## Poisson Regression Negative Binomial Regression

#### **Modelling Rates**

## **Modelling Rates**

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- Can model prevalence (proportion) with logistic regression
- Cannot model incidence in this way
- Need to allow for time at risk (exposure)

Introduction

- Exposure often measured in person-years
- Model a rate (incidents per unit time)



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#### **Assumptions**

- There is a rate at which events occur
- This rate may depend on covariates
- Rate must be ≥ 0
- Expected number of events = rate × exposure
- Events are independent
- Then the number of events observed will follow a Poisson distribution

Poisson Regression

Introduction

### Poisson Regression

- Negative numbers of events are meaningless
- Model  $\log(rate)$ , so that rate can range from  $0 \to \infty$

= r (events per unit exposure)

Count = C (Number of events)

ExposureTime = T

 $\sim$  poisson(rT)

E[C] = rT





$$\log(\hat{r}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_p x_p$$

$$\hat{r} = e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_p x_p}$$

$$E[C] = Tr$$

$$= T \times e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_p x_p}$$

$$= e^{\log(T) + \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_p x_p}$$

$$\log(E[C]) = \log(T) + \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_p x_p$$



- When  $x_i$  increases by 1,  $\log(r)$  increases by  $\beta_i$
- Therefore, r is multiplied by  $e^{\beta_i}$

Parameter Interpretation

- As with logistic regression, coefficients are less interesting than their exponents
- $e^{\beta}$  is the Incidence Rate Ratio



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Poisson Regression in Stata

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#### Poisson Regression Example: Doctor's Study

	S	mokers	Non-smokers			
Age	Deaths	Person-Years	Deaths	Person-Years		
35–44	32	52,407	2	18,790		
45–54	104	43,248	12	10,673		
55–64	206	28,612	28	5,710		
65–74	186	12,663	28	2,585		
75–84	102	5,317	31	1,462		

- Command poisson will do Poisson regression
- Enter the exposure with the option exposure (varname)
- Can also use offset (*lvarname*), where *lvarname* is the log of the exposure
- To obtain Incidence Rate Ratios, use the option irr





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. poisson deaths i.agecat i.smokes,  $\exp(pyears)$  irr

Poisson regression	Number of obs	=	10
	LR chi2(5)	-	922.93
	Prob > chi2	-	0.0000
Log likelihood = -33.600153	Pseudo R2	=	0.9321

deaths	IRR	Std. Err.	Z	P>   z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
agecat						
45-54	4.410584	.8605197	7.61	0.000	3.009011	6.464997
55-64	13.8392	2.542638	14.30	0.000	9.654328	19.83809
65-74	28.51678	5.269878	18.13	0.000	19.85177	40.96395
75-84	40.45121	7.775511	19.25	0.000	27.75326	58.95885
1						
smokes						
Yes	1.425519	.1530638	3.30	0.001	1.154984	1.759421
_cons	.0003636	.0000697	-41.30	0.000	.0002497	.0005296
ln(pyears)	1	(exposure)				

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#### Example: predict

#### predict pred\_n

	Smo	okers	Non-smokers		
Age	Deaths	pred_n	Deaths	pred_n	
35–44	32	27.2	2	6.8	
45-54	104	98.9	12	17.1	
55–64	206	205.3	28	28.7	
65–74	186	187.2	28	26.8	
75–84	102	111.5	31	21.5	

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#### Using predict after poisson

#### Options available:

n (default) expected number of events (rate × duration of exposure)

ir incidence rate

xb linear predictor



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#### Goodness of Fit

- Command estat gof compares observed and expected (from model) counts
- Can detect whether the Poisson model is reasonable
- If not could be due to
  - Systematic part of model poorly specified
  - Random variation not really Poisson
- Degrees of freedom for test = number of categories of observations - number of coefficients in model (including \_cons)





Goodness of Fit Example

#### Improving the fit of the model

. estat gof

Deviance goodness-of-fit = 12.13244 Prob > chi2(4) = 0.0164 Pearson goodness-of-fit = 11.15533 Prob > chi2(4) = 0.0249



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## Example: Improving fit of the model

. poisson deaths i.agecat##i.smokes, exp(pyears) irr

Poisson regression				Number	of obs	-	10
				LR chi	2(9)	-	935.07
				Prob >	chi2	=	0.0000
Log likelihood = $-27.53397$	1			Pseudo	R2	=	0.9444
deaths   IRR	Std.	Err.	Z	P> z	[95%	Conf.	Interval

deaths	IRR	Std. Err.	Z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
agecat						
45-54	10.5631	8.067701	3.09	0.002	2.364153	47.19623
55-64	46.07004	33.71981	5.23	0.000	10.97496	193.3901
65-74	101.764	74.48361	6.32	0.000	24.24256	427.1789
75-84	199.2099	145.3356	7.26	0.000	47.67693	832.3648
smokes						
Yes	5.736637	4.181256	2.40	0.017	1.374811	23.93711
į						
agecat#smokes						
45-54#Yes	.3728337	.2945619	-1.25	0.212	.0792525	1.753951
55-64#Yes	.2559409	.1935392	-1.80	0.072	.0581396	1.126697
65-74#Yes	.2363859	.1788334	-1.91	0.057	.0536612	1.041316
75-84#Yes	.1577109	.1194146	-2.44	0.015	.0357565	.6956154
_cons	.0001064	.0000753	-12.94	0.000	.0000266	.0004256
ln(pyears)	1	(exposure)				



- If the model fit is poor, it can be improved by:
  - Allowing for non-linearity of associations
  - Introducing interaction terms
  - Including other variables



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. testparm i.agecat#i.smokes

chi2(4) = 10.20Prob > chi2 = 0.0372

. lincom 1.smokes + 5.age#1.smokes, eform

( 1) [deaths]1.smokes + [deaths]5.agecat#1.smokes = 0

deaths	exp(b)	Std. Err.	Z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
(1)	.9047304	.1855513	-0.49	0.625	.6052658	1.35236

. estat gof

Deviance goodness-of-fit = .0000694
Prob > chi2(0) = .

Pearson goodness-of-fit = 1.14e-13
Prob > chi2(0) = .



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#### Constraints

- Can force parameters to be equal to each other or specified value
- Can be useful in reducing the number of parameters in a model
- Simplifies description of model
- Enables goodness of fit test
- **Syntax:** constraint define *n varname* = *expression*



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#### Constraint Example Cont.

. estat gof

Deviance goodness-of-fit = .0774185 Prob > chi2(1) = .077808 Pearson goodness-of-fit = .0773882 Prob > chi2(1) = .07809 Introduction
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#### Constraint Example

. constraint define 1 3.agecat#1.smokes = 4.agecat#1.smoke

 $\label{eq:wald_chi2(8)} \mbox{Wald chi2(8)} = \mbox{Log likelihood} = -27.572645 \\ \mbox{Prob} > \mbox{chi2} \\ = \mbox{Prob} > \mbox{chi2}$ 

( 1) [death:	( 1) [deaths]3.agecat#1.smokes - [deaths]4.agecat#1.smokes = 0							
deaths	 	IRR	Std. Err.	Z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]	
agecat								
45-54	1	10.5631	8.067701	3.09	0.002	2.364153	47.19623	
55-64	1	47.671	34.37409	5.36	0.000	11.60056	195.8978	
65-74	1	98.22765	70.85012	6.36	0.000	23.89324	403.8244	
75-84		199.2099	145.3356	7.26	0.000	47.67693	832.3648	
smokes	i							
Yes	į	5.736637	4.181256	2.40	0.017	1.374811	23.93711	
agecat#smokes	i							
45-54#Yes	i	.3728337	.2945619	-1.25	0.212	.0792525	1.753951	
55-64#Yes	1	.2461772	.182845	-1.89	0.059	.0574155	1.055521	
65-74#Yes	1	.2461772	.182845	-1.89	0.059	.0574155	1.055521	
75-84#Yes	1	.1577109	.1194146	-2.44	0.015	.0357565	.6956154	
	1							
_cons	1	.0001064	.0000753	-12.94	0.000	.0000266	.0004256	
ln(pyears)	1	1	(exposure)					



0.0000

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### Predicted Numbers from Poisson Regression Model

	S	mokers	Nor	n-smokers	3	
Age	Observed	Pred 1	Pred 2	Observed	Pred 1	Pred 2
35–44	32	27.2	32.0	2	6.8	2.0
45–54	104	98.9	104.0	12	17.1	12.0
55-64	206	205.3	205.0	28	28.7	29.0
65-74	186	187.2	187.0	28	26.8	27.0
75–84	102	111.5	102.0	31	21.5	31.0

Pred 1 No Interaction

Pred 2 Interaction & Constraint





Overdispersion

- May be structural (Exposure = 0, so count had to be 0)
- Don't count towards DOF
- Lead to problems in estimation
  - IRR is huge or tiny
  - SE is huge
  - Confidence interval is undefined
- Stata may be unable to produce a confidence interval



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#### **Negative Binomial Regression**

- Allows for extra variation
- Assumes a mixture of Poisson variables, with the means having a given distribution
- Two possible models:
  - $Var(Y) = \mu(1 + \delta)$
  - $Var(Y) = \mu(1 + \alpha\mu)$
- $\bullet$   $\alpha$  or  $\delta$  is the overdispersion parameter
- $\alpha = 0$  or  $\delta = 0$  gives the Poisson model.

- Adding predictors to model may not lead to an adequate fit
- There may be variation between individuals in rate not included in model
- Variance is equal to mean for a Poisson distribution
- The variation between individuals means there is more variation than expected: overdispersion
- If there is overdispersion, standard errors will be too small



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## Negative Binomial Regression in Stata

- Command nbreg
- Syntax similar to poisson
- Default gives  $Var(Y) = \mu(1 + \alpha \mu)$
- Option dispersion (constant) gives  $Var(Y) = \mu(1 + \delta)$





## Poisson Regression

### Negative Binomial Regression Example

. poisson deaths i.cohort, exposure(exposure) irr

Poisson regression	Number of obs	=	21
	LR chi2(2)	=	49.16
	Prob > chi2	=	0.0000
Log likelihood = -2159.5158	Pseudo R2	=	0.0113

deaths	IRR	Std. Err.	Z	P> z	[95% Conf.	<pre>Interval]</pre>
cohort						
1960-1967	.7393079	.0423859	-5.27	0.000	.6607305	.82723
1968-1976	1.077037	.0635156	1.26	0.208	.959474	1.209005
1						
_cons	.0202523	.0008331	-94.80	0.000	.0186836	.0219527
ln(exposure)	1	(exposure)				

. estat gof

Deviance goodness-of-fit = 4190.689 Prob > chi2(18) = 0.0000

Pearson goodness-of-fit = 15387.67 Prob > chi2(18) = 0.0000



Poisson Regression Negative Binomial Regression Additional topics Log-linear Models Generalized Linear Models

### Log-Linear Models

- An  $R \times C$  table is simply a series of counts
- The counts have two predictor variables (rows and columns)
- Can fit a Poisson model to such a table
- Association between two variables is given by the interaction between the variables
- Model:  $\log(p) = \beta_0 + \beta_r x_r + \beta_c x_c + \beta_{rc} x_{rc}$
- For a 2 × 2 table, such a model is *exactly* equivalent to logistic regression.

Poisson Regression Negative Binomial Regression

. nbreg deaths i.cohort, exposure(exposure) irr

Negative binomi Dispersion Log likelihood	= mean		LR chi	of obs = 2(2) = chi2 = R2 =	0.8171	
deaths		Std. Err.				. Interval]
cohort   1960-1967   1968-1976	.7651995	.5537904	-0.37	0.712	.1852434	3.160869 2.614209
ln(exposure)	1	.0635173 (exposure)				.3384052
	.5939963	.2583615			.087617	
	1.811212					3.005294
Likelihood-rati	o test of a	lpha=0: chi	 bar2(01)	= 4056.27	Prob>=chib	ar2 = 0.000



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### Log-Linear Modelling Example

Outcome	Exposure			
	Exposed	Unexposed		
Cases	20	10		
Non-cases	10	20		
$\overline{OR} = 4$				





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#### Log-linear modelling example: stata output

		exposure						
1.	1 0		20					
		0						
	i 0	1						
4.	1 1	1	20					
	+		+					
. xi:	poisson fi	req i.exp*i	out, irr					
Poiss	on regress:	ion				r of obs		
								6.8
								0.078
Log l	ikelihood •	8.999065	3		Pseud	o R2	-	0.274
			Std. Err.					
			.1936492					
_Iou	tcome_1	.5	.1936492	-1.79	0.074	.23404	59	1.06816
_Iexp	Xout_~1	4	2.19089	2.53	0.011	1.3672	18	11.702
1		ome exposur	. (6., 6.,)					
. 10g	istic outco	ome exposur	e [IW=Ired]					



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outcome | Odds Ratio Std. Err. z P>|z| [95% Conf. Interval] 4 2.19089 2.53 0.011 1.367218

> Log-linear Models Standardisation

0.0091

Generalized Linear Models Setting Reference Category for Categorical Variables

#### **Direct Standardisation**

Log likelihood = -38.19085

exposure |

- Calculate rate in each stratum
- Standardised rate = weighted mean of these rates

LR chi2(1) = Prob > chi2 =

- Weights = proportions of subjects in each stratum of standard population.
- Standardised rate = what rate would be in standard population if it had the same stratum specific rates as our population
- Different standard = different standardised rate
- Can compare directly adjusted rates (adjusted to same population)



Log-linear Models Standardisation Generalized Linear Models

#### **Direct & Indirect Standardisation**

- Used for comparing rates between populations
- Assumes covariates differ between populations
- What would rates be if the covariates were the same?
  - I.e. same proportion of subjects in each stratum
  - Proportions from standard population = direct standardisation
  - Proportions from this population = indirect standardisation



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#### Indirect Standardisation

- Per stratum rates are unavailable/unreliable.
- Use known rates from a standard population
- Weight known rates according to stratum size our population
- Produce expected number of events if standard rates apply
- Ratio  $\frac{Observed}{Fxpected}$  = SMR





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#### Standardisation vs. Adjustment

- Direct standardisation
  - Poisson regression assumes same RR in each stratum
  - D.S. assumes different RR in each stratum
  - Both give weighted mean RR: weights differ
- Indirect Standardisation
  - Good measure of causal effect in this sample
  - Can be useful in e.g. observational study of treatment effect.
  - Do not compare SMR's
    - They tell you what happened in observed group.
    - Do not tell you what might happen in a different group.



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#### Components of a GLM

- You can choose the link function for yourself
- It should:
  - Map  $-\infty$  to  $\infty$  onto reasonable values for  $\mu$
  - Have parameters that are easy to interpret
- Error distribution is determined by the data
- Only certain distributions are allowed

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### Generalized Linear Models

- We have met a number of regression models
- All have the form:

$$g(\mu) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_p x_p$$
  
$$Y = \mu + \varepsilon$$

where  $\mu$  is the expected value of Y

 $\varepsilon$  has a known distribution (normal, binomial etc)

g() is called the link function



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### Examples of GLM's

Model	Range of $\mu$		Link	Error Distribution
Linear Regression	$-\infty$ to $\infty$	$g(\mu)$	$=\mu$	Normal
Logistic Regression	0 to 1	$g(\mu)$	$=\log(\frac{\mu}{1-\mu})$	Binomial
Poisson Regression	0 to $\infty$	$g(\mu)$	$=\log(\mu)$	Poisson





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#### GLM's in Stata

- Command glm
- Option family () sets the error distribution
- Option link() sets the link function
- There are more options to predict after glm

E.g. glm yvar xvars, family(binomial) link(logit)
is equivalent to logistic yvar xvars



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# Setting Reference Category for Categorical Variables: Old Way



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## Setting Reference Category for Categorical Variables: New Way

For one model ib#.varname

Alternatives to # first

last

frequent

