# STAT347: Generalized Linear Models Lecture 4

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# Today's topics:

- Deviance analysis
- Model checking with the residuals
- Example: Building a GLM
- Reading: Agresti Chapters 4.4, 4.7, Faraway Chapters 8.3-8.4

#### Deviance analysis in GLM

```
## Call:
## glm(formula = y ~ weight + factor(color), family = poisson(),
##
       data = Crabs)
##
## Deviance Residuals:
##
       Min
                 10
                    Median
                                   30
                                           Max
## -2.9833 -1.9272 -0.5553
                              0.8646
                                        4.8270
##
## Coefficients:
                  Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
##
## (Intercept) -0.04978
                              0.23315 -0.214
                                                0.8309
                              0.06811 8.019 1.07e-15 ***
## weight
                 0.54618
## factor(color)2 -0.20511
                              0.15371 -1.334
                                                0.1821
## factor(color)3 -0.44980
                              0.17574 -2.560
                                                0.0105 *
## factor(color)4 -0.45205
                              0.20844 -2.169 0.0301 *
## ___
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
   (Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)
##
##
                                                            \searrow \sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2
       Null deviance: 632.79 on 172 degrees of freedom
##
## Residual deviance: 551.80 on 168 degrees of freedom
                                                            \sim \sum_i (y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)^2
## AIC: 917.1
##
## Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 6
```

• In linear regression, we use

$$R^{2} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i} (y_{i} - \hat{\mu}_{i})^{2}}{\sum_{i} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}} = \frac{\sum_{i} (\hat{\mu}_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}}{\sum_{i} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}}$$

To evaluate how well the model fits the data. We have an analogy in GLM, which is the deviance analysis.

#### Definition of deviance

Consider density function  $f(y;\theta) = e^{\frac{y\theta - b(\theta)}{a(\phi)}} f_0(y;\phi)$  at two values  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_2$ . Measure the "distance" between two distributions:

$$D(\theta_1, \theta_2) = 2\mathbb{E}_{\theta_1} \left\{ \log \frac{f(y; \theta_1)}{f(y; \theta_2)} \right\} = 2\mathbb{E}_{\theta_1} \left\{ y(\theta_1 - \theta_2) - b(\theta_1) + b(\theta_2) \right\} / a(\phi)$$
$$= 2 \left[ \mu_1(\theta_1 - \theta_2) - b(\theta_1) + b(\theta_2) \right] / a(\phi)$$

Remember the 1-to-1 mapping between  $\mu$  and  $\theta$ , we also write  $D(\mu_1, \mu_2) = D(\theta_{\mu_1}, \theta_{\mu_2})$ 

- $D(\mu_1, \mu_2) \ge 0$  and the equality holds only when  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$
- Generally,  $D(\mu_1, \mu_2) \neq D(\mu_2, \mu_1)$
- KL divergence:  $D(\mu_1, \mu_2)/2$
- If f is the normal density, then  $D(\mu_1, \mu_2) = (\mu_1 \mu_2)^2 / \sigma^2$

#### Residual deviance

- Saturated model: imagine the case that we collect an infinite number of covariates, then we can perfectly fit the data and obtain  $\hat{\mu}_i = y_i$  for all samples.
- For a particular sample *i*, Deviance between the saturated model  $\hat{\mu}_i = y_i$  and another model with  $\mu_i$  (corresponding canonical parameter  $\theta_i$ )

$$D(\theta_1, \theta_2) = 2\mathbb{E}_{\theta_1} \left\{ \log \frac{f(y; \theta_1)}{f(y; \theta_2)} \right\} = 2\mathbb{E}_{\theta_1} \left\{ y(\theta_1 - \theta_2) - b(\theta_1) + b(\theta_2) \right\} / a(\phi)$$
$$= 2 \left[ \mu_1(\theta_1 - \theta_2) - b(\theta_1) + b(\theta_2) \right] / a(\phi)$$

$$D(y_i, \mu_i) = \frac{2[y_i(\theta_{y_i} - \theta_i) - b(\theta_{y_i}) + b(\theta_i)]}{a(\phi)}$$
$$= -2\log[f(y_i, \theta_i)/f(y_i, \theta_{y_i})]$$

• 
$$\theta_{y_i} = (b')^{-1}(y_i)$$
 [As  $\mu_i = b'(\theta_i)$ ]

#### Residual deviance

• Residual deviance (total deviance): deviance between the fitted saturated model and the proposed model

$$egin{split} D_+(y,\hat{\mu}) &= \sum_i D(y_i,\hat{\mu}_i) \ &= -2\sum_i \log\left[f(y_i,\hat{ heta}_i)/f(y_i, heta_{y_i})
ight] \end{split}$$

• 
$$\theta_{y_i} = (b')^{-1}(y_i)$$

• Example: for Gaussian linear model  $D_+(y, \hat{\mu}) = \sum_i (y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)^2 / \sigma^2$ 

### Null deviance

• Null model: the linear model that only includes intercept. Thus,

 $\mu_i \equiv \mu$ 

- MLE estimate of  $\mu$  from the null model will be  $\hat{\mu} = \overline{y} = \sum_i y_i / n$
- Null deviance: deviance between the fitted saturated model and the null model

$$\sum_i D(y_i, ar{y})$$

• "*R*<sup>2</sup>" in GLM:

$$1 - \frac{D_+(y,\hat{\mu})}{\sum_i D(y_i,\bar{y})}$$

#### Deviance analysis for nested models

Let 
$$\beta = \begin{pmatrix} \beta^{(1)} \\ \beta^{(2)} \end{pmatrix}$$
 where  $\beta^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{p_1}$  and  $X = \begin{pmatrix} X^{(1)} & X^{(2)} \end{pmatrix}$ .  
We call  $\mathcal{M}^{(1)}$  with  
 $g(\mu_i) = X^{(1)}\beta^{(1)}$ 

a nested model of the full model  ${\mathcal M}$  where

$$g(\mu_i) = X\beta.$$

- Test for whether the nested model is already enough:  $H_0: \beta^{(2)} = 0$ 

#### Deviance analysis for nested models

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Let  $\hat{\beta}^{(1)}$  be the MLE solution of the model  $\mathcal{M}^{(1)}$  and  $\hat{\mu}^{(1)}$  be the corresponding estimated expectations of y in the fitted model.

Then,

$$D_{+}(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\mu}^{(1)}) = D_{+}(y, \hat{\mu}^{(1)}) - D_{+}(y, \hat{\mu}) = -2\left[L(\hat{\beta}^{(1)}) - L(\hat{\beta})\right]$$

#### Deviance analysis for nested models

Let  $\hat{\beta}^{(1)}$  be the MLE solution of the model  $\mathcal{M}^{(1)}$  and  $\hat{\mu}^{(1)}$  be the corresponding estimated expectations of y in the fitted model.

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- Deviance additivity theorem (Efron, Annals of Statistics 1978)
- This is the likelihood ratio between the full and nested models
- Likelihood ratio test: If both p and  $p_1$  are fixed, then asymptotically under  $H_0$ :  $\beta^{(2)}=0$

$$D_+(y,\hat{\mu}^{(1)}) - D_+(y,\hat{\mu}) \to \mathcal{X}^2_{p-p_1}$$

#### Deviance analysis table for model comparisons

Say we partition our covariates as

$$X = (1, X_{(1)}, X_{(2)}, \cdots, X_{(J)})$$

and  $X_{(j)} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_j}$ . We can sequentially add each partition of covariates into the model (in some pre-determined order) and understand each partition's "relative contribution" with a deviance analysis table.

- $\hat{\beta}^{(j)}$  is the MLE solution of the GLM model with covariates  $X^{(j)} = (1, X_{(1)}, X_{(2)}, \cdots, X_{(j)})$
- $\hat{\mu}^{(j)}$  is the corresponding vector of expectations of  $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$  in the fitted model.

#### Deviance analysis table in R



- Add variables sequentially to check if larger models are necessary
- Similar to the analysis of variable table in linear regression
- Typically the full model can not be the saturated model as df in a saturated model is too large

### Deviance analysis table

• R output for the election counts example in Lecture 1

```
> result.glm <- glm(cbind(undercountNumber, votes) ~ pergore + factor(rural) + factor(econ) +</pre>
 factor(atlanta) + factor(equip), data = gavote, family = "binomial")
> anova(result.glm, test = "LRT")
Analysis of Deviance Table
                                                                                         equip: the voting method, takes live values LEVER, US-CC (optimal scan, central count), US-PC (optimal scan, precinct count)
                                                                                         "Paper", "PUNCH" (punch card)
Model: binomial, link: logit
                                                                                         econ: the economic level of the county, takes three values "middle", "poor" and "rich"
                                                                                         perAA: the percentage of African Americans
                                                                                         rural: whether the county is rural or urban
Response: cbind(undercountNumber, votes)
                                                                                         atlanta: whether the county is part of the Atlanta metropolitan area
                                                                                         gore: number of votes for Al Gore
                                                                                         bush: number of votes for George Bush
Terms added sequentially (first to last)
                                                                                         other: number of votes for other candidates
                                                                                         votes: total vote counts
                                                                                         ballots: number of ballots issued
```

	Df	Deviance	Resid. Df	Resid. Dev	Pr(>Chi)
NULL			158	36829	
pergore	1	5031.0	157	31798	< 2.2e-16 ***
factor(rural)	1	4197.2	156	27601	< 2.2e-16 ***
factor(econ)	2	7248.1	154	20353	< 2.2e-16 ***
factor(atlanta)	1	534.6	153	19818	< 2.2e-16 ***
factor(equip)	4	4150.5	149	15668	< 2.2e-16 ***
Signif. codes:	0	'***' 0.00	01'**'0.0	01 '*' 0.05	'.' 0.1''1

This analysis is reliable only when model assumptions for each corresponding null hold

## Model checking with the residuals

- As in the linear models, we can examine the residuals to help us check whether a model fits poor or not, and whether there are any outliers in the observations.
- Three types of residuals
  - Pearson residual

$$e_i = rac{y_i - \hat{\mu}_i}{\sqrt{v(\hat{\mu}_i)}} \qquad v(\hat{\mu}_i) = \widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(y_i)$$

• Standardized residual (similar as in linear regression)

$$r_i = \frac{e_i}{\sqrt{1 - \hat{h}_{ii}}}$$

where  $h_{ii}$  is the *i*th diagonal element of the  $H_W$  defined equation (4.19) of the Agresti chapter 4.4.5.

## Model checking with the residuals

- Three types of residuals
  - Pearson residual

$$e_i = rac{y_i - \hat{\mu}_i}{\sqrt{v(\hat{\mu}_i)}}$$
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• Deviance residual

$$d_i = \sqrt{D(y_i, \hat{\mu}_i)} \times \operatorname{sign}(y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)$$

### Residuals examples

- For Gaussian linear model
  - Pearson residual

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

• Deviance residual

$$d_i = \frac{y_i - \hat{\mu}_i}{\hat{\sigma}} = e_i$$

## Some intuition related to deviance residuals

- Deviance residuals are considered more "normal" than Pearson residuals
- Consider deviance residual of i.i.d samples

$$R = \operatorname{sign}(\bar{y} - \mu)\sqrt{D(\bar{y}, \mu)}.$$

- It has been shown that R converges to N(0,1) when sample size  $n \to \infty$ , and has better third order accuracy than corresponding Pearson residuals
- You can check Appendix C of McCullagh and Nelder, *Generalized Linear Models* for more math details

#### Some intuition related to deviance residuals



qq comparison of deviance residuals (black) with Pearson residuals (red); Gamma distribution  $k = 1, \theta = 1, n = 5$ ; B = 2000 simulations.

# Example: Building a GLM

• Check Example2 R notebook