

Count outcomes - Poisson regression (Chapter 6)

- Exponential family
- Poisson distribution
- Examples of count data as outcomes of interest
- Poisson regression
- Variable follow-up times - Varying number “at risk” - offset
- Overdispersion - pseudo likelihood
- Using Poisson regression with robust standard errors in place of binomial log models

The Exponential Family

- Assume Y has a distribution for which the density function has the following form:

$$f(y; \theta, \phi) = \exp \left\{ \frac{y\theta - b(\theta)}{a(\phi)} + c(y, \phi) \right\}$$

for some specific function $a(\cdot)$, $b(\cdot)$, and $c(\cdot, \cdot)$.

θ : canonical (natural) parameter – parameter of interest

ϕ : scale parameter – nuisance parameter

- The above density define an exponential family if ϕ is known; if ϕ unknown, it may or may not define a two-parameter exponential family, depending on the form of $c(y, \phi)$.
- Examples: Normal
 Binomial
 Poisson
 Negative Binomial
 Gamma

Properties of Exponential Family and Generalized Linear Models

- If ϕ is known in the previous density function, then:

$$\mu \equiv E[Y] = b'(\theta)$$

$$\text{Var}(Y) = b''(\theta) a(\phi)$$

- Generalized linear models (GLM):
 - We assume the observations are independent with non-constant variance.
 - We extend the linear model by:
 - Replacing the linear model for μ with a linear model for $g(\mu)$.
 - Replacing the constant variance assumption with mean-variance relationship.
 - Replacing the normal distribution with the exponential family.
 - Linear predictor: $\eta = X^T\beta$ (systematic component)
- Link function to link η and μ : $\eta = g(\mu)$ (when $\eta = \theta$, the corresponding link function is called the canonical link function)

Poisson distribution

- The Poisson distribution, $Y \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu)$, $\Pr(Y = y) = \frac{e^{-\mu} \mu^y}{y!}$, $\mu > 0$, is the most widely-used distribution for counts.
- The Poisson distribution assigns a positive probability to every nonnegative integer $0, 1, 2, \dots$, so that every nonnegative integer becomes a mathematical possibility (albeit practically zero possibility for most count values)
- The Poisson is different than the binomial, $\text{Bin}(n, \pi)$, which takes on numbers only up to some n , and leads to a proportion (out of n).
- But the Poisson is similar to the binomial in that it can be show that the Poisson is the limiting distribution of a Binomial for large n and small π . Furthermore, because of the simple form of the Poisson distribution, it is often computationally preferred over the Binomial.

Examples of count data

- Number of visits to emergency room during last year. A study looks at the effectiveness of a new treatment compared to standard care on reducing emergency room visits controlling for demographics and alcohol and drug use of individuals. (from VGSM)
- Number of damage reports on ships out to sea in the 1960-80. Look for systematic variables influencing the likelihood of damage occurring to the ship. (from McCullagh and Nelder 1989)
- Length of stay (in days) of hospital admissions. Look for systematic variables (i.e. insurance type, type of admission, demographics) related to the average length of stay (from Hardin and Hilbe 2007)
- Number of homicides within each census tract throughout the Twin Cities area. Look at whether there are relationships between homicide rate and density of alcohol outlets (Jones-Webb R and Wall MM. Neighborhood Racial/Ethnic Concentration, Social Disadvantage, and Homicide Risk: An Ecological Analysis of 10 Cities. *Journal of Urban Health*, 2008.

Examples of count data

- Number of injuries that resulted in lost work time during the construction of the Denver Airport. Look at characteristic of construction contracts and see if there are things that are related to higher injury rates (from Lowery et al *Am Journal of Industrial Medicine* 1998)
- Deaths from coronary heart disease after 10 years in a population of British male doctors. Look at how smoking is related to the risk of death. Have person time at risk (from Breslow and Day 1987).
- Count of number of abstainers of alcohol and how this is related to treatment. We can use Poisson regression (with robust standard errors) to estimate common risks in places where we might have computational problems using binomial regression.

The Poisson Regression model

Let Y_i be the observed count for experimental unit i

$$Y_i|X_i \sim \text{Poi}(\mu_i)$$

$$\log(\mu_i) = X_i\beta$$

The log link is the most commonly used, indicating we think that the covariates influence the mean of the counts (μ) in a multiplicative way, i.e. as a covariate increases by 1 unit, the log of the mean increases by β units and this implies the mean increases by a “fold-change” or “scale factor” of $\exp(\beta)$.

* The log link is the canonical link in GLM for Poisson distribution.

Poisson regression for modeling rates

Often we are modeling the count of events within a particular time period, or within a particular region, or within a particular risk group of people. In each of these cases what is of interest is to model the RATE.

So given, for example, a specific time period t , we want to model the events occurring in the time period t . Thus, the Poisson mean μ is better described as $\mu = \lambda * t$ where λ is the RATE of events.

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i | X_i &\sim Poi(\lambda_i * t_i) \\ \log(\lambda_i) &= \mathbf{X}_i \beta \\ \log(\mu_i / t_i) &= \log(\mu_i) - \log(t_i) = \mathbf{X}_i \beta \\ \log(\mu_i) &= \log(t_i) + \mathbf{X}_i \beta \end{aligned}$$

The term $\log(t_i)$ is known as the offset and it provides the adjustment for the variable risk sets (e.g. varying time periods followed for each person, or variable numbers of people at risk). It can be thought of as a predictor but it does not have a parameter in front of it to be estimated, so it must be treated different from other predictors in the software.

Poisson regression produces relative rates

Let Y_i be the count of events within a risk set t_i , and X_i predictors of interest.

Consider,

$$Y_i|X_i \sim Poi(\lambda_i * t_i)$$

$$\log(\lambda_i) = X_i\beta$$

$$\log(\mu_i) = \log(t_i) + X_i\beta$$

Now, a change of one unit in a predictor variable relates to β unit change in the log RATE (i.e. $\log(\lambda_i)$), so if we exponentiate this we have a Relative rate (or Rate ratio).

Over and Under dispersion

- Recall that if $Y \sim \text{Poi}(\mu)$ this means that $E(Y) = \mu$ AND $\text{Var}(Y) = \mu$. It is quite common for the equality of the mean and variance to be incorrect for count data. In other words, Poisson distributional assumption is often not strictly correct.
- A common cause of overdispersion is there are other variable causing variability in the outcome which are not being included in the model, unexplained random variation. Underdispersion does not have an obvious explanation.
- A common solution is to assume that the variance is proportional to the mean, i.e. $\text{Var}(Y) = \phi\mu$, and estimate the proportionality factor ϕ , which is called the scale parameter, from the data.
- Use the Goodness of fit tests (Pearson or the Residual Deviance) to estimate the ϕ . $\hat{\phi} = X^2/(n - p)$ or $\hat{\phi} = \text{Residual Deviance}/(n - p)$.

Adjusting for over/under-dispersion

- If $\hat{\phi} \gg 1$ we say the data exhibits overdispersion and if it is $\ll 1$ it is called underdispersion. Note when $\phi = 1$ this means $E(Y) = \text{Var}(Y)$ which is supportive of the Poisson assumption.
- There is no clear cut decision rules when to decide that there is definitely over/under dispersion. Common rule of thumb is > 2 .
- When controlling for over/under dispersion, basically, the parameter estimates do not change but the standard errors do. All standard errors are multiplied by $\sqrt{\hat{\phi}}$, hence they get wider in the case of overdispersion and smaller with underdispersion.
- In SAS simply add `/scale = deviance` OR `/scale = pearson` to the model statement.
- In Stata add `scale(x2)` or `scale(dev)` in the `glm` function.

Using Poisson regression for incidence rates

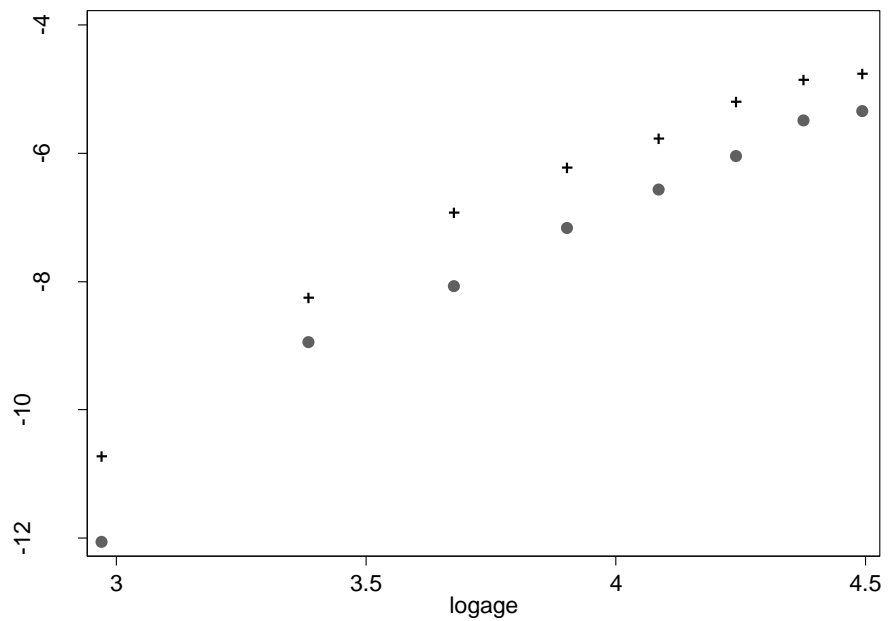
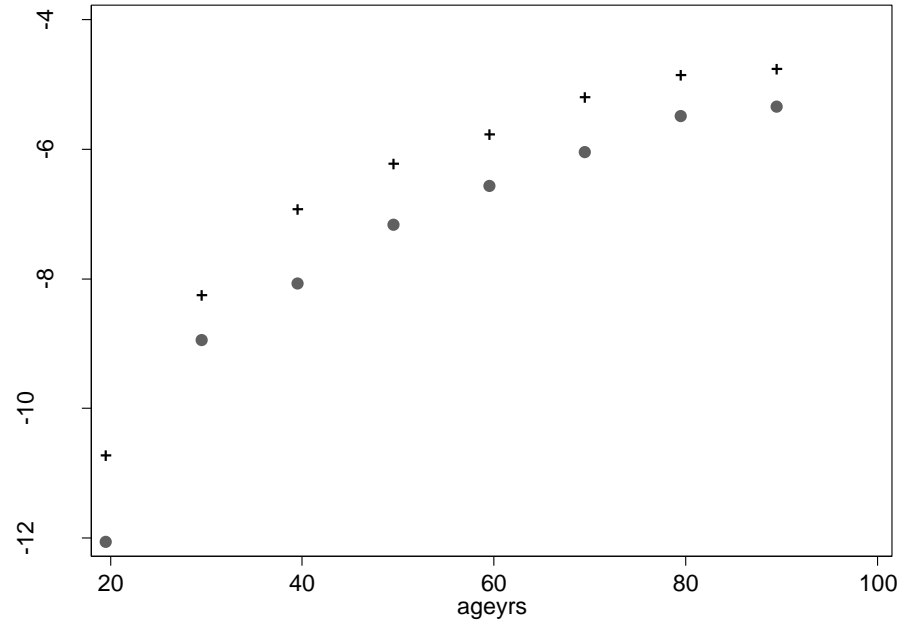
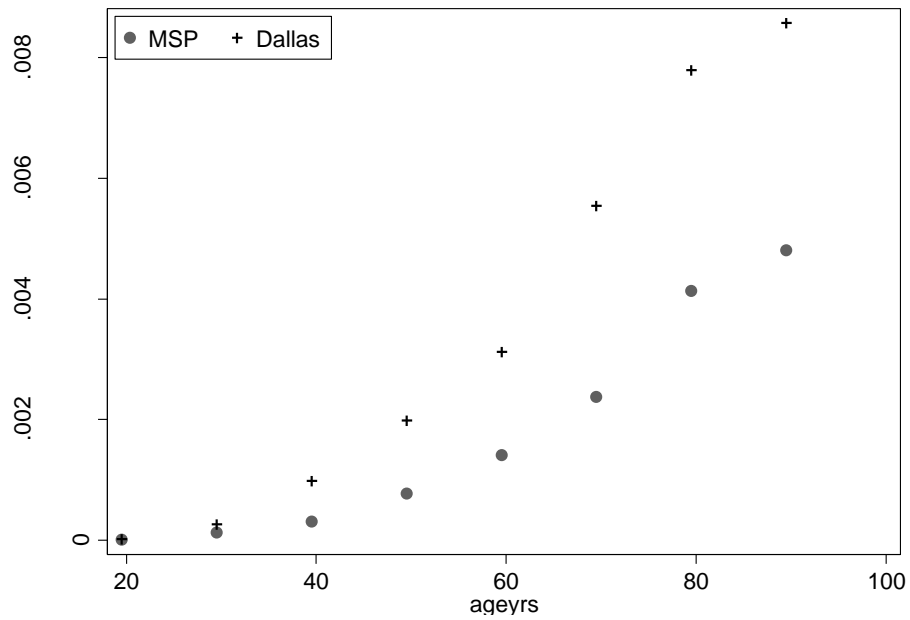
The data show the incidence of nonmelanoma skin cancer among women in Minneapolis-St Paul, Minnesota, and Dallas-Fort Worth, Texas in 1970. One would expect sun exposure to be greater in Texas than in Minnesota.

--Data from Kleinbaum, D., Kupper, L., and Muller, K. (1989). Applied regression analysis and other multivariate methods. PWS-Kent, Boston, Massachusetts. And adapted from Scotto, Kopf and Rubbach (1974)

```
input case town str5 age ageyrs pop
1 0 15-24 19.5 172675
16 0 25-34 29.5 123065
30 0 35-44 39.5 96216
71 0 45-54 49.5 92051
102 0 55-64 59.5 72159
130 0 65-74 69.5 54722
133 0 75-84 79.5 32185
40 0 85+ 89.5 8328
4 1 15-24 19.5 181343
38 1 25-34 29.5 146207
119 1 35-44 39.5 121374
221 1 45-54 49.5 111353
259 1 55-64 59.5 83004
310 1 65-74 69.5 55932
226 1 75-84 79.5 29007
65 1 85+ 89.5 7583
end
```

* town: 1 = Dallas, 0 = MSP

Skin Cancer data



Using Poisson regression for incidence rates: SAS

```
data skin1; set skin;
logpop = log(pop); ***by default log is natural log in SAS;
logage = log(ageyrs);
run;
****Using Poisson regression*****;
***categorical age;
proc genmod data = skin1;
class ageyrs;
model case = ageyrs town/ dist = poisson link = log offset = logpop;
estimate 'age adjusted RR of skincancer in Dallas vs MSP' town 1;
run;
***Continuous age;
proc genmod data = skin1;
model case = ageyrs town/ dist = poisson link = log offset = logpop;
estimate 'age adjusted RR of skincancer in Dallas vs MSP' town 1;
run;
***Log transformed continuous age;
proc genmod data = skin1;
model case = logage town/ dist = poisson link = log offset = logpop;
estimate 'age adjusted RR of skincancer in Dallas vs MSP' town 1;
run;
*****;
Using Binomial regression with log link - practically same answer;
*****;
proc genmod data = skin1;
class ageyrs;
model case/pop = ageyrs town / dist = binomial link = log;
estimate 'age adjusted RR of skincancer in Dallas vs MSP' town 1;
run;
```

Treating age as categorical

```
. glm case i.age_cat town, family(poisson) link(log) offset(logpop)
Generalized linear models                No. of obs      =          16
Optimization      : ML                   Residual df     =           7
                                                Scale parameter =           1
Deviance          = 8.258494053           (1/df) Deviance = 1.179785
Pearson          = 8.127296469           (1/df) Pearson  = 1.161042
Variance function: V(u) = u              [Poisson]
Link function    : g(u) = ln(u)          [Log]
                                                AIC             = 7.531475
Log likelihood   = -51.25179981          BIC             = -11.14963
```

		OIM				
case	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
age_cat						
2	2.630202	.4674615	5.63	0.000	1.713994 3.54641	
3	3.847367	.4546594	8.46	0.000	2.956251 4.738483	
4	4.595197	.4510287	10.19	0.000	3.711197 5.479197	
5	5.087289	.4503011	11.30	0.000	4.204715 5.969863	
6	5.645412	.4497475	12.55	0.000	4.763924 6.526901	
7	6.058534	.4503204	13.45	0.000	5.175923 6.941146	
8	6.17419	.4577405	13.49	0.000	5.277035 7.071345	
town	.8038983	.0522048	15.40	0.000	.7015788 .9062177	
_cons	-11.65761	.4487091	-25.98	0.000	-12.53706 -10.77816	
logpop	1	(offset)				

Treating age as categorical: Risk (Rate) Ratio

```
. glm, eform
Generalized linear models           No. of obs       =           16
Optimization      : ML              Residual df      =            7
                                          Scale parameter =            1
Deviance          = 8.258494053      (1/df) Deviance = 1.179785
Pearson           = 8.127296469      (1/df) Pearson  = 1.161042
Variance function: V(u) = u        [Poisson]
Link function     : g(u) = ln(u)    [Log]
                                          AIC              = 7.531475
Log likelihood    = -51.25179981    BIC              = -11.14963
```

	IRR	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	

age_cat						
2	13.87657	6.486763	5.63	0.000	5.55109 34.68855	
3	46.86951	21.30966	8.46	0.000	19.22577 114.2608	
4	99.00766	44.6553	10.19	0.000	40.90274 239.6543	
5	161.9502	72.92636	11.30	0.000	67.00151 391.452	
6	282.9902	127.2742	12.55	0.000	117.2049 683.2777	
7	427.7481	192.6237	13.45	0.000	176.9598 1033.955	
8	480.1938	219.8042	13.49	0.000	195.7885 1177.731	
town	2.234234	.1166376	15.40	0.000	2.016935 2.474944	
_cons	8.65e-06	3.88e-06	-25.98	0.000	3.59e-06 .0000208	
logpop	1	(offset)				

Treating age as continuous

```
. glm case ageyrs town, family(poisson) link(log) offset(logpop)
Generalized linear models           No. of obs       =           16
Optimization      : ML              Residual df     =           13
                                      Scale parameter =           1
Deviance          = 190.561268      (1/df) Deviance = 14.65856 <--***
Pearson           = 148.1964085     (1/df) Pearson  = 11.39972
Variance function: V(u) = u        [Poisson]
Link function     : g(u) = ln(u)    [Log]
                                      AIC              = 18.1754 <--***
Log likelihood    = -142.4031868    BIC              = 154.5176
```

case	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
ageyrs	.0600283	.0013123	45.74	0.000	.0574562	.0626003
town	.8192832	.0521801	15.70	0.000	.7170121	.9215543
_cons	-10.31721	.0955464	-107.98	0.000	-10.50448	-10.12994
logpop	1	(offset)				

```
. lincom town, rrr
( 1) [case]town = 0
```

case	RRR	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
(1)	2.268873	.11839	15.70	0.000	2.048304	2.513194

Treating log(age) as continuous

```
. glm case logage town, family(poisson) link(log) offset(logpop)
Generalized linear models          No. of obs      =          16
Optimization      : ML              Residual df    =          13
                                      Scale parameter =           1
Deviance          = 40.20069588      (1/df) Deviance = 3.092361 <--***
Pearson          = 34.36515837      (1/df) Pearson  = 2.643474
Variance function: V(u) = u        [Poisson]
Link function    : g(u) = ln(u)     [Log]
                                      AIC              = 8.777863 <--***
Log likelihood   = -67.22290072      BIC              = 4.157042
```

```
-----
              |                OIM
              |      Coef.  Std. Err.      z    P>|z|    [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
    logage |    3.313291   .0820583   40.38  0.000     3.15246   3.474122
      town |    .8095186   .0521754   15.52  0.000     .7072567   .9117806
     _cons |  -20.10271   .3423286  -58.72  0.000    -20.77367  -19.43176
    logpop |              1 (offset)
```

```
. lincom town, rrr
( 1) [case]town = 0
```

```
-----
              |      RRR   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|    [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
      (1) |    2.246826   .1172291   15.52  0.000     2.028419   2.48875
```

Binomial regression

```
. binreg case i.age_cat town, rr n(pop)
```

```
Generalized linear models                No. of obs      =           16
Optimization      : MQL Fisher scoring    Residual df     =            7
                  (IRLS EIM)            Scale parameter =            1
Deviance          =  8.281933795          (1/df) Deviance =  1.183133
Pearson          =  8.150373408          (1/df) Pearson  =  1.164339
Variance function: V(u) = u*(1-u/pop)    [Binomial]
Link function     : g(u) = ln(u/pop)      [Log]
                                          BIC              = -11.12619
```

		EIM				[95% Conf. Interval]	
case	Risk Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z			
age_cat							
2	13.87658	6.485948	5.63	0.000	5.551734	34.68456	
3	46.87123	21.30752	8.46	0.000	19.22882	114.251	
4	99.01094	44.65057	10.19	0.000	40.90913	239.6327	
5	161.95	72.91578	11.30	0.000	67.0099	391.4018	
6	282.9974	127.2581	12.55	0.000	117.2235	683.2037	
7	427.6687	192.555	13.46	0.000	176.9537	1033.607	
8	480.063	219.6807	13.49	0.000	195.7859	1177.104	
town	2.233754	.1164364	15.42	0.000	2.016814	2.47403	
_cons	8.65e-06	3.88e-06	-25.98	0.000	3.59e-06	.0000209	

*. Similar results as Poisson regression

Comparing models

- Fitzmaurice, G.M (1997). Model selection with overdispersed data, *The Statistician*, 46(1):81-91. recommends using Adjusted Information criterion to choose model in cases with overdispersion.

- The general form of information criterion is $= -2\log L + \text{penalty factor}$

$$\text{AIC} = -2\log L + 2 * p$$

$$\text{SC} = \text{Schwarz's Criterion} = \text{BIC} = -2\log L + 2 * p * \log(n)$$

$$\text{AICC (Corrected AIC)} = -2\log L + 2 * p * (n / (n - p))$$

- Recall that if $\hat{\mu}_i$ is small (less than 5) then the Deviance and Pearson are not good measures of the goodness-of-fit and using them as a measure of overdispersion is not recommended.
- This is the same rule of thumb that tells us not to use the chi-square test when expected cell sizes in a table are < 5 .

Note: In Stata, the AIC and BIC in `-glm-` output use different formula from `-estat ic-` command. The latter is closer to the SAS output (if not the same).

Ship damage example

- From McCullagh and Nelder (1989), Sec 6.3.2.
- Each row represents the AGGREGATED number of months of service and number of damage incidents to all ships in the fleet; particular type built in the particular year (60-64, 65-69, 70-74, 75-79) and operating during the particular time period (60-74, 75-79).
- Notice there are some structural zeros (0) under service because it was not possible for a ship built between 75-79 to operate between 1960-1974.

index	shiptype	year	period	months	damage
1	A	60	60	127	0
2	A	60	75	63	0
3	A	65	60	1095	3
4	A	65	75	1095	4
5	A	70	60	1512	6
6	A	70	75	3353	18
7	A	75	60	0	0
8	A	75	75	2244	11
9	B	60	60	44882	39
10	B	60	75	17176	29

Ship damage example: Stata output

```
. glm damage i.type i.year i.period, family(poisson) link(log) offset(logmonths)
Generalized linear models                No. of obs      =          34
Optimization      : ML                   Residual df     =          25
                                                Scale parameter =           1
Deviance          = 38.69504856           (1/df) Deviance = 1.547802
Pearson           = 42.2752462           (1/df) Pearson  = 1.69101
Variance function: V(u) = u              [Poisson]
Link function     : g(u) = ln(u)         [Log]
                                                AIC              = 4.545928
Log likelihood    = -68.28076994         BIC              = -49.46396
```

		OIM				[95% Conf. Interval]	
damage	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z			
<hr/>							
type							
2	-.5433442	.1775899	-3.06	0.002	-.8914141	-.1952744	
3	-.6874015	.3290472	-2.09	0.037	-1.332322	-.0424808	
4	-.0759614	.2905787	-0.26	0.794	-.6454851	.4935623	
5	.3255796	.2358794	1.38	0.168	-.1367355	.7878948	
<hr/>							
year							
65	.6971404	.1496414	4.66	0.000	.4038486	.9904321	
70	.8184267	.1697737	4.82	0.000	.4856764	1.151177	
75	.4534269	.2331705	1.94	0.052	-.0035789	.9104327	
<hr/>							
75.period	.3844667	.1182722	3.25	0.001	.1526575	.6162759	
_cons	-6.405901	.2174441	-29.46	0.000	-6.832084	-5.979719	
logmonths	1	(offset)					

Ship damage example: Stata output

```
// relative rate for B vs. C type  
. lincom 2.type-3.type, eform  
( 1) [damage]2.type - [damage]3.type = 0
```

damage	exp(b)	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
(1)	1.15495	.3449144	0.48	0.630	.6432213 2.073796

```
// relative rate for 1975- vs. 1960-64  
. lincom 75.year, eform  
( 1) [damage]75.year = 0
```

damage	exp(b)	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
(1)	1.573696	.3669394	1.94	0.052	.9964275 2.485398

Note: The Pearson X2 was 1.69 and Deviance 1.55 indicating moderate overdispersion. In SAS, this can be addressed in Proc Genmod by using the scale option in the model statement: scale = p uses the Pearson, while scale = d uses the deviance to adjust the standard error estimates. In Stata, use scale(x2) or scale(dev) option.

Ship damage example: correct for overdispersion

```
. glm damage i.type i.year i.period, family(poisson) link(log) offset(logmonths) scale(x2)
```

```
...
```

```
-----
```

		OIM				[95% Conf. Interval]	
damage	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z			

type							
2	-.5433442	.2309359	-2.35	0.019	-.9959702		-.0907183
3	-.6874015	.4278892	-1.61	0.108	-1.526049		.1512459
4	-.0759614	.3778651	-0.20	0.841	-.8165634		.6646406
5	.3255796	.3067348	1.06	0.288	-.2756096		.9267688
year							
65	.6971404	.1945919	3.58	0.000	.3157472		1.078534
70	.8184267	.2207717	3.71	0.000	.3857221		1.251131
75	.4534269	.3032122	1.50	0.135	-.1408581		1.047712
75.period	.3844667	.1537997	2.50	0.012	.0830247		.6859086
_cons	-6.405901	.2827618	-22.65	0.000	-6.960104		-5.851699
logmonths	1	(offset)					

```
-----
```

(Standard errors scaled using square root of Pearson X2-based dispersion.)

Ship damage example: Stata output

```
// relative rate for B vs. C type  
. lincom 2.type-3.type, eform  
( 1) [damage]2.type - [damage]3.type = 0
```

damage		exp(b)	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
(1)		1.15495	.4485226	0.37	0.711	.5395116 2.47244

```
// relative rate for 1975- vs. 1960-64  
. lincom 75.year, eform  
( 1) [damage]75.year = 0
```

damage		exp(b)	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
(1)		1.573696	.4771638	1.50	0.135	.8686126 2.85112

Note: the coefficient estimates are the same as previous output, but the standard errors and test p-values are now more conservative.

Poisson regression with common risks

Previously we saw that OR and RR were quite different when the prevalence of the risk was not small, bigger than 10%. In order to estimate an adjusted RR we could use the Binomial model with a log link. But sometimes there are computational difficulties with this model. An alternative is to use the Poisson model AND to utilize the ROBUST STANDARD ERRORS. Regular standard errors for Poisson are known to be too conservative in these cases of approximating binomial data with common risk.

```
*****Binomial Regression;
proc genmod data = birthwgt2 descending;
    class c_baseline_bmi (ref = "2") /param = ref;
    model hibwt = totalweightgain c_baseline_bmi/dist=binomial link=log type3;
run;
*****Poisson Regression;
proc genmod data = birthwgt2 descending;
    class c_baseline_bmi (ref = "2") id /param = ref; <- need to generate an 'id' variable for
                                                    every sample;
    model hibwt = totalweightgain c_baseline_bmi/dist=poisson link=log type3;
    repeated sub = id / type=ind; <- This is the statement to obtain robust std errors;
run;
```

Birthweight example: log link

```
. glm hibwt totalweightgain ib2.c_baseline_bmi, fam(bin) link(log) eform iter(100)
Iteration 100: log likelihood = -1039.0036 (not concave)
convergence not achieved
```

```
Log likelihood = -1039.003635      AIC = 1.042004
                                   BIC = -13100.99
```

		OIM				[95% Conf. Interval]	
hibwt	Risk Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z			
totalweightgain	1.024364	8.78e-10	2.8e+07	0.000	1.024364	1.024364	
c_baseline_bmi							
1	.0617007	.0352668	-4.87	0.000	.0201262	.1891555	
3	.6152626	.0750599	-3.98	0.000	.4844141	.7814554	
4	1.855169
_cons	.1368256	7.65e-09	-3.6e+07	0.000	.1368255	.1368256	

Warning: parameter estimates produce inadmissible mean estimates in one or more observations.

Warning: convergence not achieved

Birthweight example: Poisson regression with regular S.E.

```
. glm hibwt totalweightgain ib2.c_baseline_bmi, fam(poisson) link(log) eform
Generalized linear models                No. of obs      =      2000
Optimization      : ML                   Residual df     =      1995
                                                Scale parameter =          1
Deviance          =    963.011489        (1/df) Deviance =    .4827125
Pearson          =   1643.646513        (1/df) Pearson  =    .823883
Variance function: V(u) = u             [Poisson]
Link function    : g(u) = ln(u)        [Log]
                                                AIC              =    .7465057
Log likelihood   = -741.5057445        BIC              = -14200.79
```

		OIM				
hibwt	IRR	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	

totalweightgain	1.032877	.0046171	7.24	0.000	1.023868	1.041966
c_baseline_bmi						
1	.187722	.1100813	-2.85	0.004	.0594793	.5924677
3	1.875006	.3199926	3.68	0.000	1.341945	2.619814
4	2.387442	.3428306	6.06	0.000	1.801783	3.163466
_cons	.0334007	.0064157	-17.70	0.000	.022922	.0486695

Birthweight example: Poisson regression with robust S.E.

```
. glm hibwt totalweightgain ib2.c_baseline_bmi, fam(poisson) link(log) eform robust
Generalized linear models                    No. of obs      =      2000
Optimization      : ML                      Residual df      =      1995
                                                Scale parameter =          1
Deviance          =    963.011489           (1/df) Deviance =    .4827125
Pearson          =   1643.646513           (1/df) Pearson  =    .823883
Variance function: V(u) = u                [Poisson]
Link function     : g(u) = ln(u)           [Log]
                                                AIC              =    .7465057
Log pseudolikelihood = -741.5057445       BIC              =   -14200.79
```

		Robust				[95% Conf. Interval]	
	IRR	Std. Err.	z	P> z			
totalweightgain	1.032877	.0038243	8.74	0.000	1.025409	1.0404	
c_baseline_bmi							
1	.187722	.1077046	-2.92	0.004	.0609737	.5779468	
3	1.875006	.2884014	4.09	0.000	1.386999	2.534714	
4	2.387442	.3093241	6.72	0.000	1.852032	3.077634	
_cons	.0334007	.005491	-20.68	0.000	.0242002	.0460989	

Other count models

- Zero-truncated Poisson

Example: A study by the county traffic court on the number of tickets received by teenagers as predicted by school performance, amount of driver training and gender. Only individuals who have received at least one citation are in the traffic court files.

SAS: `proc nlmixed ...;`

(http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/sas/faq/zt_nlmixed.htm)

Stata: `tpoisson y x1 x2, inflate(x1)`

(http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/sas/faq/zt_nlmixed.htm)

Other count models

- Zero-inflated Poisson

Example: The state wildlife biologists want to model how many fish are being caught by fishermen at a state park. Visitors are asked whether or not they have a camper, how many people were in the group, were there children in the group and how many fish were caught. Some visitors do not fish, but there is no data on whether a person fished or not. Some visitors who did fish did not catch any fish so there are excess zeros in the data because of the people that did not fish.

```
SAS: proc genmod data = T; model y = x1 x2 / dist=zip;  
      zeromodel x1 / link = logit;
```

(<http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/sas/dae/zipreg.htm>)

```
Stata: zip y x1 x2, inflate(x1)
```

(<http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/stata/dae/zip.htm>)

Other count models

- Negative binomial model:
 - Have one more parameter than the Poisson, the second parameter can be used to adjust the variance independently of the mean.
 - Alternative solution to overdispersed Poisson

```
SAS: proc genmod data = T; model y = x1 x2 / dist=negbin;
```

```
Stata: glm y x1 x2, family(nb)
```

- Zero-inflated negative binomial model
 - Zero-truncated negative binomial model
- (*). Check the UCLA website for examples)

Estimation and Goodness of fit for GLM

- Estimation:
 - MLE: maximize the log-likelihood
 - Iterated Weighted Least Squares (IWLS): analogous to weighted least squares, with the weights updated iteratively

GLM fits using IWLS is more general than MLE (see e.g. quasi-likelihood if you want to know more details)

- Goodness of fit:
 - Pearson's X^2 : (does not depend on distribution assumption)

$$X^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(Y_i - \hat{\mu}_i)^2}{V(\hat{\mu}_i) / m_i}$$

where $m_i = 1$ for Normal and Poisson, n_i for Binomial.

- Deviance: (does not depend on ϕ , but depends on log-likelihood)

$$\begin{aligned} D(\underline{Y}, \underline{\hat{\mu}}) &= 2\phi \left\{ l(\underline{Y}, \phi; \underline{Y}) - l(\underline{\hat{\mu}}, \phi; \underline{Y}) \right\} \\ &= 2 \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \left\{ Y_i (\tilde{\theta}_i - \hat{\theta}_i) - \left[b(\tilde{\theta}_i) - b(\hat{\theta}_i) \right] \right\} \end{aligned}$$

where $b'(\tilde{\theta}_i) = Y_i$ (natural parameter for the saturated model)

Residuals

- Types of Residuals:

- Pearson residual:
$$r_i^P = \frac{Y_i - \hat{\mu}_i}{\sqrt{V(\hat{\mu}_i)}}$$

- Deviance residual:
$$r_i^D = \text{sign}(Y_i - \hat{\mu}_i) \sqrt{d_i}$$

- Response residual:
$$r_i^R = Y_i - \hat{\mu}_i$$

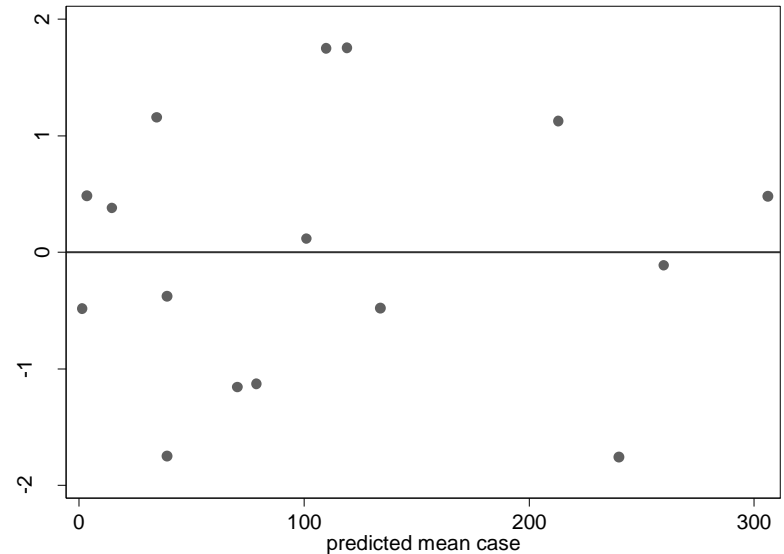
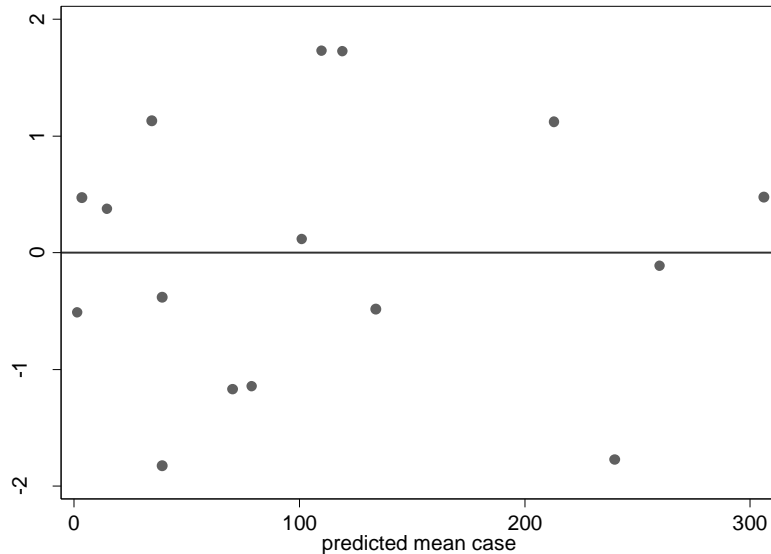
- Working residual:
$$r_i^W = (Y_i - \hat{\mu}_i) \frac{\partial \hat{\eta}_i}{\partial \hat{\mu}_i}$$

- Partial residual:
$$r_{ki}^T = (Y_i - \hat{\mu}_i) \frac{\partial \hat{\eta}_i}{\partial \hat{\mu}_i} + x_{ik} \hat{\beta}_k$$

Note: residual diagnostics non-informative for binary data

- Overdispersion: $\text{Var}(Y) > a(\phi)V(\mu)$ for any GLM
check if $X^2/(n-p)$ or $D/(n-p) \gg 1$

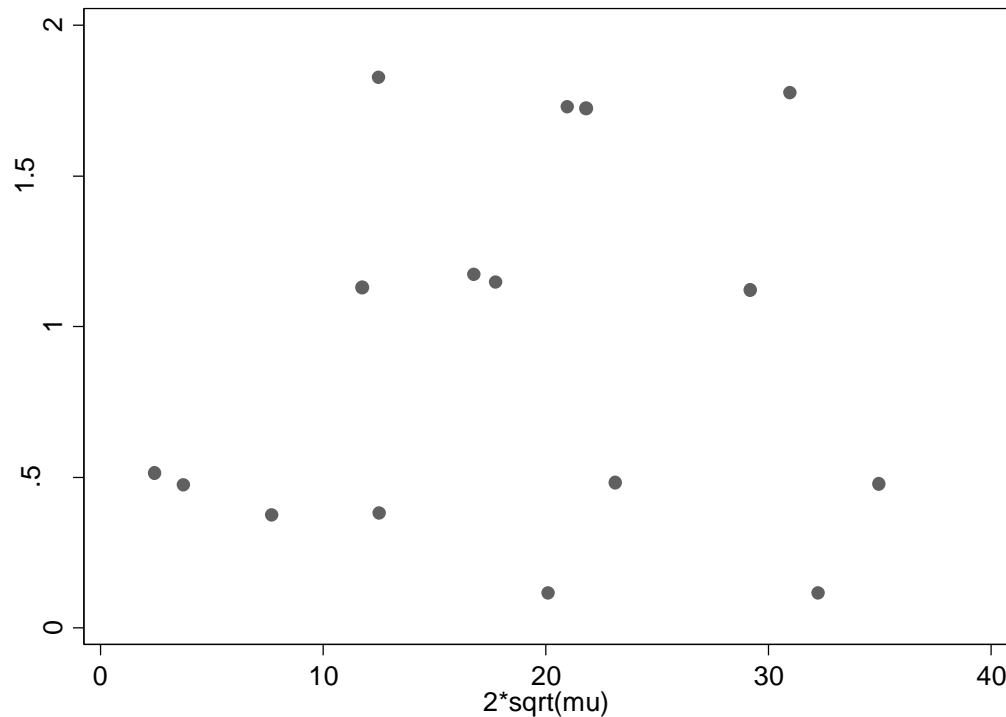
Checking outliers



Check for observations with large (standardized) Pearson or deviance residuals.

Deviance residual is generally preferred to the Pearson residual, since its distributional properties are closer to the residuals in linear regression.

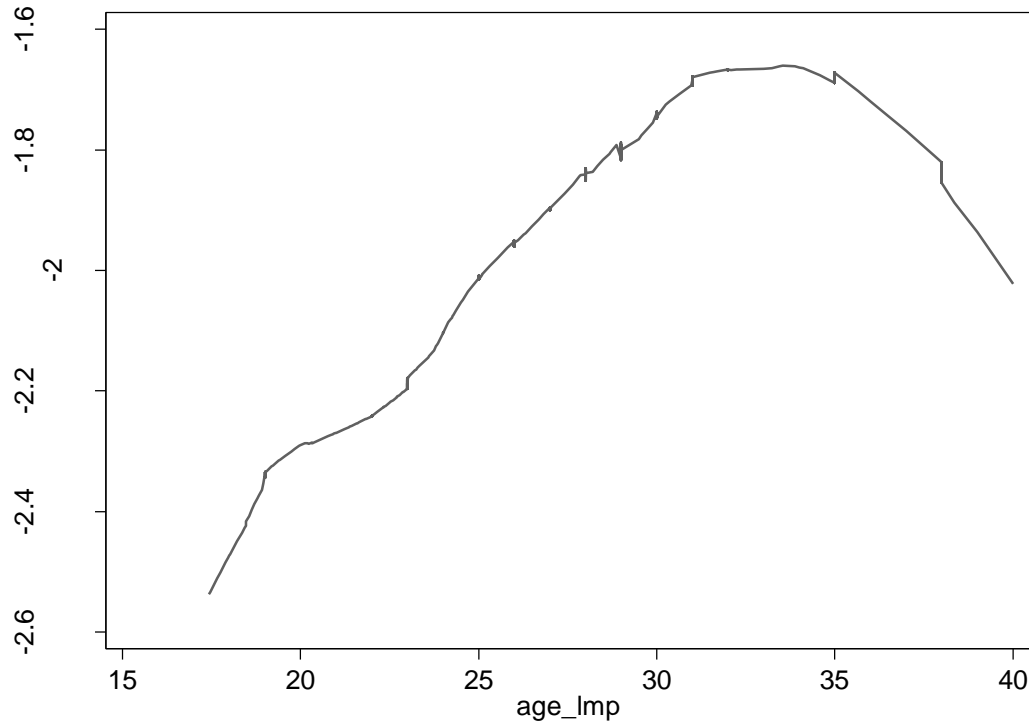
Checking the variance function



The x-axis is “constant-information scale” for Poisson errors. See McCullagh and Nelder, “Generalized Linear Models” (Chapter 12.6.1).

Positive trend indicates the current variance function increases too slowly with the mean.

Checking for linearity: lowess plot



Other approach to check departure from linearity:

- Add polynomial terms (e.g., age^2) and test for their statistical significance;
- Group continuous predictor into categories (e.g., `age_cat`).

Other Diagnostics

- Checking the link function: the simplest method is to include $\hat{\eta}^2$ as covariate and assessing the fall in deviance. (Hinkley, 1985)
- Partial residual is helpful to assess the form of covariates, i.e., plot partial residual against the corresponding predictor.
- Checking influential points: modified Cook's distance ($> 4/(n-p)$ to be problematic)

