#### Generalized linear model

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#### Regression

... a method that summarizes how the average values of a numerical outcome variable vary over subpopulations defined by linear functions of predictors. [...] Regression can be used to predict an outcome given a linear function of these predictors, and regression coefficients can be thought of as comparisons across predicted values or as comparisons among averages in the data.

Gelman and Hill, 2007, p.31

## Linear regression

#### Compact written form

N is number of observations. K is number of predictors plus one. y is a length N vector of observations. X is a  $N \times K$  matrix of predictors (and a column of 1s).  $\beta$  is a length K vector of regression coefficients (including intercept).

$$y \in \mathbb{R}$$
,  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}^+$ ,  $\beta_k \in \mathbb{R}$  for  $k = 1, ..., K$ .

$$y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \sigma)$$
$$\mu_i = X_i \beta$$

for i = 1, ..., N.

#### Interpreting regression parameters

- ► The intercept can only be interpreted assuming zero values for the other predictors.
- ▶ If predictors are mean centered, the intercept is the average value of the response when all predictors are at their mean.
- Coeffcient  $\beta$  is the expected difference in y between two observations that differ by 1 in a single predictor.
- $\triangleright$   $\sigma$  is standard deviation of dispersion around  $\mu$  (i.e.  $X\beta$ ).

#### Fitting a regression model

```
kid_iq <- read.dta(here::here('ARM_Data', 'child.iq', 'kidiq.dta')) %>%
    as_tibble() %>%
    clean_names()

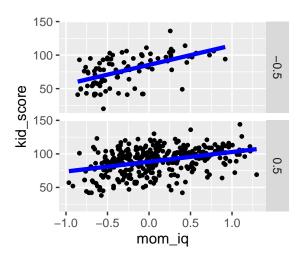
# feature processing
kid_iq <-
    kid_iq %>%
    dplyr::select(-c(mom_age, mom_work)) %>%
    mutate_at(vars(-kid_score), - arm::rescale(., binary.inputs = '-0.5,0.5')) %>%
    mutate(mom_hs%mom_iq = mom_hs * mom_iq)

model_kidiq <- lm(kid_score - ., data = kid_iq)

tidy(model_kidiq) %>%
    knitr::kable(digits = 2)
```

term	estimate	std.error	statistic	p.value
(Intercept)	86.83	1.21	71.56	0.00
mom_hs	2.84	2.43	1.17	0.24
mom_iq	21.80	2.43	8.96	0.00
mom_hsXmom_iq	-14.53	4.87	-2.99	0.00

#### Inspecting a regression model



#### Linear regression key assumptions

In order from most to least important...

- 1. Validity
- 2. Additivity and linearity
- 3. Independence of errors
- 4. Equal variance of errors
- 5. Normality of errors



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$$y \in 0,1$$
,  $\theta \in [0,1]$ ,  $\beta_k \in \mathbb{R}$  for  $k = 1,...,K$ .

$$y_i \sim \mathsf{Bernoulli}(\theta_i)$$

$$\theta_i = \mathsf{logit}^{-1}(X_i\beta)$$

for i = 1, ..., N.

#### Interpreting logistic regression parameters

- ► A regression coefficient describes the expected change in the response per unit difference in its predictor.
- However, the logit function introduced into our model creates a nonlinearity makes clear interpretation challenging.

#### The intercept of logistic regression

- As always, the intercept can only be interpreted assuming zero values for the other predictors.
- ▶ If predictors are mean centered, the intercept is the average value of logit(response) when all predictors are at their mean.
- ▶ If zero is not interesting, or not even in the model, must be evaluated at some other point.

#### Logistic regression coefficients near the mean of the data

- A difference of 1 in a predictor corresponds to expected change of  $\beta$  in the logit probability of the response.
- You can evaluate the change in response at or near the mean value of predictor x.
  - ▶ Difference in  $\Pr(y=1)$  corresponding to adding 1 to x is  $\operatorname{logit}^{-1}(\beta \bar{x}) \operatorname{logit}^{-1}(\beta (\bar{x}+1))$ .
- Or use derivative of logistic curve at central value.
  - ▶ Differentiating logit<sup>-1</sup>( $\alpha + \beta x$ ) wrt x gives  $\beta \exp(\alpha + \beta x)/(1 + \exp(\alpha + \beta x))^2$ .
  - ► Calculate  $\alpha + \beta x$  for central value.
  - Plug into derivative to give "change" in Pr(y = 1) per small unit of "change" in x.

## Poisson regression

## Ordered categorical response

# Unordered categorical response

### Robust regression