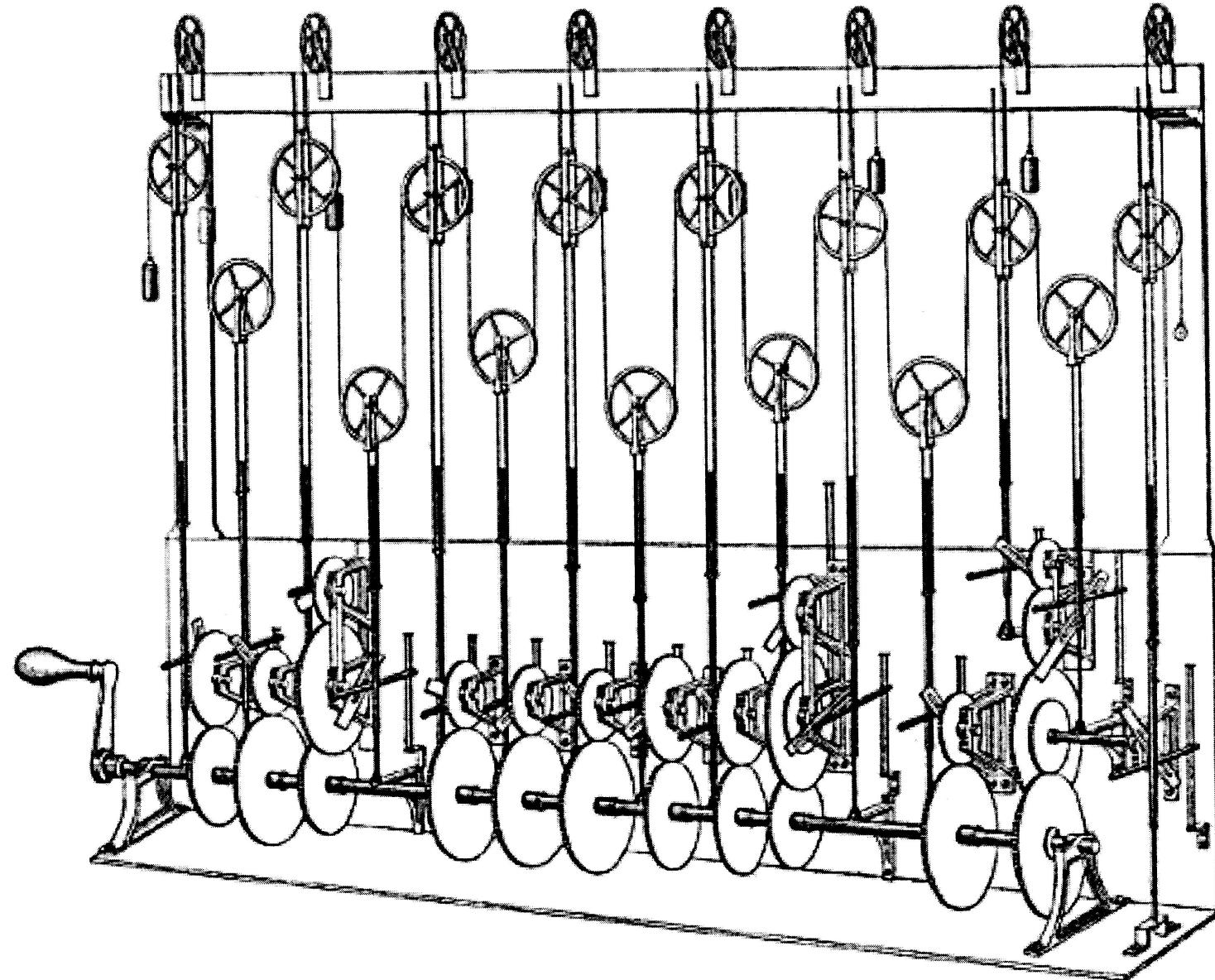


Statistical Rethinking

Week 7: The Generalized Linear Model

Richard McElreath



Tide prediction machine, 1879 design,
by William Thomson (Lord Kelvin, 1824–1907)

Generalized Linear Models

- Goal: Connect linear model to outcome variable
 - Would be better to ditch linear model, too
- Can model multivariate relationships and non-linear responses
- Building blocks of multilevel models
- Strategy:
 1. Pick an outcome distribution
 2. Model its parameters using links to linear models
 3. Compute posterior

Generalized Linear Models

- (1) Pick an outcome distribution
 - Distances and durations: exponential, gamma (*survival* or *event history*)
 - Counts: Poisson, binomial, multinomial, geometric
 - Monsters: Ranks and ordered categories
 - Mixtures: Beta-binomial, gamma-Poisson, zero-inflated processes

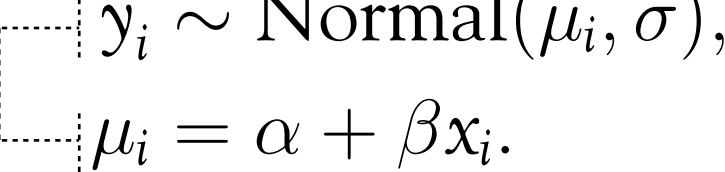
Generalized Linear Models

- (2) Model parameters with a *link*

$$y_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma), \\ \mu_i = \alpha + \beta x_i.$$

Generalized Linear Models

- (2) Model parameters with a *link*

same units 

$$y_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma),$$
$$\mu_i = \alpha + \beta x_i.$$

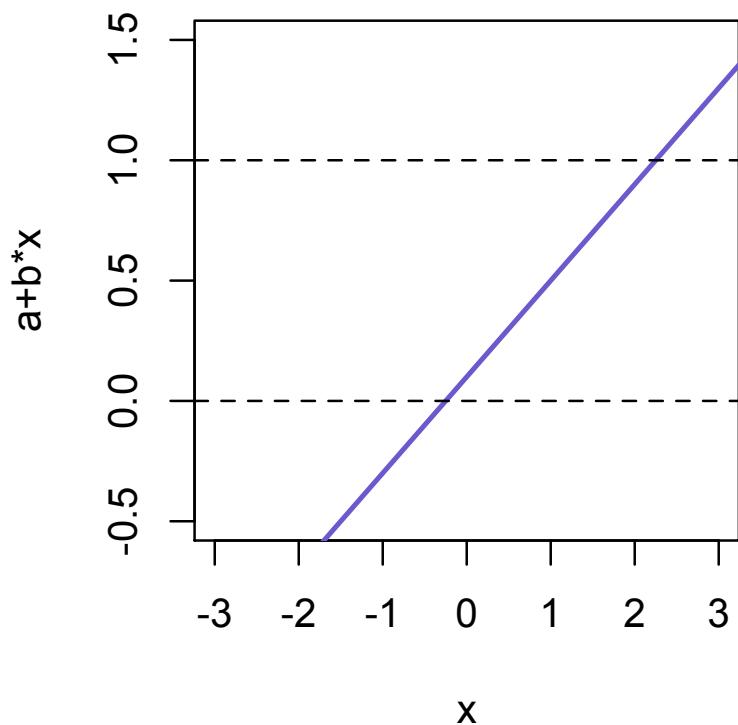
Generalized Linear Models

same units

$$\boxed{y_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma)},$$
$$\boxed{\mu_i = \alpha + \beta x_i.}$$

$$y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n_i, p_i)$$

$$p_i ? \alpha + \beta x_i$$



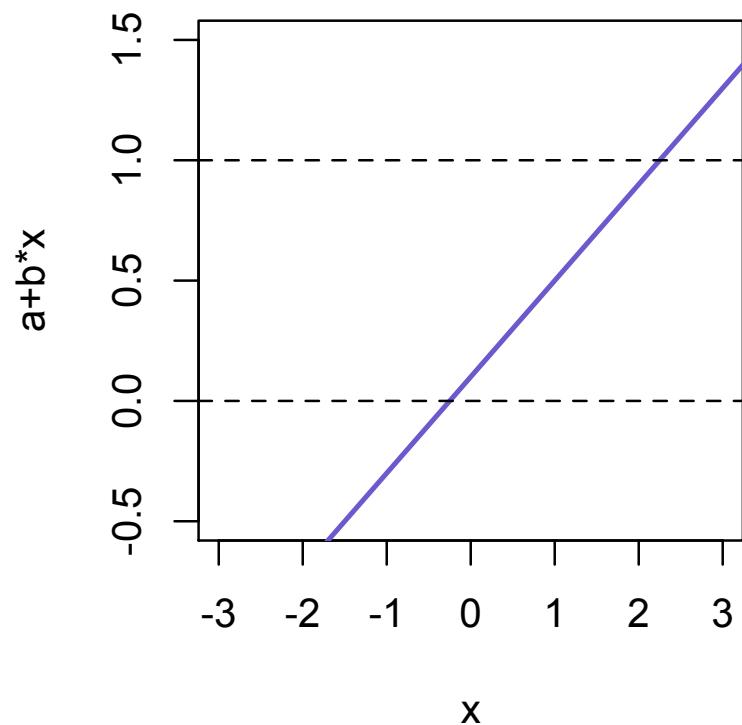
Generalized Linear Models

same units $y_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma),$

$$\mu_i = \alpha + \beta x_i.$$

count $y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n_i, p_i)$

$$p_i ? \alpha + \beta x_i$$



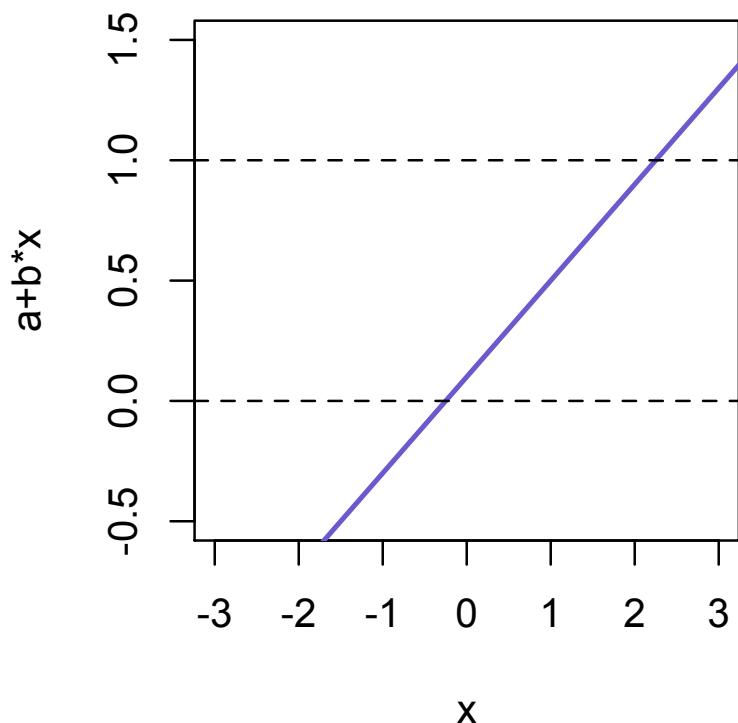
Generalized Linear Models

same units $y_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma),$

$$\mu_i = \alpha + \beta x_i.$$

count $y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n_i, p_i)$

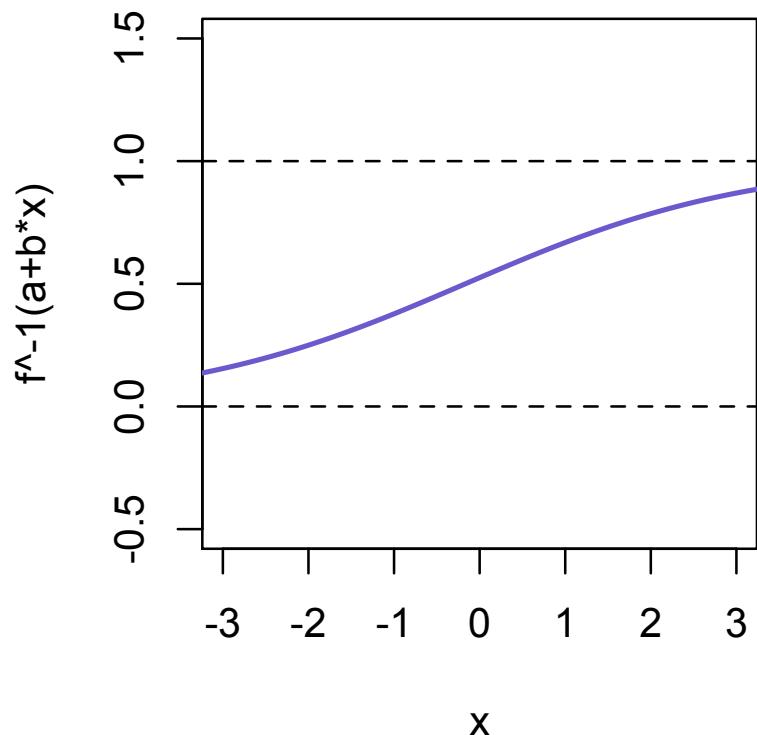
probability $p_i \stackrel{?}{=} \alpha + \beta x_i$



Generalized Linear Models

same units $\boxed{y_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma),}$
 $\boxed{\mu_i = \alpha + \beta x_i.}$

count $y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n_i, p_i)$
 $f(p_i) = \alpha + \beta x_i$



Generalized Linear Models

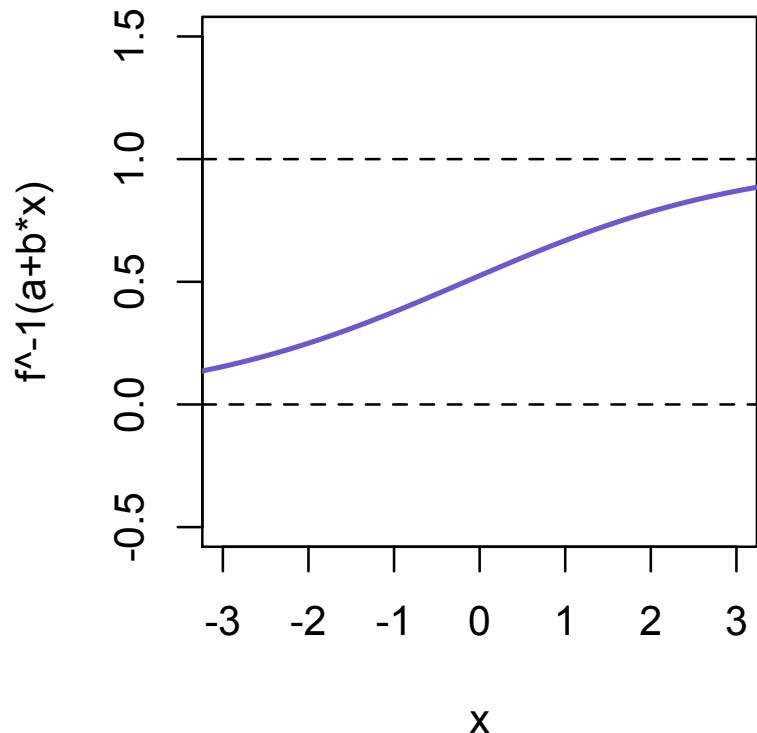
same units.....

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{l} y_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma), \\ \mu_i = \alpha + \beta x_i. \end{array}}$$

count.....

$$y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n_i, p_i)$$
$$f(p_i) = \alpha + \beta x_i$$

link function

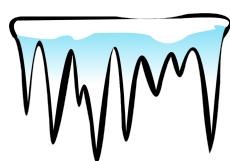
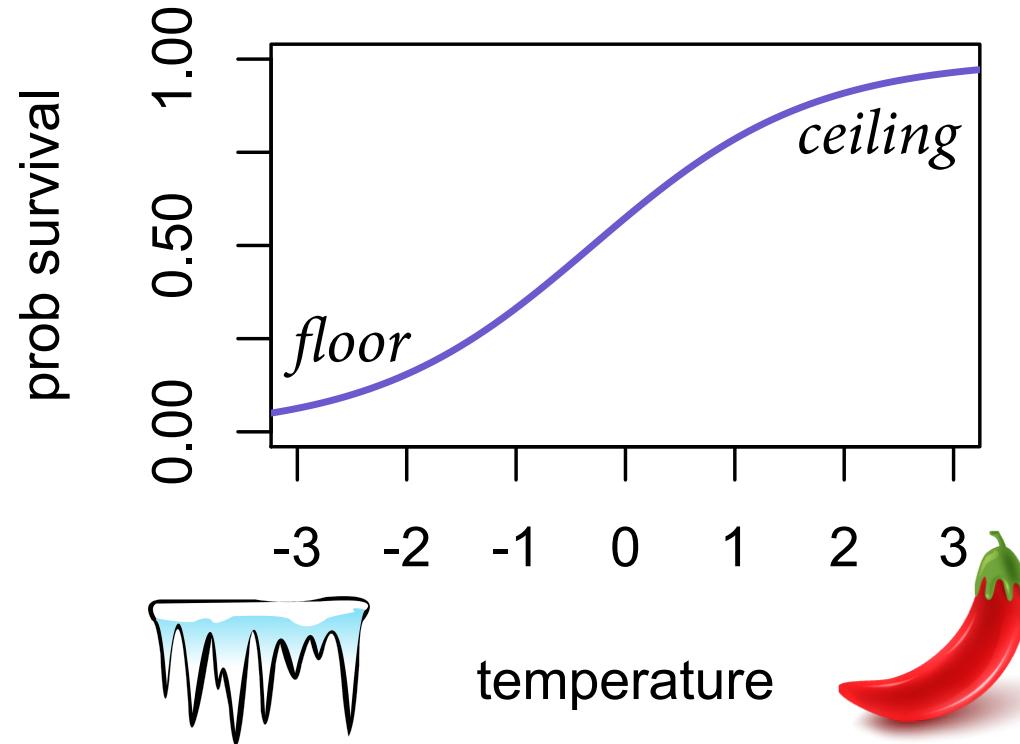


Generalized Linear Models

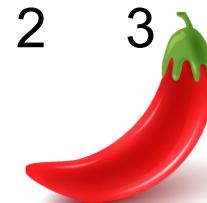
- (3) Compute posterior
 - Search is harder
 - Interpretation is harder
 - Links matter
 - Quadratic approximation often works, but not always
 - Safest to rely on MCMC

Everything interacts

- There are *floor* and *ceiling* effects



temperature



Everything interacts

- Linear regression:

$$\mu = \alpha + \beta x \quad \partial\mu/\partial x = \beta$$

- Logistic regression:

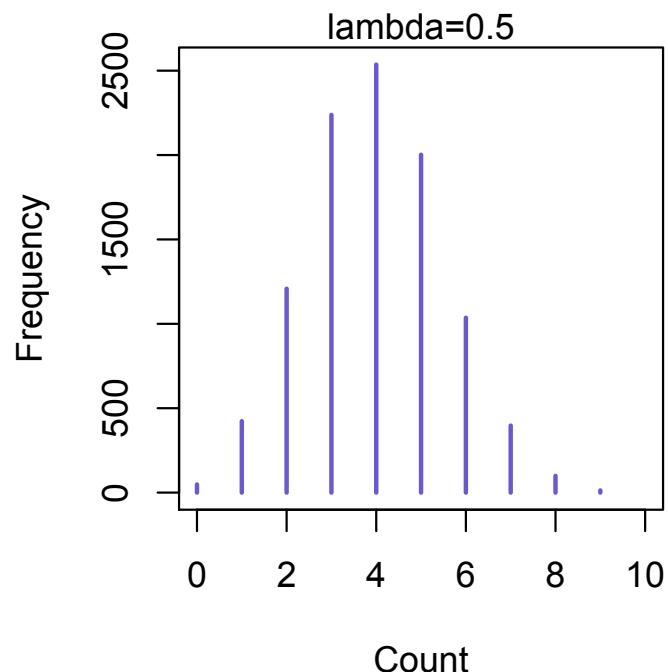
$$p = \frac{\exp(\alpha + \beta x)}{1 + \exp(\alpha + \beta x)}$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} = \frac{\beta}{2(1 + \cosh(\alpha + \beta x))}$$

Binomial distribution

- Counts of a specific event out of n possibilities
- Constant expected value
- Maxent: Binomial

$$y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$$

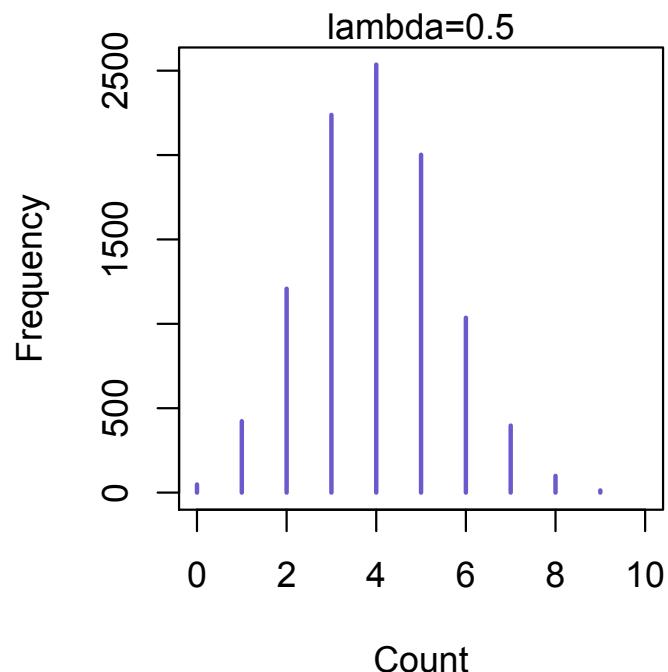


Binomial distribution

- Counts of a specific event out of n possibilities
- Constant expected value
- Maxent: Binomial

$$y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$$

count
“successes”

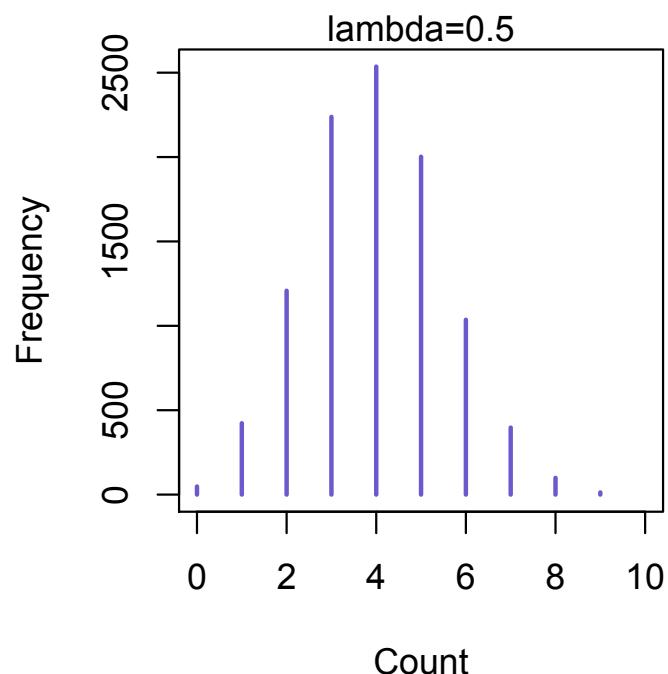


Binomial distribution

- Counts of a specific event out of n possibilities
- Constant expected value
- Maxent: Binomial

$$y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$$

count *number of trials*
“successes”



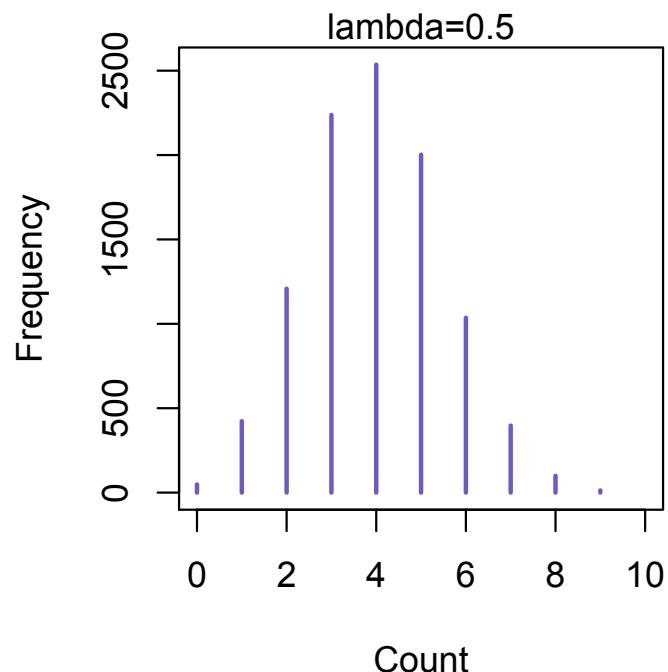
Binomial distribution

- Counts of a specific event out of n possibilities
- Constant expected value
- Maxent: Binomial

$$y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$$

count *number of trials* *probability of success*

“successes”



Binomial distribution

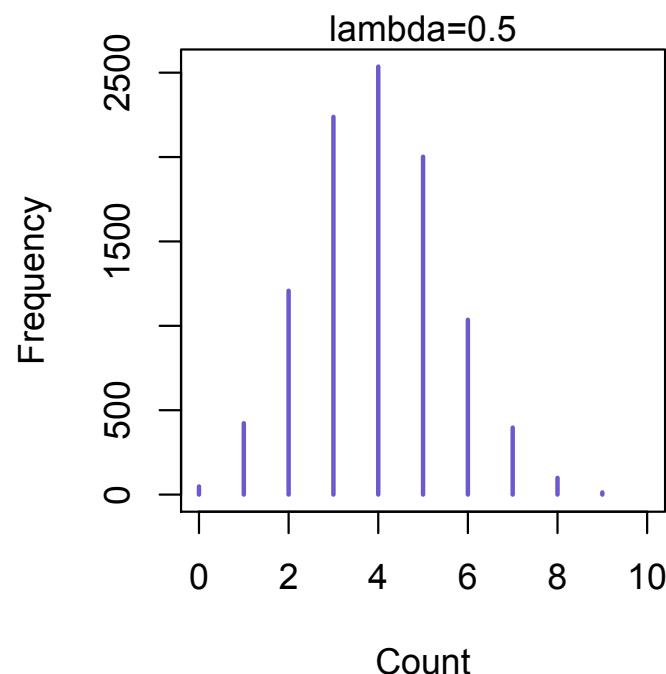
- Counts of a specific event out of n possibilities
- Constant expected value
- Maxent: Binomial

$$y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$$

$$\text{E}(y) = np$$

$$\text{var}(y) = np(1 - p)$$

*Mean and variance
not independent*



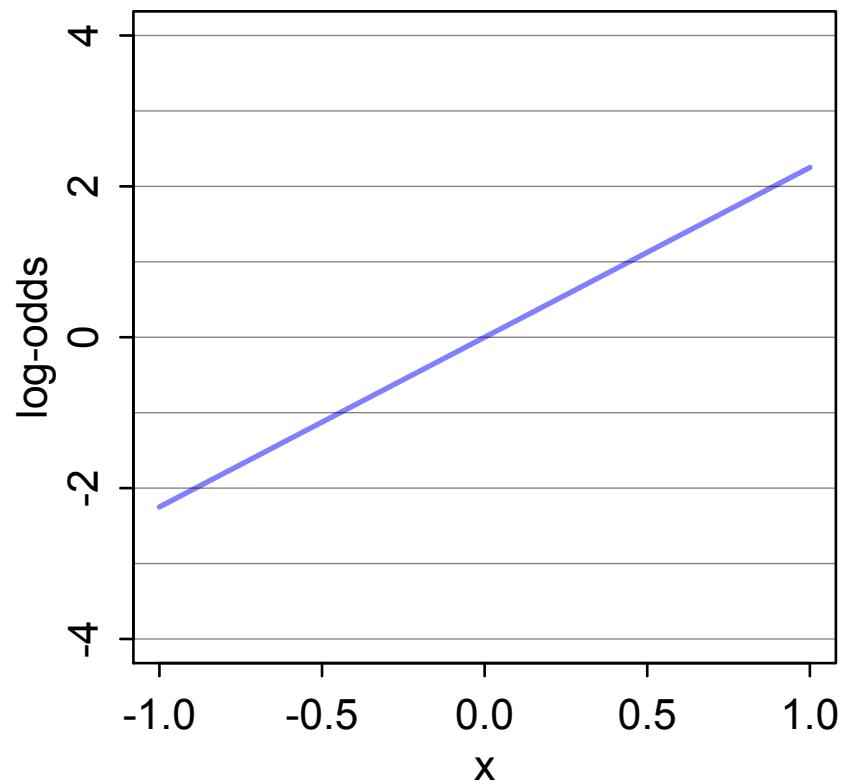
Need a link

$$y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$$

- y and p on different scales
- y : count
- p : probability
- Want to model p as function of predictor variables
- Must bound it to $[0,1]$ interval

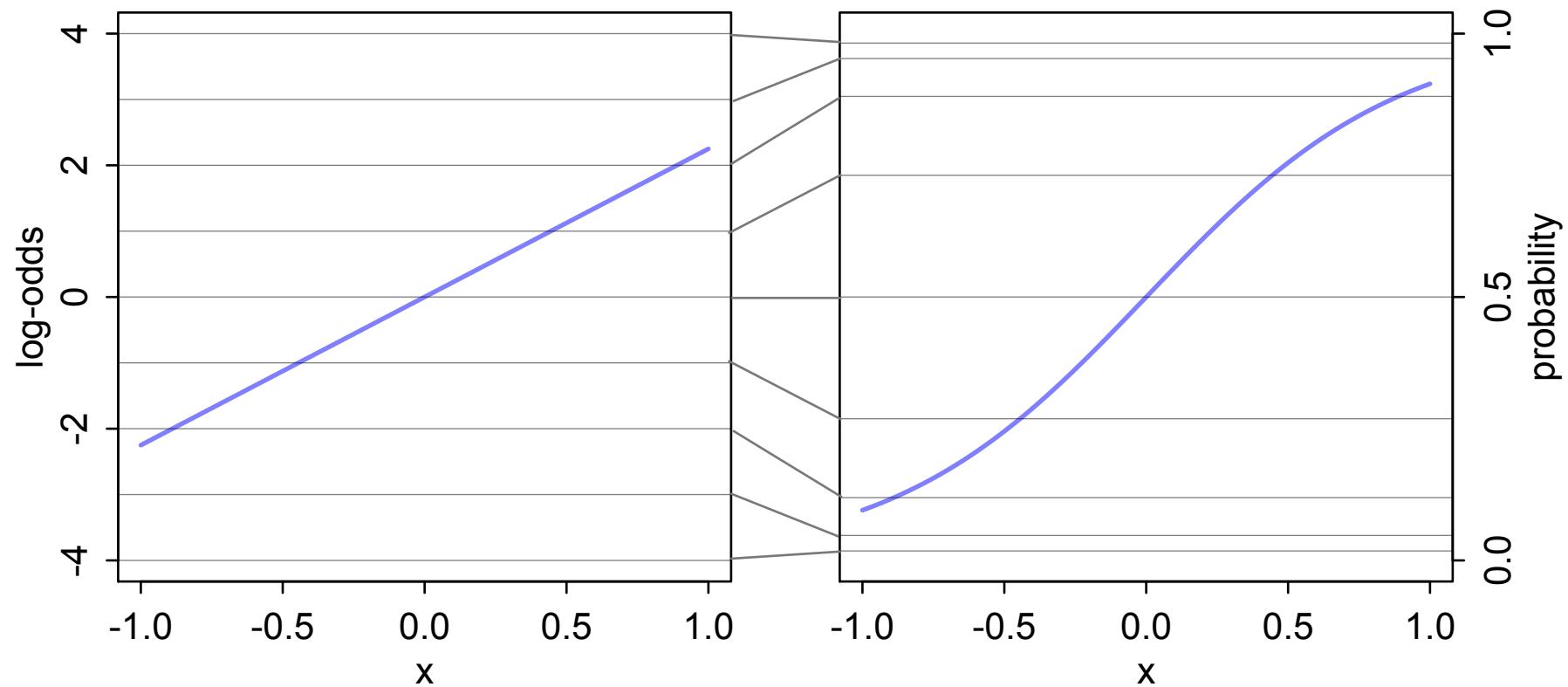
Logit link

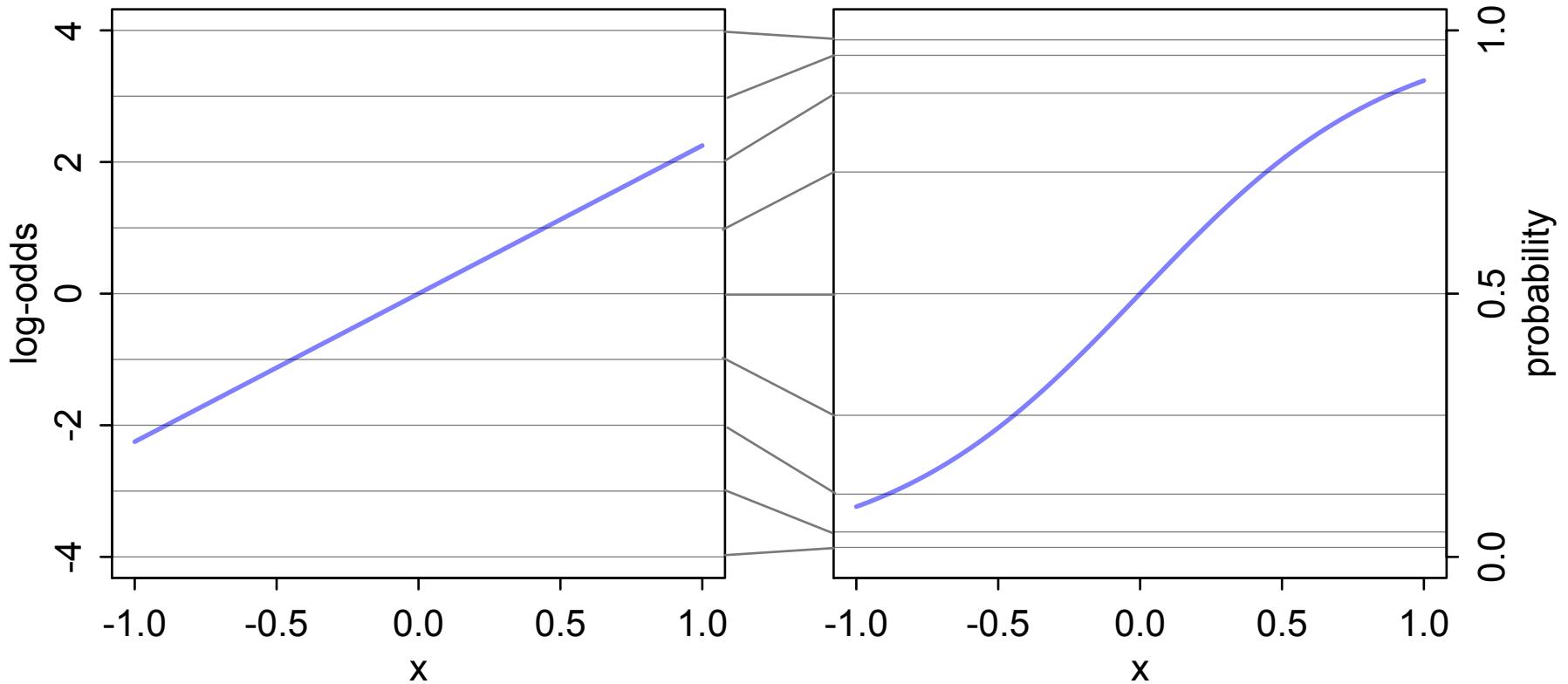
- Goal: map linear model to $[0,1]$



Logit link

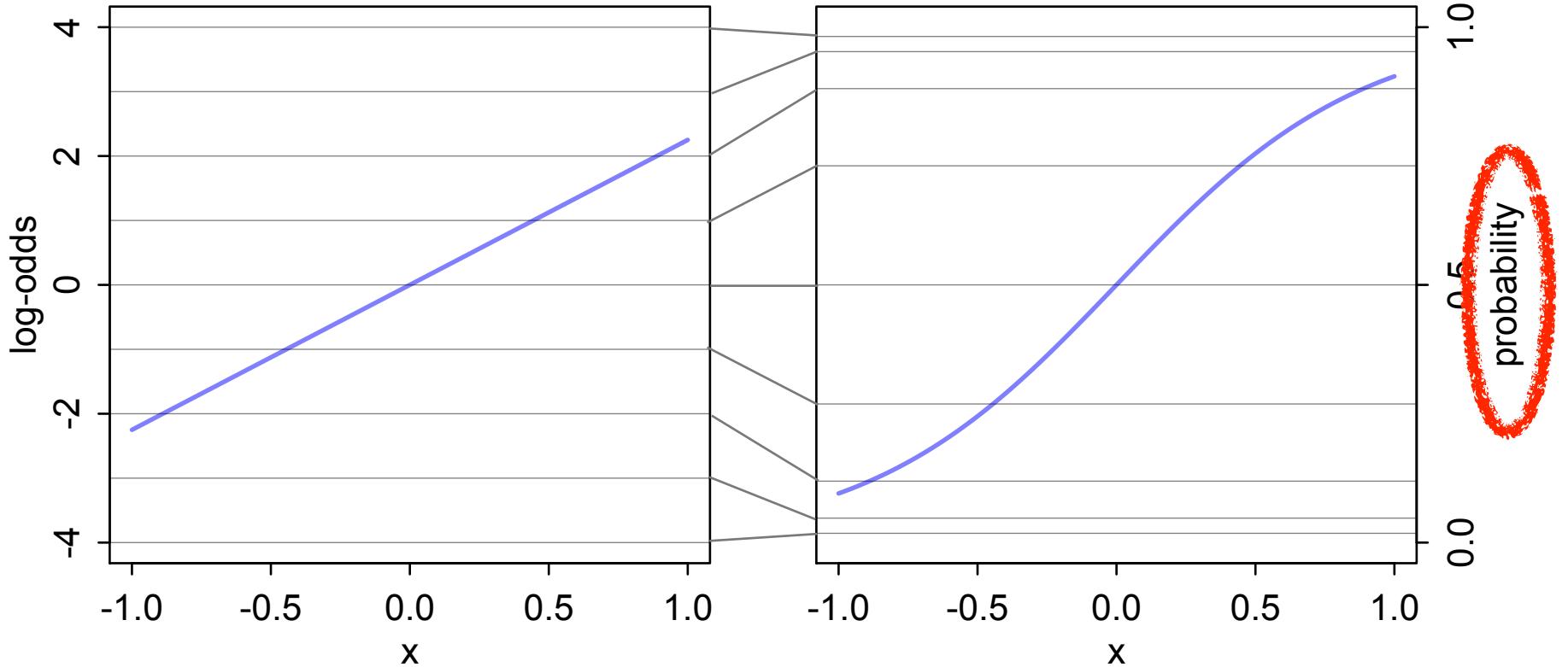
- Goal: map linear model to $[0,1]$



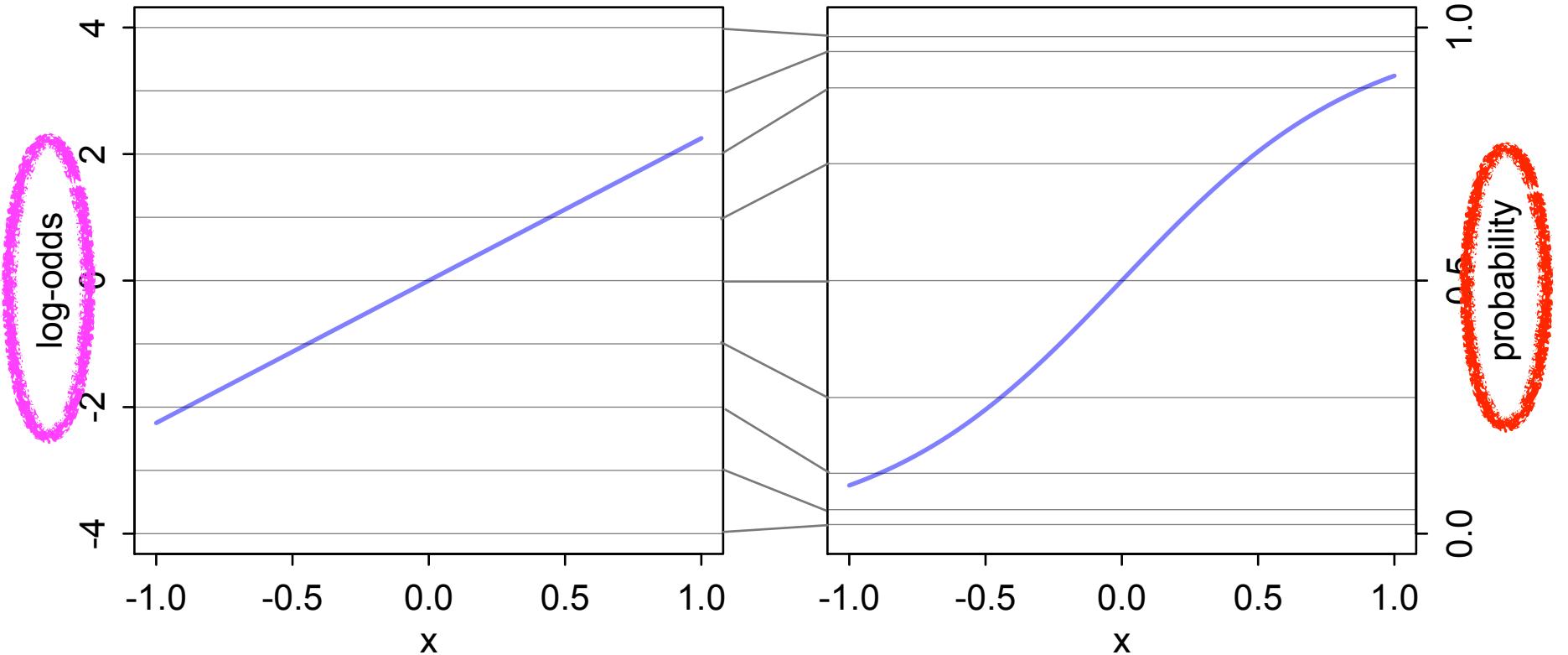


$$y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p_i)$$

$$\text{logit}(p_i) = \alpha + \beta x_i$$



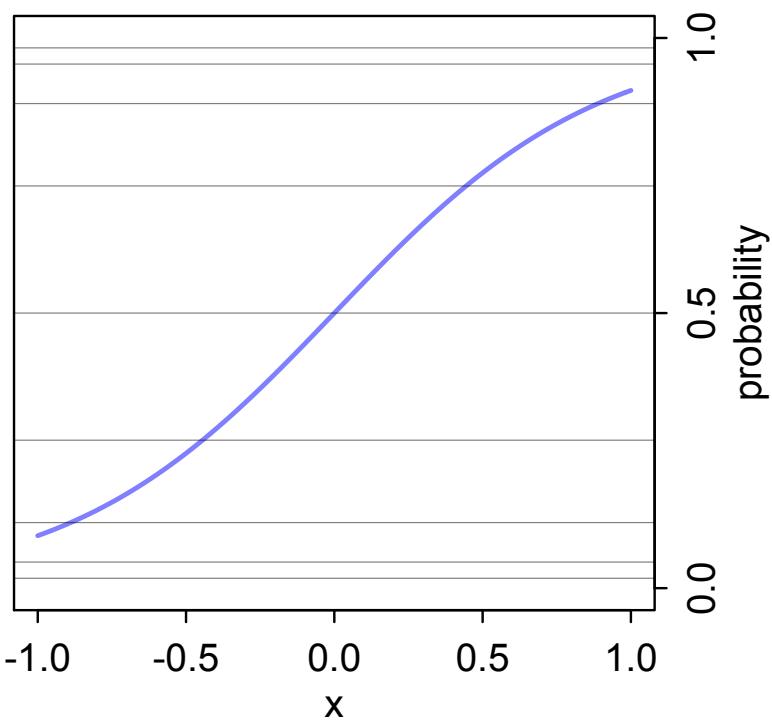
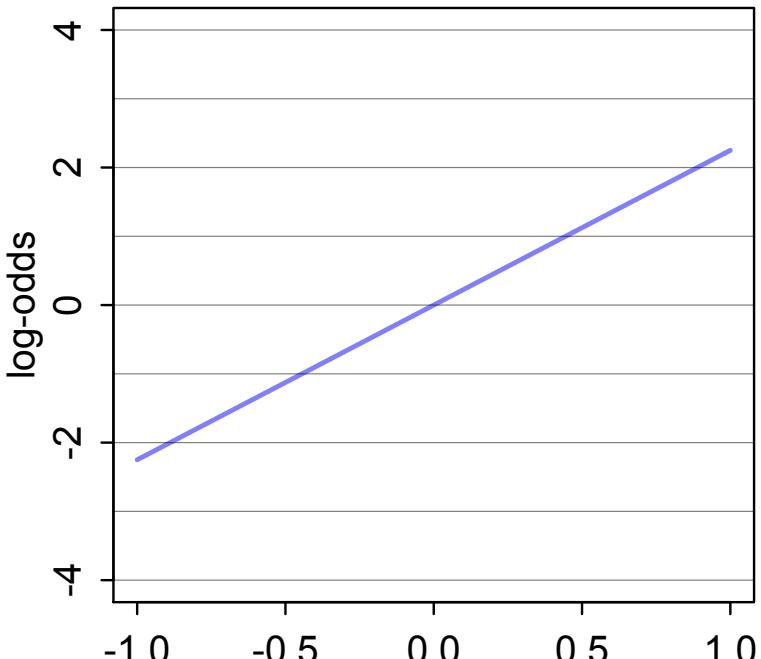
$$y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p_i)$$
$$\text{logit } p_i = \alpha + \beta x_i$$



$$y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p_i)$$
$$\text{logit } p_i = \alpha + \beta x_i$$

$$y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p_i)$$

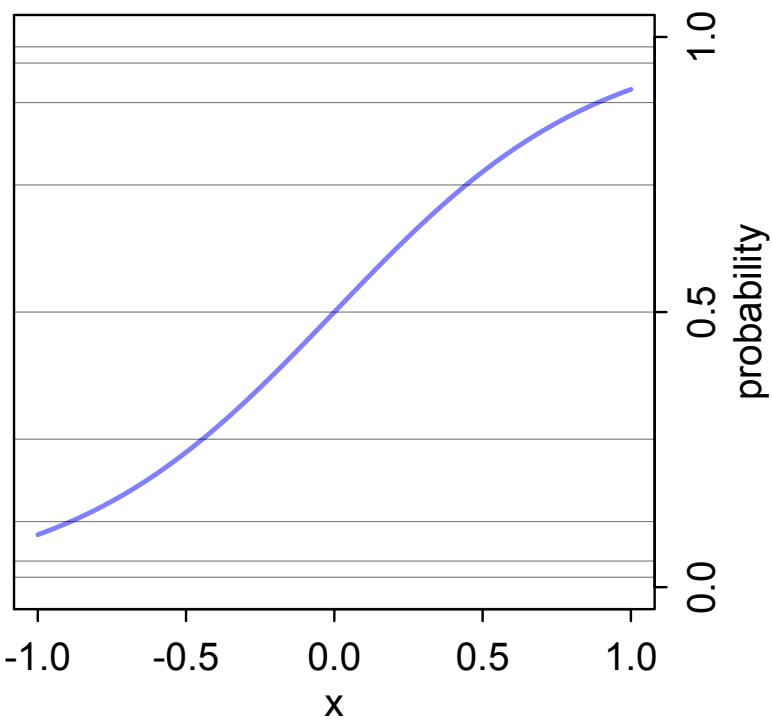
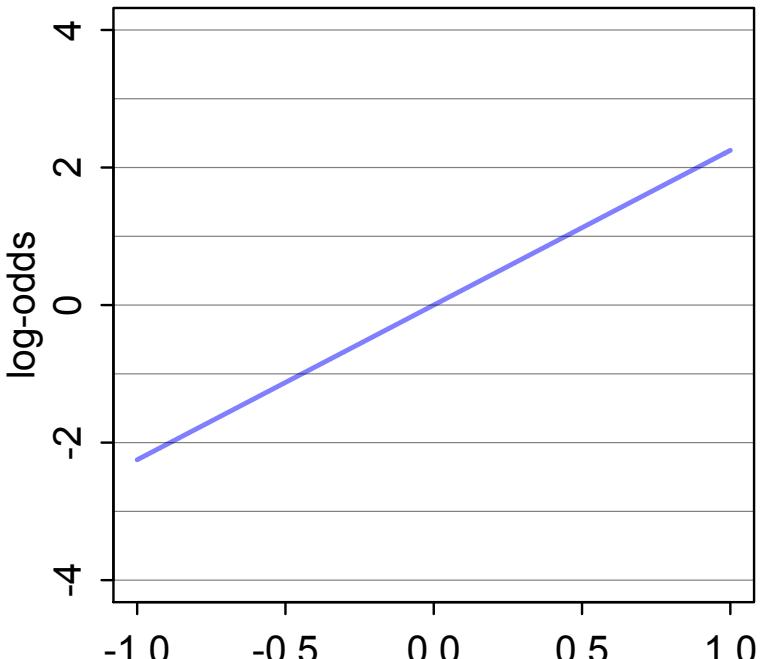
$$\text{logit}(p_i) = \alpha + \beta x_i$$



$$y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p_i)$$

$$\text{logit}(p_i) = \alpha + \beta x_i$$

$$\text{logit}(p_i) = \log \frac{p_i}{1 - p_i} = \alpha + \beta x_i$$



$$y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p_i)$$

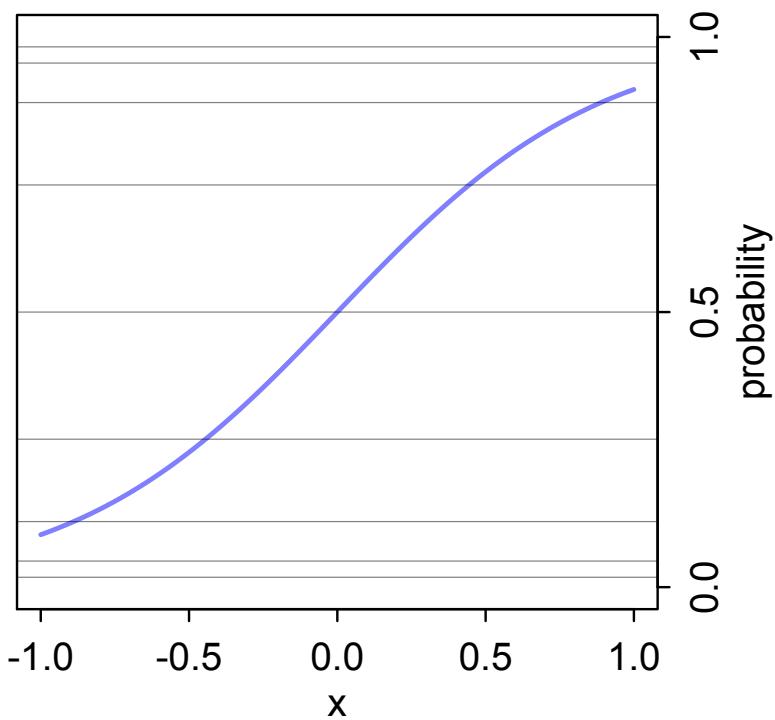
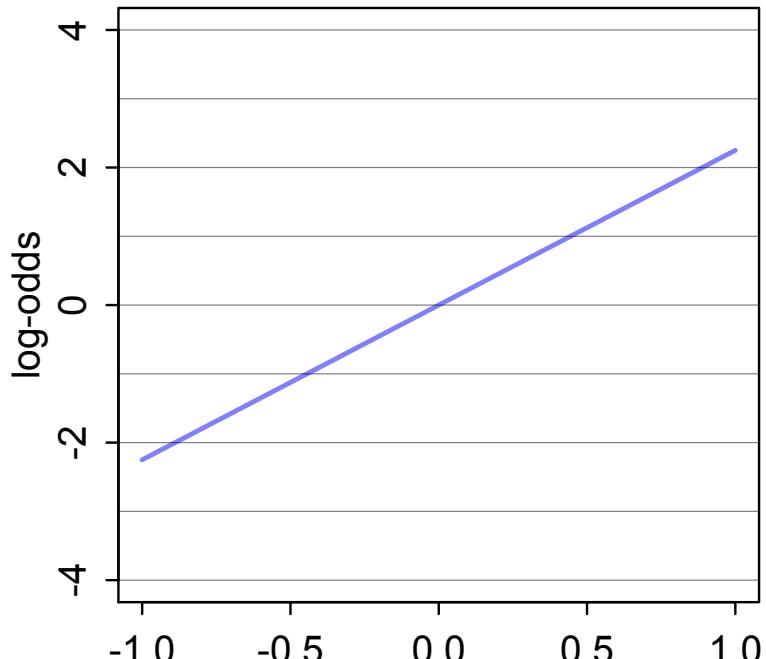
$$\text{logit}(p_i) = \alpha + \beta x_i$$

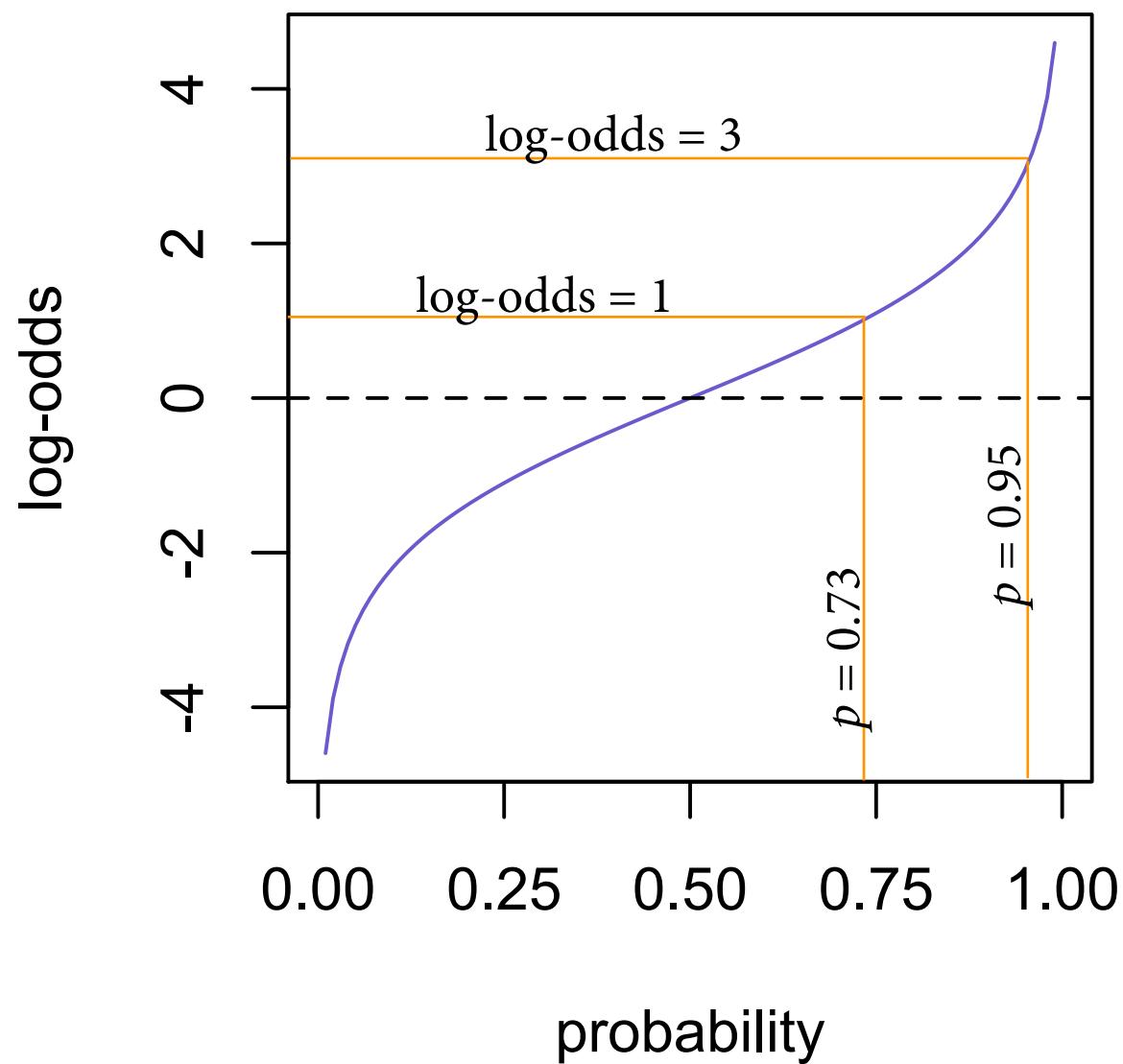
$$\text{logit}(p_i) = \log \frac{p_i}{1 - p_i} = \alpha + \beta x_i$$

Solve for p_i :

$$p_i = \frac{\exp(\alpha + \beta x_i)}{1 + \exp(\alpha + \beta x_i)}$$

inverse-link is logistic





Logit link

$$y_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p_i)$$

$$\text{logit}(p_i) = \alpha + \beta x_i$$

- Where does this thing come from?
- Several good answers:
 - “Natural” link inside probability formula
 - log-odds is fundamental parameter
 - See Overthinking box, pages 279–280
- Other links sometimes justified
 - Probit (common in economics)
 - Complementary-log-log (cloglog, common where?)

Example: UCB admissions

R code
10.22

```
library(rethinking)  
data(UCBadmit)  
d <- UCBadmit
```

- Numbers accepted/rejected to 6 PhD programs at UC Berkeley (largest depts in 1973)
- Evidence of gender discrimination? Dean was afraid of lawsuit.
- Call in the statisticians!



Example: UCB admissions

R code
10.22

```
library(rethinking)
data(UCBadmit)
d <- UCBadmit
```

	dept	applicant.gender	admit	reject	applications
1	A	male	512	313	825
2	A	female	89	19	108
3	B	male	353	207	560
4	B	female	17	8	25
5	C	male	120	205	325
6	C	female	202	391	593
7	D	male	138	279	417
8	D	female	131	244	375
9	E	male	53	138	191
10	E	female	94	299	393
11	F	male	22	351	373
12	F	female	24	317	341

Trials vary by row

```
d$male <- ifelse( d$applicant.gender=="male" , 1 , 0 )
m10.6 <- map(
  alist(
    admit ~ dbinom( applications , p ) ,
    logit(p) <- a + bm*male ,
    a ~ dnorm(0,10) ,
    bm ~ dnorm(0,10)
  ) ,
  data=d )
```

R code
10.23

	dept	applicant.gender	admit	reject	applications
1	A	male	512	313	825
2	A	female	89	19	108
3	B	male	353	207	560
4	B	female	17	8	25
5	C	male	120	205	325
6	C	female	202	391	593
7	D	male	138	279	417
8	D	female	131	244	375
9	E	male	53	138	191
10	E	female	94	299	393
11	F	male	22	351	373
12	F	female	24	317	341

$$n_{\text{admit},i} \sim \text{Binomial}(n_i, p_i)$$

$$\text{logit}(p_i) = \alpha + \beta_m m_i$$

$$\alpha \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10)$$

$$\beta_m \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10)$$

With and without males

```
d$male <- ifelse( d$applicant.gender=="male" , 1 , 0 )
m10.6 <- map(
  alist(
    admit ~ dbinom( applications , p ) ,
    logit(p) <- a + bm*male ,
    a ~ dnorm(0,10) ,
    bm ~ dnorm(0,10)
  ) ,
  data=d )
m10.7 <- map(
  alist(
    admit ~ dbinom( applications , p ) ,
    logit(p) <- a ,
    a ~ dnorm(0,10)
  ) ,
  data=d )
```

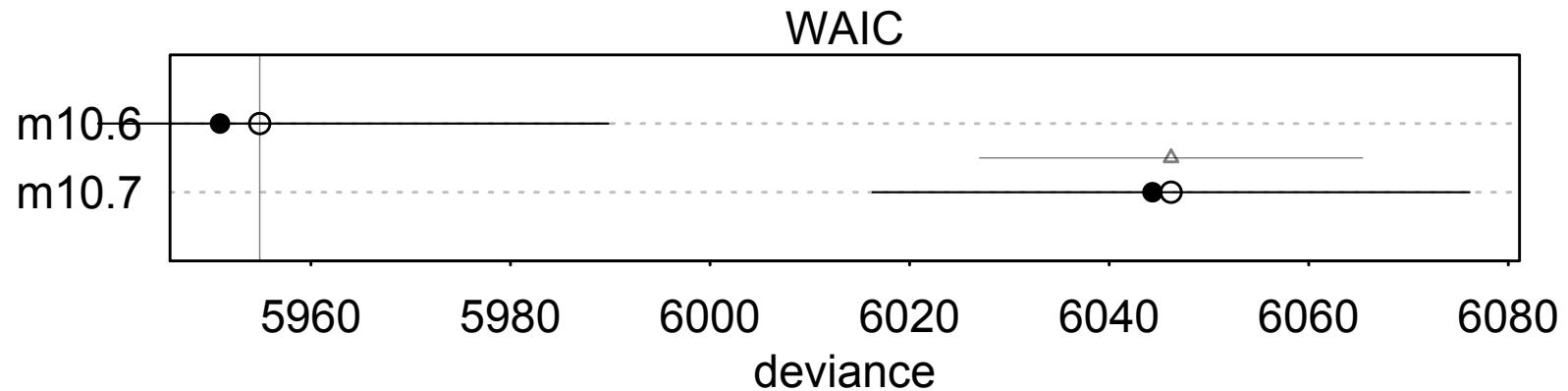
R code
10.23

Compare

```
compare( m10.6 , m10.7 )
```

R code
10.24

	WAIC	pWAIC	dWAIC	weight	SE	dSE
m10.6	5954.9	2	0.0	1	34.98	NA
m10.7	6046.3	1	91.5	0	29.93	19.13



Proportional change in odds

- How to interpret these coefficients?
- $\exp(\text{estimate})$ gives proportional change in odds
- Is a *relative* effect size

```
precis(m10.6)
```

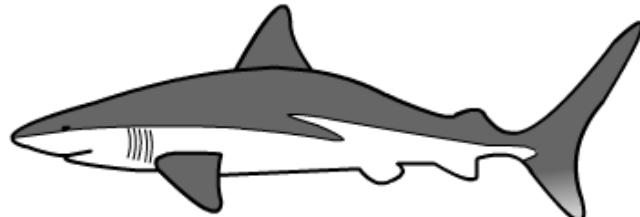
	Mean	StdDev	5.5%	94.5%
a	-0.83	0.05	-0.91	-0.75
bm	0.61	0.06	0.51	0.71

R code
10.25

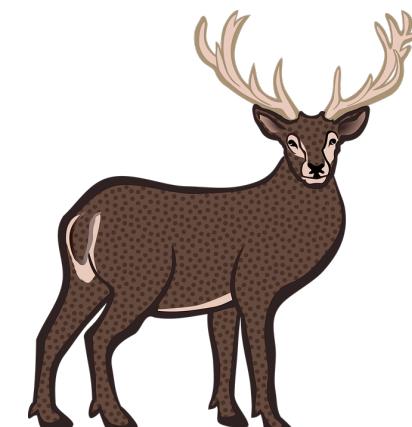
$\exp(0.61) \approx 1.84 \Rightarrow$ male has 184% odds of female

Relative and absolute effects

- Parameters on *relative* effect scale
- Predictions on *absolute* effect scale
- Using relative effects may exaggerate importance of predictor
 - Good for scaring people, getting published
 - Not so good for public health, scientific progress
 - But needed for causal inference



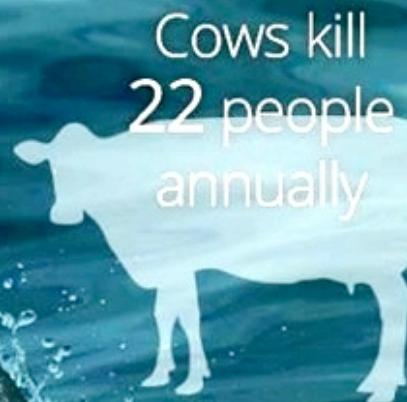
relative shark



absolute deer



Deer kill
130 people
annually



Cows kill
22 people
annually



Jellyfish kill
40 people
annually

A white silhouette of a shark leaping out of the water in the center of the image.

Sharks kill
5 people
annually



Ants kill
30 people
annually



Hippos kill
2,900 people
annually



Horses kill
20 people
annually

Risk communication

- Many people mistake relative risk for absolute risk
- Example:
 - 1/1000 women develop blood clots
 - 3/1000 women on birth control develop blood clots
 - => 200% increase in blood clots!
 - Change in probability is only 0.002
 - Pregnancy much more dangerous than blood clots

The screenshot shows the homepage of DailyMail.com. The main header reads "Daily Mail.com". Below it is a navigation bar with links: Home, U.K., News (which is highlighted in blue), Sports, U.S. Showbiz, Australia, Fem, News Home, Arts, Headlines, Pictures, Most read, News Board, and Wire. There are three main image thumbnails: one showing a group of women, another showing a soldier with a rifle, and a third showing Homer Simpson. Below these thumbnails are headlines: "EXCLUSIVE: Grandfather of 'the" (partially cut off), "ISIS attacks Iraqi base where 320 US" (partially cut off), and "Has Homer Simpson actually been i" (partially cut off).

Deadly risk of pill used by 1m GP in Britain told to warn about popular contraceptive

- Bestselling brands of birth control tablets linked to
- They are believed to double the risk compared to older
- 'Third-generation' contraceptives caused 14 deaths
- UK doctors have been ordered to alert women to the

Compute probabilities

- *Absolute* effect size is on outcome scale:

```
precis(m10.6)
```

	Mean	StdDev	5.5%	94.5%
a	-0.83	0.05	-0.91	-0.75
bm	0.61	0.06	0.51	0.71

R code
10.25

```
logistic( -0.83 )
logistic( -0.83 + 0.61 )
```

```
[1] 0.3036451
[1] 0.4452208
```

$$n_{\text{admit},i} \sim \text{Binomial}(n_i, p_i)$$

$$\text{logit}(p_i) = \alpha + \beta_m m_i$$

$$\alpha \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10)$$

$$\beta_m \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10)$$

Compute probabilities

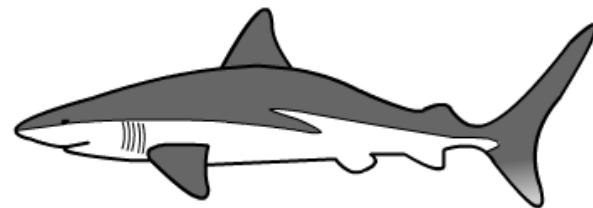
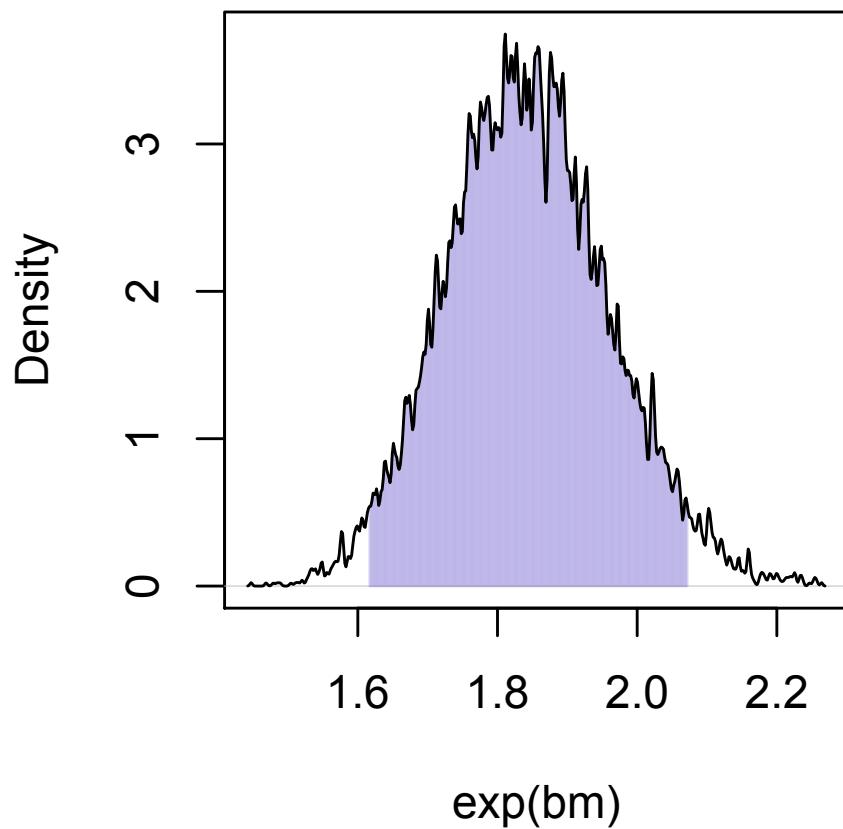
- Compute the contrast (difference in probability of admission):

```
post <- extract.samples( m10.6 )
p.admit.male <- logistic( post$a + post$bm )
p.admit.female <- logistic( post$a )
diff.admit <- p.admit.male - p.admit.female
quantile( diff.admit , c(0.025,0.5,0.975) )
```

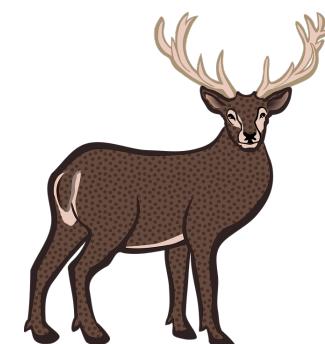
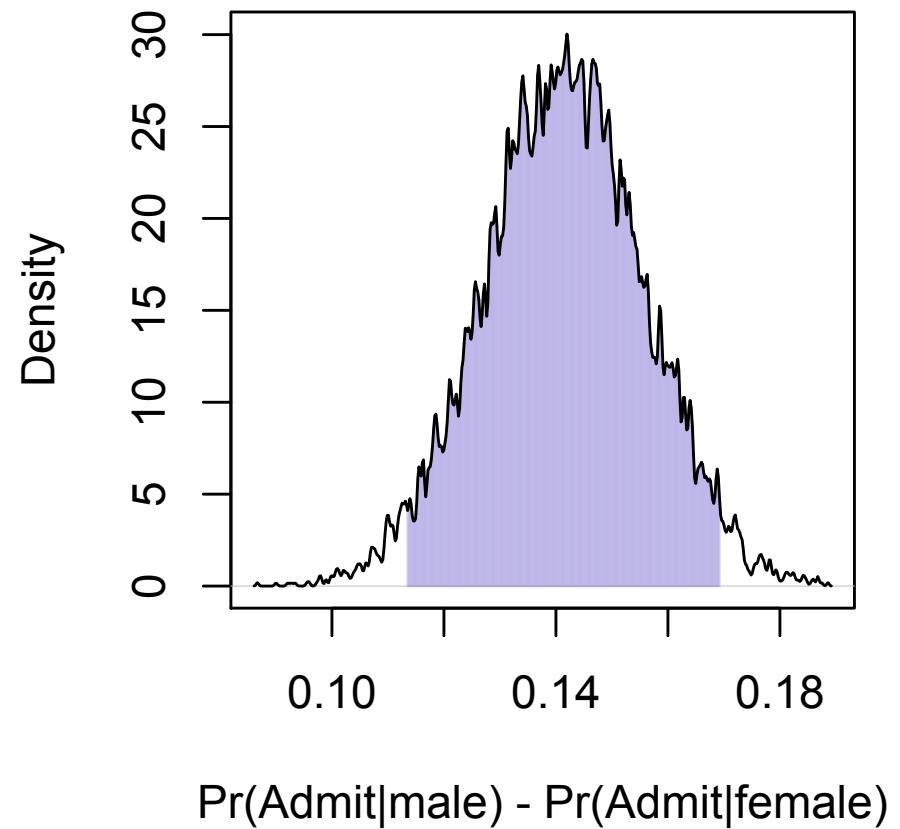
2.5% 50% 97.5%
0.1132778 0.1413527 0.1693274

R code
10.26

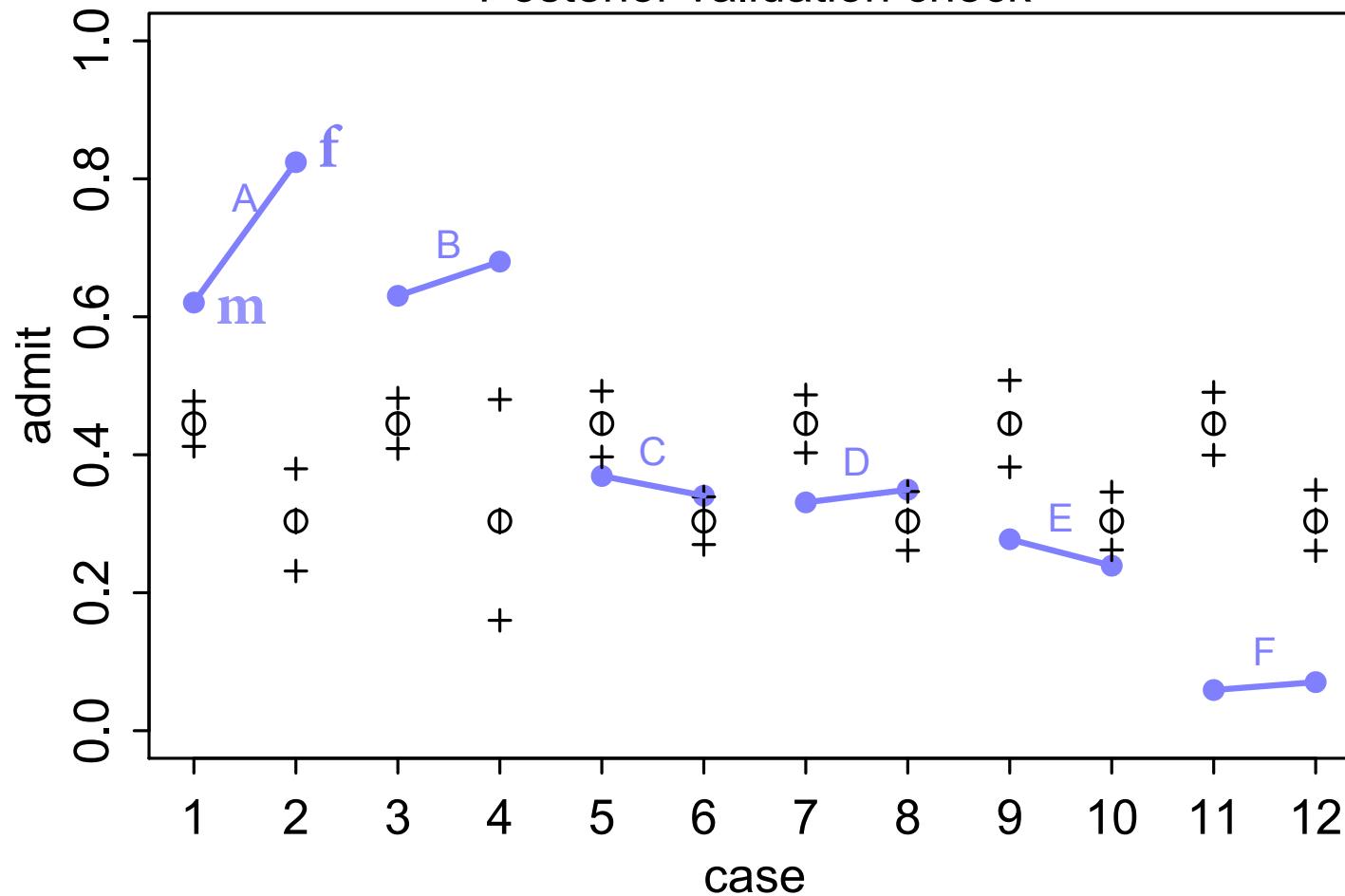
Odds ratios
(relative risk)



Probability
(difference in absolute risk)



Posterior validation check



Females admitted more in all but 2 departments!

Figure 10.5

Departments vary

- Overall admission rates vary a lot across departments
- Use unique intercepts to control for that variation

$$n_{\text{admit},i} \sim \text{Binomial}(n_i, p_i)$$

$$\text{logit}(p_i) = \alpha_{\text{DEPT}[i]} + \beta_m m_i$$

$$\alpha_{\text{DEPT}} \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10)$$

$$\beta_m \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10)$$

Departments vary

$$n_{\text{admit},i} \sim \text{Binomial}(n_i, p_i)$$

$$\text{logit}(p_i) = \alpha + \beta_m m_i$$

$$\alpha \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10)$$

$$\beta_m \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10)$$

$$n_{\text{admit},i} \sim \text{Binomial}(n_i, p_i)$$

$$\text{logit}(p_i) = \alpha_{\text{DEPT}[i]} + \beta_m m_i$$

$$\alpha_{\text{DEPT}} \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10)$$

$$\beta_m \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10)$$

Q: What are the average probabilities of admission for females and males across all departments?

Q: What is the average difference in probability of admission for females and males within departments?

Departments vary

```
dept dept_id      d$dept_id <- coerce_index( d$dept )  
1     A      1      m10.8 <- map(  
2     A      1          alist(  
3     B      2              admit ~ dbinom( applications , p ) ,  
4     B      2              logit(p) <- a[dept_id] ,  
5     C      3              a[dept_id] ~ dnorm(0,10)  
6     C      3          ) ,  
7     D      4              data=d )  
8     D      4      m10.9 <- map(  
9     E      5          alist(  
10    E      5              admit ~ dbinom( applications , p ) ,  
11    F      6              logit(p) <- a[dept_id] + bm*male ,  
12    F      6              a[dept_id] ~ dnorm(0,10) ,  
                           bm ~ dnorm(0,10)  
                   ) ,  
                   data=d )
```

Departments vary

R code
10.29

```
compare( m10.6 , m10.7 , m10.8 , m10.9 )
```

	WAIC	pWAIC	dWAIC	weight	SE	dSE
m10.8	5200.9	6	0.0	0.56	57.02	NA
m10.9	5201.4	7	0.5	0.44	57.06	2.48
m10.6	5954.8	2	753.9	0.00	34.98	48.53
m10.7	6046.3	1	845.4	0.00	29.95	52.37
—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Departments vary

R code
10.29

```
compare( m10.6 , m10.7 , m10.8 , m10.9 )
```

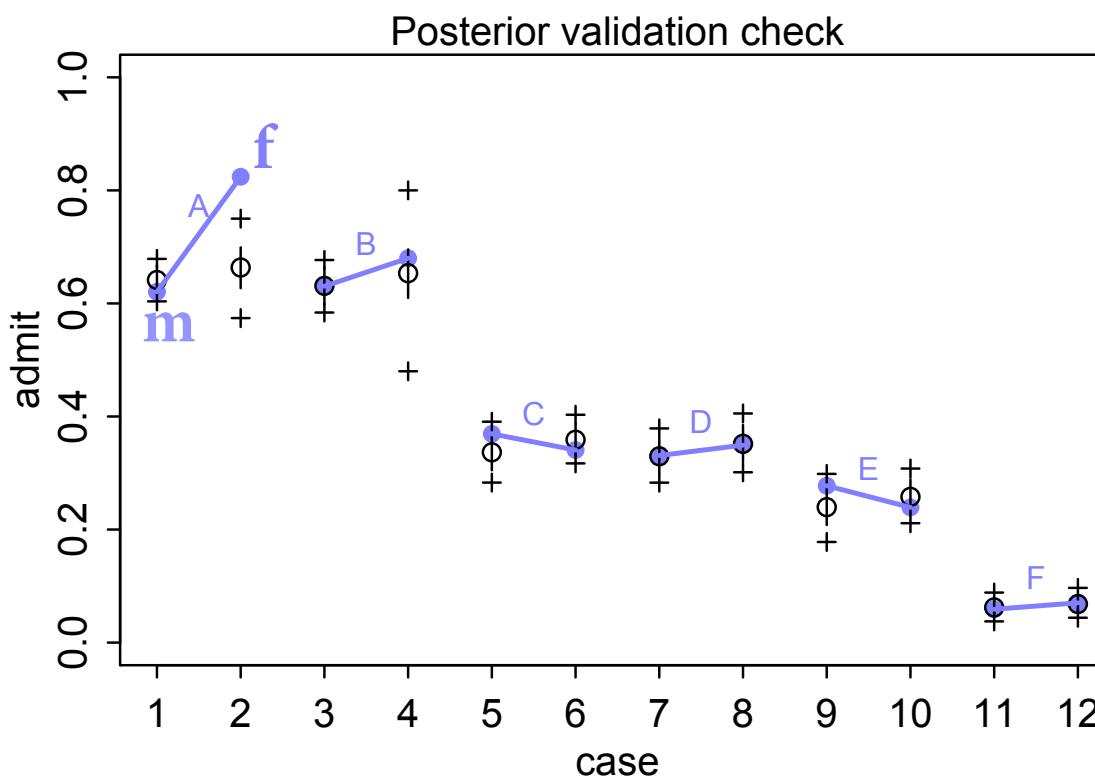
	WAIC	pWAIC	dWAIC	weight	SE	dSE
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m10.9	5201.4	7	0.5	0.44	57.06	2.48
m10.6	5954.8	2	753.9	0.00	34.98	48.53
m10.7	6046.3	1	845.4	0.00	29.95	52.37
—	—	—	—	—	—	—

R code
10.30

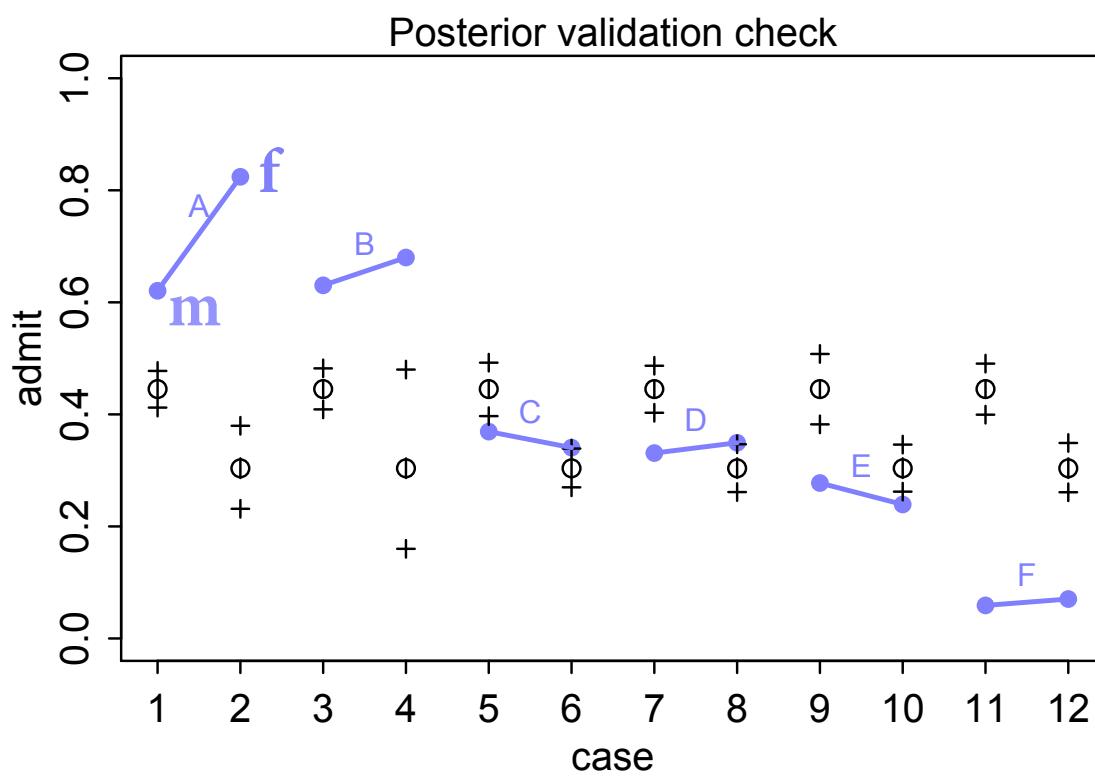
```
precis( m10.9 , depth=2 )
```

	Mean	StdDev	5.5%	94.5%
a[1]	0.68	0.10	0.52	0.84
a[2]	0.64	0.12	0.45	0.82
a[3]	-0.58	0.07	-0.70	-0.46
a[4]	-0.61	0.09	-0.75	-0.48
a[5]	-1.06	0.10	-1.22	-0.90
a[6]	-2.62	0.16	-2.88	-2.37
bm	-0.10	0.08	-0.23	0.03

With dummies



Without



Simpson's Paradox

- Trend reverses when additional predictor added
- Can indicate confound => win!
- Can also indicate collider => lose!

