

Transition Models

Outline

- Model Specification
- Fitting Transition Models
- Transition Models for Binary Responses Data
- Transition Models example: ICHS data

Transition Models

- The distribution of the observed response at time j , Y_{ij} , is modeled conditionally as an *explicit* function of the past responses $\mathcal{H}_{ij} = (Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{ij-1})$ and covariates \mathbf{X}_{ij} .
- Typically, a Markov model is assumed, that is, Y_{ij} only depends on q (the *order* of the Markov process) previous responses

$$\Pr(Y_{ij} \mid \mathcal{H}_{ij}) = \Pr(Y_{ij} \mid Y_{ij-1}, \dots, Y_{ij-q}).$$

- For notational convenience, we assume that the observational times are equally spaced. If they aren't, we need stronger assumptions about the functional form of the time dependence.

Model Specification

- $Y_{ij} \mid \mathcal{H}_{ij}$ is assumed to be from an exponential family distribution:

$$f(y_{ij} \mid \mathcal{H}_{ij}) = \exp\{[y_{ij}\theta_{ij} - b(\theta_{ij})]/\phi + c(y_{ij}, \phi)\}.$$

- Conditional mean $\mu_{ij}^C = E(Y_{ij} \mid \mathcal{H}_{ij}) = b'(\theta_{ij})$ satisfies

$$g(\mu_{ij}^C) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \sum_{r=1}^s f_r(\mathcal{H}_{ij}; \boldsymbol{\alpha})$$

for some functions $f_r(\cdot)$.

- Conditional variance

$$v_{ij}^C = \text{Var}(Y_{ij} \mid \mathcal{H}_{ij}) = b''(\theta_{ij})\phi$$

satisfies

$$v_{ij}^C = V(\mu_{ij}^C)\phi.$$

Examples

- Continuous response: linear regression with autoregressive errors.

$$Y_{ij} = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \sum_{r=1}^q \alpha_r (y_{ij-r} - \mathbf{X}_{ij-r}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}) + \epsilon_{ij},$$

where ϵ_{ij} are iid zero-mean Gaussian r.v.'s.

– $E[Y_{ij}] = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$ no matter what q is.

- Binary responses:

$$g(\mu_{ij}^C) = \text{logit}(\mu_{ij}^C) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \sum_{r=1}^q \alpha_r y_{ij-r}.$$

The interpretation of the regression coefficients depends on the order q (i.e. $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{\beta}_q$).

- Count responses: $q = 1$

$$\log(\mu_{ij}^C) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha (\log y_{ij-1}^* - \mathbf{X}_{ij-1}^T \boldsymbol{\beta})$$

where

$$y_{ij-1}^* = \max(y_{ij-1}, c); 0 < c < 1$$

which leads to

$$\mu_{ij}^C = e^{\mathbf{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}} \left(\frac{y_{ij-1}^*}{\exp(\mathbf{x}_{ij-1}^T \boldsymbol{\beta})} \right)^\alpha.$$

- The constant c prevents $y_{i,j-1} = 0$ from being an absorbing state (otherwise $Y_{ij-1} = 0 \Rightarrow Y_{ik} = 0$ for all $k \geq j$).
- For $\alpha < 0$, a response at time $t - 1$ greater than $e^{\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}}$ (not its expected value) decreases the expectation for the current response. When $\alpha > 0$ the opposite occurs (positive correlation).

Fitting Transitional Models

- The likelihood of \mathbf{Y}_i is not always fully specified.
 - In a first order Markov model, the likelihood contribution for the i th subject

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_i(Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{in_i}) &= f(Y_{i1})f(Y_{i2}|Y_{i1}) \cdots, f(Y_{in_i}|Y_{in_i-1}) \\ &= f(Y_{i1}) \prod_{j=2}^{n_i} f(Y_{ij} | Y_{ij-1}).\end{aligned}$$

- In a Markov model of order q ,

$$\mathcal{L}_i(Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{in_i}) = f(Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{iq}) \prod_{j=q+1}^{n_i} f(Y_{ij} | Y_{ij-1}, \dots, Y_{ij-q}).$$

The assumed model only specifies the conditional distribution $f(y_{ij} | \mathcal{H}_{ij})$; $f(Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{iq})$ is not specified directly.

- When the marginal distribution of \mathbf{Y}_i is not fully specified by the conditional model, we can estimate $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ by maximizing the conditional likelihood, which is (for one subject i)

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_i^C(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) &= f(Y_{iq+1}, \dots, Y_{in} \mid Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{iq}; \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) \\ &= \prod_{j=q+1}^{n_i} f(Y_{ij} \mid Y_{ij-1}, \dots, Y_{ij-q}; \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}).\end{aligned}$$

- When maximizing the conditional likelihood, there are two distinct cases to consider:
 - If $f_r(\mathcal{H}_{ij}; \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \alpha_r f_r(\mathcal{H}_{ij})$ where f_r is known (does not depend on unknown parameters $\boldsymbol{\beta}$), i.e.

$$g(\mu_{ij}^C) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \sum_{r=1}^q \alpha_r f_r(\mathcal{H}_{ij}),$$

which is linear in both $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_q)$, then we can simply regress Y_{ij} on the $(p + q)$ -dimensional variables $(\mathbf{X}_{ij}, f_1(\mathcal{H}_{ij}), \dots, f_r(\mathcal{H}_{ij}))$. The estimation proceeds as in GLMs for independent data.

– In general, $f_r(\mathcal{H}_{ij}; \boldsymbol{\alpha})$ may include both $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, i.e. $f_r(\mathcal{H}_{ij}; \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})$. The conditional score function is

$$\mathbf{S}^C(\boldsymbol{\delta}) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}^C(\boldsymbol{\delta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\delta}} = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=q+1}^n \frac{\partial \mu_{ij}^C}{\partial \boldsymbol{\delta}} (v_{ij}^C)^{-1} (y_{ij} - \mu_{ij}^C),$$

where $\boldsymbol{\delta} = (\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$. The derivative $\partial \mu_{ij}^C / \partial \boldsymbol{\delta}$ depends on both $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$.

• Intuitively we can use an iterative weighted least squares method to solve $\boldsymbol{\delta}$.

(1) Given current estimate of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}^{(l)}$. Let \mathbf{X}_i^* be an $(n_i - q) \times (p + s)$ matrix with the k^{th} row $= (\partial \mu_{i,q+k}^C) / \partial \boldsymbol{\delta}$, $k = 1, \dots, n_i - q$. Let $\mathbf{W}_i = \text{diag}(1/v_{i,q+k}^C, k = 1, \dots, n_i - q)$ be a diagonal weighting matrix. Finally, let $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{X}_i^* \hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}^{(l)} + (\mathbf{Y}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_i^C)$.

(2) Regress \mathbf{Z} on \mathbf{X}_i^* using weights \mathbf{W} to get $\hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}^{(l+1)}$.

< Why? >

- When both the conditional mean and conditional variance are correctly specified, the variance of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}$ is $(\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}_i^{*T} \mathbf{W}_i \mathbf{X}_i^*)^{-1}$.
- If the conditional mean is correctly specified but the conditional variance is not, we can use empirical variance estimates to get consistent inferences about $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ (see the Weighted Least Squares lecture handout).
- Statistical package developed for GEE of marginal models can be utilized, and this approach shares the same robustness property enjoyed by GEE for marginal models.
- Interestingly, when the Markov assumption does not hold, we can still get consistent confidence intervals for $\hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}$. However, the interpretation of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}$ is questionable because $\mu_{ij}^C(\hat{\boldsymbol{\delta}})$ is not the conditional mean anymore.
- If q is large relative to n_i , the use of transitional models with conditional likelihood could be inefficient.

Transition models for Binary Responses data

- A first-order Markov chain is characterized by the transition matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \pi_{00} & \pi_{01} \\ \pi_{10} & \pi_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

Two possible states: 1 (disease), 0 (no disease) and $\pi_{ab} = \Pr(Y_{ij} = b | Y_{ij-1} = a)$: transition probability from state a to state b , where $a, b = 0, 1$.

- We can model the transition probabilities as functions of covariates using separate regressions

$$\text{logit } \Pr(Y_{ij} = 1 | Y_{ij-1} = 0, \mathbf{x}_{ij}) = \mathbf{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_0,$$

$$\text{logit } \Pr(Y_{ij} = 1 | Y_{ij-1} = 1, \mathbf{x}_{ij}) = \mathbf{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_1.$$

- This is equivalent to the transition model

$$\text{logit Pr}(Y_{ij} = 1 \mid y_{ij-1}) = \mathbf{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + y_{ij-1} \mathbf{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\alpha} \quad (1)$$

where

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{\beta}_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \boldsymbol{\alpha} = \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 - \boldsymbol{\beta}_0.$$

- The transition probabilities are

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_{01} &= \frac{e^{\mathbf{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_0}}{1 + e^{\mathbf{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_0}}, & \pi_{00} &= 1 - \pi_{01} \\ \pi_{11} &= \frac{e^{\mathbf{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_1}}{1 + e^{\mathbf{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_1}}, & \pi_{10} &= 1 - \pi_{11} \end{aligned}$$

- We can test whether certain covariates have effects on the transition probabilities by testing whether all items in $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ except for the intercept term are zero: $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\alpha_0, \mathbf{0})$, so that $y_{ij-1} \mathbf{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\alpha} = \alpha_0 y_{ij-1}$, which implies that the covariates have the same effect on the response probability no matter $y_{ij-1} = 0$ or 1.

Indonesian Children Health Study (ICHS)

Transition probability $\Pr(Y_{ij} = 1 \mid y_{ij-1})$ for ICHS data: Table 10.1 in DHZL.

Table 1: Number (frequency) of transitions from respiratory disease status Y_{ij-1} at visit $j - 1$ to disease status Y_{ij} at visit j for ICHS data

Y_{ij-1}	Y_{ij}		
	0	1	
0	721 (0.923)	60 (0.077)	781 (1.0)
1	64 (0.865)	10 (0.135)	74 (1.0)
			855

```
> xerop <- read.table ("../data/xerop.data",
+                      col.names = c("id", "RI", "intercept", "age",
+                      "xero", "cos.time", "sin.time", "sex",
+                      "height.age", "stunted", "time", "base.age", "season",
+                      "time.time"))

> #create data for transition analysis
> xeropw <- reshape (xerop, direction = "wide",
+                   v.names = c("RI", "xero", "age", "season"),
+                   idvar = c("id"), timevar = "time",
+                   drop = c("intercept", "cos.time", "sin.time", "height.age",
+                   "stunted", "base.age", "time.time", "ageyr"))
> #creat previous responses
> xeropw$RIpy.2 <- xeropw$RI.1
> xeropw$RIpy.3 <- xeropw$RI.2
> xeropw$RIpy.4 <- xeropw$RI.3
> xeropw$RIpy.5 <- xeropw$RI.4
> xeropw$RIpy.6 <- xeropw$RI.5
> xeropL <- reshape (xeropw[,-(3:6)], direction = "long", idvar = c("id"), varying=3:27)
> #delete the missing values
> xeropL <- xeropL[!(is.na(xeropL$RI)|is.na(xeropL$RIpy)),]
> xeropL<- xeropL[order(xeropL$id,xeropL$time),]
> nrow(xeropL)
[1] 855

> #creat indicator for 2nd season
```

```
> xeropL$sea2 <- ifelse(xeropL$season==2,1,0)

#table 10.1
> freq.tab10.1 <- table(xeropL$RIpy,xeropL$RI)
> prop.tab10.1 <- round(prop.table(freq.tab10.1,1),3)
> marg.tab10.1 <- margin.table(freq.tab10.1,1)

> cbind(freq.tab10.1,tot=marg.tab10.1)

      0  1 tot
0 721 60 781
1  64 10  74

> prop.tab10.1

      0      1
0 0.923 0.077
1 0.865 0.135
```

Table 2: DHZL Table 10.2 Cross tabulation of respiratory disease Y_{ij} against xerophthalmia status x_{ij} for ICHS data

x_{ij}	Y_{ij}		
	0	1	
0	748 (0.920)	65 (0.080)	813 (1.0)
1	37 (0.881)	5 (0.119)	42 (1.0)
			855

An important question is whether vitA was associated with a higher prevalence of respiratory infection. Let's recreate Table 10.2 in DHZL (there is discrepancy between the table and what I got from the data).

```
> freq.tab10.2 <- table(xeropL$xero,xeropL$RI)
> prop.tab10.2 <- round(prop.table(freq.tab10.2,1),3)
> marg.tab10.2 <- margin.table(freq.tab10.2,1)
> cbind(freq.tab10.2,tot=marg.tab10.2)
```

```
      0  1 tot
0 749 65 814
1  36  5  41
```

```
> prop.tab10.2
```

```
      0      1
0 0.920 0.080
1 0.878 0.122
```

```
> #log odds of infection among children without xerophthalmia
```

```
> log(prop.tab10.2[1,2]/prop.tab10.2[1,1])
```

```
[1] -2.442347
```

```
> #log odds ratio of infection with vs. without xerophthalmia
```

```
> log((prop.tab10.2[2,2]/prop.tab10.2[2,1])/(prop.tab10.2[1,2]/prop.tab10.2[1,1]))
```

```
[1] 0.4687215
```


Table 3: Cross-tabulation of current respiratory disease status Y_{ij} against xerophthalmia x_{ij} and previous respiratory disease status Y_{ij-1} for ICHS data

x_{ij}	$Y_{ij} Y_{ij-1} = 0$			$Y_{ij} Y_{ij-1} = 1$		
	0	1		0	1	
0	688 (0.925)	56 (0.075)	744 (1.0)	60 (0.870)	9 (0.130)	69 (1.0)
1	33 (0.892)	4 (0.108)	37 (1.0)	4 (0.800)	1 (0.200)	5 (1.0)
			855			74

```
> #table 10.3
> mytrantab <- function(x,y)
+ freqtab<- table(x,y)
+ proptab <- round(prop.table(freqtab,1),3)
+ margtab <- margin.table(freqtab,1)
+ return(list(frequency=cbind(freqtab,tot=margtab),proption=proptab))
+
> pr0 <- xeropL$RIpy==0
> # no. infection in previous visit
> mytrantab(xeropL$xero[pr0],xeropL$RI[pr0])
$frequency
  0  1 tot
```

```
0 689 56 745
1  32  4  36
$proption
      0      1
0 0.925 0.075
1 0.889 0.111
> log((0.111/.889)/(.075/.925))
[1] 0.4317386

> #infection in previous visit
> mytrantab(xeropL$xero[!pr0],xeropL$RI[!pr0])
$frequence
  0 1 tot
0 60 9  69
1  4 1   5
$proption
      0      1
0 0.87 0.13
1 0.80 0.20
> log((0.20/.80)/(.13/.87))
[1] 0.5146644
```

The previous results suggest a model

$$\text{logit Pr}(Y_{ij} = 1 | Y_{ij-1} = y_{ij-1}) = \mathbf{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha y_{ij-1}.$$

First, let's fit several logistic regressions for the 855 respiratory disease transitions in ICHS data: Table 10.4 in DHZL.

```
> library(gee)
> mod1 <- gee (RI ~ xero,
+             scale.fix = TRUE, cor = "independent",
+             id = id, data = xeropL, family = "binomial")
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Naive S.E.	Naive z	Robust S.E.	Robust z
(Intercept)	-2.4443517	0.1293048	-18.903799	0.1357392	-18.0077053
xero	0.4702707	0.4944669	0.951066	0.5413819	0.8686487

```
> mod2 <- gee (RI ~ xero+RIpy+RIpy*xero,
+             scale.fix = TRUE, cor = "independence",
+             id = id, data = xeropL, family = "binomial")
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Naive S.E.	Naive z	Robust S.E.	Robust z
(Intercept)	-2.50988958	0.1389551	-18.06259331	0.1405040	-17.86347668
xero	0.43044804	0.5482322	0.78515646	0.5076427	0.84793510

RIpy	0.61276960	0.3835183	1.59775836	0.4054718	1.51125072
xero:RIpy	0.08037759	1.2955062	0.06204338	1.1035169	0.07283766

```
> mod3 <- gee (RI ~ xero+RIpy,
+             scale.fix = TRUE, cor = "independence",
+             id = id, data = xeropL, family = "binomial")
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Naive S.E.	Naive z	Robust S.E.	Robust z
(Intercept)	-2.5108031	0.1382267	-18.1643818	0.1407673	-17.836551
xero	0.4445944	0.4962070	0.8959858	0.5338671	0.832781
RIpy	0.6197126	0.3661443	1.6925366	0.3847436	1.610716

```
> mod4 <- gee (RI ~ xero+age+sea2+RIpy+RIpy*xero+RIpy*age+RIpy*sea2,
+             scale.fix = TRUE, cor = "independence",
+             id = id, data = xeropL, family = "binomial")
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Naive S.E.	Naive z	Robust S.E.	Robust z
(Intercept)	-2.8462484299	0.181559204	-15.67669593	0.175640463	-16.20496998
xero	0.8124232191	0.567694732	1.43109170	0.493330064	1.64681474
age	-0.0237589967	0.007496458	-3.16936293	0.007002374	-3.39299171
sea2	1.2317354199	0.287880788	4.27863016	0.277189207	4.44366298

RIpy	0.8277026434	0.457623654	1.80869725	0.444357904	1.86269364
xero:RIpy	-0.1389588693	1.329988869	-0.10448123	1.112323923	-0.12492662
age:RIpy	0.0006205091	0.028164087	0.02203193	0.023899760	0.02596298
sea2:RIpy	-1.2376343514	1.190985488	-1.03916829	1.185491429	-1.04398423

```
> mod5 <- gee (RI ~ xero+age+sea2+RIpy,
+              scale.fix = TRUE, cor = "independence",
+              id = id, data = xeropL, family = "binomial")
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Naive S.E.	Naive z	Robust S.E.	Robust z
(Intercept)	-2.81006738	0.17481819	-16.074227	0.169882045	-16.541285
xero	0.80140086	0.51204568	1.565096	0.532535939	1.504877
age	-0.02314326	0.00718448	-3.221285	0.006508378	-3.555918
sea2	1.13668651	0.27564425	4.123745	0.270214068	4.206615
RIpy	0.62233686	0.37747929	1.648665	0.404181119	1.539747

```
> The naive S.E.'s from gee, when a working indep. corr. is assumed, are the same as those from GLM
> glm.mod1 <- glm (RI ~ xero, data = xeropL, family = "binomial")
> summary (glm.mod1)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)
(Intercept)	-2.4444	0.1293	-18.904	<2e-16 ***
xero	0.4703	0.4945	0.951	0.342

Further Reading

- Chapter 10 of DHLZ.