camp. Similarly, each additional member of the party is associated with a 60% reduction in the odds of being a certain 0 (odds ratio $e^{-.92} = .399$) and each additional child is associated with 6.7 times higher odds of being a certain 0 (odds ratio $e^{1.90} = 6.69$.)

The implication of all this is that groups that don’t camp and are small or have lots of children are both more likely to never catch fish and even when they could catch fish tend to catch fewer of them than groups that camp, have more people or fewer children.

(k) The printouts for three versions of the zero-inflated negative binomial model are shown below. The first uses all the predictors in both parts of the model. This model has the best log likelihood but turns out to be a little unstable which you see in the fitting iterations STATA printouts out. Moreover, even though the log likelihood looks a lot better, none of the individual components of the inflation part of the model were significant which makes it a bit hard to interpret. As we discussed earlier there may be some multicollinearity among these variables and in this model, unlike the zip model in the previous parts, once we use a negative binomial model, the variables do not seem to each provide unique information about the likelihood of being a certain 0. A bit of experimenting suggests that the second model with persons as the inflation predictor and camper and children as the number of fish predictors works fairly well. In both of these models both the likelihood ratio chi-squared test of the overdispersion factor, alpha, is significant, indicating that this model is superior to the various versions we have fit previously. From the second version of the model we get the interpretation that the more people there are the less likely it is that we have a non-fishing group and that among people who could catch fish camping and smaller numbers of children are associated with increased catch. This is a little different from our interpretation above in which all three variables contributed to both components. It seems that in the zip model some of the variables were trying to compensate for the over-dispersion while in the negative binomial model they are not all needed in both components. However given the correlation of .55 between the persons and children variables it is hard to too strongly say which effect is responsible for which component of the model. The model reversing the roles of children and persons also fits quite well—in fact it’s likelihood is somewhat better than the model where the persons variable is the inflation variable (look at the log likelihood) but it also has a few signs of instability. A certain amount of playing around is necessary to get to a good model and there may be more than one that gives similar answers. Here the overall picture is pretty clear. We have zero-inflation and overdispersion so we want to use a zinb model and the direction of all the effects is clear.

```
. zinb numfish camper persons children, inflate(camper persons children) zip
```

Fitting constant-only model:

Fitting full model:


```
Zero-inflated negative binomial regression      Number of obs   =      250
                                                Nonzero obs     =      108
                                                Zero obs        =      142
```

```
Inflation model = logit                      LR chi2(3)       =      78.84
Log likelihood   = -395.5392                  Prob > chi2      =      0.0000
```

| | Coef. | Std. Err. | z | P> z | [95% Conf. Interval] | |
|----------|-----------|-----------|-------|-------|----------------------|-----------|
| numfish | | | | | | |
| camper | .3855611 | .2461125 | 1.57 | 0.117 | -.0968105 | .8679328 |
| persons | 1.090075 | .1116773 | 9.76 | 0.000 | .8711915 | 1.308958 |
| children | -1.261222 | .247326 | -5.10 | 0.000 | -1.745972 | -.7764725 |
| _cons | -1.61765 | .3202037 | -5.05 | 0.000 | -2.245238 | -.9900624 |
| inflate | | | | | | |
| camper | -15.23543 | 599.7906 | -0.03 | 0.980 | -1190.803 | 1160.333 |
| persons | .2907057 | .7314388 | 0.40 | 0.691 | -1.142888 | 1.724299 |
| children | 15.41647 | 599.7889 | 0.03 | 0.979 | -1160.148 | 1190.981 |
| _cons | -16.45837 | 599.798 | -0.03 | 0.978 | -1192.041 | 1159.124 |
| /lnalpha | .5928722 | .1579517 | 3.75 | 0.000 | .2832926 | .9024518 |
| alpha | 1.809177 | .2857626 | | | 1.327494 | 2.465641 |

```
Likelihood-ratio test of alpha=0: chibar2(01) = 714.38 Pr>=chibar2 = 0.0000
```

```
*****
. zinb numfish camper children, inflate(persons) zip
```

Fitting constant-only model:

Fitting full model:

```
Zero-inflated negative binomial regression      Number of obs   =      250
                                                Nonzero obs     =      108
                                                Zero obs        =      142
```

```
Inflation model = logit                      LR chi2(2)       =      61.72
Log likelihood   = -432.8909                  Prob > chi2      =      0.0000
```

| | Coef. | Std. Err. | z | P> z | [95% Conf. Interval] | |
|----------|-----------|-----------|-------|-------|----------------------|-----------|
| numfish | | | | | | |
| camper | .8790514 | .2692731 | 3.26 | 0.001 | .3512857 | 1.406817 |
| children | -1.515255 | .1955912 | -7.75 | 0.000 | -1.898606 | -1.131903 |
| _cons | 1.371048 | .2561131 | 5.35 | 0.000 | .8690758 | 1.873021 |
| inflate | | | | | | |
| persons | -1.666563 | .6792833 | -2.45 | 0.014 | -2.997934 | -.3351922 |
| _cons | 1.603104 | .8365065 | 1.92 | 0.055 | -.036419 | 3.242626 |

```

-----+-----
      /lnalpha |   .9853533   .17595   5.60   0.000   .6404975   1.330209
-----+-----
      alpha |   2.678758   .4713275               1.897425   3.781834
-----+-----

```

Likelihood-ratio test of alpha=0: chibar2(01) = 1197.43 Pr>=chibar2 = 0.0000

zinb numfish camper persons, inflate(children) zip

```

Zero-inflated negative binomial regression      Number of obs   =       250
                                                Nonzero obs      =       108
                                                Zero obs         =       142

```

```

Inflation model = logit                      LR chi2(2)        =       75.10
Log likelihood   = -408.8739                  Prob > chi2       =       0.0000

```

```

-----+-----
              |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|      [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
numfish      |
  camper     |   .6526337   .2465466     2.65  0.008   .1694113   1.135856
  persons    |   .9544212   .1061983     8.99  0.000   .7462764   1.162566
  _cons      |  -1.682536   .3253132    -5.17  0.000  -2.320138  -1.044934
-----+-----
inflate      |
  children   |   2.980199   .6092847     4.89  0.000   1.786023   4.174375
  _cons      |  -3.564681   .7997577    -4.46  0.000  -5.132177  -1.997185
-----+-----
      /lnalpha |   .5788034   .1730646     3.34  0.001   .2396029   .9180038
-----+-----
      alpha |   1.783903   .3087304               1.270744   2.504286
-----+-----

```

Likelihood-ratio test of alpha=0: chibar2(01) = 928.99 Pr>=chibar2 = 0.0000

. cor persons children camper
(obs=250)

```

              |  persons children  camper
-----+-----
  persons |   1.0000
  children |   0.5463   1.0000
  camper   |  -0.0484  -0.0340   1.0000

```

Problems to Turn In

(5) I Wish I Could Play Hookey From 201B:

(a) The printout for the Poisson model with no predictors is shown below. A Poisson model is used to examine the average number or rate of events at a particular set of covariate values. If there are no covariates you are simply estimating the overall average number or rate of events. Here that would correspond to the average number of times kids in this sample played hookey from school per month. The Poisson model is linear on the log scale. Thus we have to exponentiate the coefficients to get means or rate ratios. Here exponentiating the intercept gives us the average number of hookey days across the whole sample which is $e^{.8197} = 2.27$. On average these kids are absent a little over 2 days a month (which is somewhat disturbing since there are only about 23 school days in a month and you hope most kids never play hookey—this is probably a data set involving troubled children!)

```
poisson nhookey
```

```
Poisson regression              Number of obs   =          252
                                LR chi2(0)        =           0.00
                                Prob > chi2        =            .
                                Pseudo R2         =          0.0000

Log likelihood = -705.96933
```

| nhookey | Coef. | Std. Err. | z | P> z | [95% Conf. Interval] |
|-------------|----------|-----------|-------|-------|----------------------|
| -----+----- | | | | | |
| _cons | .8197099 | .0418121 | 19.60 | 0.000 | .7377597 .9016601 |
| -----+----- | | | | | |

(b) Next we are asked to plot mean number of days absent as a function of likeschool and age. Since there are a limited number of likeschool and age categories a simple if inelegant way to do this is to use the summarize command with the bysort option to obtain the means and just enter them manually into the data set. There is a also slicker way of doing this with the egen command which I illustrate below. The plots are in the accompanying graphics files. From either the graphs or the summary statements below we see that overall the mean number of hookey days increases with increasing dislike of school (higher values of the like school variable) and also with age, although the relationship, especially for the likeschool variable, is not perfect—there is probably a lot of noise in these data.

```
. bysort likeschool: egen likemeans = mean(nhookey)
. bysort age: egen agemeans = mean(nhookey)
. scatter likemeans likeschool
. scatter agemeans age
*****
. bysort likeschool: summarize nhookey
```

```
-----
-> likeschool = 1
```

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|-------------|-----|----------|-----------|-----|-----|
| -----+----- | | | | | |
| nhookey | 59 | 1.525424 | 2.479961 | 0 | 10 |

-> likeschool = 2

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|----------|-----|----------|-----------|-----|-----|
| nhookey | 77 | 2.454545 | 3.24664 | 0 | 15 |

-> likeschool = 3

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|----------|-----|----------|-----------|-----|-----|
| nhookey | 68 | 2.044118 | 2.867386 | 0 | 12 |

-> likeschool = 4

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|----------|-----|------|-----------|-----|-----|
| nhookey | 15 | 3.6 | 3.50102 | 0 | 10 |

-> likeschool = 5

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|----------|-----|----------|-----------|-----|-----|
| nhookey | 33 | 3.030303 | 3.39563 | 0 | 10 |

. bysort age: summarize nhookey

-> age = 11

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|----------|-----|------|-----------|-----|-----|
| nhookey | 5 | 2 | 4.472136 | 0 | 10 |

-> age = 12

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|----------|-----|----------|-----------|-----|-----|
| nhookey | 30 | .3666667 | 1.217214 | 0 | 6 |

-> age = 13

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|----------|-----|----------|-----------|-----|-----|
| nhookey | 44 | 1.113636 | 1.931573 | 0 | 7 |

-> age = 14

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|----------|-----|------|-----------|-----|-----|
|----------|-----|------|-----------|-----|-----|

```

-----+-----
      nhookey |      38      1.605263      2.187674          0          7
-----+-----
-> age = 15

      Variable |      Obs      Mean      Std. Dev.      Min      Max
-----+-----
      nhookey |      39      3.051282      3.119959          0         10
-----+-----
-> age = 16

      Variable |      Obs      Mean      Std. Dev.      Min      Max
-----+-----
      nhookey |      28      3.857143      4.300855          0         15
-----+-----
-> age = 17

      Variable |      Obs      Mean      Std. Dev.      Min      Max
-----+-----
      nhookey |      39      2.692308      3.130107          0         10
-----+-----
-> age = 18

      Variable |      Obs      Mean      Std. Dev.      Min      Max
-----+-----
      nhookey |      25      3.92      3.040285          0         11
-----+-----
-> age = 19
      Variable |      Obs      Mean      Std. Dev.      Min      Max
-----+-----
      nhookey |       4      2.75      4.272002          0          9
-----+-----

```

(c) Now we are asked to fit a Poisson model using sex, age and how much the kids liked school as predictors, first with likeschool as continuous and then with likeschool as a categorical variable. For the latter we can either use dummy variables for the levels of likeschool (which I provided) or we can use the i. notation to tell STATA likeschool is categorical. The first model is a subset of the second model since it simply specifies an even spacing of the differences between the likeschool levels whereas the categorical version allows any spacing. Since there are 5 like school levels we need four dummy variables for the completely general version and only a single variable for the continuous version so the difference in degrees of freedom between the two models is 3. We can use this to perform a likelihood ratio test comparing the two models. The test statistic is -2 times the difference in log likelihoods which is $-2*(-611.8 - (-607.1)) = 9.4$. For a chi-squared statistic with three degrees of freedom the corresponding p-value is .0224 (see below) which is significant although not super strongly. For simplicity and because there is a strong reason to believe this variable should have an **ordered** relationship with the outcome even if not an evenly spaced one (which the categorical fit doesn't respect) we are going to use the continuous version of the variable from here on out. However in principle we should investigate this more closely it may be the result of a couple of kids who said they liked school but played hookey a lot anyway or some kids who hated it but stayed in anyway which would be interesting.

```
. poisson nhookey age gender likeschool
```

```

Poisson regression                                Number of obs   =      252
                                                  LR chi2(3)      =     188.29
                                                  Prob > chi2     =      0.0000
Log likelihood = -611.82582                    Pseudo R2       =      0.1334

```

| nhookey | Coef. | Std. Err. | z | P> z | [95% Conf. Interval] | |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-------|-------|----------------------|-----------|
| age | .2229227 | .0221488 | 10.06 | 0.000 | .179512 | .2663335 |
| gender | .6814393 | .0884582 | 7.70 | 0.000 | .5080645 | .8548141 |
| likeschool | .1095385 | .0317073 | 3.45 | 0.001 | .0473934 | .1716836 |
| _cons | -3.281702 | .3581368 | -9.16 | 0.000 | -3.983638 | -2.579767 |

```

*****
. poisson nhookey age gender i.likeschool

```

```

Poisson regression                                Number of obs   =      252
                                                  LR chi2(6)      =     197.74
                                                  Prob > chi2     =      0.0000
Log likelihood = -607.09698                    Pseudo R2       =      0.1401

```

| nhookey | Coef. | Std. Err. | z | P> z | [95% Conf. Interval] | |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-------|-------|----------------------|-----------|
| age | .2184844 | .0223194 | 9.79 | 0.000 | .1747392 | .2622296 |
| gender | .6768749 | .0889787 | 7.61 | 0.000 | .5024798 | .85127 |
| likeschool | | | | | | |
| 2 | .3705206 | .1283872 | 2.89 | 0.004 | .1188863 | .6221549 |
| 3 | .2244794 | .1353946 | 1.66 | 0.097 | -.0408891 | .489848 |
| 4 | .6718987 | .1730982 | 3.88 | 0.000 | .3326325 | 1.011165 |
| 5 | .5159306 | .1468178 | 3.51 | 0.000 | .2281729 | .8036883 |
| _cons | -3.224567 | .3659442 | -8.81 | 0.000 | -3.941804 | -2.507329 |

```

. display chi2tail(3, 9.4)
.02441934

```

(d) Now we are asked to interpret the regression coefficients on the log scale and the mean scale. On the log scale the interpretations are just as in standard regression. For instance, for age we have that all else equal, each extra year of age is associated with an increase of .22 more log days of school absence. Similarly, all else equal, boys are on average absent .68 log days more than girls. Finally, for every 1 point change in the log school variable (which corresponds to increasing DISLIKE of school) the average number of log days absent increases by .11. While these are all in the expected direction, mean log days are hard to interpret. If we exponentiate we get a mean or rate ratio—in other words we get the multiplicative or percentage change in the mean/rate associated with the change in the predictor variable. For age we have $e^{.22} = 1.25$, meaning that all else equal the rate of unexcused absences per month goes up by a factor of 1.25 or there is a 25% increase in the mean rate of unexcused absences for each additional year of age. Similarly for sex $e^{.68} = 1.98$

meaning that the average number of unexcused absences per month is nearly twice as high for boys as for girls. Finally, each additional level of dislike for school is associated with a $e^{.11} = 1.12$ times or 12% increase in the mean number of unexcused absences per month. All of these variables are statistically significant based on their Wald tests, with p-values .001 or less.

(e) Now we are told that some of the absence numbers were counted over one month periods while others were counted over three month periods which means we need to fit our model with an offset or exposure variable included. We want this variable included on the log scale (where we are doing our modeling) so in STATA we use the exposure option. The command and printout are shown below. We see that the basic pattern of the fit has remained the same and indeed all the variables are still highly significant. In fact if anything the fit has improved (as we would hope since we've now appropriately accounted for the fact that some students had more opportunities for higher number of absences)—our pseudo R^2 has gone up slightly and the log likelihood is better. The coefficients for the sex and likeschool variables have stayed pretty similar. However the coefficient of the age variable has decreased by about 15%. We may have been exaggerating the age effect. One way this could happen is if the older students were more likely to have had their absences counted over the three month period. None of our core conclusions have changed but our estimates are probably more accurate now.

```
. poisson nhookey age gender likeschool, exposure(hmonth)
```

| | | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------|---|--------|
| Poisson regression | Number of obs | = | 252 |
| | LR chi2(3) | = | 179.46 |
| | Prob > chi2 | = | 0.0000 |
| Log likelihood = -514.12669 | Pseudo R2 | = | 0.1486 |

| nhookey | Coef. | Std. Err. | z | P> z | [95% Conf. Interval] | |
|------------|-----------|------------|-------|-------|----------------------|-----------|
| age | .1880706 | .0220623 | 8.52 | 0.000 | .1448292 | .2313119 |
| gender | .6867313 | .0885868 | 7.75 | 0.000 | .5131042 | .8603583 |
| likeschool | .1114302 | .0315649 | 3.53 | 0.000 | .0495641 | .1732964 |
| _cons | -3.454574 | .3465367 | -9.97 | 0.000 | -4.133774 | -2.775375 |
| ln(hmonth) | 1 | (exposure) | | | | |

(f) This part of the problem deals with over-dispersion which occurs if the variance in the data is greater than expected for the fitted model. In particular, a Poisson model assumes that the mean and the variance are equal (given a certain set of covariate values) which often turns out not to be quite right. Here there are a couple of possible reasons for over-dispersion. First, a Poisson model assumes the events happen at an even rate, but in fact school ditching is likely to happen in bunches with kids skipping multiple days at a time and possibly doing so with their friends. In addition, one often gets over-dispersion if there are extra 0's in the model. Here that would correspond to kids who do not skip school despite wanting to—for instance they might have parents who keep very close track of them or go to a school where it is harder to sneak off. Also, we have only recorded age, gender and how much the children like school but there are other factors that affect playing hookey, such as transportation, what else there is available for the children to do in the school neighborhood and so on. If these factors are important we will have heterogeneity in our sample that is unaccounted for which generally leads to over-dispersion. We can check for over-dispersion in a number of ways:

(1) As a rough check we compute the mean and variance of the nhookey variable overall. If a Poisson model is correct they should be about equal. (Note that STATA gives the standard deviation rather than the

variance so you have to square it before making the comparison.) The overall mean is 2.27 and the standard deviation is about 3 so the variance is about 9, much higher than we'd expect. Of course our model really only makes this assumption WITHIN the various age, gender and likeschool bins so this approximation may be too crude. We could look at the summary statistics by subgroup but we probably don't have enough children to do it accurately for all possible subsets. I have shown it for gender and like school bins which we can look at reasonably just to get a sense. In all these cases the variance is much bigger than the mean, suggesting over-dispersion.

```
. summarize nhookey
```

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|----------|-----|----------|-----------|-----|-----|
| nhookey | 252 | 2.269841 | 3.049166 | 0 | 15 |

```
. bysort gender: summarize nhookey
```

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|----------|-----|----------|-----------|-----|-----|
| gender=0 | 126 | 1.539683 | 2.06553 | 0 | 8 |
| gender=1 | 126 | 3 | 3.650753 | 0 | 15 |

```
. bysort likeschool: summarize nhookey
```

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
|--------------|-----|----------|-----------|-----|-----|
| likeschool=1 | 59 | 1.525424 | 2.479961 | 0 | 10 |
| likeschool=2 | 77 | 2.454545 | 3.24664 | 0 | 15 |
| likeschool=3 | 68 | 2.044118 | 2.867386 | 0 | 12 |
| likeschool=4 | 15 | 3.6 | 3.50102 | 0 | 10 |
| likeschool=5 | 33 | 3.030303 | 3.39563 | 0 | 10 |

(2) We can also evaluate the goodness of fit of the model using the Pearson chi-squared goodness of fit statistic. This statistic, divided by the number of degrees of freedom (n minus the number of model parameters) should be approximately 1 if the means and variances in the cell are equal since the goodness of fit is based on comparing the squared difference between observed and expected values (variance) to the expected values (mean). The goodness of fit calculation printout is shown below. Our estimate of the dispersion inflation factor is $885/248 = 3.57$. This suggests a large degree of over-dispersion. The fact that the goodness of fit statistic is highly significant (p-value = .0000) means the model is not fitting particularly well (this is measured relative to a saturated model which is the best possible fit). Thus we have a problem with our model and over-dispersion appears to be part of it. We could try to correct for this directly by taking the square root of our overdispersion factor and multiplying all the standard errors of our model coefficients by it to get adjusted p-values and confidence intervals. The confidence intervals would almost double in width and the Z statistics would be cut nearly in half, making our fit look much less significant.

```
. estat gof
```

```
Deviance goodness-of-fit = 815.5013
Prob > chi2(248)          = 0.0000
```



```
Pearson goodness-of-fit = 885.615
Prob > chi2(248) = 0.0000
```

(3) The plot of the Pearson residuals versus the fitted values is shown in the accompanying graphics file. Since the Pearson residuals are adjusted for the variance this plot should look like it meets the constant variance assumption and be centered about 0. However this plot does not fit that pattern. The variance assumed by the model is too small. Interestingly we seem to have a wider spread for the smaller fitted values than the larger ones. It appears that our over-dispersion problem is actually greater at the lower values. (This isn't really that surprising—for the lower fitted values we are dividing by the square root of the fitted mean which is much smaller so it will tend to inflate the calculated Pearson residuals more if it is off a bit.) There are one or two points that could be considered outliers. In particular there is one person with an unusually high predicted number of absences (9) but their predicted and actual values appear similar. There are also a couple of people with residuals over 5 who seem separated from the others—these are people who had much higher actual numbers of absences than predicted by the model.

```
. predict prednhookey
(option n assumed; predicted number of events)

. gen nhookeyresids = (nhookey-prednhookey)/sqrt(prednhookey)

. scatter nhookeyresids prednhookey
```

(g) Now we are asked to rerun the model using negative binomial regression which is often used to account for over-dispersion in Poisson models since it assumes a variance that is larger than the mean. The printout is shown below. The printout includes a test for an over-dispersion parameter alpha. (Note that STATA says it is testing $\alpha = 0$ which would imply an additive version of the over-dispersion parameter rather than the multiplicative one given above. However, they also give the CI initially on the log scale and then exponentiate and 0 on the log scale would correspond to 1 on the regular scale like our usual alpha so it is a little unclear what is being done—this is an instance where you need to check the manual!) This test is highly significant which suggests that the negative binomial model fits better than the Poisson model.

```
. nbreg nhookey age gender likeschool
```

```
Negative binomial regression      Number of obs =      252
                                LR chi2(3) =      31.71
Dispersion = mean                Prob > chi2 =      0.0000
Log likelihood = -474.06048       Pseudo R2 =      0.0324
```

| nhookey | Coef. | Std. Err. | z | P> z | [95% Conf. Interval] | |
|------------|----------|-----------|-------|-------|----------------------|-----------|
| age | .2251286 | .0519459 | 4.33 | 0.000 | .1233166 | .3269407 |
| gender | .5328778 | .1939335 | 2.75 | 0.006 | .1527751 | .9129805 |
| likeschool | .0939488 | .0765053 | 1.23 | 0.219 | -.0559988 | .2438963 |
| _cons | -3.18636 | .7758704 | -4.11 | 0.000 | -4.707038 | -1.665682 |
| /lnalpha | .5602803 | .1518123 | | | .2627336 | .8578269 |
| alpha | 1.751163 | .2658481 | | | 1.30048 | 2.358031 |

```
Likelihood-ratio test of alpha=0:  chibar2(01) = 275.53 Prob>=chibar2 = 0.000
```

(h) Now we are asked to interpret the coefficients and compare our results to the Poisson model. The negative binomial model uses a log link and models (ultimately) the mean number of events, so the coefficients are directly comparable to those in the Poisson model. If we exponentiate them we get the mean or rate ratio for the number of events. For age we have $e^{.225} = 1.252$ meaning there is a 25.2% increase in the mean number of absences per month for each additional year of age, all else equal. This value is extremely similar to what we got with the Poisson model. For sex we have $e^{.533} = 1.70$, meaning all else equal boys have 1.7 times as many unexcused absences per month as otherwise comparable girls. This effect, while still substantial, is actually a fair bit smaller than that estimated by the Poisson model where the absence rate in boys was double that of girls. For the like school variable we have $e^{.094} = 1.10$ meaning there is a 10% increase in unexcused absences per point on the liking school scale. This is slightly smaller than what we observed with the Poisson model. Moreover, the likeschool variable has become insignificant in this model, suggesting that if we account for the over-dispersion the degree of dislike for school doesn't explain any variability in the absence rate beyond what is explained by age and sex. This may seem a little surprising but of course there may be correlations among the predictors and as we will see below we still have not found the optimal model. Note that we can NOT formally compare the likelihoods for the Poisson and negative binomial models since they are not nested. They have the exact same predictors but assume different outcome distributions.

(i) Next we are asked to explain why we might expect zero-inflation in this model. Zero inflation occurs when we have more zeros than we would be expected given the assumed distribution of the outcome variable. This can occur if some of the people in the sample are never going to have the event of interest ("certain zeros"). In this context a certain zero is someone who would never skip school. This could occur for instance with children whose parents keep a very strict watch on their attendance, have a transport mechanism to school which does not make it easy for them to skip away and so on. Here I would expect much younger children to be more likely to be certain zeros since they would less easily have the means to ditch (i.e. would be dropped off by parents, would have more trouble navigating the local transport system, have less money, and so on.) From a psychological perspective students who really like school might also be more likely to be certain zeros. If you love school there is no reason to ditch.

(j) In part (a) we fit a Poisson model assuming everyone had the same rate of unexcused absences. If this model were correct then we would expect 2.27 absences per student per month. For a Poisson random variable the probability of 0 events is given by

$$P(Y = 0) = \mu^0 e^{-\mu} / 0! = e^{-\mu} = e^{-2.27} = .1033$$

We would expect a little over 10% of the children in our sample to have 0 hookey days if this model were correct. I tabulated the number of absences below and we see that out of 252 children in the data set there were actually 121 or $121/252 = .48 = 48\%$ zeros, a much higher rate than we would expect. This suggests zero inflation. However we have not adjusted for the covariates. Technically we should do this check in each of the age/sex/likeschool categories. We will get a sense of whether the problem persists by fitting zero-inflated versions of our models and seeing if they improve the fit.

```
. table nhookey
```

| nhookey | Freq. |
|---------|-------|
| 0 | 121 |
| 1 | 26 |

| | | |
|----|--|----|
| 2 | | 20 |
| 3 | | 11 |
| 4 | | 21 |
| 5 | | 10 |
| 6 | | 13 |
| 7 | | 11 |
| 8 | | 5 |
| 9 | | 4 |
| 10 | | 7 |
| 11 | | 1 |
| 12 | | 1 |
| 15 | | 1 |

(k) Now we are asked to fit a zero-inflated Poisson model using all three variables in both components of the model. Recall that this model first uses a logistic to predict who are the certain zeros and then fits a Poisson model to the non-certain zeros. The printout is shown below. Several of the variables are significant in the inflation part of the model and it also looks as if the log likelihood has improved a fair bit compared to the standard Poisson, both of which suggest that this is a better model, although as discussed in class, a formal test for zero-inflation is tricky.

```
. zip nhookey age gender likeschool, inflate(age gender likeschool)
```

```
Zero-inflated Poisson regression          Number of obs   =          252
                                           Nonzero obs      =          131
                                           Zero obs         =          121

Inflation model = logit                  LR chi2(3)        =          54.45
Log likelihood = -454.0687                Prob > chi2       =          0.0000
```

| | Coef. | Std. Err. | z | P> z | [95% Conf. Interval] | |
|-------------|-----------|-----------|-------|-------|----------------------|-----------|
| -----+----- | | | | | | |
| nhookey | | | | | | |
| age | .0036976 | .0267724 | 0.14 | 0.890 | -.0487754 | .0561707 |
| gender | .674256 | .1021732 | 6.60 | 0.000 | .4740002 | .8745118 |
| likeschool | .0319163 | .0339494 | 0.94 | 0.347 | -.0346232 | .0984558 |
| _cons | .890403 | .4072497 | 2.19 | 0.029 | .0922082 | 1.688598 |
| -----+----- | | | | | | |
| inflate | | | | | | |
| age | -.5007066 | .0962753 | -5.20 | 0.000 | -.6894028 | -.3120104 |
| gender | .0899574 | .3201564 | 0.28 | 0.779 | -.5375376 | .7174525 |
| likeschool | -.2502956 | .1264065 | -1.98 | 0.048 | -.4980477 | -.0025435 |
| _cons | 7.788699 | 1.40799 | 5.53 | 0.000 | 5.029089 | 10.54831 |
| ----- | | | | | | |

(l) Now we are asked to give interpretations of the coefficients for the two components of the model in part (k). The coefficients of the Poisson piece are interpreted the same way as for a basic Poisson model, namely we exponentiate them to get the mean or rate ratio. The difference is that they apply to people who are NOT

certain zeros—i.e. children who have a non-zero chance of skipping school. We note that the coefficient for the age variable is nearly 0 in this model, so when we exponentiate we get a value near 1. This suggests that in children who might ever skip school the mean number of absences per month is fairly constant, regardless of age, after adjusting for gender and whether they like school. This variable is non-significant in this component of the model (p-value .89). Similarly, the likeschool variable is no longer significant (p-value.35). The gender variable is still significant and its coefficient of .67 (mean ratio $e^{.67} = 1.95$ so twice as many absences per both in boys as in girls) is very similar to the plain Poisson model. The coefficients for the second level of the model are interpreted as in any logistic regression model. If we exponentiate them we get odds ratios. Here the event of interest is being a certain 0. For the age variable, exponentiating produces an odds ratio of $e^{-.5} = .61$ meaning that the odds of being a certain 0 (never skipping school) go down 40% per additional year of age, all else equal. The older the child, the more likely it is that they would ever skip school. This variable is highly significant. The gender variable here is not significant meaning that boys and girls are equally likely to be certain 0's after accounting for age and how much they like school (unadjusted there could still be a difference, say if girls liked school more than boys on average.) The likeschool variable is significant although it is close (p-value = .048). The odds ratio is $e^{-.25} = .78$ meaning there is a 22% reduction in the odds of being a certain zero for each point higher on the likeschool scale. Since higher scores are associated with more dislike of school this makes sense—the more the child dislikes school the less likely it is that they will never ditch.

The overall implication of this model is that age and how much the child likes school play a significant role in determining WHETHER the child might ever ditch school. However among those who would actually do it, the only determining factor in HOW OFTEN they do it is gender, with boys skipping roughly twice as often as girls. This is actually quite a nice conceptual description.

(m) Now we are asked to fit a zero-inflated negative binomial model. Since we have seen problems with both over-dispersion and zero-inflation we expect this model to be the best of all. The printout is shown below. We include the zip option to compare the zero-inflated negative binomial to the zero-inflated Poisson model. From the printout we see that there is evidence of over-dispersion (test of “alpha = 0” is significant) so the negative binomial version of the model is better than the Poisson version of the model. As in the zero-inflated Poisson model among children who are not certain 0's only gender is relevant to determining how often the children skip school. The actual rate has gone up however with boys being estimated to skip school $e^{.90} = 2.46$ times as often as otherwise equivalent girls. In the model for the certain 0's there has been a bit of a shift with age and sex now being the significant predictors of whether a child ever skips although the actual coefficient estimates haven't changed that much. This model is a little less intuitively satisfying than the one in parts (k) and (l) and we might want to do some further investigating of how much better the fit is and for which children and also whether multicollinearity is affecting the significance of the like school variable.

```
. zinb nhookey age gender likeschool, inflate(age gender likeschool) zip
```

| | | | |
|--|---------------|---|--------|
| Zero-inflated negative binomial regression | Number of obs | = | 252 |
| | Nonzero obs | = | 131 |
| | Zero obs | = | 121 |
| Inflation model = logit | LR chi2(3) | = | 35.58 |
| Log likelihood = -436.9442 | Prob > chi2 | = | 0.0000 |

```
-----+-----
```

| | Coef. | Std. Err. | z | P> z | [95% Conf. Interval] |
|-------------|-------|-----------|---|------|----------------------|
| -----+----- | | | | | |
| nhookey | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|--|--|-----------|----------|-------|-------|-----------|-----------|
| age | | -.0349427 | .039601 | -0.88 | 0.378 | -.1125592 | .0426739 |
| gender | | .9023407 | .1412668 | 6.39 | 0.000 | .6254628 | 1.179219 |
| likeschool | | .0635079 | .0530638 | 1.20 | 0.231 | -.0404952 | .1675111 |
| _cons | | 1.155426 | .629281 | 1.84 | 0.066 | -.0779424 | 2.388794 |
| ----- | | | | | | | |
| inflate | | | | | | | |
| age | | -.9588177 | .1950646 | -4.92 | 0.000 | -1.341137 | -.5764981 |
| gender | | 1.311879 | .5370576 | 2.44 | 0.015 | .2592654 | 2.364493 |
| likeschool | | -.2157426 | .1600672 | -1.35 | 0.178 | -.5294685 | .0979834 |
| _cons | | 13.09523 | 2.523897 | 5.19 | 0.000 | 8.14848 | 18.04197 |
| ----- | | | | | | | |
| /lnalpha | | -.9913733 | .2926321 | -3.39 | 0.001 | -1.564922 | -.417825 |
| ----- | | | | | | | |
| alpha | | .3710668 | .108586 | | | .2091044 | .6584775 |
| ----- | | | | | | | |
| Likelihood-ratio test of alpha=0: chibar2(01) = 34.25 Pr>=chibar2 = 0.0000 | | | | | | | |