IDS 702: Module 3.1

Poisson regression

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GENERALIZED LINEAR MODELS

- As we've seen over the last few modules, we may often need to work with outcome variables that are not continuous.
- Clearly, the standard linear regression will not suffice in those situations.
- Specifically, we saw how to use logistic and probit regression to handle binary response variables.
- In other scenarios however, our outcome variable will not be binary either.
- How should we handle that?



GENERALIZED LINEAR MODELS

- For example, we may want to predict
 - Whether someone prefers product A, B, or C (nominal)
 - Political ideology on an ordered 3 scale outcome, such as "very liberal", "moderate", "very conservative" (ordinal)
 - The number of times an event happens (counts)
- The classes of models we will use to handle these types of responses are referred to as generalized linear models (GLMs).
- Note that GLMs includes the linear, logistic and probit regressions we already covered.

COMPONENTS OF GLMS

Generally, GLMs have three major components:

1. The random component describes the randomness of the outcome variable Y through a pdf or pmf f, with parameter θ_i . That is,

$$|y_i|oldsymbol{x}_i \sim f(y_i| heta_i) \;\;\; ext{OR} \;\;\; y_i|oldsymbol{x}_i \sim f(y_i; heta_i) \;\;\; ext{OR} \;\;\; y_i|oldsymbol{x}_i \sim f(heta_i)$$

2. The systematic component defines a linear component of the predictors. That is, for each observation i,

$$\eta_i=eta_0+eta_1x_{i1}+eta_2x_{i2}+\ldots+eta_px_{ip}$$

3. The link function g connects the random and systematic components through $\mu_i = \mathbb{E}[Y_i]$, that is

$$\eta_i = g(u_i)$$

where g is a monotonic and differentiable function (for those with some math background).

In standard linear regression, g is the identity link $n_i = g(u_i) = u_i$, whereas in logistic regression, g is the logit function.

- Suppose you have count data (non-negative integers) as your response variable.
- For example, we may want to explain the number of c-sections carried out in hospitals using potential predictors such as
 - hospital type, that is, private vs public
 - location
 - size of the hospital
- The models we have covered so far are not adequate for count data.
- While this is generally the case, there are instances where linear regression, with some transformations (especially taking logs) on the response variable, might still work reasonably well for count data.
- Thus, one can attempt to fit a linear regression model first, check to see if the assumptions of the model are violated, and then move on to a more appropriate model if needed.



- A good distribution for modeling count data with no limit on the total number of counts is the Poisson distribution.
- Why would the Binomial distribution be inappropriate when there is no limit on the total number of counts?
- ullet The Poisson distribution is parameterized by λ and the pmf is given by

$$\Pr[Y=y] = rac{\lambda^y e^{-\lambda}}{y!}; \quad y=0,1,2,\ldots; \quad \lambda>0.$$

An interesting feature of the Poisson distribution is.

$$\mathbb{E}[Y=y]=\mathbb{V}[Y=y]=\lambda.$$

- When our data fails this assumption, we may have what is known as overdispersion and may want to consider the Negative Binomial distribution instead, or try a Bayesian specification (STA 602!).
- With no predictors, the best guess for λ is the sample mean, that is, $\hat{\lambda} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{y_i}{n}$.

• With predictors, we want to index λ with i, where each λ_i is a function of x_i . We can therefore write the random component of this glm as

$$y_i | oldsymbol{x}_i \sim ext{Poisson}(\lambda_i); \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

lacktriangle We must ensure that $\lambda_i>0$ at any value of $m{x}_i$, therefore, we need a link function that enforces this. A natural choice is the natural logarithm, so that we have

$$\log\left(\lambda_i\right) = eta_0 + eta_1 x_{i1} + eta_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + eta_p x_{ip}.$$

- Combining these pieces give us our full mathematical representation for the Poisson regression.
- In R, use the glm command but set the option family = "poisson".
- ullet Clearly, λ_i has a natural interpretation as the "expected count", and

$$\lambda_i = e^{eta_0 + eta_1 x_{i1} + eta_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + eta_p x_{ip}}$$

means that we can interpret the e^{β_j} 's as multiplicative effects on the expected counts.

For predictions, we can look at the expected counts, that is,

$$\hat{\lambda}_i = e^{\hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_{i1} + \hat{eta}_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + \hat{eta}_p x_{ip}}$$

- Interpretation of e^{β_j} :
 - For continuous x_j : the expected count of Y increases by a multiplicative factor of e^{β_j} when increasing x_j by one unit.
 - For binary x_j : the expected count of Y increases by a multiplicative factor of e^{β_j} for the group with $x_j=1$ in comparison to the group with $x_j=0$.

- For example, suppose
 - Suppose the response variable is the number of mating for elephants, and let x_1 represent the age of the elephants
 - ullet Also suppose $\hat{eta}_j=0.069$, so that $e^{\hat{eta}_j}=e^{0.069}=1.0714$.
 - Then, an increase in age of one year increases the expected number of mating for elephants by 7 percent.

- The raw residuals $e_i = y_i \hat{\lambda}_i$ are difficult to interpret since variance is equal to the mean in Poisson distributions.
- Use the Pearson's residuals instead:

$$r_i = rac{y_i - \hat{\lambda}_i}{\sqrt{\hat{\lambda}_i}}$$

- Plot the r_i 's versus the predicted $\hat{\lambda}_i$'s, as well as the x_j values for each predictor j, to look for trends suggesting model misspecification.
- We can also use those to identify potential outliers.
- We can still check for multicollinearity, do model validation using RMSE, and do model selection via forward, backward and stepwise selection for Poisson regression
- We can also perform a change in deviance test to compare nested models.



• We will look at an example soon.

WHAT'S NEXT?

MOVE ON TO THE READINGS FOR THE NEXT MODULE!

