

6. Goodness of Fit

(1) In ordinary regression, a single *outlier* can be of interest, and/or suggest that the model fit is poor. Not so in logistic regression.

(2) Suppose $Y_i \sim \text{Bin}(n_i, p_i(\beta))$, $i = 1, \dots, n$ are independent and the n_i 's sufficiently large (e.g. so that $E[Y_i] \geq 5$), then components of χ^2 -distributed test statistics can be used to assess goodness of fit. The distribution of standardized *Pearson residuals* is

$$R_i \equiv \frac{y_i - n_i p_i(\hat{\beta})}{\sqrt{n_i p_i(\hat{\beta})(1 - p_i(\hat{\beta}))}} \sim N(0, 1), \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

asymptotically.

(3) In this case the goodness of fit of the whole model can be tested with the statistic

$$\chi_P^2 \equiv \sum_{i=1}^n R_i^2 \sim \chi_{n-(k+1)}^2.$$

(4) Under the same assumptions on expected counts, deviance

$$D = \sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2 \sim \chi_{n-(k+1)}^2,$$

(5) where the summands are based on the *deviance residuals*

$$d_i \equiv \text{sgn}_i \times \sqrt{2} \left\{ y_i \log \frac{y_i}{n_i p_i(\hat{\beta})} + (n_i - y_i) \log \frac{n_i - y_i}{n_i - n_i p_i(\hat{\beta})} \right\}^{1/2}$$

where $\text{sgn}_i = 1$, if $y_i - n_i p_i(\hat{\beta}) \geq 0$, otherwise $\text{sgn}_i = -1$.

(6) In addition, $d_i \sim N(0, 1)$ asymptotically.

(7) When $n_i \equiv 1$, single residuals do not have a clear interpretation, so residual checks are based on *data grouping*. Any substantively meaningful grouping (that does not depend on the observed y_i 's!) can be informative.

(8) *Hosmer-Lemeshow tests* are based on groupings based on the estimated probabilities.

(9) In addition to studying the responses y_i , it is important to screen the explanatory variables for high *leverage*.

7. Conditional Logistic Regression

- (1) In a cohort study, the subjects are sometimes matched, e.g., according to place of residence, if it is suspected that there are spatially varying exposures that are hard to measure or unknown.
- (2) Similarly, in a case-control study one may select cases and controls from the same areas.
- (3) In both cases, logistic regression is applied the same way, by conditioning on the matched sets. Consider the simplest case, the pair-matched case-control study.
- (4) Index pairs by $J = 1, \dots, J$ and the individuals by $i = 2j - 1$ for the case in pair j , and $i = 2j$ for the control.
- (5) Suppose the values of the exposure variables are generated randomly, with probabilities (or density) $P(\mathbf{x})$. The response probability is $P(Y = 1 \mid \mathbf{x})$, so the joint probability of the responses and exposures is $P(Y = 1, \mathbf{x}) = P(Y = 1 \mid \mathbf{x})P(\mathbf{x})$.

(6) Suppose that a logistic regression model for the response in pair j , given that the individual has characteristics \mathbf{x} , is

$$\text{logit}(P(Y = 1 \mid \mathbf{x})) = \alpha_j + \mathbf{x}^T \beta, \quad j = 1, \dots, J.$$

(7) Here α_j represents unmeasured characteristics shared by the pair j .

(8) The problem is that as the number of pairs J increases, so does the number of parameters, and the usual asymptotic properties of the MLEs do not hold.

(9) A solution is to *condition* on the outcomes of the pairs. The probability that the case is the one with exposures \mathbf{x}_{2j-1} , given the exposures $\{\mathbf{x}_{2j-1}, \mathbf{x}_{2j}\}$, equals

$$\frac{P(Y = 1, \mathbf{x}_{2j-1})P(Y = 0, \mathbf{x}_{2j})}{P(Y = 1, \mathbf{x}_{2j-1})P(Y = 0, \mathbf{x}_{2j}) + P(Y = 0, \mathbf{x}_{2j-1})P(Y = 1, \mathbf{x}_{2j})}.$$

(10) This conditional probability equals

$$\frac{\exp((\mathbf{x}_{2j-1} - \mathbf{x}_{2j})^T \beta)}{1 + \exp((\mathbf{x}_{2j-1} - \mathbf{x}_{2j})^T \beta)}.$$

(11) Computation: J Bernoulli trials, all successes, explanatory variables $\mathbf{x}_{2j-1} - \mathbf{x}_{2j}$, no constant term.

(12) As in case-control studies in general, absolute risk cannot be estimated.

(13) The argument extends to multiple cases, and multiple controls. The resulting likelihood is the *same* as in Cox regression!

(14) If applied in cohort studies, matched sets with all cases, or all non-cases, are not informative.

(15) *Random effects* can also be used to represent hard to measure group characteristics, due to neighborhood or family, for example. So-called *generalized linear mixed models* incorporate such effects.