

# Nonlinear Regression

Department of Statistics, University of South Carolina

Stat 705: Data Analysis II

## Chapter 13 Parametric nonlinear regression

Throughout most of STAT 704 and 705, we concentrated on linear models where  $E(Y_i) = \mathbf{x}'_i \boldsymbol{\beta}$ . Notable exceptions arose when we considered non-normal data. For logistic regression we had  $E(Y_i) = e^{\mathbf{x}'_i \boldsymbol{\beta}} / [1 + e^{\mathbf{x}'_i \boldsymbol{\beta}}]$ ; Poisson regression gave us  $E(Y_i) = t_i e^{\mathbf{x}'_i \boldsymbol{\beta}}$ .

Sometimes scientists have a parametric non-linear mean function in mind for normal data. Theoretical considerations may lead to such a model, or else empirical evidence collected over time. Examples: dose-response models, growth curves, heating in swine due to MRI.

## Parametric nonlinear regression

A parametric nonlinear model (13.1–13.5) has a prespecified parametric form indexed by parameters  $\gamma$

$$Y_i = f(\mathbf{x}_i, \gamma) + \epsilon_i.$$

For example the exponential growth/decay model is

$Y_i = \gamma_0 e^{\gamma_1 x_i} + \epsilon_i$ . Data reduction takes place through the estimation of  $\gamma = (\gamma_0, \gamma_1)$  and  $\sigma$ .

Other examples are the logistic growth curve

$Y_i = \gamma_0 [1 + \gamma_1 \exp(\gamma_2 x_i)]^{-1} + \epsilon_i$  and the von Bertalanffy growth curve  $Y_i = L_\infty [1 - \exp(-K(x_i - x_0))] + \epsilon_i$ .

Note that model diagnostics are similar to the linear case, for example  $r_i = Y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i, \hat{\gamma})$  can be used to assess model adequacy.

## Fitting parametric nonlinear models

Fitting of such models is carried out via maximum likelihood using Newton-Raphson. Several functions in SAS can carry this out; PROC NL MIXED is the most versatile, while PROC NLIN is the old-school workhorse. Good starting values can make or break the program (as we'll see); you need to think about what the parameters represent in the model.

There is a bit on fitting at the end of the logistic regression notes. In your book see pp. 517–521. This theory is covered in more detail in STAT 823 (large sample theory) and STAT 740 (advanced statistical computing).

PROC NL MIXED provides the MLE's as well as standard errors. Also, functions of parameters can be estimated as well.

# Example: Demand Curve Analysis

Article



## A Bayesian hierarchical model for demand curve analysis

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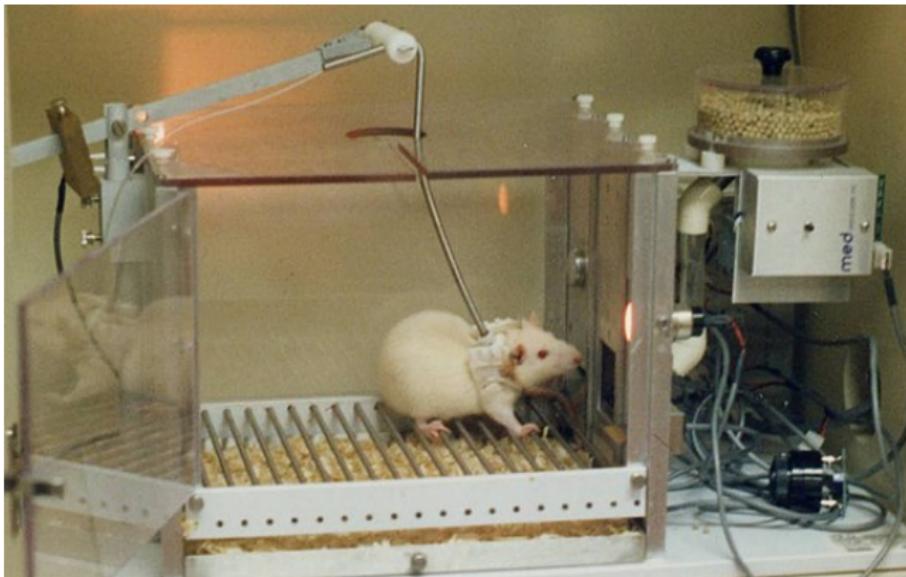
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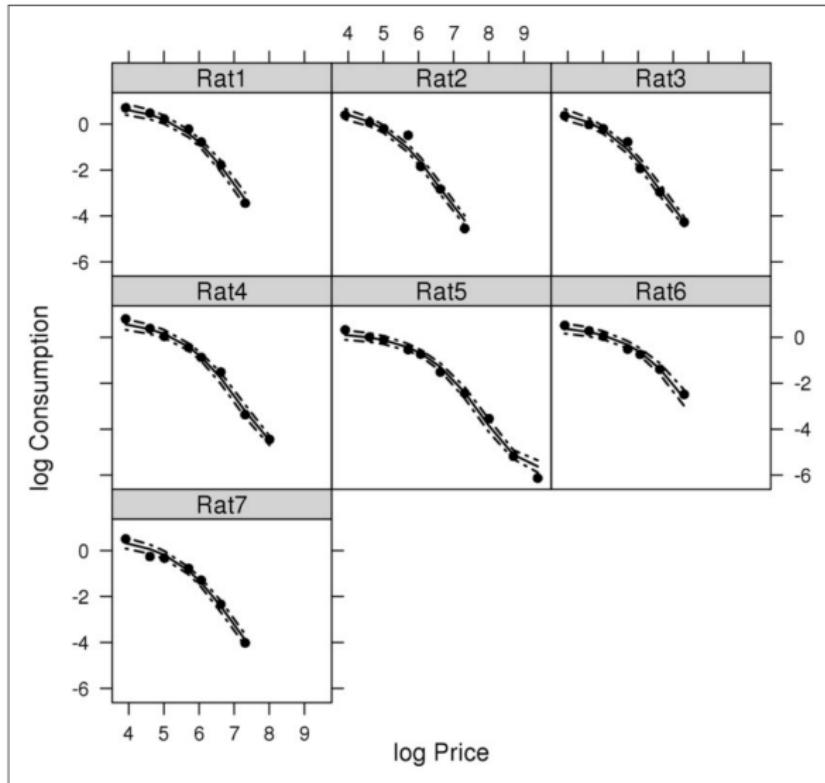
### Abstract

Drug self-administration experiments are a frequently used approach to assessing the abuse liability and reinforcing property of a compound. It has been used to assess the abuse liabilities of various substances such as psychomotor stimulants and hallucinogens, food, nicotine, and alcohol. The demand curve generated from a self-administration study describes how demand of a drug or non-drug reinforcer varies as a function of price. With the approval of the 2009 Family Smoking Prevention and Tobacco Control Act, demand curve analysis provides crucial evidence to inform the US Food and Drug Administration's policy on tobacco regulation, because it produces several important quantitative measurements to assess the reinforcing strength of nicotine. The conventional approach popularly used to analyze the demand curve data is individual-specific non-linear least square regression. The non-linear least square approach sets out to minimize the residual sum of squares for each subject in the dataset; however, this one-subject-at-a-time approach does not allow for the estimation of between- and within-subject variability in a unified model framework. In this paper, we review the existing approaches to analyze the demand curve data, non-linear least square regression, and

# Animal Self-administration Experiment



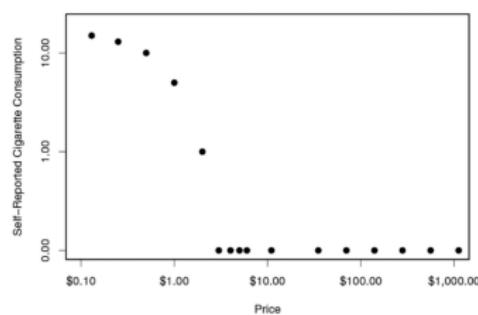
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	Price	50	100	150	300	429	750	1500	3000	6000	12000
Males											Nicotine consumption
1		2.022	1.611	1.246	0.8	0.4571	0.1692	0.032			
2		1.482	1.08	0.82	0.613	0.1589	0.0588	0.0106			
3		1.44	0.981	0.814	0.46	0.1449	0.052	0.014			
4		2.22	1.461	1.04	0.643	0.4179	0.22	0.0346	0.0117		
5		1.38	1.011	0.9	0.587	0.4809	0.22	0.088	0.029	0.00565	0.002175
6		1.68	1.32	1.046	0.6	0.476	0.2492	0.0834			
7		1.656	0.771	0.72	0.46	0.2751	0.096	0.018			
Females											
1		3	1.44	1.026	0.683	0.168	0.0652				
2		2.22	0.969	0.9	0.263	0.147	0.032				
3		1.62	0.831	0.734	0.287	0.0959	0.0428	0.0094			
4		3.36	1.899	1.126	0.683	0.567	0.3348	0.0586			
5		1.998	1.17	1	0.55	0.4571	0.2188	0.0606	0.0193	0.0108	
6		1.842	1.221	1.094	0.72	0.5159	0.2732	0.1314	0.0227	0.00885	
7		2.322	1.35	0.926	0.67	0.4501	0.232	0.04	0.0157		

# The Hursh-Sylberberg Model



$$\log Q = \log Q_0 + k(e^{-\alpha P} - 1)$$

- $P$  is Price
- $Q$  is Demand/Consumption
- $Q_0$  is Level of demand when price approaches 0
- $k$  is related to the range of  $Q$
- $\alpha$  is a measure of elasticity: the rate of decline in relative log consumption
- $P_{max}$ : is the corresponding unit price.
- $O_{max}$ : is the maximum expense (price times consumption) a person is willing to spend for a commodity

## Scientific Question

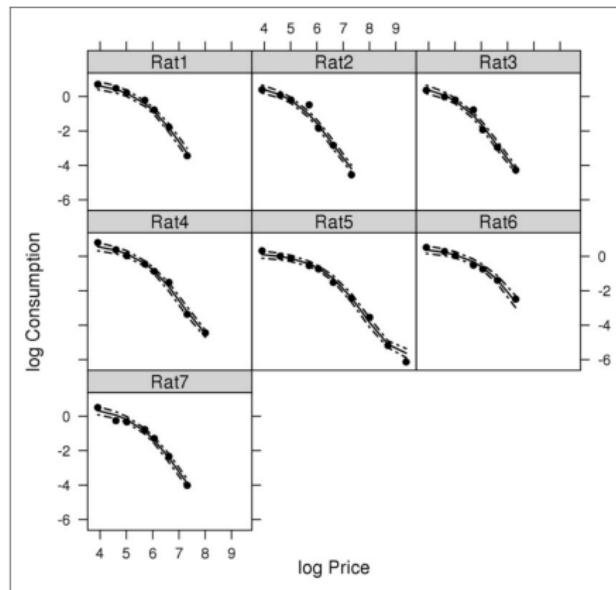
- Is the relative reinforcing efficacy (RRE) the same for female and male rats?
- Translate: Are  $\alpha$ ,  $Q_{max}$ ,  $P_{max}$  the same for male and female rats?

## Various Approaches

- Individual-specific non-linear least squares regression model (NLIN)
- Mixed-effects model
- Bayesian Hierarchical Model

# The non-linear least squares regression model (NLIN)

- Estimating K based on  $(\log_e Q_{max} - \log_e Q_{min})$  and set as a constant for all individuals
- Estimating  $\alpha$  and  $Q_0$  by minimizing the residual sum of squares, one-individual-at-a-time.



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# Mixed-Effects Model

$$Y_{ij} = [C_0 + C_M I(Male_i = 1) + u_i] + e^{\log K} \{e^{-(\alpha_0 + \alpha_M I(Male_i=1) + b_i)P_j} - 1\} + \epsilon_{ij}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix} \sim N_2(0, \Sigma)$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_u^2 & \rho\sigma_u\sigma_b \\ \rho\sigma_u\sigma_b & \sigma_b^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- $C_M, \alpha_M$

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## Bayes' Theorem

$$f(\theta|data) = \frac{f(data|\theta)f(\theta)}{f(data)}$$

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$$f(\theta|data) \propto f(data|\theta)f(\theta)$$

A flat prior means all possible values are equally likely

# Bayesian Hierarchical Model Approach

$$\eta_{ij} = (C_0 + C_M I(\text{Male}_i) + u_i) + e^{\log K} \left\{ e^{-[(\alpha_0 + \alpha_M I(\text{Male}_i) + b_i)P_j]} - 1 \right\}$$

Let  $\pi(\theta)$  be the prior joint distribution of  $C_0, C_M, u_i, \log K, \alpha_0, \alpha_M, b_i, \tau$  where  $\theta = (C_0, C_M, u_i, \log K, \alpha_0, \alpha_M, b_i, \tau)$ . The random effects follow a multivariate normal:

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix} \sim MVN \left[ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \Sigma \right], \Sigma^{-1} \sim \text{Wishart}(\Omega, p)$$

where  $\Omega$  is a scale matrix, a prior guess for the covariance matrix and  $p$  is the degrees of freedom. The likelihood can be written as

$$L(Y|\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^N \prod_{j=1}^M [f(y_{ij}|\eta_{ij}, \tau)]$$

Thus, the posterior joint distribution of  $C_0, C_M, u_i, \log K, \alpha_0, \alpha_M, b_i, \tau$  given the observations is proportional to

$$\prod_{i=1}^N \prod_{j=1}^M [f(y_{ij}|\eta_{ij}, \tau)] \pi(C_0) \pi(C_M) \pi(u_i) \pi(b_i) \pi(\log K) \pi(\alpha_0) \pi(\alpha_M) \pi(\tau)$$

# Comparison of the three approaches

**Table 4.** Mean relative errors for demand curve parameters based on 1000 datasets.

Number of rats in each simulation	Parameter	Non-linear least square	Mixed Effects	Bayesian approach
$N=10$	$\alpha_0$	-0.27	0.0061	0.0106
	$\alpha_M$	0.06	0.0086	0.0140
	$\log K$	0.12	0.0003	-0.0002
	$C_0$	0.18	0.0006	0.0057
	$C_M$	0.59	-0.0126	0.0000
$N=20$	$\alpha_0$	-0.35	-0.0017	0.0009
	$\alpha_M$	-0.05	-0.0240	-0.0195
	$\log K$	0.14	0.0003	0.0000
	$C_0$	0.11	-0.0034	-0.0021
	$C_M$	0.57	-0.0280	-0.0303
$N=30$	$\alpha_0$	-0.40	0.0017	0.0029
	$\alpha_M$	-0.10	0.0109	0.0125
	$\log K$	0.15	-0.0001	-0.0003
	$C_0$	0.06	0.0087	0.0046
	$C_M$	0.63	0.0385	0.0215
$N=40$	$\alpha_0$	-0.43	0.0020	0.0030
	$\alpha_M$	-0.16	-0.0006	0.0005
	$\log K$	0.16	0.0002	0.0000
	$C_0$	0.03	0.0039	0.0055
	$C_M$	0.55	-0.0053	-0.0041
$N=50$	$\alpha_0$	-0.46	0.0005	0.0016
	$\alpha_M$	-0.21	0.0010	0.0015
	$\log K$	0.17	0.0003	0.0002
	$C_0$	-0.01	0.0035	0.0044

# Comparison of the three approaches

**Table 5.** Empirical coverage probability of 95% confidence/credible interval and interval lengths based on 1000 datasets.

Number of rats in each simulation	Parameter	nonlinear least square		Mixed effects		Bayesian approach	
		Coverage probability	CI length	Coverage probability	CI length	Coverage probability	Equal-tail CI length
$N = 10$	$\alpha_0$	0.18	3.05	0.97	2.95	0.94	2.55
	$\alpha_M$	0.89	3.75	0.97	3.78	0.95	3.27
	$C_0$	0.74	0.76	0.88	0.57	0.93	0.66
	$C_M$	0.86	1.07	0.88	0.78	0.94	0.92
	logK	NA	NA	0.98	0.07	0.95	0.06
$N = 20$	$\alpha_0$	0.01	2.29	0.96	1.90	0.95	1.77
	$\alpha_M$	0.89	2.71	0.96	2.43	0.95	2.26
	$C_0$	0.75	0.59	0.88	0.41	0.96	0.45
	$C_M$	0.85	0.83	0.89	0.57	0.95	0.63
	logK	NA	NA	0.96	0.05	0.95	0.04
$N = 30$	$\alpha_0$	0.00	1.93	0.96	1.51	0.95	1.44
	$\alpha_M$	0.84	2.20	0.96	1.93	0.95	1.83
	$C_0$	0.77	0.51	0.87	0.34	0.94	0.37
	$C_M$	0.81	0.73	0.88	0.47	0.94	0.52
	logK	NA	NA	0.95	0.04	0.94	0.04
$N = 40$	$\alpha_0$	0.00	1.66	0.94	1.29	0.94	1.24
	$\alpha_M$	0.78	1.88	0.96	1.65	0.95	1.58
	$C_0$	0.77	0.45	0.88	0.30	0.94	0.32
	$C_M$	0.82	0.64	0.89	0.41	0.94	0.45
	logK	NA	NA	0.95	0.03	0.95	0.03
$N = 50$	$\alpha_0$	0.00	1.47	0.95	1.14	0.94	1.10
	$\alpha_M$	0.72	1.64	0.96	1.45	0.95	1.41
	$C_0$	0.73	0.41	0.87	0.27	0.95	0.29
	$C_M$	0.82	0.58	0.90	0.38	0.95	0.40
	logK	NA	NA	0.95	0.03	0.96	0.03