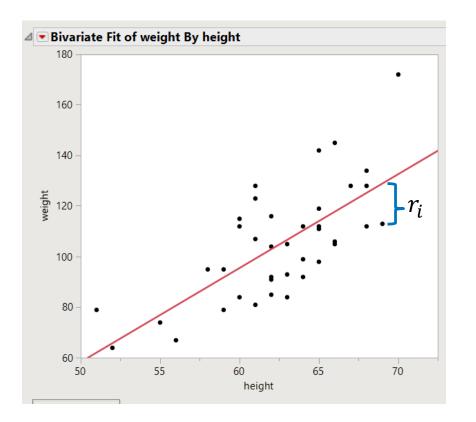
# Selecting the Best Distribution for Your Response

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# Simple Linear Regression



What is simple linear regression?

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$$

Usually we assume  $\epsilon_i \sim N(0,\sigma^2)$ 

We don't have to assume normality, but it makes inference easier.



# Simple Linear Regression

Assuming that the errors (and response) are normal makes life easier. Why? Among other reasons, things like estimation and inference tend to have an explicit form.

For example:

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$
$$cov(\hat{\beta}) = (X^T X)^{-1} \sigma^2$$

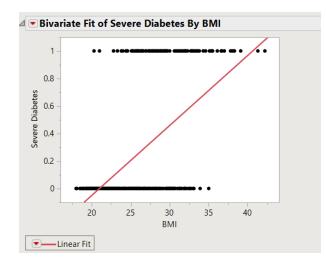
We get a lot of mileage out of assuming normality, but it isn't always valid.



## Simple Linear Model Normality

## What happens if you assume normality when you shouldn't? Two main concerns:

- 1. Predictions outside of meaningful range (maybe not a big deal)
- 2. Inference is not reliable (probably a bigger deal)





# What if normality is not appropriate?

Let's say we want to model steals for a basketball player.



What might impact performance?

Experience? Opponent? Home/Away? How much rest?



. . .

# Steals in Basketball

Frequencies					
Level	Count	Prob			
0	656	0.49065			
1	467	0.34929			
2	159	0.11892			
3	41	0.03067			
4	13	0.00972			
5	1	0.00075			
Total	1337	1.00000			
N Missing 0					
6 Levels					

The response will only take integer values.

And even for the best players, the response will only take a couple values.

```
Y = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} for Steve Nash
```

Normality isn't appropriate at all here, but we still need to build a model.

What should we do?



# Overview

- 1. Overview of Generalized Linear Models (GLMs)
- 2. How to evaluate your models
  - 1. Know your data and your distribution
  - 2. R-square
  - 3. Information criteria

#### 3. Examples



# Generalized Linear Models

A quick overview



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## Generalized Linear Models But first, back to the linear model

Our beloved linear model

$$X_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \dots + \beta_p x_{pi} + \epsilon_i$$
  
=  $x_i^T \beta + \epsilon_i$  where  $x_i$  is a  $p + 1$  vector

We assume that our errors are independent and normally distributed.  $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ 

So given our predictor vector  $x_i$ , we know the distribution of the response  $y_i | x_i \sim N(x_i^T \beta, \sigma^2)$ 

$$E(y_i|x_i) = x_i^T \beta$$
  $Var(y_i|x_i) = \sigma^2$ 



# **Generalized Linear Model**

Same idea as linear regression but instead of normality, we assume that  $y_i | x_i$  has some other distribution.

Many cases where we need to do this

- 1. Count data (ex: number of defects on a product)
- 2. Skewed data (ex: salaries)
- 3. Proportions
- 4. Labels (ex: good/neutral/bad or yellow/blue/green)



### Generalized Linear Model Formal Statement

We assume a probability function for our response

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

This is called an *exponential family* distribution.

Do we need to spend any more time on this level of detail? Nope.

Instead, let's focus on **using** these models.



# **Generalized Linear Models**

Three key ingredients to a GLM:

- 1. A distribution for the response given the predictors (the random piece)
- 2. A linear predictor  $x_i^T \beta$  (the systematic piece)
- 3. A link function (the piece that connects 1 and 2)



When we talk about the distribution in our GLM, we're talking about the distribution of the **response given the predictors**.

This is a critical piece!

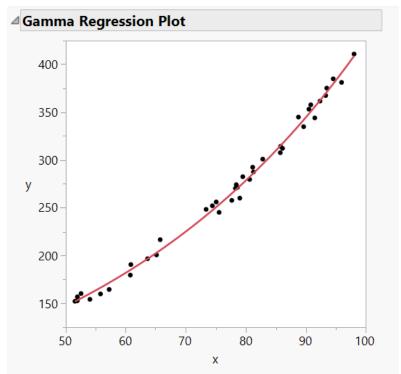
In general it **is not** the distribution of the residuals. Of course there are exceptions (Normal, t-distribution, ...)



The Normal may trick us into thinking of the distribution of the residuals.

How can we avoid this mistake?

- Helpful reminder:
- The Gamma distribution is strictly positive.
- The residuals for this Gamma regression are positive and negative.



Another common gotcha.

The distribution **is not** the distribution of the response. It's the distribution of the response given the predictors.

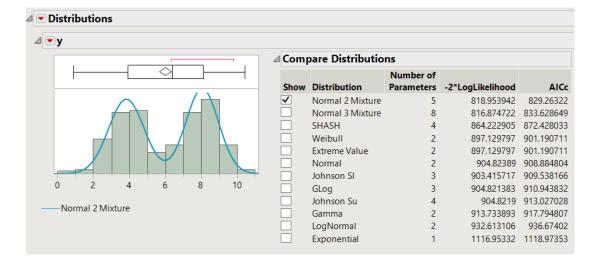
Why is this distinction important? Let's look at an example.



We have a single effect to model the response. Based on this histogram, should we do a mixture model regression?

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	x	у
1	2	7.0162854981
2	1	4.0386487397
3	1	4.4338481271
4	2	8.2583367405
5	2	7.9299166628
6	2	8.702887227
7	1	4.0108668732
8	1	4.9949182007
9	1	3.1320939511
10	1	2.0186977526
11	1	4.3297091457
12	1	4.2820937666
13	2	8.0227569107
14	1	2.2373278872
15	1	4.4325240733
16	2	7.2590334776
17	1	3.6260192102
18	2	8.5409317333

1 -



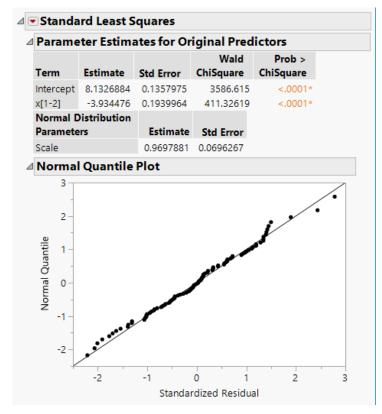


Absolutely not!

The truth is that this is just a simulated One-way ANOVA model

 $y_i = 4 + 4 * I(x_i = 2) + z_i$  $z_i \sim N(0,1)$  $x_i = \{1,2\}$ 

The histogram of the response ignores our predictor(s), so it provides limited information.



### Generalized Linear Models The Linear Predictor

A linear function that ties our predictors to the mean of the distribution.

$$x_i^T \beta = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p x_j \beta_j$$

Exactly what it sounds like: a linear combination of predictors we specify.

 $x_i^T \beta$  can take any value, we may need to map it into a meaningful range...



## Generalized Linear Models The Link Function

Converts linear predictor into the correct range for the distribution's mean.

$$x_i^T \beta = g(\mu)$$
  $g^{-1}(x_i^T \beta) = \mu$ 

Some important link functions

1. Identity: 
$$g^{-1}(x_i^T\beta) = x_i^T\beta$$
 maps into  $(-\infty, \infty)$   
2. Log:  $g^{-1}(x_i^T\beta) = \exp(x_i^T\beta)$  maps into  $(0, \infty)$   
3. Logit:  $g^{-1}(x_i^T\beta) = \frac{1}{1+\exp(-x_i^T\beta)}$  maps into  $(0,1)$ 

There are plenty of others, but these are the big ones. Note: Genreg picks the most appropriate link for you.

### Generalize Linear Models Inverse Link Functions



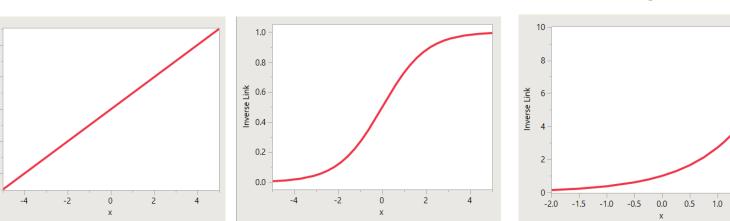
4

2

0

-2

Inverse Link



Logit

For when the response can take any value

The response should be in [0,1] (probably probabilities) The response needs to be positive

1.5

2.0

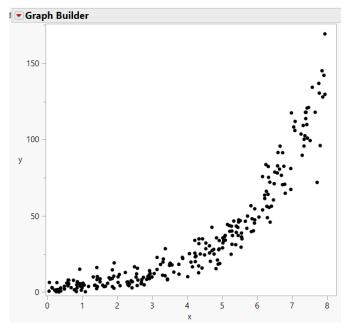
Log



# Generalized Linear Model An Example

Put the three pieces together and what do we have?

Let's look at a simple example.



Y increases as a function of X

Y seems to become more variable with X (less obvious)

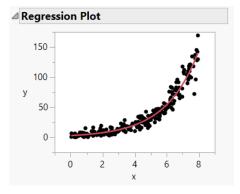
The Gamma is a natural choice.

Gamma is defined for  $y \in (0, \infty)$ , so the log link makes sense.



## Generalized Linear Model An Example

#### Genreg output



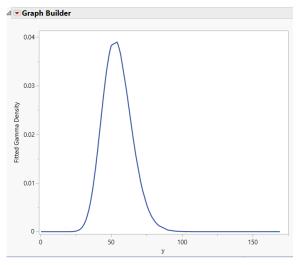
Parame	ter Estima	tes for Or	iginal Predi	ictors		
Term	Estimate	Std Error	Prob > ChiSquare			This is th
Intercept x	1.064338 0.4883964	0.0545002 0.0086247	<.0001* <.0001*		}	linear
Gamma E Paramete	Distribution ers	Estimate	Std Error		-	predicto
Dispersion	n	1.9378969	0.1749788			

Recall our model looks like  $y|x \sim \text{Gamma}(\mu, \sigma) \quad \mu = \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x)$ And  $\hat{\beta}_0 = 1.064 \quad \hat{\sigma} = 1.938$  $\hat{\beta}_1 = .488$ 



# Generalized Linear Model An Example

So what does that tell us about our response at say, x=6?  $exp(1.064 + .488 * 6) \approx 54.2$ 



-

$$y|x_{=6} \sim \text{Gamma}(54.2, 1.938)$$

$$E(y|x = 6) = 54.2$$
  
 $Var(y|x = 6) = 54.2 * 1.938$ 





# Choosing a Distribution



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# **Evaluating Models**

#### We probably know some things about our response.

- 1. Is it always positive?
- 2. Is it always integer valued?
- 3. Is the variance constant or is it proportional to the mean?
- 4. Is the response a proportion?
- 5. Is it even numeric?

Using what we know about the response, we can usually narrow it down to a couple of distributions.



### Evaluating Models Positive Responses

If your response is always positive, that narrows it down a little. Ex: Most physical measurements, time, ...

Consider strictly positive distributions with a log link. Some natural choices:

- 1. Gamma and Exponential
- 2. Lognormal
- 3. Weibull

And if we know we have count data...



### Evaluating Models Count Data

Is it a binomial?

Are we counting independent events for a given number of trials? Ex: Number of heads out of 10 coin flips?

...Or is it Beta-Binomial?

Are we counting correlated events for a given number of trials?

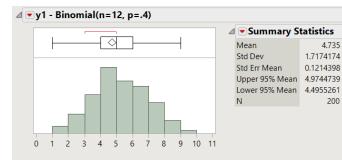
The correlation causes the response to be more variable.

Ex: Number of shots made out of 10 attempts in a basketball game.



### Evaluating Models Binomial vs Beta-Binomial

#### 200 simulated observations from each distribution



✓ ▼y2 - Beta Binomial(n=12, p=.4, delta=.2)

-1 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13

 ✓ Summary Statistics

 Mean
 4.565

 Std Dev
 2.9477485

 Std Err Mean
 0.2084373

 Upper 95% Mean
 4.9760293

 Lower 95% Mean
 4.1539707

 N
 200

**Binomial** 

E(y) = npVar(y) = np(1-p)

**Beta-Binomial** E(y) = np(1-p) $\forall ar(y) = np(1-p)[1+(n-1)\delta]$ 



### Building Models Count Data

What if we're not counting binary outcomes?

Ex: Number of defects on a product

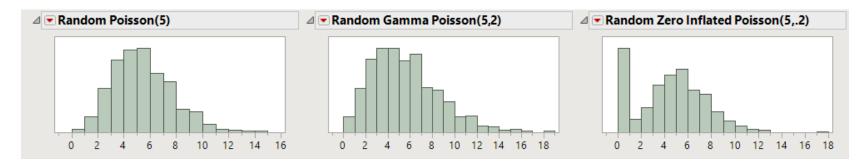
Number of cars that pass through an intersection in a day

Then we probably need to use the Poisson distribution. The Poisson is unique in that  $E(y) = var(y) = \lambda$ 

And if we need to accommodate overdispersion (extra variance)? Choose the Negative-Binomial where  $E(y) = \lambda$   $var(y) = \sigma\lambda$ 



### Building Models Three flavors of the Poisson



Poisson( $\lambda$ ) E(y) =  $\lambda$ Var(y) =  $\lambda$  Need extra variation? Gamma Poisson( $\lambda, \sigma$ ) E(y) =  $\lambda$ Var(y) =  $\lambda\sigma$ Also known as the Negative Binomial. Need extra zeros? ZI-Poisson $(\lambda, \pi)$   $E(y) = (1 - \pi)\lambda$  $Var(y) = \lambda(1 - \pi)(1 + \lambda\pi)$ 



### Evaluating Models Coefficient of Determination

From working with least-squares models, we all know and love  $R^2$ 

$$R^{2} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i} (y_{i} - \hat{y}_{i})^{2}}{\sum_{i} (y_{i} - \overline{y})^{2}} = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}$$

For GLMs,  $R^2$  isn't useful since we're not working with square loss.

What is  $R^2$  measuring? How well a model fits compared to the mean. We can extend that idea to GLMs.



### Evaluating Models Generalized R-square

For generalized linear models,

$$R_g^2 = 1 - \left(\frac{L_0}{L_M}\right)^{2/n}$$

Where  $L_0 = likelihood$  for an intercept only model

 $L_M$  = likelihood for our fitted model.

If our model isn't very good,  $L_M \approx L_0$  and  $R_g^2$  will be close to zero. If our model is great,  $L_M \gg L_0$  and  $R_g^2$  will be close to 1.



### Evaluating Models Be Careful!

Let's say we narrow it down to the gamma or lognormal for our model. Gamma:  $R_g^2 = .85$ . Lognormal:  $R_g^2 = .95$ .

Is the lognormal model better? Maybe.

...but maybe the intercept-only lognormal model just fits very poorly.

We can use the R-square to compare models **within** a distribution. To compare **between** distributions, use an information criteria.



### Evaluating Models Information Criteria

The AIC and BIC are information criteria that we use to compare models.

$$AIC = 2p - 2\log(L)$$
$$AICc = 2p - 2\log(L) + \frac{2p(p+1)}{n-p-1}$$
$$BIC = \log(n) * p - 2\log(L)$$

small sample correction

where p is the number of parms fit, L is the likelihood, and n is sample size.

These measures balance model fit with model complexity. Smaller values are better.



### Evaluating Models Information Criteria

The AIC and BIC estimate the Kullback-Leibler divergence, which is the distance from the fitted model to the truth.

So we can use them to compare models **within** the same distribution and **across** different distributions.

Model Comparison							
Response Distribution	Estimation Method	Validation Method	Nonzero Parameters		R-Square		
Gamma	Forward Selection	AICc	10	4753.0342	0.4991035		
Gamma	Maximum Likelihood	None	12	4756.7408	0.4996813		
Normal	Forward Selection	AICc	8	4793.4213	0.5121484		
Normal	Standard Least Squares	None	12	4796.713	0.5177484		



### Evaluating Models AICc and BIC

#### The AICc and BIC are great all-purpose tools for

- ...comparing 2 or more models
- ...that don't have to be nested
- ...that don't even have to be from the same response distribution

We do need a likelihood and degree of freedom, which can be a limitation. Ex: The degrees of freedom for a tree isn't well defined.

Rule of thumb: AIC tends to overfit and BIC tends to underfit.



### Choosing the Response Distribution Discrete Responses

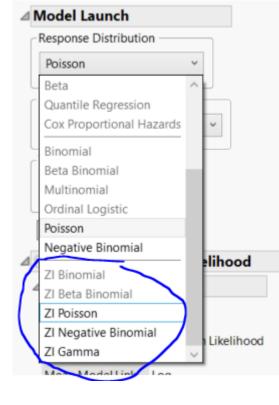
Using our intuition, we can narrow it down to a few distributions and then use the AICc or BIC to guide us.

If we have count data...usually we think of the Poisson.

- Events out of trials? -> binomial or beta-binomial
- Do we need to account for overdispersion? -> negative binomial
- Do we have extra zeros? -> zero-inflated distribution
- Only observe a couple of distinct values? -> consider switching to logistic



# Choosing the Response Distribution Discrete Responses with extra zeros



The ZI stands for "Zero Inflated". ...which means there are more zeros than otherwise expected.

Suppose we ask folks leaving a park how many fish they caught while visiting. There are two ways to observe a zero.

- 1. A visitor doesn't fish
- 2. A visitor fishes, but doesn't catch anything.



## Choosing the Response Distribution Continuous Responses

And if we have a continuous response...

- Do we have negative values? -> normal
- Is it bound to (0,1)? -> beta
- Does variance increase with the mean? -> gamma, Weibull, lognormal
- Is it time-to-event/censored? -> probably Weibull or lognormal
- A pretty good catch-all? -> normal
- Do we suspect that we have outliers? -> Cauchy or t(5).



# Choosing the Response Distribution

What if our response isn't even numeric???

- Is it two-level? Use the binomial.
  Ex: Yes/No or A/B.
- 3+ levels and order matters? Use Ordinal logistic.
   Ex: Low/Medium/High or Small/Medium/Large.
- 3+ levels and order doesn't matter? Use the Multinomial.
   Ex: Pizza/Hamburger/Burrito or Red/Blue/Green/Orange.





Wrap-up



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# Wrap Up

- GLMs are an important piece of your modeling toolbox.
- Genreg makes them easy to fit and use.
- How should I choose the response distribution?
  - Narrow it down to a handful of meaningful options
  - Compare AICc or BIC values to pick the "best".
  - When all else fails, the Normal and Gamma are a good start.

# Thanks! Clay.Barker@sas.com

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