14 Poisson Regression

In class we will cover Chapter 12 (Analysis of Rates with Poisson Regression) from Steve Selvin's text *Practical Biostatistical Methods* (1995, Wadsworth). There are many more applications of Poisson regression than covered there, but this chapter has a treatment quite relevant to you.

The appendix in Selvin discusses the Poisson distribution mostly as an approximation to the binomial distribution when n is large and p is small. A broader more detailed perspective can be found at Wikipedia (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poisson_distribution). One entry there states that

The word **law** is sometimes used as a synonym of probability distribution, and *convergence in law* means convergence in distribution. Accordingly, the Poisson distribution is sometimes called the **law of small numbers** because it is the probability distribution of the number of occurrences of an event that happens rarely but has very many opportunities to happen. *The Law of Small Numbers* is a book by Ladislaus Bortkiewicz about the Poisson distribution, published in 1898. Some historians of mathematics have argued that the Poisson distribution should have been called the Bortkiewicz distribution.

Wikipedia provides several examples of the Poisson as well:

The Poisson distribution arises in connection with Poisson processes. It applies to various phenomena of discrete nature (that is, those that may happen 0, 1, 2, 3, ... times during a given period of time or in a given area) whenever the probability of the phenomenon happening is constant in time or space. Examples of events that can be modelled as Poisson distributions include:

- The number of cars that pass through a certain point on a road during a given period of time.
- The number of spelling mistakes a secretary makes while typing a single page.
- The number of phone calls at a call center per minute.
- The number of times a web server is accessed per minute. For instance, the number of edits per hour recorded on Wikipedia's Recent Changes page follows an approximately Poisson distribution.
- The number of roadkill found per unit length of road.
- The number of mutations in a given stretch of DNA after a certain amount of radiation.
- The number of unstable nuclei that decayed within a given period of time in a piece of radioactive substance. The radioactivity of the substance will weaken with time, so the total time interval used in the model should be significantly less than the mean lifetime of the substance.
- The number of pine trees per unit area of mixed forest.
- The number of stars in a given volume of space.
- The number of soldiers killed by horse-kicks each year in each corps in the Prussian cavalry. This example was made famous by a book of Ladislaus Josephovich Bortkiewicz (1868-1931).
- The distribution of visual receptor cells in the retina of the human eye.

- The number of V2 rocket attacks per area in England, according to the fictionalized account in Thomas Pynchon's Gravity's Rainbow.
- The number of light bulbs that burn out in a certain amount of time.

For our purposes two more interesting examples probably are number of deaths in a subpopulation in a certain amount of time and number of cases of a disease in a subpopulation in a fixed period of time. What is key in these and the other examples is that the Poisson distribution describes random counts. Selvin deals with rates (proportions) which probably are more common but require some special consideration.

Mathematical Background

Let the random variable Y have a Poisson distribution with parameter λ . This means that

$$P(Y = k) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^k}{k!}; \ k = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

and both the mean E(Y) and variance Var(Y) of Y are λ . As with the binomial distribution where we found the logit function and logistic regression to be more useful than considering the binomial distribution directly, we fit regression models to $\log Y$ (natural log), so we get models of the form

$$\log E(Y) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_p x_p$$

where there are good theoretical reasons for logit with binomial and log for the Poisson. These are special cases of a large class of such models called *generalized linear models* (handled with the glm command in Stata in general, more easily handled with the **poisson** command for this case).

Poisson regression fits linear models to log(counts of number of events) - remember, fitting linear models means looking for group differences, interactions, adjusting for covariates and confounders, etc.. The events we are looking at probably will be deaths or diagnosis of disease. In the applications you are likely to encounter most often, we actually want to fit linear models to rates, where rates are usually of the form

$$r = \frac{\text{count of events}}{\text{population size}}, \quad \text{or} \quad r = \frac{\text{count of events}}{\text{total exposure}}.$$

Either way, we probably want to model r more than we want to model counts directly. The way we do this is to fit a linear model to $\log of r$

$$\log r = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \ldots + \hat{\beta}_p x_p \tag{1}$$

$$\log r = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_p x_p$$
(1)
$$\log \left(\frac{\text{count of events}}{\text{population size}}\right) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \ldots + \hat{\beta}_p x_p$$
(2)

$$\log (\text{count of events}) - \log (\text{population size}) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \ldots + \hat{\beta}_p x_p$$
(3)

(count of events) =
$$\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \ldots + \hat{\beta}_p x_p + \log (\text{population size})$$
 (4)

Equation (4) shows that we model $\log r$ by writing a linear model for \log (count of events), which is regular Poisson regression, except that we have a special new variable with a known coefficient of 1, i.e. log (population size). Such a variable is called an offset. The general form would be the same if we had a rate using exposure instead of population size.

log

In order to interpret coefficients, consider the simple case of two groups (say F and M) where $x_1 = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{Group} = \mathbf{F} \\ 1 & \text{Group} = \mathbf{M} \end{cases}$, the usual group indicator variable, and we fit a simple model to compare groups, $\log r = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1$. Then F is the reference group and $\hat{\beta}_1$ is the difference between groups M and F in the log scale, just as we usually have in linear models, i.e. $\log r_F = \hat{\beta}_0$ and $\log r_M = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1$, so $\log r_M - \log r_F = \hat{\beta}_1$ and $\frac{r_M}{r_F} = e^{\log r_M - \log r_F} = e^{\hat{\beta}_1}$. Similar to the way we obtained estimated Odds Ratios in logistic regression, we obtain estimated *incidence-rate ratios* by exponentiating estimated regression coefficients. Factors with multiple levels and continuous predictor variables are handled similarly to the way we have handled then in least squares regression and in logistic regression.

Stata Implementation

A portion of the help viewer in Stata for the Poisson command shows

Syntax

poisson depvar [indepvars]] [if] [in] [weight] [, options]			
options	description			
Model noconstant exposure(varname_e) offset(varname_o) Reporting	suppress constant term include ln(varname_e) in model with coefficient constrained to 1 include varname_o in model with coefficient			
level(#) irr	set confidence level; default is level(95) report incidence-rate ratios			
<pre>irr reports estimated coefficients transformed to incidence-rate ratios, that is, exp(b) rather than b. Standard errors and confidence intervals are similarly transformed. This option affects how results are displayed, not how they are estimated or stored. irr may be specified at estimation or when replaying previously estimated results.</pre>				
offset(varname) specifies that varname be included in the model with the coefficient constrained to be 1.				
exposure over which the d	variable that reflects the amount of epvar events were observed for each with coefficient constrained to be 1 is function.			

From a practical perspective, what difference does it make if you declare a variable an offset or an exposure? Read carefully – you need to already have taken the log for an offset, but Stata will go ahead and take the log of an exposure variable. You can use either form, just be careful you have the variable in the correct form.

Example

Consider the very simple data set

	group	deaths	popsize
$^{1.}_{2.}$	Ĕ F M	10 15	10000 8000

and compare mortality rates for the two groups. Define lpopsize from the command gene lpopsize = log(popsize). We want to fit using both the offset and exposure forms of the command to see they agree.

<pre>. xi:poisson deaths i.group, exposure(popsize) i.group _Igroup_1-2 (_Igroup_1 for group==F omitted) Iteration 0: log likelihood = -4.35708 Iteration 1: log likelihood = -4.35708</pre>						
Poisson regres	ssion			LR ch	er of obs = hi2(1) = > chi2 =	2 2.43 0.1188
Log likelihood	d = -4.35708	}		Pseud	lo R2 =	0.2183
deaths	Coef.	Std. Err.	Z	P> z	[95% Conf.	[Interval]
_Igroup_2 _cons popsize	-6.907755	.4082483 .3162278	1.54 -21.84		1715433 -7.52755	1.428761 -6.28796
<pre>. xi:poisson deaths i.group, offset(lpopsize) i.groupIgroup_1-2 (_Igroup_1 for group==F omitted) Iteration 0: log likelihood = -4.35708 Iteration 1: log likelihood = -4.35708</pre>						
Poisson regres	ssion				er of obs =	2
Log likelihood	i = −4.35708	3		Prob	hi2(1) = > chi2 = lo R2 =	$2.43 \\ 0.1188 \\ 0.2183$
deaths	Coef.	Std. Err.	Z	P> z	[95% Conf.	[Interval]
_Igroup_2 _cons lpopsize	-6.907755	.4082483 .3162278	1.54 -21.84	0.124 0.000	1715433 -7.52755	1.428761 -6.28796
. poisson,irr Poisson regres Log likelihood		3		LR ch	er of obs = i2(1) = > chi2 = lo R2 =	2 2.43 0.1188 0.2183
deaths	IRR	Std. Err.	Z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Igroup_2 lpopsize		.7654656	1.54	0.124	.8423638	4.173523

But look what happens if you mix offset and exposure:

. xi:poisson o Poisson regres	• •	o, offset(p	opsize)		er of obs		2
Log likelihood	d = −4.35708	3		Wald Prob	chi2(1) > chi2	= =	2.401e+07 0.0000
deaths	Coef.	Std. Err.	Z	P> z	[95%	Conf.	Interval]
_Igroup_2 _cons popsize	2000.405 -9997.697 (offset)	.4082483 .3162278	4899.97 -3.2e+04	0.000 0.000	1999. -9998.		2001.206 -9997.078

We will do a number of the examples in Selvin's chapter during class.