

Module 4: GEEs

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Module 4: Generalized Estimating Equations

BIOS 526

Module 4: Generalized Estimating Equations

Pivoting to marginal models as opposed to mixed effects

- make inferences about pop. AVERAGES
- no subject effects
- analogous to cross-sectional
- ↳ don't need joint distributional assumptions

Reading

- A useful reference: Hajek, U., S. Hojgaard, and J. Yau. *The R package ggee for generalized Estimating Equations*. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 2006.
- Informal overview: <https://elbauer.github.io/Practical-Statistics/2017/01/10/generalized-estimating-equations-gee/>

Concepts

- Weighted and generalized least squares.
- Estimating equation.
- Marginal correlation structures.
- Robust standard error.

Tan example
OLS,
GLS - special case
Robust regression
GEE

Agenda:

3 obs correlated
3 obs indep.

Motivating Example

Consider data y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n from

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} \sim N\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ \mu \\ \vdots \\ \mu \end{bmatrix}, \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} R & R & \cdots & 0 \\ R & R & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma^2 \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

* y_1, y_2 come from the same cluster and may be correlated ($R \neq 0$)

* y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n have the same expectation μ . The average of y_1 will give an unbiased estimator

$$\hat{\mu}_1 = \frac{y_1}{3} + \frac{y_2}{3} + \frac{y_3}{3}$$

The above estimator has variance

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\mu}_1) = \frac{1}{3}R + \frac{1}{3}R + \frac{1}{3}R = \frac{3\sigma^2 + 2R}{9}$$

R increases → variance increases

Motivating Example

We wish to find a set of weights $w = (w_1, w_2, w_3)$ such that

$$\hat{\mu} = w_1 y_1 + w_2 y_2 + w_3 y_3$$

We set $w_1 + w_2 + w_3 = 1$, so $\hat{\mu}$ is unbiased.

The variance for $\hat{\mu}$ is:

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\mu}) = [w_1, w_2, w_3] \begin{bmatrix} R & R & 0 \\ R & R & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [w_1\sigma^2 + w_1R, w_1R + w_2\sigma^2, w_2\sigma^2]$$

$$= w_1\sigma^2 + w_1w_2R + w_2w_3R + w_2\sigma^2 + w_3\sigma^2$$

$$= (w_1^2 + w_1^2 + w_2^2)\sigma^2 + 2w_1w_2R$$

When $R = 0$, minimum variance when $w_1 = w_2 = w_3$ (the sample average).

Motivating Example

Consider the following sets of weights:

(1) Simple average: $w = (1/3, 1/3, 1/3)$

(2) Average y_1 and y_3 first; then average with y_2 :
 $w = (1/4, 1/4, 1/2)$

(3) Use only one of y_1 or y_2 :
 $w = (1/2, 0, 1/2)$

(4) Secret: assuming R and σ^2 are known,

$$w = \left(\frac{1}{3+R/\sigma^2}, \frac{1}{3+R/\sigma^2}, \frac{1+R/\sigma^2}{3+2R/\sigma^2} \right)$$

Motivating Example

The secret (optimal) weights

- have the smallest standard error for the complete range of R values
- become a simple average when $R = 0$ (independence)
- gives weights 1/3 to y_1 and y_3 when $R = \sigma^2$

So how does this work?

Estimating Equation

All four estimators of μ are solutions to the following estimating equation. We will define an equation to produce a class of unbiased estimators of μ .

We know $E(y_1 - \mu) = 0$, $E(y_2 - \mu) = 0$, and $E(y_3 - \mu) = 0$.

Combining these equations, an estimator $\hat{\mu}$ can be obtained by solving:

$$\alpha_1(y_1 - \hat{\mu}) + \alpha_2(y_2 - \hat{\mu}) + \alpha_3(y_3 - \hat{\mu}) = 0. \quad (1)$$

The above gives

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{\alpha_1 y_1 + \alpha_2 y_2 + \alpha_3 y_3}{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3}$$

Therefore the weights for $i = 1, 2, 3$ are

$$w_i = \frac{\alpha_i}{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3} = \frac{\alpha_i}{\sum_{j=1}^3 \alpha_j}$$

An estimating equation is a very general approach. Equation (1) is an example where we set up an equation to solve for $\hat{\mu}$, and solve for $\hat{\mu}$.

Methods of moments and maximum likelihood (setting the first derivative of the log-lik to zero) are examples of estimating equations.

Regression with heteroscedastic errors

Now consider the linear regression problem with heteroscedastic errors:
 $y = X\beta + \epsilon$, $\epsilon \sim N(0, V)$, $\rightarrow \epsilon = \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}$

Here we assume the residual covariance matrix V is known and diagonal.

Generalized Least Squares

If \mathbf{V} is not diagonal, the weighted least squares estimate still holds.

For non-diagonal \mathbf{V} , this is often called **generalized least squares**.

$\hat{\beta}_{ols} = (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{y}$

$Cov(\hat{\beta}_{ols}) = \mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}$

This is because \mathbf{V} is a covariance matrix (symmetric and positive definite). So we can always find a matrix $\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{V}^{1/2}$.

Ex. \mathbf{W} is from EVD. Also yield an Cholesky decomposition.

OLS estimator $\hat{\beta}$ is unbiased and consistent, but the estimate of the standard errors are incorrect \rightarrow wrong confidence intervals, p-values, and inference.

It can be shown that the weighting achieves some \mathbf{V} in $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}$, given that weighted variances (optimally efficient) among unbiased estimators if we know \mathbf{V} .

So when \mathbf{V} has **correlations** b/w variable & constant:

Generalized Least Squares: homoscedastic

For normal (Gaussian) regression model,

$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim N(0, \mathbf{V})$

We often assume the observations are homoscedastic (equal variance).

where \mathbf{R} is the correlation matrix described by the dependence in the observations not explained by $\mathbf{X}\beta$, and \mathbf{e}^0 is the common residual variance. $\mathbf{R} \neq \mathbf{I}$ is called **autocorrelation**.

$\hat{\beta}_{ols} = (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{y}$

$= (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{y}$

$Cov(\hat{\beta}_{ols}) = (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}$

$= (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}$

Later on, this is called the "true" SE in general.

Generalized Least Squares

Back to the motivating example (assume $\sigma^2 = 1$):

$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} \sim N\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ \mu \\ \mu \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} R & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & R & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & R \end{bmatrix}\right)$

Here $\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$\mathbf{V}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/(1-R^2) & -R/(1-R^2) & 0 \\ -R/(1-R^2) & 1/(1-R^2) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/(1-R^2) \end{bmatrix}$

Generalized Least Squares

$(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{X}) = [1, 1, 1] \begin{bmatrix} 1/(1-R^2) & -R/(1-R^2) & 0 \\ -R/(1-R^2) & 1/(1-R^2) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/(1-R^2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3-2R-R^2 \\ 3-2R-R^2 \\ 1-R^2 \end{bmatrix}$

$= \frac{3+R(1-R)}{(1-R)(1-R)} = \frac{3+R}{1-R}$

$\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1} = [1, 1, 1] \begin{bmatrix} 1/(1-R^2) & -R/(1-R^2) & 0 \\ -R/(1-R^2) & 1/(1-R^2) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/(1-R^2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{X})\mathbf{V}^{-1} = \frac{1+R}{3+R} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

But S.E. estimator $= \frac{1}{3+R} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3+R} = \frac{1+R}{3+R} = \text{the correct weights!}$

Robust Regression

If we know \mathbf{V} and $\mathbf{V} \neq \mathbf{I}^3$, patches OLS estimator to fix influence rows when data not IID.

$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim N(0, \mathbf{V})$

the generalized least squares estimate $\hat{\beta}_{ols}$:

accounts for the correlation between observations to result in an unbiased linear estimator.

* the variance $(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}$ allows for valid inference.

What if I don't know \mathbf{V} (as in most cases)?

Initial approach:

1. Use $\hat{\beta}_{ols} = (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{Y}$ because it is unbiased and consistent.
2. How about standard errors? Recall

$Cov(\hat{\beta}_{ols}) = (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}$

So we can estimate \mathbf{V} and plug it in:

$Cov(\hat{\beta}_{ols}) = (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X})^{-1}$

</div

Introducing structure to V

Assume some structure on V.
Call this the V. Then,
1. Use $\hat{\beta}_{\text{ols}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{V}^{-1} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{V}^{-1} \mathbf{y}$, because it is unbiased and consistent (OLS estimate) for β .
2. Use the same structure for standard errors:
 $\text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_{\text{ols}})_{ij} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{V}^{-1} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{V}_{ij} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{V}^{-1} \mathbf{X})^{-1}$.
More often if V is not diagonal, then the standard errors are valid for inference (confidence intervals, hypothesis testing).
If we get the structure correct, we get a more accurate estimate of β .

extra information

Marginal Model for Grouped Data

- For clustered data, we often assume:
1. observations in the same group are correlated;
2. observations between groups are independent.

For example, consider 2 groups and 2 observations per group:
 $y = \begin{bmatrix} y_{11} \\ y_{12} \\ y_{21} \\ y_{22} \end{bmatrix} \sim N \left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} V_{11} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & V_{12} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & V_{21} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & V_{22} \end{bmatrix} \right)$,
where V_{11} and V_{22} are two group-specific covariance matrices.
where $V_{12} = V_{21}$ (no correlation between groups).

Steps in analysis:
1. decide the structure of V .
2. estimate β with generalized least squares.
3. robustify the standard errors of β .
Because our inference focuses on β for the mean trend, β is known as *population average of β* estimates.

Marginal Model for Grouped Data

Denote y_{ij} the j th observation in group i , for $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$. Also let $\mathbf{V}_i = \text{Cov}(y_i)$, where $y_i = (y_{i1}, y_{i2}, \dots, y_{ir})$. For $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$:

vector of parameters
contains all α 's
matrix V_i

We often assume that the group correlation has the same structure across groups, $\alpha_i = \alpha_j$ for all i, j .
 $R_i(\alpha) = \alpha I_r \times r_i$ correlation matrix. $R_i(\alpha)^T = R_i(\alpha)$.
 α is a parameter or vector of parameters that determines the functional form of the correlation.

Marginal Model for Grouped Data

Common choices are: independent, exchangeable, auto-regressive, and unstructured. $R_i(\alpha)$ is often called the working correlation structure (our best guess).
For example,

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} y_{11} \\ y_{12} \\ y_{21} \\ y_{22} \end{bmatrix} \sim N \left(\mathbf{X}\beta, \sigma^2 \begin{bmatrix} R_1(\alpha) & 0 \\ 0 & R_2(\alpha) \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

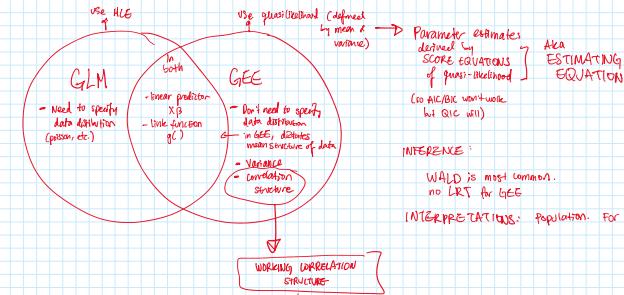
2x2 matrix of α 's

(Don't need to get it right between us, α is *inferred*)

EXAMPLES:

MARGINAL MODEL FEATURES

- Marginal features
 - 1. $E(Y_{ij}) = X_j \beta$
 - 2. Marginal covariance of Y_j
 - 3. Marginal variance of Y_j
- scale parameter
- Also need **WORKING CORRELATION STRUCTURE**
aka "working V " association β is a function of the means + other parameters



* $\beta_0 = 15.098$: The expected weight at time 0 for pigs with no vitamin E and no copper in their diet.

* $\beta_{\text{time}} = 6.94$: The expected increase in pig weight for each one week increase in time, controlling for vitamin E and copper in the diet.

* $\beta_{\text{CuCo35}} = -0.765$: The expected different in weight comparing pigs who received a 35 mg/kg dose of copper to pigs who received a 0 mg/kg dose of copper.

Common Correlation Structures

Example for a cluster of size 4: $\text{Independent } \text{cor}(y_{ij}, y_{ik}) = 0$

0 parameters
 $R_i(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ *no within-group correlation*
no clustering structure

Example for a cluster of size 4: $\text{Exchangeable } \text{cor}(y_{ij}, y_{ik}) = \alpha$

1 parameter
 $R_i(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \alpha & \alpha \\ \alpha & 1 & \alpha & \alpha \\ \alpha & \alpha & 1 & \alpha \\ \alpha & \alpha & \alpha & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ *linear predictor*

Example for a cluster of size 4: $\text{AR(1)} \text{cor}(y_{ij}, y_{ik}) = \rho$

1 parameter
 $R_i(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \rho & \rho & \rho \\ \rho & 1 & \rho & \rho \\ \rho & \rho & 1 & \rho \\ \rho & \rho & \rho & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ *variance = compound symmetry*

Example for a cluster of size 4: $\text{Unstructured } \text{cor}(y_{ij}, y_{ik}) = \alpha_{ij}$

6 parameters
 $R_i(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha_{12} & \alpha_{13} & \alpha_{14} \\ \alpha_{21} & 1 & \alpha_{23} & \alpha_{24} \\ \alpha_{31} & \alpha_{32} & 1 & \alpha_{34} \\ \alpha_{41} & \alpha_{42} & \alpha_{43} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Some notes:
- AR(1) is more efficient than unstructured.
- can have AR(2) correlation structures in gen.gls (R package)
- good in AR(1) model: $E_{ij} = \alpha E_{0j} + \epsilon_{ij}$, $\epsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ regression of residuals against a lag?
- $\text{cor}(y_{ij}, y_{ik}) = \rho$
 $\text{cor}(\alpha E_{0j} + \epsilon_{ij}, \alpha E_{0k} + \epsilon_{ik}) = \rho$

Some notes:
- capital α ? Greek letter
- Some notes in notes

- more efficient for random effects models
- equally spaced TIME POINTS

If the data are measured at distinct time points:
 $\text{Autoregressive order 1 } \text{cor}(y_{ij}, y_{ik}) = \rho^{|j-i|} \text{ for } \alpha \leq 1$

AR model
 $R_i(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \rho & \rho^2 & \rho^3 \\ \rho & 1 & \rho & \rho^2 \\ \rho^2 & \rho & 1 & \rho \\ \rho^3 & \rho^2 & \rho & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

- condition: PEANUTS with $\rho < 1$

- can have AR(2) correlation structures in gen.gls (R package)

- good in AR(1) model: $E_{ij} = \alpha E_{0j} + \epsilon_{ij}$, $\epsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ regression of residuals against a lag?

- $\text{cor}(y_{ij}, y_{ik}) = \rho$

- $\text{cor}(\alpha E_{0j} + \epsilon_{ij}, \alpha E_{0k} + \epsilon_{ik}) = \rho$

Some notes:
- capital α ? Greek letter
- Some notes in notes

- more efficient for random effects models
- equally spaced TIME POINTS

More working correlation structures

Stationary m-dependent $\text{cor}(y_{ij}, y_{ik}) = \alpha_{|j-i|}$ if $|j-i| \leq m$ and 0 otherwise. For $m = 2$,

$$R_i(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & 0 \\ \alpha_1 & 1 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_2 & \alpha_1 & 1 & \alpha_1 \\ 0 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Non-stationary m-dependent $\text{cor}(y_{ij}, y_{ik}) = \alpha_{|j-i|}$, $|j-i| \leq m$, else 0:

$$R_i(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & 0 \\ \alpha_1 & 1 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_2 & \alpha_1 & 1 & \alpha_1 \\ 0 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

How $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ and in fact affect the weights?

Example: Pig Weight

40 pigs with body weight measured at 4 successive weeks

Let y_{ij} be the weight (kg) at the j^{th} week for the i^{th} pig.

For $i = 1, \dots, 40$, $j = 1, \dots, 9$, we wish to model weight as a function of week:

$$y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij} \quad \epsilon \sim N(0, V)$$

Some notes:
- α is complex
- α is not real

Marginal Model for Pig Weight (continuous data)

Generalized Estimating Equations

Generalized Estimating Equations (GEEs)

Definition of GEE

For normal regression, the generalized estimating equation approach corresponds nicely to a generalized regression. However, GEE's are commonly used to analyze count data, binary outcomes, and other data modeled using a distribution from the exponential family.

Generalized Estimating Equations are a general method for analyzing grouped data when:

1. observations within a cluster may be correlated;
2. observations in separate clusters are independent;
3. a monotone transformation of the expectation is linearly related to the explanatory variables; i.e. **link function** (GLM)
4. the variance is a function of the expectation i.e. **exponential family**

Source: Hardin, J. & Hilbe, J. (2003). The Poisson regression for clustered ordinal responses. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 10(12).

→ Note: Refer to notes for **dependent linear GLM**.

Model 4: Generalized Estimating Equations

GLM and Marginal Covariance

One challenge is that for Poisson or Bernoulli regression, the residual variance depends on the mean structure. For example, consider a logistic regression model. We have:

$$\begin{aligned} \ln(p) &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p \\ p &= \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}} \\ V &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{p(1-p)}{1+e^{2\beta_0+2\beta_1x_1+\dots+2\beta_px_p}} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{p(1-p)}{1+e^{2\beta_0+2\beta_1x_1+\dots+2\beta_px_p}} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \frac{p(1-p)}{1+e^{2\beta_0+2\beta_1x_1+\dots+2\beta_px_p}} \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Even without clustering, the marginal covariances for unequal variances that depend on β . To see how GEE works for GLMs, we need to examine in more detail about how these models are fitted.

Revisit GLMs

Revisiting GLMs: Estimation for independent data

Normal Regression Independent data (y index)

Normal Regression

$$y = X\beta + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim N(0, V)$$

$$L(y, \beta) = (2\pi)^{-n/2}|V|^{-1/2} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(y - X\beta)^T V^{-1} (y - X\beta))$$

If we assume V is diagonal, the data likelihood is given by:

$$L(y, \beta) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \prod_{i=1}^n \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^p \frac{1}{v_i} (y_{ij} - x_{ij}\beta_j)^2\right)$$

Therefore, the maximum likelihood estimate of β can be obtained by minimizing the function:

$$U(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{v_i} (y_{ij} - x_{ij}\beta_j)^2 \quad \text{Take derivative w.r.t } \beta_j \text{ and set to zero.}$$

Equivalent to solving a system of linear equations:

$$\frac{\partial U(\beta)}{\partial \beta_j} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} \frac{1}{v_i} (y_{ij} - x_{ij}\beta_j) = 0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} \frac{1}{v_i} (y_{ij} - x_{ij}\beta_j) = 0$$

The above is an estimating equation too:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} \frac{1}{v_i} (y_{ij} - x_{ij}\beta_j) = 0$$

Logistic Regression Model

A set of equations

$$y_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p_i), \quad \text{with } p_i = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}}$$

For a single observation y_i , the log likelihood is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} \ell(y_i, \beta) &= \log \left[\left(\frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}} \right)^{y_i} \left(\frac{1}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}} \right)^{1-y_i} \right] \\ &= y_i(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p) - (1-y_i) \log(1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}) \end{aligned}$$

The score function:

$$\frac{\partial \ell(y_i, \beta)}{\partial \beta_j} = x_{ij} y_i - \frac{x_{ij} e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}} = x_{ij} \left(y_i - \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}} \right)$$

Therefore, the MLE is obtained by solving p equations with p unknowns:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} \left(y_i - \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}} \right) = 0. \quad \text{This is the general form}$$

Poisson Log-linear Model

$$y_i \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda_i), \quad \text{with } \lambda_i = e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}$$

For a single observation y_i , the log likelihood is given by:

$$\ell(y_i, \beta) = \log \left(\frac{e^{-\lambda_i} \lambda_i^{y_i}}{y_i!} \right) = -\lambda_i + y_i \log \lambda_i - \log y_i! = -\beta_0 \beta_1 - y_i \beta_1 \beta_2 - \dots - (\log y_i)!$$

The score function with respect to β_k is:

$$\frac{\partial \ell(y_i, \beta)}{\partial \beta_k} = -x_{ik} y_i + x_{ik} \lambda_i - x_{ik} \left(y_i - \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}} \right)$$

Therefore, the MLE is obtained by solving for a system of regressions:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_{ik} \left(y_i - \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}} \right) = 0.$$

Estimating Equations

What do the above three score equations have in common?

$$\text{General: } \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ik} \frac{1}{v_i} (y_{ij} - x_{ij}\beta_j) = 0.$$

$$\text{Logistic: } \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ik} \left(y_i - \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}} \right) = 0.$$

$$\text{Poisson: } \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ik} \left(y_i - \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p}} \right) = 0.$$

It can be shown that for any generalized linear model, the score equations we need to solve for the maximum likelihood estimate are given by

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial \ell(y_i, \beta)}{\partial \beta_k} \frac{1}{V(y_i, \beta)} (y_i - E(y_i, \beta)) = 0. \quad (2)$$

Estimating Equations

Let's verify it for a single data point:

Gaussian: $\frac{\partial \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta} = \frac{1}{V(y|\beta)} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \beta_i}{n} = x_0 \frac{1}{n}$

Logistic: $\frac{\partial \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta} = \frac{1}{V(y|\beta)} - \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \frac{e^{\beta^T x}}{1+e^{\beta^T x}} \right] \frac{(1+e^{\beta^T x})^2}{e^{\beta^T x}} = \frac{x_0 e^{\beta^T x}}{1+e^{\beta^T x}} - \frac{n e^{\beta^T x}}{e^{\beta^T x}} = x_0 \frac{(1+e^{\beta^T x})^2 - n e^{\beta^T x}}{(1+e^{\beta^T x})^2} = x_0$

Poisson: $\frac{\partial \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta} = \frac{1}{V(y|\beta)} - \frac{\partial \beta^T x}{\partial \beta} = \frac{x_0 \beta^T}{e^{\beta^T x}} = x_0 e^{\beta^T x} \frac{1}{e^{\beta^T x}} = x_0$

Estimating Equations for Generalized Linear Model

For a generalized linear model (e.g. logistic, poisson), assuming independent samples, we can estimate β by solving:

$\frac{\partial \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta} = \frac{1}{V(y|\beta)} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \beta_i}{n} = 0$

where $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$, $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, $\mu(\beta) = \mathbb{E}[y|\beta]$, $V(y|\beta)$ is an $n \times n$ diagonal matrix, $\mu(\beta)$ is an $n \times 1$ vector of $\mathbb{E}[y_i|\beta]$.

- * $V(y|\beta)$ is an $n \times n$ diagonal matrix.
- * $\frac{\partial \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta}$ is an $n \times p$ matrix.

It can be shown that the resulting estimate $\hat{\beta}$ is:

- * consistent.
- * asymptotically normal with covariance

$$\text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}) = \left(\left(\frac{\partial \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right)^T V(y|\beta)^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right) \right)^{-1}$$

Notes 4: Generalized Linear Models

Grouped Data

Grouped Data

GEE for Grouped Data

We now discuss the **Generalized Estimating Equations** (GEE).

Let $\mathbf{y}_i = (y_{i1}, y_{i2}, \dots, y_{ir_i})$ be the vector of observations from group i . We want to model the mean trend with a logistic link and account for dependence.

We can write $\mathbf{y}_{ij} = \text{Bernoulli}(x_{ij})$ $\text{Cov}(\mathbf{y}_{ij}) = V_{ij}$ $\text{independent across groups}$ within group dependence

where D_{ij} is a diagonal matrix of the marginal variance and R_{ij} is a working correlation matrix.

Recall condition $= R_{ij}^{-1}(\rho_{ij} + D_{ij})$ $\text{matrix equality of terms?}$

In GLMs, all elements of D_{ij} depend on X_{ij} through the link function. With logistic link, j th obs in i th sub $D_{ij} = \frac{e^{x_{ij}\beta}}{(1+e^{x_{ij}\beta})^2}$.

Also, the dependent structure is specified directly on the observations y_{ij} . This gives the **marginal interpretation**.

Notes 4: Generalized Linear Models

GEE for Grouped Data

Denote y_{ij} the j th observation in group i , with $j = 1, 2, \dots, r_i$. Also let $\mathbf{y}_i = (y_{i1}, y_{i2}, \dots, y_{ir_i})$. We are interested in the marginal model:

$\text{g}(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}_i]) = \mathbf{X}_i \beta$, $\text{Cov}(\mathbf{y}_i) = \mathbf{V}_i = D_i^{1/2} R_i D_i^{1/2}$

where $\text{g}(\cdot)$ is the link function.

In the GEE approach let's forget about the complicating data structure induced by the within group correlation and work directly with the estimating equations.

The GEE estimate of β is obtained by solving the system of p equations with p unknowns:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{\partial \ell_i(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right] \mathbf{V}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_i - \mu_i(\beta)) = 0 \quad (1)$$

where n is the total number of groups.

This generates (2):

Notes 4: Generalized Linear Models

GEE for Grouped Data

The naive covariance (assuming model is correct) of $\hat{\beta}_{\text{GEE}}$ is given by:

$$\text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_{\text{GEE}}) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{\partial \ell_i(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right]^T \mathbf{V}_i^{-1} \left[\frac{\partial \ell_i(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right] \right)^{-1}$$

The sandwich (robust) covariance of $\hat{\beta}_{\text{GEE}}$ is given by:

$$\text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_{\text{GEE}}) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{\partial \ell_i(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right]^T \mathbf{V}_i^{-1} \left[\frac{\partial \ell_i(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right] \right)^{-1} \times \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{\partial \ell_i(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right]^T \mathbf{V}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}_i]) \left[\frac{\partial \ell_i(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right] \right) \times \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{\partial \ell_i(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right]^T \mathbf{V}_i^{-1} \left[\frac{\partial \ell_i(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right] \right)^{-1}$$

scale parameter $\text{by default estimated by these GEE models}$

Notes 4: Generalized Linear Models

When modeling data in a GLM, the marginal variance is completely determined by the mean.

Often this assumption does not hold, e.g., we have more variability in the observed data.

One approach to account for this is by assuming a **overdispersion parameter**:

$$\text{g}(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}_i]) = \mathbf{X}_i \beta$$

Parameter ϕ is known as the scale (or dispersion) parameter for a generalized linear model. $\phi = 1$ indicates no excess residual variation. As before, GEE estimates can be found by solving (1).

Note there is no density generating the estimating equation. Therefore the GEE estimation methodology is also known as a quasi likelihood approach.

Notes 4: Generalized Linear Models

Example: 2 x 2 Crossover Trial \rightarrow BINARY response variable logistic GEE model

Data were collected from a crossover trial on the disease-modifying effects of the drug A to investigate the side effects of a treatment drug compared to a placebo.

Design:

- * 34 patients: an active drug (A) and followed by a placebo (B)
- * 33 patients: a placebo (B) and followed by an active drug (A)
- * Outcome: electrocardiogram determined normal (0) or abnormal (1)
- * Each patient has two binary observations for period 1 or period 2.

Data:

	Response		Period		
Group	(1,1)	(0,1)	(1,0)	(0,0)	Total
A-B	6	6	6	28	33
B-A	18	4	3	9	30
					34

Example: 2 x 2 Crossover Trial

Notes 4: Generalized Linear Models

Interpreting logistic GEE model parameters

Same interpretation as logistic regression, with the added consideration that these effects are at the population level!

Exponentiated coefficients are **odds ratios** *cooks or log OLS!*

```
## confint(summary(resg.ez))
##             Estimate Std. Error Wald Pr(>|W|)
## (Intercept) -0.53640 0.42271 0.7426 3.888e-01
## baseline     1.39967 0.32731 37.2127 1.059e-09
## treatactive   1.28288 0.35088 13.1495 2.558e-04
## sexmale      -0.27134 0.42263 0.4123 5.209e-01
## age          -0.91277 0.01334 1.0540 3.041e-01
```

- * $\beta_0 = \text{Intercept}$ The log odds of poor respiratory status for females aged 0 with good baseline status at baseline who received placebo (not interpretable)
- * $\beta_{\text{baseline}} = 1.3997$ The log odds ratio of poor respiratory status comparing those with poor baseline status to those with good baseline status, controlling for age, sex, and treatment.
- * $\beta_{\text{treatactive}} = 1.2828$ The log odds ratio of poor respiratory status comparing those who received active treatment to those who received placebo, controlling for age, sex, and baseline status

Group	[1,2]	[0,1]	[1,0]	[0,0]	1	2	Total
A-B	22	0	6	6	28	22	33
B-A	18	4	2	9	20	22	34

- $\beta_{baseline} = 1.997$: The log odds ratio of poor respiratory status comparing those with poor respiratory status at baseline to those with good respiratory status at baseline, controlling for age, sex, and treatment.
- $\beta_{treatment} = 1.283$: The log odds ratio of poor respiratory status comparing those who received active treatment to those who received placebo, controlling for age, sex, and baseline status.

Interpreting logistic GEE model parameters

Same interpretation as logistic regression, with the added consideration that these effects are at the population level

- Exponentiated coefficients are log-odds ratios
 - $e^{\text{baseline}} = 7.36$: The odds of poor respiratory status for those with poor respiratory status at baseline are 7.36 times the odds of poor respiratory status for those with good respiratory status at baseline, controlling for age, sex, and treatment.
 - $e^{\text{treat}} = 3.61$: The odds of poor respiratory status for those who received active treatment are 3.61 times the odds of poor respiratory status for those who received placebo, controlling for age, sex, and baseline status.

```
broom::tidy(resp_ex, exp = TRUE, conf.int = TRUE) %>%  
  knitr::kable(digits = 2)
```

- The marginal approach models the exchangeable correlation **directly** on the observed data.
- The conditional approach induces an exchangeable correlation **on the logit transformed mean trend**. This approach models group-specific baseline log odds explicitly.

~~Converges to center?~~

Another note on marginal versus conditional
~~is it marginally normal?~~

Marginal

$\log(E(Y_{it})) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{it} + \beta_2 \text{period}_{t-1} + \beta_3 \text{period}_t + \text{period}_{t+1}$

Conditional (Random intercept model): GMM

$\log(E(Y_{it} | \mathbf{x}_{it})) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{it} + \beta_2 \text{period}_{t-1} + \beta_3 \text{period}_t + \text{period}_{t+1}$

Additional assumption: β_0 is constant, can have different intercepts across time periods

Note:

$E(\log(E(Y_{it} | \mathbf{x}_{it}))) \neq \log(E(Y_{it}))$

```

> library(glm)
> library(lme4)
> dat = read.table("B2y2.txt", header = T)

> #GLM
> fit.glm = glm(covariate~trt*period, data = dat, family = binomial)

> Marginal GLM model with each covariate
> fit.glm = glm(covariate~trt, data = dat,
+ family = binomial(link = "logit"), contrasts = TRUE)

> Marginal GLM model with ind covar
> fit.ind = glm(covariate~trt*period, id = 10, data = dat,
+ family = binomial(link = "logit"), contrasts = TRUE)

> Marginal GLM model with autocorrelation
> fit.ac = glmer(covariate~trt*period+(1|ID), data=dat,
+ family = binomial, nAGQ = 21)

has really  
to be 25, not 21

```

• Summary (10 mins):

- GER: GENERALIZED LINEAR MODELS FOR DISCRETE DATA (cont'd)
- Poisson, multinomial, & binomial distributions
- Model:

 - Link: $\text{Logistic} = \frac{\exp(x\beta)}{1 + \exp(x\beta)}$
 - Deviance to Mean Relation: $\text{Deviance} = -2 \sum y_i \ln(p_i)$
 - Correlation Structure: $\text{Autocorrelation} = \frac{\text{Var}(e_i)}{\text{Var}(e_i) + \text{Var}(x_i\beta)}$

• Examples (10 mins):

- *Example 1: Endemic Malaria*: R. E. Barker & Robert G. S. Salomon et al. (1996). *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Series C*, 35, 229-243.
- *Example 2: Overdispersion*: J. N. S.目 (1989). *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Series B*, 51, 3-25.
- *Example 3: Poisson Regression*: J. N. S.目 (1989). *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Series B*, 51, 23-32.
- *Example 4: Binomial Regression*: J. N. S.目 (1989). *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Series B*, 51, 33-43.

• Estimated Scale Parameter: 1.000000

• Working Covariance:

- $\hat{C}_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
- $\hat{C}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
- $\hat{C}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
- $\hat{C}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

• $\hat{C}_0 = \hat{C}_1 = \hat{C}_2 = \hat{C}_3$ (very slight one dispersion).

• $\text{Cor}(y_{ij}, y_{kl}) = 0.06$ (note this is the binary outcome).

• *Model 1: Generalized Linear Model*

Results Comparison

and $p < 0$ (paired t-test)
less than 0.05
D = 0.05

Approach	β_0	New SE	Robust SE
GLM	1.11	0.57	NA
GEE, Independence	1.11	0.58	NA
GEE, Exchangeable	1.11	0.58	0.57
Random intercept	-2.00	2.14	NA

Legend:

- The three marginal models give the same point estimates. In contrast, a mixed model gives slightly different estimates, giving smaller standard errors compared to standard GLM, \sim justify the use of the GLMM
- The conditional effect is larger than the marginal estimate.

Conclusion: GEE was easier to generate than mixed model

Example: Vitamin A and Respiratory Infection → 

250 children in Indonesia examined in 3-month intervals for 6 visits.

Variables: *vitamin A deficiency*

For child at time t :

- response indicator that the child was suffering from a respiratory infection → *report var. b1*
- time_t: time in months since initial visit.
- sex_t: 0 = female, 1 = male
- age_t: indicator for whether the child had Vitamin A deficiency (0 = no, 1 = yes) → *(response)*
- age_t: in years.

Goal:

We are interested in determining the association between vitamin A deficiency and respiratory infection.

odd of odds of 

Yij ~ Bernoulli ($P(Y_{ij}=1)$) **for all models**
Models for V_{it} as a def.

GLM

logit: $\ln(P(Y_{ij}=1)) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1ij} + \beta_2 x_{2ij} + \beta_3 x_{3ij} + \beta_4 x_{4ij}$

with and without *overdispersion*: "Gaussian generalized"
 Marginal (GE): "Family: Gaussian"
 "Family: Binomial"

logit: $\ln(P(Y_{ij}=1)) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1ij} + \beta_2 x_{2ij} + \beta_3 x_{3ij} + \beta_4 x_{4ij}$

Convar.: $\text{diag}(1/(E(Y_{ij})D_i)^{1/2})$

$R_u(\alpha)$ = independent, exchangeable, AR(1) correlation or unstructured
 independence, parameter, scale parameters

Conditional (Residual intercept model):
 $E(Y_{ij}|D_i) = 100\alpha + 100\beta_0 + 100\beta_1 D_i + 100\beta_2 D_i^2 + 100\beta_3 D_i^3 + 100\beta_4 D_i^4$

$\logit P(y_{ij} = 1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1ij} + \beta_2 x_{2ij} + \beta_3 x_{3ij}$
 $Cov(\epsilon_{ij}) = \sigma^2 R_i^{-1}(D_i)^{-1}$
 $R_i(a) = \text{independent, exchangeable, AR(1) correlation, or unstructured}$
 independent parameter, scale parameter
Conditional (Random intercept)
 $\logit P(y_{ij} = 1|t_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1ij} + \beta_2 x_{2ij} + \beta_3 x_{3ij} + \epsilon_{ij}$
 $\epsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

$\beta_3 \sim \text{Normal} \dots | D_3 \dots$
 Note: For example, we should be due to use this
 only if we know it's true and β_3

R Code

```

## GEE without over-dispersion
fit.g1 <- glm(response ~ Intercept + x1+x2+x3, family=binomial)
## GEE with over-dispersion (Poisson option)
fit.g2 <- glmer(response ~ Intercept + x1+x2+x3, family=poisson)
fit.lid <- glm(response ~ Intercept + x1+x2+x3, family=binomial, link="logit")
fit.sch <- glm(response ~ Intercept + x1+x2+x3, family=poisson, weights=(lambda))
fit.ar1 <- glm(response ~ Intercept + x1+x2+x3, family=binomial, corstr="auto")
fit.unstr <- glm(response ~ Intercept + x1+x2+x3, family=binomial, corstr="unstructured", weights=(lambda))
fit.ez <- glmer(response ~ Intercept + x1+x2+x3, family=poisson, link="logit", weights=(lambda))
fit.mle <- glmer(response ~ Intercept + x1+x2+x3, family=poisson, link="logit", corstr="ML")

```

Estimated Correlation Matrix

	Intercept	x1	x2	x3
Intercept	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
x1	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00
x2	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00
x3	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00

AR(1)

	Intercept	x1	x2	x3
Intercept	1.00	-0.20	-0.20	-0.20
x1	-0.20	1.00	0.00	0.00
x2	-0.20	0.00	1.00	0.00
x3	-0.20	0.00	0.00	1.00

Unstructured

	Intercept	x1	x2	x3
Intercept	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
x1	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00
x2	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00
x3	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00

Note: For example, we should be due to use this
 only if we know it's true and β_3

Results Comparison

Approach	Log Odds Vitamin Effect (s)			
	β_0	β_1	Naive SE	Robust SE
GLM	0.287	0.117	0.117	0.117
Quas GLM	0.287	0.117	0.117	0.117
GEE (independence)	0.276	0.230	0.230	0.230
GEE (exchangeable)	0.276	0.230	0.230	0.230
GEE (AR 1)	0.286	0.234	0.234	0.234
GEE (unstructured)	0.284	0.234	0.220	0.196
Random intercept	0.631	0.459	0.459	0.459

Note: For example, we should be due to use this
 only if we know it's true and β_3

Marginal: Assuming an exchangeable correlation for the respiratory infection term, the estimate is 0.287. The estimate is a population-average OR for vitamin deficiency $\exp(0.287) = 1.32$ with a 95% confidence interval of [0.85, 2.04] using a robust standard error. The number of children is 100, the number of children per household is 1, and the number of households is 100. Therefore, our results suggest no association between vitamin deficiency and the presence of respiratory infection.

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The marginal interpretation in GEEs may be more intuitive. E.g., if you looked at mortality across different diagnostic categories, the numbers in a GEE will be closer to mortality rates in a demographic table.

Use GLMM when you are interested in subject-specific predictions. The GLMM improves predictions using the *estimates* of the random effects. GLMMs can also be useful for hierarchical modeling, in which case GEE software has limited flexibility.

GEEs provide robust standard errors, which decreases false positives, i.e., prevent us from rejecting null hypotheses. GLMMs make stronger distributional assumptions (no sandwich estimators).

The marginal interpretation in GEEs may be more intuitive. E.g., if you

looked at mortality across different diagnostic categories, the numbers in a GEE will be closer to mortality rates in a demographic table.

Poisson GEE models:
 Coefficients are log rate ratios
 Exponentiated coefficients are rate ratios

Some interpretation as Poisson Regression
 but specify they're at pop level

GEE can't predict this
 we only get pop avg

Assumes assumption
 about homoscedasticity
 i.e. If you have
 hetero, use GEE

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