

# Poisson Regression

- Recall: in binomial GLM, observe data

$$(x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{im}, y_i), i = 1, 2, \dots, k$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (\underline{\mathbf{x}}_i, y_i) \Leftrightarrow (\underline{\mathbf{x}}, y_{\mathbf{x}})$$

where  $y_{\mathbf{x}}$  is bounded by  $n_{\mathbf{x}} = \text{number of total trials at } \mathbf{x}$ , i.e.,

$$0 \leq y_{\mathbf{x}} \leq n_{\mathbf{x}} \quad \text{and} \quad n_{\mathbf{x}} \text{ is a fixed and known number}$$

➤ **Q:** what if the upper limit to  $y_{\mathbf{x}}$  is infinite or effectively so?

➤ Some examples of such  $y_{\mathbf{x}}$ :

- number of incidents involving damage to ships over a give period of time
- radiation counts as measured in, say, particles per second by a Geiger counter
- number of species of tortoise found on 30 islands

➤ For such  $y_{\mathbf{x}}$ , can use Poisson GLM or negative binomial GLM

➤ If  $y_{\mathbf{x}}$  is sufficiently large

$$\Rightarrow \text{may fit a Normal linear model: } y_{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

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- If  $Y_{\mathbf{x}}$  is Poisson with mean  $\mu_{\mathbf{x}} (>0)$ , then

$$P(Y_{\mathbf{x}} = y_{\mathbf{x}}) = \frac{e^{-\mu_{\mathbf{x}}} \times \mu_{\mathbf{x}}^{y_{\mathbf{x}}}}{y_{\mathbf{x}}!}, \quad y_{\mathbf{x}} = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

➤  $E(Y_{\mathbf{x}}) = \mu_{\mathbf{x}}$  and  $Var(Y_{\mathbf{x}}) = \mu_{\mathbf{x}}$

➤  $Y_i \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu_i), i=1, \dots, t$  and independent,

then  $Y_1 + \dots + Y_t \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu_1 + \dots + \mu_t)$

$\Rightarrow$  useful if only aggregated data is

observed, say  $y_{\mathbf{x}}$  is aggregated over  $x_m$

➤ Some rationales for using Poisson for count response

- When  $y_{\mathbf{x}} \sim B(n_{\mathbf{x}}, p_{\mathbf{x}})$  and  $n_{\mathbf{x}}$  is large while  $p_{\mathbf{x}}$  is small

$$\binom{n_{\mathbf{x}}}{y_{\mathbf{x}}} p_{\mathbf{x}}^{y_{\mathbf{x}}} (1 - p_{\mathbf{x}})^{n_{\mathbf{x}} - y_{\mathbf{x}}} \approx \frac{e^{-n_{\mathbf{x}} p_{\mathbf{x}}} (n_{\mathbf{x}} p_{\mathbf{x}})^{y_{\mathbf{x}}}}{y_{\mathbf{x}}!} \Rightarrow \mu_{\mathbf{x}} = n_{\mathbf{x}} p_{\mathbf{x}}$$

▫ example: incidence of rare cancer in a large sample

▫ For small  $p_{\mathbf{x}}$ 's,

$$\eta_{\mathbf{x}} = \text{logit}(p_{\mathbf{x}}) = \log\left(\frac{p_{\mathbf{x}}}{1 - p_{\mathbf{x}}}\right) \approx \log(p_{\mathbf{x}}) = \log(\mu_{\mathbf{x}}) - \log(n_{\mathbf{x}})$$



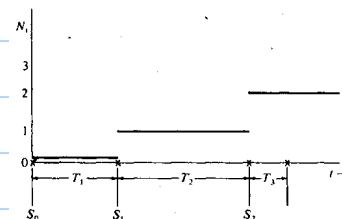
⇒ in this case, the use of the Poisson GLM with a log link is comparable to the binomial GLM with a logit link, especially when  $n_x$ 's are similar.

■ Suppose that

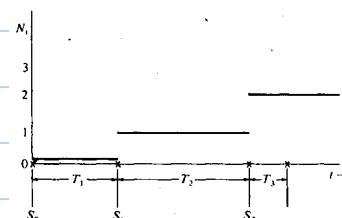
1. Probability of an event occurring once in a given (short) time interval is proportion to the length of the interval
2. The numbers of events in two disjoint time intervals are independent

Then, the number of events in a specified time interval will be Poisson distributed

▢ Example: number of incoming telephone calls/earthquake in  $[t_1, t_2]$



- Suppose that the times between any two adjacent events are i.i.d. as exponential distribution  
 ⇒ number of events in a given time period is Poisson distributed.



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• 3 components of Poisson GLM:

➤  $y_x \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu_x)$

➤  $X\beta = \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j \times h_j(X_1, \dots, X_m) \equiv \eta_x(\beta)$

- For  $i=1, \dots, k$ , denote the  $i$ th row of  $X$  by

$$\underline{h}_i = (h_1(\mathbf{x}_i), \dots, h_p(\mathbf{x}_i))^T \Rightarrow \eta_{\mathbf{x}_i} = \underline{h}_i^T \beta$$

➤ link function  $g$ :  $g$  monotone and differential, and  $\eta_x = g(\mu_x)$   
 [for Poisson GLM,  $g: (0, \infty) \rightarrow (-\infty, \infty)$ ]

- Log-linear model:  $\eta_x = \log(\mu_x) \Leftrightarrow \mu_x = \exp(\eta_x)$

• Log-likelihood of log-linear model:

$$\begin{aligned} l(\beta) &= \log\left(\prod_{i=1}^k \frac{e^{-\mu_{\mathbf{x}_i}} \mu_{\mathbf{x}_i}^{y_i}}{y_i!}\right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k [y_i \log(\mu_{\mathbf{x}_i}) - \mu_{\mathbf{x}_i} - \log(y_i!)] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k [y_i \eta_{\mathbf{x}_i} - \exp(\eta_{\mathbf{x}_i}) - \log(y_i!)] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k [y_i (\underline{h}_i^T \beta) - \exp(\underline{h}_i^T \beta) - \log(y_i!)] \end{aligned}$$

• Estimation (MLE) of  $\underline{\beta}$ :

➤ Partial derivative of  $l(\underline{\beta})$ :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \underline{\beta}_j} l(\underline{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^k [y_i \underline{h}_{ij} - \exp(\underline{h}_i^T \underline{\beta}) \underline{h}_{ij}]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^k [y_i - \exp(\underline{h}_i^T \underline{\beta})] \underline{h}_{ij}$$

➤ Set  $\partial l(\underline{\beta}) / \partial \underline{\beta}_j = 0, \forall j$ . The MLE  $\hat{\underline{\beta}}$  is the solution to:

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^k \underline{h}_{ij} y_i - \sum_{i=1}^k \underline{h}_{ij} \hat{\underline{\mu}}_i, \quad j = 1, \dots, p.$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \underline{X}^T \underline{Y} - \underline{X}^T \underline{\hat{\mu}} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \underline{X}^T \underline{Y} = \underline{X}^T \underline{\hat{\mu}}$$

where  $\underline{\hat{\mu}} = \exp(\underline{\hat{\eta}}) = \exp(\underline{X}^T \hat{\underline{\beta}})$

- The link function having the property

$\underline{X}^T \underline{\hat{\mu}} = \underline{X}^T \underline{Y}$  is known as canonical link.

- The canonical link for Normal linear model is identity link:

$E(Y) = \underline{\mu} = \underline{\eta} = \underline{X} \underline{\beta}$ , and for binomial GLM is logit link.

➤ For Poisson GLM, no explicit formula for  $\hat{\underline{\beta}} \Rightarrow$  must resort to numerical methods to find a approximated solution (same numerical method, IRWLS, as in binomial GLM, future lecture) ➡

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• Deviance of log-linear model:

➤ For a saturated model  $L^*$ ,  
the MLE of  $\underline{\mu}_x$  is  $\underline{y}_x$ ;

➤ For a model  $S$  with  $s (\leq k)$  parameters, denote its MLE of  $\underline{\mu}_x$  by  $\hat{\underline{\mu}}_{x,S}$ . Then, the deviance of  $S$  is (considering the likelihood ratio test statistic of  $H_0: S$  vs.  $H_1: L^* \setminus S$ ):

$$\underline{D}_S = 2 (l_{L^*} - l_S)$$

$$= 2 \sum_{i=1}^k \left[ y_i \log \left( \frac{y_i}{\hat{\mu}_{i,S}} \right) - (y_i - \hat{\mu}_{i,S}) \right]$$

➤  $\underline{D}_S \stackrel{a}{\sim} \chi_{k-s}^2$  when  $S$  is the true model

$\Rightarrow$  can do goodness-of-fit test (Note.  
it is because  $\underline{\mu}_x = E(y_x) = \text{Var}(y_x)$ )

(Q: what should tend to  $\infty$  for this asymptotics?)

➤ The  $D$  is known as  $G^2$ -statistic in the analysis of contingency table (future lecture) ➡

• Testing for log-linear model:

➤ Consider two nested models  $\underline{S}$  ( $s$  parameters)  $\subseteq \underline{L}$  ( $l$  parameters)

➤ Test statistic and null distribution  $D$  for  $\underline{H}_0: \underline{S}$  vs.  $\underline{H}_1: \underline{L} \setminus \underline{S}$

$$\underline{0} \leq \underline{\underline{D_S}} - \underline{\underline{D_L}} \Rightarrow \overset{a}{\sim} \underline{\underline{\chi^2_{df_S - df_L}}} \text{ (under } \underline{H_0})$$

where  $\underline{df_S} = \underline{k} - \underline{s}$  and  $\underline{df_L} = \underline{k} - \underline{l}$

(cf., same asymptotic properties as for binomial GLM)

$\Leftrightarrow$  profile likelihood confidence interval for individual parameter

➤ An alternative for testing significance of individual parameter:

Wald test statistic for  $\underline{H}_0: \underline{\beta_i} = \underline{c}$  vs.  $\underline{H}_1: \underline{\beta_i} \neq \underline{c}$

$$\underline{z_i} = (\hat{\underline{\beta_i}} - \underline{c}) / \underline{se}(\hat{\underline{\beta_i}}) \Rightarrow \overset{a}{\sim} \underline{N(0, 1)} \text{ (under } \underline{H_0})$$

$\Leftrightarrow$  100(1- $\alpha$ )% confidence interval:  $\hat{\underline{\beta_i}} \pm \underline{z}(\alpha/2) \times \underline{se}(\hat{\underline{\beta_i}})$

• Pearson  $X^2$  statistic of  $\underline{S}$  (an alternative goodness-of-fit measure):

$$\underline{\underline{X^2_S}} = \sum_{i=1}^{\underline{k}} \frac{(\underline{O_i} - \underline{E_i})^2}{\underline{E_i}} = \sum_{i=1}^{\underline{k}} \frac{(\underline{y_i} - \hat{\underline{\mu_{i,S}}})^2}{\hat{\underline{\mu_{i,S}}}}$$

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➤ Pearson  $X^2$  typically close in size to the deviance because:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{D} &= 2 \sum_{i=1}^{\underline{k}} [\underline{y_i} \log(\underline{y_i} / \hat{\underline{\mu_i}}) - (\underline{y_i} - \hat{\underline{\mu_i}})] \\ &= 2 \sum_{i=1}^{\underline{k}} \left\{ \left[ \frac{(\underline{y_i} - \hat{\underline{\mu_i}}) + (\underline{y_i} - \hat{\underline{\mu_i}})^2 / (2 \hat{\underline{\mu_i}}) + \dots}{2} \right] - (\underline{y_i} - \hat{\underline{\mu_i}}) \right\} \\ &\approx \sum_{i=1}^{\underline{k}} \frac{(\underline{y_i} - \hat{\underline{\mu_i}})^2}{\hat{\underline{\mu_i}}} = \underline{X^2} \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$  Pearson  $X^2$  often used in the same manner as the deviance

• Overdispersion under a model  $\underline{S}$ , i.e.,  $\underline{Var}(\underline{y_{x,S}}) \gg \underline{E}(\underline{y_{x,S}})$

➤ Overdispersion  $\Rightarrow$  large  $\underline{D_S}$  (goodness-of-fit test rejected)

➤ Other possible reasons causing large  $\underline{D_S}$  should be examined before concluding there is an overdispersion.

For example: (1) outliers, (2) wrong  $\underline{X\beta}$  structure, ...

➤ A mechanism that can explain why overdispersion appears:

$\underline{y_x} | \underline{\lambda_x} \sim \underline{\text{Poisson}(\underline{\lambda_x})}$ , but  $\underline{\lambda_x}$  is a random variable

- Example: tendency to fail for a product may vary from batch to batch even though they have same  $\underline{x}$ .

- Suppose that  $\lambda_{\underline{x}} \sim$  gamma distribution with

$$\underline{E}(\lambda_{\underline{x}}) = \mu_{\underline{x}} \text{ and } \underline{Var}(\lambda_{\underline{x}}) = \mu_{\underline{x}} / \phi_{\underline{x}}$$

- Then (exercise),  $y_{\underline{x}} \sim$  negative binomial,  $y_{\underline{x}} = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , with

$$\underline{E}(y_{\underline{x}}) = \mu_{\underline{x}} \text{ but } \underline{Var}(y_{\underline{x}}) = \mu_{\underline{x}} \times (1 + \phi_{\underline{x}}) / \phi_{\underline{x}} \geq \mu_{\underline{x}} = \underline{E}(y_{\underline{x}})$$

➤ For overdispersion cases, we can model  $y_{\underline{x}}$  as:

- When mechanism known  $\Rightarrow$  can model  $y_{\underline{x}}$  as a negative binomial response (or other more flexible distribution)
- When mechanism unknown  $\Rightarrow$  can add a dispersion parameter  $\sigma^2$ , which is an unknown constant for all  $\underline{x}$ 's, such that:

$$\underline{Var}(y_{\underline{x}}) = \sigma^2 \times \underline{E}(y_{\underline{x}}) = \sigma^2 \mu_{\underline{x}}$$

- $\sigma^2 = 1 \Rightarrow$  the regular Poisson GLM;
- $\sigma^2 > 1 \Rightarrow$  overdispersion;  $\sigma^2 < 1 \Rightarrow$  underdispersion
- Estimation of  $\sigma^2$ :

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\underline{X}^2}{\underline{k} - \underline{s}} = \frac{\sum_i [(y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)^2 / \hat{\mu}_i]}{\underline{k} - \underline{s}}$$

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- ◆ Note: the estimation of  $\beta$  is unaffected by  $\sigma^2 \Rightarrow$  choosing a dispersion parameter other than 1 has no effect on the estimation procedure (IRWLS) of  $\beta$  (cf., similar to Normal LM and binomial GLM)

- ◆ The standard error of  $\hat{\beta}_i$  should be adjusted for  $\Rightarrow$  scale up the standard error by a factor of  $\hat{\sigma}$

- ◆ The z-statistic (Wald test) and its corresponding confidence interval should use the scaled  $se(\hat{\beta}_i)$

- When comparing two nested models, an F-test statistic:

$$\frac{(\underline{D}_{\underline{S}} - \underline{D}_{\underline{L}}) / (\underline{df}_{\underline{S}} - \underline{df}_{\underline{L}})}{\hat{\sigma}_{\underline{L}}^2} \Rightarrow \overset{a}{\sim} F_{\underline{df}_{\underline{S}} - \underline{df}_{\underline{L}}, \underline{df}_{\underline{L}}} \text{ (under } \underline{H}_0 : \underline{S})$$

should be used, rather than the chi-square test.

- ◆ The F-test is more reliable than the z-statistic

- No goodness-of-fit test is possible.

- Prediction of  $\mu_{\underline{x}}$  at  $\underline{x}_0 = (x_{01}, \dots, x_{0m})^T$  under a log-linear model:

➤ Denote  $\underline{h}_0 = (h_1(\underline{x}_0), \dots, h_p(\underline{x}_0))^T$

- Recall:  $\underline{\mu}_{\underline{x}_0} \xrightarrow{g} \underline{\eta}_{\underline{x}_0} = \underline{h}_0^T \underline{\beta}$ , and under log-linear model,
- $$\underline{\eta}_{\underline{x}_0} = \log(\underline{\mu}_{\underline{x}_0}) \Leftrightarrow \underline{\mu}_{\underline{x}_0} = \exp(\underline{\eta}_{\underline{x}_0})$$
- $\hat{\underline{\eta}}_{\underline{x}_0} = \underline{h}_0^T \hat{\underline{\beta}}$  and  $\hat{Var}(\hat{\underline{\eta}}_{\underline{x}_0}) = \underline{h}_0^T \hat{\underline{\Sigma}} \underline{h}_0$   
 ( $\hat{\underline{\Sigma}}$  = estimated covariance matrix of  $\hat{\underline{\beta}}$ )
- $\hat{\underline{\mu}}_{\underline{x}_0} = \exp(\hat{\underline{\eta}}_{\underline{x}_0})$
- The construction of confidence intervals for  $\underline{\eta}_{\underline{x}_0}$  and  $\underline{\mu}_{\underline{x}_0}$  follows a similar manner as in binomial GLM.
- Suppose that there is only an  $s$ -level categorical covariate (or other covariates are held fixed)
- Denote the  $s$  categories by  $1, \dots, s$ ; their count observations by  $\underline{y}_1, \dots, \underline{y}_s$ ; their count parameters by  $\underline{\mu}_1, \dots, \underline{\mu}_s$
  - Can predict the probability that an observed event falls in the  $i^{\text{th}}$  category by  $\hat{\underline{\mu}}_i / (\hat{\underline{\mu}}_1 + \hat{\underline{\mu}}_2 + \dots + \hat{\underline{\mu}}_s)$ , given  $\underline{y}_1, \dots, \underline{y}_s$  were collected under the same value of a size variable (next slide)

❖ **Reading:** Faraway (2006, 1<sup>st</sup> ed.), 3.1

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## Rate Model

- Data: observe the number of events  $\underline{y}_x$  at  $\underline{x}$ , and assume  $\underline{y}_x \sim \text{Poisson}(\underline{\mu}_x)$ , where  $\underline{y}_x$  (or  $\underline{\mu}_x$ ) depends on a size variable  $\underline{t}_x$  (which is observed) that determines the number of opportunities for the events to occur
- Some examples:
  - $\underline{y}_x$  = number of burglaries reported in different cities  
 $\underline{t}_x$  = number of households in these cities
  - $\underline{y}_x$  = number of customers served by sales workers  
 $\underline{t}_x$  = the amounts of time these workers spent
- For such cases, we may be interested in the relationship between:
 
$$\underline{\mu}_x / \underline{t}_x \text{ (the rate at } \underline{x}) \Leftrightarrow \underline{\eta}_x = \underline{X}\underline{\beta},$$
 instead of  $\underline{\mu}_x \Leftrightarrow \underline{\eta}_x = \underline{X}\underline{\beta}$
- **Q:** how to model the rate data?
  - use binomial GLM if  $\underline{t}_x$  represents the total number of trials
    - Then,  $\underline{p}_x = \underline{\mu}_x / \underline{t}_x$
    - Example: burglary example  $\Rightarrow$  a household regarded as a trial



- If the proportions  $\mu_x/t_x$  are small and  $t_x$  are large, Poisson GLM is an effective approximation to the binomial GLM
- **Q:** can  $t_x$  always be regarded as the total number of trials?
  - In customer service example, the  $t_x$  is not a count
  - In burglary example, some households may be affected more than once

➤ Fit a Normal linear model:  $\underline{y_x}/\underline{t_x} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta} + \underline{\epsilon}$

- However, there are often difficulties with normality and unequal variance, particularly if  $\underline{y_x}$  are small

➤ Use a Poisson GLM with the link (cf., link in log-linear model):

$$\log(\underline{\mu_x}/\underline{t_x}) = \underline{\eta_x} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta} \quad (\Leftrightarrow \log(\underline{\mu_x}) = 1 \times \log(\underline{t_x}) + \underline{X}\underline{\beta} \equiv \underline{\eta_x'})$$

- $\log(\underline{t_x})$  is regarded as a term with coefficient fixed as 1
- This approach models the rate while still maintaining the count response for the log-linear model  $\Rightarrow$  called rate model
- A term on the covariate side having no parameter attached is called an offset

❖ **Reading:** Faraway (2006, 1<sup>st</sup> ed.), 3.2

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## Negative Binomial Response

- Data: observe  $(x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{im}, y_i)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$   
 $\Leftrightarrow (\underline{\mathbf{x}}_i, \underline{y}_i) \Leftrightarrow (\underline{\mathbf{x}}, \underline{y_x})$

where  $\underline{y_x} \sim$  negative binomial, i.e.,

$$P(\underline{Y_x} = \underline{y_x}) = \binom{\underline{y_x} - 1}{\underline{r_x} - 1} p_x^{\underline{r_x}} (1 - p_x)^{\underline{y_x} - \underline{r_x}}, \quad \underline{y_x} = \underline{r_x}, \underline{r_x} + 1, \dots$$

- Negative binomial distribution can arise naturally in several ways:
  - $\underline{y_x}$  = the number of trials until the  $\underline{r_x}^{\text{th}}$  success;
    - Example: a system can withstand  $\underline{r_x}$  hits; the prob. of a hit in a given time period is  $p_x \Rightarrow \underline{y_x}$  = the lifetime of the system
  - The generalization of Poisson response:  
 $\underline{y_x} | \underline{\lambda_x} \sim \text{Poisson}(\underline{\lambda_x})$ , where  $\underline{\lambda_x}$  is gamma distributed
  - A limiting distribution for urn schemes that can be used to model contagion
- We now re-parameterize the negative binomial as follows:

$$\underline{y_x}' = \underline{y_x} - \underline{r_x} \text{ and } \underline{\alpha_x} = (1/p_x) - 1 \quad (\Leftrightarrow p_x = (1 + \underline{\alpha_x})^{-1})$$

➤ The pmf becomes

$$P(Y'_x = y'_x) = \frac{\Gamma(y'_x + r_x)}{\Gamma(r_x) \Gamma(y'_x + 1)} \times \frac{\alpha_x^{y'_x}}{(1 + \alpha_x)^{y'_x + r_x}}, \quad y'_x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

where  $r_x \in (0, \infty)$  and  $\alpha_x \in (0, \infty)$ .

➤  $E(y'_x) = r_x \alpha_x \equiv \mu_x$

➤  $Var(y'_x) = r_x \alpha_x + r_x \alpha_x^2 = \mu_x + (\mu_x^2 / r_x)$

[cf., (LNp.4-9) alternative expression:  $Var(y'_x) = \mu_x \times (1 + \phi_x) / \phi_x$ ]

➤ The log-likelihood in terms of  $r_x$ 's and  $\alpha_x$ 's is:

$$l(\underline{\alpha}, \underline{r}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \left\{ y'_i \log\left(\frac{\alpha_i}{1 + \alpha_i}\right) + \sum_{j=0}^{y'_i-1} \log(j + r_i) - r_i \log(1 + \alpha_i) - \log[\Gamma(y'_i + 1)] \right\}$$

• Statistical modeling:  $y'_x \sim NB(r_x, \alpha_x)$  and  $\eta_x = X\beta$

➤ a convenient way to link  $\mu_x = E(y'_x) = r_x \alpha_x$  and  $\eta_x$  is:

$$\eta_x = \log\left(\frac{\alpha_x}{1 + \alpha_x}\right) = \log\left(\frac{\mu_x}{\mu_x + r_x}\right)$$

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• Analysis of negative binomial

responses assuming  $r_1 = r_2 = \dots = r_k \equiv r$ :

➤  $r_1 = r_2 = \dots = r_k \Leftrightarrow r_x = \mu_x \phi_x = [E(\lambda_x)]^2 / Var(\lambda_x)$

(LNp.4-9) is a constant for all  $x$

■ cf., assuming  $\phi_x = r_x / \mu_x = E(\lambda_x) / Var(\lambda_x)$  is a constant for all  $x$

■ cf., dispersion parameter method:  $Var(y_x) = \sigma^2 E(y_x) = \sigma^2 \mu_x$

■ it results in a different structure from the dispersion-parameter approach for  $E(y_x)$  and  $Var(y_x)$

➤ Treating  $r$  as a known constant

■ It is an ordinary GLM with canonical link

$$\eta_x = \log(\mu_x / (\mu_x + r))$$

■ Data analysis techniques for ordinary GLM can be adopted

➤ Treating  $r$  as an unknown parameter

■ Not anymore an ordinary GLM



- MLE of  $\beta$  and  $r$  can be obtained by
  - 1) using a Newton-Raphson routine on all parameters simultaneously, or
  - 2) evaluating the profile likelihood for various fixed  $r$ , or
  - 3) an approach alternates between a) using IRWLS to estimate  $\beta$  with  $\hat{r}$  fixed, b) using Newton-Raphson method to estimate  $r$  with  $\hat{\beta}$  fixed
- $\hat{\beta}$  and  $\hat{r}$  are asymptotically independent
- The usual inferential techniques in GLM can then be used to compare negative binomial models (regarded as inferences conditional on the estimate of  $r$ )
- Analysis of negative binomial responses allowing parameters  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_k$  to have different values
  - Outside the framework of GLM (out of the scope of this course)
  - Manton et al. (1981), *Biometrics* **37**, p.259-269

❖ **Reading:** Faraway (2006, 1<sup>st</sup> ed.), 3.3