

# Generalized linear model validation

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## The model

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Writing the linear model:

$$y_i = \alpha + \mathbf{x}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2) \quad (1)$$

Is the same as:

$$\mathbb{E}(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i) = \alpha + \mathbf{x}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} \quad (2)$$

as long as  $\mathbb{E}(\epsilon_i) = 0$ .

## Generalised linear model

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$$\begin{aligned} g\{\mathbb{E}(y_i|x_i)\} &= \eta_i = \alpha + x_i\beta \\ \mathbb{E}(y_i|x_i) &= g^{-1}(\eta_i) = g^{-1}(\alpha + x_i\beta) \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

**GLMs do not have a residual term**

## GLM Assumptions

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- ▶ No outliers
- ▶ Independence
- ▶ Correct distribution
- ▶ Correct link function
- ▶ Correct variance function (implied by previous two)

## Outline

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- ▶ Residual plots for checking GLM assumptions
- ▶ Issues with residuals in GLMs
- ▶ Types of residuals
- ▶ Residual diagnostics
- ▶ Dharma/quantile residuals
- ▶ Prediction error

## Residual diagnostics in GLMs

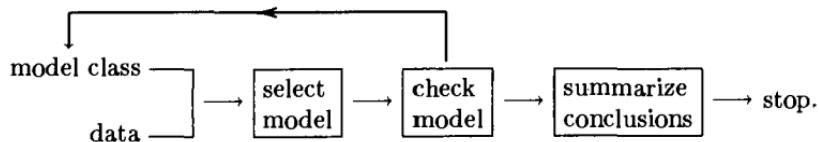


Figure 1: McCullagh and Nelder (1989) workflow

## Methods for checking GLM assumptions

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- ▶ Tests
- ▶ Outliers: Cook's distance, Residual vs. fitted
- ▶ Independence: Partial residual plots, Residuals vs. fitted, Rresiduals vs. lagged residuals
- ▶ Correct distribution: QQ-plot
- ▶ Correct link function: residuals vs. fitted, include  $\eta_i$  in the model (Hinkley 1985) , linear predictor against transformed response
- ▶ Correct variance function: Abs(residuals) vs. fitted

# Response residuals

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We could use the same residual as in linear regression:

$$\epsilon_i = y_i - \hat{\mu}_i$$

But we do not expect these to look nice in GLMs.

- ▶ Mean depends on variance
- ▶ We would rather have nice looking residuals (when assumptions are not violated)



## Defining GLM residuals: Pearson's

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We do not have a  $\epsilon_i$  term in GLMs, but we still calculate the residual similarly:

$$\epsilon_{i,pearson} = \frac{y_i - \hat{\mu}_i}{\sqrt{\text{var}(y_i; \mu_i, \phi)}} \quad (4)$$

as the scale difference between data and mean.

**Approximately normally distributed in large samples**

## Recall deviance?

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We do not have a  $\epsilon_i$  term in GLMs, but we do have the deviance function:

$$D(\mathbf{y}; \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) = \sum_{i=1}^n 2y_i \{g(y_i) - g(\hat{\mu}_i)\} - y_i + \hat{\mu}_i \quad (5)$$

Which represents distance to the saturated model.

## Defining GLM residuals: deviance

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$$D(\mathbf{y}; \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) = \sum_{i=1}^n 2y_i \{g(y_i) - g(\hat{\mu}_i)\} - y_i + \hat{\mu}_i \quad (6)$$

- ▶ Note the summation over the observations
- ▶ We can split this per observation!
- ▶  $d_i = 2y_i \{g(y_i) - g(\hat{\mu}_i)\} - y_i + \hat{\mu}_i$

### Deviance residuals

$$\epsilon_{i,deviance} = \text{sign}(y_i - \hat{\mu}_i) \sqrt{d_i}, \quad \text{so that} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_{deviance,i}^2 \quad (7)$$

**Approximately normally distributed in large samples**

## Why deviance residuals

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- ▶ Converges faster to approximate normality

(Dunn and Smyth 2018, Cox and Snell 1968)

- ▶ Otherwise, adjusted deviance residual
- ▶ Good for small samples (Pierce and Schafer 1986)
  - ▶ e.g. Poisson  $\mu_i^{-0.5}/6$

**Still inappropriate for discrete data and small samples**

## In practice

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In practice, both Pearson's and Deviance residuals are often non-normally distributed.

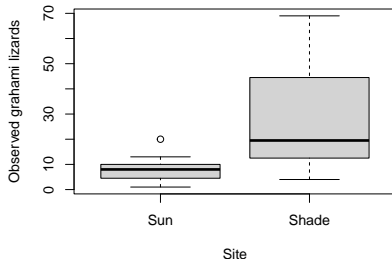
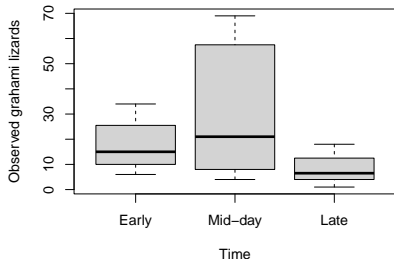
## Trying it out

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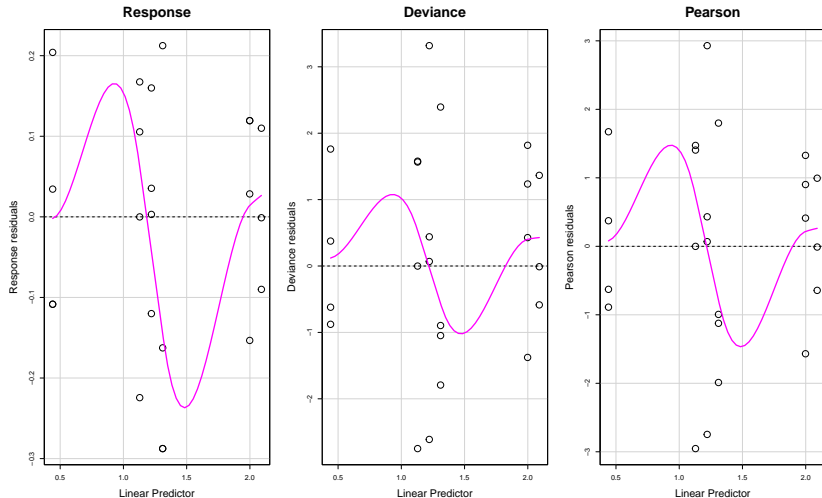
Figure 2: [nwf.org](http://nwf.org)

## Lizards: recap



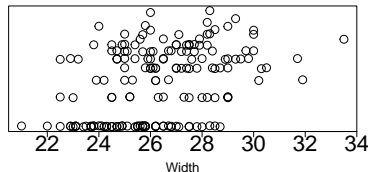
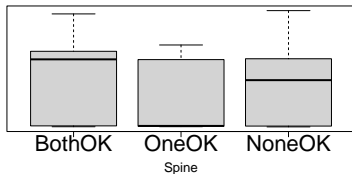
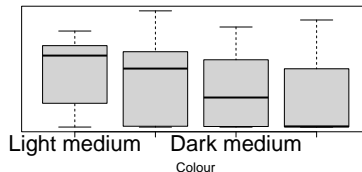
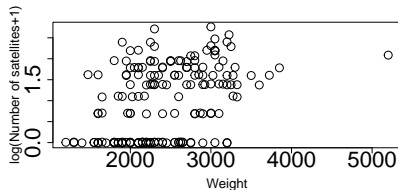
```
model1 <- glm(cbind(grahami, opalinus) ~ Time + Site,
               data = lizards, family = "binomial")
```

# Lizards: residuals



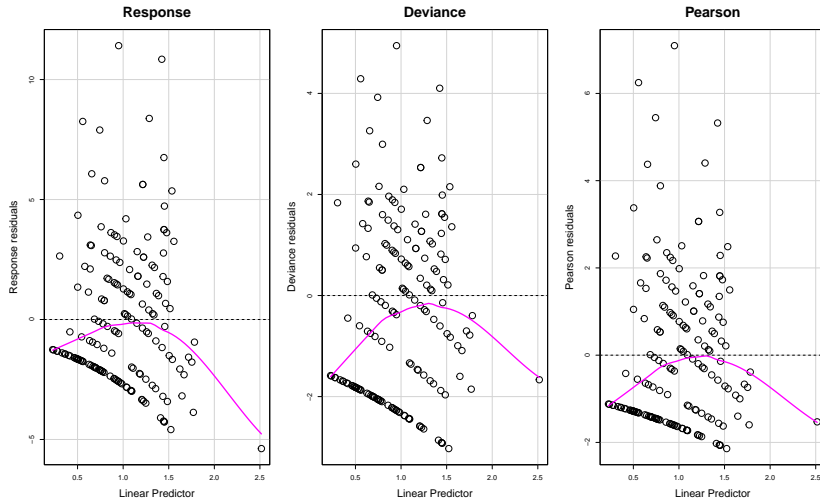


## Horseshoe crabs: recap

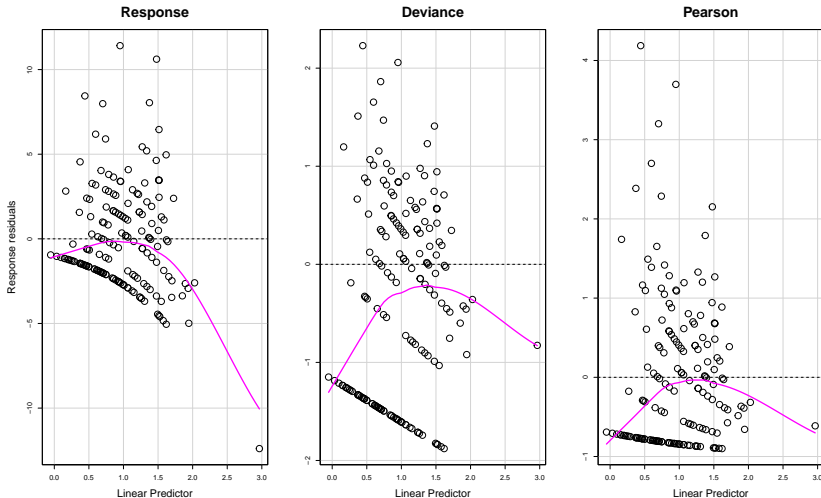


```
model2 <- glm(Sat ~ Spine + Colour + Width + Weight,
               family = "poisson", data = hcrabs)
```

# Horseshoe crabs: Poisson model residuals



# Horseshoe crabs: NB model residuals

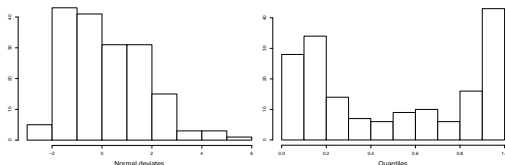


## Randomized Quantile residual (Dunn and Smyth 1996)

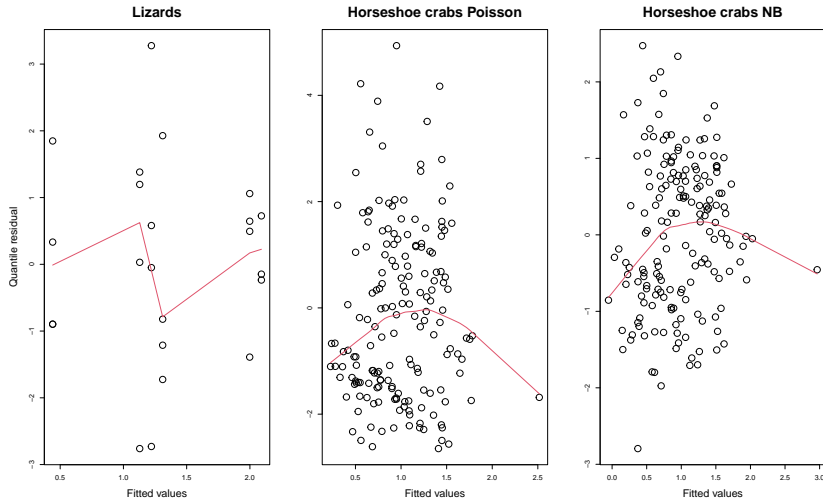
- ▶ Gold standard residual
- ▶ Better suited for small samples and discrete data types
- ▶ Exactly normally distributed
- ▶ Suitable for all kinds of models

### Continuous

$$r_Q = \Phi^{-1} \left\{ \mathcal{F} \left( y_i; \hat{\mu}_i, \hat{\phi} \right) \right\} \quad (8)$$



# Lizards and Horseshoe crabs



## Prediction

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When you are only interested in predictions, e.g.:

- ▶ 20 years from now
- ▶ on a map

Some assumptions might not matter. Generally, we still do not want structural deviations from the model.

## Finding a model that predicts well

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Usual procedure:

- 1) Fit model to a part of the data (“train” and “test”)
- 2) Predict for the remaining part (“test”)
- 3) Quantify prediction “error” (e.g., RMSE)

**Statistically leaving out data is weird. We want as much information for our model as possible.**

## Quantifying prediction error

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$$\text{MSE: } \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu_i)^2$$

$$\text{RMSE: } \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu_i)^2} \quad \text{MAD: } \text{median}(|\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}|)^2$$

Or another metric. “AUC” is often used in binomial models.

**For prediction, we want a model that performs well on one of these metrics.**



## “Test” data is not external/independent

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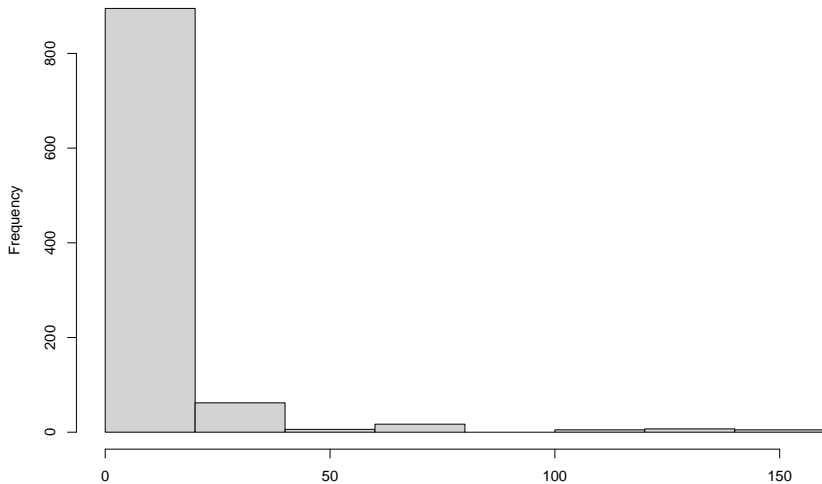
- ▶ Test data is usually collected under the same circumstances
- ▶ It is not really external!
- ▶ Better procedure: fit model to all data, collect new data for testing

## Leave-one-out cross-validation Horseshoe crabs

```
SE <- NULL
for(i in 1:1000){
  set.seed(i)
  test <- sample(1:nrow(hcrabs), size = 1)
  train <- hcrabs[-test,]
  model <- update(model3, data = train)
  SE <- c(SE, (train[test, "Sat"] -
    predict(model, newdata = train[test, ], type="response"))^2)
}
```

## Result

### Leave-one-out

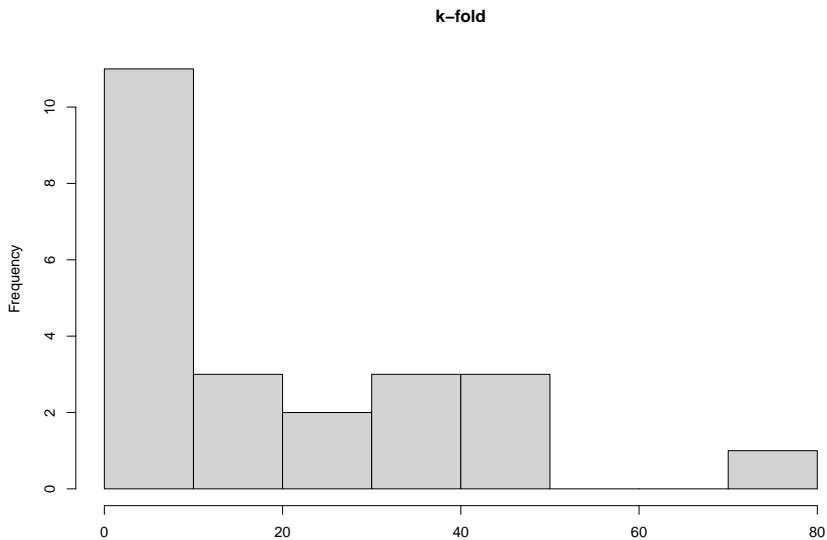


## K-fold cross-validation Horseshoe crabs

```

k = 5
SE <- NULL
shuffle <- sample(1:nrow(hcrabs), nrow(lizards))
for(i in seq(1,nrow(hcrabs),by=k)){
  set.seed(i)
  test <- i:min(i+k-1,nrow(hcrabs))
  train <- hcrabs[shuffle, ][-test,]
  model <- update(model3, data = train)
  SE <- c(SE,(hcrabs[shuffle, ][test, "Sat"]-
    predict(model,newdata = hcrabs[shuffle, ][test, ], type="re
  }
  
```

## Result



## Stratified cross-validation

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- ▶ Cross-validation in a structured fashion: time or space.
- ▶ Select roughly equal partitions
  - ▶ Time: fit to a few years per partition
  - ▶ Space: areas
- ▶ I.e., blocking for non-independent responses

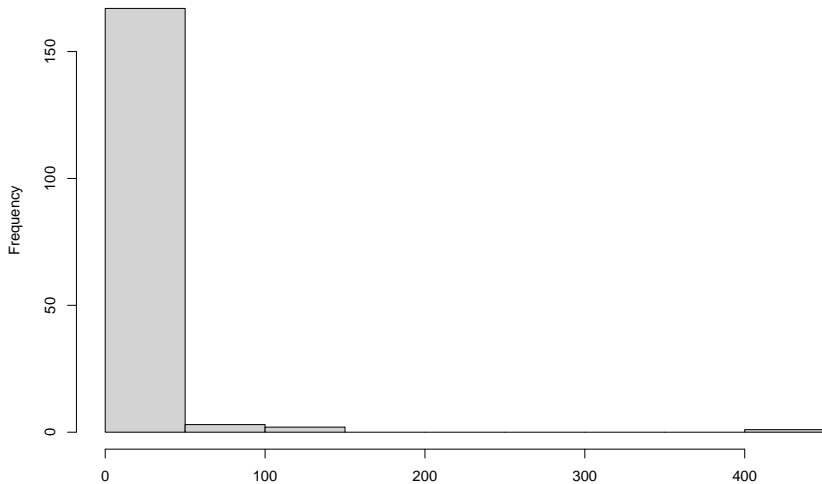
## Stratified k-fold cross-validation Horseshoecrabs

```

k = 5
SE <- NULL
for(i in seq(1,nrow(hcrabs),by=k)){
  set.seed(i)
  test <- i:min(i+k-1,nrow(hcrabs))
  train <- hcrabs[order(hcrabs$Weight),][-test,]
  model <- update(model3, data = train)
  SE <- c(SE,(hcrabs[order(hcrabs$Weight),][test, "Sat"]-
predict(model,newdata = hcrabs[order(hcrabs$Weight),][test, ], type="respo
})
  
```

## Result

### stratified k-fold





## Summary

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- ▶ I did not mention Anscombe residuals, nor working residuals
- ▶ Do not draw conclusions before validating your model
- ▶ Use residual diagnostics/plots!
- ▶ If violated, adjust the model
- ▶ For prediction, look at cross-validation
  - ▶ Consider the structure of the data
  - ▶ Use independently collected data
  - ▶ There are many forms of cross-validation and quantifying error
  - ▶ Find model that minimizes the prediction error

Useful packages: car, DHARMa, boot