

第三章 指数族分布的统计推断

Parameter Estimation

- In the GLM model we are interesting in estimating β , the parameters in the linear predictor term.
- Consider maximum likelihood.
- The likelihood function is

$$\begin{aligned} L(\beta) &= \prod_{i=1}^n f(y_i|\theta_i, \phi) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \exp\left(\frac{y_i\theta_i - b(\theta_i)}{a(\phi)} + c(y_i, \phi)\right) \\ &= \exp\left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i\theta_i - b(\theta_i))}{a(\phi)} + \sum_{i=1}^n c(y_i, \phi)\right). \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Parameter Estimation

- Hence the log-likelihood is

$$\begin{aligned} l(\beta) &= \frac{1}{a(\phi)} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i \theta_i - b(\theta_i)) + \sum_{i=1}^n c(y_i, \phi) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n l_i(\beta), \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

say.

The score functions

- Taking derivatives of the log likelihood with respect to β_j , $j = 1, \dots, p$ we obtain the score functions

$$U_j(\beta) = \frac{\partial l(\beta)}{\partial \beta_j}, \quad j = 1, \dots, p.$$

- Remember that

$$\mu_i = b'(\theta_i). \quad \eta_i = g(\mu_i) = \mathbf{x}_i^T \beta.$$

- Using the chain rule we have

$$\begin{aligned} U_j(\beta) &= \frac{\partial l(\beta)}{\partial \beta_j} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial l_i(\beta)}{\partial \beta_j} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial l_i(\beta)}{\partial \theta_i} \frac{\partial \theta_i}{\partial \mu_i} \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \eta_i} \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \beta_j}. \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

The derivatives

- The derivatives are:

$$\frac{\partial l_i(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \theta_i} = \frac{1}{a(\phi)}(y_i - \mathbf{b}'(\theta_i)) = \frac{y_i - \mu_i}{a(\phi)};$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial \theta_i}{\partial \mu_i} &= \left(\frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \theta_i}\right)^{-1} = \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{b}'(\theta_i)}{\partial \theta_i}\right)^{-1} \\ &= (\mathbf{b}''(\theta_i))^{-1} \\ &= (V(\mu_i))^{-1};\end{aligned}\tag{4}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \eta_i} &= \left(\frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \mu_i}\right)^{-1} = \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{g}(\mu_i)}{\partial \mu_i}\right)^{-1} \\ &\equiv (\mathbf{g}'(\mu_i))^{-1};\end{aligned}\tag{5}$$

$$\frac{\partial \eta_{ij}}{\partial \beta_j} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}}{\partial \beta_j} = \mathbf{x}_{ij},$$

where \mathbf{x}_{ij} is the j th element of \mathbf{x}_i , or equivalently the (i, j) element of matrix \mathbf{X} .

The score equations

- To solve for β we need to solve the score equations, that is,

$$U_j(\beta) = 0, \quad j = 1, \dots, p.$$

- In our case we solve

$$\begin{aligned} U_j(\beta) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{y_i - \mu_i}{a(\phi)} (V(\mu_i))^{-1} (g'(\mu_i))^{-1} x_{ij} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{V(\mu_i) a(\phi) (g'(\mu_i))^2} x_{ij} (y_i - \mu_i) g'(\mu_i) \\ &= 0, \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

for $j = 1, \dots, p$.

Using adjusted dependent variables

- Let

$$\omega_i = \frac{1}{V(\mu_i)a(\phi)(g'(\mu_i))^2}.$$

- Then the score equations become

$$U_j(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i x_{ij} (y_i - \mu_i) g'(\mu_i) = 0,$$

for $j = 1, \dots, p$.

- Also define

$$z_i = \eta_i + (y_i - \mu_i) g'(\mu_i).$$

- Thus

$$U_j(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i x_{ij} (z_i - \eta_i) = 0,$$

for $j = 1, \dots, p$.

Matrix notation

- Let $\mathbf{W} = \text{diag}(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n)$, \mathbf{X} denote the design matrix, $\mathbf{z} = (z_1, \dots, z_n)^T$ and $\boldsymbol{\eta} = (z_1, \dots, z_n)^T$. Also let $\mathbf{U}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = (U_1(\boldsymbol{\beta}), \dots, U_n(\boldsymbol{\beta}))^T$. Then

$$\mathbf{U}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W}(\mathbf{z} - \boldsymbol{\eta}) = 0.$$

Since $\boldsymbol{\eta} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$, we have that

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

This is the weighted least squares (WLS) problem. When \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{W} are known, the estimate of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ which solves the normal equations are

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{z}.$$

Problem: \mathbf{W} and \mathbf{z} depend on $\boldsymbol{\beta}$!

Iteratively weighted least squares(IWLS)

- Solution: we iterate!
- Start with a guess for η :

$$\eta^{(0)} = g(\mathbf{y}).$$

(we may need to adjust this slightly in practice).

- Iteratively calculate the following for $j = 1, 2, \dots$
 1. $\mu = h(\eta^{(j-1)})$ (where we let $h(\cdot)$ denote the inverse link function).
 2. $\mathbf{W} = \text{diag}([V(\mu)a(\phi)(g'(\mu))^2]^{-1})$.
 3. $\mathbf{z} = \eta + (\mathbf{y} - \mu)g'(\mu)$.
 4. $\beta = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{z}$.
 5. $\eta^{(j)} = \mathbf{X} \beta$.
- We stop iterating when $\beta^{(j)} - \beta^{(j-1)}$ is "small"
(equivalently we can look at changes in η).

Remarks on parameter estimation

- We could also estimate β using a Fisher scoring or Newton-Raphson scheme.

-**Fisher scoring** is

$$\beta^{(j)} = \beta^{(j-1)} + [\mathbf{I}(\beta^{(j-1)})^{-1}] \mathbf{U}(\beta^{(j-1)}),$$

where **Fisher's information matrix** is

$$\mathbf{I}(\beta) = -E\left(\frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^T}\right).$$

This can be shown to be equivalent to IWLS.

-The **Newton-Raphson algorithm** is

$$\beta^{(j)} = \beta^{(j-1)} + [\mathbf{i}(\beta^{(j-1)})^{-1}] \mathbf{U}(\beta^{(j-1)}),$$

where the **observed information matrix** is

$$\mathbf{i}(\beta) = -\left(\frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^T}\right).$$

This is equivalent to IWLS, Fisher scoring for canonical links only.

The second derivative

- We have already shown that

$$\frac{\partial l_i(\beta)}{\partial \beta_j} = \omega_i \mathbf{g}'(\mu_i) \mathbf{x}_{ij} (y_i - \mu_i).$$

- Now

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 l_i(\beta)}{\partial \beta_j \partial \beta_k} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} [\omega_i \mathbf{g}'(\mu_i) \mathbf{x}_{ij} (y_i - \mu_i)] \\ &= \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \omega_i \mathbf{g}'(\mu_i) \right] \mathbf{x}_{ij} (y_i - \mu_i) + \omega_i \mathbf{g}'(\mu_i) \mathbf{x}_{ij} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} (y_i - \mu_i) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

- Start by ignoring the first term!
- In the second term, we know that

$$\frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta_k} = \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \eta_i} \frac{\partial \eta_i}{\partial \beta_k} = (\mathbf{g}'(\mu_i))^{-1} \mathbf{x}_{ik},$$

and so

$$\frac{\partial^2 l_i(\beta)}{\partial \beta_j \partial \beta_k} = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \omega_i \mathbf{g}'(\mu_i) \right] \mathbf{x}_{ij} (y_i - \mu_i) - \omega_i \mathbf{g}'(\mu_i) \mathbf{x}_{ij} (\mathbf{g}'(\mu_i))^{-1} \mathbf{x}_{ik}.$$

The Fisher information matrix

- Simplifying we have

$$\frac{\partial^2 l(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \beta_j \partial \beta_k} = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \omega_i \mathbf{g}'(\mu_i) \right] \mathbf{x}_{ij} (y_i - \mu_i) - \omega_i \mathbf{x}_{ij} \mathbf{x}_{ik}.$$

- Since $E(Y_i) = \mu_i$, the Fisher information for observation i is

$$-E\left(\frac{\partial^2 l(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \beta_j \partial \beta_k}\right) = 0 + \omega_i \mathbf{x}_{ij} \mathbf{x}_{ik}.$$

- The Fisher information for the whole sample is

$$-E\left(\frac{\partial^2 l(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \beta_j \partial \beta_k}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i \mathbf{x}_{ij} \mathbf{x}_{ik}.$$

- In the matrix notation already defined,

$$\mathbf{I}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X}.$$

Estimating the Fisher information matrix

- \mathbf{X} is known in practice, but, \mathbf{W} is a diagonal matrix with entries

$$\omega_i = \frac{1}{V(\mu_i)a(\phi)(g'(\mu_i))^2}.$$

- We can estimate μ_i using

$$\mu_i = h(\eta_i) = h(\mathbf{x}_i^T \hat{\beta}),$$

- where we let $h(\cdot)$ denote the inverse of the link function, $g(\cdot)$, and $\hat{\beta}$ denote the resulting estimator of β obtained from the IWLS.
- In certain cases we do not need to estimate ϕ .

-Why?

按照上述迭代模拟过程（二项分布）

```
#生成x1,x2
m=2000
x1=rnorm(m)
x2=rnorm(m)
eta=rep(1,m)+x1+x2
mu=exp(eta)/(1+exp(eta))
#生成y
y=NULL
for(i in 1:m){
  y[i]=rbinom(1,1,mu[i])
}
# summary(y)
# table(y)

X=model.matrix(~x1+x2)#设计矩阵
```

```
#####迭代
beta=c(0,0,0)
eta=X%*%beta

n=0
beta0=c()
repeat{
  beta_old=beta
  mu=exp(eta)/(1+exp(eta))
  w=diag(as.vector(mu*(1-mu)))
  z=eta+(y-mu)/(mu*(1-mu))
  beta=solve((t(X)%*%w%*%X))%*%t(X)%*%w%*%z
  #print(beta)#输出每一次迭代得到的beta
  eta=X%*%beta
  D=max(abs(beta-beta_old))
  n=n+1
  if(D<1e-8)
    break
}
n#迭代次数
beta

data=as.data.frame(cbind(y,x1,x2))
y.glm=glm(y~x1+x2,family=binomial(link="logit"),data=data)
summary(y.glm)
```

Statistical inference on β .

- We obtain the estimate of β , $\hat{\beta}$, from IWLS.
- Asymptotically, for large sample sizes we will have

$$\hat{\beta} \xrightarrow{d} N_p(\beta, \mathbf{I}(\beta)^{-1}).$$

- We also estimate $\mathbf{I}(\beta)$ from the data (see previous slide).
- As with the linear model we can now write down a table of the estimated coefficients.

Goodness of fit for GLMs

- In linear models we often assess the goodness of fit by looking at sums of squares, e.g., RSS
- How do we assess the fit for GLMs?
- We measure the goodness of fit of a GLM using the **deviance** and **Pearson χ^2 statistic**
- Both statistics look at how the data, \mathbf{y} , estimated from the GLM.
- The deviance compares log likelihoods, whereas the Pearson statistic is a sum of squares (with an appropriate scaling for the mean-variance relationship).

The deviance

- The **deviance** compares the fit of the **full** model (when we fit n parameters, one for each observation) to the fit of the **reduced** model (when we fit p parameters). It compares log likelihoods.
- Remember the log likelihood is

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

- We will evaluate this log likelihood (in terms of θ_i or $\mu_i = b'_{\theta_i}$) for the full and reduced model.

The deviance(cont.)

- Let $\tilde{\theta}_i$ denote the estimate of the canonical parameter, θ_i , when we fit the full model, that is, when we estimate μ_i using $\tilde{\mu} = y_i$.
- Let $\hat{\theta}$ be the estimate of θ_i in the reduced model, and μ_i denote the associated estimate of μ_i
- Then the **deviance** is defined to be

$$\begin{aligned} D(y, \hat{\mu}) &= 2a(\phi)[l(\tilde{\theta}) - l(\hat{\theta})] \\ &= 2a(\phi)\left\{ \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n [y_i(\tilde{\theta}_i - \hat{\theta}_i) - (b(\tilde{\theta}_i) - b(\hat{\theta}_i))]}{a(\phi)} \right\} \\ &\quad + a(\phi) \sum_{i=1}^n [c(y_i, \phi) - c(y_i, \phi)] \\ &= 2 \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i(\tilde{\theta}_i - \hat{\theta}_i) - (b(\tilde{\theta}_i) - b(\hat{\theta}_i))] \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

Example: Normal

- For normally distributed data we have

$$a(\phi) = \sigma^2$$

$$b(\theta_i) = \frac{\theta_i^2}{2}$$

$$\theta_i = \mu_i$$

- In the full model we have $\tilde{\theta}_i = \tilde{\mu}_i = y_i$, and in the reduced model $\hat{\theta}_i = \hat{\mu}_i$.
- The deviance is

$$\begin{aligned} D(y, \hat{\mu}) &= 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left[y_i(y_i - \hat{\mu}_i) - \frac{y_i^2}{2} + \frac{\hat{\mu}_i^2}{2} \right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)^2. \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

Example: Binomial

- For data following a binomial distribution we have.

Example: Poisson

- For Poisson distributed data we have

$$a(\phi) = 1$$

$$b(\theta_i) = e^{\theta_i}$$

$$\theta_i = \log \mu_i$$

- In the full model we have $\hat{\theta}_i = \log \tilde{\mu}_i = \log y_i$, and in the reduced model $\hat{\theta}_i = \log \hat{\mu}_i$.
- The deviance is

$$\begin{aligned} D(y, \hat{\mu}) &= 2 \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i (\log y_i - \log \hat{\mu}_i) - (y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)] \\ &= 2 \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i \log(y_i / \hat{\mu}_i) - (y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)]. \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

Using deviance

- Note that the deviance dose **not depend** on ϕ .
- Suppose we fit two GLMs, with one model being a subset of the other. We can compare the fit of these two models by calculating **the difference of the deviances**. This is equivalent to a likelihood ratio test (see next page).
- Similar to the **analysis of variance** table we produce for linear models we can create an **analysis of deviance** table for GLMs
 - 1 Except for the normal cases, the **distribution** of differences in the deviance are **asymptotic**.
 - 2 Thus, we need to interpret the analysis of deviance table carefully.

Likelihood ratios tests(LRTs)

- Consider a partition of the p dim coefficient vector, β

$$\beta = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

where β_1 is a q dim vector, and β_2 is a $p-q$ dim vector.

- Suppose we want to test $H_0 : \beta_2 = \beta_2^0$.
- Then the likelihood ratio statistic,

$$\lambda(\hat{\beta}_2) = 2[l(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) - l(\hat{\beta}_1, \beta_2^0)]$$

is asymptotically χ^2_{p-q} .

Pearson χ^2 statistic

- As before, suppose that we have estimated $\hat{\mu}_i$ from the data.
- Then the **Pearson χ^2 statistic** is defined by

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)^2}{V(\hat{\mu}_i)}$$

- Some examples:

1 Normal: $\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)^2$, the RSS.

2 Binomial: χ^2

3 Poisson:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)^2}{\hat{\mu}_i}$$

Residual plots for GLMs

Similar to linear models we want to:

- Plot residuals versus fitted:
 - Check for appropriateness of the fit.
 - Do we need to transform the response?
 - Check for constancy of the variance of errors.
 - Look for outliers.
- Residual versus time or collection order.
 - Check for systematic problems in the residuals(e.g.,serial correlation).
- Q – Q plot of residuals.
 - Check distributional assumptions of the errors.

Residual plots for GLMs(cont.)

- Plot residuals versus each predictor/covariate in the model.
 - Check adequacy of the fit for each predictor.
 - Curvature may indicate the need to transform predictors.
- Plot residual versus potential predictors NOT in the model.
 - Have any variables been omitted from the model?

But, what do we use for residuals in a GLM?

- Residuals for GLMs are harder to interpret.
- Checking the adequacy of variance and link functions are important for GLMs.

The deviance and Pearson residuals

- We showed that the deviances are given by

$$\begin{aligned} D(y, \hat{\mu}) &= 2 \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i(\tilde{\theta}_i - \hat{\theta}_i) - (b(\tilde{\theta}_i) - b(\hat{\theta}_i))] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n D_i. \end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

- The **deviance residuals** are defined by

$$(r_D)_i = \text{sign}(y_i - \hat{\mu}_i) \sqrt{D_i}$$

- The **Pearson residuals** are defined by

$$(r_P)_i = \frac{y_i - \hat{\mu}_i}{\sqrt{V(\hat{\mu}_i)}}$$

• Thus $\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (r_P)_i^2$

The working and Anscombe residuals

- We obtain the **working residuals** from the **IWLS algorithm**:

$$\begin{aligned}(r_W)_i &= z_i - \hat{\eta}_i \\ &= [\hat{\eta}_i + (y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)g'(\hat{\mu}_i)] - \hat{\eta}_i \\ &= y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)g'(\hat{\mu}_i\end{aligned}\tag{12}$$

- For the **Anscombe residuals**, see McCullagh and Nelder, page 38.
 - The general idea: **transform** the Pearson residual to be **less skewed**.