# Introduction to statistics: Generalized linear models (logistic regression)

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We start with an example data-set that appears in the Dobson et al book: the Beetle dataset.

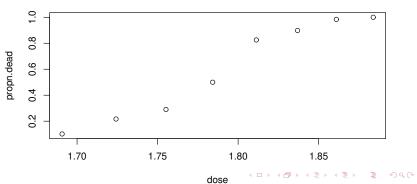
This data-set shows the number of beetles killed when they were exposed to different doses of some toxic chemical.

```
(beetle<-read.table("data/beetle.txt",header=TRUE))
      dose number killed
## 1 1.6907
               59
## 2 1.7242 60
                      13
## 3 1.7552 62
                      18
## 4 1.7842
               56
                      28
## 5 1.8113
               63
                      52
                      53
## 6 1.8369
               59
## 7 1.8610
               62
                      61
## 8 1.8839
               60
                      60
```

The research question is: does dose affect probability of killing insects? The first thing we probably want to do is calculate the proportions:

```
(beetle$propn.dead<-beetle$killed/beetle$number)
## [1] 0.10169 0.21667 0.29032 0.50000 0.82540 0.89831 0.98
```

It's also reasonable to just plot the relationship between dose and proportion of deaths.



Notice that the y-axis is by definition bounded between 0 and 1. We could easily fit a linear model to this data-set. We may want to center the predictor, for reasons discussed earlier:

```
fm<-lm(propn.dead~scale(dose,scale=FALSE),beetle)</pre>
```

## Coefficients:

## (Intercept)

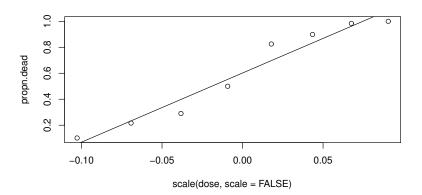
##

##

## scale(dose, scale = FALSE) 5.3249 0.4857 11.000

Estimate Std. Error t value 1

0.6020 0.0306 19.6



The interpretation of the coefficients is making little sense here. Clearly the linear model is failing us. This is the motivation for the generalized linear model.

Instead of using the linear model, we model  $\log$  odds instead of proportions p as a function of dose. Odds are defined as:

$$\frac{p}{1-p} \tag{1}$$

and taking the  $\log$  will give us log odds.

We are going to model log odds (instead of probability) as a linear function of dose.

$$\log \frac{p}{1-p} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathsf{dose} \tag{2}$$

The model above is called the logistic regression model.

Once we have estimated the  $\beta$  parameters, we can move back from the log odds space to probability space using algebra. Given a model like

$$\log \frac{p}{1-p} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathsf{dose} \tag{3}$$

If we exponentiate each side, we get:

$$exp\log\frac{p}{1-p} = \frac{p}{1-p} = exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1\mathsf{dose}) \tag{4}$$

So now we just solve for p, and get (check this):

$$p = \frac{exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathsf{dose})}{1 + exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathsf{dose})} \tag{5}$$

We fit the model in R as follows. Note that as long as I am willing to avoid interpreting the intercept and just interpret the estimate of  $\beta_1$ , there is no need to center the predictor here:

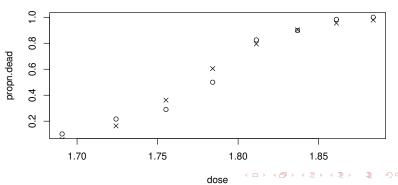
```
summary(fm1)
##
## Call:
## glm(formula = propn.dead ~ dose, family = binomial(logit), da
      weights = number)
##
##
## Deviance Residuals:
##
```

Min 1Q Median 3Q Max ## -1.594 -0.394 0.833 1.259 1.594 ##

## Coefficients:

Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|) ## ## (Intercept) -60.72 5.18 -11.7 <2e-16 34.27 2.91 11.8 <2e-16 ## dose

We can also plot the observed proportions and the fitted values together; the fit looks pretty good.



We can now compute the log odds of death for concentration 1.7552 (for example):

```
## compute log odds of death for
## concentration 1.7552:
x<-as.matrix(c(1, 1.7552))
#log odds:
(log.odds<-t(x)%*%coef(fm1))
## [,1]
## [1,] -0.56618</pre>
```

We can also obtain the variance-covariance matrix of the fitted coefficients:

```
### compute CI for log odds:
## Get vcov matrix:
(vcovmat<-vcov(fm1))
##
               (Intercept) dose
## (Intercept)
              26.840 -15.0821
                  -15.082 8.4805
## dose
## x^T VCOV x for dose 1.7552:
(var.log.odds<-t(x)%*%vcovmat%*%x)</pre>
##
           [,1]
## [1,] 0.021678
```

The lower and upper confidence interval bounds on the probability scale can be computed by using equation 5.

```
(mean_prob <-exp(log.odds)/(1+exp(log.odds)))
           [,1]
##
## [1.] 0.36212
(lower_prob<-exp(lower)/(1+exp(lower)))
##
           [,1]
## [1,] 0.29844
(upper_prob<-exp(upper)/(1+exp(upper)))
           [,1]
##
## [1,] 0.43104
```

So for dose 1.7552, the probability of death is 0.36, with 95% confidence intervals 0.3 and 0.43.

Note that one should not try to predict outside the range of the design matrix. For example, in the beetle data, the dose ranges from 1.69 to 1.88. We should not try to compute probabilities for dose 2.5, say, since we have no knowledge about whether the relationship remains unchanged beyond the upper bound of our design matrix.

- We have some Hindi eyetracking data (from Husain et al., 2015). We can compute skipping probability, the probability of skipping a word entirely (i.e., never fixating it).
- ► The predictors are: word complexity and storage complexity (SC). We expect that the higher the word complexity and the higher the storage complexity, the lower the skipping probability.
- We first have to create a vector that has value 1 if the word has 0 ms total reading time, and 0 otherwise.

```
hindi<-read.table("data/hindiJEMR.txt",header=TRUE)
hindi$skip<-ifelse(hindi$TFT==0,1,0)
fm_skip<-glm(skip ~ word_complex+SC,family=binomial(),hinds</pre>
```

```
summary(fm_skip)
##
## Call:
## glm(formula = skip ~ word_complex + SC, family = binomial(),
      data = hindi)
##
##
## Deviance Residuals:
    Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
##
## -1.114 -0.915 -0.697 1.242 2.894
##
## Coefficients:
##
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
## (Intercept) -0.1512 0.0154 -9.84 <2e-16
## word_complex -0.6398 0.0160 -39.88 <2e-16
               -0.5019 0.0128 -39.27 <2e-16
## SC
##
```

The above example also illustrates the second way to set up the data for logistic (multiple) regression: the dependent variable can simply be a 1 or 0 value instead of proportions. So, in the beetle data, you could recode the data to have 1s and 0s instead of proportions. Assuming that you have recoded the column for status (dead or alive after exposure), the glm function call would be:

glm(dead~dose,family=binomial(),beetle)

Note that logistic regression assumes independence of each data point; this assumption is violated in the Hindi data. For the Hindi data, we will have to use generalized linear mixed models.

#### The canonical link

- ► The binomial and normal distributions belong to a wider family of distributions called the exponential family.
- Other examples are: Poisson, Gamma, Probit.

For each of these exponential family distributions, there is a so-called **canonical link** that gives us the predicted values  $x^T \hat{\beta}$  from the model.

#### The canonical link

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For different distributions in the exponential family, the canonical link functions are as follows:

ſ	Distribution	$h(x_i^T \beta) = \mu_i$	Canonical link: $g(\mu_i) = \theta_i$
ļ	ווטוטווטוו	, ,	Canonical link. $g(\mu_i) = v_i$
	Binomial	$\frac{exp[\theta_i]}{1 + exp[\theta_i]}$	$\log \frac{y}{1-y}$
	logit link		
	Normal	$\theta$	g = h
	identity		
ĺ	Poisson	$exp[\theta]$	$\log[\mu]$
	log		
	Gamma	$-\frac{1}{\theta}$	$-\frac{1}{\mu_i}$
	inverse		, ,
Ì	Cloglog	$1 - exp[-exp[\theta_i]]$	$\log(-\log(1-\mu_i))$
	cloglog		
ĺ	Probit	$\Phi(\theta)$	$\Phi^{-1}( heta)$ (qnorm)

#### Deviance

Deviance is defined as

$$D = 2[\ell(b_{max}; y) - \ell(b; y)] \tag{6}$$

where  $\ell(b_{max};y)$  is the log likelihood of the saturated model (the model with the maximal number of parameters that can be fit), and  $\ell(b;y)$  is the log likelihood of the model with the parameters b. Deviance has a chi-squared distribution.

Deviance is defined as  $D = \sum d_i$ , where:

$$d_i = -2 \times n_i [y_i \log(\frac{\hat{\mu}_i}{y_i}) + (1 - y_i) \log(\frac{1 - \hat{\mu}_i}{1 - y_i})]$$
 (7)

The basic idea here is that if the model fit is good, Deviance will have a  $\chi^2$  distribution with N-p degrees of freedom.

N is the number of data points, p the number of parameters.

So that is what we will use for assessing model fit.

We will also use deviance for hypothesis testing.

The difference in deviance (residual deviance) between two models also has a  $\chi^2$  distribution (this should remind you of ANOVA), with dfs being p-q, where q is the number of parameters in the first model, and p the number of parameters in the second. I discuss hypothesis testing first, then evaluating goodness of fit using deviance.

Returning to our beetle data, let's say we fit our model:

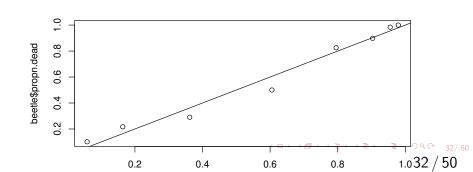
The summary output shows us the number of iterations that led to the parameter estimates:

```
summary(glm1)
##
## Call:
## glm(formula = propn.dead ~ dose, family = binomial(logit), data = beetle,
      weights = number)
##
##
## Deviance Residuals:
     Min 10 Median
                         30
                                    Max
## -1.594 -0.394 0.833 1.259 1.594
##
## Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
##
## (Intercept) -60.72
                       5.18 -11.7 <2e-16
              34.27
## dose
                            2.91 11.8 <2e-16
##
  (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
## ATC: 41 43
##
## Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

But we also see something called **Null deviance** and **Residual deviance**. These are used to evaluate quality of model fit. Recall that we can compute the fitted values and compare them to the observed values:

```
# beta.hat is (-60.71745 , 34.27033)
(eta.hat<- -60.71745 + 34.27033*beetle$dose)
## [1] -2.77660 -1.62855 -0.56617 0.42767 1.35640 2.233'
(mu.hat<-exp(eta.hat)/(1+exp(eta.hat)))
## [1] 0.058602 0.164030 0.362122 0.605318 0.795174 0.9032;</pre>
```

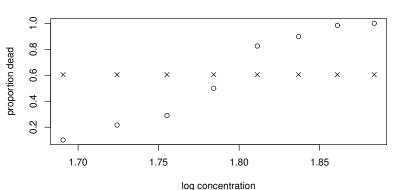
```
# compare mu.hat with observed proportions
plot(mu.hat,beetle$propn.dead)
abline(0,1)
```



To evaluate whether dose has an effect, we will do something analogous to the model comparison methods we saw earlier. First, fit a model with only an intercept. Notice that the null deviance is 284 on 7 degrees of freedom.

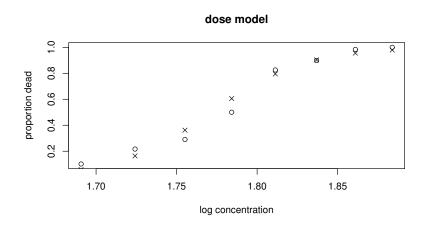
```
summary(null.glm)
##
## Call:
## glm(formula = propn.dead ~ 1, family = binomial(logit), data = beetle,
      weights = number)
##
##
## Deviance Residuals:
     Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
## -8.11 -5.29 1.10 5.62 7.77
##
## Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
  (Intercept) 0.4263
                          0.0933 4.57 4.9e-06
##
  (Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
##
##
      Null deviance: 284.2 on 7 degrees of freedom
## Residual deviance: 284.2 on 7 degrees of freedom
## ATC: 312.4
##
## Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

#### minimal model



Add a term for dose. Now, the residual deviance is 11.2 on 6 dfs.

```
summary(dose.glm)
##
## Call:
## glm(formula = propn.dead ~ dose, family = binomial(logit), data = beetle,
      weights = number)
##
##
## Deviance Residuals:
     Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
## -1.594 -0.394 0.833 1.259 1.594
##
## Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
## (Intercept) -60.72
                          5.18 -11.7 <2e-16
## dose
              34.27
                          2.91 11.8 <2e-16
##
  (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
## ATC: 41.43
##
## Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```



The change in deviance from the null model is 284.2-11.2=273 on 1 df. Since the critical  $\chi_1^2=3.84$ , we reject the null hypothesis that  $\beta_1=0$ .

You can do the model comparison using the anova function. Note that no statistical test is calculated; you need to do that yourself.

```
anova(null.glm,dose.glm)

## Analysis of Deviance Table

## Model 1: propn.dead ~ 1

## Model 2: propn.dead ~ dose

## Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance

## 1 7 284.2

## 2 6 11.2 1 273
```

Actually, you don't even need to define the null model; the anova function automatically compares the fitted model to the null model:

```
anova(dose.glm)
## Analysis of Deviance Table
##
## Model: binomial, link: logit
##
   Response: propn.dead
##
## Terms added sequentially (first to last)
##
##
##
        Df Deviance Resid. Df Resid. Dev
```

## Goodness of fit

The deviance for a given degrees of freedom v should have a  $\chi^2_v$  distribution for the model to be adequate. As an example, consider the null model above. The deviance is clearly much larger than the 95th percentile cutoff point of the chi-squared distribution with 7 dfs, so the model is not adequate.

```
deviance(null.glm)
## [1] 284.2
## critical value:
qchisq(0.95,df=7)
## [1] 14.067
```

# Goodness of fit

Now consider the model with dose as predictor. The deviance is less than the 95th percentile, so the fit is adequate.

```
deviance(dose.glm)
## [1] 11.232
qchisq(0.95,df=6)
## [1] 12.592
```

In the binomial distribution, Deviance  $D = \sum d_i$ , where:

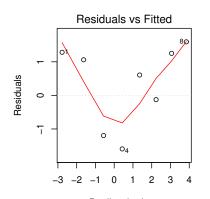
$$d_i = -2 \times n_i [y_i \log(\frac{\hat{\mu}_i}{y_i}) + (1 - y_i) \log(\frac{1 - \hat{\mu}_i}{1 - y_i})]$$
 (8)

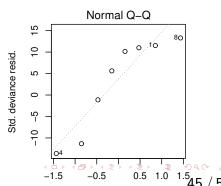
The *i*-th deviance residual is defined as:

$$e_{D,i} = sgn(y_i - \hat{\mu}_i) \times \sqrt{d_i}$$
 (9)

These can be used to check for model adequacy as discussed earlier in the context of linear models. One can just use the plot function inspect the residuals:

```
op<-par(mfrow=c(2,2),pty="s")
plot(dose.glm)</pre>
```



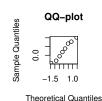


Alternatively, one can do this by hand:



#### Histogram





#### Residuals versus fitted values



Fitted values

The GLMM is now straightforward: we know the basic theory of linear mixed models already, and the syntax is very general.

```
summary(fm_skip_lmer)
## Generalized linear mixed model fit by maximum likelihood (Laplace
  Approximation) [glmerMod]
## Family: binomial (logit)
## Formula: skip ~ word_complex + SC + (1 | subj) + (1 | item)
##
     Data: hindi
##
##
       ATC
               BIC
                   logLik deviance df.resid
     88404
             88450
                   -44197
                              88394
##
                                       79938
##
## Scaled residuals:
     Min 10 Median 30
## -1.802 -0.634 -0.467 0.916 6.747
##
## Random effects:
## Groups Name
                Variance Std.Dev.
## item (Intercept) 0.00935 0.0967
   subj (Intercept) 0.26252 0.5124
## Number of obs: 79943, groups: item, 83; subj, 30
##
## Fixed effects:
##
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
## (Intercept) -0.1409 0.0955 -1.48 0.14
## word_complex -0.6862 0.0167 -41.09 <2e-16
              -0.5398 0.0133 -40.49 <2e-16
## SC
##
## Correlation of Fixed Effects:
## (Intr) und cm
```

Centering the predictors yields lower correlations of fixed effects:

```
summary(fm_skip_lmer2)
## Generalized linear mixed model fit by maximum likelihood (Laplace
   Approximation) [glmerMod]
  Family: binomial (logit)
## Formula:
## skip ~ scale(word_complex, scale = FALSE) + scale(SC, scale = FALSE) +
      (1 | subj) + (1 | item)
##
     Data: hindi
##
##
##
       ATC
                BTC
                    logLik deviance df.resid
              88450 -44197 88394
##
     88404
                                        79938
##
## Scaled residuals:
     Min 1Q Median 3Q
                                Max
## -1 802 -0 634 -0 467 0 916 6 747
##
## Random effects:
  Groups Name
                    Variance Std.Dev.
  item (Intercept) 0.00935 0.0967
   subj (Intercept) 0.26252 0.5124
## Number of obs: 79943, groups: item, 83; subj, 30
##
## Fixed effects:
                                    Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
##
## (Intercept)
                                    -1.0047 0.0945 -10.6 <2e-16
## scale(word_complex, scale = FALSE) -0.6862 0.0167 -41.1 <2e-16
                                    -0.5398 0.0133 -40.5 <2e-16
## scale(SC, scale = FALSE)
```