

Generalized Linear (GLM) and Additive Modeling (GAM) with R

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GLM/GAM with R: Day 1 Agenda: Linear Modeling

Linear Modeling with R:

- What are Linear Models?
- Response and Predictor Variables
- Residual Sums of Squares
- Properties of β :
 - Expected value
 - Variance
- Linear Modeling Example with R: How Old is the Universe?
 - Predictor coefficient
 - Confidence intervals
 - Testing hypotheses
- Standard (Omnibus) Linear Modeling Functions in R
- Linear Models in General: Transitioning to GLMs

GLM/GAM with R: Day 1 Agenda: GLMs



Generalized Linear Models (GLMs) with R:

- What are GLMs?
 - Error Structure
 - Linear Predictor
 - Link Function
- Count Data
 - As Proportions
 - As Frequencies
- Proportion Data
 - Binomial Errors
 - Binomial Model Example with R: Likelihood of Heart Disease
- Count Data as Frequencies
 - Poisson Errors
 - Poisson Model Example with R: The Spread of a Global Epidemic
- Categorical Data
 - Binary Response Variables
 - 3
 - Contingency Table Counts or Data as Proportions: Two Examples in R

Day 2 material below dotted line



Linear Modeling with R

What are Linear Models?



• Consider n observations, x_i , y_i , where y_i is an observation on random variable, Y_i , with expectation:

$$\mu_i \equiv E(Y_i) \qquad (1)$$

Suppose that an appropriate model for the relationship between x and y is:

$$Y_i = \mu_i + \varepsilon_i$$
 where $\mu_i = x_i \beta$ (2)

• Here β is an unknown parameter and the ε_i are mutually independent zero mean random variables, each with the same variance σ^2 .

Response and Predictor Variables



- So the model says that Y is given by x multiplied by a constant plus a random term.
- Y is an example of a *response variable*, while x is an example of a *predictor variable*.
- How can β be estimated from the x_i , y_i data? One approach is to choose a value of β that makes the model fit closely to the data.
- So we must choose a measure that defines how well, or how badly, a model with a particular β fits the data.

Residual Sums of Squares



One possible such measure is the residual sums of squares of the model:

$$s = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \mu_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - x_i \beta)^2$$
 (3)

- When we have chosen a good value of β , close to the true value, then the model-predicted μ_i should be relatively close to the y_i so the sshould be small.
- The method of *least squares*: β can be *estimated* by minimizing s with respect to β .
- So we have an estimated parameter value, $\hat{\beta}$, which we will use as a proxy for the true parameter, β .

Desirable Properties for \hat{eta}

- The estimator, $\hat{\beta}$, is a **random variable** and so we can discuss its distribution.
- To evaluate the *reliability* of the least squares estimate $\hat{\beta}$ it is useful to consider the *sampling properties* of $\hat{\beta}$.
- The **expected value** of $\hat{\beta}$ is:

$$E(\hat{\beta}) = E\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}Y_{i} / \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}E(Y_{i}) / \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2}\beta / \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} = \beta$$

• So $\hat{\beta}$ is **unbiased**, it is an estimator that 'gets it right on average', but how good is any one particular estimate likely to be?

Desirable Properties for \hat{eta}

- From general probability theory, if $Y_1, Y_2, ..., Y_n$ are independent random variables and $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$ are real constants then: $var\left(\sum_{i} a_i Y_i\right) = \sum_{i} a_i^2 var(Y_i)$
- But we know: $\hat{\beta} = \sum_{i}^{\infty} a_i Y_i$ where $a_i = x_i / \sum_{i} x_i^2$
- And from the original model specification:

$$\operatorname{var}(\hat{\beta}) = \sum_{i} x_{i}^{2} / \left(\sum_{i} x_{i}^{2}\right)^{2} \sigma^{2} = \left(\sum_{i} x_{i}^{2}\right)^{-1} \sigma^{2}$$

- So we can say that: $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (y_i x_i \hat{\beta})^2$
- ullet This gives us an *unbiased* estimate of the variance of eta

How Old is the Universe?



The big-bang model implies that the universe expands uniformly according to Hubble's law:

$$y = \beta x$$

- Where y is the relative velocity of any two galaxies separated by distance x, and β is "Hubble's constant".
- $\beta^{^{-1}}$ is the approximate age of the universe, but β is unknown and must be estimated from observations of x and y.

Dating the Cosmos with R



- We can use the lm() function in R to calculate the age of the universe.
- The use the Cepheid distance velocity data for 24 galaxies stored in the data frame hubble.

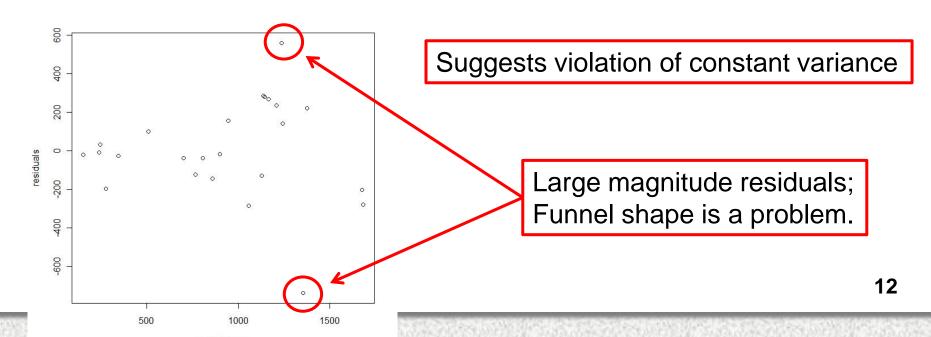
```
> library(gamair) # contains 'hubble'
> data(hubble)
> hub.mod <- lm(y~x(-1,)data=hubble)
> summary (hub.mod)
                            Do not include and intercept term
Call:
lm(formula = y \sim x - 1, data = hubble)
Residuals:
   Min 1Q Median
                          3Q
                                Max
-736.5 -132.5 -19.0 172.2 558.0
                    Beta coefficient
Coefficients:
  Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
    76.581
                3.965 19.32 1.03e-15
X
```

Must Check Assumptions

fitted values



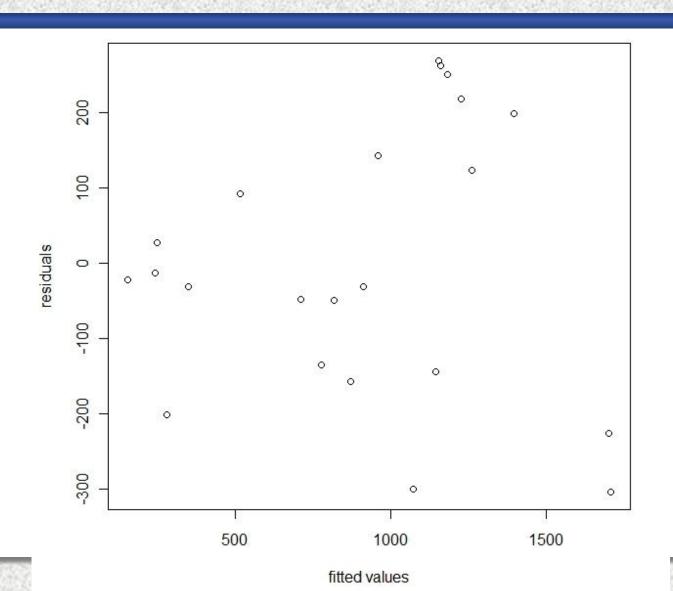
- Check if \mathcal{E}_i are independent and all have equal variance using plot of residuals against fitted values.
 - > plot(fitted(hub.mod),residuals(hub.mod),xlab="fitted
 values",ylab="residuals")



Fit Same Model to New Data Set

```
> hub.mod1 <- lm(y\simx-1,data=hubble[-c(3,15),])
> summary(hub.mod1)
Call: Im(formula = y \sim x - 1, data = hubble[-c(3, 15), ])
Residuals:
   Min 1Q Median 3Q
                             Max
-304.3 -141.9 -26.5 138.3 269.8
                                        New Beta coefficient
Coefficients:
 Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
x 77.67
            2.97 26.15 <2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
> plot(fitted(hub.mod1),residuals(hub.mod1),xlab="fittedvalues",ylab="residuals")
```

Omit Observations #3 and #15



How Old is the Universe?

- > hubble.const <- c(coef(hub.mod),coef(hub.mod1))/3.09e19
- > age <- 1/hubble.const
- > age/(60^2*24*365)

Two age estimates:
Around 13 Billion Years

12794692825 12614854757

The Hubble constant estimates have units of $(km)s^{-1}$ $(Mpc)^{-1}$. A Mega-parsec Is 3.09 x 10^{19} km, so we need to divide β by this amount, in order to obtain Hubble's constant with units of s^{-1} . The approximate age of the universe, in seconds, is then given by the reciprocal of β .

Adding a Distributional Assumption



To find confidence intervals for β or to test hypotheses, we need to make an additional distributional assumption. We have assumed that:

$$\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$
 for all i , which implies $Y_i \sim N(x_i\beta, \sigma^2)$

- Further, we know that $\hat{\beta}$ is the weighted sum of Y_i which we assume to be a random normal variable.
- So the estimator $\hat{\beta}$ must also be a random normal variable. So:

$$\hat{\beta} \sim N(\beta, (\sum x_i^2)^{-1} \sigma^2)$$

Testing Hypotheses About *B*



- We want to test that the age of the universe is only 6,000 years. This implies that $\beta = 163 \times 10^6$
- We empirically examine the probability, or *p-value*, that we would have observed our value for $\hat{\beta}$ if the true value was actually $\beta = 163 \times 10^6$.
- R code to evaluate the p-value for H₀: the Hubble constant is 163000000.

3.906388e-150 # This is the t-stat for H_0

Confidence Intervals



- What *range of values* for β would be consistent with the proposition that the universe is only 6,000 years old?
- The R function qt() can be used to find these ranges:
 qt(c(0.25, 0.975),df=21) # returns the range of the middle 95%

```
> sigb <- summary(hub.mod1)$coefficients[2]</pre>
```

- > h.ci<-coef(hub.mod1)+qt(c(0.025,0.975),df=21) sigb
- > h.ci

```
[1] 71.49588 83.84995 \leftarrow 95% Cl for \beta
```

- > h.ci<-h.ci*60^2*24*365.25/3.09e19 # convert to 1/years
- > sort(1/h.ci) 71.49588 83.84995

Some Standard Linear Modeling Functions

Function in R	Description of Function in R
lm	Estimates a linear model by least squares. Returns a fitted model of class $1m$ containing parameter estimates plus other auxiliary results for use by other functions.
plot	Produces model checking plots from a fitted model object.
summary	Produces summary information about a fitted model, including parameter estimates, associated standard errors, p-values, r ² etc.
anova	Used for model comparison based on F-ratio testing.
AIC	Extract Akaike's information criterion for a model fit.
residuals	Extract an array of model residuals from a fitted model.
fitted	Extract an array of fitted values from a fitted model object.
predict	Obtain predicted values from a fitted model, either for new values of the predictor variables, or for the original values. Standard errors of the predictions can also be returned.

Linear Models in General



- We can generalize the simple linear model by allowing the response variable to depend on multiple predictor variables (plus an additive constant).
- The extra predictors can be transformations of the original predictors. Here are some examples:

(1)
$$\mu_i = \beta_0 + x_i \beta_1, Y_i = \mu_i + x_i \varepsilon_i$$

(2)
$$\mu_i = \beta_0 + x_i \beta_1 + x_i^2 \beta_2 + x_i^3 \beta_3$$
,

(3)
$$\mu_i = \beta_0 + x_i \beta_1 + z_i \beta_2 + \log(x_i z_i) \beta_3$$
,

Linear Models in General



(1)
$$\mu_i = \beta_0 + x_i \beta_1, Y_i = \mu_i + x_i \varepsilon_i$$

(2)
$$\mu_i = \beta_0 + x_i \beta_1 + x_i^2 \beta_2 + x_i^3 \beta_3$$
,

(3)
$$\mu_i = \beta_0 + x_i \beta_1 + z_i \beta_2 + \log(x_i z_i) \beta_3$$

- Each of these is a linear model because the \mathcal{E}_j terms and the model parameters, $oldsymbol{eta}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle j}$, enter the model in a linear way.
- But the predictor variables can enter the model nonlinearly.
- Like the simple model, the parameters of these models can be estimated by finding the $oldsymbol{eta}_j$ values which make the models best fit the observed data in the sense of minimizing $\sum_{i} (y_i - \mu_i)^2$.