



北京航空航天大学

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SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS AND MANAGEMENT

# Generalized Linear Models

Lecture 6: Generalized Linear Models



- 1 Introduction
- 2 Exponential family distributions
- 3 Generalized Linear Models
- 4 GLM Diagnostics
- 5 Robust GLM
- 6 Additional distributions

- **Model structure** → the patterns of interactions and associations.
- **Model parameters** → strength of associations.
- **Focus** → estimating the model parameters. The basic inference tools (e.g., point estimation, hypothesis testing, and confidence intervals) will be applied to these parameters.

When discussing models, we will keep in mind:

- Objective
- Model structure (e.g. variables, formula, equation)
- Model assumptions
- Parameter estimates and interpretation
- Model fit (e.g. tests and statistics)
- Model selection

## Linear regression models

- Objective: model the expected value of a continuous variable  $Y$ , as a linear function of the continuous predictor  $X$ ,  $E(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i$ .
- Model structure:  $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + e_i$ .
- Model assumptions:  $Y$  is normally distributed, errors are normally distributed,  $e_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ , and independent, and  $X$  is fixed, and constant variance  $\sigma^2$ .
- Parameter estimates and interpretation:  $\hat{\beta}_0$  is estimate of  $\beta_0$  or the intercept, and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  is estimate of the slope, etc. Think about the interpretation of the intercept and the slope.
- Model fit:  $R^2$ , residual analysis, F-statistic.
- Model selection: From a plethora of possible predictors, which variables to include?

## Generalized linear models (GLM)

- GLM usually refers to conventional linear regression models for a **continuous** response variable given continuous and/or categorical predictors.
- The form is  $y_i \sim N(x_i^T \beta, \sigma^2)$ , where  $x_i$  contains known covariates and  $\beta$  contains the coefficients to be estimated. These models are usually fit by least squares and weighted least squares.
- $y_i$  is assumed to follow an **exponential family distribution** with mean  $\mu_i$ , which is assumed to be some (often nonlinear) function of  $x_i^T \beta$ .

## GLM assumptions

- The data  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n$  are independently distributed, i.e., cases are independent.
- $Y_i$  does NOT need to be normally distributed, but it typically assumes a distribution from an exponential family (e.g. binomial, Poisson)
- GLM does NOT assume a linear relationship between  $Y$  and  $X$ , but it does assume linear relationship between the transformed response in terms of the link function and the explanatory variables.
- $X$  can be even the power terms or some other nonlinear transformations of the original independent variables.
- Overdispersion (when the observed variance is larger than what the model assumes) maybe present.
- Errors need to be independent but NOT normally distributed.
- It uses MLE rather than OLS.

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## Exponential family distributions

$$f(y|\theta, \phi) = \exp \left[ \frac{y\theta - b(\theta)}{a(\phi)} + c(y, \phi) \right]$$

- $\theta$  is canonical parameter for location
- $\phi$  is dispersion parameter for scale
- $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  are functions.

# Exponential family distributions

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## Example: Normal

$$f(y|\theta, \phi) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left[ -\frac{(y - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right]$$

$$\theta = \mu \quad \phi = \sigma^2 \quad a(\phi) = \phi \quad b(\theta) = \theta^2/2 \quad c(y, \phi) = -(y^2/\phi + \log(2\pi\phi))/2$$

$$f(y|\theta, \phi) = \exp \left[ \frac{y\theta - b(\theta)}{a(\phi)} + c(y, \phi) \right]$$

- $\theta$  is canonical parameter for location
- $\phi$  is dispersion parameter for scale
- $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  are functions.

## Example: Poisson

$$f(y|\theta, \phi) = e^{-\mu} \mu^y / y!$$

What are  $\theta$ ,  $\phi$ ,  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ ?

$$f(y|\theta, \phi) = \exp \left[ \frac{y\theta - b(\theta)}{a(\phi)} + c(y, \phi) \right]$$

- $\theta$  is canonical parameter for location
- $\phi$  is dispersion parameter for scale
- $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  are functions.

## Example: Binomial

$$f(y|\theta, \phi) = \binom{m}{y} p^y (1-p)^{m-y}$$

What are  $\theta$ ,  $\phi$ ,  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ ?

# Exponential family distributions

$$f(y|\theta, \phi) = \exp \left[ \frac{y\theta - b(\theta)}{a(\phi)} + c(y, \phi) \right]$$

- $\theta$  is canonical parameter for location
- $\phi$  is dispersion parameter for scale
- $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  are functions.

**Examples:** Normal, Poisson, Binomial,

gamma, inverse Gaussian

## Moments

1 Mean:  $b'(\theta)$

2 Variance:  $b''(\theta)a(\phi)$

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A GLM consists of three components:

- 1 Distribution (from the exponential family of distributions)
- 2 Linear predictors
- 3 Link function

- The predictors are assumed to affect the response through a linear relationship.
- The link function  $g$  “links” the mean to the linear predictors.

$$g(\mu) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_q x_q$$



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- $g$  must be monotone, continuous and differentiable.
- $g$  must map the space of  $\mu$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- Canonical link has  $g(\mu) = \theta$ .

# Look back at the exponential family distributions

Table 2.1 Characteristics of some common univariate distributions in the exponential family†

	<i>Normal</i>	<i>Poisson</i>	<i>Binomial</i>	<i>Gamma</i>	<i>Inverse Gaussian</i>
<i>Notation</i>	$N(\mu, \sigma^2)$	$P(\mu)$	$B(m, \pi)/m$	$G(\mu, \nu)$	$IG(\mu, \sigma^2)$
<i>Range of y</i>	$(-\infty, \infty)$	$0(1)\infty$	$\frac{0(1)m}{m}$	$(0, \infty)$	$(0, \infty)$
<i>Dispersion parameter: <math>\phi</math></i>	$\phi = \sigma^2$	1	$1/m$	$\phi = \nu^{-1}$	$\phi = \sigma^2$
<i>Cumulant function: <math>b(\theta)</math></i>	$\theta^2/2$	$\exp(\theta)$	$\log(1 + e^\theta)$	$-\log(-\theta)$	$-(-2\theta)^{1/2}$
<i>c(y; <math>\phi</math>)</i>	$-\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{y^2}{\phi} + \log(2\pi\phi) \right)$	$-\log y!$	$\log \binom{m}{my}$	$\nu \log(\nu y) - \log y$ $-\log \Gamma(\nu)$	$-\frac{1}{2} \left\{ \log(2\pi\phi y^3) + \frac{1}{\phi y} \right\}$
<i><math>\mu(\theta) = E(Y; \theta)</math></i>	$\theta$	$\exp(\theta)$	$e^\theta / (1 + e^\theta)$	$-1/\theta$	$(-2\theta)^{-1/2}$
<i>Canonical link: <math>\theta(\mu)</math></i>	identity	log	logit	reciprocal	$1/\mu^2$
<i>Variance function: <math>V(\mu)</math></i>	1	$\mu$	$\mu(1 - \mu)$	$\mu^2$	$\mu^3$

$$f(y|\theta, \phi) = \exp \left[ \frac{y\theta - b(\theta)}{a(\phi)} + c(y, \phi) \right]$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \ell(\beta; \mathbf{y}) = \log L(\beta; \mathbf{y}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{y_i \theta_i - b(\theta_i)}{a(\phi)} + c(y_i, \phi) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{a(\phi)} \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i \theta_i - b(\theta_i) + c(y_i, \phi) a(\phi)] \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \ell(\beta; \mathbf{y})}{\partial \beta_j} &= \frac{1}{a(\phi)} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_j} [y_i \theta_i - b(\theta_i)] \\ &= \frac{1}{a(\phi)} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ y_i \frac{\partial \theta_i}{\partial \beta_j} - \frac{\partial b(\theta_i)}{\partial \beta_j} \right] \end{aligned}$$

Now

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{b}(\theta)}{\partial \beta_j} = \mathbf{b}'(\theta) \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \beta_j} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \beta_j} = \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \mu} \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \beta_j} = \frac{1}{\mathbf{b}''(\theta)} \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \beta_j}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \ell(\boldsymbol{\beta}; \mathbf{y})}{\partial \beta_j} &= \frac{1}{a(\phi)} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ y_i \frac{1}{\mathbf{b}''(\theta_i)} \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta_j} - \frac{\mathbf{b}'(\theta_i)}{\mathbf{b}''(\theta_i)} \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta_j} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{a(\phi)} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{y_i - \mathbf{b}'(\theta_i)}{\mathbf{b}''(\theta_i)} \right] \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta_j} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{y_i - \mu_i}{V(\mu_i)} \right] \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta_j} \end{aligned}$$

## Maximum likelihood estimates:

$$\frac{\partial \ell(\boldsymbol{\beta}; \mathbf{y})}{\partial \beta_j} = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{y_i - b'(\theta_i)}{V(\mu_i)} \right] \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta_j} = 0 \quad \text{for all } j$$

## Iterative Reweighted Least Squares algorithm (IRWLS)

- 1 Start with an initial guess of  $\hat{\mu}^{(0)}$  from which  $\hat{\eta}^{(0)}$  can be calculated.
- 2 At each iteration  $t$ , compute the *adjusted dependent variable*

$$\mathbf{z}^{(t)} = \hat{\eta}^{(t)} + (\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mu}^{(t)}) \frac{d\eta}{d\mu} \Big|_{\hat{\mu}^{(t)}}$$

along with weights

$$\mathbf{W}^{(t)} = \text{diag} \left\{ [V(\hat{\mu}_i^{(t)})]^{-1} \left( \frac{d\mu_i}{d\eta_i} \Big|_{\hat{\mu}_i^{(t)}} \right)^2 \right\}.$$

- 3 Calculate  $\beta^{(t+1)}$  using  $\beta^{(t+1)} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{z}$ , and hence  $\mu^{(t+1)}$ .
- 4 Repeat steps 2 and 3 till convergence.



## Newton-Raphson method

- To find successively better approximations to the roots of  $f(x) = 0$  based on Taylor's expansion.

### Newton-Raphson method:

$$\beta^{(t+1)} = \beta^{(t)} + [-l''(\beta^{(t)})]^{-1} \cdot l'(\beta^{(t)})$$

## Fisher-scoring algorithm

- Replace the second derivative with its expectation.

### Fisher-scoring algorithm:

$$\beta^{(t+1)} = \beta^{(t)} + [-E(l''(\beta^{(t)}))]^{-1} \cdot l'(\beta^{(t)})$$

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$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial l(\beta; \mathbf{y})}{\partial \beta_j} &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{y_i - \mu_i}{V(\mu_i)} \right] \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta_j} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{y_i - \mu_i}{V(\mu_i)} \right] \frac{d\mu_i}{d\eta_i} x_j\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$l'(\beta) = X^T A(\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}),$$

where

$$A = \text{diag} \left\{ [V(\mu_i)]^{-1} \frac{d\mu_i}{d\eta_i} \right\}.$$

$$\beta^{(t+1)} = \beta^{(t)} + [-E(l''(\beta^{(t)}))]^{-1} \cdot l'(\beta^{(t)})$$

$$-E\left(\frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta; \mathbf{y})}{\partial \beta_j \partial \beta_k}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{V(\mu_i)} \left(\frac{d\mu_i}{d\eta_i}\right)^2 x_{ij}x_{ik}$$

Therefore,

$$-E(l''(\beta)) = X^T W X,$$

where

$$W = \text{diag} \left\{ [V(\mu_i)]^{-1} \left(\frac{d\mu_i}{d\eta_i}\right)^2 \right\}.$$

$$\beta^{(t+1)} = \beta^{(t)} + [-E(l''(\beta^{(t)}))]^{-1} \cdot l'(\beta^{(t)})$$

⇓

$$\beta^{(t+1)} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{z}$$

$$\mathbf{z} = \boldsymbol{\eta} + (\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \frac{d\boldsymbol{\eta}}{d\boldsymbol{\mu}}$$

# Fisher-scoring algorithm

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- 4 Repeat steps 2 and 3 till convergence.

- When  $V(\mu)$  is constant, OLS = MLE
- We can guess  $\mu$ , and use iterated WLS to solve.
- Distribution not used, only  $g(\mu)$  and  $V(\mu)$ .
- So same equations work for quasi-likelihood

```
fit <- glm(y ~ x1 + x2, family, data)
```

### family options

```
binomial(link = "logit")  
gaussian(link = "identity")  
Gamma(link = "inverse")  
inverse.gaussian(link = "1/mu^2")  
poisson(link = "log")  
quasi(link = "identity", variance = "constant")  
quasibinomial(link = "logit")  
quasipoisson(link = "log")
```



```
fit <- glm(y ~ x1 + x2, family, data)
```

### link options

```
identity  
log  
inverse  
logit  
probit  
cauchit  
cloglog  
sqrt  
1/mu2  
power
```

What is the difference between these?

```
lm(y ~ x)
```

and

```
glm(y ~ x)
```

What is the difference between these?

```
lm(log(y) ~ x)
```

and

```
glm(y ~ x, family=gaussian(link='log'))
```

**GLM**

**Deviance:**  $D = -2 \log L$

---

Gaussian

$$\sum (y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)^2$$

Poisson

$$2 \sum \left[ y_i \log \left( \frac{y_i}{\hat{\mu}_i} \right) - (y_i - \hat{\mu}_i) \right]$$

Binomial

$$2 \sum \left[ y_i \log \left( \frac{y_i}{\hat{\mu}_i} \right) + (m - y_i) \log \left( \frac{m - y_i}{m - \hat{\mu}_i} \right) \right]$$

Gamma

$$2 \sum \left[ -\log \left( \frac{y_i}{\hat{\mu}_i} \right) + \frac{y_i - \hat{\mu}_i}{\hat{\mu}_i} \right]$$

Inverse Gaussian

$$\sum \frac{(y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)^2}{\hat{\mu}_i^2 y_i}$$

## Goodness-of-fit test

- Does data fit assumed distribution?
- Deviance has  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $df = n - \#$  estimated parameters
- Only works for large  $n$  and for distributions with no dispersion parameter.
- Does not work for binary GLM or any quasi family

## Comparing nested models

Large model  $\Omega$ ; small model  $\omega$

- Change in Deviance ( $D_\omega - D_\Omega$ ) equivalent to log-ratio test and has  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $df = df_\omega - df_\Omega =$  difference in number of parameters
- For quasi-likelihood, use an  $F$  approximation instead (exact for Gaussian).

$$F = \frac{D_\omega - D_\Omega}{\hat{\phi}(df_\omega - df_\Omega)} \quad \text{where} \quad \hat{\phi} = \frac{1}{n-p} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)^2}{V(\mu_i)}$$

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**Response residuals:** Observation - estimate

$$e_i = y_i - \hat{\mu}_i$$



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$$e_i = y_i - \hat{\mu}_i$$

**Pearson residuals:** Standardized

$$r_i = \frac{y_i - \hat{\mu}_i}{\sqrt{V(\hat{\mu}_i)}}$$

**Response residuals:** Observation - estimate

$$e_i = y_i - \hat{\mu}_i$$

**Pearson residuals:** Standardized

$$r_i = \frac{y_i - \hat{\mu}_i}{\sqrt{V(\hat{\mu}_i)}}$$

**Deviance residuals:** Signed root contribution to  $-2 \log L$ .

$$-2 \log L = \sum \delta_i$$

$$d_i = \text{sign}(y_i - \hat{\mu}_i) \sqrt{\delta_i}$$

## Response residuals

```
residuals(fit, type='response')
```

## Pearson residuals

```
residuals(fit, type='pearson')
```

## Deviance residuals

```
residuals(fit, type='deviance')  
residuals(fit)
```

IRWLS algorithm used for estimation means that we can easily define the hat matrix:

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{W}^{1/2} \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{W}^{1/2}$$

where  $\mathbf{W}$  is diagonal with values  $\frac{1}{v(\mu_i)} \left( \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \eta_i} \right)^2$ .

- Leverage values are diagonals of  $\mathbf{H}$ .
- influence(fit)  $\hat{h}$

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- Leverage values are diagonals of  $\mathbf{H}$ .
- `influence(fit)$hat`

### Cooks Distance

$$D_i = \frac{(\hat{\beta}_{(i)} - \hat{\beta})' (\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X}) (\hat{\beta}_{(i)} - \hat{\beta})}{p \hat{\phi}}$$

- `cooks.distance(fit)`

## Case checking

- Outliers (large residuals)
- High leverage points (large effect on estimates)

## Model checking

- Heteroskedasticity
- Linearity
- Distribution

## Case checking

- Why do we have outliers? Perhaps omit them?
- Reduce leverage through transforming predictors

## Model checking

- Heteroskedasticity: perhaps use weights?
- Linearity:
  - transform predictors
  - add quadratic or other transformed variable
  - use nonparametric regressor (later)
- Distribution:
  - allow for overdispersion using quaslikelihood
  - zero-inflated
  - often fixing hetero and linearity will fix distribution

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Maximum likelihood estimates:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{y_i - b'(\theta_i)}{V(\mu_i)} \right] \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta_j} = 0 \quad \text{for all } j$$

## Maximum likelihood estimates:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{y_i - b'(\theta_i)}{V(\mu_i)} \right] \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta_j} = 0 \quad \text{for all } j$$

## Robust Maximum likelihood estimates:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i \left[ \frac{y_i - b'(\theta_i)}{V(\mu_i)} \right] \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta_j} = 0 \quad \text{for all } j$$

where  $\gamma_i$  downweights extreme observations.

- $\gamma$  is estimated iteratively.
- Implemented in R using `robustbase::glmrob` for binomial and Poisson.

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Defined on  $\mathbb{R}^+$

## Gamma distribution

$$f(y) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\nu)} \lambda^\nu y^{\nu-1} e^{-\lambda y}$$

- $\nu$  describes shape;  $\lambda$  describes scale
- $\chi^2$  is special case ( $\lambda = 0.5$ ,  $\text{df} = 2\nu$ )

Defined on  $\mathbb{R}^+$

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## Reparameterize with $\lambda = \nu/\mu$ :

$$f(y) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\nu)} \left(\frac{\nu}{\mu}\right)^\nu y^{\nu-1} e^{-\nu y/\mu}$$

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- $\nu$  describes shape
- $\mu$  is mean;  $V(Y) = \mu^2/\nu$

```
glm(y ~ x1+x2, family=Gamma(link='log'))
```

## When to use Gamma GLM?

- The response has Gamma distribution.
- Standard deviation increases linearly with the response.

Defined on  $\mathbb{R}^+$

## Inverse Gaussian distribution

$$f(y) = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{2\pi y^3}} \exp \left[ -\lambda(y - \mu)^2 / 2\mu^2 y \right]$$

- $\mu = \text{mean}; V = \mu^3 / \lambda$
- $\mu = 1$  is special case (Wald distribution)



Defined on  $\mathbb{R}^+$

## Inverse Gaussian distribution

$$f(y) = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{2\pi y^3}} \exp \left[ -\lambda(y - \mu)^2 / 2\mu^2 y \right]$$

- $\mu = \text{mean}; V = \mu^3 / \lambda$
- $\mu = 1$  is special case (Wald distribution)
  
- Canonical link is  $1/\mu^2$
- Variance increases with  $\mu$  more rapidly than Gamma.
- As  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$ , distribution converges to Gaussian.

## Tweedie distribution

Exponential family distribution where  $V(Y) = a\mu^p$ ,  $a > 0$ ,  $p > 0$ .

- normal distribution,  $p = 0$
- Poisson distribution,  $p = 1$
- compound Poisson–gamma distribution,  $1 < p < 2$
- gamma distribution,  $p = 2$
- positive stable distributions,  $2 < p < 3$
- inverse Gaussian distribution,  $p = 3$
- positive stable distributions,  $p > 3$
- extreme stable distributions,  $p = \infty$

For  $0 < p < 1$  no Tweedie model exists.

## Compound Poisson-gamma distribution

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^N X_i, \quad N \sim \text{Poisson}, \quad X_i \sim \text{Gamma}$$

- Continuous on  $[0, \infty]$  with a spike at 0.  
(e.g., rainfall, insurance payouts.)
- Tweedie distribution with  $1 < p < 2$ .
- Poisson mean:  $\mu^{2-p}/[(2-p)\phi]$ .
- Gamma parameters:  $\nu = (2-p)/(p-1)$ ,  $\lambda = 1/[\phi(p-1)\mu^{p-1}]$

## Compound Poisson-gamma distribution

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^N X_i, \quad N \sim \text{Poisson}, \quad X_i \sim \text{Gamma}$$

- Continuous on  $[0, \infty]$  with a spike at 0.  
(e.g., rainfall, insurance payouts.)
- Tweedie distribution with  $1 < p < 2$ .
- Poisson mean:  $\mu^{2-p}/[(2-p)\phi]$ .
- Gamma parameters:  $\nu = (2-p)/(p-1)$ ,  $\lambda = 1/[\phi(p-1)\mu^{p-1}]$

Show mean =  $\mu$ .

Show var =  $\phi\mu^p$

$$E(N) = V(N) = \frac{\mu^{2-p}}{(2-p)\phi}$$

$$E(X) = \frac{(2-p)}{(p-1)} \left( \phi(p-1)\mu^{p-1} \right) = \phi(2-p)\mu^{p-1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} V(X) &= \frac{(2-p)}{(p-1)} \left( \phi^2(p-1)^2\mu^{2(p-1)} \right) \\ &= \phi^2(2-p)(p-1)\mu^{2(p-1)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}E(Y) &= E_N[Y \mid N] \\&= E_N[NE(X)] \\&= E(N)E(X) \\&= \frac{\mu^{2-p}}{(2-p)\phi} \left[ \phi(2-p)\mu^{p-1} \right] \\&= \mu\end{aligned}$$

## Compound Poisson-gamma distribution

$$\begin{aligned}V(Y) &= V_N[E_X(Y | N)] + E_N[V_X(Y | N)] \\&= V_N[NE(X)] + E_N[NV(X)] \\&= V(N)[E(X)]^2 + E(N)V(X) \\&= E(N) \left( [E(X)]^2 + V(X) \right) \\&= \frac{\mu^{2-p}}{(2-p)\phi} \left( \phi^2(2-p)^2\mu^{2(p-1)} \right. \\&\quad \left. + \phi^2(2-p)(p-1)\mu^{2(p-1)} \right) \\&= \frac{\mu^{2-p+2p-2}\phi^2(2-p)}{(2-p)\phi} \left( (2-p) + (p-1) \right) \\&= \phi\mu^p\end{aligned}$$

```
mgcv::gam(y ~ x1 + x2,  
          family=tw(link="log"))
```

- Estimates  $p$  assuming it is in  $(1, 2)$ .



- No R function for general Tweedie GLM.
- When using R, user needs to choose
  - $p = 0$  (Gaussian)  
lm or glm
  - $p = 1$  (Poisson)  
glm(family=poisson)
  - $1 < p < 2$  (Compound Poisson gamma)  
mgcv::gam(family=tw)
  - $p = 2$  (Gamma)  
glm(family=Gamma)
  - $p = 3$  (Inverse Gaussian)  
glm(family=inverse.gaussian)