WWS 509 Generalized Linear Models: Precept 2 Section 2.6 through 2.10.4

Kristin E. Bietsch

Office of Population Research, Princeton University

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1 Introducing the Data

This precept uses the same data from last week. I have rescaled HDI to range between 1 and 100. Also, I have created categorical variables for TFR and HDI.

- TFR:
 - Low: (0,3.5]
 - Medium: (3.5, 5]
 - High: (5,6.5]
 - Very High: $(6.5, \infty)$
- HDI:
 - Low: (0,35]
 - Medium: (35, 50]
 - High: (50,100]

2 Categorical Variables

When using a reference cell:

- μ becomes the expected value of the reference cell
- \bullet a_i becomes the effect of level i of the factor, compared to the reference level

Question: So if TFR_{Low} is our reference cell:

• In term of μ and a_i and what not, how would you write TFR_{Low} ?

- $-\mu$
- What about TFR_{High} ?
 - $-\mu + a_{High}$

2.1 One Variable

Source	SS	df		MS		Number of dbs =
Mode 1	5969.04464	3	1989	.68155		F(3, 46) = 7 Prob > F = 0.0
Residual	10657.018	46	231.6	574304		R-squared = 0.1 Adj R-squared = 0.1
Total	16626.0626	49	339	9.3074		Root MSE = 15
propurb05	Coef.	Std.	Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Inter
propurb05	Coef.	Std. 6.213		-2.67	0.010	[95% Conf. Inter-
propurb05 tfr_med tfr_high			886	10000		
tfr_med	-16.59167	6.213	886 721	-2.67	0.010	-29.09957 -4.08

Figure 1: Regression of TFR on Proportion Urban

- 1. Interpret the coefficients of the TFR categorical variables
 - (a) The coefficients are the difference in intercepts between levels i and one of the factor.
 - (b) So the average urban proportion for countries with a low TFR is 60%.
 - (c) The average urban proportion for countries with a medium level of TFR is 16.6% points less than countries with low TFR, 43.4%
- 2. Discuss the significance levels of these variables
 - (a) All 3 coefficents are significant, which means they are all statistically different from the countries with low TFR. However, we do not know how they relate to each other, for example, is high versus very high different from one another? We cannot tell from this regression. How could we tell? We would need to rerun the regression with one of them as the reference cell. Can we tell if TFR is significant? Yes, we can look at the F-test, and see that this model is an improvement over the null.
- 3. Create an anova table

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Squared	F-Ratio
TFR	5969.04464	3	1989.68155	8.59
Residual	10657.018	46	231.674304	
Total	16626.0626	49	339.3074	

2.2 Two Variables

Source	SS	df		MS		Number of obs	
Mode1	6786.64319	5	1357	.32864		F(5, 44) Prob > F	= 6.0
Residual	9839.41941	44	223.	623168		R-squared	= 0.40
Total	16626.0626	49	335	9.3074		Adj R-squared Root MSE	= 0.340 = 14.99
propurb05	Coef.	Std.	Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interva
tfr_med	-11.09761	8.607	562	-1.29	0.204	-28.44501	6.24979
tfr high	-18.53574	9.088	703	-2.04	0.047	-36.85282	218663
tfr_vhigh	-18.16984	10.45	492	-1.74	0.089	-39.24035	2.90067
hdi_med	9.374642	5.617	085	1.67	0.102	-1.945849	20.6951
hdi_high	14.91044	9.108	216	1.64	0.109	-3.445968	33.2668
cons	45.89214	9.717	739	4.72	0.000	26.30733	65.4769

Figure 2: Regression of TFR and HDI on Proportion Urban

Fill in this hierarchical anova table for the above model

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Squared	F-Ratio
TFR	5969.04464	3	1989.68155	
HDI TFR	817.59855	2	408.79928	1.8280721
Residual	9839.41941	44	223.623168	
Total	16626.0626	49	339.3074	

$$F(2,44) = 1.83$$
 and $Prob > F = 0.1727$

2.3 Interactions

Sometimes we might believe that our model should not be completely additive. For example, we might expect that the effect of marriage on health differs by sex. To test this, we would want to add an interaction term into our model. We then can use an F-test to see if this improves the model. The key feature of this model is that the effect of a factor now depends on the level of the other.

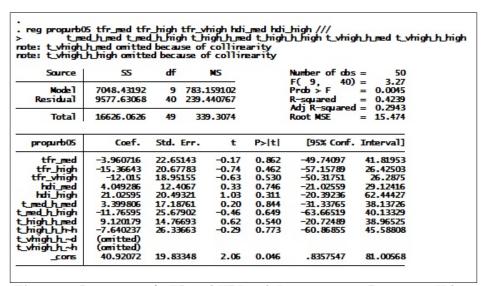


Figure 3: Regression of TFR and HDI with Interactions on Proportion Urban

In this case, we basically have group means.

- 1. Comment on the coefficients and significance of the iteration terms.
 - (a) None of the interactions are significant (actually nothing in this model is significant!)
- 2. Why are two omitted?
 - (a) There are no countries in the data set where there is very high fertility and either medium or high HDI.
- 3. Fill in the anova table below and decide if interactions should be included in this model.

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Squared	F-Ratio
TFR	5969.04464	3	1989.68155	
$\mathrm{HDI} \mathrm{TFR}$	817.59855	2	408.79928	
Interaction	261.78873	4	65.447182	.2733335
Residual	9577.63068	40	239.440767	
Total	16626.0626	49	339.3074	

2.4 Analysis of Covariance

Of course, you can have models where some variables are linear and some are categorical.

When looking at an additive model, each category has the same slope, but

a different intercept.

For example, here is Figure 2.5 from Germàn's notes:

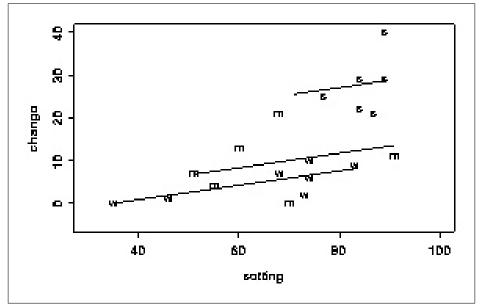


Figure 4: Analysis of Covariance Model for CBR Decline by Social Setting Score and Level of Program Effort

The slope is the same regardless of the program level, but the regression lines have different intercepts,

- 1. How would you interpret this?
 - (a) While each group has an different intercept, they have the same slope, that means that for each change in social setting, regardless of effort level, has the same expected change in CBR.

But what if you didn't believe that countries (controlling for effort) had the same unit change for each additional point of setting? If you are suspicious, you will want to check the assumption of parallelism. It is time to add an interaction term.

Here is Table 2.7 from the notes:

Table 2.27: Parameter Estimates for Ancova Model with Different Slopes for CBR Decline by Social Setting and Family Planning Effort (Social setting centered around its mean)

Paramete	er	Symbo	l Estimate S	td.Error	t-ratio
Constant		μ	6.356	2.477	2.57
Effort	moderate	a ₂	3.584	3.662	0.98
	strong	a ₃	13.333	8.209	1.62
Setting	(linear)	β	0.1836	0.1397	1.31
Setting × m Effort st	moderate	72	-0.0868	0.2326	-0.37
	strong	73	0.4567	0.6039	0.46

- 1. What can you say about the interactions?
 - (a) They are not statistically significant. In fact, most things aren't in this model.
- 2. Does it look as if there is an argument against parallelism?
 - (a) No, because the interactions are not statistically significant, there is no argument against parallelism.

Question: lets pretend for a second that everything is significant, what does the constant represent? Each effort coefficient? What about setting? And the interactions?

3 Regression Diagnostics

3.1 Residuals

You will spend a lot of time looking at residuals in this class. What is a residual?

$$r_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$$

• Where y_i is the observed response and $\hat{y}_i = x'_i \hat{\beta}$ is the fitted value for the *i*-th unit

It can be hard to identify from the residuals which ones are outliers, because the variance of residuals is greatest near the mean and decreases as one moves towards either extreme. How can we deal with this difference in variance?

- Standardized Residuals:
 - Divides the raw residual by an estimation of its standard deviation

$$- s_i = \frac{r_i}{\sqrt{1 - h_{ii}} \hat{\sigma}}$$

- * Where $\hat{\sigma}$ is the estimate of the standard deviation based on the residual sum of squares
 - \cdot The problem is that the standard deviation may be affected by outliers
- Useful for detecting outliers
 - * Standardized residuals greater than 2 deserve greater scrutiny
- Jack-Knife Residuals
 - This address the problem with standardized residuals (that the standardized residual may be influenced by an outlier)
 - Estimates the error variance by omitting the *i*-th observation
 - $-t_i = \frac{r_i}{\sqrt{1-h_{ii}}\hat{\sigma}_{(i)}}$
 - * Where $\hat{\sigma}_{(i)}$ is the estimate of the standard deviation obtained by fitting the model without the *i*-th observation
- The jacked-knife residual is a function of the standardized residual

$$-t_i = s_i \sqrt{\frac{n-p-1}{n-p-s_i^2}}$$

 $-t_i$ is a monotonic function of s_i , so ranking observations by their standardized residuals is equivalent to ordering them by their jack-knifed residuals

Don't worry about doing this by hand, Stata makes it easy using the predict command and different options.

You can also make a residual plot for a nice visual to look for outliers. This is easily done by predicting the fitted values, and graphing them with the residuals.

Another graphic is to make a probability (Q-Q) plot, which is a graph of residuals versus the expected order statistics of the standard normal distribution.

- Germàn recommends using jack-knifed residuals.
- The plot should come very close to a straight line
 - Curvature in the Q-Q plot indicates skew distributions
 - * Downward concavity corresponds to negative skewness (long tail to the left)
 - * Upward concavity indicates positive skewness
 - * S-shaped indicates heavy tails, or an excess of extreme values
 - To decide if your distribution or residuals is normal, refer to Filliben's table.

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4 Transforming the Data

- The most popular method for a linerarizing transformation is the logarithm (naturally, pun intended!)
 - Useful when you expect the effects to be proportional to the response
 - The linear transformation looks like this: $log(Y) = \alpha + \beta x + \epsilon$
 - If $|\beta|$ is small, (less than 0.10) then you can assume $e^{\beta} 1 = \beta$
 - * So how would a coefficient of 0.07 be intrepreted?
 - · It would be interpreted as for every unit increase in β there is a 7% effect on the response
- Another option is to use the Box Cox transformation
 - This can only be used for non-negative responses (and if you have responses of 0, you should add 0.5 to each response).
 - You can use the boxcox command in Stata to find the appropriate transformation
 - Usually you want to choose something easy, such as -1 (reciprocal), 0 (logarithim), 1/2 (square root), 1 (identity), or 2 (square)
 - Use power transformation

$$y^{(\lambda)} = \begin{cases} \frac{y^{\lambda} - 1}{\lambda} & \lambda \neq 0\\ log(y) & \lambda = 0 \end{cases}$$