# Logistic Regression (part II)

Predictive Modeling & Statistical Learning

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# Logistic Regression Theory

### Logistic Function

I'm afraid we have another issue. While the model:

$$E(Y|X = x_i) = p(x_i) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i}}$$

solves the issue about adequately approximating Y values in [0,1], it is NOT linear in its parameters.

Is there a way to linearize things?

#### Logit Function

To "recover" a linear model, we use the so-called **logit** function:

$$logit(p) = log(\frac{p}{1-p})$$

invented by Joseph Berkson in 1944

By the inverse of the logistic function we have that:

$$\log\left(\frac{p(x)}{1-p(x)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

#### Question

What is this term?

$$\frac{p(x)}{1 - p(x)}$$

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$$\frac{p(x)}{1 - p(x)}$$

It is the **odds** of event Y = 1 for X = x

#### Logit and Odds

If we take the log of the odds, it turns out that we get the following expression:

$$\log\left(\frac{p(x)}{1-p(x)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

This is the so-called **logit** function.

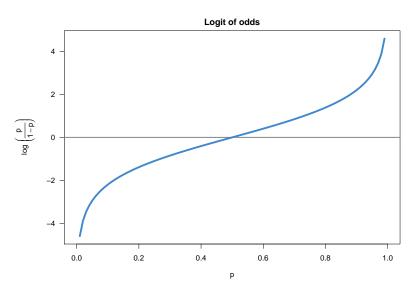
#### Logit and Odds

#### The logit function:

$$\log\left(\frac{p(x)}{1-p(x)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

- ▶ It is a particular case of the link functions in the framework of *generalized linear models*.
- ▶ It can range from  $-\infty$  to  $\infty$ .
- ► There is no concern about the range of values that the linear predictors may produce.

# Graph of Logit function



#### Odds

When we have multiple predictors  $X_1, \ldots, X_p$  the logistic model becomes:

$$log\left(\frac{p(x)}{1-p(x)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p$$

Logistic regression models the log-odds of the event as a linear function. In other words, we model the logit of the conditional expectation as a linear combination of the predictors.

### Interpretation of the Logistic Function

The linear predictor can be interpreted as the *propensity* to choose the Y=1 "event"

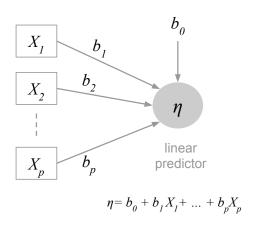
$$\eta_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}$$

If  $\eta_i$  is greater than a threshold (i.e. 0) then the individual chooses Y=1, otherwise Y=0

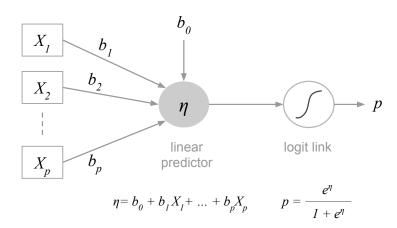
# A graphical representation

 $\begin{bmatrix} X_I \\ X_2 \\ \vdots \\ X_p \end{bmatrix}$ 

### A graphical representation



### A graphical representation



The estimation of  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  is carried out by **Maximum** Likelihood

#### Likelihood Function

#### The probability of observing the data

$$[(x_1,y_1),(x_2,y_2),\ldots,(x_n,y_n)]$$

is:

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(Y = y_i | X = x_i) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(x_i)^{y_i} (1 - p(x_i))^{1 - y_i}$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left( \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i}} \right)^{y_i} \left( 1 - \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i}} \right)^{1 - y_i} = L(\beta_0, \beta_1)$$

The estimation of  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  is carried out by **Maximum Likelihood** 

We look for estimates  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  that maximize the likelihood function  $L(\beta_0,\beta_1)=L(\pmb{\beta})$ 

As it is cutomary with ML estimation, it is more convenient to work with the log-likelihood  $l(\beta) = log(L(\beta))$ 

$$\begin{split} l(\beta) &= log(L(\beta)) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ y_{i}log(p(x_{i})) + (1 - y_{i})log(1 - p(x_{i})) \right\} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} log(1 - p(x_{i})) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}log\left(\frac{p(x_{i})}{1 - p(x_{i})}\right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} log(1 - p(x_{i})) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}(\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} -log\left(1 + e^{\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i}}\right) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}(\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i}) \end{split}$$

We look for  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  that maximize the log-likelihood  $l(\hat{\beta}_0,\hat{\beta}_1)$ . To do so, we set the first order partial derivatives of  $l(\boldsymbol{\beta})$  to zero.

$$\frac{\partial l(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \beta_0} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - p(x_i)) = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial l(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \beta_1} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y_i - p(x_i)) = 0$$

There is no analytical solution to this problem.

- ▶ We can use the Newton-Raphson method.
- Newton-Raphson requires second-derivatives or Hessian matrix

$$\frac{\partial^2 l(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta} \partial \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathsf{T}}} = -\sum_{i=1}^n x_i x_i^{\mathsf{T}} p(x_i) (1 - p(x_i))$$

Starting with  $\beta^{old}$ , a single Newton-Raphson update is:

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^{new} = \boldsymbol{\beta}^{old} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 l(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta} \partial \boldsymbol{\beta}^\mathsf{T}}\right)^{-1} \frac{\partial l(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}}$$

where the derivatives are evaluated at  $\mathcal{B}^{old}$ 

The iteration can be compactly expressed in matrix form:

- Let y be the column vector of Y
- ▶ Let X be the  $n \times (p+1)$  input matrix
- Let  $\mathbf{p}$  be the *n*-vector of fitted probabilities with the *i*-th element  $p(x_i; \beta^{old})$
- Let **W** be an  $n \times n$  diagonal matrix of weights with *i*-th element  $p(x_i; \beta^{old})(1 p(x_i; \beta^{old}))$
- ▶ Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial l(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} &= \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{p}) \\ \frac{\partial^2 l(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta} \partial \boldsymbol{\beta}^\mathsf{T}} &= -\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X} \end{aligned}$$

The Newton-Raphson step is:

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{\beta}^{new} &= \boldsymbol{\beta}^{old} + (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{p}) \\ &= (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{W} (\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}^{old} + \mathbf{W}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{p})) \\ &= (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{z} \end{split}$$

where 
$$\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}^{old} + \mathbf{W^{-1}}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{p})$$

### MLE of the Logistic Regression

#### Newton-Raphson:

$$\beta^{t+1} = \beta^t - \left(\frac{\partial^2 l(\beta)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta'}\right)^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial l(\beta)}{\partial \beta}\right)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^{t+1} = \boldsymbol{\beta}^t + (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{p})$$

If z is viewed as a response and X is the input matrix,  $\beta^{new}$  is the solution to a weighted least squares problem:

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^{new} \longleftarrow \underset{\boldsymbol{\beta}}{argmin} \left\{ (\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{W} (\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) \right\}$$

z is referred to as the adjusted response; and the algorithm is referred to as iteratively reweighted least squares.

#### IRLS Pseudo Code

- 1.  $b^{old} \leftarrow 0$
- 2. Compute p by setting its elements to:

$$p(x_i) = \frac{e^{\mathbf{x}_i^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{b}^{\text{old}}}}{1 + e^{\mathbf{x}_i^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{b}^{\text{old}}}}$$

- 3. Compute the diagonal matrix **W** with the *i*-th diagonal element:  $p(x_i)(1-p(x_i))$ ,  $i=1,\ldots,n$
- 4.  $\mathbf{z} \longleftarrow \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}^{\text{old}} + \mathbf{W}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} \mathbf{p})$
- 5.  $\mathbf{b}^{\text{new}} \longleftarrow (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{z}$
- 6. Check whether  $b^{old}$  and  $b^{new}$  are close "enough", otherwise update  $b^{old} \leftarrow b^{new}$ , and go back to step 2.

### Computational Efficiency

Since W is an  $n \times n$  diagonal matrix, direct matrix operations with it may be very inefficient.

A modified pseudo code is provided next.

#### IRLS Pseudo Code

- 1.  $b^{old} \leftarrow 0$
- 2. Compute p by setting its elements to:

$$p(x_i) = \frac{e^{\mathbf{x}_i^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{b}^{\text{old}}}}{1 + e^{\mathbf{x}_i^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{b}^{\text{old}}}}$$

- 3. Compute the  $n \times (p+1)$  matrix  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}$  by multiplying the i-th row of matrix  $\mathbf{X}$  by  $p(x_i)(1-p(x_i)), \quad i=1,\ldots,n$
- 4.  $\mathbf{b}^{\text{new}} \longleftarrow \mathbf{b}^{\text{old}} + (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{y} \mathbf{p})$
- 5. Check whether  $b^{old}$  and  $b^{new}$  are close "enough", otherwise update  $b^{old} \leftarrow b^{new}$ , and go back to step 2.

# More about the Parameters

#### Variance of estimators

$$\hat{V}(\hat{\beta}) = \left[ -\frac{\partial l(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \right]_{\beta = \hat{\beta}}^{-1} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \hat{\mathbf{V}} \mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

where:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \cdots & x_1 \\ 1 & \cdots & x_2 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \cdots & x_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\mathbf{V}} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{p}_1(1 - \hat{p}_1) & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \hat{p}_n(1 - \hat{p}_n) \end{bmatrix}$$

## Interpreting $\beta_1$

- Interpreting what  $\beta_1$  means is not straightforward because we are predicting P(Y|X) not Y.
- If  $\beta_1 = 0$ , this means that there is no relationship between Y and X.
- ▶ If  $\beta_1 > 0$ , this means that when X gets larger, the probability that Y = 1 gets larger too.
- ▶ If  $\beta_1 < 0$ , this means that when X gets larger, the probability that Y = 1 gets smaller.
- ▶ But how much bigger or smaller depends on where we are on the slope.

#### Are coefficients significant?

To see whether  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  are significant, we use a Z-test instead of a t-test.

```
log_reg <- glm(chd ~ age, data = dat, family = "binomial")
summary(log_reg)</pre>
```

#### Are coefficients significant?

```
Call:
glm(formula = chd ~ age, family = "binomial", data = dat)
Deviance Residuals:
   Min 10 Median 30 Max
-1.9718 -0.8456 -0.4576 0.8253 2.2859
Coefficients:
          Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -5.30945 1.13365 -4.683 2.82e-06 ***
age
      Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 136.66 on 99 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 107.35 on 98 degrees of freedom
ATC: 111.35
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

#### Making Predictions

Suppose an individual has an age of 27. What is the probability of having CHD?

$$\hat{p}(27) = \frac{e^{\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X}}{1 + e^{\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X}} = \frac{e^{-5.309 + 0.11 \times 27}}{1 + e^{-5.309 + 0.11 \times 27}} = 0.0899$$

The predicted probability of CHD for an 27yr individual is less than 1%

#### References

► The origins and development of the logit model by J.S. Cramer (2003)

```
http://www.cambridge.org/resources/0521815886/1208_default.pdf
```

- ▶ **Applied Logistic Regression** by Hosmer and Lemeshow (2000).
- ▶ Data Mining and Statistics for Decision Making by Stephane Tuffery (2011). Chapter 11: Classification and prediction methods. Wiley.

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