

Quantitative Social Science Methods, I, Lecture Notes: Binary Outcome Models

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Linear Probability, Logit, Probit Models

Interpreting Functional Forms

Alternative Interpretations of Binary Models

General Rules for Presenting and Interpreting Statistical Results

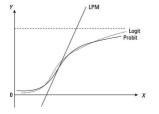
Linear Probability Model

The Model

1. Stochastic component for a binary outcome

$$Y_i \sim \mathsf{Bernoulli}(y_i|\pi_i) = \pi_i^{y_i} (1 - \pi_i)^{1 - y_i} = \begin{cases} \pi_i & \text{for } y = 1\\ 1 - \pi_i & \text{for } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

- 2. Systematic component $Pr(Y_i = 1 | \beta) = E(Y_i) = \pi_i = x_i \beta$
- 3. Y_i and Y_j are independent $\forall i \neq j$, conditional on X



- Quiz: What's good? What's bad?
- for some x, $Pr(Y) \notin [0,1]$
- But models are approximations.
 Maybe ok for middling π?
- Unlikely to get uncertainties right

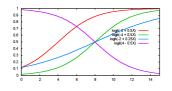
The Logistic Regression (Logit) model

The Model

1. Stochastic component

$$Y_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(y_i|\pi_i) = \pi_i^{y_i} (1 - \pi_i)^{1 - y_i} = \begin{cases} \pi_i & \text{for } y = 1\\ 1 - \pi_i & \text{for } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

- 2. Systematic Component: $\pi_i = \Pr(Y_i = 1 | \beta) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x_i \beta}}$
- 3. Y_i and Y_j are independent $\forall i \neq j$, conditional on X



- Quiz: What's good? What's bad?
- $Pr(y) \in [0,1]$ for any y
- One change for probit: $\pi_i = \Phi(X_i\beta)$
- Could be more flexible; OK for now

The Logit Log-Likelihood

Probability density of all the data

$$P(y|\pi) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \pi_i^{y_i} (1 - \pi_i)^{1 - y_i}, \qquad \pi_i = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x_i \beta}}$$

Log-likelihood

$$\ln L(\beta|y) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ y_i \ln \pi_i + (1 - y_i) \ln(1 - \pi_i) \right\}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ -y_i \ln \left(1 + e^{-x_i \beta} \right) + (1 - y_i) \ln \left(1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x_i \beta}} \right) \right\}$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \ln \left(1 + e^{(1 - 2y_i)x_i \beta} \right)$$

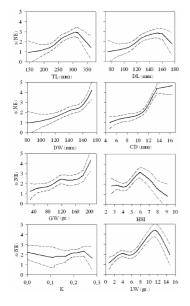
Quiz: What do we do with this? How to interpret $\hat{\beta}$? What's the QOI? Linear Probability, Logit, Probit Models

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Graphics to Interpret Functional Forms



- X horizontally; y vertically; uncertainty represented
- Use theoretical ranges, not observed X's
- Entire surface plot for a few X's
- Marginal effects: Hold some variables constant at their means, a typical value, or observed values
- Average effects: compute effects for every observation and average
- Be creative; choose graphs for impact

Fitted Values to Interpret Functional Forms

- Calculate fitted values given selected values of X, X_c for "typical" people, person types, regional representatives, stereotypes, etc.
- Compute $\hat{\theta}_c = g(X_c, \hat{\beta})$
- An example for logit: $\hat{\pi}_c = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-X_c \hat{\beta}}}$

Sex	Age	Home	Income	Pr(vote)
Male	20	Chicago	\$33,000	0.20
Female	27	New York City	\$43,000	0.28
Male	50	Madison, WI	\$55,000	0.72
:				1

- Include a measure of uncertainty (standard error, confidence interval, etc.) — for any quantity but a probability
- · Easy to communicate
- Difficult to be comprehensive
- Better by simulation: point and uncertainty estimation

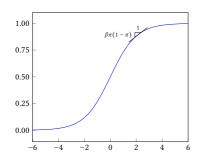
First Differences to Interpret Functional Forms

- · aka Risk Differences (in epidemiology)
- Define X_s (starting point) and X_e (ending point) as k × 1 vectors of values of X. Usually all values are the same but one.
- · First difference
 - In general: $D = g(X_e, \hat{\beta}) g(X_s, \hat{\beta})$
 - Linear Model: $D = X_e \hat{\beta} X_s \hat{\beta}$
 - Logit Model: $D = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-X_e \hat{\beta}}} \frac{1}{1 + e^{-X_s \hat{\beta}}}$
- Example:

Variable	From		To	First Difference
Sex	Male	\rightarrow	Female	.05
Age	65	\rightarrow	75	10
Home	NYC	\rightarrow	Madison, WI	.26
Income	\$35,000	\rightarrow	\$75,000	.14

· Easier by simulation: point and uncertainty estimation

Derivative Rules of Thumb to Interpret Functional Forms



- Good for quick interpretation; probably not for presenting results
- Derivative rule: $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial X_j} = \frac{\partial g(X,\beta)}{\partial X_j}$
- Linear: $\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial X_i} = \beta_j$ (unconditional)

• Logit:
$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial X_j} = \frac{\partial \frac{1}{1+e^{-X\beta}}}{\partial X_j} = \hat{\beta}_j \hat{\pi} (1 - \hat{\pi})$$

- Max value of logit derivative: $\hat{\beta} \times 0.5(1 - 0.5) = \hat{\beta}/4$
- Max value for probit derivative: $\hat{\beta} \times 0.4$
- Presented so it's easy to remember; so remember!

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Logit Model Interpretation from Biology

- Continuous unobserved variable: Y*. health, voting propensity
- A model: $Y_i^* \sim P(y_i^* | \mu_i)$, $\mu_i = x_i \beta$, $Y_i \perp Y_j | X$
- Quiz: what model has Y^* observed & $P(\cdot)$ normal?
- With observation mechanism: $y_i = \begin{cases} 1 & y_i^* \le 0 \text{ if } i \text{ is alive} \\ 0 & y_i^* > 0 \text{ if } i \text{ is dead} \end{cases}$
- If only y_i is observed, and Y^* is standardized logistic,

$$P(y_i^*|\mu_i) = \text{STL}(y^*|\mu_i) = \frac{\exp(y_i^* - \mu_i)}{[1 + \exp(y_i^* - \mu_i)]^2}, \quad \Rightarrow \text{logit model}$$

• Proof: $\Pr(Y_i = 1 | \mu_i) = \Pr(Y_i^* \le 0) = \int_{-\infty}^{0} STL(y_i^* | \mu_i) dy_i^* = F_{stl}(0 | \mu_i) = [1 + \exp(-X_i \beta)]^{-1} \Rightarrow \text{The logit functional form}$

Probit Model Interpretation from Biology

- Same setup as for logit, with one change
 - Stochastic component: $Y^* \sim P(y_i^*|\mu_i) = N(y_i^*|\mu_i, 1)$
- Systematic component becomes

$$\Pr(Y_i = 1 | \mu) = \int_{-\infty}^{0} N(y_i^* | \mu_i, 1) dy_i^* = \Phi(X_i \beta)$$

- Interpretation:
 - One unit of Y*: one standard deviation
 - Interpret β : regression coefficients of Y^* on X
 - Interpret $\hat{\beta}_j$: what happens to Y^* on average (or μ_i exactly) when X_j goes up by one unit, holding constant the other covariates

Logit & Probit Interpretation from Economics

- Definitions:
 - Utility for the Democratic candidate: U_i^D
 - Utility for the Republican candidate: U_i^R
 - Utility difference, propensity to vote Dem: $Y^* = U_i^D U_i^R$
 - Same Observation mechanism: $y_i = \begin{cases} 1 & y_i^* \le 0 \text{ if } i \text{ is Dem} \\ 0 & y_i^* > 0 \text{ if } i \text{ is Rep} \end{cases}$
- Assumptions:
 - $U_i^D \perp \!\!\! \perp U_i^R | X$
 - $U_i^k \sim P(U_i^k | \eta_i^k)$ for $k = \{D, R\}$
- If $P(\cdot)$ is normal: \rightarrow probit model
- If $P(\cdot)$ is generalized extreme value: \rightarrow logit model
- Quiz: Of the three justifications for the same binary model, which do you prefer?
- Quiz: When would you choose LPM or logit or probit?

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How Not to Present Statistical Results

TABLE 1

Predicting Which Ethnic Group Conquered Most of Bosnia			
Attention to Bosnia crisis	.609**		
Age	.007**		
Education	.289**		
Family income	.151**		
Race (non-White/White)	.695**		
Gender (female/male)	.789**		
Region (South/non-South)	.076		
Network coverage	.000		
Education × Time	003*		
Time in months	.078**		
Constant	-9.257**		

7,021

7.215.231

6 789 45

.212

295

73.96

SOURCE: Times Mirror polls from September 1992, January 1993, September 1993, January 1994, and June 1995.

Overall correct classification (%)

Constant Number

-2 log-likelihood

Goodness of fit

Cox & Snell R2

Nagelkerke R2

- What do the each of the numbers mean?
- Why so much whitespace? Can you connect cols A and B?
- What's the star-gazing?
- Can any be interpreted as causal estimates?
- Can you compute a quantity of interest from these numbers?
- This is bad, not rare

NOTE: Unstandardized coefficients for logistic regression, Dependent variable is knowledge of which group conquered most of Bosnia.

^{*} $p \le .05$, two-tailed. ** $p \le .01$, two-tailed.

The Goals of Interpretation and Presentation

- · Statistical presentations should
 - 1. Convey precise estimates of quantities of interest
 - 2. Include measures of uncertainty
 - 3. Require little specialized knowledge to understand
 - 4. Exclude superfluous information (e.g., long lists of coefficients no one understands, star gazing, silly summary stats, too many decimal places)
- For example: Other things being equal, an additional year of education would increase your annual income by \$1,500 on average, plus or minus about \$500
- Try to satisfy someone like both me and my mom & dad
- Reading: King, Tomz, Wittenberg, "Making the Most of Statistical Analyses: Improving Interpretation and Presentation" American Journal of Political Science (2000).

Simulating Quantities of Interest

- Quiz: What do quantity of interest simulations get us?
 - Summarize everything we know and don't know about the QOI
 - · Complete flexibilty of presentation
 - · A great test of whether we understand the model
- Goal: Simulate quantities of interest from the model

$$Y_i \sim f(\theta_i, \alpha)$$
 stochastic
 $\theta_i = g(x_i, \beta)$ systematic

- · How to simulate QOIs
 - 1. Simulate β and α due to estimation uncertainty (because of inadequacies in your research design: $n < \infty$.)
 - 2. Simulate Y (given sims of α and β), representing fundamental uncertainty (due to the nature of nature!)
 - 3. Calculate quantity of interest (given sims of *Y*)

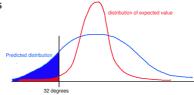
Simulate Parameters

- Goal: Random draws of parameters from sampling distribution (aka posterior with a flat prior)
- · How to:
 - 1. Maximize likelihood function wrt $\gamma = \text{vec}(\beta, \alpha)$ (once)
 - 2. Record $\hat{\gamma}$ and $\hat{V}(\hat{\gamma})$
 - 3. Draw $\tilde{\gamma}$ from the multivariate normal (many times)

$$\tilde{\gamma} \sim N(\hat{\gamma}, \hat{V}(\hat{\gamma}))$$

Simulating Expected v. Predicted Values

- Definitions
 - Predicted: draws of Y that could in principle be observed
 - Expected: draws of distribution features, such as E(Y)
- Sources of variability
 - Predicted: estimation and fundamental uncertainty
 - Expected: estimation only (average over fundamental)
- Quiz: As $n \to \infty$, does the variance go to zero?
 - · Predicted: no
 - · Expected: yes
- Example



- Predicted: Pr(Temperature < 32°) tomorrow
- Expected: Pr(Average Temperature < 32°) tomorrow

Simulating Predicted Values

- · Predicted values can be for
 - 1. Forecasts: about the future
 - 2. Farcasts: about some area for which you have no *y*
 - Nowcasts: about the current data (perhaps to reproduce it to see whether it fits)
- Repeat once for each random draw of \tilde{y}
 - 1. Draw one value of $\tilde{\gamma} = \text{vec}(\tilde{\beta}, \tilde{\alpha}) \sim N(\hat{\gamma}, \hat{V}(\hat{\gamma}))$
 - Define vector X_c, which defines the predicted value to compute
 - 3. Extract simulated $\tilde{\beta}$ from $\tilde{\gamma}$; compute $\tilde{\theta}_c = g(X_c, \tilde{\beta})$
 - **4.** Simulate outcome variable $\tilde{Y}_c \sim f(\theta_c, \tilde{\alpha})$
- Quiz: What can we do with many sims of \tilde{y} ?
- E.g.: histogram, average, variance, percentile values, etc.

Simulating Expected Values: Algorithm

- 1. Draw *one* simulated expected value:
 - (a) Draw one value of $\tilde{\gamma} = \text{vec}(\tilde{\beta}, \tilde{\alpha})$ (estimation uncertainty)
 - (b) Choose one value for each explanatory variable (X_c is a vector)
 - (c) Compute $\tilde{\theta}_c = g(X_c, \tilde{\beta})$, given the one simulated $\tilde{\beta}$ from $\tilde{\gamma}$
 - (d) Draw m sims of the outcome $\tilde{Y}_c^{(k)}$ (k = 1, ..., m) (simulating fundamental uncertainty from stochastic component $f(\tilde{\theta}_c, \tilde{\alpha})$)
 - (e) Average over fundamental uncertainty: average m simulations gives one simulated expected value $\tilde{E}(Y_c) = \sum_{k=1}^m \tilde{Y}_c^{(k)}/m$
- 2. Repeat algorithm *M* times leaving estimation uncertainty
- 3. Compute QOIs: histogram, average (point estimate), SE, CI

Interpretation

- When m = 1: same as predicted values.
- With large *m*: better fundamental uncertainty approximation
- When $E(Y_c) = \theta_c$: we may skip steps d-e. E.g., simulating π_i in logit model. If you're unsure, do it anyway!

Simulating First Differences

- Draw one simulated first difference
 - 1. Choose vectors X_s , the starting point, X_e , the ending point.
 - 2. Apply the expected value algorithm twice, once for X_s and X_e
 - 3. Take the difference in the two estimated expected values
- Repeat *M* times
- · Quiz: which QOIs do we want here?
- To save computation time, and improve approximation: Reuse the same simulated $\tilde{\beta}$ for both

Tricks for Simulating Parameters

- Simulate all parameters together (in γ), including ancillary parameters (unless you know they are orthogonal)
- Advantages of Reparameterization to unbounded scale
 - $\hat{\gamma}$ converges more quickly in n to multivariate normal. (MLEs don't change, but the posteriors and SEs do.)
 - · maximization algorithm works faster without constraints
- How to reparameterize:
 - $\sigma^2 = e^{\eta}$ (i.e., wherever you see σ^2 , in your log-likelihood function, replace it with e^{η})
 - For a probability, $\pi = [1 + e^{-\eta}]^{-1}$ (logit transformation)
 - For $-1 \le \rho \le 1$, use $\rho = (e^{2\eta} 1)/(e^{2\eta} + 1)$ (Fisher's Z trans)
 - In each case, η is unbounded: estimate it, simulate from it, and reparameterize back to the scale you care about.

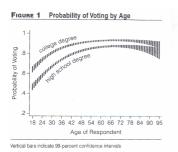
Tricks for Simulating Quantities of Interest

- Compute QOIs from sims of Y (unless you're sure)
- Simulating functions of Y
 - If analyzing ln(Y), simulate ln(Y) & apply inverse function exp(ln(Y)) to reveal Y
 - The wrong way: Regress ln(Y) on X, compute predicted value $\widehat{ln(Y)}$ and exponentiate
 - Its wrong because the regression estimates $E[\ln(Y)]$, but $E[\ln(Y)] \neq \ln[E(Y)]$, so $\exp(E[\ln(Y)]) \neq Y$
 - More generally, $E(g[Y]) \neq g[E(Y)]$, unless $g[\cdot]$ is linear
- Check approximation error: Run algorithm twice, check precision. If it's not enough for your tables, increase sims.
- Increase speed: Analytical calculations & other tricks
- Easily done in Clarify for Stata and Zelig for R

Replication of Rosenstone and Hansen

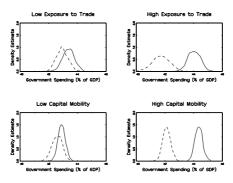
by King, Tomz and Wittenberg (2000)

- Logit of turnout on Age, Age², Education, Income, and Race
- QOI: effect of age on Pr(vote|X), given Income & Race
- Use M = 1000 and compute 99% CI



- Set age=24, education=high school, income=average, Race=white
- Run logistic regression
- Simulate 1000 $\tilde{\beta}$'s
- Compute 1000 $\tilde{\eta}_i = [1 + e^{-x_i \beta}]^{-1}$
- Sort in numerical order
- 99% CI: 5th and 995th values
- Plot vertical line at age=24 (the CI)
- Repeat for other ages and college

Replication of Garrett (King, Tomz and Wittenberg 2000)



- Dependent variable: Government Spending as % of GDP
- Key causal var: left-labor power (high = solid line; low = dashed)
- Garrett only reported the 8 point estimates.
- Quiz: What new information do we learn here?
- Left-labor power: only has effect with high exposure to trade or capital mobility
- Quiz: How can we summarize this with less real estate?