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**ALGORITHMS FOR MULTIDIMENSIONAL
SEMIPARAMETRIC GLM'S**

by

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Abstract

A set of Fortran-77 subroutines is presented for generalized cross validation calculations in semiparametric generalized linear models. These routines build on GCVPACK (Bates *et al.*, 1987). We outline the penalized likelihood structure and iteratively reweighted least squares solutions for these and related models. Timing tests and the structure of the routines are also presented.

Purpose and Description

Purpose

These Fortran-77 subroutines provide tools for penalized likelihood estimation and model checking for generalized linear models (GLMs) in which the model has a semi-parametric form. The routines build on GCVPACK (Bates *et al.*, 1987) and are designed to use the generalized cross-validation criteria (Craven and Wahba, 1979) to determine the degree of data smoothing. These problems include smoothed GLMs (O'Sullivan, Yandell and Raynor, 1986), iteratively reweighted least squares (Green, 1984), and general nonlinear problems. We present some of the problems PGLMPACK is designed for and describe the structure of the routines.

General Problem: A variety of penalized nonlinear problems can be solved by an iterative scheme in which the inner step involves a linear model approximation,

$$y_i \approx \theta_i + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

with $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^T$ the working values, $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n)^T$ the linearized model and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = (\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n)^T$ a random vector with zero mean and covariance \mathbf{W}^{-2} , which is often diagonal. (The matrix \mathbf{W} is referred to as the working weights.) In many situations, a semiparametric model is appropriate, such as

$$\theta_i = \mathbf{s}_i^T \boldsymbol{\alpha} + f(\mathbf{x}_i), \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad (1.1)$$

in which \mathbf{s}_i is a c -vector of covariates with corresponding parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$, \mathbf{x}_i is a d -vector of variates and $f(\cdot)$ is some "smooth" function. Smoothness can be enforced by a "roughness penalty", $J(f)$, with a common choice being the integrated squared m th derivative (*cf.* Bates *et al.*, 1987). The

solution to such a penalized linear model minimizes

$$\frac{1}{n} \|\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\theta})\|^2 + \lambda J(f) \quad (1.2)$$

for some fixed λ , leading to a solution of the linear model as $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \mathbf{W}^{-1} \mathbf{A}(\lambda) \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y}$, with $\mathbf{A}(\lambda)$ the "hat" matrix. One can then iterate on the nonlinear problem to convergence.

The choice of the tuning constant λ has been a subject of considerable discussion (Rice, 1984; Härdle and Marron, 1985 a,b). We limit discussion to choices based on minimizing the generalized cross validation (GCV) criterion (Craven and Wahba, 1979)

$$V(\lambda) = \frac{n \|\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}(\lambda)\mathbf{W}\mathbf{y}\|^2}{[\text{tr}(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}(\lambda))]} \quad (1.3)$$

However, our development could be easily modified for any data-driven criterion based on $\mathbf{A}(\lambda)$. What we propose to do is to iterate on both $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and λ to find the $\hat{\lambda}$ which minimizes (1.3) with $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ minimizing (1.2). It is not known whether such a procedure will converge, but we conjecture that, if the GCV minimizer is bounded away from 0 and ∞ and the nonlinear problem is suitably convex, then it does converge.

If the penalty is chosen so that the estimate of f is a member of a reproducing kernel Hilbert space then the penalty, and hence (1.2), can be expressed in a quadratic form (Aronszajn, 1950). Such a space can be partitioned into a "smooth" space which is defined by the penalty, and a "null" space which is annihilated by the penalty. The semiparametric model (1.1) can be written in matrix form as

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \mathbf{S}\boldsymbol{\alpha} + \mathbf{T}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{K}\boldsymbol{\delta},$$

with \mathbf{S} the $n \times c$ covariate matrix with rows \mathbf{s}_i^T , \mathbf{T} an $n \times t$

matrix whose columns span the null space, and \mathbf{K} an $n \times k$ matrix spanning the smooth space. If J penalizes the integrated squared m th derivative, then the i th column of \mathbf{T} contains the low order polynomials in \mathbf{x}_i of total order at most $m-1$ and the ij th entry of \mathbf{K} is proportional to $\|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|^{2m-d}$ (cf. Bates *et al.*, 1987).

Let \mathbf{K}_U be the $k \times k$ matrix corresponding to the quadratic penalty for J and let \mathbf{T}_U be the $k \times t$ matrix spanning the null space. Typically \mathbf{K}_U and \mathbf{T}_U are either derived from the unique design points or from a set of user-supplied basis nodes (see Appendix 2 of Bates *et al.* (1987)). The objective function (1.2) can be expressed as

$$\frac{1}{n} \|\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{S}\boldsymbol{\alpha} - \mathbf{T}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{K}\boldsymbol{\delta})\|^2 + \lambda \boldsymbol{\delta}^T \mathbf{K}_U \boldsymbol{\delta} \quad (1.4)$$

subject to $\mathbf{T}_U^T \boldsymbol{\delta} = \mathbf{0}$. We propose computational solutions when matrices and working vectors in (1.4) may depend on the unknown parameters. Some problems of interest include: (a) semiparametric generalized linear models, in which the matrices \mathbf{S} , \mathbf{T} , \mathbf{K} and \mathbf{K}_U are constant while the working values \mathbf{W} and \mathbf{y} may change with each iteration; (b) iteratively reweighted least squares, in which only \mathbf{K}_U remains constant; and (c) general nonlinear problems (remote sensing, for example), in which all matrices may change with each iteration.

One would like to decompose any constant matrices exactly once and to keep decompositions of the changing matrices as cheap as possible. The method proposed here combines the advantages of the singular value decomposition (SVD) (Dongarra *et al.*, 1979, chapter 10) in locating the GCV choice of λ with Cholesky decompositions (CDs) (Dongarra *et al.*, 1979, chapter 8) which are relatively cheap once λ is fixed. While the decompositions suggested are not new, the combination of approaches appears to be an unexplored area. The basic strategy is as follows:

- (1) choose an initial guess of λ , e.g., $\lambda = \infty$;
- (2) find estimates of $(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\delta})$ by iteration using CDs;
- (3) linearize the problem based on the iterated solution;
- (4) use SVD to diagonalize $\mathbf{A}(\lambda)$;
- (5) choose new λ using GCV or another method;
- (6) interate through (2)–(5) until convergence.

Convergence criteria can include absolute or relative convergence of the regularization functional and/or the parameter estimates, and absolute convergence of $\log(n\lambda)$. The number of iterations in (2) may be restricted, leading to rough estimates which are fed into (3).

We do not assume any special structure to the design or the matrices, except that we suppose that \mathbf{W} is of full rank, symmetric and computationally invertible. In many cases, \mathbf{W} is actually diagonal, but this will not be explicitly used in the linear algebra. The algorithms below are extensions of Bates *et*

al. (1987), building on their Fortran77 package, GCVPACK.

Semiparametric Generalized Linear Models: Semiparametric generalized linear model parameter estimation can be formulated as the problem of minimizing, for fixed λ ,

$$S_\lambda(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -2L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda J(f) \quad (2.1)$$

in which $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is of the form (1.1), $L(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is the log likelihood and J is the smoothing penalty (see O'Sullivan, Yandell and Raynor, 1986; Green and Yandell, 1985). If $L(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is suitably convex and $J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ has a quadratic form, then $S_\lambda(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ has a unique minimum for each λ . These conditions appear to hold for many generalized linear models.

The log likelihood can be written in an iterative form using the score vector \mathbf{u} , the working-weights \mathbf{W} and the working-values \mathbf{y} ,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u} &= \left[\frac{\partial L}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \right]_{\boldsymbol{\theta}^0} \\ \mathbf{W}^2 &= E \left[- \frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta} \partial \boldsymbol{\theta}^T} \right]_{\boldsymbol{\theta}^0} \\ \mathbf{y} &= \boldsymbol{\theta}^0 + \mathbf{W}^{-2} \mathbf{u} \end{aligned} \quad (2.2)$$

based on $\boldsymbol{\theta}^0$ from the previous iteration. Note that for the independent normal model, \mathbf{W}^{-1} is a diagonal matrix of the standard deviations and \mathbf{y} is the vector of observed responses. The log likelihood is approximated by a quadratic based on a two-term Taylor series expansion (cf. Yandell and Hogg, 1987),

$$L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx L(\boldsymbol{\theta}^0) + \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{W}^{-1} \mathbf{u}\|^2 - \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\theta})\|^2$$

This allows one to locally approximate the penalized likelihood by (1.2). It is well known (Green, 1984) that under regularity conditions the iteratively reweighted least squares solution based on (1.2) is the same as the maximizer of (2.1).

We first decompose the constant matrices. Locating the unique design points \mathbf{T}_U and the corresponding unique covariates \mathbf{S}_{1U} (if any) we form a QR decomposition (Dongarra *et al.*, 1979, chapter 9)

$$[\mathbf{T}_U : \mathbf{S}_{1U}] = \bar{\mathbf{F}} \bar{\mathbf{G}} = [\bar{\mathbf{F}}_1 : \bar{\mathbf{F}}_2] \begin{bmatrix} \bar{\mathbf{G}}_1 \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} = \bar{\mathbf{F}}_1 \bar{\mathbf{G}}_1$$

From this we construct the (unweighted) design

$$\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{T} : \mathbf{S} : \mathbf{K} \bar{\mathbf{F}}_2] \quad (2.3)$$

and penalty

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \bar{\mathbf{F}}_2^T \mathbf{K}_U \bar{\mathbf{F}}_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.4)$$

We decompose $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ using a pivoted Cholesky followed by a QR

decomposition,

$$\mathbf{E}^T \Sigma \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{L}^T \mathbf{L} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{L}^T = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{Q}_1 \mathbf{R}_1, \quad (2.5)$$

and construct

$$\mathbf{Z} = [\mathbf{Z}_1 : \mathbf{Z}_2] = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{E} \mathbf{Q} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R}_1^{-T} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.6)$$

Note that $\bar{\mathbf{F}}_2^T \mathbf{K}_U \bar{\mathbf{F}}_2$ is of rank $q \leq k - t$, and \mathbf{L}^T , \mathbf{Q}_1 , \mathbf{R}_1 and \mathbf{Z}_1 all have q columns. The original parameters are transformed to

$$\begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \\ \bar{\mathbf{F}}_2^T \delta \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{E} \mathbf{Q} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R}_1^{-T} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \gamma \\ \omega \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.7)$$

with γ of length q and ω of length $t + c$. The objective function becomes

$$\frac{1}{n} \|\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Z}_2 \omega - \mathbf{Z}_1 \gamma)\|^2 + \lambda \gamma^T \gamma. \quad (2.8)$$

At this point, we have done all the "one-time" decompositions. The following steps must be redone each time \mathbf{W} and \mathbf{y} change. We form a QR decomposition of

$$\mathbf{W} \mathbf{Z}_2 = \mathbf{F} \mathbf{G} = \mathbf{F}_1 \mathbf{G}_1,$$

and create

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{J}_1 \\ \mathbf{J}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{F}_1^T \\ \mathbf{F}_2^T \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{Z}_1,$$

with \mathbf{J}_1 being $(t + c) \times q$ and \mathbf{J}_2 being $(n - t - c) \times q$. This leads to the final form of the objective function,

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{n} \|\mathbf{F}_1^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{G}_1 \omega - \mathbf{J}_1 \gamma\|^2 + \\ & \frac{1}{n} \|\mathbf{F}_2^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{J}_2 \gamma\|^2 + \lambda \gamma^T \gamma, \end{aligned} \quad (2.9)$$

in which the first term can be made zero by solving for ω , with any given γ ,

$$\mathbf{G}_1 \omega = \mathbf{F}_1^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{J}_1 \gamma. \quad (2.10)$$

The latter two terms of (2.9) comprise a ridge regression (Golub, Heath, and Wahba, 1979), with the estimate of γ found by solving

$$\mathbf{M} \gamma = \mathbf{J}_2^T \mathbf{F}_2^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y}, \quad (2.11)$$

where

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{J}_2^T \mathbf{J}_2 + n \lambda \mathbf{I}.$$

The "hat" matrix can be formally written as

$$\mathbf{A}(\lambda) = \mathbf{F} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{J}_2 \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{J}_2^T \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{F}^T. \quad (2.12)$$

Naturally, one would iterate to new working-values and working-weights using (2.2) and repeat the minimization of the objective function (2.8). At convergence, one can obtain the estimates of the original parameters via (2.7).

Singular Value or Cholesky Decomposition?: One may approach the solution of (2.11) for γ and the hat matrix (2.12) in different ways, depending on whether one wishes to select a new λ or whether one wishes to leave λ fixed. One way to automate choice of a new λ is based on GCV for the linearized problem (2.9). We can diagonalize $\mathbf{A}(\lambda)$ with a singular value decomposition (SVD) to simplify the search (Golub, Heath, and Wahba, 1979). Decompose

$$\mathbf{J}_2 = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T,$$

where \mathbf{D} is diagonal of size $a = \min(q, n - t - c)$ and \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{V} are orthogonal of sizes $(n - t - c) \times a$ and $a \times q$, respectively. The parameter estimates are

$$\hat{\gamma} = \mathbf{V}(\mathbf{D}^2 + n \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{F}_2^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y},$$

with $\hat{\omega}$ determined by (2.10). The hat matrix is diagonalized as

$$\mathbf{A}(\lambda) = \mathbf{F} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D}^2 (\mathbf{D}^2 + n \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{U}^T \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{F}^T.$$

These leads to a rational polynomial representation of the GCV criterion (1.3), which can easily be minimized by a golden section search, as in GCVPACK.

If instead λ is fixed, one can take the cheaper approach of a Cholesky decomposition (CD) of

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{C},$$

leading to the estimate of γ by solving

$$\mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{C} \hat{\gamma} = \mathbf{J}_2^T \mathbf{F}_2^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y}.$$

The hat matrix becomes

$$\mathbf{A}(\lambda) = \mathbf{F} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{J}_2 \mathbf{C}^{-1} \mathbf{C}^{-T} \mathbf{J}_2^T \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{F}^T. \quad (2.13)$$

Diagnostics: The diagonal elements of the hat matrix have been used for diagnostics in GLMs (Pregibon, 1981) as well as in smoothing spline models (Eubank 1984, 1985). Recently they have been extended to semiparametric GLMs (Yandell and Green, 1986). The diagonal elements of (2.12) can be computed formally as

$$\{\mathbf{A}(\lambda)\}_{ii} = \|\mathbf{F}_1^T \mathbf{e}_i\|^2 + \|\mathbf{M}^{-1/2} \mathbf{J}_2^T \mathbf{F}_2^T \mathbf{e}_i\|^2$$

in which \mathbf{e}_i is the n -vector with a 1 in the i -th position and 0's

elsewhere. For the SVD approach this is simply

$$\{A(\lambda)\}_{ii} = \|F_1^T e_i\|^2 + \|D(D+n\lambda I)^{-1/2} U^T F_2^T e_i\|^2,$$

and for the Cholesky approach (cf. O'Sullivan (1985)),

$$\{A(\lambda)\}_{ii} = \|F_1^T e_i\|^2 + \|C^{-T} J_2^T F_2^T e_i\|^2.$$

The trace of $A(\lambda)$ can be quickly computed if one is not interested in the diagonal entries by noting that

$$tr(A(\lambda)) = t + c + tr(J_2^T J_2 M^{-1}) = q + t + c - n\lambda tr(M^{-1}).$$

For the SVD approach (see Bates et al. (1987)) this is

$$\begin{aligned} tr(A(\lambda)) &= t + c + \sum_{i=1}^a d_i^2 / (d_i^2 + n\lambda) \\ &= a + t + c - \sum_{i=1}^a (1 + d_i^2 / (n\lambda))^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

For the CD approach we have

$$\begin{aligned} tr(A(\lambda)) &= q + t + c - n\lambda tr(C^{-1} C^{-T}) \\ &= q + t + c - n\lambda \sum_{i=1}^q \|C^{-T} e_i\|^2, \end{aligned}$$

in which e_i here is of length q .

Covariance matrices can be computed by noting that $COV(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{W}^{-2}$. Considering first the linear model estimates of (1.1), we find from (2.12) that

$$COV(\hat{\theta}) = \mathbf{W}^{-1} \mathbf{F} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{J}_2 \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{J}_2^T \mathbf{J}_2 \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{J}_2^T \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{W}^{-1}.$$

Hence, the variances are

$$VAR(\theta_i) = \|F_1^T W^{-1} e_i\|^2 + \|J_2 M^{-1} J_2^T F_2^T W^{-1} e_i\|^2.$$

For the SVD approach, this becomes

$$VAR(\theta_i) = \|F_1^T W^{-1} e_i\|^2 + \|D^2(D^2+n\lambda I)^{-1} U^T F_2^T W^{-1} e_i\|^2.$$

Noting that

$$\mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{J}_2^T \mathbf{J}_2 \mathbf{M}^{-1} = \mathbf{M}^{-1} - n\lambda \mathbf{M}^{-2}, \quad (3.1)$$

the variances under the Cholesky approach can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} VAR(\theta_i) &= \|F_1^T W^{-1} e_i\|^2 + \|C^{-T} J_2^T F_2^T W^{-1} e_i\|^2 \\ &\quad - n\lambda \|C^{-1} C^{-T} J_2^T F_2^T W^{-1} e_i\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

The covariance among the coefficients can be derived, using (2.7), (2.10) and (2.11) as

$$COV \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \\ \bar{F}_2^T \delta \end{bmatrix} = EQ_2 G_1^{-1} G_1^{-T} Q_2^T E^T +$$

$$EQ \begin{bmatrix} R_1^{-T} \\ -G_1^{-1} J_1 \end{bmatrix} M^{-1} J_2^T J_2 M^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} R_1^{-T} \\ -G_1^{-1} J_1 \end{bmatrix}^T Q^T E^T.$$

In many situations we may be only interested in $COV(\alpha)$. Further, if the penalty Σ is of the proper rank, then (2.7) essentially permutes and rotates the coefficients α and β into ω . Let $\bar{e}_i = G_1^{-T} Q_2^T E^T e_{t+i}$, $i = 1, \dots, c$, be the transformed index for α_i . For the SVD approach,

$$VAR(\alpha_i) = \|\bar{e}_i\|^2 + \|D(D^2+n\lambda I)^{-1} V^T J_1^T \bar{e}_i\|^2.$$

For the Cholesky approach, using (3.1),

$$VAR(\alpha_i) = \|\bar{e}_i\|^2 + \|C^{-T} J_1^T \bar{e}_i\|^2 - n\lambda \|C^{-1} C^{-T} J_1^T \bar{e}_i\|^2.$$

Tests: One may test parameters using the covariance matrix given above. One can perform stepwise tests in nested semi-parametric GLMs using score tests which are computationally more appealing than tests based on deviances (Pregibon, 1982, Yandell and Green, 1986). One can also test whether the f is parametric using analogues to recent results of Cox et al. (1987).

Consider testing a full model

$$\hat{\theta}_i = s_i^T \alpha + \bar{s}_i^T \bar{\alpha} + f(x_i)$$

against the reduced model

$$\theta_i = s_i^T \alpha + f(x_i).$$

In other words, one tests whether the r -vector $\bar{\alpha} = 0$. The score statistic is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u} &= \left[\frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta} \right]_{\hat{\theta}} = \mathbf{W}^2 (\mathbf{y} - \hat{\theta}) = \mathbf{W}(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y} \\ &= \mathbf{W} \mathbf{F}_2 (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{J}_2 \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{J}_2^T) \mathbf{F}_2^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H} \mathbf{y}. \end{aligned}$$

The score test for $\bar{\alpha}$ is

$$\begin{aligned} T &= \mathbf{u}^T \bar{\mathbf{S}} (\bar{\mathbf{S}}^T \mathbf{H} \bar{\mathbf{S}})^{-1} \bar{\mathbf{S}}^T \mathbf{u} \\ &= \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{H} \bar{\mathbf{S}} (\bar{\mathbf{S}}^T \mathbf{H} \bar{\mathbf{S}})^{-1} \bar{\mathbf{S}}^T \mathbf{H} \mathbf{y}, \end{aligned} \quad (3.2)$$

with $\bar{\mathbf{S}}$ the $n \times r$ matrix with rows \bar{s}_i^T . This test is conjectured to have approximately a χ^2 distribution with r degrees of freedom when $\bar{\alpha} = 0$. For the SVD approach define the $q \times r$ matrix

$$\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{D}^2 / (n\lambda))^{-1/2} \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{F}_2^T \mathbf{W} \bar{\mathbf{S}}$$

and transformed working values

$$\bar{\mathbf{y}} = (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{D}^2 / (n\lambda))^{-1/2} \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{F}_2^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y}.$$

Form the QR decomposition of $\mathbf{B} = \bar{\mathbf{Q}} \bar{\mathbf{R}} = \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_1 \bar{\mathbf{R}}_1$. The score test (3.2) can then be written as

$$T = \bar{\mathbf{y}}^T \mathbf{B} (\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{B})^{-1} \mathbf{B}^T \bar{\mathbf{y}} = \|\bar{\mathbf{Q}}_1^T \bar{\mathbf{y}}\|^2.$$

For the CD approach,

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{W} \mathbf{F}_2 (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{J}_2 \mathbf{C}^{-1} \mathbf{C}^{-T} \mathbf{J}_2^T) \mathbf{F}_2^T \mathbf{W}.$$

Forming the Cholesky decomposition of

$$\bar{\mathbf{S}}^T \mathbf{H} \bar{\mathbf{S}} = \mathbf{L}^T \mathbf{L},$$

the score test (3.2) becomes

$$S = \|\mathbf{L}^{-T} \bar{\mathbf{S}}^T \mathbf{H} \bar{\mathbf{y}}\|^2.$$

Note that when $r = 1$, calculations for both the SVD and the CD approaches simplify greatly, obviating the need for the extra decomposition in either case.

Cox and Koh (1986) proposed a test for f parametric in the simple spline model, which was later extended to partial and generalized spline models by Cox et al. (1987). One can readily show that the nonlinear analogue of that test is

$$T = \|\mathbf{D} \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{F}_2^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{J}_2^T \mathbf{F}_2^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y}\|^2.$$

This can be easily computed after convergence is reached. In fact, the computation overlap with some of those needed for the score test, which can lead to some time savings. Unfortunately, the distribution of T is a weighted sum of χ^2 statistics which has no closed form (Cox and Koh, 1986).

Other Nonlinear Models: Iteratively reweighted least squares (IRLS) models differ from semiparametric GLMs in that only the penalty matrix remains fixed (Green, 1984). The likelihood parameter θ can be locally linearized, but the \mathbf{S} , \mathbf{T} , and \mathbf{K} matrices are no longer fixed. For instance, with a penalized likelihood of the form (2.1),

$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \alpha}, \quad \mathbf{T} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{K} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \delta},$$

which may depend on the unknown parameters. We still only need form and decompose Σ as in (2.4) and (2.5) exactly once. However, the (unweighted) design (2.3) may change with each iteration. Hence, the remaining computations need to be done at each iteration. One could proceed in the same manner as for the generalized linear models, but reconstructing \mathbf{X} , and hence \mathbf{Z} and \mathbf{J} , each time.

General nonlinear problems could proceed in the same manner as for IRLS, except that \mathbf{K}_U changes each time. Thus most computations need to be redone. It may be possible for some nonlinear problems to reparameterize them as SGLM or IRLS problems to eliminate this difficulty.

Description

The package has one main driver, *dpglm*, for penalized general linear models. The subroutine *dpglm* calls *dmksx* to

make the penalty Σ and the design matrix \mathbf{X} using GCVPACK routines *dmaket*, *dmakek* and *dctsx*. The penalty Σ is decomposed by a call to the GCVPACK routine *dsgdc*. Then the matrix \mathbf{Z} is created by the GCVPACK routine *dcrtz*.

The routine *dnrfs* handles all computations for the iterations. The model is initialized by a call to *dmodel*, which is one of *dbin*, *dpois* or *dnorm*, depending on the model selected: binomial, poisson or normal. This routine handles evaluation of the likelihood and updating of working-values. The algorithms are set up for a diagonal \mathbf{W} matrix, and would have to be slightly modified for more general working-weights. At each iteration for either the CD or the SVD approach, *dmodel* is called to update working values, and *dcheck* is called at the end to check the convergence criteria. For the SVD approach, the GCVPACK routines *dzdc* and *dgcv* are called to decompose \mathbf{Z} and to locate a new λ by GCV. For the CD approach, \mathbf{Z} is decomposed in the routine *dchrr*.

Once convergence is established, *dnrfs* computes the predictive MSE (if requested) and back-transforms the predicted values to the original units. It computes the diagonal of the hat matrix (if requested) by *dcdiag* for the CD approach or by the GCVPACK routine *ddiag* for the SVD approach. The variances of the parameter estimates (if requested) are computed in *dvar* for both the SVD and the CD approaches. The test statistic for parametric f is then computed by *dnrfs*. If score tests are requested, then *dsvst* or *dchst* computes the overall test of $\bar{\alpha} = 0$, along with single tests for each of the r elements of $\bar{\alpha}$. Once *dnrfs* returns, *dpglm* does some final cleanup using LINPACK routines.

The user can control whether λ is to be considered fixed or to be automatically chosen, how many CD iterations are done each loop, and how many over CD and SVD iterations are performed.

Related Algorithms

The numerical linear algebra in our routines is performed using the LINPACK (Dongarra et al., 1979) routines. The linear algebra for generalized cross validation is performed using GCVPACK (Bates et al., 1987). The introductory comments of each PGLMPACK routine list which GCVPACK, LINPACK and BLAS (Basic Linear Algebra Subroutines) routines are called directly or indirectly. There is one machine-dependent constant, the relative machine precision, which is used in these routines to determine error conditions caused by ill-conditioning, but that constant is computed each time it is needed.

The present work generalizes GCVPACK algorithms for linear models of Bates et al. (1987) and references therein. It

would also be possible to take advantage of block diagonal forms (Yandell, 1987) to realize further savings of time and storage space.

O'Sullivan, Yandell and Raynor (1986) developed algorithms for smooth generalized linear models based on the Cholesky decomposition. Green (1985) and Green and Yandell (1985) presented algorithms for penalized likelihood schemes which include generalized linear models and other iteratively reweighted least squares methods. Green and Yandell (1985) present a one-dimensional algorithm based on Reinsch (1967) and a general algorithm based on the Cholesky decomposition. See also O'Sullivan (1985). Yandell (1985) developed an earlier version of the present multidimensional algorithms. Hastie and Tibshirani (1986) and Buja, Hastie, and Tibshirani (1987) developed algorithms for generalized additive models using the "backfitting algorithm" pioneered by Friedman and Stuetzle (1981).

If one follows Elden (1984) to stop the singular value decomposition after the bidiagonalization, considerable time can be saved since the effort to diagonalize is magnified by the number of iterations. Earlier work on GCVPACK (Bates et al., 1987) indicated that half of the singular value decomposition time may be spent on bidiagonalization. Of course, once convergence is reached, one could complete the diagonalization, doing this only once, to easily derive the diagonal of the "hat" matrix. Such a savings in computation would further reduce the advantage of iterating via Cholesky with fixed λ (see Test Results section).

Test Results

The package and drivers have been tested for internal consistency and for accuracy against other known algorithms. Here we present some timing results to show that the methods are feasible for relatively large data sets and to offer insight into which portions of the code should be improved, if possible.

All timing runs were performed on a Vax-11/750 computer with a floating point accelerator and running the 4.2 BSD UNIX™ operating system. All timing was performed using GCVPACK with the standard BLAS of LINPACK (Dongarra et al., 1979).

We focus our investigations upon the Poisson and binomial special cases of the semi-parametric generalized linear model as these are potentially of wide interest and easy to formulate. We allowed up to c initial iterations of the Cholesky decomposition (CD) for $\lambda = \infty$ (perfectly smooth case), and up to c CDs following each SVD, where c was 1, 2, or 10. No case

required more than 7 CD following an SVD, or more than 7 SVD overall.

We simulated data which we thought might be "cumbersome" for the numerical algorithms. Simulations were conducted for $n = 50$ and 100. The simulations were Poisson with a normal shaped curve of $\theta = \log(\text{mean value})$, with peak height of between $\theta = 1.5$ and 20. Binomial simulations used a similar normal shaped curve for $\theta = \text{logit}(\text{mean value})$, with peak height of between $\theta = \text{logit}(.05)$ and $\text{logit}(.3)$ for $n = 50$ and between $\theta = \text{logit}(.005)$ and $\text{logit}(.3)$ for $n = 100$.

The simulations showed that when the "signal" is small relative to the "noise", the CDs seem to stabilize the minimization problem, reducing the number of SVDs required and cutting the run time. Table 1(a) present the combined CD and SVD run times, while Table 1(c) present the numbers of SVDs and CDs. As the height of the Poisson peak rises, the CD iterations have a reduced impact on convergence. However, note that on several occasions iteration with only one CD increased the number of SVDs required. Allowing more than 2 CD steps only seemed to increase the overall run time; the number of SVDs was reduced in only a few instances. In addition, a few simulations, not shown here, converged when up to 2 CDs per SVD were allowed, but did not converge when 0 or up to 10 were allowed. Similar statements can be made about the binomial simulations (Table 2).

Since we know that the estimates converge for fixed λ (O'Sullivan, Yandell, and Raynor, Jr., 1986), a few iterations for fixed λ may guard against nonlinearity in the penalized likelihood. It is not known at this time what conditions are required on the penalized likelihood, as a function of λ , to insure convergence in the SVD-only approach.

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Table 1(a). Poisson Run Times

peak	n = 50					n = 100						
	c=0	c=1	c=2	c=10	c=0	c=1	c=2	c=10	c=0	c=1	c=2	c=10
1.5	134	120	94	103	974	848	885	904				
2	163	150	130	141	950	834	880	933				
2.5	134	148	126	134	1149	1051	1098	932				
3	132	148	125	138	759	824	659	718				
4	159	178	155	142	956	1048	882	967				
5	158	180	157	144	955	1069	1100	988				
6	131	173	155	120	970	1244	915	1006				
7	133	159	127	161	938	1038	873	970				
8	131	175	157	141	939	1053	1105	1043				
9	135	178	158	144	955	1280	1138	1026				
10	157	204	188	174	1129	1245	1106	1371				
15	134	180	187	181	941	1252	1109	762				
20	158	207	189	175	962	1276	1131	1143				

Table 1(b). Poisson Decomposition Count (SVD.CD)

peak	n = 50					n = 100						
	c=0	c=1	c=2	c=10	c=0	c=1	c=2	c=10	c=0	c=1	c=2	c=10
1.5	5.0	4.4	3.5	3.10	5.0	4.4	4.6	4.10				
2	6.1	5.6	4.8	4.12	5.0	4.4	4.7	4.12				
2.5	5.0	5.5	4.7	4.12	6.0	5.5	5.8	4.11				
3	5.0	5.5	4.7	4.13	4.0	4.4	3.6	3.11				
4	6.0	6.6	5.8	4.15	5.0	5.5	4.7	4.13				
5	6.0	6.7	5.9	4.15	5.0	5.6	5.8	4.14				
6	5.0	6.6	5.9	3.16	5.1	6.6	4.9	4.15				
7	5.0	5.5	4.7	4.19	5.0	5.5	4.7	4.14				
8	5.0	6.6	5.9	4.14	5.0	5.6	5.9	4.17				
9	5.1	6.6	5.9	4.15	5.0	6.7	5.9	4.16				
10	6.0	7.7	6.10	5.16	6.0	6.6	5.9	5.23				
15	5.1	6.7	6.10	5.18	5.0	6.6	5.9	3.13				
20	6.0	7.7	6.10	5.16	5.0	6.6	5.9	4.19				

Table 2(a). Binomial Run Times

size	prob	n = 50					n = 100						
		c=0	c=1	c=2	c=10	c=0	c=1	c=2	c=10	c=0	c=1	c=2	c=10
10	.3	108	87	90	91	943	827	671	692				
	.2	106	118	125	131	970	829	858	882				
	.1	133	118	92	97	968	860	885	937				
	.05	135	148	130	135	1171	1064	898	977				
	.01	-	-	-	-	1166	1046	1097	935				
20	.3	109	91	92	96	743	604	632	635				
	.2	137	119	123	127	760	617	636	645				
	.1	109	120	124	129	780	838	650	680				
	.05	165	151	159	168	795	849	681	742				
	.01	-	-	-	-	1351	1261	1103	1225				
	.005	-	-	-	-	1513	1676	1536	1683				

Table 2(b). Binomial Decomposition Count (SVD.CD)

size	prob	n = 50					n = 100						
		c=0	c=1	c=2	c=10	c=0	c=1	c=2	c=10	c=0	c=1	c=2	c=10
10	.3	5.0	4.4	3.5	3.8	5.0	4.4	3.6	3.8				
	.2	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.9	5.0	4.4	4.6	4.8				
	.1	4.0	3.3	3.5	3.6	5.0	4.5	4.7	4.11				
	.05	5.0	5.5	4.8	4.11	6.0	5.5	4.7	4.12				
	.01	-	-	-	-	6.0	5.5	5.8	4.11				
20	.3	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.9	4.0	3.3	3.5	3.6				
	.2	5.1	4.4	4.6	4.8	4.1	3.3	3.5	3.7				
	.1	4.1	3.4	3.5	3.7	4.1	4.4	3.5	3.8				
	.05	6.0	5.5	5.8	5.12	4.0	4.4	3.6	3.10				
	.01	-	-	-	-	7.0	6.6	5.8	5.14				
	.005	-	-	-	-	8.0	8.8	7.11	7.20				