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## Session 4: loglinear regression part 1

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## **Learning objectives**

- 1 Define log-linear models in GLM framework
- 2 Identify situations that motivate use of log-linear models
- 3 Define the Poisson distribution and the log-linear Poisson GLM
- 4 Identify applications and properties of the Poisson distribution
- 5 Define multicollinearity and identify resulting issues

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### **Outline**

- Brief review of GLMs
- 2 Motivating example for log-linear models
- 3 Poisson log-linear GLM
- 4 Notes on Multicollinearity

Reading: Vittinghoff textbook chapter 8.1-8.3

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## **Brief review of GLMs**

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## Components of GLM

- Random component specifies the conditional distribution for the response variable - it doesn't have to be normal but can be any distribution that belongs to the "exponential" family of distributions
- Systematic component specifies linear function of predictors (linear predictor)
- Link [denoted by g(.)] specifies the relationship between the expected value of the random component and the systematic component, can be linear or nonlinear

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## **Linear Regression as GLM**

• The model:

$$y_i = E[y|x] + \epsilon_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \dots + \beta_p x_{pi} + \epsilon_i$$

- Random component of  $y_i$  is normally distributed:  $\epsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2)$
- **Systematic component** (linear predictor):  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + ... + \beta_p x_{pi}$
- Link function here is the *identity link*: g(E(y|x)) = E(y|x). We are modeling the mean directly, no transformation.

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## Logistic Regression as GLM

• The model:

$$Logit(P(x)) = log\left(\frac{P(x)}{1 - P(x)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \dots + \beta_p x_p$$

- Random component:  $y_i$  follows a Binomial distribution (outcome is a binary variable)
- Systematic component: linear predictor

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \dots + \beta_p x_{pi}$$

• Link function: logit (Converts Prob -> log-odds)

$$g(P(x)) = logit(P(x)) = log\left(\frac{P(x)}{1 - P(x)}\right)$$

$$P(x) = g^{-1} (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \dots + \beta_p x_{pi})$$

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# Additive vs. Multiplicative models

- Linear regression is an *additive* model
  - e.g. for two binary variables  $\beta_1 = 1.5$ ,  $\beta_2 = 1.5$ .
  - If  $x_1 = 1$  and  $x_2 = 1$ , this adds 3.0 to E(y|x)
- Logistic regression is a *multiplicative* model
  - If  $x_1 = 1$  and  $x_2 = 1$ , this adds 3.0 to  $log(\frac{P}{1-P})$
  - Odds-ratio  $\frac{P}{1-P}$  increases 20-fold: exp(1.5+1.5) or exp(1.5)\*exp(1.5)

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# Motivating example for log-linear models

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# Effectiveness of a depression case-management program

- Research question: can a new treatment reduce the number of needed visits to the emergency room, compared to standard care?
- outcome: # of emergency room visits for each patient in the year following initial treatment
- predictors:
  - race (white or nonwhite)
  - treatment (treated or control)
  - amount of alcohol consumption (numerical measure)
  - drug use (numerical measure)

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### Statistical issues

- 1 about 1/3 of observations are exactly 0 (did not return to the emergency room within the year)
- 2 highly nonnormal and cannot be transformed to be approximately normal
- 3 even  $log(y_i + 1)$  transformation will have a "lump" at zero + over 1/2 the transformed data would have values of 0 or log(2)
- 4 a linear regression model would give negative predictions for some covariate combinations
- 5 some subjects die or cannot be followed up on for a whole year

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## Poisson log-linear GLM

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### Towards a reasonable model

- A multiplicative model will allow us to make inference on ratios of mean emergency room usage
- Modeling log of the mean emergency usage ensures positive means, and does not suffer from log(0) problem
- Random component of GLM, or residuals (was  $\epsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$  for linear regression) may still not be normal, but we can choose from other distributions

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## Proposed model without time

$$log(E[Y_i]) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 RACE_i + \beta_2 TRT_i + \beta_3 ALCH_i + \beta_4 DRUG_i$$

Or equivalently:

$$E[Y_i] = \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 RACE_i + \beta_2 TRT_i + \beta_3 ALCH_i + \beta_4 DRUG_i)$$

where  $E[Y_i]$  is the expected number of emergency room visits for patient i.

• Important note: Modeling  $log(E[Y_i])$  is not equivalent to modeling  $E(log(Y_i))$ 

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## Accounting for follow-up time

Instead, model mean count per unit time:

$$log(E[Y_i]/t_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 RACE_i + \beta_2 TRT_i + \beta_3 ALCH_i + \beta_4 DRUG_i$$

Or equivalently:

$$log(E[Y_i]) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 RACE_i + \beta_2 TRT_i + \beta_3 ALCH_i + \beta_4 DRUG_i + log(t_i)$$

•  $log(t_i)$  is not a covariate, it is called an *offset* 

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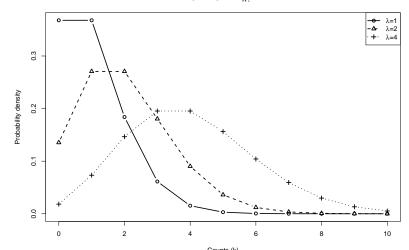
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### The Poisson distribution

- Count data are often modeled as Poisson distributed:
  - mean  $\lambda$  is greater than 0
  - variance is also  $\lambda$
  - Probability density  $P(k,\lambda) = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}$



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# When the Poisson distribution works

- Individual events are low-probability (small p), but many opportunities (large n)
  - e.g. # 911 calls per day
  - e.g. # emergency room visits
- Approximates the binomial distribution when n is large and p is small
  - e.g. n > 20, np < 5 or n(1-p) < 5
- When mean of residuals is approx. equal to variance

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# GLM with log-linear link and Poisson error model

• Model the number of counts per unit time as Poisson-distributed + so the expected number of counts per time is  $\lambda_i$ 

$$E[Y_i]/t_i = \lambda_i$$

$$log(E[Y_i]/t_i) = log(\lambda_i)$$

$$log(E[Y_i]) = log(\lambda_i) + log(t_i)$$

Recalling the log-linear model systematic component:

$$log(E[Y_i]) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 RACE_i + \beta_2 TRT_i + \beta_3 ALCH_i + \beta_4 DRUG_i + log(t_i)$$

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# GLM with log-linear link and Poisson error model (cont'd)

Then the systematic part of the GLM is:

$$log(\lambda_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 RACE_i + \beta_2 TRT_i + \beta_3 ALCH_i + \beta_4 DRUG_i$$

Or alternatively:

$$\lambda_i = exp\left(\beta_0 + \beta_1 RACE_i + \beta_2 TRT_i + \beta_3 ALCH_i + \beta_4 DRUG_i\right)$$

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## Interpretation of coefficients

- Suppose that  $\hat{\beta}_1 = -0.5$  in the fitted model, where  $RACE_i = 0$  for white and  $RACE_i = 1$  for non-white.
- The mean rate of emergency room visits per unit time for white relative to non-white, all else held equal, is estimated to be:

$$\frac{exp(\beta_0 + 0 + \beta_2 \text{TRT}_i + \beta_3 \text{ALCH}_i + \beta_4 \text{DRUG}_i)}{exp(\beta_0 - 0.5 + \beta_2 \text{TRT}_i + \beta_3 \text{ALCH}_i + \beta_4 \text{DRUG}_i)}$$

$$= \frac{e^{\beta_0} e^0 e^{\beta_2 \text{TRT}_i} e^{\beta_3 \text{ALCH}_i} e^{\beta_4 \text{DRUG}_i}}{e^{\beta_0} e^{-0.5} e^{\beta_2 \text{TRT}_i} e^{\beta_3 \text{ALCH}_i} e^{\beta_4 \text{DRUG}_i}}$$

$$= \frac{e^0}{e^{-0.5}}$$

$$= e^{0.5} \approx 1.65$$

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# Interpretation of coefficients (cont'd)

- If  $\hat{\beta}_1 = -0.5$  with whites as the reference group:
  - after adjustment for treatment group, alcohol and drug usage, whites tend to use the emergency room at a rate 1.65 times higher than non-whites.
  - equivalently, the average rate of usage for whites is 65% higher than that for non-whites
- Multiplicative rules apply for other coefficients as well, because they are exponentiated to estimate the mean rate.

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## Multi-collinearity

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## What is Multicollinearity?

- Multicollinearity exists when two or more of the independent variables in regression are moderately or highly correlated.
- 2 High correlation among continuous predictors or high concordance among categorical predictors
- 3 Impacts the ability to estimate regression coefficients
  - larger standard errors for regression coefficients
  - ie, coefficients are unstable over repeated sampling
  - exact collinearity produces infinite standard errors on coefficients
- 4 Can also result in unstable (high variance) prediction models

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## Identifying multicollinearity

- 1 Pairwise correlations of data or of model matrix (latter works with categorical variables)
- 2 Heat maps
- 3 Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) of regression coefficients

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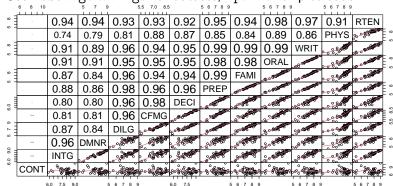
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# Example: US Judge Ratings dataset

See ?USJudgeRatings for dataset, ?pairs for plot code:



<sup>\*\*</sup>Pairwise scatterplot of continuous variables in US Judge Ratings dataset

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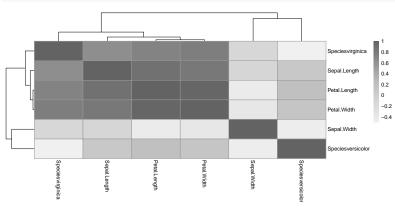
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## **Example:** iris dataset

One categorical variable, so use model matrix. Make a simple heatmap.

```
mm <- model.matrix( - ., data = iris)
pheatmap::pheatmap(cor(mm[, -1]), #-1 gets rid of intercept column
color = colorRampPalette(c("#f0f0f0", "#bdbdbd", "#636363"))(100))</pre>
```



Note: multicollinearity exists between multiple predictors, not between predictor and outcome

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## **Example:** iris dataset

Confirm what in iris dataset using Variance Inflation Factor of a linear regression model:

```
fit <- lm(Sepal.Width ~ ., data = iris)
car::vif(fit)</pre>
```

```
## Speal.Length 6.124653 1 2.474804
## Petal.Length 45.132550 1 6.718076
## Petal.Width 18.373804 1 4.286468
## Species 32.701564 2 2.391344
```

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# Approaches for dealing with multicollinearity

### Options:

- Select a representative variable
- 2 Average variables
- 3 Principal Component Analysis or other dimension reducuction
- 4 For prediction modeling, special methods like penalized regression, Support Vector Machines, . . .

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### **Conclusions**

- Log-linear models are appropriate for non-negative, skewed count data
  - probability of each event is low
- 2 The coefficients of log-linear models are multiplicative
- 3 An offset term can account for varying follow-up time or otherwise varying opportunity to be counted
- 4 Poisson distribution is limit of binomial distribution with high number of trials, low probability
- 5 Inference from log-linear models is sensitive to the choice of error model (assumption on the distribution of residuals)
- 6 We will cover other options next week for when the Poisson error model doesn't fit:
  - Variance proportional to mean, instead of equal
  - Negative Binomial
  - Zero Inflation