MSE 598-DM - Statistical Modeling

Generalized Linear Models

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Slides credit to Dr. Trevor Park, Dr. Jeff Douglass and Dr. Steve Culpepper

A linear model

$$Y = \underbrace{\alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}_{\mathbf{E}(Y) = \mu} + \varepsilon$$

is usually not appropriate if Y is binary or a count.

To go further, need regression-type models for binary or count-type responses.

Assumed: Some exposure to linear regression and linear algebra.

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The Generalized Linear Model (GLM)

Seek to model independent observations

$$Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$$

of a response variable, in terms of corresponding vectors

$$\boldsymbol{x}_i = (x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip})$$
 $i = 1, \dots, n$

of values of p explanatory variables.

(All variables are represented by numbers, possibly some are dummy variables.)

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Random component: density of Y_i from a **natural** exponential family

$$f(y_i; \theta_i) = a(\theta_i) b(y_i) \exp(y_i Q(\theta_i))$$

 $Q(\theta_i)$ is the **natural parameter**.

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 $Q(\theta_i)$ is the **natural parameter**.

► Systematic component: the linear predictor

$$\eta_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}$$

with parameters $\alpha, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p$ (coefficients)

 Y_i will depend on $oldsymbol{x}_i$ only through η_i

Link function: monotonic, differentiable g such that

$$g(\mu_i) = \eta_i$$
 where $\mu_i = E(Y_i)$

Note: Ordinary linear models use the **identity link**:

$$g(\mu) = \mu$$

The canonical link satisfies

$$g(\mu_i) = Q(\theta_i)$$

which means

$$Q(\theta_i) = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}$$

$$Y_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\pi_i)$$
 $(\theta_i = \pi_i)$
$$f(y_i; \pi_i) = \begin{cases} 1 - \pi_i & y_i = 0 \\ \pi_i & y_i = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$Y_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\pi_i)$$
 $(\theta_i = \pi_i)$

$$f(y_i; \pi_i) = \begin{cases} 1 - \pi_i & y_i = 0 \\ \pi_i & y_i = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$= \pi_i^{y_i} (1 - \pi_i)^{1 - y_i}$$

$$Y_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\pi_i) \qquad (\theta_i = \pi_i)$$

$$f(y_i; \pi_i) = \begin{cases} 1 - \pi_i & y_i = 0 \\ \pi_i & y_i = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$= \pi_i^{y_i} (1 - \pi_i)^{1 - y_i}$$

$$= (1 - \pi_i) \left(\frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i}\right)^{y_i}$$

$$Y_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\pi_i) \qquad (\theta_i = \pi_i)$$

$$f(y_i; \pi_i) = \begin{cases} 1 - \pi_i & y_i = 0 \\ \pi_i & y_i = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$= \pi_i^{y_i} (1 - \pi_i)^{1 - y_i}$$

$$= (1 - \pi_i) \left(\frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i}\right)^{y_i}$$

$$= (1 - \pi_i) \exp\left(y_i \ln\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i}\right)\right)$$

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So

$$a(\pi) = 1 - \pi \qquad b(y) = 1$$

$$Q(\pi) = \ln\left(\frac{\pi}{1-\pi}\right) = \log it(\pi)$$

The natural parameter is the log odds.

Note:

$$\mu_i = \mathrm{E}(Y_i) = \pi_i$$

Canonical link:

$$q(\pi) = Q(\pi) = \operatorname{logit}(\pi)$$

which leads to logistic regression.

Poisson Regression

$$Y_i \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu_i) \qquad (\theta_i = \mu_i)$$

Note:

$$\mu_i = \mathrm{E}(Y_i)$$

$$f(y_i; \mu_i) = \frac{\mu_i^{y_i}}{y_i!} e^{-\mu_i}$$
$$= e^{-\mu_i} \frac{1}{y_i!} \exp(y_i \ln \mu_i)$$

So

$$a(\mu) = e^{-\mu} \qquad b(y) = \frac{1}{y!}$$
$$Q(\mu) = \ln \mu$$

The natural parameter is the log-mean.

Canonical link:

$$q(\mu) = Q(\mu) = \ln \mu$$

which gives the (Poisson) loglinear model.

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Fitting GLMs

Usually by maximum likelihood: find

$$\hat{\alpha}, \, \hat{\beta}_1, \, \dots, \, \hat{\beta}_p$$

maximizing

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n} f(y_i; \theta_i)$$

Explicit solutions exist only in special cases, so need numerical methods (Agresti, Sec. 4.6):

- ► Newton-Raphson
- Fisher Scoring

Main R function: glm()

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Binary Response

$$Y_i \sim \operatorname{Bernoulli}(\pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i))$$

$$E(Y_i) = \pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i) \qquad \operatorname{var}(Y_i) = \pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i)(1 - \pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i))$$

► Identity link:

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i) = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}$$

Binary Response

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► Identity link:

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i) = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}$$

Log link:

$$\ln(\pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i)) = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_p x_{ip}$$

Binary Response

$$Y_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i))$$

$$E(Y_i) = \pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i) \quad var(Y_i) = \pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i)(1 - \pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i))$$

► Identity link:

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i) = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_p x_{ip}$$

Log link:

$$\ln(\pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i)) = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_p x_{ip}$$

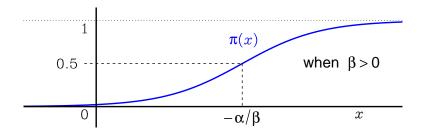
Canonical link: (logistic regression)

$$\operatorname{logit}(\pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i)) = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_p x_{ip}$$

When p = 1,

$$\log \operatorname{it} \big(\pi(x)\big) = \alpha + \beta x \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \operatorname{odds} \big(\pi(x)\big) = e^{\alpha + \beta x}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \quad \pi(x) = \frac{e^{\alpha + \beta x}}{1 + e^{\alpha + \beta x}}$$



R Example: Psych Data

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if subject } i \text{ healthy (30)} \\ 1 & \text{if subject } i \text{ mentally ill (15)} \end{cases}$$

Explanatory variables

$$x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5$$

are scores (1 to 4) on five questions, where higher values are expected to be healthier.

We will use glm(family=binomial), which uses the canonical (logit) link function by default ...

```
> psychfit1 <- glm(ill ~ x1 + x2 + x3 + x4 + x5, family=binomial, data=psych)
> summary(psychfit1)
. . .
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) 15.2226
                        6.3321 2.404
                                        0.0162 *
```

. . .

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 7

Q: What are $\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}_1, \dots, \hat{\beta}_5$?

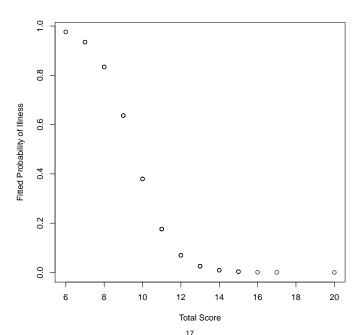
All effects have the same direction, but none appears significant. (Possible collinearity?)

Try using the total score only:

```
> xsum <- apply(psych[,2:6], 1, sum)
> psychfit2 <- glm(ill ~ xsum, family=binomial, data=psych)
> summary(psychfit2)
. . .
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) 10.0331 3.1448 3.190 0.001421 **
           -1.0524 0.3177 -3.313 0.000924 ***
xsum
Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' '1
. . .
```

Plot fitted probabilities of illness versus the total score:

```
> plot(xsum, fitted(psychfit2), xlab="Total Score",
+ ylab="Fitted Probability of Illness")
```



Q: Why does the plot show a negative slope? Does it make sense?

Grouped Data: Binomial Response

If several observations have the same x ("replications"), then they have the same $\pi(x)$.

Summing binary (0/1) observations with the same \boldsymbol{x} gives **grouped** data:

$$Y_i \sim \operatorname{binomial}(n_i, \pi(\boldsymbol{x}_i))$$

where "i" now refers to the ith group (of n_i binary obs.).

Note: Both Y_i and n_i (or $n_i - Y_i$) must be included in the data.

Remarks:

► Whether data are grouped or ungrouped, fitting with maximum likelihood gives the same results.

R Example: Snoring & Heart Disease Data

```
> snoreheart <- read.table("snoreheart.txt", header=TRUE)
```

> snoreheart

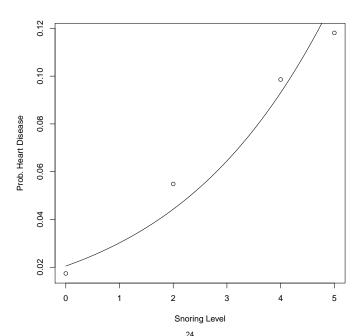
	Disease	NoDisease	Snoring
1	24	1355	0
2	35	603	2
3	21	192	4
4	30	224	5

Remark: Snoring level is actually ordinal, but we convert it to numerical scores, as suggested by Agresti.

Note: The response must include both the "successes" (Disease) and "failures" (NoDisease).

. . .

> curve(predict(snorefit, data.frame(Snoring=x), type="response"), add=TRUE)



For 2×2 Tables

x = 1	Y_1	$n_1 - Y_1$	n_1
x = 0	Y_2	$n_2 - Y_2$	n_2

Note: Can regard as grouped data with two groups.

A binomial regression model (with x=0 or 1) is equivalent to the independent binomial model:

$$Y_1 \sim \operatorname{binomial}(n_1, \pi_1 = \pi(1))$$

 $Y_2 \sim \operatorname{binomial}(n_2, \pi_2 = \pi(0))$ independent

For logistic regression:

$$logit(\pi(x)) = \alpha + \beta x$$

so the odds ratio is

$$\theta = \frac{\pi_1/(1-\pi_1)}{\pi_2/(1-\pi_2)} = \exp(\log it(\pi_1) - \log it(\pi_2))$$
$$= \exp(\alpha + \beta \cdot 1 - (\alpha + \beta \cdot 0)) = e^{\beta}$$

So β is the log odds ratio.

Other Links

Let F be a continuous and invertible c.d.f. on the real line.

A reasonable link might be

$$g(\pi) = F^{-1}(\pi)$$

since it transforms interval (0,1) to the whole real line.

Using the c.d.f. Φ for a standard normal is called **probit** regression.

It relates to the concept of latent variables — see Agresti, Sec. 4.2.6.

Count Response

For binomial data, the maximum possible count is known (for each observation).

What if there are no known maximum counts?

Counts of independently-occurring incidents (without any maximum) are often modeled using the Poisson distribution ...

$$Y_i \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu(\boldsymbol{x}_i))$$

 $\mathrm{E}(Y_i) = \mu(\boldsymbol{x}_i) \qquad \mathrm{var}(Y_i) = \mu(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$

Recall canonical link:

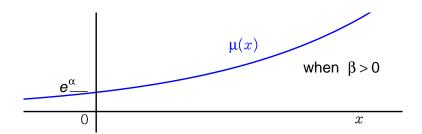
$$\ln \mu(\boldsymbol{x}_i) = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_p x_{ip}$$

(loglinear model)

When p = 1,

$$\ln \mu(x) = \alpha + \beta x$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \mu(x) = e^{\alpha + \beta x} = e^{\alpha} (e^{\beta})^x$$



R Example: Horseshoe Crab Data

```
Y_i = \text{number of males ("satellites") by female } i x_i = \text{width (cm) of female } i
```

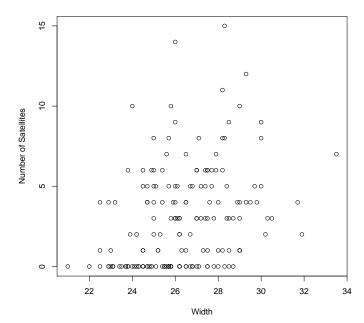
```
> horseshoe <- read.table("horseshoe.txt", header=TRUE)</pre>
```

```
> head(horseshoe)
  color spine width satell weight y
1     3     3     28.3     8     3050 1
2     4     3     22.5     0     1550 0
3     2     1     26.0     9     2300 1
4     4     3     24.8           0     2100 0
5     4     3     26.0     4     2600 1
```

```
> plot(satell ~ width, data=horseshoe, xlab="Width",
```

3 23.8 0 2100 0

+ ylab="Number of Satellites")



```
> hsfit <- glm(satell ~ width, family=poisson, data=horseshoe)</pre>
> summary(hsfit)
. . .
Coefficients:
          Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
width
       0.16405 0.01997 8.216 < 2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 632.79 on 172 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 567.88 on 171 degrees of freedom
AIC: 927.18
```

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 6

Log-link is used by default:

$$\hat{\mu}(x) \approx e^{-3.305 + 0.164x}$$

e.g. a 30 cm female should have about $e^{-3.305+0.164\times30}\approx5.03$ satellites

For each $1\ \mbox{cm}$ increase in width, the mean number of satellites increases by a factor of

$$e^{0.164} \approx 1.18$$
 (18%)

Rate Models

 $E(Y_i) = \mu_i$ is sometimes expected to be proportional to another observed variable $t_i > 0$:

$$\mu_i = \lambda_i t_i$$

e.g.

 Y_i = cases of rare disease in nation i

 t_i = national population (known)

 λ_i = disease **rate** (unknown)

(t could alternatively be a temporal or spatial extent)

lf

$$\ln \lambda_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}$$

then

$$\ln \mu_i = \ln \lambda_i + \ln t_i$$

$$= \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip} + \ln t_i$$

Note: $\ln t_i$ has no coefficient.

Call $\ln t_i$ an **offset**.

R Example: British Train Collisions

```
Y_i = number of collisions b/w trains & road vehicles (year i)
x_i = year minus 1975
t_i = total km of train travel (millions)
> tc <- read.table("traincollisions.txt", header=TRUE)
> head(tc)
 Year KM Train TrRd
1 2003 518
2 2002 516 1
3 2001 508
4 2000 503
5 1999 505
6 1998 487
```

```
> tcfit <- glm(TrRd ~ I(Year-1975), offset = log(KM), family=poisson, data=tc)</pre>
> summary(tcfit)
. . .
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -4.21142 0.15892 -26.50 < 2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 47.376 on 28 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 37.853 on 27 degrees of freedom
AIC: 133.52
```

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5

```
> plot(1000*TrRd/KM ~ Year, data=tc,
+ ylab="Collisions per Billion Train-Kilometers")
> curve(1000*predict(tcfit, data.frame(Year=x,KM=1), type="response"),
+ add=TRUE)
```

(Note: Set rate variable t to 1 to get estimates of the rate itself.)

