Parameter interpretation and inference

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mentioning its origin.

Interpreting parameters

- continuous: units: depends whether scaled or not (talk about scaling parameters)
- categorical: differences between groups: depends on contrasts
- depends on presence of interactions
- scale of measurement: link scale

log proportional The argument here is that if $\mu_0 = \exp \beta_0$ and $\mu_1 = \exp \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$,

$$\mu_1 = \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x)$$

$$= \mu_0 \exp(\beta_1 x)$$

$$\approx \mu_0 (1 + \beta_1 x) \quad \text{if } \beta_1 x \ll 1$$

so for continuous predictors β_1 is the proportional change in the mean per unit change in x (for categorical predictors it's the proportional change between categories).

Predicted values are the expected *geometric* mean of the category.

logit log-odds change.

- for $\beta \Delta x$ small, as for log (proportional)
- for intermediate values, linear change in probability with slope $\approx \beta/4$
- for large values, as for log(1 x)

complementary log-log change in the log-hazard

- hazard is the additional probability of failure per unit exposure
- probability of failure in time $t = 1 \exp(\exp(\eta)t) = 1 \exp(\text{hazard} \cdot t)$
- rather than hazard, log-hazard is used as the linear predictor so η can be any real value (like log-odds)
- $\beta \equiv$ proportional change in hazard
- sensible for survival problems, cumulative exposure

Inference

Single vs multi-parameter

Single-parameter Wald vs. likelihood ratio test (LRT): the former is easier (it's what you get from summary()), because Wald standard errors of the estimates $(\sigma_{\hat{\beta}})$ are automatically available from the Hessian of the fitted model, so we can get *p*-values via a *Z* test on $\beta/\sigma_{\hat{\beta}}$ (this is what summary gives) and confidence intervals via Normal confidence intervals on $\hat{\beta}$.

The Hauck-Donner effect occurs in cases of extreme parameter estimates (e.g. in the case of complete or near-complete separation), when the quadratic approximation is extremely poor: the hallmark is large parameter estimates (e.g. $|\hat{\beta}| > 10$) and very large confidence intervals (leading to small Z statistics and large p values).

You can get LRTs via

- drop1(.,test="Chisq") (only on parameters that can be dropped while respecting marginality, unless you use scope= .~.)
- anova(), explicitly testing different models:

```
reduced_model <- update(full_model,.~.-foo)</pre>
anova(full_model, reduced_model, test="Chisq")
```

where foo is the parameter you want to test.

or by hand (having fitted these models)

```
pchisq(deviance(reduced_model)-deviance(full_model),
       df=df.residual(reduced_model)-df.residual(full_model),
       lower.tail=FALSE)
```

You can get profile confidence intervals via MASS::confint.glm.

Multi-parameter If you want to test a hypothesis that multiple $\hat{\beta}$ values are simultaneously zero (i.e. you want to see if the overall effect of a factor is significant), you could do a Wald test: e.g. to test $\hat{\beta}_1 = \hat{\beta}_2 = 0$, you would calculate the sums of squares $(\hat{\beta}_1^2 + \hat{\beta}_2^2 = 0)$ and the variance; the scaled result should be χ^2 distributed.

```
contr \leftarrow c(1,1)
t(contr) %*% vcov(model) %*% contr
pchisq(...)
```

This is what car:: Anova() does. It generally makes more sense to do model comparisons. Do this with anova() or drop1() (anova(model) gives sequential (forward/"type I") tests: anova (model1, model2, model3) compares a specific sequence of models); these use LRTs (if test="Chisq") or *F* tests (if test="F", which you should use when the dispersion parameter is estimated (Gaussian, Gamma, or quasi-likelihood models).

Interactions/marginality issues

You have to be very careful when testing main effects in the presence of interactions. drop1() generally respects marginality, although you can do drop1(.~.) to get drop1 to test all the effects (i.e not respecting marginality). (1 is a standard reference from one of the proponents of respecting marginality: see Section 5.)

Your options with respect to marginality are:

- don't test main effects at all in the presence of interactions
- test main effects, but be very careful/aware that the meaning of the main effects depends on the parameterization/contrasts used
- split the data set and run separate analyses for each category involved in the interaction

Finite-size issues

In general LRTs are better than Wald tests, but even they make a (weaker) asymptotic assumption (not that the log-likelihood surface is quadratic, but that the deviance is χ^2 distributed). People generally ignore this problem since the number of observations is usually sufficiently large that this is a reasonable approximation, but [rarely used!] Bartlett corrections ² are one approach to correcting for this issue.

If the dispersion parameter is estimated (rather than fixed, as it is for Poisson and binomial models), then we should use *F* tests ("quasi-LRT" for want of a better term) rather than χ^2 , because the deviance differences are now scaled by the $(\chi^2$ -distributed) $\hat{\phi}$ (note that this does not address the issue of whether the deviance itself is really χ^2 distributed).

Bootstrapping

You can use bootstrap or parametric bootstrap samples to get more p-values/confidence intervals that account for : for example, non¹ Venables, W. N. (1998). Exegeses on linear models. 1998 International S-PLUS User Conference, Washington,

² McCullagh, P. and J. A. Nelder (1989). Generalized Linear Models. London: Chapman and Hall; and Cordeiro, G. M. and S. L. P. Ferrari (1998, August). A note on bartlett-type correction for the first few moments of test statistics. Journal of Statistical Planning and Inference 71(1-2), 261-269

parametric bootstrapping resamples the data with replacement (using sample(.,replace=TRUE)).

Set up data and model:

```
data(lizards,package="brglm")
lizards <- transform(lizards,</pre>
                   gprop =grahami/(grahami+opalinus),
                   N= grahami+opalinus)
model1 <- glm(gprop~height+diameter+light+time,</pre>
               family=binomial, weights=N, data=lizards)
```

A function to take a bootstrap sample of the data, refit the model, and extract the coefficients:

```
bootFun <- function() {</pre>
    bootdat <- lizards[sample(nrow(lizards), replace=TRUE),]</pre>
    newmodel <- update(model1,data=bootdat)</pre>
    return(coef(newmodel))
}
```

Use a for loop to compute the samples:

```
nsamp <- 1000
set.seed(101)
bootParms <- matrix(NA,nrow=nsamp,ncol=length(coef(model1)))</pre>
for (i in 1:nsamp) {
    bootParms[i,] <- bootFun()</pre>
}
```

There are a variety of different approaches for computing bootstrap confidence intervals, but a simple one is to find the quantiles of the bootstrapped coefficients. Get 2.5% and 97.5% quantiles of each column (MARGIN=2 specifies columns rather than rows), and transpose the results (because apply always returns its results column-wise):

```
ptab <- t(apply(bootParms, MARGIN=2, quantile, c(0.025, 0.975)))</pre>
rownames(ptab) <- names(coef(model1))</pre>
print(ptab)
##
                      2.5%
                                97.5%
## (Intercept) 1.4634553 2.6372131
## height>=5ft 0.7257110 1.7953832
## diameter>2in -1.2393941 -0.4427184
## lightshady -1.4986304 -0.2987468
## timemidday -0.5150444 0.5834759
## timelate -1.6807495 -0.3471012
```

Compute two-sided *p*-values:

```
bootp <- apply(bootParms,</pre>
     MARGIN=2,
     function(x) 2*min(mean(x<0), mean(x>0)))
cbind(coef(summary(model1)),bootp)
##
                 Estimate Std. Error
                                        z value
                                                    Pr(>|z|) bootp
## (Intercept) 1.9446882 0.3414768 5.6949348 1.234191e-08 0.000
## height>=5ft 1.1299913 0.2570898 4.3953169 1.106113e-05 0.000
## diameter>2in -0.7626343  0.2112694 -3.6097720 3.064662e-04 0.000
## lightshady -0.8472755 0.3223825 -2.6281682 8.584606e-03 0.004
## timemidday
                0.2271105  0.2501770  0.9077995  3.639842e-01  0.332
## timelate -0.7368117 0.2990005 -2.4642486 1.373008e-02 0.006
```

References

Cordeiro, G. M. and S. L. P. Ferrari (1998, August). A note on bartletttype correction for the first few moments of test statistics. Journal of Statistical Planning and Inference 71(1-2), 261–269.

McCullagh, P. and J. A. Nelder (1989). Generalized Linear Models. London: Chapman and Hall.

Venables, W. N. (1998). Exegeses on linear models. 1998 International S-PLUS User Conference, Washington, DC.