# STAT347: Generalized Linear Models Lecture 4

Today's topics: Agresi Chapters 4.4.6, 4.5, 4.7

- Model diagnosis with residuals
- Computation of the ML estimate
- Example: building a GLM

# 1 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:

$$e_i = \frac{y_i - \hat{\mu}_i}{\sqrt{v(\hat{\mu}_i)}}$$

where  $v(\hat{\mu}_i) = \widehat{\text{Var}}(y_i)$ . For instance, if  $y_i \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu_i)$  then  $v(\hat{\mu}_i) = \hat{\mu}_i$ . As we have shown in Lecture 2, in general  $v(\hat{\mu}_i) = b''(\hat{\theta}_i)a(\hat{\phi})$ .

• Deviance residual:

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

For instance, for the Gaussian linear model,  $D(y_i, \hat{\mu}_i) = (y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)^2 / \sigma^2$ , and the deviance residual is the same as the Pearson residual. As a rule of thumb, an observation is fitted poorly by the GLM model if  $|d_i| > 2$ .

• As in the linear models, the mean of  $e_i$  is typically smaller than 1 as  $\hat{\mu}_i$  is estimated. After some calculations (see Chapter 4.4.5), one can compute a more accurate variance of  $y_i - \hat{\mu}_i$ .

Standardized residual:

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

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

## 2 Computation

Score equation:

$$\dot{L}(\beta) = X^T D V^{-1}(y - \mu) = 0$$

where

$$L(\beta) = \sum_{i} [y_i \theta_i - b(\theta_i)]$$

(This is the log-likelihood ignoring the quantities involving  $\phi$  that does not affect the estimation of  $\beta$ )

#### 2.1 Newton's method

Second-order approximation of  $L(\beta)$ 

$$L(\beta) \approx L(\beta^{(t)}) + \dot{L}(\beta^{(t)})^{T}(\beta - \beta^{(t)}) + \frac{1}{2}(\beta - \beta^{(t)})^{T} \ddot{L}(\beta^{(t)})(\beta - \beta^{(t)})$$

at tth iteration. If  $\ddot{L}(\beta^{(t)}) \leq 0$ , then maximizing the second-order approximation is equivalent to solving

$$\dot{L}(\beta) \approx \dot{L}(\beta^{(t)}) + \ddot{L}(\beta^{(t)})(\beta - \beta^{(t)}) = 0$$

We have

$$\beta^{(t+1)} = \beta^{(t)} - \ddot{L}(\beta^{(t)})^{-1}\dot{L}(\beta^{(t)})$$

- Newton's method is a general algorithm for optimizing twice-differentiable functions.
- Converge to the global maximum if  $L(\beta)$  is strongly concave
  - If  $g(\cdot)$  is the canonical link, then  $L(\beta)$  is concave in  $\beta$

$$-\ddot{L}(\beta^{(t)}) = X^T W^{(t)} X = X^T V^{(t)} X = -\mathbb{E}\left(\ddot{L}(\beta^{(t)})\right) \succeq 0$$

- If  $g(\cdot)$  is a general link, then  $L(\beta)$  is NOT guaranteed to be concave in  $\beta$
- If  $-\ddot{L}(\beta^{(t)})$  is not non-negative, than step i does not maximize the quadratic approximation and Newton's method may not converge.
- We can use another quadratic approximation that works better in practice: Fisher scoring method

#### 2.2 Fisher scoring method

In lecture 2, we showed that  $-\mathbb{E}\left(\ddot{L}(\beta)\right) \succeq 0$  for any  $\beta$ .

Instead of using the Hessian  $\ddot{L}(\beta^{(t)})$ , use its expectation

$$J^{(t)} = \mathbb{E}\left(\ddot{L}(\beta^{(t)})\right) = -X^T W^{(t)} X$$

instead of  $\ddot{L}(\beta^{(t)})$  itself in the second-order approximation. Each iteration becomes:

$$\beta^{(t+1)} = \beta^{(t)} - \left(J^{(t)}\right)^{-1} \dot{L}(\beta^{(t)})$$

#### 2.3 Iteratively reweighted least squares (IRLS)

We can make a connection between the optimization for GLM and weighted least squares estimation.

Recall the score equation:

$$\dot{L}(\beta) = X^T D V^{-1}(y - \mu) = 0$$

where  $V = \operatorname{diag}(\operatorname{Var}(y_1), \dots, \operatorname{Var}(y_n))$  and  $D = \operatorname{diag}(g'(\mu_1), \dots, g'(\mu_n))^{-1},$   $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$  and  $\mu = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n).$ 

Also in lecture 2, we used the notation  $\eta_i = X_i^T \beta = g(\mu_i)$ . Thus,  $D = \operatorname{diag}\left(\frac{\partial \mu_1}{\partial \eta_1}, \cdots, \frac{\partial \mu_n}{\partial \eta_n}\right)$ . We also defined the diagnoal matrix  $W = D^2 V^{-1}$ . Thus,

$$\dot{L}(\beta) = X^T D V^{-1}(y - \mu) = X^T W D^{-1}(y - \mu)$$

We can make a first order approximation of  $\mu$ 

$$\mu = \mu^{(t)} + D^{(t)}(\eta - \eta^{(t)})$$

then

$$\dot{L}(\beta) \approx X^T W^{(t)}(z^{(t)} - X\beta)$$

where

$$z^{(t)} = X\beta^{(t)} + \left(D^{(t)}\right)^{-1} (y - \mu^{(t)})$$

is a linear approximation of  $\eta$  at the tth iteration.

Thus, at the t + 1th iteration, we solve

$$X^{T}W^{(t)}(z^{(t)} - X\beta) = 0$$

which can be considered as a weighted linear regression with observations  $z_i^{(t)}$  and weight  $w_i$  for each sample i.

- IRLS is equivalent to Fisher scoring, see Section 4.5.4
- weight matrix  $W^{(t)} \approx \operatorname{Var}\left(z^{(t)}\right)^{-1}$

## 3 Data examples

Please check the R notebook 2.

Next time: Chapter 5.1 - 5.2, binary data model, application scenarios