# Generalized Linear Models and their Applications STAT 431/STAT 831\* Fall 2021 (1219)<sup>†</sup>

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<sup>\*</sup>STAT 431  $\equiv$  STAT 831

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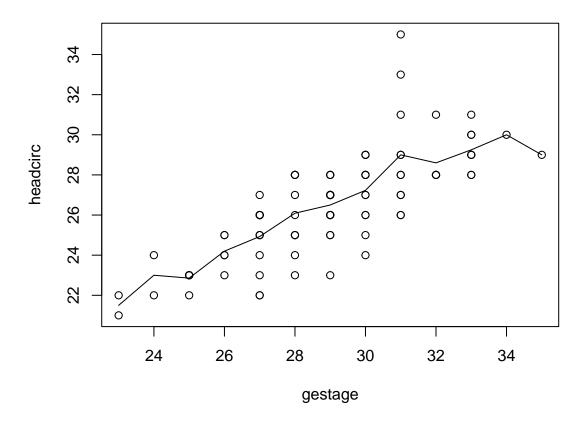
# Topic 1a: Review of Linear Regression

## Example: low birthweight infants study<sup>1</sup>

A study was conducted at two teaching hospitals in Boston, Massachusetts, where the head circumference, gestational age and some other variables are recorded for 100 low birth weight infants.

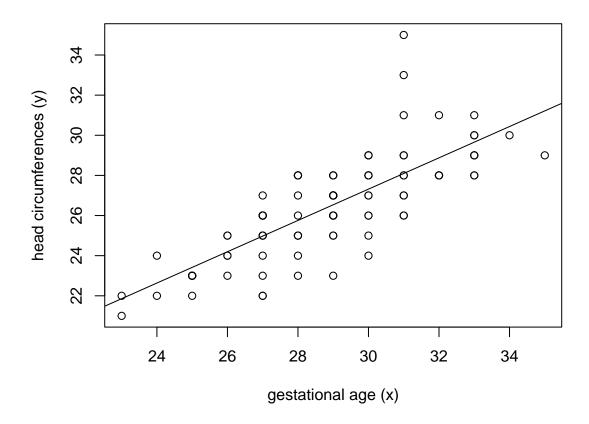
Question: what is the relationship between gestational age & head circumference?

# A Scatterplot of the Data



We wish to model the relationship between gestational age and head circumference using a straight line!

 $<sup>^1\</sup>mathrm{Principles}$  of Biostatistics 2nd Edition by Marcello Pagano, Kimberlee Gauvreau.



## The Model Fitting Process

- (1) Model Specification: select a probability distribution for the response variable and a linear equation linking the response to the explanatory variables.
- 2 Estimation: finding the equation (the parameters of the model).
- 3 Model checking: how well does the model fit the data?
- 4 Inference: interpret the fitted model, calculate confidence intervals, conduct hypothesis tests.

# 1 Model Specification

#### Notation

For each subject i = 1, ..., n we have:

- $Y_i = \text{random variable representing the response, and}$
- $\boldsymbol{x}_i = (1, x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip})^{\mathsf{T}}$ , a vector of explanatory variables.

#### Specification for Multiple Linear Regression

• Linear regression equation:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip} + \varepsilon_i$$
 where  $\varepsilon_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ .

• Equivalently,  $Y_i$ 's are independent  $\mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \sigma^2)$  random variables or

$$\mu_i = \mathbb{E}[Y_i] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}.$$

· For convenience, we often write linear regression models in matrix form as

$$Y = X\beta + \varepsilon$$
,

where

$$\boldsymbol{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ 1 & x_{21} & \cdots & x_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{np} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \sim \text{MVN}(\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{I}).$$

# **2** Estimation

#### Least Squares Method

We wish to minimize a loss function:

$$S(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}))^2$$

$$= (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{\top} (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}).$$

The least squares estimators (LSE) are the solutions to the equations:

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta})^{\top} (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}) = 0.$$

#### Maximum Likelihood Method

The probability density function for  $Y_i$  is:

$$f(y_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}))^2 \right\}.$$

The log-likelihood function is therefore:

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) = \log \left( \prod_{i=1}^n f(y_i) \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( -\frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left( y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}) \right)^2 \right)$$

$$= -\frac{n}{2} \log(2\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta})^\top (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}).$$

The maximum likelihood estimators (MLE) of  $\beta$  are obtained by solving:

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} \left[ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^\top (\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) \right] = 0.$$

• Parameter Estimates: For linear regression LSE and MLE of  $\beta$  are the same

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{Y}.$$

- Fitted values:  $\hat{Y} = X\hat{\beta}$ .
- Residuals:  $\hat{r}_i = (y_i \hat{y}_i)$ .
- Variance estimates:
  - An unbiased estimate of  $\sigma^2$  is:

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n - (p+1)} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{r}_i^2.$$

- An estimate of the variance of  $\hat{\beta}$  is:

$$\widehat{\mathsf{V}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \hat{\sigma}^2 (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1}.$$

#### Low Birthweight Infant Data Example

- For n=100 infants, we have observed  $Y_i=$  head circumference and  $x_i=$  gestational age for baby i,  $i=1,\ldots,100.$
- Consider a simple linear regression model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i$$
.

• We can fit the model and obtain LSE/MSE using the lm() function in R.

- What is the interpretation of regression parameters  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ ?
  - $\beta_0$  (intercept): expected headcirc for a baby of a gestational age zero (x=0).
  - $\beta_1$  (slope): expected change in headcirc associated with a one unit increase in gestational age.

# (3) Model Checking

Standardized Residuals:

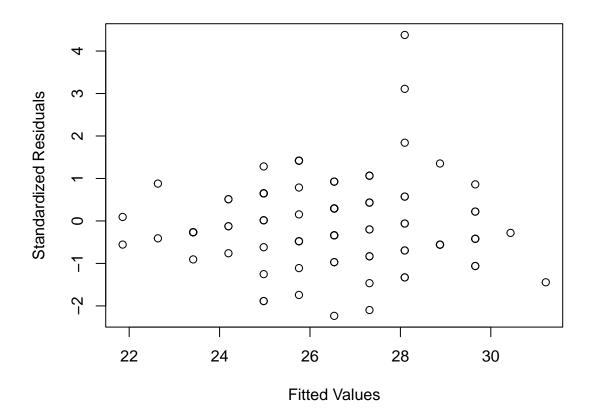
$$d_i = \frac{r_i}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2(1 - h_{ii})}},$$

where  $h_{ii}$  is the (i, i) element of  $\mathbf{H} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\top}$ . By asymptotic theory, if the model provides a good fit to the data then we should expect that:

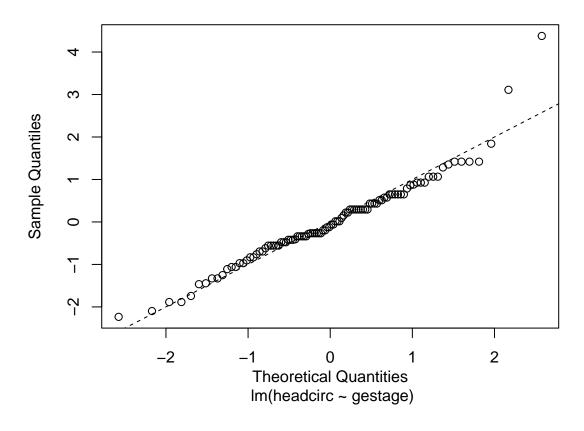
$$d_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$

We visually check this by examining residual plots such as:

- Standardized residuals versus the fitted values.
- Standardized residuals versus the explanatory variable(s).
- Normal probability plot (QQ plot) of the standardized residuals.



## Normal Q-Q Plot



# (4) Inference

• Under suitable assumptions, the fitted regression parameters are asymptotically normally distributed:

$$\hat{eta} \sim \text{MVN}(eta, \sigma^2(oldsymbol{X}^{ op} oldsymbol{X})^{-1}),$$

$$\hat{eta}_j \sim \mathcal{N}(eta_j, \sigma^2 v_{jj}), \qquad \text{where } v_{jj} = \left[ (oldsymbol{X}^{ op} oldsymbol{X})^{-1} \right]_{(j,j)}.$$

- Since  $\sigma^2$  is generally unknown, we replace it with the unbiased estimate  $\hat{\sigma}^2$ , and obtain  $se(\hat{\beta}_j) = \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 v_{jj}}$ .
- The inference is then based on the *t*-distribution result:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_j - \beta_j}{\operatorname{se}(\hat{\beta}_j)} \sim t_{n-p-1}.$$

#### Low Birthweight Infant Data Example

Is there a significant (linear) relationship between head circumference and gestational age?
 We wish to test H<sub>0</sub>: β<sub>1</sub> = 0 vs H<sub>A</sub>: β<sub>1</sub> ≠ 0.

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - (0)}{\operatorname{se}(\hat{\beta}_1)} \sim t_{98},$$

if  $H_0$  is true, and we reject  $H_0$  if  $|t| > t_{98,0.975} = 1.985$ . Here we have  $t = 0.78/0.063 = 12.37 \gg 1.985$ , so we reject  $H_0$ .

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• What is the 95% confidence interval for the expected increase in head circumference when the gestational age of a baby increases by 1 week?

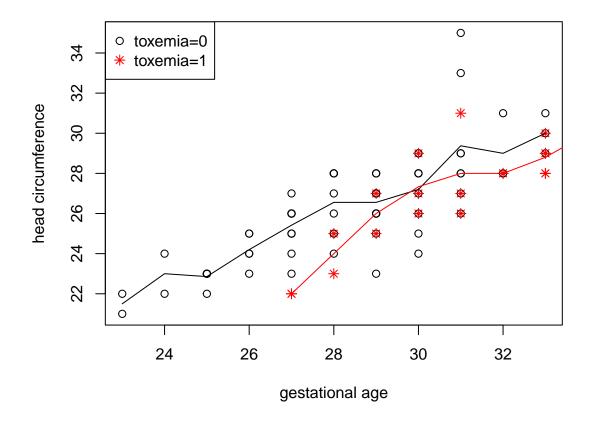
A 95 % CI for 
$$\beta_1$$
:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t_{98,0.975} \operatorname{se}(\hat{\beta}_1) = 0.78 \pm 1.985(0.063) = (0.665, 0.905).$$

## Linear models with multiple predictors

#### Low Birthweight Infant Data Example

• *Toxemia*, a pregnancy complication characterized by high blood pressure and signs of damage to liver and kidneys, may also have an impact on the development of babies.



• Does toxemia, after adjustment for gestational age, also affect the head circumference?

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \varepsilon_i.$$

```
fit <- lm(headcirc ~ gestage + factor(toxemia), data = lowbwt)
summary(fit)

Call:
lm(formula = headcirc ~ gestage + factor(toxemia), data = lowbwt)</pre>
```

```
Residuals:
    Min
            1Q Median
                            3Q
-3.8427 -0.8427 -0.0525 0.8109 6.4092
Coefficients:
                Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
                                    0.801 0.42530
(Intercept)
                 1.49558 1.86799
gestage
                 0.87404
                            0.06561 13.322 < 2e-16 ***
                            0.40615 -3.477 0.00076 ***
factor(toxemia)1 -1.41233
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 1.507 on 97 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.6528, Adjusted R-squared: 0.6456
F-statistic: 91.18 on 2 and 97 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

#### What is the interpretation of $\beta_2$ ?

 $\hat{\beta}_3 = -1.41233$ . After adjustment of gestational age, the babies whose mothers had toxemia have smaller (by 1.41 cm) than those whose mothers did not. This difference is significant (test  $H_0$ :  $\beta_2 = 0$ , p-value = 0.0076 < 0.05).

• Is the rate of increase of head circumference with gestational age the same for infants whose mothers with toxemia as those whose mother without it?

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 x_{i1} x_{i2} + \varepsilon_i$$
.

```
fit <- lm(headcirc ~ gestage * factor(toxemia), data = lowbwt)</pre>
summary(fit)
Call:
lm(formula = headcirc ~ gestage * factor(toxemia), data = lowbwt)
Residuals:
    Min
             1Q Median
                          30
                                   Max
-3.8366 -0.8366 -0.0928 0.7910 6.4341
Coefficients:
                        Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)
                         1.76291 2.10225
                                            0.839 0.404
                         0.86461
                                    0.07390 11.700
                                                    <2e-16 ***
gestage
factor(toxemia)1
                        -2.81503
                                    4.98515 -0.565
                                                     0.574
gestage:factor(toxemia)1 0.04617
                                    0.16352 0.282
                                                       0.778
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 1.515 on 96 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.6531, Adjusted R-squared: 0.6422
F-statistic: 60.23 on 3 and 96 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

What is the interpretation of  $\beta_3$ ?

 $\beta_3$  is the differences in slopes between the two groups (toxemia=1 vs toxemia=0). We want to test  $H_0$ :  $\beta_3 = 0$ , t = 0.282, p-value = 0.778 > 0.05. No evidence to reject  $H_0$ .

## **Limitations of Linear Regression**

Linear regression models can be very useful but may not be appropriate to use when response Y is not continuous and can not be assumed to be normally distributed, e.g.,

- Binary data (Y = 0 or Y = 1),
- Count data (Y = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...).

Generalized Linear Models (GLM) extend the linear regression framework to address the above issue.

- Suitable for continuous and discrete data.
- Normal/Gaussian linear regression is a special case of GLM.
- Inference based on maximum likelihood methods (review next class 431 Appendix, Stat 330 notes).

 $\begin{array}{c} W{\tt EEK}\ 2\\ {\tt 13th}\ {\tt to}\ {\tt 17th}\ {\tt September} \end{array}$ 

# Topic 1b: Review of Likelihood Methods

## Distributions with a Single Parameter

#### Setup

- Suppose Y is a random variable with probability density (or mass) function  $f(y;\theta)$ , where  $\theta \in \Omega$  is a continuous parameter.
- The true value of  $\theta$  is unknown.
- We wish to make inferences about  $\theta$  (i.e., we may want to estimate  $\theta$ , calculate a 95% CI or carry out tests of hypotheses regarding  $\theta$ ).

#### Likelihood Function

• The Likelihood function is any function which is proportional to the probability of observing the data one actually obtained, i.e.,

$$L(\theta; y) = cf(y; \theta) = c \mathbb{P}(Y = y; \theta),$$

where c is a proportionality constant that does not depend on  $\theta$ .

- $L(\theta; y)$  contains all the information regarding  $\theta$  from the data.
- $L(\theta; y)$  ranks the various parameter values in terms of their consistency with the data.
- Since  $L(\theta; y)$  is defined in terms of the random variable y, it is itself a random variable.

## **Maximum Likelihood Estimator**

- For the purposes of estimation we typically want to find  $\theta$  value that makes the observed data the most likely (hence the term maximum likelihood).
- The maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) of  $\theta$  is

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg\max_{\theta} L(\theta; y).$$

- Estimation becomes a simple optimization problem!
- It is often easier to work with the logarithm of the likelihood function, i.e., the log-likelihood function

$$\ell(\theta; y) = \log(L(\theta; y)).$$

- Equivalently, since the  $\log(\,\cdot\,)$  function is monotonic, the value of  $\theta$  that maximizes  $L(\theta;y)$  also maximizes the log-likelihood  $\ell(\theta;y)$ .
- For simplicity, we drop the y and use  $L(\theta) = L(\theta; y)$  and  $\ell(\theta) = \ell(\theta; y)$ .

## A List of Important Functions

- Log-likelihood function:  $\ell(\theta) = \log(L(\theta))$ .
- Score function:  $S(\theta) = \frac{\partial \ell(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = \ell'(\theta)$ .
- Information function:  $I(\theta) = -\frac{\partial^2 \ell(\theta)}{\partial \theta^2} = -\ell''(\theta)$ .
- Fisher information function:  $\mathcal{I}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}[I(\theta)]$ .
- Relative likelihood function:  $R(\theta) = L(\theta)/L(\hat{\theta}), 0 \le R(\theta) \le 1.$
- Log relative likelihood function:  $r(\theta) = \log(L(\theta)/L(\hat{\theta})) = \ell(\theta) \ell(\hat{\theta}), r(\theta) \le 0.$

## **Maximum Likelihood Estimation**

- Want  $\theta$  that maximizes  $\ell(\theta)$ , or equivalently solves  $S(\theta) = 0$ .
- Sometimes  $S(\theta) = 0$  can be solved explicitly (easy in this case), but often we must solve iteratively.
- Check that the solution corresponds to a maxima of  $\ell(\theta)$  by verifying the value of the second derivative at  $\hat{\theta}$  is negative, or

$$I(\hat{\theta}) = -\ell''(\hat{\theta}) > 0.$$

• Invariance property of MLEs: if  $g(\theta)$  is any function of the parameter  $\theta$ , then the MLE of  $g(\theta)$  is  $g(\hat{\theta})$ .

If  $\hat{\theta}$  is the MLE of  $\theta$ , then  $e^{\hat{\theta}}$  is the MLE of  $e^{\theta}$ .

## **Example: Binomial Distribution**

## Example: Binomial Distribution

- A study was conducted to examine the risk for hormone use in healthy postmenopausal women.
- Suppose a group of *n* women received a combined hormone therapy, and were monitored for the development of breast cancer during 8.5 years follow-up.
- Let

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if woman } i \text{ developed breast cancer,} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

for 
$$i = 1, \ldots, n$$
.

• Suppose  $Y_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{BERN}(\pi)$  where  $\pi = \mathbb{P}(Y_i = 1)$ , then the total number of woman developed breast

cancer is:

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i \sim BIN(n, \pi).$$

- We wish to find the MLE of unknown parameter  $\pi$  (probability of cancer).
- Likelihood function:

$$L(\pi; y) = c \mathbb{P}(Y = y; \pi) = \pi^y (1 - \pi)^{n-y},$$

where we take  $c = 1/\binom{n}{y}$  to simplify the likelihood.

• Log-likelihood function:

$$\ell(\pi) = y \log(\pi) + (n - y) \log(1 - \pi).$$

• Score function:

$$S(\pi) = \frac{y}{\pi} - \frac{n-y}{1-\pi}.$$

• Maximum Likelihood Estimator:

$$S(\pi) = 0 \implies \hat{\pi} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i}{n} = \bar{y}.$$

• Second derivative test using information function:

$$I(\pi) = -\ell''(\pi) = \frac{y}{\pi^2} + \frac{n-y}{(1-\pi)^2} > 0 \ \forall \pi \in (0,1).$$

Confirms that  $\hat{\pi} = \bar{y}$  is the MLE.

#### Example: Hormone Therapy Data

- A group of n=8506 postmenopausal women aged 50-79 received EPT and Y=166 developed invasive breast cancer during the follow-up.
- Assume  $Y \sim \text{BIN}(n, \pi)$  with unknown parameter  $\pi$ .
- The maximum likelihood estimate of  $\pi$  is:

$$\hat{\pi} = \bar{y} = \frac{y}{n} = \frac{166}{8506} = 0.0195.$$

Therefore, the probability of breast cancer is estimated to be about 2%.

#### **Example: Poisson Distribution**

Suppose  $y_1, \ldots, y_n$  is an iid sample from a Poisson distribution with probability mass function:

$$f(y;\lambda) = \mathbb{P}(Y=y;\lambda) = \frac{\lambda^y e^{-\lambda}}{y!}, \ \lambda > 0, \ y = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

• Likelihood function:

$$L(\lambda; y_1, \dots, y_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(y_i; \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^{\sum y_i} e^{-n\lambda}}{\prod_i y_i!}.$$

• Log-likelihood function:

$$\ell(\lambda) = \left(\sum_{i} y_{i}\right) \log(\lambda) - n\lambda - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(y_{i}!).$$

• Score function:

$$S(\lambda) = \frac{\sum_{i} y_i}{\lambda} - n = 0 \implies \hat{\lambda} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i}{n} = \bar{y}.$$

Need second derivative test to verify  $\hat{\lambda}$  is the MLE.

#### **Newton Raphson Algorithm For Finding MLE**

- Sometimes, solving  $S(\theta)=0$  can be challenging and closed form solutions may not be obtained, iterative method need to be used to find the MLE.
- Recall Taylor Series expansion of a differentiable function f(x) about a point a:

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \cdots$$

- Now suppose we wish to find  $\hat{\theta}$ , the root of  $S(\theta) = 0$  and  $\theta^{(0)}$  is a guess that is "close" to  $\hat{\theta}$ .
- Consider the Taylor series expansion of  $S(\theta)$  about  $\theta^{(0)}$ :

$$S(\theta) = S(\theta^{(0)}) + \frac{S'(\theta^{(0)})}{1!}(\theta - \theta^{(0)}) + \frac{S''(\theta^{(0)})}{2!}(\theta - \theta^{(0)})^2 + \cdots$$

• For  $|\theta-\theta^{(0)}|$  very small, the second and higher order terms can be dropped to a good approximation:

$$S(\theta) \simeq S(\theta^{(0)}) + S'(\theta^{(0)})(\theta - \theta^{(0)}).$$
  
 $S(\theta) \simeq S(\theta^{(0)}) - I(\theta^{(0)})(\theta - \theta^{(0)}).$ 

• Then at  $\theta = \hat{\theta}$ ,

$$\begin{split} S(\hat{\theta}) &\simeq S(\theta^{(0)}) - I(\theta^{(0)})(\hat{\theta} - \theta^{(0)}) \\ I(\theta^{(0)})(\hat{\theta} - \theta^{(0)}) &\simeq S(\theta^{(0)}) \\ (\hat{\theta} - \theta^{(0)}) &\simeq I^{-1}(\theta^{(0)})S(\theta^{(0)}) \\ \hat{\theta} &\simeq \theta^{(0)} + I^{-1}(\theta^{(0)})S(\theta^{(0)}). \end{split}$$

• This suggests a revised guess for  $\hat{\theta}$  is:

$$\theta^{(1)} = \theta^{(0)} + I^{-1}(\theta^{(0)})S(\theta^{(0)})$$

#### Newton Raphson Algorithm for finding the MLE

- Begin with an initial estimate  $\theta^{(0)}$ .
- Iteratively obtain updated estimate by using:

$$\theta^{(i+1)} = \theta^{(i)} + I^{-1}(\theta^{(i)})S(\theta^{(i)}).$$

- Iteration continues until  $\theta^{(i+1)} \simeq \theta^{(i)}$  within a specified tolerance.
- Then set  $\hat{\theta} = \theta^{(i+1)}$ , check that  $I(\hat{\theta}) > 0$ .

## Inference for Scalar Parameters $\theta$

- So far we have discussed estimation of  $\hat{\theta}$ , next we want to conduct inference about  $\theta$ , i.e., carry out hypothesis tests and construct confidence intervals of  $\theta$ .
- Likelihood inference relies on the following asymptotic distribution results:

#### Useful asymptotic distributional results

- (log) Likelihood ratio statistic:  $-2\log(R(\theta)) = -2r(\theta) \sim \chi^2_{(1)}$ .
- Score statistic:  $\left(S(\theta)\right)^2/I(\theta) \sim \chi_{(1)}^2$ .
- Wald statistic:  $(\hat{\theta} \theta)^2 I(\hat{\theta}) \sim \chi^2_{(1)}$  or  $(\hat{\theta} \theta) \sqrt{I(\hat{\theta})} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  since  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \implies Z^2 \sim \chi^2_1$ .

## **Confidence Interval (CI)**

Suppose we want a  $100(1-\alpha)$  % confidence interval for  $\theta$ .

• The Likelihood ratio (LR) based pivotal gives a confidence interval:

$$\{\theta: -2r(\theta) < \chi_1^2(1-\alpha)\},\$$

where  $\chi_1^2(1-\alpha)$  is the upper  $\alpha$  percentage point of the  $\chi_1^2$  distribution.

• The Wald-based pivotal gives an interval:

$$\left\{\theta: (\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2 I(\hat{\theta}) < \chi_1^2 (1 - \alpha)\right\},$$

or equivalently

$$\hat{\theta} \pm Z_{1-\alpha/2} (I(\hat{\theta}))^{-1/2},$$

where  $Z_{1-\alpha/2}$  is the upper  $\alpha/2$  percentage point of the standard normal.

## **Example: Hormone Therapy Data**

Likelihood Ratio based  $95\,\%$  CI:  $\left\{\theta: -2r(\theta) < \chi_1^2(0.95)\right\}$  where  $r(\theta) = \ell(\theta) - \ell(\hat{\theta})$ .

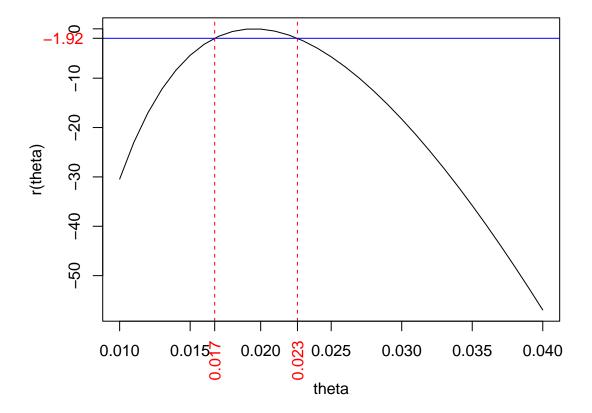
• For the Binomial distribution:  $\hat{\theta} = y/n$ , and

$$r(\theta) = \underbrace{\left(y \log(\theta) + (n-y) \log(1-\theta)\right)}_{\ell(\theta)} - \underbrace{\left(y \log\left(\frac{y}{n}\right) + (n-y) \log\left(1-\frac{y}{n}\right)\right)}_{\ell(\hat{\theta})}.$$

• To find the root of  $-2r(\theta) = \chi_1^2(0.95) \iff -2r(\theta) - \chi_1^2(0.95)$ :

• The likelihood ratio based  $95\,\%$  CI is (0.017,0.023).

$$-2r(\theta) < \chi_1^2(0.95) \iff r(\theta) > -\frac{1}{2}\chi_1^2(0.95) = -1.92.$$



Wald based 95 % CI:  $\hat{\theta} \pm Z_{0.975} \big( I(\hat{\theta}) \big)^{-1/2}$ .

• For Binomial distribution  $\hat{\theta}=y/n$  and

$$I(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{y}{\hat{\theta}^2} + \frac{n-y}{(1-\hat{\theta})^2} = n^2 \left(\frac{1}{y} + \frac{1}{n-y}\right).$$

• So we solve:

$$\hat{\theta} \pm 1.96 (I(\hat{\theta}))^{-1/2} = 0.0195 \pm 1.96 (0.0015)$$
  
= (0.017, 0.022).

• The Wald based 95% CI is: (0.017, 0.022).

## **Hypotheses Test**

Suppose we are interested in testing hypotheses:

$$H_0$$
:  $\theta = \theta_0$  vs  $H_A$ :  $\theta \neq \theta_0$ .

- Likelihood ratio (LR) test: p-value =  $\mathbb{P}(\chi_1^2 > -2r(\theta_0))$ .
- Score test: p-value =  $\mathbb{P}\Big(\chi_1^2 > \big(S(\theta)\big)^2/I(\theta_0)\Big)$ .
- Wald test:

$$p$$
-value =  $\mathbb{P}\Big(\chi_1^2 > (\hat{\theta} - \theta_0)^2 I(\hat{\theta})\Big)$ , or  $p$ -value =  $\mathbb{P}\Big(|Z| > |\hat{\theta} - \theta_0|\sqrt{I(\hat{\theta})}\Big)$ .

## **Example: Hormone Therapy Data**

Suppose we wish to test if women received EPT would have a risk of breast cancer same as that of the general population, say about 1.5%.

$$H_0$$
:  $\theta = 0.015$  vs  $H_A$ :  $\theta \neq 0.015$ .

· Likelihood Ratio based test:

$$r(\theta_0 = 0.015) = \left(y\log(0.015) + (n-y)\log(1-0.15)\right) - \left(y\log\left(\frac{y}{n}\right) + (n-y)\log\left(1-\frac{y}{n}\right)\right)$$
$$= -5.3637.$$

Thus, the p-value for the test is given by:

$$p = \mathbb{P}\left(\chi_{(1)}^2 > -2r(0.015)\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\chi_{(1)}^2 > 10.7274\right) = 0.001.$$

Therefore, we reject  $H_0$  and conclude that the risk of breast cancer for women received EPT is significantly different from 1.5%.

## **Notes on Asymptotic Inference**

- Asymptotic results: approximation improves as sample size increases.
- Results are exact for a Normal linear model if  $\theta$  is the mean parameter and  $\sigma^2$  is known.
- LR approach:
  - Need to evaluate (log) likelihood at two locations.
  - Not always a closed from solution for a CI.
  - Usually the best approach.
- · Score approach:
  - Usually the least powerful test.
  - Don't actually need to find MLE to use.
- Wald's approach:
  - Always get a closed form solution for a CI.
  - May not behave well for skewed likelihoods (transform?).
- All three are asymptotically equivalent!

#### **Likelihood Methods for Parameter Vectors**

Suppose  $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_p)^{\top} \in \Omega$  is a continuous  $p \times 1$  parameter vector indexing a probability density (or mass) function  $f(y; \theta)$ . The likelihood and log-likelihood functions are defined as before, but

•  $S(\theta) = \frac{\partial \ell(\theta)}{\partial \theta}$  is the  $p \times 1$  Score vector, i.e.,

$$oldsymbol{S}(oldsymbol{ heta}) = egin{bmatrix} rac{\partial \ell( heta)}{\partial heta_1} \ dots \ rac{\partial \ell( heta)}{\partial heta_n} \end{bmatrix}.$$

•  $I(\theta)=-rac{\partial^2\ell(\theta)}{\partial heta^{\top}\partial heta}$  is the p imes p Information matrix, i.e.,

$$m{I}(m{ heta}) = egin{bmatrix} -rac{\partial^2\ell( heta)}{\partial heta_1^2} & -rac{\partial^2\ell( heta)}{\partial heta_1\,\partial heta_2} & \cdots & rac{\partial^2\ell( heta)}{\partial heta_1\,\partial heta_p} \ -rac{\partial^2\ell( heta)}{\partial heta_2^2} & \cdots & rac{\partial^2\ell( heta)}{\partial heta_1\,\partial heta_p} \ & \ddots & rac{\partial^2\ell( heta)}{\partial heta_p^2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

• The Newton Raphson algorithm applies as before, but with vectors and matrices as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(i+1)} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(i)} + \boldsymbol{I}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(i)})\boldsymbol{S}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(i)}).$$

Again, we apply iteratively until we obtain convergence, but now check to see if  $I(\hat{\theta})$  is a positive definite matrix.

Suppose we want to make inference about a specific parameter in  $\theta$ , say we partition vector  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\alpha, \beta)^{\top}$  and  $\alpha$  is the parameter of interest. Analogues to the LR, Score, and Wald results apply, e.g.,

- LR statistic:  $-2\left[\ell(\alpha,\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\alpha})-\ell(\hat{\alpha},\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})\right]\sim\chi_{(1)}^{2}$ .
  - $\hat{\beta}_{\alpha}$  is the MLE of  $\beta$  given  $\alpha$  is fixed.
  - $\hat{\alpha}$  and  $\hat{\beta}$  are the joint MLE of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .
- Score statistic:  $S_{\alpha}(\alpha, \hat{\beta}_{\alpha})^2 I^{\alpha\alpha} \sim \chi^2_{(1)}$ .
  - $S_{\alpha} = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \alpha}$ .
  - $I^{\alpha\alpha}$  is the  $(\alpha, \alpha)$  element of  $I(\alpha, \beta)^{-1}$  (inverse of Information matrix).
- Wald statistic:  $(\hat{\alpha} \alpha)^2 / I^{\alpha \alpha} \sim \chi^2_{(1)}$ .

# Topic 2a: Formulation of Generalized Linear Models

## The Exponential Family

## Definition (Exponential Family)

Consider a random variable Y with probability density (or mass) function  $f(y; \theta, \phi)$ , we say that the distribution is a member of the exponential family if we can write

$$f(y;\theta,\phi) = \exp\biggl\{\frac{y\theta - b(\theta)}{a(\phi)} + c(y;\phi)\biggr\},$$

for some functions  $a(\cdot)$ ,  $b(\cdot)$ , and  $c(\cdot)$ .

• The parameter  $\theta$  is called the canonical parameter, and it is unknown.

• The parameter  $\phi$  is called the scale/dispersion parameter, is constant, and assumed to be known.

Many well known distributions (continuous/discrete) can be shown to be a member of the exponential family.

## **Examples**

• Poisson Distribution:  $Y \sim POI(\lambda)$ ,

$$f(y; \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^y e^{-\lambda}}{y!}, \ \lambda > 0, \ y = 0, 1, \dots$$

Show that Poisson is a member of exponential family and identify the canonical parameter and the functions  $a(\cdot)$ ,  $b(\cdot)$ , and  $c(\cdot)$ .

Solution. 
$$f(y;\lambda)=\exp\bigl\{\log(f(y;\lambda))\bigr\}=\exp\Bigl\{\frac{y\log(\lambda)-\lambda}{1}-\log(y!)\Bigr\}.$$
 Therefore, 
$$\theta=\log(\lambda) \qquad \text{(canonical/natural parameter)},$$
 
$$b(\theta)=\lambda=\mathrm{e}^{\theta},$$
 
$$\phi=1,$$
 
$$a(\phi)=1,$$
 
$$c(y;\phi)=-\log(y!).$$

• Normal Distribution:  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and  $\sigma^2$  known,

$$f(y;\theta,\phi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\}.$$

Show that this Normal distribution is a member of the exponential family. **Solution.** 

$$\begin{split} f(y;\mu,\sigma^2) &= \exp\biggl\{-\frac{y^2-2\mu y+\mu^2}{\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{2}\log(2\pi\sigma^2)\biggr\} \\ &= \exp\biggl\{\frac{y\mu-\mu^2/2}{\sigma^2} - \frac{y^2}{2\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{2}\log(2\pi\sigma^2)\biggr\}. \end{split}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{split} \theta &= \mu, \\ \phi &= \sigma^2, \\ a(\phi) &= \phi = \sigma^2, \\ b(\theta) &= \frac{\mu^2}{2} = \frac{\theta^2}{2}, \\ c(y;\phi) &= -\frac{y^2}{2\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{2}\log(2\pi\sigma^2). \end{split}$$

## **Properties of Exponential Family**

Consider a single observation y from the exponential family.

$$\begin{split} L(\theta,\phi;y) &= f(y;\theta,\phi) = \exp\biggl\{\frac{y\theta-b(\theta)}{a(\phi)} + c(y;\phi)\biggr\}. \\ \ell(\theta,\phi;y) &= \log\bigl(f(y;\theta,\phi)\bigr) = \frac{y\theta-b(\theta)}{a(\phi)} + c(y;\phi). \\ S(\theta) &= \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta} = \frac{y-b'(\theta)}{a(\phi)}. \\ I(\theta) &= -\frac{\partial^2 \ell}{\partial \theta^2} = \frac{b''(\theta)}{a(\phi)}. \\ \mathcal{I}(\theta) &= \mathbb{E}\left[-\frac{\partial^2 \ell}{\partial \theta^2}\right] = I(\theta). \end{split}$$

## Some General Results for Score and Information

#### Result # 1

The expectation of the score function is zero.

$$\mathbb{E}\big[S(\theta)\big] = 0.$$

**Proof**:

$$\int f(y; \theta, \phi) \, dy = 1$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \int f(y; \theta, \phi) \, dy = 0$$

$$\int \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(y; \theta, \phi) \, dy = 0$$

$$\int \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log(f(y; \theta, \phi))\right) f(y; \theta, \phi) \, dy = 0$$

$$\int S(\theta) f(y; \theta, \phi) \, dy = 0$$

$$\mathbb{E}[S(\theta)] = 0$$
(1)

## Result # 2

The expectation of the score function squared is the expected information.

$$\mathbb{E}\big[S(\theta;y)^2\big] = \mathbb{E}\big[I(\theta;y)\big]$$

**Proof**: Differentiate (1) again,

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \int & \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log \big( f(y;\theta,\phi) \big) \right) f(y;\theta,\phi) \, \mathrm{d}y = 0 \\ \int & \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} \log \big( f(y;\theta,\phi) \big) \right) f(y;\theta,\phi) \, \mathrm{d}y + \int \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log \big( f(y;\theta,\phi) \big) \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(y;\theta,\phi) \, \mathrm{d}y = 0 \\ & \int \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} \log \big( f(y;\theta,\phi) \big) f(y;\theta,\phi) \, \mathrm{d}y + \int \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(y;\theta,\phi) \right)^2 f(y;\theta,\phi) \, \mathrm{d}y = 0 \\ & \int -I(\theta) f(y;\theta,\phi) \, \mathrm{d}y + \int S(\theta)^2 f(y;\theta,\phi) \, \mathrm{d}y = 0 \\ & \mathbb{E} \big[ -I(\theta;y) \big] + \mathbb{E} \big[ S(\theta;y)^2 \big] = 0 \end{split}$$

Now for the exponential family, we apply above results and obtain:

$$\mathbb{E}[S(\theta)] = 0,$$

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{Y - b'(\theta)}{a(\phi)}\right] = 0,$$

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = b'(\theta),$$

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}\big[S(\theta)^2\big] &= \mathbb{E}\big[I(\theta)\big], \\ \mathbb{E}\bigg[\bigg(\frac{Y-b'(\theta)}{a(\phi)}\bigg)^2\bigg] &= \mathbb{E}\bigg[\frac{b''(\theta)}{a(\phi)}\bigg], \\ \frac{1}{a(\phi)^2}\,\mathbb{E}\Big[\big(Y-\mathbb{E}[Y]\big)^2\Big] &= \frac{b''(\theta)}{a(\phi)}, \\ \mathrm{Var}(Y) &= b''(\theta)a(\phi). \end{split}$$

#### Mean and Variance for the Exponential Family

• Mean:  $\mathbb{E}[Y] = b'(\theta) = \mu$ .

• Variance:  $Var(Y) = b''(\theta)a(\phi)$ .

#### Note that:

•  $b'(\theta) = \mu$  tells the relationship between *canonical* parameter  $\theta$  and  $\mu$ .

•  $b''(\theta)$  is a function of  $\theta$  and hence can be also expressed as a function of  $\mu$ .

• Thus, we write  $b''(\theta) = V(\mu)$  and call  $V(\mu)$  the variance function.

• Subsequently, we have:

$$Var(Y) = b''(\theta)a(\phi) = V(\mu)a(\phi),$$

which is the mean-variance relationship for the exponential family.

#### **Link Functions**

#### Definition (Link Function)

The link function relates the linear predictor  $\eta = x^{\top} \beta$  to the expected value  $\mu$  of the random variable Y, i.e.,

$$g(\mu) = \eta = \boldsymbol{x}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta},$$

where  $q(\cdot)$  is the link function.

#### Definition (Canonical Link Function)

When *Y* is a member of the exponential family we define the canonical link function to be:

$$g(\mu) = \theta = \eta = \boldsymbol{x}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

(i.e., the choice of  $g(\cdot)$  that sets canonical parameter = linear predictor).

## Example

Recall that  $POI(\lambda)$  is a member of exponential family,

$$f(y; \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^y e^{-\lambda}}{y!} = \exp\left\{\frac{y \log(\lambda) - \lambda}{1} - \log(y!)\right\}$$

where  $\theta = \log(\lambda)$ ,  $\phi = 1$ ,  $b(\theta) = \lambda = e^{\theta}$ , and  $a(\phi) = 1$ . Now to find the mean, variance function, and canonical link function:

- Mean:  $\mathbb{E}[Y] = b'(\theta) = e^{\theta} = \mu \implies \theta = \log(\mu)$ .
- Variance Function:  $V(\mu) = b''(\theta) = e^{\theta} \implies V(\mu) = \mu$ .
- Variance:  $Var(Y) = V(\mu)a(\phi) = \mu$  (mean-variance relationship).
- Canonical link: set  $\theta = \eta$  using  $\theta = \log(\mu) = \eta = \boldsymbol{x}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ , i.e.,  $g(\mu) = \log(\mu)$  where  $\log(\cdot)$  is the canonical link.

Moving forward, we consider a log-linear model:  $\log(\mu_i) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}$ .

#### **Remarks on Link Function**

- We can choose any function  $g(\,\cdot\,)$  as the link function in theory.
- The canonical link is a special link function, we often choose to use canonical link for its good statistical properties.
- Context and goodness of fit should motivate the choice of link function in practice.

#### **Generalized Linear Models**

Definition (Generalized Linear Model (GLM))

A Generalized Linear Model (GLM) is composed of three components:

• Random Component: The responses  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  are independent random variables and each  $Y_i$  is assumed to come from a parametric distribution that is a member of the exponential family.

• Systematic Component (or linear predictor):

$$\eta_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta},$$

a linear combination of explanatory variables  $x_i$  and regression parameters  $\beta$ .

• Link function:

$$g(\mu_i) = \eta_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta},$$

a function that relates the mean of response to the linear predictor.

## **Topic Summary**

2a Formulation of Generalized Linear Models:

- Definition of the Exponential Family.
  - Exponential form of the probability density (or mass) function.
  - Derivation of Score and Information.
  - Properties of exponential family, mean-variance relationship.
  - Definition of canonical link.
- Definition of a Generalized Linear Model.

Next Topic: 2b Estimation for Generalized Linear Models.

WEEK 3 20th to 24th September

# Topic 2b: Maximum Likelihood Estimation for Generalized Linear Models

#### **Generalized Linear Models**

Suppose for each subject i = 1, ..., n in a random sample:

- $Y_i$  is the response variable.
- $x_{i1}, \ldots, x_{ip}$  are explanatory variables associated with  $Y_i$ .

We consider a Generalized Linear Model (GLM) for the data, by definition the GLM is composed following three components:

1 Random Component:

 $Y_i \sim \text{exponential family,} \qquad Y_1, \dots, Y_n \text{ are independent.}$ 

2 Systematic Component (or linear predictor):

$$\eta_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}.$$

- $\boldsymbol{x}_i = (1, x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip})^{\top}$  is a covariate vector.
- $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)^{\top}$  is a vector of regression coefficients.
- (3) Link function: a function  $g(\cdot)$  links  $\mathbb{E}[Y_i] = \mu_i$  to a linear prediction  $\eta_i$ :

$$g(\mu_i) = \eta_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

## **Example: A Poisson Regression Model**

Suppose  $Y_i \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} \text{POI}(\lambda_i)$  with mean  $\mathbb{E}[Y_i] = \lambda_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ :

$$f(y_i) = \frac{e^{-\lambda_i} \lambda_i^{y_i}}{y_i!} = \exp\{y_i \log(\lambda_i) - \lambda_i - \log(y_i!)\}.$$

Poisson distribution is a member of exponential family with:

- Canonical parameter:  $\theta_i = \log(\lambda_i)$ .
- Canonical link:  $\theta_i = \eta_i \Longrightarrow \log(\lambda_i) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}$  (log link).

A Poisson regression model with the canonical link takes the form:

$$\log(\lambda_i) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}$$
 (log-linear model).

## **Example: A Normal Regression Model**

Assume  $Y_i \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \sigma^2)$  and  $\sigma^2$  is known,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ :

$$\begin{split} f(y_i) &= (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-1/2} \exp\biggl\{-\frac{(y_i-\mu_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\biggr\} \\ &= \exp\biggl\{\frac{y_i\mu_i-\mu_i^2/2}{\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{2}\biggl(\frac{y_i^2}{\sigma^2} + \log(2\pi\sigma^2)\biggr)\biggr\}. \end{split}$$

A Normal distribution ( $\sigma^2$  known) is a member of exponential family with:

- Canonical parameter:  $\theta_i = \mu_i$ .
- Canonical link:  $\theta_i = \eta_i \Longrightarrow \mu_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}$  (identity link).

A Normal regression model with the canonical link takes the form:

$$\mu_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}$$
 (linear model)

Linear regression model (STAT 331) is a Normal GLM using the canonical link!

#### Likelihood for Generalized Linear Models

We wish to use likelihood methods for the estimation of the regression parameter  $\beta$  from the GLM:  $g(\mu_i) = \mathbf{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}$ . Consider the log-likelihood for a *single* observation from the exponential family:

$$\ell(\theta, \phi; y) = \frac{y\theta - b(\theta)}{a(\phi)} + c(y; \phi).$$

- $\ell$  is a function of  $\theta$  (assume that  $\phi$  is known).
- $\theta$  is related to  $\mu$  through the result:

$$\mu = b'(\theta)$$
.

•  $\eta$  can be expressed in terms of  $\mu$  through the link function:

$$g(\mu) = \eta$$
.

•  $\beta$  can be expressed in terms of  $\eta$  through the linear predictor:

$$\eta = \boldsymbol{x}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

#### **Score Vector**

To find the maximum likelihood estimator for  $\beta$ , we must solve  $S(\beta) = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \beta} = 0$ . Consider taking derivative with respect to  $\beta_j$  using the chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \beta_i} = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \mu} \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \eta} \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial \beta_i},$$

where

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta} = \frac{y - b'(\theta)}{a(\phi)},$$

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \mu} = \left(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \theta}\right)^{-1} = \frac{1}{b''(\theta)}$$
since  $\mu = b'(\theta),$ 

$$\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \eta} = \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \eta},$$

$$\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial \beta_j} = x_j$$
since  $\eta = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_j x_j + \dots + \beta_p x_p.$ 

Hence, we have:

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \beta_j} &= \frac{y - b'(\theta)}{a(\phi)} \frac{1}{b''(\theta)} \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \eta} x_j \\ &= \frac{y - \mu}{\mathsf{Var}(Y)} \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \eta} x_j \qquad \qquad \text{since } \mu = b'(\theta), \mathsf{Var}(Y) = a(\phi)b''(\theta) \\ &= \frac{y - \mu}{\mathsf{Var}(Y)} \left(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \eta}\right)^2 \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial \mu} x_j \qquad \qquad \text{since } \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \eta} \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial \mu} = 1 \\ &= (y - \mu) \left(\mathsf{Var}(Y) \left(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \eta}\right)^2\right)^{-1} \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial \mu} x_j \\ &= (y - \mu)W \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial \mu} x_j, \end{split}$$

where  $W^{-1} = \text{Var}(Y) \left(\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial \mu}\right)^2$ . Note that generally  $\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial \mu}$  is easier to calculate than  $\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \eta}$  since we define the link as  $\eta = g(\mu)$ .

For a random sample  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  from exponential family and each  $Y_i$  has a probability density function

$$f(y_i; \theta, \phi) = \exp\left\{\frac{y_i \theta_i - b(\theta_i)}{a(\phi)} + c(y_i, \phi)\right\}.$$

We write likelihood and log-likelihood functions as:

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(y_i; \theta_i, \phi) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \exp\left\{\frac{y_i \theta_i - b(\theta_i)}{a(\phi)} + c(y_i, \phi)\right\},$$

$$\ell = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{y_i \theta_i - b(\theta_i)}{a(\phi)} + c(y_i, \phi).$$

The element of the score vector is:

$$\left[ \mathbf{S}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \right]_{j} = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \beta_{j}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial \ell_{i}}{\partial \beta_{j}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \mu_{i}) W_{i} \frac{\partial \eta_{i}}{\partial \mu_{i}} x_{ij}$$

where  $W_i^{-1} = \text{Var}(Y_i)(\frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i})^2$ ,  $g(\mu_i) = \eta_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}$ . In vector and matrix form we can write:

$$S(\beta) = XWA(y - \mu),$$

where

- $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^{\top}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n)^{\top}$  are  $n \times 1$  vectors,
- $X = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is a  $(p+1) \times n$  matrix,

• 
$$\mathcal{W} = \operatorname{diag}(W_1, \dots, W_n) = \begin{bmatrix} W_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & W_n \end{bmatrix}$$
, and

• 
$$\mathcal{A} = \operatorname{diag}\Big(\frac{\partial \eta_1}{\partial \mu_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial \eta_n}{\partial \mu_n}\Big).$$

## Example: Poisson Regression Model (Problem 1.4)

For a random sample from Poisson distribution,  $Y_i \sim POI(\lambda_i)$ , i = 1, ..., n,

$$\ell_i = \log(f(y_i; \lambda_i)) = (y_i \log(\lambda_i) - \lambda_i - \log(y_i!)).$$

Poisson regression with a log-link:

$$\log(\lambda_i) = \eta_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

To write down the score vector for the regression coefficients  $\beta$ , we may calculate the derivative using standard methods, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} \left[ \boldsymbol{S}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \right]_{j} &= \sum_{i} \frac{\partial \ell_{i}}{\partial \beta_{j}} \\ &= \sum_{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_{j}} \left( y_{i} \log(\boldsymbol{\lambda_{i}}) - \boldsymbol{\lambda_{i}} - \log(y_{i}!) \right) \\ &= \sum_{i} \left( y_{i} x_{ij} - e^{\boldsymbol{x_{i}}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}} x_{ij} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Or we can use the general results derived for the GLMs on the previous slides.

## Solving $S(\beta) = 0$ for MLE

1 Newton Raphson update equation is:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{(r+1)} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{(r)} + \boldsymbol{I}^{-1}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{(r)}) \boldsymbol{S}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{(r)}),$$

where I is the observed information matrix.

- This requires us to find and repeatedly evaluate the information *I* (possibly computationally intensive).
- ullet Fisher suggested using the expected information matrix  ${\mathcal I}$  rather than the observed information matrix.
- 2 Fisher Scoring update equation is:

$$\hat{\beta}^{(r+1)} = \hat{\beta}^{(r)} + \mathcal{I}^{-1}(\hat{\beta}^{(r)})S(\hat{\beta}^{(r)}).$$

#### **Information Matrix**

Consider the (j, k) element of the Information matrix:

$$\begin{split} I_{jk} &= -\frac{\partial^2 \ell}{\partial \beta_j \, \partial \beta_k} \\ &= -\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \beta_j} \\ &= \sum_i -\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \left[ (y_i - \mu_i) W_i \bigg( \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i} \bigg) x_{ij} \right] \\ &= \sum_i - (y_i - \mu_i) \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \left[ W_i \bigg( \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i} \bigg) x_{ij} \right] \right\} - W_i \bigg( \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i} \bigg) x_{ij} \bigg( \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} (y_i - \mu_i) \bigg) \\ &= \sum_i - (y_i - \mu_i) \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \left[ W_i \bigg( \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i} \bigg) x_{ij} \right] \right\} + W_i \bigg( \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i} \bigg) x_{ij} \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \eta_i} \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \beta_k} \\ &= \sum_i - (y_i - \mu_i) \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \left[ W_i \bigg( \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i} \bigg) x_{ij} \right] + x_{ij} W_i x_{ik}. \end{split}$$

#### **Fisher Information**

To get an element of the Expected/Fisher Information matrix:

$$\mathcal{I}_{jk} = \sum_{i} \mathbb{E} \left[ -\frac{\partial^{2} \ell}{\partial \beta_{j} \, \partial \beta_{k}} \right]$$

$$= \sum_{i} \mathbb{E} \left[ -(Y_{i} - \mu_{i}) \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_{k}} \left[ W_{i} \left( \frac{\partial \eta_{i}}{\partial \mu_{i}} \right) x_{ij} \right] + x_{ij} W_{i} x_{ik} \right]$$

$$= \sum_{i} -\mathbb{E} \left[ (Y_{i} - \mu_{i}) \right] \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_{k}} \left[ W_{i} \left( \frac{\partial \eta_{i}}{\partial \mu_{i}} \right) x_{ij} \right] + x_{ij} W_{i} x_{ik}$$

$$= \sum_{i} x_{ij} W_{i} x_{ik}.$$

Therefore, we can write the (j, k) element of the Fisher information as:

$$\mathcal{I}_{jk} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} W_i x_{ik} = [\boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\mathcal{W}} \boldsymbol{X}^{ op}]_{jk}$$

where again,  $\mathcal{W} = \text{diag}(W_1, \dots, W_n)$  and  $W_i^{-1} = \text{Var}(Y_i) \left(\frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i}\right)^2$ .

## When is Fisher Scoring Equivalent to Newton Raphson?

Recall information matrix:

$$I_{jk} = \sum_{i} -(y_i - \mu_i) \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \left[ W_i \left( \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i} \right) x_{ij} \right] + x_{ij} W_i x_{ik}.$$

Now examine:

$$\begin{split} W_i \bigg( \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i} \bigg) x_{ij} &= \bigg( \mathsf{Var}(Y_i) \bigg( \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i} \bigg)^2 \bigg)^{-1} \bigg( \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i} \bigg) x_{ij} \\ &= \bigg( a(\phi) b''(\theta_i) \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i} \bigg)^{-1} x_{ij} \qquad \qquad \text{since } \mathsf{Var}(Y_i) = a_i(\phi) b''(\theta_i) \\ &= \bigg( a(\phi) \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \theta_i} \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i} \bigg)^{-1} x_{ij} \qquad \qquad \text{since } b'(\theta_i) = \mu_i, \, b''(\theta_i) = \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \theta_i} \\ &= \big( a(\phi) \big)^{-1} x_{ij} \qquad \qquad \text{under the canonical link } \theta_i = \eta_i. \end{split}$$

So under the canonical link,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \left[ W_i \left( \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i} \right) x_{ij} \right] = \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \left[ \left( a(\phi) \right)^{-1} x_{ij} \right] = 0,$$

therefore information matrix is same as the Fisher information:

$$I_{jk} = \sum_{i} x_{ij} W_i x_{ij} = \mathcal{I}_{jk}$$

and Fisher Scoring is equivalent to Newton Raphson.

#### **Iteratively Reweighted Least Squares**

The Fisher Scoring is also called iteratively reweighted least squares (IRWLS). The reason is that the update equation can be rewritten as:

$$\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}^{(r+1)} = \left(oldsymbol{X} oldsymbol{\mathcal{W}}(\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}^{(r)}) oldsymbol{X}^ op
ight)^{-1} oldsymbol{X} oldsymbol{\mathcal{W}}(\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}^{(r)}) oldsymbol{Z}(\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}^{(r)})$$

where Z is a transformation of the response vector Y such that:

$$Z = \eta + (Y - \mu) * \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial \mu}$$

- See manipulation in Section 1.2.3 of course notes.
- Same form as the weighted LS estimate of  $\beta$  with dependent variable Z and weight matrix W.
- Z and W are updated at each iteration.

#### **Topic Summary**

2b Maximum Likelihood Estimation of Generalized Linear Models:

 When Y<sub>i</sub> come from a distribution in the exponential family, we can use the theory of Generalized Linear Models to fit the regression equations of the form:

$$g(\mu_i) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

- The link function  $g(\cdot)$  may be the canonical link, but its choice should come from model interpretation and fit.
- Can use Fisher Scoring (also known as IRWLS) to estimate the regression parameters  $\beta$  from any GLM based on general forms for  $I(\beta)$  and  $S(\beta)$ .
- PRACTICE: Chapter 1 review problems.

# **Topic 3a: Binary Data and Odds Ratios**

## **Binary Data Set-up**

- Consider the simplest case with two binary variables:
  - COVID-19: infected or not infected (response).
  - Vaccination: yes or no (explanatory variable).
- Use a  $2 \times 2$  table to summarize the data:

	CO		
Vaccination	infected	not infected	
yes	$y_1$	$m_1 - y_1$	$m_1$
no	$y_2$	$m_2 - y_2$	$m_2$
Total	$y_{ullet}$	$m_{ullet} - y_{ullet}$	$m_{ullet}$

• Treat  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  as fixed, assume  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are independent binomial r.v.'s

$$Y_k \sim \text{BIN}(m_k, \pi_k), \qquad k = 1, 2,$$

where  $\pi_k = \mathbb{P}(\text{infection} \mid \text{group } k)$ .

• How do we measure the associate between COVID-19 infection and vaccination?

#### **Measures of Association**

#### Definition (Odds Ratio)

The Odds Ratio (OR) is the ratio of the odds of an event occurring in one group to the odds of the event in another group (e.g., not vaccinated):

Odds Ratio = 
$$\frac{\pi_1/(1-\pi_1)}{\pi_2/(1-\pi_2)}$$
.

Interpretation of OR:

#### Relative Risk (RR)

The Relative Risk (RR) is the ratio of the probability of an event occurring in one group versus another group:

Relative Risk = 
$$\frac{\pi_1}{\pi_2}$$

In the case of a rare disease (i.e., when  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  are very small),

OR = 
$$\frac{\pi_1/(1-\pi_1)}{\pi_2/(1-\pi_2)} = \frac{\pi_1}{\pi_2} \underbrace{\left(\frac{1-\pi_2}{1-\pi_1}\right)}_{\approx 1} \approx \frac{\pi_1}{\pi_2} = RR,$$

then

$$OR \approx RR$$
.

#### **Maximum Likelihood Estimation of Odds Ratio**

• Goal: Estimate odds ratio  $\psi = \frac{\pi_1/(1-\pi_1)}{\pi_2/(1-\pi_2)}$  using likelihood method. Based on "grouped" binomial data,  $Y_k \sim \text{BIN}(m_k, \pi_k), \ k = 1, 2,$ 

$$L(\pi_1, \pi_2) = \binom{m_1}{y_1} \pi_1^{y_1} (1 - \pi_1)^{m_1 - y_1} \binom{m_2}{y_2} \pi_2^{y_2} (1 - \pi_2)^{m_2 - y_2}$$

$$\propto \left(\frac{\pi_1/(1 - \pi_1)}{\pi_2/(1 - \pi_2)}\right)^{y_1} \left(\frac{\pi_2}{1 - \pi_2}\right)^{y_2 + y_1} (1 - \pi_1)^{m_1} (1 - \pi_2)^{m_2}.$$

• Note that  $\pi_1, \pi_2 \in [0,1]$  and odds ratio  $\psi \in (0,\infty)$  are restricted, we consider re-parameterize:

$$\theta_1 = \log \left(\frac{\pi_1/(1-\pi_1)}{\pi_2/(1-\pi_2)}\right) = \log(\psi), \qquad \theta_2 = \log \left(\frac{\pi_2}{1-\pi_2}\right),$$

and now  $\theta_1, \theta_2 \in (-\infty, \infty)$ .

• Our re-parameterization implies:

$$\pi_1 = \frac{e^{\theta_1 + \theta_2}}{1 + e^{\theta_1 + \theta_2}}, \qquad \pi_2 = \frac{e^{\theta_2}}{1 + e^{\theta_2}}.$$

Now the likelihood becomes:

$$\begin{split} L(\theta_1, \theta_2) &= (\mathrm{e}^{\theta_1})^{y_1} (\mathrm{e}^{\theta_2})^{y_1 + y_2} (1 + \mathrm{e}^{\theta_1 + \theta_2})^{m_1} (1 + \mathrm{e}^{\theta_2})^{-m_2}, \\ \ell(\theta_1, \theta_2) &= y_1 \theta_1 + (y_1 + y_2) \theta_2 - m_1 \log(1 + \mathrm{e}^{\theta_1 + \theta_2}) - m_2 \log(1 + \mathrm{e}^{\theta_2}). \end{split}$$

• The score vector is:

$$S(\theta_1, \theta_2) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta_1} \\ \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta_2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 - m_1 \left( \frac{e^{\theta_1 + \theta_2}}{1 + e^{\theta_1 + \theta_2}} \right) \\ y_1 + y_2 - m_1 \left( \frac{e^{\theta_1 + \theta_2}}{1 + e^{\theta_1 + \theta_2}} \right) - m_2 \left( \frac{e^{\theta_2}}{1 + e^{\theta_2}} \right) \end{pmatrix}.$$

• Solving  $S(\theta_1, \theta_2) = 0$  gives us the MLEs:

$$\hat{\theta}_1 = \log \left( \frac{y_1/(m_1 - y_1)}{y_2/(m_2 - y_2)} \right), \qquad \hat{\theta}_2 = \log \left( \frac{y_2}{m_2 - y_2} \right).$$

• So by the invariance property of MLEs, we have:

$$\hat{\pi}_1 = \frac{y_1}{m_1}, \qquad \hat{\pi}_2 = \frac{y_2}{m_2}, \qquad \hat{\psi} = \frac{\hat{\pi}_1/(1 - \hat{\pi}_1)}{\hat{\pi}_2/(1 - \hat{\pi}_2)} = \frac{y_1/(m_1 - y_1)}{y_2/(m_2 - y_2)}.$$

#### **Inference for Odds Ratio**

• In order to do inference we will need the Information Matrix:

$$\boldsymbol{I}(\theta_1,\theta_2) = \begin{bmatrix} I_{11} & I_{12} \\ I_{21} & I_{22} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{where } I_{jk} = -\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta_j \, \partial \theta_k} \ell(\theta_1,\theta_2).$$

Here, we have:

$$I_{11} = m_1 \left( \frac{e^{\theta_1 + \theta_2}}{(1 + e^{\theta_1 + \theta_2})^2} \right),$$

$$I_{12} = I_{21} = m_1 \left( \frac{e^{\theta_1 + \theta_2}}{(1 + e^{\theta_1 + \theta_2})^2} \right),$$

$$I_{22} = m_1 \left( \frac{e^{\theta_1 + \theta_2}}{(1 + e^{\theta_1 + \theta_2})^2} \right) + m_2 \left( \frac{e^{\theta_2}}{(1 + e^{\theta_2})^2} \right).$$

- We are interested in doing inference on  $\theta_1 = \log(\psi)$  (while  $\theta_2$  is nuisance).
- Recall the asymptotic distribution result of a Wald statistic:

#### Wald Statistic

For a vector  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1, \theta_2)^{\top}$  where  $\theta_1 = \log(\psi)$  is a scalar parameter of interest:

$$(\hat{\theta}_1 - \theta_1)^2 (I^{11}(\hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_2))^{-1} \sim \chi^2_{(1)}, \text{ or } (\hat{\theta}_1 - \theta) / \sqrt{I^{11}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1),$$

where  $I^{11}$  is the (1,1) element of  $I^{-1}$  evaluated at MLE  $\hat{\theta}_1$  and  $\hat{\theta}_2$ .

• Calculation of  $I^{11}$  by using a general result:

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} I_{11} & I_{12} \\ I_{21} & I_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \qquad I^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} I^{11} & I^{12} \\ I^{21} & I^{22} \end{pmatrix}, \qquad I^{11} = \begin{pmatrix} I_{11} - I_{12}I_{21}^{-1}I_{21} \end{pmatrix}^{-1}.$$

• We can use the Wald result to find a confidence interval for  $\theta_1 = \log(\psi)$ .

#### **Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio**

Here, we obtain:

$$I^{11}(\hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_2) = \frac{1}{y_1} + \frac{1}{m_1 - y_1} + \frac{1}{y_2} + \frac{1}{m_2 - y_2}.$$

Thus, a Wald-based 95 % confidence interval for  $\theta_1 = \log(\psi)$  is:

$$\hat{\theta}_1 \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{1}{y_1} + \frac{1}{m_1 - y_1} + \frac{1}{y_2} + \frac{1}{m_2 - y_2}} = (\hat{\theta}_{1L}, \hat{\theta}_{1U}).$$

A 95 % confidence interval for the Odds Ratio  $\psi$  is:

$$\left(\exp\{\hat{\theta}_{1L}\},\exp\{\hat{\theta}_{1U}\}\right).$$

## **Example: Prenatal Care from Two Clinics**

Consider the data below for the relationship between:

- Response: Fetal Mortality.
- Explanatory variable: Level of Care.

	Fetal		
Level of Care	Died	Survived	Total
Intensive	20	316	336
Regular	46	373	419
	66	689	755

• Using the above data, we obtain MLE of odds ratio  $\psi$ :

$$\hat{\psi} = \frac{y_1/(m_1 - y_1)}{y_2/(m_2 - y_2)} = \frac{20/316}{46/373} = 0.51.$$

 $\hat{\psi}=0.51<1,$  the risk of mortality is lower with intensive care.

• A 95 % CI for  $\theta_1 = \log(\psi)$ :

$$\log(0.51) \pm 1.96\sqrt{\frac{1}{20} + \frac{1}{316} + \frac{1}{46} + \frac{1}{373}} = (-1.219, -0.127).$$

• A  $95\,\%$  CI for odds ratio  $\psi$ :

$$(\exp\{-1.219\}, \exp\{-0.127\}) = (0.30, 0.89).$$

Note that the CI does not cover the value  $\psi=1$  (no association), so we reject the null hypothesis of no association between fetal mortality and level of care. In other words, there is evidence of association.

## **Example: Prenatal Care from Two Clinics**

There is an additional explanatory variable: Clinic (A vs B).

#### Prenatal Care Data Stratified by Clinic

	Clinic A				Clinic B	
Level of Care	Died	Survived	Total	Died	Survived	Total
Intensive	16	293	309	4	23	27
Regular	12	176	188	34	197	231
	28	469	497	38	220	258

- $\hat{\psi}_A = 0.80~(0.37, 1.73)$  and  $\hat{\psi}_B = 1.01~(0.33, 3.10)$ . These cover value 1, different from the results from the pooled analysis on the previous slide.
- These results do NOT agree with the results from the pooled analysis on the previous slide.

## Association Between Clinic and Level of Care

	A	В	
Intensive Regular	309 118	27 231	336 419
	497	258	755

•  $\hat{\psi} = 14.06 \ (9.12, 21.76).$ 

#### Association Between Clinic and Mortality

	A	В	
Died	28	38	66
Survived	469	220	689
	497	258	755

- $\hat{\psi} = 0.35 \ (0.21, 0.58).$
- The initial strong association between Level of Care and Infant Morality disappeared when we stratified by clinic.
- Instead of having to examine multiple  $2 \times 2$  tables we'd like to estimate the OR and compute associations using a multiple regression model.
- One way to do this is by fitting a Binomial GLM to the data.



# Topic 3b: Binomial Regression Models for Binary Data

## Recall Topic 3a: Binary Data and Odds Ratios

Last week, we introduce a simple method for association between two binary variables,  $2 \times 2$  contingency table analysis: Measure of Association: OR  $=\psi=\frac{\pi_1/(1-\pi_1)}{\pi_2/(1-\pi_2)}$ ,

	Mortality		
Level of Care	Died	Survived	
Intensive Regular	$y_1$ $y_2$	$m_1 - y_1$ $m_2 - y_2$	$Y_1 \sim \text{BIN}(m_1, \pi_1)$ $Y_2 \sim \text{BIN}(m_2, \pi_2)$

- OR = 1 (equal risk).
- 0 < OR < 1 (lower risk in group 1).
- OR > 1 (higher risk in group 1).

Maximum likelihood estimator for OR is:

$$\hat{\psi} = \frac{y_1/(m_1 - y_1)}{y_2/(m_2 - y_2)},$$

and a Wald-based  $95\,\%$  CI is:

$$\exp \left\{ \log(\hat{\psi}_1) \pm 1.96 \underbrace{\sqrt{\frac{1}{y_1} + \frac{1}{m_1 - y_1} + \frac{1}{y_2} + \frac{1}{m_2 - y_2}}}_{\text{se}(\log(\hat{\psi}))} \right\}$$

## **Prenatal Care Data Example**

OR (Mortality and Care)	Est.	$95\%~\mathrm{CI}$
Intensive vs Regular	0.51	(0.30, 0.89)

Table 1:  $1 \notin (0.30, 0.89) \implies$  evidence of association between Mortality and Care.

However, Mortality and Care are also related to another variable, Clinic:

OR (Mortality and Clinic)	Est.	95% CI
Clinic A vs Clinic B	0.35	(0.12, 0.58)

Table 2: Association between Mortality and Clinic.

- Therefore, we wish to consider how a variable, e.g., Mortality (Y), is related to multiple explanatory variables together, e.g., Care  $(x_1)$  and Clinic  $(x_2)$ .
- This can be done using multiple regression methodology for binary data  $\implies$  Topic 3b: Binomial Regression Models for Binary Data.

OR (Care and Clinic)	Est.	95% CI
Clinic A vs Clinic B	14.06	(9.12, 21.76)

Table 3: Association between Care and Clinic.

## **Multiple Regression for Binary Data**

- Often we need to consider the relationship between a binary outcome and multiple explanatory variables, using multiple regression methodology.
- This is because we may want to:
  - control for cofounding variables and hence want to examine the effect of several variables simultaneously;
  - examine the effect of categorical variables (> 2 levels) or continuous covariates;
  - develop sophisticated models that describe complex relationship.
- Suppose *subject level data* is binary with a value of 1 indicating that an event of interest occurs and a value of 0 indicating that event doesn't occur.
- Subjects can be classified according to the values of explanatory variables into *n* groups (i.e., common covariates values within each group), so we have *grouped data* such that:
  - $m_i$  denotes number of subjects in group i;
  - $Y_i$  denotes number of subjects experienced the event in group i;
  - $x_{i1}, \ldots, x_{ip}$  denote the covariates values associated with group i where  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ .

## Set-up of a Binomial Regression Model

Response Variable:  $Y_i \sim \text{BIN}(m_i, \pi_i)$ , i = 1, ..., n, and Binomial distribution is a member of Exponential family!

$$\begin{split} f(y_i) &= \binom{m_i}{y_i} \pi_i^{y_i} (1-\pi_i)^{m_i-y_i} \\ &= \exp \bigg\{ y_i \log \bigg( \frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i} \bigg) + m_i \log (1-\pi_i) + \log \bigg( \binom{m_i}{y_i} \bigg) \bigg\}, \end{split}$$

where

$$\begin{split} \theta_i &= \log \left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right), \\ a(\phi) &= \phi = 1, \\ b(\theta_i) &= -m_i \log (1-\pi_i) = m_i \log (1+\mathrm{e}^{\theta_i}). \\ c(y_i;\phi) &= \log \left(\binom{m_i}{y_i}\right). \end{split}$$

(2) Linear Predictor:

$$\eta_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}.$$

3 Link Function: Recall that for Binomial distribution, we have  $\mathbb{E}[Y_i] = \mu_i = m_i \pi_i$ , therefore we typically re-write the link function in terms of  $\pi_i$ ,

$$g(\pi_i) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{ op} \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

As  $\pi_i \in (0,1)$ , any function  $g:(0,1) \to (-\infty,\infty)$  may work, and here are some link functions we can consider:

log-log	$g(\pi) = \log(-\log(\pi))$
complementary log-log	$g(\pi) = \log(-\log(1-\pi))$
$Probit^a$	$g(\pi) = \Phi^{-1}(\pi)$
Logit (canonical)	$g(\pi) = \log \bigl(\pi/(1-\pi)\bigr)$

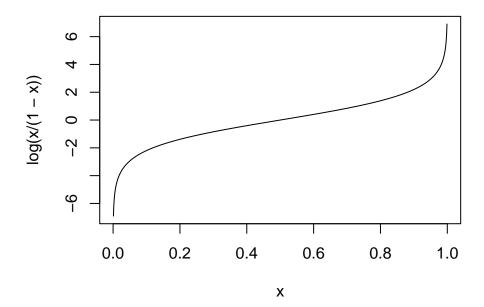
 $<sup>^</sup>a$ For the Probit link,  $\Phi(\,\cdot\,)$  is the *CDF* of  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ .

## **Canonical Link and Logistic Regression**

Recall for Binomial distribution  $\theta_i = \log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right)$ , and by setting  $\theta_i = \eta_i$ , we have:

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) = \eta_i.$$

The Logit link,  $g(\pi_i) = \log(\pi_i/(1-\pi_i))$ , is the canonical link for the Binomial!



This leads to a Logistic Regression Model:

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}.$$

## **Prediction from Logistic Regression**

Aside: The inverse of the logit function is called the expit function:

$$\mathsf{logit}(\pi_i) = \mathsf{log}\bigg(\frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i}\bigg) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} \iff \pi_i = \frac{\mathsf{exp}\{\boldsymbol{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}\}}{1 + \mathsf{exp}\{\boldsymbol{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}\}} = \mathsf{expit}(\boldsymbol{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}).$$

Suppose we have found MLE  $\hat{\beta}$  using Fisher scoring, then the fitted value for the probability of response  $\pi_i$  given explanatory variables  $x_i$  is:

$$\hat{\pi}_i = \frac{\exp\{\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\}}{1 + \exp\{\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\}}.$$

The predicted number of responses are:  $\hat{Y}_i = m_i \hat{\pi}_i$ .

## Interpretation of $\beta$ in Logistic Regression

• Consider a simple logistic model with a single binary explanatory variable:

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1},$$

where  $x_{i1} = 0$  (group 0) and  $x_{i1} = 1$  (group 1).

• Let's compare the model when  $x_{i1} = 1$  vs  $x_{i1} = 0$ .

Group 
$$x_i^{\top}$$
  $\eta_i = \log(\pi_i/(1-\pi_i))$ 

$$\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & (1,1)^{\top} & \beta_0 + \beta_1 & = \log(\pi_1/(1-\pi_1)) \\ 0 & (1,0)^{\top} & \beta_0 & = \log(\pi_0/(1-\pi_0)) \\ \end{array}$$

$$\beta_1 & = \log\left(\frac{\pi_1/(1-\pi_1)}{\pi_0/(1-\pi_0)}\right) = \log(OR)$$

- We subtract line 2 from line 1 to isolate  $\beta_1$  and find its interpretation.
- $\beta_1 = \log$  odds ratio of response for subjects with  $x_{i1} = 1$  vs  $x_{i1} = 0$ .
- Please see Section 2.4.2 for general interpretations of  $\beta$ 's in multiple logistic regression models.

## **Logistic Regression for Prenatal Care Example**

• Response: Fetal Mortality, that is,

$$Y_i \sim BIN(m_i, \pi_i), i = 1, 2, ...$$

• Explanatory Variables:

$$x_{i1} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{Intensive Care} \\ 0 & \text{Regular Care} \end{cases}$$
 
$$x_{i2} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{Clinic A} \\ 0 & \text{Clinic B} \end{cases}$$
 
$$x_{i3} = x_{i1}x_{i2} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{Intensive care and Clinic A} \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- We will use the context of this example to illustrate how to:
  - fit (simple and multiple) logistic regression models using R, and
  - interpret regression parameters.

#### Model 1: Level of Care only model

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1}.$$

- $\beta_0 = \log \text{ odds}$  of mortality for babies born to mothers treated with regular care.
- $\beta_1 = \log \text{ odds ratio}$  of mortality for babies born to mothers treated with intensive vs regular care.

Level of Care	Clinic	$\boldsymbol{x}_i^\top$	$\log\bigl(\pi_i/(1-\pi_i)\bigr)$
Intensive	_	$(1,1)^{\top}$	$\beta_0 + \beta_1$
Regular	_	$(1,0)^{\top}$	$eta_0$

#### Model 2: Main effects model

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2}.$$

Level of Care	Clinic	$\boldsymbol{x}_i^\top$	$\log\bigl(\pi_i/(1-\pi_i)\bigr)$
Intensive	Α	$(1,1,1)^{\top}$	$\beta_0 + \beta_1 + \beta_2$
Regular	Α	$(1,0,1)^{\top}$	$\beta_0 + \beta_2$
Intensive	В	$(1, 1, 0)^{\top}$	$\beta_0 + \beta_1$
Regular	В	$(1,0,0)^{\top}$	$\beta_0$

- $\beta_0 = \log \text{ odds}$  of mortality with regular care at Clinic B.
- $\beta_1 = \log$  odds ratio of mortality for babies born to mothers treated with intensity vs regular care at the *same clinic*.
- $\beta_2 = \log$  odds ratio of mortality for babies born to mothers treated at Clinic A vs Clinic B at the *same level* of care.

#### Model 3: Interaction model

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 x_{i3}.$$

Level of Care	Clinic	$\boldsymbol{x}_i^\top$	$\log \bigl(\pi_i/(1-\pi_i)\bigr)$
Intensive	Α	$(1,1,1)^{\top}$	$\beta_0 + \beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3$
Regular	Α	$(1,0,1)^{\top}$	$\beta_0 + \beta_2$
Intensive	В	$(1,1,0)^{\top}$	$\beta_0 + \beta_1$
Regular	В	$(1,0,0)^{\top}$	$eta_0$

- $\beta_1 = \log \text{ odds ratio}$  of mortality for babies born to mothers treated with intensity vs regular care at *Clinic B*.
- $\beta_1 + \beta_3 = \log$  odds ratio of mortality for babies born to mothers treated with intensity vs regular care at *Clinic A*.
- $\beta_2 = \log \text{ odds ratio}$  of mortality for babies born to mothers treated at Clinic A vs Clinic B with regular care.
- $\beta_2 + \beta_3 = \log$  odds ratio of mortality for babies born to mothers treated at Clinic A vs Clinic B with *intensive* care.
- $\beta_3$  represents the difference in log odds ratios.
- If  $\beta_3 = 0$  then association between mortality and level of care does not dependent on clinic.
- Equivalently, if  $\beta_3 = 0$  then the association between mortality and clinic does not depend on level of care.

# Data file prenatal.dat clinic loc y m 1 0 0 34 231 2 0 1 4 27 3 1 0 12 188 4 1 1 16 309

- The first line contains the variable names/labels.
- We are using indicator variables for the explanatory variables:

```
x_{i1} = loc (1 for Intensive, 0 for Regular)
x_{i2} = clinic (1 for Clinic A, 0 for Clinic B)
```

• The variable y records the number of deaths (events).

#### Fit GLMs using R

The glm() function in R is used to fit the generalized linear models:

• formula: a linear formula describing the model, e.g.,

• family: a description of the exponential family distribution and link function to be used in the model, e.g.,

```
family = binomial, gaussian, poisson, Gamma, etc..
link = logit, log, loglog, cloglog, identity, probit, etc..
```

• The default is the canonical link.

## R Code and Output for Analysis of Prenatal Care data

For binomial data, we need to construct "resp" variable as the pair  $(y_i, m_i - y_i)$ .

```
# read file prenatal.data
prenatal.dat = read.table("prenatal.dat", header = T)
# construct the binomial response for the logistic regression
prenatal.dat$resp = cbind(prenatal.dat$y, prenatal.dat$m - prenatal.dat$y)
prenatal.dat
 clinic loc y m resp.1 resp.2
       0 0 34 231
                        34
                               197
2
       0 1 4 27
                         4
                               23
3
      1 0 12 188
                        12
                               176
                              293
      1 1 16 309
                      16
```

The logistic regression models are fit using the glm() commands like:

```
# fit the logistic model using the glm function
model1 = glm(resp ~ loc, family = binomial(link = logit), data = prenatal.dat)
summary(model1)
```

#### Fit of Model 1: Level of Care Model

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1}.$$

```
# fit the logistic model using the glm function
model1 = glm(resp ~ loc, family = binomial(link = logit), data = prenatal.dat)
summary(model1)$coefficients

Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -2.0929370 0.1562692 -13.393150 6.630754e-41
loc -0.6670729 0.2785400 -2.394891 1.662530e-02
```

Components of the summary() output for glm objects:

- Estimate: the maximum likelihood estimates of the regression coefficients  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$ .
- Std. Error: estimated standard errors, the square root of the diagonal of the inverse of the Information matrix:

$$\operatorname{se}(\hat{eta}_j) = \sqrt{\left[ I^{-1}(\hat{eta}) \right]_{jj}} = \sqrt{I^{jj}(\hat{eta})}.$$

• z value: Wald-type test statistics for testing the hypotheses:

$$H_0$$
:  $\beta_i = 0$  vs  $H_A$ :  $\beta_i \neq 0$ .

• Pr(>|z|): *p*-value for above Wald test.

For this model:

•  $\beta_1$  is the log odds ratio of mortality for infants born to mothers treated with intensive versus regular care.

## Hypothesis test for $\beta_i$

• We may wish to test:

$$H_0$$
:  $\beta_i = \beta^*$  versus  $H_A$ :  $\beta_i \neq \beta^*$ .

• The general Wald result for a single parameter  $\beta_i$  is:

$$(\hat{\beta}_j - \beta^*)^2 (I^{jj}(\hat{\beta}))^{-1} \sim \chi_1^2,$$

equivalently 
$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_j - \beta^*}{\mathsf{se}(\hat{\beta}_j)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$
 where  $\mathsf{se}(\hat{\beta}_j) = \sqrt{I^{jj}(\hat{\beta})}$ .

• We can find the *p*-value of this test using:

$$p = 2 \mathbb{P} \bigg( Z > \frac{|\hat{\beta}_j - \beta^{\star}|}{\operatorname{se}(\hat{\beta}_j)} \bigg).$$

• The summary() output gives the test statistics and p-values for testing

$$H_0$$
:  $\beta_i = 0$  vs  $H_A$ :  $\beta_i \neq 0$ .

## Hypothesis test for $\beta_1$ from Model 1: Level of Care Model

• We wish to test:

$$H_0$$
:  $\beta_1 = 0$  vs  $H_A$ :  $\beta_1 \neq 0$ 

· Wald test:

$$z = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - 0}{\operatorname{se}(\hat{\beta}_1)} = \frac{-0.6671}{0.2785} = -2.3949$$

• p-value:

$$p = 2 \mathbb{P}(Z > |-2.3949|) = 0.0166 < 0.05$$

- Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis that  $\beta_1 = 0$ .
- Estimate of OR for Mortality for Intensive vs Regular Care:

$$\hat{\psi} = \exp{\{\hat{\beta}_1\}} = \exp{\{-0.6670729\}} = 0.51.$$

• Confidence Interval for OR:

$$\begin{split} \exp\!\left\{\hat{\beta}_1 \pm 1.96 \sec(\hat{\beta}_1)\right\} &= \exp\{-0.6671 \pm 1.96(0.2785)\} \\ &= (\exp\{-1.2130\}, \exp\{-0.1211\}) \\ &= (0.30, 0.89) \end{split}$$

• The estimate and Wald 95% CI here match those found previously from the  $2\times 2$  table analysis. That is, the  $2\times 2$  table analysis is equivalent to a simple logistic regression with a single binary covariate.

#### Fit of Model 2: Main Effects Model

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2}.$$

```
model2 <- glm(resp ~ loc + clinic, family = binomial(link = logit), data = prenatal.dat)
summary(model2)$coefficients

Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -1.7410476 0.1784691 -9.7554560 1.748132e-22
loc -0.1503053 0.3301670 -0.4552402 6.489365e-01
clinic -0.9862793 0.3089322 -3.1925427 1.410261e-03
```

• What is the OR for mortality for Intensive vs Regular Care, now controlling for Clinic?

$$\widehat{\text{OR}} = \hat{\psi} = \exp\{-0.1503\} = 0.86.$$

• 95 % CI:

$$\exp\{-0.1503 \pm 1.96 \times 0.3302\} = (0.4505, 1.6436).$$

#### Fit of Model 3: Interaction Model

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 x_{i3}.$$

Level of Care	Clinic	$\boldsymbol{x}_i^\top$	$\log \bigl(\pi_i/(1-\pi_i)\bigr)$
Intensive	A	$(1,1,1)^{\top}$	$\beta_0 + \beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3$
Regular	Α	$(1,0,1)^{\top}$	$\beta_0 + \beta_2$
Intensive	В	$(1,1,0)^{\top}$	$\beta_0 + \beta_1$
Regular	В	$(1,0,0)^{\top}$	$eta_0$

• What is the OR for Mortality for Intensive vs Regular Care at Clinic A?

$$OR = \psi = \exp{\{\beta_1 + \beta_3\}} \implies \hat{\psi} = \exp{\{0.0076 - 0.2296\}} = 0.8.$$

- $\operatorname{se}(\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_3)$  is required for calculation of  $95\,\%$  CI.
  - Recall  $Var(\hat{\beta}) = I^{-1}(\hat{\beta})$ , now for any linear function of  $\beta$ 's, e.g.,  $c\beta$  where c is a row vector of constants, then MLE of  $c\beta$  is  $c\hat{\beta}$ , and  $se(\hat{c\beta}) = \sqrt{cI^{-1}(\hat{\beta})c^{\top}}$ .
- Therefore,  $\log(\psi) = \beta_1 + \beta_3 = c\beta$ , c = (0, 1, 0, 1). In R, vcov(model3) gives  $I^{-1}(\hat{\beta})$ .
- What is OR for Mortality for Intensive vs Regular Care at Clinic B?

$$OR = \psi = \exp{\{\beta_1\}} \implies \hat{\psi} = \exp{\{0.0076\}} = 1.01.$$

# Topic 3c: Likelihood Ratio Test for Logistic Regression Models

#### **Logistic Regression Models**

Recall major developments of Binomial logistic regression from last topic 3b:  $Y_i \sim BIN(m_i, \pi_i)$ , i = 1, ..., n independently, with covariate vector  $x_i$  and

$$\log\!\left(rac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}
ight) = oldsymbol{x}_i^ opoldsymbol{eta}.$$

- Estimation:  $\hat{\beta}$  come from Fisher scoring using R function glm().
- Interpretation:  $\exp\{\beta_i\}$  has OR interpretation.
- Hypothesis tests of  $H_0$ :  $\beta_i = 0$  using Wald statistic.
- Confidence Intervals:  $\hat{\beta}_j \pm z_{1-\alpha/2} \operatorname{se}(\hat{\beta}_j)$ .

## **Likelihood for Logistic Regression Models**

• Log-likelihood for Binomial Distribution:

$$\ell = \log \left( \prod_{i=1}^n \pi_i^{y_i} (1 - \pi_i)^{m_i - y_i} \right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \log \left( \frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i} \right) + m_i \log (1 - \pi_i).$$

• Using logit link we can re-parameterize the log-likelihood in terms of  $\beta$ :

$$\log\!\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}, \qquad \pi_i = \frac{\exp\{\boldsymbol{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}\}}{1+\exp\{\boldsymbol{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}\}}.$$

• Log likelihood for logistic regression:

$$\ell = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} - m_i \log (1 + \exp\{\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}\}).$$

- Maximization of log-likelihood  $\ell(\beta)$  gives MLE  $\hat{\beta}$ , and
  - estimated probability of response:

$$\hat{\pi}_i = \mathrm{e}^{oldsymbol{x}_i^{ op} \hat{oldsymbol{eta}}}/(1 + \mathrm{e}^{oldsymbol{x}_i^{ op} \hat{oldsymbol{eta}}}) = \mathsf{expit}(oldsymbol{x}_i^{ op} \hat{oldsymbol{eta}}),$$

- estimated number of responses:  $\hat{y}_i = m_i \hat{\pi}_i$ .
- Questions:
  - How good is the model? How well do the estimated number of events  $\hat{y}_i$  approximate the observed data  $y_i$ ? (goodness of fit).
  - How much worse is the fit of a model when several of the covariates are excluded? (nested models):

$$H_0: \beta_k = \beta_{k+1} = 0 \text{ vs } H_a: \beta_k \neq 0 \text{ or } \beta_{k+1} \neq 0.$$

#### **Likelihood Ratio Test (General Setting)**

- Suppose  $\ell(\theta)$  is the likelihood for a q-dimension parameter vector  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  and let
  - $\tilde{\theta}$  be the q-dim MLE of  $\theta$  (unconstrained/saturated, q=n),
  - $\hat{\theta}$  be the *p*-dim MLE of  $\theta$  (constrained/unsaturated, p < q).
- Hypotheses:
  - $H_0$ : the constrained model is adequate (i.e., as good as the unconstrained).
  - *H*<sub>A</sub>: constrained model is not adequate.
- Recall the Likelihood Ratio (LR) result:

Under 
$$H_0$$
:  $-2\log\left(\frac{L(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{L(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}\right) = -2\left[\ell(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) - \ell(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}})\right] \sim \chi_{q-p}^2$ .

• Reject  $H_0$  at  $\theta$  if

$$p$$
-value =  $\mathbb{P}\left(\chi_{q-p}^2 > -2\left[\ell(\hat{\theta}) - \ell(\tilde{\theta})\right]\right) < \alpha$ .

## Likelihood Ratio Test (Logistic Regression Model)

• Saturated (unconstrained) model MLEs:

$$\tilde{\pi}_i = \frac{y_i}{m_i}, \ i = 1, \dots, n.$$

- Binomial MLE without imposing any constraint.
- We will have  $\tilde{y}_i = m_i \tilde{\pi}_i = y_i$ , a perfect fit!
- Unsaturated (constrained) model MLEs:

$$\hat{\pi}_i = \operatorname{expit}(\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}).$$

- Regression models are a way of imposing constraints on the estimation of  $\pi_i$  through p-dim regression coefficients  $\beta$ .
- We will have fitted number of responses  $\hat{y}_i = m_i \hat{\pi}_i = m_i \operatorname{expit}(\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$ .
- Hypotheses:
  - $H_0$ : the p-dim model, e.g.,  $logit(\pi_i) = x_i^{\top} \beta$  is adequate.
  - $H_A$ : the p-dim model, e.g.,  $logit(\pi_i) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}$  is not adequate compared to the n-dim saturated model.
- Likelihood Ratio Statistic (also referred to as the Deviance):

$$\begin{split} D &= -2 \Big[ \ell(\hat{\pi}) - \ell(\tilde{\pi}) \Big] \\ &= -2 \bigg( \sum_{i=1}^n \Big( y_i \log(\hat{\pi}_i) + (m_i - y_i) \log(1 - \hat{\pi}_i) \Big) - \sum_{i=1}^n \Big( y_i \log(\tilde{\pi}_i) + (m_i - y_i) \log(1 - \tilde{\pi}_i) \Big) \bigg) \\ &= -2 \sum_{i=1}^n \bigg( y_i \log \bigg( \frac{y_i}{m_i \hat{\pi}_i} \bigg) + (m_i - y_i) \log \bigg( \frac{m_i - y_i}{m_i (1 - \hat{\pi}_i)} \bigg) \bigg). \end{split}$$

• The LR/Deviance can also be written in a general form as:

$$D = 2\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{2} \left( O_{ij} \log \left( \frac{O_{ij}}{E_{ij}} \right) \right).$$

- $O_{i1}=y_i,\,E_{i1}=m_i\hat{\pi}_i$  (observed and expected # of events).
- $O_{i2}=m_i-y_i,\,E_{i2}=m_i(1-\hat{\pi}_i)$  (observed and expected # of non-events).
- We expect  $D \sim \chi^2_{n-p}$  under  $H_0$ , and reject  $H_0$  if  $\mathbb{P}(\chi^2_{n-p} > D) < \alpha$ .
  - Unfortunately, this is not a great approximation.
  - Approximation is much better for testing nested unsaturated models though.

#### **Example: Prenatal Care Data**

• Model 2: Main Effects Model,

$$logit(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2}.$$

- $H_0$ : Model 2 is adequate.
- $H_A$ : Model 2 is not adequate compared to the saturated model.
- In R, the summary() output D is reported as the Residual Deviance.

```
model2 = glm(resp ~ loc + clinic, family = binomial(link = logit), data = prenatal.dat)
summary(model2)
Call:
glm(formula = resp ~ loc + clinic, family = binomial(link = logit),
   data = prenatal.dat)
Deviance Residuals:
-0.08521 0.25805 0.13909 -0.11719
Coefficients:
          Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 16.91763 on 3 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 0.10693 on 1 degrees of freedom
AIC: 23.262
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 3
```

- Deviance: D = 0.10693.
- p-value:  $\mathbb{P}(\chi_{n-n}^2 > D) = \mathbb{P}(\chi_1^2 > D) = 0.7436689 \gg 0.05$ .
- Do not reject the null hypothesis that Model 2 is adequate.

#### **Pearson Statistic**

• The Pearson statistic is another statistic that can be used for assessing "overall" fit (or goodness of fit) of a Binomial model:

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(y_i - m_i \hat{\pi}_i)^2}{m_i \hat{\pi}_i (1 - \hat{\pi}_i)}.$$

- As with LR/Deviance statistic,  $P \sim \chi^2_{n-p}$  under  $H_0$ : the model is adequate.
- Note that *P* has the general form:

$$P = \sum_{i} \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{V_i}.$$

- The  $\chi^2$  approximation is a bit better than for deviance statistic D.
- Both are poor if the sample size  $(m_i)$  is small though.

#### **Testing Nested Non-saturated Models**

• The previous LR/Deviance test was for an unsaturated model vs a saturated model.

• Now consider two unsaturated models (p < q < n).

$$logit(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{ip-1}$$
(1)

$$logit(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{ip-1} + \dots + \beta_{q-1} x_{iq-1}$$
(2)

- Model (1) is *nested* within Model (2).
- $H_0$ : Model (1) fits the data as well as Model (2).
  - $H_0$ :  $\beta_p = \cdots = \beta_{q-1} = 0$ .
- *H*<sub>A</sub>: Model (1) is inadequate compared to Model (2).
  - $H_A$ : at least one of  $\beta_p, \ldots, \beta_{q-1} \neq 0$ .

Model	Dimension	MLEs
(1) Reduced model	p	$\hat{\pi}_i$
(2) Full model	q	$ ilde{\pi}_i$
Saturated model	n	$ ilde{ ilde{\pi}}_i$

• LR/Deviance test of Model (1) vs Saturated Model:

$$D_0 = -2(\ell(\hat{\boldsymbol{\pi}}) - \ell(\tilde{\tilde{\boldsymbol{\pi}}})).$$

• LR/Deviance test of Model (2) vs Saturated Model:

$$D_{\mathsf{A}} = -2(\ell(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\pi}}) - \ell(\tilde{\tilde{\boldsymbol{\pi}}})).$$

• Now, we wish to conduct LR test of Model (1) vs Model (2):

$$\Delta D = D_0 - D_A = -2(\ell(\hat{\pi}) - \ell(\tilde{\pi})).$$

• It can be shown that under  $H_0$ : Model (1) is as adequate as Model (2),

$$\Delta D \sim \chi_{q-p}^2$$
.

- This approximation is much better than when testing an unsaturated model vs the saturated model.
- If  $p = \mathbb{P}(\chi_{q-p}^2 > \Delta D) < \alpha$ , reject  $H_0$ .
  - Reduced model does not fit the data as well as Full model.
  - One or more of covariates  $x_{ip}, \ldots, x_{iq-1}$  is important (i.e., associated with the response).

#### **Example: Prenatal Care Data**

• Summary of Deviance ("residual deviance") from R output:

Model	Covariates	Deviance	Parameters	n-p
1	loc	10.814378	2	2
2	loc + clinic	0.106928	3	1
3	<pre>loc + clinic + loc*clinic</pre>	0	4	0
4	clinic	0.314841	2	2

• Compare nested models:

```
- Model 2: logit(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2}.
- Model 4: logit(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_2 x_{i2}.
```

- Is level of care associated with fetal mortality after accounting for clinic?
  - $H_0$ : Model 4 is as adequate as Model 2 (e.g.,  $\beta_1 = 0$ ).
  - $H_A$ : Model 4 is inadequate compared to Model 2 (e.g.,  $\beta_1 \neq 0$ ).
- LR test for comparing Model 4 vs Model 2, or equivalently testing hypotheses:

$$H_0$$
:  $\beta_1 = 0$  vs  $H_A$ :  $\beta_1 \neq 0$ .

 We do not reject H<sub>0</sub> of no association between level and care and fetal mortality after controlling for Clinic.

```
model2 = glm(resp ~ loc + clinic, family = binomial, data = prenatal.dat)
model4 = glm(resp ~ clinic, family = binomial, data = prenatal.dat)
D = model4$deviance - model2$deviance
1 - pchisq(D, 2 - 1)
[1] 0.6484081
```

- This implies that level of care is no longer important when clinic is included in the model.
- It also implies that Model 4 is as adequate compared to Model 2.
- Finally, when testing a single parameter, e.g.,  $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = 0$ , LR/Deviance test result is consistent with the Wald test result provided in the R output:

```
model2 = glm(resp ~ loc + clinic, family = binomial, data = prenatal.dat)
summary(model2)
Call:
glm(formula = resp ~ loc + clinic, family = binomial, data = prenatal.dat)
Deviance Residuals:
                          3
-0.08521
          0.25805 0.13909 -0.11719
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -1.7410 0.1785 -9.755 < 2e-16 ***
                        0.3302 -0.455 0.64894
loc
            -0.1503
clinic
            -0.9863
                      0.3089 -3.193 0.00141 **
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
    Null deviance: 16.91763 on 3 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 0.10693 on 1 degrees of freedom
AIC: 23.262
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 3
```

## Summary of LR/Deviance Test for Logistic Regression

• For Binomial GLM with logit link the LR/Deviance test statistic is:

$$D = \sum_{i=1}^{n} 2\left(y_i \log\left(\frac{y_i}{m_i \hat{\pi}_i}\right) + (m_i - y_i) \log\left(\frac{m_i - y_i}{m_i (1 - \hat{\pi}_i)}\right)\right).$$

- This is reported as the "Residual Deviance" in R glm summary output.
- Deviance statistic *D* can be used to:
  - Test adequacy/goodness of fit of a non-saturated logistic model:

$$D \stackrel{H_0}{\sim} \chi_{n-p}^2$$
.

- Compare the fit of two nested-non saturated logistic models:

$$\Delta D = D_0 - D_A \stackrel{H_0}{\sim} \chi_{q-p}^2.$$

WEEK 5
3rd to 8th October

# Topic 3d: Residuals for Binomial Data and Neuroblastoma Example

## Recall: Residuals in Linear Regression Models

• Normal linear regression models (STAT 331),

$$y_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \varepsilon_i, \qquad \varepsilon_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2).$$

• Fitted values:

$$\hat{y}_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}.$$

· Residuals:

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

- The overall fit of the model and validity of the model assumptions are assessed using various *residual plots*, e.g.,
  - Residuals  $r_i$  vs fitted value  $\hat{y}_i$  plot (check normality and constant variance).
  - QQ plot of residuals  $r_i$ 's (check normality).

#### **Residuals for Binomial Data**

 When fit a logistic regression model to Binomial data, we evaluate the adequacy of the model by using the LR deviance test statistic:

$$\begin{split} D &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} 2 \left( y_i \log \left( \frac{y_i}{m_i \hat{\pi}_i} \right) + (m_i - y_i) \log \left( \frac{m_i - y_i}{m_i (1 - \hat{\pi}_i)} \right) \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i. \end{split}$$

• Deviance Residual:

$$r_i^D = \operatorname{sign}(y_i - m_i \hat{\pi}_i) \sqrt{|d_i|}.$$

			Stage		
Age (months)	I	II	III	IV	V
0-11	11/12	15/16	2/4	5/18	18/19
12-23	3/4	3/7	5/8	0/25	1/3
24+	4/5	4/12	3/15	3/93	2/5

• Under  $H_0$ : the model is adequate:

$$D = \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i \overset{\text{approx}}{\sim} \chi_{n-p}^2 \implies r_i^D \overset{\text{approx}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$

• We can use the plots of deviance residuals to assess whether  $r_i^D$ 's look independent observations from  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ .

#### **Example: Prenatal Care Data**

$$logit(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 clinic_i$$

• Pearson Residual:

$$r_i^P = \frac{y_i - m_i \hat{\pi}_i}{\sqrt{m_i \hat{\pi}_i (1 - \hat{\pi}_i)}} = \frac{O_i - E_i}{\sqrt{V_i}}.$$

• Under  $H_0$ : the model is adequate,

$$r_i^P \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$

• Note: if  $m_i \hat{\pi}_i < 5$  (or  $m_i (1 - \hat{\pi}_i) < 5$ ) for one or more cases, we should be concerned about the validity of the approximation ( $\chi^2$  or  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ ) and hence our conclusions.

#### Prognosis for Children with Neuroblastoma

- A study is conducted to investigate the probability of *disease-free survival* (surviving 2 years free of disease) following the treatment for neuroblastoma.
- Associated risk factors include age at diagnosis and stage of disease at diagnosis.
  - Cell entries are of the form y/m with y representing the number of patients surviving 2 years, and m representing the number of patients in that age-stage combination at the start of the study.
- As an initial look at the data, consider the marginal distributions.
  - Higher chance of survival at younger age at diagnosis.
  - Higher chance of survival with lower stage of disease at diagnosis.

			Stage			
Age (months)	I	II	III	IV	V	Total
0-11	11/12	15/16	2/4	5/18	18/19	51/69
12-23	3/4	3/7	5/8	0/25	1/3	12/47
24+	4/5	4/12	3/15	3/93	2/5	16/130
Total	18/21	22/35	10/27	8/136	21/27	79/246

## Setup Regression Models for Neuroblastoma Data

- Response Variable:
  - $Y_i$  is the number of 2-yr disease-free survivors out of  $m_i$  total children in group i, assume  $Y_i \sim \text{BIN}(m_i, \pi_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \ldots, 15$ , and

 $\pi_i = \mathbb{P}(2\text{-yr disease-free survival in group }i).$ 

- Explanatory Variables:
  - Age (0-11, 12-23, 24+ months); age 0-11 month is the baseline/reference,

$$x_{i1} = egin{cases} 1 & ext{if age 12-23 months} \\ 0 & ext{o.w.} \end{cases}$$
  $x_{i2} = egin{cases} 1 & ext{if age 24+ months} \\ 0 & ext{o.w.} \end{cases}$ 

- Stage (I, II, III, IV, V); stage 1 is the baseline/reference,

$$x_{i3} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{stage II} \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases} \qquad x_{i4} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if stage III} \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$
 
$$x_{i5} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if stage IV} \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases} \qquad x_{i6} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if stage III} \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

- Consider the following logistic regression models:
  - Model 1: Age & Stage

$$\mathsf{logit}(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \underbrace{\beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2}}_{\mathsf{Age}} + \underbrace{\beta_3 x_{i3} + \beta_4 x_{i4} + \beta_5 x_{i5} + \beta_6 x_{i6}}_{\mathsf{Stage}}.$$

- Model 2: Age only

$$logit(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2}.$$

- Model 3: Stage only

$$logit(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_3 x_{i3} + \beta_4 x_{i4} + \beta_5 x_{i5} + \beta_6 x_{i6}.$$

#### Fitting Logistic Regression Models Using R

```
neuro.dat = read.table("neuro.dat", header = T)
neuro.dat

age stage y m
1  1  1  11  12
2  1  2  15  16
3  1  3  2  4
```

```
4
  1 4 5 18
5
         5 18 19
    1
         1 3 4
6
    2
7
       2 3 7
   2
8
   2
        3 5 8
9
    2
        4 0 25
10
   2
       5 1 3
       1 4 5
11 3
12 3
       2 4 12
       3 3 15
13
   3
14 3
       4 3 93
15
   3
       5 2 5
# here we construct the response variable for logistic regression
neuro.dat$resp = cbind(neuro.dat$y, neuro.dat$m - neuro.dat$y)
neuro.dat
  age stage y m resp.1 resp.2
   1 1 11 12
                 11
1
         2 15 16
                        1
2
                  15
   1
                 2
3
       3 2 4
                        2
   1
       4 5 18
                  5
4
  1
                       13
5
  1
       5 18 19
                 18
                        1
6
    2
       1 3 4
                  3
                         1
7
   2
       2 3 7
                  3
                  5
8 2 3 5 8
       4 0 25
9
  2
                  0
                       25
  2
       5 1 3
10
                  1
11 3
       1 4 5
                  4
                        1
       2 4 12
12 3
        3 3 15
                  3
                        12
13 3
        4 3 93
14
   3
                   3
                        90
15 3
       5 2 5
                       3
neuro.datage < -factor(neuro.datage, levels = c(1, 2, 3), labels = c("0-11",
"12-23", "24+"))
neuro.dat$stage <- factor(neuro.dat$stage, levels = c(1, 2, 3, 4, 5), labels = c("I",</pre>
"II", "III", "IV", "V"))
```

#### Summary of Model 1: Age & Stage

$$\mathsf{logit}(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \underbrace{\beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2}}_{\mathsf{Age}} + \underbrace{\beta_3 x_{i3} + \beta_4 x_{i4} + \beta_5 x_{i5} + \beta_6 x_{i6}}_{\mathsf{Stage}}.$$

```
Call:
glm(formula = resp ~ age + stage, family = binomial(link = logit),
data = neuro.dat)

Deviance Residuals:
Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
-1.47408 -0.61913 -0.09643 0.53163 1.52114
```

```
Coefficients:
         Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) 3.3175 0.7721 4.297 1.73e-05 ***
age12-23 -2.1181 0.5736 -3.693 0.000222 ***
         -2.6130 0.5017 -5.208 1.91e-07 ***
age24+
stageII
         stageIII
stageIV
         -4.3678 0.7902 -5.528 3.25e-08 ***
          -1.0222 0.8644 -1.183 0.236980
stageV
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 162.832 on 14 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 9.625 on 8 degrees of freedom
AIC: 55.382
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

• Before interpreting these results too much, we should look to see how good the fit is to the data.

```
- fv1: \hat{\pi}_i = \operatorname{expit}(\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}).

- yhat: \hat{y}_i = m_i \hat{\pi}_i.

- rd1: r_i^D (deviance residual).

- rp1: r_i^P (Pearson residual).
```

```
y = neuro.dat$y
m = neuro.dat$m
fv1 = model1$fitted.values
yhat = m * fv1
rd1 = residuals.glm(model1, "deviance")
rp1 = (y - m * fv1)/sqrt(m * fv1 * (1 - fv1))
cbind(rd1, rp1, yhat, y)
         rd1
                   rp1
                           yhat y
1 -0.77808711 -0.91184050 11.580304 11
  3 -1.47407847 -1.69888561 3.294804 2
4 0.17884403 0.18019371 4.665014 5
  6 -0.08658336 -0.08736144 3.073705 3
7 -0.30801258 -0.30734393 3.406432 3
  1.52114028 1.56325351 2.877982 5
9 -1.43545385 -1.02556686 1.009324
10 -0.73520283 -0.73328264 1.632557
                                1
11 0.64949774 0.62163765 3.345991 4
12 -0.23825133 -0.23663531 4.394927 4
13 -0.50305728 -0.48993834 3.827214
14 0.42894854 0.44782015 2.325662
15 -0.09643089 -0.09619454 2.106206 2
```

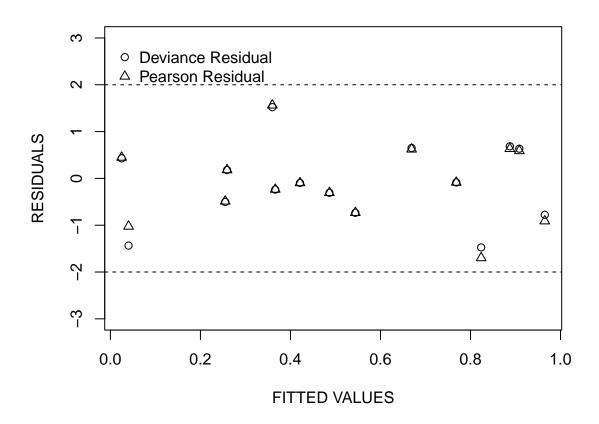


Figure 1: Plot of Residuals by Fitted Values for Neuroblastoma Data based on Logistic Regression Model with main effects of Age and Stage.

- Residuals are a random scatter around 0 and  $\in (-2,2)$  therefore  $r_i^D$  (or  $r_i^P$ )  $\sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ . Therefore, model 1 is adequate.
- We can test  $H_0$ : model 1 is adequate using LR/D statistic p-value =  $\mathbb{P}(\chi_8^2 > 9.625) > 0.05$ , do not reject  $H_0$ .

## Summary of Model 2: Age only

• Now we consider simplifying the model further by examining the decrease in the quality of the fit that results from dropping the stage variable(s).

$$logit(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2}.$$

```
model3 = glm(resp ~ age, family = binomial(link = logit), data = neuro.dat)
summary(model3)
Call:
glm(formula = resp ~ age, family = binomial(link = logit), data = neuro.dat)
Deviance Residuals:
    Min
             10
                 Median
                               30
-4.0853 -0.3591
                  1.5613
                           2.0684
                                    3.4667
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) 1.0415
                      0.2742 3.799 0.000145 ***
age12-23
            -2.1119
                        0.4325 -4.883 1.05e-06 ***
             -3.0051
                        0.3827 -7.853 4.06e-15 ***
age24+
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
    Null deviance: 162.832 on 14 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 83.583 on 12 degrees of freedom
AIC: 121.34
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5
```

#### **Summary of Model 3: Stage only**

• Now we fit the model excluding the age variable to examine the drop in the quality of fit from model 1.

$$logit(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_3 x_{i3} + \beta_4 x_{i4} + \beta_5 x_{i5} + \beta_6 x_{i6}.$$

```
model2 = glm(resp ~ stage, family = binomial(link = logit), data = neuro.dat)
summary(model2)
```

```
glm(formula = resp ~ stage, family = binomial(link = logit),
     data = neuro.dat)
Deviance Residuals:
     Min
           1Q Median 3Q
-2.0699 -1.5375 -0.5639 1.0444
                                             2.9391
Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) 1.7918 0.6236 2.873 0.00406 **
stageII -1.2657
                            0.7150 -1.770 0.07671 .

      stageIII
      -2.3224
      0.7401
      -3.138
      0.00170 **

      stageIV
      -4.5643
      0.7223
      -6.319
      2.63e-10 ***

      stageV
      -0.5390
      0.7766
      -0.694
      0.48768

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
     Null deviance: 162.832 on 14 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 42.446 on 10 degrees of freedom
AIC: 84.203
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5
```

## **Testing Nested Models**

• Now we can compare nested models using LR/Deviance Tests:

Model	Covariates	Deviance $(D)$	Parameters (p)	DF $(n-p)$
M1	Age & Stage	9.625	7	8
M2	Age	83.583	3	12
М3	Stage	42.446	5	10

• Recall:

$$\Delta D = D_0 - D_{\mathrm{A}} = -2 \left( \ell(\hat{\boldsymbol{\pi}}) - \ell(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\pi}}) \right) \sim \chi_{q-p}^2$$

- $D_0$  and  $D_A$  are deviances from the reduced and full models respectively.
- $\hat{\pi}$  and  $\tilde{\pi}$  represents the MLEs from the reduced and full models respectively.

Objective: Pick the model that best represents the important associations between the outcome and explanatory variables.

1. Is Stage important?

$$H_0\colon \beta_3=\dots=\beta_6=0$$
 (Model 2 is as adequate as Model 1)  $H_A\colon$  at least one of them is not 0 (Model 2 is not adequate) 
$$\Delta D=D_2-D_1=83.583-9.625=73.958$$

$$p = \mathbb{P}(\chi_{7-3}^2 > 73.958) < 0.001$$

```
1 - pchisq(83.583 - 9.625, 7 - 3)
[1] 3.330669e-15
```

We reject  $H_0$  and conclude that there is evidence that Stage is important.

2. Is Age important?

$$H_0\colon \beta_1=\beta_2=0$$
 (Model 3 is as adequate as Model 1)  $H_A\colon$  at least one of them is not 0 (Model 3 is not adequate) 
$$\Delta D=D_3-D_1=42.446-9.625=32.821$$
 
$$p=\mathbb{P}(\chi^2_{7-5}>32.821)<0.001$$

```
1 - pchisq(42.446 - 9.625, 7 - 5)
[1] 7.464666e-08
```

We reject  $H_0$  and conclude that there is evidence that Age is important.

3. Do we need an Age\*Stage interaction?

```
1 - pchisq(model1$deviance, model1$df.residual)
[1] 0.292341
```

$$p$$
-value =  $\mathbb{P}(\chi_8^2 > 9.625) = 0.292 > 0.05$ 

- Model with age, stage, and age\*stage is the saturated model!
- Do not reject  $H_0$ : model 1 is as adequate as the saturated model (interaction model).
- Do not need to consider age\*stage.

#### **Interpret the Selected Model**

So we select Model 1 for interpretation.

```
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
                              4.297 1.73e-05 ***
(Intercept) 3.3175 0.7721
           -2.1181
                     0.5736 -3.693 0.000222 ***
age12-23
age24+
           -2.6130
                     0.5017 -5.208 1.91e-07 ***
           -1.2529
stageII
                      0.7837 -1.599 0.109860
           -1.7759 0.8003 -2.219 0.026478 *
stageIII
stageIV
           -4.3678 0.7902 -5.528 3.25e-08 ***
                    0.8644 -1.183 0.236980
stageV
           -1.0222
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 162.832 on 14 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 9.625 on 8 degrees of freedom
AIC: 55.382
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

Q1: What is the odds ratio of 2 yr disease-free survival for a child aged 24+ months versus aged < 12 months?

Age	Stage	$\boldsymbol{x}_i^\top$	$\logig(\pi_i/(1-\pi_i)ig)$
0-11	_	$(1,0,0,x_{i3},x_{i4},x_{i5},x_{i6})^{\top}$	$\beta_0 + \beta_3 x_{i3} + \beta_4 x_{i4} + \beta_5 x_{i5} + \beta_6 x_{i6}$
24+	_	$(1,0,1,x_{i3},x_{i4},x_{i5},x_{i6})^{\top}$	$\beta_0 + \beta_2 + \beta_3 x_{i3} + \beta_4 x_{i4} + \beta_5 x_{i5} + \beta_6 x_{i6}$

• The odds ratio is therefore  $\psi = \exp{\{\beta_2\}}$ , its MLE is:

$$\hat{\psi} = \exp\{\hat{\beta}_2\} = \exp\{-2.614\} = 0.0733.$$

• The 95 % CI for this odds ratio is:

$$\exp\{\hat{\beta}_2 \pm 1.96 \operatorname{se}(\hat{\beta}_2)\} = \exp\{-2.613 \pm 1.96 \times 0.5017\} = (0.0274, 0.1960).$$

- When controlling for stage at the diagnosis, the odds of 2-yr DFS for children aged 24+ months is only about 7% [95% CI: (0.0274,0.1960)] of that for those aged less than 12 months.
- Q2: What is the odds ratio of 2 yr disease-free survival for a child with stage V versus stage II cancer?

• The odds ratio is therefore  $\psi = \exp{\{\beta_6 - \beta_3\}}$ , its MLE is:

$$\hat{\psi} = \exp{\{\hat{\beta}_6 - \hat{\beta}_3\}} = \exp{\{-1.022 + 1.253\}} = 1.26.$$

• When controlling for age at the diagnosis, the odds of a 2-yr DFS for those diagnosed in stage V is 1.26 times of that for those diagnosed in stage II.

Q3: What is the 95 % CI for OR  $\psi = \exp{\{\beta_6 - \beta_3\}}$ ?

1. Finding the 95% CI for  $\eta = \beta_6 - \beta_3 = C\beta$ , where

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Standard error for  $\hat{\eta} = \hat{\beta}_6 - \hat{\beta}_3 = C^{\top} \hat{\beta}$ :

$$\begin{split} \widehat{\mathsf{Var}}(\hat{\pmb{\beta}}) &= \pmb{I}^{-1}(\hat{\pmb{\beta}}) \\ \mathsf{se}(C\pmb{\beta}) &= \sqrt{C\pmb{I}^{-1}(\hat{\pmb{\beta}})C^\top}. \end{split}$$

The 95 % CI for  $\eta = \beta_6 - \beta_3$  is:

$$\hat{\eta} \pm 1.96 \, \mathrm{se}(\hat{\eta}) = (-1.0222 + 1.2529) \pm 1.96 \times 0.6729 = (-1.0882, 1.5496).$$

2. Exponentiate it to obtain the 95 % CI for  $\psi = \exp{\{\eta\}} = \exp{\{\beta_6 - \beta_3\}}$ :

$$\exp{\{\hat{\eta} \pm 1.96 \operatorname{se}(\hat{\eta})\}} = (0.3368, 4.7098).$$

# **Topic 3e: Dose-Response Models**

#### **Bioassay Experiments**

- Bioassay experiment: Several groups of subjects are exposed to varying levels of a drug/toxin to determine how many responses within a fixed period of time.
- Stimulus: Each group is subjected to a particular dose of the drug/toxin:

$$dose = log(concentration)$$

- Response: As a result of the stimulus, subjects will often manifest a binary response indicating the occurrence of an adverse event (e.g., death).
- Tolerance: We assume that for each subject there is a certain dose level above which the response will always occur.
  - This level is called the tolerance or threshold.
  - The tolerance varies from one individual to another in the population and therefore from subject to subject in the sample.
  - We can therefore ascribe a distribution to it.

#### The Tolerance Distribution

- z = concentration of the stimulus (toxin/drug).
- $x = \log(z) = \text{dose/intensity of the stimulus}$ .
- f(x) = pdf for the distribution of the tolerance in the population (i.e., the distribution for the stimulus/dose at which response occurs).
- Suppose a dose of  $x_0$  were applied to the population. What proportion would respond?

$$\pi_0 = \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} f(s) \, \mathrm{d}s = F(x_0)$$

• If  $x_0 < x_1$ , then  $\pi_0 < \pi_1$ .

## Modelling the Dose-Response Relationship

For each group i = 1, ..., n let:

- $x_i =$ dose applied to subjects in group i,
- $m_i$  = number of subjects in group i,
- $y_i$  = the number of subjects with response in group i.

Dose	Responders	Total	
$x_i$	$y_i$	$m_i$	$y_i/m_i$
1.6907	6	59	0.10
1.7242	13	60	0.22
1.7552	18	62	0.29
:	:	÷	÷

• Assume

$$Y_i \sim BIN(m_i, \pi_i), i = 1, \ldots, n,$$

 $\pi_i$  = probability of response in group i with dose  $x_i$ .

- Objective: To model probability of response  $\pi_i$  as a function of dose  $x_i$ .
- Binomial Regression Models:

$$g(\pi_i) = \eta_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i,$$

where  $g(\cdot)$  is a choice of link function.

· Then we have:

$$\pi_i = g^{-1}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i),$$

that is, the probability of response as a function of dose  $x_i$  via  $g^{-1}(\cdot)$ .

- Question: What link function should we select?
- Realize that:
  - If we assume a tolerance distribution f(x), the probability of response to dose  $x_i$  is:

$$\pi_i = \int_{-\infty}^{x_i} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = F(x_i).$$

– With a Binomial regression model and a link function  $g(\cdot)$ , we have:

$$\pi_i = g^{-1}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i).$$

• These suggest that the choice of the tolerance distribution determines the form of the link function, i.e., selecting  $g(\,\cdot\,)$  such that  $g^{-1}(\,\cdot\,)$  is a cdf:

$$\pi_i = g^{-1}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i) = F^*(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i).$$

#### Some Choices for the Tolerance Distribution

1 Normal Tolerance Distribution:

$$\begin{split} \pi(x) &= \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(s) \, \mathrm{d}s \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{s-\mu}{\sigma} \right)^2 \right\} \mathrm{d}s \\ &= \Phi \left( \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} \right) \end{split}$$

where  $\Phi$  is the  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$  cdf. This implies that

$$\Phi^{-1}(\pi) = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma},$$

i.e., the Probit link s.t.,

$$g(\pi) = \Phi^{-1}(\pi) = -\frac{\mu}{\sigma} + \frac{1}{\sigma}x = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x.$$

A Binomial Probit Model:

$$\Phi^{-1}(\pi) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x.$$

How do we interpret  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ ?

- They are no longer log odds ratios (as with logistic link)
- Interpretation is in terms of  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  the parameters of the Normal distribution for tolerance, i.e.,

$$\beta_0 = -\frac{\mu}{\sigma}, \qquad \beta_1 = \frac{1}{\sigma}.$$

2 Logistic Distribution:

$$f(x;\mu,s) = \frac{\exp\left\{-\frac{x-\mu}{s}\right\}}{s\left\lceil 1 + \exp\left\{-\frac{x-\mu}{s}\right\}\right\rceil^2}, \ s>0, \ \mathbb{E}[X] = \mu.$$

The probability of response:

$$\pi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(x; \mu, s) \, \mathrm{d}s = \left[1 + \exp\left\{-\frac{x - \mu}{s}\right\}\right]^{-1}$$
 
$$1 - \pi(x) = \frac{\exp\left\{-\frac{x - \mu}{s}\right\}}{1 + \exp\left\{-\frac{x - \mu}{s}\right\}}$$
 
$$\log\left(\frac{\pi(x)}{1 - \pi(x)}\right) = \frac{x - \mu}{s}.$$

This implies the Logit link s.t.,

$$g(\pi) = \text{logit}(\pi) = -\frac{\mu}{s} + \frac{1}{s}x = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x.$$

## (3) Extreme Value Distribution:

$$f(x;\mu,s) = \frac{1}{s} \exp\left\{\frac{x-\mu}{s} - \exp\left\{\frac{x-\mu}{s}\right\}\right\}, \ s > 0.$$

The probability of response:

$$\begin{split} \pi(x) &= \int_{-\infty}^x f(x;\mu,s) \,\mathrm{d}s \\ &= 1 - \exp \left\{ - \exp \left\{ -\frac{x-\mu}{s} \right\} \right\} \\ \log \Big( - \log \big( 1 - \pi(x) \big) \Big) &= \frac{x-\mu}{s}. \end{split}$$

This implies the Complementary log-log link s.t.,

$$g(\pi) = \log(-\log(1-\pi)) = -\frac{\mu}{s} + \frac{1}{s}x = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x.$$

Tolerance Distribution	Link Function	Dose-Response Model
Normal	Probit	$\Phi^{-1}(\pi) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$
Logistic	Logit	$logit(\pi) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$
Extreme Value	Complementary log-log	$\log(-\log(1-\pi)) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$

#### Median Lethal/Effective Dose

- The median lethal/effective dose (ED50) is the dose at which 50% of the population has the response.
- That is, if we let  $\delta$  be the ED50, then by definition:

$$\pi(\delta) = \int_{-\infty}^{\delta} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = 0.50.$$

• How do we find the expression of  $\delta$  given a Dose-Response model? Suppose we fit a Binomial Probit model (i.e., Normal tolerance distribution):

$$\Phi^{-1}(\pi) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x.$$

Note that at dose  $\delta$  (ED50),  $\pi = 0.50$ .

$$\Phi^{-1}(0.50) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \delta$$
$$0 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \delta$$
$$\delta = -\frac{\beta_0}{\beta_1}$$

## A Dose-Response Example — Beetle Mortality

#### **Beetle Mortality**

Consider an experiment by Bliss (Annals of Applied Biology, 1935) in which groups of beetles were exposed to varying concentrations of carbon disulphide ( $CS_2$ ) gas.

	# of insects	# of insects	
Dose $(x_i)$	killed ( $x_i$ )	$m_i$	$y_i/m_i$
1.6907	6	59	0.10
1.7242	13	60	0.22
1.7552	18	62	0.29
1.7842	28	56	0.50
1.8113	52	63	0.83
1.8369	53	59	0.89
1.8610	61	62	0.98
1.8839	60	60	1.00

- Objective: modelling the dose-response relationship.
- We will fit several binomial regression models to this data:

$$g(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i,$$

where  $x_i = \text{dose in group } i, i = 1, \dots, 8$ .

- Various link functions will be used to find the best fitted model:
  - Logistic link.
  - Probit link.
  - Cloglog link.

## Dose-Response Analysis using R

```
# read beetle data
beetle.dat = read.table("beetle.dat", header = T)
# here we construct the response variable for Binomial regression
beetle.dat$resp <- cbind(beetle.dat$y, beetle.dat$m - beetle.dat$y)</pre>
beetle.dat
    dose y m resp.1 resp.2
1 1.6907 6 59
                    6
                          53
2 1.7242 13 60
                    13
                           47
3 1.7552 18 62
                   18
                           44
                    28
                           28
4 1.7842 28 56
5 1.8113 52 63
                    52
                          11
6 1.8369 53 59
                    53
                            6
7 1.8610 61 62
                    61
                            1
8 1.8839 60 60
                    60
```

## Fit of the Logistic Model

```
model1 = glm(resp ~ dose, family = binomial(link = logit), data = beetle.dat)
summary(model1)
Call:
```

```
glm(formula = resp ~ dose, family = binomial(link = logit), data = beetle.dat)
Deviance Residuals:
   Min 10 Median
-1.5941 -0.3944 0.8329 1.2592 1.5940
Coefficients:
          Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
                    5.181 -11.72 <2e-16 ***
(Intercept) -60.717
                        2.912 11.77 <2e-16 ***
dose
            34.270
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
    Null deviance: 284.202 on 7 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 11.232 on 6 degrees of freedom
AIC: 41.43
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

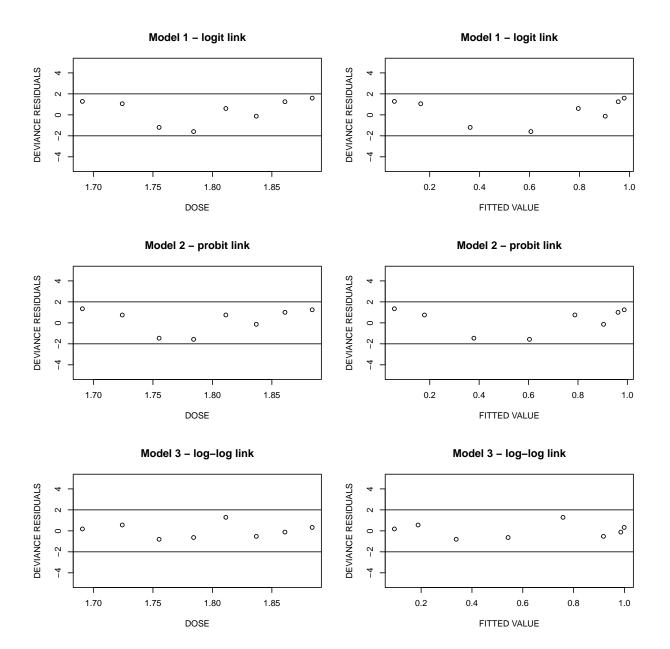
#### Fit of the Probit Model

```
model2 = glm(resp ~ dose, family = binomial(link = probit), data = beetle.dat)
summary(model2)
Call:
glm(formula = resp ~ dose, family = binomial(link = probit),
    data = beetle.dat)
Deviance Residuals:
   Min 10 Median
                           30
                                      Max
-1.5714 -0.4703 0.7501 1.0632 1.3449
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -34.935
                       2.648 -13.19 <2e-16 ***
                        1.487 13.27 <2e-16 ***
            19.728
dose
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
    Null deviance: 284.20 on 7 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 10.12 on 6 degrees of freedom
AIC: 40.318
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

# Fit of the Complementary Log-log Model

```
model3 = glm(resp ~ dose, family = binomial(link = cloglog), data = beetle.dat)
summary(model3)
Call:
glm(formula = resp ~ dose, family = binomial(link = cloglog),
    data = beetle.dat)
Deviance Residuals:
    Min 1Q
                  Median
                                         Max
                           3Q
-0.80329 -0.55135 0.03089 0.38315
                                    1.28883
Coefficients:
          Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -39.572 3.240 -12.21 <2e-16 ***
dose
           22.041
                       1.799 12.25 <2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
    Null deviance: 284.2024 on 7 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 3.4464 on 6 degrees of freedom
AIC: 33.644
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

## **Deviance Residual Plots**



## Choice of Tolerance Distribution or Binomial Model

• Observed probability of response:

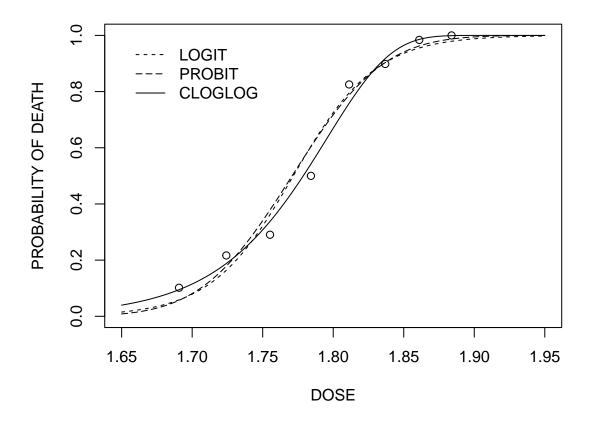
$$\tilde{\pi}_i = \frac{y_i}{m_i}.$$

• Fitted probability of response:

$$\hat{\pi}_i = g^{-1}(\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i).$$

- The tolerance distribution (or the Binomial model) that provides the "best" agreement between the observed and fitted probability of response is the one that fits the data the "best."
- We can check this by plotting the observed and fitted probability of response  $\tilde{\pi}_i$  and  $\hat{\pi}_i$ , against dose  $x_i$ .

#### **Fitted Dose-Response Curves**



- Note that the curve for the complementary log-log link fits the data better than the other two, as expect from the residual plots and the deviance statistics.
- (The R code for generating above plot see course notes, 2.10.3, page 47).

#### **Interpretation of Dose-Response Models**

- Interpretation of regression parameter  $\beta_1$  will depend on the link function.
  - Logistic model:  $logit(\pi) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ .
    - \*  $\beta_1 = \log$  odds ratio for response associated with a one unit increase in dose.
  - Probit model:  $\Phi^{-1}(\pi) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ , or Complementary log-log model  $\log(-\log(1-\pi)) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ , interpretation of  $\beta$  parameters is not as natural as in logistic models.
- Estimation of  $\delta$  (ED50) from a Binomial model  $g(\pi) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ :

$$g(\pi = 0.5) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \delta \implies \hat{\delta} = \frac{g(0.5) - \hat{\beta}_0}{\hat{\beta}_1}.$$

• Exercise: What is  $\delta_{0.25}$ , the dose at which 25% of the population has the response?

WEEK 7 18th to 22nd October

## **Topic 3f: Summary of Binomial Regression Models**

## **Binomial GLM Specification**

•  $Y_i \sim \text{BIN}(m_i, \pi_i), i = 1, \dots, n$  independently and

$$g(\pi_i) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta},$$

where

- $x_i$  is a vector of explanatory variables,
- $\pi_i$  is the probability of event of interest,
- $g(\cdot)$  is a link function that relates explanatory variables  $x_i$  to probability  $\pi_i$ , and
- $\beta$  is a vector of regression parameters.
- When using the canonical link of Binomial distribution, i.e.,  $g(\cdot) = \text{logit}(\cdot)$ , we have

$$\mathsf{logit}(\pi_i) = \mathsf{log}igg(rac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}igg) = oldsymbol{x}_i^ opoldsymbol{eta},$$

which is called a *logistic regression model* which is commonly used in practice.

#### **Parameters Estimation**

- Likelihood methods are used for parameter estimating and inference.
- MLE  $\hat{\beta}$  come from Fisher Scoring using R function glm().
- Interpretation:  $\beta_k$  has a log OR interpretation for logistic models.
- Variance covariance estimate for  $\hat{\beta} = \widehat{\mathsf{Var}}(\hat{\beta}) = \mathbf{I}^{-1}(\hat{\beta})$ , where  $\mathbf{I}^{-1}$  is the inverse of the information matrix evaluated at MLE  $\hat{\beta}$ .
- Standard error:  $\operatorname{se}(\hat{\beta}_k) = \sqrt{\left[ I^{-1}(\hat{\beta}) \right]_{kk}} = \sqrt{I^{kk}(\hat{\beta})}.$
- Wald-test of a single parameter:  $H_0$ :  $\beta_k = \beta^*$  vs  $H_A$ :  $\beta_k \neq \beta^*$ :

$$\frac{(\hat{\beta}_k - \beta^*)^2}{I^{kk}(\hat{\beta}_k)} \stackrel{H_0}{\sim} \chi_1^2,$$

or

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_k - \beta^*}{\mathsf{se}(\hat{\beta}_k)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \text{ under } H_0.$$

For testing  $H_0$ :  $\beta_k = 0$ , we have  $\frac{\hat{\beta_k}}{\sec(\hat{\beta_k})}$ , reported as "z-value" in glm() summary.

• Confidence interval for a single  $\beta_k$ :

$$\hat{\beta}_k \pm Z_{1-\alpha/2} \operatorname{se}(\hat{\beta}_k).$$

• Confidence interval for  $\eta_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}$ :

$$\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \pm Z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{I}^{-1}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \boldsymbol{x}_i},$$

or equivalently

$$\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \pm Z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \widehat{\mathsf{Var}}(\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \boldsymbol{x}_i}.$$

How about CI for  $\pi_i = \text{expit}(\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta})$ ?

## **Model Checking and Selection**

• LR/Deviance: Recall LR =  $-2\log\left(\frac{L(\hat{\pi})}{L(\tilde{\pi})}\right) = -2\left(\ell(\hat{\pi}) - \ell(\tilde{\pi})\right)$ .

$$\begin{split} D &= -2 \big[ \ell(\hat{\pi}) - \ell(\tilde{\pi}) \big] \\ &= -2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i \log \left( \frac{y_i}{m_i \hat{\pi}_i} \right) + (m_i - y_i) \log \left( \frac{m_i - y_i}{m_i (1 - \hat{\pi}_i)} \right) \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i. \end{split}$$

• LR/Deviance test for adequacy of a model ( $H_0$ : fitted model is as adequate as the saturated model):

$$D \sim \chi_{n-p}^2$$
 under  $H_0$ .

• LR/Difference in Deviance test for *comparing nested models* (*H*<sub>0</sub>: reduced/simpler model is as adequate as the fitted model):

$$\Delta D = D_0 - D_{\rm A} \sim \chi^2_{p-q}$$
 under  $H_0$ .

• Deviance Residuals:

$$r_i^D = \operatorname{sign}(y_i - m_i \hat{\pi}_i) \sqrt{|d|},$$

where  $r_i^D$ 's should behave like an iid sample from  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$  for a well-fitted model.

- Residuals plots:
  - deviance residual vs fitted value (i.e.,  $r_i^D$  vs  $\hat{\pi}_i$ ),
  - deviance residual vs covariate (i.e.,  $r_i^D$  vs  $x_i$ ).
  - In both cases, we expect a pattern of random scatter around 0, within (-2,2).
- Residual plots can be used to evaluate the fit of a model or compare multiple models in general.
  - For example, non-nested models, using different link functions.

#### Binomial Model for Dose-Response Relationship

- Dose:  $X = \log(\text{concentration})$ .
- Tolerance distribution is f(x) and probability of responding to dose x is:

$$\pi(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = F(x).$$

• Binomial GLMs can be utilized to evaluate the dose-response relationship:

$$g(\pi) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

In every case,

Link	Tolerance Distribution	
Logit Probit	$\operatorname{Logistic}(\mu, s)$ $\operatorname{Normal}(\mu, s)$	
Cloglog	Extreme Value( $\mu, s$ )	

$$\beta_0 = -\frac{\mu}{s}, \qquad \beta_1 = \frac{1}{s}.$$

• Estimation of the *median lethal/effective dose* ( $\delta_{0.5}$ ):

$$g(0.5) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \delta_{0.5} \implies \delta_{0.5} = \frac{g(0.5) - \hat{\beta}_0}{\hat{\beta}_1}.$$

ullet Calculation of dose related to  $q^{\mathrm{th}}$  percentile of response.

# Topic 4a: Poisson GLMs for Count Data

#### The Poisson Distribution

• Recall for  $Y \sim POI(\mu)$ ,

$$f(y) = \frac{\mu^y e^{-\mu}}{y!} = \exp\{y \log(\mu) - \mu - \log(y!)\}, \ \mu > 0, \ y = 0, 1, 2, \dots.$$

Examples of count data:

- Health service, # of emergency visits, # of hospitalizations.
- Insurance, # of claims.
- Engineering/manufacturing, # of defects.
- The Poisson is a member of the *exponential family* with

$$\begin{split} \theta &= \log(\mu), \\ a(\phi) &= \phi = 1, \\ b(\theta) &= e^{\theta} = \mu, \\ c(y;\theta) &= -\log(y!). \end{split}$$

• Mean and variance:

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = b'(\theta) = e^{\theta} = \mu,$$

$$\operatorname{Var}(Y) = b''(\theta)a(\phi) = e^{\theta} = \mu.$$

Therefore,  $\mathbb{E}[Y] = \mathsf{Var}(Y)$ .

• The Canonical link:

$$\theta = \eta \implies \log(\mu) = \eta = x^{\top}\beta,$$

the log link,  $g(\mu) = \log(\mu)$ , is the canonical link.

## Poisson Log Linear Model and Likelihood Function

• Now, suppose we have a random sample of size n:

$$Y_i \sim POI(\mu_i), i = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

and association with each  $y_i$  there is a covariate vector  $\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} = (1, x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip-1})^{\top}$ .

· The likelihood and log-likelihood are then

$$\begin{split} L(\boldsymbol{\mu}) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{\mu_i^{y_i} e^{-\mu_i}}{y_i!}, \\ \ell(\boldsymbol{\mu}; \boldsymbol{y}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \big( y_i \log(\mu_i) - \mu_i - \log(y_i!) \big). \end{split}$$

• Using the Canonical link (i.e., log link):

$$\log(\mu_i) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} x_{ij} \beta_j,$$

which is referred to as log linear regression because the use of the log link.

• We can obtain the log-likelihood in terms of  $\beta$  by substitution:

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\mu}; \boldsymbol{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \log(\mu_i) - \mu_i - \log(y_i!))$$
  
=  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} - \exp{\{\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}\}} - \log(y_i!)).$ 

#### Estimation of $\beta$ from log linear regression

• The  $j^{\text{th}}$  contribution to the Score vector is:

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \beta_j} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i x_{ij} - x_{ij} \exp\{\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}\}).$$

• The (j, k) element of the Information Matrix is:

$$-\frac{\partial^2 \ell}{\partial \beta_j \, \partial \beta_k} = \sum_{i=1}^n \bigl( x_{ij} x_{ik} \exp\{ \boldsymbol{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} \} \bigr).$$

- These can also be found using general exponential family results.
- Use the above to estimate  $\hat{\beta}$  via Fisher Scoring.

#### Poisson Deviance/LR Tests

- Let  $\tilde{\mu}_i$  be the MLE under the saturated model (i.e.,  $\tilde{\mu}_i = y_i$  which is the Poisson MLE for  $\mu_i$ ).
- Let  $\hat{\mu}_i$  be the MLE under a p-dimensional constrained model (e.g.,  $\hat{\mu}_i \exp\{x_i^{\top} \hat{\beta}\}$ ).
- Recall the Likelihood Ratio or Deviance Statistic has the form:

$$D = -2\log\biggl(\frac{L(\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})}{L(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}})}\biggr) = 2\bigl(\ell(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) - \ell(\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})\bigr).$$

• Under  $H_0$ : constrained model is as adequate as saturated model, we have the following asymptotic distribution result:

$$D \sim \chi_{n-p}^2.$$

• For the Poisson we have:

$$\begin{split} D &= 2\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \left( y_i \log(\tilde{\mu}_i) - \tilde{\mu}_i \right) - \left( y_i \log(\hat{\mu}_i) - \hat{\mu}_i \right) \right) \\ &= 2\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i \log\left(\frac{y_i}{\hat{\mu}_i}\right) - \left( y_i - \hat{\mu}_i \right) \right) \\ &= 2\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( O_i \log\left(\frac{O_i}{E_i}\right) - \left( O_i - E_i \right) \right). \end{split}$$

• Question: does the Deviance Statistic have the form as the Binomial case, i.e.,

$$D = 2\sum O_i \log \left(\frac{O_i}{E_i}\right)$$
?

When there is an intercept included in the Poisson log-linear model:

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \beta_0} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_0} \bigg[ \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \boldsymbol{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} - \exp\{\boldsymbol{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}\} \bigg] = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu_i) \implies \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\mu}_i) = 0,$$

then the Deviance takes the form

$$D = 2\sum_{i=1}^n y_i \log \left(\frac{y_i}{\hat{\mu}_i}\right) = 2\sum_{i=1}^n O_i \log \left(\frac{O_i}{E_i}\right).$$

- Use the Deviance to test nested models:
  - $H_0$ : the reduced model with p parameters is adequate versus

$$\log(\mu_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{ip-1}$$

-  $H_A$ : the full model with q parameters (p < q)

$$\log(\mu_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x_{ip-1} + \dots + \beta_{q-1} x_{iq-1}.$$

• LR/Difference in Deviance test statistic:

$$\Delta D = D_0 - D_A \sim \chi_{q-p}^2$$
 under  $H_0$ .

• The *p*-value for this test is given by:

$$p\text{-value} = \mathbb{P}(\chi_{q-p}^2 > \Delta D).$$

#### **Deviance Residuals**

• We can write the Deviance as a sum:

$$D = 2\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i \log \left( \frac{y_i}{\hat{\mu}_i} \right) - (y_i - \hat{\mu}_i) \right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i.$$

• The Deviance Residuals are given by:

$$r_i^D = \operatorname{sign}(y_i - \hat{\mu}_i) \sqrt{|d_i|},$$

and are approximately  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$  if  $H_0$  holds.

• We can use the residual plots to evaluate the fit of a model.

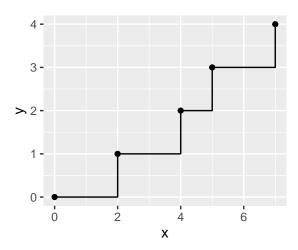
#### **Regression for Poisson Processes**

- The Poisson distribution assumes a *common observation period* for all individuals, so that the number of event does not depend on the time at risk.
- However, this may not be the case for many situations in practice.

#### Counting Process N(t)

A counting process N(t) is any non-decreasing integer function of time such that N(0) = 0 and N(t) is the number of events occurring in (0,t].

- Example: Suppose events occurred at times (2, 4, 5, 7).
- Draw a plot of N(t) versus t:



#### Poisson Process N(t)

A counting process N(t) is a Poisson process if it satisfies:

1. Independent increments: For  $s_1 < t_1 < s_2 < t_2$ :

$$N(t_1) - N(s_1) = \#$$
 events in  $(s_1, t_1]$ ,

is independent of

$$N(t_2) - N(s_2) = \#$$
 events in  $(s_2, t_2]$ .

2. The number of events over (0,t] has a Poisson distribution, i.e.,

$$\mathbb{P}(N(t) = n; \lambda) = \frac{(\lambda t)^n e^{-\lambda t}}{n!}, \ \lambda > 0, \ n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

• Expected number of events in (0, t] is

$$\mathbb{E}[N(t)] = \mu(t) = \lambda t.$$

Parameter  $\lambda$  is a constant representing the *rate* of occurrence of the event per unit of time:

$$\lambda$$
 = rate parameter,

t =length of observation period.

- Since  $\lambda$  is constant (not a function of t) we call this a time homogeneous Poisson process.
- Use the log link to do regression:

$$\log(\mu(t)) = \log(\lambda t) = \log(\lambda) + \log(t).$$

For each subject i = 1, ..., n we observe:

- $N_i(t_i)$  = the number of events observed over  $(0, t_i]$ .
- Explanatory variables:  $\boldsymbol{x}_i = (1, x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip-1})^{\top}$ .

#### Log Linear Regression Model for a Time Homogeneous Poisson Process

$$\begin{split} \log \left( \mu_i(t_i) \right) &= \log(\lambda_i) + \log(t_i) \\ &= \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \log(t_i) \end{split} \qquad \text{e.g., } \log(\lambda_i) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}. \end{split}$$

- The term  $log(t_i)$  is called an "offset term".
- It accounts for different lengths of observation.
- It explains some variation in the event counts across subjects, but does so in a deterministic way.

Next week: an example of fitting Poisson GLM using R.

WEEK 8 25th to 29th October

# **Topic 4b: Ship Damage Example**

### **Recall: Regression for Poisson Processes**

- 1. Fitting the main effects log linear model:
  - Introduction of the data set.
  - Model 1: main effects + offset(log(months)).
- 2. Model selection:
  - Use Deviance tests of nested non-saturated models.
- 3. Model interpretation:
  - Show that  $\beta_k$  has log relative rate interpretation.
  - Wald based confidence intervals and hypothesis tests.

#### **Example: Ship Damage Incidents**

#### Example: Ship Damage Incidents

- McCullagh and Nelder (1989) discuss the analysis of a data set which records the number of times a certain type of damage incident occurs in cargo ships.
- · Damage is caused by waves and occurs in the forward section of various cargo carrying vessels
- In order to prevent this type of damage from occurring in the future, the investigators want to identify risk factors including:
  - Ship type (A-E),
  - **Year of construction** (1960-1964; 1965-1969; 1970-1974; 1975-1979),
  - Period of operation (1960-1974; 1975-1979).

### **Ship Damage Data Set**

In the dataset we have adopted the following coding conventions:

- type: The ship type variable is (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) for ship types A, B, C, D, and E, respectively
- cyr: The year of construction variable is (1, 2, 3, 4) for eras 1960-1964, 1965-1969, 1970-1974, and 1975-1979, respectively
- oyr: The year of operation variable is 1 for 1960-74 and 2 for 1975-1979
- months: The total number of months of operation for ships of that type and construction year during the period of operation
- y: The number of damage incidents for ships of that type and construction year during the period of operation

## Ship Damage Data Set (ship.dat)

```
First ten rows of ship.dat:
  type cyr oyr months y
1
    1
       1
           1
               127 0
2
           2
     1
        1
                63 0
3
        2
           1 1095 3
    1
    1 2
4
          2 1095 4
5
    1 3
          1 1512 6
           2 3353 18
6
    1 3
7
    1 4 2 2244 11
8
    2 1 1 44882 39
     2 1 2 17176 29
9
    2 2 1 28609 58
10
```

## R Code & Output (Models 1 and 2)

```
# input dataset and create factor variables
ship.dat <- read.table("ship.dat", header = T)
ship.dat$typef <- factor(ship.dat$type)
ship.dat$cyrf <- factor(ship.dat$cyr)
ship.dat$oyrf <- factor(ship.dat$oyr)
ship.dat
# fitting the main effects with the offset term
model1 <- glm(y ~ typef + cyrf + oyrf + offset(log(months)), family = poisson,
    data = ship.dat)
summary(model1)
# fitting all main effects (treating offset as a covariate for
# diagnostics)
model2 <- glm(y ~ typef + cyrf + oyrf + log(months), family = poisson,
    data = ship.dat)
summary(model2)</pre>
```

## Model 1: Main effects + offset(log(months))

- Time homogenous Poisson process:  $\mathbb{E}[N_i(t_i)] = \mu_t(t_i) = \lambda t_i$ .
- Log linear regression model:

where

$$\log(\mu_i(t_i)) = \log(\lambda_i) + \log(t_i) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \log(t_i).$$

• Ship Damage main effects model:

$$\log(\mu_{i}(t_{i})) = \beta_{0} + \overbrace{\beta_{1}x_{i1} + \beta_{2}x_{i2} + \beta_{3}x_{i3} + \beta_{4}x_{i4}}^{\text{ship type}} + \underbrace{\beta_{5}x_{i5} + \beta_{6}x_{i6} + \beta_{7}x_{i7} + \beta_{8}x_{i8}}_{\text{operation year of construction}} + \underbrace{\log(t_{i})}_{\text{operation year offset}},$$

$$x_{i1} = \mathbb{I}\{\text{type B}\}, \quad x_{i5} = \mathbb{I}\{1965-1969\},$$

$$x_{i2} = \mathbb{I}\{\text{type C}\}, \quad x_{i6} = \mathbb{I}\{1970-1974\},$$

$$x_{i3} = \mathbb{I}\{\text{type D}\}, \quad x_{i7} = \mathbb{I}\{1975-1979\},$$

$$x_{i4} = \mathbb{I}\{\text{type E}\}, \quad x_{i8} = \mathbb{I}\{1975-1979\}.$$

### Model 1: Main effects + offset(log(months))

```
summary(model1)
Call:
glm(formula = y ~ typef + cyrf + oyrf + offset(log(months)),
  family = poisson, data = ship.dat)
Deviance Residuals:
  Min 10 Median 30
                           Max
-1.6768 -0.8293 -0.4370 0.5058
                         2.7912
Coefficients:
        Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
typef2 -0.54334 0.17759 -3.060 0.00222 **
typef3
       -0.68740 0.32904 -2.089 0.03670 *
               0.29058 -0.261 0.79377
typef4
       -0.07596
typef5
        cyrf2
        cyrf3
       cyrf4
oyrf2
       Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)
  Null deviance: 146.328 on 33 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 38.695 on 25 degrees of freedom
AIC: 154.56
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5
```

#### Model 2: Main effects + log(months)

```
summary(model2)
Call:
glm(formula = y ~ typef + cyrf + oyrf + log(months), family = poisson,
   data = ship.dat)
Deviance Residuals:
   Min 1Q Median
-1.6580 -0.8939 -0.4900 0.4676
                               2.7435
Coefficients:
         Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -5.5940 0.8724 -6.412 1.43e-10 ***
typef2
          -0.3499 0.2702 -1.295 0.19539
typef3
          -0.7631 0.3382 -2.257 0.02404 *
typef4
         -0.1355 0.2971 -0.456 0.64842
          typef5
          0.6625
                  0.1536 4.312 1.61e-05 ***
cyrf2
          cyrf3
                   0.2458 1.504 0.13259
cyrf4
          0.3697
          0.3703
                   0.1181 3.134 0.00172 **
oyrf2
log(months) 0.9027
                     0.1018 8.867 < 2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 614.539 on 33 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 37.804 on 24 degrees of freedom
AIC: 155.67
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5
```

#### Summary of Model 1 versus Model 2

- $\log(\cdot)$  is the canonical link for the Poisson, so it is the default when family=poisson.
- Model 1: main effects + offset(log(months)):  $x^{\top}\beta = \log(t_i)$ .
  - The offset explains some variation in the number of damage incidents due to different amounts of time at risk.
- Model 2: main effects + log(months):  $x^{\top}\beta \log(t_i)$ .
  - Examine  $\hat{\beta}_9$  the coefficient for log(months).
  - Conduct a Wald-based test of  $H_0$ :  $\beta_9 = 1$  versus  $H_A$ :  $\beta_9 \neq 1$ :

$$p = 2 \, \mathbb{P} \bigg( Z > \frac{|\hat{\beta}_9 - 1|}{\mathsf{se}(\hat{\beta}_9)} \bigg) = 2 \, \mathbb{P}(Z > \frac{|0.9027 - 1|}{0.1018}) = 2 \, \mathbb{P}(Z > |-0.9558|) = 0.34.$$

Therefore, do not reject  $H_0$ :  $\beta_9 = 1$ .

• We will not typically do this check and just use offset(log(ti)) since it's implied through the assumption of a time homogenous Poisson Process.

#### R Code (Models 3a, 3b, 3c)

Now, consider various models nested within model 1 to see if any of the main effects are not significant.

```
# testing for the association between ship type and frequency of
# events
model3a <- glm(y ~ cyrf + oyrf + offset(log(months)), family = poisson,</pre>
 data = ship.dat)
model3a$deviance
model3a$df.residual
1 - pchisq(model3a$deviance - model1$deviance, model3a$df.residual - model1$df.residual)
# testing for association between year of construction and event
# frequency
model3b <- glm(y ~ typef + oyrf + offset(log(months)), family = poisson,</pre>
  data = ship.dat)
model3b$deviance
model3b$df.residual
1 - pchisq(model3b$deviance - model1$deviance, model3b$df.residual - model1$df.residual)
# testing for the association between year of operation and event
# frequency
model3c <- glm(y ~ typef + cyrf + offset(log(months)), family = poisson,</pre>
  data = ship.dat)
model3c$deviance
model3c$df.residual
1 - pchisq(model3c$deviance - model1$deviance, model3c$df.residual - model1$df.residual)
```

## Model 3a: cyrf + oyrf + offset(log(months))

- Use this model to test:
  - $H_0$ : Type of Ship is unimportant (i.e.,  $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \beta_4 = 0$ ).
  - $H_A$ :  $\beta_1 \neq 0$  or  $\cdots$  or  $\beta_4 \neq 0$ .

```
model3a <- glm(y ~ cyrf + oyrf + offset(log(months)), family = poisson,
    data = ship.dat)
model3a$deviance

[1] 62.36534

model3a$df.residual

[1] 29

1 - pchisq(model3a$deviance - model1$deviance, model3a$df.residual - model1$df.residual)

[1] 9.299568e-05</pre>
```

$$\Delta D = D_0 - D_A \sim \chi^2_{(4)}$$
 under  $H_0$ . 
$$p = \mathbb{P}\left(\chi^2_{(4)} > (62.365 - 38.695)\right) < 0.001.$$

- Reject the null hypothesis of no variation in the accident rate across ships of different types.
- This is strong evidence of a need to adjust for the difference in the accident rates between ship types.

#### Model 3b: typef + oyrf + offset(log(months))

- Use this model to test:
  - $H_0$ : Construction year is unimportant (i.e.,  $\beta_5 = \beta_6 = \beta_7 = 0$ ).
  - $H_A$ :  $\beta_5 \neq 0$  or  $\cdots$  or  $\beta_7 \neq 0$ .

```
model3b <- glm(y ~ typef + oyrf + offset(log(months)), family = poisson,
    data = ship.dat)
model3b$deviance

[1] 70.10294

model3b$df.residual

[1] 28

1 - pchisq(model3b$deviance - model1$deviance, model3b$df.residual - model1$df.residual)

[1] 6.974977e-07</pre>
```

• Reject the null hypothesis of no variation in the accident rate across ships of different construction years.

### Model 3c: typef + cyrf + offset(log(months))

- Use this model to test:
  - $H_0$ : Operation year is unimportant (i.e.,  $\beta_8 = 0$ ).
  - $H_A$ :  $\beta_8 \neq 0$ .

```
model3c <- glm(y ~ typef + cyrf + offset(log(months)), family = poisson,
    data = ship.dat)
model3c$deviance

[1] 49.35519

model3c$df.residual

[1] 26

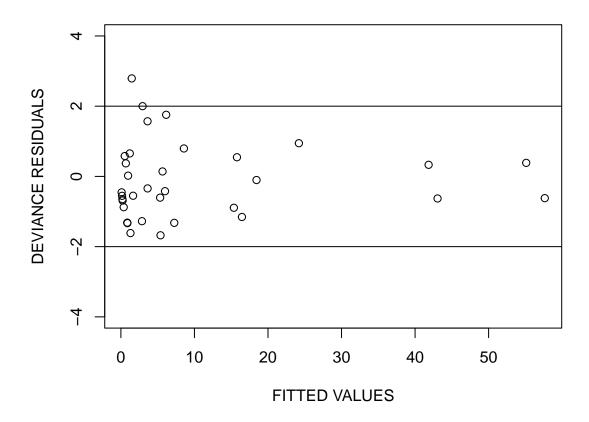
1 - pchisq(model3c$deviance - model1$deviance, model3c$df.residual - model1$df.residual)

[1] 0.001094692</pre>
```

- Reject the null hypothesis of no variation in the accident rate across ships of different periods of operation.
- We are unable to remove any of the main effects from the model (all are statistically significant).
- Next, consider adding interaction effects.

#### R Code (Models 4, 5, 6)

```
# testing for the interaction between type of ship and year of
# construction
model4 <- glm(y ~ typef + cyrf + oyrf + typef * cyrf + offset(log(months)),</pre>
 family = poisson, data = ship.dat)
model4$deviance
model4$df.residual
1 - pchisq(model1$deviance - model4$deviance, model1$df.residual - model4$df.residual)
summary(model4)
mrho <- summary(model4, corr = T)$correlation</pre>
# testing for the interaction between type of ship and year of
# operation
model5 <- glm(y ~ typef + cyrf + oyrf + typef * oyrf + offset(log(months)),</pre>
family = poisson, data = ship.dat)
1 - pchisq(model1$deviance - model5$deviance, model1$df.residual - model5$df.residual)
# testing for the interaction between year of construction and
# operation
model6 <- glm(y ~ typef + cyrf + cyrf + cyrf * oyrf + offset(log(months)),</pre>
family = poisson, data = ship.dat)
1 - pchisq(model1$deviance - model6$deviance, model1$df.residual - model6$df.residual)
# plot the residuals
ship.dat$rdeviance <- residuals.glm(model1, type = "deviance")</pre>
plot(model1\$fitted.values, ship.dat\$rdeviance, ylim = c(-4, 4), xlab = "FITTED VALUES",
  ylab = "DEVIANCE RESIDUALS")
abline(h = -2)
abline(h = 2)
```



# Model 4: typef + cyrf + oyrf + typef\*cyrf + offset(log(months))

- Use this model to test:
  - $H_0$ : the typef\*cyrf interaction is unimportant (Model 1).
  - *H*<sub>A</sub>: (model 4).

```
model4 <- glm(y ~ typef + cyrf + oyrf + typef * cyrf + offset(log(months)),
    family = poisson, data = ship.dat)
model4$deviance

[1] 14.58688

model4$df.residual

[1] 13

1 - pchisq(model1$deviance - model4$deviance, model1$df.residual - model4$df.residual)

[1] 0.01966268</pre>
```

$$\Delta D = D_0 - D_A \sim \chi^2_{(12)} \text{ under } H_0.$$

$$p = \mathbb{P}\Big(\chi^2_{(12)} > (38.695 - 14.587)\Big) < 0.0197.$$

- Reject the null hypothesis that the main effects model is adequate.
- That is, we would choose model 4 over model 1.

```
summary(model4)
Call:
glm(formula = y ~ typef + cyrf + oyrf + typef * cyrf + offset(log(months)),
    family = poisson, data = ship.dat)
Deviance Residuals:
    Min
         10
                    Median
                                 30
                                         Max
-1.99643 -0.09176 -0.00008
                            0.13849
                                     2.53827
Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
             -23.9891 6625.5245 -0.004 0.99711
(Intercept)
typef2
              17.0506 6625.5245 0.003 0.99795
typef3
              17.0863 6625.5245 0.003 0.99794
typef4
              -0.5962 9331.1044 0.000 0.99995
               typef5
              18.0324 6625.5245 0.003 0.99783
cyrf2
             18.3969 6625.5245 0.003 0.99778
cyrf3
             18.2860 6625.5245 0.003 0.99780
cyrf4
oyrf2
               0.3850
                         0.1186
                                 3.246 0.00117 **
typef2:cyrf2 -17.3620 6625.5245 -0.003 0.99791
typef3:cyrf2 -18.6108 6625.5246 -0.003 0.99776
typef4:cyrf2
             -18.4024 11467.2826 -0.002 0.99872
typef5:cyrf2
              0.4496 11522.0955
                                 0.000 0.99997
typef2:cyrf3
              -17.6110 6625.5245 -0.003 0.99788
typef3:cyrf3
             -17.6160 6625.5246 -0.003 0.99788
typef4:cyrf3
              1.0922 9331.1044 0.000 0.99991
typef5:cyrf3
             -0.8285 11522.0954
                                 0.000 0.99994
typef2:cyrf4
             -17.7124 6625.5245 -0.003 0.99787
typef3:cyrf4
             -17.3813 6625.5246 -0.003 0.99791
typef4:cyrf4
             -0.3254 9331.1044
                                  0.000 0.99997
               -1.8570 11522.0955
                                0.000 0.99987
typef5:cyrf4
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 146.328 on 33 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 14.587 on 13 degrees of freedom
AIC: 154.45
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 17
```

- · Huge standard errors!
- This model is overparameterized!

- Twelve interaction terms.
- Type 4: no events for cyr 1 or 2.

#### Model 5: typef + cyrf + oyrf + typef\*oyrf + offset(log(months))

- Use this model to test:
  - $H_0$ : the typef\*oyrf interaction is unimportant (Model 1).
  - $H_A$ : (model 5).

```
model5 <- glm(y ~ typef + cyrf + oyrf + typef * oyrf + offset(log(months)),
  family = poisson, data = ship.dat)
1 - pchisq(model1$deviance - model5$deviance, model1$df.residual - model5$df.residual)
[1] 0.2936317</pre>
```

- Do not reject the null hypothesis that the main effects model is adequate.
- The interaction between ship type and year of operation is not significant.

#### Model 6: typef + cyrf + cyrf + cyrf\*oyrf + offset(log(months))

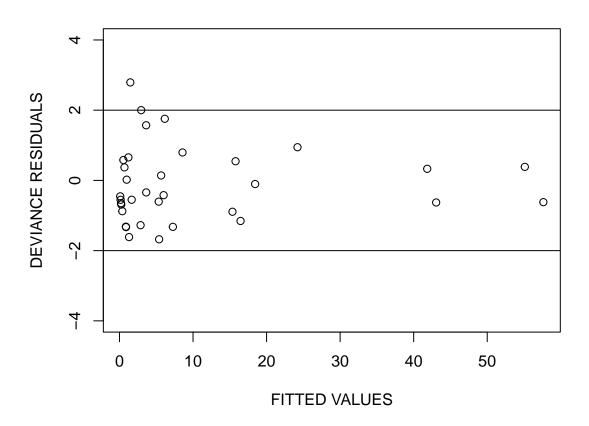
- Use this model to test:
  - $H_0$ : the cyrf\*oyrf interaction is unimportant (Model 1).
  - *H*<sub>A</sub>: (model 6).

```
model6 <- glm(y ~ typef + cyrf + oyrf + cyrf * oyrf + offset(log(months)),
  family = poisson, data = ship.dat)
1 - pchisq(model1$deviance - model6$deviance, model1$df.residual - model6$df.residual)
[1] 0.4091268</pre>
```

- Do not reject the null hypothesis that the main effects model is adequate.
- The interaction between year of construction and year of operation is not significant.

#### Model 1: typef + cyrf + oyrf +offset(log(months))

- Conclude that the best fitting model is the main effects model.
- Check the residual plot:



$$\begin{split} &- \ \hat{\mu}_i = \exp\Bigl\{ \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\intercal} \, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + \log(t_i) \Bigr\}. \\ &- \ D = \sum_i 2 \log\Bigl(\frac{y_i}{\hat{\mu}_i}\Bigr) = \sum_i d_i. \\ &- \ r_i^d = \mathrm{sign}(y_i - \hat{\mu}_i) \sqrt{|d_i|}. \end{split}$$

## Interpretation of Model 1: Main effects + offset(log(months))

```
model1 <- glm(y ~ typef + cyrf + oyrf + offset(log(months)), family = poisson,
    data = ship.dat)
summary(model1)

Call:
glm(formula = y ~ typef + cyrf + oyrf + offset(log(months)),
    family = poisson, data = ship.dat)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min     1Q     Median     3Q     Max
-1.6768     -0.8293     -0.4370     0.5058     2.7912

Coefficients:</pre>
```

```
Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
typef2
         -0.54334
                 0.17759 -3.060 0.00222 **
typef3
         -0.07596
typef4
                   0.29058 -0.261 0.79377
typef5
         0.32558
                   0.23588
                          1.380 0.16750
          0.69714
                   0.14964 4.659 3.18e-06 ***
cyrf2
         0.81843
                   0.16977
                           4.821 1.43e-06 ***
cyrf3
          0.45343
                   0.23317
                           1.945 0.05182 .
cyrf4
oyrf2
          0.38447
                   0.11827
                           3.251 0.00115 **
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 146.328 on 33 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 38.695 on 25 degrees of freedom
AIC: 154.56
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5
summary(model1)$cov.unscaled
                                               tvpef4
          (Intercept)
                         typef2
                                     typef3
                                                           typef5
(Intercept) 0.047281921 -0.0313338453 -0.0270722494 -0.023415086 -0.0241001095
typef2
         -0.031333845 0.0315381717 0.0253121856 0.023057691 0.0239048348
typef3
         -0.027072249 0.0253121856 0.1082700615 0.022710437 0.0243415185
         typef4
typef5
         -0.024100109 0.0239048348 0.0243415185 0.022877314 0.0556390922
cvrf2
         -0.015756834 0.0022749529 0.0017647174 0.001203482 -0.0001442043
         -0.020308913 \quad 0.0081833789 \quad 0.0025425848 \quad 0.001410245 \quad -0.0014853352
cyrf3
cyrf4
         -0.020358789 \quad 0.0094600451 \quad 0.0074478910 \quad -0.006543921 \quad 0.0029036746
         -0.005558091 0.0005331834 -0.0001195467 -0.000162536 0.0007514856
oyrf2
                cyrf2
                          cyrf3
                                     cyrf4
                                                oyrf2
(Intercept) -0.0157568339 -0.020308913 -0.020358789 -0.0055580913
typef2 0.0022749529 0.008183379 0.009460045 0.0005331834
typef3
         0.0017647174 0.002542585 0.007447891 -0.0001195467
typef4
         -0.0001442043 -0.001485335 0.002903675 0.0007514856
typef5
         cyrf2
         cyrf3
         cyrf4
         -0.0021248406 -0.005292693 -0.008696655 0.0139882936
ovrf2
```

#### **Interpretation of Log Linear Models for Poisson Processes**

- Focus on interpretation of Model 1, the main effects model.
- · Recall the form of the model

$$\log (\mu_i(t_i)) = \log(\lambda_i) + \log(t_i) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \log(t_i).$$

• This is based on the Poisson distribution with the expected number of events occurring over (0, t] given by

$$\mathbb{E}[N_i(t_i)] = \mu_i(t_i) = \lambda_i t_i.$$

- $\lambda$  = rate parameter (expected number of events per unit time).
- The regression parameters of this log linear model will have a log Relative Rate (RR) interpretation:

$$RR = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} = \frac{\text{Number of events in group 1 per unit time}}{\text{Number of events in group 2 per unit time}}.$$

## Interpretation of Model 1: RR for A vs C

**Task 1**: Controlling for periods of construction and operation estimate the relative rate of accidents for ships of type A versus type C.

For ships constructed in the same period and operated in the same period the rate of accidents for ships of type A is 1.99 times higher than the rate of accidents for ships of type C. A 95% confidence interval for this relative rate is (1.04, 3.79).

• Note that the null hypothesis of no effect is equivalent to RR = 1 or log(RR) = 0:

$$H_0$$
:  $\beta_2 = 0$  versus  $H_A$ :  $\beta_2 \neq 0$ .

• The R output includes the *p*-value for this test:

$$2\mathbb{P}\left(Z > \frac{|\hat{\beta}_2 - 0|}{\mathsf{se}(\hat{\beta}_2)}\right) = 2\mathbb{P}(Z > 2.089) = 0.0367.$$

• Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis that the rate of accidents is the same for ships of types A and C (controlling for periods of construction and operation).

## Interpretation of Model 1: RR for E vs B

**Task 2**: Controlling for periods of construction and operation estimate the relative rate of accidents for ships of type E versus type B.

- Note that the log relative risk is a linear combination of two regression parameters.
- Recall that since  $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}$  is an MLE,  $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}} \sim \text{MVN}\Big(oldsymbol{eta}, I^{-1}(\hat{oldsymbol{eta}})\Big)$

$$oldsymbol{x}^{ op} \hat{oldsymbol{eta}} \sim \mathcal{N} \Big( oldsymbol{x}^{ op} oldsymbol{eta}, oldsymbol{x}^{ op} I^{-1}(\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}) oldsymbol{x} \Big).$$

- In order to estimate  $se(\beta_4 \beta_1)$ :
  - (i) If working in R, we can define the contrast  $c = (0, -1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0)^{T}$  and

$$\operatorname{se}(\hat{eta}_4 - \hat{eta}_1) = \sqrt{\boldsymbol{c}^{\top} \boldsymbol{I}^{-1}(\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}) \boldsymbol{c}}.$$

```
x = as.matrix(c(0, -1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0), ncol = 1)
v = summary(model1)$cov.unscaled
sqrt(t(x) %*% v %*% x)

[,1]
[1,] 0.1984127
```

(ii) If working by hand with the R covariance or correlation matrix:

$$\begin{split} \operatorname{se}(\hat{\beta}_4 - \hat{\beta}_1) &= \sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_4) + \operatorname{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1) - 2\operatorname{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_4, \hat{\beta}_1)} \\ &= \sqrt{(0.05564) + (0.03154) - 2(0.02390)} \\ &= 0.198. \end{split}$$

• Now to estimate the relative rate  $\exp\{\beta_4 - \beta_1\}$ :

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \beta_4 - \beta_1 & \exp\{\beta_4 - \beta_1\} \\ \\ \text{MLE} & -0.3256 - (-0.5433) = 0.8689 & \exp\{0.08689\} = 2.38 \\ \\ 95 \% \text{ CI} & 0.8669 \pm 1.96(0.198) = (0.481, 1.257) & (e^{0.481}, e^{1.257}) = (1.62, 3.51) \\ \end{array}$$

- For ships constructed and operated in the same periods those of type E had an estimated 2.38, 95 % CI (1.62, 3.51), times higher accident rate than those of type B.
- Here the null hypothesis of no effect is that ships of types E and B have the same accident rate. That is,

$$H_0: \beta_4 - \beta_1 = 0 \text{ vs } H_A: \beta_4 - \beta_1 \neq 0.$$

• We test this using a Wald test. Since  $x^{\top}\hat{\beta} \sim \mathcal{N}\Big(x^{\top}\beta, x^{\top}I^{-1}(\hat{\beta})x\Big)$ . Then

$$\frac{\boldsymbol{x}^{\top} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}}{\sqrt{\boldsymbol{x}^{\top} I^{-1}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \boldsymbol{x}}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$

• The *p*-value for this test is:

$$2\mathbb{P}\left(Z > \frac{x^{\top}\hat{\beta}}{\sqrt{x^{\top}I^{-1}(\hat{\beta})x}}\right) = 2\mathbb{P}\left(Z > \frac{0.8689}{0.198}\right) < 0.001.$$

• Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis that the accident rate is the same for ships of types E and B (controlling for periods of contraction and operation).

#### **Interpretation of Model 1: Expected Number Events**

**Task 3**: Estimate the expected number of accidents for a group of 10 type B ships built in 1970 and operated during the entire period 1975-1979.

$$\log(\mu_i(t_i)) = \log(\lambda_i) + \log(t_i) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \log(t_i).$$

• Estimate  $log(\lambda_i)$  the log of the event rate and its CI:

type cyr oyr 
$$x_i$$
  $\log(\lambda_i)$ 
B 70-74 75-79  $(1,1,0,0,0,0,1,0,1)$   $\beta_0 + \beta_1 + \beta_6 + \beta_8$ 

#### **Interpretation of Model 1: Expected Number Events**

• Determine the offset  $t_i = months$ :

$$t_i = ext{total amount of time at risk of an accident}$$
  
=  $(\# ext{ ships})( ext{length of operation})$   
=  $(10)(5 \times 12)$   
=  $600$ .

• Calculate the expected number of accidents  $\hat{\mu}_i$ :

$$\begin{split} \log(\hat{\mu}_i) &= \log(\hat{\lambda}_i) + \log(t_i) \\ \hat{\mu}_i &= \hat{\lambda}_i t_i \\ &= \exp\{-5.7463\} \times 600 \\ &= 1.92. \end{split}$$

- With 95 % CI:  $(600e^{-5.5138}, 600e^{-5.9789}) = (1.52, 2.42)$ .
- The estimated number of accidents for a group of 10 type B ships built in 1970 and operated during the entire period 1975-1979 is 1.92 with a 95 % CI of (1.52, 2.42).

# **Topic 4c: Poisson Approximation to the Binomial Distribution**

### Log Linear Models

Previously we used a Poisson GLM to model count data arising from a time homogeneous Poisson process:

•  $N_i(t_i)$  = the number of events observed over  $(0, t_i]$ :

$$\mathbb{E}[N_i(t_i)] = \mu_i(t_i) = \lambda_i t_i$$

• Explanatory variables:  $x_i = (1, x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip-1})^{\top}$ .

$$\log(\mu_i(t_i)) = \log(\lambda_i) + \log(t_i) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \log(t_i).$$

We will consider three other types of data we can analyse with a Poisson GLM:

- 1. Approximating binomial data (topic 4c).
- 2. Time non-homogeneous Poisson processes (topic 4d).
- 3. Contingency tables/Multinomial data (topic 4e).

## Poisson Approximation to the Binomial

- Suppose:  $Y \sim BIN(m, \pi)$  so that  $\mathbb{E}[Y] = m\pi$ .
- Set  $\mu = m\pi$  and examine pmf of Y in terms of  $\mu$ :

$$f(y) = \binom{m}{y} \pi^y (1 - \pi)^{m - y}$$

$$f(y) = \frac{(m)(m - 1) \cdots (m - y)(m - y - 1) \cdots (1)}{(m - y)! y!} \left(\frac{\mu}{m}\right)^y \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{m}\right)^{m - y}$$

$$= \underbrace{\frac{(m)(m - 1) \cdots (m - (y - 1))}{(m)(m) \cdots (m)}}_{\rightarrow 1 \text{ as } m \rightarrow \infty} \underbrace{\mu^y}_{y!} \underbrace{\left(1 - \frac{\mu}{m}\right)^m}_{\rightarrow e^{-\mu}} \underbrace{\left(1 - \frac{\mu}{m}\right)^{-y}}_{\rightarrow 1}.$$

• Recall:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{a}{n} \right)^n = e^a.$$

• Therefore, as  $m \to \infty$  with  $\mu = m\pi$  fixed:

$$f(y) o rac{\mu^y e^{-\mu}}{y!}$$
 the pmf of the Poisson.

• So for  $Y \sim \text{BIN}(m, \pi)$ , as  $m \to \infty$ ,  $\pi \to 0$  with  $\mathbb{E}[Y] = \mu = m\pi$  fixed we have:

$$Y \sim POI(\mu = m\pi)$$
.

• Using a Poisson GLM (with log link):

$$\log(\mu) = \log(\pi) + \log(m) = \boldsymbol{x}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \underbrace{\log(m)}_{\text{offset}}.$$

- Use the Poisson distribution to model Binomial data.
- Use with large population (m large) and low event rate ( $\pi$ ).
- Example: Today and Problem 3.1 in course notes.

#### Non Melanoma Skin Cancer

Schwarz (2015) gives the incidence of non melanoma skin cancer among women in the early 1970s in Minneapolis-St Paul and Dallas-Fort Worth.

City	Age	Count	Pop. Size
msp	15-25	1	172675
msp	25-34	16	123065
msp	35-44	30	96216
msp	45-54	71	92051
msp	55-64	102	72159
msp	65-74	130	54722
msp	75-84	133	32185
msp	85+	40	8328
dfw	15-25	4	181343
dfw	25-34	38	146207
dfw	35-44	119	121374
dfw	45-54	221	111353
dfw	55-64	259	83004
dfw	65-74	310	55932
dfw	75-84	226	29007
dfw	85+	65	7538

#### **Binomial and Poisson Models**

· Binomial model:

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_j x_{ij},$$

where  $x_{i1} = \mathbb{I}\{\text{city=msp}\}, x_{i2} = \mathbb{I}\{\text{agegroup } j\}, j = 2, 3, \dots, 8. \ \beta_1 \text{ and } \beta_j \text{ have log(OR) interpretations.}$ 

• Poisson model:

$$\log(\mu_i) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_{i1} + \alpha_j x_{ij} + \log(m_i).$$

 $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_i$  have log(RR) interpretations.

#### **Binomial Model**

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_j x_{ij}, \ j = 2, 3, \dots, 8.$$

```
melanoma <- read.table("melanoma.txt", header = T)
melanoma$resp = cbind(melanoma$Count, melanoma$Population - melanoma$Count)
fit.binomial = glm(resp ~ factor(City) + factor(Age), family = binomial,
    data = melanoma)
summary(fit.binomial)

Call:
glm(formula = resp ~ factor(City) + factor(Age), family = binomial,
    data = melanoma)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min    1Q    Median    3Q    Max</pre>
```

```
-1.49511 -0.47903 0.01814 0.37356 1.23840
Coefficients:
                 Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)
                -10.85279
                            0.44749 -24.253 < 2e-16 ***
factor(City)msp
                -0.80692
                            0.05228 -15.433 < 2e-16 ***
factor(Age)25-34
                2.63034
                            0.46747 5.627 1.84e-08 ***
factor(Age)35-44
                3.84801
                            0.45467 8.463 < 2e-16 ***
                            0.45104 10.191 < 2e-16 ***
factor(Age)45-54
                 4.59672
factor(Age)55-64
                 5.08987
                            0.45031 11.303 < 2e-16 ***
factor(Age)65-74 5.64998
                            0.44976 12.562 < 2e-16 ***
factor(Age)75-84
                  6.06540
                            0.45035 13.468 < 2e-16 ***
                            0.45782 13.512 < 2e-16 ***
factor(Age)85+
                  6.18590
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
    Null deviance: 2794.7794 on 15 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 8.0828 on 7 degrees of freedom
AIC: 120.29
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

#### Poisson Model

$$\log(\mu_i) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_{i1} + \alpha_j x_{ij} + \log(m_i), \ j = 2, 3, \dots, 8.$$

```
fit.poisson = glm(Count ~ factor(City) + factor(Age) + offset(log(Population)),
  family = poisson, data = melanoma)
summary(fit.poisson)
Call:
glm(formula = Count ~ factor(City) + factor(Age) + offset(log(Population)),
    family = poisson, data = melanoma)
Deviance Residuals:
    Min
             1Q
                 Median
                              3Q
                                      Max
-1.5043 -0.4816
                  0.0169 0.3697
                                   1.2504
Coefficients:
                 Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)
                -10.85360 0.44749 -24.255 < 2e-16 ***
factor(City)msp -0.80428
                            0.05221 -15.406 < 2e-16 ***
factor(Age)25-34
                 2.63019
                            0.46746
                                     5.627 1.84e-08 ***
                            0.45466 8.462 < 2e-16 ***
factor(Age)35-44
                 3.84735
                 4.59519
                            0.45103 10.188 < 2e-16 ***
factor(Age)45-54
factor(Age)55-64
                  5.08728
                             0.45030 11.298 < 2e-16 ***
factor(Age)65-74 5.64541
                            0.44975 12.552 < 2e-16 ***
factor(Age)75-84 6.05855
                            0.45032 13.454 < 2e-16 ***
```

```
factor(Age)85+ 6.17819 0.45774 13.497 < 2e-16 ***
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 2790.340 on 15 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 8.195 on 7 degrees of freedom
AIC: 120.44

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

## **Example: Non Melanoma Skin Cancer**

1. What is the OR and RR for developing non melanoma skin cancer for women in Dallas-Forth Worth versus those in Minneapolis-St Paul, controlling for age?

$$\widehat{\text{OR}} = \exp\{-\hat{\beta}_1\} = \exp\{0.80692\} = 2.2410.$$
 
$$\widehat{\text{RR}} = \exp\{-\hat{\alpha}_1\} = \exp\{0.80428\} = 2.2351.$$

2. What is the predicted number of skin cancer cases in Dallas-Fort Worth among women age 25-34?

$$\hat{Y}_i = m_i \hat{\pi}_i = (146207) \operatorname{expit}(\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2) = 39.25427.$$

$$\hat{\mu}_i = m_i \hat{\pi}_i = (146207) \operatorname{exp}\{\hat{\alpha}_0 + \hat{\alpha}_2\} = 39.22713.$$

- m (population size) is very large and  $\pi$  (probability of getting non melanoma skin cancer) is very small so the Poisson approximation holds.
- Inference from the two models is nearly identical.
- We might prefer the RR interpretation over the OR interpretation.

# Topic 4d: Time Non-homogeneous Poisson Processes

## **Time Non-Homogeneous Poisson Processes**

· Now consider

$$\mathbb{E}\big[N(t)\big] = \mu(t) = \lambda(t) \qquad \text{(not} = \lambda t\text{)}.$$

- The rate is now a *function* of time.
- Lots of possible ways to model the rate  $\lambda(t)$ .
  - Piecewise constant:

$$\lambda(t) = b_1 \mathbb{I}\{0 < t < t_1\} + b_2 \mathbb{I}\{t_1 \le t < t_2\} + \cdots$$

- Piecewise linear:

$$\lambda(t) = (m_1t + b_1) \mathbb{I}\{0 < t < t_1\} + (m_2t + b_2) \mathbb{I}\{t_1 \le t < t_2\} + \cdots$$

- Quadratic:

$$\lambda(t) = at^2 + bt + c.$$

- Splines, etc.

#### **Example: Rat Tumour Data**

#### Rat Tumour Data

- Here we consider data from a study of the development of mammary tumours in rats reported in Gail et al. (1980).
- This study was a carcinogenicity experiment in which 48 rats were exposed to a carcinogen,
  - 23 were then assigned to a treatment group where the treatment was designed to reduce the development of tumours,
  - 25 were assigned to the control group.
- The rats were carefully examined over 122 days for the development of new tumours (multiple tumours could develop).
- The day (time) of each tumour was recorded.
- Our aim here is to estimate the expected number of tumours in the two groups and make treatment comparisons.

We show the first 5 IDs for each group.

 $\underline{Times\ to\ tumours\ in\ days}^{(number\ of\ tumours\ detected)}$ 

	Treatment Group		Control Group
ID	Days of Tumour Detection	ID	Days of Tumour Detection
1	122	1	$3, 42, 59, 61^{(2)}, 112, 119$
2	<del>_</del>	2	$28, 31, 35, 45, 52, 59^{(2)}, 77, 85, 107, 112$
3	3,88	3	$31, 38, 48, 52, 74, 77, 101^{(2)}, 119$
4	92	4	11,114
5	70, 74, 85, 92	5	$35, 45, 74^{(2)}, 77, 80, 85, 90^{(2)}$

## Timeline plots for data from Gail et al. (1980)

#### R Code & Rat Tumour Data Structure

```
rats <- read.table("rats.dat", header = F)</pre>
dimnames(rats)[[2]] <- c("id", "start", "stop", "status", "enum", "trt")</pre>
# function to covert data to the structure of one line per interval
# per subject
gd.pw.f <- function(indata) {</pre>
  pid <- sort(unique(indata$id))</pre>
  data <- matrix(0, nrow = (length(pid) * 4), ncol = 5)</pre>
  for (i in 1:length(pid)) {
    tmp <- indata[indata$id == pid[i], ]</pre>
    etime <- floor(tmp$stop[tmp$status == 1])</pre>
    startpos < -4 * (i - 1) + 1
    stoppos <- 4 * i
    data[startpos:stoppos, 1] <- rep(pid[i], 4)</pre>
    data[startpos:stoppos, 2] \leftarrow c(1, 2, 3, 4)
    data[startpos:stoppos, 3] <- c(sum((etime > 0) & (etime <= 30)),
      sum((etime > 30) & (etime <= 60)), sum((etime > 60) & (etime <=</pre>
        90)), sum((etime > 90) & (etime <= 122)))
    data[startpos:stoppos, 4] <- c(30, 30, 30, 32)
    data[startpos:stoppos, 5] <- rep(unique(tmp$trt), 4)</pre>
```

```
}
data <- data.frame(data)
dimnames(data)[[2]] <- c("id", "interval", "count", "len", "trt")
return(data)
}
rats.pw <- gd.pw.f(rats)
rats.pw[1:20, ]</pre>
```

```
rats.pw[1:20, ]
   id interval count len trt
         1 0 30
2
              2
                     0 30
   1
   1
             3
3
                    0 30
            4 1 32 1
5 2 1 0 30 1
6 2 2 0 30 1
7 2 3 0 30 1
8 2 4 0 32 1
9 3
            1 1 30 1
10 3 2 0 30
            3 1 30
11 3
12 3
          4 0 32 1

    13
    4
    1
    0
    30

    14
    4
    2
    0
    30

    15
    4
    3
    0
    30

17 5
            1
                  0 30
18 5
                    0 30
19 5
              3
                     3 30
20 5
```

- Consider four time intervals.
- One line of data per interval.
- count = number events in interval.
- len = days spent in interval.
- trt = treatment group.

#### 1. Model Control Group Only (pfitC)

$$\log(\mu_{ik}) = \beta_0 + \underbrace{\beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 x_{i3}}_{\text{interval}} + \text{offset}(\log(\text{len}_{ik})).$$

• To start, we fit a piecewise constant model for control rats:

$$\log(\mu_i) = \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \log(t_i).$$

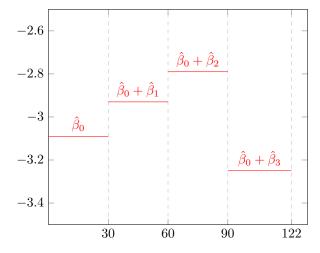
• interval is a categorical variable at 4 levels:

$$x_{i1} = \mathbb{I}\{\text{interval 2}\}, \quad x_{i2} = \mathbb{I}\{\text{interval 3}\}, \quad x_{i3} = \mathbb{I}\{\text{interval 4}\}.$$

• Include offset(log(len)) to account for the fact that different intervals are of different durations.

```
pfitC <- glm(count ~ factor(interval) + offset(log(len)), family = poisson(link = log),</pre>
  data = rats.pw, subset = (trt == 0))
summary(pfitC)
Call:
glm(formula = count ~ factor(interval) + offset(log(len)), family = poisson(link = log),
    data = rats.pw, subset = (trt == 0))
Deviance Residuals:
    Min
             1Q
                 Median
                               3Q
                                       Max
-1.9183 -1.5748 -0.2736 0.6262
                                    2.8959
Coefficients:
                 Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)
                  -3.0937
                             0.1715 -18.039
factor(interval)2 0.1625
                              0.2333 0.697
                                                0.486
factor(interval)3  0.3023
                              0.2262 1.337
                                                0.181
factor(interval)4 -0.1569
                             0.2483 -0.632
                                                0.527
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)
    Null deviance: 167.79 on 99 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 163.31 on 96 degrees of freedom
AIC: 345.25
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5
```

# Plot of $\log \bigl(\lambda(t)\bigr)$ for pfitC



- $\log(\hat{\lambda}_1) = \hat{\beta}_0 = -3.09.$
- $\log(\hat{\lambda}_2) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 = -3.09 + 0.16 = -2.93.$

- $\log(\hat{\lambda}_3) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2 = -3.09 + 0.3 = -2.79.$
- $\log(\hat{\lambda}_4) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_3 = -3.09 0.16 = -3.25.$

### Interpretation of pfitC

$$\log(\mu_i) = \beta_0 + \underbrace{\beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 x_{i3}}_{\text{interval}} + \log(t_i)$$

• Relative Rate of events in interval 2 versus interval 1:

$$\exp\{\beta_1\} = \frac{\lambda(\text{interval 2})}{\lambda(\text{interval 1})} = \exp\{0.16254\} = 1.176.$$

- Notice none of  $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$  are statistically significant.
- There is a trend of a slightly higher rate in intervals 2 and 3 (versus interval 1) but the event rate does not differ significantly across follow-up time in the control rats.

## 2. Model Control and Treatment Groups (pfit)

- Now, fit a model to both the treatment and control groups.
- $x_{i4} = \mathbb{I}\{\text{treatment group}\}.$
- Assume a piecewise constant baseline rate function.
- Model is now:

$$\log(\mu_i) = \beta_0 + \underbrace{\beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 x_{i3}}_{\text{interval}} + \beta_4 x_{i4} + \text{offset}(\log(t_i)).$$

•  $\exp\{\beta_1\}$  is now RR of events for interval 2 versus interval 1, for two rats of the same treatment group.

```
pfit <- glm(count ~ factor(interval) + trt + offset(log(len)), family = poisson(link = log),</pre>
 data = rats.pw)
summary(pfit)
Call:
glm(formula = count ~ factor(interval) + trt + offset(log(len)),
   family = poisson(link = log), data = rats.pw)
Deviance Residuals:
       1Q Median 3Q
-1.8335 -1.1994 -0.3302 0.4701
Coefficients:
               Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
            -3.08818 0.15079 -20.480 < 2e-16 ***
(Intercept)
factor(interval)2 0.17185
                         0.19590 0.877
                                         0.380
factor(interval)3 0.20634 0.19438 1.062
                                         0.288
0.752
trt
               Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

```
(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 301.37 on 191 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 266.32 on 187 degrees of freedom
AIC: 547.75

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5
```

## Interpretation of pfit

• Relative Rate of events for treatment versus control rats:

$$\exp\{\beta_4\} = \frac{\lambda(\text{treatment})}{\lambda(\text{control})} = \exp\{-0.8230\} = 0.44.$$

- Controlling for interval of follow-up, the rate of tumour development in treated rats in 0.44 times that of control rats.
- That is, treatment looks beneficial.
- Notice that  $\beta_4$  is statistically significant.
- $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$  are still not statistically significant.
- Consider do we really need to use a time non-homogeneous model for this data?

### 3. Time Homogeneous Model (fit)

$$\log(\mu_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_4 x_{i4} + \log(t_i).$$

- $\beta_0 = \log$  rate of tumour development, per day, control group.
- $\beta_4 = \log$  Relative Rate (RR) of tumour development in treated vs control rats.
- This model is nested within the time non-homogeneous model.
- Consider pfit model with  $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$ .
- We can carry out a likelihood ratio test

### Interpretation of fit

- Note  $\hat{\beta}_4 = -0.8230$  is almost unchanged versus model fit.
- Likelihood Ratio/Deviance test of  $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$ :

$$\Delta D = D_0 - D_A = 269.060 - 266.323 \sim \chi^2_{(3)}$$
 under  $H_0$ .

```
1 - pchisq(fit$deviance - pfit$deviance, fit$df.residual - pfit$df.residual)
[1] 0.4340077
```

- Do not reject  $H_0$ .
- Conclude that the time homogeneous model (model 3) is probably OK in this case.
- However, we retain it for generality and for the following analysis.

#### 4. Time Non-Homogeneous Model with Treatment Interaction (ifit)

- Q: Is the treatment effect constant over time?
- Model with interaction:

$$\begin{split} \log(\mu_i) &= \beta_0 + \overbrace{\beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 x_{i3}}^{\text{interval}} + \overbrace{\beta_4 x_{i4}}^{\text{treatment}} + \\ &+ \underbrace{\beta_5 x_{i1} x_{i4} + \beta_6 x_{i2} x_{i4} + \beta_7 x_{i3} x_{i4}}_{\text{interval*treatment}} + \log(t_i) \end{split}$$

• Model pfit (time non-homogeneous, without interaction) is nested within this model (consider ifit with  $\beta_5 = \beta_6 = \beta_7 = 0$ ).

```
ifit <- glm(count ~ offset(log(len)) + factor(interval) * trt, family = poisson(link = log),
  data = rats.pw)
summary(ifit)</pre>
```

```
Call:
glm(formula = count ~ offset(log(len)) + factor(interval) * trt,
    family = poisson(link = log), data = rats.pw)
Deviance Residuals:
        1Q Median
                          30
-1.9183 -1.2158 -0.3241 0.5125
                                2.8959
Coefficients:
                   Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)
                  -3.09371 0.17150 -18.039 <2e-16 ***
                   0.16252
                              0.23326 0.697
factor(interval)2
                                              0.4860
                   0.30228
                              0.22617
                                      1.337
factor(interval)3
                                              0.1814
factor(interval)4
                   -0.15691 0.24833 -0.632
                                              0.5275
                   -0.80392 0.31755 -2.532
                                              0.0114 *
factor(interval)2:trt 0.03164 0.42972 0.074
                                              0.9413
0.3994
factor(interval)4:trt 0.28653 0.43808 0.654
                                              0.5131
Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 301.37 on 191 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 263.92 on 184 degrees of freedom
AIC: 551.35
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5
```

## Interpretation of ifit

- Note  $\hat{\beta}_4 = -0.8038$  is very similar to pfit.
- Likelihood Ratio/Deviance test of  $H_0$ :  $\beta_5 = \beta_6 = \beta_7 = 0$ :

$$\Delta D = D_0 - D_A = 266.323 - 263.917 \sim \chi^2_{(3)}$$
 under  $H_0$ .

```
1 - pchisq(pfit$deviance - ifit$deviance, pfit$df.residual - ifit$df.residual)
[1] 0.4926145
```

- Do not reject  $H_0$ .
- We do not have evidence that the treatment effect varies across the time intervals.

#### **Summary of Rat Tumour Data Analysis**

- Looks like a piecewise constant rate function is not necessary.
- The best model (of the ones we examined) is fit:

$$\log(\mu_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_4 x_{i4} + \log(t_i).$$

• Interpretation: The relative rate for tumour development in treated versus control rats is:

$$\exp{\{\hat{\beta}_4\}} = \exp{\{-0.822995\}} = 0.439.$$

- That is, treatment is beneficial (treated rates get fewer tumours).
- Prediction: Expected number of tumours for a treated rat observed for 70 days?

$$\log(\hat{\mu}) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_4 + \log(70) = -3.00562 - 0.82302 + \log(70) = 0.41986.$$
 
$$\hat{\mu} = \exp\{0.41986\} = 1.5217.$$

# **Topic 4e: Introduction of Contingency Tables**

# **Analysis of Contingency Tables**

- Contingency tables can be formed to display data when all variables are categorical.
- Below is a two-dimensional  $I \times J$  contingency table.

			Factor $W$						
		1	2	3		j	• • •	J	
	1	$y_{11}$	$y_{12}$	$y_{13}$		$y_{1j}$		$y_{1J}$	$y_{1\bullet}$
	2	$y_{21}$	$y_{22}$	$y_{23}$	• • •	$y_{2j}$	• • •	$y_{2J}$	$y_{2\bullet}$
	3	$y_{31}$	$y_{32}$	$y_{33}$	• • •	$y_{3j}$	• • •	$y_{3J}$	$y_{3ullet}$
Factor $V$	:	:	:	:	٠.	:	٠.	:	: •
	i	$y_{i1}$	$y_{i2}$	$y_{i3}$	• • •	$y_{ij}$		$y_{iJ}$	$y_{i\bullet}$
	:	:	:	:	٠.	:	٠.	:	:
	I	$y_{I1}$	$y_{I2}$	$y_{I3}$	• • •	$y_{Ij}$	• • •	$y_{IJ}$	$y_{I\bullet}$
		$y_{\bullet 1}$	$y_{\bullet 2}$	$y_{\bullet 3}$	•••	$y_{ullet j}$		$y_{\bullet J}$	$y_{\bullet \bullet}$

- I = Number of rows; J = Number of columns.
- Row Totals:  $y_{i\bullet} = \sum_{j=1}^{J} y_{ij}$ .
- Column Totals:  $y_{\bullet j} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} y_{ij}$ .
- Grand Total:  $y_{\bullet \bullet} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{J} y_{ij}$ .
- Want to assess the nature/significance of ANY associations between the variables.
- No special response variable all factors are of equal importance.
- · Contingency tables are a cross-classification of units with respect to the factors of interest.
- ullet The observations  $y_{ij}$  consist of all the cell counts of the contingency table these will be our "responses."

#### **Example: 2-way Contingency Table**

#### **Breast Self-Examination Contingency Table**

- Senie *et al.* (1981) investigated the relationship between age and frequency of breast self-examination in a sample of women.
- Two factors: Age (at 3 levels) and Frequency (at 3 levels).

Frequency of breast self-examination						
		Monthly	Occasionally	Never	Total	
•	<45	91	90	51	232	
Age	45-59	150	200	155	505	
	≥60	109	198	172	479	
	Total	350	488	378	1216	

• Is than an association between age and exam frequency?

### **Basic Assumption in Contingency Tables**

• Basic Assumption: Each cell count has an independent Poisson distribution with mean  $\mu_{ij}$  for the (i,j) cell

$$\mathbb{P}(Y_{ij} = y_{ij}) = \frac{\mu_{ij}^{y_{ij}} e^{-\mu_{ij}}}{y_{ij}!}, \ y_{ij} = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

• The joint distribution is

$$\mathbb{P}(Y_{ij} = y_{ij}, i = 1, \dots, I, j = 1, \dots, J) = \prod_{i=1}^{I} \prod_{j=1}^{J} \left( \frac{\mu_{ij}^{y_{ij}} e^{-\mu_{ij}}}{y_{ij}!} \right)$$

- We will condition on the relevant fixed totals (row, column, or grand) (possibly fixed by design) to get a multinomial or product multinomial distribution.
- Will show that these can all by analysed using Poisson GLMs.

#### The Multinomial Distribution

- Assume the total number of units is fixed  $Y_{\bullet \bullet} = y_{\bullet \bullet} \ (= n)$ .
- Units are then cross-classified by 2 factors V and W.
- Our assumption of  $Y_{ij} \sim \text{POI}(\mu_{ij})$  independently implies

$$Y_{\bullet\bullet} \sim \text{POI}(\mu_{\bullet\bullet}), \text{ where } \mu_{\bullet\bullet} = \sum \sum \mu_{ij}.$$

• To get the joint distribution of the  $Y_{ij}$ 's, we must condition on the grand total  $Y_{\bullet \bullet} = y_{\bullet \bullet}$  since this is a fixed design:

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(Y_{ij} = y_{ij} \forall i, j \mid Y_{\bullet \bullet} = y_{\bullet \bullet}) &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(Y_{ij} = y_{ij} \forall i, j, Y_{\bullet \bullet} = y_{\bullet \bullet})}{\mathbb{P}(Y_{\bullet \bullet} = y_{\bullet \bullet})} \\ &= \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{I} \prod_{j=1}^{J} \left(\frac{\mu_{ij}^{y_{ij}} \exp\{-\mu_{ij}\}}{y_{ij}!}\right)}{\mu_{\bullet \bullet}^{y_{\bullet \bullet}} \exp\{-\mu_{\bullet \bullet}\}/y_{\bullet \bullet}!} \\ &= \left(\frac{y_{\bullet \bullet}!}{\prod \prod y_{ij}!}\right) \left(\frac{\prod \prod \mu_{ij}^{y_{ij}}}{\mu_{\bullet \bullet}^{y_{\bullet \bullet}}}\right) \underbrace{\left(\frac{\exp\{-\sum \sum \mu_{ij}\}}{\exp\{-\mu_{\bullet \bullet}\}}\right)}_{= 1 \text{ since } \mu_{\bullet \bullet} = \sum \sum \mu_{ij}} \\ &= \left(\frac{y_{\bullet \bullet}!}{\prod \prod y_{ij}!}\right) \underbrace{\prod_{i=1}^{I} \prod_{j=1}^{J} \left(\frac{\mu_{ij}}{\mu_{\bullet \bullet}}\right)^{y_{ij}}}_{\text{since } \mu_{\bullet \bullet}^{y_{\bullet \bullet}} = \mu_{\bullet \bullet}^{\sum \sum y_{ij}} = \prod \mu_{ij}^{y_{ij}}} \end{split}$$

• Recall the standard Multinomial distribution:

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_k; n, \pi_1, \dots, \pi_k) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_k = x_k) = \frac{n!}{x_1! \cdots x_k!} \pi_1^{x_1} \cdots \pi_k^{x_k},$$

where  $\sum \pi_i = 1$  and  $\sum x_i = n$ .

• The pmf on the previous slide is a multinomial distribution with

$$\pi_{ij} = \mu_{ij}/\mu_{\bullet\bullet} = \mathbb{P}(\text{level } i \text{ of factor } V \text{ and level } j \text{ of factor } W).$$

• Note that  $\sum \sum \pi_{ij} = 1$ 

$$\mathbb{P}(Y_{ij} = y_{ij} \forall i, j \mid Y_{\bullet \bullet} = y_{\bullet \bullet}) = \left(\frac{y_{\bullet \bullet}!}{\prod \prod y_{ij}!}\right) \prod_{i=1}^{I} \prod_{j=1}^{J} \pi_{ij}^{y_{ij}}.$$

#### **Multinomial Likelihood**

$$\mathbb{P}(Y_{ij} = y_{ij} \forall i, j \mid Y_{\bullet \bullet} = y_{\bullet \bullet}) = \left(\frac{y_{\bullet \bullet}!}{\prod \prod y_{ij}!}\right) \prod_{i=1}^{I} \prod_{j=1}^{J} \pi_{ij}^{y_{ij}}.$$

- $\pi = (\pi_{11}, \dots, \pi_{IJ})^{\top}$  be the parameter vector.
- The likelihood and log-likelihood are given by:

$$L(m{\pi}) = \prod_i \prod_j \pi_{ij}^{y_{ij}}, ext{ where } \sum \sum \pi_{ij} = 1$$
  $\ell(m{\pi}) = \sum_i \sum_j y_{ij} \log(\pi_{ij}).$ 

#### Testing for Independence in a 2-way Table

• Thinking back to the contingency table, we might be interested in testing the hypothesis that the two methods of classification are independent:

$$H_0\colon \pi_{ij}=\pi_{i\bullet}\pi_{\bullet j} \ \forall i,j$$
 
$$H_A\colon \pi_{ij}\neq \pi_{i\bullet}\pi_{\bullet j} \ \text{for some} \ i,j,$$
 where  $\pi_{i\bullet}=\sum_{j=1}^J \pi_{ij}$  and  $\pi_{\bullet j}=\sum_{i=1}^I \pi_{ij}$ .

• Consider the log-likelihood under *H*<sup>0</sup> (independence):

$$\begin{split} \ell(\pmb{\pi}) &= \sum_i \sum_j y_{ij} \log(\pi_{i\bullet}\pi_{\bullet j}) \\ &= \sum_i \sum_j y_{ij} \bigl(\log(\pi_{i\bullet}) + \log(\pi_{\bullet j})\bigr) \\ &= \sum_i y_{i\bullet} \log(\pi_{i\bullet}) + \sum_j y_{\bullet j} \log(\pi_{\bullet j}). \end{split}$$

- The parameters are constrained by  $\sum \pi_{i\bullet} = 1$  and  $\sum \pi_{\bullet j} = 1$ .
- The MLEs of  $\pi_{i\bullet}$  and  $\pi_{\bullet j}$  under  $H_0$  are:

$$\hat{\pi}_{i\bullet} = \frac{y_{i\bullet}}{y_{\bullet\bullet}}, \qquad \hat{\pi}_{\bullet j} = \frac{y_{\bullet j}}{y_{\bullet\bullet}}.$$

• And the log-likelihood evaluated at the MLE is:

$$\ell(\hat{\boldsymbol{\pi}}) = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} y_{ij} \log \left( \frac{y_{i \bullet} y_{\bullet j}}{y_{\bullet \bullet}^2} \right).$$

- Next consider working under  $H_A$  (unconstrained).
- The unconstrained MLEs are:  $\tilde{\pi}_{ij} = \frac{y_{ij}}{y_{\bullet\bullet}}$ .
- And the log-likelihood evaluated at the unconstrained MLE is:

$$\ell(\tilde{\pi}) = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} y_{ij} \log \left( \frac{y_{ij}}{y_{\bullet \bullet}} \right).$$

• To test for independence we could use a Likelihood Ratio/Deviance test for the multinomial:

$$\begin{split} D &= 2 \left( \ell(\tilde{\pi}) - \ell(\hat{\pi}) \right) \\ &= 2 \sum_{i} \sum_{j} y_{ij} \log \left( \frac{y_{ij}}{y_{\bullet \bullet}} \middle/ \frac{y_{i \bullet} y_{\bullet j}}{y_{\bullet \bullet}^{2}} \right) \\ &= 2 \sum_{i} \sum_{j} y_{ij} \log \left( \frac{y_{ij}}{y_{i \bullet} y_{\bullet j} / y_{\bullet \bullet}} \right) \\ &= 2 \sum_{i} \sum_{j} O_{ij} \log \left( \frac{O_{ij}}{E_{ij}} \right). \end{split}$$

• Note this has the usual form of a Deviance Statistic with

$$O_{ij} = y_{ij}$$
 and  $E_{ij} = y_{\bullet \bullet} \hat{\pi}_{ij}$  under  $H_0$ .

• We know  $D \sim \chi^2_{(n-p)}$ , but what are the degrees of freedom here?

$$\begin{split} n-p &= (\text{\# parameters saturated}) - (\text{\# parameters unsaturated}) \\ &= (IJ-1) - \left((I-1) + (J-1)\right) \\ &= IJ - I - J + 1 \\ &= (I-1)(J-1). \end{split}$$

# Example: Breast Self-Examination Data ( $\tilde{\mu}_{ij}$ vs $\hat{\mu}_{ij}$ )

• Observed Data:  $y_{ij} = \tilde{\mu}_{ij} = \tilde{\pi}_{ij} y_{\bullet \bullet}$ :

Frequency of breast self-examination

		Monthly	Occasionally	Never	Total
	<45	91	90	51	232
Age	45–59	150	200	155	505
	≥60	109	198	172	479
	Total	350	488	378	1216

• Expected Data under  $H_0$ :  $\hat{\mu}_{ij} = \hat{\pi}_{ij} y_{\bullet \bullet} = y_{i \bullet} y_{\bullet j} / y_{\bullet \bullet}$ :

Frequency of breast self-examination

		Monthly	Occasionally	Never	Total
	<45	66.78	93.11	72.12	232
Age	45–59	145.35	202.66	156.98	505
	≥60	137.87	192.23	148.90	479
	Total	350	488	378	1216

# Example: Breast Self-Examination Data: $(\tilde{\pi}_{ij} \text{ vs } \hat{\pi}_{ij})$

• Unconstrained MLEs:  $\tilde{\pi}_{ij} = y_{ij}/y_{\bullet \bullet}$  (as percentages):

Frequency of breast self-examination

		Monthly	Occasionally	Never	Row %
	<45	7.48	7.40	4.19	19.07
Age	45-59	12.34	16.45	12.75	41.54
	≥60	8.96	16.28	14.14	39.38
	Column %	28.78	40.13	31.08	100

• Constrained MLEs under  $H_0$ :  $\hat{\pi}_{ij} = \hat{\pi}_{i\bullet}\hat{\pi}_{\bullet j} = y_{i\bullet}y_{\bullet j}/y_{\bullet \bullet}^2$ :

Frequency of breast self-examination

		Monthly	Occasionally	Never	Row %
	<45	5.49	7.66	5.93	19.08
Age	45-59	11.95	16.67	12.91	41.53
	≥60	11.34	15.81	12.25	39.40
•	Column %	28.78	40.14	31.09	100

## **Example: Breast Self-Examination Data (Testing Independence)**

• Use the Likelihood Ratio/Deviance test derived for the Multinomial Distribution

$$D = 2\sum_{i}\sum_{j}y_{ij}\log\left(\frac{y_{ij}}{y_{i\bullet}y_{\bullet j}/y_{\bullet \bullet}}\right) = 25.19226.$$

• Compare to a  $\chi^2_{(4)}$  distribution:

$$p = \mathbb{P}\Big(\chi_{(4)}^2 > 25.19226\Big) < 0.001.$$

• So we reject the null hypothesis that age and frequency of breast self-examination are independent.

#### The Product Multinomial Distribution

- Previously, we assumed the grand total  $Y_{\bullet \bullet} = y_{\bullet \bullet}$  was fixed.
- Now assume that the row totals  $Y_{i\bullet} = y_{i\bullet}$  are fixed.
  - Choose a sample of fixed size from populations  $i=1,\ldots,I$  and then classify the units with response to Factor W.

• Our assumption of  $Y_{ij} \sim \text{POI}(\mu_{ij})$  independently implies

$$Y_{i\bullet} \sim \text{POI}(\mu_{i\bullet}), \text{ where } \mu_{i\bullet} = \sum_{j} \mu_{ij}.$$

• To get the joint distribution of the  $Y_{ij}$ 's we now condition on the row totals  $Y_{i\bullet} = y_{i\bullet}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, I$ 

$$\mathbb{P}(Y_{ij} = y_{ij} \forall i, j \mid Y_{i\bullet} = y_{i\bullet} \forall i) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(Y_{ij} = y_{ij} \forall i, j, Y_{i\bullet} = y_{i\bullet} \forall i)}{\mathbb{P}(Y_{i\bullet} = y_{i\bullet} \forall i)}.$$

## **Example: Another Breast Self-Examination Study**

- Imagine this time the investigators decided study a fixed number of women of each age group.
- The (hypothetical) 2-way contingency table is now:

## Breast Self-Examination Contingency Table (Hypothetical)

	Frequency of breast self-examination						
		Monthly	Occasionally	Never	Total		
	<45	78	78	44	200		
Age	45-59	178	238	184	600		
	≥60	91	165	144	400		
	Total	347	481	372	1200		

• We need to take this method of sampling into account in the analysis.

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(Y_{ij} = y_{ij} \forall i, j \mid Y_{i\bullet} = y_{i\bullet} \forall i) &= \left( \prod_{i} \prod_{j} \left( \frac{\mu_{ij}^{y_{ij}} \exp\{-\mu_{ij}\}}{y_{ij}!} \right) \right) \middle/ \left( \prod_{i} \frac{\mu_{i\bullet}^{y_{i\bullet}} \exp\{-\mu_{i\bullet}\}}{y_{i\bullet}!} \right) \\ &= \left( \frac{\prod_{i} y_{i\bullet}!}{\prod \prod y_{ij}!} \right) \left( \frac{\prod \prod \mu_{ij}^{y_{ij}}}{\prod_{i} \mu_{i\bullet}^{y_{ij}}} \right) \underbrace{\left( \frac{\exp\{-\sum \sum \mu_{ij}\}}{\exp\{-\sum_{i} \mu_{i}\}} \right)}_{= 1 \text{ since } \mu_{ij} = \sum_{i} \mu_{i\bullet} = \mu_{\bullet\bullet}} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^{I} \underbrace{\left( \frac{y_{i\bullet}!}{\prod_{j} y_{ij}!} \prod_{j=1}^{J} \left( \frac{\mu_{ij}}{\mu_{i\bullet}} \right)^{y_{ij}} \right)}_{\text{Multinomial pmf for row } i}. \end{split}$$

- This is the product multinomial distribution with  $\pi_{ij} = \mu_{ij}/\mu_{i\bullet}$ .
- Here,  $\pi_{ij}$  = probability of being level j given population level i.
- Note that  $\sum_{j} \pi_{ij} = 1$  for all i.

#### **Product Multinomial Likelihood**

$$\mathbb{P}(Y_{ij} = y_{ij} \forall i, j \mid Y_{i\bullet} = y_{i\bullet} \forall i) = \prod_{i=1}^{I} \left( \frac{y_{i\bullet}!}{\prod_{j} y_{ij}!} \prod_{j=1}^{J} \pi_{ij}^{y_{ij}} \right).$$

- Again, let  $\boldsymbol{\pi} = (\pi_{11}, \dots, \pi_{IJ})^{\top}$  be the parameter vector.
- Note the  $\pi_{ij}$  have different interpretations here versus the multinomial case.
- The log-likelihood is given by:

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\pi}) = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} y_{ij} \log(\pi_{ij}), \text{ where } \sum_{j} \pi_{ij} = 1 \ \forall i.$$

## Testing for Independence with the Product Multinomial

• In this case we might be interested in testing where the probability of being at factor level j is the same across all stratum/populations  $i=1,\ldots,I$ 

$$H_0: \pi_{1j} = \pi_{2j} = \dots = \pi_{Ij} = \pi_j, \ j = 1, 2, \dots, J,$$
 $H_A: \text{ at least one } \pi_{ij} \neq \pi_{i'j}.$ 

• The log likelihood under  $H_0$  (independence) is

$$\ell(\pi) = \sum_i \sum_j y_{ij} \log(\pi_j) = \sum_j y_{\bullet j} \log(\pi_j).$$

- The parameters are constrained by  $\sum_{j} \pi_{j} = 1$ .
- The MLEs under  $H_0$  are

$$\hat{\pi}_{ij} = \hat{\pi}_j = \frac{y_{\bullet j}}{y_{\bullet \bullet}}.$$

• Under  $H_A$  (unconstrained) the MLEs are

$$\tilde{\pi}_{ij} = \frac{y_{ij}}{y_{i\bullet}}.$$

• The Likelihood Ratio/Deviance test statistic is:

$$\begin{split} D &= 2 \Big( \ell(\tilde{\pi}) - \ell(\hat{\pi}) \Big) \\ &= 2 \sum_{i} \sum_{j} y_{ij} \log \left( \frac{y_{ij}}{y_{i\bullet}} \middle/ \frac{y_{\bullet j}}{y_{\bullet \bullet}} \right) \\ &= 2 \sum_{i} \sum_{j} y_{ij} \log \left( \frac{y_{ij}}{y_{i\bullet} y_{\bullet j} / y_{\bullet \bullet}} \right). \end{split}$$

- Which is identical to the Deviance statistic for testing independence under a multinomial distribution.
- Here,  $D \sim \chi^2_{(I-1)(J-1)}$  since

$$n - p = I(J - 1) - (J - 1) = IJ - I - J + 1 = (I - 1)(J - 1).$$

#### **Example: Another Breast Self-Examination Study**

• Observed Data:  $y_{ij}$ :

Frequency of breast self-examination

		Monthly	Occasionally	Never	Total
	<45	78	78	44	200
Age	45–59	178	238	184	600
	≥60	91	165	144	400
	Total	347	481	372	1200

• Expected Data under  $H_0$ :  $\hat{\mu}_{ij} = y_{i\bullet}\hat{\pi}_j = y_{i\bullet}y_{\bullet j}/y_{\bullet \bullet}$ 

Frequency of breast self-examination

		Monthly	Occasionally	Never	Total
	<45	57.83	80.17	62.00	200
Age	45–59	173.50	240.50	186.00	600
	≥60	115.67	160.33	124.00	400
	Total	347	481	372	1200

• Unconstrained MLEs:  $\tilde{\pi}_{ij} = y_{ij}/y_{i\bullet}$  (as percentages):

Frequency of breast self-examination

		Monthly	Occasionally	Never	Total
	<45	39.00	39.00	22.00	100
Age	45–59	29.67	39.67	30.67	100
	≥60	22.75	41.25	36.00	100

• Constrained MLEs:  $\hat{\pi}_{ij} = \hat{\pi}_j = y_{\bullet j}/y_{\bullet \bullet}$  (as percentages):

Frequency of breast self-examination

		Monthly	Occasionally	Never	Total
	<45	28.92	40.08	31.00	100
Age	45–59	28.92	40.08	31.00	100
	≥60	28.92	40.08	31.00	100

#### **Example: Another Breast Self-Examination Study (Testing Independence)**

• Use the Likelihood Ratio/Deviance test derived for the Multinomial Distribution

$$D = 2\sum_{i}\sum_{j} y_{ij} \log \left(\frac{y_{ij}}{y_{i\bullet}y_{\bullet j}/y_{\bullet \bullet}}\right) = 21.25615.$$

• Compare to a  $\chi^2_{(4)}$  distribution:

$$p = \mathbb{P}\left(\chi_{(4)}^2 > 21.25615\right) < 0.001.$$

• So we reject the null hypothesis that age and frequency of breast self-examination are independent.

#### Summary

- Today we considered simple 2-way contingency tables.
- With the basic Poisson assumption for the cell counts, depending on the type of sampling used, we can test for independence using:
  - 1. Multinomial distribution (condition on  $y_{\bullet \bullet}$ ).
  - 2. Product multinomial (condition on  $y_{i\bullet}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., I).
- Both yield the same Likelihood Ratio/Deviance test statistic.
- Interestingly we can also use log-linear models to assess these independence hypotheses (next week).
- Easily generalizable to 3-way (and more) contingency tables.

WEEK 10 8th to 12th November

# **Topic 4f: Log Linear Models for Two-way Tables**

## Likelihood Based Analysis of 2-way Contingency Tables

				Fa	ctor	W			
		1	2	3		j		J	
	1	$y_{11}$	$y_{12}$	$y_{13}$		$y_{1j}$		$y_{1J}$	$y_{1\bullet}$
	2	$y_{21}$	$y_{22}$	$y_{23}$		$y_{2j}$	• • •	$y_{2J}$	$y_{2\bullet}$
	3	$y_{31}$	$y_{32}$	$y_{33}$	• • •	$y_{3j}$	• • •	$y_{3J}$	$y_{3\bullet}$
Factor $V$	:	:	:	:	٠.	:	٠	:	:·
	i	$y_{i1}$	$y_{i2}$	$y_{i3}$		$y_{ij}$		$y_{iJ}$	$y_{i\bullet}$
	:	:	÷	÷	٠	÷	٠	:	:
	I	$y_{I1}$	$y_{I2}$	$y_{I3}$	• • •	$y_{Ij}$	• • •	$y_{IJ}$	$y_{I\bullet}$
		$y_{\bullet 1}$	$y_{\bullet 2}$	$y_{\bullet 3}$		$y_{ullet j}$		$y_{\bullet J}$	$y_{\bullet \bullet}$

- Previously: Previously: Derived Likelihood Ratio/Deviance tests for testing for independence between Factor V and Factor W.
- Basic Assumption:  $Y_{ij} \sim POI(\mu_{ij}), \forall i, j.$
- When we condition on the Grand Total the joint distribution becomes Multinomial, and we want to test:

$$H_0: \pi_{ij} = \pi_{i \bullet} \pi_{\bullet j} \ \forall i, j$$
 $H_A: \pi_{ij} \neq \pi_{i \bullet} \pi_{\bullet j} \text{ for some } i, j.$ 

• When we condition on the Row Totals the joint distribution becomes Product Multinomial, and we want to test:

$$H_0: \pi_{1j} = \pi_{2j} = \dots = \pi_{Ij} = \pi_j, \ j = 1, 2, \dots, J,$$
 $H_A: \text{ at least one } \pi_{ij} \neq \pi_{i'j}.$ 

• In either case, the Likelihood Ratio/Deviance Test statistic is:

$$D = 2\sum_{i} \sum_{j} y_{ij} \log \left( \frac{y_{ij}}{y_{i\bullet} y_{\bullet j} / y_{\bullet \bullet}} \right) \sim \chi^2_{(I-1)(J-1)} \text{ under } H_0.$$

# Log Linear Models for 2-way Contingency Tables

- Basic Assumption:  $Y_{ij} \sim POI(\mu_{ij}), \forall i, j.$
- Explanatory Variables: Factor V and W:

$$\begin{split} x_1 &= \mathbb{I}\{\text{Factor } V \text{ at level 2}\}, & x_I &= \mathbb{I}\{\text{Factor } W \text{ at level 2}\}, \\ x_2 &= \mathbb{I}\{\text{Factor } V \text{ at level 3}\}, & x_{I+1} &= \mathbb{I}\{\text{Factor } W \text{ at level 3}\}, \\ &\vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_{I-1} &= \mathbb{I}\{\text{Factor } V \text{ at level I}\}, & x_{I+J-2} &= \mathbb{I}\{\text{Factor } W \text{ at level J}\}. \end{split}$$

• The main effects log-linear model would be:

$$\log(\mu_{\ell}) = \beta_0 + \overbrace{\beta_1 x_{1\ell} + \beta_2 x_{2\ell} + \dots + \beta_{I-1} x_{I-1\ell}}^{\text{Factor } V} + \underbrace{\beta_I x_{I\ell} + \beta_{I+1} x_{I+1\ell} + \dots + \beta_{I+J-2} x_{I+J-2\ell}}_{\text{Factor } W} \qquad \ell = 1, \dots, IJ.$$

- Note: # parameters = 1 + (I 1) + (J 1) = I + J 1.
- The  $x^{\top}\beta$  is quite cumbersome when I and J are large.
- Consider the following expression for the model:

$$\log(\mu_{ij}) = u + u_i^V + u_j^W, \ i = 1, \dots, I, \ j = 1, \dots, J,$$

where  $u_1^V + u_1^W = 0$ .

- Note: # parameters = 1 + (I 1) + (J 1) = I + J 1.
- This notation suppresses the binary x variables.
- The relationship between the  $\beta$  and u is as follows:

$$u_{2}^{V} = \beta_{1}, \qquad u_{2}^{W} = \beta_{I},$$

$$u_{3}^{V} = \beta_{2}, \qquad u_{3}^{W} = \beta_{I+1},$$

$$u = \beta_{0},$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$u_{I}^{V} = \beta_{I-1}, \quad u_{J}^{W} = \beta_{I+J-2}.$$

• Testing independence in a 2-way table:

$$H_0$$
:  $\pi_{ij} = \pi_{i \bullet} \pi_{\bullet j} \ \forall i, j$   
 $H_A$ :  $\pi_{ij} \neq \pi_{i \bullet} \pi_{\bullet j}$  for some  $i, j$ .

• The corresponding log-linear models are:

$$H_0: \log(\mu_{ij}) = u + u_i^V + u_j^W$$
  
 $H_A: \log(\mu_{ij}) = u + u_i^V + u_j^W + u_{ij}^{VW}.$ 

• Using corner-point constraints we require:

$$u_1^V=0, \qquad u_1^W=0, \qquad u_{1j}^{VW}=0 \ \forall j, \qquad u_{i1}^{VW} \ \forall i. \label{eq:u1VW}$$

- The interaction model has 1 + (I 1) + (J 1) + (I 1)(J 1) = IJ parameters.
- Wait: We're using a Poisson model to fit data/test hypotheses from a Multinomial distribution?
- Examine the log-likelihood from the Poisson:

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\mu}) = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} [y_{ij} \log(\mu_{ij}) - \mu_{ij} - \log(y_{ij}!)].$$

• Substitute in the log linear model  $H_0$ :  $\log(\mu_{ij}) = u + u_i^V + u_j^W$ :

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{u}) = \sum \sum \left(y_{ij}(\boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{u}_i^V + \boldsymbol{u}_j^W) - \exp\{\boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{u}_i^V + \boldsymbol{u}_j^W\} - \log(y_{ij}!)\right)$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial u} = \sum \sum \left(y_{ij} - \exp\{\boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{u}_i^V + \boldsymbol{u}_j^W\}\right)$$

$$= \sum \sum \left(y_{ij} - \mu_{ij}\right)$$

$$= y_{\bullet \bullet} - \mu_{\bullet \bullet} \quad (\text{set} = 0) \implies \hat{\mu}_{\bullet \bullet} = y_{\bullet \bullet}.$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial u_{i^*}^V} = \sum \sum \left(y_{i^*j} - \exp\{\boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{u}_{i^*}^V + \boldsymbol{u}_j^W\}\right)$$

$$= y_{i^* \bullet} - \mu_{i^* \bullet} \quad (\text{set} = 0) \implies \hat{\mu}_{i \bullet} = y_{i \bullet} \ \forall i.$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial u_{j^*}^W} = \sum \sum \left(y_{ij^*} - \exp\{\boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{u}_i^V + \boldsymbol{u}_{j^*}^W\}\right)$$

$$= y_{\bullet j^*} - \mu_{\bullet j^*} \quad (\text{set} = 0) \implies \hat{\mu}_{\bullet j} = y_{\bullet j} \ \forall j.$$

- So the main effects log linear model reproduces the row, column and grand totals.
- If we do the same with the saturated model

$$H_A$$
:  $\log(\mu_{ij}) = u + u_i^V + u_j^W + u_{ij}^{VW}$ ,

we find it provides a perfect fit to the data:  $\tilde{\mu}_{ij} = y_{ij}$  for all i, j.

• Recall the Deviance Test for the Poisson Distribution

$$\begin{split} D &= 2 \Big( \ell(\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) - \ell(\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) \Big) \\ &= 2 \sum \sum \Big( \Big( y_{ij} - \log(\tilde{\mu}_{ij}) - \tilde{\mu}_{ij} - \log(y_{ij}!) \Big) - \Big( y_{ij} - \log(\hat{\mu}_{ij}) - \hat{\mu}_{ij} - \log(y_{ij}!) \Big) \Big) \\ &= 2 \sum \sum \Big( y_{ij} \log \Big( \frac{\tilde{\mu}_{ij}}{\hat{\mu}_{ij}} \Big) - (\tilde{\mu}_{ij} - \hat{\mu}_{ij}) \Big) \\ &= 2 \sum \sum y_{ij} \log \Big( \frac{y_{ij}}{y_{i\bullet} y_{\bullet i} / y_{\bullet \bullet}} \Big), \end{split}$$

since

$$\hat{\mu}_{ij} = y_{\bullet \bullet} \hat{\pi}_{i \bullet} \hat{\pi}_{\bullet j}$$

$$= y_{\bullet \bullet} \left( \frac{\hat{\mu}_{i \bullet}}{\hat{\mu}_{\bullet \bullet}} \right) \left( \frac{\hat{\mu}_{\bullet j}}{\hat{\mu}_{\bullet \bullet}} \right)$$

$$= y_{i \bullet} y_{\bullet j} / y_{\bullet \bullet},$$

and

$$\sum \sum \hat{\mu}_{ij} = \sum \sum u_{ij} = y_{\bullet \bullet},$$
$$\sum \sum \hat{\mu}_{ij} = \hat{\mu}_{\bullet \bullet} = y_{\bullet \bullet}.$$
$$D = 2 \sum \sum y_{ij} \log \left(\frac{y_{ij}}{y_{i\bullet} y_{\bullet i} / y_{\bullet \bullet}}\right).$$

• We know  $D \sim \chi^2_{(n-p)}$  under  $H_0$ . Here,

$$n-p = (I-J) - (1 + (I-1) + (J-1)) = (I-1)(J-1).$$

- Same as the Likelihood Ratio/Deviance Test statistic from the Multinomial and Product Multinomial last section.
- Use the Deviance Test from fitting Poisson models to conduct hypotheses tests for data from 2-way contingency tables!

## **Example: A Melanoma Study**

• A cross-sectional study was conducted in which 400 patients with malignant melanoma were classified according to two factors: the site of the tumour and the histological type.

Melanoma Study Data				
Tumour Type	Head and Neck	Trunk	Extremities	Total
Hutchinson's freckle	22	2	10	34
Superficial Spreading	16	54	115	185
Nodular	19	33	73	125
Indeterminate	11	17	28	56
Total	68	106	226	400

- Here we wish to investigate whether the different types of tumour appear equally likely in the different sites.
- That is, we are assessing whether there is an association between histological type and tumour site.
- We wish to test for independence:

$$H_0 \colon \pi_{ij} = \pi_{i \bullet} \pi_{\bullet j} \ \forall i, j$$
 $H_A \colon \pi_{ij} \neq \pi_{i \bullet} \pi_{\bullet j} \ \text{for some } i, j.$ 

- Under  $H_0$ :  $\mu_{ij} = \mathbb{E}[Y_{ij}] = y_{\bullet\bullet}\pi_{i\bullet}\pi_{\bullet j}$ , meaning we will have to fit the row and column totals to allow estimation of  $\pi_{i\bullet}$  and  $\pi_{\bullet j}$ .
- Thus, our log linear model under the null hypothesis is

$$\log(\mu_{ij}) = u + u_i^V + u_j^W, \ i = 1, 2, 3, 4, \ j = 1, 2, 3$$

- V corresponds to tumour type variable (i indicating the level).
- W corresponds to tumour site variable (j indicating the level).
- If the model fits the data well, then there's no evidence against the assumption that tumour type and site are independent.
- If the model does not fit the data well, then some tumour types appear more frequently in certain locations.

#### **R** Dataset

```
Melanoma Data Set
  type locat
             22
2
3
          3 10
     2
          3 115
     3
    3
          2 33
     3
          3 73
10
          1 11
     4
          2 17
11
12
         3 28
```

#### R Code

```
derm.dat = read.table("derm.dat", header = T)
derm.dat$typef = factor(derm.dat$type)
derm.dat$sitef = factor(derm.dat$locat)
derm.dat
attach(derm.dat)
# fitting the model with both main effects
model1 = glm(y ~ typef + sitef, family = poisson)
Error in model.frame.default(formula = y ~ typef + sitef, drop.unused.levels = TRUE): variable
lengths differ (found for 'typef')
summary(model1)
# creating deviance residuals for diagnostic plots
derm.dat$fitted.values = model1$fitted.values
Error in '$<-.data.frame'('*tmp*', fitted.values, value = c('1' = 0.209776106909185, :
replacement has 34 rows, data has 12
derm.dat$rdeviance = residuals.glm(model1, type = "deviance")
Error in '$<-.data.frame'('*tmp*', rdeviance, value = c('1' = -0.64772850316963, : replacement
has 34 rows, data has 12
derm.dat
# fitting the model with only the 'histological type' main effect
model2 = glm(y ~ typef, family = poisson)
Error in model.frame.default(formula = y ~ typef, drop.unused.levels = TRUE): variable
lengths differ (found for 'typef')
1 - pchisq(model2$deviance - model1$deviance, model2$df.residual - model1$df.residual)
# fitting the model with only the 'site' main effect
model3 = glm(y ~ sitef, family = poisson)
Error in model.frame.default(formula = y ~ sitef, drop.unused.levels = TRUE): variable
lengths differ (found for 'sitef')
1 - pchisq(model3$deviance - model1$deviance, model3$df.residual - model1$df.residual)
```

- One line per cell in the contingency table.
- IJ = 12 observations.
- type is tumour type (4 levels).
- locat is tumour location (3 levels).
- y is the count in the contingency table.

#### R output for Model 1: type + site

```
model1 = glm(y ~ typef + sitef, family = poisson)

Error in model.frame.default(formula = y ~ typef + sitef, drop.unused.levels = TRUE): variable
lengths differ (found for 'typef')
summary(model1)
```

```
Call:
glm(formula = y ~ typef + cyrf + oyrf + offset(log(months)),
  family = poisson, data = ship.dat)
Deviance Residuals:
  Min
      1Q Median 3Q
                           Max
-1.6768 -0.8293 -0.4370 0.5058
                         2.7912
Coefficients:
        Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
typef2
       -0.68740
               0.32904 -2.089 0.03670 *
typef3
typef4
       -0.07596
              0.29058 -0.261 0.79377
typef5
       cyrf2
       cyrf3
       cyrf4
oyrf2
       0.38447
                0.11827 3.251 0.00115 **
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)
  Null deviance: 146.328 on 33 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 38.695 on 25 degrees of freedom
AIC: 154.56
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5
```

• Recall we are testing for independence

$$H_0: \pi_{ij} = \pi_{i \bullet} \pi_{\bullet j} \ \forall i, j$$
 $H_A: \pi_{ij} \neq \pi_{i \bullet} \pi_{\bullet j} \text{ for some } i, j.$ 

- The Deviance test statistic  $\chi^2_{(12-6)}$  under  $H_0$ .
- Here D = 51.795 which corresponds to a p-value of

$$p = \mathbb{P}\Big(\chi_{(6)}^2 > 51.795\Big) < 0.001.$$

Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis of independence.

```
1 - pchisq(model1$deviance, model1$df.residual)
[1] 0.03951433
```

• Examine the fitted values and residuals.

```
derm.dat
```

```
type locat
                 y typef sitef
      1
                 22
                         1
2
       1
              2
                  2
                         1
                                2
3
       1
              3
                 10
                                3
4
       2
              1
                 16
                         2
                                1
5
       2
              2
                 54
                         2
                                2
6
       2
              3 115
                         2
                                3
7
       3
              1 19
                         3
                                1
                 33
8
                         3
                                2
       3
              2
9
       3
              3
                 73
                         3
                                3
10
       4
              1
                 11
                         4
                                1
11
              2
                17
                         4
                                2
12
                 28
                                3
              3
```

- Can verify that the row and column totals are fit exactly.
- For example, sum the first three observations corresponding to the total number of Hutchinson freckle cases, and sum the corresponding fitted values.
- We conclude that the model does not provide a very good fit to the data since there are some rather large deviance residuals corresponding to the first two rows of the table.
- Therefore, our hypothesis that tumour type and site are independent does not seem plausible.
- Specifically, based on the fitted values and residuals we see that Hutchinson's freckle occurs more often on the head and neck than we would expect under the independence assumption, and less often on the trunk and extremities.
- Furthermore, superficial spreading melanoma occurs less often on the head and neck than we would expect.
- Can we use a smaller model?

#### R output for Model 2: type

```
model2 = glm(y ~ typef, family = poisson)
Error in model.frame.default(formula = y ~ typef, drop.unused.levels = TRUE): variable
lengths differ (found for 'typef')
summary(model2)
Call:
glm(formula = y ~ typef + cyrf + oyrf + log(months), family = poisson,
    data = ship.dat)
Deviance Residuals:
                                3Q
    Min
              10 Median
                                       Max
-1.6580 -0.8939 -0.4900 0.4676
                                    2.7435
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -5.5940
                         0.8724 -6.412 1.43e-10 ***
typef2
             -0.3499
                        0.2702 -1.295 0.19539
```

```
0.3382 -2.257 0.02404 *
typef3
            -0.7631
typef4
            -0.1355
                       0.2971 -0.456 0.64842
                       0.2418 1.133 0.25719
typef5
             0.2739
cyrf2
             0.6625
                     0.1536 4.312 1.61e-05 ***
cyrf3
             0.7597
                       0.1777 4.276 1.90e-05 ***
cyrf4
             0.3697
                       0.2458
                                1.504 0.13259
                       0.1181
                                3.134 0.00172 **
oyrf2
             0.3703
log(months) 0.9027
                       0.1018 8.867 < 2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 614.539 on 33 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 37.804 on 24 degrees of freedom
AIC: 155.67
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5
```

- Model 2:  $\log(\mu_{ij}) = u + u_i^V$  for i = 1, 2, 3, 4 and j = 1, 2, 3 with  $u_1^V = 0$ .
- Now we are testing

$$H_0 \colon \pi_{ij} = \pi_{i \bullet}/J \ \forall i,$$
  $H_A \colon \exists i \text{ such that } \pi_{ij} \neq \pi_{i \bullet}/J$ 

- The Deviance test statistic  $\Delta D = D_0 D_A \sim \chi^2_{(J-1)}$  under  $H_0$ .
- Here  $\Delta D = 150.1 51.795$  which corresponds to a *p*-value of

$$p = \mathbb{P}\left(\chi_{(2)}^2 > 98.305\right) < 0.001$$

Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis that all location occur with equal frequency.

```
1 - pchisq(model2$deviance - model1$deviance, model2$df.residual - model1$df.residual)[1] NaN
```

#### R output for Model 3: site

```
Min 1Q
                    Median
                    0.03089
-0.80329 -0.55135
                              0.38315
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -39.572
                         3.240 -12.21
                                       <2e-16 ***
dose
             22.041
                         1.799 12.25
                                         <2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
    Null deviance: 284.2024 on 7 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 3.4464 on 6 degrees of freedom
AIC: 33.644
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
1 - pchisq(model3$deviance - model1$deviance, model3$df.residual - model1$df.residual)
[1] NaN
```

• Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis that different tumour types occur equally often when controlled for sites.

## Summary: A Melanoma Study

• Row Percentages:

Tumour Type	Head and Neck	Trunk	Extremities	Total
Hutchinson's freckle	64.7	5.9	29.4	100
Superficial Spreading	8.6	29.2	62.2	100
Nodular	15.2	26.4	58.4	100
Indeterminate	19.6	30.4	50.0	100
Total	17.0	26.5	56.5	100

• Column Percentages:

Tumour Type	Head and Neck	Trunk	Extremities	Total
Hutchinson's freckle	32.4	1.9	4.4	8.5
Superficial Spreading	23.5	50.9	50.9	46.25
Nodular	27.9	31.1	32.3	31.25
Indeterminate	16.2	16.0	12.4	14.00
Total	100	100	100	100

- We rejected the null hypothesis that tumour type and site are independent.
- In addition, further investigation indicates that the different tumour types do not occur equally often, and melanoma does not occur equally often at the different sites of the body.
- See Course Notes for example of fitting model 1 with ANOVA constraints ( $\sum_i u_i^V = 0$  and  $\sum_j u_j^W = 0$ ) instead of corner-point constraints ( $u_1^V = u_1^W = 0$ ).

- Coefficient estimates and correlation matrix change.
- Deviance, deviance residuals, and fitted values are unchanged.

# Revisit the example from last section

Breast Self-Examination Contingency Table						
Frequency of breast self-examination						
		Monthly	Occasionally	Never	Total	
	<45	91	90	51	232	
Age	45–59	150	200	155	505	
	≥60	109	198	172	479	
	Total	350	488	378	1216	
		'			1	

• Last class we rejected the null hypothesis that Age and Frequency of breast self-examination are independent:

$$\begin{split} D &= 2\sum_i \sum_j y_{ij} \log \left(\frac{y_{ij}}{y_{i\bullet}y_{\bullet j}/y_{\bullet \bullet}}\right) = 25.19226. \\ p &= \mathbb{P}\Big(\chi_{(4)}^2 > 25.19226\Big) < 0.001. \end{split}$$

#### R Code

```
# Breast Self-Examination Contingency Table Analysis
y = c(91, 90, 51, 150, 200, 155, 109, 198, 172)
Age = as.factor(c(1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3))
Freq = as.factor(c(1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3))
Exam = data.frame(Age, Freq, y)
# Fit main effects log linear model
model1 = glm(y ~ Age + Freq, family = poisson)
summary(model1)
1 - pchisq(model1$deviance, model1$df.residual)
# Examine fitted values and deviance residuals
Exam$fv = model1$fitted.values
Exam$rd = residuals.glm(model1, type = "deviance")
Exam
```

# R Output for Main Effects Model

```
# Fit main effects log linear model
model1 = glm(y ~ Age + Freq, family = poisson)
summary(model1)

Call:
glm(formula = y ~ Age + Freq, family = poisson)

Deviance Residuals:
    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    8
```

```
2.8078 -0.3236 -2.6259 0.3834 -0.1876 -0.1585 -2.5530 0.4141
 1.8471
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) 4.20135 0.07966 52.743 < 2e-16 ***
            0.77782
                      0.07931 9.807 < 2e-16 ***
            0.72496
                      0.07999 9.063 < 2e-16 ***
Age3
Freq2
            0.33238
                      0.07005
                              4.745 2.08e-06 ***
Freq3
           0.07696
                      0.07418
                              1.037
                                          0.3
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 173.944 on 8 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 25.192 on 4 degrees of freedom
AIC: 95.168
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
1 - pchisq(model1$deviance, model1$df.residual)
[1] 4.602407e-05
Exam$fv = model1$fitted.values
Exam$rd = residuals.glm(model1, type = "deviance")
Exam
 Age Freq
                    fv
          У
     1 91 66.77632 2.8077823
  1
        2 90 93.10526 -0.3236329
3
        3 51 72.11842 -2.6259260
   1
   2
        1 150 145.35362 0.3833650
5
  2 2 200 202.66447 -0.1875765
6 2
        3 155 156.98191 -0.1585172
7
        1 109 137.87007 -2.5530416
8
  3
        2 198 192.23026 0.4140893
9 3 3 172 148.89967 1.8470579
```

- Reject  $H_0$  that main effects model is adequate, that is, we reject  $H_0$  that age and frequency are independent.
- Same Deviance Test statistic as what we calculated based on the multinomial distribution.
- Compare the above fitted values to the expected data under  $H_0$  (last lecture).

# Topic 4g: A Generalization to Three-way Tables

#### Log Linear Models for 2-Way Tables