

Likelihoods for Multivariate Binary Data

Log-Linear Model

We have $2^n - 1$ distinct probabilities, but we wish to consider formulations that allow more parsimonious descriptions as a function of covariates.

One choice is the log-linear model:

$$\Pr(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}) = c(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \exp \left(\sum_j \theta_j^{(1)} y_j + \sum_{j_1 < j_2} \theta_{j_1 j_2}^{(2)} y_{j_1} y_{j_2} + \dots + \theta_{12 \dots n}^{(n)} y_1 \dots y_n \right),$$

with $2^n - 1$ parameters

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1^{(1)}, \dots, \theta_n^{(1)}, \theta_{12}^{(2)}, \dots, \theta_{n-1, n}^{(2)}, \dots, \theta_{12 \dots n}^{(n)})^T,$$

and where $c(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is the normalizing constant.

This formulation allows calculation of cell probabilities, but is less useful for describing $\Pr(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y})$ as a function of \mathbf{x} .

Note that we have $2^n - 1$ parameters and we have two aims: reduce this number, and introduce a regression model.

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Example: $n = 2$.

We have

$$\Pr(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2) = c(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \exp \left(\theta_1^{(1)} y_1 + \theta_2^{(1)} y_2 + \theta_{12}^{(2)} y_1 y_2 \right),$$

where $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1^{(1)}, \theta_2^{(1)}, \theta_{12}^{(2)})^T$ and

$$c(\boldsymbol{\theta})^{-1} = \sum_{y_1=0}^1 \sum_{y_2=0}^1 \exp \left(\theta_1^{(1)} y_1 + \theta_2^{(1)} y_2 + \theta_{12}^{(2)} y_1 y_2 \right)$$

| y_1 | y_2 | $\Pr(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2)$ |
|-------|-------|--|
| 0 | 0 | $c(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ |
| 1 | 0 | $c(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \exp(\theta_1^{(1)})$ |
| 0 | 1 | $c(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \exp(\theta_2^{(1)})$ |
| 1 | 1 | $c(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \exp(\theta_1^{(1)} + \theta_2^{(1)} + \theta_{12}^{(2)})$ |

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Hence we have interpretations:

$$\begin{aligned}\exp(\theta_1^{(1)}) &= \frac{\Pr(Y_1 = 1, Y_2 = 0)}{\Pr(Y_1 = 0, Y_2 = 0)} \\ &= \frac{\Pr(Y_1 = 1|Y_2 = 0)}{\Pr(Y_1 = 0|Y_2 = 0)}\end{aligned}$$

the odds of an event at trial 1, given no event at trial 2;

$$\begin{aligned}\exp(\theta_2^{(1)}) &= \frac{\Pr(Y_1 = 0, Y_2 = 1)}{\Pr(Y_1 = 0, Y_2 = 0)} \\ &= \frac{\Pr(Y_2 = 1|Y_1 = 0)}{\Pr(Y_2 = 0|Y_1 = 0)}\end{aligned}$$

the odds of an event at trial 2, given an event at trial 1;

$$\begin{aligned}\exp(\theta_{12}^{(12)}) &= \frac{\Pr(Y_1 = 1, Y_2 = 1) \Pr(Y_1 = 0, Y_2 = 0)}{\Pr(Y_1 = 1, Y_2 = 0) \Pr(Y_1 = 0, Y_2 = 1)} \\ &= \frac{\Pr(Y_2 = 1|Y_1 = 1) / \Pr(Y_2 = 0|Y_1 = 1)}{\Pr(Y_2 = 1|Y_1 = 0) / \Pr(Y_2 = 0|Y_1 = 0)}\end{aligned}$$

the ratio of odds of an event at trial 2 given an event at trial 1, divided by the odds of an event at trial 2 given a at event at trial 1. Hence if this parameter is larger than 1 we have positive dependence.

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Quadratic Exponential Log-Linear Model

We describe three approaches to modeling binary data: conditional odds ratios, correlations, marginal odds ratios.

Zhao and Prentice (1990) consider the log-linear model with third and higher-order terms set to zero, so that

$$\Pr(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}) = c(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \exp \left(\sum_j \theta_j^{(1)} y_j + \sum_{j < k} \theta_{jk}^{(2)} y_j y_k \right).$$

For this model

$$\frac{\Pr(Y_j = 1|Y_k = y_k, Y_l = 0, l \neq j, k)}{\Pr(Y_j = 0|Y_k = y_k, Y_l = 0, l \neq j, k)} = \exp(\theta_j^{(1)} + \theta_{jk}^{(2)} y_k).$$

Interpretation:

- $\exp(\theta_j^{(1)})$ is the odds of a success, given all other responses are zero.
- $\exp(\theta_{jk}^{(2)})$ is the odds ratio describing the association between Y_j and Y_k , given all other responses are fixed (equal to zero).

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Limitations:

1. Suppose we now wish to model $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ as a function of \boldsymbol{x} .

Example: Y respiratory infection, x mother's smoking (no/yes). Then we could let the parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ depend on x , i.e. $\boldsymbol{\theta}(x)$. But the difference between $\theta_j^{(1)}(x=1)$ and $\theta_j^{(1)}(x=0)$ represent the effect of smoking on the *conditional* probability of respiratory infection at visit j , given that there was no infection at any other visits. Difficult to interpret, and we would rather model the *marginal* probability.

2. The interpretation of the $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ parameters depends on the number of responses n – particularly a problem in a longitudinal setting with different n_i .

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Bahadur Representation

Another approach to parameterizing a multivariate binary model was proposed by Bahadur (1961) who used marginal means, as well as second-order moments specified in terms of correlations.

Let

$$\begin{aligned} R_j &= \frac{Y_j - \mu_j}{[\mu_j(1 - \mu_j)]^{1/2}} \\ \rho_{jk} &= \text{corr}(Y_j, Y_k) = E[R_j R_k] \\ \rho_{jkl} &= E[R_j R_k R_l] \\ &\dots \cdot \dots \\ \rho_{1,\dots,n} &= E[R_1 \dots R_n] \end{aligned}$$

Then we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}) &= \prod_{j=1}^n \mu_j^{y_j} (1 - \mu_j)^{1-y_j} \\ &\times \left(1 + \sum_{j < k} \rho_{jk} r_j r_k + \sum_{j < k < l} \rho_{jkl} r_j r_k r_l + \dots + \rho_{1,\dots,n} r_1 r_2 \dots r_n \right) \end{aligned}$$

Appealing because we have the marginal means μ_j and “nuisance” parameters.

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Limitations:

Unfortunately, the correlations are constrained in complicated ways by the marginal means.

Example: consider measurements on a single individual, Y_1 and Y_2 , with means μ_1 and μ_2 . We have

$$\text{corr}(Y_1, Y_2) = \frac{\Pr(Y_1 = 1, Y_2 = 1) - \mu_1\mu_2}{\{\mu_1(1 - \mu_1)\mu_2(1 - \mu_2)\}^{1/2}}$$

and

$$\max(0, \mu_1 + \mu_2 - 1) \leq \Pr(Y_1 = 1, Y_2 = 1) \leq \min(\mu_1, \mu_2),$$

which implies complex constraints on the correlation.

For example, if $\mu_1 = 0.8$ and $\mu_2 = 0.2$ then $0 \leq \text{corr}(Y_1, Y_2) \leq 0.25$.

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Marginal Odds Ratios

An alternative is to parameterize in terms of the marginal means and the marginal odds ratios defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{jk} &= \frac{\Pr(Y_j = 1, Y_k = 1) \Pr(Y_j = 0, Y_k = 0)}{\Pr(Y_j = 1, Y_k = 0) \Pr(Y_j = 0, Y_k = 1)} \\ &= \frac{\Pr(Y_j = 1 | Y_k = 1) / \Pr(Y_j = 0 | Y_k = 1)}{\Pr(Y_j = 1 | Y_k = 0) / \Pr(Y_j = 0 | Y_k = 0)} \end{aligned}$$

which is the odds that the j -th observation is a 1, given the k -th observation is a 1, divided by the odds that the j -th observation is a 1, given the k -th observation is a 0.

Hence if $\gamma_{jk} > 1$ we have positive dependence between outcomes j and k .

It is then possible to obtain the joint distribution in terms of the means $\boldsymbol{\mu}$, where $\mu_j = \Pr(Y_j = 1)$ the odds ratios $\boldsymbol{\gamma} = (\gamma_{12}, \dots, \gamma_{n-1,n})$ and contrasts of odds ratios

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We need to find $E[Y_j Y_k] = \mu_{jk}$, so that we can write down the likelihood function, or an estimating function.

For the case of $n = 2$ we have

$$\gamma_{12} = \frac{\Pr(Y_1 = 1, Y_2 = 1) \Pr(Y_1 = 0, Y_2 = 0)}{\Pr(Y_1 = 1, Y_2 = 0) \Pr(Y_1 = 0, Y_2 = 1)} = \frac{\mu_{12}(1 - \mu_1 - \mu_2 + \mu_{12})}{(\mu_1 - \mu_{12})(\mu_2 - \mu_{12})},$$

and so

$$\mu_{12}^2(\gamma_{12} - 1) + \mu_{12}b + \gamma_{12}\mu_1\mu_2 = 0,$$

where $b = (\mu_1 + \mu_2)(1 - \gamma_{12}) - 1$, to give

$$\mu_{12} = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4(\gamma_{12} - 1)\mu_1\mu_2}}{2(\gamma_{12} - 1)}.$$

| | | | | |
|-------|---|-------------|------------|-------------|
| | | Y_2 | | |
| | | 0 | 1 | |
| Y_1 | 0 | | | $1 - \mu_1$ |
| | 1 | | μ_{12} | μ_1 |
| | | $1 - \mu_2$ | μ_2 | |

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Limitations

In a longitudinal setting (we add an i subscript to denote individuals), finding the μ_{ijk} terms is computationally complex.

Large numbers of nuisance odds ratios if n_i 's are large – assumptions such as $\gamma_{ijk} = \gamma$ for all i, j, k may be made.

Another possibility is to take

$$\log \gamma_{ijk} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 |t_{ij} - t_{ik}|^{-1},$$

so that the degree of association is inversely proportional to the time between observations.

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Modeling Multivariate Binary Data Using GEE

For a marginal Bernoulli outcome we have

$$\Pr(Y_{ij} = y_{ij} | \mathbf{x}_{ij}) = \mu_{ij}^{y_{ij}} (1 - \mu_{ij})^{1-y_{ij}} = \exp(y_{ij}\theta_{ij} - \log\{1 + e^{\theta_{ij}}\}),$$

where $\theta_{ij} = \log(\mu_{ij}/(1 - \mu_{ij}))$, an exponential family representation.

For independent responses we therefore have the likelihood

$$\Pr(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{x}) = \exp \left[\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} y_{ij}\theta_{ij} - \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \log\{1 + e^{\theta_{ij}}\} \right] = \exp \left[\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} l_{ij} \right].$$

To find the MLEs we consider the score equation:

$$\mathbf{G}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \frac{\partial l}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \frac{\partial l_{ij}}{\partial \theta_{ij}} \frac{\partial \theta_{ij}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} x_{ij}(y_{ij} - \mu_{ij}) = \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{x}_i^T (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i).$$

So GEE with working independence can be implemented with standard software, though we need to “fix-up” the standard errors via sandwich estimation.

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Non-independence GEE

Assuming working correlation matrices: $\mathbf{R}_i(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$ and estimating equation

$$\mathbf{G}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{D}_i^T \mathbf{W}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i),$$

where $\mathbf{W}_i = \boldsymbol{\Delta}_i^{1/2} \mathbf{R}_i(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) \boldsymbol{\Delta}_i^{1/2}$.

Here $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ are parameters that we need a consistent estimator of (Newey 1990, shows that the choice of estimator for $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ has no effect on the asymptotic efficiency).

Define a set of $n_i(n_i - 1)/2$ empirical correlations

$$R_{ijk} = \frac{(Y_{ij} - \mu_{ij})(Y_{ik} - \mu_{ik})}{[\mu_{ij}(1 - \mu_{ij})\mu_{ik}(1 - \mu_{ik})]^{1/2}}.$$

We can then define a set of moment-based estimating equations to obtain estimates of $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$.

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First Extension to GEE

Rather than have a method of moments estimator for $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$, Prentice (1988) proposed using a second set of estimating equations for $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$. In the context of data with $\text{var}(Y_{ij}) = v(\mu_{ij})$:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{G}_1(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) &= \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{D}_i^T \mathbf{W}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{Y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i) \\ \mathbf{G}_2(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) &= \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{E}_i^T \mathbf{H}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{T}_i - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i)\end{aligned}$$

where $R_{ij} = \{Y_{ij} - \mu_{ij}\}/v(\mu_{ij})^{1/2}$, to give “data”

$$\mathbf{T}_i^T = (R_{i1}R_{i2}, \dots, R_{in_i-1}R_{in_i}, R_{i1}^2, \dots, R_{in_i}^2),$$

$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \text{E}[\mathbf{T}_i]$ is a model for the correlations and variances of the standardized residuals, $\mathbf{E}_i = \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i}{\partial \boldsymbol{\alpha}}$, and $\mathbf{H}_i = \text{cov}(\mathbf{T}_i)$ is the working covariance model.

The vector \mathbf{T}_i has $n_i(n_i - 1)/2 + n_i$ elements in general — the working covariance model \mathbf{H}_i is in general complex.

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In the context of binary data Prentice (1988) the variances are determined by the mean and so the last n_i terms of \mathbf{T}_i are dropped; he also suggests taking a diagonal working covariance model, \mathbf{H}_i , i.e. ignoring the covariances. The theoretical variances are given by

$$\text{var}(R_{ij}R_{ik}) = 1 + (1 - 2p_{ij})(1 - 2p_{ik})\{p_{ij}(1 - p_{ij})p_{ik}(1 - p_{ik})\}^{-1/2} \Sigma(\boldsymbol{\alpha})_{ijk} - \Sigma(\boldsymbol{\alpha})_{ijk}^2$$

which depend on the assumed correlation model $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ — these may be taken as the diagonal elements of \mathbf{H}_i .

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Application of GEE Extension to Marginal Odds Model

We have the marginal mean model

$$\text{logit } E[Y_{ij} \mid \mathbf{X}_{ij}] = \boldsymbol{\beta} \mathbf{X}_{ij}.$$

Suppose we specify a model for the associations in terms of the marginal log odds ratios:

$$\alpha_{ijk} = \log \left\{ \frac{\Pr(Y_{ij} = 1, Y_{ik} = 1) \Pr(Y_{ij} = 0, Y_{ik} = 0)}{\Pr(Y_{ij} = 1, Y_{ik} = 0) \Pr(Y_{ij} = 0, Y_{ik} = 1)} \right\}.$$

These are nuisance parameters, but how do we estimate them?

Carey et al. (1992) suggest the following approach for estimating $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$.

Let

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{ij} &= \Pr(Y_{ij} = 1) \\ \mu_{ik} &= \Pr(Y_{ik} = 1) \\ \mu_{ijk} &= \Pr(Y_{ij} = 1, Y_{ik} = 1) \end{aligned}$$

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It is easy to show that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\Pr(Y_{ij} = 1 \mid Y_{ik} = y_{ik})}{\Pr(Y_{ij} = 0 \mid Y_{ik} = y_{ik})} &= \exp(y_{ik} \alpha_{ijk}) \frac{\Pr(Y_{ij} = 1, Y_{ik} = 0)}{\Pr(Y_{ij} = 0, Y_{ik} = 0)} \\ &= \exp(y_{ik} \alpha_{ijk}) \left(\frac{\mu_{ij} - \mu_{ijk}}{1 - \mu_{ij} - \mu_{ik} + \mu_{ijk}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

which can be written as a logistic regression model in terms of conditional probabilities:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{logit } E[Y_{ij} \mid Y_{ik}] &= \log \left(\frac{\Pr(Y_{ij} = 1 \mid Y_{ik} = y_{ik})}{\Pr(Y_{ij} = 0 \mid Y_{ik} = y_{ik})} \right) \\ &= y_{ik} \alpha_{ijk} + \log \left(\frac{\mu_{ij} - \mu_{ijk}}{1 - \mu_{ij} - \mu_{ik} + \mu_{ijk}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

where the term on the right is a known offset (the μ 's are a function of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ only).

Suppose for simplicity that $\alpha_{ijk} = \alpha$ then given current estimates of $\boldsymbol{\beta}, \alpha$, we can fit a logistic regression model by regressing Y_{ij} on Y_{ik} for $1 \leq j < k \leq n_i$, to estimate α — this can then be used within the working correlation model.

Carey et al. (1992) refer to this method as *alternating logistic regressions*.

Indonesian Children's Health Example

```
> summary(geese(y ~ xero+age, corstr="independence", id=id, family="binomial"))
Mean Model:
Mean Link:                logit
Variance to Mean Relation: binomial
Coefficients:
      estimate      san.se      wald      p
(Intercept) -2.38479528 0.117676276 410.699689 0.000000e+00
age          -0.02605769 0.005306513  24.113112 9.083967e-07
xero         0.72015485 0.419718477  2.943985 8.619783e-02
Scale Model:
Scale Link:                identity
Estimated Scale Parameters:
      estimate      san.se      wald      p
(Intercept) 0.977505 0.2766052 12.48871 0.0004094196
Correlation Model:
Correlation Structure:     independence
Number of clusters:      275  Maximum cluster size: 6
```

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```
> summary(geese(y ~ age+xero, corstr="exchangeable", id=id, family="binomial"))
      estimate      san.se      wald      p
(Intercept) -2.37015400 0.117210489 408.902887 0.000000e+00
age          -0.02532507 0.005271204  23.082429 1.552026e-06
xero         0.58758892 0.449818037  1.706371 1.914569e-01
Estimated Scale Parameters:
      estimate      san.se      wald      p
(Intercept) 0.9681312 0.2618218 13.67278 0.0002175859
Estimated Correlation Parameters:
      estimate      san.se      wald      p
alpha 0.04423924 0.03222984 1.884079 0.1698713
> summary(geese(y ~ age+xero, corstr="ar1", id=id, family="binomial"))
Coefficients:
      estimate      san.se      wald      p
(Intercept) -2.37470963 0.11733291 409.620156 0.000000e+00
age          -0.02597886 0.00528451  24.167452 8.831225e-07
xero         0.63692645 0.44374132  2.060245 1.511859e-01
Estimated Scale Parameters:
      estimate      san.se      wald      p
(Intercept) 0.9715817 0.2694961 12.99732 0.0003119374
Estimated Correlation Parameters:
      estimate      san.se      wald      p
alpha 0.05844094 0.04528613 1.665344 0.1968834
```

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Conditional Likelihood: Binary Longitudinal Data

Recall that conditional likelihood is a technique for eliminating nuisance parameters, here what we have previously modeled as random effects.

Consider individual i with binary observations y_{i1}, \dots, y_{in_i} and assume the random intercepts model $Y_{ij} \mid \gamma_i, \boldsymbol{\beta} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p_{ij})$, where

$$\log \left(\frac{p_{ij}}{1 - p_{ij}} \right) = \mathbf{x}_{ij} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \gamma_i$$

where $\gamma_i = \mathbf{x}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + b_i$ and \mathbf{x}_{ij} (a slight change from our usual notation), are those covariates which change within an individual.

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We have

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(y_{i1}, \dots, y_{in_i} \mid \gamma_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}) &= \prod_{j=1}^{n_i} \frac{\exp(\gamma_i y_{ij} + \mathbf{x}_{ij} \boldsymbol{\beta} y_{ij})}{1 + \exp(\gamma_i + \mathbf{x}_{ij} \boldsymbol{\beta})} \\ &= \frac{\exp\left(\gamma_i \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} y_{ij} + \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \mathbf{x}_{ij} y_{ij} \boldsymbol{\beta}\right)}{\prod_{j=1}^{n_i} [1 + \exp(\gamma_i + \mathbf{x}_{ij} \boldsymbol{\beta})]} \\ &= \frac{\exp(\gamma_i t_{2i} + \mathbf{t}_{1i} \boldsymbol{\beta})}{\prod_{j=1}^{n_i} [1 + \exp(\gamma_i + \mathbf{x}_{ij} \boldsymbol{\beta})]} \\ &= \frac{\exp(\gamma_i t_{2i} + \mathbf{t}_{1i} \boldsymbol{\beta})}{k(\gamma_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})} \\ &= p(t_{1i}, \mathbf{t}_{2i} \mid \gamma_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{t}_{1i} &= \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \mathbf{x}_{ij} y_{ij}, & t_{2i} &= \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} y_{ij} \\ k(\gamma_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}) &= \prod_{j=1}^{n_i} [1 + \exp(\gamma_i + \mathbf{x}_{ij} \boldsymbol{\beta})]. \end{aligned}$$

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We have

$$L_c(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \prod_{i=1}^m p(\mathbf{t}_{1i} | t_{2i}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \prod_{i=1}^m \frac{p(\mathbf{t}_{1i}, t_{2i} | \gamma_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})}{p(t_{2i} | \gamma_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})}$$

where

$$p(\mathbf{t}_{2i} | \gamma_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \frac{\sum_{l=1}^{\binom{n_i}{y_{i+}}} \exp\left(\gamma_i \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} y_{ij} + \sum_{k=1}^{n_i} \mathbf{x}_{ik} y_{ik}^l \boldsymbol{\beta}\right)}{k(\gamma_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})},$$

where the summation is over the $\binom{n_i}{y_{i+}}$ ways of choosing y_{i+} ones out of n_i , and $\mathbf{y}_i^l = (y_{i1}^l, \dots, y_{in_i}^l)$, $l = 1, \dots, \binom{n_i}{y_{i+}}$ is the collection of these ways.

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} L_c(\boldsymbol{\beta}) &= \prod_{i=1}^m \frac{\exp\left(\gamma_i \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} y_{ij} + \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \mathbf{x}_{ij} y_{ij} \boldsymbol{\beta}\right)}{\sum_{l=1}^{\binom{n_i}{y_{i+}}} \exp\left(\gamma_i \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} y_{ij} + \sum_{k=1}^{n_i} \mathbf{x}_{ik} y_{ik}^l \boldsymbol{\beta}\right)} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^m \frac{\exp\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \mathbf{x}_{ij} y_{ij} \boldsymbol{\beta}\right)}{\sum_{l=1}^{\binom{n_i}{y_{i+}}} \exp\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n_i} \mathbf{x}_{ik} y_{ik}^l \boldsymbol{\beta}\right)} \end{aligned}$$

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Notes

- Can be computationally expensive to evaluate likelihood if n_i is large, e.g. if $n_i = 20$ and $y_{i+} = 10$, $\binom{n_i}{y_{i+}} = 184,756$.
- There is no contribution to the conditional likelihood from individuals:
 - With $n_i = 1$.
 - With $y_{i+} = 0$ or $y_{i+} = n_i$.
 - For those covariates with $x_{i1} = \dots = x_{in_i} = x_i$. The conditional likelihood estimates β 's that are associated with within-individual covariates. If a covariate only varies between individuals, then it cannot be estimated using conditional likelihood.
For covariates that vary both between and within individuals, only the within-individual contrasts are used.

- The similarity to Cox's partial likelihood may be exploited to carry out computation.
- We have not made a distributional assumption for the γ_i 's!

Examples:

If $n_i = 3$ and $\mathbf{y}_i = (0, 0, 1)$ so that $y_{i+} = 1$ then

$$\mathbf{y}_i^1 = (1, 0, 0), \quad \mathbf{y}_i^2 = (0, 1, 0), \quad \mathbf{y}_i^3 = (0, 0, 1),$$

and the contribution to the conditional likelihood is

$$\frac{\exp(\mathbf{x}_{i3}\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\exp(\mathbf{x}_{i1}\boldsymbol{\beta}) + \exp(\mathbf{x}_{i2}\boldsymbol{\beta}) + \exp(\mathbf{x}_{i3}\boldsymbol{\beta})}.$$

If $n_i = 3$ and $\mathbf{y}_i = (1, 0, 1)$ so that $y_{i+} = 2$ then

$$\mathbf{y}_i^1 = (1, 1, 0), \quad \mathbf{y}_i^2 = (1, 0, 1), \quad \mathbf{y}_i^3 = (0, 1, 1),$$

and the contribution to the conditional likelihood is

$$\frac{\exp(\mathbf{x}_{i1}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{x}_{i3}\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\exp(\mathbf{x}_{i1}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{x}_{i2}\boldsymbol{\beta}) + \exp(\mathbf{x}_{i1}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{x}_{i3}\boldsymbol{\beta}) + \exp(\mathbf{x}_{i2}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{x}_{i3}\boldsymbol{\beta})}.$$