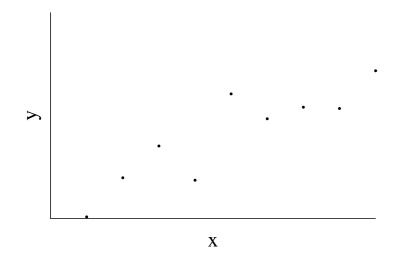
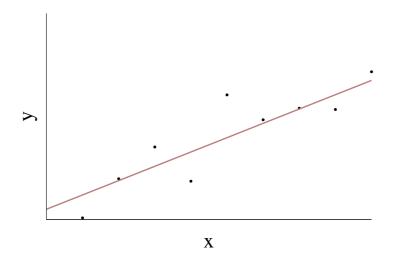
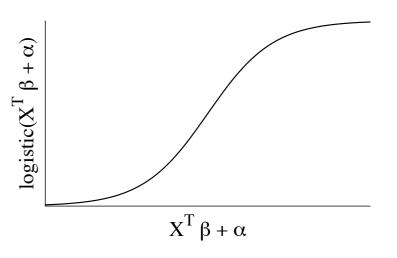
# Linear and Generalized Linear Models







We still just need to specify posterior density

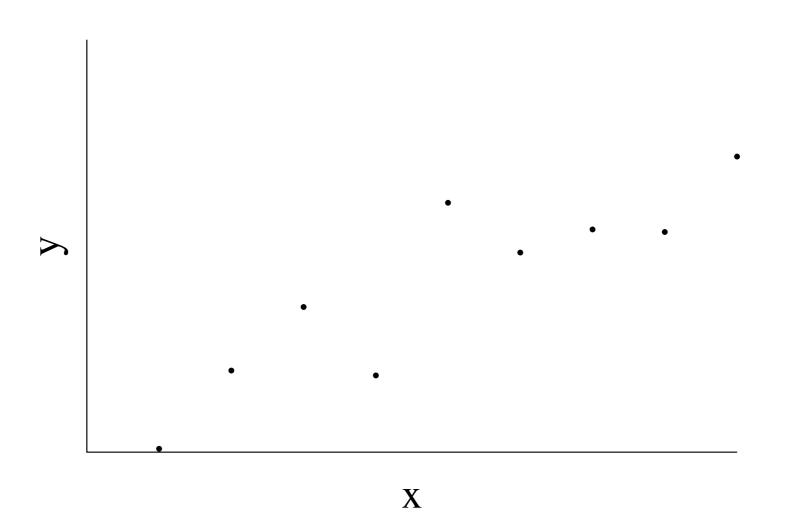
$$p(q \mid \mathcal{D})$$

Often the data naturally separates into *variates*, *y*, and *covariates*, *x*.

(we'll say *outcomes*, y, and *predictors*, x)

$$\mathcal{D} \to \{y, x\}$$

Regression models the statistical relationship between the outcome and the predictor(s).



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$$p(y, x|\theta) = p(y|x, \theta) p(x|\theta)$$

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$$p(y, x|\theta) = p(y|x, \theta) p(x|\theta)$$

We typically assume that the predictors (covariates) are independent of the model parameters.

$$p(x|\theta) = p(x)$$

$$p(y, x|\theta) = p(y|x, \theta) p(x|\theta)$$

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$$p(y, x|\theta) = p(y|x, \theta) p(x)$$

$$p(y, x|\theta) \propto p(y|x, \theta)$$

$$p(y,x| heta) = p(y|x, heta) egin{align*} p(x| heta) \ p(x| heta) \end{bmatrix}$$
 Independence assumption  $p(y,x| heta) = p(y|x, heta) egin{align*} p(x) \ p(x) \ \end{pmatrix}$ 

 $p(y, x|\theta) \propto p(y|x, \theta)$ 

We'll make this assumption for now, but it's not always valid.

$$p(y,x|\theta) = p(y|x,\theta) \frac{p(x|\theta)}{p(x|\theta)}$$
 Independence assumption  $p(y,x|\theta) = p(y|x,\theta) \frac{p(x)}{p(x)}$ 

We'll make this assumption for now, but it's not always valid.

$$p(y,x|\theta) = p(y|x,\theta) p(x|\theta)$$
 Selection Bias  $p(y,x|\theta) = p(y|x,\theta) p(x)$ 

We'll make this assumption for now, but it's not always valid.

$$p(y,x|\theta) = p(y|x,\theta) p(x|\theta)$$
 Selection Bias 
$$p(y,x|\theta) \neq p(y|x,\theta) p(x)$$

$$p(y|x,\theta) = p(y|f(x,\theta_1),\theta_2)$$

$$p(y|x,\theta) = p(y|f(x,\theta_1),\theta_2)$$

$$p(y|x,\theta) = p(y|f(x,\theta_1),\theta_2)$$

$$p(y|x,\theta) = \mathcal{N}(y|f(x,\theta),\sigma)$$

$$p(y|x,\theta) = p(y|f(x,\theta_1),\theta_2)$$

$$p(y|x,\theta) = \mathcal{N}(y|f(x,\theta),\sigma)$$

$$p(y|x,\theta) = \text{Bin}(y|f(x,\theta), N)$$

This immediately generalizes to multiple effective parameters.

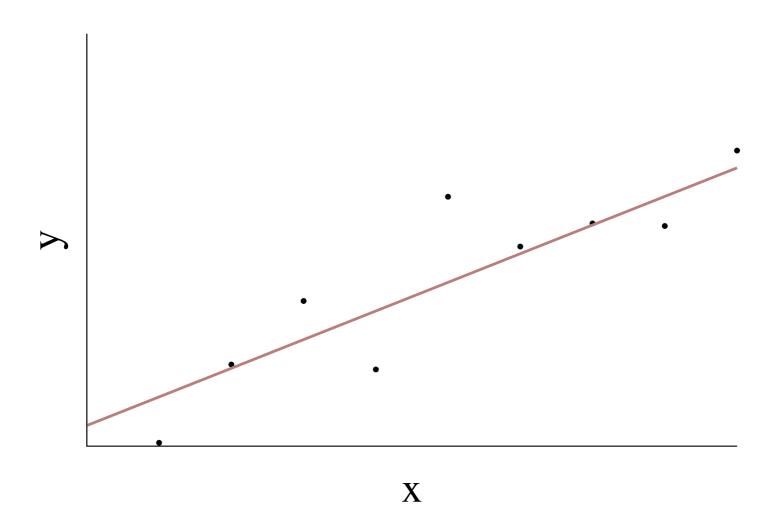
$$p(y|x,\theta) = p(y|f_1(x,\theta_1), f_2(x,\theta_2), \theta_3)$$

This immediately generalizes to multiple effective parameters.

$$p(y|x,\theta) = p(y|f_1(x,\theta_1), f_2(x,\theta_2), \theta_3)$$

$$p(y|x,\theta) = \text{Gamma}(y|\alpha(x,\theta_1),\beta(x,\theta_2))$$

#### Linear Models



When an effective parameter is unconstrained we can model it with a linear mapping.

$$f(x,\alpha,\beta) = \beta \cdot x + \alpha$$

$$f(x,\alpha,\beta) = \sum_{n,i} X_{in}\beta_i + \alpha$$

$$f(x,\alpha,\beta) = \sum_{n,i} X_{in}\beta_i + \alpha$$

$$f(x, \alpha, \beta) = \mathbf{X}^T \beta + \alpha$$

```
data {
  int N; // Sample size
  int K; // Number of predictors
  real y[N];
  matrix[K, N] X;
}
```

```
data {
  int N; // Sample size
  int K; // Number of predictors
  real y[N];
  matrix[K, N] X;
}

parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
}
```

```
data {
  int N; // Sample size
  int K; // Number of predictors
  real y[N];
  matrix[K, N] X;
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
model {
  vector[N] y_tilde;
  y_{tilde} = X' * beta + alpha;
```

#### Avoid transposing X every time

```
data {
  int N; // Sample size
  int K; // Number of predictors
  real y[N];
  matrix[K, N] X;
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
model {
  vector[N] y_tilde;
  y_tilde = X' * beta + alpha;
```

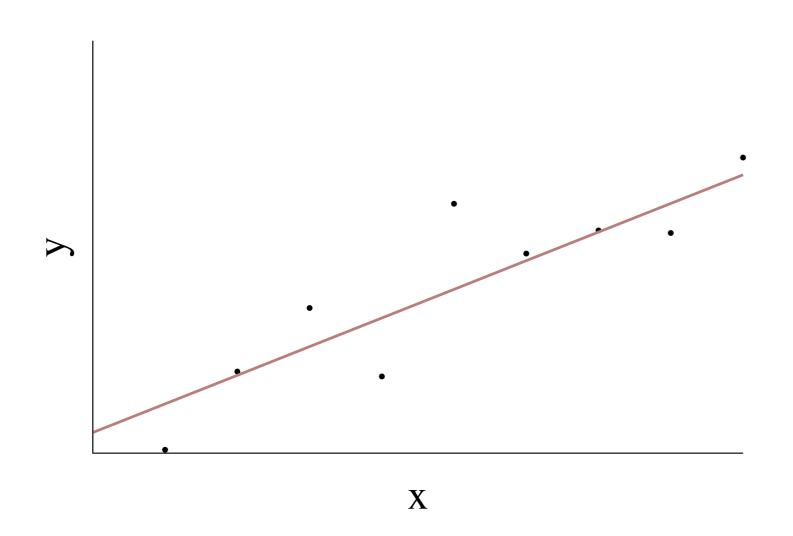
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```

When the measurement model is Gaussian we recover the ubiquitous Gaussian-Linear model.

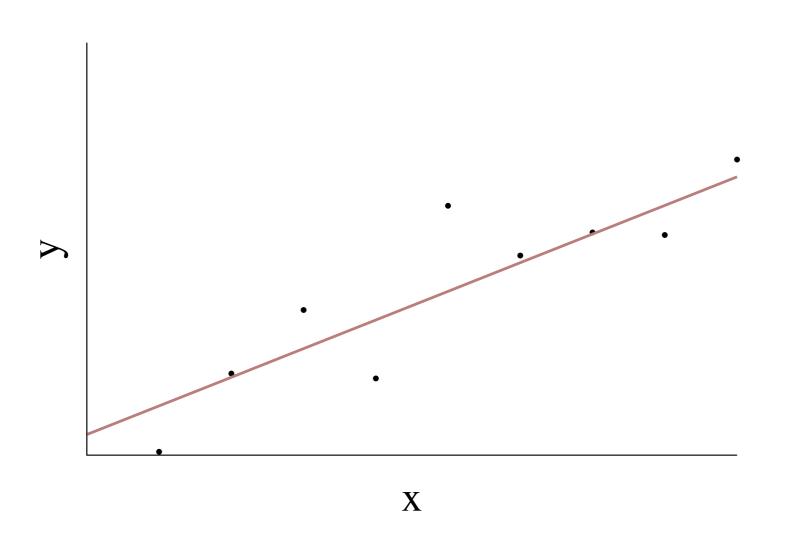


$$p(y|\mathbf{X}, \alpha, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma) = \mathcal{N}(y|\mathbf{X}^T\boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha, \sigma)$$

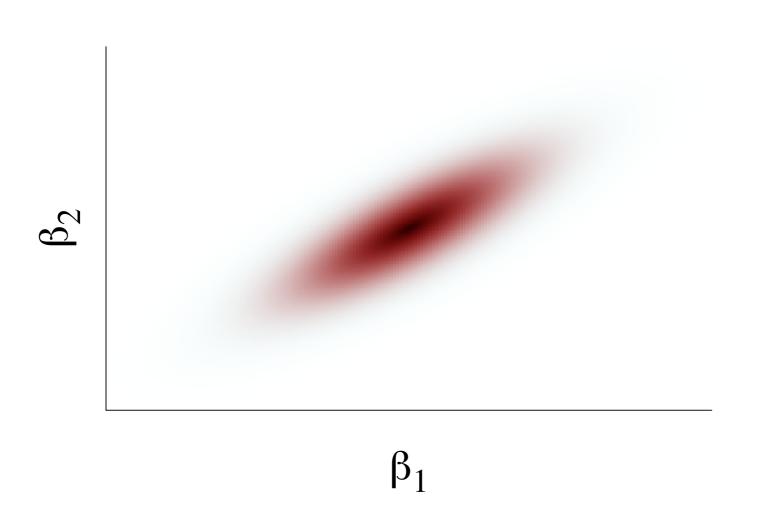
When the measurement model is Gaussian we recover the ubiquitous Gaussian-Linear model.

```
data {
  int N;
  int K;
  real y[N];
  matrix[N, K] X;
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
  real<lower=0> sigma;
model {
  y \sim normal(X * beta + alpha, sigma);
  // prior for beta?
  // prior for alpha?
  // prior for sigma?
```

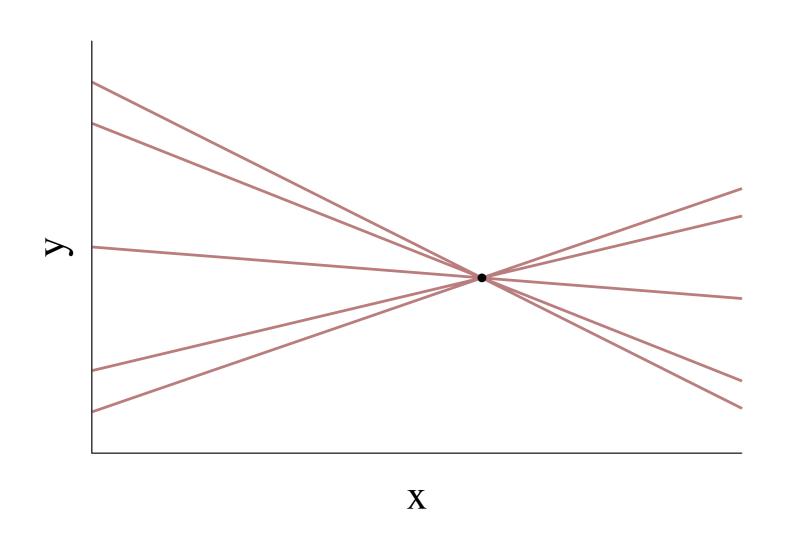
Given enough data, linear models are overconstrained and all the slopes can be fit well.



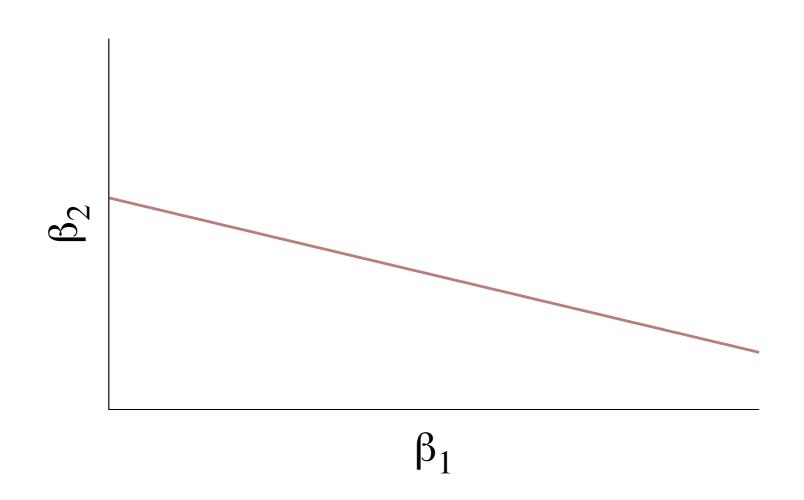
Given enough data, linear models are overconstrained and all the slopes can be fit well.



When there are fewer data than covariates, however, linear models are subject to collinearity.



With collinearity some of the slopes are fully determined while the others are completely undetermined.



Consequently (weakly) informative priors are critical for building robust linear models.

$$oldsymbol{eta} \sim \mathcal{N}(oldsymbol{\mu}, oldsymbol{\Omega})$$

Consequently (weakly) informative priors are critical for building robust linear models.

$$\beta_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \omega_i)$$

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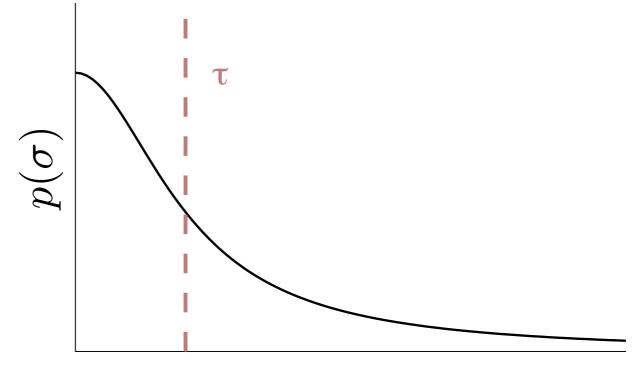
$$\beta_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0,\omega)$$

As with the linear model parameters, prior information for the Gaussian noise is critical.

$$p(\sigma) = \text{Half-Cauchy}(0, \tau)$$

As with the linear model parameters, prior information for the Gaussian noise is critical.

$$p(\sigma) = \text{Half-Cauchy}(0, \tau)$$



```
data {
  int N;
  int K;
  real y[N];
  matrix[N, K] X;
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
  real<lower=0> sigma;
model {
  y \sim normal(X * beta + alpha, sigma);
```

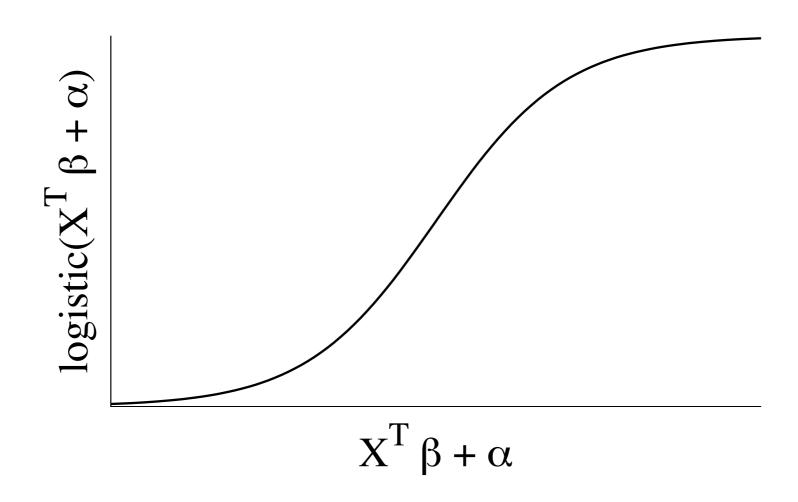
```
data {
  int N;
  int K;
  real y[N];
  matrix[N, K] X;
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
  real<lower=0> sigma;
model {
  y \sim normal(X * beta + alpha, sigma);
  beta \sim normal(0, 10);
}
```

```
data {
  int N;
  int K;
  real y[N];
  matrix[N, K] X;
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
  real<lower=0> sigma;
model {
  y \sim normal(X * beta + alpha, sigma);
  beta \sim normal(0, 10);
  alpha \sim normal(0, 10);
}
```

```
data {
  int N;
  int K;
  real y[N];
  matrix[N, K] X;
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
  real<lower=0> sigma;
model {
  y \sim normal(X * beta + alpha, sigma);
  beta \sim normal(0, 10);
  alpha \sim normal(0, 10);
 sigma \sim cauchy(0, 10);
```

```
data {
  int N;
  int K;
  real y[N];
  matrix[N, K] X;
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
  real<lower=0> sigma;
model {
  y \sim normal(X * beta + alpha, sigma);
  beta \sim normal(0, 10);
  alpha \sim normal(0, 10);
  sigma ~ cauchy(0, 10); // Half-Cauchy
```

#### Generalized Linear Models



Constrained parameters are not amenable to linear models.

$$\theta \in (a,b)$$

$$\mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha \in (-\infty, \infty)$$

We need to apply a transformation to the unconstrained linear predictor.

$$\theta \in (a,b)$$

$$g(\mathbf{X}^T\boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha) \in (a, b)$$

In the statistics literature link functions are defined by the un-constraining map.

$$g^{-1}:(a,b)\to(-\infty,\infty)$$

Positive parameters are modeled with the *log* link function.

$$\log:(0,\infty)\to(-\infty,\infty)$$

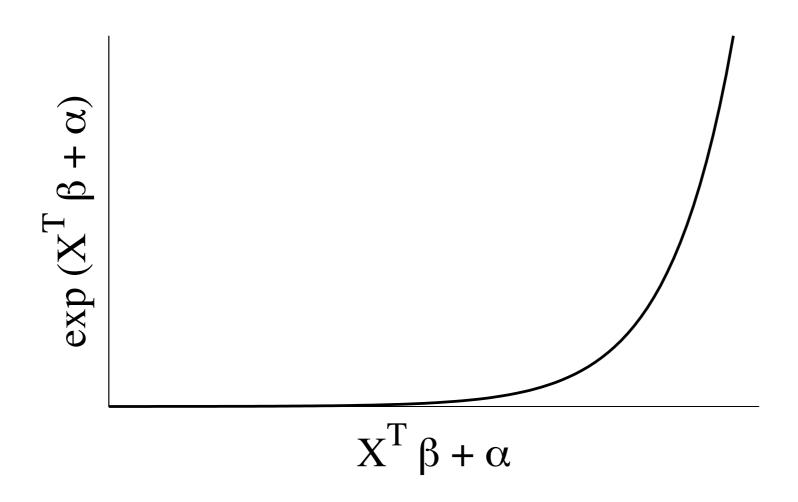
$$\exp(\mathbf{X}^T\boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha) \in (0, \infty)$$

Positive parameters are modeled with the *log* link function.

link 
$$\log:(0,\infty)\to(-\infty,\infty)$$

inverse 
$$\exp(\mathbf{X}^T\boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha) \in (0, \infty)$$

Positive parameters are modeled with the *log* link function.

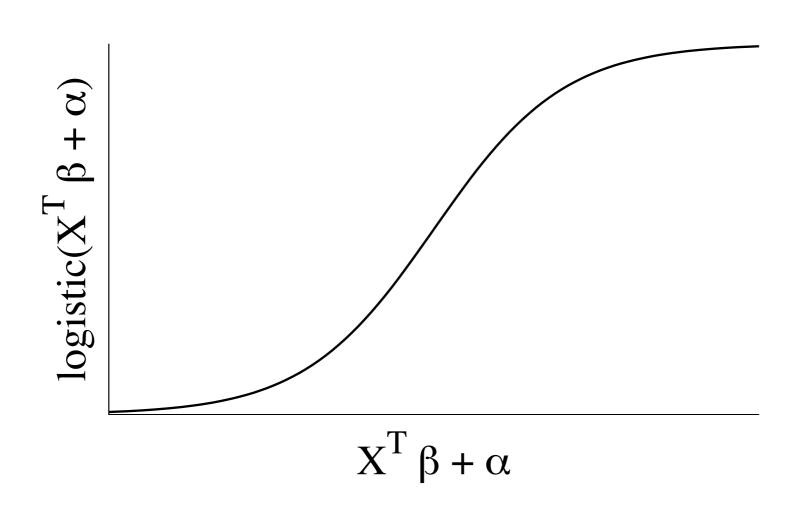


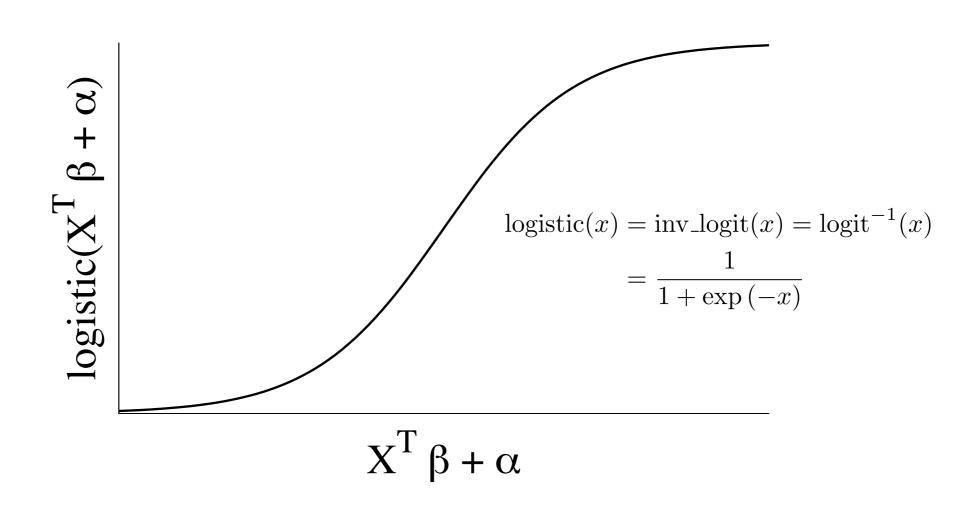
logit: 
$$(0,1) \rightarrow (-\infty,\infty)$$

logistic 
$$(\mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha) \in (0, 1)$$

link 
$$logit: (0,1) \to (-\infty,\infty)$$
 
$$logit(x) = log \frac{x}{1-x}$$

inverse logistic 
$$(\mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha) \in (0, 1)$$





$$p(y|\mathbf{X}, \alpha, \boldsymbol{\beta}) =$$

$$\operatorname{Ber}(y|\operatorname{logistic}(\mathbf{X}^T\boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha))$$

```
data {
  int N;
  int K;
  int<lower=0,upper=1> y[N];
  matrix[N, K] X;
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
model {
  beta \sim normal(0, 10);
  alpha \sim normal(0, 10);
  y ~ bernoulli(inv_logit(alpha + X * beta));
```

```
data {
  int N;
  int K;
  int<lower=0,upper=1> y[N];
  matrix[N, K] X;
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
model {
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```

```
data {
  int N;
  int K;
  int<lower=0,upper=1> y[N];
  matrix[N, K] X;
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
model {
  beta \sim normal(0, 10);
  alpha \sim normal(0, 10);
  y ~ bernoulli(inv_logit(alpha + X * beta));
  y ~ bernoulli_logit(alpha + X * beta);
```

How would you modify this code if each observation consists of multiple Bernoulli trials?

```
data {
  int N;
  int K;
  int<lower=0,upper=1> y[N];
  matrix[N, K] X;
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
model {
  beta \sim normal(0, 10);
  alpha \sim normal(0, 10);
  y ~ bernoulli_logit(alpha + X * beta);
```

How would you modify this code if each observation consists of multiple Bernoulli trials?

```
data {
  int N;
  int K;
  int<lower=0,upper=1> y[N];
  matrix[N, K] X;
  int<lower=1> N_trials[N];
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
model {
  beta \sim normal(0, 10);
  alpha \sim normal(0, 10);
  y ~ bernoulli_logit(alpha + X * beta);
```

How would you modify this code if each observation consists of multiple Bernoulli trials?

```
data {
  int N;
  int K;
  int<lower=0,upper=1> y[N];
  matrix[N, K] X;
 int<lower=1> N_trials[N];
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
model {
  beta \sim normal(0, 10);
  alpha \sim normal(0, 10);
  y ~ bernoulli_logit(alpha + X * beta);
  y ~ binomial_logit(N_trials, alpha + X * beta);
```

Count data whose rate depends on covariates can be modeled with a generalized Poisson model.

$$p(y|\mathbf{X}, \alpha, \boldsymbol{\beta}) =$$

$$Poisson(y|\exp(\mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha))$$

Count data with rate depending on covariates can be modeled with a generalized Poisson model.

```
data {
  int N;
  int K;
  int<lower=0> y[N];
  matrix[N, K] X;
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
model {
  beta \sim normal(0, 10);
  alpha \sim normal(0, 10);
  y \sim poisson(exp(alpha + X * beta));
}
```

Count data with rate depending on covariates can be modeled with a generalized Poisson model.

```
data {
  int N;
  int K;
  int<lower=0> y[N];
  matrix[N, K] X;
parameters {
  vector[K] beta;
  real alpha;
model {
  beta \sim normal(0, 10);
  alpha \sim normal(0, 10);
  y ~ poisson(exp(alpha + X * beta));
  y ~ poisson_log(alpha + X * beta);
```

