



# Improved computational tool for OHDSI: Bayesian penalized regression

## Separating known risk factors among the large number of potential confounders

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### Background

#### Large-Scale Observational Studies Using the OHDSI Database:

- Number of subjects  $n \approx 10^5 \sim 10^6$  and of potential confounders  $p \approx 10^4 \sim 10^5$ .
- Comparison of two alternative treatments are based on *propensity score* methods.

#### Current Analytic Tool and Promising Bayesian Alternative

- Propensity scores are computed by regression on all potential confounders.
- Large  $p$  makes it essential to select a subset of predictors via *penalized regression*.
- Current analytic tool relies on the widely-used *Lasso* based on  $\ell^1$  penalty.
- Computational bottleneck of Lasso is the calibration of sparsity level via cross-validation, limiting our ability to flexibly model relative predictor importances.
- *Bayesian* formulation of penalized regression can incorporate such additional flexibilities with little additional computational costs.

### Regression with Multiple Penalty Parameters

#### Lasso in its standard form

- Lasso estimates the regression coefficients  $\beta$  by minimizing a loss function

$$-\log L(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{X}, \beta) + \tau^{-1} \|\beta\|_1 \quad (1)$$

where  $L(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{X}, \beta)$  is the likelihood of outcome  $\mathbf{y}$  and  $\tau^{-1}$  is a penalty parameter.

- Performance of Lasso critically depends on the tuning parameter  $\tau^{-1}$ , whose calibration typically relies on computationally expensive cross-validation.

#### Independent penalties on known and unknown risk factors

- Automated literature screening may be used to identify known risk factors.
- Lasso, however, penalizes all the potential confounders equally, as if known risk factors are no more important than the rest.
- Use of separate penalty parameters  $\tau_{\text{risk}}^{-1}$  and  $\tau_{\text{other}}^{-1}$  is more realistic:

$$-\log L(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{X}, \beta) + \tau_{\text{risk}}^{-1} \|\beta_{\text{risk}}\|_1 + \tau_{\text{other}}^{-1} \|\beta_{\text{other}}\|_1 \quad (2)$$

but is computationally prohibitive for calibration via cross-validation.

### Bayesian Penalized (Shrinkage) Regression

#### Bayesian Lasso

- The use of  $\ell^1$  penalty in Lasso can be interpreted as a Bayesian procedure of “shrinking” the regression coefficient estimates by placing a prior distribution

$$\pi_{\text{prior}}(\beta) = \prod_{i=1}^p \tau^{-1} \exp(-\tau^{-1} |\beta_i|) = \tau^{-p} \exp(-\tau^{-1} \|\beta\|_1) \quad (3)$$

- Under the Bayesian paradigm, our knowledge on the regression coefficients are summarized in the *posterior* distribution

$$\pi_{\text{post}}(\beta | \mathbf{y}) \propto L(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{X}, \beta) \pi_{\text{prior}}(\beta) \quad (4)$$

whose mode coincide with the minimizer of (1).

- The penalty parameter  $\tau^{-1}$  is similarly estimated from the posterior  $\pi_{\text{post}}(\beta, \tau | \mathbf{y})$ .

### Bayesian Lasso Computation

#### Characterizing the posterior distribution

- Regression coefficients are estimated by *Monte Carlo* simulation from a posterior.

#### Markov chain Monte Carlo algorithm for Bayesian Lasso

- Bayesian Lasso uses a Gibbs sampling algorithm based on a data augmentation scheme, introducing additional parameters  $(\lambda, \omega)$  in additions to  $(\beta, \tau)$ .
- Gibbs sampler sequentially updates one of the parameters  $(\beta, \tau, \lambda, \omega)$ , and repeats this process for 100 ~ 1,000's of iterations.
- The computational bottleneck is the update of  $\beta$ , that requires generating a random variable from the following high-dimensional Gaussian distribution:

$$\beta | \tau, \lambda, \omega \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma) \quad (5)$$

where  $\Sigma^{-1} = \mathbf{X}^T \Omega \mathbf{X} + \tau^{-2} \Lambda^{-2}$  and  $\mu = \Sigma \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{y} - 0.5)$

with  $\Omega = \text{diag}(\omega)$  and  $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda)$ .

### Speeding up Bayesian Lasso via Advanced Linear Algebra Techniques

#### Recasting a random variable as the solution of a linear system

- Random variable (5) can be generated as the solution of a linear system

$$\Phi \beta = \mathbf{v} \quad \text{for } \mathbf{v} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{y} - 0.5), \Phi) \text{ and } \Phi = \Sigma^{-1} \quad (6)$$

where  $\mathbf{v}$  can be generated by sampling  $\eta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_n)$  and  $\delta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_p)$  independently and then setting

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{X}^T \Omega^{1/2} \eta + \tau^{-1} \Lambda^{-1} \delta + \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{y} - 0.5) \quad (7)$$

#### Fast solution of (6) via conjugate gradient method

- *Conjugate gradient* (CG) algorithm allows us to solve the linear system (6) purely through the matrix-vector operation  $\mathbf{w} \rightarrow \Phi \mathbf{w}$ , **without ever explicitly forming  $\Phi$** :

- The vector  $\Phi \mathbf{w}$  can be computed through operations  $\mathbf{w} \rightarrow \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}$  and  $\mathbf{u} \rightarrow \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{u}$  in addition to element-wise multiplications by  $\tau, \lambda$ , and  $\omega$ .

- This is critical because computing  $\Phi = \Sigma^{-1}$  through the formula (5) is very expensive —  $O(n^2 p)$  operations when  $\mathbf{X}$  is dense.

- When  $\mathbf{X}$  is sparse, CG automatically takes advantage of it as the algorithm only requires (sparse) matrix multiplications by  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathbf{X}^T$ ; no additional memory use for explicitly forming  $\Phi$ .

- In case of Bayesian penalized regression, CG converges rapidly — often within a few hundred iterations — through an effective *preconditioning* strategy.

- Compared to the standard sampling method for (5), the proposed approach has big advantages both in terms of memory usage and number of arithmetic operations.

### Results

We prototyped the proposed algorithm in Python and applied it to the replication of the warfarin vs dabigatran study of Graham et al. ( $n = 72,489$  and  $p = 22,175$ ).

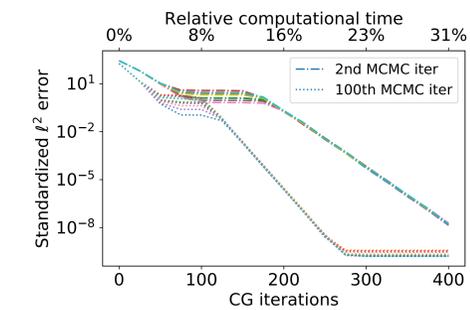


FIGURE 1 : Distance between the exact solution of (6) and iterative solutions; it is shown both as a function of the number of matrix-vector operations and that of computational time relative to the direct sampling method for (5). The error is computed as  $\sum_i (\beta_{\text{exact},i} - \hat{\beta}_{\text{cg},i})^2 / \hat{v}_i^2$  where  $\hat{v}_i$  is an estimate of  $\mathbb{E}_{\pi(\beta | \mathbf{y})}[\beta_i^2]$ . Different colors indicate different draws of a random target vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in (6). Dashed and dotted lines correspond to the values of  $(\tau, \lambda, \omega)$  and  $\Phi$  from different MCMC iterations.

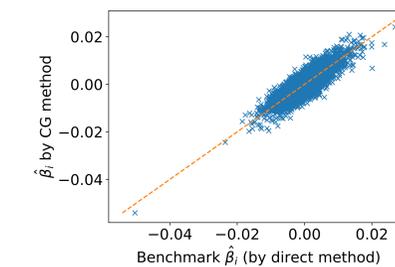


FIGURE 2 : Comparison of the regression coefficient estimates (posterior mean) from MCMC based on the direct and CG methods for sampling from (5).

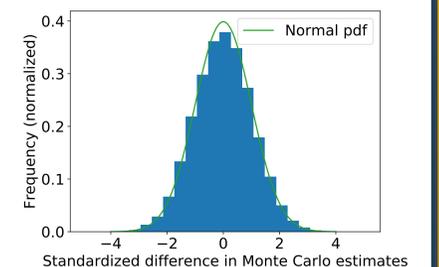


FIGURE 3 : Histogram for  $(\hat{\beta}_{\text{exact},i} - \hat{\beta}_{\text{cg},i}) / \hat{\sigma}_i$ , where  $\hat{\sigma}_i^2$  is an estimate of the Monte Carlo variance of  $\hat{\beta}_{\text{exact},i} - \hat{\beta}_{\text{cg},i}$ . Normality of the histogram indicates that the two MCMC outputs are indistinguishable.

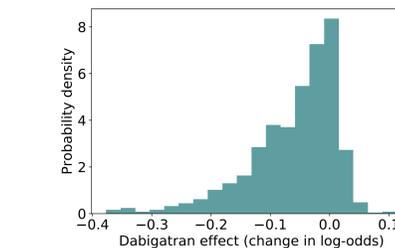


FIGURE 4 : Posterior distribution of the treatment effect — the change in the log-odds of brain hemorrhage for those treated with dabigatran instead of warfarin.

### Conclusion

- The new algorithm is **over 7 times faster** than the traditional method when applied to a typical OHDSI dataset. Even in case of a single penalty parameter, this speed-up makes Bayesian Lasso competitive with the standard Lasso.

- Bayesian penalized regression easily accommodates literature-informed priors as well as further extensions. Once integrated into the OHDSI toolkit, it is expected to substantially increase its modeling and predictive capability.

#### References

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[2] Yuxi Tian M, JS and Suchard MA (2017). Synthetic and negative control evaluation framework for large-scale propensity score survival analysis. *Preprint*.

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