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Additive vs. Multiplicative models

Session 2: Linear and logistic regression as Generalized Linear Models

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Learning objectives

- 1 define generalized linear models (GLM)
 - 2 define linear and logistic regression as special cases of GLMs
- 3 distinguish between additive and multiplicative models
- 4 define Pearson and deviance residuals
- 5 describe application of the Wald test

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Outline

- 1 Brief overview of multiple regression (Vittinghoff 4.1-4.3)
- 2 Linear Regression as a GLM (Vittinghoff 4.1-4.3)
- 3 Logistic Regression as a GLM (Vittinghoff 5.1-5.3)
- 4 Statistical inference for logistic regression (Vittinghoff 5.1-5.3)

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Systematic component

$$E[y|x] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_p x_p$$

- x_p are the predictors or independent variables
- *y* is the outcome, response, or dependent variable
- E[y|x] is the expected value of y given x
- β_p are the regression coefficients

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Systematic plus random component

$$y_i = E[y|x] + \epsilon_i$$

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_p x_p + \epsilon_i$$

Assumption: $\epsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2)$

- Normal distribution
- Mean zero at every value of predictors
- Constant variance at every value of predictors
- Values that are statistically independent

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Generalized Linear Models (GLM)

- Linear regression is a special case of a broad family of models called "Generalized Linear Models" (GLM)
- This unifying approach allows to fit a large set of models using maximum likelihood estimation methods (MLE) (Nelder & Wedderburn, 1972)
- Can model many types of data directly using appropriate distributions, e.g. Poisson distribution for count data
- Transformations of Y not needed

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Components of GLM

- Random component specifies the conditional distribution for the response variable
 - doesn't have to be normal
 - can be any distribution in the "exponential" family of distributions
- Systematic component specifies linear function of predictors (linear predictor)
- **Link** [denoted by g(.)] specifies the relationship between the expected value of the random component and the systematic component
 - can be linear or nonlinear

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Linear Regression as GLM

• The model:

$$y_i = E[y|x] + \epsilon_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + ... + \beta_p x_{pi} + \epsilon_i$$

• **Random component** of y_i is normally distributed: $\epsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$

• **Systematic component** (linear predictor): $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + ... + \beta_p x_{pi}$

• Link function here is the *identity link*: g(E(y|x)) = E(y|x). We are modeling the mean directly, no transformation.

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The logistic regression model

The model:

Logit(P(x)) =
$$log(\frac{P(x)}{1 - P(x)}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + ... + \beta_p x_p$$

- Random component: y_i follows a Binomial distribution (outcome is a binary variable)
- **Systematic component**: linear predictor $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + ... + \beta_n x_{ni}$
- Link function: *logit* (log of the odds that the event occurs)

$$g(P(x)) = logit(P(x)) = log\left(\frac{P(x)}{1 - P(x)}\right)$$

tive models
$$P(x) = \sigma^{-1} \left(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_0 x_2 + \dots + \beta_n x_n \right)$$

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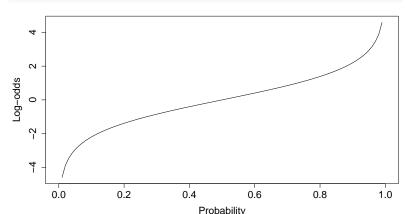
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The logit function



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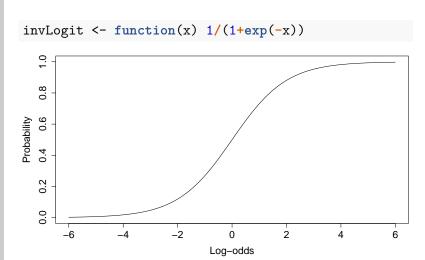
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Inverse logit function



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Example: contraceptive use data

Load the contraceptive use data

```
suppressPackageStartupMessages(library(dplyr))
cuse <- read.table("cuse.dat", header=TRUE)
cuse <- mutate(cuse, percentusing = using / (using + notUsing) * 100) %>%
mutate(n = using + notUsing)
cuse
```

Source: http://data.princeton.edu/wws509/datasets/#cuse

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Table One

```
Stratified by age
##
##
                               Overall
                                              < 25
                                                             25 - 29
##
                                  16
##
     education = low (%)
                                   8 (50.0)
                                                   2 (50.0)
                                                                 2 (50.0)
     wantsMore = yes (%)
                                   8 (50.0)
                                                   2 (50.0)
                                                                 2 (50.0)
##
##
     percentusing (mean (SD)) 32.92 (17.51) 18.78 (7.64)
                                                             27.15 (6.53)
##
                              Stratified by age
                               30-39
##
                                              40-49
##
     education = low (%)
                                   2 (50.0)
                                                   2 (50.0)
     wantsMore = yes (%)
                                   2 (50.0)
                                                   2 (50.0)
     percentusing (mean (SD)) 38.80 (15.65) 46.95 (23.82)
##
```

See tableone vignette for e.g. how to export to Word / Excel

https://cran.rproject.org/web/packages/tableone/vignettes/introduction.html

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Perform regression

```
##
## Call:
## glm(formula = cbind(using, notUsing) ~ age + education + wantsMore,
      family = binomial("logit"), data = cuse)
##
## Deviance Residuals:
      Min
                10
                    Median
                                 30
                                         Max
## -2 5148 -0 9376
                    0.2408
                             0.9822
                                      1.7333
##
## Coefficients:
##
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
## (Intercept) -0.8082
                           0.1590 -5.083 3.71e-07 ***
## age25-29
              0.3894
                           0.1759 2.214 0.02681 *
              0.9086 0.1646 5.519 3.40e-08 ***
## age30-39
## age40-49 1.1892 0.2144 5.546 2.92e-08 ***
## educationlow -0.3250 0.1240 -2.620 0.00879 **
## wantsMoreves -0.8330
                           0.1175 -7.091 1.33e-12 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## (Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
##
##
      Null deviance: 165.772 on 15 degrees of freedom
## Residual deviance: 29.917 on 10 degrees of freedom
## ATC: 113.43
##
## Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

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Pearson residuals for logistic regression

- Traditional residuals $y_i E[y_i|x_i]$ don't make sense for binary y.
- One alternative is *Pearson residuals*
 - take the difference between observed and fitted values (on probability scale 0-1), and divide by the standard deviation of the observed value.
- Let \hat{y}_i be the best-fit predicted probability for each data point, i.e. $g^{-1}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + ...)$
- y_i is the observed value, either 0 or 1.

$$r_i = \frac{y_i - \hat{y}_i}{\sqrt{Var(\hat{y}_i)}}$$

Summing the squared Pearson residuals produces the *Pearson Chi-squared statistic*:

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Deviance residuals for logistic regression

- Deviance residuals and Pearson residuals converge for high degrees of freedom
- Deviance residuals indicate the contribution of each point to the model *likelihood*
- Definition of deviance residuals:

$$d_i = s_i \sqrt{-2(y_i \log \hat{y}_i + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \hat{y}_i))}$$

Where $s_i = 1$ if $y_i = 1$ and $s_i = -1$ if $y_i = 0$.

• Summing the deviances gives the overall deviance: $D = \sum_i d_i^2$

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What is likelihood?

- The likelihood of a model is the probability of the observed outcomes given the model, sometimes written as:
 - $L(\theta|data) = P(data|\theta)$.
- Deviance residuals and the difference in log-likelihood between two models are related by:

$$\Delta(D) = -2 * \Delta(\log likelihood)$$

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Likelihood Ratio Test

- Use to assess whether the reduction in deviance provided by a more complicated model indicates a better fit
- It is equivalent of the nested Analysis of Variance is a nested Analysis of Deviance
- The difference in deviance under H₀ is chi-square distributed, with df equal to the difference in df of the two models.

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Likelihood Ratio Test (cont'd)

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Wald test for individual regression coefficients

Can use partial Wald test for a single coefficient:

•
$$\frac{\hat{\beta}}{\sqrt{\mathit{var}(\hat{\beta})}} \sim t_{n-1}$$

•
$$\frac{(\hat{\beta} - \beta_0)^2}{var(\hat{\beta})} \sim \chi^2_{df=1}$$
 (large sample)

• Wald CI for
$$\beta$$
: $\hat{\beta} \pm t_{1-\alpha/2,n-1} \sqrt{var(\hat{\beta})}$

• Wald CI for odds-ratio:
$$e^{\hat{eta}\pm t_{1-lpha/2,n-1}\sqrt{var(\hat{eta})}}$$

Note: Wald test confidence intervals on coefficients can provide poor coverage in some cases, even with relatively large samples

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Additive vs. Multiplicative models

- Linear regression is an additive model
 - e.g. for two binary variables $\beta_1 = 1.5$, $\beta_2 = 1.5$.
 - If $x_1 = 1$ and $x_2 = 1$, this adds 3.0 to E(y|x)
- Logistic regression is a *multiplicative* model
 - If $x_1 = 1$ and $x_2 = 1$, this adds 3.0 to $log(\frac{P}{1-P})$
 - Odds-ratio $\frac{P}{1-P}$ increases 20-fold: exp(1.5+1.5) or exp(1.5)*exp(1.5)