IDS 702: Module 2.4

MODEL ASSESSMENT AND VALIDATION - BINNED RESIDUALS AND ROC CURVES

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MODEL ASSESSMENT AND VALIDATION

There are various types of residuals when working with generalized linear models (GLMs). For logistic regression in particular, we have

Response residuals

$$e_i = y_i - \hat{\pi}_i$$
.

Pearson residuals

$$e_i^P = rac{y_i - \hat{\pi}_i}{\sqrt{\hat{\pi}_i(1-\hat{\pi}_i)}},$$

which are obtained by "normalizing" the response residuals by the estimated Bernoulli standard deviation.

Deviance residuals

$$e_i^D = ext{sign}(y_i - \hat{\pi}_i) imes 2 \left(y_i ext{log} rac{y_i}{\hat{\pi}_i} + (1 - y_i) ext{log} rac{1 - y_i}{1 - \hat{\pi}_i}
ight),$$

which are the default in R when using the residuals() function. We will talk a bit more about deviance later, but deviance residuals represent the contributions of individual samples to the deviance.

MODEL ASSESSMENT AND VALIDATION

- Deviance residuals are usually the most appropriate for residual plots, when working with GLMs.
- However, unlike what we had for linear regression, just looking at the residuals does not work well here.
 - They are always positive when Y=1 and always negative when Y=0.
 - Also, constant variance is not an assumption of logistic regression.

Why is that the case?

Think about the properties of the Bernoulli distribution when we write $y_i|x_i\sim \mathrm{Bernoulli}(\pi_i)$

• We also do not have normality of residuals to work with either.

MODEL ASSESSMENT AND VALIDATION

- What we can do is check to see if the function of predictors is well specified using binned residuals.
- We can assess the overall fit of our model using deviance and change in deviance.
- We can also see how well our model predicts (model validation) using
 - Confusion matrix
 - ROC curves

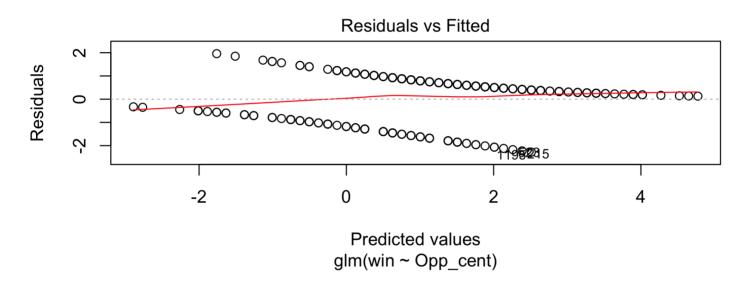
BINNED RESIDUALS

- Compute raw (response) residuals for fitted logistic regression.
- Order observations by values of predicted probabilities (or predictor values) from the fitted regression.
- Using ordered data, form g bins of (approximately) equal size. Default: $g=\sqrt{n}$.
- Compute average residual in each bin.
- Plot average residual versus average predicted probability (or average predictor value) for each bin.
- Use the arm package in R.

Recall the NBA data

```
nba <- read.csv("data/nba_games_stats_reduced.csv",header=T)
nba <- nba[nba$Team=="SAS",]
colnames(nba)[3] <- "Opp"
nba$win <- rep(0,nrow(nba))
nba$win[nba$WINorLOSS=="W"] <- 1
nba$win <- as.factor(nba$win)
nba$Opp_cent <- nba$Opp - mean(nba$Opp)
nbareg <- glm(win~Opp_cent,family=binomial(link=logit),data=nba)</pre>
```

plot(nbareg,which=1)



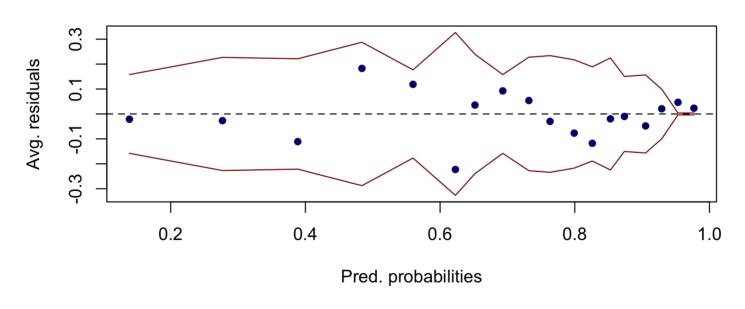
The residuals are the deviance residuals, while the predicted values are on the linear (logit) scale, that is, $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$.

Look to see which cases have large absolute values for cases that don't fit well, but not too useful otherwise.

Plot binned raw residuals versus predicted probabilities (arm package).

```
binnedplot(fitted(nbareg),residuals(nbareg,"resp"),xlab="Pred. probabilities",col.int="rec
    ylab="Avg. residuals",main="Binned residual plot",col.pts="navy")
```

Binned residual plot



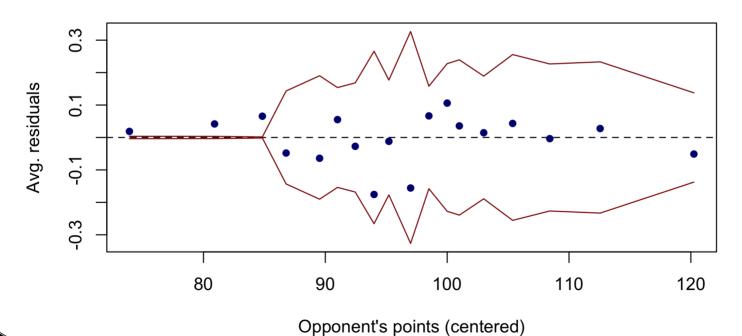


Look for "randomness" with almost all points within the red lines.

- Useful as a "one-stop shopping" plot; especially with many predictors and you want an initial look at model adequacy.
- What we have is mostly good, although model seems to struggle for fitted values over 0.95 or so.
- The red lines represent ± 2 SE bands, which we would expect to contain about 95% of the observations.
- Too few points here to draw any conclusions!
- You usually want many more data points before these plots start being useful.

Plot binned raw residuals versus individual predictors.

Binned residual plot





- Mostly good, although model seems to struggle for low values of opponent's points.
- Also, too many points (16.7%) outside the bands.
- However, still too few points here for any conclusive takeaways.
- We also know some important predictors are missing by construction...

DEVIANCE

- To assess overall model fit, we can also look at deviance.
- Deviance measures how well the model fits the data, when compared to the saturated model, that is, an abstract model that fits the sample perfectly.
- Precisely, deviance is defined as the difference of likelihoods between the fitted model and the saturated model:

$$D = -2 [\text{Log Likelihood(Fitted Model}) - \text{Log Likelihood(Saturated Model})].$$

 However, this "abstract saturated model" will have likelihood equal to one, so that deviance is simply

$$D = -2 ext{ Log Likelihood(Fitted Model)} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left[y_i ext{log}(\hat{\pi}_{1i}) + (1-y_i) ext{log}(1-\hat{\pi}_{1i})
ight].$$

- Note that deviance is always larger or equal than zero, and will only be zero if the fit is "perfect".
- Overall, deviance is a measure of error, so that, lower values of deviance means better fit to the data.



DEVIANCE

- Like the metrics used under MLR, it is also often useful to use deviance for a model in relation to another model. We will revisit this soon.
- For now, a model we can use for this comparison is the null model, that is, the model with only the intercept.
- Intuitively, this gives us a sense of how much the model improves from the "worst model", by the addition of the predictors.
- The deviance of the null model, denoted D_0 , is thus referred to as the null deviance.
- To get a general sense of how much better the fitted model is to the null model, compare D to D_0 , usually through the difference $D_0 D$.
- The "larger" this change in deviance $D_0 D$ is, the more confident we are that the predictors we have included improve model fit.
- In large samples, D_0-D has approximately a chi-squared distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the difference in the number of predictors between the two models.



For the NBA data for example, we see what looks like a meaningful difference in the two deviance scores.

```
summary(nbareg)
##
## Call:
## glm(formula = win ~ Opp cent, family = binomial(link = logit),
      data = nba
##
##
## Deviance Residuals:
      Min
                     Median
                                  30
                10
                                          Max
## -2.2760 -0.7073 0.4454 0.7902
                                       1.9593
##
## Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
##
## (Intercept) 1.13387
                          0.15145 7.487 7.06e-14
            -0.12567 0.01655 -7.594 3.11e-14
## Opp_cent
##
## (Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
##
      Null deviance: 400.05 on 327 degrees of freedom
## Residual deviance: 313.42 on 326 degrees of freedom
## AIC: 317.42
##
## Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5
```

 We can formalize this by doing a chi-squared test on the null model vs our fitted model. That is,

```
nbareg_null <- glm(win~1,family=binomial(link=logit),data=nba)
anova(nbareg_null,nbareg,test= "Chisq")

## Analysis of Deviance Table
##
## Model 1: win ~ 1
## Model 2: win ~ Opp_cent
## Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
## 1 327 400.05
## 2 326 313.42 1 86.63 < 2.2e-16</pre>
```

- The low p-value then confirms our previous statement.
- We will revisit this again when we look at logistic regression with multiple predictors.
- We will be able to use deviance for model comparison and selection by looking at the change in deviance $D_{M_1}-D_{M_2}$, for two models M_1 and M_2 , where M_1 is nested within M_2 .

CONFUSION MATRIX

- We can use the estimated probabilities from our fitted model to predict outcomes, and then compare those to the observed values.
- For example, we could decide to predict Y=1 when the predicted probability exceeds 0.5 and predict Y=0 otherwise.
- We then can determine how many cases we classify correctly and incorrectly.
- lacktriangle Resulting 2 imes 2 table is called the confusion matrix.
- When mis-classification rates are high, model may not be an especially good fit to the data.

CONFUSION MATRIX

		Observed		
		Y=1	Y=0	
Predicted	Y=1	TP (True Positives)	FP (False Positives)	
	Y=0	FN (False Negatives)	TN (True Negatives)	

■ True positive rate (TPR) =
$$\frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$
 (also known as sensitivity)

False negative rate (FNR) =
$$\frac{FN}{TP + FN}$$

■ True negative rate (TNR) =
$$\frac{TN}{FP + TN}$$
 (also known as specificity)

■ False positive rate (FPR) =
$$\frac{FP}{FP + TN}$$
 (1 - specificity)

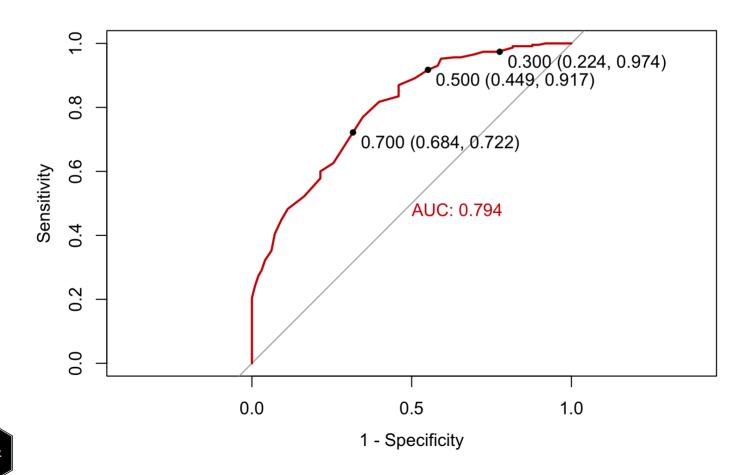
ROC CURVES

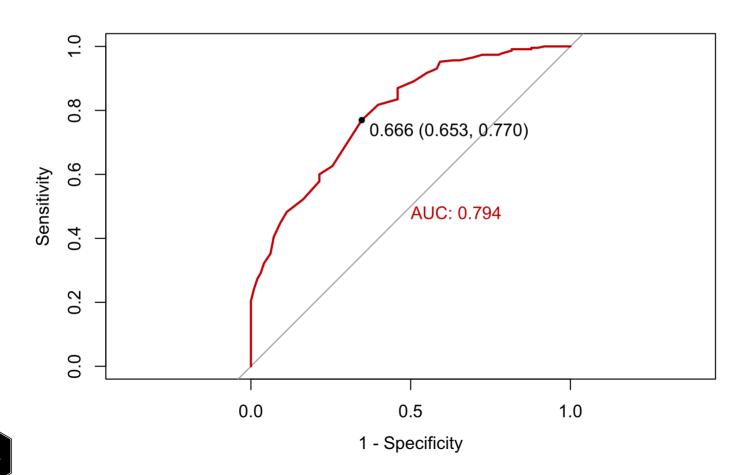
- We want high values of sensitivity and low values of (1 specificity)!
- The receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve plots
 - Sensitivity on Y axis
 - 1 specificity on X axis
- Evaluated at lots of different values (beyond 0.5) for the threshold.
- Good fitting logistic regression curves toward the upper left corner, with area under the curve (AUC) near one.
- Make ROC curves in R using the pROC package.
- $\begin{tabular}{ll} \blacksquare & \begin{tabular}{ll} \textbf{By the way, we also often define accuracy as } & $TP+TN$\\\hline\hline\hline $TP+FN+FP+TN$. \\ \begin{tabular}{ll} \textbf{This estimates how well the model predicts correctly overall.} \\ \end{tabular} .$

Let's look at the confusion matrix for the NBA data. Load the arm, e1071, caret, and pROC packages.

```
Conf_mat <- confusionMatrix(as.factor(ifelse(fitted(nbareg) >= 0.5, "W","L")),
                            nba$WINorLOSS,positive = "W")
Conf mat$table
##
            Reference
## Prediction L W
##
           L 44 19
           W 54 211
Conf mat$overall["Accuracy"];
## Accuracy
## 0.777439
Conf_mat$byClass[c("Sensitivity","Specificity")]
## Sensitivity Specificity
    0.9173913 0.4489796
```

confusionMatrix produces a lot of output. Print the Conf_mat object to see all of them.





WHAT'S NEXT?

MOVE ON TO THE READINGS FOR THE NEXT MODULE!

