# Gradient test for generalised linear models with random effects

Antonio Hermes Marques da Silva Junior<sup>12</sup>, Jochen Einbeck<sup>1</sup>, Peter S. Craig<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Durham University, Durham, UK

 $^2\,$  Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Norte, Natal, Brazil

E-mail for correspondence: a.hermes.marques-da-silva-jun@durham.ac.uk

**Abstract:** This work develops the gradient test for parameter selection in generalised linear models with random effects. Asymptotically, the test statistic has a  $\chi^2$  distribution and the statistic has a compelling feature: it does not require computation of the Fisher information matrix. Performance of the test is verified through Monte Carlo simulations of size and power, and also compared to the likelihood ratio, Wald and Rao tests. The gradient test provides the best results overall when compared to the traditional tests, especially for smaller sample sizes.

Keywords: Generalised linear models; random effects; asymptotic test.

## 1 Generalised linear models with random effects

Consider a generalised linear model with random effects (GLMwRE) for a data set containing n independent observations of a response variable, denoted  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \ldots, y_n)^{\top}$ , which by definition has a distribution in the exponential family, and corresponding observations on p explanatory variables, denoted  $\mathbf{x}_i^{\top} = (x_{i1}, \ldots, x_{ip})^{\top}$  for  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ . The linear predictor for the *i*-th observation is  $\eta_i = \mathbf{x}_i^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} + z_i$  where  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_p)^{\top}$  is the vector of regression parameters and  $z_i$  is an unobserved random effect. The relationship between  $y_i$  and  $\eta_i$  is given by the conditional mean  $\mu_i = \mathbf{E}[y_i|z_i]$  and the monotonic and differentiable link function,  $g(\cdot)$  such that  $\mu_i = g^{-1}(\eta_i)$ . The  $z_i$  can be considered as sampled from  $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ , where  $\sigma > 0$ . An alternative nonparametric approach is to leave the distribution of  $z_i$  unspecified. In either case, the distribution of  $z_i$  may be approximated by a discrete distribution with finite support. Then the likelihood function  $L^*(\boldsymbol{\beta})$  for the GLMwRE and its approximation  $L(\boldsymbol{\beta})$  can

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be written as (Aitkin et al., 2009)

$$L^{*}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \int f(y_{i}|\boldsymbol{\beta}, \phi, z_{i}) \varpi(z_{i}) dz_{i}$$

$$\approx \prod_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_{k} f(y_{i}|\boldsymbol{\beta}, \phi, \tilde{z}_{k}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_{k} f_{ik} = L(\boldsymbol{\beta}),$$
(1)

where  $f(\cdot)$  is the response density,  $\phi$  is the dispersion parameter,  $\varpi(\cdot)$  is the density of the random effect  $z_i$ ,  $\tilde{z}_k$  are mass points and  $\pi_k$  are mass probabilities. From (1) we have an approximate linear predictor for the k-th component of the *i*-th observation as  $g(\mu_{ik}) = \eta_{ik} = \mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} + \tilde{z}_k$  where  $\mu_{ik} = \mathbf{E}[y_i|z_i = \tilde{z}_k]$ . Let  $\mathbf{\ddot{y}}^\top = (\mathbf{y}^\top, \mathbf{y}^\top, \dots, \mathbf{y}^\top)$  be a vector of *nK*-dimension of pseudo-observations and the corresponding stacked linear predictor be

$$g(\boldsymbol{\mu}) = \boldsymbol{\eta} = \mathbf{\ddot{X}}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{\ddot{z}}$$
(2)

where  $\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} = (\mu_{11}, \ldots, \mu_{n1}, \ldots, \mu_{1K}, \ldots, \mu_{nK}), \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} = (\eta_{11}, \ldots, \eta_{n1}, \ldots, \eta_{1K}, \ldots, \eta_{nK}), \quad \boldsymbol{\ddot{z}}^{\top} = (\tilde{z}_1, \ldots, \tilde{z}_1, \ldots, \tilde{z}_K, \ldots, \tilde{z}_K)$  is the *n* times stacked mass point vector, and  $\boldsymbol{\ddot{x}}^{\top} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top}, \ldots, \mathbf{X}^{\top})$  is the *nK* × *p* pseudo model matrix, where  $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{x}_n)$ . Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) typically proceeds via the EM algorithm. In the non-parametric approach,  $\pi_k$  and  $z_k$  are estimated adaptively along with  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  in the M step and this is known as non-parametric maximum likelihood (NPML). Tabulated Gaussian quadrature points are used for  $\pi_k$  and  $z_k$  in the case of Gaussian random effects (the latter being scaled by a parameter  $\sigma$  which needs estimation).

# 2 The gradient test

The problem considered is that of testing a composite hypothesis  $\mathcal{H}_0: \mathcal{\beta}_1 = \mathcal{\beta}_1^{(0)}$  against a composite alternative  $\mathcal{H}_1: \mathcal{\beta}_1 \neq \mathcal{\beta}_1^{(0)}$ , where  $\mathcal{\beta} = (\mathcal{\beta}_1^\top, \mathcal{\beta}_2^\top)^\top$ ,  $\mathcal{\beta}_1 = (\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_q)^\top$  is a *q*-dimensional parameter of interest with  $q \leq p$ ,  $\mathcal{\beta}_2 = (\beta_{q+1}, \ldots, \beta_p)^\top$  is a (p-q)-dimensional nuisance parameter and  $\mathcal{\beta}_1^{(0)}$ is a specified vector. This induces the partitioning  $\mathbf{\ddot{X}} = (\mathbf{\ddot{X}}_1, \mathbf{\ddot{X}}_2)$ . Let

$$\mathbf{U}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \partial \log L(\boldsymbol{\beta}) / \partial \boldsymbol{\beta} = \{ \mathbf{U}_1^\top(\boldsymbol{\beta}_1, \boldsymbol{\beta}_2), \mathbf{U}_2^\top(\boldsymbol{\beta}_1, \boldsymbol{\beta}_2) \}^\top = \{ \mathbf{U}_1^\top, \mathbf{U}_2^\top \}^\top$$

be the corresponding partition of the total score function for  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ . The unrestricted MLE of  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  is  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1^{\top}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_2^{\top})^{\top}$  and the restricted MLE of  $\boldsymbol{\beta}_2$  under  $\mathcal{H}_0$  is written  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_2$ . Functions evaluated at the point  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{\top} = (\boldsymbol{\beta}_1^{(0)\top}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_2^{\top})$  will be distinguished by the addition of a tilde. The gradient statistic  $\xi_{\mathcal{T}}$  for testing  $\mathcal{H}_0$  versus  $\mathcal{H}_1$  has the simple form  $\xi_{\mathcal{T}} = \tilde{\mathbf{U}}_1^{\top}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 - \boldsymbol{\beta}_1^{(0)})$  (Terrell, 2002). In the context and notation set out earlier, one has  $\tilde{\mathbf{U}}_1 = \mathbf{X}_1^{\top} \tilde{\mathbf{D}} (\mathbf{\tilde{y}} - \tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}})$  and  $\mathbf{D}$ is the diagonal matrix with diagonal entries  $d_{11}, \ldots, d_{n1}, \ldots, d_{1K}, \ldots, d_{nK}$ 

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given by  $d_{ik} = (\phi \omega_{ik}/V_{ik})(d\mu_{ik}/d\eta_{ik})$  where  $\omega_{ik} = \pi_k f_{ik} / \sum_{l=1}^{K} \pi_l f_{il}$  and  $V_{ik}$  is the variance function applied to  $\mu_{ik}$ . Therefore, the gradient statistic formula for testing  $\mathcal{H}_0$  is

$$\xi_{\mathcal{T}} = (\mathbf{\tilde{y}} - \tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^{\top} \mathbf{\tilde{D}} \mathbf{\tilde{X}}_1 (\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1 - \boldsymbol{\beta}_1^{(0)}).$$
(3)

Based on Terrell's (2002) results, the distribution of  $\xi_{\mathcal{T}}$  tends under  $\mathcal{H}_0$  to the  $\chi^2(q)$  distribution as *n* increases. Theoretically, the  $\xi_{\mathcal{T}}$ , likelihood-ratio (LR)  $\xi_{\mathcal{LR}}$ , Wald  $\xi_{\mathcal{W}}$  and Rao  $\xi_{\mathcal{R}}$  statistics are asymptotically equivalent since they all have the same asymptotic distribution under  $\mathcal{H}_0$ . Nonetheless, for finite samples the size and/or power of the tests may differ. Consequently, we provide numerical simulation results to compare their performance.

## **3** Simulation experiment

We report results of Monte Carlo simulations assessing properties of  $\xi_T$  in finite samples. For this, we establish a model with linear predictor

$$\eta_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_{2i} + \beta_3 x_{3i} + \beta_4 x_{4i} + z_i$$
, for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ 

where  $x_1, x_3$  and  $x_4$  are samples of size n from  $\mathcal{U}(0,1), \mathcal{F}(2,5)$  and t(3), respectively. The parameter values are  $\beta_0 = 1$ ,  $\beta_1 = -1$ ,  $\beta_{2i} = (i \mod 3) - 1$ and  $\phi = 1$ . The random effects  $z_i$  are samples from  $\mathcal{N}(0, 8^{-2})$  for the Gaussian quadrature fitting and from a discrete distribution which takes Kvalues from  $\mathcal{N}(0, 8^{-2})$  and probabilities from  $\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$  for the NPML fitting. The simulation results are based on Normal with identity link and Poisson and Gamma models with log link function. We took samples of 50, 100, 200 and 400 observations and the number of replications was 10,000 and K = 3. Our aim is to test  $\mathcal{H}_0 : (\beta_3, \beta_4)^\top = (0, 0)^\top$  versus  $\mathcal{H}_1 : (\beta_3, \beta_4)^\top \neq 0$  $(0,0)^{\top}$ . Table 1 shows the null rejection rates of each test for two response distributions. Overall, the gradient statistic has rejection rates closer to the nominal levels. We set n = 400, K = 3 and  $\alpha = 5\%$  for the power simulations where we computed the rejection rates under the alternative hypothesis  $\beta_3 = \beta_4 = \delta$ , for  $-4 \le \delta \le 4$ . Figure 1 shows that the power curves for  $\xi_{\mathcal{LR}}$  and  $\xi_{\mathcal{T}}$  are practically identical and that  $\xi_{\mathcal{W}}$  and  $\xi_{\mathcal{R}}$  have rather unusual curves, especially for the NPML model.

#### 4 Concluding remarks

The gradient test shows itself as a useful inferential tool in the context of GLMwRE for several reasons. Firstly, its statistic requires neither the Fisher information matrix nor its inverse, which is an important simplification compared to the Wald and Rao statistics. Secondly according to our

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		Gaussian quadrature				NPML			
n	$\alpha$	$\xi_{\mathcal{LR}}$	ξw	$\xi_{\mathcal{R}}$	$\xi_T$	$\xi_{\mathcal{LR}}$	ξω	$\xi_{\mathcal{R}}$	$\xi_{\mathcal{T}}$
50	10	13.36	16.10	10.67	11.94	45.97	80.56	3.66	25.00
	5	7.12	9.52	5.24	6.06	33.62	76.57	1.91	16.19
	1	1.78	2.97	0.93	1.12	15.46	68.85	0.48	5.34
100	10	11.73	12.99	10.51	11.16	24.90	60.19	4.64	17.08
'mal	5	6.08	7.11	5.22	5.59	15.78	53.86	2.58	9.83
	1	1.25	1.72	0.96	1.08	5.18	43.30	0.74	2.50
jo 200	10	11.45	12.24	10.62	11.16	15.60	38.70	6.53	13.23
~	5	5.88	6.49	5.24	5.55	8.58	30.89	3.75	7.09
	1	1.21	1.48	1.02	1.08	2.47	19.79	1.23	1.72
400	10	10.47	10.95	9.98	10.32	12.78	23.99	9.35	11.96
	5	5.36	5.86	5.04	5.24	6.66	17.20	5.33	6.19
	1	1.15	1.29	0.99	1.09	1.53	8.31	1.70	1.25
50	10	10.11	11.92	7.90	10.48	9.36	4.89	16.50	8.91
	5	5.01	6.70	3.86	5.46	4.50	2.24	9.64	4.04
	1	1.13	1.74	0.83	1.40	0.73	0.42	2.82	0.60
100	10	10.32	12.15	8.56	10.50	9.98	5.31	16.78	9.57
uoss	5	5.20	6.51	4.18	5.43	4.97	2.49	10.06	4.75
	1	1.15	1.65	0.78	1.34	0.88	0.46	3.28	0.92
. <u>ö</u> 200	10	10.45	11.77	8.53	10.72	10.06	5.59	17.77	9.88
-	5	4.98	6.20	4.17	5.22	5.05	2.65	10.80	4.88
	1	0.95	1.47	0.74	1.12	0.93	0.52	3.25	1.01
400	10	9.68	11.15	8.25	9.82	9.50	5.06	16.52	9.68
	5	4.86	5.93	4.23	4.97	4.64	2.13	9.89	4.64
	1	0.97	1.41	0.77	1.04	0.87	0.46	2.83	0.93
50	10	13.81	24.13	12.27	15.77	37.47	68.51	7.06	27.24
	5	7.73	16.51	6.79	8.29	27.98	62.20	3.53	17.65
	1	2.07	7.37	1.77	1.89	13.62	51.27	0.93	6.31
100	10	11.98	18.52	11.62	13.08	22.97	52.04	5.31	18.65
Га	5	6.39	11.66	6.45	6.49	15.10	43.99	2.89	10.68
uu	1	1.54	4.49	2.05	1.39	6.06	31.10	0.90	2.84
ੁਸ਼ੂ 200	10	10.78	15.65	10.23	11.24	16.48	38.57	5.14	13.79
$\smile$	5	5.33	9.33	5.37	5.49	10.45	29.59	2.87	7.59
	1	1.18	2.82	1.64	1.12	3.60	16.98	0.78	1.58
400	10	10.38	13.21	9.80	10.49	14.10	28.43	5.72	12.22
	5	5.17	7.85	5.17	5.20	8.04	20.40	3.02	6.00
	1	1.08	1.99	1.43	0.91	2.63	10.04	0.77	1.28

TABLE 1. Null rejection rates (%).

simulations, the null rejection rates of the gradient test are much closer to the true nominal levels than the other three tests for the normal response

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FIGURE 1. Power of the four tests: n = 400, k = 3,  $\alpha = 5\%$ . Left, for Gaussian quadrature fitting and right, for NPML fitting.

model and both gradient and LR tests have good rates for the Poisson response. Finally, our power simulations suggest that the gradient and LR tests have similar power properties. In sum, this indicates that the gradient tests should be preferred in the context of GLMwRE.

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