

Working with logistics regression models

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The `lincom` command for logistic regression

Further remarks on logistic regression

- Diagnostics: residuals and leverages
- Enough data?
- Test of fit: The Hosmer-Lemeshow test

Extensions to the ordinary logistic regression:

- Conditional logistic regression

Other methods for analyzing binary data

- Models for relative risks
- Models for risk differences

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Linear and Logistic regression - Note 6

1

Missing data

A small example - non completely random sample

Complete data analysis - bias

Missing at random vs missing **completely** at random

Introduction to techniques

- Sampling weights
- Imputation
- Full modeling

Sensitivity analyses

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Linear and Logistic regression - Note 6

2

Data with **several random components**: Binary outcome

Clustered binary data with **one random components**

ROC-curves and the **area under the ROC-curve**

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3

The `lincom` command after `logit` or `regress`

Consider the model:

$$\text{logit}(\text{Pr}(\text{obese})) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot \text{woman} + \beta_2 \cdot (\text{age} - 45)$$

obese	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
_Isex_2	.2743977	.0903385	3.04	0.002	.0973375	.451458
age45	.0344723	.0051354	6.71	0.000	.0244072	.0445374
_cons	-2.147056	.0721981	-29.74	0.000	-2.288561	-2.00555

Here men are reference.

If we want to find the log odds for a 45 year old women we can calculate by hand $-2.147+0.274=-1.873$

But what about confidence interval?

We could change the reference to women and fit the model once more.

But.....

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4

The `lincom` command after `logit` or `regress`

$$\text{logit}(\text{Pr}(\text{obese})) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot \text{woman} + \beta_2 \cdot (\text{age} - 45)$$

Stata has a command that can be used for this: "`lincom`"

```
lincom _cons+_Isex
( 1)  _Isex_2 + _cons = 0
-----+-----
obese |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|    [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
(1) | -1.8726   .05813   -32.21   0.000   -1.986602   -1.758714
-----+-----
```

To get to risk/probability with confidence interval:

```
disp invlogit(r(estimate))
.13323448

disp invlogit(r(estimate)-1.96*r(se)) ";" " ///
invlogit(r(estimate)+1.96*r(se))
.12061656 ; .1469518
```

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5

The `lincom` command after `logit` or `regress`

$$\text{logit}(\text{Pr}(\text{obese})) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot \text{woman} + \beta_2 \cdot (\text{age} - 45)$$

Some examples:

Log Odds for a 42 year old woman:

```
lincom _cons+_Isex-age45*3
( 1)  _Isex_2 - 3 age45 + _cons = 0
-----+-----
obese |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|    [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
(1) | -1.976075   .0639755   -30.89   0.000   -2.101465   -1.850685
-----+-----
```

Odds ratio for 4.5 age difference:

```
lincom age45*4.5,or
( 1)  4.5 age45 = 0
-----+-----
obese | Odds Ratio   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|    [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
(1) |  1.167804   .0209869    6.71   0.000    1.116091    1.221914
-----+-----
```

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6

Logistic regression models: Do you have enough data?

All inference in logistic regression models are based on asymptotics , i.e. **assuming that you have a lot of data !**

Rule of thumb:
You should have at least **10 events** per variable (parameter) in the model.

A large standard error typical indicates that you have to little information concerning the variable and that the **estimate and standard error are not valid.**

Lower your ambitions or get **more data !**

A exact methods exists, but only one (**expensive**) program can do it.

And it will give also wide confidence intervals.

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Logistic regression models: Diagnostics

In the linear regression we saw some example of statistics: **residuals, standardized residuals and leverage** which can be used in the **model checking** and search for strange or **influential** data points.

Such statistics can also be defined for the logistic regression model.

But they are much more **difficult to interpret** and **cannot** in general be **recommended.**

Checking the validity of a logistic regression model will mainly be based on **comparing** it with other **models.**

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Logistic regression models: Test of fit

A common, and to some extend informative, test of fit is the **Hosmer-Lemeshow** test.

Consider the model for obesity from Monday

$$\text{logit}(\text{Pr}(\text{obese})) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot \text{woman} + \beta_2 \cdot (\text{age} - 45)$$

Logit estimates

Log likelihood = -1767.7019

Number of obs = 4690
LR chi2(2) = 55.68
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
Pseudo R2 = 0.0155

obese	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
_lsex_2	.2743977	.0903385	3.04	0.002	.0973375 .451458
age45	.0344723	.0051354	6.71	0.000	.0244072 .0445374
_cons	-2.147056	.0721981	-29.74	0.000	-2.288561 -2.00555

Significantly better than nothing - but is it good?

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Logistic regression models: Test of fit

What about comparing the **estimated prevalence** with the **observed prevalence?**

In the Hosmer-Lemeshow test the data is **divided** into groups (traditionally 10) according to the **estimated probabilities** and the **observed** and **expected** counts are compared in these groups by a chi-square test.

Most programs, that can fit a logistic regression model, can calculate this test.

In Stata it is done by (**after fitting the model**):
estat gof, group(10) table

The data is divided into **deciles** after the estimated probabilities.

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Logistic regression models: Test of fit

OUTPUT

Logistic model for obese, goodness-of-fit test
(Table collapsed on quantiles of estimated probabilities)

Group	Prob	Obs_1	Exp_1	Obs_0	Exp_0	Total
1	0.0841	64	40.9	462	485.1	526
2	0.0953	43	45.5	453	450.5	496
3	0.1045	44	44.6	398	397.4	442
4	0.1112	42	50.3	422	413.7	464
5	0.1217	44	51.4	394	386.6	438
6	0.1332	52	63.0	441	430.0	493
7	0.1456	53	61.7	389	380.3	442
8	0.1592	62	69.8	392	384.2	454
9	0.1834	98	89.9	424	432.1	522
10	0.2407	99	83.8	314	329.2	413

number of observations = 4690
number of groups = 10
Hosmer-Lemeshow chi2(8) = 26.01
Prob > chi2 = 0.0010

One problem:
Too many in the tails

Significant difference between observed and expected!

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Logistic regression models: Test of fit

xi: logit obese i.sex*age45
estat gof, group(10) table

Logistic model for obese, goodness-of-fit test
(Table collapsed on quantiles of estimated probabilities)

Group	Prob	Obs_1	Exp_1	Obs_0	Exp_0	Total
1	0.0796	36	35.9	466	466.1	502
2	0.1011	42	41.1	406	406.9	448
3	0.1053	49	49.6	429	428.4	478
4	0.1096	50	54.8	458	453.2	508
5	0.1124	52	54.2	436	433.8	488
6	0.1153	51	46.4	355	359.6	406
7	0.1182	52	53.9	410	408.1	462
8	0.1590	76	70.3	428	433.7	504
9	0.2133	96	91.8	391	395.2	487
10	0.3310	97	103.0	310	304.0	407

number of observations = 4690
number of groups = 10
Hosmer-Lemeshow chi2(8) = 2.43
Prob > chi2 = 0.9650

The model 'fits' - when we look at in this way !!!!!!!

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Conditional logistic regression

When

Used in two situations:

1. **Matched** studies (binary response).
2. **Unmatched** studies with a **confounder** with **many distinct values**.

In 1. the models correspond to **the way data was collected**.

In 2. the method adjust for a '**mathematical**' **flaw** in the unconditional method.

An example of situation 2. the confounder is "*kommune*" having 275 distinct values.

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Conditional logistic regression

What

The logistic regression model (outcome disease yes/no):

$$\ln(odds) = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^k (\beta_i \cdot x_i)$$

$\ln(odds)$ in reference $\ln(odds)$ ratios

Suppose the model above hold in each strata:

$$\ln(odds) = \alpha_s + \sum_{i=1}^k (\beta_i \cdot x_i)$$

$\ln(odds)$ in reference $\ln(odds)$ ratios
different in each strata the same in each strata

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Conditional logistic regression

What

$$\ln(odds) = \alpha_s + \sum_{i=1}^k (\beta_i \cdot x_i)$$

$\ln(odds)$ different in each strata

We are not interested in these !

In a **matched** study these are 'controlled'.

In a **conditional** logistic regression one '**condition on the odds in each strata**', i.e. these case/control ratio.

In the conditional model the α 's **disappear** !

The β 's , the log OR's, are still in and **can be estimated**.

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Conditional logistic regression

How

It is easy !

You need a statistical software package.

A package made for **research in epidemiology**

Not in social science

Not SPSS

But *Stata*, *EPICURE*, *EPILOG*, *EGRET*, *EPIINFO(2000)* and *SAS* can do it.

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Conditional logistic regression

How

An example using *Stata*

A study of cancer in the oral cavity

Matched on **gender** and **10 years age groups**

Ten strata (*genage*)

Here we focus on

textile-worker and

life time consumption of alcohol(three groups)

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Conditional logistic regression

How

logistic regression in *Stata*

```
xi:logit cancer textile i.alkcon i.genage
```

Part of the output:

cancer	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	CI
textile	.5022	.4141	1.213	0.225	-.3094 1.3139
_a1kcon_1	.4628	.2823	1.639	0.101	-.0905 1.0163
_a1kcon_2	2.7165	.3232	8.404	0.000	2.0829 3.3501
_igenage_2	.2450	1.2514	0.196	0.845	-2.2075 2.6977
_igenage_3	-.4940	.5503	-0.898	0.369	-1.5726 .5846
_igenage_4	-.1798	.6406	0.281	0.779	-1.0758 1.4353
_igenage_5	-.2899	.5482	-0.529	0.597	-1.3644 .7844
_igenage_6	.2127	.6262	0.340	0.734	-1.0147 1.4401
_igenage_7	-.2305	.5355	-0.431	0.667	-1.2802 .8190
_igenage_8	.5507	.5263	1.046	0.295	-.4809 1.5825
_igenage_9	.0315	.5884	0.054	0.957	-1.1217 1.1847
_igenage_10	-.5572	.5595	0.996	0.319	-.53954 1.6539
_const	-1.4692	.4762	-3.085	0.002	-2.4027 .5356

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Conditional logistic regression in Stata

The syntax:

```
xi: clogit cancer textile i.alkcon, group(genage)
```

Part of the output:

	cancer	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	CI
textile		.4929	.4103	1.201	0.230	-.3112 1.2971
_alkcon_1		.452	.27923	1.621	0.105	-.094 .9999
_alkcon_2		2.660	.31936	8.332	0.000	2.034 3.2868

xi: clogit cancer textile i.alkcon, group(genage) or

	cases	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
textile		1.63708	.6717022	1.20	0.230	.732517 3.658661
_alkcon_1		1.572508	.4390957	1.62	0.105	.909724 2.718168
_alkcon_2		14.30908	4.569879	8.33	0.000	7.651811 26.75835

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Other methods to analysis of binary response data

Relative Risk models

Logistic regression model focus on the Odds Ratios

This is the correct thing to do in case-control studies.

In follow-up studies Relative Risk is often the appropriate measure of association, (personal risk).

I.e. a model like this might be more relevant:

$$\Pr(\text{event}) = p_0 \times RR_1 \times RR_2 \times RR_3$$
$$\ln\{\Pr(\text{event})\} = \ln(p_0) + \ln(RR_1) + \ln(RR_2) + \ln(RR_3)$$
$$\ln\{\Pr(\text{event given the covariates})\} = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^p (\beta_i \cdot x_i)$$

That is linear on log-probability scale

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Other methods to analysis of binary response data

Relative Risk models

$$\ln\{\Pr(\text{event given the covariates})\} = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^p (\beta_i \cdot x_i)$$

Such a model modelling the relative risk can easily be fitted by many programs (not SPSS??).

Logistic regression in Stata:

```
xi: logit obese age i.sex
```

or

```
xi: glm obese age i.sex, fam(bin) link(logit)
```

Relative risk model:

```
xi: glm obese age i.sex, fam(bin) link(log)
```

The link is log instead of logit

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Other methods to analysis of binary response data

Risk difference models

Logistic regression model focus on the Odds Ratios

This is the correct thing to do in case-control studies.

In follow-up studies Risk Difference is often the appropriate measure of association, (community effect).

I.e. a model like this might be more relevant:

$$\Pr(\text{event}) = p_0 + RD_1 + RD_2 + RD_3$$
$$\Pr(\text{event given the covariates}) = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^p (\beta_i \cdot x_i)$$

That is linear on probability scale

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Other methods to analysis of binary response data

Risk difference models

$$\Pr(\text{event given the covariates}) = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^p (\beta_i \cdot x_i)$$

Such a model modelling the risk difference can easily be fitted by many programs (not SPSS).

Logistic regression in Stata:

```
xi: logit obese age i.sex
```

or

```
xi: glm obese age i.sex, fam(bin) link(logit)
```

Risk difference model:

```
xi: glm obese age i.sex, fam(bin) link(id)
```

The link is identity instead of logit

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Other methods to analysis of binary response data

Three different links for Obese "=" sex "+" age

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Other methods to analysis of binary response data Problems

$$\Pr(\text{event}) = p_0 \times RR_1 \times RR_2 \times RR_3$$

As the relative risk can be **larger** than one the product might be **larger than one** !

$$\Pr(\text{event}) = p_0 + RD_1 + RD_2 + RD_3$$

The sum might **negative** and be **larger than one** !

Here/in Stata glm is an acronym for **generalized** linear model

not
general linear model

Note: In Stata you can also use the **binreg** command with option **rr** or **rd**

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Missing data - example 1

Consider the Frammingham study and imagine, that (due to a limited budget) only 500 measurements of SBP were allowed.

It was decided to take SBP measurements on **100** random participants in each of the age groups -40 and 60+ and **150** in each of the age groups 40-50 and 50-60.

That is we have missing SBP on 4190 of the 4690 participants!

A short description of the data:

agegrp	Freq.	N(sbp)	mean(sbp)	sd(sbp)
0-	1,325	100	122.18	15.43273
40-	1,684	150	130.8467	22.2366
50-	1,346	150	140.9267	22.48194
60-	335	100	149.51	26.92507
Total	4,690	500	135.87	24.0783

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Missing data - example 1

agegrp	Freq.	N(sbp)	mean(sbp)	sd(sbp)
0-	1,325	100	122.18	15.43273
40-	1,684	150	130.8467	22.2366
50-	1,346	150	140.9267	22.48194
60-	335	100	149.51	26.92507
Total	4,690	500	135.87	24.0783

We note:

This is not a **completely** random sample

- the chance of being sample depends on age group!

The overall (total) average SBP is a biased estimate of the mean SBP among participants in the Frammingham study!

I.e. an analysis of the 500 participants (a complete data analysis) will be biased.

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Missing data - example 1

agegrp	Freq.	N(sbp)	mean(sbp)	sd(sbp)
0-	1,325	100	122.18	15.43273
40-	1,684	150	130.8467	22.2366
50-	1,346	150	140.9267	22.48194
60-	335	100	149.51	26.92507
Total	4,690	500	135.87	24.0783

We also note:

Within each age group the sample is **completely** random.

Within each age group the average SBP is an **unbiased** estimate of the mean SBP in the age group.

We know the size of each age group.

We can **calculate an unbiased** estimate of the total mean by weighing the group averages.

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Missing data - example 1

agegrp	Freq.	N(sbp)	mean(sbp)	sd(sbp)
0-	1,325	100	122.18	15.43273
40-	1,684	150	130.8467	22.2366
50-	1,346	150	140.9267	22.48194
60-	335	100	149.51	26.92507
Total	4,690	500	135.87	24.0783

An unbiased estimate can be found as the **weighted average** of the group averages using the group sizes as weights:

$$\frac{122.18 \cdot 1325 + 130.85 \cdot 1684 + 140.93 \cdot 1346 + 149.51 \cdot 335}{4690} = 132.62$$

Conclusion: Although this is not a completely random sample, we have enough information in the data to find an unbiased estimate!!!!

(Assuming completely random sample **within** age group!)

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Assuming that SBP is related to age:

Being missing is **not independent** of the **unobserved** SBP.

but

Being missing is **independent** of the unobserved SBP, **when we know the age group of the individual.**

The first statement means that the data is not **missing completely at random (MCAR)**.

The second statement correspond to **missing at random (MAR)**, i.e. that given **all what we have observed** (including age group), then the missingness is (completely) random, i.e. independent of the unobserved data.

Mathematically missing at random implies that one (in theory) has enough information in the **observed data** to correct for the missing data.

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Linear and Logistic Regression: Note 6

5

Missing data: Standard terminology

Missing completely at random (MCAR).
The observed data is a (completely) random sample:
A complete data analysis will be unbiased

Missing at random (MAR)
Given all what we have observed, then the missingness is (completely) random (independent of the unobserved data):
The biased sampling can be adjusted for.

Missing not at random (MNAR)
Non of the two above apply:
We will need further assumptions in order to analyse the data.

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Missing at random

When the data is missing at random, then one can, in theory, make unbiased inference based on the observed data.

In the SBP example such an analysis could be to use the **weighted average** SBP in stead of the biased unweighted average.

In general
If the sampled persons are not a completely random sample, but the i th person is sampled with a **known** probability, p_i , then we can obtain unbiased estimates by weighting the i th person with $1/p_i$.

The methods is called **Inverse Probability Weighing**.

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Inverse probability weighting

The SBP data:
Four different sampling probabilities and weights:
 $p_0 = 100 / 1325 = 0.0755 \quad w_0 = 1 / p_0 = 13.25$
 $p_1 = 150 / 1684 = 0.0891 \quad w_1 = 1 / p_1 = 11.23$
 $p_2 = 150 / 1346 = 0.1114 \quad w_2 = 1 / p_2 = 8.97$
 $p_3 = 100 / 335 = 0.2985 \quad w_3 = 1 / p_3 = 3.35$
That is information from each of the youngest should weigh by 13.25 and information from the each of the oldest should weigh by 3.35.
Sampling weights can be used in many Stata commands:

mean sbp [pwt= sampw]
Mean estimation
Number of obs = 500

| Mean Std. Err. [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
sbp | 132.6242 1.032943 130.5947 134.6536
-----+-----

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Missing values - not by design

Most often the missing is **not per design** and both in the **outcome** and in the **covariates**:

id	y	x ₁	x ₂	x ₃
1	o	o	o	o
2	o	m	o	o
3	m	o	o	o
4	m	m	o	o
5	o	o	o	o
6	o	m	m	o

o observed
m observed

Here we have only **complete data** on 2 persons, but partial information on 4 persons.

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Missing values - not by design

If the missing is **completely at random**, then the analysis of the complete cases will be unbiased.

If this is not the case, then complete data analysis can give biased estimates.

If the data is **missing at random**, then it is **in theory** possible to make an unbiased analysis of all the data.

id	y	x ₁	x ₂	x ₃
1	o	o	o	o
2	o	m	o	o
3	m	o	o	o
4	m	m	o	o
5	o	o	o	o
6	o	m	m	o

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Imputation

One way to try solve the problem with missing is to **fill in** the data for the missing values and then make the analysis on the whole data set with the **'imputed'** values.

The imputation can be done in many ways.

One way is to fill in an "average" value.

This could be the total average of the observed values for the specific variable or the average in a **relevant subgroup**.

This method will not in general solve the bias problem.

And of course the **standard error** stated in the output, when you analyse the imputed data set is **wrong**.

id	y	x ₁	x ₂	x ₃
1	o	o	o	o
2	o	a ₁	o	o
3	a _y	o	o	o
4	a _y	a ₁	o	o
5	o	o	o	o
6	o	a ₁	a ₂	o

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The missing SBP example

mi estimate: mean sbp

Multiple-imputation estimates

Mean estimation

DF adjustment: Small sample

Within VCE type: ANALYTIC

Imputations = 20

Number of obs = 4690

Average RVI = 7.4275

Complete DF = 4689

DF: min = 23.43

avg = 23.43

max = 23.43

	Mean	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
sbp	132.6799	1.017506	130.40	0.000	130.5772	134.7826

Correct analysis using sampling weights:

mean sbp [pw=sampw]

Mean estimation

Number of obs = 500

	Mean	Std. Err.	[95% Conf. Interval]
sbp	132.6242	1.032943	130.5947 134.6536

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Linear and Logistic regression - Note 6

43

A more complicated example

use sbp2data,clear

codebook,comp

Variable	Obs	Unique	Mean	Min	Max	Label
sex	4188	2	1.566141	1	2	Sex
sbp	4216	112	132.6945	80	270	Systolic Blood Pressure
dbp	4281	67	82.62766	40	148	Diastolic Blood Pressure
sc1	4192	244	228.2011	115	568	Serum Cholesterol
age	4245	37	46.0636	30	66	Age in years
bmi	4218	245	25.63148	16.2	57.6	Body Mass Index
id	4690	4690	2349.172	1	4699	

xi:regress sbp age i.sex

i.sex

Source

SS

df

MS

Model

281261.425

2

140630.713

Residual

1492627.36

3403

438.621029

Total

1773888.79

3405

520.96587

(naturally coded; _Isex_1 omitted)

Number of obs = 3406

F(2, 3403) = 320.62

Prob > F = 0.0000

R-squared = 0.1586

Adj R-squared = 0.1581

Root MSE = 20.943

	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
age	1.072026	.0423621	25.31	0.000	.9889686 1.155084
_Isex_2	.2701054	.7247534	0.37	0.709	-1.150891 1.691101
_cons	83.39557	2.017962	41.33	0.000	79.43903 87.35211

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Linear and Logistic regression - Note 6

44

A more complicated example

misstable pattern sbp age sex,freq

Missing-value patterns

(1 means complete)

Frequency

Pattern

1 2 3

3,406

1 1 1

407

1 1 0

386

1 0 1

359

0 1 1

46

1 0 0

44

0 1 0

37

0 0 1

5

0 0 0

4,690

Variables are

(1) age

(2) sbp

(3) sex

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Linear and Logistic regression - Note 6

45

A more complicated example

mi set mlong

mi ice sbp age o.sex bmi dbp sc1

#missing

values

Freq.

Percent

Cum.

0

2,489

53.07

53.07

1

1,670

35.61

88.68

2

467

9.96

98.64

3

60

1.28

99.91

4

4

0.09

100.00

Total

4,690

100.00

Variable

Command

Prediction equation

sbp

regress

age _Isex_2 bmi dbp sc1

age

regress

sbp _Isex_2 bmi dbp sc1

sex

ologit

sbp age bmi dbp sc1

_Isex_2

[Passively imputed from (sex==2)]

bmi

regress

sbp age _Isex_2 dbp sc1

dbp

regress

sbp age _Isex_2 bmi sc1

sc1

regress

sbp age _Isex_2 bmi dbp

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Linear and Logistic regression - Note 6

46

A more complicated example

codebook,comp

Variable

Obs

Unique

Mean

Min

Max

Label

sex

48208

2

1.568682

1

2

Sex

sbp

48236

9585

132.3171

55.04445

270

Systolic Blood Pressure

dbp

48301

8239

82.44462

39.00607

148

Diastolic Blood Pressure

sc1

48212

10200

227.2202

71.84563

568

Serum Cholesterol

age

48265

8932

45.94714

14.28921

83.50232

Age in Years

bmi

48238

9679

25.52701

10.58046

57.6

Body Mass Index

id

48710

4690

2348.166

1

4699

_mi_id

48710

4690

2330.321

1

4690

_mi_miss

4690

2

.4692964

0

1

_mi_m

48710

21

9.489017

0

20

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Linear and Logistic regression - Note 6

47

A more complicated example

mi estimate: regress sbp age sex

Multiple-imputation estimates

Linear regression

DF adjustment: Small sample

Model F test: Equal FMI

Within VCE type: OLS

Imputations = 20

Number of obs = 4690

Average RVI = 0.1115

Complete DF = 4687

DF: min = 784.98

avg = 982.49

max = 1366.36

F(2, 1480.0) = 397.31

Prob > F = 0.0000

	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
age	1.074694	.0376721	28.53	0.000	1.000792 1.148595
sex	.2725589	.6618376	0.41	0.681	-1.026622 1.57174
_cons	82.8989	2.061978	40.20	0.000	78.85135 86.94646

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Linear and Logistic regression - Note 6

48

Clustered data / data with several random components
Dichotomous outcome

A different outcome:

$$H_{jpd} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the person has hayfewer} \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

A statistical model:

$$\text{logit}(H_{jpd} = 1) = \underbrace{\beta_0 + \beta_I \cdot I + \beta_U \cdot U + \beta_A \cdot A + \beta_S \cdot S + \beta_G \cdot G}_{\text{Systematic part}} + \underbrace{F_j + P_{jp} + X_{jpd}}_{\text{Random part}}$$

This is not needed due to the binomial error

Clustered data / data with several random components
Dichotomous outcome

$$\text{logit}(H_{jpd} = 1) = \beta_0 + \beta_I \cdot I + \beta_U \cdot U + \beta_A \cdot A + \beta_S \cdot S + \beta_G \cdot G + F_j + P_{jp}$$

That is, an ordinary logistic regression + random components.

- A generalized linear mixed model
- A multilevel model for dichotomous outcome

Comments 1:

- It is **important** to include the **relevant random components** in the model.
- 'Multilevel models' is **essential** in medical/epidemiological research.

Clustered data / data with several random components
Dichotomous outcome

- Comments 2:
- The theory and insight into the models for non-normal data are **not yet fully developed**.
 - The main problem being that it is very difficult find **valid (unbiased) estimates**.
 - Several software programs **falsely claim** to estimate the models.
 - Some programs like Stata and NLwin can give you valid estimates if you take care and have **a lot of data**.

Advice:
Do not try to estimate this kind of models without consulting a specialist.

Clustered data / data with **one** random components
Dichotomous outcome

If the models only involves **one random components**, e.g. **variation between families** or between **GP's**, then methods exists which can **adjust the standards errors**.
Remember that if the **data contains clusters**, then the precision of the estimates overestimated, that is the reported **standard errors is too small**.
So called **robust methods** or **sandwich estimates** of the standard errors will (try) adjust for this problem.
Only a **few** programs have this option - Stata does!

ROC curves - sensitivity and specificity

generate over45=(age>45) if age!=.
diagt obese over45

obese	Pos.	Neg.	Total
Abnormal	361	240	601
Normal	1,952	2,137	4,089
Total	2,313	2,377	4,690

True abnormal diagnosis defined as obese = 1

Prevalence	Pr(A)	13%	12%	13.8%
Sensitivity	Pr(+ A)	60.1%	56%	64%
Specificity	Pr(- N)	52.3%	50.7%	53.8%
ROC area	(Sens. + Spec.)/2	.562	.541	.583
Likelihood ratio (+)	Pr(+ A)/Pr(+ N)	1.26	1.17	1.35
Likelihood ratio (-)	Pr(- A)/Pr(- N)	.764	.69	.846
Odds ratio	LR(+)/LR(-)	1.65	1.38	1.96
Positive predictive value	Pr(A +)	15.6%	14.2%	17.2%
Negative predictive value	Pr(N -)	89.9%	88.6%	91.1%

ROC curves - sensitivity and specificity

roctab obese over45,graph tab de

obese	over45	1	Total
0	2,137	1,952	4,089
1	240	361	601
Total	2,377	2,313	4,690

Detailed report of Sensitivity and Specificity

Cutpoint	Sensitivity	Specificity	Correctly Classified	LR+	LR-
(>= 0)	100.00%	0.00%	12.81%	1.0000	
(>= 1)	60.07%	52.26%	53.26%	1.2583	0.7641
(> 1)	0.00%	100.00%	87.19%		1.0000

obs	ROC Area	Std. Err.	-Asymptotic Normal-- [95% Conf. Interval]
4690	0.5616	0.0107	0.54061 0.58268



