

### Working with logistics regression models

Morten Frydenberg ©  
Department of Biostatistics, Aarhus Univ, Denmark

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Models for risk differences

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### The lincom command after logit or regress

Consider the model:

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

	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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### The lincom command after logit or regress

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

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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### The lincom command after logit or regress

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

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 .020869 6.71 0.000 1.116091 1.221914
```

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### 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 typically indicates that you have too 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.

### 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.

### 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

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

Logit estimates					
					Number of obs = 4690
			LR chi2(2) =	55.68	
			Prob > chi2 =	0.0000	
			Pseudo R2 =	0.0155	
Log likelihood = -1767.7019					
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					

Significantly better than nothing - but is it good?

### 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.

### 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	42	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

Significant difference between observed and expected!

### 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 !!!!!!!

### 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 "komune" having 275 distinct values.

### Conditional logistic regression What

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

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

$\ln(\text{odds})$  in reference

$\ln(\text{odds ratios})$

Suppose the model above hold in each strata:

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

$\ln(\text{odds})$  in reference

different in each strata

$\ln(\text{odds ratios})$

the same in each strata

### Conditional logistic regression What

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

$\ln(\text{odds})$  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  $\alpha$ 's disappear !

The  $\beta$ 's, the log OR's, are still in and can be estimated.

### 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.

### 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)

### 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
i.alkcon_1	.4628	.2823	1.639	0.101	-.0905 1.0163
i.alkcon_2	2.7165	.3232	8.404	0.000	2.0829 3.3501
i.genage_2	.2450	1.2514	0.196	0.845	-2.2075 2.6977
i.genage_3	-.4940	.5503	-0.898	0.369	-1.5726 .5846
i.genage_4	.1798	.6406	0.281	0.779	-1.0758 1.4353
i.genage_5	-.2899	.5482	-0.529	0.597	-1.3644 .7844
i.genage_6	.2127	.6262	0.340	0.734	-1.0147 1.4401
i.genage_7	-.2305	.5355	-0.431	0.667	-1.2802 .8190
i.genage_8	.5507	.5203	1.046	0.295	-.4809 1.5825
i.genage_9	.0315	.5884	0.054	0.957	-1.1217 1.1847
i.genage_10	.5572	.5595	0.996	0.319	-.53954 1.6539
const	-1.4692	.4762	-3.085	0.002	-2.4027 .5356

### 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: g1m obese age i.sex, fam(bin) link(logit)`

**Relative risk** model:

`xi: g1m 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: g1m obese age i.sex, fam(bin) link(logit)`

**Risk difference** model:

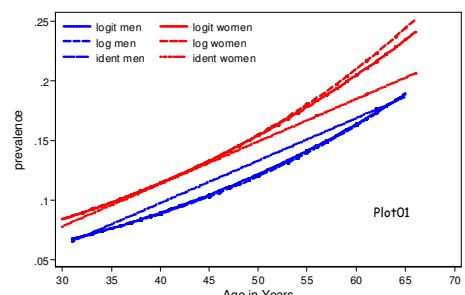
`xi: g1m obese age i.sex, fam(bin) link(id)`

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

### Missing data - example 1

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:

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

**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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### 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)

None of the two above apply:

We will need further assumptions in order to analyse the data.

### 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 **know** probability,  $p_i$ , then we can obtain unbiased estimates by weighting the  $i$ th person with  $1/p_i$ .

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

### 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 each of the oldest should weigh by 3.35.

Sampling weights can be used in many Stata commands:

```
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
```

### Missing values – not by design

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

<i>id</i>	<i>y</i>	<i>x<sub>1</sub></i>	<i>x<sub>2</sub></i>	<i>x<sub>3</sub></i>
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.

### 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.

<i>id</i>	<i>y</i>	<i>x<sub>1</sub></i>	<i>x<sub>2</sub></i>	<i>x<sub>3</sub></i>
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

### 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**.

<i>id</i>	<i>y</i>	<i>x<sub>1</sub></i>	<i>x<sub>2</sub></i>	<i>x<sub>3</sub></i>
1	o	o	o	o
2	o	a <sub>1</sub>	o	o
3	a <sub>2</sub>	o	o	o
4	a <sub>2</sub>	a <sub>1</sub>	o	o
5	o	o	o	o
6	o	a <sub>1</sub>	a <sub>2</sub>	o

### The missing SBP example

Imputation by **observed mean** in age group:

```
bysort agegrp: egen msbp=mean(sbp)
generate isbp=msbp
replace isbp=msbp if missing(sbp)

mean isbp
Mean estimation                               Number of obs      =   4690
                                                Mean   Std. Err.    [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----+-----+-----+
  isbp | 132.6242   .1627486   132.3051   132.9432
```

Correct mean, but a much too small standard error - incorrectly **assuming 4690 independent observations**.

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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### Imputation - random multiple

A fixed imputation will not take into account the random variation of the unobserved observation.

Imputation methods should add some random variation to the imputed data.

For that we need a **statistical model** for the missing data.

In **multiple imputations** one generates several **imputed** data sets.

For each imputed data set one fit the model of interest.

The point estimates are, then the average across the imputed.

One tricky thing is **calculation of the standard errors**.

<i>id</i>	<i>y</i>	<i>x<sub>1</sub></i>	<i>x<sub>2</sub></i>	<i>x<sub>3</sub></i>
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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### Multiple imputations

**Questions:**

How to find the **models** from which to generate the missing data?

<i>id</i>	<i>y</i>	<i>x<sub>1</sub></i>	<i>x<sub>2</sub></i>	<i>x<sub>3</sub></i>
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

Who should you handle missing data in this process?

How to find the uncertainty (**standard errors**) of the estimates?

**Bookkeeping.**

Most important: **Missing at random is required!**

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### The missing SBP example

```
use sbpdata,clear
mi set mlong
mi register imputed sbp
(4190 m=0 obs. now marked as incomplete)
```

```
mi impute regress sbp i.agegrp, add(20)
```

```
Univariate imputation                               Imputations =      20
Linear regression                                 added =          20
Imputed: m=1 through m=20                         updated =          0
                                                     |
                                                     Observations per m
variable | complete     incomplete    imputed | total
-----+-----+-----+-----+
  sbp |      500           4190        4190 |    4690
```

(complete + incomplete = total; imputed is the minimum across m of the number of filled in observations.)

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Linear and Logistic regression - Note 6

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### The missing SBP example

codebook, comp

Variable	Obs	Unique	Mean	Min	Max	Label
sbp	84300	83383	132.3204	44.52609	270	Systolic Blood Pressure
id	88490	4690	2352.429	1	4699	
agegrp	88490	4	1.107481	0	3	
_mi_id	88490	4690	2357.795	1	4690	
_mi_miss	4690	2	.8933902	0	1	
_mi_m	88490	21	9.943496	0	20	

sum if \_mi\_m==1

variable	obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
sbp	4190	131.2507	21.65931	59.92363	209.6556
id	4190	2352.611	1359.59	2	4699
agegrp	4190	1.105251	.8895275	0	3
_mi_id	4190	2358.483	1331.661	101	4690
_mi_miss	0				
_mi_m	4190	1	0	1	1

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### The missing SBP example

```
. table agegrp if _mi_m>0, c(count sbp mean sbp sd sbp)
```

agegrp	N(sbp)	mean(sbp)	sd(sbp)
0-	24,500	121.5843	22.32535
40-	30,680	131.1271	22.37045
50-	23,920	141.2539	22.4434
60-	4,700	150.2313	22.19089

**20\*1225=24500**

```
. table agegrp if _mi_m==0,c(count sbp mean sbp sd sbp)
```

agegrp	N(sbp)	mean(sbp)	sd(sbp)
0-	100	122.18	15.43273
40-	150	130.8467	22.2366
50-	150	140.9267	22.48194
60-	100	149.51	26.92507

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### The missing SBP example

```
mi estimate: mean sbp

Multiple-imputation estimates           Imputations =      20
Mean estimation                         Number of obs =    4690
                                         Average RVI =   7.4275
                                         Complete DF =  4689
DF adjustment: small sample            DF:     min =   23.43
                                         avg =   23.43
                                         max =   23.43
Within VCE type: ANALYTICIC

----- 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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### 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
----- scl       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 _Isex_1-2 (naturally coded; _Isex_1 omitted)
----- Source | SS          df          MS
----- Model | 281261.425 2 140630.713
----- Residual | 1492627.36 3403 438.621029
----- Total | 1773888.79 3405 520.96587
----- sbp | 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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### 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

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### A more complicated example

```
mi set mlong
mi ice sbp age o.sex bmi dbp scl , add(20)
----- #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 scl
----- age | regress | sbp _Isex_2 bmi dbp scl
----- sex | ologit | sbp age bmi dbp scl
----- _Isex_2 | [Passively imputed from (sex==2)]
----- bmi | regress | sbp age _Isex_2 dbp scl
----- dbp | regress | sbp age _Isex_2 bmi scl
----- scl | regress | sbp age _Isex_2 bmi dbp
```

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### 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
----- scl       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

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### A more complicated example

```
mi estimate: regress sbp age sex

Multiple-imputation estimates           Imputations =      20
Linear regression                      Number of obs =    4690
                                         Average RVI =   0.1115
                                         Complete DF =  4687
DF adjustment: Small sample            DF:     min =   784.98
                                         avg =   982.49
                                         max =   1366.36
Model F test: Equal FMI               F( 2, 1480.0) = 397.31
Within VCE type: OLS                  Prob > F = 0.0000
----- sbp | 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

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

A different outcome:  
 $H_{fpd} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the person has hayfewer} \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$

A statistical model:

**Systematic part**

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

$+ F_f + P_{fp} + X_{dp}$

This is not needed due to the binomial error

**Random part**

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Linear and Logistic regression - Note 6

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

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

$+ F_f + P_{fp}$

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.

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Linear and Logistic regression - Note 6

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**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.

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Linear and Logistic regression - Note 6

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**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!

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Linear and Logistic regression - Note 6

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**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 [95% Confidence Interval]

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%

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**ROC curves - sensitivity and specificity**

```
roctab obese over45,graph tab de
```

obese	over45	0	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

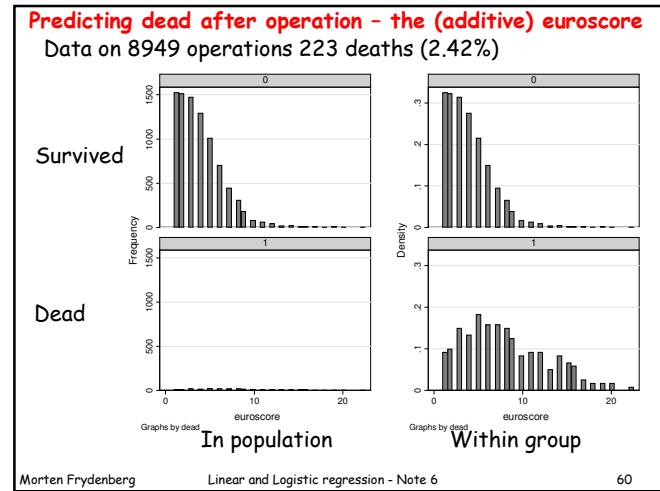
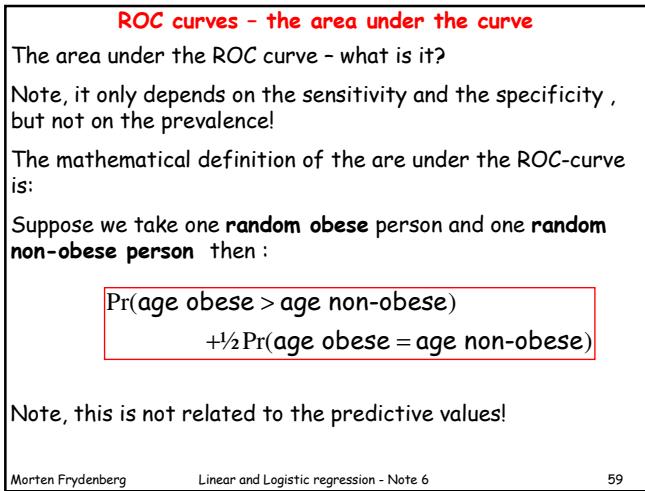
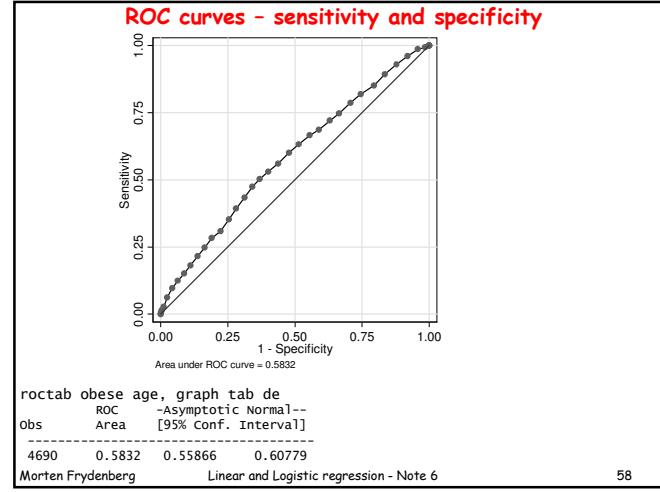
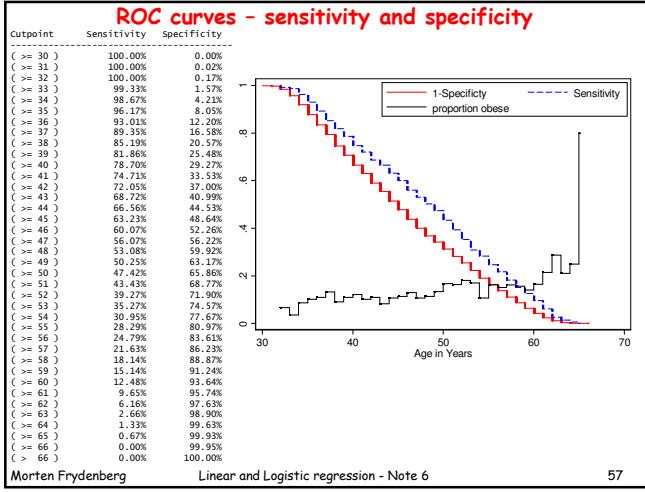
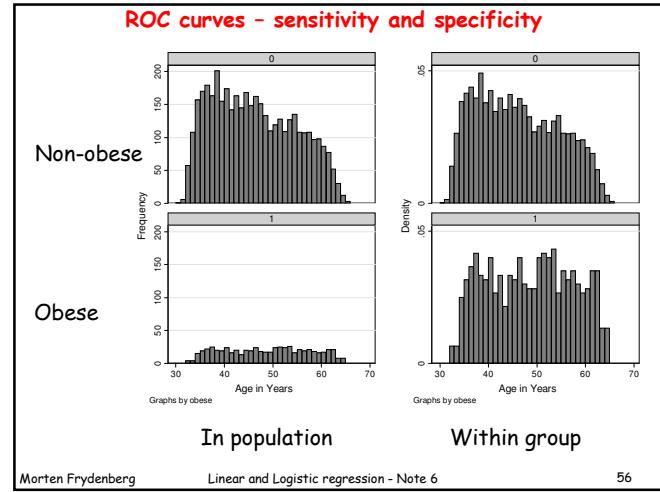
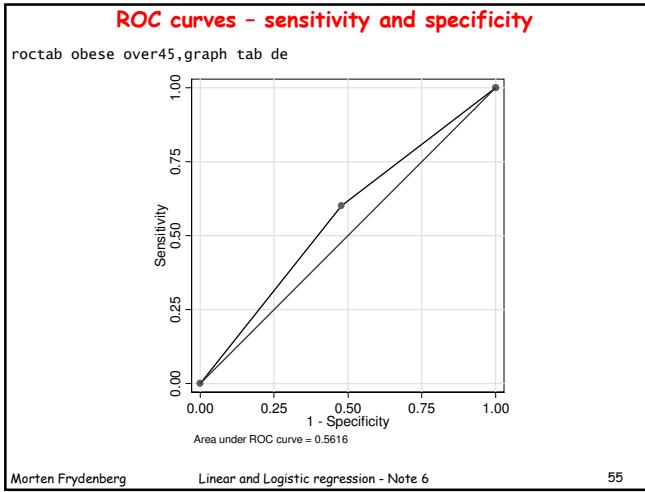
obs	ROC Area	Std. Err.	[95% Conf. Interval]
4690	0.5616	0.0107	0.54061 0.58268

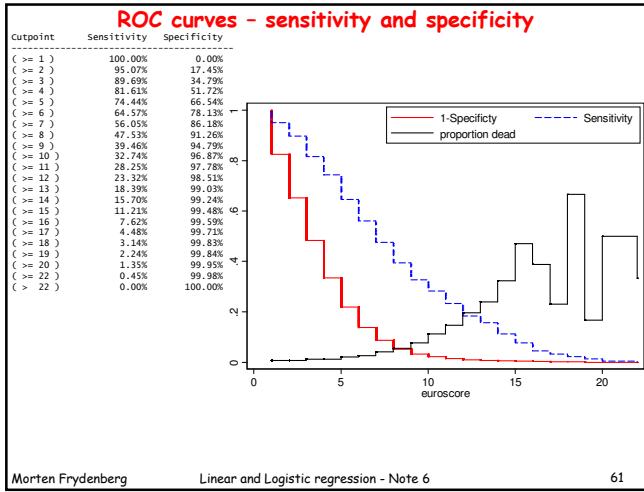
-Asymptotic Normal--

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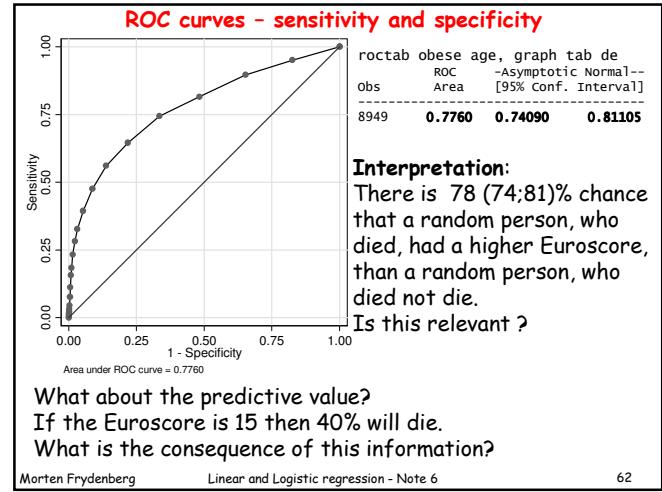




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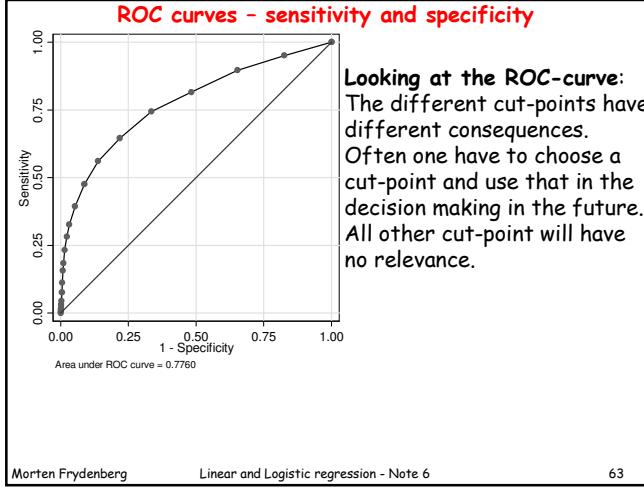
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